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RE aER usd or This voluze


## A

## LATIN GRAMMAR

SCHOOLS AND COLLEGES.

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"AN introductory latin book," "a LATIN header," " a

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PREFACE.

The work now offered to the public had its origin in a desire to promote the cause of Classical study. It has long been the opinion of the author, in common with numerous classical teachers, that the subject of Latin Grammar, often regarded as dry and difficult, may be presented to the learner in a form at once simple, attractive, and philosophical. It is the aim of this manual to aid the instructor in the attainment of this most desirable end.
That the present is a favorable time for the production of a Latin Grammar scarcely admits of a doubt. Never before were there such facilities for the work. The last quarter of a century has formed an epoch in the study of language and in the methods of instraction. During this period some of the most gifted minds of Germany have been gathering the choicest treasures in the field of philology, while others have been equally successful in devising improved methods of instruction. In our own country too, the more enterprising teaehers have canght the spirit of improvement, and are calling loudly for a better method than has hitherto prevailed in classical study.

The present work has been prepared in view of these facts. To explain its general plan, the author begs leave to specify the following points.

1. This volume is designed to present a systematic arrangement of the great facts and laws of the Latin language; to exhibit not only grammatical forms and constructions, but also those vital prineiples which underlie, control, and explain them.
2. Designed at once as a text-book for the class-room, and a book of reference in study, it aims to introdtice the beginner easily and pleasantly to the first principles of the language, and yet tos make adequate provision for the wants of the more advanced student. Accordingly it presents in large type a general survey of the whole subject in a brief and concise statement of figts and
laws, while parallel with this, in smaller type, it furnishes a fuller discussion of irregularities and exceptions for later study and for reference.
3. By brevity and conciseness in the choice of phraseology and compactness in the arrangement of forms and topics, the author has endeavored to compress within the limits of a convenient manual an amount of earefully selected grammatical facts, which would otherwise fill a much larger volume.
4. He has, moreaver, endeavored to present the whole subject in the light of modern scholarship. Without encumbering his pages with any unnecessary discussions, he has aimed to enrich them with the practical qesults of the recentlabors in the field of philology.
5. In the regular paradigms, both of declension and of conjugation, the stems and endings have been distinguished by a difference of type, thus keeping constantly before the pupil the significance of the two essential clements which enter into the composition of inflected forms.
6. Syntax has received in every part special attention. An attempt has been made to exhibit, as clearly as possible, that beautiful system of laws which the genius of the language-that highest of all grammatical authority-has created for itself. The leading principles of construction have been put in the form of definite rules, and illustrated by carefully selected examples. To secure convenience of reference and to give completeness and vividness to the general outline, these rules, after being separately disoussed, are presented in a body at the close of the Syntax.
7. The subdivisions in each discussion are developed, as fav as practicable, from the leading idea which underlies the whole subject. Thus in the treatment of cases, moods, and tenses, various uses, comparatively distinct in themselves, are found to centre around some leading idea or thought, thus imparting to the subject both unity and simplicity.
8. Topics which require extended illastration are first presented in their completeness in general outline, before the separate points are discussed in detail. Thus a single page often foreshadows all the leading features of an extended discussion, imparting a completeness and vividness to the impression of the learner, impossible under any other treatment.
9. Special care has been taken to explain and illustrate with
the requisite fulness all difficult and intricate subjects. The Subjunctive Mood-that severest trial of the teacher's patience-has been presented, it is hoped, in a form at once simple and comprehensive. The different uses have not only been carefully classified, but also distinguished by characteristic and appropriate terms, convenient for the class-room.

For the benefit of those who prefer to begin with a more elementary manual in the study of Latin, it is in contemplation to publish a smaller Grammar on precisely the same plan as the present work, and with the same mode of treatment. This will be especially adapted to the wants of those who do not contemplate a collegiate course of study.

A Latin Reader, prepared with special reference to this work and intended as a companion to it, will be published at an early day.

In conclusion the author cheerfully acknowledges his indebtedness to other scholars, who have labored in the same field. The classification of verbs is founded in part on that of Grotefend and Krüger, a mode of treatment generally adopted in the recent German works on the subject, and well exhibited by Allen in his Analysis of Latin Verbs.
In Prosody much aid has been derived from the excellent works of Ramsay and Habenicht.

On the general subjects of Etymelogy and Syntax, his indebtedness is less direct, though perhaps no less real. His views of philology have been formed in a great measure under the moulding influence of the great German masters; and perhaps few Latin Grammars of any repute have appeared within the last half century, either in this country, England, or Germany, from which he has not received valuable suggestions. In the actual work of preparation, however, he has carried out his own plan, and presented his own modes of treatment, but he has aimed to avoid all untried novelties and to admit only that which is sustained by the highest authority, and confirmed by the actual experience of the class-room.

The auther is happy to express his grateful acknowledgments to the numerous Instructers who have favored him with valuable suggestions; especially to his esteemed friend and colleague, Professor J. L. Lincoln, of this University.
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II. Ablative of Place,

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## LATIN GRAMMAR．

1．Latin Gramacar treats of the principles of the Latin language．It comprises four parts：

I．Orthography，which treats of the letters and sounds of the language，

II．Etynology，which treats of the classification，inflec－ tion，and derivation of words．

III．Syntax，which treats of the construction of sen－ tences．

IV．Prosody，which treats of quantity and versification．

## PART FIRST．

## ORTHOGRAPHY

## ALPHABET

2．The Latin alphabet is the same as the English with the omission of $v$ ．

1．$U$ supplies the place of $v$ ．
2．$H$ is only a breathing，and not strictly entitled to the rank of a letter．

3．$J$ and $v$ dia not originally belong to the Latin：their places were supplied respectively by $i$ and $u$ ，which were used both as vowels and as consonants．
4．$K$ is sel⿳亠口冋口 used，and $y$ and $z$ occur only in words of Greek origin．

3．Classes of Letters，－Letters are divided into two classes：

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4．$K$ is sel⿳亠口冋口 used，and $y$ and $z$ occur only in words of Greek origin．

3．Classes of Letters，－Letters are divided into two classes：
I. Vovels, .
II. Consonants :

1. Liquids,
. . . . . . a, e, i, o, u, y.
2. Spirants,
1) Labials, $1, m, n$,
$h, s$.
2. Mirate, 2) Palatals, $\mathrm{p}, \mathrm{b}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{v}$. c, $\mathrm{g}, \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{q}, \mathrm{j}$.
t , d.
$\mathrm{x}, \mathrm{z}$.
3. Double Consonants,

## 4. Combinations of Letters.-We notice here,

1. Diplithongs-combinations of two vowels in one syllable. The most common are- ac, oe, au.
2. Double Consonants- $x=c s$ or $g s ; z=d s$ or $t s$.
3. Ch $, p h, t h$ are best treated, not as combinations of letters, but only as aspirated forms of $c, p$, and $t$, as $h$ is only a breathing.

SOUNDS OF LETTERS.
5. Scholars in different countries generally pronounce Latin substantially as they do their own languages. In this country, however, two distinct systems are recognized, generally known as the English and the Continental Method. ${ }^{1}$ For the convenience of the instructor, we add a brief outline of each.
I. English Method.

## 1. Sounds of Voveels.

6. Vowels generally have their long or short English sounds. But
7. These sounds in Latin, as in English, are somewhat modified by the consonants which accompany them.
8. $R$, final, or followed by another consonant, greatly obscures the vowel sound. Before $r$ thus situated, $e, i$, and $u$ are scarcely distinguishable from each other, as in the English her, fir, fur, while $a$ and $o$ are pronounced as in far, for, but between qu and
9. Dr, following qua, gives to $a$ something of the sound of $o: q u a d$ rupes, as in quadruped.
10. Long Sound.-Vowels have their long English sounds

1 Strictly speaking, there is no Continental Method, as every nation on the contiwent of Europe has its own method,

- $a$ as in fate, $e$ in mete, $i$ in pine, $o$ in note, $u$ in tube, $y$ in type-in the following situations:

1. In final syllables ending in a vowel: ${ }^{1}$ se, si, ser'-vi, $s^{\prime} r^{\prime}-v o$, cor $^{\prime}-n u, m i^{\prime}-s y$.
2. In all syllables, before a vowel or diphthong: de'-us, $d e-o^{\prime}-r u m, d e^{\prime}-\alpha e, d i-e^{\prime}-i, n i i^{\prime}-h i-l u m .^{2}$
3. In penultimate ${ }^{3}$ and unaccented syllables, not final, before a single consonant or a mute with $l$ or $r$ : $p a^{\prime}$-ter, $p a^{\prime}$-tres, $A^{\prime}$-thos, $O^{\prime}$-thrys, do-lo'-ris. But
1) A unaccented has the sound of $a$ final in America: men'sa.
${ }^{2}$ 2) $A$ after qu. See 6. 2.
2) $I$ (also y) unaccented, not final, generally has the short sound of e; nobitis (nob-elis), Amyous (Am'e-cus), But in the first syllable of a word it has-(1) before an accented vowel or diphthong, its long sound, $d_{l}$-ebus; and (2) before a single consonant or a mute with $l$ or $r$, some times the long sound, $i$ i-do'ne-us; and sometimes the short sound, philos-
ophus (phe-los'o-phus). ophus (phe-los'-o-phus).
3) $I$ and $u$ in special combinations. See 9.2 and 4.
vowels before $g l$ and $t l:=$ Pub-lic-o-la, Ahert sound before $b l$; and the other vowels before $g l$ and $t l:$ Pub-lic -o-la, Ag-la'-o-phon, At $t^{\prime}$-las.
4) .
5) In compounds, when the first part is entire and ends in a consonant, any vowel before such consonant has generally the short sound: $a$ in $a b^{\prime}-e s$, $e$ in red -it, in in in -it, $o$ in $o b$-it, prod-est. But those final syllables which, as exceptions, have the long sound before a consonant (8.1), retain that
sound in compounds: post-quam, sound in compounds: post-quam, hos'-ce.
8. Short Sound,-Vowels have the short English sound $-a$ as in fat, $e$ in met, $i$ in pin, $o$ in not, $u$ in tub, $y$ in myth-in the following situations:
9. In final syllables ending in a consonant: $a^{\prime}$-mat, $a^{\prime}$ met, rex'-it, sol, con'-sul, Te'-thys ; except post, es final, and os final in plural cases: res, di'-es, hos, $a^{\prime}$-gros.
10. In all syllables before $x$, or any two consonants except a mute with $l$ or $r(7,3)$ : rexc'it, bel'-lum, rex-e'-runt, bel-lo'rum.
11. In all accented syllables before one or more consonants, except the penultimate: dom'ť-nus, pat'-ri-bus. But

$$
\text { 1) } A, e \text {, or } o \text {, before a single consonant (or a mute with } l \text { or } r \text { ) fol- }
$$

[^0]lowed by $e, i$, or $y$, before another vowel, has the long sound: $a^{\prime}$-ci-es, $a^{\prime}-c r i-a, m e^{\prime}-r e-o$, do'-ce-o
2) $U$, in any syllable not final, before a single consonant or a mute with $l$ or $r$, except $b l^{\prime}(7.5)$, has the long sound: $P u^{i}-n i-c u s$, sa-lui-bri-tas.
3) Compounds. See 7.6).

## 2. Sounds of Diphthongs.

9. Ae and oe are pronounced like e:
1) long: $C a e^{\prime}-s a r$ (Ce'sar), $O e^{\prime}-t a\left(E^{\prime}-t a\right)$.
2) short: Daed-c-c-lus (Ded'-a-lus), Oed'-L-pus Au, as in author: au'-rum.
Ev, . . . . neuter: new-ter.
1. Ki and $o i$ are seldom diphthonss, but when so wsed they are pronounced as in height, coin : hei, proin, See Synaeresis, 669. II
2. I between an accented $a, c, o$, or $y$ and another vowel has the sound of $y$ consonant in yes: Acha'ia ( ${ }^{\prime}$-ka'-ra), Pompe'ius (Pom-pe'-yus), Latoia (Lato ${ }^{\circ}$-ya), Harmpia (Har-pr- ya). These combinations of $i$ with the follow-

3. $U i$, as a diphthong with the long sound of $i$, occurs in coti, hui, huic,
4. U , with the sound of $v$, sometimes unites with the following vowel or diphthong: - (1) after $q ; q$ qui (kwi), qua, que, quae :-(2) generally after
 9; linqua $($ lin'-gwa), lin'-guis, lin'-guae:- $(3)$ sometimes atter 8 , suu-deo
(swa'-deo).
These combinations of $u$ are analogous to those of $i$ mentioned above under 2 .
5. The consonants are pronounced in general as in English, but a few directions may aid the learner.
6. $\mathbf{C}, \mathrm{G}, \mathrm{S}, \mathrm{T}$, and $\mathbf{X}$ are generally pronounced with their ordinary English sounds. Thus,
7. $\sigma$ and $g$ are soft (ike s and j) before $e, i, y, a e$ and $o e$, and hard in other situations: co $e^{\prime}-d o$ (sedo), $c i^{\prime}-v i s, C y^{\prime}-r u s$, cae'-do,
 But
1) $O l$ is hard like $k$; chlorus (ko'-rus), Clui-os (Ki'os). But see 13.2.
2) $G$ has the soft sound before $g$ soft: $a j$-ger.
2. $S$ generally has its regular English sound, as in son, thus: $s a^{\prime}-\mathrm{cer}, s o^{\prime}-\mathrm{ror}$, s $i^{\prime}-\mathrm{dus}$. But
1) $S$ final, after $e, a e, a v, b, m, n, r$, is pronounced like ₹: spes, $p$ vacs, laus, urbs, hi' t -ms, mons, pars
2) In a feev words s has the sound of 2 , because so pronounced in Eng. lish words derived from them: Cai'sar, Caesar ; cant soch, cause; maisso, muse; mi'-ser, miser ; plyy'riz-cus, physic, etc.
3. $T$ has its regular English sound, as in time: ti-mor, to-tus.
4. $X$ has generally its regular English sound like $k_{3}$; rexas-i (rek'-si), $u x^{\prime}$-or ( $\mathrm{uk}^{\prime}$-sor). But
1) At the beginning of a word it has the sound of $z$ : Xan'-thus (Zanthus)
2) Between $c$ or $u$ and an accented vowel, it has the sound of $g z: \varepsilon x$, $i^{\prime}$-lis (egzi'lis, as in exile); ux-0'ri-us (ugzo' 'e-us, as in uxorious).
12. © , S, T, and $\mathbf{X}$-Aspirated--Before $i$ preceded by an accented syllable and followed by a vowel, $c, s, t$, and $x$ are aspirated $-c, s$, and $t$ taking the sound of $s h, \mathrm{x}$ that of $k s h$ : so 'ci-us (so'she-us), $A l^{\prime}$-si-um (Al'she-um), ar'-ti$u m$ (ar'she-um); ana'-i-us (ank'she-us). $C$ has also the sound of $s h$ before $e u$ and $y o$ preceded by an accented syllable: ca-du'-ce-us (ea-du'-she-us), Sic'-y-on (Sish'-e-on). But
13. $S$ immediately preceded by an accented vowel and followed by $i$ with another vowel, has the sound of $z h$ : Moe -si-a (Me'-zhe-a). But some proper nouns retain the sound of sh: $A^{\prime}$-si-a ( $A^{\prime}$-she-a), Lys ${ }^{\prime}-i$-as, So $0^{\prime}$-si-a, -o-do si- $a, T y s^{\prime}-i-a s$.
 tio::- $(2)$ in old infnititives in ier ; flecticier:- $-(3)$ generally in proper names in tion (tyon): Plielis'-tion, Ampltict-fy-on.
14. Silent Consonants.-An initial consonant, with or without the aspirate $h$, is sometimes silent: Thus
15. $C$ before $n: O n e^{\prime}-u s\left({ }^{\prime} e^{\prime}-\mathrm{us}\right)$
16. Chi or $p h$ before a mute: OMtho'-ni-a (Thonia), Phthi'-a (Thia).
17. $G$ or $m$ before $n$ : gna'-rus ; Mrne'-mon.
18. $P$ before $s$ or $t$ : Pssj'-che, Ptol'-emae'us.

