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A LATIN GRAMMAR

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BY

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BOSTON, U.S.A., AND LONDON

GINN & COMPANY, PUBLISHERS

The Athenæum Press

1903

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PREFACE

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THIS grammar aims to be a working text-book, primarily adapted to the needs of high school students.

The part which deals with Sounds, Inflection, and Word-Formation was written by the junior author, who is also mainly responsible for matters of orthography, hidden quantity, etc., throughout the book; the part which deals with Syntax, Word-Order, Versification, the Calendar, etc., and the suggestions with regard to Pronunciation in **35–40**, were written by the senior author; but both parts have been worked over carefully and in detail by both authors.

In the Phonology, Inflection, and Word-Formation, the authors have been conservative in the introduction of matters of comparative grammar. In general they have aimed to give only such historical explanations as are certain and reasonably simple, and deal with the relations between existing Latin forms, not with the relations between a Latin form and one of another language. For example, the statement that original final **i** became **e** (**44**, 3) would not be made, if it were useful only in understanding the relation between Latin **ante** and Greek *ἀντί*, but is introduced because, aside from the existence of the original form in **anti-cipō**, it explains why the Nominative-Accusative Singular Neuter of an i-stem (e.g. **mare**) ends in **e**.

While, then, only a limited amount of historical grammar has been included, pains have been taken to frame whatever statements are made as to the relations of forms in the light of our knowledge of the actual historical development, so that, while not always expressed or arranged in the way one would adopt in a strictly historical grammar, they may serve as a sound foundation for possible further study, instead of fostering wrong conceptions which must be overcome later.

Questions of pronunciation, hidden quantity, orthography, etc., have received careful and independent study, though space does not permit the presentation of the arguments in favor of the views adopted. Departures from the usual practice in such matters may cause some temporary difficulty to the teacher; but this cannot justify the authors in perpetuating what they believe to be errors.

No attempt is made to treat early Latin fully, but some of its most striking peculiarities are mentioned.

In the Syntax, the probable relationships of the constructions treated are indicated by the arrangement. Where this is not of itself sufficient, and the origin of the construction is easy to understand, a brief explanation is added, as of the Subjunctive in Generalizing Clauses in the Second Person Singular

Indefinite (**504**, *2*, *a*). Where the explanation is more difficult, or would demand too much space (as of the origin of the Subjunctive of Actuality, or of the Historical Infinitive), nothing is said. This last statement applies in general to the constructions of composite origin (illustrated in **315**, 3).

In the treatment of the verb, subordinate clauses have been put with the independent constructions to which they stand related; for their essential nature is thus best understood, while the demand made upon the memory is reduced. Where contrasting constructions with another mood exist, cross-references are given.

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The constructions dealt with have been treated in as brief and simple a manner as is consistent with the actual facts of usage; but it has not been thought that mere omission necessarily makes the student's work easier. Indeed, the *addition* of categories will at a number of points be found to make for simplicity. Thus the new category Subjunctive of Obligation or Propriety (**512**) at once illumines such an example as **quid tē invītem**, *why should I urge you?* Cic. Cat. 1, 9, 24, which formerly had to be forced under the Subjunctive of Deliberation, though there is no shade of deliberation in it. In the same way, the clear recognition (**571**) of a use of the Present Indicative with powers corresponding to those of a number of constructions in other moods or tenses will lighten the difficulties of any thoughtful teacher or student. Thus the Present Indicative after **antequam**, which Cicero uses in the Orations more than twice as frequently as the Subjunctive, the Present Indicative in a clearly future condition with **sī**, as in Cic. Cat. 2, 5, 11, and the Present Indicative in questions like **quid agō**, Aen. 4, 534, now become intelligible; and the student will not have to warp his grammatical conscience with the old explanation that, in all these cases, the act is practically "now going on."

The field covered is the syntax actually found in high school Latin, with the addition of a comparatively small number of constructions, which were necessary for the general skeleton of the treatment. Our Latin grammars, even the shorter ones, have included much that does not occur at all in high school Latin, and much (as, e.g., the id genus idiom) that is either rare or non-occurrent in the Latin ordinarily read in colleges. On the other hand, much in the way of special idiom that does occur in the ordinary college Latin has been omitted from our grammars. It has seemed best to the present authors to reserve all such constructions for a Supplement,[1] to follow this book. This Supplement will be at the service of the teacher, whether teaching in school or in college. The college teacher may choose to put it into the hands of his students, or may merely use it as a book of reference. In any case, however, students who are familiar with the constructions and

[1] The Supplement will also contain explanations of the origin of all constructions which need special explanation, discussions of the more difficult distinctions, and of certain constructions which present peculiar difficulty in the high school Latin, together with fuller illustrations, both from this Latin and from that which is read in colleges. In addition, it will contain further notes on pronunciation, word-order, and versification.

principles explained in the present book will have no difficulty in making their way through college Latin.

Citations are given for all the examples taken from actual Latin, and no change is made in any of them except the occasional omission of parts not bearing upon the construction under treatment. The subject is often omitted where it has nothing to do with the construction to be illustrated. Wherever the Latin read in the high school affords a short and satisfactory example, that example has been used; and the proportion of such examples will be found to be unprecedentedly large. Other examples have here and there been chosen as simpler, or as affording parallels in a series (e.g., in **362**), or as matching better in the exposition of allied or contrasting constructions (as in **355**, **356**, **582**, 3). But the works thus necessarily drawn upon outside of the high school Latin are in many instances represented by only a single example each.

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Latin usage was of course a matter of constant growth and change. The ordinary division into early, Augustan, and post-Augustan usage is unserviceable. After Cicero, the most rapid changes take place in Sallust (who forms an especial turning-point), Virgil, Horace, Ovid, and Livy, — all belonging to the Augustan period. The division here made is into early Latin, Ciceronian Latin,[1] and later Latin (see Table of Authors Cited, p. xi); but it must be remembered that Lucretius and Catullus, who belong to the Ciceronian age, are occasional innovators. — Where the phrase "poetic Latin" or the word "poetry" is used, it is intended to cover Plautus and Terence as well as the later poets.

The authors have allowed themselves the use of certain comparatively new forms of grammatical terminology, classification, or statement, which they believe to be helpful, as well as scientifically sound. Among these are the following: the subdivisions Volitive Subjunctive, Anticipatory Subjunctive, Subjunctive of Obligation or Propriety, Subjunctive of Ideal Certainty; the solution of the Subjunctive with **dum**, **dōnec**, **quoad**, **antequam**, and **priusquam** as Anticipatory; the distinctions and phrases Act Anticipated and Prepared for, Anticipated and Forestalled, Anticipated and Deprecated; the phrases Determinative Clause, Volitive Substantive Clause, Optative Substantive Clause, etc., **cum**-Clause of Situation, Concession for the Sake of Argument, etc.; the statement that each tense of the Subjunctive has the force of the Indicative tense of the same name, and, in addition, each has a future force, etc. Many of these appear in the earlier publications of the senior author. Others were devised for purposes of his class-room. All of them have found acceptance in one or another of various grammars, grammatical writings, and text-editions of authors, in various countries. That they have been taken up

[1] The statements with regard to Ciceronian Latin are based upon the orations and the philosophical works, for which alone complete lexicons exist. Occasional exceptions or additions will doubtless require to be made when the rhetorical works and the letters are taken into account.

so readily into usage is a matter of much satisfaction, since it seems to show that other workers also have found them to be both intelligible and needful.

It is hoped that the arrangement and form of exposition found in the book, together with the division of case-uses and mood-uses into families, and the accompanying synopses, will lead the student to conceive of Latin syntax as a living and organic whole, not as a series of mechanical pigeon-holes.

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The views upon the relation of ictus to accent advocated in **645**, 2 have been tested by the senior editor in many years of teaching at Harvard, Cornell, and Chicago, and have been found to render the reading of Latin verse both easier and more interesting.

To specify all the obligations of the authors to the literature upon the subjects treated would be impossible. Needless to say, they have availed themselves fully of Brugmann and Delbrück's Comparative Grammar, of the Latin Grammars of Lindsay, Sommer, Stolz and Schmalz, of Neue's Formenlehre with its unrivalled statistical information, of the treatises of Madvig, Holtze, Draeger, Kühner, Roby, Antoine, Riemann, Riemann and Goelzer, of the Schmalz-Landgraf revision of the Syntax of Reisig, of articles in the various journals, etc., as well as of the school-grammars most widely used in this country and elsewhere.

For proof-reading and suggestions, they are much indebted to Mr. E. M. Washburn, of the South Side Academy, Chicago; Mr. C. E. Dixon and Mr. W. F. Tibbetts, of the Erasmus Hall High School, Brooklyn, N.Y.; Professors F. F. Abbott, G. L. Hendrickson, F. B. Tarbell, and G. J. Laing, of the University of Chicago; Professor Willard K. Clement, of Evanston, Ill.; Professor J. C. Rolfe, of the University of Pennsylvania; and Professor F. W. Shipley, of Washington University, St. Louis. Professor Hempl of Michigan read the sections on Phonology in manuscript, and made some important suggestions. In particular, thanks are due to Mr. R. A. von Minckwitz, of the DeWitt Clinton High School, New York City, for many helpful suggestions; to Professor G. E. Barber, of the University of Nebraska, for searching and valuable criticisms; to Professor D. Thomson, of the University of Washington, Seattle, for large collections of examples made by him for the purpose; and to Professor A. T. Walker, of the University of Kansas, for proof-reading and suggestions, and also examples collected by him when Instructor in the University of Chicago for an Outline of the Uses of the Latin Moods and Tenses projected by the senior author, some of which examples have been used in the present grammar. And finally, the authors wish to record their especial indebtedness to Mr. C. H. Beeson, Fellow in the University of Chicago, formerly of the Peoria High School, whose assistance has been generously and freely given at points and in ways too numerous to state in detail.

W. G. H.

JUNE, 1903. C. D. B.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

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PART I

PHONOLOGY

	PAGE
THE ALPHABET, PHONETIC EXPLANATIONS, THE LATIN SOUNDS	1
SYLLABLES	5
QUANTITY	7
ACCENT	15
SLURRING	16
SUGGESTIONS WITH REGARD TO PRONUNCIATION	17
PHONETIC CHANGES	18
ORTHOGRAPHY	26

PART II

INFLECTION

GENDER	27
NUMBER	29
CASE	29
DECLENSION OF NOUNS	30
FIRST DECLENSION	31
SECOND DECLENSION	33
THIRD DECLENSION	36
FOURTH DECLENSION	48
FIFTH DECLENSION	50
DEFECTIVE AND VARIABLE NOUNS	50
DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES	
ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS	53
ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION	55
COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES	58
FORMATION OF ADVERBS, PREPOSITIONS, AND CONJUNCTIONS	61
COMPARISON OF ADVERBS	63
NUMERALS: FORMS AND INFLECTION	64
DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS	67
PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES	73

PAGE

Correlative Pronouns, Adjectives, and Adverbs . . . 74
Stems of the Verb 75
Types of Conjugation 76
Principal Parts 77
Personal Endings 78
Conjugation of Sum 79
The Four Regular Conjugations 82
Deponents and Semi-Deponents 93
Periphrastic Conjugation 94
Peculiarities in Conjugation 95
Formation of the Stems 98
Illustrations of the Various Types of Verbs . . 107
Irregular Verbs 112
Defective Verbs 118
Impersonal Verbs 120

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Part III

WORD-FORMATION

Derivation of Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs 121
Composition 129

Part IV

SYNTAX

Introductory:
The Parts of Speech; the Sentence; Clauses and Phrases 132
Dependence and Semi-Dependence . . . 134
Classification of Sentences and Clauses . . 135
Subject and Predicate; Predicate Noun, Adjective, or Pronoun 135
Questions and Answers; Alternative Questions; Rhetorical Questions . . . 136
Substantive Clauses; Adverbial Clauses . . . 138
The Parts of Speech in Detail: Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, Interjections 139
The Expression of Ideas through Cases, Moods, and Tenses:
General Principles 170
Agreement 171

PAGE

REMAINING USES OF THE CASES:
USES OF THE NOMINATIVE 179
USES OF THE GENITIVE 180
USES OF THE DATIVE 189
USES OF THE ACCUSATIVE 200
USES OF THE VOCATIVE 210
USES OF THE ABLATIVE 211
PLACE-CONSTRUCTIONS WITH NAMES OF TOWNS, **domus, rūs,** ETC. 235
SUMMARY OF CASE-USES WITH PREPOSITIONS . 238
GENERAL FORCES OF THE MOODS AND TENSES . 239
GENERAL USES OF THE NEGATIVES **nē** AND **nōn** . . 241
TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE . . 243
TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE 244
TENSES OF THE IMPERATIVE . . . 245
TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE . . . 245
TENSES OF THE PARTICIPLE 246
USUAL COMBINATIONS OF TENSES ("Sequence") . 247
LESS USUAL COMBINATIONS ("Exceptions to the Sequence") 249
(RARE) MECHANICAL HARMONY OF SUBJUNCTIVE TENSES . 250
ALTERNATIVE TENSE-USAGES 250
SPECIAL FORCES GAINED BY VARIOUS TENSES . . . 252
USES OF THE IMPERATIVE 256
USES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE 257
THE VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE . . 259
THE ANTICIPATORY SUBJUNCTIVE . . 265
THE OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE . . 268
THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF OBLIGATION OR PROPRIETY . 270
THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF NATURAL LIKELIHOOD 271
THE POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE . 272
THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF IDEAL CERTAINTY . 273
THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF ACTUALITY IN CONSECUTIVE CLAUSES 276
THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN CONDITIONS 283, 304
THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF PROVISO . 283
THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF REQUEST OR ENTREATY . 283
THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF CONSENT OR INDIFFERENCE 284
THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF INDIRECT DISCOURSE . 285
THE SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION 290
THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF REPEATED ACTION . 290
THE (LATER) SUBJUNCTIVE WITH **quamquam** . 291
THE SUBJUNCTIVE GENERALIZING STATEMENT OF FACT IN THE SECOND PERSON SINGULAR INDEFINITE . . 291

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PAGE

Uses of the Indicative 292
Summary of Conditions and Conclusions . 304
Uses of the Infinitive 314
Uses of the Participle 323
Uses of the Gerundive and Gerund . . . 329
Uses of the Supine 333
Word-Order 334
Figures of Syntax 340
Figures of Rhetoric 342

www.libtool.com.cn

Part V

VERSIFICATION

Rhythm; Ictus; the Foot; the Verse . . . 344
The Dactylic Hexameter and Dactylic Pentameter 345
Relation of Ictus to Word-Accent 348
Pronunciations to be noticed 350

Part VI

APPENDIX

The Roman Calendar 353
Roman Money, Weights, and Measures . . 356
Roman Names 358
Hidden Quantity 359
Catalogue of Verbs 361

AUTHORS CITED

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EARLY LATIN	LATER LATIN
Plautus, 254–184	Sallust, 86–34
Ennius, 239–169	Nepos, 99?–24?
Terence, 185?–159	Virgil, 70–19
Cato, 234–149	Horace, 65–8
	Livy, 59 B.C.–17 A.D.
	Ovid, 43 B.C.–18? A.D.
CICERONIAN LATIN	Persius, 34 A.D.–62 A.D.
	Seneca, 4? B.C.–65 A.D.
Varro, 116–27	Pliny the Elder, 23 A.D.–79 A.D.
Lucretius, 96?–55	Quintilian, 35?–95
Catullus, 87–54?	Martial, 40?–102
Caesar, 100–44	Pliny the Younger, 62–113?
Cicero, 106–43	Tacitus, 55?–120?
	Juvenal, 60?–140?

For Caesar, Cicero, Virgil, and Horace, and also for Plautus and Terence, the name of the work alone is given, the name of the author not being cited. The works of these authors drawn upon, with the abbreviations, are as follows:

Plautus: Amph. = Amphitruō, As. = Asināria, Aul. = Aululāria, Bacch. = Bacchides, Capt. = Captīvī, Cist. = Cistellāria, Epid. = Epidicus, Men. = Menaechmī, Merc. = Mercātor, Mil. Gl. = Mīles Glōriōsus, Pers. = Persa, Poen. = Poenulus, Pseud. = Pseudolus, Rud. = Rudēns, Stich. = Stichus, Trin. = Trinummus.

Terence: Ad. = Adelphoe, And. = Andria, Eun. = Eunūchus, Hec. = Hecyra, Heaut. = Heautontimoroumenos, Ph. = Phormiō.

Caesar: B. C. = dē Bellō Cīvīlī, B. G. = dē Bellō Gallicō.

Virgil: Aen. = Aenēis, Ecl. = Eclogae, Georg. = Geōrgica.

Horace: A. P. = Ars Poētica, Carm. = Carmina, Ep. = Epistolae, Epod. = Epodī, Sat. = Satirae.

Remaining abbreviations are for the works of Cicero. The examples are mostly from the Orations against Catiline (Cat.), for Archias (Arch.), and for Pompey's Command (Pomp.). A few are from the Oration for Milo (Mil.). The remainder are scattering. The abbreviations for them will explain themselves, except that Am. = Laelius dē Amīcitiā, Sen. = Catō Maior dē Senectūte, Senat. = Ōrātiō post Reditum in Senātū Habita, Fam. = Epistolae ad Familiārēs, and Att. = Epistolae ad Atticum.

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LATIN GRAMMAR

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PART I

PHONOLOGY

THE ALPHABET

1. The Latin alphabet is the same as the English, except that Latin has no **w** and no **j**.

a. **K** occurs only in a few words, e.g. **Kalendae**, usually abbreviated to **Kal.** **C**, which comes from a form of the Greek letter Gamma, retains its original value of **g** in the abbreviations **C.** for **Gāius** and **Cn.** for **Gnaeus.** **Y** and **z** are used, in Cicero's time and later, in the transcription of words borrowed from the Greek.

NOTE. The Latin alphabet appears in our English alphabet, with certain changes that have arisen in the course of time, either in the forms of the letters (our small letters are the results of such changes, for the Romans regularly used only capitals), or in the evolution of new characters which did not exist or were not recognized as distinct letters by the Romans. Thus **V** was used for both vowel and consonant, as in **CVM** and **VIR**, and similarly **I** in **IN** and **IAM**. **U** was simply the rounded form of **V**, while **J** is a late variety of **I**. The distinction of the letters **v** and **u** is of such convenience as to be commonly retained. On the other hand, since the consonantal value of **i** is restricted to an easily defined position (**11**), there is less advantage in distinguishing it to the eye, and the use of **j** may well be discarded.

THE LATIN SOUNDS

Phonetic Explanations

2. Vowels and Consonants. Vowels, such as *a*, *e*, *o*, etc., furnish the body of the syllable and bear its stress, while consonants, such as *t*, *p*, *g*, *n*, etc., are accessory. Thus in the word *top* the weight of the syllable, as it were, is in the *o*.

English *y* and *w* (as in *yet*, *wet*), Latin consonantal **i** and **v**, are consonants. But in their formation they are so closely allied to the *i* and *u*

vowels (as in *pin*, *pull*), differing from them mainly in being uttered more rapidly, that they are sometimes called *Semivowels*.

3. Vowels are distinguished in various ways, among others as *open* and *close*. The *a* in *father* is open, the tongue lying flat and the breath passing out without any obstruction; whereas *i* (in *pin*) and *u* (in *pull*) are close vowels, the tongue being raised close to the roof of the mouth, leaving but a narrow space for the breath. Intermediate are the sounds of *e* in *let* and *o* in *hot*. *Open* and *close* are relative terms, an infinite number of degrees being possible. The long *i* and *u* in *machine*, *rule* are still closer than the short *i* and *u* in *pin*, *pull*. So too the long *e* and *o* of *they*, *no* are closer than the short *e* and *o* of *let*, *hot*.

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4. *Nasalized* vowels are such as are heard in the "nasal twang" which is so common in careless pronunciation.

5. Diphthongs. Diphthongs are combinations of two vowels pronounced in the same breath-impulse, as *ai* in *aisle*, *oi* in *coin*. The stress is on the first vowel, the second being much less distinct.

6. Consonants are divided, according to the *general nature of the sound*, into:

1. *Liquids*, as *l* and *r*.
2. *Nasals*, as *n*, *m*, and *ng* (in *singing*).
3. *Fricatives* or *Spirants*, as *f*, *s*, *z*, *th* in *thin* or *then*, etc. Of these, *s* and *z* are also called *Sibilants*.
4. *Mutes* or *Stops*, as *p*, *t*, *b*, etc.
5. *Aspirates* or *Aspirated Mutes*. These are mutes closely followed by an additional breath-element, as in compounds like *boat-house*, *loop-hole*, etc., except that in these the mute and aspirate are in different syllables. The sounds of English *th*, *ph* in *thin*, *physic* are *not* aspirates, but *fricatives*.

7. Consonants are divided, according to the *position of the organs in play*, into:

1. *Labials*, as *p*, *b*, *f*, *m*.
2. *Dentals*, as *t*, *d*, *n*.
3. *Gutturals* or *Palatals*, as *k*, *g*, *ng* (in *singing*).

8. Consonants are divided, according as they are produced *with or without vibration of the vocal chords*, into:

1. *Voiced* Consonants or *Sonants*, as *b*, *d*, *g*, *z*, *l*, *r*, *n*, *m*.
2. *Voiceless* Consonants or *Surds*, as *p*, *t*, *k*, *s*, *f*.

VOWELS

9. The vowels are pronounced as follows:

a as in the first syllable of *aha*.	ō about as in *no*.
ā as in *father*.	i as in *pin*.
e as in *let*.	ī as in *machine*.
ē about as in *they*.	u as in *pull*.
o about as in *obey*.	ū as in *rude*.

y like French u or German ü (with the tongue in position to pronounce i as in *machine*, and lips in position to pronounce u as in *rule*).

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a. True short *a* and short *o* do not exist in English in accented syllables. Latin short a was like the long *a* in *father*, but more quickly uttered. Short o approached our short *o* in *hot*, but was made with the lips well rounded and well forward. In the pronunciation of many (though not of all) English-speaking people, it is heard in unaccented positions, as in *obey* and *democrat*. In attempting to reproduce this quality in an accented syllable one must avoid the natural English tendency to lengthen the vowel, which would lead us into the serious error of pronouncing Latin post like English *post*.

b. The English long vowels in such words as *they* and *no* are not strictly pure vowels, for they have a slight "vanishing" sound at the end, giving them the character of diphthongs, which may be roughly indicated by $\bar{e}^{i}$ and $\bar{o}^{u}$. The Latin ē and ō were pure vowels like the corresponding German or French vowels (German *See*, *Sohn*; French *été*, *chose*).

c. The Latin long vowels differed from the short not only in the length of time taken for utterance, but also (except in the case of a, ā) in quality, the long vowels being closer (see **3**) than the short. This is also true of the English vowels.

DIPHTHONGS

10. The diphthongs are pronounced as follows:

ae like *ai* in *aisle*.	eu as *é(h)-oo*, smoothly pronounced
au like *ou* in *out*.	in the same breath-impulse.
oe like *oi* in *coin*.	ui as *oó-ee*, smoothly pronounced in
ei like *ei* in *deign*.	the same breath-impulse.

a. The pronunciation of ae, oe, and au as monophthongs (ae as open ē, oe as close ē, au as open ō) was current in vulgar speech from an early date, but in cultivated speech the diphthongal pronunciation lasted well into imperial times. An earlier form of ae was ai, as was oi of oe. Most cases of original oi passed through oe to the monophthong ū, as oinos, — oenus, — ūnus.

b. The original diphthong eu, once very common, was merged in prehistoric times with ou, and this ou, still existing in early Latin, passed on to ū. So original *deucō,[1] early Latin doucō, later dūcō. Hence it is that eu is of somewhat rare occurrence in Latin, being confined to some interjections like heu, some Greek words like Eurus, *south-east wind*, and a few words in which the eu was of recent origin, as seu, neu, ceu (beside the fuller forms sīve, etc.). Neuter was trisyllabic throughout early and classical Latin. In neutiquam the first syllable was short, as if the spelling were n'utiquam.

[1] The asterisk (*) indicates an assumed form, that is, one which is not actually found, but is reconstructed, either after parallel forms which *are* found, or from our knowledge of the related forms of other languages. Some of the assumed forms given in this grammar are reconstructed only as regards the particular point under discussion, other matters which would only divert the attention being ignored. So, for example, in **49**, 12, bīnī is said to come from *bis-nī, although the fully reconstructed form would be *duis-noi.

c. **Ei** is frequent in early inscriptions, representing an original ei (and also ai and o in non-initial syllables; see **42**, 3; **44**, 4), but this ei became ī, e.g. early deicō, inceidō servei, later dīcō, incīdō, servī. In classical Latin ei occurs as a diphthong only in the interjection **hei** and a few words in which it was of recent origin, e.g. **dein**, **deinde** from dĕ-inde. In most words ei forms two distinct syllables, as in de-i-ficus.

d. The diphthong **ui** occurred at first only in the interjection **hui** (so in German only in the exclamations *hui*, *pfui*). But it arose later in the pronominal forms **huic**, **cui** and **huius**, **cuius**, coming from earlier **hoic**, **quoi**, and **hoius**, **quoius**, which were still in use in the time of Cicero. In all other words **ui** forms two distinct syllables, as **fu-it** **hahu-it**, etc. And even **huic** and **cui** are dissyllables in post-Augustan poetry.

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CONSONANTS

11. Most consonants are pronounced as in English, but the following points are to be noted:

c always has the *k* sound as in *cat*, never the *s* sound as in *centre*.

g as in *get*, never as in *gem*.

t as in *tin*, never as in *nation*.

s as in *hiss*, never voiced (**z**) as in *his*.

bs (e.g. in **urbs**, etc.) like *ps* in *cups*, not *bz* as in *tubs*.

bt (e.g. in **ob-tineō**) as *pt*.

x always *ks* as in *extra*, never *gz* as in *example*.

n before **c**, **g**, **qu** has the sound of *ng* in *singing*. Before **s** it lost its consonantal value, the preceding vowel being lengthened and nasalized. So **cōnsul**, pronounced **cōsul** with nasalized **ō** (**4**).

r "rolled" or "trilled" as in French.

z (in words borrowed from the Greek) as in *zero*.

i consonantal as *y* in *yet*.

i is consonantal when standing at the beginning of a word and followed by a vowel, and also in the interior of a word between vowels. So, for example, **iungō**, pronounced *yungō*, **biiugis**, pronounced *biyugis*, **maius**, pronounced *maiyus* (**29**, 2, *a*), etc.

But in a number of words borrowed from the Greek, mostly proper nouns, an initial **i** before vowels represents the vowel, e.g. **iambus**. In **Gāius** **i** is a vowel (**Gā-i-us**).

v as *w* in *wet*.

The letter **u** has the same value as **v** in the combinations **qu** and **ngu** and in the words **suāvis**, **suādeō**, **suēscō**. Compare English *quarter*, *anguish*, *persuade*.

ch, **ph**, **th** are pronounced like **k**, **p**, **t**, but with an added breath-element, — *not* as in *church* or *chagrin*, *physic*, *thin*. See **6**, 5.

These sounds were introduced in the first century B.C. to represent, in borrowed words, the Greek aspirates, which had previously been represented by the simple mutes (e.g. **teātrum**, later **theātrum**). They came to be used also in a few genuine Latin words, as **pulcher**.

Double letters represent real double consonants, each being pronounced with a distinct articulation and in different syllables, as in *book-case*, *hoop-pole*, *well-laid*, etc. So sic-cus, ap-pel-lō.

NOTE. Although in general h was pronounced by careful speakers as in English, yet in certain combinations it seems to have been wholly silent, as it probably was everywhere in the popular speech. It never prevents slurring (34), the shortening of vowels before other vowels (21), or rhotacism (47), and often admits contraction (45). It is sometimes a mere sign of hiatus, that is, it is used to make clear to the eye that two vowels are to be pronounced in two syllables rather than as a diphthong. So, for example, in ahēnus, a not uncommon spelling of aēnus. Moreover, the Romans were often in doubt as to the proper spelling, such variations as harēna — arēna, herus — erus, etc., being frequent; and in the case of some words the approved spelling, which we follow, is not the historically correct one, for example, in ānser, *goose*, which, according to the related forms in other languages, should be hānser.

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CLASSIFICATION OF THE LATIN SOUNDS

12. The following scheme gives a classification of the simple Latin sounds. See the phonetic explanations (2-8). The sounds borrowed from Greek are inclosed in parentheses.

Vowels		ă		Voiced
		e o		
	ē		ō	
	i		u	
	ī	(y)	ū	
Breathing		h		Voiceless
Semivowels	i consonant		v	Voiced
Liquids		r, l		Voiced
Nasals	n	n	m	Voiced
Fricatives		s	f	Voiceless
		(z)		Voiced
Mutes or Stops	c, k, q	t	p	Voiceless
	(ch)	(th)	(ph)	Voiceless aspirate
	g	d	b	Voiced
	Guttural	Dental	Labial	

NOTE. Since x represents not a simple sound, but two sounds (k + s), it is not included in the classification.

SYLLABLES

13. A syllable is a sound or succession of sounds uttered with a single breath-impulse.

14. Every Latin word contains as many syllables as it has vowels or diphthongs. The division of syllables is as follows:

1. A single consonant goes with the following vowel, as in **bo-nus, a-git, fe-rō.**

2. In the case of two or more consonants the division falls before the last consonant, except that the combinations mute + liquid, and **qu** or **gu**, go with the following vowel.[1] Thus:

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1) **ter-men, in-ter, sic-cus, fac-tus, op-timus, prīs-cus, magis-ter, sānc-tus,** but,

2) **pa-tris, ala-cris, tene-brae, cas-tra, se-quor, lin-gua.**

NOTE. In a sound-group like tr (and qu, gu), the combination of the two elements is naturally so close that they were regularly pronounced in the same syllable. But the poets often made use of a division **pat-ris**, etc. (29, 3, *a*).

An aspirated mute, though spelled with two letters, is of course a single consonant (**pul-cher**), while **x** has the sound of two consonants (e.g. **axis**, pronounced *ak-sis*, but best written **a-xis**).

a. A syllable ending in a vowel is called *open*, while one ending in a consonant is called *closed*. Thus, the first syllable of **bo-nus** is open, that of **sic-cus** closed.

b. In the case of a closed syllable, the consonant which ends it may conveniently be called an *obstructed* consonant, since its clear and full pronunciation is made more difficult through the fact that it comes immediately before another consonant.

15. 1. In the *writing* of compounds it is convenient to divide the syllables in accordance with the etymology, as **ad-est, ad-igō**, etc.; and it is quite possible that they were so pronounced in the studied utterance of purists. But in ordinary speech and in verse the two elements were blended, and so treated in accordance with the general system of syllabification. For example, **ad-est** and **ad-hibeō** were pronounced **a-dest, a-dhibeō**. But if a mute and a liquid came *through composition* to stand together, they were always pronounced in separate syllables, e.g. always **ab-rumpō**, never **a-brumpō** like **tene-brae**.

2. Between words in connected discourse, at least in ordinary speech and in verse, the division of syllables is the same as within a single word. That is, before a word beginning with a vowel or **h**, a final consonant goes with the following word, as happens in English in some common phrases, such as *at all*, pronounced *a-tall*. So, for example, **id est, ad haec** were pronounced **i-dest, a-dhaec.**

[1] It is often stated that such combinations of consonants as can be pronounced at the beginning of words (in either Latin or Greek) were not separated, the pronunciation being, for example, **fa-ctus, ca-stra, sān-ctus**, etc. But the actual division in inscriptions and manuscripts is against this; nor is the teaching of the Roman grammarians or the evidence of the Romance languages really in favor of it.

QUANTITY OF VOWELS

16. According to the length of time taken in their pronunciation, vowels are said to be *long* or *short*. Long vowels are indicated thus: ā, ī, ē, etc. Vowels without any mark are short.[1]

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NOTE 1. If we regard the length of time taken in the pronunciation of a single short vowel as the unit, sometimes called a *mora*, we may assume that a long vowel contained two of these units or *morae*, that is, that it took twice as long. But it must be remembered that in a dead language we cannot know the exact relation in time, and that in spoken languages there are often more than two variations in quantity. So in English there are at least three, e.g. in *met*, *mate*, and *made*. In Latin it is quite possible that where vowels were lengthened before certain groups of consonants the resulting quantity was not the same as that of the original long vowels, but something between the usual short and long. This would account for the fact that the evidence is sometimes conflicting. But the matter is beyond our knowledge, and we can take account only of the two varieties. The fact that Latin verse is based on distinctions of quantity shows that the difference between long and short vowels must have been very marked, — fully as much so as between the English extremes of *met* and *made*.

NOTE 2. In most cases the quantity of a vowel is shown by its value in poetry. But where the syllable is long without regard to the quantity of the vowel (as in dictus, etc.; see **29**, 3), that is, in the cases of what is known as "hidden quantity," we are dependent on other kinds of evidence. Such are:

1) Statements of the Roman grammarians.
2) Spelling in inscriptions, in which long vowels are frequently marked as such.
3) Greek transcriptions.
4) Etymology.
5) Treatment in compounds, long vowels not being subject to the same changes as short; e.g. adāctus beside āctus, but adfectus beside factus. See **41**, **42**.
6) The inherited forms of the Romance languages, which have preserved the differences in quality which went hand in hand with differences in quantity (**9**, *c*); e.g. Italian *detto* from dictus, but *scritto* from scrīptus.

Often there are several kinds of evidence combined, e.g. in lēctus, in which the ē is shown by 1), 2), 3), and 6). But all the evidence must be used with caution, and in a few cases it is so meagre or conflicting that our designation of the quantity represents only what is the more probable of the two possibilities.

17. The quantity of the vowel in any given word must be learned by experience in the same way as its quality. From the outset in learning forms, the student should be as careful to note whether, for example, the vowel is short e or long e, as to note whether it is e or i. Since the quantity of vowels is always marked in the grammar and in the texts first read, there is no difficulty in doing this.

At the same time, there are certain general processes of lengthening or shortening, from which there results a uniform quantity for certain conditions; and, also, some general groupings of the facts, which, though purely mechanical, will be of assistance to the memory. Statements covering these are given in the following sections.

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[1] In a few instances a special sign for the short vowel has been used; thus, ă, ĕ. Vowels are sometimes marked as common; thus, mihī. But this only means that forms belonging to two different periods were used by the poets. In this grammar such words are commonly given in the form of the usual prose pronunciation, as mihi.

Quantity of Vowels in Syllables not Final

18. Vowels are always long before **ns, nf, nx,** and **nct,** as in **cōnsul, īnfrā, iūnxī, iūnctus.**

NOTE. In these combinations the nasal was only faintly sounded, or, in the case of **ns,** wholly lost as a consonantal element, the preceding vowel being itself nasalized. But the total time taken in the pronunciation of the syllable remained the same, the nasalization of the vowel being accompanied by lengthening.

a. There was a tendency in certain circles to lengthen the vowel before r + consonant. This pronunciation was regarded in general as improper, but in some words it became the recognized one. This is certainly true of **fōrma, ōrdō, ōrdior, ōrnō,** and probably of **Mārcus, Mārcius, Mārs, Lārs, quārtus.**

b. Somewhat similarly before **gn.** Aside from **rēgnum, stāgnum,** and **sēgnis,** in which the vowel is long by origin, a pronunciation with lengthened vowel existed in the case of **dīgnus, sīgnum, īgnis,** and in words like **prīvīgnus**; but even in these it did not become established. We therefore write **dignus, signum,** etc., as well as **magnus, ignōscō,** etc., for which there is no evidence whatever of a long vowel.[1]

c. For the quantity before **x** and **ct,** just as before many other groups of consonants, there is no uniformity; each case must be judged by itself. Just as the vowel is long by origin in **lēx** (Gen. **lēgis**), but short in **nex** (Gen. **necis**), so some Perfects, as **rēxī, tēxī,** etc. (**173,** *C, d*), have a long vowel parallel to that in **lēgī,** but others the short vowel, as **spexī, coxī,** etc. Similarly **lēctus, rēctus, tēctus,** etc., with a long vowel as in **lēgī, rēxī, tēxī,** but other Participles with a short vowel, as **dictus, factus.** See **180.**

19. Vowels are long when they result from contraction, or represent diphthongs. Thus **nīl** from **nihil, exīstimō** from * **ex-aestimō.**

20. Vowels are regularly short (in *all* syllables) before **nt** and **nd.** Thus **amantis, amandus, amant,** beside **amāmus.**

a. But in certain words, in which the combination of a long vowel with a following **nt** or **nd** arose after the shortening process had already taken place, the length is retained. So **cōntiō** (from **coventiō**), **prēndō** (from **pre-hendō**), **vēndō** (**vēnum-dō**), **nūntius, nūndinae, quīntus, ūndecim.**

2. Vowels are short before **ss,** except in the contracted Perfect forms, like **amāsse** beside **amāvissē,** etc., and in the short forms of **edō,** *eat,* as **ēs, ēst, ēsse,** etc. So **fissus, fossus, sessum,** etc.

NOTE. This is because an original **ss,** when preceded by a long vowel, became **s.** See **49,** 6.

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[1] A full discussion of this matter is impossible here, but a word of justification for the departure here made from the previous practice of our grammars and lexicons is perhaps desirable. Take, for example, the word **signum.** In inscriptions it is written a few times with the tall **I** or **ei,** which point to a pronunciation with long vowel. On the other hand, the inherited forms of the Romance languages and the borrowed forms in the Germanic and Celtic languages point to a pronunciation with short vowel. In this and some other words, then, both pronunciations existed, probably in different strata of society. But there is no evidence to show that the pronunciation with long vowel was considered preferable for any of these words. So, since for the majority of words with **gn,** such as **magnus, ignōscō,** etc., there is no evidence whatever for the long vowel, the advantage of uniformity (barring, of course, the cases of original length, as **rēgnum**) may be allowed to tip the scales in favor of **signum** with the short vowel. In writing **signum, magnus,** etc., the authors are in agreement with the most recent practice of several other scholars, though many still mark the vowel long. Some, indeed, write "**signum** and **sīgnum,**" etc., but this is not possible for a school grammar.

It may be added that some scholars question whether the lengthening of a vowel before **nx** and **nct** was universal, but there is no sufficient reason for doubting this.

21. A vowel is regularly short before another vowel, and also when only the weak sound **h** intervenes; e.g. **pius** (originally with long **i**), **de-hīscō** beside **dē-dūcō**, etc.[1] But there are some exceptions, as in:

1. Forms of **fīō**, except when **i** is followed by **er**; e.g. **fīō**, **fīunt**, **fīēbam**, etc., but **fierī**, **fierem**, etc.
2. Pronominal Genitives like **ūnīus**, **illīus**, **tōtīus**.
3. Genitives and Datives of the Fifth Declension in **-ēī**, when a vowel precedes; e.g. **diēī**, but **fideī**.
4. Old Genitives of the First Declension in **-āī**, as **aulāī**.
5. Some Greek words, as **āēr**, **Aenēās**, etc.
6. **Dīus** (for **dīvus**), sometimes **Dīāna**, **ōhe**, **ēheu**.
7. Early Latin **fūit**, **plūit**, etc., but usually **fuit**, **pluit**.

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NOTE. For the Pronominal Genitives the pronunciation **ūnīus**, etc., was the one recognized by the Romans as correct, and we should follow this. But there was a tendency in common speech to shorten the vowel, and forms like **ūnius**, **illius**, **tōtius** are not uncommon in poetry of all periods. This is especially frequent in the case of **alterius**, since **alterīus** could not be used in dactylic poetry; so, always, **utriusque**.

22. In the Root-Syllable the quantity of the vowel is generally the same for all forms derived from the same root; e.g. **scrībō**, **scrība**, **scrīptor**, etc. But some roots appear in two different forms, which may differ in the quantity of the vowel, as they do sometimes in its quality. See **46**.

NOTE. For Perfects and Perfect Passive Participles with vowel quantity different from that of the Present, see **173**, *C*, *c*, *d*; **180**. Derivatives with variation in vowel quantity, such as **sēdēs** (**sedeō**), **tēgula** (**tegō**), etc., are comparatively rare and may be learned in each individual case.

23. 1. The Stem-Vowel of the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations is long (**ā**, **ē**, **ī**), while that of the Third is short (**e**, **i**, **u**). Thus, **amāre**, **monēre**, **audīre**, but **tegere**, **tegitur**, **teguntur**.

a. But in **dō**, *give*, the stem-vowel is short **a** except in the Second Person of the Present Indicative, **dās**, and Imperative **dā**; e.g. **damus**, **dabam**, etc.

2. In the formation of Derivatives from Noun or Verb-stems, **a** is long, representing the stem of Nouns of the First Declension or Verbs of the First Conjugation; e.g. **Rōmānus**, **arātrum**. **E**, **o**, **u** are also usually long; e.g. **fidēlis**, **egēnus**, **patrōnus**, **vīnōsus**, **tribūnus**, **lānūgō** (but **o** and usually **u** are short before **l**; e.g. **fīliolus**, **rīvulus**, etc.). **I** is oftenest short, representing original short **i**, or a weakened **e** or **o** (**42**, 2, 5); e.g. **cīvitās**, **bonitās**, **dominus**; but long **i** is also frequent; e.g. **sedīle**, **rēgīna**.

3. In the stem of Nouns of the Third Declension **-on-** is always long; e.g. Gen. **sermōnis**; **-or-** is short in Neuters, e.g. **corporis**, but in Masculines

[1] Observe the similar shortening of a diphthong, e.g. **pre-hendō** for **prae-hendō**; likewise, though without change in spelling, **prae-eunte** (Aen. 5, 186).

and Feminines it is long except in the Nom.-Voc. Sing.; e.g. **amor**, **amōris**. Exceptions are **arbor**, *tree*, F., Gen. **arboris**; **lepus**, *hare*, M., Gen. **leporis**.

4. Verbs in **-scō**, except **discō**, **poscō**, and **compescō** have a long vowel before the suffix; e.g. **crēscō**, **pāscō**, **adolēscō**, etc. See **168.** F, note; **212**, 2.

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24. In Compounds the quantity of vowels generally remains the same as in the separate parts. Thus **cadō**, **incidō**; **cēdō**, **abscēdō**.

But note the following variations in the form of certain prefixes:

1. **Dis** becomes **dī** before a voiced consonant; e.g. **dī-dō**, **dī-moveō**, **dī-iūdicō**. In forms like **di-scrībō**, although an **s** is dropped, the vowel is not lengthened. See **51**, 7.
2. **Prō** has a short vowel before another vowel or **h**, and before **f** followed by a vowel, except in **prō-ferō** and **prō-ficiō**. So **pro-avus**, **pro-inde**, **pro-hibeō**, **pro-fugiō**, **pro-fundō**, etc. But before vowels **prōd-** is commonly used; e.g. **prōd-eō**, **prōd-esse**, **prōd-igō**.

a. The form with the short vowel appears also in **pro-cella**, **pro-nepōs**, **pro-pāgō** (usually), and, in some other less obvious compounds, as **pro-cul**, **pro-pe**, **pro-bus**.

NOTE. Although before a vowel or **b** the short vowel may be the result of the regular shortening (**21**), in the other cases **pro** represents an inherited variety of **prō** (Greek has regularly the short vowel). In early Latin the demarcation in the use of the two forms was less fixed than later, and even in classical poetry there are occasional departures from the normal usage; e.g. **prō-cūrō** beside the usual **prō-cūrō**, and, *vice versa*, **prō-fundō** beside the usual **pro-fundō**.

Observe that **ā**, **ē**, and **dē** (except in such forms as **dē-hīscō**; see **21**) always remain long; also that **re** is always short (for **red** before vowels and **h**, see **51**, 15).

3. **Ne**, not **nē**, is the form of the negative prefix in **ne-fandus**, **ne-fās**, **ne-queō**, **ne-sciō**, **ne-scius**.

Quantity of Vowels in Final Syllables[1] (including Monosyllables)

I. *Words ending in a Consonant*

25. Unless the final consonant is **s**, the vowel is short. Exceptions are:

1. Some (not all) monosyllables in **-l**, **-r**, **-n**, and **-c**, namely **sōl**, **sāl**, **nīl**, **pār** (with its compounds), **vēr**, **Lār**, **fūr**, **cūr**, **ēn**, **nōn**, **quīn**, **sīn**, **dīc**, **dūc**, **sīc**; also the Adverbs of Place **hīc**, **hūc**, **illīc**, etc. (For the Nominatives **hoc** and **hic**, see **30**, 2.)

[1] These statements do not cover all early Latin forms or words borrowed from the Greek, which often retain original quantities. Thus **āēr**, **crātēr**, **Trōes**, **Simoīs**, **Cȳmothoē**.

2. The contracted forms of the -īvī Perfect, e.g. audīt.

NOTE. For words ending in more than one consonant no general statement can be made, except that the vowel is always long before -ns and -nx (18), short before -nt (20, 1).

26. This prevalence of the short vowel is mainly due to the fact that every originally long vowel was regularly shortened before final m, t, nt (for nt, see also 20), and, except in monosyllables, before final l and r.[1] Examples of this shortening are seen as follows :

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1. In verb-forms with the personal endings -m, -t, and -nt, wherever these are added to a tense-stem or mood-stem ending in a long vowel. The long vowel shows itself in the Second Singular and First and Second Plural. So :

a) Present Indicative of the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations; e.g. amat, amant, beside amās, amāmus, amātis; monet, monent, beside monēs, etc.; audit beside audīs, etc.

b) Imperfect Indicative of all Conjugations; e.g. amābam, amābat, amābant, beside amābās, etc.

c) Future Indicative of the Third and Fourth Conjugations; e.g. tegam, teget, tegent, beside tegēs, etc.

d) Past Perfect Indicative of all Conjugations; e.g. amāveram, amāverat, amāverant, beside amāverās, etc.

e) All tenses of the Subjunctive in all Conjugations; e.g. tegam, tegat, tegant, beside tegās, etc.; tegerem, tegeret, tegerent, beside tegerēs, etc.; tēxerim, tēxerit, tēxerint, beside tēxerīmus; tēxissem, tēxisset, tēxissent, beside tēxissēs, etc.

2. In all Passive forms ending in -r; e.g. tegor from *tegō-r (i.e. Act. tegō + r); Imperf. tegēbar beside tegēbāris; Fut. tegar from *tegā-r (as Act. tegam from *tegā-m); Pres. Subj. tegar beside tegāris; Imperf. Subj. tegerer beside tegerēris; Imperat. tegitor, teguntor from *tegitō-r, *teguntō-r; and so in the other Conjugations.

3. In many Nom.-Voc. Sing. forms ending in -r or -l (also Accusatives in the case of Neuters); e.g. amor beside Gen. amōris, animal beside animālis, calcar beside calcāris; likewise pater, māter, frāter, from original patēr, etc.

4. In the Accusative Singular of the First and Fifth Declensions, which ended originally in -ā-m and -ē-m.

5. In the Genitive Plural of all Declensions, which ended originally in -ōm. This first became -om, then -um (44, 1).

NOTE. But before t and r the long vowel was still retained in early Latin, and is sometimes found even in later poetry; e.g. arāt, vidēt, erāt, peterēt, ferār, amōr, patēr. See under Versification, 652, 2.

27. Before final s the quantity varies.

1. Final as is long; e.g. sellās, amās.

Exceptions anas, *duck*, Gen. anatis; as, *copper*, Gen. assis.

2. Final es is usually long; e.g. rēgēs, fidēs, monēs.

But final es is short :

a) In the Nom.-Voc. Sing. of most dental stems which show a short vowel in the other cases, as dīves, Gen. dīvitis; mīles, Gen. mīlitis; seges, Gen. segetis, etc. But note pēs, abiēs, ariēs, pariēs (Gen. pedis, abietis, etc.).

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[1] Note also that final d cannot occur after a long vowel, since in this position it was lost in early Latin (48). Of the other consonants which occur as finals, only n is frequent, and this, in large part, in Neuter n-Stems like nōmen, where the short vowel is in accordance with the origin of the formation.

b) In es, *thou art* or *be* (but ēs, *eat*, from edō), and penes, *with*.

NOTE. Original short -es became -is (**44**, 2). Of the examples of existing short -es nearly all represent earlier -ess, traces of which are found in early Latin (**30**, 3). For example, es is from ess, mīles from mīless (*mīlet-s).

3. Final os is long ; e.g. hortōs, flōs.

Exceptions : os, *bone* (but ōs, *mouth*), compos, impos.

4. Final is is oftenest short ; e.g. regis, tegis.

But final is is long :

a) In Plural Case-endings ; e.g. Dat.-Abl. sellīs, hortīs, nōbīs, Acc. fīnīs.

b) In the Second Person Singular of verb-forms where the First Plural is -īmus, namely in :

Pres. Indic. Act. of the Fourth Conjugation, e.g. audīs.

Pres. Indic. Act. of some Irregular Verbs, e.g. īs, fīs ; also vīs, māvīs, etc.

Pres. Subj. Act. of some Irregular Verbs, e.g. sīs, velīs, nōlīs.

Perf. Subj. Act., e.g. amāverīs, tegerīs (but sometimes short -is ; *vice versa* in the Fut. Perf. Indic. sometimes -īs beside the regular -is. See **164**, 6).

c) In vīs, *force*, Quirīs, Samnīs (Gen. -ītis) ; often sanguīs, rarely pulvīs.

5. Final us is usually short ; e.g. hortus, genus, rēgibus, tegimus.

But final us is long :

a) In the Gen. Sing. and the Nom. and Acc. Plur. of the Fourth Declension, as tribūs.

b) In the Nom.-Voc. Sing. of Nouns of the Third Declension which have long u in the other cases, as virtūs, tellūs, iūs, etc. (Gen. virtūtis, tellūris, iūris).

II. *Words ending in a Vowel*

28. 1. Final a is oftenest short, namely in the Nom. Sing. of the First Declension and the Nom.-Acc. Plur. of all Neuters ; e.g. sella, dōna, genera.

But final a is long :

a) In the Abl. Sing. of the First Declension, as sellā.

b) In the Imperative of the First Conjugation, as amā.

c) In most uninflected words (except ita, quia), e.g. iūxtā, trīgintā, and Adverbs like contrā, extrā, posteā, which are Ablatives in origin.

2. Final e is usually short; e.g. **horte, tege, tegere.**

But final e is long:

a) In the Abl. Sing. of the Fifth Declension, e.g. **diē.**

b) In the Imperative of the Second Conjugation, e.g. **monē** (but often short in **ave, cave, vale,** and, in early Latin, in many other Imperatives; see note).

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c) In Adverbs derived from Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions (126, 1), e.g. **rēctē, altē** (but always short in **bene, male**).

d) In all monosyllables except those used as enclitics (**-que, -ne,** etc.; see 33, 1), namely **ē, dē, mē, tē, sē, nē.**

3. Final **i** is long, except in **nisi, quasi,** and, in the usual prose pronunciations, in **mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi.** But the older forms **mihī,** etc., with final long **i,** are used in poetry side by side with **mihi,** etc.

4. Final **o** is long, except in **ego, modo, cito, duo, cedo** (*give*). But in several other words it is sometimes short in poetry, e.g. **homo, volo, scio.** (From Ovid on, the short vowel becomes more and more frequent in the Nom. Sing. of the Third Declension, in Verb-forms, and in many other words, such as **ergo, octo, immo,** etc.)

5. Final **u** is long.

NOTE. The short final **o** and **i** in all the examples given, and likewise the short **e** in **bene** and **male,** represent originally long vowels or diphthongs, e.g. **modo** from * **modō** like **prīmō, bene** from * **benē** like **altē** (126, 1), **quasi, nisi** from **quasei, nisei** (so written on early inscriptions; cf. **sī,** early **sei**). The change was due to a process known as iambic shortening. In words of two syllables the first of which was short, there was a marked tendency to shorten the final syllable if long, that is, to change the word-rhythm from ⏑— to ⏑⏑. This was not a mere matter of poetic usage, but a characteristic of common speech. In isolated forms, such as those mentioned, the tendency had full sway, and the short vowel is prevalent from the earliest period. In **mihi,** etc., the form with the short vowel became established, but the poets continued to use also the old form **mihī,** etc., at all periods. For other classes of words, early poetry, reflecting popular speech, shows many examples of the same process; e.g. Gen. Sing. **domi, viri**; Dat. Sing. **malo**; Nom. Sing. **homo**; Imperat. **ama, puta, mone, cave, abi, redi**; First Sing. **volo**; Second Sing. **vidēs**; **viden** (for **vidēn,** from **vidēs-ne**), **rogan,** etc. But here the tendency to uniformity between words of the same class restored the normal type with the long vowel in the cultivated speech. Still, the short vowel remains in **puta,** meaning *for instance* (originally an Imperative of **putō**), in **viden,** *see?* and usually in **ave, cave** used as Interjections, sometimes also in **homo, volo,** etc. Such forms in final short **o** gain ground again from Ovid on (see above). The short **a** of the Nom. Sing. of the First Declension and of Neuter Plurals was once long, but here the short vowel, though probably arising in iambic forms, extended to all words, and but few traces of the long **a** are found even in early Latin.

QUANTITY OF SYLLABLES

29. 1. Syllables are short or long, according to the length of time taken in pronouncing them.

2. A syllable is long if it contains a long vowel or a diphthong; for example, the first syllables of **māter**, **audiō**.

a. The first syllables of words like **maius**, **cuius**, **eius**, **Troia**, etc., are long because they really contain diphthongs. For example, **maius**, sometimes spelled **maiius**, is pronounced *mai-ius*, much like our *my use*, with the accent on *my*. These words are often written **māius**, **cūius**, **ēius**, etc., but should not be, since the vowel itself is short.

3. A syllable is also long, even when the vowel is short, provided it ends in a consonant. The time taken in pronouncing the consonant, being added to that taken in pronouncing the vowel, makes the syllable long.[1]

That is, following the system of syllabification laid down in **14**, 2, a syllable is long if its vowel is followed by two or more consonants, except a mute followed by a liquid (or **qu**). So the first syllable is:

1) Long in **por-ta**, **sic-cus**, **fac-tus**, **axis** (*ak-sis*).

2) Short in **bo-nus**, **pa-tris**, **se-quor**, **a-dhibeō** (**14**, 2, note; **15**, 1).

a. In words like **patris** the poets often use a syllabic division **pat-ris**, **teneb-rae**, etc. (**14**, 2, note), which makes the first syllable long.[1]

b. The poets, following Greek usage, treat **z** as a double consonant.

4. The same is true of final syllables. If a word ends in a single consonant its last syllable is long before a word beginning with a consonant, but short before a word beginning with a vowel or **h**, since in this case the final consonant is carried over to the next word. See **15**, 2.

30. In a few words we meet with a long syllable even where a short vowel is followed by only one consonant in the normal spelling, namely in compounds of **iaciō** (**adiciō**, **coniciō**, etc.), in **hoc**, and very often in **hic**.

1. In compounds of **iaciō** the regular spelling is **adiciō**, **disiciō**, etc. (not **adiiciō**, etc.), and this represents the usual prose pronunciation. Yet in poetry the first syllable is nearly always long. This is explained by the older forms **adieciō**, etc., in which the first syllable was, of course, long. The poets made use of these earlier forms, which were more convenient for the metre, — or, at least, retained the old division of syllables, pronouncing **ad-iciō**, etc. Similarly, for **reiciō** the poets made use of the older form **reieciō**, in which the first syllable was long for the same reason as in **eius**, etc. (i.e. *rei-yeciō*, like *ei-yus*; see **29**, 2, *a*) or at least retained the older form of the first syllable, pronouncing then **rei-iciō**. In the same way the first syllable is long in both **coniciō** and the less common **coiciō**.

[1] *The quantity of the vowel is not affected.* Calling the vowel "long by position" often misleads the beginner into such an error as pronouncing **est**, *is*, with a long e.

2. In final syllables which once ended in two consonants, these consonants were sometimes preserved in pronunciation before vowels, though not shown by the spelling. So the Nom. Sing. Neut. **hoc** stands for **hocc**, that is * **hod** (like **quod**) + **c**(**e**), and was usually so pronounced before vowels, though rarely so written. Hence it is nearly always a long syllable, for example, **hoc dōnum** and **hoc-c erat**. The Nom. Sing. Masc. **hic** (earlier **he-c**) has a short vowel, and in earlier poetry is always a short syllable before a word beginning with a vowel. But a form **hicc** arose under the influence of **hocc**, and in the classical poets the word is often a long syllable than a short one.

3. In early Latin there are other similar cases, e.g. **es**(**s**), *thou art*, **mīles**(**s**), **ter**(**r**), etc.

ACCENT

31. The Latin accent was, like the English, one of stress. Its position is as follows:

1. In words of two syllables the accent is upon the first; e.g. **mágis, tégō.**

2. In words of more than two syllables it is upon the next to the last (the *penult*) if this is long, otherwise on the next preceding that (the *antepenult*); e.g. **a-mī́-cus, ma-gís-ter,** but **bél-li-cus, té-ne-brae** (**29**, 3).

3. Compounds are accented in the same way; e.g. **ád-ferō** not **ad-férō, cŏ́nficit** not **cōnfícit.** But in non-prepositional compounds of **faciō** such as **calefaciō, tepefaciō**, etc., which were written separately in the earliest period, the accent is always on the verb, e.g. **calefácit** not **caléfacit.**

NOTE. The system of accent here described was preceded in the earliest period of the language, before the beginnings of literature, by a different system, according to which all words had a stress accent upon the first syllable. A relic of this is seen in the early Latin accentuation of words of four syllables of which the first three are short, e.g. **fácilius.** Some important phonetic changes are traced to this *earlier accentual system.*

32. There are, however, a few exceptions to these statements.

1. When a final syllable following a long penult is lost, the accent remains on what has now become the final syllable. So **illīc** from **illīce**, **tantṓn** from **tantōne**, **addūc** from **addūce**, Perfect **audī́t** from **audī́vit**, etc.; also adjectives in **-ās**, Gen. **-ātis**, denoting one's native place, as **nostrā́s** (from **nostrā́tis**), **Arpīnā́s, Capēnā́s**, etc.

2. The Genitive and Vocative in **-ī** of nouns in **-ius** and **-ium** are accented on the penult even when short, e.g. **Vergílī, ingénī.**

NOTE. According to statements of the grammarians of the fourth and fifth centuries A.D., words ending with the enclitics **-que, -ve, -ne, -ce** were always accented on the syllable preceding the enclitic, even when this was short, e.g. **bonáque, līmináque**, etc. Since the vast majority of inflected forms end in a long syllable, so that the accent would necessarily fall on the syllable preceding the enclitic (e.g. Abl. Sing. **bonā́que, bonṓque**, Acc. Sing. **bonámque**, etc.), one can readily see how the few forms ending in a short vowel might come to be accented in the same position. But in early Latin such forms were accented in accordance with the usual system, and there is some reason for believing that

in the Augustan period, too, the accent was still **bónaque, límínaque**, etc. It seems best, therefore, to accent such words in accordance with the general system, that is, **bónaque**, not **bonáque**; similarly **ítaque** (in both meanings).

33. In Latin there existed *sentence* accent, as in English, some words being emphasized by stress, others being pronounced lightly.

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1. Certain words which were always unemphatic were pronounced and written as a part of the preceding word. Such words are known as *enclitic particles*, or simply *enclitics*. The commonest of these are **-que, -ne, -ve, -ce, -pte, -met, -dum**.

2. Besides these, Relative and Indefinite Pronouns, Personal and Determinative Pronouns when not emphatic, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and parts of the verb "to be" were pronounced with little or no stress.

SLURRING

34. 1. When a final vowel is followed by a word beginning with a vowel or **h**, it is slurred or *run into* the vowel of the following word (as in "await alike the‿inevitable hour"), without, however, changing the quantity of the latter.

NOTE. It is frequently said that the final vowel was dropped in such a case. We know, however, that it was not wholly lost. One should pronounce it very lightly, quickly passing to the following word. Thus **bon^{a}‿et, bon^{a}‿(h)aec**.

2. The same is true of a word ending in **m**, final **m** losing its consonantal value before a word beginning with a vowel or **h**. The preceding vowel was nasalized, and the lips approached each other in a sort of *w*-sound, which did not interfere with the slurring of the vowels, e.g. **bonum addit**, pronounced *bon$^{\widehat{uw}}$addit;* **bonum hoc**, pronounced *bon$^{\widehat{uw}}$(h)oc;* **bonam addit**, pronounced *bon$^{\widehat{aw}}$addit.*

NOTE. Such pronunciation need occasion no difficulty in practice. If one tries, in the case of **-um**, simply to touch lightly upon the **u** in passing to the following vowel, the nasalization and the glide *w* will be produced unconsciously. The same habit can then be easily transferred to combinations with other vowels.

3. Owing to their unemphatic or enclitic use the words **es**, *are*, and **est**, *is*, *lose their vowel* when preceded by a word ending in a vowel, just as in English *you're*, *he's*, *she's*. And this, in contrast to the processes mentioned in 1 and 2, is sometimes indicated in the writing. So **bonas** for **bona es**, **bonast** for **bona est**, and also **bonust** for **bonum est** (**bonum** being pronounced without the final **m**; see 2).

NOTE. Instead of **bonust**, which is the only contracted spelling for **bonum est** known on inscriptions, and which is frequent enough in MSS., our text-books, if they use

the contracted spelling at all, write **bonumst**, which is a later spelling introduced to distinguish this from another **bonust**, an early Latin form for **bonus est** (i.e. really from **bonu est**, a final **s** in early Latin being lost under certain conditions). The spelling **bonumst** invites a wrong pronunciation and misleads one as to the way in which the form originated. If the **m** had been fully sounded, the vowel of **est** would have remained, since it is never lost after consonants. Such a form as **idst** for **id est**, like English *it's*, is unknown in Latin.

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SUGGESTIONS WITH REGARD TO PRONUNCIATION

35. A correct pronunciation is, of course, by no means the most important thing in the study of Latin, but, if attained, it will lend much attractiveness to the reading of the literature. The three striking differences (**36**, **37**, **38**) between Roman pronunciation and the pronunciation of English should therefore be constantly kept in mind.

36. The difference in time between a short vowel and a long vowel was as great in Roman speech as in the *extremes* of short and long in our speech (e.g. *met* and *made*), and was *steadily observed.* Thus the **ā** in the termination **-ānus** (e.g. **Rōmānus**) took, roughly speaking, twice as long to pronounce as the short **a** in **anus**, *old woman* (**-ānus** = **ăănus**).[1]

37. The pronunciation of an obstructed consonant (**14**, 2, *b*) was much fuller and clearer in Roman speech than it ordinarily is in English, — so full and clear, indeed, that it took about *as much time as a short vowel.* For example, in **ăn̆-nus**, **pĕc̆-tus**, or **ĭs̆-te**, the obstructed **n**, **c**, or **s** at the end of the first syllable takes as much time to utter as the **a**, the **e**, or the **i**. In an English word like *protected*, on the other hand, so little time is spent upon the *c* in ordinary speech that the syllable which it ends belongs to the short class rather than to the long class.

38. The Romans habitually slurred a vowel (**34**, 1 and 2) at the end of a word before an initial vowel or **h**, unless there was some special reason for pausing. In English we occasionally do this, especially with such words as *to* or *the* (e.g. *I desire to͡advance the͡all-important interests of*, etc.), but habitually we do not.

39. There are certain very common combinations of quantities with accent, which, though they occur in English in

[1] Instead of trying to remember that, in his book, a given vowel in a given word *had a mark over it*, or did not, the student should rather, in learning each new word, *pronounce* all the long vowels distinctly long, and the short vowels distinctly short (or so *think* the pronunciation to himself), and thus fix the word in mind *as sounding* so and so. When, later, he has occasion to write the word, he should ask himself, not "How did it look in the book?" but "How do I pronounce it?"

A student who possesses the gift of visual memory should of course avail himself of it. But, even in his case, the picture of the printed word which he carries in mind should be translated at once into a memory of sound.

groups of words, do not occur in any single word, and are therefore strange to us. These accordingly require special practice and care at the beginning. The most important are as follows:

1) The combination ◡—, as in **déae, déō, ámā, mónē, ténē, iúbēs, tórō.** Compare English *át home* and *tó home* in "I said *át home*, not *tó home*." The difficulty here is in making the first syllable really short, and in keeping *all accent off* the second syllable, while at the same time tranquilly giving it its full length. This is the hardest Latin combination for modern speakers.
2) The combination ◡ ◡—, as in **Latiō, rapidī.** Compare English *Mérry Mount* (with the last word lengthened, but not accented).
3) The combination —´ ◡ or —´—, as in **rēgína, rēgínā.** Compare English *whole patlful*, with full length, but no accent, on *whole*, and full length, *with* accent, on *pail.*
4) The combination (much like the preceding) ◡ —´ ◡, or ◡ —´—, as in **amābámus, tenēbátur, trahēbátur.** Compare English *a whole patlful*, with the *a* short, and the rest as above.
5) The combination —◡ ◡ ◡, or —◡ ◡—, as in **dīvídimus, iūdícia, impériō, ōcéanō.** This may be reproduced in the English *no stlliness*, pronounced with a long *no*, not accented, and with a short and accented first syllable in *silliness.*

40. The student should regard the marking of long vowels in writing Latin simply as a form of spelling, to represent *differences of sound.* Long i and short i, for example, are as different in Latin as *i* in *fit* and *ee* in *feet* in English.

PHONETIC CHANGES[1]

Weakening of Vowels in Medial Syllables

41. The vowels of medial syllables are subject to certain modifications which do not appear in initial syllables. This is most apparent in the variation of the root-syllable, observable between compounds and

[1] Only such changes are mentioned as are fairly obvious, and involve the relations of existing Latin forms. There are many other changes, a treatment of which is needful and possible only in connection with the forms of other languages.

Changes in the quantity of vowels have been mentioned already (**18-21, 26, 28**, note); also some changes of original diphthongs (**10**, *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*).

the simple words from which they are derived, as **faciō**, but **per-ficiō**. But the change is not confined to such cases.

NOTE 1. These changes came about at a time when the older accentual system (**31**, note) prevailed, according to which all but initial syllables were unaccented. The slighting of the vowels of unaccented syllables is common to languages with a strong stress accent, and nowhere more so than in English, where the result of the weakening is usually an obscure vowel much like *u* in *but*. Note, for example, the pronunciation of *drayman*, *ploughman* as compared with that of *man*, or the identical sound given to the *a*, *e*, and *o* of *currant*, *patient*, *patriot* (but *patriótic*). In Latin the weakening takes the form of replacing the more open vowel by one less open. So a is changed to e, and e frequently to i; similarly ai (ae), through ei, to ī. Sometimes, owing to the character of the surrounding sounds, the change is to u; similarly au (through ou) to ū. Long vowels are never affected. Contrast **ad-āctus** from **āctus** with **ad-fectus** from **factus**.

NOTE 2. In many compounds the feeling for the connection with the single word is so strong that the latter appears without change. So **circum-agō**, *lead around*, **ad-legō**, *elect to*, etc. Sometimes both weakened and unchanged forms are found: thus from **necō** the compound **ē-nicō** is found in early Latin, but the usual form is **ē-necō**; **cōn-secrō**, from **sacrō**, remains the usual form, but **cōn-sacrō** is also found. This retention or revival of the form of the simplex in compounds is known as *Recomposition*, and is seen in our pronunciation of *man* in *iceman*, as contrasted to that given to it in *drayman*, or in the pronunciation *fore-head* beside *for'ed*, *Saturday* beside *Saturd'y* (like *Mond'y*), etc.; also in *housewife* beside *hussy*, which is in origin the same word. In uncompounded words there are other influences which sometimes prevent the usual changes.

42. The principal changes are as follows:

1. **a** becomes **i** before a single consonant except **r**, and before **ng**; it becomes **e** before **r** and before two consonants, and **u** before **l** + consonant.[1]

agō	**ad-igō**	**cadō**	Perf. **cecidī**
faciō	**per-ficiō**	**capiō**	**ac-cipiō**
tangō	**at-tingō**	**frangō**	**cōn-fringō**
pariō	Perf. **peperī**	**fallō**	Perf. **fefellī**
factus	**per-fectus**	**captus**	**ac-ceptus**
saltō	**īn-sultō**	**calcō**	**in-culcō**

NOTE. Recomposition (**41**, note 2) is seen in **circum-agō**, **com-parō**, etc. In Noun-Stems ending in **a** + consonant, the **a** of the Nom. Sing. remains unchanged in the other cases; e.g. **Caesar**, *Caesar*, Gen. **Caesaris**.

2. **e**, unless preceded by **i**, becomes **i** before a single consonant except **r**.

teneō	**at-tineō**	**regō**	**cor-rigō**
sedeō	**ad-sideō**	**premō**	**com-primō**
mīles	Gen. **mīlitis**	(but **pariēs**	Gen. **parietis**)

NOTE. Recomposition is seen in **ad-legō**, **circum-sedeō**, etc. In forms like **segetis** (Gen. of **seges**) as compared with **mīlitis**, the retention of the **e** is due to the assimilating influence of the **e** of the first syllable.

[1] This statement combines the final results of several different changes which took place at successive periods.

3. ae becomes ī, and au becomes ū.

quaerō	in-quīrō	claudō	in-clūdō
caedō	Perf. cecīdī	causa	ac-cūsō

NOTE. But oftener Recomposition takes place, as ad-haereō, ex-audiō, etc.

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4. av and ov become ū.

lavō	ē-luō	novus	dēnuō (* dē-novō)

5. o becomes i (or e if preceded by i) before a single consonant except l; it becomes u before two consonants and, unless preceded by a vowel, before l. Examples:

ilicō	from	* in(s)locō	leguntur	from	* legontor
bonitās	"	* bono-tās (bonus)	porculus	"	* porco-los (porcus)
societās	"	* socio-tās (socius)	but filiolus (filius)		

NOTE. But the change to i is rare except before suffixes, as in bonitās. In the root-syllable of compounds o nearly always remains unchanged, e.g. ab-rogō, con-locō, ad-moneō, etc. For the change to u, see also **44**, 1.

6. (Note to 1, 2, and 5.) When the vowel of the medial syllable, whether a, e, or o, is followed by a labial (p, b, f, or m), it is sometimes changed to u instead of to i, — but not always, and the reasons for the difference are not clear, except that the quality of the vowels of the surrounding syllables was a factor. In some of these words the u remained unchanged, but in most it was eventually supplanted by i. Examples are: oc-cupō (from the root cap- of capiō) as compared with anti-cipō; au-cupis, Gen. of auceps, compared with prīncipis from prīnceps; con-tubernālis (taberna); possumus, volumus compared with agimus, tegimus; mancupium and mancipium; maxumus and maximus, proxumus and proximus, etc. The same variation is seen when the original vowel was u or i, e.g. cornu-fex and corni-fex (cornu-), pontu-fex and ponti-fex (ponti-), and in some cases of original u even in initial syllables, e.g. lubet and libet, clupeum and clipeum.

Syncope of Vowels

43. 1. Short vowels are sometimes lost in medial and final syllables. So, for example, surgō beside the older sur-rigō, pergō from * per-rigō; reppulī, rettulī, from the reduplicated Perfects * re-tetulī, * re-pepulī; valdē beside validus; caldus, soldus, beside calidus, solidus; in final syllables nec, ac, beside neque, atque (cf. also words having enclitic -c, -n, beside -ce, -ne); Nom. Sing. of i-Stems pars, mōns, etc., from original Nom. * partis, * montis, Neut. animal from animāle, * animāli.

NOTE. Like the weakening of vowels, this process began under the old accentual system (31, note), as shown by rettulī from *ré-tetulī, etc. Where double forms like calidus and caldus exist, the shorter forms are those of the rapid utterance of everyday speech, and were often used by the poets. A similar relation, as regards use, exists between perīculum and perīclum, saeculum and saeclum, etc. But in these the shorter forms represent a retention of, or in part a reversion to, the original formation; the vowel before l is a secondary development.

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2. Syncope is especially common in syllables containing ro and ri, and, if the r is not already preceded by a vowel, an e is developed before it. So regularly in the Nominative Singular of stems in -ro- and -ri-, as puer from *pueros, ager from *agros, imber from *imbris, ācer from *ācris. Similarly sacerdōs from *sacri-dōs, agellus (*ager-los) from *agro-lo-s, etc. The successive stages of development are, for example, *agros, *agrs, *agers, *agerr (49, 11), ager (49, 13).

Change of Vowels in Final Syllables

44. 1. Change of o to u. Before final consonants an original o became u; e.g. hortus, hortum, illud, legunt, from *hortos, *hortom, *illod, *legont, the stem-vowel in all such cases being o.

A similar change took place in medial syllables before two consonants or l (42, 5); and even in initial syllables o became u when followed by l + consonant or by nc, ngu, mb; e.g. multa from molta, hunc from honc, etc. In all three classes of words this change took place in the third century B.C., and examples of the original o are found only in the earliest inscriptions; e.g. praifectos, opos, cōsentiont, pōcolom, molta, honc.

But if the o was preceded by v or u, it was retained for nearly two centuries longer, so that vivos, exiguos, servos, equos, relinquont, sequontur, volt, volgus are the proper forms not only for Plautus and Terence, but also for Cicero. And when the change to u finally came, the product of quo and guo was at first cu, gu, not quu, guu, which were introduced later; cum for earlier quom remained.

The forms of the different periods may be illustrated as follows:

Earliest Inscriptions . .	hortos	servos	equos	relinquont
Plautus, Cicero	hortus	"	"	"
Augustan Period . . .	"	servus	ecus	relincunt
Later Imperial Period .	"	"	equus	relinquunt

2. Before final s or t an original e became i; e.g. in Verb forms like legis, legit from earlier *leges, *leget (with the "thematic vowel" e), or Gen. Sing. patris, etc., from *patr-es (the original Genitive ending of consonant-stems being -es or -os).

3. An original final i, if it was not dropped (43, 1), became e; e.g. ante from *anti (cf. anti-cipō), or Nom. Sing. Neut. mare, sedīle, etc., from *mari, *sedīli (i-Stems).

4. In final syllables original oi (which in initial syllables became oe, ū; see 10, *a*) and ai (ae) became first ei, then ī. So Nom. Plur. hortī, Dat.-Abl. Plur. hortīs, sellīs, from early Latin hortei, horteis, selleis, these from earlier *hortoi, *hortois, *sellais.

Contraction of Vowels

45. Two like vowels unite to form the corresponding long vowel, as nīl from nihil, bīmus from *bi-himus (hiems), cōpia from *co-opia, currūm from curruum (Gen. Plur.). For the contraction of two unlike vowels

no brief general statement can be made; examples are: cōgō from *co-agō, cōmō from *co-emō, dēgō from *dē-agō, amō from *amāō (cf. moneō), Subjunctive amēs from *amāēs.

Vowel Gradation

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46. There are some vowel variations which are not due to any changes within the Latin language, but are relics of a system of vowel interchange inherited from the parent speech,[1] and known as Vowel Gradation, — such as is seen, for example, in English *sing, sang, sung*. An understanding of the system as a whole cannot be gained from Latin alone, and is unnecessary here.

The principal variations are:

1. e, — o, as tegō, — toga; sequor, — socius.
2. e, — ē, " tegō, — tēxī, tēgula; sedeō, — sēdī, sēdēs.
3. ī (earlier ei), — (oe), — i, " dīcō, — dictus, abdicō; fīdō, — foedus, — fidēs.
4. ū (earlier *eu, ou), — u, " dūcō, — ductus, dux, Gen. ducis.
5. a, — ā, " scabō, — scābī; caveō, — cāvī.
6. o, — ō, " fodiō, — fōdī; vocō, — vōx.
7. a, — ē, " agō, — ēgī; capiō, — cēpī.

Changes of Single Consonants

47. Rhotacism. An s between vowels becomes r, as in generis from *genesis (Nom.-Acc. genus), gerō from *gesō (Perf. ges-sī, Perf. Pass. Partic. ges-tus), erō (es-t), dir-imō (cf. dis-pōnō); also dir-ibeō from habeō.

NOTE. Compare English *were* beside *was*. The intermediate stage between s and r was the voiced s, the sound of *s* in *rose* or *z* in *zero*, and this was still preserved in the earliest Latin. Final s is not subject to this change, but in some nouns, as honor beside honōs, amor, etc., the s which is proper in the Nom. Sing. has yielded to the influence of all the other cases, in which s regularly became r. See **80**, 4, note; **86**, note.

48. A final d is lost after long vowels, though still found in early inscriptions; e.g. Abl. Sing. sententiā, early sententiād, Imperative estō, early estōd.

Changes in Consonant Groups

49. 1. A voiced mute when followed by a voiceless mute or s becomes itself voiceless; e.g. scrīp-tus, scrīp-sī (scrībō).

2. Not only g, but also qu, gu, and h, become c before t or s (cs then appearing as x), as in the Perf. Pass. Partic., and the Perf. in -sī;

[1] That is, the language from which are descended not only Latin (with its own descendants French, Italian, etc.) and the other dialects of ancient Italy (Oscan, Umbrian, etc.), but also Greek, the Germanic languages (German, English, etc.), the Celtic languages (Irish, Welsh, etc.), the Slavonic languages (Russian, etc.), the languages of India and Persia, and others. This parent speech is called Indo-European.

e.g. rēctus, rēxī (regō), coctus, coxī (coquō), ūnctus, ūnxī (unguō), vectus, vexī (vehō). And as v between vowels sometimes stands for original gu,[1] we find ct and x in interchange with v; e.g. Nom. Sing. nix, Gen. nivis (from *niguis; cf. ninguit), vīxī, vīctus (vīvō); similarly frūctus (fruor), flūxī (fluō), etc.

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3. A guttural mute is lost between l or r and a following t, s, m, or n; e.g. fultus, fulsī (fulciō), tortus, torsī, tormentum (torqueō), urna (urceus).

4. A dental mute is assimilated to a following s, and the resulting ss becomes s if standing after a long syllable, or before another consonant, or if final; e.g. messuī from *met-suī (metō), clausī, earlier claussī from *claud-sī (claudō), aspiciō (ad-spiciō), mīles, earlier mīless (30, 3) from *mīlet-s.

5. When a final dental of a root comes to stand before a suffix beginning with a dental, the result is ss, which, after a long syllable, is reduced to s. So sessum from *sed-tum (sedeō), fissus from *fid-tos (findō), clausus, earlier claussus from *claud-tos (claudō), etc. But if the second dental is followed by r, the result is str; e.g. rōstrum from *rōd-trom (rōdō).

6. Original ss, as well as the ss arising under the rules just given, was reduced to s when preceded by a long syllable. So hausī from haus-sī (hauriō from *hausiō, 47), as clausī from claus-sī (4), clausus from claussus (5). Ll sometimes suffers a similar reduction, as in mīlia from mīllia, paulum from paullum.

a. The ss remains in the contracted Perfect forms, like amāsse beside amāvisse, and in the short forms of edō, *eat*, as ēsse, ēssētur.

7. A p is sometimes inserted between m and a following t or s; e.g. ēmptus (emō), sūmpsī (sūmō), hiemps beside hiems.

8. Dental and labial mutes are assimilated to a following guttural, and dentals to labials. So ac-cidō from *ad-cadō, siccus from *sit-cos (sitis), oc-cidō from *ob-cadō, ap-pāreō from ad-pāreō, etc.

9. A nasal is assimilated to the class of the following mute; e.g. im-putō (in-putō), eundem (eum-dem), prīnceps with guttural n (prīmus).

10. Labial and dental mutes when followed by a nasal become nasals, and, if the preceding syllable is long, mm becomes m. So:

summus, from *sup-mos (super)		somnus, from *sop-nos (sopor)	
mamma	" *mad-mā (madeō)	rāmus	" *rād-mos (rādīx)

[1] The sound-group gu, parallel in character and origin with qu, was retained only after n, as in unguō, etc. Otherwise, when followed by a vowel, it lost the g, appearing then as v, which, in case the preceding vowel was u, was itself lost. Hence ninguit, nix, but nivis; frūctus, but fruor (from *frūvor, *frūguor), etc.

11. dl, ld, nl, ln, rl, ls become ll, and rs becomes rr. So:

sella,	from * sed-lā (sedeō)		sallō,	from * saldō (English *salt*)	
corōlla	"	* corōn-lā (corōna)	collis	"	* colnis
agellus	"	* ager-los	velle	"	* vel-se (cf. es-se)

ferre from * fer-se

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12. An s, or group of consonants ending in s, is dropped before voiced consonants, and the preceding vowel, if short, is lengthened. So:

bīnī,	from * bis-nī (bis)		lūna,	from * louc-snā (lūceō)	
prīmus	"	* prīs-mos (cf. prīs-cus)	pīlum	"	* pīns-lom (pīnsō)
īdem (Nom. Sing. Masc.), from * is-dem			sēvirī	"	* secs-virī (sex)

13. Finals. Double consonants at the end of a word are simplified. So os, *bone*, from * oss (Gen. ossis); mīles from mīless, * mīlets (4); mel from * mell, * meld (Gen. mellis; see 11); far from * farr, * fars (Gen. farris; see 11); ager from * agerr, * agers (11, 43, 2). Note also cor from cord (Gen. cordis) and lac from lact (Gen. lactis).

a. In Nom.-Acc. hoc from hocc, * hod-c (8), the double consonant was retained, in pronunciation, before a vowel; in early Latin also mīless, etc. See 30, 2, 3.

Assimilation in Compounds

50. When assimilation takes place in compounds, the changes are nearly all such as have just been mentioned. But assimilation is often absent, owing to the influence of the separate form of the word which is the first member of the compound. This is the same principle of Recomposition that often prevents the regular vowel changes in the second member of compounds (41, note 2).

Thus the Nom.-Acc. Sing. Neut. of quisquam is regularly quicquam (rarely quidquam), but that of quisque is regularly quidque (rarely quicque); while from quisquis both quidquid and quicquid were in common use, and from quispiam both quippiam and quidpiam.

The greatest variation is seen in the so-called prepositional compounds, that is, compounds with adverbial prefixes, most of which occur separately as Prepositions. For certain combinations assimilation predominates from the earliest period; in others only the unassimilated form is in use until a late period. So, for example, spellings like accipiō, attineō are more common at all periods than adcipiō, adtineō, and, though the latter forms are sometimes found in imperial times, it is doubtful if the recomposition affected anything but the spelling. On the other hand, spellings like adferō, adsignō, conlocō, etc., prevailed to the almost total exclusion of afferō, assignō, collocō until several centuries after Christ, so that we must believe that ad and con were actually so pronounced in such words. Yet here again there are special cases. For example, the spelling conlēgium, exclusively employed down to the time of Augustus, gives way to collēgium in the Augustan period, though conlocō and other similar forms continue to prevail until a much later period.

51. The following are the forms of the adverbial prefixes according to the normal spelling. For the sake of convenience, the few variations not coming under the head of assimilation are also mentioned.

1. **Ab** remains unchanged before **d**, **g**, **l**, **n**, **r**, and **s**, is replaced by **abs** before **t** and **c**, by **as** before **p**, by **au** before **f**, by **ā** before **m**, and before **t** in **ā-fuī**. Examples: **ab-dō**, **ab-gregō**, **ab-luō**, **ab-nuō**, **ab-rumpō**, **ab-solvō**, **abs-tineō**, **abs-condō**, **as-portō**, **au-ferō**, **ā-mittō**.

2. **Ad** is assimilated before **t**, **c**, and **p**, as **at-tineō**, **ac-cipiō**, **ap-pāreō**. (But before **p** in verbs other than **appellō**, **appāreō**, **apparō**, the spelling with **d** is very frequent, as **ad-probō**, etc.) The **ad** remains unchanged before **b** (**ad-bibō**), **m** (**ad-mittō**), **q** (**ad-quīēscō**), **g** (**ad-gredior**, but **ag-gerō** frequently), **f** (**ad-ferō**), **s** (**ad-signō**), **n** (**ad-numerō**). Before **l** it usually remains unchanged, as **ad-luō**, **ad-legō**, etc., but in **al-ligō** (**-āre**) and **al-lātus** the assimilated form is preferable. Before **r** it usually remains unchanged, as **ad-rogō**, etc., but is assimilated in **ar-ripiō** and **ar-rigō**. Before **gn**, **sc**, **sp**, and **st**, it is assimilated (**ag-gn**, **as-sc**, **as-sp**, **as-st**), and one of the two like consonants is dropped, as **agnōscō**, **ascrībō**, **aspiciō**, **astō**, etc. But in many words the unassimilated form is also frequent, in some even preferable. So **agnātus** and **adgnātus**, **agnōscō** and **adgnōscō**; **ascendō** and **adscendō**, **ascrībō** and **adscrībō**, **ascīscō** and **adscīscō**; **aspīrō** and **adspīrō**, **aspiciō** and (less commonly) **adspiciō**, but regular **aspergō**, **aspernor**; **astō** and **adstō**, but usually **adstipulor**, **adstringō** and **adstruō**.

3. **Amb** (older **ambi**), seen in **amb-igō**, **amb-ūrō**, etc., becomes **am** before a consonant, as **am-plector**, **am-putō**.

4. **Ante** appears as **anti** (its original form) in **anti-cipō**, **anti-stes**, and sometimes in **anti-stō**.

5. **Circum** becomes **circu** in **circu-eō** beside **circum-eō**.

6. **Cum** appears as **con** before **t**, **d**, **c**, **q**, **g**, **s**, **f**, and **v**; as **com** before **p**, **b**, and **m**. Before **l** the unassimilated form is preferable except in **col-ligō** and its compounds, e.g. **con-locō**, **con-loquium**, **con-lāpsus**, etc. But before **r** the assimilated form is preferable, as **cor-rumpō**, **cor-ripiō**, etc. Before vowels, **h**, and **gn** the form is **co**, as **co-alēscō**, **co-haereō**, **co-gnōscō** (from **gnōscō**, the older form of **nōscō**). Before **n** the form is **cō**, as **cō-nīveō**, **cō-nectō**. **Comb-ūrō** is probably formed after the analogy of **amb-ūrō**. Before consonantal **i** the proper form is **con**, as **con-iungō**, **con-iūrō**, etc.; so **con-iciō** from **con-iaciō**, but also **co-iciō** (**30**, 1), like **co-alēscō**.

7. **Dis** remains unchanged before **t**, **c**, **q**, **p**, and **s** (but when this is followed by a consonant, one **s** is dropped), becomes **dif** before **f**, **dī** before voiced consonants, and **dir** before vowels. Examples: **dis-tendō**, **dis-clūdō**, **dis-quīrō**, **dis-pōnō**, **dis-solvō**, **di-scrībō**, **dif-ferō**, **dī-dō**, **dī-gerō**, **dī-moveō**, **dī-numerō**, **dī-luō**, **dī-rigō**, **dī-vulgō**, **dī-iūdicō**, **dir-imō**. But **dis** sometimes appears in place of **dī**, as in **dis-rumpō** beside **dī-rumpō**, and regularly in **disiciō**.

8. **Ex** remains unchanged before **t**, **c**, **q**, **p**, and **s**, but becomes **ē** before voiced consonants. Examples: **ex-tendō**, **ex-clūdō**, **ex-quīrō**, **ex-pendō**, **ex-scrībō**, **ē-dīcō**, **ē-gerō**, **ē-bibō**, **ē-mittō**, **ē-ligō**, **ē-numerō**, **ē-rumpō**, **ē-vocō**, **ē-iūrō**. Before **f** a form **ec** was used, which became **ef**, as in **ef-ferō**, **et-ficiō** (earlier **ec-ferō**, **ec-ficiō**).

9. **In** remains unchanged before **t**, **d**, **c**, **q**, **g**, **n**, **f**, **v**. Before **p**, **b**, **m** it becomes **im**, as **im-perō**, **im-bibō**, **im-mittō** though the spelling **in-perō**, etc., is also found. Before **gn** the **n** is lost, as **ignōscō**. Before **l** and **r**, **in** remains unchanged until a very late period, as **in-lūstris**, **in-lātus**, **in-rumpō**, **in-rogō**, etc. A form **ind**, representing an early **indu** (cf. **induperator**, **indi-gena**), is seen in **ind-igeō** (**egeō**), **ind-ipīscor** (**apīscor**), and **ind-uō** (cf. **exuō**).

10. **Inter** remains unchanged except in **intel-legō**.

11. **Ob** is assimilated before **c**, **p**, and **f**, as **oc-cidō**, **op-pōnō**, **of-ferō**. It appears as **o** in **o-mittō**, as **om** in **om-mūtēscō** beside **ob-mūtēscō**, and as **os** (from **obs**) in **os-tendō**. Elsewhere it is retained.

12. **Per** remains unchanged except that it is sometimes assimilated to a following **l**. So **pel-legō** and **pel-liciō**, preferable to **per-legō**, **per-liciō**, but **per-lūceō** preferable to **pel-lūceō**, and always **per-luō**, **per-lūstrō**, **per-lātus**.

13. **Por**, a form related to **prō**, and seen in **por-tendō**, **por-riciō**, **por-rigō**, is assimilated in **pol-luō**, **pol-liceor**, **pos-sideō**. For **prō**, **pro**, **prōd**, see **24**, 2.

14. **Sub** is treated for the most part like **ob**, but before some words beginning with **t** or **c** it appears as **sus** (from **subs**). So **sus-tineō**, **sus-tulī**, beside **sub-trahō**; **sus-cēnseō**, **sus-cipiō**, beside **suc-cumbō**, **suc-cidō**. **Sub-spiciō** becomes **suspiciō**, but **sub-scrībō** is more usual than **suscrībō**. Before **r**, **sub** remains unchanged, except in **sur-ripiō** and **sur-rēxī**, Perf. of **surgō**; e.g. **sub-rogō**, **sub-ruō**, **sub-rīdeō**, etc. **Sum-mittō**, **sum-moveō** are preferable to **sub-mittō**, **sub-moveō**, which are examples of late recomposition.

15. **Re** appears as **red** before vowels and **h**, as **red-hibeō**, **redeō**, **red-igō**, etc.; also in **red-dō**, and in early Latin **red-dūcō** (usually **re-dūcō**).

16. **Trāns** becomes **trā** before **d**, **n**, and **v**, as **trādō**, **trā-dūcō**, **trānō**, **trāvehō**, etc.; also **trāiciō**. But **trāns-dūcō**, etc., are also found.

ORTHOGRAPHY

52. The spelling of many Latin words varied in different periods, or even in the same period. Our traditional orthography is that of the first century A.D., and we retain this as the normal spelling for school grammars, and for school editions even of authors like Cicero, the spelling of whose time was somewhat different. Some of the more important classes of variations are as follows:

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1. The earlier forms of **servus, equus, vulṭ**, etc., were **servos, equos, ecus, volt**, etc. See **44**, 1.

2. For a long time the spelling varied between **u** and **i** in **maxumus, maximus, optumus, optimus, lubet, libet**, etc., but the spelling with **i** finally became the normal one. See **42**, 6.

3. The reduction of **ss** to **s** and **ll** to **l** has been mentioned (**49**, 6). The spelling with one **s** or **l** is occasionally found before the Augustan period, and becomes universal in the first century. We should write **causa, clausus, mīlia, paulum**, — not **caussa, claussus, mīllia, paullum**.

4. Where **ī** stands for an original diphthong (**10**, *c*; **42**, 3; **44**, 4) **ei** is the common spelling down through the time of Cicero; e.g. **deicō** (**dīcō**), Nom. Plur. **servei** (**servī**), etc.

5. Owing to the reduction of **n** before **s** (**11**), the **n** is frequently omitted in inscriptions. In the Numeral Adverbs and in the Ordinals like **vīcēnsimus** the omission is frequent in manuscripts also, and we often find **totiēs** beside **totiēns, deciēs** beside **deciēns, vīcēsimus** beside **vīcēnsimus**, etc. But the full forms are to be preferred.

6. There was much uncertainty at all periods in the use of initial **h**; for example, **harēna, haruspex, haedus, holus**, beside the incorrect **arēna, aruspex, aedus, olus**, and **erus, umerus, ūmidus**, beside the incorrect **herus, humerus, hūmidus**. See **11**, note.

7. For variation in the spelling of compounds, see **50**, **51**.

PART II

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INFLECTION

53. The **Parts of Speech** are the same as in English, except that there is no Article.

Definitions of the Parts of Speech are given under Syntax in **221**.

54. Nouns, Adjectives (including Participles), Pronouns, and Verbs are capable of **Inflection**, or change of form expressing the varied relations of the word to the other parts of the sentence. In the case of Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns such inflection is called **Declension**; in the case of Verbs, it is called **Conjugation**.

DECLENSION

55. Declension comprises the variations in Gender, Number, and Case.

GENDER

56. The Genders are three, Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.

a. **Natural Gender** is simply the distinction of sex, the names of males being Masculine, those of females being Feminine, and those of things without sex being Neuter.

b. **Grammatical Gender** is a distinction of form as manifested either by the Noun itself, by an Adjective agreeing with it, or by a Pronoun agreeing with or referring to it.

The Relation of Gender to Signification

57. Grammatical gender, which is commonly meant by the term Gender as applied in grammar, has a marked connection with natural gender, but is by no means identical with

it.[1] In Latin the grammatical gender of names of persons and of most animals follows the natural gender, but the names of inanimate objects are as often Masculine or Feminine as Neuter. For these the gender is determined simply by the *form*, — of the Noun itself, or if, as is often the case, the form of the Noun is not sufficiently characteristic of gender, by the form of an Adjective agreeing with it, or a Pronoun agreeing with or referring to it. What the forms characteristic of gender are will be shown under the separate Declensions, and, moreover, the gender of all Nouns will be marked.

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58. Certain general statements may, however, be made which will help in remembering the gender of many words.

1. All Names of *Months* and *Winds*, and most names of *Rivers*, are Masculine. Examples:

Aprīlis, *April;* **Eurus**, *the southeast wind;* **Tiberis**, *the Tiber.*

2. Most names of *Trees*, *Plants*, *Cities*, *Countries*, and *Islands* are Feminine. Examples:

fīcus, *fig tree;* **crocus**, *crocus;* **Corinthus**, *Corinth;* **Aegyptus**, *Egypt;* **Cyprus**, *Cyprus.*

3. *Indeclinable Nouns*, *Substantive Clauses*, *Infinitives used substantively*, and *quoted expressions*, are Neuter.

nihil, *nothing;* **tōtum hoc philosophārī**, *all this philosophizing;* **istuc taceō**, *that "I'll be still" of yours.*

a. With reference to statements 1 and 2, observe the gender of the corresponding general words: **mēnsis**, *month*, M. (the names of the months are really Adjectives), **ventus**, *wind*, M., **fluvius**, **amnis**, *river*, M., — but **arbor**, *tree*, F., **planta**, *plant*, F., **urbs**, *city*, F., **terra**, *country*, F., **īnsula**, *island*, F.

b. Many words belonging to the classes mentioned under 2 are not Feminine. Forms with distinctly Neuter endings, as **Latium**, **Leuctra** (Plur.), **Reāte**, are Neuter; also many names of plants in **-er**, Gen. **-eris**, as **piper**, *pepper.* Names of cities and countries in **-ī** (Plur.), as **Delphī**, are Masculine. But Feminines greatly predominate, since they include not only the forms with distinctly Feminine endings, but also most of the numerous forms in **-us**, Gen. **-ī**.

[1] In English, where almost the only surviving sign of grammatical gender is that of the Pronouns *he*, *she*, *it*, this agrees with natural gender; for the feeling of sex-distinction (or, in the case of *it*, lack of or indifference to sex-distinction) is always associated with these words, — even when used metaphorically of inanimate objects (as *she* of a ship).

The view that *all* grammatical gender, for example as seen in Latin, is nothing but metaphorical sex-distinction, is losing ground.

59. 1. Certain words are of common gender, that is, they are Masculine or Feminine according to the sex referred to, as **cīvis**, *citizen* (male or female), **bōs**, *ox* or *cow*.

2. Certain names of animals have a fixed gender without regard to the sex referred to, as **vulpēs**, *fox*, always Feminine, **ānser**, *goose* and *gander*, always Masculine.

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NUMBER

60. There are, as in English, two Numbers, the Singular and the Plural.

THE CASES

61. There are six Cases:

Nominative:	the case of the subject;
Genitive:	" *of* case;
Dative:	" *to* or *for* case;
Accusative:	" case of the direct object, etc.;
Vocative:	" case of address;
Ablative:	" *from*, *with*, or *in* case.

The meanings given are only for purposes of identification, the uses of the cases being treated in detail under the head of Syntax.

a. All but the Nominative and Vocative are called **Oblique Cases**.

b. There were originally two other cases, the **Locative** and the **Instrumental** (or Sociative). They are, for the most part, merged with the Ablative. But the Locative is still preserved in many names of places and adverbial expressions.

62. 1. The Cases are distinguished by different endings, known as Case-Endings. These are not the same for all Declensions, and in Pronouns some few endings are used which are unknown in the declension of Nouns and Adjectives.

NOTE. In reality the difference between corresponding case-forms of the various Declensions is largely one of *Stem*, that is, the base to which the endings are added. This is evident, for example, in the Nominatives **-us**, **-is**, **-ēs**, in which the ending proper is the same, namely, **s**. Yet sometimes the ending, too, is different, for example in the Dative and Ablative Plural, where the **-īs** of the First and Second Declensions has no connection with the **-ibus** of the Third, Fourth, and Fifth. Very often, in the case of stems ending in a vowel, the line between the stem and the ending proper is not apparent on the surface, owing to contraction and to other phonetic changes affecting either the

stem or the ending; so that, for practical purposes, we apply the term Case-Endings to *certain variable parts*, which, in the case of vowel-stems, include both the final vowel of the stem and the ending proper. In the case of consonant-stems, the variable terminations are also the true case-endings.

2. The Nominative and Accusative are alike in all Neuters, both in the Singular and in the Plural.[1]

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3. The Nominative and Vocative are always alike in the Plural, and also, except in Masculines and Feminines of the Second Declension, in the Singular.[1]

4. The Dative and Ablative are always alike in the Plural.[1]

NOUNS

63. In the declension of Nouns there are five distinct types, distinguished by different *Stems*. These are known as the Five Declensions. The form of the Genitive Singular is chosen as a convenient characteristic of each. Thus:

	Stem ends in:	*Gen. Sing. ends in:*
Declension I	ā	ae
" II	o	ī
" III	i or a consonant	is
" IV	u	ūs
" V	ē	ēī

64. The scheme of the normal endings is as follows:

	Declension I		Declension II	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nom.	a	ae	us, er; N. um	ī; N. a
Gen.	ae	ārum	ī	ōrum
Dat.	ae	īs	ō	īs
Acc.	am	ās	um	ōs; N. a
Voc.	a	ae	e, er; N. um	ī; N. a
Abl.	ā	īs	ō	īs

[1] Hence we speak of the Nom.-Acc. Sing. Neut. as a single form; likewise of the Nom.-Acc. Plur. Neut., the Nom.-Voc. Sing. or Plur., or the Dat.-Abl. Plur.

Declension III

	Consonant-Stems	i-Stems
	SINGULAR	
Nom.	s, ——[1]; N. ——	is, ēs, er; N. e, ——[1]
Gen.	is	
Dat.	ī	
Acc.	em; N. ——	em, im; N. e, ——
Voc.	s, ——; N. ——	is, ēs, er; N. e, ——
Abl.	e	e, ī
	PLURAL	
Nom.	N. a M., F. ēs	N. ia
Gen.	um	ium
Dat.	ibus	
Acc.	ēs; N. a	īs (ēs)[2]; N. ia
Voc.	N. a M., F. ēs	N. ia
Abl.	ibus	

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Note. The endings given in the middle column are those which are always the same for both Consonant-Stems and i-Stems.

	Declension IV		Declension V	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nom.	us; N. ū	ūs; N. ua	ēs	ēs
Gen.	ūs	uum	ēī, eī	ērum
Dat.	uī, ū; N. ū	ibus, ubus	ēī, eī	ēbus
Acc.	um; N. ū	ūs; N. ua	em	ēs
Voc.	us; N. ū	ūs; N. ua	ēs	ēs
Abl.	ū	ibus, ubus	ē	ēbus

FIRST DECLENSION

ā-*Stems*

65. The Nominative Singular ends in short a, which stands for original -ā. Example of Declension:

[1] A dash indicates that the ending or, in the case of a vowel-stem, both ending and stem-vowel are lacking. But the Nom.-Voc. Sing. in -er from o-Stems or i-Stems, though likewise lacking both ending and stem-vowel (**70**, **87**), is, for greater convenience, given as -er.

[2] Here, and in general in examples of inflection, forms inclosed in ( ) are variants which are less common in the best period.

sella, *seat*, F.
(stem **sellā-**)

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nom.	sella, *a (the) seat*	sellae, *(the) seats*
Gen.	sellae, *of a (the) seat*	sellārum, *of (the) seats*
Dat.	sellae, *to* or *for a (the) seat*	sellīs, *to* or *for (the) seats*
Acc.	sellam, *a (the) seat*	sellās, *(the) seats*
Voc.	sella, *(O) seat*	sellae, *(O) seats*
Abl.	sellā, *from*, *with*, or *in a (the) seat*	sellīs, *from*, *with*, or *in (the) seats*

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Remarks on the Case-Forms

66. 1. An old form of the Genitive Singular in **-ās** is preserved in **familiās**, used in such phrases as **pater familiās**, *head of the household*, etc.

2. A Genitive form in **-āī** is found in poetry, as **aulāī**, *of the court.*

3. A Genitive Plural in **-um** beside that in **-ārum** is found in compounds of **-cola**, *dwelling in*, and **-gena**, *descendant of;* also in **amphora**, *a liquid measure*, **drachma**, *a Greek coin*, and in many proper names of Greek origin, as **Aeneadae**, **Lapithae**, etc. So **agricolum**, **Troiugenum**, **amphorum**, **Aeneadum**, etc.

NOTE. This is not a contraction of **-ārum**. The compounds of **-cola** and **-gena**, being Masculines, fell under the influence of the Second Declension, in which **-um** is an old ending. All the other words mentioned are of Greek origin, and in these the **-um** corresponds to the Greek ending.

4. For the Dative and Ablative Plural of **fīlia**, *daughter*, and **dea**, *goddess*, the forms **fīliābus** and **deābus** are frequently used to avoid confusion with the corresponding cases of **fīlius**, *son*, and **deus**, *god.* So in the phrases **fīliīs et fīliābus, diīs deābusque.** In other words **-ābus** is rare.

5. There is a Locative Singular form which is identical with the Genitive, as **Rōmae**, *at Rome.* In the Plural the form is the same as the Dative and Ablative, as **Athēnīs**, *at Athens.*

6. The Ablative Singular once ended in **-ād**, which is preserved in early inscriptions, e.g. **sententiād.**

7. The Dative and Ablative Plural once ended in **-ais**, which first became **-eis** (still preserved in the spelling of the Ciceronian period, e.g. **vieis**), then **-īs.**

Gender

67. Words of the First Declension are Feminine, except a few referring to male persons, as **nauta**, *sailor*, **agricola**, *farmer;* also **Hadria**, *the Adriatic.*

Greek Nouns

68. Greek nouns of the First Declension often retain their proper Greek forms in some cases of the singular. The resulting mixture of Greek and Latin declension may be seen in the following examples:

Nom.	Aenēās	Anchīsēs	Andromachē, -a
Gen.	Aenēae	Anchīsae	Andromachēs, -ae
Dat.	Aenēae	Anchīsae	Andromachae
Acc.	Aenēān, -am	Anchīsēn, -am	Andromachēn, -am
Voc.	Aenēā	Anchīsē, -ā, -a	Andromachē, -a
Abl.	Aenēā	Anchīsē, -ā	Andromachē, -ā

NOTE. Many proper names of the Greek First Declension are inflected in Latin according to the Third Declension, as Aeschinēs, Miltiadēs. Ablatives like Anchīsē are formed according to the Fifth Declension.

SECOND DECLENSION

o-*Stems*

69. The Nominative Singular ends in -us, or, in the case of Neuters, in -um. These endings were originally -os, -om (44, 1). Examples of Declension:

	hortus, *garden*, M. (stem horto-)		dōnum, *gift*, N. (stem dōno-)	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nom.	hortus	hortī	dōnum	dōna
Gen.	hortī	hortōrum	dōnī	dōnōrum
Dat.	hortō	hortīs	dōnō	dōnīs
Acc.	hortum	hortōs	dōnum	dōna
Voc.	horte	hortī	dōnum	dōna
Abl.	hortō	hortīs	dōnō	dōnīs

70. Most stems in -ro-, in the Nominative Singular, drop o and s of the original ending and insert an e before the r, if the latter is not already preceded by a vowel. See 43, 2. Examples:

	puer, *boy*, M. (stem **puero-**)	**ager**, *field*, M. (stem **agro-**)	**vir**, *man*, M. (stem **viro-**)
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	puer	ager	vir
Gen.	puerī	agrī	virī
Dat.	puerō	agrō	virō
Acc.	puerum	agrum	virum
Voc.	puer	ager	vir
Abl.	puerō	agrō	virō
		PLURAL	
Nom.	puerī	agrī	virī
Gen.	puerōrum	agrōrum	virōrum
Dat.	puerīs	agrīs	virīs
Acc.	puerōs	agrōs	virōs
Voc.	puerī	agrī	virī
Abl.	puerīs	agrīs	virīs

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a. A few stems in **-ro-** are declined like **hortus**. So **erus**, *master*, **numerus**, *number*, **umerus**, *shoulder*, **uterus**, *womb*, **hesperus**, *evening star*, **taurus**, *bull*.

b. The words like **puer**, in which the stem is **-ero-**, are : **gener**, *son-in-law*, **socer**, *father-in-law*, **adulter**, *adulterer*, **Līber**, *god of wine*, **līberī**, *children*, **vesper**, *evening*, **signi-fer**, *standard-bearer*, **armi-ger**, *armor-bearer*, and other compounds of **-fer** and **-ger**.

Remarks on the Case-Forms

71. 1. Stems in **-vo-**, **-quo-**, **-uo-** retained **o** in the Nom. and Acc. Sing. until the end of the Ciceronian period; e.g. Nom. **servos**, **equos**, **mortuos** (Adjective), Acc. **servom**, **equom**, **mortuom**, Nom.-Acc. Neut. **aevom**. The forms of the Augustan period are **servus**, **servum**, etc., — but **ecus**, **ecum**, the forms **equus**, **equum** being still later. See **44**, 1.

2. Proper Names in **-ius** form their Genitive Singular in **-ī** (not **-iī**) and also their Vocative Singular in **-ī** (not **-ie**). The accent is on the penult, even when it is short. So **Vergilius**, **Servius**, **Tullius**, **Gāius** have Gen. and Voc. Sing. **Vergílī**, **Servī**, **Tullī**, **Gāī**.

NOTE. In such Proper Names, in contrast to the other nouns in **-ius**, **-ium** (see 3), the **ī** of the Genitive is *not* generally replaced by **-iī**, though the latter is occasionally found.

3. Other nouns in **-ius** and **-ium** also form the Genitive Singular in **-ī**, which, however, begins to be replaced by **-iī** in the Augustan period. Such forms as **imperium**, **ingenium**, **negōtium** have Gen. **impérī**, **ingénī**,

negōtī in Virgil and Horace, as well as in the earlier poets, but nearly always imperiī, ingeniī, negōtiī in Propertius, Ovid, and later poets. Fīlius, *son*, has Gen. Sing. fīlī and also Voc. Sing. fīlī.

4. A Genitive Plural in **-um** is found:

a) Usually in words denoting coins or measures, such as **nummus**, *coin*, **sestertius**, *sesterce*, **modius**, *measure*, **iūgerum**, *acre;* e.g. **nummum**, *of coins*, etc.

b) Frequently in **deus**, *god*, **socius**, *ally*, **līberī**, *children*, and **faber** in the phrase **praefectus fabrum**, *chief engineer*.

c) Occasionally, in poetry, in **vir**, *man*, and some other words.

5. **Deus**, *god*, has Voc. Sing. **deus**, Nom. Plur. **dī**, Gen. Plur. **deum** beside **deōrum**, Dat.-Abl. Plur. **dīs**.

NOTE. The forms dī and dīs were sometimes *spelled* diī, diīs, but were regularly *pronounced* as one syllable. The forms deī, deīs represent a dissyllabic pronunciation, which, however, is rare before Ovid.

6. The Locative Singular form is identical with the Genitive; e.g. **humī**, *on the ground*, **domī**, *at home*, **Corinthī**, *at Corinth*. In the Plural the form is the same as the Dative and Ablative; e.g. **Delphīs**, *at Delphi*.

7. The Ablative Singular once ended in **-ōd**, which is preserved in early inscriptions; e.g. preivātōd.

8. The Nom. Plur. and Dat.-Abl. Plur. ended originally in **-oi** and **-ois**, which first became **-ei**, **-eis** (still preserved in the spelling of the Ciceronian period; e.g. servei, serveis), then **-ī**, **-īs**.

Gender

72. Nouns of the Second Declension ending in **-us**, **-er**, **-ir** are mostly Masculine; those in **-um** are Neuter.

a. Feminine are:

1) Most names of Cities, Countries, and Islands, as **Corinthus**, **Aegyptus**, **Rhodus**, etc.

2) Most names of Trees and Plants, as **fāgus**, *beech*, **fīcus**, *fig tree*.

3) Some Greek Feminines, as **dialectus**, *dialect*, **diphthongus**, *diphthong*.

4) Also the following: **alvus**, *belly*, **carbasus**, *flax*, **colus**, *distaff*, **humus**, *ground*, **vannus**, *winnowing-fan*.

b. Neuters are: **vīrus**, *poison*, **pelagus**, *sea*, **vulgus**, *crowd*, *rabble* (sometimes M.), in which the Accusative has the same form as the Nominative. These words have no Plural, except that for **pelagus**, which is a Greek word, a Nom.-Acc. Plur. **pelagē** is sometimes found.

NOTE. In reality these words are Heteroclites (**107**), the Nom.-Acc. form belonging to the Neuters of the Third Declension like **corpus**, **genus**, etc. (**85**).

Greek Nouns

73. Greek Nouns of the Second Declension usually follow the Latin declension. But the Nominative and Accusative Singular often end in **-os, -on**, especially in proper names in poetry. Thus **Tenedos**, Acc. **Tenedon** (also **-us, -um**), Nom.-Acc. **Ilion** (also **Ilium**).

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a. **Androgeōs** has Gen. Sing. **-eō** and **-eī**, Acc. Sing. **-eō** and **-eōn**. **Panthūs** has Voc. Sing. **Panthū**.

THIRD DECLENSION

74. The Third Declension comprises:

A. Consonant-Stems, with various subdivisions, according to the nature of the final consonant.

B. **I**-Stems.

C. Mixed Stems, of which the Singular is declined like that of Consonant-Stems of the Mute Class, and the Plural like that of i-Stems.[1]

D. Some Irregular Nouns, including Stems in **-ū** and **-ov**.

75. Consonant-Stems and **i**-Stems originally followed two totally distinct types of declension, which have been partially confused in Latin, so that many of the forms are identical in both classes. But the distinction is wholly or partially preserved in several of the cases, — most

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[1] There are other, less common, forms of mixture between Consonant-Stems and i-Stems, which are more conveniently treated as individual varieties of one or the other of these types. Words like **mūs**, Gen. Plur. **mūrium**, are cited under s-Stems. The few forms like **canis**, Gen. Plur. **canum**, which show a combination just the opposite of that seen in the Mixed Stems, are mentioned under i-Stems. Nouns in **-ēs**, Gen. Sing. **-is**, are classed under i-Stems, although the **-ēs** itself is probably not formed from an i-Stem (it perhaps originated in certain s-Stems, existing beside i-Stems formed from the same root, and was then extended to other i-Stems). Certain i-Stems, like **imber**, Gen. **imbris**, and the Neuters in **-al**, Gen. **-ālis**, **-ar**, Gen. **-āris**, which have lost the **i** by regular phonetic change, have come to resemble some Consonant-Stems in the Nominative Singular; but they are classed where they belong, under i-Stems.

Many of the words classed under Mixed Stems are also, in origin, i-Stems which have lost the **i** in the Nom. Sing.; e.g. **pars** from * **parti-s** (cf. the Adverb **partim**), **gēns** from * **genti-s**, and many others which contain the once common suffix **-ti-**. But it is not practicable to separate these from others which are properly Mute-Stems that have been drawn into this type, and from still others in which the variation between Mute-Stem and i-Stem is inherited from the parent speech.

Under Mixed Stems, then, are included *not* all forms of mixture between Consonant-Stems and i-Stems, but only that particular and widespread type in which the Singular is like that of Mute-Stems.

clearly in the Genitive Plural. See the scheme of endings given in **64**, and contrast the declension of **rēx** (**76**) with that of **turris** (**87**).

a. In Masculine and Feminine i-Stems the original endings of the Acc. and Abl. Sing., namely **-im** and **-ī**, were at an early period supplanted in most words (for exceptions, see below, under i-Stems) by **-em** and **-e**, the endings of Consonant-Stems; but in the Acc. Plur. the original **-īs** was not superseded until after the Augustan period, though **-ēs** was also used as early as Cicero's time. Neuter i-Stems nearly always retain **-ī** in the Abl. Sing.; the Nom.-Acc. Sing. ended originally in **-i**, but this is regularly changed to **-e** (**44**, 3), or dropped (**43**, 1).

NOTE. Most of those forms which in Latin are identical in both types belonged originally to only one type. So the ending of the Gen. Sing. **-is** (from **-es**) belonged properly only to Consonant-Stems, but in prehistoric times replaced the ending of the i-Stems, which otherwise would have been **-īs** in Latin; and the **-ēs** of the Nom. Plur. Masc. and Fem. belonged only to i-Stems, the ending of Consonant-Stems being properly **-es**, which would have become **-is**. So, too, the **-ibus** of the Dat. and Abl. Plur., found in all Stems, belongs properly only to the i-Stems. The **-ī** of the Dat. Sing. may belong to either i-Stems or Consonant-Stems, or both.

A. CONSONANT-STEMS

MUTE-STEMS

76. Examples:

	rēx, *king*, M.	**prīnceps**, *chief*, M.	**pēs**, *foot*, M.
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	rēx	prīnceps	pēs
Gen.	rēgis	prīncipis	pedis
Dat.	rēgī	prīncipī	pedī
Acc.	rēgem	prīncipem	pedem
Voc.	rēx	prīnceps	pēs
Abl.	rēge	prīncipe	pede
		PLURAL	
Nom.	rēgēs	prīncipēs	pedēs
Gen.	rēgum	prīncipum	pedum
Dat.	rēgibus	prīncipibus	pedibus
Acc.	rēgēs	prīncipēs	pedēs
Voc.	rēgēs	prīncipēs	pedēs
Abl.	rēgibus	prīncipibus	pedibus

	mīles, *soldier*, M.		caput, *head*, N.	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nom.	mīles	mīlitēs	caput	capita
Gen.	mīlitis	mīlitum	capitis	capitum
Dat.	mīlitī	mīlitibus	capitī	capitibus
Acc.	mīlitem	mīlitēs	caput	capita
Voc.	mīles	mīlitēs	caput	capita
Abl.	mīlite	mīlitibus	capite	capitibus

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Changes in the Stem[1]

77. 1. In the Nom.-Voc. Sing. Masc. and Fem., the ending s combines with a final guttural of a Stem to form x, with a dental to form s, and with a labial to form ps or bs (*pronounced* ps); e.g. vōx, *voice* (* vōc-s), rēx, *king* (* rēg-s); mīles, *soldier* (* mīlet-s), pēs, *foot* (* pēd-s); prīnceps, *chief* (prīncep-s), trabs, *beam* (trab-s). The final consonant has been lost in the Neuters cor, *heart* (Gen. cordis), and lac, *milk* (Gen. lactis).

2. The vowel of the stem generally remains unchanged in all the cases; e.g. dux, *leader*, Gen. ducis; lūx, *light*, Gen. lūcis; custōs, *guard*, Gen. custōdis; virtūs, *manliness*, Gen. virtūtis; lapis, *stone*, Gen. lapidis, etc. But:

3. An interchange of ē in the Nom.-Voc. Sing. with e in the other cases is seen in pēs and its compounds, also in abiēs, *fir*, ariēs, *ram*, pariēs, *wall;* e.g. Gen. pedis, abietis, etc.

4. In words of more than one syllable in which the vowel of the Nom.-Voc. Sing. is short e, this is regularly weakened to i in the other cases (42, 2). So auspex, *soothsayer*, Gen. auspicis; prīnceps, *chief*, Gen. prīncipis; mīles, *soldier*, Gen. mīlitis; obses, *hostage*, Gen. obsidis, etc. Such forms are very numerous, but there are some exceptions, as seges, *crop*, Gen. segetis (so teges, praepes, interpres, indiges).

5. In auceps, *fowler*, Gen. aucupis, the weakening results in u (42, 6). In early Latin also manceps, *contractor*, Gen. mancupis. An interchange of u and i is seen in caput, *head*, Gen. capitis.

6. Supellēx, *furniture*, has Gen. supellēctilis, etc.

78. Gender. Neuter are only: cor, *heart*, lac, *milk*, caput, *head*. Masculine are: nouns in -es, Gen. -itis; -eps, Gen. -ipis; most in -ex, Gen. -icis.

[1] These remarks apply also to nouns of the Mixed Type, which are declined as Mute-Stems in the Singular (90), and to Adjective Mute-Stems (117).

Feminine are: nouns in **-tūs**, Gen. **-tūtis**; **-tās**, Gen. **-tātis**; most of the commonest nouns in **-x** (except those in **-ex**, **-icis**; see above); but **grex**, **rēx**, M., **dux**, **coniux** or **coniūnx**, M. or F.

NOTE. Other classes vary too much between Masculine and Feminine to be brought under any general statement.

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LIQUID STEMS

79. Examples:

Masculines (and Feminines)

	victor, *victor*, M.	**pater**, *father*, M.	**cōnsul**, *consul*, M.
	SINGULAR		
Nom.	victor	pater	cōnsul
Gen.	victōris	patris	cōnsulis
Dat.	victōrī	patrī	cōnsulī
Acc.	victōrem	patrem	cōnsulem
Voc.	victor	pater	cōnsul
Abl.	victōre	patre	cōnsule
	PLURAL		
Nom.	victōrēs	patrēs	cōnsulēs
Gen.	victōrum	patrum	cōnsulum
Dat.	victōribus	patribus	cōnsulibus
Acc.	victōrēs	patrēs	cōnsulēs
Voc.	victōrēs	patrēs	cōnsulēs
Abl.	victōribus	patribus	cōnsulibus

Neuters

	ebur, *ivory*		**tūber**, *swelling*	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nom.	ebur	ebora	tūber	tūbera
Gen.	eboris	eborum	tūberis	tūberum
Dat.	eborī	eboribus	tūberī	tūberibus
Acc.	ebur	ebora	tūber	tūbera
Voc.	ebur	ebora	tūber	tūbera
Abl.	ebore	eboribus	tūbere	tūberibus

Remarks

80. 1. The type represented by **victor** is the most common, comprising the nouns of agency in **-tor**, and many abstracts in **-or**, as **amor**, *love*. The stem is **-tōr** or **-ōr** throughout, except in the Nom.-Voc. Sing., where the vowel has been shortened before the final r (**26**, 3).

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2. Like **pater** are inflected **māter**, *mother*, **frāter**, *brother*, **accipiter**, *hawk*, and a few proper names.

3. Other Masculines are declined like **cōnsul** in that the stem remains unchanged throughout. So, for example, **vigil**, *watchman*, Gen. **vigilis**; **sōl**, *sun*, Gen. **sōlis**; **ānser**, *goose*, Gen. **ānseris**; **augur**, *augur*, Gen. **auguris**; **Caesar**, *Caesar*, Gen. **Caesaris**.

4. **Honor**, *honor*, Gen. **honōris**, and **arbor**, *tree*, Gen. **arboris**, were originally s-Stems, and the old Nominatives **honōs** and **arbōs** (like **flōs**, **85**) are frequently found.

NOTE. Many others of the words classed here as r-Stems were originally s-Stems, some of them showing traces of s in early Latin. This is true of the whole class of abstracts in **-or**, **-ōris** mentioned under 1, and of several Neuters, as **rōbur** (old Latin **rōbus**; cf. **rōbustus**), **fulgur**, **aequor**, etc. So also **mulier**, *woman*, F., and **vōmer**, *ploughshare*, M., beside which is found **vōmis** (like **cinis**, **85**). See **86**, note.

5. Other Neuters declined like **ebur** are **rōbur**, *oak*, **femur**, *thigh*, **iecur**, *liver*. But **femur** has also **feminis**, **feminī**, etc., formed from an n-Stem; and **iecur** (**iocur** in the Augustan period) has Gen. **iocineris** beside **iecoris**.

6. Other Neuters declined like **tūber** are **ūber**, *teat*, **cadāver**, *dead body*, **cicer**, *pea*, **piper**, *pepper*, and several names of plants and trees. **Iter**, *way*, has Gen. **itineris**, etc. (cf. **iocineris**, 5).

7. There are also Neuters in **-ar**, Gen. **-aris**; **-or**, Gen. **-oris**; and **-ur**, Gen. **-uris**; e.g. **nectar**, *nectar*, **aequor**, *sea*, **fulgur**, *lightning*, **Tībur**, *Tivoli*, etc.; also **vēr**, *spring*, Gen. **vēris**; **far**, *spelt*, Gen. **farris** (stem **farr-** from * **fars-**); **sāl**, *salt*, Gen. **salis**; **mel**, *honey*, Gen. **mellis** (stem **mell-** from * **meld-**); **fel**, *gall*, Gen. **fellis** (stem **fell-** from * **feld-**).

81. **Gender.** Liquid Stems are nearly all Masculine or Neuter.

Masculine are: nouns in **-tor**, Gen. **-tōris**; **-or**, Gen. **-ōris**, except, of course, **soror**, *sister*, F., and **uxor**, *wife*, F.; **-er**, Gen. **-ris**, except **māter**, *mother*, F.; **-l**, except the Neuters **sāl**, **mel**, **fel**.

Neuter are: nouns in **-ur**, Gen. **-oris**; **-or**, Gen. **-oris**, except **arbor**, *tree*, F.

Masculines and Neuters are included in nouns in **-er**, Gen. **-eris** (but **mulier**, *woman*, F.); **-ar**, Gen. **-aris**; **-ur**, Gen. **-uris**.

Nasal Stems

82. Examples:

	sermō, *speech*, M.	**virgō**, *virgin*, F.	**nōmen**, *name*, N.
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	sermō	virgō	nōmen
Gen.	sermōnis	virginis	nōminis
Dat.	sermōnī	virginī	nōminī
Acc.	sermōnem	virginem	nōmen
Voc.	sermō	virgō	nōmen
Abl.	sermōne	virgine	nōmine
		PLURAL	
Nom.	sermōnēs	virginēs	nōmina
Gen.	sermōnum	virginum	nōminum
Dat.	sermōnibus	virginibus	nōminibus
Acc.	sermōnēs	virginēs	nōmina
Voc.	sermōnēs	virginēs	nōmina
Abl.	sermōnibus	virginibus	nōminibus

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Remarks

83. 1. Like **sermō** is declined the large class of nouns in **-iō**, as **regiō**, *direction*, Gen. **regiōnis**; **āctiō**, *action*, Gen. **āctiōnis**, etc.

2. Like **virgō** are declined all nouns in **-gō** or **-dō** (except **praedō**, *robber*, **harpagō**, *grappling-hook*, **ligō**, *mattock*, which are declined like **sermō**); also **homō**, *man*, **nēmō**, *no one*, **turbō**, *whirlwind*, **Apollō**, *Apollo*.

3. There are some Masculines in **-en**, Gen. **-inis**, Acc. **-inem**, as **flāmen**, *priest*, **pecten**, *comb*, **oscen**, *divining bird* (sometimes F.), and names of players on musical instruments, as **tībīcen**, *flute player*, etc.

4. There is one stem in **-m**, namely **hiem(p)s**, *winter*, F., Gen. **hiemis**.

5. In **carō**, *flesh*, F., the stem appears as **carn-** (not **carōn-** or **carin-**) in all cases but the Nom.-Voc. Singular; e.g. Gen. Sing. **carnis**, Nom. Plur. **carnēs**. Cf. **pater**, Gen. **patris**, etc. Another peculiar form is **sanguis**, *blood*, M., Gen. **sanguinis**, etc.

NOTE. Beside **sanguis**, which is properly an i-Stem form, there is also a Nom. **sanguīs** (from * **sanguin-s**), which is frequently used by the poets. The Neuter **sanguen** is an early Latin form.

84. **Gender.** Masculine are all nouns in **-ō**, Gen. **-ōnis** (not **-iō**, Gen. **-iōnis**).

Feminine are all nouns in **-ō**, Gen. **-inis**, except **cardō**, **margō**, **ōrdō**, **homō**, **nēmō**, **turbō**, **Apollō**, which are Masculine; also most in **-iō** (abstracts and collectives), though there are many Masculines, denoting material objects, as **pugiō**, *dagger*.

Neuter are all nouns in **-en**, except those mentioned under **83**, 3.

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S-STEMS

85. Examples:

Masculines (and Feminines)

	cinis, *ashes*, M.		**flōs**, *flower*, M.	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nom.	cinis	cinerēs	flōs	flōrēs
Gen.	cineris	cinerum	flōris	flōrum
Dat.	cinerī	cineribus	flōrī	flōribus
Acc.	cinerem	cinerēs	flōrem	flōrēs
Voc.	cinis	cinerēs	flōs	flōrēs
Abl.	cinere	cineribus	flōre	flōribus

Neuters

	genus, *race*		**corpus**, *body*	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nom.	genus	genera	corpus	corpora
Gen.	generis	generum	corporis	corporum
Dat.	generī	generibus	corporī	corporibus
Acc.	genus	genera	corpus	corpora
Voc.	genus	genera	corpus	corpora
Abl.	genere	generibus	corpore	corporibus

Remarks

86. 1. Most s-Stems are Neuters, declined like **genus** or **corpus**. Other Neuters are: **iūs**, *right*, Gen. **iūris** (so **rūs**, *country*, **crūs**, *leg*, **tūs**, *incense*, **pūs**, *pus*); **aes**, *bronze*, Gen. **aeris**; **ōs**, *mouth*, Gen. **ōris**; **os**, *bone*, Gen. **ossis** (Nom. Plur. **ossa**, Gen. Plur. **ossium**); **vās**, *vessel*, Gen. **vāsis**.

2. Masculines like **cinis** are **pulvis**, *dust*, and **cucumis**, *cucumber* (but Acc. and Abl. Sing. **cucumim**, **cucumī**, after **i**-Stem); like **flōs** are **rōs**, *dew*, **mōs**, *custom*, **lepōs**, *charm*. Other Masculines are: **mās**, *male*,

Gen. **maris**, **mūs**, *mouse*, Gen. **mūris**, **as**, *copper*, Gen. **assis**, all with Gen. Plur. in **-ium** ; **lepus**, *hare*, Gen. **leporis**.

3. Feminines are very rare. Examples are **Venus**, *Venus*, Gen. **Veneris** ; **tellūs**, *earth*, Gen. **tellūris** ; **Cerēs**, *Ceres*, Gen. **Cereris**.

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NOTE. In all cases but the Nom.-Voc. Sing. (and Acc. Sing. Neut.) the **s**, as standing between vowels, regularly becomes **r** (**47**). In many original s-Stems even this final **s** became **r**, under the influence of the other cases, so that such Stems became wholly identical with r-Stems, and have been classed as such (e.g. **honor**, sometimes **honōs** ; see **80**, 4). Of the once numerous forms in **-ōs**, Gen. **-ōris**, only the monosyllables (and **lepōs**) always retain the **-s**.

B. I-STEMS

87. The Nominative Singular of Masculines and Feminines ends regularly in **-is** ; but there are also many nouns ending in **-ēs** ; and a few in **-er**, from stems in **-ri-**, e.g. **imber** from **imbris**, like **ager** from ***agros** (see **43**, 2). The Nominative and Accusative Singular of Neuters ended originally in **-i**, but this has either been changed to **-e** (**44**, 3), or, in the case of most stems in **-āli-** or **-āri-**, dropped (**43**, 1). Examples :

Masculines and Feminines

	turris, *tower*, F.	**fīnis**, *end*, M., F.	**caedēs**, *slaughter*, F.	**imber**, *shower*, M.
		SINGULAR		
Nom.	turris	fīnis	caedēs	imber
Gen.	turris	fīnis	caedis	imbris
Dat.	turrī	fīnī	caedī	imbrī
Acc.	turrim (-em)	fīnem	caedem	imbrem
Voc.	turris	fīnis	caedēs	imber
Abl.	turrī or -e	fīne	caede	imbre or -ī
		PLURAL		
Nom.	turrēs	fīnēs	caedēs	imbrēs
Gen.	turrium	fīnium	caedium	imbrium
Dat.	turribus	fīnibus	caedibus	imbribus
Acc.	turrīs (-ēs)	fīnīs (-ēs)	caedīs (-ēs)	imbrīs (-ēs)
Voc.	turrēs	fīnēs	caedēs	imbrēs
Abl.	turribus	fīnibus	caedibus	imbribus

Neuters

	sedīle, *seat*	**animal**, *animal*	**exemplar**, *pattern*
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	sedīle	animal	exemplar
Gen.	sedīlis	animālis	exemplāris
Dat.	sedīlī	animālī	exemplārī
Acc.	sedīle	animal	exemplar
Voc.	sedīle	animal	exemplar
Abl.	sedīlī	animālī	exemplārī
		PLURAL	
Nom.	sedīlia	animālia	exemplāria
Gen.	sedīlium	animālium	exemplārium
Dat.	sedīlibus	animālibus	exemplāribus
Acc.	sedīlia	animālia	exemplāria
Voc.	sedīlia	animālia	exemplāria
Abl.	sedīlibus	animālibus	exemplāribus

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Remarks

88. 1. The Accusative Singular always or usually has **-im** in:

būris, *plough-beam*	**puppis**, *stern*	**sitis**, *thirst*
febris, *fever*	**restis**, *rope*	**turris**, *tower*
pelvis, *basin*	**secūris**, *axe*	**tussis**, *cough*

and names of *rivers* and *cities*, like **Tiberis**, *the Tiber*, **Neāpolis**, *Naples*; occasionally in several others.

