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GILDERSLEEVE'S

LATIN GRAMMAR



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THIRD EDITION, REVISED AND ENLARGED

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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 Reisic'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' Antibarbarus der lateinischen Sprache (6th edition, by Schmalz, 1886).

For the accentuation and pronunciation of Latin we have also Corssen'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 Windekilde, 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 Draeger'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:

Wölffelin's numerous articles in the Archiv; Thielmann's articles in the Archiv on habere with Perfect Participle Passive, and on the Reciprocal Relation; Landeraf'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); Zimmermann'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 Weile'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 RIBBECK; 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 RIBBECK. 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.



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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,-I. 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 Cn. (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 t. In early Latin v was represented by u (occasionally by i or oi), and t 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 (zēta).

Vowels.

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

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

⇒, by preference short;

⇒, by preference long.

3. Sounds of the Vowels.

 $\bar{a} = a$ in father. $\bar{o} = o$ in bone.

 $\bar{e} = e$ in prey. $\bar{u} = \infty$ in moon.

ī = i in caprice. ÿ = u in sûr (French), German ti.

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 ē, which took its place completely in the third century A. D. Hence arose frequent variations in spelling: as glaeba and glēba, sod; so oboedire and obēdire, obey; facuum (focuum) and fēnum, hay.

ae = aye (ăh-eh). ei = ei in feint (drawled).

oe = oy in boy. eu = eu in Spanish deuda (ĕh-oo).

au = ou in our. (ui = we, almost).

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

5. The sign ·· (Diærĕsis—Greek=separation) over the second vowel shows that each sound is to be pronounced separately; āër, air; Oenomaüs, 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

1, 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), qutturals.

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

Mutes are further divided into

Tenuēs (thin, smooth): p, t, k, c, qu, hard (surd).

Mediae (middle): b, d, g, soft (sonant).

[Aspīrātae (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, q, as in anchor, anguish.

 $\mathbf{Qu} = \mathbf{kw}$ (nearly); before \mathbf{o} , $\mathbf{qu} = \mathbf{c}$. In early Latin \mathbf{qu} was not followed by \mathbf{u} . Later, when \mathbf{o} was weakened to \mathbf{u} , \mathbf{qu} was replaced by \mathbf{c} ; thus \mathbf{quom} became \mathbf{cum} . Still later \mathbf{qu} replaced \mathbf{c} , yielding \mathbf{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 Oû; so Οὐαλέριος = Valerius.

Phonetic Variations in Vowels and Consonants.

8. Vowels.

I. 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.—I. In the second part of compound words, and in reduplicated words, the root-vowel & is weakened to &, which usually passes over into I in open syllables (11, R.), and often to I before 1 and labial mutes: con-scendo (scando); con-cido (cado); de-sulto (salto); fefelli (fallo).

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

3. In or before suffixes, & becomes I: domi-tus (doma-).

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

E.—I. In the second part of compound words, root vowel & is usually retained in a close (11, R.) syllable, and weakened to I in an open syllable; but it is invariably retained before r: In-flectō (flectō); obtineō (teneō); ad-vertō (vertō). 2. In or before suffixes, and in the final syllable of a word, it also becomes I: geni-tor (gene-); un-decim (decem).

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

0.—I. In composition final stem-vowel & is usually weakened to I; before labials sometimes to U; agri-cola (agro-); auru-fex (usually auri-fex).

2. In suffixes, and in final syllables, it is weakened to I: amici-tia (amico-); gracili-s (also gracilu-s).

U.—In composition final stem-vowel ŭ is usually weakened to ĭ; 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 I, but often there is no change; au is occasionally changed to ū: ex-quirō (quaerō); 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; princeps (for princeps, from princeps); pergo (for perrego); ut (uti); neu (neve).

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 I 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 ŭ, less often o or e: adulēscēns and adolēscēns; vulgus and volgus; decumus (decem); compare tempus with temporis; peperī (from pariō), etc.

9. Consonants.

r. 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.

Scrip-tum for scrib-tum (regressive partial); ac-codere for ad-codere (regressive complete); cur-sum for cur-tum (progressive partial); celer-rimus for celer-simus (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 labials p, b, m, becomes m; rēc-tum (for rēg-tum); scrīp-sī (for scrīb-sī); seg-mentum (for sec-mentum); som-nus (for sop-nus); prīn-ceps (for prīm-ceps).

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

- (b) After 1 and r, t of the suffixes tor, tus, tum, becomes s by progressive assimilation: cur-sum (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); cēs-sī (for cēd-sī); corōlla (corōna), etc.
- 4. Prepositions.—Ab takes the form ā before m or v, and in ā-fui; appears as au in au-ferō, au-fugiō; 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 ā. Ante appears rarely as anti. Cum appears as com before b, m, p; con before c, d, f, g, i, q, s, v; cō before gn, n; assimilated sometimes before 1 and r. Ex becomes ō 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 l, 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-mittō, o-periō, obs in obs-olēscō, and os in ostendō. Sub is assimilated before c, f, g, p, r; appears as sus in a few words, as sus-cipiō; occasionally sū before s, as sū-spiciō. Trāns sometimes becomes trā before d, i(j), n; trān 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; di before consonants, except c, p, q, t, s, followed by a vowel, when it is usually unchanged. The d 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-lā-ris (for singu-lā-lis); merī-diē (for medī-diē).

Note.—This principle often regulates the use of -brum or -bulum, and of -crum or -culum in word formation (181, 6): compare periculum 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 II are simplified; II 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); misī (for mis-si); vīlla and vīlicus; but currus and cŭrūlis.

Note.—X is retained, even after 1 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); pāstor (for pāsctor); āiō (for āhiō); nātus (for gnātus, retained in early Latin, rarely later); lātus (for tlātus), etc.
- 7. Epenthesis.—Between m and 1, m and s, m and t, a p is generated: ex-em-p-lum (ex-imō); cōm-p-sī (cōmō); ēm-p-tus (emō).
- 8. Metathesis or transposition of consonants occurs sometimes in Latin, especially in Perfect and Supine forms: cerno; Pf. cre-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-brī, books; a-mnis, river.

Remarks.—1. The combinations incapable of beginning a word are (a) doubled consonants: sic-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-igō, I drive off; rēs-pūblica, commonwealth.
- 11. The last syllable of a word is called the *ultimate* (ultima, *last*); the next to the last the *penult* (paene, *almost*, and ultima); the one before the penult, the *antepenult* (ante, *before*, and paenultima).

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

Quantity.

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

REMARKS.—I. A vowel before nf, ns, gm, gn, is long by nature: infelix, unlucky; mēnsa, table; āgmen, train; āgnus, lamb. In many cases, however, the n has disappeared from the written word; so in some substantival terminations: ōs (Acc. Pl., 2d decl.), ūs (Acc. Pl., 4th decl.); in adjectives in ōsus (fōrmōsus, shapely, for fōrmōnsus); in the numerical termination ēsimus (= ēnsimus). See 95, N. 5.

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

Note.—From about 134 to about 74 B. C. ā, ē, ū, were often represented by aa, ee, uu; î by ei. From the time of Augustus to the second century î was indicated by a lengthened I. From Sulla's time until the third century long vowels (rarely, however, I) 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: ars, art; collum, neck; abrumpo, I break off; per mare, through the sea; nex, murder.

3. A syllable is said to be *short* when it contains a short vowel, which is not followed by two or more consonants: lŏcus, place; tăbūla, picture.

REMARK.—A vowel is short by nature when followed by another vowel, or by nt, nd: deus, God; innocentia, innocence; amandus, to be loved.

13. A syllable ending in a short vowel, followed by a mute with 1 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. r. Dissyllabic words have the accent or stress on the penult: équös (= 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: mandare, to commit; mandere, to chew; integrum, entire; circumdare, to surround; superstites, survivors.

REMARKS.—I. The little appendages (enclitics), que, ve, ne, add an accent to the ultimate of words accented on the antepenult: lúmináque, and lights; flúmináve, or rivers; vómeréne? from a ploughshare? Dissyllables and words accented on the penult are said to shift their accent to the final syllable before an enclitic: egómet, I indeed; amāréve, 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: calefácit, vēnumdáre,
- 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: Vergîli.

Note.—Other exceptions will be noted as they occur. In the older language the accent was not bounded by the antepenult: accipiō (accipiō), concutiō (concutiō).

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; donum, a gift.
- 2. The Adjective adds a quality to the Substantive: bonus vir, $a \mod man$.
- 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.—I. 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: āh! 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 (inflexio, 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: Horātius, Horace; Neāpolis, 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: Rōmulus; Iūppiter; vir, man; equus, horse. Feminine: Cornēlia: 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; Athos, Mount Athos.

REMARKS.—I. 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, Īda, Ossa (usually), Oeta (usually), Rhodopē, Pholoē, Pÿrēnē, and Carambis, Pelōris. Pēlion and Sōracte (usually), and names of mountains in a (G. ōrum), as Maenala (G. Maenalōrum), are neuter.
- II. Names of countries (terrae, fem.), islands (insulae, fem.), cities (urbes, fem.), plants (plantae, fem.), and trees

(arborës, fem.), are feminine: Aegyptus, Egypt; Rhodus, Rhodes; pirus, a pear-tree; abiës, a fir-tree.

REMARKS.—I. Names of countries and islands in us (os) (G. i) are masculine, except Aegyptus, Chius, Chersonësus, Cyprus, Dêlos, Ēpīrus, 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: Abydus and Abydum, 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.); sūber, cork-tree; tūber, mushroom.
- III. All indeclinable substantives, and all words and phrases treated as indeclinable substantives, are neuter: fās, right; ā longum, ā long; seīre tuum, thy knowing; trīste valē, a sad "farewell."
- 21. I. Substantives which have but one form for masculine and feminine are said to be of common gender: civis, citizen (male or female); comes, companion; iūdex, judge.
- 2. Substantīva mobilia 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, victrīx, 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 (ἐπίκοινα, utrīque 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. I. 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 Cāsūs Rēctī, or Independent Cases, and Cāsūs Oblīquī, or Dependent Cases. Nominative and Vocative are Cāsūs Rēctī, the rest Cāsūs Oblīquī.
- 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 (ĕ, ēl, ī, ĕ). 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-ομαι, πτερόν; 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. G. -um (om); -rum (som).
D. -i (-\vec{c}, -ei). D. -bus; -is.
Ac. -m, -em. Ac. -s (for -ns); n. -a.
Ab. Wanting (or -d); -e. Ab. -bus; -is.

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.

I.	ă (ā).	ae.
II.	ŏ.	ī.
III.	ĭ, ū, a consonant.	ĭs.
IV.	ŭ.	ūs.
v.	ē.	ěī.

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

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

SINGULAR.

	I.	II.	III.
N.	a.,	us (os); wanting; um (om).	s; wanting.
G.	ae (ās, āī, ai).	I (e1).	is (us, es).
D.	ae (āī).	ō (oi).	ī (ēī, i).
Ac.	am.	um (om).	em, im.
V.	a.	e; wanting; um (om).	8.
Ab.	ā (ād).	ō (ōd).	e, ī (ēd, īd).

V.

IV.

us: ũ.

		,	
	G.	ūs (uos, uis).	ěī, ē (es).
	D.	ui, ū (uēi).	ĕī, ē.
	Ac.	um; ū.	em.
	Ab.	ū.	ē.
		PLURAL.	
	I.	II.	III.
N. V.	ae.	ī (oe, ē, ēi); ă.	ēs (ēis, īs); a, ia.
G.	ārum.	um (om), ōrum.	um, ium.
D. A.	īs (ēis); ābus.	īs (ēīs), ibus.	ibus.
Ac.	ās.	ōs; ă.	īs, ēs; a, ia.
		IV.	v.
	N. V.	ūs (ues, uus); ua.	ēs.
	G.	uum.	ērum.
	D. A.	ubus, ibus.	ēbus.
	Ac.	tīs; ua.	ēs.

Note.-Final -s and -m are frequently omitted in early inscriptions.

28. General Rules of Declension.

I. For the strong cases:

N. V.

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

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 ă, which is weakened from an original ā. The Nominative has no ending.

Sc.—N.	mēnsa (f.),	the table,	a table.
G.	mēnsae,	of the table,	of a table.
D.	mēnsae,	to, for the table,	to, for a table.
Ac.	mēnsam,	the table,	a table.
V.	mēnsa,	O table!	table!
Ab.	mēnsā,	from, with, by, the table,	from, with, by, a table.

the tables. tables. PL.—N. mēnsae. of the tables, of tables. G. mēnsārum. to, for the tables, D. mēnsīs. to, for tables. the tables. mēnsās. tables. Ac. V. O tables! tables ! mēnsae.

Ab. mēnsīs, from, with, by, the tables, from, with, by, tables.

REMARKS.—I. 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 OF LIVY) only in the form familiās, of a family, in combination with pater, father, māter, mother, filius, son, filia, daughter, viz.: paterfamiliās, māterfamiliās, filius familiās, filia familiās.

- 2. The Loc. Sing. is like the Genitive: Romae, 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 as in early Latin.

- 2. A form of the Gen. Sing. in \$\bar{a}\bar{1}\$, subsequent to that in \$\bar{a}\bar{s}\$, is found in early inscriptions, and not unfrequently in early poets, but only here and there in classical poetry (Verg., \$A_1, 3, 354, etc.)\$ and never in classical prose.
 - 3. The early ending of the Dat. \$1 (sometimes contracted into \$), is found occa-

sionally in inscriptions throughout the whole period of the language.

- 4. The older ending of the Abl., \$\bar{a}d\$, belongs exclusively to early Latin. Inscriptions show \$\bar{e}\$ is for is in Dat. and Abl. Pl., and once \$\bar{a}s\$ 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 \check{o} , which in the classical period is weakened to \check{u} , except after \check{u} (vowel or consonant), where \check{o} is retained until the first century A.D. In combination with the case-endings it merges into \bar{o} or disappears altogether. In the Vocative (except in neuters) it is weakened to \check{e} .

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

32. 1. 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; iūniperus, juniper; mōrus, mulberry; numerus, number; taurus, bull; vīrus, 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 ferō, I bear, and gerō, I carry, as, sīgnifer, standard-bearer, armiger, armor-bearer.

Also Iber and Celtiber (names of nations) have in the Plural Iberi and Celtiberi.

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

Sg.	—N.	hortus,	puer,	ager,	bellum,
	G.	horti,	puerī,	agrī,	bellī,
	D.	hortō,	puerō,	agrō,	bellō,
	Ac.	hortum,	puerum,	agrum,	bellum,
	V.	horte,	puer,	ager,	bellum,
	Ab.	hortō.	puerō.	agrō.	bellō.
PL.	—N.	hortī,	pueri,	agrī,	bella,
	G.	hortōrum,	puerōrum,	agrōrum,	bellorum,
	D.	hortīs,	pueris,	agrīs,	bellīs,
	Ac.	hortōs,	pueros,	agrōs,	bella,
	V.	hortī,	puerī,	agrī,	bella,
	Ab.	hortis.	pueris.	agrīs.	bellis.

REMARKS.—I. Stems in io have Gen. Sing. for the most part in I until the first century A. D., without change of accent: ingénI (N. ingenium), of genius, Vergíli, of Vergil. See 15, R. 3.

- 2. Proper names in -ius (stems in -io) have Voc. in I, without change of accent: Antōni, Tulli, Gāi, Vergīli. Fīlius, son, and genius, genius, form their Voc. in like manner: fīli, geni. In solemn discourse -us of the Nom. is employed also for the Vocative. (See Liv. 1. 24, 7.) So regularly deus, God!
- 3. The Loc. Sing. ends in I (apparent Genitive), as RhodI, at Rhodes, TarentI, at Tarentum.
- 4. In the Gen. Pl. -um instead of -ōrum is found in words denoting coins and measures; as, nummum, of moneys (also -ōrum) = sōstertium, of sesterces; dēnārium (occasionally -ōrum); talentum (occasionally -ōrum); tetrachmum; modium (also -ōrum), of measures; iūgerum; medimnum; stadium (also -ōrum). 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: Delphis, at Delphi.

6. Deus. God. is irregular. In addition to the forms already mentioned, it has in Nom. Pl. dei, di, di; in Dat. and Abl. Pl. deis, diīs, dīs.

Notes .- 1. The ending - I for - I in the Gen. Sing. is found only in inscriptions subsequent to the third Punic War.

2. Puer, boy, forms Voc. puere in early Latin.

3. The original Abl. ending -d belongs to early inscriptions.

4. In early inscriptions the Nom. Pl. ends occasionally in es, eis, is: magistres (for magistri) vireis (for viri). The rare endings oe and e (ploirume for plurimi) and the not uncommon ending el belong to the same period.

5. Inscriptions often show eis for is 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, fagus, beech; pirus, 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; vīrus, venom; vulgus, the rabble (sometimes masculine).

THIRD DECLENSION.

- 35. I. 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, { 1. Ending in a P-mute, b, p.
2. Ending in a K-mute, g, c.
3. Ending in a T-mute, d, t.

II. - Vowel Stems. 1. Ending in i.

2. Ending in u,

(Compare the Fourth

Declension.)

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 ă.

Notes on the Cases.

37. Singular.

- 1. GENITIVE.—In old Latin we find on inscriptions the endings -us (Gr. -os) and -es.
- 2. Dative.—The early endings of the Dat. are -51 and -5. These were succeeded by 1 after the second century B. C., 5 being retained in formulas like iūrē dīcundō (Liv., 42, 28, 6), in addition to the usual 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 nsage see 57, R. r.
- 4. ABLATIVE.—In inscriptions of the second and first centuries B. C. we find -eī, -ī, and -e. Bnt -eī soon disappears, leaving e and ī. In general e is the ending for the consonant stems and ī for the vowel. Bnt as in the Acc., so in the Abl., the e makes inroads on the i, 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, -ātis: hērēditātī (200 B. C.), actātī (rare); lītī (rare), supellēctilī (classical; early e); also the liquid stems which syncopate in the Gen., as imber. The ending -d is rare and confined to early inscriptions.
- 5. Locative.—Originally coincident in form with the Dat., the Loc. of the Third Declension was finally blended with Abl., both in form and in syntax. In the following proper names the old form is frequently retained: Karthāginī, at Carthage, Sulmonī, at Sulmo, Lacedaemonī, at Lacedaemon, Sicyonī, Troezēnī, Anxurī, Tīburī. Also Acheruntī. In the case of all except Anxur, Tībur, Acherūns, the regular form is more common.

The following Loc. forms of common nonns are found: heri, lūcī, noctū (principally in early Latin), orbī (Crc.), peregrī (early Latin), praefiscinī (early Latin), rūrī, temperī (the usnal form in early Latin), vesperī. In all cases the Abl. form in e is also found.

38. Plural.

1. Nominative.—Early Latin shows -61s, -1s in the masc, and feminine. The latter was usually confined to vowel stems, but also occurs occasionally in consonant stems (ioudicis). Later the ending was -5s for all kinds of stems.

- 2. Genitive.—The ending -um, uniting with the vowel in vowel stems, gives -inm. But many apparently consonant stems show their original vowel form by taking -ium; (1) Many fem. stems in -tāt- (N. tās) with -ium as well as -um. (2) Monosyllabic and polysyllabic stems in -t, -c, 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 -51s. The classical form is -5s for consonant and -1s for vowel stems. Bnt -5s begins to drive out -1s in some vowel stems and wholly snpplants it in the early Empire. On the other hand, some apparently original consonant stems show -1s in early Latin, but the cases are not always certain.

I.-CONSONANT STEMS.

A.-Liquid Stems.

- 1. LIQUID STEMS IN 1.
- 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: sal (with compensatory lengthening), salt; Punic proper names like Adherbal, Hannibal.
- 2. -il, -ilis: mūgil (mūgilis is late), mullet; pugil (pugilis in Varro), boxer; vigil, watchman. -il, -ilis: sīl, ochre; Tanaquil (with shortened vowel), a proper name.
 - 3 -ol, -olis: sol, sun.
 - 4. -ul, -ulis: consul, consul; exsul, exile; praesul, dancer.
- B. Two neuter substantives with stems in -ll, one of which is lost in the Nominative: mel, mellis, honey; fel, fellis, gall.

Sg.—N. consul, consul (m.). Pl.—N. consules, the consuls.
G. consulis, G. consulum,
D. consult, D. consules,
Ac. consulem, Ac. consules,
V. consul, V. consules,
Ab. consule. Ab. consules.

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

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

- 2. Stems in -Il are neuter.
 - 2. LIQUID STEMS IN m.
- 40. Nominative with s. One example only: hiem(p)s, winter (f.); Gen., hiem-is, Dat., hiem-i, 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 stemcharacteristic in the Nominative and change a preceding i to e.

The following varieties appear:

1. -ēn, -ēnis: the masculine substantives lien, splen, spleen; renes

(pl.), kidneys.

- 2. -ō, -inis: homō, man; nēmō, no one; turbō, whirlwind; Apollō, Apollō. Also substantives in -dō (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, tībīcen, tubicen. Also many neuters: as nōmen, name.
- 3. -o (in early Latin \bar{o} , in classical period weakened), - $\bar{o}nis$: le \bar{o} , lion; and about seventy others. -o, -onis: Saxo, Saxon (late).
- 4. Irregular formations: carö, G. carnis, flesh; Aniö, G. Aniönis, a river; Něriö, G. Něriěnis, a proper name. Sanguïs, blood, and pollis, flour, drop the stem characteristic and add s to form nominative; G. sanguinis, pollinis.

42.	MASCULINE.	FEMININE.	NEUTER.
Sc.—N.	leŏ, lion (m.).	imāgō, likeness (f.).	nomen, name (n.).
G.	leōnis,	imāginis,	nōminis,
D.	leōnī,	imāginī,	nōminī,
Ac.	leōnem,	imāginem,	nōmen,
V.	leŏ,	imāgō,	nōmen,
Ab.	leōne,	imāgine,	nōmine,
Pr.—N.	leōnēs, •	imāginēs,	nōmina,
G.	leōnum,	imāginum,	nōminum,
D.	leōnibus,	imāginibus,	nōminibus,
Ac.	leōnēs,	imāginēs,	nōmina,
V.	leōnēs,	imāginēs,	nōmina,
Ab.	leonibus.	imāginibus.	nōminibus.

Note.—Early Latin shows homonem, 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; ōrdō, rank; harpagō, grappling-hook; ligō, mattock; margō, border (occasionally fem. in late Latin); and concrete nouns like pūgiō, dagger, titiō, firebrand, vespertīliō, bat.

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

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, Hamilear; the neuters baccar, a plant; iubar, radiance; nectar, nectar. -ār, -āris: Lār, a deity. -ār, āris: Nār (Enn., Verg.), a river. -ār, arris: fār (n.) spelt.
- 2. -er, -eris: acipēnser, a fish; agger, mound; ānser, goose; asser, pole; aster, a plant; cancer, the disease; carcer, prison; later, brick; mulier (f.), woman; passer, sparrow; tuber (m. and f.), apple; vesper, evening (68, 10); vomer, ploughshare (47, 2). The neuters acer, maple; cadāver, dead body; cicer, pea; lāser, a plant; laver, a plant; papāver, poppy; piper, pepper; sīler, willow; siser, skirret; sūber, cork; tūber, tumor; ūber, teat; [verber], thong. -er, -ris: four words, accipiter, hawk; frāter, brother; māter, mother; pater, father. Also some proper names, as Diēspiter, Falacer, and the names of the months, September, October, November, December. Also, imber, shower, linter, skiff, ūter, bag, venter, belly, which were probably vowel stems originally (see 45, R. 1). -ēr, -eris: āēr, air; aethēr, ether. -ēr, -ēris: vēr, spring.
- 3. -or, -oris: arbor (f.), tree (stem originally in -os); some Greek words in -tor, as rhētor, rhetorician; slave names in -por, as Mārcipor; the neuters: ador, spelt; aequor, sea; marmor, marble. -or, -ōris: very many abstract words, as amor, love; color, colour; clāmor, outery; soror, sister; uxor, wife; these may come from stems in ōs (see 47, 4); also verbals in -tor, as victor.
- 4. -ur, -uris: augur, augur; furfur, bran; turtur, dove; vultur, vulture; lemurēs (pl.), ghosts, and a few proper names; also the neuters fulgur, lightning; guttur, throat; murmur, murmur; sulfur, sulphur. -ūr, -ūris; fūr, thief.
- 5. Four neuters, ebur, ivory; femur, thigh; ieeur, liver; röbur, oak, show Gen. in -oris; two of these, femur, ieeur, have also the irregular forms feminis and ieeineris, ieeinoris, ioeinoris. Iter, way, has G. itineris; and supellex, furniture, has G. supellectilis.

45 .	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
N.	labor, toil (m.),	laborēs,	pater, father (m.),	patrēs,
G.	labōris,	laborum,	patris,	patrum,
D.	labōrī,	laboribus,	patri,	patribus,
Ac	. labōrem,	laborēs,	patrem,	patrēs,
V.	labor,	laborēs,	pater,	patrēs,
Ab	. labore.	laboribus.	patre.	patribus.

REMARKS.—I. Imber, shower, linter, skiff, ater, bag, venter, belly, show the vowel nature of their stems by having Gen. Pl. in -ium. Imber has also sometimes Abl. Sing. in I. (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 -ōr, 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 Nominatives in -ōs are still found in early Latin; and some are still retained in the classical times: arbōs (regularly in Verg., frequently in Lucr., Hor., Ov.), honōs (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, spelt; aequor, sea; cadāver, dead body; cicer, pea; iter, way; lāser, a plant; laver, a plant; marmor, marble; papāver, poppy; piper, pepper; siler, willow; siser, skirret; sūber, cork; tūber, tumor; ūber, teat; vēr, 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. $-\bar{a}s$, -aris: mās, male. $-\bar{a}s$, $-\bar{a}sis$: vās (n.), vessel. $-\bar{a}s$, -assis: ās (m.), a copper (vowel long in Nom. by compensatory lengthening), and some of its compounds (with change of vowel), as bes, semis.
- 2. -ēs, -eris: Cerēs, Ceres. -is, -eris: cinis, ashes; cucumis, cucumber (see 57, R. I), pulvis (occasionally pulvis), dust; vōmis, ploughshare (see 45, R. 2). -us, -eris: Venus, and occasionally pignus, pledge (see 4).
 - 3. -īs, -īris: glīs, dormouse.
- 4. $-\bar{o}s$, $-\bar{o}sis$: old Latin ianitōs, labōs, clāmōs (see 45, N.). -os, -ossis: os (n.), bone. $-\bar{o}s$, $-\bar{o}ris$: flōs, flower; glōs, sister-in-law; lepōs, charm; mōs (m.), custom; -ōs (n.), mouth; rōs, dew. -us, -oris: corpus, body; decus, grace; pīgnus, pledge, and twelve others; on rōbus (see 45, R. 2).
- 5. -us, -uris: Ligus, Ligurian. -ūs, -ūris: tellūs (f.), earth; mūs (m.), mouse; the neuters: crūs, leg; iūs, right; pūs, pus; rūs, country; tūs, incense.
 - 6. aes, aeris, brass.

48. SINGULAR. PLURAL. N. A. V. genus, kind (n.), genera, SINGULAR. PLURAL. corpus, body (n.), corpora, G. generis, generum. corporis. corporum. generibus. D. generi. corpori. corporibus. Ab. genere. generibus. corpore. corporibus.

REMARK.—Ās, a copper, and os, bone, form the Gen. Pl. in ium, after the usage of vowel stems (see 38, 2). So also mūs, mouse.

49. Rule of Gender.—Masculine are substantives in is (-eris), and -ōs, -ōris: except ōs, mouth (G. ōris), 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); mūs, mouse (G. mūris).

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. -abs, -abis: trabs, beam; Arabs. -aps, -apis: [daps], feast.

2. -ēbs, ēbis: plēbs, commons.

3. -eps, -ipis: princeps, chief, and fourteen others. -ips, -ipis: stips, dole.

4. -ops, -opis: [ops], power.

5. -eps, upis: auceps, fowler, and the old Latin manceps, contractor.

6. -rbs, -rbis: urbs, city.

7. -rps, -rpis: stirps, stock.

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

52. Stems in a K-mute.

I. -ax, -acis: fax, torch, and many Greek words in -ax, Atax, proper name. -āx, -ācis: fornāx, furnace; līmāx, snail; pāx, peace; and Greek cordāx, thōrāx.

- 2. -ex, -ecis: faenisex, mower; nex, murder; [prex], prayer; [resex], stump. -ēx, -ēcis: āllēx (also āllēc), brine; vervēx, wether. -ex, -egis: grex, herd; aquilex, water-inspector. -ēx, -ēgis:
- interrex; lex, law; rex, king.

 3. -ex, -icis: auspex, soothsayer, and about forty others. -ex,
 -igis: remex, rower. -ix, icis: cervix, neck, and about thirty
 others; verbals in -ix, as victrix. -ix, -icis: appendix, appendix, and
- -igis: rēmex, rower.
 -īx, īcis: cervīx, neck, and about thirty others; verbals in -īx, as victrīx.
 -ix, -icis: appendix, appendix, and ten others.
 -ix, -igis: strix, screech-owl; also many foreign proper names, as Dumnorix, which may, however, be forms in -īx, -īgis.
- 4. -ōx, -ōcis: celōx, cutter; vōx, voice. -ox, -ocis: Cappadox, Cappadocian. -ox, -ogis: Allobrox, Allobrogian.
- 5. -ux, -ucis: crux, cross; dux, leader; nux, nut. $-\bar{u}x$, $-\bar{u}cis$: $l\bar{u}x$, light; $ball\bar{u}x$, gold-dust; $Poll\bar{u}x$. -ux, -ugis: $c\bar{o}niux$ (-unx), spouse. $-\bar{u}x$, $-\bar{u}gis$: $fr\bar{u}x$, fruit.
- 6. -rx, -rcts: arx, citadel; merx, wares. -lx, -lcis: falx, sickle; calx, heel, lime. -nx, -ncis: lanx, dish; compounds of -urx, as quincunx, and a few names of animals; phalanx has G. phalangis.
- 7. Unclassified: nix (G. nivis), snow; bōs (G. bovis; see 71), ox; [faux] (G. faucis), throat; faex (G. faecis), dregs.

Sg.—N.	rēx,	king (m.).	PL	-rēgēs,
G.	rēgis,			rēgum,
D.	rēgī,			rēgibus,
Ac.	rēgem,			rēgēs,
V.	rēx,			rēgēs,
Ab.	rēge,			rēgibus.

53. Stems in a T-mute

- 1. -ās, -ātis: many feminine abstracts, as aetās, age; some proper names, as Maecēnās. -as, -atis: anas, duck. -as, -adis: vas, bail; lampas, torch.
- 2. -es, -etis: indiges, patron deity; interpres, interpreter; praepes, bird; seges, crop; teges, mat. -ēs, -etis: abiēs, fir; ariēs, ram; pariēs, wall. -ēs, -ētis: quiēs, quiet; requiēs, rest. -ēs, -edis: pēs, foot, and its compounds. -ēs, -ēdis: hērēs, heir; mercēs, hire.
- 3. -es, -itis: antistes, overseer; caespes, sod, and some fifteen others. -es, -idis: obses, hostage; praeses, protector. -īs, -ītis: IIs, suit. -is, -idis: capis, bowl; cassis, helmet, and nearly forty others, mostly Greek.
- 4. $-\bar{o}s$, $-\bar{o}tis$: $c\bar{o}s$, whetstone; $d\bar{o}s$, dowry; $nep\bar{o}s$, grandson; $sacerd\bar{o}s$, priest. $-\bar{o}s$, $-\bar{o}dis$: $c\bar{u}st\bar{o}s$, guard.
- 5. ūs, ūtis: glūs, glue, and some abstracts: iuventūs, youth; salūs, safety; senectūs, old age; servitūs, servitude; virtūs, manliness.
- -us, -udis: pecus, sheep. - $\bar{u}s$, - $\bar{u}dis$: incūs, anvil; palūs, marsh; subscūs, tenon.

6. -aes, -aedis: praes, surety. -aus, -audis: laus, praise; fraus, fraud.

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

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

(G. capius), nead, lac (G. lacus), mun.

SG

a.—N.	aetās, age (f.). PL	-aetātēs,	SGpēs, foot (m.). PL	-pedēs,
G.	aetātis,	aetātum,	pedis,	pedum,
D.	aetāti,	aetātibus,	pedi,	pedibus,
Ac.	aetātem,	aetātēs,	pedem,	pedēs,
V.	aetās,	aetātēs,	pēs,	pedēs,
Ab.	aetāte,	aetātibus.	pede,	pedibus.

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: urbium, of cities; arcium, of citadels; montium, of mountains; partium, of parts; noctium, of the nights. But -um is also found in gentum (Attius), partum (Ennius); so always opum.

Monosyllabic mute stems, with characteristic preceded by a long vowel or diphthong, vary: dot-ium, lit-ium, fauc-ium, 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 adulo-scentium (-um), amantium (-um), Infantium (-um), parentum (-ium), serpentium (-um), torrentium (-um); rudentum (-ium); but only quadrantum.

Of other polysyllabic stems feminine stems in -āt have frequently both -um and -ium, as aetātum and aetātium, cīvitātum and cīvitātium, etc.; the rest have usually -um: but artifex, (h)aruspex, extispex, iūdex, supplex, cōniux, rēmex, and usually fornāx have -ium. Forceps, manceps, mūniceps, prīnceps have -um. Palūs has usually palūdium.

Notes.—1. The accusative lentim from [lens] is occasionally found, and partim from pars, as an adverb.

2. Sporadic ablatives in -i occur as follows: animanti (Cic.), bidenti (Lucr.), tridenti (Sil., Verg.), capiti, consonanti (gram.), hērēdi (Inscr.), lēgi (inscr.), lenti (Titin., Col.), lūci (early), menti (Col.), occipiti (Pers., Aus.), pāci (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, -ex, -ix, and -unx; except cortex, bark, forfex, shears, frutex, shrub, imbrex, tile, latex, fluid, obex, bolt, silex, flint, varix, varicose vein, which are sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine; and faex, dregs, forpex, tongs, lex, law, nex, slaughter, videx, 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; pariēs, wall; lapis, stone.

Masculines in -ns are: dēns, tooth, and its compounds; fons, spring; mons, mountain; pons, 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 1 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. $-\bar{e}s$, -is: 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. —, -is: 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.

		M.	F.	F.	N.	N.
Sq.	-N.	collis, hill.	turris, tower.	vulpēs, fox.	mare, sea.	animal, living being.
	G.	collis,	turris,	vulpis,	maris,	animālis,
	D.	collī,	turrī,	vulpī,	marī,	animālī,
	Ac.	collem,	turrim(em),	vulpem,	mare,	animal,
	v.	collis,	turris,	vulpēs,	mare,	animal,
	Ab.	colle,	turrī(e),	vulpe,	marī,	animālī,
PL.	-N.	collēs,	turrēs,	vulpēs,	maria,	animālia,
	G.	collium,	turri-um,	vulpium,	marum,	animālium,
	D.	collibus,	turri-bus,	vulpibus,	maribus,	animālibus,
	Ac.	collis(ēs),	turris(ēs),	vulpīs(ēs),	maria,	animālia,
	v.	collēs,	turrēs,	vulpēs,	maria,	animālia,
	Ab.	collibus.	turri-bus.	vulpibus.	maribus.	animālibus.

- 57. Remarks.—I. The proper ending of the Acc. Sing. -im, is retained always in amussis, būris, cucumis (see 47, 2), fūtis, mephītis, rāvis, rūmis, sitis, tussis, vīs; and in names of towns and rivers in -is, as Neāpolis, Tiberis; usually in febris, puppis, pelvis, restis, secūris, turris; occasionally in bipennis, clāvis, crātis, cutis, len(ti)s (see 54, N. I), 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, cīvis, clāssis, fīnis (in formulæ), fūstis, ignis (in phrases), orbis, sēmentis, strigilis, unguis; occasionally in anguis, bīlis, 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; Aprīlis (sc. mēnsis, month), and all the other months of the Third Declension: Abl., annāli, nātāli, Aprīli, Septembrī, etc. But iuvenis, young man; and aedīlis, aedīle, have Abl., iuvene, aedīle; adjectives used as proper nouns have generally Abl. in -e, as, Iuvenālis, Iuvenāle.

- 3. In the Gen. Pl., instead of the ending -ium, -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 mēnsis, month. On imber, etc., see 45, R. I. Post-classical and rare ambāgum, caedum, clādum, veprum, and a few others; marum (the only form found) occurs once.
- 4. In the Nom. Pl. -eis and -is 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, -ēIs), 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(f., early); antēs(pl.), rows; axis, axle; būris, ploughtail; cassēs (pl.), toils; caulis, stalk; collis, hill; crīnis, hair; ēnsis, glaive; fascis, fagot; follis, bellows; fūnis, rope (f., Lucz.); fūstis, cudgel; īgnis, fire; mānēs(pl.), Manes; mēnsis, month; mūgil(is), mullet; orbis, circle; pānis, bread; postis, door-post; torris, fire-brand; unguis, nail; vectis, lever; vermis, worm.

Common are: callis, footpath; canalis, canal; clūnis, haunch; corbis, basket; fīnis, end; rētis, net (also rēte, n.); sentis (usually pl.), bramble; scrobis, ditch; torquis (es), necklace; tölēs (pl.), goitre; veprēs (pl.), bramble.

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

2. Vowel stems, with Nominative in -e, -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.)	PL.—gruēs
G. gruis	gruum
D. gruī	gruibus
Ac. gruem	gruēs
V. grūs	gruēs
Ab. grue	gruibus.

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.

Nom.	GEN.			Nom.	GEN.		
-al	-āli-s	animal, a	animal.	-ār	*-arr-is	fār,	spelt.
	-ăl-is	Hannibal, p	proper name.	-er	-er-is	ānser,	g008e.
-āl	*-ăl-is	sāl, s	alt.	•	-r-is	pater,	father.
-el	-ell-is	mel, h	ioney.	*.	iner-is	iter,	journey.
-il	-il-is	pugil, b	oxer.	-ēr	*-ēr-is	vēr,	spring.
	-īl-is	Tanaquil, p	proper name.	-or	-ōr-is	color,	colour.
-01	*-ol-is	sōl, t.	he sun.		-or-is	aequor,	expanse.
-ul	-ul-is	consul, c	consul.	*	-ord-is	cor,	heart.
-ēn	-ēn-is	rēnēs (pl.), k	idneys.	-ur	-ur-is	fulgur,	lightning.
-en	-in-is	nomen, n	name.		-or-is	robur,	oak.
-ar	-āri-s	calcar, 8	pur.	-ūr	-ūr-1s	fūr,	thief.
	-ari-s	nectar, 7	nectar.				

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

Nom	. GEN.			Non	. GEN.		
-ās	*-ās-is	vās,	dish.	-Is	*-lt-is	puls,	porridge.
	*-ar-is	mās,	male.	-m(p)s	*-m-is	hiems,	winter.
	*ass-is	ās,	a copper.	-ns	-nd-is	frons,	leafy branch.
	-at-is	aetās.	age.		-nt-is	frons,	forehead.
-as	*-ad-is	vas,	surety.	-rs	-rd-is	concors,	concordant.
	*-at-is	anas.	duck.		-rt-is	pars,	part.
-aes	*-aed-is	praes,	surety.	-bs	-b-is	urbs,	city.
	*aer-is	aes,	brass.	-ps	-p-is	stirps,	stalk.
aus	-aud-is	fraus,	cheatery.	-eps	-ip-is	princeps,	chief.
-ēs	-is	nūbēs,	cloud.	_	*-up-is	auceps,	fowler.
	-ed-is	pēs,	foot.	-āx	-āc-is	pāx,	peace.
	*-er-is	Ceres,	Ceres.	-ax	*-ac-is	fax,	torch.
	-et-is	abiēs,	fir.	-aex	-aec-is	faex,	dregs.
	-ēt-is	quiēs,	rest.	-aux	-auc-is	[faux,]	throat.
es	-et-is	seges,	crop.	-ex	-ec-is	nex,	death.
	-id-is	obses,	hostage.		-ic-is	iūdex,	judge.
	-it-is	miles,	soldier.		-eg-is	grex,	flock.
-is		amnis,	river.		*-ig-is	rēmex,	rower.
	-id-is	lapis,	stone.	-ēx	*-ëc-is	āllēx,	pickle.
	-in-is	sanguis,	blood.		*-īc-is	vībēx(īx),	weal.
	-er-is	cinis,	ashes.		-ēg-is	rēx,	king.
-Is	*-It-is	līs,	suit at law.	-ïx	-īc-is	cervīx,	neck.
	*-īr-is	glīs,	dormouse.	-ix	-ic-is	calix,	cup.
-ōs	*-ōd-is	cūstōs,	keeper.		*-ig-is	strix,	screech-owl.
	-ōr-is	flōs,	flower.		*-iv-is	nix,	snow.
	-ōt-is	cōs,	whetstone.	-ōx		vōx,	voice.
	*-0V-is	bōs,	ox.	-0×		praecox,	early-ripe.
	*oss-is	os,	bone.		*-og-is	Allobrox,	
-us	*-ud-is	pecus,	cattle, sheep.		*-oct-is	nox,	night.
	*-ur-is	Ligus,	a Ligurian.	-ux	-c-is	crux,	cr088.
	-or-is		body.		-ug-is	coniux,	spouse.
	-er-is	scelus,	crime.	-ūx	-ūc-is	lūx,	light.
-ជីន		sūs,	swine.		-ūg-is	[frūx,]	fruit.
	-ūd-is	incūs,	anvil.	-lx		falx,	sickle.
	-ūr-is	iūs,	right.	-nx	-nc-is	lanx,	dish.
	-ūt-is	salūs,	weal.	-rx	-rc-is	arx,	citadel.

C. NOMINATIVES ENDING WITH A MUTE.

-ac *-act-is lac, milk. -ut *-it-is caput, head. -ec *-ec-is allec, pickle (68, 12).

D. NOMINATIVES ENDING WITH A VOWEL.

-e	-i-s	mare, sea.
-0	-on-is	Saxo, Saxon.
-ō	-ōn-Is	pāvð, peacock
	-in-is	homŏ, man.
	*-n-is	caro, flesh.

FOURTH DECLENSION.

61. The Fourth Declension embraces only dissyllabic 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.

	MAS	N	EUTER.	
SGN.	fructus, fruit.	PL-früctüs,	Sc.—cornū, horn.	PLcornua,
G.	früctüs,	früctuum,	cornūs,	cornuum,
D.	frūctui (fructū),	frūctibus,	cornū,	cornibus,
Ac.	früctum,	frūctūs,	cornū,	cornua,
v.	früctus,	frūctūs,	cornū,	cornua,
Ah.	frūctū.	frūctibus.	cornū.	cornibus.

REMARKS.—I. 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.

2. Domus, house, is declined: G. domu-os (archaic), domu-is and domī (early), domu-us (late), domūs. D. domō (early), domuī. Ac. domum. V. domus. Ab. dom-ū (sporadic), domō. Loc. domī. Pl. N. domūs. G. domōrum (Lucr. always, Verg., Flor.), domuum (late). D. Ab. domībus. Ac. domōs, domūs. Classical forms are those in black-faced type. A classical variant for domī (Loc.) is domuī.

Notes.—1. Singular: Genitive. In early inscriptions we find the ending -os, as senātuos; and in early authors not unfrequently -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 exercituus. The termination -ī, 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 -uēī is found very rarely for -uī. Also ū, as senātū, frūctū, which became the only form for nenters. In classical times -ū in masc. and fem. is poetical only (Caesar uses, however, cāsū, exercitū, magistrātū, senātū, quaestū), hnt extends to prose in the Augustan age and later.

3. Plural: Nom., Acc., Voc. In imperial inscriptions - nus occurs.

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

5. Colus, distaff, belongs properly to the Second Declension, but has variants: G. colus, Ab. colu, Pl., N., Ac., colus, from the Fourth.

62. Rule of Gender.—Substantives in -us are masculine; those in -u 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 ĕ.

The ending in the Genitive Singular is that of the Second Declension, -1; the other endings are those of the Third.

	MASCI	ULINE.	FEMININE.		
SG.—N.	dies, day.	PL.—diēs,	Sg.—rēs, thing.	PL.—rēs,	
G.	diēī,	diērum,	reī,	rērum,	
D.	diēī,	diēbus,	reī,	rēbus,	
Ac.	diem,	diēs,	rem,	rēs,	
V.	diēs,	diēs,	rēs,	rēs,	
Ab.	diē.	diēbus.	rē.	rēbus.	

REMARKS.—I. *Plural: Gen., Dat., Abl.* Common in but two substantives, diēs, rēs. Late Latin shows also speciēbus, and very rarely spēbus and aciēbus.

2. Many words of the Fifth Declension have a parallel form, which follows the First Declension, as mollities, softness, and mollitia. 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-ī, which became later -ē-ī after consonants, though early poets show numerous examples of rēī, spēī, fidēī. Ēī was occasionally scanned as one syllable, whence arose the contraction ē, which is retained not unfrequently in the classical period; so aciō (CAEs., SALL.), diē (PL., CAEs., SALL., LIVY, later), fidē (PL., Hor., OV., late Prose), and other less certain cases; Ioccurs very rarely, principally in early Latin (but diī, Verg., perniciī, CIC.). Plēbēs, in combination with tribūnus, aedīlis, scītum, often shows a Gen. plēbī (plēbēī).

- 2. Dative. The contraction -5 is found, but less often than in the Gen.; acie (Sall.); diē, faciē (early Latin); fidē (early Latin, Caes., Sall., Livy), perniciē (Livy), and a few other forms. The Dat. in -1 is found very rarely in early Latin.
- **64.** Rule of Gender.—Substantives of the Fifth Declension are feminine except dies (which in the Sing. is common, and in the Pl. masculine), and meridies (m.), midday.

N. G. D. Ac.

V. Ab.

N.G. D.Ac. V.Ab.

Ab.

Orpheo.

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.

omgalar rolling of arock oubstantivosi						
First Declension.						
N.	Pēnelopē		Leonidas,	Anchīsēs,		
G.	Pēnelopē	s.	Leonidae,	Anchīsae,		
D.	Pēnelopa	ie.	Leonidae,	Anchīsae,		
Ac.	Pēnelopē	n.	Leonidam, an,	Anchīsēn, am,		
v.	Pēnelopē		Leonida,	Anchīsē, ā, ă,		
Ab.	Pěnelopa		Leonida.	Anchīsā.		
			d Declension.			
		_				
Dēlos	us,	Ilion, um,	Panthūs,	Androgeōs, us,		
Dēlī,		Īliī,	Panthī,	Androgei,		
Dēlō,		Īliō,	Panthō,	Androgeō,		
Dēlon	, um,	Ilion, um,	Panthūn,	Androgeon, ō,		
Dēle,		Ilion, um,	Panthū,	Androgeos,		
Dēlō.		Īliō.	Panthō.	Androgeo.		
		Third	Declension.			
Solon	, Solo,	āēr, air.	Xenophōn,	Atlās,		
Solon		āeris,	Xenophontis,	Atlantis,		
Solon		āerī,	Xenophonti,	Atlanti,		
	a, em,	āera, em,	Xenophonta, em,	Atlanta,		
Solon		āēr,	Xenophon,	Atlā,		
Solon		āere.	Xenophonte.	Atlante.		
	•					
N.	Thales,		Paris,	hērōs, hero,		
G.	Thal-ēti	s, -is,	Paridis, os,	hērōis,		
D.	Thal-ētī.		Paridī, ĭ,	hērōī,		
Ac.		, -ēn, -em,	Par-ida, -im, -in,	hērōa, em,		
v.	Thale,		Pari, Paris,	hērōs,		
Ab.	Thale.		Paride.	hērōe.		
Mixed Deciensions.						
	** ***		** ***	п. ш.		
N.	Orpheus.		II. III. Athos,	Oedipūs,		
G.	Orphei,		Athō, ōnis,	Oedip-odis, -1,		
D.	Orpheō,		Athō,	Oedipodī,		
Ac.	Orpheun	1. 68.	Athō, ōn, ōnem,	Oedip-um, -oda,		
V.	Orpheu,	2, 000,	Athōs.	Oedipe,		
	Orphou,		ALUATOS,	Octipo,		

Athone.

ōna.

Oedip-ode, -o.

	II. III.	II. III.	, m. iy.
N.	Achilles, eus,	Socrates,	Didō,
G.	Achillis, eī, ī, eōs,	Socratis, I,	Didūs, onis,
D.	Achillī,	Socrati,	Dido, oni,
Ac.	Achillem, ea, ēn,	Socraten, em,	Dido, onem,
v.	Achilles, ē, eu, e,	Socrate, es,	Dido,
Ab.	Achille, ē, ī.	Socrate.	Didō, one.

REMARKS.—1. In the Gen. Pl. -on and -eon are found in the titles of books; as, Georgicon, Metamorphoseon.

- 2. Many Greek names, of the Third Declension in Latin, pass over into the First Declension in the Plural; as, Thūcydidās, Hyperidae, and many names in -cratēs; as Socratēs; Pl., Socratae (also Socratēs).
- 3. In transferring Greek words into Latin, the Accusative Singular was sometimes taken as the stem:

So κρατήρ, Acc. κρατήρα, (punch) bowl.
crātēr, crātēris (masc.), and crātēra (crēterra) crātērae (fem.).
Σαλαμίς, Acc. Σαλαμίνα, Salamis.
Salamis, Salaminis, and Salamīna, ae.

- 66. Notes.—1. Singular: Genitive. The Greek termination 0e0 (o.o) appears rarely in early Latin, but \$\vec{u}\$ (ov) is more frequent, especially in geographical names, etc. The termination -0s (os) is rare except in feminine patronymics in -is, -as, (G. -idos, -ados).
- 2. Dative. The ending -1 is very rare; and rarer still is the Dat. in -5 from feminines in -5, and Dat. in $-\overline{y}$ from Nominatives in -ys.
- 3. Accusative. -a is the most common termination in the Third Declension, and is found regularly in some words otherwise Latinised; as aera, aethera. Stems in -ō usually have -ō, very rarely -ōn.
- 4. Plural. In the Second Declension of is found occasionally in the Nom., in early Latin; as, adelphoe. The Third Declension shows frequently es in the Nom. and as in the Accasative; also occasionally in the Nom. and Acc. of neuters, and -si (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.

1. Redundant Substantives. (Abundantia.)

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

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

abrotonum,	-us,	a plant (rare),	cupeus,	-um,	sittetu,
aevom (um),	-us,	age,	collum,	-us,	neck,
baculum,	-us,	staff,	costum,	-us,	a plant (rare),
balteus,	-um,	girdle,	forum,	-us,	market,
buxus,	-um,	box-wood (rare),	gladius,	-um,	sword,
[calamister],	-um,	curling-iron (rare),	intibus,	-um,	succory (rare),
cāseus,	-um,	cheese,	iugulum,	-us,	collar-bone,
cavom (um),	-us,	cavity,	nardum,	-us,	nard (rare),
cingulum,	-us,	belt,	nāsus,	-um,	nose,

palātum,	-us,	palate,	thēsaurus, -u	m, treasure,
pīleus,	-um,	cap,	uterus, -u	ım, womb,
sagum,	-us,	cloak,	vāllus, -u	ım, palisade,
tergum,	-us,	back,	and many oth	ners.

- 2. The gender varies in Singular and Plural. a. The Plural has -a sometimes, while the Singular ends in -us (or -er): clivus, hill, iocus, jest, 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, frenum, bit, rastrum, 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.
 - 1. 1st, 2d. esseda, -um, chariot, margarīta, -um, pearl, ostrea, -um, oyster,
 2. 1st, 5th. dūritia, -ēs, hardness, māteria, -ēs, matter,
- and many others. See 63, R. 2.

 3. 2d, 1st. mendum, -a,

3. 2d, 1st. mendum, -a, fault, sertum, -a, wreath.

The following form their Plural according to the First Declension only: balneum, bath, delicium, pleasure, epulum, barquet, 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, fagus, ficus, laurus, myrtus, pinus, and a few others.

Also angiportus, alley, colus, distaff, domus, house, and a large number of substantives of the Fourth Declension which have one or two cases of the Second; so arcus has G. arci; conātus (-um), iūssus (-um), vultus have Nom. Pl. in a; senātus has Gen. Sing. senātī. See 61, RR, NN.

Finally, some substantives of the Second Declension form individual cases according to the Fourth: fāstī (Ac. Pl. fāstūs), fretum (N. fretus, Ab. fretū), lectus (G. lēctūs), tribūtum (N. tribūtus), and others.

6. 2d, 5th. diluvium, -ēs, flood.

7. 3d. 2d. Vās, vessel, and vāsum; palumbes, pigeon, and palumbus; [iūger], acre, and iūgerum; all Greek nouns in -a (G. atis), as poēma, poem (G. poēmatis), but Pl. Gen. poēmatōrum, Dat. Abl. poēmatīs.

8. 3d, 5th. Fames, hunger, tābes, corruption, have Abl. famé, tābē; requiēs, quiet (G. -ētis) has Acc. requiem, Abl. requiē; satiās (G. ātis) is early and late for satietās, sufficiency, and a form satiets is cited from late authors; plēbs (G. plēbis), commons, and plēbēs (G. plēbeī).

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

10. 2d, 3d, 1st. Vesper, evening, has Acc. vesperum; Dat. Abl. vesperö; Pl. Nom. vespera of the Second Declension; Acc. vesperam; Abl. vesperā of the First; Gen. vesperis; Abl. vespere; Loc. vespere, vesperī of the Third.

11. 4th, 2d, 3d. Penus, food, (G. ūs). Forms of the Second Declension are rare;

of the Third early and late.

12. Variations in the same Declension: femur (G. femoris, feminis, etc.); iecur (G. iecoris, iecinoris, etc.); pecus, early, also pecu (G. pecoris, pecudis, etc.).

Also āllēc and āllēx, baccar and baccaris, cassis and cassida, lac and lacte (early), pānis and pāne (early), rēte and rētis, satiās and satietās.

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 iūstitia, justice. aurum.

B. Substantives used in Plural only: Plūrālia tantum.

altāria, ium. altar (sing. late). însidiae. ambuscade. ambāgēs, round about. lactes. intestines. angustiae, straits. lāmenta. lamentations. antae. door-posts. lautomiae. stone-quarries. antēs, rows (of vines). līberī, children. arma, ōrum. arms. mānēs. shades of the dead. armāmenta, orum, tackle. manubiae. spoils. minae, dessert. threats. bellāria, orum, two-horse, four-horse moenia, ium, town-wall. bigae, quadrigae, chariot (sing. late). nündinae (-num), market. nūptiae, cancelli. lattice. wedding. eyelids (sing. late). cassēs. toils (snare). palpebrae. caulae. opening. parentālia, festival for dead relacervicēs. neck (sing. early, late, tions. and poet.). mins. parietinae. cibaria, victuals. the Penates. penātēs, lock (sing. late). claustrum, phalerae, trappings. clītellae, pack-saddle. praecordia, ōrum. diaphragm. codicilli. a short note. praestrīgiae, jugglers' tricks. compedēs. fetters. preces, -um, prayer. crepundia, ōrum, rattle. prīmitiae. first-fruits. cūnae. cradle. quisquiliae. rubbish. riches. dīvitiae. reliquiae. remains. thorn-bush. dūmēta, orum, rēnēs, kidneys. banquet. epulae (epulum), salīnae, salt-pits. watching. scālae. stairway. excubiae, exsequiae. funeral procession. sentēs, brambles. the internal organs. spoils (sing. late, and exta, orum, spolia, orum, exuviae. equipments. poet.). facētiae, witticism (sing. earsponsālia, ium, betrothal. ly and late). suppetiae. succor (early and late). fāstī (fāstūs), calendar. winged sandals. tālāria, ium, faucēs, quillet. darkness. tenebrae, feriae. holidaus. warm baths. thermae, flābra. breezes. tonsillae, tonsils. fores. door (sing. early, tormina, colic. late and poet.). trīcae. tricks. fraga, orum, strawberries. ūtēnsilia, ium, necessaries. grātēs, thanks. valvae. folding-doors. scourging (sing. poet. winter quarters. hiberna, verbera, um. Idus, Kalendae, Ides, Calends, and late). Nones. Nonae, vindiciae, a legal claim:

virgulta, ōrum,

viscera,

shrubbery.

and late).

entrails (sing. poet,

incūnābula,

indūtiae.

înferiae.

swaddling-clothes.

sacrifices for the dead.

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

prece.

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

Akin to plūrālia tantum are:

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

aedēs, is,	temple (better aedis),	aedēs,	house, palace.
aqua,	water,	aquae,	mineral springs.
auxilium,	help,	auxilia,	auxiliaries, reinforcements.
carcer,	prison,	carceres,	barriers.
castrum,	fort,	castra,	camp.
cēra,	wax,	cērae,	waxen tablets.
comitium,	place of assemblage,	comitia,	assemblage for voting.
cōpia,	abundance,	cōpiae,	forces, troops.
dēlicium,	pleasure,	dēliciae,	pet.
facultās,	capability,	facultātēs,	goods.
fīnis,	end, limit,	fīnēs,	territory, borders.
fortūna,	fortune,	fortunae,	possessions.
habēna,	strap,	habēnae,	reins.
impedimentum,	hindrance,	impedimenta	, baggage.
littera,	letter (of the alphabet)	litterae,	epistle, literature.
lūdus,	game, school,	lūdī,	public games.
opera,	work,	operae,	workmen.
pars,	part,	partēs,	also role.
röstrum,	beak,	rōstra,	the tribunal at Rome.
sors,	lot,	sortēs,	also oracle.
tabula,	board, tablet,	tabulae,	also accounts.
vigilia,	a night-watch,	vigiliae,	pickets.

2. SUBSTANTIVES DEFECTIVE IN CASE.

70. A. Substantives occurring in only one case: Gen. dicis, form; Acc. Infitiās (Ire), (to) lie; pessum (Ire), (to) perish; Abl. pondō, in weight; sponte, of free will; tābō, corruption (Gen. late); and many verbals in ū, as accitū, admonitū, arcessītī, coāctū, compressū, concēssū, domitū, inductū, interpositū, invitātū, iūssū (other forms late), iniūssū, mandātū, missū, nātū, permissū, promptū, rogātū. A few others occur occasionally in ante-classical and post-classical Latin.

B. Substantives with only two cases: fas, nefas, Sing. N. Ac.; Instar, Sing. N. Ac.; interneciō, Sing. Ac. Ab.; naucum, Sing. G. Ac.; secus, Sing. N. Ac.; spinter, Sing. N. Ac.; suppetiae, Plur. N. Ac., and a few others. Some verbals in -us have in Plural only Nom. and Acc., as impetūs, monitūs. Greek neuters in -os have only Nom. and Acc. Singular.

C. Substantives with three cases: faex, Sing. N., D., Plur. Ab.; vīrus, elime; Sing. N., G., Ab.

D. Defective substantives with more than three cases are numerous, but in the classical period the most important are: calx, lime, cos, [daps], dica, [dicio], flamen, blast, forum, [frūx], [indāgo], later, lūx, [ops], os, mouth, pāx, rēmex, vīs, [vix], and most substantives of the Fifth Declension. The Nominatives in brackets do not occur, but only oblique cases.

E. Nēmō, nobody, substitutes for Gen. and Abl. nullius hominis, and nullo homine. In the Dat. and Acc. it is normal; nēminī, nēminem.

71.

III. Peculiarities.

ās, assis (m.), a copper.
auceps, aucupis, fowler.
bōs (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.) spell.
fel, fellis (n.), gall.
femur, femoris (n.), thigh.

feminis.

iter, itineris (n.), way, route.
iecur, iecoris (n.), liver.
iecinoris, iecineris, iocineris.
Inpriter, Iovis.
mel, mellis (n.), honey.
nix, nivis (f.), snow.
os, ossis (n.), bone (48 r.).
ös, öris (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.
SgN.	bonus,	bona,	bonum.	Prbonī,	bonae,	bona.
G.	bonī,	bonae,	bonī.	bonorum,	bonārum,	bonorum.
D.	bonō,	bonae,	bonö.	bonīs,	bonis,	bonīs.
Ac	bonum,	bonam,	bonum.	bonos,	bonās,	bona.
v.	bone,	bona,	bonum.	bonī,	bonae,	bona.
Ab	. bonō,	bonā,	bonō.	bonīs,	bonīs,	bonis.

Miser, misera, miserum, wretched.

				,	,		
Sg	N.	miser,	misera,	miserum.PL	-miserī,	miserae,	misera.
	G.	miserī,	miserae,	miserī.	miserorum,	miserārum,	miserorum.
	D.	miserō,	miserae,	miserō.	miserīs,	miseris,	miserīs.
	Ac.	miserum,	miseram,	miserum.	miseros,	miserās,	misera.
	v.	miser,	misera,	miserum.	miserī,	miserae,	misera.
	Ab.	misero,	miserā,	miserō.	miseris,	miseris,	miseris.

Piger, pigra, pigrum, slow.

ScN. piger,	pigra,	pigrum.	PL-pigrī,	pigrae,	pigra.
G. pigrī,	pigrae,	pigri.	pigrorum,	pigrārum,	pigrorum.
D. pigrō,	pigrae,	pigrō.	pigrīs,		pigrīs
Ac. pigrum	, pigram,	pigrum.	pigrōs,	pigrās,	pigra.
V. piger,	pigra,	pigrum.	pigrī,	pigrae,	pigra.
Ab. pigrō,	pigrā,	pigrō.	pigrīs,	pigrīs,	pigris.

Remark.—For irregularities in the declension of ambō, both, due, two, see 95; for meus, my, see 100, R. I.

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, înferus, 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, austērus, harsh, mātūrus, early, prōcērus, tall, pūrus, pure, sevērus, serious, sincērus, sincere, sērus, late, vērus, true.

REMARKS.—I. 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 ceterus or posterus in the classical period.
- 75. Notes on the Cases.—1. The Gen. Sing. in -1 from adjectives in -ins occurs occasionally in inscriptions and in late anthors. The Gen. Sing. fem. in early Latin had sometimes \$\overline{a}I_1\$, and in inscriptions occasionally -aes and -es.

2. The Dat. Sing. fem. in early Latin occasionally ended in -aī, 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 -51s, and in one case the Nom. Pl. fem of a perfect participle ends in -51.
- 5. In poetry, but at all periods, we find $\hbox{-um}$ alongside of $\hbox{-\"orum}$ and $\hbox{-\"arum}$ in the Gen. Plural.
- 6. In the Dat. and Abl. Pl. -iis from adjectives in -ius is often contracted to is; usually in names of months and in adjectives formed from proper names. In early inscriptions -ābus is found occasionally for -is in the Dat. and Abl. Pl. feminine.
- 76. The so-called pronominal adjectives alter, one of the two; alteruter (a combination of alter and uter), either of the two; alius, other; neuter, neither; nullus, none; solus, sole; totus, whole; ullus, any; unus, one; uter, which of the two, and their compounds, show the following variations in declension.

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

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

2. The I 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 nulli (Cic. Rosc. Com. 16, 48) and occasionally aliae,

2. They usually make the Dat. Sing. in -1.

Note.—Regular forms are sometimes found, but in classical prose only alterae, nullo, toto, and perhaps totae. Ali is found in early Latin for alii.

- 3. In the compound alteruter we find usually both parts declined; sometimes the second only.
 - 4. Alius makes Nom. and Acc. Sing. neuter irregularly: aliud.

Note.—Alis and alid, for alius and aliud, are early and rare; the latter, however, occurs several times in Luck, 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. I. 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 ācri, sharp, Nom., ācer (m.), ācris (f.), ācre (n.).

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

The \mathbf{e} belongs to the stem in celer, celeris, celere, swift, and therefore appears in all cases.

		M. and F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Sg.—N	٧.	facilis, easy.	facile,	ācer, sharp,	ācris,	ācre,
0	ł.	facilis,	facilis,	ācris,	ācris,	ācris,
I	Э.	facili,	facilī,	ācrī,	ācrī,	ācrī,
A	Ac.	facilem,	facile,	ācrem,	ācrem,	ācre,
7	V	facilis,	facile,	ācer,	ācris,	ācre,
A	Ab.	facili.	facilī.	ācrī.	ācrī.	ācrī.
PL.—N	v.	facilēs,	facilia,	ācrēs,	ācrēs,	ācria,
G	i.	facilium,	facilium,	ācrium,	ācrium,	ācrium,
I	Э,	facilibus,	facilibus,	ācribus,	ācribus,	ācribus,
A	Ac.	facilēs (īs),	facilia,	ācrēs (Is),	ācrēs (īs),	ācria,
7	<i>7.</i>	facilēs,	facilia,	ācrēs,	ācrēs,	ācria,
A	Ab.	facilibus.	facilibus.	ācribus.	ācribus.	ācribus.

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.—I. 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 Titiensum and familiarum.

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 (ēIs) is found along-side 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:

vigil, alert, memor, mindful, pauper, poor, cicur, tame, pūbēs, adult, vetus, old, vigilis. memoris. pauperis. cicuris. pūberis. veteris.

particeps, sharing, caelebs, unmarried, inops, poor, participis. caelibis. inopis.

audāx, bold, fēlix, lucky, duplex, double, ferōx, fierce, trux, savage, audācis. fēlicis. duplicis. ferōcis. trucis.

dives, rich, dēses, slothful, compos, possessed of, prūdēns, wise, concors, harmonious, dīvitis. dēsidis. compotis. prūdentis. concordis.

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: pār (G. par-is), equal, impār (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. -ōr-is), and three other compounds of color; dēgener (G. -or-is), from genus (G. gener-is).

2. Sibilant stems in (a) -s: exos (G. exoss-is), boneless (Luck.); (b) -r: gnārus

(G. gnārur-is; Plaut.), Ligus, vetus; pūbēs (G. pūber-is), impūbēs.

- 3. Mute stems in (a) a K-mute: audāx (G. audāc-is), bold, and four others; fēlīx (G. fēlīc-is), pernīx, atrōx (G. atrōc-is), ferōx, vēlōx; exlēx (G. -lēg-is); trux (G. truc-is), redux; the multiplicatives in -plex (G. -plic-is), as simplex, etc. (b) A P-mute: inops (G. inop-is); caelebs (G. caelib-is); compounds of -ceps (G. -cip-is, from capere), as particeps, and of -ceps (G. -cipit-is, from caput), as anceps, praeceps (Plaut. sometimes uses, in the Nom., ancipes, praecipes, etc.). (c) A T-mute: hebes (G. hebet-is) and three others; locuples (G. -plēt-is) and three others; dives (G. divit-is), for which in poetry dis (G. dīt-is), sōspes; compos (G. compot-is), impos; superstes (G. -sti-tis), āles; exhērēs (G. ēd-is); dēses (G. dēsid-is), reses; compounds from substantives: cōnsors (G. -sort-is), exsors; concors, discors, misericors, sōcors, vēcors; expers (G. -ert-is), iners, sollers; āmēns (G. āment-is), dēmēns; intercus (G. cut-is); pernox (G. -noct-is); bipēs (G. -ped-is), quadrupēs, ālipēs; adjectives and participles in -āns, -ēns (G. -ant-is, -ent-is); and proper names in -ās (G. āt-is), -īs (G. -īt-is), -ns (G. -nt-is), -rs (G. -rt-is), Arofnās, Samnīs, Veiēns, 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 $\mathbf{1}$ and \mathbf{e} —when used as adjectives commonly $\bar{\mathbf{1}}$; when used as substantives commonly \mathbf{e} .

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

- 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 stemcharacteristic is preceded by a long vowel or a consonant; um, when the characteristic is preceded by a short vowel. The participles have ium.

prūdēns, wise, prūdēns.

N.

prüdentis.

M. and F.

veteris.

vetus, old, vetus,

N.

veteris.

M. and F.

prüdentis.

nrfidanti

Sg.-N.

G.

M. and F.

fēlīcis.

fēlīx.lucky.fēlīx.

N.

felicis.

	Ω.	ielici,	ielici,	prudenti,	pru	aenti,	veteri,	ve	teri,
	Ac.	fēlīcem,	fēlīx,	prüdentem,	prū	dēns,	veterem	, ve	tus,
	V.	fēlīx.	fēlīx,	prūdēns,	prū	dēns,	vetus,	ve	tus,
	Ab.	fēlīcī (e)	fēlīcī (e)	prüdenti (e)	prū	dentī (e)	vetere (i) ve	tere (ī)
PL.—	N.	fēlīcēs,	fēlīcia,	prūdentēs,	prū	dentia,	veterēs,	ve	etera,
	G.	felīcium,	fēlīcium,	prūdentium,	prü	dentium,	veterum	ı, ve	terum,
	D.	fēlīcibus,	fēlīcibus,	prūdentibus,	prū	dentibus,	veteribu	s, ve	teribus,
	Ac.	fēlīcēs.	fēlīcia.	prūdentēs,	prū	dentia,	veterēs,	ve	tera,
	v.	fēlīcēs,	fēlīcia.	prūdentēs,	prū	dentia,	veterēs.	ve	tera.
	Ab.	fēlīcibus,	fēlīcibus.	prūdentibus,	prū	dentibus.	veteribu	ıs, ve	teribus.
		M. and F	٠.	N.		M. and	F.	N	
Sg.	N.	amāns, lov	ing,	amāus,	Pr	amantēs	,	amar	ıtia,
	G.	amantis,		amantis,		amantiu	m,	amar	ıtium,
	D.	amantī,		amantī,		amantib'	us,	amai	ntibus,
	Ac.	amantem.		amāns,		amantēs	(Is),	amaı	itia,
	V.	amāns,		amāns,		amantēs.		amar	ıtia,
	Ab.	amante (I).	amante (I).		amantib	us.	amar	tibus.

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, deside, impübere, participe, paupere, pübere, 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 antecedens, candens, consentiens, despiciens, effluens, hians, imminens, Influens, proflueus, consequens (but sequens not before Livy), titubans, vertens.

Notes.—1. In the Nom. and Acc. Pl. -Is for &s 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 Vergill and Horace. In the neuter, -a for -ia is found only in übera, vetera; ditia is always used for the unsyncopated form divitia.

2. Compound adjectives, whose primitives had -um in Gen. Pl., have usually -um instead of -ium; quadrupēs, quadrupedum, and other compounds of pēs; inops, inopum; supplex, supplicum. Also, cicur, cicurum; vetus, veterum; dīves, dīvitum; locuplēs, locuplētum (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., imbēcillus and imbēcillis; înfrēnus and infrēnis; biiugus and biiugis; violentus and violēns; indecōrus and indecoris; so also perpetuus and perpes. In a number of other adjectives the variant forms are very rare or disputed.

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; ālāris and ālārius; auxiliāris and auxiliārius; intercalāris and intercalārius; tālāris and tālārius.

85. B. Defective.

- 1. Several adjectives lack a Nom. Singular, wholly or in part: as, cētera (f.), cēterum, perperum (n.), nūperum (n.), prīmōris (G.), bimātris (G.), tricorporis (G.), and a few others.
- 2. Some adjectives are defective in other cases: thus, exspēs and perdius, a are found only in the Nom.; exlēx only in the Nom. and Acc. (exlēgem); pernox only in Nom., Abl. (pernocte), and Nom. Pl. (pernoctes, rare); centimanus has only the Acc. Sing. (Hor., Ov.); also unimanus (Liv.), and a few others.

C. INDECLINABLES.

Nēquam; potis, and pote (early); frūgī; macte (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.

Post	rive.	COMPARA	TIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
		M. and F.	N.	
altus, a, ui	m, high,	altior, higher,	altius,	altissimus, a, um, highest.
fortis, e,	brave,	fortior,	fortius,	fortissimus.
ūtilis, e,	useful,	ūtilior,	ūtilius,	ūtilissimus.
audāx,	bold,	audācior,	audācius,	audācissimus.
prūdēns,	wise,	prudentior,	prūdentius,	prūdentissimus.

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

Peculiarities.

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

Positivi	5.	Comp	ARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
miser, a, um,	wretched,	miserior,	miserius,	miserrimus.
celer, is, e,	swift,	celerior,	celerius,	celerrimus.
ācer, ācris, ācre,	sharp,	ācrior,	ācrius,	ācerrimu s .

REMARKS.—I. 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. Mātūrus, ripe, has occasionally Sup. mātūrrimus in addition to the normal mātūrissimus.

NOTE.—In early Latin and in inscriptions this rule is occasionally violated. Thus celerissimus in Ennius; integrissimus, 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, extrēmus, extimus (latter not in Cic.); dexterior (87, I, R. I; once in Cic.), dextimus (rare; not in Cic.); inferior, lower, Infimus, imus; interior, inner, intimus; posterior, hinder, postrēmus, postumus; superior, unper, 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, Comp. facilior, Sup. facillimus.

4. Adjectives in -dicus, -ficus, -volus, borrow the Comparative and Superlative from the participial forms in -dīcēns, -ficēns, and -volēns.

benevolus, benevolent, Comp. benevolentior, Maledicus, scurrilous. Magnificus, distinguished. Magnificentior, Magnificentior, Magnificentior, Magnificentissimus. Magnificentissimus.

Note.—Benevolēns, malevolēns, maledīcēns, still occur in early Latin.

 In like manner egēnus and providus form their Comparative and Superlative.

egēnus, needy, prōvidus, far-sighted, egentior, providentior, egentissimus. providentissimus. 6. Adjectives in -us (os), preceded by a vowel (except those in -quos), form the Comparative and Superlative by means of magis and māximē, more and most.

idoneus, fit, Comp. magis idoneus, Sup. māximē idoneus. But

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

REMARK.—But pius, pious, which lacks the Comparative, forms the Superlative regularly, piissimus (in inscriptions also pientissimus); likewise in late Latin, impius.

Notes.—1. A few words, chiefly in early Latin, show the normal comparison. In Cic. only, assiduissimē (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, 1, R. 1); ocior, swift, ocissimus; 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. supra, above; Inferior, lower (87, 2), from Inferus, below, and prep. Infra, below; posterior, hinder (87, 2), from posterus, coming after, and prep. post, after; citerior, on this side (87, 2), from citer, and prep. citra, 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; ülterior, further, ültimus, from ültrā, beyond; interior, inner, intimus, from intrā, within; prior, former, primus, first, from prō, 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, salūtāris, healthful, iuvenis, young (Comparative iūnior), and senex, old (Comparative senior), have no Superlative.

"Youngest" and "oldest" are expressed by minimus, māximus (nātū).

Note.—The Plautine and late $\mathbf{medioximus}, middlemost$, lacks Positive and Comparative.

- 10. Dives, rich, shows in Cic. 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, amāns, loving, amantior, amantissimus; apertus, open, apertior, apertissimus,

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:

	M. and F.	N.	M. and F.	N.
ScN.	altior,	altius.	Praltiores,	altiōra.
G.	altiōris,	altiōris.	altiōrum,	altiörum.
D.	altiōrī,	altiōrī.	altiōribus,	alti ōribus.
Ac.	altiörem,	altius.	altiōrēs,	altiōra.
v.	altior,	altius.	altiōrēs,	altiōra.
Ab.	altiore and -1,	altiore and -1.	altiōribus,	altiōribus.

REMARKS.—I. In classical prose the Abl. Sing. ends in -e. In the poets and in early and late prose often in -1.

2. Extremely rare is the ending -īs for -ēs in the Nom. Plural. In the Acc. Pl. this ending -īs (-ēīs) is more common but still not frequent, and confined mainly to plūrīs, minōrīs, māiōrīs, meliōrīs. The neuter in -ia is found rarely in complūria, and perhaps once in plūria.

3. The Gen. Pl. in -ium is found in plurium and complurium only.

90.	1	Irregular Co	mparison.	
bonus, malus, māgnus, parvus, multus,	good, bad, great, small, much,	melior, pēior, māior, minor, S.————————————————————————————————————	melius, pēius, māius, minus, plūs (no Dat. nor Abl.), plūra. complūra and -ia.	optimus. pessimus. māximus. minimus. plūrimus.
nēquam, frūgī (indecl.),	worthless, frugal,	complūrēs, nēquior, frūgālior,	nēquius,	nēquissimus. frūgālissimus.

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:

Acervātim, articulātim, centuriātim, certātim, generātim, gradātim, gregātim, membrātim, paulātim, prīvātim, sēparātim, singulātim, statim, summātim, virītim, tribūtim, strictim, pedetemptim, raptim, fūrtim, partim, praesertim, confēstim, and a few others; disguised forms of -tim are: caesim, incīsim, sēnsim, 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, coram, in one's presence, palam, openly, perperam, wrongly, tam, so, quam, as, aliquam, some, iam, already; and forms in -fariam, as bifariam, multifariam, 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; prīmum, first; postrēmum, finally; potissimum, chiefly; facile, easily; dulce, sweetly; trīste, 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 alias, at other times, perhaps in foras, 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; initiō, at the outset; modo, only; oppidō, very; prīncipiō, in the beginning; prīvātō, privately; vulgō, commonly; forte, by chance; māgnopere, greatly, and other compounds of -opere; grātiīs, for nothing, and ingrātiīs, 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; imprōvīsō, unexpectedly; prīmō, at first; hōc, here; istō, there, etc.

- (d) In a few cases the adverbial form is the Abl. Sing. feminine: aliā, otherwise; aliquā, 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:

consulto and consulto, purposely; certe, at least, and certo, certainly (certe scio, I certainly know; certo scio, I know for certain); rare, thinly, and raro, seldom; vere, in truth, and vero, true but; recte, correctly, and recta, straightway; dextera or dextra, to the right; and dextere, skilfully.

(f) Ablatives are also qui, how (archaic), nequiquam, to no purpose; alioqui, otherwise; perhaps also div, by day, and its compounds.

- 3. Locative in origin are the following, in addition to those mentioned under 37, 5: die (in combination with numeral adjectives in early Latin, as die septimi) and its compounds cottidie, daily, hodie, today, pridie, the day before, postridie, the day after; quotannis, yearly; foris, outside. Also many forms from the pronominal stems, as hie, illie, istic (isti belongs to early Latin and Verg.); sic, so, ut (uti, utei), as; ibi, there, and its compounds alibi, ibidem; ubi (cubi), where, and its compounds.
- 4. A number of adverbs cannot be referred to a definite case, as: adverbs of separation: hinc, hence, illinc (illim), istinc (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; haud (hau, haut), not; item, likewise; susque dēque, up and down; vix, scarcely.
- 92. r. 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; ferox, wild, ferociter; prudens, foreseeing, prudenter.

Exceptions: audāx, bold, audāc-ter (seldom audāciter); difficilis, hard to do, difficulter, difficiliter (but generally, non 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 -iter (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 turbulentē, 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; divinitus, 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: intrōrsus (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.; -dō: 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), dēnuō, anew, imprimis; super, above, and its compounds, dēsuper, insuper; extemplō, at once; ūsque, to, and its compounds; invicem, in turn; adeō, so; anteā, before; intereā, meanwhile; posteā, after; praetereā, besides; proptereā, 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.

Positi	VE.	COMPARATIVE.	SUPERLATIVE.
altē,	loftily,	altius.	altissimē.
pulchre,	beautifully,	pulchrius,	pulcherrimē.
miserē,	poorly,	miserius,	miserrimē.
fortiter,	bravely,	fortius,	fortissimē.
audācter,	boldly,	audācius,	audācissimē.
tūtō,	safely,	tūtius,	tütissimē.
facile,	easily,	facilius,	facillimë.
bene,	well,	melius,	optimë.
male,	ill,	pēius,	pessimē.
[parvus],	small,	minus, less,	minime, least.
[māgnus],	great,	magis, more,	māximē, most.
multum,	much,	plūs, more,	plūrimum.
cito,	quickly,	citius,	citissimē.
diū,	long,	diūtius,	diūtissimē.
saepe,	often,	saepius,	saepissimē.
nüper,	recently,	 ,	nüperrimē.
satis,	enough,	satius, better,	-

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	. CARI	DINAL NUMBERS.	2. ORDINAL NUMBERS.
1	I	ūnus, ūna, ūnum	primus, -a, -um (prior)
2	II	duo, duae, duo	secundus (alter)
3	III	trēs, tria	tertius
4	IV	quattuor	quārtus
5	V	quinque	quintus
6	VI	sex	sextus
7	VII	septem	septimus
	4		

4	CARDINAL	Martinana
ı.	CARDINAL	TAUMBERS.

2. ORDINAL NUMBERS.

8	VIII	octŏ	octāvus
9	IX	novem	nōnus
10	X	decem	decimus
11	XI	ündecim	ūndecimus
12	XII	duodecim	duodecimus
13	XIII	tredecim	tertius decimus
14	XIV	quattuordecim	quārtus decimus
15	XV	quindecim	quintus decimus
16	XVI	sēdecim	sextus decimus
17	XVII	septendecim	septimus decimus
18	XVIII	duodēvīgintī	duodēvīcēsimus
19	XIX	undeviginti	ūndēvīcēsimus
20	XX	vīgintī	vīcēsimus
21	XXI	viginti ūnus	vīcēsimus prīmus
22	XXII	viginti duo	vīcēsimus secundus
23	XXIII	vīgintī trēs	vīcēsimus tertius
24	XXIV	vīgintī quattuor	vīcēsimus quārtus
25	XXV	viginti quinque	vīcēsimus quīntus
26	XXVI	viginti sex	vīcēsimus sextus
27	XXVII	viginți septem	vīcēsimus septimus
28	XXVIII	duodētrīgintā	duodētrīcēsimus
29	XXIX	ūndētrīgintā	ūndētrīcēsimus
30	XXX	trīgintā	trīcēsimus
40	XL	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsimus
50	L	quinquāgintā	quīnquāgēsimus
60	LX	sexāgintā	sexāgēsimus
70	LXX	$septuar{a}gintar{a}$	septuāgēsimus
80	LXXX	octēgintā	octōgēsimus
90	XC	nön $ ilde{a}$ gint $ ilde{a}$	nonagesimus
100	C	centum	centēsimus
101	CI	centum et ünus	centēsimus prīmus [mus
115	CXV	centum et quindecim	centēsimus (et) quīntus deci-
120	CXX	centum et viginti	centēsimus vīcēsimus
121	CXXI	centum viginti ūnus	centēsimus vīcēsimus prīmus
200	CC	ducentī, -ae, -a	ducentēsimus
300	CCC	trecenti	trecentēsimus
400	CCCC	quadr <u>in</u> gentī	quadringentēsimus
500	D(IO)	quingenti	quIngentēsimus
600	DC	sēscentī	sēscentēsimus
700	DCC	septingentI	septingentēsimus
800	DCCC	octingenti	octingentēsimus
900	DCCCC	nongenti	nongentesimus
1000	M (CIO)	mille	mīllēsimus

	1. CAR	DINAL NUMBERS.	2. Ordinal Numbers.
1001	MI	mīlle et ünus	mīllēsimus prīmus
1101	MCI	mīlle centum ūnus	mīllēsimus centēsimus prīmus
1120	MCXX	mīlle centum viginti	mīllēsimus centēsimus vīcē-
		[ūnus	simus [simus prImus
1121	MCXXI	mille centum viginti	mīllēsimus centēsimus vīcē-
1200	MCC	mille ducenti	mīllēsimus ducentēsimus
2000	MM	duo milia (millia)	bis mīllēsimus
		bīna mīlia	
2222		duo mīlia ducentī vī-	bis mīllēsimus ducentēsimus
		gintī duo	vīcēsimus secundus
5000	CCI	quinque milia	quinquiës millësimus
		quīna mīlia	
10,000	CCIDD	decem mīlia	deciēs mīllēsimus
		dēna mīlia	
21,000		ünum et vīgintī mīlia	semel et vīciēs millēsimus
100,000		centum mīlia	centiēs mīllēsimus
		centēna mīlia [mīlia	
,000,000		decies centena (centum)	deciēs centies mīllesimus

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.

			M and F.	N.
duo, two	, duae,	duo,	trēs, three,	tria.
duōrum,	duārum,	duōrum,	trium,	trium.
duōbus,	duābus,	duōbus,	tribus,	tribus.
duōs, duo,	duās,	duo,	trēs, trīs,	tria.
duōbus,	duābus,	duōbus,	tribus,	tribus.
	duōrum, duōbus, duōs, duo,	duōrum, duārum, duōbus, duābus, duōs, duo, duās,	duōrum, duārum, duōrum, duōbus, duābus, duōbus, duōs, duo, duās, duo,	duo,two,duae,duo,trēs, three,duōrum,duārum,duōrum,trium,duōbus,duābus,duōbus,tribus,duōs, duo,duās,duo,trēs, trīs,

Like duŏ is declined ambō, -ae, -ō, both.

1.

REMARKS.—I. For the declension of tinus see 76. It occurs also in plural forms in connection with pluralia tantum, as tinis 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 sēscentum (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 \bar{u} nus is found in early Latin. A Voc. \bar{u} ne is occasional (Car., 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 unfrequent. 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 mēilia and mīllia are also found.

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

96.

1. Compound Numerals.

- I. From 10 to 20, as in the tables, or separately: decem et tres.
- 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. duodecentum is not found, and undecentum but once (PLIN. MAI.).
- 3. From 20 to 100, the compound numerals stand in the same order as the English: twenty-one, viginti tinus; or, one and twenty, tinus et (atque) viginti; as, twenty-one years old: annos tinum et viginti (viginti tinum), tinum et viginti annos natus. But compounds like septuaginta et tres 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 mīlia is often omitted after the numeral adverb deciēs = 1,000,000; especially in stating sums of money.
- 7. Fractions are expressed by pars (omitted or expressed) in combination with dimidia $(\frac{1}{2})$, tertia $(\frac{1}{3})$, quarta $(\frac{1}{4})$, etc. A Plural numerator is expressed by a Cardinal; as, duae quintae $(\frac{5}{3})$. The fraction is often broken up; as, pars dimidia et tertia $(\frac{5}{6} = \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{3})$. The even denominators could be divided; as, dimidia tertia $(\frac{1}{2} \times \frac{1}{3} = \frac{1}{6})$. Instead of dimidia without pars, dimidium is used.

2. Numeral Signs.

D is short for IO, M for CIO. Adding O on the right of IO multiplies by 10; IOO = 5000; IOOO = 50,000. Putting C before as often as O stands after multiplies the right-hand number by 2; CIO = 1000; CCIOO = 10,000; CCCIOOO = 100,000. A line above multiplies by 1000; $\overline{V} = 5000$. A line above and at each side multiplies by 100,000: $|\overline{XIII}| = 1,400,000$. These signs may be combined: thus, $|\overline{XIII}| \overline{XXXVII}$ D or $|\overline{XIII}| XXXVII$ MD = 1,337,500. Plin., N. H. IV., 12, 24. Other signs are \bigcup , \bigcup (inser.) for 50, \bigcirc , \bigcirc , \bigcirc , (inser.) for 1000, and \bigcirc for 100,000 (inser.), and \bigcirc for 500,000 (inser.),

97.

29

<u><u>undētriceni</u></u>

3. Distributive Numerals.

1	singuli, -ae, -a, one each.	30	trīcēnī
2	bīnī, -ae, -a, two each.	40	quadrāgēnī
3	ternī (trīnī)	50	quinquāgēni
4	quaterni	60	sexāgēnī
5	quini	70	septuägēnī
6	sēnī	80	octogeni
7	septēnī	90	nonāgēnī
8	octoni	100	centēnī
9	novēnī	102	centēnī bīnī
10	dēnī	125	centeni viceni quini
11	ūndēn ī	200	ducēnī
12	duodēnī	300	trecēnī
13	ternī dēnī	400	quadringēnī
14	quaternī dēn ī	500	quingēni
15	quini deni	600	sexcēnī (sēscēnī)
16	sēnī dēnī	700	septingeni
17	septēnī dēnī	800	octingēnī
18	octoni deni, duodeviceni	900	nongeni
19	novēnī dēnī, undēvicēnī	1000	singula milia
20	vicēni	2000	bīna mīlia
21	vicēnī singuli	3000	trīna mīlia
22	vicēni bini, bini et vicēni	10,000	dēna mīlia
28	duodētrīcēnī	100,000	centēna mīlia

These answer the question quoteni, how many each?

REMARKS.—I. The Gen. Pl. masc. and neuter ends usually in -um, except that singulus has always singulorum, and Cicero uses binorum.

- 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 singulf is expressed, the Cardinal may be used.
- 3. The Distributives are used with pluralia tantum: binae litterae, two epistles. But with these uni is used for one, trini for three: unae litterae, trinae litterae.
- 4. The same rules as to the insertion or omission of et apply to the Distributives as to the Ordinals (96, 1. 3, 4).

Notes.—1. The poets and later prose writers occasionally use the Distributives for Cardinals, with words other than plūrālia tantum (n. 3); also some forms of the Singular. Especially noteworthy is the combination trīnum nūndinum, which is technical, and therefore found also in model prose.

2. Parallel forms not found in classical times are quadrini (early, late), and the late du(o)centēni, trecentēni, quadringentēni, quingentēni, ses(x)centēni, millēni, etc.

4. Multiplicative Numerals.

Only the following forms occur:

1	simplex,	single,	5	quincuplex
2	duplex,	double,	7	septemplex
3	triplex,	triple,	10	decemplex
4	quadruplex,	quadruple.	100	centuplex

These answer the question, how many fold?

5. Proportional Numerals.

Only the following forms occur:

1	simplus, -a, -um,	single,	4	quadruplus
2	duplus,	double.	7	septuplus
3	triplus		8	octuplus

These answer the question, how many times as great?

98.

NUMERAL ADVERBS.

1	semel, once,	22	bis et vīciēs, vīciēs et bis,
2	bis, twice.		vīciēs bis *
3	ter	30	trīciēs
4	quater	40	quadrāgiēs
5	quīnquiēs (-ēns)	50	quīnquāgiēs
6	sexiēs (-ēns)	60	sexāgiēs
7	septiēs (-ēns)	70	septuāgiēs
8	octiēs (-ēns)	80	octōgiēs
9	noviēs (-ēns)	90	nonāgiēs
10	deciēs (-ēns)	100	centiēs
11	ūndeciēs (-ēns)	200	ducentiēs
12	duodeciës, etc.	400	quadringentiës
13	ter deciēs, tredeciēs	500	quingenties
14	quater deciës, quattuordeciës	600	sexcenties (sescenties)
15	quinquies decies, quindecies	700	septingenties
16	sexies decies, sedecies	800	octingentiës
17	septiēs deciēs	900	nōngentiēs
18	duodēvīciēs, octiēs deciēs	1,000	mīlliēs
19	undēviciēs, noviēs deciēs	2,000	bis mīlliēs
20	vīciēs	100,000	centiës milliës
21	semel et vīciēs, vīciēs et semel,	1,000,000	mīlliēs mīlliēs, deciēs cen-
	vīciēs semel *		tiēs mīlliēs

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

^{*} Not semel vicies, bis vicies, 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 quinquiës on, have an older form in -ens; quinquiens. In totiens, so often, and quotiens, 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 bina for quaterna, etc. But the normal forms are not unfrequent.

Note.—For the adverbs from **undecies** 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 **quinquies** decies, sexies decies, are cited only from Pruscian. 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 nonn. The nonn 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, tū, thou; it cannot express local appurtenance, as hīc, this (here), ille, that (there).

A. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

Possessive.

100. I. Personal Pronouns of the First Person.

	G.	mei,	of me,	meus, -a, -um, mine or my.	
	D.	mĭhĭ,	to, for me,		
	Ac.	mē,	me,		
	Ab.	mē,	from, with, by me.		
_					
PL.	-N.	nōs,	we,		
	G.	nostrī,	of us,		
		nostrum	,	noster, nostra, nostrum, our	or ours.
	D.	nōbīs,	to, for us.		

Ac. nos, us,
Ab. nobis, from, with, by us.

SUBSTANTIVE.

I,

Sc.-N.

ego,

REMARKS.—I. 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. mīs; D. mī, mihēl (inscr.); mihē (inscr.); Ac. mēd, mēmē; Ab. mēd (mēmē is doubtful); Pl., N. Ac. ēnōs (in *Carmen Arvale* only); G. nostrōrum, nostrārum (for nostrum); D. Ab. nōbējs (inscr.).

2. In late Latin mf also serves for the Voc. Sing. fem. and Voc. Pl. masc. Meum, nostrum, in the Gen. Pl. of the Possessives, are not nnfrequent in early Latin.

3. The forms of meus, of tul and tuos, of sul and suos, very frequently suffer Synizesis (727) 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.

SUBSTANTIVE.

Possessive.

Sg .- N. V. tū. thou.

G. tuī. of thee,

D. tibl, to, for thee, tuus (-os), -a, -um (-om), thy or thine.

Ac. thee. tē,

Ab. tē. from, with, by thee.

Vōs, PL.-N. ye or you,

G. vestrī, of you,

vester (archaic voster), vestra, vestrum, vestrum, your or yours. D. to, for you,

võbis,

Ac. vos, uou. Ab. vobīs. from, with, by you.

Notes.-1. Early forms are: G. tis; D. tibei (inscr.), tibe (inscr.); Ac. Ab. ted, tētē; Pl. G. vostrī, vostrorum, -ārum.

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).

DETERMINATIVE.

SUBSTANTIVE.

of him,

Possessive.

Sg.-N. [is, ea, id], he, she, it,

supplied by the Genitivc. ēius, his, hers, its.

ēius,

G.

etc.

PL.-N. [eī, iī, ī; eae, ea], they,

eorum, earum, eorum, of them, eorum, earum, eorum, their or theirs. G.

REFLEXIVE.

SUBSTANTIVE.

Possessive.

Sc.-N. G. suī.

suus (-os), -a, -um (-om), his, of him, her, it(self), to, for, him(self), her(self), her(s), its (own).

sibī, Ac. sē, sēsē, him(self), her(self),

sē, sēsē, from, with, by him(self). Ab.

PL.-N.

D.

G. suī. of them(selves), suus (-os), -a, -um (-om), their to, for them(selves), (own), theirs. D. sibī.

sē, sēsē, them(selves), Ac.

sē, sēsē, from, with, by them(selves). Ab.

Notes.—1. Inscriptions show siber. The use of sess 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 t\vec{ti} (except t\vec{u} and vestrum), to sibi, s\vec{e}, and some forms of suus; egomet, \(I myself \). Instead of t\vec{u}met, t\vec{u}te is found; from which carly poets formed occasionally t\vec{u}temet, t\vec{u}timet. 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 (mepte, Pl., Men. 1059); more often to the Abl. Sing. of the Possessives; it is especially com-

mon with suo: suonte 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, cūiātis.

103. B. DETERMINATIVE PRONOUNS.

г	18.	he,	1.h	7.1.

		SINGULAR.		PLU	PLURAL.			
N.	is,	ea,	id,	iī, eī, ī,	eae,	ea,		
G.	ēius,	ēius,	ēius,	eōrum,	eārum,	eōrum,		
D.	eī,	eī,	eī,	i	is, eīs, īs,			
Ac.	eum,	eam,	id,	eōs,	eās,	ea,		
Ab.	eō,	eā,	eō.	i	īs, eīs, īs.			

Note.—The following variations in the forms are found: N. it for id (post-cl.); G. ēlīus (inscr.), ēlīus (early poetry); D. ēlēl (inscr.), ēl, ēl (carly poetry), eae (f.); Ac. em, im (early), for eum; Pl. N. ēls, eēls, iēls, iēls (early and rare), for el; the usual classical form is il; G. eum (inscr.) for eōrum; D. ēlēls, ēēls, iēls (inscr.), ībus (early poetry and rare); the usual classical form is ils. The early forms sum, sam, sōs, 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.