II. Continental Method.

## 1. Sounds of Voneels.

14. Each vowel has in the main one uniform sound, ${ }^{1}$ but the length or duration of the sound depends upon the quantity of the vowel. See 20.

The vowel sounds are as follows:
$a$ like ä in father: e. g. $a^{\prime}-r a$.

${ }^{1}$ These sounds sometimes undergo slight modifications in uniting with the various sonsonants.

## 2. Sounds of Diphthongs.

15. Ae and oe like a in made, e. g. $\alpha e^{\prime}-t a s, c o e^{\prime}-$ lum. au " ou " out, " au'-rum. ${ }^{1}$

## 3. Sounds of Consonants.

16. The pronunciation of the consonants is similar to that of the English method, but it varies somewhat in different countries.

SYLLABLES.
17. In the pronunciation of Latin, every word has as many syllables as it has vowels and diphthongs; thus the Latin words, more, vice, acute, and persuade are pronounced, not as the same words are in English, but with their vowel sounds all heard in separate syllables; thus, $m o^{\prime}$-re, vi'ce, a-cu'-te, per-sua'-de.
18. Simple words are divided into syllables as follows:

1. After a vowel (or diphthong), with the Long Sound (7), consonants must be joined to the following vowel : pa'ter, pa'tres, a-gro'-rum, sa-cro' rum, audi:vi.
2. After a vowel with the Short Sound (8),
1) A single or double consonant is joined to such vowel, except after $i$ unaccented: gen'-e-ri, rex'-i, dom'-i-nus.
2) Two consonants are separated: bel'-lum, men'-sa, pat'-ri-bus. But $x$ following a consonant must be joined to the preceding syllable : Xerx'-
(as, anx $x^{-}$-i-uss. Of three or more consonants, the last, or, if a mute with $l$ or $r$, the last two must be joined to the following vowel: emp'-tus, tem'-phum, claus'tra, trans'-tra.
19. Compounds are divided into syllables,
20. Generally like simple words: ed'-o-mo (e, domo), an-tef't-ro (ante, fero), be-nev'-o-lens (bene, volens), mag-nan'-i-mus (magnus, animus).
21. But if the first part is entire and ends in a consonant, the compound is resolved into its component parts: $a b^{\prime}-e s, a b-i^{\prime}-r e$.
[^1]
## QUANTITY.

20. Syllables are in quantity or length either long, short, or common. ${ }^{1}$
21. Long.-A syllable is long in quantity,
22. If it contains a diphthong: haec.
23. If its vowel is followed by $j, x, z$, or any two consonants, except a mute with $l$ or $r$ : rex, mons.
24. Short.-A syllable is short, if its vowel is followed by another vowel or a diphthong: di'-es, vi'-ae, ni'-hil. ${ }^{2}$
25. Common.-A syllable is common, if its vowel, naturally short, is followed by a mute with $l$ or $r$ : $a^{\prime}-g r i$.
26. The signs $-{ }^{*}$ denote respectively that the syllables over which they are placed are long, short, or common: ã-grō-rüm.

## ACOENTUATION. I. Primary Accent.

25. Monosyllables are treated as accented syllables: mons, nos.
26. Other words are accented as follows: ${ }^{3}$
27. Words of troo syllables-always on the first: men'-sa.
28. Words of more than two syllables-on the penult ${ }^{*}$ if that is long in quantity, otherwise on the antepenult: " ho$n \overline{o n}^{-t}-{ }^{\prime} i s$, con'sü-lis. But
1) Genitives in $i$ for $i i$ and vocatives in $i$ for ie retain the accent of the full form: in-ge'-ni for in-ge'-ni-i; Mer-cu'-ri for Mer-cu'-ri-e.
2) Penulls common in quantity take the accent when used as long.
3) Compounds are accented like simple wor
4) Compounds are accented like simple words; but
(a) The enclitics, que, ve, ne, appended to words accented on the antepenult, throw back their accent upon the last syllable of that word: hom' i-ne'-que, hom'-i-nes'-que.
(b) Facio compounded with other words than prepositions, retains its own accent: cal-e-f $a^{\prime}$-cit.
${ }^{1}$ Common, i. e. sometimes long and sometimes short. For rules of quantity see Prosody. Two or three leading facts are here given for the convenience of the learner.

2 No account is taken of the breathing $h(\underline{2}$ 2).
${ }^{9}$ In the subsequent pages the pupil will be expected to accent words in pronunciation according to these rules. The quantity of the penult in words of more than two syllables will therefore bo marked (unless determined by 21 and 22 ), to enable him to ascertain the place of the accent.
${ }^{4}$ Peault, last syllable but one; antepenult, the last bat two.

## II. Secondary Accents.

27. A second accent is placed on the second or third syllable before the primary accent, -on the second, if that is the first syllable of the word, or is long in quantity, otherwise on the third : mon'ru-d.runt ; mon'-ucra'mus; instaui-ra-ve'runt
28. In the same way, a third accent is placed on the second or third syllable before the seeond accent: hon'-o-rif'ri-cen-tis'sis-mus.


PART SECOND.

## ETYMOLOGY.

29. ETymology treats of the classification, inflection, and derivation of words.
30. The Parts of Speech are-Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Prepositions, Conjunctions, and Interjections.

## CHAPTERI. NOUNS.

31. A Noun or Substantive is a name, as of a person, place, or thing: Cicèro, Cicero; Rōma, Rome; puer, boy; dömus, house.
32. A Proper Noun is a proper name, as of a person or place: Ciciro, Roma. A Common Noun is a name common to all the members of a class
33. of objects: virinon Noun is a mame common to all the members
 people; exeroitus, army.
2) Abstract Nouns-designating properties or qualities: virtus, virtue; ; justitia, justice.
lignum, wood ; al Nouns-designating materials as such: cuurum, gold;
lignum, wood; aquua, water.
32. Nouns have Gender, Number, Person, and Case. GENDER.
33. There are three genders-Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.
34. In some nouns, gender is determined by significa. tion; in others, by endings.
35. General Rulis for Gender.
I. Masculines.
36. Names of Males: Cicèro ; vir, man ; rex, king.
37. Names of Rivers, Winds, and Months: Rhēnus, Rhine; Nötus, south wind; Aprilis, April.
II. Feminines.
38. Names of Females: mulier, woman ; leaena, lioness.
39. Names of Countries, Toons, Islands, and Trees: Aegyptus, Egypt; Röma, Rome; Dēlos, Delos ; pirus, pear tree.
III. Neuters.
40. Indeclinable Nouns: fas, right ; nihil, nothing.
41. Words and Clauses used as indeclinable nouns: triste vale, a sad farewell; difficile est amicitiam manëre, it is difficalt for friendship to continue. ${ }^{1}$
42. Remarks on Gender.
43. Exceptions,-The endings ${ }^{2}$ of nouns sometimes give them a gender at variance with these rules, Thus, 1) The names of rivers-Allülla, Allia, Lethe, Styx, and sometimes others, are feminine by ending.
2) Some names of countries, toums, islands, trees, and animals take the gender of their endings. See 47. 1.
2. Massolline or Feminine.- A few personal appellatives applicable to both sexes and d ferw names of animals are sometimes masculine and sometimes fominine, but when used without distinct reference to sex they are bos, ox, cow.
Cos, ox, corv. Nobile Nouns have different forms fon diferent cenders. flue, filia, son, daughter; rex, regina, king, queen; leo, leaena, lion, lioness.
3. Epicene Nouns have but one gender, but are used for both sexes. They apply only to the inferior animals, and usually take the gender of their endings: gnsor, goose (male or female), masculine; aquild, eagle, feminine.

## PERSON AND NUMBER.

37. The Latin, like the English, has three persons and two numbers. The first person denotes the speaker; the second, the person spoken to; the third, the person spoken of. The singular number denotes one, the plural more than one.
[^2]
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[^3]CASES.
38. The Latin has six cases:

Names.
Nominative,
Genitive,
Dative,
Accusative,
Vocative,
Ablative,

English Equivalents.
Nominative.
Possessive, or Objective with of. Objective with to or for. Objective.
Nominative Independent.
Objective with from, $b y$, in, with.

1. Oblique Cases,-In distinction from the Nominative and Vocative (casus recti, right cases), the other cases are called oblique (casus obliqui).
2. Case-Endings,- In form the several cases are in general distinguished from each other by certain terminations called case-endings: Nom. mensa, Gen, mensae, \&c.
3. Cases Alike.-But certain cases are not distinguished in form. Thus,
1) The Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative in neuters are alike, and in the plural end in a.
2) The Nominative and Vocative are alike in all pure Latin nouns, except those in $u s$ of the second declension (45).
3) The Dative and Ablative Phural are alike.

DECLENSIONS.
39. The formation of the several cases is called Declension.
40. Five Declensions.-In Latin there are five declensions, distinguished from each other by the following

41. Stem and Endings.-In any noun, of whatever declension,

1. The stem may be found by dropping the ending of the genitive singular.
2. The several cases may be formed by adding to this stem the case-endings.

## FIRST DECLENSTON

## 42. Nouns of the first declension end in

$\breve{\mathrm{a}}$ and ē,-feminine; ās and ēs,-masculine.
But pure Latin nouns end only in $a$, and are declined as follows:


1. Case-Endings.-From an inspection of this example, it will be seen that the several cases are distinguished from each other by their case-endings.
2. Examples for Practice.-With these endings decline:

Alu, wing; ăqua, water; causa, cause; fortüna, fortune; porta, gate; victoria, victory.
3. Irregular Caso-Endings,-The following occur:

1) As for ae in the Gen. of familia, in composition with puter, müter. filius, and filia: patarfamilias, father of a family.
2) Ai for the genitive ending $a e$, in the poets : aulaz for aulae, of a hall.
3) Um for ärum in the Gen, Plur:: Dardanidum for Dardanidärum, of the descendants of Dardanus.
4) Abus for is in the Dat. and Abl. Plur., especially in dea, goddess, and filia, daughter, to distinguish them from the same cases of deus, god, and filius, son.
4. Artiole,-The Latin has no article. A Latin noun may therefore, according to the connection in which it is used, be translated either without any article, with $a$ or $a n$, or with the: coronna, crown, a crown, the crown.
5. Greek Nouns.-Nouns of this declension in e, as, and es are of Greek origin, and are declined as follows:

Epitơme, epitome. Aenēas, Aeneas. Pyrītes, pyrites.


1. Examples for Practice.-Aloe, aloe; boreas; north wind; comites, comet.
2. Paradigms.--Observe 1) That in the Plur. and in the Dat. Sing., Greek nouns are declined tike mensa, and 2) That in the Gen. Sing., only those in e depart from the regular ending $a$ a.
3. Many Greek nouns assume the Latin ending $a$, and are declined like menes, Many in e have also a form in $a$; epitobme, epitoma, epitone.

## 44. Gender in First Declevsion.

## Feminine endings: a, e.

Masentine endings: as,
Excertrons.-Maseutine- (1) a few in a by signification: poela, poet;
agricolla, husbandman. See 35. 1.-(2) Hadria, Adriatic sea; pometimes agricoula, husbandman. See
dima, deer, and talpa, mole.

DIRE (sfound peatisasor.GENERA
45. Nouns of the second declension end in
èr, ĭr, ŭs, os,-masculine ; ŭm, on,-neuter.
But pure Latin nouns end only in er, $i r, u s, u m$, and are declined as follows:

Servus, slave. Puer, boy. Ager, field. Templum, temple.

| $N$. servŭs | puěr | ăgěr | templăım |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $G$. servi | puěrs | ăgri | templir |
| D. serv $\overline{\mathbf{\omega}}$ | puěr¢ | agre ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | templō |
| A. servăın | puěrŭm | agrŭm | templăın |
| V. serve | puěr | agěr | templйм |
| A. serv $\overline{\bar{\varphi}}$ | puěrō | agrō | templö |
|  |  | Ral. |  |
| N. servi | puěri | ăgri | templa |
| $G$. servōrŭm | puĕrörimm | agrörùm | templörc̆ın |
| D. servis | puěrı̄̆s | agris | templis |
| A. servōs | puěrōs | agrës | templa |
| V. servi | puěrı | agri | templă |
| A. servis. | puĕris. | agris. | templis. |

- 1. Case-Endings.-From an inspection of the paradigms it will be seen that they are declined with the following


2. Examples for Practice.-Like sERvएs: annus, year ; dominnus,

1 master.-Like puEs: gèner, son-in-law; söcer, father-in-law.-Like AGER: füber, artisan; majister, master.-Like тEMPLCM: bellum, war; regnum, kingdom.
3. Paradigms,-Observe

1) That puer differs in declension from servus only in dropping the

[^4]endings $u s$ and $e$ in the Nom. and Voc.; Nom. puer for puěrus, Voc. puer for pǚe.
2) That ager differs from pued only in dropping $e$ before $r .{ }^{1}$
3) That templum, as a neuter noun, has the Nom., Accus., and Voc. alike, ending in the plural in $a$. See 38. 3.
4. Ager and Puer,-Most nouns in er are declined like ager, but the following in er and ir are declined like puer.

1) Nouns in ir: vir, viri, man.
2) Compounds in fer and ger: armiger, armigĕri, armor-bearer; signथ̈fer, signiféri, standard-bearer.
3) Adulter, adulterer; Liber, Bacchus; Celtiber, Celtiberian; ${ }^{2}$ liběri, children; gener, son-2n-law;
Iber, Spaniard.
5. Irregular Case-Endings.-The following occur :
1) I for $i \pi$ by contraction, in the Gen. Sing. without change of accent: ingĕni for ingén $\ddot{\text { zis }}$, of talent.
2) I for ie, common in proper names in ius, without change of accent: Mercürri for Merou'rie, Mercury. Also in fili for filie, son ; geni for genie, guardian spirit.
3) Us for $e$ in the Voc., the regular form in deus, god, but rare in other words.
4) Um for $\begin{gathered}\text { rum, common in a few words denoting money, weight, and }\end{gathered}$ measure : talentum for talentorrum, of talents; also in a few other words: doum for deörum; lī̆örum for Vizberōrum; Argioum for Argīoōrùm.
6. Deus.-This has, Voo. Sing., deus; Nom. Plur., dei, dii, $d i$; Gen., deōrum, deum; Dat. and Abl., deis, diis, dis ; otherwise regular.

## 46. Greek Nouns.

Nouns of this declension in os and on are of Greek origin.

1. Nouns in os are generally declined like those in $u s$, except in the accusative singular, where they have on: Delös, Deli, Detō, Delön, etc., island Delos.
2. Nouns in on are declined like templum, with on for $u m$ in the nominative, accusative, and vocative.
3. Most Greek nouns generally assume in prose the Latin forms in us and $u m$, but sometimes, especially in poetry, they retain in one or more cases the peculiar endings of the Greek. Thus,
${ }^{1}$ In puer, $\sigma$ belongs to the stem, and is accordingly retained in all the cases; but in ager it is inserted in the Nom. and Voc. Sing., as the pure stem agr would be diffieult to pronounce.
${ }^{2}$ Celtiber and Iber have e Tong in the Gen, and Mulciber sometimes drops a.
1) Genitreve Singular, $\delta$ (rarely $\mathbf{u}$ ): Andrŏgeō from Andrŏgeōs. 2) Accusative " o or on: Atho, Athon " Athos. - 8) Nominative Plural, oe: cănêphŏroe " cănēphơrǒs. 4) Genitive " ōn(om): bûcơlícōn " bûcơličơn.
2) Greek nouns in eŭs admit certain forms of the third declension: $O$ pheus; G., Orphē̈s; D., Orphei ; A., Orphiea; V., Orpheew. - Punthüs has Voc. Panthau, and pelägus, Plur. peläge.
47. Gender in Second Declension.

Masculine endings: er, ir, us, os.
Neuter endings: um, on.

