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LATIN GRAMMAR

BENNETT
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PREFACE.

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

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

Ithaca, New York,
October 16, 1907.

C. E. B.

FROM THE PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION.

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

The experience of German educators in recent years has tended to restrict the size of school-grammars of Latin, and has demanded an incorporation of the main principles of the language in compact manuals of 250 pages.¹ Within the past decade, several grammars of this scope have appeared which have amply met the exacting demands of the full Gymnasial Latin course,—a period of study representing quite as much reading as that covered by the average American undergraduate.

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

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

ITHACA, NEW YORK,
December 15, 1894.

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

SOUNDS, ACCENT, QUANTITY.

THE ALPHABET.

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

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

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

CLASSIFICATION OF SOUNDS.

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

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

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

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

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

1 For 'voiceless,' 'surd,' 'hard,' or 'tenuis' are sometimes used.

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

4. The Mutes admit of classification also as

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

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

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

*ancepse, double,* pronounced angocps.

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

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

9. Double Consonants are z and z. Of these, z was equivalent to cs, while the equivalence of z is uncertain. See § 3.3.

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

<table>
<thead>
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<tr>
<td>Mutes,</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>p</td>
<td>b</td>
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<tr>
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<td>d</td>
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<td>c, k, q,</td>
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<td>Liquids,</td>
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<td>Spirants,</td>
<td>f, s</td>
<td>h,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semivowels</td>
<td>j, v</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- The Double Consonants, z and z, being compound sounds, do not admit of classification in the above table.
SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS.

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

1. Vowels.
   a as in father;
   e as in they;
   i as in machine;
   o as in note;
   u as in rude;
   y like French u, German ü.
   ä as in the first syllable of ahd;
   ø as in met;
   ø as in pin;
   ö as in obey, melody;
   ø as in put;

2. Diphthongs.
   ae like ai in aisle;
   oe like oi in oil;
   ei as in rein;
   au like ow in how;
   eu with its two elements, ø and ü, pronounced in rapid succession;
   ui occurs almost exclusively in cui and huic. These words are pronounced as though written kwee and wheek.

3. Consonants.
   b, d, f, h, k, l, m, n, p, qu are pronounced as in English, except that
   bs, bt are pronounced ps, pt.
   c is always pronounced as k.
   t is always a plain t, never with the sound of sk as in Eng. oration.
   g always as in get; when ngu precedes a vowel, gu has the sound of
   gw, as in anguis, languidus.
   j has the sound of y as in yet.
   r was probably slightly trilled with the tip of the tongue.
   s always voiceless as in sin; in suadeo, suavis, suescido, and in com-
   pounds and derivatives of these words, su has the sound of sw.
   v like w.
   x always like ks; never like Eng. gz or s.
   z uncertain in sound; possibly like Eng. sd, possibly like s. The
   latter sound is recommended.
   The aspirates ph, ch, th were pronounced very nearly like our stressed
   Eng. p, c, t — so nearly so, that, for practical purposes, the latter
   sounds suffice.
   Doubled letters, like ll, mm, tt, etc., should be so pronounced that
   both members of the combination are distinctly articulated.
SYLLABLES.

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

In the division of words into syllables,—

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

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

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

4. An exception to Rule 3 occurs when the two consonants consist of a mute followed by l or r (pl, ol, tl; pr, or, tr, etc.). In such cases both consonants are regularly joined to the following vowel; as, a-grī, vo-lu-bris, pa-tris, ma-tris. Yet if the l or r introduces the second part of a compound, the two consonants are separated; as, ab-rumpō, ad-lātus.

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

QUANTITY.

5. A. Quantity of Vowels.

A vowel is long or short according to the length of time required for its pronunciation. No absolute rule can be given for determining the quantity of Latin vowels. This knowledge must be gained, in large measure, by experience; but the following principles are of aid:—

1. A vowel is long,

a) before nf or ns; as, Infāns, Inferior, cōnsūmō, cōnseō, īnsum.

b) when the result of contraction; as, nīllum for nīhilum.

2. A vowel is short,

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

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

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

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

1. A syllable is long,—
   a) if it contains a long vowel; as, mæter, rēgnum, dīus.
   b) if it contains a diphthong; as, causae, foedus.
   c) if it contains a short vowel followed by x, z, or any two consonants (except a mute with l or r); as, axis, gaza, restō.

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

3. Sometimes a syllable varies in quantity, vis. when its vowel is short and is followed by a mute with l or r, i.e. by pl, ol, tl; pr, or, tr, etc.; as, āgrī, voltōris. Such syllables are called common. In prose they were regularly short, but in verse they might be treated as long at the option of the poet.

NOTE.—These distinctions of long and short are not arbitrary and artificial, but are purely natural. Thus, a syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants, as ng, is long, because such a syllable requires more time for its pronunciation; while a syllable containing a short vowel followed by one consonant is short, because it takes less time to pronounce it. In case of the common syllables, the mute and the liquid blend so easily as to produce a combination which takes scarcely more time than a single consonant. Yet by separating the two elements (as ag-rī) the poets were able to use such syllables as long.

ACCENT.

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

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

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

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

2 But if the 1 or r introduces the second part of a compound, the preceding syllable is always long; as, abrupūō.
SOUNDS, ACCENT, QUANTITY.

4. Sometimes the final -e of -ne and -oe disappears, but without affecting the accent; as, tantōn, istic, illōc, vidēn (for vidēsue).

5. In utrāque, each, and plērāque, most, -que is not properly an enclitic; yet these words accent the penult, owing to the influence of their other cases, — utérque, utrāmque, plērāmque.

VOWEL CHANGES.¹

7. 1. In Compounds, —
   a) ę before a single consonant becomes ï; as, —
       ocollīgō for con-legō.
   b) ā before a single consonant becomes ï; as, —
       adīgō for ad-agō.
   c) ã before two consonants becomes ę; as, —
       expers for ex-pars.
   d) as becomes ï; as, —
       conquirō for con-quaerō.
   e) au becomes á, sometimes ë; as, —
       concīdō for con-cīdō;
       explōdō for ex-plaudō.

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

   trēs for tre-es;
   mālō for ma(v)elō;
   amāstī for amā(v)istī;
   dēbeō for dē(h)abeō;
   nil for nihil;
   copia for co-opia;
   cōgō for co-agō;
   cōmō for co-emō;
   jūnior for ju(v)enior.

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

   vinoulum for earlier vinolum.

So periculum, saeculum.

4. Syncope. Sometimes a vowel drops out by syncope; as, —
   ārdor for āridor (compare āridus);
   vāldē for valida (compare validus).

¹ Only the simplest and most obvious of these are here treated.
Peculiarities of Orthography.

CONSONANT CHANGES.\(^1\)

8. **Rhotacism**. An original *s* between vowels became *r*; as,—
   arboś, Gen. arboris (for arbosis);
genus, Gen. generis (for genesis);
dirimo (for dis-emō).

2. *dt, tt, ts* each give *s* or *ss*; as,—
   pānsum for pend-tum;
   versum for vert-tum;
   mīles for mīlet-s;
   sessus for sedtus;
   passus for pattus.

3. Final consonants were often omitted; as,—
   cor for cord;
   lac for lact.

4. **Assimilation of Consonants**. Consonants are often assimilated to a following sound. Thus: accūrō (ado-); aggerō (adg-);
   asserō (ads-); allātus (adl-); apportō (adp-); attulī (adt-);
   arrīdeō (adr-); afferō (adf-); occurrō (obo-); suppōnō (subp-);
   offerō (obf-); corruō (comr-); collātus (coml-); etc.

5. **Partial Assimilation**. Sometimes the assimilation is only partial. Thus: —
   a) *b* before *s* or *t* becomes *p*; as,—
      sorīpsī (sorīb-sī), sorīptum (sorīb-tum).
   b) *g* before *s* or *t* becomes *c*; as,—
      āctus (āg-tus).
   c) *m* before a dental or guttural becomes *n*; as,—
      eundem (eum-dem); prīnceps (prīm-ceps).

PECCULARITIES OF ORTHOGRAPHY.

9. Many words have variable orthography.

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

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

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

*ad-gerō* or *aggerō; ad-serō* or *asserō; ad-liciō* or *alliō; in-lātus* or *illātus; ad-rogāns* or *arrogāns; sub-moveō* or *summoveō;* and many others.

3. Compounds of *jacīō* were usually written *śicīō, dēsicīō, adiciō,* *obiciō, etc.,* but were probably pronounced as though written *adiciō,* *obiciō,* etc.

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

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

INFLECTIONS.

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

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

CHAPTER I.—Declension.

A. NOUNS.

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

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

2. Nouns are also distinguished as Concrete or Abstract.

a) Concrete nouns are those which designate individual objects; as, mons, mountain; pes, foot; dies, day; mens, mind.
Inflections.

Under concrete nouns are included, also, collective nouns; as, legiō, legion; comitātus, retinue.

b) Abstract nouns designate qualities; as, constantia, steadfastness; paupertās, poverty.

GENDER OF NOUNS.

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

Natural Gender.

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

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

2. Feminine, if they denote females; as,—
   māter, mother; rēgina, queen.

Grammatical Gender.

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

A. Gender determined by Signification.

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

2. Names of Trees, and such names of Towns and Islands as end in -us, are Feminine; as,—
   querous, oak; Corinthus, Corinth; Rhodus, Rhodes.
Other names of towns and islands follow the gender of their endings (see B, below); as,—

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

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

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

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

B. Gender determined by Ending of Nominative Singular.

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

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

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

NUMBER.

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

CASES.

17. There are six Cases in Latin:—

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

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

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

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

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

THE FIVE DECLENSIONS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Declension</th>
<th>Final Letter of Stem</th>
<th>Gen. Termination</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>ò</td>
<td>-ı</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>l Some consonant</td>
<td>-ls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>ü</td>
<td>-ns</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>ą</td>
<td>ą</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cases alike in Form.

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

2. The Dative and Ablative Plural are always alike.

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

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

---

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

20. Pure Latin nouns of the First Declension regularly end, in the Nominative Singular, in -a, weakened from -ā, and are of the Feminine Gender. They are declined as follows: —

**Porta, gate; stem, portā-.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CASES</th>
<th>MEANINGS</th>
<th>TERMINATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>porta</td>
<td>a gate (as subject)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>portae</td>
<td>of a gate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>portae</td>
<td>to or for a gate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>portam</td>
<td>a gate (as object)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>porta</td>
<td>O gate!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>portā</td>
<td>with, by, from, in a gate</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PLURAL.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>CASES</th>
<th>MEANINGS</th>
<th>TERMINATIONS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>portae</td>
<td>gates (as subject)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>portārum</td>
<td>of gates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>portās</td>
<td>to or for gates</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>portās</td>
<td>gates (as object)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>portae</td>
<td>O gates!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>portās</td>
<td>with, by, from, in gates</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Peculiarities of Nouns of the First Declension.

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

ii. Rare Case-Endings, —

a) An old form of the Genitive Singular in -ās is preserved in the combination pater familiās, father of a family; also in māter familiās, filius familiās, filia familiās. But the regular form of the Genitive in -ae is also admissible in these expressions; as, pater familiae.

b) In poetry a Genitive in -ā is also occurs; as, aulā.
Inflections.

c) The Locative Singular ends in -ae; as, Rōmae, at Rome.
da) A Genitive Plural in -um instead of -ārum sometimes occurs; as, Dardanidum instead of Dardanidārum. This termination -um is not a contraction of -ārum, but represents an entirely different case-ending.
e) Instead of the regular ending -is, we usually find -ābus in the Dative and Ablative Plural of dea, goddess, and filia, daughter, especially when it is important to distinguish these nouns from the corresponding forms of deus, god, and filius, son. A few other words sometimes have the same peculiarity; as, libertābus (from liberta, freedwoman), equābus (mares), to avoid confusion with libertis (from libertus, freedman) and equis (from equus, horse).

Greek Nouns.

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


Nom. Archēs  epitomē  comētēs
Gen. Archiae  epitomēs  comētēs
Dat. Archiae  epithomae  comētēs
Acc. Archiam (or -ān) epitomēn  comētēn
Voc. Archiā  epitomē  comētē (or -ē)
Abl. Archiā  epitomē  comētē (or -ē)

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

2. Some other peculiarities occur, especially in poetry.

SECOND DECLENSION.

ō-Stems.

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

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

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

SINGULAR.

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

PLURAL.

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

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

SINGULAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>puerī</th>
<th>agrī</th>
<th>virī</th>
<th>-ī</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>puerōrum</td>
<td>agrōrum</td>
<td>virōrum</td>
<td>-ōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>puerīs</td>
<td>agrīs</td>
<td>virīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>puerōs</td>
<td>agrōs</td>
<td>virōs</td>
<td>-ōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>puer</td>
<td>agrī</td>
<td>virī</td>
<td>-ī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>puerīs</td>
<td>agrīs</td>
<td>virīs</td>
<td>-īs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLURAL.

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

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

2. The following nouns in -er are declined like *puer*: *adulter, adulterer; gener, son-in-law; Liber, Bacchus; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening*; and compounds in -er and -ger, as *signifer, armiger*.

**Nouns in -vus, -vum, -quus.**

24. Nouns ending in the Nominative Singular in -vus, -vum, -quus, exhibited two types of inflection in the classical Latin,—an earlier and a later,—as follows:

_Earlier Inflection (including Caesar and Cicero)._  

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

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>servos</th>
<th>aevom</th>
<th>equos</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>servi</td>
<td>aevi</td>
<td>equi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>servō</td>
<td>aevō</td>
<td>equō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>servum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>equum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>serve</td>
<td>aevom</td>
<td>eque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>servō</td>
<td>aevō</td>
<td>equō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

_Later Inflection (after Cicero)._  

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>servus</th>
<th>aevum</th>
<th>equus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>servī</td>
<td>aevī</td>
<td>equī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>servō</td>
<td>aevō</td>
<td>equō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>servum</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>equum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>serve</td>
<td>aevum</td>
<td>eque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>servō</td>
<td>aevō</td>
<td>equō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

**Peculiarities of Inflection in the Second Declension.**

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

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

Nom. ingentium
Gen. ingenti

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

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

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

   Nom. di (dei)
   Gen. dei (deum)
   Dat. dis (deis)
   Acc. deōs
   Voc. di (dei)
   Abl. dis (deis)

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

6. The Genitive Plural has -um, instead of -orum,—
   a) in words denoting money and measure; as, talentum, of talents; modium, of pecks; sestertium, of sesterces.
   b) in duumvir, triumvir, decemvir; as, duumvirum.
   c) sometimes in other words; as, liberum, of the children; socium, of the allies.

Exceptions to Gender in the Second Declension.

26. i. The following nouns in -us are Feminine by exception:—
   a) Names of towns, islands, trees — according to the general rule laid down in § 15. 2; also some names of countries; as, Aegyptus, Egypt.
   b) Five special words,—
      alvus, belly;
      carbasus, flax;
      colus, distaff;
      humus, ground;
      vannus, winnowing-fan.
   c) A few Greek Feminines; as,—
      atomus, atom;
      diphthongus, diphthong.

2. The following nouns in -us are Neuter:—
   pelagus, sea;
   virus, poison;
   vulgus, crowd.
Inflections.

Greek Nouns of the Second Declension.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Barbitos, m. and f. lyre.</td>
<td>Androgeōs, m. Androgoes.</td>
<td>Ūlion, n. Troy.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>barbitos</td>
<td>Androgeōs</td>
<td>Īlion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>barbītē</td>
<td>Androgeō, -ī</td>
<td>Īīθ</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>barbitō</td>
<td>Androgeō</td>
<td>Īūiō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>barbitōn</td>
<td>Androgeōs, -ōn</td>
<td>Ūlion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>barbitē</td>
<td>Androgeōs</td>
<td>Ūlion</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>barbitō</td>
<td>Androgeō</td>
<td>Ūūiō</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

THIRD DECLENSION.

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

I. Pure Consonant-Stems.

II. ō-Stems.

III. Consonant-Stems which have partially adapted themselves to the inflection of ō-Stems.

IV. A very few Stems ending in a long vowel or a diphthong.

V. Irregular Nouns.

I. Consonant-Stems.

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

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

A. Mute-Stems.

30. Mute-Stems may end,—

1. In a Labial (p); as, princeps.-s.
2. In a Guttural (g or o); as, remex (remeg-s); dux (duc-s).
3. In a Dental (d or t); as, lapis (lapid-s); miles (milet-s).

1. STEMS IN A LABIAL MUTE (p).

31. Princeps, m., chief.

SINGULAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>prínceps</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>princípis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>principí</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>principém</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>prínceps</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>principé</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Termination.

- s
- is
- i
- em
- s
- e

PLURAL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
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<td>Acc.</td>
<td>principēs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>principēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>principibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- ēs
- um
- ibus
- ēs
- ēs
- ibus

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

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

Rémesx, m., rower.

Dux, c., leader.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. rémesx</td>
<td>rémigēs</td>
<td>dux</td>
<td>ducēs</td>
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<td>rémigum</td>
<td>ducis</td>
<td>ducum</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dat. rémigē</td>
<td>rémigibus</td>
<td>ducē</td>
<td>ducibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. rémigēm</td>
<td>rémigēs</td>
<td>ducem</td>
<td>ducēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. rémesx</td>
<td>rémigēs</td>
<td>dux</td>
<td>ducēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. rémige</td>
<td>rémigibus</td>
<td>duce</td>
<td>ducibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Stems in a Dental Mute (d, t).

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Lapis, m., stone.</th>
<th>Myles, m., soldier.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td><strong>PLURAL.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. lapis</td>
<td>lapidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. lapidēs</td>
<td>lapidum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. lapidī</td>
<td>lapidibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. lapidem</td>
<td>lapidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. lapis</td>
<td>lapidēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. lapide</td>
<td>lapidibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td><strong>PLURAL.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Miles</td>
<td>militēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>militis</td>
<td>militum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>militī</td>
<td>militibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>militem</td>
<td>militēs</td>
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<tr>
<td>miles</td>
<td>militēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>militē</td>
<td>militibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

B. Liquid Stems.

34. These end in -l or -r.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vigil, m., watchman.</th>
<th>Victor, m., conqueror.</th>
<th>Aequor, n., sea.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. vigil</td>
<td>victor</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. vigilis</td>
<td>victōris</td>
<td>aequorīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. vigili</td>
<td>victōri</td>
<td>aequoribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. vigilem</td>
<td>victōrem</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. vigil</td>
<td>victor</td>
<td>aequor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. vigile</td>
<td>victōre</td>
<td>aequore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PLURAL.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. vigilēs</td>
<td>victōrēs</td>
<td>aequora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. vigilum</td>
<td>victōrium</td>
<td>aequorūm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. vigilibus</td>
<td>victōribus</td>
<td>aequoribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. vigilēs</td>
<td>victōrēs</td>
<td>aequora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. vigilēs</td>
<td>victōrēs</td>
<td>aequora</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. vigilibus</td>
<td>victōribus</td>
<td>aequoribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>PLURAL.</th>
<th></th>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
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<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>nōmen</td>
<td>nōmina</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>leōnum</td>
<td>nōminēs</td>
<td>nōminum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>leōnī</td>
<td>leōnībus</td>
<td>nōminī</td>
<td>nōminībus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>leōnem</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>nōmen</td>
<td>nōmina</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>leō</td>
<td>leōnēs</td>
<td>nōmen</td>
<td>nōmina</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>leōnē</td>
<td>leōnībus</td>
<td>nōmine</td>
<td>nōminībus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

D. s-Stems.

36. Mōs, m., custom.

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

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

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

---

1 There is only one stem ending in -m, — hiēms, hiemīs, winter.
II. *-Stems.

A. Masculine and Feminine *-Stems.

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

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. *tussēs</td>
<td>*ignēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. *tussīum</td>
<td>*ignīum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. *tussībus</td>
<td>*ignībus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. *tussīs or *ēs</td>
<td>*ignīs or *ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. *tussēs</td>
<td>*ignēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. *tussībus</td>
<td>*ignībus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I. To the same class belong —

| apis, bee. | crātis, hurdle. | \* *sēcūris, axe. |
| aurīs, ear. | *febris, fever. | sāmentis, sowing. |
| avis, bird. | orbis, circle. | \* *sītis, thirst. |
| axis, axle. | ovis, sheep. | torris, brand. |
| *būris, plough-beam. | pelvis, basin. | \* *turris, tower. |
| clāvis, key. | puppis, stern. | trudis, pole. |
| oollis, hill. | restis, rope. | vectis, lever. |

and many others.

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

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

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

B. Neuter 1-Stems.

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

Sedile, seat; Animal, animal; Calcar, spur;
stem, sedīli-. stem, animālī-. stem, calcārī-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>TERMINATION</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
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<td>Nom. sedile</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. sedilis</td>
<td>animālis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. sedillis</td>
<td>animālī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. sedile</td>
<td>animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. sedile</td>
<td>animal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. sedillī</td>
<td>animalī</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<td>Nom. sedilīa</td>
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<tr>
<td>Gen. sedilium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. sedilibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. sedilīa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. sedilīa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. sedilībus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

2. Proper names in -ē form the Ablative Singular in -ē; as, Sōracte, Soracte; so also sometimes mare, sea.

\(^1\)Mēnsis, month, originally a consonant stem (mēns-), has in the Genitive Plural both mēnsīum and mēnsīum. The Accusative Plural is mēnsēs.
III. Consonant-Stems that have partially adapted themselves to the Inflection of i-Stems.

40. Many Consonant-Stems have so far adapted themselves to the inflection of i-stems as to take -tum in the Genitive Plural, and -is in the Accusative Plural. Their true character as Consonant-Stems, however, is shown by the fact that they never take -im in the Accusative Singular, or -i in the Ablative Singular. The following words are examples of this class:

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

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>Form</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
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<td>caedes</td>
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<table>
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<td>arx</td>
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<td>Abl.</td>
<td>arce</td>
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<table>
<thead>
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</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>lintrit</td>
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**PLURAL.**

<table>
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<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
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<td>caedes, -is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>caedes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>caedibus</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
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<td>arcum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>arcibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>arcès, -is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>arcès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>arcibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>linteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>llintrium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>llintribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>llintrès, -is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>llintrès</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>llintribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The following classes of nouns belong here:

a) Nouns in -ès, with Genitive in -is; as, nūbès, aedès, clādès, etc.

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

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

d) Úter, venter; fār, ìs, mās, mūs, nīx; and the Plurals faucoès, penētès, Optimātès, Samūtès, Quīrtès.

e) Sometimes nouns in -tās with Genitive -tātis; as, civitās, aetās. Civitās usually has civitātium.
IV. Stems in -ī, -ū, and Diphthongs.

41. Viās, f., Sūs, c., Bōs, c., Juppiter, m.,
force; swine; ox, cow; Jupiter;
stem, vi-. stem, sū-. stem bou-. stem, Jou-.

SINGULAR.

Nom. viās sūs bōs Juppiter
Gen. — suis bovis Jovis
Dat. — suī bovī Jovi
Acc. vim suem bovem Jovem
Voc. viās sūs bōs Juppiter
Abl. viī sue bove Jove

PLURAL.

Nom. virīs suēs bovīs
Gen. virīum suum { bovum
Dat. virībus { suibus { bōbus
Acc. virīs suēs bovīs
Voc. virīs suēs bovīs
Abl. virībus { suibus { bōbus

1. Notice that the oblique cases of sūs have ā in the root syllable.
2. Grūs is declined like sūs, except that the Dative and Ablative Plural are always grūibus.
3. Juppiter is for Jou-pater, and therefore contains the same stem as in Jov-is, Jov-ī, etc.
4. Nāvis was originally a diphthong stem ending in au-, but it has passed over to the i-stems (§ 37). Its Ablative often ends in -ī.

V. Irregular Nouns.

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

SINGULAR.

Nom. senex carō os
Gen. senis carnīs ossīs
Dat. senī carnī ossī
Acc. senem carnem os
Voc. senex carō os
Abl. sene carne osse
PLURAL.

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

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

2. Suppellex, suppellectilis, f., furniture, is confined to the Singular. The oblique cases are formed from the stem suppellectil-. The ablative has both -i and -e.

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

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

**General Principles of Gender in the Third Declension.**

43. 1. Nouns in -ō, -or, -ōs, -er, -ēs are Masculine.

2. Nouns in -ās, -ōs, -is, -ys, -ēs, -ās (preceded by a consonant); -dō, -gō (Genitive -inis); -īō (abstract and collective), -ūs (Genitive -ūtis or -ūdīs) are Feminine.

3. Nouns ending in -a, -e, -i, -y, -c, -l, -n, -t, -ar, -ur, -ēs are Neuter.

**Chief Exceptions to Gender in the Third Declension.**

44. **Exceptions to the Rule for Masculines.**

1. Nouns in -ō.
   a. Feminine: carō, flesh.

2. Nouns in -or.
   a. Feminine: arbor, tree.
   b. Neuter: aequor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble.

   a. Feminine: dōs, dowry.
   b. Neuter: ōs (ōrīs), mouth.

   a. Feminine: linter, skiff.
Third Declension.

b. Neuter: cōdāver, corpse; itēr, way; tāber, tumor; āber, udder. Also botanical names in -er; as, acer, maple.

   a. Feminine: seges, crop.

45. Exceptions to the Rule for Feminines.

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

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

   a. Masculine: all nouns in -nīs and -guis; as amnīs, river; ignīs, fire; pānīs, bread; sanguīs, blood; unguīs, nail.
      Also —
      axis, axle.
      collīs, hill.
      fascīs, bundle.
      lapis, stone.
      mēnīs, month.
      piscīs, fish.
      postīs, post.
      pulvis, dust.
      orbīs, circle.
      sentīs, brier.

4. Nouns in -x.
   a. Masculine: apex, peak; cōdex, tree-trunk; grex, flock; imbrīx, tile; pollex, thumb; vertex, summit; calīx, cup.

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

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

46. Exceptions to the Rule for Neuters.

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

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

   a. Masculine: vultur, vulture.

   a. Masculine: lepus, hare.
Inflections.

Greek Nouns of the Third Declension.

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

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

2. The ending -ēs in the Nominative Plural; as, Phrygēs, Phrygians.

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

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

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

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

7. Proper names in -ēs, like Pericōlēs, form the Genitive Singular sometimes in -ēs, sometimes in -i; as, Pericōlis or Periciī.

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

Nom. Didō                               Acc. Didō
Gen. Didūs                              Voc. Didō
Dat. Didō                               Abl. Didō

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

FOURTH DECLENSION.

-ē-Stems.

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

Frūctus, m., fruit.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>frūctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>frūctūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>frūctūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>frūctum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>frūctus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>frūctūs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cornū, n., horn.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>cornū</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cornās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>cornās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>cornā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>cornā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>cornās</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fifth Declension.

Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fourth Declension.

49. 1. Nouns in -us, particularly in early Latin, often form the Genitive Singular in -i, following the analogy of nouns in -us of the Second Declension; as, senāti, ērnāti. This is usually the case in Plautus and Terence.

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

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

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

   domī (locative), at home; domum, homewards, to one's home;
   domō, from home; domōs, homewards, to their (etc.) homes.

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

Exceptions to Gender in the Fourth Declension.

50. The following nouns in -us are Feminine: acus, needle; domus, house; manus, hand; porticus, colonnade; tribus, tribe; Ídūs (Plural), Ides; also names of trees (§ 15. 2).

FIFTH DECLENSION.

- Stems.

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

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

Peculiarities of Nouns of the Fifth Declension.

52. 1. The ending of the Genitive and Dative Singular is -ēs, instead of -ē, when a consonant precedes; as, spēl, rēl, fīdēl.
2. A Genitive ending -ī (for -ē) is found in plēbī (from plēbēs = plēba) in the expressions tribūnus plēbī, tribune of the people, and plēbī scītum, decree of the people; sometimes also in other words.
3. A Genitive and Dative form in -ē sometimes occurs; as, acīē.
4. With the exception of diēs and rēs, most nouns of the Fifth Declension are not declined in the Plural. But acīēs, seriēs, speciēs, spēs, and a few others are used in the Nominative and Accusative Plural.

Gender in the Fifth Declension.

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

Defective Nouns.

54. Here belong—

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

Nouns used in the Singular only.

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

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

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

b) Names of materials, — to denote objects made of the material, or different kinds of the substance; as, aera, bronzes (i.e. bronze figures); ligna, woods.
c) Abstract nouns, — to denote instances of the quality; as, ignōrantiae, cases of ignorance.

Nouns used in the Plural only.

56. Here belong —

1. Many geographical names; as, Thēbae, Thebes; Leuctra, Leuctra; Pompeii, Pompeii.
2. Many names of festivals; as, Megalēsia, the Megalesian festival.
3. Many special words, of which the following are the most important:

   angustiae, narrow pass.  mānēs, spirits of the dead.
   arma, weapons.          minae, threats.
   déliciae, delight.      moenia, city walls.
   divitiae, riches.       nūptiae, marriage.
   Ídūs, Ides.             posteri, descendants.
   indūtiae, truce.        reliquiae, remainder.
   insidiaæ, ambush.       tenebrae, darkness.
   majōrēs, ancestors.     verbera, blows.

Also in classical prose regularly —

   cervīcēs, neck.          nārēs, nose.
   fidēs, lyre.             viscerā, viscera.

Nouns used only in Certain Cases.

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

2. Used in Two Cases.

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

3. Used in Three Cases. Nēmō, no one (Nom.), has also the Dat. nēmini and the Acc. nēminem. The Gen. and Abl. are supplied by the corresponding cases of nūllus; vis. nūllus and nūllō.
Inflections.

4. Impetus has the Nom., Acc., and Abl. Sing., and the Nom. and Acc. Plu.; vis. impetus, impetum, impetus, impetus.

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

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

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

Indeclinable Nouns.

58. Here belong—

   fās, n., right.   nefās, n., impiety.
   Instar, n., likeness.  nihil, n., nothing.
   māne, n., morning.  secus, n., sex.

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

Heteroclites.

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

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

   vās, vāsis (vessel);   Plu., vāsa, vāsorum, vāsia, etc.
   jūgerum, jūgerī (acre); Plu., jūgera, jūgerum, jūgeribus, etc.

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

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

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

   c) Requiēs, requīstis, rest, regularly of the Third Declension, takes an Acc. of the Fifth, requiem, in addition to requīstem.

   d) Besides plēbs, plēbis, common people, of the Third Declension, we find plēbēs, plēbērī (also plēbī, see § 52.2), of the Fifth.
Heterogeneous Nouns.

60. Heterogeneous nouns vary in Gender. Thus:—

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>balneum, n., bath;</td>
<td>balneae, f., bath-house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>epulum, n., feast;</td>
<td>epulae, f., feast.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frēnum, n., bridle;</td>
<td>frēnī, m. (rarely frēna, n.), bridle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jocus, m., jest;</td>
<td>joca, n. (also jocī, m.), jests.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>locus, m., place;</td>
<td>loca, n., places; locī, m., passages</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>răstrum, n., rake;</td>
<td>răstrī, m.; răstra, n., rakes.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Plurals with Change of Meaning.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aedēs, temple;</td>
<td>aedēs, house.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auxilium, help;</td>
<td>auxilia, auxiliary troops.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carcer, prison;</td>
<td>carcerēs, stalls for racing-chariots.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>castrum, fort;</td>
<td>castra, camp.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōpia, abundance;</td>
<td>cōpiae, troops, resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>finis, end;</td>
<td>finēs, borders, territory.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fortūna, fortune;</td>
<td>fortūnae, possessions, wealth.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grātia, favor;</td>
<td>grātiae, thanks.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impedimentum, hindrance;</td>
<td>impedimenta, baggage.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>littera, letter (of the alphabet);</td>
<td>litterae, epistle; literature.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mōs, habit, custom;</td>
<td>mōrēs, character.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opera, help, service;</td>
<td>opera, laborers.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ops) opis, help;</td>
<td>opēs, resources.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pars, part;</td>
<td>partēs, party; rôle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sāl, salt;</td>
<td>sālēs, wit.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inflections.

**B. ADJECTIVES.**

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

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

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

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

**Bonus, good.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td>bonus</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td>boni</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>boni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td>bonū</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>bonō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td>bonum</td>
<td>bonam</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong></td>
<td>bone</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td>bonō</td>
<td>bonā</td>
<td>bonō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td>boni</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>bona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td>bonōrum</td>
<td>bonārum</td>
<td>bonōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td>bonis</td>
<td>bonīs</td>
<td>bonīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td>bonōs</td>
<td>bonās</td>
<td>bona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong></td>
<td>boni</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>bona</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td>bonīs</td>
<td>bonīs</td>
<td>bonīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. The Gen. Sing. Masc. and Neut. of Adjectives in *-ius* ends in *-ī* (not in *-ī* as in case of Nouns; see § 25. 1; 2). So also the Voc. Sing. of such Adjectives ends in *-ie,* not in *-ī.* Thus *eximīus* forms Gen. *eximī;* Voc. *exime.*

2. Distributives (see § 78. 1. c) regularly form the Gen. Plu. Masc. and Neut. in *-um* instead of *-ōrum* (compare § 25. 6); as, *dēnum,* *centēnum*; but always *singulōrum.*
64. Masculine like puer:—

Tener, tender.

SINGULAR.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>tener</td>
<td>tenera</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tenerī</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenerī</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tenerō</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenerō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
<td>teneram</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>tener</td>
<td>tenera</td>
<td>tenerum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>tenerō</td>
<td>tenerā</td>
<td>tenerō</td>
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PLURAL.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>tenerī</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tenerōrum</td>
<td>tenerārum</td>
<td>tenerōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tenerīs</td>
<td>tenerīs</td>
<td>tenerīs</td>
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<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tenerōs</td>
<td>tenerās</td>
<td>tenera</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>tenerī</td>
<td>tenerae</td>
<td>tenera</td>
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<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>tenerīs</td>
<td>tenerīs</td>
<td>tenera</td>
</tr>
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65. Masculine like ager:—

Sacer, sacred.

SINGULAR.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>sacer</td>
<td>sacra</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>sacrī</td>
<td>sacrāe</td>
<td>sacrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>sacrō</td>
<td>sacrāe</td>
<td>sacrō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
<td>sacrām</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>sacer</td>
<td>sacra</td>
<td>sacrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>sacrō</td>
<td>sacrā</td>
<td>sacrō</td>
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<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>sacrī</td>
<td>sacrāe</td>
<td>sacra</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>sacrōrum</td>
<td>sacrārum</td>
<td>sacrōrum</td>
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<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>sacrīs</td>
<td>sacrīs</td>
<td>sacrīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>sacrōs</td>
<td>sacrās</td>
<td>sacrā</td>
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<tr>
<td>Voc.</td>
<td>sacrī</td>
<td>sacrāe</td>
<td>sacrā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>sacrīs</td>
<td>sacrīs</td>
<td>sacrīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

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

Nine Irregular Adjectives.

66. Here belong —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>masc.</th>
<th>fem.</th>
<th>neut.</th>
<th>masc.</th>
<th>fem.</th>
<th>neut.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td>alius</td>
<td>alia</td>
<td>aliud</td>
<td>alter</td>
<td>altera</td>
<td>alterum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td>alterius</td>
<td>alterius</td>
<td>alterius</td>
<td>alterius</td>
<td>alterius</td>
<td>alterius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td>alī</td>
<td>alī</td>
<td>alī</td>
<td>alter</td>
<td>alter</td>
<td>alter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td>alium</td>
<td>aliam</td>
<td>aliud</td>
<td>alterum</td>
<td>alteram</td>
<td>alterum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td>aliō</td>
<td>aliā</td>
<td>aliō</td>
<td>alterō</td>
<td>alterā</td>
<td>alterō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<tr>
<th></th>
<th>masc.</th>
<th>fem.</th>
<th>neut.</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td>uter</td>
<td>utra</td>
<td>utrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td>utrī</td>
<td>utrī</td>
<td>utrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td>utrī</td>
<td>utrī</td>
<td>utrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td>utrum</td>
<td>utram</td>
<td>utrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td>utrō</td>
<td>utrā</td>
<td>utrō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. All these words lack the Vocative. The Plural is regular.

2. Neuter is declined like uter.

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

67. These fall into three classes,—

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

2. Adjectives of two terminations.

3. Adjectives of one termination.

---

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

a. With the exception of Comparatives, and a few other words mentioned below in § 70. i, all Adjectives of the Third Declension follow the inflection of 1-stems; i.e. they have the Ablative Singular in -r, the Genitive Plural in -um, the Accusative Plural in -is (as well as -s) in the Masculine and Feminine, and the Nominative and Accusative Plural in -ia in Neuters.

Adjectives of Three Terminations.

68. These are declined as follows:—

\[ \text{ācer, sharp.} \]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td>ācer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td>ācris</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td>ācra</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td>ācram</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong></td>
<td>ācer</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td>ācri</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>FEMININE.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td>ācris</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td>ācris</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td>ācris</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td>ācris</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong></td>
<td>ācris</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td>ācris</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>NEUTER.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td>ācre</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td>ācri</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td>ācre</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td>ācre</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong></td>
<td>ācre</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td>ācri</td>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td>ācrēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td>ācrērum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td>ācrēbus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td>ācrēs, -īs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong></td>
<td>ācrēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td>ācrēbus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. Like ācer are declined alacer, lively; campester, level; celeber, famous; equester, equestrian; paluster, marshy; pedester, pedestrian; puter, rotten; saltēber, wholesome; silvester, woody; terrester, terrestrial; volucer, winged; also names of months in -ber, as September.

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

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

Adjectives of Two Terminations.

69. These are declined as follows: —

Fortis, strong.  Fortior, stronger.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. fortis</td>
<td>forte</td>
<td>fortior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. fortis</td>
<td>fortis</td>
<td>fortioris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. fortis</td>
<td>fortis</td>
<td>fortiorf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. fortem</td>
<td>forte</td>
<td>fortiorem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. fortis</td>
<td>forte</td>
<td>fortior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. fortis</td>
<td>fortis</td>
<td>fortiore, -I</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. fortēs</td>
<td>fortia</td>
<td>fortioris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. fortium</td>
<td>fortium</td>
<td>fortiorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. fortibus</td>
<td>fortium</td>
<td>fortioribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. fortes, -Is</td>
<td>fortia</td>
<td>fortiōrēs, -Is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. fortēs</td>
<td>fortia</td>
<td>fortiōres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. fortibus</td>
<td>fortibus</td>
<td>fortiōribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

Adjectives of One Termination.

70. Felix, happy.  Prudentes, prudent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. felix</td>
<td>felix</td>
<td>prūdens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. fēlicia</td>
<td>fēlicia</td>
<td>prūdentis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. fēlici</td>
<td>fēlici</td>
<td>prūdentif</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. fēlicem</td>
<td>fēlicem</td>
<td>prūdentem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. fēlix</td>
<td>fēlix</td>
<td>prūdens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. fēlici</td>
<td>fēlici</td>
<td>prūdentif</td>
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</tbody>
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<tr>
<th>PLURAL</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. fēlicēs</td>
<td>fēlicēs</td>
<td>prūdentēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. fēlicium</td>
<td>fēlicium</td>
<td>prūdentium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. fēlicibus</td>
<td>fēlicibus</td>
<td>prūdentibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. fēlicēs, -Is</td>
<td>fēlicēs</td>
<td>prūdentēs, -Is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. fēlicēs</td>
<td>fēlicēs</td>
<td>prūdentēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. fēlicibus</td>
<td>fēlicibus</td>
<td>prūdentibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Adjectives of the Third Declension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Vetus, old.</strong></th>
<th><strong>Plūs, more.</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td><strong>M. AND F.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td>vetus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gen.</strong></td>
<td>veteris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Dat.</strong></td>
<td>veteri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Acc.</strong></td>
<td>veterem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Voc.</strong></td>
<td>vetus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td>vetere</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **PLURAL.**     | **M. AND F.**   | **Neut.** |
| **Nom.**        | veterēs         | plūrēs     | plūra |
| **Gen.**        | veterum         | plūrium    | plūrum |
| **Dat.**        | veteribus       | plūribus   | plūribus |
| **Acc.**        | veterēs         | plūrēs, -ēs| plūra |
| **Voc.**        | veterēs         | ——          | ——   |
| **Abl.**        | veteribus       | plūribus   | plūribus |

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

2. Inops, needy, and memor, mindful, have Ablative Singular inopī, memorī, but Genitive Plural inopūm, memorum.

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

   a sapientē virō, by a wise man; but
   a sapiente, by a philosopher;
   Tarquiniō reōgnante, under the reign of Tarquin.

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

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

   a) usually retain the adjective declension; as,—

   aequālis, contemporary, Abl. aequāli.
   cōnsulāris, ex-consul, Abl. cōnsulāri.

   So names of Months; as, Aprilī, April; Decemberī, December.

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

c) Patris in -äs, -ätis and -is, -itis, when designating places, regularly have -y; as, in Arpīnātī, on the estate at Arpinum; yet -e, when used of persons; as, ab Arpīnāte, by an Arpinatian.

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

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

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

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

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

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

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

3. Adjectives in -er form the Superlative by appending -rimus to the Nominative of the Positive. The Comparative is regular. Thus:

asper, rough, asperlīr, asperrimus.
pulcher, beautiful, pulchrier, pulcherrimus.
ācer, sharp, ācrior, ācerrimus.
celer, swift, celerior, celerrimus.

a. Notice mātūrus, mātūrior, mātūrissimus or mātūrīrīmus.

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

facilis, easy, facillior, facilīlimus.
difficilis, difficult, difficiller, difficillimus.
similis, like, similior, simillimus.
dissimilis, unlike, dissimillior, dissimillimus.
humilis, low, humillior, humillimus.
Comparison of Adjectives.

5. Adjectives in -dicus, -ficus, and -volus form the Comparative and Superlative as though from forms in -dicēns, -fōens, -volēns. Thus:

maledicus, slanderous, maledicenter, maledicentissimus.
magnificus, magnificent, magnificenter, magnificentissimus.
benevolus, kindly, benevolententer, benevolentissimus.

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

6. Dīves has the Comparative dīvitior or dītior; Superlative dīvitissimus or dītissimus.

Irregular Comparison.

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

bonus, good, melior, optimus.
malus, bad, pejor, pessimus.
parvus, small, minor, minimus.
magnus, large, major, maximus.
multus, much, plūs, plūris.
frūgī, thrifty, frūgālor, frūgālissimus.
nēquam, worthless, nēquior, nēquissimus.

Defective Comparison.

73. 1. Positive lacking entirely, —

(Cf. prae, in front of.) prior, former, prīmus, first.
(Cf. citrā, this side of.) citērōr, on this side, citimus, near.
(Cf. ultrā, beyond.) ulterior, farther, ultimus, farthest.
(Cf. intrā, within.) interrior, inner, intimus, inmost.
(Cf. prope, near.) propior, nearer, proximus, nearest.
(Cf. dē, down.) dēterior, inferior, dēterrimus, worst.
(Cf. archaic potīs, possible.) potior, preferable, potissimus, chiepest.

2. Positive occurring only in special cases, —

posterō dē, annō, etc., the following day, etc., posterior, later,
{ postrēmus, latest,
  postrēmus, last,
  postumus, late-born,
  postumus, posthumous.
posterī, descendants, exterior, outer,
{ extrēmus, outermost.
exterī, foreigners, extīmus,
Inflections.

inderī, gods of the lower world;
Mare Inferum, Mediterranean inferior, lower,
Sea,

superī, gods above,
Mare Superum, Adriatic superior, higher,
Sea,

{infimus, īmus, } lowest.
suprēmus, last.
{summus, highest.

3. Comparative lacking.

vetus, old,
fidus, faithful,
novus, new,
sacer, sacred,
falsus, false,
veterrimus.
fidissimus.
novissimus, last.
sacerrimus,
falsissimus.

Also in some other words less frequently used.

4. Superlative lacking.

alacer, lively,
ingēns, great,
salutāris, wholesome,
juvenis, young,
senex, old,
alacrior,
ingentior,
salutārior,
jünior,
senior.

a. The Superlative is lacking also in many adjectives in -ālis, -īlis, -īlis, -bīlis, and in a few others.

Comparison by Magis and Maximē.

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

1. Many adjectives ending in -ālis, -āris, -īdus, -īlis, -īcus, īmus, īnus, -ōrus.

2. Adjectives in -us, preceded by a vowel; as, idōneus, adapted; arduus, steep; necessārius, necessary.

a. Adjectives in -quus, of course, do not come under this rule.
The first u in such cases is not a vowel, but a consonant.

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

Adjectives not admitting Comparison.

75. Here belong—

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

2. Some special words; as, mirus, gnarus, merus; and a few others.

FORMATION AND COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.

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

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

   cărus, căre, dearly;
   pulcher, pulcherē, beautifully;
   ācer, ācriter, fiercely;
   levis, leviter, lightly.

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

   sapiēns, sapienter, wisely;
   audāx, audācter, boldly;
   sollers, sollerter, skillfully.

2. The Comparative of all Adverbs regularly consists of the Accusative Singular Neuter of the Comparative of the Adjective; while the Superlative of the Adverb is formed by changing the -i of the Genitive Singular of the Superlative of the Adjective to -ē. Thus—

   (cārus) căre, dearly, cărius, cărissimē.
   (pulcher) pulcherē, beautifully, pulchrius, pulcherrimē.
   (ācer) ācriter, fiercely, ācrius, ācerrimē.
   (levis) leviter, lightly, levius, levissimē.
   (sapiēns) sapienter, wisely, sapienius, sapienissimē.
   (audāx) audācter, boldly, audāctus, audācissimē.
Adverbs Peculiar in Comparison and Formation.