SINGULAR. PLURAL. N. īdem, eadem. idem. īdem, eīdem, iīdem, eaedem, eadem, ēiusdem, ēiusdem, ēiusdem, eorundem, eārundem, eōrundem, G. D. īsdem, eīsdem, iīsdem, eidem, eīdem, eidem, easdem, eadem, Ac. eundem, eandem, idem, eosdem, īsdem, eīsdem, iīsdem. Abl. eodem, eadem, eödem.

Note.—Variations in form: N. & dem, isdem (inscr., early) for idem; D. idem (inscr.) for eidem; Pl. N. idem (more usual in poetry), &isdem, isdem (inscr.); D. Ab. iisdem (rare), eisdem (uncommon in classical prose). Synizesis is common.

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

	5	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.		
N.	ipse,	ipsa,	ipsum,	ipsī,	ipsae,	ipsa,
G.	ipsīus,	ipsīus,	ipsīus,	ipsōrum,	ipsārum,	ipsōrum,
D.	(ipsī,)	ipsī,	ipsī,	ipsīs,	ipsīs,	ipsīs,
Ac.	ipsum,	ipsam,	ipsum,	ipsõs,	ipsās,	ipsa,
Ab.	ipsö,	ipsā.	ipsō.	ipsīs,	ipsīs,	ipsīs,

Notes.—1. In the earlier time the first part of ipse was also declined, thus: N. eapse; Ac. eumpse, eampse; Ab. eopse, 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. ipsō, ipsae (late); Pl. N. ipsēī (inscr.). The few other forms are uncertain. Ipsīns is dissyllabic twice in Terence.

PLAUTUS shows ipsissimus (comp. Gr. αὐτότατος), 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.	hīc,	haec,	hōc,	Pr.—hi,	hae,	haec, these,
G.	hūius,	hūius,	hūius,	hōrum,	hārum,	hōrum,
D.	huīc,	huīc,	huīc,	hīs,	hīs,	hīs,
Ac.	hunc,	hanc,	hōc,	hōs,	hās,	haec,
Abl.	hōc,	hāc.	hōc.	hīs.	hīs.	hīs.

Notes.—1. The full forms of hic in -ce are still found in limited numbers in early Latin; G. hōiusce (in the phrase hūiusce modi, the form is common in the classical period and later); D. hōice (inser.); Pl. N. hēlsce, hīsce (not nncommon); G. hōrunce (rare); D., Ab. hīsce (in Platt. and Ter. nsnally before vowels); Ac. hōsce, hāsce (not uncommon; occasionally in Cic.).

2. Other variations in form are: G. hūius and hūīus (in early poetry for metrical reasons); D. hae (rare and early); Ac. hone; Pl. N. heī, heīs for hī, haec for hae (in Plaut. and Ter. regularly before vowels or h, occasionally before consonants; occasionally also in classical times and later); G. hōrunc, hārunc (early). Pl. N. hīc for hī and D. Ab. hībus for hīs are doubtful.

3. His combines with -ne. Usually -ne was appended to hise, 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: hisine, haecine, hoscine, huicine, huncine, haccine, hoscine, haecine, haecine (N. Pl. fem.), haecine (N. Pl. neut.), hiscine, hoscine, hascine; also hisne, haecine, hoscine, huiusne, huncne, hancue, hoscine, haecine, hosne, hascine, hascine,

II. Demonstrative Pronoun for the Second Person.

iste, that.

	and of the state o									
Sa.—N.	iste,	ista,	istud,	PL.—is	tī,	istae,	ista,			
G.	istīus,	istīus,	istīus,	is	stōrum,	istārum,	istõrum,			
D.	istī,	istī,	istī,	is	tīs,	istīs,	istīs,			
Ac.	istum,	istam,	istud,	is	tōs,	istās,	ista,			
Abl.	istō,	istā,	istō.	is	tīs,	istīs,	istis.			

Notes.-1. The Dat. Sing. shows isto 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 istaec

(neuter, occasionally in Cic., Ep. and later), being wholly confined to early and late Latin. N. istic, istaec, istuc (istoc, once); D. istIc; Ac. istunc, istanc; Ab. istōc, istāc. Pl. N. istaec (f.), istaec (n.).

3. In a few cases in Plaut. and Ter. -ne is appended to istice, etc., the preceding

e being weakened to i: istucine, istocine, istacine, istoscin'.

III. Demonstrative Pronoun for the Third Person.

Sg.—N.	ille,	illa,	illud,	PL.—illī,	illae,	illa,
G.	illfus,	illīus,	illīus,	illōrum,	illārum,	illērum,
D.	illī,	illī,	illf,	illīs,	illīs,	illîs,
Ac.	illum,	illam,	illud,	illōs,	illās,	illa,
Ab.	illō,	illā,	illō.	illīs,	illīs,	illīs.

Notes.—1. The older forms from stem ollo-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. ollī; Pl. N. ollī, olla; G. ollom, ollārum (early); D. ollēīs, ollīs; Ac. ollōs (early).

2. Inscriptions show illut occasionally for illud. Other rare forms are: G. illi

(doubtful); D. illae; Pl. N. illei. Illfus is often dissyllabic in early Latin.

3. Ille often combines with -ce, which is, however, usually shortened to -c: illīusee, illāce, illāce, illāce, illāce, illāce, illāce, illace, illac; Ac. illune, illane; Ab. illōc, illāc; Pl. N. illace (f.), illace (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.

Sc.—N.	qui,	quae,	quod,	PL.—quī,	quae,	quae,
G.	cūius,	cūius,	cūius,	quōrum,	quārum,	quōrum,
D.	cuf,	cuī,	cui,	quibus,	quibus,	quibus,
Ac.	quem,	quam,	quod,	quōs,	quās,	quae,
Ab.	quō,	quā,	quō.	quibus,	quibus,	quibus.

General Relatives are:

Substantive. quisquis, whoever, quidquid, quicquid, whatever.

Adjective. (quiqui, quaequae, quodquod), whosoever.
quieunque, quaecunque, quodcunque, 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 quois; quius, cuiius, and other variations are also found. Other archaic forms are: D., quoi. D. Pl., quois. 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 CLERO.

3. The Abl. Sing. quf for all genders is the prevalent form in early times, and in combination with cum is preferred to quō, quā 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 quiqui, 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 cuicui in Gen. sometimes in Cicero. In the Plural the only form found is quibusquibus. (Liv. XLI., 8, 10.)

 In quicumque the -cumque is often separated by tmesis. The only variations in form are queiquomque, quescumque in early Latin, and occasionally quiscumque

for quibuscumque (several times in CICERO).

106. E. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Substantive, quis? who? quid? what?
Adjective. qui? quae? quod? which?
Subst. and Adj. uter? utrum? who, which of two?

SG. N. quis? quid? who? what? Possessive.
G. cūius? cūius? whose? cūius, cūius, cūium, whose?
D. cuī? cuī? to, for whom?
Ac. quem? quid? whom? what?

Ab. quo? quo? 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? quidnam? what, pray? ecquis? is there any one who? ecquid?

Adjective. quinam? quaenam? quodnam? which, pray? ecqui? ecqui??

Remark.—In the poets quī 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 quī is generally used in much the same sense as quālis. On the other hand, quis is often used as an adjective for quī; usually, however, the substantive which follows is best looked upon as in apposition. In the classical period quī 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 nomen 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. quōiae, and,

perhaps, G. Pl. quoium.

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 ecqui 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, ecquidnam, ecquionam, ecquionam, ecquionam.

107. F. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

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

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

The use of quid and aliquid for quod and aliquod, and of aliquod for aliquid,

is very rare and late.

- 2. Besides the variations in form mentioned under the relative and interrogative, the indefinitive quis shows ques as an early form for qui (N. Pl.), and in Pl. Nom. Acc. neut. quae and qua in equally good usage. Aliquis shows in Abl. 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).

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 adjective is fillus. The use of quisquam as a feminine is only in early Latin. Quidquam is a poor spelling for quicquam. In Abl. Sing. quiquam occurs occasionally. In Sing. Gen. Dat. Acc. frequently, and in Plural always, forms of fillus were used.

4. quivis, quaevis, quidvis (and quodvis), any one you please, quilibet, quaelibet, quidlibet (and quodlibet), you like.

Note.—Quīvīs, quaevīs, quālibet (archaic -lubet), quaelibet may be used either as substantives or adjectives, but quidvīs, quidlibet are substantives only, quodvīs, quodlibet are adjectives only. Peculiar forms of quīvīs are G. quoivīs in quoivīsmodī (Plaut.); D., quōvīs (late); Ab., quīvīs (Plaut., Ter.), and the compounds cūiusvīscumque (Lucr. III., 389) and quōvīscumque (Mart. xiv., 2, 1). Quīlibet may be separated by tmesis into quī and libet (Sall., Cat. 5, 4).

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. Quidque is substantive, quodque adjective. In the Abl. Sing. quique occurs occasionally. The Plural is regular, but rare until post-classical times. In Nom. Pl. quaeque is either fem. or neuter.

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

tillus, -a, -um, any; ntillus, -a, -um, no one, not one. The corresponding substantives are neme (76) and nihil, the latter of which forms only nihili (Gen.) and nihilo (Abl.), and those only in certain combinations.

nonnullus, -a, -um, some, many a, declined like nullus.

alius, -a, -ud, another; the Possessive of alius is alienus.

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.

utervīs, utravīs, utrumvīs,

uterlibet, utrulibet, utrumlibet.

CORRELATIVES.

109. I. CORRELATIVE PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

Interrogatives.		DEM	ONSTRATIVES.	RELATIVES.		
quis ?	who?	is,	that,	quī,	who.	
quālis?	of what	tālis,	such (of that	quālis,	as (of which	
	kind?		kind),		kind).	
quantus?	how much?	tantus,	so much,	quantus,	as much.	
quot?	how many?	tot,	so many,	quot,	as many.	

110. II. CORRELATIVE PRONOMINAL ADVERBS.

1. Pronominal adverbs of place.

ubǐ ? where ? ibǐ, there. ubǐ, where.
quā ? where, hic, hāc, here, this way. quā, where, which
which way ? way.

istīc, istāc, there, that way.
illīc, illāc, there, yonder way.

unde ? whence ? inde, thence. unde, whence.

hinc, hence. istinc, thence.

illine, thence, from yonder.

quō? whither? eō, thither. quō, whither.

hūc, (hōc,) hither. istūc, (istōc,) thither.

illūc, (illōc,) thither, yonder.

2. Pronominal adverbs of time.

quando? when? tum, then. quando, 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 ? quī ? how ? ita, sīc, so, thus. ut, utī, 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; alicubĭ, somewhere; alicundo, from somewhere; aliquandō, at some time.

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

quantuscunque, however great; quāliscunque, of whatever kind; quotquot, however many; ubicunque, wheresoever; quandōcunque, quandōque, whenever; quotiëscunque, 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; quanvis, as you please, though.

THE VERB.

- 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: amo, I love.

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

3. Tense—Present, Imperfect, Future,

Perfect, Pluperfect, Future Perfect.

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.

4. Mood-Indicative, Subjunctive, Imperative.

The Indicative Mood is the mood of the fact: amo, 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, I exhort. These are called deponent (from deponere, 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:

CTIVE.

Se.—I. -m (or a vowel, coalescing with -r. the characteristic ending); Pf. I,

2. -s; Pf. -s-tī; Impv. -tō(d) or want- -ris or -re; Impv. -re or -tor, ing,

3. -t; Impv. to(d), -tur; Impv. -tor.

PL.-1. -mus,

-mur.

PASSIVE.

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

3. -nt; Pf. erunt or ere; Impv. -nto(d), -ntur; Impv. -ntor.

- 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 \$\bar{a}\$ of the stem is changed to \$\bar{e}\$(e); final \$\bar{e}\$ to \$\bar{e}\$(ea); final \$\bar{a}\$ to \$\bar{e}\$(ia); final \$\bar{e}\$ to \$\bar{a}\$(a). In the Future Indicative final \$\bar{e}\$ is changed to \$a\$ or \$\bar{e}\$(e); final \$\bar{a}\$ to ia (i\bar{e}\$, ie).
- (b) The tense signs are: for the Imperfect Indicative, bā (ba); for the Imperfect Subjunctive, rē (re); for the Future Indicative in ā and ē verbs bǐ (b, bu); for the Perfect Indicative, I (i); for the Perfect Subjunctive, -erǐ; for the Pluperfect Indicative, erā (era); for the Pluperfect Subjunctive, issē (isse); for the Future Perfect Indicative, erǐ (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,

3. erit,

2. eritis,

3. erunt,

PL.—I. erimus,

he will be.

we shall be,

you will be,

they will be.

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, Iam.

2. The Future Passive Infinitive is formed by the combination of

the Supine with the Present Passive Infinitive of eo, I go.

3. The infinite parts of the verb are formed by the addition of the following endings to the stems:

			Activ					PASSIVE.
Infinit	IVE.	Pr.		Dire			rī, ī.	I ASSIVE.
	2 7 23.		,			,	tum), esse.	
			-tūrum (-a, -um), esse,			-tum īri	, ,,	
DARMIN	DI DO			-ns (Gntis),				
I ARIIC	IPLES.		-ль (ог	1015),			+nn (+n	., -tum).
			-tūrus (-a, -um).			-tus (-ta	i, -iiii).	
				, ,			~	
		RUND			ERUNDI			UPINE.
•	ndī (-d	ō, -du	m, -dō).	-nd	us (-a, -	um).	-tu	m;-tū
116.			THE	VERR	sum,	T am.		
,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,,								
			(Pres. st	em es-,	Peri. s	stem r t	1-)	
	IND	ICAT	IVE.	Pres	TE STEE	SUBJU	INCTIVE.	
Sg.—1.	sum.		Iam,	I MES	sim,	7	be,	
	es,		thou art,		sīs,		ou be.	
	est.		he, she, it		sit,		she, it	be.
_	,		we are,		sImus, we be,			
		,	you are,		sItis,		-	
	sunt,		they are.		sint,		ey be.	
J.	,		viiog airoi		,		og oo.	
				IMPER	RFECT.			
Sc.—I.	eram,		I was,		essem,	I	were	(forem),
2.	erās,		thou wast	,	essēs,	th	ou wert	(forës),
3.	erat,		he was.		esset,	he	were	(foret).
PL.—1.	erām	18,	we were,		essēmu	s, we	were,	
2.	erātis	,	you were,		essētis,	yo	u were,	
3.	erant	,	they were,		essent,	th	ey were	(forent).
				_				
Sg.—I.	erō.		I shall be.		URE.			
	eris,		thou wilt					
2.	01 109		0,000 00000	ου,				

	Perfect.									
Sg.—1.	fui,	I have been, was,	I fuerim,	I have, may hav	ve, been,					
2.	fuistī,	thou hast been thou wast,	n, fueris,	thou have, maye	est have,					
3.	fuit,	he has been, h	he fuerit,	he have, may ha	ve, been.					
Рь.—1.	fuimus,	we have been, i	ve fuerimu	s, we have, may ha	ve, been,					
2.	fuistis,	you have been you were,	, fueritis,	you have, may been,	y have,					
3.	fuērunt,	fuere, they have been, they were		they have, ma been.	y have,					
		D	UPERFECT.							
So T	fueram,	I had been,		I had, might ha	na haam					
	fuerās,			thou hadst, migh						
	140140,		, 1415500,	been,	ese maco,					
		he had been.		he had, might ha						
PL.—1.	fuerāmu	s, we had been,	fuissēmus	s, we had, might ha	ve, been,					
2.	fuerātis,	you had been	, fuissētis,	you had, migh been,	t have,					
3.	fuerant,	they had been	fuissent,	they had, migh	t have,					
		Furu	RE PERFECT.							
SgI.	fuerō,	I shall have	been,							
2.	fueris,	thou wilt har	e been,							
3.	fuerit,	he will have	been.							
Рт. — г	fucutmus	, we shall have	haan							
		you will have								
		they will hav								
	.,	<i>y</i>								
	IM	PERATIVE.		INFINITIVE.						
PRES				ES. esse, to be,						
Sg.—1.				RF. fuisse, to have						
	es, be t	thou, estō, thou estō, he sh		T. futūrum (-am, -						
		esto, ne sn	un ve.	(fore), to be a be.	uoom 10					
PL.—1.				PARTICIPLE.						
2	pata ha	ne petato arm	ohall ha							

2. este, be ye, estote, you shall be,
3. —, sunto, they shall be. Fut. futurus, -a, -um, about

to be.

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, sies, siet, sient; regular in inscriptions until the first century B. C. and common in early poets chiefly for metrical reasons; side by side with this occur fuam, fuās, 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, fores, 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, esses, esset, essent; in the Inf. fore always remained the equivalent of futurum esse.

(d) In all the Perfect forms the original length was fū-, which is still found occa-

sionally in early Latin.

(e) Early and principally legal are the rare forms escit, escet, esit, for erit; essint for erunt.

The Pres. Part. is found only in the compounds; ab-sēns, absent, and prae-sēns, present.

117. Compounds of sum, I am.

ab-sum, I am away, absent. Pf. ob-sum, I am against, I hurt. Pf. (abful) āful. obful or offul.

ad-sum, I am present. Pf. affui. pos-sum, I am able.

dē-sum, I am wanting. prae-sum, I am over, I superintend. In-sum, I am in. prō-sum, I am for, I profit.

inter-sum, I am between. sub-sum, I am under. No Pf. super-sum, I am, or remain, over.

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

Prösum, I profit.

118. In the forms of prosum, prod- is used before vowels.

SUBJUNCTIVE. INDICATIVE. PRESENT. pro-sum, prod-es, prod-est, pro-sim. . pro-sumus, prod-estis, pro-sunt, IMPERFECT. prod-eram. prod-essem. FUTURE. prod-ero, pro-fui, pro-fuerim, PERFECT. pro-fueram, pro-fuissem. PLUPERFECT. FUT. PERF. pro-fuero,

INFINITIVE. Pres. prod-esse; Fut. pro-futurum esse (-fore); Perf. pro-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.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

Sg.—I. pos-sum, I am able, can, pos-sim, I be able.

pot-es,
 pos-sis,
 pot-est.

PL.—1. pos-sumus, pos-sīmus,
2. pot-estis, pos-sītis,
3. pos-sunt. pos-sint.

IMPERFECT.

Sg.-I. pot-eram, I was able, could, pos-sem, I were, might be, able.

pot-erās, pos-sēs,
 pot-erat. pos-set.

PL.—I. pot-erāmus, pos-sēmus,
2. pot-erātis, pos-sētis,
3. pot-erant. pos-sent.

FUTURE.

Sg.-I. pot-ero, I shall be able.

2. pot-eris,
3. pot-erit.

PL.-I. pot-erimus,

pot-eritis,
 pot-erunt.

PERFECT.

SG.—I. pot-uf, I have been able, pot-uerim, I have, may have, been able.

2. pot-uistī, pot-uerīs, 3. pot-uit. pot-uerit.

PL.—1. pot-uimus, pot-ueršmus,
2. pot-uistis, pot-uerštis,
3. pot-uērunt. pot-uerint.

PLUPERFECT.

Sg.—I. pot-ueram, I had been able. pot-uissem, I had, might have, been able.

pot-uerās, pot-uissēs,
 pot-uisset.

PL.—I. pot-uerāmus, pot-uissēmus, 2. pot-uerātis, pot-uissētis, pot-uissent.

FUTURE PERFECT.

Sg.-I. pot-uero, I shall have been Pl.-I. pot-uerimus. 2. pot-ueritis,

2. pot-ueris, [able, 3. pot-uerint.

3. pot-uerit.

INFINITIVE. PRES., posse, to be able. PERF., potuisse, to have been able.

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 sīs, potis sit, potis sint; potis erat; pote fuisset; 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, possetur, possitur, poter-

atur. 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:

P	RES. IND.	Pres. Inf.	PERF. IND.	SUPINE.	
I.	am-ō,	amā-re,	amā-vī,	amā-tum,	to love.
II.	dēle-ō,	dēlē-re,	dēlē-vī,	dēlē-tum,	to blot out.
	mone-ō,	monē-re,	mon-uī,	mon-i-tum,	to remind.
III.	em-ō,	eme-re,	ēm-ī,	ēm(p)-tum,	to buy.
	statu-ō,	statue-re,	statu-I,	statū-tum,	to settle.
	scrīb-ō,	scribe-re,	scrīp-sī,	scrip-tum,	to write.
	capi-ō,	cape-re,	cēp-ī, ·	cap-tum,	to take.
IV.	audi-ō,	audi-re,	audī-vī,	audī-tum,	to hear.

Rules for forming the Tenses.

- 121. r. The *Present System*. From the Present stem as obtained by dropping -re of the Pres. Inf. Active, form
- a. Pres. Subjv. by changing final ā to e, ē to ea, e to a (or -ia), I 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 -nd after shortening ā and ē, changing I 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 ō).
- 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 ō or iō, ī to iō); 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 -bō 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); ī, to ia).
- 2. The *Perfect System*. From the Perfect stem as obtained by dropping final i of the Perfect, form
- a. Perf. Subjv. Active by adding -erim; Perf. Inf. Active by adding -isse.
- b. Plupf. Indic. Active by adding -eram; Plup. Subjv. Active by adding -issem.
 - c. Fut. Perf. Active by adding -ero.
- 3. The Supine System. From the Supine stem as obtained by dropping final -m of the Supine, form
 - a. Perf. Part. Passive by adding -s.
- b. Fut. Part. Active by adding -rus (preceding u being lengthened to u).
- 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; c, g, qu, with s, become x; t and d before s are assimilated, and then sometimes dropped. See further, 9.

scrīb-ō, scrīp-sī, scrīp-tum; legō, lēc-tum; coqu-ō, coc-tum; dīc-ō, dīxī (dīc-sī); iung-ō, iūnx-ī (iūng-sī); coqu-ō, coxī (coqu-sī); ed-ō, ē-sum (ed-sum); cēd-ō, cēs-sī (cēd-sī); mitt-ō, mī-sī (mit-sī), mis-sum (mit-sum).

122.

First Conjugation.

CONJUGATION OF amare, to love.

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

ACTIVE.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

Am loving, do love, love.

Sg.-1. am-ō,

2. amā-s.

3. ama-t,

PL.-I. amā-mus.

2. amā-tis,

3. ama-nt,

Be loving, may love.

amē-s.

ame-t.

amē-mus, amē-tis.

ame-nt.

IMPERFECT.

Was loving, loved.

Sg.-I. amā-ba-m.

2. amā-bā-s.

3. amā-ba-t,

PL.-I. amā-bā-mus,

2. amā-bā-tis,

3. amā-ba-nt,

Were loving, might love.

amā-re-m,

amā-rē-s, amā-re-t.

amā-rē-mus,

amā-rē-tis,

amā-re-nt.

FUTURE.

Shall be loving, shall love.

Sg.-1. amā-b-ō,

2. amã-bi-s,

3. amā-bi-t,

PL.—1. amā-bi-mus,

2. amā-bi-tis,

3. amā-bu-nt.

PERFECT.

Have loved, did love.

Sc.-I. amā-v-I,

2. amā-v-istī,

3. amā-v-it,

PL.—I. amā-v-imus,

2. amā-v-istis,

3. amā-v-ērunt (-ēre),

Have, may have, loved.

amā-v-eri-m, amā-v-eri-s,

amã-v-eri-t.

amā-v-erī-mus, amā-v-erī-tis.

amā-v-eri-tis,

First Conjugation.

ACTIVE.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PLUPERFECT.

Had loved.

Had, might have, loved.

Sg.-I. amā-v-era-m,

amā-v-isse-m, 2. amā-v-erā-s,

3. amã-v-era-t.

PL.-I. amā-v-erā-mus.

2. amā-v-erā-tis. 3. amā-v-era-nt,

amā-v-issē-s. amā-v-isse-t.

amā-v-issē-mus. amā-v-issē-tis.

amā-v-isse-nt.

FUTURE PERFECT.

Shall have loved.

Sg.-I. amā-v-er-ō.

2. amā-v-erī-s,

3. amā-v-eri-t.

PL.—I. amā-v-erī-mus,

2. amā-v-erī-tis,

3. amā-v-eri-nt.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT. Sg.-I. ---

2. amā, love thou, amā-tō, thou shalt love.

FUTURE.

amā-tō, he shall love. 3. ----

Pr.—r. ——.

2. amā-te, love ye, ama-tote, ye shall love.

ama-nto, they shall love. 3. ----

INFINITIVE.

Pres. amā-re, to love.

PERF. amā-v-isse, to have loved.

amā-tūr-um, -am, -um esse, to be about to love.

GERUND.

SUPINE.

N. [amā-re], loving.

G. ama-nd-i, of loving.

D. ama-nd-ō, to loving.

Ac. [amā-re]. Ac. amā-tum, to love. (ad) ama-nd-um, loving, to love.

Ab. ama-nd-ō, by loving.

Ab. amā-tū, to love, in the loving.

PARTICIPLES.

PRESENT. N. amā-n-s (G. ama-nt-is), loving.

FUTURE. amā-tūr-us, -a, -um, being about to love.

First Conjugation.

PASSIVE.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

Am loved.

Sc.-I. amo-r.

2. amā-ris (-re).

3. amā-tur.

PL.—I. amā-mur.

2. amā-minī.

3. ama-ntur,

Be, may be, loved.

ame-r. amē-ris (-re).

ame-tur.

ame-mur.

ame-mini, ame-ntur.

IMPERFECT.

Was loved.

Sc.-I. amā-ba-r.

2. amā-bā-ris (-re),

3. amā-bā-tur,

PL.-1. amā-bā-mur,

2. amā-bā-minī.

3. amā-ba-ntur,

Were, might be, loved.

amā-re-r.

amā-rē-ris (-re).

amā-rē-tur.

amā-rē-mur.

amā-rē-minī. amā-re-ntur.

FUTURE.

Shall be loved.

Sg.-I. amā-bo-r,

2. amā-be-ris (-re).

3. amā-bi-tur.

PL.—I. amā-bi-mur,

2. amā-bi-minī,

3. amā-bu-ntur.

PERFECT.

Have been loved, was loved.

SG.-I. amā-t-us, -a, -um sum,

2. 3. es,

est,

PL.-I. amā-t-i, -ae, -a sumus.

2.

estis.

3. sunt. Have, may have, been loved.

amā-t-us, -a, -um sim,

sīs. sit,

sīmus, amā-t-ī, -ae, -a

sītis.

sint.

First Conjugation.

PASSIVE.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PLUPERFECT.

		Had be	een loved	Had, might have,	been loved.	
SG	.—1. 2. 3.	amā-t-us,	-a, -um	eram, erās, erat,	amā- t-us, -a, -um	essem, essēs, esset,
PL	.—I. 2. 3.	amā- t-ī, -	ae, -a	erāmus, erātis, erant.	amā-t-ī, -ae, -a	essēmus, essētis, essent.

FUTURE PERFECT.

Shall have been loved.

SgI.	amā-t-us, -a, -um	erō,
2.		eris,
3.		erit.
PL1.	amā-t-ī, -ae, -a	erimus
2.		eritis,
3.		erunt.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.	FUTURE.		
Sg.—1. ——,	 ,		
2. amā-re, be thou loved.	amā-tor, thou shalt be loved.		
3. —,	amā-tor, he shall be loved.		
PL.—1. ——,	 ,		
2. amā-minī, be ye loved.	 ,		
3. —.	ama-ntor, they shall be loved.		

INFINITIVE.

Pres.	amā-rī,	to be loved.
PERF.	amā-t-um, -am, -um esse,	to have been loved.
Fur.	amā-tum īrī,	to be about to be loved.
Fur. Pr.	amā-t-um, -am, -um fore.	

PARTICIPLE.

GERUNDIVE.

Perf. ama-t-us, -a, -um, loved. ama-nd-us, -a, -um, (one) to be loved.

123.

Second Conjugation.

CONJUGATION OF delere, to destroy (blot out).

PRIN. PARTS: dēle-ō, dēlē-re, dēlē-vī, dēlē-tum.

ACTIVE.

PASSIVE.

			,
. INDIC. SUBJV.		INDIC.	SUBJV
	Pre	SENT.	
Se.—dēle-ō, dēlē-s, dēle-t,	dēlea-m, dēleā-s, dēlea-t,	dēle-o-r, dēlē-ris (-re), dēlē-tur,	dēlea-r, dēleā-ris (-re), dēleā-tur,
PL.—dēlē-mus, dēlē-tis, dēle-nt.	dēleā-mus, dēleā-tis, dēlea-nt.	dēlē-mur, dēlē-minī, dēle-ntur.	dēle-ā-mur, dēle-ā-minī, dēle-a-ntur.
ttoto-ng.		RFECT.	GOIO-W-MBMI
Sc.—dēlē-ba-m, dēlē-bā-s, dēlē-ba-t,	dēlē-re-m, dēlē-rē-s, dēlē-re-t,	dēlē-ba-r, dēlē-bā-ris (-re), dēlē-bā-tur,	dēlē-re-r, dēlē-rē-ris (-re), dēlē-rē-tur,
PL.—dēlē-bā-mus, dēlē-bā-tis, dēlē-ba-nt.	dēlē-rē-mus, dēlē-rē-tis, dēlē-re-nt.	dēlē-bā-mur, dēlē-bā-minī, dēlē-ba-ntur,	dēlē-rē-mur, dēlē-rē-minī, dēlē-re-ntur.
	Fur	URE.	
Sg.—dēlē-b-ō,		dēlē-bo-r,	

SG.—dēlē-b-ō,	dēlē-bo-r,
dēlē-bi-s,	dēlē-be-ris (re)
dele-bi-t,	dēlē-bi-tur,
PL.—dēlē-bi-mus,	dēlē-bi-mur,
dele-bi-tis,	dēlē-bi-minī,
dēlē-bu-nt.	dēlē-bu-ntur.

	PERFE	CT.			
Se.—dēlē-v-ī, dēlē-v-istī, dēlē-v-it,	dēlē-v-eri-m, dēlē-v-eri-s, dēlē-v-eri-t,	dēlē-t-us	sum, es, est,	dēlē-t-us	sim, sīs, sit.
PL.—dēlē-v-imus, dēlē-v-istis, dēlē-v-ērunt (-ēre),	dēlē-v-erī-mus, dēlē-v-erī-tis, dēlē-v-eri-nt,	dēlē-t-ī	sumus, estis, sunt,	dele-t-I	sīmus, sītis, sint.

Second Conjugation.

		Second Co	njugatio	11.		
	ACTIVI	E.		PASS	SIVE.	
	INDIC.	SUBJV.		INDIC.	S	UBJV.
		PLUPE	RFECT.			
Sg	—dēlē-v-era-m,	dēlē-v-isse-m,	dēlē-t-us	eram,	dēlē-t-us	essem,
	dēlē-v-erā-s,	dēlē-v-issē-s,		erās,		essēs,
	dēlē-v-era-t,	dēlē-v-isse-t.		erat,		esset.
Pr.	—dēlē-v-erā-mus,	dēlē-v-issē-mus,	dēlē-t-ī	erāmus,	dēlē-t-ī	essēmus,
I L.	dēlē-v-erā-tis,	dēlē-v-issē-tis,	dore-0-2	erātis,	4010-0-2	essētis,
	dēlē-v-era-nt,	dēlē-v-isse-nt.		erant,		essent.
				,		
		FUTURE 1	PERFECT.			
Sg.	—dēlē- v-er-ō ,		dēlē-t-us	erō,		
	dēlē-v-erī-s,			eris,		
	dēlē-v-eri-t,			erit.		
Pr.	-dēlē-v-eri-mus,		dēlē-t-i	erimus,		
_ ~.	dēlē-v-erī-tis,			eritis.		
	dēlē-v-eri-nt,			erunt.		
	•					
		IMPERA				
~	PRESENT.	FUTURE.	PRESENT.		FUTURE.	
Sg.	,	7=1=	1-1-		,	
	dēlē,	dēlē-tō,	dēlē-re,		dēlē-tor, dēlē-tor.	
	 ,	dēlē-tō,	 ,		dele-tor.	
PL.	,	 ,	—,		 ,	
	dēlē-te,	dēlē-tōte,	dēlē-mir	ıĭ,	—,	
	 ,	dēle-ntō.	—,		dēle-ntor	
		INFINI	TIVE			
	Pres. dēlē-re.	IMPIMI	Pres.	dēlē-rī.		
	PERF. dēlē-v-isse.		PERF.		ım, -am, -u	m esse.
	Fur. dēlē-tūr-um	amum esse.	Fur.	dēlē-tu		,
	101.	,,		dēlē-t-ı	um, -am, -1	ım fore.
	GERUND.	SUPINE.			CIPLES.	1-1
N.	[dēlē-re].				-n-s; G. d	
	dele-nd-i.				r-us, -a, -ui	
D.	dēle-nd-ō.	Ao dola +		, dere-t-t	ıs, -a, -um.	
AC.	[dēlē-re] (ad) dēle-nd-um.	Ac. dēlē-tum	•	GE	RUNDIVE.	
Ab	dēle-nd-ō.	Ab. dēlē-tū.			d-us, -a, -u	
ALU.	dole-nu-v.	more delected		dele-m	u-us, -u, -u	Attio

124. Like delere, to destroy, are conjugated only, nere, to spin, flere, to weep, and the compounds of -plere, fill, and -olere grow (the latter with Supine in -itum); also ciere, 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 vī to uī, and weaken it to i in the Supine System.

Second Conjugation.

Conjugation of monere, to remind.

PRIN. PARTS: mone-ō, monē-re, mon-uī, moni-tum.

T A COTTETT

OFFITTE

ACTIV	ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.		
INDIC.	SUBJV.	INDIC.		SUBJV.	
	PR	ESENT.			
Sg.—mone-ō,	monea-m,	mone-o-r,		monea-r,	
monē-s,	moneā-s,	monē-ris (-re),	moneā-ris (-	re),
mone-t,	monea-t,	monē-tur,		moneā-tur,	
PL.—monē-mus,	moneā-mus,	monē-mur,		mone-ā-mur,	,
monē-tis,	moneā-tis,	monē-minī,		mone-ā-mini	ī,
mone-nt.	monea-nt.	mone-ntur.		mone-a-ntur	•
	IMP	ERFECT.			
Sc.—monē-ba-m,	monē-re-m,	monē-ba-r,		monē-re-r,	
monē-bā-s,	monē-rē-s,	monē-bā-ris	. ,,	monē-rē-ris	
monē-ba-t,	monē-re-t,	monē-bā-tur,		monē-rē-tur,	,
PL.—monē-bā-mus,	monē-rē-mus,	monē-bā-mur	*	monē-rē-mu	
monē-bā-tis,	monē- rē-tis ,	monē-bā-min	,	monē-rē-min	,
monē-ba-nt.	monē-re-nt.	monē-ba-ntu	r.	monē-re-ntu	r.
G	Fu	TURE.			
Sc.—monē-b-ō,		monē-bo-r,	,		
monē-bi-s,		monē-be-ris ((-re),		
monē-bi-t,		monē-bi-tur,			
PL.—monē-bi-mus,		monē-bi-mur,			
monē-bi-tis,		monē-bi-mini	,		
monē-bu-nt.		mone-bu-ntu	r.		
G		RFECT.			
Sg.—mon-u-i,	mon-u-eri-m,	moni-t-us		moni-t-us	
mon-u-istī,	mon-u-eri-s,		es,		sīs,
mon-u-it,	mon-u-eri-t,		est,		sit,
PLmon-u-imus,	mon-u-eri-mu	*	sumus,	moni-t-ī	sīmus,
mon-u-istis,	mon-u-eri-tis	,	estis,		sītis,
mon-u-ērunt (-ē	re). mon-u-eri-nt.		sunt.		sint.

Second Conjugation.

Sg.-

Sc.-

SG.

PRES.
PERF.
FUT.

N.G. D. Ac.

Ab.

	36cona c	onjugat	1011.		
ACTIV	Е.		PAS	SSIVE.	
INDIC.	SUBJV.		INDIC.	st	JBJV.
	PLUP	ERFECT.			
-mon-u-era-m,	mon-u-isse-m,	moni-t-us	eram.	moni-t-us	essem,
· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	mon-u-issē-s,		erās,		essēs,
	mon-u-isse-t.				
,			erat,		esset,
	mon-u-issē-mus,	moni-t-i		moni-t-i	essēmus,
mon-u-erā-tis,	mon-u-issē-tis,		erātis,		essētis,
mon-u-era-nt.	mon-u-isse-nt.		erant.		essent.
	FUTURE	PERFECT.			
-mon-u-er-ō,		moni-t-us	erō,		
mon-u-eri-s,			eris,		
mon-u-eri-t,			erit,		
-mon-u-eri-mus,		moni-t-i	erimus.		
mon-u-erf-tis.			eritis.		
mon-u-eri-nt.			erunt.		
mon w-cra-no.			02.00		
	IMPE	ERATIVE.			
PRESENT.	FUTURE.	PRESEN	T.	FUTURE	
monē,	monē-tō,	monē-r	θ,	monē-tor	•
	monē-tō,			monē-tor	,
monē-te,	monē-tōte,	monē-n	ninī,		
	mone-ntō.			mone-nt	or.
	INF	INITIVE.			
. mon ë-re.		Pres.	monē-rī.		
mon-u-isse.		PERF.	moni-t-ur	., -am, -um	ASSA.
moni-tūr-um,	am nm esse		moni-t-un		0000
mom our um,	um, um obse.			ı, -am, -um	fore.
GERUND.	SUPINE.			FICIPLES.	
[monē-re].				-n-s; G. n	
mone-nd-ī.				-us, -a, -um	١.
mone-nd-ō.			moni-t-u	s, -a, -um.	
[monē-re]	Ac. moni-t	um.			
(ad) mone-nd-	um.			NDIVE.	
mone-nd-ō.	Ab. moni-t	ū.	mone-nd-	us, -a, -um.	

125.

Third Conjugation.

CONJUGATION OF emere, to buy.

PRIN. PARTS: em-o, eme-re, ēm-f, ēm(p)-tum.

A	CIT	דיד	77	E.
Δ	U.	LХ	. ¥	P4.

PASSIVE.

sint.

ACTIVE.		PASSIVE.		
INDIC.	SUBJV.	SUBJV. INDIC.		
	Pres	ENT.		
Saem-o,	ema-m,	em-o-r,	ema-r,	
emi-s,	em ā-s ,	eme-ris (-re),	emā-ris (-re),	
emi-t,	ema-t,	emi-tur,	emā-tur,	
PLemi-mus,	emā-mus,	emi-mur,	emā-mur,	
emi-tis,	emā-tis,	emi-minī,	emā-minī,	
emu-nt.	ema-nt.	emu-ntur.	ema-ntur.	
	Imperfect.			
Sa.—emē-ba-m,	eme-re-m,	emē-ba-r,	eme-re-r,	
emē-bā-s,	eme-rē-s,	emē-bā-ris (-re,)	eme-rē-ris (-re),	
emē-ba-t,	eme-re-t,	emē-bā-tur,	eme-rē-tur,	
PL.—emē-bā-mus,	eme-rē-mus,	emē-bā-mur,	eme-rē-mur,	
emē-bā-tis,	eme-rē-tis,	emē-bā-minī,	eme-rē-minī.	
emē-ba-nt.	eme-re-nt.	emē-ba-ntur.	eme-re-ntur.	
	Fur	URE.		
Sc.—ema-m,		ema-r,		
emē-s,		emē-ris (-re),		
eme-t,		emē-tur,		

emē-s,	emē-ris (-re),
eme-t,	emē-tur,
PL.—emē-mus,	emē-mur,
em ē-tis ,	emē-minī,
eme-nt.	eme-ntur.
eme-nt.	eme-ntur.

ēm-ērunt (-ēre). ēm-eri-nt.

PERFECT.

Sg.—ēm- ī , ēm- istī , ēm- it ,	ēm-eri-m, ēm-erī-s, ēm-eri-t,	ēmp-t-us	sum, es, est,	ēmp-t-us	sim, sīs, sit,
PL.—ēm-imus,	ēm-eri-mus,	ēmp-t-ī	sumus,	ēmp-t-i	sīmus

sunt.

Third Conjugation.

ACTIVE.

G.-

ēm-eri-nt.

PASSIVE.

INDIC.	SUBJV.	INDIC.	SUBJV.
	P	LUPERFECT.	
−ēm-era-m,	ēm-isse-m,	ēmp-t-us eram,	ēmp-t-us essem,
ēm-erā·s,	ēm-issē-s,	erās,	essēs,

ēm-era-t. ēm-isse-t. erat. esset. L.-Em-erā-mus, ēm-issē-mus, ēmp-t-ī erāmus, ēmp-t-I essēmus, ēm-erā-tis, ēm-issē-tis, erātis, essētis. ēm-era-nt. ēm-isse-nt. erant. essent.

FUTURE PERFECT.

g.—ēm-er-ō. ēmp-t-us erō. ēm-erīs. eris. ēm-eri-t. erit, L.—ēm-eri-mus, ēmp-t-ī erimus. ēm-eri-tis, eritis.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.	FUTURE.	PRESENT.	FUTURE.
		-	
eme,	emi -tō ,	eme-re,	emi-tor,
	emi-tō,		emi-tor,
emi-te.	emi-tōte,	emi-minī.	
	emu-ntō.		emu-ntor.
	eme,	eme, emi-tō, — emi-tō, — emi-tō, — emi-tō,	eme, emi-tō, eme-re, — emi-tō, — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — — —

INFINITIVE.

RES. eme-re. Pres. em-1.

ERF. Em-isse. ēmp-t-um, -am, -um PERF. uт. ēmp-tūr-um, -am, -um esse,

FUT. ēmp-tum iri.

erunt.

Fur. Pr. emp-t-um, -am, -um fore.

GERUND. SUPINE. PARTICIPLES.

[. [eme-re]. PRES. N. emē-n-s; G. eme-nt-is. em-e-nd-i. Fur. emp-tur-us, -a, -um.

). em-e-nd-δ. PERF. emp-t-us, -a, -um. c. [em-e-re]

Ac. ēmp-tum. (ad) em-e-ndum. GERUNDIVE. b. em-e-nd-ō.

Ab. ēmp-tū. em-e-nd-us, -a, -um, 126. Many verbs of the third conjugation with stem in ie (Pre Indic. in iō) weaken this ie to e before -re, and to i before m, 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, fodiō, fugiō, iaciō, pari quatiō, rapiō, sapiō, and their compounds; also compounds cliciō, -spiciō, and the deponents gradior and its compound morior and its compounds, patior and its compounds.

SYNOPSIS OF PRESENT SYSTEM OF cape-re, to take.

PRIN. PARTS: capi-ō, cape-re, cep-i, cap-tum.

I MM. I AMIS . Capt-0, cape-1e, cep-1, cap-tum.					
ACTI	VE.		PASSIVE.		
INDIC.	SUBJV.	INDIC.	SUBJV.		
	Pi	RESENT.			
So.—capi-ō, capi-s, capi-t,	capia- m, capiā-s, capia-t,	capi-o-r, cape-ris (-re), capi-tur,	capia -r , capiā -ris (- re), capiā -tur,		
Pl.—capi-mus, capi-tis, capiu-nt.	capiā-mus, capiā-tis, capia-nt.	capi-mur, capi-minī, capiu-ntur.	capiā-mur, capiā-mini, capia-ntur.		
	Im	PERFECT.			
So.—capiē-ba-m, etc.	cap-e-re-m, etc.	capi-ē-ba-r, etc.	cape-re-r, etc.		
	F	UTURE.			
So.—capia-m,		capia-r,).		
etc.		etc.	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,		
	IMP	ERATIVE.			
Pres.	Fur.	Pres.	Fur.		
Sc.—cape,	cap-i-tō, cap-i-tō,	cape-re,	capi -tor, capi -tor,		
capi-te.	capi-tōte,	capi-minī.	capiu-ntor.		
	•	INITIVE.			
Pres. cape-re.			eap-I.		
PARTICIPLE.	GER	UND.	GERUNDIVE.		
Pres. capiē-n-s.	G. capie-nd-i.		capie-nd-us, -a, -um.		

127.

Fourth Conjugation.

CONJUGATION OF audire, to hear.

PRIN. PARTS: audi-ō, audi-re, audi-vi, audi-tum.

ACTIVE.

PASSIVE.

SUBJV.
lia-r, diā-ris (-re), liā-tur,
liā-mur, liā-mini, lia-ntur.
lī-re-r, lī-rē-ris (-re), lī-rē-tur,
lī-rē-mur, lī-rē-minī, lī-re-ntur.

PERFECT.

Sg	-audī- v-ī, audī- v-istī, aud ī-v-it,	audī-v-eri-m, audī-v-eri-s, audī-v-eri-t,	aud ī-t-us	sum, es, est,	audī-t-us	sim, sīs, sit,
PL	-audī-v-imus, audī-v-istis, audī-v-ērunt (-ēre).	audī-v-erī-mus, audī-v-erī-tis, audī-v-eri-nt.	audī-t-ī	sumus, estis, sunt.	audī-t-ī	sīmus, sītis, sint.

Fourth Conjugation.

Α	Ch	T٢	V	R

PASSIVE.

INDIC.	SUBJV.	INDIC.	SUBJV.
	PLUPE	RFECT.	
Sg.—audī-v-era-m, audī-v-erā-s, audī-v-era-t,	audī-v-isse-m, audī-v-issē-s, audī-v-isse-t,	audī-t-us eram, erās, erat,	audI-tu-s essen essēs, esset,
PL.—audI-v-erā-mus, audI-v-erā-tis, audI-v-era-nt.	audī-v-issē-mus, audī-v-issē-tis, audī-v-isse-nt.	audī-t-I erāmu erātis, erant.	,
	FUTURE	Perfect.	
Sg.—audī-v-er-ō, audī-v-eri-s, audī-v-eri-t,		audī-t-us erō, eris, erit,	
Pl.—audī-v-erī-mus, audī-v-erī-tis, audī-v-eri-nt.		audī-t-I erimu eritis, erunt.	•
	IMPER	ATIVE.	
Present. Sg.——	FUTURE.	PRESENT.	Future.
audī,	audī -tō, audī -tō ,	audī-re,	audī-tor, audī-tor,
PL.——audī-te.	audī-tōte, audiu-ntō.	audī-minī.	audiu-nton
	INFIN	ITIVE.	
Pres. audi-re. Perf. audi-v-isse. Fur. audi-tür-um, -ar	n, -um esse.	Fur. audī-tur	
GERUND.	SUPINE	Fur. Pr. audī-t-u	m, -am, -um fore. RTICIPLES.
N. [audī-re]. G. audie-nd-ī. D. audie-nd-ō. Ac. [audī-re]	Ac. audī-t	Fur. audī-t Perr. audī-t	liē-n-s, G. audie-nt ūr-us, -a, -um. :-us, -a, -um.
(ad) audie-nd-um. Ab. audie-nd-ō.	Ab. audī-t	G]	ERUNDIVEnd-us, -a, -um.

DEPONENT VERBS.

128. 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 hortari, to exhort.

PRIN. PARTS: hort-or, horta-ri, horta-tus sum.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

Exhort.

Sg.—hort-o-r, hortā-ris (-re),

hortā-tur, Pl.—hortā-mur,

hortā-minī, horta-ntur.

Was exhorting. Sg.—hortā-ba-r,

hortā-bā-ris (-re), hortā-bā-tur,

PL.—hortā-bā-mur, hortā-bā-minī, hortā-ba-ntur.

Shall exhort.
Sg.—hortā-bo-r,
hortā-be-ris (-re),
hortā-bi-tur.

PL.—hortā-bi-mur, hortā-bi-minī, hortā-bu-ntur. Be exhorting, may exhort.

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

IMPERFECT.

Were exhorting, might exhort.

horte-ntur.

horta-re-r, horta-re-ris (-re), horta-re-tur, horta-re-mur, horta-re-mini, horta-re-ntur.

FUTURE-

	DDI ON DIVI	LIIDO.	
	PERFECT.		
Have exhorted, exh	orted.	Have, may have, ea	chorted.
Sg.—hortā-t-us, -a, -um	sum,	hortā-t-us, -a, -um	sim,
	es,		sīs,
	est,		sit,
PL.—hortā-t-i, -ae, -a	sumus,	hortā-t-ī, -ae, -a	sīmus,
	estis,		sītis,
	sunt.		sint.
	PLUPERFECT	2.	
77 7 1		TT-7	

Had exhorted	•	Had, might have, e	xhorted.
Sg.—hortā-t-us, -a, -um	eram, erās, erat,	hortā-t-us, -a, -um	essem, essēs, esset,
PL.—hortā-t-ī, -ae, -a	erāmus, erātis, erant.	hortā-t-ī, -ae, -a	essēmus, essētis, essent.

FUTURE PERFECT.

Shall have exhorted.

Sg.-hortā-t-us, -a, -um erō,

eris, erit,

PL,-hortā-t-ī, -ae, -a erimus. eritis. erunt.

IMPERATIVE.

	Present.	FUTURE.
SG.		
	hortā-re, exhort thou.	hortā-tor, thou shalt exhort.
		hortā-tor, he shall exhort.
PL.		
	hortā-minī, exhort ye.	
	_	horta-ntor, they shall exhort.
	INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLES.
PRES.	hortā-rī, to exhort.	Pres. hortā-n-s, exhorting.
FUT.	hortā-tūr-um, am, -um esse,	Fur. hortā-tūr-us, -a, um, abe
	to be about to exhort.	to exhort.

PERF. hortā-t-um, -am, -um esse, to have exhorted.

F. P. hortā-t-um, -am, -um fore, SUPINE.

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

hortā-tā, to exhort, in the ex- G. horta-nd-i, of exhorting. Ab. horting.

out

PERF. hortā-t-us, -a, -um, having exhorted.

GERUNDIVE.

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

GERUND.

2. Second, Third, Fourth Conjugations.

Synopsis of vereri, to fear; loqui, to speak; mentiri, to lie.

Prin. Parts: vere-or, verë-ri, veri-tus sum; loqu-or, loqu-i, locu-tus sum; menti-or, menti-ri, menti-tus sum.

INDICATIVE.

	II.	III.	IV.		
PRES.	vere-o-r,	loqu-o-r,	menti-o-r,		
	verē-ris (-re), etc.,	loque-ris (-re), etc.,	mentī-ris (-re), etc.,		
IMPERF.	verē-ba-r,	loque-ba-r,	mentic-ba-r,		
Fur.	verē-bo-r,	loqua-r,	mentia-r,		
PERF.	veri-t-us sum,	locū-t-us sum,	mentī-t-us sum,		
PLUPF.	veri-t-us eram,	locū-t-us eram,	mentī-t-us eram,		
Fur. Pr.	veri-t-us erō.	locū-t-us erō.	mentī-t-us erō.		
	SU.	BJUNCTIVE.			
Pres.	verea-r,	loqua-r,	mentia-r,		
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	loquā-ris (-re), etc.,	mentiā-ris(-re), etc.,		
IMPERF.	verē-re-r,	loque-re-r,	mentī-re-r,		
PERF.	veri-t-us sim,	locū-t-us sim,	mentī-t-us sim,		
PLUPF.	veri-t-us essem.	locū-t-us essem.	mentī-t-us essem.		
	IM	IPERATIVE.			
Pres.	verē-re,	loque-re,	mentī-re,		
Fur.	vere-tor.	loqui-tor.	mentī-tor.		
		•			
	11	NFINITIVE.			
PRES.	verē-rī,	loqu-i,	mentī-rī,		
Fur.	veri-tūr-um esse,	locū-tūr-um esse,	mentī-tūr-um esse,		
PERF.	veri-t-um esse,	locū-t-um esse,	mentī-t-um esse,		
Fut. Pr.	veri-t-um fore.	locū-t-um fore.	mentī-t-um fore.		
PARTICIPLES.					
Pres.	verē-n-s,	loquē-n-s,	mentiē-n-s,		
Fur.	veri-tūr-us,	locū-tūr-us,	mentī-tūr-us,		
Perf	veri-t-us.	locū-t-us.	mentī-t-us.		
GERUND.	vere-nd-i, etc.,	loque-nd-i,	mentie-nd-i,		
GERUNDIVE	z. vere-nd-us,	loque-nd-us,	mentie-nd-us,		
SUPINE.	veri-tum,	locū-tum,	mentī-tum,		
	veri-tū.	locū-tū.	mentī-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.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

amātūrus (-a. -um) sum. PRES. Am about to love.

amātūrus (-a, -um) sim, Be about to love.

amātūrus eram. IMPF.

amātūrus essem. Were about to love.

Was about to love.

amātūrus erō, Fur.

Shall be about to love.

amātūrus fuī. PERF.

amātūrus fuerim,

Have been, was, about to love.

Have, may have, been about to love.

amātūrus fueram, PLUPF.

Had been about to love.

amātūrus fuissem,

Had, might have, been about to love.

FUT. PERF. amātūrus fuero,

Shall have been about to love.

amātūr-um (-am, -um) esse, To be about to love. INFINITIVE, PRES.

> amātūr-um fuisse, To have been about to love. PERF.

PASSIVE.

PRES.

amandus (-a, -um) sum, Have to be loved.

amandus (-a, -um) sim, Have to be loved.

IMPE.

amandus eram, Had to be loved. amandus essem, forem, Had to be loved.

FUT.

amandus erō, Shall have to be loved.

PERF.

amandus fuī, Have had to be loved. amandus fuerim, Have had to be loved.

PLUPF.

amandus fueram, Had had to be loved. amandus fuissem, Should have had to be

loved.

amandum (-am, -um) esse, To have to be loved. INFINITIVE. PRES.

amandum fuisse. PERF.

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 -īt of the first, second, and fourth conjugations. Final -īt in the third conjugation is rare, and due, perhaps, to analogy or to metrical necessity. In the first person Plural the ending -mūs 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, Tactrus, 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 -iō-, we find in early times -I-. This is common in early Latin (especially scibam), 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 erit, vēnibit (vēneō). In the fourth conjugation -ibō for -iam is very common in early Latin (especially scibō), and forms in -ibō of the third conjugation are occasional.
- 4. Present Subjunctive.—Final -at of the third person Singular active is occasional in early Latin and also in later poets. In early Latin the active endings -im, -is, -it, -int are found in dare (and some compounds), which forms very often duim, duis, duit, duint. On similar forms from esse, see 116; from edere, see 172.
- 5. IMPERATIVE.—(a) Four verbs, dicere, ducere, facere, ferre (171), form the Pr. Impv. active dic, duc, fac, fer. But in early Latin dice, duce, face are not uncommon. The compounds follow the usage of the simple verbs, except non-prepositional compounds of facio. Scire, to know, lacks the Pr. Impv. sci.
- (b) The original ending of the Fut. Impv. active -tod is found in early inscriptions, but very rarely.
- (c) The Pr. Impv. passive (second and third Singular) ends occasionally in early Latin in -minō.
- 6. Present Infinitive Passive.—The early ending -rier (-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 -as, -es, the n having been omitted owing to its weak sound; see 12, R. r.
- 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.

I. SYNCOPATED FORMS.—The Perfects in -āvī, -ēvī, -īvī, often drop the v before s or r, and contract the vowels throughout, except those in -īvī, 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. 2. amāvistī, amāstī. dēlēvistī, dēlēstī. audīvistī, audīstī. PLUB. 1. 2. amāvistis, amāstis. dēlēvistis, dēlēstis. audīvistis, audīstis. 3. amāvērunt, amārunt, dēlēvērunt, dēlērunt, audivērunt, audierunt, Subjv. amāverim, amārim, dēlēverim, dēlērim, audiverim, audierim. etc. PLUPERFECT. dēlēveram, dēlēram, audīveram, audieram, Indic. amaveram, amaram, etc. etc. Subjy. amāvissem, amāssem. dēlēvissem, dēlēssem, audīvissem, audīssem, FUTURE PERFECT. amāverō, amārō, dēlēvero, dēlēro, audivero, audiero,

2. In the first and third persons Sing. and in the first person Pl. of the Perfect, syncope occurs regularly only in Perfects in ivi, and no contraction ensues. It is most common in the Perfects of Ire (169) and petere. In other verbs this syncopation is post-Ciceronian, except in a few forms. So Cicero uses dormiit, ērudiit, expediit, molliit, cupiit (also Plautus); Caesar, commūniit, resciit, quaesiit. Dēsinere forms desii and dēsiit, once each in early Latin (Cicero uses dēstiti and dēsititi instead), and then in post-Augustan Latin; dēsiimus is cited once from Cicero. The unsyncopated 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.

INFINITIVE PERFECT.

dēlēvisse, dēlēsse.

audīvisse, audīsse.

Note.—The forms nomus (Enn. = novimus), enarramus (Ter., Ad., 365), flemus, mūtāmus, and narramus (Prop.), suēmus (Lucr.), in the Perfect, are sporadic and sometimes doubtful.

3. novi, I know, and movi, I have moved, are also contracted, in their compounds especially.

Sing.-2. nostī. Plur.-2. nostis. 3. norunt. Subjv. norim, etc.

Plupf. noram, etc. Subjv. nossem, etc. Inf. nosse.

But the Fut. Perf. noro is found only in compounds.

amāvisse, amāsse.

Similar contractions are seen in movi, but not so often; iuvi 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 -si. These drop the s and contract. A few cases are found in Cicero, especially in the letters. Examples are dixti (found also in Cic. and probably an earlier formation, and not by syncope for dixisti); duxti, principally in compounds; intellexti (once in Cic.); scripsti; misti (misisti) and several others; also scripstis.

(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: faxō (facere); capsō (capere) and compounds; iūssō (iubēre; Verg.); amāssō (amāre); servāssō (servāre) and compounds, together with some others.
- 2. Perfect Subjunctive: faxim and compounds; dūxim; ausim (audēre, also used by Ctc.); iūssim; ēmpsim (emere); locāssim (locāre); negāssim (negāre). 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; pro-missem; intel-lexes; re-cesset and a

few other forms; ērēpsēmus (Hor., S., i. 5, 79). These forms are rare.

4. Infinitive: dixe; de-spexe; ad-duxe, etc.; intel-lexe; de-traxe, etc.; advexe; ad-misse, and a few others. Also the Future forms averuncassere, reconciliassere, impetrassere, oppugnassere.

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, -eront (later -erunt) and -ere. The form in -erunt was always preferred, and in classical prose is the normal form. The form in -ere seems to have been the popular form, and is much liked by Livy and later writers. Tacitus seems to have preferred -erunt for the Pure Perfect, and -ere for the Historical Perfect. The poets scan, according to the exigencies of the metre, at all periods also erunt.

6. In regard to the other endings, we have to notice in early Latin -is occasionally in the Pf. Subjv. and Fnt. Pf. Indic. active; Perfects in -ii are always written with -iēi-on inscriptions; in other Perfects the third person Singular in -ēlt (older -ēt), or -īt; as dedet; occasionally the first person ends in -ēl and the second in -istēl. Peculiar forms are dedrot (dedro), (for dederunt), fēcēd (for fēcit), and a few others.

THE STEM.

132. With the exception of the verbs sum, I am, edō, Ieat, 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 \(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \text{ 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, \bar{u} , \bar{a} , \bar{e} , \bar{o} , ae, au; and with e in the stem; as dicō (= deicō), dūcō (= doucō), rādō, cēdō, rōdō, caedō, plaudō; vehō, vergō, pendō, etc.; (b) verbs formed from a weak root, i. e., those with vowel i, \bar{u} , \bar{o} , and probably those with \bar{a} : as di-vidō, furō, olō (olere), ago.

II. The Reduplicated class: The Present stem is formed by reduplication, with i in the reduplicated syllable:

gen-, gī-gnō (for Gl-GEN-O), gī-gne-re, to beget; sta-, si-stō, si-ste-re, to set, stand. Compare stāre, to stand. Other forms, as sīdō (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: flecto (flee), 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 1 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 to 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, Isoak, 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 -sco, -sce irā-scor, I am in a rage; crē-scō, I grow; ob-dormi-scō, I fall asleep; apī-scor, I reach; pro-ficī-scor, I set out; nancī-scor (NAC-), I get; nō-scō (= gnō-scō), I become acquainted; pō-scō (= porc-scō), I demand; mīs-ceō (= mic-sc-eō), I mix; dīscō (= 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-), veni-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 -ui): 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 -ui to the Present stem after its characteristic vowel is dropped. Here belong the majority of the verbs of the second conjuga-

tion; monē-re, mon-uī.

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; sume-re, to take; con-tem(n)e-re, to scorn); and a few in which it is -s, as ūr-ō, I burn, ūs-si; haereō, I stick, haesi (= haes-si).

Examples are rēpō, I creep, rēp-sī; scrībō, I write, scrīp-sī; dīcō, I say, dīxī (= dīc-sī); carpō, I pluck, carp-sī; rādō, I scrape, rāsī (= rād-sī).

Note.—But verbs in -ndō, take ī in the Perfect: dēfend-ō, I strike (ward) off, dēfend-ī; perhaps because they formed originally a reduplicated perfect; as, mandō, I chew, man(di)dī; 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 -I. In Latin but few of these forms remain, and they have been variously modified: dīscō, I learn, di-dicī; spondeō, I pledge, spo(s)pondī; tangō, I touch, te-ti-gī; tundō, I strike, tu-tud-ī; ago, I act, ēgī (= e-ag-ī); emo, I buy, ēmī (= e-em-ī).

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; falle-re, to deceive; pange-re, to fix; parce-re, to spare; pare-re, to bear; pende-re, to hang; punge-re, to prick; tange-re, to touch; tende-re, to stretch (occasionally retained in late Latin); tonde-re, to shear (but occasionally retained in late Latin); tunde-re, to strike. Disc-ere, to learn, always retains it, and so posce-re, to demand, and admordere, 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 stare, 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 into i. In many cases these Perfects are the remains of reduplicated forms: lego, I read, leg-i; vide-o, I see, vid-i; fodi-o, I stab, fod-i; fugi-o, I flee, fug-i; frang-o, I break, freg-i.
- 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 -uī gradually extended in Latin.

III. THE SUPINE STEM.

- 135. I. Supine 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, dēlētum, audī-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 cēnsē-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 cēnsum, doctum, mīxtum, (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 (dicō, I say), fac-tum (faciō, 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 -sī, we find -s- also in some other stems:

- 1. In stems with a guttural characteristic; as, fīx-um (fīgō, I fix); often with a preceding liquid: mersum (mergō, I dip; Pf. mersī); tersum (tergeō, I wipe; Pf. tersī); parsum (parcō, I spare; Pf. parsī, old); spar-sum (spargō, I sprinkle; Pf. sparsī); mul-sum (mulgeō, I milk; Pf. mul-sī); but far-tum (farciō, I stuff; Pf. farsī); tortum (torqueō, I twist; Pf. torsī); indul-tum (rare and post-classical, from indulgeō, I indulge; Pf. indulsī).
 - 2. In one with a labial characteristic: lap-sum (labor, I slip).

3. In some stems with characteristic s; as, cēnsum (cēnseō, I deem; see I. a.); haesum (haereō, I stick); pīnsum (pīnsō, I pound).

4. In some stems with a nasal characteristic: pressum (premo, I press; Pf. pressi);

mānsum (maneō, I remain; Pf. mānsī),

5. In stems where ll, 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).

- H. FUTURE ACTIVE PARTICIPLE IN -tūrus,—The same changes occur in the stem as are found in the case of the Supine.
- I. In some stems ending in -u a thematic vowel i is inserted; as arguitūrus (arguere, to prove); luitūrus (luere, to loose); abnuitūrus (ahnuere, to deny); ruitūrus (ruere, to rush); ēruitūrus (ēruere, to root out); fruitūrus (fruī, to enjoy).
- 2. Some Future Participles are found without corresponding Perfect: calitūrus (calēre, to be warm); caritūrus (carēre, to lack); dolitūrus (dolēre, to grieve); iacitūrus (iacēre, to lie); pāritūrus (pārēre, to obey); valitūrus (valēre, to be well).
- 3. Irregular are: āgnōtūrus, āgnitūrus (āgnōscere, to know well); discitūrus (discere, to learn); hausūrus, haustūrus (haurīre, to drain); nīsūrus (nītī, to lean); moritūrus (morī, to die); nōscitūrus (nōscere, to know); oritūrus (orīrī, to arise); paritūrus (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:

auge-ō,	augē-re,	aux-ī,	auc-tum,	to increase.
senti-ō,	sentī-re,	sēn-sī,	sēn-sum,	to feel.
saepi-ō,	saepi-re,	saep-sī,	saep-tum,	to hedge about.
veni-ō,	veni-re,	vēn-ī,	ven-tum,	to come.
vide-ö,	vidē-re,	vid-i,	ví-sum,	to see.
vinci-ō,	vincī-re,	vin x-ī ,	vinc-tum,	to bind.

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:

ster-n-ō,	ster-ne-re,	strā-vī,	strā-tum,	to strew.
crē-sc-ō,	crē-sce-re,	crē-vī,	crē-tum,	to grow.
li-n-ā	line-re	15-v1 (11-v1)	li-tum	to emean

- 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 rectine, fremere, to rage, gemere, to groan, gignere, to beget, molere, to grind, strepere, to resound, vomere, to vomit, form Perfect in -ui, Supine in -itum.

alere, to nourish, colere, to cultivate, consulere, to consult, frendere, to show the teeth, occulere, to conceal, rapere, to snatch, and its compounds form Perfect in -ui, 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 -uf, 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 -īvī, Supine in -ītum.

- 4. Stems vary among the first, second, and fourth conjugations.
- (a) Verbs with the Present formed according to the first, and Perfeet 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 -uī, Supine in -itum :

fricare, to rub, necare, to kill, secare, to cut, with Perfect in -ui, Supine in -tum (but participles in ātus 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-ō (ci-o), ciē-re (cī-re). cīvī, cītum (ci-tum), to stir up, and its compounds; while poto, potare, to drink, forms Sup. pō-tum or pō-tātum, and Fut. Part. pō-tūrus or potā-tūrus,
- 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 PER-FECT FORM.

PERFECT: -vī; SUPINE: -tum.

137. Stem class:

(a) Verbs of first and fourth conjugations, except those mentioned Irregular in Supine is in 136, 4.

to bury.

sepeli-ō, sepelī-re, sepeli-vi, sepul-tum, (b) In the second conjugation: dēle-ō, dēlē-re, dēlē-vī, dēlē-tum, to destroy. fle-ō. flē-re. flē-vī, flē-tum, to weep. nē-re. nē-vī. nē-tum. to spin. ne-ō, -ole-ō (ab-, in-), -olē-re, -olē-vī. to grow. These compounds form Supine in itum; abolitum, inolitus. to fill. -plē-re, plē-vī, plē-tum, So the compounds with com-, in-, ex-, re-, sup-. to plait. vie-ō, viē-re, viē-tus.

Irregular is

cī-vī, cī-tum (ci-tum), to stir up. cië-re (cîre), In the compounds we find the Participles concitus or concitus, percitus, excitus or excitus, but accitus.

(c) In the third conjugation:

arcess-ō, arcesse-re, arcessi-vi, arcessi-tum, to send for. So, too, lacess-ō, I teuse, capess-ō, I teu hold of. In early Latin we often find accersō, the relation of which to arcessō is variously explained. The forms arcessiri, and later arcessiretur, from the fourth conjugation, also occur.

in-cess-ō, in-cesse-re, in-cessi-vI (cessi), to attack. So facess-ō, I cause, make off.

pet-ō, pete-re, peti-vi, peti-tum, to seek (fly at)quaer-ō, quaere-re, quaesi-vi, quaesi-tum, to seek.
con-quir-ō, con-quire-re, conquisi-vi,
So other compounds of -quirō (quaerō).

rud-ō, rude-re, rudī-vī, rudī-tum, to roar. ter-ō, tere-re, trī-vī, trī-tum, to rub. Tib., i. 4, 48, has at-teruisse, and Apuleius has similar forms.

138. Reduplicated class:

ser-ō, sere-re, sē-vī, sa-tum, to sow. So cōnserō, but with Sup. cōn-situm.

139. Nasal class:

A. li-n-ō, li-ne-re, lē-vī, li-tum, to besmear. So compounds of linō. Pf. li-vī is rare.

si-n-ō, 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-n-ō, cer-ne-re, crē-vī, (crē-tum), to separate. So dēcernō, I decide.

sper-n-ō, sper-ne-re, sprē-vī, sprē-tum, to despise. ster-n-ō, ster-ne-re, strā-vī, strā-tum, to strew.

140. Inchoative class:

inveterā-sc-ō, inveterā-sce-re, inveterā-vī, inveterā-tum, to grow old.

pā-sc-ō, pā-sce-re, pā-vī, pās-tum, to graze (trans.).

vesperā-sc-ō, vesperā-sce-re, vesperā-vī, — to become evening.
So advesperāscō.

crē-sc-ō, crē-sce-re, crē-vī, crē-tum, to grow So the compounds.

con-cupi-sc-ō, -cupi-sce-re, -cupi-vi, -cupi-tum, to long for.

ob-dormi-sc-ō, -dormi-sce-re, -dormi-vi, -dormi-tum, to fall asleep.

So condormiscō, ēdormiscō.

ex-olë-sc-ō, -olë-sce-re, -olë-vi, -olë-tum, to get one's growth.
So ob-solëscō, I grow old. But ab-olëscō, I disappear, has abolitum; co-alëscō, I grow together, co-alitum; ad-olëscō, I grow up, ad-ultum in the Sup.; and inolëscō lacks the Supine.

quië-sc-ō, quië-sce-re, quië-vī, quië-tum, to rest.
scī-sc-ō, scī-sce-re, scī-vī, scī-tum, to decree,
so ad-scīscō, I take on.

su-ësc-ō, suē-sce-re, suē-vI, suē-tum, lo accustom one's self'.
So compounds as-, con-, dē-, man-.

(g)nō-sc-ō, nō-sce-re, nō-vī, (nō-tum), to know.
So īgnōscō, I pardon; but cō-gnōsco, I recognise, and other compounds of nōsco, have Sup. in -itum.

re-sip-īsc-ō, -sipī-sce-re, -sipī-vī, — to come to one's senses

141. I-class:

cupi-ō, cupe-re, cupī-vī, cupī-tum, to desire.
sapi-ō, sape-re, sapī-vī(-uī), — to have a flavor.

PERFECT: -uI; SUPINE: (i)tum.

142. Stem class:

 The majority of the verbs of the second conjugation; see 134, I, b, and 135, a. But

sorbe-ō, sorbē-re, sorb-uī, — to sup up.
Pf. sorp-sī occurs in Val. Max. and Lucan.

2. Of the first conjugation:

crep-ō, crepā-re, crep-ul, crepi-tum, to raltte.

So the compounds, but in early and late Latin the regular forms of dis-crepāro and in-crepāre are occasional.

cub-ō, cubā-re, cub-uI, cubi-tum, to lie.

Occasional regular forms in post-Ciceronian Latin.

dom-ō, domā-re, dom-uī, domi-tum, to tame.

fric-ō, fricā-re, fric-uī, 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-tūrus,

mic-ō, micā-re, mic-uī, — to quiver, flash.
But dī-micāre, to fight (out), is regular, except occasionally in Ovid.

nec-ō, necā-re, necā-vi (nec-uī rare), necā-tum, to kill.

The compound ēnecā-re, to kill off, has ēnecāvī in early Latin, otherwise ēnecuī (rare); and ēnectus (but Plin. Mai., ēnecātus).

plic-ō, plicā-re, (plicā-vf), plici-tum, to fold.

The simple forms of plicare are rare. The compounds ap., com., ex., im., vary between -avi and -ui in the Pf., and -atum and -itum in the Sup.; but Cicero uses always applicavi, applicatum; complicavi, complicatum; and usually explicavi, always explicatum; always implicatum; circumplicare is always regular; forms of replicare are rare.

sec-ō, secā-re, sec-uī, sec-tum, to cut.
Regular forms are early, late, and rare.

son-ō, sonā-re, son-uī, 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-uī, — to thunder.
But at-tonitus and intonātus (Hor., Epod. 2, 51).

vet-ō,	vetā-re,	vet-uI,	veti-tum,	to forbid
But	Persius (5, 90) uses	vetā-vī.		

3. Of the third conjugation:

frem-ō,	freme-re,	frem-uī,		to roar, rage.
gem-ō,	geme-re,	gem-ui,		to groan.
vom-ō,	vome-re,	vom-uī,	vomi-tum,	to vomit.
al-ō,	ale-re,	al-uī,	al-tum,	to nourish.
Participle	ali-tus occurs fr	om Livy on.		

col-ō, cole-re, col-uī, cul-tum. to cultivate. con-cin-ō. -cine-re. -cin-uī. to sing together. So occinere, praecinere,

con-sul-o. con-sule-re. con-sul-ui. con-sul-tum. to consult. deps-ō, depse-re, deps-uī, deps-tus, to knead. moli-tum. mol-ō. mole-re. mol-uī. to grind. occul-ō. occule-re. occul-uī. occul-tum. to conceal. pīns-ō, pinse-re, pīns-uī, pīnsi-tum, to nound. Sup. also pinsum, pistum. Collateral forms of piso, pisere, are early and rare;

so also is pinsibant.

ser-ō. (ser-tum), to string (out). Common in compounds: as, desero, deserere, deserui, desertum, to desert. The same forms are found occasionally in compounds of serere, to sow (138), but not in classical Latin.

stert-ō,	sterte-re,	stert-uī,		to snore.
strep-ō,	strepe-re,	strep-uī,	(strepi-tum),	to make a din.
tex-ō,	texe-re,	tex-uī,	tex-tum,	to weave.

Irregular are

met-ō. mete-re, mess-uī. mes-sum, to mow. vol-ō. vel-le. to wish. vol-uī. So nolo, malo; see 174.

4. In the fourth conjugation:

amici-ō,	amicI-re,	amic-uī (amixī),	amic-tum,	to clothe.
aperi-ō,	aperī-re,	aper-uī,	aper-tum,	to open.
operi-ō,	operi-re,	oper-uī,	oper-tum,	to cover up.
sali-ō,	salī-re,	sal-uī,	sal-tum,	to leap.

The regular Perfects salivi, salif, are found in compounds, but usually in postclassical writers, and often syncopated.

143. Reduplicated class:

gī-gn-ō (GEN-), gī-gne-re, gen-ui, geni-tum, to beget. Early Latin has the Present forms genit, genunt, genat, genitur, genuntur, genendī, genī.

144. Nasal class:

frend-ō, frende-re, — frē-sum, frēs-sum, to gnash.

Also in the form frende-ō, frendē-re.

ac-cumb-ō, -cumbe-re, cub-uī, cubi-tum, to lie down.
So also the compounds con-, dis-, in-; but re-cumbō lacks the Supine.

ex-cell-ō, -celle-re, (cell-uī), (cel-sus), to surpass.

But per-cellere, to beat down, has Pf. per-culf, Sup. per-culsum. Excelluërunt is found in Gell. xiv. 3, 7, and in Augustine; otherwise forms of Pf. and Sup. do not occur.

145. The Inchoative class:

dispēsc-ō, dispēsc-re, dispēsc-uī, — to let loose.
So compēscere, to check.

A large number of verbs are formed from verbs of the second conjugation, or from substantives or adjectives, and take Pf. in -uī; as,

co-alēsc-ō, See 140.	alēsce-re,	al-uī,	ali-tum,	to grow together.
ē-vānēsc-ō,	vānēsce-re,	vān-uī,		to disappear.
con-valēsc-ō,	valēsce-re,	val-uī,	vali-tum,	to get well.
in-gemisc-ō,	gemisce-re,	gem-uī,		to sigh.
nōtēsc-ō,	nōtēsce-re,	nōt-uī,		to become known.
incalēsc-ō,	incalēsce-re,	incal-uī,		to get warm.

146. The I-class:

rapi-ō, 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, surpere; surpuerat occurs in Hoa.; aoristic forms, as rapsit, surrepsit, belong also to the early period. 131, 4, b. 2.

PERFECT: -si; SUPINE: -tum, -sum.

147. Stem class:

1. In the second conjugation:						
iube-ō,	iubē-re,	iūs-sī,	iūs-sum,	to order.		
On sorbeō so	ee 142, 1.					
ārde-ō,	ārdē-re,	ār-sī,	ār-sum,	to be on fire.		
rīde-ō,	rīdē-re,	rī-sī,	rī-sum,	to laugh (at).		
haere-ō,	haerē-re,	hae-sī,	(hae-sum),	to stick (to).		
mane-ō,	manē-re,	mān-sī,	mān-sum,	to remain.		
suāde-ō,	suādē-re,	suā-sī,	suā-sum,	to counsel.		
With dental dropped before ending of Pf. and Supine.						
auge-ō,	augē-re,	auxī,	auc-tum,	to cause to wax		
frige-ō,	frigē-re,	(frīxī),	_	to be chilled.		
lūce-ō,	lūcē-re,	lūxī,		to give light.		

lūge-ō,	lūgē-re,	lūxī,		to be in mourning.
alge-ō,	algē-re,	al-sī,		to freeze.
fulge-ō,	fulgē-re,	ful-sī,		to glow.
In early	Latin, forms of the	third conjugation	occur: fulgit,	fulgere, effulgere
(VERG., A , V	viii. 677).		-	
indulge-ö,	indulgē-re,	indul-sī,	(indul-tum),	to give way.
mulce-ō,	mulcē-re,	mul-sī,	mul-sum,	to stroke.
Rarely m	ulc-tus in compoun	ds.		
mulge-ō,	mulgē-re,	mul-sī,	mul-sum(ctu	m), to milk.
terge-ō,	tergē-re,	ter-sī,	ter-sum,	to wipe.
	f the third conjugat			ur, are occasionally
found; and	so too in some late c	ompounds. VAR	Ro has tertus.	
torque-ō,	torquē-re,	tor-sī,	tor-tum,	to twist.
turge-ō,	turgē-re,	tur-sī,	Patrician .	to swell.
urge-ō,	urgē-re,	ur-sī,		to press.
	nigv), -nīvē-re,	-nīxī (īvī),		to close the eyes.
	8.77			
2. In th	ne third conjugat	ion:		
aarn.õ	00 rno-ro	ogrn-eï	aam tum	to pluck.
carp-ō, dē-cerp-ō,	carpe-re, dē-cerpe-re,	carp-sī, dē-cerp-sī,	dē-cerp-tum,	to pluck off.
clep-ō,	clepe-re,	clep-sī (clēp-ī),		to filch.
	ante-classic.	Cicp-az (Cicp-z),	olep-tum,	to juon.
nūb-ō,	nūbe-re,	nūp-sī,	nūp-tum,	to put on a veil
	14.00 10,	nup sa,	nup tuni,	(as a bride).
rēp-ō,	rēpe-re,	rēp-sī,	rēp-tum,	to creep.
scalp-ō,	scalpe-re,	scalp-si,	scalp-tum,	to scrape.
scrīb-ō,	scrībe-re,	scrīp-sī,	scrip-tum,	to write.
sculp-ō,	sculpe-re,	sculp-sī,	sculp-tum,	to chisel.
serp-ō,	serpe-re,	serp-sī,	serp-tum,	to creep.
- /		- /	- '	•
prem-o (-pr.	imō), preme-re,	pres-sī,	pres-sum,	to press.
Some c	ompounds of en	o, I take, buy,	have Pf. in	-sī, Sup. in -tum,
	ich a euphonic p			, ,
cōm-ō,	cōme-re,	cōm-p-sī,	com-p-tum,	to adorn.
dēm-ō,	dēme-re,	dēm-p-sī,	dēm-p-tum,	to take away.
prōm-ō,	prome-re,	prom-p-si,	prom-p-tum,	to take out.
sūm-ō,	sūme-re,	sūm-p-sī,	sūm-p-tum,	to take.
On conte	mn-ō see 149, c.			
dīc-ō,	dīce-re,	dixi (dic-si),	dic-tum,	to say.
	c, see 130, 5. Occasi	onally in old Latin	a dīcēbō for Fu	ture.
dūc-ō,	dūce-re,	dūxī,	duc-tum,	to lead.
	re dūc, see 130, 5.			
fig-ō,	fige-re,	fīxī,	fīxum,	to fasten.
_	us for fixus is occas			
	, af-, in-), -flige-r		-flic-tum,	to strike.
	erb is found occasion			
frīg-ō,	frīge-re,	frīxī,	frīc-tum,	to parch.

sūg-ō, Fut. exsūgēl	sūge-re		sūxī, , <i>Ep.</i> 188.	sūc-tum,	to suck.
merg-ō,	merge-re,	mer	-sī,	mer-sum,	to plunge.
sparg-ō, cōn-sperg-ō,	sparge-re, con-sperge-re,	span con	r-sī, -sper-sī,	spar-sum, con-sper-sum,	to strew. to besprinkle.
coqu-ō,	coque-re,	cox	ī,	coc-tum,	to cook.
[-lig-ō (leg-), dī-lig-ō, intelligō, or	-lige-re, dī-lige-re,	-lēx dī-l	tī, ēxī,	-lēc-tum.] dīlēc-tum,	to love.
intellegō, negligō, or	intellege-re,	inte	el-lēxī,	intel-lēc-tum,	to understand.
neg-leg-ō,	neg-lege-re,		g-lēxī, , <i>J</i> . 40, 1, h	neg-lēc-tum, as neglēgisset.	to neglect.
reg-ō,	rege-re,	rēx	ī,	rēc-tum,	to keep right.
dī-rig-ō,	dī-rige-re,		ēxī,	dī-rēc-tum,	to guide.
per-g-ō,	per-ge-re,		-rēxī,	per-rēc-tum,	to go on.
su-rg-ō,	su-rge-re,		-rēxī,	sur-rēc-tum,	to rise up.
But expergo	formed expergi	itus i	n earry and	late Latin.	
teg-ō,	tege-re,		tēxī,	tēc-tum,	to cover.
claud-ō,	claude-re	е.	clau-sī,	clau-sum,	to shut.
con-, ex-clüd		-re,	ex-clū-sī,	ex-clū-sum,	to shut up, out.
laed-ō,	laede-re,		lae-sī,	lae-sum,	to harm.
col-līd-ō,	col-lide-	re,	col-lī-sī,	col-lī-sum,	to strike together
lūd-ō,	lūde-re,		lū-sī,	lū-sum,	to play.
	ud-ō), plaude-r		plau-sī,	plau-sum,	to clap.
ex-plod-o,	ex-plōde	-re,	ex-plō-sī,	ex-plō-sum,	to hoot off.
rād-ō,	rāde-re,		rā-sī,	rā-sum,	to scratch.
rōd-ō,	rōde-re,		rō-sī,	rō-sum,	to gnaw.
trūd-ō,	trūde-re,	,	trū-sī,	trū-sum,	to push.
vād-ō (in-, ē-),	-vāde-re	,	-vā-sī,	-vā-sum,	to go.
cēd-ō,	cēde-re,		cēs-sī,	cēs-sum,	to give way,
quati-ō,	quate-re	,	(quas-sī),	quas-sum,	to shake.
con-cutio (per	:-, ex-), con-cute	-re,	con-cus-si,	con-cus-sum	, to shatter.
mitt-ō,	mitte-re	,	mī-sī,	mis-sum,	to send.
dī-vid-ō,	dī-vide-1	re,	dī-vī-sī,	dī-vī-sum,	to part.
ūr-ō,	ūre-re,		ūs-sī,	ūs-tum,	to burn.
com-būr-ō,	com-būr	e-re,	com-būs-si	i, com-būs-tun	, to burn up.
ger-ō,	gere-re,		ges-sī,	ges-tum,	to carry.
flu-o (flugv-),	flue-re,		fluxī,	(flux-us),	to flow.
stru-ō (strugv-), strue-re	,	strūxī,	strūc-tum,	to build.
trah-o (tragh-)	, trahe-re	,	trāxī,	trāc-tum,	to drag.
veh-ō (vegh),	vehe-re,	,	vexī,	vec-tum,	to carry.
vīv-ō (vigv-),	vive-re,		vixi,	vīc-tum,	to live.
	,		,	,	

148 The T-class:

flect-ō, flecte-re, flexi, flexum, to bend.

nect-ō, necte-re, nexi (nexui), nexum, to knot.

The Pf. forms: in-nexui (Verg., A. v., 425).

pect-ō, pecte-re, pexi, pexum, to comb.

plect-ō, plecte-re, (plexI), plexum, to plait.

149. The Nasal class:

(a) Supine without N:

fing-ō, finge-re, finxī, fic-tum, to form. ming-ō, minge-re. minxī, mic-tum, to urinate. ping-o. pinge-re. pinxī. pic-tum. to paint. string-ō. stringe-re, strinxi. 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-munxī. ē-munc-tum. to wine the nose. iung-ō, iunge-re, iūnxī, iunc-tum, to yoke, join. ling-o, linge-re, linxī. linc-tum. to lick. ning-ō, ninge-re, ninxī. to snow. pange-re, panxi. to drive in. pang-o. panc-tum. Perfect also pegi, and Supine pactum. Compare 155 and paciscor, 165.

plang-ō, plange-re, planxī, planc-tum, to smite.

-stingu-ō, -stingue-re, -stinxī, -stinc-tum, to put out.

So the compounds ex-, dis-, re-; the simple verb is ante-classic.

ting-ō (tingu-ō), ting(u)e-re, tinxī, tinc-tum, to wet, dye.
ung-ō (ungu-ō), ung(u)e-re, ūnxī, ūnc-tum, 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-sī, -tem-p-tum, to despise.

150. The I-class:

I. In the third conjugation:

[-lici-ō (LAC), lice-re, -lexī, -lec-tum], to lure.
pel-lici-ō, pel-lice-re, pel-lexī, pel-lec-tum, to allure.
So allicere, illicere, which, however, have early Pf. in -uī, as does pellicere also.
But ē-licere has -uī regularly in classical times, and ē-lexī only later.

[-spici-ō (spec), -spice-re, -spexī, -spec-tum], to peer.
per-spici-ō, per-spice-re, per-spexī, per-spec-tum, to see through.
So the compounds with ad-, con-, dē-, in-,

2. In the fourth conjugation:

saepi-ō,	saepi-re,	saep-sī,	saep-tum,	to hedge in.
sanci-ō,	sanci-re,	sānxī,	sānc-tum,	to hallow.
The Sup. sand	ī-tum is rare.			
vinci-ō,	vincī-re,	vinxī,	vinc-tum,	to bind.
farci-ō (-ferci-ō)	, farcī-re,	far-sī,	far-tum,	to stuff.
fulci-ō,	fulcī-re,	ful-sī,	ful-tum,	to prop.
sarci-ō,	sarcī-re,	sar-sī,	sar-tum,	to patch.
senti-ō,	sentī-re,	sēn-sī,	sēn-sum,	to feel.
hauri-ō,	hauri-re,	hau-sī,	haus-tum,	to drain.

Verg., A. iv., 383, has hausurus. Early Latin shows hauribant (Luck.) and haurierint; hauriturus is very late.

rauci-ō, rauci-re, rau-sī, rau-sum, to be hoarse.

This verb is very rare.

PERFECT: - I WITH REDUPLICATION; SUPINE: -sum, -tum.

151, In the first conjugation:

- I. d-ō, da-re, ded-I, da-tum, to give, put, do. Everywhere ă, except in dās, thou givest, and dā, give thou.
- 1. Like dō, are conjugated the compounds with dissyllabic words, such as: circum-d-ō, I surround; satis-dō, I give bail; pessum-dō, I ruin; vēnum-dō, I sell; thus: circum-d-ō, 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-d-ō, ab-de-re. ab-did-I. ab-di-tum. to mut away. ad-d-ō. ad-de-re. ad-did-ī. ad-di-tum, to mut to. con-d-ō. con-de-re. con-did-ī. con-di-tum. to mut up (found). abs-con-do, abs-con-de-re, abs-con-d-i, abs-con-di-tum, to put far away. Pf. abscondidi is found in PL., Mer. 360, then not until late Latin.

crē-d-ō,	crē-de-re,	crē-did-ī,	crē-di-tum,	to put faith.
dē-d-ō,	dē-de-re,	dē-did-ī,	dē-di-tum,	to give up.
ē-d-ō,	ē-de-re,	ē-did-ī,	ē-di-tum,	to put out.
in-d-ō.	in-de-re,	in-did-ī,	in-di-tum,	to put in.
per-d-5,	per-de-re,	per-did-ī,	per-di-tum,	to fordo (ruin).
prō-d-ō,	prō-de-re,	prō-did-ī,	prō-di-tum,	to betray.
red-d-ō,	red-de-re,	red-did-ī,	red-di-tum,	to give back.
trā-d-ō,	trā-de-re,	trā-did-ī,	trā-di-tum,	to give over.
vēn-d-ō,	vēn-de-re,	vēn-did-í,	vēn-di-tum,	to put up to sale.
,				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. $st-\bar{o}$, $st\bar{a}-re$, $stet-\bar{i}$, $(st\bar{a}-t\bar{u}-rus)$, to stand.

So the compounds:

ad-st-ō, ad-stā-re, ad-stit-ī, — to stand by.
cōn-st-ō, cōn-stā-re, cōn-stit-ī, — to stand fast.

īn-st-ō,	īn-stā-re,	īn-stit-ī,	 to stand upon.
ob-st-ō,	ob-stā-re,	ob-stit-ī,	 to stand out
			against.
per-st-ō,	per-stā-re,	per-stit-ī,	 to stand firm.
prae-st-ō,	prae-stā-re,	prae-stit-ī,	 to stand ahead.
re-st-ō,	re-stā-re,	re-stit-ī,	 to stand over.
dī-st-ō,	dī-stā-re,		 to stand apart.
ex-st-ō.	ex-stā-re,	·	 to stand out.

All compounds of stare with dissyllabic 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-st-ō, circum-stā-re, circum-stet-ī, — to stand round.

Note.—Compare sistō and its compounds; 154, 1.

152. In the second conjugation:

morde-ō, mordē-re, mo-mord-ī, mor-sum, to bite.

pende-ō, pendē-re, pe-pend-ī, — to hang (Intr.).

sponde-ō, spondē-re, spo-pond-ī, spōn-sum, to pledge oneself.

Compounds omit the reduplication, but Plaut. shows also dē-spo-pondisse and

dē-spo-ponderās.

tonde-ō, tondē-re, to-tond-ī, tōn-sum, to shear.

153. In the third conjugation:

(a) Stem class.

Reduplication lost in the compounds:

cad-ō, cade-re, ce-cid-I, cā-sum, to fall.
oc-cid-ō, oc-cide-re, oc-cid-ī, oc-cā-sum, to perish.
re-cidere sometimes forms reccidI, as well as recidI, in the Perfect.

cae-sum. to fell. caed-ō. caede-re, ce-cīd-ī, to kill. oc-cid-o. oc-cide-re. oc-cid-i. oc-cī-sum, ce-cin-ī. can-ō. cane-re, (can-tum). to sing. Compounds form the Pf. in -ui. For (cantum), cantatum was used.

parc-ō, parce-re, pe-perc-ī (par-sī), (par-sūrus), to spare.
com-parcō (-percō), com-parce-re, com-pars-ī, com-par-sum, to save.
parsī is common in early Latin, and is the only form used by Plautus. Early Latin shows rarely parcuī. Ter. uses compersit.

154. (b) Reduplicated class:

1. **sistō** (= **si-st-ō**), 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-ī), sta-tum, to (eause to)
stand.

con-sist-o, con-siste-re, con-stit-I, con-sti-tum, to come to a stand. de-sist-o (ab-), de-siste-re, de-stit-I, de-sti-tum, to stand off.

ex-sist-ō. ex-siste-re. ex-stit-1. ex-sti-tum. to stand un. ob-sist-ō. ob-siste-re. ob-stit-ī. ob-sti-tum. to take a stand against. re-sist-ō. re-siste-re. re-stit-ī. re-sti-tum. to withstand. ad-sist-ō. ad-siste-re, ad-stit-I. to stand near. în-sist-ō. In-siste-re. īn-stit-ī, to stand upon. circum-sist-ō, circum-siste-re, circum-stet-ī, to take a stand round. 2. bi-bō. bi-be-re, bi-bī. (bi-bi-tus), 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 refellī, and lacks Supine.

pell-ō, pelle-re, pe-pul-ī, pul-sum, to push, drive back.
repellō loscs the reduplicating vowel in Pf. reppulī.

toll-5, tolle-re, — to lift up.

Pf. and Sup. are formed sus-tuli (from reduplicated Pf. tetuli, 171, N. 1) and sub-latum (for t'lā-tum); a recent view makes su-stuli from (s)tollō.

(pang-5), (pange-re), pe-pig-i, pāc-tum, to drive a bargain.

The Pr. forms are supplied by paciscor, 165. The Pf. pēgi, rare in the simple form, is regular in the compounds com-, im-, op-. See 149, b.

tang-ō (TAG), tange-re, te-tig-I, tāc-tum, to touch.
at-ting-ō, at-tinge-re, at-tig-I, 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, os-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 at, show.

The compounds prefer the Sup. in -tum; so always attentus, contentus, usually distentus and intentus.

pung-ō, punge-re, pu-pug-ī, punc-tum, to prick.
inter-pungō, inter-punge-re, inter-punxI, inter-punc-tum, to place points
between.

tund-ō, tunde-re, tu-tud-I, tūn-sum, tū-sum, to thump.

Simple form has usually tūnsus in the Participle; in the compounds more often tūsus. The reduplicating vowel is lost in rettudī.

curr-ō, curre-re, cu-curr-f, 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:

dīscō (= di-d(e)c-scō), dīsce-re, di-dic-ī, — to learn.

A late form is Fut. Part. dīscitūrus. Compounds retain reduplication. See 134, 111.

pōsc-ō (= porc-scō), pōsce-re, po-pōsc-ī, — to claim.

Compounds retain the reduplication. Sec 134, 111.

157. (e) The I-class:

pari-ō, pare-re, pe-per-ī, par-tum (paritūrus), to bring forth.

The compounds drop the reduplication and form the Inf. in -īre. But reperīre, to find, forms its Pf., repperī, with omission of the vowel of reduplication.

PERFECT: -1; SUPINE: -tum, -sum.

158. In the first conjugation:

iuvā-re. iūv-ī. iū-tum (iuvātūrus), to help. inv-ō. ad-iuv-ō. -iuvā-re. -iūv-ī. -iū-tum (-iū-tūrus), to stand by as aid. (la.v-ō). (lav-ere). lāv-i. lau-tum (lō-tum). to wash. (lava-vi). lav-ō. lavā-re. lavā-tum. to wash.

The Present forms of lavere belong principally to early Latin, with occasional forms in Augustan poets and late writers; lautum and lotum are both used in classical times; but lautum belongs rather to early, lotum to post-classical Latin. The form lavatum 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 (ferb-uī). — to seethe.

The Pr. forms of the third conjugation belong to early Latin and the poets. The Pf. in -uī is post-Cieronian.

fove-ō. fovē-re. föv-ī. fō-tum, to keep warm. move-ō. movē-re. mōv-ī. mö-tum. to move. pavē-re. to quake (with fear). pave-ō, pāv-i. 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. vov-i. vō-tum, to vow.

The Present forms of the third conjugation belong almost entirely to Augustan poets and later writers.

vide-ō, vidē-re, vīd-ī, vī-sum, to see.

160. In the third conjugation:

With long vowel in the Perfect.

1. The Stem class:

to do, drive. ag-0, age-re. ēg-ī. āc-tum. cō-g-ō, to compel. cō-ge-re, co-ēg-ī, co-āc-tum, to pass (time). dē-g-ō, dē-ge-re, red-ig-ō. red-ige-re. red-ēg-ī. red-āc-tum. to bring back. em-0, eme-re. ēm-ī. ēmp-tum, to take, to buy. -ime-re, -ēmp-tum, to make away with. -ēm-ī.

co-em-ō, I buy up, is conjugated like em-o. But the compounds with ad-, ex-,

inter-, red-, take -im-o. So, too, dir-im-o, 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, ${\tt \bar{e}gi=eagi.}$

cūd-ō, cūde-re, (cūd-ī), (cū-sum), to hammer.