## I. Frminiaf by Exception.

1. Nouns feminine by signifcation: Aegyptus, Egypt; Corinthus, Corinth. See 35.2 , but observe that

Many names of countries, toons, istands, and trees follow the gender of their endings.-(1) Coustriss : Bosporrus, Isthmus, Pontus, masculino by ending; those In $u m$ and plarals in $a$, neuter by ending.-(2) Towss: Canopus and plurals in $i$, mascoline; those in $u m$ and plurals in $a$, neuter.-(8) IsLasDs: those in $u m$ and plurals in $a$, neuter.- (4) Tress: oleaster nad pinaster, masculine. ${ }^{*}$ Some names of shrubs and plants are feminine, like those of trees, while others take the gender of their ondings.
2. Other Feminine exceptions are

1) Most names of gems and ships: amethystus, sapphirus.
2) Alous, belly; carbăsus, sail; collus, distaff; శüumus, ground; vannus, sieve.
3) Many Greek feminines, as (1) nouns in ödus, metros, thongus : periödus, period; diamětros, diameter; diphthongus, diphthong; (2) abyseus, abyss; atömus, atom; dialectos, dialect.
II. Neutrr by Exception.

Peăgus, sea ; virus, poison; vulgus (rarely mase.), common people.

## THIRD DECLENSTON.

48. Nouns of the third declension end in
$i, 0, y, c, 1, n, x, s, t, x$
0 , or, os, er, es increasing in the genitive.
II. Feminine Eadings:
as, is, $\mathrm{ys}, \mathrm{x}$, es not increasing in the genitive, s preceded by a consonant.

## III. Neuter Endings:

a, e, i, y, e, l, n, t, ar, ur, us.
49. Nouns of this declension may be divided into two classes:
I. Nouns which have a case-ending in the nominative singular. These all end in $e, s$, or $\alpha$.
II. Nouns which have no case-ending in the nominative singular.

In class II. the Nom. Sing. is either the same as the stem, or is formed from it by dropping or changing one or more letters of the stem: consul, Gen. consulis; stem, consald, a consul; leo, leõnis, stem, leon (Nom. drops n), lion; carmen, carminis, stem, carmŭn (Nom. changes in to en), song.
50. Class I.-With Nominative Ending.
I. Nouns in es, is, s impure, and $\mathbf{x}:-$ with stem unchanged in nominative.

II. Nouns in es, is, s impure, and $\mathbf{x}$ :-with stem changcd in nominative.
Miles, $m$. Lapis, $m . \quad$ Ars, $f . \quad$ Judex, $m$. and $f$.
$\left.\begin{array}{llll}\text { soldier: } & \text { stone. } & \text { art. } & \text { (sivaular. }\end{array}\right]$

[^5]- Impure, i. e, preceded by a consoconant ${ }^{3}$ Sometimes $a v i$.

| D. militǐbŭs | lapidilums | artibus | judicǐbǔ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| A. milites | lapides | artes | judicēs |
| $V$. milites | lapides | artēs | judicēs |
| militubŭs. | lapidibŭs. | artibŭs. | judicibi |

III. Nouns in as, os, us, and e:-those in as, os, and us with stem changed, those in e with stem unchanged.
Civitas, $f . \quad$ Nepos, $m . \quad$ Virtus, $f . \quad$ Mare, $n$.
state. grandson. virtue. sea.

51. Class II.-Without Nominative Ending.
I. Nouns in 1 and $\mathbf{r}$ :-with stem unchanged in nominative.


[^6]A. sôlēs
V. soolès
A. soblbŭs.
consǔlës consulībŭs.
passěrēs passěrēs passerībŭs.
vultưres vultŭrēs vulturiloăs.
II. Nouns in $\mathbf{o}$ and $\mathbf{r}$ :-with stem changed in nominative.

|  | Pater, $m$. father. vaular. | Pastor, $m$. shepherd. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. leoLERE FLAvirgo M | pătěr | pastor |
| G. leōnis ERITA virginis | pãtris | astoris |
| D. leōn $\mathbf{l}$ virgin $\overline{\mathbf{x}}$ | patri | pastor $\mathbf{I}$ |
| A. leōnĕma virginem | patrén | pastörĕm |
| V. leo (x) virgo | pat | pastc |
| A. leöne virgine | patré | pastöré |
| $N$. leōness virginēs | tre | astōrē |
| $G$. leōnume virginŭm | patriam | pastorum |
| D. leonîbăıs virginîbŭs | patribuss | pastorilbŭ |
| A. leōness virgines | patress | pastôres |
| $V$. leōnès virginess | patres | astorees |
| conilbŭs. virginibŭ | patribora | pastorito |

III. Nouns in en, us, and ut:-with stem changed in nominative.
Carmen, $n$. Opus, $n . \quad$ Corpus, $n$. Capūt, $n$.
song. Opus, $\qquad$
Corpus, $n$.
head. body.
singular.

| N. carměn | о̆рйs | corpŭs |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| G. carminis | opěris | corporis | eapitiss |
| D. carmin $\mathbf{I}$ | operri | corpơri | capiti |
| A. carměn | opŭs | corpŭs | capŭt |
| V. carměn | opŭs | corpŭs | capurt |
| A. carminnĕ | Opě̌¢̌ | corpóre | capiter |
| $N$. carmină | opěră | corpǒră | capită |
| G. carminŭm | орĕrı̆ım | corporrăım | capiturm |
| D. carminibŭs | operimuris | corporiburis | capititoc̆ıs |
| A. carmină | opěrà | corpǒră | capità |
| V. carmĭnă | operră | corporră | capita |

A. carminǐbŭs. operibŭs.
capițіbйs.
52. Case-Endings.-From an inspection of the paradigms, it will be seen,

1. That the nouns belonging to Class II. differ from those of Class I. only in taking no case-ending in the nominative and vocative singular.
2. That all nouns of both classes are declined with the following

Case-Endings.

53. Declension. ${ }^{\text {- }}$ To apply these endin must know, besides the nominative singular,

1. The Gender, as that shows which set of endings must be used.
2. The Genitive Singular (or some oblique case), as that contains the stom (41) to which these endings must be added.
3. Exinyruis for Pajotiog: Class

| Rüpes, | Gon. rupis, f. | rock; | hospes, | Gon. hospitis, m. | guest. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| vestis, | vestis, f. | garment; cuspis, | cuspidis, f. | spear. |  |
| trabs, | träbis, f. | beam; | mons, | montis, m. | mountain. |
| lex, | lẽgis, f. law; | lapex, | apicis, m. mummit. |  |  |

 libertas, libertātis, f. liberty; sãlus, $A$ salatis, f.
${ }^{1}$ In nouns in $\infty(=\operatorname{cs}$ or gs$), s$ is the case-ending, and the $c$ or $g$ belongs to the stem.
${ }^{2}$ The dash here implies that the case-ending is sometimes wanting, as in all nouns of Class II.
${ }^{3}$ The enclosed endings are less common than the others.
4 For Irregularities see Formation of Cases (55-98) and Irregular Nouns,

Exsul, Gen. exsǔlis, m. and f. exile; dǒlor, Gen. dolöris, m. pain. actio, actiōnis, f. action; imăgo, imaginis, f. image. nōmen, nomĭnis, $\mathrm{n} . \quad$ name; tempus, temporis, n . time.
3) $s$ in nouns in $x$ : as the double consonant $x=c s$ or $g s$, the $c$ or $g$ belongs to the stem and the $s$ is the ending

Accordingly the genitive changes the endings $e, s, c s$, and is into is, as above
8. Irnegularities and Exceptions.-See special rules, 58-83.
57. Class II. forms the genitive by adding is to the nominative: sobl, sollis, sun; carcer, carcéris, prison; pastor, pastôris, shepherd; lien, liēnis, spleen.

1. CLass II. includes all nouns of this declension not embraced under Class I.
2. Changas and Irragularities.-See special rules.
II. SPECIAL RULES.
I. Words ending in a Vowel.

Genitive Formation-Various.
$\Delta$.
58. Nouns in a form the genitive in ătis; poèma, poemitis, poem. These are of Greek origin.

1. Tun Finsr Mrinon applies in cemeal to mute stem
2. The Second Method applies to most liquid stems.
3. Euphonic Changes.
4. Euphonic Changes:
1) $\mathrm{I}, \mathrm{d}$, and r before s are dropped; c and g before s unite with it and form $\mathbf{x} ; \mathbf{i}$ is sometimes changed to $\mathrm{e}:$ Gen. civitätis, N. civ̌̀tas (for civitats, t dropped) ; G. milutis, N. miles (milits, t dropped and i changed to e); G. rëgis, N. rex (regs).
2) The endiugs on and in of masc. and fem. stems are generally changed to O: G. leönis, N. leo (for leon); G. virgĭnis, N. virgo (for virgin). But in neuters in is changed to en: G. carminis, carmen (for carmin).
3) The endings er and or of neut. stems are generally changed to us : G. opëris, N. дpus (for oper): G. corpöris, N. corpus (for corpor). 4) Other changes sometimes occur.

NIVERS

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Genitive Singutar. } \\
& \text { I\% General rules. }
\end{aligned}
$$

56. Class I. forms the genitive singular by changing the nominative ending into is: märe, märis, sea; urbs, urbis, city; nübes, nubis, cloud; hostis, hostis, enemy ; arc (ares), arcis, citadel ; rex (regs), rēgis, king.
57. Class I. includes, it will be remembered, nouns in $c, s$ (with a few exceptions), and $x$.
58. The Nominative Ending in this class is
1) $e$ in nouns in $e$ : mare.
2) $s$ in nouns in $s$; but if $e$ or $i$ precedes, it may be $e s$ or is; thus it is $s$ in urbs, es in mubes, and is in hostis.
59. Nouns in e form the genitive in is ; mare, maris,
sea.
60. Nouns in $\mathbf{i}$ form the genitive in is, or are indeclinable: sinäpi, sinäpis, mustard.

Excerptoxs.-The compounds of měli form it in itis: oxymerli, oxymetitis, oxymel.
-61. Nouns in o form the genitive in ōnis: leo, leōnis, lion; actio, actionis, action.

Exoeptions.-The following form it in

1. Ơnis:-most national names, Macedo, Macedornis, Macedonian.
2. Inis: :-Apollo; hŏmo, man; nêmo, nobody ; turbo, whirlwind; and nouns in do and go: grando, grandinis, hail; virgo, virgìnis, maiden; except-harpăgo, ōnis; ligo, ōnis; praedo, ōnis, also comèdo, cüdo, mango, spüdo, unèdo, vido.
3. nis :-cŭro, carnis, flesh.
4. ēnis:-Anio, Aniönis, river Anio; Nerio, Neriëms.
5. us:-few Greek feminines: Dido, Didus.
Y.
6. Nouns in $\bar{y}$ form the genitive in y̌is (y̌s, ys), or
are indeclinable: misy, misy̆is (misy̆os, misys) copperas These are of Greek origin.
II. Words ending in Mutes or Liquids: $\mathbf{c}, \mathbf{1}, \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{r}, \mathrm{t}$. Genitive adds is.
c.
7. There are two nouns in $\mathbf{c}$ : älec, alēcis, pickle; lac, lactis, milk.
8. Nouns in 1 form the genitive by adding is: soll, sölis, sun.
9. Two add lis:-fel, fellis, gall ; mel, mellis, honey.
10. Nouns in ă1 lengthen a in the Gen; animal, animalis, animal; except sal, salt, and masculine proper names: Hannibal, Hannibälis.
11. Nouns in $n$ form the genitive by adding is, but those in en form it in inis: paean, paeānis, paean; flümen, fluminis, stream.
12. The fero nouns in ēn (e long), mostly Greek, add is: liēn, lienis, spleen.
13. Nouns in an, on, in, yn are Greek, and sometimes have os for is in the Gen.: Pän, Pänos for Panis, god Pan.-Some in on have onis or ontis : aëdon, aedönis, nightingale; Xenöphon, Xenơphontis.
14. Nouns in $r$ form the genitive by adding is : carcer, carcèris, prison; fulgur, fulgŭris, lightning.
15. Nouns in ăr generally lengthen a in the Gen.: caloür, caleäft, spur; but a few retain the short vowel.-Far, corn, has farris; hapar, liver, hepătis.
16. Some nouns in er drop e in the genitive:
1) Those in ter: püter, patris, father; except lüter, late̛ris, tile, and Greek nouns: crater, cratëris, bowl.
2) Imber and names of months in ber: imber, imbiris, shower; Scptember, Septembris.
3. Iter, way, has itinerris; Jupǔter, Jouvis.
4. Nouns in or have generally öris : pastor, pastöris, shepherd; but a few retain the short vowel. Cor, heart, has cordis.
5. Four in ur have ǒris : ěbur, ivory; fémur, thigh; jěcur, liver; röbur, strength; but femur has also feminnis, and jecur, jecinöris, jecinerris, and jocineress.

## т.

67. Nouns in $\boldsymbol{t}$ form the genitive in itis : caput, capi$t i s$, head. Caput and its compounds are the only nouns in $t$.
III. Words ending in $S$ preceded by a Vowel or Diphthong.

## Genitive Formation-Various.

$\Delta \mathrm{s}$.
68. Nouns in as form the genitive in ätis: aetas, aetätis, age ; civitas, civitātis, state.

Exceptions.-The following form it in

1. ătis :-ănas, anătis, duck, and neuter Greek nouns.
2. ădis:-vas, vădis, surety; Arcas, Arcadian, and fem. Greek nouns; ${ }^{1}$ lampas, lampüdis, torch.
3. ăris:-mas, märis, a male.
4. āsis:-vas, vãsis, vessel.
5. assis:-as, assis, an as (a coin).
6. antis :-only masc. Greek nouns; adümas, antis, adamant.
7. Nouns in ēs (e long) form the genitive in is: fämes, famis, hunger ; nūbes, nubis, cloud.

Exceptions.-The following form it in

1. edis:-(1) ēdis : hëres, heredis, heir; merces, reward.-(2) èdis :
pes, pèdis, foot.-(3) aedis : pracs, praedis, surety.
2. eris:-(1) ĕris: Gëres, Cerĕris.-(2) aeris: aes, aeris, copper.
3. etis:-(1) ëtis: quies, rest, with compounds, inquies, requies, and a few Greek words: tëbes, täpes.-(2) ětis: aSies, fir tree; aries, ram; paries, wall.
4. essis:-bes, bessis, two thirds,
5. $i$ : - a few Greek proper names: Xerxes, $i$.
6. Nouns in ĕs (e short) form the genitive in irtis: miles, militis, soldier.

Exospiloss. -The following form it in

1. ětis:- interpres, interpreter; sĕges, crop; tĕges, covering.
2. ǐdis:-obses, hostage; praeses, president.

Is.
71. Nouns in is form the genitive in is: avis, avis, bird; canis, canis, dog.

Exceprions.-The following form it in

1. ěris:-č̌nis, ciněris, ashes ; cucŭmis, cucumber ; pulvis, dust; vómis, ploughshare. *
2. Ǐdis:-cäpis, cup; cassis, helmet; euspis, spear; lěpis, stone; promulsis, antepast, and a few Greek ${ }^{1}$ words: as tyrannis, idis, tyranny. Sometimes zb is and tigris.
3. inis:-pollis, flour; sanguis, blood.
4. Iris:-glis, gliris, dormouse.
5. issis :-sèmis, semissis, half an as.
6. Itis:-lis, strife; Dis, Quuris, Somnis.

- LRTIALIS os.

72. Nouns in os form the genitive in öris: flos, floris, flower; mos, moris, custom.

Exceprross.- The following form it in

1. ötis:-cos, cotis, whetstone; dos, dowry ; něpos, grandson; sacer-
dos, priest; and a few Greek words: rkinocěros, the rhi-
2. ödis:-custos, custödis, guardian.
3. ōis :-few masc. Greek nouns: hêros, hero; Miños, Tros.
4. Oris:-arbos for arbor, tree.
5. ossis:-os, ossis, bone ( $o s$, mouth, regular : oris).
6. övis:-bos, bäris, ox.
US.
7. Nouns in us form the genitive in ĕris or orris: lätus, latëris, side ; corpus, corpöris, body.
8. Genitive in ěris.-Acus, foedus, funnus, gěnus, glơmus, lătus, mînus, ǒlus, ŏnus, ŏpus, pondus, rüdus, scělus, siidus, ulcus, vellus, Věnus, viscus, vulnus.
9. Genaitive in ǒris.-Corpus, děcus, deděcus, fačnus, fenus, frigus, Iépus, litus, němus, pectus, pěcus, pěnus, pignus, stercus, tempus, tergus. Exceptions.-The following form it in
10. uris:-(1) ūris: crus, leg; jus, right; jus, soup ; mus, mouse; pus, pus; rus, country; tus (thus), incense ; tellus, earth. -(2) üris: Ľgus, Ligŭris, Ligurian.
11. त̄tis:-juventus, youth; sŭlus, safety; sencctus, old age; servitus, servitude; virtus, virtue.
12. udis:-(1) ūdis: incus, anvil; pălus, marsh; subsceus, dovetail.-
(2) ǔdis: pǐcus, peciuldis, a head of cattle.-(3) audis:

- fraus, fraudis, fraud; laus, praise.
${ }^{1}$ Greek nouns sometimes have idos or even ios for idts; Salamis has Salaminis; Simois, Simoentis.