2. The Ablative Singular has the form **-ī**:

a) In all Neuters except **rēte**, *net*, and some names of places, like **Praeneste**, *Praeneste*. **Mare**, *sea*, sometimes has Abl. **mare** in poetry.

b) Always or usually in **secūris**, **sitis**, **tussis**, **bipennis**, *battle-axe*, **canālis**, *conduit*, and names of *rivers*, *cities*, and *months*.

c) Often in the following, which also have **e**:

amnis, *river*	**febris**, *fever*	**pelvis**, *basin*
avis, *bird*	**fūstis**, *club*	**puppis**, *stern*
cīvis, *citizen*	**ignis**, *fire*	**sēmentis**, *sowing*
classis, *fleet*	**imber**, *shower*	**strigilis**, *scraper*
clāvis, *key*	**nāvis**, *ship*	**turris**, *tower*

d) Occasionally in **fīnis**, *end* (in adverbial phrases; see **407**, 4), **collis**, *hill*, **orbis**, *circle*, **unguis**, *nail*, and a few others.

3. The Acc. Plur. Masc. and Fem. has earlier -īs, later -ēs. See 75, *a*. The -īs also occurs sometimes in the Nominative, as aedīs.

4. The Genitive Plural ends in -ium, but -um is the regular form for canis, *dog*, iuvenis, *youth*, volucris, *bird*, and for senex, *old man* (Nom. Sing. formed from a stem senec-; Gen. Sing. senis); -um is also found beside -ium in sēdēs, *seat*, mēnsis, *month*, and, rarely, in vātēs, *bard*.

5. The Ablative Singular of famēs, *hunger*, is famē, following the Fifth Declension; tabē also occurs once, from tabēs, *wasting*.

89. Gender. Masculine are nouns in -er, except linter, *skiff*, F.

Feminine are nouns in -ēs (but verrēs, *boar*, M., vātēs, *bard*, M., F.); also the majority of those in -is (but those in -nis, and nearly thirty others, are Masculine).

Neuter are nouns in -e, -al, -ar.

C. MIXED STEMS

90. The Singular agrees with that of Mute-Stems, the Plural with that of i-Stems. Examples:

	nox, *night*, F.	urbs, *city*, F.	gēns, *race*, F.
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	nox	urbs	gēns
Gen.	noctis	urbis	gentis
Dat.	noctī	urbī	gentī
Acc.	noctem	urbem	gentem
Voc.	nox	urbs	gēns
Abl.	nocte	urbe	gente
		PLURAL	
Nom.	noctēs	urbēs	gentēs
Gen.	noctium	urbium	gentium
Dat.	noctibus	urbibus	gentibus
Acc.	noctīs (-ēs)	urbīs (-ēs)	gentīs (-ēs)
Voc.	noctēs	urbēs	gentēs
Abl.	noctibus	urbibus	gentibus

Remarks

91. 1. To this type belong:

a) Nouns in -ns, -rs, -rx, lx, as mōns (Gen. Plur. montium), glāns (glandium), pars (partium), arx (arcium), falx (falcium), etc.; also dōs,

Iīs, fraus (also **-um**), **nox, nix** (Gen. **nivis**; see **49**, 2), **faucēs**. But **cliēns**, *client*, and **parēns**, *parent*, have Gen. Plur. **-um** and **-ium**.

b) Monosyllables in **-ps, -bs**, as **stirps** (**stirpium**), **plēbs** (**plēbium**), etc. But always **opum**, *of resources*, from * **ops**, Gen. **opis**.

c) Nouns in **-ās, -īs, -tās**, as **Arpīnās** (**-ium**), **penātēs** (**-ium**), **optimātēs** (**-ium** and **-um**), **Quirītēs** (**-ium**) **Samnītēs** (**-ium**), **cīvitās** (**-ium** and **-um**).

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NOTE. **Mās, mūs**, and **as**, with Gen. Plur. in **-ium**, are classed under s-Stems (**86**, 2).

2. **Gender.** Nouns of this type are Feminine, except that there are several Masculines in **-ns**, Gen. **-ntis**, as **dēns, fōns, mōns, pōns**.

D. IRREGULAR NOUNS

92. The declension of the following nouns differs from any of the usual types:

	vīs, *force*, F.	**sūs,** *swine*, M., F.	**bōs,** *ox, cow*, M., F.	**Iuppiter,** *Jupiter*, M.
		SINGULAR		
Nom.	vīs	sūs	bōs	Iuppiter
Gen.	(vis)	suis	bovis	Iovis
Dat.	(vī)	suī	bovī	Iovī
Acc.	vim	suem	bovem	Iovem
Voc.	vīs	sūs	bōs	Iuppiter
Abl.	vī	sue	bove	Iove
		PLURAL		
Nom.	vīrēs	suēs	bovēs	
Gen.	vīrium	suum	boum	
Dat.	vīribus	suibus (sūbus, subus)	būbus (bōbus)	
Acc.	vīrīs (-ēs)	suēs	bovēs	
Voc.	vīrēs	suēs	bovēs	
Abl.	vīribus	suibus (sūbus, subus)	būbus (bōbus)	

a. Like **sūs** is declined **grūs**, *crane*, M., F. (Dat.-Abl. Plur. **gruibus**).

b. Other peculiar forms have been mentioned as varieties of the regular types, e.g. **carō**, Gen. **carnis** (**83**, 5); **iter**, Gen. **itineris** (**80**, 6); **senex**, Gen. **senis** (**88**, 4), etc.

NOTE. **Vīs** is an old s-Stem (with **vīs**, Nom. Plur. **vīrēs**, compare **mūs, mūrēs**), but the Dat., Acc., and Abl. Sing. are formed from a stem **vi-**. **Sūs** and **grūs** are relics of a **ū**-Declension. **Bōs** is from a stem **bov-** (**bōs** from * **bō(u)-s**). **Iuppiter**, earlier **Iūpiter**, comes from a Vocative form * **Iou** (once * **dieu**) + **piter** (from **pater**, *father*, by the regular weakening, **42**, 1).

The Locative Singular of the Third Declension

93. The Locative Singular is identical with the Ablative Singular in **-e**, as **Carthāgine**, *at Carthage.* But there are also forms in **-ī**, as **Carthāginī**, **rūrī**, *in the country* (beside **rūre**).

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Gender in the Third Declension

94. The following is a summary of such of the important types as are fairly uniform in gender. For more detailed statements, with exceptions, see under the several classes.

1. Masculine: nouns in **-tor** (Gen. **-tōris**), **-or** (Gen. **-ōris**), **-er** (Gen. **-ris**), **-ō** (Gen. **-ōnis**), **-es** (Gen. **-itis**), **-eps** (Gen. **-ipis**), **-ex** (Gen. **-icis**).

Examples: **dator, amor, pater, sermō, mīles, prīnceps, auspex.**

2. Feminine: nouns in **-tās** (Gen. **-tātis**), **-tūs** (Gen. **-tūtis**), **-ēs** (Gen. **-is**), **-gō** or **-dō** (Gen. **-inis**), **-rs** (Gen. **-rtis**); and the majority of those in **-iō** (Gen. **-iōnis**) and **-is** (Gen. **-is**).

Examples: **cīvitās, virtūs, caedēs, virgō, grandō, pars; regiō, turris.**

3. Neuter: nouns in **-en, -us, -e, -al** (Gen. **-ālis**), **-ar** (Gen. **-āris**), **-ur** (Gen. **-oris**), **-or** (Gen. **-oris**).

Examples: **nōmen, genus, sedīle, animal, exemplar, ebur, aequor.**

Greek Nouns

95. Greek Nouns of the Third Declension often retain their Greek forms in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Singular, the Nominative and Accusative Plural, and sometimes in the Genitive Singular. The Latin endings are nearly always used in the other cases; also, usually, in the Genitive Singular and frequently in the Accusative Singular. Examples of Declension:

	lampas, *torch*, F.	**Sōcratēs**, *Socrates*	**hērōs**, *hero*, M.
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	lampas	Sōcratēs	hērōs
Gen.	lampados, -is	Sōcratis, -ī	hērōis
Dat.	lampadī	Sōcratī	hērōi
Acc.	lampada, -em	Sōcratem, -ēn	hērōa, -em
Voc.	lampas	Sōcrates, -ē	hērōs
Abl.	lampade	Sōcrate	hērōe
		PLURAL	
Nom.	lampadēs		hērōēs
Gen.	lampadum		hērōum
Dat.	lampadibus		hērōibus
Acc.	lampadās		hērōās
Voc.	lampadēs		hērōēs
Abl.	lampadibus		hērōibus

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a. Proper names in **-eus** usually follow the Latin Second Declension (often with synizesis ; **658**), except in the Vocative, which ends in **-eū**.

But note also Acc. **Orphea, Īlionēa**, Dat. **Orphe͡ī**, etc. **Perseus** appears also as **Persēs**, Acc. **Persem**, etc. **Achillēs** sometimes has forms of **-eus**, as Gen. **Achilleī**.

b. Names like **Dīdō** are regularly declined in **-ō, -ōnis**, etc. But there is also a Gen. in **-ūs**, as **Mantūs**, and Acc. in **-ō**, as **Dīdō**.

c. For names in **-is, -idis**, observe Acc. **Paridem, Tyndarida, Parim, Parin**, Voc. **Daphni**. Cf. **Darēs**, Acc. **Darēta** and **Darēn**.

d. For names in **-ys**, observe Acc. **Capyn, Halym**, Voc. **Tiphy**, Abl. **Capye**.

FOURTH DECLENSION

96. The Nominative Singular ends in **-us**, or, in the case of Neuters, in **-ū**. Examples of Declension :

	frūctus, *fruit*, M. (stem **frūctu-**)	**tribus**, *tribe*, F. (stem **tribu-**)	**cornū**, *horn*, N. (stem **cornu-**)
		SINGULAR	
Nom.	frūctus	tribus	cornū
Gen.	frūctūs	tribūs	cornūs
Dat.	frūctuī, -ū	tribuī, -ū	cornū
Acc.	frūctum	tribum	cornū
Voc.	frūctus	tribus	cornū
Abl.	frūctū	tribū	cornū

	PLURAL		
Nom.	frūctūs	tribūs	cornua
Gen.	frūctuum	tribuum	cornuum
Dat.	frūctibus	tribubus	cornibus
Acc.	frūctūs	tribūs	cornua
Voc.	frūctūs	tribūs	cornua
Abl.	frūctibus	tribubus	cornibus

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Remarks on the Case-Forms

97. 1. The Dative and Ablative Plural end in **-ubus** as follows:

a) Always in **arcus, tribus, quercus.**

b) Frequently in **artus, lacus, partus, verū.**

c) Occasionally in **genū, tonitrū,** and a few others.

2. The Dative Singular in **-ū** is regular in Neuters, and, except in early Latin, is frequent in Masculines and Feminines.

3. The Genitive Plural sometimes ends in **-um**, as **passum**, formed after **nummum**, etc., of the Second Declension (**71**, 4, *a*).

4. In early Latin is found a Genitive Singular in **-uis**, as **frūctuis, quaestuis**; on inscriptions also **-uos**, as **senātuos.**

5. Some nouns show an intermixture of forms of the Second Declension, as **senātus**, *senate*, Gen. **senātī** beside **senātūs**, and especially **domus**, *house*, the inflection of which is as follows:

domus	domūs
domūs (domī)	domōrum, domuum
domuī (domō)	domibus
domum	domōs, domūs
domus	domūs
domō (domū)	domibus

Loc. Sing. domī, *at home.*

Gender

98. Nouns of the Fourth Declension ending in **-us** are mostly Masculine, those in **-ū** Neuter.

a. But the following in **-us** are Feminine:

acus, *needle*
anus, *old woman*
domus, *house*
Īdūs (Plur.), *Ides*
nurus, *daughter-in-law*
porticus, *porch*
Quīnquātrūs (Plur.), *name of a festival*
socrus, *mother-in-law*
tribus, *tribe*

FIFTH DECLENSION

99. The Nominative Singular ends in **-ēs**. Examples of Declension:

	diēs, *day*, M. (stem **diē-**)		**rēs**, *thing*, F. (stem **rē-**)	
	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nom.	diēs	diēs	rēs	rēs
Gen.	diēī	diērum	reī	rērum
Dat.	diēī	diēbus	reī	rēbus
Acc.	diem	diēs	rem	rēs
Voc.	diēs	diēs	rēs	rēs
Abl.	diē	diēbus	rē	rēbus

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Remarks on the Case-Forms

100. 1. In the Genitive and Dative Singular we find **-ēī** after a vowel, but **-eī** after a consonant, as **diēī**, **faciēī**, but **reī**, **fideī**. But this distinction does not hold in early Latin, where we find, for example, **rēī**, **reī**, and oftener monosyllabic **rei**.

2. A form of the Genitive and Dative Singular in **-ē** is found, as **diē**, **aciē**.

3. The Genitive Singular of **plēbēs**, *people*, is often **plēbī** in the phrases **tribūnus plēbī** and **plēbī scītum**. Similarly (rarely), **diī** for **diēī**.

4. The only words which have a complete Plural are **diēs** and **rēs**, but several others are used in the Nominative and Accusative Plural.

Gender

101. Nouns of the Fifth Declension are Feminine, except **diēs**, *day*, and **merīdiēs**, *midday*. And **diēs** is usually Feminine when meaning an appointed time, or time in general.

DEFECTIVE AND VARIABLE NOUNS

102. Nouns may lack one Number or one or more Cases; they may follow partly one Declension, partly another; or they may vary in Gender.

Nouns used only in the Singular

103. Some words are of such a meaning as to be used commonly only in the singular. Such are:

1. Proper Names.
2. Abstracts, like cāritās, *affection*.
3. Collectives, like vulgus, *the rabble*.
4. Words denoting Material, as aes, *bronze*.

NOTE. But some of these are used in the Plural in a peculiar sense, as Caesarēs, *the Caesars*, cāritātēs, *kinds of affection*, aera, *bronzes*, *arms of bronze*, *wages*.

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Nouns used only in the Plural

104. Nouns used only in the Plural include:

1. Some names of places, as Athēnae, *Athens*.
2. Most names of festivals, as Bacchānālia, *festival of Bacchus*.
3. Many names of objects naturally Plural in signification, as arma, *arms*, spolia,[1] *spoils*, vīscera, *entrails*.
4. Many others, for some of which English prefers the Singular. The most important are:

angustiae, *defile*, *difficulty* (*straits*)	īnsidiae, *ambush*
cibāria, *food* (*rations*)	līberī, *children*
dēliciae, *pleasure*	minae, *threats*
dīvitiae, *wealth* (*riches*)	moenia, *walls*
epulae,[2] *banquet* (*viands*)	nūndinae, *market-day*
facētiae,[1] *wit* (*witticisms*)	nūptiae, *wedding* (*nuptials*)
forēs,[1] *door*	reliquiae, *remainder* (*remains*)
hīberna, *winter quarters*	tenebrae, *darkness*
indūtiae, *truce*	verbera,[1] *scourging* (*lashes*)

Different Meaning in Singular and Plural

105. Many nouns are used in both the Singular and the Plural, but with a difference of meaning. The most important instances are:

SINGULAR	PLURAL
aedēs, *temple*	aedēs, *house*
auxilium, *help*	auxilia, *auxiliaries*
carcer, *prison*	carcerēs, *barriers*
castrum, *fort*	castra, *camp*
cēra, *wax*	cērae, *wax tablets*
comitium, *place of assembly*	comitia, *assembly*
cōpia, *plenty*	cōpiae, *troops*

[1] Occasionally Singular in poetry.

[2] Also epulum, *public banquet*.

SINGULAR	PLURAL
facultās, *possibility*	facultātēs, *resources, goods*
fīnis, *end, border*	fīnēs, *borders, territory*
fortūna, *fortune*	fortūnae, *possessions*
impedīmentum, *hindrance*	impedīmenta, *baggage*
littera, *letter* (of the alphabet)	litterae, *letter, epistle*
opera, *work*	operae, *workmen*
pars, *portion*	partēs, *rôle*
rōstrum, *beak*	rōstra, *platform for speakers*
vigilia, *watch*	vigiliae, *pickets*

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Nouns Defective in Case-Forms

106. Nouns may lack one or more of the Case-Forms.

1. Many u-Stems are used only in the Ablative Singular, as **nātū**, *by birth*, **iussū**, *by order*; similarly **pondō**, *by weight*, **sponte**, *of free will* (Gen. **spontis** rare). Of **forte**, *by chance*, the Nom. **fors** also occurs.

2. Several Neuters are used only in the Nom.-Acc. Sing., as **fās**, *right*, **nihil**, **nīl**, *nothing*, **īnstar**, *likeness*, **opus**, *need*, etc.

3. **Nēmō**, *no one*, has a Dat. **nēminī** and an Acc. **nēminem**, but the Gen. and Abl. are supplied by **nūllīus** and **nūllō**, from **nūllus**.

4. The Nominative Singular is lacking for **dapis**, *feast*, **frūgis**, *fruit*, **opis**, *help* (lacks also Dat.), **vicis**, *change* (lacks also Dat.), **precī** (Dat.), *prayer* (lacks also Gen.), etc.

5. The Genitive Plural is lacking in many nouns, as **pāx**, **lūx**, etc.

NOTE. An enumeration of all the examples of Defective Nouns is unnecessary. It is sometimes a mere accident that a certain case-form is not found.

Nouns Variable in Declension

107. Some nouns show forms belonging to two different Declensions or to two classes of the same Declension. Such are known as Heteroclites ("differently declined").

1. Some examples have been given already, as **domus** (97, 5), which varies between the Second and Fourth Declensions; **vīrus**, etc., of the Second, but having the Nom.-Acc. Sing. of the Third (72, *b*, note); **famēs**, of the Third, but having the Abl. Sing. **famē** of the Fifth (88, 5); **femur**, an r-Stem in the Nom. and Acc. Sing., but forming its other cases from an n-Stem (80, 5).

NOTE. From the historical point of view all words of the Third Declension are Heteroclites, since their case-forms belong partly to i-Stems and partly to Consonant-Stems.

2. Other illustrations are: **vās**, *vessel*, with Singular of the Third Declension (Gen. **vāsis**, etc.), and Plural of the Second (**vāsa**, **vāsōrum**, etc.); **iūgerum**, *acre*, with Singular of the Second Declension (Gen. **iūgerī**, etc.), and Plural of the Third (**iūgera**, **iūgerum**, **iūgeribus**); **requiēs**, *rest*, of the Third (Gen. **requiētis**, etc.), but having also an Acc. Sing. **requiem** of the Fifth; **māteria**, *material*, of the First, but having also a Nom. Sing. **māteriēs** and an Acc. Sing. **māteriem** of the Fifth, and similarly many others.

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Nouns Variable in Gender

108. Nouns may have forms of different Genders. Such are known as Heterogeneous Nouns.

1. Some nouns of the Second Declension have both Masculine and Neuter forms, as **clipeus**, M., and **clipeum**, N., *shield*.

2. Many nouns have different genders in the Singular and Plural, as **locus**, M., *place*, Plur. **loca**, N., *places* (**locī**, M., *passages in authors*); **iocus**, *jest*, M., Plur. often **ioca**, N.; **frēnum**, *bit*, N., Plur. often **frēnī**, M.

ADJECTIVES

109. There are two types of Adjectival Declension, the one being based on the First and Second Declensions of Nouns, the other on the Third.

ADJECTIVES OF THE FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS

110. The Masculine is declined like **hortus**, **puer**, or **ager** (69, 70), the Feminine like **sella** (65), the Neuter like **dōnum** (69). Examples:

bonus, *good*

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	bonus	bona	bonum	bonī	bonae	bona
Gen.	bonī	bonae	bonī	bonōrum	bonārum	bonōrum
Dat.	bonō	bonae	bonō	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs
Acc.	bonum	bonam	bonum	bonōs	bonās	bona
Voc.	bone	bona	bonum	bonī	bonae	bona
Abl.	bonō	bonā	bonō	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs

a. The Gen. and Voc. Sing. Masc. and Neut. of adjectives in **-ius** end in **-iī** and **-ie**, not in **-ī**, as in Nouns ; e.g. Gen. Sing. **rēgiī**, Voc. Sing. **rēgie**, from **rēgius**, *royal*.

111.

	līber, *free*			**ruber**, *red*		
			SINGULAR			
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	līber	lībera	līberum	ruber	rubra	rubrum
Gen.	līberī	līberae	līberī	rubrī	rubrae	rubrī
Dat.	līberō	līberae	līberō	rubrō	rubrae	rubrō
Acc.	līberum	līberam	līberum	rubrum	rubram	rubrum
Voc.	līber	lībera	līberum	ruber	rubra	rubrum
Abl.	līberō	līberā	līberō	rubrō	rubrā	rubrō
			PLURAL			
Nom.	līberī	līberae	lībera	rubrī	rubrae	rubra
Gen.	līberōrum	līberārum	līberōrum	rubrōrum	rubrārum	rubrōrum
Dat.	līberīs	līberīs	līberīs	rubrīs	rubrīs	rubrīs
Acc.	līberōs	līberās	lībera	rubrōs	rubrās	rubra
Voc.	līberī	līberae	lībera	rubrī	rubrae	rubra
Abl.	līberīs	līberīs	līberīs	rubrīs	rubrīs	rubrīs

a. The adjectives which are declined like **līber** (not like **ruber**) are : **asper**, *rough* ; **lacer**, *torn* ; **prosper**, *prosperous* ; **tener**, *tender* ; compounds of **-fer** and **-ger**, like **āliger**, *winged* ; sometimes **dexter**, *right*.

b. Some adjective **-ro**-Stems form the Nom. Sing. Masc. in **-rus** instead of **-er**, as is also the case with some Nouns (**70**, *a*). Such are : **ferus**, *wild*, **properus**, *quick*, **praeposterus**, *absurd*, and usually **īnferus**, *under*, and **superus**, *upper* ; further, all those in which the **r** is preceded by a long vowel, as **sincērus**, *sincere*, **austērus**, *austere*, etc.

c. The declension of **satur**, *full*, is parallel to that of **līber**, namely, **satur**, **satura**, **saturum**, etc.

Pronominal Adjectives

112. Several adjectives show in the Genitive and Dative Singular the Pronominal endings **-īus** and **-ī**. In other respects they are declined like **bonus**, or like **līber** or **ruber**. Examples of the Singular :

	tōtus, *whole*			uter, *which of two*		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	tōtus	tōta	tōtum	uter	utra	utrum
Gen.	tōtīus	tōtīus	tōtīus	utrīus	utrīus	utrīus
Dat.	tōtī	tōtī	tōtī	utrī	utrī	utrī
Acc.	tōtum	tōtam	tōtum	utrum	utram	utrum
Abl.	tōtō	tōtā	tōtō	utrō	utrā	utrō

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NOTE. In the Genitive ending -īus the ī is sometimes shortened in poetry, especially in **alterius** and, always, in **utriusque**. See **21**, note.

a. The adjectives declined in this way are :

alius, *other*	**sōlus**, *alone*	**alter**, *the other*
ūllus, *any*	**tōtus**, *whole*	**uter**, *which (of two)*
nūllus, *none*	**ūnus**, *one*	**neuter**, *neither*

b. The Nom.-Acc. Sing. Neut. of **alius** is **aliud**; the Genitive Singular is usually supplied by **alterīus**.

NOTE. Early and rare forms are **alis** and **alid**, for **alius** and **aliud**; also Dat. Sing. **alī** for **aliī**, and Gen. Sing. **alīus** and **aliī**.

c. The Dat. Sing. Fem. of **alter** is sometimes **alterae**.

ADJECTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION

113. Adjectives of the Third Declension are conveniently classified according to the number of endings in the Nominative Singular, namely, *one*, *two*, or *three*.

ADJECTIVES OF THREE ENDINGS

114.

	ācer, *sharp*					
	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	ācer	ācris	ācre	ācrēs	ācrēs	ācria
Gen.	ācris	ācris	ācris	ācrium	ācrium	ācrium
Dat.	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus
Acc.	ācrem	ācrem	ācre	ācrīs (-ēs)	ācrīs (-ēs)	ācria
Voc.	ācer	ācris	ācre	ācrēs	ācrēs	ācria
Abl.	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus

a. All adjectives of this type are from stems in -ri-, the Nom. Sing. Masc. becoming -er, as in Nouns like **imber** (**87**). But *some* stems in -ri-, as **fūnebris**, **muliebris**, **inlūstris**, etc., have the Nom. Sing. Masc. in -ris, and so belong in the next class.

Adjectives of Two Endings

115. **gravis**, *heavy*

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
Nom.	gravis	grave	gravēs	gravia
Gen.	gravis	gravis	gravium	gravium
Dat.	gravī	gravī	gravibus	gravibus
Acc.	gravem	grave	gravīs (-ēs)	gravia
Voc.	gravis	grave	gravēs	gravia
Abl.	gravī	gravī	gravibus	gravibus

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a. All adjectives of this type are i-Stems.

Comparatives

116. **melior**, *better*

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
Nom.	melior	melius	meliōrēs	meliōra
Gen.	meliōris	meliōris	meliōrum	meliōrum
Dat.	meliōrī	meliōrī	meliōribus	meliōribus
Acc.	meliōrem	melius	meliōrēs (-īs)	meliōra
Voc.	melior	melius	meliōrēs	meliōra
Abl.	meliōre	meliōre	meliōribus	meliōribus

a. The Comparatives are properly s-Stems, the s being preserved only in the Nom.-Acc. Sing. Neut. Compare **honor** (**honōs**), **honōris** (80, 4).

b. **Plūs**, *more*, in the Singular used only as a Neuter, has Gen. Plur. **plūrium**, but Nom.-Acc. Plur. Neut. **plūra** (but **complūria** beside **complūra**).

Adjectives of One Ending

(*Including Present Participles*)

117. **duplex**, *double*

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
Nom.	duplex	duplex	duplicēs	duplicia
Gen.	duplicis	duplicis	duplicium	duplicium
Dat.	duplicī	duplicī	duplicibus	duplicibus
Acc.	duplicem	duplex	duplicīs (-ēs)	duplicia
Voc.	duplex	duplex	duplicēs	duplicia
Abl.	duplicī	duplicī	duplicibus	duplicibus

amāns, *loving*

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
Nom.	amāns	amāns	amantēs	amantia
Gen.	amantis	amantis	amantium	amantium
Dat.	amantī	amantī	amantibus	amantibus
Acc.	amantem	amāns	amantīs (-ēs)	amantia
Voc.	amāns	amāns	amantēs	amantia
Abl.	amante (-ī)	amante (-ī)	amantibus	amantibus

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vetus, *old*

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	M., F.	N.	M., F.	N.
Nom.	vetus	vetus	veterēs	vetera
Gen.	veteris	veteris	veterum	veterum
Dat.	veterī	veterī	veteribus	veteribus
Acc.	veterem	vetus	veterēs	vetera
Voc.	vetus	vetus	veterēs	vetera
Abl.	vetere	vetere	veteribus	veteribus

a. These Adjectives are Consonant-Stems in origin, but, with the exception of **vetus** and a few others, they have taken on the characteristic **i**-Stem forms in the Plural, and for the most part in the Ablative Singular. For details, see **118**.

b. Of the various classes of Consonant-Stems the Mute-Stems are the most frequent. The union of the mute with the **s** of the Nom. Sing., and the changes in the stem between the Nom. Sing. and the other cases are in accordance with the statements given above for Nouns (**77**). So **duplex**, *double*, Gen. **duplicis**; **particeps**, *sharing*, Gen. **participis**; **dīves**, *rich*, Gen. **dīvitis**. Peculiar are the compounds of **caput**, as **anceps**, *two-headed*, Gen. **ancipitis**; **praeceps**, *headlong*, Gen. **praecipitis**.

There are also a few stems in **-l**, **-r**, and **-s**, as **vigil**, *watchful*, Gen. **vigilis**; **memor**, *mindful*, Gen. **memoris**; **pūbēs**, *grown up*, Gen. **pūberis**; **vetus**, *old*, etc.

Remarks on the Case-Forms

118. 1. Adjectives of the Third Declension have the **i**-Stem forms of the Ablative Singular, Genitive Plural, and Nominative and Accusative Plural Neuter, namely, **-ī**, **-ium**, **-ia**. But Comparatives have the Consonant-Stem forms, namely, **-e**, **-um**, **-a**. Present Participles have **-ium** and **-ia**, but the Ablative Singular in **-e**, unless used in an Adjective sense, when they usually have **-ī**; e.g. **eō praesente**, *in his presence*, but **praesentī tempore**, *at the present time*.

a. Exceptions:

1) Adjectives of Two or Three Endings. A Gen. Plur. in **-um** is regular in **celer**, *swift*, **volucris**, *flying*, occasional in **caelestis**, *heavenly*, **agrestis**, *rustic*, but rare elsewhere.

2) Adjectives of One Ending. An Abl. Sing. in **-e** and a Gen. Plur. in **-um** are regular in the following (Nom.-Acc. Plur. Neut. wanting in most):

* **caeles**, *heavenly*, Gen. **caelitis**	**pūbēs**, *grown up*
compos, *master of*	**impūbēs**, *under age*
particeps, *sharing*	**sōspes**, *safe*
pauper, *poor*	**superstes**, *remaining*
prīnceps, *chief*	**dīves**, *rich* (but **dītia**)
	vetus, *old* (also **vetera**)

A Gen. Plur. in **-um** is also regular in **inops**, *needy*, **memor**, *mindful*, **vigil**, *watchful*, and in compounds of **pēs**, *foot*, such as **bipēs**, **quadrupēs**.

3) In other Adjectives of One or Two Endings an Abl. Sing. in **-e** is occasionally found, chiefly in poetry; e.g. **grave**, **duplice**.
4) Comparatives. An Ablative in **-ī** is rare. For **plūs** see **116**, *b*.
5) Present Participles. A Gen. Plur. in **-um** is found in poetry.

2. Adjectives used substantively retain their usual forms, as Abl. **nātālī**, *birthday*. But when they are used as proper names the Ablative generally ends in **-e**, as **Iuvenāle**, **Quirīnāle**.

3. Participles used substantively retain their usual forms, as in **ā sapiente**, *by a wise man*.

4. The Acc. Plur. Masc. and Fem. had the regular i-Stem form **-īs**, and this was in general more persistently retained than in Nouns, although forms in **-ēs** are also found in the Augustan period. But the words which had the Gen. Plur. in **-um** had the Consonant-Stem form of the Acc. Plur., namely, **-ēs**, from the outset.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES[1]

119. There are three Degrees of Comparison, as in English, namely, the *Positive*, the *Comparative*, and the *Superlative*.

The Comparative is regularly formed by adding **-ior**, the Superlative by adding **-issimus**, to the stem of the Positive minus its final vowel, if it has one. The Declension of

[1] The Comparison of Adjectives is a matter belonging more properly to Word-Formation than to Inflection, but is conveniently treated in connection with the Declension of Adjectives.

Comparatives has been given (116). Superlatives are declined as Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions. Participles used as Adjectives are compared in the same manner. Examples of Comparison:

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POSITIVE	COMPARATIVE	SUPERLATIVE
clārus, *clear*	clārior, *clearer*	clārissimus, *clearest*
gravis, *heavy*	gravior, *heavier*	gravissimus, *heaviest*
audāx, *bold*	audācior, *bolder*	audācissimus, *boldest*
amāns, *loving*	amantior, *more loving*	amantissimus, *most loving*

120. 1. Adjectives in -er form the Superlative in -errimus, as if by adding -rimus to the -er. Examples:

asper, *rough*	asperior	asperrimus
celer, *swift*	celerior	celerrimus
ācer, *sharp*	ācrior	ācerrimus

a. So also vetus, Superlative veterrimus. The old Comparative veterior is replaced by vetustior, formed from vetustus. Mātūrus, *ripe*, has once a Superlative mātūrrimus, but usually mātūrissimus.

2. Certain adjectives in -ilis form the Superlative in -illimus, as if by adding -limus to the stem of the Positive minus its final vowel. Examples:

facilis, *easy*	facilior	facillimus
gracilis, *slender*	gracilior	gracillimus
humilis, *lowly*	humilior	humillimus
similis, *like*	similior	simillimus

a. So also difficilis, dissimilis. Other adjectives in -ilis are compared in the usual manner, as nōbilis, nōbilior, nōbilissimus. But many of them lack the Superlative.

NOTE. The stems of the Superlatives in -illimus and -errimus come from * -il-simo-, * -er-simo- (cf. -is-simo-), the s being assimilated to the preceding l or r (49, 11).

3. Adjective compounds in -volus, -dicus, -ficus have Comparatives and Superlatives which belong properly to compounds in -volēns, -dīcēns, -ficēns, of which, except in the case of -ficēns, examples occur in early Latin; e.g. benevolēns, maledīcēns. Examples:

benevolus, *benevolent*	benevolentior	benevolentissimus
maledicus, *slanderous*	maledīcentior	maledīcentissimus
magnificus, *eminent*	magnificentior	magnificentissimus

4. There are a few Superlatives in -mus, -imus, -timus, and -ēmus, which are cited in 122, 123. So sum-mus (* sup-mos; see 49, 10), min-imus, op-timus, supr-ēmus.

121. Many adjectives form the Comparative and Superlative by prefixing **magis**, *more*, and **maximē**, *most*, to the Positive. This is true of most adjectives in which the vowel of the stem is itself preceded by another vowel, and of many others. Examples:

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dubius, *doubtful*	Comp. **magis dubius**	Superl. **maximē dubius**
idōneus, *suitable*	Comp. **magis idōneus**	Superl. **maximē idōneus**

NOTE. Some adjectives are compared by means of **magis** and **maximē**, as well as by the usual method; e.g. **ēlegāns**, *select*, Comp. **ēlegantior** or **magis ēlegāns**, Superl. **ēlegantissimus** or **maximē ēlegāns**.

Peculiar or Defective Comparison

122. Several adjectives show two or three different stems in the three Degrees, or different forms of the same stem. Compare English *good*, *better*, *best*. Such are:

bonus, *good*	**melior**, *better*	**optimus**, *best*
malus, *bad*	**peior**, *worse*	**pessimus**, *worst*
magnus, *great*	**maior**, *greater*	**maximus**, *greatest*
multus, *much*	**plūs**, *more*	**plūrimus**, *most*
parvus, *small*	**minor**, *smaller*	**minimus**, *smallest*
nēquam (indecl.), *worthless*	**nēquior**	**nēquissimus**
frūgī (indecl.), *thrifty*	**frūgālior**	**frūgālissimus**
iuvenis, *young*	**iūnior** [**minor nātū**]	[**minimus nātū**]
senex, *old*	**senior** [**maior nātū**]	[**maximus nātū**]

123. In the case of some adjectives the Positive is wholly lacking, or is rare except in certain expressions. But the stem of the Positive often appears in adverbial or prepositional forms. Such are:

cis, citrā, *on this side*	**citerior**, *on this side*	**citimus**, *nearest*
uls, ultrā, *beyond*	**ulterior**, *farther*	**ultimus**, *farthest*
in, intrā, *within*	**interior**, *inner*	**intimus**, *innermost*
exterus (**nātiōnēs exterae**, *foreign nations*)	**exterior**, *outer*	{ **extrēmus**, **extimus**, } *outermost*
prope, *near*	**propior**, *nearer*	**proximus**, *nearest*
prae, prō, *before*	**prior**, *former*	**prīmus**, *first*
dē, *down*	**dēterior**, *worse*	**dēterrimus**, *worst*

——	potior, *preferable*	potissimus, *strongest*
——	ōcior, *swifter*	ōcissimus, *swiftest*
īnferus, *below*	īnferior, *lower*	{ īnfimus, / īmus, } *lowest*
superus, *above*	superior, *higher*	{ suprēmus, / summus, } *highest*
posterus, *following*	posterior, *later*	{ postrēmus, *last* / postumus, *late-born*

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a. The Comparative is wanting for **novus**, *new*, **sacer**, *sacred*, **pius**, *pious* (Superl. **piissimus**), and rare for **fīdus**, *faithful*, **falsus**, *false*, and others.

b. The Superlative is wanting for **iuvenis**, *young*, and **senex**, *old* (but see **122**), and for some others, including many adjectives in **-ilis**, **-bilis**.

ADVERBS

(Prepositions and Conjunctions)

124. Although Adverbs are not themselves capable of inflection, they are most conveniently treated at this point, because many of them are regularly formed from Nouns and Adjectives, and with endings which are identical with the Case-endings.

Note. It is believed that *all* Adverbs are, in their ultimate origin, nothing but stereotyped Case-forms. Some of them show endings which appear as Case-endings in related languages, but have become obsolete as such in Latin. Still others, especially among Adverbs formed from Pronominal Stems, show endings which even in the parent speech were used only in Adverbs, not as real Case-endings.

125. Prepositions and Conjunctions are Adverbs in origin, and some of them, which show the common adverbial formations, are cited among the examples of such formations. But many of them, including most of the commonest Prepositions, do not admit of any analysis or classification as regards *form*. They are, therefore, treated only as regards their *uses*, i.e. under the head of Syntax.

126. The common Adverbial endings are :

1. **-ē** (**-e**), as in **altē**, *highly*, from **altus**; **cārē**, *dearly*, from **cārus**; **male**, *badly*, from **malus**; **bene**, *well*, from **bonus**. This is the usual ending of Adverbs formed from Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions. For **ferē** and **fermē**, *nearly*, the Adjective forms are lacking.

   Note. This ending appears on early inscriptions as **-ēd**, which was once an Ablative ending of o-Stems existing beside that in **-ōd**, but has become obsolete in Latin, except in Adverbs. For the short **e** in **male** and **bene**, see **28**, note.

2. -ter, -iter, as in audācter, *boldly*, from audāx; graviter, *heavily*, from gravis; hūmāniter, *humanely*, from hūmānus. This is the usual ending of Adverbs formed from Adjectives of the Third Declension, but is not confined to these.

NOTE. This ending is probably the same as that seen in such Adverbs and Prepositions as inter, subter, etc., from which it was extended, but with a loss of its distinctly local force (a transition which might readily take place in such a word as circiter, *about*).

3. -ō (-o), as in tūtō, *safely*, from tūtus; prīmō, *at first*, from prīmus; cito, *quickly*, from citus; modo, *only*, from modus. So also the Pronominal Adverbs eō, quō, etc.; cf. also retrō, and, in composition only, contrō-.

NOTE. This is the Ablative ending, originally -ōd. For the short o in modo and cito, see 28, note.

4. -ā, as in dextrā, *on the right*, from dexter; aliā, *otherwise*, from alius; rēctā, *straightway*, from rēctus; and other Adverbs of place. So also the Pronominal Adverbs eā, quā, hāc, posteā, posthāc, etc., and Prepositions like extrā.

NOTE. This appears on early inscriptions as -ād, and is the Ablative ending of the Feminine (originally, perhaps, eā viā, etc.).

5. -tim (-sim), as in fūrtim, *secretly*, from fūr; prīvātim, *privately*, from prīvātus; cursim, *quickly*, etc.

NOTE. These adverbs originated in forms like partim, *partly*, from pars, in which -tim represents the Acc. Sing. of a stem in -ti-.

6. -um, as in multum, *much*, from multus; postrēmum, *finally*, from postrēmus; vērum, *but*, from vērus; cēterum, *for the rest*, from *cēterus. So also the Pronominal Adverbs tum, dum, cum, and the Preposition circum.

NOTE. This is the ending of the Acc. Sing. Neut. of o-Stems. The same Case is seen in the adverbs in -ius from Comparatives (see 128, note), and in a few forms in -e from i-Stems, as facile, *easily*, from facilis; also in the Conjunction quod. The Acc. Plur. Neut. is seen in the Conjunction quia.

7. -am, as in clam, *secretly*, palam, *openly*, cōram, *openly*. So the Pronominal Adverbs tam, iam, quam, etc.

NOTE. This is the ending of the Acc. Sing. Fem. The Acc. Plur. Fem. is seen in aliās, *at other times*, and forās, *out of doors*.

8. -tus, as in funditus, *from the bottom*, from fundus; intus, *from within*.

NOTE. This is an old suffix -tos, used also in related languages to denote source.

127. Other endings, used chiefly with Pronominal Stems, and mostly of obscure origin, are:

1. -nde, as in inde, *thence*, unde, *whence*.
2. -dem, as in tandem, *at last*, prīdem, *long ago*.
3. -dam, as in quondam, *once*.
4. -dum, as in dūdum, *a while ago*.
5. -dō, as in quandō, *when*.
6. -im, -inc, as in illim, illinc, *thence*, hinc, *hence*.
7. -īc, as in hīc, *here*, illīc, *there*. These are Locatives in -ī-c(e).
8. -bi (-bī), as in ibi, *there*, ubi, *where*.
9. -per, as in semper, *always*, nūper, *lately*.

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COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

128. In Comparison the Adverb follows the formation of the Adjective, except that the Comparative ends in **-ius**, and the Superlative in **-ē**. Examples:

altē, *highly*	altius, *more highly*	altissimē, *most highly*
audācter, *boldly*	audācius	audācissimē
ācriter, *fiercely*	ācrius	ācerrimē
facile, *easily*	facilius	facillimē
tūtō, *safely*	tūtius	tūtissimē

NOTE. The Comparative Adverb is simply the Acc. Sing. Neut. of the Comparative Adjective, used adverbially; the Superlative is formed from the Superlative Adjective with the regular adverbial ending -ē. Adverbs are also compared by prefixing magis and maximē.

Special Peculiarities

129. The following show two or three different stems in the three Degrees (like the corresponding Adjectives; see **122**), or are otherwise peculiar or defective.

bene, *well*	melius, *better*	optimē, *best*
male, *ill*	peius, *worse*	pessimē, *worst*
magnopere, multum, *greatly, much*	magis, *more*	maximē, *most*
multum, *much*	plūs, *more*	plūrimum, *most*
parum, *little*	minus, *less*	minimē, *least*
satis, *enough*	satius, *better*	——
——	potius, *rather*	potissimum, *especially*
——	prius, *before*	prīmum, *first*
nūper, *recently*	——	nūperrimē, *most recently*
saepe, *often*	saepius, *oftener*	saepissimē, *oftenest*
diū, *long*	diūtius, *longer*	diūtissimē, *longest*
prope, *near*	propius, *nearer*	proximē, *nearest, next*

NOTE. Sētius, *less*, is not related to secus, *otherwise*.

NUMERALS

CARDINALS AND ORDINALS

130. Cardinals answer the question "How many?" Ordinals, the question "Which in order?"

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	Cardinals	Ordinals	Roman Notation
1.	ūnus, *one*	prīmus, *first*	I
2.	duo, *two*	secundus, *second*	II
3.	trēs	tertius	III
4.	quattuor	quārtus	IIII *or* IV
5.	quīnque	quīntus	V
6.	sex	sextus	VI
7.	septem	septimus	VII
8.	octō	octāvus	VIII
9.	novem	nōnus	VIIII *or* IX
10.	decem	decimus	X
11.	ūndecim	ūndecimus	XI
12.	duodecim	duodecimus	XII
13.	tredecim	tertius decimus	XIII
14.	quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	XIIII *or* XIV
15.	quīndecim	quīntus decimus	XV
16.	sēdecim	sextus decimus	XVI.
17.	septendecim	septimus decimus	XVII
18.	duodēvīgintī	duodēvīcēnsimus	XVIII
19.	ūndēvīgintī	ūndēvīcēnsimus	XVIIII *or* XIX
20.	vīgintī	vīcēnsimus	XX
21.	vīgintī ūnus (ūnus et vīgintī)	vīcēnsimus prīmus (ūnus et vīcēnsimus)	XXI
22.	vīgintī duo (duo et vīgintī)	vīcēnsimus secundus (alter et vīcēnsimus)	XXII
30.	trīgintā	trīcēnsimus	XXX
40.	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēnsimus	XXXX *or* XL
50.	quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēnsimus	L
60.	sexāgintā	sexāgēnsimus	LX
70.	septuāgintā	septuāgēnsimus	LXX
80.	octōgintā	octōgēnsimus	LXXX
90.	nōnāgintā	nōnāgēnsimus	LXXXX *or* XC

	CARDINALS	ORDINALS	ROMAN NOTATION
100.	centum	centēnsimus	C
101.	centum (et) ūnus	centēnsimus prīmus	CI
120.	centum (et) vīgintī	centēnsimus vīcēnsimus	CXX
121.	centum vīgintī ūnus	centēnsimus vīcēnsimus prīmus	CXXI
200.	ducentī	ducentēnsimus	CC
300.	trecentī	trecentēnsimus	CCC
400.	quadringentī	quadringentēnsimus	CCCC
500.	quīngentī	quīngentēnsimus	D
600.	sescentī	sescentēnsimus	DC
700.	septingentī	septingentēnsimus	DCC
800.	octingentī	octingentēnsimus	DCCC
900.	nōngentī	nōngentēnsimus	DCCCC
1000.	mīlle	mīllēnsimus	(earlier CIↃ) M
1120.	mīlle centum vīgintī	mīllēnsimus centēnsimus vīcēnsimus	MCXX
1900.	mīlle nōngentī	mīllēnsimus nōngentēnsimus	MDCCCC
2000.	duo mīlia	bis mīllēnsimus	MM
10,000.	decem mīlia	deciēns mīllēnsimus	$\bar{X}$
100,000.	centum mīlia	centiēns mīllēnsimus	$\bar{C}$
1,000,000.	deciēns centēna mīlia	deciēns centiēns mīllēnsimus	$\overline{|X|}$

NOTE. For some of the numeral signs, other forms, not resembling Latin letters, were commonly used in inscriptions, especially in the early period. M for 1000 did not replace CIↃ until the second century A.D. For numbers like 4, 9, 14, etc., the method of notation by adding was commoner than the method by subtracting; so, for example, VIIII is usual, IX rare.

Declension of Cardinals and Ordinals

131. Both Cardinals and Ordinals are Adjectives, and the latter are declined like **bonus** (**110**). But of the Cardinals up to 100, only the first three are declined.

1. **Ūnus** is declined like **tōtus** (**112**).

2. **Duo** and **trēs** are declined as follows :

Nom.	duo	duae	duo	trēs	tria
Gen.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum	trium	trium
Dat.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus	tribus
Acc.	duōs (duo)	duās	duo	trīs (trēs)	tria
Abl.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus	tribus

NOTE. Like **duo** is declined **ambō, ambae, ambō**, *both*.

3. The plural of **mīlle** is **mīlia**, declined like **tria**. It is not an Adjective like **mīlle**, but a Substantive, and is followed by the Genitive; for example, **cum mīlle mīlitibus**, *with a thousand soldiers*, but **cum duōbus mīlibus mīlitum**, *with two thousand soldiers*.

4. The hundreds, **ducentī**, etc., are declined like the plural of **bonus**, but the Genitive ends in **-um**, not in **-ōrum**.

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NOTE. The older spelling **mīllia** was supplanted by **mīlia** in the first century A.D. The Ordinals like **vīcēnsimus** are also spelled **vīcēsimus**, etc.; but the spelling **-ēnsimus** is preferable (**52**, 5). An early spelling of **septimus** and **decimus** is **septumus** and **decumus** (**52**, 2).

Order of Words in Compound Numerals

132. 1. The method of making the compound numerals from 20 to 100 is the same as in English; just as we say either *twenty-one* or *one and twenty* (rarely twenty and one), so the Romans said **vīgintī ūnus** or **ūnus et vīgintī** (rarely **vīgintī et ūnus**).

2. The compound numerals from 100 on regularly begin with the largest number and descend to the smallest, just as in English. If there are only two numbers, **et** is sometimes used, sometimes not. But if there are more than two numbers **et** is never used. So **trecentī ūnus** or **trecentī et ūnus**, *301*, but **trecentī quadrāgintā ūnus**, *341*, and **mīlle ducentī trīgintā duo**, *1232*.

3. Compound numerals are sometimes used for the numbers 11–19, the large number usually preceding, as **decem et octō**.

DISTRIBUTIVES, MULTIPLICATIVES, AND NUMERAL ADVERBS

133. Distributives denote how many apiece, as **singulī**, *one apiece, one by one*. Multiplicatives denote how many fold, as **duplex**, *twofold, double*. Numeral Adverbs denote how many times, as **bis**, *twice*. The following is a partial list:

	DISTRIBUTIVES	MULTIPLICATIVES	NUMERAL ADVERBS
1.	singulī, *one apiece*	simplex, *simple*	semel, *once*
2.	bīnī, *two apiece*	duplex, *double*	bis, *twice*
3.	ternī (trīnī)	triplex	ter
4.	quaternī	quadruplex	quater
5.	quīnī	quīncuplex	quīnquiēns

DISTRIBUTIVES	MULTIPLICATIVES	NUMERAL ADVERBS
6. sēnī		sexiēns
7. septēnī	septemplex	septiēns
8. octōnī		octiēns
9. novēnī		noviēns
10. dēnī	decemplex	deciēns
11. ūndēnī		ūndeciēns
12. duodēnī		duodeciēns
13. ternīdēnī		terdeciēns
20. vīcēnī		vīciēns
21. vīcēnī singulī		semel et vīciēns
30. trīcēnī		trīciēns
100. centēnī	centuplex	centiēns
101. centēnī singulī		
200. ducēnī		ducentiēns
1000. singula mīlia		mīliēns

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a. For the use of Distributives in place of Cardinals, see under Syntax (**247**).

NOTE. The Numeral Adverbs **sexiēns**, etc., are also spelled **sexiēs**, etc., but the spelling **-iēns** is preferable (**52**, 5).

PRONOUNS

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

134. The Personal Pronouns of the First and Second Persons are declined as follows:

	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Nom.	ego, *I*	nōs, *we*	tū, *thou*	vōs, *you*
Gen.	meī	nostrum, nostrī	tuī	vestrum, vestrī
Dat.	mihi (mī)	nōbīs	tibi	vōbīs
Acc.	mē	nōs	tē	vōs
Voc.	——	——	tū	vōs
Abl.	mē	nōbīs	tē	vōbīs

a. Beside **mihi** and **tibi**, the old forms with final long **i** are frequent in poetry (**28**, note).

b. The Genitive Plural ends in **-um** or **-ī** according to the meaning. **Nostrum** and **vestrum** are used as Genitives of the Whole, **nostrī** and **vestrī**

as Objective Genitives. Early and late forms of **vestrum** and **vestrī** are **vostrum, vostrī.**

c. Old forms of the Genitive Singular are **mīs, tīs**; of the Accusative and Ablative Singular **mēd** and **tēd** (similarly **sēd**).

d. The particles **met** and **te** are added to the pronominal form for emphasis; **egomet**, *I myself*; **tūte**, *you yourself* (also **tūtemet**).

e. For the Third Person the Determinative Pronoun is (**137**) is used.

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REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

135. For the First and Second Person the ordinary forms of the Personal Pronoun are used with the reflexive sense, as **laudō mē**, *I praise myself*, **laudās tē**, *you praise yourself*, **laudāmus nōs**, *we praise ourselves*. For the Third Person there is a distinct Reflexive Pronoun, without distinction of gender or number, which is declined as follows:

Gen.	suī,	*of himself, herself, itself, themselves*				
Dat.	sibi,	*to*	"	"	"	"
Acc.	sē, sēsē,		"	"	"	"
Abl.	sē, sēsē,	*by*	"	"	"	"

a. Beside **sibi**, the old form with final long **i** is frequent in poetry (**28**, note).

POSSESSIVES

136. The Adjective forms of the Personal and Reflexive Pronouns are known as Possessives. They are:

meus, mea, meum, *my*;	noster, nostra, nostrum, *our*;
tuus, tua, tuum, *thy*;	vester, vestra, vestrum, *your*;

suus, sua, suum, *his, her, its, their.*

a. They are declined as regular Adjectives of the First and Second Declensions. But the Vocative Singular of **meus** is **mī**.

b. An early and late form of **vester, -tra, -trum** is **voster, -tra, -trum**.

c. The enclitic **-pte** is frequently added to the Ablative Singular for emphasis, as **meōpte ingeniō**, *by my own genius*; **suāpte nātūrā**, *by its own nature.*

d. **Suus** is used only in the reflexive sense, *his* (*her*, *their*, etc.) *own*. For the Possessive of the Third Person when not reflexive, the Genitive of **is** is used, as **eius** (*of him*, etc.), *his, her, its*; **eōrum, eārum**, *their.*

DETERMINATIVE–DESCRIPTIVE PRONOUNS

137. The Pronoun **is**, *this* (or *he*) or *such*, and its compound **īdem**, *the same*, are declined as follows:

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is

	M.	F.	N.
	SINGULAR		
Nom.	is	ea	id
Gen.	eius	eius	eius
Dat.	eī	eī	eī
Acc.	eum	eam	id
Abl.	eō	eā	eō
	PLURAL		
Nom.	iī (ī), eī	eae	ea
Gen.	eōrum	eārum	eōrum
Dat.	iīs (īs), eīs	iīs (īs), eīs	iīs (īs), eīs
Acc.	eōs	eās	ea
Abl.	iīs (īs), eīs	iīs (īs), eīs	iīs (īs), eīs

īdem

	M.	F.	N.
	SINGULAR		
Nom.	īdem	eadem	idem
Gen.	eiusdem	eiusdem	eiusdem
Dat.	eīdem	eīdem	eīdem
Acc.	eundem	eandem	idem
Abl.	eōdem	eādem	eōdem
	PLURAL		
Nom.	īdem (iīdem), eīdem	eaedem	eadem
Gen.	eōrundem	eārundem	eōrundem
Dat.	īsdem(iīsdem),eīsdem	īsdem(iīsdem),eīsdem	īsdem(iīsdem),eīsdem
Acc.	eōsdem	eāsdem	eāsdem
Abl.	īsdem(iīsdem),eīsdem	īsdem(iīsdem),eīsdem	īsdem(iīsdem),eīsdem

a. The Gen. Sing. eius was pronounced *ei-yus*, the first syllable containing a diphthong and being long for this reason (**29**, 2, *a*).

b. The Nom. Plur. Masc. and the Dat.–Abl. Plur. of is were oftenest *written* iī, iīs, but these were *pronounced*, and not infrequently written also, ī, īs. The forms eī, eīs are also frequent, but poetic usage shows that dissyllabic pronunciation was rare. The

same is true of the corresponding cases of **īdem**, except that **īdem** and **īsdem**, which represent the actual pronunciation, are also the commonest spellings.

c. The Dative Singular appears in early poetry as **ēī**, **eī**, or monosyllabic **ei**.

138. 1. **Hic**, *this* or *such*, and **ille**, *that* or *such*, are declined as follows:

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	SINGULAR					
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	hic	haec	hoc	ille	illa	illud
Gen.	huius	huius	huius	illīus	illīus	illīus
Dat.	huic	huic	huic	illī	illī	illī
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hoc	illum	illam	illud
Abl.	hōc	hāc	hōc	illō	illā	illō
	PLURAL					
Nom.	hī	hae	haec	illī	illae	illa
Gen.	hōrum	hārum	hōrum	illōrum	illārum	illōrum
Dat.	hīs	hīs	hīs	illīs	illīs	illīs
Acc.	hōs	hās	haec	illōs	illās	illa
Abl.	hīs	hīs	hīs	illīs	illīs	illīs

2. **Iste**, *that* or *such*, is declined like **ille**.

a. For **hic** and **hoc** as long syllables, see **30**, 2.

b. The Gen. Sing. **huius** was prononced *hui-yus*, the first syllable containing a diphthong and being long for this reason (**29**, 2, *a*); for the pronunciation of the Dat. Sing. **huic**, see **10**. The earlier forms **hoius** and **hoic** were still used in Cicero's time.

c. The particle **-c(e)**, always present in **hic**, **haec**, etc., is often added to other forms. Thus **huiusce**, **haec** (Nom. Plur. Fem.), **hōsce**, **hāsce**, **hīsce**, and, in early Latin, also **hōrunc**, **hārunc**. Similarly early Latin **illic** and **istic**, declined as follows (the Neuter forms **istuc** and **istaec** also used later):

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	illic	illaec	illuc		illaec	illaec
Gen.	illīusce	illīusce	illīusce			
Dat.	illīc	illīc	illīc	illīsce	illīsce	illīsce
Acc.	illunc	illanc	illuc	illōsce	illāsce	illaec
Abl.	illōc	illāc	illōc	illīsce	illīsce	illīsce

d. The interrogative particle **-ne** is sometimes added to forms in **-ce**, the e of the latter changing to **i** (**42**, 2); e.g. **hic(c)ine**, **haecine**, **hoc(c)ine**, etc. (So, too, the adverb **hīcine**, *in this place?* Cf. **sīcine**, *in this way?* similarly formed from **sīce**, the old form of **sīc**.)

e. Early Latin has a Nom. Plur. Masc. **hīsce.**

f. Some forms of early Latin olle or ollus, used like **ille**, occur also in later writers; e.g. Dat. Sing. **ollī**, Nom. Plur. Masc. **ollī**, Dat. Abl. Plur. **ollīs.**

The Intensive Pronoun

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139. The Intensive Pronoun **ipse**, *self*, is declined as follows:

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	ipse	ipsa	ipsum	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
Gen.	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsōrum	ipsārum	ipsōrum
Dat.	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Acc.	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa
Abl.	ipsō	ipsā	ipsō	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs

a. Early Latin has also Nom. Sing. Masc. ipsus. Note **ea-pse**, **eam-pse**, **eā-pse** (**reāpse**), etc.

THE RELATIVE PRONOUNS

140. The Relative Pronoun **quī**, *who*, is declined as follows:

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	quī	quae	quod	quī	quae	quae
Gen.	cuius	cuius	cuius	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
Dat.	cui	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc.	quem	quam	quod	quōs	quās	quae
Abl.	quō	quā	quō	quibus	quibus	quibus

a. The Gen. and Dat. Sing. **cuius** and **cui** were pronounced in the same manner as **huius** and **huic.** See above, **138**, *2, b.* The earlier forms **quoius** and **quoi** were still used in Cicero's time.

b. An Abl. Sing. **quī** in place of **quō**, **quā**, is frequent in the phrase **quīcum**, *with whom* or *with which.* The adverb **quī**, *whereby*, also used interrogatively, is of the same origin.

c. A Dat.–Abl. Plur. **quīs** in place of **quibus** is frequent.

d. Other Relatives are: **quīcumque**, *whoever*, with the **quī** declined as above; **quisquis**, *whoever*, with both parts declined like **quis** of the following paragraph (but only **quisquis**, **quidquid** or **quicquid** (**50**), and **quōquō** in common use); **uter**, *which of two*, the declension of which is given above (**112**), and **utercumque**, *whichever of two*, the first part of which is declined in the same way.

THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS

141. The Interrogative Pronoun, when used Substantively, is **quis**, *who?* When used Adjectively, it is **quī**, *what?* (e.g. **quī deus**, *what god?*). **Quī** is declined like the Relative. The declension of **quis**, differing from that of **quī** only in a few forms, is as follows:

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	SINGULAR		PLURAL		
	M., F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
Nom.	quis	quid	quī	quae	quae
Gen.	cuius	cuius	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
Dat.	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc.	quem	quid	quōs	quās	quae
Abl.	quō	quō	quibus	quibus	quibus

a. The distinction between the substantive and adjective forms is not always maintained; **quis** is sometimes used adjectively, and, *vice versa*, **quī** is sometimes used substantively (hence the Fem. **quae** also occurs substantively, although the proper substantive form is **quis** for both Masculine and Feminine).

b. Other Interrogatives are: **quisnam**, *who, pray?* with the Adjective form **quīnam**; **ecquis**, *any one?* Adjective **ecquī** (Nom. Sing. Fem. **ecquae** or **ecqua**); **uter**, *which of two?* declined in **112**.

NOTE. The stem is **quo-** in the Relative forms **quī** (earlier **quoī**) and **quod**, but **qui-** in the Interrogative forms **quis** and **quid**. The other forms, which are the same for both Relative and Interrogative, are from the stem **quo-**, except **quem** and **quibus**, which are from the stem **qui-** (**quem** like **fīnem**). But the **quī** of **quīcum** (**140**, *b*) is also from **qui-**, and, *vice versa*, Dat.–Abl. Plur. **quīs** for **quibus** is from **quo-**. A rare Nom. Plur. **quēs** (Interrog. and Indef.) is also from **qui-** (like **fīnēs**). A third stem **quu-**, belonging properly to adverbial formations, appears in the form **cu-** (cf. **quīncu-plex** from ***quīnquu-plex**) in **alicubi**, etc., and, with loss of the initial consonant, in **ubi**, **unde**, **ut**, and **uter**.

INDEFINITE AND DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS

142. The principal Indefinite Pronouns are **quis** (**quī**) and its various compounds. They are used both substantively and adjectively. In Substantive use the Neuter is **quid**, and, except in a few of the compounds, **quis** is used for both the Masculine and the Feminine gender; in the Adjective use the Neuter is **quod**, and **quī** and **quae** (or **qua**) are used for the Masculine and the Feminine gender.

	Used Substantively		Used Adjectively
1.	quis (quī), *any one*	quid, *anything*	quī (quis), quae *or* qua, quod, *any*

NOTE. For the Nom. Sing. Fem. and the Nom.–Acc. Plur. Neut., both **quae** and **qua** are used.

2.	aliquis (aliquī), *some one*	aliquid, *something*	aliquī (aliquis), aliqua, aliquod, *some*

NOTE. The Nom. Sing. Fem. nearly always, and the Nom.–Acc. Plur. Neut. always, is **aliqua**.

3.	quīdam, quaedam, *a certain one*	quiddam, *a certain thing*	quīdam, quaedam, quoddam, *a certain*

NOTE. As in the declension of **īdem**, **m** is changed to **n** before **d**; e.g. **quendam** (for * **quemdam**), **quandam**, etc.

4.	quispiam, *some one*	quippiam or quidpiam(**50**), *something*	quispiam, quaepiam, quodpiam, *some*
5.	quisquam, *any one at all*	quicquam, *anything at all*	quisquam, quicquam, *any* (rare)

NOTE. There is no Plural. The Adjective use is commonly supplied by **ūllus**.

6.	quisque, *each one*	quidque, *each thing*	quisque, quaeque, quodque, *each*
7.	ūnusquisque, *each one severally*	ūnumquidque, *each thing severally*	ūnusquisque, ūnaquaeque, ūnumquodque, *each severally*
8.	quīvīs, quaevīs, *any one whatever*	quidvīs, *anything whatever*	quīvīs, quaevīs, quodvīs, *any whatever*
9.	quīlibet, quaelibet, *any one*	quidlibet, *anything whatever*	quīlibet, quaelibet, quodlibet, *any whatever*

a. The following compounds of **uter** have the force of Indefinite or Distributive Pronouns, in both substantive and adjective use. For their declension, see **112**.

uterque, utraque, utrumque, *each of two*

utervīs, utravīs, utrumvīs, *either of two*

uterlibet, utralibet, utrumlibet, *either of two*

alteruter, alterutra or **altera utra, alterutrum** or **alterum utrum**, *one or the other*

NOTE. In **alteruter** sometimes both parts are declined, sometimes only the latter.

Pronominal Adjectives

143. Besides the Adjective forms of the Pronouns already given may be mentioned:

tālis, tāle, *such*

quālis, quāle, *such as* or *of what sort?*

tantus, tanta, tantum, *so great*

quantus, quanta, quantum, *so great as* or *how great?*

alius, alia, aliud, *another*

alter, altera, alterum, *the other*

neuter, neutra, neutrum, *neither of two*

ūllus, ūlla, ūllum, *any*

nūllus, nūlla, nūllum, *no one*

nōnnūllus, nōnnūlla, nōnnūllum, *some, many a*

NOTE. For the declension of the last six forms, see **112**.

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Correlatives

144. Adjectives and Adverbs which stand to each other in the relation of corresponding Determinative, Interrogative, Relative, and Indefinite words are called Correlatives. A partial list is:

Determinative	Relative	Interrogative	Indefinite
is, hic, etc., *this*	quī, *who*	quis, *who?*	aliquis, *any one*
tālis, *such*	quālis, *as*	quālis, *of what sort?*	
tantus, *so great*	quantus, *as great*	quantus, *how great?*	aliquantus, *somewhat*
tot, *so many*	quot, *as many*	quot, *how many?*	aliquot, *several*
ibi, *there*	ubi, *where*	ubi, *where?*	alicubi, *anywhere*
inde, *thence*	unde, *whence*	unde, *whence?*	alicunde, *from somewhere*
eō, *thither*	quō, *whither*	quō, *whither?*	aliquō, *to some place*
tum, *then*	cum, *when*	quandō, *when?*	aliquandō, *sometime*
totiēns, *so many times*	quotiēns, *as many times*	quotiēns, *how many times?*	aliquotiēns, *several times*

VERBS

145. The Inflection of Verbs, or Conjugation, comprises the variations in Voice, Mood, Tense, Number, and Person. There are:

Two Voices, — Active and Passive.

Some Verbs have only one Voice. Those which are mostly Passive in form but Active in meaning are known as Deponents.

Three Moods, — Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative.

Six Tenses, — Present, Imperfect, Future; Perfect, Past Perfect,[1] and Future Perfect.

Only the Indicative has all six Tenses. The Subjunctive lacks the Future and the Future Perfect. The Imperative has only the Present and the Future.

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Two Numbers, — Singular and Plural.

Three Persons, — First, Second, and Third.

146. The Indicative, Subjunctive, and Imperative forms make up what is known as the Finite Verb.

Besides these, the following Noun and Adjective forms have become a part of the Verb-System:

Verbal Nouns, — Infinitives (Present, Future, and Perfect of both Voices), the Supine, and the Gerund.

Verbal Adjectives, — Participles (Present and Future Active, Perfect Passive,[2] and Future Passive [2] or Gerundive).

THE THREE STEMS OF THE VERB

147. There are three principal Stems about which are grouped the various forms of the Verb.

NOTE 1. As, in declension, the Stem is the base to which the Case-endings are added, so, in Conjugation, the Stem of any given Tense is the base to which the Personal Endings are added. These stems, the formation of which, by means of suffixes known as Tense-Signs or Mood-Signs, is treated below (**166** ff.), are conveniently grouped under the three principal stems, as given above. Not all tenses of the Present System, for example, are actually formed directly from the Present Stem, but most of them are formed from stems which *contain* the Present Stem with certain fixed additions or substitutions.

NOTE 2. The part which is common to all three stems is known as the Verb-Stem, that is, the general stem of the verb. Thus in a verb like amō, amāre, amāvī, amātum, amā- is the Verb-Stem, as well as Present Stem. Often the only part which is common to all the stems is the monosyllabic element which is called the Root (see **203**, footnote), and in such cases we speak of the Root or the Root-Syllable rather than of the Verb-Stem. The Root occasionally varies in form, owing partly to regular phonetic change, partly to an original variation. Thus the root of canō is **can**, which has become **cin** in the Perfect cecinī (**42**, 1); the root of tegō is **teg**, but this had another form **tēg**, from which are formed Perf. tēxī, Partic. tēctus (**46**).

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[1] Commonly, and properly, so named in English grammars; commonly called Pluperfect in Latin grammars.

[2] The form commonly known as the Perfect Passive Participle is not always Perfect or always Passive. Similarly the term Future Passive Participle does not properly describe the functions of this form. See the Syntax.

A. The Present Stem, or stem of the Present System, which consists of:

1. The Present, Imperfect, and Future of all Moods and Voices in which they occur.
2. The Present Infinitive of both Voices.
3. The Present Active Participle.
4. The Future Passive Participle and the Gerund.

B. The Perfect Stem, or stem of the Perfect System (Active), which consists of:

1. The Perfect, Past Perfect, and Future Perfect, — of the Active Voice.
2. The Perfect Infinitive of the Active Voice.

C. The Participial Stem, or stem of:

1. The Perfect Passive Participle, from which is formed the Perfect Passive System, consisting of:
2. The Perfect, Past Perfect, Future Perfect, and the Perfect Infinitive, — of the Passive Voice.

From the same stem can also be determined, nearly always:

3. The Supine.
4. The Future Active Participle, from which is formed:
5. The Future Infinitive, — Active and Passive.

THE CONJUGATIONS

148. There are four regular types of Verb Inflection, known as the *Four Conjugations* and distinguished by the ending of the Present Stem. The Present Infinitive is chosen as a convenient characteristic of each Conjugation.

	Present Stem ends in:	*Infinitive:*
CONJUGATION I	ā	-āre
" II	ē	-ēre
" III	e or o[1]	-ere
" IV	ī	-īre

[1] This variable vowel, e or o, which also occurs in other tense-stems, is known as the Thematic Vowel. This term means really nothing more than Stem-Vowel, but has come to be applied to that particular stem-vowel which is, or was in the parent speech, the commonest in verb-formation. It is identical in form with the stem-vowel of Nouns

149. There are also some verbs the inflection of which does not conform to any of the Four Conjugations. Such are known as *Irregular Verbs*.

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THE PRINCIPAL PARTS

150. Certain forms of the verbs are known as the Principal Parts, because they furnish the key to the inflection of any given verb, showing, as they do, the Present Stem and thereby the Conjugation, and the Perfect and Participial Stems. These are:

1. *The Present Indicative Active*, cited in the First Person Singular.
2. *The Present Infinitive Active.*
3. *The Perfect Indicative Active*, cited in the First Person Singular.
4. *The Perfect Passive Participle*, cited in the Nominative Singular Neuter.[1]

So for example:

Pres. Indic.	Pres. Infin.	Perf. Indic.	Perf. Pass. Partic.
amō, *love*	**amāre**	**amāvī**	**amātum**

a. For verbs which lack the Perfect Passive Participle, the Supine, if occurring, is cited; e.g.:

Pres. Indic.	Pres. Infin.	Perf. Indic.	Supine.
maneō, *remain*	**manēre**	**mānsī**	**mānsum**

of the Second Declension, which is commonly **o** (hence the name o-Stems) but is sometimes e (e.g., in Latin, in the Vocative Singular, and in the variant form of the Ablative Singular which appears in the Adverbs in **-ē**; see **126**, 1, note).

Verb-formations which contain this variable vowel are called *thematic*, while those in which the endings are added directly to the root are known as *unthematic*. Such are many of the forms of the Irregular Verbs (**170**).

[1] This is preferred to the Nominative Singular Masculine, because of the large number of Verbs in which the Perfect Passive Participle occurs only in the Neuter form (i.e. is used only impersonally), and also because of the advantage of citing a form which is identical with that of the Supine. It is not essential for students, in learning the Principal Parts, to distinguish between Verbs which have the fully inflected Participle and those which have only the Neuter, and, again, those which have only the Supine. The reason for abandoning the older method, of always giving the Supine as the fourth of the Principal Parts, is that the Perfect Passive Participle is vastly more common than the Supine, and that upon it, rather than upon the Supine, is based the Perfect Passive System.

b. For verbs which lack both the Perfect Passive Participle and the Supine, the Future Active Participle, if occurring, is cited; e.g.:

Pres. Indic.	Pres. Infin.	Perf. Indic.	Fut. Act. Partic.
doleō, *grieve*	**dolēre**	**doluī**	**dolitūrus**

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c. For verbs which occur only as Passives or Deponents, the form of the Perfect Indicative answers for both the Perfect and Participial Stems; e.g.:

Pres. Indic.	Pres. Infin.	Perf. Indic.
mīror, *admire*	**mīrārī**	**mīrātus sum**

THE PERSONAL ENDINGS

151. The Personal Endings are:

	Active		Passive	
	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
1.	**-ō, -m**	**-mus**	**-r**	**-mur**
2.	**-s**	**-tis**	**-ris** or **-re**	**-minī**
3.	**-t**	**-nt**	**-tur**	**-ntur**

Note. In the Second Singular Passive, **-re** is the usual ending in early Latin, but yields more and more to **-ris**, which eventually becomes the normal ending. In some authors, as Cicero and Virgil, **-ris** is more common in the Present Indicative, but **-re** elsewhere.

a. The Perfect Indicative Active has different endings, namely:

	Singular	Plural
1.	**-ī**	**-mus**
2.	**-stī**	**-stis**
3.	**-t**	**-ērunt** or **-ēre**

Note. In the Third Plural, **-ērunt** is the usual ending, but **-ēre** is also very common. In poetry is also found **-erunt** with short **e**.

b. The endings of the Imperative are:

		Active		Passive	
		Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Pres.	2.	——	**-te**	**-re**	**-minī**
Fut.	2.	**-tō**	**-tōte**	**-tor**	——
	3.	**-tō**	**-ntō**	**-tor**	**-ntor**

Note. In early Latin there is a rare ending **-minō**, used in place of **-tor** in a few Deponents; e.g. **fruiminō**.

The Union of the Endings with the Stem

152. 1. If the stem to which the endings are added ends in the thematic vowel, originally e or o (see p. 80, footnote), this (1) appears as e before r, as in **tege-ris**; (2) unites with the ending of the First Person Singular to form -ō, as in **tegō**; (3) becomes u before nt (**44**, 1; **42**, 5), as in **tegunt, teguntur**; (4) becomes i before all other endings (**44**, 2; **42**, 2), as in **tegis, tegit, tegitur**, etc.

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2. If the stem to which the endings are added ends in a long vowel, this vowel is shortened before the endings **-m**, **-t**, **-nt**, and **-r**; e.g. **amat, amant**, beside **amās, amāmus, amātis**; **monet, monent**, beside **monēs**, etc.; **audit** beside **audīs**, etc. (but not * **audint**; **audiunt** is from * **audiont**, formed from a stem in **-io-**; see **169**, note); Pres. Subj. **amem** beside **amēs**, Pass. **amer** beside **amēris**. See **26**, 1, 2. Before the ending **-ō** of the First Singular the **ā** of the First Conjugation disappears by contraction, as in **amō**, from * **amāō**, while in the Second and Fourth Conjugations we find short e and short i, as in **moneō, audiō** (**167**, note; **169**, note).

NOTE. But before the ending **-t** the original forms with the long vowel are found in early Latin and in poetry; e.g. **arāt, vidēt**, etc. See **26**, note.

3. In the Perfect Indicative the endings beginning with a consonant are preceded by a short **i**; e.g. **amāvistī, amāvit, amāvimus**.

NOTE. In early Latin and in poetry there is also a Third Singular with long i (probably formed after the analogy of the First Singular); e.g. **subiīt**. The usual form with the short vowel is not derived from this (by shortening before **-t**), but represents a different formation.

CONJUGATION OF SUM

153. **Sum**, *be*, is one of the Irregular Verbs, but as an auxiliary it enters into the inflection of the regular verbs, and is therefore given first.

Principal Parts

PRES. INDIC.	INFIN.	PERF. INDIC.	FUT. PARTIC.
sum	**esse**	**fuī**	**futūrus**

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Present	
SINGULAR	
1. sum, *I am*	sim[1].
2. es, *thou art*	sīs
3. est, *he (she, it) is*	sit

[1] Any single translation of the Subjunctive is likely to be misleading. Accordingly none is given. For the different meanings, see the Syntax.

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
PLURAL	
1. sumus, *we are*	sīmus
2. estis, *you are*	sītis
3. sunt, *they are*	sint

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Imperfect

SINGULAR	
1. eram, *I was*	essem
2. erās, *thou wast*	essēs
3. erat, *he was*	esset
PLURAL	
1. erāmus, *we were*	essēmus
2. erātis, *you were*	essētis
3. erant, *they were*	essent

Future

SINGULAR
1. erō, *I shall be*
2. eris, *thou wilt be*
3. erit, *he will be*
PLURAL
1. erimus, *we shall be*
2. eritis, *you will be*
3. erunt, *they will be*

Perfect

SINGULAR	
1. fuī, *I have been, was*	fuerim
2. fuistī, *thou hast been, wast*	fuerīs
3. fuit, *he has been, was*	fuerit
PLURAL	
1. fuimus, *we have been, were*	fuerīmus
2. fuistis, *you have been, were*	fuerītis
3. fuērunt or -ēre, *they have been, were*	fuerint

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Past Perfect	
SINGULAR	
1. fueram, *I had been*	fuissem
2. fuerās, *thou hadst been*	fuissēs
3. fuerat, *he had been*	fuisset
PLURAL	
1. fuerāmus, *we had been*	fuissēmus
2. fuerātis, *you had been*	fuissētis
3. fuerant, *they had been*	fuissent

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Future Perfect

SINGULAR

1. fuerō, *I shall have been*
2. fueris, *thou wilt have been*
3. fuerit, *he will have been*

PLURAL

1. fuerimus, *we shall have been*
2. fueritis, *you will have been*
3. fuerint, *they will have been*

IMPERATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	2. es, *be thou*	2. este, *be ye*
Fut.	2. estō, *thou shalt be*	2. estōte, *you shall be*
	3. estō, *he shall be*	3. suntō, *they shall be*

INFINITIVE		PARTICIPLE	
Pres.	esse, *to be*	*Fut.*	futūrus, *about to be*
Perf.	fuisse, *to have been*		
Fut.	futūrus esse, *to be about to be*		

154. The following forms are sometimes found in place of those given in the paradigm :

1. Imperfect Subjunctive forem, forēs, foret, forent.
2. Future Infinitive fore.

3. Present Subjunctive (in early Latin) siem, siēs, siet, sient; also fuam, fuās, fuat, fuant.
4. For early Latin es (s) in the Present Indicative, see **30**, 3.
5. For early Latin fūī in the Perfect Indicative, see **21**, 7.

NOTE. The various forms of the verb sum are made from two different roots, one, es, related to English *is*, the other, fū, related to English *be*.

FIRST CONJUGATION

155. **amō**, *love*

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Principal Parts

PRES. INDIC.	PRES. INFIN.	PERF. INDIC.	PERF. PASS. PARTIC.
amō	**amāre**	**amāvī**	**amātum**

Active Voice

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Present	
amō, *I love*	amem
amās	amēs
amat	amet
amāmus	amēmus
amātis	amētis
amant	ament
Imperfect	
amābam, *I was loving*	amārem
amābās	amārēs
amābat	amāret
amābāmus	amārēmus
amābātis	amārētis
amābant	amārent
Future	
amābō, *I shall love*	
amābis	
amābit	
amābimus	
amābitis	
amābunt	
Perfect	
amāvī, *I have loved, loved*	amāverim
amāvistī	amāverīs
amāvit	amāverit
amāvimus	amāverīmus
amāvistis	amāverītis
amāvērunt or -ēre	amāverint

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Past Perfect	
amāveram, *I had loved*	amāvissem
amāverās	amāvissēs
amāverat	amāvisset
amāverāmus	amāvissēmus
amāverātis	amāvissētis
amāverant	amāvissent
Future Perfect	
amāverō, *I shall have loved*	
amāveris	
amāverit	
amāverimus	
amāveritis	
amāverint	

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IMPERATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	amā, *love thou*	amāte
Fut.	amātō, *thou shalt love*	amātōte
	amātō, *he shall love*	amantō

INFINITIVE		PARTICIPLE	
Pres.	amāre, *to love*	*Pres.*	amāns, *loving*
Perf.	amāvisse, *to have loved*	*Fut.*	amātūrus, *about to love*
Fut.	amātūrus esse, *to be about to love*		

	GERUND	SUPINE
Gen.	amandī, *of loving*	
Dat.	amandō, *for loving*	
Acc.	amandum, *loving*	amātum, *to love*
Abl.	amandō, *by loving*	amātū, *to love*

Passive Voice

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Present	
amor, *I am loved*	amer
amāris or -re	amēris or -re
amātur	amētur
amāmur	amēmur
amāminī	amēminī
amantur	amentur

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Imperfect	
amābar, *I was loved*	amārer
amābāris or -re	amārēris or -re
amābātur	amārētur
amābāmur	amārēmur
amābāminī	amārēminī
amābantur	amārentur
Future	
amābor, *I shall be loved*	
amāberis or -re	
amābitur	
amābimur	
amābiminī	
amābuntur	
Perfect	
amātus sum, *I have been (was) loved*	amātus sim
amātus es	amātus sīs
amātus est	amātus sit
amātī sumus	amātī sīmus
amātī estis	amātī sītis
amātī sunt	amātī sint
Past Perfect	
amātus eram, *I had been loved*	amātus essem
amātus erās	amātus essēs
amātus erat	amātus esset
amātī erāmus	amātī essēmus
amātī erātis	amātī essētis
amātī erant	amātī essent
Future Perfect	
amātus erō, *I shall have been loved*	
amātus eris	
amātus erit	
amātī erimus	
amātī eritis	
amātī erunt	

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IMPERATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	amāre, *be loved*	amāminī
Fut.	amātor, *thou shalt be loved*	amantor
	amātor, *he shall be loved*	

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INFINITIVE		PARTICIPLE	
Pres.	amārī, *to be loved*	*Perf.*	amātus, *loved*
Perf.	amātus esse, *to have been loved*	*Fut.*	amandus, *to be loved, worthy of love*
Fut.	amātum īrī, *to be about to be loved*		

SECOND CONJUGATION

156. **moneō**, *advise*

Principal Parts

moneō	**monēre**	**monuī**	**monitum**

ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
	Present		
moneō	moneam	moneor	monear
monēs	moneās	monēris, -re	moneāris, -re
monet	moneat	monētur	moneātur
monēmus	moneāmus	monēmur	moneāmur
monētis	moneātis	monēminī	moneāminī
monent	moneant	monentur	moneantur
	Imperfect		
monēbam	monērem	monēbar	monērer
monēbās	monērēs	monēbāris, -re	monērēris, -re
monēbat	monēret	monēbātur	monērētur
monēbāmus	monērēmus	monēbāmur	monērēmur
monēbātis	monērētis	monēbāminī	monērēminī
monēbant	monērent	monēbantur	monērentur

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE

Future

monēbō		monēbor	
monēbis		monēberis, -re	
monēbit		monēbitur	
monēbimus		monēbimur	
monēbitis		monēbiminī	
monēbunt		monēbuntur	

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Perfect

monuī	monuerim	monitus	sum	monitus	sim
monuistī	monuerīs	monitus	es	monitus	sīs
monuit	monuerit	monitus	est	monitus	sit
monuimus	monuerīmus	monitī	sumus	monitī	sīmus
monuistis	monuerītis	monitī	estis	monitī	sītis
monuērunt, -ēre	monuerint	monitī	sunt	monitī	sint

Past Perfect

monueram	monuissem	monitus	eram	monitus	essem
monuerās	monuissēs	monitus	erās	monitus	essēs
monuerat	monuisset	monitus	erat	monitus	esset
monuerāmus	monuissēmus	monitī	erāmus	monitī	essēmus
monuerātis	monuissētis	monitī	erātis	monitī	essētis
monuerant	monuissent	monitī	erant	monitī	essent

Future Perfect

monuerō		monitus erō	
monueris		monitus eris	
monuerit		monitus erit	
monuerimus		monitī erimus	
monueritis		monitī eritis	
monuerint		monitī erunt	

IMPERATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	monē	monēte	monēre	monēminī
Fut.	monētō	monētōte	monētor	
	monētō	monentō	monētor	monentor

	INFINITIVE	
Pres.	monēre	monērī
Perf.	monuisse	monitus esse
Fut.	monitūrus esse	monitum īrī

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	PARTICIPLE		
Pres.	monēus	*Perf.*	monitus
Fut.	monitūrus	*Fut.*	monendus

	GERUND	SUPINE
Gen.	monendī	
Dat.	monendō	
Acc.	monendum	monitum
Abl.	monendō	monitū

THIRD CONJUGATION

157. tegō, *cover*

Principal Parts

tegō	tegere	tēxī	tēctum

ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
	Present		
tegō	tegam	tegor	tegar
tegis	tegās	tegeris, -re	tegāris, -re
tegit	tegat	tegitur	tegātur
tegimus	tegāmus	tegimur	tegāmur
tegitis	tegātis	tegiminī	tegāminī
tegunt	tegant	teguntur	tegantur
	Imperfect		
tegēbam	tegerem	tegēbar	tegerer
tegēbās	tegerēs	tegēbāris, -re	tegerēris, -re
tegēbat	tegeret	tegēbātur	tegerētur
tegēbāmus	tegerēmus	tegēbāmur	tegerēmur
tegēbātis	tegerētis	tegēbāminī	tegerēminī
tegēbant	tegerent	tegēbantur	tegerentur

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE

Future

tegam		tegar	
tegēs		tegēris, -re	
teget		tegētur	
tegēmus		tegēmur	
tegētis		tegēminī	
tegent		tegentur	

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Perfect

tēxī	tēxerim	tēctus sum	tēctus sim
tēxistī	tēxerīs	tēctus es	tēctus sīs
tēxit	tēxerit	tēctus est	tēctus sit
tēximus	tēxerīmus	tēctī sumus	tēctī sīmus
tēxistis	tēxerītis	tēctī estis	tēctī sītis
tēxērunt, -ēre	tēxerint	tēctī sunt	tēctī sint

Past Perfect

tēxeram	tēxissem	tēctus eram	tēctus essem
tēxerās	tēxissēs	tēctus erās	tēctus essēs
tēxerat	tēxisset	tēctus erat	tēctus esset
tēxerāmus	tēxissēmus	tēctī erāmus	tēctī essēmus
tēxerātis	tēxissētis	tēctī erātis	tēctī essētis
tēxerant	tēxissent	tēctī erant	tēctī essent

Future Perfect

tēxerō	tēctus erō
tēxeris	tēctus eris
tēxerit	tēctus erit
tēxerimus	tēctī erimus
tēxeritis	tēctī eritis
tēxerint	tēctī erunt

IMPERATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	tege	tegite	tegere	tegiminī
Fut.	tegitō	tegitōte	tegitor	
	tegitō	teguntō	tegitor	teguntor

INFINITIVE

Pres.	tegere	tegī
Perf.	tēxisse	tēctus esse
Fut.	tēctūrus esse	tēctum īrī

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PARTICIPLE

Pres.	tegēns	*Perf.*	tēctus
Fut.	tēctūrus	*Fut.*	tegendus

	GERUND	SUPINE
Gen.	tegendī	
Dat.	tegendō	
Acc.	tegendum	tēctum
Abl.	tegendō	tēctū

Verbs in -iō of the Third Conjugation

158. Verbs in **-iō** of the Third Conjugation have in the Present System many forms identical with those of the Fourth Conjugation, namely, all those in which **i** is followed by a vowel.

capiō, *take*

Principal Parts

capiō	**capere**	**cēpī**	**captum**

ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
		Present	
capiō	capiam	capior	capiar
capis	capiās	caperis, -re	capiāris, -re
capit	capiat	capitur	capiātur
capimus	capiāmus	capimur	capiāmur
capitis	capiātis	capiminī	capiāminī
capiunt	capiant	capiuntur	capiantur

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
		Imperfect	
capiēbam [1]	caperem	capiēbar	caperer
		Future	
capiam		capiar	
		Perfect	
cēpī	cēperim	captus sum	captus sim
		Past Perfect	
cēperam	cēpissem	captus eram	captus essem
		Future Perfect	
cēperō		captus erō	

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IMPERATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	cape	capite	capere	capiminī
Fut.	capitō	capitōte	capitor	
	capitō	capiuntō	capitor	capiuntor

INFINITIVE

Pres.	capere	capī
Perf.	cēpisse	captus esse
Fut.	captūrus esse	captum īrī

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	capiēns	*Perf.*	captus
Fut.	captūrus	*Fut.*	capiendus

	GERUND	SUPINE
Gen.	capiendī	
Dat.	capiendō	
Acc.	capiendum	captum
Abl.	capiendō	captū

[1] That is, capiēbam, capiēbās, capiēbat, etc. So elsewhere.

FOURTH CONJUGATION

159. **audiō**, *hear*

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Principal Parts

audiō	**audīre**	**audīvī**	**audītum**

ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
		Present	
audiō	audiam	audior	audiar
audīs	audiās	audīris, -re	audiāris, -re
audit	audiat	audītur	audiātur
audīmus	audiāmus	audīmur	audiāmur
audītis	audiātis	audīminī	audiāminī
audiunt	audiant	audiuntur	audiantur
		Imperfect	
audiēbam	audīrem	audiēbar	audīrer
audiēbās	audīrēs	audiēbāris, -re	audīrēris, -re
audiēbat	audīret	audiēbātur	audīrētur
audiēbāmus	audīrēmus	audiēbāmur	audīrēmur
audiēbātis	audīrētis	audiēbāminī	audīrēminī
audiēbant	audīrent	audiēbantur	audīrentur
		Future	
audiam		audiar	
audiēs		audiēris, -re	
audiet		audiētur	
audiēmus		audiēmur	
audiētis		audiēminī	
audient		audientur	
		Perfect	
audīvī	audīverim	audītus sum	audītus sim
audīvistī	audīverīs	audītus es	audītus sīs
audīvit	audīverit	audītus est	audītus sit
audīvimus	audīverīmus	audītī sumus	audītī sīmus
audīvistis	audīverītis	audītī estis	audītī sītis
audīvērunt, -ēre	audīverint	audītī sunt	audītī sint

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE

Past Perfect

audīveram	audīvissem	audītus eram	audītus essem
audīverās	audīvissēs	audītus erās	audītus essēs
audīverat	audīvisset	audītus erat	audītus esset
audīverāmus	audīvissēmus	audītī erāmus	audītī essēmus
audīverātis	audīvissētis	audītī erātis	audītī essētis
audīverant	audīvissent	audītī erant	audītī essent

Future Perfect

audīverō	audītus erō
audīveris	audītus eris
audīverit	audītus erit
audīverimus	audītī erimus
audīveritis	audītī eritis
audīverint	audītī erunt

IMPERATIVE

	SINGULAR	PLURAL	SINGULAR	PLURAL
Pres.	audī	audīte	audīre	audīminī
Fut.	audītō	audītōte	audītor	
	audītō	audiuntō	audītor	audiuntor

INFINITIVE

Pres.	audīre	audīrī
Perf.	audīvisse	audītus esse
Fut.	audītūrus esse	audītum īrī

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	audiēns	*Perf.*	audītus
Fut.	audītūrus	*Fut.*	audiendus

	GERUND	SUPINE
Gen.	audiendī	
Dat.	audiendō	
Acc.	audiendum	audītum
Abl.	audiendō	audītū

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DEPONENT VERBS

160. Deponent Verbs[1] are mostly Passive in form but Active in meaning. In addition to the Passive forms, they have also the Present and Future Participles Active, the Future Infinitive Active, and the Supine. The Future Passive Participle, and occasionally the Perfect Participle, are Passive in meaning. The inflection follows that of the regular Conjugations. Examples:

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Principal Parts

CONJUGATION I	mīror, *admire*	mīrārī	mīrātus sum
" II	vereor, *fear*	verērī	veritus sum
" III	sequor, *follow*	sequī	secūtus sum
" IV	partior, *share*	partīrī	partītus sum

INDICATIVE

	I	II	III	IV
Pres.	mīror	vereor	sequor	partior
	mīrāris, -re	verēris, -re	sequeris, -re	partīris, -re
	mīrātur	verētur	sequitur	partītur
	mīrāmur	verēmur	sequimur	partīmur
	mīrāminī	verēminī	sequiminī	partīminī
	mīrantur	verentur	sequuntur	partiuntur
Imperf.	mīrābar	verēbar	sequēbar	partiēbar
Fut.	mīrābor	verēbor	sequar	partiar
Perf.	mīrātus sum	veritus sum	secūtus sum	partītus sum
Past Perf.	mīrātus eram	veritus eram	secūtus eram	partītus eram
Fut. Perf.	mīrātus erō	veritus erō	secūtus erō	partītus erō

SUBJUNCTIVE

Pres.	mīrer	verear	sequar	partiar
Imperf.	mīrārer	verērer	sequerer	partīrer
Perf.	mīrātus sim	veritus sim	secūtus sim	partītus sim
Past Perf.	mīrātus essem	veritus essem	secūtus essem	partītus essem

[1] For many verbs ordinarily Deponent, early Latin shows Active forms.

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	mīrāre	verēre	sequere	partīre
Fut.	mīrātor	verētor	sequitor	partītor

INFINITIVE

Pres.	mīrārī	verērī	sequī	partīrī
Perf.	mīrātus esse	veritus esse	secūtus esse	partītus esse
Fut.	mīrātūrus esse	veritūrus esse	secūtūrus esse	partītūrus esse

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PARTICIPLE

Pres. Act.	mīrāns	verēns	sequēns	partiēns
Fut. Act.	mīrātūrus	veritūrus	secūtūrus	partītūrus
Perf. Pass.	mīrātus	veritus	secūtus	partītus
Fut. Pass.	mīrandus	verendus	sequendus	partiendus

GERUND

mīrandī, etc.	verendī, etc.	sequendī, etc.	partiendī, etc.

SUPINE

mīrātum, -tū	veritum, -tū	secūtum, -tū	partītum, -tū

Semi-Deponents

161. Semi-Deponents are verbs of which the Perfect System is Passive in form but Active in meaning, such as:

audeō, *dare*,	audēre	ausus sum
gaudeō, *rejoice*,	gaudēre	gāvīsus sum
soleō, *am wont*,	solēre	solitus sum
fīdō, *trust*,	fīdere	fīsus sum

Note. Some verbs, otherwise regular, have a Perfect Passive Participle with active meaning. So cēnātus, *having dined*, from cēnō, *dine;* iūrātus, *having sworn*, from iūrō, *swear;* prānsus, *having breakfasted*, from prandeō, *breakfast;* pōtus, *having drunk*, from pōtō, *drink*.

PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION

162. The Periphrastic Conjugation[1] is a combination of the Future Active or Future Passive Participle with the verb sum.

[1] That is, a Conjugation in which all the parts are expressed by a phrase rather than by a single form. *Some* parts of the Regular Conjugations are also periphrastic, as amātus sum.

ACTIVE

Amātūrus sum, *I am about to love*

	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Pres.	amātūrus sum, *I am about to love*	amātūrus sim
Imperf.	amātūrus eram, *I was about to love*	amātūrus essem
Fut.	amātūrus erō, *I shall be about to love*	
Perf.	amātūrus fuī, *I have been, was, about to love*	amātūrus fuerim
Past Perf.	amātūrus fueram, *I had been about to love*	amātūrus fuissem
Fut. Perf.	amātūrus fuerō, *I shall have been about to love*	

INFINITIVE

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

PASSIVE

Amandus sum, *I (am to be loved) have to be loved*

	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Pres.	amandus sum, *I have to be loved*	amandus sim
Imperf.	amandus eram, *I had to be loved*	amandus essem
Fut.	amandus erō, *I shall have to be loved*	
Perf.	amandus fuī, *I have had to be loved*	amandus fuerim
Past Perf.	amandus fueram, *I had had to be loved*	amandus fuissem
Fut. Perf.	amandus fuerō, *I shall have had to be loved*	

INFINITIVE

Pres.	amandus esse, *to have to be loved*
Perf.	amandus fuisse, *to have had to be loved*

PECULIARITIES IN CONJUGATION

Short Forms of the Perfect System

163. 1. Perfects in **-āvī** and **-ēvī**, as well as the other tenses formed from the same stem, have a series of shortened forms in which the **v**, together with the following vowel,

is lost before s and r. Perfects in **-īvī** also have forms without the **v**, but the vowel is lost only before **s**, not before r. The two sets of forms may be seen in the following[1]:

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Full Forms			Shortened Forms		
Perfect Indicative					
amāvistī,	dēlēvistī,	audīvistī	amāstī,	dēlēstī,	audīstī
amāvistis,	dēlēvistis,	audīvistis	amāstis,	dēlēstis,	audīstis
amāvērunt,	dēlēvērunt,	audīvērunt	amārunt,	dēlērunt,	audiērunt
Past Perfect Indicative					
amāveram,[2]	dēlēveram,	audīveram	amāram,	dēlēram,	audieram
Future Perfect Indicative					
amāverō,	dēlēverō,	audīverō	amārō,	dēlērō,	audierō
Perfect Subjunctive					
amāverim,	dēlēverim,	audīverim	amārim,	dēlērim,	audierim
Past Perfect Subjunctive					
amāvissem,	dēlēvissem,	audīvissem	amāssem,	dēlēssem,	audīssem
Perfect Infinitive					
amāvisse,	dēlēvisse,	audīvisse	amāsse,	dēlēsse,	audīsse

2. Similarly from **nōvī**: nōvistī, — **nōstī**; nōvēram, — **nōram**; nōvisse, — **nōsse**, etc. (but Fut. Perf. **nōrō** only in compounds).

3. Beside Perfects in **-īvī** are sometimes found, in the First and Third Singular, forms in **-iī**, **-iit**, as **audiī**, **audiit**; and, rarely, a similar First Plural form, such as **audiimus**. A contracted form **audīt** from **audīvit** also occurs.

Note. It is probable that neither the forms like **audiī**, nor those like **audieram**, mentioned above, really come from the forms with **v**. They seem, rather, to have started from Perfects which were regularly formed without **v**, especially the Perfect of **eō**, *go*, and its compounds, e.g. **iī**, **abiī**, etc. (**194**, *a*). On the other hand, forms like **audīstī**, **audīssem**, etc., and all the short forms of Perfects in **-āvī** and **-ēvī**, are the result of contraction.

4. Perfects in **-sī** and the other tenses formed from the same stem sometimes have contracted forms, beside the full forms, wherever the **s** is itself followed by **-is-** in the ending; e.g. **dīxtī** beside **dīxistī**; **dīxem** beside **dīxissem**; **dīxe** beside **dīxisse**. Such forms are more frequent in early Latin, but are also found in later authors.

[1] The student should observe that in the shortened forms the vowel before **s** is always long, and also that before **r**, except in forms like **audieram**, etc., in which both **i** and **e** are short.

[2] That is, **amāveram**, **amāverās**, **amāverat**, etc. Similarly elsewhere.

5. In the Future Perfect Indicative and the Perfect Subjunctive early Latin has forms in -sō and -sim (-ssō and -ssim); e.g. faxō and faxim from faciō; ausim from audeō; capsō from capiō; axim from agō; Perf. Subj. sīrīs, sīrit, etc., from sinō (sīrīs from * sī-sīs; see 47); amāssō, negāssim (also Infin., as reconciliāssere).

Faxō, faxim, ausim, and, rarely, sīrīs occur also in later authors.

Other Peculiarities

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164. 1. The Imperatives of dīcō, dūcō, and faciō are dīc, dūc, and fac, instead of dīce, dūce, and face, though in early Latin the latter are more frequent. The same is true of compounds of dīcō and dūcō; e.g. maledĭc, ēdūc (for the accent, see 32, 1); but in compounds of faciō only the full form is known; e.g. calfáce. Cf. also fer, cŏnfer from ferō (193).

2. The Future Passive Participle and the Gerund of the Third and Fourth Conjugations often end in -undus and -undī; e.g. ferundus, faciundus, potiundī.

3. The Present Infinitive Passive has an early and poetical form in -ier; e.g. laudārier, vidērier, dīcier.

4. The Imperfect Indicative of the Fourth Conjugation has an old form in -ībam, found in poetry of all periods; e.g. lēnībat, polībant.

5. The Future of the Fourth Conjugation has an early form in -ībō; e.g. audībō, dormībō.

6. There is some confusion in the Second Singular and First and Second Plural between the Future Perfect Indicative, which regularly has short i in these forms, and the Perfect Subjunctive, which regularly has long ī. In the former -īs is nearly as common as the normal -is, and -īmus, -ītis are also found; while in the latter -is is frequent beside -īs, and -imus occurs once for -īmus. See 174, 2, 175, *b*.

7. In the Future Active Infinitive and the Perfect Passive Infinitive, esse is often omitted; e.g. amātūrus for amātūrus esse; amātus for amātus esse.

8. In the Perfect Passive System the auxiliary is sometimes a form of the Perfect System of sum, instead of the usual form of the Present System; e.g. amātus fuit for amātus est, amātus fuerat for amātus erat, etc. The form amātus fuerō, etc., also occurs, but more rarely.

Variation between Conjugations

165. 1. Some verbs in -ior which in general follow the Third Conjugation have also forms with ī. So orior has usually oritur (but adorītur), but orīrētur beside orerētur, and always Infinitive orīrī; potior has nearly always potitur, but potīrētur beside poterētur, and nearly always potīrī; morior has moritur, but sometimes Infinitive morīrī (chiefly in early Latin) beside morī. Other examples are rare.

2. Beside lavō, *wash*, lavāre, there are also forms of the Third Conjugation, as lavit, lavimus, etc. Other examples of variation between the First and Third Conjugations, and also between the Second and Third, are mostly confined to early Latin.

FORMATION OF THE STEMS

The Present Stem

166. Conjugation I. — Present Stem in **-ā-**.

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1. Most verbs of the First Conjugation are Denominatives,[1] as **cūrō**, *care for*, **cūrāre**, from the Noun **cūra**, *care*. See **211**, 1. The Present Stem is also the Verb-Stem, the **ā** appearing in the Perfect and Participial Stems; e.g. **cūrāvī**, **cūrātum**.

2. The Frequentatives, like **rogitō**, *keep asking*, **rogitāre**, are also Denominative in origin, and form a large class. See **212**, 1.

3. There are also a few Primary Verbs[1] from roots ending in **ā**, as **nō**, *swim*, **nāre** (Perf. **nāvī**), **stō**, *stand*, **stāre** (**stetī**).

4. There are a few Primary Verbs in which the **ā** belongs only to the Present Stem, as **iuvō**, *aid*, **iuvāre** (but **iūvī**, **iūtum**); **secō**, *cut*, **secāre** (but **secuī**, **sectum**).

NOTE. The Present Stem of the Denominatives was originally *-ā-yo-* and *-ā-ye-* (**211**, note), which became *-ā-*, partly by loss of *y* and contraction, partly through the influence of Primary Verbs having the stem in original *-ā-*.

167. Conjugation II. — Present Stem in **-ē-**.

1. In most verbs the **ē** is confined to the Present System. We may further distinguish .

a) Primary Verbs, as **videō**, *see*, **vidēre** (**vīdī**, **vīsum**).
b) Causatives, as **moneō**, *cause to think*, *advise*, **monēre** (**monuī**, **monitum**), from the root men seen in **me-min-ī**, *remember*.
c) Denominatives, as **albeō**, *be white*, **albēre**, from **albus**, *white*.

2. There are some Primary Verbs from roots ending in **ē**. In these the **ē** belongs to the whole verb-system. So **fleō**, *weep*, **flēre**, **flēvī**, **flētum**. Similarly **neō**, *spin*, **pleō**, *fill*, etc.

NOTE. The Present Stem of the Denominatives was originally *-e-yo-* and *-e-ye-* (**211**, note; the Causatives also had *-eyo-* and *-eye-*). The latter became regularly **-ē-**, and, aided also by the influence of Primary Verbs having the stem in original **-ē-**, this became established as the Present Stem for most forms. But the First Sing. Pres. Indic. in **-eō** and the Present Subj. in **-eam**, etc., are based upon the stem *-e(y)o-*, the *y* being lost, but without contraction of the vowels.

168. Conjugation III. — Present Stem in **-e-** and **-o-**, the thematic vowel.[2] Various types are to be distinguished:

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[1] The term Denominative (from **dē** and **nōmen**) is used of Verbs which are derived from Nouns or Adjectives. In contrast to these are the Primary Verbs, which are formed directly from Roots.

[2] See p. 76, footnote.

A. Simple Thematic Present, as **dūcō**, *lead* (**dūxī**, **ductum**). The Present Stem consists simply of the root with the thematic vowel. This is by far the commonest type.

B. Reduplicated Present, as **si-stō**, *set* (**stitī**, **statum**). The reduplication consists of the initial consonant of the root and the vowel **i**.

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a. A less obvious example is **serō**, *sow* (**sēvī**, **satum**), which comes from * **si-sō**.

C. Present with Inserted Nasal, as **rumpō**, *break* (**rūpī**, **ruptum**). Sometimes the nasal is extended to the Perfect and Participial Stems; e.g. **iungō**, *join*, **iūnxī**, **iūnctum**.

NOTE. Those verbs in which the nasal is extended throughout the verb-system outwardly resemble verbs like **pendō**, in which the **n** is a part of the root. But the related forms (as **iugum** beside **iungō**, but **pondus** beside **pendō**), as well as some other less obvious factors, make it possible to distinguish the two classes. In verbs in **-endō**, as **tendō**, **pendō**, **fendō**, the **n** belongs to the root.

D. Present in **-nō**, as **ster-nō**, *strew* (**strāvī**, **strātum**).

a. This type properly includes some Presents in **-lnō**, coming from **-lnō** by the regular assimilation of **ln** (**49**, 11); e.g. **pellō**, *strike* (**pepulī**), **tollō**, *raise* (**sus-tulī**), **fallō**, *deceive* (Perf. **fefellī**, with extension of **ll** from the Present).

E. Present in **-tō**, as **flec-tō**, *turn* (**flexī**, **flexum**).

F. Present in **-scō**, as **crē-scō**, *increase* (**crēvī**, **crētum**).

NOTE. The root to which the **-scō** is added ends in a long vowel in all examples of this formation, except **discō**, *learn*, **poscō**, *ask*, and **compescō**, *restrain*, in which a consonant has been lost before the **-scō**. **Discō** comes from * **dic-scō**, earlier * **di-dc-scō** with reduplication (cf. Perf. **didicī**); **poscō** from * **porc-scō** (cf. **precor**); **compescō** from * **comperc-scō**. In **poscō** the **sc** has spread from the Present to the whole verb-system (Perf. **po-poscī**).

a. The extension of this suffix in the specific meaning of *becoming* or *beginning to* has given rise to the numerous class of Inchoatives in **-ēscō**, **-īscō**, **-āscō** formed from other Verbs and from Nouns. See **212**, 2.

G. Verbs in **-essō**, as **capessō**, *seize eagerly* (**capessīvī**, **capessītum**). See **212**, 4.

H. Verbs in **-uō**, as **statuō**, *set* (**statuī**, **statūtum**). They include:

1. Denominatives from u-Stems, as **statuō** from **status**.
2. Primary Verbs from roots in **u**, as **suō**, *sew*.
3. Primary Verbs with a suffix **-nuō**, as **mi-nuō**, *lessen*.

a. This type includes also **solvō**, *loose* (**solvī**, **solūtus**), and **volvō**, *roll* (**volvī**, **volūtus**) in which **u** has become consonantal.

I. Present in **-iō**, as **capiō**, *take*, **capere** (**cēpī**, **captum**).

NOTE. Verbs like **capiō** are in origin closely connected with the Primary Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation. The short **i**, partly inherited, but partly, also, due to "iambic shortening" (**28**, note; observe that the first syllable is short in all verbs of this type), caused a resemblance to the forms of the Third Conjugation, in which **i** comes from **e**. For some examples of confusion with the Fourth Conjugation, see **165**, 1.

169. Conjugation IV. — Present Stem in **-ī-**. Two types are to be distinguished:

1. Denominatives, as **fīniō**, *finish*, **fīnīre**, from **fīnis**, *end*. The Present Stem is also the Verb-Stem (**fīnīvī**, **fīnītum**).

2. Primary Verbs, as **veniō**, *come*, **venīre**. The **ī** is usually confined to the Present System (**vēnī**, **ventum**).

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NOTE. The Present Stem of Denominatives was originally *-i-yo-* and *-i-ye-*, or, when formed from consonant-stems, *-yo-* and *-ye-* (**211**, note); that of Primary Verbs was *-iyo-* or *-yo-* and *-ī-*. This last became established as the Present Stem for most forms. But the First Sing. and Third Plur. Pres. Indic. in **-iō** and **-iunt**, as well as the Imperf. Indic. in **-iēbam**, etc., the Fut. in **-iam**, etc., and the Pres. Subj. in **-iam**, etc., are based upon the stem *-i(y)o-*.

170. The Irregular Verbs.

These are relics of a once extensive system of conjugation known as unthematic,[1] in which the endings were added directly to the root, as in **es-t**, *is*, **fer-t**, *brings*, etc. But only part of the forms of the Irregular Verbs are of this nature; the rest differ in no way from those of the Third Conjugation, e.g. **ferō**, **ferimus**, **ferunt**.

The Imperfect Indicative

171. The Tense-Sign of the Imperfect Indicative is **-bā-** (shortened to **-ba-** before the endings **-m**, **-t**, **-nt**, **-r**; see **26**, 1, 2), added to forms ending in a long vowel, namely, **-ā** for the First Conjugation, **-ē** for the Second and Third, and **-iē** (sometimes **-ī**) for the Fourth.

NOTE. This formation originated in the combination of a past tense of the verb *to be* (cf. **fuī**) with certain case-forms (probably old Instrumentals), which, in this combination, became associated with the verb-system. The case-form in **-ē** belonged to a noun-stem in **-o** (cf. Adverbs in **-ē**, originally Ablatives of o-Stems; see **126**, 1); and, since in verbs the corresponding stem-vowel is the thematic vowel of the Third Conjugation (p. 80, footnote), the form in **-ē-bam** came to be used in the Third Conjugation as well as in the Second, in which the Present Stem ends in **-ē-**. In the Fourth Conjugation, **-ī-bam** represents an earlier type than **-iē-bam** (cf. early Latin Fut. **audībō**, not * **audiēbō**).

The Future Indicative

172. In the First and Second Conjugations, and in early Latin sometimes in the Fourth, the Future is formed like the Imperfect, except that the tense-sign is **b** + the thematic vowel, instead of **-bā-**.

In the Third and Fourth Conjugations the tense-sign is **-ā-**, which occurs in the First Person (shortened, because before the endings **-m** or **-r**; see **26**, 1, 2), or **-ē-**, which occurs in all other Persons (shortened before the endings **-t**, **-nt**; see **26**, 1).

[1] See above, p. 76, footnote.

NOTE. The Future in -bō originated in the combination of a Future of the verb *to be* (formed like erō, but from the root seen in fuī) with the same case-forms which appear in the formation of the Imperfect.

Both ā and ē were Mood-Signs of the Subjunctive (**175**), so that the Future of the Third and Fourth Conjugation are in origin Present Subjunctives, — only, except in the First Person, of a different type from that which is seen in the regular Present Subjunctive.

The Future of sum (erō, eris, etc.) is also a Subjunctive in origin, but of still another type, the mood-sign being simply the thematic vowel. This was originally the regular Subjunctive formation for all *unthematic* Indicatives, and so would have been the normal formation for the Future of the Irregular Verbs so far as they are truly unthematic (**170**). But in all of these except sum, the Present contains so many thematic forms identical with those of the Third Conjugation that the Future also has the same formation as in the Third Conjugation; e.g. Fut. feram beside Pres. ferō, like tegam beside tegō.

The Perfect Indicative

173. Various types are to be distinguished:

A. Perfect in **-vī**. In the form **-āvī** this type is common to most verbs of the First Conjugation, and in the form **-īvī** to a large proportion of the verbs of the Fourth. Several verbs of the Second and Third Conjugations have Perfects in which **-vī** is added to the root, or to a variant form of the root, ending in a long vowel, giving rise to forms in **-ēvī**, **-ōvī**, as well as **-āvī**, **-īvī**. Examples (the prevailing types in black):

amā-vī,	from **amō**, *love*, amāre			**fīnī-vī**,	from **fīniō**, *finish*, fīnīre		
flē-vī[1]	"	fleō, *weep*, flēre		nō-vī	"	nōscō, *know*, nōscere	
crē-vī	"	crēscō, *grow*, crēscere		strā-vī	"	sternō, *strew*, sternere	
sprē-vī	"	spernō, *spurn*, spernere		trī-vī	"	terō, *rub*, terere	

a. For shortened forms of **-vī**-Perfects, see above, **163**.

B. Perfect in **-uī**. This is common to a large proportion of the verbs of the Second Conjugation, and to many of the Third, mostly those in which the root-syllable ends in **l**, **r**, **m**, or **n**. It is also found in some Primary Verbs of the First and a very few of the Fourth Conjugation. Examples:

monuī,	from **moneō**, *advise*, monēre			**moluī**,	from **molō**, *grind*, molere		
secuī	"	secō, *cut*, secāre		saluī	"	saliō, *leap*, salīre	

NOTE. This is obviously related to the preceding type. The apparent difference is that **-vī** is used after vowels and **-uī** after consonants. But **-uī** probably comes through ***-o-vī**, from ***-ĕ-vī**, just as **dēnuō** comes from ***dē-novō** (**42**, 4) and this novo- from an earlier ***nevo-**. With this assumed ***-e-vī** compare the Participle in **-itus**, from ***-e-tos**, which nearly always accompanies the Perfect in **-uī** (**179**, 3).

a. A combination of this with the following type is seen in **messuī**, from **metō**, *mow*, and **nexuī** from **nectō**, *bind*.

[1] Observe that **-ēvī** is not the common type for verbs of the Second Conjugation, as **-āvī** is for those of the First. Only those verbs in which ē belongs to the root-syllable have Perfects in **-ēvī**. An apparent exception is **dēleō**, *destroy*, Perf. **dēlēvī**, but this is really a compound **dē-leō** (cf. **linō**, *smear*, Perf. **lēvī**).

C. Perfect in -sī. This is most common in the Third Conjugation, but is not infrequent in the Second, and is occasionally found in the Fourth. Examples:

dīxī, from **dīcō**, *say*, **dīcere**			**serpsī**, from **serpō**, *crawl*, **serpere**		
auxī	"	**augeō**, *increase*, **augēre**	**sēnsī**	"	**sentiō**, *feel*, **sentīre**

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a. Consonant changes. The changes resulting from the combination of the final consonant of the root with the **s** are in accordance with the statements already given (**49**, 1–4, 7). **Ius-sī** belongs under **49**, 4, since the **b** of **iubeō** stands for an original dental (**dh**). In **ges-sī**, **us-sī**, the root itself ends in **s**, which has become **r** in the Presents **gerō**, **ūrō** (**47**). Similarly **pres-sī** from **pres-**, although the Present **premō** is from **prem-**. For **vīxī**, **strūxī**, **flūxī** (**vīvō**, **struō**, **fluō**), see **49**, 2.

b. In general, barring the regular lengthening before **ns** and **nx** (**18**), the quantity of the vowel in the root-syllable of this Perfect is the same as in the Present. But there are some examples of an inherited variation (**46**), as follows:

c. A short vowel, as against a long vowel in the Present, is seen in **ussī**, from **ūrō**; **cessī**, from **cēdō**.

d. A long vowel, as against a short vowel in the Present, is seen in **mīsī**, from **mittō**; **dīvīsī**, from **dīvidō**; **rēxī**, from **regō**; **tēxī**, from **tegō**; **flūxī**, from **fluō**; **strūxī**, from **struō**; and (probably) **trāxī**, from **trahō**. Compare **lēgī**, from **legō**, of type E.

D. Reduplicated Perfect. This is confined to the Third Conjugation, except for four examples from the Second (**mordeō**, **pendeō**, **spondeō**, **tondeō**), and the verbs **dō** and **stō**. The vowel of the reduplication is regularly **e**; but this is replaced by the vowel of the root-syllable wherever the latter, in both the Present and the Perfect, is **i**, **u**, or **o**. For the changes in the vowel of the root-syllable, see **42**. Examples:

cecinī, from **canō**, *sing*			**didicī**, from **discō**, *learn*		
cecīdī	"	**caedō**, *cut*	**cucurrī**	"	**currō**, *run*
pepulī	"	**pellō**, *strike*	**momordī**	"	**mordeō**, *bite*
tetendī	"	**tendō**, *stretch*	**stetī**	"	**stō**, *stand*

a. In compounds, except those of **dō**, **stō**, **sistō**, **discō**, **poscō**, the reduplication is usually lost. So **oc-cīdī**, **at-tendī**, etc.; but often **-cucurrī** beside **-currī** in compounds of **currō**. Compounds of **canō** and **pungō** (Perf. **pupugī**) substitute other formations; e.g. **oc-cinuī** and **ex-pūnxī**.

b. In verbs beginning with **sp** or **st**, both consonants appear in the reduplication, but **s** is lost in the root-syllable; e.g. **spopondī** (for * **spo-spondī**) from **spondeō**, **stetī** from **stō**.

E. Perfect in -ī with lengthened vowel in the root-syllable. This type is found mostly in the Second and Third Conjugations. Examples:

sēdī, from **sedeō**, *sit*			**ēdī**, from **edō**, *eat*, **edere**		
mōvī	"	**moveō**, *move*	**fēcī**	"	**faciō**, *do*, **facere**
cāvī	"	**caveō**, *beware*	**fōdī**	"	**fodiō**, *dig*, **fodere**
iūvī	"	**iuvō**, *aid*, **iuvāre**	**vēnī**	"	**veniō**, *come*, **venīre**

F. Perfect in -ī without change of the vowel of the root-syllable. This type is found in many Verbs of the Third Conjugation, including nearly all in -uō. Examples :

vertī, from vertō, *turn*		luī,[1] from luō, *atone for*	
fidī " findō, *split*		minuī " minuō, *lessen*	

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The Past Perfect Indicative and the Future Perfect

174. 1. The Past Perfect Indicative is formed from the Perfect Stem + -erā- (originally -esā-), with the regular shortening of ā before the endings -m, -t, -nt (**26**, 1).

2. The Future Perfect is formed from the Perfect Stem + -er- (originally -es-), followed by the thematic vowel. The Third Plural in -int (not -unt) and the Second Singular and First and Second Plural forms in -īs, -īmus, -ītis beside the regular -is, -imus, -itis, are due to confusion with the Perfect Subjunctive, in which ī was original. See **164**, 6 ; **175**, *b*.

The Subjunctive

175. The Subjunctive has three Mood-Signs, namely, -ā-, -ē-, and -ī- (shortened before the endings -m, -t, -nt, and -r ; see **26**, 1, 2).

The -ā- occurs in the Present Subjunctive of the Second, Third, and Fourth Conjugations.

The -ē- occurs in the Present Subjunctive of the First, and in the Imperfect and Past Perfect Subjunctive of all Conjugations.

The -ī- occurs in the Present Subjunctive of many Irregular Verbs and in the Perfect Subjunctive of all Conjugations.

NOTE. The Latin Subjunctive represents in its formation, as well as in its functions (see the Syntax), a mixture of two originally distinct moods, namely, the Subjunctive proper and the Optative. The -ī- is the mood-sign of the old Optative. Another form of this was -iē-, seen in early Latin siem, siēs, etc., beside sim, sīs, etc. The -ā- and -ē- belong to the Subjunctive proper, and, besides the forms enumerated, they are seen in the Future of the Third and Fourth Conjugations (**172**, note). Still another old Subjunctive formation, with the simple thematic vowel, is seen in the Future erō (**172**, note), and in the Future Perfect -erō, -eris, etc.

a. In the Imperfect Subjunctive the mood-sign -ē- is added to the Present Stem + s, the s becoming r regularly after a vowel (**47**). So es-s-ē-s (also vellēs, ferrēs, from * vel-s-ē-s, * fer-s-ē-s ; **49**, 11), but amā-r-ē-s, tege-r-ē-s, etc.

b. In the Perfect Subjunctive the mood-sign -ī- is added to the Perfect Stem + -er- (originally -es-). The frequently occurring Second Singular

[1] Such Perfects, though ending in -uī, are not to be classified under the -uī type, since the u belongs to the Verb-Stem.

in -is beside the normal -īs, and the rare -imus for -īmus, are due to confusion with the Future Perfect. See **164**, 6 ; **174**, 2.

c. In the Past Perfect Subjunctive the mood-sign -ē- is added to -is-s- ; e.g. tēx-is-s-ē-s.

176. The Imperative. The Imperative has no special mood-sign, and is characterized only by its peculiar endings.

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177. The Passive. The formation of the Moods and Tenses is the same as in the Active, except in the Perfect System, which is periphrastic.

The Infinitive

178. 1. The Suffix of the Present Infinitive Active is -se, which is preserved in es-se (also velle, ferre, from * vel-se, * fer-se ; **49**, 11), but which became -re after a vowel (**47**). So amā-re, tege-re, etc. The Perfect Infinitive Active also has -se, which in this case is added to the Perfect Stem + -is- ; e.g. amāv-is-se, tēx-is-se, etc.

2. The Present Infinitive Passive has -rī in all Conjugations except the Third, where the ending is simply -ī. So amā-rī, monē-rī, audī-rī, but teg-ī. With the addition of an -er (of doubtful origin), and the regular shortening of the long vowel before another vowel (**21**), arose the variant forms laudārier, dīcier, etc. (**164**, 3).

3. The other Infinitives are periphrastic, the Perfect Passive Infinitive being formed from the Perfect Passive Participle with esse, the Future Active Infinitive from the Future Participle with esse, and the Future Passive Infinitive from the Supine with īrī (Pres. Infin. Pass. of eō, used impersonally like ītur, etc., but not occurring separately).

NOTE. Infinitives are, in origin, case-forms which have become associated with the verb-system.

The Perfect Passive Participle

179. The Perfect Passive Participle is formed with the suffix -to-, and is declined like an Adjective of the First and Second Declensions. As regards the form of the stem to which the suffix is added, there is a certain relationship between the formation of this Participle and that of the Perfect Indicative, as follows :

1. -ātus, -ītus. Such are the forms for nearly all verbs which have Perfects in -āvī, -īvī, as :

amātus beside amāvī, from amō, *love*, amāre
audītus " " audīvī " audiō, *hear*, audīre

a. Exceptions are : pōtus (but also pōtātus) beside pōtāvī, from pōtō, *drink*, pōtāre ; sepultus beside sepelīvī, from sepeliō, *bury*, sepelīre.

2. **-ūtus.** This is the regular formation for Verbs in **-uō** (**-vō**), as **minūtus** from **minuō**, *lessen*, **minuere, minuī.**

a. So also **secūtus, locūtus,** from the two Deponents in **-quor, sequor,** *follow*, and **loquor,** *speak*. Compounds of **ruō,** *fall*, have **-rutus.**

3. **-itus.** This is the usual formation for Verbs having Perfects of the **-uī** type, as :

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monitus	beside	**monuī,**	from **moneō,** *advise*,	**monēre**
molitus	"	**moluī**	" **molō,** *grind*,	**molere**
domitus	"	**domuī**	" **domō,** *tame*,	**domāre**

a. But there are a few exceptions, e.g.:

doctus	beside	docuī,	from doceō, *teach*,	docēre
cultus	"	coluī	" colō, *cultivate*,	colere
sectus	"	secuī	" secō, *cut*,	secāre

4. **-tus (-sus)** added directly to the root-syllable. This formation is common to all Verbs with Perfects of other types than those already mentioned. The consonant changes follow the statements given in **49.** Examples :

flētus	beside	**flē-vī,**	from **fleō,** *weep*,	**flēre**
scrīptus	"	**scrīpsī**	" **scrībō,** *write*,	**scrībere**
morsus	"	**momordī**	" **mordeō,** *bite*,	**mordēre**
factus	"	**fēcī**	" **faciō,** *make*,	**facere**
fissus	"	**fidī**	" **findō,** *split*,	**findere**

NOTE. The form in **-sus** is regular for all roots ending in dentals, as **fissus,** etc. (**49, 5**) ; but, after the analogy of such forms, **-sus** came to be used also in a number of verbs with roots not ending in a dental ; e.g. :

lāpsus,	from	**lābor,** *slip*	**pulsus,**	from	**pellō,** *drive*
mulsus	"	**mulgeō,** *milk*	**cēnsus**	"	**cēnseō,** *think*
fīxus	"	**figō,** *fix*	**amplexus**	"	**amplector,** *embrace*

180. Vowel Changes. In general, barring the regular lengthening before **ns** and **nct (18)**, the quantity of the vowel of the root-syllable is the same in the Perfect Participle as in the Present. But there are some examples of an inherited variation (**46**). Besides such cases as **satus** (**serō**, Perf. **sē-vī**), **strātus** (**sternō**, Perf. **strā-vī**), **mōtus** (**moveō**, Perf. **mōvī**), etc., there are also differences among verbs coming from roots ending in a mute, as follows:

1. A short vowel, as against a long vowel in the Present, is seen in **cessus** (cf. Perf. **cessī**), from **cēdō** ; **ustus** (cf. Perf. **ussī**), from **ūrō** ; and **dictus, ductus,** from **dīcō, dūcō** (Perf. also **dīxī, dūxī**).

2. A long vowel, as against a short vowel in the Present, is seen in **cāsūrus, dīvīsus, fūsus, ēsus, ēmptus, āctus, lēctus, rēctus, tēctus, flūxus** (Adj.), **strūctus, frāctus, pāctus, tāctus.**

NOTE. With the exception of **cāsūrus** and **tāctus** (with which compare **con-tāg-iō**), these long-vowel forms are accompanied by Perfects with a long vowel, as **fūdī, lēgī, rēxī**, etc. (though in some it is a different long vowel, e.g. **ēgī**, beside **āctus**, etc.). But it does not follow that a long-vowel Perfect is always accompanied by a long-vowel Participle. Cf. **mīsī**, but **missus**; **sēdī**, but **sessum** (Supine); **fōdī**, but **fossus**; **rūpī**, but **ruptus**; **fēcī**, but **factus**, etc.

It is also true that the Participles mentioned come from roots ending in a voiced mute, namely, **d** or **g** (for **flūxus, strūctus**, see **49, 2**). But among verbs from roots in a voiced mute there are also some that have the short vowel; e.g. **fossus** from **fodiō**; **sessum** from **sedeō**; **strictus** from **stringō**.

181. The Supine. This is formed in the same way as the Perfect Passive Participle, but with the suffix **-tu-**, not **-to-**. It is, then, a Verbal Noun of the Fourth Declension, of which the Accusative and Ablative only are in common use.

NOTE. The Dative form in **-tuī** is rare.

182. The Future Active Participle. This is formed with the suffix **-tūro-**, and is declined like an Adjective of the First and Second Declensions. As regards the form of the stem to which the suffix is added, it usually follows the formation of the Perfect Passive Participle; e.g. **amātūrus**, like **amātus**. But there are occasional variations, as:

moritūrus	beside	**mortuus**,	from	**morior**, *die*, **morī**
oritūrus	"	**ortus**	"	**orior**, *arise*, **orīrī**
paritūrus	"	**partus**	"	**pariō**, *bring forth*, **parere**
ruitūrus	"	**-rutus**	"	**ruō**, *tumble down*, **ruere**

183. The Present Active Participle. This is formed with the suffix **-nt-**, added to the Present Stem, and is declined as an adjective of one ending (**117**). The long vowels of the First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations are regularly shortened (**20, 1**). The thematic vowel of the Third Conjugation appears as **e**, not **o(u)**; e.g. Gen. **legentis**, contrasted with **legunt**, from * **legont**, of the Present Indicative. But **iēns**, from **eō**, *go*, has the stem **eunt-** in all other forms; e.g. Gen. **euntis**.

184. The Future Passive Participle and the Gerund. These are formed with the suffix **-ndo-**, added to the Present Stem, which appears in the same form as in the Present Participle. The Future Passive Participle is declined as an Adjective of the First and Second Declensions. The Gerund is the Neuter Singular of this, lacking the Nominative and Vocative.

NOTE. The forms in **-undus, -iundus** of the Third and Fourth Conjugations (**164**, 2) represent what was probably the original type in these conjugations, the forms in **-endus, -iendus** having arisen under the influence of the Present Participles, which have **-ent-**. From **eō**, *go*, the Gerund is always **eundī**, corresponding to the Participle **euntis**.

ILLUSTRATIONS OF THE VARIOUS TYPES OF VERBS

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185. The Principal Parts of any given Verb are found most conveniently by reference to a single list arranged alphabetically, such as the Catalogue of Verbs given at the end of this grammar, or to a lexicon. The following list is merely illustrative, showing what different combinations of Present, Perfect, and Participial Stems occur, and which are the most common.

The types which are most common are given in *black letters*, the others in *Roman*. Where *small letters* are used, it is to be understood that *all* the examples of the type are given. A prefixed hyphen indicates that the form occurs only in compounds. For all details, such as variant forms, etc., see the *Catalogue of Verbs*.

186. FIRST CONJUGATION

1. Perfect in **-āvī**.

amō, *love*	**amāre**	**amāvī**	**amātum**
pōtō, *drink*	pōtāre	pōtāvī	pōtum (pōtātum)

2. Perfect in **-uī**.

domō, *tame*	domāre	domuī	domitum

Here also crepō, **cubō**, fricō, micō, **-plicō**, secō, sonō, tonō, vetō.[1]

3. Perfect in **-ī** with lengthened vowel.

iuvō, *help*	iuvāre	iūvī	iūtum
lavō, *wash*	lavāre	lāvī	lautum, lōtum

4. Reduplicated Perfect.

stō, *stand*	stāre	stetī	stātūrus

5. Deponents.

mīror, *wonder*	**mīrārī**		**mīrātus sum**

187. SECOND CONJUGATION

1. Perfect in **-uī**.

moneō, *advise*	**monēre**	**monuī**	**monitum**
doceō, *teach*	docēre	docuī	doctum
egeō, *need*	egēre	eguī	——

2. Perfect in **-sī**.

augeō, *increase*	augēre	auxī	auctum

[1] But Perf. Pass. Partic. **frictum, sectum**. In this and the similar statements below, it is not meant that the verbs cited *as belonging to the type specified in the heading* follow in every detail the example under which they stand.

3. Perfect in -vī.

fleō, *weep*	flēre	flēvī	flētum

Here also neō, -pleō, dēleō, aboleō, cieō.

4. Reduplicated Perfect.

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mordeō, *bite*	mordēre	momordī	morsum

Here also pendeō, spondeō, tondeō.

5. Perfect in -ī with lengthened vowel.

caveō, *take care*	cavēre	cāvī	cautum

Here also faveō, foveō, moveō, paveō, voveō, sedeō, videō, of which all but the last two end in -veō.