77. 1.

benē, well, melius, optimē.
malē, ill, peius, pessimē.
magnopere, greatly, magis, maximē.
multum, much, plūs, plūrimum.
nōn multum, minus, minimē.
parum, little, minus, minimē.
diū, long, diūtius, diūtissimē.
nēquiter, worthlessly, nēquius, nēquissimē.
saepe, often, saepius, saepissimē.
māturē, betimes, māturius, māturissimē.
prope, near, propius, proximē.
nūper, recently, nūperrimē.
—
—
potius, rather, potissimē, potissimum, especially.
—
prius, previously, prīnum, first.
secus, otherwise, sētius, less.

2. A number of adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form an Adverb in -ō, instead of -ē; as, —
crēbrō, frequently; falsō, falsely.
continuō, immediately; subitō, suddenly.
rārō, rarely; and a few others.

a. cito, quickly, has -ō.

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

4. A few adjectives of the First and Second Declensions form the Positive in -ter; as, —
firmus, firmiter, firmly; hūmanus, hūmaniter, humanly.
largus, largiter, copiously; alius, aliter, otherwise.

a. violentus has violenter.

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

78. Numerals may be divided into —

I. Numeral Adjectives, comprising —
   a. Cardinals; as, ūnum, one; duo, two; etc.
   b. Ordinals; as, primus, first; secundus, second; etc.
   c. Distributives; as, singuli, one by one; bini, two by two; etc.

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cardinals</th>
<th>Ordinals</th>
<th>Distributives</th>
<th>Adverbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ūnum, ūna, ūnum</td>
<td>primus, first</td>
<td>singuli, one by one</td>
<td>semel, once</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duo, duae, duo</td>
<td>secundus, second</td>
<td>bini, two by two</td>
<td>bis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tres, tria</td>
<td>tertius, third</td>
<td>terni (trini)</td>
<td>ter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quattuor</td>
<td>quartus, fourth</td>
<td>quaterni</td>
<td>quater</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quinque</td>
<td>quintus, fifth</td>
<td>quini</td>
<td>quinquiēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sex</td>
<td>sextus</td>
<td>seni</td>
<td>sexiēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>septem</td>
<td>septimus</td>
<td>septēni</td>
<td>septiēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>octō</td>
<td>octāvus</td>
<td>octōni</td>
<td>octiēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>novem</td>
<td>nōnus</td>
<td>novēni</td>
<td>noviēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decem</td>
<td>decimus</td>
<td>dēni</td>
<td>deciēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>undecim</td>
<td>undecimus</td>
<td>ūndēni</td>
<td>ūndeciēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duodecim</td>
<td>duodecimus</td>
<td>duodēni</td>
<td>duodeciēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tredecim</td>
<td>tertius decimus</td>
<td>terni dēni</td>
<td>terdeciēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quattuordecim</td>
<td>quartus decimus</td>
<td>quaterni dēni</td>
<td>quaterdeciēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quindecim</td>
<td>quintus decimus</td>
<td>quini dēni</td>
<td>quinquiēs deciēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{sēdecim}</td>
<td>sextus decimus</td>
<td>seni dēni</td>
<td>sexiēs deciēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>{sexdecim}</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>septendecim</td>
<td>septimus decimus</td>
<td>septēni dēni</td>
<td>septiēs deciēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duodevigintī</td>
<td>duodevīcesimus</td>
<td>duodevīcēni</td>
<td>octiēs deciēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>undevigintī</td>
<td>undevīcesimus</td>
<td>ūndevīcēni</td>
<td>noviēs deciēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vigintī</td>
<td>vicēsimus</td>
<td>vicēni</td>
<td>vičiēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vigintī ūnus</td>
<td>vicēsimus prīmus</td>
<td>vicēni singuli</td>
<td>vičiēs semel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūnus et vigintī</td>
<td>vicēsimus secundus</td>
<td>vicēni bini</td>
<td>vičiēs bis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duo et vigintī</td>
<td>alter et vicēsimus</td>
<td>bini et vičēni</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inflections.

---|---|---|---|
101. centum ūnus | centēsimus prīmus | centēnī singulī | centēs semel |
200. ducēntī, -ae, -a | ducēntēsimus | ducēnī | ducēntēs |
300. trecentī | trecentēsimus | trecentī | trecentēs |
400. quadringentī | quadringentēsimus | quadringēnī | quadringentiēs |
500. quingentī | quingentēsimus | quingēnī | quingentiēs |
600. sescentī | sescentēsimus | sescentī | sescentēs |
700. septingentī | septingentēsimus | septingēnī | septingentiēs |
800. octingentī | octingentēsimus | octingēnī | octingentiēs |
900. nōngentī | nōngentēsimus | nōngēnī | nōngentiēs |
1,000. mille | millēsimus | singula milia | miliēs |
2,000. duo mīlia | bis millēsimus | bīna milia | bis miliēs |
100,000. centum mīlia | centēs mīllēsimus | centēna milia | centēs miliēs |
1,000,000. deciēs centēna | deciēs centēs mīllē- | deciēs centēna | deciēs centēs |
| simus | milia | miliēs |

Note. — ĕsimus and -iēns are often written in the numerals instead of -ēsimus and -iēs.

Declension of the Cardinals.

80. 1. The declension of ūnus has already been given under § 66.
2. Duo is declined as follows:—

---|---|---|---|---|
| duo | duōrum | duōbus | duōs, duo | duōbus |
| duae | duārum | duābus | duās | duōbus |

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

3. Trēs is declined, —

---|---|---|---|---|
| trēs | trium | tribus | trēs (trēs) | tribus |
| tria | trium | tribus | tria | tribus |

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

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

---|---|---|
| mīlia | mīllum | mīlibus | mīlibus |
| Acc. | Voc. | Abl. |
| mīlia | mīlia | mīlibus |
Numerals.

Thus mülle hominēs, a thousand men; but duo mülia hominum, two thousand men, literally two thousands of men.

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

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

Peculiarities in the Use of Numerals.

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

trígintā sex or sex et trígintā, thirty-six.

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

duodēvigintī, eighteen (but also octōdecim);
undēquadrāgintā, thirty-nine (but also trígintā novem or novem et trígintā).

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

centum vigintī septem, one hundred and twenty-seven.
annō octingentāsimō octōgōsimō secundō, in the year 882.

Yet et may be inserted where the smaller number is either a digit or one of the tens; as,—

centum et septem, one hundred and seven;
centum et quadrāgintā, one hundred and forty.

4. The Distributives are used—

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

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

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

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

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

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

83. There are the following classes of pronouns: —

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

I. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Person.</th>
<th>Second Person.</th>
<th>Third Person.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>SINGULAR.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. ego, I</td>
<td>tū, thou</td>
<td>is, he; ea, she; id, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. meī</td>
<td>tuī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. mihi1</td>
<td>tibi1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. mē</td>
<td>tē</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. —</td>
<td>tū</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. mē</td>
<td>tē</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>PLURAL.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. nōs, we</td>
<td>vōs, you</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. nostrum</td>
<td>vestrum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>nostrī</td>
<td>vestri</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. nōbīs</td>
<td>vōbīs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. nōs</td>
<td>vōs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Voc. —</td>
<td>vōs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. nōbīs</td>
<td>vōbīs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. A Dative Singular mi occurs in poetry.
2. Emphatic forms in -met are occasionally found; as, egomet, I myself; tībimet, to you yourself; tū has tāte and tātemet (written also tātīmet).

1 The final i is sometimes long in poetry.
3. In early Latin, *mē* and *tē* occur as Accusative and Ablative forms.

II. REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

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

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

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

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

*inter sē pugnant, they fight with each other.*

3. In early Latin, *sē* occurs as Accusative and Ablative.

III. POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

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

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

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

1. *Suus* is exclusively Reflexive; as,—

*pater liberōs suōs amat, the father loves his children.*

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

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

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

IV. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

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

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

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

### Hic, this.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Masculine</strong></td>
<td><strong>Feminine</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>hic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>hujus¹</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>huic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hunc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>hōc</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Iste, that, that of yours.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Masculine</strong></td>
<td><strong>Feminine</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>iste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>istīus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>istī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>istum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>istō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Ille (archaic olle), that, that one, he*, is declined like *iste*.³

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

² For *istud, istīuc* sometimes occurs; for *ista, istaece*.

³ For *illud, illiuc* sometimes occurs.
### The Intensive Pronoun. — The Relative Pronoun. 51

#### Isa, he, this, that.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Masculine.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Feminine.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. is</td>
<td>ea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. ejus</td>
<td>ejus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. ei</td>
<td>ei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. eum</td>
<td>eam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. eō</td>
<td>eā</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Idem, the same.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Masculine.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Feminine.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. idem</td>
<td>eadem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. ejusdem</td>
<td>ejusdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. eidem</td>
<td>eidem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. eundem</td>
<td>eandem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. eōdem</td>
<td>eādem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


#### V. THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Masculine.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Feminine.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. ipse</td>
<td>ipsa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. ipsius</td>
<td>ipsius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. ipsī</td>
<td>ipsī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. ipsum</td>
<td>ipsam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. ipsō</td>
<td>ipsā</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### VI. THE RELATIVE PRONOUN.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Masculine.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Feminine.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom. qui</td>
<td>quae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. cūjus</td>
<td>cūjus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. cui</td>
<td>cui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. quem</td>
<td>quam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. quō¹</td>
<td>quā¹</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

1. Quis, who?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom. quis</td>
<td>quid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen. cūjus</td>
<td>cūjus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. cui</td>
<td>cui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. quem</td>
<td>quid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. quō</td>
<td>quō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. Quid, what? what kind of? is declined precisely like the Relative Pronoun; vis. quid, quaer, quod, etc.

a. An old Ablative quid occurs, in the sense of how?
b. Quid is sometimes used for quis in Indirect Questions.
c. Quis, when limiting words denoting persons, is sometimes an adjective. But in such cases quis homō = what man?
whereas quid homō = what sort of a man?
d. Quis and quid may be strengthened by adding -nam. Thus:—
Substantive. quinam, who, pray? quidnam, what, pray?
Adjective. quinam, quaenam, quodnam, of what kind, pray?

VIII. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SUBSTANTIVES</th>
<th>ADJECTIVES</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>quis,</td>
<td>quid, any one, anything.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aliquis,</td>
<td>aliquid, some one, something.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quisquam,</td>
<td>quidquam, any one, anything.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quispiam,</td>
<td>quidpiam, any one, anything.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quisque,</td>
<td>quidque, each.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quīvīs, quaevīs, quīdvīs,</td>
<td>any one (anything) you wish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quilibet, quaelibet, quidlibet,</td>
<td>a certain person, or thing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quidam, quaedam, quiddam,</td>
<td>a certain.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Indefinite Pronouns.—Pronominal Adjectives.

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

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

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

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

5. In combination with ne, si, nisi, num, either quis or qui may stand as a Substantive. Thus: si quis or si qui.

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

7. Quisquam is not used in the Plural.

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

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

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

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

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

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

Nom. alteruter altera utra alterum utrum
Gen. alterius utrifus etc.
Inflections.

Chapter II. — Conjugation.

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

96. The Personal Endings of the Verb are,—

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. -o; -m; -i</td>
<td>-r.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -s; -stf (Perf. Ind.)</td>
<td>-ris, -re; -re, -tor (Impv.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>wanting (Impv.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -t; -tō (Impv.)</td>
<td>-tur; -tor (Impv.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-mur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plu.</td>
<td>-minf.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. -mus;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. -tis; -stis (Perf. Ind.)</td>
<td>-te,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>-tōte (Impv.).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. -nt; -śunt (Perf. Ind.)</td>
<td>-ntō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ntur; -ntor (Impv.).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VERB-STEMS.

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

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

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

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

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

THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Conjugation</th>
<th>Infinitive Termination</th>
<th>Distinguishing Vowel</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>-äre</td>
<td>å</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>-ëre</td>
<td>è</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>-ëre</td>
<td>ë</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>-ïre</td>
<td>ï</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

99. **Principal Parts.** The Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and the Perfect Participle¹ constitute the Principal Parts of a Latin verb, — so called because they contain the different stems, from which the full conjugation of the verb may be derived.

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

CONJUGATION OF **sum**.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRINCIPAL PARTS</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**PRESENT TENSE.**

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

**IMPERFECT.**

| *eram*, *I was* | *eramus*, *we were* |
| *erabas*, *thou wast* | *eratis*, *you were* |
| *erat*, *he was* | *erant*, *they were* |

**FUTURE.**

| *erabam*, *I shall be* | *eramus*, *we shall be* |
| *erabis*, *thou wilt be* | *eratis*, *you will be* |
| *erat*, *he will be* | *erant*, *they will be* |

**PERFECT.**

| *ful*, *I have been, I was* | *fulimus*, *we have been, we were* |
| *fulisti*, *thou hast been, thou wast* | *fulistis*, *you have been, you were* |
| *fulit*, *he has been, he was* | *fulerunt*, *they have been, they were* |

**PLUPERFECT.**

| *fueram*, *I had been* | *fueramus*, *we had been* |
| *fuerabas*, *thou hadst been* | *fueratis*, *you had been* |
| *fuerat*, *he had been* | *fuerant*, *they had been* |

**FUTURE PERFECT.**

| *fuerabam*, *I shall have been* | *fuerimus*, *we shall have been* |
| *fuerabas*, *thou wilt have been* | *fueritis*, *you will have been* |
| *fuerat*, *he will have been* | *fuerint*, *they will have been* |

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

### Subjunctive.

#### Present.

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

#### Imperfect.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>esse, I should be,</td>
<td>essemus, we should be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>essēs, thou wouldst be,</td>
<td>essētis, you would be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>esset, he would be,</td>
<td>essent, they would be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Perfect.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fuerim, I may have been,</td>
<td>fuerimus, we may have been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fueris, thou mayst have been,</td>
<td>fueritis, you may have been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fuerit, he may have been,</td>
<td>fuerint, they may have been.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Pluperfect.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fuissete, I should have been,</td>
<td>fuissetes, thou wouldst have been,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fuisset, he would have been,</td>
<td>fuissent, they would have been.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Imperative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Fut.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>es, be thou,</td>
<td>esse, to be.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>estō, thou shalt be,</td>
<td>estō, ye shall be,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>estō, he shall be,</td>
<td>suntō, they shall be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Infinitive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>esse, to be.</td>
<td>fuisse, to have been.</td>
<td>futūrus esse, to be about to be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Participle.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>futūrus, about to be.</td>
<td>futūrus, about to be.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

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

2 For esse, esse, esset, essent, the forms forem, forēs, foret, forent are sometimes used.

3 For futūrus esse the form fore is often used.

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

**FIRST (OR Ā–) CONJUGATION.**

101. **Active Voice. — Amō, I love.**

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

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**Present Tense.**

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERFECT</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābāmam, I was loving,</td>
<td>amābāmus, we were loving,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābās, you were loving,</td>
<td>amābātis, you were loving,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābat, he was loving;</td>
<td>amābant, they were loving.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUTURE</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amābō, I shall love,</td>
<td>amābimus, we shall love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābis, you will love,</td>
<td>amābitis, you will love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amābit, he will love;</td>
<td>amābunt, they will love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERFECT</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāvī, I have loved,</td>
<td>amāvīmus, we have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvisti, you have loved,</td>
<td>amāvistis, you have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvit, he has loved,</td>
<td>amāvērunt, -ōre, they have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>he loved;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLUSPERFECT</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāveram, I had loved,</td>
<td>amāverāmus, we had loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverās, you had loved,</td>
<td>amāverātis, you had loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverat, he had loved;</td>
<td>amāverant, they had loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUTURE PERFECT</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāverō, I shall have loved,</td>
<td>amāverimus, we shall have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāveris, you will have loved,</td>
<td>amāveritis, you will have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverit, he will have loved;</td>
<td>amāverint, they will have loved.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
First Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERFECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amārem, I should love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amārēs, you would love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāret, he would love;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERFECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāverim, I may have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverīs, you may have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāverit, he may have loved;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLUPERFECT</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amāvissem, I should have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvissēs, you would have loved,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amāvisset, he would have loved;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERATIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. amā, love thou;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. amātō, thou shalt love,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amātō, he shall love;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INFINITIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. amāre, to love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. amāvisse, to have loved.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. amātūrus esse, to be about to love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PARTICIPLE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. amāns,1 loving.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. amātūrus, about to love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GERUND</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen. amandi, of loving,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat. amandō, for loving,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc. amandum, loving,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl. amandō, by loving.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1 For declension of amāns, see § 70. 3.
Inflections.

FIRST (OR Ā-) CONJUGATION.


**Principal Parts.**

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

**Indicative Mood.**

**Present Tense.**

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

**Imperfect.**

| amorbar   | amābāmur |
| amābāris, or -re | amābāminī |
| amābātur   | amābantur |

**Future.**

| amorbor   | amābimur  |
| amāberis, or -re | amābiminī |
| amābitur   | amābuntur |

**Perfect.**

*I have been loved or I was loved.*

| amātus (-a, -um) sum¹ | amātī (-ae, -a) sumus |
| amātus es            | amātī estis           |
| amātus est           | amātī sunt            |

**Pluperfect.**

*I had been loved.*

| amātus eram¹ | amātī erāmus |
| amātus erās   | amātī erātis  |
| amātus erat    | amātī erant   |

**Future Perfect.**

*I shall have been loved.*

| amātus erō¹ | amātī erimus |
| amātus erīs  | amātī erītis |
| amātus erīt   | amātī erunt  |

¹ *Fui, fuisti, etc., are sometimes used for sum, es, etc. So fueram, fuerās, etc., for eram, etc.; fuerō, etc., for erō, etc.*
First Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be loved, let him be loved.

SINGULAR.  
amer
amāris, or -re
amātur

PLURAL.  
amāmur
amāmini
amentur

IMPERFECT.

I should be loved, he would be loved.

amārer
amāreris, or -re
amāretur

amāremur
amāremini
amārentur

PERFECT.

I may have been loved.

amātus sim
amātus sis
amātus sit

amāf simus
amāf sitis
amāf sint

PLUPERFECT.

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

amātus essem
amātus essēs
amātus esset

amāf essēmus
amāf essētis
amāf essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. amāre, be thou loved;
Fut. amātor, thou shalt be loved,
     amātor, he shall be loved;

amāmini, be ye loved.

amantor, they shall be loved.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. amārī, to be loved.
Perf. amātus esse, to have been loved.
Fut. amātum ērī, to be about to be loved.

PARTICIPLE.

Perfect. amātus, loved, having been loved.
Gerundive. amandus, to be loved, deserving to be loved.

1 Fuerim, etc., are sometimes used for sim; so fuissem, etc., for essem.
**Inflections.**

**SECOND (OR Ė-) CONJUGATION.**

103. **Active Voice. — Moneō, I advise.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRINCIPAL PARTS.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moneō</td>
<td>monēre</td>
<td>monēf</td>
<td>monitus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**Present Tense.**

**I advise.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moneō</td>
<td>monēmus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēs</td>
<td>monētis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monet</td>
<td>monētunt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

**I was advising, or I advised.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular.</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēbam</td>
<td>monēbāmus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbas</td>
<td>monēbātis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbat</td>
<td>monēbant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

**I shall advise.**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēbō</td>
<td>monēbīmus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbis</td>
<td>monēbitis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbit</td>
<td>monēbunt</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

**I have advised, or I advised.**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēf</td>
<td>monēimus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēistīf</td>
<td>monēistis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēuit</td>
<td>monēšrunt, or -šre</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

**I had advised.**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monueram</td>
<td>monuerāmus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerās</td>
<td>monuerātis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerat</td>
<td>monuerant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect.**

**I shall have advised.**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monuerō</td>
<td>monuerimus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monueris</td>
<td>monueritis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerit</td>
<td>monuerint</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Second Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I advise, let him advise.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moneám</td>
<td>moneámus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moneás</td>
<td>moneátis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moneat</td>
<td>moneant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

I should advise, he would advise.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monérem</td>
<td>monéremus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monérès</td>
<td>monérétis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monérret</td>
<td>monérrent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PERFECT.

I may have advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monuerim</td>
<td>monuerímus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerís</td>
<td>monuerítis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuerit</td>
<td>monuerint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLUPERFECT.

I should have advised, he would have advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monuissem</td>
<td>monuissemus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuisseís</td>
<td>monuisseítis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monuisset</td>
<td>monuissent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERATIVE.

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

monēte, advise ye.
monētōte, ye shall advise,
monentō, they shall advise.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. monēre, to advise.
Perf. monuisset, to have advised.
Fut. monitārus esse, to be about to advise.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. monēns, advising.
(Gener. monentís.)
Fut. monitārus, about to advise.

GERUND.

Gen. monendī, of advising,
Dat. monendō, for advising,
Acc. monendūm, advising,
Abl. monendō, by advising.

SUPINE.

Acc. monitum, to advise.
Abl. monitā, to advise, be advised.
Inflections.

SECOND (OR Ē-) CONJUGATION.


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moneor</td>
<td>monēri</td>
<td>monitus sum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**Present Tense.**

| SINGULAR. | | PLURAL. |
|-----------||---------|
| moneor    | I am advised. | monēmur |
| monēris   |                | monēmini |
| monētur   |                | monentur |

**Imperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I was advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbāris, or -re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbātur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I shall be advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēbor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēberis, or -re</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēbitur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I have been advised, I was advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus est</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I had been advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus eram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus erās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus erat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I shall have been advised.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus erō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus eris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus erit</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Second Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be advised, let him be advised.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monēar</td>
<td>moneāmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēāris, or -re</td>
<td>moneāmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monēātur</td>
<td>moneāntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

I should be advised, he would be advised.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monērēr</td>
<td>monērēmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monērēāris, or -re</td>
<td>monērēmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monērēātur</td>
<td>monērērentur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PERFECT.

I may have been advised.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus sim</td>
<td>monitūs simus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus sis</td>
<td>monitūs sitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus sit</td>
<td>monitūs sint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLUSPERFECT.

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

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monitus essem</td>
<td>monitūs essēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus essēs</td>
<td>monitūs essētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monitus esset</td>
<td>monitūs essent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. monēre, be thou advised; monēmini, be ye advised.

Fut. monēstor, thou shalt be advised; monēstor, he shall be advised.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. monēri, to be advised. PARTICIPLE.

Perf. monitus esse, to have been advised. monitus, advised, having been advised.

Fut. monitūm iri, to be about to be advised. Gerundive. monēndus, to be advised, deserving to be advised.
Inflections.

THIRD (OR CONSONANT-) CONJUGATION.

105. **Active Voice. — Regō, I rule.**

**PRINCIPAL PARTS.**

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

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I rule.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regō</td>
<td>regimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regis</td>
<td>regitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regit</td>
<td>regunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

* I was ruling, or I ruled.

| regēbam | regēbāmus |
| regēbās | regēbātis |
| regēbat | regēbant  |

**Future.**

* I shall rule.

| regam    | regāmus    |
| regēs    | regētis    |
| reget    | regent     |

**Perfect.**

* I have ruled, or I ruled.

| rēxi     | rēximus    |
| rēxistī | rēxis    |
| rēxīt   | rēxīrunt or -āre |

**Pluperfect.**

* I had ruled.

| rēxeram  | rēixerāmus |
| rēxeras  | rēixerātis |
| rēxerat  | rēixerant  |

**Future Perfect.**

* I shall have ruled.

| rēxerō  | rēxerīmus |
| rēxerēs | rēxerītis |
| rēxerīt | rēxerint  |
Third Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

*May I rule, let him rule.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regam</td>
<td>regāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regās</td>
<td>regātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regat</td>
<td>regant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERFECT.

*I should rule, he would rule.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>regerem</th>
<th>regerēmus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regerēs</td>
<td>regerētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regeret</td>
<td>regerent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PERFECT.

*I may have ruled.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>rēxerim</th>
<th>rēxerīmus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rēxerīs</td>
<td>rēxerītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēxerit</td>
<td>rēxerint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

PLUPERFECT.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>rēxissem</th>
<th>rēxissemus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rēxisēs</td>
<td>rēxisētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēxisset</td>
<td>rēxisent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERATIVE.

*Pres. regē, rule thou;*

*Fut. regītō, thou shalt rule, regītō, he shall rule;*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. regite, rule ye.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fut. regītōte, ye shall rule, reguntō, they shall rule.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INFINITITIVE.

*Pres. regere, to rule.*

*Perf. rēxisse, to have ruled.*

*Fut. rēctūrus esse, to be about to rule.*

PARTICIPLE.

*Pres. regēns, ruling.*

(Fut. regentīs.)

*Fut. rēctūrus, about to rule.*

GERUND.

*Gen. regendī, of ruling,*

*Dat. regendō, for ruling,*

*Acc. regendum, ruling,*

*Abl. regendō, by ruling.*

SUPINE.

*Acc. rēctum, to rule,*

*Abl. rēctū, to rule, be ruled.*
# Third (or Consonant–) Conjugation


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

## Indicative Mood

### Present Tense

**Singular.**
- Regor
- Regeris
- Regitur

**Plural.**
- Regimur
- Regimini
- Reguntur

**Imperfect.**

- Regēbar
- Regēbāris, or -re
- Regēbātur

**Future.**

- Regar
- Regāris, or -re
- Regātur

**Perfect.**

- Rectus sum
- Rectus es
- Rectus est

**Pluperfect.**

- Rectus eram
- Rectus erās
- Rectus erat

## Future Perfect

- Rectus erō
- Rectus eris
- Rectus erit
### Third Conjugation.

#### Subjunctive.

**Present.**

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

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

**Imperfect.**

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Imperfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>regerer</td>
<td>regerēmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regerēris, or -re</td>
<td>regerēmini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regerētur</td>
<td>regerentur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

*I may have been ruled.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Imperfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rēctus sim</td>
<td>rectī sīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēctus sis</td>
<td>rectī sītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēctus sit</td>
<td>rectī sint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Imperfect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>rēctus essē,</td>
<td>rectī essēmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēctus essēs</td>
<td>rectī essētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēctus esset</td>
<td>rectī essent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperative.**

- **Pres.** regere, be thou ruled; regimini, be ye ruled.
- **Fut.** regitor, thou shalt be ruled, reguntor, they shall be ruled.

**Infinitive.**

- **Pres.** regī, to be ruled.
- **Perf.** rēctus esse, to have been ruled.
- **Fut.** rēctum iřī, to be about to be ruled.

**Participle.**

- **Perfect.** rēctus, ruled, having been ruled.
- **Gerundive.** regendus, to be ruled, deserving to be ruled.
**Inflections.**

**FOURTH (OR ĭ-) CONJUGATION.**

**Active Voice.** — Audīō, *I hear.***

**PRINCIPAL PARTS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīō</td>
<td>audīre</td>
<td>audīvī</td>
<td>audītus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

**Present Tense.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīō</td>
<td>audīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīs</td>
<td>audītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audit</td>
<td>audīunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

*I was hearing, or I heard.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>audībām</th>
<th>audībāmus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audībās</td>
<td>audībātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audībat</td>
<td>audībant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

*I shall hear.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>audīam</th>
<th>audīamus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīēs</td>
<td>audīētis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīet</td>
<td>audīent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**

*I have heard, or I heard.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>audīvī</th>
<th>audīvimus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīvistī</td>
<td>audīvistis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīvit</td>
<td>audīvīrant; or -ēre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Pluperfect.**

*I had heard.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>audīveram</th>
<th>audīverāmus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīverās</td>
<td>audīverātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīverat</td>
<td>audīverant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect.**

*I shall have heard.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>audīverēō</th>
<th>audīverēimus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīverēis</td>
<td>audīverēitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīverēt</td>
<td>audīverētint</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Fourth Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I hear, let him hear.

SINGULAR.
audiam
audīās
audiat

PLURAL.
audiāmus
audiātis
audiānt

IMPERFECT.

I should hear, he would hear.

audīrem
audīrēs
audīret

audīrēmus
audīrētis
audīrent

PERFECT.

I may have heard.

audīverim
audīverīs
audīverit

audīverīmus
audīverītis
audīverīnt

PLUPERFECT.

I should have heard, he would have heard.

audīvissem
audīvissēs
audīvissēt

audīvissēmus
audīvissētis
audīvissēnt

IMPERATIVE.

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

audīte, hear ye.
Fut. audītōte, ye shall hear,

audīuntō, they shall hear.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. audīre, to hear.
Perf. audīvisse, to have heard.
Fut. audītūrus esse, to be about to hear.

PARTICIPE.

Pres. audīēns, hearing.
(Gen. audīentīs.)
Fut. audītūrus, about to hear.

GERUND.

Gen. audīēndī, of hearing,
Dat. audīēndō, for hearing,
Acc. audīēndum, hearing,
Abl. audīēndō, by hearing.

SUPINE.

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

FOURTH (OR ī-) CONJUGATION.


PRINCIPAL PARTS.

-----------|-----------|-----------
 audior    | audīrī    | audītus sum

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Present Tense.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>I am heard.</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audior</td>
<td>audīmūr</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīrīs, or -re</td>
<td>audīmīnī</td>
<td>audītūr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītūr</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Imperfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I was heard.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audībāmūr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audībāmīnī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audībāntūr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I shall be heard.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audīsmūr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīsīnī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīsīntūr</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Perfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I have been heard, or I was heard.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audītūs sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītūs es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītūs est</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītī sumus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītī estis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītī sunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pluperfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I had been heard.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audītūs erāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītūs erātis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītūs erant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Future Perfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I shall have been heard.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audītī erīmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītī erītis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audītī erunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
SUBJUNCTIVE.

PRESENT.

May I be heard, let him be heard.

SINGULAR.  PLURAL.
audiar  audiāmur
audiāris, or -re  audiāmini
audiātur  audiantur

IMPERFECT.

I should be heard, he would be heard.

audiērer  audiēmur
audiēris, or -re  audiēmini
audiētur  audiērentur

PERFECT.

I may have been heard.

auditūs sim  auditīf simus
auditūs sis  auditīf sitis
auditūs sit  auditīf sint

PLUPERFECT.

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

auditūs essem  auditīf essēmus
auditūs essēs  auditīf essētis
auditūs esset  auditīf essent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. auditēre, be thou heard;  audiēmini, be ye heard.
Fut. auditōr, thou shalt be heard,
auditōr, he shall be heard;  audiēntor, they shall be heard.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. auditīrī, to be heard.
Perf. auditūs esse, to have been heard.
Fut. auditūm ērī, to be about to be heard.

PARTICIPLE.

Perfect. auditūs, heard,
having been heard.

Gerundive. audiēndūsus, to be heard, deserving
to be heard.
VERBS IN -Īō OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

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

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

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

**Principal Parts.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRES. IND.</th>
<th>PRES. INF.</th>
<th>PERF. IND.</th>
<th>PERF. PASS. PASTIC.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiō,</td>
<td>capere,</td>
<td>cēpī,</td>
<td>captus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Indicative Mood.**

**Singular.**

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

| Imperfect. | capiēbam, -iēbās, -iēbat; | capiēbāmus, -iēbātis, -iēbant. |
| Future. | capiam, -iēs, -iēt; | capiēmus, -iētis, -iēnt. |
| Perfect. | cēpī, -isti, -it; | cēpimus, -istis, -ērunt or -ēre. |
| Plusperfect. | cēperam, -erās, -erat; | cēperāmus, -erātis, -erant. |
| Future Perfect. | cēperō, -eris, -erit; | cēperimus, -eritis, -erint. |
Verbs in -īō of the Third Conjugation.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PRESENT</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiam, -iās, -iāt;</td>
<td>capiāmus, -iātis, -iānt.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERFECT</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>caperem, -erēs, -erēt;</td>
<td>caperēmus, -erētis, -erent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PERFECT</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cēperim, -erīs, -erīt;</td>
<td>cēperimus, -erītis, -erint.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PLUPERFECT</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cēpissem, -issēs, -issēt;</td>
<td>cēpissēmus, -issētis, -issent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERATIVE</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>cape;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>capitō, capitō;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INFinitive</th>
<th>PARticle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>capere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>cēpisse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>captūrus esse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GERUND</th>
<th>SUPINE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>capiendī,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>capiendō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>capiendum,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>capiendō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


PRINCIPal parts.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capior,</td>
<td>capī,</td>
<td>captus sum.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE MOOD.</th>
<th>PRESENT TENSE.</th>
<th>PLURAL.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SINGULAR.</td>
<td>capior, caperis, capitur;</td>
<td>capimur, capimini, capiuntur.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>IMPERFECT.</th>
<th>capiēbar, -iēbāris, -iēbātur;</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capliēbāmur, -iēbāmini, -iēbantur.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>FUTURE.</th>
<th>capiēmur, -iēmini, -iēntur.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capiar, -iēris, -iētur;</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Inflections.

Singular.
captus sum, es, est;

Perfect.
capit sumus, estis, sunt.

Pluperfect.
captus eram, eras, erat;
capit eramus, eratis, erant.

Future Perfect.
captus erō, eris, erit;
capit erimus, eritis, erunt.

Subjunctive.

Present.
capiar, -iāris, -iātur;
capiāmur, -iāminī, -iāntur.

Imperfect.
caperer, -erēris, -erētur;
caperēmur, -erēminī, -erentur.

Perfect.
captus sīm, sīs, sit;
capit sīmus, sītis, sint.

Pluperfect.
captus essēm, essēs, esset;
capit essēmus, essētis, essent.

Imperative.
Pres. capere;
Fut. capitor;
capiāminī.
capiuntor.

Infinite.
Pres. capī.
Perf. captus esse. Perfect. capitus.
Fut. captum ēri. Gerundive. capiendus.

Deponent Verbs.

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

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

b. They have the following Passive meanings: always in the Gerundive, and sometimes in the Perfect Passive Participle; as,— sequendus, to be followed; adeptus, attained.
Deponent Verbs.

113. Paradigms of Deponent Verbs are —

I. Conj. miror, mirăfī, mirātus sum, admire.
II. Conj. vereor, verēfī, veritus sum, fear.
III. Conj. sequor, sequī, secūtus sum, follow.
IV. Conj. largior, largīfī, largītus sum, give.
III. (in -ior) patior, patīfī, passus sum, suffer.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I.</th>
<th>II.</th>
<th>III.</th>
<th>IV.</th>
<th>III (in -ior).</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>miror</td>
<td>vereor</td>
<td>sequor</td>
<td>largior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mirāris</td>
<td>verēris</td>
<td>sequeris</td>
<td>largīris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mirātur</td>
<td>verētur</td>
<td>sequitur</td>
<td>largitūr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mirāmur</td>
<td>verēmur</td>
<td>sequimur</td>
<td>largīmur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mirāminī</td>
<td>verēminī</td>
<td>sequiminī</td>
<td>largiminī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>mirāntur</td>
<td>verentur</td>
<td>sequuntur</td>
<td>largiuntūr</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperf.</td>
<td>mirābar</td>
<td>verēbar</td>
<td>sequebar</td>
<td>largēbar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>mirābor</td>
<td>verēbor</td>
<td>sequare</td>
<td>largiar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>mirātus sum</td>
<td>veritus sum</td>
<td>secūtus sum</td>
<td>largius sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>mirātus eram</td>
<td>veritus eram</td>
<td>secūtus eram</td>
<td>largius eram</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F. P.</td>
<td>mirātus essem</td>
<td>veritus essem</td>
<td>secūtus essem</td>
<td>largius essem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

| Pres.  | mirēr | verear | sequare  | largiar        | patiar         |
| Imperf.| mirērer | verērer | sequerer  | largīrer       | paterer       |
| Perf.  | mirātus sim | veritus sim | secūtus sim | largius sim | passus sim |
| Plup.  | mirātus essem | veritus essem | secūtus essem | largius essem | passus essem |

IMPERATIVE.

| Pres.  | mirāre | verēre | sequere  | largīre        | patere         |
| Fut.   | mirātor | verētor | sequitor  | largitūr       | patitor        |

INFINITIVE.

| Pres.  | mirāfī | verēfī | sequī    | largīfī        | patīfī         |
| Perf.  | mirātus esse | veritus esse | secūtus esse | largius esse | passus esse |
| Fut.   | mirātūrus esse | veritūrus esse | secūtūrus esse | largitūrus esse | passūrus esse |

PARTICIPLES.

| Pres.  | mirāns | verēns | sequēns  | largiēns       | patiēns       |
| Fut.   | mirātūrus | veritūrus | secūtūrus | largitūrus     | passūrus      |
| Perf.  | mirātus | veritus | secūtus | largitūs | passus        |
| Ger.   | mirandus | verendum | sequendus | largiendus | patiendūs |

GERUND.

mirandī, verendī, sequendī, largiendī, patiendī
mirandō, etc. verendō, etc. sequendō, etc. largiendō, etc. patiendō, etc.

SUPINE.

mirātum, -tū | veritum, -tū | secūtum, -tū | largitum, -tū | passum, -sū |
78

Inflections.

SEMI-DEPONENTS.

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

audeō, audēre, ausus sum, to dare.

gaudeō, gaudēre, gāvisus sum, to rejoice.

soleō, solēre, solitus sum, to be wont.

fidō, fidere, fīsus sum, to trust.

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

adolēscō, grow up; adultus, having grown up.

cōnāre, dine; cōnātus, having dined.

placēre, please; placitus, having pleased, agreeable.

prandēre, lunch; prānsus, having lunched.

pōtāre, drink; pōtus, having drunk.

jūrāre, swear; jūrātus, having sworn.

a. Jūrātus is used in a passive sense also.

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

revertor, revertī (Inf.), revertī (Perf.), to return.

dēvertor, dēvertī (Inf.), dēvertī (Perf.), to turn aside.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

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

Active Periphrastic Conjugation.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. amātūrus (-a, -um) sum, I am about to love.

Imp. amātūrus eram, I was about to love.

Fut. amātūrus erō, I shall be about to love.

Perf. amātūrus fui, I have been (was) about to love.

Plup. amātūrus fueram, I had been about to love.

Fut. P. amātūrus fuerō, I shall have been about to love.
Peculiarities of Conjugation.

Subjunctive.

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

Infinitive.

Pres. amāturūs esse, to be about to love.
Perf. amāturūs fuisse, to have been about to love.

Passive Periphrastic Conjugation.

Indicative.

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

Subjunctive.

Pres. amandus sim, may I deserve to be loved.
Imp. amandus essem, I might deserve to be loved.
Perf. amandus fuerim, I may have deserved to be loved.
Plup. amandus fussem, I might have deserved to be loved.

Infinitive.

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

Peculiarities of Conjugation.

116. i. Perfects in -āvi, -ēvi, and -ēvi, with the forms derived from them, often drop the ve or vi before endings beginning with r or s. So also nōvi (from nōsōs) and the compounds of mōvi (from moveō). Thus:—

amāvistī amāstī dēlēvistī dēlēstī
amāvisse amāsse dēlēvisse dēlēsse
amāvērunt amārunt dēlēvērunt dēlērunt
amāverim amārim dēlēverim dēlērim
amāveram amāram dēlēveram dēlēram
amāverō amārō dēlēverō dēlērō
nōvistī nōstī nōverim nōrim
nōvisse nōsse nōveram nōram
audīvistī audīstī audīvisse audīsse
2. In the Gerund and Gerundive of the Third and Fourth Conjugations, the endings -undus, -undī, often occur instead of -endus and -endī, as faciundus, faciundī.

3. Ðico, ðicō, faciō, form the Imperatives, ðic, ðic, fac. But compounds of faciō form the Imperative in -ice, as cōnīce. Compounds of Ðico, ðicō, accent the ultima; as, ðdicō, ðdicō.

4. Archaic and Poetic forms:—
   a. The ending -ier in the Present Infinitive Passive; as, amārier, monērier, ðicier, for amāri, monēri, ðici.
   b. The ending -ibam for -išbam in Imperfects of the Fourth Conjugation, and -ibō for -iam in Futures; as, scībam, scībō, for scīšbam, sciam.
   c. Instead of the fuller forms, in such words as dīxisti, scrip sistis, surrāxisse, we sometimes find dīxti, scripstis, surrēxe, etc.
   d. The endings -im, -is, etc. (for -am, -ās, etc.) occur in a few Subjunctive forms; as, edim (eat), duīnt, perduīnt.

5. In the Future Active and Perfect Passive Infinitive, the auxiliary esse is often omitted; as, actūrum for actūrum esse; ejectus for ejectus esse.

FORMATION OF THE VERB STEMS.

Formation of the Present Stem.

117. Many verbs employ the Verb Stem for the Present Stem; ¹ as, ðicere, ðicere, amāre, monēre, audīre. Others form the Present Stem variously, as follows:—

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

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

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

4. By appending -n to the Verb Stem; as, —
   cernō  pellō (for pel-nō).

¹ Strictly speaking, the Present Stem always ends in a Thematic Vowel (ē or ē); as, ðicē-, ðicē-; amā-ē, amā-ē. But the multitude of phonetic changes involved prevents a scientific treatment of the subject here. See the Author's Latin Language.
5. By appending t to the Verb Stem; as, —  
siect-ō.  
6. By appending sc to the Verb Stem; as, —  
corōsc-ō,  
scōsc-ō.  
7. By Reduplication, that is, by prefixing the initial consonant of  
the Verb Stem with 1; as, —  
gl-gn-ō (root gen-),  
si-st-ō (root sta-).  

Formation of the Perfect Stem.  

118. The Perfect Stem is formed from the Verb Stem —  
1. By adding v (in case of Vowel Stems); as, —  
amāv-ı,  
dēlēv-ı,  
audīv-ı.  
2. By adding u (in case of some Consonant Stems); as, —  
strēpu-ı,  
genu-ı,  
alu-ı.  
3. By adding s (in case of most Consonant Stems); as, —  
carp-ō, Perfect carps-ı.  
scrib-ō, “ scrips-ı (for scrib-sī).  
rīd-eō, “ rīs-ı (for rīd-sī).  
sent-iō, “ sōns-ı (for sent-sī).  
dīc-ō, “ dīx-ı (i.e. dīc-sī).  

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

4. Without addition. Of this formation there are three types: —  
   a) The Verb Stem is reduplicated by prefixing the initial con-  
      sonant with the following vowel or e; as, —  
      currō, Perfect cu-currī.  
      poscō, “ po-poscī.  
      pellō, “ pe-pullī.  

      NOTE 1. — Compounds, with the exception of dō, stō, sistō, discō, poscō,  
      omit the reduplication. Thus: com-pull, but re-poscī.  

      NOTE 2. — Verbs beginning with sp or st retain both consonants in the  
      reduplication, but drop s from the stem; as, spondeō, spo-pondī; stō, stetī.  
   b) The short vowel of the Verb Stem is lengthened; as, legō,  
      īēgī; agō, ēgī. Note that ē by this process becomes ę.  
   c) The vowel of the Verb Stem is unchanged; as, vertō,  
      vertī; minūō, minūī.
Formation of the Participial Stem.

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

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

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

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

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

   lāb-ī, Participle lāp-sus.
   fig-ere, “ fī-xus.

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

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

   domā-re, dom-Itus.
   monē-re, mon-Itus.

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

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

¹ But the compounds of juvō sometimes have -jūtūrus; as, adjūtūrus.
List of the Most Important Verbs.

List of the Most Important Verbs, with Principal Parts.

First (ā-) Conjugation.

120. I. Perfect in -vī.

amō amāre amāvī amātus love
All regular verbs of the First Conjugation follow this model.
pōtō pōtāre pōtāvī pōtus (§ 114, 2) drink

II. Perfect in -uī.

crepō crepāre crepuī crepitūrus rattle
cubō cubāre cubuī cubitūrus lie down
domō domāre domuī domitus tame
fricō fricāre fricuī frictus and fricātus rub
micō micāre micuī — glitter
dimicō dimicāre dimicāvī dimicātum (est) 1 fight
explicō explicāre explicāvī (-uī) explicātus (-itus) unfold
implicō implicāre implicāvī (-uī) implicātus (-itus) entwine
secō secāre secuī sectus cut
sonō sonāre sonuī sonātūrus sound
tonō tonāre tonuī — thunder
vetō vetāre vetuī vetitus forbid

III. Perfect in -ī with Lengthening of the Stem Vowel.

juvō juvāre jūvī jūtus help
lavō lavāre lāvī lautus wash

IV. Perfect Reduplicated.

stō stāre stetī stātūrus

V. Deponents.

These are all regular, and follow miror, mirārī, mirātus sum.

Second (ē-) Conjugation.

121. I. Perfect in -vī.

dēleō dēlere dēlevī dēlētus destroy
fleō fleere flēvī flētus weep, lament
com-pleō 2 compleēre compleēvī compleētus fill up
aboleō aboleēre aboleēvī aboleētus destroy
cieō 8 ciēere cīvī citus set in motion

1 Used only impersonally.
2 So implēō, explēō.
8 Compounds follow the Fourth Conjunction: acciō, accīre, etc.
### II. Perfect in -uī.