4. uis:-grus, gruis, crane; sus, swine.
5. untis :-a few Greek names of places: Trapezus, untis.
6. odis :-Greek compounds in pus : tripus, tripodis, tripod.
7. eos:-Greek nouns in eus, when of this declension: Theisens, Theseos.
ys.
8. Nouns in ys form the genitive in y̆is, ÿos, ys: Othrys, Othry̆os.

These are of Greek origin; a few of them have yydis: chlamys, chlamy̌dis, cloak.
IV. Words ending in $S$ preceded by a Consonant.

Genitive in is or tis.
$\mathrm{BS}, \mathrm{MS}, \mathrm{ps}$.
75. Nouns in $\mathrm{bs}, \mathrm{ms}$, and ps form the genitive by changing s into is: urbs, urbis, city; hiems, hiëmis, winter; daps, däpis, food.

Exceptions.-The following form it in

1. Ǐpis:-nouns in ceps from capio: princeps, principis, prince. Also ŭdeps, fat; forceps, forceps.
2. ŭpis:-auceps, aucüpis, fowler.
3. ȳphis:-gryps, gryphis, griffin.
LS, NS, RS.
4. Nouns in 1s, ns, and rs form the genitive by changing $s$ into tis: puls, pultis, broth; mens, mentis, mind; ars, artis, art.

Exceptions.-The following form it in
dis:-frons, frondis, leaf; glans, acorn; juglans, walnut.
V. Words ending in $\bar{X}$.-Genitive in cis or gis. $\Delta x$.
77. Nouns in $a x$ form the genitive in ācis : pax, pācis, peace.

Excertions.-The following form it in

1. ăcis:-fax, fäcis, torch; and a few Greek nouns.
2. actis :-few Greek names of men : Astyŭnax.

## Ex.

78. Nouns in ex form the genitive in icis: jüdex, judicis, judge.

Exceptions.-The following form it in

1. ecis:-(1) ēcis: älex, pickle; vervex, wether.-(2) ěcis: nex, murder ; fentsex, mower.-(3) aecis : faex, faecis, lees.
2. egis :-(1) ēgis: lex, law; rex, king, and their compounds.-(2) ěgis: grex, flock; aqǔlex, water-inspector.
3. ectilis:-supellex, supellectilis, furniture.
4. Igis:-rēmex, remigis, rower.
5. is :-sënex, sěnis, old man.
IX.
6. Nouns in ix form the genitive in icis: rädix, $r a$. dzeis, root.

Exceptions.-The following form it in

1. Ǐcis:-appendix, appendix; călix, cup; fornix, arch; pix, pitch; sülix, willow, and a few others.
2. Igis:-strix, screech owl; and a few Gallic names: Dumnorrix,

Orgetơrix.

80. Nouns in ox are: voa, vöcis, voice; nox, noctis, night.

There are also a few national names which form the genitive in ocis or ơgis: Cappüdox, Cappadöcis; Allūbrox, Allobrŏgis. UX.
81. Nouns in ux form the genitive in ŭcis: dux, dücis, leader.
Exceptions.-The following form it in

1. ucis:-(1) ūcis: lux, lucis, light; Pollux.-(2) aucis: faux (def.), faucis, throat.
2. ugis:-(1) ūgis : frux, frügis, fruit.-(2) ügis : conjux, conjügis, spouse.

## YX.

82. Nouns in yX are from the Greek, and form the genitive variously; Eryx, Erycis, Eryx; bombyx, bombycis, silkworm; Styc, Stÿgis, Styx ; coccyx, cocey̆gis, cuckoo; ŏnyx, ony̆chis, onyx.
X PRECEDED BY A CONSONANT,
83. Nouns in $\mathbf{X}$ preceded by a consonant change $\mathbb{X}$ into cis : arx, arcis, citadel.

Exckprioss,-A few Greek nouns form it in gis: phălanx, pholengis phalanx.

## - Dative Singular.

84. Endivg:-i: urbs, wrbz̃, city. But

The old dative in $e$ also occurs: acre, for aeri.

## Accusative Singular.

85. Endivg :-like Nom., ěm, ǐm.
I. Exding : -like nom. in neuters: märe, mare, sea
II. Exdiva :-ĕm, in most masculines and feminines: urbs, urböm.
III. Exdise:-ĭm, in the following:
86. In names of rivers and places in is not increasing in the genitive; Tibêris, Tibǔrim; Hispalis, Hispălim.
87. In amussis, rule ; barris, ploughtail ; rä̀is, hoarseness ; sitite, thirst ; tussis, cough; vis, force.
88. Generally in: febris, pelvis, puppis, restis, securris, turris; someimes in: clavis, messis, nävis, pares.
89. In Greek nouns in is, G. is, and in many in is, G. vdos or $₹$ dis though the latter have also the regular idem: poesis, poosim; Agis (Agit dis), 4 gim or $\Delta g$ gidem. For Greek nouns see also 93 .

Vocative Singular.
86. Ending :-like nominative; rex, rex. But

Some Greek nouns drop s: Pallas, Palla; Orpheus, Orpheu. See 94.

## Ablative Singular.

## 87. Ending:-と̌, i.

I. Exdixa:-®, in most nouns; urbis, urbe, city.
II. Exmine:- -1 , in the following classes of words:

1. In neuters in e , aI, and ar: sedile, sedili, seat; vectigal, vectigali, tax ; calcar, calcäri, spur. But

The following have e:-(1) Names of towns in e; Praeneste.-(2) Nouns in al and ar with a short in Gen.: sal, säle, salt; nectar, nectare, nectar.-(3) Far, farre, corn.-(4) Generally rette, net, and in poetry sometimes müre.
2. In adjectives in er and is used substantively: September, Septembrì, September; ${ }^{1}$ familiäris, familiäri, friend. But

Adjectives used as proper names, and juvĕnis, youth, have e; Juvenäliss, Juvenāle, Juvenal.
${ }^{1}$ Names of months are adjectives used substantively, with mensis, month, under-
stood.
3. In nouns in is with im in the accusative (85): Tibĕris, Tiberrim, Tiběri; š̌tis, sitim, siti.
III. Ending :-er or i; in nouns with em or im in the Ace,: turris, turrem or turrim, turre or turri. But

1. Restis, Acc. restim, rarely em, has reste; while nävis, navem, rarely im, has generally navi.
2. Greek nouns in is, G. rdis, generally have $e$, even tho
may have im: Puris, Ace, Parim or Paridem, Abl. Paride.
3. Some other nouns occasionally form the Abl. in $i$.-(1) several in is. amnis, anguis, ävis, bulis, civis, classis, collis, ignis, orbis, postis, rautis, unguis, and a few others. -(2) some names of towns, to denote the place in which: Oarthagini, at Carthage ; Tiburri, at Tibur.-(3) imber, rus, sors, supellex, vesper, and a few others.

Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural.
88. Ending:-ēs, ă, iă.
I. Exprse:-ës in masculines and feminines: urbs, urbes.
II. Exding:-ă, iă in neuters:

1. a in most neuters: carmen, carmina.
2. ia in neuters which admit $i$ in the ablative ( 87 . II.) : mưre, maria. III. Rare Endings are
3. The ancient endings-ēis and is in the Acc. Plur. of masculines and feminines with ium in the Gen.:- civeis, civis, for cives.
4. The Greek endings-ĕs, as, is, $e$. See 95 and 98 .
5. Vis, force, has Plur.: vires, virium, viribus, vires, vires, viribus.

## 89. Ending:-um, ium.

I. Ending :-um in most nouns: leo, leōnum.
II. Evining :-ium in the following classes of words:

1. In neuters with ia in the plural, i. e., those in $e, a l$, and $a r$ ( $a l$ and ar with $a$ in Gen.) ; müre, maria, marium ; aň̌mal, animälia, animalium, animal.
2. In most nouns of more than one syllable in ns and rs: ${ }^{1}$ cliens, clientium, client; cohors, cohortium, cohort.
3. In many nouns not increasing in the genitive:
1) Most nouns in es and is not increasing: ${ }^{2}$ nūbes, nubium; ǎvis, avium.
2) Cäro, flesh; imber, storm ; linter, boat ; utor, leathern sack ; venter, belly; and generally Insüber, Insubrian.

1 Some of these often have $u m$ in poetry and sometimes even in prose, as pärene, I
${ }^{2}$ But cỉnis, juvěnis, strues, үätes, have um; ăpis, mensis, sëdes, volucris, um of ium; compes, ium.
4. In monosyllables in $s$ and $x$ preceded by a consonant ${ }^{1}$ and in a few in $s$ and x preceded by a vowel: ${ }^{2}$ urbs, urbium, city; $a r x$, arcium, citadel; nox, noctium, night.
5. In many nouns in as and is (Plur. ates and Ites). Thus

1) In names of nations: Arpinas, Arpinatium ; Samnis, Samnitium, 2) In Optimates and Penates, and occasionally in other nouns in as: ivitas, civitaturn, sometimes civitatium.
III. Rari Endings.-Bos has boum : a few Greek words (especially titles of books) on: Metamorphöses, Metamorphoseon.
IV. Wanting.-The Gen. Plur. is often wanting in monosyllables.

## Dative and Ablative Plural.

90. Ending :-i̋bŭs: urbs, urbibus.

Rare Endings are:

1. is or íbus-in neuters in $a$ : poëma;D. and A., poemătis, or poe-
2. ubus-in bosibus, būbus (rare bōbus for bovǐbus), ox; sus, sübus for 3. si, sin swhus, swine.

3. Most Greek nouns of the third declension are entirely regular, but a few retain certain peculiarities of the Greek, and some are entirely indeelinable.

## Greel Genitive Singular:

92. Exdisa :-sometimes os or i (rare) for is: Daphinis, Daphandos for Daphnidis; Xerxes, Xerxi for Xerxis.
93. Exprse:- Os, (1) Many nouns in as and is have ados and idos for adis and idis: Pallas, Pallüdos.-(2) Those in ys may have yas or $y s$ : Tethys, Techyos.- (3) Those in eus have cos: Orpheus, Orpheos.-(4) Pan has Pūnos.
is. 2. Endivg:-i. Proper names in es, Gen. is, sometimes have $i$ for Achilles, Achilli.
94. Ending:-us. Greek feminines in o, echo, Dido, Sappho, have regularly $u s$ in the Gen, and the Greek ending o in the other cases, rarely the Latin öni, önem, öne; Dīdo, Didus, Dido.

## F BTB Greelo Acousative Singulum.

93. Exdixa:--often a : sometimes im, in; sometimes en for em: Poricles, Periclea; poessis, poexisim, or poesin, poem; Xerres, Xerxen.
94. The Esdixe a is used-(1) by prose writers in proper names and in airr and gether, - (2) by the poets both in proper and in common nouns.

[^7]I. Masculine Endings.
$0, \mathrm{or}, \mathrm{os}, \mathrm{er}$, es increasing in the genitive.
o.
100. Nouns in 0 are masculine : sermo, discourse.

Exceptross.-Feminine, viz. :

1. Nouns in o , Gen. ònis (i. e., most nouns in do and go, 61. 2), except cardo, ordo, turlo, mase., cupido and margo, mase. or fem.
2. Cüro, flesh, and the Greek Argo, ēcho, an echo.
3. Abstract and collective nouns in io: ratio, reason; concio, an assembly; except numeral nouns in io, which (except unio) are masc.; ternio, quaternio.
or.
4. Nouns in or are masculine: dölor, pain. Exeeptions.
5. Feminine:-arbor, tree.
6. Neuter:-uidor, spelt; aequor, sea; cor, heart; marmor, marble. os.
7. Nouns in os are masculine: mos, custom.

Exceptions.

1. Feminine:-arbos, tree; cos, whetstone; dos, dowry; cos, dawn.
2. Neuter:-os, mouth; os, bone; and a few Greek words: chaos, èpos, ethos, mèlos.

ER.
103. Nouns in er are masculine: agger, mound.

Exceptions.

1. Feminine:-linter, boat (sometimes masc.).
2. Neutor:-(1) cadäver, corpse; uter, way; tüber, tumor; über, udder; ver, spring; verber, scourge,-(2) botanical names in er, Gen. ĕris: ücer, maple tree ; papäver, poppy; püper, pepper.
DTD es mereasing in gentitive.
3. Nouns in es increasing in the genitive are masculine: pes, genitive pedis, foot.

Exceptions.

1. Feminine:-compes, fetter; merces, reward; merges, sheaf; quies, rest (with its compounds); sĕges, crop; tĕges, mat; sometimes also ales, bird, and quadrüpes, quadruped.
2. Neuter:-aes, copper.

## II. Feminine Endiggs.

es, is, $\mathbf{y s}, \mathbf{x}$, es not increasing in genitive, $\mathbf{s}$ preceded by a consonant.

As.
105. Nouns in as are feminine: aetas, age.

Exceptioss.

1. Masculine:-as, an as (a coin), vas, surety, and Greek nouns in as, G. antis, as adimas, adamant.
2. Neuter:-vas, vessel, and Greek nouns in as, G. ätis, as crysipèlas.

## 106. Nouns in is are feminine: nävis, ship.

Exceptions,-Masculine:

1. Nouns in allis, ollis, cis, mis, nis, guis, quis: natülis, birthdny; collis, hill; fascis, burdle; womis, ploughshare; ignis, fire; sanguis, blood; torquis, collar. But a few with these endings are occasionally feminine : aquälis, conalizis, cünis, clünis, amnis, črxis, finis, anguis, torquis.
2. Axis, axle; ourris, plough-tail; callis ( f ), path; cassis, net; caulis, stem; corbis (f.), basket; ensis, sword;
3. Compounds of as (a coin): sìmis, decussis. Also Lucretilis, münes (pl).

$$
\text { (pl). } \mathrm{YS}
$$

107. Nouns in ys are feminine : chlămys, cloak.

Excerptions.-Mraseuline:-names of mountains, Othrys.
x .
108. Nouns in $\mathbf{x}$ are feminine: pax, peace.

Exceptross.-Masouline:

1. Greek masculines: corrax, raven; thorrax, cuirass
2. Nouns in ex and unx; except the six feminines:
3. Nouns in ex and unx; except the six feminines: faex, forfex, lex, nex, (prex), supellex, and such as are fem. by signification. 35. II.
${ }^{1}$ The examples marked (f) are sometimes feminine. Corbis and tigris are often feminine.
${ }^{2}$ For nouns in is masculine by signification, see 85 . 1 .
4. Four in ix: callix, cup; fornix, arch; phoenix, phoenix; varix (f.), swollen vein.
5. One in ux: trädux, vine-layer.
6. Names of mountains in $\mathbf{y x}$, and a few other words in $\mathbf{y x}$.
7. Sometimes : calx, heel ; calx, lime; lymx, a lynx.
es not increasing in genitive.
8. Nouns in es not increasing in genitive are feminine: nübes, cloud.

## Exceptions.

1. Masculine:-acinüces: sometimes palumbes and vepres.
2. Neuter:-a few rare Greek nouns: cacoithes, hippomünes S PRECEDED by a consonant.
3. Nouns in s preceded by a consonant are feminine: urbs, city.