6. Perfect in -ī without lengthening.

ferveō, *boil*	fervēre	fervī	——
prandeō, *lunch*	prandēre	prandī	prānsum
strīdeō, *grate*	strīdēre	strīdī	——

7. Deponents.

vereor, *fear*	verērī	veritus sum
fateor, *confess*	fatērī	fassus sum

188. Third Conjugation

A. Simple Thematic Present.

1. Perfect in -sī.

scrībō, *write*	**scrībere**	**scrīpsī**	**scrīptum**
dīcō, *say*	**dīcere**	**dīxī**	**dictum**
claudō, *shut*	**claudere**	**clausī**	**clausum**

With few exceptions, from roots ending in a mute.

2. Perfect in -uī.

molō, *grind*	molere	moluī	molitum

With few exceptions, from roots ending in a liquid or nasal.

metō, *mow*	metere	messuī	messum

3. Reduplicated Perfect.

cadō, *fall*	cadere	cecidī	cāsūrus

Here also caedō, canō, currō, parcō, pendō, tendō.

4. Perfect in -ī without lengthening.

vertō, *turn*	vertere	vertī	versum

5. Perfect in -ī with lengthened vowel.

agō, *drive*	agere	ēgī	āctus

Here also **edō, emō, legō.**

6. Perfect in -īvī.

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terō, *rub*	terere	trīvī	trītum
petō, *seek*	petere	petīvī (-iī)	petītum
quaerō, *seek*	quaerere	quaesīvī	quaesītum

B. Present with reduplication.

sistō, *set*	sistere	stitī	statum
gignō, *beget*	gignere	genuī	genitum
serō, *sow*	serere	sēvī	satum
bibō, *drink*	bibere	bibī	——

C. Present with inserted nasal.

1. Perfect in -sī.

iungō, *join*	iungere	iūnxī	iūnctum

So **cingō, lingō, -mungō, ninguit, pangō, plangō, stinguō, tinguō, unguō.**

fingō, *mould*	fingere	fīnxī	fictum

So **mingō, pingō, stringō.**

2. Reduplicated Perfect.

tangō, *touch*	tangere	tetigī	tāctum

Here also **pangō, pungō, tundō.**

3. Perfect in -ī with lengthened vowel.

fundō, *pour*	fundere	fūdī	fūsum

Here also **rumpō, vincō, linquō, frangō.**

4. Perfect in -ī without lengthening.

findō, *split*	findere	fidī	fissum
scindō, *rend*	scindere	scidī	scissum
pandō, *open*	pandere	pandī	passum

5. Perfect in -uī.

-cumbō, *recline*	-cumbere	-cubuī	-cubitum

D. Present in -nō (and -llō from -lnō).

1. Perfect in -vī.

sternō, *strew*	sternere	strāvī	strātum

Here also **spernō, cernō, linō, sinō.**

2. Reduplicated Perfect.

pellō, *drive*	pellere	pepulī	pulsum
fallō, *deceive*	fallere	fefellī	(falsus, Adj.)
tollō, *raise*	tollere	(sus-tulī)	(sub-lātum)

3. Perfect in -sī.

temnō, *scorn*	temnere	con-tempsī	con-temptum

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E. Present in -tō.

flectō, *bend*	flectere	flexī	flexum

So pectō, plectō, nectō (but Perf. nexuī commoner than nexī).

F. Present in -scō.

1. Primary Verbs.

discō, *learn*	discere	didicī	——
crēscō, *grow*	crēscere	crēvī	crētum
nōscō, *get to know*	nōscere	nōvī	(nōtus, Adj.)

2. Inchoatives in -ēscō.

calēscō, *become hot*	calēscere	caluī [1]	—— [1]	(from caleō)
dūrēscō, *become hard*	dūrēscere	dūruī [1]	—— [1]	(from dūrus)
algēscō, *catch cold*	algēscere	alsī [1]	—— [1]	(from algeō)

3. Inchoatives in -īscō.

-dormīscō, *fall asleep*	-dormīscere	-dormīvī [1]	—— [1]	(from dormiō)

4. Inchoatives in -āscō.

vesperāscō, {*become evening*}	vesperāscere	vesperāvī [1]	—— [1]	(from vesper)

G. Present in -essō.

capessō, *seize*	capessere	capessīvī	capessītum

H. Present in -uō.

1. Perfect in -uī.

statuō, *set up*	statuere	statuī	statūtum
ruō, *fall*	ruere	ruī	ruitūrus

[1] The Perfect of Inchoatives which are derived from Verbs is the same as that of the simple verbs; in the case of Inchoatives derived from Nouns or Adjectives, it follows the type which is commonest in those derived from verbs, namely, -uī for Presents in -ēscō, -īvī for Presents in -īscō, -āvī for Presents in -āscō. The Participial Stem is nearly always lacking.

2. Perfect in **-xī**.

struō, *build*	struere	strūxī	strūctum
fluō, *flow*	fluere	flūxī	(flūxus, Adj.)

I. Present in **-iō**.

1. Perfect in **-ī** with lengthened vowel.

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capiō, *take*	capere	cēpī	captum

Here also faciō, iaciō, fodiō, fugiō.

2. Perfect in **-sī**.

-spiciō, *see*	-spicere	-spexī	-spectum
-liciō, *allure*	-licere	-lexī	-lectum
quatiō, *shake*	quatere	-cussī	quassum

3. Perfect in **-īvī**.

cupiō, *wish*	cupere	cupīvī	cupītum
sapiō, *be wise*	sapere	sapīvī	——

4. Perfect in **-uī**.

rapiō, *seize*	rapere	rapuī	raptum

5. Reduplicated Perfect.

pariō, *bring forth*	parere	peperī	partum

J. Deponents.

ūtor, *use*	ūtī	ūsus sum (cf. *A*)
fungor, *perform*	fungī	fūnctus sum (cf. *C*)
amplector, *embrace*	amplectī	amplexus sum (cf. *E*)
vēscor, *feed*	vēscī	—— (cf. *F*, 1)
oblīvīscor, *forget*	oblīvīscī	oblītus sum (cf. *F*, 3)
sequor, *follow*	sequī	secūtus sum (cf. *H*)
gradior, *step*	gradī	gressus sum (cf. *I*)

189. Fourth Conjugation

1. Perfect in **-īvī**.

audiō, *hear*	audīre	audīvī	audītum
sepeliō, *bury*	sepelīre	sepelīvī	sepultum

2. Perfect in **-sī**.

vinciō, *bind*	vincīre	vīnxī	vīnctum

3. Perfect in **-uī**.

aperiō, *open*	aperīre	aperuī	apertum
operiō, *cover*	operīre	operuī	opertum
saliō, *leap*	salīre	saluī	——

4. Reduplicated Perfect (originally).

reperiō, *find*	reperīre	repperī	repertum
comperiō, *learn*	comperīre	comperī	compertum

5. Perfect in -ī with lengthened vowel.

veniō, *come*	venīre	vēnī	ventum

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6. Deponents.

partior, *divide*	partīrī	partītus sum
ōrdior, *begin*	ōrdīrī	ōrsus sum

IRREGULAR VERBS

For the character of Irregular Verbs in general, see **170**.

Compounds of Sum

190. **Adsum**, etc. Most compounds of **sum** follow the conjugation of the simple verb, which has been given above (**153**). So **ad-sum**, **ad-esse**, **ad-fuī**, etc. The Present Participle, which is wanting in the simple verb, appears in the adjectival **absēns**, *absent*, from **ab-sum**, and **praesēns**, *present*, from **prae-sum**. In **prō-sum** the preposition appears as **prōd** before a vowel (**24**, 2); e.g. Pres. Indic. **prōsum**, **prōdes**, **prōdest**, **prōsumus**, **prōdestis**, **prōsunt**; Imperf. Indic. **prōderam**; Imperf. Subj. **prōdessem**; Fut. **prōderō**; Pres. Infin. **prōdesse**; Imperat. **prōdes**, **prōdestō**, etc.

191. **Possum**, *be able*. The Present System is based on a union of **potis** or **pote**, *able*, with **sum**; the Perfect System does not contain **sum**, but belongs to a Present * **potēō**, * **potēre**, of which only the participial form **potēns** is in use.

Principal Parts

	possum	**posse**	**potuī**
	INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE
Pres.	possum		possim
	potes		possīs
	potest		possit
	possumus		possīmus
	potestis		possītis
	possunt		possint
Imperf.	poteram[1]		possem

[1] That is, **poteram**, **poterās**, **poterat**, etc. Similarly elsewhere.

Fut.	poterō	
Perf.	potuī	potuerim
Past Perf.	potueram	potuissem
Fut. Perf.	potuerō	

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	INFINITIVE	PARTICIPLE
Pres.	posse	potēns (Adj.)
Perf.	potuisse	

a. Early Latin shows the uncompounded forms potis sum or pote sum, potis est or pote est, etc.; also Infin. potesse.

Volō, *wish*, and its Compounds

192. **Principal Parts**

volō, *wish*	**velle**	**voluī**
nōlō, *be unwilling*	**nōlle**	**nōluī**
mālō, *prefer*	**mālle**	**māluī**

Present

INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
volō	velim	nōlō	nōlim	mālō	mālim
vīs	velīs	nōn vīs	nōlīs	māvīs	mālīs
vult	velit	nōn vult	nōlit	māvult	mālit
volumus	velīmus	nōlumus	nōlīmus	mālumus	mālīmus
vultis	velītis	nōn vultis	nōlītis	māvultis	mālītis
volunt	velint	nōlunt	nōlint	mālunt	mālint

Imperfect

volēbam	vellem	nōlēbam	nōllem	mālēbam	māllem

Future

volam		nōlam		mālam	

Perfect

voluī	voluerim	nōluī	nōluerim	māluī	māluerim

Past Perfect

volueram	voluissem	nōlueram	nōluissem	mālueram	māluissem

Future Perfect

voluerō		nōluerō		māluerō	

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	nōlī	nōlīte
Fut.	nōlītō	nōlītōtē

INFINITIVE

Pres.	velle	nōlle	mālle
Perf.	voluisse	nōluisse	māluisse

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PARTICIPLE

Pres.	volēns	nōlēns

a. For **vult, vultis**, the forms in use down to the Augustan period were **volt, voltis** (**44**, 1). For **sī vīs** a contracted form **sīs** is common, and, in early Latin, **sultis** is used for **sī voltis** (**sultis** is from * **soltis**, which arose beside **sī voltis**, not by contraction, but after the analogy of the relation of **vīs** to **sī vīs**).

b. For **nōn vīs** and **nōn vult**, early Latin has **nevīs, nevolt**.

c. For **mālō, mālim**, etc., the early forms are **māvolō, māvelim**, and these are compounds of **magis** and **volō** (**māvolō** probably from * **mag(i)s-volō**; cf. **sēvirī**, **49**, 12).

193. Ferō, *bear*

Principal Parts

ferō	**ferre**	**tulī**	**lātum**

ACTIVE		PASSIVE	
INDIC.	SUBJ.	INDIC.	SUBJ.
		Present	
ferō	feram	feror	ferar
fers	ferās	ferris	ferāris, -re
fert	ferat	fertur	ferātur
ferimus	ferāmus	ferimur	ferāmur
fertis	ferātis	feriminī	ferāminī
ferunt	ferant	feruntur	ferantur
		Imperfect	
ferēbam	ferrem	ferēbar	ferrer
		Future	
feram		ferar	
		Perfect	
tulī	tulerim	lātus sum	lātus sim
		Past Perfect	
tuleram	tulissem	lātus eram	lātus essem
		Future Perfect	
tulerō		lātus erō	

IMPERATIVE

Pres.	fer	ferte	ferre	feriminī
Fut.	fertō	fertōte	fertor	
	fertō	feruntō	fertor	feruntor

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INFINITIVE

Pres.	ferre	ferrī
Perf.	tulisse	lātus esse
Fut.	lātūrus esse	lātum īrī

PARTICIPLE

Pres.	ferēns	*Perf.*	lātus
Fut.	lātūrus	*Fut.*	ferendus

GERUND

ferendī, etc.

a. The earlier form of the Perfect is **tetulī** (cf. also **rettulī**; see **43**, 1); the root is the same as in **tollō**; **lātus** is for ***tlātus**, **tlā** being another form of the same root.

194. Eō, *go*

Principal Parts

eō	**īre**	**iī**	**itum**

	INDICATIVE		**SUBJUNCTIVE**	
Pres.	eō	īmus	eam	eāmus
	īs	ītis	eās	eātis
	it	eunt	eat	eant
Imperf.	ībam		īrem	
Fut.	ībō			
Perf.	iī	iimus	ierim	
	īstī (iistī)	īstis (iistis)		
	iit, īt	iērunt, -ēre		
Past Perf.	ieram		īssem	
Fut. Perf.	ierō			

IMPERATIVE		**INFINITIVE**		**PARTICIPLE**	
Pres. ī	īte	*Pres.* īre		*Pres.*	iēns, Gen. euntis, etc.
Fut. ītō	ītōte	*Perf.* īsse (iisse)		*Fut.*	itūrus
ītō	euntō	*Fut.* itūrus esse		*Fut. Pass.*	eundum (est)

GERUND

eundī, etc.

a. In the Perfect System, forms with **v**, as **īvī, īveram**, etc., are rare, except in late writers. Compounds often have **iistī, iistis**, etc., for **īstī, īstis**, etc.

b. The Passive is used only impersonally; e.g. **ītur, ībātur, itum est**, etc. But compounds with transitive meaning have the full Passive; e.g. **adeor, adīris**, etc., from **adeō**, *approach*.

c. **Queō**, *can*, follows the conjugation of **eō**, except that the Perfect is **quīvī**.

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Fīō, *become*

195. The verb **fīō**, *become*, serves as the Passive of **faciō**, *make*, in the Present System. The Perfect System and the Future Passive Participle are formed regularly from **faciō**.

Principal Parts

fīō [1] **fierī** **factus sum**

	INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	
Pres.	fīō	——	fīam	fīāmus
	fīs	——	fīās	fīātis
	fit	fīunt	fīat	fīant
Imperf.	fīēbam		fierem	
Fut.	fīam			
Perf.	factus sum		factus sim	
Past Perf.	factus eram		factus essem	
Fut. Perf.	factus erō			

IMPERATIVE		INFINITIVE		PARTICIPLE	
Pres.	fī fīte	*Pres.*	fierī		
		Perf.	factus esse	*Perf.*	factus
		Fut.	factum īrī	*Fut.*	faciendus

a. Prepositional compounds of **faciō** usually have the regular Passive; e.g. **cōnficiō**, Pass. **cōnficior**. But compounds of **fīō** also occur in some forms; e.g. **cōnfit**, *happens*, **dēfit**, *lacks*, **īnfit**, *begins*. For the Passive of compounds like **benefaciō, calefaciō**, etc., **benefīō, calefīō**, etc., are used.

[1] The student should remember that the **i** is long throughout, except in the Third Singular and before short **e**.

Present System of Edō, *eat*

196. The Present System of **edō** contains several forms in which the endings are added directly to the root in the form **ēd-**. The Perfect System is regular.

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Principal Parts

edō	ēsse	ēdī	ēsum

Active

	INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	
Pres.	edō	edimus	edim, edam	edīmus, edāmus
	ēs	ēstis	edīs, edās	edītis, edātis
	ēst	edunt	edit, edat	edint, edant
Imperf.	edēbam		ēssem	
Fut.	edam			

	IMPERATIVE		INFINITIVE	PARTICIPLE
Pres.	ēs	ēste	ēsse	edēns
Fut.	ēstō	ēstōte	ēsūrus esse	ēsūrus
	ēstō	edunto		

Passive

Pres. Indic. 3. *Sing.* ēstur
Imperf. Subj. 3. *Sing.* ēssētur

a. The Subjunctive forms **edim**, etc., which go with the Indicative forms **ēs**, **ēst**, just as **sim**, etc., with **es**, **est** (**175**), were almost exclusively employed until well into the Augustan period. Horace has only **edim**, but Ovid **edam**.

b. Indicative forms **edis**, **edit**, **editis**, following the regular type, are not found until late times.

c. **Comedō** has a Perfect Passive Participle **comēstus** beside **comēsus**.

Present System of Do, *give*

197. The Present System of **dō** differs from that of verbs of the First Conjugation only in having the **a** short everywhere except in the Second Singular of the Present Indicative and Present Imperative, and, of course, the Nom. Sing. of the Present Participle. The Perfect System is regular.

Principal Parts

dō	**dare**	**dedī**	**datum**

ACTIVE

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	INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	
Pres.	dō	damus	dem	dēmus
	dās	datis	dēs	dētis
	dat	dant	det	dent
Imperf.	dabam		darem	
Fut.	dabō			

	IMPERATIVE		INFINITIVE	PARTICIPLE
Pres.	dā	date	dare	dāns
Fut.	datō	datōte	datūrus esse	datūrus
	datō	dantō		

GERUND	SUPINE
dandī, etc.	datum, datū

PASSIVE

datur, damur, etc.; dabar, dabor, darer, datus, dandus, etc.

a. Early Latin often uses a Present Subjunctive **duim, duīs, duit**, etc., and sometimes **duam, duās, duat**, etc. These are from a related root **du-**. Such Subjunctives are also formed from compounds like **crēdō**, *believe*, **perdō**, *lose*,[1] etc., which otherwise follow the Third Conjugation. So **crēduit, perduit**, etc.

DEFECTIVE VERBS

Aiō, Inquam, Fārī

198. 1. **Aiō**, *say*, *assent*, has the following forms. It is pronounced and often spelled **ai-iō** (**29**, 2, *a*).

Pres. Indic.	aiō, ais, ait, aiunt	*Imperat.*	aī
Pres. Subj.	aiās, aiat	*Partic.*	aiēns
Imperf. Indic.	aiēbam, aiēbās, aiēbat, aiēbāmus, aiēbātis, aiēbant.		

a. Early Latin has Imperf. **aibam**, etc., from ***aībam** like **lēnībam** (**164**, 4), but with **ai** pronounced as one syllable.

[1] These compounds are really from a root meaning "put," which was originally distinct from **dō**, *give*.

2. **Inquam**, *say* (*said I*, *said he*, etc.), has the following forms, of which only **inquam**, **inquis**, and **inquit** are in common use.

Pres. Indic.	inquam, inquis, inquit inquimus, inquitis, inquiunt	*Perf. Indic.*	inquiī, inquīstī
Imperf. Indic.	inquiēbat	*Imperat.*	inque, inquitō
Fut. Indic.	inquiēs, inquiet		

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3. **Fārī**, *speak*, has the following forms, of which some occur only in compounds.

Pres. Indic.	fātur, -fāmur	*Infin.*	fārī
Imperf. Indic.	-fābar, -fābantur	*Pres. Act. Partic.*	fāns
Fut.	fābor, fābitur, -fābimur	*Perf. Pass. Partic.*	fātus
Perf. Indic.	fātus sum, etc.	*Fut. Pass. Partic.*	fandus
Past Perf. Indic.	fātus eram, etc.	*Gerund*	fandī, fandō
Imperat.	fāre	*Supine*	fātū

Meminī, Ōdī, Coepī

199. 1. **Meminī**, *remember*, and **ōdī**, *hate*, are Present in meaning, but in form belong to the Perfect System. But **meminī** has an Imperative, and **ōdī** a Future Participle.

INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE
meminī, *I remember*	ōdī, *I hate*	meminerim, ōderim
memineram, *I remembered*	ōderam, *I hated*	meminissem, ōdissem
meminerō, *I shall remember*	ōderō, *I shall hate*	

Imperat.	mementō, mementōte
Infin.	meminisse, ōdisse
Fut. Partic.	——, ōsūrus

2. **Coepī**, *have begun*, *began*, is also confined mainly to the Perfect System, the Present being supplied by **incipiō**. When a Passive Infinitive follows, **coeptus sum** takes the place of **coepī**; e.g. **quae rēs agī coeptae sunt**, *which began to be done.*

a. Some forms of the Present System are found in early Latin, as **coepiō**, **coepere**.

200. Other isolated forms are:

1. Imperat. **salvē**, *hail*, **salvēte**, **salvētō**; Infin. **salvēre**.
2. Imperat. **(h)avē**, *hail*, **(h)avēte**, **(h)avētō**; Infin. **(h)avēre**.
3. Imperat. **cedo**, *give*, **cette**.
4. Pres. Indic. **quaesō**, *beg*, **quaesumus**.

Impersonal Verbs

201. A special class of Defectives consists of verbs used only impersonally, the forms occurring being those of the Third Person Singular, the Infinitive, and sometimes the Gerund. So, for example, **licet**, *it is allowed.*

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	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Pres.	licet	liceat
Imperf.	licēbat	licēret
Fut.	licēbit	——
Perf.	licuit *or* licitum est	licuerit *or* licitum sit
Past Perf.	licuerat *or* licitum erat	licuisset *or* licitum esset
Fut. Perf.	licuerit *or* licitum erit	——

Infin. licēre, licuisse, licitūrum esse

a. The following verbs are always, or usually, Impersonal:

decet, *it is fitting*
libet, *it is pleasing*
licet, *it is permitted*
miseret, *it excites pity*
ninguit, *it snows*
oportet, *it is necessary*
piget, *it grieves*
pluit, *it rains*
pudet, *it shames*
taedet, *it disgusts*
tonat, *it thunders*

b. Many verbs are used impersonally only in certain senses; e.g. **placet**, *it pleases*, *is decided*, **accidit**, *it happens.*

c. The Passive of intransitive verbs can be used only impersonally; e.g. **ītur**, *there is a going, some one goes*, **curritur**, *there is a running, some one runs.*

PART III

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WORD-FORMATION

202. INTRODUCTORY. In the broadest sense, Word-Formation includes the subject of Inflection; but the term as used here refers to the formation of the word as a whole, i.e. the unit of which the inflectional forms are variations.

In the case of declensional forms the true unit is the Stem, to which the case-endings are added, so that Stem-Formation would be a more precise term to use in this connection. But in the case of Verb-forms, although the unit of any given tense is the stem, the verb as a whole includes several different stems (tense and mood-stems), and their formation is properly treated as a part of Inflection. As regards Verbs, then, there is left for treatment here only what is known as Secondary Verbal Derivation, that is, the formation of Verbs from Nouns, Adjectives, or other Verbs.

The derivation of most uninflected words is too obscure to be discussed except in connection with the related forms of other languages. The formation of Adverbs, however, which in part stands in close relation with case-formation, has been touched upon under Inflection.

Under Word-Formation, then, will be included:

1) Derivation of Nouns and Adjectives by means of suffixes.
2) Secondary Verbal Derivation.
3) Composition.

DERIVATION OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

203. The stems to which the case-endings are added are sometimes identical with the Root,[1] as in **dux**, Gen. **ducis**, of which **duc-** is both stem and root. But usually they are formed by means of Suffixes[2] added either to the root or to other stems.

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[1] By a Root is meant the simplest element common to a group of related words and conceived as containing the essential meaning common to all. It is what is left after the separation of all recognizable formative parts, such as prefixes, suffixes, endings. But for any given language it is only a convenient grammatical abstraction, not necessarily an absolutely primitive element. For example, in English the root of *preacher* and *preaching* is *preach*, but this, when taken back to prae-dicō, is seen to be a compound. The roots assumed in Latin are not necessarily the same as those assumed for the parent speech, much less are they to be thought of as ultimate roots.

[2] Suffixes are doubtless independent words in origin, just as the English suffix *-ly* (man-ly, etc.) meaning *like*, *having the form of*, has arisen in historical times from a word meaning *body*, *form* (from which comes also *like*, i.e. *having the same form as*). But most suffixes had already, in a remote period, become mere formative elements, which it is useless to try to connect with any known independent words.

The ultimate origin of the inflectional endings is of the same nature, but in detail will always be obscure. There is, then, in the general principles of formation no hard and fast line between composition, derivation by suffixes, and inflection.

If the suffix is added to a Root or a Verb-Stem, the form is known as a Primary Derivative; if the suffix is added to a Noun-Stem, Adjective-Stem, or Adverb, the form is known as a Secondary Derivative. Thus **vic-tor**, *victor*, in which the suffix is added to the root of **vincō**, *conquer*, is a Primary Derivative; while **victōr-ia**, *victory*, in which the suffix is added to the Noun-Stem **victōr-**, is a Secondary Derivative. Many suffixes were used primarily for only one of these two kinds of derivation, but their use was often extended, the same suffix appearing in both Primary and Secondary Derivation.

204. Some suffixes are seen in words inherited from the parent speech, but are no longer used freely to form new words. They are called *non-productive* suffixes. Thus **-ti-**, seen in **par-ti-** (**pars**), **mor-ti-** (**mors**), etc., was once one of the commonest suffixes for the formation of feminine abstracts, but in Latin it is not productive, its place having been usurped by an extension of it, namely, **-tiōn-**, seen in **āctiōn-** (**āctiō**), etc.

205. Regarding the combination of the root or stem with the suffix, observe:

1. If the root or stem ends in a consonant and the suffix begins with one, the usual consonant changes take place; e.g. **scrīptor** from **scrībō**; **dēfēn-sor** from **dēfendō**, etc. See **49**.

2. The final vowel of a stem is lost before the initial vowel of a suffix; e.g. **aur-eus** from **auro-** (**aurum**).

3. The final short vowel of a stem suffers the regular weakening before a suffix beginning with a consonant; e.g. **boni-tās** from **bono-** (**bonus**); **porcu-lus** from **porco-** (**porcus**). See **42**, 5.

NOTE. The final vowel of a stem (or sometimes a consonant, or even a whole syllable belonging properly to the stem) often becomes so closely associated with the suffix that it is felt to be a part of it, and not a part of the stem. In this way a new suffix arises. So from words like **Rōmānus** (really **Rōmā-nus**) the suffix **-ānus** arises, and is then applied freely to stems not ending in **-ā**, as **urb-ānus** (**urbs**), **pāg-ānus** (**pāgus**), etc. Similarly from words like **porcu-lus** (see above, 3) arose words like **rēg-ulus** (**rēx**), etc. This process was constantly going on.[1]

[1] For this reason, the division between the stem and the suffix is often somewhat arbitrary. For example, one may divide **Rōmā-nus** in accordance with its origin, but, since **-ānus** has itself come to be a common suffix, one may properly divide **Rōm-ānus** like **urb-ānus**, etc. Indeed, in some cases, the only practicable division is one which includes in the suffix an element which a scientific analysis shows to have belonged properly to the stem; for any other division would be not only confusing to the student, but contrary to the feeling which the Romans themselves had in using the suffix.

Nouns — Primary Derivatives

206. 1. **-tor**[1] (Fem. **-trīx**) forms nouns denoting the *agent* or *doer* of the action expressed by the verb (cf. English *-er*).

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vic-tor, *victor*, F. **vic-trīx** (**vincō**) **scrīp-tor**, *writer* (**scrībō**)
can-tor, *singer* (**canō**) **amā-tor**, *lover* (**amō**)
dēfēn-sor (for * **dē-fend-tor**[2]), *defender* (**dēfendō**).

a. By an extension of use, this suffix is sometimes added to Nouns to form other Nouns, as **iānī-tor**, *janitor, one who keeps the door* (**iānua**), **gladi-ātor** (**-ātor** from **amā-tor**, etc.; see **205**, note), *one who uses the sword* (**gladius**).

2. **-iō**, **-tiō**, **-tus** (Gen. **-tūs**), **-tūra**, and often **-ium**, form *abstracts* denoting the *action* expressed by the verb, or, by a frequent transfer from the abstract to a concrete meaning, the *result of the action*. Compare English *clipping*, the act of clipping, and *a* (newspaper) *clipping*, the thing clipped.

leg-iō, *legion*, originally *the selecting, levying* (**legō**)
āc-tiō, *the doing, act* (**agō**)
mis-siō,[2] *dismissal* (**mittō**)
can-tus, *singing* (**canō**)
adven-tus, *arrival* (**adveniō**)
vī-sus,[2] *sight* (**videō**)
scrīp-tūra, *writing* (**scrībō**)
tōn-sūra,[2] *shearing* (**tondeō**)
gaud-ium, *joy* (**gaudeō**)
stud-ium, *zeal* (**studeō**)
imper-ium, *command* (**imperō**)
iūdic-ium, *judgment* (**iūdicō**)

a. Many words with the suffix **-tūra** are closely associated with agent-nouns in **-tor**, and denote *office*.

quaes-tūra, *quaestorship* (**quaestor**) **cēn-sūra**, *censorship* (**cēnsor**)

3. **-men** and **-mentum** from nouns denoting *action*, or, oftener, the *result of an action*.

flū-men, *stream* (**fluō**) **frag-men**, **frag-mentum**, *fragment* (**frangō**)
sē-men, *seed* (**serō**, Perf. **sē-vī**)
ōrnā-mentum, *ornament* (**ōrnō**)

a. So sometimes **-mōnium**, as **ali-mōnium**, *nourishment* (**alō**); but this suffix is more frequent in secondary derivatives, as **patri-mōnium**, *patrimony* (**pater**).

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[1] Only some of the commoner and more productive suffixes will be mentioned. For the sake of convenience the form of the Nominative Singular is cited, rather than the stem.

[2] Before suffixes beginning with **t**, the same consonant-changes take place as in Perfect Passive Participles. Hence **-sor**, **-siō**, **-sus**, **-sūra**, beside **-tor**, **-tiō**, **-tus**, **-tūra**. See **49**, 4.

4. **-or** (Gen. **-ōris**) forms abstracts which usually indicate a *physical* or *mental state.*

trem-or, *trembling* (tremō)
cal-or, *warmth* (caleō)
cand-or, *brightness* (candeō)
am-or, *love* (amō)

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5. **-dō** and **-gō** form nouns of various meanings.

cupī-dō, *desire* (cupiō)
orī-gō, *source* (orior)

6. **-ulum, -bulum, -culum, -brum, -crum,** and **-trum** (also **-ula, -bula, -bra,** etc.), form nouns denoting *instrument* or *means.* The idea sometimes passes over into that of *place* or *result.*

vinc-ulum, *chain* (vincō)
pā-bulum, *fodder* (pāscō)
vehi-culum, *wagon* (vehō)
fā-bula, *tale* (fārī)
dēlū-brum, *shrine* (dēluō)
simulā-crum, *image* (simulō)
arā-trum, *plough* (arō)
dolā-bra, *axe* (dolō)

Nouns — Secondary Derivatives

207. 1. **-lus** (Fem. **-la,** Neut. **-lum**) and its various combinations **-ulus, -olus, -ellus, -illus, -ullus,** and **-culus,** form *Diminutives.* These usually follow the gender of the word from which they are derived.

porcu-lus, *little pig* (porcus)
fīlio-lus, *young son* (fīlius)
agel-lus, *small field* (ager; see 49, 11)
lapil-lus, *small stone* (lapis; * lapid-lo-; see 49, 11)
ōs-culum, *little mouth, kiss* (ōs)
rēg-ulus, *chieftain* (rēx)
fīli-ola, *young daughter* (fīlia)
tabel-la, *tablet* (tabula)
homul-lus, *manikin* (homō; * homon-lo-; see 49, 11)
arti-culus, *joint* (artus)

2. **-ia, -tia, -tiēs, -tās, -tūdō, -tūs,** and sometimes **-ium** and **-tium** form abstracts denoting *quality* or *condition.*

miser-ia, *misery* (miser)
audāc-ia, *boldness* (audāx)
dūri-tia, dūri-tiēs, dūri-tās, *hardness* (dūrus)
boni-tās, *goodness* (bonus)
magni-tūdō, *greatness* (magnus)
cīvi-tās, *citizenship, state* (cīvis)
vir-tūs, *manliness* (vir)
sacerdōt-ium, *priesthood* (sacerdōs)
servi-tium, *servitude* (servus)

3. -adēs, -iadēs, -idēs, -īdēs (Masc.) and -ias, -is, -ēis (Fem.) occur in Greek Patronymics, denoting *descent.*

Aene-adēs, *son of Aeneas*
Anchīs-iadēs, *son of Anchises*
Tantal-idēs, *descendant of Tantalus*
Pēl-īdēs, *son of Peleus*
Thest-ias, *daughter of Thestius*
Tyndar-is, *daughter of Tyndarus*
Nēr-ēis, *daughter of Nereus*

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4. -īna often forms nouns denoting an *art* or *craft*, or the place where a craft is practiced.

medic-īna, *healing* (medicus)
discipl-īna, *instruction* (discipulus)
doctr-īna, *teaching* (doctor)
tōnstr-īna, *barber's shop* (tōnsor)

a. This type originated in Adjectives used substantively, ars or officīna being understood. But the suffix -īna is used in other ways, e.g. in simple Feminines like rēg-īna, *queen* (rēx) or in Primary Derivatives, as rap-īna, *robbery* (rapiō).

5. Other significant suffixes are : -ātus (Gen. -ātūs), denoting *office* or *official body;* -ārius, *a dealer* or *artisan;* -ārium, *a place where things are kept;* -īle, *a place for animals.*

cōnsul-ātus, *consulship* (cōnsul)
argent-ārius, *money changer* (argentum)
aer-ārium, *treasury* (aes)
ov-īle, *sheepfold* (ovis)

Adjectives — Primary Derivatives

208. 1. -āx and sometimes -ulus form adjectives denoting *tendencies* or *qualities.*

aud-āx, *bold* (audeō)
ten-āx, *tenacious* (teneō)
bib-ulus, *fond of drink* (bibō)
crēd-ulus, *credulous* (crēdō)
vor-āx, *voracious* (vorō)

2. -ilis and -bilis form adjectives denoting *passive qualities.*

frag-ilis, *breakable, frail* (frangō)
fac-ilis, *easy* (faciō)
bib-ilis, *drinkable* (bibō)
mō-bilis, *movable* (moveō)
amā-bilis, *lovable* (amō)
crēdi-bilis, *worthy of belief* (crēdō)

3. -bundus forms adjectives having about the force of a Present Participle, but is more intensive; -cundus denotes a *characteristic.*

verberā-bundus, *flogging* (verberō)
mori-bundus, *dying* (morior)
īrā-cundus, *wrathful* (īrāscor)
fā-cundus, *eloquent* (fārī)

ADJECTIVES — SECONDARY DERIVATIVES

209. 1. **-eus, -āceus,** and sometimes **-nus, -neus, -inus,** form adjectives of *material.*

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aur-eus, *golden* (aurum)	acer-nus, *of maple* (acer)
ferr-eus, *of iron* (ferrum)	ebur-neus, *of ivory* (ebur)
ros-āceus, *of roses* (rosa)	fāg-inus, *of beech* (fāgus)

2. **-ōsus** and **-lentus** form adjectives denoting *fullness.*

vīn-ōsus, *drunken* (vīnum)	vīno-lentus, *drunken* (vīnum)
verbō-sus, *verbose* (verbum)	opu-lentus, *wealthy* (*ops, opis)

bellic-ōsus, *warlike* (bellicus)

3. **-tus,** identical with the suffix of the Perfect Passive Participle, is also added to Noun-Stems, forming adjectives meaning *provided with* (cf. English *-ed*).

barbā-tus, *bearded* (barba)	aurī-tus (*long-*)*eared* (auris)
dent-ātus, *toothed* (dēns)	cornū-tus, *horned* (cornū)

onus-tus, *laden* (onus)

4. **-idus** forms adjectives denoting a *condition.*

lūc-idus, *light* (lūx)	fūm-idus, *smoky* (fūmus)

a. This suffix, though originating in Secondary Derivatives (properly compounds; e.g. lūci-dus, *light-giving;* cf. dō, *give,* or -dō, *put*), is also used to form Primary Derivatives.

cup-idus, *eager* (cupiō)	langu-idus, *weak* (langueō)

5. **-ernus, -ternus, -urnus, -turnus,** and **-tinus,** form adjectives denoting *time,* mostly from Adverbs.

hodi-ernus, *of to-day* (hodiē)	diu-turnus,[1] *long-continued* (diū)
hes-ternus, *of yesterday* (herī)	diū-tinus, *long-continued* (diū)
di-urnus, *daily* (diēs)	crās-tinus, *of to-morrow* (crās)

annō-tinus, *last year's* (annus)

210. 1. **-ius, -cus, -icus, -icius, -īcius, -nus, -ānus, -īnus, -ālis, -īlis, -ēlis, -āris, -ārius,** form adjectives meaning *belonging to, connected with, derived from,* etc.

[1] In spite of the connection with diū, the u in the second syllable is short in all the passages thus far noted in poetry.

patr-ius, *paternal* (pater)
senātōr-ius, *senatorial* (senātor)
hosti-cus, *hostile* (hostis)
bell-icus, *of war* (bellum)
patr-icius, *patrician* (pater)
nov-īcius, *new* (novus)
pater-nus, *paternal* (pater)
urb-ānus, *of the city* (urbs)
can-īnus, *canine* (canis)
rēg-ālis, *royal* (rēx)
cīv-īlis, *of a citizen* (cīvis)
crūd-ēlis, *cruel* (crūdus)
popul-āris, *of the people* (populus)
legiōn-ārius, *of a legion* (legiō)

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2. -īvus, seen in aest-īvus, *of summer* (aestus), was often added to the stem of the Perfect Passive Participle, giving rise to a suffix -tīvus.

cap-tīvus, *captive* (capiō, captus) fugi-tīvus, *fugitive* (fugiō)

a. Observe also the names for the Cases and Moods; e.g. nōminā-tīvus, gene-tīvus, indicā-tīvus, etc. (used substantively, cāsus or modus being understood).

3. -ēnsis and -iēnsis form adjectives from words denoting place, mostly names of towns.[1]

castr-ēnsis, *of the camp* (castra) Carthāgin-iēnsis, *of Carthage*
Cann-ēnsis, *of Cannae*

4. Other suffixes frequently added to names of towns and countries are -ās, -ānus, -īnus, and -icus.[1]

Arpīn-ās, *of Arpinum* Lat-īnus, *of Latium, Latin*
Rōm-ānus, *of Rome, Roman* Ital-icus, *of Italy, Italian*

a. -ās is used only with names of Italian towns. Adjectives denoting *nationality* usually, though not always, end in -icus; e.g. Gall-icus, *Gallic*, Germān-icus, *Germanic*.

5. Adjectives derived from names of persons commonly end in -ānus or -iānus.

Sull-ānus, *of Sulla* Cicerōn-iānus, *of Cicero*

SECONDARY VERBAL DERIVATIVES

Verbs derived from Nouns and Adjectives

(Denominatives)

211. The great mass of Denominatives follow the First Conjugation, but there are also many of the Fourth, some of the Second, and a few (from u-Stems) of the Third.

[1] Many such adjectives are also used substantively, especially in the Plural; e.g. Athēniēnsēs, *Athenians*, Arpīnātēs, *inhabitants of Arpinum*, Rōmānī, *Romans*, etc.

1. First Conjugation.

cūrō, *care for* (cūra)
dōnō, *give* (dōnum)
levō, *lift* (levis)
sinuō, *bend* (sinus, Gen. sinūs)
honōrō, *honor* (honor, Gen. honōris)
laudō, *praise* (laus, Gen. laudis)

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2. Fourth Conjugation.

fīniō, *end* (fīnis)
partior, *divide* (pars, Gen. partis)
custōdiō, *guard* (custōs, Gen. custōdis)
serviō, *be a slave* (servus)

3. Second Conjugation.

albeō, *be white* (albus)
flōreō, *blossom* (flōs, Gen. flōris)

a. These are mostly intransitive, denoting a condition. Contrast clāreō, *be bright* (clārus), with clārō, *make bright*, clārāre.

4. Third Conjugation.

statuō, *set up* (status)
tribuō, *assign* (tribus)

NOTE. Denominatives were formed from Noun-Stems by means of a suffix *-yo-* and *-ye-*. The y disappeared between vowels, and, in most forms, the vowels then contracted. Thus cūrō from * *cūrā-yō*; albeō from * *albe-yō*. See notes to **166**, **167**, **169**.

The type in -ō, -āre originated in ā-Stems, that in -iō in i-Stems and Consonant-Stems, that in -eō in o-Stems (but with the e-form of the stem, which appears in the Vocative). But the different formations came finally to be used without reference to the form of the Noun-Stem, and especially the type -ō, -āre was used to form Denominatives from all kinds of stems.

VERBS DERIVED FROM OTHER VERBS

212. 1. *Frequentatives.* These end in **-tō** (**-sō**), **-itō**, and sometimes **-titō**, and denote *repeated*, or sometimes merely *intensive*, action.

dictō, *dictate* (dīcō)
habitō, *dwell* (habeō)
versō, *keep turning* (vertō)
rogitō, *keep asking* (rogō)
dictitō, *keep saying, declare* (dīcō)

NOTE. The Frequentatives are Denominative in origin, being formed from the stem of the Perfect Passive Participle. But, owing to their distinctive meaning, they came to be contrasted with the simple Verbs and were felt to be derived from them. In general they follow the formation of the Participle, but many are formed directly from the Present Stem, as agitō, *move violently* (agō, Partic. āctus). The Frequentatives from verbs of the First Conjugation always end in -itō, not -ātō, as rogitō. The forms in -titō are double Frequentatives, being based on the forms in -tō.

2. *Inchoatives.* These end in **-ēscō**, **-āscō**, **-īscō**, and denote *beginning* or *becoming*.

calēscō, *become hot* (caleō)
obdormīscō, *fall asleep* (dormiō)

a. Some Inchoatives are derived from Nouns or Adjectives, and so, properly, form a special class of Denominatives.

dūrēscō, *become hard* (**dūrus**) **vesperāscō**, *become evening* (**vesper**)

NOTE. This formation has its origin in the Primary Verbs in -scō, as **crē-scō**, **nō-scō**, etc. Gaining the specific meaning of *beginning to* or *becoming* (through verbs like **crēscō**, *grow*, that is, *begin to be large*), its use was then extended so as to form Verbs from other Verbs, and also to form Denominatives.

3. *Desideratives.* These end in **-turiō** (**-suriō**), and denote *desire*; e.g. **par-turiō**, *desire to bring forth, be in travail* (**pariō**); **ēsuriō**,[1] *desire to eat, be hungry* (**edō**).

4. *Intensives* (also called Meditatives). These end in **-essō** and denote earnest action; e.g. **petessō**, *seek eagerly* (**petō**); **capessō**, *seize eagerly* (**capiō**).

COMPOSITION

213. Composition is the union of two or more words in one.

NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES

Form

214. According to the *form* of the first part, compounds may be classified as follows:

1. The first part is the Stem of a Noun or Adjective. The final vowel of the stem appears as **i** before consonants, and is dropped before vowels (rarely before consonants). Consonant-Stems usually take the form of i-Stems.

armi-ger, *armor-bearer* (**arma**)	**ūn-oculus**, *one-eyed* (**ūnus**)
agri-cola, *farmer* (**ager**)	**prīn-ceps**, *chief* (**prīmus**)
tubi-cen, *trumpeter* (**tuba**)	**frātri-cīda**, *fratricide* (**frāter**)
parti-ceps, *sharing*	**bi-dēns**, *two-pronged* (**bi-**, found
corni-ger, *horned* (**cornū**)	only in compounds)

NOTE. The final **i** of the first part may represent original **i**, or, by the regular weakening (**42**, 5, 6), **o** or **u**; and, by the analogy of such cases, it is also used for **ā**.

2. The first part is an Adverbial Prefix. Such prefixes, with the exception of the negatives **in-** and **vē-**, are also common in the composition of Verbs, and most of them occur separately as Prepositions. See **218**, 1.

in-grātus, *unpleasant*	**per-facilis**, *very easy*
vē-cors, *senseless*	**sub-rūsticus**, *somewhat rustic*

[1] From * **-ēd-turiō**. See **49**, 5.

NOTE. Some compounds outwardly resembling those mentioned are of essentially different origin, being derived from phrases consisting of a Preposition with its proper case. So **prō-cōnsul**, *one who is in the place of a consul* (**prō cōnsule**); **ē-gregius**, *distinguished, out of the common run* (**ē grege**); **ob-vius**, *in the way* (**ob-viam**).

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3. The first part is a Case-form or Adverb. Since this is merely the union of forms which can be used separately, it is sometimes called Improper Composition, or Juxtaposition.

senātūs-cōnsultum, *decree of the senate* — **aquae-ductus**, *aqueduct*; **bene-volēns**, *well-wishing*

215. 1. The *second* part of a compound is always the Stem of a Noun or Adjective. But sometimes it is one which appears only in composition; e.g. **-fer**, **-ger**, **-ficus**, **-ceps**, **-cen**, **-cīda** (related to the verbs **ferō**, **gerō**, **faciō**, **capiō**, **canō**, **caedō**), **-duum** (**bī-duum**, *two days;* related to **diēs**), etc.

2. Adjective compounds, of which the second part represents a noun of the First or Second Declension, are commonly declined like **bonus** (**110**), but many of them are made into i-Stems, e.g. **bi-fōrmis**, *double* (**fōrma**).[1] In some compounds a suffix is added, especially **-ius**, **-ium**; e.g. **in-iūrius**, *unlawful* (**iūs**); **bi-ennium**, *period of two years* (**annus**). For the vowel-weakening in the second part of compounds, see **42**.

Meaning

216. According to their *meaning*, compounds may again be classified as follows:

1. *Copulative Compounds.* The parts are coördinate, as in **suove-taurīlia**, *sacrifice of a swine, a sheep, and a bull*, **quattuor-decim**, *fourteen.*

2. *Descriptive Compounds.* The first part stands to the second in the relation of an adjectival or an adverbial modifier, as in **lāti-fundium**, *large estate*, **per-facilis**, *very easy.*

3. *Dependent Compounds.* The first part stands in a logical (not formal) case-relation to the second, as in **armi-ger**, *armor-bearer.*

4. *Possessive Compounds.* Compounds of which the second part is a Noun may become Adjectival with the force of *possessed of.* So **ūn-oculus** means not *one eye*, but *possessed of one eye, one-eyed.*

[1] Similarly **in-ermis** (**arma**), **bi-iugis** (**iugum**), but also **in-ermus**, **bi-iugus**. Most adjectives of varying declension are compounds. But cf. also **hilarus** beside **hilaris**, etc.

Adverbs

217. 1. Most Adverbs that are apparently compounds are simply Adverbs formed from Nouns or Adjectives already compounded, as **perfacile**, *very easily*, from **perfacilis**, *very easy*. But:

2. Some of the compounds with the prefixes **in-**, *not*, and **per**, *very*, are formed directly from the simple Adverbs; e.g. **in-grātiīs**, *without thanks*, from **grātiīs**, *with thanks*; **in-iussū**, *without command*, from **iussū**, *by command*: **per-saepe**, *very often*, from **saepe**, *often*.

3. The juxtaposition (**214**, 3) of Prepositions and Adverbs of Time or Place is frequent; e.g. **ab-hinc**, *from this time, since*, **dē-super**, *from above*, **ad-hūc**, *hitherto*, **interibi**, *meanwhile*.

4. The juxtaposition of a Preposition and its case gives rise to some compound Adverbs; e.g. **ob-viam**, *in the way*, **ad-modum**, *to a degree, very*, **dē-nuō**, *anew* (from *dē-novō; see **42**, 4), **dē-subitō**, *of a sudden, suddenly*.

Verbs

218. 1. The only genuine and widely extended type of Verbal Composition is that in which the first part is an Adverbial Prefix, as **ab-eō**, *go away*, **dir-imō**, *take apart*.

These prefixes, many of which are also used separately as Prepositions or Adverbs, are as follows (for change in form, see **51**):

a) Also used separately.

ā-, ab-, abs-, *away*	**in-**, *in*	**prō-, pro-, prōd-**, *forth*
ad-, *to*	**inter-**, *between*	**retrō-**, *back*
ante-, *before*	**ob-, obs-**, *before, against*	**sub-, subs-**, *under*
circum-, *about*	**per-**, *through, thoroughly*	**subter-**, *beneath*
con-, *with* (**cum-**)	**post-**, *after*	**super-**, *over*
dō-, *away*	**prae-**, *before*	**suprā-**, *over*
ē-, ex-, *out*	**praeter-**, *beside*	**trāns-**, *across*

b) Not used separately.

amb-, am-, *about*	**intrō-**, *within*	**re-, red-**, *back*
an-, *in* (rare)	**por-**, *forth*	**sē-, sēd-**, *apart*
dis-, *apart*		

2. Juxtaposition is seen in forms like **bene-dīcō**, *bless*, **manūmittō**, *set free*, **animadvertō**, *attend to*, from **animum advertō**.

3. Forms like **cale-faciō**, *make hot*, **cande-faciō**, *make white*, originated in simple juxtaposition (**cale faciō** written separately in early Latin), but came to be felt as derived from Verbs in **-eō**.

4. Forms like **aedi-ficō**, *build*, are apparently compounds of a Noun-Stem with a Verb, but this type really originated in Denominatives from Nouns already compounded; e.g. **aedificō**, from ***aedi-fex** or ***aedi-ficus**, *house builder*.

PART IV

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SYNTAX

A. INTRODUCTORY

219. Syntax treats of the use of words in the expression of thought or feeling.

220. A Sentence is a complete expression of thought or feeling through the use of words.

221. The Latin Sentence is made up of some or all of the following *kinds* of words, called **Parts of Speech**:

The Noun, which expresses a person or thing.
The Adjective, which expresses a quality, condition, etc.
The Pronoun, which stands instead of a Noun.
The Verb, which expresses an act or state.
The Adverb, which expresses manner, degree, etc.
The Preposition, which expresses relations between words.
The Conjunction, which expresses connection.
The Interjection, which expresses feeling, etc.

a. Nouns are called **Substantives**; e.g. **arbor**, *tree;* **mūrus**, *wall;* **amātor**, *lover;* **vīta**, *life.*

b. Pronouns, Adjectives, and Participles, when *taking the place of Nouns*, are, like Nouns, called Substantives; e.g. **hic**, *this man*, **bonī**, *the good;* **amāns**, *a lover.*

c. The Verb-forms called Participles often express *condition*, *quality*, etc., and so have much in common with Adjectives. Compare, e.g., **fatīgātus**, *wearied*, with **fessus**, *weary;* and **vir laudandus**, *a man to be praised*, with **vir laudābilis**, *a praiseworthy man.* In what follows, statements that are true both of the Adjective and of the Participle will be given in the treatment of the former.

d. The last four Parts of Speech, the Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection, are often called **Particles.**

e. Latin has no article.

SIMPLE, COMPOUND, AND COMPLEX SENTENCES

222. Generally, one or more Verbs are either expressed or clearly understood in every sentence.

a. Certain verbs which can easily be supplied are often omitted. Thus **dīcō, loquor, agō,** and the auxiliary **est** (**sunt**, etc.).

sīc Venus, *thus* (spoke) *Venus;* Aen. 1, 325.

b. Occasionally a sentence does not admit of a verb.

ō tempora, ō mōrēs! *O the times, O the ways of men!* Cat. 1, 1, 2.

ō fortūnātam rem pūblicam! *O happy Commonwealth!* Cat. 2, 4, 7.

223. 1. A **Simple Sentence** is one that contains not more than a single Finite Verb.

dīcit līberius, *he speaks with more freedom;* B. G. 1, 18, 2.

2. A **Compound Sentence** is one that consists of two or more Simple Sentences *of the same rank*, called **Coördinate.**

D. Brūtum classī praeficit, et in Venetōs proficīscī iubet, *he appoints Decimus Brutus to the command of the fleet, and orders him to proceed to the country of the Veneti;* B. G. 3, 11, 5. (**Praeficit** and **iubet** are Coördinate.)

3. A **Complex Sentence** is one in which, in addition to one or more simple sentences, there are one or more sentences *of inferior rank*, called **Subordinate** or **Dependent.**

quod iussī sunt, faciunt, *they do what they have been told (to do);* B. G. 3, 6, 1. (**Quod iussī sunt** is a *Dependent* Sentence, while **faciunt** is the *Main*, or *Principal*, Sentence.)

CLAUSES AND PHRASES

224. In a Complex Sentence,

1. The Independent Sentences are called **Main**, or **Principal, Sentences**; while the Dependent Sentences are generally distinguished by being called **Dependent**, or **Subordinate, Clauses.** Thus, in **quod iussī sunt, faciunt,** *they do what they have been told (to do)*, **faciunt** is called a Principal Sentence, and **quod iussī sunt** a Dependent Clause.

2. But, for convénience, the word Clause is sometimes used of the main sentence also, so that one speaks of **Principal Clauses** as well as of **Dependent Clauses.**

a. The word Clause is confined to members of a sentence that contain a Finite Verb (**146**) or an Infinitive (cf. **238**, *a*).

b. A Phrase is a group of associated words not containing a Finite Verb or an Infinitive.

hominēs magnae virtūtis, *men of great courage;* B. G. 2, 15, 5. (**Magnae virtūtis** is a Phrase.)

ūnā ex parte, *on one side;* B. G. 1, 2, 3.

225. Clauses, like sentences, may be Coördinate; *or* one may be Dependent upon another.

huic mandat Belgās adeat atque in officiō contineat, (Caesar) *instructs him to go to the Belgians and hold them to their allegiance;* B. G. 3, 11, 2. (**Adeat** and **contineat** are Coördinate.)

equitātum praemittit, quī videant quās in partīs hostēs iter faciant, *he sends the cavalry ahead, to find out in what direction the enemy are moving;* B. G. 1, 15, 1. (**Quās . faciant** is Subordinate to **quī videant**, — which itself is Subordinate to **praemittit**.)

DEPENDENCE AND SEMI-DEPENDENCE (OR PARATAXIS)

226. The term Dependence, or Subordination, as used in grammar, means *dependence both in thought and in form.*

Thus in **quod advēnit, gaudeō**, *I am glad because he has come*, not only the obvious thought, but the form of the clause, show the dependence of **advēnit**, *he has come*, upon **gaudeō**, *I am glad.*

227. Semi-Dependence, or Parataxis,[1] is *dependence in thought, with independence in form.*

Thus in **advēnit: gaudeō**, *he has come: I am glad*, **advēnit** is really dependent upon **gaudeō** (I am glad *because* he has come), though there is nothing in the form to show this.

a. Almost all dependent clauses have passed through the middle stage of Parataxis. Thus **eās**[2] **necesse est**, *it is necessary that you go*, must have come down from a paratactic stage, **eās: necesse est**, *go: it is necessary.*

b. In passing into the dependent form a sentence often shifts its meaning somewhat, to fit the closer relationship in which it stands in the new form. Thus the (original) paratactic combination **mē ēripiam: nē causam dīcam** must have meant *I will save myself: I will not plead my cause;* while **mē ēripiam nē causam dīcam** means *I will save myself from pleading my cause.* Cf. **nē causam dīceret sē ēripuit**, B. G. 1, 4, 2.

[1] A Greek word meaning *setting side by side.*

[2] **Eās** is dependent, not paratactic. Cf. **501**, 3, *a*, 2).

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES AND CLAUSES

228. Every Sentence or Clause *declares, assumes, inquires,* or *exclaims.*

1. It declares (tells) something (*Declarative* Sentence or Clause).

veniat, *let him come;* **utinam veniat**, *I wish he would come;* **venit**, *he is coming.*

NOTE. To declare is to *make known.* Thus in the above, the various verbs declare respectively the speaker's *will*, his *desire*, and his *perception of a fact.* A *Dependent Clause* may likewise declare. Thus in dīc ut veniat, *tell him that he is to come*, veniat *declares* the speaker's *will* (he *is to come*).

2. It assumes something as a condition for something else (*Conditional*, or *Assumptive*,[1] Sentence or Clause).

sī venit, *if he is coming;* **sī veniat**, *if he should come;* **quisquis vēnerit, occīdētur**, *whoever comes will be killed* (i.e. IF any man comes, he will be killed).

3. It inquires or exclaims about something (*Interrogative* or *Exclamatory* Sentence or Clause).

venit? *is he coming?* **fortis est?** *is he brave?* **quam fortis est!** *how brave he is!*

a. Interrogative and Exclamatory sentences, if the latter contain a verb, have the same form in Latin. It is therefore best to treat them together.

b. All true Dependent Clauses introduced by a Relative (**quī**, etc.), or by any Conjunction implying a Relative idea (**quotiēns, cum, dum, antequam, postquam**, etc.), are necessarily confined to the first two uses, i.e. they are either *Declarative* or *Conditional;* for it is impossible to inquire or exclaim in a really dependent Relative Clause.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE

229. The **Subject** is that about which something is declared, assumed, or asked. That which is declared, assumed, or asked, is called the **Predicate.**[2]

Caesar respondit, *Caesar answered;* B. G. 1, 14, 1. (**Caesar** is the Subject, and **respondit** the Predicate.)

a. The Predicate is often omitted, especially if formed from the verb **sum.**

quot hominēs, tot sententiae, *as many men, so many minds;* Ph. 454.

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[1] The word "conditional" is convenient, as being in common use. The word *assumptive*, as corresponding to the verb *assume*, would be more exact. Cf. **573.**

[2] The word Predicate is derived from praedicō, *predicate, assert.*

PREDICATE NOUN, ADJECTIVE, OR PRONOUN

230. A Noun, Adjective, or Pronoun forming a part of that which is predicated is called a **Predicate** Noun, Adjective, or Pronoun.

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hōrum omnium fortissimī sunt Belgae, *of all these, the Belgians are the bravest;* B. G. 1, 1, 3. (The idea "bravest" is as much predicated as is the idea "are.")

a. The verb **sum**, when thus joining a predicate word with its subject, is called a **Copula** (i.e. "joiner").

b. Participles employed as Adjectives (**248**) are often used predicatively, true Participles very rarely.

FORMS OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES

231. Questions are of two main kinds:

1. Questions of the whole sentence (*"yes" or "no" questions*). Of these there are four possible forms:

a) Without introductory word, as in English:

vīs pugnāre? *do you want to fight?* Rud. 1011.

nōn sentīs? *do you not see?* Cat. 1, 1, 1.

b) With the neutral enclitic **-ne** (implying nothing about the answer). The enclitic is attached to the emphatic word:

voltisne eāmus vīsere? *do you wish that we should go and call upon her?* Ph. 102.

NOTE 1. The neutral enclitic **-ne** is occasionally used where the context makes it clear what the answer *must be*. Thus **vidētisne ut apud Homērum?** Sen. 10, 31 (answer "yes"); **potestne tibi huius caelī spīritus esse iūcundus?** Cat. 1, 6, 15 (answer "no").

NOTE 2. In poetry, **-ne** is sometimes attached to interrogative words. Thus **quōne malō?** *by what curse?* Sat. 2, 3, 295.

NOTE 3. **-ne** sometimes loses its **e**, especially in early Latin. Thus **ain?** (for **aisne?** for loss of **s**, see **49**, 12), **audīn?** (for **audīsne?**), **itan?** (for **itane?**), **satin?** (for **satisne?**), **scīn?** (for **scīsne?**), **viden?** (for **vidēsne?**; for the quantity, see **28**, note), **vīn?** (for **vīsne?**), **utīn** (for **uti-ne**, from **uti**, a by-form of **utī**, **ut**, as in **uti-nam**, **uti-que**). Similarly **Pyrrhīn** (= **Pyrrhīne**), Aen. 3, 319.

c) With **nōnne**, implying the answer "yes":

Mithridātēs nōnne ad Cn. Pompeium lēgātum mīsit? *did not Mithridates send an ambassador to Gnaeus Pompey?* Pomp. 16, 46.

d) With **num**, implying the answer "no":

num negāre audēs? *you dare not deny, do you?* Cat. 1, 4, 8.

2. Questions *of detail.*

quid exspectās? *what are you looking for?* Cat. 2, 8, 18.

cūr tam diū loquimur? *why do we talk so long?* Cat. 2, 8, 17.

NOTE. **Tandem**, or the interrogative enclitic **-nam**, may be added to the simple interrogative to strengthen it; thus **quousque tandem?** *how long, pray?* Cat. 1, 1, 1; **quibusnam manibus?** *with what hands, pray?* B. G. 2, 30, 4.

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FORMS OF ANSWERS TO "YES" OR "NO" QUESTIONS

232. 1. "Yes" may be expressed by repeating the Verb; or, less formally, by **ita, sīc, etiam, vērō, certō, sānē**, etc.

"**fuistīn līber?**" "**Fuī,**" "*were you a free man?*" "*I was*"; Capt. 628.

"**illa maneat?**" "**Sīc,**" "*is she to remain?*" "*Yes*"; Ph. 813.

2. "No" may be expressed by repeating the Verb and adding a negative; or, less formally, by **nōn, minimē**, etc.

"**nōn ego illī argentum redderem?**" "**Nōn redderēs,**" "*should I not have paid him the money?*" "*You should not have paid him*"; Trin. 133.

"**ea praeteriit?**" "**Nōn,**" "*has that* (day) *passed?*" "*No*"; Ph. 525.

233. An answer correcting or heightening the force of a preceding question is introduced by **immō**, *on the contrary, why even.*

vīvit? **Immō vērō etiam in senātum venit!** *lives, do I say? Why! he even comes into the senate!* Cat. 1, 1, 2.

ALTERNATIVE QUESTIONS

234. **Alternative Questions**, or questions that offer the hearer or reader two or more things to choose among, are expressed as follows:

I. With **utrum . . , an . .**
II. With **-ne . . . , an**
III. With —— . . , an . .

I. **haec utrum lēx est, an lēgum omnium dissolūtiō?** (whether) *is this a law, or an undoing of all laws?* Phil. 1, 9, 21.

II. **Rōmamne veniō, an hīc maneō, an Arpīnum fugiam?** *do I come to Rome, or stay here, or shall I flee to Arpinum?* Att. 16, 8, 2.

III. **prīvātam servitūtem servit, an pūblicam?** *is he slave to a private person, or to the state?* Capt. 334.

a. If the second part of the question is *negatived*, **nōn**, *not*, is added to **an**, making **an nōn** (**annōn**), *or not.* The verb is regularly omitted. In an Indirect Question (**537**), **necne** may also be used instead of **an nōn** (rarely in a Direct one).

pater eius rediit an nōn? *has his father returned or not?* Ph. 147.

quaesīvī in conventū fuisset necne, *I asked whether he had been at the meeting or not;* Cat. 2, 6, 13.

b. In the Indirect Question, the forms **utrum . . . , -ne** and ——, **-ne** sometimes occur; also, in poetry, **-ne . . . , -ne** (as in Aen. 5, 702 and 1, 308).

RHETORICAL QUESTIONS, ETC.

235. Questions that do not really ask for information, but are only stronger ways of *declaring* something, are called **Rhetorical Questions.**

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quis dubitat? *who doubts?* (= nobody doubts).
quis dubitet? *who would doubt?* (= nobody would doubt).
cūr dubitem? *why should I doubt?* (= I ought not to doubt).
quid prōdest? *what is the use?* (= there is no use).

236. An **Absurd Question** is often introduced by **an** alone.

an vērō Catilīnam perferēmus? *are we really going to tolerate Catiline?* Cat. 1, 1, 3.

237. A **Question Suggesting the Probable Answer** may be introduced by **an.**

cuium pecus? An Meliboeī? *whose flock? That* (perhaps) *of Meliboeus?* Ecl. 3, 1.

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES

238. Indicative, Subjunctive, and Infinitive Clauses are often used **Substantively** (i.e. in some *case*-relation in the sentence).

ut nē addam quod ingenuam nactus es, *not to add that you have now a freeborn wife;* Ph. 168. (**Quod nactus es** is the Object of **addam.**)

placuit eī, ut ad Ariovistum lēgātōs mitteret, *it seemed best to him that he should send ambassadors to Ariovistus;* B. G. 1, 34, 1. (**Ut . . mitteret** is the Subject of **placuit.**)

lēgātōs mittī placet? *does it seem best that ambassadors be sent?* Phil. 5, 9, 25.

placuit experīrī, *it seemed best to try;* Caecin. 7, 20.

a. The Infinitive in such relations, even when standing alone, is the equivalent of a clause. No line can be drawn in the above between the three subjects of **placuit** or **placet.**

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES

239. Clauses modifying Verbs are called **Adverbial.**

nec enim, dum eram vōbīscum, animum meum vidēbātis, *for while I was with you, you did not see my soul;* Sen. 22, 79. (**Dum eram vōbīscum** is attached, like an *Adverb of time*, to **vidēbātis.**)

B. THE PARTS OF SPEECH IN DETAIL

NOUNS

240. Nouns are divided into the following kinds:

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1. **Proper Nouns** denote *particular* persons, places, or things, as **Cicerō**, *Cicero;* **Rōma**, *Rome;* **Mausōlēum**, *the tomb of Mausolus.*

2. **Common Nouns** denote *any* person or thing of a given *class*, as **senātor**, *senator;* **servus**, *slave;* **mīles**, *soldier;* **urbs**, *city;* **sepulcrum**, *tomb.*

a. Proper Nouns are sometimes used like Common Nouns, as **Catōnēs**, *men like Cato;* Am. 6, 21.

b. Common Nouns are sometimes used like Adjectives, as **victōrem exercitum**, *victorious army;* B. G. 7, 20, 12.

3. **Collective Nouns** denote a *group* or *class* of persons or things, as **senātus**, *senate* (collection of senators); **exercitus**, *army* (collection of soldiers).

4. **Concrete Nouns** denote things that can be perceived by the senses (sight, touch, hearing, etc.), as **mūrus**, *wall;* **aurum**, *gold;* **sonus**, *sound.*

5. **Abstract Nouns** denote things that cannot be perceived by the senses, namely, qualities, states of mind, conditions, activities, and the like, as **virtūs**, *virtue;* **sapientia**, *wisdom;* **servitium**, *serfdom, slavery.*

a. Abstract Nouns are occasionally used with concrete meaning. Thus **servitia concitat**, *he is stirring up the slaves;* Cat. 4, 6, 13.

b. The Plural of Abstracts is often used to express *acts, instances*, or *kinds.* Thus **audāciae**, *acts of insolence;* Cat. 2, 5, 10.

c. In poetry, the Plural of either Abstract or Concrete Nouns is sometimes used for the singular to produce a more striking effect.

d. The line between Concrete and Abstract Nouns is impossible to draw sharply. Thus **animus**, *mind*, lies between the two.

ADJECTIVES (and Participles, in Certain Parallel Uses)

COMPARISON

241. 1. The three degrees of Comparison have the same meanings as in English.

2. But the Comparative is also used merely to indicate a *higher* degree of the quality or condition *than is usual* (English *rather* or *too*), as **loquācior**, *rather talkative;* **audācior**, *too bold.*

3. The Superlative is used, more freely than in English, to indicate a *very high* degree of the quality or condition, as **loquācissimus**, *most talkative, very talkative;* **ērudītissimus**, *very learned.*

a. In this sense, the Superlative is often strengthened by the addition of **vel**, *even;* or **ūnus**, *the one.* Thus **vel summa paupertās**, *even the greatest poverty;* Tusc. 5, 39, 113.

4. To indicate the *highest degree possible*, the Superlative is accompanied by **quam** with some form of **possum**, or by **quam** alone.

nāvīs quam plūrimās possunt cōgunt, *they collect as many ships as they can* (as many as possible); B. G. 3, 9, 9.

quam plūrimās cīvitātīs, *as many states as possible;* B. G. 1, 9, 3.

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242. Two Comparatives. When an object is said to possess a quality in a higher degree than some other quality (English *rather . . . than*), both Adjectives regularly take the same form.

pestilentia minācior quam perniciōsior, *a plague that was alarming rather than destructive* (more alarming than destructive); Liv. 4, 52, 3.

magis invidiōsō crīmine quam vērō, *on an accusation that was invidious rather than true* (more invidious than true); Verr. 2, 46, 113.

a. The uses of the Comparative Adverb correspond, as also for **241**. Compare **241** with **300**, and **242** with **301**.

SPECIAL USES OF CERTAIN ADJECTIVES AND PARTICIPLES

243. The Romans used the Adjectives **prior, prīnceps, prīmus, postrēmus,** and **ultimus** to express the idea of *first*, or *last, to do a thing.*

ea prīnceps poenās persolvit, *this was the first to pay the penalty;* B. G. 1, 12, 6.

244. The Romans used certain Adjectives to denote a *part*. Thus:

prīmus, *first*	**summus**, *topmost*	**medius**, *middle*
postrēmus, *last*	**īnfimus (īmus)**, *lowest*	**sērus**, *late*
extrēmus, *outermost*	**intimus**, *innermost*	**multus**, *much*

summus mōns, *the top of the mountain;* B. G. 1, 22, 1.

multō diē, *late in the day* (in the late part of the day); B. G. 1, 22, 4.

prīmō impetū, *at the beginning of the attack;* B. G. 2, 24, 1.

a. This use must be carefully distinguished from the ordinary one, as in **ante prīmam vigiliam**, *before the first watch;* B. G. 7, 3, 3.

245. The Romans generally used certain Adjectives and Participles where we use Adverbs. The most common of these are:

sciēns, *witting(ly)*	**invītus**, *unwilling(ly)*	**assiduus**, *constant(ly)*
īnsciēns, *unwitting(ly)*	**laetus**, *glad(ly)*	**praeceps**, *headlong*
libēns, *willing(ly)*	**maestus**, *sorrowful(ly)*	**frequēns**, *in great numbers*

laetī pergunt, *proceed joyfully;* B. G. 3, 18, 8.

frequentēs vēnērunt, *came in great numbers;* B. G. 4, 13, 4.

246. When **multus** is used with an Adjective or Participle expressing quality, the two are generally connected by a word meaning "and."

multīs gravibusque vulneribus, *with many dangerous wounds;* B. G. 2, 25, 1.
multīs ac summīs virīs, *to many influential men;* Cat. 1, 4, 10.

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247. A Distributive Numeral is used instead of a Cardinal:

1. If its Noun is Singular in meaning, though Plural in form (**104**, 4; 105). Thus **duās epistulās** or **bīnās litterās,** *two letters* (of correspondence. **Duās litterās** would mean *two letters of the alphabet*).

a. For *three*, **trīnī**, not **ternī**, is used in prose with such a noun.

b. For *one*, **ūnī** is used (not **singulī**), as **ūnās litterās,** *one letter.*

2. Usually in multiplication, as **bis bīnī,** *twice two.*

3. Occasionally in poetry with the meaning of the corresponding Cardinal, as in **centēnās manūs,** *a hundred hands;* Aen. 10, 566.

THE PARTICIPLE AS ADJECTIVE

248. Participles are often used as Adjectives. But in Ciceronian Latin the only *Future Active* Participles thus used are **futūrus** and **ventūrus.**

acūtus et prōvidēns, *intelligent and farsighted;* Fam. 6, 6, 9.
opiniō ventūrī bonī, *an impression of coming good;* Tusc. 4, 7, 14.

ADJECTIVE OR PARTICIPLE AS SUBSTANTIVE

249. Certain Adjectives and Participles are used as Substantives.

1. In the Singular Number, the *Masculine* denotes a class of persons, the *Neuter* a quality, or a corresponding abstract idea.

iūstus, *the just man*	**iūstum,** *that which is just, justice*
timidus, *the timid man*	**timēns,** *the man that fears*

2. In the Plural, the *Masculine* denotes a class of persons, the *Neuter* either a class of things or a number of instances of a quality.

iūstī, *the just*	**iūsta,** *due ceremonies* (just things)
bonī, *the good*	**bona,** *good things, goods, blessings*
doctī, *the learned, scholars*	**praeterita,** *past things, the past*

250. In prose, the Substantive uses of the Adjective and Participle are confined within certain limits, as follows:

1. In the Singular:

a) The *Masculine*[1] of the *Participle* is freely used in any Case except the Nominative and Vocative, and in any construction.

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b) The *Masculine* of the *Adjective* is freely used in the Predicate Genitive only (**340**). If it is of the Third Declension, this construction is *preferred* to that of the Predicate Nominative.

dēmentis est, *it is the part of a madman* (not **dēmēns est**); Off. 1, 24, 83.

c) The *Masculine Nominative* of either the *Adjective* or the *Participle* is rare in prose, unless modified by a Pronoun (**hic**, **quisque**, etc.); but it is freely employed by the poets.

semper avārus eget, *the miserly is always poor;* Ep. 1, 2, 56.

NOTE 1. In place of using the Masculine Nominative Adjective alone, the prose writers generally couple it with **vir** or **homō**, as in **vir bonus**, *the good man;* Tusc. 5, 16, 48.

NOTE 2. In place of using the Masculine Nominative Participle alone, the prose writers generally use **is quī**, e.g. **is quī timet**, *the man who fears;* Leg. 1, 14, 41.

d) The *Neuter* of the *Adjective* is freely used in any Case, but is especially frequent with Prepositions and in the Genitive of the Whole (**346**).

in angustō, *in straits;* B. G. 2, 25, 1.
sine dubiō, *without doubt;* Cat. 2, 1, 1.
nihil solidī, *nothing solid;* N. D. 1, 27, 75.

NOTE. This Genitive is rare with Adjectives of the *Third* Declension (**346**, *a*).

2. In the Plural:

a) The *Masculine* of either the Adjective or the Participle is freely used in any Case and in any construction.

cognōvit montem ā suīs tenērī, *learned that the mountain was held by his men;* B. G. 1, 22, 4.

quī leviter aegrōtantīs lēniter cūrant, *who cure the moderately sick by mild methods;* Off. 1, 24, 83.

b) The *Neuter* is generally avoided except in the Nominative and Accusative, in which the form makes the Gender clear. In other Cases, the Noun **rēs**, with the Adjective in agreement, is generally preferred.

omnia, *all things*, Cat. 1, 13, 32; but **omnium rērum**, *of all things*, Pomp. 9, 22.

[1] The uses of the Feminine correspond for all the constructions of this section, but examples are rare.

NOTE. Perfect Passive Participles used as Substantives may retain the verb-feeling sufficiently to be modified by an Adverb, or they may completely become Nouns, and so have an Adjective agreeing with them. Thus **facta rēctē**, *deeds well done*, Cat. 3, 12, 27; but **improbīs factīs**, *evil deeds*, Fin. 1, 16, 51. Similarly in the Singular.

251. Many words which came to be used as simple Nouns were originally Adjectives or Participles. Thus:

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amīcus, *friend*	**dextra**, *the right hand*
inimīcus, *enemy*	**sinistra**, *the left hand*
propinquus, *relation*	**hīberna**, *winter quarters*
pār (an even thing), *a pair*	**īnstitūtum**, *institution*

252. Rarely, a Perfect Passive Participle is used *impersonally* (**287**) as a Noun.

nōtumque furēns quid fēmina possit, *and the knowledge to what lengths a woman in wrath may go;* Aen. 5, 6. (**Nōtum** = **nōtitia**.)

PRONOUNS AND CORRESPONDING ADJECTIVES

253. Pronouns and corresponding Adjectives are divided into the following classes:

I. Personal, and Personal Possessive
II. Reflexive, and Reflexive Possessive
III. Reciprocal
IV. Intensive
V. Identifying
VI. Determinative-Descriptive
VII. Interrogative
VIII. Indefinite
IX. Collective
X. Distributive
XI. Pronominal Adjectives
XII. Relative

I. THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS AND THE CORRESPONDING POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

254. The Personal Pronouns denote *persons*, with no further idea (*I, you*, etc.). The Possessive Pronouns denote persons as *possessors* (*mine, your*, etc.).

a. The Personal Genitives in **-ī** (**meī, tuī, suī, nostrī**, and **vestrī**) are generally Objective (**354**); while **nostrum** and **vestrum** are Genitives of the Whole (**346**).

memoriam nostrī, *the recollection of us;* Sen. 22, 81.

ūnumquemque nostrum, *every one of us;* Cat. 1, 1, 2.

b. But the form in **-um** is *occasionally* used Objectively, and is *regularly* used with **omnium**, whatever the construction. Thus **omnium nostrum salūtem**, *the safety of us all;* Cat. 1, 6, 14.

255. Latin has no true *Personal Pronoun of the Third Person* (*he, she*, etc.). The place of this is supplied by one of the Determinative Pronouns (271), — most frequently by **is**.

Helvētiī lēgātōs ad eum mīsērunt, *the Helvetians sent ambassadors to him*; B. G. 1, 27, 1.

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256. The place of the *Possessive Pronoun of the Third Person* is supplied by the Genitive of one of the Determinative Pronouns (271), — most frequently of **is**.

cōnsiliō eius, *by his plan* (the plan of him); B. G. 4, 21, 5.

257. Since the form of the Verb shows its person, the Personal Pronouns are generally not expressed as Subjects. But they are necessarily expressed when *emphasis* or *contrast* is intended.

Not expressed: **polliceor**, *I promise;* Cat. 1, 13, 32.
Expressed for emphasis: **ego cūrābō**, I *will attend to it;* Ph. 713.
Expressed for contrast: **tuos** (= **tuus**) **est damnātus gnātus, nōn tū**, *it was* YOUR SON *that was condemned, not* YOU; Ph. 422.

a. **Quidem** is often added to **tū** for still further emphasis. **Equidem** is mostly confined to the first person, and the pronoun is not expressed. Thus **haud equidem adsentior . . .**; **persevērās tū quidem**, *I do not assent . . .;* YOU *keep on;* Leg. 3, 11, 26.

258. The Possessive Pronouns are generally not expressed if the meaning is clear without them. But they are necessarily expressed where *clearness* requires, or where *emphasis* or *contrast* is intended.

When expressed for clearness, they, like Adjectives, follow their Nouns. When expressed for emphasis or contrast, they, like Adjectives under the same circumstances, precede their Nouns.

Not expressed: **fīlium nārrās mihi?** *do you talk to me of* (*my*) *son?* Ph. 401.
Expressed for clearness: **operā tuā ad restim mihi rēs redit**, *through* YOUR *doing it has come to be a hanging matter for me;* Ph. 685.
Expressed for emphasis: **mī patrue!** MY DEAR *uncle!* Ph. 254.
Expressed for contrast: **nostran culpa ea est an iūdicum?** *is it* OUR *fault or the* JUDGES'? Ph. 275.

259. *Plural of Dignity.* The Personal or Possessive Pronoun of the First Person is often used in the Plural instead of the Singular, for greater dignity.

ad senātum referēmus, *we* (= I) *shall refer* (other matters) *to the senate;* Cat. 2, 12, 26.

II. THE REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS AND THE CORRESPONDING POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

260. The Reflexive Pronouns and corresponding Possessives denote persons who are also the Subject of the Verb (as in I *love* MYSELF, YOU *love* YOUR *son*), or of an activity expressed by an Adjective or Noun.

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sē alunt, *they support themselves;* B. G. 4, 1, 5.

cōnservātiō suī, *the saving of himself;* Fin. 5, 13, 37.

a. In the *First* and *Second Persons*, the Reflexive Pronouns and Possessives are identical with the Personal Pronouns and Possessives (**ego, meus, tū, tuus**, etc.). Thus **mē amat**, *he loves me*, and **mē amō**, *I love myself* (I love me).

b. In the *Third Person*, the Reflexive Pronoun is **sē** (or **sēsē**), and the Reflexive Possessive is **suus**. (For **ipse** as Reflexive, see **263**.)

261. The Latin Reflexive Pronouns and corresponding Possessives are generally not accompanied by any word corresponding to our English "self."

mē dēfendī, *I have defended myself;* Cat. 1, 5, 11.

sē ex nāvī prōiēcit, *he flung himself from the ship;* B. G. 4, 25, 4.

suīs fīnibus eōs prohibent, *they keep them from their territory;* B. G. 1, 1, 4.

a. Yet **ipse**, *self*, is sometimes added. See **268**.

262. **Sē** and **suus** are used mainly in two ways:

1. To refer to the Subject of the clause in which they stand. ("Direct Reflexive.")

sē suaque omnia dēdidērunt, *they surrendered themselves and all their possessions;* B. G. 2, 15, 2.

2. To refer to the Subject of the *main clause*, though themselves standing in a subordinate clause. ("Indirect Reflexive.")

This is possible only where the subordinate clause expresses the thought of the Subject of the main clause.

hīs mandāvit ut quae dīceret Ariovistus ad sē referrent, *he charged them to report to him what Ariovistus should say;* B. G. 1, 47, 5.

a. Where the subordinate clause expresses the thought, not of the subject of the main clause, but of the *writer* or *speaker*, is is used, not **sē**, and **eius**, etc., not **suus**, to refer to that subject; for the *idea* in this case is not reflexive.

cum propter multās eius virtūtēs magnā cum dignitāte vīveret, *since on account of his many virtues he was enjoying great authority;* Nep. Them. 8, 2.

263. In a subordinate clause **ipse** *may* be used as a Reflexive referring to the Subject of the *main* clause, as follows:

1. Where *two* Reflexives are needed, referring to *the same* person or thing.

Ariovistus respondit: sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset, sēsē ad eum ventūrum fuisse, *Ariovistus replied that, if he himself had wanted anything from Caesar, he would have come to him;* B. G. 1, 34, 2.

2. Where *two* Reflexives are needed, referring to *different* persons or things.

cūr dē suā virtūte aut dē ipsīus dīligentiā dēspērārent? (Caesar asked) *why they should despair of their own valor or his vigilance;* B. G. 1, 40, 4.

3. Where **sē** or **suus** would be ambiguous:

erat eī praeceptum ā Caesare nē proelium committeret, nisi ipsīus cōpiae prope hostium castra vīsae essent, *he had been instructed by Caesar not to join battle, unless his* (Caesar's) *forces should be seen near the enemy's camp;* B. G. 1, 22, 3.

264. **Sē, suus,** and **ipse** gain the following *extensions* of usage:

1. **Suus** is often used to refer to the subject of an act involved in the thought, though not distinctly stated.

Caesar Fabium cum suā legiōne remittit in hīberna, *Caesar sends Fabius back with his* (Fabius's) *legion to his winter quarters* (Fabius went back with his legion); B. G. 5, 53, 3.

2. **Suus** is occasionally used to refer to the person most prominent in the thought of the sentence, even though that person is neither the grammatical nor the real ("logical") subject.

dēsinant īnsidiārī domī suae cōnsulī, *let them cease to set an ambuscade for the consul in his own house;* Cat. 1, 13, 32.

a. So especially with **quisque**, as in **suus cuique erat locus attribūtus,** *to each had been assigned his proper place* (his own place to each); B. G. 7, 81, 4.

3. Out of the meaning *own* arise the meanings *proper, favorable*, etc.

dē ōrdine praecipiēmus suō tempore, *on the matter of rank we will give instructions at the proper time* (*its* time); Quintil. 2, 4, 21.

sī hostīs in suum locum ēlicere posset, *if he could draw the enemy into a favorable place* (*his own* place); B. G. 5, 50, 3.

a. Similarly **noster,** *our,* may have the meaning *favorable,* and **aliēnus,** *belonging to another,* the meaning *unfavorable.*

4. **Sē,** suus, and **ipse** are often used of an *indefinite* self.

dēfōrme est dē sē ipsum praedicāre, *it is bad form to brag about one's self;* Off. 1, 38, 137.

III. PRONOUNS USED WITH RECIPROCAL FORCE

265. The Pronouns used with Reciprocal Force denote two or more persons as affecting *each other* or *one another*.

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The reciprocal idea may be expressed, for *two* persons or things, by using **alter** or **uterque** twice, in different cases; for *more than two* persons or things, by using **alius** twice, in different cases.

ut alter alterī auxiliō esset, *so that each was of assistance to the other;* B. G. 5, 44, 14.

uterque utrīque est cordī, *they are dear to each other;* Ph. 800.

accēdēbat ut aliōs aliī deinceps exciperent, *then besides, they relieved one another successively;* B. G. 5, 16, 4.

a. The reciprocal idea is sometimes expressed by **ipsī**, with **suī, sibi**, or **sē**.

ubi mīlitēs sibi ipsōs esse impedīmentō vīdit, *when he saw that the soldiers were hindering one another;* B. G. 2, 25, 1.

266. The phrase **inter nōs** (or **vōs**, or **sē**), is used with reciprocal force, in *any* case-relation.

cohortātī inter sē, *encouraging one another;* B. G. 4, 25, 5.

quō differant inter sēsē, *wherein they differ from one another;* B. G. 6, 11, 1.

IV. THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN

267. The Intensive Pronoun **ipse**, *self*, expresses emphasis or distinction.

Catilīna ipse profūgit; hī quid exspectant? *Catiline himself has fled; what, then, are these men waiting for?* Cat. 2, 3, 6.

a. **Ipse** is sometimes used alone, to denote a person prominent in the minds of the speaker and the hearer.

respondēre solitōs: "ipse dīxit"; "ipse" autem erat Pȳthagorās, *they used to answer "he said so himself"; now "himself" was Pythagoras;* N. D. 1, 5, 10.

sēdēs in Galliā, ab ipsīs concessās, *a home in Gaul, granted by* (the Gauls) *themselves;* B. G. 1, 44, 2.

268. When **ipse** is used at the same time with the Reflexive Pronoun (see **261**) it agrees with the Subject or with the Reflexive, according as the idea of the one or the other is to be emphasized.

mē ipse condemnō, *I condemn myself;* Cat. 1, 2, 4. (Self as *actor*.)

nec agrum sed ipsum mē excolō, *and I cultivate, not my field, but myself;* Plin. Ep. 4, 6, 2. (Self as *object*.)

269. Ipse is much more freely used than English "self," being employed to express ideas conveyed by our "very," "mere," "precisely," "exactly," "positively," "in person," "of his own motion," etc.

in ipsīs flūminis rīpīs, *on the very banks of the river;* B. G. 2, 23, 3.

Catilīnam ipsum ēgredientem verbīs prōsecūtī sumus, *we have presented Catiline with our compliments as he went out of his own accord;* Cat. 2, 1, 1.

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a. For ipse as a Reflexive, see **263**; for ipsīus with a Possessive Pronoun, **339**, *b*.

V. THE IDENTIFYING PRONOUN

270. **Īdem**, *same*, identifies a person or thing with one that has just been mentioned or is immediately to be mentioned.

eādem dē causā, *for the same reason* (mentioned before); B. G. 2, 7, 2.

a. Īdem often corresponds to English "also," "likewise," or "yet."

dīxī ego īdem in senātū, *I also said in the senate* (1, the same man); Cat. 1, 3, 7.

b. "The same as" is expressed by **īdem quī** or **īdem atque** or **ac** (**307**, 2, *a*).

VI. THE DETERMINATIVE-DESCRIPTIVE PRONOUNS AND CORRESPONDING ADJECTIVES

hic, iste, ille, is, tālis, tantus, tot

271. These Pronouns and Pronominal Adjectives have the power of telling either (I) *what* person or thing is meant (*determinative* power), or (II) *what kind of* person or thing is meant (*descriptive* power).

I. *Determinative Use:* **Q. Maximum, eum quī Tarentum recēpit**, *Quintus Maximus*, (I mean) *the man who recovered Tarentum;* Sen. 4, 10.

id quod cōnstituerant facere cōnantur, *they endeavor to do* (what?) *that which they had determined upon;* B. G. 1, 5, 1.

II. *Descriptive Use:* **habētis eum cōnsulem quī nōn dubitet**, *you have* (what kind of consul?) *a consul that does not hesitate;* Cat. 4, 11, 24.

a. The distinctive meanings of these words are as follows:

Hic, *this*, or *of this kind*, refers to something near the *speaker*, in space, time, or thought.

Iste, *that* (of yours), or *of that kind*, refers to something near the *person addressed*, in space, time, or thought.

Ille, *that*, or *of that kind*, refers to something more remote from both the *speaker* and the *person addressed*, in space, time, or thought.

Is, *this*, *that*, or *of this kind*, *of that kind*, is less specific than any of these, and may be used in place of any of them.

Tālis, *such*, expresses a quality just indicated or to be indicated immediately.
Tantus, *so great*, expresses a size just indicated or to be indicated immediately.
Tot, *so many*, expresses a number just indicated or to be indicated immediately.

NOTE. **Hic** is often called the Pronoun of the First Person (*this* BY ME), **iste** of the Second (*that* BY YOU), and **ille** of the Third (*that* BY HIM).

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272. The Determinative Pronouns are often used substantively, thus supplying the place of the Third Personal Pronoun. See **255**, **256**.

a. In the Neuter, the substantive use is very common.

b. **Ea rēs**, etc., is often preferred to **id**, **hoc**, etc., especially where there might be a doubt about the gender (cf. **250**, *z*, *b*).

273. From their meanings, the Determinative Pronouns and Pronominal Adjectives are adapted to point to something at hand, either in bodily presence or in the speaker's thought.

hic tamen vīvit, *yet this man is allowed to live* (Catiline, who sits before the speaker, and at whom he points); Cat. 1, 1, 2.

hīs paucīs diēbus, *within these few days* (i.e. the last few); B. G. 3, 17, 3.

a. A neuter pronoun is often used to point backward or forward to a substantive clause. So especially **id**, **eō**, **hoc**, **hōc**, and **illud**.

eō quod memoriā tenēret, *for the reason that he remembered* (for this reason, namely that); B. G. 1, 14, 1.

cum id nūntiātum esset, eōs cōnārī, *when it was announced that they were endeavoring;* B. G. 1, 7, 1. (**Id** is a mere "expletive," like English "it.")

b. In Latin, a Noun-idea *repeated*, with a change only in a *dependent* word, is generally left unexpressed. In English, we use a Pronoun.

carīnae aliquantō plāniōrēs quam nostrārum nāvium, *the hulls were somewhat flatter than* (those) *of our ships;* B. G. 3, 13, 1.

274. Certain Determinative Pronouns gain special uses:

1. **Ille** is often used of a person or thing familiar to everybody, — *that* (well-known), *that* (famous) *person* or *thing*.

M. Catōnem, illum senem, *Marcus Cato, that* (famous) *old man;* Arch. 7, 16.

2. **Hic** and **ille** are often used to *distinguish between* persons or things just mentioned, **hic** meaning the one last mentioned ("the latter"), and **ille** the one mentioned farther back ("the former").

sī haec nōn dīcō maiōra fuērunt in Clōdiō quam in Milōne, sed in illō maxima, nūlla in hōc, *if these* (bad qualities) *were, I will not say greater in Clodius than in Milo, but immensely great in the former, and non-existent in the latter;* Mil. 13, 35.

a. But sometimes hic refers to the person or thing more prominent in the speaker's thought, and ille to the one less prominent, although the order in which they have been mentioned is the opposite.

b. Hic and ille are often weakened into mere *Indefinite Pronouns.*

modo hoc modo illud, *now one thing, now another;* N. D. 1, 18, 47. Similarly **iam hōs iam illōs**, Aen. 4, 157.

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3. **Is** or **is quidem**, and **ille** or **ille quidem**, in combination with various connectives (**et, atque, nec**, etc.), are used when a second and still more striking quality or action is to be added to one already attributed to a person or thing (English "and that," "and that too").

vincula, et ea sempiterna, *imprisonment, and that too for life;* Cat. 4, 4, 7.

a. **Id**, in combination with various connectives (**et, -que**, etc.), is used when a similar addition is to be made to an idea expressed by a verb.

doctum hominem cognōvī, idque ā puerō, *I know him to be a person of learning, and that too from boyhood;* Fam. 13, 16, 4.

4. **Iste** is often used to express contempt.

dē istīs, quī sē populārīs habērī volunt, *of these fellows who want themselves to be thought friends of the people;* Cat. 4, 5, 10.

VII. THE INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS AND CORRESPONDING ADJECTIVES

275. The Interrogative Pronouns and corresponding Adjectives are those which ask a question, namely:

1. **Uter**, *which?* used in speaking of two persons or things, **quis**, *who? which?* in speaking of any larger number.

in utrō haec fuit, in Milōne, an in Clōdiō? *in which of the two did this exist, in Milo or in Clodius?* Mil. 16, 43.

quis est mē mītior? *who is gentler than I?* Cat. 4, 6, 11.

2. **Cuius (-a, -um)**, *whose?* (rare).

cuium pecus? *whose flock is this?* Ecl. 3, 1.

3. **Quot**, *how many?* **quotus**, *which in order?* (e.g. *second, third*, etc.)

"**quot sunt?**" "**Totidem quot ego et tū sumus**," "*how many are there of them?*" "*As many as of you and me*"; Rud. 564.

hōra quota est? *what o'clock is it?* (what in the order of hours?); Sat. 2, 6, 44.

4. **Quī**, *what? of what kind?* (= **quālis**; see under 5).

at quod erat tempus? *but what kind of a situation was it?* Mil. 15, 39.

a. The poets sometimes use **quī** for **quis** in independent questions. In dependent questions, the distinction stated is not always observed, even in Ciceronian Latin. Cf. **141**, *a.*

5. **Quālis**, *of what kind?* **quantus**, *how great?*

ubi tua (mēns) aut quālis? *where is your mind, or of what nature?* Tusc. 1, 27, 67.

"**quantī (ēmptae)?**" "**Octussibus,**" "(*bought*) *at what price?*" "*Eight cents*"; Sat. 2, 3, 156.

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6. **Ecquis**, *any?* (without implication), and **num quis**, *any?* (implying "none"), are *indefinite* interrogatives.

ecquid adferēbat festīnātiōnis? *did it occasion any delay?* Mil. 19, 49.

VIII. THE INDEFINITE PRONOUNS AND CORRESPONDING ADJECTIVES

276. The Indefinite Pronouns and corresponding Adjectives present the idea of *some* person, thing, quality, or quantity, without further explanation.

quis, quī; aliquis, aliquī; quispiam;
nesciō[1] quis; quīdam, nōn nūllus; quisquam, ūllus;
utervīs, uterlibet; quīvīs, quīlibet; neuter, nūllus;
quantusvīs, quantuslibet

1. **Quis** (or the corresponding Adjective **quī**), the vaguest of the indefinites, means *any one*, *some one*, and is used chiefly with **sī**, **nisi**, **nē**, and with Interrogative[2] or Relative[3] words. It always stands *after* one or more words of its clause.

roget quis, *some one may ask;* Eun. 511.

sī quid hīs accidat, *if anything should happen to them;* B. G. 3, 22, 2.

2. **Aliquis** (or the corresponding Adjective **aliquī**) means *somebody*, *some one*, as opposed to *nobody*.

sī vīs esse aliquid, *if you want to be somebody* (something); Iuv. 1, 74.

3. **Quispiam**, *some one*, approaches **aliquis** in force.

cum quaepiam cohors ex orbe excesserat, *when some cohort had gone out of the circle;* B. G. 5, 35, 1.

4. **Nesciō quis** (originally *I don't know who*) means *somebody or other* (it doesn't matter who). It often is contemptuous.

nesciō quō pactō, *in some way or other;* Cat. 1, 13, 31.

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[1] **Nesciŏ quis** with iambic shortening as in **volō**, etc. (28, note), in all poetical occurrences, in the hexameter necessarily so.

[2] E.g. **num? ubi?** [3] E.g. **cum, ubi, quō, quantō.**

5. **Quīdam** means *a certain one* (who might be named or more definitely made known or described, if necessary).

videō esse hīc quōsdam, quī tēcum ūnā fuērunt, *I see that there are certain men here present who were in your company;* Cat. 1, 4, 8.

a. Like English "a certain," **quīdam** is sometimes employed to *soften* an adjective or noun. In this use it is frequently accompanied by **quasi**, *as it were, so to speak.*

omnēs artēs quasi cognātiōne quādam inter sē continentur, *all the arts are bound together by a certain relationship, as it were;* Arch. 1, 2.

6. **Nōn nūllus** (*not none*) means *some*, or, in the Plural, *several, a number of.* It differs from **quīdam** in *not* suggesting that a more definite statement might be made.

nōn nūllī inter carrōs matarās subiciēbant, *some of them were throwing javelins from below among the carts;* B. G. 1, 26, 3.

a. **Nōn nēmō** may be used in the same way. See example, **298**, 2.

7. **Quisquam,** *any at all*, and the corresponding Adjective **ūllus** are used only in negative sentences or phrases, in questions implying a negative, in clauses following a Comparative or Superlative, in Relative Clauses, and in Conditions.

neque quisquam est tam āversus ā Mūsīs, *nor is any one so hostile to the Muses;* Arch. 9, 20.

cūr quisquam iūdicāret? *why should any one judge?* (= no one should); B. G. 1, 40, 2.

sine ūllō perīculō, *without any danger;* B. G. 2, 11, 6.

taetrior quam quisquam superiōrum, *more hideous than any of his predecessors;* Verr. 4, 55, 123.

quam diū quisquam erit quī tē dēfendere audeat, *as long as there shall be any one who will dare to defend you;* Cat. 1, 2, 6.

sī quicquam spērent, *if they have any hope;* B. G. 5, 41, 5.

8. **Utervīs** and **uterlibet** mean *either of two indifferently* ("whichever you wish"), and **quīvīs** and **quīlibet,** *any one whatever* ("any you wish") *of three or more.* **Quantusvīs** and **quantuslibet** mean *of any size whatever.*

minus habeō vīrium quam vestrum utervīs, *I have less strength than either of you;* Sen. 10, 33.

ad quemvīs numerum, *up to any number whatever;* B. G. 4, 2, 5.

quantāsvīs cōpiās, *forces of any size whatever;* B. G. 5, 28, 4.

9. **Neuter** means *neither of the two*, and **nūllus**, *no one out of a larger number*. They are thus the negative words corresponding respectively to **utervīs** and **quīvīs**.

neutrī trānseundī initium faciunt, *neither party begins the crossing;* B. G. 2, 9, 2.

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nūllō hoste prohibente, *with no enemy to prevent;* B. G. 3, 6, 5.

a. The Plural forms of **neuter** have regularly the meaning of *neither of the two parties*, as in the first example just above.

b. **Nūllus** is sometimes used for **nēmō** (i.e. as a Substantive), but rarely in Cicero.

c. **Nēmō** is occasionally used for **nūllus** (i.e. as an Adjective), as in **servus est nēmō**, *there is no slave;* Cat. 4, 8, 16; **nēmō homō**, *no man;* Pers. 211.

d. **Nēmō** is regularly used instead of **nūllus**, to agree with a Proper Name or an Adjective, Participle, or Pronoun used substantively.

nēmō Cornēlius, *no Cornelius;* Att. 6, 1, 18.
nēmō alius, *no other;* Brut. 88, 302.

10. **Quīcumque**, *whosoever*, and **quāliscumque**, *of what kind soever* (properly Generalizing; **282**, II), are sometimes used as Indefinite Pronouns or Adjectives even in Cicero's time, and very frequently later.

quae sānārī poterunt, quācumque ratiōne sānābō, *what can be healed, I'll heal in any way soever;* Cat. 2, 5, 11.

IX. THE COLLECTIVE PRONOUN

277. **Ambō** means *both*, i.e. *two taken together*.

ambō incolumēs sēsē recipiunt, *both return unharmed;* B. G. 5, 44, 13.

a. For a larger number, Latin uses the Adjective **omnēs**, *all*.

X. THE DISTRIBUTIVE PRONOUNS

278. 1. **Uterque** (**uter**, *either of two*, plus the indefinite enclitic **-que**, *soever*) means *either soever of two, each of two*, taken separately. (Compare **ambō**, *both of two*, taken *together*.)

uterque cum equitātū venīret, (demanded) *that each of the two should come with cavalry;* B. G. 1, 42, 4.

a. The Plural forms of **uterque** have the sense of *each of the two sides, each of the two parties*, etc.

pugnātum est ab utrīsque ācriter, *each of the two sides fought valiantly;* B. G. 4, 26, 1.

b. But with a Noun Singular in meaning though Plural in form (**105**), the Plural of **uterque** is Singular in meaning.

utrīsque castrīs, *for each camp;* B. G. 1, 51, 1.

c. For **uterque** with reciprocal force, see **265**.

2. **Quisque** (**quis**, *any*, plus the indefinite enclitic **-que**, *soever*) means *any one soever*, *each*, *all*, etc., taken *individually*. (Compare **omnēs**, *all*, taken *together*.) It is used with the following words, and immediately after them:

a) With *Reflexive*, *Relative*, or *Interrogative* words.

prō sē quisque, *each to the best of his power*; B. G. 2, 25, 3.

quam quisque in partem dēvēnit, *to whatever place each came*; B. G. 2, 21, 6.

quid quōque locō faciendum esset, *what needed to be done in each place*; B. G. 5, 33, 3.

b) With *Superlatives*, to indicate a class.

optimus quisque, *all the best men* (each best man); Arch. 11, 26.

c) With *Ordinal Numerals*.

decimum quemque, *one man in ten* (every tenth man); B. G. 5, 52, 2.

quotus quisque fōrmōsus est! *how few are handsome!* (one of how many is each handsome man?); N. D. 1, 28, 79.

XI. PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES

alter, alius

279. 1. When used singly, **alter** means *the other* or *one*, where *two* are thought of; and **alius** means *other* or *another*, where *more than two* are thought of.

itinera duo, ūnum per Sēquanōs, alterum per prōvinciam nostram, *two ways, one through the country of the Sequani, the other through the province*; B. G. 1, 6, 1.

alterō oculō capitur, *is blinded in one eye*; Liv. 22, 2, 11.

fīlius Domitī aliīque complūrēs adulēscentēs, *the son of Domitius and several other young men*; B. C. 1, 23, 2.

a. **Cēterī** differs from **aliī** in meaning ALL *the others*, *the* REST.

hōsce ego hominēs excipiō; cēterī vērō quā virtūte cōnsentiunt! *these men I except; but how nobly all the rest agree!* Cat. 4, 7, 15.

b. **Reliquī**, *those remaining*, approaches **cēterī** in force, but does not so insist upon completeness.

oppida sua, vīcōs, reliqua prīvāta aedificia incendunt, *they set fire to their towns, their villages, and the private buildings that remained*; B. G. 1, 5, 2.

2. **Alter** or **alius** is often used twice, with correlative meaning, *one . . . the other*, *one . . another*.

hārum altera occīsa, altera capta est, *of these, one was killed, the other taken prisoner*; B. G. 1, 53, 4.

3. **Alius** is often used twice in the same clause or phrase, with the meaning *one . . . one . . . , another . . . another.*

alius aliā ex nāvī sē adgregābat, *they were gathering, one from one ship, another from another;* B. G. 4, 26, 1.

4. For **alter** and **alius** with reciprocal force, see **265**.

a. The Adverbs **aliter**, **aliās**, and **alibi** are used with forces corresponding in all respects to those of **alius**, as given in 3 and 4.

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XII. RELATIVE PRONOUNS AND CORRESPONDING ADJECTIVES

280. INTRODUCTORY. The Latin Relative Pronoun is probably derived from two sources (which were doubtless originally one), the Interrogative Pronoun and the Indefinite Pronoun, as follows:

In sentences like **quis volet, vindex estō** (Twelve Tables, II), the **quis** could be either Interrogative or Indefinite. "Who shall wish? He shall be protector" would lead to the *relative* feeling, *who shall wish, he shall be protector*, i.e. *he who shall wish shall be protector.*[1] But so, also, could "any man shall wish: he shall be protector," i.e. *whoever shall wish, he shall be protector.*

281. The Relative Pronouns and Adjectives are *connecting* Pronouns and Adjectives referring to something that precedes or follows.

a. The word to which a Relative refers is called its **Antecedent.**[2]

rēgnum quod pater habuerat, *the royal power which his father had had;* B. G. 1, 3, 4. (**Rēgnum** is the Antecedent.)

282. The meanings of the Relatives are as follows:

I. Individual or Generalizing

quī, *who*, or *whoever*	**quantus**, *of what size*, or *of what size soever*
quālis, *of which kind*, or *of what kind soever*	**quot**, *of what number*, or *of what number soever*

II. Generalizing Only

quīcumque, *whoever*	**quantuscumque**, *of what size soever*
quisquis, *whoever*	**quotcumque**, *of what number soever*
quāliscumque, *of what kind soever*	**quotquot**, *of what number soever*

a. Note that the uncompounded forms are either Individual or Generalizing in meaning, while the compounded forms are always Generalizing.

[1] Similarly, the English Relative "who" has arisen from the Interrogative "who."
[2] Because the word referred to generally *comes before* the Relative.

GENERALIZING FORMS WITH MERELY INDEFINITE MEANING

283. The same Pronouns, Pronominal Adjectives, or Adverbs which may be used in a Generalizing sense can also be employed of *individual* persons or things *not definitely known* to the speaker.

tibi hercle deōs īrātōs esse oportet, quisquis es, *the gods must surely be angry at you, whoever you are;* Rud. 1146. (The "you" is of course a particular person, but the speaker does n't know *who*.) Similarly **quaecumque**, Aen. 1, 330.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE LATIN RELATIVE

284. 1. The Antecedent is often omitted, especially if *indefinite*.

ut quae bellō cēperint quibus vēndant habeant, *that they may have* (people) *to whom to sell what they take in war;* B. G. 4, 2, 1.

a. The antecedent is often incorporated into the relative clause, appearing only here.

habētis quam petītis facultātem, *you have the opportunity which you have been waiting for;* B. G. 6, 8, 3.

2. *The Relative is never omitted in Latin.*

3. The Relative Clause is frequent in Latin, where English would use a shorter expression (Noun, Participle, Appositive, etc.).

pontem quī erat ad Genāvam, *the bridge* (which was) *at Geneva* (in English idiom, *the bridge at Geneva*); B. G. 1, 7, 2.

quī decimae legiōnis aquilam ferēbat, *the man who bore the standard of the tenth legion* (= **aquilifer**); B. G. 4, 25, 3.

a. Yet occasionally the same condensation is found in Latin as in English.

sēdēs habēre in Galliā ab ipsīs concessās, (said) *that he had a home in Gaul* (which had been) *granted him by the Gauls themselves;* B. G. 1, 44, 2.

4. The Antecedent Noun is sometimes repeated, for greater distinctness, in the Relative Clause.

ultrā eum locum, quō in locō Germānī cōnsēderant, *beyond the place in which* (place) *the Germans had encamped;* B. G. 1, 49, 1.

5. The Relative Clause often precedes its Antecedent. So especially the Rhetorical Determinative Clause (**550**, *a*, n. 3).

quōs ferrō trucīdārī oportēbat, eōs nōndum vōce vulnerō, *I do not yet wound with a word the men who ought to be slain with the sword* (what men . . . , those . .); Cat. 1, 4, 9.

a. English idiom does not tolerate this order in prose.

6. When the Relative Clause precedes, the principal Noun is generally attached to the Relative and takes its case.

implōrāre dēbētis ut quam urbem pulcherrimam esse voluērunt, hanc dēfendant, *it is your duty to implore* (the gods) *that, since they have chosen to make this city the fairest in the world, they will defend it;* Cat. 2, 13, 29. (For the translation, see *a*, just above.)

7. The Relative Clause frequently attracts into itself an Adjective belonging to the Antecedent, especially if that Adjective is a Superlative.

cōnsiliīs pārē, quae nunc pulcherrima Nautēs dat, *follow the admirable plans which Nautes now proposes* (follow the plans which, — admirable they are, — Nautes proposes); Aen. 5, 728.

8. Latin often uses a Relative Pronoun where English would use a Determinative or Personal Pronoun introduced by *and*, *but*, etc.

quae cum ita sint, *and since this is so;* Cat. 1, 5, 10.

9. More frequently than in English, the relative belongs in government to a clause *Subordinate* to that which it really introduces.

nōn polītus iīs artibus quās quī tenent ērudītī appellantur, *not finished in those accomplishments the possessors of which are called learned;* Fin. 1, 7, 26 (those who possess which; similarly **cui quī pāreat**, Sen. 1, 2).

10. More frequently than in English, a Relative Adverb of place is used, instead of a Relative Pronoun, to refer to a Personal Antecedent.

is unde tē audīsse dīcis, *the man from whom you say you heard it* (the man whence); De Or. 2, 70, 285.

VERBS

Expression (or Omission) of the Subject

285. Since the termination of the Finite Verb shows its Person and Number (e.g. **amō**, *I love;* **amās**, *you love;* **amant**, *they love*), the Subject does not need to be expressed, except for emphasis or contrast, or to prevent ambiguity (cf. **257**).

Subject omitted: **abiit,** *he has gone away;* Cat. 2, 1, 1.

Subject expressed for emphasis or contrast: **tam ille apud nōs servit quam ego nunc apud tē serviō,** HE *is a slave in our country just as* I *am now a slave in yours;* Capt. 312.

Subject expressed to avoid ambiguity: **Q. Laberius Dūrus, tribūnus mīlitum, interficitur. Illī plūribus submissīs cohortibus repelluntur,** *Quintus Laberius Durus, a military tribune, is killed. They* (i.e. the enemy) *are driven off by the sending of a number of cohorts to the rescue;* B. G. 5, 15, 5.

Indefinite Subject

286. The First and Third Persons Plural, and the Second Person Singular Indefinite are used, as in English, to express an *Indefinite Subject;* ("we," "they," or "you" in the sense of "any one").

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fortūnātōrum memorant īnsulās, *they tell of the islands of the blessed* (men tell); Trin. 549.

datur ignis, tametsī ab inimīcō petās, *fire is given you, even if you ask it of an enemy* ("you" is *anybody*); Trin. 679.

Impersonal Verbs

287. Some Verbs are used in the Third Singular without a Subject, either expressed or understood, and are accordingly called *Impersonal.*

These Verbs express *operations of nature*, or *mental distress*, or *acts considered merely as such*, without reference to the performer.

iam advesperāscit, *it is getting dark now;* And. 581.

eius mē miseret, *I pity him* (it makes me pitiful of him); Ph. 188.

pugnātum est ācriter, *there was a fierce fight;* B. G. 3, 21, 1.

a. The name Impersonal is also conveniently applied to verbs that have an Infinitive or a Clause for Subject, as in **īnsānīre iuvat,** *'t is a pleasure to play the madman;* Carm. 3, 19, 18.

VOICE

288. 1. The Active Voice represents the Subject of the Verb as *acting* or *being.*

Helvētiī lēgātōs mittunt, *the Helvetians send ambassadors;* B. G. 1, 7, 3.

erant omnīnō itinera duo, *there were in all but two ways;* B. G. 1, 6, 1.

2. The Passive Voice represents the Subject as *acted upon.*

mittitur C. Arpīneius, *Gaius Arpineius is sent;* B. G. 5, 27, 1.

3. **Reflexive Use of the Passive.**[1] The Passive Voice is sometimes used, especially in poetry, in a *reflexive* sense, to express an act as done by the actor to or for *himself.*

ad spectāculum omnēs effunduntur, *all pour out to see the show;* Liv. 39, 49, 8.

(Cf. **sēsē multitūdō effūdit,** *the crowd poured itself out;* B. C. 2, 7, 3.)

umerōs īnsternor pelle, *I cover my shoulders with a skin;* Aen. 2, 721.

[1] Often called "Middle Voice," as in Greek.

a. An Active verb that can be used reflexively in a Passive Finite form can also be used reflexively in the Present Active Participle. Compare exercentur, *exercise (themselves)*, Tusc. 2, 23, 56, with exercentibus, *exercising*, De Or. 2, 71, 287.

b. The Deponent Verbs (160) were originally Reflexive. Thus vēscor, *eat* (originally, *feed myself*).

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TRANSITIVE AND INTRANSITIVE VERBS

289. A **Transitive Verb** is one that expresses an action immediately directed upon some person or thing ("transitive" = *passing over upon*). That upon which the action is immediately directed is called the *Direct Object* (390).

Caesar eius dextram prēndit, *Caesar took his hand;* B. G. 1, 20, 5.

a. **Absolute Use.** A Transitive Verb may be used *without* an Object, to represent the mere action, without reference to that upon which it is directed. Thus arāre **māvelim**, *I should prefer to plough;* Merc. 356.

b. Similarly, verbs governing *other* cases than the Accusative may be used **Absolutely.** Thus **suscēnsendī tempus** erit, *there will be a time for being angry;* Liv. 22, 29, 2; **vēscendī causā**, *for the purpose of eating;* Sall. Cat. 13, 3.

290. An **Intransitive Verb** is one that expresses an act or state *not* immediately directed upon any person or thing.

vīvō et rēgnō, *I live and reign;* Ep. 1, 10, 8.

a. Intransitive Verbs, generally speaking, have no Passive. But

1) An Intransitive Verb may be used *impersonally* in the Passive.

diū pugnātum est, *there was a long fight* (it was fought long); B. G. 1, 26, 1.

2) A few Intransitive Verbs may be used with a Subject of Kindred Meaning.

illa (pugna) quae cum rēge est pugnāta, *the battle which was fought with the king;* Mur. 16, 34.

3) Verbs generally Intransitive are occasionally used in the Future Passive Participle with true Passive meaning.

laetandum magis quam dolendum putō cāsum tuum, *I think your fate is rather to be rejoiced at than grieved over;* Sall. Iug. 14, 22.

4) A few Perfect Passive Participles from Intransitive Verbs may be used with Active meaning; thus **iūrātus**, *having sworn*, **cēnātus**, *having dined*, **prānsus**, *having breakfasted*, **pōtus**, *having drunk.*

Lūcullus iūrātus dīxit, *Lucullus, having taken the oath, said;* Mil. 27, 73.

5) **Coepī** and **dēsinō** with Infinitives of *true Passive meaning* are generally themselves made Passive in form.

Milōnis cōnsulātus temptārī coeptus est, *Milo's candidature for the consulship began to be assailed;* Mil. 13, 34. (But **vidērī coepit**, *began to* SEEM, in Verr. 1, 50, 132, since **vidērī** has not true passive meaning here.)

NOTE 1. A verb may of course be Active, yet not be Transitive. Thus **rēgnat**, *reigns*, is Active, because it expresses activity; but it is not Transitive, because the activity is not represented as immediately directed upon a person or thing. We cannot say, for example, "the king reigns his subjects."

NOTE 2. Yet the poets sometimes *force the meanings* of Intransitive verbs, and use them in the Passive.

terra rēgnāta Lycurgō, *a land reigned over by Lycurgus;* Aen. 3, 13.

Voice-Meanings of Deponent and Semi-Deponent Verbs

291. Deponent and Semi-Deponent Verbs (**160, 161**) are active in meaning, *except in the Future Passive Participle.*

a. Accordingly, Transitive Deponents and Semi-Deponents have three Participles of active meaning, and one of passive. Thus:

admīrāns, *admiring*	**admīrātus**, *having admired*
admīrātūrus, *about to admire*	**admīrandus**, *to be admired*

b. Intransitive Deponents and Semi-Deponents of course lack a true Future Passive Participle. Thus **proficīscēns, profectus, profectūrus**, ——. But such Verbs may have a Gerund, and they may also have an *impersonal* Future Passive Participle. Thus **ad proficīscendum**, *for departing;* B. G. 1, 3, 1; **eī proficīscendum est**, *he must depart;* Fin. 3, 22, 73.

c. For Future Passive Participles like **laetandus**, *to be rejoiced at*, see **290**, *a*, 3).

d. The Perfect Passive Participle of Deponents and Semi-Deponents is sometimes used with a true passive force.[1]

pactam diem, *a date agreed upon;* Cat. 1, 9, 24.

adeptā lībertāte, *after freedom had been won;* Sall. Cat. 7, 3.

Subject of the Passive Voice

292. The Subject of the Passive Voice corresponds to the Direct Object (**390**) of the Active. Thus *Dick struck Tom* (Active Voice) becomes in the Passive *Tom was struck by Dick.*

a. Verbs that do not take an Accusative Object (**390**) in the Active Voice are regularly used only *impersonally* (**287**) in the Passive, with the same cases as in the Active. **ut hostibus nocērētur**, *that harm might be done to the enemy;* B. G. 5, 19, 3. Compare **nocēre alterī**, under **362, I.**

num argūmentīs ūtendum? *must one make use of arguments?* Verr. 4, 6, 11. Compare **429.**

b. Yet Passives are sometimes formed from such verbs. Thus **crēdita**, *believed*, Aen. 2, 247; **persuāsus est**, *is persuaded*, Caecin. ap. Fam. 6, 712; **invideor**, *I am envied*, A. P. 56.

[1] Especially of such Deponents as had also an active form in occasional use (e.g. **pacīscor**, occasionally **pacīscō**; **adipīscor**, occasionally **adipīscō**).

ADVERBS

293. INTRODUCTORY. As explained in **124, 126**, many Adverbs are simply stereotyped case-forms, e.g. **partim** (*as regards a part*), *partly* (old Acc. of Respect, **388**), **hāc**, *by this way* (Abl. of Route, **426**), **vērō**, *in truth* (Abl. of Respect, **441**), **modo** (with a measure, exactly), *just* (Abl. of Manner, **445**), **miserē**, *in a wretched manner* (old Ablative, **126**, 1). A few are made up of Prepositions with a case, as **admodum** (to a degree), *very*. Cf. **217**, 4.

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294. Adverbs express ideas of manner, degree, place, time, etc. Thus **ita**, *so* or *so much*, **ibi**, *there*, **tum**, *then*.

295. Adverbs modify Verbs, Adjectives, and other Adverbs (or Adverbial Phrases).

ita exercitum trādūcit, *in this way he takes the army across;* B. G. 1, 13, 1.

quārtam ferē partem, *about a fourth part;* B. G. 1, 12, 2.

minus facile, *less easily;* B. G. 1, 2, 4.

paene in cōnspectū, *almost within sight;* B. G. 1, 11, 3.

a. Adverbs of number or degree may also, through brevity of expression, seem to modify Nouns.

bis ūnā cōnsulēs, *twice consuls together* (= who had twice been consuls together); Am. 1, 139.

b. In poetry and later prose, other Adverbs sometimes modify Nouns *implying action.*

populum lātē rēgem, *a people monarch* (= ruling) *far and wide;* Aen. 1, 21.

haud dubiē victor, *beyond doubt a victor* (= victorious); Sall. Iug. 102, 1.

c. A few Adverbs are freely used in the sense of Adjectives, especially **ita**, **sīc**, **satis**, **bene**, **male**. The poets extend the list.

quod satis esse arbitrābātur, *which he thought to be sufficient;* B. G. 4, 22, 6.

sīc sum, *that 's the way I am* (that 's the kind of man); Ph. 527.

NEGATIVE ADVERBS

296. 1. The Sentence-Negative for the ideas of *Command*, *Will*, or *Wish* is **nē**, *not;* or, if the negative is also a connective, **nēve** or **neu**, *and not*, *nor*.

a. **Nē** and **nēve** (**neu**) also become Conjunctions. See, e.g., **502**, 2, 3.

2. The Sentence-Negative for *Statements* or corresponding Questions is **nōn**, *not;* or, if also a connective, **neque**, *and not*, *nor*.

a. For further details with regard to the negatives, see **464**.

297. Haud (**haut**, **hau**) negatives a single word. In Ciceronian use, it is employed sparingly, — mostly to modify Adjectives and Adverbs expressing Quantity, Kind, or Manner.

haud mediocris vir, *no ordinary man;* Rep. 2, 31, 55.

haud facile, *not easily;* Rep. 1, 3, 6.

a. **Haud** is also used with a few Verbs, as **sciō** (B. G. 5, 54, 5), **dubitō** (Rep. 1, 15, 23).

298. 1. Instead of **dīcō nōn**, *I say that . . . not*, **negō** is preferred.

negāvī mē esse factūrum, *I said I would not (so) act;* Cat. 3, 3, 7.

2. In general, two negatives make an affirmative.

videō abesse nōn nēminem, *I see that some one is absent;* Cat. 4, 5, 10.

a. But after a sweeping negative, the negatives **nē . . . quidem, neque . . . neque**, or **nēve . . . nēve** simply add emphasis.

numquam illum nē minimā quidem rē offendī, *I never offended him, not even in the smallest thing;* Am. 27, 103.

299. When the phrase **nōn modo** (or **nōn sōlum**) **. . . sed nē . . . quidem** is used in a sentence containing but a single verb, the second negative is felt throughout the whole (*not only not . . . but not even*).

tālis vir nōn modo facere, sed nē cōgitāre quidem quicquam audēbit, quod nōn audeat praedicāre, *such a man will not only* NOT *venture to do a thing he dare not speak of, but will not even dare to think of it;* Off. 3, 19, 77.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

300. The Comparative and Superlative degrees of Adverbs correspond in meaning to those of Adjectives (241). Thus **facile**, *easily;* **facilius**, *more easily* or *rather easily;* **facillimē**, *most easily* or *very easily*, **vel facillimē**, *very easily indeed;* **quam facillimē**, *as easily as possible.*

301. Two Comparatives. When an act is said to be done in one way rather than in another (English *with more . . . than . . .*, *rather . . . than . . .*), both Adverbs regularly take the same form (cf. **242**).

libentius quam vērius, *with more readiness than truth;* Mil. 29, 78.

magis honestē quam vērē, *rather in compliment than truthfully;* Planc. 15, 37.

FORCES OF CERTAIN IMPORTANT ADVERBS

302. 1. **Quidem**, *to be sure, indeed, at any rate* (postpositive[1]), is a particle of *emphasis*, generally expressing either a moderate concession or a moderate claim. It is often followed by **sed, autem**, etc.

dīcitur quidem ā Cottā; sed . . ., *Cotta does say so, to be sure; but . . .;* Div. 1, 5, 8. (Moderate Concession.)

mihi quidem illa certissima vīsa sunt argūmenta, *to me, at any rate, these things seemed indubitable proofs;* Cat. 3, 5, 13. (Moderate Claim.)

a. For **quidem** (and **equidem**) with pronouns, see **257**, *a.*

2. **Etiam** and **et**,[2] *even, also* (regularly prepositive[3]), are used as strengthening particles.

[1] I.e. put immediately after the word on which the particle bears.
[2] The same words as the Conjunctions **etiam** and **et**, but used Adverbially.
[3] I.e. put immediately before the word on which the particle bears.

Quoque, *also*, *too* (postpositive), expresses mere addition.

etiam in extrēmā spē, *even at the last ebb of hope;* B. G. 2, 27, 3.

vērum et aliī multī, *but also many others;* Rosc. Am. 33, 94.

haec quoque ratiō (eōs dēdūxit), *this reason, too, (impelled them);* B. G. 2, 10, 5.

a. **Etiam** modifying a phrase containing no preposition is generally placed *inside* that phrase. Thus **nostrā etiam memoriā**, *even within our memory;* B. G. 2, 4, 7.

b. **Et** in the sense of **etiam** is not used by Caesar.

c. The later writers use **etiam** (or **et**) and **quoque** with less careful distinction.

3. **Prīmō** and **prīmum** should be carefully distinguished. With **prīmō**, *at first*, the idea of *time* is more important; with **prīmum**, *firstly*, the idea of *logical order*.

These Adverbs often begin a series (more or less complete). Thus:

prīmō (= **prīncipiō**), *at first, at the beginning*, **deinde** (**inde**) or **posteā**, *later*, **tum**, *then*, etc., **postrēmō** or **dēnique**, *finally*.

prīmum, *firstly, in the first place*, **deinde** (**inde**) or **posteā**, *secondly*, **tum**, *then*, etc., **postrēmō** or **dēnique**, *lastly*.

ille prīmō negāvit; post autem aliquantō surrēxit, quaesīvit . . ., *at first he denied; a little later, however, he rose and asked;* Cat. 3, 5, 11.

id aliquot dē causīs acciderat, prīmum, quod . . ., tum etiam quod . . .; accēdēbat quod . . ., *this had come about through several reasons; first, because . . .; then also because . . .; further because . . .;* B. G. 3, 2, 2.

a. The feeling of logical order sometimes prevails, even where the idea of order in time is also present. Thus **prīmum Antiochiae, nam ibi nātus est, . . .**; **post in cēterīs Asiae partibus . . .**, *first at Antioch, for this was his birthplace . . .; then in the rest of Asia . . .;* Arch. 3, 4.

4. **Nunc**, *now*, deals with a single point of time, without reference to any other. Thus **nunc adest**, *he is now present.*

a. After a Condition Contrary to Fact (581), **nunc** means *as it is.*

5. **Iam**, *by this time, already*, contrasts a time with a preceding one. Thus **iam aderat**, *he was by this time present* (had not been before); **iam adest**, *he is by this time present* (has not been before); **iam aderit** (Aen. 2, 662), *he will soon be present* (is not now).

With negatives, **iam** means *no longer* (by this time, *not*).

With the Imperfect, **iam** may suggest the *beginning* of an act or state. Thus **quod iam incrēdibile vidēbātur**, *which was beginning to seem incredible;* Pomp. 14, 41.

6. **Potius**, *preferably, rather*, and **potissimum**, *in preference to all other* persons or things, express the idea of *selection*.

iīs potissimum ostendam, quī . . ., *I shall display it to those before all others, who . . .;* Pomp. 1, 2.

7. **Adeō**, **eō**, and **tam** express *degree*, **ita** and **sīc** *manner*, occasionally *degree*. (For other Correlatives, see **144.**)

8. **Nē**, *surely*, should be carefully distinguished from **nē**, *not*, *lest*.

nē illī vehementer errant, *surely they are grievously in error;* Cat. 2, 3, 6.

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PREPOSITIONS

303. Prepositions define the relation of a Substantive to another word.

iter per prōvinciam, *a journey through the province;* B. G. 1, 14, 3.

a. Prepositions were originally Adverbs, modifying, not the Noun, which at a later time they seemed to govern, but a Verb or Adjective. At this period, all case-relations were expressed by the bare Case alone. Thus a sentence like **portā ab iit** would have been used to express the idea *from the gate, he went away*. But such a combination suggested a *relation* between the Noun and the Verb (*he went away from the gate*). In consequence, the Adverb came to be placed *before the Noun*, whence the name Preposition ("placed in front").

b. In certain combinations, the Adverb remained permanently attached to the Verb, as in **īnferō**, *bring-in*. In others, it remained with the Verb, even when repeated (as Preposition) with the Noun, as in **ā portā abiit**, *he went-away from the gate*. It is customary and convenient to call such Verbs *prepositional compounds*.

c. Certain words can be used either as Prepositions or as Adverbs. So especially **ante, adversus, circā, circum, circiter, contrā, post, prope, super.**

annō post, *a year after* (=afterward by a year); B. G. 4, 1, 5.

CONJUNCTIONS

304. Conjunctions connect words, phrases, sentences, or clauses. They are of two main kinds:

305. I. **Coördinating Conjunctions** join words, phrases, sentences, or clauses of equal rank and essentially similar nature.

nōbilissimus et dītissimus, *the noblest and the richest man;* B. G. 1, 2, 1.

cōnsulem interfēcerat et eius exercitum sub iugum mīserat, *had killed the consul and sent his army under the yoke;* B. G. 1, 12, 5.

a. **Asyndeton**, or "want of connective." The same effect of joining is often produced still more sharply by using no connective at all.

frīgus, sitim, famem ferre poterat, *he could bear cold, thirst, hunger;* Cat. 3, 7, 16.

senātus haec intellegit, cōnsul videt, *the senate knows all this, the consul sees it;* Cat. 1, 1, 2.

NOTE. In certain common phrases the conjunction is habitually omitted. Thus Iuppiter Optimus Maximus, cf. Cat. 3, 9, 21; volēns propitius, Liv. 1, 16, 3; vultis iubētisne, cf. Liv. 1, 46, 1. So generally with the names of colleagues, unless a single name only is given for each. Thus L. Pīsōne A. Gabīniō cōnsulibus, B. G. 1, 6, 4; but Lepidō et Tullō cōnsulibus, Cat. 1, 6, 15.

II. **Subordinating Conjunctions** join a dependent clause to the sentence or clause upon which it depends.

cum quaereret, sīc reperiēbat, *when he inquired, he learned the following;* B. G. 2, 4, 1.

COÖRDINATING CONJUNCTIONS IN DETAIL

306. Coördinating Conjunctions fall under four classes, according as they express Union (Copulative Conjunctions), Separation (Disjunctive Conjunctions), Opposition (Adversative Conjunctions), or Inference (Inferential Conjunctions).

I. COPULATIVE CONJUNCTIONS: et, -que, atque, ac, neque, nēve

307. 1. **Et** expresses simple connection (examples in **305**, I.); while **-que** expresses closer connection, — often one which exists in the nature of things.

multitūdō perditōrum hominum latrōnumque, *a multitude of desperadoes and brigands;* B. G. 3, 17, 4.

eī legiōnī castrīsque, *this legion and camp;* B. G. 6, 32, 6.

a. But a natural connection is often left *unexpressed*, as in **impedītōs et inopīnantīs**, *encumbered and off their guard;* B. G. 1, 12, 3.

b. When **-que** introduces a word, it is attached to it. Thus **oppida vīcōsque**, *towns and villages;* B. G. 1, 28, 3.

When it introduces a phrase, it is generally attached to the first word of that phrase; but if that first word is a preposition, the **-que** is generally attached to the second word of the phrase. Thus **ob eāsque rēs**, *and on account of these achievements;* B. G. 2, 35, 4.

When it introduces a clause, it is generally attached to the first word of that clause, and this word is generally *not* the verb. Thus, **duāsque ibi legiōnēs cōnscrībit**, *and there enrolls two legions;* B. G. 1, 10, 3.

c. When several members are put together in a series, Latin ordinarily uses the connective throughout, or not at all.

turpem et īnfirmam et abiectam, *base and weak and downcast;* Cat. 4, 10, 20.

ferōx, vehemēns, prōmptus, *rough, ardent, quick;* Sall. Cat. 43, 4.

d. Sometimes, however, in Latin as in English, the last two members only are connected (generally by **-que**, rarely by **et**).

pācem, tranquillitātem, ōtium, concordiamque, *peace, tranquillity, repose, and concord;* Mur. 1, 1.

2. **Atque** or **ac**, *and also, and indeed, and*, likewise expresses close connection, — sometimes with stress upon the word which it introduces.

ā cultū atque hūmānitāte prōvinciae, *from the civilization and refinement of the Province;* B. G. 1, 1, 3.

hebetī ingeniō atque nūllō, *of a dull mind, and indeed of none at all;* Tusc. 5, 15, 45.

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a. After words of likeness or difference, **atque** or **ac** has the force of *as* or *than*. Thus after **īdem, is, aequus** or **aequē, alius** or **aliter, contrā, pār** or **pariter, similis** or **similiter, simul.**

Gallōrum eadem atque Belgārum oppugnātiō est haec, *the Gallic way of storming is the same as that of the Belgians, as follows;* B. G. 2, 6, 2.

prō eō ac mereor, *according as I deserve* (in proportion to that, as); Cat. 4, 2, 3.

b. **Alius** and **aliter** may also be followed by **nisi**, *except*, or **quam**, *than*.

c. For the choice between the forms **atque** and **ac**, see 3, *c*, below.