#### a. Type -ēō, -ēre, -uī, -itus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arceō</td>
<td>arcēre</td>
<td>arcūi</td>
<td>coercēre</td>
<td>coercēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coercō</td>
<td>coercēre</td>
<td>coercūi</td>
<td>exercēre</td>
<td>exercēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exerceō</td>
<td>exercēre</td>
<td>exercūi</td>
<td>calēre</td>
<td>calēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caleō</td>
<td>calēre</td>
<td>calūi</td>
<td>careēre</td>
<td>careēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>careō</td>
<td>careēre</td>
<td>carūi</td>
<td>dolēre</td>
<td>dolēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doleō</td>
<td>dolēre</td>
<td>dolūi</td>
<td>dolēre</td>
<td>dolēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>habēō</td>
<td>habēre</td>
<td>habūi</td>
<td>habēre</td>
<td>habēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēbeō</td>
<td>dēbere</td>
<td>dēbuī</td>
<td>dēbeō</td>
<td>dēbeō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>praebēō</td>
<td>praebēre</td>
<td>praebūi</td>
<td>praebēre</td>
<td>praebēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jaceō</td>
<td>jacēre</td>
<td>jacūi</td>
<td>jaceō</td>
<td>jaceō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mereō</td>
<td>merēre</td>
<td>merūi</td>
<td>mereō</td>
<td>merēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moneō</td>
<td>monēre</td>
<td>monūi</td>
<td>moneō</td>
<td>monēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noceō</td>
<td>nocēre</td>
<td>nocūi</td>
<td>noceō</td>
<td>nocēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pāreō</td>
<td>pārēre</td>
<td>pāruī</td>
<td>pāreō</td>
<td>pāreō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>placeō</td>
<td>placēre</td>
<td>placūi</td>
<td>placeō</td>
<td>placēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taceō</td>
<td>tacēre</td>
<td>tacūi</td>
<td>taceō</td>
<td>taceō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>terreō</td>
<td>terrēre</td>
<td>terrūi</td>
<td>terreō</td>
<td>terrēre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>valeō</td>
<td>valēre</td>
<td>valuī</td>
<td>valeō</td>
<td>valēre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### NOTE 1. — The following lack the Participial Stem: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>egeō</td>
<td>egēre</td>
<td>egūi</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēmineō</td>
<td>ēminēre</td>
<td>ēminūi</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flōreō</td>
<td>flōrēre</td>
<td>flōruī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>horreō</td>
<td>horrēre</td>
<td>horruī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lateō</td>
<td>latēre</td>
<td>latūi</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>niteō</td>
<td>nitēre</td>
<td>nitūi</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oleō</td>
<td>olēre</td>
<td>oluī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>palleō</td>
<td>pallēre</td>
<td>pallūi</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pateō</td>
<td>patēre</td>
<td>patuī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rubeō</td>
<td>rubēre</td>
<td>rubuī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sileō</td>
<td>silēre</td>
<td>siluī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>splendeō</td>
<td>splendēre</td>
<td>splendūi</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>studeō</td>
<td>studēre</td>
<td>studuī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stupeō</td>
<td>stupēre</td>
<td>stupuī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>timeō</td>
<td>timēre</td>
<td>timuī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>torpeō</td>
<td>torpēre</td>
<td>torpuī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vigeō</td>
<td>vigēre</td>
<td>viguī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vireō</td>
<td>virēre</td>
<td>viruī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and others.
List of the Most Important Verbs.

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

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

and others.

b. Type -eō, -ère, -uī, -tus (-sus).
cēnseō  cēnsère  cēnsuī  cēnsum  estimate
doceō  docère  docuī  doctus  teach
misceō  miscère  miscuī  mixtus  mix
tenēō  tenère  tenuī  ——  hold

So’contineō and sustineō; but—
retineō  retinère  retinuī  retentus  retain
obtineō  obtinère  obtinuī  obtentus  maintain
torreō  torrère  torruī  tostus  bake

III. Perfect in -ṣī.
augeō  augère  auxī  auctus  increase
torqueō  torquère  torsi  tortus  twist
indulgeō  indulgère  indulsi  indulgus  indulge
lūceō  lūcère  lūxi  lūxius  be light
lūgeō  lūgère  lūxi  ——  mourn
jubeō  jubère  jussi  jussus  order
per-mulceō  permulcère  permulsī  permulsus  soothe
rideō  ridère  risi  risum (est)  laugh
suadeō  suadère  suāsi  suāsum (est)  advise
abs-tergeō  abstergère  abstersi  abstersus  wipe off
ārdeō  ārdère  ārsi  ārsus  burn
haereō  haërère  haesī  haesurus  stick
maneō  manère  mānsi  mānsurus  hold
algeō  algère  alsi  ——  be cold
fulgeō  fulgère  fulsi  ——  gleam
urgeō  urgère  ursi  ——  press

IV. Perfect in -ī with Reduplication.
mordeō  mordère  momordī  morsus  bite
spondeō  spondère  spopondī  spōnsus  promise
tondeō  tondère  totondī  tōnsus  shear
pendeō  pendère  pependi  ——  hang
**Inflections.**

V. Perfect in -ī with Lengthening of Stem Vowel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb form</th>
<th>verb form</th>
<th>verb form</th>
<th>verb form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>caveō</td>
<td>cavère</td>
<td>căví</td>
<td>cautūrus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faveō</td>
<td>favère</td>
<td>fāví</td>
<td>fautūrus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foveō</td>
<td>fo. 5are</td>
<td>fōví</td>
<td>fōtus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moveō</td>
<td>movère</td>
<td>mōví</td>
<td>mōtus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paveō</td>
<td>pavère</td>
<td>pāví</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sedeō</td>
<td>sedère</td>
<td>sēdí</td>
<td>sessūrus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>videō</td>
<td>vidère</td>
<td>vīdí</td>
<td>visus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voveō</td>
<td>vovère</td>
<td>vōví</td>
<td>vōtus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb form</th>
<th>verb form</th>
<th>verb form</th>
<th>verb form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ferveō</td>
<td>fervère</td>
<td>(fervī ferbui)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prandeō</td>
<td>prandère</td>
<td>prandi</td>
<td>prānsus (§ 114, 2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>strīdeō</td>
<td>stridère</td>
<td>stridī</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

VII. Deponents.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb form</th>
<th>verb form</th>
<th>verb form</th>
<th>verb form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>liceor</td>
<td>licēri</td>
<td>licitus sum</td>
<td>bid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>polliceor</td>
<td>pollicēri</td>
<td>pollicitus sum</td>
<td>promise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mereor</td>
<td>merēri</td>
<td>meritus sum</td>
<td>earn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>misereor</td>
<td>miserēri</td>
<td>miseritus sum</td>
<td>pity</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vereor</td>
<td>verēri</td>
<td>veritus sum</td>
<td>fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fateor</td>
<td>fatēri</td>
<td>fassus sum</td>
<td>confess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnfiteor</td>
<td>cōnfītēri</td>
<td>cōnfessus sum</td>
<td>confess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reor</td>
<td>rēri</td>
<td>ratus sum</td>
<td>think</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>medeor</td>
<td>medēri</td>
<td></td>
<td>heal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tueor</td>
<td>tuēri</td>
<td></td>
<td>protect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Third (Consonant) Conjugation.**

122. 1. Verbs with Present Stem ending in a Consonant.

1. Perfect in -si.

a. Type -ō, -ēre, -si, -tus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb form</th>
<th>verb form</th>
<th>verb form</th>
<th>verb form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>carpō</td>
<td>carpere</td>
<td>carpsi</td>
<td>carptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sculpō</td>
<td>sculpere</td>
<td>sculpisi</td>
<td>sculptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rēpō</td>
<td>répere</td>
<td>rëpsi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>serpō</td>
<td>serpere</td>
<td>serpsi</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scribō</td>
<td>scribere</td>
<td>scripsi</td>
<td>scriptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nūbō</td>
<td>nūbere</td>
<td>nūpsi</td>
<td>nūpta (woman only)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regō</td>
<td>regere</td>
<td>rēxi</td>
<td>rectus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
List of the Most Important Verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tegō</th>
<th>tegere</th>
<th>tēxī</th>
<th>tēctus</th>
<th>cover</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>af-fiğiō</td>
<td>affligere</td>
<td>afflixī</td>
<td>afflictus</td>
<td>shatter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dicō</td>
<td>dicere</td>
<td>dīxī</td>
<td>dictus</td>
<td>say</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dūcō</td>
<td>dūcere</td>
<td>dūxī</td>
<td>ductus</td>
<td>lead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coquō</td>
<td>coquere</td>
<td>coxī</td>
<td>coctus</td>
<td>cook</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trahō</td>
<td>trahere</td>
<td>trāxī</td>
<td>trāctus</td>
<td>draw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vehō</td>
<td>vehere</td>
<td>vexī</td>
<td>vectus</td>
<td>carry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cingō</td>
<td>cingere</td>
<td>cinxī</td>
<td>cinctus</td>
<td>gird</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tingō</td>
<td>tingere</td>
<td>tinxī</td>
<td>tinctus</td>
<td>dip</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jungō</td>
<td>jungere</td>
<td>jūnxī</td>
<td>jūctus</td>
<td>join</td>
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<tr>
<td>fingō</td>
<td>fingere</td>
<td>finxī</td>
<td>fīctus</td>
<td>mould</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pingō</td>
<td>pingere</td>
<td>pīnxī</td>
<td>pīctus</td>
<td>paint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stringō</td>
<td>stringere</td>
<td>strinxī</td>
<td>strictus</td>
<td>bind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-stinguō&lt;sup&gt;1&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>-stinguere</td>
<td>-stinxī</td>
<td>-stīctus</td>
<td>blot out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unguō</td>
<td>unguere</td>
<td>ūnxī</td>
<td>ūntus</td>
<td>anoint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vivō</td>
<td>vivere</td>
<td>vīxī</td>
<td>vīctum (est)</td>
<td>live</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gerō</td>
<td>gerere</td>
<td>gesī</td>
<td>gestus</td>
<td>carry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūrō</td>
<td>ūrere</td>
<td>ussī</td>
<td>āustus</td>
<td>burn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>temnō</td>
<td>temnere</td>
<td>con-tempsī</td>
<td>con-temptus</td>
<td>despise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

b. Type -ō, -ere, -si, -sus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>figō</th>
<th>figere</th>
<th>fixī</th>
<th>fixus</th>
<th>fasten</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mergō</td>
<td>mergere</td>
<td>mersī</td>
<td>mersus</td>
<td>sink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spargō</td>
<td>spargere</td>
<td>sparsi</td>
<td>sparsus</td>
<td>scatter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flectō</td>
<td>flectere</td>
<td>flexī</td>
<td>flexus</td>
<td>bend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nectō</td>
<td>nectere</td>
<td>nexitī (nexī)</td>
<td>nexus</td>
<td>twine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mittō</td>
<td>mittere</td>
<td>misī</td>
<td>missus</td>
<td>send</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rādō</td>
<td>rādere</td>
<td>rāsī</td>
<td>rāsus</td>
<td>shave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rōdō</td>
<td>rōdere</td>
<td>rōsī</td>
<td>rōsus</td>
<td>gnaw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vādō</td>
<td>vadere</td>
<td>-vāsi&lt;sup&gt;2&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>-vāsum (est)&lt;sup&gt;2&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>march, walk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lūdō</td>
<td>lūdere</td>
<td>lūsī</td>
<td>lūsum (est)</td>
<td>play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trūdō</td>
<td>trūdere</td>
<td>trūsī</td>
<td>trūsus</td>
<td>push</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laedō</td>
<td>laedere</td>
<td>laesī</td>
<td>laesus</td>
<td>injure, hurt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>claudō</td>
<td>claudere</td>
<td>clausī</td>
<td>clausus</td>
<td>close</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plaudō</td>
<td>plaudere</td>
<td>plausī</td>
<td>plausum (est)</td>
<td>clap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>explōdō</td>
<td>explōdere</td>
<td>explōsī</td>
<td>explōsus</td>
<td>hoot off</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cēdō</td>
<td>cēdere</td>
<td>cessī</td>
<td>cessum (est)</td>
<td>withdraw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dividō</td>
<td>dividere</td>
<td>divisī</td>
<td>divisus</td>
<td>divide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>premō</td>
<td>premere</td>
<td>pressī</td>
<td>pressus</td>
<td>press</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<sup>1</sup> Fully conjugated only in the compounds: exstinguō, restinguō, distinguō.
<sup>2</sup> Only in the compounds: ēvādō, invādō, pervādō.
2. Perfect in -I with Reduplication.

ab-dō  abdere  abdidi  abditus  conceal
red-dō  red-dere  reddidi  redditus  return

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

cōn-sistō  cōnsistere  cōnstiti  ——  take one's stand
resistō  resistere  restitī  ——  resist
circumsistō  circumcistere  circumstetī  ——  surround
cadō  cadere  cecidi  cāsūrus  fall
caedō  caedere  cecidi  caesus  kill
pendō  pendere  pependi  pēnsuming  weigh, pay
tendō  tendere  tetendi  tentus  stretch
tundō  tundere  tutudi  tūsus, tūnsus  beat
fallō  fallere  fefellī  (falsus, as Adj.)  deceive
pellō  pellere  pepulī  pulsus  drive out
currō  currere  cucurri  cursum (est)  run
parcō  parcere  pepercī  parsūrus  spare
canō  canere  cecini  ——  sing
tangō  tangere  tetigi  tāctus  touch
pungō  pungere  pupugi  pūctus  prick

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

per-cellō  percellere  perculī  perculus  strike down
findō  findere  fidī  fissus  split
scindō  scindere  scidī  scissus  tear apart
tollō  tollere  sus-tulī  sublātus  remove

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

agō  agere  āgī  āctus  drive, do
peragō  peragere  perēgī  perāctus  finish
subigō  subigere  subēgī  subēctus  subdue
cōgō  cōgere  coēgī  coāctus  force, gather
frangō  frangere  frēgī  frāctus  break
perfringō  perfringere  perfrēgī  perfrāctus  break down
legō  legere  légī  lēctus  gather, read
perlegō  perlegere  perlēgī  perlēctus  read through
colligō  colligere  collēgī  collēctus  collect
dēligō  dēligere  dēlēgī  dēlēctus  choose
dilīgō  diligere  dilēxī  dilēctus  love
intellegō  intellegere  intellēxī  intellectus  understand
neglegō  neglegere  neglēxī  neglēctus  neglect
### List of the Most Important Verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amō</td>
<td>emere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>coēmō</td>
<td>coēmere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>redimō</td>
<td>redimere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dirimō</td>
<td>dirimere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēmō</td>
<td>dēmere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sūmō</td>
<td>sūmere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prōmō</td>
<td>prōmere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vincō</td>
<td>vincere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>re-linquo</td>
<td>reliquere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rumpō</td>
<td>rumpere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>edō</td>
<td>ēsse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fundō</td>
<td>fundere</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**4. Perfect in -ī without either Replication or Lengthening of Stem-Vowel.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>excūdō</td>
<td>excūdere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnsidō</td>
<td>cōnsidere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possidō</td>
<td>possidere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accendō</td>
<td>accendere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>a-scedō</td>
<td>a-scedere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dē-fendō</td>
<td>dēfendere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pre-hendō</td>
<td>prehendere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>icō</td>
<td>īcere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vellō</td>
<td>vellere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vertō</td>
<td>vertere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pandō</td>
<td>pandere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>solvō</td>
<td>solvere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>visō</td>
<td>visere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volvō</td>
<td>volvere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verrō</td>
<td>verrere</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**5. Perfect in -uf.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>in-cumbō</td>
<td>incumbere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gignō</td>
<td>gignere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>molō</td>
<td>molere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vomō</td>
<td>vomere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fremō</td>
<td>fremere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gemō</td>
<td>gemere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metō</td>
<td>metere</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect in -uitūr.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Incubuī</td>
<td>incubitūrus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>genuī</td>
<td>genitus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moluī</td>
<td>molitus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vomuī</td>
<td>vomitus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fremuī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gemuī</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>messuī</td>
<td>messus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect in -ūl.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lean on</td>
<td>bring forth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grind</td>
<td>vomit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>snort</td>
<td>sigh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reap</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Inflections.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tremō</th>
<th>tremere</th>
<th>tremulī</th>
<th>---</th>
<th>tremula</th>
<th>tremble</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>strepō</td>
<td>strepere</td>
<td>strepūi</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>strepult</td>
<td>rattle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alō</td>
<td>alere</td>
<td>aluī</td>
<td>altus (alitus)</td>
<td>nourish</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colō</td>
<td>colere</td>
<td>coluī</td>
<td>cultus</td>
<td>cultivate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incolō</td>
<td>incolere</td>
<td>incoluī</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>inhabit</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excolō</td>
<td>excolere</td>
<td>excoluī</td>
<td>excultus</td>
<td>perfect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cönsulō</td>
<td>cönsulere</td>
<td>cönsuluī</td>
<td>cönsultus</td>
<td>consult</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cöns erō</td>
<td>cöns erere</td>
<td>cöns eruī</td>
<td>cönsertus</td>
<td>join</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēserō</td>
<td>dēserere</td>
<td>dēseruī</td>
<td>désertus</td>
<td>desert</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disserō</td>
<td>disserere</td>
<td>disseruī</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>discourse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>texō</td>
<td>texere</td>
<td>texuī</td>
<td>textus</td>
<td>weave</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

6. Perfect in -vi.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>sinō</th>
<th>sinere</th>
<th>sīvī</th>
<th>situs</th>
<th>allow</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dēsinō</td>
<td>dēsinere</td>
<td>dēsīi</td>
<td>dēsitus</td>
<td>cease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pōnō</td>
<td>pōnerē</td>
<td>posuī</td>
<td>positus</td>
<td>place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ob-linō</td>
<td>oblinere</td>
<td>oblēvī</td>
<td>oblitus</td>
<td>smear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>serō</td>
<td>serere</td>
<td>sēvī</td>
<td>satus</td>
<td>sow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cöns erō</td>
<td>cöns erere</td>
<td>cönsēvī</td>
<td>cönsitus</td>
<td>plant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cernō</td>
<td>cernere</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>separate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>discernō</td>
<td>discernere</td>
<td>discrēvī</td>
<td>discrētus</td>
<td>distinguish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēcernō</td>
<td>dēcernere</td>
<td>dēcrēvī</td>
<td>dēcrētus</td>
<td>decide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spernō</td>
<td>spernere</td>
<td>sprēvī</td>
<td>sprētus</td>
<td>scorn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sternō</td>
<td>sternere</td>
<td>strāvī</td>
<td>strātus</td>
<td>spread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prō-sternō</td>
<td>prōsternere</td>
<td>prōstrāvī</td>
<td>prōstrātus</td>
<td>overthrow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>petō</td>
<td>petere</td>
<td>petivi (petiī)</td>
<td>petitus</td>
<td>seek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>appetō</td>
<td>appetere</td>
<td>appetivi</td>
<td>appetitus</td>
<td>long for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>terō</td>
<td>terere</td>
<td>trīvī</td>
<td>tritus</td>
<td>rub</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quaerō</td>
<td>quaerere</td>
<td>quaesivī</td>
<td>quaesitūs</td>
<td>seek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acquirō</td>
<td>acquirere</td>
<td>acquisivī</td>
<td>acquisitūs</td>
<td>acquire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accessō</td>
<td>accessere</td>
<td>accessivī</td>
<td>accessitūs</td>
<td>summon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capessō</td>
<td>capessere</td>
<td>capessivī</td>
<td>capessitūs</td>
<td>seize</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lacessō</td>
<td>lacessere</td>
<td>lacessivī</td>
<td>lacessitūs</td>
<td>provoke</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

7. Used only in Present System.  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>angō</th>
<th>angere</th>
<th>---</th>
<th>---</th>
<th>choke</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lambō</td>
<td>lambere</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>kick</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>claudō</td>
<td>claudiere</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>be lame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>furō</td>
<td>furere</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>rave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vergō</td>
<td>vergere</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>bend</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and a few others.
II. Verbs with Present Stem ending in -ū.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Induō</th>
<th>induere</th>
<th>induī</th>
<th>indūtus</th>
<th>put on</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>imbuō</td>
<td>imbuere</td>
<td>imbūi</td>
<td>imbūtus</td>
<td>moisten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>luō</td>
<td>luere</td>
<td>luī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>wash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>polluō</td>
<td>polluere</td>
<td>pollui</td>
<td>pollūtus</td>
<td>defile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minuō</td>
<td>minuere</td>
<td>minuī</td>
<td>minūtus</td>
<td>lessen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>statuō</td>
<td>statuere</td>
<td>statuī</td>
<td>statūtus</td>
<td>set up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstituō</td>
<td>cōnstituere</td>
<td>cōnstituī</td>
<td>cōnstitūtus</td>
<td>determine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suō</td>
<td>suere</td>
<td>suī</td>
<td>sūtus</td>
<td>sew</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tribuō</td>
<td>tribuere</td>
<td>tribui</td>
<td>tribūtus</td>
<td>allot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ruō</td>
<td>ruere</td>
<td>ruī</td>
<td>ruitūrus</td>
<td>fall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dīnuō</td>
<td>dīnuere</td>
<td>dīnuī</td>
<td>dīnutus</td>
<td>destroy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obruō</td>
<td>obruere</td>
<td>obrui</td>
<td>obrutus</td>
<td>overwhelm</td>
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<td>ācuō</td>
<td>ācuere</td>
<td>ācuī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>sharpen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>arguō</td>
<td>arguere</td>
<td>argui</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>accuse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>congruō</td>
<td>congruere</td>
<td>congrui</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metuō</td>
<td>metuere</td>
<td>metui</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>fear</td>
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<tr>
<td>ab-nuō</td>
<td>abnuere</td>
<td>abnuī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>decline</td>
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<tr>
<td>re-spuō</td>
<td>respuere</td>
<td>respui</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>reject</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>struō</td>
<td>struere</td>
<td>struī</td>
<td>struēctus</td>
<td>build</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fluō</td>
<td>fluere</td>
<td>flūxī</td>
<td>(flūxus, as Adj.) flow</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. Verbs with Present Stem ending in -ī.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>cupiō</th>
<th>cupere</th>
<th>cupīvī</th>
<th>cupītus</th>
<th>wish</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sapīō</td>
<td>sapere</td>
<td>sapīvī</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>taste</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rapiō</td>
<td>rapere</td>
<td>rapūī</td>
<td>raptus</td>
<td>snatch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dīripīō</td>
<td>dīripere</td>
<td>dīripūī</td>
<td>dīreptus</td>
<td>plunder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnspiciō</td>
<td>cōnspicere</td>
<td>cōnspexī</td>
<td>cōnspectus</td>
<td>gaze at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aspiciō</td>
<td>aspicere</td>
<td>aspexī</td>
<td>aspectus</td>
<td>behold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>illiciō</td>
<td>illicere</td>
<td>illexī</td>
<td>illectus</td>
<td>allure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pelliciō</td>
<td>pellicere</td>
<td>pellexī</td>
<td>pelllectus</td>
<td>allure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēliciō</td>
<td>ēlicere</td>
<td>ēlicui</td>
<td>ēlicitus</td>
<td>elicit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quatiō</td>
<td>quaterere</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>quassus</td>
<td>shake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concutiō</td>
<td>concutere</td>
<td>concussī</td>
<td>concussus</td>
<td>shake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pariō</td>
<td>parete</td>
<td>peperī</td>
<td>partus</td>
<td>bring forth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiō</td>
<td>capere</td>
<td>cēpī</td>
<td>captus</td>
<td>take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accipiō</td>
<td>accipere</td>
<td>accēpī</td>
<td>acceptus</td>
<td>accept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incipiō</td>
<td>incipere</td>
<td>incēpī</td>
<td>inceptus</td>
<td>begin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faciō</td>
<td>facere</td>
<td>fēcī</td>
<td>factus</td>
<td>make</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>afficiō</td>
<td>afficere</td>
<td>affēcī</td>
<td>affectus</td>
<td>affect</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Passive, afficior, affici, affectus sum.
Inflections.

So other prepositional compounds, perāciō, perācior; interāciō, interācior; etc. But—

assuēfaciō assuēfacere assuēfeci assuēfactus accustom
Passive, assuēfīō, assuēfēri, assuēfactus sum.

So also patefaciō, patefīō; calefaciō, calefīō; and all non-prepositional compounds.

jacīō jacere jēcī jactus hurl
abīciō abicere abjēcī abjectus throw away
fodiō fodere fōdī fossus dig
fugiō fugere fūgī fugitūrus flee
effugiō effugere effūgī escape

IV. VERBS IN -SCŌ.

1. Verbs in -scō from Simple Roots.

poscō poscere poposcī —— demand
discō discere didici —— learn
pāscō pāscere pāvī pāstus feed
pāscor pāscī pāstus sum graze
crēscō crēscere crēvī crētus grow
cōnsuēscō cōnsuēscere cōnsuēvī cōnsuētus accustom one's self
quiēscō quiēscere quiēvī quiētūrus be still
adolēscō adolēscere adolēvī adultus grow up
obsolēscō obsolēscere obsolēvī —— grow old

nōscō nōscere nōvī ——

ignōscō ignōscere ignōvī ignōtūrus pardon
agnōscō agnōscere agnōvī agnitus recognize

cognōscō cognōscere cognōvī cognitus get acquainted

2. Verbs in -scō formed from other Verbs.

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

flōrēscō flōrēscere flōruī begin to bloom (flōreō)
scīscō scīscere scīvī enact (sciō)
ārēscō ārēscere āruī become dry (āreō)
calēscō calēscere caluī become hot (caleō)
cōnsenēscō cōnsenēscere cōnsenuī grow old (seneō)
extimēscō extimēscere extimuī fear greatly (timeō)
ingemiscō ingemiscere ingemuī sigh (gemō)
adhaerēscō adhaerēscere adhaesi stick (haereō)
List of the Most Important Verbs.

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

obdūrēscō  obdūrēscere  obdūruī  grow hard  (dūrus)
ēvānēscō  ēvānēscere  ēvānuī  disappear  (vānus)
percēbrēscō  percēbrēscere  percēbruī  grow fresh  (crēber)
mātūrēscō  mātūrēscere  mātūruī  grow ripe  (mātūrus)
obmūtēscō  obmūtēscere  obmūtuī  grow dumb  (mūtus)

V. DEONENTS.

fungor  fungī  fūnectus sum  perform
queror  querī  questus sum  complain
loquor  loqui  locūtus sum  speak
sequor  sequī  secūtus sum  follow
fruor  fruī  fruitūrus  enjoy
derfruor  derfruī  perfructus sum  thoroughly enjoy
lābor  lābī  lápsus sum  glide
amplector  amplectī  amplexus sum  embrace
nītor  nītī  nīsus sum, nīxus sum  strive
gradior  grādi  gressus sum  walk
patior  patī  passus sum  suffer
perpetior  perpetī  perpessus sum  endure
ūtor  ūtī  ūsus sum  use
morior  morī  mortuus sum  die
adipiscor  adipīscī  adeptus sum  acquire
commisiscor  comminisīcī  commentus sum  invent
reminiscor  reminisīcī  ——  remember
nanciscor  nancisīcī  nactus (nactus) sum  acquire
nāscor  nāscī  nātus sum  be born
obliviscor  oblivīscī  oblivitus sum  forget
pasiscor  pacīscī  pactus sum  covenant
profiscor  profiscīcī  profectus sum  set out
uliscor  uliscīcī  ultus sum  avenge
īrāscor  īrāscī  (īrātus, as Adj.)  be angry
vescor  vescī  ——  eat

Fourth Conjugation.

123. I. Perfect ends in -vī.

audiō  audīre  audīvi  audītus  hear
Seep all regular Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation.
sepeliō  sepelīre  sepelīvi  sepultus  bury
II. **Perfect ends in -UĪ.**

aperiō  aperiē  aperuī  apertus  open  
operiō  operiē  operuī  opertus  cover  
saliō  saliē  saluī  ——  leap  

III. **Perfect ends in -SĪ.**

saepiō  saepiē  saepsi  saeptus  hedge in  
sanciō  sanciē  sānxī  sāntus  ratify  
vinciō  vincīre  vīncī  vīncītus  bind  
amiciō  amiciē  ——  amicitus  envelop  
fulciō  fulcīre  fulsi  fultus  prop up  
referciō  refercīre  refersi  referitus  fill  
sarciō  sarcīre  sarsi  sartus  patch  
ahauriō  haurīre  hausī  haustus  draw  
sentiō  sentiē  sēnsi  sēnsus  feel  

IV. **Perfect in ō with Lengthening of Stem Vowel.**

veniō  veniēre  vēni  ventum (est)  come  
adveniō  adveniēre  advēni  adventum (est)  arrive  
inveniō  inveniēre  invēni  inventus  find  

V. **Perfect with Loss of Reduplication.**

reperiō  reperiēre  repperi  repertus  find  
comperiō  comperiēre  comperi  compertus  learn  

VI. **Used Only in the Present.**

feriō  feriēre  ——  ——  strike  
ěsuriō  ěsurīre  ——  ——  be hungry  

VII. **Deponents.**

largiō  largīrī  largītus sum  bestow  

So many others. 

experiō  experiērī  expertus sum  try  
opperiō  opperiērī  oppertus sum  await  
ördiō  ördīrī  örsus sum  begin  
orīō  orīrī  ortus sum  arise  

*Orior* usually follows the Third Conjugation in its inflection; as, *oreris, oritur, ortmur*; *orerer* (Imp. Subj.); *oreere* (Imper.).

mētiō  mētiērī  mēnsus sum  measure  
assentiō  assentiērī  assēnsus sum  assent
IRREGULAR VERBS.

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

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Participle</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>absum</td>
<td>abesse</td>
<td>āfuī</td>
<td>am absent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adsum</td>
<td>adesse</td>
<td>āduī</td>
<td>am present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dēsum</td>
<td>deesse</td>
<td>dēfuī</td>
<td>am lacking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>īnsum</td>
<td>īnesse</td>
<td>īnfuī</td>
<td>am in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intersum</td>
<td>interesse</td>
<td>interfuī</td>
<td>am among</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>praesum</td>
<td>praeesse</td>
<td>praefuī</td>
<td>am in charge of</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Pres. Partic. praesēns (praesentis), present.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Participle</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>obsum</td>
<td>obesse</td>
<td>obfuī</td>
<td>hinder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prōsum</td>
<td>prōdesse</td>
<td>prōfuī</td>
<td>am of advantage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>subsum</td>
<td>subesse</td>
<td>subfuī</td>
<td>am underneath</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>supersum</td>
<td>supersesse</td>
<td>superfuī</td>
<td>am left</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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

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

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

possum, posse, potuī, to be able.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>possum, potes, potest</td>
<td>possumus, potestis, possunt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>poteram</td>
<td>poterāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>poterō</td>
<td>poterimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>potuī</td>
<td>potuimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>potueram</td>
<td>potuerāmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P.</td>
<td>potuerō</td>
<td>potuerimus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Inflections.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. possim, possis, possit;</td>
<td>possimus, possitis, possint.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. possem;</td>
<td>possessus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. potuerim;</td>
<td>potuierimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. potuissem;</td>
<td>potuissimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### INFINITIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. posse.</th>
<th>PERF. potuiisse.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

#### PARTICIPLE.

| Pres. potens (as an adjective). |

127. **Dō, I give.**

### PRINCIPAL PARTS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dō,</th>
<th>dāre,</th>
<th>dēdi,</th>
<th>dātus.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

#### Active Voice.

### INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. dō, dās, dat;</td>
<td>dāmus, dātis, dant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. dābam, etc.;</td>
<td>dābāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. dābō, etc.;</td>
<td>dābimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. dēdi;</td>
<td>dedimus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. dederam;</td>
<td>dederāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P. dederō;</td>
<td>dederimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

| Pres. dem;                | dēmus.                      |
| Imp. dārem;               | dārēmus.                    |
| Perf. dederim;            | dederīmus.                  |
| Plup. dedissem;           | dedissēmus.                 |

#### IMPERATIVE.

| Pres. dā;                 | dāte.                       |
| Fut. dātō;                | dātōtē.                     |
|                           | dāntō.                      |

#### INFINITIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres. dāre.</th>
<th>PERF. dedisse.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

#### PARTICIPLE.

| Pres. dāns. |
|-------------|-------------|

#### GERUND.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dandī, etc.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

#### SUPINE.

| dātum, dātū. |
Irregular Verbs.

1. The Passive is inflected regularly with the short vowel. Thus: dārī, dātur, dābātur, dārētur, etc.

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

128. Edō, I eat.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

edō, ĕsse, ĕdi, ĕsus.

Active Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. edō edimus
ĕs ĕstis
ĕst edunt

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. ĕssēm ĕssēmus
ĕssēs ĕssētis
ĕsset ĕssent

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. ĕs ĕste
Fut. ĕstō ĕstōte
ĕstō edunto

INFINITIVE.

Pres. ĕsse

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

Pres. 3d Sing. ĕsūr

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Imp. 3d Sing. ĕssētur

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

2. Note comedō, comēsse, comēdī, comēsus or comēstus, consume.

3. The Present Subjunctive has edīm, -īs, -īt, etc., less often edam, -ās, etc.
129. **Ferō, I bear.**

**PRINCIPAL PARTS.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>ferō, fers, fert;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>ferēbam;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>ferēm;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>tuli;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>tuleram;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P.</td>
<td>tulerō;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

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

**IMPERATIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>fer;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>fertō;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fertō;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFinitive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>ferre.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>tulisse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>lātūrus esse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GERUND.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>ferendī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>ferendō.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>ferendum.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>ferendō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

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

Passive Voice.
feror, ferri, latus sum, to be borne.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. feror, ferris, fertur;</td>
<td>ferimur, ferimini, feruntur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. ferēbar;</td>
<td>ferēbāmūr.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. fert;</td>
<td>ferēmur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. lātus sum;</td>
<td>lātī sumus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. lātus eram;</td>
<td>lātī erāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P. lātus erō;</td>
<td>lātī erimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

| Pres. fert;       | ferāmūr.      |
| Imp. ferrer;      | ferrēmur.     |
| Perf. lātus sim;  | lātī simus.   |
| Plup. lātus esse; | lātī essēmus. |

IMPERATIVE.

| Pres. ferre;      | ferimī.       |
| Fut. fertor;     | feruntor.     |

INFINITIVE.

| Pres. ferri.      | Perf. latus.  |
| Perf. latus esse. | Ger. ferendus.|
| Fut. latum ēri.   |               |

So also the Compounds—

afferō afferre attuli allātus bring toward
auferō auferre abstuli ablātus take away
cōnferō cōnferre contulī collātus compare
differō differre distulī dilātus put off
efferō efferre extulī ēlātus carry out
īnferō īnferre intulī illātus bring against
offerō offerre obtulī oblātus present
refferō referre retulī relatūs bring back

NOTE.—The forms sustuli and sublatus belong to tollō.
Inflections.

130. Volō, nōlō, mālō.

Principal Parts.

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>volō</td>
<td>velle</td>
<td>voluī</td>
<td>to wish.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nōlō</td>
<td>nōlle</td>
<td>nōlūī</td>
<td>to be unwilling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mālō</td>
<td>mālle</td>
<td>mālūī</td>
<td>to prefer.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indicative Mood.

<p>| | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>volō</td>
<td>nōlō</td>
<td>mālō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vis</td>
<td>nōn vis</td>
<td>māvis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vult</td>
<td>nōn vult</td>
<td>māvult,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>volumus</td>
<td>nōlumus</td>
<td>mālumus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vultis</td>
<td>nōn vultis</td>
<td>māvultis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>volunt</td>
<td>nōlunt</td>
<td>mālunt,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>volēbam</td>
<td>nōlēbam</td>
<td>mālēbam,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>volam</td>
<td>nōlam</td>
<td>mālam,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>volūī</td>
<td>nōlūī</td>
<td>mālūī,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>volueram</td>
<td>nōlueram</td>
<td>mālueram,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P.</td>
<td>voluerō</td>
<td>nōluerō</td>
<td>māluerō,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Subjunctive.

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>velim, -īs, -īt, etc.</td>
<td>nōlim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp.</td>
<td>vellem, -ēs, -ēt, etc.</td>
<td>nōlēm</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>voluerim</td>
<td>nōluerim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup.</td>
<td>voluissem</td>
<td>nōluissem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Imperative.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>nōli, nolite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>nōlītō, nolitōte, nōlītō, nōluntō,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Infinitive.

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>velle</td>
<td>nōlle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>voluisse</td>
<td>nōluisse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Participle.

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>volēns</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Irregular Verbs.

131.

FIÜ.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

fiü, fieri, factus sum, to become, be made.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. fiü, fis, fit;</td>
<td>fimus, fits, fiunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. fiébam;</td>
<td>fiébámus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. fiám;</td>
<td>fiémus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. factus sum;</td>
<td>factí sumus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. factus erám;</td>
<td>factí erámus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P. factus eró;</td>
<td>factí erimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SUBJUNCTIVE.

| Pres. fiám; | fiámus. |
| Imp. fierem; | fierémus. |
| Perf. factus sim; | factí símus. |
| Plup. factus essem; | factí essémus. |

IMPERATIVE.

Pres. fi; fite.

INFINITIVE.

Pres. fieri.
| Perf. factus esse. | Perf. factus. |
| Fut. factum íri. | Ger. faciendus. |

PARTICIPLE.

Note. — A few isolated forms of compounds of fiü occur; as, ðéñit, lacks; Îñít, begins.

132.

BÜ.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.

eü, Ira, ívI, itum (est), to go.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. eü, ís, it;</td>
<td>Ímus, ïtis, eunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. íbam;</td>
<td>íbámus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. íbó;</td>
<td>íbímus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. ívI (ii);</td>
<td>ívímus (iiimus).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. iveram (ieram);</td>
<td>Íverámus (ierámus).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. P. iveró (ieró);</td>
<td>Íverímus (ierímus).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Inflections.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. eam</td>
<td>eāmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imp. īrem</td>
<td>īrēmus.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. īverim (īerim); īverimus (īerīmus).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plup. īvissem (īissem, īssem); īvissēmus (īissēmus, īssēmus).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

IMPERATIVE.

| Pres. ī;         | īte.             |
| Fut. ītō;        | ītōte, euntō.    |

INFINITIVE.

| Perf. īvisse (īsse). | (Gen. euntis.) |
| Fut. ītūrus esse. | Fut. ītūrus.     |
|                 | Gerundive, eundum. |

GERUND.

eundī, etc.

SUPINE.

| itum, ītū. |

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

DEFECTIVE VERBS.

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

133. Used mainly in the Perfect System.

Coepī, I have begun. Memini, I remember. Ōdī, I hate.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

| Perf. coepī. | memini. | Ōdī. |
| Plup. coeperam. | memineram. | Ōderam. |
| Fut. P. coeperō. | meminerō. | Ōderō. |

SUBJUNCTIVE.

| Perf. coeperim. | meminerim. | Ōderim. |
| Plup. coepissem. | meminissem. | Ōdissem. |

IMPERATIVE.

Sing. mementō; Plur. mementōte,
Defective Verbs.

INFINITIVE.

Perf. coepisse.
Fut. coepturus esse.

meminisse.
ödisse.
ösurus esse.

PARTICIPLE.

Perf. coeptus, begun.
Fut. coepturus.
ösus.
ösurus.

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

2. Note that memī and ödi, though Perfect in form, are Present in sense. Similarly the Pluperfect and Future Perfect have the force of the Imperfect and Future; as, memineram, I remembered; öderō, I shall hate.

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

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.                    PLURAL.

Pres. inquam,
inquis,
inquit;

Fut. inquiēs,
inquiet.

Perf. 3d Sing. inquit.

135.

Ajō, I say.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SINGULAR.                    PLURAL.

Pres. ajō,
aīs,
aīt;

Imp. ajēbam,
ajēbās,
ajēbat;

Perf. 3d Sing. aīt.

ajēbamus,
ajēbātis,
ajēbant.

ajunt.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Pres. 3d Sing. ajat.

NOTE. — For aīsne, do you mean? aīn is common
136. *Fārī, to speak.*

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

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

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

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

137. **OTHER DEFECTIVE FORMS.**

1. Queō, quiēre, quīvī, *to be able,* and nequeō, nequiēre, nequīvī, *to be unable,* are inflected like *ēō,* but occur chiefly in the Present Tense, and there only in special forms.
2. Quaesō, I entreat; quaesumus, we entreat.
3. Cedo (2d sing.), cētē (2d plu.); *give me, tell me.*
4. Salvē, salvētē, *hail.* Also Infinitive, salvēre.
5. Havē (avē), havētē, *hail.* Also Infinitive, havēre.

**IMPERSONAL VERBS.**

138. Impersonal Verbs correspond to the English, *it snows,* *it seems,* etc. They have no personal subject, but may take an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Neuter Pronoun; as, mē pudet hoc fācisse, lit. *it shames me to have done this;* hoc decet, *this is fitting.* Here belong —

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

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

| grandinat | ——— | it hails |
| ningit | ninxit | it snows |
| pluit | pluit | it rains |

II. Special Verbs.

| paenitet | paenitère | paenituit | it repents |
| piget | pigère | piguit | it grieves |
| pudet | pudère | puduit | it causes shame |
| taedet | taedère | taeduit | it disgusts |
| miseret | miserère | miseruit | it causes pity |
| libet | libère | libuit | it pleases |
| licet | licère | licuit | it is lawful |
| oportet | oportère | oportuit | it is fitting |
| decet | decère | decuit | it is becoming |
| dëdëcet | dëdëcère | dëdëcuit | it is unbecoming |
| rëfert | réferrer | rëtulit | it concerns |

III. Verbs Impersonal only in Special Senses.

| cönstat | cönstäre | cönstitit | it is evident |
| praestat | praestäre | praestitit | it is better |
| juvat | jüvære | jüvit | it delights |
| appäret | appärère | appäruit | it appears |
| placet | placère | placuit (placitum est) | it pleases |
| accëdit | accëdere | accessit | it is added |
| accidit | accidere | accidit | it happens |
| contingit | contingere | contigit | it happens |
| événit | événire | évênit | it turns out |
| interest | interesse | interfuit | it concerns |

IV. The Passive of Intransitive Verbs; as, —

| ÿtur | lit. it is gone | i.e. some one goes |
| currítur | lit. it is run | i.e. some one runs |
| ventum est | lit. it has been come | i.e. some one has come |
| veniendum est | lit. it must be come | i.e. somebody must come |
| pugnäri potest | lit. it can be fought | i.e. somebody can fight |
PART III.

PARTICLES.

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

ADVERBS.

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

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative and Interrogative</th>
<th>Demonstrative</th>
<th>Indefinite</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ubi, where; where?</td>
<td>hic, here.</td>
<td>alicubi, òsquam, òspiam, somewhere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibi, illíc, istic, there.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quòd, whither; whither?</td>
<td>hác, hither.</td>
<td>alicuòd, to some place.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eò, istic, illùc, thither.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unde, whence; whence?</td>
<td>hinc, hence.</td>
<td>alicundè, from somewhere.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inde, istic, illùc, thence.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quà, where; where?</td>
<td>hác, by this way.</td>
<td>alicuà, by some way.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eà, istic, illùc, by that way.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oum, when.</td>
<td>nunc, now.</td>
<td>alicuàndò, umquàm, sometime, ever.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quandò, when?</td>
<td>tum, tunc, then.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quotièns, as often as; how often?</td>
<td>totièns, so often.</td>
<td>alicuòtièns, some number of times.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quam, as much as; how much?</td>
<td>tam, so much.</td>
<td>alicantum, somewhat.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PREPOSITIONS.

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

\[\begin{array}{llll}
\text{ad, to.} & \text{contra, against.} & \text{post, after.} \\
\text{adversus, against.} & \text{erga, toward.} & \text{praeter, past.} \\
\text{adversum, toward,} & \text{extra, outside.} & \text{prope, near.} \\
\text{against.} & \text{infra, below.} & \text{propter, on account of.} \\
\text{ante, before.} & \text{inter, between.} & \text{secundum, after.} \\
\text{apud, with, near.} & \text{intra, within.} & \text{subter, beneath.} \\
\text{circa, around.} & \text{juxta, near.} & \text{super, over.} \\
\text{circiter, about.} & \text{ob, on account of.} & \text{supra, above.} \\
\text{circaum, around.} & \text{penes, in the hands of.} & \text{trans, across.} \\
\text{cis, this side of.} & \text{per, through.} & \text{ultra, beyond.} \\
\text{citra, this side of.} & \text{pone, behind.} & \text{versus, toward.} \\
\end{array}\]

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

\[\text{æque ad urbem, even to the city.}\]

2. Versus always follows its case; as,—

\[\text{Romam versus, toward Rome.}\]

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

\[\text{ad urbem versus, toward the city.}\]

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

\[\text{Ubii proximæ Rhenum incolunt, the Ubii dwell next to the Rhine; propius castra hostium, nearer the camp of the enemy.}\]

142. The following Prepositions govern the Ablative:—

\[\begin{array}{lll}
\text{a, ab, abs, from, by.} & \text{cum, with.} & \text{præ, in front of, for.} \\
\text{absque, without.} & \text{dœ, from, concerning.} & \text{sine, without.} \\
\text{cœram, in the presence of.} & \text{æ, ex, from, out of.} & \text{præae, before.} \\
\text{} & \text{tenus, up to.} & \\
\end{array}\]

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

2. Æ, ex. Before vowels or h, ex must be used; before consonants, we find sometimes ē, sometimes ex.
Particles

3. *Tenus* regularly follows its case, as *pectoribus tenus*, *up to the breast*. It sometimes governs the Genitive, as *labrorum tenus*, *as far as the lips*.

4. *Cum* is appended to the Pronouns of the First and Second Persons, and to the Reflexive Pronoun; usually also to the Relative and Interrogative. Thus:

- mēcum
- nōbīscum
- quōcum or *cum quō*
- tēcum
- vōbīscum
- *quācum* or *cum quā*
- sēcum
- quibuscum or *cum quibus*

On *quīcum*, see § 89, Footnote 1.

143. Two Prepositions, *in, in, into*, and *sub, under*, govern both the Accusative and the Ablative. With the Accusative they denote *motion*; with the Ablative, *rest*; as, —

*in urbem*, *into the city*; *in urbe*, *in the city*.

1. *Subter* and *super* are also occasionally construed with the Ablative.

144. Relation of Adverbs and Prepositions.

1. Prepositions were originally Adverbs, and many of them still retain their adverbial meaning; as, *post, afterwards*; *ante, previously*; *contra, on the other hand, etc.*

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

- *clam, pridiē*, with the Accusative.
- *procul, simul, palam*, with the Ablative.

3. Anástrophe. A Preposition sometimes follows its case. This is called Anástrophe; as,—

*cf, quōs inter erat, those among whom he was.*

Anastrophe occurs chiefly with dissyllabic prepositions.