The Pf. and Sup. occur in compounds only.

leg-o, lege-re, lēg-ī, lēc-tum, to pick up, read. col·lig-ō, col·lige-re, col·lēg-ī, col·lēc-tum, to gather.

So the other compounds, except dī-lig-ō, intel-leg-ō, neg-leg-ō, see 147, 2.

īc-ō (defective), ice-re, ic-i, ic-tum, to strike.
Present stem rare: ic-it, ic-itur, ic-imur.

sīd-ō, sīde-re, sīd-ī, to sit down.

The Pf. was originally reduplicated as the Present; see 133, II. In composition the Pf. is -sēdī, -sessum, from sede-ō, thus:

con-sid-o. con-side-re. con-sed-i. con-ses-sum. to settle down. scab-ō. scabe-re. scāb-i. to scratch. solv-ō. solve-re. solv-ī. solū-tum, to loose, nay. vert-ō. verte-re. vert-ī. ver-sum. to turn. re-vert-or, re-vert-ī, revert-ī (active), to turn back. re-ver-sum, verr-ō, verre-re. verr-ī (rare), ver-sum. to sweep. vis-õ. vīse-re. vîs-i. to visit. volv-ō. volve-re. volv-ī. to roll. volū-tum. On percello, perculi, see 144. On tollo, sustuli, see 155.

2. The Nasal class:

vinc-o (VIC),

psall-ō, psalle-re, psall-ī, — to play on the cithern. sall-ō, salle-re, (sall-ī), sal-sum, to salt.

Very rare except in the past participle salsus.

vince-re.

vell-ō, velle-re, vell-ī (vul-sī), vul-sum, to pluck.

The Pf. vulsī is post-Augustan.

lamb-ō. lambe-re. lamb-ī. to lick. rump-ō, rumpe-re, rūp-ī, to break. rup-tum, ac-cend-o. ac-cende-re. ac-cend-ī. ac-cēn-sum. to kindle. dē-fend-ō. dē-fende-re. dē-fend-ī. dē-fēn-sum, to strike away, defend. fund-o (FUD), funde-re, füd-ī. fū-sum. to nour. mand-ō. mande-re. mand-I. mān-sum, to chew. pand-ō, pande-re. pand-ī, to spread out. pas-sum, pān-sum in Supine is late.

prehend-ō, prehende-re, prehend-i, prehēn-sum, to seize.

Often shortened to prēndō, prēndere, prēndī, prēnsum.

scande-re, scand-i, to climb. scand-ō. scan-sum, dē-scend-ī, dē-scēn-sum, ā(d)-, dē-scend-ō, dē-scende-re, to climb up, down. frāc-tum, to break. frang-ō, frange-re. frēg-i, per-fring-ō, per-fringe-re, per-freg-i, per-frac-tum, to shirer. to leave. lingu-ō. lingue-re. līgu-ī, to leave behind. re-lingu-ō, re-linque-re, re-liqu-i, re-lic-tum, to drive in. (pang-ō), (pange-re), (pēg-ī), (pāc-tum), com-ping-ō, com-pinge-re, com-pēg-i, com-pāc-tum, to drive tight. See 149, b, 155.

vic-i.

vic-tum.

to conquer.

3. The I-class.

(a) With long vowel in the Perfect.

. ,				
capi-ō (cap-),	cape-re, .	cēp-ī,	cap-tum,	to take.
ac-cipi-ō,	ac-cipe-re,	ac-cep-ī,	ac-cep-tum,	to receive.
faci-ō,	face-re,	fēc-ī,	fac-tum,	to make.
cale-faci-ō (calf.)	, cale-face-re,	cale-fēc-ī,	cale-fac-tum,	to make warm.
per-fici-ō,	per-fice-re,	per-fēc-ī,	per-fec-tum,	to achieve.
The Pf. was origi	nally reduplicat	ed; on Impv. fac	see 130, 5.	

fodi-ō,	fode-re,	fod-I,	fos-sum,	to dig.
fugi-ō,	fuge-re,	fūg-i,	(fug-i-tūrus),	to flee.
iaci-ō,	iace-re,	iēc-ī,	iac-tum,	to cast.
con-ici-ō,	con-ice-re,	con-iēc-ī,	con-iec-tum,	to gather.

(b) With short vowel in the Pf. due to the loss of the reduplication:

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find-ō, finde-re, fid-I, fis-sum, to cleave.

scind-ō, scinde-re, scid-I, scis-sum, to split.

The reduplicated form sci-cidī is found in early Latin.
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161. In the fourth conjugation:

amici-ō forms rarely in late Latin amici; see 142, 4.

com-peri-ō, com-peri-re, com-per-i, com-per-tum, to find out.

re-peri-ō, re-peri-re, rep-per-i, re-per-tum, to find.

See the simple verb parere, 157.

veni-ō, veni-re, vēn-ī, 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-ĩ,	(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-i,		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 anoint.
ex-u-ō,	ex-ue-re,	ex-u-ī,	ex-ū-tum,	to put off, doff.
im-bu-ō,	im-bue-re,	im-bu-ī,	im-bū-tum,	to dip, dye.
in-du-ō,	in-due-re,	in-du-ī,	in-dū-tum,	to put on, don.
lu-ō,	lue-re,	lu-ī,	lu-itūr-us,	to atone for.
metu-ō,	metue-re,	metu-ī,		to fear.
minu-ō,	minue-re,	minu-ī,	minū-tum,	to lessen.
plu-ō,	plue-re,	plu-it, plūv-it,	_ ′	to rain.
ru-ō,	rue-re,	ru-ī,	ru-tum (ruitūrus),	to rush down.
spu-ō,	spue-re,	spu-ī,	spū-tum,	to spelv.
statu-ō,	statue-re,	statu-i,	statū-tum,	to settle.
sternu-ō,	sternue-re,	sternu-ī,		to sneeze.
gu-ō,	sue-re,	su-ī,	sū-tum,	to sew.
tribu-ō,	tribue-re,	tribu-ī,	tribū-tum,	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:

adūl-or, adūlā-rī, adūlā-tus sum, to fawn upon.

Occasionally active in ante-classical Latin (Lucr. v., 1070) and more often in later
Latin

alterc-or, altercā-rī, altercā-tus sum, to wrangle.

In early Latin altercāstī (Ter., And. 653), altercās. Active forms more common in late Latin.

arbitr-or, arbitrā-rī, arbitrā-tus sum, to think.
Plaut. uses this verb also as an active, but later this usage is rare.

aucup-or, aucupā-rī, aucupā-tus sum, to try to catch.

Active forms are common in early Latin.

augur-or, augurā-rī, 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-rī, 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-rī, 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.

commenta-ri, commenta-ris, commenta-tus sum, to discuss.
CIC. uses commentatus as a passive in Br. 88, 301, Fam. xvi., 26, 1.

conflict-or, conflicta-ri, conflicta-tus sum, to struggle.

Occasionally found for conflictare. See Ter., And., 93.

conspic-or, conspica-ri, conspica-tus sum, to descry.

So despicor, suspicor. But a few forms are occasionally (newally in early Latin) used as passives, especially despicatus (Plaut., Ter.), compared despicatissimus by Cic. (Seel. 16, 36, Verr. III., 41, 98). Plaut., Cas. 394, suspices.

contempl-or, contempla-ri, contempla-tus sum, to survey. The active forms are used frequently in early Latin (regularly by PLAUT.).

copul-or, copula-ri, copula-tus sum, to join.

crīmin-or, crīminā-rī, crīminā-tus sum, to charge.
Plaut. uses crīmināret, Ennius crīmināt.

cunct-or, cunctā-rī, cunctā-tus sum, to delay.

Active forms are occasional in early and late Latin.

So Plaut., Aul. 116. Otherwise everywhere copulare.

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.

fabricā-rī. fabricā-tus sum, fabric-or. to forge. The active forms belong to poetry and to post-Augustan prose.

faenerā-rī. faenerā-tus sum. to lend on interest. Active forms occasional in early Latin and more frequent in late Latin.

fluctuā-rī, fluctuā-tus sum, to undulate. Active forms are rare in Plaut. and in Cic., but not uncommon later. The deponent forms are post-Ciceronian.

fā-rī. fā-tus sum, to speak. See 175, 3.

früstr-or, frūstrā-rī, frūstrā-tus sum. to deceive. Active forms rare, but at all periods.

illacrim-or, illacrimā-rī. illacrimā-tus sum. to ween over. In Cic. and Hor. ; otherwise active.

interpretā-rī, interpretā-tus sum. to interpret. Cic. uses interpretatus occasionally as a passive; likewise Livy and others.

luct-or. luctā-rī, luctā-tus sum. to wrestle. PLAUT., TER., ENNIUS, VARRO show sporadic forms of the active.

lūdificā-rī. lūdificā-tus sum, to make sport. Active frequent in PLAUT., and occasionally later.

medic-or, medicā-rī. medicā-tus sum. The active is once in Plaut., and frequent in poets and post-Augustan prose.

meditā-rī, meditā-tus sum, to think over The form meditatus is very commonly found as a passive.

muner-or. mūnerā-rī, mūnerā-tus sum, to bestow. Active forms in early Latin and occasionally in Cic. and later.

nütrīc-or. nūtrīcā-rī. nūtrīcā-tus sum, to suckle. Active forms in early Latin.

odor-or, odorā-rī, odorā-tus sum, to smell. Active forms occasional at all periods.

opinā-rī, opinā-tus sum, to think. opino is frequent in early Latin, and opinatus as passive is common in Cicero.

palp-or, palpā-rī, palpā-tus sum, to stroke. Is occasional (principally in early Latin) for palpare.

pul-or, populā-rī, populā-tus sum, to ravage.

Active forms in simple verb and compounds are early, poetical, and post-classic popul-or,

sciscit-or, scīscitā-rī, scīscitā-tus sum, to inomire. PLAUT., Merc. 389, sciscitare (active).

scrūt-or, scrūtā-rī, scrūtā-tus sum, to search. PLAUT., Aul. 657, perscrutavi. The use as a passive occurs first in Seneca

sectā-rī. sect-or. sectā-tus sum. to pursue. Active forms and passive usages are early.

stabulā-rī, stabulā-tus sum. to stable. Active forms begin with VERGIL.

tūtā-rī, tūtā-tus sum, to protect.

Active forms and passive usages are early and rare.

tumultu-or, tumultuā-rī, tumultuā-tus sum, to raise a riot.
But PLAUTUS uses active forms; and passive uses are occasional later.

vag-or, vagā-ri, vagā-tus sum, to wander.

Active forms belong to early Latin.

vener-or, venerā-rī, venerā-tus sum, to reverence.

But Plaut. uses venerō, venerem; Verg., Hor., and later writers show passive uses.

164. In the second conjugation:

fate-or, fatē-rī, fas-sus sum, to confess.

con-fite-or, con-fitē-rī, con-fes-sus sum, to confess.

Both fateor and confiteor are used occasionally as passives by Cic. and later.

lice-or, licē-rī, lici-tus sum, to bid (at a sale).

mere-or, merë-ri, meri-tus sum, to deserve.

Especially in the phrases merëri bene dë aliquō, to deserve well of any one.

Otherwise the active is usual.

misere-or, misere-rī, miseri-tus sum, to pity.

In early Latin the active forms are found occasionally, e. g., Luck. 111., 881.

pollice-or, pollice-ri, pollici-tus sum, to promise.

Occasionally used as a passive in post-classical Latin.

re-or, rē-rī, ra-tus sum, to think.
Pr. Part. Active is wanting.

tue-or, tuë-rī, tui-tus (tūtus) sum, to protect.

In early Latin and occasionally later, a parallel form, tuor, tuī, tuitus sum, occurs. For tuitus usually tūtātus.

vere-or, verē-rī, 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-plect-or, am-plect-i, am-plex-us sum, to twine round, embrace. So the compounds complector, circumplector. In early Latin active forms are occasionally found; e.g., amplectit \overline{o} te, circumplecte (Plaut.).

com-min-isc-or, com-min-isc-i, com-men-tus sum, to think up, devise.

Ovid and later writers use commentus as a passive.

experg-isc-or, (-reg-) ex-perg-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. 111., 968. Cic., Sest. 4, 10.

fru-or (frugv-), fru-I, fru-c-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 moriri, emoriri. Fut. Part. moriturus; see 135, 11., 3.

nanc-īsc-or, nanc-īsc-ī, nac-tus (nanc-tus) sum, to get.

nāsc-or (gnā-), nāsc-ī, nā-tus sum, to be born. Fut. Part. nāscitūrus.

nīt-or (gnict- | nīt-ī, nī-sus (nīx-us) sum, | to stay one's self on. nī-sūrus,

ob-līv-īsc-or, ob-līv-īsc-ī, ob-lī-tus sum, to forget.

pac-isc-or, pac-isc-i, pac-tus sum (pepigi), 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-ī, pas-sus sum, to suffer.

per-peti-or, per-pet-ī, per-pes-sus sum, to endure to the end.

pro-fic-īsc-or, pro-fic-īsc-ī, pro-fec-tus sum,

But Plaut, M. G. 1329, proficiscō.

 quer-or,
 quer-I,
 ques-tus sum,
 to complain.

 sequ-or,
 sequ-I,
 secū-tus sum,
 to follow.

 ulc-Isc-or,
 ulc-Isc-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.

ut-or, ut-I, u-sus sum, to use. Plaut. shows the compound abusa as a passive (Asin. 196).

166. In the fourth conjugation:

assenti-or, assenti-ri, assen-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-ri, — to find out.

Occasionally found (but rarely in classical Latin; as, Sall, J., 45, 1; ro8, 3) for comperio, comperire. But experior, experiri, expertus sum, to try, is regularly deponent; though Cic. and others use often the Pf. active forms.

largi-or, largi-rī, largi-tus sum, to bestow.
menti-or, menti-rī, menti-tus sum, to lie.

The poets and later prose writers use this as a passive also.

mēti-or, mētī-rī, mēn-sus sum, to measure.

Passive usage is common, especially in the compounds: dēmēnsus, dīmēnsus, ēmēnsus, permēnsus, remēnsus.

ördi-or, ördī-rī, ör-sus sum, to begin.
örsus, and more commonly exōrsus, are also found as passives.

ori-or. orī-rī. or-tus sum, to arise.

The Pr. Indic is usually formed according to the third conjugation; the Impf. Subjv. always orerer; but the Fut. Part. is oritūrus. The compounds follow the same usage except adorīrī, to rise up at, attack, which follows the fourth conjugation.

parti-or, parti-ri, parti-tus sum, to share.

Active forms and passive uses are found in early Latin, and sporadically in Cic.

and later.

poti-or, poti-rī, poti-tus sum, to get possession of.

The Pr. Indic., Impf. Subjv., and occasionally other forms, are also found in early

The Pr. Indic., Impf. Subjv., and oceasionally other forms, are also found in early Latin and the poets, inflected according to the third conjugation; so regularly after Plaut. potitur, frequently poteretur, poteremur.

pūni-or, pūni-rī, pūnī-tus sum, to punish.

Occasionally in Cic. and late writers for pūnīre.

sorti-or, sorti-ri, sorti-tus sum, to cast lots.

Active occasionally in early Latin, and passive uses later of the Pf. Participle.

SEMI-DEPONENTS.

167. I. A few verbs form the Perfect forms only as deponents:

aude-ō, audē-re, au-sus sum, to dare.
On the agrist forms ausim, etc., see 131, 4, b.

fīd-ō, fīd-ere, fī-sus sum, to trust. gaude-ō, gaudē-re, gāv-īsus sum, to rejoice.

sole-ō. solē-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.

So also devertI, but without Pf. Part. Reversus is also used actively, but reversus sum for revertI is post-classic.

See also assentior, etc., 166.

Notes.—1. Some active verbs have a Perfect Participle passive with active meaning, as: cēnātus, one who has dined, from cēnāre, to dine; prānsus, having breakfasted, from prandēō, I breakfast; pōtus, drunken, from pōtō, I drink; iūrātus, having taken the oath, sworn, from iūrō, I swear; coniūrātus, a conspirator, from coniūrō, I conspire. Many such are used purely as Adjectives: cōnsīderātus, circumspect, from cōnsīderō; cautus, wary, from caveō, I beware.

2. The Perfect Participle of many deponent Verbs has both active and passive meaning: adeptus (adipiscor), having acquired, or being acquired; comitātus (comitor, I accompany); effātus (effor, I speak out); expertus (experior, I try); exsecrātus (exsecror, I curse); imitātus (imitor, I copy); meritus (mereor, I deserve); opinātus, necopīnātus (opīnor, I think); pactus (pacīscor, I contract); partītus (partior, I distribute); sortītus (sortior, I cust lots); tueor, I protect; tūtus, safe.

For others, see the list of deponents.

IRREGULAR VERBS.

- 168. 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, Ifilch; rego, I keep right; tego, I cover in; coquō, I bake; and the compounds of lego, I pick up; laciō, I ture; speciō, I spy (-ligō, -liciō, -spiciō); dīvidō, I part; quatiō, I shake. See 147, 2.

From lego, however, only diligo, I love; intellego, I understand; and neglego,

neglect, are irregular. The other compounds are regular. See 147, 2.

2. Five verbs of the third conjugation, which, in spite of long stemsyllable, have the Pf. in -1, viz.:

lambō I lick; cūdō, I hammer; sīdō, 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

iube-ō,	I order.	See 147, 1.
prem-ō (-prim-ō),	Ipress.	See 147, 2.

4. Special irregularities occur in:

bib-ō,	$I\ drink.$	154, 2.
mane-ō,	Iremain.	147, 1.
mēti-or,	I $measure.$	166.
met-ō,	I mow.	142, 3.
mori-or,	I die.	165.
rauci-ō,	I am hoarse.	150, 2.
re-or,	I think.	164.

5. Formed from different tense-stems, are the tenses of

fer-ō,	I bear.	171.
toll-ö.	I lift.	155.

- 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, īre, īvī (iī), itum.

INDICATIVE.			VE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.		
Igo.				$I\ be\ going.$		
PRES.	Sc.—I.	e-ō,	Plī-mus,	Sc.—ea-m,	PL.—eā-mus,	
	2.	ī-s,	ī-tis,	eā-s,	eā-tis,	
	3.	i-t,	eu-nt.	ea-t,	ea-nt,	

ī-ba-m, I went. IMPF. FUT. I-b-ō, I shall go.

PERF. i-v-i (i-i). 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.

I-re-m, I were going.

ī-v-eri-m (i-eri-m).

ī-v-isse-m (i-isse-m, ī-sse-m).

IMPERATIVE.

Sg, -2, 1, thou shalt go. go thou. ī-tō, ī-tō, he shall go. 3. ----PL.-2. I-te. ī-tōte. ye shall go. go ye. 3. eu-ntō. they shall go.

INFINITIVE.

PRES. I-re.

Fur. i-tūr-um esse.

PERF. I-v-isse (I-sse).

GERUND.

SUPINE.

Fur. i-tūr-us.

PARTICIPLES.

PRES. iē-ns (G. eu-nt-is).

eu-nd-I, etc. i-tum, to go.

REMARKS.—I. Like the simple verb are inflected most of the compounds, except in the Perfect system, where syncope regularly takes place (see 131, 2). Vēn-eō, I am for sale, and per-eō, I perish, serve as passives to vēn-dō, I sell, and per-dō, I destroy, whose regular passives occur only in the forms venditus, vendendus, and perditus (but see Hor.. Sat., ii. 6, 59). Amb-io, I solicit, follows the fourth conjugation throughout, but in post-Ciceronian writers (Livy, Tac., Plin. Min.) shows occasional forms like those of eo. Some compounds show occasionally Fut. in -eam after the time of SENECA.

2. The passive of the simple verb is found only in the impersonal forms îtur, îbātur, itum est, īrī (in combination with the Supine). But compounds with transitive force are conjugated regularly; so, praeter-eō forms praeter-eor, -īris, ītur, -īmur, -īminī, -euntur, ībar, etc., -itus sum, eram, erō, -euntor, -ītor, -īrī, -eundus.

3. quire, to be able; nequire, to be unable.

170. (a) que-ō, 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.

Pr. Indic. queo, (quis), (quit), quimus, (quitis), queunt. Pr. Subjv. queam, queās, queat, queāmus, queātis, queant. Impr. (quībam), (quīrem). Fur. (quibō). Pr. quivi, etc.; quiverim, etc. Plupp. quiveram, etc.; quivissem, etc. Fut. Pf. quivero, etc. Pr. Inf. quire, Pf. quivisse. Part. quiens,

(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: fero, ferre, tuli, latum.

ACTIVE.

INDICATIVE.			SUBJUNCTIVE.		
Pres.	I bea	r.	I be bearing.		
Sg.—1.	fer-ō,	PL.—fer-i-mus,	SG.—fera-m,	PL.—ferā-mus,	
2.	fer-s,	fer-tis,	ferā-s,	ferā-tis,	
3.	fer-t,	fer-u-nt.	fera-t,	fera-nt.	
IMPF. Fut.	fera-m,	a, I was bearing. I shall bear.	fer-re-m, I	were bearing.	
Perf.	tul-i,	I have borne.	tul-eri-m.		
PLUPF.	tul-era-r	n,	tul-isse-m.		
Fur. Pr.	tul-er-ō.				

IMPERATIVE.

fer-tō.

thou shalt bear.

hear thou

Sq. -- 2. fer.

201, 201,	202 30,
3. ——	fer-tō, he shall bear.
PL.—2. fer-te, bear ye.	fer-tote, ye shall bear.
3. —	feru-ntō, they shall bear.
INFINITIVE.	PARTICIPLES.
Pres. fer-re.	Pres. ferē-ns, bearing.
Fur. lā-tūr-um esse.	Fur. lā-tūr-us.
Perf. tul-isse.	
GERUND.	SUPINE.
fere-nd-i. etc	lā-tum (t(o)lā-tum)

PASSIVE

	PASSIVE.			
	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.		
	$I\ am\ borne.$	$I\ be\ borne.$		
PRES. SG1.	fer-o-r, PL.—feri-mur,	Sg. —fera-r, Pl. —ferā-mur,		
2.	fer-ris, feri-min1,	ferā-ris, ferā-minī,		
3.	fer-tur, feru-ntur.	ferā-tur, fera-ntur.		
IMPF.	ferē-ba-r.	fer-re-r.		
Fur.	fera-r.			
PERF.	lā-tus sum.	lā-tus sim.		
PLUPF.	lā-tus eram.	lā-tus essem.		
Fur. Pr.	lā-tus erō.	•		

IMPERATIVE.

Sg2. fer-re,	be thou borne.	fer-tor,	thou shalt be borne.
3. —		fer-tor,	he shall be borne.
PL2. feri-mini,	be ye borne.		
3. —		feru-ntor,	they shall be borne.

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres.	fer-rī,	to be borne.	Perf. la-t-us, -a, -um, borne.
Fur.	lā-tum īrī.		GERUNDIVE.
PERF.	lā-tum esse	, to have been borne	fere-nd-us.

COMPOUNDS.

af-fer-ö,	af-fer-re,	at-tul-I,	al-lā-tum,	to bear to.
au-fer-ō,	au-fer-re,	abs-tul-ī,	ab-lā-tum,	to bear away.
con-fer-o,	con-fer-re,	con-tul-ī,	col-lā-tum,	to collect.
dif-fer-ō,	dif-fer-re,	dis-tul-I,	dī-lā-tum,	to put off.
ef-fer-ō,	ef-fer-re,	ex-tul-I,	ē-lā-tum,	to carry out.
of-fer-ō,	of-fer-re,	ob-tul-ī,	ob-lā-tum,	to offer.

Notes.—1. The Pf. tuli was originally reduplicated te-tuli. See 134, iii., 155. Traces of this are seen in rettuli.

2. Suf-ferō, I undergo, has the Pf. sus-tin-uī (sus-tul-ī, sub-lā-tum, being appropriated to toll-ō). (155.)

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: edő, edere (ēsse), ēdī, ēsum.

ACTIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

				PRESENT.		
		Ie	at.		I be	eating.
Sc	ı.	ed-ō,	PL	-edi-mus,	Sgeda-m,	PL.—edā-mus,
	2.	edi-s, ē-s	ι,	edi-tis, ēs-tis,	edā-s,	edā-tis,
	3.	edi-t, ē-s	it,	edu-nt.	eda-t,	eda-nt.
IMPF.		edē-ba-	-m,	I ate.	ede-re-m, ēs-se-	m, I were eating
Firm		m-oho				

FUT. eda-m.

Perf. ēd-I. ēd-eri-m.

Pluff. ēd-era-m. ēd-isse-m.

INDICATIVE.

Fut. Pf. ēd-er-ō.

IMPERATIVE.

Sg.—2. ede, ës, eat thou. edi-to, ës-tō, thou shalt eat.

3. — edi-to, ës-tō, he shall eat.

PL.—2. edi-te, ës-te, eat ye. edi-tōte, ës-tōte, ye shall eat.

3. — edu-ntō, they shall eat

INFINITIVE. PARTICIPLE.

Pres. ede-re. ës-se, to cut. Pres. (edë-ns).

Fut. ēs-ūr-um esse. Fut. ēs-ūr-us.

PERF. ēd-isse.

(fI-te).

GERUND. SUPINE. ede-nd- \bar{I} , etc. ēs-um, ēs- \bar{u} .

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, edīs, edit, edimus, edītis, edint. Also ēssum and ēssū in the Sup., ēssūrus in the Fut. Part. Comedere also shows comestus for comēsus.

6. fi-eri, to become.

173. Fi-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, fi-e-rem, I were becoming; fi-e-ri, to become. In these forms the i is short, but elsc-where it is long even before another vowel.

The Infinitive ends in -rī, 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.

PRIN. PARTS: fīō, fierī, factus sum.

ACTIVE. PASSIVE PRES. facio. I make. INDIC. flo, I am made, I become. fis, fit (fimus, fitis), fiunt. faciēbam, I made. fiebam, I was made, I became. IMPF. faciam. I shall make. fiam, I shall be made (become). FUT. factus sum. PERF. fēcī. PLUPF. fēceram. factus eram. Fur. Pr. fecero. factus erő. SUBJV. flam, flas, flat, etc. fierem, fieres, etc. etc. INFINITIVE. PRES. fierī. factum esse, to have become. IMPERATIVE. PERF. (fī), (fī-tō). FUT. futurum esse or fore.

FUT. Pr. 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 fio are very rare; never in PLAUTUS OT 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; interficio, Pass. interficior, I am destroyed. But interfierI, confierent, 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 fīō as its Passive:

patefaciō, *I lay open*, Pass. patefiō; calefaciō, *I warm*, Pass. calefiō. For the accent, see 15, 2, R. 2.

174. 7. vel-le, to be willing.
nölle, to be unwilling; mälle, to be willing rather.

PRIN. PARTS: volo, velle, volui; nolo, nolle, nolui; malo, malle, malui.

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		INDICATIVE.	
PRES.	volō,	nōlō,	mālō,
	vīs,	non vis,	māvis,
	vult,	non vult,	māvult,
	volumus,	nōlumus,	mālumus,
	vultis,	non vultis,	māvultis,
	volunt.	nolunt.	mālunt.
IMPF.	volēbam,	nōlēbam,	mālēbam.
Fur.	volam,	nōlam,	mālam,
	volēs, etc.	nōlēs, etc.	mālēs, etc.
PERF.	voluī,	nōluī,	māluī, etc.
PLUPF.	volueram,	nōlueram,	mālueram, etc.
FUT. PF.	voluerō,	nōluerō,	māluerō, etc.
		SUBJUNCTIVE.	
PRES.	velim,	nōlim,	mālim,
	velīs,	nōlīs,	mālīs,
	velit,	nōlit,	mālit,
	velīmus,	nōlīmus,	mālīmus,
	velītis,	nolītis,	mālītis,
	velint.	nōlint.	mālint.
IMPF.	vellem,	nöllem,	māllem.
PERF.	voluerim,	nõluerim,	māluerim, etc.
PLUPF.	voluissem,	nõluissem,	māluissem, etc.

IMPV.

Sg.-nöli, nölitö.

PL. -- nölite, nölitöte, nöluntö.

INF. PR. velle.

nölle. noluisse, mālle. māluisse.

Pr. voluisse,

PART. volēns. nölēns.

Notes .- 1. To the time of Cicero, and occasionally later, volt, voltis, are employed for vult, vultis. In familiar language sī vīs, sī vultis, were contracted to sīs, sultis; vis was further combined with -ne into vin.

2. Nolo is a contraction of nevolo (= non volo), and in early Latin we find, along with the forms given above, also nevis, nevolt; also occasionally we find non velis, non velit, non velint, non vellem, for nolis, etc.; but the feeling is slightly different.

2. Mālō = ma volō, from mag(mage, magis)-volō. Frequently in Plaut., but rarely in Ter., we find mavolo, mavolunt, mavolet, mavelim, -is, -it, mavellem, instead of mālo, mālim, mālis, etc.

175.

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. āiō, I say aye.

INDIC. PRES. SG.-I. aio, 2. ais, 3. ait, PL.—3. āiunt.

āiēbam, etc. IMPF.

PERE. SUBJV. PRES. SG.-

3. ait. 2. āiās, 3. āiat,

3. āiant.

PART. āiēns (as adj.), affirmative.

IMPV, af.

Note.—In early Latin ain (= aisne?) was scanned often as a monosyllable; and in the Impf., aibam, aibas, aibat, aibant were frequently employed along with the normal forms. The Impv. is rare, and found only in early Latin. Pr. Subjv. aiam is emended into PL., En., 281.

2. inquam, I say, quoth I.

INDIC. Pres. Sg.—1. inquam, 2. inquis, 3. inquit.

> PL.—I. inquimus, 2. inquitis, 3. inquiunt.

IMPF. SG.-3. inquiebat. Fur. Sg.-

2. inquies, 3. inquiet. PERF. SG.—I. inquii, 2. inquistī, 3. inquit.

IMPV. inque, inquito.

3. fā-rī, to speak.

INDIC. PRES. fatur. Fut. fabor, fabitur. Perf. fatus sum, etc. IMPV. fare. PART. PRES. fans, fantis, fanti, fantem. GER. fandi, fando. SUP. fatu.

Note.—In addition to these, compounds show also Pres. : -fāris, -fāmur, -fāminī, -fantur; IMPF.: -fabar, -fabantur; Fut.: -fabere, -fabimur; 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 fatum, fate; effatus, designated.

4. havē-re (avē-re), salvē-re.

IMPV. havē, salvē, salvēbis, hail thou !
havētē, salvētē.
havēte, hail ye!

INF. havēre, salvēre.

Corresponding to these are the forms of valere, viz.: vale, valete, valere, farewell.

5. coepī, meminī, ōdī, nōvī.

In use only in the Perfect-stem are coepi, 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, cōnsuēvī (from consuēscō), I am wont, which have the force of Presents.

a. INDIC. coepī, I have begun. SUBJV. coepērim. coepissem. coepissem. INF. coepisse, to have begun.

Note.—Early Latin shows coepiō, coepiās, coepiat, coepiam, coepere, coeperet. Future Participle coeptūrus is Post-Augustan. Incēpī is ante-classical.

Passive forms coeptus sum, etc., occur with the same meaning in combination with a Passive Infinitive. See 423, N. 3.

meminerō. INF. meminisse, to remember. IMPV. Sg.—mementō. PL.—mementōte,

c. INDIC. ödi, I hate, SUBJV. öderim, öderam, ödissem, öderő. INF. ödisse, to hate.

FUT. PART. Ösürus.

Note.—Occasionally in early Latin, the poets, and later prose, deponent forms of the Perfect are found, osus sum, etc. For the Passive the phrase odio esse is used.

novisse (nosse)

to know.

d. INDIC. novi. SUBJV. noverim (norim), noveram (noram). novissem (nossem).

6. cedo, quaesō.

Other defective forms are:

novero (noro).

Sg.—cedo, give! (old Impv.) Pl.—cette.
INDIC. Pres. quaesō, please (i. e., I seek, beg), quaesumus.

Note.—Other forms of quaeso 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: sol, sun; sta-re, stand, stay.

A compound word is one that is made up of two or more roots: sol-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, II., 132, 135, I.), some substantives of the third declension, as dux (duc-s), leader, root duc (see 183, I), many substantives of the first, second, and fourth declensions, as: scrib-a (scrib-ō, 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 signification 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 scrip-tor 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 scrip-tor; reg-s becomes rex. Stems are sometimes extended by a vowel, usually i, less often u, to facilitate pronunciation: val-i-dus, strong: documentum, proof; sometimes they change the stem vowel: teg, cover; tog-a, loga; 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-io, 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, conqueress; occasionally -ter (N. ter, G. -trī): 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-os, slave; scrīb-a, scribe; -ōno, -ōna (N. ōnu-s, -ōna): col-ōnu-s, settler; -(i)t (N. es, G. itis): mīl-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. -īna): rap-īna, rapine; -men (N. men, G. min-is): āg-men, train; -mento (N. mentum): tor-mentu-m, torture; -ē-la (ella): loqu-ēla, speech; quer-ēla, complaint; -cinio (N. -u-m): latrō-ciniu-m, highway robbery; -mōnio, -mōnia (N. mōnia, mōniu-m): queri-mōnia, complaint; tēsti-mōniu-m, testimony.
- b. Abstracts. Masculine: -ōs- (N. -or, G. -ōr-is): ang-or, anguish. Feminine: -on (N. dō, gō, G. in-is): imā-gō, image; cup-ī-dō, desire; -ia: audāc-ia, boldness; -iōn (N. iō): leg-iō, legion; -tia: avāri-tia, avarice; collateral are some with Nom. in -tiēs, as dūri-tiēs, hardness; -tiōn (N. tiō, siō): amb-i-tiō, ambition; cōn-fū-siō, confusion; -tūt (N. tās): aequāli-tās, equality; -tūra: pic-tūra, painting; -tūt- (N. tūs, sus): iuven-tūs, youth; -tu (-su) (N. tu-s, su-s), sōn-sus, perception; -tūdon (N. tūd-ō, G. -inis): aegri-tūdō, sickness of heart. Neuter: -tio (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
- -āria: argent-āria, silver mine, bank.
- 5. The Locality of the work (or trade) is indicated by
- -ārio (N. āriu-m): sēmin-āriu-m, seed-plot; -ōnio (N. ōniu-m): fullōnium, fuller's shop; -īna: offic-īna, workshop; -cro, -culo (N. -cru-m, -culu-m): lavā-cru-m, bath; -trīno, -trīna (N. trīna, trīnu-m): sūtrīna, shoemaker's shop; pīs-trīnu-m, mill.
 - 6. Instrument and Means are indicated by
- -bro, -bra (N. bra, bru-m): II-bra, balance; crI-brum, sieve; -cro, -culo (N. cru-m, culu-m): ba-culu-m, walking stick; -lo, -la (N. -la, -lu-m): pI-la, pillar; tE-lu-m, weapon; -ulo, -ula (N. ulu-s, ula, ulu-m): cap-ulu-s, handle; rEg-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
 - -ina: discipl-ina, discipline; medic-ina, medicine.
 - 9. Function is indicated by
 - -tūra (sūra): cul-tūra, cultivation.
 - 10. Office is indicated by
- -ātu (N. ātus, G. ātūs): consul-ātus, consulship; -tūra (-sūra): dictā-tūra, dictatorship.
 - 11. Dense Growths are indicated by
- -ēto (N. ētu-m): murt-ētu-m, myrtle grove; -to (N. tu-m): virgultu-m, 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; (ffli-a), fili-ola, little daughter; (valv-a), valv-olae, pod (little flaps); (circu-s), circ-ulu-s, little ring. -culo, -cula (N. culu-s, etc.), after e, i, u, and consonant stems: (spēs), spē-cula, slight hope; (amni-s), amni-culu-s, streamlet; (versu-s), versi-culu-s, versicle; (homō, homin-), homun-culu-s, manikin; (flōs), flōs-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,

182. 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-ili-s, readily moved, quick; doc-ili-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: ac-neu-s, brazen.
 - 5. Belonging to is indicated by
- -io, -ia: imperātōr-iu-s, belonging to a general; -icio, -icia: aedīl-iciu-s, belonging to an adile; -āno, -āna: hūm-ānu-s, human; urb-ānu-s, urbane, city.
 - 6. Appurtenance and Medium are indicated by
- -tico, -ticu: 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-iu-s ; $-\bar{a}no, -\bar{a}na, -\bar{i}no, -\bar{i}na:$ Rōm-ānu-s, Lat-Inu-s.
 - 8. Time is indicated by
- -tino, -tina: crās-tinu-s, of to-morrow; -terno, -terna: hesternu-s, of yesterday; -urno, -urna: noct-urnu-s, by night; -tīno, -tīna: mātū-tīnu-s, of early morning.
 - 9. Locality, where, whence, is indicated by
- -ia: Gall-ia, Gaul; -tino: intes-tinu-s, inner, intestine; $-\bar{e}nsi$: circ-ēnsi-s, $from\ the\ circus$; Sicili-ēnsi-s, Sicilian; $-\bar{a}ti$ (N. -ās): cūi-ās, of what country?

10. Fulness is indicated by

-ōso, -ōsa: anim-ōsu-s, full of spirit; verb-ōsu-s, wordy; -lento, lenta: 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. $-id\bar{e}s$ (G. idae), F. -is (G. idis), from Nominatives in us, or, ōs, and s preceded by a consonant; M. $-\bar{i}d\bar{e}s$ (G. īdae), F. $-\bar{e}is$ (G. ēidis), from Nominatives in -eus; M. $-ad\bar{e}s$ (G. adae), F. $-\bar{e}is$ (G. ēidis), from Nominatives in ās (G. ae) and -ēs (G. -ae); M. $-iad\bar{e}s$ (G. iadae), F. -ias (G. iadis), from Nominatives in ius, ēs, ōn, o; F. $-\bar{i}n\bar{e}$, from Nominatives in -us and -eus; F. $-i\bar{o}n\bar{e}$, from Nominatives in ius: (Tantalus) Tantal-idēs, son of Tantalus; Tantal-is, daughter of Tantalus; (Pelops) Pelopidēs; (Thēs-eus) Thēs-īdēs, Thēsēis; (Aenēās) Aene-adēs (Aeneadae also); (Lāertēs) Lāert-iadēs; (Neptūnus) Neptūn-īnē; (Acrisius) Acrisiōnē, 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); acer, sharp, acri-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.

-o, -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 āctiōnis and concretes therefrom: coqu-o-s, cook; rog-u-s, pyre. Those in -a (ā) are regularly nōmina agentis, especially in composition; scrīb-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 -0, as inermis and inermus, etc. Sometimes in substantives the Nom. shows ēs instead of is, as caedēs and caedis, etc.

- -io, -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-ēiu-s, Flāv-iu-s; Lūc-ēiu-s, Lūc-iu-s, Lūc-iu-s; similar to these are those in ed-iu-s, īd-iu-s, id-iu-s, -ēl-iu-s, Il-iu-s, as Lūc-id-iu-s, Corn-ēl-iu-s, Lūc-Il-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 abundant-ia, abundance; sci-ent-ia, knowledge, etc.

Note.—Instead of -ia, we find -ea in a few words : cav-ea, cage ; cochl-ea, snail.

-u (N. u-s, u). M. arc-u-s, bow; curr-u-s, chariot; F. ac-u-s, needle; man-u-s, hand; N. gel-ū, frost; gen-u, knee. Secondary is socr-u-s, mother-in-law. This suffix is found occasionally in adjectives compounded with manus, as centi-manus, hundred-handed; also in the form-ui in a few adjectives, as ten-ui-s, thin.

Note. -The suffix -o often alternates with -u.

-uo, -uu (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-s, 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 (vacuos), 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; pedi-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.

- 3. -ico, -ica (N. icu-s, ica, icu-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. -ūco, -ūca (N. ūcu-s, ūca, ūcu-m). Primary in the adjectives: cad-ūcu-s, tottering; mand-ūcu-s, voracious; secondary in alb-ūcu-s, as-phodel; and in substantives in -ūca, as ēr-ūca, caterpillar; verr-ūca, wart.

Note.—Similar is the secondary suffix -inquo in long-inquo-s, distant; propinquo-s, near.

- 5. -āc (N. āx) forms substantives and adjectives; the latter expressing inclination. Primary: aud-āx, bold; fug-āx, fleeing. Secondary: F. forn-āx, furnace; līm-āx, snail; vēr-āx, 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.
- 8. -īc (N. īx) forms substantives and adjectives. Primary: F. rādīx, root; fēl-īx, happy. Secondary: corn-īx, crow, and feminines in -trīx.
- 9. $-\bar{o}c$ (N. $\bar{o}x$) is found in the substantive cel- $\bar{o}x$, yacht, and in a number of adjectives: atr- $\bar{o}x$, ferocious.
- 10. -āceo, -ācea (N. āceu-s, āceu-m), forms adjectives of material or likeness: crēt-āceu-s, chalk-like.

Note.—Notice also the suffix -āc-io, especially in proper names : Vēr-ācia.

- II. -ic-eo, -ic-io (N. iceu-s, etc., iciu-s, etc.), form adjectives indicating material, the latter suffix also some indicating relation: palmiceu-s, of palms; tribūn-iciu-s, proceeding from a tribune.
- 12. -īc-io (N. iciu-s, etc.) is found in nov-iciu-s, new, and in words of participial meaning coming from forms in -to, as advent-iciu-s, stranger.
 - 13. -ūc-eo, -ūc-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-ciniu-m, robbery.
- 15. -cro, -cri, -clo, -culo (N. cer, aris, 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, medio-cris; perf-clum (-culu-m), danger; ba-culu-m, stick (also m.); sepulcrum, grave. Also the primary ridi-culu-s, laughable, and the secondary anni-culu-s, aged.

186. Suffixes with a Dental.

- -d (N. (d)s). Substantives only: frau-s, cheatery; merce-s, pay; custo-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. has-ta, spear; am-i-ta, aunt; N. lu-tu-m, mud; tēc-tum, roof; ap-tu-s, fit; beā-tu-s, blessed. Secondary: M. nau-ta, sailor; F. iuven-ta, youth; N. dense growths in ē-tu-m; frutic-ē-tu-m, copse; iūs-tu-s, just; and passive adjectives like barb-ā-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; mī-ti-s, mild. Secondary: (1) in adjectives and substantives indicating home, origin, usually preceded by ā, ī, more rarely ē: Camer-s (Camer-ti-s), from Camerinum; Arpīnā-s (Arpīnā-ti-s), of Arpīnum; nostr-ās, from our country; (2) in the form -ēnsi (for ent-ti) in adjectives of origin and locality: Sicili-ēnsi-s, from Sicily; castr-ēnsi-s, belonging to a camp.
- 5. -t (N. (t)s) forms primary and secondary substantives and adjectives. Primary: M. com-e-s, companion; den-s, tooth; F. qui-e-s, rest; ar-s, art; locupl-e-s, wealthy; with preceding e: div-e-s, rich. Note also the Participles in -ns. Secondary: M. al-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 corpul-entu-s, corpulent, and the like.
- 7. -tūt, -tūt (M. tā-s, tū-s), forms secondary feminine abstracts and collectives: civ-i-tā-s, citizenship; liber-tā-s, freedom; inven-tū-s, youth; vir-tū-s, manliness.
- 8. -tio, -tia, $-ti\bar{e}$ (N. tiu-m, tia, ti\u00e4-s), likewise form abstracts and collectives, some neuter, most masculine: servi-tiu-m, slavery; mollitia and molli-ti\u00e4-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: dur-i-tia, dur-i-tie-s, dur-i-tā-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.

Note.—In such substantives as canti-cu-m, trīti-c-um, the ending -co has been added to a participial form in -to (canto, trīto).

- 10. -ter forms primary substantives of kinship; as, pa-ter, etc. Different in formation is soror, which, like ux-or, has no feminine ending.
- II. -tor (-sor), F. -trīc (N. tor, trīx), form substantives of agency, those in trīx being all secondary: aud-ī-tor, hearer; vēnā-trīx, huntress; -tor is secondary in gladiā-tor, etc.
- 12. $-t\bar{u}ro-$, $-t\bar{u}r-a$ (N. tūru-s, etc.), forms participles in tūru-s, as amā-tūru-s, and feminine substantives denoting activity or office: cultūr-a, cultivation; cēn-sūr-a, censorship.
- 13. -tōr-io (-sōr-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 diceplayer.
- 14. -tro, -tra (N. tra, tru-m), forms substantives, mostly neuter, of means: arā-tru-m, plough; fenes-tra (f.), window. From words like mon-s-tru-m, monster, come by false analogy those in -ster, as pin-aster, wild pine.
- 15. -tero, -tera (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. stris), such as: palūs-ter (= palūd-ter), swampy; eques-ter, equestrian; campes-ter, champaign; terres-ter, of the earth, terrestrial.
- 16. -trīno, -trīna (N. trīna, trinu-m), forms substantives of activity (f.), or of locality (f., n.): doc-trīna, instruction; pis-trīna, bakery; pis-trīnu-m, (pounding) mill.
- 17. -tili- (-sili) (N. tili-s, tile) forms primary adjectives of capacity and adaptation, and with preceding \(\bar{a}\) secondary adjectives of relation or belonging: duc-tili-s, ductile; mis-sili-s, missile; aqu\(\bar{a}\)-tili-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. -tino, -tīno (N. tinu-s, tīnu-s, etc.), forms adjectives of time, the latter also of place: crās-tinu-s, of to-morrow; intes-tīnu-s, inner, intestine; mātū-tīnu-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. $-\bar{a}$ -tu (N. \bar{a} -tu-s) forms secondary substantives of office : $c\bar{o}nsul-\bar{a}$ -tu-s, consulship; sen- \bar{a} -tu-s, senate.

187. Suffixes with a Labial.

- I. -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. dolā-bra, celt; lī-bra, balance; ter-e-bra, borer; N. crī-bru-m, sieve. Secondary: candēlā-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. fā-bula, tale; fī-bula (fig-), brooch; N. pā-bulu-m, fodder; sta-bulu-m, stall.
- 4. -bili (N. bili-s) forms adjectives, mostly of passive meaning in classical prose: amā-bili-s, lovable; nō-bili-s, noble; flō-bili-s, weeping.

188. Suffixes with an original S.

- r. -is (N. is, G. er-is) forms a few substantives: vom-is (also vom-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; fun-us, funeral.

Note.—Some such words have become monosyllabic, as aes, iūs, rūs.

3. $-\bar{o}s$ ($-\bar{o}r$) (N. $\bar{o}s$, or, G. $\bar{o}r$ -is) forms many primary and a few secondary masculine abstracts. Primary: fi- $\bar{o}s$, flower; am-or, love. Secondary: aegr-or, sickness.

Note.—Noteworthy are M. lep-us, hare; F. arb-os, tree (45 N.); Ven-us (G. Veneris), and the adjective vet-us (G. veteris), old.

- 4. -es (N. es, ēs, G. is, ēi) forms a few substantives of the third and fifth declension: vat-ēs, bard; fam-ēs, hunger; plēb-ēs, people.
- 5. -ōr-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; Flora, etc.

189. Suffixes with a Liquid.

- r. -lo, -la (N. lu-s, etc.), forms many feminine and neuter, and a few masculine substantives: M. mā-lu-s, mast; F. pī-la, pillar; N. cae-lu-m (= caed-lu-m), chisel; fī-lu-m, thread.
 - 2. -i-lo, -i-la (N. ilu-s, etc.), forms primary and secondary sub-

stantives and adjectives. M. sīb-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-la (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; oc-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-ili-a, family.
- 4. -li (N. li-s, le) occurs in the substantive: M. cau-li-s, stalk; and in adjectives: subtī-li-s, fine; incī-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-ili-s, teachable. Secondary in hum-i-li-s, low, and in the terminations -tili-s, -sili-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; rīv-ulu-s, brook-let; rēg-ulu-s, chief; vōc-ula, voice; grān-ulu-m, grain; alb-ulu-s, whit-ish; parv-olu-s, small.
- 7. -ello, -ella (N. ellu-s, etc.), forms diminutives after 1 and by assimilation after n, r: pop-ellu-s, tribelet; tab-el-la, tablet; pu-el-la, girl; bel-lu-s (bonus), good; misel-lus (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; pīstrilla, small mill; sig-illu-m, small image; bov-illu-s, bovine. Also cōdic-illī, billets; paux-illu-s, slight; pus-illu-s, tiny.
 - 9. -olla is found in cor-ol-la, wreath; ol-la, jar (aula).
- 10. -ullo, -ulla, occurs in \bar{u} l-lu-s, any. Sul-la (= S \bar{u} r-u-la), Catul-lu-s (Catōn-lus), homullus (= homōn-lu-s).
- after consonantal and e, i, u stems: M. flos-culu-s, floweret; homun-culu-s, manikin (irregular); avu-n-culu-s, uncle (mother's brother, irregular); F. spō-cula, little hope; auri-cula, ear; arbus-cula, little tree (irregular); domu-n-cula, little house (irregular); N. cor-culu-m, (dear) heart; mūnus-culu-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. pēni-cillu-s, -m, painter's brush; os-cillu-m, little mouth; molli-cellu-s, softish.

- 13. -uleo (N. ūleu-s) forms substantives that were originally adjectival: acūleu-s, sting.
- 14. $-\bar{\alpha}li$, $-\bar{\alpha}ri$ (N. āli-s, āri-s, etc.), form secondary adjectives, some of which are substantivised in the neuter, and a few substantives: vēnālis, venal; mort-āli-s, mortal; singul-āri-s, unique; vulg-āri-s, common; can-āli-s, canal; animal, living being; cale-ar, spur.
- 15. $-\bar{e}la$ (-ella) forms primary and secondary substantives, most of which indicate action: loqu-ēla (loqu-ella), talking; cand-ēla, candle; cūstōd-ēla, watching.
- 16. -ēli (N. ēli-s, etc.) forms secondary substantives and adjectives: cardu-ēli-s, linnet; crūd-ēli-s, cruel.

Remark.—A further development of -ēli is -ēlio, -ēlia: Aur-ēli-us, contum-ēli-a, contumely.

- 17. -711 (N. Ili-s, Ile) forms secondary substantives and adjectives: M. aed-Ili-s, ædile; N. cub-Ile, couch; sed-Ile, seat; cIv-Ili-s, civic; erI-li-s, master's.
- 18. -mo, -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; fīr-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; flu-men, river; but M. flu-men, priest.
- 20. -men-to (N. mentu-m) forms substantives (mostly primary) indicating instrument: al-i-mentu-m, nourishment; tor-mentu-m, tor-ture.

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 sementi-s (f.), seed = semen (n.).

- 21. -met (N. mes, G. mit-is) forms a few masculine substantives: trā-mes, path; fō-mes, fuel; II-mes, cross-path.
- 22. -mino, -mina, -mno, -mna (N. minu-s, etc.), form substantives: M. ter-minu-s, boundary; F. al-u-mna, foster-daughter; femina, 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. -mon-io, -mon-ia (N. monia, moniu-m), forms primary and

secondary substantives. Primary: F. al-i-mōnia, nourishment; queri-mōnia, complaint; N. al-i-mōniu-m, nourishment. Secondary: F. ācri-mōnia, tartness; N. mātr-i-mōniu-m, marriage.

- 25. -mor forms primary masculine substantives: cre-mor, broth; rū-mor, rumour.
- 26. -mic (N. mex, G. mic-is) forms a few substantives : cI-mex, bug; pū-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; plē-nu-s, full. Secondary: diur-nu-s, daily; frāter-nu-s, brotherly; acer-nu-s, maple; ex-ter-nu-s, outer; bī-nī, two each.

Note.—Adjectives denoting material have also -neo (= n'-eo), as ae-neu-s, brazen; flig-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; pūg-nu-s, fist; F. cē-na, meal; lē-na, wool. N. dō-nu-m, gift; rēg-nu-m, kingdom. Secondary: M. tribū-nu-s, tribune; F. fortū-na, fortune; albur-nu-m, sap-wood.

Note.—This suffix is extended in pecu-nia, money.

- 28. -bundo-, -cundo (N. bundu-s, etc., cundu-s, etc.), form adjectives of activity: cunct-\(\bar{z}\)-bundu-s, delaying; f\(\bar{z}\)-cundu-s, eloquent.
- 29. -ni (N. ni-s) forms primary substantives and adjectives: am-ni-s, stream; pē-ni-s, tail; pē-ni-s, bread; im-mē-ni-s, wild; sēg-ni-s, lazy.
- 30. -ino, -ino (N. inu-s, etc.), forms primary and secondary substantives and adjectives. Primary: M. dom-inu-s, lord; F. pāg-ina, page; lic-inu-s, curled upwards. Secondary: M. ped-ic-inu-s, foot; F. fisc-ina, basket; N. sūc-inu-m, amber; faec-inu-s, making dregs.

Note.—The suffix is extended in the proper name Lic-iniu-s.

- 31. $-\bar{a}no$, $-\bar{a}na$ (N. $\bar{a}nu$ -s, etc.), forms secondary adjectives, some of which are substantivised. They indicate origin or appurtenance; decum- $\bar{a}nu$ -s, belonging to the tenth; $h\bar{u}m$ - $\bar{a}nu$ -s, human; alt- $\bar{a}nu$ -s, sea-wind. Primary in Volc- $\bar{a}nu$ -s, Di- $\bar{a}na$.
- 32. -ān-eo (N. āneu-s, etc.) forms primary and secondary adjectives. Primary: consent-āneu-s, harmonious. Secondary: subit-āneu-s, sudden. This suffix becomes ānio (= ān'io) in proper names: Afr-āniu-s, Fund-āniu-s.
 - 33. -ēno, -ēna (N. ēnu-s, etc.), forms secondary substantives and

adjectives: M. Vībidi-ēnu-s; F. cat-ēna, chain; hab-ēna, rein; N. ven-ēnu-m, poison; eg-ēnu-s, needy; ali-ēnu-s, strange.

Note.—This is extended to en-on in toll-eno, (well) sweep.

34. -ino, -ina (N. Inu-s, etc.), forms primary and secondary substantives and adjectives. Primary: M. cat-Inu-s, -m, dish; F. rap-Ina, rapine; ru-Ina, ruin; nec-op-Inu-s, unexpected. Secondary: M. pulv-Inu-s, cushion; sal-Inu-m, salt-cellar, and many feminines, especially those denoting shops and factories; reg-Ina, queen; cul-Ina, kitchen; offic-Ina, workshop; āgn-Inu-s, belonging to a lamb; div-Inu-s, divine.

Note .- An extension of this suffix is found in ric-Iniu-m, veil.

- 35. -en (N. -en, G. -in-is) forms a few substantives : M. pect-en, comb; N. glūt-en, glue.
- 36. -ōn (N. ŏ, G. in-is) forms a few substantives: M. card-ō, hinge; marg-ō, rim; ōrd-ō, row; F. a-sperg-ō, sprinkling; virg-ō, maid; car-ŏ, flesh.

Notes .- 1. Noteworthy is hom-o, hom-in-is, man.

- 2. This suffix occurs very commonly in compounds forming feminine abstracts:
- $-\bar{e}d\bar{o}n$ (N. &dő), dulc-&dő, sweetness; $-\bar{i}d\bar{o}n$ (N. &dő), cup-Idő, desire; form-Idő, fear; $-\bar{u}d\bar{o}n$ (N. &dő), tēst-Ädő, tortoise; $-t\bar{u}d\bar{o}n$ (N. tūdő), aegri-tūdő, sickness; $-\bar{u}g\bar{o}n$ (N. &gő), im-&gő, image; $-\bar{u}g\bar{o}n$ (N. \\$\frac{1}{3}g\), aer-\\$\frac{1}{3}g\), rust; $-\bar{i}g\bar{o}n$ (N. Igő), c&l-Igő, thick darkness; or-Igő, origin, etc.
- 37. -ōn (N. ō, G. ōnis) forms primary and secondary substantives. The primary are nouns of agency: combib-ō, fellow-drinker; prae-c-ō, herald; ti-rō, recruit. The secondary indicate often the possession of some bodily or mental peculiarities; āle-ō, dice-player; centuri-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): ambi-tion; op-pūgnā-tiō, siege. Noteworthy are the secondary diminutives, homunc-iō, senec-iō.

- 39. -ōno, -ōna (N. ōnu-s, ōna), forms few primary and many secondary substantives; the masculines indicate agents, especially person employed: M. col-ōnu-s, settler; F. mātr-ōna, matron; Bell-ōna.
- 40. -ōnio, -ōnia (N. ōniu-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. (e)r, -ra, ru-m), forms primary substantives and adjectives: M. ag-e-r, field; cap-e-r, goat; mū-ru-s, wall; F. lau-ru-s, laurel;

ser-ra, saw; N. flag-ru-m, whip; lab-ru-m, lip; clā-ru-s, bright; pū-rus, clean.

Often a short vowel precedes: M. num-e-ru-s, number; F. cam-era, vault; N. iūg-eru-m, measure of land. So hil-aru-s, joyous; lib-er, free; cam-uru-s, vaulted; sat-ur, full.

Notes.-1. Extensions are Mer-curiu-s, tug-uriu-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; ver (= ves-er), spring; cic-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. -āro forms adjectives, as: av-āru-s, greedy; am-āru-s, bitter.
- 44. $-\bar{\alpha}ri_j$ $-\bar{\alpha}li$ (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; primipīl-āri-s, one who has been primipīlus; some neuters in ar (from -āre): calc-ar, spur; ex-em-p-l-ar, pattern; pulvīn-ar, (sacred) couch; auxili-āri-s, auxiliary; mīlit-āri-s, military; cōnsul-āri-s, consular.
- 45. -ārio, -āria (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. -ēro (N. ēru-s, etc.) forms sev-ērus, earnest, and the substantive gal-ēru-s, -m, bonnet.
- 47. $-\bar{u}ri$ forms the substantive sec-ūri-s, axe, and by extension pēn-ūria, want.
- 48. The letter r appears often in combination with other suffixes, as:
 -er-co in lup-ercu-s, Pan; nov-erca, step-mother; -er-to in lac-ertu-s, arm;
 lac-ertu-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.

- r. Primitives are confined to the Third Conjugation, to some forms of the Irregular verbs, and to some Inchoatives. The various stemformations 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 \bar{a} , \bar{e} , 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 nomina agents 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 *Inchaatives*, 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 Dēnēminālīva, 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.):

- I. 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) cantare, sing; compare canō (cantum): cursāre, run to and fro; compare currō (cursum): dictāre, dictate; compare dīcō (dictum): dormītāre, be sleepy; compare dormiō (dormītum): habitāre, keep, dwell; compare habeō (habitum): pollicitārī, promise freely; compare polliceor (pollicitus): pulsāre, beat; compare pellō (pulsum).
- (b) agitāre (ago), nōscitāre (nōscō), scīscitāre (scīscō), vīsitāre (vīsō), vocitāre (vocō), volitāre (volō).
 - (c) cantitare (cantare), dictitare (dictare), cursitare (cursare).

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-tārī, exhort. The frequentative or intensive in -tāre is often out of use: āctitāre, repeatedly or zealously agitate (no āctāre), from ago, āctum: lēctitāre, read carefully (no lēctāre), from legō, lēctum.

- 2. The verbs of the Fourth Conjugation form no frequentatives except dormiō, sleep, dormitō; mūniō, fortify, mūnitō (rare); saliō, leap, saltō; apertō, lay bare, and opertō, cover, and compounds of ventō (veniō, come).
- 2. Inchoatives indicate entrance upon an action. For their formation see 133, V.
 - 3. Desideratives denote Desire or Tendency. They are formed

by means of the suffix -turio (-surio): esurire (for ed-t), to be sharp-set for eating, hungry; em-p-turire, 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; liquere, melt (trans.), and liquere, melt (intr.); from root men- (as in me-men-to) comes monere, remind; necare, kill, and nocere, be death to; placere, please, and placere, cause to be pleased, appease; sedere, sit, and sedere, settle.

No change; fugere, flee, and fugare, put to flight; iacere, throw, and iacere, (lie) thrown; pendere (hang) weigh, and pendere, 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):

- r. 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, be-smirch (macula); nōminā-re, name (nōmen, nōmin-is); onerā-re, load (onus, oner-is).

The Deponents signify Condition, Employment: ancillā-rī, be maid (ancilla); aquā-rī, be a drawer of water (aqua); fūrā-rī, thieve (fūr); laetā-rī, be glad (laetu-s).

- (b) albē-re, be white (albu-s); florē-re, be in bloom (flos, floris); frondē-re, be in leaf (frons. frondi-s); lūcē-re, be light (lūx, lūc-is).
- (c) argue-re (be bright, sharp), prove; laede-re, hurt; metue-re, be in fear (metu-s).
- (d) cūstōdī-re, guard (cūstōs, cūstōd-is); fīnī-re, end (fīnī-s); lēnī-re soften (lēnī-s); vestī-re, clothe (vestī-s).
- 3. Noteworthy are the *Diminutives* formed by the suffix -illāre: st-illāre, *drop* (st-illa); scint-illare, *sparkle* (scint-illa); ōsc-illāre, *to swing* (ōsc-illum). Similar in function but of different formation are pullulāre, *sprout* (pul-lus); fodic-āre, *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-aggerāre, 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: 5-normis = ex normā, out of all rule; lēgis-lātor, lawgiver; Senātūs-consultum, decree of the Senate.

Many of these compounds have gradually become inflectional: delirus (de-lira), crazy from fear; egregius (e-grege), distinguished (from the crowd); proconsul (for pro consule); trium-vir (from trium virum), etc.

Note.—From composition we must distinguish juxtaposition. So a preposition 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; ususfructus, usufruct; Iuppiter, Father Jove. Noteworthy are the Copulative compounds; such are compound numerals like un-decim, duo-decim, etc., and occasional others: su-ove-taur-Ilia, offerings of swine, sheep, and balls.

195. Composition Proper.

1. The first part of the compound may be a particle, as ne-far-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); sīgni-fer, standard-bearer (sīgnu-m); corni-ger, horn-wearer (cornū); 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: homicid-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 posci-nummius.

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 flavi-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-nōrmi-s, abnormal (nōrma, norm).

When the second part ends in a consonant, the last term usually undergoes no change: bi-den-s, two-pronged; simplex (sim-plec-s), simple.

Note.—From genus (G. generis), is formed de-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. I. Attributive compounds. The first part is the attribute of the second.

The first word is, (1) a substantive: ali-pes, wing-foot(ed); (2) an adjective: magn-animus, great-hearted; lati-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: merī-diēs (from medī-diē = medīō diē), mid-day; (2) an adverb: bene-ficus (well-doing), beneficent; male-ficus, evil-doing; (3) a numerai: 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 gerëns, armour-bearer; agri-cola = agrum colëns (land-tiller), husbandman; (2) the Genitive: sol-stitium = solis statio (sunstaying), solstice; (3) the Locative: aliëni-gena (born elsewhere), alien; (4) the Instrumental: tibi-cen = tibiā 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: flavi-comus, (having) yellow hair; (3) a numeral: bi-frons, (having) two front(s); (4) a particle: dis-cors, discordant; in-ers, inactive.

Note.—Notice that these divisions run into each other; thus magn-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, I. Composition Improper.

- (a) Verb with verb: This only takes place when the second part of the compound is facio or fio (173, N. 2). The first part of the compound is regularly an intransitive of the second conjugation: cale-facio, cale-fio, warm, am warmed.
- (b) Verb with substantive: anim-advertō = animum advertō, take notice; manū-mittō, set free; ūsū-capiō, acquire by use.
- (c) Verb with adverb: bene-dicō, bless; male-dicō, curse; mālō, nōiō (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, enfold; an-hēlō, draw deep breath, pant; dis-currō, run apart; dir-imō, 160, I, and 715, R.I; por-tendō, hold forth, portend; red-dō, give back; re-solvō, resolve; sō-iungō, separate.
- (b) With separable prepositions: ab-eō, go away; ad-eō, come up; ante-currō, run in advance; com-pōnō, put together; dē-currō, run down, finish a course; ex-cēdō, overstep; in-clūdō, shut in; ob-dūcō, draw over; per-agrō, wander through; post-habeō, keep in the background; prae-dīcō, foretell; praeter-eō, pass by; prōd-eō, go forth; prae-videō, foresee; sub-iciō, put under; subter-fugiō, flee from under; super-sum, remain over; trāns-gredior, pass beyond.

SYNTAX.

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.

Luna fulget, The moon shines.

Luna is the subject; fulget, the predicate.

REMARKS.—I. 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! Audī tū, populus Albānus, L., I. 24, 7; hear thou, people of Alba!

0 is prefixed to give emphasis to the address:

 $\overline{\mathbf{0}}$ formose puer, nimium në crëde colori, V., Ec. 2, 17; Oshapely 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. I.

SYNTAX OF THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

202. The most simple form of the sentence is the finite verb: su-m, I am; doce-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.—I. 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 éléci, [C.] ad Her., IV. 53, 66; I drove out kings. Sapiéns rés adversäs non timet, the sage does not fear adversity. Victi in servitütem rediguntur, the vanquished are reduced to slavery. Contendisse decorum est, Ov., M., IX. 6; to have struggled is honourable. Mägnum beneficium [est] nätürae quod necesse est mori, Sen., E.M., 101, 14; it is a great boon of nature, that we must needs die. Vidés habet duss syllabās, (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 -ārius 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: aquārius, waterman; librārius, bookman (-seller, writer, etc.); grammaticus, grammarian; amīcus, friend; cōgnātus, kinsman; socius, partner. Many of these have become almost wholly fixed as substantives, as amīcus, friend. See 16, N.1.

(b) Adjectives are very often used as substantives in the mase. Pl. when they designate a class: pauperes, the poor; divites, the rich. In the oblique cases of the Sing., this use is also not nncommon; 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: Plato, doctissimus homo, the learned Plato. Exceptions are are and scattering in prose: ego et survissimus Cicero valemus, 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: cani (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; extrēmum, 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: vēra, the truth; bmnia, 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 mall, nothing bad. Adjectives of the Third Declension are thus employed only in

combination with those of the Second, and even then very rarely (369, B. 1).

Usually the adjective of the Third Declension draws the adjective of the Second

into its own construction: Quid habet ista res aut lactabile aut gloriosum?

4. Instead of the neuter adjective, the word $r\bar{s}s$, thing, is frequently used, especially in forms which are identical for different genders, and consequently ambiguous; so

bonārum rērum, of blessings, rather than bonorum (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: fortitūdinēs, gallant actions; formīdinēs, bugbears; frae, quarrels.

6. Other Pl. expressions to be noted are: nivēs, snow(flakes); grandinēs, hail (-stones); pluviae, (streams of) rain; līgna, (logs of) wood; carnēs, pieces of meat; aera, articles of bronze; also symmetrical parts of the human body: cervicēs, neck;

pectora, breast.

The Pl. is freely used in poetry and in later prose: Otia sI tollas, periore Cupidinis arcus, 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 tō dō senectūte mīsimus, C., Cat. M., x, 3; we (I) have sent you a treatise on old age.

In poetry there is often an element of shyness; Sitque memor nostri necne, referte mill. 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: Romanus, the Roman forces; Poenus, the Carthaginians; hostis, the enemy; miles, the soldiery; 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.

Fortuna caeca est, C., Lael., 15, 54; fortune is blind. Usus 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; recte semper erunt res, things will always be (go on) well; sic vita hominum est, C., Rosc. Am., 30, 84; such is human life; "So runs the world away."

206. Other copulative verbs are: vidērī, to seem; nāscī, to be born; fierī, to become; ēvādere, to turn out; creārī, to be created; dēligī, to be chosen; putārī, to be thought; habērī, to be held; dīcī, to be said; appellārī, to be called; nōminārī, 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. Aristīdēs iūstus adpellātur, Aristīdes is called just. [Servius] rēx est dēclārātus, L., 1. 46, 1; Servius was declared king. [Thūcǧdidēs] numquam est numerātus ōrātor, C., O., 9, 31; Thucydides has never been accounted an orator.

REMARKS.—I. With esse, serve as; videri, seem; haberi, be held; duci, be deemed, and rarely with other verbs, instead of the Predicate Nom., a phrase may be employed, as: pro with Abl., (in) loco, in numero, with Gen., etc.

Audācia prō mūrō habētur, S., C., 58, 17; boldness is counted as a bulwark. In filii loco, C., Red. in Sen., 14, 35; as a son.

- 2. The previous condition is given by ex or de and the Abl. (396, N. 2). Ex oratore arator 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 nēmỗ 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: perhibērī, to be held, is early; appārēre, to appear, is poetic and post-classical for vidērī; reddī is not used for fierī; sistī, to be set down, is Plautine; manēre, to remain, is late (permanēre once in Cicero).

 Noteworthy is the use of audire, like the Greek ἀκούειν, to be called, which is confined to HORACE; rexque paterque audisti, Ep., 1. 7, 38; S., 11. 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 ēiēcī, võs tyrannōs intrōdūcitis, [C.] ad Her., 1v. 53, 66; I drove out kings, ye are bringing 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, Sallust (as an archaism), and Petronius.

- 208. IMPERSONAL VERBS.—Impersonal Verbs are verbs in which the agent is regularly implied in the action, the subject in the predicate, so that the person is not expressed. Chief of these are:
- Verbs pertaining to the state of the weather: tonat, it thunders, the thunder thunders, or rather, the Thunderer thunders; fulget, fulget.

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.

Note. The divine agent is sometimes expressed; so, naturally, in religious or popular language: Iove tonante, fulgurante, C., Div., II. 18, 43; Iove fulgente, 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; curritur, there is a running; pugnatur, there is a battle: mihi invidetur, I am envied. The subject is contained in the verb itself : sīc vīvitur = sīc vīta vīvitur, such is life : pūgnātur = pūgna pūgnātur. a battle is (being) fought. In the same way explain taedet, it wearies: 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, 535) or an equivalent (523) is conceived as a subject : Non lubet mihi denlorare vitam. C., Cat. M., 23, 84. Sed accidit perincommode quod eum nüsquam 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 (258). 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, Epicaro, 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 iūs summa iniūria, 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 habere quicum omnia audeas loqui? C., Lael., 7, 22; what sweeter than to have some one with whom you can venture to talk about everything? Sed haec vetera; illud vēro recens, C., Ph., II. 11, 25. Aliquamdiū certātum, S., Iuq., 74, 3. Cūr hostis Spartacus, sī tū civis ? C., Parad., 4, 30.

So also esse, with participles and the like :

Caesar statuit exspectandam classem, 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, mīrum nī, mīrum quīn, factum, in Latin comedy; likewise potis and pote for forms of posse. To a like origin are due mīrum 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 dubito to esse sapientem dicere (to declare you to be wise) were regularly cut down to non dubito to 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 Carsar and Velletus.

CONCORD.

- 210. THE THREE CONCORDS.—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.

Substantiva mobilia (21, 2) are treated as adjectives, and follow the number and gender of the subject.

Ego rēgēs ēiēcī, võs tyrannōs intrŏdūcitīs, [C.] ad Her., IV. 53, 66 (207). Vērae amīcitiae sempiternae sunt, C., Lael., 9, 32; true friendships are abiding. Dōs est decem talenta, Ter., And., 950; the dowry is ten talents. Ūsus magister est optimus, C., Rab. Post., 4, 9 (205). Arx est monosyllabum, "Arx" is a monosyllable. Compare Īgnis cōnfector est et cōnsūmptor omnium, C., N.D., II. 15, 41; fire is the doer-up (destroyer) and eater-up (consumer) of everything, with cōnfectrīx rērum omnium vetustās, C., Frag.

REMARKS.—I. The violation of the rules of agreement is due chiefly to one of two causes; either the natural relation is preferred to the artificial (constructio ad sensum, per synesin, 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; multitudo, crowd; organized bodies more rarely. Also, but not often, such words as quisque, uterque, nēmo, etc.

Pars maior receperant sese, L., xxxiv. 47, 6; the greater part had retired. Omnis multitudo abount, L., xxiv. 3, 15; all the crowd depart.

Māgna vis ēminus missa tēlōrum multa nostrīs vulnera Inferēbant, Caes., B.C., II. 6, 5. Uterque eōrum ex castrīs exercitum ēdūcunt, Caes., B.C., III. 30, 3.

Note.—This usage is very common in comedy, but extremely rare in model prose. Lavy 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). Tactius 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-eminently to the historians.

Capita coniūrātionis virgīs caesī (sunt), L., x. 1, 3; the heads of the conspiracy were flogged. Samnītium caesī tria mīlia, Cf. L., x. 34, 3; of the Samnītes (there) were slain three thousand.

The passive verb often agrees in gender with the predicate: Non omnis error 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 Irae (204, N. 5) amoris integrātio 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 fluminum māximus, 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:

Velocissimum 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. 1.)
- 4. The neuter adjective is often used as the substantive predicate of a masculine or feminine subject:

Trīste lupus stabulīs, V., Ec., 3, 80; the wolf is a baleful thing to the folds. Varium et mūtābile semper fēmina, 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 extrēmum, commune:

Omnium rērum (204, N. 4) mors [est] extrēmum, 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; hōc enim vostrum lūmen est, C., Fin., 11. 22, 70; Epicurus says No; for he is your great light. Ea nōn media sed nūlla 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:

Quid aut quale [est] Deus? Cf. C., N.D., 1. 22, 60; what or what manner of thing is $God \ ?$ Nec sopor illud erat, V., A., 111. 173. Quod ita erit gestum, id lex erit, C., Ph., 1. 10, 26.

Exceptions are but apparent. C., O., 11. 38, 157.

6. The adjective predicate sometimes agrees with a substantive in apposition to the subject. So especially when the appositive is oppidum, cīvitās, and the like:

Corioli oppidum captum [est], L., 11. 33, 9; Corioli-town was taken. Corinthum, tōtius Graeciae lūmen, exstinctum esse voluērunt, 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) tē occīsūrum ait (Casina), alterō vīlicum. Pl., Cas., 693. So Truc., 400.

2. Age is often used in early Latin as if it were an adverb, with the Plural; occa-

sionally also cave: Age modo fabricamini. Pl., Cas., 488.

Akin is the use of a Voc. Sing. with a Pl. verb, which is occasionally found in classical prose also: Tum Scaevola; quid est, Cotta? inquit, quid tacētis? C., O., 1. 35, 160.

The use of aliquis, some one of you, in this way is early: Aperite aliquis actutum

östium, TER., Ad., 634.

3. Other less usual constructions ad sensum are: the use of a neuter demonstrative where a substantive of a different gender is expected, and the construction of res as if it were neuter (both found also in Cicero); the neuter Singular summing up a preceding Plural:

In Graeciā mūsicī floruērunt, dīscēbantque id (that [accomplishment]) omnēs, C., Tusc., 1. 2, 4. Servitia repudiābat, cūius (of which [class]) initiō ad eum

māgnae copiae 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 (trānseō, *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 declinare, inclinare, movere, 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.

Virgīs caedētur, C., Verr., 111. 28, 69; he shall be beaten with rods. [Īgnis] lūmine proditur suo, Ov., Her., 15, 8; the fire is betrayed by its own light.

The agent is put in the Ablative with ab (ā).

Ab amicis prodimur, C., Cluent., 52, 143; we are betrayed by friends. Virgis caesi tribuni ab legato sunt, L., xxix. 18, 13; the tribunes were beaten with rods by the lieutenant.

Remarks,—I. Intrans. verbs of passive signification are construed as passives: fame perire, C., Inv., II. 57, 172, to perish of hunger. So venire, to be sold; venulare (chiefly vulgar), to be beaten, ab alique, by some one.

Ab reo fustibus [vāpulāvit], Cf. QUINT., IX. 2, 12; he was whacked with cudgels by the defendant. Salvēbis ā meo Cicerone, C., Att., vi. 2, 10; freeting to you from Cicero.

2. When the instrument is considered as an agent, or the agent as an instrument, the constructions are reversed:

Vinci & Voluptate, C., Off., 1. 20, 68; to be overcome by Dame Pleasure. Patricis iuvenibus saepserant latera, L., 111. 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.

 $\overline{\mathbf{A}}$ cane non magno saepe tenetur 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.

Mihř res tôta prôvisa est, C., Verr., IV. 42, 91; I have had the whole thing provided for. Carmina nulla 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] homini 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 victus 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: Miseri invident bonis, The wretched envy the well-to-do.

Passive: mihi invidētur, I am envied,
tibi invidētur, thou art envied,
eī invidētur, he is envied,
nōbīs invidētur, we are envied,
vōbīs invidētur, you are envied,
iīs invidētur, they are envied,

ab aliquo, by some one.

Nihil facile persuādētur invītīs, QUINT., IV. 3, 10; people are not easily persuaded of anything against their will. Anulis nostrīs plūs quam animis erēditur, 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 mihǐ?), H., A.P., 56; vix equidem crēdar, Ov., Tr., III. 10, 35; persuāsus vidētur

esse, [C.] ad Her., 1. 6, 9. (Persuādeō hospitem, Petr., 62, 2, is perhaps an intentional solecism.)

2. Similar liberties are taken by poets and late prose writers with the passive of other intrans. verbs, such as concedere, permittere, praecipere, pronuntiare: Fatis numquam concessa (= cui concessum est) moveri Camarina, V., A., III. 700.

218. Reflexive.—Reflexive relations, when emphatic, are expressed as in English:

Omne animal se 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: lavor, I bathe, I bathe myself.

Pürgäri [nequivērunt], Cf. L., XXIV. 18, 4; they could not clear themselves. Cum in mentem vēnit, pönor 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): Adulēscentiam per mediās laudēs quasi quadrīgīs 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 Mỹsōs [Insuisti] in cüleum, Cf. C., Q.F., 1.2, 2, 5; you sewed two Mysians into a sack (had them sewn). Sine gemitü adüruntur, C., Tusc., v. 27, 77; they let themselves be burned without a moan. Diruit, aedificat, H., Ep., 1. 1, 100; he is pulling down, he is building. Ipse docet quid agam; fās est et ab hoste docērī, 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) signification. 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. X.

Quid causae excogitari potest, cur te lautum voluerit, cenatum noluerit

occidere ? C., Dei., 7, 20.

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, nos, us; vos, you; so, themselves. Inter so amant, They love one another.

REMARKS.—1. Combinations of alter alterum, alius alium, uterque alterum, and the like, also often give the reciprocal relation: sometimes there is a redundancy of expression.

Placet Stöicis hominës hominum causă esse generatos, ut ipsi inter so alii aliis prodesse possent, C., Off., 1. 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 mūtuō, inter sē, vicissim; and early Latin shows occasionally uterque utrumque.

Quae omnia hūc spectant, ut invicem ārdentius diligāmus, PLIN., Ep., VII. 20, 7; all these things look to our loving one another more fervently. Uterque utriquest cordi, 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 acristic 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:

Talia tentabat, sic et tentaverat ante,

Vixque dedit victas ütilitäte manüs. Ov., Tr., 1. 3, 87.

226. Table of Temporal Relations. INDICATIVE MOOD.

ACTIVE.

Continuance. Completion. Attainment. PRES. scribo. scripsi, scribo. I am writing. I have written. I write. FUT. scrībam, scrīpsero. scribam (scripsero), I shall be writing. I shall have written. I shall write. Past. scribebam, scripseram. scripsi, I was writing. I had written. Twrote.

PASSIVE. Continuance. Completion. Attainment. scribitur (epistula), scripta est. scribitur. The letter is written has been written. is written. (writing). is written. FUT. scribētur. scripta erit. scrībētur, The letter will be will have been. will be written. written (writing). will be written. PAST. scrībēbātur. scripta erat. scripta est.

was written.

The letter was written (writing). had been written, was written. Remark.—The English passive is ambiguous. The same form is currently used for continuance, attainment, and completion. The context alone can decide. Λ convenient test is the substitution of the active.

A letter was written: Continuance, Some one was writing a letter.

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 teneo lupum, Ter., Ph., 506; I am holding a wolf by the cars.

Universal Present:

Probitās laudātur et alget, Juv., 1. 74; honesty is bepraised and freezes. Dulce et decōrum est prō patriā morī, H., O., HI. 2, HI. 3; sweet and seemly 'tis to die for fatherland.

So regularly of the quoted views of authors, the inscriptions of books, etc.:

De invenum 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 233) 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 verb.

Periculum vītant, C., Rosc. Am., 1.1; they are trying to avoid danger. In the example sometimes cited: Quintus frāter Tūsculānum vēnditat, C., Att., 1.14,7; Brother Quintus is "trying to sell" his Tusculan villa; vēnditāre 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 (233); this is, however, colloquial: Tacč: non tacec, Pl., Cas., 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 promerits capitur, nec tangitur irā, Luch., 11.65x; 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 tüta erunt, S., C., 58, 9; if we conquer (= shall conquer) everything will be safe. Antequam ad sententiam redeō dō mē pauca dīcam, C., Cat., IV. 10, 20; before I return to the subject, I will

say a few things of myself. Exspectabo 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 vīvō, 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 incedere inbet, S., C., 60, 1; he orders the cohorts to advance. Maturat proficisci, 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 colloquio 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 prīdem, now long since. In English we often translate by a Progressive Perfect.

(Mithridātēs) annum iam tertium et vicēsimum rēgnat, C., Imp., 3, 7; Mithridates has been reigning now going on twenty-three years. Liberāre vēs ā Philippē 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. 1, 91.

Notes.-1. The Pr. sometimes gives the resulting condition:

Qui mortem non timet, magnum is sibi praesidium ad beatam vitam comparat, C., Tusc., II. 1, 2; he who fears not death gets for himself great warrant for a happy life. (Dicunt) vincere (= victorem esse) bello Romanum, L., II. 7, 2.

2. More free is this usage in the poets, sometimes under Greek influence :

Auctore Phoebo gignor ($\gamma i \gamma \nu \circ \mu \alpha \iota = \gamma \circ \nu \circ \circ \circ (\mu \iota)$; haud 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 tenuere rates nec iam amplius ullae adparent 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:

(Verrēs) in forum vēnit; ārdēbant oculī; tōtō ex ōre crūdēlitās ēminēbat, 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.)

Cūriam relinquēbat, Tac., Ann., 11. 34, 1; he was for leaving the senate-house. [Lēx] 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., 11. 1, 2. Dīcēbat (positive) melius quam scrīpsit (negative) Hortēnsius, C., Or., 38, 132; Hortensius spoke better than he wrote. Aditum non 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 vīxit annōs, Quint., III. I. 9; Gorgias lived one handred and nine years. Biennium ibi perpetuom misera illum tulī, Ter., Hec., Bar. Hore him there noor per hore here together.

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., 858; (so it turns out that) you were here (all the time). Peream male sī non optimum erat, H., S., 11. 1, 6; perdition catch me if that was not the best course (after all).

Hence the modal use of debebam and poteram (254, R. 2).

234. The Imperfect is used as the English Pluperfect, which often takes a progressive translation; especially with iam, iam dūdum,

Iam düdum tibi adversābar, Pl., Men., 420; I had long been opposing you. (Archiās) domicilium Romae multos iam annos [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. 2. Historical Perfect (Aorist).

1. PURE PERFECT.

- 235. The Pure Perfect Tense expresses completion in the Present, and hence is sometimes called the Present Perfect.
- r. 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 habed, Immo habul, Ter., Heart., 94; I have an only son—nay, have had an only son. Tempora quid faciunt: hanc volo, to volui, 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 mülum Brundisii tibǐ reliqui, C., Fam., xvi. 9, 3; I have left a horse and mule for you at Brundusium—(they are still there). Perdidī spem quā mē oblectābam, Pl., Rud., 222; I've lost the hope with which I entertained myself. Āctumst, perīstī, Ter., Eun., 54; it is all over; you're undone.

Remark.—The Pure Pf. is often translated by the English Present: novi, I have become acquainted with, I know; memini, I have recalled, I remember; odi, I have conceived a hatred of, I hate; consuevi, I have made it a rule, I am accustomed, etc.

Öderunt hilarem trīstēs trīstemque iocosī, H., Ep., I. 18, 89; the long-faced hate the lively man, the jokers hate the long-faced man.

But the Aorist force is sometimes found:

Tace, inquit, ante hoc novi quam tu natus es, Phaed., v. 9, 4; silence, quoth he, I knew this ere that you were born.

Note.—The Pf. is used of that which has been and shall be (Sententious or Gnomic Perfect, 242, N. 1), but usually in poetry, from CATULLUS on, and frequently with an indefinite adjective or adverb of number or a negative. It is seldom an Aorist (Greek).

Evertere domos totas optantibus ipsis di faciles, Juv., x. 7; whole houses at the masters' own request the (too) compliant gods o'erturn. Nëmo repente fuit turpissimus, Juv., 11.83; none of a sudden (hath ever) reach(ed) the depth of baseness.

237. As the Present stands for the Future, so the Perfect stands for the Future Perfect.

(Brūtus) sī conservātus erit, vīcimus, 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., 111. 41, 95; I have resolved, and hold to my resolution. Perspectum habeō, Cf. C., Fam., 111. 10, 7; I have perceived, and I have full insight. Excusātum habeās mē rogo, cēno domi, Mart., 11. 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, calceōs et vestīmenta mūtāvit, paulisper commorātus est, C., Mil., 10, 28; Milo came home, changed shoes and garments, tarried a little while. (Gorgiās) centum et novem vīxit annōs, QUINT., III. 1, 9 (233, N. 2). Vēnī, vīdī, vīcī, Suet., Iul., 37; I came, saw, overcame.

Note.—The Pf., as the "short hand" for the Plupf., is mainly post-Ciceronian, but begins with Caesar. It is never common: superioribus diebus nona Caesaris legio castra eo loco posuit, Caes., B.C., m. 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 regnantem viderāmus, 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., 10, 26; he had been my enemy.

3. Of a resulting condition in the past.

Massiliënsës portës Caesari clauserant, Caesa, B.C., 1. 34, 4; the Marseillese 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: noveram, I had become acquainted with, I knew; memineram, I remembered; oderam, I hated; consudveram, 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., Aul., 635. Non sum ego qui fueram, Prop., 1. 12, 11. See Ov., Tr., III. 11, 25.

2. The Periphrastic Plupf, with habeo corresponds to the Perfect (238). It is rare, and shows two forms, one with the Imperfect and one with the Plupf., the latter

being post-classical.

Equitātum, quem ex omnī provinciā coāctum habēbat, praemittit, Caes., B.G., 1.15, 1. Multorum aures illa lingua attonitās 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.—I. In subordinate clauses the Latin language is more exact than the English in the expression of future relations.

Donec eris felix, multos numerabis amicos, Ov., Tr., I. 9, 5; so long as you shall be (are) happy, you will count many friends.

2. Observe especially the verbs volo, I will, and possum, I can.

Odero si potero; si non, invitus amabo, Ov., Am., 111. 11, 35; I will hate if I shall be able (can); if not, I shall love against my will. Qui

adipīscī vēram glōriam volet, iūstitiae fungātur officiis, C., Off., 11. 13, 43; whoso shall wish to obtain true glory, iet him discharge the calls of justice.

3. The Fnt. is often used in conclusions, especially in CICERO: Sunt illa sapientis; aberit igitur a sapiente aegritudo, C., Tusc., III. 8, 18. Notes.—1. The Fut, is used sometimes as a gnomic (236, N.) tense:

Haut facul fēmina inveniētur bona, Afr., 7; unneth (= hardly) a woman shall be found that's good. Et tremet sapiēns et dolēbit, et expallēscet, Sen., E.M., 71, 29.

2. Observe the (principally comic) use of the Future to indicate likelihood;

Verbum hercle hoc verum 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.

Tū nihil dīcēs, Π ., A.P., 385; you will (are to) say nothing (do you say nothing). Cum volet accēdēs, cum tē vītābit abībis, Ov., A.A., 11. 529; when she wants you, approach; and when she avoids you, begone, sir. Non mē appellābis, sī sapis, Pl., Most., 515; see C., Fam., v. 12, 10. Compare ūtētur and ūtātur, Corn., 11. 3, 5.

Similar is the Future in Asseverations (comic).

Ita më amābit Iuppiter, 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: feero, Ter., Ph., 882; I shall have done it, or I shall do it (once for all); videro, Ter., Ad., 538; I will see to it; profecerit, 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: novero, I shall know; consurvero, I shall be accustomed; odero, si potero, 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 ferrum, eius victoria erit, L., xxiv. 38, 5; who first draws the sword, his shall be the victory.

3. The Fut. Pf. is frequently used in volo, I will; nolo, 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 vöbīs 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.

Quī Antōnium oppresserit, is bellum cōnfēcerit, C., Fam., x. 19, 2; he who shall have crushed (crushes) Antony, will have finished (will finish) the war. [Ea] vitia quī fūgerit, is omnia ferē vitia vītāverit; 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.

Immūtā (verbōrum collocātiōnem), 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 merentī bene profuerit, male merentī pār erit, PL., Capt., 315; good desert shall have good issue; ill desert shall have its due. Ego crās hīc ero: crās habuero, uxor, ego tamen convīvium, PL., Cas., 786. Nūsquam facilius hanc miserrimam vītam vel sustentābo vel abiēcero, C., Att., III. 19, 1. See also C., Ac., II. 44, 135; L., I.58, 10.

2. The Periphrastic Fut. Pf. with habeo is rare. It corresponds to the Pf. and

Pluperfect.

Quod sī fēceris, 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 viderīs; ego dē mē ipse profitēbor, C., Ph., 11. 46, 118; do you see to yourself; I myself will define my position.

Note.—This is confined in Cicero almost entirely to $v\bar{i}der\bar{i}s$, which is suspiciously like the familiar Greek future $\delta\psi\epsilon_i$, 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. Scriptūrus sum, I am about to write, I am to write, I purpose to write, I am likely to write.
 - 2. Scriptūrus eram, I was about to write, etc.

- 3. Scriptūrus fui, 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 ero, I shall be about to write, etc.
- 6. Scriptūrus fuero, I shall have made up my mind to write, etc. (of course very rare).
 - 1. Fiet illud quod futurum est, C., Div., 11. 8, 21; what is to be, will be.
- [Rēx] non interfuturus navali certamini erat, L., XXXVI. 43, 9; the king did not intend to be present at the naval combat.
- 3. Fascīs ipsī ad mē dēlātūrī fuērunt, C., Ph., XIV. 6, 15; they themselves were ready to tender the fasces to me. Dēditōs ūltimīs cruciātibus adfectūrī fuērunt, L., XXI. 44, 4; they would have put the surrendered to extreme tortures.
- 4. Māior Romānorum grātia fuit quam quanta futūra Carthāginiensium 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. (Sapiens) non vivet, si fuerit sine homine victūrus, 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.—I. The forms with sum, eram, and the corresponding Subjv. forms with sim, essem, are much more common than those with ful, 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 uncommou in Livy, and occurs sporadically later. Fore for esse is post-classical.

Dicit se venisse quaesitum pacem an bellum agitaturus foret, S., Iug., 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 notuncommon ut sis sciens of the Comic Poets. The effect of this periphrasis is to emphasise the continuance.

Nēmỗ umquam tam sui dēspiciēns (despiser of self, self-depreciator) fuit quin spērāret melius sē posse dīcere, C., Or., 11. 89, 364.

II. PERIPHRASTIC TENSES OF THE PASSIVE.

A.-Of Future Relations.

248. The periphrases futurum esse (more often fore) ut, (that) it is to be that, and futurum 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 nöbīs, C., Tusc., I. 34, 82; I hope that we shall have that good fortune. In fātīs scrīptum Vēientēs [habēbant] fore ut brevī ā 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 rarc. (C., Att., XVI. 16 E. 16.)

The form futurum fuisse ut is used with passive and Supineless verbs, to express the dependent apodosis of an unreal conditional sentence.

Nisi eō ipsō tempore nūntii dē Caesaris victōriā essent allāti, exīstimābant plērīque futūrum fuisse utī (oppidum) āmitterētur, Caes., B. C., 111. 101, 3. (656, 2.)

4. The Subjv. forms futurm sit, esset, fuerit ut, are used in the grammars to supply the periphrastic Subjv. of passive and Supineless verbs (see 515, R. 2). Warrant in real usage is searce.

An utique futurum sit ut Carthaginem superent Romani? Quint. III. 8,17 (uot merely periphrastic).

249. In eo est, it is on the point, at that (of), with erat, thit,
$$was$$
 (Impersonal), the subjunctive.

In eo [erat] ut (Pausanias) comprehenderetur, 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. Eram, 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.—I. Ful is the favorite form when the participle is frequently used as an adjective: convivium exornatum fuit, the banquet was furnished forth; ful is the nevessary form when the Pf. denotes that the action is over and gone; amatus ful, I have been loved (but I

am loved no longer). The same principle applies to fueram and fuero, though not so regularly.

Simulācrum ē marmore in sepulcrō positum fuit; hōc quīdam homō nōbilis dēportāvit, C., Dom., 43, 111; a marble effigy was deposited in the tomb; a certain man of rank has carried it off. Arma quae fīxa 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 tibǐ fuerit persuāsum, huīc erit persuāsum, 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 dīvīsa in partēs trēs, CAES., B.G., 1, 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. I. 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] divitiīs 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:

Parcendum 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 = quī amat, but also = quī amet, so amandus = quī amētur. Compare 438, r.

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 scrīberem, 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.

scrībō,	I am writing,	becomes	scrībēbam.
	I write,	66	scrīpsī.
scrīpsī,	I have written,	66	scripseram.
	$I\ wrote,$	"	scrīpseram.
	or remains une	hanged.	
scrībam,	I shall write,	"	scrīptūrus eram.

The adverbial designations of time remain unchanged—or

herī,	yesterday,	becomes	prīdiē.
hodiē,	to-day,	"	quō diē hās lītterās dedī, dabam.
crās,	to-morrow,	**	postero die, postrīdie.
nunc,	now,	66	tum.

Formiās mē continuō recipere cōgitābam, C., Att., VII. 15,3; I am thinking of retiring forthwith to Formiae. Cum mihī dīxisset Caecilius puerum sē Rōmam mittere, haec scrīpsī raptim, C., Att., II. 9,1; as Caecilius has told me that he is sending a servant to Rome, I write in a hurry. (Lītterās) eram datūrus postrīdiē eī quī mihī 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 etsī nihil habeō quod ad tē scrībam, scrībō tamen quia tēcum loquī videor, C., Att., XII. 53.

MOODS. MOU'DS

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.

THE IND. ATIVE MIDD

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.—I. 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: debeō, 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; pār, 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 debeō, possum, oportet, etc.

Possum persequi permulta oblectāmenta rērum rūsticārum, C., Cat. M., 16, 55; I might rehearse very many delights of country life. Longum est persequi ūtilitātēs asinōrum, C., N.D., 11. 64, 159; it would be tedious to rehearse the useful qualities of asses (I will not do it). Ad mortem tē dūcī oportēbat, C., Cat., I. 1, 2; it behooved you to be (you ought to have been) led to execution (you were not). Volumnia dēbuit in tē officiōsior esse, et id ipsum, quod fēcit, potuit dīligentius 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 condiciō nōn 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] vīvum illinc exire non oportuerat, C., Mūr., 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: dēbēbam, I ought (but do not); poterās, you could (but do not). These may be considered as conditionals in disguise. (See R. 3.)

Poteram morbōs appellāre, sed non conveniret ad omnia, C., Fin., III. 10, 35; I might translate (that Greek word) "diseases," but that would not suit all the cases (poteram sī conveniret). At poterās, inquis, melius mala ferre silendō, Ov., Tr., v. 1, 49; "But," you say, "you could (you do not) bear your misfortunes better by keeping silent" (poterās sī silērōs).