3. **Neque (nec)**, and **nēve (neu)**, *and not, nor*, are at the same time negatives and connectives. (For the difference between them, see **464**.)

Orgetorīx mortuus est; neque abest suspīciō . . , *Orgetorix died; and a suspicion is not lacking . . .;* B. G. 1, 4, 3.

a. The idea "and not" is regularly expressed in Latin (as in the above examples) by **neque** or **nēve**, not by **et nōn** or **et nē**. Similarly "and none" is expressed by **nec ūllus**, "and never" by **nec umquam**; etc., etc.

resistere neque dēprecārī, *to resist and not beg off;* B. G. 4, 7, 3.

b. But **et nōn** may be used to express *contrast* or *emphasis*.

manēre et nōn discēdere, *to remain and* NOT *give way;* Caecil. 2, 5.

perinīquum et nōn ferundum, *very unjust, and* NOT *to be endured;* Pomp. 22, 63.

c. The forms **atque** and **neque** are used before either vowels or (less frequently) consonants, **ac** and **nec** only before consonants (rarely before a guttural, as in **ac contrā**, B. G. 1, 44, 3). But the poets allow themselves more freedom.

atque ea, B. G. 1, 1, 3; **atque pecore**, 4, 1, 8; **neque eam**, 3, 2, 3; **neque pedibus**, 3, 12, 1; **ac lassitūdine**, 2, 23, 1; **nec locō**, 7, 48, 4. (But **nec exanimēs**, Aen. 5, 669.)

II. DISJUNCTIVE CONJUNCTIONS: aut, vel, -ve, sīve (seu)

308. 1. **Aut**, *or*, is used to connect alternatives. These may both be possible, or they may be mutually exclusive.

cūr dē suā virtūte aut dē ipsīus dīligentiā dēspērārent? *why* (Cæsar asked) *should they despair of their own valor or of his vigilance?* B. G. 1, 40, 4. (They *might* do both.)

hōrae mōmentō cita mors venit aut victōria laeta, *in the brief space of an hour comes swift death or joyful victory;* Sat. 1, 1, 7. (Only one *could* come in a given case.)

2. **Vel**[1] or **-ve** (enclitic) is used to connect alternatives between which there may be a *choice*.

Catilīnam vel ēiēcimus vel ēmīsimus vel ipsum ēgredientem verbīs prōsecūtī sumus, *we have turned Catiline out, or, if you choose, have sent him out, or, if you choose, have presented him our compliments as he went out of his own accord;* Cat. 2, 1, 1.

3. **Sīve** or **seu**, *or* (originally *or if*) is used to connect alternatives between which there is *doubt*.

ēiectō sīve ēmissō ex urbe Catilīnā, *when Catiline had been turned out of the city, or sent out;* Sull. 5, 17.

a. **Aut, vel,** or **sīve** may introduce a *correction* ("or rather," "or perhaps").

Copulative or Disjunctive Conjunctions in Pairs

309. The following pairs of Conjunctions are in frequent use.

et . . . et . . ., *both . . . and . . .*; Arch. 1, 1.
neque (nec) . . neque (nec) . . ., *neither . . nor . . .*; B. G. 2, 22, 1.
et . . . neque (nec) . . ., *both . . . and at the same time not . . .*; Cat. 3, 8, 20.
neque (nec) . . . et . . ., *not . . . and at the same time . . .*; B. G. 2, 25, 1.
aut . . . aut . . ., *either . . . or . . .*; B. G. 1, 39, 4.
vel . . . vel . . . *either . . . or . . .*; B. G. 1, 19, 5.
sīve (seu) . . . sīve (seu) . . ., *whether . . . or . . .*; B. G. 1, 12, 6.

a. **-que . . . -que . . .** and **-que . . . atque (ac)** are found in later Latin.
sēque remque pūblicam, *both themselves and the Commonwealth;* Sall. Cat. 9, 3.
sēque ac līberōs, *themselves and their children;* Tac. Hist. 3, 63.

III. ADVERSATIVE CONJUNCTIONS: at, autem, sed, tamen, vērō, etc.

310. 1. **At**, *but, yet* (regularly first in its clause), expresses contrast or objection.

quid tē impedit? Mōsne maiōrum? At persaepe etiam prīvātī perniciōsōs cīvīs morte multārunt, *what hinders you? The traditions of our ancestors? But even men in private life have often punished mischief-making citizens with death;* Cat. 1, 11, 28.

a. **At,** *but,* or **at enim,** *but indeed,* may introduce the supposed objection of an adversary.
at rēs populāris, *but, you will say, it is a popular movement;* Phil. 1, 9, 21.

b. **At** often merely shifts the scene to another person or place.
pāret Amor dictīs cārae genetrīcis. At Venus . . ., *Cupid obeys his beloved parent's words. But Venus . . .;* Aen. 1, 689.

c. The form **ast** is sometimes used in legal Latin and in poetry.

[1] An old Imperative of **volō**, meaning *choose*.

2. **Autem**, *however*, *on the other hand* (postpositive), expresses continuation and contrast.

hanc sī nostrī trānsīrent, hostēs exspectābant ; nostrī autem, sī ab illīs initium trānseundī fieret, parātī erant, *the enemy were waiting, in case our men should cross this* (swamp) ; *our men, on the other hand, were ready, in case the enemy should start to cross ;* B. G. 2, 9, 1.

a. Continuative **autem** must sometimes be translated by *now*, and sometimes must be left untranslated ; e.g. **Rhēnus autem**, B. G. 4, 10, 3.

b. **Autem** *only rarely expresses addition* ("moreover").

3. **Atquī**, *but at any rate, but yet, and yet*, is an emphatic **at**.

atquī nihil interest, *and yet there is no difference ;* Balb. 10, 26.

4. **Sed**, *but*, and the less common **vērum**, *but in truth, but*, are used to modify or contradict a previous statement. They are often accompanied by **tamen**.

aetāte iam adfectum, sed tamen exercitātiōne rōbustum, *feeling the effects of age already, but nevertheless kept vigorous by exercise ;* Cat. 2, 9, 20. (Modification.)

reliquōs nōn ex bellō, sed ex tuō scelere, *the survivors, not of war, but of your wickedness ;* Verr. 3, 54, 126. (Contradiction.)

a. **Cēterum**, *but*, resembles **sed** in meaning (not in Cicero or Caesar as a true Conjunction).

b. **Sed** and **vērum** often follow **nōn**, in pairs of phrases. Thus **nōn sōlum (modo) . . . sed (vērum)**, *not only . . . but . . . ;* Cat. 3, 10, 24.

Etiam or **quoque**, *also*, is often added to the **sed** or **vērum**. Thus **nōn sōlum mīlitāris virtūs, sed aliae quoque virtūtēs** ; Pomp. 22, 64.

5. **Vērō**, *in fact, indeed, but, however* (postpositive), is used to express strong contrast or emphasis.

mihi vērō ferreus, *to me, indeed, he* (would seem) *hard of heart ;* Cat. 4, 6, 12.

a. **Autem** and **vērō** are interchangeable, but **vērō** is stronger.

b. **Vērō** is often on the doubtful line between Conjunction and Adverb.

6. **Tamen**, *yet, nevertheless*, expresses something as true in spite of a previous concession, objection, or difficulty. It may be placed either at the beginning of a clause or after the emphatic word.

vehementissimē perturbātus, tamen signum cognōvit, *though greatly disturbed, still he recognized the seal ;* Cat. 3, 5, 12.

7. **Quamquam**, **etsī**, and **tametsī**, *and yet, however*, are sometimes used to introduce a modification or objection made by the speaker (*Corrective* **quamquam**, **etsī**, **tametsī**).

quamquam quid loquor ! *and yet why am I talking !* Cat. 1, 9, 22.

IV. INFERENTIAL CONJUNCTIONS

ergō, igitur, itaque, quārē, proinde, nam, enim

311. 1. **Ergō**, *therefore*, expresses either natural result or logical inference.

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2. **Igitur**, *accordingly*, *therefore*, *then* (usually postpositive), expresses natural result or logical inference, or the resumption of an interrupted thought.

3. **Itaque** (*and so*), *accordingly*, introduces an action naturally following from a preceding one, or an example of something stated just before.

4. **Quārē**, *wherefore*, introduces a consequence.

5. **Proinde** (*forth from that*), *therefore*, and sometimes **igitur** and **quārē**, introduce an inference which is also a command or exhortation.

proinde exeant, *let them therefore depart;* Cat. 2, 5, 11.

6. **Nam** and **enim**,[1] *for*, introduce an explanation of what has preceded, a justification of it, or a fuller statement. **Enim** is postpositive.

a. **Namque**, *for indeed*, is stronger than **nam**, and **etenim**, *for indeed*,[2] stronger than **enim**. (Note that **etenim** begins the clause, since in it the postpositive **enim** has an **et** to which to attach itself.)

b. In **nec enim** and **sed enim**, **enim** has its original sense of *indeed*.

nec requiēvit enim, *nor indeed did he rest;* Aen. 2, 100.
sed enim audierat, *but she had heard indeed;* Aen. 1, 19.

SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS

312. These can be understood only in connection with the constructions in which they are found, and accordingly will be treated under the Uses of the Moods.

INTERJECTIONS

313. Interjections are exclamatory words (1) expressing feeling, (2) calling attention to some one or something, or (3) calling the attention of a person addressed to the speaker.

Thus **ā** or **āh**! *alas!* **ecce**! *behold!* **ō**, *O.*

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[1] Originally *indeed.* [2] Originally *and indeed.*

C. THE EXPRESSION OF IDEAS THROUGH CASES, MOODS, AND TENSES

PRINCIPLES OF GRAMMATICAL EXPRESSION

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314. 1. The varying forms of Nouns, Pronouns, and Adjectives make, beside other things, what are called **Cases**; the varying forms of Verbs make, beside other things, what are called **Moods** and **Tenses**.

2. The study of Latin Syntax is in large degree the study of *the way in which the Romans expressed ideas by Cases, Moods, and Tenses.*

3. A given way of expressing an idea by a Case, a Mood, a Tense, etc., is called a **Construction**.

315. Each Case, each Mood, and each Tense probably had at one time a single meaning of a simple kind, or a limited sphere of closely related meanings.[1]

There took place, however, partly in the parent speech, partly in Latin itself, a large growth and change of these meanings; and in Latin literature we find *many* meanings of the Cases, and *many* meanings of the Moods and Tenses.

These growths came about mainly in four ways:

1. Through the **Figurative Use** of a Case, a Mood, or a Tense.

Thus **prō castrīs**, *before the camp* (literal place-idea), but also **prō patriā**, *in defence of country* (figurative idea).

2. Through the **Association** of a new idea with an existing construction.

Thus the idea of *Definition* or *Explanation* (**341**) grows up through association with the Genitive in combinations like **nōmen poētae**, *the name of poet* (originally merely *the name which belongs to a poet*).

3. Through the **Fusion** of two or more constructions into one. (Constructions arising in this way may be called *Constructions of Composite Origin.*)

Thus three different Kinds of Ablative may express *Cause* (**444**): the Separative, as in our "ill from anxiety" (cf. **444**, *b*), the Sociative, as in "ill with anxiety," and the Locative, as in "you take pleasure in my anxiety." There is evidence that Latin originally expressed Cause in all three of these ways. But since the form in the developed language was the *same* for all three, there must to the Roman feeling have seemed to be merely a *single* construction of Cause.

[1] But see, for a probable or possible exception, footnote, p. **303**.

4. Through **Analogy**, i.e. the influence of one or more constructions upon another resembling them in meaning.

Thus, since the Ablative was used with vēscor, *feed, eat*, it might occur to some one to use the same case with epulor, *feast*, — as it did to Virgil in Aen. 3, 224 (see **429**, *d*). This particular use is exceptional; but many *fixed uses* grew up in just such a way.

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AGREEMENT

316. By **Agreement** a word is put in the same case, number, etc., as a Noun or Pronoun, to show that it *belongs with* that Noun or Pronoun.

317. There are *three ways* in which an agreeing word may be attached to its Noun or Pronoun:

1. A word may be *closely united* with its Noun or Pronoun. Words so used are called **Attributive**.[1]

hic vīlicus, THIS *steward*. (**Hic** is Attributive.)

vīlicus meus bonus, MY GOOD *steward*. (**Meus** and **bonus** are Attributive.)

2. A word may be *loosely added* to its Noun or Pronoun. Words so used are called **Appositive**[2] (i.e. *put beside*).

vīlicus meus, adiūtor rērum meārum, *my steward*, THE AID *of my fortunes*. (**Adiūtor** is Appositive.)

vīlicus meus, bonus et impiger, *my steward*, GOOD *and* ENERGETIC. (**Bonus** and **impiger** are Appositive.)

vīlicus meus, rēs meās adiūtāns, *my steward*, AIDING *my fortunes*. (**Adiūtāns** is Appositive.)

a. An Appositive may be defined as a word loosely attached to another to exhibit it *under some special aspect*. Thus **Caesar cōnsul** means *Caesar* IN THE CAPACITY OF *consul*, *Caesar* AS *consul*.

b. Apposition is, in reality, a sort of *shortened* Predication. Thus **Caesar cōnsul** means *Caesar — he was at the time consul* ——, etc.

c. An attributive or appositive word may express Condition, Cause, or Opposition. Thus **prīvātus**, *although in private life;* Cat. 1, 1, 3. See also **578**, 6.

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[1] The word *adherent* would more exactly describe the relation.

[2] Nouns so attached are regularly called Appositive, as here. *Adjectives* similarly attached have regularly been called Attributive. But there is no difference of relation, and it is better to use the same word in both cases.

3. A word may be *predicated* of its Noun or Pronoun (see 229). Words so used are called **Predicates**, or **Predicative**.

vīlicus meus bonus et impiger est, *my steward* IS GOOD *and* ENERGETIC. (**Est** is a Predicate Verb, and **bonus** and **impiger** are Predicate Adjectives.)

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vīlicus meus adiūtor rērum meārum est, *my steward* IS *the* AID *of my fortunes*. (**Est** is a Predicate Verb, and **adiūtor** a Predicate Noun.)

vīlicus meus mē adiūtat, *my steward* AIDS *me*. (**Adiūtat** is a Predicate.)

a. A *Verb* can be attached to a Substantive in this way only.

GENERAL STATEMENT OF AGREEMENT

318. *So far as forms exist to make it possible, an Attributive, Appositive, or Predicative word agrees in Gender, Number, Person, and Case with the word to which it belongs.*

DETAILS OF AGREEMENT FOR NOUNS, ADJECTIVES, PARTICIPLES, AND PRONOUNS

I. AGREEMENT WITH A SINGLE WORD

Agreement of Nouns

319. Nouns agree in *Case* with the substantives to which they belong, and, if possible, in *Gender* and *Number* also.

To these substantives they may be either *appositive* or *predicative*.

I. *Appositive Noun:*

C. Volusēnus, tribūnus, *Gaius Volusenus, a tribune;* B. G. 3, 5, 2.

Volsiniī, oppidum Tuscōrum, *Volsinii, a city of the Etruscans;* Plin. N. H. 2, 139. (Agreement in *gender* and *number* impossible.)

a. **Partitive Apposition.** A noun denoting a whole may be followed by a distributive pronoun in apposition, or by two or more words in apposition, each denoting a part.

quisque suōs patimur mānīs, *we suffer, each his own spirit;* Aen. 6, 743.

duo rēgēs, ille bellō hic pāce, cīvitātem auxērunt, *two kings built up the state, one by war, the other by peace;* Liv. 1, 21, 6.

II. *Predicative Noun:*

stilus optimus dīcendī effector (est), *the pen is the best producer of eloquence;* De Or. 1, 33, 150. (Notice the Gender of **effector**.)

pecūnia est effectrīx multārum voluptātum, *money is the producer of many pleasures;* Fin. 2, 17, 55. (Notice the Gender of **effectrīx**.)

a. On the other hand, a noun may also be made to agree in Gender and Number with an Appositive which is *going to be* used.

illās omnium doctrīnārum inventrīcēs Athēnās, *that inventor of all learning, Athens;* De Or. 1, 4, 13.

rēgīna Pecūnia, *the almighty Dollar* (our lady Money); Ep. 1, 6, 37.

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b. Most nouns exist in but a single gender-form, and agreement with another noun in Gender is therefore often impossible.

c. A substantive clause (indicative, subjunctive, or infinitive) may be used as an appositive or predicate. See especially **238** and **597**, 1, *a*), *b*).

Agreement of Adjectives and Participles

320. Adjectives and Participles agree in *Case*, *Gender*, and *Number* with the substantives to which they belong.

To these substantives they may be *attributive*, *appositive*, or *predicative*.

I. *Attributive Adjective or Participle:*

magnam partem, *a large part;* B. G. 2, 20, 2.
ācta vīta, *my past life;* Sen. 11, 38.

II. *Appositive Adjective or Participle:*

Lūcīlī rītū, nostrum meliōris utrōque, *in the manner of Lucilius, a better man than either of us;* Sat. 2, 1, 29.

Dīviciācus, Caesarem complexus, obsecrāre coepit, *Diviciacus, embracing Caesar, began to implore him;* B. G. 1, 20, 1.

III. *Predicative Adjective or Participle:*

Caesar fit ab Ubiīs certior, *Caesar is informed by the Ubii* (made more certain); B. G. 6, 10, 1.

Gallia est omnis dīvīsa in partīs trēs, *Gaul as a whole is divided into three parts;* B. G. 1, 1, 1.

Agreement of Determinative Pronouns

321. Determinative pronouns agree in *Case*, in *Gender*, and in *Number* with the substantives to which they belong.

To these substantives they may be *attributive* or *predicative*.

I. *Attributive Pronoun:*

is diēs, *this day;* B. G. 5, 39, 4. **eās rēs**, *these facts;* B. G. 1, 14, 1.

II. *Predicative Pronoun:*

haec fuit ōrātiō, *their address was as follows* (was this); B. G. 4, 7, 2.

Agreement of Relative Pronouns

322. Relative Pronouns agree with their Antecedents (**281**, *a*) in *Gender* and *Number*, but their *Case* depends upon their relations in the Clauses to which they belong.

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ad eam partem pervēnit quae nōndum flūmen trānsierat, *came to the part which had not yet crossed the river;* B. G. 1, 12, 2. (Feminine Singular, because referring to **eam partem**; Nominative, because the Subject of **trānsierat**.)

omnīs clientīs, quōrum magnum numerum habēbat, *all his clients, of whom he had a great number;* B. G. 1, 4, 2. (Masculine Plural, because referring to **clientīs**; Genitive, because depending upon **numerum**.)

II. AGREEMENT WITH TWO OR MORE WORDS[1]

323. 1. An Adjective, Participle, or Pronoun belonging or referring to two or more substantives *of the same* Gender and Number must agree with them in Gender, and may be either of the Number of the nearest, or Plural, even if the nearest is Singular.

Of the Number of the individual substantives:

ventum et aestum nactus secundum, *getting a favorable wind and tide;* B. G. 4, 23, 6.

(Relative) **prō suā clēmentiā ac mānsuētūdine, quam ipsī ab aliīs audīrent**, *in accordance with his clemency and gentleness, of which they themselves heard from others;* B. G. 2, 31, 4.

Of the Plural Number:

angēbant ingentis spīritūs virum Sicilia Sardiniaque āmissae, *the lost* (i.e. *the loss of*) *Sicily and Sardinia troubled the high-spirited man;* Liv. 21, 1, 5.

(Relative) **Cottae et Titurī calamitātem, quī occiderint**, *the fate of Cotta and Titurius, who fell;* B. G. 6, 37, 8.

2. An Adjective, Participle, or Pronoun belonging or referring to two or more substantives *of different* Gender or Number, or both, may agree with the nearest of them; otherwise it must be in the Masculine Plural if *one* of the substantives denotes a man, in the Feminine Plural if *one* of them denotes a woman and *none* of them a man, or in the Neuter Plural if *all* of them denote things.

Agreeing with the nearest substantive:

signum et manum suam cognōvit, *acknowledged his seal and hand;* Cat. 3, 5, 12.

(Relative) **nostrī nōn eādem alacritāte ac studiō quō ūtī cōnsuērant ūtēbantur**, *our men were not showing the same eagerness and zeal that they were in the habit of showing;* B. G. 4, 24, 4.

[1] The uses of the Relative, which in no wise differ, are included in the statements of **323–326**.

In the Masculine Plural where one substantive denotes a man:

rēx rēgiaque classis profectī (sunt), *the king and the royal fleet set out;* Liv. 21, 50, 11.

In the Neuter Plural where all the substantives denote things:

ubi īra et aegritūdō permixta sunt, *when anger and grief are united;* Sall. Iug. 68, 1.

(Relative) **ūsus ac disciplīna, quae ā nōbīs accēpissent,** *the experience and discipline which they had gained from us;* B. G. 1, 40, 5.

a. The Neuter Plural may be used even if the substantives are *all* Masculine or *all* Feminine, *provided they all denote things.*

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Agreement by Form, by Sense, and by Attraction

324. In **Agreement by Form,**[1] a word takes its Gender and Number from the *form* of the word or phrase to which it belongs.

sex mīlia hostium caesa, *six thousand of the enemy were killed;* Liv. 21, 60, 7.

325. In **Agreement by Sense,** a word takes its Gender and Number from the *real meaning* of the word or phrase to which it belongs. So from a Collective Noun or Adverb, the name of a Country or Town, a Possessive Pronoun or Adjective, or a Noun connected with another by **cum.** Thus:

magna pars occīsī (sunt), *a large part were killed;* Sall. Iug. 58, 2.

cum partim ē nōbīs timidī sint, partim ā rē pūblicā āversī, *since some of us are timid, and others hostile to the commonwealth;* Phil. 8, 11, 32.

Latium Capuaque multātī, *Latium and Capua were punished;* Liv. 8, 11, 12.

nostrā, quī remānsissēmus, caede contentum, *satisfied with killing us who had stayed behind;* Cat. 1, 3, 7.

fīliam cum minōre fīliō, accītōs Amphipolim, *the daughter with the younger son, being summoned to Amphipolis;* Liv. 45, 28, 11.

a. A Pronoun referring to the *general thought* of what precedes, or follows, is in the Neuter Gender.

diērum quīndecim supplicātiō dēcrēta est, quod ante id tempus accidit nūllī, *a thanksgiving of fifteen days was voted, which up to this time had happened to no one;* B. G. 2, 35, 4. Similarly with **id quod,** B. G. 4, 29, 3.

quod bonum, faustum, fēlīxque sit, Quirītēs, rēgem creāte, *citizens, — may it be attended with good, with fortune, and with blessing, — appoint a king;* Liv. 1, 17, 10. (The Relative refers to what is to follow.)

Note 1. The word **rēs** (*fact, circumstance,* etc.) may be used, in which case the pronoun must agree with it. So **quae rēs,** B. G. 3, 15, 4.

Note 2. There are thus three possible forms in such a case, — **quod, id quod,** and **quae rēs.**

b. Substantive clauses, infinitives used substantively, and quoted expressions, are neuter. Examples in **58,** 3.

[1] Also called Grammatical Agreement.

c. A Neuter Adjective used substantively may be a predicate to a subject of any Gender.

mūtābile semper fēmina, *a woman is always a fickle thing;* Aen. 4, 569.

d. With similar feeling, the Romans liked to use the neuter *in general expressions*, in place of the masculine or feminine. Thus **mihi tē cārius nihil** esse, (be sure) *that nothing* (= no one) *is dearer to me than yourself;* Fam. 14, 3, 5; **quicquid invalidum est,** *whatever* (= whoever) *is weak;* Aen. 5, 716.

326. In **Agreement by Attraction,** a word takes its Gender and Number from some word closely connected with the one to which it really belongs. Thus:

1. An Adjective, Participle, or Pronoun may be attracted into the Gender and Number of an Appositive or Predicate.

Corinthum patrēs vestrī, tōtius Graeciae lūmen, exstīnctum esse voluērunt, *your ancestors chose that Corinth, the light of the whole Greek world, should be extinguished;* Pomp. 5. 11. (**Exstīnctum** is attracted by **lūmen.**)

idem velle atque nōlle, ea amīcitia est, *to have the same desire and the same aversion, that is friendship;* Sall. Cat. 20, 4. (**Ea** is attracted by **amīcitia.**)

(Relative) **omnīs Belgās, quam tertiam esse Galliae partem dīxerāmus, coniūrāre,** *that all the Belgians, who* (*which*) *we have said are a third part of Gaul, were conspiring;* B. G. 2, 1, 1.

2. For Attraction of a Predicate into the Dative after **licet esse,** etc., *it is permitted* (*to a man*) *to be* . . , see **585,** *c.*

3. A word denoting a Name *may* be attracted by a Dative depending upon **nōmen est (374), nōmen dō (365),** etc.

nōmen Arctūrō est mihi, *my name is Arcturus;* Rud. 5.

a. Otherwise the Appositive construction is regularly used with **nōmen est** (*not* the Explanatory Genitive); thus **Troia huic locō nōmen est,** Liv. 1, 1, 5.

4. Rarely, the Relative is attracted into the *Case* of its Antecedent.

quibus quisque poterat ēlātīs, *picking up what each could* (= **iīs ēlātīs quibus quisque poterat,** in place of **iīs ēlātīs quae,** etc.); Liv. 1, 29, 4.

5. In poetry, the Noun is sometimes put before the Relative and attracted into its *Case.*

urbem quam statuō vestra est, *the city which I build, 't is yours;* Aen. 1, 573.

327. The Romans avoided making a Relative refer to an Appositive Noun, preferring to attach the latter *to the Relative itself.*

tanta tranquillitās exstitit, ut sē ex locō movēre nōn possent; quae quidem rēs maximē fuit opportūna, *so great a calm arose that they could not stir from the place; a circumstance which* (which circumstance) *was most fortunate;* B. G. 3, 15, 3.

DETAILS OF AGREEMENT FOR VERBS

I. AGREEMENT WITH A SINGLE SUBJECT

328. 1. A Finite Verb (146) agrees with its Subject in *Number* and *Person*.

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relinquēbātur ūna via, *one road remained;* B. G. 1, 9, 1.

erant itinera duo, *there were two ways;* B. G. 1, 6, 1.

a. When the subject is a Relative, the verb follows the Person of the Antecedent.

adsum quī fēcī, *here am I, who did it;* Aen. 9, 427.

2. If a verb-form contains a Participle, this Participle must agree with the Subject in *Case*, in *Gender*, and in *Number*.

ea rēs est ēnūntiāta, *the affair was made known;* B. G. 1, 4, 1.

ita Helvētiōs īnstitūtōs esse, (answered) *that the Helvetians had been so trained;* B. G. 1, 14, 7.

II. AGREEMENT WITH TWO OR MORE SUBJECTS

329. A Verb may have two or more words for its Subject, and these may be of different Persons, Genders, or Numbers. The usage in such cases is as follows:

1. Where the Subjects are of different persons, the First Person is preferred to the other two, and the Second Person to the Third.

sī tū et Tullia valētis, ego et suāvissimus Cicerō valēmus, *if you and Tullia are well, my dear boy and I are well;* Fam. 14, 5, 1.

2. When a Verb belongs to two or more words, it may either agree with the nearest of them, or be put in the Plural.

Orgetorīgis fīlia atque ūnus ē fīliīs captus est, *the daughter of Orgetorix and one of his sons were taken prisoners;* B. G. 1, 26, 4.

ubi Titurius atque Aurunculeius cōnsēderant, *where Titurius and Aurunculeius had established themselves;* B. G. 6, 32, 4.

3. When a Verb belongs to several Subjects connected by **aut, aut . . . aut . . .**, or **nec . . . nec . . .**, it may be in either the Singular or the Plural.

neque pēs neque mēns suom officium facit, *neither foot nor mind does its duty;* Eun. 729.

haec sī neque ego neque tū fēcimus, *if neither you nor I did it;* Ad. 103.

AGREEMENT OF VERBS BY FORM, BY SENSE, AND BY ATTRACTION

330. In **Agreement by Form**, a Verb takes its Number from the *form* of the word to which it belongs.

pars stupet dōnum, *a part* (is) *are amazed at the gift;* Aen. 2, 31.

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331. In **Agreement by Sense**, a Verb takes its Number from the *real meaning*, not the *form*, of its Subject. This takes place as follows:

1. A Verb agreeing with a *Collective Noun* may be in the Plural.

pars mōlem mīrantur, *a part admire the mighty bulk;* Aen. 2, 31. **Cīvitātī persuāsit ut exīrent**, *persuaded the state to go out;* B. G. 1, 2, 1.

2. A Verb agreeing with **quisque**, **uterque**, etc., may be in the Plural.

uterque eōrum exercitum ēdūcunt, *each of them leads out his army;* B. C. 3, 30, 3.

a. For the more common Partitive Apposition, see **319**, I, *a*.

3. A Verb agreeing with two or more Subjects which make *one compound idea* may be in the Singular.

ratiō ōrdōque agminis aliter sē habēbat, *the plan and arrangement of the line of march was different;* B. G. 2, 19, 1.

4. A Verb agreeing with a Subject attached to another word by **cum** may be in the Plural.

Lentulus, cum cēterīs quī prīncipēs coniūrātiōnis erant, cōnstituerant . . ., *Lentulus, with the other leaders of the conspiracy, had determined . . .;* Sall. Cat. 43, 1.

332. In **Agreement by Attraction**, a Verb may take its Number, not from the Subject, but from an Appositive or Predicate which stands *between* it and the Subject.

pictōrēs suum quisque opus ā vulgō cōnsīderārī vult, *painters want each his own work to be examined by the public;* Off. 1, 41, 147.

amantium īrae amōris integrātiō est, *lovers' tiffs are love's renewal;* And. 555.

LEADING IDEA NOT IN THE PRINCIPAL NOUN

333. The leading idea of a phrase may be carried, not by the grammatically leading Noun, but by an Adjective, Participle, Pronoun, or Noun *in agreement with* it. (See also **608**.)

post urbem conditam, *after the founding of the city;* Cat. 4, 7, 14.

ante Verrem praetōrem, *before the praetorship of Verres;* Verr. 3, 6, 15.

duce laetus Achātē, *rejoicing in the guidance of Achates;* Aen. 1, 696.

a. The usage is common in Cicero, but still more frequent later.

REMAINING USES OF THE CASES

334. General Introduction. 1. The earliest ideas expressed by the cases (as these are represented in Latin) were probably as follows:

By the Nominative, *the Name.*
" " Genitive, *that which Possesses*, or *a Whole, of which a Part only is affected.*[1]
" " Dative, *Direction.*
" " Accusative, *Contact* or *Nearness.*
" " Vocative, *Address.*
" " Ablative, { *Separation.* *Association.* *Location.*

2. The Ablative is made up (**61**, *b*) of remains of three cases possessed by the parent speech: I. the true Ablative, expressing Separation, II. the Sociative (generally called, from a derived use, the Instrumental), expressing Association (i.e. Accompaniment), and III. the Locative, expressing the Place Where.

3. It is obvious that these three cases of the parent speech originally expressed, or involved, *space*-ideas: the Ablative that of motion *from* some place, the Locative that of being *in* some place, the Sociative that of being *with* something (necessarily *in* some place). The two other common and striking space-ideas, namely that of Direction toward something, and that of Contact or Nearness, must have been expressed by two out of the remaining cases; and the actual uses of the Dative and the Accusative make it probable that these were respectively the two.

4. All space-ideas were originally expressed by bare cases; for Prepositions were of comparatively late origin (see **125**; **303**, *a*).

5. From expressions of space-relations arose a variety of figurative expressions. Compare English FROM *the camp* and FROM *affection*, IN *the camp* and IN *haste.*

THE NOMINATIVE

Subject of a Finite Verb

335. The *Subject of a Finite Verb* is put in the Nominative.

hic tamen vīvit, *still this man lives;* Cat. 1, 1, 2.

interfectus est C. Gracchus, *Gaius Gracchus was killed;* Cat. 1, 2, 4.

a. The Subject is sometimes a Substantive Clause or an Infinitive (**238**, **597**, 1, *a*).

b. A Nominative is frequently used without a Verb, to present a person or thing simply as doing, suffering, or being, without telling *what* he or it does, suffers, or is.

ēn Priamus, *lo and behold, Priam;* Aen. 1, 461.

clāmor inde concursusque populī, *then a shouting and a rushing together of the people;* Liv. 1, 41, 1.

c. The *Subject of the Historical Infinitive* is likewise put in the Nominative. (Examples under **595**.)

[1] The idea of Possession was perhaps the older; for the Part *belongs to* the Whole. Thus **multī Rōmānōrum**, *many belonging to* (= of) *the Romans.*

336. The Nominative is also used:

1. As an Appositive. See **317**, 2, and **319**.
2. As a Predicate. See **317**, 3, and **319**.
3. In Exclamations. See **399**, *a*.
4. In place of the Vocative. See **401**.

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THE GENITIVE

337. The Latin Genitive expresses three general classes of ideas:

I. *Possession.*

II. *The Whole, of Which a Part is affected.*

III. *Various ideas, in constructions of Composite Origin (Fusion).*

338. SYNOPSIS OF THE PRINCIPAL USES OF THE GENITIVE

I Possessive Genitive

- Genitive of Possession or Connection, directly attached (**339**)
- Possessive Genitive in Predicate (Genitive of Possession, Duty, Mark, etc.; **340**)
- Derivatives from Genitive of Possession, directly attached:
  - Explanatory Genitive (**341**) [1]
    - Genitive of the Charge (**342**) [1]
      - Genitive of the Penalty or Fine (**343**) [1]
  - Subjective Genitive (**344**)
  - Genitive with rēfert and interest (**345**)

II Genitive of the Whole

- True Genitive of the Whole (**346**)
  - Genitive of Plenty or Want (**347**)
  - Poetic Genitive of Separation (**348**)
- Genitive of Material or Composition (**349**)
- Genitive of the Object, with Verbs:
  - with **oblīvīscor, meminī, reminīscor** (**350**)
  - " **admoneō, commoneō, commonefaciō** (**351**)
  - " **miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet, taedet; misereor, miserēscō** (**352**)
  - " **potior** (**353**)

III Of Composite Origin

- Objective Genitive and Genitive of Application (**354**)
- Descriptive Genitive (**355**)
  - Genitive of Value or Price (**356**)
- Genitive with Neuter Plural Adjectives (**357**)

[1] In this table and those that follow, the setting back of a construction from the line means that it is derived from the *first* construction above standing *farther to the left*. Thus (under I) from the Possessive Genitive is derived the Explanatory Genitive; from the latter, the Genitive of the Charge; and from the last, the Genitive of the Penalty.

I. THE POSSESSIVE GENITIVE AND ITS DERIVATIVES

Possessive Genitive in Direct Attachment

339. *Possession* or *Connection* may be expressed by a Genitive attached to a Noun.

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servō accūsātōris, *a slave belonging to* (of) *the accuser;* Mil. 22, 59.
difficultātēs bellī, *difficulties connected with the war;* Leg. Agr. 2, 30, 83.

a. As in English, the possessive pronoun of the first or second person or of the reflexive is regularly preferred to the Genitive of the personal pronoun; similarly, **aliēnus** to the Genitive of **alius**.

meum fīlium, *my son;* Cat. 4, 11, 23.
aliēnīs praecēptīs, *the teachings of others;* Pomp. 10, 28.

b. When used with a possessive pronoun, **ipse**, **sōlus**, **ūnus**, **omnis**, and sometimes other words, agree with the implied Genitive.

nostrō omnium flētū, *the tears of us all;* Mil. 34, 92.
vestrae ipsōrum virtūtī, *your own valor;* Liv. 1, 28, 4.
tuum studium adulēscentis, *your zeal as a youth;* Fam. 15, 13, 1.
aedem Nymphārum, *the temple of the Nymphs;* Mil. 27, 73.
cuius pater, *whose father* (the father of whom); B. G. 1, 3, 4.
amīcōs populī Rōmānī, *friends of the Roman people;* B. G. 1, 35, 4.

c. Certain adjectives meaning *like*, *common*, *connected*, or the opposite, may take either the Dative of Relation (**362**) or the Genitive of Possession or Connection:[1]

tuī similis, *like you* (the like of you); Cat. 1, 2, 5.
superstes omnium meōrum, *the survivor of all my people;* Quintil. 6, Pr. 4.
aliēnum dignitātis, *inconsistent with dignity;* Fin. 1, 4, 11.

NOTE. With words denoting persons, **similis** more frequently takes the Genitive.

d. The idea of Possession or Connection may be lost, though the Genitive remains. Thus with **īnstar**, **causā**, **grātiā**, and **ergō** (the last three post-positive).

īnstar montis equum, *a horse* (the like of) *like a mountain;* Aen. 2, 15.
amīcitiae causā, *by reason of their friendship;* B. G. 1, 39, 2.
illius ergō, *on his account* (on account of him); Aen. 6, 670.

e. In a few expressions, the noun on which the Genitive depends may be omitted (so regularly with the master's name). Thus **ad Castoris**, *to* (*the temple*) *of Castor;* Mil. 33, 91; **Hectoris Andromachē**, *Hector's* (*wife*) *Andromache;* Aen. 3, 319.

f. For the Genitive with **prīdiē** and **postrīdiē**, see **380**, *e*.

g. For the occasional Genitive with **tenus**, see **407**, 3.

[1] So especially **similis**, **pār**, **commūnis**, **adfīnis**, and their opposites **dissimilis**, **contrārius**, **aliēnus**, **proprius**. Also **superstes**, *surviving* (*left over with relation to*, or *the survivor of*).

Possessive Genitive in the Predicate

340. The Possessive Genitive may be used *in the Predicate* with **sum** or **faciō** to express the idea of *belonging to*, or various ideas naturally suggested by this (*is the business of, the part of, the duty of*, etc.).

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neque Galliam potius esse Ariovistī quam populī Rōmānī, *and that Gaul did not belong to Ariovistus any more than to the Roman people;* B. G. 1, 45, 1.

virī fortis (est) nē suppliciīs quidem movērī, *it is the duty of a brave man not to be stirred even by tortures;* Mil. 30, 82.

a. In certain phrases, the idea of Possession is faint or wholly lost.

nihil reliquī fēcērunt, *they left nothing undone* (made nothing to belong to the left undone); B. G. 2, 26, 5.

b. For the Dative of Possession with the verb **sum**, see **374**.

Explanatory Genitive

341. The Genitive may be attached to a Noun to *define* or *explain* its meaning.

hoc poētae nōmen, *this name of "poet";* Arch. 8, 19.

Troiae urbem, *the city of Troy,* Aen. 1, 565.

Genitive of the Charge

342. Verbs of *accusing, condemning*, or *acquitting*[1] may take a *Genitive of the Thing Charged.*

eum accūsās avāritiae? *do you accuse him of avarice?* Flacc. 33, 83.

mē inertiae condemnō, *I condemn myself for negligence;* Cat. 1, 2, 4.

a. Similarly **reus**, *defendant* (i.e. person accused), may take the Genitive. Thus **pecūniārum repetundārum reus**, *charged with extortion* (money to be recovered); Sall. Cat. 18, 3.

b. The Thing Charged may also be expressed by **dē** with the Ablative. Thus **dē vī postulāvit**, *arraigned him on a charge of violence;* Senat. 8, 19.

c. By a different turn of the thought, **inter** may be used to denote the class in which the accused is placed. Thus **inter sīcāriōs accūsābant**, *accused him of belonging among cutthroats* (i.e. of murder); Rosc. Am. 32, 90.

d. The Thing Charged may become the Direct Object (**390**), the Person being left unmentioned. Thus **ambitum accūsās?** *do you charge bribery?* Mur. 32, 67.

[1] So especially **accūsō** and **incūsō, arcessō, arguō, dēferō, postulō, damnō, condemnō, convincō, absolvō, līberō.** Similarly, in poetry or later prose, **interrogō** and the adjectives or participles **innocēns, īnsōns, manifestus, noxius, innoxius, suspectus**, etc.

Genitive of the Penalty or Fine

343. Verbs of *accusing, condemning,* or *acquitting* may take a *Genitive of the Penalty* or *Fine.*

octuplī damnāre, *to condemn (to pay) eightfold;* Verr. 3, 11, 28.

capitis condemnārī, *to be condemned to death;* Rab. Perd. 4, 12.

damnātum vōtī, *successful in his vow* (condemned to pay it); Nep. Timol. 5, 3. With similar meaning **vōtī reus,** Aen. 5, 237.

a. The construction is confined in prose to indefinite words like **pecūniae,** *money,* and **quantī,** *how much,* multiples like **octuplī,** *eightfold,* and the word **capitis,** *death.*

b. For the Ablative of the Penalty with verbs of *punishing* or *fining,* see **428**.

Subjective Genitive

344. The Genitive may be used to express the *Subject of an Activity denoted by a Noun.*

ab iniūriā Cassivellaunī, *from wrong at the hands of Cassivellaunus;* B. G. 5, 20, 3. (He *committed* the wrong.)

Caesaris adventus, *Caesar's coming;* B. G. 6, 41, 4. (Caesar *came.*)

Genitive of the Person or Thing Concerned, with rēfert and interest

345. **Rēfert** and **interest,** *it concerns, is for the interest of,* take the *Genitive of the Person* or *Thing Concerned,* if expressed by a Noun, the Feminine Ablative Singular of the Possessive if expressed by a Pronoun (**meā, tuā,** etc.).

quantum interesset P. Clōdī sē perīre cōgitābat, *he always kept in mind how much his death concerned Publius Clodius;* Mil. 21, 56.

nihil meā rēfert, *it does not concern me;* Pis. 17, 39.

meā videō quid intersit, *I see what is to my interest;* Cat. 4, 5, 9.

a. With the Genitive of the Person Cicero prefers **interest.**

b. The *degree* of the concern or interest may be expressed by an Accusative of Degree (**387**), a Genitive of Value (**356**), or an Adverb. Thus **meā interest plūrimum, plūrimī,** or **maximē,** *it is greatly to my interest.*

II. THE GENITIVE OF THE WHOLE,[1] AND ITS DERIVATIVES

Genitive of the Whole in the Strict Sense

346. The *Whole to which a Part Belongs* may be expressed by the Genitive.

[1] The name *Partitive Genitive,* which is often used, is convenient because of its shortness. But the student should remember that what is expressed by the Genitive word itself is the *Whole,* not the Part.

The construction may be used with any Noun, Adjective, Pronoun, or Adverb that can imply a *part* of a whole.

eōrum ūna pars, *one part of them;* B. G. 1, 1, 5.
prīmōs cīvitātis, *the first men of the state;* B. G. 2, 3, 1.
ubinam gentium sumus? *where in the world are we?* Cat. 1, 4, 9.
sceleris nihil, *no crime* (nothing of crime); Mil. 12, 32.
quid suī cōnsilī sit, *what his plan is;* B. G. 1, 21, 2. (For **quid sibi cōnsilī sit**, *what of plan he has.*)

a. With words like **nihil** and **aliquid**, adjectives of the Second Declension may be put either in the neuter Genitive of the Whole, or in direct agreement; while adjectives of the Third Declension are almost always in direct agreement.

nihil certī (Ac. 1, 12, 46) and **nihil certum** (Tull. 15, 35), *nothing certain.*
nihil maius, *nothing greater;* Lig. 12, 38.

b. **Uterque**, *each of two*, and **quisque**, *each of a larger number*, regularly agree with a noun, but take the Genitive of the Whole if a pronoun is used.

uterque dux, *each general, both generals;* Marc. 8, 24.
quōrum utrīque, *to each of whom;* Mil. 27, 75.

c. English often uses the word "of" where there is no partitive relation, as in "all of us," meaning "we all." Latin is *generally* exact in this respect.

hī omnēs, *all (of) these;* B. G. 1, 1, 2.
reliquīs Gallīs, *the rest of the Gauls* (the remaining Gauls); B. G. 2, 2, 3.

d. In poetry and later prose the Genitive of the Whole is sometimes used with words *not* implying a part.

tē, sāncte deōrum, *thee, O holy one of the gods;* Aen. 4, 576.
fīēs nōbilium tū quoque fontium, *thou too shalt be of the world's great fountains;* Carm. 3, 13, 13. (In Predicate.)

e. After many words, the Whole to which a Part belongs *may* be expressed by **dē** or **ex** with the Ablative (**405**). So regularly with **quīdam** and with cardinal numbers (**130**). Thus **ūnus ex istīs**, *the only one of these;* Cat. 3, 7, 16.

Genitive of Plenty or Want

347. Certain Adjectives and Verbs of *plenty* or *want* may take the Genitive.

plēna exemplōrum vetustās, *the past is full of examples;* Arch. 6, 14.
implentur Bacchī, *they take their fill of wine;* Aen. 1, 215.
inopēs amīcōrum, *poor in friends;* Am. 15, 53.
nē quis auxilī egēret, *that none might be in need of aid;* B. G. 6, 11, 4.

a. So, in Ciceronian Latin, the adjectives **plēnus, refertus, expers, inops, inānis,** and the verbs **indigeō, egeō, compleō, impleō** (the last three rarely).[1]

b. The words of this list also take the Ablative (425) freely in Ciceronian Latin, except **plēnus, inops, indigeō** (these three rarely), and **expers** (never).

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c. Other words of Plenty or Want take the Ablative in Ciceronian Latin (425).

Poetic Genitive of Separation

348. In poetry the Genitive is sometimes used to express *Separation.*

ut mē labōrum levās ! *how you relieve me of toil !* Rud. 247.
līber labōrum, *free from toil ;* A. P. 212. (Cf. **līberī ā dēliciīs** ; Leg. Agr. 1, 9, 27.)
dēsine querellārum, *cease from complaints ;* Carm. 2, 9, 17.
neque ciceris invīdit, *nor grudged his chick-pea ;* Sat. 2, 6, 83.

REMARK. This construction is an extension of the Genitive of Want; but the extension was doubtless *helped* by the influence of the Greek Genitive of Separation.

Genitive of Material or Composition

349. *Material* or *Composition* may be expressed by a Genitive attached to a Noun.

obtortī circulus aurī, *a chain of twisted gold ;* Aen. 5, 559.
ancillārum gregēs, *crowds* (composed) *of maidservants ;* Mil. 21, 55.

a. The same idea *may* be expressed by the Ablative with **ex** (in poetry with **dē** also, or without preposition), and *must* be so expressed if a verb is used (406, 4).

factae ex rōbore, *made of oak ;* B. G. 3, 13, 3.

Genitive of the Object, with Verbs

Genitive of the Object of Mental Action

350. **Oblīvīscor, meminī,** and **reminīscor,** *forget, remember,* and *recall,* may take a *Genitive Object.*

If the Object is a *person,* **oblīvīscor** takes the Genitive only, **meminī** *either* the Genitive or the Accusative, **reminīscor** the Accusative only.

If the Object is a *thing,* all three verbs take *either* the Genitive *or* the Accusative of a Noun, and (regularly) only the Accusative of a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective.

[1] Also, in later Latin (often with forced meaning), **dīves, egēnus, laetus,** and many others; and the verbs **repleō, careō,** and others.

vīvōrum meminī, nec tamen Epicūrī licet oblīvīscī, *I remember the living, and, at the same time, it isn't possible for me to forget Epicurus;* Fin. 5, 1, 3.

nec umquam oblīvīscar noctis illīus, *nor shall I ever forget that night;* Planc. 42, 101. Cf. **reminīscerētur virtūtis,** B. G. 1, 13, 4.

an vērō oblītī estis sermōnēs et opiniōnēs? *have you forgotten the expressions of opinion?* Mil. 23, 62.

sī id meminerītis, quod oblīvīscī nōn potestis, *if you bear in mind this fact, which you cannot forget;* Mil. 4, 11.

a. **Meminī** may also take **dē** of a *person* (*remember about*).

b. **Recordor,** *recollect,* takes **dē** of a *person,* and either **dē** or the Accusative of a *thing.*

351. **Admoneō** and **commoneō,** *remind,* and **commonefaciō,** *remind* or *inform,* may take, besides an Accusative of the Person, a Genitive of *the Thing of Which* he is reminded or informed.

admonēbat alium egestātis, alium cupiditātis suae, *he would remind one man of his poverty, another of his covetousness;* Sall. Cat. 21, 4.

grammaticōs officiī suī commonēmus, *we remind the professors of languages of their duty;* Quintil. 1, 5, 7.

a. The Thing of Which one is reminded or informed, if expressed by a neuter pronoun or a neuter adjective, is regularly in the Accusative. (See **397.**)

b. These verbs of Reminding and Informing *may* take **dē** with the Ablative.

Genitive of the Object of Feeling

352. 1. Impersonal Verbs of Feeling may take, besides the Accusative of the Person Feeling, a Genitive of that *toward which the feeling is directed.*

These Verbs are **miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet,** and **taedet,** *it makes one pitiful, repentant, disgusted, ashamed,* or *bored.*

mē meōrum factōrum numquam paenitēbit, *I shall never repent of what I have done;* Cat. 4, 10, 20. (Cf. "It repenteth me," *Genesis,* VI, 7.)

eōrum nōs miseret, *we feel pity for them;* Mil. 34, 92.

a. **Miseret** never has a Subject. The other verbs of the list sometimes have for a Subject a Neuter Pronoun in the Singular, an Infinitive, or a **quod**-Clause (**552**).

taedet caelī convexa tuērī, *it wearies her to gaze upon the vault of Heaven;* Aen. 4, 451.

2. The *personal* Verbs of Feeling **misereor** and the poetic **miserēscō**, *I pity*, take their Object in the Genitive. (**Miseror** takes the Accusative.)

miserēre animī nōn digna ferentis, *pity a soul that bears ills undeserved;* Aen. 2, 144.

3. The old Genitive of the Object of Feeling is also found in poetry with the personal verbs **cupiō**, **fastīdiō**, **mīror**, **studeō**, and **vereor**.

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cupiunt tuī, *long for you;* Mil. Gl. 963.

iūstitiaene mīrer? *should I admire your justice?* Aen. 11, 126.

Genitive with potior

353. The Genitive is sometimes used with **potior**, *become master of, gain.*

tōtīus Galliae sēsē potīrī posse spērant, *they hope to be able to master the whole of Gaul;* B. G. 1, 3, 8.

urbis potīrī, *to gain possession of the city;* Sall. Cat. 47, 2.

a. For the regular Ablative, see **429**; for the occasional Accusative, **429**, *b.*

III. GENITIVE CONSTRUCTIONS OF COMPOSITE ORIGIN (FUSION)

Objective Genitive and Genitive of Application

354. The Genitive may be used to express the *Object* or the *Application* of a Noun, an Adjective, or a Participle used adjectively.

The list of nouns is very large. The adjectives are especially those denoting *desire, knowledge, skill, memory,* or *participation.*[1]

rēgnī cupiditāte, *by desire of sovereignty;* B. G. 1, 2, 1.

cupidum rērum novārum, *desirous of a revolution;* B. G. 1, 18, 3.

cōnscius iniūriae, *conscious of wrong-doing;* B. G. 1, 14, 2.

amantissimōs reī pūblicae virōs, *firm friends of the state;* Cat. 3, 2, 5.

reī pūblicae iniūriam, *the wrong done to the state;* B. G. 1, 20, 5.

excessū vītae, *by departure from life;* Tusc. 1, 12, 27.

cui summam omnium rērum fidem habēbat, *in whom he had the greatest confidence in all matters;* B. G. 1, 19, 3.

praestantiam virtūtis, *preëminence in virtue;* Am. 19, 70.

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[1] So especially **avidus, cōnscius, cōnsors, cupidus, exhērēs, ignārus, immūnis, īnscius, īnsolēns, īnsuētus, memor, immemor, particeps, perītus, imperītus, rudis, studiōsus.** Also **expers**, when meaning *not sharing, without knowledge of*, and **cōnsultus** in **iūris cōnsultus.**

Rudis, īnsolēns, and **īnsuētus** differ but little in meaning from **īnscius** and **imperītus**, *and therefore followed them in taking the Genitive;* similarly **cōnsultus** followed **studiōsus** and **perītus**. But the *feeling* of the Genitive necessarily changed somewhat *to fit the meanings of the new group*, becoming that of *Application.*

a. Instead of the Objective Genitive depending on a noun, prepositions with the Accusative are often employed, especially ergā, in, and adversus, *toward, against.*

in hominēs iniūriam, *wrong to men;* N.D. 3, 34, 84. (Cf. **reī pūblicae iniūriam**, above.)

deōrum summō ergā vōs amōre, *by Heaven's great love toward you;* Cat. 3, 1, 1.

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b. In Ciceronian Latin, only a moderate number of adjectives, mostly expressing or suggesting *Activity*, take this Genitive. With nouns it is more freely used.

c. **Freer poetic and later Genitive of the Object or of Application.** In poetry and later Latin this Genitive is used with greater freedom.[1]

fessī rērum, *weary of trouble;* Aen. 1, 178.

integer vītae, *upright of life;* Carm. 1, 22, 1.

indignus avōrum, *unworthy of my ancestors;* Aen. 12, 649.

d. Adjectives and possessive pronouns are sometimes used with objective force.

metus hostīlis, *fear of the enemy;* Sall. Iug. 41, 2.

Descriptive Genitive

355. *Kind* or *Measure* may be expressed by the Genitive of a Noun accompanied by a modifier.

The construction may be either appositive or predicative.

Catō, adulēscēns nūllīus cōnsilī, *Cato, a young man of no judgment;* Q. Fr. 1, 2, 5, 15.

Quīntus Lūcānius, eiusdem ōrdinis, *Quintus Lucanius, of the same rank;* B. G. 5, 35, 7.

hominēs magnae virtūtis, *men of great courage;* B. G. 2, 15, 5.

eius modī tempestātēs, *storms of such a kind;* B. G. 3, 29, 2.

māteria cuiusque generis, *timber of every kind;* B. G. 5, 12, 5.

diērum vīgintī supplicātiō, *a thanksgiving of twenty days;* B. G. 4, 38, 5.

meam erus esse operam dēputat parvī pretī, *my master considers my services to be of small value;* Hec. 799.

a. Compounds equivalent to a noun *plus* an adjective, and nouns not used with serious meaning (e.g. **nihilī**, *zero, naught*, **naucī**, *a peascod*), take no modifier.

trīduī (= **trium diērum**) **mora**, *a delay of three days;* B. G. 4, 11, 4.

homō nihilī, *man of naught;* Trin. 1017 (= **vir minumī pretī**, Trin. 925).

b. In Ciceronian Latin this Genitive is generally attached to a *class*-name in apposition with the name of the person (as in the first example above). In later Latin it is more freely attached to the name of the person (as in the second example above).

c. For the Descriptive Ablative, see **443.**

[1] Thus, with *Objective* feeling, with certus, exsors, līberālis, potēns, praescius, profūsus, sēcūrus, tenāx. The list with the feeling of *Application* is very large.

Genitive of Value or Price

356. *Indefinite Value* or *Price*[1] may be expressed by the Genitive of:

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1. Certain Adjectives, especially tantī, quantī, magnī, parvī; plūris, minōris; plūrimī, maximī, minimī.

2. Certain Substantives *not used with serious meaning*, especially nihilī, *zero*, naucī, *a peascod*, assis, *a copper*, floccī, *a straw*, pilī, *a hair*, huius, *that much* (with a snap of the finger).

haec nōlī putāre parvī, *don't reckon these things of small account;* Catull. 23, 25. (Cf. esse dēputat parvī pretī in **355**.)

nōlī spectāre quantī homō sit; parvī enim pretī est quī tam nihilī est, *don't consider how much the fellow is worth, for he is of little value who is so worthless;* Q. Fr. 1, 2, 4, 14. (Note the parallel expressions parvī pretī, quantī, and nihilī.)

nōn habeō naucī Marsum augurem, *I don't care a peascod for a Marsian augur;* Div. 1, 58, 132.

a. For the Ablative of Price or Value, see **427**.

Genitive with Neuter Plural Adjectives

357. In the later writers a Genitive Noun is often attached to the Neuter Plural of an Adjective, where in Ciceronian Latin the Adjective would agree with the Noun.

strāta viārum (= strātās viās), *the paved streets;* Aen. 1, 422.

angusta viārum (= angustās viās), *the narrow streets;* Aen. 2, 332.

THE DATIVE

358. The Latin Dative expresses three general classes of ideas:

I. *Figurative Direction* (*to-* or *for-Dative*).

II. (*Rarely*) *Literal Direction* (*to-Dative*).

III. *Person or Thing after Verbs compounded with certain Prepositions* (Construction of Composite Origin).

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[1] The principal verbs with which the construction is used are est, aestimō and exīstimō, putō, habeō, dūcō, faciō, pendō, emō, redimō, vēndō, vēneō.

Aestimō with this construction is rare before Cicero; exīstimō is always rare with it.

359. Synopsis of the Principal Uses of the Dative

I. Dative of Figurative Direction

- Dative of Tendency or Purpose (**360**)
- Dative of the Concrete Object for Which (**361**)
- Dative of Direction or Relation, with Adjectives, Verbs, Adverbs, etc. (**362**)
- Dative of the Indirect Object (**365**)
- Dative of Reference or Concern:
  - With any Verb (**366**)
  - *Versus* the Accusative (**367**)
  - *In place of* the Genitive (**368**)
  - Freer Poetic Dative of Reference or Concern (**369**)
  - Dative of the Person Judging (**370**)
    - Dative of the Local Point of View (**370**, *a*)
- Dative with Verbs of Taking Away (**371**)
- Ethical Dative (**372**)
- Dative of the Agent (**373**)
- Dative of Possession (**374**)

II. Dative of Direction in Space

- Poetic Dative of Direction in Space (**375**)

III. Of Composite Origin

- Dative after Verbs compounded with certain Prepositions (**376**)

I. DATIVE OF FIGURATIVE DIRECTION

Dative of Tendency or Purpose [1]

360. The Dative of many Nouns may be used to express *Tendency* or *Purpose*.[2]

sibi eam rem cūrae futūram, *that he would take care of this matter* (this matter would be to him for a care); B. G. 1, 33, 1.

sī haec vōx nōn nūllīs salūtī fuit, *if this voice of mine has been* (for) *the salvation of a number of men* (has tended toward); Arch. 1, 1.

mūnerī mīsit, *sent as a present* (for a present); Nep. Att. 8, 6.

auxiliō Nerviīs venīrent, *were coming to assist the Nervii;* B. G. 2, 29, 1.

a. These Datives are mostly Abstracts, and all are Singular.

b. The Dative of Tendency or Purpose is often accompanied by a Dative of the Person (Dative of Reference, **366**), as in **auxiliō Nerviīs** above. Hence the common name "Two Datives."

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[1] Compare English "it is *for* men's health to be temperate," "give a thing *for* a present," "he is not *to* my satisfaction," etc.

[2] The verbs most commonly used with this construction are **sum, fīō, dō, dōnō, relinquō, mittō, eō, veniō, habeō, dūcō, tribuō, vertō**. The nouns most commonly used are **auxiliō** and **subsidiō, praesidiō, salūtī, exitiō, bonō, malō** and **dētrīmentō, impedīmentō, onerī, cūrae, dolōrī, ōrnāmentō, honōrī, probrō, ūsuī, cordī, odiō, dōnō** and **mūnerī, crīminī, vitiō. Frūgī** (for profit), *useful*, as in **est frūgī bonae**, Trin. 321, comes also to be used as an indeclinable adjective. In early and later writers, many other verbs and nouns appear in this construction.

Dative of the Concrete Object for Which

361. The Dative of the *Concrete Object for Which* something is intended may be used with Phrases containing Verbs of *choosing* or *appointing*, and a few others.[1]

castrīs locum dēlēgit, *chose a place for a camp;* B. G. 1, 49, 1.

diēs conloquiō dictus est, *a day was set for a conference;* B. G. 1, 42, 3.

a. **Later Freer Dative of the Object for Which.** The poets and later writers use the construction of the Object for Which more boldly, even attaching it directly to nouns.

aggeritur tumulō tellūs, *earth is heaped together for a mound;* Aen. 3, 63.

causam lacrimīs, *a cause for tears* (tending toward tears); Aen. 3, 305. Similarly **causās bellō**, Tac. Ann. 2, 64. (In Ciceronian Latin the Genitive, as in **bellī causa**, B. G. 3, 7, 2.)

Dative of Direction or Relation[2]

362. The Dative is used to express that *toward which a Quality, Attitude,* or *Relation* is directed (English "to," "toward," "for").

The construction occurs after many Adjectives, Verbs, and Adverbs, and after certain Nouns in combination with Verbs[3]:

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[1] Thus **diem dīcō (cōnstituō) conciliō, conloquiō, operī, pugnae, huic reī**, etc.; **locum dēligō (capiō) castrīs, oppidō, domiciliō**, etc.; also **receptuī canō**, *sound for retreat*, and even **receptuī signum**, *signal for retreat;* sometimes **fundāmenta iaciō (fodiō) urbī, dēlūbrō**, etc. (but the Genitive is more common).

The later writers extend the list of phrases.

[2] The line between these meanings is often not sharp.

[3] (*a*) The total list, especially of adjectives and verbs, is very large. The commonest meanings shared by two or more of the parts of speech are: *Pleasing, helpful, advantageous; friendly, favoring, obedient; indulgent, forgiving, trustful, yielding; persuasive, commanding, angry, threatening; flattering, envious, jealous; good, sufficient, necessary, permissible, suitable; near, similar, related;* or the opposites of any of these.

(*b*) The principal verbs or phrases with verbs, occurring with this construction in B. G., Cat., Arch., Pomp., and Mil. are: **appropinquō, audiēns sum, auxilior, cēdō, cōnfīdō, dēsum, diffīdō, fidem faciō** and **habeō, crēdō, dēsum, faveō, grātiam habeō, ignōscō, imperō, indulgeō, īnsidior, invideō, īrāscor, libet, licet, medeor, minor, noceō, oboediō, obsistō, obstō, officiō, obsum, obtemperō, obtrectō, obvius est, obviam fiō, veniō**, etc., **opitulor, parcō, pāreō, placeō, praestō** (*am superior*), **praestō sum, praestōlor, prōsum, resistō, repugnō, satis faciō, serviō, studeō, suādeō** and **persuādeō, succēnseō, temperō**.

(*c*) The more important remaining verbs or phrases with verbs are: **adsentior, adversor, aemulor, appāreō, auscultō, bene** or **male** with **dīcō, loquor**, or **faciō, blandior, convenit, convenienter** with a verb, **condūcit, dictō audiēns sum, expedit, fidēs est** (poetical), **fīdō, grātificor, grātulor, liquet** and **lūcet, moderor, mōrem gerō, obsequor, sufficiō, supplicō, vacō**. To these may be added **nūbō** (put on the veil for), *marry*.

I. After words expressing or implying the *Quality* (Character, Nature) of a Person, Thing, or Act.

mihi perniciōsius, *more injurious to me;* Sat. 2, 7, 104.
nocēre alterī, *to injure one's neighbor* (be injurious to); Off. 3, 5, 23.
mihi suāvissimum, *very acceptable to me;* Fam. 8, 1, 1.
cīvitātī persuāsit, *persuaded* (made acceptable to) *the state;* B. G. 1, 2, 1.
sibi satis essē dūxērunt, *thought it was enough for them;* B. G. 1, 3, 2.
satis facere reī pūblicae, *satisfy the state* (do enough for); Cat. 1, 1, 2.
neque eī fās erat, *nor was it proper for him* (to speak); Off. 3, 7, 34.
sibi idem licēre, (thought) *the same was proper for them,* B. G. 3, 10, 2.

II. After words and phrases expressing or implying *Attitude*.

blandus est pauperī, *is flattering to the poor;* Aul. 196.
mātrī blandītur, *flatters the mother* (is flattering to); Flacc. 37, 92.
adversus nēminī, *opposed to no man;* And. 64.
quī vōbīs adversantur, *who oppose you* (are opposed to you); Phil. 1, 15, 36.
dictō audientēs, *obedient* (listening to the word); B. G. 1, 39, 7.
Servīō dictō audientem, *obedient to Servius;* Liv. 1, 41, 5.
mihi crēde, *trust me* (be trustful toward); Cat. 1, 3, 6.
habēbat studiīs honōrem, *he had respect for literary pursuits;* Plin. Ep. 6, 2, 2.

III. After words and phrases expressing or implying *Relation*.

servīre meae laudī, *to serve my glory* (be serviceable to); Cat. 1, 9, 23.
vectīgālīs sibi fēcērunt, *made them tributary to themselves;* B. G. 4, 3, 4.
proximī sunt Germānīs, *they are next to the Germans;* B. G. 1, 1, 4.
cīvitātēs propinquae iīs locīs, *states near* (*to*) *these places;* B. G. 2, 35, 3.
fīnibus appropinquāre, *to be drawing near the boundaries;* B. G. 2, 10, 5.
fit obviam Clōdiō, *meets Clodius* (becomes in-the-way to); Mil. 10, 29.
virtūs hominem iungit deō, *virtue joins men to the gods;* Ac. 2, 45, 139.

Details of the Dative of Direction or Relation

363. 1. In general, the Dative of Direction is not used with a *noun alone*, though it may be with a noun plus a verb. Compare **cui fidem habēbat**, *in whom he had confidence* (= **cui cōnfīdēbat**), B. G. 1, 19, 3, with **testimōnī fidem**, *confidence in the testimony*, Flacc. 15, 36, and **fidēs ergā plēbem**, *confidence in the people*, Leg. Agr. 2, 8, 20.

a) But abstract and semi-abstract nouns strongly suggesting action sometimes take the Dative of Direction. Thus **obtemperātiō lēgibus**,

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obedience to the laws, Leg. 1, 15, 42; **īnsidiae cōnsulī**, *the plotting against the consul*, Sall. Cat. 32, 1.

b) A few personal nouns, mostly official, *may* take the Dative of Direction (rarely without a verb) instead of the ordinary Genitive. So especially **adiūtor, comes, custōs, dux, hērēs, lēgātus, patrōnus, quaestor, socius, tūtor.** Similarly the adjective **cōnscius.**

tibi vēnit adiūtor, *came as assistant to you;* N. D. 1, 7, 17.
suīs bonīs hērēdem esse, *to be heir to his goods;* Caecin. 4, 12.
nūllus est portīs custōs, *there is no guard for the gates;* Cat. 2, 12, 27.
huic ego mē bellō ducem profiteor, *I offer myself as leader for this war;* Cat. 2, 5, 11.

2. **Poetic and later Dative of Direction or Relation.** The poets and later writers extend the construction, using it

a) With many personal nouns of *attitude* or *relation*, with or without a verb. So (beside the list above) with **acceptor, auctor, caput, cognātus, coniūnx, fīlius, frāter, hospes, māter, nūtrīx, parēns, pater, patruus, prōmus, rēctor, rēgnātor, rēx** (also **rēgnum**), **sacerdōs, sodālis, servus, testis.**

Faunō Pīcus pater, *to Faunus, Picus was father;* Aen. 7, 48.

b) With verbs resembling those of **362** in meaning.

propinquābam portīs, *was approaching the gates;* Aen. 2, 730 (with **propinquō** as with **appropinquō**).
aequāta caelō, *made level with* (equal to) *the sky;* Aen. 4, 89 (with **aequō** as with **aequus**).
dubiīs nē dēfice rēbus, *fail not our doubtful fortunes;* Aen. 6, 196. Cf. **364**, *a*.

c) With verbs of *union*, *contention*, or *difference*.[1]

sē miscet virīs, *mingles with the men;* Aen. 1, 439.
haeret laterī lētālis harundō, *the deadly shaft sticks in the side;* Aen. 4, 73.
pugnābis amōrī? *shall you struggle against love?* Aen. 4, 38.

d) With **adsuēfaciō, adsuēscō,** and **suēscō** (the last poetic only). Thus **mēnsae adsuētus erīlī**, *accustomed to the table of his mistress*, Aen. 7, 490 (Ablative in Ciceronian prose; **431**, and *a*); **hīs suētus**, *accustomed to these;* Aen. 5, 414.

e) With **īdem**, *the same* (cf. the Dative with **similis**).

idem facit occīdentī, *does the same thing as a murderer;* A. P. 467.

[1] So with **misceō** (in prose regularly with Abl. or **cum**; **431**); **sociō, cōnsociō** (in prose regularly with **cum**; **419, 1**); **haereō** (in prose with **ad** or **in**; in the Dative with *personal* nouns only); **nectō** (in prose with **ex**); **altercor, certō, contendō, luctor, obluctor, pugnō** (in prose regularly with **cum**; **419, 4**); **differō, discordō, discrepō, dissentior, distō**, *differ* (in prose regularly with **ab**; **412**). Similarly with certain participles of other verbs. Thus **āversa hostī**, *turned away from the enemy;* Tac. Ann. 1, 66.

haereō also occurs with a locative ablative (**436**) without a preposition (rarely in prose, oftener in poetry). Thus **haeret pede pēs**, Aen. 10, 361.

f) With verbs corresponding to adjectives that take the Dative, and adjectives corresponding to verbs that take the Dative.

mihi saevit, *is savage to me;* Rud. 825. Cf. **saevum ambōbus**, Aen. 1, 458.
simulāta magnīs Pergama, *a Trojan citadel made like the great one;* Aen. 3, 349.
crēdula posterō, *trusting to the future;* Carm. 1, 11, 8.

3. Several adjectives which ordinarily take the Dative *may* take the Genitive. Compare English "neighbor to" and "neighbor of"; and see **339**, *c*.

4. **Propior** and **proximus** may take the Accusative of Space-Relation. See **380**, *b*.

5. **Fīdō** and **cōnfīdō** may take the Ablative. See **439**.

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Remarks on the Dative of Direction or Relation

364. 1. Verbs of Quality, Attitude, or Relation are with few exceptions *intransitive* in Latin, while in English we more frequently employ *transitive* verbs. Compare **noceō**, *am injurious to*, with the English "injure."

a. But Latin also possesses several *transitive* verbs of similar meanings, e.g. **iubeō**, *order*, **iuvō**, *help, assist*, **laedō**, *harm*, **dēficiō**, *fail*, **dēlectō**, *please*. These of course take the Accusative of the Direct Object (**390**).

2. In the passive, verbs of this class are regularly used only *impersonally*. The Dative remains.

hīs persuādērī nōn poterat, *they could not be persuaded* (it could not be made agreeable to them); B. G. 2, 10, 5.

a. For rare exceptions, see **292**, *b*.

3. **Crēdō** takes a Direct Object of the *thing* believed.

id quod volunt crēdunt, *believe what they want to believe;* B. G. 3, 18, 6.

4. A few Verbs that take a Dative may take a Direct Object in addition. Thus **imperō**, *levy*, **indulgeō**, *indulge*, **minor**, *threaten*, **persuādeō**, *persuade*.

id iīs persuāsit, *he persuaded them* (to) *this* (made this agreeable); B. G. 1, 2, 3.

5. Several Verbs take either the Dative of Direction or the Accusative of the Direct Object, with somewhat different meanings, or at different periods. Thus **aemulor**, **medeor**, **praestōlor**, **temperō**. Similarly **aequō** in poetry.

6. The *End for which a Quality is Adapted* is generally expressed by **ad** (occasionally **in**) with the Accusative. Thus **ad pugnam inūtilēs**, *useless for fighting*, B. G. 2, 16, 5; **ad bellum apta**, *in shape for war*, B. C. 1, 30, 5; **ad hanc rem idōneō**, *suited for this thing*, Verr. 1, 33, 83.

7. Instead of the Dative, many Adjectives of *Attitude* may take **ergā**, **in**, or **adversus** with the Accusative. Thus **in Teucrōs benignam**, *kindly disposed toward the Trojans;* Aen. 1, 304. Cf. **aliī benigna**, *kindly disposed toward another;* Carm. 3, 29, 52.

8. The feeling of Direction sometimes leads to the use of **in** with Adjectives of *Quality*. Thus **grātae in vulgus**, *agreeable to the populace;* Liv. 2, 8, 3.

Dative of the Indirect Object

365. The *Indirect Object* of a Transitive Verb is put in the Dative.[1]

dat negōtium Senonibus, *assigns the task to the Senones;* B. G. 2, 2, 3.
rēgī haec dīcite, *tell your king this* (tell this *to* him); Aen. 1, 137.

a. Since a Transitive Verb ordinarily takes a Direct Object, an Indirect and a Direct Object often appear together, as above.

b. With some verbs, e.g. **dōnō** and **aspergō**, different conceptions are possible, and different constructions may accordingly be used.

praedam mīlitibus dōnat, *presents the booty* TO *the soldiers;* B. G. 7, 11, 9.
cīvitāte multōs dōnāvit, *presented many* WITH *citizenship;* Arch. 10, 26.

Dative of Reference or Concern, after any Verb

366. Almost any Verb may be followed by a Dative of the Person to whom the act or state *refers*, or whom it *concerns*.

A Dative of the Thing is less frequent.

mī ēsuriō, nōn tibi, *'t is for myself I'm hungry, not for you;* Capt. 866.
praeterita sē frātrī condōnāre dīcit, *tells* (Dumnorix) *that he forgives the past for the sake of* (having reference to) *his brother;* B. G. 1, 20, 6.

a. The Dative of Reference is especially frequent with **est** combined with a noun or adverbial phrase.

nūllus est iam lēnitātī locus, *there is no longer any room for gentleness;* Cat. 2, 4, 6.
tibi in cōnsiliō sunt, *advise* (are in council for) *you;* Quinct. 1, 4.

b. **Poetic and later Dative of Reference with Nouns.** The poets and later prose writers often attach the Dative of Reference to nouns.

collō monīle, *a collar for the neck* (necklace); Aen. 1, 654.
pectorī tegimen, *a covering for the breast;* Liv. 1, 20, 4.

c. The Dative of Reference *may* be used, with words denoting persons, after **interdīcō**, *forbid*, **interclūdō**, *cut off*, and **dēpellō**, *turn away;* also, in poetry, after **arceō**, *keep off*, and **dēfendō**, *ward off*.

quibus cum aquā atque ignī interdīxisset, *after forbidding them* (from) *the use of fire and water;* B. G. 6, 44, 3. (So regularly in this phrase.)
dēfendit aestātem capellīs, *wards off the heat from my goats;* Carm. 1, 17, 3.

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[1] So especially with verbs like **dō, reddō, trādō, dōnō, tribuō, tendō, praebeō, praestō** (*exhibit, furnish*), **sūmō**; **ferō, mittō**; **dēbeō, polliceor, prōmittō, spondeō, negō**; **mandō, praecipiō**; **mōnstrō, nārrō, dīcō, nūntiō, respondeō**; **faciō** (*do*), **agō** (*render, give*).

With **ferō** and **mittō**, the force of the Dative is on the line between the original one of Direction in Space and the derived one of the Indirect Object.

NOTE. These verbs commonly take an Accusative of the Person and an Ablative of the Thing (408). **Interdīcō** may also combine a Dative of the Person (as above) with an Ablative of the Thing.

utī frūmentō Caesarem interclūderet, *in order to cut Caesar off from supplies;* B. G. 1, 48, 2. (**Frūmentō** is Ablative.)

quā adrogantiā Galliā Rōmānīs interdīxisset, *with what arrogance he had excluded the Romans from Gaul* (interdicted them from); B. G. 1, 46, 4. (**Rōmānīs** is Dative.)

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d. "For," meaning "in defence of," must be expressed by **prō** (407, 1).

Dative of Reference *versus* the Accusative

367. Several Verbs of Feeling or Thought take either the Accusative or the Dative, according as the word which they govern is thought of as the *Direct Object*, or as that *in behalf of which, for which*, the feeling or thought is entertained.

So **cōnsulō, cupiō, dēspērō, metuō, prōspiciō, prōvideō, timeō.**

suīs rēbus timēre, *to feel fears for their own position;* B. G. 4, 16, 1. (But **magnitūdinem silvārum timēre**, *feared the great stretch of forest;* B. G. 1, 39, 6.)

cōnsulite vōbīs, prōspicite patriae, *look out for yourselves, take thought for your country;* Cat. 4, 2, 3. (But **sī mē cōnsulis**, *if you ask my advice;* Cat. 1, 5, 13.)

Dative of Reference *in place of* the Genitive

368. The Dative of the Person *concerned by an act or state as a whole* is often used in place of a Possessive Genitive.

sēsē Caesarī ad pedēs prōiēcērunt, *cast themselves at Caesar's feet;* B. G. 1, 31, 2. Cf. **cum sē ad Caesaris pedēs abiēcisset**, Fam. 4, 4, 3.

quotiēns tibi iam extorta est ista sīca dē manibus! *how often has that dagger of yours been twisted* (out of the hands for you, i.e.) *out of your hands!* Cat. 1, 6, 16. Similarly Aen. 1, 477.

a. This construction gives a touch of *feeling*, of *concern*, to the expression. English has no corresponding idiom.

Freer Poetic Dative of Reference or Concern

369. The later poets freely use the Dative of Reference in loose attachment to the rest of the sentence.

tālia iactantī procella vēlum adversa ferit, *as he utters these words a blast strikes the sail athwart* (for him, uttering these words); Aen. 1, 102.

vīvitur parvō bene, cui paternum splendet in mēnsā tenuī salīnum, *he lives well upon a little, for whom there shines, upon a frugal board, the saltcellar which his father had before him;* Carm. 2, 16, 13.

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a. The warmth and feeling of this construction gave it great vogue in later poetry. It is used with pronouns with especial frequency.

Dative of the Person Judging

370. The Dative is used to denote the person *in whose eyes* or *for whom* the statement of the sentence holds good.

Quīntia fōrmōsa est multīs, *in the eyes of many* (to many) *Quintia is beautiful;* Catull. 86, 1.

levāta mihi vidētur, (the state) *seems to me relieved;* Cat. 2, 4, 7.

a. Out of this grew the **Dative of the Local Point of View** (with the Participle, first in Caesar).

quod est oppidum prīmum Thessaliae venientibus ab Ēpīrō, *which is the first town of Thessaly as one comes* (for people coming) *from Epirus;* B. C. 3, 80, 1.

Dative with Verbs of Taking Away

371. Verbs of *taking away*[1] are regularly followed by the Dative of words denoting Persons.

hunc mihi timōrem ēripe, *remove this fear from me;* Cat. 1, 7, 18.

scūtō mīlitī dētractō, *snatching a shield from a soldier;* B. G. 2, 25, 2.

omnia sociīs adimere, *took everything from the allies;* Sall. Cat. 12, 5.

a. The original conception was that of the Person as *concerned* by the act. Thus "remove *for me* this fear."

b. The poets use the construction more boldly, employing it with names of things as well, and also after verbs of *stealing, going away*, etc.

silicī scintillam excūdit, *struck out a spark from the flint;* Aen. 1, 174.

fessōs oculōs fūrāre labōrī, *steal your weary eyes from toil;* Aen. 5, 845.

ēvādere pugnae, *to escape from the battle;* Aen. 11, 702.

Ethical[2] Dative

372. A Personal Pronoun in the Dative may be loosely attached to a sentence to suggest *Concern* or *Interest* on the part of the person denoted.

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[1] Various compounds of **ab, dē,** and **ex,** together with **adimō, subripiō, tollō,** etc.

[2] "Ethical" means "of feeling," and so might be used of many Datives. But its use is confined in grammar to the *Personal Pronouns*, in this construction.

The effect is generally whimsical or ironical.

quī mihi accubantēs in convīviīs ēructant caedem, *and these men — bless me! — as they recline at their banquets, belch forth talk about blood and murder;* Cat. 2, 5, 10. Cf. Cat. 2, 2, 4. (Cf. "they drank me two bottles," Fielding, *Tom Jones.*)

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ecce tibi tellūs, *there lies the land you wish to reach;* Aen. 3, 477.

Dative of the Agent

373. The Dative is used to express the *Agent:*

1. Regularly with the *Future Passive Participle.*

Caesārī omnia ūnō tempore erant agenda, *everything had to be attended to by Caesar at one and the same time;* B. G. 2, 20, 1.

vōbīs erit videndum, *you will have to see to it;* Cat. 3, 12, 28.

a. But the construction of the Agent with **ab** (**406**, 1) is occasionally used, either for sharper contrast, or to avoid confusion with the Dative of the Person Concerned, etc.

aguntur bona multōrum cīvium, quibus est ā vōbīs cōnsulendum, *the property of many citizens is at stake, and for this precautions must be taken by you;* Pomp. 2, 6.

2. Somewhat freely with the *Perfect Passive Participle*, and forms compounded with it.

meīs cīvibus suspectum, *suspected by my fellow-citizens;* Cat. 1, 7, 17.

quī tibi ad caedem cōnstitūtī fuērunt, *who have been set apart for death by you;* Cat. 1, 7, 16.

3. Occasionally, in the later writers, with *any* passive form.

neque cernitur ūllī, *and is not seen by any one;* Aen. 1, 440.

a. The later writers sometimes used the construction with an *adjective of passive meaning.*

multīs bonīs flēbilis, *by many a good man to be mourned;* Carm. 1, 24, 9.

tolerābilīs vōbīs eās fore crēditis? *do you think they will be endurable to you* (possible to be endured by you)? Liv. 34, 3, 2.

Dative of Possession

374. Possession may be expressed by the *Dative with the Verb* **sum**.

erat eī cōnsilium ad facinus aptum, *he possessed an understanding specially adapted for crime;* Cat. 3, 7, 16.

sunt mihi bis septem Nymphae, *I have twice seven Nymphs;* Aen. 1, 71.

a. The Dative with **sum** asserts the fact of Possession. The Possessive Genitive (**339**) *involves* the fact of possession, but this idea is only a subordinate one in the sentence.

b. For the attraction of the Name into the case of the Possessor, see **326**, 3.

II. POETIC DATIVE OF DIRECTION IN SPACE

375. The poets use the Dative freely to express *Direction in Space.*

it clāmor caelō, *the shout rises to the heavens;* Aen. 5, 451.

caelō capita ferentēs, *raising their heads toward heaven;* Aen. 3, 678.

pelagō dōna praecipitāre, *hurl the gifts into the sea;* Aen. 2, 36.

a. The construction is sometimes used with great boldness of phrase.

stīpat carīnīs argentum, *packs silver into the ships* (for *packs the ships with silver*); Aen. 3, 465. Similarly Aen. 1, 195. The feeling is as in laterī abdidit ēnsem (for in latus abdidit), Aen. 2, 553.

b. The prose construction is the Accusative with ad or in (385). Thus it ad aethera clāmor, *the shout rises to the sky;* Aen. 12, 409.

III. DATIVE IN A CONSTRUCTION OF COMPOSITE ORIGIN (FUSION)

Dative after Verbs compounded with certain Prepositions

376. The Dative of the Person or Thing Concerned may be used after *many Verbs compounded with the Prepositions* ad, ante, circum, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, sub, or super.[1]

adportō vōbīs Plautum, *I bring* (to) *you Plautus;* Men. 3.

fīnitimīs bellum īnferre, *to make war upon their neighbors;* B. G. 1, 2, 4.

virtūte omnibus praestārent, *were above all in valor;* B. G. 1, 2, 2.

a. If the verb of the compound is Transitive, it may of course take a Direct Object (390), in addition to the Dative taken by the compound as a whole. See fīnitimīs bellum īnferre, above.

b. Several compounds may take either this construction or an Accusative of the object and an Ablative of means (423). Thus circumdō, circumfundō, aspergō, induō (in later Latin, accingō, implicō, etc.).

arma circumdat umerīs, *puts his armor about his shoulders;* Aen. 2, 509.

reliquōs equitātū circumdederant, *had surrounded the rest with cavalry;* B. G. 4, 32, 5.

c. Several compounds may take either the Dative or the Accusative (391, 2, *a*). Thus inlūdō, *jeer at, mock.*

d. Several compounds expressing *comparison, union,* or *agreement* may take either the Dative, or the Ablative with cum (419, 1, 3). Thus comparō, cōnferō (cf. English "compare to" and "compare with").

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[1] Adsentior, cōnsentior, adversor, convenit, obsequor, officiō, obsistō, obstō, obsum, prōsum, are generally placed here, but belong more properly under 362. Cf. the Dative with the corresponding (or opposite) words adversus, cōnsentāneus, oboediō, pāreō, repugnō, resistō, dēsum, expedit. Yet oppōnō shows the impossibility of drawing fixed lines. Excellō, *excel,* follows the analogy of praestō, *surpass.*

Remarks on the Dative after Compound Verbs

377. 1. Compounds expressing *literal motion only* are regularly followed by the Accusative with **ad** or **in**. Thus **ad eum adcurrit**, *runs up to him*, B. G. 1, 22, 2; **in gladium incubuerat**, *had fallen upon his sword*, Inv. 2, 51, 154.

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2. For compounds capable of expressing *both literal motion and a figurative idea* (like most under **376**), no fixed rule can be laid down.

a. With some compounds both constructions are in use. Thus **in mē incidit**, *he fell in with me*, Planc. 41, 99; and **hominī incidī**, *I fell in with the man*, Verr. 2, 74, 182.

b. In general, it may be said that the preposition is regularly used *if the literal side of the meaning is to be brought out more strongly than usual.* Thus **bellum intulit prōvinciae Galliae**, *has made war upon the province of Gaul*, Phil. 5, 9, 24; but **dē bellō ā Parthīs in prōvinciam Syriam inlātō**, *with regard to the war which has been carried by the Parthians into the province of Syria*, Fam. 15, 2, 1.

c. Yet many compounds with purely *figurative* meanings regularly take a preposition. Thus **incumbite ad salūtem reī pūblicae**, *bend your energies to the welfare of the state;* Cat. 4, 2, 4.

3. The poets and later prose writers love to vary the older construction, whatever it may be, *for the mere sake of variety*. Thus Virgil, Aen. 5, 15, says **incumbere rēmīs**, *to bend to the oars* (compare Cicero, under 2, *c* above); and Livy, 9, 22, 4, says **adequitāre vāllō**, *rode up to the rampart*, where Caesar would have used **ad** (cf. **ad nostrōs adequitāre**, *were riding up to our men*, B. G. 1, 46, 1).

4. The poets and later writers likewise use the Dative with compounds not employed at all in Ciceronian Latin. Thus with **ingeminō** (Aen. 5, 434), **invergō** (Aen. 6, 244).

5. The poets sometimes use the Dative with verbs resembling those of **376** in meaning, but differently formed.

captae superāvimus urbī, *have survived the capture of the city;* Aen. 2, 643. (**Superō** like **supersum**.)

THE ACCUSATIVE

378. The Latin Accusative expresses three general classes of ideas:

I. *Space-Relation* (NOT *Separative or Locative*).

II. *Respect.*

III. *The Direct Object.*

379. Synopsis of the Principal Uses of the Accusative

I Accusative of Space-Relations (not Separative or Locative)	Accusative with Prepositions (380–384) With Verbs compounded with trāns or circum (386) Regular expression of the Place Whither (385) Accusative of Names of Towns, etc., Whither, *without* a Preposition (385, *b*, 450) Accusative of Extent, Duration, or Degree (387)
II Accusative of Respect	Accusative of Respect: In Ciceronian prose in a few phrases only (388) In freer use in later Latin (389)
III Accusative of the Direct Object	Accusative of the Direct Object (390) With Verbs ordinarily Intransitive (391, 1) With Compounds acquiring Transitive Force (391, 2) Two Objects with Verbs: of *making*, *choosing*, *having*, *regarding*, *calling*, or *showing* (392) of *inquiring*, *requesting*, *teaching*, or *concealing* (393) Accusative of the Result Produced (394) Accusative in Apposition to a sentence (395) Accusative of Kindred Meaning (396, 1) Extended use of the Accusative of Kindred Meaning (396, 2) Freer Neuter Accusative Modifiers (397) Subject of an Infinitive (398) Accusative of Exclamation (399)

I. ACCUSATIVE OF SPACE-RELATIONS (NOT SEPARATIVE OR LOCATIVE) AND OF CORRESPONDING FIGURATIVE RELATIONS

Accusative with Prepositions[1]

380. The Accusative is always used with the Prepositions **ad**, **adversus** or **adversum**, **ante**, **apud**, **circā**, **circiter**, and **circum**, **cis** and **citrā**, **contrā**, **ergā**, **extrā**, **īnfrā**, **inter**, **intrā**, **iūxtā**, **ob**, **penes**, **per**, **pōne** and **post**, **praeter**, **prope**, **propter**, **secundum**, **suprā**, **trāns**, **ultrā** (and **uls**), **versus**.

iūxtā mūrum, *close to the wall;* B. C. 1, 16, 4.
ante oppidum, *in front of the town;* B. G. 2, 32, 4.
Hannibal erat ad portās, *Hannibal was at the gates;* Phil. 1, 5, 11.
ad omnīs nātiōnēs sānctum, *sacred among all peoples;* B. G. 3, 9, 3.
ad castra contendērunt, *hastened to the camp;* B. G. 2, 7, 3.
iter per prōvinciam, *a passage through the province;* B. G. 1, 8, 3.
vestra ergā mē voluntās, *your good will toward me;* Cat. 4, 1, 1.

a. **Versus** follows its noun. Thus **orientem versus**, *toward the east;* Plin. N. H. 5, 43. But this is generally preceded by a preposition, unless it denotes a Town or Small Island (**450**). Thus **ad merīdiem versus**, *toward the south;* Plin. N. H. 5, 43.

[1] For summarized statements for all Prepositions, see **455–458**.

b. The adverbs **propius** and **proximē** commonly, and the adjectives **propior** and **proximus** occasionally, take the Accusative of Space-Relation. (For the Dative with these adjectives, see **362**; for **ab** and the Ablative, **406**, 2.)

proximē deōs accessit, *has come very near the gods;* Mil. 22, 59.

quī proximī Rhēnum incolunt, *who live next the Rhine;* B. G. 1, 54, 1.

c. **Prīdiē** and **postrīdiē**, *the day before* and *the day after*, generally take the Accusative (of Time-Relation), but sometimes the Genitive (of Connection; **339**).

prīdiē Kalendās, *the day before the Calends;* Cat. 1, 6, 15.

postrīdiē eius diēī, *the day after that day* (on the after-day of that day); B. G. 1, 23, 1.

d. **Per** may be used to represent persons as the *Means through Which*, in contrast to the Ablative with **ab**, which represents them as *Agents* (**406**, 1). Compare **rē per speculātōrēs cognitā**, *the fact having been learned* THROUGH *spies*, B. G. 2, 11, 2, with **cōnfirmātā rē ab explōrātōribus**, *the report having been confirmed* BY *scouts*, B. G. 2, 11, 3.

381. The Accusative is used with **in** and **sub** to express the Place Whither something *moves*.

cum in castra contenderent, *when hurrying into camp;* B. G. 4, 37, 1.

sub nostram aciem successērunt, *came up under our line;* B. G. 1, 24, 5.

a. The Ablative is used to express the Place *Where* something *is* or *is done* (**433**).

b. **Sub** regularly takes the Accusative when meaning *just before, just after*, or *about*.

sub occāsum sōlis, *just before sunset;* B. G. 2, 11, 6.

sub vesperum, *about evening;* B. G. 7, 60, 1.

382. The Accusative is regularly used with **subter**, *beneath*.

īram in pectore, cupiditātem subter praecordia locāvit, *placed the seat of anger in the breast, the seat of desire below the diaphragm;* Tusc. 1, 10, 20.

a. The Ablative *may* be used with **subter** in poetry to express the Place beneath which something *is* or *is done*.

subter dēnsā testūdine, *under the close-packed roof of shields;* Aen. 9, 514.

383. The Accusative is regularly used with **super** in the sense of *upon, at*, or *in addition to* (the Ablative in the sense of *concerning;* see **435**).

saeva sedēns super arma, *sitting upon a pile of cruel arms;* Aen. 1, 295.

a. For the poetical Ablative with other senses than *concerning*, see **435**, *a*.

384. The Accusative with a Preposition is used to express a great variety of figurative ideas. Notice especially:

1. *The Condition* or *Situation into Which*, with **in**: **fīliam suam in mātrimōnium dat**, *gives his daughter in marriage* (into that condition); B. G. 1, 3, 5. Cf. **434**, 1; **406**, 3.

2. *Figurative Direction*, with **ad**, **in**, ergā, etc.: **locō ad aciem īnstruendam opportūnō**, *in a place suitable for drawing up a line of battle*, B. G. 2, 8, 3; **intentī ad pācem**, *eager for peace*, B. C. 3, 19, 4; **grātae in vulgus**, *agreeable to the populace*, Liv. 2, 8, 2; **summō ergā vōs amōre**, *with the greatest love (toward) for you*; Cat. 3, 1, 1.

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a. The construction is thus often an alternative for the Dative of Direction after Adjectives and Participles signifying *useful*, *suitable*, or *prepared* (**364**, and 6, 7, 8). Also for the Objective Genitive depending upon nouns (**354**, *b*).

b. **Parātus** takes the Dative also (**362**) in later Latin. Thus **parāta necī**, Aen. 2, 334; **pācī parātum**, Liv. 1, 1, 8.

3. *Purpose or Aim*, with **ad** or **in**: **eō ad conloquium vēnērunt**, *came there for a conference*, B. G. 1, 43, 1; **convīvium in honōrem victōriae**, *a banquet to celebrate the victory*, Quintil. 11, 2, 12.

a. Hence the use of **ad** with the Gerundive or Gerund to express Purpose (**612**, III).

Regular Expression of the Place Whither

385. In accordance with **380** and **381**,

Place Whither is regularly expressed by **ad**, **in**, or **sub**, with the Accusative. The meaning may be either literal or figurative.

ut in Galliam venīrent, *to come into Gaul;* B. G. 4, 16, 1.

ad illa veniō quae . . ., *I come to the things which . . .;* Cat. 1, 6, 14.

sub populī Rōmānī imperium cecidērunt, *fell under the dominion of the Roman people;* Font. 5, 12.

a. With names of Countries, **in** means *into*, **ad**, *to the borders of*.

b. With names of Towns or Small Islands, and with **domus** and **rūs**, the Place Whither is expressed by the Accusative *without* a Preposition (**450**).

c. The poets freely omit the Preposition with nouns of any kind.

Ītaliam vēnit, *came to Italy;* Aen. 1, 2.

spēluncam dēveniunt, *come to the cave;* Aen. 4, 165.

Two Accusatives, after Verbs compounded with trāns and circum

386. Transitive Verbs compounded with **trāns** or **circum** may take an *Accusative depending upon the Preposition*, as well as a Direct Object (**390**) depending upon the Verb.[1]

exercitum Ligerim trādūcit, *he leads his army across the Loire* (= **exercitum trāns Ligerim dūcit**); B. G. 7, 11, 9.

quōs Pompeius sua praesidia circumdūxit, *these men Pompey led around his intrenchments;* B. C. 3, 61, 1.

[1] So especially **trādūcō**, **trāiciō**, **trānsportō**, **circumdūcō**. The later writers extend the list.

a. The Accusative is also found with the passive of these verbs, and with **praetervehor**.

Rhēnum trāductōs, *brought across the Rhine;* B. G. 2, 4, 1.
praetervehor ōstia, *I am carried past the mouth;* Aen. 3, 688.

b. But the Preposition **trāns** is often repeated.

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nē quam multitūdinem hominum amplius trāns Rhēnum trādūceret, *that he should lead no more crowds of men across the Rhine;* B. G. 1, 35, 5.

Accusative of Extent, Duration, or Degree

387. *Extent of Space*, *Duration of Time*, and *Degree* are expressed by the Accusative.

I. *Extent of Space.*

oppidum aberat mīlia passuum octō, *the town was eight miles distant;* B. G. 2, 6, 1.

multa mīlia passuum prōsecūtī, *after pursuing for many miles;* B. G. 2, 11, 4.

II. *Duration of Time.*

tot annōs bella gerō, *so many years have I been waging war;* Aen. 1, 47.

haec magnam partem aestātis faciēbant, *this they were engaged in doing during a large part of the summer;* B. G. 3, 12, 5.[1]

quīnque et vīgintī nātus annōs, *twenty-five years old* (having been born twenty-five years); Tusc. 5, 20, 57.

a. But **per** is sometimes used of Duration of Time, as in **per hōsce annōs**, *through* (during) *all these years;* Cat. 2, 4, 7.

b. With **abhinc**, *ago*, either the Accusative of Duration of Time or the Ablative of the Degree of Difference (**424**) may be used. Thus **abhinc triennium** and **abhinc annīs XV** are used almost side by side in Rosc. Com. 13, 37 (*ago* TO THE EXTENT OF *three years*, and *ago* BY THE AMOUNT OF *fifteen years*).

c. For the occasional Ablative of Duration of Time, see **440**.

III. *Degree.*[2]

quid in bellō possent, *how strong they were in war* (to what extent they were powerful); B. G. 2, 4, 1.

multum sunt in vēnātiōnibus, *they are occupied to a large extent in hunting;* B. G. 4, 1, 8.

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1 This construction of **partem** should be distinguished from that of **388**.

2 So especially **quid**, **aliquid**, **aliquantum**, **quicquam**, **multum**, **plūs**, **plūrimum**, **tantum**, **quantum**, **nihil**. The same use appears in **ecquid**, **sī quid**, and **nē quid**.

II. ACCUSATIVE OF RESPECT

388. In Ciceronian prose the Accusative of Respect is confined to **vicem** and **partem** with modifiers, and **quid**, *in what respect*.

et meam et aliōrum vicem pertimēscere, *to fear both for myself and for others* (as touching my part and that of others); Dom. S. 4, 8.

et meam partem tacēre, quom (= **cum**) **aliēnast ōrātiō**, *and to keep silent on my side, when it is another man's turn to talk*, Mil. Gl. 646.

quid hoc differt? *in what respect does this differ?* Caecin. 14, 39.

a. In early Latin, the Neuter Accusative of several Pronouns (**id, istuc, aliud, quod**, etc.) is still freely used as an Accusative of Respect.

id maesta est, *that's what she's sad about* (she is sad with regard to that); Rud. 397. **id nōs ad tē vēnimus**, *that's why we came to you* (we came about this); Mil. Gl. 1158. **quid vēnistī?** *why did you come?* (with reference to what?); Amph. 377.

NOTE. Hence arose the use of **quid** in the sense of *why*, and of **quod** in phrases like **quod sī**, *but if* (touching which matter, if).

b. The indeclinable modifiers **id temporis**, *at that time*, and **id** (**hoc**, etc.) **aetātis**, *of that age*, are used like adverbs and adjectives respectively (originally Accusatives of Respect).

quōs id temporis ventūrōs esse praedīxeram, *who I had said would come at that time*; Cat. 1, 4, 10.

cum id aetātis fīliō, *with a son of that age*; Clu. 51, 141.

389. Under the influence of Greek literature, in which the Accusative of Respect always remained common, the later Roman writers revived its use in some degree, employing it especially with words expressing *birth*, *mind*, or *parts of the body*.

Crēssa genus, *a Cretan in respect of birth*; Aen. 5, 285.

clārī genus, *men illustrious of race*; Tac. Ann. 6, 9.

mentem pressus, *o'erwhelmed in mind*; Aen. 3, 47.

nūda genū, *with bared knee* (bare as to the knee); Aen. 1, 320.

adversum femur ictus, *hit in the front of the thigh*; Liv. 21, 7, 10.

a. The later writers use the construction also with **cūncta, omnia, alia, reliqua, cētera, plēraque**, and with **frontem, terga, latus** (*front*, *rear*, and *flank*).

cētera Graius, *in other respects a Greek*; Aen. 3, 594.

iuvenem alia clārum, *a youth famous in other respects*; Tac. Ann. 12, 3.

III. ACCUSATIVE OF THE DIRECT OBJECT, AND ITS DERIVATIVES

Accusative of the Direct Object

390. The *Direct Object of a Transitive Verb* is put in the Accusative.

duās legiōnēs cōnscrīpsit, *enrolled two legions*; B. G. 2, 2, 1.

Rēmōs cohortātus, *after encouraging the Remi*; B. G. 2, 5, 1.

a. Impersonal Verbs, if Transitive, take the Accusative of the Direct Object, like any other Transitive Verb. Thus **decet**, *it becomes*, **iuvat** and **dēlectat**, *it pleases*, **fallit, fugit**, and **praeterit**, *it escapes.*

Similarly **miseret, paenitet, piget, pudet, taedet.**

sī vōs paenitet (if it repenteth you), *if you repent;* B. C. 2, 32, 14.

nisi mē fallit, *unless I am deceived;* Sest. 50, 106.

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b. The poets often attach an Object to a *passive form used reflexively* (**288**, 3), and even to a *true passive.*[1]

galeam induitur, *puts on the helmet;* Aen. 2, 392. Cf. **galeam induit**, Aen. 9, 366.

tūnsae pectora, *beating their breasts;* Aen. 1, 481.

manūs post terga revīnctum, *with his hands bound behind his back;* Aen. 2, 57. (True passive.)

c. The Subject of a dependent clause is sometimes *attracted into the main clause*, becoming the Object of its Verb.

nōstī Mārcellum, quam tardus sit, *you know Marcellus, how slow he is;* Cael., Fam. 8, 10, 3.

NOTE. Corresponding passive constructions also occur, and various other turns of expression.

quīdam perspiciuntur quam sint levēs (some are found how inconstant they are), *we find how inconstant some are;* Am. 17, 63.

391. 1. Several Verbs which also have an Intransitive use may be used *Transitively*, with an Accusative:

So especially **taceō, maneō**, and the Verbs of Feeling **dēspērō, doleō, fleō, gemō, queror, horreō, lūgeō, maereō, rīdeō**, and **sitiō.**

multa tacuī, *many things I have passed by in silence;* Cat. 4, 1, 2.

honōrēs quōs dēspērant, *the honors of which they despair;* Cat. 2, 9, 19.

a. So also, rarely, **iūrō**, *swear by.* Thus **maria aspera iūrō**, Aen. 6, 351.

b. The poets and later prose writers extend the list. Thus **ārdeō**, *love passionately*, **pereō**, *be dead in love with*, **paveō**, *shudder at*, **lateō**, *escape the knowledge of*, **cēnō**, *dine upon.*

ārdēbat Alexim, *passionately loved Alexis;* Ecl. 2, 1.

eārum alteram perit, *he is dead in love with one of them;* Poen. 1095.

nec latuēre dolī frātrem lūnōnis, *nor did Juno's wiles escape her brother;* Aen. 1, 130.

2. A compound made up of an Intransitive Verb and a Preposition may, *as a whole*, have Transitive force, and so take an Accusative.[2]

[1] The Accusative with the true passive is very close *in feeling* to the Accusative of Respect (cf. **388**).

[2] So especially (out of a large list) **adeō, adscendō, adfor, adorior** and **adgredior, circumveniō, circumsistō** and **circumstō, circumeō, conveniō** (*visit*), **increpō** and **increpitō, ineō, inrumpō, inveniō, obeō, obsideō, oppugnō, peragrō, praestō** (*show, perform*), **praetereō, subeō, subterfugiō, trāiciō** (*pierce*), **trānseō, trānsgredior.** Passives also occur, e.g. **circumvenīrētur**, B. G. 1, 42, 4, **obsessīs**, B. G. 3, 24, 2. Other compounds, not so used in Ciceronian prose, are found with an Accusative in poets and later prose writers. Thus **accēdō, ērumpō, ēvādō, innō, interluō, invādō, praenatō, praevertor, superēmineō.**

These Prepositions are **ad**, **ante**, **circum**, **con**, **in**, **ob**, **per**, **prae**, **praeter**, **sub**, **subter**, **super**, **trāns**.

omnia obīre, *to accomplish everything;* B. G. 5, 33, 3.
officium praestiterō, *I shall perform my duty;* B. G. 4, 25, 3.
eōs adgressus, *attacking them;* B. G. 1, 12, 3.
flūmen trānsgressī, *having crossed the river;* B. G. 2, 19, 4.

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a. Several compounds similarly formed[1] take either the Accusative or the Dative (376). Thus **antecēdō** (go before), *surpass*, governs the Accusative in **cēterōs antecēdunt**, B. G. 3, 8, 1, and the Dative in **pecudibus antecēdat**, Off. 1, 30, 105.

3. A few phrases made up of a *Noun and a Verb* may as a whole have Transitive force, and so take an Accusative. Thus **animum advertō** (turn the mind upon), *notice*. (In the Passive the Accusative **animum** remains.)

postquam id animum advertit, *upon noticing this;* B. G. 1, 24, 1.
quā rē animum adversā, *when this fact was noticed;* B. C. 1, 80, 4.

4. Intransitive Verbs of Motion are sometimes used with Transitive force. So **ambulō**, **nāvigō**, and, in poetry, **currō**, **eō**, **errō**, **fugiō** (rarely also in prose), and even passives like **vehor**.

ventīs maria omnia vectī, *swept by the winds o'er every sea;* Aen. 1, 524.

Two Objects

392. Verbs of *making*, *choosing*, *having*, *regarding*, *calling*, or *showing* may take two Objects.[2] The Second[3] may be either a Noun or an Adjective.

cōnsulēs creat L. Papīrium L. Semprōnium, *appointed Lucius Papirius and Lucius Sempronius consuls;* Liv. 4, 7, 10.
illī mē comitem mīsit, *sent me as companion for him;* Aen. 2, 86.
mē sevērum praebeō, *I show myself unrelenting;* Cat. 4, 6, 12.

a. The Second Object is really in a kind of *predicative* relation ("makes *to be*"), and may therefore be called a Predicate Accusative.

b. In the Passive construction, the First Object of the Active Voice becomes the Subject, and the Second Object becomes the Predicate.

cōnsulēs creantur Iūlius Caesar et P. Servīlius, *Julius Caesar and Publius Servilius are appointed consuls;* B. C. 3, 1, 1.

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[1] Especially **antecēdō**, **anteeō**, **invādō**, **praecurrō**. Similarly, in later Latin, **incēdō**, **interfluō**, **interiaceō**, **interveniō**, **praestō** (*surpass*), **succēdō**, *approach*, and many others.

[2] Thus (*making*) **faciō**, **creō**, **reddō**, **redigō**; (*choosing* or *deputing*) **ēligō**, **lēgō**; (*having*) **habeō**; (*regarding*) **habeō**, **dūcō**, **putō**, **exīstimō**, **iūdicō**, **cēnseō**; (*calling*) **appellō**, **nōminō**, **dīcō**, **vocō**; (*showing*) **praebeō**, **praestō**; similarly verbs like **profiteor**, **adscīscō**, **sūmō**, etc., which *involve* one of the meanings given above.

[3] "First Object" means *principal* object, and "Second Object" means *secondary* object, without regard to their order in the sentence.

393. Many Verbs of *inquiring*, *requesting*, *teaching*, or *concealing*[1] may take two Objects, one of the Person, the other of the Thing.

hōs sententiam rogō, *I ask them their opinion;* Cat. 1, 4, 9.

iter omnīs cēlat, *he conceals his route from everybody;* Nep. Eum. 8, 7.

a. In the Passive construction, the Person becomes the Subject, but the Accusative of the Thing remains.

sententiam rogātus, *having been asked his opinion;* Sall. Cat. 50, 4.

nōsne hoc cēlātōs tam diū! *the idea of our having been kept so long in the dark about this!* Hec. 645.

b. Other turns of expression also occur. Thus:

1) Interrogō, doceō, and cēlō may take dē of the Thing ("about," "concerning").

tē dē causā rogābō, *I shall ask you about the case;* Vat. 16, 40.

2) Flāgitō, poscō, and postulō may take ab of the Person asked (English "of"). Postulō *generally* does so.

quod ā mē optimī cīvēs flāgitābant, *which the best citizens were demanding of me;* Sest. 17, 39.

c. Petō takes *only* ab of the Person asked. Quaerō takes *only* ab, dē, or ex of the Person asked, or the Accusative or dē of the Thing asked about.

causam quaerō, *I ask the reason;* Leg. Agr. 3, 3, 12.

sīn dē causā quaeritis, *but if you ask about the case;* Caecin. 36, 104.

haec cum ā Caesare peteret, *when he asked this of Caesar;* B. G. 1, 20, 5.

quōrum dē mōribus cum quaereret, *on asking about their customs;* B. G. 2, 15, 3.

Accusative of the Result Produced

394. The *Result Produced* by the action of the Verb may be expressed by the Accusative.

scrībere versūs, *to write verses;* Sat. 1, 9, 23.

rumpit vōcem, *breaks into utterance;* Aen. 2, 129.

Accusative in Apposition to a Sentence

395. An Accusative may stand in Apposition to a *sentence as a whole.*

audītā mūtātiōne prīncipis immittere latrōnum globōs, exscindere castella, causās bellō, *upon hearing of the change of emperor he sent in bands of brigands, and razed forts, — grounds for declaring war;* Tac. Ann. 2, 64.

a. The construction is probably an extension of that of **394.**

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[1] Thus (*inquiring*) interrogō, rogō; (*requesting*) rogō, poscō, reposcō, ōrō, postulō, flāgitō; (*teaching*) doceō; (*concealing*) cēlō. Also, in poetry and later Latin, percontor, *inquire strictly.*

Accusative of Kindred Meaning[1]

396. 1. An Intransitive Verb may take an Accusative Noun with a *meaning kindred to its own.*

longam īre viam, *be going a long journey;* Aen. 4, 467.
vīvere eam vītam, *to live that life;* Sen. 21, 77.

2. **Extended Use of the Accusative of Kindred Meaning.** An Intransitive Verb may take an Accusative which, though not of a meaning kindred to its own, *modifies the idea of such a meaning.*

This Accusative may be a Noun, a Pronoun, or an Adjective.

quī Bacchānālia vīvunt, *who live Bacchanalian lives;* Inv. 2, 3.
pauca querar, *I shall make a few complaints;* Phil. 1, 4, 11. Cf. Aen. 1, 385.
poētīs pingue quiddam sonantibus atque peregrīnum, *to poets having a certain heavy and foreign style;* Arch. 10, 26.
quae hominēs arant, *men's ploughing* (the ploughing that men do); Sall. Cat. 2, 7.

a. The poets like to make bold combinations of phrase.
nec mortāle sonāns, *not sounding like a mortal;* Aen. 6, 50.
vōx hominem sonat, *the voice sounds human;* Aen. 1, 328.
acerba tuēns, *with savage looks* (looking savage looks); Aen. 9, 794.
dulce rīdentem, *sweetly smiling;* Carm. 1, 22, 23.[2]

b. The construction may be used in poetry with the true Passive and with a Passive form used Reflexively (**288**, 2 and 3).
corōnārī Olympia, *be crowned with the Olympic crown;* Ep. 1, 1, 50.
Satyrum movētur, *dances the Satyr dances;* Ep. 2, 2, 125.

Freer Neuter Accusative Modifiers

397. Neuter Accusatives of Pronouns and of several Adjectives may be used to modify Verbs which do not take the Accusative of a Noun.[2] So especially with:

1. Several Verbs of *advising, urging, compelling,* or *accusing.* Thus with **moneō** and its compounds, **hortor, iubeō, volō, arguō, accūsō** and **incūsō, cōgō,** and **addūcō.**

quod tē iam dūdum hortor, *which I have long been urging* (*upon*) *you;* Cat. 1, 5, 12.
sī quid ille sē velit, *if Caesar wanted anything of him;* B. G. 1, 34, 2.
eōs hoc moneō, *I give them this advice* (advise them this); Cat. 2, 9, 20.
id cōgit omnīs, *forces everybody to this;* Rep. 1, 2, 3.

a. In the passive voice, the Accusative of the Thing remains.
ego hoc cōgor, *I am forced to this;* Rab. Post. 7, 17.
illud addūcī vix possum, ut . . ., *I can hardly be forced to the conclusion that;* Fin. 1, 5, 14.

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[1] Also called the Cognate Accusative.
[2] In such examples with neuter adjectives, the Accusative is in effect *adverbial.*

2. Several Verbs of *assenting*, *boasting*, *contending*, *striving*, or *rejoicing*. Thus with **adsentior, gaudeō, glōrior, laetor, pugnō, studeō.**

ūnum studētis, *you have one common aim ;* Phil. 6, 7, 18.

illud nōn adsentior tibi, *I do not agree with you in this ;* Rep. 3, 35, 47.

id pugnat, *contends for this ;* Phil. 8, 3, 8.

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Accusative as Subject of an Infinitive

398. The *Subject of an Infinitive* is put in the Accusative.

līberōs ad sē addūcī iussit, *ordered the children to be brought to him ;* B. G. 2, 5, 1.

nūntiāvērunt manūs cōgī, *brought word that bands of men were gathering ;* B. G. 2, 2, 4.

a. The *Historical* Infinitive has a Nominative Subject (595).

Accusative of Exclamation

399. The Accusative is often used in *Exclamations*, to express the Object of Feeling.

ō tempora, ō mōrēs ! *O the times ! O the ways of men !* Cat. 1, 1, 2.

mē miseram : *wretched woman that I am !* Eun. 197.

quō mihi fortūnam ! *what's the use of fortune to me !* Ep. 1, 5, 12.

a. The Nominative is occasionally used in Exclamations.

ō fēstus diēs ! *O joyful day !* Eun. 560.

ō frūstrā susceptī labōrēs ! *O toils performed in vain !* Mil. 34, 94.

THE VOCATIVE

Vocative of Address

400. The *Person* or *Thing Addressed* is put in the Vocative.

quō usque abūtēre, Catilīna, patientiā nostrā ? *how long, Catiline, shall you abuse our patience ?* Cat. 1, 1, 1.

401. In poetry and ceremonious prose, the Nominative is sometimes used instead of the Vocative, or as an Appositive or Predicate to a Vocative.

audī tū, populus Albānus, *hear, people of Alba ;* Liv. 1, 24, 7.

nāte, meae vīrēs, mea magna potentia sōlus, *O son, my strength, my great power, thou alone ;* Aen. 1, 664.

salvē, prīmus omnium parēns patriae appellāte, *hail thou, named first of all the father of thy country ;* Plin. N. H. 7, 117.

THE ABLATIVE

402. INTRODUCTORY. 1. The Latin Ablative inherited (**334**, 2) three forces from the parent speech, those of (1) Separation (Separative Ablative, or *from*-case), (2) Association (Sociative Ablative, or *with*-case), (3) Location (Locative Ablative, or *in*-case).

2. These three forces gave rise to a number of constructions, most of which correspond fairly closely to our constructions with *from*, *with*, or *in*. In addition, several constructions arose through Fusion (**315**, 3).

403. The Latin Ablative expresses four general classes of ideas:

I. *Separation* (*Separative Ablative*).
II. *Association* (*Sociative Ablative*).
III. *Location* (*Locative Ablative*).
IV. *Various ideas, in constructions of Composite Origin* (*Fusion*).

404. SYNOPSIS OF THE PRINCIPAL USES OF THE ABLATIVE

I Separative Ablative
- Ablative with the Separative Prepositions **ab, dē, ex, sine** (**405**). Note especially:
  - Agent of the Passive Voice, with **ab** (**406**, 1)
  - Point of View from Which, with **ab** or **ex** (**406**, 2)
  - Material of Which a thing is made, with **ex** (**406**, 4)
  - Regular expression of the Place Whence (**409**)
- Ablative with the Prepositions **cōram, palam, prae, prō** (**407**)
- Ablative with Verbs of Separation (**408**)
- Ablative with Adjectives of Separation (**411**)
- Ablative with Verbs and Adjectives of Difference or Aversion (**412**)
- Ablative of Parentage or Origin (**413**)
- Ablative of Accordance (**414**)
- Ablative of the Standard (**415**)
- Ablative with a Comparative (**416, 417**)

II Sociative Ablative
- Ablative with the Sociative Preposition **cum** (**418, 419**)
- Ablative of Accompaniment, with or without **cum** (**420**)
- Ablative Absolute (**421**)
- Ablative of Attendant Circumstances (**422**)
- Ablative of Means or Instrument (**423**)
  - Ablative of the Degree of Difference (**424**)
  - Ablative of Plenty or Want (**425**)
  - Ablative of the Route (**426**)
  - Ablative of Price or Value (**427**)
    - Ablative of the Penalty or Fine (**428**)
  - Ablative of the Object, with **ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vēscor** (**429**); Ablative with **opus est** and **ūsus est** (**430**)
- Ablative with Verbs of *exchanging, mixing, accustoming,* or *joining* (**431**); with **frētus, contineor, comitātus, stīpātus** (**432**)

III Locative Ablative
- Ablative with **in, sub,** etc. (Regular expression of the Place Where) (**433**)
- Ablative of certain words with or without a Preposition (**436**)
- Ablative with **fīdō** and **cōnfīdō** (**437**); with **nītor, innīxus, subnīxus, adquiēscō, stō, cōnstō, cōnsistō, contentus** (**438**)

IV Of Composite Origin	Ablative of the Time at or within Which (**439**) Rarer Ablative of Duration of Time (**440**) Ablative of Respect (**441**) Ablative with **dignus** and **indignus** (**442**) Descriptive Ablative (**443**) Ablative of Cause or Reason (**444**) Ablative of the Way or Manner (**445**) Ablative with Verbs meaning *carry*, *hold*, *keep*, *receive*, etc. (**446**)

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I. THE SEPARATIVE ABLATIVE

Ablative with Separative Prepositions[1]

405. The Ablative is always used with the Separative Prepositions **ā, ab** or **abs, dē, ē** or **ex, sine.**

iter ab Ararī āverterant, *had turned away from the Arar;* B. G. 1, 16, 3.
ab initiō, *from the beginning;* Liv. 1, 5, 5.
dē mūrō iacta, *thrown down from the wall;* B. G. 2, 32, 4.
sine exercitū, *without an army;* B. G. 1, 34, 3.

a. **Ā, ab, abs.** — **Ab** is used before vowels and **h**, **ā** before consonants. But before most consonants **ab** may also be used. **Abs** is common only in the phrase **abs tē** (for which **ā tē** is also frequent).

ab Aquītānīs, B. G. 1, 1, 2; **ā Belgīs,** 1, 1, 2; **ā dextrō cornū,** 1, 52, 1; and also **ab decumānā portā,** 3, 25, 2; **abs tē,** 5, 30, 2.

b. **Ē, ex.** — **Ex** is used before vowels and **h**; both **ē** and **ex** before consonants, but more frequently **ex.**

ex eō, B. G. 1, 6, 3; **ē fīnibus,** 1, 5, 1; **ex fīnibus,** 4, 1, 4.

c. **Procul,** *far* (always with **ab** in Ciceronian prose), may take the Ablative in poetry and later prose; thus **procul negōtiīs,** *far from business cares;* Epod. 2, 1.

406. The Separative Ablative with a Preposition is used to express a variety of ideas. Notice especially:

1. *The Agent of the Passive Voice*, with **ab** (cf. *John*, I, 6, "there was a man sent from God"): **quod ab Gallīs sollicitārentur,** *because they were being urged on* (from) *by the Gauls*, B. G. 2, 1, 3; **ab elephantīs obtrītī,** *trampled upon by the elephants*, Liv. 21, 5, 15.

a. The Ablative with **ab** is sometimes used with an active verb, to *suggest* the passive idea. Thus **ā tantō cecidisse virō,** *to have fallen* (slain) *by so great a man*, Ov. Met. 5, 192.

b. Agents are properly *persons* (or *animals*). But things may be *personified;* thus **superārī ab hīs virtūtibus,** *to be surpassed by these virtues*, Cat. 2, 11, 25; **laesus fallācī piscis ab bāmō,** *the fish hurt by the deceitful hook*, Ov. Pont. 2, 7, 9. Cf. Aen. 3, 533.

[1] For summarized statements for all prepositions, see **455–458.**

2. *The Point of View from Which*, with **ab** or **ex** (our English conception is generally that of the *place* WHERE). Thus:

ā tergō, ā novissimō agmine, etc., (from) *on the rear*
ā latere, (from) *on the side*
ā fronte, (from) *on the front*
ex (ab) hāc parte, (from) *on this side*;
ex (ab) utrāque parte, *on both sides*, etc., etc.
initium capit ā, *begins* (from) *at*, etc., etc.

ex hāc parte pudor pugnat, illinc petulantia; hinc fidēs, illinc fraudātiō, *on this side decency fights, on the other impudence; here financial faith, there robbery;* Cat. 2, 11, 25. (Note the same conception in **hinc, illinc**.)

prope ā meīs aedibus, *near* (reckoned from) *my house;* Pis. 11, 26.

"**ain tū tē valēre?**" "**Pol ego haud perbene ā pecūniā**," "*are you well, do you say?*" "*Not so very excellently well in point of* (from the point of view of) *money*"; Aul. 186.

3. *The Condition* or *Situation from* or *out of Which*, with **dē** or **ex**: **ex vinculīs causam dīcere**, *to plead his cause in chains*, B. G. 1, 4, 1 (speak *from* his position in chains); **fīēs dē rhētore cōnsul**, *from professor, you shall become consul*, Iuv. 7, 197; **dē templō carcerem fierī**, *that a prison should be made out of a temple*, Phil. 5, 7, 18. Compare the expression of the Condition into Which, **384**, 1, and of the Condition in Which, **434**, 1.

4. *The Material of Which a thing is made*, with **ex** (also, in poetry, with **dē**): **factae ex rōbore**, *made of oak*, B. G. 3, 13, 3; **pōcula ex aurō**, *cups of gold*, Verr. 4, 27, 62; **fuit dē marmore templum**, *there was a temple of marble*, Aen. 4, 457. (Cf. the Genitive of Material, **349**.)

a. The poets freely omit the preposition. Thus **templa saxō strūcta vetustō**, *the temple built of ancient stone;* Aen. 3, 84.

407. 1. The Ablative is always used with the Prepositions[1] **cōram, palam, prae**, and **prō**.[2]

legiōnēs prō castrīs cōnstituit, *drew up the legions in front of the camp;* B. G. 4, 35, 1.

prō profugā vēnit, *came as a deserter;* B. G. 3, 18, 3.

cūr prō istō pugnās? *why do you fight for him* (in defence of him)? Verr. 4, 36, 79.

cōram generō meō, *in the presence of my son-in-law;* Pis. 6, 12.

palam populō, *in the presence of the people;* Liv. 6, 14, 5.

a. **Palam** is *generally an adverb*, but after Cicero's time occasionally a preposition.

[1] For summarized statements for all prepositions, see **455–458**.

[2] The original feeling was that of separation. Thus **prō castrīs**, *in front, reckoning from the camp*. **Cōram**, *in face of*, followed the analogy of **prō**, *in front of*. **Palam** followed that of **cōram**. **Clam**, as the opposite, did the same. The Accusative with **clam** is due to the analogy of **cēlō (393)**.

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2. **Clam**, *secretly*, is regularly an adverb in Ciceronian Latin. In early and later Latin, it is either an adverb, or a preposition with the Accusative (*without the knowledge of*).

3. **Tenus**, *up to* (postpositive), is rare till after Cicero. It generally takes the Ablative, but sometimes the Genitive. Thus **capulō tenus**, *up to the hilt*, Aen. 2, 553; **genūs tenus**, *up to the knee*, Liv. 44, 40, 8.

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4. **Fīnī** or **fīne**, *up to* (prepositive or postpositive) is in rare use as a preposition, with the Ablative or Genitive.

fīne genūs, *to the knee;* Ov. Met. 10, 536.
osse fīnī, *to the bone;* Men. 859.

Ablative with Verbs of Separation

408. *Verbs of Separation* take an Ablative. The Preposition, if employed, is **ab**, **dē**, or **ex**. The general usage in Ciceronian prose is as follows:

1. The Preposition is freely omitted[1] with Verbs of literal Separation, *if themselves containing a separative Preposition* (**ab**, **dē**, or **ex**).[2]

castrīs ēgressī, *going out from the camp*, B. G. 2, 11, 1.
ē castrīs ēgressī, *going out from the camp;* B. G. 1, 27, 4.

a. Otherwise a Preposition is regularly used in Ciceronian prose.[3]

prōcēdit ē praetōriō, *comes out from the general's quarters;* Verr. 5, 41, 106.
ab urbe proficīscī, *to set out from the city;* B. G. 1, 7, 1.

Exceptions are rare; thus **oppidō fugit**, B. C. 3, 29, 1; **Italiā cēdit**, Att. 9, 10, 4, and the fixed phrase **manū mittere**, as in Mil. 19, 56.

2. The Preposition is freely omitted with Verbs expressing *either* literal or figurative Separation, *if in very common use in both senses.*[4]

dē mūrō sē dēiēcērunt, *leaped from the wall* (threw themselves down from); B. C. 1, 18, 3.
mūrō dēiectī, *driven down from the wall;* B. G. 7, 28, 1.
nē dē honōre dēicerer, *that I should not be deprived of the honor* (driven from it); Verr. A. Pr. 9, 25.
eā spē dēiectī, *deprived of this hope;* B. G. 1, 8, 4.

Exception: **dēfendō**, *fend off* and *defend*, always takes **ab**.

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[1] The word "omitted" should not be taken as implying that the preposition *ought* properly to be present, but only as a shorter expression in place of "not employed."

[2] So with **exeō**, **ēgredior**, **ēmittō**, **ērumpō**. **Auferō** (in which the preposition is disguised) regularly takes a preposition.

[3] So with **veniō**, **adveniō**, **discēdō**, **prōcēdō**, **proficīscor**, **prōgredior**, **dīgredior**, **redeō**, **referō**, **revertor**.

[4] So **arceō**, *keep off* and *prevent;* **cēdō**, **dēcēdō**, and **excēdō**, *go from* and *withdraw;* **moveō**, *move;* **pellō**, *drive away* and *banish;* **expellō**, *drive out* and *remove;* **solvō**,

a. Otherwise, a Preposition is regularly used in Ciceronian prose.[1]

ab officiō discessūrum, *would depart from his duty;* B. G. 1, 40, 2.

3. The Preposition is regularly omitted with Verbs expressing *figurative Separation only*.[2]

magistrātū sē abdicāvit, *abdicated* (resigned from) *his office;* Cat. 3, 6, 15.

proeliō supersedēre, *to refrain from battle;* B. G. 2, 8, 1.

Exceptions: 1. **Temperō**, *refrain*, and the passive of **intermittō**, *leave off*, take **ab**. **Servō**, *rescue*, and **vindicō**, *deliver*, take **ab** or **ex**. **Vacō**, *be free from*, and **laxō**, *loose*, either take or omit **ab**. **Līberō**, *free*, rarely takes **ex**.

temperātūrōs ab maleficiō, *would refrain from mischief;* B. G. 1, 7, 5.

2. **Caveō**, *beware* (of), takes **ab** in Ciceronian Latin, and either **ab** or the bare Ablative in early Latin.

monuērunt ā venēnō ut cavēret, *warned him to beware of poison;* Fin. 5, 22, 64. Cf. **cavē malō**, *beware of harm;* Pers. 835.

409. Regular Expression of the Place Whence. The Place Whence is regularly expressed in Ciceronian prose as shown in **408**, 1 and *a*, 2 and *a*.

410. Remarks on the Ablative with Verbs of Separation. 1. With most Verbs of Separation, whether literal or figurative, a preposition is used with words denoting *persons*.

manūs ā tē abstinēre, *to keep their hands off from you;* Vat. 4, 10.

2. The poets freely use the Ablative without a preposition in any combination expressing or suggesting separation. This is true even if no verb is employed, and even if the word used denotes a person.

adsurgēns flūctū, *rising from the wave;* Aen. 1, 535.

antrō lātrāns, *barking from the cave;* Aen. 6, 400.

marītī Tyrō, *suitors from Tyre;* Aen. 4, 36.

dēiectam coniuge tantō, *robbed of so great a spouse;* Aen. 3, 317.

3. For the Place Whence with names of Towns, Small Islands, etc., see **451**.

Ablative with Adjectives of Separation

411. *Adjectives of Separation* take the Ablative either with or without **ab**.

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loose and *free;* **abeō**, *go away, depart from, resign;* **abstineō**, *hold off* and *abstain;* **dēiciō**, *cast down;* **dēsistō**, *stand aside* and *desist;* **dēturbō** and **prōturbō**, *push off from* and *deprive;* **exclūdō**, *shut out* and *prevent;* **interclūdō**, *shut off* and *cut off;* **expediō**, *get from under foot* and *release;* **prohibeō**, *hold off* and *prevent*.

[1] So with **abdūcō** and **dēdūcō**, **āmoveō**, **dēmoveō** and **removeō**, **āvertō**, **dēmō**, **dētrahō**, **discēdō**, **ēiciō**, **prōpulsō**, **repellō**, **sēcernō**, **tollō**. **Absum** and **dēpellō** generally take a preposition (**absum** may also take a Dative of Reference, as in B. G. 1, 36, 5; **366**). A few words occur too seldom to admit of any statement.

[2] Such are verbs meaning *strip, despoil, defraud, grudge, deprive, bereave, interdict, absolve, relieve, free, be free, relax, leave off, refrain, abdicate*. Thus **nūdō**, **spoliō**, **exuō**, **fraudō**, **invideō**, **prīvō**, **orbō**, **interdīcō**, **absolvō**, **levō** and **relevō**, **līberō**, **vacō**, **laxō** and **relaxō**, **supersedeō**, **abdicō**. Also, in poetry and later prose, **viduō**, **exhērēdō**, etc., etc.

vacua ab omnī perīculō, *free from all danger;* Prov. Cons. 12, 30.

nōn vacua mortis perīculō, *not free from mortal danger;* Cat. 4, 1, 2.

a. In Ciceronian prose, these adjectives are **līber**, *free*, **pūrus**, *pure*, **nūdus**, *stripped*, **orbus**, *bereft*, **vacuus**, *empty*.[1]

b. In later poetry, and, to some extent, in later prose, the above adjectives may also take the Genitive (**348**).

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sceleris pūrus, *free from guilt;* Carm. 1, 22, 1.