Exceptions.-Masculine:

1. Dens, tooth, fons, fountain, mons, mountain, pons, bridge; generally ădeps, fat, and rŭdens, cable.
2. Some nouns in ns, originally adjectives or participles with a masc. noun understood, -(1) oriens, occidens (sol), east, west,-(2) confluens, torrens (amnis), confluence, torrent, $-(3)$ brdens, tridens (raster), two-pronged hoe, trident, - (4) sextans, quadrans (as), parts of an as.
3. Chälybs, steel, hydrops, dropsy, and a few Greek names of animals: ז̌pops, gryps, seps (f.).
4. Sometimes : forceps, forceps; serpens, serpent; stirps, stock Anïmans, animal, originally participle, is mase., fem., or neuter.


$$
A, E, I, Y, C, T, A R .
$$

111. Nouns in $\mathbf{a}, \mathbf{e}, \mathbf{i}, \mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{t}$, ar are neuter: poēma, poem; märe, sea; lac, milk; cäput, head.
L.
112. Nouns in 1 are neuter: animal, animal.

Excerpross.-Masculine :-mūgil, mullet; sal (also neuter in singular), salt; sol, sun.

## N.

113. Nouns in $\boldsymbol{n}$ are neuter: carmen, song.

## GEEDERR.

Exceptions.

1. Masculine:-pecten, comb; ren, kidney; lien, spleen; and Greek masculines in an, en, in, on: pacan, paean; cŭnon, rule.
2. Feminine:-aédon, nightingale; alcyon (halcyon), kingfisher; icon, image; sindon, muslin.
(O1ON UR.
3. Nouns in ur are neuter: fulgur, lightning.

Exceptions.-Masculine:-furfur, bran; turtur, turtledove; vultur, valture.

US.
115. Nouns in us are neuter: corpus, body.

Exceptions.

1. Masouline:-lipus, hare ; mus, mouse ; Greek nouns in pus and a few others: tripus, tripod.
2. Feminine:-tellus, carth; fraus, fraud; laus, praise; and nouns in us, Gen. utis or udis: virtus, virtue; pülus, marsh.

fourth declension.
3. Nouns of the fourth declension end in us,-masculine; u,-neuter.
They are declined as follows:
Fructus, fruit. Cornu, horn.
Case-Endings.
singular.

## 



1. Case-Endings.-Nouns of this declension are declined with the case-endings presented in the above table.
2. Examples for Practice.-Cantus, song; currus, chariot; cur. sus, course; versus, verse; gĕnu, knee.
3. Modification of Third Declension.-The fourth declension is but a modification of the third, produced by contraction: thus fructus, in the uncontracted form, was declined like grus, gruis, of Decl. III. : N. fructus, G, fructuis $=$ fructus; D. fructui, A. fructuem $=$ fructum, V . fructus; A. fructue $=$ fructu: Plur. N. fructucs $=$ fructus, etc.
4. Irregular Case-Endings.-The following occur:
1) Ubŭs for ibŭs, used regularly in the Dat. and Abl. Plur. of

Acus, needle; areus, bow; artus, joint; lücus, lake; partus, birth; pǒcu, cattle; querous, oak; specueus, den; tribus, tribe; vèru, spit: occasionaliy in a few other words, as portus, sinus, and tonultrus.
2) Uis, the uncontracted form for us, in the Gen.: fructuis for fructus,
8) U for ui, in the Dat. by contraction : equitatutu for equitatui, cavalry.
117. Second and Fourth Declensions.-Some nouns are partly of this declension and partly of the second.

1. Dǒmus, house, declined as follows:
singular,
$N$. domŭs
G. domūs, domi
D. domuī (domō)
A. domǔm
V. domŭs
A. đomō (domã)

In this word there is generally a difference of meaning between the forms of the second Decl. and those of the fourth; thus, G. domus, of a house; domi, at home: A. Pl. domus, houses; domos, often, homeward; to homes.
2. Certain names of trees in us, as cupressus, fious, laurus, pinus, though generally of Decl. II., sometimes take those cases of the fourth whieh end in us and $u$ : N. laurus, G. laurus, D. lauro, A. lauwnom, V. laurus, A. Lauru, \&e. So also cölus, distaff.
8. A few nouns, especially senätus and tumultus, though regularly of Decl. IV., sometimes take the genitive ending $i$ of the second: senäti,
tumulti. .
118. Gender in Fourth Declension.

Masculine ending: us.
Neuter ending: u.

## Exceptions.

1. Feminine:-(1) ǔcus, needle; còlus, distaff; dömus, house; münus, hand; porticus, portico; tribus, tribe,-(2) ₹dus, ides; Quinquätrus, feast of Minerva; generally pènus, store, when of this deel.; rarely spercus, den,-(8) a few nouns

Fem. by signification (35. II.): nŭrus, daughter-in-law : ficus, fig tree. ${ }^{1}$
2. Neuter:-sěcus (sexus), sex ; rarely, spěus, den.

## PIFTH DECLENSION.

119. Nouns of the fifth declension end in es,-feminine, and are declined as follows:

120. Case-Endings.-Nouns of this declension are declined with the case-endings presented in the above table.
$E$ in ei is gonerally short when preceded by a consonant, otherwise long
121. Examples for Practice.-Acies, battle array; effigies, effigy;

> facies, face; serics, series; species, form ; spes, hope.
3. Modifieation of Third Declension. - The fifth declension, like the fourth, seems to be a modification of the third. It is produced by contraction (ees = ès: eibus = לbuis), except in the genitive, where cicomes from cis, by dropping 8 , and erum from eum, by inserting $r$.
4. Irregular Endings :-i or $i$ for $e i$ in the Gen. and Dat. : acie for aciii; pernicii for perniciei.
5. Defective.-Nouns of this declension, except dies and res, want the Gen., Dat., and Abl. Plur, and many admit no plural whatever.

## 120. Gender in Fifth Declension

Nouns of the fifth declension are feminine.
Exceptions.-Maseuline:-dies, day, and meridies, midday, though dies is sometimes feminine in the singular.

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE FIVE DECLENSIONS.
121. Case-Endings of Latin nouns. ${ }^{1}$

122. By a close analysis it will be found,

1. That the five declensions are only five varieties of one gencral system of declension.
2. That these varieties have been produced by the union of different final letters in the various stems, with one general system of endings.
3. According to this analysis,
4. The stems in the five declensions end in the following
5. The general case-endings are as follows: *
[^8]
## 124. General Table of Gender.

I. Gender independent of ending. ${ }^{1}$ Common to all declensions.

| Mascoline, | Feminine. | Neuter. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Names of Males, of | Names of Females, of | Indeclinable Nouns, |
| ivens, Winds, and | Countries, Towns, | Words and |
| Months. | Islands, and Trees. | Clatses used as In- |

II. Gender determined by Nominative Ending. ${ }^{2}$
3. The manner in which these endings unite with the different stems so as to produce the five declensions may be seen in the following


| Masculine. | Declession I. |
| :--- | :---: |
| Feninine. |  |

as, es.
Feminine.
a, e.

Neuter.
Declension II.
COMPARATIVE VIEW OF DECLENSIONS.


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

1. If two nominatives unite, they are both declined: respublica $=$ res publica, republic, the public thing; jusjurandum $=j u s j u$ randum, oath.
2. If a nominative unites with an oblique case, only the nominative is declined: paterfamilias = păter familias (42.3), or păter familiue, the father of a family.
${ }^{1}$ For exceptions, see 36 .
${ }^{2}$ For exceptions, see under the several doclenslons.

## 126. Paradigms.

> singular.
$N$. respublǐca
G. rĕipublicae
D. rễpublicae
A. rempublícăm
$V$. respublical
A. republica
jusjurandŭm jürisjurandi jurijurandō jusjurandŭm jusjurandŭm jurejurandō plural.
$N$. respublicae $G$. rérumpublicārùm
D. rēbuspublicis
A. respublicãs
V. respublicae

1. rẽbuspublicis
A. reebuspublicis.
păterfamilias patrisfamilias patrifamilias patremfamilias paterfamilias patrëfamilias

| jurajurandă | patresfamilias <br> patrumfamilias <br> patribusfamilias <br> patresfamilias <br> patresfamilias <br> jurajurandă <br> jurajurandà. |
| :--- | :--- | more correctly written separately : pes publica; pŭter familias or familiace.

2. The parts of respublica are res of the 5th Decl. and publüca of the 1st.
3. The parts of jugjurandum are jus of the 3d Decl. and jurandum of the

2d. Jugiurandum wants the Gen., Dat, and Abl. Plur.
4. The parts of paterfamilias zre päter of the 3d Decl. and familias (42. 3), the old Gen. of familia, of the 1st. Sometimes, though rarely, the Gen familiärum is used in the plural : patregfamiliärum for patres familias.

## IRREGULAR NOUNS.

127. Irregular nouns may be divided into four classes:
I. Indechivable Nouns have but one form for all cases.
II. Defective Nouns want certain parts.
III. Heterocutres (heteroclita ${ }^{2}$ ) are partly of one deelension and partly of another.
IV. Heterogeneous Nouns (heterogenea ${ }^{2}$ ) are partly of one gender and partly of another.

## I. Indeclinable Nouns.

128. The Latin has but feiv indeclinable nouns.
129. The principal examples are:
1) Fas, right; n乌̌fas, wrong; instar, equality; mäne, moruing; nithih nothing ; pondo, pound ; sčuss, sex.
2) The letters of the alphabet, $a, b, c$, alpha, beta, etc.
3) Foreign words: Jacob, Iluberri; though these are often declined;
${ }^{1}$ From 'tepos, another, and kNícis, inffection, i. e, of dififerent deelensions
${ }^{2}$ From İtpos, another, and f'́vos, gender, i. e , of different genders

Jacobus, Jacobin; Illebervis, Illeberri. Jesus has Jesum in the accusative and Jesu in the other cases.
2. Some indeelinable nouns are also defective: mänewants the Gen, and Dat.; fas and néfas, the Gen., Dat., and Abl.

## II. Defictive Nouns.

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

> I. Nouns defective in Number.
130. Plural wanting.-Many nouns from the nature of their signification want the plural: Röma, Rome; justitia, justice; aur rum, gold.

1. The principal nouns of this class are:
1) Proper names (except those used only in the plural): Ciciro, Roma
2) Abstract Nouns: fïdes, faith; justitia, justice.
3) Names of materials : aurum, gold; forrum, iron.
4) A few others: meridies, midday; specimen, example ; supellex, furniture; ver, spring; vespöra, evening, etc.
2. Proper names admit the plural to designato familtee, classes; names of materials, to designate pieces of the material or articles made of it; and abstract nouns to designate instances, or kinde, of the quality ; Scipiönes, the Sciplos; aera, vessels of copper; avaritiae, instanees of avarice; odia, hatreds.

In the poets, the plur. of abstracts occurs in the sense of the sing.
131. Singular wanting.-Many nouns want the singular. 1. The most important of these are:

1) Certain personal appellatives applicable to classes: majüres, forefathers; postreri, descendants ; gemini, twins; libëri, children, ete.
2) Many names of cities: Athënae, Athens; Thëbae, Thebes; Delphi, Delphi; Argi, Argos, though the Sing. Argos oceurs in Nom. and Acc.
3) Many names of festivals: Bacchanalia, Olympia, Saturnalia.
4) Many names not included in these classes. Such are:

Arma, arms; divitiae, riches; exwequias, funernl rites; eavitiae, spolls; idus, Ides; indutiae, truce; insidiae, ambuseade; manes, shades of the dead; minae, threats; moenia, walls; munta, duties; nuptiae, nuptials; veliquiae, remains.
2. An individual member of a class designated by these plurals may be denoted by unus eas with the plaral: unus exo wberis, one of the children, or a child.
3. The plaral in names of cities may have reference to the several parts of the city, especially as anolent eities were often made up of separate villages. So in the names of festivals, the plural may refer to the various games and exercises which together constituted the fostisal.
132. Plural with Change of Meaning.-Some nouns have one signification in the singular and another in the plural: Thus sngular.
Aedes, temple;
Aqua, roater:
plural.

Aqua, woater:
aedes, (1) temples, (2) a house. aque, (1) wators, (2) mineral oprings. two sigif from it.

Auxilium, help;
Bönum, a good thing, blessing ,
Carcer, prison, barrier;
Castrum, castle, hut;
Comitium, name of a part of the Roman forum;
Cōpia, plenty, force;
Finis, end ;
Finis, end;
Gratia, gratitude, fauor.
Hortus, garden,
Impedimentum, hindrance;
Litterra, Letter of alphabet ; AM
Lüdus, play, sport :
Mos, custom;
Natālis (dies), birth-day;
Opĕra, work, service;
Rostrum, beak of stip ;
Sal, salt ;
auxilia, auxiliaries.
bons, riches, goods.
carcéres, barriers of a raco-course. castra, camp.
comitia, the assembly held in the comi. tium.
copiae, (1) stores, (2) troops.
facultates, weaith, means
fortunae, possessions, vealth.
fortunae, possession
horti, (1) gardens, (2) pleasure grounds. impedimenta, (1) hindrances, (2) bag. gage.
litterae, (1) letters of alphabet, (2) eqistle, writing, letters, literature. ludi, (1) plays, (2) public spectacle. möres, manners, character.
natales, pedigree, parentage.
operae, worlomen.
partes, (1) parts, (2) a party.
costra, (1) beaks, (2) the rostra or tri.
bune in Roma beaks).
sales, witty sayings.

## II. Nouns defcetive in Case

133. Some nouns are defective in case. Thus
134. Some want the nominative, dative, and vocative singular: $(0 \mathrm{ps})$, ŏpis, help; (vix or vicis), vicis, change.
. Some want the nominative and vocative singular: (Daps), dăpis, food; (ditio), ditiōnis, sway; (frux), frūgis, fruit; (internecio), internecionis, destruction; (pollis), pollinis, flour.
135. Some want the genitive, dative, and ablative plural : thus most nouns of the fifth deelension. See 119.5.

So also many neuters: far, fel, mel, pus, vus, tus; especially Greek neuters in os, which want these cases in the singular also: ëpos, mélos.
4. Some want the genitive plural: thus many nouns otherwise entire, especially monosyllables: nex, pax, pix; cor, cos, ros; sal, sol, letx.
134. Some nouns want one entire number and certain cases of the other: fors, chance, has only fors and forte; lues, pestilence, has lues, luem, lue. Many verbal nouns in $u$ have only the ablative singular: jussu, by order; mandätu, by command; rogī$t u$, by request.

## III. Heteroclites.-Two Cuasses.

I. Heteroclites with one form in the nominative singular.
II. Heteroclites with different forms in the nominative singular.

## Class First.

135. Of Declessioss II. and IV. are a feev nouns in $u$ s. See 117.
136. Of Declevsions II. and III. are
137. Jugerrum, an acre; regularly of the second Deel., except in the Gen. Plur., which is jugrorum, according to the third. Other forms of the third are rare.
138. Vas, a vessel; of the third Decl. in the Sing, and of the second in the Plur.: vas, vasis; plural, väsa, vasörem.
139. Plural names of festivils in alia: Bacchanalia, Saturnalia : which are regularly of the third Decl., but sometimes form the Gen. Plur. in orum of the second. Ancile, a shield, and a few other words also occur.
140. Of Declensions III. and V. are
141. Requies, rest; which is regularly of the third Decl, but also takes the forms requiem and requie of the fifth
142. Fümes, hunger ; regularly of the third Deel., except in the ablative, famé, of the fifth (not famé, of the third).

$$
\text { Class Second. }{ }^{1}
$$

138. Forms in ia and ies.-Many words of four syllables have one form in ia of Deel. I., and one in ies of Decl. V.: barbaria, barbaries, barbarism; duritia, duritiee, hardness; luxuria, luxuries, luxury; materia, materies, material; mollitia, mollities, softness.
139. Forvs in us axd um. - Many nouns derived from verbs have one form in $u s$ of Decl. IV., and one in $u m$ of Deel. II.: conatus, conätum, an attempt; ceontus, ceentum, event; praetextus, praetextum, pretext.
140. Many other Examples might be added. Many words which have but one approved form in prose, admit another in poetry: juventus (atie), youth; poetic juventa (ae): senectus (atis), old age; poetic, senecta (ae): paupertas (atis), poverty; poetic, pauperics (eii).