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:

Lābēbar longius, nisi mē retinuissem, C., Leg., 1. 19, 52; I was letting myself go on (should have let myself go on) too far, had I not checked myself. Omnīnō supervacua erat doctrīna, sī nātūra sufficeret, QUINT., II. 8, 8; training were wholly superfluous, did nature suffice. Pracclārē vīcerāmus, nisi Lepidus recēpisset Antōnium, 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; qualecumque est, whatever sort of thing it is, be, may be.

Quidquid id est, timeo Danaos et dona ferentes, 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 (non) putaram, "I should (not) have thought so," and malueram, I could have preferred. Lucan and Tacitus alone imitate the latter; the former was never followed.

Mālueram, quod erat susceptum ab illīs, silentiō trānsīrī, C., Att., 11. 19, 3.

Feriam tua viscera, Magne; malueram soceri, Lucan, viii. 521.

2. In carly Latin, occasionally in the more familiar writings of Cicero, and here and there later we find the Pr. Indie. (in early Latin occasionally the Fut.) used in place of the Subjv. in the Deliberative Question.

Compressãn palmā an porrēctā feriō ? Pp., Cas., 405. Advolone an maneō? C., Att., xn1. 40, 2. Quoi dono lepidum novom libellum, Cat., 1, 1.

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 debeo or oportet (of moral obligation), by necesse est (of absolute obligation).

Nostrās iniūriās nec potest nec possit alius ulcīscī quam vos, 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. arc 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 (subjungō, 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, R. I.)
- (b) In transfers to the past, the Impf. 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, non.

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.

Velim, I should wish; nolim, I should be unwilling; malim, I should prefer; dicas, you would say; credas, you would believe, you must believe; dicat, dixerit aliquis, some one may undertake to say, go so far as to say.

Caedi discipulos minime velim, Quint., i. 3, 13; I should by no means like pupils to be flogged. The Platonem nec nimis valde nec nimis saepe laudaveris, 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 cllipsis 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 translatiou. Compare the two sentences above with:

Eum qui palam est adversārius facile cavendō (sī caveās) vitāre possīs, C., Verr., I. 15, 30; an open adversary you can readily avoid by caution (if you are cautious). Nīl ego contulerim iūcundō sānus (= dum sānus erō) amīcō, H., 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, n. 1).

258. The Potential of the Past is the Imperfect Subjunctive, chiefly in the Ideal Second Person, an imaginary "you."

Crederes victos, L., II. 43, 9; you would, might, have thought them beaten. Haud facile discerneres utrum Hannibal imperatori an exercitui carior esset, L., xxI. 4, 3; not readily could you have decided whether Hannibal was dearer to general or to army. Miraretur qui tum cerneret, L., xxXIV. 9, 4; any one who saw it then must have been astonished.

Vellem, I should have wished; nollem, I should have been unwilling; mallem, I should have preferred (it is too late).

Notes.—1. With vellem, nollem, 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:

Hī ambō saltūs ad Libuōs Gallōs dēdūxerint (var. dēdūxissent), L., XXI. 38, 7.

Eā quā minimum crēdidisset (consul) 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 (= nēmő dubitet) quīn in virtūte divitiae sint? C., Parad., vi. 2, 48; who can doubt that true wealth consists in virtue? (No one.) Quis tulerit Gracchōs dō sēditiōne querentōs? Juv., 11. 24; who could bear the Gracchi complaining of rebellion? (No one.) Apud exercitum fuerīs? C., Mur., 9, 21; can you have been with the army? Hōc tantum bellum quis umquam arbitrārētur ab ūnō imperātōre cōnficī posse? C., Imp., 11, 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.

Stet have orbs - many this was

The regular negative is nē. Non 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. Subjv. 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 haec urbs, C., Mil., 34, 93; may this city continue to stand! Quod di ōmen āvertant, C., Ph., III. 14, 35; which omen may the gods avert. Ita di faxint (= fēcerint), 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 nē, utinam nōn; also ō sī, oh if (poetical and very rare); quī (chiefly in early Latin and in curses).

Valeās beneque ut tibi sit, Pl., Poen., 912; farewell! God bless you! Utinam modo cōnāta efficere 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 inserere iocōs 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 susceptus nōn essem, C., Att., III.-II, 8; would I had not been born! (Cicero's only example of nōn.) Ō mihi praeteritōs 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 mallem (theoretically also nollem) 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 invītāssēs, C., Fam., XII. 4, 1; would that you had invited me to your dinner-party.

So velim, nolim, etc., for the simple wish (546, R. 2).

Tuam mihř darī velim eloquentiam, C., N. D., 11. 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 $n\bar{o}n$. \bar{O} 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. 560, 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 të di prius perderent, quam periisti ë patriā tuā, Pl.., Capt., 537. Tunc mihi vita foret, Tib., I. 10, 11.

262. The Optative Subjunctive is used in asseverations:

Ita vīvam ut māximōs sūmptūs 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, sī magis gaudērem sī id mihǐ 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: Sīc mē dī amābunt ut mē tuārum miseritumst fortūnārum, Ter., Heaut., 463.

263. The Subjunctive is used as an Imperative:

r. 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":

Isto bono utare, dum adsit, cum absit, ne requiras, 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.: ignõsce, irāta ne siõs, 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:

Në transieris Hiberum, L., XXI. 44, 6; do not cross the Ebro. Në vos mortem timueritis, C., Tusc., I. 41, 98; have no fear of death!

3. In the Third Person Present (regularly):

Suum quisque nõscat ingenium, C., Off., I. 31, 114; let each one know his own mind. Dönīs impiī në 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; TAC., Ann., IV. 32, 1.

264. The Subjunctive is used as a *Concessive*:

Sit für, C., Verr., v. 1, 4; (granted that) he be a thief. Fuerit (malus civis), C., Verr., 1. 14, 37; (suppose) that he was a bad citizen.

For other examples with ut and ne, 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 crūdēlitātem, C., Verr., 1. 47, 122; shall I mention the insolence first or the cruelty? Māgna fuit contentiō utrum moenibus sē dēfenderent an obviam īrent 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. I.]

Rhetorical questions (questions which anticipate the answer), under this head, are hardly to be distinguished from Potential.

Quō mē nunc vertam? Undique cūstōdior, 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.

Abī in malam rem, Pl., Capt., 877; go (to the mischief), and be hanged. Compēsce mentem, H., O., 1. 16, 22; curb your temper. Dā mihǐ 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 scitō, know thou; mementō, 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 $t\bar{u}$, $v\bar{o}s$, etc., with the Impv., is colloquial, hence common in Comedy; or solemn: see V., A., vi. 95, 365, 675, 834, etc.

268. 1. 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: Iŭstitiam cole et pietātem, C., Rep., VI. 16, 16, Cultivate justice and pietu.

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.

REGIO IMPERIO DUO SUNTO; 11QUE CONSULES APPELLAMINO (130, 5, c); NEMINI PARENTO; OLLIS (104, III. N. 1) SALŪS POPULI SUPRĒMA LĒX ESTO, 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 vodis proponam: vos eam penditote, C., Verr., IV. I, 1; I will propound the matter to you; do you thereupon perpend it. Percontatorem fugito, 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: iamāddum, at once; proinde, well, then; quīn, why not? sānē, certainly; amābō, obsecrō, quaesō, please; sīs (= sī vīs), sultis (= sī voltis), sōdēs (= 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 eited twice in Cicero (Mil., 29, 79; Rosc. Com., 9, 25), and rarely later. Iamdūdum begins with Verella, and belongs to poetry and late prose. Sānē is not cited for the classical period. Sultis is confined to early Latin; and sōdēs occurs but once in Cicero (Att., vii. 3, 11).

Mittite, agedum, lēgātōs, L., XXXVIII. 47, 11. Quin tū i modō, Pl., Cas., 755.

Note.—On the violation of Concord with age, see 211, N. 2.

270. NEGATIVE OF THE IMPERATIVE.—1. The regular negative of the Imperative is no (nove, neu), which is found with the Second Imperative; with the First Imperative, it is poetical or colloquial.

Hominem mortuum in urbe në sepelītō nëve ūritō, C., Leg., 11. 23, 58; thou shalt not bury nor burn a dead man in the city. Impius në audētō plācāre dōnīs īram deōrum, C., Leg., 11. 9, 22; the impious man must not

dare attempt to appease by gifts the anger of the gods. Tū nē cēde malīs, sed contrā audentior ītō, V., A., vi. 95; yield not thou to misfortunes, but go more boldly (than ever) to meet them.

REMARKS.—I. Non may be used to negative a single word:

Ā lēgibus non recēdāmus, C., Cluent., 57, 155; let us not recede from (let us stick to) the laws. Opus poliat līma, non exterat, Cf. Quint., x. 4, 4; let the file rub the work up, not rub it out.

2 Instead of no with the First Imperative was employed either no with the Infinitive (271, 2); or no with the Pf. Subjv., but the latter is very rare in elevated prose (263, 2, b). On no with Pr. Subjv. see 263, 2, a.

Note.—The use of non with the actual Impv. is found only in Ovid; but the addition of a second Impv. by neque, nec, instead of neve, neu, begins in classical times (C., Alt., XII. 22, 3), and becomes common later. The use of neque (nec), nihil, nemo, nullus 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.—I. Cūrā (cūrātō) ut, take care that; fac (facitō) ut, cause that; fac (facitō), do, with the Subjunctive, are common circumlocutions for the Positive Imperative.

Cūrā ut quam prīmum (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. Facito is almost wholly confined to early Latin, especially Plautus; so also cūrāto.

- 2. Early Latin also shows vidě and vidětô with Subjv. Terence introduces volô, 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.

Cave festines, C., Fam., XVI. 12, 6; do not be in a hurry. Tantum cum finges ne sis manifesta caveto, Ov., A.A., III. 801; only when you pretend, beware that you be not detected. Noli, amabo, verberare lapidem, ne perdas manum, Pl., Curc., 197; don't beat a stone, I pray you, lest you spoil your hand. Fac ne quid aliud cures hoc tempore, C., Fam., XVI. II, 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 cave with any but the second person. Cf. Pl., Aul., 660; Ter., And., 403.

2. Other phrases are those with vidē nē aud cūrātō nē, with Snbjv.; comperce, compēsce 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).
- (\overline{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.

Dōtem darētis; quaereret alium virum, Ter., Ph., 297; you should have given her a portion; she should have sought another match. Crās Irēs potius, hodiē hīc cēnārēs. Valē, Pl., 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 docēret (causam) nōn esse aequam, C., Off., III. 22, 88; he should rather have shown that the plea was not fair. Nē popōscissēs (librōs), C., Att., 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).

Moreretur; fecisset certe si sine māximo dedecore 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:

Non taces? Pl., Am., 700; won't you hold your tongue? Quin taces? Why don't you hold your tongue? Quin datis, sī quid datis? Pl., Cas., 765; why don't you give, if you are going to do it? (Compare Fac, sī quid facis, Mart., 1. 46, 1.) Cūr non ut plēnus vītae convīva recēdis? Lucr., 111. 938; why do you not withdraw as a quest sated with life?

274. Puta, ut puta, for example, begins with [C.] ad Her., II. II, 16 (reading doubtful); then H., S., II. 5, 32, Quinte, puta, aut Pübli. Later it becomes more common, especially with the Jurists. See C., Ph., II. 6, 15.

275. Summary of Imperative Constructions.

Positive.

2d P. Audī, hear thou; audītō (legal or contingent); audiēs (familiar); audiās (ideal Second Person chiefly).

3d P. Auditō (legal), let him hear; audiat.

Negative.

2d P. Nē audī, hear not (poetic); nē audītō (legal); nēn audīso (famiriar); nē audīso (chiefly ideal); nēli audīre (common); nē audīverīs (rare).

3d P. Nē audītō (legal), let him not hear; nē audīta; nē audīverīt.

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.

Credat. He may believe (now or hereafter).

Crediderit. 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 **fui**. Hence the frequent parallel use. See 254, R. 2, and 597, R. 3.

4. In dependent sentences the Subjunctive is future if the leading verb has a future signification (515, R. 3); otherwise

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:

- I. 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 tötum höc displicet philosophārī, 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 servīre 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.

Plūs proderit dēmonstrāsse rēctam protinus viam quam revocāre ab errore iam lāpsos, 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. [Non] tam turpe fuit vincī quam contendisse decorum est, Ov., M., ix. 5; 'twas not so much dishonour to be beaten as 'tis an honour to have struggled.

REMARKS.—I. By a kind of attraction decuit, became, takes occasionally a Pf. Inf. (emotional).

Tunc flesse decuit, L., xxx. 44, 7; that was the time when it would have been becoming to weep (to have wept). Et erubuisse decebat, 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 Ignāvī mīlitis notāsse voluī, I., 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 mālīs, I., xlii. II, 1. Neiquis eōrum bacānal habuise 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, voluī, etc., potuī, dēbueram (dēbuī).

Frātrēs tendentēs opācō Pēlion imposuisse Olympō, H., O., 111. 4, 52; The brothers striving to pile Pelion on shady Olympus.

Notes.—1. This neage with velle seems to have approached often the Fut. Pf. in force. A Pf. Inf. after the Pr. of posse occurs very rarely: Non potes probasse nugās, Ph., Aul., 828; see V., A., vi. 78, 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 iuvat immits ventos audire cubantem Et dominam tenero detinuisses sinu! Tur. 1. 1. 4.
- 3. Noteworthy is the occasional use of dēbeō with the Pf. Inf. act. in the sense "must have": statim vīcisse 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] exstinctam cupit, C., Fin., IV. 24, 66; he desires his country blotted out.

Here the Infinitive esse is seldom expressed.

Corinthum patrës vestri tëtius Graeciae lümen exstinctum esse voluërunt, 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 volo, less often cupio, very rarely expeto and nolo.

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:

Dicō eum venīre, I say that he is coming; dicēbam eum venīre, 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:

Dicō eum vēnisse, I say that he came, has come, used to come.

Dixī eum vēnisse, I said that he had come, used to come, did come.

Note.—Meminī, I remember, when used of personal experience, commonly takes the Present: Tum mē rēgem appellārī ā vöbīs meminī, nunc tyrannum vocārī videō, L., xxxıv. 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 hominum misericordiam cōn-fūgisse, 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 meminī īrātum dominae turbāsse capillōs, Ov., A.A., 11. 169; I remember in my anger having tousled 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 elassical 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; gāvīsus, 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 *qualfication*, A, of the subject, B, of the predicate.

Α.

1. Multiplication of the Subject.

Concord.

285. Number.—The common predicate of two or more subjects is put in the Plural number:

Lūcius Tarquinius et Tullia minor iunguntur nūptils, L., I. 46, 9; Lucius Tarquinius and Tullia the younger are united in marriage. Pater et mater mortul [sunt], Ter., Eun., 518; father and mother are dead.

EXCEPTIONS.—I. The common predicate may agree with a Singsubject when that subject is the nearest or the most important: "My flesh and my heart faileth," PSA., LXXIII. 26.

Actās et förma 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., 1. 27.

Religio et fides anteponatur ameritiae, 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," Jas., v. 3.

Senātus populusque Rōmānus intellegit, C., Fam., v. 8, 2; the senate and people of Rome perceives (= Rome perceives). Tua fāma et gnātae vīta in dubium veniet, Ter., Ad., 340; your good name will be jeoparded 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. Livy introduces the Pl., which grows, and becomes the rule in Tacitus: Palātium Rōmulus, Remus Aventīnum ad inaugurandum templa capiunt, L., I. 6, 4.

Notes.—1. Neque—neque, neither—nor, allows the Pl. chiefly when the Persons are different: Haec neque ego neque tū 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 Scīpione lēgēs inter sē contulērunt, C., Ph., XII. II, 27. Ipse dux cum aliquot principibus capiuntur, L., XXI. 60,7; the general himself with some of the leading men are captured.

3. In the Abl. Abs. the Part. stands usually in the Pl. with persons, usually in the Sing. with things. C. Gracchō et M. Fulviō Flaccō interfectis, S., Iug., 16, 2. Cāritāte benevolentiāque sublātā, C., Lael., 27, 102.

- 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 mater mortui [sunt], Ter., Eun., 518 (285). Mürus et porta de caelo tacta erant, L., XXXII. 29, 1; wall and gate had been struck by lightning. Höc anima atque animus vincti sunt foedere semper, Luck., III. 416.

(b) The nearest:

Convicta est Messālina 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:

Rex regiaque classis profectI (sunt), Li., xxI. 50, 11; the king and the king's fleet set out.

(b) Both as things:

Nătură inimfea [sunt] libera civităs et rex, 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 dicimus esse fugienda, C., Fin., 111. 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 tū et Tullia, lūx hostra, valētis, ego et suāvissimus Cicero valēmus, 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 flägitäbit, C., Att., IV. 18, 5; my Cicero will demand it and (so will) I. Beätë vivere alii in aliō, vōs in voluptäte pōnitis, 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 uxor 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: I. The pronouns his, this, ille, that, etc. 2. Substantives denoting rank, age, trade: servus homo, a slave person; homo senex, an old fellow; homo gladiator, a gladiator-fellow; mulier ancilla, a servant-wench. 3. The Genitive (360, I). 4. The Ablative (400). 5. Preposition and case: excessus & vita, departure from life. 6. Adverbs, chiefly with substantival participles: recte facta, good actions. 7. Relative clauses (505).

II. The substantive in apposition : Cicero orator, Cicero the orat

I. ADJECTIVE ATTRIBUTE.

LIBRARY

Concord.

289. The Adjective Attribute agrees with its substantiving gender, number, and case:

GENDER. Number.

Vir sapiēns, a wise man, virī sapientēs, wise men.

Mulier pulchra, a beautiful woman, mulierēs pulchrae, beautiful women.

Rēgium dōnum, royal gift, rēgia dōna, royal gifts.

CASE.

Viri sapientis, of a wise man. Mulieri pulchrae, for a beautiful woman. Virum sapientem, wise man. bone fili! good son!
rēgiō dōnō, by royal gift.
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 cōnsili \bar{i} māgn \bar{i} et virtūtis, CAES., B.G., III. 5, 2; Volusenus, a man of great wisdom and valour. Cūncta maria terraeque patēbant, S., C., 10, 1; all seas and lands lay open. Multa alia castella vicique 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.

(Semproniae) multae facētiae, multusque lepos 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:

Quarta et Martia legiones, C., Fam., XI. 19, 1, but Legio Martia quartaque, 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 honos nomenque tuum laudesque manebunt, V., A., I. 600.

- 291. Position of the Attribute.—1. When the attribute is emphatic, it is commonly put before the substantive, otherwise in classical Latin ordinarily after it. But see 676.
 - I. Fugitīvus servus, a runaway slave (one complex).
 - 2. Servus fugitivus, a slave (that is) a runaway (two notions).

Many expressions, however, have become fixed formulæ, such as cīvis 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 res bonae, good things; bonae res, articles of value, or good circumstances; res urbanae, city matters; urbanae res, 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 mons, the top of the mountain; vere primo, primo vere, in the beginning of spring. Similarly in media urbe, 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, opës vacuae consilio dedecoris plenae sunt, C., Rep., 1. 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, ambō, both (two considered together), uterque, either (two considered apart, as, "They crucified two other with him, on either side one," John, XIX. 18):

Supplicatio amborum nomine et triumphus utrique decretus est, L. xxviii. 9, 9; a thanksgiving in the name of both and a triumph to either (each of the two) was decreed. Qui utrumque probat, ambobus debuit üti, C., Fin., ii. 7, 20; he who approves of either ought to have availed himself of both.

Remark.—Uterque is seldom Pl., except of sets; so with plurālia tantum.

Utrīque (i.e., plēbis fautōrēs et senātus) victōriam crūdēliter exercēbant, S., C., 38, 4; either party (democrats and senate) made a cruel use of victory. Duae fuērunt Ariovistī uxōrēs: utraeque in eā fugā periērunt, CAES., B.G., I. 53, 4; Ariovistus's wives were two in number; both perished in that flight. Proximō diē Caesar ē castrīs utrīsque cōpiās suās ēdūxit, CAES., B.G., I. 50, 1.

On uterque with the Pl., see 211, R. I; 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 milites, 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:



3500 cavalry, tria milia quingenti equitës, tria milia equitum et quingenti, but equitës tria milia quingenti, or equitum tria milia quingenti.

But duo milia quingenti hostium in acië periëre, 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 ducentē-simō quārtō, in the year 204. Sometimes they are used for the cardinals with a carelessness that gives rise to ambiguity:

Quattuor anni 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 non 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., 11. 18, 49; how many are twice two? Scriptum eculeum cum quinque pedibus, pullos gallināceos trīs cum ternis pedibus nātos esse, L., xxxii. 1, 11; a letter was written to say that a colt had been fooled with five feet (and) three chickens hatched with three feet (apiece).

With singuli the distributive is preferred, but the cardinal may be used.

Antōnius (pollicitus est) dēnāriōs quingēnōs singulīs mīlitibus 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., 11. 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 bīnī 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 novēnīs virginibus canī iūssērunt, L., XXXI. 12, 9; they ordered a chant to be sung by thrice nine virgins.

On the other hand, prose sometimes shows a cardinal when exact usage would require a distributive. So regularly mīlia,

Mīlia talentum per duodecim annōs (dabitis), L., xxxvII. 45, 15. On the distributives with plūrālia tantum, see 97, R. 3.

Comparatives and Superlatives.

296. Comparative.—The comparative degree generally takes a term of comparison either with quam, than, or in the Ablative:

Īgnōrātiō futūrōrum malōrum ūtilior est quam scientia, C., Div., 11. 9, 23; ignorance of future evils is better than knowledge (of them). Nihil est virtūte amābilius, C., Lael., 8, 28; nothing is more lovable than virtue.

Remarks.—I. (a) The Abl. is used only when the word with quam would stand in the Nom. or Acc. (644).

Caesar minor est { quam Pompēius, } Caesar is younger than Pompey.

Caesarem plūs amāmus { quam Pompēium, } we love Caesar more than Pompēiō, } 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 H., S., I. I, 97.

(b) With cases other than Nom. or Acc., quam is regularly used to avoid ambiguity.

Ānulīs nostrīs plūs quam animīs crēditur, Sen., Ben., 111. 15, 3 (217).

2. The Abl. is very common in negative sentences, and is used exclusively in negative relative sentences.

Polybium sequāmur, quō nēmō fuit diligentior, C., Rep., 11. 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 plus, amplius, more, and minus, less, and the like, without affecting the construction:

Homini miserō plūs quIngentōs colaphōs infrēgit mihī, Ter., Ad., 199; he has dealt me, luckless creature, more than five hundred crushing boxes on the ear. Spatium est non amplius pedum sēscentōrum, Caes., B.C., 1. 38, 5; the space is not more than (of) six hundred feet.

But the normal construction is not excluded:

Palūs non lātior pedibus quinquāgintā, Caes., B.G., vii. 19, 1; a swamp not broader than fifty feet (or pedēs quinquāgintā). Nostrī mīlitēs amplius horis quattuor pūgnāvērunt, 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:
- 1. Nātus plūs (quam) trīgintā annos. 3. Māior (quam) trīgintā annos nātus.
- 2. Nātus plūs trīgintā annīs (rare). 4. Māior trīgintā annīs (nātus).
 - 5. Māior trīgintā annorum.
- 6. On the combination of the comparative with opinion, sps, 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, maile, to prefer (poet, and post-classical), aequō, adaequō, equally (early and late), alius, other (mainly poetic and rare): Nūllōs his māllem lūdōs spectāsse, H., S., II. 8, 79. Quī mē in terrā aequē fortūnātus erit? Pr., Curc., 141. Nē putēs alium sapiente bonōque beātum, Ep., I. 16, 20.
 - 2. Instead of the Abl., the Gen. is found occasionally in late Latin.
- 3. Instead of quam or the Abl., prepositional uses with the positive are often found; as prae, in comparison with, praeter, ante, beyond; also suprā quam. Poetical is the circumloeution 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 quam 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 plūrēs uxōrēs habēre, Cf. C., Verr., 111. 33, 76; the kings of Persia usually have more wives [than one].

2. By the proper standard:

Senectüs est nătüră loquăcior, C., Cat.M., 16, 55, $Old\ age\ is\ naturally\ rather\ (or\ too)\ talkative.$

'3. By the opposite:

Quiesse erit melius, L., 111. 48, 3; it will be better to be-perfectly-quiet (than to make a disturbance).

298. Disproportion.—Disproportion is expressed by the comparative with quam prō, than for, and the Ablative, or with quam ut, that, or quam quī, who, and the Subjunctive:

Minor caedes quam pro tantā victoriā fuit, L., x, 14, 21; the loss was (too) small for so great a victory. Quis non intellegit Canachī sīgna rigidiora esse quam ut imitentur vēritātem? C., Br., 18, 70; who does not perceive that Canachus' figures are too stiff to imitate the truth of nature? Māior sum quam cuī possit Fortūna nocēre, Ov., M., vi. 195; I am too great for Fortune possibly to hurt me.

REMARK.—Disproportion may also be expressed by the positive in combination with prepositional phrases, etc.: pro multitudine angusti fines, Caes., B.G., 1. 2, 5; boundaries too small for their multitude.

Notes.—1. The constructions quam pro and quam qui are both post-Ciceronian.

2. The ut is frequently omitted after quam, as: Dolābella celerius Asiā [excessit], quam eo praesidium addūcī 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.

Acūtiōrem sē quam ōrnātiōrem [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 felicius, with more bravery than good luck.

 Post-Augustan Latin shows occasionally the comparative followed by quam, and the positive: Nimia pietās vestra ācrius quam considerātē excitāvit, Tac., H.,

1.83

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.

Posteriores cogitationes, ut aiunt, sapientiores 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 dignior? ex plūribus, quis dignissimus? 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 adhūc, 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:

[Themistocli fuit] optābilius oblīvīscī posse potius quam meminisse, C., Or., 11. 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 Māximus, Quintus Fabius the Great. Māximō impetū, māiōre fortūnā, I., xxvIII. 36, 2; with great vigour, with greater luck. Tam fēlīx essēs quam fōrmōsissima vellem, Ov., Am., I. 8, 27; would thou wert fortunate as (thou art) fair.

303. Superlative Strengthened.—The superlative is strengthened by multö, much (especially in early Latin); longē, by far (the normal usage in the classical period); vel, even; ūnus, ūnus omnium, one above all others; quam (with adverbs and adjectives), quantus (with māximus), ut (with adverbs)—potest, potuit, as—as possible.

Ex Britannis omnibus longë sunt hümänissimi qui Cantium incolunt, Caes., B.G., v. 14, 1; of all the Britons by far the most cultivated are those that inhabit Kent. Protagorës sophistes illis temporibus vel mäximus, C., N.D., 1. 23, 63; Protagoras, the very greatest sophist (= professor of wisdom) in those times. Urbem ünam mihi amīcissimam dēclīnāvi, C., Planc., 41, 97; I turned aside from a city above all others friendly to me. (Caesar) quam aequissimo loco potest castra commūnit, Caes., B.G., v. 49, 7; Caesar fortifies a camp in as favourable a position as possible.

REMARKS.—I. 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 qui, and the superlative, see 642, R. 5.

PRONOUNS.

I. Personal Pronouns.

- **304.** 1. The personal Pronoun is usually omitted when it is the subject of a verb; see 207.
- 2. The Genitive forms, mei, tūi, sui, nostrī, vestrī, are used mainly as *Objective* Genitives; see 364, N. 2.

(Mārcellīnus) sō ācerrimum tul dēfēnsōrem fore ostendit, C., Fam., 1. 1, 2; Marcellīnus showed that he would be your keenest defender.

Notes.—1. Nostrum and vestrum for nostri, vestri, are very rare: [Iūppiter, cūstōs] hūius urbis āc vestrum, Cf. C., Cat., III. 12, 29.

2. The Possessive pronouns sometimes are found in place of this Genitive: Neque neclegentia tua neque odio id fecit tuo, Ter., Ph., 1016; he did this neither from

neglect of thee nor from hatred of thee. Vester conspectus reficit et recreat mentem meam, C., Planc., 1, 2; the sight of you refreshes and renews my spirits.

"If I be a master, where is my fear ?" MAL., 1.6.

3. The Genitive forms, nostrum and vestrum, are used partitively; see 364, R.

Te ad me venire uterque nostrum cupit, 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, consonsus 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 sē or the Possessive suorum.

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 homo = ego, PL., Trin., 1115.
- 2. The persons with whom the speaker identifies himself, e. g., the judges in a suit at law: sī ego hōs nōvī, if I know these men (= the jury).
- 3. The most important subject immediately in hand: hic sapiens de quo 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 hactenus, 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 dies, to-day; haec nox, the night just past or just coming; hic mensis, 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 mīlitiam, C., Fam., VII. II, 2; endure that military service of yours. Adventū tuō ista subsellia vacuēfacta sunt, C., Cat., I. 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 \mathbf{hic} and \mathbf{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.

Sõl më ille admonuit, C., Or., III., 55, 209; that (yon) sun reminded me. Q. Catulus non antiquo illo more sed hoc nostro eruditus, C., Br., 35, 132; Q. Catulus, a cultivated man, not after the old-fashioned standard of a by-gone time (illo) but by the standard of to-day (hoc).

Ille may mean:

- 1. That which has been previously mentioned (often ille quidem): illud quod initio vobis proposul, 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 Solonis, that (famous saying) of Solon's.
- 3. That which is to be recalled: illud imprimis mirābile, that (which I am going to remind you of) is especially wonderful.
 - 4. That which is expected:

Illa dies veniet mea qua lügubria ponam, 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 firmat; illa mātūram senectūtem, hic longam adolēscentiam reddit, Cels., i. i; 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, his is the former, ille, the latter:

Melior tütiorque est certa pāx quam spērāta victōria; haec in nostrā, illa in deōrum 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.

Non dicam hoc signum ablatum esse et illud; hoc dico, nullum to 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); hinc, hither (where I am); istic, there (where you are); illic, there (where he is), etc.
- 4. The Demonstratives hie, 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, vērum, autem, vērō), vērumtamen, and sometimes is added asyndetically. The sentence often requires that either the demonstrative or the particle be left untranslated.

Optare hōc quidem est, nōn docēre, C., Tusc., 11. 13, 30; that is a (pious) wish, not a (logical) proof. Nihil perfertur ad nōs praeter rūmōrēs satis istōs quidem cōnstantēs sed adhūc sine auctōre, 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, hīc, more rarely.

Notes.—1. Hic and ille are sometimes employed to add a qualification to a substantive by means of a contrast: **Ōrātor nōn** ille vulgāris sed hic excellēns, C., Or., 14, 45; an orator, not of the (yon) 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., I. 3, ille et terris iactātus; H., O., IV. 9, 51.

3. Sometimes two forms of hīc, ille, or is are found in the same clause referring to different substantives: Evolve diligenter ēius [i. e., Platonis] eum librum, quī est dē animo, C., Tusc., 1. 11, 24.

4. Ille may refer to an oblique form of is: Non est amici talem esse in eum,

qualis ille in se 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 nsed takes its fullest force. Hunc illum fātis externā ab sēde profectum portendī 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:

Mihž vēnit obviam tuus puer; is mihž litterās abs tē reddidit, C., Att., II. I, I; I was met by your servant; he delivered to me a letter from you. Is minimō eget mortālis quī minimum cupit, Syrus, 286 (Fr.); that mortal is in want of least, who wanteth least.

REMARKS.—I. Is, as the antecedent of the relative, is often omitted, chiefly in the Nom., more rarely in an oblique case (619).

Bis dat qui dat celeriter, Syrus, 235 (Fr.); he gives twice who gives in a trice.

Often it has the force of talis (631, 1) in this connection:

Ego is sum qui nihil umquam meā potius quam meōrum cīvium causā fēcerim, 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 non, 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 quaerimus et ea non antiqua, C., Verr., III. 90, 210; we are looking for examples, and those, too, not of ancient date. Epicurus una in domo et ea quidem angusta quam magnos tenuit amicorum greges, C.: Fin., 1. 20. 65; what shoals of friends Epicurus had in one house, and

that a pinched-up one! Negotium magnum est navigare atque id mense 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 iūdicio discipulorum dicere debet magister sed discipuli magistri, Quint., 11. 2, 13; the master is not to speak according to the judgment of the pupils; but the pupils according to that of the master. Nūlla est celeritās quae possit cum animi celeritāte contendere, C., Tusc., 1. 19, 43; there is no speed that can possibly vie with that of the mind. M. Coelius tribūnal suum iūxtā C. Trebōnī sellam collocāvit, Caes., B.C., 111. 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 suī, sibī, sē, together with the Possessive of the Reflexive suos (-us), sua, suom (-um) is used. (See 521.)
- 1. Regularly when reference is made to the grammatical subject of the sentence:

Ipse sē quisque dīligit quod sibǐ quisque cārus est, C., Lael., 21, 80; every one loves himself, because every one is dear to himself. (Fadius) ā mē dīligitur propter summam suam hūmānitātem, 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 suïs rēbus esse māximae sunt dīvitiae, C., Par., vi. 3, 51; to be content with one's own things (with what one hath) is the greatest riches. Perventum ad suōs erat, L., XXXIII. 8, 6.

"Pure religion and undefiled is this . . . to keep himself unspotted from the world." James, r. 27.

2. Frequently when reference is made to the actual subject (521, R. 2):

Suos rēx rēgīnae placet, Pl., St., 133; every queen favours her own king (every Gill loves her own Jack). Osculātur tigrim suus cūstōs, Sen., E.M., 85, 41; her own keeper kisses the tigress (the tigress is kissed by her own keeper). Cuī proposita sit conservatio suī necesse est huīc partēs quoque suī cārās 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. Suī, sibī, sē are the regular complements of the infinitive and its equivalents when a reflexive idea is involved; they are also used with prepositions ergā, inter, propter, per, for especial emphasis.

(Rōmāni) 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 libentissimē, C., Fan., 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.

Māgonem cum clāsse suā in Hispāniam mittunt, L., XXIII. 32, 11; they sent Mago with his fleet to Spain. Helvētios in fines suos revertī iūssit, CAES., B.G., I. 28, 3; he ordered the Helvetians to return to their own country.

So the phrases suo tempore, at the right time; suo loco, at the right place.

Commodiae quem usum in pueris putem suo loco dicam, Quint., 1.8, 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 is, if he desires to emphasise his own point of view. So too in prepositional combinations.

(Caesar) Ciceronem pro ĉius merito laudat, CAEs., B. G., v. 52, 4; Caesar praises Cicero according to his desert. [Pompēius] cum dēcrētum dē mē Capuae fēcit, ipse cūnctae Ītaliae ĉius fidem imploranti sīgnum dedit, C., Mil., 15, 39.

2. In early comedy and then again in late Latin, suos is sometimes strengthened by sibi; Suō sibi gladio hunc iugulo, Ter., Ad., 958; very rarely in classical Latin (C., Ph., II. 37, 96). Similarly meā mihi, Ph., 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) incidit in eandem invidiam quam pater suus, NEP., V. 3, 1; Cimon fell into the same odium as his father. Quidquid honestum [est] idem [est] ütile, C., Off., II. 3, 10; whatever is honourable is also (at the same time) useful. Nil prodest quod non laedere possit idem, Ov., Tr., II. 266; nothing helps that may not likewise hurt. (Epicūrus), cum optimam et praestantissimam nātūram deī dīcat esse, negat īdem esse in deō 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, iūcundus acerbus, es īdem, 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 Platō atque Idem gravissimus philosophōrum 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 āc, with ut, with cum, and poetically with the Dative. See 359, N. 6, 642, 643.

Tibi mēcum in eōdem est pīstrīnō vivendum, C., Or., II. 33, 144; you have to live in the same treadmill with me.

- 3. $\overline{\textbf{Idem}}$ cannot be used with is, of which it is only a stronger form (is + dem).
- **311.** 1. **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 subitō sē ipsae aperuērunt, C., Div., I. 34, 74; the folding-doors suddenly opened of their own accord. (Catō) mortuus est annis octōgintā sex ipsīs ante [Cicerōnem] cōnsulem, C., Br., 15, 61; Cato died just eighty-six years before Cicero's consulship. Huīc reī quod satis esse vīsum est mīlitum relīquit (Caesar); ipse cum legiōnibus in fīnēs Trēverorum proficīscitur, 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.

Eō quō mē ipsa mīsit, Pl., Cas., 790; I am going where mistress sent me. Ipse dīxit, C., N.D., 1. 5, 10; the master said (αὐτὸς ἔφα).

2. Et ipse, likewise, as well, is used when a new subject takes an old predicate :

[Locri urbs] desciverat et ipsa ad Poenos, L., XXIX. 6, 1; Locri-city had likewise (as well as the other cities) revolted to the Carthaginians.

[Camillus] ex Volscis in Aequos trānsiit et ipsos bellum molientes, L., VI. 2, 14; Camillus went across from the Volscians to the Aequians, who were likewise (as well as the Volscians) getting up war.

Cicero 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.

Se ipse laudat, he (and not another) praises himself. Se 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. Non egeo medicinā; mē ipse consolor, C., Lael., 3, 10; I do not need medicine; I comfort my-self (I am my only comforter). Eodem modo sapiens erit affectus ergā amīcum quo in sō ipsum, C., Fin., 1. 20, 68; the wise man will feel towards his friend as he feels towards himself.

Exceptions are common:

Quique aliis cāvit, non cavet ipse sibi, Ov., A.A., 1.84; 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 dies vēnit, causā ipse prō sē dictā, damnātur, L., rv. 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.—I. 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.

Tempore tuō pūgnāstī, L., XXXVIII. 45, 10; you have fought at your own time (= when you wished). Hōc honore mē adfēcistis anno 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). Pūgna suum fīnem, cum iacet 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.

Intereā mulier quaedam commigrāvit hūc, Ter., And., 69; meanwhile a certain woman took up her quarters here. Intellegendum est quibusdam quaestionibus alios, quibusdam alios esse aptiores locos, C., Top., 21, 79; it is to be observed that some grounds are more suitable for some questions, for some, others. Tam nescire quaedam milites quam scire oportet, Tac., II., 1.83.

REMARKS.—I. With an adjective quidam often serves to heighten the attribute by adding a vagueness to it. (Gr. $\tau\iota_s$).

Est quodam incredibili robore animi, C., Mil., 37, 101; really he is endowed with a strange strength of mind (one that is past belief).

2. Quidam is often used with or without quasi, as if, to modify an expression:

Non sunt ist audiend qui virtutem duram 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 virtutum vitiorumque vicinia, Quint., 11. 12, 4 (cf. 111. 7, 25); there is a certain neighborly relation between virtues and vices.

- 3. Quidam may be strengthened by the addition of certus or ūnus:
 Vīta agenda est certō genere quōdam, nōn quōlibet, C., Fin., 111. 7, 24.
 Est ĕloquentia ūna quaedam dē summīs virtūtibus, C., Or., 111. 14, 55.
- 314. Aliquis (aliqui) means, some one, some one or other, wholly indefinite to the speaker as well as to the hearer:

[Dēclāmābam] cum aliquō cottīdiē, C., Br., 90, 310; I used to declaim with somebody or other daily.

In the predicate it is often emphatic (by Litotes, 700): sum aliquis, aliquid, I am somebody = a person of importance, something = of some weight; opposed to: nullus sum, nihil sum, I am a nobody, nothing.

This force is often heightened by a following contrast:

Est hōc aliquid, tamets nōn est satis, C., Div. in Caec., 15, 47; this is something, although it is not enough. Fac, ut mē vels esse aliquem, quoniam, qui fui et qui esse potui, iam esse nōn possum, C., Att., 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 aliqui 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 aliqui. (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., i. 2, 2, dixerat aliquis löniörem sententiam, where aliquis refers to three persons, named later.

315. Quis (qui), fainter than aliquis, is used chiefly after sī, if; nisi, unless; nē, lest; num, whether, and in relative sentences. See 107, R.

No quid nimis! Ter., And., 61; nothing in excess! Fit plerumque ut il qui boni quid volunt adferre, adfingant aliquid, quo faciant id, quod nuntiant, 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

aliquis, if some; sI quid, if anything; sI quidquam, if anything at all.

Sī aliquid dandum est voluptātī, senectūs modicīs convīviīs dēlectārī potest, C., Cato. 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: [Verres] nihil umquam

fēcit sine aliquō quaestū, C., Verr., v. 5, 11. (446.)

2. Quis and qui are distinguished as aliquis and aliqui, but the distinction is often neglected, even in classical Latin. See 107, N. 1.

- 316. Quispiam is rarer than aliquis, 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. 1. Quisquam and üllus (adjective) mean any one (at all), and are used chiefly in negative sentences, in sentences that imply total negation, and in sweeping conditions:

[Iūstitia] numquam nocet cuIquam, C., Fin., I. 16, 50; justice never hurts anybody. Quis umquam Graecōrum rhētorum ā Thūcǧdide 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 quī tē dēfendere audeat, vīvēs, C., Cat., I. 2, 6; so long as there shall be any one to dare defend you, live on. Hostem esse in Syriā negant ūllum, C., Fam., III. 8, 10; they say that there is not any enemy in Syria. Omnīnō nēmō ūllīus reī fuit ēmptor cuī dēfuerit hīc vēnditor, C., Ph., II. 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:

Sõlis candor inlüstrior est quam üllius ignis, C., N.D., II. 15, 40; the brilliancy of the sun is more radiant than that of any fire.

Notes.—1. Quisquam is occasionally (principally in Livr) strengthened by ūnus, especially after a negative: Cum multī magis fremerent, quam quisquam ūnus recūsāre audēret, L., III. 45, 4.

2. After sine, without, omnī is often used instead of ūllō (ūllā) in early Latin:

Sine omnī cūrā dormiās, Pl., Trin., 621.

3. On the use of quisquam as an adj., see 107, 3, N. 2.

2. The negative of quisquam is nēmō, nobody; nihil, nothing (108). The negative of tillus 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.

Němỗ 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 nēmo, see 480.

2. Nūllus is used in familiar language instead of non (so sometimes in English): Philippus nūllus ūsquam, L., xxxII. 35,2; no Philip anywhere. Quis is also used familiarly: Prospectum petit, Anthea sī quem videat, V., A., I. 181; an Antheus, i. e., Antheus or somebody who would answer for him.

3. Nēmo 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. Laudātī omnēs sunt dōnātīque prō meritō quisque, L., XXXVIII. 23; all were praised and rewarded, each one according to his desert. Quam quisque nōrit artem in hāc sē exerceat, [C.], Tusc., I. 18, 41. (616.)

2. With superlatives and ordinals quisque is loosely translated every:

Optimum quidque rārissimum est, C., Fin., II. 25, 81; every good thing is rare; more accurately, the better a thing, the rarer it is. (645, R. 2.) Quīntō quōque annō Sicilia tōta cēnsētur, C., Verr., II. 56, 139; every fifth year all Sicily is assessed.

3. Quisque combines readily with the reflexives, suī, sibĭ, sē, 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, suletc. quisque, we find it used without agreement.

Exercitus āmissō duce āc passim multīs sibī quisque imperium petentibus brevī dīlābitur, S., Iug., 18, 3. Īnstīgandō suōs quisque populōs effēcēre ut omne Volscum nomen dēficeret, L., 11. 38, 6.

2. Classical but not common is the attraction of quisque into the case of the reflexive. Haec proclivitas ad suum quodque genus a similitudine corporis aegrotatio dicatur, C., Tusc., IV. 12, 28.

3. Quisque combined with primus has two meanings: (a) as early as possible, (b) one after the other in order (deinceps).

Primō quōque tempore, C., Ph., III. 15, 39; at the earliest time possible. Primum quidque (each thing in order) cōnsīderā quāle sit, C., N.D., 1. 27, 77.

- 4. The various uses of quisque are well summed up in Nägelsbach's formulæ:
- a. Non omnia omnibus tribuenda sunt, sed suum cuique;
- o. Omnēs idem faciunt, sed optimus quisque optimē;
 c. Non omnibus annīs hoc fit, sed tertio quoque anno;
- d. Non omnes idem faciunt, sed quod quisque vult.
- 319. Alter and alius are both translated other, another, but alter refers to one of two, alius to diversity. They are used in various phraseological ways, which can be best shown by examples:

Solus aut cum altero, alone or with (only) one other; alter Nero, a second Nero.

Alter alterum quaerit, one (definite person) seeks the other (definite person); alius alium quaerit, one seeks one, another another; alteri—alteri, one party—another party (already defined); alii—alii, some—others. Alter often means neighbor, brother, fellow-man; alius, third person.

Alter:

(Āgēsilāüs) fuit claudus alterō pede, Nep., xvii. 8, 1; Agesilaüs 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 vīvōs pertinet nec ad mortuōs: alterī nūllī (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.

Alius:

Fallācia alia aliam trūdit, Ter., And., 779; one lie treads on the heels of another (indefinite series). Aliī voluptātis causā omnia sapientēs facere dīxērunt; aliī cum voluptāte dīgnitātem 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. Dīvitiās aliī praepōnunt, aliī honōres, C., Lael., 6, 20; some prefer riches, others honors. Aliī vestrum ānserēs sunt, aliī canēs, C., Rosc.Am., 20, 57; some of you are geese, others dogs. Aliud aliī nātūra iter ostendit, S., C., 2, 9; nature shows one path to one man, another path to another man.

Alter and alius:

Ab aliō 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: alius Nerō, Suet., Tit. 7; but in Caes., B. G., I. 1, 1, alius follows unus. Alii for reliqui or cēteri is occasional, in the earlier times, but more common in Livy and later.

2. The Greek usage of alius in the meaning besides, is post-Ciceronian and rare.

Eō missa plaustra iūmentaque alia, L., IV. 41,8.

APPOSITION.

320. By apposition one substantive is placed by the side of another, which contains it:

Cicero orator, Cicero the orator. Rhēnus flumen, the river Rhine.

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. Hērodotus pater historiae, Herodotus the father of history; Gen. Hērodotī patris historiae; Dat. Hērodotō patrī historiae.

Cnidus et Colophon, nobilissimae urbēs, captae sunt, Cf. C., Imp., 12, 33; Cnidus and Colophon, most noble cities, were taken. Omnium doctrīnārum inventrīcēs Athēnae, Cf. C., Or., 1. 4, 13; Athens, the inventor of all branches of learning.

REMARKS.—I. Exceptions in *number* are due to special uses, as, for example, when deliciae or amores, etc., are used of a Singular:

Pompēius, nostrī amōrēs, ipse sē afflixit, C., Att., 11. 19, $\hat{2}$; Pompey, our special passion, has wrecked himself.

2. The Possessive Pronoun takes the Gen. in apposition:

Tuum, hominis simplicis, pectus vidimus, C., Ph., II. 43, 111; we have seen your bosom bared, you open-hearted creature! Urbs meā ūnīus 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 celebrabere donis, Corniger Hesperidum, fluvius regnator aquarum, V., A., viii. 77. In prose not before PLINY.

 Very rarely persons are looked upon as things, and the Appositives used in the neuter: Dum patres et plebem, invalida et inermia, lūdificētur, TAC., 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, P.L., 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., 1. 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 (σχημα καθ' ολον καὶ μέρος) is rare and poetical in Latin. Latagum saxō occupat ōs faciemque adversam, V., A., x. 698; smites Latagus with a bowlder, 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 de sepultūrā dicendum existimem, rem non difficilem, C., Tusc., 1. 43, 102; I am reminded to take into consideration that something is to be said about burial also—an easy matter. Deserunt tribūnal, ut quis praetoriānorum militum occurreret manūs intentantēs, causam discordiae et initium armorum, Tac., Ann., 1. 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 \overline{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 leonem 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 čius adhibendae uxoris, the permission to take her to wife.

Dative: Amicō vivō nōn subvēnistī, you did not help your friend (while he was) alive.

ACCUSATIVE : Hercules cervam vivam cepit.

Ordinary Attribution: Hercules caught a living doe. Predicative Attribution: Hercules caught a doe alive.

Ablative: Aere ütuntur 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, hodierne, Tib., 1. 7, 53.

Notice here the old phrase: Macte virtute esto, 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. Victores redierunt may mean, the conquerors returned, or, they returned conquerors; and a similar predicative use is to be noticed in idem, the same: Iidem abount qui venerant, 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:

Defends rem publicam adulescens, non deseram 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 Ciceronem consulem, 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, sīcut, velut (602, N. 1, 642): Hanc (virtūtem) võbis tamquam hērēditātem māiōres vestrī relīquērunt, 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 truci commisit pelago ratem primus, 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. Una salus victis nullam spērāre salutem, V., A., 11. 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 adverbial 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; volens, willing(ly); nolens, unwilling(ly); invitus, against one's will; prūdens, aware; imprūdens, unawares; sciens, knowing(ly); primus, prior, first; ültimus, last; medius, in, about the middle; hodiernus, to-day; mātūtīnus, in the morning; frequent, frequent(ly); sublīmis, aloft; tōtus, wholly; sōlus, ūnus, alone, and many others.

Ego eum ā mē invītissimus dīmīsī, C., Fam., XIII. 63, 1; I dismissed him most unwillingly. Plūs hodiē bonī fēcī imprūdēns 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, mediam mulierem complectitur, Ter., And., 133; he runs up, puts his arms about the woman's waist. Quī prior strinxerit ferrum ēius victōria erit, L., XXIV. 38, 5 (244, R. 2). Vespertīnus pete tēctum, H., Ep., I. 6, 20; seek thy dwelling at eventide. Rārus venit in cēnācula mīles, Juv., X. 18; the soldiery rarely comes into the garret. Sē tōtōs trādidērunt voluptātibus, C., Lael., 23, 86; they have given themselves wholly to pleasure. Sōlī hōc contingit sapientī, 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 primus, and the adverbs primum, first, for the first time, and primō, at first. Primum means first in a series; primō, first in a contrast. But these distinctions are not always observed.

Prīmum docent esse deōs, deinde quālēs sint, tum mundum ab iis administrārī, postrēmō cōnsulere eōs rēbus hūmānīs, C., N.D., II. I, 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 Stōicōrum mōre agāmus, deinde nostrō institūtō vagābimur, 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.

В.

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
 - r. 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,

I. 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 conscientiā trāversum unguem non oportet discēdere, C., Att., XIII. 20, 4; one ought not to swerve a nailbreadth from a right conscience. Decem annos (Troia) oppūgnāta est, L., v. 4, 11; ten years was Troy besieged. Māximam partem lacte vīvunt, Caes., B.G., IV. I, 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:
 - I. Whole.
 - 2. Part (so-called Greek Accusative).
- III. Inner and Outer Objects combined:
 - I. Asking and Teaching.
 - 2. Making and Taking.
- 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:

Römulus Urbem Römam condidit, Cf. C., Div., 1. 17, 30; Romulus founded the City of Rome. (Object Effected.)

[Mens] 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: dolere, to grieve (for); desperare, to despair (of); horrere, to shudder (at); mirari, to wonder (at); ridere, to laugh (at).

Honores desperant, C., Cat., 11.9, 19; they despair of honours (give them up in despair). Necata est Vitia quod filii necem flevisset (541), Tac., Ann., VI. 10, 1; Vitia was executed for having wept (for) her son's execution. Conscia mens recti Famae mendacia 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, r.) 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: Cūr dē suā virtūte dēspērārent? CAES., B. G., I. 40, 4.

3. The Acc. with verbal substantives is confined to Plautus: quid tibi nos tactiost, mendice homo? Aul., 423.

4. The Acc. with verbal adjectives in -undus is rare and mainly post-classical: Haec prope contionabundus circumibat homines, L., III. 47, 2.

331. Verbs compounded with the prepositions ad, ante, circum, con, in, inter, ob, per, praeter, sub, subter, super, and trans, which become transitive, take the Accusative.

All with circum, per, praeter, trans, and subter.

Many with ad, in, and super.

Some with ante, con, inter, ob, and sub. See 347.

Pythagoras Persarum magos adiit, C., Fin., v. 29, 87; Pythagoras applied to (consulted) the Persian magi. Stella Veneris antegreditur solem. C., N.D., II. 20, 53; the star Venus goes in advance of the sun. Omnes Domitium circumsistunt, CAES., B.C., I. 20, 5; all surround Domitius. Eam, sī opus esse vidēbitur, ipse conveniam, C., Fam., v. 11, 2; I will go to see her, myself, if it shall seem expedient. Convivia cum patre non inibat, C., Rosc. Am., 18, 52; he would not go to banquets with his father. Fretum, quod Naupactum et Patras interfluit, L., XXVII. 20, 9; the frith that flows between Naupactus and Patrae. Alexander tertio et trīcēsimō annō mortem obiit, C., Ph., v. 17, 48; Alexander died in his thirty-third year. Caesar omnem agrum Picenum percurrit, CAES., B.C., I. 15, 1; Caesar traversed rapidly all the Picenian district. [Populus] solet dignos praeterire, C., Planc., 3, 8; the people is wont to pass by the worthy. Epaminondas poenam subiit, Cf. NEP., xv. 8, 2; Epaminondas submitted to the punishment. Criminum vim subterfugere nullo modo poterat, C., Verr., I. 3, 8; he could in no way evade the force of the charges. Romani ruinas mūri supervadēbant, L., XXXII. 24, 5; the Romans marched over the ruins of the wall. Crassus Euphrätem nüllä belli causā trānsiit, 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 māgnam partem flūmen trāiēcit, 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: Cōpiās trāišcit Rhodanum, or trāns Rhodanum, he threw his troops across the Rhone.

3. Sometimes a difference of signification is caused by the addition of the preposition:

Addre ad aliquem, to go to a man; addre 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.

Xenophon eadem fere peccat, C., N.D., 1. 12, 31; Xenophon makes very much the same mistakes. Vellem equidem idem possem gloriar quod Cyrus, C., Cat. M., 10, 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:

Discipulös id ünum moneð ut praeceptörës suðs nön 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.—I. 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 $c\bar{c}$. Quid rides? what (laughter) are you laughing = what means your laughter?

Id nos ad to, si quid velles, venimus, 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 dolore to fuisse et animo valuisse, C., Fam., VII. 1, 1. Laetae exclamant: vonit! id quod (in this that, for this that) me repente aspexerant, Ter., 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 homines arant (what men do in the way of plowing, etc.), navigant, aedificant, omnia virtuti parent, S., C., 2, 7. Id ipsum quod maneam in vita (in the very fact of my remaining in life) peccare me [existimo], 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 vivās, Pl., Pers., 494; Ill make you think of me the longest day you live. Mirum atque inscitum somniāvi somnium, Pl., Rud., 597; a marvellous and uncanny dream I've dreamed. Iūrāvi vērissimum iūs iūrandum, 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 certare, to fight a case; foedus ferire, to make a treaty (compare, to strike a bargain); its respondere, to render an opinion; causam vincere, to win a case, etc. Also the phrases with fre: exsequias fre, to attend a funeral; Infitias fre, to deny, etc.

Notes.—1. The omission of the attribute is found most often in legal phraseology, proverbs, and the like:

Māiōrum nēmō servitūtem servīvit, C., Top., 6, 29; of our ancestors no one ever slaved (what you would call) a slavery. Sī servos fūrtum 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.

Tertiam iam aetātem hominum (Nestor) vīvēbat, C., Cat. M., 10, 31 (reading doubtful). Omne mīlitābitur bellum, H., Epod., 1, 23.

3. Interesting extensions are found in the poets, and rarely in prose.

Qui Curios simulant et Bacchānālia vīvunt, Juv., 11. 3. Nunc Satyrum, nunc agrestem Cyclopa movētur, H., Ep., 11. 2, 125.

4. Instead of the Inner Acc. the Abl. is occasionally found: lapidibus pluere, to rain stones; sanguine sūdāre, to sweat blood.

Herculis simulācrum multo sūdore mānāvit, C., Div., 1. 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. Non omnos possunt olere unguenta exotica, 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: neo mortāle sonāns, V., A., V., 50; māgna sonātūrum, H., S., I., 4, 44. Yet bolder is nec võx hominem sonat, V., A., I., 28. A verb of sight is found in tam cernis acūtum, H., S., I., I.

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, plūs, tantum, quantum, etc.

Si më amës tantum quantum profecto amës, C., Att., 11. 20, 5; if you love me as much as in fact you do love me.

Remarks.—I. 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*.

Trabës, distantës inter së binës pedës, in solë collocantur, CAES., B.G., VII. 23, 1; beams two feet apart are planted in the ground. Ā rēctā cēnscientiā trāversum unguem nën oportet discēdere, C. Att., XIII. 20, 4 (328, b). Equitës per Fram maritimam dispositi sunt, Cf. CAES., B.C., III. 24, 4; cavalry were posted along the sea shore. Phoebidās iter per Thēbās [fēcit], NEP., XVI. 1, 2; Phoebidas marched through Thebes. Militēs aggerem lātum pedēs trecentēs trīgintā altum pedēs octēgintā exstrūxērunt, CAES., B.G., VII. 24, 1; the soldiers raised an embankment three hundred and thirty feet wide (and) eighty feet high.

Remarks.—I. 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 māgnitūdō, longitūdō, lātitūdō, altitūdō. Profundus, deep, never occurs with the Accusative.

2. With abesse and distare, an Abl. of Measure may also be used: Milibus passuum quattuor et viginti abesse, CAES., B.G., i. 41, 5; to be twenty-four miles from....

Note.—When the point of reference is taken for granted, ab (\bar{a}) with the Abl. is occasionally used; but only by Caesar and Livy. Here it has been suggested that ab is used adverbially, and the Abl. is one of Measure.

(Hostës) ab milibus passuum minus dubbus castra posuërunt, 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 Dionȳsius, C., Tusc., v. 20, 57; thirty-eight years was Dionysius tyrant of Syracuse. (Gorgiās) centum et novem vixit annōs, Quint., III. I, 9 (233, N. 2). Lūdī per decem diēs factī sunt, C., Cat., III. 8, 20; games were performed for ten days. Est mēcum per diem tōtum, Plin., Ep., I. 16, 7; he is with me the livelong day. Sedet aeternumque sedēbit īnfēlīx 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).

Mithridātēs annum iam tertium et vīcēsimum rēgnat, C., Imp., 3, 7 (230).

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:

Nulla res per triennium nisi ad nutum istīus iūdicāta est, C., Verr., 1. 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 abhine, which usually precedes the temporal designation.

Abhinc annos factumst sedecim, Pl., Cas., 39; 'twas done sixteen years ago. Demosthenes abhinc annos prope trecentos fuit, C., Div., 11. 57, 118; Demosthenes lived nearly three hundred years ago.

The use of an Acc. with an Acristic tense without a dating word, like abhine, is very rare and doubtful. Caes., B. G., 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 296, R. 5.

Puer decem annos nātus est, the boy is ten years old. Quadrāgintā annos nātus rēgnāre [coepit], C., Div., 1. 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 vīvitur aetās, Ov., M., XII. 188 = nunc tertiam vīvitur aetātem. Tōta mihī dormītur hiems, 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 Ītalia 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 rūs, into the country, domum, domos, home.

Missī lēgātī Athēnās sunt, L., 111. 31, 8; envoys were sent to Athens. Lātōna cōnfūgit Dēlum, Cf. C., Verr., 1. 18, 48; Latona took refuge in Delos. Ego rūs ibō atque ibi manēbō, Ter., Eun., 216; I shall go to the country and stay there. Innumerābilēs (philosophi) numquam domum revertērunt, C., Tusc., v. 37, 107; innumerable philosophers never returned home.

REMARKS.—I. 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:

Iugurtha Thalam pervenit in oppidum magnum et opulentum, S., Iug., 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 Pompēii, or, in domum Pompēii, to Pompey's house; also domum ad Pompēium. Otherwise: in māgnificam domum venīre, to come into a grand house.
- 4. Ad means to the neighbourhood of, often before, of military operations. Ad Mutinam, to the neighbourhood (siege of) Mutina (Modena).
 - 5. The simple Acc. will suffice even for extent:

Omnia illa mūnicipia, quae sunt \bar{a} Vibōne 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 Māliacum prōcēsserat, 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 Bosphorum confugisset, Mur., 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 **usque** 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 Rōmam**, 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 novā mentem formīdine, V., G., IV. 357; her mind stricken with a new dread. Iam vulgātum āctīs quoque saucius 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.

Cetera adsentior Crasso, 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 Livx, but in both is applied usually to wounds. It is much more common in the poets. Of the second variety cetera 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 cetera, in ceteris, per cetera, etc.

2. Different is the Accusative with induor, 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.

Inutile ferrum cingitur, V., A., 11.510; he girds on (himself) a useless blade. Loricam induitur fidoque accingitur ense, V., A., vii. 640; he dons a conselet and begirds himself with his trusty glaive. (Arminius) impetue equi pervasit oblitus faciem suo cruore no nosceretur, Tac., Ann. 11.17,7; 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.

Püsiönem quendam Söcratës interrogat quaedam geömetrica, C., Tusc., I. 24, 57; Socrates asks an urchin sundry questions in geometry. Caesar Aeduös frümentum flägitäbat, CAES., B.G., I. 16, 1; Caesar kept demanding the corn of the Aedui. Quid nunc tē, asine, litteräs doceam? (265), C., Pis., 30, 73; why should I now give you a lesson in literature,

you donkey? Non to colovi sermonem Ampii, C., Fam., 11. 16, 3, I did not keep you in the dark about my talk with Ampius.

REMARKS.—I. The expressions vary a good deal. Observe:

This then is not the only way,
For it is also right to say,
Docĕre and cĕlāre dē,
Interrogāre dē quā rē.

Pōscō, I claim, and flāgitō,
And always petō, pōstulō,
Take aliquid ab aliquō,
While quaerō takes ex. ab. dē. guō.

Adherbal Römam lēgātōs mīserat, quī senātum docērent dē caede frātris, 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 cēlāvit, C., Fam., VII. 20, 3; our friend Bassus has kept me in the dark about this book. Aquam ā pūmice nunc pōstulās, PI., Pers., 41; you are now asking water of a pumice-stone (blood of a turnip).

- 2. With doceo the Abl. of the Instrument is also used: docere fidibus, equo, to teach the lyre, to teach riding; with erudire, the Abl., in with the Abl. or (rarely) de. Doctus and eruditus generally take the Abl.: Doctus Graecis litteris, a good Grecian.
- 3. With celari 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, do with the Abl. is used.

Notes.—1. There is a great deal of difference in the relative frequency of these verbs. So doceō and its compounds, rogō, pōscō, repōscō, cēlō, are common; interrogō, ōrō, expōscō, pōstulō, flāgitō, cōnsulō, are rare, exigō (in passive), percontor, are ante-classical and post-classical. So, too, the classical Latin in general avoids two Accusatives, nuless 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 doceo and its compounds, and orudire, always have do until late Latin, as instructe, etc. So docere, when it means to inform.

4. The Passive form, with the Nom. of the Person and the Acc. of the Thing, is sparingly used. **Discere** is the prose word for **docerf**, except that the past participle **doctus** is classical but rare.

Môtūs docērī gaudet Iônicōs mātūra virgō, H., O., 111. 6,21; the rare ripe maid delights to learn Ionic dances. Vir omnēs bellī artēs ēdoctus, 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:

[Īram] bene Ennius initium dīxit īnsāniae, 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 Marcius king. Catō Valerium Flaccum habuit collēgam, Cf. Nep., xxiv. 1, 2; Cato had Valerius Flaccus (as) colleague. Eum simillimum deō iūdicō, C., Marc., 3, 8; I judge him (to be) very like unto a god. Athēniēnsibus Pēthia praecēpit ut

Miltiadem sibī imperātōrem sumerent, Nep., i. i, 3; the Pythia instructed the Athenians to take Miltiades (as) their commander. Praestā tē eum quī mihī es cōgnitus, C., Fan., 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.—r. 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, fiō, *I become*.

Habeō, with two Accusatives, commonly means to have; in the sense of hold, regard, other turns are used; usually prō.

Utrum pro ancilla mo habes an pro filia? PL., Pers., 341; do you look upon me as a maid-servant or as a daughter?

Similarly habère servorum loco, (in) numero deorum, 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 cūstōdiam corporis habuit, L., 1. 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 bāsia multa bāsiāre vēsānō satis et super Catullōst, Cat., vii. 9.

Notes.—1. Curious extensions occasionally occur:

Idem iūs iūrandum adigit Afrānium, CAES., B. C., 1. 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 me vis? what do you want of me? what do you want me for? So with prohibere; also with inbere (once in Cicero and Caesar), admonere, etc.

Neque më Iüppiter neque dI omnës id prohibëbunt, Pr., Am., 1051. Litterae quae të aliquid iubërent, C., Fam., XIII. 26, 3.

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, lūdificārī.

Animum advertit Gracchus in contione Pisonem stantem, C., Tusc., III. 20, 48; Gracchus perceived Piso standing in the assembly.

Note.—On the Double Accusative with compound verbs, see 331, R. I.

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. I. 1; poor me! Mē caecum qui haec ante non viderim, C., Att., X. 10, 1; blind me! not to have seen all this before.

So in Exclamatory Questions:

Quō mihi fortūnam, sī nōn concēditur ūtī ? H., Ep., 1. 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! 0 miserās hominum mentēs, 0 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. $\overline{\mathbf{0}}$ with the Voc. is an address; with the Nom. a characteristic; with the Acc. an object of emotion.

2. Em. Lo! and Ecce. Lo here! have the Acc. in the earlier language:

Em tibl hominem! Pl., Asin., 880; here's your man! Ecce me! 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 en, 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 victis! 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.

DATIVE. 219

Němě errat üni sibi, Sen., E.M., 94, 54; no one errs (makes mistakes) to (for) himself alone. Něn omnibus dormië, C., Fam., vii. 24, 1; it is not for everybody that I am asleep. Tibi exercitum patria pro se dedit, C., Ph., XIII. 6, 14; your country gave you an army for its own defence. Mulier sibi félicior 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 omnës, quom valëmus, rëcta consilia aegrotis damus, Ter., And., 309; readily all of us, when well, give good counsel to the sick.

For: Frangam tonsori crura manusque simul, Mart., XI. 58, 10; I'd break the barber's legs for him and hands at once.

From: Somnum mihĭ [adēmit], C., Att., 11. 16, 1; it took my sleep away from me.

Passive Form:

Merces mihi glöria detur, Ov., F., III. 389; let glory be given to me as a reward. Immeritis franguntur crūra caballis, 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 non mūribus, Cf. C., N.D., III. 10, 26; a handsome house is built for its owners, not for the mice.

REMARKS.—I. 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 frater, qui éripuit fratrem carcere, non potuit éripere fato, Sen., Dial., X1. 14, 4.

A good example of a play on construction is PL., Aul., 635:

St. Nihil equidem tibi abstuli. Eu. At illud quod tibi abstuleras cedo. 2. The translation For is nearer the Dat. than To. It is the regular

form when the Acc. is that of the object effected; when it is that of the object affected the translation is more often to; but for (in defence of) is prō: prō patriā morī, 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:

Litteras alicui dare, to give one a letter (to carry or to have).

Litteras ad aliquem dare, to indite a letter to one.

Rogās ut mea tibī scrīpta mittam, C., Fam., 1. 9, 23; you ask me to send you my writings (you wish to have them). Librōs iam prīdem ad tē mīsissem sī esse ēdendōs putāssem, C., Fam., 1. 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 mīrificus in Crasso pudor, quī tamen non obesset ēius orātionī, C., Or., 1. 26, 122; Crassus had a marvellous modesty, not, however, such as to be a bar to the effectiveness of his oratory. Ipsa sibi imbēcillitās indulget, C., Tusc., IV. 18, 42; weakness gives free course to itself. Probus invidet nemini, C., Tim., 3, 9; your upright man cherishes envy to no one. Catilina litterās mittit sē fortūnae cēdere, S., C., 34, 2; Catiline writes that he gives way to fortune. Dies stultis quoque mederi solet, C., Fam., VII., 28, 3; time is wont to prove a medicine even to fools. Moderārī et animo et orātionī, est non mediocris ingenii, 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 ipsi auctori huius disciplinae placet, C., Fin., I. o. 29; I will act as it seems good to the head of this school (of thought) himself. [Mundus] deo paret et huic oboediunt maria terraeque, C., Leg., III. 1, 3; the universe is obedient to God, and seas and lands hearken unto him. Virtūtī suorum satis crēdit, Cf. S., Iug., 106, 3; he puts full confidence in the valour of his men. Illi poena, nobis libertas [appropinguat], 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):

Qui invident egent, illis quibus invidetur, 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: prodesse, obesse, nocere, conducit, expedit; assentiri, blandiri, cupere, favere, gratificari, gratulari, ignoscere, indulgere, morigerari, studere, suffragari; adversari, insidiari, invidere, irasci, maledicere, minari, minitari, obtrectare,

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officere, refrāgārī, suscēnsēre; cēdere, concēdere; resistere; auxiliārī, cōnsulere, medērī, opitulārī, parcere, prōspicere; moderārī, temperāre (sibī); placēre, displicēre; auscultāre, imperāre, obsedīre, obsedī, obtemperāre, pārēre, persuādēre, servīre, suādēre; crēdere, fīdere, cōnfīdere, diffīdere, dēspērāre; accidit, contingit, ēvenit; libet, licet; appropinquāre, repūgnāre. Also nūbere, to marry (of a woman); supplicāre, to implore.

Notes.—1. Some other verbs are used occasionally in the same way, as incommodare, which Cicero uses once. Also, dolore, 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 anteclassical 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 aliquid, obtrectare, with Acc., sudere, persuadere, with Acc. of the Person, are post-classical and late; moderari, with Acc., is found in Lucretius and in Silver Latin; temperare, meaning mix, takes Acc. at all periods. Fidere, 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 aliqui, to fear for some one; cavere aliqui, to take precautions for some one, but cavere aliquem (also de, ab aliquo), to take precautions against some one; cavere alique re (early), to beware of a thing. Consulere aliquem, to consult a person; consulere aliqui, to consult for a person. On convenire, see 347, R. 2.

Noteworthy are the constructions of invidere and vacare:

Invidere alicui (in) aliqua re (Cic. uses prep.) alicui aliquid (Verg., Hor., Livy, etc.) to begrudge a man a thing.

alicūius reī (once in Horace, S., 11. 6, 84), to begrudge a thing. (alicūius) alicuī reī (common), to envy something belonging to a man.

Vacare rei, to be at leisure for, to attend to a matter.

Sometimes there is hardly any difference in meaning:

Comitor aliquem, I accompany a man; comitor alicui, I act as companion to a

man: praestolor alicul (better) or aliquem, I wait for.

3. Some words with similar meanings take the Accusative; the most notable are: aequare, to be equal; decere (to distinguish), to be becoming; deficere, to be wanting; delectare, to please; iuvare, to be a help; iubere, to order; laedere, to injure; and vetare, to forbid.

Eam pictūram imitātī sunt multī, aequāvit nēmē, Plin., N.H., xxxv. 11, 126; that style of painting many have imitated, none equalled. Forma viros neglēcta decet, Ov., A.A., 1. 509; a careless beauty is becoming to men. Mē diēs dēficiat, Cf. C., Verr., II. 21, 52; the day would fail me. Fortīs fortūna adiuvat, Ter., Ph., 203; fortune favours the brave.

TACITUS is the first to use iubere with Dative; Ann., IV. 72, etc.

- 4. The Dat. use is often obscured by the absence of etymological translation. So nubere alicui, to marry a man (to veil for him); medēri alicui, to head (to take one's measures for) a man; supplicare, to beg (to bow the knee to); persuādēre, to persuadē (to make it sweet).
- 5. After the analogy of verbs the phrases audientem esse, to hear, i.e., to obey, supplicem esse, to entreat, auctorem esse, to advise, fidem habere, to have faith in, are also found with the Dative:

Sī potest tibǐ dictō audiēns esse quisquam, C., Verr., 1. 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 so miscore, to mingle with; coire, concurrere, to meet; verbs of contending, as contendere, bellare, pagnare, certare; verbs of disagreement, as differre, discrepare, distare, dissentire. Here belongs haerore 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 comitiis adfuit, C., Planc., 8, 21; the entire commonalty was present at the election. Omnis sēnsus hominum multō antecellit sēnsibus bēstiārum, 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 sibǐ 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 gallīnīs saepe suppōnimus, C., N.D., 11. 48, 124; we often put ducks' eggs under hens (for them to hatch). Neque dēesse neque superesse reī pūblicae 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);
adhaerēscere (ad of local uses); arrīdēre (once in Cic.); annuere (occasionally with Acc.); assentīrī; assidēre; antecēdere (also with Acc.);
anteīre (also with Acc.); antecellere (with Acc. from Livy on); congruere (also with cum); consentīre (also with cum); constāre; convenīre (to suit; with cum, to agree with, especially in the phrase convenit mihī cum aliquō, I agree with); illūdere (also with Acc. and occasionally in and Acc.); impendēre (with Acc. is archaic; occasionally in); incēdere (Sall., Livy, etc.); incidere (twice in Cic.; regularlyin); incubāre (but incumbere regularly with in or ad); inesse (once in Cic.); inhaerēre (occa-

sionally ad or in with Abl.); inhiāre (Plaut. has Acc. only); innāscī (innātus); inservīre; insinuāre (once in Cic.; usually in); insistere (locally, in with Abl.; occasionally Acc.); instāre; invādere (once in Cic.; occasionally Acc.; regularly in); intercēdere; intercurrere; interesse (also with in and Abl.); intervenīre; obesse; obrēpere (usually in, ad); obsistere; obstāre; obstrepere; obtingere; obvenīre; obversārī; occurrere; occursāre; praestāre; praesidēre; subesse; subvenīre; succeēdere: succumbere; succerēscere (once in Cic.); succurrere; superesse.

- 3. The same variety of construction is found with transitive verbs, in composition.
- 4. After the analogy of praestare, 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 Dēiotarō tetrarchian ēripuit, eldemque dētrāxit Armeniam, Cf. C., Div., 11. 37, 79; Caesar wrested from Dejotarus 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 militibus dönat, Caes., B.G., vII. II, 9; he presents the booiy to the soldiers. But Rubrium corönā dönāstī, C., Verr. III. 80, 185; thou didst present Rubrius with a crown.

Nātūra corpus animō circumdedit, Sen., E.M., 92, 13; Nature has put a body around the mind. But Deus animum circumdedit corpore, Cf. C., Tim., 6, 20; God has surrounded the mind with a body.

REMARKS.—I. These are: aspergere, to be sprinkle and to sprinkle on; circumdare, circumfundere, to surround; donare, to present; impertire, to endow and to give; induere, to clothe and to put on; exace, to strip of and to strip off; intercludere, to shut off; miscere, 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:

[Controversia] mihi fuit cum avunculo tuō, C., Fin., III. 2, 6; I had a tebate with your uncle. An nescis longes regibus esse manus? Ov., Her.,

XVI. 166; or perhaps you do not know that kings have long arms? Compare non habet, ut putāmus, fortūna longās manūs, Sen., E.M., 82, 5.

REMARKS.—I. The predicate of esse, with the Dat., is translated in the ordinary manner: Caesar amicus est mihř, 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:

Latini concedunt Romam caput Latio 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 mīrificus in Crassō pudor, C., Or., 1. 26, 122 (346). Cimōn habēbat satis ēloquentiae, Nep., v. 2, 1; Cimon had eloquence enough.

SALLUST introduces the Dat. also for these relations.

- 4. Abesse and deesse, to be wanting, to fail, take also the Dat. of Possessor.
- 5. The Dat. of the person is regular with the phrases nomen (cognomen) est, inditum est, etc. Here the name is in the Nom. in apposition to nomen, 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 Suetonius.

Fons aquae dulcis, cui nomen Arethusa est, C., Verr., IV. 53, 118; a fountain of sweet water named Arethusa. Apollodorus, cui Pyragrō cognomen est, C., Verr., III. 31, 74; Apollodorus, surnamed Pyragrus (firetongs). Nomen Arctūrō est mihǐ, Pl., Rud., 5; my name is Arcturus. Tibi nomen insānō posuēre, H., S., II. 3, 47; they called you "cracked." [Samnītēs] Maleventum, cui nunc urbī Beneventum nomen est, perfügērunt, L., IX. 27, 14; the Samnītes fled to Maleventum (Ilcome), a city which now bears the name Beneventum (Welcome). Aetās, cui fēcimus 'aurea' nomen, 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.

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350. I. 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 (*Datīvus Energicus*).

EI libenter mē ad pedēs abiēcī, Cf. C., Att., VIII. 9, 1; I gladly cast myself at his feet. In conspectum vēnerat 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 (Datīvus Commodī et Incommodī):

Consurrexisse omnes [Lysandro] dicuntur, C., Cat.M., 18, 63; all are said to have risen up together in honour of Lysander. [Deo] nostra altaria fumant, V., Ec., 1. 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 (*Datīvus Ētkicus*.)

Tū mihǐ AntōniI exemplō istīus audāciam dēfendis? C., Verr., III. 91, 213; do you defend me (to my face) by Antony's example that fellow's audacity? Ecce tibǐ Sēbōsus! 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 sibl velle, to want, to mean: Quid tibl vis, insane, C., Or., II. 67, 269; what do you want, madman? Quid volt sibl hace oratio? Ten., Heaut., 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 (*Datīvus Iūdicantis*).

Ut mihř děformis, sie tibř mägnificus, Tac., H., XII. 37; to me a monster, to yourself a prodigy of splendour. Quintia formosa est multis, Cat., 86, 1; Quintia is a beauty in the eyes of many.

NOTE.—This Dative is characteristic of the Augustan poets, but it is also common enough in Cicreo 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.

[Hõo] est oppidum prīmum Thessaliae venientibus ab Ēpīrō, Caes., B.C., III. 80; this is the first town of Thessaly to those coming (as you come) from Epirus. Vērē aestimanti, 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, invito (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.)

Mihi rēs tōta prōvīsa est, C., Verr., IV. 42, 91; I have had the whole matter provided for. Cui non sunt audītae Dēmosthenis 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 hīc ego sum qui non intellegor üllī, 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 dissimillimis bestiolis communiter cibus quaeritur, C., N.D., 11. 48, 123; so, though these little creatures are so very unlike, their food is sought in common. Carmina quae scribuntur aquae potoribus, H., Ep., 1. 19, 3; poems which are written when people are water-drinkers. Con ministratur pueris tribus, H., S., 1. 6, 116; Dinner is served, (the waiters being) the vaiters 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 praecipue colenda est nobis, C., Or., II. 35, 148; carefulness is to be cultivated by us first and foremost. Desperanda tibi salva concordia socra, Juv., vi. 231; you must despair of harmony while Motherin-law's alive.

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REMARK.—To avoid ambiguity, especially when the verb itself takes the Dat., the Abl. with ab (a) is employed for the sake of clearness:

Cīvibus ā vōbīs cōnsulendum, C., Imp., 2, 6; the interest of the citizens must be consulted by you. Supplicatio ab eo decernenda non fuit, C., Ph., xiv. 4, 11.

Where there is no ambiguity there is no need of ab:

Linguae moderandum est mihī, Pl., Curc., 486; I must put bounds to my tongue.

Note.—Poets are free in their use of this Dative; so with verbals in bilis; as, multisille bonis flebilis occidit, H., O., I. 24, 9; nulli exorabilis, Sil. Ital., V. 731.

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.

Něminí meus adventus labörī aut sümptul fuit, C., Verr., 1. 6, 16; to no one was my arrival a burden or an expense. Virtüs söla neque datur dönö neque accipitur, S., Iug., 85, 38; virtue alone is neither given nor taken as a present. Habère quaestul rem püblicam turpe est, C., Off., 11., 22, 77; it is base to have the state for one's exchequer.

Remarks.—I. Noteworthy is the legal phrase cui bono? to whom is it for an advantage $\ell = who$ is advantaged ℓ

- 2. In the classical times the principal verbs in this construction are esse, dare, ducere, habore, vertere, and a few others which occur less frequently. Later Latin extends the usage to many other verbs, and especially to Gerundive constructions. Dare is used principally in the phrase dono dare.
- 3. The Double Dative is found principally with esse, but occasionally 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 turpitūdō, Nepos, fuit turpitūdinī.

Notes.—1. In the same category, but with the idea of finality more clearly indicated, are the agricultural usages, alimentō serere, condītuī legere; the medical, remediō adhibēre; the military terms, praesidiō, auxiliō, mittere, esse, etc.

2. With Livr we notice the great extension of this Dat. with verbs of seeking, choosing, etc., where classical Latin would prefer some other construction. So locum īnsidis (Insidiārum is classical) circumspectāre Poenus coepit, L., xxi. 53, 11. Tacitus goes furthest in such usages. Caesar, however, shows a few instances (B. G., I. 39, 3).

3. The Final Dative with intrans. verbs is military and rare. So receptui canere, to sound a retreat, is found first in Caes., B.G., vii. 47. Sallust shows a few examples. The Dat., with similar substantives, is an extension, and is very rare. Cicero, Ph., XIII. 7, 15, says receptui signum.

4. The origin of this usage may have been mercantile (Key). In English we treat Profit and Loss as persons: Quem fors diërum cumque dabit lucrō appōne, H., O., I. 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:

Iŭstitia est obtemperātiō lēgibus, C., Leg., 1. 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 non ego nuntios mittam superbos, H., O., IV. 4, 69; to Carthage no more shall I send haughty tidings. Iam satis terrīs 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 Accrus, 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.

 Occasionally the substantive is also thus construed; as in the facilis descensus Averno of Vergil (A., VI. 126).

The extreme is reached when the Dative follows ire and the like:

It caelo clamorque virum clangorque tubarum, V., A., XI. 192; mounts to High Heaven warriors' shout and trumpets' blare.

3. Tendere manus 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.

Mātrēs familiae Romānis dē mūro manūs tendēbant, Caes., B. G., VII. 48.

Dative with Adjectives.

359. Adjectives of Likeness, Fitness, Friendliness, Nearness, and 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 idōneus locus, CAES., B.G., VI. 10, 2; a place suitable for a camp. Ūtile est reī pūblicae nōbilēs hominēs esse dīgnōs māiōribus suīs, C., Sest., 9, 21; it is to the advantage of the state that men of rank should be worthy of their ancestors. Vir mihǐ amīcissimus, Q. Fabricius, C.. Sest., 35, 75; my very great friend, Q. Fabricius. Proxumus sum egomet mihǐ, 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 illī causae māximē est aliēnum, C., Caec., 9, 24; the witness says what is especially damaging to that case (side).

REMARKS.—I. Many adjectives which belong to this class are used also as substantives, and as such are construed with the Genitive: amīcus, friend; affīnis, connection; aequālis, contemporary; aliēnus (rare), foreign, strange; cōgnātus, kinsman; commūnis, common; contrārius, opposite; pār, match; proprius, pecūliāris, 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; sacer, set apart, sacred; superstes (rare), survivor. Comparatives have regularly the Dative; Superlatives vary.

[Ille], cūius paucos pares haec civitās tulit, C., Pis., 4, 8; (he was) a man few of whose peers the state hath borne. Utinam tē non solum vitae, sed etiam dignitātis meae superstitem reliquissem, C., Q.F., 1. 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, ergā, adversus:

Manlius (fuit) sevērus in filium, C., Off., III. 31, 112; Manlius was severe toward his son. M5 esse scit sēsē ergā 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:

Homo ad nullam rem utilis, 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, Livr), the adverbial forms also with the Abl. with ab, off:

Crassus proximus mare Ōceanum hiemārat, Caes., B. G., III. 7, 2; Crassus had unitered next the ocean. Id propius fidem est, L., II. 41, 11; that is nearer belief,

i.e., more likely.

2. Alienus, foreign, strange, is also construed with the Abl., with or without ab (a); so commonly absonus.

Homo sum, humani nil a mo alionum puto, Ten., Heaut., 77; I am a man, and nothing that pertains to man do I consider foreign to me.

3. Iunctus, coniunctus, joined, are also construed frequently with cum and the Abl.; sometimes with the Abl. only: improbitas scelere iuncta, 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 vērī 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 (Flac., 1, 2), then not till late Latin; with the Dat. it is poetical; otherwise the possessive pronoun is used, as tul invidi (C., Fam., 1. 4, 2). Prōnus, inclined, with the Dat., occurs in Sallust (lug., 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 $\overline{aversus}$ with Dat. in Tac., Ann., 1. 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 occidenti, H., 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 naturae convenienterque vivere, C., Fin., III. 7, 26.

II. Internal Change.

Genitive.

360. r. 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 rēgis, 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.—I. Other prepositions than of are not unfrequently used, especially with the Objective Genitive. (363, R. I.)

Patriae quis exsul se quoque fügit? H., O., 11. 16, 19; what exile from his country ever fled himself as well? Boiorum triumphi 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:

Vernī temporis suāvitās, C., Cat.M., 19, 70; the sweet spring-time. Fontium gelidae perennitātēs, C., N.D., 11. 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 hīc metus, this fear = fear of this, and kindred expressions: Quam similitūdinem = cūius reī similitūdinem, C., N.D., 11. 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.

[Virtūtēs] continentiae, gravitātis, iūstitiae, fidel, 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, flümen, 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 Timāvī (V., A., I. 244), Timāvus is a river god, and fons is not equal to Timāvus.

2. Examples like arbor abietis (L., xxiv. 3, 4), fir-tree; arbor fīcī (Cf. C., Flac.,

17, 41), fig-tree, etc., occur only here and there.

3. Colloquial, and probably belonging here, are: scelus virī (Pl., M.G., 1434), a scoundrel of a man; flāgitium hominis (Pl., Asin., 473), a scamp of a fellow, and the like. Quaedam pēstēs 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 rēgis = domus rēgia, the palace of the king, the king's palace = the royal palace.

REMARKS.—I. 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 tuus, a sword of thine. But when omnium is added, vestrum and nostrum are used; ārīs et focis omnium nostrum inimīcus, C., Ph., XI. 4, 10. Sometimes the adjective form is preferred also in the Third Person: canis aliēnus, a strange dog, another man's dog; filius erīlis, master's son.

- 2. The attention of the student is called to the variety of forms which possession may take. Statua Myronis, 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 aedes or templum, after ad, and less often after other prepositions: Pecunia utinam ad Opis maneret, C., Ph., I. 7, 17; would that the money were still at Ops'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., III., 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' slave.

2. The Chorographic (geographic) Genitive is rare and post-Ciceronian: Rex Chalcidem Euboeae venit, 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: Thales Milesius, or ex Mileto, Thales of Miletus.

Active and Passive Genitive.

- 363. When the substantive on which the Genitive depends contains the idea of an action (nomen actions), 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.—I. 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 Servīlii ergā Caesarem, Cf. C., Q.F., III. I. 6, 26; the goodwill of Servīlius toward Caesar. Odium in bonōs inveterātum, C., Vat., 3, 6; deep-seated hate toward the conservatives.

2. Both Genitives may be connected with the same substantive:

Veterës Helvëti
örum iniūriae populī Rōmānī, Cf. Caes., B. G., I. 30, 2 ;
the ancient injuries of the Roman people by the Helvetians.

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 ūnīus 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:

Magna pars nostrum, a great part of us; uterque vestrum, either (both) of you.

Nostri melior pars means the better part of our being, our better part. With omnium, the forms nostrum and vestrum must be used (362, R. I).

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 Tactrus, when the Singular forms, after the example of Ovid (M.1. 30), become not uncommon. See 304, 3, v.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 mel, love to me. Desiderium tul, 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 māgnae auctōritātis, CAES., B.G., v. 35, 6; a man of great influence. Homō nihili (= nūllīus pretii), PL., B., 1188; a fellow of no account. Trīduī via, CAES., B.G., 1. 38, 1; a three days' journey. Nōn multī cibī hospitem accipiēs, multī iocī, C., Fam., IX. 26, 4; you will receive a guest who is a small eater but a great joker.

REMARKS.—I. 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, čiusdem 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.

Hic versus Plauti non est, hic est, C., Fam., IX. 16, 4; this verse is not

by Plautus, this is. Omnia quae mulieris fuerunt, viri funt dötis nömine, C., Top., Iv. 23; everything that was the woman's becomes the husband's under the title of dowry. Virtūs tantārum vīrium est ut sē ipsa tueātur, C., Tusc., v. 1, 2; vīrtue is of such strength as to be her own protector.

Remarks.—I. The Possession appears in a variety of forms, and takes a variety of translations:

Hüius erö vīvus, mortuus hüius erö, Prop., II. 15, 35; hers I shall be, living; dead, hers I shall be. Nõlae senātus Rōmānōrum, plēbs 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 iūdicum, poena lēgis, C., Sull., 22, 63; condemning is the judges' (business), punishment the law's. Est animī ingenuī cuī multum dēbeās eidem plūrimum velle dēbēre, C., Fam., II. 6, 2; it shows the feeling of a gentleman to be willing to owe very much to him to whom you already owe much. Pauperis 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, Genitīvus Auctōris: Is [Herculēs] dīcēbātur 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:

Romanae dicionis facere, L., XXI. 60, 3; to bring under the Roman sway. Summum imperium in orbe terrarum Macedonum facerant, 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; stulti 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 sūdore 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: consuetadinis, moris 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.

Non est mentīrī meum, Ten., Heant., 549; lying is not my way (I do not lie). His tantīs in rēbus 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, permāgnum pondus argentī, C., Ph., 11. 27, 66; there was a large amount of wine, an enormous mass of silver. In iūgerō Leontīnī agrī medimnum trīticī seritur, C. Verr., 111. 47, 112; on a juger of the Leontine territory a medimnus of wheat is sown. Campānōrum ālam, quīngentōs ferē equitēs 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 *Genitīvus Generis*, Whether the conception be partitive or not, depends on circumstances.

Medimnus tritici, a medimnus of wheat, may be a medimnus of wheat (Genitivus Generis) or a medimnus of wheat (Partitive).

Note.—The reversed construction is occasionally found. Sex dies ad eam rem conficiendam spatif postulant, Caes., B.C., I. 3, 6, instead of spatium sex dierum.

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, plüs, more, plürimum, most, paulum, little, minus, less, minimum, least, satis, enough, parum, too little, nihil, nothing, 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 omnī 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 ēloquentiae, sapientiae parum, S., C., 5, 4; enough (of) eloquence, of wisdom too little.

REMARKS.—I. 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 boni, something good; aliquid memorabile, something memorable; aliquid boni

et memorābilis, something good and memorable (better aliquid bonum et memorābile).

Quid habet ista rēs aut laetābile aut glöriösum? C., Tusc., 1. 21, 49 (204, N. 3).

2. A familiar phrase is: Nihil reliqui 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 regni, V., A., 1. 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 militum, a hundred (of the) soldiers, a hundred (of) soldiers. (Centum milités, a, the hundred soldiers.)

Quintus rēgum, the fifth (of the) king(s).

Quintus reguin, the fifth (of the) king(s).

General:

Multi militum, many of the soldiers, many soldiers.

(Multī mīlitēs, many soldiers.)

REMARKS.—I. The English language commonly omits the partition, unless it is especially emphatic:

Multī cīvium adsunt, many citizens are present. Multī cīvēs adsunt, many are the citizens present.

2. When all are embraced, there is no partition in Latin:

(Nõs) trecentī coniūrāvimus, L., II. 12, 15; three hundred of us have bound ourselves by an oath. Volnera quae circum plūrima mūrōs accēpit patriōs, V., A., II. 277; wounds which he received in great numbers before his country's walls.

Qui omnës, 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.

II militum, those (of the) soldiers. II milites, those soldiers.

Illi Graecorum, those (of the) Greeks.

Fidenatium qui supersunt, ad urbem Fidenas tendunt, L., Iv. 33, 10; the surviving Fidenates take their way to the city of Fidenae.

REMARKS.—I. Uterque, either (both), is commonly used as an adjective with substantives: uterque consul, either consul = both consuls; as a substantive with pronouns, unless a substantive is also used: uterque horum, 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 nost, C., Fam., XI. 20, 3. See 292.

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 Lavy.

372. The Partitive Genitive is used with Comparatives and Superlatives:

Prior hörum in proeliö cecidit, Nep., xxi. 1, 2; the former of these fell in an engagement. Indus est omnium flüminum māximus, C., N.D., 11. 52, 130 (211, R. 2).

REMARKS.—I. 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, dē, from (especially with proper names and singulars), in, among (rare), or the Acc. with inter, among, apud: Gallus provocat unum ex Romanis, the Gaul challenges one of the Romans; unus dō multis, one of the many (the masses); Croesus inter rēgēs opulentissimus, Croesus, wealthiest of kings. With unus, ex or dē is the more common construction, except that when unus 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 të, sancte deōrum, V., A., IV. 576; we follow thee, holy deity. Canum dēgenerēs (caudam) sub alvom flectunt, PLIN., N.H., XI., 50, 265; currish dogs curt 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 interiora aedium Sullae (Att. iv., 3, 3). Caesar shows one case of a positive: in occultis ac reconditis templi (B.C., iii. 105, 5). Sallust shows the first case of the Singular: in praerupti montis extremo (Iug., 37, 4). Then the usage extends and becomes common, especially in Tacitus. In the poets it begins with Lucretius.

Ardua dum metuunt āmittunt vēra viāī (29, N.2), Lucr., 1.660; the while they fear the steeper road, they miss the true.

So amāra cūrārum, H., O., IV. 12, 19; bitter elements of cares, bitter cares; strāta viārum, V., A., I. 422 = strātae viae, the paved streets.

3. The Partitive Genitive is also used with Adverbs of Quantity, Place, Extent: armorum adfatim, L., xxvii. 17, 7; abundance of arms; ubi terrarum, gentium? where in the world? (Very late Latin, tum temporis, at that time.) The usage with hūc, eō, as hūc, eō arrogantiae processit, he got to this, that pitch of presumption, is a colloquialism, which begins with Sallust, but is not found in Ciceno or Caesar.

Notice especially the phrase: quod (or quoad) Sius (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: Consulum Sulpicius in dextro Poetelius in laevo cornū consistunt, L., ix. 27, 8.

5. The Partitive Genitive as a Predicate is Greekish: Fīēs nobilium tū quoque fontium, H., O., iii., 13, 13; thou too shalt count among the famous fountains.

Genitive with Prepositional Substantives.

373. Causā, grātiā, ergō, and īnstar are construed with the Genitive.

[Sophistae] quaestūs causā philosophābantur, C., Ac., II. 23, 72; the professors of wisdom dealt in philosophy for the sake of gain. Tū mē amōris magis quam honōris 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. Īnstar montis equus, V., A., II. 15; a horse the bigness of a mountain. Platō mihǐ ūnus īnstar 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 reīque pūblicae causā, C., Verr., v. 68, 173; for your sake and that of the commonwealth. But in antithesis, multa quae nostrī causā numquam facerēmus, facimus causā amīcōrum! C., Lael., 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 rīmārum, Ter., Eun., 105; full of chinks ("a leaky vessel"). Particeps cōnsilif, C., Sull., 4, 12; a sharer in the plan. Mentis compos, C., Ph., 11. 38, 97; in possession of (one's) mind. Multārum rērum perītus, C., Font., 11, 25; versed in many things. Cupidus pecūniae, Cf. C., Verr., 1. 3, 8; grasping after money. Fāstīdiōsus Latīnārum (litterārum), C., Br., 70, 247; too dainty for Latin. Omnium rērum īnscius, C., Br., 85, 292; a universal ignoramus. Cūr nōn ut plēnus vitae convīva recēdis? Lucr., 111. 038 (273). Sitque memor nostrī necne, referte mihī, Ov., Tr., IV.