Ablative with Verbs and Adjectives of Difference or Aversion

412. *Verbs of Difference* or *Aversion* take the Ablative with **ab**. **Aliēnus**, *foreign*, may either take or omit the Preposition.

ab eō dissentiō, *I differ from him;* Pomp. 20, 59.

quod abhorret ā meīs mōribus, *which is foreign to my ways;* Cat. 1, 8, 20.

aliēna ā dignitāte, *inconsistent with your dignity,* Fam. 4, 7, 1.

aliēnum dignitāte imperī, *inconsistent with the dignity of the realm;* Prov. Cons. 8, 18.

a. **Alius**, *else*, *other than*, is regularly followed by **atque** (**ac**), or, if negatived, by **nisi**, **quam**, or **praeter**; but it *may* take the Ablative without a preposition, as in **alium sapiente**, Ep. 1, 16, 20 (very rarely in prose).

b. **Aliēnus** may also take a Genitive (**339**, *c*) or Dative (**362**, III).

c. A few of these verbs (e.g. **dissentiō**) may also take the construction of Contention (Ablative with **cum**; **419**, 4).

d. The later writers freely employ the Dative with these verbs (**363**, 2, *c*).

Ablative of Parentage or Origin

413. *Parentage* or *Origin*[2] is expressed by the Ablative, generally without a Preposition.

amplissimō genere nātus, *born of a very noble stock;* B. G. 4, 12, 4.

quō sanguine crētus? *from what blood sprung?* Aen. 2, 74.

a. A preposition (generally **ex**) is sometimes used with the noun, especially if this denotes a parent. Before a pronoun, the preposition is regular.

b. Remoter origin is expressed by **ortus** with **ab**, or **prōgnātus** with **ex**.

Belgās esse ortōs ā Germānīs, (he learned that) *the Belgae were descended from the Germans;* B. G. 2, 4, 1.

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[1] Also, in later poetry, **cassus**, **siccus**, **viduus**, and others.

Immūnis, *exempt* (in Cicero with Objective Genitive; **354**), after Cicero takes either the Genitive or, as implying want, the Ablative, the latter with or without a preposition (e.g. **immūnis mīlitiā**, *exempt from service;* Liv. 1, 43, 8).

[2] The verb employed in Ciceronian Latin is **nāscor**. The participles are **nātus**, **prōgnātus**, **ortus**; also, in later Latin, **genitus**, **generātus**, **crētus**, **satus**, **ēditus**, **oriundus**, and others.

Ablative of Accordance

414. That *in Accordance with which* one acts or judges may be expressed by the Ablative of certain words, regularly without a Preposition.

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cōnsuētūdine suā Caesar VI legiōnēs expedītās dūcēbat, *according to his custom, Caesar, as he marched, kept six legions in fighting order;* B. G. 2, 19, 2.

tuō cōnsiliō faciam, *I will act in accordance with your plan;* Rud. 962.

mūnus meā sententiā magnum, *a great gift, in my opinion* (according to my way of thinking); Off. 3, 33, 121.

a. So especially, in Ciceronian Latin, **mōre** (**mōribus**) and **cōnsuētūdine**, *according to custom*, **cōnsiliō**, (according to) *with a plan*, **sententiā** (**meā**, etc.) (according to) *in* (my, etc.) *opinion*, **lēge**, *by law* (these rarely with a preposition); **iūdiciō** and **animō**, (according to) *in the judgment* (*of*), **iussū** (**iniussū** by analogy), **voluntāte**, **rogātū**, **admonitū**, **arbitrātū**, or **concessū**, *by the order, desire, request, advice, decision*, or *consent* (*of*), **accītū** or **missū**, *by the summons* or *sending* (*of*) (these without a preposition).[1]

b. In general, Accordance is expressed by **dē** or **ex** with the Ablative.

quō ex senātūs cōnsultō convenit . . ., *in accordance with which decree of the Senate it has all the time been proper;* Cat. 1, 2, 4.

Ablative of the Standard

415. The *Standard* from which one starts in measuring or judging is regularly expressed by the Ablative without a Preposition.

quī verbīs contrōversiās, nōn aequitāte dīiūdicās, *who decide controversies according to* (= by) *words, not according to justice;* Caecin. 17, 49.

magnōs hominēs virtūte mētīmur nōn fortūnā, *we measure great men by their high aims, not by their luck;* Nep. Eum. 1, 1.

a. But **ex** is sometimes used. Thus **amīcitiās ex commodō aestimāre**, *to judge friendships from the standard of advantage;* Sall. Cat. 10, 5.

Ablative with a Comparative

416. A *Comparative Adjective* is often followed by the Ablative.

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[1] The poets add other words. Thus **imperiō**, *by the order* (*of*).

For **lēge** meaning *with the condition*, see **436**, *b*. For **voluntāte**, *voluntarily* (originally Ablative of Accordance, but in effect expressing Manner, see **445**).

But **quam** *may* always be used, and regularly *is* used if the first of the two things compared is in any case except the Nominative or Accusative.

vītā cārior, *dearer than life*, Cat. 1, 11, 27.

audācior quam Catilīnā, *more overweening than Catiline;* Phil. 2, 1, 1.

tibi, multō maiōrī quam Āfricānus fuit, *to you, a much greater man than Africanus was;* Fam. 5, 7, 3.

a. The relative pronoun with definite antecedent is regularly in the Ablative after a Comparative.

Aenēās, quō iūstior alter nec pietāte fuit nec bellō maior, *Aeneas, than whom no man was ever juster in piety or greater in war;* Aen. 1, 544.

b. Comparison may be expressed in poetry by the use of **ante, praeter**, etc.

ante aliōs immānior, *more monstrous than* (before) *the rest;* Aen. 1, 347.

c. One of the two things compared is often suppressed.

esse graviōrem fortūnam Sēquanōrum quam reliquōrum, *the fate of the Sequani was harder than* (the fate) *of the rest;* B. G. 1, 32, 4.

d. **Plūs, minus, amplius**, and **longius** may be used as Comparative Adjectives with an Ablative, *or* as Adverbs, without effect upon the case.

utī nōn amplius quīnīs aut sēnīs mīlibus passuum interesset, *so that there was not more than five or six miles between;* B. G. 1, 15, 5.

Sabim flūmen ā castrīs suīs nōn amplius mīlia passuum X abesse, *that the Sambre was not above ten miles distant from his camp;* B. G. 2, 16, 1.

e. Certain Ablatives are regularly used for brevity in place of clauses. Thus **aequō, exspectātiōne, necessāriō, opīniōne.**[1] The same usage holds with comparative adverbs.

nē plūs aequō quid in amīcitiam congerātur, *lest more than* (what is) *right should be heaped upon friendship;* Am. 16, 58.

longius necessāriō, *farther than was necessary;* B. G. 7, 16, 3.

417. A *Comparative Adverb* is ordinarily followed by **quam**.

cum possit clārius dīcere quam ipse, *though he could speak louder than* (the leading character) *himself;* Caecil. 15, 48.

a. Nouns of *time* are regularly in the Ablative after comparative adverbs.

longius annō remanēre, *to remain more than a year;* B. G. 4, 1, 7.

b. The poets use the Ablative freely with comparative adverbs.

quam lūnō fertur terrīs magis omnibus coluisse, *which Juno is said to have fostered more than all other lands* (for **magis quam terrās omnīs**); Aen. 1, 15.

II. THE SOCIATIVE ABLATIVE

Ablative of Accompaniment, with cum[2]

418. The Ablative is always used with the Sociative Preposition **cum**, *with*.

[1] Also, in later Latin, **dictō, fidē, solitō, spē, vērō**, and other words.

[2] For summarized statements for *all* prepositions, see **455–458**.

cum lēgātīs vēnit, *came with the ambassadors;* B. G. 4, 27, 2.
cum febrī domum rediit, *came home with a fever;* De Or. 3, 2, 6.
dēsinant obsidēre cum gladiīs cūriam, *let them cease to invest the senate-house with swords* (in their hands); Cat. 1, 13, 32.

a. **Cum** is regularly put *after* a personal, reflexive, or relative pronoun, and forms one word with it; thus **mēcum, sēcum, quibuscum.**

b. In poetry and later prose, **simul**, *together with*, is sometimes used with the Ablative. Thus **simul hīs dictīs**, (together) *with these words;* Aen. 5, 357.

419. The Ablative with **cum**, *with*, is used to express a variety of ideas. The most important are the following:

1. *Union, Agreement*, or *Companionship:* **cum proximīs cīvitātībus pācem cōnfirmāre**, *to make peace with the neighboring states*, B. G. 1, 3, 1; **prūdentiam cum ēloquentiā iungere**, *to join prudence with eloquence*, Tusc. 1, 4, 7.

2. *Intercourse, Dealing*, etc.: **is ita cum Caesare ēgit**, *he pleaded with Caesar as follows;* B. G. 1, 13, 3.

3. *Comparison:* **neque hanc cōnsuētūdinem victūs cum illā comparandam** (esse), *and that this manner of living was not to be compared with the other;* B. G. 1, 31, 11.

4. *Contention* or *Variance:* **cum Germānīs contendunt**, *they contend with the Germans;* B. G. 1, 1, 4.

Ablative of Accompaniment, with or without cum

420. In *military language*, Accompaniment after Verbs of coming or going may be expressed by an Ablative *with* or *without* **cum.**

But **cum** *must* be used if the Noun stands without a modifier, or with a Numeral.

cum iīs cōpiīs quās ā Caesare accēperat pervēnit, *arrived with the forces which he had received from Caesar;* B. G. 3, 17, 1.
eō pedestribus cōpiīs contendit, *hurries thither with the infantry*, B. G. 3, 11, 5.
uterque cum equitātū venīret, *that both should come with cavalry*. B. G. 1, 42, 4.
cum hīs quīnque legiōnibus īre, *to go with these five legions;* B. G. 1, 10, 3.

Ablative Absolute

421. An Ablative Noun or Pronoun, with a Predicate word in the same case, may be used in loose connection with the rest of the sentence.

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The Predicate may be a Noun, a Participle, or an Adjective.

The Ablative Absolute is (like the English Nominative Absolute, as in "this having been done") strictly a *neutral* construction, telling nothing about the real relation between the facts stated in it and the facts stated in the rest of the sentence. In English, however, we must ordinarily translate so as to *show* these relations. Hence the following headings are convenient:

1. (*Mere*) *Time:* **M. Messālā M. Pīsōne cōnsulibus**, *in the consulship of Marcus Messala and Marcus Piso* (Messala and Piso being[1] consuls); B. G. 1, 2, 1.

2. (*Mere*) *Situation:* **ea īnscientibus ipsīs fēcisset**, *had done this without their knowledge* (they not knowing); B. G. 1, 19, 1.

3. *Situation and Time:* **omnibus rēbus comparātīs diem dīcunt**, *every thing being ready, they* (then) *appoint a day;* B. G. 1, 6, 4.

4. *Situation and Cause:* **mercātōribus iniūriōsius tractātīs bella gessērunt**, *waged war when* (and *because*) *our traders had been somewhat rudely treated;* Pomp. 5, 11.

5. *Situation and Opposition:* **id paucīs dēfendentibus expugnāre nōn potuit**, *he was unable to take this* (*town*), *though its defenders were but few;* B. G. 2, 12, 2.

6. *Condition:* **semper exīstimābitis vīvō P. Clōdiō nihil eōrum vōs vīsūrōs fuisse**, *you will always think that, if Publius Clodius were alive, you would never have seen any of these things;* Mil. 28, 78.

a. **Nisi, quasi, tamquam, velut**, etc., may be used.

nisi mūnītīs castrīs, *unless the camp were fortified;* B. G. 2, 20, 3.

7. *Means:* **id ratibus ac lintribus iūnctīs trānsībant**, *were crossing this* (*river*) *by tying together rafts and boats;* B. G. 1, 12, 1.

8. *Manner:* **incitātō equō sē hostibus obtulit**, *rushed upon the enemy at full speed* (his horse being speeded); B. G. 4, 12, 6.

a. The later writers often use an Infinitive or a Subordinate Clause as the principal member of an Ablative Absolute; and they also often use a Participle *impersonally.*

impetrātō ut manērent, (*leave*) *being obtained to remain;* Liv. 9, 30, 10.

lībātō, *after a libation had been made;* Aen. 1, 737.

[1] Note that Latin has no participle corresponding to English "being."

b. In general, the Ablative Absolute is used only where its noun or pronoun denotes a person or thing mentioned nowhere else in the same clause. Yet exceptions sometimes occur, generally for the sake of clearness or emphasis.

vōsne ego patiar cum mendīcīs nūptās mē vīvō virīs? *shall I suffer you to be the wives of beggar-men while I am alive?* Stich. 132.

Similarly **turribus excitātīs, tamen hās**, B. G. 3, 14, 4.

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Ablative of Attendant Circumstances

422. An Ablative Noun with a modifier may be used to express *Situation*, *Circumstances*, or *Result*.

The examples fall into two main classes:

I. Expressing Situation (English "with," "in," "under"). No Preposition is used.

Thus **imperiō nostrō**, *under our sovereignty;* **aestū magnō**, *in great heat;* **parī (magnō, quō**, etc.) **intervāllō**, *at an equal distance;* **nūllīs impedīmentīs**, *without baggage;* **magnō comitātū**, *with a great retinue;* **frequentissimō senātū**, *in a crowded meeting of the senate;* **tantō conventū, tantā frequentiā, magnō cōnsessū**, etc.; **hōc, hāc**, or **hīs** with various nouns.

minus facile eam rem imperiō nostrō cōnsequī poterant, *could less easily attain this under our sovereignty;* B. G. 2, 1, 4.

hāc cōntiōne, hōc populō nōn verērer, *with an assemblage like this, with a people like this, I should have no fear;* Leg. Agr. 2, 37, 101.

dīcit frequentissimō senātū cōnsul, *the consul says in a crowded meeting of the senate;* Leg. Agr. 1, 8, 26. Cf. Arch. 2, 3; Mil. 24, 66.

ubi fidē pūblicā dīcere iussus est, *when he had been invited to turn state's evidence* (speak with a pledge from the state); Sall. Cat. 47, 1.

a. To this class probably belong the following Ablatives accompanied by a Genitive of the person, or a Possessive Pronoun: **ductū, imperiō, auspiciō**, *under the lead, authority*, or *auspices (of);* **contuberniō**, *in association (with);* **voluntāte** or **concessū**, *with the approval* or *consent (of)*.

b. Rarely, a noun is so used *without* a modifier. Thus **intervāllō restitūta**, *restored after* (with) *an interval;* Leg. Agr. 1, 9, 27. The use is less rare in poetry. Thus **servitiō ēnīxae**, *having borne a child in slavery;* Aen. 3, 327.

c. The poets employ the construction in bold combinations. Thus **paribus cūrīs vestīgia fīgit**, *wrapped in like cares* (with like cares) *plants his footsteps;* Aen. 6, 159.

II. Expressing Circumstances or Result (English "with" or "to"). The Preposition, if used, is **cum**. It is

1. Regularly omitted with the most common phrases. Thus **ōminibus**, *with . . . omens;* **clāmōre**, *with shouting;* **plausū**, *with applause;*

convīciō, *with abuse*; **silentiō**, *in* (with) *silence*; **pāce** or **veniā**, *with the permission* (*of*); **commodō** or **incommodō**, *with advantage* or *disadvantage* (*to*); **damnō** or **iactūrā**, *with the loss* (*of*).

hīs ōminibus, cum tuā perniciē proficīscere ad impium bellum, *with these omens, and to your ruin, set out to wage your impious war*; Cat. 1, 13, 33.

quod commodō reī pūblicae facere posset, *as far as he could do so with* (resulting) *advantage to the commonwealth*; B. G. 1, 35, 4.

exercitum duārum cohortium damnō dēdūcit, *leads his army back with a loss of two cohorts*; B. G. 6, 44, 1.

a. When used without a modifier, these words (except **silentiō**) generally take **cum**. Thus **cum plausū**, Phil. 2, 34, 85; **cum clāmōre**, Verr. 5, 36, 93.

2. Used or omitted indifferently with phrases moderately common.

Thus (**cum**) **perīculō**, *with danger* (*to*); (**cum**) **dolōre** or **aerumnā**, *to the grief* or *sorrow* (*of*); (**cum**) **glōriā**, *to the glory* (*of*); (**cum**) **invidiā**, *to the unpopularity* (*of*).

vīdī quantō meō dolōre, *with what grief to myself did I see . . .!* Phil. 1, 4, 9. (Cf. Cat. 4, 1, 2, *to my grief*.)

quantō cum dolōre vīdī! *with what grief did I see . . .!* Marc. 6, 16.

3. Regularly used with the least common phrases.

magnō cum lūctū cīvitātis simulācrum tollendum locātur, *to the great grief of the state, a contract is made for the removal of the statue*; Verr. 4, 34, 76. Similarly **cum tuā perniciē** under II, 1, above.

NOTE to 1–3. The poets and later writers vary the usage *for the mere sake* of variety. Thus **cum bonīs ōminibus**, Liv. Praef. 13; **maiōre perniciē**, 21, 35, 1.

Ablative of Means or Instrument (Instrumental Ablative)

423. *Means* and *Instrument* may be expressed by the Ablative.

gladiīs pugnātum est, *the battle was fought with swords*; B. G. 1, 52, 4.

litterīs certior fīēbat, *was informed by* (means of) *despatches*; B. G. 2, 1, 1.

id animō contemplāre quod oculīs nōn potes, *contemplate in* (with) *your mind what you cannot with your eyes*; Dei. 14, 40.

suō sūmptū, *at his own expense* (by his expenditure); B. G. 1, 18, 5.

magnō dolōre adficiēbantur, *were greatly distressed* (were affected with great grief); B. G. 1, 2, 4.

Similarly with **ōrnātus**, *equipped*, **praeditus**, *endowed*, **onustus**, *laden*.

a. Persons are often thought of as Means.

eā legiōne mīlitibusque quī ex prōvinciā convēnerant, mūrum perdūcit, *with this legion, and the soldiers who had assembled from the province, he constructs a wall;* B. G. 1, 8, 1.

iacent suīs testibus, *they are overthrown by means of their own witnesses;* Mil. 18, 47.

b. The Ablative of Means probably appears in such phrases as **quid illō fīet?** *what will* (be made with =) *become of him?* Att. 6, 1, 14; **sī quid eō factum esset,** *if anything should happen to him,* Pomp. 20, 59. (By analogy, **quid tē futūrust?** *what will become of you?* Ph. 137, etc.)

With **faciō,** the Dative of the Indirect Object (**365**) may also be used. Thus **quid huic hominī faciās?** *what is one to do with* (to) *such a man?* Caecin. 11, 30.

c. The poets often use the Ablative of Means to make the governing word *imply* more than it strictly says ("forced" construction).

Aeacidae tēlō iacet Hector, *Hector lies* (slain) *by Achilles' spear;* Aen. 1, 99.

d. Means may also be expressed by **per** with the Accusative.

cōnsuluistī mē per litterās, *you consulted me by letter;* Phil. 2, 40, 102.

Ablative of Degree of Difference

424. *Degree of Difference* is expressed by the Ablative.

The construction is freely used with Comparatives and various Adverbs, less freely with Superlatives.

mīlibus passuum duōbus ultrā eum, *two miles beyond him* (beyond by two miles); B. G. 1, 48, 2.

paucīs ante diēbus, *a few days before;* Cat. 3, 1, 3.

quō dēlictum maius est, eō poena est tardior, *the greater the fault, the slower the punishment* (by how much greater . . . , by that much slower . . .); Caecin. 3, 7; cf. B. G. 1, 14, 1, and Pomp. 20, 59.

eō minus, quod memoriā tenēret, *the less* (so) *because he remembered . . . ;* B. G. 1, 14, 1.

a. In such examples as **eō minus, quod . . .**, probably both Degree of Difference (**424**) and Cause (**444**) were felt by the Romans (*by so much the less, because,* and *on that account,* namely *because*).

Ablative of Plenty or Want

425. Certain Adjectives and Verbs of *Plenty* or *Want* may take the Ablative.

erant plēna laetitiā omnia, *everything was full of joy;* B. C. 1, 74, 7.

montem hominibus complērī iussit, *ordered the mountain to be filled with men;* B. G. 1, 24, 3.

urbe ērudītissimīs hominibus adfluentī, *a city overflowing with scholars;* Arch. 3, 4.

metū suppliciōrum carēre, *to be free from the fear of penalties;* Mil. 2, 5.

omnibus egēre rēbus, *were in want of everything;* B. C. 3, 32, 4.

a. So, in Ciceronian Latin, the adjectives[1] **cōnfertus, differtus, refertus, opīmus, inānis**, rarely **plēnus** and **inops**; and the verbs **abundō, redundō, adfluō, circumfluō, careō, egeō** and its compounds, and the compounds of **-pleō**.

b. Some of these words may also take the Genitive of Plenty or Want (**plēnus, inops**, and **indigeō** regularly; **egeō, compleō**, and **impleō** rarely). See **347**, and *b*.

Ablative of the Route

426. The *Route by Which* may be expressed by the Ablative of certain words.

Aurēliā viā profectus est, *he set out by the Aurelian road;* Cat. 2, 4, 6.

terrā Macedoniam petit, *proceeded to Macedonia by land;* Liv. 24, 40, 17.

Padō trāiectus, *crossing* (by) *the Po;* Liv. 21, 56, 9. Cf. **fretō trāiēcit**, 22, 31, 7.

a. These words are especially **colle, flūmine, fretō, itinere, iugō, marī, ponte, portā**,[2] **terrā, vadō, viā**, and the plurals of most of them. **Adversus** or **secundus** is often added (e.g. B. G. 2, 19, 8, **adversō colle**, by the hill opposing, = *up the hill*).[3]

b. In general, the Route is expressed by **per** and the Accusative, sometimes even with the above words.

per angustiās et fīnīs Sēquanōrum suās cōpiās trādūxerant, *had brought their forces through the pass and the territory of the Sequani;* B. G. 1, 11, 1.

c. The Ablative of Route often expresses the *Space over Which*, closely approaching the Accusative of Extent of Space (**387**, I) in meaning.

tantō spatiō secūtī quantum efficere potuērunt, *following over as large a space as they could accomplish;* B. G. 4, 35, 3.

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[1] Also, in later Latin, **cōpiōsus, crēber, dīves, fētus, frequēns, opulentus**, and others. Similarly **expers** (with Genitive of Want in Ciceronian Latin; **347**) may take the Ablative in later writers (Sall. Cat. 33, 2); and **exhērēs** and **immūnis** (with Objective Genitive in Ciceronian Latin) may take the Ablative of Want.

[2] With **portā** (**portīs**), this construction, not that of separation, is regularly used with verbs of motion ("by," not "from").

[3] Later writers use a larger list of words. Thus **agrō, angustiīs, līmite, fīnibus, lītore, ōrā, palūde, pelagō, rīpā**, and names of rivers, mountains, countries, and city gates.

d. The poets extend the construction to other words.

āere lāpsa quiētō, *gliding through the quiet air;* Aen. 5, 216. Cf. **volat per āera magnum** (the regular prose construction), Aen. 1, 300.

prōspectum pelagō petit, *seeks an outlook over the deep;* Aen. 1, 181. Similarly **altō prōspiciēns**, *looking out over the deep;* Aen. 1, 126.

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Ablative of Price or Value

427. 1. *Definite* Price or Value *must* be expressed by the Ablative; also *Indefinite* Price or Value, if the word used is a Substantive of serious meaning.

dēnāriīs III aestimāvit, *valued it at three denarii;* Verr. 3, 92, 215.

parvō pretiō redēmpta, *bought at* (with) *a low price;* B. G. 1, 18, 3.

vēndidit aurō patriam, *sold his country for gold;* Aen. 6, 621.

2. *Indefinite* Price or Value may be expressed by *either* the Genitive (**356**) *or* the Ablative of:

a) Certain Adjectives. Thus **quantī** or **-ō**, **magnī** or **-ō**, **parvī** or **-ō**, **minimī** or **-ō**.

b) Certain Substantives not used with serious meaning. Thus **nihilī** or **-ō**, *zero*, **naucī** or **-ō**, *a peascod*.

"**quantī ēmptae?**" "**Parvō.**" "**Quantī ergō?**" "**Octussibus,**" "*how much did it cost?*" "*O, not much.*" "*How much, then?*" "*Eight pence*";* Sat. 2, 3, 156.

magnō ēmerat, *had bought at a high price;* Verr. 3, 30, 71.

nōn nihilō aestimandum, *not to be reckoned as worthless;* Fin. 4, 23, 62.

REMARK. The Genitive construction (**356**) originally expressed Value, and then was extended to express Price. The Ablative construction originally expressed Price (*means* by which the purchase was made), and then was extended to express Value. The two thus approach each other closely (Genitive of Value or Price, Ablative of Price or Value).

Ablative of the Penalty or Fine

428. Verbs of *punishing* or *fining* may take an Ablative of the *Penalty* or *Fine*.

tergō ac capite pūnīrētur, *be punished with stripes and death;* Liv. 3, 55, 14.

multātōs agrīs, *mulcted of their fields;* B. G. 7, 54, 4.

a. This is the fixed construction for definite sums of money, for fractions, and for expressions of the *class* of punishment (like *chains*, *exile*, *death*).

b. Verbs of *condemning* regularly take a Genitive of the Penalty or Fine; but, by a natural confusion with verbs of *punishing* or *fining*, they also occasionally take the Ablative **capite**, *life*, and the Ablative of multiples ("*eightfold*," etc.).

Ablative of the Object, with Certain Verbs

429. **Ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vēscor,** and their compounds *take their Object in the Ablative.*

tōtīus Galliae imperiō potīrī, *to get control of all Gaul;* B. G. 1, 2, 2.
fruī vītā, *to enjoy life;* Cat. 4, 4, 7.

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a. A Second Object is sometimes used.

populō Rōmānō disceptātōre ūtī volō, *I wish to employ the Roman people as umpire;* Leg. Agr. 1, 7, 23. Similarly **īsdem ducibus ūsus,** B. G. 2, 7, 1.

b. In early and later Latin, **ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior,** and **vēscor** may take the Accusative, like any other Verb of Transitive force.

c. **Potior** sometimes takes the Genitive in Ciceronian Latin. See **353**.

d. **Epulor,** *feast,* may take the Ablative in poetry, on the analogy of **vēscor.**

dapibus epulāmur opīmīs, *we feast on a rich banquet;* Aen. 3, 224.

Ablative with opus est and ūsus est

430. 1. **Opus est** and **ūsus est,** *there is need,* may be followed by an *Ablative of the Thing Needed.*

quid opus est tortōre? *what is the need of an inquisitor?* Mil. 21, 57.
nunc vīribus ūsus (est), *now there is need of strength;* Aen. 8, 441.

a. The construction with **ūsus est** is rare after early Latin.

2. A Participle expressing the *Leading Idea of its Phrase* (**333**) is often added to the Noun after **opus est.** A Participle may also be used *impersonally* in this construction.

nē exīstumārent sibi perditā rē pūblicā opus esse, *they must not think* (said he) *that he had need of ruining the commonwealth* (of the commonwealth ruined); Sall. Cat. 31, 7.

erat nihil cūr properātō opus esset, *there was no reason why there must be haste;* Mil. 18, 49.

a. **Opus** is also used *as a Predicate,* especially if the thing needed is expressed by a neuter pronoun or adjective.

quaecumque ad oppugnātiōnem opus sunt, *whatever things are necessary for the siege* (are a need); B. G. 5, 40, 5.

b. By a mixture of constructions, **opus** may stand in the Predicate, while itself governing an Ablative Participle.

sī quid opus factō esset, *if anything should be necessary to be done;* B. G. 1, 42, 5.

c. For the Supine in **-ū** with **opus** or **ūsus,** see **619**, 2; for the Infinitive, **585.**

Ablative with Special Verbs and Participles

431. The Sociative Ablative without **cum** may be used with certain verbs of *exchanging, mixing, accustoming,* or *joining.*

These are **mūtō**, **commūtō**, and **permūtō**, *exchange;* **misceō**, **commisceō**, and **cōnfundō**, *mix;* **adsuēfaciō** and **adsuēscō**, *make* (or *be*) *familiar;* and the Participles **iūnctus** and **coniūnctus**, *joined.*

pāce bellum mūtāvit, *has exchanged war for* (with) *peace;* Sall. Cat. 58, 15.[1]

frūsta commixta merō, *bits of food mixed with wine;* Aen. 3, 633.

nūllō officiō adsuēfactī, *not trained in* (familiarized with) *any duties;* B. G. 4, 1, 9.

miseria dēdecore coniūncta, *misery joined with disgrace;* Phil. 3, 14, 35.

a. All of these words except **mūtō**, **adsuēfaciō**, and **adsuēscō** may also take **cum**.

b. Other constructions also occur. Thus **mūtō** and **commūtō** sometimes take **prō** with the Ablative; **misceō** and **commisceō** sometimes the Dative in poetry; **adsuēfaciō** and **adsuēscō** sometimes the Dative, or **ad** with the Accusative; and the Participles **iūnctus** and **coniūnctus** sometimes the Dative, especially of a person.

c. Other parts of the verbs **iungō** and **coniungō** regularly take **cum** with the Ablative (**419**, 1), or, less frequently in prose, the Dative of Relation (**362**), or **ad** with the Accusative. The poets use the Dative freely.

d. The poetic word **suēscō** takes the Dative. See **363**, 2, *d*).

432. The Ablative is used with **frētus**, *depending upon*, **contineor**, *be made up of*, **comitātus**, *attended*, **stīpātus**, *surrounded.*

frētus vōbīs, *depending upon you;* Pomp. 19, 58.

nōn vēnīs et nervīs et ossibus continentur, (the gods) *are not made of veins and sinews and bones;* N. D. 2, 23, 59.

aliēnīs virīs comitāta, *attended by other women's husbands;* Cael. 14, 34.

stīpātus armātīs, *surrounded by armed men;* Phil. 2, 3, 6.

REMARK. This construction is descended from an Ablative of Means, **frētus** originally meaning *supported* (by), and **contineor** *be held together* (by).

III. THE LOCATIVE ABLATIVE

Locative Ablative with Prepositions[2]

433. Regular Expression of the Place Where. The Ablative is used with **in** and **sub** to express the *Place Where* something *is* or *is done.*

The meaning may be either literal or figurative.

in silvīs abditī latēbant, *were lying hidden in the woods;* B. G. 2, 19, 6.

in spē victōriae, *in the hope of victory;* B. G. 3, 26, 4.

tē hortor ut maneās in sententiā, *I urge you to stand by* (remain in) *your proposition;* Pomp. 24, 69.

sub monte cōnsēdit, *encamped under the mountain;* B. G. 1, 48, 1.

[1] The cases might be interchanged (**pācem bellō**) with the same meaning. Only the context can determine the sense.

[2] For summarized statements for *all* prepositions, see **455–458**.

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a. The poets freely omit the preposition **in** with *any* noun, and the later prose-writers follow them to some extent.

bellum geret Ītaliā, *will wage war in Italy;* Aen. 1, 263.
prōmissīs maneās, *stand by your promises;* Aen. 2, 160.
sēde rēgiā sedēns, *sitting in the royal seat;* Liv. 1, 41, 6.

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b. The Accusative is used with **in** and **sub** to express the *Place Whither* something *moves*. See **381**.

c. With a verb of *placing*, the emphasis may lie upon the resulting *Place Where*, and in this case the Ablative is used with **in** and **sub**.

saxa in mūrō conlocābant, *were placing stones on the wall;* B. G. 2, 29, 3.

d. **Sub** regularly takes the Accusative when meaning *just before*, *just after*, or *about* (**381**, *b*).

e. For the occasional Ablative with **subter** in poetry, see **382**, *a*.

f. For the Place Where with names of Towns, Small Islands, etc., see **449**.

434. The Ablative with **in** is used to express a variety of figurative ideas. The most important are the following:

1. *The Condition* or *Situation in Which:* **magnō in aere aliēnō**, *greatly in debt*, Cat. 2, 8, 18; **Iugurtham in catēnīs habitūrum**, *would have Jugurtha in chains*, Sall. Iug. 64, 5. (Cf. **384**, 1, and **406**, 3.)

2. *The Field in Which* (the idea is close to that of the Respect in Which; **441**): **in omnibus vītae partibus honestus**, *honorable in every department of life*, Font. 18, 41; **quid mē in hāc rē facere voluistī?** *what did you want me to do in this matter?* Ph. 291. So regularly with the Gerundive or Gerund (**612**, IV).

3. *The Person in Whose Case:* **quantō hoc magis in fortissimīs cīvibus facere dēbēmus!** *how much more ought we to do this in the case of our bravest citizens!* Mil. 34, 92.

435. The Ablative is regularly used with **super** in the sense of *concerning*, — rarely in its other senses (*upon*, *at*, *in addition to;* **383**).

hāc super rē scrībam ad tē, *I will write you on this point;* Att. 16, 6, 1.

a. In poetry the Ablative is sometimes used with **super** in other senses than *concerning*. Thus **fronde super viridī**, *upon a pile of green leaves*, Ecl. 1, 80; **super hīs**, *in addition to these things*, Sat. 2, 6, 3; **nocte super mediā**, *at dead of night*, Aen. 9, 61.

b. With verbs of *placing*, **super**, *upon*, may take the Ablative. Cf. **433**, *c*.

Locative Ablative with or without a Preposition

436. With a number of words in very common use, the *Place Where* (literal or figurative) may be expressed by the Ablative either *with* or *without* **in**.

So especially with **locō, parte, regiōne, spatiō, lītore, cornū, operibus, parietibus, librō, numerō, statū, initiō, prīncipiō, vestīgiō,** and any Noun modified by **medius, tōtus, omnis, cūnctus,** or **ūniversus**; also, in poetic and later Latin, with **mediō** used substantively.

eō locō, *in that place*, B. G. 6, 27, 4; and in **eō locō**, B. G. 5, 7, 3.

apertō ac plānō lītore, *on the open and level shore*, B. G. 4, 23, 6; and **in lītore mollī atque apertō,** *on the smooth and open shore*, 5, 9, 1.

tōtā Galliā, *throughout Gaul*, B. G. 5, 55, 3; and **tōtā in Asiā**, Pomp. 2, 7.

a. In general, the preposition is more likely to be used when the noun is accompanied by a pronoun or descriptive adjective. But with **medius, tōtus,** etc., the preposition is not common.

NOTE. With a verb of *motion*, Ablatives of this class often in effect express *the space over which*; cf. **426**, *c*. Thus **tōtā Asiā vagātur,** *wanders* (in =) *through the whole of Asia*, Phil. 11, 2, 6; **impedītiōribus locīs secūtī,** *following over somewhat difficult ground*, B. G. 3, 28, 4.

b. The following Locative Ablatives are used *without* a preposition in Ciceronian Latin: **dextrā,** *on the right*, **laevā** and **sinistrā,** *on the left*, **corpore,** *on* or *in the body*, **animō** and **animīs,** *in mind* (but **in animō** with **est** and **habeō**), **memoriā,** *in* or *within the memory*, **linguā,** *in the language*, **nōmine** and **speciē,** *under the name* or *pretext*, **lēge** and **condiciōne,** *under the condition* (for **lēge,** *by law*, see **414**, *a*). Later, **sub,** *under*, is sometimes added to **nōmine, speciē, lēge,** and **condiciōne.**

deus inclūsus corpore hūmānō, *a god inclosed in a human body*; Div. 1, 31, 67.

patrum nostrōrum memoriā, *within the memory of our fathers*; B. G. 1, 12, 5.

memoriā tenētis, *you remember* (hold in memory); Cat. 3, 8, 19.

quī ipsōrum linguā Celtae appellantur, *who in their own language are called Celts*; B. G. 1, 1, 1.

obsidum nōmine, *under the name of hostages*; B. G. 3, 2, 5.

Locative Ablative with Certain Verbs and Participles

437. **Fīdō** and **cōnfīdō,** *trust*, may take the Ablative.

multum nātūrā locī cōnfīdēbant, *they had great confidence in the nature of the country*; B. G. 3, 9, 3.

a. **Fīdō** and **cōnfīdō** also take the Dative (**362**; so regularly of a *person* in Ciceronian Latin).

b. **Diffīdō,** *distrust*, takes the Dative in Ciceronian Latin, and both the Dative and the Ablative in later writers.

438. 1. The Ablative, generally without **in**, is used with **nītor,** *rely upon*, and **stō** and **cōnstō,** *abide by*.

dolō nītērentur, *rely upon treachery*; B. G. 1, 13, 6. (With **in**, Mil. 7, 19.)

sī quī eōrum dēcrētō nōn stetit, *if any one does not abide by their decree*; B. G. 6, 13, 6. (With **in**, Fin. 1, 14, 47.)

2. **Adquiēscō**, *take pleasure in*, takes the Ablative with or without **in** with about equal frequency.

senēs in adulēscentium cāritāte adquiēscimus, *in old age we take pleasure in being liked by young people;* Am. 27, 101. (Without **in**, Mil. 37, 102.)

a. The Participles **innīxus** and **subnīxus**, *leaning* or *relying upon*, take the Ablative without a preposition.

scūtīs innīxī, *leaning upon their shields;* B. G. 2, 27, 1.

adrogantiā subnīxī, *relying upon their pride;* De Or. 1, 58, 246.

b. In later Latin, the finite forms of **innītor** (not occurring in Ciceronian Latin), as well as the form **innīxus**, may take the Dative, on the principle of **376**, or the Ablative, as above. Thus **innītitur hastae**, Ov. Met. 14, 665; **incolumitāte innītī**, Tac. 15, 60; **hastā innīxus**, Liv. 4, 19, 4; **cūrae innīxa**, Quintil. 6, 1, 35.

c. Other verbs of like meaning take a preposition; thus **sī in eō manērent**, B. G. 1, 36, 5. But a poet may omit it, as in **prōmissīs maneās**, Aen. 2, 160.

3. The Ablative, regularly with **in**, is used with **cōnstō** and **cōnsistō**, when meaning *depend upon*, and **cōnsistō** when meaning *consist in*.

monuit victōriam in eārum cohortium virtūte cōnstāre, *pointed out that victory depended upon the valor of these cohorts;* B. C. 3, 89, 3; cf. B. G. 7, 84, 4.

vīta omnis in vēnātiōnibus atque in studiīs reī mīlitāris cōnsistit, *their whole life consists in hunting and military pursuits;* B. G. 6, 21, 3.

a. But the Ablative without **in** also occurs.

cēterārum rērum studia et doctrīnā et praeceptīs et arte cōnstāre, *that in other fields intellectual pursuits depend upon principles, precepts, and art;* Arch. 8, 18.

b. **Cōnstō**, *consist of*, takes the construction of Material. See **406**, 4.

4. The Ablative is used with **contentus**, *content*, *satisfied*.

contentus hāc inīquitāte nōn fuit, *was not content with this iniquity;* Verr. 2, 38, 94.

a. **Contentus** originally meant *self-restrained* (*in*). Cf. **in illā cupiditāte continēbātur**, *restrained herself within that desire* (was content with it); Clu. 5, 12.

5. **Intentus** is used with the Ablative (probably Locative) in **aliquō negōtiō intentus**, *deeply engaged in some occupation or other;* Sall. Cat. 2, 9. Commonly it takes the Dative (*stretched toward* = *intent upon;* see **376**), or **ad** or **in** with the Accusative.

IV. ABLATIVE CONSTRUCTIONS OF COMPOSITE ORIGIN (FUSION)

Ablative of the Time at or within Which

439. *The Time at* or *within Which* anything is or is done may be expressed by the Ablative without a Preposition.

diē septimō pervenit, *arrives on the seventh day;* B. G. 1, 10, 5.

superiōre aestāte cognōverat, *had learned the previous summer;* B. G. 5, 8, 3.

bellō vacātiōnēs valent, *in time of war, exemptions hold;* Phil. 8, 1, 3.

comitiīs, *at the election;* Cat. 1, 5, 11. Similarly with words denoting *games* or *feasts*, as **lūdīs, gladiātōribus, epulīs, pulvīnāribus.**

a. The Preposition **in** is regularly used:

1) With a word denoting a *time of life*, unless this is accompanied by a modifier. Thus **in puerītiā**, *in boyhood*, Verr. 1, 18, 47; but **extrēmā puerītiā**, *at the end of boyhood*, Pomp. 10, 28.

2) With a word denoting an *office*, unless this is accompanied by a numeral. Thus **in cōnsulātū nostrō**, *in my consulship*, Arch. 11, 28; but **quārtō cōnsulātū**, *in his fourth consulship*, Sen. 13, 43.

3) In phrases expressing *situation*. Thus **in tālī tempore**, *in such a state of affairs*, Sall. Cat. 48, 5; **in cīvīlī bellō**, *in a civil war*, Phil. 2, 19, 47 (but **secundō Pūnicō bellō**, *in the second Punic war*, Off. 1, 13, 40, because only the *Time at Which* is meant).

4) With a *numeral*. Thus **ter in annō**, *thrice a year;* Rosc. Am. 46, 132.

b. The Time at Which is sometimes expressed by **cum** with the Ablative.

cum prīmā lūce in campum currēbat, *with the first* (streak of) *light he was running into the forum;* Att. 4, 3, 4.

c. The Time at Which may also be expressed by **ad** or **sub** (in later Latin with **circā** likewise), and the Time within Which by **intrā**, with the Accusative.

sub occāsum sōlis sē recēpērunt, *toward sunset they retired;* B. G. 2, 11, 6.

intrā annōs XIIII, *in fourteen years;* B. G. 1, 36, 7.

Rarer Ablative of Duration of Time

440. The Ablative is occasionally used to express *Duration of Time*.

tōtā nocte continenter iērunt, *went without break all night;* B. G. 1, 26, 5.

quī vīgintī annīs āfuit, *who was absent twenty years;* Bacch. 2.

Ablative of the Respect in Which

441. The *Respect in Which* the meaning of a Verb or Adjective is to be taken is expressed by the Ablative, regularly without a Preposition.

This Ablative answers the question, *In what? Wherein?*

cum virtūte omnibus praestārent, *since they surpassed all in bravery;* B. G. 1, 2, 2.

numerō ad duodecim, *about twelve in number;* B. G. 1, 5, 2.

alterō oculō capitur, *is blinded in one eye;* Liv. 22, 2, 11.

maiōrēs nātū, *the elders* (greater in respect of birth); B. G. 2, 13, 2. Similarly with **maximus, minor**, and **minimus**, *oldest, younger, youngest.*

a. The preposition **in** is occasionally used with abstract words. Thus **similem in fraude et malitiā**, *alike in knavery and wickedness*, Rosc. Com. 7, 20. Cf. **mōribus similēs**, *alike in character*, Clu. 16, 46.

b. **In** is *regularly* used with a pronoun, unless this is a relative. Thus **nōs nōn modo nōn vincī ā Graecīs verbōrum cōpiā, sed esse in eā etiam superiōrēs**, *that we are not only not surpassed by the Greeks in wealth of vocabulary, but are even superior in this;* Fin. 3, 2, 5.

c. The Respect in Which the meaning of a *noun* is to be taken must in general be expressed by the Genitive of Application (**354**), or the Ablative with **in**. Thus **virtūte praestārent** (in example above), but **praestantiam virtūtis** (see **354**) or **in virtūte**.

Apparent Exceptions occur in a few combinations. Thus **hominēs nōn rē, sed nōmine**, *human beings* (= human) *not in fact, but in name;* Off. 1, 30, 105.

d. Respect may also be expressed by **ad** with the Accusative. Thus **sitū praeclārō ad aspectum**, *with a site splendid in aspect;* Verr. 4, 52, 117.

Ablative with dignus and indignus

442. **Dignus** and **indignus**, *worthy* and *unworthy*, are followed by the Ablative.

cognitiōne dignum, *worthy of acquaintance;* Arch. 3, 5.
suppliciō dignī, *deserving punishment;* Cat. 3, 9, 22.
indigna homine līberō, *unworthy of a free man;* Rab. Perd. 5, 16.

a. The poets and later prose writers employ the same construction with **dignor**, *think worthy*. Thus **haud tālī mē dignor honōre**, *I do not deem myself worthy of such an honor;* Aen. 1, 335.

Descriptive Ablative

443. *Kind* or *External Aspect* may be expressed by the Ablative of a Noun accompanied by a modifier; also, in a few phrases, *Situation* or *Mental Condition*.

The construction may be either appositive or predicative.

C. Valerium Procillum, summā virtūte adulēscentem, *Gaius Valerius Procillus, a young man of the greatest courage;* B. G. 1, 47, 4.

C. Gracchus, clārissimō patre, avō, maiōribus, *Gaius Gracchus, a man with a distinguished father, grandfather, and ancestors in general;* Cat. 1, 2, 4.

"**sed quā faciēst?**" "**dīcam tibi: macilentō ōre, nāsō acūtō, corpore albō, oculīs nigrīs,**" "*but of what appearance is he?*" "*I'll tell you: he is a man with a spare face, a sharp nose, white skin, and black eyes*"; Capt. 646.

relīquit quōs virōs! quantō aere aliēnō! *what men he left behind him! how deep in debt* (in how great debt)! Cat. 2, 2, 4. (Situation.)

equidem cum spē sum maximā, tum maiōre etiam animō, *I for my part am in a state not only of the greatest hope, but of a still greater determination*, Q. Fr. 1, 2, 5, 16. (Mental Condition.)

a. In Ciceronian Latin this Ablative is generally attached to a *class*-name in apposition with the name of the person (as in the first example above). In later Latin, it is more freely attached to the name of the person (as in the second example above).

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b. **Statūra, fōrma,** and **corpus,** as really expressing the idea of *Kind*, may be used with either the Genitive or the Ablative. Thus **hominēs tantulae statūrae**, *men of such diminutive stature* (= such puny men), B. G. 2, 30, 4; **quā faciē, quā statūrā**, *of what appearance, of what stature*, Phil. 2, 16, 41.

c. **Genus** is not much used in the Ablative, **modus** never.

d. Groups containing adjectives in -is or the adjective **pār** are almost always in the Ablative. Thus **cōnstantiā singulārī**, *of exceptional steadfastness;* Pomp. 23, 68.

Ablative of Cause or Reason

444. *Cause* or *Reason* may be expressed by the Ablative without a Preposition.

cūrīs aeger, *sick with anxiety;* Aen. 1, 208.

metū relictās urbīs, *cities abandoned because of fear;* Pomp. 11, 32.

meā restitūtiōne laetātus est, *rejoiced in my return*, Planc. 10, 25.

a. The construction is especially frequent with verbs and adjectives of *taking pleasure, rejoicing, boasting*, or the opposite.[1]

b. The prepositions **dē, ex,** and **in** are occasionally used with one or another of these words. Thus **ex vulnere aeger**, *sick from a wound*, Rep. 2, 21, 38; **ex commūtātiōne rērum doleant**, *suffer from a change of fortune*, B. G. 1, 14, 5; **ut in hōc sit laetātus, quod . . .**, *so that he took pleasure in the fact that . . .*, Phil. 11, 4, 9.

c. Cause may also be expressed by **ob, per,** or **propter** with the Accusative. Thus **ob eās rēs**, *on account of these achievements*, B. G. 2, 35, 4.

d. **Causā** and **grātiā**, common with Genitives (**339**, *d*), were themselves originally Ablatives of Cause.

Ablative of Way or Manner

445. *Way* or *Manner* may be expressed by the Ablative, as follows:

1. With certain *very common* Nouns, by the Ablative without a Preposition. These are especially: **arte,** (**parī,** etc.) **certāmine, cōnsiliō** (*intentionally*), **cāsū, dolō, fraude, fūrtō, iūre, iniūriā, meritō,** (**hōc,** etc.) **modō** or **mōre, ope** and **opibus, ōrdine,** (**hōc,** etc.) **pactō, paucīs, ratiōne, rītū, sponte, vī** and **vīribus, viā, vitiō, voluntāte** (*voluntarily*).

[1] E.g. **angor, bacchor, dēlector, doleō, exsiliō, exsultō, gaudeō, glōrior, laetor, maereō, mē iactō**; and the adjectives **beātus, fēlīx, īnfēlīx, laetus, maestus, miser.**

sīve cāsū sīve cōnsiliō, *accidentally or by intention;* B. G. 1, 12, 6.
iūre an iniūriā, *rightly or wrongly;* Mil. 11, 31.
aliquō modō, *some way or other;* Arch. 5, 10.

a. The poets extend the usage. Thus **rīmīs**, *in chinks,* Aen. 1, 123; **cumulō**, *in a heap,* Aen. 1, 105; **cursū**, *on the run,* Aen. 5, 265.

2. With other Nouns, if *Concrete*, by the Ablative without a Preposition.

nūdō corpore pugnāre, *to fight with the body unprotected;* B. G. 1, 25, 4.
aequō animō moriar, *I shall meet death with a calm mind;* Cat. 4, 2, 3.
statuit nōn proeliīs neque aciē, sed aliō mōre bellum gerundum, *decided that the war must be carried on, not with engagements or in battle array, but in some other manner;* Sall. Iug. 54, 5.
pedibus proeliantur, *they fight on foot;* B. G. 4, 2, 3.

3. With other Nouns, if *Abstract*, by the Ablative with **cum** if no Adjective is used, and either with or without **cum** if an Adjective *is* used.

sī utrumque cum cūrā fēcerīmus, *if we do both things with care;* Quintil. 10, 7, 29.
magnā cum cūrā suōs fīnīs tuentur, *defend their boundaries with great care;* B. G. 7, 65, 3.
id summā cūrā conquīrimus, *this we search for with the greatest care;* Ac. 2, 3, 7.

a. Occasionally, other turns of expression are used. Thus **ad** (or **in**) **hunc modum**, *in this way;* **per vim**, *by violence;* **per iocum**, *in jest.*

Ablative with Verbs meaning *carry, hold, keep, receive, pour, depend*

446. 1. Verbs meaning *carry*, *hold*, *keep*, or *receive*,[1] and Verbs meaning *pour*,[2] may be followed by the Ablative.

quam equīs vexerat, *which* (legion) *he had brought on horseback;* B. G. 1, 43, 2.
castrīs sēsē tenēbat, *was keeping himself in his camp;* B. G. 3, 17, 5.
oppidīs recipere, *receive them in their towns;* B. G. 2, 3, 3.
vīna fundēbat paterīs, *was pouring wine from the sacrificial bowls;* Aen. 5, 98.

a. **In** is occasionally used with some of these words. Thus **equus in quō vehēbar**, *the horse on which I was riding,* Div. 2, 68, 14; **tempestātēs quae nostrōs in castrīs continērent**, *storms that kept our men in camp;* B. G. 4, 34, 4.

2. **Pendeō**, *hang*, *depend*, takes **in** or a separative Preposition when used with literal force, and either a Preposition or the bare Ablative when used with figurative force.

ex ūnīus vītā pendēre, *hung upon the life of one man;* Marc. 7, 22.
quae spē exiguā pendet, (our safety), *which hangs upon a slight hope;* Flacc. 2, 4.

[1] **Ferō, portō, gerō, vehō, sustineō, gestō; mē teneō, mē contineō; accipiō, recipiō.**
The Ablatives most used are **equō, nāve, castrīs, vāllō, fīnibus, oppidō, urbe, portū, tēctō** (and their plurals).
[2] **Fundō** and **lībō.**

Two Ideas suggested by a Single Ablative

447. An Ablative may suggest *two ideas* at the same time.

superiōribus proeliīs exercitātī, *trained in* (and *by*) *preceding battles;* B. G. 2, 20, 3. (Time and Means.)

quōrum adventū Rēmīs studium prōpugnandī accessit, *at* (and *because of*) *their coming, the Remi felt fresh energy for the attack;* B. G. 2, 7, 2. (Time and Cause.)

tranquillō silet, *in calm it lies silent;* Aen. 5, 127. (Time and Situation.)

PLACE-CONSTRUCTIONS

WITH NAMES OF TOWNS, domus, rūs, etc.

448. Introductory. A few classes of words were in such constant use to express place-relations that the preposition never became regular with them. These are: Names of Towns and Small Islands, the words for *home* and *country*, and a few others. Though the constructions belong to three different cases, they will be best remembered together.

449. To express the *Place Where*, names of Towns and Small Islands are put in the Locative, which in the Singular Number of the First or Second Declension is identical with the Genitive, and elsewhere with the Ablative.

Rōmae cōnsulēs, Carthāgine quotannīs annuī bīnī rēgēs creābantur, *at Rome consuls were elected yearly, at Carthage two annual kings;* Nep. Hann. 7, 4.

nātus Athēnīs, *born at Athens;* Iuv. 3, 80.

Cyprī vīsum, *seen at Cyprus;* B. C. 3, 106, 1.

a. Similarly **domī**, *at home*, **humī**, *on the ground*, **bellī** and **mīlitiae**, *in war*, **rūrī** or **rūre**, *in the country*, **forīs**, *out of doors*, **marī**, *at sea.* **Terrā**, *on land* (seldom standing alone) follows the apparent case of **marī**.

illī domī remanent, *the others remain at home;* B. G. 4, 1, 5.

rūrī adsiduus fuit, *he was constantly in the country;* Rosc. Am. 29, 81.

terrā marīque, *on land and sea;* Cat. 2, 5, 11.

b. A Locative **terrae** is also sometimes used in later Latin; e.g. **sacra terrae cēlāvimus**, *we hid the sacred objects in the earth;* Liv. 5, 51, 9. Similarly, probably, **sternitur terrae**, *stretches himself upon the earth;* Aen. 11, 87.

c. **Animī**, *in mind* (in origin a Locative), and, by analogy, the Genitive **mentis**, are used with verbs and adjectives of Mental Condition to express Respect. Thus **furēns animī**, *raging in his heart*, Aen. 5, 202; **pendet animī**, *is uncertain in mind*, Tusc. 4, 16, 35.

d. The poets and some later prose writers use the construction of **449** somewhat boldly. Thus **Crētae cōnsīdere**, *to settle in Crete* (a *large* island), Aen. 3, 161; **Rōmae Numidiaeque**, *in Rome and Numidia;* Sall. Iug. 33, 4.

450. To express the *Place Whither*, names of Towns and Small Islands are put in the Accusative without a Preposition.

Rōmam revertisse, *returned to Rome;* Mil. 23, 61.

Dēlum vēnit, *came to Delos;* Verr. 1, 17, 46.

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a. So sometimes Greek geographical names (as **Bosphorum**, Mur. 16, 34), including **Aegyptus**, *Egypt* (N. D. 3, 22, 56).

b. Similarly **domum**, *home*,[1] and **rūs**, *to the country*.

domum reditiōnis spē, *hope of returning home;* B. G. 1, 5, 3.

domum rediērunt, *went home again;* B. G. 1, 29, 3.

rūs ībō, *I am going to the country;* Eun. 216.

c. Latin expresses the relations of Place with exactness, no matter how many words may be used.

rēs ad Chrȳsogonum in castra L. Sullae Volāterrās dēfertur, *the matter is reported to Chrysogonus in the camp of Lucius Sulla at Volaterrae* (in the Latin, *to . . . to . . . to . . .*); Rosc. Am. 7, 20.

451. To express the *Place Whence*, names of Towns and Small Islands are put in the Ablative without a Preposition.

Rōmā profectus est, *set out from Rome;* Mil. 10, 27.

Dēlō proficīscitur, *sets out from Delos;* Verr. 1, 18, 46.

a. Similarly **domō**, *from home*, **rūre**, *from the country*.

domō dūxerat, *he had brought from home;* B. G. 1, 53, 4.

rūre advenit, *comes in from the country;* Hec. 190.

b. Letters are regularly dated *from* a place. Thus **Nōn. Nov. Brundisiō**, (from) *Brindisi, November 5;* Fam. 14, 12.

The Appositive with Names of Towns Where, Whither, or Whence

452. When an Appositive like **urbs, oppidum**, etc., is to be added to the name of the Town *Where*, *Whither*, or *Whence*, the full expression with the Preposition is regularly used.

Albae, in urbe opportūnā, *at Alba, a convenient city;* Phil. 4, 2, 6.

Tarquiniōs, in urbem flōrentissimam, *to Tarquinii, a very prosperous city;* Rep. 2, 19, 34.

Tusculō, ex clārissimō mūnicipiō, *from Tusculum, a very splendid town;* Font. 18, 41.

a. Exceptions occur. Thus **Antiochīae, celebrī quondam urbe**, *at Antioch, a once populous city*, Arch. 3, 4; **Capuam, urbem amplissimam**, *to Capua, a very flourishing city*, Leg. Agr. 2, 28, 76.

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[1] Similarly we say in English "go home," not "go to home."

Occasional Use of the Preposition with Names of Towns, etc.

453. A Preposition may be used with the Name of a Town:

1. To express *the neighborhood in, to,* or *from which.*

ad Cannās pugnam, *the battle at* (i.e. near) *Cannae;* Liv. 22, 58, 1.

ad Genāvam pervenit, *arrives before Geneva;* B. G. 1, 7, 1.

ab Zāmā discēdit, *withdraws from the neighborhood of Zama;* Sall. Iug. 61, 1.

a. With a noun, the *Adjective* is frequent to express the *neighborhood in which.* Thus **post Cannēnsem pugnam,** *after the battle at Cannae;* Liv. 23, 1, 1.

2. To express *the point reckoned from* or *toward.*

ā Bibracte nōn amplius mīlibus passuum XVIII aberat, *was not more than eighteen miles from Bibracte;* B. G. 1, 23, 1.

3. Occasionally *for sharper contrast.*

ab Arīminō Arrētium mittit, *sends from Rimini to Arezzo;* B. C. 1, 11, 4.

a. But at times the preposition seems to be used simply for the sake of variety (especially in poetry and later prose). Thus **et ab Trallibus et ā Magnēsiā et ab Ephesō ad dēdendās urbīs vēnērunt,** (*ambassadors*) *came from Tralles, from Magnesia, from Ephesus, to surrender their cities,* Liv. 37, 45, 1; **ab domō,** *from home,* Liv. 25, 31, 3.

Domī, domum, domō, etc., with Modifiers

454. 1. **Domī, domum,** and **domō** may be modified by a Possessive Genitive or a Possessive Pronoun or Adjective. Thus **domī Caesaris, domī meae, domī aliēnae,** *at Caesar's house, at my house, at the house of another.*

2. When **domus** means a house regarded simply as a *building,* a Preposition is regularly used in the above constructions. Thus **arma omnia in domum Gallōnī contulit,** *packed all the arms into the house of Gallonius;* B. C. 2, 18, 2.

3. In the ordinary meaning of *house* or *home,* either the bare case or the Preposition may be used, if the Noun is accompanied by a modifier. Thus **domī Caesaris** and **in domō Caesaris; M. Laecae domum** and **in M. Laecae domum** (Cat. 1, 4, 8).

4. "At a person's house" may also be expressed by **apud** or **ad** with the name of the person. Thus **apud M. Laecam,** *at the house of Marcus Laeca,* Cat. 2, 6, 12; **ad M'. Lepidum,** *at the house of Manius Lepidus,* Cat. 1, 8, 19.

SUMMARY OF THE USES OF CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS

455. The Accusative is always used with the Prepositions **ad, adversus** and **adversum, ante, apud, circā, circiter** and **circum, cis** and **citrā, contrā, ergā, extrā, īnfrā, inter, intrā, iūxtā, ob, penes, per, pōne** and **post, praeter, prope, propter, secundum, suprā, trāns, ultrā, versus** (380).

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a. **Propius** and **proximē** may, like **prope**, take the Accusative (380, *b*).

b. **Versus** follows its noun. But this is generally preceded by another preposition (**ad** or **in**) unless it is the name of a Town or Small Island (380, *a*).

456. The Ablative is always used with the Prepositions **ab, dē, ex,** and **sine**; **cōram, palam, prae,** and **prō**; **cum** (405, 407, 418).

a. **Prōcul** and **simul** may take the Ablative in poetry and later prose (405, *c*; 418, *b*).

457. 1. The Accusative is used with **in** and **sub** to express the Place *Whither something moves* (381), the Ablative to express the Place *Where something is* or *is done* (433).

2. The Accusative is regularly used with **subter**, *beneath* (382). In poetry, the Ablative *may* also be used to express the Place *beneath Which something is* or *is done* (382, *a*).

3. The Accusative is regularly used with **super** in the sense of *upon, at*, or *in addition*, the Ablative in the sense of *concerning* (383, 435).

458. 1. **Prīdiē** and **postrīdiē**, *the day before* and *the day after*, generally take the Accusative (of Time-Relation), but sometimes the Genitive (of Connection, 380, *c*).

2. **Clam**, *secretly*, is regularly an Adverb in Cicero's time, but takes the Ablative once. In early Latin it is either an Adverb, or a Preposition with the Accusative (407, 2).

3. **Palam** is *generally an Adverb*, but occasionally a Preposition with the Ablative after Cicero's time (407, 1, *a*).

4. **Tenus**, *up to* (postpositive; rare in Cicero's time), generally takes the Ablative, but sometimes the Genitive (407, 3).

GENERAL FORCES OF THE LATIN MOODS AND TENSES

459. General Introduction. 1. The Latin Subjunctive is made up of remains of two moods which in the parent speech had different forms: the Subjunctive, expressing the two distinct ideas of Will and Anticipation (I and II under **462**), and the Optative, expressing the five distinct ideas of Wish, Obligation or Propriety, Natural Likelihood, Possibility, and Ideal Certainty (III–VII under **462**).

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The probable development of these forces of the two moods was as follows:

a) In its earliest use in the parent speech, the Subjunctive probably expressed Will.[1] Next, it was also used to express Anticipation (Expectation, Futurity). Compare English "you will" and "he will," the regular form for the Future, and the (unfortunately) growing use of "I will" in place of "I shall" (the proper Future form), as in "I will be late, if I don't hurry."

b) In its earliest use in the parent speech, the Optative probably expressed Wish (Desire, etc.).[1] Next, it was also used to express something *generally desirable*, i.e. an act that was obligatory or proper in a *class of cases* ("should," "ought," as in "the priest should put on a white robe in sacrificing," the original feeling being "it is desirable that the priest should," etc.). Next, the use of the mood was extended to *individual* cases of obligation or propriety. Next, the mood was employed, just as English "should" and "ought" may be, to express what was *naturally likely* to happen, as in "there should be white violets next week." Next, in cases where there were difficulties in the way, the force of natural likelihood was weakened to that of *possibility* ("may perhaps"). And finally, in cases where the circumstances were strongly favorable, this same force of natural likelihood was strengthened to that of a *certainty of the mind*, i.e. an *ideal certainty* ("would certainly").

2. The Latin Subjunctive inherited all these powers. In addition, several constructions (VIII–XII under **462**) arose from two or more sources each (Composite Origin; **315**, 3), and others (XIII and XIV under **462**) through the influence of one or more constructions upon another (Analogy; **315**, 4).

460. Mood is the expression, through the form of the Verb, of certain *attitudes of mind* toward an act or state. Thus:

adestō, *let him be present* (attitude of commanding)
adsit, *may he be present!* (attitude of wishing)
nē adsit, *lest he be present* (attitude of fearing)
adest, *he is present* (attitude of recognizing a fact)

461. In English, mood-ideas are expressed mainly by auxiliaries. Thus, "I *will* go," "you *shall* go," "he *should* go," "he *may* go," "he *would* go," etc. In Latin, they are expressed mainly by the mere *form* (*mood*) of the verb.

a. But many attitudes of mind can be expressed only by special words, *combined with* an Infinitive, e.g. the attitude of Hesitation, as in dubitō adesse, *I hesitate to be present;* the attitude of Suspicion, as in suspicor eum adesse, *I suspect that he is present;* the attitude of Haste, as in properō adesse, *I hasten to be present.*

b. Certain other ideas can be expressed *either* by the mood *or* by a special word, combined with an Infinitive. Thus one may say either eat, *let him go* (Volitive; **501**, 3) or volō eum īre, *I want him to go* (**587**). In the former, the *mood* is volitive, in the latter, the *meaning* of the verb volō.

[1] *Will* has regard to something felt by the speaker to lie within his control; *Wish*, to something felt to lie outside of his control.

462. The Latin moods, with the principal ideas of which they are the expression, are as follows:

TABLE OF THE PRINCIPAL FORCES OF THE LATIN MOODS

Imperative		Of **Peremptory Command** (as in *work hard, succeed*).
Subjunctive	A. *Simple*	I. Of **Will** (Volitive Subjunctive, as in *I* WILL *succeed, he* SHALL *succeed*).
		II. Of **Anticipation** (Anticipatory Subjunctive, as in *until I* SHALL *succeed, he* SHALL *succeed, etc.*).
		III. Of **Wish** (Optative Subjunctive, as in MAY *I succeed!* MAY *he succeed!*).
		IV. Of **Obligation** or **Propriety** (as in *he* SHOULD *succeed*, meaning *it is his duty to succeed*).
		V. Of **Natural Likelihood** (as in *he* SHOULD *succeed*, meaning *he is likely to succeed*).
		VI. Of **Possibility** (Potential Subjunctive, as in *perhaps he* MAY *succeed*).
		VII. Of **Ideal Certainty** (as in *he* WOULD *succeed*).
	B. *Composite (Fusion)*	VIII. Of **Actuality** (Fact) in Consecutive Clauses (as in *so that he succeeds*).
		IX. Of **Condition** (as in *if he should succeed*).
		X. Of **Proviso** (as in *let him only succeed, provided he succeeds*).
		XI. Of **Request** or **Entreaty** (as in *let him do this*).
		XII. Of **Consent** or **Indifference** (as in *let him do it, he may do it*).
	C. *By Analogy*	XIII. Of **Indirect Discourse** (generally no change in English).
		XIV. By **Attraction** (generally no change in English).
Indicative		Of **Actuality**, i.e. Fact (as in *he* HAS *succeeded*, IS *succeeding*, etc.).

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a. The Volitive Subjunctive is so named from **volō**, *I will* (cf. English "volition"); the Anticipatory from the English word "anticipate," i.e. *look forward to, expect, foresee;* the Optative from **optō**, *I wish;* the Potential from **possum**, *I can* or *may*. The Subjunctive of Ideal Certainty is so named because, though it *asserts* just as much as the Indicative does, it does not, like that mood, assert a *fact*, but only a *mental* certainty, — a certainty that something *would be* true, or *would have been* true, under conditions that may be imagined.

463. In certain uses the Present and Future Indicative resemble the Subjunctive (**571, 572**). In certain others, the Present Indicative resembles the Future Indicative (**571**).

General Uses of the Negative Particles (for Reference)

464. 1. The Sentence-Negative for Imperative, Volitive, or Optative ideas is **nē**; for other ideas,[1] **nōn**.

For **nē**, the corresponding *connective* (*and not, nor*) is **nēve** or **neu**; for **nōn**, it is **neque** or **nec**.

a. **Nē . . . quidem, nihil, numquam, nēmō,** and **nūllus,** *not even, nothing, never,* etc., are used with all kinds of mood-ideas.

Thus, with a Volitive, **nihil fēcerīs,** *do nothing,* Att. 7, 8, 2; **numquam sīrīs,** *never permit,* Liv. 1, 32, 7; with an Indicative, **nihil fēcit,** *he did nothing,* Verr. 5, 5, 11; **numquam patiētur,** *he will never allow* (*it*), Phil. 6, 3, 6.

b. **Exceptional Uses with Imperative, Volitive, or Optative ideas.** In Ciceronian Latin **neque** (for **nēve**) occurs, though *after positive expressions* only, as follows: with the Imperative once (**habē . . . nec . . exīstimā,** Att. 12, 22, 3); in independent Prohibitions (**501**, 3) often (**moveor . . . nec . . . putāverīs,** Ac. 2, 46, 141); in independent Requests (**530**, 1) occasionally (e.g. **respuātur nec . . . haereat,** Cael. 6, 14); in dependent Volitive Clauses occasionally (e.g. in the clause of Purpose, **ut . . . praetermittam neque appellem,** Verr. 3, 48, 115).

In poetic and later Latin **neque** is used more freely for **nēve**, and even after *negatives*.

In double Prohibitions, **neque . . . neque . . .**, as well as **nē . . . nēve . . .**, are occasionally employed in all periods (e.g. **neque dēfīat neque supersit,** Men. 221; **neque dēdiderīs nec posuerīs,** Rep. 6, 23, 25).

c. In poetry after Cicero's time, **nōn** is occasionally used in Wishes in the true Optative (**511**, 1) without **utinam** (e.g. **nōn intermisceat,** Ecl. 10, 5), and even with the Imperative (e.g. **nōn onerāte,** Ov. A. A. 3, 129).

d. **Nōn** is freely used in all periods to negative the meaning of a single word.

> **pauca nūntiāte meae puellae nōn bona dicta,** *take a brief message, not a kindly one, to my mistress;* Catull. 11, 15.

2. But the Negative *changed* in certain constructions:

a) In consequence of the *weakening* of an original force.

> Thus the feeling of Volition was weak in many Questions of Volitive origin (**503**) and wholly disappeared in the Exclamation of Surprise. Hence **nōn** came to be the negative in *all* these Questions or Exclamations.

b) In consequence of the *change* of an original force.

> Thus the Optative and Volitive Subjunctives gave rise, in certain kinds of sentences, to the idea of Obligation ("ought," "should"; see **512**). But this idea is one of *statement*, and, *as such*, naturally took the negative **nōn** or **neque**. Similarly, the Subjunctive with **utinam** is of Potential descent, and must originally have taken the negatives **nōn** and **neque**; but it came to have the meaning of a Wish and, in consequence, to take **nē** and **nēve** (**511**, 1).

[1] All these others (in the finite verb) are ideas of Statement (or corresponding Questions), except the Anticipatory idea, which was *originally* one of Statement.

3. On the other hand, an original Negative may *survive* in occasional or even frequent use, *alongside of* a new one.

Thus the original nē, as well as nōn, is found in Statements of Obligation or Propriety (**513**, 1), and the original nōn, as well as nē, in Wishes with **utinam** (**511**, 1).

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GENERAL FORCES OF THE LATIN TENSES

A. ORDINARY FORCES

465. Tense is the expression, through the form of the Verb, of *ideas of time.*

466. 1. **Tenses of the Stage.** An act may be represented as *in a certain stage of advancement* at a time which is in mind, namely as completed, in progress,[1] or yet to come. Thus:

aedificāveram, *I had built* (act completed)
aedificābam, *I was building* (act in progress)
aedificātūrus eram, *I was going to build* (act yet to come)

a. The Tenses of the Stage may also be called *Tenses of the Situation* (State of Affairs), or *Descriptive Tenses*, since they tell *how things were*, *are* or *will be*, at the time which is in mind. These phrases will be used interchangeably.

2. **Aoristic Tenses.** *Or*, an act may be represented *in summary* (i.e. as a *whole*). Thus:

aedificāvī, *I built*

467. 1. An act is generally seen as in a certain stage only *when referred to* some particular time which is in mind. Hence the tenses of the stage are generally *Relative* (i.e. relatively *present*, relatively *past*, or relatively *future*).

a. The particular time *with reference to which* an act is seen as in a certain stage may conveniently be called either the Point of Reference or the Point of View.

2. An act thought of as a whole (i.e. aoristically) may be looked at either without, or with, reference to a particular time, i.e. either *Absolutely* or *Relatively*.

a. The aoristic tenses of the Indicative are always absolute (examples in **478**). The Subjunctive tenses, when used with aoristic force, are sometimes absolute (examples in **478**), sometimes relative (examples in **477**, *b*).

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[1] The phrases *in progress*, *progressive*, *going on*, and *incomplete* all mean substantially the same thing, and will be used interchangeably.

MEANINGS OF THE TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE, IN DETAIL

468. The tenses of the Indicative are as follows:[1]

1. The **Present Indicative** represents an act as *in progress at the time of speaking* (Progressive Present). Thus **aedificat**, *he is building.*

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a. The **Present Indicative** may also represent a present act *seen aoristically.* Thus **aedificat**, *he builds.*

b. The **Present Indicative** may express a permanent truth or custom (Universal Present). Thus **libenter hominēs id quod volunt crēdunt**, *men readily believe what they want to believe;* B. G. 3, 18, 6.

c. For the Historical use of the Present, see **491**, 1.

2. The **Imperfect Indicative** represents an act as *in progress at a past time.* Thus **aedificābat**, *he was building.*

3. The **Future Indicative** represents an act as *in progress at a future time.* Thus **aedificābit**, *he will be building.*

a. The **Future Indicative** may also represent a *future act seen aoristically.* Thus **aedificābit**, *he will build.*

4. The **Perfect Indicative**, in the sense of a *Present Perfect*,[2] represents an act as, *at the time of speaking, completed.* Thus **aedificāvit**, *he has built.*

a. The **Perfect Indicative**, in the sense of a *Past Aorist*,[3] represents a *past act seen aoristically.* Thus **aedificāvit**, *he built.*

5. The **Past Perfect Indicative** (commonly called Pluperfect) represents an act as, *at a past time, completed.* Thus **aedificāverat**, *he had built.*

6. The **Future Perfect Indicative** represents an act as, *at a future time, completed.* Thus **aedificāverit**, *he will have built.*

7. The **Periphrastic Futures** represent acts as, *in the present*, *past*, or *future* respectively, *yet to come.*[4] Thus **aedificātūrus est, erat,** or **erit**, *he is*, *was*, or *will be*, *about to build.*

NOTE. Notice that the Present Indicative serves for both the Present Aorist and the Present Progressive (**aedificō**, *build* and *am building*); the Future for the Future Aorist and the Future Progressive (**aedificābō**, *shall build* and *shall be building*); and the Perfect for the Past Aorist and the Present Perfect (**aedificāvī**, *built* and *have built*).

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1 The tenses of the Passive correspond, e.g. **domus aedificābātur, aedificāta erat, aedificanda erat**, *the house was building, had been built, was going to be built.*

2 Often called the Perfect Definite.

3 Often called the Perfect Indefinite, or the Historical Perfect.

4 The *periphrastic futures* of the Active and Passive, taken together, may conveniently be called the Tenses of Impending Action.

MEANINGS OF THE TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE, IN DETAIL

469. Each Subjunctive tense has the force *of the Indicative tense of the same name;* and, in addition, each has a *future* force. Accordingly,

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470. 1. The Imperfect Subjunctive expresses an act as, *at a certain past time*, (1) in progress, or (2) yet to come; the Past Perfect expresses an act as, *at a certain past time*, (1) already completed, or (2) yet to come (and thought of as in a completed state [1]); the Present expresses an act as, *at the present time*, (1) in progress, or (2) yet to come; and the Perfect expresses an act as, *at the present time*, (1) already completed, or (2) yet to come (and thought of as in a completed state [1]).

The Subjunctive has no special tenses for the third great division of time, — the Future, — but uses over again the tenses belonging to the Present, namely, the so-called Present and Perfect.

SUMMARY. The Imperfect and Past Perfect Subjunctive are *tenses of a past point of view*, while the Present and Perfect Subjunctive are *tenses of the present* or *future point of view*.

a. In Wishes, Conditions, and Conclusions, the Imperfect and Past Perfect Subjunctive refer to either the *present* or the *past*, and represent the act as *contrary to fact*. See **510**, *a;* **581**, *a*, remark.

2. The Subjunctive has its *Aorists* also, with the same names as the Aorists of the Indicative, namely, the Perfect and the Present; thus **rogās cūr aedificāverim**, *you ask why I* BUILT; **rogās cūr aedificem**, *you ask why I* BUILD; **aes aliēnum faciō, ut aedificem**, *I am borrowing money, in order that I* MAY *build.* The Imperfect, too, may be used with aoristic meaning; thus **aes aliēnum fēcī, ut aedificārem**, *I borrowed money, in order that I* MIGHT BUILD.

3. Like the Indicative tenses, the tenses of the Subjunctive have the power of expressing an act or state *relatively* (i.e. as relatively *past*, relatively *present*, or relatively *future* or *subsequent* [2]).

4. The Subjunctive possesses periphrastic forms, corresponding to those of the Indicative, to express an act as, *at a certain time*, yet to come, e.g. **aedificātūrus esset**, or **sit**, *he was*, *is*, or *will be*, GOING *to build.*

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[1] Note that the Past Perfect Subjunctive thus fills the place of a *Future Perfect Subjunctive from a past point of view*, and the Perfect Subjunctive the place of a *Future Perfect Subjunctive from a present or future point of view.*

[2] In Consecutive Clauses (**519**, 3, *a;* **521**, 1, *e*), the act mostly takes place *after* that which brought it about, i.e. *subsequently.*

a. These Periphrastic Futures are used when the other forms would be ambiguous; hence in Indirect Questions of Fact (**537**), Consecutive Clauses (**521**), Causal-Adversative Clauses (**523**), and (generally) **quīn**-Clauses after **nōn dubitō** (**521**, 3, *b*). Thus:

rogāvit quid factūrus essem, *asked what I was going to do* (past situation).
rogat " " **sim**, *asks what I am going to do* (present situation).
rogābit " " **sim**, *will ask what I am* (shall then be) *going to do* (future situation).

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MEANINGS OF THE TENSES OF THE IMPERATIVE

471. The so-called Present Imperative refers to *the immediate future*, the Future Imperative to *the more remote future*.

aedificā, *build* (now). **cum redieris, aedificātō**, *build after you return.*

MEANINGS OF THE TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE

472. The tenses of the Infinitive express an act as, at the time of the verb on which they depend, *completed* (Perfect Infinitive), *in progress* (Present Infinitive), or *yet to come* (Future Infinitive). They cannot, of themselves alone, show in which of the three divisions of time the act expressed by them belongs. They are thus purely *relative*.

Present, **aedificāre**, *to be building*	**aedificārī**, *to be building* (to be being built)
Perfect, **aedificāvisse**, *to have built*	**aedificātus esse**, *to have been built*
Future, **aedificātūrus esse**, *to be going to* (intending to) *build*	**aedificātum īrī**, *to be going to be built*

a. Like the Indicative and Subjunctive tenses, the tenses of the Infinitive have the secondary power of expressing an act as *prior*, *contemporaneous*, or *future* to the time which is in mind.

Thus **dīcit sē aedificāvisse**, *he says that he has built* (he says **aedificāvī**, *I have built*); **dīxit sē aedificāvisse**, *he said that he had built;* **dīcit aedificāre**, *he says that he is building* (he says **aedificō**); **dīxit sē aedificāre**, *he said that he was building;* **dīcit sē aedificātūrum esse**, *he says that he shall build* (he says **aedificābō**, or **aedificātūrus sum**); **dīxit sē aedificātūrum esse**, *he said that he should build.*

b. These three tenses may also be used aoristically in dependence upon the present tense of a verb of *saying*, *thinking*, or the like. Thus **dīcit sē aedificāvisse**, *he says that he built* (he says **aedificāvī**, *I built*).

c. For verbs having no Future Infinitive, this form is replaced by **fore** or **futūrum esse** with **ut** and the Subjunctive, in either voice; and the same equivalent *may* be used for the Future Infinitive of *any verb.*

magnam in spem veniēbat fore utī pertināciā dēsisteret, (*Caesar*) *was coming to have great hopes that* (*Ariovistus*) *would give up his obstinacy* (that it would be the case that he would . .); B. G. 1, 42, 3.

futūrum utī tōtīus Galliae animī ā sē āverterentur, (he said) *that the affections of the whole of Gaul would be turned away from him;* B. G. 1, 20, 4.

d. The auxiliary posse with the Present Infinitive of *any* verb may form an equivalent for the Future Infinitive.

tōtīus Galliae sēsē potīrī posse spērant, *they hope to be able to master the whole of Gaul* (=sēsē potītūrōs esse spērant, *they hope that they will master* . . .); B. G. 1, 3, 8.

MEANINGS OF THE TENSES OF THE PARTICIPLE

473. The tenses of the Participle express an act as, at the time of the main verb, *completed* (Perfect Passive Participle), *in progress* (Present Active Participle), or *yet to come* (Future Active and Future Passive Participle). They are thus, like the tenses of the Infinitive (**472**), purely relative.

Present Active, aedificāns, *building*
Perfect Passive, aedificātus, *built*
Future Active, aedificātūrus, *about to build*
Future Passive, aedificandus, *about to be built*

USES OF INDICATIVE, SUBJUNCTIVE, AND IMPERATIVE TENSES IN COMBINATIONS OF VERBS

474. INTRODUCTORY. 1. The subordinate act generally belongs in *the same temporal scene* with the main act, and so necessarily in the same great division of time with it (*both* in the past, *both* in the present, or *both* in the future). Naturally, it is generally looked at as it was, is, or will be, *at the time of that act*, and so is expressed by a *relative* tense. Hence the facts noted in **476**.

2. But the subordinate act *may* belong *in a different division of time* from the main act, or, though belonging in the same division of time, it *may* be looked at *absolutely*, so far as tense is concerned. Hence the facts noted in **478**.

3. Rarely, there is a purely mechanical harmony of tenses. See **480**.

475. Any combination of tenses is possible for which the corresponding combination of *meanings* is possible. In addition, combinations with purely mechanical harmony sometimes occur. The possibilities may be tabulated as follows:

A.	With true tense-force (Indicative or Subjunctive)	I.	Acts in Temporal Relation (**476**)
		II.	Acts not in Temporal Relation (**478**)
B.	Without true tense-force (Subjunctive only)	III.	Tenses in Mechanical Harmony (**480**)

I. USUAL COMBINATIONS OF TENSES ("SEQUENCE OF TENSES")

(Acts *in temporal relation*)

476. A main[1] tense of the past[2] is generally accompanied by a dependent Imperfect or Past Perfect, and a main tense of the present or future by a dependent Present, Perfect, Future, or Future Perfect.[3]

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INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
Helvētiī reliquōs Gallōs virtūte praecēdunt, quod ferē cotidiānīs proeliīs cum Germānīs contendunt, *the Helvetians surpass the rest of the Gauls in prowess, because they engage in almost daily encounters with the Germans;* B. G. 1, 1, 4.	id autem difficile nōn est, cum tantum equitātū valeāmus, *this, however, is not difficult, since we are so strong in cavalry;* B. C. 3, 86, 4.
Caesar ālāriōs omnīs in cōnspectū hostium cōnstituit, quod minus multitūdine mīlitum legiōnāriōrum prō hostium numerō valēbat, *Caesar placed all his auxiliaries in sight of the enemy, because he was weak in the number of his legionaries as compared with that of the enemy;* B. G. 1, 51, 1.	hī cum per sē minus valērent, quod antīquitus summa auctōritās erat in Haeduīs, Germānōs atque Ariovistum sibi adiūnxerant, *the latter, since they were not strong in themselves, because in early times the largest influence lay with the Haeduans, had bound the Germans and Ariovistus to themselves;* B. G. 6, 12, 2.

477. These relations between main and subordinate verbs appear not only when the latter are subordinate in form, but also when, though subordinate in *feeling*, they are *independent* in *form* (paratactic; 227); for the relations are, in fact, relations of thought. And they hold for *Indicatives and Subjunctives alike.*

RELINQUĒBĀTUR ūna per Sēquanōs via, quā Sēquanīs invītīs propter angustiās īre nōn POTERANT. Hīs cum suā sponte persuādēre nōn POSSENT, lēgātōs ad Dumnorīgem Haeduum MITTUNT, ut eō dēprecātōre ā Sēquanīs IMPETRĀRENT. Dumnorīx apud Sēquanōs plūrimum POTERAT, *there* WAS LEFT *only the way through the land of the Sequani; and by this, on account of the narrowness of the pass, they* WERE UNABLE *to go without the consent of the*

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[1] I.e. any tense on which another depends.

[2] The tenses of the past, Indicative or Subjunctive (Perfect Aorist, Past Perfect, and Imperfect), are often called "secondary" or "historical," and the tenses of the present or future (Present, Future, Present Perfect, and Future Perfect), "primary."

[3] Since Periphrastic Futures contain an erat, est, etc., this statement includes them.

Sequani. Failing (when they WERE UNABLE) *to persuade the latter by themselves, they send* (= SENT) *ambassadors to Dumnorix the Haeduan, in order that, through his intercession, they* MIGHT OBTAIN *what they wanted of the Sequani. Dumnorix* POSSESSED *great influence with the Sequani;* B. G. 1, 9, 1–3. (The externally independent **relinquēbātur** and the dependent **poterant** and **possent** alike express a *past situation*, i.e. the situation existing at the time when **mittunt** took place; and **poterat** again expresses situation for the next main act, to which the narrative moves on. **Poterant** and **possent** differ only in mood, being *identical in point of tense-meaning*. **Impetrārent** expresses an act belonging in the same general temporal scene with the rest, but yet to come, — a *past purpose*).

quāpropter dēcernite diligenter, ut īnstituistis, ac fortiter. Habētis eum cōnsulem quī pārēre vestrīs dēcrētīs nōn dubitet, *therefore decide with careful thought, as you* HAVE BEGUN, *and boldly. You* HAVE *a consul who* HAS *no hesitation in following your decisions;* Cat. 4, 11, 24. (**Dēcernite** expresses a command looked at from the *present;* **īnstituistis, habētis,** and **nōn dubitet** express the *present* situation, under which the act of **dēcernite** is to be performed.)

a. If the meaning is that of Contrariety to Fact (**581**) the Imperfect and Past Perfect are necessarily employed *after a main verb of any time*, except as shown in **581**, *b*, 2).

moriar, sī magis gaudērem, sī id mihi accidisset, *may I die, if I should be more pleased if it had happened to myself;* Att. 8, 6, 3.

b. The relative tenses of the Indicative all express *situation;* the aoristic tenses of the Indicative do not (**467**, 2, *a*).

The Subjunctive tenses, when used with relative force, may express either the idea of situation, or the aoristic idea. Thus, either a situation, or an act seen in summary, may be put as relatively future to a past time.

Thus **ut suppeteret** in B. G. 1, 3, 1 expresses a past-future *situation;* **nē committeret,** B. G. 1, 22, 3, a past-future act seen *aoristically;* **ut nōn possent,** B. G. 3, 15, 3, a subsequent *situation* in the past (in *tense*, **possent** = **poterant**); **ut redintegrārent,** B. G. 2, 27, 1, a result seen *aoristically*, but *in temporal relation* (namely, as *subsequent*) to the time of the main verb. With the last, compare the absolute tense in **ut āmīserit,** **478**, and the explanation there given.

c. In any expression of thought, the most important acts or states are selected for the principal statements, and expressed by *absolute* tenses (**467**, 2), which may therefore be called *principal* (or *leading*) tenses. The side-lights upon these principal acts or states are expressed by *relative* tenses (**467**, 1), which may therefore be called *auxiliary* (or *helping*) tenses. Thus, in the first example above, **mittunt** is a principal tense, while **relinquēbātur, poterant,** and **possent** are auxiliary tenses.

II. LESS USUAL COMBINATIONS OF TENSES ("Exceptions to the Sequence")

(Acts *not* in temporal relation)

478. A main tense is sometimes accompanied by a tense belonging to a different division of time, or by an absolute tense belonging to the same division of time.

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INDICATIVE

id hōc facilius iīs persuāsit, quod undique locī nātūrā Helvētiī continentur, *he* FOUND *it easier to persuade them for the reason that the Helvetians, by the very character of the country,* ARE HEMMED *in on all sides;* B. G. 1, 2, 3. (Main act in past, while the reason is an ever-present one.)

nunc incipiunt crēdere fuisse hominēs Rōmānōs hāc quondam continentiā, quod iam nātiōnibus exterīs incrēdibile vidēbātur; *now they* BEGIN *to believe that there once were Romans possessed of this self-restraint, which thing* WAS BEGINNING TO SEEM *incredible to foreign nations;* Pomp. 14, 41.

ab senātū impetrātum (est); tantum āfuit ut ex incommodō aliēnō occāsiō peterētur, *the request* WAS *granted by the senate; so far* WERE *they from taking advantage of another's dilemma;* Liv. 4, 58, 2. (**Āfuit** is in the same temporal scene with **impetrātum (est)**, but is looked at absolutely.)

superiōra illa, quamquam ferenda nōn fuērunt, tamen, ut potuī, tulī, *the earlier things, though they* WERE *intolerable, I nevertheless* BORE, *as well as I* COULD; Cat. 1, 7, 18. (The tense of **fuērunt** is absolute.)

id fēcit, quod nōluit eum locum vacāre, *he* DID *this because he* DID *not wish this territory to lie open;* B. G. 1, 28, 4. (The tense of **nōluit** is absolute.)

SUBJUNCTIVE

fīlius pertimuit nē ea rēs mihi nocēret, cum praesertim adhūc stilī poenās dem, *my son* FEARED *that the affair might do me harm, especially since I* AM *still* PAYING *the penalty for my writing;* Fam. 6, 7, 1. (Past fear, with reason still present.)

cuius reī tanta est vīs ut Ithacam sapientissimus vir immortālitātī antepōneret, *so great* IS *the power of this* (love of country) *that the wisest of men preferred his Ithaca to immortality;* De Or. 1, 44, 196. (In tense, **antepōneret** = **antepōnēbat.**)

ita est mulcātus ut vītam āmīserit, *he* WAS *so maltreated that he* LOST *his life;* Mil. 14, 37. (**Āmīserit** is in the same temporal scene with **est mulcātus**, but is looked at absolutely. Similarly **ut dēfuerit**, B. G. 2, 21, 5.)

cum ab hōrā septimā ad vesperum pugnātum sit, āversum hostem vidēre nēmō potuit, *though the battle* LASTED *from the seventh hour till evening, nobody* COULD *catch sight of an enemy's back;* B. G. 1, 26, 2.

fuit mīrificā vigilantiā, quī suō tōtō cōnsulātū somnum nōn vīderit, *he* WAS *a wonderfully wide-awake man, for in his whole consulship he* KNEW *no sleep;* Fam. 7, 30, 1.

a. Unrelated tenses are less frequent in Subjunctive than in Indicative clauses, because the bond of thought is generally closer between a Subjunctive clause and the main sentence.

Thus a Purpose necessarily exists *at the time of the main act* which is performed in order to bring it about, and its tense will accordingly be a relative one.

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479. The combination of a Present with a Past or Future Aorist, or of these with each other, is natural and common.[1]

illī aliēnum, quia poēta fuit, post mortem etiam expetunt, *they claim a foreigner, even after his death, because he was a poet;* Arch. 9, 19.

quid fēcerim, nārrābō, *I 'll tell you what I did;* De Or. 2, 48, 198.

a. Such a Past Aorist may of course be accompanied by dependent tenses of the Past. The Past Aorist thus often serves as a *bridge of passage* from a past temporal scene to a present one, or *vice versa.*

Dependent Indicative	Dependent Subjunctive
QUAERŌ **cūr bona quae** POSSIDĒBAT **nōn** VĒNDIDERIT, *my question* IS *why he* DID *not sell the goods of which he* WAS *possessed;* Quinct. 24, 76.	QUAERĀMUS **quae tanta vitia** FUERINT **in ūnicō fīliō, quārē is patrī** DISPLICĒRET, LET *us* INQUIRE *what so great faults there* WERE *in this only son, that he* WAS *obnoxious to his father;* Rosc. Am. 14, 41. Similarly Cat. 3, 9, 21, and often.

III. (RARE) MECHANICAL HARMONY OF SUBJUNCTIVE TENSES

480. A Subjunctive tense is sometimes put, without true tense-meaning, into mechanical harmony with that of a Subjunctive main verb.

This happens especially in the Subjunctive by (Mechanical) Attraction (**539**), and in Indirect Questions depending upon constructions Contrary to Fact.

respondērem sī, quem ad modum parātī essēmus, scīrem, *I should answer, if I knew in what fashion we were* (i.e. *are*) *prepared;* Att. 7, 18, 1.

Alternative Tense-Usages

481. Tenses in Clauses Dependent on a Present Perfect. The Present Perfect covers both the past act and the present result. Hence an act

[1] This is because it is the very nature of the aorists to express an act as it looks *from the present.* The mind, standing *at* the present, looks easily in either direction.

dependent upon a Present Perfect may be seen *either* in connection with the Past *or* in connection with the Present, and consequently either kind of tense may be used.

Thought mainly concerned with the Present	Thought mainly concerned with the Past
haec tibi SCRĪPSĪ, quia dē omnibus quae mē vel dēlectant vel angunt tēcum loquī SOLEŌ, *this I* HAVE WRITTEN *to you, for the reason that I* AM *in the habit* (present reason) *of talking over with you everything that* GIVES *me pleasure or annoyance,* (continued on the right.)	deinde, quod dūrum EXĪSTIMĀBAM tē fraudāre voluptāte quam ipse CAPIĒBAM, *and, secondly,* (I have written) *because it* SEEMED *to me* (reason of the time of beginning the writing) *unkind to cheat you of the pleasure which I myself* WAS TAKING ; Plin. Ep. 5, 1, 12.
rērum nātūra nūllam nōbīs DEDIT cognitiōnem fīnium, ut ūllā in rē statuere POSSĪMUS, 'quātenus,' *nature* HAS *not equipped us with power to draw the line so that we* ARE *in any matter able to determine 'how far';* Ac. 2, 29, 92. (Present Result; that which nature has accomplished *is* not that . . .)	mentēs enim hominum audācissimōrum scelerātae ac nefāriae nē vōbīs nocēre POSSENT, ego PRŌVĪDĪ, *for I* HAVE *taken precautions, to the end that the wicked and abominable purposes of abandoned men* SHOULD *do you no harm ;* Cat. 3, 12, 27. (Past Aim ; in what I have done, my purpose *was* . . .)

482. Permanent Truths in Clauses Dependent on a Verb of the Past.

1. That which is permanently true was of course true in the past, and, if connected in thought with a past act, will generally be seen and stated as it *then was* (i.e. by a tense of past situation).[1]

2. But a permanent truth will occasionally be seen and stated as such (i.e. by a tense of present situation), in spite of its being connected in thought with a past act.[2]

Indicative	Subjunctive
(1) Permanent truth in its aspect at a past time (tenses of past situation)	
mōns altissimus impendēbat, *a lofty mountain* OVERHUNG ; B. G. 1, 6, 1. (It still does, of course, when Caesar writes ; but *that* fact is not the important one.)	certior factus est montīs quī impendērent ā maximā multitūdine tenērī, *he was informed that the mountains which* OVERHUNG *were held by a very large body of men ;* B. G. 3, 2, 1. (The *tense*-meaning of impendērent is the same as that of impendēbat opposite.)

1 E.g. you WERE a kind-hearted fellow: that's why you helped me.
2 E.g. you ARE a kind-hearted fellow: that's why you helped me.

(2) **Permanent truth in its general aspect** (present tenses)

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
id (frūmentum) erat perexiguum, quod sunt loca aspera ac montuōsa, *the grain was very scanty, because the district* IS *rough and mountainous;* B. C. 3, 42, 5.	hīc, quantum in bellō fortūna possit, cognōscī potuit, *at this juncture it was possible to recognize how great* IS *the power of Fortune in war;* B. G. 6, 35, 2.

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NOTE. Both the Romans and we of English speech more frequently describe permanent facts of *external* nature by putting them in the same temporal scene with the main act; but we are more likely than the Romans to put permanent facts of *human* nature as always true (present tense).

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE DEPENDING UPON AN INFINITIVE

483. The Tenses of Subjunctive Clauses depending upon an Infinitive express meaning in the same way as Subjunctive Clauses depending upon Finite Verbs (**475-482**), and the combinations are accordingly the same.

It should be borne in mind that the Perfect Infinitive, like the Perfect Indicative, may be used either as a Past Aorist or as a Present Perfect.

dīcō patefactum esse Pontum, quī anteā clausus fuisset, *I say that Pontus was laid open, which before that time had been closed;* Pomp. 8, 20. (The tense of fuisset is relative, the point of view being that of the Past Aorist Infinitive patefactum esse. Cf. hī cum valērent, **476**.)

cuius adventū ipsō, tametsī ille ad maritimum bellum vēnerit, tamen impetūs hostium repressōs esse intellegunt, *by whose mere arrival, though he came for a war by sea, they know that none the less the attacks of* (*these*) *enemies were checked;* Pomp. 5, 13. (The tense of vēnerit is absolute. Cf. cum pugnātum sit, **478**.)

id mihi īnstituisse videntur quod neque in vulgus disciplīnam efferrī velint, neque . . . , *this* (custom) *they seem to me to have established for the reason that they do not wish their knowledge to be spread abroad, nor . . .;* B. G. 6, 14, 4. (Quod velint is put as a permanent truth in its general aspect. Cf. **482**, (2).)

B. SPECIAL FORCES GAINED BY VARIOUS TENSES

484. Tenses of Habitual [1] Action, or of Attempted [2] Action. The tenses expressing action as *going on* (Imperfect, Present, Future) gained also the power of expressing *habitual action* or *attempted action*.

[1] Also called "Repeated" or "Customary." [2] Also called "Conative."

Carthāgine quotannīs bīnī rēgēs creābantur, *at Carthage two kings used to be elected annually;* Nep. Hann. 7, 4. (Habitual action.)

quī poenam removet, *who is for removing the penalty;* Cat. 4, 4, 7. (Attempted action. Similarly **faciēbās,** *you were trying to do;* Cat. 1, 5, 13.)

C. Flāminiō restitit agrum Gallicum dīvidentī, *resisted Gaius Flaminius, who was trying to apportion the Gallic territory;* Sen. 4, 11. (Attempted action.)

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a. But a past habit *may* be looked at aoristically, and so be expressed by the Past Aorist (Perfect).

maiōrēs sīc habuērunt, *our ancestors held this view;* Cato Agr. Intr. 1.

485. Expressions of duration of time (e.g. **iam diū, iam dūdum,** or a noun of time), when added to a tense of action in progress (Imperfect, Present, or Future) show the action to have been *already* going on for the amount of time indicated.

tē iam dūdum hortor, *I have long been urging you;* Cat. 1, 5, 12.

iam dūdum flēbam, *I had long been weeping;* Ov. Met. 3, 656.

cum iam amplius hōrīs sex pugnārētur, *when the battle had now been going on for more than six hours;* B. G. 3, 5, 1.

sēcum ipse diū volvēns, *having pondered for a long time;* Sall. Iug. 113, 1.

486. 1. The Imperfect may be used to express the discovery of a state of affairs *existing before.*

"quid agitur, Aeschine?" "Ehem, pater mī, tū hīc erās?" *"what's going on, Aeschinus?" "Why, father, were you here?"* Ad. 901.

2. The Future may be used to express the discovery of a state of affairs *now existing.*

sīc erit, *you'll find it so* (it will be so); Ph. 801.

487. In several verbs the Present Perfect, Past Perfect, and Future Perfect have come to express a present, past, or future *state.* Thus **nōvī,** (*have learned*) *know,* **cōnsuēvī,** *am accustomed,* **meminī,** *remember,* **ōdī,** *hate,* **coepī,** *begin,* etc. Similarly, sometimes, in other verbs. Thus **cōnstiterant,** *had taken their stand,* = *were standing;* B. G. 1, 24, 3.

488. The Perfect of Experience[1] is sometimes used in the place of a general present.

lūdus enim genuit īram, *for contests in sport beget hatred* (have in the past begotten); Ep. 1, 19, 48.

489. The Perfect is sometimes used to indicate an act or state as *no longer existing.*

fuit Īlium, *Ilium is no more* (Ilium once was); Aen. 2, 324.

[1] Also called the "Gnomic Perfect."

490. Energetic or Emphatic Perfect. Tenses of completed action are often employed instead of tenses of incomplete action, to express *haste*, *thoroughness*, or *positiveness*. (Cf. English "begone" for "go.")

"rape mē: quid cessās?" "Fēcerō," "*hurry me there: why are you so slow?*" "*I'll do it at once*"; Ph. 882.

periimus, *we are dead and buried*; Trin. 515. (We have perished. Cf. perierīs in **511**, 1.)

sīt īnscrīptum in fronte ūnīuscuiusque, quid dē rē pūblicā sentiat, *be it written once for all on every man's forehead what are his sentiments with regard to the Commonwealth*; Cat. 1, 13, 32.

illōs monitōs volō, *I want them to understand well . . .*; Cat. 2, 12, 27.

tē interfectum esse convenit, *you ought to be killed and have done with it*; Cat. 1, 2, 4. (Interficī would have meant simply *be killed*. Cf. trucīdārī, **582**, 3, *a*.)

neque ego ausim, *nor should I for a moment venture*; Sat. 1, 10, 48.

nē dubitārīs mittere, *do not hesitate at all to send it*; Att. 1, 9, 2.

a. In dependent clauses and in the Future Perfect Indicative (except in vīderō, vīderis, etc.) this tense-use mostly passes away, after early Latin. Elsewhere it remains common in Ciceronian and later prose; but in Prohibitions (**501**, 3) and Softened Assertions (**519**, 1, *b*) the tense seems to have become nearly or quite stereotyped, and must thus have lost much of its original sharpness.

491. Picturesque Uses of the Tenses. By the use of tenses properly belonging to the present point of view, a past scene may be brought before the mind as *now existing*, with its events *now* taking place, its purposes *now* entertained, etc., as follows:

1. A past event may be represented as now taking place, or a past situation as now existing (Historical Present[1] or Present Perfect).

quod iussī sunt, faciunt, *they do as commanded* (what they have been told to do, they do); B. G. 3, 6, 1.

a. The Historical Present is often used, with less vividness, in the *annalistic style*, giving the effect of copying from records made from time to time as the events occurred.

Silvius deinde rēgnat. Is Aenēam Silvium creat, *next Silvius reigns. He begets Aeneas Silvius*; Liv. 1, 3, 6.

2. In subordinate clauses of any kind, attached to such picturesque tenses, the same effect may be given[2] (e.g. a past purpose may be represented as *now* entertained), or the sober tenses of the past may be employed.

quaecumque ad oppugnātiōnem opus sunt, noctū comparantur, *whatever* IS *needed* (picturesque tense) *for the siege* IS GOT TOGETHER (picturesque tense) *at night*; B. G. 5, 40, 5.

[1] This use might at any time arise through liveliness of imagination. But it more probably is a survival from an early use (see page 303, footnote).

[2] When the dependent clause *precedes*, the picturesque tense is less common.

Dumnorīgī custōdēs pōnit, ut quibuscum loquātur scīre possit, *he* SETS *spies* (picturesque) *over Dumnorix, that he* MAY BE *able* (picturesque) *to learn with whom he* IS COMMUNICATING (picturesque); B. G. 1, 20, 6.

Helvētiī cum id quod ipsī dīēbus vīgintī aegerrimē cōnfēcerant, illum ūnō diē fēcisse intellegerent, lēgātōs ad eum mittunt, *the Helvetians, when they* WERE AWARE (sober tense) *that what they themselves* HAD *with the utmost difficulty* ACCOMPLISHED (sober tense) *in twenty days, he had done in one day,* SEND *ambassadors to him* (picturesque tense); B. G. 1, 13, 12.

3. In poetry, a condition and conclusion which are really contrary to fact are sometimes picturesquely presented as still undetermined (i.e. as lying *in the future*).

volat Dīōrēs, spatia et sī plūra supersint, trānseat prior, *Diores flies along, and were there to be more space, he would be first to cross;* Aen. 5, 325. Cf. the sober **cēpissent praemia, nī fūdisset,** 5, 232.

492. Tenses of Rapid Action. The Past Perfect and the picturesque Present Perfect are occasionally used to indicate the *rapid succession of events*, intervening acts being passed over.

vixdum dīmidium dīxeram, intellēxerat, *hardly had I said the half, he had understood* (= he understood in an instant); Ph. 594.

intonuēre polī, *instantly the heavens thunder;* Aen. 1, 90.

493. Epistolary Tenses. In letters, acts are sometimes put as they *will appear* to the receiver. Hence the Imperfect or the Past Aorist instead of the Present, and the Past Perfect instead of the Present Perfect.

haec ego scrībēbam hōrā noctis nōnā: Mīlō campum iam tenēbat. Mārcellus candidātus ita stertēbat, ut ego vīcīnus audīrem, *I am writing* (was writing) *this at the ninth hour of the night. Milo is already in the field. Marcellus, who is a candidate, is snoring so loud that I hear him next door;* Att. 4, 3, 5. (= scrībō, tenet, stertit, audiam.)

a. When the epistolary tenses are used, the expressions of time of course change accordingly. "Yesterday" (herī) becomes "the day before" (prīdiē), and "to-day" (hodiē) becomes "that day" (eō diē).

494. In general, Latin expresses relations of time more exactly than English.

quibus ego sī ēdictum praetōris ostenderō, concident, *if I show them the praetor's edict, they will fall;* Cat. 2, 3, 5. (In Latin, more exactly, *shall have shown*, because this act comes first.)

nihil est maius quam ut faveat ōrātōrī is quī audiet, *nothing is more important than that the man that hears shall be favorably disposed toward the speaker;* De Or. 2, 42, 178. (In Latin, more exactly, *the man that shall hear*, matching the real time of faveat.)

THE IMPERATIVE

495. Synopsis of the Principal Uses of the Imperative

Command, Advice or Suggestion, Consent or Indifference,
Request or Entreaty, Prayer (**496**), Concession, Proviso, Condition (**497**).

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496. The Imperative expresses *Peremptory Command*, *Advice* or *Suggestion*, *Consent* or *Indifference*, *Request* or *Entreaty*, or *Prayer*. The negative is **nē**.

The Present refers to the *immediate* future, the future to some *distinctly future* time, or to *future time in general* (hence regularly used in laws, treaties, and maxims).

līctor, conligā manūs, *lictor, bind his hands;* Liv. 1, 26, 7. (Command.)

mihi crēde, oblīvīscere caedis atque incendiōrum, *take my advice, put bloodshed and conflagration out of your mind;* Cat. 1, 3, 6. (Advice.)

tibi permittō: posce, *I give you permission: ask her in marriage;* Trin. 384. (Consent.)

dīc sōdēs, *tell me, please;* Ep. 1, 16, 31. (Request.)

audī Iuppiter, *hear thou, Jupiter;* Liv. 1, 32, 10. (Prayer.)

crās petitō, dabitur, *ask to-morrow, you shall have it;* Merc. 770.

a. The Imperative is sometimes accompanied by age (agite), *come.*

vāde age vocā zephyrōs, *come, go and call the breezes;* Aen. 4, 223.

b. **Quīn**, *pray do*, is often prefixed to the Imperative in early Latin. The usage is rare in Cicero, but revives in later Latin. (For the origin of the force of **quīn**, see **545**, *a*, remark.)

quīn omitte mē, *do let me alone;* Ph. 486. Similarly Aen. 4, 547.

quīn sīc attendite, *pray look at the matter thus;* Mil. 29, 79.

c. The Future Imperatives **mementō**, *bear in mind* (e.g. Cat. 2, 3, 5), and **scītō**, *know* (e.g. Cat. 2, 10, 23), are used in place of the Presents, which are rare or lacking. **Habētō** is used in the sense of *you are to understand* (e.g. Am. 2, 10).

d. The Imperative is not used in Prohibitions except in early Latin, legal Latin, poetry, and (rarely) later prose.

497. The Imperative is often used:

1. As a Substantive Sentence (cf. **502**, 3, *c*).

tū tacētō: hoc optimum est, *keep quiet: that is best;* Rud. 1029.

2. In Concessions, Provisos, or Conditions (cf. **532**, **529**, **504**, 1).

estō: at certē . . ., *be it so: yet at any rate . . .;* Heaut. 572. (Concession.)

spectā, tum sciēs, *look, and then you'll know;* Bacch. 1023 (= if you look).

498. Since the Imperative expresses a Direct Command, it cannot be used in Indirect Discourse, but *must be replaced by the Volitive Subjunctive* (Subjunctive of Command, **501**, 3, becoming dependent, **538**).

THE SUBJUNCTIVE

499. Synopsis of the Principal Uses of the Subjunctive

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INDEPENDENT SENTENCES	DEPENDENT CLAUSES
Volitive Subjunctive	
Resolve (**501**, 1) Proposal, Suggestion, or Exhortation (**501**, 2) Command or Prohibition (**501**, 3)	Volitive Determinative Clause (**502**, 1) Volitive Descriptive Clause (**502**, 1) Clause of Plan or Purpose (**502**, 2) Volitive Substantive Clause (**502**, 3) Dependent Clause of Fear or Anxiety (**502**, 4) Commands and Prohibitions in Indirect Discourse (**538**)
Question of Deliberation or Perplexity, etc. (**503**)	Dependent Question of Deliberation or Perplexity, etc. (**503**)
Question or Exclamation of Surprise or Indignation (**503**)	
Volitive Condition (**504**, 1)	Generalizing Clause in the Second Person Singular Indefinite (**504**, 2) Clause of Imaginative Comparison with quasi, etc. (**504**, 3)
Subjunctive with nēdum, *still less* (**505**)	
Anticipatory Subjunctive	
(No independent uses)	Anticipatory Determinative Clause (**507**, 1) Anticipatory Descriptive Clause (**507**, 1) Anticipatory Substantive Clause with ut (**507**, 2) Indirect Question of Anticipation (**507**, 3) Clause of Anticipated Act with antequam or priusquam: Act anticipated and *prepared for* (**507**, 4, *a*) Act anticipated and *forestalled* (**507**, 4, *b*) Act anticipated and *insisted upon* (**507**, 4, *c*) Act anticipated and *deprecated* (**507**, 4, *d*) Clause of Anticipated Act with dum, dōnec, or quoad (**507**, 5) Past-Future Clauses in general (**508**; **509**)
Optative Subjunctive	
Wish (**511**, 1) Optative Condition (**511**, 1, *b*)	Optative Substantive Clause (**511**, 2)
Subjunctive of Obligation or Propriety	
Statement or Question of Obligation or Propriety (**513**, 1)	Dependent Question of Obligation or Propriety (**513**, 1) Clause of Obligation or Propriety with quod, quārē, etc. (**513**, 2) Relative Clause or ut-Clause after dignus, etc. (**513**, 3) Clause with ut after tantī, etc. (**513**, 4) Substantive Clause of Obligation or Propriety (**513**, 5)
Subjunctive of Natural Likelihood	
Question of Natural Likelihood (**515**, 1)	Clause of Natural Likelihood with quī, quārē, etc. (**515**, 2) Substantive Clause of Natural Likelihood with ut (**515**, 3)

INDEPENDENT SENTENCES	DEPENDENT CLAUSES

Potential Subjunctive

Potential Statement or Question (**517**, 1)
- Potential Relative Clause (**517**, 2)
- Potential Substantive Clause (**517**, 3)

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Subjunctive of Ideal Certainty

Statement or Question of Ideal Certainty (**519**, 1)
Softened Statement or Question (**519**, 1, *b*)
- Determinative Clause of Ideal Certainty (**519**, 2)
- Descriptive Clause of Ideal Certainty (**519**, 2)
- Clause of Ideally Certain Result (**519**, 3)
- Substantive Clause of Ideal Certainty (**519**, 4)

Conclusions of Ideal Certainty:
- Less Vivid Future (**519**, 1, *a*; **580**)
- Contrary to Fact (**519**, 1, *a*; **581**)

Subjunctive Constructions of Composite Origin

(No independent uses)
- Descriptive Clause of Actuality (Fact) with quī, etc., or **cum** (**521**, 1)
- Clause of Actual Result (Fact) with **ut**, **ut nōn**, or **quīn** (**521**, 2)
- Substantive Clause of Actuality (Fact) with **ut**, **ut nōn**, or **quīn** (**521**, 3, *a* and *b*)
- Derivatives of the Descriptive Clause of Fact:
  - Restrictive quī-Clause (**522**)
  - Causal or Adversative quī-Clause (**523**)
  - Descriptive **cum**-Clause of Situation (**524**)
  - Descriptive **cum**-Clause of Situation, with Accessory Causal or Adversative Idea (**525**)
  - Purely Causal or Adversative **cum**-Clause (**526**)

Subjunctive Conditions:
- Less Vivid Future (**528**; **580**)
- Contrary to Fact (**528**; **581**)

Dependent Clause of Proviso (**529**)

Subjunctive of Request (**530**, 1) — Substantive Clause of Request (**530**, 2)

Subjunctive of Consent or Indifference (**531**, 1) — Substantive Clause of Consent or Indifference (**531**, 2)

Concession of Indifference (**532**, 1) — Concession of Indifference with **quamvīs** or **quamlibet** (**532**, 2)

Subjunctive Constructions due to the Influence of Other Constructions

Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses in Indirect Discourse in:
- Statements of Fact (**535**)
- Conditions of Fact (**536**)
- Questions of Fact (**537**)
- Commands and Prohibitions (**538**)

Subjunctive by Attraction to a Subjunctive or Infinitive Clause (**539**)

Subjunctive of Repeated Action (**540**)

Generalizing Statement of Fact in Second Singular Indefinite (**542**)

I. THE VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE

500. The Volitive Subjunctive represents an act or state as *willed* or *wanted*. Hence it is used in expressions of *Demand, Intention*, or *Endeavor* (English "*I* WILL," "*you* SHALL," "*you* ARE TO," "*I* WANT *you to*," etc.). The negative is regularly **nē**.

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a. In independent sentences, the Volitive Subjunctive expresses the will of *the speaker only*. In dependent clauses, it regularly expresses the will of the subject or agent of the principal clause.

b. The Present and Perfect generally express a *present* or *future* demand, intention, or endeavor; the Imperfect and Past Perfect a *past* demand, intention, or endeavor.

NOTE. The *performance* of the act expressed by the Volitive Subjunctive in the literal uses lies in time relatively *future*. In the figurative uses (**504–505**) the act imaginatively commanded may lie in time *relatively past*, *relatively present*, or *relatively future*.

501. The Volitive Subjunctive may be used in independent declarative sentences:

1. To express a **Resolve** for the speaker's own action (rarely, and mainly with **crēdō** or **opīnor**).

maneam opīnor, *I'll stay, I think;* Trin. 1136.

sed opīnor quiēscāmus, *but I think I'll stop;* Att. 9, 6, 2.

a. The regular construction is the Future Indicative (**572**).

2. To express a **Proposal, Suggestion**, or **Exhortation**.

vide sī hoc ūtibile magis dēputās: ipsum adeam Lesbonīcum, *see if you think this idea more practical: I will go to Lesbonicus himself;* Trin. 748. (**Adeam** is a Proposal or Suggestion.)

resīdāmus, sī placet, *we will take seats, if you please* (= let us take seats); Fin. 3, 2, 9. (**Resīdāmus** is an Exhortation.)

3. To express a **Command** or **Prohibition**.

sēcēdant improbī, *let the ill-disposed withdraw;* Cat. 1, 13, 32.

nē trānsierīs Hibērum! nē quid reī tibi sit cum Saguntīnīs, *do not cross the Ebro! Let there be no interference on your part with the Saguntines;* Liv. 21, 44, 6.

a. In Ciceronian and later prose,

1) If addressed to a *general* second person, Commands and Prohibitions are expressed by the Present Subjunctive.

istō bonō ūtāre, dum adsit; cum absit, nē requīrās, *use this blessing while you have it; when it is gone, do not mourn for it;* Sen. 10, 33.

2) If addressed to an *individual* second person (or persons), Commands are expressed by the Imperative; while Prohibitions may be expressed by the Perfect Subjunctive, or, in a roundabout way, by **cavē** with a dependent Subjunctive (**502**, 3, *b*), **vidē** with a dependent **nē**-clause (**502**, 3, *a*), or **nōlī** with the Infinitive (**586**). The Perfect Subjunctive is the most peremptory or emphatic form, and **nōlī** the most courteous.

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hoc facitō, hoc nē fēcerīs, *this do, this do not do;* Div. 2, 61, 127.

nē dubitārīs mittere, *do not hesitate to send;* Att. 1, 9, 2.

cavē ignōscās, cavē tē misereat, *beware of forgiving, beware of feeling pity;* Lig. 5, 14.

cavē audiam istuc ex tē, *don't let me hear that from you* (= don't say it); Stich. 37.

nōlīte dubitāre, *do not hesitate* (be unwilling to); Pomp. 23, 68.

b. In early Latin, and in the poetical style, both Imperative and Subjunctive are freely used in any kind of command or prohibition. Cf. **496**, *d*.

502. The Volitive Subjunctive may be used in dependent clauses:

1. In **Relative Clauses**, determinative[1] or descriptive.[2]

"**cavē.**" . . "**Quid est quod caveam?**" "*look out.*" "*What is it that I am to look out for?*" Rud. 828. (Determinative.)

Magō locum mōnstrābit quem īnsideātis, *Mago will show you the place which you are to take for an ambuscade;* Liv. 21, 54, 3. (Determinative.)

saepe stilum vertās, iterum quae digna legī sint scrīptūrus, *use the eraser often, if you mean to write things that shall be worth reading a second time;* Sat. 1, 10, 72. (Descriptive.)

2. In **Clauses of Plan or Purpose**,[3] with **quī**, etc.,[4] **quō**, **ut**, or **nē**.

equitātum quī sustinēret impetum mīsit, *he sent cavalry who were to check the attack* (= to check); B. G. 1, 24, 1. (Past Purpose.)

id quō maiōre faciant animō, *that they may do it with greater courage;* B. G. 7, 66, 6. (Purpose, picturesquely represented as Present.)

mihi timōrem ēripe; sī est vērus, nē opprimar; sīn falsus, ut timēre dēsinam, *free me of fear; if it is well-founded, that I may not be crushed, but if false, that I may cease to fear;* Cat. 1, 7, 18. (Present Purpose.)

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[1] That is, telling *what* person or thing is meant.

[2] That is, telling *what kind* of person or thing is meant (also called "characterizing" clauses).

[3] Such clauses are often called "final."

[4] Any relative may be used. Thus **ubi, unde.**

a. A Clause of Purpose may be preceded by an adverb of manner or degree, or by eō cōnsiliō, eā causā, idcircō, etc.

librum petō ā tē ita corrigās nē mihi noceat, *I beg of you to correct the book in such a way that it shall not do me harm;* Fam. 6, 7, 6.

eō cōnsiliō, ut expugnārent, *with the plan that they should storm;* B. G. 2, 9, 4.

b. Quō is generally used with a comparative, as in B. G. 7, 66, 6 above.

c. A Clause of Purpose is sometimes used parenthetically.

ac nē longum sit, . . . iussimus, *and, to be brief, we ordered* . . (in order to be brief, I say at once, we ordered); Cat. 3, 5, 10.

3. In **Substantive Clauses**:

a) With verbs of *will* or *endeavor*.[1] The connective, if one is used, is **ut**[2] or **nē**.

nē fīliī quidem hoc nostrī rescīscant volō, *I want not even our sons to hear of this;* Ph. 819. Cf. volō ut faciās, Bacch. 989, *a*.

tē hortor ut maneās in sententiā, nēve vim pertimēscās, *I urge you to stand by your opinion, and not to fear violence;* Pomp. 24, 69.

efficiēmus nē nimis aciēs vōbīs cordī sint, *we'll see to it that you shall not like the battle-line too well;* Liv. 8, 7, 6.[3]

vide nē peccēs, *see that you don't do a wrong;* Ph. 803.

NOTE 1. The original Volitive force is often lost, so that the clause becomes a mere *verb-noun*.

poenam sequī oportēbat, ut ignī cremārētur, *the punishment of being burned alive would follow;* B. G. 1, 4, 1.

NOTE 2. A nē-Clause with videō or vīsō may suggest a *Possibility*.

vidē nē tuum fuerit, (see to it that it was not your duty) *consider whether it was not your duty* (= possibly it was); Fin. 3, 3, 10. Similarly Pomp. 22, 63.

b) With verbs of *hindrance*, *prevention*, or *check*.[4] The connective is **nē**, **quīn**, or **quōminus**.

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[1] Such verbs (or phrases) express: (1) *Will in its simplest form*, e.g. volō, nōlō, mālō; (2) *Demand, Command*, or *Direction*, e.g. flāgitō, postulō, poscō, imperō, mandō, moneō and its compounds, hortor and its compounds, ēdīcō, dīcō, respondeō, scrībō, mittō (*send instructions*), certiōrem faciō, prōnūntiō, rarely iubeō and vetō; (3) *Intention, Plan, Purpose*, or *Agreement*, e.g. dēcernō, in animum indūcō, animus or cōnsilium est, scīscō, statuō, cēnseō, pacīscor, convenit (*it is agreed*), placet (*it is decided;* in its original meaning *is pleasing*, this belongs under *c*), iūs est bellī; (4) *Endeavor on One's Own Part*, e.g. labōrō and its compounds, īnstō, certō, nītor and its compounds, videō and prōvideō, cūrō, cōnsulō, tendō and its compounds, faciō and its compounds, cōnsequor and adsequor, agō, operam dō, committō, teneō (*insist*) and obtineō, est in manū (*it is in one's power*); (5) *The Giving of an Impulse to Another*, e.g. moveō, incitō, suādeō and persuādeō, impellō, addūcō, indūcō, cōgō, and subigō.

[2] **Ut**, when used in substantive clauses, is purely formal, having come in, merely *as the opposite of* nē, from Clauses of Purpose, where it originated. By a natural second step, it was sometimes added to nē itself (likewise in clauses of purpose).

[3] Faciō, efficiō, and perficiō may be followed by either a Volitive or a Consecutive Clause (**521**, 3, *a*), according as the act is presented as *aimed at*, or as *accomplished*.

[4] (1) *Hindrance, Prevention, Check*, or *Falling Short*, e.g. impediō, prohibeō, obstō, obsistō, officiō, dēterreō, teneō, facere nōn possum, or nōn possum alone, nōn est in manū, paulum, nōn longē, etc. with abest (quīn); (2) *Avoidance*, e.g. caveō, vītō, temperō, mē

Quīn is used only after a negative, **quōminus** after either a negative or a positive, **nē** generally only after a positive.[1]

quis umquam hoc senātor recūsāvit nē putāret? *what senator ever refused to think this?* Clu. 55, 150. The same verb **recūsō**, *negatived*, is used with **quīn** in B. G. 4, 7, 3, and with **quōminus** in B. G. 1, 31, 7.

cave nē negēs, *beware of refusing;* Catull. 61, 152.

dēterrēre nē frūmentum cōnferant, *were deterring them from collecting grain;* B. G. 1, 17, 2.

quīn dīcant, nōn est: meritō ut nē dīcant, id est, *that they shall not say it, is not* (in my power): *that they shall not say it with reason, that is* (in my power); Trin. 105. (**Ut nē** shows that the parallel clause with **quīn** must be Volitive in feeling.)

quīn loquar, numquam mē potes dēterrēre, *you can never prevent me from speaking* (that I shall not speak); Amph. 559.

paulum āfuit quīn Vārum interficeret, *it lacked but little of his killing Varus* (= *he was on the point of . . .*); B. C. 2, 35, 2. Cf. **neque longius abesse quīn Sabīnus ēdūcat**, B. G. 3, 18, 4.

NOTE 1. These uses came originally from combinations like **recūsō: nē putem**, *I refuse: I will not believe;* **dēterreō: nē cōnferant**, *I am deterring them: they shall not collect;* etc. They were then extended to combinations like **nōn longē abest quīn**.

NOTE 2. **Cavē**, as itself suggesting a negative idea, can be used without **nē**. Thus **cavē mentiāris**, *beware of lying;* Mil. 22, 60.

c) With adjectives, and verbs or phrases of adjective force.[2] The connective, if one is used, is **ut**[3] or **nē**.

iūs valeat necesse est, *law must prevail;* Sest. 42, 92. (Let law prevail: it is necessary. Cf. **tacētō: optimum est**, 497, 1.)

reliquum est ut dē fēlīcitāte dīcāmus, *it remains for me to discuss the subject of good fortune;* Pomp. 16, 47. (It remains that I am to discuss . . .)

NOTE. These are best called, not Substantive Volitive Clauses, but **Substantive Clauses of Volitive Origin**; for with most of them the Volitive feeling has faded out.

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contineō, mē ēripiō, resistō, repugnō, nōn cūnctandum est, haud dubia rēs vidētur, nūlla mora est (these last with **quīn**); (3) *Refusal* or *Hesitation*, e.g. **recūsō, dubitō**.

[1] The conjunction **quīn** (**quī**, *whereby*, + **ne**) meant originally *whereby not*. **Quōminus** likewise meant *whereby the less*, *whereby not* (**minus** being only a weakened negative). In all its uses as a conjunction, **quīn** is employed only after a negative idea, expressed or implied.

[2] Such verbs and phrases represent an action as (1) *good* or *bad*, e.g. **melius est, optimum est**: (2) *necessary, seasonable, advantageous, sufficient, remaining to be done*, or *lacking*, e.g. **necessārium est** or **necesse est, opus est, tempus est, rēfert, interest, satis est, sufficit** (but these two mostly with infinitive; **585**), **reliquum est, relinquitur, restat, sequitur** (when meaning *the next thing to do is*), **superest, abest**; (3) *customary*, **ūsitātum est, mōs (mōris) est, cōnsuētūdō (cōnsuētūdinis) est**. Many of these take the Infinitive also (**585**), some more frequently than the Subjunctive.

[3] Formal **ut**. See footnote 2, p. 261.

4. In **Clauses of Fear or Anxiety.** The connectives are **nē**, *lest* or *that*, and **ut** (less frequently **nē nōn**), *lest not, that not.*

nē eius suppliciō Dīviciācī animum offenderet verēbātur, *he feared that by punishing him he should offend Diviciacus;* B. G. 1, 19, 2. (Past fear about the future.)

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vereor nē id fēcerint, *I am afraid that they have done it;* Caecin. 2, 4. (Present fear about the past.)

verērī videntur ut habeam satis praesidī, *seem to fear that I have not a sufficient guard;* Cat. 4, 7, 14. (Present fear about the present.)

timeō nē nōn impetrem, *I fear I may not get what I ask for;* Att. 9, 6, 6. (Present fear about the future.)

a. **Nē,** *lest,* was originally a mere negative adverb (as in **nē suscēnseat: timeō,** *he must not be angry: I am afraid,* i.e. *I am afraid that he will be angry*). **Nē nōn,** *lest not,* is the natural opposite of **nē. Ut,** which means the same as **nē nōn,** probably came into use as the *formal* opposite of **nē** (footnote 2, p. 261).

b. The original volitive feeling has entirely faded out from the construction.

503. The Volitive Subjunctive may be used in Questions of Deliberation or Perplexity; in Questions asking for Instructions; and in Questions or Exclamations of Surprise or Indignation. The negative is **nōn.**

The Questions may be independent or dependent.

ēloquar, an sileam? *shall I speak, or shall I keep silence?* Aen. 3, 39.

est certum quid respondeam, *what I shall answer is clear;* Arch. 7, 15.

quid Rōmae faciam? *what shall I do in Rome* (= can I)? Iuv. 3, 41.

"**scrībe.**" "**Quid scrībam?**" "*write.*" "*What shall I write?*" Bacch. 731.

quid faciam imperā, *command me what to do;* Ph. 223.

"**tū nārrā.**" "**Scelus! Tibi nārret?**" "*you tell him.*" "*You rascal! he tell the story under your orders?*" Ph. 1000.

tū rēbus omnibus cōpiōsus sīs, et dubitēs! *you a man provided with everything, — and you hesitate!* Cat. 2, 8, 18.

a. The last example represents the extreme point of development reached by the construction, in which nothing remains either of the interrogative idea or of the original idea of Will.

b. The construction is sometimes introduced by **ut** or **utin**[1] (**utī** plus the interrogative **-ne**), as in **tū ut umquam tē corrigās,** *the idea of your ever reforming!* Cat. 1, 9, 22.

[1] This type has probably arisen from a Question of Perplexity ("how shall?"). But it *may* have arisen from a Potential Question ("how can?") or through an ellipsis (e.g. "is it possible that?").

504. The Volitive Subjunctive may be used figuratively (negative **nōn**):

1. In **Independent Conditions** (cf. the Imperative, **497**, 2).

experiātur: tēctō recipiet nēmō, *let him try: no one will admit him to his house;* Verr. 2, 1, 26. Similarly **sineret dolor**, Aen. 6, 31. (Individual Condition, Less Vivid Future.)

mersēs profundō, pulchrior ēvenit, *sink it in the depths, it comes forth fairer;* Carm. 4, 4, 65. (Generalizing Condition, in any time.)

2. In **Generalizing Clauses in the Second Person Singular Indefinite**, after **sī** or a relative of any kind.

haec quō diē fēcerīs necessāria, eadem, sī cotīdiē fēcisse tē reputēs, inānia videntur, multō magis cum sēcesserīs, *these things seem necessary on the day on which you have done them, and yet, if you reflect that you have been doing them day after day, they appear frivolous, and much more so when you have retired into the country;* Plin. Ep. 1, 9, 3. (**Fēcerīs, reputēs**, and **sēcesserīs** are all examples. "You" is in each case "anybody.")

a. This Subjunctive originally expressed a *command of the imagination* ("let"), but it became a mere sign of indefiniteness.

3. In **Imaginative Comparisons**, with words meaning "as if."[1]

est obstandum, velut sī ante Rōmāna moenia pugnēmus, *we must make our stand, as if fighting before the walls of Rome;* Liv. 21, 41, 15.

metus cēpit, velut sī iam ad portās hostis esset, *fear seized upon them, as if the enemy were already at their gates;* Liv. 21, 16, 2.

a. The tenses of the present (Present and Perfect) are used *if the imagined act is placed in the present or future*, the tenses of the past (Imperfect and Past Perfect) *if it is placed in the past.*

b. The construction probably in the beginning expressed a *command of the imagination* ("imagine us to be fighting," etc.), *without any question about the fact;* and the usage, once established, remained fairly constant.

c. Still it would often be felt that the imagined act was really *contrary to the actual fact* (see Conditions, **581**); and accordingly the Imperfect and Past Perfect occur.

proinde habēbō ac sī scrīpsissēs . . ., *I shall regard it as if you had written . . ;* Att. 3, 13, 1. Similarly **quasi nōn nōssēs**, Ph. 388.

505. The Subjunctive is used with **nēdum** (rarely **nē**), *still less.*[2]

vix intellegere potuī: nēdum satis sciam quō modō mē tuear, *I was scarcely able to understand; still less do I know how to defend myself;* Liv. 40, 15, 14. Similarly **nē illī temperārent**, Sall. Cat. 11, 8.

[1] **Quasi, tamquam, tamquam sī, velut sī**, and (less frequently) **ac sī** and **ut sī**. Also, in poetic and later Latin, **ceu, nōn aliter quam sī, sīcutī, velut, perinde ac**, etc.

[2] The construction is probably of Volitive origin, but its exact history is not clear.