Conjunctions and Interjections.

145. 1. Conjunctions are used to connect ideas. For Coördinate Conjunctions, see §§ 341 ff. Subordinate Conjunctions are treated in connection with Subordinate Clauses.

2. Interjections express emotion. Thus:

1. *Surprise*; as, *śn, ecce, ś.*

2. *Joy*; as, *iō, eōe.*


4. *Calling*; as, *heus, eho.*
PART IV.

WORD-FORMATION.

I. DERIVATIVES.

146. Derivatives are formed by appending certain terminations called Suffixes to stems of verbs, nouns, or adjectives.

A. NOUNS.

1. Nouns derived from Verbs.

147. 1. The suffix -tor (-sor), Fem. -trix, denotes the agent; as,—

victor, victrix, victor; dēfensor, defender.

NOTE.—The suffix -tor is occasionally appended to noun stems; as,—

gladiātor, gladiator (from gladius).

2. The suffix -or (originally -ōs) denotes an activity or a condition; as,—

amor, love; timor, fear; dolor, pain.

3. The suffixes -tiō (-siō), Gen. -ōnis, and -tus (-sus), Gen. -ūs, denote an action as in process; as,—

vēnātiō, hunting; obsessiō, blockade; gemitus, sighing; cursus, running.

NOTE.—Rarer endings with the same force are:—

a) -tūra, -sūra; as,—

sepultūra, burial; mēnsūra, measuring.

b) -ium; as,—

gaudium, rejoicing.

c) -īdōs, i.s,—

cupīdōs, desire.
4. The suffixes -men, -mentum, -crum, -trum, -bulum, -culum, denote the means or place of an action; as,—

lūmen (lāc-s-men), light; vocābulum, word;
ornamentum, ornament; documentum, proof;
sepulcrum, grave; araērum, plough;
vehiculum, carriage.

2. Nouns derived from Nouns.

148. 1. Diminutives end in —

-ulus, (-ula, -ulum)
-olus, (-ola, -olum), after a vowel
-culus, (-cula, -culum)
-ellus, (-ella, -ellum)
-illus, (-illa, -illum)

as,—

nīdulus, little nest (nīdus);
vīrgula, wand (vīrga);
oppidulum, little town (oppidum);
flīlius, little son (flīius);
opusculum, little work (opus);
tabella, tablet (tabula);
lapillus, pebble (lapis).

NOTE 1. — It will be observed that in gender the Diminutives follow the gender of the words from which they are derived.

NOTE 2. — The endings -ellus, -illus contain the primitive form of the diminutive suffix, vis., -lo. Thus:—

agellus, field, for ager-lus;
lapillus, pebble, for lapid-lus.

2. The suffix -lum appended to nouns denoting persons designates either a collection of such persons or their function; as,—
collēgium, a corporation, body of colleagues (collēga);
sacerdōtium, priestly function (sacerdōs).

3. The suffixes -ārium, -stum, -īle designate a place where objects are kept or are found in abundance; as,—
columbārium, dove-cote (columba);
olivāstum, olive-orchard (olīva);
ovīle, sheep-fold (ovīs).
4. The suffix -ātus denotes official position or honor; as,—
   cōnsulātus, consulship (cōnsul).

5. The suffix -īna appended to nouns denoting persons designates a
   vocation or the place where it is carried on; as,—
   doctrīna, teaching (doctor, teacher);
   medicōna, the art of healing (medicus, physician);
   sūtrīna, cobbler's shop (sūtor, cobbler).

6. Patronymics are Greek proper names denoting son of . . . ,
   daughter of . . . . They have the following suffixes:—
   a) Masculines: -idēs, -adēs, -idēs; as, Priamidēs, son of
      Priam; Aeneadēs, son of Aeneas; Pēlidēs, son of Peleus.
   b) Feminines: -ēs, -īs, -iās; as, Nērēis, daughter of Nereus;
      Atlantēs, daughter of Atlas; Thaumantias, daughter of
      Thaumas.

3. Nouns derived from Adjectives.

149. The suffixes -tās (-itās), -tūdō (-itūdō), -īs, -iā are used
   for the formation of abstract nouns denoting qualities; as,—
   bonitās, goodness; celeritās, swiftness; magnitūdō, greatness; audā-
   cia, boldness; amicitia, friendship.

B. ADJECTIVES.

1. Adjectives derived from Verbs.

150. 1. The suffixes -bundus and -undus give nearly the force
   of a present participle; as,—
   tremebundus, trembling; jūcundus (juvō), pleasing.

2. The suffixes -āx and -ulus denote an inclination or tendency,
   mostly a faulty one; as,—
   loquāx, loquacious; orēdulus, credulous.

3. The suffix -īdus denotes a state; as,—
   calidus, hot; timidus, timid; cupidus, eager.

4. The suffixes -illis and -billis denote capacity or ability, usually in
   a passive sense; as,—
   fragilīs, fragile (i.e. capable of being broken);
   docilīs, docile.
2. Adjectives derived from Nouns.

a) From Common Nouns.

151. 1. The suffixes -eus and -inus are appended to names of substances or materials; as,—

aureus, of gold; ferreus, of iron; fæginus, of beech.

2. The suffixes -ius, -i/us, -i/us, -ælis, -āris, -ārius, -nus, -ānus, -inus, -ivus, -ensis signify belonging to, connected with; as,—

ōrātorius, oratorical; legiōnarius, legionary;
bellicus, pertaining to war; paternus, paternal;
civīlis, civil; urbānus, of the city;
regālis, regal; marīnus, marine;
cōnsulāris, consular; aestivus, pertaining to summer;
circēnīs, belonging to the circus.

3. The suffixes -eus and -entus denote fullness; as,—

periculōsus, full of danger; glōriōsus, glorious;
dangerous; opulentus, wealthy.

4. The suffix -tus has the force of provided with; as,—

barbātus, bearded; stellātus, set with stars.

b) From Proper Names.

152. 1. Names of persons take the suffixes: -ānus, -i/anus, -i/nus; as,—

Catōniānus, belonging to Cato; Plautīnus, belonging to Plautus.

2. Names of nations take the suffixes -icus, -i/us; as,—

Germānicus, German; Thracius, Thracian.

3. Names of places take the suffixes -ānus, -i/nus, -ensis, -eus, -ius; as,—

Rōmānus, Roman; Athēnīensis, Athenian;
Amerīnus, of America; Smyrnæus, of Smyrna;
Corinthius, Corinthian.

Note. —-ānus and -ensis, appended to names of countries, designate something stationed in the country or connected with it, but not indigenous; as,—

bellum Āfricānum, a war (of Romans with Romans) in Africa.
bellum Hispānīense, a war carried on in Spain.
legiōnēs Gallicānae (Roman) legions stationed in Gaul.
Adjectives. — Verbs.

3. Adjectives derived from Adjectives.

153. Diminutives in -lus sometimes occur; as,—

parvulus, little;
misellus (passer), poor little (sparrow);
pauerculus, needy.

4. Adjectives derived from Adverbs.

154. These end in -ernus, -ternus, -tinus, -tinus; as,—

hodiernus, of to-day (hodiē);
hesternus, of yesterday (herē);
intestinus, internal (intus);
distinimus, long-lasting (diā).

C. VERBS.

1. Verbs derived from Verbs.

155. 1. Inceptives or Inchoatives. These end in -scō, and are formed from Present Stems. They denote the beginning of an action; as,—

labāscō, begin to totter (from labō);
horrēscō, grow rough (from horreō);
tremēscō, begin to tremble (from tremō);
obdormīscō, fall asleep (from dormīō).

2. Frequentatives or Intensives. These denote a repeated or energetic action. They are formed from the Participial Stem, and end in -tō or -aē. Those derived from verbs of the First Conjugation end in -itā (not -ātē, as we should expect). Examples of Frequentatives are—

jactā, toss about, brandish (from jacē, hurl);
cursē, run hither and thither (from currē, run);
voltā, flit about (from volē, fly).

a. Some double Frequentatives occur; as,—
cantētā, sing over and over (cantā);
cursētā, keep running about (cursē);
ventētā, keep coming.

b. agitā, set in motion, is formed from the Present Stem.
Word-Formation.

3. DESIDERATIVES. These denote a desire to do something. They are formed from the Participle Stem, and end in -uriō; as,—

ēsuriō, desire to eat, am hungry (edō);
parturiō, want to bring forth, am in labor (pariō).

2. Verbs derived from Nouns and Adjectives (Denominatives).

156. Denominatives of the First Conjugation are mostly transitive, those of the Second exclusively intransitive. Those of the Third and Fourth Conjugations are partly transitive, partly intransitive. Examples are—

a) From Nouns: —

fraudō, defraud (fraus);
vestīō, clothe (vestis);
fiōreō, bloom (fiōs).

b) From Adjectives: —

liberō, free (liber);
saevīō, be fierce (saevus).

D. ADVERBS.

157. 1. Adverbs derived from verbs are formed from the Participial Stem by means of the suffix -im; as,—

certātim, emulously (certō);
cursim, in haste (currēō);
statim, immediately (stō).

2. Adverbs derived from nouns and adjectives are formed: —

a) With the suffixes -tim (-sim), -ātim; as,—

gradātim, step by step;
paulātim, gradually;

b) With the suffix -tus; as,—

antīquitātus, of old;
rādīcitātus, from the roots.

c) With the suffix -ter; as,—

breviter, briefly.
II. COMPOUNDS.

158. 1. Compounds are formed by the union of simple words. The second member usually contains the *essential meaning* of the compound; the first member expresses some modification of this.

2. Vowel changes often occur in the process of composition. Thus:—

   a. In the second member of compounds. (See § 71.)

   b. The final vowel of the stem of the first member of the compound often appears as *i* where we should expect *ð* or *ā*; sometimes it is dropped altogether, and in case of consonant stems *i* is often inserted; as,—

      signifer, standard-bearer;
      tubicen, trumpeter;
      magnanimus, high-minded;
      matricida, matricide.

159. EXAMPLES OF COMPOUNDS.

  a. Nouns:—

     a) Preposition + Noun; as,—

        dē-decus, disgrace;
        pro-avus, great-grandfather.

     b) Noun + Verb Stem; as,—

        agri-cola, farmer;
        frātri-ōlda, fratricide.

  2. Adjectives:—

     a) Preposition + Adjective (or Noun); as,—

        per-magnus, very great;
        sub-obscūrus, rather obscure;
        ā-mēns, frantic.

     b) Adjective + Noun; as,—

        magn-anīmus, great-hearted;
        celeri-pēs, swift-footed.

     c) Noun + Verb Stem; as,—

        partī-ceps, sharing;
        morti-fer, death-dealing.
3. Verbs: —
The second member is always a verb. The first may be —
   a) A Noun; as,—
      aed-i-tionem, build.
   b) An Adjective; as,—
      ampli-ficatio, enlarge.
   c) An Adverb; as,—
      male-dimos, rail at.
   d) Another Verb; as,—
      cale-facio, make warm.
   e) A Preposition; as,—
      ab-jungo, detach;
      re-fero, bring back;
      dis-cerno, distinguish;
      ex-specto, await.

Note. — Here belong the so-called inseparable prepositions: —
   amb- (amb-), around;
   dis- (dir-, dli-), apart, asunder;
   por-, forward;
   red- (re-), back;
   sed- (s-, s-), apart from;
   vē, without.

4. Adverbs: —
These are of various types; as,—
   anteā, before;
   illicō (in locō), on the spot;
   imprīmis, especially;
   obviām, in the way.
PART V.

SYNTAX.

160. Syntax treats of the use of words in sentences.

CHAPTER I.—Sentences.

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

161. Sentences may be classified as follows:

1. DECLARATIVE, which state something; as,—
   puer scribit, the boy is writing.

2. INTERROGATIVE, which ask a question; as,—
   quid puer scribit, what is the boy writing?

3. EXCLAMATORY, which are in the form of an exclamation; as,—
   quot libros scribit, how many books he writes!

4. IMPERATIVE, which express a command or an admonition; as,—
   scribe, write!

FORM OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

162. Questions may be either Word-Questions or Sentence-Questions.

1. Word-Questions. These are introduced by the various interrogative pronouns and adverbs; such as—quis, qui, quālis, quantus, quot, quotiens, quō, quā, etc. Thus:—
   quis venit, who comes?
   quam diē manēbit, how long will he stay?
2. Sentence-Questions. These are introduced —
   a) By nonne implying the answer ‘yes’; as, —
      nonne vidēs, do you not see?
   b) By num implying the answer ‘no’; as, —
      num exspectās, do you expect? (i.e. you don’t expect, do you?)
   c) By the enclitic -ne, appended to the emphatic word (which
      usually stands first), and simply asking for information;
      as,—
      vidēsne, do you see?
      A question introduced by -ne may receive a special implication
      from the context; as,—
      sēnsistīne, did you not perceive?
   d) Sometimes by no special word, particularly in expressions of
      surprise or indignation; as,—
      tū in jūdicium cōnspectum venire audēs, do you dare to
      come into the presence of the judges?

3. Rhetorical Questions. These are questions merely in
   form, being employed to express an emphatic assertion;
   as, quis dubitat, who doubts? (= no one doubts).

4. Double Questions. Double Questions are introduced
   by the following particles: —
   utrum . . . an;
   -ne . . . . an;
   — — — . . . an.

   If the second member is negative, annōn (less often neone) is used.

   Examples: —
   utrum honestum est an turpe,
   honestumne est an turpe,
   honestum est an turpe,
   suntne dī annōn, are there gods or not?

   a. By an ellipsis of the first member, an sometimes stands alone.
      Its force depends upon the context; as,—
      Ā rēbus gerendīs abstrahit senectūs. Quibus? An
      eīs quae juventūtē geruntur et vīribus? Old age (it is
      alleged) withdraws men from active pursuits. From what
      pursuits? Is it not merely from those which are carried on
      by the strength of youth?
5. Answers.
   a. The answer Yes is expressed by ita, etiam, vērō, sānē, or by repetition of the verb; as,—
   "visne locum mūtēmus?" ‘sānē.’ ‘Shall we change the place?’ ‘Certainly.’
   "estisne vōs lēgātī?" ‘sumus.’ ‘Are you envoys?’ ‘Yes.’

   b. The answer No is expressed by nōn, minimē, minimē vērō, or by repeating the verb with a negative; as,—
   "jam ea praeteriit?" ‘nōn.’ ‘Has it passed?’ ‘No.’
   "estne frāter intus?" ‘nōn est.’ ‘Is your brother within?’ ‘No.’

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

163. The two essential parts of a sentence are the Subject and Predicate.

   The Subject is that concerning which something is said, asked, etc. The Predicate is that which is said, asked, etc., concerning the Subject.

SIMPLE AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

164. Sentences containing but one Subject and one Predicate are called Simple Sentences, those containing more are called Compound Sentences. Thus puer librōs legit, the boy reads books, is a Simple Sentence; but puer librōs legit et epistulās sorībit, the boy reads books and writes letters, is a Compound Sentence. The different members of a Compound Sentence are calledClauses.

165. Coördinate and Subordinate Clauses. Clauses which stand upon an equality are called Coördinate; a Clause dependent upon another is called Subordinate. Thus in puer librōs legit et epistulās sorībit the two clauses are Coördinate; but in puer librōs legit quōs pater sorībit, the boy reads the books which his father writes, the second clause is Subordinate to the first.
CHAPTER II.—Syntax of Nouns.

SUBJECT.

166. The Subject of a Finite Verb (i.e. any form of the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative) is in the Nominative Case.

1. The Subject may be —
   a) A Noun or Pronoun; as, —
      puer scribit, the boy writes;
      hic scribit, this man writes.
   b) An Infinitive; as, —
      decorum est pro patria mori, to die for one's country is a noble thing.
   c) A Clause; as, —
      opportune accidit quod venisti, it happened opportunely that you arrived.

2. A Personal Pronoun as Subject is usually implied in the Verb, and is not separately expressed; as, —
   scribo, I write; vident, he sees.
   a. But for the purpose of emphasis or contrast the Pronoun is expressed; as, —
      ego scribo et tu legis, I write, and you read.

3. The verb is sometimes omitted when it can be easily supplied from the context, especially the auxiliary sum; as, —
   recte ille (sc. facit), he does rightly; oänsul profectus (sc. est), the consul set out.

PREDICATE NOUNS.

167. A PREDICATE NOUN is one connected with the Subject by some form of the verb sum or a similar verb.

168. A Predicate Noun agrees with its Subject in Case;¹ as, —

¹ For the Predicate Genitive see §§ 198, 3; 203, 5.
Cicero ὁ ὁράτορ fuit, Cicero was an orator; 
Numa creatus est rex, Numa was elected king.

1. When possible the Predicate Noun usually agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as, —

philosophia est vitae magistra, philosophy is the guide of life.

2. Besides sum the verbs most frequently accompanied by a Predicate Noun are —

a) fiō, ἐφαίτο, existō; maneō; videor; as, —

Croesus nōn semper mānsit rex, Croesus did not always remain king.

b) Passive verbs of making, calling, regarding, etc.; as, creō, appello, habeo; as, —

Rōmulus rex appellatus est, Romulus was called king; habitus est deus, he was regarded as a god.

**APPPOSITIVES.**

169. 1. An Appositive is a Noun explaining or defining another Noun denoting the same person or thing; as, —

Cicero cōnsul, Cicero, the Consul; 
urbs Rōma, the city Rome.

2. An Appositive agrees with its Subject in Case; as, —

opera Cicerōnis ὁράτορis, the works of Cicero, the orator; 
apud Hārodotum, patrem historiae, in the works of Herodotus, the father of history.

3. When possible the Appositive agrees with its Subject in Gender also; as, —

asentātīō adjātrīx vītiōrum, flattery, the promoter of evils.

4. A Locative may take in Apposition the Ablative of urbs or oppidum, with or without a preposition; as, —

Corintī, urbe praeclārā, or in urbe praeclārā, at Corinth, a famous city.

5. **PARTITIVE APPOSITION.** A Noun denoting a whole is frequently followed by an Appositive denoting a part; as, —

mīlitēs, fortissimus quisque, hostibus restitūrunt, the soldiers, all the bravest of them, resisted the enemy.
THE CASES.

THE NOMINATIVE.

170. The Nominative is confined to its use as Subject, Appositive, or Predicate Noun, as already explained. See §§ 166–169.

THE VOCATIVE.

171. The Vocative is the Case of direct address; as,—

orādite mihi, jūdīcēs, believe me, judges.

1. By a species of attraction, the Nominative is occasionally used for the Vocative, especially in poetry and formal prose; as, audi tū, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban people!

2. Similarly the Appositive of a Vocative may, in poetry, stand in the Nominative; as, nāte, mea magna potentiā sōlus, O son, alone the source of my great power.

THE ACCUSATIVE.

172. The Accusative is the Case of the Direct Object.

173. The Direct Object may express either of the two following relations: —

A. The PERSON OR THING AFFECTED by the action; as,—

ōnsulem interfēcit, he slew the consul;

legō librum, I read the book.

B. The RESULT PRODUCED by the action; as,—

librum scripsī, I wrote a book (i.e. produced one);

templum struit, he constructs a temple.

174. Verbs that admit a Direct Object of either of these two types are TRANSITIVE VERBS.

a. Verbs that regularly take a Direct Object are sometimes used without it. They are then said to be employed absolutely; as,—

rūmor est meum gnātum amāre, it is rumored that my son is in love.
The Accusative.

Accusative of the Person or Thing Affected.

175. 1. This is the most frequent use of the Accusative; as in —

parentēs amāmus, we love our parents;
mare aspicit, he gazes at the sea.

2. The following classes of Verbs taking an Accusative of this kind are worthy of note: —

a) Many Intransitive Verbs, when compounded with a Preposition, become Transitive. Thus: —

1) Compounds of circum, praeter, trāns; as, —
hostēs circumstārē, to surround the enemy;
urbem praeterīre, to pass by the city;
mūrōs trānsceedere, to climb over the walls.

2) Less frequently, compounds of ad, per, in, sub; as, —
adīre urbem, to visit the city;
peragrāre Italiam, to travel through Italy;
inīre magistrātum, to take office;
subīre perficulum, to undergo danger.

b) Many Verbs expressing emotions, regularly Intransitive, have also a Transitive use; as, —
queror fātum, I lament my fate;
doleō ejus mortem, I grieve at his death;
rīdeo tuam stultītiam, I laugh at your folly.
So also lūgēō, maereō, mourn; gemō, bemoan; horreō, shudder, and others.

c) The impersonals decet, it becomes; dēdecet, it is unbecoming; juvat, it pleases, take the Accusative of the Person Affected; as, —
mē decet haec dīcere, it becomes me to say this.

d) In poetry many Passive Verbs, in imitation of Greek usage, are employed as Middles (§ 256, 1; 2), and take the Accusative as Object; as, —
galeam induitur, he puts on his helmet;
oincutus tempora hederā, having bound his temples with ivy;
 nódo sinūs collēsota, having gathered her dress in a knot.
Syntax.

Accusative of the Result Produced.

176. 1. The ordinary type of this Accusative is seen in such expressions as—

librum scribo, I write a book;
domum aedifico, I build a house.

2. Many Verbs usually Intransitive take a Neuter Pronoun, or Adjective, as an Accusative of Result. Thus:—

a) A Neuter Pronoun; as,—
haec gemēbat, he made these moans;
ilīd glōrior, I make this boast;
eadem peccat, he makes the same mistakes.

b) A Neuter Adjective,—particularly Adjectives of number or amount,—multum, multa, paucha, etc.; also nihil; as,—
multa dubitō, I have many doubts;
pauca studet, he has few interests;
multum valet, he has great strength;
nihil prōgreditur, he makes no progress.

Note.—In poetry other Adjectives are freely used in this construction; as,—
minitantem vāna, making vain threats;
acerba tuēns, giving a fierce look;
dulce loquentem, sweetly talking.

3. The adverbial use of several Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives grows out of this Accusative; as,—
multum sunt in vēnātiōne, they are much engaged in hunting.

a. So also plūrimum, very greatly; plūrumque, generally;
aliquid, somewhat; quid, why? nihil, not at all; etc.

4. Sometimes an Intransitive Verb takes an Accusative of Result which is of kindred etymology with the Verb. This is called a Cognate Accusative, and is usually modified by an Adjective; as,—

sempiternam servītūtem serviat, let him serve an everlasting slavery;
vītam dūram vīxi, I have lived a hard life.

a. Sometimes the Cognate Accusative is not of kindred etymology, but merely of kindred meaning; as,—
stadium currīt, he runs a race;
Olympia vincit, he wins an Olympic victory.
The Accusative.

5. The Accusative of Result occurs also after Verbs of tasting and smelling; as,—

piscis mare sapit, the fish tastes of the sea;
drātiōnēs antiquitātem redolent, the speeches smack of the past.

Two Accusatives—Direct Object and Predicate Accusative.

177. i. Many Verbs of Making, Choosing, Calling, Showing, and the like, take two Accusatives, one of the Person or Thing Affected, the other a Predicate Accusative; as,—

mē hērēdem fēcit, he made me heir.

Here mē is Direct Object, hērēdem Predicate Accusative.
So also—

eum jūdīcem oēpēre, they took him as judge;
urbem Rōmam vocāvit, he called the city Rome;
sē virum praestitit, he showed himself a man.

2. The Predicate Accusative may be an Adjective as well as a Noun; as,—

hominēs caecōs reddit cupidītās, covetousness renders men blind;
Apollo Socratem sapientissimum jūdīcāvit, Apollo adjudged Socrates the wisest man.

a. Some Verbs, as reddō, usually admit only an Adjective as the Predicate Accusative.

3. In the Passive the Direct Object becomes the Subject, and the Predicate Accusative becomes Predicate Nominative (§ 168. 2. b); as,—

urbes Rōma vocāta est, the city was called Rome.

a. Not all Verbs admit the Passive construction; reddō and efficiō, for example, never take it.

Two Accusatives—Person and Thing.

178. i. Some Verbs take two Accusatives, one of the Person Affected, the other of the Result Produced. Thus:—

a) Verbs of requesting and demanding, as,—

ōtium diūvōs rogat, he asks the gods for rest;
mē duās drātiōnēs postulās, you demand two speeches of me.
So also ὁριοῦμαι, posco, reposco, exposco, flāgitō, though some of these prefer the Ablative with ab to the Accusative of the Person; as,—

οπεμ ἄ τῷ posco, I demand aid of you.

b) Verbs of teaching (doceō and its compounds); as,—

τῷ litterās doceō, I teach you your letters.

c) Verbs of inquiring; as,—

τῷ haec rogō, I ask you this;

τῷ sententiam rogō, I ask you your opinion.

d) Several Special Verbs; viz. moneō, admoneō, commoneō, oığō, accūsās, arguō, and a few others. These admit only a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective as Accusative of the Thing; as,—

τῷ haec moneō, I give you this advice;

μή id accūsās, you bring this accusation against me;

id oığit nōs nātūra, nature compels us (to) this.

e) One Verb of concealing, cēlō; as,—

nōn τῷ cēlāvi sermōnem, I have not concealed the conversation from you.

2. In the Passive construction the Accusative of the Person becomes the Subject, and the Accusative of the Thing is retained; as,—

οmnēs artēs ēdocēt est, he was taught all accomplishments;

rogātus sum sententiam, I was asked my opinion;

aliquid admonēmur, we are given some admonition.

a. Only a few Verbs admit the Passive construction.

Two Accusatives with Compounds.

179. 1. Transitive compounds of trāns may take two Accusatives, one dependent upon the Verb, the other upon the Preposition; as,—

militēs flāmen trādūcit, he leads his soldiers across the river.

2. With other compounds this construction is rare.

3. In the Passive the Accusative dependent upon the preposition is retained; as,—

militēs flāmen trādūcebuntur, the soldiers were led across the river.
The Accusative.

Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative.

180. i. The Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative denotes the part to which an action or quality refers; as,—

tremít arátus, literally, he trembles as to his limbs, i.e. his limbs tremble;
núdá génta, lit. bare as to the knee, i.e. with knee bare;
manús révínctus, lit. tied as to the hands, i.e. with hands tied.

a. Note that this construction —
   a) Is borrowed from the Greek.
   b) Is chiefly confined to poetry.
   c) Usually refers to a part of the body.
   d) Is used with Adjectives as well as Verbs.

Accusative of Time and Space.

181. i. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are denoted by the Accusative; as,—

quadrágentā annós víxit, he lived forty years;
hic lócus passús sescentōs aberat, this place was six hundred paces away.
aborès quinquágentā pedés altae, trees fifty feet high.
abhinc septem annós, seven years ago.

2. Emphasis is sometimes added by using the Preposition per; as,

per bienníum labóránvi, I toiled throughout two years.

Accusative of Limit of Motion.

182. i. The Accusative of Limit of Motion is used —

a) With names of Towns, Small Islands, and Peninsulas; as,—

Rómag véní, I came to Rome;
Athénás profíciscitur, he sets out for Athens;
Délum pervéní, I arrived at Delos.

b) With domum, domós, rús; as,—

domum révértitur, he returns home;
rús íbó, I shall go to the country.

Note. —When domus means house (i.e. building), it takes a preposition; as,—

in domum veterem remigráre, to move back to an old house.
2. Other designations of place than those above mentioned require a Preposition to denote Limit of Motion; as,—

ad Italiam vēni, he came to Italy.

a. The Preposition is also customary with the Accusatives urbem or oppidum when they stand in apposition with the name of a town; as,—

Cirtam in urbem, to the city Cirta;
Genavam ad oppidum, to the town Geneva.

b. The name of a town denoting limit of motion may be combined with the name of a country or other word dependent upon a preposition; as,—

Thūriōs in Italiam per vectus, carried to Thurii in Italy;
cum Acēn ad exercitum vēniisset, when he had come to the army at Ace.

3. To denote toward, to the vicinity of, in the vicinity of, ad is used; as,—

ad Tarentum vēni, I came to the vicinity of Tarentum;
ad Cannās pugna facta est, a battle was fought near Cannae.

4. In poetry the Accusative of any noun denoting a place may be used without a preposition to express the limit of motion; as,—

Italiam vēni, he came to Italy.

5. The goal notion seems to represent the original function of the Accusative Case. Traces of this primitive force are recognizable in the phrase Inifiōs ire, to deny (lit. to go to a denial), and a few other similar expressions.

Accusative in Exclamations.

183. The Accusative, generally modified by an Adjective, is used in Exclamations; as,—

mē miserum, ah, wretched me!
Ō fallācem spem, oh, deceptive hope!

Accusative as Subject of the Infinitive.

184. The Subject of the Infinitive is put in the Accusative; as,—

videō hominem abire, I see that the man is going away.
Other Uses of the Accusative.

185. Here belong —

1. Some Accusatives which were originally Appositives; *vis.* —

   *id genus,* of that kind; as, *hominēs id genus,* men of that kind
   (originally *hominēs,* *id genus hominum,* men, that kind
   of men);

   *virile secus,* muliebre secus, of the male sex, of the female sex;
   meam vicem, tuam vicem, etc., for my part, etc.;
   bonam partem, magnam partem, in large part;
   maximam partem, for the most part.

2. Some phrases of doubtful origin; as,—

   *id temporis,* at that time;     *quod si,* but if;
   *id aetātis,* at that time;      *cētera,* in other respects.

THE DATIVE.

186. The Dative case in general expresses relations which are designated in English by the prepositions *to* and *for.*

Dative of Indirect Object.

187. The commonest use of the Dative is to denote the person *to whom* something is *given,* *said,* or *done.* Thus:—

I. With transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative; as,—

   *hanc pecūniam mihi dat,* he gives me this money;
   *haec nōbīs dīxit,* he said this to us.

   a. Some verbs which take this construction (particularly *dōnō* and *circumdō*) admit also the Accusative of the person along with the Ablative of the thing. Thus:—

   Either *Themistoclis mānera dōnāvit,* he presented gifts to
   Themistocles, or

   *Themistoelem māneribus dōnāvit,* he presented Themis-
   tocles with gifts;

   *urbi mūrōs circumdat,* he builds walls around the city, or
   *urbem mūrōs circumdat,* he surrounds the city with walls.
II. With many intransitive verbs; as,—

nullif labòri cédit, he yields to no labor.

a. Here belong many verbs signifying favor,¹ help, injure, please, displease, trust, distrust, command, obey, serve, resist, indulge, spare, pardon, envy, threaten, be angry, believe, persuade, and the like; as,—

Caesar populāribus favet, Caesar favors (i.e. is favorable to) the popular party;
amΙΙs cōnfidō, I trust (to) my friends;
Orgetorix Helvētīs persuāsit. Orgetorix persuaded (made it acceptable to) the Helvetians;
bonīs nocet qui malle paroit, he injures (does harm to) the good, who spares the bad.

NOTE. — It is to be borne in mind that these verbs do not take the Dative by virtue of their apparent English equivalence, but simply because they are intransitive, and adapted to an indirect object. Some verbs of the same apparent English equivalence are transitive and govern the Accusative; as, juvō, laedō, dēlectō. Thus: audentēs deus juvāt, God helps the bold; nōminem laesit, he injured no one.

b. Verbs of this class are used in the passive only impersonally; as,—

tibi parcitur, you are spared;
mihi persuādētur, I am being persuaded;
eī invidētur, he is envied.

c. Some of the foregoing verbs admit also a Direct Object in connection with the Dative; as,—

mihi mortem mīnitātur, he threatens me with death (threatens death to me).

III. With many verbs compounded with the prepositions: ad, ante, cīrōrum, com.,² in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super.

These verbs fall into two main classes,—

1. Many simple verbs which cannot take a Dative of the indirect object become capable of doing so when compounded with a preposition; as,—

afflictīs succurrít, he helps the afflicted;
exercitūs præfuit, he was in command of the army;
intersum cōnsilīs, I share in the deliberations.

¹ Many such verbs were originally intransitive in English also, and once governed the Dative. ² This was the original form of the preposition cum.
2. Many transitive verbs which take only a direct object become capable, when compounded, of taking a Dative also as indirect object; as,—

pecūniae pudorem antepōnit, he puts honor before money;
incere spem amītos, to inspire hope in one's friends;
Labīnūm exercītūr praeācit, he put Labienus in charge of the army.

Dative of Reference.

188. 1. The Dative of Reference denotes the person to whom a statement refers, of whom it is true, or to whom it is of interest; as,—

mihi ante oculōs versāris, you hover before my eyes (lit. hover before the eyes to me);
illī sévirātās amōrem nōn dēminuit, in his case severity did not diminish love (lit. to him severity did not diminish);
interclādere hostibus commeātum, to cut off the supplies of the enemy.

a. Note the phrase aliō ērō interdicere aquā et ē ignī, to interdict one from fire and water.

NOTE. — The Dative of Reference, unlike the Dative of Indirect Object, does not modify the verb, but rather the sentence as a whole. It is often used where, according to the English idiom, we should expect a Genitive; so in the first and third of the above examples.

2. Special varieties of the Dative of Reference are—

a) Dative of the Local Standpoint. This is regularly a participle; as,—

oppidum primum Thessaliæ venientibus ab Ēpīrō, the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (lit. to those coming from Epirus).

b) Ethical Dative. This name is given to those Dative constructions of the personal pronouns in which the connection of the Dative with the rest of the sentence is of the very slightest sort; as,—

tū mihi iātus audāciām dēfendis? tell me, do you defend that man's audacity?
quid mihi Celsus agit? what is my Celsus doing?
quid sībi vult? what does he mean? (lit. wish for himself?)
Syntax.

c) Dative of Person Judging; as,—

erit ille mihi semper deus, he will always be a god to me
(i.e. in my opinion);
quae ista servitūs tam clārō homīni, how can that be
slavery to so illustrious a man (i.e. to his mind)!

d) Dative of Separation. Some verbs of taking away,
especially compounds of ab, dē, ex, ad, govern a Dative of
the person, less often of the thing; as,—
honōrem dētrāxērunt homīni, they took away the honor
from the man;
Caesar rēgī tetrarchiam sripuit, Caesar took the tetrarchy
away from the king;
śiliqī scintillam excūdīt, he struck a spark from the flint.

Dative of Agency.

189. The Dative is used to denote agency —

1. Regularly with the Gerundive; as, —

haec nōbīs agenda sunt, these things must be done by us;
mihi eundum est, I must go (lit. it must be gone by me).

a. To avoid ambiguity, & with the Ablative is sometimes used with the
Gerundive; as, —

hostibus & nōbīs parcendum est, the enemy must be spared by us.

2. Much less frequently with the compound tenses of the passive
voice and the perfect passive participle; as, —

disputātiō quae mihi nūper habita est, the discussion which was
recently conducted by me.

3. Rarely with the uncompounded tenses of the passive; as, —
honesta bonis viris quaeruntur, noble ends are sought by good men.

Dative of Possession.

190. The Dative of Possession occurs with the verb esse
in such expressions as: —

mihi est liber, I have a book;
mihi nōmen est Mārcus, I have the name Marcus.

1. But with nōmen est the name is more commonly attracted into
the Dative; as, mihi Māroō nōmen est.
The Dative.

Dative of Purpose or Tendency.

191. The Dative of Purpose or Tendency designates the end toward which an action is directed or the direction in which it tends. It is used —

1. Unaccompanied by another Dative; as,—
castris locum déligere, to choose a place for a camp;
legiónes praesidió relinquere, to leave the legions as a guard (lit. for a guard);
receptuf canere, to sound the signal for a retreat.

2. Much more frequently in connection with another Dative of the person: —
   a) Especially with some form of esse; as,—
futūnae tuae mihi curae sunt, your fortunes are a care to me (lit. for a care);
nóbis sunt odio, they are an object of hatred to us;
oui bonō? to whom is it of advantage?

   b) With other verbs; as, —
hōs tibi mūnerī misit, he has sent these to you for a present;
Pausaniās Atticēs vēnit auxiliō, Pausanias came to the aid of the Athenians (lit. to the Athenians for aid).

3. In connection with the Gerundive; as, —
decemvirī légibus scriptūnda, decemvirs for codifying the laws;
mē gerendō bellō ducem creāvere, me they have made leader for carrying on the war.

NOTT. — This construction with the gerundive is not common till Livy.

Dative with Adjectives.

192. The use of the Dative with Adjectives corresponds very closely to its use with verbs. Thus: —

1. Corresponding to the Dative of Indir.ect Object it occurs with adjectives signifying: friendly, unfriendly, similar, dissimilar, equal, near, related to, etc.; as, —
mihi inimicus, hostile to me;
sunt proximi Germānīs, they are next to the Germans;
noxiae poena pār estō, let the penalty be equal to the damage.
Syntax.

a. For propior and proximus with the Accusative, see § 141, 3.

2. Corresponding to the Dative of Purpose, the Dative occurs with adjectives signifying: suitable, adapted, fit; as,—
   castrīs idōneus locus, a place fit for a camp;
   apta diēs sacrificiō, a day suitable for a sacrifice.

Note. — Adjectives of this last class often take the Accusative with ad.

Dative of Direction.

193. In the poets the Dative is occasionally used to denote the direction of motion; as,—
   it clāmor caelō, the shout goes heavenward;
   cinerēs rīvō fluentī jace, cast the ashes toward the flowing stream.

1. By an extension of this construction the poets sometimes use the Dative to denote the limit of motion; as,—
   dum Latiō deōs Inferret, till he should bring his gods to Latium.

THE GENITIVE.

194. The Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.

195. With Nouns the Genitive is the case which defines the meaning of the limited noun more closely. This relation is generally indicated in English by the preposition of. There are the following varieties of the Genitive with Nouns: —

   Genitive of Origin,          Objective Genitive,
   Genitive of Material,       Genitive of the Whole,
   Genitive of Possession,     Appositional Genitive,
   Subjective Genitive,        Genitive of Quality.

196. Genitive of Origin; as,—
   Mārci filius, the son of Marcus.

197. Genitive of Material; as,—
   talentum aurī, a talent of gold;
   acervus frūmenti, a pile of grain.
198. Genitive of Possession or Ownership; as,—

\[ \text{domus Cicerónis, Cicero's house.} \]

1. Here belongs the Genitive with causā and grātiā. The Genitive always precedes; as,—

\[ \text{hominum causā, for the sake of men; meōrum amicoūrum grātiā, for the sake of my friends.} \]

2. Instar (lit. image) also takes the Possessive Genitive; as,—

\[ \text{equus instar montis, a horse as large as a mountain.} \]

3. The Possessive Genitive is often used predicatively, especially with esse and fieri; as,—

\[ \text{domus est rēgis, the house is the king's; stultī est in errore manēre, it is (the part) of a fool to remain in error; dē bellō jīdiciūm imperātoris est, nōn mīlitum, the decision concerning war belongs to the general, not to the soldiers.} \]

199. Subjective Genitive. This denotes the person who makes or produces something or who has a feeling; as,—

\[ \text{dicta Platōnis, the utterances of Plato; timōrēs līberōrum, the fears of the children.} \]

200. Objective Genitive. This denotes the object of an action or feeling; as,—

\[ \text{metus deōrum, the fear of the gods; amor lībertātīs, love of liberty; cōnsuētūdō bonōrum hominum, intercourse with good men.} \]

1. This relation is often expressed by means of prepositions; as,—

\[ \text{amor ergā parentēs, love toward one's parents.} \]

201. Genitive of the Whole. This designates the whole of which a part is taken. It is used—

1. With Nouns, Pronouns, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Ordinal Numerals; as,—

\[ \text{magna pars hominum, a great part of mankind; duo mīlia peditum, two thousand foot-soldiers; quis mortāliūm, who of mortals? major frātrum, the elder of the brothers; gēns maxima Germānōrum, the largest tribe of the Germans; prīmus omnium, the first of all.} \]
Syntax.

a. Yet instead of the Genitive of the Whole we often find ex or dē with the Ablative, regularly so with Cardinal numbers and quidam; as,—
   fidēlisimus dē servis, the most trusty of the slaves;
   quidam ex amicis, certain of his friends;
   ëius ex militibus, one of the soldiers.

b. In English we often use of where there is no relation of whole to part. In such cases the Latin is more exact, and does not use the Genitive; as,—
   quot vōs estis, how many of you are there?
   trecenti conjurāvimus, three hundred of us have conspired (i.e. we, three hundred in number).

2. The Genitive of the Whole is used also with the Nominative or Accusative Singular Neuter of Pronouns, or of Adjectives used substantively; also with the Adverbs parum, satis, and partim when used substantively; as,—
   quid cōnsilium, what purpose?
   tantum cibi, so much food;
   plūs auctoritātis, more authority;
   minus labōris, less labor;
   satis pecūniae, enough money;
   parum industriae, too little industry.

a. An Adjective of the second declension used substantively may be employed as a Genitive of the Whole; as, nīhil boni, nothing good.

b. But Adjectives of the third declension agree directly with the noun they limit; as, nīhil dulcius, nothing sweeter.

3. Occasionally we find the Genitive of the Whole dependent upon Adverbs of place; as,—
   ubi terrārum? ubi gēntium? where in the world?

a. By an extension of this usage the Genitive sometimes occurs in dependence upon prīdē and postrīdē, but only in the phrases prīdē ejus diēi, on the day before that; postrīdē ejus diēi, on the day after that.

202. Appositional Genitive. The Genitive sometimes has the force of an appositive; as,—
   nōmen rēgīs, the name of king;
   poena mortis, the penalty of death;
   ars scribendi, the art of writing.

203. Genitive of Quality: The Genitive modified by an Adjective is used to denote quality. This construction presents several varieties. Thus it is used—
The Genitive.

1. To denote some internal or permanent characteristic of a person or thing; as,—

vir magnae virtūtis, a man of great virtue;
ratīōnes ejus modi, considerations of that sort.

a. Only a limited number of Adjectives occur in this construction, chiefly magnus, maximus, summus, tantus, along with ejus.

2. To denote measure (breadth, length, etc.); as,—

fossa quīndecim pedum, a trench fifteen feet wide (or deep);
exsilium decem annōrum, an exile of ten years.

3. By omission of pretī (price), or some kindred word, tantī, quantī, parvī, magnī, minōris, minimī, plūrimī, maximī are used predicatively to denote indefinite value; as,—
nūlla studia tantī sunt, no studies are of so much value;
magnī opera ejus existimāta est, his assistance was highly esteemed.

a. Plūris (not strictly an adjective) follows the same analogy.

4. By an extension of the notion of value, quantī, tantī, plūris, and minōris are also used with verbs of buying and selling, to denote indefinite price; as,—

quantī aedēs ēmīstī, at how high a price did you purchase the house?

5. Any of the above varieties of the Genitive of Quality may be used predicatively; as,—
tantae mōlis erat Rōmānam condere gentem, of so great difficulty was it to found the Roman race.

GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

204. The Genitive is used with many Adjectives, to limit the extent of their application. Thus:—

1. With Adjectives signifying desire, knowledge, familiarity, memory, participation, power, fulness, and their opposites; as,—

studiosus discendi, desirous of learning;
peritus bellī, skilled in war;
insuētus labōris, unused to toil;
immemor mandātī tui, unmindful of your commission;
plēna perfidūrum est vīta, life is full of dangers.

a. Some participes used adjectively also take the Genitive; as,—
diligēns vēritātis, fond of truth;
amāns patriae, devoted to one's country.
2. Sometimes with *proprius* and *commānis*; as,—

*Virī propria est fortitūdō*, bravery is characteristic of a man.

*Memoria est commānis omnium artium*, memory is common to all professions.

*a. proprius* and *commānis* are also construed with the Dative.

3. With *similis* the Genitive is the commoner construction in Cicero, when the reference is to living objects; as,—

*Filius patris similīmus est*, the son is exactly like his father.

*Meī similis, like me*; *vestrī similis, like you*.

When the reference is to things, both Genitive and Dative occur; as,—

*mors somnō* (or *somnī*) *similis est*, death is like sleep.

4. In the poets and later prose writers the use of the Genitive with Adjectives is extended far beyond earlier limits; as, *attrōx animī*, fierce of temper; *incertus consili*, undecided in purpose.

**GENITIVE WITH VERBS.**

205. The Genitive is used with the following classes of Verbs:—

*Meminī, Reminīscor, Oblivīscor.*

206. 1. **WHEN REFERRING TO PERSONS**—

*a. meminī* always takes the Genitive of personal or reflexive pronouns; as,—

*Meī meminérīs, remember me!*

*Nostrī meminit, he remembers us.*

With other words denoting persons *meminī* takes the Accusative, rarely the Genitive; as,—

*Sullam meminī, I recall Sulla.*

*Vivōrum meminī, I remember the living.*

*b. oblivīscor* regularly takes the Genitive; as,—

*Epicūrī nōn licet oblivīscī, we mustn’t forget Epicurus.*

2. **WHEN REFERRING TO THINGS**, *meminī, reminīscor, oblivīscor* take sometimes the Genitive, sometimes the Accusative, without difference of meaning; as,—

*Animus praeteritōrum meminit, the mind remembers the past;*

*Meministīne nōmina, do you remember the names?*

*Reminiscere veteris incommodī, remember the former disaster;*

*Reminīscōns aecerbitātem, remembering the severity.*
The Genitive.

a. But neuter pronouns, and adjectives used substantively, regularly stand in the Accusative; as,—

haec memini, I remember this;
multa reminiscor, I remember many things.

3. The phrase mihi (tibi, etc.) in mentem venit, following the analogy of memini, takes the Genitive; as,—
civium mihi in mentem venit, I remember the citizens.

Admoneō, Commoneō, Commonefaciō.

207. These verbs, in addition to an Accusative of the person, occasionally take a Genitive of the thing; as,—
tō admoneō amicitiae nostrae, I remind you of our friendship.

a. But more frequently (in Cicero almost invariably) these verbs take dē with the Ablative; as,—

dē pecúniā mē admonēs, you remind me of the money.

b. A neuter pronoun or adjective used substantively regularly stands in the Accusative (178. 1. d); as,—
tō hōc admoneō, I give you this warning.