3, 10 (204, N. 7). Conscia mens recti Fāmae mendācia rīsit, Ov., F., IV. 311 (330, R.). Agricolam laudat iūris lēgumque perītus, H., S., I. I., 9; the husbandman('s lot) is praised by the counsel learned in the law. Omnēs immemorem beneficiī oderunt, C., Off., II. 18, 63; all hate a man who has no memory for kindness. (Bēstiae) sunt rationis et orātionis expertēs, C., Off., I. 16, 50; beasts are devoid of reason and speech (lack discourse of reason). Omnia plēna consiliorum, inānia verborum vidēmus, C., Or., I. 9, 37; we see a world that is full of wise measures, void of eloquence. Gallia frūgum fertilis fuit, I., V. 34, 2; Gaul was productive of grain.

Notes.—1. Of adjectives of Fulness, with the Gen., only plēnus, replētus, inops, and inānis are classical and common; single instances are found of liberālis, profūsus, in Sallust (C., 7, 6; 5, 4), and iēiūnus occurs once in Cicero. Plautus also uses onustus and prōdigus. Poets and later prose writers are free. Plēnus occurs very rarely with the Abl. in Cicero and Caesar, 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, expers, consors, with some adjectives expressing guilt, as manifestus (archaic), affinis, reus. Of these particeps takes also the Dat. in post-classical Latin, and expers 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 de.

3. Power: Compos alone is classical, and is occasionally found with Abl. in Sallust, Vergil, Livy. Potens 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 peritus has also Abl., and rarely ad; insuetus takes also Dat. as well as de; prudens has also ad; rudis has Abl. with in more often than the Gen. in Cicero, but also ad. Anteclassical Latin shows a few more adjectives.

5. Desire and Disgust: Classical are avidus, cupidus, fāstīdiōsus, studiōsus. Of these avidus has also in with Acc. and with Abl.; studiōsus has Dat. in Plautus (M.G., 801); single examples are cited with ad and in. Fāstīdiōsus occurs but once

in Cicero (see above) ; see H., O., m. τ , 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: cōnsilii ambiguus, Tac., H., 1v. 21; doubtful 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; spotless of life; like integritäs vItae. (Compare fämä et fortunis 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, heartsick. Audāx ingenii, Stat., S., 111. 2, 64; 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; 90, 1); līber labōrum, H., A.P., 212.
- 9. Classical Latin uses certus with Gen. only in the phrase certiorem facere, to inform, which has also de (always in Caesar).
 - 10. Dignus, worthy, and indignus, unworthy, with Gen. are poetical and rare.
- 11. On alienus, strange, see 359, x. 2. On aequālis, commūnis, conscius, contrārius, pār, proprius, similis, superstes, and the like, see 359, R. r.

Genitive with Verbals.

375. Some Present Participles take the Genitive when they lose their verbal nature; and so occasionally do verbals in -ax in poetry and later prose.

(Epaminondās) erat adeō vēritātis diligēns ut nē iocō quidem mentīrētur, Nep., xv. 3, 1; Epaminondas was so careful (such a lover) of the truth as not to tell lies even in jest. Omnium consēnsū capāx imperiī nisi imperāsset, Tac., H., 1. 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 amans, cupiens, concupiens, fugitans, gerens, persequens, sciens, temperans. Cicero carries the usage very far, and it is characteristic of his style. Caesar, on the other hand, has very few cases (B. C., 1. 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.

Të veteris amīcitiae commonefēcit, [C.] ad Her., IV. 24, 33; he reminded you of your old friendship. Est proprium stultitiae aliōrum vitia cernere, obliviscī 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.—I. Verbs of Reminding take more often the Abl. with dē (so regularly in Cicero), and the Acc. neut. of a pronoun or Numeral adjective. Tacitus alone uses monēre with the Gen. (Ann., I. 67, 1).

Ōrō ut Terentiam moneātis dē tēstāmentō, C., Att., xi. 16, 5; I beg you to put Terentia in mind of the will. Discipulōs id ünum moneō, Quint., II. 9, 1 (333, 1).

2. Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting also take the Acc., especially of Things;

Haec ölim meminisse iuvābit, V., A., 1. 203; to remember these things one day will give us pleasure. Quī sunt bonī cīvēs, nisi quī patriae beneficia meminērunt? C., Planc., 33, 80; who are good citizens except those who remember the benefits conferred by their country? Oblīvīscī nihil solēs nisi iniūriās, C., Lig., 12, 35; you are wont to forget nothing except injuries.

Recordor (literally = I bring to heart, to mind) is construed with the Acc. of the Thing, except in three passages from Cicero; $d\bar{e}$ is found with Persons.

Et võcem Anchisae mägni voltumque recordor, V., A., VIII. 156; and I recall (call to mind) the voice and countenance of Anchises the Great.

Memini, I bear in mind, I (am old enough to) remember, takes the Accusative:

[Antipatrum] tü 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 mihž Platonis in mentem, C., Fin., v. 1, 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 pertaesum est, it tires, take the Accusative of the Person Who Feels, and the Genitive of the Exciting Cause.

Miserēminī 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 non solum piget stultitiae meae, sed etiam pudet, C., Dom., II, 29; I am not only fretted at my folly, but actually ashamed of it.

REMARKS.—I. Pudet is also used with the Gen. of the Person whose Presence excites the shame:

Pudet deorum 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: Non to have 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 \mathbf{quod} (542).

Non me vixisse paenitet, C., Cat.M., 23, 84 (540). Quintum 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 misered (early Latin), miseresco (poetical), dispudet (early Latin), distance (early Latin), vereor (mostly in early Latin), and a few others.

2. Miserārī and commiserārī, 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, Condemning, and Acquitting take the Genitive of the Charge.

(Miltiades) accūsātus est proditionis, Nep., 1.7,5; Miltiades was accused of treason. [Fannius] C. Verrem Insimulat avāritiae, C., Verr., 1.49, 128; Fannius charges Gaius Verres with avarice. Video non to absolūtum esse improbitātis sed illos damnātos esse caedis, C., Verr., 1.28, 72; I see not that you are acquitted of dishonour, but that they are convicted of murder.

REMARKS.—I. Judicial Verbs include a number of expressions and usages. So capi, tenëri, dëprehendi, së adstringere, së adligëre, së obligëre (ante-classical), and others, mean to be found guilty; increpëre, increpitëre, urgëre, dëferre, arguere, etc., mean charge.

So also kindred expressions: reum facere, (to make a party) to indict, to bring an action against; nomen deferre de, to bring an action against; sacrilegil compertum esse, to be found (guilty) of sacrilege.

- 2. For the Gen. of the Charge may be substituted nomine or crimine with the Gen., or the Abl. with do: nomine (erimine) confurations damnāre, to find guilty of conspiracy; accūsāre do vī, of violence (Gen. vis rare); do venēficio, of poisoning; do rebus repetundīs, of extortion. Postulāre always has do in Cicero. We find sometimes in with Abl.; convictus in crīmine, on the charge; or, inter: inter sīcārios damnātus est, convicted of homicide (C., Cluent., 7, 21; Cf. Ph., 11. 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, quanti, dupli, quadrupli, etc., is in the Genitive.

Accūsāre capitis, or capite, to bring a capital charge. Damnāre capitis, or capite, to condemn to death. Damnārī decem mīlibus, to be fined ten thousand.

Multare, to mulct, is always construed with the Ablative: Multare pecunia, to mulct in (of) money.

Manlius virtūtem fīliī morte multāvit, QUINT., v. 11, 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: damnārī ad bēstiās, to be condemned (to be

thrown) to wild beasts; ad (in) metalla, to the mines; ad (in) opus publicum, to hard labour. Voti damnārī, 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 accūsās adulēscentium, C., Or., 1. 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: aestimāre, existimāre (rare), to value; putāre, to reckon; dūcere (rare in Cicero), to take; habēre, to hold; pendere (mostly in Comedy), to weigh; facere, to make, put; esse, to be (worth); fierī, to be considered.

Verbs of Buying are: emere, to buy; vendere, to sell; venire, to be for sale; stare and constare, to cost, to come to; prostare, lieere, to be exposed, left (for sale); conducere, to hire; locare, to let.

380. r. Verbs of Rating take:

 Māgnī, much,
 plūris, more,
 plūrimī, māximī, most,

 Parvī, little,
 minōris, less,
 minimī, least,

 Tantī, tantīdem, so
 quantī (and compounds),
 nihilī, naught.

 much,
 how much,

Equivalents of nihili, nothing, are floce, a lock of wool, naue, a trifle, assis, a copper, pili (both in Catullus, mainly), and the like, and so also hūius, that (a snap of the finger), all usually with the negative.

Dum no ob malefacta, peream; parvi existumo, Pl., Capt., 682,; so long as it be not for misdeeds, let me die; little do I care. [Voluptātem] virtūs minimī facit, C., Fin., II. 13, 42; virtue makes very little account of the pleasure of the senses. [Iūdicēs] rem pūblicam floccī non faciunt, Cf. C., Att., IV. 15, 4; the judges do not care a fig for the State. Non habeo naucī Marsum augurem, C., Div., I. 58, 132; I do not value a Marsian augur a bawbee.

Remark.—Tanti is often used in the sense of operae pretium est = it is worth while.

Est mihi tanti hūius invidiae tempestātem subīre, C., Cat., II. 7, 15; it is worth while (the cost), in my eyes, to bear this storm of odium.

Notes.—1. Aestimo is found with the Abl. as well as with the Genitive. So aestimare magno and magni, to value highly. Cicero prefers the Ablative.

2. Observe the phrases: boni (aequi bonique) facio (a colloquialism), boni consulo (an old formula), I put up with, take in good part. Non pensi habere (ducere), to consider not worth the while, is post-Augustan and rare.

2. Verbs of Buying take tanti, quanti, plūris, and minōris, The rest are put in the Ablative.

Vēndo meum (frümentum) non plūris quam cēterī, fortasse etiam minoris, C., Off., III. 12, 51; I sell my corn not dearer than everybody else, perhaps even cheaper. Magis illa iuvant quae plūris emuntur, Juv., xi. 16; things give more pleasure which are bought for more. Ēmit (Canius hortos) tantī quantī Pēthius voluit, C., Off., III. 14, 59; Canius bought the gardens at the price Pythius wanted.

Quanti cenës? What do you give for your dinner? Quanti habitës? What is the rent of your lodgings?

But

Parvo fames constat, magno fastidium, Sen., E.M., 17, 4; hunger costs little, daintiness much.

An instructive shift:

Emit? perii hercle: quant?—Viginti minis, Ter., 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 Refert.

381. Interest and Refert take a Genitive of the Person, seldom of the Thing, concerned.

Interest omnium recte facere, C., Fin., II. 22, 72; it is to the interest of all to do right. Refert compositionis quae quibus anteponas, 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 rēfert, I am concerned.

Notes.—1. Refert is commonly used absolutely, occasionally with mea, etc., seldom with the Gen., in the classical language.

2. Instead of Apposition use the Relative:

Vehementer intererat vestrā, quī patrēs estis, līberōs vestrōs hīc potissimum dīscere, 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:

vsque adeō māgnī rēfert studium atque voluptās, Luck., №. 984. Occasionally the Nom. of a neuter pronoun is found:

Quid (Acc.) tuā id (Nom.) refert? Ter., Ph., 723; what business is that of yours?

4. Refert 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 Caesar, 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 rēfert (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. Theodori nihil interest, C., Tusc., I. 43, 102; It is no concern of Theodorus. Māgnī interest meā ūnā nos 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 no with the Subjunctive, or an Interrogative Sentence.

Quid Milonis intererat interfici Clodium? C., Mil., 13,34; what interest had Milo in Clodius' being killed? [Gaesar dicere solebat] non tam sua quamref publicae interesse utī 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 no imperatorem pessimī faciant, Tac., H., I. 30; it is to your interest that the dregs of creation do not make the emperor. Quid refert tāles versus quā voce 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 honorem nostrum interest quam prīmum mē ad urbem venīre, 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. r. The Genitive is found occasionally with certain Verbs of Fulness: in classical Latin principally implere, complere, egère, indigère.

Pisō multōs cōdicēs implēvit eārum rērum, C., Verr. 1. 46, 119; Piso filled many books full of those things. Virtūs plūrimae commentātiōnis et exercitātiōnis 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 indigere, where Cicero prefers the Genitive. Livy likewise prefers the Gen. with implere.

2. Ante-classical and poetic are explère (Verg.), abundare (Luc.), scatère (Lucr.), saturare (Plaut.), obsaturare (Ter.), carère (Ter.). Carère and egère have the Acc. occasionally in early Latin.

3. Other Grecisms are laborum decipitur, H., O., 11. 13, 38 (reading doubtful).

Rēgnāvit populorum, H., O., III. 30, 12. Also mīrārī with Gen. in Vergri. (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 me omnium iam laborum levas, Pl., Rud. 247; how you relieve me at last of all my toils and troubles. Desine mollium tandem querellarum, H., O., 11. 9, 17; cease at last from womanish complainings.

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:
 - 1. The Ablative of Origin. 2. The Ablative of Measure.
- C. The Ablative of the Thing Wherewith appears in a figurative sense, as:
- 1. The Ablative of Manner. 2. The Ablative of Quality. 3. The Ablative of Means.

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:

- D. The Ablative of Cause. E. The Ablative Absolute.
 - 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 portu nāvigō, Ter., And., 480; I am sailing in harbour. Pons in Hibērō prope effectus (erat), Caes., B.C., i. 62, 3; the bridge over the

Ebro was nearly finished. Histriō in scaenā [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.—I. Verbs of Placing and kindred significations take the Abl. with in, to designate the result of the motion: classical are ponere, to place, and compounds; locare, collocare, to put; statuere, constituere, to set; considere, to settle; defigere, to plant; demergere, to plunge; imprimere, to press upon; insculpere, to engrave (figurative); inscribere, to write upon; incidere, to carve upon; includere, to shut into.

Platō ratiōnem in capite posuit, fram in pectore locāvit, C., Tusc., I. 10, 20; Plato has put reason in the head, has placed anger in the breast. (Lucrētia) cultrum in corde dēfīgit, L., I. 58, 11; Lucretia plants a knife in (thrusts a knife down into) her heart. Philosophī in ils librīs ipsīs quōs scrībunt dē contemnendā glōriā sua nōmina inscrībunt, 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 aēneā incīsum, C., Balb., 23, 53; a treaty cut upon a brazen column.

The same observation applies to sub:

Pone sub currū nimium propinquī solis in terrā domibus negātā, H., O., 1. 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 de.

Cui spēs omnis pendet ex fortūnā, huic 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., 1. 7, 6, per provincias, 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 terrã, on land; marī, by sea; usually in the phrase terrā marīque (rarely in the reversed order), on land and sea. In terrā is more common otherwise than terrā. Locō and locīs, 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 ponere, imponere, collocare. The examples with Acc. in classical Latin are principally with compounds of ponere, as imponere (usually), reponere, exponere. Collocare with in and Acc. in Caes., B. G., 1. 18, 7, is not

in a local sense. Sometimes the Dat. is found with imponere.

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.

Numero mihi in mentem fuit dis advenientem grātiās agere, PL., Am., 180.

Adesse in senātum iūssit, C., Ph., v. 7, 19 (Cf. hūc ades, come hither). Parcere victīs in animum habēbat, L., XXXIII. 10, 4.

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 Romae consules sic Carthagine quotannis bini reges creabantur, Nep., XXIII. 7, 4; as at Rome (two) consuls, so in Carthage two kings, were created yearly. Tālis (Romae Fabricius), quālis Aristides Athenis, 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: pāgna ad Cannās (better Cannēnsis), 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 Caesar (B. C., III. 35, but the reading is questioned); more often in Vitruvius and later Latin, but in Greek words only. Apparent exceptions in Caesar 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 tertiō, third book; versū decimō, tenth verse; aliō locō, elsewhere. But in is necessary when a passage in a book and not the whole book is meant: Agricultūra laudātur in eō librō quī est dē tuendā rē familiārī, C., Cat. M., 17, 59; agricultūre is praised in the work on domestic economy.

388. In designations of Place, with tōtus, cūnctus, whole; omnis, all; medius, middle, the Ablative of the Place Where is generally used without in.

Menippus, meō iūdiciō, tōtā Asiā disertissimus, C., Br, 91, 315; Menippus, $in\ my\ judgment$, the most eloquent man in all Asia (Minor). Battiadēs semper tōtō cantābitur orbe, Ov., Am, 1. 15, 13; Battiades (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) üllum argenteum vās fuisse, etc., C., Verr., IV. I, 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 Eurīpī claudit, L., XXXI. 23, 12; as the pass of Thermopylae bars Greece by land, so the frith of Euripus by sea. Ariovistus exercitum castrīs continuit, CAES., B.G., I. 48, 4; Ariovistus kept his army within the camp. Egressus est non viīs sed trāmitibus, C., Ph., XIII. 9, 19; he went out not by high roads but by cross-cuts. Nēmo ire quemquam pūblicā prohibet viā, Pl., Curc., 35; no man forbiddeth (any one to) travel by the public road. Mātris cinerēs Rōmam Tiberī subvectī sunt, Cf. Suet., Cal., 15; his mother's ashes were brought up to Rome by the Tiber.

So recipere aliquem tecto, oppido, portu, to receive a man into one's house, town, harbour; where, however, the Acc. with in is not excluded:

gentēs ūniversae in cīvitātem sunt receptae, C., Balb., 13, 31.

B. ABLATIVE OF THE PLACE WHENCE. Ablātīvus Sēparātīvus.

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 aedibus? Pl., Trin., 137; did you hustle him out of the house? Arāneās dēiciam dē pariete, Pl., St., 355; I will get the cobwebs down from the wall. Alcibiadem Athēniēnsēs ē cīvitāte 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 dēlēcistī sive ex quō locō, sive ā quō locō (whether out of or from which place), eō restituās, C., Caec., 30, 88.

2. The prepositions are often omitted with Verbs of Abstaining, Removing, Relieving, and Excluding; so regularly with domo, from home, rure, from the country.

With Persons a preposition (chiefly ab) must be used.

(Verrēs) omnia domō ēius 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 Alisnō manum abstineant, Cato, Agr., 5, 1; let them keep their hand(s) from other people's property, with [Alexander] vix $\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ sō manūs abstinuit, C., Tusc., IV. 37, 79; Alexander hardly kept (could hardly keep) his hands from himself (from laying hands on himself).

Compare Lapidibus optimos viros foro pellis, C., Har. Res., 18, 39; you drive men of the best classes from the forum with stones, with Istum aemulum ab ea pellito, Ter., Eun., 215; drive that rival from her.

Compare Omnium rērum nātūrā cognitā liberāmur mortis metū, C., Fin., 1. 19, 63; by the knowledge of universal nature we get rid of the

fear of death, with To ab eo libero, C., Q.F., III. i. 3, 9; I rid you of him.

Compare Amicitia nüllö locö exclūditur, C., Lael., 6, 22; friendship is shut out from no place, with Ab illā exclūdor, hōc conclūdor, 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: movere, chiefly in general or technical combinations: movere loco, senatū, tribū (Caesar, however, has no case); pellere, in technical language with civitāte, domo, foro, patriā, possessionibus, suis sēdibus; cēdere is found with patriā, vītā, memoriā, possessione, Italiā; cadere, technical with causā; solvere with lēge (lēgibus), religione, etc., somno; levāre and līberāre 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 abdicare (principally technical), abesse (rarely), abhorrere (once); abire (in technical uses = se abdicare), abrumpere (once), absolvere, abstinere (intrans. without, trans. more often with, preposition), délicere (with aedilitâte, etc.), démovère (once), dépellere, désistere, déturbare; édûcere (rare); efferre (rare); egredi; élicere; éläbi (rare); emittere (Caes.); éripere (rare; usually Dat.); évertere; excèdere; exclûdere; exfre (rare); expellere; exsolvere; exsistere (rare); exturbare; interdîdere; interdîcere (alicui aliqui rē; also alicui aliquid); praecipitāre (Caes.); prohibēre; supersedêre.

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 a 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 sepultae distat inertiae celāta virtūs, H., 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: \$\bar{a}\$ terg\$\overline{0}\$, in the rear; \$\overline{a}\$ parte dextr\$\overline{a}\$, on the right side; ab oriente, on the east; \$\overline{a}\$ tanto spatio, at such a distance; \$\overline{a}\$x fug\$\overline{a}\$, on the flight; \$\overline{a}\$ refrimentaria laborare, to be embarrassed in the matter of provisions.
 - 3. The prepositions are also omitted with kindred Adjectives.

Animus excelsus omnī est līber cūrā, C., Fin., 1. 15, 49; a lofty mind is free from all care. (Catō) omnībus hūmānīs vitīis immūnīs, semper fortūnam in suā potestāte habuit, Vell., 11. 35, 2; Cato, exempt from all human failings, always had fortune in his own power. Iugurtha (Adherbalem) extorrem patrīā effēcit, S., Iug., 14, 11; Iugurtha rendered Adherbal an exile from his country. Utrumque (fraus et vis) homine aliēnissimum, C., Off., 1. 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. Recens, 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; Vilicus prīmus cubitū surgat, postrēmus cubitum eat. See 436, N. 4.

391. Names of Towns and Small Islands are put in the Ablative of the Place Whence.

Dēmarātus fūgit Tarquiniōs Corinthō, C., Tusc., v. 37, 109; Demaratus fled to Tarquinii from Corinth. Dolābella Dēlō proficīscitur, C., Verr., 1. 18, 46; Dolabella sets out from Delos.

Remarks.—I. The prepositions ab (\bar{a}) and ex (\bar{e}) 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:

[Aesculāpiî templum] quinque mīlibus passuum ab urbe [Epidaurō] dīstat, Cf. L., XLV. 28, 3 (403, N. 1).

When the substantives urbe, city, and oppido, 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 longo. When the Appositive has an attribute the proper name regularly precedes.

Aulide, ex oppido Boeotiae, from Aulis, a town of Boeotia. Ex Apollonia Ponti urbe, from Apollonia, a city of Pontus. Ex oppido Gergovia, 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:

Agrigentō ex Aesculāpii 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). Occasional 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 febri domum rediit, C., Or., III. 2, 6; he returned home with a

fever. Catilina stetit in comitio cum tolo, Cf. C., Cat., i. 6, 15; Catiline stood in the place of election with a weapon (on him). Cum baculo porāque [senex], Mart., iv. 53, 3; an old man with stick and wallet. Nec tocum possum vivere nec sine to, Mart., XII. 47, 2; I can't live either with you or without you.

REMARKS.—I. 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.

Albani ingenti exerciti in agrum Römänum impetum föcöre, L., 1. 23, 3; the Albans attacked the Roman territory with a huge army. Caesar cum equitibus DCCCC in castra pervenit, CAES., B. C., 1. 41, 1; Caesar arrived in camp with nine hundred cavalry.

2. Not to be confounded with the above is the Instrumental Ablative:

Nāvibus profectus est, C., Fam., xv. 3, 2; he set out by ship. So also with verbs which denote other military actions:

Hasdrubal mediam aciem Hispānis fīrmat, L., XXIII. 29, 4; Hannibal strengthens the centre with Spanish troops. Actum nihil est nisi Poenō mīlite portās frangimus, Juv., x. 155; naught is accomplished unless we break the gates with the Punic soldiery (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 Dǐānae Ephesiae templum dēflagrāvit, Cf. C., N.D., 11. 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 annīs cursum suum cōnficit, C., N.D., 11. 20, 52; the planet Saturn completes its period in about thirty years.

Many adverbial forms of time are really Locative Ablatives: So hodie, to-day; heri(e), yesterday; mane, in the morning.

REMARKS.—I. Time Within Which may be expressed by per and the Accusative:

Per eōs ipsōs diēs quibus Philippus in Achāiā fuit, Philoclēs saltum Cithaerōnis trānscendit, I.., XXXI. 26, 1; during those very days, while Philip was in Achaia, Philocles crossed the range of Cithaeron.

2. Time Within Which may embrace both extremities; so usually with tôtus, all, whole:

Nocte pluit tōtā, redeunt at māne serēna, 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 trīgintā anniş vixisse Panaetium, posteāquam illös librös ēdidisset, C., Off., III. 2, 8; it is written that Panaetius lived for thirty years after he had published those books (not to be confounded with the Abl. of Difference, 403). Apud Pēthagoram 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.

[Röscius] Römam multīs annīs non vēnit, C., Rosc.Am., 27, 74; Roscius has not come to Rome in (for) many years. Not always, however; compare Sex mēnsīs iam hīc nēmo 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: Cuī vīgintī his annīs supplicātiō dēcrēta est? C., Ph., xiv. 4, 11; to whom during these last twenty years has a supplication been decreed? [Karthāginem] hōc bienniō ēvertēs, C., Rep., vi. ii, 11; Carthage you will overturn in the next two years.

Transferred to Orātio Obliqua, hic becomes ille (660, 3):

Diodorus [respondit] illud argentum sē paucīs illīs diebus mīsisse Lilybaeum, C., Verr., IV. 18, 39; 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 aestāte, diē, hieme, nocte, vespere (vesperī). Exceptions are rare, such as comitiīs, lūce, pāce, mīlitiā, 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 pueritia, $in\ boyhood$; in adulescentia, $in\ youth.$

· Nüllö modō mihǐ placuit bis in diē saturum fierī, C., Tusc., v. 35, 100; it did not suit me in any way to eat my fill twice a day. Fēcī ego istaec itidem in adulēscentiā, PL., B., 410; I did those things too in my youth.

Remark.—The use or omission of in sometimes changes the meaning. So bello Persico, at the time of the Persian war; but in bello, in war times; in pace, in peace times. Phraseological is in tempore, more frequent than tempore, at the right time. But in illo tempore means in those circumstances, at that crisis. At present, for the present, is always in praesentia or in praesenti (rare).

Notes.—1. Classical Latiu 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 die, as dies = unus dies.

2. Dē, from, is also used in designations of time: principally in the phrase dē diē, dē nocte. Ut jugulent hominem surgunt dē nocte latronēs. H., Ep., 1. 2, 33; to

kill a man, highwaymen rise by night, i. e., while it is yet night.

Inter, between: Quae prandia inter continuom perdidi triennium, Pl., St., 213; what luncheons I have lost during three years together.

Intrā, within: Subēgit sõlus intrā vīgintī diēs, 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 primā lūce, 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 dē.

Amplissimā familiā nātī adulēscentēs, CAES., B.G., VII. 37, 1; young men born of a great house. Numae Pompiliī rēgis nepēs, fīliā ortus, Ancus Mārcius erat, L., I. 32, 1; King Numa Pompilius's grandson, a daughter's issue, was Ancus Marcius. Maecēnās atavīs ēdite rēgibus, H., O., I. 1, 1; Maecenas, offshoot of great-grandsire kings. Dīs genite et genitūre 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. Ōdērunt nātōs dē paelice, Juv., VI. 627; they hate the offspring of the concubine.

Ab, and occasionally ex, are employed of remote progenitors:

Plērīque Belgae sunt ortī ab Germānis, Cf. Caes., B.G., II. 4, 1; Belgians are mostly of German descent. Oriundī ex Etrūscīs, Cf. L., II. 9, 1; of Etruscan origin.

Notes.—1. The principal participles thus used are nātus, prognātus, oriundus; ortus, genitus, and satus begin in prose with Livy; ēditus and crētus are poetic; procreātus is late. Ciceno uses oriundus but ouce; 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 Cicero, and a couple of examples in Caesar. Later the simple Abl. disappears. The Abl. was the rule with names of Tribes.

Periphanës Rhodō mercator, P.L., Asin., 499. Magius Cremona, Caes., B.C., I. 24, 4. Q. Verres Rōmilia, C., Verr., I. 8, 23; Q. Verres of the Romilian tribe.

- With finite verbs denoting Origin, the preposition is regular, except occasionally with nāscī.
- 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 constamus et corpore, Cf. C., Fin., IV. 8, 19; we consist of mind and body.

Statua ex auro, ex aere, facta, a statue made of gold, of bronze. Often an adjective is used: aureus, golden; ligneus, wooden.

Notes.—1. After Cicero constare is used more often with the Abl.; consistere (with the Abl.) is poetical. Continers, to be contained in, i.e., almost "to consist of," takes the Abl. only, but with a different conception.

Medicina tota constat experimentis, Quint., II. 17, 9; all medicine is made up of experiments (is empirical).

2. With fier the previous state is indicated by de as well as by ex.

Dē templē carcerem fieri! C., Ph., v. 7, 18; from a temple to become a jail. Fiēs dē rhētore cēnsul, Juv., vii. 197; from (having been) rhetorician you will become consul. Ex ērātēre arātor factus, C., Ph., 111. 9, 22 (206, R. 2).

3. Otherwise the simple Ablative of Material is poetic or late:

Māvors caelātus ferro, V., A., VIII. 700; Mars carven of iron.

Meliore luto 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: crine ruber, red-haired; captus oculis (literally, caught in the eyes), blind; captus mente, insane; meā sententiā, according to my opinion; iūre, by right; lēge, by law, etc.; and the Supines in -ū (436).

Notes.-1. Prepositions are also used, which serve to show the conception:

(Caesaris) adventus ex colore vestitus cognitus, Cf. Caes., B. G., vii. 88, 1; the arrival of Caesar was known by the color of his clothing. Do gestu intellego quid respondeas, C., Vat., 15, 35; I understand by your gesture what answer you are giving. Ab animo aeger fui, Pl., Ep., 129; at heart I was sick. Otiosum ab animo, Ter., Ph., 340; easy in mind.

Similarly ex lege, according to law; ex pacto, according to agreement; ex (do) more, according to custom; ex animi sententia, according to (my) heart's desire;

ex ūsū, useful.

2. A special category is formed by words indicating eminence or superiority; so excellere, antecellere, praestare, superare, vincere; and the adjectives: insignis, illustris, dignus; excellens, praecellens. Praecellere is found in early and late Latin, while dignari is poetic and post-Augustan.

Māximē populus Romānus animī māgnitūdine excellit, C., Off., 1. 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 **decorus** and **decore**, 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 palliost, Pl., Trin., 1154; the shirt is nearer than the cloak. Nihil est virtute amabilius, C., Lael., 8, 28; nothing is more attractive than virtue. Quid est in homine ratione divinius? C., Leg., 1. 7, 22; what is there in man more godlike than reason?

So also after adverbs, but not so freely in prose:

Lacrimā nihil citius ārēscit, C., Inv., I. 56, 109; nothing dries more quickly than a tear. Nēmō est quī tibǐ sapientius suādēre possit tē ipsō, C., Fam., II. 7, 1; there is no one who can give you wiser advice than you yourself. Pulcrum ōrnātum turpēs mōrēs pēius caenō 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.

Phīdiae simulācrīs quibus nihil in illō genere perfectius vidēmus, cōgitāre tamen possumus 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 opinione, spē, exspectātione; aequō, iūstō, solitō, and the like, all post-Ciceronian except aequō, opinione.

(Consul) serius spē (= quam spēs fuerat) Romam vēnit, L., xxvi. 26,4; the consul came to Rome later than was hoped. Solito citātior amnis, L., xxiii. 19,11; the river running faster than usual.

2. Aeque and adaeque 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. ($Ablat\bar{\imath}vus\ Mod\bar{\imath}$.)

[Stellae] circulos suos ordesque conficiunt celeritate mirabili, C., Rep., vi. 15, 15; the stars complete their orbits with wonderful swiftness. Vos

oro ut attento bonaque cum venia verba mea audiatis, C., Rosc. Am., 4, 9; I beg you to hear my words attentively and with kind indulgence. Beato vivere, honesto, id est cum virtute, 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 astī, curriculō, dolō, ergō, grātiIs and ingrātiIs, ioculō, meritō, numerō, optātō, ōrdine, sortitō, voluntāte, vulgō. Terence adds: vī, iūre, iniūriā. Classical Latin shows some of these, also ratiōne, ratiōne et viā, mōribus, cōnsuētūdine, silentiō, cāsū, lēge, fraude, 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: vī, violently and by violence; vī et armīs, by force of arms; pedibus, afool: 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 condicione, sub lege, 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.

[Hannibalis] nomen erat māgnā apud omnēs gloria, C., Or., II. 18, 75; the name of Hannibal was glorious in the esteem of all the world. (Āgēsilāus) statūrā fuit humili, Nep., XVII. 8, 1; Agesilāus was (a man) of low stature. Ista turpiculo puella nāso, Cat., 41, 3; that girl of yours with the ugly nose. Clāvī ferreī digitī pollicis crassitūdine, Cf. Caes., B.G., III. 13, 4; iron nails of the thickness of your thumb.

REMARKS.—I. 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 suillo 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 nūntium, by means of a messenger.

Qui sunt hominës, ā quibus ille së lapidibus adpetitum, 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 occīdēbantur? Per quōs et ā quibus? C., Rose.Am., 29, 80; were they cut down openly? Through whose instrumentality and by whose agency? Nec bene prōmeritis capitur neque tangitur îrā, Lucr., 11. 651 (227, N. 4). Ipse docet quid agam: fās est et ab hoste docērī, Ov., M., Iv. 428 (219). Dīscite sānārī per quem didicistis amāre, Ov., Rem. Am., 43; learn to be healed by means of (him by) whom you learned to love.

REMARKS.—I. 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. I., and 214, R. 2.

So incent suis testibus, C., Mil., 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 desert \bar{a} mente, \bar{a} spe.

Vöbīs animus ab Ignāviā atque socordiā conruptus [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 (erudire also takes in; others take Acc., see 339), Living and Nourishing, etc.

2. Of special importance are assuēscē, assuēfaciē, assuētus; (Catilīna) scelerum exercitātiēne assuēfactus, C., Cat., 11. 5, 9. The Dat. is found first in Livy in prose. Ad with the Acc. is also classical.

3. Afficere, to treat, with the Ablative, is a favorite turn; see the Lexicons.

4. Verbs of sacrificing, such as sacrificare, sacrum facere, divinam rem facere, facere and fier (mostly poetical), immolare, litare (poetical), have the Abl. of Means. But immolare usually has Acc. and Dat., and so the others occasionally, except facere.

Quinquaginta capris sacrificaverunt, L., XLV. 16, 6; they sacrificed fifty shegoats.

- 5. Here belong also verbs like pluere, sūdāre (not classic), stillāre (not classic), fluere, mānāre, and the like: sanguine pluisse, L., xxiv. 10,7. The Acc. is also common.
- 6. Nitor, I stay myself, is construed with the Abl.; occasionally with in. Fidō, 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, usnally has the Abl., but occasionally in; manēre has usually in; the Abl. is poetical. Acquiescere, to acquiesce in, with Abl. is rare. Frētus, supported, takes the Abl. regularly; Livr alone uses the Dative. Contentus, satisfied with (by), is used only of one's own possessions (rēbus, fortūnā, etc.), and has the Ablative.

Salūs omnium non vēritāte solum sed etiam fāmā nītitur, Cf. C., Q.F., I. il. 1,2; the welfare of all rests not on truth alone, but also on repute. Eius iūdicio stāre nolim, C., Tusc., II. 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 fecisti scipione ? Pl., Cas., 975; what have you done with the wand? Quid

me fiet? Pl., Most., 1166; what will become of me? Quid te futurumst? Ter., Ph., 137; what is to become of you? Quid hoc homine facias? C., Verr., 11. 16, 39; how will you dispose of this man? Quid huic homini facias? C., Caecin., 11, 30; what will you do to this man? Quid de nobis futurum [est]? C., Fam., 1x. 17, 1; what is to happen in our case?

The use of the Dative is rare, and still more rare the use of de.

The construction is colloquial, and never found in Caesar and Tacitus; it is always in an interrogative sentence, except in Cato and Ovid.

4. Ablative of Standard. Ablātīvus Mēnsūrae.

402. The Standard of Measure is put in the Ablative with verbs of Measurement and Judgment.

Benevolentiam non ārdore amoris sed stabilitāte iūdicēmus, C., Off., I. 15, 47; good will we are to judge not by ardour but by steadfastness. Māgnos hominēs virtūte mētīmur, non fortūnā, Nep., XVIII. I, 1; we measure great men by worth, not by fortune. Sonīs hominēs ut aera tinnītū dīgnoscimus, Quint., XI. 3, 31; we distinguish men by sound, as coppers by ring.

REMARKS.—I. 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 aestimāre, existimāre, spectāre, in the sense of judge, value.

Dicendum erit non esse ex fortuna fidem ponderandam, 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 veritate pauca, ex opinione multa aestimat, 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.

Sõl multīs partibus māior (est) quam terra üniversa, C., N.D., II. 36, 92; the sun is many parts larger than the whole earth. (Via) altero tanto longiōrem habēbat ānfrāctum, NEP., XVIII. 8, 5; the road had a bend (that made it) longer by as much again, as long again. Quinquiēns tantō amplius Verrēs, quam licitum est, cīvitātibus imperāvit, 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 altiorēs sunt, Curt., v. 1, 26; the towers are (by) ten feet higher than the wall. Tantō est accūsāre quam dēfendere, 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 graviōra tulistī, 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, suprā, ültrā.

[AesculāpiI templum] quinque mīlibus passuum ab urbe [Epidaurō] dīstat, Cf. L., XLv. 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 mul-

tum, tantum, etc., but this is not common except with verbs.

3. The Plautine Abl. nimiō, with the comparative, is not classical (compare [C.], Att., x. 8 a, 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 diebus, Paucis diebus ante, a few days before.

Paucis post diebus, Paucis diebus post, a few days after, afterward.

Duōbus annis postquam Rōma condita est, two years after Rome was founded.

Paulo post Troiam captam, a little while after the taking of Troy.

The Acc. can also be employed: **post paucos annos**, after a few years; ante paucos annos, 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:

Ducentis annis post or Ducentesimo anno post, Post ducentes annos or Post ducentesimum 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 preëminently to post-classical Latin; classical examples are rare. Cicero never has ante.

(c) Ante hös sex mēnsēs, six months ago (compare 393, R. 4) more frequently abhino sex mēnsēs (336, R. 3); abhino sex mēnsibus, means six months before.

(d) With a relative sentence the Abl. of the relative may be used aloue, justead of

ante (post) quam :

Mors Röscii quadriduō quō is occīsus est, Chrysogonō nūntiātur, C., Rosc. Am., 37, 105; the death of Roscius was announced to Chrysogonus four days after he was killed (in the course of the four days within which he was killed). See 393.

(e) Hence is ad : ad sex menses, 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 viri vitam vēndidit, C., Inv., 1. 50, 94; Eriphyle sold her husband's life for gold. Vīgintī talentīs ūnam ōrātiōnem Īsocratēs vēndidit, Plin., N.H., vii. 31, 110; Isocrates sold one speech for twenty talents. Ēmit morte immortālitātem, Quint., ix. 3, 71; he purchased deathlessness with death. Argentum accēpī, dōte imperium vēndidī, Pl., Asin., 87; the cash I took, (and) for a dowry sold my sway.

Notes.—1. Mūtāre, to exchange, is sometimes Give, sometimes Get; sometimes Sell, sometimes Buy. The latter use is confined to poetry and later prose.

Nêmỗ nisi victor pāce bellum mūtāvit, S., C., 58, 15; no one unless victorious (ever) exchanged war for peace. Misera pāx vel bellō bene mūtātur, Cf. TAC., Ann., 111. 44, 10; a wretched peace is well exchanged even for war.

But cur valle permutem Sabina divitias operosiores? H., O., 111. 1, 47; why should I exchange my Sabine vale for riches sure to breed (me) greater trouble?

2. So vēnālis, vīlis, cheap; cārus, dear. Non, edepol, minīs trecentīs cārast, PL., Pers., 668; she is not dear, 'fore 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.

[Dēmocritus] dicitur oculis sē prīvāsse, 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. Non caret effectū quod voluēre duo, Ov., Am., 11. 3, 16; what two have resolved on never lacks execution. Quō māior est in [animis] praestantia, eō māiōre indigent diligentiā, 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. Egeo and (more frequently) indigeo also take the Genitive :

Non tam artis indigent quam laboris, C., Or., 1. 34, 156; they are not so much

in need of skill as of industry. So impleri, V., A., I. 214.

3. Adjectives of Plenty and Want take the Gen., but some of them follow the analogy of the verb (374, x. 1). So onustus, orbus, 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. Frequens and validus 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 (vcry) fruitful both

in honey and in gall (of acrimony).

406. Opus and usus 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 usus) the predicate.

Novō cōnsiliō mihi nunc opus est, Pl., Ps., 601; a new device is what I'm needing now. Vīgintī iam ūsust fīliō argentī minīs, Pl., Asin., 89; my son has urgent need of twenty silver minae. Nihil opus est simulātiōne et fallāciis, C., Or., 11. 46, 191; there is no need of making believe, and of cheating tricks. Nōn opus est verbīs sed fūstibus, 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. Vicinō conventōst opus, Pl., Cas., 502; the neighbour must

be called on. Citius quod non factost usus fit quam quod factost opus, ${\rm PL.},$ 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.

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, 1):

Quid (Acc.) digitos opus est graphio lassare tenendo? 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 të animo valëre 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 së ut cruciet? Ter., Heaut., 81; of what good is it to any man to torture himself?

ruciet? Ter., Heaut., 81; of what good is it to any man to torture himself?

The Snpine is found occasionally; in Cicero only scitü (Inv., 1. 20, 28; disputed).

6. In Plautus and Lucretius are occasional examples of **ūsus** as a predicate, with the Thing Wanted as the subject.

7. Ablative with Sundry Verbs.

407. The Deponent Verbs utor, abutor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor, take the Ablative.

Victoria üti nescis, L., XXII. 51, 4; how to make use of victory you know not. Quō üsque tandem abūtēre patientiā nostrā, C., Cat., I. I, 1; how long, tell me, will you abuse our patience? Lūx quā fruimur ā Deō nōbīs datur, Cf. C., Rosc. Am., 45, 131; the light which we enjoy is given to us by God. Funguntur officiō; dēfendunt suōs, C., Cael., 9, 21; they acquit themselves of a duty; they defend their own people. Fungar vice cōtis, H., A.P., 304; Ishall acquit myself of, discharge, the office of a whetstone. Tūtius esse arbitrābantur sine ūllō vulnere victoriā potīrī, CAES., B.G., III. 24, 2; they thought it safer to make themselves masters of the victory without any wound. Numidae lacte vescēbantur, S., Iug., 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, \times .5).

(a) Utor with Acc. is very common in Plautus, less so in Terence, but only with nenter prononns. Cato uses also the nenter of substantives. Abūtor is combined only with Acc. in early Latin.

(b) Fruor with Acc. is not in Plautus, but occasionally in Terence and Cato. Früniscor (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, Tacitus, 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. Hisp., and in Sallust. Noteworthy is the use of an act. potire with Gen. in PL., Am., 178, and a pass, potitus with Gen. in several places in Plautus.

(e) Vescor takes the Acc. rarely in early Latin, in the poets, and in later Latin.

Vivere, helluari, take Abl. like vesci.

3. Utor is a favorite word, and has a most varied translation:

Uti aliquo amico, to avail one's self of (to enjoy) a man's friendship (to have a friend in him); ūtī consilio, to follow advice; ūtī bono patre, to have the advantage of having a good father; utilegibus, to obey the laws. See the Lexicons.

D. ABLATIVE OF CAUSE.

408. The Ablative of Cause is used without a preposition, chiefly with Verbs of Emotion. Ablātīvus Causae.

In culpā sunt qui officia deserunt mollitiā animī, C., Fin., I. 10, 33; they are to blame who shirk their duties from effeminacy of temper. Oderunt peccare boni virtūtis amore, H., Ep., 1. 16, 52; the good hate to sin from love of virtue. Delicto dolere, correctione gaudere (oportet), C., Lael., 24, 90; one ought to be sorry for sin, to be glad of chastisement. Non dici potest quam flagrem desiderio urbis, C., Att., v. 11, 1; I burn (am afire) beyond expression with longing for Rome.

Notes .- 1. A number of combinations become phraseological, as the verbals: arbitrātū, hortātū, impulsū, iūssū, missū, rogātū, etc.; also consilio, auctoritāte. with a Gen. or possessive pronoun: iussu civium, at the bidding of the citizens; meo rogātū, at my request.

2. The moving cause is often expressed by a participle with the Abl., which usually precedes: adductus, led; ardens, fired; commotus, stirred up; incitatus, egged on; incensus, inflamed; impulsus, driven on; motus, moved, and many others; amore, by love; īrā, by anger; odio, by hate; metū, by fear; spē, by hope, etc. Metū perterritus, sore frightened; verēcundiā dēterritus, abashed, etc.

3. Instead of the simple Abl. the prepositions de and ex (sometimes in), with the

Abl., ob and propter with the Acc., are often used; perhaps occasionally ab.

4. The preventing cause is expressed by prac. for (417, 9): Prac gaudio ubi sim nescio, Ter., Heaut., 308; I know not where I am for joy.

5. On causa and gratia with the Gen., see 273.

6. The use of the Abl. for the external cause, as regale genus non tam regni quam rēgis vitils 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 formulæ; 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 regnante (= cum Xerxes regnaret), Xerxes reigning. When Xerxes was reigning. In the reign of Xerxes.

Xerxe victo (= cum Xerxes victus esset), Xerxes being, having been, defeated. When Xerxes had been defeated. After the defeat of Xerxes.

Xerxe rēge (= cum Xerxēs rēx esset), Xerxes [being] king. When Xerxes was king.

Patre vivo, WHILE father is, was alive (in father's lifetime).

Urbe expugnata imperator 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. Rōmānī veterēs rēgnārī omnēs volēbant lībertātis 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.—I. 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:

Iuvenës veste posită corpora oleo perünxerunt, 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) suadet Lacedaemoniis ut regia potestate dissolūta ex omnibus dūx dēligātur 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: Mānlius caesum Gallum torque spoliāvit.

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 vīvō corrumpī 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:

Iugurtha fratre med interfecto regnum sius 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 need with an object from Sallus on.

2. The Pf. Part. of Deponents as a passive in the Abl. Abs. is confined in classical Latin to **emeritus**, pactus, partītus. 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., 111. 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 unfrequently 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, cōnsultō, auspicātō, dīrēctō, meritō, etc. The use of a following clause dependent upon the Abl. is begun in Cicero: adiūnctō 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 tenebrīs quid aut peterent aut vītārent, L., xxviii. 36, 12. 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 dēsīgnātō mortuō fīliō, 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.

Pompēius hiemāre Dyrrhachii, Apolloniae omnibusque oppidis constituerat, Caes., B.C., III. 5, 1; Pompey had determined to winter at Dyrrhachium, Apollonia, and all the towns. Timotheus Lesbi (vixit), Nep., XII. 3, 4; Timotheus lived at Lesbos. Rhodi ego non fui, sed fui in Bithynia, C., Planc., 34, 83; I was not at Rhodes, but I was in Bithynia.

REMARKS.—I. A few substantives of the Third Declension also form sporadic Locatives; so Carthagini, in Plautus, Cicero, and later; Tiburi in Cicero, Livy, and later, and a few others. See 386.

2. Other Locative forms are, domi, at home (61, R. 2), humi, on the ground (first in Cicero), belli, and militiae, in the combinations domi militiaeque, belli domique, in peace and in war, at home and in the field; rūri, in the country (but rūre meō, on my farm).

ParvI sunt for s arma nisi est consilium domI, C., Off., I. 22, 76; of little value are arms abroad unless there is wisdom at home. Iacere humi, C., Cat., I. 10, 26; to lie on the ground. Humi prosternere, L., XLV. 20, 9; to throw flat on the ground.

Belli is found alone occasionally in Terence and Cicero; Ennius, Vergil, and Ovid have terrae; Vergil also campi.

3. Appositions are put in the Ablative, commonly with in, and regularly follow when qualified by an attribute:

Milites Albae constiterunt in urbe opportuna, C., Ph., IV. 2, 6; the soldiers halted at Alba, a conveniently situated town. Archias Antiochiae natus est celebri quondam urbe, C., Arch., 3, 4; Archias was born at Antioch, once a populous city.

When urbe, vity, oppido, town, or insula, island, precedes, the preposition is always employed:

In urbe Rōmā, in the city (of) Rome. In oppidō Citiō, in the town of Citium. In Insulā Samō, in the island (of) Samos.

4. Domi takes the possessive pronoun in the Genitive :

Domi suae senex est mortuus, C., N.D., 111. 32, 81; the old man died at his own house. Metuis ut meae domi cūrētur diligenter, Ter., Hec., 257; you fear that she will not be carefully nursed at my house. Also alienae domui (61, r. 2), C., Tusc., 1. 22, 51; in a strange house; domi illius, C., Div. in Caec., 18, 58; in his house.

But in domō Pericli (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 temperI (temporI) replaced by tempore in Cicero (Livy and Tacitus only in tempore); mānI, replaced by māne; vesperI and herI; and rare forms like diē, crāstinI, proximI. See 37, 5.

2. On Locative forms of the pronouns, see 91, 3. On animi, 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.—I. 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 (df.), por- (porr-, pol-), red- (re-), sed- (se-) and ve- are sometimes called inseparable prepositions.

413. Position of the Preposition.—The Preposition generally precedes the case.

REMARKS.—I. 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 prō.

Dissyllabic Prepositions are postponed more often, but Cicero restricts this to pronouns, with the following Prepositions: ante, circã, contrã, inter, penes, propter, sine, ūltrã. Caesar postpones intrã also.

Tenus, as far as, and versus, -ward, always follow.

2. When the substantive has an attribute the Preposition may come between; hancigitur 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 victōriam, but after Sulla's victory; ad beātē vīvendum, 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: Lydia die per omnes të deos oro, H., O., I. 8, 1; Lydia, tell, by all the gods, I pray thee. Per ego të deos oro, 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 nocturnō 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—aut, et—et, nec—nec, vel—vel, non 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. Dē honore aut dē dīgnitāte 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.

(Cimon) 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 morī 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, sīcut, the Preposition is more often inserted. Rūs ex urbe tamquam ē vinclis ēvolāvērunt, Cf. C., Or., 11. 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:

Pro Scipione et adversus Scipionem, for and against Scipio. Ante pügnam et post eam, before and after the battle. Et in corpore et extra [sunt] quaedam bona, C., Fin., 11. 21, 68. But intra extraque munitiones, Caes., B. C., 111. 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); contrā, opposite, on the other hand; circā, round about, and circum (rare); prae, forward, in Plautus and Terence; prope, near, and propter (rare); iūxtā, near by (rare); intrā, inside (post-classical); extrā, outside; infrā, below; suprā, above; subter, beneath, and super, above, both rare; citrā, on this side; ūltrā, 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, circā, circum, circiter, cis, citrā,

clam, contrā, ergā, extrā, īnfrā, inter, intrā, iūxtā, ob, penes, per, post (pōne), praeter, prope, propter, secundum, suprā, trāns, ūltrā, ūsque, versus.

- I. 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 hune 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 paucôs diēs, a few days hence), or an approaching time, towards. With Numerals, about. Of Purpose, for (castra hostī ad praedam 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 sō 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 virentīs est animus campōs, H., 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 bach; i.e., nearer the beginning.

- 8. Clam. Secretly. With Acc. in early Latin, in the b. Hisp., and in the Jurists. With Abl. in Caesar (B.C., II. 32, 8), and in the b. Afr., II, 4 (both passages disputed). Clanculum with Acc., only in Terence.
- 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.
- II. 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 practer, 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 (viās), on the road, inter nōs, between ourselves. Inter paucōs, preëminently, is post-classical. Of Time, during; at all periods, but in Cicero principally in the Letters.
- 14. Intra. Within. Of Local and Temporal (not in Cicero) relations. The usage in transferred relations is post-classical, and mainly poetical.
- 15. Iūxtā [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 formulæ with rem (rēs) 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 dēfēnsum 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. Practer. Of Place, in front of, on before, past. In a transferred sense, except; contrary to (opinionem and the like). Of Rank, beyond (practer omnes is cited only from Plautus and Horace; usually practer ceteros).
- 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. Propter. Of Place, near. Of Cause, on account of; very common in early and classical Latin, but avoided by many authors, notably Tacitus. With substantive and participle it appears first in Varro; then 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. Suprā. 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. Ūltrā. Of Space and Measure, on that side, beyond. Of Time; only in late Latin. The early form ūls is very rare and in formulæ, as, Cis Tiberim et ūls Tiberim. In late Latin ūltrā supplants praeter almost wholly.
- 28. $\overline{\mathbf{U}}$ sque, $up\ to$, 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 ā (ab, abs), absque, cōram, cum, dē, ē (ex), prae, prō, sine, tenus; rarely fīne, palam, procul, simul.
- 1. Ā (ab, abs). Of Place Whence, from, especially of the point of departure; so in phrases, ā tergō, ā capite, etc. Of Cause, from (îrā); beginning with Livy. Of Agent, by. Of Remote Origin, from. Of Time, from. Of Reference, according to, after. Of Specification, in (doleō ab oculis); often with compound verbs.

Note.—The form before vowels and h is always ab; before consonants usually \overline{a} , though ab is not uncommon before consonants other than the labials b, f, p, v, and is frequent before l, n, r, s, and i (j); abs is found only before $t\bar{c}$ and in the combination absque. Cicero uses abs $t\bar{c}$ in his early writings, but prefers \bar{a} $t\bar{c}$ in his later ones.

- 2. Absque [i.e., off]. Without. Peculiar to early Latin, where it is used in conditional sentences only. Occasionally in later Latin, as, absque sententia (QUINT., VII. 2, 44), for praeter sententiam.
- 3. Coram. 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. 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: ōrāre cum, plead with (Plautus), etc.
- 5. Dē. Of Place, down from, and then from; especially with compounds of dē and 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 dē nocte, dē diē (diem dē diē, day after day). Of the Whole from which a part is taken. Of Reference, according to (dē sententiā). Of Material; poetical and late.
- 6. $\bar{\mathbf{E}}$ (ex). Of Place, out of, from. Often in phraseological usages, as ex parte, partly; ex asse, and the like. With verbs of Receiving, from. Of Time, from; ex tempore is phraseological. Of Origin, from. Of Reference, according to. Of Manner; in many phrases, as ex aequō, ex ōrdine. $\bar{\mathbf{E}}$ is used before consonants only, ex before both vowels and consonants.
- 7. Fine (or fini). Up to; found in Plautus and Cato, then not until very late Latin. With the Gen. it occurs in b. Afr. and in Sallust, Fr.; then not until Ovid and very late Latin.
- 8. Palam, in the sense of coram, in the presence of, is found first in Horace and Livy, and is rare.

- 9. **Prac.** Of Place, in front of; with verbs of Motion only, in classical Latin. In early Latin in the phrase prace manü, 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.
- ro. Prō. Of Place, before; not in early Latin, but found first in the classical period, where it is confined to certain combinations, as prō rōstrīs, 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 Construed 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, posterum). Of Purpose or Destination, for; mostly post-classical. Of Manner, in, after. Phraseologically with neuter adjectives: in deterius, 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 incerto, dubio, integro, ambiguo, etc.
- 2. Sub. (a) With Accusative: Of Place Whither, under. Of Time Approaching, about (noctem, vesperum); just Past, immediately after. Of Condition, under (sub potestatem redigi).
- (b) With Ablative: Of Place Where, under; also in phrases, sub arms, etc. Of Time When, about; rare, and first in CAESAR. Of Position, under (rege, iudice, 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., Tusc., v. 1, 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: = dē, 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 adverbial attribute, the designations of voice and time, and the regimen of the verb:

Amāre, to love; valdē amāre, to love hugely; amārī, to be loved; amāvisse, to have loved; amāre aliquem, to love a man; nocēre 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 subj. 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.

Regem esse, to be king. Bonum esse, to be good. Compare quid stultius quam aliquem eō 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:

Amātūrum 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 Ōceanum mittit mē quaerere 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.)

Iovī bibere ministrāre, Cf. C., Tusc., I. 26. Quem virum aut hērōa lyrā vel ācrī tībiā sūmēs celebrāre, Cliō ? H., O., I. 12, 1. Different, of course, are cases like dī tibi posse tuōs tribuant dēfendere semper, Ov., Tr., III. 5, 21, where posse dēfendere is felt as potestātem dēfendendī.

(c) With many adjectives where the Sup. in ū, or some construction of Purpose, is to

be expected.

In early Latin the adjectives are parātus, consuetus, defessus. But this usage is

widely extended by the Angustan 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: Rōma capī facilis, Lucan, II. 656. Note the strange usage dissentire manifēstus, Tac., Ann., II. 57, 4, and occasionally elsewhere.

2. The Inf. may take an adj. attribute, but in classical prose this is limited to ip-

sum, hoc ipsum, and totum hoc:

Vivere îpsum turpe est nobis, living itself is a disgrace to us. Quibusdam totum hoc displicet philosophari (280, 1, a).

The Infinitive as a Subject.

422. The Infinitive, as a Subject, is treated as a neuter substantive.

Incipere multö est quam inpetrare facilius, Pl., Poen., 974; beginning is much easier (work) than winning. Miserum est deturbari fortunis omnibus, C., Quinct., 31, 95; it is wretched to find one's self turned rudely out of all one's fortunes. Non tam turpe fuit vinci quam contendisse decorum 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 onr own to is lost when our Inf. becomes a subj.; as in, to err is human, to forgive divine. No Roman felt turpe fuit vinci, as, there was disgrace in being beaten; bonum est legere was to him another bona est lectio (see Priscian, 408, 27).

- 2. The substantives used as predicates are not common in early Latin. Lubidō est is confined to Plautus. Stultitia est, consilium est, and tempus est are universal. Creero introduces the not necommon mos est, and many others with est, as: consuetudō (-inis), vitium, iūs, fās, nefās, facinus, 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), consentaneum, falsum, incredibile, integrum, gloriosum, maius (quam), mīrum, novom, optimum, rēctum, singulāre, trītum, vērīsimile, 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, dedecet, displicet, prodest, obest, attinet. Others come in later. Some, such as oportet, 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 consuctualistic and moris; or combinations like quid negotii, nihil negotii est; predicate Datives such as cordi est, curae est, both unclassical; or phrases, as operae pretium, in animo esse, in mentem venire, of which the last two were introduced by CICERO.

The Infinitive as an Object.

423. r. 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.

Emori cupio, Ter., Heaut., 971; I want to die. [Cato] esse quam videri bonus malebat, 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 scis, Hannibal; victoriā ūtī nescīs, L., XXII. 51; how to win victory, you know, Hannibal; how to make use of victory, you know not. Qui mori didicit, servire dedidicit, Sen., E.M., 26, 10; he who has learned to die has unlearned to be a slave. Maledictis deterrere ne scribat parat, Ter., Ph., 3; he is preparing (trying) to frighten (him) from writing, by abuse. Qui mentīrī solet, pēierāre consuēvit, C., Rosc. Com., 16, 46; he who is wont to lie is accustomed to swear falsely. Vulnera quae fecit debuit ipse pati. Ov., Am., II. 3, 4; the wounds he gave he should himself have suffered. Vereor laudare praesentem, C., N.D., I. 21, 58; I feel a delicacy about praising a man to his face. Rēligionum animum nodīs exsolvere pergo, Luck., I. 932; I go on to loose the spirit from the bonds of superstitious creeds. Tuā quod nīl rēfert, percontārī dēsinās, Ter., Hec., 810; cease to inquire what is not to your advantage.

So habeo, I have (it in my power).

Tantum habeō pollicērī mē tibī cumulātē satisfactūrum, C., Fan., 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, malle, nolle, cupere, optare (rare, except in passive), petere, postulare, avore, audore, desiderare (first in Cic.), praegestire, gestire, ardere,

metuere (ante-class.), verērī, timēre, formīdāre (ante-class.), reformīdāre, horrēre, horrēscere, hortārī and compounds, monēre and compounds, suādēre (first in Cic.), persuādēre, iubēre, imperāre, praecipere, cēgere, permittere (once in Cic., then later), concēdere (first in Cic.), cūrāre (notin Caes., Sall., Livy), vetāre, recūsāre (first in Cic.), mittere, omittere, intermittere, cunctārī, cēssāre, morārī, dubitāre, gravārī, prohibēre, impedīre, dēterrēre.

Power: posse, quire, nequire, sustinere (first in Cic.), valere (first in Cic.),

pollère (first in Cic.), habère (rare, except in Cic.), scire, nescire.

Duty: dēbēre, necesse habeō.

Habit: assuescere, assuefacere (first in Cic.), consuescere, solere.

Inclination: conari (only with Inf.), studere, contendere, intendere (CAES.), laborare (always with neg. in Cic.), moliri (rare), aggredi, ingredi, adoriri, niti (first in CAES.), eniti (ante-class. and post-class.), quaerere (first in Cic.), temptare (first in Hirtus).

Resolve: cogitare, meditari, memini (mostly poet.), parare, statuere (first in Cic.), constituere (first in Ter.), decernere (not class. in pass.), iūdicare (first in Cic.), destinare (first in Caes.), certum est, deliberatum est, propositum est (first in Cic.).

Continuance: stare (first in Cic.), instare, perstare (once in Cic., then late), perseverare (first in Cic.), properare (only word used in early Latin), festinare (first in Cic.), maturare (first in Cic.).

Beginning and End: coepī, incipere (first in Cic.), exordīrī, pergere, desinere.

Poets are free in using the Inf. after other verbs.

3. Notice that coepi, I have begun, and desino, I cease, are used in Pf. pass. with passive Infinitives, in early Latin, Cioero, Caesar, always; later the construction varies, and Tacitus does not observe the rule.

Bellō Athēniēnsēs undique premī sunt coeptī, Nep., xhi. 3,1; the Athenians began to feel the pressure of war on (from) all sides. Veterēs ōrātiōnēs 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 opto, 1 choose, in classical prose.

5. Verbs which denote Hope, Promise, and Threat are treated as verbs of Saying and Thinking (530), but also occasionally as in English:

Spērant sē māximum frūctum esse captūrōs, C., Lael., 21, 79; they hope that they will derive great advantage. Subruptūrum pallam prōmīsit tibī, Pl., Asin., 930; he promised to steal the mantle from you.

6. Doceo, Iteach, inbeo, Ibid, veto, Iforbid, sino, Ilet, take the Inf. as a Second

Accusative (339):

(Dionysius) no collum tonsori committeret tondere filias suas 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 to meminisse deus, Mart., II. 59 (376). Vitae summa brevis spem nos vetat inchoare longam, H., O., I. 4, 15; life's brief sum forbids us open (a) long (account with) hope. Neu sinas Mödos equitare inultos, 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.

Docto homini et ërudito vivere est cogitare, 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 studiosus 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 propensus est ad legendum, the boy has a bent toward reading.

AB. Puer discit legendo, 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.

Hominës ad deës nüllä rë propius accëdunt, quam salütem hominibus dandē, 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 -ndu- 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 amëtur), 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.

Iugurtha ad imperandum (= ut ei imperārētur, perhaps an old military formula) Tisidium vocābātur. Cf. S., Iug., 62, 8.

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 interficiendo Brūtus et Cassius patriae libertātēm restituere conāti sunt; by the murder of Caesar (by murdering Caesar), Brutus and Cassius endeavoured to restore their country's freedom to her. Caesare interfecto, Brūtus et Cassius patriae libertātem non 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. Placandi Dei, of appeasing God.
 - D. Plācando Deo, for appeasing God.

AB. Plācandō Deō, by appeasing God.

In model prose this construction is invariably employed with Prepositions.

Ad plācandōs Deōs, for appeasing the gods (C., Cat., III. 8, 20). In plācandīs Diīs, 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. 5,5; 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 (360, R. 2).

2. The impersonal Gerundive is found with an Acc. obj. once in Plautus (agitan-dumst vigiliäs, 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 timendumst, Luck., I. 111; since we must

fear eternal punishments in death.

3. Neuter adjectives and pronouns are not attracted: aliquid faciendi ratio, C., Inv., I. 25, 36; method of doing something. Cupiditäs plura habendi, greed for having more. But when the neuter adjective has become a substantive (204, N. 2), the Gerundive form may be used: cupiditäs vērī videndi, 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 non parendum senatui, L., XLII. 9; for not obeying the senate.

5. But the Gerundives from tor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor (407) have the personal construction, but usually only in the oblique cases (C., Fin., I. r. 3, is an exception), as a remnant of their original neage. The poets and later prose writers use still more forms in the same way, as laetandus, dolendus, medendus, paenitendus, etc. Ciceno also shows single instances of gloriandus. disserendus, respondendus.

6. The use of the Nom. of the Gerundive follows the ordinary rules of the Nomina-

tive.

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., 1. 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 loquendi, Ov., M., v. 678; and hoarse chattiness, and a monstrous love of talking. Trīste est nōmen ipsum carendi, C., Tusc., 1. 36, 87; dismal is the mere word "carēre" (go without). Nōn est plācandī spēs mihi nūlla Dei, Ov., Tr., v. 8, 22; I am not without hope of appeasing God. Īgnōrant cupidi maledīcendī 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 perītissimus fuit, Suet., Tit., 3; Titus was exceedingly skilful in riding. Neuter suī prōtegendī corporis memor (erat), I., 11. 6, 9; neither

thought of shielding his own body. Qui hic mos obsidendi viās et viros alienos appellandi? L., XXXIV. 2, 9; what sort of way is this of blocking up the streets and calling upon other women's husbands? Summa elūdendi occāsiost mihi nunc senes, Ter., Ph., 885; I have a tip-top chance to fool the old chaps now.

REMARKS.—I. As mel, tul, sul, nostri, vestri, are, in their origin, neuter singulars, from meum, my being, tuum, thy being, suum, one's being, etc., the Gerundive is put in the same form: conservandi sul, of preserving themselves; vestri adhortandi, of exhorting you; and no regard is had to number or gender.

Copia placandi 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: Dissimulandī 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) cepit libertatis 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. 8, 6: [nāvēs] quās sui 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, *Philippics* 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 suīs latrōnibus condōnandī, 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, ratiō est, cōnsilium est, cōnsilium capere, cōnsilium inīre, 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) secura quies et nescia fallere (= quae nesciat fallere) vita, V., G., 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., r. 23: mē Albānī gerendō bellō ducem creāvēre.

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; pracesse and practice, to be (put) in charge of; studere and operam addere, laborem 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 cīvitātēs nōn erant, Cf. C., Fam., 111. 8, 2; the communities were not equal to (ready for) payment (were not solvent). [Sapiēns] vīrēs suās nōvit, scit sē esse onerī ferendō, 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 decemvirīs creandīs (C., Leg.Agr., 2, 8); triumvir coloniīs dēdūcendīs (S., Iug., 42); reliqua tempora dēmetendīs frūctibus 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 nitrōsa ūtilis est bibendō, Cf. Plin., N.H., xxxi. 32, 59; alkaline water is good for drinking (to drink). Līgnum āridum māteria est idōnea ēliciendīs īgnibus, Cf. Sen., N.Q., 11. 22, 1; dry wood is a fit substance for striking fire (drawing out sparks). Referundae ego habeō linguam nātam 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 studēre; operam dare, or sūmere (both revived by Livy); finem (or modum) facere; and a few adjectival forms. Of the latter, Cicero uses only accommodātus, Caesar only pār.

2. Rare and unclassical is the Acc. in dependence upon a Dat. of the Gerund.

Epidicum operam quaerendo 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 homini id aurum servandum dedit, PL., B., 338; he gave that

gold to a rich man to keep. Conon muros reficiendos curat, Nep., 1x. 4, 5; Conon has the walls rebuilt. Patriam diripiendam reliquimus, C., Fam., XVI. 12, 1; we have left our country to be plundered. [Carvilius] aedem faciendam locavit, L., x. 46, 14; Carvilius let the (contract of) building the temple.

Of course, the passive form has the Nominative:

Filius Philippi Dēmētrius 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, conducere, locare, rogare, petere, habere, propinare. Classical Latin gives up rogare, petere, propinare, but adds others, as tradere, obicere, concedere, committere, curare, relinquere, proponere. Livy introduces suscipere. The use of ad in place of the simple Acc. is not common.

[Caesar] oppidum ad dīripiendum mīlitibus concēssit, Caes., B.C., III. 80, 6. But ad is necessary in nēminī sē ad docendum dabat, 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 homo nobis cunctando restituit rem, Ennius (C., Cat.M., 4, 10); one man by lingering raised our cause again. Hominis mens discendo alitur et cogitando, C., Off., I. 30, 105; the human mind is nourished by learning and thinking. Plausum meo nomine recitando dederunt, Cf. C., Att., IV. I, 6; they clapped when my name was read. Exercendo cottidie milite hostem opperiedatur, L., xxxIII. 3, 5; drilling the soldiers daily he waited for the enemy.

Notes.—I. The Abl. with adjectives is post-Ciceronian: digna stirps suscipiendō (instead of quae susciperet) patris imperiō, Tac., Ann., XIII. 14. So too with verbs: continuandō abstitit magistrātū, L., IX. 34, 2.

2. The Abl. after a comparative is cited only from C., Off., 1. 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, circa, in, inter, ob, and propter. See 427.

Nulla res tantum ad dicendum proficit quantum scriptio, C., Br. 24, 92;

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nothing is as profitable for speaking as writing. Atticus philosophōrum praeceptīs ad vītam agendam non ad ostentātionem ūtēbātur, 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 exspirāvit, 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 (palūs Rōmānōs ad Insequendum tardābat, 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). Circā 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 Cassar), 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 māximē est īra in pūniendē, C., Off., 1. 25, 89; especially to be forbidden is anger in punishing. [Brūtus] in līberandā patriā (= dum līberat) est interfectus, C., Cat.M., 20, 75; Brutus was slain in the effort to free his country. Philosophī in iīs librīs ipsīs quēs scrībunt dē contemnendā glēriā sua nōmina Inscrībunt, C., Tusc., 1. 15, 34 (385, R. 1). Ex dīscendē 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 circumeund \bar{o} exercit \bar{u} animadvertit, b.Afr., 82.

2. Sine 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 cōnfīdere, 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., I. 99; they come to see the show; they come to be themselves a show. (Galli gallinācei) cum sõle eunt cubitum, PLIN., N.H., x. 24, 46; cocks go to roost at sunset. Stultitia est vēnātum dūcere invitās canēs, PL., St., 139; 'tis foolishness to take unwilling dogs a-hunting.

Notes.—1. **Tre** and **venire** are the most common verbs with the Supine, and they form many phraseological usages, as: **ire coctum**, **cubitum**, **dormītum**, **pāstum**, **supplicātum**, **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) revo-

cātus (est), NEP., 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; 208, 2), and the Supine:

Rūmor venit datum īrī gladiātōrēs, Ter., Hec., 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. (528).

Reus damnatum iri videbatur, Quint., ix. 2,88; 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.

Mīrābile dictū, wonderful (in the telling) to tell, vīsū, 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 nncommon; 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, audītū, to hear, vīsū, to see, memorātū, relātū, trāctātū; then, less often, cognitū, to know, inventū, intellēctū, scitū, adspectū.

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 ū as an original Dative (ui).

3. Ad, with the Gerundive, is often used instead: Cibus facillimus ad concoquendum, C., Fin., II. 20, 64; food (that is) very easy to digest.

The Infinitive, facilis concoqui, is poetical. Common is facile concoquitur. Other equivalents are active Infin., 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 cubitū surgat, postrēmus cubitum eat, Cato, Agr., 5, 5; the steward must be the first to get out of bed, the last to go to bed. Obsonātū redeo, 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 somniantī, C., Div., 11. 68, 141; nothing is great to a dreamer (to a man, when he is dreaming). Rēgia, crēde mihī, rēs est succurrere lāpsis, Ov., Pont., 11. 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: recte facta, right actions; facete 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 sapiëns, aduléscens, 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 nuntiaturī

(CURT., VII. 4, 32), peccătūros (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 fisus. Cato has post dimissum bellum, and this innovation is extended by Varro, with propter. Cicero is cautious, employing the prepositions ante, dē, in, post, praeter, but Sallust goes much farther, as the strange sentence inter haec parāta atque dēcrēta (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.

(Epaminondās) erat temporibus sapienter ūtēns, NEP., XV. 3, 1; Epaminondas was a man who made (to make) wise use of opportunities (= is quī ūterētur). Senectūs est operōsa et semper agēns aliquid et moliēns, 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 dictū, sed quae studiīs in māgnum certāmen excēsserit, L. XXXIV. I; a small thing to mention, but one which, by the excitement of the parties, terminated in a great contest. Mūnera non ad deliciās muliebrēs quaesīta nec quibus nova nūpta comātur, TAC., Germ., 18.

NOTE.—The Fut. Part. active is rarely used adjectively in classical Latin except the forms futurus, venturus. The predicate use after verbs of Motion to express Purpose is found first in Ctoeno (Verr., 1. 21, 56), though very rarely, but becomes increasingly common from Livr's time. Livr is the first to use the Fut. Part. as an adjective clause, a usage which also becomes common later.

(Maroboduus) mīsit lēgātōs ad Tiberium ōrātūrōs auxilia, Tac., Ann., □. 46; Marbod sent commissioners to Tiberius, to beg for reinforcements. Servīlius adest dē tē sententiam lātūrus (perhaps due to est), C., Verr., I. 21, 56. Rem ausus plūs fāmae habitūram (that was likely to have) quam fideī, L., II. 10, 11. (Dictātor) ad hostem dūcit, nūllō locō, nisi quantum necessitās cōgeret, fortūnae sē commissūrus (with the intention of submitting), L., XXII. 12, 2.

ADVERB.

439. r. The Predicate 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 vīvit, he lives ill; bene est, it is well; ferē omnēs, almost all; nimis saepe, too often; admodum adulēscēns, a mere youth; lātē rēx (V., A., I. 21), wide-ruling; bis consul, twice consul; duo simul bella, two simultaneous wars.

Nores.-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, egregie, and (later) insigniter. Poetical are such expressions as turpiter ater, splendide mendax (H., A.P., 3; O., III. II., 35). Male as a negative is found with sanus only in Cicero (Att., IX. I5, 5); other combinations are poetical, or post-classical.
- 3. The translation for very varies at different periods; multum is common in Plattus and in Horace's Satires and Epistles, rare elsewhere; valds is introduced by Cicero, but did not survive him, to any extent. Sānē is also frequent in Cicero, especially in the Letters ad Atticum. Cornificius affected vehementer, and so do colloquial authors, as Vipruvius; fortiter comes in later; bene is occasional in Plattus and Terence, more common in Cicero; oppidō is characteristic of early Latin, and Livy and the Archaists; admodum is Ciceronian, but adfatim comes later and is rare. Abundē is rare before the time of Sallust. Nimium (nimiō) belongs to early Latin, as do impēnsē and impendiō. Satis is common in the classical period, and also nimis, but mainly with negatives.

 The Adverb as an attribute of substantives is rare. CICERO shows tum, saepe, 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.

Iniūstē facit, he acts unjustly. Admodum pulcher, handsome to a degree, very handsome. Valdē dīligenter, very carefully.

REMARK.—Exceptions occur chiefly in rhetorical passages, in which great stress is laid on the adverb, or in poetry:

[Īram] bene Ennius initium dīxit 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.

Negative Adverbs.

- 441. There are two original negatives in Latin, nē and haud (haut, hau). From nē is derived nōn [nē-oinom (ūnum), no-whit, not]. Nē is used chiefly in compounds, or with the Imperative and Optative Subjunctive. The old use appears in nē—quidem. Nōn is used with the Indicative and Potential 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.—I. Non, as the emphatic, specific negative, may negative anything. (See 270, R. I.)

- 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 substantives and verbs, takes the place of negative in- or ne-. Non arbitrābātur quod efficeret aliquid posse esse non corpus (ἀσώματον), 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 nullus, 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: necopinans, negotium, 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. Hau is found only before consonants, and belongs to early Latin and Vergll. Haut (early) and haud are found indiscriminately before vowels.

2. Haud is very rarely or never found in Conditional, Concessive, Interrogative, Relative, and Infinitive sentences.

3. Caesar uses haud but once, and then in the phrase haud sciō an (457, 2). Cicero says also haud dubitō, haud ignōrō, haud errāverō, 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 haud difficilis, and the like.

4. Haud 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: inceptiost amentium 1 haud amantium, Ter., And. 218; the undertaking

is one of lunatics, not lovers.

5. A strengthened expression s haud quaquam.

444. 1. No is the Negative of the Imperative and of the Optative Subjunctive.

Tū nē cēde malīs, V., A., vī. 95; yield not thou to misfortunes. Nē trānsierīs Hibērum, I., XXI. 44, 6; do not cross the Ebro. Nē vīvam, sī sciō, 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. No as a general negative particle, = non, is found very rarely in early Latin, mostly with forms of velle (no parcunt, Pl., Most., 124, is disputed). Classical Latin retains this only in no-quidem, in compound no-quaquam, and in a shortened form in nefas, nego, neque, etc.
 - 2. Nē is continued by nēve or neu. See 260.

No illam vendas neu me perdas 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 nequem, not even.

Nihil umquam neque Insolens neque gloriosum ex ore [Timoleontis] processit, NEP., XX. 4, 2; nothing insolent or boastful ever came out of the mouth of Timoleon. Consciorum nemo aut latuit aut fügit, L., XXIV. 5, 14; of the accomplices no one either hid or fled. Numquam [Scipionem] ne minima quidem re offendi, 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 nego, I say no, is continued by neque—neque (nec-nec): Negant nec virtūtēs nec vitia crēscere, 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: nēmŏ umquam, no one ever.

Verres nihil umquam fecit sine aliquo quaesto, C., Verr., v. 5, 11; Verres never did anything without some profit or other.

Notes.-1. No one yet is nondum quisquam; no more, no longer, is iam non.

2. The resolution of a negative non ullus for nullus, non umquam for numquam, non scio for nescio, is poetical, except for purposes of emphasis, or when the first part of the resolved negative is combined with coordinating conjunction (480):

Non ulla tibi facta est iniuria, Cf. C., Div. in Cov., 18, 60.

3. Nēmo often equals ne quis: Nemo de no is unus excellat, C., Tusc., v.

36, 105.

447. Negō (*I say no, I deny*) is commonly used instead of dīcō nōn, *I say—not*.

Assem sēsē datūrum negat, C., Quinct., ; 19; he says that he will not give a copper. Vel aī vel negā, Accius, 125 (R.); say yes or say no!

Remark.—The positive ($\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ i $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$, I say) is sometimes to be supplied for a subsequent clause, as C., Fin., I. 18, 61. The same thing happens with the other negatives, as $\mathbf{vol}\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ from $\mathbf{nol}\bar{\mathbf{o}}$, iubeo from \mathbf{veto} , \mathbf{scio} from \mathbf{nescio} , \mathbf{queo} from \mathbf{nequeo} , $\mathbf{quisquam}$ from \mathbf{nemo} , \mathbf{ut} from \mathbf{ne} .

POSITION OF THE NEGATIVE.

448. 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 reverti, Sen., E.M., 49, 10; possibly you may not return. (Non potes reverti, you cannot possibly return.) Saepe viri fallunt; tenerae non saepe puellae, Ov., A.A., III. 31; often do men deceive; soft-hearted maidens not often. Non omnis aetās, Lyde, lūdō convenit, Pl., B., 129; not every age, (good) Lydus (Playfair), sorts with play. Non ego ventōsae plēbis suffrāgia vēnor, 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: felix non erat, he wasn't happy: non felix 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) viris, C., Tusc., 111. 28, 70; on nego, sec 447.

449. Two negatives in the same sentence destroy one another, and make an affirmative, but see 445:

Non nego, I do not deny (I admit).

REMARKS.—I. Non possum non, I cannot but (I must):

Qui mortem in malis ponit non potest eam non timere, C., Fin., III. 8, 29; he who classes death among misfortunes cannot but (must) fear it.

The double Negative is often stronger than the opposite Positive; this is a common form of the figure Litotes, understatement (700).
 Non indoctus, highly educated; non sum nescius, I am well aware.

Non indecoro pulvere sordidī, H., O., II. I, 22; swart (soiled) with (no dis)honourable dust. Non Ignāra malī miserīs succurrere dīscō, V., A., I.

630; not unacquainted (= but too well acquainted) with misfortune, I learn to succour the wretched.

3. It follows from R. 2 that not non is not simply equivalent to et, and; net belongs to the sentence, non to the particular word:

Nec hōc [Zēnō] non vidit, C., Fin., IV. 22, 60; nor did Zeno fail to see this. At neque non (dī) diligunt 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.	
nõnnihil,	somewhat;	nihil nõn,	everything;
nōnnēmŏ,	some one, some;	nēmŏ nōn,	everybody;
nonnüllī,	some people;	nüllī nön,	all;
nonnumquam,	sometimes;	numquam non,	always;
nonnusquam,	somewhere;	nüsquam nõn,	everywhere.

In ipsā cūriā nonnēmo hostis est, C., Mur., 39, 84; in the senate-house itself there are enemies (nēmo non hostis est, everybody is an enemy). Non est plācandī spēs mihi nūlla Deī, Ov., Tr., v. 8, 22 (428); I have some hope of appeasing God (nūlla spēs non est, I have every hope). Nēmo non didicisse māvult quam discere, Quint., III. 1, 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 of 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.

Quis est? Who is it? Quid ais? What do you say? Qui hic mõs? What sort of way is this? Cur non discedis? Why do you not depart? For a list of Interrogative Pronouns see 104.

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 periurum et mendacem? C., Rosc. Com., 16, 46; what is the diperence between a perjured man and a liar? All questions of this kind are called Rhetorical.

452. I. 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., 1. 3, 6; Fabricius is unhappy because he digs his own field? (Impossible!) Heus, inquit, linguam.vis meam praeclūdere? Phaedr., 1. 23, 5; Ho! ho! quoth he, you wish to shut my mouth, you do? (You shall not.) Tuom parasitum non novisti? Pl., Men., 505; you don't know your own parasite? (Strange!) Hunc tū vitae splendorem maculis adspergis istis? 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

taces? won't you keep quiet? common in comedy (PL., Trin., 514).

3. Noteworthy is the occasional usage of the question in place of a condition. Amat? sapit, Pl., Am., 995; is he in love? he is sensible. Trīstis es? indīgnor quod sum tibi causa dolōris, Ov.. Tr., Iv. 3, 33 (542). See 593, 4.

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 pecunia dissoluta est? C., Verr., III. 77, 180; is all the money paid out? (Estne omnis pecunia dissoluta? 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? Tün? You? Satin? For certain? Also scin, 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 (ō sērī studiōrum, quīne putētis, elc., H., 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 (H., S., H. 3, 251), quone (H., S., H. 3, 295).

4. -Ne is often added to personal pronouns in indignant questions: tune inane

quicquam putes 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 nonne; 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, R. 2.

455. Nonne expects the answer Yes.

Nonne meministi? C., Fin., 11. 3, 10; do you not remember? Nonne is generosissimus qui optimus? QUINT., v. 11, 4; is he not the truest gentleman who is the best man?

So the other negatives with -ne: nemone, nihilne, and the like.

Note.—None 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 hīc alius praeter 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? H., 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., 1.31, 88, and Lael., 11, 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. 1. **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.

Non manum abstines? An tibi iam mavis 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 anne 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 sciō 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 sciō an ita sit, C., Tusc., II. 17, 41; I do not know but it is so. Haud sciō an nūlla (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] prīmum omnium pōnam, Nep., viii. 1, 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 forsitan, perhaps, with the Potential Subjunctive: Forsitan et Priami fuerint quae fata requiras, V., A., 11. 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. Second and Subsequent Clauses.

utrum, whether,
-ne,
an,
an (anne).

Utrum nescīs quam altē ascenderīs, an pro nihilo id putās? C., Fam., x. 26, 3; are you not aware how high you have mounted, or do you count that as nothing? Vosne Lūcium Domitium an vos Domitius deseruit? CAES., B.C., II. 32, 8; have you deserted Lucius Domitius, or has Domitius deserted you? Eloquar an sileam? V., A., III. 39; shall I speak, or hold my peace? Utrum hoc tū parum commeministī, an ego non satis intellēxī, an mūtāstī sententiam? C., Att., IX. 2; do you not remember this, or did I misunderstand you, or have you changed your view?

Notes.—1. Utrumne—an is found once in Cicero (Inv., 1.31,51), not in Caesar or Livy, occasionally elsewhere (II., Epod., 1,7); utrum—ne—an is more common. Ne—an, which is common in prose, is not found in Cat., Tib., Prop., Hor., Lucan.

2. N_{6} in the second member, with omitted particle in first member, occurs only in II., Ep., I. π , 3 (disputed), in the direct question, except in the combination necne (459).

3. Ne-ne is very rare; V., A., II. 738; X1. 126.

4. Aut (or), in questions, is not to be confounded with an. Aut gives another part of a simple question, or another form of it (or, in other words). An excludes, aut extends.

(Voluptās) meliōremne efficit aut laudābiliōrem virum? C., Parad., 1. 3, 15; does pleasure make a better or more praiseworthy man? (Answer: neither.) Tū virum mē aut hominem dēputās adeō esse? Ter., Hec., 524; do you hold me to be your husband or even a man?

459. In direct questions, or not is annon, rarely necne; in indirect, necne, rarely annon.

Isne est quem quaero, annon? Ter., Ph., 852; is that the man I am looking for, or not? Sitque memor nostri 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 hace tua verba necne?), Flacc., 25, 59; and also Lucr., III. 713. Annon in indirect questions occurs in Cicero, Inv., 1. 50, 95; II. 20, 60; Cael., 21, 52; Balb., 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 (iūssērunt) num sollicitātī animī sociērum essent, L., XLII. 19, 8; they ordered them to spy out whether the allies had been tampered with.

(b) \mathbf{Si} , if, is used for whether, chiefly after verbs and sentences implying trial. Compare $\mathbf{\bar{0}}$ $\mathbf{s\bar{i}}$ (261).

Temptāta rēs est sī prīmō impetā 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). Ībō, vīsam sī 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 fatis sibi destinaretur, Curt., IV. 7, 26; Alexander then asked the oracle whether the empire of the whole world was destined for him by the fates.

2. Nonne 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 Prīscī Tarquiniī rēgis filius nepōsne 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. Utrum-ne-an is rare but classical. Utrumne-an begins with Horace, 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.

Postrēma 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:

In versü nihil rēfert

utrum postrēma syllaba brevis sit an longa. postrēma syllaba brevisne sit an longa. postrēma syllaba brevis an longa sit (CICERO). postrēma syllaba brevis sit longane.

MOODS IN INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

1. In Direct Ouestions.

- **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 homō 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 non paupertatem extimescit? C., Tusc., v. 31, 89; who does not dread poverty?

Remark.—Nonne and num in the direct question are often rhetorical (see Pl., Am., 539; C., Div., 1. 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. Të suspenditë, 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 hoc credat? who would believe this? [No one would believe this.] Quid faceret aliud? what else was he to do? [Nothing.]

Quis tulerit Gracchos de seditione querentes ? 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.

[Considerabimus] quid facerit (Indic. facit), quid faciat (Indic. facit), quid facturus sit (Indic. faciet or facturus 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). (Epaminondas) quaesivit salvusne esset clipeus, C., Fin., II. 30, 97; Epaminondas asked whether his shield was safe. (Salvusne est?)

The Subjunctive may be original. See 265.

Ipse docet quid agam; fās est et ab hoste docērī, Ov., M., Iv. 428 (219); (Quid agam, what I am to do; not what I am doing). Quaerō ā tē cūr C. Cornēlium non dēfenderem, C., Vat., 2, 5; I inquire of you why I was not to defend C. Cornelius. (Cūr non dēfenderem? why was I not to defend P)

Remarks.—I. Nesciō quis, nesciō quid, nesciō quī, 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.

Nescio quid māius nāscitur Īliade, Prop., 11. (111.) 32 (34), 66; something, I know not what, is coming to the birth, greater than the Iliad.

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, R. 2.)

Interrogative: dic quid rogem, tell me what it is I am asking.

Relative: dic quod rogo, 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:

Patefaciō vobīs quās istī penitus abstrūsās Insidiās (= Insidiās quās) sē posuissse 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 disconnected from the interrogative, which consequently appears as an independent sentence with the Indicative. This is most common after dic, responde, loquere, and kindred Imperatives; vidě (Plautus also circumspice, respice); të rogō, interrogō, quaero, and similar phrascs; audire, videre, etc., scin; relative words, ut, quomodo, 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 ūno verbo dic; quid est quod me velīs? Ter., And., 45; won't you tell me in one word: What is it you want of me? Die mihi quid feci nisi non sapienter amavi, Ov., Her., II. 27; tell me what have I done, save that I have loved

So also, nescio quomodo, I know not how = strangely; and mirum quantum, it

(is) marvellous how much = wonderfully, are used as adverbs:

Mirum quantum profuit ad concordiam, L., 11. 1, 11; it served wonderfully to promote harmony. Nescio quo pacto vel magis homines iuvat gloria lata quam magna, Plin., Ep., 1v. 12, 7; somehow or other, people are even more charmed to have a widespread regulation than a grand one.

Early Latin shows also perquam, admodum quam, nimis quam, incredibile quantum; Cicero mīrum (mīrē) quam, nimium quantum, sānē quam, valdē quam; CAESAR none of these; SALLUST immane quantum; Livy adds oppido quantum; Pliny Mai. immēnsum, infinītum 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 (Prolepsis).

Nosti Marcellum quam tardus sit, Caelius (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.

469. Contrary to our idiom, the interrogative is often used in participal clauses. In English, the participle and verb change places, and a Causal sentence becomes Final or Consecutive.

Quam ūtilitātem petentēs scīre cupimus illa quae occulta nōbīs sunt? C., Fin., 111. 11, 37; what advantage do we seek when we desire to know those things which are hidden from us? [Solon Pisistratō tyranno] quaerentī quā tandem rē frētus sibī tam audāciter resisteret, respondisse dīcitur senectūte, 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., 111. 80, 185.

470. Final sentences (sentences of Design) are used in questions more freely than in English.

Sessum it practor. Quid ut iūdicētur? C., N.D., 111. 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:

Considera quis quem fraudasse dicatur, C., Rosc. Com., 7, 21.

Yes and No.

471. (a) Yes is represented:

I. By sānē, (literally) soundly, sānē quidem, yes indeed, etiam, even (so), vērō (rarely vērum), of a truth, ita, so, omninō, by all means, certē, surely, certō, for certain, admodum, to a degree, etc.

Aut etiam aut non respondere [potest], C., Ac., II. 32, 104; he can answer either yes or no.

2. By censed, I think so; scilicet, to be sure.

Quid sI etiam occentem hymenaeum? Conseo, 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, vērō (principally with pronouns), sānē, prōrsus, etc.

Estisne? Sumus, are you? We are. Dasne? Do sane, C., Leg., 1.7, 21; do you grant? I do indeed.

(b) No is represented:

- I. By non, non vero, non ita, minime, by no means, nihil, nothing, minime vero, nihil sane, nihil minus.
 - 2. By repeating the emphatic word with the negative:

Non irāta es? Non sum irāta, Pl., Cas., 1007; you are not angry ? I am not.

(c) YEA or NAY.—Īmmō conveys a correction, and either removes a doubt or heightens a previous statement: yes indeed, nay rather.

Ecquid placeant (aedës) më rogës? Immo perplacent, PL., Most., 907; do I like the house, you ask me? Yes indeed, very much. Causa igitur non 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: Herl enim, inquit, hōc mihī 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 sī vīvet, let me live if she lives, my living depends on her living; yet "vīvam" is the principal, "sī vīvet" 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 elauses 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 formulæ, particularly in dating by the consuls of a year, if the praenomina are added; and finally, in summing up previous enumerations by such words as alii, ceteri, cuncti, multi, omnes, reliqui.

475. Et is simply *and*, the most common and general particle of connection, and combines likes and unlikes.

Pānem et aquam nātūra dēsīderat, Sen., E.M., 25, 4; bread and water (is what) nature calls for. Probitās laudātur et alget, Juv., 1. 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 recte quis sentiat et id, quod sentit, polite eloqui non possit, C., Tusc., 1. 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 Apollo, V., Ec., III. 104.

3. Et, instead of a temporal conjunction, begins with Caesar (Cf. B. G., 1. 37, 1) and Sallust (Iug., 97, 4); it is never common.

- 4. On neque ullus for et nullus 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 sepultusque Alexander, I., XXXVI. 20, 5; there Alexander died and was buried. [Sōl] oriēns et occidens diem noctemque cōnficit, 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 metrical 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 Taeitus always add the que to the pronoun, Livy and later prose writers to the substantive.

(c) et-que; rare, and beginning with Ennius.

(d) que—que begins with Plautus, Ennius. Cicero has it but once (noctësque diësque, Fin., 1. 16, 51); it enters prose with Sallust, and poets are fond of it.

Et domino satis et nimium fürique lupoque, Tib., iv. 1, 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).

Ac (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 urbis sunt hostes, 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 **Ecastor**, **profecto**, **vero**, etc., Pt., B., 86; C., Tusc., 1. 20, 46.

3. In comedy, atque has sometimes demonstrative force: atque eccum, Pr., St., 577.

4. Occasionally in Cicero, then in the Augustan poets, Livy and later prose writers, notably Taeitus, atque or āc is often used to connect the parts of a clause in which et or que (sometimes both) has been already employed:

Et potentës sequitur invidia et humilës abiectosque contemptus et turpës ac nocentës odium, Quint., iv. 1, 14; 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 mē, atque ego lembum cōnspicor, B., 279. Also Ep., 217.

7. Atque is used before consonants, as well as ac, to connect single notions: when sentences or clauses are to be connected, ac only is allowable; either atque or ac 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. Phraseological 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.

Nobis res familiaris etiam ad necessaria deest, Cf. S., C., 20, 11; we lack means even for the necessaries of life. Ad Appi Claudi senectütem accedebat etiam ut caecus esset, C., Cat. M., 6, 16 (553, 4).

Notes.—1. Etiam as a temporal adverb refers to the Past or Present, and means still; it is sometimes strengthened by tum (tune) or num (nune). But beginning with

LIVY, adhic, which properly refers only to the Present, is extended to the Past and used like etiam (tum).

Non satis me pernosti etiam qualis sim, Ter., And., 503; you still do not know well enough (= little know) what manner of person I am. Cum iste (i.e., Polemarchus) etiam cubaret, 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 verum et; also after nam and simul; more often when a pronoun follows, as et ille, et ipse. Caesar never uses it so, SALLUST rarely, but it becomes common from LIVY on.

3. Phraseological is etiam at que etiam, time and again. On etiam for yes, see 471. I.

479. Quoque, so also, complements (compare que) and always follows the words to which it belongs.

Cum patri (Timothei) populus statuam posuisset, filio quoque dedit, Cf. NEP., XIII. 2, 3; the people, having erected a statue in honour of the father of Timotheus, gave one to the son also (likewise).

REMARK.—The difference between etiam and quoque is not to be insisted on too rigidly:

Grande et conspicuum nostro quoque tempore monstrum, 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 vēro meā quoque etiam causā rogo, C., Or., 1. 35, 164.

2. Que in the sense of quoque is rare (compare mêque, CAT., CII. 3; me too), and is found chiefly in the post-Augustan hodieque, 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.

Opinionibus vulgi rapimur in errorem 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) properans noctem diei coniunxerat 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-non, 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 militavi non sine gloria, H., O., III. 26, 2; and I have been a soldier not without glory.

On nec non, the opposite of et non, see 449, R. 3.

2. In combination with the negative we have the following

Paradigms: And no one, neque quisquam, nor any one. And no. neque üllus, nor any. And nothing, neque quidquam, nor anything.