II. THE ANTICIPATORY SUBJUNCTIVE

506. The Anticipatory Subjunctive represents an act as *foreseen, expected, looked forward to* (English "shall" in all persons). The negative is **nōn**.

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This use of the Subjunctive had died out in independent sentences before the beginnings of the literature.

a. The Present and Perfect express a *present* or *future* anticipation, the Imperfect and Past Perfect a *past* anticipation.

The Perfect is thus a Future Perfect for the present or future, the Past Perfect a Future Perfect for the past.

507. The Anticipatory Subjunctive is used in dependent clauses as follows:

1. In **Relative Clauses**, determinative or descriptive.

exspectandus erit quī lītēs incohet annus tōtīus populī, *I shall have to wait for the year that shall* (= will) *start afresh upon the suits of the whole people;* Inv. 16, 41 (= the coming year. Determinative clause).

nunc est ille diēs quom (= cum[1]) **glōria maxuma sēsē nōbīs ostendat**, *this is the day when the supreme glory is to* (= will) *manifest itself to us;* Enn. Ann. 414, 4. (This is that expected day. Determinative clause.)

nāscētur Troiānus, fāmam quī terminet astrīs, *there will be born a Trojan, who shall* (prophetic, = will) *make the stars the boundary of his fame;* Aen. 1, 286. (A Trojan of what kind? A Trojan that shall. . Cf. **quae verteret**, expressing a *past* Anticipation, Aen. 1, 20.)

a. The Future Indicative has driven the Anticipatory Subjunctive almost completely out of the determinative clause, and tends to drive it out of the descriptive clause, as in **veniet aetās cum premet**, Aen. 1, 283. Cf. also **quī . . . ferant quōrumque . . . vidēbunt**, Aen. 7, 98.

2. In **Substantive Clauses of Anticipation**:

a) With **ut** after verbs of *expecting*.[2]

nēmō exspectet ut aliēnō labōre sit disertus, *let no man expect that he will become eloquent through the labor of others;* Quintil. 7, 10, 14.

mea lēnitās hoc exspectāvit, ut id quod latēbat ērumperet, *my clemency has waited for that which was concealed to break out;* Cat. 2, 12, 27.

b) With **quīn** after verbs of *doubt*, if these are negatived.

haec sī ēnūntiāta Ariovistō sint, nōn dubitāre quīn gravissimum supplicium sūmat, (says) *he does not doubt that, if this be told to Ariovistus, he will inflict the severest punishment;* B. G. 1, 31, 15.

[1] **Cum**, as a relative referring to an antecedent of time, of course has the same constructions as any other relative. [2] **Exspectō**, opperior (and, rarely, spērō).

3. In **Indirect Questions**, after verbs of *expecting*, *knowing*, *fearing*, or *anxiety*.[1]

quid hostēs cōnsilī caperent exspectābat, (Crassus) *was waiting* (to see) *what plan the enemy would form;* B. G. 3, 24, 1. (Past Expectancy.)

nescīs quid vesper sērus vehat, *you know not what the shades of evening shall bring forth;* Varro, Sat. Men. 333. (Present Expectancy.)

sīn (eritis secūtī) illam alteram nesciō an amplius mihi negōtī contrahātur, *but if (you follow) the other proposal, I am inclined to think that more trouble will be brought upon me;* Cat. 4, 5, 9. (For the translation, see **537**, *f*.)

a. With **exspectō quam mox**, the construction is frequent, even in Cicero.

4. In **Clauses** with **antequam**,[2] **priusquam**, **citius quam**, **potius quam**, and the like, to represent an act as:

a) Anticipated and *prepared for*.

medicō dīligentī, priusquam cōnētur aegrō adhibēre medicīnam, nātūra corporis cognōscenda est, *a careful physician, before attempting to prescribe medicine for a patient, must look into his general constitution;* De Or. 2, 44, 186.

priusquam ēdūceret in aciem, ōrātiōnem est exōrsus, *before leading out his men into line of battle, (he) began a harangue;* Liv. 21, 39, 1.

NOTE 1. The formula became a fixed one, and was then used of the regular anticipation of one event by another in the *operations of nature*, although there is in this case no true looking forward.

huius folia priusquam dēcidant, sanguineō colōre mūtantur, *its leaves turn red before falling;* Plin. N. H. 14, 37.

NOTE 2. For the Indicative of an actual event *looked back upon*, see **550**, *b*.

NOTE 3. After Cicero's time the distinction of mood broke down, and the Subjunctive was frequently used of an actual event.

ducentīs annīs antequam Rōmam caperent, in Italiam Gallī trānscendērunt, *two hundred years before they were to take* (took) *Rome, the Gauls crossed into Italy;* Liv. 5, 33, 5.

b) Anticipated and *forestalled*.

Rōmānus, priusquam forēs portārum obicerentur, velut agmine ūnō inrumpit, *the Romans, before the gates could be closed, rushed in as in a single mass;* Liv. 1, 14, 11.

NOTE. Since an event forestalled is generally one which the main actor tries to make *impossible*, the Anticipatory Subjunctive of **possum** (with the Infinitive) is sometimes used (as in B. G. 6, 3, 2, **priusquam convenīre possent**) in place of the simple verb in the Subjunctive (**priusquam convenīrent**).

[1] **Exspectō, nesciō, timeō**; also the phrases **mihi cūrae est, sollicitus sum**, etc.

[2] **Ante** and **prius** are often separated from **quam**. (See examples under *c*.)

c) Anticipated and *insisted upon*.

nōn prius ducēs ex conciliō dīmittunt quam sit concessum, *they do not* (= will not) *let the leaders leave the council until the concession is made;* B. G. 3, 18, 7. Cf. **nec prius absistit quam fundat**, Aen. 1, 192.

NOTE. To give this meaning the main verb must be negatived.

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d) Anticipated and *deprecated*.

animam omittunt prius quam locō dēmigrent, *they die sooner than* (= rather than) *leave their post;* Amph. 240.

potius quam id nōn fīat, ego dabō, *rather than not have it come off, I'll give the money myself;* Pseud. 554. Cf. **prius quam ut**, Lig. 12, 34.

NOTE TO *a*)–*d*). The Future Perfect Indicative is also used in these constructions (as in **antequam cognōverō**, Sen. 6, 18), the Future Indicative only very rarely in Ciceronian prose (thus **citius quam extorquēbit**, Lig. 5, 16; in poetry more commonly, e.g. **ante quam dabitur**, Aen. 9, 115). For the frequent *Present* Indicative in the same general sense, see **571**.

5. In Clauses with **dum, dōnec,** or **quoad**, *until*, to represent an act as *looked forward to*.

mānsūrus patruom pater est dum adveniat, *your father is going to wait till your uncle shall arrive;* Ph. 480. (Present Expectation.)

dum reliquae nāvēs eō convenīrent exspectāvit, *he waited till the other ships should arrive;* B. G. 4, 23, 4. (Past Expectation.)

a. The Future Perfect Indicative is also used in this sense, the Future Indicative not in Ciceronian prose (poetical example **dōnec dabit**, Aen. 1, 273). For the frequent *Present* Indicative in the same general sense, see **571**.

b. For the Indicative of an actual event *looked back upon*, see **550**, *b*.

c. After Cicero's time the distinction broke down, and the Subjunctive was frequently used of an actual event. Cf. **507**, 4, n. 3.

hoc plūribus (diēbus), dōnec hominēs subīret timendī pudor, *this* (took place) *on a number of* (*days*), *until men began to be ashamed of being afraid;* Plin. Ep. 9, 33, 6.

d. **Dum, dōnec,** and **quoad**, meaning *so long as*, take the Indicative (**550**, *b*).

508. In general,[1] *all* past-future ideas must, if expressed by a Finite Verb, be in the Anticipatory Subjunctive; for *no other means of expression exists*.

a. There are thus three possible ways of expressing Futurity to the Present, and only one way of expressing Futurity to the Past:

[1] The only exceptions are assertions and conditions expressing an *actual past intention* (periphrastic forms, as in *they were* GOING *to* . . . ; *if they were* GOING *to*).

Point of View Past	Point of View Present
Anticipatory Subjunctive, Imperfect or Past (Future) Perfect	1. Indicative Future or Future Perfect 2. Present Indicative with future force (see **571**) 3. Anticipatory Subjunctive, Present or (Future) Perfect

509. Accordingly, the Anticipatory Subjunctive of the past is extremely common in constructions[1] in which it would not be used, or *need not* be used, if the point of view were present or future. Thus:

Past-Future Determinative Clauses:

aderat iam annus quō prōcōnsulātum Āfricae sortīrētur, *the year was now at hand, in which he should draw the proconsulate of Africa as his lot;* Tac. Agric. 42.

omnīnō bīduum supererat, cum exercituī frūmentum mētīrī oportēret, *two days in all were left* (before the time) *when rations would have to be issued to the army;* B. G. 1, 23, 1.

Past-Future Conditions:

nostrī, sī ab illīs initium trānseundī fieret, parātī erant, *our men were ready, if they should begin to cross;* B. G. 2, 9, 1.

erat ūnum iter, Ilerdam sī revertī vellent, alterum, sī Tarracōnem peterent, *there was one way if they should choose to return to Lerida, another if they should make for Tarragona;* B. C. 1, 73, 2.

a. It often *happens* that such past anticipations are indirect expressions of some one's speech or thought, — i.e. are in Indirect Discourse (**534**, 2).

ubi intellēxit diem īnstāre quō diē frūmentum mīlitibus mētīrī oporteret, *when he saw that the day was at hand on which rations would have to be given out to the soldiers;* B. G. 1, 16, 5. (**Diem quō oportēret** is to the past what **diēs quō oportēbit** would be to the present.)

Xerxēs praemium prōposuit quī invēnisset novam voluptātem, *Xerxes offered a reward to the man who should invent a new pleasure;* Tusc. 5, 7, 20.

III. THE OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE

510. The Optative Subjunctive represents an act as *wished* or *desired* (English "may," "would that," etc.).

a. The Present and Perfect deal with the future, and so express a wish that *may be realized.* The Imperfect and Past Perfect deal with the present and past, and so express a wish *contrary to fact.*

[1] With any relative pronoun, or relative or conditional conjunction.

The Imperfect generally refers to the present, and the Past Perfect to the past. But occasionally the Imperfect (especially in poetry) expresses a past act, and the Past Perfect an act completed in the present.

REMARK. The Imperfect and Past Perfect originally expressed a wish in time *future to a past time*. This is still generally the case in dependent clauses. Thus optābam ut adesset, *I wished that he might be present.*

b. The Perfect may express a hope that something *has been done.*

511. The Optative Subjunctive is used:

1. In **Wishes.** These may be introduced by **utinam**, and generally *are* so introduced, if in the Imperfect or Past Perfect. The negative is regularly **nē**, but with **utinam** sometimes **nōn.**[1]

sint beātī, *may they be happy!* Mil. 34, 93.

perierīs, *may you perish utterly!* Men. 295. (Emphatic Perfect.)

utinam spem implēverim, *I hope I may have fulfilled his expectation;* Plin. Ep. 1, 10, 3. (Present Perfect.)

utinam ille omnīs sēcum suās cōpiās ēdūxisset! *would that he had led out all his forces with him!* Cat. 2, 2, 4.

obruerent Rutulī tēlīs! *would that the Rutuli had laid* (me) *low with their darts!* Aen. 11, 162.

utinam fīliī nē dēgenerāssent! *would that the sons had not degenerated!* Prov. Cons. 8, 18.

utinam susceptus nōn essem! *would that I had not been allowed to live at birth!* Att. 11, 9, 3.

a. In poetry, especially in early Latin, **ut** and **quī**[1] may also be used, the latter in *Imprecations* (Curses) only.

quī illum dī omnēs perduint! *may all the gods confound him!* Ph. 12[illegible]

b. A Wish may be used to express an independent condition.

mē quoque, quā frātrem, mactāssēs, improbe, clāvā! Esset, quam dederās, morte solūta fidēs, *would that you had killed me, wretch, with the same club with which you killed my brother! The promise you had given would then have been annulled by death;* Ov. Her. 10, 77.

2. In **Substantive Clauses**, after verbs of *wishing*, *desiring*, etc.[2] The connective, if one is used, is **ut** or **nē.**

optēmus ut eat in exilium, *let us hope that he is going into exile;* Cat. 2, 7, 16. (Present Wish.)

fuit optandum Caecīnae ut contrōversiae nihil habēret, *it was desirable for Caecina to have no controversy;* Caecin. 9, 23. (Past Wish.)

[1] Wishes with **utinam**, **ut**, and **quī** were originally *Potential Questions* ("how might . . . ?"). Hence the original negative was **nōn.**

[2] The commonest of these are **optō**, and, in poetry and later prose, **cupiō**, **vōtum est.**

IV. THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF OBLIGATION OR PROPRIETY

512. The Subjunctive of Obligation or Propriety represents an act as *obligatory*, *proper*, or *reasonable* (English "ought," "should").

a. The original negative, **nē**, is sometimes still found in *statements* (513, 1), not elsewhere. But, even here, **nōn** became more common, since this is the negative that regularly *belongs* to statements (464, 1, and footnote).

b. The Present expresses a *present* obligation or propriety, the Imperfect and Past Perfect a *past* obligation or propriety, unfulfilled.

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513. The Subjunctive of Obligation or Propriety is used:

1. In **Statements** and **Questions.**

The interrogative words, if used, are **quid, quidnī, quārē, quamobrem,** or **cūr.**[1]

quid facere dēbuistī? frūmentum nē ēmissēs, *what ought you to have done? You ought not to have bought the grain;* Verr. 3, 84, 195.

"nōn ego illī argentum redderem?" "Nōn redderēs," "*ought n't I to have paid in the money to him?***" "***You ought not***";** Trin. 133.

ā lēgibus nōn recēdāmus, *we should not swerve from the laws;* Clu. 57, 155.

nōn eō sīs cōnsiliō, *you should not adopt this opinion;* Fam. 9, 16, 7.

hunc ego nōn admīrer? *ought I not to admire a man like this?* Arch. 8, 18.

quid ego tē invītem, *why should I urge you?* Cat. 1, 9, 24. (Direct Question of Present Obligation.)

nōn videō cūr nōn audeam, *I don't see why I should not venture;* Sen. 21, 77. (Indirect Question of Present Obligation.)

cūr dēspērārent, *why* (he asked) *should they despair?* B. G. 1, 40, 4. (Indirect Question of Past Obligation.)

a. In Statements, this construction seems to be less frequent in tenses of the present than in tenses of the past.

2. In **Dependent Clauses,** with **quod, quārē, quamobrem, cūr,** or **quīn** (the last only after a negative idea, expressed or implied).

nihil est quod pōcula laudēs, *there is no reason why you should praise the cups* (nothing with reference to which you ought . . .); Ecl. 3, 48.

satis esse causae arbitrābātur quārē in eum animadverteret, *he thought there was reason enough why he should punish him;* B. G. 1, 19, 1.

quid est quamobrem putēs . . . ? *what reason is there why you should think . . . ?* Verr. 2, 20, 49.

[1] **Quīn,** as in **quīn rogem?** *why should n't I ask?* Mil. Gl. 426, is rarely used in questions of obligation or propriety. In dependent clauses, it is frequent.

3. In **Relative Clauses** (rarely in clauses with ut) after **dignus, indignus, aptus,** or **idōneus.**

erit dignior locus ūllus quī hanc virtūtem excipiat? *will there be any place more worthy to harbor such virtue?* (any place worthier that it should harbor . . .?); Mil. 37, 101. Similarly **idōneus quī,** Pomp. 19, 57.

nōn sum dignus ut fīgam pālum in parietem, *I am not fit to drive a spike into a wall* (not fit that I should drive); Mil. Gl. 1140.

a. **Quārē, quamobrem,** and **cūr** are also occasionally used with **dignus,** etc.

nihil enim dignum faciēbat, quārē eius fugae comitem mē adiungerem, *for he was doing nothing worthy to make me add myself as an associate in his flight* (no worthy thing, on account of which I should . . .); Att. 9, 10, 2.

4. In **Clauses** with **ut** or **ut nōn** after **tantī,** *worth so much,* and similar expressions.

est ergō ūlla rēs tantī aut commodum ūllum tam expetendum, ut virī bonī et splendōrem et nōmen āmittās? *is anything then worth so much, or is any advantage so desirable, that one should* (= ought to) *give up the proud distinction of the name of "good man"?* Off. 3, 20, 82.

nūlla studia tantī ut amīcitiae officium dēserātur, *no studies are so important that friendship's due ought to be withheld;* Plin. Ep. 8, 9, 2.

5. In **Substantive Clauses,** without connective, or with **nē** (rare) or **quīn** (the latter after a negative idea only).[1]

multa oportet discat, *he ought to learn many things;* Quinct. 17, 56.

nūllō modō aequom vidētur quīn quod peccārim potissimum mihi id obsit, *it does n't seem at all just that my wrongdoing should not damage me rather than any one else;* Trin. 588.

quārē meditēre cēnseō, *wherefore I think that you should consider;* Phil. 2, 37, 95. Similarly (in irony) **vereāminī cēnseō,** Cat. 4, 6, 13.

V. THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF NATURAL LIKELIHOOD

514. The Subjunctive of Natural Likelihood represents an act as *likely to take place* (English "should," "might well," "naturally would," etc.). The negative is **nōn.**

a. The Present and Perfect express a natural likelihood in the *present or future;* the Imperfect and Past Perfect, a natural likelihood in the *past.*

[1] So with **oportet, aequum, iūstum** or **iūs est, mereor, decet, dēdecet.**

515. The Subjunctive of Natural Likelihood is used:

1. In **Questions**, with **quid, quidnī, quī** (*how?*), **quārē, quamobrem,** or **cūr.**

quid enim ōdisset Clōdium Milō, segetem ac māteriem suae glōriae? *why should Milo have hated Clodius, who furnished him the field and the occasion of his glory?* Mil. 13, 35.

quārē dēsinat esse macer? *why* (under such circumstances) *should he cease to be lean?* Catull. 89, 4. (= naturally he would remain lean.)

"inepta, nescīs quid sit āctum?" "Quī sciam?" *"you stupid, don't you know what has taken place?" "How should I know?"* And. 791.

2. In **Dependent Clauses**, with **quī, quārē, quamobrem, cūr, quīn,** or **ut.**

videō causās esse permultās quae istum impellerent, *I recognize the existence of a great many causes that would naturally be impelling him;* Rosc. Am. 33, 92. (Natural working in the past.)

quantumvīs quārē sit macer inveniēs, *you'll find every reason in the world why he should be lean;* Catull. 89, 6. Cf. **quārē dēsinat, 515, 1.**

ille erat ut ōdisset accūsātōrem suum, *there was* (reason) *that he should* (naturally) *hate his accuser;* Mil. 13, 35.

3. In **Substantive Clauses** with **ut.**

vērī simile nōn est, ut ille homō religiōnī suae pecūniam antepōneret, *it is not likely that such a man would set money above his conscience;* Verr. 4, 6, 11.

VI. THE POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE

516. The Potential Subjunctive expresses *Possibility* or *Capacity* (English "may," "might," "can," "could"). The negative is **nōn.**

a. The Present and Perfect express a *present* or *future* possibility or capacity, the Imperfect and Past Perfect a *past* possibility or capacity.

517. The Potential Subjunctive is used especially:

1. In **Independent Sentences,** but only where a negative is implied, or in the Second Person Singular Indefinite, or with **quis, aliquis, vix, facile,** or **forsitan.**

quis clādem illīus noctis fandō explicet? *who could set forth in words the ruin of that night?* Aen. 2, 361. (Present Capacity; = no one could.)

cuneō hoc agmen disiciās, *with a wedge, one could split this line;* Liv. 22, 50, 9. (Present Capacity.)

ea perītīs amnis eius vix fidem fēcerint, *this could scarcely gain any credence at all among those who know this river;* Liv. 21, 47, 5. (Present Capacity, emphatic tense.)

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Servius, frāter tuus, facile dīceret, hic versus Plautī nōn est, hic est, *your brother Servius could easily say 'That verse is n't Plautus's, this one is';* Fam. 9, 16, 4. (Past Capacity.)

aliquis dīcat mihi, *some one may say to me;* Sat. 1, 3, 19. (Possibility.)

a. But the Future Indicative is much more common with **quis** and **aliquis**, as in **dīcet aliquis**, *some one will say*, Pis. 28, 68.

2. In **Relative Clauses**, after expressions of *existence* or *non-existence*.[1]

est unde haec fīant, *I have means with which it can be done;* Ad. 122.

nihil erat quō famem tolerārent, *there was no means by which they could relieve their starvation;* B. G. 1, 28, 3.

ūnum angustum et difficile, vix quā singulī carrī dūcerentur; *one* (way was) *narrow and difficult, by which carts could hardly be hauled one at a time;* B. G. 1, 6, 1.

a. The potential feeling of the clause is clearly shown by its parallelism with clauses with **possum** in the Subjunctive of Actuality (**521**, 1) with a dependent Infinitive. Thus **unde agger comportārī posset** (instead of **comportārētur**), **nihil erat reliquum**, *there was nothing left from which a rampart could be got together;* B. C. 2, 15, 1; cf. B. G. 2, 25, 1; 4, 29, 4.

3. In **Substantive Clauses** after **fierī potest**.

fierī potest ut rēctē quis sentiat, et id quod sentit polītē ēloquī nōn possit, *it may happen that a man may think correctly, and yet be unable to express his thoughts in a finished manner;* Tusc. 1, 3, 6.

a. This is the only way in Latin of saying "may" or "can," except with **possum** used personally, or as shown under **517**, 1.

VII. THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF IDEAL CERTAINTY[2]

518. The Subjunctive of Ideal Certainty declares that, under imagined or imaginable circumstances, something *would take place* (or *would have taken place*), or asks a corresponding

[1] Thus after **est, habeō, nōn est, nōn habeō**, etc.

These clauses are really *descriptive*, expressing that of which the antecedent is *capable*, or for which it is *available* or *suitable*.

[2] Possibility, Natural Likelihood, and Ideal Certainty (act possible, probable, or ideally certain) often lie close together, so that a given example may seem to belong to

question (English "I should," "you would," "he would," etc.). The negative is **nōn**.

a. The Present and Perfect express an Ideal Certainty in time *future to the present*, the Imperfect and Past Perfect an Ideal Certainty in time *future to a past time*. The Perfect is accordingly a Future Perfect for the present, the Past Perfect a Future Perfect for the past. Thus, **ille id faciat**, *he would do this* (e.g. if he should be called upon); **ille id fēcerit**, *he would assuredly do this* (emphatic Perfect).

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b. **New Force developed by the Imperfect and Past Perfect Subjunctive.** In addition, the Imperfect and Past Perfect Subjunctive gained the power of expressing an ideal certainty *contrary to fact*, the *Imperfect* referring generally to *present* time, and the *Past Perfect* to either *past* or *present* time. Thus **ille id faceret**, *he would be doing this* (e.g. if he had been called upon); **ille id fēcisset**, *he would have done this*, now or in the past (e.g. if he had been called upon). For the origin of this force of the tenses, see **581**, *a*, rem.

519. The Subjunctive of Ideal Certainty is used:

1. In Statements and Questions.

ecquis id dīxerit? Certē nēmō, *would anybody dream of saying this? Surely nobody would;* Tusc. 1, 36, 87. (Emphatic Perfect. Act future.)

īre per ignīs et gladiōs ausim, *I should have courage to go through fire and sword;* Ov. Met. 8, 76.

nōn ille nōbīs Sāturnālia cōnstituisset, *he would not have appointed the Saturnalia for us, not he;* Cat. 3, 7, 17. (Contrary to fact; for they *have been* appointed.)

a. A frequent use is in Subjunctive Conclusions. See **574, 580, 581**.

b. This Subjunctive is often used merely to *soften a statement*.

ego quae in rem tuam sint ea velim faciās, *I should like you to do that which is for your interest;* Ph. 449. (Compare the unsoftened **Syrō ignōscās volō**, *I* WANT *you to forgive Syrus;* Heaut. 1066.)

velītis iubeātisne haec sīc fierī? *would it be your wish and command that this course be taken?* Liv. 22, 10, 2. (Softened Question.)

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any or all of the three forces. Thus **nēmō crēdat** might mean either *no one could believe*, *no one would be likely to believe*, or *no one would believe*.

At the *extremes* of their forces, on the other hand, Possibility and Ideal Certainty are widely separated. Thus in **nōn ille nōbīs** under **519**, 1, the meaning is not *possibly he would not have appointed . . .*, but *he certainly would not have appointed . . .*, NOT HE.

c. **Virtual Wishes.** The Softened Statements **velim, vellem, mālim, māllem**, with an Infinitive or Volitive Clause attached, are equivalent to a Subjunctive of Wish.

virum mē nātam vellem, *I should like to have been born a man* (= would that I had been born a man); Ph. 792. Similarly **māllem ēdūxisset**, Cat. 2, 3, 5.

2. In **Relative Clauses**, determinative or descriptive.

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ūnō verbō dīc, quid est quod mē velīs, *tell me in a word what the thing is which you would like of me*; And. 45. (Determinative.)

fēcērunt id servī Milōnis quod suōs quisque servōs in tālī rē facere voluisset, *Milo's slaves did just that which, in similar circumstances, any one would have wished his slaves to do*; Mil. 10, 29. (Determinative.)

nīl est aequē quod faciam lubēns, *there is nothing that I should do with so much pleasure*; Ph. 565. (Descriptive.)

profectus id temporis, cum iam Clōdius, sī quidem eō diē Rōmam ventūrus erat, redīre potuisset, *he set out at an hour when Clodius, if he really meant on that day to come to Rome, might already have been* (would have been able to be) *on his way back*; Mil. 10, 28. (Descriptive.)

3. In **Clauses of Ideally Certain Result**, with **ut** or **ut nōn**.

adeō variant auctōrēs ut vix quicquam adfirmāre ausus sim, *authorities differ so much that I should hardly dare to make any statement at all*; Liv. 22, 36, 1. (Present Ideal Certainty about the future.)

rēs tamen ab Āfrāniānīs hūc erat dēducta, ut, sī prīōrēs montīs attigissent, ipsī perīculum vītārent, impedīmenta servāre nōn possent, *things, however, had been brought to such a pass by Afranius and his men, that, if they should be the first to reach the hills, they themselves would escape from danger, but would be unable to save their baggage*; B. C. 1, 70, 2. (Past-future Ideal Certainty.)

a. The Descriptive Clause and the Result Clause both express something that *would naturally follow from the character of the antecedent*. Hence they may be called *Consecutive Clauses.*

b. In modern English we have to use the Conjunction "that" (after "such," "so," etc.) to express the full consecutive idea. In Shakespeare's time, the bare Relative "who" or "that" could do this. A comparison will make the feeling of the Latin plainer.

"Who is here so base that would be a bondman?" Shakespeare, Jul. Caes. 3, 2.

quis est tam impius quī nōn fateātur? *who is so impious that* (*he*) *would not admit . . .?* Har. Resp. 10, 20.

4. In **Substantive Clauses of Ideal Certainty**:

a) With **ut** or **ut nōn**, after verbs of *bringing about* or of *existence.*

unde fit ut mālim frāterculus esse gigantis, *whence it results that I should prefer to be the little brother of a son of the soil*; Iuv. 4, 98.

b) With **quīn** after verbs or phrases of *doubt* or *ignorance*, if these are negatived, or imply a negative.[1]

quod ille sī repudiāsset, dubitātis quīn eī vīs esset adlāta? *if he had refused, do you doubt that violence would have been offered him?* Sest. 29, 62. (Here **dubitātis** = **dubitāre nōn potestis.**)

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SUBJUNCTIVE CONSTRUCTIONS OF COMPOSITE ORIGIN (FUSION)

THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF ACTUALITY (FACT)

520. The Subjunctive of Actuality represents an act or state as a fact. The negative is **nōn.**

a. In Subjunctive Clauses of Actuality, the Present expresses either a present or future *situation* or a present or future act seen *aoristically*, the Imperfect either a past *situation* or a past act seen *aoristically*, *but in temporal relation to the main act.* The Past Aorist (Perfect), on the other hand, expresses a past act, etc., seen *absolutely*.

The Present Perfect and Past Perfect express an act as *in a completed state* at a present or past time respectively.

521. The Subjunctive of Actuality is used only in dependent clauses *of consecutive nature* (521, 1, *e*), as follows:

1. In **Descriptive Clauses of Actuality (Fact).**

Any relative may be used (e.g. **quī, cum, ubi, unde**). **Quīn,**[2] *who . . . not, that . . . not,* may be employed in place of **quī nōn,** etc., but only after a negative idea, expressed or implied.

sī quis est tālis quī mē accūset, *if there is any one of such a disposition that he blames me;* Cat. 2, 2, 3. (Present state of affairs.)

at sunt quī dīcant, *but there are men that say;* Cat. 2, 6, 12.

num quis est tam dēmēns quī arbitrētur? *is there any one so mad* (who thinks) *as to think?* Mil. 28, 78.

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[1] So especially after **nōn dubitō, nōn dubium est, quis dubitat** (implies "no one doubts"), **num dubium est, nōn ignōrō, quis ignōrat.**

After an affirmative the Infinitive is used (example in **589**), and the later writers often use it even after a negative.

[2] This **quīn** is of the same origin as the conjunction **quīn,** *that not* (footnote 1, p. 262), but is used in place of the declined relatives **quī nōn, quae nōn,** or **quod nōn.** It may be employed in any construction in which **quī nōn** is possible, e.g. in **519, 2.**

is sum, quī istōs plausūs semper contempserim, *I am one that has always despised such applause* (I am such that I have . . .); Phil. 1, 15, 37. (Present Perfect.)

nēmō fuit quīn vīderit, *there was no one that did not see;* Verr. 5, 54, 140. (Past Aorist, expressing the time absolutely.)

fuit tempus cnm Germānōs Gallī virtūte superārent, *there was a time when the Gauls surpassed the Germans in courage;* B. G. 6, 24, 1.

in ea tempora nātus es, quibus firmāre animum expediat cōnstantibus exemplīs, *your life has fallen upon times in which it is well to fortify the mind through examples of firmness* (times such that in them . . .); Tac. Ann. 16, 35. (Present state of affairs.)

in id saeculum Rōmulī cecidit aetās, cum iam minor fābulīs habērētur fidēs, *the life of Romulus fell upon an age when less credence was given to fables;* Rep. 2, 10, 18. (Past state of affairs.)

erit illud profectō tempus cum tū amīcissimī benevolentiam dēsīderēs, *there will surely come a time when you will miss the kindness of a devoted friend;* Mil. 26, 69. (Future state of affairs.)

a. These clauses follow incomplete descriptive words,[1] *or negative or indefinite expressions, or questions implying a negative.*

NOTE. Because of the kind of words or phrases after which the subjunctive descriptive clause is used, it is *essential*, i.e. it cannot be left out without making the sentence incomplete. Cf. the *free* descriptive clause, **569**.

b. The Subjunctive in such descriptive clauses is *always* necessary after a negative, and after words meaning *such* or *so*.[1]

After indefinite positive antecedents,[2] the Indicative (which was the original mood) never was wholly driven out, though the Subjunctive became more common. Thus **sunt multī quī Graecās nōn ament litterās**, Ac. 2, 2, 5, but **sunt multī quī ēripiunt . . .**, Off. 1, 14, 43.

c. These clauses all tell *what kind of* a person or thing is meant; i.e., they are really *complex adjectives*. For the contrasting Determinative Clauses (Indicative), which tell *what* person or thing is meant, see **550**.

NOTE. Notice (in the last four examples) that a *time* may be described, as well as anything else, and that the mechanism is the same, except that the temporal relative **cum** may be used, as well as a form of **quī**, for such an antecedent. Thus one may say **in id saeculum quō**, or **in id saeculum cum**.

d. For **maior quam quī**, etc., with the Subjunctive, see 2, *c*, below.

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[1] **Tālis**, *such*, **tantus**, *so great*, **hic**, **ille**, **is**, or **iste**, *such*, **ūnus** or **sōlus**, *the only one*, or **tam**, **adeō**, or **ita**, *so*, with an adjective.

[2] E.g. **sunt quī**, **multī sunt quī**, **quīdam sunt quī**.

e. The Descriptive Clause of Actuality, the Clause of Actual Result (see 2, below), and the Substantive Clause of Actuality (see 3, below) all express something that *follows from the character of the antecedent.* Hence these clauses and the clauses derived from them may be called **Consecutive Clauses.** But in the Descriptive Clause of Actuality the original consecutive feeling is often faint, or even non-existent. (So in **sunt quī dīcant,** above.)

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f. **Quod sciam,** etc. The Subjunctive is used in phrases meaning *so far as I know, so far as I have heard,* etc. (**quod** or **quantum sciam, quod exstet, quod quidem sēnserim, quod audierim,** etc.), since these phrases generally follow negative or indefinite words.

numquam dictum ab illō, quod sciam, *never, so far as I know, has it been said by him;* Fin. 2, 26, 82.

2. In **Clauses of Actual Result (Fact),** with **ut, ut nōn,** or **quīn. Quīn** is used only after a negative idea, expressed or implied.

neque enīm is es, Catilīna, ut tē pudor umquam ā turpitūdine revocārit, *you are not such a man, Catiline, that shame has ever held you back from dishonor;* Cat. 1, 9, 22. (Present Perfect.)

nec tam sum dēmēns ut nesciam quid sentiātis, *nor am I so mad as not to know what you think;* Mil. 27, 72.

hostium tam parātus (fuit) ad dīmicandum animus, ut etiam ad galeās induendās tempus dēfuerit, *the spirit of the enemy was so ready for battle that time failed even for putting on the helmets;* B. G. 2, 21, 5. (Tense aoristic, and absolute.)

tanta rērum commūtātiō est facta ut nostrī proelium redintegrārent, *so great a change was made that our men renewed the fight;* B. G. 2, 27, 1. (Tense aoristic, but relative to that of **facta est.**)

mōns altissimus impendēbat, ut perpaucī prohibēre possent, *a high mountain overhung, so that even a very small number were able to stop the way;* B. G. 1, 6, 1. (Tense of past situation.)

numquam tam male est Siculīs quīn aliquid facētē dīcant, *things never go so badly with the Sicilians that they have n't some witty thing to say;* Verr. 4, 43, 95.

eiusmodī tempus erat ut hominēs impūne occīderentur, *the time was such that men were being killed with impunity;* Rosc. Am. 29, 80.

iīs temporibus fuērunt ut eōrum lūctum ipsōrum dignitās cōnsōlārētur, (Paullus and Cato) *lived in such times that their high position consoled their grief;* Fam. 4, 6, 1.

a. These clauses generally follow incomplete descriptive words[1]; but they may also follow a verb having no modifier, as in the example **mōns impendēbat, ut . . .** above.

b. There is no essential difference between the Descriptive Clause of Actuality and the Clause of Actual Result, when both express the character of a person, thing, or time. E.g. **is sum quī contempserim** of **521**, 1, and **is es ut revocārit** of **521**, 2, correspond exactly in meaning; as also do **tam dēmēns quī** of **521**, 1, and **tam dēmēns ut** of **521**, 2.

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c. A Comparative with **quam** may be followed by a Consecutive **quī**- or **ut**-Clause of Actuality, with the meaning of *more . . . than such as to . . .*, *too . . . to*, etc.

maior sum quam cui possit fortūna nocēre, *I am too great for fortune to have power to harm me* (greater than one such that fortune is able); Ov. Met. 6, 195. Similarly **rēs est vīsa maior quam ut**, Liv. 22, 51, 3.

nōn longius hostēs aberant quam quō tēlum adigī posset, *the enemy was not farther away than a javelin could be thrown* (than a point such that to it . . .); B. G. 2, 21, 3.

d. **Ita ut** with the Subjunctive may express a Limitation. **Ita ut** may also express the Way by Which, and (ita) **ut nōn**, or **quīn**, an Act *not* Accompanying the main act.

quī ita concēdunt, ut vōbīscum de amōre reī pūblicae certent, *who yield only to the extent of vying* (so that they vie) *with you in love for the Commonwealth;* Cat. 4, 7, 15.

ita ēlūdit ut contendat . . ., *he escapes by urging . . .* (in such a way that he urges); Plin. Ep. 1, 20, 6.

ingenium ita laudō ut nōn pertimēscam, *I praise his ability without being overawed by it* (in such a way that I am not overawed); Caecil. 13, 44. Similarly Pomp. 7, 19.

3. In Substantive Clauses of Actuality (Fact):

a) With **ut** or **ut nōn**, after verbs of *bringing about* or of *existence*.[2]

sed ut possim facit ācta vīta, *but my past life makes me able* (makes that I am able); Sen. 11, 38. (Present state of affairs. In tense, **possim** = **possum**.)

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[1] **Tālis**, *such*, **tantus**, *so great*, **hic**, **ille**, **is**, or **iste**, *such*, or **tam**, **adeō**, **sīc**, or **ita**, *so*, with an adjective or adverb.

When following an incomplete *adverbial* modifier, or a verb without modifier, these clauses describe the character of the *act* or *state* expressed by that verb.

[2] Such verbs (or phrases) express: (1) the *Bringing About* of something, e.g. **faciō**, **efficiō**, **cōnficiō**, **perficiō**, **cōgō**, **persuādeō**; (2) a *Conclusion Brought About* (i.e. proved), e.g. **efficitur**, **sequitur**, **relinquitur**, **restat**; (3) a *Fact Occurring or Existing*, e.g. **fit** (*it is brought about, the result is*), **accidit**, **contingit**, **obtingit**, **ēvenit** (*it happens*), **est** (*it is the case that*), **accēdit** (*it is the case in addition that*), **rārum**, **novum**, and the like with **est** (*it is rarely the case that*, etc.), **tantum abest ut** (*it is so far from being the case that*), **vērum**, **falsum**, and the like with **est** (*it is true or false that*); (4) *Existing Custom*, e.g. **mōs** or **mōris est**, **cōnsuētūdō** or **cōnsuētūdinis est**, **commūne est**.

Verbs like **faciō**, **efficiō**, or **cōgō**, may be followed by either the Volitive Subjunctive (**502**, 3, *a*), or the Subjunctive of Actuality, according as the writer or speaker is thinking of an act as *to be* brought out, or as *actually* brought about. (Cf. **efficiēmus nē**, under **502**, 3, *a*.)

hīs rēbus fīēbat,[1] ut minus lātē vagārentur, *the result of this was that their wanderings were over a narrower territory;* B. G. 1, 2, 4. (Past state of affairs. In tense, vagārentur = vagābantur.)

populī Rōmānī hanc esse cōnsuētūdinem, ut sociōs grātiā, dignitāte, honōre auctiōrēs vellet esse, *it was* (said he) *the way of the Roman people to desire* (that it desired) *its allies to be magnified in influence, dignity, and honor;* B. G. 1, 43, 8.

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NOTE. The Substantive ut-Clause of Actuality is often a mere *verb-noun.*

id quod ipsī diēbus XX aegerrimē cōnfēcerant, ut flūmen trānsīrent, *what they themselves had with difficulty accomplished in twenty days, namely, the crossing of the river;* B. G. 1, 13, 2.

b) With quīn, after verbs or phrases of *doubt* or *ignorance*,[2] if these are negatived, or imply a negative.

nōn dubitat quīn brevī sit Troia peritūra, *he does not doubt that Troy will soon fall;* Sen. 10, 31. (Periphrastic Future; see 470, 4, *a*.)

neque abest suspīciō, quīn ipse sibi mortem cōnscīverit, *nor is suspicion lacking that he took his own life;* B. G. 1, 4, 4. (Past Aorist.)

NOTE. The Infinitive also may be used (589), and, after verbs not negatived, always *is* used until after Cicero's time.

NEW MEANINGS DEVELOPED BY THE CONSECUTIVE quī-CLAUSE

Restrictive Relative Clause

522. A Subjunctive Relative Clause may be used to *restrict the application of the antecedent.*

omnium ōrātōrum, quōs quidem ego cognōverim, acūtissimum, *the keenest of all orators, at least of such as I have known;* Brut. 48, 180. (So generally with quidem.)

M. Antōnī, omnium ēloquentissimī quōs ego audierim, *Marcus Antonius, the most eloquent of all whom I have heard;* Tusc. 5, 19, 55.

a. Without quidem, the Determinative Indicative is much more common; see 550.

Causal or Adversative Relative Clause

523. A Relative Clause in the Subjunctive may be used to express *Cause* or *Opposition*.[3]

[1] The rise of the meaning of Fact out of Effect (Result) is due to such phrases as effectum est ut, *it has been brought about that*, = *it is now the fact that* . . .

[2] So especially after nōn dubitō, nōn dubium est, nōn ignōrō, quis dubitat, num dubium est, quis ignōrat, nōn abest suspīciō.

[3] The word "cause" is used for brevity (here and in 525 and 526) in place of "cause or reason," and the word "opposition" in place of "opposition or contrast."

ferreī sumus, quī quicquam huic negēmus, *we are hard-hearted, that we deny him anything;* Phil. 8, 8, 25 (Causal; = I say hard-hearted *because . . .*).

illī autem, quī omnia dē rē pūblicā praeclāra sentīrent, negōtium suscēpērunt, *and they, since they had only the noblest sentiments toward the state, undertook the task;* Cat. 3, 2, 5. (Causal.)

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tum Cethēgus, quī paulō ante aliquid dē gladiīs ac sīcīs respondisset, repente conticuit, *then Cethegus, although a little before he had made some reply about the swords and daggers, suddenly became silent;* Cat. 3, 5, 10. (Adversative.)

a. As compared with the Tacit Causal or Adversative Clause (Indicative; **569**, *a*) which merely *suggests* the idea of cause or opposition without calling attention to it, the Subjunctive Clause may be called the **Explicit Causal** or **Adversative Clause.**

b. The Causal **quī**-Clause is often introduced by **ut (utpote), quippe,** or **praesertim** (*as, in fact, especially*, etc.).

magna pars Fīdēnātium, ut quī colōnī additī Rōmānīs essent, Latīnē sciēbant, *a good many of the people of Fidenae, inasmuch as they had been annexed to the Romans as colonists, understood Latin;* Liv. 1, 27, 9.

New Meanings developed by the Consecutive cum-Clause

Descriptive cum-Clause of Situation

524. A Subjunctive **cum**-Clause may be used to *describe the Situation under Which* the main act took place.

The tenses are necessarily those of past situation (Imperfect or Past Perfect).

Original type.[1]

accēpit agrum temporibus iīs cum iacērent pretia praediōrum, *he got the land at a time when prices were down,* Rosc. Com. 12, 33.

epistolae tum datae sunt cum ego mē nōn bellē habērem, *the letters were sent at a time when I was not feeling well;* Att. 5, 11, 7.

Narrative type.[2]

ipsī ad mē, cum iam dīlūcēsceret, dēdūcuntur, *the men themselves were brought to me as day was breaking;* Cat. 3, 3, 6. (**Dīlūcēsceret** is narrated, just as much as **dēdūcuntur** is.)

[1] These examples are simply additional instances of the kind seen in **521**, 1.

[2] Essentially the same thing as the original type, but employed in a new way, namely in narrating.

a. The Descriptive cum-Clause of Situation is often equivalent to a Participle.

prō castrīs fortissimē pugnāns occīditur, *he is killed fighting bravely in front of the camp;* B. G. 5, 37, 5.

in secundō proeliō cecidit Critiās cum fortissimē pugnāret, *in the second battle Critias fell fighting bravely;* Nep. Thras. 2, 7.

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Antiochum saepe disputantem audiēbam, *I used often to hear Antiochus arguing;* Ac. 2, 4, 11.

L. Flaccum audīvī cum dīceret (= dīcentem) . . . , *I have heard Lucius Flaccus* (saying) *say . . . ;* Div. 1, 46, 104.

b. **The Descriptive cum-Clause of Situation in its Lightest Form.** The construction, as the examples under *a* indicate, may at the extreme of its development show the feeling of Situation but faintly.

c. The Descriptive cum-Clause of Situation stands in sharp contrast with the Determinative cum-Clause (**550**, *a*) which simply *defines* the time of the main act.

d. In the future the cum-Clause of Situation, unless clearly consecutive as in erit illud tempus cum (**521**, 1), takes the Indicative. Thus **cum poterit,** Cat. 1, 2, 5.

e. For the Indicative in cum-Clauses of Situation in the present, see **569**, note 1.

Cum-Clause of Situation, with Accessory Causal or Adversative Idea

525. The Descriptive cum-Clause of Situation may be used *with an accessory idea* of Cause or Opposition.

hīs cum suā sponte persuādēre nōn possent, lēgātōs ad Dumnorīgem mittunt, *when* (and because) *they could not persuade them by their own efforts, they sent* (send) *ambassadors to Dumnorix;* B. G. 1, 9, 2.

nam cum id posset īnfitiārī, repente praeter opīniōnem omnium cōnfessus est, *for when* (and in spite of the fact that) *it was in his power to deny, suddenly, contrary to what everybody was looking for, he confessed;* Cat. 3, 5, 11.

a. Since the idea of Situation is the *original* one, the preference should always be given to it in explaining instances where it is still present. Thus the above should not be explained merely as causal or adversative clauses.

The Purely Causal or Adversative cum-Clause

526. A Subjunctive cum-Clause may be used, in any tense, to express *Cause* or *Opposition*.[1]

[1] The construction arose in that of Situation, as in **525**. The use of it in cases where the idea of Situation was weak, and that of Cause or Opposition strong, led to this last type in which the latter idea alone is emphasized. The same cause led to the complete freedom of the tense.

quae cum ita sint, Catilīna, perge, *since this is so, Catiline, proceed;* Cat. 1, 5, 10. (Causal.)

cum ea ita sint, tamen sēsē pācem esse factūrum, *though this is so, yet* (he says) *he will make peace;* B. G. 1, 14, 6. (Adversative.)

a. The Causal **cum**-Clause, like the Causal **quī**-Clause, may be introduced by **utpote, quippe,** or **praesertim** (*as, in fact, especially*, etc.). **Praesertim** sometimes *follows* **cum**. **cum praesertim videam . . .**, *especially since I see . . .;* Cat. 3, 12, 28.

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Cum-Clauses in Early Latin

527. In early Latin, all **cum**-Clauses, whether narrative, causal, or adversative, still took the Indicative. Occasional examples are to be found even in Cicero's time and later. Thus Virgil uses the older construction, for its old-fashioned effect, in several places, as:

postera cum stellās fugārat diēs, sociōs in coetum advocat Aenēās, *when the next dawn had chased away the stars, Aeneas called* (calls) *his comrades to an assembly;* Aen. 5, 42. (In Cicero, this would naturally have been **fugāsset**; compare **cum dīlūcēsceret**, in **524**.)

THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN CONDITIONS

528. *Conditions and Conclusions of all kinds are treated together, for convenience, in* **573-582**.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF PROVISO

529. The Subjunctive may be used with **modo, dum,** or **dum modo**, *only, so long as, so long as only*, to express a *Proviso*. The negative is **nē** (sometimes, in later Latin, **nōn**).

id Rōmānī, modo nē quid movērent, aequō satis animō (ferēbant), *the Romans were well enough satisfied with this, provided only they might remain inactive;* Liv. 21, 52, 4.

magnō mē metū līberābis, dum modo inter mē atque tē mūrus intersit, *you will free me from great fear, if only there shall be a wall between you and me;* Cat. 1, 5, 10.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF REQUEST OR ENTREATY

530. The Subjunctive may be used to express Request or Entreaty (negative **nē**):

1. In Independent Sentences.

iam accipiat, hanc dūcat, *do let him have the money at once, and marry the girl;* Ph. 677.

a. The Second Person is almost wholly confined to poetry.

sīs fēlīx, *be thou propitious;* Aen. 1, 330.

sī tibi vidētur, dēs eī fīliam tuam nūptum, *if you approve, give him your daughter in marriage;* Nep. Paus. 2, 3. (Written to a king.)

2. In **Substantive Clauses**, after verbs or phrases of *Requesting, Begging, Imploring*, etc.[1]

Dīviciācus Caesarem obsecrāre coepit nē quid gravius in frātrem statueret, *Diviciacus began to entreat Caesar not to pass too severe judgment upon his brother;* B. G. 1, 20, 1.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF CONSENT OR INDIFFERENCE

531. The Subjunctive may be used to express *Consent, Acquiescence*, or *Indifference* (negative **nē**):

1. In **Independent Sentences.**

vīn mē crēdere? Fīat, *do you wish me to believe it? So be it;* Ph. 810.

moriar nī putō tē mālle ā Caesare cōnsulī quam inaurārī, *may I die* (= I am willing to die) *if I don't believe you would rather have Caesar ask your advice than make you a millionaire;* Fam. 7, 13, 1. (Compare the boys' phrase "I hope to die if it is n't true.")

sibi habeant arma, *they may have their arms;* Sen. 16, 58.

2. In **Substantive Clauses**, after verbs of *Consent, Acquiescence*, or *Indifference*.[2]

huic permīsit utī in hīs locīs legiōnem conlocāret, *he gave him permission to station his legion in those parts;* B. G. 3, 1, 3.

quae iam mēcum licet recognōscās, *and these things you may now recall with me* (it is permitted that you recall); Cat. 1, 3, 6.

532. The Subjunctive may be used to express a *Concession of Indifference* ("Concessive" Subjunctive):

1. In **Independent Sentences** (negative **nē**).

nē sit sānē summum malum dolor; malum certē est, *grant that pain is not the greatest evil; an evil at any rate it is;* Tusc. 2, 5, 14.

a. This construction, and the dependent form of it in 2, generally express a concession made merely *for the sake of the argument*, and are thus the opposite of the concession of *fact* (Indicative; **556**, *a*).

[1] The most common of the verbs are **rogō, ōrō, precor, obsecrō, impetrō, quaerō, petō.** It is often hard to determine whether in a given Substantive Clause the idea of Request is uppermost, or that of Will (**502**, 3). The distinction is unimportant, since with verbs of weaker meaning the idea of Will would always tend to *shade into* that of Request.

[2] The most common of these are **concēdō, sinō, permittō, licet.**

2. In **Dependent Concessions of Indifference**, with **quamvīs** or **quamlibet**, *as much as you please, even though* (negative **nōn**).

illa quamvīs rīdicula essent, sīcut erant, tamen rīsum nōn mōvērunt, *no matter how amusing this may have been, as in fact it was, nevertheless it did n't raise a laugh;* Fam. 7, 32, 3. (Concession of a state of things in the past.)

senectūs quamvīs nōn sit gravis, tamen aufert eam viriditātem in quā etiam nunc erat Scīpiō, *old age, no matter though it be not burdensome, nevertheless takes away the freshness which Scipio still possessed;* Am. 3, 11. (Concession in the general present.)

a. **Concession of Indifference with licet.** **Licet**, *it is permitted*, is often used as a Conjunction, in a Concession of Indifference.

fremant omnēs licet, dīcam quod sentiō, *the whole world may storm at me, still I will say the thing I think* (though the whole world should storm); De Or. 1, 44, 195.

b. A Subjunctive Clause with **ut**, *even though*, may express a Concession of Indifference.[1]

ac iam ut omnia contrā opīniōnem acciderent, tamen sē plūrimum nāvibus posse, *then, too, even though everything should turn out contrary to their expectation*, (they felt) *that they were very powerful in ships;* B. G. 3, 9, 6.

c. For the Concession of Fact with **quamquam**, see **556**, *a*. For the same with **etsī**, **tametsī**, etc., see **582**, 8. For the breakdown of the distinction between **quamvīs** and **quamquam**, see **541**.

SUBJUNCTIVE CONSTRUCTIONS DUE TO THE INFLUENCE OF OTHER CONSTRUCTIONS (ANALOGY)

THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF INDIRECT DISCOURSE

533. When the words or thoughts of any one are reported exactly as spoken or thought, they are said to be in **Direct Discourse**.[2] When they are made to depend on a verb of saying, thinking, etc. (expressed or implied), they are said to be in **Indirect Discourse**.[3]

a. In Indirect Discourse, the first and second persons generally change to the third (**ego** to **sē**, **meus** to **suus**, **hic** and **iste** to **ille**, etc.). The same applies to subordinate clauses.

[1] This **ut** is probably merely the formal opposite of **nē** (cf. p. 261, footnote 2); but the clause *may* originally have been dependent ("granting *that*").

[2] Also called **Ōrātiō Rēcta**.

[3] Also called **Ōrātiō Obliqua**.

534. 1. As explained in **589**,

Principal Statements in Indirect Discourse are expressed by the Infinitive, regularly with a Subject Accusative.[1]

Dumnorīgem dēsignārī sentiēbat, (Caesar) *was aware that Dumnorix was meant;* B. G. 1, 18, 1. (What Caesar thought was : **Dumnorīx dēsignātur**, *Dumnorix is meant.*)

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a. The Infinitive of Indirect Discourse often follows a verb which does not suggest this idea. The *Infinitive itself* is, in such a case, the *sign* of the idea.

sēsē omnēs flentēs Caesarī ad pedēs prōiēcērunt; nōn minus sē contendere . . ., *all threw themselves, in tears, at Caesar's feet: they were not less urgent* (they said) . ; B. G. 1, 31, 2.

b. All *Conclusions* (being *Statements*) must go into the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse. See especially **581**, *b*, 1).

2. Subordinate Clauses *representing Indicatives* or *Imperatives* are put in the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse. These are :

I. Subordinate Statements of Fact, including Clauses of Reason with **quod, quia, quoniam,** or **quandō** (**535**).
II. Conditions of Fact (**536**).
III. Questions of Fact (**537**).
IV. Commands or Prohibitions (**538**).

a. The negative is the same as in corresponding clauses or sentences in Direct Discourse, i.e. **nē** for commands or prohibitions, and **nōn** for all other clauses. (Cf. **464.**)

b. For comparison, the corresponding Indicative or Imperative forms of *Direct* Discourse will be given for each of the Subjunctive examples.

535. 1. Subordinate Statements of Fact in Indirect Discourse

Indirect Discourse	Direct Discourse
vehementer eōs incūsāvit; sē cum sōlā decimā legiōne itūrum, dē quā nōn dubitāret, *he rebuked them roundly,* (and said) *that he would go with the Tenth Legion alone, about which he had no doubt;* B. G. 1, 40, 15.	**cum sōlā decimā legiōne ībō, dē quā nōn dubitō,** *I will go with the Tenth Legion alone, about which I have no doubt.*

[1] The construction is mentioned here for convenience; but the *principle* is simply that of **589–593**, which see for details and a list of governing verbs.

a. **Informal Indirect Discourse.** The fact that a statement is quoted may be shown by the mood alone, even if there is no verb of saying or thinking in the main sentence.

cotīdiē Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum quod essent pollicitī flāgitāre, *Caesar was dunning the Haedui daily for the grain which* (as he reminded them) *they had promised;* B. G. 1, 16, 1.

frūmentum quod estis pollicitī, (give me) *the grain which you have promised.*

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b. Forward-Moving and Parenthetical Relative Clauses of Fact (566 and 567), since they are additional statements of fact, may be expressed in Indirect Discourse by the Infinitive. In the majority of cases, however, the general mould of the sentence throws such a clause into the Subjunctive. An example of each kind follows:

nōn sustinēre dēserere officiī suī partīs, in quō tamen suō dolōrī modum impōnere, (Cornutus said) *that he could not endure to desert the duties of his office; in which, however* (= but in this) *he set bounds to his own grief;* Plin. Ep. 9, 13, 16.

scīre sē illa esse vēra, nec quemquam ex eō plūs dolōris capere, propterea quod per sē crēvisset; quibus opibus ad minuendam grātiam ūterētur, (said) *that he knew this to be true, and that no one suffered more grief from the fact, for the reason that* (*his brother*) *had grown through his help; which resources he was using to lessen his influence;* B. G. 1, 20, 2. (Might have been written **quibus ūtī,** *which he was using.*) Similarly the parenthetical **quī diēs futūrus esset;** Cat. 1, 3, 7.

c. An Infinitive construction is often kept up after a Relative or **quam** depending upon an Infinitive. In such a case, the Infinitive is often expressed but once.

tē suspicor īsdem rēbus quibus mē ipsum commovērī, *I suspect that you are troubled by the same things by which I myself am;* Sen. 1, 1.

d. Clauses expressing statements *inserted by the narrator himself* are really not a part of the Indirect Discourse, and therefore are expressed by the Indicative.

nūntiātum est Ariovistum ad occupandum Vesontiōnem, quod est oppidum maximum Sēquanōrum, contendere, *it was announced that Ariovistus was hurrying to take possession of Besançon, which is the largest town of the Sequani;* B. G. 1, 38, 1.

2. Clauses of Reason with quod, quia, quoniam, or quandō, in Indirect Discourse

These are mostly only a *particular kind* of statement of fact, distinguished from the others for convenience.

Indirect Discourse	Direct Discourse
Caesar respondit eō sibi minus dubitātiōnis darī, quod memoriā tenēret . . . , *Caesar answered that he felt less hesitation, because he remembered . . . ;* B. G. 1, 14, 1.	**mihi minus dubitātiōnis datur, quod memoriā teneō . . . ,** *I feel less hesitation, because I remember*
grātulāris mihi quod accēperim augurātum, *you congratulate me on having been made an augur;* Plin. Ep. 4, 8, 1.	**grātulor tibi quod augurātum accēpistī,** *I congratulate you on having been made an augur.*

a. **Subjunctive of Quoted Reason.** By a kind of informal Indirect Discourse, the Subjunctive is used with **quod, quia, quoniam,** or **quandō** to express a reason *given by another than the speaker.*

supplicātiō dēcrēta est, quod Italiam bellō līberāssem, *a thanksgiving was decreed because I had saved Italy from war;* Cat. 3, 6, 15. (This was what the senate said, in passing the decree.)

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NOTE 1. To give the *speaker's* reason, the Indicative is used. See **555.**

NOTE 2. The speaker may quote a reason as *given or felt by himself at another time,* and will then use the Subjunctive.

NOTE 3. By a natural confusion, **dīcō** and **exīstimō** are sometimes put in the Subjunctive in a **quod**-Clause of Reason.

rediit quod sē oblītum nesciō quid dīceret, *he came back, because he said he had forgotten something* (properly **quod oblītus esset,** *because,* as he said, *he had forgotten*); Off. 1, 13, 40. Similarly **quod exīstimārent,** B. G. 1, 23, 3.

b. **Subjunctive of Rejected Reason.** The Subjunctive is used with **nōn quod, nōn quia, nōn quoniam, nōn quō, nōn quīn,** etc., to express a reason *imagined as possibly given* by some one, but *rejected* by the speaker.[1] The true reason is then sometimes added in the Indicative.

nōn idcircō eōrum ūsum dīmīseram, quod iīs suscēnsērem, sed quod eōrum mē suppudēbat, *I had given up my intercourse with them* (my books); *not that I was angry at them, but because I felt somewhat ashamed of myself in their presence;* Fam. 9, 1, 2.

536. Conditions of Fact in Indirect Discourse

INDIRECT DISCOURSE	DIRECT DISCOURSE
respondit sī obsidēs ab iīs sibi dentur, sēsē[2] **cum iīs**[2] **pācem esse factūrum,** *he answers that if hostages shall be given him by them, he will make peace with them;* B. G. 1, 14, 6. (Condition really future to a past time, but picturesquely put as future to the present.)	**sī obsidēs ā vōbīs mihi dabuntur, vōbīscum pācem faciam,** *if hostages are* (shall be) *given me by you, I will make peace with you.* (More Vivid Future Condition; **579,** *a.*)
eōs incūsāvit: . . . sī quōs adversum proelium commovēret, hōs reperīre posse, *he rebuked them: .* (saying) *that, if the defeat disheartened any among them, these could ascertain . . .;* B. G. 1, 40, 8. (Condition of Fact, in time *relatively* present to the past point of view.)	**sī quōs adversum proelium commovet, hī reperīre possunt,** *if the defeat disheartens any among you, they can ascertain.* (Condition of Fact in the present; **579.**)

[1] This construction, though no longer a Subordinate Statement of Fact, has arisen *out of* such a statement. [2] Compare with example to the right, and note the changes of person.

a. **Informal Indirect Discourse.** The expression is often informal, the indirectness of the Condition being shown only by the Subjunctive itself.

sī quid dīcere vellet, fēcī potestātem, *I gave him an opportunity, if he wanted to say anything;* Cat. 3, 5, 11. Cf. **quī velint;** Aen. 5, 291.

sī quid dīcere vīs, potestātem habēs, *if you wish to say anything, you have an opportunity.* (Condition of Fact in the Present.)

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537. Questions of Fact in Indirect Discourse

Indirect Discourse	Direct Discourse
Ariovistus respondit . . ; quid sibi vellet? cūr in suās possessiōnēs veniret? *Ariovistus answered . . . ;* (asking) *what he* (Caesar) *wanted; why he* (Caesar) *came into his possessions;* B. G. 1, 44, 8.	**quid tibi vīs? quid in meās possessiōnēs venīs?** *what do you want? why do you come into my possessions?*

a. For Rhetorical Questions of Fact in Indirect Discourse, see **591**, *a.*

b. The Indirect Question of Fact in the Subjunctive may be used with *any* verb or expression capable of suggesting the interrogative idea. The underlying principle is the same as in the above.

quaesīvī quid dubitāret, *I asked why he hesitated;* Cat. 2, 6, 13.

incertī, quō fāta ferant, *uncertain whither the fates are carrying us;* Aen. 3, 7.

c. Indirect Questions are of substantive nature. See the example.

d. Note the following usages in Indirect Questions:

1) The Future Indicative is represented by the Periphrastic Future (**470**, 4, *a*).

antequam, ista quō ēvāsūra sint, vīderō, *before I see where this is going to turn out;* Att. 14, 19, 6. (The question is, **quō ēvādent?**)

2) **Num** does not differ from **-ne** in meaning.

quaerō num exīstimēs, *I ask whether you think;* Clu. 23, 62.

3) **Ut,** *how,* is freely used.[1]

docēbat ut omnī tempore tōtīus Galliae prīncipātum Haeduī tenuissent, (Caesar) *informed him how the Haedui had constantly held the chief position in all Gaul;* B. G. 1, 43, 6.

e. Several interrogative phrases may be used as *indefinites*, without effect upon the mood. So especially, in Ciceronian Latin, **nesciō quis** (**quō pactō**, etc.), **mīrē quam**, etc.

nesciō quō pactō ērūpit, *has in some way or other burst forth;* Cat. 1, 13, 31.

f. **Nesciō an** in Ciceronian Latin *generally* implies "I rather think that . . . " (cf. English "I don't know but"; example under **507**, 3). In later Latin, it has its original neutral meaning ("I don't know whether . . . ").

[1] **Ut** is used also in direct *Exclamations*, but not in direct *Questions*, except in early Latin and imitations of it.

g. The original Indicative is still sometimes found in Indirect Questions or Exclamations in poetry (especially in early Latin), and in late colloquial prose.

sciō quid dictūras (=**dictūra es**), *I know what you are going to say;* Aul. 174.

viden ut geminae stant vertice cristae, *see how upon his head the double plumes stand up;* Aen. 6, 779.

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538. Commands and Prohibitions in Indirect Discourse

Indirect Discourse	Direct Discourse
respondit . . . ; cum vellet, congrederētur, *he answered . . . ; when he wanted, let him come on;* B. G. 1, 36, 7.	**cum volēs, congredere**, *when you want* (shall want), *come on.*
nūntius vēnit bellum Athēniēnsīs indīxisse: quārē venīre nē dubitāret, *a message came that the Athenians had declared war: wherefore he should not hesitate to come;* Nep. Ages. 4, 1.	**Athēniēnsēs bellum indīxērunt: quārē venīre nōlī dubitāre**, *the Athenians have declared war: wherefore do not hesitate to come.* (For the usage in direct prohibitions, see **501**, 3, *a*.)

a. Verbs of saying like **dīcō** and **respondeō** may take a Volitive Clause, on the principle of **502**, 3, *a*).

THE SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION

539. A Dependent Clause attached to a Subjunctive or Infinitive Clause, and conceived as forming an essential part of the thought conveyed by it, is put in the Subjunctive.

cum ita balbus esset, ut eius ipsīus artis, cui studēret, prīmam litteram nōn posset dīcere, *though he stammered so much, that he could not pronounce the first letter of the very art that he was studying;* De Or. 1, 61, 260.

mōs est Syrācūsīs, ut, sī quā dē rē ad senātum referātur, dīcat sententiam quī velit, *it is the custom at Syracuse that, when any matter is taken up in the senate, any one that desires speaks;* Verr. 4, 64, 142.

mōs est Athēnīs laudārī in cōntiōne eōs quī sint in proeliīs interfectī, *it is the custom at Athens to pronounce a public eulogy over those who have fallen in battle;* Or. 44, 151.

quicquid increpuerit, Catilīnam timērī, nōn est ferendum, *it is intolerable that, whatever sound is heard, Catiline should have to be feared;* Cat. 1, 7, 18.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE OF REPEATED ACTION

540. The Subjunctive is sometimes used in subordinate clauses, to express *Repeated Action.*

Any Relative or Conjunction may be used; but the earliest examples are mostly with **cum**.

vexillum prōpōnendum, quod erat īnsigne cum ad arma concurrī oportēret, *the flag had to be displayed, which was the signal, when* (ever) *the soldiers must gather to arms;* B. C. 2, 20, 1. Cf. 5, 19, 2.

saepe, cum ipse tē cōnfirmāssēs, subitō ipse tē retinēbās, *often, when you had nerved yourself, you would suddenly check yourself;* Quinct. 11, 39.

quod ubi dīxisset, hastam in fīnīs ēmittēbat, *after saying which,* (*the priest*) *used to cast a spear into their territory;* Liv. 1, 32, 13.

est vulgus cupiēns voluptātum, et, sī eōdem prīnceps trahat, laetum, *the populace is fond of pleasure, and delighted if the chief ruler leads in that direction;* Tac. Ann. 14, 14.

a. In Cicero's time, the older construction (Indicative; **519**) is much more common than the Subjunctive. After Cicero, the Subjunctive became equally common in tenses of the past, but remained less common in tenses of the present.

THE LATER SUBJUNCTIVE WITH QUAMQUAM AND INDICATIVE WITH QUAMVĪS

541. After Cicero, **quamquam** and **quamvīs** are used with either Indicative or Subjunctive, often without distinction of meaning.

quamquam movērētur, *although he was moved;* Liv. 36, 34, 6.

quamvīs īnfestō animō pervēnerās, *no matter in how hostile a spirit you had arrived;* Liv. 2, 40, 7. Similarly **quamvīs dēiēcit,** Aen. 5, 541.

a. For the regular Ciceronian constructions (**quamquam** Indicative, **quamvīs** Subjunctive), see **556**; **532**, 2.

b. **Quamvīs** and, after Cicero, **quamquam** are often used with other parts of speech than verbs, as in **quamvīs retentus,** Plin. Ep. 10, 15; **quamquam parcissimus,** 10, 9.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE GENERALIZING STATEMENT OF FACT IN THE SECOND SINGULAR INDEFINITE

542. A General Statement of Fact is sometimes expressed by a Subjunctive in the *Second Person Singular Indefinite.*

ubi mortuus sīs, ita sīs ut nōmen cluet, *when you're dead, dead you are in the true sense of the word;* Trin. 496. (The second **sīs** has the force of **es.**)

quī hostēs patriae semel esse coepērunt, eōs cum ā perniciē reī pūblicae reppulerīs, nec vī coercēre nec beneficiō plācāre possīs, *if men have once begun to be enemies of their country, then, when you have stopped them from destroying the state, you can neither constrain them by force nor reconcile them by kindness;* Cat. 4, 10, 22. (**Possīs** has the force of **potes.**)

a. The Indicative is also used in this sense.

THE INDICATIVE

543. Synopsis of the Principal Uses of the Indicative

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INDEPENDENT SENTENCES	DEPENDENT CLAUSES
Statement or Question of Fact (**545**) (Including Conclusions of Fact; **546, 579**)	**Essential Clauses, and others derived from them**
	Determinative Clause of Fact: determining the person or thing, with **quī**, etc. (**550** and footnote 2)
	kind or amount, with **quālis, quantus** (**550** and ftn.)
	manner or degree, with **ut** or **quam** (**550** and ftn.)
	time at which, with **quī** or **cum** (**550** and *a*)
	time before which, with **antequam** or **priusquam** (**550** and *b*)
	time after which, with **postquam** (**550** and ftn.)
	time from which, with **ex quō** or **ut** (**550** and ftn.)
	time up to which, with **dum, dōnec,** or **quoad** (**550** and *b*)
	time during which, with **dum, dōnec, quoad,** or **quam diū** (**550** and *b*)
	time included in the reckoning, with **cum** or **quod** (**550** and ftn.)
	Clause of Equivalent Action, with **quī, cum**, etc. (**551**)
	Substantive **quod**-Clause of Fact (**552**, 1)
	Quod-Clause of Respect (**552**, 2)
	Substantive **cum**-Clause (**553**)
	Clauses Less Closely Attached
	Clause of Cause or Reason, with **quod, quia**, etc. (**555**)
	Adversative Clause of Fact, with **quamquam** (**556**)
	Aoristic Narrative Clause, with **ubi, ut, postquam, simul atque**, etc. (**557**)
	Narrative Clause of Situation, with **ubi, ut,** or **postquam** (**558**)
	Dum-Clause of Situation (**559**)
	Narrative Clause, with **dum, dōnec,** or **quoad** (**560**)
	Narrative Clause, with **antequam** or **priusquam** (**561**)
	Ut-Clause of Accordance or Reason (**562**)
	Ut-Clause of Harmony or Contrast (**563**)
	Parallel **cum . . tum . .** (*not only . . but also* .) (**564**)
	Free Clauses
	Forward-moving Relative Clause, with **quī, cum**, etc. (**566**)
	"**Cum inversum**" (**566**, *a*)
	Parenthetical Clause and "Asides" (**567**)
	Loosely Attached Descriptive Clause (**568**)
	Free Descriptive Clause (**569**)
	Tacit Causal or Adversative Clause (**569**, *a*)
Independent Conditions of Fact (**545**, *b*)	Conditions of Fact (**570, 579**)

544. The Indicative mood represents an act or state as a fact. It may accordingly be used to *state* a fact, to *assume* a fact, or to *inquire* whether something is a fact (negative **nōn**).

vēnit, *he has come* (Declarative)
sī vēnit, *if he has come* (Conditional)
vēnit? *has he come?* (Interrogative)

a. The Indicative may also be used in Exclamations (cf. **228**, 3, *a*).

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THE INDICATIVE IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES

545. The Indicative may be used in independent sentences to *declare* something to be a fact, to *inquire* whether something is a fact, or to *exclaim* about a fact.

fuistī apud Laecam, *you were at Laeca's house;* Cat. 1, 4, 9.
quid tacēs? *why are you silent?* Cat. 1, 4, 8.

a. **A Virtual Command or Exhortation** may be expressed by an Indicative question with **cūr nōn** or **quīn**, *why not?*

quīn cōnscendimus equōs? *why don't we mount our horses?* (= let's mount our horses); Liv. 1, 57, 7. Similarly **quīn exercēmus**, Aen. 4, 99.

REMARK. From such uses, **quīn** gets the force of urgency, and is then used with the Imperative also. See **496**, *b*.

b. An apparently independent statement or question sometimes forms a Condition.

negat quis: **negō**, *somebody says "no": so do I* (= IF somebody says "no"); Eun. 252.

546. A Statement or Question of Fact to which a Condition is attached is called a *Conclusion of Fact*. See **573**, **579**.

THE INDICATIVE IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES

547. The Indicative may be used in dependent clauses to *declare* (*state*) something as a fact, or to *assume* something as a fact (cf. **228**, 3, *b*).

A. DEPENDENT STATEMENTS[1] OF FACT

548. Dependent Statements of Fact may be subdivided as follows:

I. Determinative Clauses of Fact, and constructions derived from them. These, in their very nature, are closely attached to the main sentence (*essential*).
II. Clauses of Fact less closely attached, but still dependent.
III. Clauses of Fact loosely attached; in reality dependent only in form.

[1] An indicative declarative clause may either *convey information* of a fact not hitherto known to the hearer (or reader), or may *make use of* a fact supposed to be already known by him. The word "statement" covers both these possibilities.

I. Determinative Clauses of Fact, and Derived Constructions

549. The Indicative is used in closely attached (essential) clauses in the following constructions:

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550. Determinative Clauses of Fact, determining[1] an antecedent idea of any kind.[2]

eā legiōne quam sēcum habēbat, *with the legion* (what legion? The one) *which he had with him;* B. G. 1, 8, 1.

et vīvēs ita ut vīvis, *and you shall live as you are living now* (= in *that* way in *which*); Cat. 1, 2, 6.

quī fuit in Italiā temporibus īsdem quibus L. Brūtus patriam līberāvit, *who was in Italy at the time at which Lucius Brutus freed his country;* Tusc. 4, 1, 2.

haec Crassī cum ēdita ōrātiō est quattuor et trīgintā tum habēbat annōs, *at the time when this oration of his was published, Crassus was thirty-four years old;* Brut. 43, 161. Similarly cum Caesar in Galliam vēnit, B. G. 6, 12, 1.

sī tum cum lēx ferēbātur in Italiā domicilium habuissent, *if, at the time when the law was being passed, they had had their domicile in Italy;* Arch. 4, 7.

sex annīs ante quam ego nātus sum, *six years before I was born;* Sen. 14, 50.

annō postquam ego nātus sum, *one year after I was born;* Sen. 4, 10.

mānsit in pactō usque ad eum fīnem, dum iūdicēs reiectī sunt, *he stood by the agreement until the judges were rejected* (up to that limit, namely until . . .); Verr. A. Pr. 6, 16.

ex eō tempore quō pōns īnstituī coeptus est, *from the time when the bridge began to be built;* B. G. 4, 18, 4. Cf. ut ērūpit, Cat. 3, 1, 3.

quoad potuit, restitit, *as long as he could, he resisted;* B. G. 4, 12, 6.

vīcēnsimus annus est, cum omnēs scelerātī mē petunt, *it is now the twentieth year* (in which) *that all malefactors have been attacking me;* Phil. 12, 10, 24. Cf. septima vertitur aetās cum, Aen. 5, 626.

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[1] That is, telling *what* person, thing, time, etc., is meant. The Determinative Clause pieces out an incomplete pronominal word. It is therefore *pronominal* in its nature, as against the Descriptive Clause, which has the force of an *adjective.*

[2] Thus a person or thing (quī), kind or amount (quālis, quantus), manner or degree (ut, quam, *as*), time which (quī or cum), time *at* which (ablative of quī, or cum), time *before* which (antequam or priusquam), time *after* which (postquam), time *from* or *since* which (ex quō or ut), time *up to* which (dum, dōnec, quoad, *until*), time *during* which (dum, dōnec, quoad, quam diū, *so long as*), time included in the reckoning (cum or quod).

a. Among the more important constructions of this class is the **Determinative cum-Clause**, as in the fourth and fifth examples.

The majority of the Determinative cum-Clauses have their verb in the Perfect (Past Aorist), as in the fourth example. But clauses with the Imperfect or Past Perfect are also found, forming a Determinative Clause of *Situation*, as in the fifth example. (See also **524**, *d*.)

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NOTE 1. This very common construction stands in sharp contrast to the *Descriptive* cum-Clause of Situation (Subjunctive; **524**). The Indicative cum-Clause *defines* (*dates*) the time at which the main act took place; the Subjunctive cum-Clause *describes* the time (gives its *character*).

NOTE 2. A **quī**-clause or cum-clause may sometimes, though primarily determinative, convey an *accessory* idea of description, or cause, or opposition, and *vice versa*.

in eō librō quī est dē tuendā rē familiārī, *in that book which deals with the management of the household;* Sen. 17, 59. (The speaker primarily tells *which* of his books he means; but incidentally he describes it.)

an tibi tum imperium hoc esse vidēbātur, cum populī Rōmānī lēgātī capiēbantur? *did this seem to you at that time to be an empire, when ambassadors of the Roman people were being taken captive?* Pomp. 17, 53.

NOTE 3. **Rhetorical Determinative Clause.** The Determinative **quī**- or cum-Clause is sometimes deliberately chosen, for rhetorical effect, where a descriptive, or causal, or adversative clause would be equally natural, or more natural.

This clause is often used to *introduce* a sentence in a *non-committal* manner, the relation between it and the main verb being left to be discovered when the latter is reached. It may then be called the *Introductory Neutral* **quī**- or cum-*Clause*.

This latter use is more common with **quī** than with **cum**.

ego sum ille cōnsul cui nōn cūria umquam vacua mortis perīculō fuit, *I am that consul for whom the senate-house has never been free from mortal peril;* Cat. 4, 1, 2. (Rhetorical, in place of a descriptive clause, with **fuerit**, *I am one for whom*.)

etenim, cum mediocribus multīs grātuītō cīvitātem in Graeciā hominēs impertiēbant, Rēgīnōs crēdō, quod scaenicīs artificibus largīrī solēbant, id huic summā ingenī praeditō glōriā nōluisse, *for, when in Greece men were freely granting citizenship to many ordinary persons, the people of Regium, I suppose, were unwilling to bestow upon this man, the possessor of the highest intellectual distinction, that which they were in the habit of bestowing upon stage performers;* Arch. 5, 10. (Both the cum-clause and the **quod**-clause are introductory and neutral.)

b. Other especially important Clauses of this class are the **Determinative Clauses** with **antequam** or **priusquam**, *before*, and **dum**, **dōnec**, or **quoad**, *until* or *so long as*, as in examples six, seven, eight, and ten under **550**. In these, the verb states an actual event looked back upon, *before which*, or *until which*, etc., the main act took place. They thus stand in sharp contrast to the anticipatory subjunctive clauses with these connectives (**507**, 4 and 5), which represent acts, not as actual, but as *looked forward to*.[1]

[1] In the sense of *so long as*, **dum**, **dōnec**, and **quoad**, together with **quamdiū**, take an Indicative when referring to future time, unless (**509**) the main verb is in the past. Thus **quamdiū quisquam erit, quī tē dēfendere audeat, vīvēs**, *so long as there shall be any one who shall dare to defend you, you shall live;* Cat. 1, 2, 6.

c. In the construction of the Time after Which, the post of **postquam** sometimes governs a noun. The same idea may also be expressed by an ablative noun of time, with a relative in the same case.

post diem quārtum quam est in Britanniam ventum, *three days after they came to England;* B. G. 4, 28, 1.

diēbus decem, quibus māteria coepta est comportārī, *within ten days after the material began to be brought together* (within the ten days within which); B. G. 4, 18, 1.

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551. Clause of Equivalent Action, with quī, quod, cum, or ubi.

errāstis quī spērāstis, *you were mistaken in hoping;* Leg. Agr. 1, 7, 23. (Your hoping was a mistake.)

cum quiēscunt, probant, *in acquiescing, they approve;* Cat. 1, 8, 2. (Their acquiescence is equivalent to approval.)

bene fēcistī quod lībertum in animum recēpistī, *you have done well in taking your freedman into your good graces again;* Plin. Ep. 9, 24, 1.

552. 1. Substantive quod-Clause.

illud mihi occurrit, quod uxor ā Dolābellā discessit, *this* (fact) *occurs to me*, (namely) *that Dolabella's wife has left him;* Fam. 8, 6, 1.[1]

adde quod ingenuās didicisse fidēliter artīs ēmollit mōrēs, nec sinit esse ferōs, *add that to have learned faithfully the liberal arts refines the manners, nor suffers them to be boorish;* Ov. Pont. 2, 9, 49. Similarly **accēdēbat quod dolēbant**, B. G. 3, 2, 5.

a. A frequent form of the quod-Clause is the condensed expression **quid quod . . . ?** *what* (of the fact) *that . . . ?*

quid quod tē ipse in custōdiam dedistī? *what of your giving yourself into custody* (what of the fact that . . .)? Cat. 1, 8, 19.

2. Quod-Clause[2] of Respect ("as to the fact that").

quod scīre vīs quā quisque in tē fidē sit et voluntāte, difficile dictū est dē singulīs, *as to your desiring to know what loyalty and good will this and that man have toward you, it is difficult to say this of individuals* (as to this, namely, that you desire); Fam. 1, 7, 2. Similarly **quod petiēre**, Aen. 2, 180, and (in Indirect Discourse) **quod glōriārentur**, B. G. 1, 14, 4.

a. This clause is only a special form of the one given in 1 above.

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[1] When it explains a substantive, as in this example (**illud quod**), the clause is often called "Explicative."

[2] The quod of this construction and of **552**, 1 was originally a Relative Pronoun. As regards case, it stood in *no* tangible relation to the verb of its clause. Accordingly it echoed the prevailing case of its antecedent, namely the Nominative-Accusative form.

553. Substantive cum-Clause[1] (cum meaning *that*).

hoc mē beat, quom perduellīs vīcit, *this gives me pleasure,* (namely) *that he has conquered his enemies;* Amph. 644.

a. In Ciceronian Latin, this clause is as regular as the quod-Clause (**555**) with verbs and phrases of *thanking, congratulating, rejoicing, praising,* and the like (cf. English "rejoice that").

tē, cum istō animō es, satis laudāre nōn possum, *I cannot praise you enough for having such resolution;* Mil. 36, 99.

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II. Clauses of Fact less closely attached, but still really dependent

554. The Indicative is used, in clauses less closely attached, in the following constructions:

555. Clause of Cause or Reason, with **quod, quia, quoniam, quandō,** *because, since.*[2]

Caesar, quod memoriā tenēbat L. Cassium cōnsulem occīsum ab Helvētiīs, concēdendum nōn putābat, *Caesar, because he remembered that Lucius Cassius the consul had been killed by the Helvetians, thought that the request should not be granted;* B. G. 1, 7, 4.

a. The Subjunctive is used with these words to express a Quoted or Rejected Reason. (Informal Indirect Discourse; see **535**, 2, *a* and *b*.)

556. Adversative Clause of Fact, with **quamquam** ("although in fact").

illōs, quamquam sunt hostēs, tamen monitōs volō, *although they are enemies, yet I wish them to be well warned;* Cat. 2, 12, 27.

a. When this Clause concedes an objection made by an adversary, it becomes a **Concession of Fact** (*although it* IS TRUE *that*). The construction is thus in contrast with that of the Concession of Indifference (Concession for the Sake of the Argument) with **quamvīs** (**532**, 2), which means *no matter how much, even though,* and does not deal with the question whether the thing conceded is true or not.

b. For "corrective" quamquam, etsī, tametsī, see **310**, 7.

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[1] This construction has come down from a time when cum (earlier form quom; cf. quod) had not yet gained its temporal force.

[2] The construction with quod arose out of the one in **552**, 1, through examples like **laetae id quod mē aspexerant,** *glad with reference to this, namely, that they had seen me* (i.e. *because*); Hec. 368 (cf. **id maesta est, 388**, *a*).

557. Aoristic Narrative Clause, with **ubi, ut, postquam,**[1] or **simul atque,** and an aorist tense.

ubi dē eius adventū Helvētiī certiōrēs factī sunt, lēgātōs ad eum mittunt, *when the Helvetians were informed of his coming, they sent* (send) *ambassadors to him;* B. G. 1, 7, 3.

id ubi vident, mūtant cōnsilium, *when they see this, they change their plan;* B. C. 2, 11, 2. (**Vident** is an Historical Present.)

a. Less common introductory words or phrases for this clause are **ut prīmum, ut semel, ubi prīmum, simul, cum prīmum** (**prīmus, prīma,** etc.).

558. Narrative Clause of Situation, with **ubi, ut, postquam,** or **simul atque,** and a tense of past situation (less common).

postquam rēs eōrum satis prōspera vidēbātur, *when now their affairs seemed in a prosperous condition;* Sall. Cat. 6, 3. Cf. B. G. 7, 87, 5.

559. Dum-Clause of Situation. The tense is regularly the *Present,* no matter what the tense of the main Verb may be.

dum haec geruntur, Caesarī nūntiātum est, *while these things were going on, word was brought to Caesar . . . ;* B. G. 1, 46, 1.

a. Out of the **dum**-Clause of Situation arises the **dum**-Clause of the Way by Which. Thus **hī dum aedificant, in aes aliēnum incidērunt,** *while* (= by) *building houses, these men have fallen into debt;* Cat. 2, 9, 20.

b. A **dum**-Clause is often used to express a Situation of which Advantage is to be taken. Thus **abīte, dum est facultās,** *escape while there is opportunity;* B. G. 7, 50, 6.

c. In later Latin, the Imperfect is sometimes used in the **dum**-Clause of Situation. Thus **dum cōnficiēbātur,** Nep. Hann. 2, 4.

560. Narrative Clause with **dum, dōnec,** or **quoad,** *until.* The tense is regularly the Perfect (past aorist).

neque fīnem sequendī fēcērunt, quoad equitēs praecipitēs hostīs ēgērunt, *nor did they stop the pursuit, until the cavalry drove the enemy headlong* (= they pursued, and finally . . .); B. G. 5, 17, 3.

a. In such a clause, the verb tells a new fact in the narration just as much as the main verb does. The construction is more common than that of **550,** *b.*

561. Narrative Clause with **antequam** or **priusquam.** The tense is regularly the Perfect (past aorist).

[1] The form **posteā quam** is more frequent in Cicero, **postquam** in Caesar.

neque prius fugere dēstitērunt quam ad flūmen Rhēnum pervēnērunt, *nor did they cease to flee until they came to the Rhine* (= they kept on fleeing, and finally they came . . .); B. G. 1, 53, 1.

a. In such a clause the verb tells a new fact in the narration just as much as the main verb does. The force is possible only when the main verb is negatived.

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562. Ut-Clause of Accordance or Reason (English "as" = "for").

haec ex oppidō vidēbantur, ut erat ā Gergoviā dēspectus in castra, *these things were seen from the town, as there was a prospect from Gergovia into the camp;* B. G. 7, 45, 4.

hōrum auctōritāte fīnitimī adductī (ut sunt Gallōrum subita cōnsilia), Trebium retinent, *led by their influence (for the resolutions of the Gauls are quickly taken), their neighbors detain Trebius;* B. G. 3, 8, 3.

563. Ut-Clause of Harmony or Contrast (ut . . . ita or sīc . . . , *as . . . so . . .*, or *while . . . yet . . .*).

ut magistrātibus lēgēs, ita populō praesunt magistrātūs, *as the laws are superior to the magistrates, so the magistrates are superior to the people;* Leg. 3, 1, 2.

ut ad bella suscipienda Gallōrum alacer est animus, sīc mollis ad calamitātēs perferendās mēns eōrum est, *while the spirit of the Gauls is quick to undertake war, yet their mind is not sturdy for enduring reverses;* B. G. 3, 19, 6.

564. Parallel cum and tum (*while . . . at the same time . . .*, *not only . . . , but also . . .*).

cum omnis iuventūs eō convēnerant, tum nāvium quod ubīque fuerat coēgerant, *not only had all the young men gathered there, but they had got together all the ships there had been anywhere;* B. G. 3, 16, 2. (Originally *when . . . at the same time . . .*)

a. A slight emphasis is thrown upon the second member.

b. The presence of the idea of *Contrast* (a sort of *Opposition*) sometimes brings about the use of the Subjunctive (**526**).

c. When the same verb is meant in both clauses, it is expressed but once. Sometimes no verb at all is used (Adverbial cum . . . tum).

cum illa certissima vīsa sunt argūmenta, tum multō certiōra illa, *not only did these evidences seem very sure, but still surer the following;* Cat. 3, 5, 13.

cum cārum, tum dulce, *not only dear, but sweet;* Cat. 4, 7, 16.

III. Clauses of Fact loosely attached; in reality dependent only in Form (Free Clauses)

565. The Indicative is used in clauses very loosely attached (in reality completely independent), in the following constructions:

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566. Forward-moving Relative Clause, with **quī, cum, ut** (*as*), etc. Such a clause *advances the thought*, just as an independent sentence beginning with **et is, et tum, et sīc,** etc., would do.

nec hercule, inquit, sī ego Serīphius essem, nec tū sī Athēniēnsis, clārus umquam fuissēs; quod eōdem modō dē senectūte dīcī potest, *I should never have been renowned, said he, if I were a Seriphian, nor, by Jove, would you have been, if you were an Athenian. Which* (= and this) *may be said in like manner of old age;* Sen. 3, 8.

spērāns Pompeium interclūdī posse; ut accidit . . ., *hoping that Pompey could be cut off; as* (= and this) *happened;* B. C. 3, 41, 3.

litterās recitāstī, quās tibi ā C. Caesare missās dīcerēs; cum etiam es argūmentātus, *you read a letter, which you said had been sent you by Gaius Caesar; whereupon* (= and then) *you went so far as to argue . . .;* Dom. S. 9, 22.

a. Out of this use arises the common use in which the **cum**-Clause follows the main clause (hence called "**cum inversum**"), and expresses an act that comes in upon an existing state of affairs.

iam montānī conveniēbant, cum repente cōnspiciunt hostīs, *already the mountaineers were gathering, when suddenly they see the enemy;* Liv. 21, 33, 2. Similarly **cum cognōscunt,** B. G. 6, 7, 2; **cum reddit,** Aen. 2, 323.

567. Parenthetical Clauses, and "Asides." A Parenthetical Clause with **quī, cum, ut,** etc., may be used to insert into a sentence some fact which is of interest by the way. Such clauses are really independent sentences.

Or, a clause with **quī, cum,** etc., may insert *between sentences* something which for the moment carries the mind away from the direct progress of the thought. Such "Asides" are really independent sentences.

intereā ā lacū Lemannō, quī in flūmen Rhodanum īnfluit, ad montem Iūram, quī fīnīs Sēquanōrum ab Helvētiīs dīvidit, mūrum perdūcit, *meanwhile he builds a wall running from Lake Leman, which empties into the Rhone, to Mount Jura, which separates the lands of the Sequani from the Helvetians;* B. G. 1, 8, 1. (In place of the two words **quī** we might have had **hic lacus** and **hic mōns.**)

Gallia sub septentriōnibus, ut ante dictum est, posita est, *Gaul, as has been said above, lies to the north;* B. G. 1, 16, 2. (Parenthetical Clause. In place of **ut**, we might have had **id.**)

quaestor deinde quadriennīō post factus sum, quem magistrātum gessī cōnsulibus Tuditānō et Cethēgō, cum quidem ille admodum senex suāsor lēgis Cinciae dē dōnīs et mūneribus fuit, *then four years later I was made quaestor, — which office, by the way, I held in the consulship of Tuditanus and Cethegus, — at which time, by the way, he, though very old, was an active promoter of the Cincian law about gifts and bribes;* Sen. 4, 10. (Two successive "Asides.")

NOTE. The forward-moving Clause advances the thought: the Parenthetical Clause and the "Aside" delay it for the moment.

568. Loosely Attached Descriptive Clause, with quī or cum. A Descriptive Clause that might have been in the Subjunctive (521, 1) is sometimes purposely *attached loosely*, with the feeling of a forward-moving statement.

nōn nūllī sunt in hōc ōrdine, quī aut ea quae imminent nōn videant, aut ea quae vident dissimulent; quī spem Catilīnae mollibus sententiīs aluērunt, *there are a number of men in this body, who either do not see that which is hanging over our heads, or conceal that which they do see; who* (= and these) *by their half-hearted expressions of opinion have fed the hopes of Catiline;* Cat. 1, 12, 30. (The first clause is closely attached, the second loosely.) Similarly **erat alia vehemēns opīniō, quae animōs pervāserat,** Pomp. 9, 23.

ūnus et alter diēs intercesserat, cum rēs parum certa vidēbātur, *a couple of days had passed, in which* (= and in this time) *the matter seemed rather indefinite;* Clu. 26, 72.

a. Similar loosely attached Causal or Adversative Clauses occur.

b. This Loosely Attached Descriptive Clause, which might be replaced by the Subjunctive, must be distinguished from the following, in which the Subjunctive *could not be used*, unless an independent sentence with the same meaning would take this mood.

569. Free[1] Descriptive Clause. After an antecedent complete in itself, a relative clause (with **quī, cum**, etc.) is really an independent statement, and accordingly takes *whatever mood the statement in itself requires,* — generally the Indicative.

imāgō avī tuī, clārissimī virī, quī amāvit patriam, *the likeness of your grandfather, a most eminent man, who loved his country;* Cat. 3, 5, 10.

relinquēbātur ūna per Sēquanōs via, quā Sēquanīs invītīs īre nōn poterant, *there remained only the way through the country of the Sequani, by which* (= and by this) *they could not pass without the consent of the Sequani;* B. G. 1, 9, 1.

dōnec ad haec tempora, quibus nec vitia nostra nec remedia patī possumus, perventum est, *until we reached the present time, in which we can endure neither our defects nor the remedies applied to them;* Liv. 1, Praef. 9. (**Cum** might have been used, in place of **quibus.**)

NOTE 1. A Descriptive Clause is necessarily a free one when it refers immediately to an antecedent *complete in itself*, e.g. a word denoting a person (as **Cicerō, ego, tū**); a noun with a determinative or possessive pronoun (as **hic hom**ō, **hōc tempore**), or the adverb **nunc**. Hence the mood is Indicative in clauses of present situation (**nunc cum**, etc.), unless the idea of *cause* or *opposition* is to be brought out, in which case the Subjunctive is used.

NOTE 2. After an antecedent *not* complete in itself, a Descriptive Clause of Fact *must* be in the Subjunctive (unless it expresses a Condition; **579**). The reason for this difference is that the *Subjunctive* Descriptive Clause of Fact is of consecutive origin (**521**, 1, *c*), and gets its mood in that way; while the Free Descriptive Clause is *not* of consecutive origin.

a. These free descriptive clauses often *suggest* the causal or adversative idea, and may then be called **Tacit Causal** or **Adversative Clauses**, in opposition to Explicit Causal or Adversative Clauses (**523**) in which the *mood calls attention* to the relation.

ō tē ferreum, quī illīus perīculīs nōn movēris! *O you hard-hearted man, who are not moved by his dangers!* Att. 13, 30, 1. (Might have been **quī nōn moveāris.** Cf. **ferreī sumus, quī negēmus** under **523.**)

nisi vērō ego vōbīs cessāre nunc videor, cum bella nōn gerō, *unless indeed I seem to you to be a laggard in these days, in which I am not carrying on war;* Sen. 6, 18. (Might have been **cum bella nōn geram,** *since I am not carrying on war.*)

[1] Free clauses are clauses that can be left out without making the sentence grammatically incomplete. They are opposed to *essential* (i.e. *necessary*) clauses of various kinds.

B. DEPENDENT CONDITIONS OF FACT

570. The Indicative may be used in Conditions which *assume something to be a fact.*

Conditions and Conclusions of all kinds are, for convenience, treated together in **573-582**.

SPECIAL USES OF THE PRESENT, PERFECT, AND FUTURE INDICATIVE

571. The Freer Present Indicative may be used to express a number of ideas which are *usually, or sometimes, expressed by other moods or tenses.* The negative is **nōn**.[1]

These are especially the ideas of Resolve, Deliberation, Perplexity, etc., Anticipation (with **dum, dōnec, quoad, antequam, priusquam**, etc.), Consent, Future Condition (with **sī**, etc.), or Vivid Statement about the future or the past (the latter is called the Historical Present; **491**, 1).

quid agō? **Rūrsusne procōs inrīsa priōrēs experiar?** *what am I to do? Am I now, insulted* (by Aeneas), *to try once more my former suitors?* Aen. 4, 534. (Perplexity; cf. **503**.)

nunc, antequam ad sententiam redeō, dē mē pauca dīcam, *now, before I return to the voting, I wish to say a few words about myself;* Cat. 4, 10, 20. (Act anticipated and prepared for; cf. **507**, 4, *a*.)

sed mihi vel tellūs optem prius īma dehīscat, ante, Pudor, quam tē violō, *but I should wish the depths of earth to yawn for me, before I wrong thee, Modesty!* Aen. 4, 24. (Act deprecated; cf. **507**, 4, *d*.)

sī in eādem mente permanent, ea quae merentur exspectent, *if they remain of the same mind, let them expect that which they deserve;* Cat. 2, 5, 11. (Future condition; cf. the equivalent **sī permanēbunt**, Cat. 2, 8, 18.)

a. Under the influence of the Present, the Present Perfect is sometimes used to express the same ideas, but with greater energy or emphasis (**490**).

sī eundem mox in aestimandā fortūnā vestrā habueritis, vīcimus, mīlitēs, *if you have the same* (spirit) *presently in judging of your own fate, we have already conquered, soldiers;* Liv. 21, 43, 2. (**Vīcimus** is energetic.)

b. In Cicero, the Present Indicative is more common than the Subjunctive after **antequam** and **priusquam**.

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[1] These uses have probably come down from a time when only a single set of verb-forms existed, expressing distinctions of person and number, but none of mood or tense. Compare the use of the English verb by a foreigner who has learned only one form.

c. As in the case of the Anticipatory Subjunctive (**507**, 4, note 1), the formula that came into use in cases of true anticipation was naturally used for the *operations of nature* as well, as in the following:

membrīs ūtimur priusquam didicimus cuius ea causā ūtilitātis habeāmus, *we use our limbs before we have learned for what use we possess them;* Fin. 3, 20, 66.

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572. The Future Indicative may be used to express a number of ideas which are *generally, or sometimes, expressed by the Subjunctive.* The negative is **nōn**.

These are especially the ideas of Resolve, Exhortation, Command or Prohibition, Deliberation or Perplexity, Surprise or Indignation, Consent or Acquiescence.

nōn feram, *I shall not* (= will not) *bear it;* Cat. 1, 5, 10.

sinite īnstaurāta revīsam proelia; nunquam omnēs hodiē moriēmur inultī, *let me go back and see the conflict set on foot again. We shall not all die unavenged to-day, ah no;* Aen. 2, 668. (Hortatory; = let us not.)

referēs ergō haec et nūntius Ībis Pēlīdae, *you will* (= shall) *report this, then, and will go as a messenger to the son of Peleus;* Aen. 2, 546. (Command.)

quōs Sīdoniā vix urbe revellī rūrsus ventīs dare vēla iubēbō? *shall I* (= can I), *who have with difficulty torn my men from the Sidonian city, again bid them give their sails to the wind?* Aen. 4, 545. (Perplexity.).

dēdēmus ergō Hannibalem? *shall we, then, give up Hannibal?* Liv. 21, 10, 11. (Indignation; = surely you don't mean this!) Cf. patiēre? Cat. 1, 11, 27.

a. In many of these uses, the Future may conveniently be called the *Volitive Future Indicative* (so in the first three examples).

SUMMARY OF CONDITIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

Indicative and Subjunctive

573. A Conclusion is a *conditioned* statement.

The Condition (Assumption[1]) *assumes* something as true (or realized), and the Conclusion *asserts* something as true (or realized) only *if* the thing assumed is true (or realized).

574. Conclusions may be either Statements of *Fact* (Indicative) or Statements of an *Ideal Certainty* (Subjunctive).

The corresponding Conditions will be either Assumptions of *Fact* (Indicative) or *Ideal* Assumptions (Subjunctive).

[1] The word "condition" is convenient, as being in common use. The word *assumption* would more exactly fit the mental operation, would balance the verb *assume*, and would perfectly express the character of the first type (assumption of fact).

575. TABLE OF CONDITIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

A. Conditions and Conclusions *of Fact.*	In any time. *Indicative, in any tense.*
B. Ideal Conditions and Conclusions.	In future, and so realizable. *Present or Perfect Subjunctive.*
	In Present or Past, and so unrealized (contrary to fact). *Imperfect or Past Perfect Subjunctive.*

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576. Any kind of Condition and Conclusion may be used either (1) with individual[1] Meaning, or (2) with generalizing Meaning. The form is in general the same.

a. The only exceptions to this rule are: the Generalizing Condition in the Second Person Singular Indefinite (always Subjunctive; **504**, 2), and the Subjunctive of Repeated Action (not yet common in Cicero, and never common in tenses of the present; **540**).

577. Conditions may be introduced by a Relative[2] or an equivalent[3] (*Conditional* or *Assumptive* Clauses; **228**, 2), or by **sī, nisi, nī,** or **sīn.** The negative is **nōn.**

a. The tense of the Condition often expresses the act as *in a finished state* at the time of the tense of the Conclusion. (Cf. **494.**)

Sī, sī nōn, nisi, nī, and sīn. Meanings and Uses.

578. 1. **Sī** means *in case, if* (cf. **sī-c**, *in that case*).

2. The negative of **sī** is **sī nōn**, *if not*, if a single word is especially negatived, or **nisi**, *unless*, if the whole condition is negatived.

sī stāre nōn possunt, corruant, *if (these men) are unable to stand, let them fall;* Cat. 2, 10, 21. (**Nōn possunt** = nequeunt.)

dēsilīte, inquit, commīlitōnēs, nisi vultis aquilam hostibus prōdere, "*leap down, fellow soldiers,*" *he said,* "*unless you wish to betray the eagle to the enemy*"; B. G. 4, 25, 3.

3. When a *second* Condition is opposed to the first, it is introduced, if positive, by **sīn,** *but if* (Cat. 1, 7, 18); if negative, by **sī nōn,** *if not*

[1] Often called "particular."

[2] The oldest way of expressing a Condition was doubtless by the use of the Relative (the simplest of all connectives), not by **sī.**

[3] Connectives like **cum, dum, antequam, postquam, quotiēns, quotiēnscumque,** etc.

(B. G. 1, 35, 4), or **sī minus**, *if not, otherwise* (B. G. 2, 9, 4; Cat. 1, 5, 10), the latter being regular where the verb is omitted.

a. **Nisi** is often used ironically of an afterthought. Thus **nisi forte**, *unless perhaps* (Cat. 4, 10, 21); **nisi vērō**, *unless indeed* (Cat. 4, 6, 13).

b. **Nisi** often means merely *except, but.*

nihil cōgitant nisi caedem, *they think of nothing but bloodshed;* Cat. 2, 5, 10.

4. **Nī**, *unless*, is sometimes used in place of **nisi**, mainly in the poetical or later style.

5. A Condition may be introduced by **ita, eā condiciōne**, etc.

ita senectūs honesta est, sī sē ipsa dēfendit, *old age is honorable* (on these terms, namely) *if it defends itself;* Sen. 11, 38.

6. A Condition is often contained in a Noun, an Adjective, a Participle, an Adverb, an Ablative Absolute, etc.

nūlla alia gēns nōn obruta esset, *no other race would have failed to be crushed;* Liv. 22, 54, 10. (If it had been any other race, it would have been crushed.)

Conditions and Conclusions, in Detail

First Class: Conditions and Conclusions of Fact, in Any Time

579. *Conditions and Conclusions of Fact* are expressed by the Indicative. They may be in any time, and so in any tense; and the two parts may also *differ* in tense.

sī occīdī, rēctē fēcī; sed nōn occīdī, *if I killed him, I killed him justly; but I did not kill him;* Quintil. 4, 5, 13. (Time the same in both.)

vindicābitis vōs, sī mē potius quam fortūnam meam fovēbātis, *you will avenge me, if it was I, rather than my fortunes, that you were courting;* Tac. Ann. 2, 71. (Time differing in the two.)

quotiēnscumque mē petīstī, per mē tibi obstitī, *as often as your attack has been aimed at me, I have resisted you with my own resources;* Cat. 1, 5, 11. (Generalizing; present perfect tense.[1])

neque, cum aliquid mandārat, cōnfectum putābat, *nor, when he had given a commission, did he regard it as executed;* Cat. 3, 7, 16. (Generalizing in a tense of the past.)

beātus est nēmō, quī eā lēge vīvit, *no man is happy who lives on such terms;* Phil. 1, 14, 35.

nam cum hostium cōpiae nōn longē absunt, etiamsī inruptiō nūlla facta est, agrī cultūra dēseritur, *for when an enemy's force is not far off, agriculture is abandoned, even if no incursion has been made;* Pomp. 6, 15.

[1] In order to be generalizing, a sentence needs only to be true of *every case in a given class*, not necessarily of every case *everywhere* and *always*.

NOTE 1. In the generalizing clause, the idea of condition (the *assuming* of something as true) is necessarily always present. This idea regularly takes precedence of all other ideas, — whether descriptive, or causal, or adversative. The real meaning in the last example but one is: IF ANY MAN *lives on such terms, then that man is not happy;* in the last example, IF *an enemy's force is not far off.* (Note the parallelism of cum and etiamsī.)

NOTE 2. Yet the *habit* of using the Subjunctive after negative or indefinite antecedents (**521**, 1, *b*) is so strong that the Romans occasionally did employ it, even in a Generalizing Clause, after such antecedents. So especially with **quī quidem** and **quī modo.**

quī reī pūblicae sit hostis, fēlix esse nēmō potest, *no man can be happy who is an enemy to the commonwealth;* Phil. 2, 26, 64. Similarly **quem inrētīssēs,** Cat. 1, 6, 13; **quī modo sit,** Cat. 4, 8, 16 (contrast **quī modo audīvit,** Dei. 6, 16).

a. **The More Vivid Future Condition and Conclusion** is simply one particular form of the Condition and Conclusion of Fact, in which *both* are in the *future*, as in the examples following:

sī accelerāre volent, cōnsequentur, *if they* (shall choose to) *will make haste, they will overtake him;* Cat. 2, 4, 6.

quī sibi fīdet, dux reget exāmen, *the man that shall trust himself will lead and rule the swarm;* Ep. 1, 19, 22. (Generalizing in the future.)

Second Class: Less Vivid Future Conditions and Conclusions

580. *Less Vivid Future Conditions and Conclusions* are expressed by the Present or Perfect Subjunctive (really Future and Future Perfect in meaning).

quibus ego sī mē restitisse dīcam, nimium mihi sūmam, *if I should say that it was I that withstood them, I should be claiming too much;* Cat. 3, 9, 22.

quī dīcat prō illō 'nē fēcerīs,' 'nōn fēcerīs,' in idem incidat vitium, *a man who should say* '**nōn fēcerīs**' *instead of* '**nē fēcerīs**' *would fall into the same error;* Quintil. 1, 5, 50. (Generalizing, = *any* man who . . , *if any* man . .)

nihil enim prōficiant, nisi admodum mentiantur, *for if they* (namely, *traders*) *should fail to lie roundly, they would make nothing;* Off. 1, 42, 150. (Generalizing.)

a. There are thus (counting in the Present Indicative; **571**) three ways of expressing a future Condition and Conclusion:

Less Vivid: **sī veniat, gaudeam,** *if he should come, I should be glad.*
More Vivid: **sī veniet, gaudēbō,** *if he shall come, I shall be glad.*
With the Freer Present: **sī venit, gaudēbō,** *if he comes, I shall be glad.*

b. **Past-Future Condition and Conclusion.** When the point of view is in the *past*, the tenses of the Subjunctive are of course the Imperfect and Past Perfect (really Future and Future Perfect to the past; see **470**).

at tum sī dīcerem, nōn audīrer, *but at that time* (it was certain that) *I should not be listened to, if I were to speak;* Clu. 29, 80. (For the tense-feeling, compare the *N. Y. Evening Post*, June 16, 1891: "But it was now nearly six o'clock, and it *would* surely *be* dark before we could scale the heights of Demetrias and return to Volo.")

habēbat Tigellius hoc . . . sī conlibuisset, ab ōvō usque ad māla citāret 'Iō Bacche,' *Tigellius had this habit . . .; if the fancy were to take him, he would sing 'Ho Bacchus' from soup to pudding;* Sat. 1, 3, 3. (Generalizing.)

NOTE. No distinction of the degree of vividness can be made in *Past* Future Conditions and Conclusions, since only the Subjunctive is here possible (**508**).

c. A Past-Future Conclusion may also be expressed by the use of a *Past Periphrastic Future* form of the Indicative.

quia, sī armentum in spēluncam compulisset, vēstīgia dominum eō dēductūra erant, hovēs caudīs in spēluncam trāxit, *because, if he should drive the herd into the cave, their tracks would* (were going to) *lead their master thither,* (*Cacus*) *dragged them into the cave by their tails;* Liv. 1, 7, 5.

quem sī tenērent nostrī, pābulātiōne prohibitūrī hostīs vidēbantur, *and if our men should hold this hill, it seemed that they would keep the enemy from foraging* (they seemed to be going to keep . . .); B. G. 7, 36, 5.

Third Class: Conditions and Conclusions Contrary to Fact, in the Present or Past

581. *Conditions and Conclusions Contrary to Fact* are expressed by the Imperfect or Past Perfect Subjunctive.

The Imperfect expresses an *act* or *state* in the present or past (generally in the present), and the Past Perfect a *completed* act, in the present or past.

servī meī sī mē istō pactō metuerent, domum meam relinquendam putārem, *if even my slaves feared me in this fashion, I should think that I ought to leave my home;* Cat. 1, 7, 17. (Present.)

sī hoc optimum factū iūdicārem, ūnīus ūsūram hōrae gladiātōrī istī ad vīvendum nōn dedissem, *if I thought this the best course to take, I should not have granted this cutthroat the enjoyment of one hour of life;* Cat. 1, 12, 29. (**Sī iūdicārem** refers both to the past and to the present.)

neque diūtius Numidae resistere quīvissent, nī peditēs magnam clādem facerent, *nor would the Numidians have been able to hold out any longer, had not the infantry effected a great slaughter;* Sall. Iug. 59, 3. (**Facerent** refers to the past.)

praeterita aetās quamvīs longa cum efflūxisset, nūlla cōnsōlātiō permulcēre posset stultam senectūtem, *when the past, — no matter how long, — was over, no consolation could comfort a fool's* (= *any* fool's) *old age;* Sen. 3, 4. (Generalizing: "when" = "in any case in which.")

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a. A Conclusion Contrary to Fact may also be expressed by the use of a *Past Periphrastic Future* form of the Indicative (**-tūrus fuī, eram,** etc.).

quōs ego, sī tribūnī mē triumphāre prohibērent, testīs citātūrus fuī, *whom, in case the tribunes had opposed my celebrating a triumph, I should have summoned as witnesses;* Liv. 38, 47, 4.

REMARK. This construction has arisen out of the true Past-Future construction (*was going to . . . , if . . . should;* see **580**, *c*).

The use of the Imperfect and Past Perfect *Subjunctive* in the more common construction arose in the same way out of the past-future force. Compare **tum sī dīcerem, nōn audīrer** (under **580**, *b*), originally meaning *if I were at that time to speak, I should not be heard,* but easily suggesting the meaning *if I* HAD *at that time spoken, I* SHOULD *not have been heard.*

b. The Periphrastic Future form supplies a means of expression where the Subjunctive cannot be used, or where a different tense is wanted:

1) A Conclusion Contrary to Fact in Indirect Discourse is expressed by **fuisse** (very rarely **esse**) *with the Future Participle,* active or passive.

Ariovistus respondit: sī quid ipsī ā Caesare opus esset, sēsē ad eum ventūrum fuisse, *Ariovistus replied: if he himself wanted anything of Caesar, he* (Ariovistus) *would have come to him;* B. G. 1, 34, 2. (In Direct Discourse, **sī quid mihi ā Caesare opus esset, ego ad eum vēnissem.**)

2) A Conclusion Contrary to Fact, where a Subordinate Clause in the Perfect Subjunctive is desired, is expressed by **fuerim,** etc., *with a Future Participle,* active or passive.[1]

dīc quidnam factūrus fuerīs, sī eō tempore cēnsor fuissēs, *tell me what you would have done, if you had been censor at that time;* Liv. 9, 33, 7. The Past Perfect may be retained; cf. the tense in **519**, 4, *b*).

NOTE. The tense of the *Condition* Contrary to Fact is never changed under any circumstances. See the examples above.

[1] The growing fondness for the aorist in result clauses makes this construction common in later Latin in Conclusions Contrary to Fact (e.g. **ut, nisi . . . fuisset, repetītūrus fuerit,** Liv. 22, 32, 3).

c. **Highly Improbable Conclusion.** The Imperfect or Past Perfect is sometimes used to express a Conclusion which, since the Condition is contrary to fact, is very *unlikely to be realized.*

quod ego sī verbō adsequī possem, istōs ipsōs ēicerem, *if I had it in my power to accomplish this by a word, I should drive out these very men ;* Cat. 2, 6, 12. This the speaker does not mean to do. (Not *I should have driven out* nor *I should now be driving out*, but *I should proceed to drive out*)

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d. **Early and Poetic Conditions and Conclusions Contrary to Fact.** In early Latin, Conditions and Conclusions Contrary to Fact may be expressed by the *Present* and *Perfect ;* and the poets sometimes employ the construction at a later period.

sī ēcastor nunc habeās quod dēs, alia verba praehibeās: nunc quia nihil habēs . . . , *good gracious! if you had anything to give, your language would be different. As it is, since you have n't anything . . . ;* As. 188.

dēliciās tuās, nī sint inēlegantēs, vellēs dīcere, *you would wish to tell of your pleasures, if they were not discreditable ;* Catull. 6, 1.

REMARK. This construction is a survival of the earliest type, in use before the Imperfect and Past Perfect Subjunctive came into existence. This earliest type could make no distinction of time.

e. The Indicative Past Perfect, or Imperfect, is sometimes used to represent an act as *sure to have taken place*, except for a certain condition, expressed or implied.

praeclārē vīcerāmus, nisi Lepidus recēpisset Antōnium, *we had won a splendid victory, had not Lepidus given Antony shelter* (the victory was already won, *but* . . .) ; Fam. 12, 10, 3.

iam tūta tenēbam, nī gēns crūdēlis ferrō invāsisset, *I should surely have laid hold upon safety* (was already laying hold), *had not the cruel race attacked me with the sword ;* Aen. 6, 358.

General Notes on Conditions and Conclusions

582. 1. **Mixed Conditions and Conclusions.** Any thinkable combination of types may be employed; or the Conclusion may take the form of a Command, a Wish, a Statement of Obligation, etc.

quae supplicātiō sī cum cēterīs supplicātiōnibus cōnferātur, hoc interest, *if this thanksgiving should be compared with the rest, there is this difference ;* Cat. 3, 6, 15. (Condensed for "there is this difference, *as would be found*, if the comparison should be made.")

sī dēferantur et arguantur, pūniendī sunt, *if they should be reported and convicted, they are to be punished ;* Plin. Ep. 10, 97.

vincite, sī vultis, *have your way, if you will ;* B. G. 5, 30, 1.

sī amābat, adservāret diēs noctīsque, *if he really was in love with her, he should have watched over her day and night ;* Rud. 379.

a. The mixed form is especially common where the inherent *meaning* of the main verb suggests the future idea, as with **dēbeō, possum, studeō, volō**, etc.

intrāre, sī possim, castra hostium volō, *I mean, if I should be successful, to enter the camp of the enemy* (= I shall . . . , if . . .) ; Liv. 2, 12, 5.

2. **Loosely Attached Conditions.** A Less Vivid Future Condition may be *loosely attached* to the main clause.

auscultō, sī quid dīcās, *I am listening, in case you should have anything to say.* Trin. 148. (Future to the present.)

hanc sī nostrī trānsīrent, hostēs exspectābant, *the enemy were waiting, in case our men should cross this* (swamp); B. G. 2, 9, 1. (Future to the past.)

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a. Such Conditions often suggest the idea "to see whether," or "in the hope that."

b. Out of examples like the last arises the true **Indirect Question of Fact with sī.**

vide sī quid opis potes adferre, *see if you can help;* Ph. 553. (For the mood, see **537**, *g*.

incerta sī Iuppiter velit, *uncertain whether it is the will of Jove;* Aen. 4, 110.

quaesīsse sī equitēs ēvāsissent, *asked if the cavalry had escaped;* Liv. 39, 50, 7.

3. **Special Idioms** with Verbs or Phrases expressing Obligation, Possibility, and the like, and certain other Phrases made up of a neuter Adjective with **est**, or equivalents:[1]

a) An *actually existing* Obligation, Possibility, etc., in whatever time, is expressed by an Indicative of the appropriate tense;[2] an Obligation, Possibility, etc., which, in some imagined case, *would* exist, or *would have* existed, by a Subjunctive of the appropriate tense.

In such uses, the Imperfect Indicative expresses an actually existing present Obligation or Possibility not fulfilled, the Perfect an actual past Obligation or Possibility not fulfilled, the Past Perfect an Obligation or Possibility actually existing in past time, and prior to a point which is in mind. The tenses of the Subjunctive, when used with these expressions, are simply those of the regular Subjunctive Conclusion (Less Vivid Future, or Contrary to Fact, as the case may be). Compare the contrasting forms in the following table:

Examples of Contrasting Uses:

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
possum persequī permulta oblectāmenta rērum rūsticārum, sed . . . , *I might treat of a great many pleasures of farm life; but . . .;* Sen. 16, 55. (I HAVE IT in my power to treat.)	**sī scierīs, scīsse tē quis arguere possit?** *supposing you to have known, who could prove that you had known?* Fin. 2, 18, 59. (Who, in that case, WOULD have it in his power?)

[1] So e.g. with **dēbeō, decet, oportet, convenit, possum, licet; aequum, melius, optimum, iūstum, pār est; longum, facile, grave est**; the Future Passive Participle with **est**; and **est** with the Descriptive Genitive. Similarly, in poetry, with **tempus est**, etc.

[2] In corresponding expressions in English we inflect the Infinitive to make variations of tense ("I ought *to do* it," "*to have done* it," etc.). The Romans inflected the main verb ("it *is* my duty to do it," "it *was* my duty to do it," etc.). Thus **id facere dēbuī**, *I ought to have done it.*

But of course the Infinitive may be used in an emphatic tense (**490**), or **iam prīdem** may be added (**485**), or both, as in **quod iam prīdem factum esse oportuit**, *which ought* LONG AGO *to have been done* AND DONE WITH; Cat. 1, 2, 5.

INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
quibus vōs absentibus cōnsulere dēbētis, *for whose interests you ought to consult in their absence;* Pomp. 7, 18. (It *is* an actual obligation, open to fulfilment.)	**haec sī tēcūm patria loquātur, nōnne impetrāre dēbeat?** *if your country should thus speak with you, ought she not to prevail?* Cat. 1, 8, 19. (Thus English. The Latin idea is, *Would it not* in that case *be* an obligation?)
quōs ferrō trucīdārī oportēbat, *who ought to be butchered with the sword;* Cat. 1, 4, 9. (It *is* an actual obligation, unfulfilled.)	**quae sī dīceret, tamen ignōscī nōn oportēret,** *if he said this, still it would not be right to forgive;* Verr. 1, 27, 70. (It *would* in that case still *be* an obligation.)
melius fuerat prōmissum patris nōn esse servātum, *it would have been better that the father's promise should not be kept;* Off. 3, 25, 94. (It actually *was*, before the time thought of, the better thing.)	**nōnne melius multō fuisset quiētam aetātem trādūcere,** *would it not have been much better to spend my life in quiet?* Sen. 23, 82. (It *would have been* better, in the case supposed in the previous sentence.)
dēlērī tōtus exercitus potuit, sī fugientēs persecūtī victōrēs essent, *the entire army might have been destroyed, if the victors had followed up the fugitives;* Liv. 32, 12, 6. (It *was* possible to destroy them, but it was not done.)	**nisi labōre mīlitēs essent dēfessī, omnēs hostium cōpiae dēlērī potuissent,** *if the soldiers had not been tired out, the entire force of the enemy might have been destroyed;* B. G. 7, 88, 6. (It *would* in that case *have been* possible to destroy them.)

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NOTE 1. The Indicative may be used, even when accompanied by a Condition Contrary to Fact, if the Conclusion is true *independently* of the Condition.

quodsī Rōmae Cn. Pompeius prīvātus esset, tamen is erat dēligendus, *now if Gnaeus Pompey were in Rome, and a private citizen, still he would be the right person to choose;* Pomp. 17, 50. (Is the right person as it is, and would be even in the supposed case.)

NOTE 2. Constructions corresponding to the above Indicative types of course occur in Indirect Discourse also.

sī alicuius iniūriae sibi cōnscius fuisset, nōn fuisse difficile cavēre, (he said that) *if he had been conscious of any wrongdoing, it would have been easy to be on his guard;* B. G. 1, 14, 2. (He said: "**sī cōnscius fuissem, nōn fuit difficile.**" Cf. **facile fuit quattuor duplicāre,** *it would have been easy to double the four;* Div. 2, 18, 42.)

NOTE 3. The poets occasionally *force* the Indicative construction, using it as the equivalent of a Conclusion (sometimes even of a Condition) Contrary to Fact.

sī nōn alium iactāret odōrem, laurus erat, *if it did not cast a different perfume, it were* (would be) *a laurel tree;* Georg. 2, 132. Similarly *Castor erās*, Mart. 5, 38, 6.

b) With certain adjectives with est (or sunt),[1] the Present Indicative is the *fixed idiom* in Ciceronian Latin, as against the Present Subjunctive, which is not used.

difficile est hoc dē omnibus cōnfirmāre, sed tamen est certum quid respondeam, *it would be difficult to maintain this in the case of all* (Latin, "it is difficult"), *but still it is clear what I am to answer;* Arch. 7, 15.

4. A Condition may itself form a Conclusion for another Condition.

moriar sī magis gaudeam, sī id mihi accidisset, *may I die if I should take more pleasure if it had happened to myself;* Att. 8, 6, 3.

5. A Condition with sī or ō sī may express a **Virtual Wish.**[2]

sī nunc sē ille aureus rāmus ostendat, *if now that golden branch would show itself* (= would that . . .); Aen. 6, 187.

6. A Condition with sī **modo,** *if only,* is equivalent to a Proviso (**529**). Either mood may be used, according to the feeling.

opprimī dīcō patientiā, sī modo est aliqua patientia, *I assert that* (*pain*) *is overcome by endurance, if only there is some endurance;* Tusc. 2, 14, 33.

7. **Sī** is sometimes used with the force of etsī, *even if* (concessive).

nōn possum, sī cupiam, *I cannot, even if I should desire;* Verr. 4, 40, 88.

8. **Etsī, tametsī,** and **etiamsī,** *even if,* are often equivalent to *although* (**Virtual Adversative Clause**). Either mood may be used, according to the feeling.

etsī nōndum eōrum cōnsilium cognōverat, tamen suspicābātur, *though* (even if) *he did not yet know their plan, still he was suspicious;* B. G. 4, 31, 1.

9. **Sī quidem,**[3] *if indeed,* gains the force of *for* or *since* (**Virtual Clause of Reason**).

in agrīs erant tum senātōrēs, sī quidem arantī L. Quīnctiō Cincinnātō nūntiātum est eum dictātōrem esse factum, *there were senators living in the country at that time; for* (if indeed) *the news that he had been appointed dictator was brought to Lucius Quinctius Cincinnatus while ploughing;* Sen. 15, 56.

10. A Definition may be expressed by an Indicative Clause with quī or cum (originally simply a generalizing clause; see **576–579**).

vir bonus est is quī prōdest quibus potest, nocet nēminī, *the good man is the one who helps whom he can, and harms nobody;* Off. 3, 15, 64.

is est triumphus vērus, cum bene dē rē pūblicā meritīs testimōnium ā cōnsēnsū cīvitātis datur, *that is the true triumph, when those who have deserved well of the state receive evidence of this from the unanimous feeling of its citizens;* Phil. 14, 5, 13.

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[1] Thus longum est, facile est. [2] That is, a wish in *force*, though not in *form*.
[3] Also written sīquidem. (In later poetry, sometimes sīquidem.)

THE INFINITIVE

583. Synopsis of the Principal Uses of the Infinitive

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I. With Adjectives with est, and Verbs or Phrases of similar force, as in "it is base to . . . " (585).

II. With Verbs or Phrases expressing attitude or position with reference to performing an act, as in "I wish to" (586).

III. With Verbs or Phrases expressing attitude or position toward the performing of an act by another, as in "I wish *you* to" (587).

IV. With Verbs or Phrases of perceiving, saying, thinking, or knowing, as in "I see that you . . . " (589).

V. With Verbs or Phrases of feeling, as in "I am glad that you . . . " (594).

VI. Historical Infinitive (595).

VII. Exclamatory Infinitive (596).

VIII. As Subject, Predicate, or Object of certain Verbs, or as an Appositive (597, 1).

584. The Infinitive is in effect a Verbal Noun, capable of standing in various case-relations.

As a Noun, it may have a Neuter Adjective or Pronoun agreeing with it (58, 3; example under 597, 1, *b*).

As a Verb, it may govern Cases, and may itself be modified by an Adverb.

a. The negative is nōn.

b. For the general forces of the tenses, see 472.

c. According to the sense intended, the Infinitive may be Active or Passive; it may, or may not, be attended by a Subject Accusative;[1] and, if Passive, it may, or may not, be attended by a Predicate Noun or Adjective.

d. In most of its uses, the Infinitive stands to the verb or phrase on which it depends in the Relation of Subject, or Object, or Accusative of Respect. In such examples, it is of Substantive nature (cf. 238).

e. In the Future Active and the Perfect Passive Indicative, the auxiliary esse is often omitted (164, 7).

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[1] A classification of the Infinitive on the basis of its having or not having a Subject Accusative is unserviceable, since many verbs may take either construction *without essential difference of meaning.* Thus one may say either cupiō clēmēns esse or cupiō mē esse clēmentem.

A. PROSE USES OF THE INFINITIVE IN ALL PERIODS

I

585. The Infinitive is used with *Adjectives with* est, and Verbs and Phrases of similar force.[1]

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These expressions represent an action as (1) *advantageous* or *important;* (2) *necessary* or *obligatory;* (3) *customary* or *permissible;* (4) *seemly* or *shameful*, *pleasant* or *tiresome*, *easy* or *difficult*,[2] etc., etc.

commodissimum vīsum est mittere, *it seemed most advantageous to send;* B. G. 1, 47, 4.

tempus est abīre mē, *it is time that I should go* (to go is seasonable); Tusc. 1, 41, 99.

a. In many phrases, this Infinitive may either have, or not have, a Subject Accusative; thus **tempus est abīre** or **tempus est nōs abīre.**

b. When the Subject of the Infinitive is indefinite (*one*, *a man*, *people*), it is not expressed. But a Predicate Noun or Adjective may nevertheless be used, *belonging in thought* to the indefinite Subject.

nōn esse cupidum pecūnia est, *not to be covetous is wealth;* Par. 6, 3, 51.

c. When **licet**, **expedit**, etc., are followed by a Dative and Infinitive, the Predicate of the Infinitive may be in the Accusative, or it may be attracted into the Dative.

cīvī Rōmānō licet esse Gāditānum, *it is permitted to a Roman citizen to be a citizen of Cadiz;* Balb. 12, 20.

mihi neglegentī esse nōn licet, *I am not allowed to be careless;* Att. 1, 17, 6.

d. Such an Infinitive sometimes has a Neuter Adjective or Pronoun in agreement (cf. **58**, 3).

cum vīvere ipsum turpe sit, *when merely to be alive is disgraceful;* Att. 13, 28, 2.

e. Verbs or phrases of this class suggesting that the action is *wanted* or *urged* may also take a Subjunctive Substantive Clause. So especially **interest**, **rēfert**, **oportet**, **licet**, **necesse**, **opus**, **ūsus**, or **tempus est**, **melius** or **optimum est.** Thus one may say either **tempus est nōs abīre** or **tempus est ut abeāmus.**

f. Many verbs and phrases of this class *shade into* meanings belonging to the second or the third class. So **tempus est abīre** *suggests* the meaning *I am inclined to go.*

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[1] Thus **nefās est**, *it is wrong*, has the same force as **nefāstum est**; **mōs est**, *it is customary*, as **ūsitātum est**; **tempus est**, *it is time*, as **tempestīvum est.**

[2] E.g. (1) **iuvat**, **expedit**, **ūtile est**, **condūcit**, **prōdest**, **rēfert**, **interest**; (2) **necesse** or **necessārium est**, **opus** or **ūsus est**, **tempus est** (*it is seasonable to*, *it is high time that*), **oportet**, **convenit**, **iūs** or **iūstum est**, **fās**, **nefās**, or **nefārium est**, **pār**, **rēctum**, **aequum**, **inīquum**, etc., **est**; (3) **mōs** (**mōris**) or **cōnsuētūdō** (**cōnsuētūdinis**) or **ūsitātum est**, **meum** (**tuum**, etc.) **est**, **licet**; (4) **decet** or **dēdecet**, **convenit**, **laus est**, **turpe** or **praeclārum est**, **sceleri** or **facinus est**, **displicet** (*is disagreeable*), **dēlectat**, **taedet**, **paenitet**, **pudet**, **piget**, **rēfert**, **interest**, **iūcundum**, **grātum**, **grave**, **molestum**, **miserum**, **longum est**, **facile** or **difficile est**, **satis** or **satius est**, **optābile**, **bonum** or **malum est**, **vidētur** (*seems best*), **praestat** (*is better*), **est** or **rēs est** with the Genitive (*is the part of*), **proprium est** (*is peculiar to*), etc.

Similarly other words in later Latin. Thus **vincit** (*is better*).

II

586. The Infinitive is used with Verbs or Phrases expressing *attitude* or *position with reference to performing an act.*

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The personal verbs of this class express the ideas of (1) *wishing* or *not wishing;* (2) *determining*, *planning*, or *endeavoring;* (3) *beginning* or *omitting*, *persevering* or *ceasing;* (4) *hastening* or *delaying;* (5) *daring*, *hesitating*, *fearing;* (6) *knowing how* or *learning how;* (7) *remembering to* or *seeming to;* (8) *being accustomed to*, *having the power to*, or *being under obligation to.*[1]

The impersonal verbs or phrases express *determination*, *inclination*, or *whim.*[2]

maiōrī partī placuit castra dēfendere, *the majority wanted to defend the camp* (to defend it was pleasing to them); B. G. 3, 3, 4.

ad hunc lēgātōs mittī placet? *do we want ambassadors to be sent to such a man as this?* (= **mittere placet?**) Phil. 5, 9, 25.

eās nātiōnēs adīre volēbat, *he wished to visit those tribes;* B. G. 3, 7, 1.

nōlīte dubitāre, *pray, do not hesitate* (be unwilling to . . .); Pomp. 23, 68. (Courteous Prohibition. See **501**, *a*, 2.)

mātūrat proficīscī, *he makes haste to set out;* B. G. 1, 7, 1.

dēbēre sē suspicārī, *he was bound* (he said) *to suspect;* B. G. 1, 44, 10.

a. With most of the personal verbs of this class, the Infinitive *completely fills out* the meaning (as in **volō īre**, *I wish to go*). Hence it is called the Complementary Infinitive.

b. Some of these verbs may either have, or not have, the Reflexive Pronoun as Subject Accusative.