Verbs of Judicial Action.

208. 1. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting take the Genitive of the charge; as,—

mē furtī accusat, he accuses me of theft;
Verrem avaritiae coarguit, he convicts Verres of avarice;
impietātis absolūtus est, he was acquitted of blasphemy.

2. Verbs of Condemning take —

a. The Genitive of the charge; as,—

pecūniāe publicae damnātus, condemned (on the charge) of embezzlement (lit. public money);
capitās damnātus, condemned on a capital charge (lit. on a charge involving his head).

b. The Ablative of the penalty; as,—
capite damnātus est, he was condemned to death;
mīlle nummīs damnātus est, he was condemned (to pay) a thousand sesterces (lit. by a thousand sesterces, Abl. of Means).
3. Note the phrases:—

vōtī damnātus, vōtī reus, having attained one's prayer (lit. condemned on the score of one's vow);
dē vi, (accused, convicted, etc.) of assault;
inter sicāriōs, (accused, convicted, etc.) of murder.

**Genitive with Impersonal Verbs.**

209. 1. The Impersonals pudet, paenitet, miseret, taedet, pīget take the Accusative of the person affected, along with the Genitive of the person or thing toward whom the feeling is directed; as,—

pudet mē tuī, I am ashamed of you (lit. it shames me of you);
paenitet mē hūjus factī, I repent of this act;
eum taedet vītae, he is weary of life;
pauperum tē miseret, you pity the poor.

   a. Instead of the Genitive of the thing we often find an Infinitive or Neuter Pronoun used as subject of the verb. Thus:—

   mē paenitet hōc fācisse, I repent of having done this;
   mē hōc pudet, I am ashamed of this.

2. Misereor and miserēscō also govern the Genitive; as,—

   miserēmini sociōrum, pity the allies.

**Interest, Rēfert.**

210. With interest, it concerns, three points enter into consideration; *vis.* —

a) the person concerned;
b) the thing about which he is concerned;
c) the extent of his concern.

211. 1. The *person concerned* is regularly denoted by the Genitive; as,—

   patris interest, it concerns the father.

   a. But instead of the Genitive of the personal pronouns, meī, tuī, etc., the Latin uses the Ablative Singular Feminine of the Possessive, *vis.*: meā, tuā, etc.; as,—

   meā interest, it concerns me.
2. The thing about which a person is concerned is denoted —
   a) by a Neuter Pronoun as subject; as, —
      hōc reī pūblīcae interest, this concerns the state.
   b) by an Infinitive; as, —
      omnium interesse valēre, it concerns all to keep well.
   c) by an Indirect Question; as, —
      meā interest quandō veniās, I am concerned as to when you are coming.

3. The degree of concern is denoted —
   a) by the Genitive (of Quality): magnī, parvi, etc.; as, —
      meā magnī interesse, it concerns me greatly.
   b) by the Adverbs, magnopere, magis, maximē, etc.; as, —
      oftium minimē interesse, it concerns the citizens very little.
   c) by the Neuters, multum, plus, minus, etc.; as, —
      multum vestrā interesse, it concerns you much.

4. Rēfert follows interesse in its construction, except that it rarely takes the Genitive of the person. Thus: —
   meā rēfert, it concerns me;
but rarely illius rēfert, it concerns him.

Genitive with Other Verbs.

212. 1. Verbs of Plenty and Want sometimes govern the Genitive; as, —
   pecūniae indigēs, you need money.
   a. These verbs more commonly take the Ablative (§ 214, 1);
      indigeō is the only verb which has a preference for the Genitive.

2. Potior, though usually followed by the Ablative, sometimes takes the Genitive, almost always so in Sallust; and regularly in the phrase: potīrī rērum, to get control of affairs.

3. In poetry some verbs take the Genitive in imitation of the Greek; as, —
   dōsine querellārum, cease your complaints;
   operum solūtī, freed from their tasks.
THE ABLATIVE.

213. The Latin Ablative unites in itself three cases which were originally distinct both in form and in meaning; vis. —

The Ablative or from-case.
The Instrumental or with-case.
The Locative or where-case.

The uses of the Latin Ablative accordingly fall into Genuine Ablative uses, Instrumental uses, and Locative uses.

GENUINE ABLATIVE USES.

Ablative of Separation.

214. The Ablative of Separation is construed sometimes with, sometimes without, a preposition.

1. The following words regularly take the Ablative without a preposition:

a) The Verbs of freeing: liberō, solvō, levō;
b) The Verbs of depriving: privō, spoliō, exuō, fraudō, nūdō;
c) The Verbs of lacking: egeō, careō, vacō;
d) The corresponding Adjectives, liber, inānis, vacuus, nūdus, and some others of similar meaning.

Thus:

ōurīs liberātus, freed from cares;
Caesar hostēs armīs exuīt, Caesar stripped the enemy of their arms;
caret sēnsū commune, he lacks common sense;
auxiliō eget, he needs help;
bonōrum vita vacua est metū, the life of the good is free from fear.

NOTE 1. — Yet Adjectives and liberō may take the preposition ab, — regularly so with the Ablative of persons; as, —

urbem & tyrannō liberārunt, they freed the city from the tyrant.

NOTE 2. — Indigeō usually takes the Genitive. See § 212, 1, a.
The Ablative.

2. Of Verbs signifying to keep from, to remove, to withdraw, some take the preposition, others omit it. The same Verb often admits both constructions. Examples: —
abstinēre cibō, to abstain from food;
hostēs finibus prohibuērant, they kept the enemy from their borders;
praedōnēs ab Insulā prohibuīt, he kept the pirates from the island.

3. Other Verbs of separation usually take the Ablative with a Preposition, particularly compounds of dis- and sē-; as,—
dissentīō a tē, I dissent from you;
sōcernantur a nōbīs, let them be separated from us.

4. The Preposition is freely omitted in poetry.

Ablative of Source.

215. The Ablative of Source is used with the participles nātus and ortus (in poetry also with ēditus, satus, and some others), to designate parentage or station; as,—
Jove nātus, son of Jupiter;
summō locō nātus, high-born (lit. born from a very high place);
nōbillī genere ortus, born of a noble family.

1. Pronouns regularly (nouns rarely) take ex; as,
ex mē nātus, sprung from me.

2. To denote remoter descent, ortus ab, or oriundus (with or without ab), is used; as,—
ab Ulixe oriundus, descended from Ulysses.

Ablative of Agent.

216. The Ablative accompanied by a (ab) is used with passive verbs to denote the personal agent; as,—
a Caesare accusātus est, he was arraigned by Caesar.

1. Collective nouns referring to persons, and abstract nouns when personified, may be construed as the personal agent. Thus:—
hostēs a fortūnā déserēbantur, the enemy were deserted by Fortune;
a multitūdine hostium mōntēs tenēbantur, the mountains were held
by a multitude of the enemy.

2. Names of animals sometimes admit the same construction. Thus:—
a canibus laniātus est, he was torn to pieces by dogs.
Ablative of Comparison.

217. 1. The Ablative is often used with Comparatives in the sense of than; as,—

melle dulior, sweeter than honey;
patria mihi vītā cārior est, my country is dearer to me than life.

2. This construction, as a rule, occurs only as a substitute for quam (than) with the Nominative or Accusative. In other cases quam must be used; as,—

tui studiōsior sum quam illus, I am fonder of you than of him.

Studiōsior illī would have meant, I am fonder of you than he is.

3. Plus, minus, amplius, longius are often employed as the equivalents of plus quam, minus quam, etc. Thus:—
amplius vigintī urbēs inceduntur, more than twenty cities are

fīred;
minus quīnque mīlia progressīt, he advanced less than five miles.

4. Note the use of opinione with Comparatives; as,—
opinione celerius venit, he comes more quickly than expected (lit. than opinion).

INSTRUMENTAL USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Means.

218. The Ablative is used to denote means or instrument; as,—

Alexander sagittā vulnerātus est, Alexander was wounded by an

arrow.

There are the following special varieties of this Ablative:—

1. Útor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor, and their compounds take the Ablative; as,—
dīvitīs ūtītur, he uses his wealth (lit. he benefits himself by his

wealth);
vītā fruitūtur, he enjoys life (lit. he enjoys himself by life);
mūnere fungor, I perform my duty (lit. I busy myself with duty);
carne vescentūr, they eat flesh (lit. feed themselves by means of);
urbe potitus est, he got possession of the city (lit. made himself powerful by the city).

a. Potior sometimes governs the Genitive. See § 212, 2.
2. With opus est (rarely fasus est), there is need; as,—

duce nobis opus est, we need a leader.

a. A Neuter Pronoun or Adjective often stands as subject with opus as predicate. Thus:—

hóc mihi opus est, this is necessary for me.

b. An ordinary substantive rarely stands as subject. Thus dux nobis opus est is a rare form of expression.

c. Note the occasional use of a perfect passive participle with opus est; as,—

opus est properatō, there is need of haste.

3. With nitor, innitus, and frētus; as,—
nītitur hastā, he rests on a spear (lit. supports himself by a spear);
frētus virtūte, relying on virtue (lit. supported by virtue).

4. With continērī, cōnsistere, cōnstāre, consist of; as,—
nervīs et ossibus continentur, they consist of sinews and bones (lit. they are held together by sinews and bones);
mortālī cōnsistit corpore mundūs, the world consists of mortal substance (lit. holds together by means of, etc.).

6. In expressions of the following type:—

quid hōc homine faciās, what can you do with this man?
quid meā Tulliolā fitet, what will become of my dear Tullia? (lit. what will be done with my dear Tullia?)

7. In the following special phrases at variance with the ordinary English idiom:—

proelīō contendere, vincere, to contend, conquer in battle;
proelīō lacesere, to provoke to battle;
currā vehī, to ride in a chariot;
pedibus ire, to go on foot;
castrīs sē tenāre, to keep in camp.

8. With Verbs of filling and Adjectives of plenty; as,—
fossās virgūlīs complūrunt, they filled the trenches with brush.

a. But plēnus more commonly takes the Genitive. See § 204, 1.

9. Under ‘Means’ belongs also the Ablative of the Way by which; as,—

vinum Tiberī dēvectum, wine brought down (by) the Tiber.
10. The means may be a person as well as a thing. Thus: —
militibus & lactō Lemannō ad montem Jūram mūrum perdūcit, with (i.e. by means of) his troops he runs a wall from Lake Geneva to Mt. Jura.

**Ablative of Cause.**

219. The Ablative is used to denote *cause*; as, —
multa glōriae cupiditāte fēcit, he did many things on account of his love of glory.

1. So especially with verbs denoting mental states; as, dēlector, gaudeō, laetor, glōrior, fīdō, cōnfidō. Also with contentus; as, —
fortūnā amīci gaudeō, I rejoice at the fortune of my friend (i.e. on account of it);
victūrā suā glōriāntur, they exult over their victory;
nātūrā loci cōnfidēbant, they trusted in the character of their country (lit. were confident on account of the character).

a. fīdō and cōnfidō always take the Dative of the person (§ 187. II. a); sometimes the Dative of the thing.

2. As Ablatives of Cause are to be reckoned also such Ablatives as jussū, by order of; injussū, without the order, rogātū, etc.

**Ablative of Manner.**

220. The Ablative with *cum* is used to denote *manner*; as, —
cum gravitāte loquitur, he speaks with dignity.

1. The preposition may be omitted when the Ablative is modified by an adjective; as, —
magnā gravitāte loquitur, he speaks with great dignity.

2. The preposition is regularly omitted in the expressions jūre, injūriā, jocō, vī, fraude, voluntāte, fūrū, silentiā.

3. A special variety of the Ablative of Manner denotes that *in accordance with which* or *in pursuance of which* anything is or is done. It is generally used without a preposition. Thus: —
meā sententia, according to my opinion;
suis mōribus, in accordance with their custom;
suā sponte, voluntarily, of his (their) own accord;
eā condiciōne, on these terms.
The Ablative.

Ablative of Attendant Circumstance.

221. The Ablative is often used to denote an attendant circumstance of an action or an event; as,—
bonis auspiciis, under good auspices;
nulla est altercātiō clāmōritus umquam habita majōribus, no debate was ever held under circumstances of greater applause;
exstinguitur ingenti luctā prōvinciae, he dies under circumstances of great grief on the part of the province;
longō intervallō sequitur, he follows at a great distance.

Ablative of Accompaniment.

222. The Ablative with cum is used with verbs of motion to denote accompaniment; as,—
cum comitibus prefectus est, he set out with his attendants;
cum febri domum rediit, he returned home with a fever.

1. In military expressions the Ablative may stand without cum when modified by any adjective except a numeral; as,—
omnibus cōpis, ingenti exercitū, magnā manū; but usually cum exercitū, cum duābus legiōribus.

Ablative of Association.

222 A. The Ablative is often used with verbs of joining, mixing, clinging, exchanging; also with assuēscō, cōnsuēscō, assuēfaciō, and some others to denote association; as,—
improbitās soēlere jūncta, badness joined with crime;
āēr calōre admixtus, air mixed with heat;
assuētus labōre, accustomed to (lit. familiarized with) toil;
pācem bellō permittānt, they change peace for (lit. with) war.

Ablative of Degree of Difference.

223. The Ablative is used with comparatives and words involving comparison (as post, ante, infra, suprā) to denote the degree of difference; as,—
dimidiō minor, smaller by a half;
tribus pedibus altior, three feet higher;
paulō post, a little afterwards;
quō plārā habēmus, eō cōpimus amplīōra, the more we have, the more we want.
Ablative of Quality.

224. The Ablative, modified by an adjective, is used to denote quality; as,—
puella eximia formae, a girl of exceptional beauty;
vir singulare industriae, a man of singular industry.

1. The Ablative of Quality may also be used predicatively; as,—
est magnae prudentiae, he is (a man) of great wisdom;
bene animae sunt, they are of good courage.

2. In place of the Adjective we sometimes find a limiting Genitive; as,—
sunt speciei et coloris tauri, they are of the appearance and color of a bull.

3. In poetry the Ablative of Quality sometimes denotes material; as,—
scepulse pendentibus antrum, a cave of arching rocks.

Ablative of Price.

225. With verbs of buying and selling, price is designated by the Ablative; as,—
servum quinque minaes emit, he bought the slave for five minae.

1. The Ablatives magni, plarimn, parvi, minimi (by omission of pretio) are used to denote indefinite price; as,—
aedes magni vendidit, he sold the house for a high price.

2. For the Genitive of Indefinite Price, see § 203. 4.

Ablative of Specification.

226. The Ablative of Specification is used to denote that in respect to which something is or is done; as,—
Helvetti omnibus Gallis virtute praestabant, the Helvetians surpassed all the Gauls in valor;
pede claudus, lame in his foot.

1. Note the phrases:—

    major natus, older (lit. greater as to age);
    minor natus, younger.

2. Here belongs the use of the Ablative with dignus, worthy, indignus, unworthy, and dignor, deem worthy of; as,—

digni honore, worthy of honor (i.e. in point of honor);

fidei indigni, unworthy of confidence.

mea dignor honore, I deem myself worthy of honor.
The Ablative.

Ablative Absolute.

227. The Ablative Absolute is grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence. In its commonest form it consists of a noun or pronoun limited by a participle; as,—

urbe captā, Aeneās fügit, when the city had been captured, Aeneas fled (lit. the city having been captured).

1. Instead of a participle we often find an adjective or noun; as,—
vívō Caesare rēs pūblīca salva erat, while Caesar was alive the state was safe (lit. Caesar being alive);
Tarquiniō rēge, Pūthagōrās in Italiam vēnit, in the reign of Tarquin Pythagoras came into Italy (lit. Tarquin being king).

2. The Ablative Absolute is generally used in Latin where in English we employ subordinate clauses. Thus the Ablative Absolute may correspond to a clause denoting—
a) Time, as in the foregoing examples.
b) Condition; as,—

omnēs vīrtūtēs jacent, volūtātēs dōminante, all virtues lie prostrate, if pleasure is master.
c) Opposition; as,—

perdītās omnibus rēbus, vīrtūs sē sustentārē potest, though everything else is lost, yet Virtue can maintain herself.
d) Cause; as,—
nūllō adversante rēgnōm obtinuit, since no one opposed him, he secured the throne.
e) Attendant circumstance; as,—

passīs pāmīs pācem petīvērunt, with hands outstretched they sued for peace.

3. An Infinitive or clause sometimes occurs in the Ablative Absolute construction, especially in Livy and later writers; as,—

auditō eum fūgisse, when it was heard that he had fled.

4. A noun or pronoun stands in the Ablative Absolute construction only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the clause in which it stands. Exceptions to this principle are extremely rare.
LOCATIVE USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Place.

A. Place where.

228. The place where is regularly denoted by the Ablative with a preposition; as,—

in urbe habitat, he dwells in the city.

1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; vis.—

a) Names of towns,—except Singulurs of the First and Second Declensions (see § 232. 1); as,—

Carthāginī, at Carthage;
Athēnīs, at Athens;
Veīs, at Veii.

b) The general words locō, locōs, parte, also many words modified by tōtus or even by other Adjectives; as,—

hōc locō, at this place;
tōtis castrīs, in the whole camp.

c) The special words: forīs, out of doors; rūfī, in the country;
terrā marique, on land and sea.

d) The poets freely omit the preposition with any word denoting place; as,—

stant lītore pispens, the sterns rest on the beach.

B. Place from which.¹

229. Place from which is regularly denoted by the Ablative with a preposition; as,—

ab Itāliā profectus est, he set out from Italy;

ex urbe rediit, he returned from the city.

1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; vis.—

a) Names of towns and small islands; as,—

Rōmā profectus est, he set out from Rome;
Rhodō revertit, he returned from Rhodes.

¹ Place from which, though strictly a Genuine Ablative use, is treated here for sake of convenience.
b) domō, from home; rūre, from the country.
c) Freely in poetry; as,—
Italiā dēcessit, he withdrew from Italy.

2. With names of towns, ab is used to mean from the vicinity of, or to denote the point whence distance is measured; as,—
ā Gergovia dēcessit, he withdrew from the vicinity of Gergovia.
ā Rōmā X mīlia aberat, he was ten miles distant from Rome.

Urbe and oppidō, when standing in apposition with a town name, are accompanied by a preposition; as,—
Curībus ex oppidō Sabīnōrum, from Cures, a town of the Sabines.

Ablative of Time.

A. Time at which.

230. The Ablative is used to denote the time at which; as,—
quārtā hōrā mortuus est, he died at the fourth hour;
annō septuāgēsimō cōnsul creātus, elected consul in his seventieth year.

1. Any word denoting a period of time may stand in this construction, particularly annus, vēr, aestās, hiems, diēs, nox, hōra, comitia (Election Day), lūdī (the Games), etc.

2. Words not denoting time require the preposition in, unless accompanied by a modifier. Thus:—
in pāce, in peace; in bellō, in war;
but secundō bellō Pānicō, in the second Punic War.

3. Expressions like in eō tempore, in summā senectūte, take the preposition because they denote situation rather than time.

B. Time within which.

231. Time within which is denoted by the Ablative either with or without a preposition; as,—
stella Sātūrnī trīgintā annīs cursum cōnficit, the planet Saturn completes its orbit within thirty years;
ter in annō, thrice in the course of the year.

1. Occasionally the Ablative denotes duration of time; as,—
biiennō prōsperas rēs habuit, for two years he had a prosperous administration.
THE LOCATIVE.

232. The Locative case occurs chiefly in the following words: —

1. Regularly in the Singular of names of towns and small islands of the first and second declensions, to denote the place in which; as, —

   Rōmae, at Rome;  Corinthī, at Corinth;
   Rhodī, at Rhodes.

2. In the following special forms: —

   domī, at home;  humī, on the ground;
   belī, in war;  militiae, in war;
   vesperrī, at evening;  herī, yesterday.

3. Note the phrase pendēre animī, lit. to be in suspense in one's mind.

4. For urbs and oppidum in apposition with a Locative, see § 169. 4.

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CHAPTER III. — Syntax of Adjectives.

233. 1. The word with which an Adjective agrees is called its Subject.

2. Attributive and Predicate Adjectives. An Attributive Adjective is one that limits its subject directly; as, —

   vir sapiens, a wise man.

A Predicate Adjective is one that limits its subject through the medium of a verb (usually esse); as, —

   vir est sapiens, the man is wise;
   vir vidēbatur sapiens, the man seemed wise;
   vir jūdicio est sapiens, the man was judged wise;
   hunc virum sapientem jūdicio vīnus, we adjudged this man wise.

3. Participles and Adjective Pronouns have the construction of Adjectives.
AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

234. Agreement with One Noun. When an Adjective limits one noun it agrees with it in Gender, Number, and Case.

1. Two Adjectives in the Singular may limit a noun in the Plural; as, 
pra
erma et 
vicesima 
legiones, the first and twentieth legions.

2. A Predicate Adjective may stand in the Neuter when its Subject is Masculine or Feminine and denotes a thing; as, —

mors est miserum, death is a wretched thing.

235. Agreement with Two or More Nouns.

A. AGREEMENT AS TO NUMBER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in number with the nearest noun; as, —

pater tuus et mat
er, your father and mother;
eadem alacritas et studium, the same eagerness and zeal.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative, it is regularly Plural; as, —

pax et concordia sunt pulchrae, peace and concord are glorious.

B. AGREEMENT AS TO GENDER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in gender with the nearest noun; as, —

res operae multae ac laboris, a matter of much effort and labor.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative —

a) If the nouns are of the same gender, the Adjective agrees with them in gender; as, —

pater et filius capti sunt, father and son were captured.

Yet with feminine abstract nouns, the Adjective is more frequently Neuter; as, —

stultitia et timiditas fugienda sunt, folly and cowardice must be shunned.
If the nouns are of different gender; then,—

a) In case they denote persons, the Adjective is Masculine; as,—

pater et māter mortui sunt, the father and mother have died.

β) In case they denote things, the Adjective is Neuter; as,—

honārōs et victōriae fortuita sunt, honors and victories are accidental.

γ) In case they include both persons and things, the Adjective is,—

aa) Sometimes Masculine; as,—

domus, uxor, līberī inventī sunt, home, wife, and children are secured.

ββ) Sometimes Neuter; as,—

parentēs, līberōs, domōs vīlia habēre, to hold parents, children, houses, cheap.

γγ) Sometimes it agrees with the nearest noun; as,—

populi prōvinciaeque līberātae sunt, nations and provinces were liberated.

c) Construction according to Sense. Sometimes an Adjective does not agree with a noun according to strict grammatical form, but according to sense; as,—

pars bēstīā objectī sunt, part (of the men) were thrown to beasts.

ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY.

236. 1. Plural Adjectives used Substantively. Adjectives are quite freely used as Substantives in the Plural. The Masculine denotes persons; the Neuter denotes things; as,—

docti, scholars; parva, small things;
mali, the wicked; magna, great things;
Graeci, the Greeks; utilia, useful things;
nostri, our men.
Adjectives used Substantively.

2. Neuter Plural Adjectives thus used are confined mainly to the Nominative and Accusative cases. Such forms as magnorum, omnium; magnis, omnibus, would ordinarily lead to ambiguity; yet where there is no ambiguity, they sometimes occur; as, —

parva compōnere magnis, to compare small things with great.

Otherwise the Latin says: magnārum rōrum, magnis rōbus, etc.

237. Singular Adjectives used Substantively. Adjectives are less freely used as Substantives in the Singular than in the Plural.

1. Masculine Adjectives occur only occasionally in this use; as, —
probus invidet nāmini, the honest man envies nobody.

a. Usually vir, homō, or some similar word is employed; as, —
homō doctus, a scholar;
vir Rōmānus, a Roman.

b. But when limited by a pronoun any adjective may be so used; as, —
hīc doctus, this scholar;
doctus quīdam, a certain scholar.

2. Neuters are likewise infrequent; as, —
vārum, truth;
jūstum, justice;
honestum, virtue.

a. This substantive use of Neuter Singulairs is commonest in the construction of the Genitive of the Whole, and after Prepositions; as, —
aliquid vēri, something true;
nihil novi, nothing new;
in mediō, in the midst.

238. From Adjectives which, like the above, occasionally admit the substantive use, must be carefully distinguished certain others which have become nouns; as, —

adversarius, opponent; hiberna, winter quarters;
aequālis, contemporary; propinquus, relative;
amīcus, friend; socius, partner;
cognātus, kinsman; sodalis, comrade;
vīcus, neighbor; etc.
ADJECTIVES WITH THE FORCE OF ADVERBS.

239. The Latin often uses an Adjective where the English idiom employs an Adverb or an adverbial phrase; as,—

senātus frequens convēnit, the senate assembled in great numbers;
fuit assiduus mēcum, he was constantly with me.

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES.

240. 1. The Comparative often corresponds to the English Positive with *rather,* *somewhat,* *too,* as,—

senectūs est loquacior, old age is rather talkative.

2. So the Superlative often corresponds to the Positive with *very,* as,—

vir fortissimus, a very brave man.

3. Strengthening Words. *Vēl* and *quam* are often used with the Superlative as strengthening particles, *vēl* with the force of *very,* and *quam* with the force of *as possible,* as,—

vēl maximus, the very greatest;
quam maximae cōpiae, as great forces as possible.

4. Phrases of the type *more rich than brave* regularly take the Comparative in both members; as,—

exercitūs erat dītor quam fortior, the army was more rich than brave.

OTHER PECULIARITIES.

241. 1. Certain Adjectives may be used to denote a part of an object, chiefly prīmus, extrēmus, summus, mediūs, infīmus, imus; as,—

summus mōns, the top of the mountain;
extrēmā hieme, in the last part of the winter.

2. Prior, prīmus, ultimus, and postrēmus are frequently equivalent to a relative clause; as,—

prīmus eam vīdī, I was the first who saw her;
ultimus dēcessit, he was the last who withdrew.

3. When *multus* and another adjective both limit the same noun, *et* is generally used; as,—

multae et magnae cōgitātiōnēs, many (and) great thoughts.
CHAPTER IV. — Syntax of Pronouns.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

242. 1. The Personal Pronouns as subjects of verbs are, as a rule, not expressed except for the purpose of emphasis, contrast, or clearness. Thus ordinarily: —

videō, I see; amat, he loves.

But ego tē videō, et tū mē vidēs, I see you, and you see me.

2. The Genitives mei, tui, nostrī, vestrī are used only as Objective Genitives; nostrum and vestrum as Genitives of the Whole. Thus: —

memor tūi, mindful of you;
dēsiderium vestrī, longing for you;
nēmō vestrum, no one of you.

a. But nostrum and vestrum are regularly used in place of the Possessive in the phrases omnium nostrum, omnium vestrum.

3. The First Plural is often used for the First Singular of Pronouns and Verbs. Compare the Eng. editorial 'we.'

4. When two Verbs govern the same object, the Latin does not use a pronoun with the second, as is the rule in English. Thus: —

virtūs amīcitiās conciliat et cōnservat, virtue establishes friendships and maintains them (not eās cōnservat).

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

243. 1. The Possessive Pronouns, as a rule, are not employed except for the purpose of clearness. Thus: —

patrem amō, I love my father;
dē filī morte fīēbās, you wept for the death of your son.

But —

dē morte filūi meī fīēbās, you wept for the death of my son.

a. When expressed merely for the sake of clearness, the possessive usually stands after its noun; but in order to indicate emphasis or contrast, it precedes; as, —

suā manū līberōs ooctōdīt, with his own hand he slew his children;
meā quīdem sententiā, in my opinion at least.
2. Sometimes the Possessive Pronouns are used with the force of an Objective Genitive; as, —

metus vester, fear of you;
dēsiderium tuum, longing for you.

3. For special emphasis, the Latin employs ipsīus or ipsōrum, in apposition with the Genitive idea implied in the Possessive; as, —
meā ipsīus operā, by my own help;
nōstrā ipsōrum operā, by our own help;

a. So sometimes other Genitives; as, —
meā ūnīus operā, by the assistance of me alone.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

244. 1. The Reflexive Pronoun sē and the Possessive Reflexive suus have a double use: —

I. They may refer to the subject of the clause (either principal or subordinate) in which they stand, —‘Direct Reflexives’; as, —

sē amant, they love themselves;
suōs amīcōs aēduvat, he helps his own friends;
eum ērāvit, ut sē servāret, I besought him to save himself.

II. They may stand in a subordinate clause and refer to the subject of the principal clause, —‘Indirect Reflexives’; as, —
mē ērāvit ut sē dēfenderem, he besought me to defend him (lit. that I defend himself);
mē ērāverunt, ut fortūnārum suārum dēfēsionēm susciperem, they besought me to undertake the defense of their fortunes.

a. The Indirect Reflexive is mainly restricted to those clauses which express the thought, not of the author, but of the subject of the principal clause.

2. The Genitive suī is regularly employed, like meī and tuī, as an Objective Genitive, e.g. oblītus suī, forgetful of himself; but it occasionally occurs — particularly in post-Augustan writers — in place of the Possessive suus; as, fruitur fāmā suī, he enjoys his own fame.

3. Sē and suus are sometimes used in the sense, one’s self, one’s own, where the reference is not to any particular person; as, —

sē amāre, to love one’s self;
suum genium propitiāre, to propitiate one’s own genius.
Reciprocal Pronouns.—Demonstrative Pronouns. 159

4. Suus sometimes occurs in the meaning his own, their own, etc., referring not to the subject but to an oblique case; as,—

Hannibalem sui civēs s citātēs ējēcērunt, his own fellow-citizens drove out Hannibal.

a. This usage is particularly frequent in combination with quisque; as,—

suus quemque ērōr vexat, his own error troubles each.

5. The Reflexives for the first and second persons are supplied by the oblique cases of ego and tū (§ 85); as,—

vōs dēfenditis, you defend yourselves.

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

245. 1. The Latin has no special reciprocal pronoun (‘each other’), but expresses the reciprocal notion by the phrases: inter nōs, inter vōs, inter sē; as,—

Belgae obsidēs inter sē dēdērunt, the Belgae gave each other hostages (lit. among themselves);
amāmus inter nōs, we love each other;
Galli inter sē cohorṭāti sunt, the Gauls exorted each other.

a. Note that the Object is not expressed in sentences of this type.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Hīc, Ille, Iste.

246. 1. Where hīc and ille are used in contrast, hīc usually refers to the latter of two objects, and ille to the former.

2. Hīc and ille are often used in the sense of ‘the following’; as,—

Themistoclēs hīs verbīs epistulam mīsit, Themistocles sent a letter (couched) in the following words;
illud intellegō, omnīum ōra in mē conversa esse, I understand this, that the faces of all are turned toward me.

3. Ille often means the famous; as, Solōn ille, the famous Solon.

4. Iste frequently involves contempt; as, īste homō, that fellow!

5. The above pronouns, along with īs, are usually attracted to the gender of a predicate noun; as, hīc ēst honor, memīnīsse offiīlium suum, this is an honor, to be mindful of one’s duty.
Syntax.

Is.

247. 1. Is often serves as the antecedent of the relative qui.
      Thus: —

Maximum, eum qui Tarentum recēpit, dīlēxi, I loved Maximus, the
man who retook Tarentum.

a. Closely akin to this usage is is in the sense of such (= tālis);
   as, —

nōn sum is qui terræar, I am not such a person as to be
frightened.

b. Note the phrase id quod, where id stands in apposition with
   an entire clause; as, —

nōn suspicābātur (id quod nunc sentiet) satis multōs
   testās nōbīs reliquōs esse, he did not suspect (a
   thing which he will now perceive) that we had wit-
   nesses enough left.

Yet quod alone, without preceding id, sometimes occurs in
this use.

2. Is also in all cases serves as the personal pronoun of the third
   person, 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' 'they,' 'them.'

3. When the English uses 'that of;' 'those of;' to avoid repetition of
   the noun, the Latin omits the pronoun; as, —

in exercitū Sullae et postea in Crassī fuerat, he had been in the
army of Sulla and afterward in that of Crassus;
nullae mā fābulae dēlectant nisi Plautī, no plays delight me except
those of Plautus.

4. Note the phrases et is, et ea, etc., in the sense: and that too; as,—
vincula, et ea sempiterna, imprisonment, and that too permanently.

Idem.

248. 1. Ídem in apposition with the subject or object often has the
      force of also, likewise; as,—

quod ídem mihi contigit, which likewise happened to me (lit. which,
   the same thing);
bonus vīr, quem eundem sapientem appellāmus, a good man,
whom we call also wise.

2. For Ídem atque (ae), the same as, see § 341. 1. c.
Ipse.

249. 1. Ipse, literally self, acquires its special force from the context; as,—
eō ipsō diē, on that very day;
ad ipsam ripam, close to the bank;
ipsō terrōre, by mere fright;
valvae sē ipsae aperuērunt, the doors opened of their own accord;
ipse aderat, he was present in person.

2. The reflexive pronouns are often emphasized by the addition of ipse, but ipse in such cases, instead of standing in apposition with the reflexive, more commonly agrees with the subject; as,—
śōcum ipsī loquuntur, they talk with themselves;
sē ipse continēre nōn potest, he cannot contain himself.

3. Ipse is also used as an Indirect Reflexive for the purpose of marking a contrast or avoiding an ambiguity; as,—
Persae pertinuērunt nē Alcibiādes ab ipsīs dēscīperet et cum suīs in grātiam redīret, the Persians feared that Alcibiades would break with them and become reconciled with his countrymen.
eā molestissimē ferre dēbent homīnēs quae ipsōrum culpā con-
trācta sunt, men ought to chafe most over those things which have
been brought about by their own fault (as opposed to the fault of others).

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

250. Agreement. 1. The Relative Pronoun agrees with its antecedent in Gender, Number, and Person, but its case is determined by its construction in the clause in which it stands; as,—
mulier quam vidēbāmus; the woman whom we saw;
bona quibus fruīmur, the blessings which we enjoy.

2. Where the antecedent is compound, the same principles for number and gender prevail as in case of predicate adjectives under similar conditions (see § 235. B. 2). Thus:—
pater et filius, qui captī sunt, the father and son who were captured;
stultitia et timiditās quae fugiēnda sunt, folly and cowardice which
must be shunned;
honōrēs et victōriāe quae sunt fortūta, honors and victories which
are accidental.
3. The Relative regularly agrees with a predicate noun (either Nominative or Accusative) instead of its antecedent; as,—
carcer, quae lautomiae vocantur, the prison, which is called Lau-
tumiae;
Celtae, quae est tertia pars, the Celts, who are the third part.

4. Sometimes the Relative takes its gender and number from the meaning of its antecedent; as,—
pars quif béstif objecti sunt, a part (of the men) who were thrown to beasts.

5. Occasionally the Relative is attracted into the case of its antecedent; as,—
nátus eó patre quó díxi, born of the father that I said.

251. Antecedent. 1. The antecedent of the Relative is sometimes omitted; as,—
quif nátúram sequitur sapiéns est, he who follows Nature is wise.

2. The antecedent may be implied in a possessive pronoun (or rarely an adjective); as,—
nostra quif remánimus caedés, the slaughter of us who remained;
servlí tumultú, quós ñus ac disciplína sublevárunt, at the up-
rising of the slaves, whom experience and discipline assisted (servlí = servórum).

3. Sometimes the antecedent is repeated with the Relative; as,—
erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus, there were two routes, by which (routes).

4. Incorporation of Antecedent in Relative Clause. The antecedent is often incorporated in the relative clause. Thus:—

a) When the relative clause stands first; as,—
quam quisque nóvit artem in hác sé exerceat, let each one practice the branch which he knows.

b) When the antecedent is an appositive; as,—
nón longé à Tolósátium sínibus absunt, quae civítás est in pròvinciá, they are not far from the borders of the Tolosates, a state which is in our province.

c) When the logical antecedent is a superlative; as,—
Themistocléis dé servís suís, quem habuit fidélissimum, mi sót, Themistocles sent the most trusty slave he had.
Relative Pronouns.—Indefinite Pronouns.

a) In expressions of the following type—

quā est prūdentīā; quae tua est prūdentīa, such is your prudence (lit. of which prudence you are; which is your prudence).

5. The Relative is never omitted in Latin as it is in English. Thus the boy I saw must be puer quem vīdī.

6. The Relative is used freely in Latin, particularly at the beginning of a sentence, where in English we employ a demonstrative; as,—

quō factum est, by this it happened;
quae cum ita sint, since this is so;
quibus rēbus cognītīis, when these things became known.

7. The Relative introducing a subordinate clause may belong grammatically to a clause which is subordinate to the one it introduces; as,—

numquam dīgnē satis laudāri philosophia poterit, cui qui pāreat, omne tempus aetātīs sine molestīā possit dēgere,
philosophy can never be praised enough, since he who obeys her can pass every period of life without annoyance (lit. he who obeys which, etc.).

Here cui introduces the subordinate clause possit and connects it with philosophia; but cui is governed by pāreat, which is subordinate to possit.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

252. 1. Quis, any one, is the weakest of the Indefinites, and stands usually in combination with si, nisi, nē, num; as,—
si quis putat, if any one thinks.

2. Aliquīs (adj. aliquī) is more definite than quis, and corresponds usually to the English some one, somebody, some; as,—
nunc aliquīs dīcat mihi, now let somebody tell me;
utinam modo agātur aliquid, oh that something may be done.

3. Quīdam, a certain one, is still more definite than aliquīs; as,—
homō quīdam, a certain man (i.e. one whom I have in mind).

a. Quīdam (with or without quasi, as if) is sometimes used in the sense: a sort of, kind of; as,—

quaeādam cognītīō, a sort of relationship;
mores est quasi quaeādam migrātīō, death is a kind of transfer, as it were.
4. *Quisquam*, any one, any one whoever (more general than *quils*), and its corresponding adjective *ullus*, any, occur mostly in negative and conditional sentences, in interrogative sentences implying a negative, and in clauses of comparison; as,—

*justitia numquam nocet cuiquam*, justice never harms anybody;  
*si quisquam*, Catō sapiēns fuit, if anybody was ever wise, Cato was;  
*potestne quisquam sine perturbatione animi frāsi*, can anybody be angry without excitement?  
*si ullō modo fieri potest*, if it can be done in any way;  
*tætrior hīc tyrannus fuit quam quisquam superiōrum*, he was a viler tyrant than any of his predecessors.

5. *Quisque*, each one, is used especially under the following circumstances:—

a) In connection with *suus*. See § 244. 4. a.  
b) In connection with a Relative or Interrogative Pronoun; as,—

*quod cuique obtigit, id teneat, what falls to each, that let him hold.*

c) In connection with superlatives; as,—

*optimus quisque*, all the best (lit. each best one).

d) With ordinal numerals; as,—

*quintō quōque annō*, every four years (lit. each fifth year).

6. *Nemō*, no one, in addition to its other uses, stands regularly with adjectives used substantively; as,—

*nemō mortālis*, no mortal;  
nemō Rōmānus, no Roman.

**PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.**

253. 1. *Alius*, another, and *alter*, the other, are often used correlatively; as,—

*aliud loquitur, aliud sentit*, he says one thing, he thinks another;  
*alīf resistunt, alīf fugiunt*, some resist, others flee;  
*alter exercitum perdidit, alter vēndidit*, one ruined the army, the other sold it;  
*alterī sē in montem recuperunt, alterī ad impedimenta sē contulerunt, the one party retreated to the mountain, the others betook themselves to the baggage.*
Agreement of Verb with Subject.

2. Where the English says *one does one thing, another another*, the Latin uses a more condensed form of statement; as,—

*alius alius amat, one likes one thing, another another;
alius alius placet, one thing pleases some, another others.*

*a. So sometimes with adverbs; as,—
alius alius fugiunt, some flee in one direction, others in another.*

3. The Latin also expresses the notion ‘*each other*’ by means of *alius* repeated; as,—

*Galli alius alius cohaerent sunt,* the Gauls encouraged each other.

4. *Ceteri* means *the rest, all the others*; as,—

*ceteris praestare,* to be superior to all the others.

5. *Relicui* means *the others* in the sense of *the rest, those remaining,*—hence is the regular word with numerals; as,—

*reliqui sex,* the six others.

6. *Nescio quis* forms a compound indefinite pronoun with the force of *some one or other*; as,—

*causidicus nescio quis,* some pettyfogger or other;
*misit nescio quem,* he sent some one or other;
*nescio quod pacto,* somehow or other.

Chapter V. — Syntax of Verbs.

Agreement.

With One Subject.

254. i. Agreement in Number and Person. A Finite Verb agrees with its subject in Number and Person; as,—

*vos vides, you see;*

*pater filios instituit,* the father trains his sons.

2. Agreement in Gender. In the compound forms of the verb the participle regularly agrees with its subject in gender; as,—

*seditio repressa est,* the mutiny was checked.
Syntax.

3. But when a predicate noun is of different gender or number from its subject, the verb usually agrees with its nearest substantive; as,—

Tarquinii mäterna patria erat, Tarquinii was his native country on his mother’s side;
non omnis error stultitia est dicenda, not every error is to be called folly.

a. Less frequently the verb agrees with an appositive; as,—

Coriolis, oppidum Volsciōrum, captum est, Coriolis, a town of the Volsci, was captured.

4. Construction according to Sense. Sometimes the verb agrees with its subject according to sense instead of strict grammatical form. Thus:—

a) In Number; as,—
multītūdō hominum convenerant, a crowd of men had gathered.

b) In Gender; as,—
duo millia crucibus addixi sunt, two thousand (men) were crucified.

With Two or More Subjects.

255. 1. Agreement in Number. With two or more subjects the verb is regularly plural; as,—
pater et filius mortuus sunt, the father and son died.

2. But sometimes the verb agrees with the nearest subject; viz.,—
a) When the verb precedes both subjects or stands between them; as,—
mortuus est pater et filius;
pater mortuus est et filius.

b) When the subjects are connected by aut; aut . . . aut;
vel . . . vel; neque . . . neque; as,—
neque pater neque filius mortuus est, neither father nor son died.

3. When the different subjects are felt together as constituting a whole, the singular is used; as,—
temeritas ignōrātiōque vitiosa est, rashness and ignorance are bad.

a. This is regularly the case in senātus populusque Rōmānus.
Voices. — Tenses.

4. Agreement in Person. With compound subjects of different persons the verb always takes the first person rather than the second, and the second rather than the third; as,—

si tū et Tullia valeātis, ego et Cicerō valeāmus, if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.

5. Agreement in Gender. With subjects of different genders the participle in the compound tenses follows the same principles as laid down for predicate adjectives. See § 235, B, 2.

VOICES.

256. 1. The Passive Voice sometimes retains traces of its original middle or reflexive meaning; as,—

ego nōn patiār eum dēfendī, I shall not allow him to defend himself.

2. In imitation of Greek usage many perfect passive participles are used by the poets as indirect middles, i.e. the subject is viewed as acting not upon himself, but as doing something in his own interest; as,—

vēlātus tempora, having veiled his temples.

a. Occasionally finite forms of the verb are thus used; as,—

tunicā indūcitur artūs, he covers his limbs with a tunic.

3. Intransitive Verbs may be used impersonally in the passive; as,—

curritūr, people run (lit. it is run);
ventum est, he (they, etc.) came (lit. it was come).

TENSES.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE.

257. 1. The Latin tenses express two distinct notions: —

a) The period of time to which the action belongs: Present, Past, or Future.

b) The kind of action: Undefined, Going on, or Completed.

The Latin with its six tenses is able to express each of the three kinds of action for each of the three periods of time (making practically nine
tenses). It does this by employing certain tenses in more than one way, as may be seen by the following table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>KIND OF ACTION</th>
<th>PERIOD OF TIME</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>PRESENT</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>GOING ON</td>
<td>Present: scribō, I am writing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>COMPLETED</td>
<td>Present Perfect: scripsēl, I have written.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. It will be seen that the Present may express Undefined action or action Going on; so also the Future. The Perfect likewise has a double use, according as it denotes action Completed in present time (Present Perfect) or Undefined action belonging to past time (Historical Perfect).

Principal and Historical Tenses.

258. Tenses which denote Present or Future time are called Principal (or Primary) Tenses; those which denote Past time are called Historical (or Secondary).

The Principal Tenses of the Indicative are: Present, Future, Present Perfect, Future Perfect.

The Historical Tenses are: Imperfect, Historical Perfect, Pluperfect.

Present Indicative.

259. Besides the two uses indicated in the table, the Present Indicative presents the following peculiarities:—

1. It is used to denote a general truth, i.e. something true not merely in the present but at all times (‘Gnomic Present’); as,—

virtūs conciliat amicītās et cōnservat, virtue establishes ties of friendship and maintains them (i.e. always does so).
2. It is used of an attempted action (‘Conative Present’); as, —
*dum vísant vitia, in contrária currunt, while they try to avoid
(vísant) vices, they rush into opposite ones.*

3. In lively narration the Present is often used of a past action
(‘Historical Present’); as, —
*Caesar Haeduús obsídēs imperat, Caesar demanded hostages of the
Haeduí (lit. demands).*

4. In combination with *jam, jam diū, jam prídem,* and similar
words, the Present is frequently used of an action originating in the
past and continuing in the present; as, —
*jam diū cupīō tē visere, I have long been desiring to visit you (i.e. I
desire and have long desired).*

**Imperfect Indicative.**

260. 1. The Imperfect primarily denotes action *going on
in past time*; as, —

*librum legēbam, I was reading a book.*

*a. This force makes the Imperfect especially adapted to serve
as the tense of description (as opposed to mere narration).*

2. From the notion of action *going on,* there easily develops the
notion of *repeated or customary action; as, —

*lēgātōs interrogābat, he kept asking the envoys;
puer C. Duūlium vidēbam, as a boy I often used to see Gaius Duūlius.*

3. The Imperfect often denotes an attempted action (‘Conative Imper-
fect’) or an action as beginning (‘Inceptive Imperfect’); as, —

*hostēs nostrōs intrā mūnitiōnēs prōgredi prohibēbant, the enemy
tried to prevent (prohibēbant) our men from advancing within
the fortifications (‘Conative’);
ad proelium sē expediēbant, they were beginning to get ready for
battle (‘Inceptive’).*

4. The Imperfect, with *jam, jam diū, jam diūdum, etc.,* is some-
times used of an action which had been continuing some time; as, —

*domiciliīm Rōmae multōs jam annōs habēbat, he had had his
residence at Rome for many years (i.e. he had it at this time
and had long had it).*
Future Indicative.