And never, neque umquam, nor ever. Neque amet quemquam nec amētur ab ūllō, 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 gloriam erat, Tac., Agr., 8, 3; he was beyond the reach of envy, and yet not beyond the reach of glory. Cf. Ter., Eun., 249; C., Tusc., 11., 25, 60.

Notes.—1. Neque = nē quidem, is ante-classical and post-classical: nec nunc, cum mē vocat ūltrē, accēdam? II., S., II. 3, 262 (the only case in Horace).

2. CAESAR, LUCRETIUS, VERGIL, and PROPERTIUS use neque regularly before yourds.

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 non, when followed by the strengthening words enim, tamen, vēro, 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 praeclāra facinora; many good qualities, multae bonaeque 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.

Phryges et Pisidae et Cilices, C., Div., I. 41, 92; or, Phryges, Pisidae, Cilices, Phrygians, Pisidians, and Cilicians.

Note.—Et before the third member of a series is rare, but occurs here and there at all periods; in Cloeko it usually draws especial attention to the last member. Atque (āc) is used thus a little more frequently (mores institūta atque vīta, C., Fam., xv. 4, 14), and que is not uncommon: aegritūdinēs, īrae libīdinēsque, C., Tusc., I. 33, 80.

3. Et is further omitted in climaxes, in antitheses, in phrases, and in formulæ.

Viri non [est] debilitari dolore, frangi, succumbere, C., Fin., 11. 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 idem, Mart., XII. 47, 1 (310).

Patres Conscripti, Fathers (and) Conscript (Senators).

Iuppiter Optimus Maximus, Father Jove, supremely good (and) great.

Other Particles Employed.

- **482.** Other particles are sometimes employed instead of the copulative in the same general sense.
- I. 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 Graece—tum Latīnē, partly in Greek, partly in Latin. Horātius Cocles nunc singulōs prōvocābat, nunc increpābat omnēs, Cf. L., 11. 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 Cassar, but not in Cicero; iam—iam begins with Vergil and Livy. Aliquandō—aliquandō, 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—plērumque; interdum-aliās; modo-tum; modo-vicissim; most of them found but once. Some fifteen other combinations are post-Ciceronian.
 - 3. On cum-tum, see 588.
- 2. Local: In Cicero only aliō—aliō; hinc—illinc. Others are: hīc—illīc (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 Lāodicēnī ūltrē 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.

Haec omnia ut invitis ita non adversantibus patriciis trānsācta, 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: non modo, non solum, non tantum, not only; sed, sed etiam, sed—quoque, vērum etiam, but even, but also:

Urbës maritimae non solum multis periculis oppositae [sunt] sed etiam caecis, C., Rep., 11. 3, 5: cities on the seaboard are liable not only to many dangers, but even (also) to hidden (ones). [Non] doceri tantum sed etiam delectari volunt, Quint., IV. 1, 57; they wish not merely to be taught, but to be tickled to boot.

In the negative form, non modo non, not only not; sed ne—quidem, but not even; sed vix, but hardly.

Ego non modo tibi non irāscor, sed no reprehendo 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.—I. Instead of non modo (solum) non—sed no—quidem, the latter non 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.

Pisone consule senatui non solum iuvare rem publicam sed no lügöre quidem licobat, 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. Nedum, 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.

Satrapa numquam sufferre ēius sümptūs queat, nēdum tū possīs, Ter., Heaut., 454; a nabob could never stand that girl's expenditures, much less could you.

Notes.—1. Non 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. Verum, in the second member, is not ante-classical nor Tacitean. Non 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; Tao., 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 20

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 recēdēns, C., N.D., 11. 40, 102; now approaching, then again receding. Rūmōribus mēcum pūgnās, ego autem ā tē ratiōnēs requīrē, C., N.D., 111. 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; bonum igitur quod est, honestum est, C., Fin., 111. 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 (*Epanorthōsis*),

Egon dēbacchātus sum autem an tū in mē? Ter., Ad., 185. Num quis tēstis Postumium appellāvit? Tēstis autem? non accūsātor? C., Rab. Post., 5, 10.

- 2. Antem 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.

Non est vivere sed valère vita, Mart., vi. 70, 15 (442, r. 2). Domitius nulla quidem arte sed Latine tamen dicebat, 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 ea coniuratione fuit Q. Curius, S., C., 23, 1.

- 2. Sed is repeated by anaphora (682), occasionally in Cicero (Verr., 111. 72, 169), more often later.
- 3. Sed may be strengthened by tamen; by vērō, enimyērō, enim; by autem, but only in connection with quid, and then only in comedy and in Vergus. Sometimes it is equal to sed tamen, as in V., A., IV. 660.
- ' 486. Vērum, it is true, true, always takes the first place in a sentence, and is practically equivalent to sed in its stronger sense.

SI certum est facere, faciam; vērum nē post conferās 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.

Note.—Vērum gradually gives place to sed in Cicero. It is used occasionally to return to the subject (vērum hace quidem hāctenus, C., Tusc., III. 34, 84), and in yielding a point (vērum estō, C., Fin., II. 23, 75), where sed is the usual word.

487. Vērō, of a truth, is generally put in the second place, asserts with conviction, and is used to heighten the statement.

[Platōnem] Diōn adeō admīrātus est ut sō tōtum eī trāderet. Neque vērō minus Platō dēlectātus est Diōne, 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. Vērō 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 vērum vērō is ante-classical; on combinations with enim, see 498, N. 6.

3. Vērō is also, but not so commonly, used in transitions; especially in the formulæ age vērō, iam vērō.

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 spēluncā 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 multīs malīs 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 vöbīs 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: sī minus suppliciō adficī, at cūstōdīrī oportēbat, C., Verr., v. 27, 69.

489. Atqui (but at any rate, but for all that) is still stronger than at, and is used chiefly in argument.

Vix credibile. Atqui sic habet, H., S., 1. 9, 52; scarce credible. But for all that, 'tis so.

Notes .- 1. Atquin is oceasional in early Latin, and even in Cicero.

2. At seems sometimes to be used for atqui. C., Tusc., 111. 9, 19.

490. Tamen (literally, even thus), nevertheless, is often combined with at, vērum, sed.

It is commonly prepositive, unless a particular word is to be made emphatic.

Nātūram expellēs furcā, tamen ūsque recurret, H., Ep., I. 10, 24; you may drive out Dame Nature with a pitchfork, for all that she will ever be returning. Domitius nūllā quidem arte sed Latīnē tamen dīcēbat, C., Br., II. 77, 267 (485).

Remark.—Nihilominus (nothing the less), nevertheless, is used like tamen, by which it is occasionally strengthened.

491. Ceterum, for the rest, is used by the Historians as an adversative particle.

Duo imperatores, ipsi pares ceterum opibus disparibus, S., Iug., 52, 1; two commanders, equal in personal qualities, but of unequal resources.

NOTE.—Cëterum 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 dīves, plūs minus, and the like.

- 493. 1. Aut, or, denotes absolute exclusion or substitution. Vinceris aut vincis, Prop., 11. 8, 8; you are conquered or conquering.
- 2. Aut is often corrective = or at least, at most, rather (aut saltem, aut potius).

Cüncti 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 partes aut frigore rigent aut uruntur calore, Cf. C., Tusc., 1. 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: němě tribūnôs aut plěbem timěbat, L., III. 16, 4.

2. Aut is sometimes equivalent to partly-partly in Tacitus:

Hausta aut obruta Campāniae ora, H., 1. 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 Cluvienus, Juv., 1. 80; I, or, if you choose, Cluvienus. Per mē vel stertās licet, nōn modo quiēscās, C., Ac., 11. 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. Epicūrus homō minimē 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).

[Miltiadēs dīxit] ponte rescissō rēgem vel hostium ferrō vel inopiā paucīs diēbus 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. 50.

3. Vel—vel is found in Plautus occasionally in the sense as well as, but in classical Latin is rigidly distinguished from et—et.

4. Aut is not uncommonly subdivided by vel—vel: aut canere vel voce 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. I, 1; twice or at most thrice (bis terque, twice and indeed as much as thrice, if not more).

Cur timeam dubitemve locum defendere? Juv., I. 103; why should I fear or hesitate to maintain my position? Aliquid faciend non faciend we ratio, 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., 1. 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 non adhibueris non convalesces, C., Fat., 12, 29; whether you employ a physician, or do not employ (one), you will not get well. Seu visa est catulis cerva fidelibus seu rüpit teretes Marsus aper plagās, H., O., I. I, 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 cāsū an manibus [Haterii] impedītus prociderat, 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.

Sēnsūs mīrificē conlocātī sunt; nam oculī tamquam speculātōrēs altissimum locum obtinent, C., N.D., 11. 56, 140; the senses are admirably situated; for the eyes, like watchmen, occupy the highest post. Piscēs ova relinquunt, facile enim illa aquā sustinentur, C., N.D., 11. 51, 129; fish leave their eggs, for they are easily kept alive by the water. [Themistoclēs] mūros Athēniēnsium restituit suo perīculo; namque Lacedaemonii prohibēre conātī sunt, NEP., 11. 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 AFRANIUS, 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., 1.51, 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 dē āctione ipsā plūra dīcam? (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., 932), but becomes firmly attached in the classical period in the forms **quisnam**, **ubinam**, etc., which, however, sometimes suffer tmesis and transposition in poetry (V., G., 4, 445).

6. In atenim (first in Cicero), nempe enim (ante-classical and post-classleal), sed enim (rarc), 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. Audi quid dicam. B. At enim taedet iam audire eadem miliëns, Ten., 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 Petro-

NIUS and GELLIUS; also after ut and ne in early Latin.

- 8. Quippe is originally interrogative. From this the causal force developes, 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, idcircō, quōcircā, proptereā, 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.

Nëmo ausus est Phocionem liber sepelire; 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.

Mihǐ non satisfacit. Sed quot homines tot sententiae; falli igitur possumus, C., Fin., 1. 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 me suam esse; non ergo haec mater mea est, Pl., Ep., 590; she says that I am not her daughter, therefore she is not my mother.

Notes.—1. In the Poets erg of 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 ergo is found in TERENCE and LIVY; ergo igitur in PLAUTUS.
- 503. Other Coördinating Conjunctions: hine, hence, is found not unfrequently: hine illae lacrumae, Ter., And., 126. Inde, thence, therefore, is rare, and first in Cicero, but more common in later Latin. E5, therefore, is found in early Latin, rarely in Cicero (Fam., vi. 20, 1), not in Caesar or Sallust; again in Livy and later; so ide5, on that account, but atque ide5 is found once in Caesar. Ideiro5, on that account, is rare, but from the earliest times. Quōciro5, 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 time, rarely later; proptere5, on that account, is rare, and belongs to early Latin. Proin, proinde, accordingly, are employed in exhortations, appeals, and the like.

Quod praeceptum (nosce të ipsum), quia maius erat quam ut ab homine vidërëtur, idcirco assignatum est deo, 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 exeant aut quiescant, C.,

Cat., 11. 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** Oblīqua.

2. Ōrātiō Oblīqua, or *Indirect Discourse*, is opposed to Ōrātiō Rēcta, or *Direct Discourse*, and gives the main drift of a speech and not the exact words. Ōrātiō Oblīqua, 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.

Socrates dicere solebat :

- Ö. R. Omnēs in eō quod sciunt satis sunt ēloquentēs.
 - Socrates used to say: "All men are eloquent enough in what they understand."
- O. O. Omnes in eo quod scirent satis esse eloquentes, 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*.
 - 0. R. Nova nupta dicit: Fleo quod ire necesse est.

The bride says: I weep because I must needs go.

- 0. O. Nova nupta dicit se flere quod fre necesse sit.
 - The bride says that she weeps because she must needs go.
- O. R. Nova nupta flet quod ire necesse est, Cf. Cat., LXI. 81.
 The bride weeps because she must go.
- 0. O. Nova nupta flet quod ire necesse sit.

The bride is weeping because "she must go" (quoth she).

4. Akin to $\overline{\mathbf{0}}$. $\mathbf{0}$. 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 dubito quin nova nupta fleat quod fre necesse sit. I do not doubt that the bride is weeping because she must go.

Remark.—The full discussion of Ö. O. must, of course, be reserved for a later period. See 648.

SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

509. 1. 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, 1.)
- 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, n. 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 Pluperfect 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. PR. (PURE cognosco. I am finding out, quid faciās, or Hist.), what you are doing; I shall (try quid fēcerīs, FUT. cognoscam, find out, what you have done, PURE PF., cognovi. I have found out what you have been doing (what you did), (I know).cognovero. I shall have found what you were doing FUT. Pr.. (before). out (shall know), HIST. PR., cognosco, I am (was) finding quid faceres, what you were doing: out. I was finding out, IMPF., cognoscebam, quid fēcissēs. what you had done, what HIST. Pr., cognovi, I found out, you had been doing, PLUPF., cognoveram, I had found out what you were doing (I knew),(before).

When the Subjunctive is original, we have:

cognosco, etc., I am finding out, { quid facias, quid faceres, what generally etc., I knew, quid faceres, what generally etc., what generally etc., what generally etc.

what you are to do. what you were to do. what you were to do.

Principal Tenses.

Nihil refert postrema syllaba brevis an longa sit, Cf. C., Or., 64, 217 (461). Ubit (Caesarem) örant (historical) ut sibi pareat, Caes., B. G., vi. 9,

7 (546, 1). Němỗ adeō ferus est ut nōn mitěscere possit, Π ., Ep., 1. 1, 39 (552). Nec mea qui digitis lūmina condat erit, Ov., Her., 10, 120 (631, 2). Rūsticus exspectat dum dēfluat amnis, H., Ep., 1. 2, 42 (572). Post mortem in morte nihil est quod metuam mali, Pl., Capt., 741 (631, 2). Ārdeat ipsa licet, tormentīs gaudet amantis, Juv., vi. 209 (607).

Utrum nescīs quam altē ascenderis an prō nihilō id putās? C., Fam., x. 26, 3 (458). Laudat Āfricānum Panaetius quod fuerit abstinēns, C., Off., II. 22, 76 (542). Nōn is es ut tē pudor umquam ā turpitūdine revocārit, C., Cat., 1. 9, 22 (552). Quem mea Calliopē laeserit ūnus egō (sum), Ov., Tr., II. 568 (631, I). Sim licet extrēmum, sīcut sum, missus in orbem, Ov., Tr., IV. 9, 9 (607). Multī fuērunt quī tranquillitātem expetentēs ā negōtiīs pūblicīs sē remōverint, C., Off., I. 20, 69 (631, 2).

Historical Tenses.

Epaminondās quaesīvit salvusne esset clipeus, C., Fin., 11. 30, 97 (467). Noctū ambulābat in pūblico Themistoclēs quod somnum capere non posset, C., Tusc., 1v. 19, 44 (541). [Athēniēnsēs] creant decem praetorēs quī exercituī praeessent, Nep., 1. 4, 4 (545). Accidit ut ūnā nocte omnēs Hermae dēicerentur, Nep., vii. 3, 2 (513, R. 2). Ad Appī Claudī senectūtem accēdēbat etiam ut caecus esset, C., Cat.M., 6, 16 (553, 4). Hannibal omnia priusquam excēderet pūgnā (erat) expertus, L., xxx. 35, 4 (577). (Āgēsilāus) cum ex Aegyptō reverterētur dēcēssit, Nep., xvii. 8, 6 (585).

Tanta opibus Etrūria erat ut iam non terrās solum sed mare etiam fāmā nominis sul implēsset, L., 1. 2, 5 (521, R. 1). Cum prīmi ordinēs hostium concidissent, tamen ācerrimē reliqui resistēbant, CAES., B.G., VII. 62, 4 (587). Dēlēta (est) Ausonum gēns perinde āc sī internecīvo bello certāsset, L., 1x. 25, 9 (602).

Original Subjunctive Retained.

Ipse docet quid agam (original, agam); fās est et ab hoste docērī, Ov., M., Iv. 428 (219). Quaerō ā tē cūr ego C. Cornēlium non dēfenderem (original, dēfenderem), C., Vat., 2, 5 (467). Mīsērunt Delphos consultum quid facerent (original, faciāmus), NEP., II. 2, 6 (518).

REMARKS.—I. 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 sibi 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 curet quod dixisset, 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 homines Iovem appellarent, 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 habērēs et habēre possēs, exposul, 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 expertī, C., Ph., x. 4, 8. Quis mīles fuit, quī Brundisiī illam nōn vīderit, C., Ph., 11. 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., Pure Pr., Fur., Fur. Pr.,	edunt, ēdērunt, edent, ēderint,	they are eating, they have eaten, they will eat, they will have eaten,	that they may live (to live).
IMPF., PLUPF., HIST. PF.,		they were eating, they had eaten, they ate,	that they might live (to live).

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 pennīs fovent pullōs nē frīgore laedantur, Cf. C., N.D., II. 52, 129 (545). Lēgem brevem esse oportet quō facilius ab imperītīs teneātur, Sen., E.M., 94, 38 (545). Mē praemīsit domum haec ut nūntiem uxōrī suae, Pl., Am., 195; he has sent me home ahead of him, to take the news to his wife. Oculōs ecfodiam tibī nē mē observāre possīs, 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 dēsīderia nātūrae, C., Fin., II. 8, 25; Laelius used to go to table, to satisfy the cravings of nature. (Phaēthōn) optāvit ut in currum patris tollerētur, C., Off., III. 25, 94 (546, 1).

REMARK.—Parenthetical final sentences like ut ita dicam, në errëtis, are really dependent on the thought or utterance of the speaker, and have the present sequence everywhere.

No longior sim, valo, C., Fam., xv. 19; not to be tedious, farewell!

No tamen ignores, virtute Neronis Armenius cecidit, II., Ep., 1. 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. Snbjv. are sometimes found in sentences of Design, chiefly in earlier and later Latin (no example is cited from Caesar of 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 audeō mē omnī ope adnīsūrum esse nē frūstrā 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 concēpissētis.) Nunc agendum est nē frūstrā oppressum esse Antōnium gāvīsī sīmus, C., ad Br., I. 4, 3. Hic obsistam, nē imprūdentī hūc ea sē subrēpsit (131, 4, b. 2) mihī, PL., M. G., 333. Effēcit nē cūius alterīus sacrilegium rēs pūblica quam Nerōnis sēnsisset, Tac., Agr., 6.

When the tense is compound, the participle is usually to be considered as a mere adjective,

Patronus extiti uti në [Sex. Roscius] omnino dësertus esset, C., Rosc.Am., 2, 5; where desertus = solus.

2. Occasional apparent exceptions are to be explained in various ways. Thus, in C., Sest., 14, 32: ctiamne ëdicere audeës në maerërent, we have a repetition as an indignant question of the preceding statement: ëdicunt (Hist. Pr.) duo consules ut ad suum vestitum senëtores 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 Verres] per triennium ita vexavit ut ea restitul in antiquum statum nüllö 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 [Lücullō] tanta prūdentia 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 sīc obiīt ut in eā neque avāritiae neque lūxuriae vēstīgium relīquerit, 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):

Equites hostium acriter cum equitatu nostro conflixerunt, tamen ut nostro es in silvas collesque 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 remisso ac languido animo quisquam omnium fuit qui ea nocte conquieverit, CAES., B.C., 1. 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.—I. After a Pure Pf., if the dependent clause is affirmative, CICERO 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 una nocte omnes Hermae deicerentur, 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 ωστε. Examples are not found in early Latin, are rare in Cleero, very rare in Cleero, perhaps not at all in Sallust; more frequent in Livy, common in Tacitus, very common in Nepos and Suetonius, etc.

2. In two coordinated 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 Ciero, and is cited but once each from Caesar (B. G., vii. 17) and Velleus (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 modō is erat quī nervōs virtūtīs incīderit, sed contrā quī omnia in virtūte pōneret, C., 4c., 1. 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 perfūgerit, L., xxiv. 40, 12. Here the tenses depend on the ideas of continuance and completion, of the many and the single (nōn capiēbant—rēx perfūgit).

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 fēcistī quī mē certiorem fēcerīs, C., Att., XIII. 43, 1. Cum hōc Pompēius vehementer ēgit cum dīceret, etc., C., Att., II. 22, 2. Videor mihī grātum fēcisse Siculīs, quod eorum iniūriās sim persecūtus, C., Verr., 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.

Cōgnōscam,

I shall (try to) find out,

Cōgnōverō,

I shall have found out (shall know),

quid faciās, what you are doing (will be doing).

quid feceris, what you have done (will have done).

(b) But whenever the dependent Future is subsequent to the leading Future, the Periphrastic Tense must be employed.

Cōgnōscam,

I shall (try to) find out,

Cōgnōverō,

I shall have found out (shall know).

quid factūrus sīs,

what you are going to do (what
you will do).

[Considerabimus], [we shall consider].

A. Quid fecerit aut quid ipsī acciderit aut quid dixerit, what he has done, or what has happened to him, or what he has said.

B. Aut quid faciat, quid ipsī accidat, quid dicat, or, what he is doing, what is happening to him, what he is saying.

C. Aut quid factūrus sit, quid ipsī eāsūrum sit, quā sit ūsūrus ērātiēne, C., Inv., 1. 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 quid sis āctūrus pergrātum erit sī ad mē scrīpseris, 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.

Cognosco,

I am finding out,

Cognovi,

I have found out (know).

quid factūrus sis (what you are going to do), what you will do.

Cognoscebam,

I was trying to find out,
Cōgnōveram,
I had found out.

quid factūrus essēs (what you were going to do), what you would do.

Tam ea res est facilis ut innumerabilis natura mundos effectura 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.

Incertum est quam longa cüiusque nostrum vita futüra sit, C., Verr., 1. 58, 153; it is uncertain how long the life of each one of us is going to be (will be).

Anteā dubitābam ventūraene essent legionēs; nunc mihš non est dubium quīn ventūrae non sint, C., Fam., 11. 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 fuissēs, (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 futurum sit, esset ut, as:

Non dubito quin futurum sit, I do not doubt

ut redierit, that he will have returned.

ut macreat, that he will grieve.

ut necetur, that he will be killed.

But there is no warrant in actual usage.

For the dependent Fnt. Pf. act. Terence says (*Hec.*, 618): Tuā rēfert nīl utrum illaec fēcerint quandō haec aberit.

For the dependent Fut. Pf. pass. Cicero says (Fam., vi. 12, 3): Nec dubitō quīn 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. (248, R.)

3. When the preceding verb has a future character (Fear, Hope, Power, Will, and the like), the simple Subjv. is sufficient.

Galli, nisi perfrēgerint mūnītiōnēs, dē omnī salūte dēspērant; Rōmānī, sī rem obtinuerint, fīnem labōrum omnium exspectant, Caes., B.G., vii. 85, 3; the Gauls despair of all safety unless they break through (sall have broken through) the fortifications; the Romans look forward to an end of all their toils, if they hold their own (shall have held). Vēnērunt querentēs nec spem ūllam esse resitentil, nisi praesidium Rōmānus mīsisset, 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. Intentī quandō hostis inprūdentiā rueret, Tac., H., II. 34.

Of course the Deliberative Subjunctive is future: Examples, 265.

Et certamen habent leti, quae viva sequatur coniugium, Prop., IV. 12, 19 (M.).

516. Sequence of Tenses in Ōrātiō Oblīqua: In Ōrātiō Oblīqua and kindred constructions, the attraction of tenses ap-

plies also to the representatives of the Future and Future Perfect Subjunctive.

In [clāvā] erat scrīptum nisi domum reverterētur sē capitis eum damnātūrōs, Nep., Iv. 3, 4; it was written on the staff that if he did not return home, they would condemn him to death. (Ōrātiō Rēcta: nisi domum revertēris, tē capitis damnābimus, unless you (shall) return home, we will condemn you to death). Pēthia praecēpit ut Miltiadem sibī imperātōrem sūmerent; id sī fēcissent (Ō. R., fēcerītis) incepta prōspera futūra (Ō. R., erunt), Nep., I. 1, 3; the Pythia instructed them to take Miltiades for their general; that if they did that, their undertakings would be successful. Lacedaemonii, Philippō minitante per lītterās sē omnia quae cōnārentur (Ō. R., cōnābiminī) prohibitūrum, quaesīvērunt num sē esset etiam morī prohibitūrus (Ō. R., prohibēbis), C., Tusc., v. 14, 42; the Lacedaemonians, 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 Imperative and the Present and Perfect Subjunctive have the Sequences of the Principal Tenses; the Imperfect and Pluperfect have the Sequences of the Historical Tenses.

[Nē] compone comās quia sīs ventūrus ad illam, Ov., Rem.Am., 679; do not arrange (your) locks because (forsooth) you are going to see her. Excellentibus ingeniīs 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 Epicūrēum esse, sī probārem quae ille dīceret? C., Fin., I. 8, 27; what would prevent me from being an Epicurean if I approved what he said (says)? Tum ego tē prīmus hortārer 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 scīsset 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 Historical Tense, it takes the historical Sequence:

Māgna culpa Pelopis quī non 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 scīs an eā causā mē odisse 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?

So also in the Conditional proposition, when the action is past. For varying conception, see C., Off., III. 24, 92.

2. The Impf. Subjy., being used in opposition to the Present, might be treated as a Principal Tense, but the construction is less usual:

Vererer ne immodicam orationem putares nisi esset generis eius ut saepe incipere saepe desinere videatur, 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. O ego ne possim tālēs sentīre dolorēs 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.

Dīcit sē interrogāre (original interrogo),

He says that he is asking,

Dīcit sē interrogāsse (original interrogāvī), He says that he asked, Dīxit sē interrogāre (original interrogo).

He said that he was asking,

quid agās, quid ēgerīs, quid āctūrus sis, what you are doing. what you have done. what you are going to do (will do).

quid agerēs, quid ēgissēs,

what you were doing. what you had done. quid āctūrus essēs, what you were going to do (would do).

Mihi interroganti, when I ask him. (literally: to me asking).

Mihi interroganti, when I asked him, (literally: to me asking), quid agat, what he is doing, non requid egerit, what he has spondet. done. he gives quid acturus what he is going no ansit, to do (will do), swer. quid ageret, what he was doing. non requid ēgisset, what he had spondit, done. he gave quid āctūrus no anwhat he was goesset, swer. ing to do.

Apud Hypanim fluvium Aristotelēs ait bēstiolās quāsdam nāscī quae ūnam diem vīvant, C., Tusc., 1. 39, 94 (650). Satis mihi multa verba fēcisse videor quare esset hoc bellum necessarium, C., Imp., 10, 27; I think I have said enough (to show) why this war is necessary. Apelles pictores eos

peccare dicebat 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. Athenienses Cyrsilum quendam suadentem ut in urbe manerent lapidibus obruerunt, C., Off., III. II, 48 (546). Cupido incessit animos iuvenum seiscitandi ad quem eorum regnum Romanum esset venturum, 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 Delphos 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 mihī grātum fēcisse Siculīs quod eōrum iniūriās meō perículō 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 ā tē cūr Gāium Cornēlium non dēfenderem, C., Vat., 2, 5 (467).

2. On the behaviour of Conditional Subjunctives in dependence see 597, R. 4.

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 vī suā, non aliēnā movērī, C., Tusc., 1. 23, 55; the mind feels that it moves by its own force, (and) not by that of another. Quaesīvērunt num sē esset etiam morī prohibitūrus, C., Tusc., v. 14, 42 (516). Pompēius ā mē petīvit ut sēcum 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 libros quos frāter suus relīquisset mihī donāvit, C., Att., 11. 1, 12; Paetus presented to me all the books (as he said) that his brother had left (quos frāter ēius relīquerat, would be the statement of the narrator).

REMARKS.—I. 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 sic Servium diligēbat ut is ēius vulgō habērētur filius, C., Rep. II. 21, 38; Tarquin loved Servius so that he was commonly considered his son. But Tanta opibus Etrūria erat ut iam non terrās solum sed mare etiam fāmā nominis sul implēsset, I., 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 invitor sibi 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 formulæ (309, 3), as se recipere, to withdraw, etc.

(Rōmānī) suī colligendī hostibus facultātem (nōn) relinquunt, Caes., B.G., 111. 6, 1 (309, 3).

3. The Reflexive is used in general sentences, as one, one's self, etc. (309, 1): Déforme est do so ipsum praedicare, C., Off., 1. 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:

Socrates inhonestam sibř credidit orationem quam el Lysias reo composuerat, 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 iis urbibus quae ad sē dēfēcerant praesidia impēnit, S., Iug., 61, 1; Metellus put garrisons in those towns which had gone over to him; regularly, ad eum.

Ille habet quod sibi debebātur, Petr., 43, 1; he has his due; regularly, eī.

5. Sometimes the Demonstrative is used instead of the Reflexive, because the narrator presents his point of view:

Solon, quō tūtior vīta ēius esset, furere sē simulāvit, C., Off., 1. 30, 108; Solon feigned madness that his life might be the safer. (The notion of Result intrudes.) Pompēius īgnēs fierī prohibuit, quō occultior esset ēius adventus, CAES., B.C., 111. 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:

Vītis sī macra erit, sarmenta sua concīditō minūtē, Cato, Agr., 37, 3.

But sentences like eum fēcisse āiunt quod sibi faciundum fuit (Pt., Poen., 956), where the relative clause is but a circumlocution for officium suom, belong properly under R. 4. Similarly, C., Inv., 1. 33, 55. In the sentence, Cicerō tibǐ mandat, ut Aristodēmō idem dē sē respondeās quod dē frātre suō respondistī (C., Att., 11. 7, 5), dē frātre ēius would jar on account of the sē to which it refers.

2. Examples of Reflexives pointing both ways:

[Romāni] lēgātos mīsērunt quī ā [Prūsiā] peterent nō inimīcissimum suum (= Romānorum) apud sē (= Prūsiam) habēret, Nep., xxiii. 12, 2; the Romans sent ambassadors to ask Prusias not to keep their bitterest enemy at his court. Agrippa Atticum flēns orābat atque obsecrābat ut sē sibī suīsque reservāret, 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 meus dare illī damnās estō omnia 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:

(Helvētii) Allobrogibus sēsē vel persuāsūrōs existimābant vel vī coāctūrōs ut per suōs fīnēs eōs īre paterentur, Caes., B.G., 1.6,3; 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 $\overline{\bf 0}$. $\bf 0$. (660.)

Eius and Sul.

522. Alexander moriëns anulum suum dederat Perdiccae, NEP., XVIII. 2, 1; Alexander, [when] dying, had given his ring to Perdiccas.

Perdiccās accēperat ēius ānulum, Perdiccas had received his ring.

Quare Alexander declaraverat se regnum el commendasse, thereby, Alexander had declared that he had committed the kingdom to him.

Ex quo Perdiccas coniocerat eum rognum sibi commendasse, from this Perdiccas had gathered that he had committed the kingdom to him.

Ex quō omnēs coniecerant eum rēgnum eī commendāsse, from this, all had gathered that he had committed the kingdom to him.

Perdiccas postulavit ut se regem haberent cum Alexander anulum sibi dedisset, Perdiccas demanded that they should have him for king, as Alexander had given the ring to him.

Amīcī postulāvērunt ut omnēs eum rēgem habērent cum Alexander anu-

lum el dedisset, (his) friends demanded that all should have him for king, as Alexander had given the ring to him. (Lattmann and Müller.)

Ita sö gesserat Perdiccās ut ei rēgnum ab Alexandrō commendārētur, Perdiccas had so behaved himself that the kingdom was intrusted to him by Alexander.

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, x, 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 \mathbf{quod} and its antecedent is adverbial. They are Accusatives of Extent, that = in that, and are to be classed under the Inner Object (332). But after transitive verbs \mathbf{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 vcrb or it would be in adverbial or prepositional relation. We have then two uses of the explanatory clause; (a) with verbs, with or without an antecedent demonstrative; (b) as explanatory of an antecedent (expressed or implied) in adverbial 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 hūc quod perfertī lītterae nūllā condicione potuērunt, Pollio (C., Fam., x. 31, 4); add to this the fact that letters could under no circumstances be got through. Adde quod ingenuās didicisse fidēliter artēs ēmollit morēs nec sinit esse feros, Ov., Pont., 11. 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. Praetereō quod

eam sibi domum delegit, C., Cluent., 66, 188; I pass over the fact that he chose that house for himself. Bene facis quod me adiuvās, C., Fin. 111. 4, 16; you do well (in) that you help me. Accidit perincommode quod eum nūsquam vidisti, C., Att., 1. 17, 2; it happened very unfortunately that you saw him nowhere. Bene mihi evenit quod mittor ad mortem, C., Tuse., 1. 41, 97; it is fortunate for me that I am sent to death (execution).

Notes.—1. Of verbs of Adding adicere is introduced by Livy, addere is cited once each from Accius (209, R.) and Terence (Ph., 168), then more often from Lucretius, 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 praetereo, mitto,

and omitto (C., Att., VIII. 3, 3) are cited (all classical).

2. Esse is found mostly in the combinations quid (hōc) est quod, why is it that, this is why, which are confined to early Latin: Scin quid est quod ego ad tō veniō? P.L., Men., 677; hōc est quod ad vōs veniō, P.L., St., 127. Est quod, nihil est quod, etc., occur here and there later, but the effect of the negative on the mood is noteworthy. Compare positive sed est quod suscēnset tibi (Ter., And., 448); there is something that makes him angry with you, with negative nihil est iam quod mihi suscēnseās (P.L., 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, that?

Quid quod simulāc mihi collibitum est praestō est imāgō ? C., N.D., 1. 38, 108; what is to be said of the fact that the image presents itself as soon as I see fit? (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 Claudi senectütem accēdēbat ut etiam caecus esset, C., Cat.M., 6,16 (553, 4), or, quod caecus erat. Accēdīt quod patrem plūs etiam quam ipse scit amē, C., Att., XIII. 21, 7; besides, Ilove the father even more than he himself knows. But when the action is prospective or conditional, ut must be used:

Additur ad hanc dēfīnītionem ā Zēnone rēctē ut illa opīnio praesentis malī

sit recens, C., Tusc., III. 31, 75.

6. Quod with verbs of Motion as an adverbial Acc. is confined to early Latin and to

veniō (PL., Men., 677) and mittō (PL., Ps., 639).

- 7. The extension of quod to verba sentiend et dicend is very nnusual. One example in early Latin (PL., Asin., 52) is much disputed; suspicious examples are C., Fam., III. 8, 6; Caes., B.C., I. 23, 8, but a certain example is in b.Hisp. (ro, 2), renuntiarunt quod haberent. The only case in Augustan poets V., A., V. 289; 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.

Mihř quidem videntur hominës hāc rē māximē bēstils praestāre, quod loquī possunt, C., Inv., 1. 4; to me men seem to excel beasts most in this, that they have the power of speech. Praeterquam quod fierī non potuit, nē fingī quidem potest, C., Div., 11. 12, 28; besides the fact that this could not be done, it could not even be made up. Nīl habet infēlix paupertās

dūrius in sē quam quod (= id quod) rīdiculōs hominēs facit, Juv., III. 152; unhappy poverty hath in itself nothing harder (to bear) than that it makes people ridiculous. Māgnum beneficium [est] nātūrae quod necesse est morī, Sen., E.M., 101, 14 (204). Quod spīrō et placeō, sī placeō, tuum 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, dō 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. v., v.). The prepositional usages with the Acc. are ad id quod (only in Livy); super id quod (only in Tacitus); praeter quod (Florus and late writers); prae quod (Plautus only). Similar is exceptō quod (Hor., Quint.). As praeter and super are comparative in force, we find praeter quam quod (early Latin, Cic., and later), super quam quod (only in Livy). Similar to praeter 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 sõ sectārī dicat, etc. (Pl., M. G., 162). This is explained as being the Potential Subjv., inasunch 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, 66; 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 aliquanto; 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 **Ōrātiō Oblīqua**.

Cum Castam accūsārem nihil magis pressī quam quod accūsātor ēius praevāricātionis crīmine corruisset, Plin., Ep., 111. 9, 34; when I accused Casta there was no point that I laid more stress on than (what I stated) "that her accuser 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 sentiendī et dēclārandī), and similar expressions, take the Accusative and Infinitive:

Thales Mīlesius aquam dīxit esse initium rērum, C., N.D., 1. 10, 25;

Thales of Miletus said that water was the first principle of things. [Solon] furere sẽ simulāvit, C., Off., 1. 30, 108; Solon pretended to be mad. Medicī causā morbī inventā cūrātiōnēm 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. Audiet cīvēs acuisse ferrum, H., O., 1. 2, 21; [the youth] shall hear that citizens gave edge to steel. Tīmāgenēs auctor est omnium in lītterīs studiōrum antīquissimam 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. (O. O.)

without any formal notice.

REMARKS.—I. Verba sentiendi comprise two classes, those of (a) Actual and those of (b) Intellectual Perception. Some verbs, such as sentire, vidère, cernere, audire, belong to both classes. Otherwise the most common are:

- (a) Conspicari, conspicere, aspicere, suspicere, prospicere, also rarely tueri and somniare (early).
- (b) Intellegere, cognoscere, comperire, scire, nescire, and less commonly, but Ciceronian, discere, ignorare, accipere, animadvertere, perspicere, etc.
- 2. Verba dēclārandī can likewise be divided into two classes: (a) those of Actual and (b) those of Intellectual Representation; but the classes often fade into cach 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 : putare, ducere, arbitrārī, cēnsēre, sūspicārī, crēdere, existimāre, meminisse, confidere, spērāre, dēspērāre. Then dicere, ēdicere, affirmāre, confirmāre, āio (rare), loqui (rare), negare, fateri, narrare, tradere, scribere, nuntiare, ostendere, probare, gloriari, demonstrare, persuadere, significare, polliceri, promittere, minārī, simulāre, dissimulāre, etc.; conclūdere, colligere, efficere. Also ponere, to suppose (rare), facere, to represent. Similar expressions are spēs est, opīniō 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 carly Latin, Caesar, and later.

Refracturos carcerem minabantur, 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. Spērō mē hōc 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., 11. 56, 116), in which tē may be subject or object.

Real ambiguity is to be avoided by giving the sentence a passive turn:

Āiōā tē, Aeacidā, Rōmānōs vincī posse, I affirm that the Romans can be conquered by thee, son of Aeacus.

Aiō tē, Aeacidā, ā Rōmānīs vincī posse, I affirm that thou, son of Aeacus, 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 are consciously influenced by a rivalry with the Greek.

Audiō cīvēs acuentēs ferrum, (f. II., O., I. 2,21; I hear citizens sharpen(ing) the steel. Audiō ā cīvibus acuī ferrum, I hear that the steel is sharpened by citizens; or, the steel as it is sharpened by citizens. Octāvium (dolōre) cōnficī vīdī, C., Fīn., II. 28,93; I have seen Octavius (when he was) wearing out with anguish. Vīdī histriōnēs flentēs ēgredī, Quint., vi. 2,35; I have seen actors leave the stage weeping.

(Platō) ā Deō aedificārī mundum facit, C., N.D., 1. 8, 19; Plato makes out that the universe is built by God. Polyphēmum Homērus cum ariete conloquentem facit, C., Tusc., v. 39, 115 (536). Fac, quaesō, quī 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., Asin., 634.

Phasēlus ille, quem vidētis, hospitēs, ait fuisse nāvium celerrimus, CAT., IV. I; that pinnace yonder, which you see, my stranger guests, declares she used to be (claims to have been) the fastest craft afroat.

There is one example in CICERO (Agr., II. 21, 57).

3. The use of the Acc. and Inf. with verba declarand 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 Oratio 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

Tradunt Homerum caecum fuisse, they say that Homer was blind, we should have.

Trāditur Homērus caecus fuisse, Homer is said to have been blind, or,

[Traditum] est Homerum caecum fuisse, C., Tusc., v. 39, 114; there is a tradition that Homer was blind.

[Aristaeus] inventor oleī esse dīcitur, C., Verr., IV. 57, 128; Aristaeus is said to be the inventor of oil. Terentī fābellae propter ēlegantiam sermönis putābantur ā Laeliō scrībī, C., Att., VII. 3, 10; Terence's plays, on account of the elegance of the language, were thought to be written by Laelius. [Sī Vēiōs migrābimus] āmīsisse patriam vidēbimur, L., V. 53, 5; if we remove to Veji, we shall seem to have lost our country. Reus damnātum īrī vidēbātur, Quint., IX. 2, 88 (435, N. 4). Crēditur Pythagorae audītōrem fuisse Numam, L., XI. 29, 8; it is believed that Numa was a hearer of Pythagoras.

But:

[Venerem] Adonidī nūpsisse proditum est, C., N.D., III. 23, 59; it is recorded that Venus married Adonis. (Philonem) existimandum est disertum fuisse, C., Or., I. 14, 62; we must suppose that Philo was eloquent.

REMARKS.—I. The impersonal construction is the rule if a Dat. is combined with the verb: mihī nūntiābātur Parthōs trānsīsse 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, dictur 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. Vidērī is used, as a rule, personally; the impersonal construction vidētur is rare. The active forms trādunt, crēdunt, etc., are everywhere common.

Notes.—1. In early Latin the personal construction is found with argul, cluere (a virtual passive), dici, existimari, inveniri, juberi, nüntiari, perhiberi, reperiri. All these, except cluere, 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 cluëre, are rare; apparëre, constare, venire in suspicionem, are Ciceronian; so also opus est in [C.], Fam., XI. II, 2, and perhaps

TER., And., 337.

3. A second clause following a Nom, with the Inf. takes its subj. in the Accusative C., Or., 11, 74, 299.

4. In verbs of Saying, except dico (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 Sentlendī et Dēciārandī.

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,

H. T. Dicēbat: tē errāre,

He was saying, that you were going

wrong,

PASSIVE.

tē dēcipī,

that you are (being) deceived (217, R.).

tē dēcipī,

that you were (being) deceived.

Prior Action.

P. T. Dīcit: 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). H. T. Dicebat: te errasse,

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. Dīcit: tē errātūrum esse,

He says, that you (are about to go wrong), will (be) go(ing) wrong,

të dëceptum îri.

that you (are going to) will be de-

H. T. Dicēbat: tē errātūrum esse,

He was saying, that you were about to (would) go wrong,

të dëceptum îri,

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 errēs (metuās),

fore (futūrum esse) ut errāverīs (rare), fore ut dēcipiāris (metuāris),

fore ut dēceptus sīs (rare), nsually dēceptum fore (not futūrum esse).

H. T. Dicēbat: fore (futūrum esse) ut errārēs (metuerēs), errāssēs (rare), fore ut dēciperēris (metuerēris), dēceptum fore (rarely: fore ut dēceptus essēs).

Notes.-1. For examples of the Periphrastic, see 248.

Carthaginionses debellatum mox fore rebantur, I., XXIII. 13,6; the Carthaginians thought that the war would soon be (have been) brought to an end. From debellatum erit, it will be (have been) brought to an end. So in the deponent adeptum fore.

2. Ponderous periphrastics are of rare occurrence. So fētiālēs dēcrēvērunt utrum eōrum fēcisset rēctē factūrum (L., xxxl. 8); not fore ut fēcisset, although the \overline{O} . R. requires utrum fēcerīs, rēctē fēcerīs. (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 (pollicērī), 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 quī polliceantur obsidēs dare, CAES., B.G., IV. 21, 5; ambassa-

dors 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 Galliae sēsō potīrī posse (= potītūrōs esse) spērant, CAES.. B. G., I. 3, 8; they hope they can (will) get possession of the whole of Gaul. See 423, N. 5.

Of course sperare 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 më flëre, dolendum est primum ipsi tibi, H., A.P., 102; if you wish me to weep, you must first feel the pang yourself. Utrum [Milōnis] corporis an Pythagorae tibi mälis virës 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 të meminisse deus, Mart., 11.59 (376). Vitae summa brevis spem nös vetat inchoäre longam, H., O., 1.4, 15 (423, N. 6). Nëmë îre quemquam püblicā prohibet viä, Pl., Curc., 35 (389). Germānī vinum ad sē omnīnē importārī nēn sinunt, Caes., B.G., IV. 2, 6; the Germans do not permit wine to be imported into their country at all.

REMARKS.-I. 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:

NI pārēre velīs, pereundum erit ante lucernās, Juv., x. 339; unless you resolve to obey, you will have to perish before candle-light. Et iam māllet equōs numquam tetigisse paternōs, 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:

(Timoleon) māluit sẽ dīligī quam metuī, Nep., xx. 3, 4; Timoleon preferred that he should be loved rather than that he should be feared. Ego rūs abitūram mē certō dēcrēvī, Ter., Hec., 586. Prīncipem sē esse māvult quam vidērī, C., Off., 1. 19, 65.

Notes.—1. On the construction of this class of verbs with ut (nē, quōminus), see 546. Imperō, *I command*, in model prose takes only the Inf. passive or deponent; in Sallust, Hirtius, Curtius, Tàcitus, and the Poets sometimes the active.

(Hannibal) imperāvit quam plūrimās venēnātās serpentēs vīvās colligī, Ner., 23, 10; Hannibal ordered as many poisonous serpents as possible to be caught alive.

Permittō seldom takes the Inf. (e.g., C., Verr., v. 9, 22); the Acc. with Inf. begins in Tactrus; concēdō takes Inf. pass. only, in classical prose. Iubeō, Ibid; sinō, Ilet; vetō, I forbid; prohibeō, I prohibti, always have the Inf. of passive verbs. With sinō and vetō the model construction is Inf. only. Sinō takes ut occasionally in early and late Latin, vetō does not have nē till in the post-Ciceronian period. Iubēre takes ut when it is applied to decrees of the Senate, and from Livy on when used of the orders of generals; prohibēre takes nē and quōminus. These verbs may themselves be turned into the passive: iubeor, sinor, vetor, prohibeor.

2. After iubeo, I bid, and veto, I forbid, the Inf. act. can be used without a subj. (even an imaginary or indefinite one):

Inbet reddere, he bids return (orders the returning).

Vetat adhibēre medicīnam, C., Att., xvi. 15, 5; he forbids the administration of medicine. Infandum, regina, iubes renovare dolorem, V., A., II. 3; unspeakable,

O queen, the anguish which you bid (me, us) revive.

- 3. After volo, nolo, malo in early Latin, ut and the Subjy, is proportionally more common than in the classical time. But with the Potential forms, velim, malim. vellem. mallem. Cicero uses only the Subjv. (without ut). When volo means maintain, it takes the Inf. only; see 546, R. I.
- 4. It is noteworthy that in classical Prose cupere never takes ut, while optare never takes the Infinitive.
 - 5. On the use of the Pf. Inf. instead of the Pr. after these verbs, see 537, N. I.
- 6. The Poets go much further in using verbs and phrases as expressions of Will and Desire. See 423, N. 4.

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 të advenisse gaudeo, Ter., Ph., 286; I rejoice that you should have arrived safe (to think that you have arrived safe, at your arriving safe). Quod salvos advēnistī, that you have arrived safe. Quod salvos advēneris, that (as you say) you have arrived safe.

Înferiores non dolere [debent] se a suis dignitate superari, C., Lael., 20, 71; inferiors ought not to consider it a grievance that they are surpassed in rank by their own (friends).

REMARKS.—I. This construction, outside of a few verbs, is not common, though found in a wide range of authors. Gaudere, lactari, dolere, queri (beginning in Cic.), mirāri, are common; in addition Cicero uses, rarely, however, more than once each, maerère, lugëre, confici, discruciari, angī, sollicitārī, indīgnārī, fremere, dēmīrārī, admīrārī, subesse timōrem. Early Latin shows ridere (NAEV.), gestire, mihř dolet (TER.), maestus sum (PLAUT.), cruciari (PLAUT.), lamentari (PLAUT., Hor.), suspirare (Lucr.), incendor īrā (TER.), ferox est (PLAUT.), invidēre (PLAUT., HOR.), formīdāre, verērī, in addition to the common gaudēre, 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, sīc vexārī, C., Fam., xiv. 2, 2; h'm, light of my life, for you to be so harassed now, Terentia dear. Hominemne Romanum tam Graece loqui? Plin., Ep., iv. 3, 5; a Roman speak such good Greek? (To think that a Roman should speak such good Greek.) Mone incepto dosistere—! V., A., I. 37; I—desist from my undertaking? Hinc abire matrem! Ter., Hec., 612; mother go away from here?

REMARKS .- I. Different is quod, which gives the ground.

Ei mihi quod nüllis amor est sānābilis herbis, Ov., M., 1. 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 inusitātum rēgem reum capitis esse, C., Dei., I. I; it is an extraordinary thing that a king should (for a king to) be tried for his life. Facinus est vincīre cīvem Rōmānum, C., Verr., v. 66, 170; it is an outrage to put a Roman citizen in chains. Necesse est facere sūmptum quī quaerit (= eum quī quaerit) lucrum, P.L., As., 218; need is that he make outlay who an income seeks. Lēgem brevem esse oportet, quō facilius ab imperītīs 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. Quid Milōnis intererat interficī 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, NN.

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 culpent aliI, tibi më laudāre necesse est, Ov., Her., 12, 131; $let\ others\ blame$, 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 ōtiōsō Themistocli, 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 non licobit (nos), 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.

Catōnem vidī in bibliothēcā sedentem multīs circumfūsum Stōicōrum librīs, C., Fin., III. 2, 7; I saw Cato sitting in the library with an ocean of Stoic books about him. Prōdiga nōn sentit pereuntem fēmina cēnsum, Juv., vi. 362; the lavish woman does not perceive (how) the income (is) dwindling. Saepe illam audīvī fūrtīvā vōce loquentem, Cat., LXVII. 41; I have often heard her talking in a stealthy (in an under-) tone. Gaudē quod spectant oculī tē mīlle loquentem, H., Ep., I. 6, 19 (542). Polyphēmum 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 Cicero, 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 527, N. 1. The Greek construction of Part. agreeing with the

leading Nom. after verbs of Perception and Emotion, is rare and poetical:

Gaudent scribentës, H., Ep., 11. 2, 107; they have joy while writing. Sënsit mediës dëläpsus in hostës, V., A., 11. 377; he perceived (it) having fallen (that he had fallen) 'midst the enemy. Gaudent perfüsi sanguine frätrum, V., G., 11. 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 voluptătibus dücuntur missõs faciant honores, C., Sest., 66, 138; if any are led captive by sensual pleasures, let them dismiss honours (at once and forever). Huic mandes si quid recte curatum 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).

The verbs of Causation thus employed are cūrāre, 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, quando, quando-{ (Cause quidem, since.)

3. By cum (quom), as. (Inference.)

4. By the Relative Pronoun, partly alone, partly with ut, utpote, quippe, etc. (See 626, 634.)

Notes.—1. Quod is the Acc. Sing. neuter, and quia is probably the Acc. Pl. neuter from the relative stem. They have accordingly often a correlative demonstrative; so with quod: eō, eā rē, ideō, idcircō, eā grātiā (in Sallust only), hōc, hāc mente (H., S., 11. 2, 90), proptereā, and a few combinations with ob and propter; with quia are found eō, eā rē, ideō, idcircō, proptereā, and ergō (in Plautus only).

2. Quod and quia differ in classical prose, chiefly in that quod is used, and not

quia, when the causal sentence is at the same time an object sentence.

3. Quoniam is originally temporal, and as such is still found in PLAUTUS. The causal use of it becomes much more extensive in classical prose, and, like quando (quandoquidem), it is used of evident reasons.

4. Quando is used principally as a temporal particle. In a causal sense it is very rare in Cicero (in the *Orations* never, unless compounded with quidem), and is not

found in CAESAR. The compound with quidem is more common.

5. Quātenus, in so far as, is poetical and in late prose. Horace shows first example, O., 111. 24, 30. Valerius M., Quintilian, Tacitus, Pliny Minor, and Sustronius show occasional examples.

Causal Sentences with QUOD, QUIA, QUONIAM, and QUANDO.

539. Causal sentences with quod, quia, quoniam, and quando 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:

Laetātus sum, quod mihi licēret rēcta dēfendere, 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 quando take the Indicative in Direct Discourse.

Torquātus fīlium suum quod is contrā imperium in hostem pūgnāverat necārī iūssit, S., C., 52, 30; Torquatus bade his son be put to death because he had fought against the enemy contrary to order(s) [quod pūgnāsset = because, as Torquatus said or thought]. Amantēs dē fōrmā iūdicāre nōn possunt, quia sēnsum oculōrum praecipit animus, QUINT., VI. 2, 6; lovers cannot judge of beauty, because the heart forestalls the eye. Quia nātūra mūtārī nōn potest idcircō vērae amīcitiae sempiternae sunt, C., Lael., 9, 32; because nature cannot change, therefore true friendships are everlasting. Neque mē vīxisse paenitet quoniam ita vīxī ut nōn frūstrā mē nātum exīstumem, 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. Sōlus erō quoniam nōn licet esse tuum, Prop., 11. 9, 46; I shall be alone since I may not be thine. Voluptās sēmovenda est quandō ad māiōra quaedam nātī sumus, Cf. C., Fin., v. 8, 21; pleasure is to be put aside

because we are born for greater things. Erant quibus appetentior fāmae [Helvidius] vidērētur quandō etiam sapientibus cupīdō glōriae 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 līberātōrēs (sint), quandōquidem tertium nihil potest esse, C., Ph., II. 13, 31.

541. Causal sentences with quod, quia, quoniam, and quando take the Subjunctive in Oblique Discourse (Partial or Total).

Noctū ambulābat in pūblicō Themistoclēs quod somnum capere non 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. Aristīdēs nonne ob eam causam expulsus est patriā quod praeter modum iūstus esset? C., Tusc., v. 36, 105; (there is) Aristīdes; was he not banished his country for the (alleged) reason "that he was unreasonably just"? [Nē] compone comās quia sīs ventūrus ad illam, Ov., Rem.Am., 679 (517). Quoniam (so most MSS.) ipse prō sē dīcere non posset, verba fēcit frāter ēius Stēsagorās, Nep., 1. 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 Rose.Am., 50, 145: concēdō et quod (by reason of the fact that) animus aequus est, et quia (because) necesse est.

2. A rejected reason is introduced by non 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. Non quia is the rule in early Latin, but classical prose shows very few examples. From Livy on it becomes common. Other equivalents are non quō, non eō quod, non eō quō; further, non quin for non quō non. 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:

Pugilës in iactandis caestibus ingemiscunt, non quod doleant, sed quia profundendă võce omne corpus intenditur venitque pläga 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. Māiorēs nostrī in dominum dē servo quaerī noluērunt; non quin posset vērum invenirī, sed quia vidēbātur indīgnum 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. Ā [Lacedaemoniorum exulibus] praetor vim arcuerat, non quia salvos vellet sed quia perire causā indictā nolēbat, L., xxxvIII. 33, 11; the praetor had warded off violence from the

Lacedaemonian 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 (quo), quia—quam quo (first in Cicero), quod (first in Sallust), quia (first in Livy), with the moods in inverse order.

Libertātis orīginem inde, magis quia annuum imperium consulāre factum est quam quod dēminūtum quidquam sit ex rēgiā potestāte, numerēs, L., 11. 1,7; you may begin to count the origin of liberty from that point, rather because the consular government was limited to a year, than because aught was taken away from the royal power.

Indicative:

Sum non dicam miser, sed certo exercitus, non quia multis debeo sed quia saepe concurrunt aliquorum bene de me meritorum inter ipsos contentiones, 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., 11. 2, 89.

3. Verbs of Saying and Thinking are occasionally put in the Subjv. with quod by

a kind of attraction. Compare 585, N. 3.

Impetrāre non potui, quod rolligione so impediri dicerent, C., Fam., 1v. 12, 3; I could not obtain permission, because they said they were embarrassed (prevented) by a religious scruple (= quod impedirentur, because (as they said) they were prevented).

This attraction is said to occur not unfrequently in Cicero, several times in Caesar and Sallust, but is not cited from any other author. Compare, however, crederent.

L., XXI. 1, 3.

4. On the use of tamquam, etc., to indicate an assumed reason, see 602, N. 4.

5. Quandoque 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 (626).

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 oculi tē mille loquentem, H., Ep., i. 6, 19; rejoice that a thousand eyes are gazing at you (while you are) speaking. Dolet mihǐ quod tū nunc stomachāris, C., ad Br., i. 17, 6; it pains me that you are angry now. Quīntum paenitet quod animum tuum offendit, Cf. C., Att., Xr. 13, 2 (377, R. 3). Iuvat 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. Tibǐ 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 mihž umquam veniet in mentem poenitēre quod ā mē ipse non dēscīverim, C., Att., II. 4, 2; it will never occur to me to be sorry for not having been untrue to myself. Laudat Āfricānum Panaetius quod fuerit abstinēns, C., Off., II. 22, 76; Panaetius praises Africanus for having been abstinent. Nēmŏ est ōrātōrem quod Latinē loquerētur admīrātus, C., Or., III. 14, 52; no one (ever) admired an orator for speaking (good) Latin. Sōcratēs accūsātus est quod corrumperet iuventūtem, QUINT., IV. 4, 5; Socrates was accused of corrupting youth. Meminī glōriārī solitum esse Quīntum Hortēnsium quod numquam bellō cīvīlī interfuisset, C., Fam., II. 16, 3; I remember that Quintus Hortensius used to boast of never having engaged in civil war. Agunt grātīās quod sibǐ pepercissent, CAES., B.C., I. 74, 2 (511, R. I).

REMARK.—This class of verbs may be construed with the Acc. and Inf.: salvom to advenisse gaudeo (533); also with quia, principally in early Latin, and in Cicero's Letters, then occasionally in Livy, Tacitus, Suetonius, and later. But in Expressions of Praise and Blame, Thanks and Complaint, quod is more common. On cum, see 564, N. 2.

Amō tō et nōn neglèxisse habeō grātiam, Ter., Ph., 54; I love you (= much obliged), and I am thankful to you for not having neglected (it). Grātulor ingenium nōn latuisse tuum, Ov., Tr., 1. 9, 54; I congratulate (you) that your genius has not lain hidden. [Isocratēs] queritur plūs honōris corporum quam animōrum virtūtibus darī, Quint., 111. 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.

Miror si [Tarquinius] quemquam amicum habēre potuit, C., Lael., 15,54; 1 wonder if Tarquin could ever have had a friend.

Besides mīror (and mīrum), there is one case of gaudeō sī in CICERO (Verr., IV. 17, 37), and a few cases after expressions of Fear in Tacitus. There are also sporadic cases of indīgnārī (indīgnitās) sī.

2. Noteworthy is the phrase mīrum (-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. r. 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: no (ut no), Consecutive: ut non, that not.

no quis, ut no, that no one.

no tillus, ut nullus, that no.

no umquam, (no quando), ut numquam, that never,

no tisquam, (no ut no, ut numquam, that nowhere.

no aut—aut, (ut no euc), ut no quam, that no theremore.

REMARKS.-I. 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 semi-dependent 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 circumlocutions 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 nevo (neu), a second clause is added by neque, the force of the final particle being felt

throughout the sentence.

Monitor tuus suādēbit tibǐ ut hinc discēdās neque mihǐ verbum ūllum respondeās, C., Div. in Caec., 16,52; your adviser will counsel you to depart hence and answer me never a word.

FINAL SENTENCES.

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 ësse, ut vivās, non 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 studiī et voluntātis, verbs of Will and Desire); Complementary Final Sentences.

Volo uti mihi respondeas, 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 dum, donec, 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) causā or grātiā. (428, R. 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** (**ut1**) (how) that, and other relative pronouns and adverbs. (630.)

Ut and no are often preceded by a demonstrative expression, such as: idcirco, therefore; eo, to that end; proptered, on that account; eo consilio, with that design; ea causa, re, for that reason.

2. $Qu\bar{o} = ut \ e\bar{o}$, that thereby; with comparatives, that the ... -;

3. No, that not, lest, continued by nove, neu. (444.)

Oportet esse, ut vivas, non vivere ut edas, [C.], ad Her., IV. 28, 39 (544, Inventa sunt specula, ut homo ipse se nosset, Sen., N.Q., I. 17, 4; mirrors were invented, to make man acquainted with himself. Ut amēris, amābilis estō, Ov., A.A., 11. 107; that you may be loved (to make yourself loved, in order to be loved), be lovable. Legem brevem esse oportet, quo facilius ab imperitis teneatur, Sen., E.M., 94, 38 (535). [Senex] serit arborēs, quae alterī saeclo prosint, Caecilius (C., Tusc., 1. 14. 31); the old man sets out trees, to do good to the next generation. Semper habe Pyladen aliquem qui curet Orestem, Ov., Rem. Am., 589; always have some Pylades, to tend Orestes. [Athēnienses] creant decem praetores qui exercituī pracessent, NEP., 1. 4, 4; the Athenians make ten generals to command their army. [Magnesiam Themistocli Artaxerxes] urbem donarat. quae ei panem praeberet, NEP., 11. 10, 3; Artaxerxes had given Themistocles the city of Magnesia, to furnish him with bread. Gallinae pennis fovent pullos, në frigore laedantur, Cf. C., N.D., 11. 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, ne collum tonsori committeret, tondere filias suas docuit, C., Tusc., v. 20, 58 (423, N. 6).

REMARKS.—I. Ut no is found for no 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; quōnō (= ut nō) is not found till the time of Dictys; apparent examples in classical Latin are to be otherwise explained. Quōminus and quin occur in special uses.

2. Ut non is used when a particular word is negatived:

Confer to ad Mallium, ut non electus ad alienos sed invitatus ad tuos isse videaris, C., Cat., 1. 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 ne are used parenthetically at all periods, depending on a suppressed word of Saying or the like.

Utque magis stupeās lūdos Paridemque reliquit, Juv., 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 omnes intellegant dico, C., Imp., 8, 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 studiī et voluntātis).

1. Positive: ut.

Volō utī mihī respondeās, C., Vat., 7, 17 (544, II.). (Phaĕthōn) optāvit ut in currum patris tollerētur, C., Off., 111. 25, 94; Phaethon desired to be lifted up into his father's chariot. Admoneō ut cottīdiē meditēre resistendum esse īrācundiae, C., Q.F., I. I. 13, 38; I admonish you to reflect daily that resistance must be made to hot-headedness. Ubiī (Gaesarem) ŏrant, ut sibī parcat, CAES., B.G., VI. 9, 7; the Ubii beg Cæsar to spare them. Sed precor ut possim tūtius esse miser, Ov., Tr., v. 2, 78 (423, 2). Exigis ut Priamus nātōrum fūnere lūdat, Ov., Tr., v. 12, 7; you exact that Priam sport at (his) sons' funeral. Athēniēnsēs cum statuerent ut nāvēs cōnscenderent, Cyrsilum quendam suādentem ut in urbe manērent lapidibus obruērunt, C., Off., III. II, 48; the Athenians, resolving to go om board their ships, overwhelmed viith 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 ligneis se munirent, 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 rēicerent, 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 impetum exciperent 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, persuādeō, I convince, dēcernō, I decide, cōgō, I conclude:

[Moneō] artem sine adsiduitāte dicendī non multum iuvāre, Cf. [C.], ad Her., I. I, 1; I remark that art without constant practice in speaking is of little avail. Vix culquam persuādēbātur Graeciā omnī cēssūrōs (Rōmānōs), L., XXXIII. 32, 3; scarce any one could be persuaded that the Romans would retire from all Greece. Non sunt istī audiendī quī virtūtem dūram et quasi ferream esse quandam volunt, C., Lael., 13, 48 (313, R. 2). Est

mõs hominum ut nõlint eundem plüribus rõbus 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:

Velim exīstimēs nēminem cuīquam cāriōrem umquam fuisse quam tē mihī, 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, I.., XXII. 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, insānī feriant sine litora fluctūs, V., Ec., 9, 43; come hither (and) let the mad waves lash the shores. Tam fēlīx essēs quam fōrmōsissima vellem, Ov., Am., I. 8, 27 (302). Vellem mē ad cēnam invītāssēs, C., Fam., XII. 4, 1 (261, R.). Occidit occideritque sinās cum nōmine Trōia, V., A., XII. 828; 'tis fallen, and let Troy be fallen, name and all.

So inbeō in poetry and later prose. Compare also potius quam, 577, N. 6. 3. Ut nō 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 nō, except that sometimes the nō 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, cōnsilium dō, ōrō, rogō, petō, precor, pōscō, pōstulō, flāgitō, obsecrō. Urging and Demanding: suādeō, persuādeō, cēnseō, imperō, mandō, praecipiō, ēdicō, dīcō, scrībō. Resolving and Endeavouring: statuō, cōnstituō, dēcernō, nītor, contendō, labōrō, pūgnō, id agō, operam dō, cūrō, videō, prōvideō, prōspiciō, legem ferō, lēx est, etc.

2. Substantives of kindred meaning, in combination with the copula or other verbs, take similar constructions. Such are voluntas, cupiditas, spēs, ardor, auctoritas, consilium (especially in the combination eo, hoc consilio), signum, praeceptum, exemplum, propositum, officium, negotium, mūnus, verba, and litterae (with dare, mittere, etc.), sententia, animus (especially eo animo), condicio (especially

eā condicione), foedus, iūs, lex (eā lege), cūra, opera, causa, ratio.

3. Instead of ut with the Subjv., the Inf. is frequently used with this class of verbs. So, generally, with iubeō, Iorder, 532. With verbs of Asking, however, the Inf. is not common until Vergil. Ōrāre has Inf. once in Plauvus, then in Vergil and later poets; in prose first in Tacitus. Rogāre has ut regularly, Inf. only once (Cat., xxxv. 10). Quaesō, implōrō, obsecrō, obtēstor, never have Inf., flāgitāre only once (H., S., II. 4, 61) until Suetonius; pōstulāre very often, especially in early Latin 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. No and quominus are originally final,

but the final sense is often effaced, especially in quominus. 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 nē with the Subjunctive, if they are not negatived.

Impedior no plura dicam, C., Sull., 33, 92; I am hindered from saying more (I am hindered that I should say no more). "Who did hinder you that ye should not obey the truth?" GAL., v. 7.

Servitūs mea mihi interdīxit nē quid mīrer meum malum, Pl., Pers., 621; my slavery has forbidden me to marvel aught at ill of mine. Histiaeus nē rēs conficerētur obstitit, Nep., 1. 3, 5; Histiaeus opposed the thing's being done. (Rēgulus) sententiam nē diceret recūsāvit, C., Off., III. 27, 100; Regulus refused to pronounce an opinion. Maledictīs dēterrēre nē scrībat parat, Ter., Ph., 3 (423, 2). Tantum cum fingēs nē sīs manifēsta cavētō, Ov., A.A., III. 801 (271, 2). Tantum nē noceās dum vīs prodesse vidētō, Ov., Tr., I., 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: impedire, impedimentō esse, prohibēre, tenēre, retinēre, dēterrēre, interclūdere, interpellāre, dēprecāri, obsistere, obstāre, intercēdere, interponere. Forbidding: interdicere. Refusing: recūsāre, repūgnāre, resistere, sē tenēre, sē reprimere, sibī temperāre, morārī. Bevare: cavēre, vidēre, and a few others, especially the phrase per aliquem stāre (more often with quōminus).

2. Many verbs of Preventing and Refusing also take quominus (549), and some also

the Infinitive (423, 2, N. 2).

3. Cavēre, to beware, and praecavēre belong to verbs of Hindering only so far as action is contemplated. Cavēre, followed by ut, means to be sure to; by nē or ut nē, to see to it that not; by nē, to take precautions against. When nē is omitted, cavē, cavētō, with the Subjv., form circumlocutions for the negative Imperative (271, 2). So with vidē ut, nē. Cavēre also has the Inf. occasionally as a verb of negative Will (423, 2, N.2), beginning with Plautus. In prose it is cited only from Cato (once), Cicero (Att., III. 17, 3), Sallust (Iug., 64, 2), and Pliny Mai.

 Vidē nē (nē nôn), see to it lest, is often used as a polite formula for dubitō an (457, 2), I am inclined to think. Crēdere omnia vidē nē non sit necesse, C., Div.,

11. 13, 31.

549. Verbs of Preventing and Refusing may take quōminus (= ut eō minus), that thereby the less, with the Subjunctive.

Actās non impedit quominus agrī colendī studia teneāmus, C., Cat.M., 17, 60; age does not hinder our retaining interest in agriculture. Non deterret sapientem mors quominus reī publicae consulat, C., Tusc., I. 38, 91; death does not deter the sage from consulting the interest of the State. Quid obstat quominus (Deus) sit beātus? C., N.D., I. 34, 95; what

is in the way of God's being happy? Caesar cognovit per Afranium stare quominus proelio dimicaretur, Caes., B.C., 1. 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 impedire and prohibère Caesar never uses quōminus; Cicero rarely. But with other words implying Hindrance Cicero uses quōminus not unfrequently. With prohibère the regular construction is the Inf., but this is rare with impedire, quōminus being the rule. With recūsāre, the Inf. is rare (Caes., B.G., 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 Ciebro. 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 quīn. 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 Cornificius 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 në hostis veniat, I fear lest the enemy come, that he is coming, that he will come. (I wish he may not come.)

Vereor ne hostis venerit, 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.

Non vereor ne amicus non veniat, I do not fear that my friend is not coming, will not come.

Non vereor ne amicus non venerit, I do not fear that my friend has not come.

Id pavēs, nē dūcās tū illam, tū autem ut dūcās, Ter., And., 349; that's what you dread, you lest you marry her (nē dūcam!); you, on the other hand, lest you don't (utinam dūcam!).

Vereor në dum minuere velim laborem augeam, C., Leg., 1. 4, 12; I fear lest, while I wish to lessen the toil, I increase it (that I am increasing it). Verëmur në parum hic liber mellis et absinthii multum habère videätur, Quint., 111. 1, 5; I am afraid that this book will seem to have too little honey and (too) much wormwood. Timeo në tibi nihil praeter lacrimës queam reddere, C., Planc., 42, 101; I am afraid that I can give you nothing in return save tears. Aurum inspicere volt në subruptum siet, Pl., Aul., 39; he wishes to inspect the gold (for fear) lest it be filched.

Timeō ut sustineās (labōrēs), C., Fam., XIV. 2, 3; I fear that you will not hold out under your toils. Vereor nō dum dōfendam meōs, nōn parcam tuīs, C., Att., I. 17, 3; I fear lest in defending my own I may not spare thine. Nōn vereor nō tua virtūs opiniōnī hominum nōn respondeat, Cf. C., Fam., II. 5, 2; I do not fear that your virtue will not answer to (come up to) public expectation. Metinō nō id cōnsiliī cōperīmus quod nōn facile explicāre possīmus, C., Fam., XIV. 12; I fear that we have formed a plan that we cannot readily explain. Ūnum illud extimēscēbam nō quid turpius facerem, vel dīcam, iam effēcissem, 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 metuo, paveo, timeo, and vereor. Most common is vereor; metuo is common in early Latin, but is cited but rarely later (Horace, Cicero); paveo has to be supplied once with ut in Ter., And., 349. Timeo ut is found first in Cicero, and is very rare.

2. Në non is very rare in early Latin, but becomes more frequent from Cicero on.

Ut në is never found for në.

3. Two strange cases are cited where, instead of nē, ut seems to be used, viz., Hor., S., 1. 3, 120, nam ut ferulā caedās meritum māiōra subīre verbera, nōn vereor, and L., xxvIII. 22, 12, nihil minus, quam ut ēgredī obsessī moenibus audērent, timērī 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 quo modo accepturi sitis, [C.], ad Her., IV. 37, 49.

5. (a) With the Inf. verbs of Fear are verbs of (negative) Will: vereor = prae timore nolo.

Võs Allobrogum tēstimõniis nõn crēdere timētis? 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). Nīl metuunt iūrāre, CAT., LXIV. 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 timore puto or video.

Verēbar non omnēs causam vincere posse suam [Ov., Her., 16, 75]. Tēlum-

que înstâre tremēscit, V., A., XII. 916.

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.

I. 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—non, that, so that, as—not, continued by neque, nec (543, 4).
 - 3. Quin = ut non, after a negative sentence (554). Correlative demonstratives occur very often: ita (sīc), tam,

tantopere, tantō, tantum, adeō, eō, huc; tālis, tantus, tot, is, eius modī, and others of similar meaning.

In virtūte multī sunt adscēnsūs, ut is māximē glōriā excellat, quī virtute plurimum praestet, 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 vīxisse paenitet quoniam ita vīxī ut non frūstrā mē nātum existumem, C., Cat. M., 23, 84 (540). Tanta vis probitātis est, ut eam in hoste etiam diligamus, C., Lael., 9, 29; so great is the virtue of uprightness, that we love it even in an enemy. Non is es ut to pudor umquam a turpitudine revocārit, C., Cat., 1. 9, 22; you are not the man for shame ever to have recalled you (= ever to have been recalled by shame) from baseness. Nēmo adeo ferus est ut non mitescere possit, H., Ep., I. I, 39; no one is so savage that he cannot (be made to) soften. Nil tam difficile est quin quaerendo investigari possiet, Ter., Heaut., 675; naught is so hard but it can (= that it cannot) be tracked out by search. Numquam tam male est Siculis quin aliquid facete et commode 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.—I. Notice especially the impersonal tantum abest, afuit (rarely aberat)—ut—ut. The phrase originates with an abstract Abl. dependent on a personal absum, which abstract Abl. is afterward expanded into a consecutive clause with ut.

[Āgēsilāus] tantum āfuit ab īnsolentiā glōriae ut commiserātus sit fortūnam Graeciae, Nep., 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 nō hominī sit nihil bonum aliud, 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 āfuit, ut illōrum praesidiō nostram fīrmārēmus clāssem, ut etiam ā Rhodiīs urbe prohibērentur nostrī mīlitēs, Lentulus [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 nostra mīrēmur ut ūsque eō difficilēs sīmus ut nōbīs nōn satisfaciat ipse Dēmosthenēs, 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 binos (libros) scriberent: vix singulos 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, idoneus, fit, take a consecutive sentence with qui. Occasionally in early, more often in later

Latin, dignus and indignus take ut. In poetry all these words are found sometimes with the Infinitive.

Qui modeste paret, videtur qui aliquando 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 no when the design or wish intrudes. Ita mo gessi no tibi pudori essem, 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 mānsuētūdō ut adhibeātur reī pūblicae causā sevēritās, C., Off., I. 25, 88; mildness is to be approved, so that (provided that) strictness be used for the sake of the commonwealth. Ita fruī volunt voluptātibus ut nūllī propter eās cōnsequantur dolōrēs, C., Fin., I. 14, 48; they wish to enjoy pleasures without having any pain to ensue on account of them. [Pṛthagorās et Platō] mortem ita laudant ut fugere vītam vetent, C., Scaur., 4, 5; Pythagoras and Plato so praise death, that they (while they praise death) forbid fleeing from life. Ita tū istaec tua mīscētō nē mē admīsceās, Ter., Heaut., 783; mix up your mixings so you mix me not withal. Tantum ā vāllō [Pompēī] prīma aciēs aberat, utī nē tēlō adicī posset, Caes., B.C., III. 55.

Ut alone may also be used thus: Rex esse nölim ut esse crūdēlis velim, Syr., 577; king I would not be, if I must school myself to cruelty.

4. Ut non is often = without, and the English verbal in -ing:

(Octāviānus) numquam filios suos populo commendāvit ut non adiceret: sī 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 no malum habeat abstinct so ab iniūriā certō mālet existimārī bonus vir ut non sit quam esse ut non putētur, C., Fin., 11. 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 $n\bar{o}n$ or $n\bar{e}$; the sequence, final.

Such verbs are:

1. Verbs of Causation: facere, efficere, perficere, I make, effect, achieve; assequi, consequi, I attain, accomplish, and many others.

The following are cited as more or less common in Cicero: proficere,

impetrāre, valēre, committere, tenēre, adipīscī, praestāre, ferre (in phrases consuētūdo, nātūra, fortūna fert), adferre, adiuvāre, expūgnāre, extorquēre, exprimere, and a few others.

Efficiam ut intellegătis, C., Cluent., 3, 7; I will cause you to understand. Sed perfice, ut Crassus haec quae coartāvit nobis explicet, C., Or., 1. 35, 163; but bring it about that Crassus (make Crassus) unfold to us what he has condensed. Non committam ut causam aliquam tibi recūsandī dem, C., Or., 11. 57, 233; I shall not make the blunder of giving you an excuse for refusing.

Negatives:

Rērum obscūritās non verborum facit ut non intellegātur orātio, 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 non moriar non potestis, Plin., Ep., III. 16, 11; you may make me die a hard death, keep me from dying you cannot. Efficiam posthāc no quemquam voce 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 faxo, faxit (both peculiar to Comedy).

Fortuna vestra facit ut Irae 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) facio ut recorder ruinas rei publicae, 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:

Cogere, adigere, impellere, ducere, with its compounds, movere, commovere, to which must be added exorere, to force by pleading. Permittere, sinere, concedere, dare, (non) pati, and less often largiri, tribuere, ferre.

Tenēmus memoriā Catulum esse coāctum ut vītā sē ipse prīvāret, C., Or., III. 3, 9; we remember that Catulus was forced to take his own life. Illud nātūra non patitur, ut aliorum spolifs nostrās copiās augeāmus, C., Off., III. 5, 22; nature does not allow us to increase our wealth by the spoils of others. Collēgam perpulerat no contrā rem pūblicam sentīret, S., C., 26, 4; he had prevailed upon his colleague, not to take sides against the commonwealth.

Note.—Cogere has usually the Inf. (423, 2, N. 2), so occasionally sinere, pati. On permittere, see 532, N. 1. Cogere in the sense conclude is a verb of Saying (546, R. 1). Facere and efficere, in the sense cause, are very rarely used with the Infinitive. Compare C_1 , Br, 38, 142, (āctiō) tālēs orātōrēs vidērī facit, quālēs ipsī sē vidērī 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 confice, effice, fit, accidit, contingit, obtingit, evenit, it happens, usu venit, it occurs, sequitur, it follows, and many others. So also est, it is the case.

Ex quō efficitur, non ut voluptās no (the design of the arguer) sit voluptās, sed ut voluptās 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 fierī ut fallar, C., Fam., XIII. 73, 2; (it) may be (that) I am mistaken. Potest fierī ut is unde tē audīsse dīcis īrātus dīxerit, C., Or., II. 70, 285; (it) may be (that) he from whom you say you heard (it) said it in anger. Persaepe ēvenit ut ūtilitās 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 \ln 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, extrēmum est; inūsitātum, rārum est, it rarely happens that; novom, singulāre, mīrum, inaudītum, vērum, falsum, (non) vērīsimile, consequēns, etc. Also rarely, interest, necesse est, necessārium est, and the like.

Ad Appi 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. Ei ne integrum quidem erat ut ad iūstitiam 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 reī quisque dēfēnsor, Quint., iv. 1, 46; it is rare for a man to be a good defender of his own case.

Remarks.—I. 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 non effugiës; mēcum moriāris oportet, Prop., 11. 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 (futurum) ut, which gives the common form of the Fut. Infinitive. See 248.

B. Verbs of Hindering.

554. Quin is used like quōminus, 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 në (non). Its first use is interrogative: "why not" in an indignant question; almost equivalent to an indignant Imperative, with which, through the fading ont of its composition, it is occasionally connected, especially in early and later Latin, rarely in Cicero (269).

2. An indignant question (How not? Why not?) objects to opposition, and is therefore naturally construed with the negative of a verb of Hindering. 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 non, and was then used in other consecutive connections for nt non.

- 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 obsistitur 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 non se tenuit quin contre suum doctorem librum ederet, C., Ac., II. 4, 12; Antiochus did not refrain from publishing a book against his teacher. Vix reprimor quin te manere iubeam, Pl., M.G., 1368; I am scarcely kept back (keep myself back) from bidding you remain. Neque me Iuppiter [prohidebit] quin sic faciam uti constitui, Pl., Am., 1051; 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).

Non dubium est quin uxorem nolit filius, Ter., And., 172; 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). Non dubitārī dēbet quin fuerint ante Homērum poētae, C., Br., 18, 71; it is not to be doubted that there were poets before Homer. Nunc mihǐ non est dubium quin ventūrae non sint (legionēs), C., Fam., 11. 17, 5 (515).

Occasionally verbs of Saying and Thinking are found with the same construction, because they are near equivalents.

Negări non potest quin rectius 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. Non abest sūspīciō (Lītotēs [700] for dubitārī non potest) quin (Orgetorīx) ipse sibǐ mortem cōnscīverit, Caes., B.G., 1.4,4; there is no lack of ground to suspect (= there is no doubt that) Orgetorix killed himself.

REMARKS.—I. 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, non dubito quin may have the simple Subjv. instead of the Periphrastic:

Non dubitare quin do omnibus obsidibus supplicium sümat (Ariovistus), CAES., B.G., I. 3I,15; "he did not doubt that Ariovistus would put all the hostages to death." Compare CAI., CVIII. 3.

So when there is an original Subjv. notion:

Non dubito quin ad to statim veniam, C., Att., VIII. IIB, 3; I do not doubt that I ought to come to you forthwith. (Veniam? Shall I come?)

2. Of course dubito and non dubito may have the ordinary interrogative constructions (467). On dubito an, see 457, 2.

3. Non dubito, with the Inf., usually means I do not hesitate to:
Non dubitem dicere omnes sapientes semper esse beatos, C., Fin., v. 32,
95; I should not hesitate to say that all wise men are always happy.
Et dubitamus adhūc virtūtem extendere factis? V., A., vi. 806; and do we still hesitate to spread our (fame for) valour by our deeds? Compare vereor, timeo, I fear, hesitate to (550, 2, N. 5).

So occasionally non dubito quin. See R. I.

(Rōmānī) arbitrābantur non dubitātūrum fortem virum quīn cēderet aequō animō lēgibus, C., Mil., 23, 63; the Romans thought that a brave man would not hesitate to yield with equanimity to the laws.

Note.—Non dubito with the Inf. for non dubito quin occurs chiefly in Neros, Livy, and later writers.

Sunt multī quī quae turpia esse dubitāre non possunt ūtilitātis speciē ductī probent, Quint., 111. 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 non, may be used after any negative sentence (sequence of the Consecutive Sentence). Here it may often be translated "without."

Nil tam difficile est quin quaerendo investigari possiet, Ter., Heaut., 675 (552). Nullum adduc intermisi diem quin aliquid ad te litterarum 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) non possum quin, I cannot but, and similar combinations; non possum non with Inf. is also classical.

Facere non possum quin cottidie ad të mittam (litteras), C., Att., XII. 27, 2; I cannot do without (I cannot help) sending a letter to you daily.

Non possum quin exclamem, Pl., Trin., 705; I cannot but (I must) cry out. (Nullo modo facere possum ut non sim popularis, C., Agr., II. 3, 7 (reading doubtful); I cannot help being a man of the people.)

Nihil abest quin sim miserrimus, C., Att., XI. 15, 3; there is nothing wanting that I should be (= to make me) perfectly miserable. Fieri nüllö modō poterat quin Cleomeni parcerētur, C., Verr., V. 40, 104; it could in nowise happen but that Cleomenes should be spared (= Cleomenes had to be spared). Paulum āfuit quin (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 mõs hominum ut nõlint eundem plüribus rēbus excellere, C., Br., 21, 84 (546, R. 1). An quoiquamst üsus homini sē ut cruciet? Ter., Heaut., 81 (406, N. 5). Est miserõrum ut malevolentēs sint atque invideant bonis, Pl., Capt., 583; the wretched have a way of being ill-natured and envying the well-to-do. Nec meum ad tē ut mittam grātiis, Pl., Asin., 190; nor is it my style to let her go to you as a gracious gift. Id est proprium civitātis ut sit lībera, C., Off., 11. 22, 78; it is the peculiar privilege of a state, to be free. Illud ipsum habet cõnsul ut el reliqui magistrātūs pāreant, C., Leg., 111. 7, 16; the consul has this very prerogative, that the other magistrates be obedient unto him. Tõtum in eō est, ut tibǐ imperēs, C., Tusc., 11. 22, 53; all depends upon this (one thing), your self-command.

Remark.—These are principally mos, consubtudo, habit, wont; opus, usus, need; many substantives of opinion and perception, as opinio, sententia, cogitatio, mens, sapientia, scientia, cognitio; natura, genus, status, and others, usually with a demonstrative attached; adjectives indicating possession: meum, tuom, suom (all mainly ante-class.), proprium, commune, praecipuum (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, non aliter quam (without), first in Livy; after nisi (591, 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 të interpellem? C., Tusc., II. 18, 42; I interrupt you? Tü ut umquam të corrigës? C., Cat., I. 9, 22; you—ever reform yourself? Dī māgnī, ut quī cīvem Rōmānum occīdisset, impūnitātem 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 (Poste quam, not ante-class.), after that, after; ut, as; ubi, when (literally, where); simule, as soon as; ut primum, cum primum, the first moment that.

II. It may be contemporaneous.

Conjunctions: Dum, dones, while, until; quoad, up to (the time) that; quamdin, 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 **Ōrātiō Oblīqua** (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 (posteāquam), ubi, ut, simulāc, ut prīmum, and cum prīmum commonly take the Historical Perfect or the Historical Present Indicative.

The English translation is not unfrequently the Pluperfect.

Postquam Caesar pervēnit, obsidēs popōscit, CAES., B.G., I. 27, 3; after Caesar arrived, he demanded hostages. Quae ubi nūntiantur Rōmam, senātus extemplō dictātōrem dīcī 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 excēssit, CAES., B.C., III. 94, 5; as Pompey saw his cavalry beaten, he left the line of battle. (Pelopidās) nōn dubitāvit, simul āc cōnspexit hostem, cōnflīgere (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 Oblīqua.

Ariovistum, ut semel Gallōrum cōpiās vicerit ($\overline{0}$. R. vicit), 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 qui tibi erant amici non poterant vincere, ut amici tibi essent qui vincebant 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 nemo obvius ibat, ad eastra 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 Örātiō Oblīqua.

Scripsisti (eum) posteāquam non audēret ($\bar{0}$. R. non audēbat) reprehendere, laudāre coepisse, C., Att., 1. 13, 4; you wrote that, after he could not get up the courage to blame, he began to praise.

563. 1. The Pluperfect is used to express an action completed before the time of the principal clause; often of the Resulting Condition.

Albinus postquam dēcrēverat non ēgredī provinciā, militēs statīvīs castrīs habēbat, S., Iug., 44, 4; after Albinus had fully determined not to depart

from the province, he kept his soldiers in cantonments. Posteāquam multitūdinem collēgerat 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 quam are often separated. With an Ablative of Measure, post may be omitted (403, N. 4, d).

(Aristīdēs) dēcēssit ferē post annum quārtum quam Themistoclēs Athēnīs erat expulsus, Nep., 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. [Hamilear] nōnō annō postquam in Hispāniam vēnerat occīsus est, Nep., XXII. 4, 2; Hamilear was killed nine years after he came to Spain. (Aristīdēs) sextō ferē annō quam erat expulsus in patriam restitūtus est, Nep., III. 1, 5; Aristides was restored to his country about six years after he was exiled. Trīduō ferē postquam Hannibal ā rīpā Rhodanī mōvit, ad castra hostium vēnerat, I., XXI. 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 Orātio Oblīqua.

Scriptum a Posidonio est triginta annis vixisse Panaetium posteaquam libros [dō officiis] ēdidisset, 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 Cicero, but is distinctive of Livy, who shows nearly one hundred examples. The Impf. with ubi is cited once in early Latin (Ter., Eur., 405), where, however, it is Iterative, not at all from Cicero, once from Caesar, after which it is found more frequently, but never becomes common. The Impf. with ut is found first in Cicero, never in Caesar, Sallust, Vergil, but not uncommonly in Livy; only once in Tacitus (H., iii. 31), where it is Iterative. The Impf. with simul (atque) is not cited from Cicero and Caesar, but appears once in Sallust, 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); Cicero uses it but rarely, Caesar but once (B. C., III. 58, 5); Livy uses it often, and Tactus is fond of it. The Plupf. with ubi is found once in Plautus, twice each in Cicero and Caesar, and then more frequently. The Plupf. with ut (primum) is found first in Cicero, perhaps but once in Caesar (B. C., III. 63, 6), more often later. The Plupf. with simul (atque) is cited once from Cicero, not at all from Caesar, and rarely later.
 - 4. Some dozen cases are cited, principally from Cicero, of the Subjv. with post-

quam not in $\vec{0}$.0. Most of these are disputed. If the Subjy. is to remain in these passages it is to be explained as due either to Partial Obliquity or to the intrusion of the cum Subjy. into other temporal constructions. The Subjy. 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).

[Gūria] minor mihǐ vidētur posteāquam est māior, C., Fin., v. 1, 2; the senate-house seems to me smaller now that it is (really) greater. Tremō horreōque 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 sī; ut means ex quō, since. Simul is rare, and found first in Lucretius.

2. Cum, also, has sometimes the causal signification.

Grātulor tibi cum tantum valēs, C., Fam., 1x. 14,3; I wish you joy now that you have so much influence.

565. Ubi and simulare occasionally found with the Future and Future Perfect; not so postquam and ut.

Ubi mē aspiciet ad carnuficem 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 flet, Dēmaenetum 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** (580). So also **quando**; 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.

Humilës labōrant ubi potentës dissident, Phaed., i. 30, 1; the lowly suffer when the powerful disagree. Populus më sibilat; at mihi plaudō ipse domi simul āc nummōs contemplor in arcā, H., S., i. i, 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 frümentō 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 segnior fit ubi negleges, 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.

Quotiëns cecidit, surgit, As often as he falls, he rises.
Quotiëns ceciderat, surgëbat, As often as he fell, he rose.
Quotiëns ceciderit, surget, As often as he falls, he will rise.

Simul înflavit tibicen a perito carmen agnoscitur, C., Ac., 11. 27, 86; as soon as the fluter blows, the song is recognised by the connoisseur. [Alcibiadēs simul āc sē remīserat, lūxuriosus reperiēbātur, NEP., VII. 1, 4; as soon as Alcibiades relaxed, he was found a debauchee. Dociliora sunt ingenia priusquam obdūruērunt, Quint., 1. 12, 9; minds are more teachable before they (have) become hardened. [Ager] cum multos annos quievit, überiöres efferre früges solet, C., Br., 4, 16; when a field has rested (rests) many years, it usually produces a more abundant crop. Cum pālam ējus ānulī ad palmam converterat (Gygēs) ā nūllo 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. Sī pēs condoluit, sī dēns, ferre non possumus, C., Tusc., II, 22, 52; if a foot, if a tooth ache(s), we cannot endure it. Stomachābātur senex, sī 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 laborantēs conspexerat, his subsidia submittēbat, Caes., B.G.. IV. 26, 4; to those whom he saw (had espied) hard pressed he would send reinforcements. Haerebant in memoria quaecumque audierat et viderat (Themistocles), C., Ac., II. I, 2; whatever Themistocles had heard and seen (= heard and saw) remained fixed in his memory. Qui timere desierint, odisse incipient, TAC., Agr., 32; those who cease to fear will begin to hate.

The Subjunctive with the Ideal Second Person.

Ubi consuluers, mature facto opus est, S_* , C_* , I, G; when you have deliberated, you want speedy action.

The Subjunctive in Oratio Obliqua.

[Cato] mīrārī sē āiēbat quod non rīdēret haruspex haruspicem cum vīdis-

set, C., Div., II. 24, 51; Cato said that he wondered that an haruspex did not laugh when he saw (another) haruspex. (Non ridet cum vidit.)

The Subjunctive by Attraction.

[Arāneolae] rēte texunt ut sī quid inhaeserit cōnficiant, C., N.D., II. 48, 123; spiders weave webs to despatch anything that gets caught (sī quid inhaesit, cōnficiunt). Quārē fīēbat, ut omnium oculōs, quotiēscunque in pūblicum prōdīsset, ad sē converteret, NEP., VII. 3, 5; whereby it happened that he attracted the eyes of all every time he went out in public (quotiēscunque prōdierat, 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 pēierāverit—oportet. With Impf. and Plupf. the first examples (excluding cum) are in Catullus (lexxiv.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. Ubi and ut are the particles employed; also very often sī and relatives, in general quīcumque, quotiēns, 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 cmended, and those with historical tenses are not common, and sometimes doubtful.

Cum ferrum sẽ înflexisset, neque ēvellere neque pūgnāre poterant (= vidēbant sẽ nõn 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 solita erat (as if cōnstituerat) ubi rēgem occupātum externō bellō sēnsisset, L., xxvi. 25, 7; that tribe was wont to make a raid on Macedonia whenever they perceived the king engrossed in foreign war. Qui tīnum sius ōrdinis offendisset omnēs adversōs habēbat (as if certō sciebat sẽ habitūrum), L., xxxii. 46, 1; whose had offended one of that order was sure to have all against him. Modum adhibendō ubi rēs pōsceret, 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**, **donec**, while, so long as, until; **quoad**, up to (the time) that; **quamdi**ū, 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. Donec (old form donicum, used only in the sense until), is parallel with dum in the sense so long as, until. Cicero uses it only as until.

1. Contemporaneous in Extent.

(So long as, while.)

569. Complete Coextension.—Dum, donec, quoad, quamdiū, 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 laudem relinquont, "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 diū 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., Tusc., I. 42, 101; this nation was brave so long as the laws of Lycurgus were in force. Dōnec grātus eram tibi, Persārum viguī rēge beātior, H., O., III. 9, 1; while I was pleasing in your sight, I throve more blessed than Persia's king. Quoad potuit, restitit, Caes., B.G., IV. 12, 5; as long as he could, he withstood.

Subjunctive in Ōrātiō Oblīqua.

(Rēgulus dīxit) quam diū iūre iūrandō hostium tenērētur non 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. (Quamdiū teneor non sum senātor.)

Subjunctive by Attraction.

Faciam ut meī memineris dum vītam vīvās, 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 Caeear. 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, non metuo mihi dum hoc valebit pectus; Ter., Heaut., 107; C., Rosc.Am., 32, 991; V., A., I. 607, etc.

Donec is not found in the sense "so long as," until Lucr., v. 178; then H., O., I. 9, 16; HII, 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, 28, etc. It is usually found in the Past Sphere; in the Present the adverbial force, "so far as," seems to preponderate; Pl., Asin., 296: quoad virēs valent. The Future tenses are more common.

Quamdiū (correlative with tamdiū) is found with this usage first in Cicero.

2. When the actions are coëxtensive, 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 Romae aguntur, consules ambo in Liguribus gerebant bellum, L., XXXIX. 1, 1; while these things were going on at Rome, both consuls were carrying on war in Liguria. Praetermissa eius rei occasio est, dum in castellis recipiendis 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 Snbjv. in $\vec{0}$. 0., especially in post-classical Latin. (655, R. 3.)

Notes.—1. Quamdiū and quoad are, by their composition, incapable of being used in this sense, and as donec 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 causal, and the construction is parallel with

the Pr. participle, the lack of which in the passive it supplies.

Ardua dum metuunt (= metuentēs) āmittunt vēra viāī, Lucr., 1.660 (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 coquêtur, interim pōtābimus; the Impf., Nep., xxiii. 2, 4, quae dīvīna rēs dum cônficiēbātur, quaesīvit ā mē.

4. LIVY, XXXII. 24, 5, shows one case of the Plnpf. as a shorthand to express the

maintenance of the result, dum averterat = dum aversos tenebat.

2. Contemporaneous in Limit.

(Until.)

571. Dum, donec, quoad, up to (the time) that, until, have the Present, Historical Present, Historical Perfect, and Future Perfect Indicative.

Tītyre, dum redeō, brevis est via, pāsce capellās, V., Ec., 9, 23; Tityrus, while I am returning (= till I return)—the way is short—feed my kids. Epaminōndās ferrum in corpore ūsque eō retinuit, quoad renūntiātum est vīcisse Boeōtiōs, Cf. Nep., xv. 9, 3; Epaminondas retained the iron in his body, until word was brought back that the Boeotians had conquered. Dōnec rediīt Mārcellus, silentium fuit, L., xxiii. 31, 9; until Marcellus returned, there was silence. Haud dēsinam dōnec perfēcerō hōc, Ter., Ph., 420; I will not cease until I have (shall have) accomplished it. Exspectābō dum venit, Ter., Eun., 206; I will wait until he comes.