If such a Subject Accusative is used, a Predicate Noun or Adjective must of course be in the Accusative; if not, it must go back to

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[1] E.g. (1) **volō**, **mālō**, **nōlō**, **cupiō**, **optō**, **dēsīderō**, **sustineō**, **recūsō**; (2) **statuō**, **cōnstituō**, **īnstituō**, **dēcernō**, **animum indūcō**, **cōnsilium capiō**, **cōgitō**, **meditor**, **studeō**, **in animō habeō**, **dēstinō**, **parō**, **cōnor**, **nītor**, **mōlior**, **labōrō**, **temptō**; (3) **coepī**, **incipiō**, **mittō** and **omittō**, **neglegō**, **pergō**, **persevērō**, **īnstō**, **dēsinō**, **dēsistō**, **cessō**; (4) **festīnō**, **properō**, **mātūrō**, **contendō**, **moror**, **cūnctor**; (5) **audeō**, **dubitō**, **vereor**, **metuō**, **timeō**; (6) **sciō**, **nesciō**, **discō**; (7) **meminī**, **recordor**, **oblīviscor**, **videor** (*seem*); (8) **soleō**, **adsuēscō**, **cōnsuēscō**, **possum**, **queō**, **nequeō**, **dēbeō**.

Also, in poetic and later Latin (1) **ārdeō**, **dignor**, **gaudeō**, **laetor**; (2) **poscō**; (3) **sūmō**; (4) **praecipitō**; (5) **horreō**; (8) **sufficiō**, **valeō**, etc.

[2] E.g. **certum**, **dēstinātum**, **cōnsilium** or **in animō est**, **venit in mentem**, **placet**, **iuvat**, **libet**.

Also, in poetic and later Latin, **cūra** or **cūrae est**, **est animus**, **fert animus**, **amor** or **cupīdō est**, **subit īra**, **mēns est**, **spēs est accēnsa**, etc.

the Subject of the main verb for its agreement (generally therefore in the Nominative).

grātum sē vidērī studet, *aims to seem grateful;* Off. 2, 20, 70.
fierī studēbam doctior, *I aimed to become wiser;* Am. 1, 1.

c. Impersonal verbs or phrases of this class suggesting that the action is *wanted* or *urged* may also take a Volitive Substantive Clause (**502**, 3, *a*). Thus one may say either **placuit eī lēgātōs mittere** or **placuit eī ut lēgātōs mitteret** (B. G. 1, 34, 1).

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d. Most verbs of *wishing* or *not wishing*, when used to express attitude toward performing an act *oneself*, take only the Infinitive (thus **volō**). But **recūsō** may also take the Subjunctive with **nē** or **quōminus**, or, if negatived, with **quōminus** or **quīn**; see **502**, 3, *b*). (In Cicero's time only the *negative* form **nōn recūsō**, etc., takes the Infinitive.)

e. Several verbs of *determining*, *planning*, or *endeavoring* take either the Infinitive or the Volitive Subjunctive (**502**, 3, *a*). So **cōnstituō**, **labōrō**.

f. The Participle **parātus** may take an Infinitive (thus in B. G. 1, 44, 4) just as any other part of **parō** may do. Later, the Participles of **suēscō**, **adsuēscō**, **adsuēfaciō**, and **soleō** (**suētus**, **adsuētus**, **adsuēfactus**, **solitus**) came to be used similarly with the Infinitive. For the large extension of this usage, see **598**, 2, *c*).

g. Several verbs belong both to this class and to the following one; e.g. **placet**, **volō**, **cupiō**, **optō**, **studeō** (thus "I wish to do a thing," and "I wish *you* to do a thing").

III

587. The Infinitive is used with certain Verbs expressing *attitude* or *position toward the performing of an act by another.*

Verbs of this class express the ideas of (1) *wishing* or *not wishing;* (2) *commanding* or *impelling;* (3) *permitting*, *prohibiting*, or *preventing;* (4) *teaching* or *accustoming.*[1]

iter patefierī volēbat, *he wished the road to be opened;* B. G. 3, 1, 3.
Pompeius rem ad arma dēdūcī studēbat, *Pompey's aim was that the matter should be brought to the settlement of arms;* B. C. 1, 4, 4.
Dīviciācum vocārī iubet, *he orders Diviciacus to be summoned;* B. G. 1, 19, 3.
sī hic ōrdō placēre dēcrēverit tē īre in exsilium, *if this body should decide it to be its pleasure that you should go into exile;* Cat. 1, 8, 20.

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[1] E.g. (1) **volō**, **mālō**, **nōlō**, **cupiō**, **optō**, **dēsīderō**, **studeō**, **placet**; (2) **iubeō**, **cōgō**; (3) **patior**, **permittō** (oftener with **ut**-clause), **sinō**, **prohibeō**, **impediō**; (4) **doceō**, **adsuēfaciō**.
Other verbs also are so used by Cicero or Caesar, but rarely, though freely by the poets; thus **expetō**, **moneō**, **admoneō**, **hortor**, **faciō** (*cause* or *force*), **suādeō**, **dēterreō** (in passive), **ēdoceō**.
Others are so used only in poetry and later prose; e.g. (2) **stimulō**, **poscō**, **tendō**, **foveō**, **invītō**, **impellō**, **suādeō**, **subigō**; (3) **patior**; (4) **mōnstrō** (*show how*), **ērudiō**.

a. Since verbs used with this meaning imply that something is *wanted* or *desired*, many may also take a Volitive or Optative Substantive Clause (**502**, 3 and **511**, 2).

b. **Imperō**, *command*, regularly takes a Volitive Substantive Clause; but in a few places (as Cat. 1, 11, 27; B. G. 7, 60, 3) it takes an Infinitive of passive form (either true passive or deponent).

Iubeō, *order*, and **vetō**, *forbid*, regularly take the Infinitive; but in a few places (as Verr. 2, 67, 16) they take a Volitive Substantive Clause.

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c. Many other verbs, of the same general force as those of Class 3, take only the Volitive Substantive Clause (**502**, 3).

588. The Infinitive may also be used with the *Passive* of many verbs of this class, e.g. with **iubeor**, **prohibeor**, **vetor**.

arma trādere iussī, *being ordered to give up their arms;* B. G. 3, 21, 3.

IV

589. The Infinitive is used to express a *Statement* after Verbs or Phrases of *perceiving*, *saying*, *thinking*, *knowing*, and the like.

These express or imply the ideas of (1) *seeing*, *feeling*, or *hearing;* (2) *saying*, *proving*, *conceding*, or *denying;* (3) *accusing* or *acquitting;* (4) *thinking*, *believing*, *suspecting*, or *doubting;* (5) *remembering* or *knowing;* (6) *learning* or *informing;* (7) *confessing* or *pretending;* (8) *swearing*, *threatening*, *hoping*, or *promising*.[1]

biennium satis esse dūxērunt, *thought two years to be enough;* B. G. 1, 3, 2.

Caesar sēsē eōs cōnservātūrum (esse) dīxit, *Caesar said that he would leave them unharmed;* B. G. 2, 15, 1.

memoriā tenēbat L. Cassium occīsum (esse) ab Helvētiīs, *he remembered that Lucius Cassius had been slain by the Helvetians;* B. G. 1, 7, 4.

quis ignōrābat Q. Pompeium fēcisse foedus? *who was ignorant that Quintus Pompey had made the treaty?* Rep. 3, 18, 28.

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[1] E.g. (1) **videō**, **sentiō**, **audiō**, **manifestum est**, **nōn mē fallit**; (2) **dīcō**, **dēclārō**, **nārrō**, **adfirmō**, **fāma est**, **dēmōnstrō**, **probō**, **vērum** or **falsum est**, **cōnstat**, **concēdō**, **negō**, **convenit**, *it is agreed that*, **sequitur**, **efficitur**, *it is made out that;* (3) **arguō**, **incūsō**, **īnsimulō**, **dēfendō**; (4) **putō**, **arbitror**, **opīnor**, **statuō** and **cōnstituō** (with Infinitive and Future Passive Participle), **cēnseō**, **exīstimō**, **iūdicō**, **crēdō**, **dūcō**, **fīdō**, **diffīdō**, **suspicor**, **habeō** (in the sense of *understand*), **dubitō**, **mīrum est**, **vērī simile est**; (5) **recordor**, **meminī**, etc., **memoriā teneō**, **intellegō**, **sciō**, **nesciō**, **ignōrō**; (6) **discō**, **inveniō**, **cognōscō**, **ignōrō**, **reperiō**, **certior fīō**, **certiōrem faciō**, **nūntiō** and its compounds, **moneō** (*inform that*), **suādeō** and **persuādeō** (*persuade that*); (7) **fateor**, **cōnfiteor**, **fingō**, **simulō**; (8) **iūrō**, **minor**, **spērō**, **spem habeō**, etc., **cōnfidō**, **cōnfirmō**, **polliceor**, **prōmittō**.

Other verbs are found in poetry and later Latin, as **prōspiciō**, **repetō**, **mōnstrō**.

a. A number of verbs or phrases may take the Infinitive, if the idea of *saying* or *thinking* is implied, or the Subjunctive, if the idea of *resolving* or *directing* is implied (502, 3); and the two constructions may even be used together. Thus:

cōnstituērunt optimum esse domum suam quemque revertī, et . . . undique convenīrent, *determined that it was best that all should return to their homes, and . . . should assemble from all sides;* B. G. 2, 10, 4.

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590. 1. The Infinitive may also be used with the *Passive* of many verbs of this class, e.g. with **arguor, dīcor, exīstimor, iūdicor, putor, videor.**

centum pāgōs habēre dīcuntur, *are said to have a hundred cantons;* B. G. 4, 1, 4.

a. Passive forms compounded with a Participle are generally in the impersonal construction. Similarly **crēditur,** *it is believed.* But **videor** is preferred to **vidētur.**

cui Āpuliam attribūtam esse erat indicātum, *to whom it had been shown that Apulia had been assigned;* Cat. 3, 6, 14.

2. When the main verb is personal, all predicate forms must of course be in the Nominative, if the Subject is.

nōn minōrem laudem exercitus meritus (esse) vidēbātur, *the army seemed to have earned no less praise;* B. G. 1, 40, 5.

591. Such Statements, because made indirectly (see **533, 534,** 1), are said to be in Indirect Discourse. *Every Principal Statement in Indirect Discourse is expressed by the Infinitive.*

a. A Rhetorical Question of Fact (**235**), since it is *equivalent to a Statement* of Fact, is expressed in Indirect Discourse by an Infinitive.

num etiam recentium iniūriārum memoriam dēpōnere posse? *could he* (he asked) *put aside the memory of recent wrongs also?* B. G. 1, 14, 3. (The original **num possum?** *can I?* really meant **nōn possum,** *I cannot.*)

NOTE. This usage is confined to questions which originally were in the first or third person.

b. For the Conclusion Contrary to Fact in Indirect Discourse, see **581,** *b,* 1).

c. For the occasional Infinitive in a subordinate Indirect Statement, see **535,** 1, *b.*

d. For the Infinitive after a Relative or **quam,** see **535,** 1, *c.*

e. For the Infinitive (instead of a Participle) with verbs of seeing or representing, see **605,** 1.

592. The Infinitive in Indirect Discourse regularly has a Subject; but this is sometimes omitted, especially if it is a Reflexive Pronoun. The omission of **is** is rare.

ignōscere imprūdentiae dīxit, *said that he forgave their indiscretion;* B. G. 4, 27, 5.

a. When the Subject is thus omitted, the poets sometimes make a Predicate Adjective or Participle agree with the Subject of the main verb.

sēnsit mediōs dēlāpsus in hostīs, *saw that he had fallen into the midst of the enemy;* Aen. 2, 377.

593. Tenses. The tenses in Indirect Discourse have their regular meanings, as explained in **472**, the Perfect Infinitive representing a *relatively past* time, the Present a *relatively present* time, the Future a *relatively future* time. For examples, see **472**, *a* and *b*.

a. Verbs or phrases of *promising*, *hoping*, *swearing*, or *threatening* look forward to the future, and therefore generally take the Future Infinitive or **posse**, with a Subject Accusative. Yet they sometimes take the Present Infinitive, without a Subject (as generally in English).

spērat adulēscēns diū sē vīctūrum, *the young man hopes to live a long life* (hopes that he will live . . .); Sen. 19, 68.

tōtīus Galliae sēsē potīrī posse spērant, *they hope to be able to master the whole of Gaul;* B. G. 1, 3, 8.

lēgātī veniunt quī polliceantur obsidēs dare, *ambassadors come, to promise to give hostages;* B. G. 4, 21, 5.

b. Verbs of *remembering* may take the Present Infinitive of a personal experience (mere act, without tense-force).

meministīne mē dīcere . . . ? *do you remember my saying . . . ?* Cat. 1, 3, 7.

V

594. The Infinitive is used with Verbs or Phrases of *feeling*.[1]

These convey the ideas of (1) *pride* or *wonder;* (2) *joy* or *grief;* (3) *indignation*, *complaint*, or *resignation*.[2]

mīrābar crēdī, *I was surprised that it was believed;* Mil. 24, 65.

exercitum hiemāre in Galliā molestē ferēbant, *took it ill that the army was wintering in Gaul;* B. G. 2, 1, 3.

a. The poets and later prose writers apply the construction also to *adjectives* of feeling, e.g. **laetus**, **maestus**, **contentus**.

b. With most of these verbs and phrases the Infinitive is in origin an Accusative of Respect (e.g. with **doleō**, *mourn with reference to the fact that;* cf. **id maesta est**, **388**, *a*). With others, it is a direct Object or Subject (e.g. it is an Object with **molestē ferō**).

c. Most of these verbs and phrases may also take a Substantive **quod**-Clause (**555**).

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1 Such statements are often said to be in Indirect Discourse.

2 E.g. (1) **glōrior**, **mīror**, **admīror**, **dēmīror**; (2) **laetor**, **gaudeō**, **doleō**, **lūgeō**, **maereō**; **acerbē**, **graviter**, **molestē**, etc., with **ferō**; (3) **indignor**, **expostulō**, **fremō**, **queror**, **facile patior**.

Also, in poetry and later prose, (1) **laudor** (*be praised for*), (2) **gemō**, **dēlector**; (3) **tolerō** (*put up with*), etc.

VI. Historical Infinitive

595. In lively narration, the Infinitive may be used in place of an *Indicative, Perfect*[1] or *Imperfect.* Its Subject is in the Nominative.

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hostēs ex omnibus partibus signō datō dēcurrere, *at a given signal the enemy rushed down from every side;* B. G. 3, 4, 1. (Aoristic.)

interim cotīdiē Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre, *meanwhile Caesar was dunning the Haedui daily for the corn;* B. G. 1, 16, 1. (Situation.)

sōlam nam perfidus ille tē colere, *for the traitor used to care for you alone;* Aen. 4, 421. (Habitual Action.)

VII. Exclamatory Infinitive

596. The Infinitive, generally with a Subject Accusative, may be used in Exclamations of *surprise, indignation,* or *regret.* The particle **-ne** is sometimes attached to the emphatic word.

hoc nōn vidēre ! *the idea of not seeing this!* Fin. 4, 27, 76.

mēne inceptō dēsistere ! *I to give up my purpose!* Aen. 1, 37.

VIII. As Subject, Predicate, or Object, of Certain Verbs

597. 1. The Infinitive is also used, in all periods,

a) As the Subject, Predicate, or Object of Verbs meaning (1) to *be,* (2) to *befall,* or (3) to *place.*[2]

vīvere est cōgitāre, *to live is to think;* Tusc. 5, 38, 111. (= a definition.)

nōn cadit invidēre in sapientem, *it does not happen to the wise man to feel envy;* Tusc. 3, 10, 21.

beātē vīvere vōs in voluptāte pōnitis, *you base the happy life on pleasure;* Fin. 2, 27, 86.

b) As an Appositive.

sī hoc optimum factū iūdicārem, Catilīnam morte multārī, *if I thought this the best course to take,* (namely) *that Catiline should be put to death;* Cat. 1, 12, 29.

c) After **inter** in the phrase **interest inter.**

inter valere et aegrōtare nihil interesse, (said) *that there was no difference between being well and being ill;* Fin. 2, 13, 43.

2. The Infinitive is occasionally used with **habeō.**

habeō dīcere quem dēiēcerit, *I can tell whom he cast down;* Rosc. Am. 33, 100.

nihil habeō scrībere, *I have nothing to write;* Att. 2, 22, 6.

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[1] With aoristic force.

[2] E.g. (1) est; (2) cadit, accidit, contingit; (3) pōnō, positum or situm est.

B. POETICAL AND LATER PROSE USES OF THE INFINITIVE

598. 1. The poets of all periods use the Infinitive freely to expres Purpose:

a) With Verbs of *motion*.[1]

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nōn Libycōs populāre penātīs vēnimus, *we have not come to sack the homes o Libya;* Aen. 1, 527. (**Populāre = ut populēmus.**)

b) With Verbs of *giving* or *undertaking*.[2]

lōrīcam dōnat habēre virō, *he gave to the hero a breastplate to possess;* Aen 5, 260. (**Habēre = habendam, 605, 2.**)

2. The later poets use the Infinitive freely:

a) As the Object of Verbs of *granting* or *taking away*.[3]

tū dās epulīs accumbere dīvom, *thou grantest to recline at the banquets of th gods;* Aen. 1, 79.

b) In place of a Subjunctive Substantive Clause.

celerāre fugam suādet (for ut celeret suādet), *urges her to speed her flight;* Aen. 1, 357.

dūcī intrā mūrōs hortātur, *urges that it be brought within the walls;* Aen. 2, 33.

c) With Adjectives, or Participles of adjective force.[4] The later prose-writers follow to a large extent.

certa morī, *determined to die;* Aen. 4, 564.
sī crēdere dignum est, *if the story is worthy of belief;* Aen. 6, 173.
legī dignus, *worthy to be read;* Quintil. 10, 1, 96.
praestantior ciēre, *more skilful in arousing;* Aen. 6, 165.

d) With Nouns denoting *attention* or *opportunity*.

dum praecipitāre potestās, *while there is opportunity for flight;* Aen. 4, 565.

3. The later writers, especially the poets, use the Infinitive occasionally as a mere Substantive depending upon a Verb, or in the Accusative after certain prepositions.

postquam sapere urbī vēnit nostrum, *after this philosophizing of ours came to town;* Persius 6, 38. Cf. **habēre ēdocuit,** Sall. Cat. 10, 4.
Tityon cernere erat, *one could see Tityos* (it was possible to see); Aen. 6, 595.
nīl praeter plōrāre, *nothing except to weep;* Sat. 2, 5, 69.

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[1] E.g. eō, veniō, abigō.
[2] E.g. dō, dōnō, trādō, ministrō, sūmō.
[3] E.g. dō, tribuō, concēdō, reddō, adimō, ēripiō, perdō.
[4] E.g. doctus, doctior, indoctus, docilis, indocilis; callidus, sollers, sagāx, cautus, prūdēns, perītus, blandus; patiēns, impatiēns; solitus, īnsolitus; audāx, timidus; cupidus, certus, sciēns, nescius; dignus, aptus, idōneus; impiger, piger, celer, sēgnis; bonus, efficāx, ūtilis, pār, minor; potēns, impotēns.

THE PARTICIPLE

599. The Participle is a Verbal Adjective.

a. As an Adjective, it belongs to a Substantive, and agrees with it (**320**).

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b. As a Verb, it expresses Voice, governs Cases, and may be modified by an Adverb. It also expresses tense-ideas, but only those of completion, progress, or futurity (action *prior*, *contemporaneous*, or *yet to come*; see **473** and **600**).

c. The negative is **nōn**.

Ordinary Tense-Meanings of the Participles

600. The ordinary Tense-Meanings of the Participles are as follows:

1. The Present Active Participle represents an act as *going on* at the time of the main verb.

Cotta pugnāns occīditur, *Cotta is killed* (while) *fighting*; B. G. 5, 37, 5.

Sp. Maelium novīs rēbus studentem occīdit, *killed Spurius Maelius* (who was) *plotting revolution*; Cat. 1, 1, 3.

a. For the use to express attempted action, and the use to express action already for some time in progress, see **484** and **485**.

2. The Future Active Participle represents an act as *intended* or *impending* at the time of the main verb.

sed nōn est itūrus, *but he does not intend to go* (is not intending to go); Cat. 2, 7, 15.

a. In Ciceronian prose, the Future Active Participle is almost wholly confined to the Periphrastic Conjugation, as above.

NOTE. The only exceptions are the occasional use of **ventūrus** and **futūrus** as Adjectives (**248**), and a single example expressing Purpose.

3. The Future Passive Participle represents an act as, at the time of the main verb, *necessary*, *proper*, or *intended*.

aciēs erat īnstruenda, *the line of battle had to be formed* (was to be formed); B. G. 2, 20, 1.

quod multō magis est admīrandum, *which is much more to be wondered at*; Cat. 1, 3, 7.

a. The Impersonal Future Passive Participle with est is very common. It governs a Dative or Ablative, if other parts of the verb do.

mīlitibus dē nāvibus dēsiliendum erat, *the soldiers had to leap down from the ships;* B. G. 4, 24, 2.

resistendum senectūtī est, *one must resist old age;* Sen. 11, 35.

b. In a few examples, the Future Passive Participle has the force of a present passive.[1]

volvenda diēs, *time rolling on* (being rolled on); Aen. 9, 7; cf. 1, 269.

4. The Perfect Passive Participle represents an act as *already* completed at the time of the main verb.

quō proeliō sublātī audācius subsistere coepērunt, (*having been*) *cheered up by this engagement, they began to resist with more spirit;* B. G. 1, 15, 3.

Occasional Tense-Meanings of the Participles

601. The tense-meaning is sometimes shifted, as follows:

1. The Perfect Passive Participles of a few Deponent or Semi-Deponent Verbs gain naturally a *present meaning;* e.g. **arbitrātus**, *having come to think*, — and so *thinking*. The use is then extended to other verbs.[2]

īsdem ducibus ūsus Numidās subsidiō oppidānīs mittit, *employing the same men as guides, he sends the Numidians to the relief of the inhabitants of the town;* B. G. 2, 7, 1. Similarly **complexī**, Cat. 2, 5, 10.

2. The later writers, especially the poets, extend the usage to passive verbs used reflexively[3] (288, 3), and from these to true passive verbs.

trīstēs et tūnsae pectora palmīs, *sad, and beating their breasts with their hands;* Aen. 1, 481. (Reflexive use of verb.) Similarly **prōtēctī**, Aen. 2, 444.

portam conversō cardine torquet, *turns the gate upon its revolving hinge;* Aen. 9, 724. (True passive verb.) Similarly **vectōs**, 6, 335; **invectus**, 1, 155.

servum caesum mediō ēgerat Circō, *had driven a slave under the lash* (being beaten) *through the midst of the Circus;* Liv. 2, 36, 1. (**Caesum** = *being beaten*, instead of *having been beaten.*)

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[1] Probably this was the original force. So, e.g., **vir honōrandus** may have meant originally *a man honored*, next *a man honorable*, and finally *a man to be honored.*

[2] The most important participles of the kind with which the use arose are **arbitrātus** and **ratus**, **cōnfīsus**, **diffīsus**, **gāvīsus**, **solitus**, **veritus**. The most important to which the use was extended later are **amplexus**, **ausus**, **cōnātus**, **complexus**, **ēmēnsus**, **imitātus**, **locūtus**, **pālātus**, **secūtus**, **sōlātus**, **ūsus**. The poets use the idiom with great freedom.

[3] Thus with **abscissus**, **circumfūsus**, **conversus**, **effūsus**, **percussus**, **prōtēctus**, **tūnsus**.

Forms Lacking, and how they are Supplied

602. 1. Latin has no Perfect *Active* Participle. It therefore cannot directly express such an idea as *having done so and so.*

Indirectly, the idea may be expressed by a clause with **ubi**, etc., or **cum**, by an Ablative Absolute, or by a Perfect Passive Participle attached to the Object of the main verb.

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a. But the Perfect Passive Participle of *Deponent* or *Semi-Deponent* Verbs has of course the perfect active meaning (**291**, *a*). Thus **cōnspicātus**, *having seen.*

2. Latin has no Present Passive Participle. The place of this is supplied by a relative clause, a clause with **ubi**, etc., or **cum**, or **dum**.

A. COMMON USES OF THE PARTICIPLE IN ALL PERIODS

603. INTRODUCTORY. Since the Participle can be attached, directly or indirectly, to any verb, the combination of the two affords a means by which the speaker or writer can present two acts (or states) *together* to his hearer or reader, without in any way indicating what the actual relation of the two acts to each other is. That relation, if any exists, is left for the hearer or reader *to feel.*

Because of this adaptability to easy and condensed expression, the Participle has a wide use in Latin.

604. In its most common uses, the Participle is employed:

1. For *compactness*, in place of a coördinate clause.

Germānī hostīs locō dēpellunt; fugientīs persequuntur, *the Germans dislodge the enemy from their position, and, as these flee, pursue them;* B. G. 7, 67, 5. (= **illī fugiunt; Germānī persequuntur.** The enemy flee, and the Germans pursue them. A *new* fact is narrated by **fugientīs.**)

a. The Participle is often used *to repeat* something already stated in a Finite Verb.

exercitum fundit, fūsum persequitur, *he routs the army, and, after routing it, pursues* (pursues it, routed); Liv. 1, 10, 4.

2. To express *Situation*,[1] with or without a causal or adversative suggestion.

occīsus est ā cēnā rediēns, *was killed on his way back from dinner;* Rosc. Am. 34, 97. (No relation suggested.)

stantem urbem relīquit, *he left the city still standing;* Cat. 2, 1, 2. (No relation suggested.)

illum exercitum contemnō, conlēctum ex senibus dēspērātīs . . . , *I think little of that army, patched up as it is of desperate old men . . .*; Cat. 2, 3, 5. (Causal relation suggested. **Conlēctum** = **quia conlēctus est.**)

ut eum cupientēs tenēre nequeāmus, *so that, though we wish to restrain it* (namely, laughter), *we cannot;* De Or. 2, 58, 235. (Adversative relation suggested. **Cupientēs** = **quamquam cupimus** or **quamvīs cupiāmus.**)

[1] The Participle never expresses the mere idea of time.

NOTE. The Participle is used abundantly, in either of the above ways (1 and 2), to narrate an Event or a Situation, as preparation for the narration of the main event. It may then be called the **Narrative Participle.**

Thus used, it forms an equivalent for either an Aoristic Narrative Clause with **ubi**, etc. (**557**) or a Narrative **cum**-Clause of Situation (**524**). (There may of course be an *accessory* causal or adversative idea, as in **cum**-Clauses; **525.**)

ā quō nōn receptus ad mē venīre ausus es, *and when he did not take you in, you had the hardihood to come to me;* Cat. 1, 8, 19. (**Nōn receptus** = **ubi nōn receptus es**, or **cum nōn receptus essēs.**)

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3. To express a *Condition.*

damnātum poenam sequī oportēbat, ut ignī cremārētur, *the punishment of being burned alive must follow his conviction;* B. G. 1, 4, 1. (Must follow, *if* he should be convicted. **Damnātum** = **sī damnātus esset.**)

quis potest, mortem metuēns, esse nōn miser? *what man, fearing death* (= i.e. *if* he fears death) *can help being wretched?* Tusc. 5, 6, 15. (**Metuēns** = **quī metuit**, or **sī metuit.** Generalizing Condition; **579.**)

4. To express the *Way by Which* (*Means*).

facit amīcitia adversās (rēs) partiēns leviōrēs, *friendship makes misfortune lighter by dividing it;* Am. 6, 22.

5. To express *Manner.*

flentēs implōrābant, *they begged with tears;* B. G. 1, 51, 2.

6. To express an *Act Not Accompanying the main act* (English "without ——ing"). A negative must be added.

miserum est nihil prōficientem angī, *it is a wretched thing to suffer without accomplishing anything;* N. D. 3, 6, 14.

7. In place of *a Relative Clause*, as follows:

a) In place of a Determinative Clause (**550**).

sepultūram occīsōrum, *the burial of those who had been slain* (**occīsōrum** = **eōrum quī occīsī erant**); B. G. 1, 26, 5.

b) In place of a Descriptive Clause (**521**, 1; **569**).

dē bene meritīs cīvibus, *regarding citizens who have served you well;* Mil. 2, 4.

c) In place of a Parenthetical Clause (**567**).

mortem igitur omnibus hōrīs impendentem timēns quī poterit animō cōnsistere? *if a man fears death, — which at every moment hangs over us, — how can he be steady in mind?* Sen. 20, 74. (**Impendentem** = **quae impendet.**)

B. SPECIAL IDIOMS OF THE PARTICIPLE IN ALL PERIODS

605. The Romans were fond of the use of the Participles with certain kinds of Verbs, as follows:

1. The Present Active Participle with verbs of *seeing*, *hearing*, or *representing*.[1]

vidēre hanc urbem concidentem, *to see this city falling;* Cat. 4, 6, 11.

NOTE. The Infinitive also may be used with these verbs. In the Passive Voice the Infinitive alone is possible, since there is no present passive participle.

quōs videō volitāre in forō, *whom I see flitting about in the forum;* Cat. 2, 3, 5.

cōnstruī ā deō atque aedificārī mundum facit, (Plato) *represents the world as being constructed and built by God;* N. D. 1, 8, 19.

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2. The Future Passive Participle to express Purpose with verbs of *giving*, *leaving*, or *marking* (and many others in poetry).[2]

hōs Haeduīs custōdiendōs trādit, *these he hands over to the Haedui to be guarded;* B. G. 6, 4, 4.

3. The Perfect Passive Participle (emphatic or energetic; 490) with verbs of *wishing*.

sē probātum voluit, *he wished himself well approved;* Caecin. 36, 103.

4. The Perfect Passive Participle with certain verbs of *giving* or *making*,[3] to represent something as *put into* a completed condition (emphatic or energetic).

sī quī voluptātibus dūcuntur, missōs faciant honōrēs, *people who are led by pleasure must give the honors of life a complete dismissal;* Sest. 66, 138.

5. The Perfect Passive Participle with verbs of *having*, *holding*, or *possessing*,[4] to represent something as *ready* or *kept* in a completed condition.

ducēs comprehēnsōs tenētis, *you hold the leaders under arrest;* Cat. 3, 7, 16.

certōs hominēs dēlēctōs ac dēscrīptōs habēbat, *he had certain men selected and appointed* (= he had selected, etc.); Cat. 3, 7, 16.

a. With **habeō**, the construction approaches closely to that of our English perfect with *have*, which is descended from it.

NEW USES OF THE PARTICIPLES IN LATER LATIN

606. In later Latin, the Present Participle may be used to express *Purpose*.

lēgātī missī (sunt) auxilium ōrantēs, *ambassadors were sent* (asking) *to ask for help;* Liv. 21, 6, 2. Similarly **scītantem**, Aen. 2, 114.

a. This use is an extension of a true present use, as in **vēnērunt auxilium ōrantēs**, *they came asking* (*and*, of course, *to ask*) *help*.

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1 The most common are **videō, audiō, faciō, fingō, indūcō** (*bring upon the stage*).
2 The most common are **dō, dēferō, trādō, praebeō, concēdō, relinquō, dēnotō**.
3 The most common are **dō, reddō, faciō, cūrō**.
4 The most common are **habeō, teneō, possideō**.

607. After Cicero's time, the Future Participle, Active or Passive, gains a wide use.

In addition to its older use in the Periphrastic Conjugation, it is employed to express something as *destined*, *anticipated*, or *purposed*, or to take the place of a *condition*, a *conclusion*, or a *relative clause*.

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sēsē medium iniēcit peritūrus in agmen, *and flung himself into their ranks — to die* (destined to die); Aen. 2, 408.

sī peritūrus abīs, *if you are going away to perish;* Aen. 2, 675.

dā mānsūram urbem, *grant a city that shall abide;* Aen. 3, 85.

THE PARTICIPLE AS EXPRESSING THE LEADING IDEA OF ITS PHRASE

608. The Participle originally expressed the less important idea of the phrase to which it belongs, as in the examples above.

But in three uses the Participle came to express the *leading idea* of the phrase (cf. 333). The English equivalent for it is then a Verbal Noun, governing an Object. These uses are:

1. The Perfect Passive Participle with a Noun, depending on **opus est**. See **430**, 2.

2. The Perfect Passive or Present Active Participle with a Noun, depending upon a Preposition, or in the Genitive, or, less frequently, in the Nominative.

cum dē homine occīsō (= dē hominis caede) quaerātur, *when there is an investigation about a man killed*, i.e. *about the killing of a man;* Mil. 3, 8.

post hanc urbem conditam, *since the founding of this city;* Cat. 3, 6, 15.

ob īram interfectī dominī, *through anger at the killing of his master;* Liv. 21, 2, 6. (**Interfectī dominī** = **caedis dominī.**) Cf. Aen. 2, 413.

fugiēns Pompeius mīrābiliter hominēs movet, *Pompey's flight is stirring people up extraordinarily;* Att. 7, 11, 4.

a. The construction is sometimes found in English, mainly in poetry. Cf. Oliver Wendell Holmes: "Our midnight is Thy smile withdrawn."

3. The Future Passive Participle with a Noun.

The Future Passive Participle with a Noun, when used to convey the leading idea in its phrase, receives a *new name*, that of the "Gerundive," and will therefore be treated under that heading. The related construction of the Gerund will be treated at the same time.

THE GERUNDIVE AND THE GERUND

609. The **Gerundive** is the Future Passive Participle, *after it has gained the power of conveying the leading idea in its phrase.*

in iīs libellīs quōs dē contemnendā glōriā scrībunt, *in the essays which they write about despising glory* (about glory being despised);[1] Arch. 11, 26. (**Dē contemnendā glōriā** = **dē contemptiōne glōriae.**)

exercendae memoriae grātiā, *for the sake of exercising the memory* (for the sake of memory to be exercised); Sen. 11, 38. (**Exercendae memoriae** = **exercitātiōnis memoriae.**)

610. The Gerundive is thus nearly the equivalent of a Verbal Noun. But it is not yet a *complete* Verbal Noun. Instead of depending directly on the word which governs the phrase, and itself governing the other word of the phrase, as in the English "about despising glory," it is still subordinate to that other word, and has to agree with it (as in **dē contemnendā glōriā**). It is in *thought* the leading word, but not yet *grammatically* so.

Naturally, it came in time to take this one step further, and became a complete Verbal Noun, in the Neuter Gender.

611. The **Gerund** is a *complete verbal noun.*

As a Verb, it has the power, if transitive, of governing a Noun or Pronoun; as a Noun, it is itself governed in case.

NOTE. The Gerundive and Gerund differ from the true Future Passive Participle[2] in four ways:

1. They express the leading idea of their phrase.
2. They convey no idea of necessity or obligation.
3. They are active in feeling, not passive.[3]
4. They accordingly cannot take any construction of the agent.

COMMON USES OF THE GERUNDIVE AND GERUND IN ALL PERIODS

612. The Gerundive and Gerund exist only in the Genitive, Dative, Accusative, and Ablative cases. The case-uses, so far as they go, are in general the same as those of Nouns.

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[1] See **600**, 3, *b*, and footnote.

[2] The traditional usage, by which the name "Gerundive" is employed instead of the name "Future Passive Participle" is confusing. Obviously, the word Gerundive should be restricted to uses which have exact parallels in uses of the Gerund.

[3] Thus **Carthāgō dēlenda est** means *Carthage must be destroyed* (passive), while **spēs Carthāginis dēlendae** (Gerundive) means *the hope of destroying Carthage* (active).

In Ciceronian Latin, the principal uses are as follows:

I. **Genitive.** After any Noun or Adjective that can govern a Genitive *Noun*.

II. **Dative.** After any Adjective or Phrase that can govern a Dative *Noun*; also after certain *official phrases*, and after sum or adsum.

III. **Accusative.** After *Prepositions*, mainly ad;[1] and after Verbs of *arranging*, *contracting*, or *giving a contract*.[2]

IV. **Ablative.** To express *Means*, *Circumstances*, or *Cause*, and after *Prepositions*, mainly dē, ex, in.[3]

Examples of the four case-uses:

GERUNDIVE	GERUND
I. Genitive	
cupiditās bellī gerendī, *desire of carrying on war;* B. G. 1, 41, 1. (Objective Genitive; **354.**)	hominēs bellandī cupidī, *men desirous of fighting;* B. G. 1, 2, 4. (Objective Genitive; **354.**)
neque cōnsilī habendī (continued on right)	neque arma capiendī spatiō datō, *time being given neither for taking counsel nor for seizing their arms;* B. G. 4, 14, 2.
difficultātēs bellī gerendī, *difficulties in carrying on the war;* B. G. 3, 10, 1. (Genitive of Connection; cf. difficultātēs bellī, **339.**)	difficultās nāvigandī, *difficulty in navigating;* B. G. 3, 12, 5. (Genitive of Connection; **339.**)
praedae (= praedandī) ac bellī īnferendī causā, *for the sake of plunder and making war;* B. G. 5, 12, 2.	praedandī causā, *for the sake of plundering;* B. G. 2, 17, 4.
II. Dative	
locum oppidō condendō cēpērunt, *they chose a place for founding a town;* Liv. 39, 22, 6. (Dative of Object for Which; cf. **361.**)	quem quisque pugnandō locum cēperat, *the place that each had taken for fighting;* Sall. Cat. 61, 2. (Dative of Object for Which; cf. **361.**)
sunt nōn nūllī acuendīs puerōrum ingeniīs nōn inūtilēs lūsūs, *there are certain games that are not bad for sharpening the wits of boys;* Quintil. 1, 3, 11. (Dative of Direction; **362.**)	aqua ūtilis bibendō, *water good for drinking;* Plin. N. H. 31, 59. (Dative of Direction; **362.**)

[1] Rarely with ante, circā, ergā, in, inter, ob, propter, super.
[2] Cūrō = *have a thing done*, condūcō = *take a contract*, locō = *give a contract*, etc.
[3] Rarely with cum, prō, super.

GERUNDIVE

cōnsul plācandīs dīs dat operam, *the consul devotes his attention to appeasing the gods;* Liv. 22, 2, 1. (Dative of Indirect Object; **365**.)

(cōnsul) comitia conlēgae subrogandō habuit, *the consul held an election for the appointing of a colleague;* Liv. 2, 8, 3. (Dative after an official phrase; **612**, II.)

GERUND

is cēnsendō fīnis factus est, *this was made the ending of* (for) *the taking of the census;* Liv. 1, 44, 2. (Dative of Indirect Object; **365**.)

cum solvendō cīvitātēs nōn essent, *since the states were not equal to paying* (not solvent); Fam. 3, 8, 2. (Special idiom, after sum or adsum, **612**, II.)

III. Accusative

ad hās rēs cōnficiendās sibi trīduī spatium daret, *that he should give them three days' time for accomplishing this;* B. G. 4, 11, 3. (Purpose; cf. **384**, 3.)

nūllum sibi ad cognōscendum spatium relinquunt, *leave themselves no time for investigating;* B. G. 7, 42, 1. (Purpose; cf. **384**, 3.)

ad bella suscipienda Gallōrum alacer est animus, *the temper of the Gauls is keen for undertaking wars;* B. G. 3, 19, 6. (Figurative Direction; cf. **384**, 2.)

cum hostēs nostrōs mīlitēs alacriōrēs ad pugnandum effēcissent, *when the enemy had made our soldiers keener for fighting;* B. G. 3, 24, 5. (Figurative Direction; cf. **384**, 2.)

pontem in Ararī faciendum cūrat, *he sees to the building of a bridge over the Saône;* B. G. 1, 13, 1.[1]

IV. Ablative

loquendī ēlegantia augētur legendīs ōrātōribus et poētīs, *distinction in speech is increased by reading the orators and poets;* De Or. 3, 10, 39. (Means, **423**; cf. B. G. 3, 25, 1.)

(memoria) excolendō augētur, *memory is built up by using it;* Quintil. 11, 2, 1. (Means, **423**; cf. B. G. 4, 13, 5.)

cum plausum meō nōmine recitandō dedisset, *when* (*the people*) *had applauded at the reading of my name;* Att. 4, 1, 6. (Circumstances; **422**, 1.)

imperandō sociīs in tantum adductus perīculum, *brought into such danger in* (by) *directing the allies;* Verr. 1, 27, 70. (Means, becoming. Circumstances; **422**, 1.)

in eā (voluptāte) spernendā virtūs maximē cernitur, *manliness is best seen in the despising of pleasure;* Leg. 1, 19, 52. (Field in Which, with in; **434**, 2.)

industria in agendō, *energy in action* (in acting); Pomp. 11, 29. (Field in Which, with in; **434**, 2.)

[1] True Gerundive construction; for the leading idea is carried by the grammatically subordinate word faciendum. Compare the contrasting Participial use in **605**, 2.

NOTE 1. The Gerundive or Gerund in the Ablative of Means or Circumstances sometimes approaches the force of a Participle. In later Latin, the *Gerund* is frequent with this force.

aliīs frūctum lībīdinum nōn modo impellendō vērum etiam adiuvandō pollicēbātur, *to others he promised the enjoyment of their lusts, not only urging them but also aiding them;* Cat. 2, 4, 8. Cf. **fandō**, Aen. 2, 6; **tuendō**, Aen. 1, 713.

NOTE 2. Rarely, the Gerund is used as an appositive, as in **rēs dīversissimās, pārendum atque imperandum,** *two very different things, obeying and commanding;* Liv. 21, 4, 3.

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613. Where the phrase contains a Noun or Pronoun, the Gerundive is more common than the Gerund in Ciceronian Latin. But either construction *may* be employed, except as follows:

1. The Gerundive alone is employed in the Dative or after a Preposition. Hence one must say, e.g.: **plācandīs dīs dat operam, ad eās rēs cōnficiendās, in voluptāte spernendā**, etc., as above.

2. The Gerund alone is employed:

a) With a Neuter Adjective used substantively.

artem vēra ac falsa dīiūdicandī, *the art of distinguishing true things from false things;* De Or. 2, 38, 157. (Not **vērōrum ac falsōrum dīiūdicandōrum**, which might be taken to mean *of distinguishing true men from false men.*)

b) If the verb used is Intransitive.

hominī cupidō satisfaciendī reī pūblicae, *a man desirous of doing his duty to the commonwealth;* Fam. 10, 18, 1.

NOTE. The Deponent Verbs **ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior,** and **vēscor,** being really transitive in meaning (**429**, *b*), can take either construction.

spem potiundōrum castrōrum, *hope of taking the camp;* B. G. 3, 6, 2.
quārum potiendī spē, *by the hope of gaining which;* Fin. 1, 18, 60.

614. The Reflexive Genitives **meī, tuī, suī, nostrī,** and **vestrī** throw an accompanying Gerundive into *the same form*, without regard to the actual gender or number of the person or persons meant.

suī opprimendī causā, *for the sake of crushing them;* B. G. 1, 44, 10.

REMARK. **Meī, nostrī,** etc., were originally Neuter Singular Adjectives used substantively. Hence the usage.

RARER CONSTRUCTIONS OF THE GERUND OR GERUNDIVE

Objective Genitive with the Gerund

615. Occasionally, though rarely in Cicero, the Gerund takes an Objective Genitive, just as an ordinary Verbal Noun may do.

exemplōrum ēligendī potestās, *a chance for the selecting of examples;* Inv. 2, 2, 5. (= **exemplōrum ēlēctiōnis potestās.** Cf. **ēlēctiō verbōrum,** Or. 20, 68.)

The Genitive of the Gerundive in Expressions of Purpose

616. A Gerundive in the Descriptive Genitive, while strictly depending upon a Noun, may *suggest* the *purpose* of an act.

paucōs post diēs quam ad bellum renovandum mīserant lēgātōs, pācis petendae ōrātōrēs mīsērunt, *a few days after they had sent commanders to renew the war, they sent* (ambassadors of the peace-asking kind) *ambassadors to ask for peace;* Liv. 36, 27, 2.[1]

cētera in XII minuendī sūmptūs sunt, *the remaining provisions in the Twelve Tables are for the lessening of expense;* Leg. 2, 23, 59 (same Genitive, in the predicate). Similarly **cōnservandae lībertātis,** Sall. Cat. 6, 7.

THE SUPINE

617. Introductory. The Supine is a Verbal Noun of the Fourth Declension. It has but two forms in common use, one in **-um** and one in **-ū**. The form in **-um** is an Accusative, expressing an action thought of as the End of Motion (cf. **450**). The form in **-ū** is an Ablative, generally expressing Respect (**441**).

The Supine in -um

618. The Supine in **-um** is used to express Purpose after *Verbs of motion,* and a few others *implying* motion, real or figurative.[2]

lēgātōs ad Caesarem mittunt rogātum auxilium, *they send ambassadors to Caesar to ask help;* B. G. 1, 11, 3.

nōn Graiīs servītum mātribus ībō, *I shall not go to play the slave to Grecian dames;* Aen. 2, 786.

a. The Supine in **-um** may itself be followed by any construction which any other part of the Verb may take, e.g. a Direct Object, a Dative, a Substantive Clause, an Indirect Question, etc.

The Supine in -ū

619. The Supine in **-ū** is used:

1. To express Respect with Adjectives,[3] and with **fās** or **nefās.**

[1] Similarly, **nāvēs dēiciendī operis** (the reading of the better family of manuscripts) will be found in many texts in B. G. 4, 17, 10. Cf. **suī commodī,** B. G. 5, 8, 6 (the reading of the same family).

[2] These others are **vocō** and **revocō, dare** and **conlocāre** with **nūptum** (*give or place to marry,* i.e. *in marriage*) and **recipiō** with **sessum** (*receive to sit,* i.e. *help to a seat*).

Virgil employs the construction with poetic boldness after **fortūnā ūtī** (*use our opportunity to*) in Aen. 9, 241.

[3] Most frequently with **facilis, difficilis, gravis, mīrābilis, incrēdibilis, honestus, turpis, ūtilis, iūcundus, optimus.**

The Supines most commonly occurring are **dictū, factū, audītū, vīsū, cognitū.**

perfacile factū, *a very easy thing to do* (in the doing); B. G. 1, 3, 6.

sī hoc fās est dictū, *if this is right to say;* Tusc. 5, 13, 38.

a. Some of these Adjectives may also take the Gerund with **ad**, as in **facile ad crēdendum**, Tusc. 1, 33, 78.

2. Occasionally after **opus est**, **dignus** or **indignus**.

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quod scītū opus est, *which it is necessary to know* (which there is need of knowing); Inv. 1, 20, 28.

nihil dignum dictū, *nothing worth mentioning;* Liv. 4, 30, 4.

a. Ordinarily, **opus est** takes the Perfect Passive Participle (**430**, 2) and **dignus** or **indignus** a Subjunctive **quī-** or **ut**-Clause (**513**, 3).

NOTE 1. The Supine in **-ū** cannot take a Direct Object; for the thing which is to be done is the *Subject* of the statement. — But an Infinitive of Statement or an Indirect Question sometimes forms an *apparent* Object of the Supine (really the Subject of the main verb).

difficile est dictū quantō in odiō sīmus apud exterās nātiōnēs, *it is difficult to say how foreign nations hate us* (how much they hate us is difficult to say); Pomp. 22, 65.

WORD-ORDER

620. INTRODUCTORY. In English, in which there is little inflection, word-order is largely fixed. Thus the idea "Caesar conquered Pompey" can be expressed only in this order ("Pompey conquered Caesar" would mean the opposite). In Latin, in which relations are largely expressed by inflection, there is in the main no *necessary* order. Thus **Caesar Pompeium superāvit**, **Pompeium Caesar superāvit**, and **superāvit Pompeium Caesar** all tell the same fact, and differ only with regard to the emphasis placed upon one part or another.

Emphasis is expressed also by stress and by pitch. But the written sentence cannot indicate these means.

621. Emphasis may be obtained either by putting an important thing before the hearer immediately, or by holding it back for a time, to stimulate his curiosity. Hence,

The most emphatic places in a sentence, clause, or group, are the first and the last. The places next these are relatively next in emphasis, and so on.

622. If no *special* emphasis is to be given to any part, the subject and the act are the most important things. Hence they stand first and last respectively. Their modifiers naturally stand near them.

NORMAL ORDER

623. Accordingly, the *normal*[1] *order* of the sentence is:

Subject, modifiers of the subject, modifiers of the verb, verb.

[1] The words "regular" and "regularly," "general" and "generally" are avoided in most of the following statements; for the actual majority of cases under a given class may perfectly well be on the side of the *rhetorical* order. Cf. **625**.

L. Flaccus et C. Pomptīnus praetōrēs meritō laudantur, *Lucius Flaccus and Gaius Pomptinus, the praetors, are deservedly praised;* Cat. 3, 6, 14.

a. The normal order of the modifiers of the verb and the verb itself is:

1. Remoter modifiers (time, place, situation, cause, means, etc.).
2. Indirect object.
3. Direct object.
4. Adverb.
5. Verb.

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b. But this exact order is not common, since there is almost always some special shade of emphasis to disturb it. Cf. **625**.

624. 1. Adjectives and genitives normally follow their nouns.[1]

aetās puerīlis, *the age of boyhood* (the boyish age); Arch. 1, 3, 4.

dīlātiōnem comitiōrum, *the postponement of the election;* Pomp. 1, 1, 2.

a. **Ūllus** and **nūllus** normally precede their nouns. Thus **nūllum malum**, *no evil;* Cat. 4, 7, 15.

b. Certain combinations have settled into a stereotyped order. Thus **cīvis Rōmānus, pontifex maximus, rēs pūblica**; **senātūs cōnsultum, plēbis scītum, tribūnus plēbis**. The genitive regularly precedes **causā** and **grātiā**, *for the sake of.*

2. Determinative and intensive pronouns, and adjectives of quantity or precision, normally precede their nouns.

So **hic, is, iste, ille**; **ipse**; **ūnus, duo**, etc.; **omnis, tōtus, ūniversus, cūnctus, multus, tantus**; **proximus, superior**,[2] etc.

hic locus, *this place;* Pomp. 1, 2.

omnis hic locus, *this entire place;* Cat. 3, 10, 24.

ūniversus senātus cēnsuit . . ., *the whole senate voted . . .;* Sull. 49, 136.

a. **Ille** meaning "the famous" normally follows its noun; but it regularly goes *with* an adjective or appositive, wherever this may stand.

Mēdēa illa, *the famous Medea;* Pomp. 9, 22.

Catō ille sapiēns, *Cato, the famous sage;* Div. 1, 15, 28.

sapientī illī Catōnī, *the famous sage Cato;* Leg. 2, 2, 5.

3. Possessive and indefinite pronouns, and ordinal numerals, normally follow their nouns.

avī tuī, *of your grandfather;* Cat. 3, 5, 10.

cāsū aliquō, *by some chance;* Cat. 1, 6, 16.

hōrā quārtā, *at the fourth hour;* B. G. 4, 23, 2.

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[1] The general idea is given first, and this is then narrowed by a descriptive conception. The same usage has come down in French.

[2] Some of these, e.g. **hic, is**, etc., form a constituent part of the thought, and so are not easily held in suspense. Others, like **multus** and **tantus**, are naturally emphatic. The same usage has come down in French.

4. Words depending upon a modifier of a noun, or upon a noun accompanied by a modifier, are generally put between the two, the whole being thus tied into a single mass (like an algebraic quantity within brackets).

īnfestam reī pūblicae pestem, *a plague dangerous to the state;* Cat. 1, 5, 11.

duās urbīs huic imperiō īnfestissimās, *two cities most dangerous to this realm;* Cat. 4, 10, 21.

complūrēs eiusdem āmentiae sociōs, *many associates in the same madness;* Cat. 1, 4, 8.

5. Appositive nouns and appositive adjectives normally follow their substantives.

Ennius et sapiēns et fortis et alter Homērus, *Ennius, wise and brave and a second Homer;* Ep. 2, 1, 50.

6. Vocatives normally stand after one or more words.

quid est, Catilīna? *How is this, Catiline?* Cat. 1, 5, 13.

7. Interrogative words normally stand first in their clauses.

quem ignōrāre arbitrāris . . .? *who, think you, is ignorant . . .?* Cat. 1, 1, 1.

8. Relative pronouns and conjunctions normally stand first in their clauses.

proximī sunt Germānīs, quī trāns Rhēnum incolunt, *they are next to the Germans, who live beyond the Rhine;* B. G. 1, 1, 4.

sī tē comprehendī iusserō, *if I have you arrested;* Cat. 1, 2, 5.

a. The conjunctions **-que** and **-ve**, being enclitics, cannot stand first. See **307**, 1, *b*.

b. **Autem, enim,** and **vērō** follow the first word or phrase. So, generally, does **igitur**, though it sometimes stands first. **Tamen** stands either first, or after an emphatic word.

9. Determinative words referring to something in the preceding sentence stand, like relatives, at the beginning (first word, or in the first phrase).

ad eās rēs cōnficiendās Orgetorīx dēligitur. Is sibi lēgātiōnem ad cīvitātīs suscēpit. In eō itinere . . ., *Orgetorix is chosen to carry out these plans. He* (this man) *undertook an embassy to the various states. Upon this journey . . .*; B. G. 1, 3, 3.

10. Relative clauses generally follow the phrase containing the antecedent; but often they are inserted into that phrase.

ad ea castra quae suprā dēmōnstrāvimus contendit, *hastens to the camp which I have mentioned above;* B. G. 7, 83, 8.

ad eās quās dīximus mūnītiōnēs pervēnērunt, *arrived at the fortifications which I have mentioned;* B. G. 3, 26, 2.

a. For the relative clause preceding its antecedent, see **284**, 5.

11. Conditions and conditional relative clauses generally precede the main clause, or are inserted in it. They rarely follow.

12. Prepositions regularly precede the words which they govern.

a. Exceptions occur mainly in poetry, mostly with dissyllabic prepositions. Thus tē propter, Aen. 4, 320.

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b. For mēcum, quibuscum, etc., see **418**, *a*.

c. For -que with monosyllabic prepositions, see **307**, *c*, *b*.

13. Most adverbs normally stand just before the words they modify.

tam improbus, *so worthless;* Cat. 1, 2, 5.

a. Quidem, quoque, dēnique, and dēmum follow the word they modify. So, generally, do ferē, fermē, paene, and prope; potius and potissimum; and tantum in the sense of *only*.

aequō ferē spatiō, *at about an equal distance;* B. G. 1, 43, 1.

14. Nōn regularly stands just before the word it modifies.

15. The first person precedes the other two, and the second the third.

sī tū et Tullia valētis, ego et suāvissimus Cicerō valēmus, *if you and Tullia are well, so are my dear boy and I* (in Latin, I and my boy); Fam. 14, 5, 1.

16. Inquam, inquit, etc., stand after one or more of the quoted words.

"est vērō," inquam, "nōtum quidem signum," "*it is indeed*," *said I*, "*a well-known seal*"; Cat. 3, 5, 10.

RHETORICAL ORDER

625. But the so-called normal arrangement is really rare, since the speaker or writer generally *has* some special emphasis to put upon some part of the sentence (*rhetorical order*).

This may be effected:

I. By reversing the normal order.

II. By the juxtaposition of like or contrasting words.

III. By postponement to produce suspense.

Examples (contrast those in **624**, 1–7):

līs haec, THIS PARTICULAR *suit;* Clu. 41, 116.

nōn est ista mea culpa sed temporum, *it is not* MY *fault, but that of the times;* Cat. 2, 2, 3.

senātus ūniversus iūdicāvit, *the senate judged*, TO A MAN; Clu. 49, 136.

iacet ille, *he lies* PROSTRATE (prostrate he lies); Cat. 2, 1, 2.

latrōnī quae potest īnferrī iniūsta nex? UPON A BRIGAND *what death can be inflicted that is not* DESERVED? Mil. 5, 10.

nōn est saepius in ūnō homine summa salūs perīclitanda reī pūblicae, *it is not right that a* SINGLE *person should repeatedly be allowed to endanger the* HIGHEST *welfare of the commonwealth;* Cat. 1, 5, 11.

M. Tullī, quid agis? MARCUS TULLIUS, *what are you doing?* Cat. 1, 11, 27.

Q. Maximum senem adulēscēns dīlēxī, *I loved Quintus Maximus, in his old age and my youth;* Sen. 4, 10.

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magna dīs immortālibus habenda est grātia, GREAT GRATITUDE *is due to the immortal gods;* Cat. 1, 5, 11.

a. A double emphasis is of course possible.

cupiō mē esse clēmentem, *my* DESIRE *is to be* MERCIFUL; Cat. 1, 2, 4.

b. On the other hand, the putting of a word into an emphatic position often throws another into an unusual place *without* special emphasis upon that other.

vīvēs, et vīvēs ita ut vīvis, *you shall live, and live* IN THE SAME WAY AS NOW; Cat. 1, 2, 6. (Ita is emphatic, but the vīvēs immediately preceding it merely repeats the first vīvēs, without emphasis.)

c. In the compound tenses, the auxiliary sum may, according to the needs of the sentence, be placed anywhere, without emphasis upon itself.

626. An emphatic word is often taken out of a dependent clause and put before the connective, especially if it belongs in thought to both the dependent and the main clause.

servī mehercule meī sī mē istō pactō metuerent, domum meam relinquendam putārem, *good heavens! if* EVEN MY SLAVES *feared* ME *in this fashion, I should think I ought to leave my home;* Cat. 1, 7, 17.

Caesarī cum id nūntiātum esset, mātūrat ab urbe proficīscī, *when this had been announced to Caesar, he made* (makes) *haste to set out from the city;* B. G. 1, 7, 1. Contrast 1, 50, 4, in which the emphasis does *not* lie upon the actor.

a. Sometimes many words of the dependent clause precede the connective.

per omnia nive opplēta cum sēgniter agmen incēderet, *as the army was marching sluggishly through a country covered with snow;* Liv. 21, 35, 7.

627. 1. The Romans liked to separate a group of words consisting of a noun and modifier, by inserting the governing word. The effect is to throw a little more emphasis upon the modifier, by leaving it for the moment in suspense.

eōdem ūsī cōnsiliō, *following the same plan;* B. G. 1, 5, 4.

propterea quod aliud iter habērent nūllum, *since other way they had* NONE; B. G. 1, 7, 3. Double emphasis; for nūllum is not only put after iter instead of preceding it (624, 1, *a*), but is held longer in suspense by the insertion of habērent.

2. The Romans liked to put pronouns early in a clause, to group them together, and even to insert them into groups with which they have no direct connection.

huic ego mē bellō ducem profiteor, *for this war I announce myself as leader;* Cat. 2, 5, 11.

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magnō mē metū līberābis, *you will relieve me of great fear;* Cat. 1, 5, 10.

a. In Adjurations, per is often separated from its object by a pronoun.

per ego hās lacrimās tē ōrō, *by these tears I beseech you;* Aen. 4, 314.

b. The groups suus quisque and sibi quisque always take this order.

3. After neuters and adverbs, the Genitive of the Whole is usually held back for several words.

dīxistī paulum tibi esse etiam nunc morae, *you said that you were still suffering a little delay;* Cat. 1, 4, 9.

4. An adjective or pronoun belonging to a noun governed by a monosyllabic preposition is often placed before the preposition.

quem ad fīnem? *to what limit?* Cat. 1, 1, 1.

magnō cum dolōre, *with great grief;* Phil. 1, 12, 31.

628. When two pairs of words are in contrast with each other, the members may be arranged either in **Parallel Order** or in **Cross Order.**[1]

puerīlī speciē, sed senīlī prūdentiā, *of boyish appearance, but of an old man's wisdom;* Div. 2, 23, 50. (Parallel Order.)

prō vītā hominis nisi hominis vīta reddātur, *unless for the life of a man a man's life be paid;* B. G. 6, 16, 3. (Cross Order.)

629. In English the general tendency is to *complete the thought*, as far as possible, as each part of the sentence is spoken or written.

In Latin, on the contrary, the general tendency is to hold first one thing and then another *in temporary suspense* as the sentence moves from part to part.[2] Accordingly,

1. Most kinds of clauses normally precede that which they modify.

Alcō, precibus aliquid mōtūrum ratus, cum ad Hannibalem noctū trānsīsset, postquam nihil lacrimae movēbant, apud hostem mānsit, *Alco, thinking that he could accomplish something by entreaties, after going to Hannibal by night, and finding that tears did not move him, remained with the enemy;* Liv. 21, 12, 4.

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[1] Called *chiasmus*, from the Greek letter X, in which the lines are crossed.

[2] It is all-important to bear this in mind in reading. The student should remember that the *chances* are that a given word, phrase, or clause is not explained by anything he has yet reached, but by *something that is yet to come.*

a. But when two clauses *of a different character* modify the same verb, one generally precedes this, and the other follows it.

hīs cum suā sponte persuādēre nōn possent, lēgātōs ad Dumnorīgem mittunt, ut eō dēprecātōre impetrārent, *when they found themselves unable to persuade these people by their own influence, they sent* (send) *ambassadors to Dumnorix, in order to obtain their wish through his mediation;* B. G. 1, 9, 4.

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2. Substantive and consecutive clauses normally follow the word on which they depend.

persuāsit ut exīrent, *persuaded them to emigrate;* B. G. 1, 2, 1.
hīs rēbus fīēbat ut . . . , *the result was, that . . . ;* B. G. 1, 2, 4.

630. A carefully constructed sentence of some length, with suspense kept up until the end, is called a **Period,** and the style is called the **Periodic Style**. See, for example, the sentence **Alcō**, etc., **629**, 1; **Caesar — ūtī possent**, B. G. 2, 25, 1–2; and the first two sentences of Cat. 3, 1.

a. Such a sentence generally requires to be broken up into two or more sentences in English.

FIGURES OF SYNTAX AND RHETORIC[1]

A. FIGURES OF SYNTAX

631. 1. **Ellípsis** is the omission of one or more words.

Aeolus haec contrā, *thus Aeolus* (*spoke*) *in reply;* Aen. 1, 76.

a. The words most commonly omitted are **dīcō, loquor, agō, faciō**. See example under **222**, *a*.

2. **Brachýlogy** is brevity of expression.

vir bonus dīcī dēlector ego ac tū (**dēlectāris**), *I like to be called a good man, just as you* (*do*); Ep. 1, 16, 32.

3. **Condensed Comparison** is a form of brachylogy in which a thing is compared with a characteristic, or a characteristic with a thing.

hārum est cōnsimilis caprīs figūra, *their shape is like* (*that of*) *goats;* B. G. 6, 27, 1.

4. **Pléonasm** is the use of unnecessary words.

sīc ōre locūta est, *thus she spoke with her lips;* Aen. 1, 614.

5. **Hendíadys**[2] is the expression of one complex idea through the use of two nouns connected by a conjunction.

mōlem et montīs altōs, *a mass of lofty mountains;* Aen. 1, 61.

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[1] A sharp distinction between the two classes is often impossible.
[2] Ἓν διὰ δυοῖν, "one thing through two."

6. **Sýnesis** ("sense") is construction according to sense, not according to form. (See **325**.)

pars in fugam effūsī, *a part were scattered in flight;* Liv. 27, 1, 12.

7. **Zeúgma** ("joining") is the government of two words by a word which strictly applies to only one of them.

Danaōs et laxat claustra Sinōn, *Sinon unbars the doors and* (*sets free*) *the Greeks;* Aen. 2, 258.

8. **Anacolúthon** ("lack of sequence") is a change of construction in a sentence, by which the first part is left without government.

nōs omnēs, quibus est aliquis obiectus labōs, omne quod est intereā tempus lucrōst, *all of us before whom trouble lies,* — (for us) *the time between is gain;* Hec. 286. (The nominative construction is not followed out.)

9. **Enállage** is the exchange of one part of speech for another, or of one gender, number, etc., for another.

populum lātē rēgem, *a people sovereign far and wide* (**rēgem** for **rēgnantem**); Aen. 1, 21.

10. **Hypállage** is an exchange of grammatical relations.

dare classibus austrōs, *to give the winds to the fleet* (instead of *'give the fleet to the winds*); Aen. 3, 61.

11. **Prolépsis**[1] is the use of a word in advance of that which explains it.

submersās obrue puppīs, (o'erwhelm the sunken ships) *o'erwhelm the ships so that they sink;* Aen. 1, 69.

12. **Hýsteron Próteron**[2] is the reversing of the logical order.

moriāmur et in media arma ruāmus, *let us die and rush into the midst of arms;* Aen. 2, 353.

13. **Hypérbaton** is a change in the natural order of words.

per omnīs tē deōs ōrō, *I pray you by all the gods;* Carm. 1, 8, 1.

14. **Anástrophe** ("turning around") is the placing of a preposition after its case. See **624**, 12, *a*.

15. **Tmésis** ("cutting") is the separating of the parts of a compound word.

quae mē cumque vocant terrae, *what lands soever bid me come;* Aen. 1, 610.

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[1] Πρόληψις, "taking in advance."
[2] Τστερον πρότερον, "the last first."

B. FIGURES OF RHETORIC

632. 1. **Lítotes** is the rhetorical softening of an expression by the denial of the opposite idea. The effect is increased emphasis.

nōn ignāra malī, *not ignorant of suffering;* Aen. 1, 630.

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2. **Hypérbole** is exaggeration.

ventīs ōcior, *swifter than the winds;* Aen. 5, 319.

3. **Oxymóron** is the putting together of two apparently contradictory ideas.

īnsānientis sapientiae, *of a mad wisdom;* Carm. 1, 34, 2.

4. **Irony** is the intentional saying of the opposite of what is really meant.

bone custōs, *excellent guardian* (for *bad guardian*); Ph. 287.

5. **Anáphora** is the use of the same or closely similar words in the same place in successive clauses.

tū flectis amnīs, tē vīdit īnsōns Cerberus, *thou turnest torrents from their course, on thee Cerberus looked and did no harm;* Carm. 2, 19, 17.

6. **Chiásmus** is the arranging of pairs of words in the opposite order. See example in **628**.

7. **Antíthesis** is the setting of contrasting things against each other.

speciē blanda, reāpse repudianda, *in aspect charming, in reality objectionable;* Am. 13, 47.

8. **Synécdoche** is the use of a part for the whole.

mūcrōne coruscō, *with flashing sword* (strictly *point*); Aen. 2, 333.

9. **Metónymy** ("shift of name") is the use of a name in place of another to which it is related.

furit Volcānus, *Vulcan* (i.e. the fire) *rages;* Aen. 5, 662.

tremit puppis, *the stern* (i.e. the ship) *trembles;* Aen. 5, 198. (Part for the whole.)

aere, *with the bronze* (i.e. with the bronze prow); Aen. 1, 35. (Material for the thing made of it.)

10. A **Transferred Epithet** is an epithet not strictly belonging to that to which it is attached, but transferred from something connected with this in thought.

mare vēlivolum, *the sail-flying sea* (for sail-covered); Aen. 1, 224 ("sail-flying" really applies to the ships, not to the sea).

11. **Climax** ("a ladder") is a steady rise of force.

nihil agis, nihil mōlīris, nihil cōgitās, quod nōn ego nōn modo audiam sed etiam videam plānēque sentiam, *you do nothing, you* ATTEMPT *nothing, you* THINK *of nothing, that I fail, I will not merely say to hear of, but even to* SEE, *and to* UNDERSTAND COMPLETELY; Cat. 1, 3, 8.

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12. **Euphemism** is the use of a less disagreeable expression in place of a more disagreeable one.

sī quid accidat Rōmānīs, *if anything should happen to the Romans* (instead of *if they should be defeated*); B. G. 1, 18, 9.

13. **Metaphor** is the figurative use of words.

sentīna reī pūblicae, *the dregs of the state;* Cat. 1, 5, 12.

14. **Allegory** is continued metaphor.

ō nāvis, referent in mare tē novī flūctūs . . .; fortiter occupā portum, *O ship, yet other billows will carry thee out to sea . . .; be brave and make the port;* Carm. 1, 14, 1. (The ship is the state, the billows the civil wars, etc.)

15. **Simile** is illustration by comparison.

ac velutī magnō in populō cum coorta est sēditiō, gravem sī forte virum quem cōnspexēre, silent, sīc pelagī cecidit fragor, *and as, when a riot has broken out among a great rabble, if they chance to see some man of weight, they are hushed, so ceased the tumult of the waters;* Aen. 1, 148.

16. **Aposiopesis** ("silence") is a breaking off in a sentence.

quōs ego —, sed mōtōs praestat compōnere flūctūs, *whom I —, but it is better to calm the angry waves;* Aen. 1, 135.

17. **Apostrophe** is an impassioned turning aside from the previous form of thought, to address some person or thing.

citae Mettum in dīversa quadrīgae distulerant (at tū dictīs, Albāne, manērēs), *the swift chariots had torn Mettus asunder (but thou, O Alban, shouldst have kept thy word);* Aen. 8, 643.

18. **Personification** is the treating of inanimate things as persons.

haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, *if your country should thus plead with you;* Cat. 1, 8, 19.

19. **Alliteration** is the repetition of single sounds, generally consonants.

vī victa vīs, *force has been foiled by force;* Mil. 11, 30.

20. **Onomatopœia** is the matching of sound to sense.

magnō cum murmure montis, *with a mighty murmuring of the mountain;* Aen. 1, 55.

21. The **Figūra Etymologica** combines words of kindred origin but different meanings.

sēnsim sine sēnsū, *gradually and imperceptibly;* Sen. 11, 38.

PART V

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VERSIFICATION

633. **Rhythm** is the regular recurrence of sound-groups that take the same amount of time (quantity[1])

634. **Ictus** (from Latin **ictus**, *a blow*) is the natural *stress* or *pulse-beat* which, whenever there is such a regular recurrence of groups of sound, is given to the same place in each group.

a. Ictus is simply *stress of voice*. It does not differ in character from word-accent or sense-stress, but is due to a different cause.

635. A rhythmical sound-group is called a **Foot**.

636. A succession of feet arranged according to a fixed scheme is called a **Verse**.

637. The two kinds of feet which the student meets in his earlier reading in Latin are:

The **Dactyl**, or — ∪ ∪ (𝅗𝅥 𝅘𝅥𝅘𝅥), as in **dēsuper**.

The **Spondee**, or — — (𝅗𝅥 𝅗𝅥), as in **īrae**.

a. These two kinds of feet take the same time in pronunciation (namely four units);[2] for the two short syllables in the Dactyl, *together*, occupy as much time in pronunciation as the long syllable. In beating time, accordingly, one would give four beats to either of these feet.

b. Two other feet of which the student will need to know the names early are the **Trochee**, or — ∪, as in **inde** or **prīmus**, and the **Iambus**, or ∪ —, as in **amō** or **dolēns**. In beating time one would give three beats to either of these feet.

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[1] In Latin, as in languages spoken to-day, the poet, using in the main the pronunciation of daily speech, so arranged his words that, for any reader, they made rhythm.

Quantity is accordingly not a matter of verse alone, but a matter of *Pronunciation* in general, and is so treated in this grammar (**16–40**).

[2] The shortest unit of pronunciation is technically called **mora**, *delay*. The ancient Roman grammarians tell us that a long syllable contained two **morae**, and this statement is consistent with what we find in Latin poetry. The same of course holds, in a general way, for prose, though the proportion must have been less exact.

638. The word **Metre** strictly means a *measure* in the composition of a verse. But it is more generally used for a *kind* of metrical system, whatever this may be. Thus we might say of a given system "this mĕtre is dactylic."

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a. The two kinds of metre which the student meets in his earlier reading in Latin are the Dactylic Hexameter and the Dactylic Pentameter.

The Dactylic Hexameter

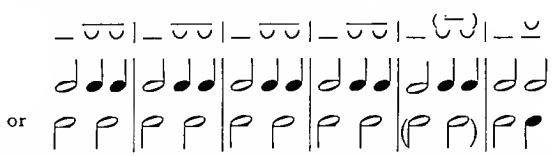
639. The **Dactylic Hexameter** is made up of six Dactyls or Spondees.

multā | mōle do|cendus a|prīcō | parcere | prātō; Ep. 1, 14, 30.

a. The last foot *must be* a Spondee. The fifth foot *generally* is a Dactyl. The other feet may be either Dactyls or Spondees.

The length of the final syllable of the verse is of no consequence,[1] since there is regularly a slight pause at the end (see **641**, n. 3).

The scheme may be thus indicated (the second form showing the relative length of the syllables in musical notation):



Observe that there are *four* beats to the measure, not, as in the English hexameter, three.

b. Verses with a spondee in the fifth foot ("spondaic verses") are rare.

cōnstitit | atque ocu|līs Phrygi|a agmina | circum|spexit; Aen. 2, 68.

c. **Variety of Effect** is produced by the more skilful poets (in this respect Virgil is first) by varying the proportion of dactyls to spondees. An accumulation of dactyls gives an effect of rapidity of action, or of excitement of feeling; while an accumulation of spondees gives the effect of slow or difficult motion, of depression, of fear, etc., etc. Examples of extreme cases follow, the first describing the swift galloping of horses, the second the fearful aspect of the monster Polyphemus:

Quadrupe|dante pu|trem soni|tū quatit | ungula | campum; Aen. 8, 596.

Mōnstrum hor|rendum, in|fōrme in|gēns, cui | lūmen ad|ēmptum; Aen. 3, 658.

[1] The last foot, therefore, though it is convenient to call it a Spondee, will often be made up of a long syllable plus a short (— ⏑), i.e. will strictly be a Trochee.

d. The best poets aim not to let many words end with the end of a foot. But in the fifth foot this is not avoided.

urbs an|tīqua fu|it, Tyrī|ī tenu|ēre co|lōnī; Aen. 1, 13.

640. 1. **Caesura** ("cutting") is the ending of a word *before* the end of the foot.

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a. The word which thus cuts the foot by its ending may be of any length; see **urbs**, **fuit**, **antīqua**, and **tenūere** in the verse above.

There *may* be a caesura in every foot, as in the verse above.

2. **Diaeresis** ("dividing") is the ending of a word *with* the end of the foot (marked ♯). Thus in the first foot of

et soror ♯ et con|iūnx, ū|nā cum | gente tot | annōs; Aen. 1, 47.

a. Diaeresis is thus the opposite of Caesura.

641. The **Principal Caesura** (marked ||) commonly called simply *the* Caesura, is a caesura which falls at a natural pause in the verse, not far from the middle.

This natural pause may be for the sake of the sense as well as the sound, or merely for the sound (i.e. for an agreeable breaking of the long verse into parts).[1]

a. The Caesura is called **Masculine**, when it falls after the first syllable of the foot, **Feminine** (from the softer effect), when it falls after the second syllable of the foot. See the principal caesuras under *b*, below.

b. The Principal Caesura is generally in the third foot,[2] less frequently in the fourth.[3]

In the Third Foot:

turbine | corripu|it || scopu|lōque ī͡n|fīxit a|cūtō ; Aen. 1, 45.

(The caesura here is masculine.)

ō pas|sī gravi|ōra || da|bit deus | hīs quoque | fīnem ; Aen. 1, 199.

(The caesura here is feminine.)

In the Fourth Foot:

Tȳdī|dē, mē|ne͡ Īlia|cīs || oc|cumbere | campīs ; Aen. 1, 97.

(The caesura here is masculine.)

---

[1] Cf. the following verses from Longfellow's *Evangeline*, Part I. In the first, the caesura is for the sense as well as the sound. In the second it is for the sound only.

Columns of pale blue smoke, || like clouds of incense arising.
Sweet was her breath as the breath || of kine that feed in the meadows.

[2] Technically called *penthemimeral*, i.e. *after the fifth half.*

[3] Technically called *hephthemimeral*, i.e. *after the seventh half.*

c. Sometimes there are two or even three Caesuras. And it may be impossible to say which is the most important one.

exper|tī ; || revo|cāte ani|mōs, || maes|tumque ti|mōrem ; Aen. 1, 202.
īnsig|nem || pie|tāte || vi|rum || tot ad|īre la|bōrēs ; Aen. 1, 10.

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NOTE 1. In order not to leave the parts of the verse unbalanced, a caesura in the fourth foot is often accompanied by another in the second foot,[1] as above, or by a diaeresis, with natural pause of sense,[2] in the first or second foot, as in

ast ego ♯ quae dī|vum incē|dō || rē|gīna lo|visque ; Aen. 1, 46.
in pup|pim ferit ; ♯ excuti|tur, || prō|nusque ma|gister ; Aen. 1, 115.

NOTE 2. When a diaeresis with sense-pause falls at the end of the fourth foot, it is called the **Bucolic Diaeresis**.[3]

dīc mihi, | Dāmoe|tā, || cu|ium[4] pecus ? ♯ An Meli|boeī ? Ecl. 3, 1.

NOTE 3. The Romans regularly made a slight pause at the end of a verse, as is shown by the fact that a vowel in that place was ordinarily not slurred (**646**) into an initial vowel in the next verse.

Carthā|gō Ītali|am con|trā || Tibe|rīnaque | longē
Ōstia, | dīves o|pum || studi|īsque ās|perrima | bellī ; Aen. 1, 12 and 13.

NOTE 4. **Hypermetric** (i.e. over-measure) **Verses**. Occasionally a poet puts an *extra syllable* at the end of a verse, slurring it into a vowel beginning the next verse. The slurring is in this case called **Synapheia** (*"joining"*).

iactē|mur, doce|ās : || ig|nārī homi|numque lo|cōrumque
errā|mus ; Aen. 1, 332.

The Dactylic Pentameter

642. The **Dactylic Pentameter**[5] is an hexameter with a pause replacing the second long syllable of the spondee in the third and sixth feet.

a. The Pentameter is regularly used in alternation with the Hexameter. The two together form the **Elegiac Stanza**.[6]

b. In the first half of the Dactylic Pentameter, spondees may be used in place of Dactyls. In the second, only Dactyls are possible.

c. The first half always ends with a long syllable, and this syllable always ends a word.

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[1] Technically called *trithemimeral*, i.e. *after the third half*.
[2] Though the words Caesura and Diaeresis *may* apply to any foot (see **640**, 1, *a*), they are ordinarily used of verse-pauses only, as in the present section.
[3] Because especially used by the bucolic (i.e. pastoral) poets.
[4] The first syllable of cuium is long, though the vowel is not. (Pronounce cui-ium; see **29**, 2, *a*.)
[5] The name, which is ancient, is wrong. The verse is really a twice-clipped Hexameter.
[6] Also called Elegiac Distich ("distich" means "*containing two verses*").

d. The scheme of the Elegiac Stanza is therefore as follows:

Hexameter: _ ⏑⏑ | _ ⏑⏑ | _ ⏑⏑ | _ ⏑⏑ | _ (⏑) ⏑ | _ ⏓
Pentameter: _ ⏑⏑ | _ ⏑⏑ | _ ∧ | _ ⏑⏑ | _ ⏑⏑ | ⏓ ∧

Hexameter: sponte su|ā car|men nume|rōs veni|ēbat ad | aptōs
Pentameter: et quod | temptā|bam ∧ | scrībere | versus e|rat ∧ ; Ov. Trist. 4, 10, 25–26.

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e. Variety of effect is sought, and division of words between feet is made, in the Pentameter, as in the Hexameter (**639**, *c*, *d*).

f. In Ovid, the last word of the Pentameter is generally one of two syllables.

g. In Ovid, the sense is usually complete at the end of each stanza.

643. Scanning is the dividing of a verse into feet in reading, without reference to word-accent or sense, as in **645**, 1.

Relation of Ictus to Accent

644. The writers of the Dactylic Hexameter generally made accent and ictus fall together in the last two feet, as in cónderet | úrbem; Aen. 1, 5.

a. A monosyllabic ending like prae|rúptus a|quae mṓns, Aen. 1, 105, is rare, and is meant always to produce an unexpected and striking effect.

645. With regard to the Roman way of reading the feet in which the ictus fell upon syllables that did not have the accent, there are two opinions, and consequently two systems of reading.

1. **First System.** When accent and ictus fell upon different syllables, the former was completely lost. Thus, in the two following verses from Ennius and Horace, the words ordinarily pronounced antíquīs, austérum, and studiō are, upon this system, to be pronounced ántīquīs, aústērúm, and studió:

mṓribus | ánti|quīs rēs | stát Rō|māna vi|rīsque; Enn. Ann. 425.
mólliter | áustē|rum studi|ṓ fal|lénte la|bōrem; Sat. 2, 2, 12.

a. This system of reading ("scanning") was until recently almost universal, and is still the one generally used.

2. **Second System.**[1] When accent and ictus fell upon different syllables, both were heard, the latter being, however, the lighter of the two, so that the essential character of the word was not changed.

a. Similarly *sense-stress* may fall upon a syllable that does not have the ictus.

[1] The one preferred by the authors of this grammar.

b. In the following examples, ictus is represented by a circle (or, if lighter, by a point), while accent and sense-stress are represented by dashes (thus ´ or ˙, the shorter ones indicating lighter stress). Where ictus and accent fall together, only one sign is used.

mōribus | antī|quīs rēs | stat Rō|māna vi|rīsque; Enn. Ann. 425.
mŏlliter | austē|rum studi|ō fal|lente la|bōrem; Sat. 2, 2, 12.

c. The effect of this separation of accent (as well as of sense-stress) from ictus may be illustrated from modern poetry, in which it is fairly frequent, and occasions no trouble to any reader. Examples will be seen in all but the first, second, and fifth of the following verses (in these three, accent and ictus fall together):

Somewhat | back from the | village | street,
Stands | the old-fa|shioned coun|try-seat;
Across | its an|tique por|tico;

Longfellow, *Old Clock on the Stairs.*

Only an | unseen | presence | filled the | air;

Longfellow, *Hawthorne.*

So it | is; yet | let us | sing
Honor | to the | old bow-|string; Keats, *Robin Hood.*

Well hath | he done | who hath | seized happ|iness
. . . . . .
He doth | well too, | who keeps | that law | the mild
Birth-god|dess and | the aus|tere fates | first gave;

Matthew Arnold, *Fragment of an Antigone.*

d. As a practical matter in using this system, it is best at first to give a *strong* word-accent, and to try to *avoid* giving verse-ictus. Our mental constitution being what it is, a light verse-pulse (as upon "and" in the last verse from Arnold) will almost inevitably be given; and this is all that ought ever to be given in such a case.

If the pronunciation is truly quantitative (see **36, 37**), it will be comparatively easy to keep word-accent as in prose. To this end, it will be a help to the student to read *slowly* and *very tranquilly*, until he has become familiar with the flow of the verse.

PRONUNCIATIONS TO BE NOTICED, THOUGH NOT PECULIAR TO POETRY

646. Slurring.[1] As in daily speech (**34**, 1), a final vowel or diphthong followed by a word beginning with a vowel or **h** was slurred or *run into* the vowel of the following word.[2]

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This was done so completely that no appreciable extra time was taken, even in the case of a long vowel or diphthong. Only the *quality* of the sound was clearly heard. The resulting *quantity* was entirely that of the initial vowel of the following word.

647. Hiatus ("*having the mouth open*") is the opposite of slurring, i.e. it is the giving of a vowel sound *in full* at the end of a word, before an initial vowel or **h**. (It may be marked thus: ×.)

1. It is regularly used in the case of the Interjections **ō, āh, heu, prō.**

ō pater, | ō̱ × homi|num rē|rumque͡ ae|terna po|testās; Aen. 10, 18.

2. It is occasionally used in other words after the principal caesura, or before a stop, or anywhere before Greek words (rarely otherwise).

et vē|ra͡ inces|sū patu|it dea̱. × | Ille͡ ubi | mātrem; Aen. 1, 405.

quid struit? | aut quā | spē̱ × ini|mīca͡ in | gente mo|rātur? Aen. 4, 235.

tūne͡ il|le͡ Aenē|ās, quem | Dardani|ō̱ × An|chīsae; Aen. 1, 617.

648. Semihiatus, or Half Hiatus, is the giving of *half* of a long vowel sound (namely a corresponding *short* sound), instead of slurring completely, at the end of a word before an initial vowel, or vowel with **h**.

victor a|pud rapi|dum Simo|enta sub | Īliŏ̱ | altō; Aen. 5, 261.

a. **Ae** is the only diphthong that admits Hiatus or Half Hiatus.

649. Iambic Shortening. The poets, especially the comic, satiric, and epigrammatic poets, often availed themselves of the tendency in popular speech to shorten a long syllable after an accented short syllable (change of ◡́ — to ◡́ ◡. See **28**, 5, note).

tū cavĕ̱ | nē minu|ās; tū, | nē ma|ius faci|ās id; Sat. 2, 3, 177. (**Cavĕ** for **cavē**.)

650. Syncope ("*cutting-out*") is the omission of a short unaccented vowel.

excide|rant ani|mō; manet | altā | mente re|postum (for repositum); Aen. 1, 26.

---

[1] Technically called by the Greeks and Romans **Synaloepha**, or *smearing together*. The word **Elision** (**Ēlīsiō**) is used only by the *later* Roman Grammarians.

[2] The final vowel, or vowel with **m**, was *not* cut out.

PRONUNCIATIONS PECULIAR TO POETRY

651. Unconscious Compression of Syllables of Extra Length. It often happens that a syllable, besides containing a long vowel, contains a consonant, or even two consonants, at the end, as in **āc-tus, sānc-tus.** A similar thing may happen at the end of a word before another beginning with a consonant, as in **deōs Latiō,** Aen. 1, 6. In daily speech, there was additional length in such cases. In verse, there must have been (as in modern verse in similar cases) an *unconscious compression* of each sound, which would bring the whole into the time belonging to the syllable in the regular march of the verse. This, however, would still leave the vowel perceptibly different from a short vowel.

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652. Occasional Use of Old-fashioned Pronunciations. The Roman poet occasionally employed pronunciations which, though once in regular use, had passed away in daily speech:

1. In place of the pronunciations **mihi, tibi, sibi, ibi, ubi,** the old pronunciations **mihī, tibī, sibī, ibī, ubī,** might be used (**28,** 3).

mūsa mi|hī cau|sās memo|rā, quō | nūmine | laesō; Aen. 1, 8.

2. In place of such regular pronunciations as **arat, videt, erat, peteret, ferar, amor,** etc., the old pronunciations **arāt, vidēt, erāt,**[1] **peterēt, ferār, amōr,**[2] **pātēr,** etc., might be used (**26,** note), especially in the caesura.[3]

quī tene|ant, nam ⁀in|culta vi|dẹ̄t, homi|nēsne fe|raene; Aen. 1, 308.
Pergama | cum pete|rẹ̄t in|conces|sōsque ⁀hyme|naeōs; Aen. 1, 651.
et dīs | cāra fe|rār et | vertice | sīdera | tangam; Met. 7, 61.
omnia | vincit A|mōr: et | nōs cē|dāmus A|mōrī; Ecl. 10, 69.

3. In the Third Person Plural of the Perfect Indicative Active an old penult with short e (**-ĕrunt**) is occasionally used by the poets.[4]

obstipu|ī, stetẹ̆|runtque co|mae ⁀et vōx | faucibus | haesit; Aen. 2, 774.

653. Employment of Pronunciations Coming into Use in Daily Speech. Common speech tended to shorten the i before **-us** in Pronominal Genitives (**21,** note). The poets sometimes take advantage of this pronunciation.

ūnīus | ob no|xam ⁀et furi|ās A|iācis O|ĭlēi; Aen. 1, 41.

654. Lengthening of Syllables Short in Daily Speech.[3] In the first place ("thesis")[5] of any foot, a syllable which had never regularly been

[1] Similarly **subīit,** Aen. 8, 363, but for a different reason (**152,** 3, note). Virgil uses these long forms in **-t** only in the first syllable ("thesis") of the second, third, or fourth foot.
[2] **Puēr** of Ecl. 9, 66, which never had the long e in speech, is to be explained by **654.**
[3] This usage is technically called Diástole, or "*drawing out.*"
[4] Technically called "Systole," or "*drawing together,*" i.e. shortening.
[5] The accented part of the foot. The remainder is called the "arsis."

long in daily speech might be lengthened.[1] This happens especially with the enclitic -que, and the endings -a, -er, -is, -us, and -ur.[2]

līmina|quē lau|rusque de|ī, tō|tusque mo|vērī; Aen. 3, 91.
dōna de|hinc au|rō gravi|ā sec|tōque ele|phantō; Aen. 3, 464.
per ter|ram, et ver|sā pul|vīs īn|scrībitur | hastā; Aen. 1, 478.
et dī|repta dō|mūs et | parvī | cāsus I|lūī; Aen. 2, 563.
lītora | iactē|tūr odi|īs Īū|nōnis a|cerbae; Aen. 1, 668.

655. **Separation of a Mute from a Following Liquid.** The mute may be pronounced with the preceding vowel, adding a unit to the time, instead of being pronounced, as usually, in the same impulse with the liquid (**14**, 2, note).

aut tere|brāre ca|vās ute|rī et temp|tāre la|tebrās; Aen. 2, 38. (Contrast tum levis | haut ul|trā late|brās iam | quaerit i|māgō; Aen. 10, 663.)

656. 1. **Consonantal i and u Pronounced as Vowels.** Consonantal i and u may be pronounced more fully, becoming vowels (**2**).

nunc mare | nunc silu|ae (_ ∪ ∪ | _ ∪ ∪ | _ ∧); Epod. 13, 2. (Siluae for silvae.)

2. **Vowels i and u Pronounced as Consonants.** The vowels i and u may be compressed, thus becoming consonants (**2**). This pronunciation throws the preceding consonant back into the preceding syllable, and makes that syllable long, even if in ordinary pronunciation it is short.

aedifi|cant sec|tāque in|texunt | ab-iete | costās; Aen. 2, 16. (Pronounce ab-yete.)
cōnūb|iō iun|gam stabi|lī propri|amque dī|cābō; Aen. 1, 73. (Pronounce cōnūb|yō.)

657. **Inventions of New Pronunciations.** For a few words that had to be used in poetry, but were difficult or impossible in their ordinary pronunciation, a new one might be devised. Thus Virgil has Ăsiae in Aen. 3, 1, but Āsia in 7, 701; Ītaliam in 1, 2, but Ĭtalī in 1, 109; Prĭamidēn in 6, 494, but Prĭamēĭa in 2, 403.

658. **Contraction of Vowels.**[3] Difficult words are sometimes made possible to use through the contraction of two vowels. Thus Īlionēĭ in Aen. 1, 120; alvēŏ in 6, 412; scĭŏ in 3, 602; dĕhinc in 1, 131 (contrast dōna de|hinc in 3, 464).

659. **Tmesis** (*"cutting in two"*). A poet often obtains variety, and sometimes can employ a word not otherwise possible to use, by cutting a compound into two parts. Thus hāc celebrāta tenus (hāctenus celebrāta), Aen. 5, 603; super ūnus eram (supereram would be impossible in the Dactylic Hexameter); Aen. 2, 567.

[1] Most of the syllables so lengthened come before a natural pause, generally the caesura.
[2] Occasionally also with -ul, -ut, -it, as in procūl, Aen. 8, 98; capūt, 10, 394; facīt, Ecl. 7, 23.
[3] Technically called Synizésis, or Synaéresis, *a taking-together*.

PART VI

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APPENDIX

THE ROMAN CALENDAR

660. The Romans divided time, as we do, by years, months, days, and hours.

661. A given year as date was indicated either:

1. By the names of the consuls in the Ablative Absolute with **cōnsulibus** (see first example in **421**); or, less commonly

2. By the number of the year as reckoned from the supposed date of the founding of the city (753 B.C.).

annō trecentēnsimō quīnquāgēnsimō post Rōmam conditam, *in the three hundred and fiftieth year after the founding of Rome;* Rep. 1, 16, 25.

a. To convert to our reckoning, subtract from 754 (upon the principle explained in footnote 4 below). Thus the date in the example above is $754 - 350 = 404$.

662. The months were **Iānuārius, Februārius, Mārtius, Aprīlis, Maius, Iūnius, Iūlius, Augustus, September, Octōber, November, December.**[1]

a. The names **Iūlius**, *July*, and Augustus, *August*, were first given under Augustus, in honor respectively of Julius Caesar and Augustus himself. Before this time these months were called respectively **Quīnctīlis** and **Sextīlis.**[2]

663. After the reform of the Calendar by Julius Caesar in 46 B.C., the number of days assigned to the various months was as now.

664. Days were reckoned from three fixed points in the month: the Kalends, or first day, and the Nones and Ides, respectively the seventh and fifteenth days in March, May, July, and October, the fifth and thirteenth in the other months[3] (**Kalendae, Nōnae,**[4] **Īdūs**, abbreviated **K.** or **Kal., Nōn., Īd.**).

[1] Originally adjectives. Thus (**mēnsis**) **Iānuārius.**

[2] The Roman year originally began with March. Hence the old names of **Quīnctīlis** (fifth month), and **Sextīlis** (sixth), and the names of the remaining months (**September**, *the seventh* month, **Octōber**, *the eighth*, **November**, *the ninth*, **December**, *the tenth*).

[3] Before the reform of the calendar, March, May, July, and October were reckoned as of 31 days each, February of 28, and the rest of 29. The greater length of the first-mentioned months is the reason why the Nones and the Ides were put correspondingly later in them.

[4] So called because it was the ninth day, by the Roman way of reckoning (which includes the day reckoned *to*), before the Ides. Thus the 7th is the ninth day back in the row 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14, 15.

665. The various days of the month are reckoned as such and such a day *before* one of these fixed points. The day immediately before the fixed points was so named, namely **prīdiē** (**Kalendās**, **Nōnās**, or **Īdūs**), *the day before* (*the Kalends*, etc.). Other days were designated by their number before the fixed points, both days being counted in the reckoning. Thus, while January 31 was **prīdiē Kal. Feb.** (the day before the first of February), January 30 was **diēs tertius ante Kal. Feb.** (the third day back in the row — 30, 31, 1). The case is similar with the days before the Nones or Ides.

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Hence the rule for changing a modern date (except the day immediately before a fixed point, or **prīdiē**) is:

1. For days before the Nones or Ides, add one to the date of the Nones or Ides in the given month, and subtract the given number.

Thus Jan. 2 = 5 (date of Nones in Jan.) + 1 − 2 = the 4th day before **Nōn. Iān.**

2. For days before the Kalends, add two[1] to the number of days in the month concerned, and subtract the given number.

Thus Jan. 28 equals 31 + 2 − 28 = the 5th day before **Kal. Feb.**

666. The grammatical form for the Kalends, Nones, and Ides as dates is the Ablative of the Time at Which (**439**). Thus **Kalendīs Februārīīs**, (on) *February 1st.*

667. For the other days two forms are in common use. Thus:

Jan. 29 = **quārtō** (**diē ante**) **Kal. Feb.** = **IV Kal. Feb.**, *or*

Jan. 29 = **ante diem quārtum Kal. Feb.** = **a. d. IV Kal. Feb.**

a. The second way is perhaps descended from an original **ante** (**diē quārtō**) **Kalendās Februāriās**, *before* (*namely on the fourth day*) *the Kalends of February.* The Ablative would easily pass over to the Accusative, in consequence of its position immediately after **ante**.

668. The second of these forms is the more common. It is thought of as one word, so that **ex**, **in**, or **ad** may be used before it. Thus "from January 29 to November 3" = **ex a. d. IV Kal. Feb. usque ad a. d. III Nōn. Nov.**

669. In leap year an extra day was inserted after Feb. 24 (**a. d. VI Kal. Mārt.**), which was called *the sixth day over again*, i.e. **a. d. bissextum Kal. Mārt.** Hence leap year was called **annus bissextīlis**. After this day the reckoning went on as usual.

[1] This is because one has to reckon in not only the last day of the month, but also the first of the next (Kalendae). Hence the days reckoned are 28, 29, 30, 31, 1, so that 28 is the fifth day back.

a. Before the reform, the year (355 days) was short of the true year. To make up for the difference, an extra month (**mēnsis intercalāris**) of varying length (27 or 28 days), was inserted by the Pontifices after the 23d of February, the rest of February being then omitted.

670. 1. The day was divided into two sets of twelve hours each, one running from sunrise to sunset, the other from sunset to sunrise. Thus the first hour is **hōra prīma** (at night **hōra prīma noctis**), the second, **hōra secunda**, the third, **hōra tertia**, etc. But it is often impossible for us to tell whether, for a given hour, the Romans meant at the *end* of that hour (**hōra prīma** = seven o'clock), or *within* that hour (**hōra prīma** = between six and seven).

a. The hours differed greatly in length at different times in the year.

2. In camp the night was divided into four watches of three Roman hours each (**vigilia prīma, secunda, tertia, quārta**).

671. CALENDAR

DAYS OF OUR MONTH	MARCH, MAY, JULY, OCTOBER	JANUARY, AUGUST, DECEMBER	APRIL, JUNE, SEPTEMBER, NOVEMBER	FEBRUARY
1	Kal.	Kal.	Kal.	Kal.
2	a.d. VI Nōn.	a.d. IV Nōn.	a.d. IV Nōn.	a.d. IV Nōn.
3	a.d. V "	a.d. III "	a.d. III "	a.d. III "
4	a.d. IV "	prīd. "	prīd. "	prīd. "
5	a.d. III "	Nōn.	Nōn.	Nōn.
6	prīd. "	a.d. VIII Īd.	a.d. VIII Īd.	a.d. VIII Īd.
7	Nōn.	a.d. VII "	a.d. VII "	a.d. VII "
8	a.d. VIII Īd.	a.d. VI "	a.d. VI "	a.d. VI "
9	a.d. VII "	a.d. V "	a.d. V "	a.d. · V "
10	a.d. VI "	a.d. IV "	a.d. IV "	a.d. IV "
11	a.d. V "	a.d. III "	a.d. III "	a.d. III "
12	a.d. IV "	prīd. "	prīd. "	prīd. "
13	a.d. III "	Īd.	Īd.	Īd.
14	prīd. "	a.d. XIX Kal.	a.d. XVIII Kal.	a.d. XVI Kal.
15	Īd.	a.d. XVIII "	a.d. XVII "	a.d. XV "
16	a.d. XVII Kal.	a.d. XVII "	a.d. XVI "	a.d. XIV "
17	a.d. XVI "	a.d. XVI "	a.d. XV "	a.d. XIII "
18	a.d. XV "	a.d. XV "	a.d. XIV "	a.d. XII "
19	a.d. XIV "	a.d. XIV "	a.d. XIII "	a.d. XI "
20	a.d. XIII "	a.d. XIII "	a.d. XII "	a.d. X "
21	a.d. XII "	a.d. XII "	a.d. XI "	a.d. IX "
22	a.d. XI "	a.d. XI "	a.d. X "	a.d. VIII "
23	a.d. X "	a.d. X "	a.d. IX "	a.d. VII "
24	a.d. IX "	a.d. IX "	a.d. VIII "	a.d. VI "
25	a.d. VIII "	a.d. VIII "	a.d. VII "	a.d. V[VI] "
26	a.d. VII "	a.d. VII "	a.d. VI "	a.d. IV[V] "
27	a.d. VI "	a.d. VI "	a.d. V "	a.d. III[IV] "
28	a.d. V "	a.d. V "	a.d. IV "	prīd.Kal.[III] "
29	a.d. IV "	a.d. IV "	a.d. III "	[prīd. Kal.]
30	a.d. III "	a.d. III "	prīd. "	(The forms in brackets
31	prīd. "	prīd. "		are for *leap year*.)

ROMAN MONEY, WEIGHTS, AND MEASURES

Roman Measures of Money and Weight

672. The original unit of weight and value was the as, a mass of copper, weighing nearly one pound, or libra. This was divided into twelve ounces (ūnciae).

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The following table shows the more important fractions:

Ounces		*Ounces*	
½	sēmiūncia (sēmis = *a half*)	7	septūnx (septem ūnciae)
1	ūncia	8	bessis or bes
2	sextāns (*a sixth*)	9	dōdrāns (dēquadrāns, *a fourth off*)
3	quadrāns (*a fourth*); also terūncius	10	dēxtāns (dēsextāns, *a sixth off*)
4	triēns (*a third*)	11	deūnx (deūncia, *an ounce off*)
5	quīncūnx (quīnque ūnciae)	12	as (of money, libra of weight)
6	sēmis or sēmissis (*a half*)		

673. 1. For any kind of thing, these terms may be used to express fractions having 12 for a denominator. Thus $\frac{1}{6}$ = sextāns, $\frac{5}{12}$ = quīncūnx, $\frac{3}{4}$ = dōdrāns.

2. Fractions having 1 for a numerator may be indicated by an ordinal with or without pars. Thus $\frac{1}{2}$ = dīmidia or dīmidia pars (also dīmidium), $\frac{1}{3}$ = tertia or tertia pars.[1]

3. Fractions having a denominator greater by 1 than the numerator may be indicated by a cardinal number with partēs. Thus $\frac{2}{3}$ = duae partēs.

4. Other fractions are indicated by the cardinal for a numerator and the ordinal for a denominator. Thus $\frac{2}{5}$ = duae quīntae.

5. Fractions may also be indicated by addition. Thus $\frac{3}{4}$ = dīmidia et quārta ($\frac{1}{2}+\frac{1}{4}$).

6. Proportions in inheritances are indicated by any of these forms, with ex. Thus hērēs ex asse (Plin. Ep. 5, 1, 9), *heir to the whole;* hērēs ex parte quārtā (*ibid.*), *heir to a fourth;* hērēs ex triente, *heir to a third*, etc.

674. The as was reduced till, at the close of the Second Punic War, it weighed but one ounce. Its value was then a little less than two cents (or about 1*d.* English).

675. 1. Other coins were the sēstertius, a small silver coin, the dēnārius, a larger silver coin, and the aureus or gold piece. The sum of a thousand sesterces was called sēstertium (originally a Genitive Plural, "of sesterces"). The word nummus ("coin") is often attached to sēstertius or aureus. When used alone, nummus stands for sēstertius. The table is as follows:[1]

2½ assēs = 1 sēstertius[2] (a little more than 4 cents, or 2*d.* English money).
4 sēstertiī = 1 dēnārius[3] (a little more than 16 cents, or 8*d.* English money).
25 dēnāriī = 1 aureus (about $4, or 17*s.* English money).
1000 sēstertiī = 1 sēstertium (about $42.50, or £8 10*s.* English money).

[1] Since values frequently changed, a table can be only approximate.
[2] Sēmis tertius, *the third part a half*, i.e. two whole numbers + ½.
[3] Dēnārius, a piece of money containing ten assēs (dēnī); cf. "tenpence."

2. The reckoning of money was by the sesterce and its multiples, as follows:

a) Up to 2000, by sesterces. Thus trīgintā sēstertiī, 30 *sesterces;* trecentī sēstertiī, 300 *sesterces.*

b) From 2000 to 1,000,000, by *thousands* of sesterces, i.e. by sēstertia. The numeral used was generally the distributive (*sometimes* the ordinal). Thus: bīna (duo) sēstertia, 2000 *sesterces.*

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c) From 1,000,000 upwards, by *hundreds of thousands* of sesterces, i.e. by centēna mīlia sēstertium.[1] The numeral used was the adverb. Thus deciēns centēna mīlia sēstertium = ten times 100,000, = 1,000,000.

But the words centēna mīlia are generally omitted, and sometimes even the word sēstertium. Thus deciēns sēstertium, or simply deciēns, = 1,000,000.

3. The sign HS was used for either a sēstertius or a sēstertium, the difference being ordinarily shown by the use of cardinal and distributive numerals respectively. With an abbreviation in Roman numerals, a straight mark drawn above means sēstertia. Thus:

HS XXX = trīgintā sēstertiī, 30 sesterces

HS $\overline{\text{XXX}}$ = trīcēsima sēstertia, 30,000 sesterces

676. Roman Measures of Length

4 digitī ("finger-breadths")	= 1 palmus ("palm")
4 palmī	= 1 pēs (11.6 inches)
2½ pedēs	= 1 gradus ("step")
2 gradūs	= 1 passus ("pace")[2]
1000 passūs	= mīlle passūs or mīlle passuum ("mile")

a. A stadium (from a Greek word) was an eighth of a Roman mile (a little less than our furlong).

b. The unit of measure of land was a iūgerum (translated *acre*, but really a little less than ⅔ of an acre), an area of 240 by 120 feet.

677. Roman Measures of Capacity

Liquid Measure		*Dry Measure*	
1½ cyathī[3]	= 1 acētābulum	1½ cyathī	= 1 acētābulum
2 acētābula	= 1 quārtārius	2 acētābula	= 1 quārtārius
2 quārtāriī	= 1 hēmīna	2 quārtāriī	= 1 hēmīna
2 hēmīnae	= 1 sextārius (about a pint)	2 hēmīnae	= 1 sextārius
6 sextāriī	= 1 congius	8 sextāriī	= 1 sēmodius
4 congiī	= 1 urna	2 sēmodiī	= 1 modius (about a peck)
2 urnae	= 1 amphora		
20 amphorae	= 1 culleus		

a. A sextārius (pint) thus contained 12 cyathī ($\frac{3}{2} \times 2 \times 2 \times 2$).

[1] Sēstertium is here a true genitive plural.

[2] One double pace, that is, one easy step with each foot, or a little less than 5 feet. Hence mīlle passūs, or mīlle passuum = a little less than one English mile. (The Roman mile has been estimated at 4851 feet. The English mile = 5280 feet.)

[3] Cyathus meant originally *small ladle.*

ROMAN NAMES

678. 1. The Roman regularly had three names: the **praenōmen**, or *first name* (our "given name"), the **nōmen**, or *principal name*, and the **cognōmen**, or *additional name*. Thus:

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praenōmen	nōmen	cognōmen
Mārcus	Tullius	Cicerō

a) The **praenōmen** indicates the individual, the **nōmen** the **gēns**, or largest unit of related persons (our "last name"), the **cognōmen**, the family, or smaller unit of related persons.

b) The **nōmen** always ends in **-ius**. Thus **Tullius, Cornēlius, Iūlius.**

c) The **cognōmen** originally indicated some personal peculiarity. Thus **Scaevola**, *left-handed*, **Cicerō**, *chick-pea*, or *wart*, **Balbus**, *lisping*. But of course these names lost all personal application as they were passed down, just as have our names White, Brown, Armstrong, etc.

2. A second cognomen was sometimes added to commemorate an achievement. Thus **Cornēlius Scīpiō Āfricānus** (*conqueror of Africa*).

a. From the Fourth Century, this was often called an **agnōmen.**

3. The **praenōmina**, with their abbreviations, are:

A.	**Aulus**	**L.**	**Lūcius**	**Q.**	**Quīntus**
App.	**Appius**	**M.**	**Mārcus**	**Sex.**	**Sextus**
C.	**Gāius**	**M'.**	**Manius**	**Ser.**	**Servius**
Cn.	**Gnaeus**	**Mām.**	**Māmercus**	**Sp.**	**Spurius**
D.	**Decimus**	**N.**	**Numerius**	**T.**	**Titus**
K.	**Kaesō**	**P.**	**Pūblius**	**Ti(b).**	**Tiberius**

4. An adopted son took the name of the adoptive father, adding his own gentile name in the form of an adjective in **-ānus**. Thus **L. Aemilius Paulus**, being adopted by **P. Cornēlius Scīpiō**, became **P. Cornēlius Scīpiō Aemiliānus.**

a. But irregular methods ultimately came into fashion. Thus when Pliny the Younger, whose name had been **P. Caecilius Secundus**, was adopted by his uncle **C. Plīnius Secundus**, instead of taking the name **C. Plīnius Secundus Caecilianus** (as by the older usage he would have done), he took the name **C. Plīnius Caecilius Secundus.**

5. Women had no **praenōmina**, but were called by the feminine form of the name of the **gēns**. Thus the daughter of **Mārcus Tullius Cicerō** was called **Tullia**. If there were two daughters, they were distinguished as the "elder" and the "younger" (thus **Tullia Maior, Tullia Minor**). If there were other daughters, the later-born were called "third" (**Tertia**), "fourth" (**Quārta**), etc.

HIDDEN QUANTITY

679. List of words containing a long vowel before two or more consonants. Omitted are:

1) Words containing **ns, nf, nx, nct**, before which the vowel is always long. See **18**.
2) Verbs in **-scō**, in all but three of which the vowel before the suffix is long. See **23**, 4.
3) Shortened Perfect forms in **-āsse, -ēsse, -īsse, -āstī, -ēstī, -īstī**, etc., in which the vowel before **s** is always long. See **163**, 1, and footnote 1.
4) Nominatives in **-x, -ps, -bs**, before which the vowel is long if long in the other cases, as **lēx**, Gen. **lēgis**; **Cyclōps**, Gen. **Cyclōpis**; **plēbs**, Gen. **plēbis**.
5) Derivatives in **-ātrum, -ābrum**, etc. See **23**, 2.
6) Compounds, derivatives, and parallel formations of words containing a long vowel. See **22**, **24**. Thus **ōrnō** implies **ōrnāmentum**, **lūxus** implies **lūxuria**, **āctum** implies **āctus** (**-ūs**), **āctiō**, **āctor**, etc.
7) Proper names and rare words.

But several words belonging under 5), 6), or 7) are, for greater convenience, included in the list.

āctum, āctiō, etc.
Adrāstus
Āfrica Āfrī, etc.
Alcēstis
Ālēctō
alīptēs
Amāzōn
anguīlla
Aquīllius
arātrum
ārdeō, ārsī, etc.
āthla
āthlētēs
ātrium
Ātrius

bārdus
Bēdriacum
bēstia
bimēstris
bovīllus
Būthrōtum

candēlābrum
catēlla, *chain*
catīllus
chīrūrgus
cicātrīx
Cīncius
clātrī
Clytēm(n)ēstra
Cnōssus
comēstum
cōmptum, etc.
cōntiō
corōlla
crābrō
Crēssa
crībrum
crīspus
crūsta, crūstum

dēlūbrum
dēmptum
dēxtāns
Diēspiter
dīgladior
dīgredior
dōdrāns
dolābra

ēbrius
ēmptum, etc.
ēsca
Esquiliae
Etrūscus
exīstimō

fāstus, *court-day*
favīlla
fēstus
fīxī, fixum
flābrum
-flīxī, -flīctum
flūctus
flūxī, flūxus
fōrma
frāctum, frāgmen
-frīxī
frūctus
frūstrā
frūstum
fūrtim, fūrtum
fūstis

geōgraphia
geōrgicus
glōssārium

Hellēspontus
hibīscum
hīllae
hōrnus
hōrsum
Hymēttus

Īllyria
inlūstris
intrōrsum
involūcrum
Iōlcus
istōrsum
iūglāns
iūrgō
iūstus
iūxtā

lābrum, *basin*
lāmna
lāpsus
lārdum
Lārs
lārva
lātrīna
lātrō, *bark*
lavābrum
lavācrum
lēctum (from legō)
lēmna
lēmniscus
Lēmnos
lentīscus
lībra
lictor
lūbricus
lūctus
lūstrum, *expiation*
lūstrō
lūxī
lūxus, *luxury*
Lycūrgus

mālle, etc.
Mānlius
Mārcellus
Mārcus
Mārs
Mārsī
māssa
mercēnnārius
Mētrodōrus
mētropolis
mīlle
mīlvus
Mōstellāria
mūcrō
mūscus

Nārnia
nārrō
nāsturcium
nefāstus
nīxus
nōlle, etc.

nōndum
nōngentī
nōnne
Nōrba
nūllus
nūndinae
nūntiō, nūntius
nūptum, nūptiae
nūtriō, nūtrīx

Oenōtria
ōlla
Onchēstus
Opūs, Opūntis
ōrca
orchēstra
ōrdior
ōrdō
ōrnō
ōscitāns
ōsculum, ōsculor
Ōstia
ōstium
ovīllus
Oxus

pāctum (from pangō)
palimpsēstus
palūster
pāstillus
pāstum, pāstor, etc.
pēgma
perīclitor
Permēssus
Phoenīssa
pīstum, pīstor, etc.
plēctrum
plōstellum
Pōlliō
Polymēstor
pōsca
prāgmaticus
Prāxitelēs
prēndō
prīmōrdium
prīnceps
prīscus
prīstinus
Procrūstēs
prōmptum, etc.
prōrsum
prōsper, prōsperus
prōstibulum
Pūblicola
pūblicus
Pūblius
pulvīllus
pūrgō
pūstula

quārtus
quīncūnx
quīndecim
quīnquātrūs
quīnque, quīntus
Quīntiliānus, Quīntus
quōrsum

rāstrum
reāpse
rēctum, rēctor, etc.
rēgnum
rēxī
rīxa
rōscidus
Rōscius
rōstrum
Rōxānē
rūctō, rūctus, etc.
rūrsum
rūsticus

Sārsina
scēptrum
sēgnis
sēmēstris
sēmūncia
sēscūncia
Sesōstris
sēsqui-
sēstertius
Sēstius
Sēstos
simulācrum
sinistrōrsus
sīstrum
sōbrius
Sōcratēs
sōlstitium
sōspes
sōspita
stāgnum
stīlla
strūxī, strūctum, etc.
sublūstris
suīllus
sūmptum, etc.
sūrculus
sūrsum
Sūtrium

tāctum, etc.
Tartēssus
Tecmēssa
tēctum, etc.
Telmēssus
Tēmnos
tēxī
theātrum
Thrēssa
Tīllius
trāxī
trīstis

ūllus
ūncia
ūndecim
ūsūrpō

vāllum, vāllus
vāsculum
vāstus
Vēctis
vēgrandis
Vēlābrum
Venāfrum
vēndō
vērnus
vēstibulum
vēstīgium
vīxī, vīctus
vīlla
vīllum
vīndēmia
Vīpsānius
vīscus

Xenophōn, -ōntis

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CATALOGUE OF VERBS

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Most verbs of the First and Fourth Conjugations with principal parts of the usual type are omitted; and of the Denominatives of the Second Conjugation and the Inchoatives only a few are given. Compounds are not noted unless they present some irregularity in formation, or a change in the form of the root-syllable (see **41, 42**). In such cases the variation is shown under the simple verb. Some compounds are also given separately with cross references to the simple verb, but generally only at the beginning of the list (compounds of **ad** and **con**), by way of illustration. A prefixed hyphen indicates that the form occurs only in compounds (not necessarily in all compounds).

Forms which are unusual and may well be omitted by a student in memorizing the principal parts are inclosed in ( ). Some very rare forms are omitted entirely. Perfect forms in -iī beside -īvī are not ordinarily noted. For the forms making up the Principal Parts, especially the fourth, see **150**. When the Future Active Participle does not follow the formation of the Perfect Passive Participle (**182**), it is added in ( ). Forms inclosed in [ ] indicate the derivation or formation. The abbreviations Dep., Def., Impers., Irreg. are used for Deponent, Defective, Impersonal, and Irregular.

abdō, see **dō**.
abiciō, see **iaciō**.
abigō, see **agō**.
abluō, see **-luō**.
abnuō, see **-nuō**.
aboleō, *destroy*, abolēre, abolēvī, abolitum.
abolēscō, *vanish*, abolēscere, abolēvī.
abripiō, see **rapiō**.
abscīdō, see **caedō**.
abstineō, see **teneō**.
accendō, see **-cendō**.
accidō, see **cadō**.
accīdō, see **caedō**.
accipiō, see **capiō**.
accumbō, see **-cumbō**.
acuō, *sharpen*, acuere, acuī, acūtum.
addō, see **dō**.
adficiō, see **faciō**.
adflīgō, see **-flīgō**.
adgredior, see **gradior**.
adhibeō, see **habeō**.
adiciō, see **iaciō**
adigō, see **agō**.
adimō, see **emō**.
adipīscor, see **apīscor**.
adliciō, see **-liciō**.
adluō, see **-luō**.
adnuō, see **-nuō**.
adolēscō, see **alēscō**.
adquīrō, see **quaerō**.
adsideō, see **sedeō**.
agnōscō, see **nōscō**.
agō, *move*, agere, ēgī, āctum. So circum-agō, per-agō, praeter-agō, sat-agō. But ab-igō, ab-igere, ab-ēgī, ab-āctum; so ad-igō, amb-igō, ex-igō, prōd-igō, red-igō, sub-igō, trāns-igō. Note also cōgō, cōgere, coēgī, co-āctum; dēgō, dēgere.
aiō, *say*. Def. **198**, 1.
albeō, *be white*, albēre [albus].
albēscō, *become white*, albēscere.
alēscō, *grow up*, alēscere. co-alēscō, co-alēscere, co-aluī (old cōlēscō, cōlēscere, cōluī); ad-olēscō, *grow up*, ad-olēscere, ad-olēvī, ad-ultum; ex-olēscō, ex-olēscere, ex-olēvī, ex-olētum; in-olēscō, sub-olēscō in Pres. Syst. only. See also obsolēscō.
algeō, *be cold*, algēre, alsī.
algēscō, *get cold*, algēscere, alsī.

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alō, *nourish*, alere, aluī, altum (alitum mostly late).
ambiō, see eō.
amiciō, *wrap about*, amicīre, amictum. (Perf. rare, amicuī, amixī.)
amō, *love*, -āre, -āvī, -ātum.
amplector, see **-plector**.
angō, *choke*, angere.
aperiō, *open*, aperīre, aperuī, apertum.
apīscor, *attain*, apīscī, aptus sum. Dep. ad-ipīscor, ad-ipīscī, ad-eptus sum; so ind-ipīscor, red-ipīscor.
arceō, *confine*, arcēre, arcuī. Cpds. -erceō, -ercēre, -ercuī, -ercitum.
arcessō (sometimes accersō), *send after*, arcessere, arcessīvī, arcessītum.
ārdeō, *blaze*, ārdēre, ārsī, ārsūrus.
ārdēscō, *blaze up*, ārdēscere, ārsī, (ex)-ārsūrus.
āreō, *be dry*, ārēre.
ārēscō, *become dry*, ārēscere, (ex)-āruī.
arguō, *make known*, arguere, arguī (argūtus, Adj.).
arō, *plough*, -āre, -āvī, -ātum.
arripiō, see **rapiō**.
ascendō, see **scandō**.
ascrībō, see **scrībō**.
aspergō, see **spargō**.
aspiciō, see **-spiciō**.
attineō, see **teneō**.
attingō, see **tangō**.
audeō, audēre, ausus sum. Semi-Dep. (Perf. Subj. ausim, **163**, 5.)
audiō, *hear*, audīre, audīvī, audītum.
auferō, see **ferō**.
augeō, *increase*, augēre, auxī, auctum.
avē, *hail*. Def. **200**.

balbūtiō, *stammer*, balbūtīre.
bibō, *drink*, bibere, bibī, pōtum.
blandior, *coax*, blandīrī, blandītus sum. Dep. [blandus].

cadō, *fall*, cadere, cecidī, cāsūrus. Cpds. -cidō, -cidere, -cidī, -cāsum.
caedō, *cut*, caedere, cecīdī, caesum. Cpds. -cīdō, -cīdere, -cīdī, -cīsum.
caleō, *be warm*, calēre, caluī, calitūrus.
calēscō, *grow warm*, calēscere, -caluī.
candeō, *be bright*, candēre, canduī.
candēscō, *grow bright*, candēscere, -canduī.
cāneō, *be gray*, cānēre [cānus].
cānēscō, *grow gray*, cānēscere, cānuī.
canō, *sing*, canere, cecinī (Partic. supplied by cantātum from cantō). Cpds. -cinō, -cinere, -cinuī (rarely -cecinī).
capessō, *seize eagerly*, capessere, capessīvī, capessītum [capiō, **212**, 4].
capiō, *take*, capere, cēpī, captum. So ante-capiō. But in other cpds. -cipiō, -cipere, -cēpī, -ceptum.
careō, *be without*, carēre, caruī, caritūrus.
carpō, *pluck*, carpere, carpsī, carptum. Cpds. -cerpō, -cerpere, -cerpsī, -cerptum.
caveō, *take care*, cavēre, cāvī, cautum.
cedo, *give*. Def. **200**.
cēdō, *depart*, cēdere, cessī, cessum.
-cellō, *rise*, -cellere (celsus, Adj.). Ante-, ex-, prae-, re-.
-cendō, *burn*, -cendere, -cendī, -cēnsum [*candō; cf. candeō]. Ac-, in-, suc-.
cēnseō, *rate*, *think*, cēnsēre, cēnsuī, cēnsum.
cernō, *separate*, *decide*, cernere, crēvī, -crētum (certus, Adj., rarely Partic.).
cieō, *stir up*, ciēre, cīvī, citum. But ac-ciō, ac-cīre, ac-cīvī, ac-cītum; other cpds. vary between -ciō, -cīre, -cītum, and -cieō, -ciēre, -citum.
cingō, *gird*, cingere, cīnxī, cīnctum.
clārēō, *be bright*, clārēre [clārus].
clārēscō, *grow bright*, clārēscere.
claudeō, *limp*, claudēre (also claudō, claudere) [claudus].
claudō, *shut*, claudere, clausī, clausum. Cpds. -clūdō, -clūdere, -clūsī, -clūsum.
clepō, *steal*, clepere, clepsī (rare verb).
clueō, *be said*, cluēre (rare verb).

coepī, *began*, coeptum (early Latin coepiō, coepere). Def. **199**, 2.
coerceō, see **arceō**.
cognōscō, see **nōscō**.
cōgō, see **agō**.
colō, *cultivate*, colere, coluī, cultum.
combūrō, see **ūrō**.
comminīscor, *devise*, comminīscī, commentus sum. Dep. [men- *in* memin-ī, etc.].
cōmō, *comb*, cōmere, cōmpsī, cōmptum [emō].
comperiō, see **-periō**.
compescō, *restrain*, compescere, compescuī.
complector, see **-plector**.
compleō, see **-pleō**.
comprimō, see **premō**.
concidō, see **cadō**.
concīdō, see **caedō**.
concinō, see **canō**.
concipiō, see **capiō**.
conclūdō, see **claudō**.
concupīscō, *long for*, -cupīscere, -cupīvī, -cupītum [cupiō].
concutiō, see **quatiō**.
condō, *establish*, condere, condidī, conditum [cf. dō]. Perf. of abs-condō, abs-condī.
cōnficiō, see **faciō**.
cōnfiteor, see **fateor**.
cōnfringō, see **frangō**.
congredior, see **gradior**.
congruō, *agree*, congruere, congruī [con-gruō; cf. in-gruō].
coniciō, see **iaciō**.
cōnīveō, *blink*, cōnīvēre (cōnīxī, cōnīvī, rare).
conquīrō, see **quaerō**.
cōnspiciō, see **-spiciō**.
cōnstituō, see **statuō**.
cōnsulō, *consult*, cōnsulere, cōnsuluī, cōnsultum.
contineō, see **teneō**.
contingō, see **tangō**.
coquō, *cook*, coquere, coxī, coctum.
corripiō, see **rapiō**.
crēdō, *believe*, crēdere, crēdidī, crēditum [cf. dō].
crepō, *rattle*, crepāre, crepuī (crepāvī rare), crepitum.
crēscō, *grow*, crēscere, crēvī, crētum.
cubō, *recline*, cubāre, cubuī (cubāvī rare), cubitum.
cūdō, *strike*, cūdere, -cūdī, -cūsum.
-cumbō, *recline*, -cumbere, -cubuī, -cubitum. Ac-, con-, etc.
cupiō, *desire*, cupere, cupīvī, cupītum.
currō, *run*, currere, cucurrī, cursum. In cpds. Perf. -cucurrī and -currī, the latter more common.

dēbeō, see **habeō**.
decet, *it is fitting*, decēre, decuit. Impers.
dēfendō, see **-fendō**.
dēgō, see **agō**.
dēleō, *destroy*, dēlēre, dēlēvī, dēlētum.
dēmō, see **emō**.
dīcō, *say*, dīcere, dīxī, dictum. Imperat. dīc, **164**, 1.
diribeō, see **habeō**.
discō, *learn*, discere, didicī.
discutiō, see **quatiō**.
distinguō, see **stinguō**.
dīvidō, *divide*, -videre, -vīsī, -vīsum.
dō, *give*, dare, dedī, datum. Irreg. **197**. So circum-dō, satis-dō, etc. But ab-dō, ab-dere, ab-didī, ab-ditum; so ad-dō, con-dō, crēdō, dē-dō, dī-dō, ē-dō, in-dō, ob-dō, perdō, prō-dō, red-dō, sub-dō, trā-dō, vēn-dō; in these is contained also, in part, another verb -dō, meaning *put*, and related to faciō.
doceō, *teach*, docēre, docuī, doctum.
doleō, *suffer*, dolēre, doluī, dolitūrus.
domō, *tame*, domāre, domuī, domitum.
dormiō, *sleep*, dormīre, dormīvī, dormītum.
dūcō, *lead*, dūcere, dūxī, ductum. Imperat. dūc, **164**, 1.

edō, *eat*, ēsse, ēdī, ēsum (but com-ēstum beside com-ēsum). Irreg. **196**.

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ēdō, see dō.

egeō, *want*, egēre, eguī. Ind-igeō, ind-igēre, ind-iguī [ind-, **51**, 9].

ēliciō, see -liciō.

ēmineō, *project*, ēminēre, ēminuī [cf. ēminus].

emō, *take*, *buy*, emere, ēmī, ēmptum. Co-emō, inter-emō or inter-imō, per-emō or per-imō, ad-imō, dir-imō, ex-imō, red-imō. Cf. also dēmō, *take away*, dēmere, dēmpsī, dēmptum; so cōmō, prōmō, sūmō.

eō, *go*, īre, iī (īvī), itum. Irreg. **194**. So in cpds., except ambiō, *go around*, ambīre, ambīvī, ambītum.

ēsuriō, *be hungry*, ēsurīre, ēsurītūrus [edō, **212**, 3].

excellō, see -cellō.

excutiō, see quatiō.

exerceō, see arceō.

exolēscō, see alēscō.

experior, see -perior.

explōdō, see plaudō.

exstinguō, see -stinguō.

exuō, *take off*, exuere, exuī, exūtum [ex-uō; cf. ind-uō].

facessō, *fulfil*, *depart*, facessere, facessīvī (facessī), facessītum [faciō, **212**, 4].

faciō, *make*, facere, fēcī, factum. Imperat. fac, **164**, 1; faxō, faxim, **163**, 5. For passive, see fīō. So benefaciō, cale-faciō, etc., **31**, 3; **218**, 3, But in prepositional cpds. -ficiō, -ficere, -fēcī, -fectum.

fallō, *deceive*, fallere, fefellī (falsus, Adj.). Re-, Perf. re-fellī. [*fal-nō, **168**, *D*.]

farciō, *stuff*, farcīre, farsī, fartum (farctum rare). Cpds. -ferciō or -farciō, -fertum.

fateor, *confess*, fatērī, fassus sum. Dep. Cpds. -fiteor, -fitērī, -fessus sum.

faveō, *favor*, favēre, fāvī, fautum.

-fendō, *strike*, -fendere, -fendī, -fēnsum. Dē-, of-.

feriō, *strike*, ferīre.

ferō, *carry*, ferre, tulī (tetulī), lātum. Irreg. **193**. So cpds., e.g.

ad-ferō, at-tulī, al-lātum (ad-lātum);

au-ferō, abs-tulī, ab-lātum;

cōn-ferō, con-tulī, con-lātum (collātum);

dif-ferō, dis-tulī, dī-lātum;

ef-ferō, ex-tulī, ē-lātum;

īn-ferō, in-tulī, in-lātum;

of-ferō, ob-tulī (rarely obs-tulī), ob-lātum.

re-ferō, re-ttulī (**43**, 1), re-lātum (rel-lātum).

ferveō, *boil*, fervēre (fervī, ferbuī rare), (fervō, fervere, poetical).

fīdō, *trust*, fīdere, fīsus sum. Semi-Dep.

fīgō, *fix*, fīgere, fīxī, fīxum.

findō, *split*, findere, fidī, fissum.

fingō, *mould*, fingere, fīnxī, fictum.

fīniō, *finish*, fīnīre, fīnīvī, fīnītum [fīnis].

fīō, fierī, factus sum, used as passive of faciō. Irreg. **195**.

flectō, *turn*, flectere, flexī, flexum [flec-tō, **168**, *E*].

fleō, *weep*, flēre, flēvī, flētum.

-fligō, *dash*, -flīgere, -flīxī, -flīctum. Ad-, cōn-, etc.

flō, *blow*, flāre, flāvī, flātum.

flōreō, *bloom*, flōrēre, flōruī [flōs].

fluō, *flow*, fluere, flūxī (flūxus, Adj.).

fodiō, *dig*, fodere, fōdī, fossum.