261. i. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future than is the English. We say: 'If he comes, I shall be glad,' where we really mean: 'If he shall come,' etc. In such cases the Latin rarely admits the Present, but generally employs the Future.

2. Sometimes the Future has Imperative force; as, dicēs, say!

Perfect Indicative.

262. A. PRESENT PERFECT. Several Present Perfects denote the state resulting from a completed act, and so seem equivalent to the Present; as,—

nōvī, cognōvī, I know (lit. I have become acquainted with);
consumēvī, I am wont (lit. I have become accustomed).

B. HISTORICAL PERFECT. The Historical Perfect is the tense of narration (as opposed to the Imperfect, the tense of description); as,—

Rōgulus in senātum vēnit, mandāta exposuit, reddī captīvōs negāvit esse ātilē, Regulus came into the Senate, set forth his commission, said it was useless for captives to be returned.

i. Occasionally the Historical Perfect is used of a general truth ('Gnomic Perfect').

Pluperfect Indicative.

263. The Latin Pluperfect, like the English Past Perfect, denotes an act completed in the past; as,—

Caesar Rhēnum trānsīre dēscrēverat, sed nāvēs deerrant, Caesar had decided to cross the Rhine, but had no boats.

a. In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (§ 262, A), the Pluperfect has the force of an Imperfect; as,—

nōveram, I knew.

Future Perfect Indicative.

264. The Future Perfect denotes an action completed in future time. Thus:—

scribam epistulam, oum redieris, I will write the letter when you have returned (lit. when you shall have returned).

a. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future Perfect than the English, which commonly employs the Present Perfect instead of the Future Perfect.

b. In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (§ 262, A) the Future Perfect has the force of a Future; as,—

nōverō, I shall know.
Sequence of Tenses.

Epistolary Tenses.

265. In letters the writer often uses tenses which are not appropriate at the time of writing, but which will be so at the time when his letter is received; he thus employs the Imperfect and the Perfect for the Present, and the Pluperfect for the Present Perfect; as,—

nihil habēbam quod scriberem, neque enim novī quidquam audieram et ad tuās omnēs epistulās jam rescrīpseram, I have nothing to write, for I have heard no news and have already answered all your letters.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

266. A. In Independent Sentences. See §§ 272–280.
   B. In Dependent Sentences. In dependent sentences the tenses of the subjunctive usually conform to the so-called

Sequence of Tenses.

267. 1. In the Subjunctive the Present and Perfect are Principal tenses, the Imperfect and Pluperfect, Historical.
   2. By the Sequence of Tenses Principal tenses are followed by Principal, Historical by Historical. Thus:—

Principal Sequence,—
vidēō quid faciās, I see what you are doing.
vidēbō quid faciās, I shall see what you are doing.
vidērō quid faciās, I shall have seen what you are doing.
vidēō quid fecerīs, I see what you have done.
vidēbō quid fecerīs, I shall see what you have done.
vidērō quid fecerīs, I shall have seen what you have done.

Historical Sequence,—
vidēbam quid facerēs, I saw what you were doing.
vidī quid facerēs, I saw what you were doing.
vidēram quid facerēs, I had seen what you were doing.
vidēbam quid fecissetēs, I saw what you had done.
vidī quid fecissetēs, I saw what you had done.
vidēram quid fecissentēs, I had seen what you had done.

3. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive denote incomplete action, the Perfect and Pluperfect completed action, exactly as in the Indicative.
Peculiarities of Sequence.

268. 1. The Perfect Indicative is usually an historical tense (even when translated in English as a Present Perfect), and so is followed by the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive; as,—

dēmōnstrāvī quārē ad causam accēderem, I have shown why I took the case (lit. I showed why, etc.).

2. A dependent Perfect Infinitive is treated as an historical tense wherever, if resolved into an equivalent Indicative, it would be historical; as,—

videor ostendisse quālēs dei essent, I seem to have shown of what nature the gods are (ostendisse here corresponds to an Indicative, ostendī, I showed).

3. The Historical Present is sometimes regarded as a principal tense, sometimes as historical. Thus:—

Sulla suōs hortātur ut forti animō sint, Sulla exhorts his soldiers to be stout-hearted;

Gallōs hortātur ut arma caperent, he exhorted the Gauls to take arms.

4. Conditional sentences of the 'contrary-to-fact' type are not affected by the principles for the Sequence of Tenses; as,—

honestum tāle est ut vel si ignōrārent id hominēs suā tamen pulchritūdine laudābile esset, virtue is such a thing that even if men were ignorant of it, it would still be worthy of praise for its own loveliness.

5. In conditional sentences of the 'contrary-to-fact' type the Imperfect Subjunctive is usually treated as an Historical tense; as,—

si sōlōs eōs dicerēs miserōs, quibus moriendum esset, nēminem tū quidem eōrum qui vivērent exciperēs, if you called only those wretched who must die, you would except no one of those who live.

6. In clauses of Result and some others, the Perfect Subjunctive is sometimes used as an historical tense. Thus:—

rēx tantum mōtus est, ut Tissaphernem hostem juādīcarit, the king was so much moved that he adjudged Tissaphernes an enemy.

This construction is rare in Cicero, but frequent in Nepos and subsequent historians. The Perfect Subjunctive in this use represents a
result simply as a fact without reference to the continuance of the act, and therefore corresponds to an Historical Perfect Indicative of direct statement. Thus, *judicavit* in the above example corresponds to a *judicavit*, he adjudged. To denote a result as something continuous, all writers use the Imperfect Subjunctive after historical tenses.

7. Sometimes perspicuity demands that the ordinary principles of Sequence be abandoned altogether. Thus: —

   a) We may have the Present or Perfect Subjunctive after an historical tense; as,—

   *Verrēs Siciliam ita perdidit ut ea restitui nōn possit,*
   *Verres so ruined Sicily that it cannot be restored* (Direct statement; *nōn potest restitui*);

   *ārdēbat Horatius dicendi cupiditāte sīc, ut in nūllo flagrantius studium viderim,* *Horatius burned so with eagerness to speak that I have seen in no one a greater desire* (Direct statement: *in nūlō vīdī, I have seen in no one*).

   **Note.** — This usage is different from that cited under 6. Here, by neglect of Sequence, the Perfect is used though a principal tense; there the Perfect was used as an historical tense.

   b) We may have a principal tense followed by the Perfect Subjunctive used historically; as,—

   *nescīō quid causae fuerit quīr nūllās ad mē litterās dārēs,* *I do not know what reason there was why you did not send me a letter.*

   Here *fuerit* is historical, as is shown by the following Imperfect Subjunctive.

   **Method of Expressing Future Time in the Subjunctive.**

   **269.** The Future and Future Perfect which are lacking to the Latin Subjunctive are supplied in subordinate clauses as follows: —

   1. a) The Future is supplied by the Present after principal tenses, by the Imperfect after historical tenses.

   b) The Future Perfect is supplied by the Perfect after principal tenses, by the Pluperfect after historical tenses.

   This is especially frequent when the context clearly shows, by the presence of a future tense in the main clause, that the reference is to future time. Thus: —
Syntax.

Gallī pollicentur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperet, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall order;
Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperēret, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should order;
Gallī pollicentur sē factūrōs quae Caesar imperāverit, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall have ordered;
Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs quae Caesar imperāvisset, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should have ordered.

2. Even where the context does not contain a Future tense in the main clause, Future time is often expressed in the subordinate clauses by the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive. Thus: —
timeō nē veniat, I am afraid he will come;
Caesar exspectābat quid cōnsili hostēs caperent, Caesar was waiting to see what plan the enemy would adopt.

3. Where greater definiteness is necessary the periphrastic forms in -ārus sim and -ārus essem are employed, especially in clauses of Result, Indirect Questions, and after nōn dubitō quīn; as,—
nōn dubitō quīn pater ventūrus sit, I do not doubt that my father will come;
nōn dubitābam quīn pater ventūrus esset, I did not doubt that my father would come.

4. Where the verb has no Future Active Participle, or where it stands in the passive voice, its Future character may be indicated by the use of the particles mox, brevī, statim, etc., in connection with the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive; as,—
nōn dubitō quīn tē mox hōjus rei paeniteat, I do not doubt that you will soon repent of this thing;
nōn dubitābam quīn haec rēs brevī cōnāscītur, I did not doubt that this thing would soon be finished.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

270. 1. The tenses of the Infinitive denote time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb on which they depend. Thus: —

a) The Present Infinitive represents an act as contemporaneous with the time of the verb on which it depends; as,—
vidētur honōrēs adsequī, he seems to be gaining honors;
vidēbātur honōrēs adsequī, he seemed to be gaining honors.
b) The Perfect Infinitive represents an act as prior to the time of the verb on which it depends; as,—

vidētur honōrēs adsecūtus esse, he seems to have gained honors;

visus est honōrēs adsecūtus esse, he seemed to have gained honors.

c) The Future Infinitive represents an act as subsequent to that of the verb on which it depends; as,—

vidētur honōrēs adsecūtūrus esse, he seems to be about to gain honors;

visus est honōrēs adsecūtūrus esse, he seemed to be about to gain honors.

2. Where the English says 'ought to have done,' 'might have done,' etc., the Latin uses dēbuī, oportuit, potūī (dēbēbam, oportēbat, poteram), with the Present Infinitive; as,—

dēbuī dicere, he ought to have said (lit. owed it to say);

oportuit venīre, he ought to have come;

potūī vidēre, he might have seen.

a. Oportuit, volū, nōlō (and in poetry some other verbs), may take a Perfect Infinitive instead of the Present; as,—

hōc jam prīdem factum esse oportūlt, this ought long ago to have been done.

3. Periphrastic Future Infinitive. Verbs that have no Participle Stem express the Future Infinitive Active and Passive by fore ut or futūrum esse ut, with the Subjunctive; as,—

spērō fore ut tē paeniteat levitātis, I hope you will repent of your fickleness (lit. hope it will happen that you repent);

spērō futūrum esse ut hostēs aerceantur, I hope that the enemy will be kept off.

a. The Periphrastic Future Infinitive is often used, especially in the Passive, even in case of verbs which have the Participle Stem; as,—

spērō fore ut hostēs vincantur, I hope the enemy will be conquered.

4. Passives and Deponents sometimes form a Future Perfect Infinitive with fore; as,—

spērō epistulam scriptam fore, I hope the letter will have been written;

putō mē omnia adeptum fore, I think that I shall have gained everything.
THE MOODS.

MOODS IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

The Indicative in Independent Sentences.

271. The Indicative is used for the statement of facts, the supposition of facts, or inquiry after facts.

1. Note the following idiomatic uses: —
   
   a) With possum; as, —
   possum multa dicere, I might say much;
   poteram multa dicere, I might have said much (§ 270, 2).
   
   b) In such expressions as longum est, aequum est, melius est, difficile est, utilius est, and some others; as, —
   longum est ea dicere, it would be tedious to tell that;
   difficile est omnia persequi, it would be difficult to enumerate everything.

The Subjunctive in Independent Sentences.

272. The Subjunctive is used in Independent Sentences to express something —

1. As willed — Volitive Subjunctive;
2. As desired — Optative Subjunctive;
3. Conceived of as possible — Potential Subjunctive.

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

273. The Volitive Subjunctive represents the action as willed. It always implies authority on the part of the speaker, and has the following varieties: —

A. Hortatory Subjunctive.

274. The Hortatory Subjunctive expresses an exhortation. This use is confined to the first person plural, of the Present. The negative is nē. Thus: —

eāmus, let us go;
amēmus patriam, let us love our country;
nē dēspērēmus, let us not despair.
The Volitive Subjunctive.

B. Jussive Subjunctive.

275. The Jussive Subjunctive expresses a command. The Jussive stands regularly in the Present Tense, and is used —

1. Most frequently in the third singular and third plural; as, —
   dīcat, let him tell;
   dīcant, let them tell;
   quārē sēcēdant improbī, wherefore let the wicked depart!

2. Less frequently in the second person, often with indefinite force; as, —
   istō bonō útāre, use that advantage;
   modestē vivās, live temperately.

C. Prohibitive Subjunctive.

276. The Subjunctive is used in the second and third persons singular and plural, with nē, to express a prohibition. Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning; as, —

nē repūgnētis, do not resist!
țū vērō istam nē reliquerīs, don't leave her!
impiī nē plācāre audeant déōs, let not the impious dare to appease the gods!

a. Neither of these constructions is frequent in classical prose.

b. A commoner method of expressing a prohibition in the second person is by the use of nōli (nōlīte) with a following infinitive, or by cāvē or cāvē nē with the Subjunctive; as, —
   nōli hōc facere, don't do this (lit. be unwilling to do)!
   nōlīte mentīrī, do not lie!
   cāvē ignōscās, cāvē tē misērat, do not forgive, do not pity!
   cāvē nē haec faciās, do not do this (lit. take care lest you do)!

D. Deliberative Subjunctive.

277. The Deliberative Subjunctive is used in questions and exclamations implying doubt, indignation, the impossi-
bility of an act, obligation, or propriety. The Present is
used referring to present time, the Imperfect referring to past. The negative is nōn. Thus:—

quid faciam, what shall I do?
ego redeam, I go back!
hunc oēdāmus! hūjus condiōnēs audīāmus! are we to bow to him! are we to listen to his terms!
quid facerem, what was I to do?
hunc ego nōn dīligam, should I not cherish this man?
a. These Deliberative Questions are usually purely Rhetorical in character, and do not expect an answer.

E. CONCESSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

278. The Subjunctive is used to indicate something as granted or conceded for the sake of argument. The Present is used for present time, the Perfect regularly for past. The negative is nē. Thus:—

sit hoc vērum, I grant that this is true (lit. let this be true);
nē sint in senectūte vīrēs, I grant there is not strength in old age.
fuerit malus cīvis alīs; tibi quandō esse coepit, I grant that he was a bad citizen to others; when did he begin to be so toward you?

OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

279. The Optative Subjunctive occurs in expressions of wishing. The negative is regularly nē.

1. The Present Tense, often accompanied by utinam, is used where the wish is conceived of as possible.

dī istaec prohibeant, may the gods prevent that!
falsus utinam vātēs sim, oh that I may be a false prophet!
nē veniant, may they not come!

2. The Imperfect expresses, in the form of a wish, the regret that something is not so now; the Pluperfect that something was not so in the past. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are regularly accompanied by utinam; as,—

utinam istud ex animō dīcerēs, would that you were saying that in earnest, (i.e. I regret that you are not saying it in earnest);
Pēlidēs utinam vītāset Apollinis arcūs, would that Achilles had escaped the bow of Apollo;

utinam nē nātus essem, would that I had not been born.
POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

280. The Potential Subjunctive expresses a possibility. The negative is non. The following uses are to be noted:—

1. The ‘May’ Potential. — The Potential Subjunctive may designate a mere possibility (English auxiliary may). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:—

dicit aliquid, some one may say;
dixerit aliquid, some one may say.

a. This construction is by no means frequent, and is confined mainly to a few phrases like those given as examples.

2. ‘Should’—‘Would’ Potential. — The Potential Subjunctive may represent something as depending upon a condition expressed or understood (English auxiliary should, would). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:—

fortunam citius reperies quam retineas, one would more quickly find Fortune than keep it (i.e. if one should make the trial);
creddiderim, I should believe.

a. Here belongs the use of velim, malim, nolim, as softened forms of statement for volo, malo, nolo. Thus:—

velim mihi ignoscas, I wish you would forgive me;
nolim putes me jocari, I don't want you to think I'm joking.

b. When the condition is expressed, we get one of the regular types of Conditional Sentences (see § 303); as,—

dies deficiat, si omero enumerare causas, time would fail if I should attempt to enumerate the reasons.

3. ‘Can’—‘Could’ Potential. — In the Present and Imperfect the Potential occurs in the second person singular (with indefinite force; § 356, 3) of a few verbs of perceiving, seeing, thinking, and the like; as,—

videas, cernas, one can see, one can perceive;
craderas, one could believe;
videras, cerneras, one could see, perceive;
puteras, one could imagine.

4. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of the contrary-to-fact type (see § 304) are also Potential in character. By omission of the Protasis, such an Apodosis sometimes stands alone, particularly vellem, nollem, mallem; as,—

vellem id quidem, I should wish that (i.e. were I bold enough).
Syntax.

The Imperative.

281. The Imperative is used in commands, admonitions, and entreaties (negative nē); as,—

ēgredere ex urbe, depart from the city;
mihi ignōsce, pardon me;
valē, farewell.

1. The Present is the tense of the Imperative most commonly used, but the Future is employed—

a) Where there is a distinct reference to future time, especially in the apodosis of conditional sentences; as,—

rem vōbis prōpōnam; vōs eam pendītōte, I will lay the matter before you; do you (then) consider it;
asī bene disputābit, tribuitō litterīs Graecīs, if he shall speak well, attribute it to Greek literature.

b) In laws, treaties, wills, maxims, etc.; as,—
cōnsulēs sumnum jūs habentō, the consuls shall have supreme power;
hominēm mortuōm in urbe nē sepellītō, no one shall bury a dead body in the city;
amfoitiā rēgī Antiochō cum populō Rōmānō hīs lāgībus et condiciōnibus estō, let there be friendship between Antiochus and the Roman people on the following terms and conditions;
quārtae estō partīs Mārcus hērēs, let Marcus be heir to a fourth (of the property);
ignōscītō saepe alterī, numquam tibi, forgive your neighbor often, yourself never.

2. Except with the Future Imperative the negative is not used in classical prose. Prohibitions are regularly expressed in other ways. See § 276, b.

3. Questions in the Indicative introduced by quīn (why not?) are often equivalent to an Imperative or to the Hortatory Subjunctive; as,—
quīn abīs, go away! (lit. why don't you go away?);
quīn vōcem continētis, keep still! (lit. why don't you stop your voices?);
quīn equōs cōnscendimus, let us mount our horses (lit. why do we not mount our horses?).
MOODS IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

Clauses of Purpose.

282. i. Clauses of Purpose are introduced most commonly by ut (utī), quō (that, in order that), nē (in order that not, lest), and stand in the Subjunctive; as,—
edimus, ut vivāmus, we eat that we may live;
adjūtā nē quō hoc fiat facilius, help me, in order that this may be
done more easily;
portās clausit, nē quam oppidānī injūriam acciperent, he closed
the gates, lest the townspeople should receive any injury.

a. Quō, as a rule, is employed only when the purpose clause
contains a comparative or a comparative idea. Occasional
exceptions occur; as,—
haec faciunt quō Chremētem absterreant, they are doing
this in order to frighten Chremes.

b. Ut nē is sometimes found instead of nē. Thus:—
ut nē quid negligenter agāmus, in order that we may not
do anything carelessly.

c. Ut nōn (not nē) is used where the negation belongs to some
single word, instead of to the purpose clause as a whole.
Thus:—
ut nōn ejectus ad aliēnōs, sed invitātus ad tuōs vide-
āre, that you may seem not driven out among strangers,
but invited to your own friends.

d. To say 'and that not' or 'or that not,' the Latin regularly
uses nēve (neu); as,—
ut eārum rērum vis minuerētur, neu pontī nōcērent,
that the violence of these things might be lessened, and
that they might not harm the bridge;
profūgit, nē caperētur nēve interfecerētur, he fled, that he
might not be captured or killed.

e. But neque (for nēve) is sometimes used in a second Purpose Clause
when ut stands in the first, and, after the Augustan era, even when the
first clause is introduced by nē.

f. Purpose Clauses sometimes stand in apposition with a preceding noun
or pronoun; as,—
hāc causā, ut pācem habērent, on this account, that they might
have peace.
2. A Relative Pronoun (quī) or Adverb (ubi, unde, quō) is frequently used to introduce a Purpose Clause; as,—

Helvētīī légātōs mittunt, quī diōerent, the Helvetii sent envoys to say (lit. who should say);
haeo habuī, dē senectūte quae diōerem, I had these things to say about old age;
nōn habēbat quō fugeret, he had no place to which to flee (lit. whether he might flee).

a. Quī in such clauses is equivalent to ut is, ut ego, etc.; ubi to ut ibi; unde to ut inde; quō to ut eō.

3. Relative clauses of purpose follow dignus, indignus, and idō-neus; as,—

idō-neus fuit nēmō quem imitārēre, there was no one suitable for you to imitate (cf. nēmō fuit quem imitārēre, there was no one for you to imitate);
dignus est quī aliquandō imperet, he is worthy to rule sometime.

4. Purpose Clauses often depend upon something to be supplied from the context instead of upon the principal verb of their own sentences; as,—

ut haeo omnia omittam, abiimus, to pass over all this, (I will say that) we departed.

Clauses of Characteristic.

283. 1. A relative clause used to express a quality or characteristic of a general or indefinite antecedent is called a Clause of Characteristic, and usually stands in the Subjunctive; as,—

multa sunt, quae mentem aquant, there are many things which sharpen the wits.

Clauses of Characteristic are opposed to those relative clauses which are used merely to state some fact about a definite antecedent, and which therefore take the Indicative; as,—

Catō, senex jūcundus, quī Sapīēns appellātus est, Cato, a delightful old man, who was called 'The Wise.'

The Clause of Characteristic implies 'a person of the sort that does something'; the Indicative relative clause implies 'a particular person who does something.'
2. Clauses of Characteristic are used especially after such expressions as, est qui; sunt qui; nēmō est qui; nāllus est qui; ānus est qui; sōlus est qui; quis est qui; is qui; etc. Thus:—
sunt quī dīcant, there are (some) who say;
nēmō est qui putet, there is nobody who thinks;
sapientia est āna quae maestitiam pellat, philosophy is the only thing that drives away sorrow;
quae civitās est quae nōn ēvertī possit, what state is there that cannot be overthrown?
nōn is sum qui improbōs laudem, I am not the sort of man that praises the wicked.
   a. Sometimes (very rarely in Cicero and Caesar) the clause of characteristic is used after comparatives; as,—
nōn longius hostēs aberant quam quō tēlum adīgī possēt, the enemy were not too far off for a dart to reach them (lit. further off than [a point] to which a dart could be cast).

3. The Clause of Characteristic often conveys an accessory notion of cause (since) or opposition (although). Thus:—
   a) Cause. The relative is then frequently accompanied by ut quīppē, ut nepōte; as,—
       sō fortūnāte adulēscēns, quī tuae virtūtis Homērum praecōnem ēnvēnerīs, O fortunate man, since you have found a Homer as the herald of your valor;
       ut quī optimō ītūr eam prōvinciam obtinuerit, since he held that province by excellent right.
   b) Opposition:—
       egomet quī sērō Graecās litterās attīgissem, tamen complūrēs diēs Athēnīs commorātus sum, I, although I had taken up Greek literature late in life, nevertheless tarried several days at Athens.

4. Clauses of Characteristic may also be introduced by quīn = quī (quae, quod) nōn; as,—
nēmō est quīn saepe audierit, there is no one who has not often heard;
nēmō fuit milītum quīn vulnerārētur, there was no one of the soldiers who was not wounded.

5. Related to Clauses of Characteristic are also phrases of the type:
quōd sciam, so far as I know; quōd audierim, so far as I have heard.
Clauses of Result.

284. 1. Clauses of Result are usually introduced by ut (that, so that), negative ut nōn (so that not), and take the Subjunctive. The main clause often contains tantus, tālis, tot, is (= tālis), tam, ita, sic, adeō, or some similar word. Thus:—

quīs tam dēmēns est ut suā voluntāte maerēat, who is so senseless as to mourn of his own volition?
Siciliam ita vāstāvit ut restituī in antiquum statum nōn possit, he has so ravaged Sicily that it cannot be restored to its former condition;
mōns altissimus impendēbat, ut facile perpaucī prohibēre posseant, a very high mountain overhung, so that a very few could easily stop them;
nōn is es ut tē pudor unquam à turpitūdine āvocārit, you are not so constituted that shame ever called you back from baseness.

2. A Result Clause is often introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb, quī (= ut is), quō (= ut eō), etc.; as,—
nēmō est tam senex quī sē annum nōn putet posse vivere, nobody is so old as not to think he will live a year;
habētis eum cōnsulem quī pārēre vestris dēcorātis nōn dubitēt, you have a consul such as does not hesitate to obey your decrees.

a. These Relative Clauses of Result are closely related to the Clause of Characteristic, and sometimes it is difficult to distinguish the two constructions. It is best to class the relative clause as one of Characteristic, unless the result idea is clear and unmistakable.

3. Result clauses may also be introduced by quīn = ut nōn; as,—
nihil tam difficīle est quīn quaerēndō invēstīgārī possit, nothing is so difficult that it cannot be discovered by searching;
nēmō est tam fortis quīn ref novitātē perturbētur, no one is so steadfast as not to be thrown into confusion by a strange occurrence.

4. Note the use of quam ut (sometimes quam alone) to denote Result after comparatives; as,—

urbs erat mūnītior quam ut primō impetū capī posset, the city was too strongly fortified to be taken at the first attack (lit. more strongly fortified than [so] that it could be taken, etc.).
Causal Clauses.

285. Causal clauses are introduced chiefly by the following particles:—

1. Quod, quia, quoniam.
2. Cum.
3. Quandō.

286. The use of moods is as follows:—

1. Quod, quia, quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is *that of the writer or speaker*; they take the Subjunctive when the reason is viewed *as that of another*. Thus:—

Parthōs timeō quod diffidō copīs nostrīs, *I fear the Parthians,* because I distrust our troops.

Themistoclēs, quia nōn tūtus erat, Corcyram dēmigrāvit, *Themistocles, since he was not safe, moved to Corcyra.*

neque mē vīxisse paenītēt, quoniam bene vīxī, *I do not regret having lived, since I have lived well.*

Sōcratēs accusātus est quod corruopēret juventūtēm, *Socrates was arraigned on the ground that he was corrupting the young.* (Here the reason is not that of the writer but of the accuser. Hence the Subjunctive.)

Haedui Cæsarī grātiās sēgōrunt, quod sē periculō līberāvisset, *the Haedui thanked Caesar because he had delivered them from danger.* (The reason of the Haedui.)

quoniam Miltiādēs dīcere nōn posset, verba prō eō fēcit Tīsagorās, *since Miltiades could not speak, Tisagoras spoke for him.* (The reason of Tisagoras.)

noctū ambulābat Themistoclēs, quod somnum capere nōn posset, *Themistocles used to walk at night because (as he said) he couldn’t sleep.*

a. Verbs of *thinking* and *saying* often stand in the Subjunctive in causal clauses as though the act of thinking or saying, and not the contents of the thought or language, constituted the reason. Thus:—

Bellovacī suum numerum nōn complēvērunt, quod sē suō nōmine cum Rōmānīs bellum gestārōs dīcērent, *the Bellovaci did not furnish their complement,*
because they said they were going to wage war with the Romans on their own account.

b. Nōn quod, nōn quō (by attraction for nōn eō quod), nōn quia, not that, not because; and nōn quod nōn, nōn quō nōn, nōn quīn, not that . . . not; not because . . . not; not but that, are usually employed merely to introduce a hypothetical reason, and hence take the Subjunctive; as,—

id fēcī, nōn quod vōs hanc dēfēnśionem dēsalīderāre arbitrārer, sed ut omnēs intellegeant, this I did, not because I thought you needed this defense, but that all might perceive;

Crasō commendātiōnem nōn sum pollicitus, nōn quīn eam valītūram apud tē arbitrārer, sed egēre mihi commendātiōnē nōn vīdēbātur, I did not promise a recommendation to Crassus, not that I did not think it would have weight with you, but because he did not seem to me to need recommendation.

c. But clauses introduced by nōn quod, nōn quia take the Indicative if they state a fact, even though that fact is denied to be the reason for something; as,—

hoc īta sentiō, nōn quia sum ipse augur, sed quia sīc exāstimāre nōs est necesse, this I think, not because I am myself an augur (which I really am), but because it is necessary for us to think so.

2. Cum causal regularly takes the Subjunctive; as,—

quae cum īta sint, since this is so;
cum sīs mōrtālis, quae mōrtālia sunt, cūrā, since you are mortal, care for what is mortal.

a. Note the phrase cum praeśertim (praeśertim cum), especially since; as,—

Haeduōs accūsat, praeśertim cum eōrum precibus ad-
ductus bellum suscēperit, he blamed the Haeduī, especially since he had undertaken the war at their entreaties.

3. Quandō (less frequent than the other causal particles) governs the Indicative; as,—

id čmītō, quandō vōbis īta placēt, I pass over that, since you so wish.
Temporal Clauses introduced by Postquam, Ut, Ubi, Simul ac, etc.

287. 1. Postquam (posteōquam), after; ut, ubi, when; cum primum, simul, simul ac (simul atque), as soon as, when used to refer to a single past act regularly take the Perfect Indicative; as, —

Epaminondas postquam audīvit vicisse Boëtīōs, 'Satis' inquit 'vixī,' Epaminondas, after he heard that the Boetians had conquered, said, 'I have lived enough;'
id ut audīvit, Corocyram dēmīgāvit, when he heard this, he moved to Corcyra;
Caesar cum primum potuit, ad exercitum oontendit, Caesar, as soon as he could, hurried to the army;
ubi dē Caesaris adventū certōres factī sunt, lēgātōs ad eum mittunt, when they were informed of Caesar's arrival, they sent envoys to him.

a. The Historical Present may take the place of the Perfect in this construction.

2. To denote the repeated occurrence of an act, ut, ubi, simul atque, as often as, when following an historical tense, take the Pluperfect Indicative (compare §§ 288, 3; 302, 3); as, —

ut quisque Verris animum offenderat, in lautumīā statim consìēbātur, whenever anybody had offended Verres's feelings, he was forthwith put in the stone-quarry;
hostēs, ubi aliqūōs āgreditēs cōnāpezerant, adorlēbantur, whenever the enemy had seen any men disembarking, they attacked them.

a. In Livy and succeeding historians the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used to denote this repeated occurrence of an act ('Indefinite Frequency'); as, —

id ubi dixisset, hastam mittēbat, whenever he had said that, he hurled a spear.

3. Occasionally the above conjunctions are followed by the Pluperfect Indicative of a single occurrence. This is regularly the case with postquam in expressions denoting a definite interval of time (days, months, years, etc.), such as post tertium annum quam, triennīō postquam. Thus: —
Syntax.

quinque post diēbus quam Lūcā discesserat, ad Sārdiniam vēnit,
five days after he had departed from Luca he came to Sar-
dinia;

postquam occupātae Syrāōsae erant, prefectus est Carthā-
ginem, after Syracuse had been seized, he set out for Carthage.

4. The Imperfect Indicative also sometimes occurs to denote a continued
state; as,—

postquam Rōmam adventābant, senātus cōnsultus est, after they were
on the march towards Rome, the Senate was consulted;
postquam strūctī utrimque stābant, after they had been drawn up on both
sides and were in position.

5. Rarely postquam, posteāquam, following the analogy of cum, take
the Subjunctive, but only in the historical tenses; as,—

posteāquam sūmptūsae fērī funera coepissent, læge sublāta sunt,
after funerals had begun to be elaborate, they were done away with by law.

Temporal Clauses introduced by Cum.

A. Cum referring to the Past.

288. 1. Cum, when referring to the past, takes —

A. The Indicative (Imperfect, Historical Perfect, or
Pluperfect) to denote the point of time at which something
occurs.

B. The Subjunctive (Imperfect or Pluperfect) to de-
note the situation or circumstances under which something
occurs.

Examples: —

Indicative.

an tum erās cūnsul, cum in Palātiō mea domus ārdēbat, or were
you consul at the time when my house burned up on the Palatine?
creādī tum cum Sicilia fōrēbat opibus et cōpis magnā artificiā
suīsse in ēa Insulā, I believe that at the time when Sicily was
powerful in riches and resources there were great crafts in that
island;

eō tempore pāruit cum pārēre necesse erat, he obeyed at the time
when it was necessary to obey;

illō diē, cum est lāta lēx dē mā, on that day when the law concern-
ing me was passed.
SUBJUNCTIVE.

Lysander cum vellet Lycúrgúf lēgēs commūtāre, prohibitus est, when Lysander desired to change the laws of Lycurgus, he was prevented;

Pythagóras cum in geōmetriā quiddam novī invēnisset, Mūsēs bovem immolāsse dīcitur, when Pythagoras had discovered something new in geometry, he is said to have sacrificed an ox to the Muses.

a. Note that the Indicative is much less frequent in such clauses than the Subjunctive, and is regularly confined to those cases where the main clause has tum, eō dīs, eō annō, eō tempore or some similar correlative of the cum. Sometimes it depends entirely upon the point of view of the writer whether he shall employ the Indicative or Subjunctive.

2. When the logical order of the clauses is inverted, we find cum with the Perfect Indicative or Historical Present, in the sense of when, when suddenly. The main clause in such cases often has jam, vīx, aegrē, nōndum; as,—

jam Gallī ex oppidō fugere apparaēbant, cum mātrēs familiae repente prōcurrērunt, the Gauls were already preparing to flee, when suddenly the matrons rushed forth (logically, the matrons rushed forth as the Gauls were preparing to flee);

Trēvirī Labiēnum adorīrī parābant, cum duās legiōnēs vēnisse cognōscunt, the Treviri were preparing to attack, when (suddenly) they learned that two legions had arrived.

3. To denote a recurring action in the past, cum is followed by the Indicative, particularly of the Pluperfect (compare §§ 287, 2; 302, 3); as,—

cum ad aliquod oppidum vēnerat, eādem lectīcā ad cubiculum dēferēbātur, whenever he had arrived at some town, he was (always) carried in the same litter to his room;

cum equitātus noster sē in agrōs sējēcerat, esseārīōs ex silvās ēmittēbat, whenever our cavalry had advanced into the fields, he would send his charioteers out from the woods.

a. Sometimes the Imperfect of Pluperfect Subjunctive is thus used; as,—

sēpe cum aliquem vidēret minus bene vestītum, suum amiculum dēdit, often, whenever he saw some one more poorly clothed, he gave him his own mantle;

cum prōcucurrisserent, Numidae effugībant, as often as they had advanced, the Numidians ran away.

This construction is frequent in Livy and subsequent historians.
B. Cum referring to the Present or Future.

289. When *cum* refers to the Present or Future it regularly takes the Indicative; as,—

*tum tua res agitur, paries cum proximus ardet, your own interests are at stake when your neighbor's house is burning; cum videbis, tum sciis, when you see, then you will know.*

*a. The Indicative of the Present or Future may denote also a recurring action; as,—*

*stabilitas amicitiae confirmari potest, cum hominum cupidinibus imperabunt, firm friendship can be established whenever men shall control their desires.*

C. Other Uses of Cum.

290. 1. *Cum Explicative.* *Cum,* with the Indicative, is sometimes used to indicate the identity of one act with another; as,—

*cum tacent, clamant, their silence is a shout (lit. when they are silent, they shout).*

2. *Cum . . . tum.* When *cum . . . tum* mean *both . . . and,* the *cum*-clause is in the Indicative; but when *cum* has the force of *while, though,* it may take the Subjunctive; as,—

*cum te semper dilexerim, tum tuus factus incensus sum, while I have always loved you, at the same time I am incensed at your conduct.*

Clauses introduced by *Antequam* and *Priusquam.*

A. With the Indicative.

291. *Antequam* and *priusquam* (often written *ante . . . quam, prius . . . quam*) take the Indicative to denote *an actual fact.*

1. Sometimes the Present or Future Perfect; as,—

*prius respondes quam rogò, you answer before I ask; nihil contrà disputabò priusquam dixerit, I will say nothing in opposition, before he speaks.*

2. Sometimes the Perfect, especially after negative clauses; as,—

*nón prius jugulandi finis fuit, quam Sulla omnès suós dividitís explévit, there was no end of murder until Sulla satisfied all his henchmen with wealth.*
Clauses with Dum, Dónece, etc.

B. WITH THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

292. Antequam and prīusquam take the Subjunctive to
denote an act as anticipated.

1. Thus the Subjunctive may denote —
   a) An act in preparation for which the main act takes place; as,—
      prīusquam dīmicārent, foedus Ictum est, i.e. in anticipa-
      tion of the fight, a treaty was struck.
      By an extension of this usage, the Subjunctive is sometimes used of general
      truths, where the anticipatory notion has faded out; as,—
      tempestās minūtātur antequam surgat, the tempest threatens before it rises.
   b) An act anticipated and forestalled; as,—
      prīusquam tēlum adicī posset, omnis acīs terga vertit,
      before a spear could be hurled, the whole army fled.
   c) An act anticipated and deprecated; as,—
      animum omittunt prīusquam locō dēmigrent, they die
      rather than quit their post.

2. After historical tenses the Imperfect Subjunctive is used, espe-
cially by post-Augustan writers, where the notion of anticipation has
practically vanished; as,—
   sōl antequam sē abderet fugientem vidit Antōnium, the sun before
   it set saw Antony fleeing.

Clauses introduced by Dum, Dónece, Quoad.

293. I. Dum, while, regularly takes the Indicative of
the Historical Present; as,—
   Alexander, dum inter prīmōrēs pugnat, sagittā Ictus est, Alex-
   ander, while he was fighting in the van, was struck by an arrow;
   dum haec geruntur, in finēs Venellōrum pervēnit, while these
   things were being done, he arrived in the territory of the Venelli.

II. Dum, dōnece, and quoad, as long as, take the Indica-
tive; as,—
   dum anima est, spēs est, as long as there is life, there is hope;
   Lacedaemoniōrum gēns fortis fuit, dum Lycūrgi lēgēs vigēbant,
   the race of the Lacedaemonians was powerful, as long as the laws
   of Lycurgus were in force;
   Catō, quoad vīxit, virtūtum laude crēvit, Cato, as long as he lived,
   increased in the fame of his virtues.
III. Dum, dòneò, and quoad, until, take:—

1. The Indicative, to denote an actual event; as,—

dòneò redìit, fuit silentìum, there was silence till he came;
ferrum in corpore reònutì, quoad renùntìatum est Boeòtiòs
voìisse, he kept the iron in his body until word was brought that
the Boeotians had conquered.

a. In Livy and subsequent historians dum and dòneò in this sense often
take the Subjunctive instead of the Indicative; as,—

trepidìtìonis allìquantum èdëbant dòneò timor quiìtem
fìcìsset, they showed some trepidation, until fear produced quiet.

2. The Subjunctive, to denote anticipation or expectancy; as,—

exspectòvit Caesar dum nàvēs convenìrent, Caesar waited for the
ships to assemble;
dum hostēs veniànt, mòrābor, I shall wait for the enemy to come.

Substantive Clauses.

294. A Substantive Clause is one which as a whole
serves as the Subject or Object of a verb, or stands in some
other case relation.

A. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Volitive.

295. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Volitive
are used with the following classes of verbs:—

1. With verbs signifying to admonish, request, command, urge, persuade, induce,¹ etc. (conjunctions ut, nè, or ut nè); as,—

postulò ut fiat, I demand that it be done (dependent form of the
Jussive fiat, let it be done!);
ôrat, nè abeàs, he begs that you will not go away;
mìlitēs cohotētātus est ut hostìum impetum sustìnērent, he ex-
horted his soldiers to withstand the attack of the enemy;
Helvētīs persuāsit ut exìrent, he persuaded the Helvetii to March
forth.

a. Jubeò, command, order, regularly takes the Infinitive.

¹ Especially: moneò, admoneò; rogò, òrò, petò, postulò, precor,
flàgitò; mandò, imperò, praecipiò; suàdeò, hortor, cohortor; per-
suàdeò, impelliò.
2. With verbs signifying to grant, concede, permit, allow, etc. (conjunction ut); as, —

Huic concessō ut ea praeterereat, I allow him to pass that by (dependent form of the Jussive ea praeterereat, let him pass that by!);
Consul permisssum est ut duas legiones scriberet, the consul was permitted to enroll two legions.

3. With verbs of hindering, preventing, etc. (conjunctions ne, quōminus, quin); as, —

Ne lustrum perficeret, mors prohibuit, death prevented him from finishing the lustrum (dependent form after past tense of ne lustrum perficiat, let him not finish, etc.);
Prohibuit quōminus in únum coērent, he prevented them from coming together;
Ne quin ērumperet, prohiberī poterat, nor could he be prevented from rushing forth.

a. Quin is used only when the verb of hindering is accompanied by a negative, or stands in a question implying a negative; it is not necessarily used even then.

4. With verbs of deciding, resolving, etc. (conjunctions ut, ne, or ut ne); as, —

Constitueram ut prīdiē İdūs Aquinī manērem, I had decided to remain at Aquinum on the 12th;
Décrēvit senātus ut Opimius vidēret, the Senate decreed that Opimius should see to it;
Convēnit ut únis castrīs miscērentur, it was agreed that they should be united in one camp.

5. With verbs of striving, etc. (conjunctions ut, ne, or ut ne); as, —

Fac ut eum exōrēs, see to it that you prevail upon him!
Oūrā ut vir sīs, see to it that you are a man!
Labōrābat ut reliquās cōvitātēs adjungeret, he was striving to join the remaining states to him.

a. Cōnor, try, always takes the Infinitive.

NOTE. — Verbs of all the above classes also admit the Infinitive, especially in poetry.

1 Especially: permittō, concessō, nōn patīor.
2 Especially: prohibeō, impediō, dēterreō.
3 Especially: cōnstituō, dēcernō, Cōnsecō, placuit, convenit, pacišcor.
4 Especially: labōrō, dō operam, id agō, contendō, impetrō.
6. With a few other expressions, such as necesse est, reliquum est, sequitur, licet, oportet; as,—

reliquum est ut doceam, it remains for me to show;
licet redeas, you may return;
oportet loquamur, we must speak.

On the absence of ut with licet and oportet, see paragraph 8.

7. Here also belong phrases of the type: nulla causa est cur, quin; non est cur, etc.; nihil est cur, etc.; as,—
nulla causa est cur timeam, there is no reason why I should fear
(originally Deliberative: why should I fear? There's no reason);
nihil est quin dicam, there is no reason why I should not say.

8. Many of the above classes of verbs at times take the simple Subjunctive without ut. In such cases we must not recognize any omission of ut, but simply an earlier form of expression which existed before the ut-clause arose. This is regularly the case with necesse est, licet, and oportet; see 6. Other examples are:—

eos moneat desinant, I warn them to stop;
huius imperat adeat obtitias, he orders him to visit the states.

B. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Optative.

296. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Optative occur:—

1. With verbs of wishing, desiring, especially cupio, opto, volo, malo (conjunctions ut, ne, ut ne); as,—

opto ut in hoc judiciis nemo improbus reperiatur, I hope that in
this court no bad man may be found (here ut reperiatur represents a simple optative of direct statement, viz. reperiatur, may
no bad man be found!);
cupio ne veniat, I desire that he may not come.

a. The simple Subjunctive (without ut) sometimes occurs with verbs of
this class. (See § 295, 8.) Examples are: velim scribas, I wish
you would write; vellem scriptisset, I wish he had written.

2. With expressions of fearing (timeo, metuo, vereor, etc.). Here ne means that, lest, and ut means that not; as,—
timeo ne veniat, I fear that he will come (originally: may he not come!
I'm afraid [he will]);
timeo ut veniat, I fear that he will not come (originally: may he come!
I'm afraid [he won't]).
Substantive Clauses.

a. Nē nōn sometimes occurs instead of ut, especially where the verb of fearing has a negative, or where the writer desires to emphasize some particular word in the dependent clause; as,—

nōn vereor nē hōc nōn flat, I am not afraid that this will not happen;
vereor nē exercitum firmum habēre nōn possit, I fear that he is unable (nōn possit) to have a strong army.

C. Substantive Clauses of Result.

297. Substantive Clauses of Result (introduced by ut, ut nōn) are a development of pure Result clauses, and occur with the following classes of words: —

1. As object clauses after verbs of doing, accomplishing (especially faciō, efficiō, cōnfirmō). Thus: —
gravitās morbi facit ut medicīnā egeāmus, the severity of disease makes us need medicine.

2. As the subject of several impersonal verbs, particularly fit, efficiitur, accidit, evenit, contingit, accēdit, fierī potest, fore, sequitur, relinquitur. Thus: —
exquō efficiitur, ut voluptās nōn sit summum bonum, from which it follows that pleasure is not the greatest good;
ita fit, ut nēmō esse possit beātus, thus it happens that no one can be happy;
accēdēbat ut nāvēs deessent, another thing was the lack of ships (lit. it was added that ships were lacking).

3. As predicate or appositive after expressions like jūs est, mōs est, cōnsuētūdō est; also after neuter pronouns, hōc, illud, etc. Thus: —
est mōs hominum ut nōlint eundem plūribus rābus excellere, it is the way of men not to wish the same person to excel in many things.

D. Substantive Clauses Introduced by Quīn.

298. Substantive Clauses introduced by quīn (used sometimes as subject, sometimes as object) occur after negative and interrogative expressions of doubt, omission, and the like, particularly after nōn dubitō, I do not doubt; quis
Syntax.

dubitat, who doubts?; nōn (haud) dubium est, there is no doubt. The mood is the Subjunctive. Examples:—

quis dubitat quīn in virtūte divitiae sint, who doubts that in virtue there are riches?
nōn dubium erat quīn ventūrus esset, there was no doubt that he was about to come.

a. In Nepos, Livy, and post-Augustan writers an Infinitive sometimes takes the place of the quīn-clause after nōn dubitō; as,—
nōn dubitāmus inventōs esse, we do not doubt that men were found.

b. Nōn dubitō, I do not hesitate, is regularly followed by the Infinitive, though sometimes by a quīn-clause.