## IV. Heterogeneous Nounss.-Two Classes.

1. With one form in the nominative singular.
II. With different forms in the nominative singular.

## Class First.

141. Masoutine and Neuter.-Some masoulines take in the plural an additional form of the neuter gender:

Jocus, a jest; plur., joci and joca.

- locus, place; " loci, topies, passares in books, places; loca, places. sibilus, hissing; " sibili ; poetic, sibila.

142. Feminine and Neuter.-Some feminines take in the plural an additional form of the neater gender:

Carbăsus, linen; plural, carbasi and carbasa, sails, \&c. margarita, pearl; " margaritae and margarita, örum. ostrea, oyster; " ostreae and ostrea, örum.
143. Neuter and Masouline or Feminine.-Some neuters take in the plural a different gender; thus

1. Some neutors become masculine in the plural:

Coelum, heaven; plural, coeli.
2. Some neuters generally become masculine in the plural, but sometimes remain neuder:

Frénum, bridle; plur., freni, sometimes frena.
8. Some rastre, Rastro
ome nouters become feminane in the plural
Epülum , publie feast; plur., epulae, meal, banquet.
144. Forms in us and um,-Some nouns of the second declension have one form in $u s$ masculine and one in $u m$ neuter: clipeus, clipeum, shield; commentarius, commentarium, commentary; cubitus, cubitum, cubit; jugŭlus, jugŭlum, throat.
145. Heteroginneous Heteroclites.-Some heteroclites are also heterogeneous: conätus (us), conëtum (i), effort; menda (ae), mendum (i), fault.

## CHAPTER II.

ADJECTIVES.
146. The adjective is that part of speech which is used to qualify nouns: bormus, good; magnus, great.

The form of the adjeetive in Latin depends in part upon the gender of the noun which it qualifies; bonus puer, a good boy; bona puella, a good girl; bonum tectum, a good house. Thus bonus is the form of the adjective when used with masedline nouns, bona with feminine, and bonam with neuter.
147. Some adjectives are partly of the first declension and partly of the second, while all the rest are entirely of the third declension.

## I. FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSIONS.

148. Adjectives of this class have in the nominative singular the endings:

$$
\begin{array}{ccc}
\text { Masc, Dec. II. } & \text { Fem, Dec. I. } & \text { Nent, Dec. II. } \\
\text { us }^{1} \text {-, } & \text { a, } & \text { um. }
\end{array}
$$

They are declined as follows:


[^9]Carbăsus, linen; plural, carbasi and carbasa, sails, \&c. margarita, pearl; " margaritae and margarita, örum. ostrea, oyster; " ostreae and ostrea, örum.
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\begin{array}{ccc}
\text { Masc, Dec. II. } & \text { Fem, Dec. I. } & \text { Nent, Dec. II. } \\
\text { us }^{1} \text {-, } & \text { a, } & \text { um. }
\end{array}
$$

They are declined as follows:


[^10]Aeger, sick.


1. Bonus is declined in the Masc. Hike servus of Decl. II. (45), in the Fem. like mensa of Decl. I. (42), and in the Neut. like templum of Decl. II. (45).
2. Liber differs in declension from bonus only in dropping us and e in the Nom. and Voc. (45. 3, 1). Aeger differs from liber only in dropping e before $r(45.8,2)$.
3. Most adjectives in or are declined like aeger, but the following in or and ur are deolined like $\overline{i z b e r}$ :
1) Asper, rough; Lücer, torn; miser, wretched; prosper, prosperous; tenor, tender; but apper sometimes drops the $e$, and dexter, right, sometimes retains it: dexter, dextěra or dextra
2) Sütur, sated; satur, satüra, satŭurum.
3) Compounds in fer and ger: mortifer, deadly; aliger, winged.
149. Irregularities.-These nine adjectives have in the singular Ius in the genitive and $\bar{i}$ in the dative:

Alius, another; nullus, no one ; sölus, alone; tōtus, whole; ullus, any; ünus, one ; alter, -tëra, -těrum, the other; üter, -tra, -trum, which (of two); neuter, -tra, -trum, neither.

1. The Regular Forms occasionally occur in some of these adjectives: aliae, nulli, for alius, nullius; altero, alterae, for alteri.
2. I in ivs in poetry is sometimes short; generally so in alterius.
3. Alius has aliud for alium in the neuter, and shortens the genitive aliius into alius.
4. Like uter are declined its compounds: uterque, utervis, uterlibet, utercunque. In alterǔter sometimes both parts are declined, as alferius utrius ; and sometimes only the latter, as alterutrius,

## II. ADJEOTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

150. Adjectives of the third declension may be divided into three classes :
I. Those which have in the nominative singular three different forms-one for each gender.
II. Those which have two forms-the masculine and feminine being the same.
III. Those which have but one form-the same for all genders.
151. I. Adjectives of Three Endings of this declension have in the nominative singular :

| Mase. | Fem. | Nent. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| er, | is, | e. |

They are declined as follows:


1. Like Acer are declined:
1) Alücer, lively; campester, level; celebber, famous; celler, ${ }^{1}$ swift ; equester, equestrian; paluster, marshy; pedester, pedestrian; pŭter, putrid; salüber, healthful; silvester, woody; terrester, terrestrial; volücer, winged.
2) Adjectives in er designating the months: Octobber, bris. ${ }^{2}$
2. The Masculine in is, like the Fem., also occurs : salabris, silvestris, for salūber, silvester.
${ }^{1}$ This retains e in declension: celer, celfris, cellere; and has $u m$ in the Gen. Plur. 2 See also 87.2.
3. These forms in er are analogous to those in er (whether nouns or adjectives) of Dee. II. in dropping the ending in the Nom. and Voc. Sing. and in inserting e before $r$. Thus ager, originally agrus, drops $u s$, giving agr, and then inserts e to facilitate pronunciation, giving ager; so acer, originally acris, drops is and inserts $e$; acr, acer.
4. II. Adjectives of Two Endings have in the nominative singular:
M, and F
5. 

Nent.
2. ior $(\mathrm{Or})$
ius (us), for comparatives

They are declined as follows:

153. III. Apjectiyes of One Ending.-All other adjectives have but one form in the nominative singular for all genders. They generally end in $s$ or $x$, sometimes in 8 or $r$, and are declined in the main like nouns of the same endings. The following are examples:

| M. and IF. | Neut. | M. and $F$. | Neut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. felix | felix | N. prüdens | pruadens |
| G. felicis | felicis | G. prudentris | prudentis |
| D. felici | felici | D. prudenti | prudentI |

[^11]| A. feliceerm | felix | A. prudenterm | prudens |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $V$. felix | felix | $V$. prudens | prudens |
| A. felicee, or I | felice, or $\overline{\mathbf{I}}$; | A. prudentě, or $\overline{\mathbf{I}}$ | prudenter, or $\mathbf{I}$; |
|  |  | ral. |  |
| $N$. felicees | feliciă | N. prudentēs | prudentiă |
| $G$. feliciŭm | feliciŭmm | G. prudentin̆un | prudentium |
| D. felicombŭs | feliciorbŭs | D. prudentilbŭs | prudentíloŭs |
| A. feliceess | feliciă | A. prudentēs | prudentiáa |
| $V$. feliceès | feliciă | $V$. prudentes | prudentiă |
| A. feliçorbăs | feliçours. | A. prudentribŭs | prudentribus. |

FORMATION OF CASES OF ADJEOTIVES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.
154. Adjectives of the third declension form their cases in general like nouns of the same endings, but present the following peculiarities:

## I. Genitive Singular.

155. This presents a few irregularities, but in general the same as In nouns (58-88). Thus
156. The following in ěs form the genitive not in the regular Itis, but in 1) 厄̌tis:- hëbes, indigěs, praepes, tëres.
157. The following in es form
1) ědis :-compounds of pes, foot, as, alipes, bipes, tripes.
2) ěris :-pübes, impübes (sometimes is).
3) ètis:-inquies, locüples,
3. Adjectives in ceps form it in
1) cipis, if compounded of capio: princeps, princippis.
2) cipitis, if compounded of caput: arceps, ancipatis.
4. Four in or form it in ǒris :- memor, immémor, bicorpopor, tricorpor.

5 . Other examples.- (1) Compos and impos form it in tis. - ( 2 ) Compounds in cors from cor have cordis: concors, discors.- (3) Caelebs has caclibis; dis, ditis; intercus, interciutis ; praceox, praccücis; vétus, vetĕris.

156. I. Esdivg :-ě or $i$, in comparatives and adjectives of one ending: tristiöré or $n \tau$; audacě or $c t$. i, in other adjectives: acri, tristi.

1. Comparativesgenerally have $e$, and adjectives of one ending, generally $i$; but participles in ans and ens have only $e$, except when used adjectively. 3
2. The Ablative in e in many adjectives of one ending cannot be verified from ancient authors.-The ablative in $i$ is in general preferable.
3. Some have only e in general use.-(1) Pauper, paupěre, poor ; 3. Some have only e in general use.- itis or ǐdis: êles, déses, dives, pūbes, pubëre, mature ;-(2) those in es, $G$. iss or or cess.
aspes, superstes; ;-(3) caelds, compos, impos, princeps.
4. The Ablative in $\mathbf{e}$ sometimes occurs in poetry in positives of more 4. The Ablative in e sometimes occurs in poetry in
III. Nominative, Accusative and Vocative Plural of Neuters.
5. I. EndING:-iă in positives: acriă, tristia.
I.
6. Vetus, old, has vefienă; complüres, several, has compluriä or complârü.
7. The neuter plural is wanting in most adjectives of one ending, except those in $a s, n s, r s, a x, i x, o x$, and numerals in plex.
IV. Genitive Plural.
8. I. Endna: iŭm in positives: acrium, tristium.
II. " üm in comparatives: tristionum.
9. Some adjectives want the genitive plural.
10. Plüres, more, and complares, several, have ium.
11. The following have um:
1) Adjectives of one ending with only $e$ in the ablative singular (156. 3): pauper, paup̌̌rum
2) Those with the genitive in ëris, Oris, üris: vccuus, veterum, old; mèmor, memärum, mindful; cicur, cicirrum, tame.
3) Those in ceps : anceps, ano ipitum, doubtful.
4) Those compounded with substantives which have um: inops (ops, ǒpum), inöpum, helpless.

## IRPEGULAR ADJEOTIVES.

159. Irregular adjectives may be
I. Indeclinable: frügi, frugal, good; nêquam, worthless; mille, thousand.
II. Defective: (cetěrus) cetëra, ceterrum, the other, the rest; (sons) sontis, guilty.
III. Hetoroclites.-Many adjectives have two distinct forms, one in $u s$, $a$, um, of the first and second declensions, and one in is and e of the third: hilărus and hilüris, joyful; exanı̆mus and exanumis, lifeless.
160. The Latin has but few indeclinable adjectives, except numerals (175).
161. Some adjectives want
1) The nominative singular masculine: (cetěrus) cetêra, cetěrum, the other; (lady̌cer) ludicra, ludicrum, sportive.
2) One or more cases in full: (seminex) semine cois, half dead, defective in the nominative; exspes, hopeless, only used in the nominative; exlex, law-

## COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES,

less, only in nominative and accusative ; pernax, through the night, only in nominative and ablative.
3) The neuter gender or genitive plural. See 157.2 and 158.1 .
4) The singular : pauci, $a$ e, $a$, few ; plerique, the most; the latter wan also the genitive plural, supplied by plurimi. The singular of plerique occurs, but is very rare. In good prose extirus wants the singular; and in. férus, supt'rus, and posť̌rus are used in the singular only in particular expressions: mare inf ĕrum, the lower sea, i. e., south of Italy ; mare sup̌̌rum, the upper sea, i. e., north of Italy, the Adriatic ; pasterus in expressions of time; diem postirum, the following day; nocte posterc, on the following night.
8. In most heteroclites only one form is in common use in classic prose; in a fewv, as in the examples under 159. III., both forms are approved.

## COMPARISON OF ADJEOTIVES.

160. Adjectives have three forms to denote different degrees of quality. They are usually called the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative degree: altus, altior, altissimus, high, higher, highest.

Comparatives and superlatives are sometimes best rendered into Eng lish by too and very, instead of more and mast: doctus, learned; doction more learned, or too learned; doctissimus, most learned, or very learned.
161. The Latin, like the English, has two modes of comparison :
I. Terminational Comparison-by endings.
II. Adverbial Comparison-by adverbs.

## I. Terminational Comparison

162. Adjectives are regularly compared by adding to the stem of the positive the endings:
M. $\begin{gathered}\text { Comparative. } \\ \text { F. } \\ \text { N. }\end{gathered} \quad$ M. $\quad \begin{gathered}\text { Superlative } \\ \text { F. }\end{gathered}$
iơr, iơr, iŭs. issĭmŭs, issĭmă, issĭmŭm.
D- $\quad$ Examples. $A$ A
Altus, altior, altissimus: high, higher, highest.
lěvis, levior, levissimus: light, lighter, lightest.

## Irregular Terminational Comparison.

163. Irregulär Superlatives.-Many adjectives with regular comparatives have irregular superlatives. Thus
164. Adjectives in er add rìmus to the positive: ācer, acrior, acerrimus, sharp.

Vetus has veterrimus; matürus, both maturrimus and maturisimus; dexter, dextimus.
2. Six in ilis add limus to the stem:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Fachis, difficilis; easy, difficult. } \\
& \text { similis, } \text { dissimilis; like, unlike. }
\end{aligned}
$$

gracilis, humilis; slender, low;
thus: fucilis, facilior, facillimus. Imbecillis has imbecillimus, but imbecil. tus is regular.
3. Four in rus have two irregular superlatives:

Exterrus, R1 exterior, extremus and extimus, outward. inferus, inferior, infǐmus and imus, lover. supêrus, superior, suprémus and summus,
posterus,
posterior, postrémus and postümus, next.
164. Compounds in dicus, ficus, and volus are compared with the endings entior and entissimus, as if from forms in ens:

Maledicus, maledicentior, maledicentissimus, slanderous.
munificus, munificentior, munificentissimus, liberal.
benevollus, benevolentior, benevolentissimus, benevolent.
Egenus and prooullus (needy and prudent), form the comparative and superlative from egens and prowidens : hence egentior, eqentissimus, etc.
2. Mirificisimus occurs as the superlative of mirif icus, wonderfal. tive.
165. Spscial Irregularities of Comparison.


| optimus, | good. |
| :--- | :--- |
| pessimus, | bad. |
| maximus | grat. |
| minimus, | small. |
| plurimus, | much |

1. Plus is nenter and has in the singular only N. and A. plus, and G. plüris. In the plural it has N. and A. plüres (m. and f.), plüra (n.), G. plurium, D. and A. pluribus.

Dives, frugi, nequam
Dives,

frägi, | divitior, |
| :--- |
| ditior, |
| nergalior, |
| néguam, |
| nequior, |

divitissimus,
ditissimus,
frugalissimu
nequissimus,
\}rich. nēquam, nequior, nequissimus, woorthless.
Defective Terminational Comparison.
166. Positive Wanting:
Citerior, citimus, nearer.
deterior, deterrimus, worse.
interior, intimus, innor.

ocior, | propior, primus, proximus, former. |
| :--- |
| nearer. |
| ulterior, ultimus, farther. ${ }^{1}$ |

[^12] prope, ultra.
167. Comparative Wanting,-The comparative is wanting 1. In a few participles used adjectively: meritus, meritissimus, deserving.
2. In these adjectives:

Diversus, diversissǐmus, different. |nŏrus, novissimus, new. falsus, falsisimus, false. incly̆tus, inclytissimus, renoomed. $\mid$ větus, veterrimus, old.
168. Superlative Wanting.-The superlative is wanting

1. In most verbals in ilis and bilis: docilis, docilior, docile; optabulis, optabilior, desirable. But of these

Some are compared in full: amabilis, facilis, fertilis, mobilis, nobilis, talis, etc.
2. In many adjectives in ālis and Ilis: capitalis, capitalior, capital; civilis, civilior, civil.
3. Three adjectives supply the superlative thus:

| Adolescens, juvěnis, sěnex, | adolescentior, junior, senior, | minĭmus nātu, ${ }^{1}$ minĭmus nâtu, maximus nätu, ${ }^{1}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |

4. A few other adjectives want the superlative: agrestis, alücer, caecus, diuturnus, infinitus, longinquus, opimus, procīvis, propinquus, salutäris, supīnus, surdus, töres, vulgäris.
5. Both Comparative and Superlative Wanting.-Many adjeetives have no terminational comparison:
6. Many from the nature of their signification, admitting no comparison ; especially such as denote material, posession, or the relations of place and time: aurreus, golden; adamantǐnus, adamantine ; paternus, paternal; Romanus, Roman; hestornus, of yesterday; cestious, of summer; hibernus, of winter.
7. Many others.-Thus
able; noxius, hurtful, But a few in wuse bave the superlative : strenuus. Other exceptions occur, especially in the poets: pius, piissimus; egregius, eqregiissimus.
ithe, 2) Many derivatives and compounds, especially (1) derivatives in allis, îis, ùlus, icus, inus, örus; mortātis (mors), mortal; (2) compounds of verbs or of nouns: particops (capio), sharing; magnanimus (anfmus), magnanimous.
3) Also albus, almus, cadūcus, fêrus, fesous, gnärus, lassus, mīrus, mutilus, näous, nefastus, rūdid, etc.