Subjunctive in Ōrātiō Oblīqua.

Scīpioni Silanoque donec revocati ab senatu forent prorogatum 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 procludes 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., 1.9). 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 exspectandi**, 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. Dönicum belongs to early Latin, but is not found in Terence; one case with the Subjv. is found in Nepos. Dönique 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 collègam consuleret morâtus (est), L., Iv. 21, 10; Verginius delayed until he could (long enough to) consult his colleague. At tantI tibi sit non indulgère theātrīs, 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 exspectandi, especially exspecto, I wait.

Rüsticus exspectat dum dēfluat amnis, H., Ep., 1. 2, 42; the clown waits for the river to run off (dry).

REMARKS.—I. 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 dēiēcit, 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. (Āverteret from the point of view of alter = dum videt āvertentem.)

- 2. Verba exspectandI have also other constructions, as ut, sī, quīn, but not the Infinitive.
 - 573. Dum, modo, and dummodo, if only, provided only,

only, are used with the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive in Conditional Wishes.

The negative is ne (dum ne = ne interim).

Öderint dum metuant, Accius (C., Off., i. 28, 97); let them hate so long as they fear (provided that, if they will only fear). Quō lubeat nūbant, dum dōs nē fīat comes, Pl., Aul., 491; let them marry where (= whom) they please, if but the dowry do not go with them. Dummodō mōrāta rēctē veniat, dōtāta est satis, Pl., Aul., 239; provided only she come with a good character, she is endowed (= her dowry is) enough. In eō multa admīranda sunt: ēligere modo cūrae sit, Quint., x. i, 131; many things in him are to be admired; only you must be careful to choose. Cōpia plācandī sit modo parva tuī, Ov., Her., 20, 74 (428, R. I).

Notes.—1. It has been noticed that Tacitus uses dummodo only in the Germania and Dialogus, otherwise dum.

2. Dummodo ne and modo ne are found first in Cicero. In post-Augustan Latin non is sometimes used for ne; Juv., vii. 222, dummodo non 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.—I. The elements ante, antea, prius, and quam are often separated.

2. As prius (ante) quam is negative in its signification (= needum), 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, Caelius, Terence (*Hec.*, 146, with Subjv. in $\overline{0}$. 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 pauca dīcam, C., Cat., IV. 10, 20; before I return to the subject, I will say a few things of myself. Omnia experirī 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.) Dociliora sunt ingenia priusquam obdūruērunt, 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.

Hēracliō, aliquantō ante quam est mortuus, omnia trādiderat, C., Verr., II. 18, 46; some time before he died he had handed over everything to Heraclius. Lēgātī nōn ante profectī quam impositōs in nāvēs mīlitēs vīdērunt, I., XXXIV. 12, 8; the envoys did not set out until they saw the soldiers on board. Neque dēfatīgābor ante quam illorum viās rationēsque et prō omnibus et contrā 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 Ōrātiō Oblīqua.

Themistoclės [collègis suis] praedixit, ut në prius Lacedaemoniōrum lēgātōs dīmitterent 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: non 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 Plupf. 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.
- r. 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 $\pi \rho l \nu$ with the Infinitive).

Ante vidēmus fulgōrem quam sonum audiāmus, Sen., N.Q., II. 12, 6; we see the flash of lightning before hearing the sound (we may never hear it). But compare Luce., vi. 170. In omnibus negōtis prius quam aggrediāre adhibenda est praeparātiō dīligēns, 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

adversāriīs sentiātur 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 pūgnā (erat) expertus, L., xxx. 35, 4; Hannibal had tried everything before withdrawing from the fight (= to avoid withdrawing from the fight). Saepe māgna indolēs virtūtis priusquam reī pūblicae prōdesse potuisset exstincta est, C., Ph., v. 17, 47; often hath great native worth been extinguished before it could be of service to the State. Ducentīs annīs ante quam urbem Rōmam caperent in Ītaliam Gallī trānscendērunt, 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 non prius egressus est quam (= ibi manebat dum) rex eum in fidem reciperet, 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., xiv. 11, 3.

Notes.—1. The Pr. Subjv. is common, but is usually generic; the few cases of Final Subjv. are confined to early Latin. Vcry rarely the Hist. Pr. is found after a Hist. Present. See Caes., B. C., I. 22.

2. The Pf. occurs occasionally; it is usually in a final sense.

Non prius dimittunt quam ab his sit concessum, Caes., B. G., III. 18.

3. In Livy we find the Impf. Subjv. used not nufrequently, where the idea of suspense or design is very slight, much after the manner of **cum nondum** (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. Postridiëquam is found in Plautus, Cicero (Letters), and Suetonius with the Indicative. In Cicero, Ac., 11. 3, 9, with the Subjunctive. Pridiëquam 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 quam is used in the same way as prius quam.

Dēpūgnā potius quam serviās, 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 tendeucy (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 pronouu.

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 ver appetit, milites ex hibernis movent, when spring approaches, soldiers move out of winter-quarters.
- II. (a) Cum ver appeteret, Hannibal ex hibernis movit, as spring was approaching (spring approaching), Hannibal moved out of winter-quarters.
- (b) Cum ver appetat, ex hibernis movendum est, as (since) spring is approaching, we must move out of winter-quarters.
- (c) Cum vēr appeteret, tamen hostēs ex hībernīs non movērunt, whereas (although) spring was approaching, nevertheless the enemy did not move out of winter-quarters.

1. Temporal Cum.

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, tune, then; nune, now; dies, 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 non mē dīgna in mē conferuntur, 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 rē pūblicā] tum scrīpsimus cum gubernācula reī pūblicae 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 Cūriō maerēns iacēbat in lectō, C., Ph., II. 18, 45; remember the time when Curio the father lay abed from grief. Longum illud tempus cum non erō magis mē movet quam hōc 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 dīlūcēscēbat cum sīgnum cōnsul

dedit, L., xxxv1. 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 inmortālis est īnfāmia. Etiam tum vivit quom esse crēdās 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.—I. Fuit cum commonly follows the analogy of other characteristic relatives (631), and takes the Subjunctive:

Fuit tempus cum (= fuit cum) rūra colerent hominēs, VARRO, R.R., III. I, 1; there was a time when all mankind tilled fields = were countrymen. The Indic. is rare.

2. Memini cum, I remember the time when, takes the Indic., but audire cum takes the Subjv. parallel with the participle:

Meminī cum mihǐ dēsipere vidēbāre, C., Fam., VII. 28, 1; I remember the time when you seemed to me to show the worst possible taste. Audīvī Mētrodōrum cum dē iīs ipsīs rēbus disputāret, C., Or., II. 90, 365; I have heard Metrodorus discuss(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:

Multī annī sunt cum (= multōs annōs) in aere meō est, C., Fam., xv. 14, 1; (it is) many years (that) he has been (230) in my debt. Permultī annī iam erant cum inter patriciōs magistrātūs tribūnōsque nūlla certāmina 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) dē 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.

Notes.—1. In Plautus cum with the Indic. may be explicative, causal, concessive, adversative. Explicative: salvos quom (that) advenis, gaudeō, Most., 1128. Causal: salvos quom (sinee) peregrō advenis, cēna dētur, B., 536. Concessive: [servi] quom (although) culpā carent, tamen malum metuont, Most., 859. Adversative: Insānire mē āiunt, ūltrō quom (athereas) ipsi Insāniunt, Men., 831.

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 uxorem Pamphili, quom in proxumo hic sit aegra?

Of course, this prevalence of the Indic. does not exclude the attraction into the Subjy., 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 quando, 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 $\mathbf{quand\delta}$ 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 Tepence the temporal usage of $\mathbf{quand\delta}$ 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 lēgātos Tyrum mīsimus, C., Leg. Agr., 11. 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 non longius bīduī viā aberant, cum duās vēnisse legiones cognoscunt, 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 intereā (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.

Āiācem, 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 nomināvī, 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 s1, if, with which it is sometimes interchanged.

Cum pōscēs, pōsce Latinē, Juv., XI. 148; when (if) you (shall) ask (for anything), ask in Latin. Cum veniet contrā, digitō compēsce 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 sẽ pũrgat in mẽ conferre omnem culpam, C., Att., IX. 2 A, 1; he is accustomed, when he clears himself, to put off all the blame on me. [Ager] cum multos annos requievit überiores efferre früges solet, C., Br., 4, 16 (567). Cum pālam eius ānulī ad palmam converterat (Gǯgēs) ā nūllō vidēbātur, C., Off., III. 9, 38 (567).

Remark.—The Subjv. is also found (567, N.):

Cum in iūs dūcī dēbitōrem vīdissent, 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.

[Āgēsilāus] cum ex Aegyptō reverterētur dēcēssit, Nep., xvii. 8, 6; Agesilaus died as he was returning from Egypt. Zēnōnem cum Athēnīs essem audiēbam frequenter, C., N.D., i. 21, 59; when I was (being) at Athens, I heard Zeno (lecture) frequently. Athēniēnsēs cum statuerent ut nāvēs cōnscenderent, Cyrsilum quendam suādentem ut in urbe manērent, lapidibus obruērunt, C., Off., iii. 11, 48 (546).

Cum Caesar Anconam occupāvisset, urbem relīquimus, C., Fam., xvi. 12, 2; when (as) Caesar had occupied Ancona (Caesar having occupied Ancona), I left the city. Attalus moritur altero et septuāgēsimo anno, cum quattuor et quadrāgintā annos rēgnāsset, 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:

Cum varicēs secābantur C. Mariō, dolēbat, C., Tusc., 11. 15, 35 (time). Marius cum secārētur, ut suprā dīxī, vetuit, etc., C., Tusc., 11. 22, 53 (circumstances). Cum ad tribum Polliam ventum est, (date) et praecō cunctārētur (circumstances) citāre ipsum cēnsōrem; Citā, inquit Nerō, M. Līvium, L., XXIX. 37, 8.

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 dicebat); so cum adsentire se diceret for cum adsentiret, L., I. 54, 1. Similarly with cum causal: "saying, as he did," C., Mil., 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).

Quae cum ita sint, effectum est nihil esse malum quod turpe non 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 [Athēnās] tamquam ad

mercātūram 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.—I. The characteristic nature of the Subjv. 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 adiūvit cum posset, C., Att., IX. I3, 3; he gave me no assistance, although (at a time when) he had it in his power. Cum prīmī ordinēs hostium concidissent, tamen ācerrimē 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 appāret, cum dēsinat ars esse, sī appāret, QUINT., IV. 2, 127; we think that (our) art is lost unless it shows, whereas it ceases to be art if it shows.

Remarks.—I. To emphasise the adversative idea, tamen is often added in the principal clause.

- 2. Adversative cum non, whereas not, is often conveniently translated without; cum non inferior fuisset, C., Off., 1. 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, praecipuē, is often added to the latter.

(Pausaniās) consilia cum patriae tum sibi inimīca capiebat, 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.

[Sīsennae historia] cum facile omnēs vincat superiorēs, tum indicat tamen quantum absit ā 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 Prôtasis, that which contains the consequence is called the Apódosis.

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 sī, 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."-SHAKE-SPEARE). Hence, conditional clauses with si may be regarded as adverbs in the Abl. case, and are often actually represented by the Abl. Absolute.

Sic is found as the correlative of si in the colloquial language, as: sic scribes aliquid, sī vacābis (C., Att., XII. 38, 2); sīc īgnovisse putāto mē tibi, sī cēnās hodiē mēcum (H., Ep., r. 7, 69). Instead of sīc, 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 quando, 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 non or nisi.
- (a) With si non, if not, the non negatives the single word; hence an opposing positive is expected, either in a preceding condition, or in the conclusion. Therefore, sī non is the rule:
 - 1. When the positive of the same verb precedes.
- Sī fēceris, māgnam habēbō grātiam; sī non fēceris, Ignoscam, 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.

Sī mihĬ bonā rē pūblicā fruī non licuerit, at carēbo 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 percontarier (130, 6) volo ego ex te, Pl., Rud., 120; if it is not disagreeable, I wish to ask you a few questions.

So the formulæ nisi fallor (nī 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.

Parvī (= nihili) sunt forīs arma nisi est cōnsilium domī, C., Off., I. 22, 76 (411, R. 2). [Nōn] possem vīvere nisi in lītterīs vīverem, 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. (Sī nōn exerceās, in case you fail to exercise it.)

So more often than sI non, 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, hodiō tē mūscae comēdissent, Cf. Quint., xi. 3, 129; if it had not been for Curio, the flies would have eaten you up this day. Sī nōn fuisset would be equally correct.

2. Nisi is often used after negative sentences or equivalents in the signification of but, except, besides, only:

Inspice quid portem; nihil his nisi triste videbis, Ov., Tr., III. 1, 9; examine what I am bringing; you will see nothing here except (what is) sad. Falsus honor invat et mendax infamia terret, quem nisi mendosum et medicandum? H., Ep., 1. 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.

Necesse est Casilinenses se dedere Hannibali; nisi si malunt fame perire, C., Inv., II. 57, 171; the people of Casilinum 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 [Polycrati] quod nöllet nisi quod änulum quō delectābātur in marī abiecerat, C., Fin., v. 30, 92; nothing had happened to Polycrates 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., in. 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:

Nëmỗ ferë saltat söbrius nisi forte insanit, 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 arbitrāminī, 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 hīc opperiar tamen paulisper, Pl., Aul., 805; Cf. C., Att., v. 14, 8. Even without tamen it is adversative in colloquial Latin, especially after nesciō.

2. NI is found mostly in early Latin and the poets, and in legal formulæ and colloquial phrases. It is rare in Cicero, and never used in Caesar.

Peream nī piscem 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, $s\bar{i}$ is used for the first; $s\bar{i}n$, if not (but if), for the second.

Sin 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 sontext, sī minus, if less (nol), sīn minus, sīn aliter, if otherwise, are commonly used, rarely sī non:

Ēdūc tēcum omnēs tuōs; sī minus, quam plūrimōs, C., Cat., I. 5, 10; take out with you all your (followers); if not, as many as possible. Odero sī poterō; sī non, invītus amābō, Ov., Am., III. II, 35 (242, R. 2).

Note.—Much less common are simple si, or si strengthened by non, nihil, nullus, minus, or by autem, vērō; or sed si, at si (Col.), si contrā (Hor., Plin.). Sin may also be followed by non, but commonly only when one or more words intervene.

Pōma crūda sī sunt, vix ēvelluntur; sī mātūra, dēcidunt, 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.

Quī vidēret, urbem captam dīceret, C., Verr., IV. 23, 52; whoso had seen it, had said that the city was taken. Mīrārētur quī tum cerneret, L., XXXIV. 9, 4 (258).

2. The Protasis may be contained in a Participle.

Si latet ars, prodest; affert deprensa pudorem, Ov., A.A., II. 313; art, if concealed, does good; detected, it brings shame. Māximās 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] ēvenīre nisi causā antecēdente, C., Fat., 15, 34; nothing can happen, unless a cause precede.

3. The Protasis may be involved in a modifier.

Fēcērunt id servī Milōnis quod suōs quisque servōs in tālī rē facere voluisset, C., Mil., 10, 29; the servants of Milo did what each man would have wished his servants to do in such case (sī quid tāle accidisset). At bene nōn poterat sine pūrō pectore vīvī, Luck., v. 18; but there could be no good living without a clean heart (nisi pūrum pectus esset). Neque enim māteriam ipsam (cēnsēbant) cohaerēre potuisse sī nūllā vī continērētur, neque vim sine aliquā 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.

Trīstis 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. Immūtā (verborum collocātionem), perierit tota 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: sī, with the Indicative.
- II. Ideal Conditional Sentences: sī, chiefly with Present and Perfect Subjunctive.
- III. Unreal Conditional Sentences: sI, with Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.

Notes.—1. In some grammars of Greck 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.

Sī id crēdis.

If you believe that,

Sī id crēdēbās, If you believed that,

Sī id crēdidistī.

If you (have) believed that, Sī id crēdēs,

If you (shall) believe that,

Sī id crēdiderīs,

If you (shall have) believe(d) that,

Sī quid crēdidistī. If you have believed anything

(= when you believe anything), Sī quid crēdiderās,

If you had believed anything (= when you believed anything), APODOSIS.

errās.

you are going wrong. errābās,

you were going wrong.

errāstī,

you went (have gone) wrong.

errābis.

you will (be) go(ing) wrong (234, R.).

errāveris,

you will have gone (will go) wrong.

errās,

you go wrong. Comp. 569.

errābās,

you went wrong.

Si spiritum dücit, vivit, C., Inv., 1. 46, 86; if he is drawing (his) breath (breathing) he is living. Parvi sunt foris arma nisi est consilium domi, C., Off., I. 22, 76 (411, R. 2). Si occidi, rēctē fēci; sed non occidi, Quint., IV. 5, 13; if I killed him, I did right; but I did not kill him. [Naturam] sī sequēmur ducem, numquam aberrābimus, C., Off., I. 28, 100; if we (shall) follow nature (as our) guide, we shall never go astray. [Improbos] sī meus consulātus sustulerit, multa saecula propagārit reī pūblicae, C., Cat., II. 5, 11; if my consulship shall have done away with the destructives, it will have added many ages to the life of the State. Si pes condoluit, sī dēns, ferre non possumus, C., Tusc., II. 22, 52 (567). Stomachābātur senex, sī quid asperius dīxeram, C., N.D., I. 33, 93 (567). Vīvam, sī 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 non potes, optima coniunx, finitis gaude tot mihi morte malis, Ov., 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 sī nequeō superōs, Acheronta movēbō, V., A., vii. 312; if I can't bend the gods above, I'll rouse (all) hell below. Sī tot exempla virtūtis nōn movent, nihil umquam movēbit; sī tanta clādēs vīlem vītam nōn fēcit, nūlla faciet, L., xxii. 60, 14; if so many examples of valour stiryou not, nothing will ever do it; if so great a disaster has not made life cheap, none (ever) will. Dēsinēs timēre, sī spērāre dēsierīs, Sen., E.M., 1.5, 7; you will cease to fear, if you (shall have) cease(d) to hope. Peream male, sī nōn optimum erat, H., S., II. 1, 6; may I die the death if it was not best. Sī volēbās participārī, auferrēs (= auferre dēbēbās) dīmidium domum, Pl., Truc., 748; if you wished to share in it, you should have taken the half home. Respīrārō sī tē vīderō, C., Att., II. 24, 5; I shall breathe again, if I shall have seen you.

REMARKS.—I. After a verb of Saying or Thinking (Örātiō Obliqua), the Protasis must be put in the Subjv., according to the rule.

(SI id crēdis, errās.) Dīcō, tē, sī id crēdās, errāre.

Dixi, tē, sī id crēderēs, errāre.

(SI id crēdēs, errābis.) Dīcō, tē, sI id crēdās, errātūrum esse.

Dixi, tē, sī id crēderēs, errātūrum esse.

(SI id crēdidistī, errāstī.) Dīcō, tē, sī id crēdideršs, errāsse. Dīxī, tē, sī id crēdidissēs, errāsse.

For examples, see Ōrātiō Oblīqua, 657.

2. The Subjv. is used by Attraction:

[Arāneolae] rēte texunt ut sī quid inhaeserit cōnficiant, C., N.D., 11. 48, 123 (567). (Sī quid inhaesit cōnficiunt.)

3. The Ideal Second Person takes the Subjv. in connection with the Universal Present:

(Senectūs) plēna est voluptātis sī illā sciās ūtī, 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 exerceās, C., Cat.M., 7, 21 (591, b. 2).

4. Sive—sive (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, ferociter instat victis; seu victus est, instaurat cum victoribus certamen, 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 modo, if only, serves to limit the preceding statement.

Ā deō tantum rationem habēmus, sī 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, 80; Tusc., III. 29, 73): Sī dīs 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., Fum., XII. 6,2: (Brūtus) sī conservātus erit, vicimus (237); Cf. Sen., Ben., III. 62, 145. Pl., Poen., 671, shows us our only example of Pr.—Fut. Pf.: Rēx 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.

PROTASIS.

Sī id crēdās.

If you should (were to) believe that,

Sī id crēdās,

If you should (were to) believe that, Sī id crēdideris.

- If you should (prove to) have believed that (Perfect; Action Past or Future),
 If you should (come to) believe that (Aor.;
- Action Future),
 SI id crēdideris,
 If you (should have) believe(d) that,

APODOSIS.

errēs,

you would be going wrong. erraveris,

you would go wrong. errēs,

you would be going wrong.

you would be going wrong.
errāveris (rare),
you would (have) go(ne) wrong.

Sī vīcīnus tuus eguum meliorem habeat quam tuus est, tuumne eguum mālīs an illīus? 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 te sana mente deposuerit, repetat însaniens, reddere peccatum sit, officium non 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, mentiar, C., Sest., 46, 100; if I should say that this way is not rough, I should lie. SI nunc me suspendam meam operam lüserim, et mels inimīcis voluptātem creāverim, Ph., 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. Ciceroni nemo ducentos nunc dederit nummos nisi fulserit anulus ingens, Juv., vii. 139; no one would give Cicero nowadays two hundred two-pences unless a huge ring glittered (on his hand). Sī quis furioso praecepta det, erit ipso quem monēbit, īnsānior, 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. SI valeant homines, ars tua, Phoebe, iacet, Ov., Tr., IV. 3, 78; should men keep well, your art, Phoebus, is naught. Otia sī tollās. perière Cupidinis arcus, Ov., Rem. Am., 139 (204, N. 6). (Senectus) est plēna voluptātis, sī illā sciās ūtī, Sen., E.M., 12, 4 (595, R. 3). Memoria minuitur nisi eam exerceās, C., Cat.M., 7, 21 (591, b. 2). Nūlla est excūsātio peccātī, sī amīcī 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 $s\bar{s}$ may often be translated, in case that.

Quod üsü nön veniébat de eő sī quis legem constitueret nön tam prohibère videretur quam admonère, 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 constituat, videātur.) Sī Alfēnus tum iūdicium accipere vellet, dēnique omnia quae postulārēs facere voluisset, quid agerēs? C., Quinct., 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:

sī nunc velit, ... voluerit, agās.) Sī tribūnī mē triumphāre prohibērent, Fūrium et Aemilium tēstēs citātūrus fuī, L., XXXVIII. 47; should the tribunes prevent me from triumphing, I was going to summon Furius and Aemilius as witnesses. Quid faceret? sī vīvere 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 Quīnctius, sī cēderēs, plācābilis, L., XXXVI. 32, 5; Quinctius was, if you yielded to him, (sure to be) placable. (Est sī cēdās.) Sī lūxuriae temperāret, avāritiam non timērēs, Tac., H., II. 62; if he were to control his love of pleasure, you should not have feared avarice. (Sī temperet, non timeās.) Cūr igitur et Camillus dolēret, sī haec ... ēventūra putāret? et ego doleam sī...putem? C., Tusc., I. 37, 90. (Present: doleat sī 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 sī hīc sīs, aliter sentiās, Ter., And., 310; if you were I (put yourself in my place), you would think differently. Haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, nonne impetrāre 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: SI 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 non possum is followed by nisi (sī non), 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 munitiones Caesaris prohibere poterat, nisi proelio decertare 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 Ōrātiō Oblīqua 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.

Sī id crēderēs,

If you believed (were believing) that, [you do not,]

Sī id crēdidissēs,

If you had believed that, [you did not,]

Apodosis.

errārēs,

you would be going wrong. errāvissēs.

you would have gone wrong.

Sapientia non expeteretur, si nihil efficeret, C., Fin., 1. 13, 42; wisdom would not be sought after, if it did no practical good. Caederem to, nisi irascerer, Sen., Ira, 1. 15, 3; Ishould flog you, if I were not getting angry. Si ibi to esse scissem, ad to ipse vonissem, C., Fin., 1. 8; if I had known you were there, I should have come to you myself. Hectora quis nosset, folix si Troia fuisset? Ov., Tr., Iv. 3, 75; who would know (of) Hector, if Troy had been happy? Nisi ante Roma profectus esses, nunc eam certo relinqueres, C., Fam., vii. 11, 1; if you had not departed from Rome before, you would certainly leave it now. Ego nisi peperissem, Roma non oppugnaretur; nisi filium haborem, libera in libera patria 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:

Non tam facile opës Carthäginis tantae concidissent, nisi Sicilia clässibus nostris patëret, Cf. C., Verr., 11. 1, 3; the great resources of Carthäge (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 pudorem habërës, ültimam mihi pënsionem remisissës, Sen., E.M., 29, 10; if yon had (= you had not, as you have not) any delicacy, you would have let me off from the last payment. Memoriam ipsam cum võce perdidissēmus, si tam in nostrā potestāte esset oblivisci 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, N.) in

Protogenes si Iālysum illum suum caeno oblitum videret, māgnum, crēdo, acciperet dolorem, C., Att., II. 21, 4; if Protogenes could see that famous Ialysus of his besmeared with mud, he would feel a mighty pang. Sec 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).

Lābēbar 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.

Omnīnō supervacua erat doctrīna, sī nātūra sufficeret, QUINT., II. 8, 8 (254, R. 3). Perāctum erat bellum, sī Pompēium Brundisiī 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 tibl 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 tenuissem? C., Rep., 1. 6, 10; how could I have been consul, if I had not kept that course of life? Antoni gladios 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). Emendaturus, si licuisset, eram, Ov., Tr., 1. 7, 40; I should have removed the faults, if I had been free (to do it). Pons iter paene hostibus dedit (paene dedit = dabat = daturus erat), ni unus vir fuisset, L., 11. 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 tenuissem, C., Rep., I. 6, 10. Qui si fuisset meliore fortuna, fortasse austerior et gravior esse potuisset, C., Pis., 29, 71.

- 4. In Ōrātiō Oblīqua 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. Dīcō (dīxī), tē, sī id crēderēs, errātūrum esse.
 - B. Dīcō (dīxī), tē, sī id crēdidissēs, errātūrum fuisse.
 - A. Dīcō (dīxī), sī id crēderēs, fore ut dēciperēris.
 - B. Dīcō (dīxī), sī 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, fuisse is omitted occasionally in later Latin; Tac., Ann., 1, 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.

Non dubito, I do not doubt, Non dubitābam, I did not doubt, quin, sī id crēderēs, errārēs, that, if you believed that, you would be going wrong. quin, sī id crēdidissēs, errātūrus fuerīs, that, if you had believed that, you would have gone wrong.

Honestum täle est ut, vel sī Ignōrārent id hominēs, esset laudābile, Cf. C., Fin., 11. 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, effūsūra sē omnis pavida multitūdō 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 quīn, sī tam paucī 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 fuerīs, sī eō tempore cēnsor fuissēs? 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 cēgitātiō animum, quōnam modō tolerābilis futūra Etrūria fuisset sī quid in Samniō adversī ēvēnisset, L., x. 45, 3.

(c) Potul (254, R. I) commonly becomes potuerim, and ful with the Periphrastic passive in -dus becomes fuerim, after all tenses.

Haud dubium fuit quin, nisi ea mora intervēnisset, castra eō die Pūnica capī potuerint, 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 etiamsī lēx nōn esset, māgnopere vītanda fuerit, C., Verr., 1. 42, 108.

(d) The passive Conditional is unchanged:

Id ille sī repudiāsset, dubitātis quīn eī vīs esset allāta? 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., 11. 33, 9). In the absence of the Periphrastic tense the Inf. with potuerim is often a sufficient substitute; see L., xxx11. 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 të esset, hodië numquam ad sölem occāsum viverem, 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 mihī (351) līber, cuī mulier imperat? pōscit, dandum est; vocat, veniendum est; ēicit, 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. Ūnum cōgnōrīs, omnīs nōrīs, Ter., Ph., 265; you know one, you know all. Dedissēs huīc animō pār corpus, fēcisset quod optābat, Plin., Ep., 1. 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.

Sī quisquam (= sī quisquam fuit), Catō sapiēns fuit, Cf. C., Lael., 2, 9; if any one was wise, Cato was. Ēdūc tēcum omnēs tuōs; sī minus, quam plūrimōs, C., Cat., 1. 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] ingenia sunt mōbilia, L., II. 37, 4; the dispositions of the Volscians are (too) much more unstable than I should like. Tuam mihī darī vellem ēloquentiam, C., N.D., II. 59, 147; I could wish to have your eloquence given me. Tam fēlīx essēs quam fōrmōsissima 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 Ōrātiō Oblīqua, and sometimes consists in the general notion of Result, Ascertainment, or the like.

Si vērum excutiās, facies non uxor amātur, 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) timebat īram (= ne īrāscerētur) senātūs, nī pāruisset lēgātīs, 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 sī, velut sī, āc sī, quam sī (rare), tamquam sī, 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.

Noli timere quasi [= quam timeas si] assem elephanto des, Quint., vi. 3, 59; don't be afraid, as if you were giving a penny to an elephant. Parvī prīmo ortū sīc iacent tamquam [= iaceant sī] omnīno sine animo sint. C., Fin., v. 15, 42; babies, when first born, lie (there), as if they had no mind at all. Hīc est obstandum, mīlitēs, velut sī ante Romāna moenia pūgnēmus, L., xxi. 41, 15; here (is where) we must oppose them, soldiers, as if we were fighting before the walls of Rome (velut obstemus, si pugnēmus, as we would oppose them, if we were to fight). Mē iuvat, velut ipse in parte laboris ac perículi fuerim, ad finem belli Punici pervenisse. 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). Tantus patres metus cepit velut sī iam ad portās hostis esset, 'L., XXI. 16, 2; a great fear took hold of the senators, as if the enemy were already at their gates. Deleta (est) Ausonum gens perinde ac si internecivo bello certasset, L., IX. 25, 9; the Ausonian race was blotted out, just as if it had engaged in an internecine war (war to the knife).

 $\ensuremath{\mathtt{Remarks.}}\xspace-1.$ Occasionally the sequence is violated out of regard to the Conditional:

Massiliënsës in eð hondre audīmus apud [Romānos] esse āc sī medium umbilīcum Graeciae incolerent, 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. Eius negötium sīc velim suscipiās, ut sī 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, sīc, perinde, proinde, similiter, non (haud) 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 poma ex arboribus, crūda sī sunt, vix ēvelluntur, sīc vītam adulē-

scentibus vis aufert, C., Cat.M., 19, 71.

2. Quasi is used to soften or apologise for a single word (= ut ita dicam).

Mors est quaedam quasi migrātiō commūtātiōque vītae, (f.C., Tusc., 1. 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 participle:

- Galli laetī ut explorātā victoriā ad castra Romānorum pergunt, Cf. Caes., B.G., 111. 13,8; the Gauls in their joy, as if (their) victory had been fully ascertained, proceeded to the camp of the Romans. Antiochus sēcūrus dē bello Romāno erat tamquam non trānsitūris in Asiam Romānīs, 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, Juyenal, 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 $\dot{\omega}_{S}$ with the participle, and occasionally where we might have expected the Acc. and Infinitive.

Pridem invisus tamquam plūs quam cīvīlia agitāret, Tac., Ann., I. 12, 6; long misliked as (in Tiberins' jndgment) plotling high treason. Sūspectus tamquam ipse suās incenderit aedēs, Juv., III. 222; suspected of having (as if he had) set his own house on fire. Vulgī opīniō est tamquam (comētēs) mūtātiōnem rēgnī portendat, Tac. Ann., XIV. 22, 1; it is the popular belief that a comet portends a change in the kingdom.

Other particles, quasi, sīcut, and ut, occur much more rarely and are cited mainly

from Tacitus (quasi only in the Annals). Compare Suet., Tit., 5.

5. Ut sI is rare in early Latin, not being found at all in PLAUTUS. It is found but once in Livy, but frequently in Cierro and later Latin. Velut sI is found first in Caesar. Velut for velut sI is found first in Livy. Ac sI is equivalent to quasi only in late Latin,

CONCESSIVE SENTENCES.

603. Concessive Sentences are introduced by:

- 1. The Conditional particles, etsi, etiamsi, tametsi (tamenetsi).
 - 2. The generic relative, quamquam.
 - 3. The compounds, quanvis, quantumvis.
 - 4. The verb licet.
 - 5. The Final particles, ut (nē).
 - 6. Cum (quom).

These all answer generally to the notion although.

Note.—Etsī (et + sī), even if; etiamsī, even now if; tametsī, yet even if; quamquam (quam + quam), to what extent soever; quamvīs, to what extent you choose; quantumvīs, to what amount you choose; licet, it is left free (perhaps intrans. of linquō, Ileave).

604. Etsī, etiamsī, and tametsī, take the Indicative or Subjunctive, according to the general principles which regulate

the use of si, if. The Indicative is more common, especially with etsi.

Dē futūrīs rēbus etsī semper difficile est dicere, tamen interdum coniectūrā possīs accēdere, C., Fam., vi. 4, 1; although it is always difficult to tell about the future, nevertheless you can sometimes come near it by guessing. [Hamilcar] etsī flagrābat bellandī cupiditāte, tamen pācī serviundum 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 non potest, habēre certē potest, C., Off., 11. 20, 69; the needy man (spoken of), if he cannot return a favour, can at least feel it. Mē vēra prō grātīs loquī, etsī meum ingenium non monēret, necessitās cogit, L., 111. 68, 9; even if my disposition did not bid me, necessity compels me to speak what is true instead of what is palatable.

REMARKS.—I. 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 (605, R. 2), in the sense "and yet;" virtūtem si ūnam āmiserīs—etsī āmitti non potest virtūs, C., Tusc., 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 latter 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.

Medici quamquam intellegunt saepe, tamen numquam aegrīs dicunt, illō morbō eōs esse moritūrōs, C., Div., II. 25, 54; although physicians often know, nevertheless they never tell their patients that they will die of that (particular) disease.

REMARKS.—I. The Potential Subjv. (257, N. 3) is sometimes found with quamquam: Quamquam exercitum qui in Volscis erat mället, nihil recüsävit, 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 Indie., with etsi and quamquam, is, of course, liable to attraction into the Subjv. in Ōrātiō Obliqua (508).

Note.—The Subjv. with quamquam (not due to attraction) is first cited from Cicero (perhaps Tuse., v. 30, 85), Nepos (xxv. 13, 6), after which, following the development in all generic sentences in Latin, it becomes more and more common; thus, in post-Angustan 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).

Quantumvis 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 tū 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 cōnfitēbor 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; Nep., 1. 2, 3 (except in fragments of Varro and Vatinius); 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 ingenio non 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 Epicurus iocetur, tamen numquam mē movēbit, C., N.D., 11. 17, 46.

. 607. Licet retains its verbal nature, and, according to the Sequence of Tenses, takes only the Present and Perfect Subjunctive:

Licet irrideat sI quI vult, C., Parad., 1. 1, 8; let any one laugh who will. Ardeat ipsa licet, tormentIs gaudet amantis, Juv., vi. 209; though she herself is aglow, she rejoices in the tortures of her lover. Sim licet extremum, 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., x111.56.

2. Quamvīs is sometimes combined with licet, as: quamvīs licet însectēmur istōs—metuō nē sōlī philosophī 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 ne are also used concessively for the sake of argument; this is common in CICERO, who often attaches to it sane; the basis of this is the Imperative Subjunctive.

Ut dēsint vīrēs, tamen est laudanda voluntās, Ov., Pont., III. 4, 79;

granted that strength be lacking, nevertheless you must praise (my) good will. No sit summum malum dolor, malum certo est, C., Tusc., II. 5, 14; granted that pain be not the chief evil, an evil it certainly is.

REMARKS.—1. Ut non can be used on the principle of the Specific Negative: Hic dies ültimus est; ut non sit, prope ab ültimo 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 ërumpit, ut eum cupientës tenëre 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. Multōrum të oculi et aurës non sentientem cüstōdient, C., Cat., I. 2, 6; (of) many (the) eyes and ears will keep guard over you, though you perceive it not (without your perceiving it). Quis Aristīdem non mortuum diligit? C., Fin., v. 22, 62; who does not love Aristīdes, (though) dead?

Notes.—1. Quamquam, quamvis, and etsi are often combined with the participle. This, however, is rare in classical Latin, but becomes more common later.

(Caesar), quamquam obsidione Massiliae retardante, brevi tamen omnia

subēgit, SUET., Iul., 34.

2. With adjectives and adverbs this is much more common, so especially with quamvis, which is used with a positive as a circumlocution for the superlative. With the superlative quamvis is rare.

Etsī non inīquum, certē trīste senātūs consultum, L., XXV. 6, 2. Cum omnia per populum geruntur, quamvīs iūstum atque moderātum tamen ipsa aequā-

bilitās est inīqua, C., Rep., 1. 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.—I. 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). Futura modo exspectant; quae quia certa esse non possunt, conficiuntur et angore et metu, C., Fin., 1. 18, 60; they only look forward to the future; and because that cannot be certain, they wear themselves out

with distress and fear. [Epicurus] non satis politus its artibus quās qui tenent, erudīti appellantur, C., Fin., 1. 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 nI fuissem 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.—I. 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 fierī ut is, unde tē audīsse dīcis, īrātus dixerit, C., Or., 11. 70, 285; it may be that he, from whom you say you heard (it), said it in anger. Quō (= quibus) lubeat nūbant, dum dōs nō fīat comes, PL., Aul., 491 (573).

2. The Relative is not to be confounded with the Dependent Interrogative sentence (469, R. 2).

Quae probat populus ego nesciō, 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 tō velim, et tū quod quaeris, sciēs, Ter., And., 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, quī minimum cupit, Syrus, 286 (Fr.) (308). Uxor contenta est quae bona est ūnō virō, Pl., Merc., 812; a wife who is good is contented with one husband. Malum est cōnsilium quod mūtārī nōn potest, Syrus, 362 (Fr.); bad is the plan that cannot (let itself) be changed. Hōc illis nārrō quī mō nōn intellegunt, Phaedr., 3, 128; I tell this tale for those who understand me not. Ego quī tō cōnfīrmō, ipse mō nōn possum, C., Fam., xiv. 4, 5; I who reassure you, cannot reassure muself.

REMARKS.—I. The Relative agrees with the Person of the true Ante-cedent, even when a predicate intervenes; exceptions are very rare:

Tū es is, quI (mē) summis laudibus ad caelum extulistī, C., Fam., xv. 4, 11; you are he that has(t) 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 res, or simple quod, and, if reference is made to a single substantive, is qui or some similar form.
- Si ā võbīs id quod nõn spērō dēserar, tamen animō nõn 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 [Theophrasti] audītor, Stratō, is qui physicus appellātur, C., N.D., 1. 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 mīlia quī Pydnam perfügerant, L., XLIV. 42, 7; there were slain up to six thousand who had fled to Pydna. Equitatum omnem praemittit, quī videant, CAES., B.G., I. 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.

Thebae, quod Boeotiae caput est, L., XLII. 44, 3; Thebes, which is the capital of Boeotia. Flümen Scaldis, quod influit in Mosam, CAES., B.G.,

VI. 33, 3; the river Scheldt, which empties into the Maas. Iüsta glõria, qui est früctus virtütis, C., Pis., 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 quās Graecī comētās vocant, C., N.D., 11. 5, 14; the stars which the Greeks call comets. Est genus quoddam hominum quod Helotae vocātur, 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:

Testarum suffragiis quod illi ostracismum vocant, Nep., v. 3, 1; by potsherd 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:

Grandes nātū mātrēs et parvī līberī, quōrum utrumque aetās misericordiam vestram requīrit, C., Verr., v. 49, 129; aged matrons and infant children, whose age on either hand demands your compassion. Ōtium abque dīvitiae, 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 früges atque früctüs quos terra gignit, C., N.D., 11. 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 virtus est, quando usust, qui malum fert fortiter, Pl., Asin., 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) intellexit diem Instäre, quo die frümentum militibus metiri oporteret, Caes., B.G., I. 16, 5; Caesar saw that the day was at hand, on which day it behooved 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 dies. 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 egressi sunt locum Troia vocatur, L., 1. 1, 3; the first place they landed at was called Troy. Quam quisque norit artem, in hac se exerceat, [C.], Tusc., 1. 18, 41; what trade each man is master of, (in) that let him practise (himself), that let him ply.

Notes.—r. 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.).

Quā enim prūdentiā es, nihil tē fugiet (= eā prūdentiā es, ut nihil tē fugiat), C., Fam., xr. 13, 1. Velīs tantummodo; quae tua virtūs (est), expūg-

nābis, H., S., 1. 9, 54.

2. An appositional substantive, from which a Relative clause depends, is regularly incorporated into the Relative clause.

[Amānus] Syriam ā Ciliciā dividit, qui mons erat hostium plēnus, 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.

Prīscus, vir cūius prōvidentiam in rē pūblicā ante experta cīvitās erat, L., ${\tt IV.~46, 10}.$

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.

[Themistocles] de servis suis quem habuit fidelissimum ad regem misit, Nep., II. 4, 3; Themistocles sent the most faithful slave he had to the king. Nemini credo, qui large 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.

Hōc confirmamus illo augurio quo diximus, 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 pergit, 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 New generating but a large in Corelar for the

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 norminativus 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 quaeris, ego sum, PL., Curc., 419; (as for) that man whom you are looking for, I am he. Ille quī mandāvit eum exturbāstī ex aedibus? PL., Frin., 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 cupit, Syrus, 286 (Fr.) (308). Hic sapiēns, de quō loquor, C., Ac., 11. 33, 105 (305, 3). Illa diēs veniet, mea quā lūgubria pōnam, Ov., Tr., 1v. 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 non fregerant vitia vicerunt, Curt., vi. 2, 1; (him) whom arms had not crushed did vices overcome. Quem di diligunt adulescens moritur, Pl., B., 816; (he) whom the gods love dies young. Xerxes praemium proposuit qui [= ei qui] invenisset novam voluptatem, C., Tusc., v. 7, 20; Xerxes offered a reward to him who should invent a new pleasure. Miseranda vita qui [= eōrum qui] sē metui quam amārī mālunt, Nep., x. 9, 5; pitiable is the life of those who would prefer being feared to being loved. Discite sānārī per quem [= per eum, per quem] didicistis amāre, Ov., Rem.Am., 43 (401).

Difficult and rare are cases like:

Nunc redeo ad quae (for ad ea quae) mihi mandas, 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 sẽ rẽs habet cum quod virtūte effici děbet 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 vidēs accidere puerīs hōc nōbīs quoque māiusculīs puerīs ēvenit, Sen., E. M., 24, 13; what you see befall children (this) happens to us also, children of a larger growth. Quam quisque nōrīt artem, in hāc sẽ exerceat, [C.], Tusc., I. 18, 41 (616, 1).

The Correlative absorbed:

Quod non dedit fortuna, non eripit, Sen., E.M., 59, 18; what fortune has not given (does not give), she does not take away. Per quas nos petitis saepe fugatis opes, 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 sõla places, Ov., A.A., 1. 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: [Conon] non quaesivit ubi ipse tūto viveret, 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 lîber, dominus qui volet esse meus, Mart., 11. 32, 8; he must be free who wishes (shall wish) to be my master. Qui prior strinxerit ferrum, ĉius victoria 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 quodcumque potest, atque addit acervō, H., S., I. I. 34; drags with its mouth whatever it can, and adds to the treasure (heap). Quācumque incēdēbat āgmen, lēgātī 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 non dedit fortūna, non ēripit, Sen., E.M., 59, 18 (620). Non cēnat quotiēns nēmo 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 vīderat [Themistoclēs], C., Ac., II. 1, 2 (567). Sequentur tē quōcumque pervēnerīs 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.—I. Quīcumque, 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.

Quacumque incedebat agmen, legati occurrebant, Liv., xxxiv. 16, 6 (623).

REMARK .- According to 567, N., the Subjv. is used :

(1) In Orātio Oblīqua (Total or Partial) :

Mārtī Gallī quae bellō cēperint (Pf. Subjv.) dēvovent (= sē datūrōs vovent), Cf. Caes., B. G., vi. 17, 3; the Gauls devote (promise to give) to Mars whatever they (shall) take in war (ō. R., Quae cēperīmus, dabimus).

(2) By Attraction of Mood (Complementary Clauses):

Quis eum d'Iligat quem metuat? C., Lael., 15, 53 (629).

(3) In the Ideal Second Person:

Bonus segnior fit ubi neglegas, S:, Iug., 31, 28 (566).

(4) By the spread of the Subjv. in post-classical Latin:

Quī ūnum čius õrdinis offendisset omnēs adversõs habēbat, L., XXXIII 46, 1 (567).

2. Qui = \sin quis, if any, has the Indicative when the Condition is Logical.

[Terra] numquam sine usura reddit, quod accepit, C., Cat.M., 15, 51 (623). (SI quid accepit.) QuI morī didicit, servire dedidicit, Sen., E.M., 26, 10 (423).

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.

Habed senectūtī māgnam grātiam, quae mihi sermonis 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.—Qui with the Subjv. gives a ground, = cum is (586); qui with the Indic., $a \ fact$; and in many passages the causal sense seems to be inevitable:

Insanit hic quidem, qui ipse male dicit sibi, Pl., Men., 309; cracked is this man, who calls (= for calling) down curses on himself. Erraverim fortasse qui me aliquid putavi, 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: quippe, namely. Ut qui 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 Subjuctive. Utpote 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. Quippe qui is the most common of the three, but does not occur in Caesar. In early Latin the mood is the Indic. (except Pr., Pers., 690); also in Sallust. Cicero uses the Subjv.; Livy uses both moods; later the Subjv. is the rule until the time of Applierus.

2. Simple Explanatory qui has the Indic. most commonly in early Latin, and in general developes 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., i. 8, 28; I have what I should like.

OPTATIVE: Quod faustum sit, regem create, L., 1. 17, 10; blessing be on your choice, make ye a king.

REMARKS.—r. 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 sciō, as far as I know, for all I know), which is used throughout the language, and quod quidem veniat in mentem (Pu., Ep., 638). Cicero, however, shows a great variety. Quantum sciam is found first in Quintilian.

Omnium örātörum quōs quidem cōgnōverim acūtissimum iūdicō Sertōrium, C., Br., 48, 180; gf all orators, so far as I know them, I consider Sertorius the most acute. Nūllum ōrnātum 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.

Prodidisti et to et illam, quod quidem in to fuit, Ter., Ad., 692; you have betrayed both her and yourself, so far as in you lay. Ego quod ad mo attinet, iūdices, vicī, 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 Orātio Oblīqua and Final Sentences.

Rēctē Graecī praecipiunt, non temptanda quae efficī 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 Aristotelės ait, bestiolas guasdam nasci quae ūnum diem vivant, C., Tusc., 1. 39, 94 (650). Virtūs facit ut eos dīligāmus in quibus ipsa inesse videātur, C., Off., I. 17, 56; virtue makes us love those in whom she seems to reside. Postulātur ab hominibus ut ab iss sē abstineant māximē vitis, 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. Senātus cēnsuit utī quīcumque Galliam provinciam obtinēret, Haeduos defenderet, CAES., B.G., I. 35; the senate decreed that whoever obtained Gaul as his province should defend the Haedui. Paetus omnēs libros quos frāter suus reliquisset mihī donāvit, C., Att., II. 1, 12; (this is Paetus' statement; otherwise: quos frater eius (521) reliquit; compare C., Att., 1. 20, 7). Xerxes praemium proposuit qui [= ei qui] invēnisset novam voluptātem, C., Tusc., v. 7, 20 (619).

REMARK.—Even in Orātio Obliqua the Indic. is retained:

(a) In explanations of the narrator:

Nüntiätur Afrāniō māgnōs commeātūs quī iter habēbant ad Caesarem ad flümen cōnstitisse, CAES., B.C., 1.51, 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. i.

(b) In mere circumlocutions:

Quis neget haec omnia quae vidēmus deōrum potestāte administrārī? Cf. C., Cat., III. 9, 21; who would deny that this whole visible world is managed by the power of the gods? Prōvidendum est nē quae dīcuntur ab eō quī dīcit 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).

Pigrī est ingenii contentum esse iis 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 metuī putet? C., Lael., 15, 53; who could love a man whom he fears, or by whom he deems himself feared? Nam quod emās possīs iūre vocāre tuum, MART., II. 20, 2; for what you buy you may rightly call your own. Ab aliō exspectēs alterī quod fēcerīs, SYRUS, 2 (Fr.) (319). In virtūte sunt multī ascēnsūs, ut is glōriā māximē excellat, quī virtūte plūrimum praestet, C., Planc., 25, 60 (552). Sī sōlōs eōs dīcerēs miserōs quibus moriendum esset, nēminem eōrum quī vīverent exciperēs; 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 sümptum qui quaerit lucrum, $P_{L.}$, As., 218 (535). Efficitur ab örätöre, ut il qui audiunt ita adficiantur ut örätor velit, 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 perditum 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 quī ēripiunt aliīs quod aliīs largiantur, C., Off., 1. 14, 43; many are they who snatch from some to lavish on others. [Senex] serit arborēs, quae alterī saeclō prōsint, CAECILIUS (C., Tusc., 1. 14, 31) (545). Semper habē Pyladēn aliquem quī cūret Orestem, Ov., Rem. Am., 589 (545). [Māgnēsiam Themistoclī Artaxerxēs] urbem dōnārat, quae eī pānem praebēret, Nep., 11. 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, quī invēstīgābant 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.

Lītterās quās mē sibī mīsisse dīceret (= mīsisset, or mīserat, ut dīxit) recitāvit, C., Ph., 11. 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 idoneus, suitable; aptus, fit; dīgnus, worthy; indīgnus, unworthy; after is, tālis, ēiusmodī, tam, tantus, and the like; after ūnus and solus.

Est innocentia adfectio tālis animī, quae noceat nēminī, C., Tusc., III. S, 16; harmlessness (innocence) is that state of mind that does harm to no one (is innocuous to any one). Ille ego sim cūius laniet furiosa capillos, Ov., A.A., II. 451; may I be the man whose hair she tears in her seasons of frenzy. Solus es, C. Caesar, cūius in victoriā ceciderit nēmo, C., Dei., 12, 34; thou art the only one, Caesar, in whose victory no one has fallen. Quem mea Calliopē laeserit ūnus ego, Ov., Tr., II. 568; I am the only one that my Calliope (= my Muse) has hurt. (Acadēmicī) mentem solam cēnsēbant idoneam cuī crēderētur, C., Ac., I. 8, 30; the Academics held that the mind alone was fit to be believed (trustworthy).

REMARKS.—I. Ut is not unfrequently found instead of qui after the correlatives.

- 2. Idoneus, 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 multī, quīdam, aliī, nōnnūllī, etc., with est, sunt, exsistit, etc.

Est qui, sunt qui, there is, there are some who; nemo est qui, there is none to; nihil est quod, there is nothing; habed quod, I have to; reperiuntur qui, persons are found who (to) . . .; quis est qui? who is there who (to) . . . ? est cur, there is reason for, etc. So, also, fuit cum, there was a time when (580, R. I).

Sunt qui discessum animi a corpore putent esse mortem, C., Tusc., 1.9, 18; there are some who (to) think that death is the departure of the soul from the body. Fuit qui suaderet appellationem mensis Augusti in Septembrem transferendam, Suet., Aug., 100; there was a man who urged (= to urge) that the name of the month (of) August should be transferred to September. Multi fuerunt qui tranquillitatem expetentes a negotiis publics se removerint, C., Off., 1. 20, 69; there have been many who, in the search for quiet, have withdrawn themselves from public engagements. Omnino nemo ullius rei fuit emptor cui defuerit hic venditor, C., Ph., 11. 38, 97 (317, 1). Post mortem in morte nihil est quod metuam mali, Pl., Capt., 741; after death there is no ill in death for me to dread. Nec mea qui digitis lümina condat erit, Ov., Her., 10, 120; and there will be no one to close mine eyes with his fingers. Miserrimus est

quī quom ēsse 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 quī somniīs pāreat, 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:

Multī sunt quī ēripiant,

Multī sunt quī ēripiunt,

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.) dicere, C., Off., I. 24, 84; some dare not say what they think. Sunt-quibus ingrātē timida 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 cūrat habere, H., Ep., II. 2, 182.

- 2. When a definite predicate is negatived, the Indic. may stand on account of the definite statement, the Subjy, on account of the negative:
 - A. Nihil bonum est quod non eum qui id possidet meliorem facit; or,
 - B. Nihil bonum est quod non eum qui id possideat 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.

Māiōra in dēfectione dēliquerant, quam quibus ignōsci posset, I., XXVI. 12, 6; (in that revolt) they had been guilty of greater crimes than could be forgiven (had sinned past forgiveness). Nōn longius hostēs aberant, quam quō tēlum adicī posset, CAES., B.G., II. 21, 3; the enemy were not more than a javelin's throw distant.

Remarks.—1. Classical Latin prefers ut after comparatives.

- 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 (duo) adulēscentēs et Drūsī māximē familiārēs, et in quibus māgnam spem māiorēs collocārent, C., Or., 1. 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 non, and sometimes where we should expect quae non, or quod non.

Sunt certa vitia quae němě est quin effugere cupiat, C., Or., 111. 11, 41; there are certain faults which there is no one but (= everybody) desires to escape. Nil tam difficile est quin quaerendō invēstīgārī possiet (= possit), Ter., Heaut., 675 (552).

REMARK.—That quin was felt not as qui non, but rather as ut non, is shown by the fact that the demonstrative may be expressed:

Non cum quoquam arma contuli quin is mini 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 Causal Sense.—When qui = cum is, as he, the Subjunctive is employed. (See 586, R. 1.)

The particles ut, utpote, quippe, as, are often used in conjunction with the Relative; for their range, see 626, N. 1.

(Caninius) fuit mirificā vigilantiā quī suō tōtō cōnsulātū somnum nōn vīderit, C., Fam., vii. 30, 1; Caninius has shown marvellous watchfulness, not to have seen (= taken a wink of) sleep in his whole consulship.

Ō fortūnāte adulēscēns, quī tuae virtūtis Homērum praecōnem invēneršs!
C., Arch., 10, 24; lucky youth! to have found a crier (= trumpeter) of your valor (in) Homer! Māior glōria in Scīpiōne, Quīnctiī recentior ut quī eō annō triumphāsset, I., 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 quippe, etc., see 626, n. 1. On the sequence of tenses, see 513, n. 3.

634. Relative in a Concessive or Adversative Sense.—Qui is sometimes used as equivalent to cum is in a Concessive or Adversative Sense.

Ego qui leviter Graecās litterās attigissem, tamen cum vēnissem Athēnās 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 Örātiō Oblīqua after a Relative, when the Relative is to be resolved into a Coördinating Conjunction and the Demonstrative.

(Philosophi cënsent) ünum quemque nostrum mundi esse partem, ex quō illud nātūrā consequi ut communem ūtilitātem nostrae anteponāmus, C.,

Fin., III. 10, 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 carlier than Ciceno, and seems to be found principally there, with sporadic examples from other authors.

2. Occasional examples are also found of the Inf. after ets (Livy), quamquam (TAC.), in the sense and yet; cum interim (LIVY), quia (SEN.), nisi (TAC.), sī non (LIVY); and after quem admodum, ut (CIC., LIVY, TAC.), in comparative sentences.

636. Combination of Relative Sentences.—Relative Sentences are eombined by means of Copulative Conjunctions only when they are actually coordinate.

When the second Relative would stand in the same ease 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 ease be the Nominative (d) or Aecusative (e), the Relative may be omitted altogether.

(a) Dumnorix qui principatum obtinebat ac plebi acceptus erat (CAES., B.G., 1. 3, 5),

Dumnorix, who held the chieftaincy, and (who) was accentable to the commons:

(b) Dumnorix qui principatum obtinebat cuique plebs favebat. Dumnorix, who held the chieftaincy, and whom the commons favoured:

(c) Dumnorix qui principātum obtinēbat eique plēbs favēbat, Dumnorix, who held the chieftaincy, and whom the commons favoured:

(d) Dumnorix quem plebs diligebat et principatum obtinebat, Dumnorix, whom the commons loved, and (who) held the chieftaincy:

(e) Dumnorix qui principatum obtinebat et plebs diligebat. 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., 11. 6, 21; L., X. 29, 3; (d) S., Iug., 101, 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 (620).

Qui fortis est, idem fidens est; qui autem fidens est, is non extimescit 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.

Sophron mimorum quidem scriptor sed quem Plato probavit, Quint., 1. 10, 17; Sophron, a writer of mimes, 'tis true, but (one) that Plato approved.

(c) Qui tamen may be added to explain a foregoing statement.

Causam tibi exposuimus Ephesi, quam tū tamen coram facilius cognoscēs, 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;

Illa vīs quae invēstīgat occulta, quae inventiō dīcitur, C., Tusc., 1. 25, 61; the faculty that tracks out hidden things, which is called (the faculty of) research.

4. The Relative is often repeated by anaphora (682) for stylistic reasons. Compare C., Tusc., I. 25, 62; Planc., 33, 81; 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 perfidī (sunt), C., Off., 111. 14, 60; all who are driving at one thing and pretending another are treacherous. [Pisistratus] Homērī librōs cōnfūsōs anteā sīc disposuisse dīcitur ut nunc habēmus, C., Or., 111. 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.

Īgnōrātiō futūrōrum malōrum ūtilior est quam scientia, C., Div., 11. 9, 23 (296). Servī mōribus īsdem erant quibus dominus, Cf. C., Verr., 111. 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 Latīnam linguam locuplētiōrem esse quam Graecam, C., Fin., 1. 3, 10; it is my opinion that the Latin language is richer than the

Greek. Ego Gāium Caesarem non eadem do re publica sentīre 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 Adverbial Correlatives:

1. Adjective correlatives:

tot, totidem	quot,	(so) as many
tantus	quantus,	(so) as great
tālis	quālis,	such $as.$
idem	qui,	the same

2. Adverbial correlatives:

Quot hominës, tot sententiae, (as) many men, (so) many minds, Ter., Ph., 454. Frümentum tanti fuit quanti iste aestimāvit, C., Verr., III. 84, 194; corn was worth as much as he valued it. Plērīque habēre amīcum tālem volunt, quālēs ipsī esse non possunt, C., Lael., 22, 82; most people wish to have a friend of a character such as they themselves cannot possess. Cimōn incidit in eandem invidiam quam pater suus, Nep., v. 3, 1 (310). Nihil est tam populāre quam bonitās, C., Lig., 12, 37; nothing is so winning as kindness. Sīc dē ambitione quōmodo dē amīcā queruntur, Sen., E.M., 22, 10; they complain of ambition as they do of a sweetheart. Tamdū requiēscō quamdū ad tē scrībō, C., Att., IX. 4, 1; I rest as long as I am writing to you. Optō ut ita cuique ēveniat, ut dē rē pūblicā quisque mereātur, 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.

Homő, nôn quam istî sunt, glöriösus, L., XXXV. 49, 7; a man, not (so) vainglorious as they are. Dîscēs quamdiū yolēs, C., Off., I. I, 2; you shall learn (as long) as you wish.

REMARKS.—I. Instead of idem qui, idem ut is sometimes found.

Disputātionem exponimus eisdem fere verbīs ut āctum disputātumque

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, āc, 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 fēlīcius tempus, PLINY, Ep., VIII. 14, 10; time is the shorter, the happier it is. Quam citissimē conficies, tam māximē expediet, Cato, Agr., 64, 2; the quicker the better. Ut quisque sibǐ plūrimum confidit, 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., 11. 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; prō eō ut temporum difficultēs tulit (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 Siculī (C., Tusc., I. 8, 15), as (is, was, to be expected of) Sicilians.

Vir ut inter Aetölös 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 amīcus reī pūblicae quam quī 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. Subsunda dimicătio totiens, quot coniurati superessent, L., II. 13, 2.

II. Comparative Sentences with ATQUE (AC).

643. Adjectives and Adverbs of Likeness and Unlikeness may take atque or āc.

Virtūs eadem in homine āc deō est, C., Leg., I. 8, 25; virtue is the same in man as in god. Date operam nē similī ūtāmur fortūnā atque ūsī sumus, Ter., Ph., 30; do your endeavour that we have not (ill)-luck like that we had before. Dissimulātiō est cum alia dīcuntur āc sentiās, 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) facis āc sī mē rogēs cūr tē duōbus contuear oculīs, et nōn alterō cōnīveam, 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. Nōn dīxī secus āc sentiēbam, 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 atque [aliter] sentiēbam, I spoke one way and yet I was thinking another way.

So we find: Timeo ne aliud credam atque aliud nunties, 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 aliud sentire et loqui, C., Fam., VIII. x. 3; for he has a way of thinking one thing and saying another.

3. These words are principally: aequos, par, pariter, idem, iuxta (from the classical period on), perinde, proinde, pro eō; alius, aliter, secus (usually with a negative), contra, contrarius, similis, dissimilis, simul; and rarely item, talis, totidem, proximo, and a few others. Plautus uses thus some words which involve a similar meaning, as (dô)mutare (M.G., 1350). Compare also M.G., 765; B., 725.

4. Alius and secus have quam occasionally at all periods. On the other hand, non alius and other negative combinations seldom have atque, commonly quam or nisi. After negative forms of alius Cicero has regularly nisi, occasionally practer.

Philosophia quid est aliud (= nihil est aliud) nisi donum deorum ? C., Tusc.,

1. 26, 64; 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 amīcum quam dictum perdidī, Quint., vi. 3, 20; I preferred to lose my friend rather than my joke. Velim existimēs nēminem culquam cāriōrem umquam fuisse quam tō mihǐ, C., Fam., 1. 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:

Vicīnus tuus equum meliōrem habet quam tuus est, Cf. C., Inv., 1. 31, 52 (596). Ego hominem callidiōrem vidī nēminem quam Phormiōnem, Ter., Ph., 591; I have seen no shrewder man than Phormio (= quam Phormiō est). Tibĭ, multō māiōrī quam Āfricānus fuit, mē nōn multō minōrem quam Laelium adiūnctum esse patere, Cf. C., Fam., v. 7, 3.

- On quam pro, and quam qui, see 298. On the double comparative, see 299.
- 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.

Dēpūgnā potius quam serviās, C., Att., VII. 7, 7 (577, N. 6). (Dixērunt) sē mīliēns moritūrōs potius quam ut tantum dēdecoris admittī patiantur, II., IV. 2, 8; they said that they would rather die a thousand times than (to) suffer such a disgrace to slip in. Moritūrōs sē affirmābant citius quam in aliēnōs mōrēs verterentur, II., 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 desertos potius quam abs te defensos esse mālunt, C., Div. in Caec., 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 non minus quam—non magis quam (by Litotes).

(a) Non minus quam means no less than = quite as much:

Patria hominibus non minus quam liberi cara esse debet, (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: non tibi illud factum minus placet quam mihi, where not less than = quite as much as = as little as.

(b) Non magis quam means quite as little, or quite as much:

Animus non magis est sānus quam corpus, Cf. C., Tusc., 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 non in armis praestantior fuit quam in togs, 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, Vergll; much more often in Horace (nine times in the *Satires*, twice in the *Epodes*), who uses it also after a positive.

Non Apollinis magis vērum atque hoc responsumst, Ter., And., 698. Illī non minus āc tibī pectore ūritur intimo flamma, Cat., Lxi. 176. Cf. H., S., II. 7, 96.

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 Orațio Obliqua; the Historical Infinitive, because it is a compendions Imperfect: Orațio Obliqua, because it foreshortens, if it does not actually abridge, and effaces the finer distinctions of Orațio Răcța.

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) minitārī Diodōrō, vōciferārī palam, lacrimās interdum vix tenēre, C., Verr., IV. IS, 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 Cierro and Caesar: this usage is characteristic of Tacitus.

ŌRĀTIŌ OBLĪQUA.

648. The thoughts of the narrator, or the exact words of a person, as reported by the narrator, are called **Ōrātiō Rēcta**, or Direct Discourse.

Indirect Discourse, or **Ōrātiō Oblīqua**, reports not the exact words spoken, but the general impression produced.

REMARKS,-1. Under the general head of Orātio Obliqua are em-

braced also those clauses which imply Indirect Quotation (Partial Obliquity). See 508.

2. Inquam, quoth I, is used in citing the Örātiō Rēcta; āiō, I say, generally in Örātiō Obliqua. Inquam never precedes the Örātiō Obliqua, but is always parenthetic; āiō may or may not be parenthetic. Ōrātiō Rēcta may also be cited by a parenthetic "ut ait," "ut āiunt," 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.D., 111. 5, 13 (484). Aliquot somnia vēra, inquit Ennius, C., Div., 11. 62, 127; "some dreams are true," quoth Ennius.

3. The lacking forms of inquam are supplied by forms of dicere.

649. Ōrātiō Obliqua differs from Ōrātiō Rēcta, 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 $\tilde{\mathbf{0}}$, $\mathbf{0}$,, and did not think first in $\tilde{\mathbf{0}}$, \mathbf{R} , and then transfer to $\tilde{\mathbf{0}}$, $\mathbf{0}$,; also that $\tilde{\mathbf{0}}$, $\mathbf{0}$, is necessarily less accurate in its conception than $\tilde{\mathbf{0}}$, \mathbf{R} ,, and hence it is not always possible to construct the $\tilde{\mathbf{0}}$, \mathbf{R} , from the $\tilde{\mathbf{0}}$, $\mathbf{0}$, 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 $\tilde{\mathbf{0}}$, $\tilde{\mathbf{R}}\tilde{\mathbf{c}}\mathbf{c}\mathbf{t}\mathbf{a}$.

2. O. 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.

(Rēgulus) sententiam nē diceret recūsāvit; (saying that) quam diū iūre iūrandō hostium tenērētur, nōn esse sē senātōrem, C., Off., 111. 27, 100.

(Idem Rēgulus) reddī captīvos negāvit esse ūtile; (saying that) illos enim

adulēscentēs esse, sē iam confectum senectūte, 1b.

Sometimes, after a long stretch of \(\bar{0}\). Obliqua, the writer suddenly shifts to the \(\bar{0}\). R\(\bar{e}\)cta. Examples: C., Tusc., 11. 25, 61; L., 11. 7, 9, etc.

Moods in Ōrātiō Oblīqua.

650. In Ōrātiō Oblīqua the principal clauses (except Interrogatives and Imperatives) are put in the *Infinitive*, the subordinate clauses in the Subjunctive.

Örātiō Rēcta: Apud Hypanim fluvium, inquit Aristotelēs,

Örātiō Oblīqua: Apud Hypanim fluvium Aristotelēs ait

Ö. R.: bēstiolae quaedam nāscuntur, Ö. O.: bēstiolās quāsdam nāsci, Ö. R.: quae ünum diem vīvunt.

O. R.: quae ünum diem vīvunt,
 O. O.: quae ünum diem vīvant, C., Tusc., 1. 39, 94.

On the river Bog, says Aristotle, | little creatures are born, that live (but)

0. 0.—Aristotle says that on the river Bog, one day.

Socrates dicere solebat:

Ö. R. Omnēs in eð quod sciunt satis sunt ēloquentēs,

O. O. Omnes in eo quod scirent satis esse eloquentes, C., Or., 1. 14, 63.

O. R. Socrates used to say: "All men are eloquent enough in what they under-

0.0. Socrates used to say that all men were eloquent enough in what they under-

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 ō. R. continues to be Subjv. in ō. 0.

Note.—In Caesar, B.C., III. 73, 6, where a principal clause is apparently put in the Subjv., instead of detrimentum in bonum verteret, read (fore ut)... verteret, 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 sõ prius in Galliam võnisse quam populum Rõmānum: quid sibĭ vellet cūr in suās possessiõnēs venīret, 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 tibĭ vīs?)

REMARKS.—I. Indicative Rhetorical Questions (464), being substantially statements, are transferred from the Indic. of $\bar{\mathbf{0}}$. R. to the Acc. and Inf. of $\bar{\mathbf{0}}$. O. when they are in the First and Third Persons. The Second Person goes into the Subjunctive.

O. R. Num possum? Can I?

[No.] 0. 0. Num posse?

CAES., B. G., 1. 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. II, 6; whither should they go, if repelled by the Romans? (Quō ibimus?) Cuī nōn appārēre ab eō quī prior arma intulisset iniūriam ortam (esse)? L., XXXII. IO, 6; to whom is it not evident that the wrong began with him, who had been the first to wage war? (Cuī nōn appāret?)

Examples are not found in early Latin, are rare in classical period, but are especially common in Livy.

SI bonum dücerent, quid pro noxio damnassent? L., XXVII. 34, 13; if they thought him a good man, why had they condemned him as guilty? (Si bonum dücitis, quid pro noxio damnastis?)

The Question in the Second Person often veils an Imperative. Here from Livy on the Subjv. is the rule.

Nec cëssabant Sabinī înstāre rogitantēs quid tererent tempus, I.., III. 61, 13. (Ö. R., Quid teritis?)

Exceptions are rare; Subjv. with Third Person, Caes., B.C., 1. 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 sibǐ persuādēret sine certā rē Ambiorigem ad ēiusmodī cōnsilium 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 sibǐ persuādeat?)

The Inf. form would be the Future: quem sibi persuasurum? (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).

Redditur responsum: nondum tempus pügnae 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. (O. R., castrīs vos tenēte.) (Vercingetorīx) cohortātus est: nē perturbārentur incommodo, CAES., B.G., VII. 29, 1; Vercingetorix comforted them (by saying) that they must not allow themselves to be disconcerted by the disaster. (O. R., nolite perturbārī.)

REMARKS.—I. Ut can be used according to 546, after verbs of Will and Desire and their equivalents.

Pythia respondit ut moenibus ligneis se munirent, Nep., 11. 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.

Ubii õrābant ut sibi auxilium ferret; ad auxilium spemque reliqui temporis satis futūrum, CAES., B.G., IV. 16, 5.

Tenses in Ōrātiō Oblīqua.

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 **5**. **0**., 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 **Repraesentātiō**. In Conditional Sentences **Repraesentātiō** 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:

Lēgātiōnī Ariovistus respondit: sibǐ mīrum vidērī quid in suē Galliā quam bellō vīcisset, Caesarī negōtiī esset, Caesa, B.G., I. 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 Helvētiōrum] Caesar respondit: consuesse deos immortālēs, quo gravius hominēs ex commūtātione rērum doleant, quos pro scelere eorum ulcīscī velint, hīs secundiorēs interdum rēs concēdere, Caes., B.G., I. 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 hace Mārcius respondit: Sī quid ab senātū petere vellent, ab armīs discēdant, S., C., 34, 1; thereto Marcius replied: If they wished to ask anything of the senate, they must lay down their arms.

Proinde aut cöderent (undesired alternative) animo atque virtüte genti per eös dies totiens ab se victae, aut itineris finem sperent (desired alternative) campum interiacentem Tiberi ac moenibus Römänis, L., XXI. 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.—I. Coordinate 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 nos te hic vidisse iacentis, dum sanctis patriae legibus obsequimur, C., Tusc., 1. 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 Ōrātiō Oblīqua, Total and Partial.

- I. 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 futurum 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 $\bar{\mathbf{0}}$. $\mathbf{0}$., the difference between many forms disappears. For instance,
 - I. 1. Sī id crēdis, errābis.
 - 2. Sī id crēdēs, errābis. Dīcō tē, sī id crēdās, errātūrum esse.

3. Sī id crēdās, errēs.

- II. 1. Sī id crēdis, errābis.
 - 2. Sī id crēdēs, errābis.

 Dīxī tē, sī id crēderēs, errātūrum esse.
 - 3. SI id crēdās, errēs.
 - 4. Sī id crēderēs, errārēs.
- III. 1. Sī id crēdideris, errābis.
 - Sī id crēdiderīs, errēs.
 Sī id crēdiderīs, errāverīs.

 Dīxī tē, sī id crēdidissēs, errātūrum esse.
 - 4. SI id crēdidissēs, errārēs,

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 Repraesentātiō' 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: sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset, sēsē ad illum ventūrum fuisse: sī quid ille sē velit, illum ad sē venīre oportēre, Caes., B.G., 1.

34.2; Ariovistus 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 (Ariovistus). Ö. R.: sī quid mihǐ ā Caesare opus esset, ego ad illum vēnissem; sī quid ille mē vult, illum ad mē venīre oportet.

Fatentur se virtūtis causā, nisi ea voluptātem faceret, ne manum quidem versūros fuisse, C., Fin., v. 31, 93; they confess that for virtue's own sake, if it did not cause pleasure, they would not even turn a hand. O.R.: nisi ea voluptātem

faceret në manum quidem verterëmus.

(b) Occasionally in the Logical Condition the Fut. Indic. is changed to the Fut. Periphrastic Subjv., thus: sī adsēnsūrus esset, etiam opinātūrum is an 0.0.

quotation for sī...adsentiētur, opīnābitur 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, with fore 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 Ōrātiō Obliqua.

- 1. Ad haec Ariovistus respondit: sī ipse populō Rōmānō nōn praescrīberet quemadmodum suō iūre ūterētur, nōn oportēre sēsē ā populō Rōmānō in suō iūre impedīrī, CAES., B.G., I. 36, 2; to this Ariovistus 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. (Ō. R.: sī ego nōn praescrībō, nōn oportet mē impedīrī.)
- 2. SI bonum dücerent, quid pro noxio damnassent? SI noxium comperissent, quid alterum (consulatum) crederent? L., xxvII. 34, 13; 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—ducitis, quid damnastis? sI—comperistis, quid creditis?)
- 3. Titurius clāmitābat, suam sententiam in utramque partem esse tūtam; sī nihil esset (Ō. R.: sī nihil erit) dūrius, nūllō perīculō ad proximam legiōnem perventūrōs (Ō. R.: perveniētis); sī Gallia omnis cum Germānīs cōnsentīret (Ō. R.: sī cōnsentit) ūnam esse (Ō. R.: est) in celeritāte positam salūtem, 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 sī hostem Hibērō interclūdere 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. (Ö. R.: is labōrum finis erit (or fuerit) sī hostem interclūdere potuerīmus.
- 5. [HI] Iugurthae non mediocrem animum pollicitando accendebant si Micipsa rex occidisset, fore uti solus imperi Numidiae potiretur, S., Iug., 8, 1; these persons kindled no little courage in Jugurtha('s heart) by promising over and over that if King Micipsa fell, he alone should possess the rule over Numidia. (Ö. R.: si Micipsa occiderit, tū solus imperi potieris.)

- 6. [Fidēs data est] sī Iugurtham vīvom aut necātum sibī trādidisset fore ut illī senātus inpūnitātem et sua omnia concēderet, S., Iug., 61, 5; his word was pledged that if he delivered to him Jugurtha, alive or dead, the senate would grant him impunity, and all that was his. (Ö. R.: sī mihī trādiderīs, tibī senātus tua omnia concēdet.)
- 7. Non multo ante urbem captam exaudīta vox est ... futūrum esse, nisi provisum esset, ut Roma caperētur, C., Div., 1. 45, 101; not long before the taking of the city, a voice was heard (saying), that unless precautions were adopted, Rome would be taken. (Ö. R.: nisi provisum erit, Roma capiētur.)
- 8. Ariovistus respondit sī quid ille sē velit illum ad sē venīre oportēre, CAES., B.G., I. 34, 2 (656, 3, N. 2).
- 9. Ariovistus respondit nisi dēcēdat [Caesar] sēsē illum prō hoste habitūrum; quod sī eum interfēcerit, multīs sēsē nōbilibus prīncipibusque populī Rōmānī grātum esse factūrum, Caes., B.G., 1. 44, 12; Ariovistus 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 dēcēdēs tē prō hoste habēbō...sī tē interfēcerō grātum fēcerō; 244, R. 4.)

REMARK.—Posse is used as has been stated (656, 2, R.).

Negārunt dirimī bellum posse nisi Messēniīs Achaei Pylum redderent, L., XXVII. 30, 13; they said that the war could not be stopped unless the Achaeans restored Pylos to the Messenians. (ō. R.: bellum dirimī non potest (poterit) nisi Pylum reddent.)

Docent, sī turris concidisset, non posse mīlitēs continērī quīn 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. (Ö. R.: sī conciderit, non possunt (poterunt) continērī.)

658. Ideal Conditions in Oratio Obliqua.

- I. Ait sē sī ūrātur "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. B.: sī ūrar, dīcam, same form as Logical.)
- 2. Voluptātem sī ipsa prō sē loquātur concēssūram arbitror Dīgnitātī, 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. Sī loquātur, concēdat. Compare 596, R. I.

659. Unreal Conditions in Orātio Oblīqua.

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. (5. R.; sī Caesar adesset, Eburōnēs nōn venīrent.) On the rareness of

this form, see 599, R. 4; and even this passage has been emended into ventūrōs sēsē (for esse).

- 2. [Appārēbat] sī diūtius vīxisset, Hamilcare duce Poenos arma Ītaliae inlātūros fuisse, I., xxi. 2, 2; it was evident that if he had lived longer, the Punics would have carried their arms into Italy under Hamilcar's conduct.
- 3. Nisi eð ipső tempore núntil de Caesaris victöria essent allati existimabant plerique futúrum fuisse ut (oppidum) amitteretur, Caes., B.C., ni. 101, 3; had not news of Caesar's victory been brought at that very time, most persons thought the city would have been lost. (Ö. R.: nisi núntif allati essent, oppidum amissum esset.)

Note.—As the Plupf. Indic. is sometimes used (rhetorically) for the Subjv. (254, R. 3), so the ordinary Pf. Inf. is sometimes employed instead of the Periphrastic:

Nemő mihľ persuāděbit multos praestantěs viros tanta esse conātos (= conātūros fuisse) nisi animo cernerent (597, R. 1) posteritätem ad ső pertinere, C., Cat.M., 23,82; no one will persuade me that (80) many eminent men had made such mighty endeavours, had they not seen with their minds' (eye) that posterity belonged to them. Agricola solébat nārrāre sö prīmā in iuventā studium philosophiae ācrius hausisse (Ö. R.: hauserat), nī prūdentia mātris coercuisset, 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 potuisse:

(Pompēlum) plērīque existimant sī ācrius Insequī voluisset bellum eō diē potuisse fīnīre, Caes., B. C., 111. 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. (Ō. R.: sī voluisset, potuit, 597, R. 3.) Namque illā multitūdine sī sāna mēns esset (597, R. 1) Graeciae, supplicium Persās dare potuisse, 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). (Ō. R.: sī sāna mēns esset Graeciae, supplicium Persae dare potuērunt.)

Pronouns in Örātiō Oblīqua.

- 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 dēcēdat [Caesar] sēsē illum prō hoste habitūrum: quod sī eum interfēcerit, multīs sēsē nōbilibus prīncipibusque populī Rōmānī grātum esse factūrum, CAES., B.G., I. 44, 12 (657, 9).

Of course, this does not exclude the ordinary demonstrative use.

3. Hie and iste are commonly changed into ille or is, nunc is changed into tum and tune, except when already contrasted with tune, when it is retained (S., *Iug.*, 109, 3; 111, 1).

Diodōrus [respondit] illud argentum sē paucīs illīs diēbus mīsisse Lilybaeum, C., Verr., 1V. 18, 39 (398, R. 4).

- 4. Nos 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 $\bar{\mathbf{0}}$. **0**. with reference to the principal subject, as contrasted with the person addressed. Usually, however, **ipse** would have occurred in the $\bar{\mathbf{0}}$. **R.** as well.

Ariovistus respondit: Sī ipse populō Rōmānō nōn praescrīberet, quemadmodum suō iūre ūterētur, nōn oportēre sēsē ā populō Rōmānō in suō iūre impedirī, Caes., B.G., i. 36, 2 (657).

661. Specimens of the conversion of Ōrātiō Oblīqua into Ōrātiō Rēcta.

Örātiō Oblīqua.

Ōrātiō Rēcta.

1. Ariovistus respondit :

Trānsisse Rhēnum sēsē non suā sponte sed rogātum et arcessītum ā Gallīs; non sine māgnā spē māgnīsque praemiīs domum propinquosque reliquisse; sedes habere in Gallia ab ipsīs concessas, obsides ipsorum voluntate datos; stipendium capere iure belli, quod victores victis imponere consuerint. Non sēsē Gallīs sed Gallos sibī bellum intulisse; omnēs Galliae cīvitātēs ad sē oppūgnandum vēnisse et contrā sē castra habuisse; eās omnēs copiās ā sē ūno proelio pulsās āc superātās esse. Sī iterum experīrī velint, sē iterum parātum esse dēcertāre ; sī pāce ūtī velint, inīguum esse dē stīpendiō recūsāre, quod suā voluntāte ad id tempus pependerint. Amīcitiam populī Romani sibi ornamento et praesidio, non detrimento esse oportere idque sē eā spē petīsse. Sī per populum Romanum stipendium remittātur et dēditīciī subtrahantur, non minus libenter sēsē recūsātūrum populī Romānī amīcitiam quam appetierit. Quod multitūdinem Germanorum in Galliam trādūcat, id sē suī mūniendī, non Galliae impūgnandae causā facere; ēius reī tēstimonio esse quod nisi rogātus non vēnerit et quod bellum non intulerit sed defenderit.

CAES., B.G., 1. 44.

Trānsiī Rhēnum non meā sponte sed rogātus et arcessītus ā Gallīs; non sine māgnā spē māgnīsque praemiīs domum propinquosque relīquī; sēdēs habeo in Gallia ab ipsīs concēssās, obsidēs ipsorum voluntāte datos; stīpendium capiō iūre bellī, quod victorēs victīs imponere consuerunt. Non ego Gallīs sed Gallī mihī bellum intulērunt; omnes Galliae cīvitātēs ad mē oppūgnandum vēnērunt et contrā mē castra habuērunt; eae omnēs copiae a mē uno proelio pulsae āc superātae sunt. Šī iterum experīrī volunt, iterum parātus sum decertare, si pace uti volunt, iniquum est de stipendio recusare, quod sua voluntate ad hoc tempus pependērunt. Amīcitiam populī Romani mihi ornamento et praesidio, non detrimento esse oportet idque eā spē petiī. Sī per populum Romānum stīpendium remittētur et deditīciī subtrahentur, non minus libenter recūsābō populī Rōmānī amīcitiam quam appetiī. Quod multitūdinem Germānorum in Galliam trādūcam,* id meī mūniendī, non Galliae impūgnandae causā facio; ēius reī tēstimonio est quod nisi rogātus non vēnī et quod bellum non intulz sed defendi.

^{*} Allusion to the preceding speech, otherwise traduco.

Ōrātiō Obliqua.

2. His Caesar ita respondit:

Eō sibī minus dubitātionis darī quod eas res quas legati Helvetii commemorāssent memoriā tenēret atque eō gravius ferre quō minus merito populi Romani accidissent; quī sī alicūius iniūriae sibi conscius fuisset non fuisse difficile cavere: sed eō dēceptum quod neque commissum ā sē intellegeret quārē timēret neque sine causā timendum putāret. Quod sī veteris contumēliae oblīvīscī vellet, num etiam recentium iniūriārum, quod eō invītō iter per provinciam per vim temptāssent, quod Aeduos, quod Ambarros, quod Allobrogas vexāssent memoriam deponere posse? Quod suā vietoriā tam īnsolenter gloriārentur, quodque tam diū sē impūne tulisse iniūriās admīrārentur eōdem pertin*ēre*. Consu*ēsse* enim deōs immortālēs quō gravius hominēs ex commūtātione rērum doleant, quos pro scelere eorum ulcisci velint, his secundiores interdum rēs et diūturniōrem impūnitatem concedere. Cum ea ita sint, tamen sī obsidēs ab iīs sibī dentur, uti ea quae polliceantur factūros intellegat, et sī Aeduīs dē iniūriīs quās ipsīs sociīsque eōrum intulerint, item sī Allobrogibus satisfaciant, sēsē cum iīs pācem esse factūrum.

CAES., B.G., I. 14.

Ōrātiō Rēcta.

Hoc mihž minus dubitationis datur quod eas res quas vos, legati Helvētiī, commemorāstis, memoriā teneō atque hōc gravius ferō quō minus merito populi Romani accid*erunt*; quī sī alicūius iniūriae sibi conscius fuisset, non fuit difficile cavere; sed eo deceptus quod neque commissum ā sē intellegēbat quare timeret neque sine causa timendum putābat. Quod sī veteris contumeliae oblivisci volo, num etiam recentium iniūriārum, quod *mē* invītō iter per prōvinciam per vim temptāstis, quod Aeduos, quod Ambarros, quod Allobrogas vexãstis, memoriam deponere possum? Quod vestrā victōriā tam īnsolenter gloriāminī, quodque tam diū võs impūne tulisse iniūriās admīrāminī eodem pertinet. Consue $v\bar{e}runt$ enim di immortales quo gravius hominēs ex commūtātione rērum doleant, quōs prō scelere eōrum ulcīscī volunt, hīs secundiōrēs interdum rēs et diūturniorem impūnitātem concēdere. Cum haec ita sint, tamen sī obsidēs ā vobīs mihī dabuntur, utī ea, quae pollicēminī, factūrōs intellegam et sī Aeduīs dē iniūriis quās ipsīs sociisque eōrum intulistis, item si Allobrogibus satisfaci*ēti*s, *ego vōbīs*cum pācem faciam.

3. Sulla rēgī patefēcit:

Quod polliceātur, senātum et populum Rōmānum, quoniam amplius armīs valuissent, nōn in grātiam habitūrōs; faciundum aliquid, quod illōrum magis quam suā rētulisse vidērētur; id ideō in promptū esse, quoniam Iugurthae copiam habēret, quem sī Rōmānīs trādidisset, fore ut illī plūrimum dēbērētur; amīcitiam, foedus, Numidiae partem, quam nunc peteret, tunc ūltrō adventūram.

S., Iug., 111.

Quod pollicēris, senātus et populus Rōmānus quoniam amplius armīs valuērunt, nōn in grātiam habēbunt; faciundum aliquid, quod illōrum magis quam tuā rētulisse videātur; id ideō in prōmptū est, quoniam Iugurthae cōpiam habēs, quem sī Rōmānīs trādiderīs tibū plūrimum dēbēbitur; amīcitia, foedus, Numidiae pars, quam nunc petīs, tunc ūltrō advenēt.

Örātiö Obliqua.

Oratio Recta.

4. Athēnienses deploraverunt vāstātionem populātionemque miserābilem agrorum. Neque sē id queri quod hostilia ab hoste passi forent; esse enim quaedam bellī iūra quae ut facere ita patī sit fās. Sata exūrī, dīruī tēcta, praedās hominum pecorumque agī misera magis quam indīgna patientī esse; vērum enim vēro id sē queri, quod is, quī Romānos alienigenās et barbarōs vocet, adeō omnia simul dīvīna hūmānague iūra polluerit ut priore populatione cum infernis diīs, secundā cum superīs bellum nefārium gesserit. Omnia sepulcra monumentaque diruta esse in fīnibus suīs, omnium nūdātos mānēs, nūllius ossa terrā tegī. Quālem terram Atticam fēcerit, exornātam quondam opulentamque, tālem eum sī liceat Aetoliam Graeciamque omnem factūrum. Urbis quoque suae similem deformitātem futūram fuisse, nisi Rōmānī subvēnissent.

L., xxxi. 30.

Non id querimur quod hostilia ab hoste passī sumus. Sunt enim quaedam belli iūra quae ut facere ita patī est fās. Sata exūrī, dīruī tēcta, praedās hominum pecorumque agi misera magis quam indigna patientī sunt; vērum enim vēro id querimur quod is, qui Romanos alienigenās et barbaros vocat, adeo omnia simul dīvīna hūmānague iūra polluit ut priore populatione cum Infernīs diīs, secundā cum superīs bellum nefārium gesserit. Omnia sepulcra monumentaque diruta sunt in finibus nostris, omnium nūdātī mānēs, nūllīus ossa terrā teguntur. Qualem terram Atticam fēcit, exōrnātam quondam opulentamque, tālem is, sī licēbit (or: liceat) Aetoliam Graeciamque omnem faciet (or: faciat). Urbis quoque nostrae similis deformitas fuisset, nisi Romani subvēnissent.

INVOLVED ŌRĀTIŌ OBLĪQUA. ATTRACTION OF MOOD.

662. Orātio Obliqua proper depends on some verb of Thinking or Saying, expressed or understood. In a more general sense the term o. 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 defeceris, C., Lael., 11, 37; it is hard for friendship to abide if you (one) have fallen away from virtue. Proprium hūmānī ingeniī est odisse quem laeseris, TAC., Agr., 42, 4; it is (peculiar to) human nature to hate whom you have injured. (But odisti 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).

Recordatione nostrae amicitiae sic fruor 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 në 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). Isto bono ūtāre dum adsit, cum absit, ne requirās, C., Cat.M., 10, 33 (263, 2, a). Quare fiebat ut omnium oculos quotiescumque in publicum prodisset ad se converteret, NEP., VII. 3, 5 (567; quotiescumque prodierat convertebat). Nescire quid antequam natus sis 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 sibi praestruit ut cum operae pretium sit, cum mercēde 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. [Araneolae] rēte texunt ut sī quid inhaeserit conficiant, C., N.D., II. 48, 123 (567; sī quid inhaesit conficiunt). Abeuntī sī quid poposcerit concedere moris, TAC., G., 21, 4; to the departing (quest) it is customary to grant anything that he asks (sī quid poposcit concedunt).

Notes.—1. Dum not unfrequently resists the Attraction both in prose and poetry: Tantum në noceās dum vis prodesse vidēto, Ov., Tr., I. I., 101 (548).

2. On the retention of the Indic. in Relative clauses, see 628, R.

- 2. Partial Obliquity.—(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.

(Iugurtha) timēbat īram senātūs (= nē īrāscerētur senātus) nī pāruisset lēgātīs, S., Iug., 25, 7 (601). [Ubiīs] auxilium suum (= sē auxiliātūrum) pollicitus est, sī ab Suēbīs premerentur, CAES., B.G., IV. 19, 1. Praetor aedem (= sē aedificātūrum) Diovī vēvit sī eē diē hostīs fūdisset, L., XXXI. 21, 12.

The idea of 0. 0. is shown in the tense:

SI per Metellum licitum esset mātrēs veniēbant (= ventūrae erant), C., Verr., v. 49, 129. [Dictātor] ad hostem dūcit nūllō locō nisi necessitās cogeret fortūnae sē commissūrus, L., XXII. 12, 2 (438, N.).

PARTICIPIAL SENTENCES.

664. 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 coördinate clause, but the Participle itself is never coördinate, and such clauses are never equivalents. (410, R. 2.)

Mānlius Gallum caesum torque spoliāvit, 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.). (Miltiadēs) capitis absolūtus, pecūniā multātus est, Nep., 1. 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 mūtāvit mōrēs, L., XXXVII. 54, 18; nor hath the change of land changed the character. Teucer Ulixēn reum facit Āiācis occīsī, QUINT., IV. 2, 13; Teucer indicts Ulysses for the murder of Ajax. Inter haec parāta atque dēcrēta, S., C., 43, 3.

3. On the Participle after verbs of Perception and Representation, see 536.

665. Participles may represent Time When.

Alexander moriens anulum suum dederat Perdiccae, Nep., xvIII. 2, 1; Alexander (when he was) dying, had given his ring to Perdiccas. Dionysius tyrannus Syracusis expulsus Corinthi pueros docebat, C., Tuse., 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.

(Solon et Pisistratus) Servio Tullio regnante viguerunt, C., Br., 10, 39; Solon and Pisistratus flourished when Servius Tullius was king (in the reign of Servius Tullius). Sole orto Volsci se circumvallatos viderunt, 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) excessum Augustī non prius palam fēcit quam Agrippā iuvene interēmptō, Tib., 22; see also Iul., 58.

666. Participles may represent Cause Why.

Arēopagītae damnāvērunt puerum coturnīcum oculos ēruentem, Cf. Quint., v. 9, 13; the court of Mars' Hill condemned a boy for plucking out (because he plucked out) the eyes of quails. Athēniēnsēs Alcibiadem corruptum ā rēge Persārum capere noluisse Cymēn arguēbant, 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.

(Römäni veterës) regnäri omnës volëbant libertätis dulcëdine nöndum expertä, 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 Tacirus.

667: Participles may represent Condition and Concession.

SI latet ars prodest, affert deprensa pudorem, Ov., A.A., 11. 313 (593, 2). [Risus] interdum ita repente erumpit ut eum cupientes tenere nequeamus, Cf. C., Or., 11. 58, 235 (609). (Miltiades) capitis absolūtus, pecūniā multātus est, Nep., 1. 7, 6 (664, r. 1).

Ablative Absolute.

Māximās virtūtēs iacēre omnēs necesse est voluptāte 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).

Omnēs aliud agentēs, aliud simulantēs, perfidī (sunt), C., Off., III. 14, 60 (637). [Pīsistratus] Homērī librēs cēnfūsēs anteā sīc disposuisse dīcitur ut nunc habēmus, C., Or., III. 34, 137 (637).

Remark.—So-called, qui dicitur, vocātur, quem vocant; above-mentioned, quem anteā, 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**, Iam, 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 non trānsmīsit, Suet., Tib., 18; when Tiberius was about to cross the Rhine, he did not send over the provisions.

2. Cause Why.

Dērīdiculō fuit senex foedissimae adūlātionis tantum infāmiā ūsūrus, Tac., Ann., 111. 57, 3; a butt of ridicule was the old man, as infamy was the only gain he would make by his foul fawning. Antiochus sēcūrus dē bellō Rōmānō erat tamquam non trānsitūrīs in Asiam Rōmānīs, L., XXXVI. 41, 1 (602, N. 3).

3. Purpose (usually after a verb of Motion).

(Maroboduus) mīsit lēgātōs ad Tiberium ōrātūrōs auxilia, Tac., Ann. 11. 46 (438, N.). Cōnsul Lārīsam est profectus, ibi dē summā bellī cōnsultātūrus, L., XXXVI. 14, 5.

Note.—The Pr. Participle is sometimes used in a similar sense, but the Purpose is only an inference:

Legati venerunt nuntiantes Asiae quoque civitates sollicitari, L., xxx1. 2, 1; envoys came with the announcement that the states of Asia also were tampered with.

- 4. Condition and Concession.
- (1) Protasis.

Dēditūrīs sē Hannibalī fuisse accersendum Rōmānōrum 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 dēditūrī fuissent, ō. R.; sī dēditūrī fuērunt.)

(2) Apodosis.

Quatiunt arms, ruptūrī imperium nī dūcantur, Tac., H., 111. 19, 3; they clash their arms, ready to break orders, if they be not led forward. Librum mīsī exigentī tibī, missūrus etsī nōn exēgissēs, Plin., Ep., 111. 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. r. 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:
 - I. 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.
- ı. Dionỹsius tyrannus, Syrācūsīs expulsus, 2. Corinthī puerōs docēbat, C., Tusc., III. 12, 27~(665).

Rhetorical positions:

Potentēs sequitur invidia, QUINT., IV. 1, I4 (477, N. 4). Nobīs non satis-

facit ipse Dēmosthenēs, Cf. C., Or., 29, 104 (552, R. 1). Dīscrīptus (erat) populus cēnsū, ōrdinibus, aetātibus, C., Leg., III. 19, 44 (397). Intrā moenia 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 Nepos and Livy.

675. Rule II.—Interrogative Sentences begin with the interrogative, subordinate clauses with the leading particle or relative.

Quis eum diligat quem metuat? C., Lael., 15, 53 (629). Postquam Caesar pervēnit obsidēs popōscit, Caes., B.G., 1. 27, 3 (561). Si spīritum dūcit vīvit, C., Inv., 1. 46, 86 (595). Quī timēre dēsierint ōdisse incipient, Tac., Agr., 32 (567).