E. Substantive Clauses Introduced by Quod.

299. 1. Quod, the fact that, that, introduces Substantive Clauses in the Indicative. This construction occurs especially—

a) In apposition with a preceding demonstrative, as hōc, id, illud, illa, ex eō, inde, etc. Thus:—

illud est admirātiōne dignum, quod captivōs retinēn-
dōs cōnsuit, this is especially worthy of admiration, that he thought the prisoners ought to be kept;

hōc tīnō præstāmus vel maximē ferēs, quod oolloqui-
mur inter nōs, in this one respect we are especially superior to the beasts, that we talk with each other.

b) After bene fit, bene accidit, male fit, bene facere, mīror, etc.; as,—

bene mihi accidit, quod mittor ad mortem, it is well for me that I am sent to death;
bene fēcisti quod mānsistī, you did well in remaining.

2. Quod at the beginning of the sentence sometimes has the force of as regards the fact that. Thus:—

quod multitūdinem Germānōrum in Galliam trādūcē, id meī māniendī causā faciō, as regards the fact that I am transporting a multitude of Germans into Gaul, I am doing it for the sake of strengthening myself;

quod mā Agamemnona aemulārī putēs, fallēris, as regards your thinking that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken.
F. Indirect Questions.

300. 1. Indirect Questions are Substantive Clauses used after verbs of asking, inquiring, telling, and the like. They take their verb in the Subjunctive. Like Direct Questions (see § 162) they may be introduced —

a) By Interrogative Pronouns or Adverbs; as,—

dō mihi ubi fueris, quid fāceris, tell me where you were, what you did;
oūlla jūdicārī nōn potest in utram partem fluit Arar, it cannot be determined by the eye in which direction the Arar flows;
bis bīna quot essent, nesciēbat, he did not know how many two times two were.

Note. — Care should be taken to distinguish Indirect Questions from Relative Clauses. The difference between the two appears clearly in the following: —
effugere nēmō id potest quod futūrum est, no one can escape what is destined to come to pass; but
saepe autem ne útile quidem est sōlre quid futūrum sit, but often it is not even useful to know what is coming to pass.

b) By num or -ne, without distinction of meaning; as,—

Epaminōndās quaesīvit num salvus esset clipeus, or saluus e esse clipeus, Epaminondas asked whether his shield was safe;
disputātur num interīre virtūs in homine possit, the question is raised whether virtue can die in a man;
ex Sōcrate quaesītum est nōnne Archelāum beātum putāret, the question was asked of Socrates whether he did not think Archelaus happy.

Note. — Nōnne in Indirect Questions occurs only after quaerō, as in the last example above.

2. Often the Indirect Question represents a Deliberative Subjunctive of the direct discourse; as,—

nesciō quid faciam, I do not know what to do. (Direct: quid faciam, what shall I do!)

1 Exclamations, also, upon becoming indirect, take the Subjunctive, as cōnsiderā quam variae sint hominum cupidīnēs, consider how varied are the desires of men. (Direct: quam variae sunt hominum cupidīnēs!)
3. After verbs of expectation and endeavor (expectō, cōnār, expērīr, temptō) we sometimes find an Indirect Question introduced by si; as,—

ōnuntur si perrumpere possint, they try whether they can break through.

a. Sometimes the governing verb is omitted; as,—

pergit ad proximam spēluncam si forte eō vēstigia ferrent, he proceeded to the nearest cave (to see) if the tracks led thither.

4. **Indirect Double Questions** are introduced in the main by the same particles as direct double questions (§ 162, 4); *viz.*:

    utrum . . . an;
    -ne . . . . an;
    — . . . . an;
    — . . . . ne.

Examples:—

quaẹrō utrum vērum an falsum sit,
quaẹrō vērumne an falsum sit,
quaẹrō vērum an falsum sit,
quaẹrō vērum falsumne sit,

I ask whether it is true or false?

a. ‘Or not’ in the second member of the double question is ordinarily expressed by necne, less frequently by an nōn; as,—

di utrum sint necne, quaeritur, it is asked whether there are gods or not.

5. **Haud scio an, nescio an,** by omission of the first member of the double question, occur with the Subjunctive in the sense: *I am inclined to think, probably, perhaps*; as,—

haud scio an hōc vērum sit, I am inclined to think this is true.

6. In early Latin and in poetry the Indicative is sometimes used in Indirect Questions.

**CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.**

301. Conditional Sentences are compound sentences (§ 164) consisting of two parts, the Protasis (or condition), usually introduced by si, nisi, or sim, and the Apodosis (or conclusion). There are the following types of Conditional Sentences:—
Conditional Sentences.

First Type.—Nothing Implied as to the Reality of the Supposed Case.

302. 1. Here we regularly have the Indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis. Any tense may be used; as,—

si hóc orēdis, errās, if you believe this, you are mistaken;
nātūram si sequīmur, numquam aberrābimus, if we follow Nature, we shall never go astray;
si hóc dixistī, errāstī, if you said this, you were in error.

2. Sometimes the Protasis takes the Indefinite Second Person Singular ($§$ 356, 3) of the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, with the force of the Indicative; as,—

memoria minuitur, nisi eam exercēās, memory is impaired unless you exercise it.

3. Here belong also those conditional sentences in which the Protasis denotes a repeated action (compare $§§$ 287, 2; 288, 3) ; as,—

si quis equitum dēciderat, peditās cirioumsistēbant, if any one of the horsemen fell, the foot-soldiers gathered about him.

a. Instead of the Indicative, Livy and subsequent writers employ the Subjunctive of the Historical tenses in the Protasis to denote repeated action; as,—

si dicendō quis diem eximeret, if (ever) anybody consumed a day in pleading; si quandō adsidēret, if ever he sat by.

4. Where the sense demands it, the Apodosis in conditional sentences of the First Type may be an Imperative or one of the Independent Subjunctives (Hortatory, Deliberative, etc.); as,—

si hóc crēditis, tacēte, if you believe this, be silent;
si hóc crēdimus, tacēāmus, if we believe this, let us keep silent.

Second Type. — 'Should'-'Would' Conditions.

303. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive (of the Present or Perfect tense) in both Protasis and Apodosis; as,—

si hóc dīcās, errās, si hóc dīxeris, errāveris, if you should say this, you would be mistaken.

si velim Hannibalis proelia omnia dēscriberē, dīs mē dēficiat, if I should wish to describe all the battles of Hannibal, time would fail me;
mentiar, si negem, I should lie, if I should deny it;
haec si tēcum patria loquātur, nōnne impetrāre dēbeat, if your
country should plead thus with you, would she not deserve to
obtain her request?

a. The Subjunctive in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of this type
is of the Potential variety.
b. Sometimes we find the Indicative in the Apodosis of sentences of the
Second Type, where the writer wishes to assert the accomplishment of
a result more positively; as,—

aliter si faciat, nūllam habet auctōritātem, if he should do
otherwise, he has no authority.

Third Type.—Supposed Case Represented as Contrary to
Fact.

304. 1. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive in both
Protasis and Apodosis, the Imperfect referring to present
time, and the Pluperfect referring to past; as,—

si amīci meī adēssent, opis nōn indigērem, if my friends were here,
I should not lack assistance;

si hōc dīxissēs, errāssēs, if you had said this, you would have

erred;

sapientia nōn expeterētur, si nihil efficeret, philosophy would not
be desired, if it accomplished nothing;

cōnsilium, ratiō, sententia nisi essent in senibus, nōn summum
cōnsilium majōrēs nostrī appellāssent senātum, unless de-
liberation, reason, and wisdom existed in old men, our ances-
tors would not have called their highest deliberative body a

senate.

2. Sometimes the Imperfect Subjunctive is found referring to the
past, especially to denote a continued act, or a state of things still exist-
ing; as,—

Laelius, Furius, Catō, si nihil litterās adjuvārentur, numquam sē
ad eārum studium contulissent, Laelius, Furius, and Cato
would never have devoted themselves to the study of letters,
unless they had been (constantly) helped by them;

num igitur si ad centēsimum annum vīxisset, senectūtis eum
suae paenitēret, if he had lived to his hundredth year,
would he have regretted (and now be regretting) his old
age?
Conditional Sentences.

3. The Apodosis in conditional sentences of this type sometimes stands in the Indicative (Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect), *viz.* —

a) Frequently in expressions of *ability, obligation, or necessity*; as,—

*nisi felicitas in sordiam vertisset, exueret jugum potuerunt, unless their prosperity had turned to folly, they could have thrown off the yoke;*

*NOTE.* — In sentences of this type, however, it is not the *possibility* that is represented as contrary-to-fact, but something to be supplied in thought from the context. Thus in the foregoing sentence the logical apodosis is *et exuissent* understood (*and they would have shaken it off*). When the *possibility* itself is conditioned, the Subjunctive is used.

*eum patris loco colere debebas, si illa in te pietas esset, you ought to revere him as a father, if you had any sense of devotion.*

b) With both the Periphrastic Conjugations; as,—

*si Pompeius occisus esset, fuistisne ad arma iturif, if Pompey had been slain, would you have proceeded to arms?*

*si unum diem morasti essetis, moriendum omnibus fuit, if you had delayed one day, you would all have had to die.*

Protasis expressed without *si.*

305. 1. The Protasis is not always expressed by a clause with *si,* but may be implied in a word, a phrase, or merely by the context; as,—

*aliquis haec non scriberentur, otherwise (i.e. if matters were otherwise) these things would not be written; non potestis, voluptate omnia dirigentes, retinere virtutem, you cannot retain virtue, if you direct everything with reference to pleasure.*

2. Sometimes an Imperative, or a Jussive Subjunctive, serves as Protasis. Thus:—

*oras petit, dabitur, if you ask to-morrow, it shall be given you (lit. ask to-morrow, etc.); haec reputent, videbunt, if they consider this, they will see (lit. let them consider, etc.); rogab Aristonem, respondeat, if you should ask Aristo, he would answer.*
Syntax.

Use of Nisi, Sī Nōn, Sīn.

306. 1. 

Nisi, unless, negatives the entire protasis; sī nōn negatives a single word; as,—

ferreus essem, nisi tē amārem, I should be hard-hearted unless I loved you; but—

ferreus essem, sī tē nōn amārem, I should be hard-hearted if I did not love you.

In the first example, it is the notion of loving you that is negatived, in the second, the notion of loving.

2. Sī nōn (sī minus) is regularly employed:—

a) When an apodosis with at, tamem, certē follows; as,—

dolorem sī nōn potuerō frangere, tamem occultābō, if I cannot crush my sorrow, yet I will hide it.

b) When an affirmative protasis is repeated in negative form; as,—

sī fāceris, magnam habābō grātiam; sī nōn fāceris, ignōscam, if you do it, I shall be deeply grateful; if you do not do it, I shall pardon you.

a. But if the verb is omitted in the repetition, only sī minus or sīn minus is admissible; as,—

hōc sī assecūtus sum, gaudeō; sī minus, mē cōnsōlor, if I have attained this, I am glad; if not, I console myself.

3. Sīn. Where one protasis is followed by another opposed in meaning, but affirmative in form, the second is introduced by sīn; as,—

hunc mihi timōrem sēripe; sī vērus est, nē opprimar, sīn falsus, ut timēre désinam, relieve me of this fear; if it is well founded, that I may not be destroyed; but if it is groundless, that I may cease to fear.

4. Nisi has a fondness for combining with negatives (nōn, nēmō, nihil); as,—

nihil cōgitāvit nisi caedem, he had no thought but murder.

a. Nōn and nisi are always separated in the best Latinity.

5. Nisi forte, nisi vērō, nisi sī, unless perchance, unless indeed (often with ironical force), take the Indicative; as,—

nisi vērō, quia perfecta rōs nōn est, nōn vidētur pūnienda, unless indeed, because an act is not consummated, it does not seem to merit punishment.
Conditional Clauses of Comparison.

307. 1. Conditional Clauses of Comparison are introduced by the particles, *ac si*, *ut si*, *quasi*, *quam si*, *tamquam si*, *velut si*, or simply by *velut* or *tamquam*. They stand in the Subjunctive mood and regularly involve an ellipsis (see § 374, 1), as indicated in the following examples:

*tantus patrēs metus cēpit, velut si jam ad portās hostis esset, as great fear seised the senators as (would have seised them) if the enemy were already at the gates;*

*sed quid ego hīs testibus ūtor quasi rēs dūbia aut obscura sit, but why do I use these witnesses, as (I should do) if the matter were doubtful or obscure;*

*serviam tibi tamquam si ēmerīs mē argentō, I will serve you as though you had bought me for money.*

2. Note that in sentences of this kind the Latin observes the regular principles for the Sequence of Tenses. Thus after principal tenses the Latin uses the Present and Perfect (as in the second and third examples), where the English uses the Past and the Past Perfect.

Concessive Clauses.

308. The term ‘Concessive’ is best restricted to those clauses developed from the Jussive Subjunctive which have the force of *granted that, etc.*; as,—

*sit fūr, sit sacrilegus, at est bonus imperātor, granted that he is a thief and a robber, yet he is a good commander;*

*ut hōc vērum sit, granted that this is true;*

*nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est, granted that pain is not the greatest evil, yet it is certainly an evil.*

Adversative Clauses with *Quamvīs, Quamquam, etc.*

309. Clauses introduced by *quamvīs*, *quamquam*, *etsī*, *tametsī*, *cum*, *although*, while often classed as ‘Concessive,’ are yet essentially different from genuine Concessive clauses. As a rule, they do not *grant* or *concede* anything, but rather state that something is true *in spite of*
something else. They accordingly emphasize the adversative idea, and are properly Subordinate Adversative Clauses. The different particles used to introduce these clauses have different meanings and take different constructions, as follows:—

1. **Quamvis**, however much, although, does not introduce a statement of fact, but represents an act merely as conceived. It is followed by the Subjunctive, usually of the present tense; as,—

*hominēs quamvis in turbidīs rēbus sint, tamen interdum animīs relaxantur, in however stirring events men may engage, yet at times they relax their energies; nōn est potestās opitulandī rēl pūblīcāe quamvis ea premātur perīoula, there is no opportunity to succor the state, though it be beset by dangers.*

2. **Quamquam**, etsī, tametsī, although, introduce a statement of fact, and are followed by the Indicative (of any tense); as,—

*quamquam omnis virtūs nōs allicuit, tamen jūstitia id maximē efficit, although all virtue attracts us, yet justice does so especially; Caesar, etsī nōndum cōnsilium hostium cognōverat, tamen id quod accidit suspicābātur, Caesar, though he did not yet know the plans of the enemy, yet was suspecting what actually occurred.*

*a. etsī, although, must be distinguished from etsī, even if. The latter is a conditional particle and takes any of the constructions admissible for etsī. (See §§ 302–304.)*

3. **Cum**, although, is followed by the Subjunctive; as,—

*Atticus honōrēs nōn petīit, cum ei patērent, Atticus did not seek honors, though they were open to him.*

4. **Licet** sometimes loses its verbal force (see § 295, 6) and sinks to the level of a conjunction with the force of although. It takes the Subjunctive, Present or Perfect; as,—

*licet omnēs terrōrēs impendēant, succurram, though all terrors hang over me, (yet) I will lend aid.*

5. **Quamquam**, with the force and yet, is often used to introduce principal clauses; as,—

*quamquam quid loquor, and yet why do I speak?*
Clauses of Proviso.—Relative Clauses.

6. In post-Augustan writers quamquam is freely construed with the Subjunctive, while quamvis is often used to introduce statements of fact, and takes either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. Thus:—

quamquam moveretur his vōcibus, although he was moved by these words;
quamvis multit opīnārentur, though many thought;
quamvis infestō animō pervēnerās, though you had come with hostile intent.

Clauses with Dum, Modo, Dummodo, denoting a Wish or a Proviso.

310. These particles are followed by the Subjunctive (negative nē) and have two distinct uses:—

I. They are used to introduce clauses embodying a wish entertained by the subject of the leading verb; as,—

multī honesta neglegunt dummodo potentiam cōnsequentur,
many neglect honor in their desire to obtain power (if only they may attain);
omnia postposui, dum praeceptīs patris pārērem, I made everything else secondary, in my desire to obey the injunctions of my father;
nīl obstat tibi, dum nē sit dītior alter, nothing hinders you in your desire that your neighbor may not be richer than you.

II. They are used to express a proviso (‘provided that’); as,—

ōderint, dum metuant, let them hate, provided they fear;
manent ingeniā senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria,
old men retain their faculties, provided only they retain their interest and vigor;
nūbant, dum nē dōs flat comes, let them marry, provided no dowry goes with it.

Relative Clauses.

311. Relative Clauses are introduced by Relative Pronouns, Adjectives, or Adverbs.

312. 1. Relative clauses usually stand in the Indicative Mood, especially clauses introduced by those. General Relatives which are doubled or have the suffix -uncque; as,—
quidquid id est, timeō Danaōs et dōna ferentēs, whatever it is, I fear the Greeks even when they offer gifts;
quidquid oritur, quālecunque est, causam ā nāturā habet, whatever comes into being, of whatever sort it is, has its primal cause in Nature.

2. Any simple Relative may introduce a conditional sentence of any of the three types mentioned in §§ 302–304; as,—
quī hōc dīcit, errat, he who says this is mistaken (First Type);
quī hōc dīcat, erret, he would be mistaken who should say this (Second Type);
quī hōc dīxisset, errāset, the man who had said this would have been mistaken.

**INDIRECT DISCOURSE (ŌRĀTIŌ OBLĪQUA).**

313. When the language or thought of any person is reproduced without change, that is called Direct Discourse (Ōrātiō Rēcta); as, Caesar said, ‘The die is cast.’ When, on the other hand, one’s language or thought is made to depend upon a verb of saying, thinking, etc., that is called Indirect Discourse (Ōrātiō Obliqua); as, Caesar said that the die was cast; Caesar thought that his troops were victorious.

a. For the verbs most frequently employed to introduce Indirect Discourse, see § 331.

**MOODS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.**

**Declarative Sentences.**

314. 1. Declarative Sentences upon becoming Indirect change their main clause to the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, while all subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive; as,—

Rēgulus dīxit quam diū jūre jūrandō hostium tenērētur nōn esse sē senātōrem, Regulus said that as long as he was held by his pledge to the enemy he was not a senator. (Direct: quam diū teneor nōn sum senātor.)
2. The verb of *saying, thinking, etc.*, is sometimes to be inferred from the context; as,—

*tum Rōmulus lēgātōs circā vicinās gentēs mīsit qui societātem cōnābiumque peterent: urbēs quoque, ut ośtera, ex īnīmō nāscī, then Romulus sent envoys around among the neighboring tribes, to ask for alliance and the right of inter-marriage, (saying that) cities, like everything else, start from a modest beginning.*

3. Subordinate clauses which contain an explanatory statement of the writer and so are not properly a part of the Indirect Discourse, or which emphasize the fact stated, take the Indicative; as,—

*nāntiātum est Ariovistum ad occupandum Vesontiōnem, quod est oppositum maximum Sēquanōrum, contendere, it was reported that Ariovistus was hastening to seize Vesontio, which is the largest town of the Sequani.*

4. Sometimes a subordinate clause is such only in its external form, and in sense is principal. It then takes the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. This occurs especially in case of relative clauses, where qui is equivalent to *et hīc, nam hīc, etc.*; as,—

*dīxit urbem Athēniēnsium prōpugnāculum oppositum esse barbarīs, apud quam jam bis classēs rēgiās fācisse naufragium, he said the city of the Athenians had been set against the barbarians like a bulwark, near which (= and near it) the fleets of the King had twice met disaster.*

5. The Subject Accusative of the Infinitive is sometimes omitted when it refers to the same person as the subject of the leading verb, or can easily be supplied from the context; as,—

*cum id nescīre Māgō dīceret, when Mago said he did not know this (for sē nescīre).*

**Interrogative Sentences.**

315. 1. Real questions of the Direct Discourse, upon becoming indirect, are regularly put in the Subjunctive; as,—

*Ariovistus Caesarī respondit: sē prius in Galliam vēnisse quam populum Rōmānum. Quīd sībi vellet? Cūr in sua possessionēs venīret, Ariovistus replied to Caesar that he*
had come into Gaul before the Roman people. What did he (Caesar) mean? Why did he come into his do man? (Direct: quid tibi vis? cur in meās possessiones venis?)

2. Rhetorical questions, on the other hand, being asked merely for effect, and being equivalent in force to emphatic statements, regularly stand in the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse. Thus:—

quid est levius (lit. what is more trivial, = nothing is more trivial) of the Direct Discourse becomes quid esse levius in the Indirect.

3. Deliberative Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse remain unchanged in mood in the Indirect; as,—

quid faceret, what was he to do? (Direct: quid faciat?)

**Imperative Sentences.**

316. All Imperatives or Jussive Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse appear as Subjunctives in the Indirect; as,—

militēs certīōrēs fācit paulisper intermittent proelium, he told the soldiers to stop the battle for a little. (Direct: intermittite.)

a. The Negative in such sentences is nē; as,—

nē suae virūtū tribueret, let him not attribute it to his own valor!

**TENSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.**

**A. Tenses of the Infinitive.**

317. These are used in accordance with the regular principles for the use of the Infinitive as given in § 270.

a. The Perfect Infinitive may represent any past tense of the Indicative of Direct Discourse. Thus:—

sciō tē haec sēgisse may mean—

I know you were doing this. (Direct: haec aebās.)
I know you did this. (Direct: haec ēgistī.)
I know you had done this. (Direct: haec ēgērēs.)
Indirect Discourse.

B. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

318. These follow the regular principle for the Sequence of Tenses, being Principal if the verb of *saying* is Principal; Historical if it is Historical. Yet for the sake of vividness, we often find the Present Subjunctive used after an historical tense (*Repraesentatiō*); as, —

*Caesar respondit, si obsidēs dentur, sēsē pācem esse factūrum*,

*Caesar replied that, if hostages be given, he would make peace.*

*a. For the sequence after the Perfect Infinitive, see § 268, 2.*

Conditional Sentences in Indirect Discourse.

Conditional Sentences of the First Type.

319. A. The Apodosis. Any tense of the Indicative is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive (§§ 270; 317, a).

B. The Protasis. The protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive which are required by the Sequence of Tenses.

Examples: —

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct.</th>
<th>Indirect.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| sī hoc *credīs, errās,*     | {dīcō, sī hoc *credēs, tē errāre*;}
|                            | {dīxi, sī hoc *credērēs, tē errāre*} |
| sī hoc *credēs, errābis,*   | {dīcō, sī hoc *credēs, tē errātūrum esse*;}
|                            | {dīxi, sī hoc *credērēs, tē errātūrum esse*} |
| sī hoc *credīderis, errābis,*| {dīcō, sī hoc *credēderis, tē errātūrum esse*;}
|                            | {dīxi, sī hoc *credīdissēs, tē errātūrum esse*} |
| sī hoc *credēbās, errāvisti,*| {dīcō, sī hoc *credērēs, tē errāvisse*;}
|                            | {dīxi, sī hoc *credērēs, tē errāvisse*} |

*a. Note that a Future Perfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse regularly appears in the Indirect as a Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and as a Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense.*
Syntax.

Conditional Sentences of the Second Type.


B. The Protasis. The Protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive demanded by the sequence of tenses.

Examples:—

\[ \text{si hoc crēdās, errēs, } \{ \text{dicō, si hoc crēdās, tē errātūrum esse; } \]
\[ \text{dixī, si hoc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse. } \]

Conditional Sentences of the Third Type.

321. A. The Apodosis.

1. The Imperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes the Future Infinitive.

a. But this construction is rare, being represented in the classical Latinity by a single example (Caesar, V. 29. 2). Some scholars question the correctness of this passage.

2. The Pluperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes:—

a) In the Active Voice the Infinitive in -ūrus fuisse.

b) In the Passive Voice it takes the form futūrum fuisset ut with the Imperfect Subjunctive.

B. The Protasis. The protasis in Conditional Sentences of this type always remains unchanged.

Examples:—

\[ \text{si hoc crēderēs, errērēs, } \text{dicō (dixi), si hoc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse; } \]
\[ \text{si hoc crēdīdīssēs, errāvissēs, } \text{dicō (dixi), si hoc crēdīdīssēs, tē errātūrum fuisset } \]
\[ \text{si hoc dīxissēs, pūnītus essēs, } \text{dicō (dixi), si hoc dīxissēs futūrum fuisset ut pūnīrēris. } \]

322. When an apodosis of a conditional sentence of the Third Type referring to the past is at the same time a Result clause, or a
quīn-clause (after nōn dubitō, etc.), it stands in the Perfect Subjunctive in the form -ūrus fuerim; as,—

ita terrītī sunt, ut arma trāditūrī fuerint, nīsi Caesar subitō advēnisset, they were so frightened that they would have given up their arms, had not Caesar suddenly arrived;
nōn dubitō quīn, sī hōc dīxīssēs, errātūrus fuerīs, I do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have made a mistake.

a. This peculiarity is confined to the Active Voice. In the Passive, such sentences, when they become dependent, remain unchanged; as,—
nōn dubitō quīn, sī hōc dīxīssēs, vituperātus essēs, I do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have been blamed.

b. When an Indirect Question becomes an apodosis in a conditional sentence of the Third Type, -ūrus fuerim (rarely -ūrus fuīsse) is used; as,—

quaerō, num, sī hōc dīxīssēs, errātūrus fuerīs (or fuīsse).

c. Potūl, when it becomes a dependent apodosis in sentences of this Type, usually changes to the Perfect Subjunctive; as,—
concursū tōtīs civitātis dēfēnāl sunt, ut frigidissimōs quoque ōrātōrēs populi studia excitāre potuerint, they were defended before a gathering of all the citizens, so that the interest of the people would have been enough to excite even the most apathetic orators.

IMPLIED INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

323. The Subjunctive is often used in subordinate clauses whose Indirect character is merely implied by the context; as,—

dēmōnstrābantur mihi præterēa, quae Sōcratēs dē immortālitāte animōrum disseruīssēt, there were explained to me besides, the arguments which Socrates had set forth concerning the immortality of the soul (i.e. the arguments which, it was said, Socrates had set forth);

Paetus omnēs librōs quōs pater suos reliquisset mihi dōnāvit,
Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said) his father had left.

1 Trāditūrī fuerint and errātūrus fuerīs are to be regarded as representing trāditūrī fuērunt and errātūrus fuīstī of Direct Discourse. (See § 304. 3. b.)
SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION.

324. 1. Subordinate clauses dependent upon the Subjunctive are frequently attracted into the same mood, especially when they do not express a fact, but constitute an essential part of one complex idea; as,—

nēmō avārus adhuc inventus est, cui, quod habēret, esset satis, no miser hās yet been found who was satisfied with what he had;

cum diversās causās afferrent, dum fōrmam sūl quisque et animī et ingenī rediderent, as they brought forward different arguments, while each mirrored his own individual type of mind and natural bent;

quod ego fatear, pudet? should I be ashamed of a thing which I admit?

2. Similarly a subordinate clause dependent upon an Infinitive is put in the Subjunctive when the two form one closely united whole; as,—

mōs est Athēnēs quotannis in oōntionē laudāri eōs qui sint in proelīs interfecētī, it is the custom at Athens every year for those to be publicly eulogised who have been killed in battle. (Here the notion of 'praising those who fell in battle' forms an inseparable whole.)

NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.

325. These are the Infinitive, Participle, Gerund, and Supine. All of these partake of the nature of the Verb, on the one hand, and of the Noun or Adjective, on the other. Thus:—

As Verbs,—

a) They may be limited by adverbs;
b) They admit an object;
c) They have the properties of voice and tense.

As Nouns or Adjectives,—

a) They are declined;
b) They take Noun or Adjective constructions.
THE INFINITIVE.

Infinitive without Subject Accusative.

326. This is used chiefly as Subject or Object but also as Predicate or Appositive.

NOTE.—The Infinitive was originally a Dative, and traces of this are still to be seen in the poetical use of the Infinitive to express purpose; as, nec dulcēs occur-
rent ōscula nātī præripere, and no sweet children will run to snatch kisses.

A. As Subject.

327. i. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Subject of esse and various impersonal verbs, particularly opus est, necesse est, oportet, juvat, dēlectat, placet, libet, licet, praestat, decet, pudet, interest, etc.; as,—
dulce et deōrum est prō patriā mori, it is sweet and noble to die
for one's country;
virōrum est fortium toleranter dōlōrem pati, it is the part of brave
men to endure pain with patience;
se-nātūr placuit lēgātōs mittere, the Senate decided (lit. it pleased the
Senate) to send envoys.

2. Even though the Infinitive itself appears without Subject, it may take a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the Accusative; as,—
allud est fācundum esse, allud frātum, it is one thing to be irasci-
able, another to be angry;
impiēne quaelibet facere, id est rēgem esse, to do whatever you
please with impunity, that is to be a king.

a. But when licet is followed by a Dative of the person, a Predicate Noun or Adjective with esse is attracted into the same case; as,  
līcuit esse ētiōsī Themistocli, lit. it was permitted to Themisto-
cles to be at leisure. So sometimes with other Impersonals.

B. As Object.

328. i. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Object of many verbs, to denote another action of the same subject, particularly after—
volē, ouplō, mālō, nōlō;
dēbeō, ought;
statuō, oṅstituō, decide;
ocōgitō, meditor, purpōse, intend;
neglegō, neglect;
vereō, timēō, fear;
Syntax.

audēs, dare; mātūrē, festīnē, properē, con-
studeē, contendē, strīve; tendē, hasten;
parē, preparē (so parātus); assuēscē, cōnsuēscē, accustom
incipiē, coepi, Instituē, begin;
myself (so assuetus, Insuetus,
pergē, continue; assuetactus);
dēsinē, dēsistē, cease;
discē, learn;
possum, can;
sicē, know how;
cōnor, try;
soleē, am wont; as,—
tū hōs intuērf audēs, do you dare to look on these men?
Dēmosthenēs ad fūctūs maris déclāmāre solēbat, Demosthenes
used to declaim by the waves of the sea.

2. A Predicate Noun or Adjective with these Infinitives is attracted
into the Nominative; as,—
beātus esse sine virtūte nēmō potēst, no one can be happy without
vīrūte;
Catō esse quam vidērf bonus mālēbat, Cato preferred to be good
rather than to seem so.

Infinitive with Subject Accusative.

329. This is used chiefly as Subject or Object but also
as Predicate or Appositive.

A. As Subject.

330. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative (like the
simple Infinitive) is used as Subject with esse and Imper-
sonal verbs, particularly with aequum est, ūtile est, turpe
est, fāma est, spēs est, fās est, nefās est, opus est, nescēse
est, oportet, cōnstat, praeestat, licet, etc.; as,—
nihil in bellō oportet contemni, nothing ought to be despised in war;
apertum est sibi quemque nātūrā esse cārum, it is manifest that
by nature everybody is dear to himself.

B. As Object.

331. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is used as
Object after the following classes of verbs:—

I. Most frequently after verbs of saying, thinking, knowing, per-
ceiving, and the like (Verba Sentiendē et Déclārandē). This is the
regular construction of Principal Clauses of Indirect Discourse. Verbs that take this construction are, among others, the following: sentiō, audiō, videō, cognoscō; putō, jūdico, spērō, cōnfido; sciō, memini; dicō, affirmō, negō (say that . . . not), trādō, nārō, fateor, respondeō, scribō, prōmittō, gloriō. Also the phrases: certōrem faciō (inform), memoriam teneō (remember), etc.

Examples:—

Epicūrēi putant cum corporibus simul animōs interfere, the Epicureans think that the soul perishes with the body;

Thalēs dixit aquam esse initium rērum, Thales said that water was the first principle of the universe;

Dēmocritus negat quicquid esse sempiternum, Democritus says nothing is everlasting;

spērō eum ventūrum esse, I hope that he will come.

II. With jubeō, order, and vetō, forbid; as,—

Caesar mīlitēs pontem facere jussit, Caesar ordered the soldiers to make a bridge.

a. When the name of the person who is ordered or forbidden to do something is omitted, the Infinitive with jubeō and vetō is put in the Passive; as, Caesar pontem fieri jussit.

III. With patior and sinō, permit, allow; as,—

nūlō sē implicārī negōtīō passus est, he did not permit himself to be involved in any difficulty.

IV. With volō, nōlō, mālō, oupīō, when the Subject of the Infinitive is different from that of the governing verb; as,—

nec mīhi hunc errōrem extorqueārī volō, nor do I wish this error to be wrested from me;

eās ēs jactārī nōlēbat, he was unwilling that these matters should be discussed;

tēs tuīs dīvitīs fruī cupimus, we desire that you enjoy your wealth.

a. When the Subject of both verbs is the same, the simple Infinitive is regularly used in accordance with § 328. 1. But exceptions occur, especially in case of esse and Passive Infinitives; as,—

oupīō mē esse clēmentem, I desire to be lenient;

Timoleōn māluit sē dīligi quam metuī, Timoleon preferred to be loved rather than feared.

b. Volō also admits the Subjunctive, with or without ut; nōlō the Subjunctive alone. (See § 296. 1. a.)
Syntax.

V. With Verbs of emotion (joy, sorrow, regret, etc.), especially gaudeō, laetor, doleō; aegrē ferō, molestē ferō, graviter ferō, am annoyed, distressed; miror, queror, indignor; as,—
gauđeō tē salvum ađvenìre, I rejoice that you arrive safely;
nōn molestē ferunt sē libidinum vinculis laxātōs esse, they are not troubled at being released from the bonds of passion;
mīror tē ad mē nihil scībere, I wonder that you write me nothing.

a. Instead of an Infinitive these verbs also sometimes admit a quod-clause as Object. (See § 299.) Thus:—
mīror quod nōn loquēris, I wonder that you do not speak.

VI. Some verbs which take two Accusatives, one of the Person and the other of the Thing (§ 178, 1), may substitute an Infinitive for the second Accusative; as,—
cōgō tē hōc facere, I compel you to do this (cf. tē hōc cōgō);
docuī tē contentum esse, I taught you to be content (cf. tē modestiam docuī, I taught you temperance).

Passive Construction of the Foregoing Verbs.

332. Those verbs which in the Active are followed by the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, usually admit the personal construction in the Passive. This is true of the following and of some others:—

a) jubeor, vetor, sinor; as,—
mīlitēs pontem facere jussī sunt, the soldiers were ordered to build a bridge;
pōns fierī jussus est, a bridge was ordered built;
mīlitēs castrīs exīre vetītī sunt, the troops were forbidden to go out of the camp;
Sēstius Clōdium accusāre nōn est situs, Sestius was not allowed to accuse Clodius.

b) videor, I am seen, I seem; as,—
vīdētur comperisse, he seems to have discovered.

c) dīcōr, puto, existimor, jūdicōr (in all persons); as,—
dīcitur in Itāliam vēnisse, he is said to have come into Italy;
Rōmulus prīmus rēx Rōmānōrum fuisse putātur, Romulus is thought to have been the first king of the Romans.
Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb.

d) fertur, feruntur, traditur, traduntur (only in the third person); as,—
fertur Homerus caecus fuisse, Homer is said to have been blind;
carmina Arislochii contumeliis referta esse traduntur, Archilochus's poems are reported to have been full of abuse.

NOTE. — In compound tenses and periphrastic forms, the last two classes of verbs, c), d), more commonly take the impersonal construction; as,—
traditum est Homerus caecum fuisse, the story goes that Homer was blind.

Infinitive with Adjectives.

333. The Infinitive with Adjectives (except paratus, assustus, etc.; see § 328, 1) occurs only in poetry and post-Augustan prose writers; as,—

contentus demonstrasse, contented to have proved;
audax omnia perpetui, bold for enduring everything.

Infinitive in Exclamations.

334. The Infinitive is used in Exclamations implying scorn, indignation, or regret. An intensive -ne is often attached to some word in the clause. Examples:—
huncine sollem tam nigrum surrexere mihi, to think that to-day's sun rose with such evil omen for me!
sedere totos dies in villis, to stay whole days at the villa!

Historical Infinitive.

335. The Infinitive is often used in historical narrative instead of the Imperfect Indicative. The Subject stands in the Nominative; as,—
interim cottidie Caesar Haeduos frumentum flagitare, meanwhile Caesar was daily demanding grain of the Haedui.

PARTICIPLES.

Tenses of the Participle.

336. 1. The tenses of the Participle, like those of the Infinitive (see § 270), express time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb upon which the Participle depends.
2. The Present Participle denotes action contemporary with that of the verb. Thus:—

\[ \text{audiō tē loquentem} = \text{you are speaking and I hear you}; \]
\[ \text{audiēbam tē loquentem} = \text{you were speaking and I heard you}; \]
\[ \text{audiam tē loquentem} = \text{you will be speaking and I shall hear you}. \]

\[ \text{a.} \] The Present Participle is sometimes employed with Conative force; as, —

\[ \text{assurgentem rēgem resupīnat, as the king was trying to rise, he threw him down.} \]

3. The Perfect Passive Participle denotes action prior to that of the verb. Thus:—

\[ \text{locūtus taceō} = \text{I have spoken and am silent}; \]
\[ \text{locūtus taceī} = \text{I had spoken and then was silent}; \]
\[ \text{locūtus taceōbō} = \text{I shall speak and then shall be silent}. \]

4. The absolute time of the action of a participle, therefore, is determined entirely by the finite verb with which it is connected.

5. Certain Perfect Passive Participles of Deponent and Semi-Deponent Verbs are used as Presents; \textit{viz.} arbitrātus, ausus, ratus, gāvisus, solitus, ēsus, oōnīsus, diffīsus, secūtus, verītus.

**Use of Participles.**

337. As an Adjective the Participle may be used either as an attributive or predicate modifier of a Substantive.

1. Attributive Use. This presents no special peculiarities. Examples are: —

\[ \text{glōria est cōnsentiēns laus bonōrum, glory is the unanimous praise of the good;} \]
\[ \text{Conōn mūrōs à Lēsandrō dīrutōs reficīt, Conon restored the walls destroyed by Lysander.} \]

2. Predicate Use. Here the Participle is often equivalent to a subordinate clause. Thus the Participle may denote: —

\[ \text{a) Time; as, —} \]
\[ \text{omne malum nāscēns facile opprimitur, every evil is easily crushed at birth.} \]

\[ \text{b) A Condition; as, —} \]
\[ \text{mente ūtī nōn possumus cībō et pōtiōne complētī, if gorged with food and drink, we cannot use our intellects.} \]
Noun and Adjective Forms of the Verb.  219

c) Manner; as,—
Solōn senēsōre sē dīcēbat multa in diēs addissentem,
Solon said he grew old learning many new things daily.

d) Means; as,—
sōl oriēns diem cōnficit, the sun, by its rising, makes the
day.

e) Opposition ('though'); as,—
mendāci hominī nē vērum quidem dīcenti crēdimus,
we do not believe a liar, though he speaks the truth.

f) Cause; as,—
perfidiām veritās ad suōs recessit, since he feared
treachery, he returned to his own troops.

3. Videō and audiō, besides the Infinitive, take the Present Participe in the Predicate use; as,—

videō tē fugientem, I see you fleeing.

a. So frequently facēō, fingō, indūcō, etc.; as,—
eius Catōnem respondentem facīmus, we represent Cato replying
to them;
Homērus Laērtēm co lentem agrum facit, Homer represents
Laëtus tilling the field.

4. The Future Active Participle (except futūrus) is regularly con-
fined to its use in the Periphrastic Conjugation, but in poets and later
writers it is used independently, especially to denote purpose; as,—

vēnērent castra oppugnātūrī, they came to assault the camp.

5. The Perfect Passive Participle is often equivalent to a coördi-
nate clause; as,—
urbem captam dīruit, he captured and destroyed the city (lit. he de-
stroyed the city captured).

6. The Perfect Passive Participle in combination with a noun is
sometimes equivalent to an abstract noun with a dependent Genitive; as,—
post urbem conditam, after the founding of the city;
Quīnctius dēfēnsus, the defense of Quinctius;
quībus animīs occupātus, the preoccupation of the mind with which.

7. Habeō sometimes takes a Perfect Passive Participle in the Predica-
tive construction with a force not far removed from that of the Perfect
or Pluperfect Indicative; as,—

cōpiās quās coāctās habēbat, the forces which he had collected.
8. The Gerundive denotes *obligation, necessity, etc.* Like other Participles it may be used either as Attributive or Predicate.

   a) Less frequently as Attributive. Thus:—
      *liber legendus, a book worth reading;*
      *leges observandae, laws deserving of observance.*

   b) More frequently as Predicate.

      1) In the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (*amandus est, etc.*). In this use Intransitive Verbs can be used only impersonally, but admit their ordinary case-construction (Gen., Dat., Abl.); as,—
      *veniendum est, it is necessary to come;*
      *obliviscendum est injustarium, one must forget injuries;*
      *numquam prōditōrī crēdendum est, you must never trust a traitor;*
      *suō cuique utendum est iudiciō, every man must use his own judgment.*

      2) After *cūrō, provide for; dō, trādō, give over; relinquō, leave; conceādō, hand over;* and some other verbs, instead of an object clause or to denote purpose; as,—
      *Caesar pōntem in Ararī faciendum cūrāvit, Caesar provided for the construction of a bridge over the Arar;*
      *imperātor urbem militibus dīriptandam concessit, the general handed over the city to the soldiers to plunder.*

9. For the Gerundive as the equivalent of the Gerund, see § 339, 1.

**THE GERUND.**

338. As a verbal noun the Gerund admits noun constructions as follows:—

   1. **Genitive.** The Genitive of the Gerund is used—

      a) With Nouns, as Objective or Appositional Genitive (see §§ 200, 202); as,—
      *cupiditās dominandī, desire of ruling;*
      *ars scribendī, the art of writing.*

      b) With Adjectives; as,—
      *cupidus audīendī, desirous of hearing.*

      c) With *causā, grātiā; as,—*
      *discendī causā, for the sake of learning.*
2. **Dative.** The Dative of the Gerund is used —
   
a) With Adjectives; as, —
   
aqua **utilis est bibendō,** *water is useful for drinking.*

   b) With Verbs (rarely); as, —
   
adful scrbendō, *I was present at the writing.*

3. **Accusative.** The Accusative of the Gerund is used only with Prepositions, chiefly **ad** and **in** to denote purpose; as, —
   
homō **ad agendum nātus est,** *man is born for action.*

4. **Ablative.** The Ablative of the Gerund is used —
   
a) Without a Preposition, as an Ablative of Means, Cause, etc. (see §§ 218, 219); as, —
   
māns **discendō alitur et cōgitandō,** *the mind is nourished by learning and reflection.*

   Themistoclis maritimōs praedōnēs cōnsectandō mare tūtum reddidit, *Themistocles made the sea safe by following up the pirates.*

   b) After the prepositions **ā,** **dē,** **ex,** **in**; as, —
   
summa **voluptās ex discendō capitur,** *the keenest pleasure is derived from learning;*  
multa dē bene beātēque vivendō a Platōne disputāta sunt, *there was much discussion by Plato on the subject of living well and happily.*

5. As a rule, only the Genitive of the Gerund and the Ablative (without a preposition) admit a Direct Object.

**Gerundive Construction instead of the Gerund.**

339. i. Instead of the Genitive or Ablative of the Gerund with a Direct Object, another construction may be, and very often is, used. This consists in putting the Direct Object in the case of the Gerund (Gen. or Abl.) and using the Gerundive in agreement with it. This is called the Gerundive Construction. Thus: —

**Gerund Construction.**

*cupidus urbem videndī,* **desirous of seeing the city;**

*dēlector ōrātōrēs legendō,* **I am charmed with reading the orators.**

**Gerundive Construction.**

*cupidus urbīs videndae;***

*dēlector ōrātōribus legendīs.*
2. The Gerundive Construction must be used to avoid a Direct Object with the Dative of the Gerund, or with a case dependent upon a Preposition; as,—

locus castris manilendis aptus, a place adapted to fortifying a camp; ad pœcem petendam vēnērant, they came to ask peace; multum temporis oculosmō in legendīs poētīs, I spend much time in reading the poets.

3. In order to avoid ambiguity (see § 236, 2), the Gerundive Construction must not be employed in case of Neuter Adjectives used substantively. Thus regularly—

philosophī cupidī sunt vērum invēstigandi, philosophers are eager for discovering truth (rarely vēri invēstigandi); studium plūra cognōscendi, a desire of knowing more (not plūrium cognōscendōrum).

4. From the nature of the case only Transitive Verbs can be used in the Gerundive Construction; but ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior (originally transitive) regularly admit it; as,—

hostēs in spem potiundōrum castrōrum vēnerant, the enemy had conceived the hope of gaining possession of the camp.

5. The Genitives meī, tua, suī, nostri, vestri, when used in the Gerundive Construction, are regularly employed without reference to Gender or Number, since they were originally Neuter Singular Adjectives used substantively. Thus:—

mulier suī servandī causā auffigit, the woman fled for the sake of saving herself; lēgātī in castra vēnērant suī pūrgandi causā, the envoys came into camp for the purpose of clearing themselves.

So nostri servandī causā, for the sake of saving ourselves.

6. Occasionally the Genitive of the Gerundive Construction is used to denote purpose; as,—

quae ille cēpit lēgum ac libertātis subvertundae, which he undertook for the purpose of overthrowing the laws and liberty.

7. The Dative of the Gerundive Construction occurs in some expressions which have the character of formulas; as,—

decemvirī lēgibus scribundīs, decemvirs for codifying the laws; quīdecemvirī sacris faciundīs, quindecemvirs for performing the sacrifices.
THE SUPINE.