## D) BII-Adverbilal Comparison.

170. Adjectives which want the terminational comparison, form the comparative and superlative, when their signification requires it, by prefixing the adverbs mügis, more, and maxime, most, to the positive:
${ }^{1}$ Smallest or youngest in age ; greatest or eldest in age. Natu is cometimes omitted.

Arduus, măgis arduus, maxime arduus, arduous.

1. Other adverbs are sometimes used with the positive to denote different degrees of the quality: admödum, valde, oppido, very; imprimis, apprime, in the highest degree; minus, less; minime, least : valde magna, very great. Per and prae in composition with adjectives have the force of very; perdifficilis, very difficult; praeclarus, very illustrious.
2. Strengthening Particles are sometimes used.-(1) With the comparative: etiam, even, multo, longe, mueh, far: ctiam dixigentior, even more diligent; multo diligentior, much more diligent.-(2) With the superiative: multo, longe,-much, by far: quam, as possible: multo or longe ditigentissimus, by far the most diligent; quam diligentisaimus, as diligent as possible.

## NUMERALS.

171. Numerals comprise numeral adjectives and numeral adverbs.

## I. Numeral Adjechiyes.

172. Numeral adjectives comprise three principal classes:
173. Cardinal Numbers: unus, one; duo, two.
174. Ordinal Numbers: primus, first; secundus, second.
175. Distributives: singüll, one by one; bini, two by two, two each, two apiece.

## 173. To these may be added

1. Monitplicatives.-These are adjectives in plex, G. phicis, denoting so many fold: simplex, single; duplex, double; triplex, three-fold. a many times as great: duplus, twice as great; triplus, three times as great.

T T $\quad$ 174. Table of Numeral Adjectives.

Cardisals.

1. ūnus, una, unum
2. duo, duae, duo,
3. tres, tria,
4. quattuor,
5. quinque,
6. sex,
7. septem
8. octo,
9. nŏvem,
10. děcem,
11. undécim,

| Ompinals. primus, ${ }^{1}$ first, secundus, ${ }^{1}$ second, tertius, third, quartus, foruth, quintus, fifth, sextus, septimus, octãvus, nōnus, decĭmus, undecimus, |
| :---: |

Distributives. singuli, one by one. bini, two by two. terni (trini). quaterni. quater quīni. seni. epterni octōni. noven. dēni. undēni

[^13]
## Cardixals.

12. duoděcim,
13. treděcim or decem et tres,
14. quattuorděcim
15. quinděcim,
16. seděcim or sexdĕcim, ${ }^{1}$
17. septenděcim, ${ }^{1}$
18. duodeviginti, ${ }^{2}$
19. undeviginti, ${ }^{2}$
20. viginti,
21. vigintí unus,
22. Tunus et viginti, ${ }^{3}$
23. $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { viginti duo, } \\ \text { duo et viginti }\end{array}\right.$
24. triginta,
25. quadraginta,
26. quinquaginta,
27. sexaginta,
28. septuaginta,
29. octoginta,
30. nonaginta,
31. centum,
32. \{centum ūnus,
33. centum et unus,
34. ducenti, ae, a
35. trecenti,
36. quadringenti
37. quingenti,
38. sexcenti,
39. septingenti
40. octingenti
41. nongenti,

1,000. mille,
2,000. duo millia, ${ }^{5}$

Disterivitige
duodêni.
terni dėni
quaterni dēni.
quīni dēni
sêni dēni.
eptêni dèni
duodevicēni.
undevicēni.
icèni.
viceni singǔli.
singüli et vicễi.
vicēni bīni.
ricēni bìni.
bini et vice cricēni. quadragèni. quinquageni. exagèn. septuagèni. octogèni. ontini entēn centēni singŭli. centeni et singǔli lucẽni. recēni. quadringèni quingēni. excēni. septingēni. octingēni. nongèni. singŭla millia. bina millia.

[^14]2 Literally two from twenty, ono from twenty, by subtraction; but these numbers may be expressed by addition: decem et octo; decem et novem; so 28,$29 ; 38,89$ ele, ellier by subtraction from triginta, etc., or by addition to viginti; duodetriinta or octo et viginti.

If the tens precede the units, et is omitted, otherwise it is generally used. So in English cardinals, twenty-one, one and twenty.

- In compounding numbers above 100 , units generally follow tens, tens hundreds, ete, as in English; but the connective et is either omitted, or used only between tho two highest denominations: mille centum viginut or mille et centum viginti, 1,120 .
${ }^{\circ}$ Sometimes dina millia or bis mille.
Sometimes bina millia or bis mille.
- Sometimes decimus precedes with or without el: decimus et tertius or decimus tertius.
${ }^{7}$ Sometimes expressed by addition, like the corresponding cardinals: octäcus de cimus and nonus decimus.
${ }^{8}$ Sometimes written with $q:$ vigesimus; trigestmus.


1. Ordinals with Pars, part, expressed or anderstood, may be used to express fractions: fertia pars, a third part, a third; quarta pars, a fourth; duac tertiae, two thirds.
2. Distributives are used
1) To show the number of objects taken at a time, often best rendered by adding to the cardinal each or apicee; ternos denarios accepörunt, they received each three denarii, or three apiece. Hence
2) To express Mulliplication: decies centẽna millia, ten times a , hundred thonsand, a million.
3) Instead of Cardinals, with nouns plural in form, but singular in sense: bīna castra, two camps. Here for singừli and terni, ùni and trini are used: unae litticrae, one letter; trinae litterae, three letters.
are used: unae liticrae, one letter; trinae litterae, three letters. a pair of goblets; and in the poets with the force of cardinals: bixa hastia pair of goblet
3. Poets use numeral adverbs (181) very freely in compounding numbers: bis sex, for duodecim; bis septem, for quattuorděcim.
4. Sexcenti and mille are sometimes used indefinitely for any large number, as one thousand is in English.

## DECLENSION OF NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.

175. On the declension of eardinals observe
176. That the units, unus, duo, and tres, are declined.
177. That the other units, all the tens, and centum are indeclinable.
178. That the hundreds are declined.
179. That mille is sometimes declined.
180. The first three cardinals are declined as follows:
181. Unus, one.


[^15]D. duōbǔs, duābŭs, duöbŭs,
A. duōs, duǒ, duās, duǒ
A. duōbŭs, duābŭs, duỡbŭs.

1. The plural of unus in the sense of alone may be used with any noun $u n i$ Ubii, the Ubii alone, , but in the strict numeral sense of one, it is used
only with such nouns as though thura only with such nouns as, though plural in form, are singular in sense : una
castra, one camp; unae litterae one letter. castra, one camp; unae Sittirace one letter
2. Multi, many, and plürimi, very many, are indefinite numerals, an as such generally want the sing. But in the poets the sing. occurs in the sense of many a: multa hostia, many a victim.
3. Hundreds, ducenti, trecenti, etc., are declined like the plural of bönus: ducenti, ae, a.
4. Mille is used both as an adjective and as a substantive. As an adjeetive it is indeclinable; as a substantive it is used in the singular only in the nominative and accusative, but in the plural it is declined like the plural of măre (50): millia, millium, mil. libus.

With the substantive Mille, the name of the objects enumerated is gen erally in the genitive: mille hominum, a thousand men (of men); but it is in the samie case as mille, if a declined numeral intervenes; tria millia trecenti milites, three thousand three hundred soldiers.
179. Ordinals are declined like bonus and distributives like the plural of bonus, but the latter often have um for orum in the genitive; Jinum for biñorum.

2. In the Combination of these symbols, except IO, observe

1) That the repetition of a symbol doubles the value: $\mathrm{II}=2 ; \mathrm{XX}=$ $20 ; \mathrm{CC}=200$.
2) That any symbol standing before one of greater value, subtracts its own value, but that after one of greater value, it adds its own value: $\mathrm{V}=$ $5 ; I V=4(5-1) ; V I=6(5+1)$.
3. In the Combination of IO observe
1) That each $\rho$ (inverted C) after I ) increases the value ten-fold: IO $=500 ; \mathrm{I} 90=500 \times 10=5,000 ; \mathrm{I} 000=5,000 \times 10=50,000$.
2) That these numbers are doubled by placing $C$ the same number of times before I as $D$ stands after it: $10=500 ; \mathrm{CD}=500 \times 2=1,000$; times before I as stands atter $50=10,000$.
$10 \rho=5,000 ; \operatorname{CCID\rho }=5,000 \times 2=10,00$. $500 ; \mathrm{IDC}=600 ; \mathrm{IDCC}=700$.

## II. Nunteral Adverbs.

181. To numerals belong also numeral adverbs. For conrenience of reference we add the following table:

|  | quinquiesdecies | 80. octogies |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. bis, troice | 5. quindecies | 90. nonagies |
| 3. ter, three times | - sexiesdecies | 100. centies |
| 4. quăter | sedecies | 101. centies semel |
| 5. quinquies | 17. septiesdecies | 200. ducenties |
| 6. sexies | 8. duodevicies | 300. trecenties |
| 7. septies | Loctiesdecies | 400. quadringenties |
| 8. octies | fundevicies | 500. quingenties |
| 9. nŏvies | noviesde | 600. sexcenties |
| 10. décies | 20. vicies | 700. septingenties |
| 11. undecies | 21. sĕmel et vicies | 800. octingenties |
| 12. duodecies | 22. bis et vicies | 900. noningenties ${ }^{1}$ |
| fterdecies | 80. tricies | 1,000. millies |
| tredecies | 40. quadragies | 2,000. bis millies |
| (quaterdecies | 50. quinquagies | 10,000. decies millies |
| quattuordecies | 60. sexagies | 100,000. centies millies |
|  | 70. septuagies | 1,000,000. millies millies. |

1. In Compounds of units and tens, the unit with et generally precedes, as in the table: bis et vicies; the tens however with or without a sometimes precede: vicies et bis or vicies bis, but not bis vicies.
2. Another Class of numeral adverbs in um or 0 is formed from the ordinals: primum, primo, for the first time, in the first place; tertium, tertio, for the third time.

1 Also written nongenties.
${ }^{2}$ Millies is often used indefinitely like the English a thousand times.

## CHAPTER III.

## PRONOUNS.

182. The Pronoun is that part of speech which properly supplies the place of nouns: ego, $I$; tu, thou.
183. Pronouns are divided into six classes:
184. Personal Pronouns : tu, thou.
185. Possessive Pronouns: meus, my.
186. Demonstrative Pronouns: hic, this.
187. Relative Pronouns: qui, who.
188. Interrogative Pronouns : quis, who?
189. Indefinite Pronouns: aliquis, some one.

190. Substantive Pronouns.-Personal pronouns are also called Substantive pronouns, because they are always used as substantives.
191. Reflexive Pronoun.-Sui, from its reflexive signification, of himsolf, 2. Reffexive Pronoun-, is often called the Reflexive pronoun.
192. Emphatic Forms in met occur, except in the Gen. Plur.: egormet, I myself; milhämet, temet, etc. But the Nom, tu has tüte and tutèmet, for tûmet. ${ }^{4}$. Reduplicated Forms:-sèè, tuex, mèmè, for se, te, me.
193. Ancient and Rare Forms:-mis for mei; tis for tui; $m i$ and $m \bar{~}$ for mili; mehe, med, and mepte for me; ted for te.
194. Cum, when used with the ablative of these pronouns, is appended to them: meocum, tucum.

## II. Possessive Pronouns.

185. From Personal pronouns are formed the Possessives:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ALE, } \\
& \text { meus, my, } \\
& \text { tuus, thy, your, } \\
& \text { suus, } h i s, \text { her, } \text { its, }
\end{aligned} \text { vester, } \quad \text { vester, your, }
$$

They are declined as adjectives of the first and second declensions: meus, mea, meum ; noster, nostra, nostrum; but meus has in the vocative singular masculine generally $m i$, sometimes meus.

1. Emphatic Forms, in pte and met occur, especially in the Abl. Sing.:
siapte, suamet. The Patrials, nostras, of our country, and cestras, of your country, are also possessives. They have the genitive in atis, and are declined as adjectives of Decl. III., but are little used.
2. Cujus and Cujas,-Cujus (a, um, whose?) and the patrial cujas (atis, or what country? ) also belong to possessives, hough, not like other possebsives, formed from personal pronouns, but from the interrogative quis, cujue. Sce 185.

## III. Demonstrative Pronouns.

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

Hic, ille, iste, ipse, is, idem.
They are declined as follows:

|  |  | Hic, this. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $\begin{gathered} \text { SINGUL } \\ F . \end{gathered}$ |  |  |
| $N$. hie | haec | hǒe | hī |
| G. hujŭs | hujŭs | hujŭs | hōrŭm |
| D. huic | huie | huic | his |
| $A$. hunc | hanc | hờ | hōs |
| A. ${ }_{\text {I }}$ hōe | hāc | hōc; | his |



IIIe, he or that.

|  | singul |  |  | plural. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M. | $F$. | N. | M. | $F$. | $N$. |
| $N$. ille | illă | illŭd | illi | illae | illa |
| G. illiưs | illiŭs | illiŭs | illōrŏm | illârưm | illorrăm |
| D. illi | illì | illi | illis | illis | illis |
| A. illŭm | illăm | illưd | illōs | illăs | illa |
| A. illō | illā | illō; | illis | illis | illis. |

Iste, that, is declined like ille. It usually refers to objects which are present to the person addressed, and sometimes expresses contempt.

| Ipsě, self, he. |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| M | singular. | N. | Mr | pleral. |  |
| $N$. ipsě | ipsiă | ipsǔm | ipsi | $\stackrel{F}{\text { ipsae }}$ | $\underset{\text { ipsü }}{ }$ |
| G. ipsiŭs | ipsiŭs | ipsiǔs | ipsorrŭm | ipsãrŭm | ipsōrŭm |
| D. ipsi | ipsi | ipsi | ipsis | ipsis | ipsis |
| $\stackrel{\text { A. ipsŭm }}{V}$ | ipsăm | ipsŭm | ipsōs | ipsis | ipsă |
| A. $\mathrm{ips} \overline{0}$ | ipsã | ipsos; | ipsis | ipsis | ipsis. |
|  | singular. |  |  | plural. |  |
| M. | $F$. | $N$. | H. | F. | $N$. |
| $N$. is | că | id |  | eae |  |
| G. ejŭs | ejưs | ejŭs | eōrŭm | eãrùm | eūrŭm |
| D. eì | ei | eî | iis (eis) | iis (eis) | iis (eis) |
| $\stackrel{A}{V}$. eŭm | eăm | id | eठs | eās | eă |
| A. еб | eiil | еб; | iis (eis) | iis (eis) | is (eis). |

Idem, the same.
Idem, compounded of is and dem, is declined like is, but shortens isdem to item and iddem to idem, and changes $m$ to $n$ before the ending dem; thus:

| ir. | singular. <br> $F$. | $N$. | M. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { PLURAL. } \\ & F \end{aligned}$ | $N$. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $N$. idem | eăděm | Idĕm | fiděm | caeděm | eǎděm |
| G. ejusděm | ejusděm | cjusděm | eörundèm | eârunděm | eūrunděm |
| D. eilděm | eiděm | eiděm | iisděm | iisděm | iisděm ${ }^{2}$ |
| $A$. eunděm | eanděm | iděm | eōsděm | eäsděm | eăděm |
| A. eōdèm | eādĕm | eōdĕm; | fisděm | iisděm | iisděm. ${ }^{1}$ |

${ }^{1}$ Sometimes cisdem In all genders. Iidem and iisdom are in poetry dissyllables, and are sometimes written idem and isdem.