(for), *speak*, fārī, fātus sum. Def. **198**, 3.

foveō, *warm*, *cherish*, fovēre, fōvī, fōtum.

frangō, *break in pieces*, frangere, frēgī, frāctum. Cpds. -fringō, -fringere, -frēgī, -frāctum.

fremō, *growl*, fremere, fremuī.

frendō, *crush*, frendere, frēsum (fressum).

fricō, *rub*, fricāre, fricuī, frictum (fricātum).

frīgeō, *be cold*, frīgēre.
frīgēscō, *grow cold*, frīgēscere, -frīxī.
fruor, *enjoy*, fruī, frūctus sum (fruitūrus). Dep.
fugiō, *flee*, fugere, fūgī, fugitūrus.
fulciō, *support*, fulcīre, fulsī, fultum.
fulgeō, *flash*, fulgēre, fulsī (fulgō, fulgere, poet.).
fundō, *pour*, fundere, fūdī, fūsum.
fungor, *perform*, fungī, fūnctus sum. Dep.
furō, *rage*, furere.

gaudeō, *rejoice*, gaudēre, gāvīsus sum. Semi-Dep.
gemō, *groan*, gemere, gemuī.
gerō, *carry*, gerere, gessī, gestum.
gignō, *beget*, gignere, genuī, genitum [gi-gn-ō, **168**, *B*].
glīscō, *swell*, glīscere.
gradior, *step*, gradī, gressus sum. Dep. Cpds. -gredior, -gredī, -gressus.

habeō, *hold*, habēre, habuī, habitum. Cpds. -hibeō, -hibēre, -hibuī, -hibitum. Cf. also praebeō (rarely praehibeō), praebēre, praebuī, praebitum ; dēbeō (from dē-hibeō), dēbēre, dēbuī, dēbitum.
haereō, *stick*, haerēre, haesī, haesūrus.
hauriō, *drain*, haurīre, hausī, haustum (hausūrus). (Imperf. haurībant, **164**, 4.)
havē, see **avē**.
hebeō, *be blunt*, hebēre.
hīscō, *gape*, hīscere [hiō].
horreō, *bristle*, *be afraid*, horrēre, horruī.

iaceō, *lie*, iacēre, iacuī.
iaciō, *throw*, iacere, iēcī, iactum. So super-iaciō. But in other cpds. -iciō, -icere, -iēcī, -iectum. For the length of the first syllable in cpds., see **30**, 1.
īcī, *struck*, ictum (īcō, īcere, early Latin).
imbuō, *wet*, imbuere, imbuī, imbūtum.
immineō, *project*, imminēre [cf. ē-mineō].
indigeō, see **egeō**.
indulgeō, *be kind*, indulgēre, indulsī.
induō, *put on*, induere, induī, indūtum [ind-uō ; cf. ex-uō].
ingruō, *fall upon*, ingruere, ingruī [in-gruō ; cf. con-gruō.]
inquam, *say*. Def. **198**, 2.
inveterāscō, *become fixed*, -āscere, -āvī [in-veterō, vetus].
iubeō, *order*, iubēre, iussī, iussum.
iungō, *join*, iungere, iūnxī, iūnctum.
iuvō, *aid*, iuvāre, iūvī, iūtum (iuvātūrus, but ad-iūtūrus).

lābor, *slip*, lābī, lāpsus sum. Dep.
lacessō, *excite*, lacessere, lacessīvī, lacessītum [laciō ; cf. -liceō].
laedō, *hurt*, laedere, laesī, laesum. Cpds. -līdō, -līdere, -līsī, -līsum.
lambō, *lick*, lambere (lambuī rare).
langueō, *be weak*, languēre.
languēscō, *become weak*, languēscere, languī.
largior, *lavish*, largīrī, largītus sum. Dep. [largus.]
lateō, *lie hid*, latēre, latuī.
lavō, *bathe*, lavāre, lāvī, lautum or lōtum (rarely lavātum). (Early and poet. lavō, lavere.) Ē-lavō. Cf. also -luō.
legō, *collect*, *read*, legere, lēgī, lēctum. So ad-legō, inter-legō, prae-legō, relegō, sub-legō, trāns-legō ; pel-legō or per-legō (also pel-ligō, per-ligō). But intel-legō, intel-legere, intel-lēxī, intel-lēctum, and so neg-legō (rarely Perf. intellēgī, neglēgī) ; dī-ligō, dī-ligere, dī-lēxī, dī-lēctum ; col-ligō, col-ligere, col-lēgī, col-lēctum, and so dē-ligō, ē-ligō, sē-ligō.
libet (early lubet), *it is pleasing*, libēre, libuit or libitum est. Impers.
liceō, *be for sale*, licēre, licuī.
liceor, *bid*, licērī, licitus sum. Dep.

licet, *it is permitted*, licēre, licuit or licitum est. Impers.

-liciō, *lure*, -licere, -lexī, -lectum. [*laciō; cf. lacessō.] So ad-liciō, in-liciō, pel-liciō (per-liciō). But ē-liciō, ē-licere, ē-licuī, ē-licitum.

lingō, *lick*, lingere, līnxī, līnctum.

linō, *besmear*, linere, lēvī, litum.

linquō, *leave*, linquere, līquī, -lictum.

liqueō, *be fluid*, liquēre, licuī.

līquor, *be fluid*, līquī. Dep.

loquor, *speak*, loquī, locūtus sum. Dep.

lūceō, *be light*, lūcēre, lūxī [lūx].

lūdō, *play*, lūdere, lūsī, lūsum.

lūgeō, *mourn*, lūgēre, lūxī.

luō, *loose, atone for*, luere, luī.

-luō, *wash*, -luere, -luī, -lūtum [lavō]. Ab-, ad-, con-, etc.

madeō, *be wet*, madēre, maduī.

maereō, *grieve*, maerēre.

mālō, *prefer*, mālle, māluī [volō]. Irreg. **192.**

mandō, *chew*, mandere, mandī, mānsum.

maneō, *remain*, manēre, mānsī, mānsum.

medeor, *remedy*, medērī. Dep.

meminī, *remember*. Def. **199**, 1.

mentior, *deceive*, mentīrī, mentītus sum. Dep.

mereō, *deserve*, merēre, meruī, meritum; also Dep. mereor.

mergō, *dip*, mergere, mersī, mersum.

mētior, *measure*, mētīrī, mēnsus sum. Dep.

metō, *mow*, metere, messuī, messum.

metuō, *fear*, metuere, metuī.

micō, *shake*, micāre, micuī. So ē-, inter-; but dī-micō, -āre, -āvī (-uī rare), -ātum.

mingō, *make water*, mingere, mīnxī, mictum.

minuō, *lessen*, minuere, minuī, minūtum.

misceō, *mix*, miscēre, miscuī, mixtum.

misereor, *pity*, miserērī, miseritus sum (misertus). Dep.

miseret, *excites pity in*, miseruit. Impers.

mittō, *send*, mittere, mīsī, missum.

molō, *grind*, molere, moluī, molitum.

moneō, *advise*, monēre, monuī, monitum.

mordeō, *bite*, mordēre, momordī, morsum.

morior, *die*, morī (sometimes morīrī, **165**, 1), mortuus sum (moritūrus). Dep.

moveō, *move*, movēre, mōvī, mōtum.

mulceō, *stroke*, mulcēre, mulsī, mulsum.

mulgeō, *milk*, mulgēre, mulsī, mulsum.

nancīscor, *get*, nancīscī, nactus or nānctus sum. Dep.

nāscor, *be born*, nāscī, nātus sum. Dep.

necō, *slay*, necāre, necāvī (necuī rare), necātum. Ē-necō (ē-nicō rare), ē-necāre, ē-necuī, ē-nectum (ē-nicāvī, ē-necātum rare).

nectō, *bind*, nectere, nexuī (nexī), nexum [nec-tō, **168**, *E*].

neglegō, see legō.

neō, *spin*, nēre, nēvī.

nequeō, see queō.

ninguit (ningit), *it snows*. Impers.

nitеō, *shine*, nitēre, nituī.

nītor, *lean on, strive*, nītī, nīxus or nīsus sum.

nō, *swim*, nāre, nāvī.

noceō, *harm*, nocēre, nocuī, nocitum.

nōlō, *will not*, nōlle, nōluī [volō]. Irreg. **192.**

nōscō (early gnōscō), *know*, nōscere, nōvī, nōtum. (For nōsse, nōram, etc., see **163**, 2.) So inter-, per-, prae-, ignōscō; but agnitum from agnōscō (also ad-gnōscō) and cognitum from cognōscō.

nūbō, *veil, marry*, nūbere, nūpsī, nūptum.

-nuō, *nod*, -nuere, -nuī. Ab-, ad- (an-), in-, re-.

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oblīvīscor, *forget*, oblīvīscī, oblītus sum. Dep.

oboediō, *obey*, oboedīre, oboedīvī, oboedītum.

obsolēscō, *wear out, go out of use*, obsolēscere, obsolēvī, obsolētum [alēscō or soleō, or both].

occulō, *hide*, occulere, occuluī, occultum [*celō ; cf. cēlō, cēlāre].

ōdī, *hate*, ōsūrus. Def. **199**, 1.

oleō, *smell*, olēre, oluī.

operiō, *cover*, operīre, operuī, opertum.

oportet, *it is necessary*, oportēre, oportuit. Impers.

opperior, see -perior.

ōrdior, *begin*, ōrdīrī, ōrsus sum. Dep.

orior, *arise*, orīrī, ortus. Dep. Pres. Syst., except Infin., usually of Third Conj., **165**, 1.

pacīscor, *bargain*, pacīscī, pactus sum. Dep. dē-pecīscor, dē-pectus, or dē-pacīscor, dē-pactus.

paenitet, *it repents*, paenitēre, paenituit. Impers.

palleō, *be pale*, pallēre, palluī.

pandō, *open*, pandere, pandī, passum or pānsum. Dis-pendō or dis-pandō, dis-pessum or dis-pānsum; ex-pandō, ex-pānsum (ex-passum).

pangō, *fix*, pangere, pānxī and pēgī, pāctum. Also Perf. pepigī, *agree;* cf. pacīscor. Cpds. -pingō, -pingere, -pēgī, -pāctum.

parcō, *spare*, parcere, pepercī (parsī), parsūrus. Com-percō (com-parcō), com-persī.

pāreō, *appear*, pārēre, pāruī.

pariō, *bring forth*, parere, peperī, partum (paritūrus).

partior, *divide*, partīrī, partītus sum. Dep. [pars.]

parturiō, *be in travail*, parturīre, parturīvī [pariō, **212**, 3].

pāscō, *feed*, pāscere, pāvī, pāstum.

pateō, *be open*, patēre, patuī.

patior, *endure*, patī, passus sum. Dep. per-petior, per-petī, per-pessus.

paveō, *fear*, pavēre, pāvī.

paviō, *strike*, pavīre.

pectō, *comb*, pectere, pexī, pexum [pecto, **168**, *E*].

pellō, *strike*, pellere, pepulī, pulsum [*pel-nō, **168**, *D*]. In cpds. Perf. -pulī ; re-ppulī (**43**, 1) from re-pellō.

pendeō, *hang down*, pendēre, pependī. In cpds. Perf. -pendī, Partic. prō-pēnsum.

pendō, *weigh*, pendere, pependī, pēnsum. In cpds. Perf. -pendī.

percellō, *cast down*, -cellere, -culī, -culsum.

perdō, *destroy*, perdere, perdidī, perditum [dō].

pergō, see regō.

-periō, -perior :

com-periō, *learn*, -perīre, -perī, -pertum.

com-perior, *learn*, -perīrī, -pertus sum. Dep.

ex-perior, *try*, -perīrī, -pertus sum. Dep.

op-perior, *await*, -perīrī, -pertus sum. Dep.

re-periō, *find*, re-perīre, re-pperī (**43**, 1), re-pertum.

petō, *seek*, petere, petīvī or petiī, petītum.

piget, *it grieves*, pigēre, piguit or pigitum est. Impers.

pingō, *paint*, pingere, pīnxī, pictum.

pīnsō, *pound*, pīnsere, pīnsuī (pīnsiī), pīstum (pīnsītum).

placeō, *please*, placēre, placuī, placitum. Com-placeō, per-placeō, but dis-pliceō.

plangō, *strike*, plangere, plānxī, plānctum.

plaudō, *clap*, plaudere, plausī, plausum. Ap-plaudō, circum-plaudō, but ex-plōdō, sup-plōdō.

plectō, *plait*, plectere, plexī, plexum [plec-tō, **168**, *E*].

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-plector, *embrace*, -plectī, -plexus sum. Dep. Am-, circum-, com-.
-pleō, *fill up*, -plēre, -plēvī, -plētum. Com-, ex-, im-, etc.
plicō, *fold up*, plicāre, -plicāvī or -plicuī, -plicātum or -plicitum.
pluit, *it rains*, pluere, pluit and pluvit. Impers.
polleō, *be powerful*, pollēre.
polliceor, see liceor.
polluō, *soil*, polluere, polluī, pollūtum [cf. luēs].
pōnō, *place*, pōnere, posuī, positum [*po-s(i)nō].
porrigō, *offer in sacrifice*, porricere, porrectum [iaciō; form influenced by porrigō].
poscō, *demand*, poscere, poposcī.
possideō, see sedeō.
possum, *be able*, posse, potuī. Irreg. **191.**
potior, *become master of*, potīrī, potītus sum. Dep. [potis.] Pres. Syst., except Infin., usually of Third Conj., **165**, 1.
pōtō, *drink*, pōtāre, pōtāvī, pōtum (pōtātum).
praebeō, see habeō.
prandeō, *lunch*, prandēre, prandī, prānsum.
prehendō, *seize*, prehendere, prehendī, prehēnsum, and prēndō, prēndere, prēndī, prēnsum [prae-hendō, prehendō (p. 9, footnote), prēndō].
premō, *press*, premere, pressī, pressum. Cpds. -primō, -primere, -pressī, -pressum.
proficīscor, *set out*, proficīscī, profectus sum. Dep. [faciō.]
profiteor, see fateor.
prōmineō, *project*, prōminēre, prōminuī [cf. ē-mineō].
prōmō, *produce*, prōmere, prōmpsī, prōmptum [emō].
pudet, *it shames*, pudēre, puduit or puditum est. Impers.
pungō, *prick*, pungere, pupugī, pūnctum. In cpds. Perf. -pūnxī.
quaerō, *seek*, quaerere, quaesīvī, quaesītum. Cpds. -quīrō, etc.
quaesō, *beseech*, quaesumus. Def. **200.**
quatiō, *shake*, quatere, ——, quassum. Cpds. -cutiō, -cutere, -cussī, -cussum.
queō, *can*, quīre, quīvī, quitum, **194**, *c.*
queror, *complain*, querī, questus sum. Dep.
quiēscō, *become quiet*, quiēscere, quiēvī (quiētus, Adj.).

rādō, *scrape*, rādere, rāsī, rāsum.
rapiō, *seize*, rapere, rapuī, raptum. Cpds. -ripiō, -ripere, -ripuī, -reptum. For sur-ripiō early Latin has surrupiō, Perf. surrupuit and surpuit.
regō, *direct*, regere, rēxī, rēctum. Cpds. -rigō, -rigere, -rēxī, -rēctum. But pergō (*per-(ri)gō), pergere, per-rēxī, per-rēctum; surgō (early sur-rigō), surgere, sur-rēxī, sur-rēctum; rarely porgō beside por-rigō.
reminīscor, *remember*, reminīscī. Dep. [meminī.]
reor, *think*, rērī, ratus sum. Dep.
rēpō, *creep*, rēpere, rēpsī.
rīdeō, *laugh*, rīdēre, rīsī, rīsum.
rigeō, *be stiff*, rigēre, riguī.
rōdō, *gnaw*, rōdere, rōsī, rōsum.
rudō, *roar*, rudere.
rumpō, *break*, rumpere, rūpī, ruptum.
ruō, *tumble down*, ruere, ruī, -rutum (ruitūrus).

saepiō, *hedge in*, saepīre, saepsī, saeptum.
saliō, *leap*, salīre, saluī. Cpds. -siliō, -silīre, -siluī (early -suluī; late -silii, -silīvī).
salvē, *hail*. Def. **200.**
sanciō, *ratify*, sancīre, sānxī, sānctum.
sapiō, *taste of*, *be wise*, sapere, sapīvī. Cpds. -sipiō, etc.
sarciō, *repair*, sarcīre, sarsī, sartum.
scabō, *scrape*, scabere, scābī (rare verb).
scalpō, *scrape*, scalpere, scalpsī, scalptum.

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scandō, *climb*, scandere. Cpds. -scendō, -scendere, -scendī, -scēnsum.
scindō, *tear*, scindere, scidī, scissum.
sciō, *know*, scīre, scīvī, scītum. (Imperf. scībam, Fut. scībō, **164**, 4, 5.)
scīscō, *approve*, scīscere, scīvī, scītum.
scrībō, *write*, scrībere, scrīpsī, scrīptum.
sculpō, *carve*, sculpere, sculpsī, sculptum.
secō, *cut*, secāre, secuī, sectum.
sedeō, *sit*, sedēre, sēdī, sessum. Circum-sedeō, super-sedeō; but in other cpds. -sideō, -sidēre, -sēdī, -sessum.
sentiō, *feel*, sentīre, sēnsī, sēnsum.
sepeliō, *bury*, sepelīre, sepelīvī, sepultum.
sequor, *follow*, sequī, secūtus sum. Dep.
serō, *sow*, serere, sēvī, satum. Cpds. -serō, -serere, -sēvī, -situm [*si-sō, **168**, *B*, *a*].
serō, *entwine*, serere, -seruī, sertum.
serpō, *creep*, serpere, serpsī.
sīdō, *sit down*, sīdere, -sēdī (-sīdī), -sessum.
sileō, *be still*, silēre, siluī.
sinō, *permit*, sinere, sīvī or siī, situm. (Perf. Subj. sīrīs, sīrit beside sierīs, sīverīs; **163**, 5.)
sistō, *set*, sistere, stitī, statum.
soleō, *be wont*, solēre, ——, solitus sum. Semi-Dep.
solvō, *release*, solvere, solvī, solūtum [luō].
sonō, *sound*, sonāre, sonuī, sonātūrus (sonō, sonere, rare).
sorbeō, *suck in*, sorbēre, sorbuī (rarely -sorpsī).
spargō, *scatter*, spargere, sparsī, sparsum. Cpds. -spergō, -spergere, -spersī, -spersum.
spernō, *scorn*, spernere, sprēvī, sprētum.
-spiciō, *spy*, -spicere, -spexī, -spectum [speciō, a rare verb]. Aspiciō (ad-), circum-, cōn-, etc.
splendeō, *shine*, splendēre.
spondeō, *promise*, spondēre, spopondī, spōnsum. In cpds. Perf. -spondī.
spuō, *spit*, spuere, -spuī, -spūtum.
statuō, *set*, statuere, statuī, statūtum [status]. Cpds. -stituō, -stituere, -stituī, -stitūtum.
sternō, *spread out*, sternere, strāvī, strātum.
stertō, *snore*, stertere, -stertuī.
stinguō, *prick*, *put out*, stinguere, -stīnxī,-stīnctum. Distinguō,ex-,etc.
stō, *stand*, stāre, stetī, stātūrus. In cpds. Perf. -stitī, e.g. prae-stitī, re-stitī, etc.; but anti-stetī, circum-stetī, super-stetī. Partic. prae-stitum and prae-stātum.
strepō, *make a noise*, strepere, strepuī.
strīdeō, *hiss*, strīdēre, strīdī. Also strīdō, strīdere.
stringō, *bind tight*, stringere, strīnxī, strictum.
struō, *heap up*, struere, strūxī, strūctum.
studeō, *be eager*, studēre, studuī.
stupeō, *be dazed*, stupēre, stupuī.
suādeō, *advise*, suādēre, suāsī, suāsum.
suēscō, *become used*, suēscere, suēvī, suētum.
sūgō, *suck*, sūgere, sūxī, sūctum.
sum, *be*, esse, fuī. Irreg. **153**.
sūmō, *take*, sūmere, sūmpsī, sūmptum [emō].
suō, *sew*, suere, suī, sūtum.
surgō, see **regō**.

taceō, *be silent*, tacēre, tacuī, tacitum. Cpds. -ticeō, etc.
taedet, *it disgusts*, taedēre, taesum est. Impers.
tangō, *touch*, tangere, tetigī, tāctum. Cpds. -tingō, -tingere, -tigī, -tāctum.
tegō, *cover*, tegere, tēxī, tēctum.
temnō, *scorn*, temnere, -tempsī, -temptum.
tendō, *stretch*, tendere, tetendī, tentum (late tēnsum, but extēnsum, ostēnsum common beside extentum, ostentum). In cpds. Perf. -tendī.
teneō, *hold*, tenēre, tenuī. Cpds. -tineō, -tinēre, -tinuī, -tentum.

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tergeō, *wipe*, tergēre, tersī, tersum (tergō, tergere rare).
terō, *rub*, terere, trīvī, trītum.
terreō, *frighten*, terrēre, terruī, territum.
texō, *weave*, texere, texuī, textum.
timeō, *be afraid*, timēre, timuī.
tinguō (tingō), *wet*, tinguere, tīnxī, tīnctum.
tollō, *lift*, tollere, sus-tulī, sub-lātum. [*tol-nō, **168**, *D.*]
tondeō, *shear*, tondēre, ——, tōnsum. Perf. of at-tondeō, at-tondī; of dē-tondeō, dē-tondī (dē-totondī rare).
tonō, *thunder*, tonāre, tonuī (at-tonitus, Adj.). Usually impers.
torqueō, *twist*, torquēre, torsī, tortum.
torreō, *dry up*, torrēre, torruī, tostum.
trahō, *draw*, trahere, trāxī, tractum.
tremō, *tremble*, tremere, tremuī.
tribuō, *assign*, tribuere, tribuī, tribūtum.
trūdō, *shove*, trūdere, trūsī, trūsum.
tueor, *watch*, tuērī, tūtus sum. Dep.
tumeō, *be swollen*, tumēre.
tundō, *pound*, tundere, (tutudī), tūnsum or tūsum. Perf. re-ttudī (**43**, 1) from re-tundō.

ulcīscor, *avenge*, ulcīscī, ultus sum. Dep.
urgeō, *push*, urgēre, ursī.
ūrō, *burn*, ūrere, ussī, ustum. Note amb-ūrō and (formed after this) comb-ūrō.
ūtor, *use*, ūtī, ūsus sum. Dep.

vādō, *go*, vādere, -vāsī, -vāsum.
valeō, *be strong*, valēre, valuī, valitūrus.
vehō, *carry*, vehere, vexī, vectum.
vellō, *tear*, vellere, vellī (vulsī), vulsum.
vendō, *sell*, vēndere, vēndidī [vēnum + dō].
vēneō, *be sold*, vēnīre, vēniī [vēnum + eō].
veniō, *come*, venīre, vēnī, ventum.
vereor, *revere*, verērī, veritus sum. Dep.
vergō, *slope*, vergere.
verrō, *sweep*, verrere, verrī, versum. Early vorrō, etc.
vertō, *turn*, vertere, vertī, versum. Early vortō, etc. Dep. re-vertor has Perf. re-vertī.
vēscor, *feed upon*, vēscī. Dep.
vesperāscō, *become evening*, vesperāscere, vesperāvī [vesper].
vetō, *forbid*, vetāre, vetuī, vetitum. Early votō, etc.
videō, *see*, vidēre, vīdī, vīsum.
vigeō, *be strong*, vigēre, viguī.
vinciō, *bind*, vincīre, vīnxī, vīnctum.
vincō, *conquer*, vincere, vīcī, victum.
vīsō, *look after*, vīsere, vīsī, vīsum.
vīvō, *live*, vīvere, vīxī, -vīctum.
volō, *wish*, velle, voluī. Irreg. **192**.
volvō, *roll*, volvere, volvī, volūtum.
vomō, *vomit*, vomere, vomuī, vomitum.
voveō, *vow*, vovēre, vōvī, vōtum.

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INDEX

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The references are to sections, unless the page (p.) is mentioned. The principal abbreviations used are: aor. = aorist or aoristic; cl. = clause; constr. = construction; cpd. = compound; compar. = comparative; dep. = dependent; det. = determinative; descr. = descriptive; end. = ending; expr. = expressed; ftn. = footnote; imper. = imperative; imperf. = imperfect; ind. = indirect; n. = note; narr. = narrative; opt. = optative; partic. = participle; reg. = regularly; subj. = subjunctive; vol. = volitive; w. = with; wh. = which.

ā, ab, abs, in cpds., **51**, 1; use, **405** and *a*, **406**, 1, 2, **408**.
Ablative, *Form:* abl. sing., decl. III, in -e or -ī, **75**, *a*, **88**, 2; of adjs., **118**, 1; in advs., **126**, 1, 3, 4; abl. pl., decl. I, in -ābus, **66**, 4; decl. IV, in -ubus, **97**, 1. *Syntax:* see synopsis, **404**.
Absolute tenses, **467**, 2, **477**, *b*, *c*.
Absolute use of trans. verb, **289**, *a*.
Abstract nouns, form, **206**, 2, 4, **207**, 2; defined, **240**, 5; w. concrete meaning, *ib.*, *a*; pl. of, **103**, n., **240**, 5, *b*.
Absurd question, w. an, **236**.
-ābus, in decl. I, **66**, 4.
ac, see atque.
Accent, **31–33**; in verse, **645**.
Accompaniment, abl. of, **418–420**.
Accordance, abl. of, **414**; ut-cl. of, **562**.
Accusative, *Form:* acc. sing. end., **62**, 1, n.; in -im, **75**, *a*, **88**, 1; in -a in Greek nouns, **95**, examples; acc. pl. in -īs, **75**, *a*, **88**, 3, **118**, 4; acc. as adv., **126**, 5, 6, 7; acc. pl. neut. of adj. of decl. III, **118**, 1. *Syntax:* see synopsis, **379**.
"Accusing," constrs. w., **342**, **343**, **397**, 1.
Acquiescence, how expr., see Consent.
Act anticipated, antequam, etc., w. subj., **507**, 4, *a*)–*d*); w. indic., *ib.*, n., **571**.
Action, nouns of, **206**, 2, 3.
Active, see Voice.
Actuality (fact), subj. of, **520**, **521**.
ad, form in cpds., **51**, 2; w. acc., **380**, **364**, 6; cpds. of, w. dat., **376**.
adeō, meaning, **302**, 7; adeō ut, **521**, 2, *a*.
-adēs, suffix, **207**, 3.
Adjectives, *Form:* decl. I and II, **110–112**; decl. III, **113–118**; comparison, **119–123**; pronom. adj., **112**, **143**; derivation of, **208–210**; numerals, **130–133**; verbal adjs., **146**. *Syntax:* adj. defined, **221**; used w. force of advs., **245**; as substs., **249**, **250**; pred., **230**; comparison of, **241**; denoting a part, **244**; agreement of, **320**; case w. nihil, aliquid, etc., **346**, *a*; neut. pl. of, w. gen., **357**.
admoneō, constr. w., **351**.
Adverbs, *Form:* **124–127**, **293**; compar., **128**, **129**; numeral advs., **133**. *Syntax:* **294–295**; forces in comparison, **300**; two comparatives, **301**.
Adverbial accusative, p. 209, ftn. 2; clauses, **239**; prefixes, **51**, **218**, 1.
Adversative conjunctions, **310**.
Adversative idea, expr. by abl. absolute, **421**, 5; by partic., **604**, 2; by quī-cl. w. subj., **523**, w. indic., **569**, *a*; by cum-cl. w. subj., **525**, **526**; w. indic., **569**, *a*; by quamquam-cl. w. indic., **556**.
Aenēās, decl., **68**.
aequē ac, **307**, 2, *a*; w. sī, w. subj., **504**, 3.
Agency, nouns of, **80**, 1, **206**, 1.
Agent, expr. by abl. w. ab, **406**, 1; by dat., **373**.
Agreement, of nouns, prons., adjs., and partics., **316–327**; of pred. depending on infin. w. putor, videor, etc., **590**, 2; poetic nom. in pred. of infin. for acc., **592**, *a*; agreement of verbs, **328–332**; agreement w. antecedent of rel., **328**, 1, *a*.
aiō, conj., **198**, 1; ain, form, **231**, 1, *b*), n. 3.
aliquis, aliquī, decl., **142**, 2; use, **276**, 2.
aliter atque (ac), **307**, 2, *a*.
alius, decl., **112**, *a*; meaning, **279**; as recipr. pron., **265**; w. atque or ac, **307**, 2, *a*.
Alliteration, **632**, 19.
Alphabet, **1**.
alter, decl., **112**, *a*, *c*; meaning, **279**, 1, 2; as recipr. pron., **265**.
Alternative questions, **234**.
amb-, am-, **51**, 3, **218**, 1, *b*).
ambō, decl., **131**, 2, n.; use, **277**.
amō, conj., **155**.
amplius, w. abl., or without effect on case, **416**, *d*.
an, **234**; in absurd questions, **236**.
Anacolúthon, **631**, 8.
Analogy, working of, **315**, 4.
Anáphora, **632**, 5.
Anástrophe, **631**, 14.
Anchīsēs, decl., **68**.
Andromachē, decl., **68**.
Animals, gend. of names of, **59**, 2.
animī, *in mind*, **449**, *c*.

Answers, forms of, **232**, 233.
ante, form in cpds., **51**, 4; w. acc., **380**; cpds. of, w. dat., **376**; in expressions of time, w. acc., **380**, example, or abl., **424**, example; as adv., **303**, *c*.
Antecedent, defined, **281**, *a*; omission of, **284**, 1; incomplete, **521**, 1, *a*; repeated, **284**, 4; attracted to rel., *ib*., 6; **327**.
Antepenult, **31**, 2.
antequam or priusquam, w. subj., **507**, 4, *a*)–*d*); w. fut. perf. or fut. indic., *ib*., n.; w. pres. indic., **571**; w. past tenses of indic., **550**, *b*.
Anticipation, expr. by subj., **506–509**; by fut. perf. or fut. indic., **507**, 4, n. to *a*)–*d*); by pres. indic., **571**.
Anticipatory subjunctive, **506–509**.
Aoristic tenses, **466**, 2, **467**, 2; of indic., **468**, n.; of subj., **470**, 2.
"Apodosis," see Conclusion, **573–582**.
Application, gen. of, **354**.
"Appositive genitive," **341**.
Appositive words, **317**, 2; agreement of, **319**, I, **320**, II; w. names of towns where, whither, whence, **452**; attracted by dat., **326**, 3; often put w. a rel., **327**; acc. in apposition to a sentence, **395**; nom. instead of voc., **401**; position of, **624**, 5.
apud, w. acc., **380**, **454**, 4.
Arsis, p. 351, ftn. 5.
Article, lacking in Latin, **221**, *e*.
-ās, old gen. sing. in, **66**, 1.
-āscō, verbs in, **168**, *F*, *a*, **212**, 2.
Asides, quī, cum, etc., in, **567**.
"Asking," see "Inquiring" and "Requesting."
Aspirates, **6**, 5, **11**, **12**, **14**, 2, n.
Assimilation of consonants, **49–51**.
Association of ideas, **315**, 2.
Asyndeton, **305**, I, *a*.
at, at enim, etc., **310**, 1, *a–c*.
atque or ac, **307**, 2; choice of forms, *ib*., 3, *c*; used w. īdem, alius, etc., *ib*., 2, *a*.
atquī, **310**, 3.
Attempted action, tenses of, **484**.
Attendant circumstances, abl. of, **422**.
Attraction, agreement of prons., adjs., and partics. by, **326**, 1–5; of verb by, **332**; adj. attracted into rel. cl., **284**, 7; appositive attracted into rel. cl., **327**; subj. by attraction, **539**.
Attributive words, **317**, 1; agreement, **320**, I.
audeō, semi-depon., **161**.
audiō, conj., **159**; w. cum-cl., **524**, *a*; w. partic., **605**, 1; w. infin., *ib*., n.
aut, **308**, 1, 3, *a*; correlative, **309**.
autem, **310**, 2, *a*, *b*; position, **624**, 8, *b*.
Auxiliary and principal tenses, **477**, *c*.
Auxiliary verb, **153**, **164**, **8**.

bellī, *in war*, **449**, *a*.
bene, compar., **129**.
bonus, decl., **110**; compar., **122**.
bōs, decl., **92**.
Brachýlogy, **631**, 2.
Bucolic diaeresis, **641**, *c*, n. 2.

Caesar, decl., **80**, 3; Caesarēs, pl., **103**, n.
Caesura, **640**, **641**; masc. and fem., **641**, *a*.
Calendar, **660–671**.
Calends, Kalendae, **664**.
"Can," "could," how expr., see Capacity.
Capacity, expr. by potential subj., **516**, **517**; by possum w. infin., **586**.
caput, decl., **76**, **77**, 5; gen. of penalty, **343**; abl. of penalty, **428**, *b*.
Cardinal numbers, **130**, **131**.
Cases, form, **61**, **62**; endings, **62–64**; earliest meanings of, **334**.
causā, *on account of*, case, **444**, *d*; w. gen., **339**, *d*; w. gerundive, **612**, I.
Causal-adversative quī- or cum-cl., in subj., **523**, **525**, **526**; in indic., **569**, *a*.
Cause or reason expr. by abl., **444**; by abl. absolute, **421**, 4; by prep. phrases, **444**, *b*, *c*; by subj. quī- or cum-cl., **523**, **525**, **526**; by indic. quī- or cum-cl., **569**, *a*; by cl. w. quod, quia, quoniam, or quandō, **555**; by nōn quia, nōn quod, etc., w. subj., **535**, 2, *b*; by partic., **604**, 2.
cavē, in prohibitions, **501**, 3, *a*, 2), **502**, 3, *b*); without nē, *ib*., n. 2; w. short -e, **28**, 2, *b*).
-c(e), particle, **32**, n., **33**, **138**, 2, *c*.
cēlō, constrs. w., **393**.
cēnseō, w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *a*); w. cl. of obligation or propriety, **513**, 5; w. infin., **589**.
cētera, acc. of respect, **389**, *a*.
cēterī, meaning, **279**, 1, *a*.
"Characteristic" and "characterizing clause," see Descriptive clause.
Charge, gen. of, **342**.
Chiasmus, **628**.
circā, circum, circiter, w. acc., **380**; as advs., **303**, *c*.
circum-, form in cpds., **51**, 5; w. acc., **380**; cpds. of, w. acc., **386**, **391**, 2; w. dat., **376**.
Circumstances or situation, expr. by abl., **422**; by abl. absolute, **421**; by partic., **604**, 2; by cum-cl., **524**, **525**.
cis and citrā, w. acc., **380**.
citerior, compar., **123**.
Cities, gend. of names of, **58**, 2.
clam, adv., or prep. w. abl. or acc., **458**, 2.
Clause, definitions: principal or dep. (subordinate), **224**, 1; coördinate, **225**; det., p. 260, ftn. 1; descr., p. 260, ftn. 2; conditional, **228**, 2; free, p. 302, ftn.; subst., **238**; adv., **239**; individual and generalizing, **576**, **577**.
Climax, **632**, 11.
coepī, conj., **199**, 2; voice of infin. w., *ib*.
Cognate acc., see Kindred meaning, **396**.

cognōvī etc., force of tenses, **487**.
cōgō, w. acc., **397**, 1; w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *a*); w. infin., **587**; w. cl. of actuality, **521**, 3, *a*).
Collective noun, **240**, 3; agreement w., **325**, **331**, 1.
com-, see con-.
Combinations of tenses, usual, **476**, **477**; less usual, **478**; mechanical harmony of subj. tenses, **480**; tenses depending on pres. perf., **481**; permanent truths depending on past tenses, **482**.
Command, expr. by imper., **496**, **501**, 3, *b*; by subj., **501**, 3, *a*, *b*; by fut. indic., **572**; in ind. disc., **538**.
Common nouns, **240**, 2.
"Common" syllable, **28**, 5, n.
commonefaciō, commoneō, constr. w., **351**.
commūnis, w. either gen. or dat., **339**, *c*.
Comparative, case constrs. w., **416**, **417**; w. quam and quī- or ut-cl., **521**, 2, *c*.
Comparatives, decl., **116**, **118**; formation, see Comparison.
Comparison: of adjs., formation, **119–123**; forces of degrees, **241**, 1–4; two compars., **242**; comparison of advs., **128–129**; forces of degrees, **300**; two compars., **301**.
Comparison, imaginative, w. quasi, etc., and subj., **504**, 3.
Complementary infinitive, defined, **586**, *a*.
Complex sentence, **223**, 3.
Composition of words, **213–218**; quantity in cpds., **24**; accent in, **31**, 3; vowel-change in, **42**; assimilation of prep. in, **50**, **51**; redupl. perf. of cpds., **173**, *D*, *a*.
Composition or material, gen. of, **349**.
Compound sentence, **223**, 2.
Compounds of verb and prep., w. dat., **376**, **377**; w. dat. and acc., **376**, *a*; w. acc., **391**, 2; w. dat. or acc., *ib.*, *a*.
con-, com-, form in cpds., **51**, 6; cpds. of, w. dat., **376**.
"Conative action," tenses of, **484**.
Concern, dat. of, **366**.
Concession of indifference, expr. by imper., **497**, 2; by subj., **532**, 1; by subj. cl. w. quamvīs etc., **532**, 2.
Concessive, see Concession, and Adversative.
Conclusions, see Conditions.
Concrete nouns, **240**, 4.
Concrete object for wh., dat. of, **361**.
"Condemning," gen. w., **342**, **343**.
Condensed comparison, **631**, 3.
Conditional sentence or cl., **228**, 2, **577**; see also Conditions.
Conditions and conclusions, generalizing and individual distinguished, **576**; three types, **575–581**; in ind. dis., **534**, 1, *b*, **536**.
cōnfīdō, w. dat., **362**, II; w. abl., **437**.
coniciō, quantity of first syll., **30**, 1.
Conjugation of verbs, **54**, **145–201**; of sum, **153–154**; conjs. distinguished, **148**; first conj., **155**; second, **156**; third, **157**; fourth, **159**; of depon., **160**; periphr., **162**; peculiarities in, **163–165**; variation between conjs., **185**; of irreg. verbs, **190–197**; of defect. verbs, **198–200**; of impers. verbs, **201**.
Conjunctions, origin, **125**; defined, **304**; coördinating, **305** and 1; copulative, **307**; disjunctive, **308**; advers., **310**; inferential, **311**; subordinating, **312**.
Connection, gen. of, **339**.
cōnscius, gen. w., **354**; dat. w., **363**, 1, *b*).
Consecutive clauses defined, **519**, 3, *a*, **521**, 1, *e*; of ideal certainty, **519**, 2, 3; of actuality, **521**, 1–3.
Consent, expr. by imper., **496**; by subj., **531**, 1, 2; by indic., **571**, **572**.
cōnsistō, constrs. w., **438**, 3.
Consonants, **2**; classif., **6–8**, **12**; pronunc., **11**; changes of, **47–49**; stems in, **74**, *A*, **75–86**.
cōnstituō, w. vol. subj. or infin., **586** and *e*.
cōnstō, constrs. w., **438**, 1, 3, *a*, *b*.
Construction, defined, **314**, 3.
cōnsuēvī etc., force of tenses, **487**.
cōnsulō, w. dat. or acc., **367**.
"Contention," w. cum and abl., **419**, 4; w. dat., **363**, 2, *c*); w. acc., **397**, 2.
contentus, w. abl., **438**, 4.
contrā, w. acc., **380**; w. atque (ac), **307**, 2, *a*.
Contraction of vowels, **45**; quantity resulting from, **19**; of vowels, in poetry, **658**.
Contrast, ut-cl. of, *while* . . . (*yet*), **563**.
Coördinate clauses, **225**.
Coördinate sentences, **223**, 2.
Coördinating conjunctions, **305–311**.
Copula, **230**, *a*.
Copulative compounds, **216**, 1.
Copulative conjunctions, **307**, **309**.
cōram, abl. w., **407**, 1.
Corrective aut, sīve, vel, **308**, 3, *a*; quam-quam, etsī, tametsī, **310**, 7.
Correlatives, **144**.
Countries, gend. of names of, **58**, 2.
crēdō, w. dat., **362**, II; w. acc., **364**, 3.
cui, pronunc., **10**, *d*, **140**, *a*.
cuius, pronunc., **29**, 2, *a*, **140**, *a*.
cum, prep., in cpds., **51**, 6; w. soc. abl., **418**; mēcum, etc., *ib.*, *a*; ideas expr. by, **419**.
cum-clauses: descr. cl. of ideal certainty, **519**, 2; of actuality, **521**, 1; descr. cl. of situation, **524**; of situation, w. caus. or advers. idea, **525**; purely caus. or advers. cl., **526**; of repeated action, **540**; determining a time, **550** and *a*; of the time included in the reckoning, **550** and ftn. 2; of equivalent action, **551**; subst., **553**; aor. narr. cl. (cum prīmum), **557**, *a*; cum . . . tum . . . , **564**; cum in forward-moving cl., **566**; "cum inversum," *ib.*, *a*; parenthetical cl. and "asides," **567**; loosely attached descr. cl., **568**; free descr. cl., **569**; tacit caus. or advers. cl., *ib.*, *a*;

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general conditions, **577**, ftn. 3; see also examples, **579**, **581**.
cupiō, w. dat. or acc., **367**; w. gen., **352**, 3; w. subj., **511**, 2; w. infin., **586**, **587**.
cūr, w. subj. of obligation, **513**, 1, 2; of natural likelihood, **515**, 1, 2.
cūrō, w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *a*); w. gerundive, **612**, III.
Customary action, tenses of, **484**.

Dactyl, **637**; dactylic hexameter, **639**; dactylic pentameter, **642**.
Dates, how expr., **664–669**.
Dative, *Form:* sing., decl. IV, in **-ū**, **97**, 2; decl. V, in **-ēī** or **-eī**, **100**, 1; in **-ē**, *ib.*, 2; pl., decl. I, in **-ābus**, **66**, 4; decl. IV, in **-ubus**, **97**, 1. *Syntax:* see synopsis, **359**.
dē, in cpds., **24**, 2.
dē, w. abl., **405**, **406**, 3, 4; for gen. of whole, **346**, *e*; w. verbs of separation, **408**.
dēbeō, moods and tenses of, **582**, 3; w. infin., **586**.
decet, w. acc., **390**, *a*; w. subj., **513**, 5; w. infin., **585**.
Declarative sentence or clause, **228**, 1.
Declension, **54**, **55**; the five decls. of nouns, **63**; endings, **64**; I, **65–68**; II, **69–73**; III, **74–95**; IV, **96–98**; V, **99–101**; nouns variable in, **107**; of adjs., **110–118**; of comparatives, **116**; of partics., **117**; of numerals, **131**; of prons., **134–142**.
Defective nouns, **102–104**, **106**; defect. compar., **123**; verbs, **198–201**.
"Defining" genitive, **341**.
Degree, acc. of, **387**.
Degree, cl. determining the, **550**, and ftn. *c*.
Degree of difference, abl. of, **424**.
Degrees of comparison, **119**.
Deliberation, expr. by subj., **503**; by pres. indic., **571**; by fut. indic., **572**.
Demand, expr. by vol. subj., **500**, **502**, 3, *a*).
"Demonstrative," see Determinative.
Denominative verbs, p. 98, ftn. 1, **211**; of conj. I, **211**, 1, **212**, n., **166**, 1, 2; of conj. II, **211**, 3, **167**, 1, *c*; of conj. III, **211**, 4, **168**, *H*, 1; of conj. IV, **211**, 2, **169**, 1.
Dentals, **7**, 2, **12**; changes of, **49**, 4, 5, 8, 10.
Dependent clause, **224**, 1 and *a*.
Dependent compounds, **216**, 3.
Deponent verbs, defined, **145**, **160**; originally reflexive, **238**, 3, *b*; voice meanings of, **291**, *a–d*; perf. pass. partic. of, w. act. meaning, **602**, 1, *a*.
Deprecated act, w. **antequam**, etc., and subj., **507**, 4, *d*); w. indic., **571**.
"Depriving," abl. w., **408**.
Derivation of nouns and adjectives, **203–210**; derivatives, primary and secondary, **203**; vowel-quantity in, **23**, 2.
Descent, words denoting, **207**, 3.
Descriptive compounds, **216**, 2.
Descriptive genitive, **355**; abl., **443**; tenses, **466**, 1, *a*; descr. cl. defined, p. 260, ftn. 2; clauses: see synopses, **499**, **543**.
Desideratives, **212**, 3.
Desire, see Wish, **511**, 1.
dēspērō, w. dat. or acc., **367**; w. acc., **391**, 1.
dēterior, comparison, **123**.
Determinative cl., p. 260, ftn. 1; see synopses, **499**, **543**.
Determinative-descriptive pronouns, decl., **137**, **138**; distinctive meanings of **hic**, **iste**, **ille**, **is**, and of **tālis**, **tantus**, **tot**, **271**.
deus, decl., **71**, 5.
Diaeresis, bucolic, **641**, *c*, n. *c*.
Diastole, **654**, ftn. 3.
dīc, imper., **164**, 1.
dīcō, w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *a*); w. infin., **589**; in subj. in cl. of reason, **535**, 2, *a*, n. 3.
Dīdō, decl., **95**, *b*.
diēs, decl., **99**; gend. **101**.
"Difference" or "aversion," abl. w., **412**; poetic dat. w., **363**, 2, *c*).
difficilis, comparison, **120**, 2, *a*.
dignus, w. abl., **442**; w. subj. cl., **513**, 3; w. supine in **-ū**, **619**, 2; w. infin., **598**, 2, *c*).
Diminutive adjectives, **207**, 1.
Diphthongs, **5**; pronunc. in Latin, **10**.
Direct discourse, explained, **533**.
Direct object, acc. of, **390**, **391**.
Direct reflexive, **262**, 1.
Direction or relation expr. by dat., **362**, I–III; w. **ad**, **in**, etc., **384**, 2; poetic dat. of direction in space, **375**.
dis-, **24**, 1, **51**, 7, **218**, 1, *b*.
Disjunctive conjunctions, **308**, **309**.
"Distance," see Extent of space, acc., **387**, I, and degree of difference, abl., **424**.
Distich, elegiac, **642**, *a*, ftn. 6.
Distributive numerals, **133**; used for cardinals, **247**.
Distributive pronouns, **142**, **278**.
diū, comparison, **129**.
doceō, constr. w., **393** and *b*, 1).
domus, decl., **97**, 5; **domī**, loc. form, **71**, 6; gend., **98**, *a*; of place where, whither, whence, **449–451**; w. modifiers, **454**.
dōnec, see **dum**.
Double consonants, **11**.
"Double questions," **234**.
"Doubt," w. **quīn**, **519**, 4, *b*); **521**, 3, *b*).
"Dubitative subjunctive," see Deliberation.
dubitō, w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *b*); w. antic. subj., **506**, 2, *b*); of ideal certainty, **519**, 4, *b*); of actuality, **521**, 3, *b*); w. infin., **586**.
dūc, imper., **164**, 1.
duim, **duīs**, **duit**, etc., **197**, *a*.
dum, **dōnec**, **quoad**, w. antic. subj., **507**, 5; w. fut. perf. or fut. indic., *ib.*, *a*; w. pres. indic., **571**; determining time up to wh., **550** and *b*; narr. cl. w., **560**; determining time during wh., **550** and *b*; **dum**-cl. of

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situation, 559; replacing pres. pass. partic., 602, 2; subj. dum-cl. of proviso, 529.
dummodo, in cl. of proviso, 529.
duo, decl., 131, 2.
Duration of time, expr. by acc., 387, II; by per and acc., *ib.*, *a*; by abl., 440.

ē, prep., see ex.
ecquis? decl., 141, *b*; use, 275, 6.
edō, conj., 196; edim, edīs, etc., 196, *a*.
efficiō, w. vol. cl., 502, 3, *a*); w. cl. of fact, 521, 3, *a*).
"Effort," w. vol. cl., 502, 3, *a*).
egeō, w. gen., 347; w. abl., 425, *a*.
ego, decl., 134; egomet, *ib.*, *d*.
eius, pronunc. and quantity, 29, 2, *a*; 137, *a*; eius modī, descr. gen., 355.
Elegiac stanza, 642, *a*.
Elision, see Slurring.
Ellipsis, 631, 1.
Emphasis, obtained by order, 625–628.
Emphatic future-perfect, 490 and *a*.
Emphatic perfect, 490.
Enállage, 631, 9.
Enclitics defined, 33, 1; quantity of, 28, 2, *d*; question of accent before, 32, n.
"End of motion," expr. by prep. w. acc., 385; by poetic dat., 375.
Endeavor, expr. by vol. subj., 500.
Endings, inflectional, origin, 203, ftn. 2; of nouns, 64; of verbs, 151.
Energetic or emphatic perf., 490.
enim, meaning and position, 311, 6.
Entreaty, expr. by imper., 496; by subj., 530.
eō, conj., 194.
eō . . . quō, of degree of difference, 424.
Epistolary tenses, 493.
equidem, use of, 257, *a*.
Equivalent action, cl. of, 551.
ergā, w. acc., 380, 364, 7.
ergō, 311, 1; w. gen., 339, *d*.
-ēscō, verbs in, 168, *F*, *a*, 212, 2.
esse, often omitted, 584, *e*.
Essential part, see Attraction.
est and noun, dat. of reference w., 366, *a*; est, w. potential descr. cl., 517, 2; w. descr. cl. of ideal certainty, 519, 2; of actuality, 521, 1; w. subst. cl. of actuality, 521, 3, *a*); w. infin., 598, 3.
et, 307, 1, *a*, *c*; = etiam, 302, 2 and *b*; et . . . et, et . . . neque, neque . . . et, 309.
etenim, 311, 6, *a*.
Ethical dative, 372.
etiam, in answers, 232, 1; meaning and position, 302, 2; often added to sed or vērum, 310, 4, *b*.
etiamsī and etsī, = *although*, 582, 8.
etsī, "corrective," 310, 7.
Euphemism, 632, 12.
ex or ē, in cpds., 51, 8; choice of forms, 405, *b*; w. abl., 405, 406; of point of view, 406, 2; w. verbs of separation, 408.
"Exchanging," w. abl., 431.
Exclamation, acc. of, 399; nom. of, *ib.*, *a*; infin. of, 596.
Exclamatory sentence, 228, 3; questions, 503.
Exhortation, expr. by vol. subj., 501, 2; by fut. indic., 572.
Explanatory genitive, 341.
Explicative quod-cl., p. 296, ftn.
Explicit causal or adversative quī- or cum-cl., 523, *a*, 526.
exspectō, w. antic. subj., 507, 2; w. infin. 593, *a*.
Extent of space, acc. of, 387; abl. of, 426, *c*.
exterus, exterior, extrēmus, 123.
extrā, w. acc., 380.

fac, imper., 164, 1.
facilis, comparison, 120, 2; w. supine in -u, 619, 1; w. ad and gerundive, *ib.*, *a*.
faciō, accent of cpds. of, 31, 3; non-prep. forms, 218, 3; w. vol. subj., 502, 3, *a*); w. cl. of actuality, 521, 3, *a*); w. infin., 587, ftn. 1, 605, 1, n.
Fact, indic. of, 462, 544; subj. of, in consec. cls., 520, 521, 3, *a*), *b*).
"Factitive object," see Result produced.
falsus, comparison, 123, *a*.
famēs, abl., famē, 88, 5.
familiās, 66, 1.
fārī, conj., 198, 3.
fās, indecl., 106, 2; fās est, w. infin., 585; fās w. supine, 619, 1.
faxō, faxim, 163, 5.
Fear, subj. cl. of, 502, 4.
Feminine caesura, 641, *a*.
Feminines, see Gender.
fer, imper., 164, 1.
ferē, fermē, position of, 624, 13, *a*.
ferō, conj., 193; dat. w., 365; w. infin., 594.
-fīcus, comparison of cpds. in, 120, 3.
fīdō, 161; w. dat., 362, II; w. abl. 437.
fīdus, comparison, 123, *a*.
Field in which, expr. by in w. abl., 434, 2.
Fifth declension, 99–101.
Figurative use of cases, moods, etc., 315, 1.
Figures of syntax, 631; of rhetoric, 632.
fīlia, decl., 66, 4.
fīlius, gen. and voc., fīlī, 71, 3.
"Final clauses," p. 260, ftn. 3.
Final consonants, changes in, 49, 13.
"Fine," abl. of, 428.
fīnis, decl., 87, 88, 2, *d*; sing. and pl., 105.
Finite forms of verb, defined, 146.
fīō etc., quantity of i in, 21, 1; conj., 195; defect. cpds. w., 195, *a*; abl. w., 423, *b*.
First conjugation, 148, 155; pres. stem, 166; denom., 211, 1.
First declension of nouns, 65–68.
First and second declension of adjectives, 110–112.
"Fitness," adjs. of, w. dat., 362; w. ad, 384, 2, *a*.

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flāgitō, cases w., **393** and *b*, 2).
Foot, defined, **635**.
forās, adv., **126**, 7, n.
fore, forem, etc., **154**, 1, 2.
fore or futūrum ut . . . = fut. infin., **472**, *c*.
Forestalled act, in subj. w. antequam or priusquam, **507**, 4, *b*).
"Forgetting," "remembering," and "recalling," constrs. w., **350**.
forīs, *out of doors*, **449**, *a*.
Formal ut, p. 261, ftn. 2.
Formation of verb-stems, **166–184**; of words, **202–218**.
forsitan, w. potential subj., **517**, 1.
Forward-moving clauses, **566**.
Fourth conjugation, **159**; pres. stem, **169**.
Fourth declension, **96–98**.
Free clause, defined, p. 302, ftn.; free descriptive clause, **569**.
Freer neuter accusative modifiers, **397**.
Frequentatives, **166**, 2, **212**.
Fricatives, **6**, 3, **12**.
frūgī, compar., **122**; as adj., p. 190, ftn. 2.
fruor, w. abl., **429**; w. acc., *ib.*, *b*; in gerundive constr., **613**, 2, n.
fuī, etc., for sum, etc., as auxiliaries, **164**, 8.
Fullness, adjs. of, **209**, 2; see Plenty.
fungor, w. abl., **429**; w. acc., *ib.*, *b*; in gerundive constr., **613**, 2, n.
Fusion, explained, **315**, 3.
Future conditions, more vivid, **579**, *a*; less vivid, **580**; past-fut., **508**, **509**, **580**, *b*, *c*.
Future, INDICATIVE: *Form*, **172**; in -ībō, **164**, 5; meanings of tense, **468**, 3 and *a*, **484**, **485**, **486**, 2; special uses, **572**; SUBJUNCTIVE: how replaced in Latin, **470**, 1, 4 and *a*, **508**; INFINITIVE: meaning of tense, **472** and *a*, *b*; active, *form*, **178**, 3; passive, *form*, *ib.*; PARTICIPLE: active, verbal adj., **146**; in periphr. conjs., **162**; *form*, **182**; meaning of tense, **600**, 2; passive, verbal adj., **146**; in periphr. conj., **162**; in conjs. III and IV, **164**, 2; *form*, **184**; meaning of tense, **600**, 3 and *b*.
Future perfect, INDICATIVE: *Form*, **163**, 5, **164**, 6, **174**, 2; meaning, **468**, 6; as emphatic fut., **490**; SUBJUNCTIVE: how replaced in Latin, p. 244, ftn. 1.
Futures, periphr., see Periphrastic.
futūrum esse ut . . . = fut. infin., **472**, *c*.
futūrus, as adj., **248**.

gaudeō, **161**; w. acc., **397**, 2; w. abl., **444**, *a*; w. infin., **594**; w. quod-cl., **555**.
Gender, **56–59**; decl. I, **67**; decl. II, **72**; decl. III, **94** (summary), **78**, **81**, **84**, **86**, **89**, **91**, 2; decl. IV, **98**; decl. V, **101**; nouns variable in, **108**.
General "truths" or "customs," expr. by pres., **468**, 1, *b*.
Generalizing clause, **576**; indic., **579** and ftn.; subj. in 2d sing. indef., **504**, 2.
Generalizing pronouns, **282**; the same used w. merely indef. meaning, **283**.
Genitive, *Form:* sing., decl. I, in -ās, **66**, 1; in -āī, *ib.*, 2; decl. II, in -ī of nouns in -ius, -ium, **71**, 2, 3; in -iī of adjs. in -ius, **110**, *a*; of pronom. adjs., **112**; decl. IV, -ī, **97**, 4, 5; decl. V, in -eī, -ēī, and -ī, **100**, 1, 2, 3; pl., decl. I, in -um, **66**, 3; decl. II, in -um, **71**, 4; of ducentī, etc., in -um, **131**, 4; decl. III, in -um and -ium, **75**; in adjs., **118**, 1; decl. IV, in -ūm, **97**, 3. *Syntax:* see synopsis, **338**.
Gerund, *Form*, **184**.
Gerundive and gerund, nature of, **609–611**; common uses, **612**, **613**; gend. of gerundive, w. meī nostrī, etc., **614**; rarer uses, **615**, **616**.
"Gnomic perfect," **488**.
Grammatical gender, **56**, *b*.
grātiā, w. gen., **339**, *d*; of gerundive, **612**, I.
"Greek accusative," see Acc. of respect.
Greek nouns, decl. I, **68**; decl. II, **73**; decl. III, **95**.
Growth of meanings in constructions, **315**.
Gutturals, **7**, 3, **12**; changes of, **49**, 2, 3; stems in, **76**, **77**, 1.

habeō, w. potential cl., **517**, 2; w. infin., **597**, 2; w. perf. pass. partic., **605**, 5.
habētō, tense, how used, **496**, *c*.
Habitual action, tenses of, **484**.
haereō, constr. w., p. 193, ftn.
Harmony, ut-cl. of, **563**.
haud, use of, **297** and *a*.
havē, see avē.
Hendiadys, **631**, 5.
"Hesitating," w. nē, quīn, or quōminus, **502**, 3, *b*); w. infin., **586**.
Heteroclites, **107**.
Heterogeneous nouns, **108**.
Hexameter, dactylic, **639**.
Hiatus, **647**.
hic, quantity, **30**; decl., **138**, 1; hoc, quantity, **30**; huius, huic, pronunc., **10**, *d*, **138**, *b*; meaning and uses of hic, **271–273**; hic . . . ille, "the former" . . . "the latter," **274**, 2; as indefinites, *ib.*, *b*.
hīc, adv., quantity, **25**, 1; *form*, **127**, 7.
Hidden quantity, **16**, n. 2; list, **679**.
hiem(p)s, **49**, 7; decl., **83**, 4.
Highly improbable future conclusion, **581**, *c*.
hinc . . . illinc, **406**, 2, first example.
Hindrance, w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *b*).
Historical infinitive, **595**.
"Historical perfect," **468**, 4, *a*, ftn. 3.
Historical present, **491**, 1.
"Historical" tenses, p. 247, ftn. 2.
hoc, see hic.
"Hoping," constr. w., **593** and *a*.
"Hortatory" subjunctive, see **501**, 2.
hortor, w. neut. acc. pron., **397**, 1; w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *a*); w. infin., **587**.

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humī, loc., **71**, 6, **449**, *a*.
humilis, comparison, **120**, *c*.
Hypállage, **631**, 10.
Hypérbaton, **631**, 13.
Hypérbole, **632**, 2.
Hypermetric verse, **641**, *c*, n. 4.
Hýsteron próteron, **631**, 12.

I, letter, **1**, *a*, n.; consonantal **i**, **11**.
i, consonantal, sometimes becomes vowel in poetry, **656**, 1; vocalic, sometimes becomes consonantal in poetry, **656**, 2.
i-stems, **87**-**89**.
-ia, suffix, **207**, 2.
iaciō, cpds. of, spelling, and quantity of first syll., **30**, 1.
iam, compared w. **nunc**, **302**, 4, 5.
iam diū, iam prīdem, etc., w. tenses of action in progress, **485**.
Iambic shortening, **28**, n., **649**.
Iambus, **637**, *b*.
-ībam, imperf. indic. of conj. IV, **164**, 4.
-ībō, fut. of conj. IV, **164**, 5.
Ictus, **634**; relation to accent, **644**, **645**.
id quod, **325**, *a*, n. 2.
Ideal certainty, subj. of, **518**, **519**.
īdem, decl., **137**; use, **270**; w. **quī** or **atque**, *ib*., *b*.; w. dat., **363**, 2, *e*).
Identifying pronoun, see **īdem**.
Ides, **Īdūs**, **664**; use in dating, **665**-**671**.
idōneus, comparison, **121**; w. dat., **362**; w. **ad** and acc., **364**, 6; w. **quī** or **ut**, **513**, 3.
Īdūs, gend., **98**, *a*. See also Ides.
iēns, pres. act. partic. of **eō**, **183**.
-ier, infin. in, **164**, 3, **178**, 2.
igitur, position of, **311**, 2.
"Illative" conjunctions, **311**.
ille, decl., **138**, 1; meaning and uses, **271**-**274**, 1; **hic** . . . **ille** . . . , **274**, 2; **ille** w. descr. **quī**-cl., **521**, 1; w. **ut**-cl., **521**, 2, *b*; position of **ille**, **624**, 2.
illīc, decl., **138**, 2, *c*.
illīc, adv., quantity of final syllable, **25**, 1; accent, **32**, 1.
Imaginative comparison, cl. of, **504**, 3.
immō, **233**.
immūnis, w. gen., **354**; w. abl., p. 224, ftn. 1.
Imperative, endings of, **151**, *b*.
Imperative, synopsis of uses, **495**; tenses of, **496**; imper. of command, advice, etc., *ib*.; w. **quīn**, *ib*., *b*; in prohibitions, *ib*., *d*; replaced by vol. subj. in ind. disc., **538**.
Imperfect, meanings common to all forms: of progressive action, **466**, 1 and ftn., **470**, 1; of habitual action, **484**; of attempted action, *ib*.; w. **iam diū**, etc., **485**; INDICATIVE: *form*, **171**; in **-ībam**, **164**, 4, **171**, n.; meaning, **468**, 2; of discovery, **486**, 1; epistolary, **493**; SUBJUNCTIVE: *form*, **175**, *a*; original meanings: progressive, **470**, 1; aor., **477**, *b*; in cls. of result, *ib*. and **521**, 2, examples; in wishes, **510**, *a*; in conditions and conclusions, **581**; imperf. contrary to fact retained in any combination of tenses, *ib*., n.
imperō, w. dat., **362**; w. dat. and acc., **364**, 4; w. subj., **502**, 3, *a*); w. infin., **587**, *b*.
Impersonal verbs, **201**, **287**; verbs in pass. w. dat., **364**, 2; impers. constr., generally preferred w. certain pass. infins., **580**, 1, *a*.
impetrō, w. subj. cl., **530**, 2.
īmus, *lowest part of*, **244**.
in, form in cpds., **51**, 9; w. acc., **380**. **381**, **385**; w. abl., **433**, **434**; use w. abl. of time, **439**, *a*; w. abl. of respect, **441**, *a*-*c*; often or reg. omitted w. abl. of certain words, **436**; freely omitted by poets, **433**, *a*; cpds. of, w. dat., **376**.
in-, negative prefix, **214**, 2.
Inchoatives ("Inceptives"), **212**, 2; perf. of, **188**, *F*, ftn.
Incomplete action, tenses of, **466**, 1, ftn.
Indeclinable nouns, **106**, 2; gend. of, **58**, 3.
"Indefinite antecedents," **521**, 1, *a*.
Indefinite idea distinguished from generalizing, **283**.
Indefinite pronouns, list of, **142**, **276**.
Indefinite second person in conditions, **504**, 2, **576**, *a*; in general statement of fact, **542**; w. potential subj., **517**, 1.
Indefinite subject, **286**.
Indefinite value, **356**.
Indicative, general force of, **462**, **544**; tenses of, **468**; tenses w. verbs and phrases of possibility, obligation, etc., **582**, 3, *a*); general uses, see synopsis, **543**; pres., pres. perf., and future, in special uses, **571**, **572**.
Indifference, expr. by imper., **496**; by subj., **531**; concession of, expr. by imper., **497**, 2; by subj., **532**, 1; w. **quamvīs**, *ib*., 2; w. **licet**, *ib*., *a*; w. **ut**, *ib*., *b*.
indigeō, w. gen., **347**, *a*; w. abl., **425**, *a*.
Indignation, expr. by subj., **503**; by fut. indic., **572**; by infin., **596**.
indignus, w. abl., **442**; rarely w. gen., **354**, *c*, example; w. subj. rel. cl., **513**, 3; w. supine in **-ū**, **619**, 2.
Indirect discourse, defined, **533**, **589**, **591**; prons. and persons in, **533**, *a*; INFINITIVE in ind. disc.: tenses, **593**; list of verbs and phrases governing, p. 318, ftn.; principal statements in infin., **534**, 1, **591**; constrs. of, may be used w. verbs not suggesting ind. disc., **534**, 1, *a*, **535**, 1, *a*, **536**, *a*; subord. cls. in, **534**, 2, **535**-**538**.
Indirect object, dat. of, **365** and *a*.
Indirect questions, of fact, **537** and ftn.; fut., how expr. in, **470**, 4, *a*; indic. in, **537**, *g*; antic. subj. in, **507**, 3.
"Indirect reflexive," **262**, 2.
Individual condition, see Condition.
Indo-European speech, **46**, ftn. 1; forces of cases in, **334**; of moods, **459**.
indulgeō, w. dat., **362**; w. acc., **364**, 4.

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Inferential conjunctions, **311**.
īnferior, comparison, **123**.
īnfimus, *lowest part of*, **244**.
Infinitives, *Form*, **178**. *Syntax:* synopsis of uses, **583**; gender, case relations, etc., **584**; tenses, **472**; in ind. disc., **534**, 1, **591**; tenses w. verbs of swearing, etc., **593**, *a*; w. verbs of remembering, *ib.*, *b*; w. verbs of obligation, propriety, etc., p. 311, ftn. 2; energetic or emphatic perfs., **490**; list of verbs taking ind. disc., p. 318, ftn.; ordinary uses: dependent, **585–594**, **597**, independent, historical, **595**, exclamatory, **596**; poetical and later prose uses, **598**; special points: complementary infin., **586**, *a*; omission of subject in ind. disc., **592**; w. parātus, suētus, etc., **586**, *f*; w. verbs of seeing, hearing, or representing, **605**, 1, n.; in rel. cls., **535**, 1, *b*; after quam, *ib.*, *c*.
Inflection, defined, **54**.
Informal indirect discourse, subj. of, **535**, 1, *a*, **536**, *a*.
īnfrā, w. acc., **380**.
innīxus, abl. w., **438**, 2, *a*; dat. w., *ib.*, *b*.
inops, w. gen., **347**, *a*; w. abl., **425**, *a*.
inquam, conj., **198**, 2; position of, **624**, 16.
"Inquiring," two acc. w., **393**; indirect question w., **537**, *b*.
Inquiry for instructions, in subj., **503**; in indic., **571**, **572**.
"Inseparable prepositions," see **218**, 1.
īnsidiae, pl. only, **104**, 4; dat. w., **363**, 1, *a*).
īnstar, gen. w., **339**, *d*.
Instrument, abl. of, **423**.
Instrument or means, ends. denoting, **206**, 6.
"Instrumental ablative," **61**, *b*, **423**.
"Integral part," see Subj. by attraction.
Intensive pronoun, see ipse.
Intensives (meditatives), **212**, 4.
Intention, expr. by vol. subj., **500**, **502**, 3, *a*), *b*), and ftns.; by fut. act. partic., **607**.
intentus, cases w., **438**, 5.
inter, form in cpds., **51**, 10; w. acc., **380**; cpds. of, w. dat., **376**; inter sē, etc., **266**.
interclūdō, w. dat., **366**, *c*; w. abl., **408**, 2.
interdīcō, w. dat., **366**, *c*; w. abl. **408**, 3.
"Interest," dat. of, see Reference, dat. of, **366–369**.
interest, cases w., **345**; w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *c*); w. infin., **585**.
interior, comparison, **123**.
Interjections, **221**, **313**.
Interrogative pronouns, **141**, **275**.
Interrogative sentence, see Questions.
intrā, w. acc., **380**.
Intransitive, see Voice and Verbs.
Intransitive verbs, passive of, **201**, *c*, **290**, *a*.
-iō, verbs in, of conj. III, **158**, **168**, I.
ipse, decl., **139**; use, **267–269**; agreement of, **268**; as reflex., **263**, **264**; meus ipsius, etc., **339**, *b*.
īrī, in fut. infin. pass., **178**, 3.
Irony, **632**, 4.
Irregular nouns of decl. III, **92**.
Irregular verbs, **170**; conj. of, **190–197**.
is, decl., **137**; meaning and uses, **271–274**; sometimes instead of sē, **262**, 2, *a*; w. quī-cl., det. **550**; descr., **521**, 1; w. ut-cl., **521**, 2, *b*.
-īs, acc. pl. in, **75**, *a*, **88**, 3, **118**, 4.
-īscō, inchoatives in, **212**, 2, **168**, *F*, *a*.
Islands, gend., **58**, 2; constrs. of place w., **449–451**.
iste, decl., **138**, 2; meaning, **271**, **274**, 4.
ita, in answers, **232**, 1; ita ut or nē, w. vol. subj., **502**, 2, *a*; ita ut, ut nōn, etc., **521**, 2, *d*; ita ut, of way by wh., *ib.*; ita sī, **578**, 5.
itaque, accent, **32**, 2, n.; use, **311**, 3.
iter, decl., **80**, 6.
"Iterative" subj., see Repeated action.
Iterative verbs, see Frequentatives, **212**, 1.
-itō, frequentatives in, **212**, 1.
iubeō, w. acc., **397**, 1; w. infin., **587**; w. subj., *ib.*, *b*; iubeor, w. infin., **588**.
iūgerum, decl., **107**, 2; as measure, **676**, *b*.
-ium, gen. pl. in, **64**, **88**, 4, **91**, 1, **118**, 1.
iungō, constr. w., **431**, *c*.
Iuppiter, decl., **92**.
iūrātus, *having sworn*, **161**, **290**, *a*, 4).
iūs, decl., **86**, 1; iūs est, w. cl. of obligation, **513**, 5; iūs est bellī, w. vol. cl., cf. **502**, 3, *c*), and ftn.
-ius, pronom. gen., quantity of i in, **21**, 2, **112**, n.; -ius in gen. in poetry, **653**.
-ius, suffix, **210**, 1, **215**, 2; gen. and voc. sing. of nouns in, **71**, 2, 3; of adjs. in, **110**, *a*.
iussū, abl. only, **106**, 1; case, **414**, *a*.
iuvenis, decl., **88**, 4; compar., **122**, **123**, *b*.
iūxtā, w. acc., **380**.
-īvī, perf. contracted, **173**, *A*; short forms of, **163**, 1, 3.

J, letter, **1**, n.
Judging, person, in dat., **370**.
"Jussive," see Volitive subjunctive.
Juxtaposition, in cpds., **214**, 3, **218**, 2.

K, letter, **1**, *a*.
Kindred meaning, acc. of, **396**.
"Knowing," w. infin., **589**.

Labials, **7**, 1, **12**; changes of, **49**, 8, 10; stems in, **76**, **77**, 1, **90**.
laetor, w. neut. acc. pron., **397**, 2; w. abl., **444**, *a*; w. infin., **594**.
laetus, w. force of adv., **245**; w. abl., **444**, *a*.
Leading idea not in principal noun, **333**.
Leap year, calendar for, **669**, **671**.
lēge, *by law*, **414**, *a*; *under the condition*, **436**, *b*.
Length, measures of, **676**.
Lengthening in poetry, **654**; see also **652**.

Less vivid future condition and conclusion, **580.**
līber, decl., **111**; constr. w., **411**, *a*, *b*.
līberī, pl. only, **104**, 4; gen. pl. of, **71**, 4, *b*).
līberō, *acquit*, w. gen., **342**; w. abl., **408**, 3 and exc. 1.
licet, conj., **201**; w. dat., **362**; w. subj., **531**, 2; =*although*, **532**, 2, *c*; w. infin., **585**; w. pred. dat., *ib.*, *c*.
"Likeness," adjs. of, w. dat., **362**, III; w. gen., **339**, *c*.
linguā, as loc. abl., **436**, *b*.
"Linguals," see Dentals.
Liquids, **6**, 1; stems in, **79–81**.
lītore, w. and without **in**, **436**.
Lítotes, **632**, 1.
Local point of view, dat. of, **370**, *a*.
Locative, *Form*, **61**, *b*; decl. I, **66**, 5; decl. II, **71**, 6; decl. III, **93**; in pron. advs., **127**, 7; **domī**, **humī**, etc., **449**, *a*; locative of names of towns, etc., **449**; appositive to, in abl. w. prep., **452**.
Locative ablative, **334**, 2.
locō, w. gerundive, **612**, III.
locus, pl. of, **108**, 2; **locō**, **locīs**, in abl. w. or without prep., **436**.
longius, w. abl., or without effect on case, **416**, *d*; w. abl. of noun of time, **417**, *a*.
longum est, etc., mood, **582**, 3, *b*).
Loosely attached descr. cl. w. **quī**, etc., **568**.

m, final, in slurring, **34**, **646**.
magis, use in compar., **121**.
magnopere, **magis**, **maximē**, compar., **129**.
magnus, compar., **122**; **magnī**, -ō, of value or price, **356**, 1, **427**, 2, *a*).
Main (or principal) sentence or cl., **224**, 1.
maior, w. **nātū**, **441**; w. **quam quī** or **ut**, **521**, 2, *c*.
maius, pronunc., **29**, 2, *a*.
male, quantity of e, **28**, 2, *c*); compar., **129**.
mālō, conj., **192**; w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *a*); w. infin., **586**, **587**; **mālim**, **māllem**, w. subj., =a wish, **519**, 1, *c*.
malus, compar., **122**.
maneō, *abide by*, constr. w., **438**, 2, *c*.
Manner, expr. by abl., **445**; by **ad**, **in**, or **per** w. acc., *ib.*, 3, *a*; by abl. absolute, **421**, 8; by partic., **604**, 5.
Masculine caesura, **641**, *a*.
Material, gen. of, **349**; may be expr. by **ex** (poetic **dē**) w. abl., **406**, 4; prep. may be omitted in poetry, *ib.*, *a*.
Material, suffix denoting, **209**, 1.
mātūrus, comparison, **120**, 1.
maximē, use in comparison, **121**.
maximī, gen. of value or price, **356**, 1.
"May," "might," expr. by potential subj., **516**, **517**; by **possum** w. infin., **586**.
Means, expr. by abl., **423**; by abl. absolute, **421**, 7; persons as means, **423**, *a*.
"Measure of difference," see **424**.
Measures of money, weight, etc., **672–677**.
mēcum, **418**, *a*.
Meditatives, **212**, 4.
medius, *the middle of*, **244**; w. abl. noun, **436** and *a*.
meī, gen. of ego, reg. objective, **254**, *a*.
melior, decl., **116**.
meminī, conj., **199**; case-constrs. w., **350** and *a*; w. infin., **589**; force of tenses, **199**, 1, **487**; **mementō**, **496**, *c*.
memor, **117**, *b*, **118**, 1, *a*, 2); w. gen., **354**.
-men, **-mentum**, suffixes, **206**, 3.
Mental action, obj. of, in gen., **350**, **351**.
-met, particle, **134**, *d*.
Metaphor, **632**, 13.
Metónymy, **632**, 9.
Metre, defined, **638**.
metuō, w. dat. or acc., **367**; w. subj. cl. w. **nē** or **ut**, **502**, 4; w. infin., **586**.
meus, decl., **136**, *a*; voc. **mī**, *ib.*
mī, dat. of ego, **134**.
Middle voice, p. 158, ftn.; w. acc., **390**, *b*.
mihi, quantity of final i, **28**, n., **134**, *a*; **mihī**, in poetry, *ib.*, **652**, 1.
mīles, final syll., **30**, 3, **49**, 4; decl., **76**.
mīlitiae, *in war*, *in the field*, **449**, *a*.
mīlle, **131**, 3; use, **131**, 3, 4.
minimē, compar., **129**; in answers, **232**, 2.
minimī, -ō, of value, **356**, 1; **427**, 2, *a*).
minor nātū, **441**; **minōris**, of value, **356**, 1.
minus, comparison, **129**; w. abl., or without effect on case, **416**, *d*; w. abl. of nouns of time, **417**, *a*.
mīror, conj., **160**; rare gen. w., **352**, 3.
misceō, constrs. w., **431** and *a*, *b*.
misereor, **miserēscō**, w. gen., **352**, 2.
miseret, acc. and gen. w., **352**, 1, **390**, *a*.
Mixed conditions and conclusions, **582**, 1.
Mixed stems, **74**, *C*, **90**, **91**.
"Modest (softened) statements," **519**, 1, *b*.
modo, short -o, **28**, 4; in cl. of proviso, **529**.
moneō, conj., **156**; w. neut. acc., **397**, 1; w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *a*); w. infin., **587**.
Money, Roman, **672–675**.
Monosyllables, quantity of, **25–28**.
Moods, **145**; mood-sign of subj., **175**; mood defined, **460**; table of forces, **462**; general sketch of historical relations, **459**.
Months, names of, **662**; gend., **58**, 1 and *a*.
mora, p. 344, ftn. 2.
mōre, of accordance, **414**, *a*; of manner, **445**, 1.
More vivid future condition and conclusion, **579**, *a*.
mōs est, w. vol. subj., **502**, 3, *c*); w. subj. cl. of actuality, **521**, 3, *a*); w. infin., **585**.
Motion toward, see Place whither, **385**.
multī sunt quī, subj. or indic. w., **521**, 1, *b*.
Multiplicatives, **133**.
multum, *much*, **126**, 6, n., **387**, 111; comparison, **129**.

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multus, comparison, **122**; denoting a part, **244**.
Mute and liquid, pronounced in same syll., **14**, 2, n.; separated in poetry, **655**.
Mutes or stops, **6**, 4, **12**; mute stems, **76**.

nam, use, **311**, 6.
-nam, interrogative enclitic, **231**, 2, n.
Names, Roman, **678**; in adoption, *ib.*, 4.
namque, **311**, 6, *a*.
Narrative clause, subj., w. **cum**, **524**; indic., w. **ubi**, etc., **557**; of situation, w. same, **558**; w. **dum**, **dōnec**, etc., **560**; w. **antequam** or **priusquam**, **561**; narr. partic., **604**, 2, n.
Nasalized vowels, **4**, 3; before **ns**, **11**, **18**; before **-m**, **34**, 2.
Nasals, **6**, 2, **12**; changes, **49**, 9; stems in, **82-84**; pres. w. inserted **n**, **168**, *C*.
nātū, abl. only, **106**, 1; w. **maior**, etc., **441**.
Natural gender, **56**, *a*.
Natural likelihood, subj. of, **514**, **515**.
nct, length of vowel before, **18**.
ne-, prefix, **24**, 3.
-ne, encl., interrog., **33**; added to forms in **-ce**, **138**, 2, *d*; shortened to **n**, **28**, n., **231**, n. 3; use and position, **231**, 1, *b*); **-ne . . . an**, **234**; **-ne . . . -ne**, *ib.*, *b*; w. exclamatory infin., **596**.
nē, *surely*, **302**, 8.
nē, *not*, *lest*, general statement of use, **464**, 1; fitting changed meaning, *ib.*, 2; details: w. imper., **496**; w. subj., see especially prohibitions, **501**, 3; cl. of purpose, **502**, 2; in vol. subst. cl., *ib.*, 3; in cl. of fear, *ib.*, 4; in wishes, **511**, 1; in opt. subst. cl., *ib.*, 2; sometimes in statements of obligation or propriety, **512**, *a*.
nē nōn, in cl. of fear, **502**, 4.
nē . . . quidem, *not even*, w. all moods, **464**, 1, *a*; simply adds emphasis, **298**, 2, *a*.
"Nearness," see dat. of relation, **362**.
nec, see **neque**.
nec enim, **311**, 6, *b*.
necesse est, w. vol. subj. cl., **502**, 3, *c*); w. infin., **585**.
necne, alternative in questions, **234**, *a*.
nēdum, *still less*, w. subj., **505**.
Negative particles, see **nē** and **nōn**; two negatives, **298**, 2.
nēmō, **106**, 3; for **nūllus**, **276**, 9, *c*, *d*.
nēquam, compar., **122**.
neque, **nec**, *and not*, **464**, 1; choice of forms, **307**, 3, *c*; correl., **309**.
nesciō, w. infin., **586**, **589**; **nesciō an**, **537**, *f*; **nesciō quis**, **quō pactō**, etc., **276**, 4; same not affecting mood, **537**, *e*.
neuter, pronunc., **10**, *b*; decl., **112**, *a*; use, **276**, 9; meaning in pl., *ib.*, *a*.
Neuter acc. as adv., **126**, 6, n., p. 209, ftn. 2.
Neuter adj. as pred. w. nouns of any gend., **325**, *c*; neut. pl. w. gen., **357**.
Neuters, see Gender.
nēve, **neu**, **301**, 3; use w. moods, see **nē**.
nf, length of vowel before, **18**.
nī, use, **578**, 4.
nihil (or **nīl**, quantity, **25**, 1, **45**), indecl., **106**, 2; as acc. of degree, **387**, **111**; constr. of adjs. w., **346**, *a*; **nihil reliquī faciō**, etc., **340**, *a*; **nihil abest quīn**, **502**, 3, *b*); **nihil est quod, quārē**, etc., **513**, 2.
nihilī, descr. gen., **355**, *a*; **nihilī, -ō**, of value or price, **356**, 2, **427**, 2, *b*).
nisi, **nisi sī**, forte, etc., **577**, **578**; **nisi** w. abl. absolute, **421**, 6, *a*; meaning *except* or *but*, **578**, 3, *b*.
nītor, w. abl., **438**, 1.
nōlī in prohibitions, **501**, 3, *a*, 2).
nōlō, conj., **192**; w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *a*); w. infin., **586**, **587**.
Nominative, *Form:* decl. III, p. 36, ftn., **75**, **77**, 1, **80**, **83**, **86**, n., **87**, **92**, n.; decl. IV, **96**; decl. V, **99**. *Syntax:* as subject, **335**; as attributive, appositive, or pred., **317-321**; in exclamations, **399**, *a*; for voc., **401**.
nōn, general statement of uses, **464**, 1.
nōn modo . . . sed nē . . . quidem, **299**.
nōn nēmō and **nōn nūllus**, **276**, 6 and *a*.
nōn quia, etc., w. subj., **535**, 2, *b*.
Nones, **Nōnae**, **664**; use in dating, **665-671**.
nōnne, interrog. particle, **231**, 1, *c*).
nōs = ego, noster = meus, **259**.
nostrī, objective, **nostrum**, gen. of the whole, **134**, *b*, **254**, *a*.
Nouns, gender, **56-59**; number, **60**; cases, **61-62**; decl., **63-108**; used only in sing., **103**; only in pl., **104**; w. different meaning in sing. and pl., **105**; defect. in case-forms, **106**; variable in decl., **107**; variable in gend., **108**; deriv. of, **203-207**; classification of cpds., **214**; verbal nouns, **146**; noun defined, **221**; kinds of, **240**; as adjs., *ib.*, 2, *b*; appos., **319**, 1; pred., *ib.*, II.
nōvī, etc., force of tenses, **487**.
ns, length of vowel before, **18**.
nūlla causa est cūr, quārē, quīn, etc., cf. **513**, 2.
nūllus, decl., **112**, *a*; use, **276**, 9 and *b*.
num, interrog. particle, **231**, 1, *d*); in indirect questions, **537**, *d*, 2).
Number, in nouns, **60**; in verbs, **145**; nouns used only in sing., **103**; only in pl., **104**; with difference in meaning, **105**; in agreement, **318-332**.
Numerals, **130-133**; uses, *ib.* and **247**.
numquis, decl., **141**, *b*, n.; use, **276**, 1.
nunc, compared w. **iam**, **302**, 4, 5.
nūper, comparison, **129**.
nx, length of vowel before, **18**.

ō sī, in virtual wish, **582**, 5.
ob, form in cpds., **51**, 11; w. acc., **380**; cpds. of, w. dat., **376**.

"Obeying," w. dat., **362**.
obiciō, quantity of first syll., **30**, 1.
Object, concrete obj. for wh., w. dat., **361**; ind. in dat., **365**; direct in acc., **390**, **391**; obj. cls., see Substantive clauses.
Objective genitive, **354**.
Obligation, expr. by subj., **512**, **513**; by fut. pass. partic., **600**, 3; by same used impersonally, *ib.*, *a*; moods and tenses in verbs of, **582**, 3; in ind. disc., *ib.*, *a*), n. 2.
Obligation or propriety, subj. of, **512**, **513**
Oblique cases, **61**, *a*.
obliviscor, constrs. w., **350**.
Obstructed consonants, **14**, 2, *b*, **37**.
ōcior, comparison, **123**.
ōdī, meaning of tense, **199**, 1, **487**.
Omission of verb, **222**, *a*, **631**, 1, *a*; of subject, **257**, **285**; of antecedent, **284**, 1.
Onomatopœia, **632**, 20.
Open syllables, **14**, *a*; open vowels, **3**.
opīniōne, after compar., **416**, *e*.
oportet, moods and tenses of, **582**, 3; w. subj. cl., **513**, 5; w. infin., **585**.
oppidum, in appos. to names of towns, **452**.
Opposition, see Adversative.
Optative, *Form*, **175**, n.; opt. subj., uses, **510**, **511**.
optimum est, moods w., **502**, 3, *c*), **585**.
optō, w. opt. cl., **511**, 2; w. infin., **586**, **587**.
opus est, w. abl., **430**, 1; of partic., *ib.*, 2; w. supine in -ū, **619**, 2; w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *c*); w. infin., **585**; opus as pred., **430**, 2, *a*, *b*.
ōrātiō oblīqua, see indirect discourse, **533**.
ōrātiō rēcta, see direct discourse, **533**.
Ordinals, **130**, **131**; w. quisque, **278**, 2, *c*).
Origin, abl. of, **413**; w. ab or ex, *ib.*, *a*, *b*.
ōrō, w. two accs., **393**; w. subj. cl. **530**, 2.
Orthography, **52**.
Oxymóron, **632**, 3.

paene, position of, **624**, 13, *a*.
paenitet, cases w., **352**, 1; mood w., **585**.
palam, as adv., or w. abl., **407**, 1, *a*.
Palatals, **7**, 3.
pār, quantity in, **25**, 1; cases w., **359**, *c*.
Parallel cum . . . tum, **564**.
Parallel order, **628**.
Parataxis defined, **227**; paratactic uses, imper., **497**, 2; subj., **504**, 1, **511**, 1, *b*, **530**, 1, **532**, 1; indic., **545**, *b*.
parātus, constrs. w., **384**, 2, *a*, *b*, **586**, *f*.
"Pardoning," w. dat., **362**.
Parentage or origin, constr., **413**.
Parenthetical cl., **567**; partic. =, **604**, 7, *c*).
pars, **91**, 1, *a*; parte, in loc. abl., **436**; partem, acc. of respect, **388**.
Part, idea of, denoted by adjs., **244**.
Participles, *Form*, pres. act., **183**; decl., **117**, **118**; fut. act., **182**; perf. pass., **179**; fut. pass., **184**. *Syntax:* nature, **599**; used as adjs., **248**; w. adv. force, **245**; as subst., **249**, **250**; used impersonally in abl. absolute, **421**, 8, *a*; perf. pass. modified by adv. or adj., **250**, 2, n.; perf. pass. w. act. meaning, **290**, *a*, 4); w. pres. force, **601**; agreement, **320**; carrying leading idea, **333**, **608**; tenses, meanings of, **600**, **601**; of attempted action, **484**; w. iam diū, etc., **485**; voice-meanings, **146**; of deponents and semi-deponents, **291**; lacking perf. act. and pres. pass. partics., how supplied, **602**; fut. pass. w. occasional pres. pass. force, **600**, 3, *b*; common uses, **604**; special idioms, **605**; new uses in later Latin, **606**, **607**.
Particles, defined, **221**, *d*.
"Particular conditions," see **576** and ftn.
partior, conj., **160**.
Partitive apposition, **319**, I, *a*.
"Partitive genitive," p. 183, ftn.
Parts of speech, **53**; defined, **221**.
parum, comparison, **129**.
parvus, comparison, **122**; parvī or -ō, of value or price, **356**, 1, **427**, 2, *a*).
Passive, see Voice.
Past aorist, indic., **468**, 4, *a*; subj., **470**, 2.
Past-future expressions, periphr. indic. and antic. subj., **508** and ftn.; dep. past-fut. cls. necessarily in antic. subj., *ib.*; past-fut. condition and conclusion, in subj., **580**, *b*; in periphr. fut. indic., *ib.*, *c*.
Past perfect, INDICATIVE: *Form*, **174**, 1; meaning, **468**, 5; of rapid succession of events, **492**; epistolary, **493**; instead of subj. contrary to fact, **581**, *e*; SUBJUNCTIVE: *form*, **175**, *c*; meaning, **470**, 1; in wishes, **510**, *a*; in conditions and conclusions, **581**.
Patronymics, Greek, **207**, 3.
Penalty, gen. of, **343**; abl. of, **428**.
penes, w. acc., **380**.
Pentameter, dactylic, **642**.
Penult, **31**, 2.
per, form of, in cpds., **51**, 12; as prefix, **218**, *a*; w. acc., **380**; of persons as means, *ib.*, *d*; of duration of time, **387**, II, *a*; of route, **426**, *b*; of cause, **444**, *c*; of manner, **445**, 3, *a*.
-per, enclitic particle, **127**, 9.
Peremptory command, expr. by imper., **496**.
Perfect, INDICATIVE: *Form*, perf. system of, **147**, *B*; ends., **151**, *a*; short forms of, **163**; types of, **173**; pass., **164**, 8; meanings, **468**, 4 and *a*; tenses of dep. verb w., **476**, **479**, **481**; perf. of experience ("gnomic"), **488**; of act or state no longer existing, **489**; energetic perf., **490**; picturesque, **491**, 1; of rapid succession of events, **492**; bōvī, meminī, ōdī, coepī, etc., **199**, **487**; SUBJUNCTIVE: *form*, **175**, *b*; confusion w. fut. perf. indic. forms, **164**, 6; in -sim, **163**, 5;

meanings of tense, **469**, **470**; in result-cls., **478**, **521**, 2, examples; INFINITIVE: *form*, **178**, 1–3; w. esse omitted, **164**, 7; meaning of tenses, **472**; in ind. disc., **534**, **589**, **591**; PARTICIPLE: *form*, **179**, **180**; meaning of tenses, **473**, **600**, **601**; perf. w. verbs of wishing, **605**, 3.
Perfect definite, see Perfect indicative.
Period, definition of, **630**.
Periphrastic conjugation, **162**; peculiarities in, **163–165**; periphr. fut. tenses, of indic., **468**, 7; of subj., **470**, 4; when used in general, *ib.*, *a*; periphr. fut., in ind. questions, **537**, *d*, 1); in conclusions, indic., subj., or infin., **580**, *c*, **581**, *a*, *b*.
Permanent truths, tenses of, in combination w. other tenses, **482**.
permittō, w. subj., **531**, 2; w. infin., **587**.
Perplexity, question of, in subj., **503**; in pres. indic., **571**; in fut. indic., **572**.
Person, **147**; order of mention of the three persons, **624**, 15; person judging, dat. of, **370**; persons as agents, **406**, 1; as means through wh., w. per, **380**, *d*; as means by wh., w. abl., **423**, *a*.
Personal construction in passive voice, prohibeor, putor, etc., **590**, 1.
Personal endings of verbs, **151**, **152**.
Personal pronouns, decl., **134**; use, **254**; of third pers., how replaced, **255**; when expr., when omitted, **257**; pl. of dignity, **259**; as reflex., **260**, *a*.
Personification, **632**, 18.
persuādeō, w. dat., **362**; w. dat. and acc., **364**, 4; w. subj., **502**, 3, *a*).
pertaesum est, constr. w., see taedet, **352**, 1.
petō, cases w., **393**, *c*; w. subj., **530**, 2.
Phonetic changes, **41–51**.
Phrase, defined, **224**, 2, *b*.
Picturesque tenses, **491**.
piget, w. acc. and gen., **352**, 1; w. infin., **585**.
Place, adjs. denoting, **210**, 3.
Place where, whither, or whence, reg. expr. by preps., **433**, **385**, **408**, 1 and *a*, 2 and *a*; poets may omit, **433**, *a*, **385**, *c*, **410**, 2; repeated relations all expr. (ad Chrȳsogonum ad castra, etc.), **540**, *c*; constr. of names of towns, domus, rūs, etc., **449–453**.
"Placing," w. in and abl., **433**, *c*.
Plan, how expr., **502**, 2.
Plants, gend. of names of, **58**, 2.
"Pleasing," w. dat., **362**.
Plenty and want, gen. of, **347**; abl. of, **425**.
Pléonasm, **631**, 4.
Pluperfect, see Past perfect.
Plural, wanting, **103**; pl. only, **104**; of dif. meaning from sing., **105**.
plūs, comparison, **122**; plūs, w. abl. or without effect on case, **416**, *d*; plūris and plūrimī, gen. of value or price, **356**, 1.
Point of reference for tenses, **467**, 1, *a*.
Point of view, expr. by ab or ex, **406**, 2.
pōne, w. acc., **380**.
por-, prefix, **51**, 13; **218**, 1, *b*.
"Position, length by," see **29**, 3.
Positive degree, **119**; wanting, **123**.
Possession, dat. of, **374** and *a*.
Possessive compounds, **216**, 4.
Possessive genitive, **339**; in pred., **346**.
Possessive pronouns, *Form*, **136**; use, **254**; of 3d pers., how replaced, **256**; when expr., when omitted, **258**; in pl. of dignity, **259**; as reflexive, **260**, *a*; poss. pron. preferred to gen. of personal, **339**, *a*.
Possibility, expr. by potential subj., **516**, **517**; by possum w. infin., **586**; moods and tenses in verbs of, **582**, 3, *a*); in ind. disc., *ib.*, n. 2.
possum, conj., **191**; moods and tenses of, in conclusions, **582**, 3, *a*); in ind. disc., *ib.*, n. 2; possum w. infin., **586**; posse w. pres. infin. = fut. infin., **472**, *d*.
post, w. acc., **380**; cpds. of, w. dat., **376**; as adv., **303**, *c*; see also ante
posteāquam, w. indic., **557**, **558**.
posterior, defect. comparison, **123**.
postquam, w. indic. det. cl., **550**; replaced by a noun w. quam or the abl. of quī, *ib.*, *c*.; w. narr. cl., **557**, **558**.
postrēmus, *the last to*, **243**.
postrīdiē, w. gen. or acc., **380**, *c*.
postulō, cases w., **393**, *b*, 2); w. subj., **502**, 3, *a*).
Potential subjunctive, **516**, **517**.
potestās, w. infin., **598**, 2, *d*).
potior, w. abl., **429**; w. acc., *ib.*, *b*; w. gen., *ib.*, *c*; in gerundive constr., **613**, n.
potior, defect. adj., comparison, **123**.
potissimum, **302**, 6; position, **624**, 13, *a*.
potius, comparison, **129**; meaning, **302**, 6; position, **624**, 13, *a*; potius quam, w. subj., **507**, 4, *d*).
prae, sometimes shortened, p. 9, ftn.; w. abl., **407**, 1; cpds. of, w. dat., **376**.
praeceps, decl., **117**, *b*; w. adv. force, **245**.
praesertim, w. quī or cum, **523**, *b*, **526**, *a*.
praestōlor, w. dat. or acc., **364**, 5.
praesum, conj., **190**, **191**; w. dat., **376**.
praeter, w. acc., **380**; w. infin., **598**, 3; cpd. of, w. acc., **386**, *a*.
praetervehor, w. acc., **386**, *a*.
Prayer, expr. by imper., **496**.
Predicate, defined, **229**, **230**, **317**, 3; pred. verb, **317**, 3, *a*; omission of, **222**, *a*; pred. acc., **392**, *a*; poss. gen. in, **340**; agreement of pred., **318–332**, agreeing w. subject of main verb, **590**, 2, **592**, *a*; pred. attracted by dat., **326**, 3, **585**, *c*.
Prefixes, adv., spelling, **51**; lists, **218**.
Prepositions, *Form*, **125**; assimilation in cpds., **51**. *Syntax:* definition, **221**, **303**; origin and early use, *ib.*, *a*; cpds. of, taking dat., **376**; taking acc., **391**, 2; taking dat. or acc., *ib.*, *a*; taking two

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accs., **386**; preps. w. acc., **380–383**; preps. w. separative abl., **405–412**; w. sociative abl., **418–420**; w. locative abl., **433–436**; w. names of towns, small islands, etc., **453**; summary of uses of cases w. preps., **455–458**.
Present: present system, **147**, *A*; *Form* of present stem, **166–170**; meanings common to all forms: of permanent truths or customs, **468**, 1, *b*; of habitual or attempted action, **484**; w. iam diū, etc., **485**; INDICATIVE: *form*, **152**, 1, 2, **166**, **170**; progressive, **468**, 1; aor., *ib.*, *a*; historical pres., **491**, 1; special uses, **571**; SUBJUNCTIVE: *form*, **175**; pres. and fut. forces, **469**, **470**, 1; w. progressive force, *ib.*; w. aor. force, *ib.*, 2; referring to fut. in conditions and conclusions, **580**; INFINITIVE: *form*, **178**, in -ier, **164**, 3; meaning, **472** and *b*; PARTICIPLE: *form*, **183**; decl., **117**, **118**; meaning, **473**.
"Preventing," w. subj. cl., **502**, 3, *b*).
Price or value, gen. of, **356**; abl. of, **427**.
prīdiē, w. gen. or acc., **380**, *c*.
Primary derivatives, **203**; nouns, **206**; adjs., **208**.
"Primary" tenses, **476** and ftn. 2.
Primary verbs, p. 98, ftn. 1; of conj. I, **166**, 3, 4; of conj. II, **167**, 1, *a*, 2; of conj. III, **168**; of conj. IV, **169**, 2.
prīmō distinguished from prīmum, **302**, 3.
prīmus, *the first to*, **243**.
prīnceps, decl., **76**, **77**, 1, 4; **118**, 1, *a*, 2; *the first to*, **243**.
Principal and auxiliary tenses, **477**, *c*.
Principal parts of verbs, **150**.
Principal sentence or clause, **224**, 1.
prior, comparison, **123**; *the first to*, **243**.
prius, comparison, **129**.
priusquam, see antequam.
prō, **51**, 1; quantity in cpds., **24**, 2; w.abl., **407**, 1.
procul, as prep. w. abl., **405**, *c*.
Progressive action, tenses of, **466** and ftn.
prohibeō, w. abl., **408**, 2; w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *b*); w. infin., **587**; prohibeor w. infin., **588**.
Prohibition, how expr., **496**, *d*, **501**, 3; in ind. disc. always subj., **538**.
Prolépsis, **631**, 11.
"Promising," constr. w., **593**, *a*.
Pronominal adjectives, **112**; use, **279**.
Pronominal adverbs, **126**, 3, 4, 6, 7, **127**.
Pronouns, declension: pers., **134**; reflex., **135**; poss., **136**; det.-descr., **137**, **138**; intens., **139**; rel., **140**; interrog., **141**; indef. and distrib., **142**; pronom. adj., **143**; correl., **144**. *Syntax:* pron. defined, **221**; classification, **253**; pers., **254–259**; reflex., **260–264**; recipr., **265**; intens., **267–269**; identifying, **270**; det.-descr., **271–274**; interrog., **275**; indef., **276**; collective, **277**; distrib., **278**; pronom. adjs., **279**; rel. prons. and adjs., **281–284**; agreement, **321–325**; referring to general substance of sentence, **325**, *a*; prons. in ind. disc., **533**, *a*.
Pronunciation, general explanations, **2–8**; of Latin, **9–11**, **13–34**; suggestions and cautions, **35–40**.
prope, comparison, **129**; w. acc., **380**; position of, **624**, 13, *a*; prope ā, **406**, 2.
Proper nouns, **240**, 1.
propior, comparison, **123**; w. dat., **362**, III; w. acc., **380**, *b*.
propius, w. acc., **380**, *b*.
Proposal, expr. by imper., **496**; by vol. subj., **501**, 2.
"Propriety," expr. by subj., **512**, **513**; tenses of verbs meaning, **582**, 3, *a*).
proprius, w. gen. or dat., **339**, *c*.
propter, w. acc., **380**.
Prosody, see Quantity and Versification.
prōsper, decl., **111**, *a*.
prōspiciō, w. dat. or acc., **367**.
prōsum, conj., **190**, **191**; w. dat., **362**.
Protasis, see Conditions, **573–582**.
prōvideō, w. dat. or acc., **367**; w. subj., **502**, 3, *a*).
Proviso, cl. of, w. modo, dum, etc., **529**.
proximē, w. acc., **380**, *b*.
proximus, w. dat., **362**, III; w. acc., **380**, *b*.
pudet, w. acc. and gen., **352**, 1, **390**, *a*; w. infin., **585**.
Purpose, expr. by dat., **360**; by acc. w. ad or in, **384**, 3; by subj. cl., **502**, 2; by acc. of gerund or gerundive w. ad, **612**, III; by gerund or gerundive w. causā or grātiā, **612**, I; by supine in -um, **618**; by partics., **605**, 2, **606**, **607**; by poetic infin., **598**, 1.

quae rēs for quod or id quod, **325**, *a*, n. 1.
quaerō, cases w., **393**, *c*.
quaesō, defective, **200**, 4.
quālis, pronom. adj., **143**; interrog., **275**, 5; rel., **144**; w. det. cl., **550** and ftn.
quāliscumque, **282**, **283**.
quam-cl. determining the degree, **550** and ftn.; quam diū cl. determining the time how long, *ib.*; quam, quam possum, w. superls., **241**, 4.
quam, *than*, w. alius or aliter, **307**, 2, *b*; after compars., **416**, **417**; quam quī or ut after compars., **521**, 2, *c*; quam after infin. and followed by acc., **535**, 1, *c*.
quamobrem, see quārē.
quamquam, advers. cl. w., **556**; "corrective," **310**, 7; w. subj. **541**.
quamvīs, w. subj., **532**, 2; w. later indic., **541**.
quandō, in cl. of cause or reason, **555**; same in ind. disc., **535**, 2 and *a*.
quantī or -ō, of value or price, **356**, 1, **427**, 2, *a*).

Quantity of vowels, **16**, **17**; in syll. not final, **18–24**; in final syll., **25–28**; in Greek words, **21**, 5, p. 10, ftn. 1; in cpds., **24**; quantity of sylls., **29**, **30**; marks of quantity, **16**; evidences of, **16**, n. 2; list of "hidden quantities," **679**.
quantus, pronom. adj., **143**; interrog., **275**, 5; rel., **144**; uses, **282**, I; w. det. cl., **550** and ftn. 2.
quārē, *why, wherefore*, w. subj. of obligation or propriety, **513**; w. subj. of natural likelihood, **515**.
quasi, w. quidam, **276**, 5, *a*; w. abl. absolute, **421**, 6, *a*; w. subj., **504**, 3.
-que, encl. particle, **32**, n., **33**, 1, **307**, 1 and *b*; -que . . . -que, **309**, *a*.
queō, conj., **194**, *c*.
Questions, classification by form, **231**; alternative, **234**; rhetorical, **235**; absurd, **236**; for subj. questions see synopsis, **499**; for indic. questions see synopsis, **543**, and **571**, **572**.
quī, indef., decl., **142** and 1, n.
quī, interrog. adv., **140**, *b*; in imprecations, **511**, 1, *a*; w. subj. of natural likelihood, **515**, 1.
quī, interrog. pron., see quis.
quī, rel. pron., decl., **140**; stem, **141**, n.; meaning, **282**; quī-cls., in subj., see synopsis, **499**; in indic., **543**; in conditional cls., **577**.
quia-clauses: indic., of cause or reason, **555**; same in ind. disc., subj., **535**, 2 and *a*; of rejected reason, *ib.*, *b*.
quibuscum, *with whom, with which*, **418**, *a*.
quīcum, *with whom, with which*, **140**, *b*.
quīcumque, decl., **140**, *d*; meaning, **282**, II; as indef., **276**, 10, **283**.
quid, *to what extent?* **387**, III; *in what respect?* **388**; *why? ib.*, n.; quid, quidnī, *why? why not?* in questions of obligation or propriety, **513**, 1; of natural likelihood, **515**, 1.
quid quod, *what* (of the fact) *that?* **552**, 1, *a*.
quīdam, **142**, 3; use, **276**, 5; w. quasi, *ib.*, *a*; w. ex, **346**, *e*; quīdam sunt quī, mood after, **521**, 1, *b*.
quidem, **302**, 1; w. tū, **257**, *a*; w. is, **274**, 3.
quīlibet, **142**, 9; use, **276**, 8.
quīn, w. indic., **545**, *a*; w. imper. **496**, *b*; w. subj. in vol. subst. cl., **502**, 3, *b*); in cl. of obligation or propriety, **513**, 2; in cl. of ideal certainty, **519**, 2, 4, *b*); in cl. of actuality, **521**, 1, 2, 3, *b*).
quippe, w. quī-cl., **523**, *b*; w. cum-cl., **526**, *a*.
quis, indef., decl., **142**, 1; use, **276**, 1.
quis, interrog. pron., and quī, interrog. adj., decl., **141**; distinction not always observed, *ib.*, *a*, **275**, 4, *a*; stem, **141**, *b*, n.; cpds., **141**, *b*, **142**; meaning, **275**, 1, 4.
quīs, for quibus, **140**, *c*.
quisnam, quīnam, **141**, *b*.
quispiam, **142**, 4; use, **276**, 3.
quisquam, **142**, 5; use, **276**, 7.
quisque, **142**, 6; use, **278**, 2; in partitive apposition, **319**, I, *a*; w. pl. verb, **331**, 2; in agreement, or w. gen. of the whole, **346**, *b*.
quisquis, decl., **140**, *d*; use, **282**, II.
quīvīs, **142**, 8; use, **276**, 8.
quō, in cl. of purpose, **502**, 2 and *b*.
quoad, see dum.
quod, rel., = id quod, **325**, *a*, n. 2; quod sciam, etc., **521**, 1, *f*.
quod-clauses, indic., of time included in the reckoning, **550** and ftn.; of equivalent action, **551**; subst. cl., **552**, 1 and ftn. 1; quid quod . . . ? *ib.*, *a*; quod-cl. of respect (*as to the fact that*), **552**, 2; of cause or reason, **555**; subj., of cause or reason in ind. disc., **535**, 2, *a*; of rejected reason, *ib.*, *b*; of obligation or propriety, **513**, 2.
quom, earlier form of cum, **44**, 1.
quōminus, in subst. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *b*).
quoniam, see quia-clauses.
quoque, **302**, 2; added to sed or vērum, **310**, 4, *b*.
quot, correl., **144**; meaning, **282**, I.
quot and quotus, interrog., **275**, 3.
quotcumque, meaning, **282**, II.
Quoted expressions, gender of, **58**, 3.
Quoted reason, subj. cl. of, **535**, 2, *a*.
quotquot, meaning, **282**, II.
quotus quisque, **278**, 2, *c*).

re-, rĕd-, prefix, **24**, 2, **51**, 15, **218**, 1, *b*.
Reason, see Cause.
Reciprocal pronouns, **265**; equivalent phrases, **266**.
Recomposition, **41**, n. 2, **50**.
recūsō, w. subj., **502**, 3, *b*); w. infin., **586**, *d*.
Reduplication, in present, **168**, *B*; in perf., **173**, *D*; in cpds., *ib.*, *a*.
Reference, dat. of, **366–369**; gen. of, see Application, **354**.
rēfert, cases w., **345**.
Reflexive, passive used as, **288**, 3.
Reflexive pronouns, **135**, **260**, *a*, *b*; use of sē and suus, **262**, **264**; ipse as reflex., **263**, **264**, 4; inter sē, etc., as reflex., **266**.
reiciō, quantity of first syll., **30**, 1.
Rejected reason, subj. cl. of, **535**, 2, *b*.
Relation, words of, w. dat., **362–364**.
Relative adverb, see Adverb.
Relative clause, is either declarative or conditional, **228**, 3, *b*; = noun, partic., appos., etc., **284**, 3; position, **624**, 10, **284**, 5; w. infin., in ind. disc., **535**, 1, *b*; moods in, see quī-cls.
Relative pronoun, decl., **140**; defined, **281**; meanings, **282**, **283**; peculiarities in use, **284**; agreement of, **322–326**.
Relative tenses, of indic., **467**, 1, **477**, *b*; of subj., **470**, 3, **477**, *b*.

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relinquitur, w. vol. ut-cl., 502, 3, *c*); w. ut-cl. of fact, 521, 3, *a*).
reliquī, meaning, 279, 1, *b*.
"Remembering," cases w., 350; w. infin., 589; w. pres. infin. of past act, 593, *b*.
"Reminding," cases w., 351.
reminīscor, cases w., 350.
Repeated action, subj. of, 540; see also habitual action, 484, and generalizing condition, 576, *a*.
"Repraesentātiō," see Picturesque tenses.
"Representing," verbs of, w. pres. partic., 605, 1; w. infin., *ib*., n.
Request, expr. by imper., 496; by subj., 530.
requiēs, decl., 107, 2.
rēs, decl., 99, 100, 1; see also ea rēs.
"Resisting," w. dat., 362.
Resolve, expr. by subj., 501, 1; by pres. indic., 571; by fut. indic., 572.
Respect, expr. by acc., 388, 389; by abl., 441; by supine in -ū, 619, 1, 2.
Restrictive clauses, 522.
Result, abl. expressing, 422, II.
Result, cls. of: obligatory or proper, 513, 4; possible, 517, 3; ideally certain, 519, 3; actual, 521, 2.
Result produced, acc. of, 394.
reus, w. gen., 342, *a*; vōtī reus, 343.
Rhetoric, figures of, 632.
Rhetorical det. cl., 550, *a*, n. 3.
Rhetorical questions, 235; question of fact, in infin. in ind. disc., 591, *a*.
Rhotacism, 47, 86, n.
Rhythm, 633.
Rivers, gend. of names of, 58, 1.
rogō, w. two accs., 393; w. subj. cl., 530, 2.
Root, 147, n. 2, 203, ftn. 1.
Route, abl. of, 426.
rūs, decl., 86, 1; place relations w., 93, 449, *a*, 450, *b*, 451, *a*.

s-stems, 85, 86, 116, *a*.
sacer, comparison, 123, *a*.
saepe, comparison, 129.
salvē, defective, 200, 1.
sānē, in answers, 232, 1.
satin, 236, 2, *d*.
satis, comparison, 129; w. dat., 362, 1.
"Saying," infin. w. verbs of, 589; w. pass. of (dīcor, etc.), 590, 1; subj. w., 502, 3, *a*).
Scanning, 643.
sciēns, w. force of adv., 245.
scītō, force of tense, 496, *c*.
-scō, verbs in, 168, *F*, 212, 2; length of vowel before, 18.
sē, sēsē, see suī.
sē-, sēd-, prefix, 218, 1, *b*).
Second conjugation, 148, 156, 167.
Second declension, 69-73.
Second object, in acc., 392, 393; in abl. w. ūtor, etc., 429, *a*.
Second person sing. indef., in generalizing conditions, 504, 2; in potential subj., 517, 1; in generalizing statements of fact, 542.
Secondary derivatives, 203; nouns, 207; adj., 209, 210; verbs, 211, 212.
"Secondary" tenses, p. 247, ftn. 2.
sēcum, 418, *a*.
secundum, w. acc., 380.
sed, 310, 4 and *b*; sed enim, 311, 6, *b*.
"Seeing," verbs of, w. pres. partic., 605, 1; w. infin., *ib*., n.
Semi-deponents, 161; voice-meanings, 291.
Semihiatus, 648.
Semivowels, 2.
senex, decl., 88, 4; compar., 122, 123, *b*.
Sentence, defined, 220; how made up, 221; simple, 223, 1; compound, *ib*., 2; coördinate, *ib*.; complex, *ib*., 3; four functions, 228.
Separation, abl. of, 405-411; gen. w. verbs of, 348.
"Sequence of tenses," reg., 476; exceptions to, 478-480.
"Service," dat. of, see Tendency, 360.
"Serving," dat. w., 362, II.
sēstertius, sēstertium, 675.
seu, see sīve.
Shortening of vowels, 20, 1, 2, 26.
"Should," see Obligation and Natural likelihood.
sī, meaning, 578, 1; in ordinary conditions, 579-581; in loosely attached condition, 582, 2; in virtual wish, *ib*., 5; in ind. question of fact, 582, 2, *b*; adversative or concessive, 582, 7.
sī minus, 578, 3; sī modo, 582, 6.
sī nōn, 578, 2, 3.
sī quidem, = "for" or "since," 582, 9.
Sibilants, 6, 3, 12.
sīc, in answers, 232, 1; sīc ut, 521, 2, *a*, and ftn.
Símile, 632, 15.
similis, compar., 120, 2; cases w., 339, *c*, n.
Simple sentence, 223, 1.
simul, poetic w. abl., 418, *b*.
simul, simul atque (ac), w. aor. indic., 557.
sīn, use, 578, 2, 3; see also sī.
sine, w. abl., 405.
Singular, nouns used only in, 103; wanting, 104; of different meaning in pl., 105.
sinō, w. subj., 531, 2; w. infin., 587.
Situation, descr. cum-cl. of, in subj., 524; w. caus. or advers. idea, 525; w. ubi, etc., in indic., 558; dum-cl. of, 559; expr. by partic., 604, 2; by historical infin., 595.
Situation, tenses of, 466, 1, *a*.
sīve or seu, 308, 3 and *a*; correlative, 309.
Slurring, 34, 1, 38, 646.
-sō, frequentatives in, 212, 1.
Softened statements, etc., in subj., 519, 1, *b*.
soleō, semi-deponent, 161.

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sōlus, decl., **112**, *a*; gen. of, w. poss. pron., **339**, *b*; sōlus quī, w. subj., **521**, 1, *a* and ftn.
Sonant, or voiced, consonants, **8**, 1, **12**.
Sounds, general statement, **2–8**; classification of the Latin sounds, **12**.
Space over which, **426**, *c*; see also Extent.
"Sparing," dat. w., **362**, II.
"Specification," gen. of, see Application; abl. and acc. of, see Respect.
Speech, parts of, **221**; figures of, **631**, **632**.
Spelling, variations in, **52**.
Spirants, **6**, 3.
Spondaic verse, **639**, *b*.
Spondee, **637**.
spontе, defect., **106**, 1; of manner, **445**, 1.
Stage, tenses of the, **466**, 1.
Standard, abl. of, **415**; w. ex, *ib.*, *a*.
statuō, w. subj., **502**, 3, *a*); infin., **586**, **589**.
Stem, of nouns, **62**, 1, n., **63**, **202–205**; of verbs, **202**; the three stems, **147**; pres. stem of the four conjs., **148**; union of stem and ends., **152**; form of tense-stem, mood-stem, etc., **166–184**.
stō, *abide by*, w. abl., **438**, 1.
Stress, **31**, **33**, 1, 2.
studeō, w. dat., **332**, II; w. infin., **586**, **587**.
su-, pronunc. in suāvis, suādeō, suēscō, **11**.
suādeō, w. dat., **362**, II; w. acc., **364**, 4; w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *a*); w. infin., **587**.
sub (subs), form in cpds., **51**, 14; w. acc., **381** and *b*; w. abl., **433**.
Subject, defined, **229**; omitted, **285**; indef., **286**; of finite verb, in nom., **335**; likewise of historical infin., **535**; verb agrees w., **328**; two or more w. one verb, **329**; subj. of infin. in acc., **398**; sometimes omitted, **592**; cl. as subject, **238**.
Subjective genitive, **344**.
Subjunctive, origin and mood-signs, **175**; tables of general forces, **432**; for details, see synopsis, **499**.
Subordinate clause, defined, **224**, 1, 2, *a*.
Subsequent action, defined, **470**, 3 and ftn. 2.
Substantive cls., defined, **238**; used as subject, obj., etc., *ib.*, **319**, 2, *c*, **597**, 1, *a*), *b*); subj.: vol., **502**, 3; antic., **507**, 2; opt., **511**, 2; of obligation or propriety, **513**, 5; of natural likelihood, **515**, 3; potential, **517**, 3; of ideal certainty, **519**, 4; of actuality, **521**, 3; of request, **530**, 2; of consent or indifference, **531**, 2; ind. questions of fact, **537**, *c*; indic.: w. quod, **552**, 1; w. cum, **553**; infin., **585–594**.
Substantives, defined, **221**, *a*; adjs. and partics. used as, **249**, **250**.
subter, w. acc., **382**; w. abl., *ib.*, *a*.
Suffixes, primary and secondary, **203–210**.
Suggestion, in imper., **496**; in subj., **501**, 2.
suī, decl., **135**; use, **260–264**; w. gen. of gerundive, **614**; gen. of, reg. objective, **254**, *a*.
sum, conj., **153**, **154**; as copula, **230**, *a*; w. dat. of possession, **374**; est ut w. subj., **521**, 3, *a*); est w. infin., **598**, 3.
summus, *the top of*, **244**.
sunt quī, moods after, **521**, 1, *b*.
super, form in cpds., **218**, 1, *a*); w. acc., **383**; w. abl., **435** and *a*, *b*; as adv., **303**, *c*.
superior, comparison, **123**.
Superlative degree, **119**; in -errimus, -illimus, **120**, 1, 2; in -mus, -timus, etc., **120**, 4, **122**, **123**; expr. by maximē, **121**; wanting, **123**, *b*; of advs., **128**, **129**; force of degree, **241**, **300**; w. quisque, **278**, 2, *b*); w. vel or ūnus, **241**, 3, *a*; w. quam or quam possum, *ib.*, 4.
Supine, formation, **181**; in -um, use, **618**; in -ū, uses, **619**.
suprā, w. acc., **380**.
Surd, or voiceless, consonants, **8**, 2, **12**.
Surprise, expr. by subj., **503**; by fut. indic., **572**; by infin., **596**.
Suspense, in Latin sentence, **625**, III.
suus, **136**; uses of, **260–264**; special meanings, **264**, 3; suus quisque, *ib.*, 2, *a*.
Syllables, **13**; division of, **14**, **15**; open and closed, **14**, *a*, *b*; quantity of, **29**, **30**.
Synaéresis, p. 352, ftn. 3.
Synaloépha, p. 350, ftn. 1.
Synapheía, **641**, n. 4.
Syncope of vowels, **43**; used in poetry, **650**.
Synécdoche, **632**, 8.
Sýnesis, **631**, 6.
Synizésis, p. 352, ftn. 3.
Syntax, defined, **219**.
Syntax, figures of, **631**.
Sýstole, **652**, 3, ftn. 4.

Tacit caus.-advers. cl., **569**, *a*; explicit, **523**, *a*.
taedet, w. gen., **352**, 1; w. acc., **390**, *a*.
"Taking away," dat. w. verbs of, **371**.
tālis, **143**, **144**; meaning, **271**; w. quī and subj., **521**, 1, *b*.
tam w. quī or quīn, **521**, 1, *a*; tam w. ut or quīn, **521**, 2, *a*.
tamen, **310**, 6; position, *ib.*
tametsī, corrective, **310**, 7; = *although*, **582**, 8.
tamquam, w. abl. absolute, **421**, 6, *a*; w. subj., **504**, 3.
tandem, *pray*, in questions, **231**, 2, n.
tantī, gen. of value, **356**, 1; tantī ut, **513**, 4.
tantum abest ut, **521**, 3, *a*).
tantus, pronom. adj., **143**, **144**; meaning, **271**; w. subj. quī- or ut-cl., **521**, 1, *a*; w. quantus and indic., **550**.
-te, encl. particle, **134**, *d*.
"Teaching," two accs. w., **393**.
tegō, conj., **157**.
"Temporal" cum-cl., **524**, **525**; ubi-cl., etc., **557**, **558**.
tempus est, w. subj., **502**, 3, *c*); w. infin., **585**.
Tendency or purpose, dat. of, **360**.

teneō, w. perf. pass. partic., 605, 5.
Tenses, 145; stems of, 147, n. 1, 166–175; tense defined, 465; tenses of the stage, 466, 1; aor. tenses, *ib.*, 2; rel. tenses, 467, 1; absolute tenses, *ib.*, 2; tenses of indicative, 468; of imperative, 471, 496; of infinitive, 472, 593; of subjunctive, 469, 470; of the participles, 473, 600, 601; special points: combinations ("sequence") of tenses, 476, 477; less usual combinations ("exceptions to the sequence"), 478, 479; mechanical harmony of subj. tenses, 480; tenses depending on pres. perf., 481; permanent truths depending on past tenses, 482; tenses of habitual ("repeated" or "customary") action and attempted ("conative") action, 484; w. iam dūdum, etc., 485; of discovery, expr. by imperf., 486, 1; by fut., *ib.*, 2; perf. of experience ("gnomic"), 488; perf. of state of affairs no longer existing, 489; energetic or emphatic perf., 490; historical pres. and perf., 491, 1; tenses of rapid succession of events, 492; epistolary tenses, 493; accuracy of use of Latin tenses, 494, 577, *a.*
tenus, w. gen. or abl., 458, 4; position, *ib.*
terrā, *by land*, 426, *a*; *on land*, 449, *a.*
Thematic vowel in verbs, p. 76, ftn.; changes in, 152, 1.
Thesis, 654 and ftn. 5.
Things personified, as agents, 406, 1, *b.*
"Thinking," w. infin., 589.
Third conj., 148, 157–158, 168.
Third decl., nouns, 74–95; adj., 113–118.
Time, adjs. denoting, 209, 5; time at or within wh., expr. by abl., 439; by abl. absolute, 421, 1; duration of time, by acc., 387, II; by abl., 440; absolute and rel. time, 467, 1, 2.
Time in Roman reckoning, 660–671.
timeō, w. dat. or acc., 367; w. subj., 502, 4; w. infin., 586.
Tmesis, 659.
-tō(-āre), frequentatives in, 212, 1.
tot, meaning and uses, 271, 2, *a.*
tōtus, 112; w. abl. noun, 436 and *a.*
Towns where, whither, or whence, 449–451; appositives w., 452; preps. w., 453.
trāns, form in cpds., 51, 16; w. acc., 380; cpds. of, w. acc., 386.
Transitive, see Voice and Verb.
Trees, gend. of names of, 58, 2.
trēs, decl., 131, 2.
Trochee, 637, *b.*
"Trusting," w. dat., 362, II.
tū, decl., 134; tūte, 134, *d.*
tuī, gen. of tū, reg. objective, 254, *a.*
tum . . . cum, see cum.
-tum, -tū, supine endings, 181, 49, 4, 5.
-tus, perf. pass. partic. in, 179, 4; adj. in, 209, 3; adv. in, 126, 8.
Two comparatives, adjs., 242; advs., 301.
"Two datives," 360, *b.*
Two negatives, 298, 2.
Two objects in acc., 392, 393; one retained w. pass., 393, *a*; two objs. in abl., 429, *a.*

u, consonantal may become vowel in poetry, 656, 1; vocalic may become consonantal in poetry, *ib.*, 2.
ubi, *when*: for ordinary uses, see postquam; in cl. of equivalent action, 551.
ubi, *where*, same constrs. as quī; see quī.
-ubus, dat.-abl. pl., decl. IV, 97, 1.
-uī, perfects in, 173, *B.*
ūllus, decl., 112, *a*, 143; use, 276, 7.
ulterior, comparison, 123.
ultimus, *the last to*, 243.
ultrā (ŭls), w. acc., 380.
-um, gen. plur., in decl. I, 66, 3; decl. II, 71, 4; decl. III, in i-stems, 88, 4; decl. IV, 97, 3; in adjs., 118, 1; of ducentī, etc., 131, 4.
unde, *whence*, same constrs. as quī; see quī.
Unthematic verbs, p. 76, ftn., 170.
ūnus, decl., 112, *a*; gen. of, w. poss. pron., 339, *b*; ūnus dē or ex, 346, *e*; ūnus quī, w. subj., 521, 1, *a*; unī, use, 247, 1, *b.*
ūnusquisque, 142, 7.
urbs, decl., 90; in apposition to names of towns, 452.
ūsus est, constrs. w., 430, 1, 2, and *c.*
ut (utī), often merely formal, p. 261, ftn. 2; w. subj., see especially in cl. of purpose, 502, 2; in vol. subst. cl., *ib.*, 3; in cl. of fear, *ib.*, 4; in question or exclamation of surprise, etc., 503; in antic. subst. cl. 507, 2; in opt. subst. cl., 511, 2; in cl. of actual result, 521, 2; in subst. cl. of actuality, *ib.*, 3; in ind. questions or exclamations, 537, *d*, 3) and ftn.; w. indic., see synopsis, 543.
ut nē, p. 261, ftn. 2.
ut prīmum, ut semel, 557, *a.*
ut sī, *as if*, w. subj., 504, 3.
uter, rel., 140, *d*; interrog., 141, *b*; use, 275, 1; decl., 112; cpds. of, 142, *a.*
utercumque, decl., 140, *d.*
uterlibet, meaning, 142, *a*, 276, 8.
uterque, 142, *a*; use, 278; meaning in pl., *ib.*, *a*, *b*; as recipr. pron., 265; in agreement or w. gen. 346, *b.*
utervīs, meaning, 142, *a*, 276, 8.
utī, see ut.
utinam, in wishes, 511, 1, and ftn. 1.
ūtor, w. abl., 429; w. 2d abl., *ib.*, *a*; w. acc., *ib.*, *b*; in gerundive constr., 613, 2, n.
utpote, w. quī-cl., 523, *b*; w. cum-cl., 526, *a.*
utrum . . . an, etc., 234, I and *b*; utrum suppressed, *ib.*, III.

v, may become u in poetry, 656, 1.
Value, expr. by gen., 356; by abl., 427.

Variable nouns, **107**, **108**.
-ve, encl. particle, **32**, n., **33**; see also vel.
vē-, inseparable prefix, **214**, 2.
vel or -ve, disjunctive, **308**, 2; correction, *ib.*, 3, *a*; vel w. superlative, **241**, 3, *a*.
velim or vellem, in softened statements, **519**, 1, *b*; in virtual wishes, *ib.*, *c*.
velut or velutī (sī), w. subj., **504**, 3.
ventūrus, as adj., **248**.
Verbal nouns, **146**.
Verbs, *Form:* voices, moods, etc., **145**; three stems, **147**; the conjs., **148**; principal parts, **150**; ends., **151**; union of end. with stem, **152**; examples of inflection of the four reg. conjs., **155–159**; depons., **160**; semi-depons., **161**; periphr. conj., **162**; peculiarities in conj., **163–165**; formation of the stems, **166–184**; illustrations of the various types (principal parts), **185–189**; conj. of the irreg. verbs, **190–197**; defect. verbs, **198–200**; impers. verbs, **201**; derivation of verbs, **211–212**; composition of verbs, **218**; list of, p. 361. *Syntax:* verb defined, **221**; sometimes omitted, **222**, *a*; impers. verbs, **287**; trans. verbs, **289**; intrans. verbs, **290**.
vereor, **160**; w. subj., **502**, 4; w. infin., **586**.
vērō, **310**, 5, *a*, *b*; in answers, **232**, 1.
Verse, defined, **636**.
Versification, **633–659**.
versus, w. acc., **380**; position of, *ib.*, *a*.
vērum, **310**, 4; following nōn, *ib.*, *b*; w. etiam or quoque added, *ib.*
vēscor, w. abl., **429**; w. acc., *ib.*, *b*; in gerundive constr., **613**, 2, n.
vestrī, objective gen., **134**, *b*, **254**, *a*; vestrum, gen. of the whole, *ib.*
vetō, moods w., **587**, *b*; vetor w. infin., **588**.
vetus, decl., **117**, **118**, 1, *a*, 2; stem of, **117**, *b*; comparison, **120**, 1.
-vī, perfects in, **173**, *A*; short forms, **163**.
vicis, defect., **106**, 4; vicem, **388**.
videō, w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *a*); vidē nē in prohibitions, **501**, 3, *a*, 2); videō and videor w. infin., **589**, **590**, 1; videō w. pres. partic. or infin., **605**, 1, n.; videor w. dat., **370**.
vir, decl., **70**; poetic gen. virum, **71**, 4, *c*.
Virtual wishes, expr. by velim, etc., w. subj., **519**, 1, *c*; by condition w. sī or ō sī, w. subj., **582**, 5.
vīs, decl., **92**.
Vocative, *Forms*, exceptional: in -ī, of nouns in -ius, **71**, 2; in -ie, of adjs. in -ius, **110**, *a*. *Syntax*, **400**; position of, **624**, 6; nom. for, **401**.
Voice, **145**; act., **288**, 1; pass., *ib.*, 2; pass. used reflexively ("middle voice"), *ib.*, 3; w. acc., **390**, *b*; intrans. verbs, pass. of, used impers., **290**, *a*, 1); voice-meanings of depons. and semi-depons., **291**.
Voiced consonants, **8**, 1, **12**; change of voiced mutes, **49**, 1.
Voiceless consonants, **8**, 2, **12**.
Volitive subjunctive, **500–505**.
volō and its cpds., **192**; w. vol. cl., **502**, 3, *a*); w. infin., **586**, **587**; w. perf. partic., **605**, 3.
Vowels, **2**; classification, **3**; pronunc., **9**; quantity, **16–28**, **36**; weakening in interior syll., **41**, **42**; syncope, **43**; changes in final syll., **44**; contraction, **45**; vowel-gradation, **46**; thematic vowel, p. 76, ftn., **152**, 1; final, slurred, **34**, 1, **646**.

"Want," w. gen., **347**; w. abl., **425**.
Watches of the night, **670**, 2.
Way or manner, expr. by abl., **445**; by ad, in, or per, w. acc., *ib.*, 3, *a*; by dum-cl., **559**, *a*; by partic., **604**, 5.
Weights and Measures, **672–677**.
Whole, idea of, expr. by gen., **346**; by dē or ex, w. abl., *ib.*, *e*.
Will, expr. by vol. subj., **500**.
Winds, gend. of names of, **58**, 1.
Wish, expr. by opt. subj., **511**, 1; by velim, etc., w. subj., **519**, 1, *c*; by sī or ō sī w. subj., **582**, 5.
"Wishing," w. opt. subj., **511**, 2; w. infin., **586** and *d*; see also volō.
Women, names of, **678**, 5.
Word-accent, in verse, **645**.
Word-formation, **202–218**.
Word-order: normal, **623**, **624**; rhetorical, **625–630**; parallel order, **628**; cross order, *ib.*

y, in borrowed words only, **1**, *a*.
Year, how indicated, **661**.
"Yes," how expressed, **232**, 1.

z, in borrowed words only, **1**, *a*; pronunc., **11**; in poetry, **29**, 3, *b*.
Zeúgma, **631**, 7.

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