Rhetorical position:

[Nātūram] sī sequēmur ducem, numquam aberrābimus, C., Off., I. 28, 100 (595). Dē futūrīs rēbus etsī semper difficile est dicere, tamen interdum coniectūrā possīs accēdere, C., Fam., vi. 4, 1 (604). [Catō] mīrārī sē āiēbat quod non rīdēret haruspex, haruspicem cum vīdisset, C., Div., II. 24, 51 (567).

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 indolēs virtūtis priusquam reī pūblicae prodesse potuisset exstincta est, C., Ph., v. 17, 47 (577). Sēnsum oculorum praecipit animus, QUINT., vI. 2, 6 (540).

Rhetorical position:

 $[\bar{\textbf{I}}$ socratës] queritur plūs honōris corporum quam animōrum virtūtibus darī, Quint., III. 8, 9 (542, R.). [Ager], cum multōs annōs quiēvit, ūberiōrēs efferre frūgēs solet, C., Br., 4, 16 (567). Verēmur nē parum hīc liber mellis et absinthiī multum habēre videātur, Quint., III. 1, 5 (550).

REMARKS.—1. The demonstrative pronouns regularly precede; the possessives regularly follow.

Verëmur në hic liber absinthii multum habëre videātur, QUINT., III. \bar{x} , 5 (550). Torquātus filium suum necāri iūssit, S., C., 52, 30 (540).

Rhetorical position:

Recordāre tempus illud, cum pater Cūriō maerēns iacēbat in lectō, C., Ph., II. 18, 45 (580). Ōsculātur tigrim suus cūstōs, Sen., E.M., 85, 41 (309, 2).

- 2. Ordinals regularly follow, Cardinals regularly precede the substantive.
- Many expressions have become fixed formulae: so titles, proper names, and the like; see 288.

Facinus est vincīre cīvem Romānum, C., Verr., v. 66, 170 (535).

- 4. The titles rex, imperator, etc., frequently precede the proper name with which they are in apposition.
- 5. New modifiers of either element may be inserted, prefixed, or added:

Catōnem vidī in bibliothēcā sedentem multīs circumfūsum Stōicōrum librīs, C., Fin., III. 2, 7 (536). Saepe māgna indolēs virtūtis priusquam reī pūblicae prōdesse potuisset exstincta est, C., Ph., v. 17, 47 (577). At vidēte hominis intolerābilem audāciam, C., Dom., 44, 115 (488). (Aristīdēs) interfuit pūgnae nāvālī apud Salamīna, Nep., III. 2, 1.

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 homő, a good man (one idea); homő 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 essem audiēbam frequenter . . . , C., N.D., 1. 21, 59 (585). Caedi discipulōs minimē velim, Quint., 1. 3, 13 (257). Vix culquam persuādēbātur Graeciā omnī cēssūrōs (Rōmānōs), L., XXXIII. 32, 3 (546, R. 1). [Risus] interdum ita repente ērumpit ut eum cupientēs tenēre nequeāmus, C., Or., 11. 58, 235 (609).

Rhetorical positions:

 $[\bar{I}ram]$ bene Ennius initium dīxit īnsāniae, C., Tusc., IV. 23, 52 (440). Saepe māgna indolēs virtūtis priusquam reī pūblicae prodesse potuisset exstincta est, C., Ph., v. 17, 47 (577).

Remarks.-1. Fere, paene, prope, usually follow:

Nēmő ferē saltat söbrius nisi forte īnsānit, 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 tenul exitio. Hyperbaton with other adverbs is rare.

678. Rule V.—Prepositions regularly precede their case (413).

Ā rēctā conscientiā trāversum unguem non oportet discēdere, C., Att., XIII. 20, 4 (328, 1).

REMARKS.—I. On versus, tenus, and the postposition of cum in combination with the personal pronouns and the relative, see 413, R. I.

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 (Anastrophé), especially after a relative or demonstrative: most frequently contrā, inter, propter. So also adverbs. See 413, R. I.
- 4. The preposition may be separated from its case by a Gen. or an adverb (413, R. 3): ad Appl Claudi senectütem accedebat 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 iis, 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.

679. Rule VI.—Particles vary.

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 demum (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 nobilibus prīncipibusque populi Romānī grātum esse factūrum, Caes., B.G., i. 44, 12 (657, 9). [Īsocratēs] queritur plūs honoris corporum quam animorum virtūtibus darī, Quint., 111. 8, 9 (542, R.). Longum est mūlorum persequi ūtilitātēs et asinorum, C., N.D., 11. 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. [Cato] mīrārī sō āiēbat quod non rīdēret haruspex, haruspicem cum vīdisset, C., Div., 11. 24, 51 (567). Ēmit morte immortālitātem, 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, 1). Mālō tē sapiēns (1) hostis (2) metuat quam stultī (1) cīvēs (2) laudent, L., XXII. 39, 20 (546, R. 2).

Inverse order (Chiasmus).

Ante vidēmus (I) fulgörem (2) quam sonum (2) audiāmus (I), Sen., N.Q., II. 12, 6 (577). Parvī sunt forīs (I) arma (2) nisi est consilium (2) domī (I), C., Off., I. 22, 76 (411, R. 2).

REMARK.—Chiasmus is from the Greek letter X (chi):

1. Foris X 2. arma 2. cōnsilium X 1. domī.

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.

Cerberus et $n\bar{u}ll\bar{u}s$ hodis petat improbus $umbr\bar{u}s$ | et iaceat $tacit\bar{u}$ lapsa caténa $ser\bar{u}$, Prop., iv. (v.) ii, 25. $P\bar{u}nice\bar{o}$ stabis suras évincta $cothurn\bar{o}$, V., Ec., 7, 32. Me similem $vestr\bar{s}s$ $m\bar{o}ribus$ esse putas ? Prop., ii. (iii.) 29 (27), 32.

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 hominės aegrī morbō gravī, cum aestū febrīque iactantur, sī aquam gelidam bibērunt, prīmō relevārī videntur, deinde multō gravius vehementiusque afflictantur: sīc hīd morbus, quī est in rē pūblicā, relevātus istīus poenā, vehementius, reliquīs vīvīs, ingravēscet, C., Cat., I. 13, 31 (Apodotic).

Catuvoleus, rēx dīmidiae partis Eburōnum, quī ūnā cum Ambiorige consilium inierat, aetāte iam confectus, cum laborem aut bellī aut fugae ferre non posset, omnibus precibus dētēstātus Ambiorigem, quī ēius consiliī auctor fuisset, taxo, cūius māgna in Galliā Germāniāque copia 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) $A \mid a$, 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) $a:A \mid b$; (6) a:A(b)a; (7) $A(a)A \mid b$; (8) A(a)A(b)A; (9) a:(b:A). If the dependent clauses are of different degree (α, a, A) , that is, one depending upon the other, some fifteen additional forms are allowable.

Some examples are:

- $a\ (A)\ a$: illōrum vidēs quam niteat ōrātiō, C., Fin., IV. 3, 5. a:(b:A): cūr nōlint, etiamsī taceant, satis dīcunt, C., Div. in Caec., 6, 21. $\alpha:a:A:$ quid agātur, cum aperuerō, facile erit statuere, C., Ph., V. 2, 6. $a:A\mid\alpha:$ illud quid sit, scīre cupiō, quod iacis obscūrē, C., Att., II. 7, 4. $a\mid\alpha(A)a:$ nōs utī exspectārēmus sē, reliquit quī rogāret, Varro, R.R., I. 2, 32. $A\mid\alpha(a)\alpha:$ mandō tibǐ plānē, tōtum ut videās cūius modī sit, C., Att., I. 12, 2.
- 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 fines emittebat, L., I. 42, 13. Another common period, developed and much liked by Livy, and later by Tacitus, was a:a:A, consisting of (1) a participial clause; (2) a clause introduced by a conjunction; (3) the principal clause. Cf. Tac., Ann.,

II. 69, 3, detentus ubi . . . accept plebem proturbat. 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:

Võs cum rēgem inultum esse patiëminī quī lēgātum populī Rōmānī cōnsulārem vinculīs āc verberibus atque omnī suppliciō 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.

Unde domo? V., A., VIII. 114 (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.

Tam fēlīx essēs quam formosissima (=es) vellem, Ov., Am., 1. 8, 27 (302).

690. Zeugma or Syllepsis is a junction of two words under the same regimen, or with the same modifier, although the common factor strictly applies but to one.

Manūs āc supplicēs vēcēs ad Tiberium tendēns, Tac., Ann., 11. 29, 2; stretching out hands and (uttering) suppliant cries to Tiberius.

- 691. Aposiopesis is a rhetorical breaking off before the close of the sentence, as in the famous Vergilian Quos ego.....
 - 692. Pleonasm is the use of superfluous words.
- 693. Enallage is a shift from one form to another: vos ō Calliopē precor, V., A., IX. 525.

Hypallage is an interchange in the relations of words: dare classibus austros, V., A., III. 61.

- 694. Oxymoron is the use of words apparently contradictory of each other: cum tacent clamant, C., Cat., 1. 8, 21 (582).
- 695. Synecdoché is the use of the part for the whole, or the reverse: tēctum for domum, puppis for nāvis, mucrō for gladius, etc.
- 696. Hypérbaton, Trajection, is a violent displacement of words. Lydia die per omnēs tē deos oro, H., O., 1. 8, 1 (413, N. 2).
- 697. Anacolūthon, or want of sequence, occurs when the scheme of a sentence is changed in its course.
- 698. Hendiadys ($\hat{\epsilon}_{\nu}$ $\delta \hat{\omega} \delta \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu} \hat{\nu}$) 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 multitudo, the common herd. Via et ratio (C., Verr., 1. 16, 47), scientific method. VI et armis, by force of arms.

So two verbs may be translated by an adverb and a verb: fundifugārique, to be utterly routed.

699. Constructio Praegnans. So-called constructio praegnans 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. Lītotēs, or Understatement, is the use of an expression by which more is meant than meets the ear. This is especially common with the Negative.

Non indecoro pulvere sordidi, H., O., II. I, 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 pro, quam ut, quam qui (298).
- 9. In comparing two qualities, use either magis quam with the positive, or a double comparative (299).
- 10. Superlative's denoting order and sequence are often used partitively and then usually precede their substantive (291, R. 2).
- 11. The Genitive forms mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, are used mainly as objective genitives; nostrum and vestrum 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 Ōrātiō Oblīqua (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 noll with the Infinitive; sometimes no with the Perfect Subjunctive (270, R. 2), or cave 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 -ū 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 (537).
 - 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 vox, 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 Refert 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).
- 6r. 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 rus (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, dē, 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 dē (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 a (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 $\overline{\text{Orātio}}$ Oblīqua 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 ${\tt ut}$ or ${\tt n\bar{e}}$ (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 ${\tt ut}$ and ${\tt ut}$ ${\tt n\bar{o}n}$ (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, simulāc, 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, dönec, quoad, quamdiü, 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, modő, and dummodő, 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, āc 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 $\bar{\text{O}}$ rātiō Oblīqua 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 quī = ut (consecutive) is; so after dīgnus, indīgnus, idōneus, aptus, etc.; after an indefinite antecedent; after comparatives with quam (631).
- 136. Comparative sentences after words of Likeness and Unlikeness may be introduced by atque or āc (643).
- 137. Comparative sentences after comparatives are introduced by quam (644).
- 138. In Ōrātiō Oblīqua, 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.—I. 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, N.). 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: Poludeuces, Poldeuces, Polluces, Polluces

(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; -hibeō for habeō in composition; and a few others, as -cIdō 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: ō, vae, lēgēs, 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.

- (a) Egnātius, Theognis, and some Greek words in -egma, as phlegma, phlegm; but pēgma.
- (b) Contio (for coventio), assembly; ientāculum, ientātio, breakfast; nūntius, messenger; quīntus, fifth; and Greek substantives in -ūs, -ūntis, -ōn, -ōntis; Charondās, Epaminondās; also nūndinae (noven-d-), market day; nondum, not yet; prēndō, I seize; quīndecim, fifteen; vēndō, I sell; ūndecim, eleven; vīndēmia, vintage.
- Inchoative verbs have vowel before -sc long by nature; disco, I learn.
- 3. Noteworthy are the following: quartus, fourth; quinque, five, and its derivatives; viginti, twenty; mille, thousand, and its derivatives.

4. In verbs the quantity of the Present Stem is generally retained throughout before two consonants (except -ns).

Except dīcō, I say; Supine, dictum; dūcō, I lead; Supine, ductum; and their derivatives, like dictiō, etc.

- 5. Noteworthy are the following: ago, I drive, egi, actum; emo, I buy, emi, emptum; frangō, I break, frēgi, fractum; fungor, I perform, functus; iubeō, I order, iūssi, iūssum; iungō, I join, iūnxi, iūnctum; lego, I read, lēgi, lēctum; pangō, I fix, pactum; rego, I govern, rēxi, rēctum; sanciō, I sanction, sānxi, sānctum, sāncītum; struo, I pile up, strūxi, strūctum; tangō, I touch, tāctum; tego, I cover, tēxi, tēctum; traho, I draw, trāxi, trāctum; ungō, I anoint, ūnxi, ūnctum; vincō, I conquer, vixi, victum.
- 6. In verbs, a vowel resulting from syncope is long before ss, st (131). Also, perhaps, I before s and t in syncopated Pf. forms of ire and petere.

Note.—On the method of distinguishing long vowels on inscriptions, see 12, 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.—1. 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: praemia scribae.

2. Every vowel sound followed by i 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 bĭiugus, two-horse.

Note.—In compounds of incere, to throw, the ${\bf i}$ is often omitted, and the preceding vowel lengthened by compensation; so conicere; a short vowel with the ${\bf i}$ 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.

În somnis vidit priu(s) quam sam (= eam) discere coepit.—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): tenĕ-brae, darkness. In early Latin it is regularly short, so, too, when the mute and liquid begin a word.

REMARKS.—I. The syllable must end in a short vowel: nāvǐ-fragus, ship-wrecking; mellǐ-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 : Tě-cmēssa, Cỹ-cnus.

EXCEPTION.—Derivative substantives in ābrum, ācrum, ātrum from verbs; as flābra, 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.—Prace in composition is shortened before a vowel until the time of Statius; prac-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: deus, God; puer, boy; nihil, nothing.

EXCEPTIONS:

- 1. ā in the old Gen. of the First Declension : aurāl.
- 2. ē in -ēi of the Fifth Declension, when a vowel precedes: diēi, but fidēi (63, N. 1).
 - 3. a and e before i in proper names in -ius: Gaī, Pompēī.
- 4. i in the Gen. form -Ius (76, R. 2). Alterius is often shortened, perhaps even in prose: ūnius, ūllius, nūllius, tōtius, are found in poetry. In alius the i is never shortened (alius for alius).
 - 5. i in fio is long, except before er: fio, but fieret and fieri.
 - 6. čheu, Džāna, čhē, dius (= dīvus).
 - 7. Many Greek words : āēr, Menelāus, mūsēum, Mēdēa.
- 8. In early Latin many words retain the original length of the vowel: āis, rēi; all forms of fīō; clūō; fūi and its forms; plūit, lūit, adnūi, 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: terră, earth; donă, gifts; capită, heads.

- 1. Abl. of the First Declension: terrā.
- 2. Voc. of words in as (Aenēa), and Greek Nom. in a (Electra).
- 3. Impv. of First Conjugation : amā.

- Most uninflected words: trīgintā, iūxtā, but ită, quiă, ēiā. With pută, for instance, compare cave below.
 - 2. e is short.

EXCEPTIONS :

- 1. Abl. of the Fifth Declension : die.
- 2. Impv. of Second Conjugation: mone (but see Note).
- 3. Most adverbs of Second Declension: rēctē; but benē, 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 & shortened; principally cave, habe, iube, mane, mone, move, tace, tene, vale, vide. See 716. Later poets also shorten sometimes when the penult is long; salve (Mart.).

- 3. \mathbf{y} is always short, except in contracted forms: $\mathbf{mis}\mathbf{\tilde{y}}$ (Dative $\mathbf{mis}\mathbf{\tilde{y}} = \mathbf{mis}\mathbf{y}\mathbf{i}$).
 - 4. i is long: dominī, vīgintī, audī.

EXCEPTIONS:

- I. Greek Dat. sī: Trōasī.
- Greek Nom., as sināpī; Voc., as Parī; Dat. Sing. (rarely), as Minōidi.
 - 3, quasĭ, nisĭ, cŭĭ (when a dissyllable).
 - 4. i is common in mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi.

Observe the compounds: ibidem, ibique, ubique, ubinam, ubivis, ubicunque, nēcubi, utinam, utique, sīcuti; (but uti).

5. o is long: bonō, tūtō.

- 1. Common in homő; in the Augustan times in leð and many proper names; as Scípiő; in the post-Augustan times in many common substantives: virgő. Němő is found first in Ovid, mentið in Horace.
- 2. Frequently short in Iambic words in early Latin, especially in verbs, many of which remained common in the Augustan times, as volŏ, vetŏ, sciŏ, petŏ, putŏ, etc.; so less often nesciŏ, dēsinŏ, obsecrŏ, dīxerŏ, oderŏ. From Seneca on, the Gerund may be shortened: amandŏ.
- 3. o is usually short in modo, cito, octo, ego, ilico, immo, duo, ambo (post-classical); and in many other words in later poetry.
 - 6. u is always long: cornū, frūctū, audītū.

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 illie, illüe, istie, istüe, can hardly be considered exceptions, as -c is for -ce, and is merely enclitic.
 - 3. Compounds of par: dispar, impar.
 - 4. ift, petift, 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: Aenēās, servās, amās.

EXCEPTIONS:

- 1. Greek substantives in as, adis: Arcas, Arcadis.
- 2. Greek Acc. Pl., Third Declension: hērōas, Arcadas.
- 3. anăs, anătis.
- 2. es is long : rēgēs, diēs, monēs.

EXCEPTIONS:

- 1. Nom. and Voc. Sing., Third Declension, when the Gen. has etis, Itis, Idis: seges, mIles, obses; but abies, aries, paries.
 - 2. Compounds of es, be (long syllable in Plautus): ades, potes.
 - 3. penes (Preposition).
- 4. Greek words in ěs (ϵ 5): Nom. Pl., as Arcaděs; Voc., as Dēmostheněs; Neuter, as cacoēthès.
 - 5. Iambic verbal forms in Second Person Sing. in early Latin.
 - 3. os is long: deōs, nepōs.

EXCEPTIONS:

- ı. Compös, impös, ex
ös ; and as the Nom. ending in the Second Declension.
 - 2. Greek words in ŏs (o5): melŏs.
 - 4. is is short: canis, legis.

- 1. Dat. and Abl. Plural: terris, bonis.
- 2. Acc. Pl. of the Third Declension : omnīs = omnēs.
- 3. In the Nom. of sundry Proper Names, increasing long in the Genitive: Quiris, Quiritis.
- 4. Second Person Sing. Pr. Indic. active, Fourth Conjugation: audis.

- 5. In the verbal forms from vis, sis, fis, and velis: no-lis, ma-lis, ad-sis, cale-fis.
- 6. In the Second Person Sing. Fut. Pf. Indic. and Pf. Subjv., is is common: videris.
 - 7. Pulvīs, cinīs, sanguīs, occasionally in early Latin.

5. us is short : servus, currus.

EXCEPTIONS:

- 1. Gen. Sing., Nom. and Acc. Pl., Fourth Declension : currus.
- 2. Nom. Third Declension, when the Gen. has a long u: virtūs, virtūtis; incūs, incūdis; tellūs, tellūris.
- 3. In Greck words with \bar{u} (ovs): 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: chlamys.

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 enclities: -que, -ve, -ne, -ce, -te, -pse, pte.

711. Rule X.—Declined or conjugated monosyllables that end in a consonant follow the rules given: dās, flēs, seīs, dǎt, flēt, ĭs, ĭd, quǐs, hīs, quīs, quōs.

hic, this one, is sometimes short; die and due 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, fūr, plūs; lār (lāris), pēs (pĕdis), bōs (bŏvis), pār (păris).

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: an, cis, in, nec, per, ter.

Excepting en and non and quin;

And also crās and cūr and sīn;

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 tensestems 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:

păciscor,	pāx, pācis.	sědeō,	sēdēs.
măcer,	mācerō.	fĭdēs,	fīdō (feido).
lĕgo,	lēx, lēgis.	dux, dŭcis,	dūcō (doucō).
rĕgo,	rēx, rēgis.	vŏcō,	vōx,
tĕgo,	tēgula.	lŭcerna,	lūceō (louceō).
ācer,	ăcerbus.	suspicor,	suspīciō.
moles,	mŏlestus.	mŏveō,	mobilis (= 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; (cădō), occīdō.

REMARKS.—I. Of the inseparable prefixes, di, sē, and vē are long, rē short: dīdūcō, sēdūcō, vēcors, rēdūcō; di, in dĭsertus, is shortened for dis, and in dirimo, dĭr stands for dis.

- 2. Në is short, except in nëdum, nëmö (ne-hemö), nëquam, nëquiquam, nëquitia, nëve.
- 3. Ré comes from red, which in the forms redd, recc, 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 reddo. Ré by compensation for the loss of the d is found, occasionally, principally in Perfect stems and in dactylic poetry, especially in reicere, religio (also relligio and religio), reduco (once in Plaut.).
- 4. Prō is shortened before vowels, and in many words before consonants, especially before f: prŏavos, prŏhibeō, prŏinde, prŏfugus, prŏfundus, prŏfiteor, prŏfarī, prŏfanus, prŏficiscor, prŏcella, prŏcul, prŏnepōs. The older language shortens less frequently than the later. In Greek words pro $(\pi\rho\phi)$ is generally short: prŏphēta; but prōlogus.
 - 5. The second part of the compound is sometimes shortened : dēiero,

(from iūrō), cognītus, agnītus (from nōtus). Notice the quantity in the compounds of -dicus: fātidīcus, vēridīcus (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: rogo, vide, mane;
- (b) Words beginning with an Iambus, when the second syllable is long by position, and the third syllable is accented, as: senĕctūtem, voluntātis;
- (c) Two monosyllables closely connected, or a monosyllable closely connected with a following long initial syllable, as: quis hic est, ut öccēpī. The monosyllable may have become so by elision.
 - (d) Trochaic words following a short accented syllable, as : quid istue.
- (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: tx quidem.

- 2. A combination like voluptas 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: ille mē, ómnium mē, ŭnde tíbí.
- Notes.—1. The words involved are ille, illic, iste, istic, ipse, ecquis, omnis, nempe, inde, unde, quippe, immo, and a few others that are disputed, such as some dissyllable imperatives like mitte, redde, and monosyllables followed by -que, -ne, -ve, and the like.
- 2. Nempe, inde, unde, quippe, ille, iste, may perhaps suffer syncope and be scanned as monosyllables.
- 3. Nempe 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.

FIGURES OF PROSODY.

- 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. r. 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.

 $\bf \bar{0}$ fēlīx $\bf \bar{u}n(a)$ ant(e) aliās Priamēïa virgō.— $\bf VERG$.

2. Ecthlipsis.—In like manner **m** final (a faint nasal sound) is elided with its short vowel before a vowel or **h**.

Mönstr(um), horrend(um), införm(e) ingens cui lümen ademptum.—VERG.

EXCEPTION.—After a vowel or m final, the word est, is, drops its e and joins the preceding syllable (Aphwresis).

Sī rixast ubi tū pulsās ego vāpulŏ tantum.—Juv. Aeternās quoniam poenās in morte timendumst.—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.

- (a) Stant et iūniperi (h) et castaneae (h) hīrsūtae.—VERG.
- (b) Crēdimus? an quǐ (h) amant ipsī sibi somnia fingunt?—VERG.
- (c) Promissam eripul genero. (h) Arma impia sümpsī.—Verg.
- (d) A. Abī. B. Quid abeam ? A. St! abī (h). B. Abeam (h)? A. Abī.—Plaut.
 - 2. Monosyllabic interjections are not elided.
 - 3. On the elision of e in -ne? see 456, R. 2.
- **721.** Diastolé.—Many final syllables, which were originally long, are restored to their rights by the weight of the Thesis.

Uxōr, heus uxor, quamquam tū īrāta's mihī.—Plaut.
Dummodō mōrāta rēctē veniat dōtātast satis.—Plaut.

Perrupit Acheronta Herculeus labor.-Hor.

Sometimes, however, Diastolé arises from the necessities of the verse (as in proper names), or is owing to a pause (Punctuation).

Nec quās Prīamidēs ir. aquōsīs vallibus Īdae.—Ov. Dēsine plūra puēr—et quod nunc înstat agāmus.—Verg. Pectoribūs inhiāns spīrantia consulit exta.—Verg.

Note.—The extent to which diastol 6 is allowable is a matter of dispute, especially in early Latin.

On que, see 707, 2, Ex. 5.

722. Systolé.—Long syllables which had begun to shorten in prose, are shortened (Systolé).

Obstupui stetčruntque comae võx faucibus haesit.—Verg. Ē terrā māgn(um) alterčus spectāre laborem.—Lucr. Ūnžus ad certam formam primordia rerum.—Lucr. Nüllžus addictus iūrāre in verba magistri.—Hor.

Note.—The short penult of the Pf. in steterunt, dederunt, 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): abiĕtĕ (äbĭĕtĕ), genvä (gĕnŭä), tenvïä (tĕnŭĭä).

Flüviörum rēx Ēridanus campōsque per omnēs.—Verg. Nam quae tēnvia sunt hiscendīst nūlla potestās.—Lucr.

724. Dialysis.—The consonants i and v assert their half-vowel nature: dissŏlŭō (dissolvō), Gāžūs (Gāius, from Gāvius).

Adulterētur et columba mīluō.—Hor. Stāmina non ūllī dissoluenda deō.—Tib.

725. Syncopé.—Short vowels are dropped between consonants, as often in prose: calfaciō for calefaciō.

Templörum positor templörum säncte repostor.—Ov. Quiddam mägnum addens ünum me surpite (= surripite) morti.—Hor.

726. *Tmēsis.*—Compound words are separated into their parts.

Quō mē cunque (= quōcumque mē) rapit tempestās dēferor hospes,— $_{\mathrm{Hor.}}$

Note.—The earlier poets carry Tmesis much further, in unwise emulation of the Greek. Celebrated is: Saxō cere comminuit brum.—Ennius.

727. Synizēsis.—Vowels are connected by a slur, as often in the living language: dēinde, dēinceps.

Quid faciam roger anne rogem? quid deinde rogabo?—Ov. So even when h intervenes, as dehinc:

Eurum ad sē Zephyrumque vocat, dehinc tālia fātur.-VERG.

Remark.—Synizēsis (settling together) is also called Synaeresis (taking together), as opposed to Diaeresis (5); but Synaeresis properly means contraction, as in cogo (for coago), and nēmo (for nehemo). Synaloepha is a general term embraeing all methods of avoiding Hiatus.

Note.—1. Synizesis is very common in early Latin, especially in pronominal forms: mi (mihi), meus, and its forms, dissyllabic forms like eo, 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 nos in aetern(um)
Exilium impositūra cumbae.—Hor., O., II. 3, 27.
Gallicum Rhēn(um), horribile aequor, ūltimosque Britannos.—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 Ietus, there is a subordinate or secondary Ietus, 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, (\circ), and is called Mora, Tempus (*Time*).

The value in music is $\int = \frac{1}{8}$.

The long (-) is the double of the short.

The value in music is $= \frac{1}{4}$.

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).

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:

Feet of Three Times.

-0	lēgĭt.	15
U -	lĕgunt.	51
000	lĕgĭtĕ.	111
Feet of Four	Times.	
-00	lēgīmūs.	JI
o o –	lĕgĕrent.	77,1
	lēgī.	11
0000	relegitur.	הָת
	Feet of Four	lěgint. lěgitě. Feet of Four Times. lēgimüs. lěgěrent. lēgē.

	Feet of Five	Times.			
Cretic,		lēgĕrint.	151		
First Paeon,	-000	lēgērītīs.	1577		
Fourth Pacon,	000-	lěgĭmĭnī.	וזה		
Bacchius,	·	lĕgēbant.	511		
Antibacchīus,		lēgistĭs.	115		
Feet of Six Times.					
Iōnicus ā māiōre,		collēgimus.	117		
Ionicus a minore,	0 0	rělěgēbant.	וות		
Choriambus,		colligĕrant.	177		
Ditrochee,	-0-0	colliguntur.	1212		
Diiambus,	·	lĕgāmĭnī.	5151		

REMARKS.—I. Other feet are put down in Latin Grammars, but they do not occur in Latin verse, if in any, such as:

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Pyrrhic,
                       lĕgĭt.
                                 Antispast, U-- Ulegēbāris.
First Epitrite, v --- rělēgērunt. Dispondee, --- sēlēgērunt.
Second Epitrite, - - - ēligēbant. | Second Paeon, - - - legentibus.
Third Epitrite, -- o - sēlēgĕrint. Third Paeon, o o - o lĕgǐtōtĕ.
Fourth Epitrite, --- collegistis. Molossus,
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- 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 ἴδον). This may be called the Dactylico-Anapaestic class.

II. Unequal Class, in which the Thesis is double of the Arsis (γενος διπλάσιον). This may be called the Trochaico-Iambic class.

III. Quinquepartite or Paeonian Class (Five-eighths class), of which the Cretic and Bacchius are the chief representatives (γένος ἡμιόλιον).

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. Pentapody = five feet.

Tripody = three feet. Hexapody = six feet.

Tetrapody = four feet.

Remarks.—I. 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 tetrameter eight.

- 2. The single foot is the ordinary unit of measure (-meter) in Daetylic verse. Thus, a verse of one Daetyl is called a Monometer; of two, a Dimeter; of three, a Trimeter; of four, a Tetrameter; of five, a Pentameter; of six, a Hexameter.
- 3. There are limits to the extension of series. Four feet (in Greek, five) is the limit of the Daetylic and Anapaestic, six of the Trochaic and Iambic series. All beyond these are compounds.
- 739. The Anacrustic Scheme.—Aneient 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 Anacrusis; i.e., upward stroke, signal-beat), whereby all rhythms become descending.

In this way the Iambus is regarded as an Anacrustic Trochee, the Anapaest as an Anacrustic Dactyl, the Iōnicus a minōre as an Anacrustic Iōnicus ā māiōre. The sign of the Anacrūsis 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.

3. Protraction.

2. Catalēxis.

4. Correption.

- 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.

200 | 200 | 2 Trimeter dactylicus catalècticus in syllabam. 200 | 200 | 20 Trimeter dactylicus catalècticus in dissyllabum.

The time is made up by Pause.

The omission of one mora is marked \wedge ; of two $\overline{\wedge}$

743. Protraction and Syncopé.—Protraction $(\tau o \nu \eta)$ 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 Syncopé.

$$-=3=$$
 (triseme long); $-=4=$ (tetraseme long).

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 >; similarly, two short syllables often seem to take the place of one, and may be marked \sim .

2. When a Dactyl is used as a substitute for a Trochee, the approximate value is often $1\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + 1 = 3 = 1$; which may be indicated by $\sim \circ$ (cyclic Dactyl).

The following line illustrates all the points mentioned:

(a) Irrational trochee (irrational long). (b) Cyclic dactyl. (c) Syncopé and Protraction (triseme long). (d) Syllaba anceps. (e) Catalëxis.

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 (tetrastichs). 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 Dīverbia.—In the Drama there is a broad division between that part of the play which was simply spoken, and is called Dīverbium, 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 (mutātis 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.—I. 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.

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:

Sēmiternāria, after the third half foot, i.e., in the second foot. Sēmiquīnāria, after the fifth half foot, i.e., in the third foot. Sēmiseptēnāria, after the seventh half foot, i.e., in the fourth foot. Sēminovēnāria, 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.

 $\overline{\mathbf{U}}$ na sa | lūs \dagger vi | ctīs \dagger nūl | lam \dagger spē | rāre \dagger sa | 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 $\|$

Ite domum saturae † venit | Hesperus | ite capellae.-Veng.

Remarks.—I. 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 anacrustically.

Suīs | et i | psa † Rō | ma vī | ribus || ruit. Iambic Trimeter. Su : īs et || ipsa || Rōma || vīri | bus † ru | it. Troch. Trimeter Catal., with Anacrusis.

- 2. Diagresis 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,

Unasa, 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 Ītalicus* 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.

Márs páter té précor | quáeséque úti síes | vólens própítiús Míhí dómó | fámiliaéque nóstraé, elc,

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 Anaerusis, and a Caesura after the third Λrsis, or more rarely after the third Thesis.

Dabúnt malúm Metélli | Naévió poétae. Cornéliús Lücíus | Scípió Barbátus. Quoïus fórma vírtütél | parísumá fúit. Eðrúm sectám sequóntur | múlti mórtálēs.

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.

Dabunt malum Metéllí | Naéviō poétae, 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 ease there is usually Anacrusis in the second hemistich. Quantity is not considered.

Dábunt málum Metélli | Naévió poétae. Quōius fórma virtútei | parísuma 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 Métellí | Naévió poétaé.

- 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 Metélli | Naéviō poétae. Prím(a) incédit Céreris | Prosérpina púer.

lambic Rhythms.

757. The Iambic Rhythm is an ascending rhythm, in which the Thesis is double of the Arsis. It is represented

By the Iambus : UZ;

By the Tribrach : UUU;

By the Spondee: - -;

By the Dactyl: - ••;

By the Anapaest: OUL; and

By the Proceleusmaticus: 00 40.



REMARK.—The Spondec, Dactyl, Anapaest, and Proceleusmaticus are all irrational, and are consequently marked on the schemes thus: >-, > 0 0, 00-, 0000; see 744.

758. Iambic Octonārius (Tetrameter Acatalectic).

Iūss(I) ádparārī prándium | amf-

c(a) exspectat mé, sciō, PL.,

Men., 599.

> 2 0 - > 2 0 0 | 0 2 > - > 2 0 -

Hic finis est iambe salvē † vindi-

cis doctór mali, Servius.

> 2 0 - 0 2 0 - > 2 0 - > 2 0 -

Anacrustic Scheme:

$$\frac{1}{2}$$
: $\frac{1}{2}$:

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 Dieresis 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 Anceps), 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 Cæsura 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 sēmiquināria in the Senarius applies here after the dividing Cæsura. 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:

Ö Trõia, Ö patria, Ö Pergamum, I Ö Priame, periisti senex, Plaut. Is porrō m(ĕ) autem verberāt I incursat pūgnis calcibus, Plaut. Facil(e) omnēs quom valēmus rēcta I consilia aegrōtis damus, Ter.

759. Iambic Septēnārius (Tetrameter Catalectic).

Remitte pallium mihl | meum quod

Anacrustic Scheme:

$$\frac{1}{2}$$
: $\frac{1}{2}$:

Notes.—1. This verse is confined principally to Plautus and Terence; it is to be regarded as a compound of Dimeter + Dimeter Catalectie: hence regular Discresis after the fourth foot, which is treated as a final foot. The same rules, in regard to the various word-fect allowable, apply here as in the case of the Scnarius (761, n. 6). Substitutions are allowable in every foot except in the fourth, when followed by a Discresis.

With Syllaba Aneeps:

Sī abdūxeris cēlābitūr | itidem ut cēlāta adhūc est, Plaut.

With Hiatus:

Sed sī tibi vīgintī minae | argentī proferuntur, Plaut.

2. Exceptionally in Plautus, more often in Terence, the line is cut by Cæsura 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 Sēnārius (a Stichic measure). This is an imitation of the Iambic Trimeter of the Grecks, 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 (Sēnārius).

Any substitution is allowed in any foot except the last.

Quamvís sermönēs†póssunt longī

téxier, Pl., Trin., 797. $> \angle |> -|> \angle |> -|> \angle |> -|> \angle |$ Qui scfre possis † aût ingenium

nóscere, Ter., And., 53. $> \angle \mid \cup - \mid > \angle \mid > \cup \cup \mid > \angle \mid \cup - \mid > \angle \mid > \angle \mid \cup - \mid > \angle \mid > \angle \mid \cup - \mid > \angle | \angle | > \angle$

lit dűcere, Ter., And., 155. $> \angle |> -| \cup \angle |> -|> \angle |\cup -$ DI fórtűnábunt| vóstra cönsili(a).

fta volō, PL., Trin, 576. $> \angle |> -|> \angle |\cup -|\cup \cup \cup \cup -$ El r(el) ôperam dare të ftierat ali-

quant(ō) aéquius, Pl., Trin.,

11g. > 40 | > 00 | > 40 | 000 | > 2 | 0-

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 genéra, ma | tería, would not be allowable. But a Dactyl is sometimes found in the first foot (Ter., Eur., 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 fingit amorem is

faulty. 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 amorem.

 The most frequent Cœsura is the sēmiquīnāria. Next comes the sēmiseptēnāria, which is usually accompanied by the sēmiternāria or by Diæresis after second foot. Examples above.

3. Elision is more frequent in the Iambic Senarius than in the Dactylie 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 distiche).

4. Semi-hiatus (720), also called *Graecānicus* 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 sēmiquēnāria 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 Cretie or a Fonrth Pæon; as, filius bonān fidē (PL., Mosl., 670). Thus dēpinxtī verbīs probē would not be allowable for verbīs dēpinxtī probē (PL., Poen., 1114).

6. To close the line with two Iambie 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 Crette, (3) When the line ends with an Iambie 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 † Róma viribús ruit 🔾 🗸 🔾 — 🔾 🗸 🔾 — 🔾 🗸 🔾 —
Heu mé per urbem † nám pudet
tantí mali $> \angle \cup - > \angle \cup - > \angle \cup -$
Dērípere lūnam † vốcibus possím
meis > \(\cdot \cdot \cdot - \ > \(\cdot - \ > \(\cdot - \ > \)
Īnfāmis Helenae † Cástor offensus
vicem > ∠ ∪ ∪ ∪ > ∠ ∪ − > ∠ ∪ −
Optát quiëtem † Pélopis înfîdí pater $>$ $\angle \cup > \angle \cup > \angle \cup -$
Alítibus atque † cánibus homicī-
d(am) Héctorem $> \lor \cup \lor - \lor \lor \cup \lor \cup \lor > \bot \lor -$
Vectábor humeris†túnc eg(o) ini-
mīcīs eques > \(\cup \cup \cup \cup \cup \cup \cup \cup
Pavidúmque lepor(em) et † ádve-
nam laqueó gruem, Hor.
Anacrustic Scheme:

Notes.—1. The Iambic Trimeter, when kept pure, has a rapid aggressive movement. Hence, it is thus used in lampoons and invectives. It admits the Spondee 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 Procelensmatiens 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 Spondee in SENECA and PETRONIUS.

2. Diæresis at the middle of the verse is avoided. Short particles, which adhere closely to the following word, do not constitute exceptions.

Laboriosa nec cohors Ulixei, Hor.

Adulteretur et columba miluo, Hor.

In like manner explain-

Refertque tanta grex amicus übera, Hor.

- 3. The Casura is usually the sēmiquīnāria, but the sēmiseptēnāria is found also, but either with the sēmiguīnāria or with Diæresis after the second foot.
- 4. The Senarius parus, composed wholly of Iambi, is found first in Catullus (IV. and XXIX.); also in Horace (Epod., XVI.), VERGIL (Cat., 3, 4, 8), and the Priapea.
- 5. Of course, in the Anacrustic Scheme, the Casura of the ordinary scheme becomes Diæresis.

Le: vis cre | pante | lympha | dēsi | lit pe | de.

763. Iambic Trimeter Catalectic.

Mea renidet in domo lacunar

040 - 040-040 Rēgúmque pueris néc satelles Órci, Hor. > 2000 > 20 - 020

Anacrustic Scheme: \Rightarrow : $\angle \cup |-> |\angle \cup |-\cup |-|$ (with Syncopé).

Notes.—This occurs in Horace (O., I. 4; II. 18). No resolutions are found except in the second line quoted, where pueris may be dissyllabic (27), and the Spondee alone is used for the lambns, mainly in the third foot. The Cæsura is always sēmiguīnāria.

764. Trimeter Iambicus Claudus (Choliambus); Scazon (= Hobbler) Hipponacteus.

Dominis parantur ista; serviúnt vóbis, MART. WZU-UZU-UZZ-

Anacrustic Scheme: $>: \angle \cup |-> |\angle \cup |-\cup |\angle |$. Tro-

chaic Trimeter with Anacrusis, Syncopé, and Protraction.

Notes.-1. In the Choliambus the rhythm is reversed at the close, by putting a Trochee or Spondee 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 Spondee is found in the first and third feet: the Anapaest only in the first.
- 4. The Cæsura is usually sēmiquīnāria, sometimes sēmisentēnāria, which is regularly supported by Diæresis after the second foot.

765. Iambic Quaternārius (Dimeter).

Inársit aestuósius 0 2 0 - 0 2 0 -Imbrés nivesque comparat > 4 0 - 0 4 0 -

Vidére properantés domum $\lor \angle \lor \lor \lor \lor > \angle \lor -$

Ast égo vicissim rísero, Hor. > 400 -> 40-

Anacrustic Scheme:

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 Ternārius (Dimeter Catalectic).

Id répperf i(am) exémplum $> \angle \cup -> \angle - \text{ or } > : \angle \cup \angle > \angle - \land$

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.

Inops amator, Trin., 256. Bonu(s) sit bonis, 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: $\angle \lor$;

By the Tribrach: 200;

By the Spondee : ∠-;

By the Anapaest : $\psi \circ -$;

By the Dactyl: 200.

By the Proceleusmaticus: 4000.

Remark.—The Spondee, Anapaest, Dactyl, and Proceleus maticus are all irrational and are accordingly measured ->, ->

769. Trochaic Octonārius (Tetrameter Acatalectic).

Párce iam camoéna vātī | párce iam sacró furōrī.—Servius.

Dáte viam qua fúgere liceat, | fácite, totae 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 Dieresis. 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 Septēnārius (Tetrameter Catalectic).

Scheme: 2 > - > 2 > - > 2 > - > 2 - >

Crás amet qui númqu(am) amāvit ∥ quíqu(e) amāvit crás amet.—Pervig. Ven.

Tú m(\bar{e}) amoris mági' qu(am) honoris $\|$ sérvāvistī grátiā.—Ennius. Vápulār(e) ego té vehementer $\|$ iúbeō: nō mō térritōs.—Plaut.

Notes.—1. This is usually divided by a Diærcsis after the fourth Arsis into two halves, with the license of a closing verse before the Diærcsis; this is often supported by Diærcsis after the second foot. Not unfrequently the line is divided by Cæsura 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 Diæresis 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 Tribrach or a Dactyl occurs even here. But the Dætyl is rare in the fourth foot.

2. The rule for the words allowable after the sēmiquīnāria Cæsura in the Senarius (761, N. 5) apply here after the Diæresis, 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 Pæon.

3. In regard to the close the same rules apply as in the case of the Iambic Scnarius (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 Diæresis.

771. Trochaic Tetrameter Claudus.

Húnc Cerēs, cibí ministra, frúgibus suís pórcet, VARRO.

20-020-020-0220

NOTE.—This verse is found only in the *Menippean Satires* of VAREO, and is formed, like the Iambic Senarius Claudus, by reversing the last two quantities.

772. Trochaic Quaternārius with Anacrūsis.

Si fráctus illābátur orbis, Hor. $: \angle \circ | -- | \angle \circ | -\overline{\circ}$

Note.—This occurs only in the Alcaic Strophe of Horace.

773. Trochaic Ternārius (Dimeter Catalectic).

Réspice vērō Théspriō, PL., Ep., 3. $40->20-\land$ Nốn ebur nequ(e) aŭreum, Hor. $20-20-\land$

Note.—An uncommon measure, confined mainly to early poetry and to Horace; it is used as a Clausula between Tetrameters (Plautus) and Iambic Senarii Catalectic (Horace), or in series. The third foot was kept pure; also the others in the strict measure.

774. The Trochaic Tripody Acatalectic (Ithyphallic).

Qu(om) usus est ut pudeat, Plaut., $\angle \circ -> \circ \circ$

Note.—This is rare, and appears only in early Latin and as a Clausula, usually with Cretics. Substitutions were allowable in every foot.

775. Trochaic Tripody Catalectic.

Éheu, qu(am) égo malís | pérdidí modís,

PL., Ps., 259. L>000L | LUZUZ

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. 4002

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: OUL:

By the Spondee: - 4:

By the Dactvl: - & U:

By the Proceleusmaticus: 0000.

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 Diastolé, 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 Octonarius (Tetrameter Acatalectic), and Anapaestic Septēnārius (Tetrameter Catalectic).

Hostíbus victis, civíbus salvis | rē plá- - 00 --- 00 -- |

cidā, pācibūs pérfectīs, Pers., 753. -40--4002-- Septúmăs ess(e) aedīs ā portā $+ \parallel$ ub(i) -40--2002-ill(e) hábitat lēno quoí iūssit, Ps., 597. 0060----

Ait îllam miseram, cruciar(I) et lacru- o o z - o o - o o - - | mántem s(ē) adflictāre, PL., M.G., 1032. $\bigcirc \checkmark \checkmark --- \checkmark -\frac{1}{4}$

n(um) hab(e) ánimum nē formīdā, PL., $OOOO = - \angle - A$ M.G., 1011.

Notes.-1. These have regularly the Diæresis after the fourth foot, dividing the line into Quaternarii. Before the Diæresis, 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.

Perspício nihili meám vos gratiam fácere,

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 Quaternārius (Dimeter Acatalectic).

Note.—This verse avoids resolution of the fourth Thesis: Syllaba Anceps and Highes are rare.

781. Anapaestic Dimeter Catalectic (Paroemiac).

Volucér pede corpore púlcher

Linguá catus óre canórus

Vērúm memoráre magís quam

Fünctúm laudāre decébit.—Auson.

Notes.—1. This yerse 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 anaerustic dactylic measure or march (in ‡ time). Hence the use of Pause to bring out the four bars.

Paroemiaeus: Anacrustic Scheme.

Volucer pede corpore pulcher

00:-00|-00|--|-

 ${\bf Dimeter\ \underline{A}eatalectie:}\ An acrustic\ Scheme.$

The Arses of the last feet are supplied by the Anaerusis of the following verse.

782. Anapaestic Dipody (Monometer Acatalectic). Omné parātúmst, 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: $\angle \circ \circ$. Often, also, by the Spondee: $\angle - \circ$.

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 fect; 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 casural pauses, gives the Hexameter peculiar advantages for continuous composition.

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Scheme: "-00 | 200 | 200 | "-00 | 200 | 2-
 1. Ut fugiunt aquilas † timidissima | turba columbae. Ov.
 2. At tuba terribili + sonitū + procul | aere canoro. Verg.
                                                                 Five Dactyls.
. 3. Quadrupedante putrem + sonitū | quatit | ungula campum,
 4. Cum medio celeres + revolant | ex aequore mergi. VERG.
 5. Vāstius insurgēns + decimae | ruit | impetus undae. Ov.
                                                                Four Dactyls.
 6. Et reboat raucum + regio + cita | barbara | bombum, Luck.
 7. Mūta metū terram † genibus † summissa petēbat. Luck.
 8. Inter cunctantes + cecidit + moribunda ministros. Verg.
                                                                Three Dactyls.
 9. Nē turbāta volent † rapidīs † lūdibria ventīs. VERG.
 10. Versaqu(e) in obnixos † urgentur | cornua vasto. Verg.
                                                                 Two Dactyls.
 11. Processit longe + flammantia | moenia mundi. Luck.
 12. Portam vī multā † conversō | cardine torquet. Verg.
                                                                 One Dactyl.
 13. Tēct(um) august(um) ingēns † centum sublime columnis.
 14. Ollī respondit † Rēx Albāï Longāï, Ennius.
                                                                No Dactyl.
 15. Aut leves ocreas + lento + ducunt argento. Verg.
                                                                   Spondaic
 16. Sunt apud infernos † tot milia formosarum, Prop.
                                                                     Verses.
 17. Aëriaeque Alpës † et nübifer | Appenninus, Ov.
 18. Procubuit viridi- | qu(e) in litore | conspicitur-sus. Verg. | Monosyllabic
 19. Parturiunt montes † nascetur | ridiculus-mūs. Hor.
                                                                    ending.
                            +6 = 16
                10
                                                                Semiguin, and
 20. Nāscere, praeque diem veniens age, Lūcifer, almum. Veng.
                                                                    Bucolic.
                                                                 Third Trochee
 21. Insignem pietāte + virum + tot adīre laborēs. Verg.
                                                                      and
                                                                   Semisept.
 22. Et nigrae violae † sunt | et vaccinia | nigra. VERG.
                                                                } Split in half.
 23. Sparsis | hastis | longis | campus | splendet et horret. En.
                                                                } Shivered.
 24. Quamvis sint sub aqua sub aqua maledicere tentant. Ov.
                                                                } a - sound.
 25. Mē m(ē) adsum qui fēc(I) in mē convertite ferrum. VERG.
                                                                e - sound.
 26. Discissõs nūdos laniābant dentibus artūs. VERG.
                                                                bs - sound.
    Notes.—1. The two reigning ictuses are the first and fourth, and the pauses arc so
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Notes.—1. The two reigning ictuses are the first and fourth, and the pauses are 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 sēmiquīnāria or penthemimeral, i. e., after the Thesis of the third foot, or Masculine Cæsura of the third foot; the next is the sēmiseptēnāria or hepthemimeral, after the Thesis of the fourth foot; but usually supplemented by the sēmiternāria 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 observance of these pauses.

In verses with several Casuræ, the semiseptenaria outranks the semiquanaria, if it precedes a period, and the latter does not, or if it is perfect and the latter is imperfect (i.e., formed by thesis or by elision); it also as a masculine Casura outranks the Third Trochee as a feminine. In other cases there may be doubt as to the principal Casura.

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 miserescimus ültro.-Verg.

It is abominable when no other Cæsura proper is combined with it.

Poeni | pervortentes | 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 Bucolic 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 Casura are very rare; a few are found in Ennius (see No. 23) and Lucilius. Horace uses one designedly in A.P., 263.
- 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 oftenest in the following order: the Thesis of the second foot, the Arsis of the fourth, the Arsis 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 -m) but twice (V., Ec., II. 53; A., I. 405); after a long monosyllable (omitting Interjections o and ā) but once (V., A., IV. 235). But before the principal Cæsura, or if the line contains a Greek word, examples are not very uncommon. Verbil 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 of Greek words except A., 111. 211; 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., xcvii. 1; V., A., vi. 507; Hor., S., 1. 9, 38. Hiatus after num occurs in Hor., S., 11. 2, 28.
- 8. Vergil is fond of Dlastolé, 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 (maluly 8c, 8p, 8t), especially in the fifth foot, less often in the first. Lucilius, Lucretius, and Ennius have numerous examples of this; Vereil but one case (A., XI. 309), except before z; Horace has eight cases in the Satires; Propertius six; Theullus 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 fourteen per cent. of exceptional lines. In later times artistic reasons sometimes caused the employment even of a monosyllable at the end (see exs. 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., 1. 66, M.) and Cat. (116, 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. 846; Car., 64, 238; 115, 5. Verigil has twenty cases, usually involving que or ve, but twice -m (A., vii. 156; G., I., 295); three other cases are doubtful. Horace has two cases (in the Satires), Ovin 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 stichle measure are these: does, 15 per cent.; dens, 11.8 per cent.; does, 10 per cent. The most nncommon are ssdd, 1.9 per cent.; sddd, 2 per cent. The proportion of Spondee to Dactyl in the first four feet varies from 65.8 per cent. of Spondee 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 as metrical elements. The examples given above have been chosen with especial reference to the picturesque effect of the verse. Monosyllables 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 Cæsura. 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 Penthemimers, 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 sēmiternāria Cæsura. The Pentameter derives its name from the old measurement: $- \circ \circ$, $- \circ \circ$, $- \circ \circ$, and the name is a convenient one, because the verse consists of $2\frac{1}{2} + 2\frac{1}{2}$ Dactyls. The Elegiae Distich is used in sentimental, amatory, epigrammatic poetry.

The musical measurement of the Pentameter is as follows:

This shows why neither Syllaba Anceps nor Hiatus is allowed at the Diæresis, and explains the preference for length by nature at that point.

0 0	
	1
ZUUZUUZ	
ZUUZ-Z	LUULUUL
Z-ZUUZ	
L-L-L	l.
	TOOTOOT

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 cūrās dēpellere vinō

At dolor in lacrimās || verterat omne merum, Tib.

Ingenium quondam fuerat pretiōsius aurō

At nunc barbariēs || grandis habēre nihil, Ov.

Pār erat inferior versus : rīsisse Cupīdō

Dīcitur atque ūnum || surripuisse pedem, Ov.

Saep(e) ego cum dominae dulcēs ā līmine dūrō

Āgnōscō vōcēs || 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. Elision 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 Elision in the Pentameter than in the Hexameter.

3. Elision and Diastolé in the Diæresis are rare. Catullus especially, and Propertius occasionally, have Elision. Propertius and Martial show each two cases

of Diastolé (Prop., 11. 8,8; 11. 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., 1.5, 28; 1.6, 34; Prop., 1v. 4, 48).

5. Dialysis occurs in compounds of solvō and volvō; as, Cat., 66, 74; Tib., 1.7, 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 polysyllable endings, though more are found in Catullus than in any other author. Peculiar is Properties, who, while almost equalling Catullus in his disregard of the law of the dissyllable ending in the first book, equals the Tristia of Ovid in the observance of it in his fourth. With dissyllable ending the prevailing forms of the second Hemistich are $- \cup \cup$, $- \cup$, and $- \cup$, $- \cup$, $- \cup$, but Tibullus and Ovid, and in less degree Catullus, employ quite often $- \cup \cup - \cup$, $- \cup$, $- \cup$ and $- \cup$, $- \cup$, $- \cup$.

786. Dactylic Tetrameter Acat. (metrum Alcmānium).

 Núnc decet aút viridí nitidúm caput
 ZOOZOOZOOZOO

 Pállida mórs aequố pulsát pede
 ZOOZO ZOOZOOZOO

 Vítae súmma brevís spem nós vetat
 ZOOZO ZOOZOOZOO

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).

Aút Ephesón bimarísve Corínthi

Ó fortēs pēióraque pássī

∠ ∠ ∠ ∠ ∠ ∪ ∠ ∪ ∪ ∠ ∪ ↓

Ménsōrém cohibént Archýta, Hor

NOTE.—This line, which only occurs in the *Alemanian System*, may also be looked upon as an Acatalectic Tetrameter with a spondaic close.

788. Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic in Syllabam (Lesser Archilochian).

Púlvis et úmbra sumús, Hor.

ZUUZUUZ

Note.—This line occurs mainly in the first three Architochian Strophes.

789. Dactylic Dimeter Catalectic in Dissyllabum (Adōnic).

Térruit úrbem, Hor.

20020

Note.—Though generally measured thus, this verse is properly logacedic, 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.

Logaœdic Rhythms.

790. The Logacedic 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 $1\frac{1}{5}$, $\frac{1}{5}$, 1; in music, by $1\frac{3}{5}$, $1\frac{1}{6}$, $\frac{1}{5}$.

When Dactyls are employed, the Trochee preceding is called a Basis, or *Tread*, commonly marked ×. 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. Logaædic 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.

Sí fractus illabatur orbis, Hor.

S: 202>2020

Note.—The Anacrusis should be long. Horace shows no exceptions in the fourth book and very few in the first three. The regular Cosura is the $s\bar{\epsilon}miqu\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}ria$.

One Dactyl.

792. Adonic.

Térruit úrbem, Hor.

~~ | ~ > I

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).

Lýdia díc per ómnés, Hor.

Note.-This verse occurs mainly in the lesser Sapphic Strophe of Horace.

One Dactyl, with Basis.

794. Pherecratean.

Nígris aéquora véntis, Hor.

NOTE.—This verse occurs in the fourth Asclepiadēan Strophe of Horace; also in Catullus (XVII.) and the *Priāpēa*. No Elision is allowed by Horace, and there is no regular Cæsnra.

795. Glyconic.

Émirábitur insoléns, Hor.

Note.—This occurs in the second, third, and fourth Asclēpiadēan strophes of Horace; also in Catullus (xvii.) and the Priāpēa. There is generally the sēmiternāria Cæsura; 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 Diastolé (O., III. 24, 5), Dialysis (O., I. 23, 4), and lines ending with inonosyllables (O., I. 3, 19; I. 19, 13; IV. 1, 33).

796. Phalaecēan (Hendecasyllabic).

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 *Priäpēa* 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 *Priāpēa*, Petronius, and Martial it is always so, while Statius has but one case of a Trochec, and Ausonius but one of an Iambns.

3. The principal Cæsura is the sēmiquīnāria; but Catullus uses also almost as frequently Diæresis after the second foot. Occasionally there is a Diæresis after the third foot, supplemented by a Second Trochee Cæsura.

4. Elision is very common in CATULLUS; in the Priāpēa, MARTIAL, and later it is very rare, if we exclude Aphæresis from consideration. Hardening (723) is occasional, and CATULLUS shows a few cases of Semi-hiatus. A monosyllabic ending is very rare, with the exception of eg and egt.

5. CATULLUS, in 55, apparently shows a mixture of regular Phalaeceans and spurious Phalaeceans in which the Dactyl is supplanted by a Spondee. The poem is still under discussion.

One Dactyl, with Double Basis.

797. Sapphic (Hendecasyllabic).

Aúdiét cīvés † acuísse férrum, Hor.
$$-\circ$$
 | $->$ | $-+ \circ$ | $-\circ$ | $-\circ$ |

Notes.—1. In the Greek measure, often retained in Catullus, the Dactyl is measured $- \bigcirc ;$ in Horace, owing to a strong Cosnra after the long it is regularly $- \bigcirc .$

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 Casura in Latin is the sēmiquināria; 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: Iu the first and second books there are seven cases in two hundred and eighty-five verses; in the third none at all; iu the fourth twenty-two in one hundred and five verses; in the Carmen Saculare 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 Diastolé (O., II. 6, 14). Monosyllabic 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.

Vidős ut áltā | stét nive cándidúm >: \(\cdot \) \(\tau > \ | \(\cdot \cdot \) \(\cdot \) Sorácte néc iam | sústineánt onús, Hor.

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 Cæsura is a Diæresis 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 Cæsuræ, as O., 1. 16, 21; 1. 37, 5; 11. 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 H., O., III. 5, 17; Hardening (723) occurs in H., O., III. 4, 41; III. 6, 6. Tmesis is not unfrequent iu forms of quicumque (H., O., I. 9, 14; I. 16, 2; I. 27, 14).

Two Dactyls.

799. Alcaic (Lesser) or Decasyllabic.

Vértere fűneribűs triúmphos, Hor.

Note.—The Casura is regularly the semiternaria, 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 H., O., II. 13, 16.

In all these, the Dactyl has a diminished value. More questionable is the logacedic character of the Greater Archilochian:

800. Archilochian (Greater) = Dactylic Tetrameter and Trochaic Tripody.

200 200 200 200 20 20 20 20 Sólvitur ácris hiéms grātá vice véris ét Favoni, Hor. If measured logacedically, the two shorts of the Dactyl must be reduced in value to one ($\omega = \omega$), and the logacedic scheme is

Logaœdic tetrapody + Logaœdic tetrapody with Syncopé.

Note.—Discresis is always found after the fourth foot, which is always Dactylic. The principal Casara is the sēmiquīnāria. In the third foot a Spondee is preferred, whereas the Greek model has more often the Dactyl.

801. Choriambic Rhythms.—When a logacedic series is syncopated, apparent choriambi arise. What is $| \sim | | = |$ seems to be $| \sim | \sim |$. Genuine choriambi do not exist in Latin, except, perhaps, in the single line PL., Men., 110.

802. Asclēpiadēan (Lesser).

This verse is formed by a Catalectic Pherecratean followed by a Catalectic Aristophanic.

Máccēnás atavís || ēdite régibús,
$$\times$$
 Hor. $->$ | $\sim \circ$ | \sim

Notes.—1. There should be Diærcsis, complete or incomplete (i.e., weakened by Elision), between the two halves. Only two exceptions are cited (II., O., II. I2, 25; IV. 8, 17). The Cæsura is regularly the $s\bar{e}mitern\bar{a}ria$ 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, 36).

803. Asclēpiadēan (Greater).

Núllam Váre sacrá | víte priús | séveris árborem, Hor.

Note.—This verse differs from the preceding by having a Catalectic Adonic (792) inscrted between the two halves. Diæresis always separates the parts in Horace. The rules of Elision are the same as in the preceding verse.

804. Sapphic (Greater).

Tế deốs ōrố Sybarín | cứr properás amándo, Hor.

Note.—This verse differs from the lesser Sapphic by the insertion of a catalectic Adonic. It is found only in Horace (O., r. 8). Discress always occurs after the fourth foot, and there is also a sēmiquēnāria Caesura.

805. Priāpēan (Glyconic + Pherecratēan).

Hunc lucum tibi dédicó | consecroque Priape, CAT.

Note. - Diæresis always follows the Glycouic, but neither Hiatus nor Syllaba Anceps is allowable. The verse occurs in CAT, 17 and Prian. 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 Creticus is 3 + 2 morae.

The metrical value of the Creticus is - - - (Amphimacer).

For it may be substituted the First Pæon, ---, or the Fourth Pæon, oco-.

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 Acatalectic. Ex bonis pessum(I) ét fraudulentissumi, PL., Capt., 235.

Note.—Resolution is not allowed at the end nor in the second foot immediately before a Casura. The Arsis immediately preceding (i.e., of the second and fourth foot) is regularly pure.

808. Tetrameter Catalectic.

Dá mi(hi) hốc mél meum sí m(ē) amás s(I) aúdēs, 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 Acatalectic.

Nősce sált(em) húnc quis ést, PL., Ps., 262. 2021202

Note.—This verse is found usually at the close of a Cretic system, or with Trochaic Septenarii. It follows the same rules as the Tetrameter, that is, the last loug is not resolved and the second Arsis is kept pure.

810. Acatalectic 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: $\smile \angle \angle$, = 1+ 2+2 morae (), or if the descending form $\angle \angle \cup$ be regarded as the normal one 2 + 2 + 1 morae ().

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.

Note.—In this verse there is usually a Cæsura after either the second or third Iambus; rarely Diæresis 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 áetát(em) agúndám, 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 Ionicus ā māiore —— o JJJ For the Ionicus ā māiore may be substituted the Ditrochaeus — o — o. This is called Anáclasis (breaking-up).

The verse is commonly anacrustic, so that it begins with the thesis $\circ \circ :--$. Such verses are called Iōnicīā 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 Ionicus is an excited measure, and serves to express the frenzy of distress as well as the madness of triumph.

816. Tetrameter Catalectic Ionic ā māiore (Sotadēan).

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.

Nám quam varia sínt genera poématōrum, Baébī, $\angle - \cup \cup \cup | \angle \cup \cup \cup \cup | \angle \cup - > | \angle \wedge$ Quámque longō díscinct(a) ali(a) $\angle \cup - > | \angle \cup \cup \cup | \angle \cup \cup - > | \angle \wedge$ áb aliīs, sīc nōsce. -Accius. $\angle \cup - > | \angle - \cup \cup | \angle \cup \cup - > | \angle \wedge$

Later Latin:

The most common scheme is the pure Ionic with Anaclasis, especially in the third foot. Irrational longs are not used, and there is rarely more than one resolution, as:

817. A combination of the *Ionic ā māiōre* into systems is found in LAEVIUS, 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 ā minore (Galliambic).

This verse was introduced by VARRO in his *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. Diæresis between the two Dimeters is regular. Anaclasis 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 Anaclasis: OUZ-UUZ-UUZ-UUZ With Anaclasis: 0040-04-0040-04. Anacrustic Scheme: Without Anaclasis: ロロ: エーロロ | エーヤロロ | エーロロ | 近一 | 00:20-0 | 2-t00 | 20-0 | 12 -1 With Anaclasis: Et ear(um) omni(a) adfrem furibúnda latibulá 004-004-00200002 Quò nốs decet citátis celeráre tripudiis -20-02-00200002 Itaqu(e) út domum Cybébes tetigére lassulaé VV4U-U4-UU4U-U4



Super álta vectus Áttis celerí rate

Iam iám dolet quod égi iam iám-

que paenitét.—CAT.

0020-02-00200002

819. Dimeter Catalectic Ionic ā minore (Anacreontic).

This verse is found first in Laevius, then in Seneca, Petronius, and later. Anaclasis 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 álm(um) adórāns

Seu fémin(a) ísve más est

-20202-

It(a) ut álba Nóctilúcast.

0020202-

00000202-

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:

Tū vína Tórquātố mové | cónsule préssa meő.—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 imparibus | certare submotus pudor. - Hor.

822. Versus Reiziānus (Iambic Dimeter and Anapaestic Tripody Catalectic).

Redĭ, quố fugis nunc ? ténĕ tenē. | Quid stólidē clámās ?

Qui(a) ăd trīs virōs i(am) ego déferam \parallel Nōmén tuōm. Qu(am) óbrem ? PL., Aul., 415.

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

is considerable unanimity, in regard to the second opinions differ. Some regard it as an Iambic Dimeter Catalectic Syncopated (UZULZU); others as an Iambic Tripody Catalectic (UZULZU). 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 Logaædic. The most recent view (KLOTZ) regards it as sometimes Logaædic, 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 Diæresis. 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 responsion.

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.

A Bacchic Trochaic Canticum is found in PL., Merc., 335-363, as follows: I. 2 Bacc. Tetram.; II. 4 Anap. Dim.; III. 1 Troch. Octon.; IV. 13 Bacc. Tetram.; V. 1 Troch. Octon.; VI. 2 Bacc. Tetram.; VII. 1 Troch. Octon.; VIII. 2 Bacc. Tetram.; IX. 2 Troch. Octon.

A Trochaic Iambic Canticum is Ter., Ph., 153-163. A. 153-157: 2 Troch. Octon.; 1 Troch. Sept.; 1 Iamb. Octon. B. 158-163; 1 Troch. Octon.; 2 Troch. Sept.; 3 Iamb. Octon.; 1 Iamb. Quater. (Clausula).

The Cantica of Later Latin.

- **825.** I. 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 $\smile \bot$. The Diæresis 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 Logacedic measures in his Cantica. So we find not unfrequently the following in stichic repetition: Lesser Asclepiadeans, Glyconics, Sapphic 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. Asclēpiadēan Strophe No. 1. Lesser Asclepiadean Verse (802) repeated in tetrastichs.

O., I. 1; III. 30; IV. 8.

II. Asclēpiadēan Strophe No. 2. Glyconics (795) and Lesser Asclepiadean (802) alternating, and so forming tetrastichs.

O., I. 3, I3, I9, 36; III. 9, I5, I9, 24, 25, 28; IV. I, 3.

III. Asclēpiadēan Strophe No. 3. Three Lesser Asclepiadean Verses (802) followed by a Glyconic (795).

O., I. 6, 15, 24, 33; II. 12; III. 10, 16; IV. 5, 12.

IV. Asclēpiadēan Strophe No. 4. Two Lesser Asclepiadean Verses (802), a Pherecratean (794), and a Glyconic (795).

O., I. 5, 14, 21, 23; III. 7, 13; IV. 13.

V. Asclēpiadēan Strophe No. 5. Greater Asclepiadean (803), repeated in fours.

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, IO, 16; III. 8, II, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; IV. 2, 6, II; Carmen Saeculāre.

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, 11, 11, and three in HORACE, 0., 1. 2, 19; 25, 11; 11. 12, 7; but the occurrence of Hiatus between the two lines in HORACE (0., 1. 2, 47; 12, 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., 11, 22; H., 0., 11. 2, 18; 16, 34; 11. 2, 22; third and fourth: Cat., 11, 19; H., 0., 11. 2, 3; C.S., 47. Hiatus, first and second: H., 0., 1. 2, 41; 12, 25; 11. 16, 5; 111. 11, 29; 27, 33; second and third: H., 0., 1. 2, 6; 12, 6; 25, 18; 30, 6; 11. 2, 6; 4, 6; 111. 11, 15); 27, 10.

VII. Lesser Sapphic Strophe. Aristophanic (793), and Greater Sapphic (804). Two pairs are combined into a tetrastich.

VIII. Alcaic Strophe. Two Alcaic verses of eleven syllables (798), a Trochaic Quaternarius with Anacrusis (772), and one Alcaic verse of ten (799).

O., I. 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; II. I, 3, 5, 7, 9, II, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; III. I, 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.

O., 1v. 7.

X. Archilochian Strophe No. 2. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), and an lambelegus (820).

XI. Archilochian Strophe No. 3. An Iambic Trimeter (762), followed by an Elegiambus (821).

Epod., 11.

XII. Archilochian Strophe No. 4. A Greater Archilochian (800), and a Trimeter Iambic Catalectic (763). Two pairs combined to form a tetrastich.

O., I. 4.

This verse may be considered as Logaœdic, thus (800):

XIII. Alemanian Strophe. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), followed by a Catalectic Dactylic Tetrameter (787).

O., I. 7, 28; Epod., 12.

Note.—The Tetrameter may be considered a catalectic with a Spondee in the fourth place (787, N.).

XIV. Iambic Trimeter repeated (762).

Epod., 17.

XV. Iambic Strophe. Iambic Trimeter (762), and Dimeter (765).

Epod., 1-10.

XVI. Pythiambic Strophe No. 1. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), or Versus Pythius, and an Iambic Dimeter (765).

Epod., 14, 15.

XVII. Pythiambic Strophe No. 2. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), and an Iambic Trimeter (760).

Epod., 16,

XVIII. Trochaic Strophe. A Catalectic Trochaic Dimeter (772), and a Catalectic Iambic Trimeter (763). Two pairs make a tetrastich.

О., п. 18.

XIX. The *Ionic* System is found once in Horace; it consists of ten Iōnicī ā 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 ā māiōre by Anacrusis.

Ionicus a minore scheme :

Miserārum(e)st neque amōrī dare lūdum neque dulcī mala vīnō laver(e) aut exanimārī metuentēs patruae verbera linguae

Ionicus a maiore scheme:

827. INDEX OF HORATIAN ODES AND METRES.

Book, Ope.	METRE.	BOOK. ODE.	METRE.	BOOK. ODE.	METRE.
I. 1		II. 1		III. 18	
2		2		19	
3	ii.	3		20	vi.
4		4		21	
5		5		22	
6		6		23	
7		7		24	
8	vii.	8		25	ii.
9		9		26	
10		10		27	
11		11	viii.	28	ii.
12		12		29	
13		13		30	
14		14			
15		15	viii.	IV. 1	ii.
16	viii.	16		2	vi.
17	viii.	17		3	
18	v.	18	xviii.	4	viii.
19	ii.	19	viii.	5	iii.
20		20	viii.	6	vi.
21				7	ix.
22	vi.	III. 1		8	
23		2		9	
24		3		10	v.
25		4		11	vi.
26		5		12	
27		6		13	
28		7		14	
29		8		15	
30		9		Carmen Saec	
31		10		Epod. 1-10	
32		11		11	
33		12		12	
34		13		13	
35		14			xvi.
36		15			xvi.
37		16			xvii.
38,	vi.	17	viii.	17	xiv.

APPENDIX.

ROMAN CALENDAR.

The names of the Roman months were originally adjectives. The substantive mēnsis, month, may or may not be expressed: (mēnsis) Iānuārius, Februārius, and so on. Before Augustus, the months July and August were called, not Iūlius and Augustus, but Quintīlis and Sextīlis.

The Romans counted backward from three points in the month, Calends (Kalendae), Nones (Nonae), and Ides (Īdūs), to which the names of the months are added as adjectives: Kalendae Iānuāriae, Nonae 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 Nonās Iān. = Jan. 4; prīdiē Īdūs Iān. = Jan. 12.

The longer intervals are expressed by ante diem tertium, quartum, etc., before the Accusative, so that ante diem tertium Kal. Iān. means "two days before the Calends of January;" ante diem quartum, 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. Nonās Iūniās ūsque 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 23, 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.

Examples: a. d. viii. \bar{I} d. \bar{I} an. $(13+1-8)={\rm Jan.~6}$; a. d. iv. Non. Apr. $(5+1-4)={\rm Apr.~2}$; a. d. xiv. Kal. Oct. $(30+2-14)={\rm Sept.~18}$.

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, Quinttlis (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 mēnsis intercalāris, was inserted after the 23d of February.

ROMAN SYSTEMS OF MEASUREMENT.

	Long	MEASURE.			Square Measure.				
4	digitī	=	ı palmus.	100	pedēs,		ı scripulum.		
4	palmī	=	1 pēs (11.65 in.).		quadrāti	<i></i>	i sorrparam.		
6	palmi,)	_	I cubitus.	36	scripula	=	r clima.		
$1\frac{1}{2}$	pedēs		1 cubicus.	4	climata	=	ī āctus.		
	pedēs	=	1 gradus.	2	āctūs	= :	iügerum (acre).		
2	gradūs,)	_	I passus.						
	pedēs	_	i paasus.		The iuge	rum	contains 28,800		
125	passus	=	1 stadium.		sq. ft.	Ron	n.;		
8	stadia	=	ı mille passuum	Eng. acre $= 43,560$ sq. ft.					
(mile).									
			(mne).						
			(mne).						
	Dry	ME	ASURE.		Lıquı	D M	EASURE.		
112	Dry cyathi		` ′	Ι½	Liqui cyathi		EASURE.		
1 ½ 2	cyathi	=	ASURE.	$1\frac{1}{2}$	cyathi	= 1			
	cyathī acētābula	=	ASURE. 1 acētābulum.	-	cyathī acētābula	= 1	acētābulum. quārtārius.		
2	cyathī acētābula quārtāriī	= =	ASURE. I acētābulum. I quārtārius.	2	cyathī acētābula quārtāriī	= 1	acētābulum. quārtārius.		
2	cyathī acētābula quārtāriī hēmīnae	= = =	ASURE. I acētābulum. I quārtārius. I hēmīna.	2 2	cyathī acētābula quārtāriī	= 1 = 1 = 1	acētābulum. quārtārius. hēmīna. sextārius (pint).		
2 2 2	cyathī acētābula quārtāriī hēmīnae	= = = =	ASURE. I acētābulum. I quārtārius. I hēmina. I sextārius.	2 2 2	cyathī acētābula quārtāriī hēmīnae	= 1 = 1 = 1 = 1	acētābulum. quārtārius. hēmīna. sextārius (pint).		
2 2 2 8	cyathī acētābula quārtāriī hēmīnae sextāriī	= = = =	ASURE. I acētābulum. I quārtārius. I hēmina. I sextārius. I sēmodius.	2 2 2 6	cyathī acētābula quārtāriī hēmīnae sextāriī	= 1 = 1 = 1 = 1	acētābulum. quārtārius. hēmīna. sextārius (pint). congius. ūrna.		
2 2 2 8	cyathī acētābula quārtāriī hēmīnae sextāriī	= = = =	ASURE. I acētābulum. I quārtārius. I hēmina. I sextārius. I sēmodius.	2 2 2 6 4	cyathī acētābula quārtāriī hēmīnae sextāriī congiī	= 1 = 1 = 1 = 1 = 1	acētābulum. quārtārius. hēmina. sextārius (pint). congius. urna.		

ROMAN WEIGHTS.

3	siliquae	=	I obolus.	2	sicilicī	=	ı sēmūncia.
2	obolī	=	ı scripulum.	2	sēmūnciae	=	ı üncia.
2	scrīpula	=	I drachma.	12	ūnciae	=	1 libra (pound).
2	drachmae		I sicilicus.				

Notes.—1. The multiples of the uncia were sescuncia (1½), sextans (2), quadrans (3), triens (4), quincunx (5), semis (6), septūnx (7), bes (8), dodrans (9), dextans (10), deunx (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 ingerum, we have definx as 11 of a ingerum, dextans as 12, etc.

ROMAN MONEY.

The unit was originally the ås (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 söstertius, which was nominally 2½ assös.

2½ assēs = 1 sēstertius (about 25 dēnāri
$$\mathbf{i}$$
 = 1 aureus (nummus).
4 cts.). 1000 sēsterti \mathbf{i} = 1 sēstertium

2 sēstertiī = I quīnārius.

(\$42.94 to Augustus's time).

2 quinārii = 1 dēnārius.

Note.—Sēstertium (which may be a fossilised Gen. Pl. = sēstertiōrum) was modified by distributives (rarely by cardinals), thus: bina sēstertia, 2000 sesterces. But in multiples of a million (deciōns centēna mīlia sēstertium, i. e., sēstertiōrum), centēna mīlia was regularly omitted, and sēstertium declined as a nestengular. HS stands as well for sēstertius as sēstertium; and the meaning is regulated by the form of the numeral; thus HS vīgintī (XX) = 20 sēstertīī; HS vīcēna $\overline{(XX)} = 20$ sēstertīa, i.e., 20,000 sestertīī.

ROMAN NAMES.

The Roman usually had three names; a nomen, indicating the gens, a cognomen, indicating the familia in the gens, and the praenomen, indicating the individual in the familia.

The nomina all end in ius. The cognomina have various forms, in accordance with their derivation. For example: Q. Mūcius Scaevola (from scaevos, left hand).

The praenomina are as follows, with their abbreviations:

Aulus,	Α.	Lūcius,	L.	Quintus,	Q.
Appius,	App.	Mārcus,	M.	Servius,	Ser.
Gāius,	C.	Mānius,	M'.	Sextus,	Sex.
Gnaeus,	Cn.	Māmercus,	Mam.	Spurius,	Sp.
Decimus,	D.	Numerius,	Num.	Titus,	T.
Kaesō.	K.	Pūblius.	Р.	Tiberius.	Ti., Tib.

Notes,—1. Adoption from one gens into another was indicated by the termination -ianus. From the fourth century A.D. a second cognomen was also called an agnomen.

2. Daughters had no peculiar praenomina, but were called by the name of the gons in which they were born. If there were two, they were distinguished as maior and minor; if more than two, by the numerals tertia, quarta, etc.

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Balbūtiō, īre, to stutter. batuō, ere, uī, 162. bibō, cre, bibī, (bibitum), 154, 2.

Cadō, ere, cecidī, cāsum, 153. caecūtio, īre, to be blind. caedo, erc, cecidi, caesum, 153. calefaciō, ere, -fēcī, -factum, 160.

3; 173, N. 2. calesco, erc, calui, to get warm. calleo, ere, ui, to be skilled. calveo, ere, to be bald. candeō, ēre, uī, to shine. cāneō, ēre, to be gray. canō, ere, cecinī, cantum, 153. capesso, ere, īvī, ītum, 137, c. capiō, ere, cēpī, captum, 126;

160, 3. carpō, ere, carpsī, carptum, 147, 2. caveō, ēre, cāvī, cautum, 159. cedo, 175, 6.

cēdō, ere, cēssī, cēssum, 147, 2. cēnātus, 167, n. 1.

cēnseō, ēre, uī, cēnsum, 135, 1.a. cernō, ere, crēvī, (crētum), 139. cieō \ ciēre, cīvī, cītum, 137, b. ciō cīre, cingō, ere, cinxī, cinctum, 149, b.

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145. co-arguō, ere, uī, 162. co-emō, ere, -ēmī, -ēm(p)tum,

160, I. coepi, coepisse, 175, 5, a. cō-gnōscō, ere, -gnōvī, -gnitum. 140.

cō-gō (AGO), ere, co-ēgī, co-āctum, 160, I.

col-līdō (LAEDō), erc, -līsī, līsum, 147, 2.

col-ligō (LEGō), erc, -lēgī, -lectum, 160, I.

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co-mo (emo), erc, compsī, comptum, 147, 2.

com-parco, ere, -parsi, -parsum, 153. com-pello, ere, com-puli, -pulsum, 155.

com-perio (PARIO), Tre, com-peri, com-per-tum, 161, 166.

compēsco, ere, uī, 145.

com-pingo, ere, -pēgī, -pāctum, 160, 2.

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-pressum, 147, 2. com-pungo, ere, -punxi, -punctum,

155. con-cidō (cadō), ere, -cidī, 153, a. con-cīdō (CAEDō), ere, -cīdī, -cīsum,

153, a. con-cinō (canō), ere, -cinuī, 142, 3.

concitus (CIEŌ), 137, b. con-clūdō (CLAUDŌ), ere, -clūsī,

-clūsum, 147, 2. con-cumbo, ere, -cubui, -cubitum,

con-cupisco, ere, -cupivi, cupitum, 140.

con-cutio (QUATIO), ere, -cussi, -cussum, 147, 2.

con-dō, ere, -didī, -ditum, 151, 1. con-dormīsco, -ere, -īvī, ītum, 140. con-fercio (farcio), ire (fersi), fertum, 150, 2.

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con-ficio (facio), erc, -feci,-fectum, 160, 3.

con-fiteor (fateor), ērī, -fessus, 164.

con-flīgō, ere, -flīxī, -flīctum, 147, 2.

con-fringo (frango), ere, -fregi, -fractum, 160, 2.

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con-iciō (IACIŌ), ere, -iēcī, -iectum, 160, 3.

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co-nīveō, ēre, connixī, (connīvī), 147, 1.

con-quīrō (QUAERō), cre, -quīsīvī, -quīsītum, 137, c.

con-sero, ere, -serui, -sertum, 152, 3.

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con-spergo, ere, -spersi, -spersum, 147, 2. con-spicio, ere, -spexi, -spectum,

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con-suesco, ere, -suevi, suetum, 140; 175, 5.

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con-tendō, ere, -tendī, -tentum, 155.

con-texō, ere,-texuī,-textum, 152,3. con-tineō (TENEŌ), ēre, uī, -tentum, 135, I. a.

con-tingō (tangō), ere, contigī, contāctum, 155.

convalēscō, ere, -valuī, -valitum, 145.

coquō, ere, coxī, coctum, 147, 2, 168, 1.

cor-ripiō (RAPIŌ), ere, -ripuī, -reptum, 146.

cor-ruō, ere, corrnī, 162.

crēbrēscō, ere, crēbruī, to get frequent.

crē-dō, ere, -didī, -ditum, 151, r. crepō, āre, crepuī, crepitum, 142, 2. crēscō, ere, crēvī, crētum, 140. cubō, āre, cubuī, cubitum, 142, 2.

cūdō, ere, cūdī, cūsum, 160, 1. cupiō, ere, cupivī, cupītum, 141. currō, ere, cucurrī, cursum, 155.

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dē-dō, dēdere, dēdidī, dēditum, 151, 1.

dē-fendō, cre, -fendī, -fēnsum, 160,

dēfetīscor, ī, to be worn out. dē-gō (AGO), ere, 160, 1.

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dē-ligō, cre, -lēgī, -lēctum, 160, 1. dē-mō (EMO), ere, dēmpsī, dēmptum, 147, 2.

dēpellō, ere, dēpulī, dēpulsum, 155. dē-primō (PREMŌ), ere, -pressī, pressum, 147, 2.

depsō, ere, depsuī, depstum, 142, 3. dē-scendō (scandō), ere, -scendī, -scēnsum, 160, 2.

dē-serō, ere, -seruī, -sertum, 142, 3. dē-siliō (saliō), fre, uī, 142, 4.

dē-sinō, erc, dēsīvī, dēsitum, 139.

dē-sipiō (sapiō), -ere, 141.

dē-sistō, ere, -stitī, -stitum, 154, r. dē-spiciō, ere, -spexī, -spectum, 150, r.

dē-suēscō, -ere, -ēvī, -ētum, 140. dē-sum, -esse, -fuī, 117.

dē-tendō, ere, -tendī, -tentum, 155. dē-tineō (TENEŌ), ēre, -uī, -tentum, 135, i. a.

dē-vertor, -ī, 167.

dīcō, ere, dīxī, dictum, 147, 2. dif-ferō, -ferre, distulī, dīlātum,

171. dl-gnōscō (xōscō), ere, -gnōvī, 140. dl-ligō, ere, -lēxī, -lēctum, 147, 2. dl-micō, āre, āvī, ātum, 142, 2.

dī-rigō, ere, -rēxī, -rēctum, 147, 2. dir-imō (EMO), ere, -ēmī, -ēmptum, 160, 1.

dīscō, ere, didicī, 156.

dis-crepō, āre, -crepuī (āvī), 142, 2. dis-cumbō, ere, -cubuī, -cubitum,

144. dis-pēscō, ere, -pēscuī, to divide,

dis-sideō (sedeō), ēre, -sēdī, 159.

dī-stinguō, ere, -stinxī, -stinctum, 149, b.

dī-stō, -stāre, 151, 2. dītēseō, ere, to grow rich. dīvidō, ere, dīvīsī, dīvīsum, 147, 2. dō, dare, dedī, datum, 151, 1. doceō, ēre, docuī, doctum, 135, 1, a. domō, āre, uī, itum, 142, 2. dūcō, ere, dūxī, ductum, 147, 2. dulcēscō, ere, to grow sweet. dūrēscō, ere, dūruī, to grow hard.

Edō, ere, ēdī, ēsum, 160, 1, 172. ē-dō (pō), ēdere, ēdidī, ēditum,

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ē-micō, āre, uī (ātūrus), 142, 2.
ēmineō, ēre, uī, to stand out.
emo, ere, ēmī, ēmptum, 160, 1.
ēmungō, ēre, ēmunxī, ēmunctum,

149, b.

ē-necō, āre, ēnecuī, ēnectum,

142, 2.
eō, īre, īvī, itum, 169, 2.
ē-vādō, ere, ēvāsī, ēvāsum, 147, 2.
ē-vānēscō, ere, ēvānuī, 145.
ex-ārdēscō, ere, exārsī, exārsum,

147, 1. ex-cellō, ere, uī (excelsus), 144.

excitus, 137.

ex-clūdō (CLAUDō), ere, -sī, -sum, 147, 2.

ex-currō, ere, ex(cu)currī, -cursum, 155.

ex-imō, ere, ēmī, -ēmptum, 160, r. ex-olēscō, ere, -olēvī, -olētum, 140. ex-pellō, ere, -pulī, -pulsum, 155. expergīscor, ī, experrēctus sum, 165.

ex-perior, īrī, -pertus sum, 166. ex-pleō, ēre, ēvī, ētum, 124, 137,

ex-plicō, āre, uī (āvī), itum (ātum), 142.

ex-plōdō (PLAUDō), ere, -sī, -sum, 147, 2.

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2. frīgeō, ēre (frīxī), 147, 1. frīgō, ere, frīxī, frīctum, 147, 2. frondeō, ēre, uī, to be leafy. fruor, ī, frūctus (fruitus) sum, 165. fugiō, ere, fūgī, fugitum, 160, 3.

fulciō, īre, fulsī, fultum, 150, 2. fulgeō, ēre, fulsī, 147, 1. fundō, ere, fūdi, fūsum, 160, 2. fungor, ī, fūnetus sum, 165. (fūrō, def.), furere, to rave.

Ganniō, īre, to yelp.
gaudeō, ēre, gāvīsus sum, 167.
gemō, ere, uī, 142, 3.
gerō, ere, gessī, gestum, 147, 2.
gīgnō, ere, genuī, genitum, 143.
glīscō, ere, to swell.
gradior, ī, gressus sum, 165,

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Haereō, ēre, haesī, (haesum), 147, I. hauriō, īre, hausī, haustum (hausūrus, havē, 175, 4. hīscō, ere, to yawn. horreō, ēre, uī, to stand on end hortor, ārī, ātus sum, 128.

Iaceō, ēre, iacuī, to lie. iaciō, ere, iēci, iactum, 160, 3. īcō, ere, īcī, īctum, 160, 1. ī-gnōscō, ere, -gnōvī, -gnōtum, 140. il-licio, ere, -lexī, -lectum, 150, 1. il-līdō (LAEDŌ), ere, -līsī, -līsum, 147. 2. imbuō, ere, uī, ūtum, 162. imitātus, 167, N. 2. immineo, ere, to overhang. im-pingō (PANGŌ), ere, pēgī, pāctum, 160, 2. in-calesco, ere, -caluī, 145. in-cendo, erc, -cendo, -censum, 160, 2. incessō, ere, īvī (ī), 137, c. in-cidō (CADŌ), ere, -cidī, -cāsum, · in-cīdō (caedō), ere, -cīdī, cīsum, 153. in-cipiō (capiō), ere, -cēpī, -ceptum, 160, 3. in-crepō, are, uī, itum, 142, 2. in-cumbo, ere, -cubuī, -cubitum, 144. in-cutio (QUATIO), ere, -cussi, -cussum, 147, 2. ind-igeō (EGEŌ), ēre, uī, to want. ind-ipiscor, i, indeptus sum, 165.

in-dō, ere, -didī, -ditum, 151, 1.
indulgeō, ēre, indulsī (indultum),
147, 1.
in-duō, ere, -duī, -dūtum, 162.
ineptiō, īre, to be silly.
īn-flīgō, ere, -flīxī, -flīctum, 147, 2.
ingemīseō, ere, ingemuī, 145.
ingruō, ere, uī. See congruo, 162.
in-nōtēsco, ere, nōtuī, 145.
in-lōtēsco, ere, nōtuī, 140.
inquam, 175, 2.
īn-sideō (sedeō), ēre, -sēdī, -sessum, 159.
īn-sistō, ere, -stitī, 154, 1.

īn-spiciō, ere, -spexī, -spectum,

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3; 173, N. 2. īn-stō, āre,-stitī (instātūrus), 151,2. In-sum, -esse, -fuī, 117. intel-lego, ere, -lexi, -lectum, 147, 2. inter-imō (EMō), ere, -ēmī, -ēmptum, 160, I. inter-pungo, ere, -punxi, -punctum, 155. inter-sto, are, -stetī, 151, 2. inter-sum, -esse, -fui, 117. inveterāscō, ere, -āvī, 140. in-vādō, ere, invāsī, -vāsum, 147, 2. īrāscor, ī, īrātus sum, to get angry. iubeo, ēre, iūssī, iūssum, 147, 1. iungo, ere, iūnxī, iūnctum, 149, b. iūrātus, 167, n. 1. iuvo, are, iūvī, iūtum (iuvatūrus),

inter-ficio, cre, -feci, -fectum, 160,

Lābor, ī, lāpsus sum, 165. lacessō, ere, lacessīvī, -ītum, 137, c. laciō, 150. laedō, ere, laesī, laesum, 147, 2. lambō, ere, ī, 160, 2. langueō, ēre, ī, to be languid. largior, īrī, ītus sum, 166. lateō, ēre, uī, to lie hid. lavō, āre (ere), lāvī, lautum, lōtum, lavātum, 158. lego, ere, lēgī, lēctum, 160, ī. libet, libēre, libuit (libitum est), it pleases. liceor, ērī, itus sum, 164.

licet, licere, licuit (licitum est), ii is permitted.
lingo, ere, linxi, linctum, 149, b.

linō, ere, lēvī (līvī), litum, 139. linquō, ere, līquī, 160, 2. liqueō, ēre, licuī, to be clear. līveō, ēre, to be livid. loquor, ī, locūtus sum, 128, 2; 165. lūceō, ēre, lūxī, 147, r.

lūdō, ere, lūsī, lūsum, 147, 2. lūgeō, ēre, lūxī, 147, 1. (lūtum, to wash, luō, ere, luī, { luitum, to atone for, 162.

Maereō, ēre, to grieve. mālō, mālle, māluī, 142, 3; 174. mandō, ere, mandī, mānsum, 160, 2. maneō, ēre, mānsī, mānsum,147, 1.

maneō, ēre, mānsī, mānsum, 147, mānsuēscō, -ere, -ēvī, -ētum, 140.

medeor, ērī, to heal. meminī, 175, 5, b. mentior, īrī, ītus, 128, 2; 166. mereor, ērī, meritus sum, 164. mergō, ere, mersī, mersum, 147, 2. mētior, īrī, mēnsus sum, 166. metō, ere, messuī (rare), messum,

142, 3. metuō, erc, uī, 162.

micō, āre, uī, 142, 2. mingō, ere, minxī, mictum, 149, a. minuō, ere, minuī, minūtum, 162. mīseeō, ēre, uī, mīxtum (mīstum). misereor, ērī, miseritus (misertus) sum, 164.

mittō, ere, mīsī, missum, 147, 2. molō, ere, moluī, molitum, 149, 3. moneō, ēre, uī, itum, 131. mordeō, ēre, momordī, morsum,

152.

morior, morī, mortuus sum (moritūrus), 165.

moveō, ēre, mōvī, mōtum, 159. mulceō, ēre, mulsī, inulsum, 147,

mulgeō, ēre, mulsī, mulsum (ctum), 157, 1.

mungō, ere, munxī, munctum, 160.

Nancīscor, ī, nactus (nanctus),165. nāscor, ī, nātus sum (nāscitūrus), 165.

necō, āre, āvī, ātum, 142, 2. nectō, ere, nexī (nexuī), nexum, 148.

neg-legō, ere, -lēxī, -lēctum,147,2. necopīnātus, 167, n. 2. neō, nēre, nēvī, nētum, 137, b.

nequeō, īre, 170. ningō, ere, ninxī, 149, b.

niteö, ēre, uī, to shine. nītor, ī, nīxus (nīsus) sum, 165. nölo, nölle, nōluī, 142, 3; 174. noceō, ēre, uī (nocitūrus), to be

hurtful.

noseo, ere, novī, notum, 140; 175, 5, d.

notesco, ere, notui, 145. nūbo, ere, nūpsi, nūptum, 147, 2.

Ob-dō, ere, -didī, -ditum, 151, 1. ob-dormīscō, ere, -dormīvī, -dormītum, 140. oblīvīscor, ī, oblītus sum, 165. ob-sideō (sedeō), ēre, -sēdī, -sessum, 159.

ob-sistō, ere, -stitī, -stitum, 154, 1. obs-olēscō, ere, -olēvī, -olētum, 140.

ob-stō, stāre, stitī (obstātūrus), 151, 2.

obtineō (TENEŌ), ēre, -tinuī, -tentum, 135, I, a.

oc-cidō (cadō), ere, -cidī, -cāsum, 153.

oc-cīdō (caedō), ere, -cīdī, -cīsum, 153.

oc-cinō (canō), ere, -cinuī, 142, 3; 153.

oc-cipiō (CAPIŌ), ere, -cēpī, -ceptum, 160, 3.

occulō, ere, occuluī, occultum, 142, 3.

odī, def., 175, 5, a.

of-fendō, ere,-fendī,-fēnsum,160,2. of-ferō, -ferre, obtulī, oblūtum, 171.

oleō, ēre, uī, to smell.

operio, īre, operuī, opertum, 142, 4. opīnātus, 167, N. 2.

opperior, īrī, oppertus (or ītus), 166.

ördior, īrī, ōrsus sum, 166. orior, īrī, ortus sum (oritūrus), 166. os-tendō, ere, -tendī, -tēnsum (-tentus), 155.

Paeïscor, î, pactus sum, 165, 167, N. 2.

palleo, -ere, -ui, to be pale.

pandō, ere, pandī, passum (pānsum), 160, 2.

pangō, ere { pepigī, 155, } pācpanxī, 149, b, } tum. parcō, ere, pepercī (parsī), parsūrus, 153.

pariō, ere, peperī, partum (paritūrus), 157.

partior, iri, itus, 166.

pāscō, ere, pāvī, pāstum, 140. pate-facio, ere, -fēcī, -factum, 173,

pate-lacio, ere, -leci, -lactum, 17 N. 2. pateō, ere, uī, to be open.

patior, ī, passus sum, 165.

paveō, ēre, pāvī, 159. pectō, ere, pexī, pexum, 148.

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