340. 1. The Supine in -um is used after Verbs of motion to express purpose; as, —

lēgātī ad Caesarem grātulātum convēnērunt, envoys came to Caesar to congratulate him.

a. The Supine in -um may take an Object; as, —
pācem petītum ārātōrēs Rōmam mittunt, they send envoys to Rome to ask for peace.

b. Note the phrase: —
dō (collucō) filiam nuptum, I give my daughter in marriage.

2. The Supine in -ā is used as an Ablative of Specification with facilis, difficilis, incrēdibilis, jācundus, optimus, etc.; also with fās est, nefās est, opus est; as, —

haec rēs est facilis cognitā, this thing is easy to learn;
hōc est optimum factā, this is best to do.

a. Only a few Supines in -ā are in common use, chiefly audītā, cognitā, dictā, factā, visā.

b. The Supine in -ā never takes an Object.

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CHAPTER VI. — Particles.

COORDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

341. Copulative Conjunctions. These join one word, phrase, or clause to another:—

1.  a) et simply connects.

b) -que joins more closely than et, and is used especially where the two members have an internal connection with each other; as, —

parentēs liberōque, parents and children;
cum homīnēs aestā febrīque jactantur, when people are tossed about with heat and fever.
c) *atque* (ac) usually emphasizes the second of the two things connected, — and also, and indeed, and in fact. After words of likeness and difference *atque* (ac) has the force of as, than. Thus:

ego idem sentiō ac tū, I think the same as you; haud aliter ac, not otherwise than.

d) *neque* (neo) means and not, neither, nor.

2. a) *-que* is an enclitic, and is appended always to the second of two words connected. Where it connects phrases or clauses it is appended to the first word of the second clause; but when the first word of the second clause is a Preposition, *-que* is regularly appended to the next following word; as, —

ob eamque rem, and on account of that thing.

b) *atque* is used before vowels and consonants; ac never before vowels, and seldom before c, g, qu.

c) *et non* is used for *neque* when the emphasis of the negative rests upon a special word; as, —

vetus et nōn ignōbilis ṥrātor, an old and not ignoble orator.

d) For and nowhere, and never, and none, the Latin regularly said *nec usquam*, *nec umquam*, *nec ullus*, *etc*.

3. Correlatives. Copulative Conjunctions are frequently used correlative; as, —

et . . . et, both . . . and;
neque (neo) . . . neque (neo), neither . . . nor;
cum . . . tum, while . . . at the same time;
tum . . . tum, not only . . . but also.

Less frequently: —

et . . . neque; neque . . . et.

a. Note that the Latin, with its tendency to emphasize antithetical relations, often uses correlatives, especially *et . . . et, et . . . neque, neque . . . et*, where the English employs but a single connective.

4. In enumerations —

a) The different members of a series may follow one another without connectives (Asyndeton; see § 346). Thus: —

ex cupidītātibus odiā, discidia, discordiae, sēditīōnēs, bella nāscuntur, from covetous desires spring up hatred, dissensions, discord, sedition, wars.
b) The different members may severally be connected by et (Polysyndeton). Thus:—

 horas cedunt et dies et mensae et anni, hours and days
 and years and months pass away.

c) The connective may be omitted between the former members, while the last two are connected by -que (rarely et); as,—

Caesar in Carnutes, Andes Turonensesque legiones dedit,
caesar leads his legions into the territory of the
Carnutes, Andes, and Turones.

342. Disjunctive Conjunctions indicate an alternative.

1. a) aut must be used when the alternatives are mutually exclusive; as,—

cita mori venit aut victoria laeta, (either) swift death or
glad victory comes.

b) vel, -ve (enclitic) imply a choice between the alternatives; as,—

qui aethér vel caelum nominatur, which is called aether
or heaven.

2. Correlatives. Disjunctive Conjunctions are often used correla-
tively; as,—

aut ... aut, either ... or;
vel ... vel, either ... or;
sive ... sive, if ... or if.

343. Adversative Conjunctions. These denote opposition.

1. a) sed, but, merely denotes opposition.

b) verum, but, is stronger than sed, but is less frequently used.

c) autem, but on the other hand, however, marks a transition.

It is always post-positive.

DEFINITION. A post-positive word is one that cannot begin a sen-
tence, but is placed after one or more words.

d) at, but, is used especially in disputation, to introduce an
opposing argument.

e) atqui means but yet.

f) tamen, yet, usually stands after the emphatic word, but not
always.

g) vero, however, indeed, in truth, is always post-positive.
2. Note the correlative expressions: —

nŏn sŏlum (nŏn modo) . . . sed etiam, not only . . . but also;
nŏn modo nŏn . . . sed nē . . . quidem, not only not, but not
even; as,—
nŏn modo tibi nŏn frāsor, sed nē reprehendō quidem factum
tuum, I not only am not angry with you, but I do not even blame
your action.

a. But when the sentence has but one verb, and this stands with the second
member, nŏn modo may be used for nŏn modo nŏn; as,—
adsentātiō nŏn modo amicō sed nē liberō quidem digna
est, flattery is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a
free man.

344. Illative Conjunctions. These represent the state-
ment which they introduce as following from or as in con-
formity with what has preceded.

1. a) itaque = and so, accordingly.

b) ergō = therefore, accordingly.

c) igitur (regularly post-positive 1) = therefore, accordingly.

2. igitur is never combined with et, atque, -que, or neque.

345. Causal Conjunctions. These denote cause, or give
an explanation. They are nam, namque, enim (post-positive),
etenim, for.

346. Asyndeton. The conjunction is sometimes omitted be-
tween coördinate members, particularly in lively or impassioned
narration. Thus: —

a) A Copulative Conjunction is omitted; as,—

avāritia infinita insatiābilis est, avarice is boundless
(and) insatiable;

Cn. Pompejō, M. Crassō cōnsulibus, in the consulship of
Gnaeus Pompey (and) Marcus Crassus.

The conjunction is regularly omitted between the names of
consuls when the praenomen (Mārcus,Gāius,etc.) is expressed.

b) An Adversative Conjunction may be omitted; as,—
ratiōnēs dēfuērunt, libertās ratiōnis nōn dēfuit, argu-
ments were lacking, (but) abundance of words was not.

1 Except in Sallust and Silver Latin.
Adverbs.—Word-Order.

Adverbs.

347. 1. The following particles, sometimes classed as Conjunctions, are more properly Adverbs:—
etiam, also, even.
quoque (always post-positive), also.
quidem (always post-positive) lays stress upon the preceding word. It is sometimes equivalent to the English indeed, in fact, but more frequently cannot be rendered, except by vocal emphasis.
ne... quidem means not even; the emphatic word or phrase always stands between; as, ne ille quidem, not even he.
tamen and vero, in addition to their use as Conjunctions, are often employed as Adverbs.

2. Negatives. Two Negatives are regularly equivalent to an affirmative as in English, as non nulī, some; but when non, nemō, nihil, numquam, etc., are accompanied by neque... neque, non... non, non modo, or ne... quidem, the latter particles simply take up the negation and emphasize it; as,—
habēō hic nēminem neque amīcum neque cognātum, I have here no one, neither friend nor relative.
non enim praetereundum est nē id quidem, for not even that must be passed by.

a. Haud in Cicero and Caesar occurs almost exclusively as a modifier of Adjectives and Adverbs, and in the phrase haud scīō an. Later writers use it freely with verbs.

Chapter VII.—Word-Order and Sentence-Structure.

A. WORD-ORDER.

348. In the normal arrangement of the Latin sentence the Subject stands at the beginning of the sentence, the Predicate at the end; as,—
Dārus classem quīngentārum nāvium comparāvit, Darius got ready a fleet of five hundred ships.
349. But for the sake of emphasis the normal arrangement is often abandoned, and the emphatic word is put at the beginning, less frequently at the end of the sentence; as,—

magnus in hōc bellō Themistoclēs fuit, great was Themistocles in this war;
aliud iter habēmus nūllum, other course we have none.

SPECIAL PRINCIPLES.

350. 1. Nouns. A Genitive or other oblique case regularly follows the word upon which it depends. Thus:—

a) Depending upon a Noun:—
tribūnus plēbis, tribune of the plebs;
fīlius rēgis, son of the king;
vīr magnum animī, a man of noble spirit.
Yet always senātūs cōnsultum, plēbis scītum.

b) Depending upon an Adjective:—
ignārus rērum, ignorant of affairs;
dignī amīcitāũ, worthy of friendship;
plūs aequō, more than (what is) fair.

2. Appositives. An Appositive regularly follows its Subject; as,—

Philippus, rēx Macedōnum, Philip, king of the Macedonians;
adsentātīō, vītīōrum adjūtīrēx, flattery, promoter of evils.
Yet ſī̇men Rhēnus, the River Rhine; and always in good prose urbs Rōma, the city Rome.

3. The Vocative usually follows one or more words; as,—
audī, Caesar, hear, Caesar!

4. Adjectives. No general law can be laid down for the position of Adjectives. On the whole they precede the noun oftener than they follow it.

a. Adjectives of quantity (including numerals) regularly precede their noun; as,—
onmēs homines, all men;
septingentae nāvēs, seven hundred vessels.
b. Note the force of position in the following: —
media urbs, the middle of the city;
urbs media, the middle city;
extrœmum bellum, the end of the war;
bellum extrœmum, the last war.

c. Rœmânus and Latinus regularly follow; as, —
senatus populusque Rœmânus, the Roman Senate and
People;
lœdi Rœmânœ, the Roman games;
fœriae Latînae, the Latin holidays.

d. When a Noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, a favorite order is: Adjective, Genitive, Noun; as, —
summa omnium rœrum abundantia, the greatest abundance of all things.

§ 5. Pronouns.

a. The Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative Pronouns regularly precede the Noun; as, —
hîc homœ, this man;
ille homœ, that man;
erant duo itinera, quibus itineribus, etc., there were two
routes, by which, etc.
qui homœ? what sort of a man?

b. But ille in the sense of 'that well known,' 'that famous,' usually stands after its Noun; as, —
testula illa, that well-known custom of ostracism;
Mœdæa illa, that famous Medea.

c. Possessive and Indefinite Pronouns usually follow their
Noun; as, —
pater meus, my father;
homœ quidam, a certain man;
mulier aliqua, some woman.

But for purposes of contrast the Possessive often precedes its Noun; as, —
meus pater, my father (i.e. as opposed to yours, his, etc.).

d. Where two or more Pronouns occur in the same sentence, the Latin is fond of putting them in close proximity; as, —
nisi forte ego vobis cessâre videor, unless perchance I seem to you to be doing nothing.
6. Adverbs and Adverbial phrases regularly precede the word they modify; as,—

valde diligent, extremely diligent;
saepe dixi, I have often said;
tam jam did horamur, we have long been urging you;
paulo post, a little after.

7. Prepositions regularly precede the words they govern.
a. But limiting words often intervene between the Preposition and its case; as,—

dei communem hominum memoriam, concerning the common memory of men;
ad beat vivendum, for living happily.

b. When a noun is modified by an Adjective, the Adjective is often placed before the preposition; as,—
magni in dolore, in great grief;
summa cum laude, with the highest credit;
quae de causae, for which cause;
hanc ob rem, on account of this thing.

c. For Anastrophe, by which a Preposition is put after its case, see § 144. 3.

8. Conjunctions. Autem, enim, and igitur regularly stand in the second place in the sentence, but when combined with est or sunt they often stand third; as,—

ita est enim, for so it is.

9. Words or Phrases referring to the preceding sentence or to some part of it, regularly stand first; as,—

id ut audidit, Coricyram demigravit, when he heard that (referring to the contents of the preceding sentence), he moved to Corcyra;
e cum Caesar venisset, timentes confirmat, when Caesar had come thither (i.e. to the place just mentioned), he encouraged the timid.

10. The Latin has a fondness for putting side by side words which are etymologically related; as,—

ut ad senem senex de senectute, afo hoc libris ad amicum amicissimus de amicitia scripsi, as I, an old man, wrote to an old man, on old age, so in this book, as a fond friend, I have written to a friend concerning friendship.
11. Special rhetorical devices for indicating emphasis are the following: —

a) **Hyperbaton**, which consists in the separation of words that regularly stand together; as,—

*septimus mihi Origium liber est in manibus, the seventh book of my ‘Origines’ is under way; receptē Caesar Ōricō proficīscitur, having recovered Oricus, Caesar set out.*

b) **Anaphora**, which consists in the repetition of the same word or the same word-order in successive phrases; as,—

*sed plēni omnēs sunt libri, plēnae sapientium vōsās, plēna exemplōrum vetustās, but all books are full of it, the voices of sages are full of it, antiquity is full of examples of it.*

c) **Chiasmus**, which consists in changing the relative order of words in two antithetical phrases; as,—

*multōs dēfendī, laesī nēminem, many have I defended, I have injured no one; horribilem illum dīēm aliis, nōbis faustum, that day dreadful to others, for us fortunate.*

d) **Synchrony**, or the interlocked arrangement. This is mostly confined to poetry, yet occurs in rhetorical prose, especially that of the Imperial Period; as,—

*simulātam Pompejanārum grātiām partium, pretended interest in the Pompeian party.*

12. **Metrical Close.** At the end of a sentence certain cadences were avoided; others were much employed. Thus: —

a) Cadences avoided.

— ˢ Sustainability (close of hexameter).
— ˢ Sustainability (close of pentameter).

b) Cadences frequently employed.

— ˢ ཚ Sustainability, as, auxerant.
— ˢ Sustainability; as, comprobavit.
— ˢ Sustainability; as, esse videātur.
— ˢ Sustainability; as, rogātū tuō.

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1 So named from a fancied analogy to the strokes of the Greek letter Χ (chi). Thus: —

mulōs laesī

X

dēfendī nēminem
B. SENTENCE-STRUCTURE.

351. 1. Unity of Subject. — In complex sentences the Latin regularly holds to unity of Subject in the different members; as,—

Caesar primum suō, deinde omnium ex oonspecta remotis equis, ut aequātō periculō spem fugae tolleret, cohórtatūs suōs proelium commissit, Caesar having first removed his own horse from sight, then the horses of all, in order, by making the danger equal, to take away hope of flight, encouraged his men and joined battle.

2. A word serving as the common Subject or Object of the main clause and a subordinate one, stands before both; as,—

Haedui cum sē défendere nōn possent, légātōs ad Caesarem mittunt, since the Haedui could not defend themselves, they sent envoys to Caesar;

ille etsī flagrābat bellandi cupiditāte, tamen pāci serviendum putāvit, although he was burning with a desire to fight, yet he thought he ought to aim at peace.

a. The same is true also

1) When the Subject of the main clause is Object (Direct or Indirect) of a subordinate clause; as,—

Caesar, cum hoc eī nūntiatum esset, mātūrat ab urbe proficiscītī, when this had been reported to Caesar he hastened to set out from the city.

2) When the Subject of a subordinate clause is at the same time the Object (Direct or Indirect) of the main clause; as,—

L. Mānliō, cum dictātor fuisset, M. Pompōnius tribūnus plēbis diem dīxit, M. Pomponius, tribune of the people, instituted proceedings against Lucius Manlius though he had been dictator.

3. Of subordinate clauses, temporal, conditional, and adversative clauses more commonly precede the main clause; indirect questions and clauses of purpose or result more commonly follow; as,—

postquam haec dīxit, profectus est, after he said this, he set out;

si quis ita agat, imprudēns sit, if any one should act so, he would be devoid of foresight;

accidit ut ūnā nocte omnēs Hermae dēciderentur, it happened that in a single night all the Hermae were thrown down.


4. Sometimes in Latin the main verb is placed within the subordinate clause; as,—

si quid est in me ingenii, quod sentiō quam sit exiguum, if there
is any talent in me, and I know how little it is.

5. The Latin Period. The term Period, when strictly used, designates a compound sentence in which the subordinate clauses are inserted within the main clause; as,—

Caesar etsi intellegēbat quā dē causā ea dīcerentur, tamen, nē
aestātem in Trāverīs cōnsūmēre cōgerētur, Indutiomarum
ad sē venīre jussit, though Caesar perceived why this was
said, yet, lest he should be forced to spend the summer among
the Treveri, he ordered Indutiomarus to come to him.

In the Periodic structure the thought is suspended until the end of
the sentence is reached. Many Roman writers were extremely fond of
this sentence-structure, and it was well adapted to the inflectional
character of their language; in English we generally avoid it.

6. When there are several subordinate clauses in one Period, the
Latin so arranges them as to avoid a succession of verbs. Thus:—

At hostēs cum misissent, qua, quae in castrīs gererentur, cog-
ōscerent, ubi sē dēceptōs intelligerunt, omnībus cōpiīs
subsectī ad flāmen contendunt, but the enemy when they
had sent men to learn what was going on in camp, after dis-
covering that they had been outwitted, followed with all their
forces and hurried to the river.

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Chapter VIII.—Hints on Latin Style.

352. In this chapter brief consideration is given to
a few features of Latin diction which belong rather to
style than to formal grammar.

Nouns.

353. 1. Where a distinct reference to several persons or things is
involved, the Latin is frequently much more exact in the use of the
Plural than is the English; as,—
domōs eunt, they go home (i.e. to their homes);
Germāni corpora cūrant, the Germans care for the body;
animōs militum recreat, he renews the courage of the soldiers;
diēs nootēaque timēre, to be in a state of fear day and night.

2. In case of Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively the Latin often employs the Plural where the English uses the Singular; as,—

omnia sunt perditā, everything is lost;
quae cum ita sint, since this is so;
haec omnībus pervulgāta sunt, this is very well known to all.

3. The Latin is usually more concrete than the English, and especially less bold in the personification of abstract qualities. Thus:—

ā puerō, ā puerīs, from boyhood;
Sullā dictātōre, in Sulla's dictatorship;
mē duce, under my leadership;
Rōmānī cum Carthāginīnsibus pācem fācērunt = Rome made peace with Carthage;
liber doctīnāe plānus = a learned book;
prōdentī Themistoclis Graecia servāta est = Themistocles's foresight saved Greece.

4. The Nouns of Agency in -tor and -sor (see § 147. 1) denote a permanent or characteristic activity; as,—

accūsātōrēs (professional) accusers;
ōratōrēs, pleaders;
cantōrēs, singers;
Arminius, Germānīae liberātōr, Arminius, liberator of Germany.

a. To denote single instances of an action, other expressions are commonly employed; as,—

Numa, quī Rōmuliō successit, Numa, successor of Romulus;
quī mēa legunt, my readers;
quī mē audiunt, my auditors.

5. The Latin avoids the use of prepositional phrases as modifiers of a Noun. In English we say: 'The war against Carthage'; 'a journey through Gaul'; 'cities on the sea'; 'the book in my hands'; 'the fight at Salamis'; etc. The Latin in such cases usually employs another mode of expression. Thus:—

a) A Genitive; as,—

dolor injūriārum, resentment at injuries.
Hints on Style.

b) An Adjective; as,—

*urbiēs maritimae, cities on the sea;*
*pugna Salamīnia, the fight at Salamis.*

c) A Participle; as,—

*pugna ad Cannās facta, the battle at Cannae.*

d) A Relative clause; as,—

*līber quī in mēs manibus est, the book in my hands.*

NOTE.—Yet within certain limits the Latin does employ Prepositional phrases as Noun modifiers. This is particularly frequent when the governing noun is derived from a verb. The following are typical examples:—

*trānsītus in Britanniam, the passage to Britain;*
*excessus ē viē, departure from life;*
*odium ergā Rōmānōs, hatred of the Romans;*
*līber dē senectūte, the book on old age;*
*amor in patriam, love for one's country.*

ADJECTIVES.

354. 1. Special Latin Equivalents for English Adjectives are—

a) A Genitive; as,—

*virtūtēs animī = moral virtues;*
*dolōrēs corporis = bodily ills.*

b) An Abstract Noun; as,—

*novitās reī = the strange circumstance;*
*asperitās viērum = rough roads.*

c) Hendiadys (see § 374, 4); as,—

*ratiō et ērdō = systematic order;*
*ārdor et impetus = eager onset.*

d) Sometimes an Adverb; as,—

*omnēs circa populi, all the surrounding tribes;*
*suōs semper hostēs, their perpetual foes.*

2. Often a Latin Noun is equivalent to an English Noun modified by an Adjective; as,—

*dōctrīna, theoretical knowledge;*   *prūdentīa, practical knowledge;*
*oppidum, walled town;*   *libellus, little book.*
3. Adjectives are not used in immediate agreement with proper names; but an Adjective may limit vir, homō, ille, or some other word used as an Appositive of a proper name; as,—

Sōcratēs, homō sapiens = the wise Socrates;
Scipiō, vir fortissimus = the doughty Scipio;
Syrācūsaē, urbs praecārissima = famous Syracuse.

4. An Adjective may be equivalent to a Possessive or Subjective Genitive; as—
pāstor rēgii, the shepherd of the king;
tumultus servilis, the uprising of the slaves.

PRONOUNS.

355. In Compound Sentences the Relative Pronoun has a fondness for connecting itself with the subordinate clause rather than the main one; as,—

a quō cum quaerētur, quid maximē expedīret, respondit, when it was asked of him what was best, he replied. (Less commonly, qui, cum ab eō quaerētur, respondit.)

2. Uterque, ambō. Uterque means each of two; ambō means both; as,—

utere frāter abiit, each of the two brothers departed (i.e. separately);
ambō frātēs abīrunt, i.e. the two brothers departed together.

a. The Plural of uterque occurs—

1) With Nouns used only in the Plural (see § 56); as,—
in utrīsque castrīs, in each camp.

2) Where there is a distinct reference to two groups of persons or things; as,—

utrīque ducēs clāri fuērunt, the generals on each side (several in number) were famous.

VERBS.

356. 1. In case of Defective and Deponent Verbs, a Passive is supplied:—

a) By the corresponding verbal Nouns in combination with esse, etc.; as,—

in odiō sumus, we are hated;
in invidiā sum, I am envied;
Hints on Style.

admírátióni est, he is admired;
oblívióne obruitur, he is forgotten (lit. is overwhelmed by oblivion);
in úsú esse, to be used.

b) By the Passive of Verbs of related meaning. Thus: —
agítári as Passive of perseúquí;
temptári as Passive of adoríri.

2. The lack of the Perfect Active Participle in Latin is supplied —
a) Sometimes by the Perfect Passive Participle of the Depen-
ent; as,—
adhórtátus, having exhorted;
verítus, having feared.
b) By the Ablative Absolute; as,—
hóstium agríus vástátís Caesar exerúcit, hav-
ing ravaged the country of the enemy, Caesar led back his army.
c) By subordinate clauses; as,—
eó cum advénisset, castra posuit, having arrived there, 
he pitched a camp;
hóstís quí in urbem irrúperant, the enemy having burst into the city.

3. The Latin agrees with English in the stylistic employment of the Second Person Singular in an indefinite sense (= ‘one’). Cf. the English ‘You can drive a horse to water, but you can’t make him drink.’ But in Latin this use is mainly confined to certain varieties of the Subjunctive, especially the Potential (§ 280), Jussive (§ 275), De-
liberative (§ 277), and the Subjunctive in conditional sentences of the sort included under § 302, 2, and 303. Examples: —

vidéris, you could see;
útére víribus, use your strength;
quid hóc homine facíás, what are you to do with this man?
méns quoque et animús, nisi tamquam lúminí oleum instíllés,
exstinguuntur senectúte, the intellect and mind too are ex-
tinguished by old age, unless, so to speak, you keep pouring oil into the lamp;
tantó amóre possessíóne súás amplexí tenebánt, ut ab eís
membra dívoli citius posse dícerás, they clung to their pos-
sessions with such an affectionate embrace, that you would have said their limbs could sooner be torn from their bodies.
PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE ACCUSATIVE.

357. 1. To denote 'so many years, etc., afterwards or before' the Latin employs not merely the Ablative of Degree of Difference with post and ante (see § 223), but has other forms of expression. Thus: —

post quinquē annōs, five years afterward;
paucōs ante diēs, a few days before;
ante quadriennium, four years before;
post diem quartum quam ab urbe discesserāmus, four days after we had left the city;
ante tertium annum quam dēcesserat, three years before he had died.

2. The Latin seldom combines both Subject and Object with the same Infinitive; as, —

Rōmānōs Ḥannībalem vīcisse cōnstat.

Such a sentence would be ambiguous, and might mean either that the Romans had conquered Hannibal, or that Hannibal had conquered the Romans. Perspicuity was gained by the use of the Passive Infinitive; as, —

Rōmānōs ab Ḥannībale vīctōs esse cōnstat, it is well established that the Romans were defeated by Hannibal.

PECULIARITIES IN CONNECTION WITH THE USE OF THE DATIVE.

358. 1. The English for does not always correspond to a Dative notion in Latin, but is often the equivalent of prō with the Ablative, vis. in the senses —

a) In defense of; as, —

prō patriā mori, to die for one's country.

b) Instead of, in behalf of; as, —

ānus prō omnibus dīxit, one spoke for all;
haec prō lēge diēta sunt, these things were said for the law.

c) In proportion to; as, —

prō multitūdine hōminum eōrum fīnēs erant angustī, for the population, their territory was small.
2. Similarly, English to when it indicates motion is rendered in Latin by ad.

a. Note, however, that the Latin may say either scribere ad aliquem, or scribere aliqui, according as the idea of motion is or is not predominant. So in several similar expressions.

3. In the poets, verbs of mingling with, contending with, joining, clinging to, etc., sometimes take the Dative. This construction is a Grecism. Thus:

se miscet viris, he mingles with the men;
contendis Homerus, you contend with Homer;
dextrae dextram jungere, to clasp hand with hand.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE GENITIVE.

359. 1. The Possessive Genitive gives emphasis to the possessor, the Dative of Possessor emphasizes the fact of possession; as,

hortus patris est, the garden is my father’s;
mihi hortus est, I possess a garden.

2. The Latin can say either stultus or stultum est dicere, it is foolish to say; but Adjectives of one ending permit only the Genitive; as,

sapientis est haec secum reputare, it is the part of a wise man to consider this.
360. Prosody treats of metres and versification.

361. Latin Verse. Latin Poetry was essentially different in character from English. In our own language, poetry is based upon accent, and poetical form consists essentially in a certain succession of accented and unaccented syllables. Latin poetry, on the other hand, was based not upon accent, but upon quantity, so that with the Romans poetical form consisted in a certain succession of long and short syllables, i.e. of long and short intervals of time.

This fundamental difference in the character of English and Latin poetry is a natural result of the difference in character of the two languages. English is a strongly accented language, in which quantity is relatively subordinate. Latin, on the other hand, was a quantitative language, in which accent was relatively subordinate.

QUANTITY OF VOWELS AND SYLLABLES.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

362. The general principles for the quantity of vowels and syllables have been given above in § 5. The following peculiarities are to be noted here:

1. A vowel is usually short when followed by another vowel (§ 5. A. 2), but the following exceptions occur:
Quantity of Vowels and Syllables.

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a) In the Genitive termination -ius (except alterius); as, illius, totius. Yet the i may be short in poetry; as, illius, totius.
b) In the Genitive and Dative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diē, aciē. But fidēi, rēi, spēi (§ 52, 1).
c) In fūō, excepting fit and forms where ī is followed by ēr. Thus: fūōbam, fīat, fīunt; but fīerē, fīerēm.
d) In a few other words, especially words derived from the Greek; as, dīus, Aenēas, Dārīus, hērōes, etc.

2. A diphthong is usually long (§ 5. B. 2), but the preposition prae in composition is often shortened before a vowel; as, praecūtus.

3. A syllable containing a short vowel followed by two consonants (§ 5. B. 2) is long, even when one of the consonants is in the following word; as, terret populum. Occasionally the syllable is long when both consonants are in the following word; as, prō segete spīcās.

4. Compounds of jacēū, though written inicīt, adicīt, etc., have the first syllable long, as though written inī-, adj.-

5. Before j, ā and ē made a long syllable, e.g. in major, pejor, ejus, ejusdem, Pompeius, reiēcit, etc. These were pronounced, mal-jor, pei-jor, ei-jus, Pompei-jus, rei-jēcit, etc. So also sometimes before i, e.g. Pompei-i, pronounced Pompei-i; rei-iciō, pronounced rei-iciō.

Quantity of Final Syllables.

A. Final Syllables ending in a Vowel.

363. 1. Final a is mostly short, but is long:—

a) In the Ablative Singular of the First Declension; as, portā.
b) In the Imperative; as, laudā.
c) In indeclinable words (except itā, quīā); as, trīgintā, contrā, postea, interea, etc.

2. Final e is usually short, but is long—

a) In the Ablative Singular of the Fifth Declension; as, diē, rē; hence hodiē, quaēē. Here belongs also famē (§ 59. 2. b).
b) In the Imperative of the Second Conjugation; as, monē, habē, etc.; yet occasionally cavē, valē.
c) In Adverbs derived from Adjectives of the Second Declension, along with ferē and fermē. Benē, malē, temerē, saepē have e.
d) In ē, dē, mē, tē, sē, nē (not, lest), nē (verily).
3. Final ɪ is usually long, but is short in nisi and quasi. Mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi, have regularly ɪ, but sometimes i; yet always ibiūdem, ibiūque, ubiūque.

4. Final o is regularly long, but is short—
   a) In egō, duō, modō (only), oitō.
   b) Rarely in the First Person Singular of the Verb, and in Nominatives of the Third Declension; as, amō, leō.
   c) In a few compounds beginning with the Preposition pro, especially before f; as prōfundere, prōficiscī, prōfugere.

5. Final u is always long.

B. Final Syllables ending in a Consonant.

364. 1. Final syllables ending in any other consonant than s are short. The following words, however, have a long vowel: sāl, sōl, Lār, pār, vēr, fār, dīc, dīcō, ēn, nōn, quīn, ēnīs, sīc, cūr, hīc1 (this). Also adverbs in o; as, hīc, hāc, istic, illūc, etc.

2. Final syllables in -as are long; as, terrās, amās.

3. Final syllables in -es are regularly long, but are short—
   a) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of dental stems (§ 33) of the Third Declension which have a short penult in the Genitive; as, segēs (segetis), obsēs (obsidēs), mīēs, dīvēs. But a few have -ēs; vis. pēs, ariēs, abiēs, pariēs.
   b) In ēs (thou art), penēs.

4. Final -os is usually long, but short in ōs (ossis), compōs, impōs.

5. Final -is is usually short, but is long—
   a) In Plurals; as, portīs, hortīs, nōbīs, vōbīs, nūbīs (Acc.).
   b) In the Second Person Singular Perfect Subjunctive Active, as amāverīs, monuerīs, audīverīs, etc. Yet occasional exceptions occur.
   c) In the Second Person Singular Present Indicative Active of the Fourth Conjugation; as, audīs.
   d) In vis, force; ɪs, thou goest; fīs; sīs; vēllīs; nōlīs; vis, thou wilt (māvīs, quamvīs, quamvīs, etc.).

6. Final -us is usually short, but is long—
   a) In the Genitive Singular and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural of the Fourth Declension; as, frūctūs.

1 Rarely hīc.
b) In the Nominative and Vocative Singular of those nouns of the Third Declension in which the u belongs to the stem; as, palūs (-ūdis), servitūs (-ūtis), tellūs (-ūris).

365. Greek Nouns retain in Latin their original quantity; as, Aenēs, epitomē, Dēlos, Pallas, Simōs, Salamīs, Didūs, Parīdī, aēr, aëthēr, crātēr, hōrōs. Yet Greek nouns in -ωρ regularly shorten the vowel of the final syllable; as, rhētōr, Hectōr.

VERSE-STRUCTURE.

GENERAL PRINCIPLES.

366. 1. The metrical unit in versification is a short syllable, technically called a mora (☉). A long syllable (☉☉) is regarded as equivalent to two morae.

2. A Foot is a group of syllables. The following are the most important kinds of fundamental feet:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Feet of Three Morae.</th>
<th>Feet of Four Morae.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>☉ ☉ ☉ Trochee.</td>
<td>☉ ☉ ☉ Dactyl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>☉ ☉ Iambus.</td>
<td>☉ ☉ Anapaest.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3. A Verse is a succession of feet.

4. The different kinds of verses are named Trochaic, Iambic, Dactylic, Anapaestic, according to the foot which forms the basis of their structure.

5. Ictus. In every fundamental foot the long syllable naturally receives the greater prominence. This prominence is called ictus.\(^1\) It is denoted thus: ☉☉☉; ☉☉☉.

6. Thesis and Arsis. The syllable which receives the ictus is called the thesis; the rest of the foot is called the arsis.

7. Elision. Final syllables ending in a vowel, a diphthong, or -m are regularly elided before a word beginning with a vowel or h. In reading, we ordinarily omit the elided syllable entirely. Probably the ancients slurred the words together in some way. This may be indicated as follows: corpore in ūnō; multum ille et; mōnstrum horrendum; causae irārum.

a. Omission of elision is called Hiatus. It occurs especially before and after monosyllabic Interjections; as, Ō et præsidium.

\(^1\) Ictus was not accent,—neither stress accent nor musical accent,—but was simply the quantitative prominence inherent in a long syllable.
8. The ending of a word within a foot is called a Caesūra (cutting). Every verse usually has one prominent caesura. The ending of a word and foot together within the verse is called a diaeresis.

9. Verses are distinguished as Catalectic or Acatalectic. A Catalectic verse is one in which the last foot is not complete, but lacks one or more syllables; an Acatalectic verse has its last foot complete.

10. At the end of a verse a slight pause occurred. Hence the final syllable may be either long or short (syllaba anops), and may terminate in a vowel or m, even though the next verse begins with a vowel.

11. Iambic, Trochaic, and Anapaestic verses are further designated as dimer, trimeter, tetramer, according to the number of dipodies (pairs of feet) which they contain. Dactylic verses are measured by single feet, and are designated as tetramer, pentamer, hexamer, accordingly.

SPECIAL PECULIARITIES.

387. 1. Synizésis (Synaéresis). Two successive vowels in the interior of a word are often united into a long syllable; as,—

   aureis, deinre, antefre, deesse.

2. Diástole. A syllable usually short is sometimes long; as,—

   vidēt, audīt.

3. Sýstole. A syllable usually long is sometimes short; as,—

   stetērunt.

   a. Diastole and Systole are not mere arbitrary processes. They usually represent an earlier pronunciation which had passed out of vogue in the ordinary speech.

4. After a consonant, l and u sometimes become j and v. The preceding syllable then becomes long; as,—

   abjete for abīte; genua for genua.

5. Sometimes v becomes u; as,—

   silua for silva; dissoluō for dissolvō.

6. Sometimes a verse has an extra syllable. Such a verse is called an Hypérmetr. The extra syllable ends in a vowel or -m, and is united with the initial vowel or h of the next verse by Synaphélia. Thus:—

   . . . . . . . . . . ignāri hominumque locūrumque errāmus.
7. **Tmesis** (cutting). Compound words are occasionally separated into their elements; as,—

quō mē cukue rapit tempestās, for quōcunque, etc.

8. **Sýncope.** A short vowel is sometimes dropped between two consonants; as,—

repostus for repositus.

THE DACTYLFIC HEXAMETER.

368. 1. The Dactylic Hexameter, or Heroic Verse, consists theoretically of six dactyls. But in all the feet except the fifth, a spondee (—_) may take the place of the dactyl. The sixth foot may be either a spondee or a trochee, since the final syllable of a verse may be either long or short (syllaba aniceps). The following represents the scheme of the verse:—

\[ \infty, \infty, \infty, \infty, \infty, \infty, \infty. \]

2. Sometimes we find a spondee in the fifth foot. Such verses are called Spondaic. A dactyl usually stands in the fourth place, and the fifth and sixth feet are generally made up of a quadrisyllable; as,—

armātumque aurō circumspicit Ōrōna
cāra deum subolēs, magnum Jovis incrèmentum.

3. **Caesura.**

a) The favorite position of the caesura in the Dactylic Hexameter is after the thesis of the third foot; as,—

arma virumque canō || Trōjae quī prīmus ab ōrīs.

b) Less frequently the caesura occurs after the thesis of the fourth foot, usually accompanied by another in the second foot; as,—

inde torō || pater Aenēās || sīō ārīsus ab altō est.

c) Sometimes the caesura occurs between the two short syllables of the third foot; as,—

ō passī gravīōra || dabit deus hīs quoque finem.

This caesura is called Feminine, as opposed to the caesura after a long syllable, which is called Masculine (as under a and b).
A pause sometimes occurs at the end of the fourth foot. This is called the Bucolic Diaeresis, as it was borrowed by the Romans from the Bucolic poetry of the Greeks. Thus:—

sōlstitium pecorī dēfendite; || jam venit aestās.

**DACTYLIC PENTAMETER.**

369. 1. The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts, each of which contains two dactyls, followed by a long syllable. Spondees may take the place of the dactyls in the first part, but not in the second. The long syllable at the close of the first half of the verse always ends a word. The scheme is the following:—

\[ \underline{\infty} \underline{\infty} \underline{\infty} \underline{\infty} \underline{\infty} \]

2. The Pentameter is never used alone, but only in connection with the Hexameter. The two arranged alternately form the so-called Elégiac Distich. Thus:—

Vergilium vidi tantum, nec amāra Tibullō
Tempus amicitiae fāta dedēre meae.

**IAMBIC MEASURES.**

370. 1. The most important Iambic verse is the Iambic Trimeter (§ 366. 11), called also Senarius. This is an acatalectic verse. It consists of six Iambi. Its pure form is:—

\[ \bigcup \bigcup \bigcup \bigcup \bigcup \bigcup \]

Beātus ille qui procul negōtīs.

The Caesura usually occurs in the third foot; less frequently in the fourth.

2. In place of the Iambus, a Tribrach (\(\bigcup\bigcup\bigcup\)) may stand in any foot but the last. In the odd feet (first, third, and fifth) may stand a Spondee, Dactyl, or Anapaest, though the last two are less frequent. Sometimes a Proceleusmatic (\(\bigcup\bigcup\bigcup\)) occurs.

3. In the Latin comic writers, Plautus and Terence, great freedom is permitted, and the various equivalents of the Iambus, *vis.* the Dactyl, Anapaest, Spondee, Tribrach, Proceleusmatic, are freely admitted in any foot except the last.
SUPPLEMENTS TO THE GRAMMAR.

I. JULIAN CALENDAR.

371. 1. The names of the Roman months are: Jānuārius, Februārius, Mārtius, Aprilis, Majus, Jūnius, Jūlius (Quintīlis 1 prior to 46 B.C.), Augustus (Sextīlis 1 before the Empire), September, October, November, December. These words are properly Adjectives in agreement with mēnsis understood.

2. Dates were reckoned from three points in the month:

a) The Calends, the first of the month.

b) The Nones, usually the fifth of the month, but the seventh in March, May, July, and October.

c) The Ides, usually the thirteenth of the month, but the fifteenth in March, May, July, and October.

3. From these points dates were reckoned backward; consequently all days after the Ides of any month were reckoned as so many days before the Calends of the month next following.

4. The day before the Calends, Nones, or Ides of any month is designated as priōdiē Kalendās, Nōnās, Īdās. The second day before was designated as diē tertīō ante Kalendās, Nōnās, etc. Similarly the third day before was designated as diē quārtō, and so on. These designations are arithmetically inaccurate, but the Romans reckoned both ends of the series. The Roman numeral indicating the date is therefore always larger by one than the actual number of days before Nones, Ides, or Calends.

5. In indicating dates, the name of the month is added in the form of an Adjective agreeing with Kalendās, Nōnās, Īdās. Various forms of expression occur, of which that given under d) is most common:

a) diē quintō ante Īdās Mārtiās;

b) quintō ante Īdās Mārtiās;

c) quintō (V) Īdās Mārtiās;

d) ante diēm quintum Īdās Mārtiās.

1 Originally the Roman year began with March. This explains the names Quintīlis, Sextīlis, September, etc., fifth month, sixth month, etc.
6. These designations may be treated as nouns and combined with the prepositions in, ad, ex; as,—

\begin{align*}
\text{ad ante diem IV Kalendās Octōbrēs, up to the 28th of September.} \\
\text{ex ante diem quintum Ídūs Octōbrēs, from the 11th of October.}
\end{align*}

7. In leap year the 25th was reckoned as the extra day in February. The 24th was designated as \text{ante diem VI Kalendās Mārtīās}, and the 25th as \text{ante diem bis VI Kal. Mārt}.

**372. CALENDAR.**

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<th>January, August, December</th>
<th>April, June, September, November</th>
<th>February</th>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>KALENDĪS</td>
<td>KALENDĪS.</td>
<td>KALENDĪS.</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>V. &quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>III. &quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>IV. &quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>Pridē Nōnās.</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>III. &quot;</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
<td>NŌNĪS.</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Pridē Nōnās.</td>
<td>VIII. Ídūs.</td>
<td>VIII. Ídūs.</td>
<td>VIII. Ídūs.</td>
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<td>8</td>
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<td>IDIBUS.</td>
<td>IDIBUS.</td>
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<td>XVIII. &quot;</td>
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<td>X. &quot;</td>
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<td>Pridē Kalend.</td>
<td>&quot;</td>
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(Enclosed forms are for leap-year.)
II. PROPER NAMES.

373. 1. The name of a Roman citizen regularly consisted of three parts: the praenomen (or given name), the nomen (name of the gens or clan), and the cognomen (family name). Such a typical name is exemplified by Marcus Tullius Cicero, in which Marcus is the praenomen, Tullius the nomen and Cicero the cognomen. Sometimes a second cognomen (in later Latin called an agnomen) is added — especially in honor of military achievements; as, —

Gaius Cornelius Scipio Africanus.

2. ABBREVIATIONS OF PROPER NAMES.

A. = Aulus.
App. = Appius.
C. = Gaius.
Cn. = Gneus.
D. = Decimus.
K. = Kaesō.
L. = Lucius.
M. = Marcus.
M'. = Manius.
Mam. = Maecenas.
N. = Numerius.
P. = Publius.
Q. = Quintus.
Sex. = Sextus.
Ser. = Servius.
Sp. = Spurius.
T. = Titus.
Ti. = Tiberius.

III. FIGURES OF SYNTAX AND RHETORIC.

A. Figures of Syntax.

374. 1. Ellipsis is the omission of one or more words; as, — quid multa, why (should I say) much?

2. Brachylogy is a brief or condensed form of expression; as, — ut ager sine cultūrā frūctuōsus esse nōn potest, sīc sine doctrīnā animus, as a field cannot be productive without cultivation, so the mind (cannot be productive) without learning.

Special varieties of Brachylogy are —

a) Zeugma, in which one verb is made to stand for two; as, —
minīs aut blandīmentis corrupta = (terrified) by threats or corrupted by flattery.

b) Compendiary Comparison, by which a modifier of an object is mentioned instead of the object itself; as, —
dissimilis erat Charēs eōrum et factīs et mōribus, lit. Chares was different from their conduct and character, i.e. Chares's conduct and character were different, etc.
3. **Pléonasme** is an unnecessary fullness of expression; as,—
   *prius praedīom*, lit. *I will first say in advance*.

4. **Hendiadys** (*ἐν δύο δύον, one through two*) is the use of two nouns joined by a conjunction, in the sense of a noun modified by a Genitive or an Adjective; as,—
   *febris et aëstus*, the heat of fever;
   *celeritāte cursūque*, by swift running.

5. **Prolépsis**, or **Anticipation**, is the introduction of an epithet in advance of the action which makes it appropriate; as,—
   *submersās obrue pāppōs*, lit. *overwhelm their submerged ships*,
   *i.e.* overwhelm and sink their ships.
   
a. The name Prolepsis is also applied to the introduction of a noun or pronoun as object of the main clause where we should expect it to stand as subject of a subordinate clause. Thus:—
   *nōstī Mārcellum quam tardus sit*, you know how slow
   *Marcellus is* (lit. you know Marcellus, how slow he is).
   Both varieties of Prolepsis are chiefly confined to poetry.

6. **Anacolūthon** is a lack of grammatical consistency in the construction of the sentence; as,—
   *tum Ancī filīs . . . impōnsius eīs indignītas crēscere*, then the sons
   *of Ancus . . . their indignation increased all the more*.

7. **Hýsteron Proteron** consists in the inversion of the natural order of two words or phrases; as,—
   *moriāmur et in media arma ruāmus* = let us rush into the midst of
   *arms and die*.

### B. Figures of Rhetoric.

**375.** 1. **Litotes** (literally softening) is the expression of an idea by the denial of its opposite; as,—
   *haud parum labōris*, no little toil (*i.e.* much toil);
   *nōn ignōrō*, I am not ignorant (*i.e.* I am well aware),

2. **Oxymoron** is the combination of contradictory conceptions;
   *as, — sapiēns Insānia, wise folly*.

3. **Alliteration** is the employment of a succession of words presenting frequent repetition of the same letter (mostly initial);
   *as, sēnsim sine sēnsū aetās senēscit*.

4. **Onomatopoeia** is the suiting of sound to sense; as,—
   *quadrupedante putrem sonitū quatīt ungula campum, 'And shake
   with horny hoofs the solid ground'*.
INDEX TO THE PRINCIPAL PARTS OF THE MOST IMPORTANT VERBS.

Notiz. — Compounds are not given unless they present some special irregularity. The references are to sections.

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B.

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## ABBREVIATIONS

- Abl., ablative; acc., accusative; adj., adjective; adv., adverb, adverbial, or adverbially; cf., compare; comp., comparison or comparative; conj., conjunction or conjugation; const., constr., construction; dat., dative; decl., declension; gen., genitive; ind., indicative; indir. disc., indirect discourse; loc., locative; n., note; nom., nominative; plu., plural; prep., preposition; pron., pronoun or pronunciation; sing., singular; subj., subject; subj., subjunctive; voc., vocative; w., with.

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