1. Emphatic Forms in ce occur in the several cases of $h i c$ and sometimes in other demonstratives: hicce, hascee, hocce (also hice, haece or haec, ete.), hujusce, hosce, hisce; harumce, harunce ( $m$ changed to $n$ ), härunc (e dropped).
Before the interrogative ne, ce becomes $c i$ : hiccine, hoscine. 2 Illio and ietio or isthic for ille and iste occur alike, and are used only in certain cases. Thus

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Sing., Nom. illic, illaec, illõe or illuc } \\
& \text { Acc illunc, illanc, illoc, } \\
& \text { Abl. illōe, illac, ilōe; }
\end{aligned}
$$

Plur. Ab. illaec, generally Neut., sometimes Fem.
. Ancient and Rare Forms

1) Of ILle and isme: illi, illae, illi, Gen. for illius; isti, istae, isti for istius; illae and istat, Dat. Fem. for illi and isti; also forms from ollus for ille: olii, olla, ollos, etc.
2) Of Lrse, compounded of is and pre (is-pse $=\mathrm{ipse}$ ); the uncontracted forms: Acc. eumpse, sampse, Abl. eopse, eapse; with re: re eapse, reapse for re ipsa, in reality; also ipsus, $a$, um, etc., for ipse, a, um.
3) Syncopated forms, compounded of ecce oren. lo, see (enus) for iis. of demonstratives, especially the Ace. of ille and is; eccum for ecce eum; cecam for ecce eam; becos for ecce eos; eccillum, ecce illum, eccillam, ecce illam; ellum, en illum; flam, en illam.
4. Demonstrative Adjectives: tälis, e, such; tantus, a, um, so great; tott, so many; totus, a, um, so great. Tot is indeclinable; the rest regular. For $t \bar{l} l i s$, the Gen, of a demonstrative with modi (Gen. of modus, measure, kind) is often used: hugusmodi, ejusmoda, of this Kind, such; ilviusmodi istiusmödi, of that kind, such.

## IV. Belative Pronouns.

187. The Relative qui, who, so called because it relates to some noun or pronoun, expressed or understood, called its antecedent, is declined as follows:

188. Ancient and Rare Forms: quojus and quoi for cujus and cui; qui for quo, qua, quo; quis (queis for quilius.
the ablative of the relative, is generally append3. Cujus, a, um, whose, as a possessive formed from the genitive cujus, metimes occurs
189. Quicunque and Quisquis, whoever, are called from their signification neral relatives. Quiounque (quicumque) is declined like qui. Quasquis is rare except in the forms : quiequis, quidquid (quicquid), quöquō; but an old gemitive cuicui for cujuscujus occurs.
190. Compounds resolved.-Quicunque and similar compounds are sometimes resolved and their parts separated by one or more words : qua re cunque.
191. Uter and Utercunque, which and whichever, also occur with the force of relatives.
. Relative Adjectives : quätis, e, such as; quantus, a, um, so great; quar, as many as; quotus, a, um, of whicb number; and the double and compound forms: quavisqualis, quaireunque ; quantusquantus, quantuscunque; quotquot, quotcunque; quotuscunque.
clined; in the forms in cunce; in the other double forms both parts are delined; in the forms in cunque, of course only the first part is declined.
For Quallis the genitive of the relative with mödi is often used: oujusmodi, cuicuinodi (for
V. Interrogative Pronouns.
192. Interrogative Pronouns are used in asking questions. The most important are

Quis and qui with their compounds.
Quis (who, which, what?) is generally used substantively, and is declined as follows:

|  | singular. |  | plural. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Mr. | $F$. | $N$. | 3r. | $F$ | $N$ |
| N. quis | quae | quìd | quī | quae | quae |
| G. cujus | cujus | crujus | quơrŭm | quârăm | quōrrùm |
| D. cuĭ | cuì | cuil | quibŭs | quibǔs | quibăs |
| A. quěm | quăm | quid | quōs | quàs | quae |
| A. quō | quâ | quō; | quibu ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | quibŭs | qừbŭs. |

Qut (which, what?) is generally used adjectively, and is declined like the relative qui.

1. Quis and Quem sometimes oceur as feminine forms

Qui as an ablative with an adverbial force in the sense of how? sometimes occurs. The other ancient forms are the same as in the relative, 187. 1.

1. Compounds of quis and qui are declined like the simple pronouns : nam, quinam, ecquis, etc. But eqquis has sometimes ecqua for eqquae. 4. Interrogative Adjectives: (1) Quälis, e, what? guantus, a, um, how great? quăt, how many? quotus, a, um, of what number? iter, utra, ntrum, which (of two)? See 149. (2) The Possessive interrogative, cujus, $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{um}$, whose? and the Patrial cujas, ittis, of what country?
Cujus is defective and little used. It has the Nom. and Acc. Sing., and in the feminine also the Abl. Sing, and the Nom, and Accus. Plur.
VI. Indefintte Pronouns.
2. Indefinite Pronouns do not refer to any definite persons or things. The most important are

Quis and qui with their compounds.

190．Quis，any one，and qui，any one，any，are the same in form and declension as the interrogatives $q u i s$ and $q u i$ ．

1．Quis and Qui are generally used after $s i, n ⿱ \zh18 灬 土 龰 i, n e$ ，and $n u m$ ；si quis， si qui．But they also occur without such accompaniment．
2．Qua for Quae．－After si，nisi，ne，and num，the Fem．Sing．and Neut． Plur，have quae or qua：si quae，si qua．

## 191．From quis and qui are formed

1．The Indefnites：
aliquis，aliqua，aliquid or aliquod，some，some one． quispiam，quaepiam，quidpiam ${ }^{1}$ or quodpiam，some，some one． quidam，quaedam，quiddam or quoddam，certain，certain one． quisquam，quaequam quidquam，${ }^{1}$ any one．
II．The General Indefinites：
quisque，quaeque，quidque ${ }^{2}$ or quodque，every，every one． quivis，quaevis，quidvis or quodvis，any one you please． quilibet，quaelibet，quidlibet or quodlibet，any one you please．

1．Declension．－It may be remarked
1）That these compounds are generally declined like the simple quis and qui，but have in the Neut．Sing．both quod and quid，the former used adjec fively，the latter substantively．

2）That aliquis has aliqua instead of aliquae in the Fem．Sing．and Neut
Plur．Aliqui for aliquis occurs．
3）That $q u \bar{d}$ dam generally changes $m$ to $n$ before $d$ ：quendam for quem－ dam．

4）That quisquam generally wants the Fem．and the Plur
5）That inus prefixed to quisque does not affect its declension ：unus－ quisque，unaquaeque，etc．
2．Other Indefinites are：alius，alter，üter，alterǔter，neuter，ullus，nul 3．Other General Indefinites may be formed from uter：uterque，both， each；utervis，uterlibet，either you please．
4．Indefinite Pronominal Adjectives：qualislibet，qualelibet，of any sort aliquantus，a，um，of some size ；alifuot（indeclinable），several．
For qualislibhet the Gen，of an indefinite pronoun with mödi may be used： cujusdammödi，of some kind．


## CHAPTER IV．



192．Verbs in Latin，as in English，express existence， condition，or action ：est，he is；dormit，he is sleeping； lëgit，he reads．

1 Sometimes written respectively，quippiam and quicquam．
2 Sometimes written quicque．

193．Verbs comprise two principal classes：
I．Transicive Verbs，－which admit a direct object of their action：servum verbērat，he beats the slave．

II．Intransitive Verbs，－which do not admit such an object：puer currit，the boy runs．

194．Verbs have Voice，Mood，Tense，Number，and Person．

## I．Voices．

195．There are two Voices：
I．The Active Voice，－which represents the subject as acting or existing：päter filium amat，the father loves his son；est，he is．

II．The Passive Voice，－which represents the subject as acted upon by some other person or thing：filius a patie amätur，the son is loved by his father．

1．Passive Wanting．－Intransitive Verbs generally have only the active voice，but are sometimes used impersonally in the passive．See 301．3．Active Wanting，－Deponent Verbs ${ }^{1}$ are Passive in form，but not in sense：lơquor，to speak．But see 221.

## II．Moods．

196．Moods are either Definite or Indefinite：
I．The Definite or Finite Moods make up the Finite Verb；they are：

1．The Indicative Mood，－which either asserts some－ thing as a fact or inquires after the fact：legit，he is read－ ing；legitne，is he reading？

2．The Subuunctive Mood，－which expresses not an actual fact，but a possibility or conception，often rendered by may，can，etc．：lëgat，he may read，let him read．

3．The Imperative Mood，－which expresses a command or an entreaty：lége，read thou．

II．The Indefinite Moods express the meaning of the verb in the form of nouns or adjectives；they are：

[^16]190．Quis，any one，and qui，any one，any，are the same in form and declension as the interrogatives $q u i s$ and $q u i$ ．

1．Quis and Qui are generally used after $s i, n ⿱ \zh18 灬 土 龰 i, n e$ ，and $n u m$ ；si quis， si qui．But they also occur without such accompaniment．
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3．The Imperative Mood，－which expresses a command or an entreaty：lége，read thou．

II．The Indefinite Moods express the meaning of the verb in the form of nouns or adjectives；they are：

[^17]1. The Infintuve,-which, like the English Infinitive, gives the simple meaning of the verb without any necessary reference to person or number : legère, to read.
2. The Gerund,-which gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the second declension, used only in the genitive, dative, accusative, and ablative singulat. It corresponds to the English participial noun in ivg: amandi, of loving; amandi causa, for the sake of loving.
3. The Supine,-wbich gives the meaning of the verb in the form of a verbal noun of the fourth declension, used only in the accusative and ablative singular: amàtum, to love, for loving; amätu, to be loved, in loving.
4. The Participle,-which, like the English participle, gives the meaning of the verb in the form of an adjective.

A Latin verb may bave four participles: two in the Active, the Present and Futire -amans, loving; amations, about to love; -and two in the Passive, the Perfect and Future-anatus, loved; amandus, deserving
to be loved. to be loved.

> III. Texses.
197. There are six tenses:
I. Three Tenshes for Incomplete Action:

1. Present: amo, I love.
2. Imperfect: amäbam, I was loving.
3. Future : amäbo, I shall love.

## II. Three Tenses for Completed Action:

1. Perfect: amãai, I have loved, I loved.
2. Pluperfect: amavèram, I had loved.
3. Future Perfect: amavëro, I shall have loved.
4. Remaris on Tenges.
5. Present Perfect and Historical Perfect.-The Latin Perfect sometimes corresponds to our Perfect with have (have loved), and is called the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite; and sometimes to our Imperfect or Past (loved), and is called the Historical Perfect or Porfect Indefinite.
6. Principal and Historical.-Tenses are also distinguished as
1) Principal:-Present, Present Perfect, Future, and Future Perfect.
2) Historical:-Imperfect, Historical Perfect, and Pluperfect.
3. Tenses Wanting.-The Subjunctive wants the Future and Future Perfect ; the Imperative has only the Present and Future ; the Infinitive, only the Present, Perfect, and Future.

## IV. Numbers.

199. There are two numbers: Singular and Plural. ${ }^{1}$

## V. Persons.

200. There are three persons: First, Second, and Tumbd. ${ }^{1}$

## CONJUGATION.

201. Regular verbs are inflected, or conjugated, in four different ways, and are accordingly divided into Four Conjugations, distinguished from each other by the

202. Principal Parts.-Four forms of the verb,-the Present Indicative, Present Infinitive, Perfect Indicative, and Supine,-are called from their importance the Principal Parts of the verb.
203. Entire Conjugation.-In any regular verb
204. The Present Stem ${ }^{2}$ may be found by dropping the infinitive ending: amäre; stem, am.
205. The Princtral Parts may be formed from this stem by means of proper endings.
206. The Entire Conjugation of the verb through all its parts may be readily formed from these Principal Parts by means of proper endings. ${ }^{3}$
$\mathrm{i}_{2}^{2}$ As in Nouns. See 85.
${ }^{2}$ 2 For faller treatment of stems, gce 24. 24.2.
${ }^{3}$ In the Paradigms of regulur verbs, the endings, both those which distlingitsh the Principal Parts and those which distinguish the forms derived from those parts, are separately tindicated, and stoolld be carefilly noticed.
207. Sum, I am.

Sum is used as an auxiliary in the passive voice of regular verbs. Accordingly its conjugation, though quite irregular, must be given at the outset.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.


Pleperfeget.

## Subjunctive.

## Presbnt.

Imay or can be.

| sum, | Imay be, |
| :--- | :--- |
| sis, | thou mayst be |
| sit | he may be; |

Impenfect.
I might, could, would, or should be.

| essěm, | I might be, <br> thou mightst be,$\quad \|$essēmŭs, we might be, <br> essētis, you might be, <br> essent, they might be. |
| :--- | :--- |
| essět, | he might be; |

Perfect.
I may or can have been.

plural. we may be, you may be, they may be.

Pres. essě, to be,
Perv. fuissě, to have been,
Fur. futurrǔs ${ }^{2}$ essč, to be about to Fur. fưtürŭs, ${ }^{2}$ about to be.
-D1be. $1 \cup 11$ (

1. Rare Forms are: forerm, fờes, for rit, fờent, and före, for essem, esses, esset, essent, and futirus esse. See 297. III. 2 .
2. Antiquated Forms are: siem, sies, siet, sient, for sim, sis, sit, sint ; also fuăm, fuăs, fuăt, fuant, for the same.

| fuěrờ, fuěris fuěrit, | I shall have been, thou woilt have been, he will have been ; | $\begin{aligned} & \text { fuěrı̀mŭs } \\ & \text { fuěritis, } \\ & \text { fuĕrint, } \end{aligned}$ | we shall have been, you will have been, they will have been. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

[^18]${ }^{1}$ The Fut, may also be rendered like the Pres, or with let: bo thou; let him be,
${ }^{3}$ Futurus is declined Iike bonus. So in the Inflitive: futarus, $a$, um esse.

FIRST CONJUGATION.
active voice.
205. Amo, I love.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.


Perfect.


Future perfect.
I shall or toill have loved.
ămãvĕrư̆, I shall have loved, |ămâverrimŭs, we shall have loved, ămāvĕrİs, thou vilt have loved, ămāvěritis, you will have loved, ămävěrǐt, he will have loved; ămāvěrint, they will have loved.

Subjunctive.
Presenc.
I may or can love. singular.

|  | plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| love, | ămēmŭs, we may love, <br> ămētris, you may love, <br> ămentr, they may love. |

## Imperfect.

I might, could, would, or siould love.
ămărěm, I might love,
ămärēs, thou mightst love,
ămārēmŭs, woe might love, ămārētles, you might love, ămärent, they might love.
Perfect.
I may or can have loved.
ămãverrim, I may have loved,
ămãvěrrı̆s, thoumayst haveloved, ămãvěrrit, he may have loved; ămāvěrǐ̀nŭs, we may have loved, àaverit, he may have loved; ămāvérint, they may have loved.

## Pluprapect.

I might, could, would, or should have loved.
ămãvissěm, I might have loved, ămãvissēmnŭs, we might have ămãissees, thou mightst have
loved,
.., he might have loved; I ămanvissernt, they might have loved.
Mperative.

Pres. ămā, love thou; |ămäté, love ye.
FUT. ămātē, thou shalt love, |Ĭmatōtě, ye shall love, ămātō̆, he shall love; ămantŏ, they shall love. Infinitive.
Pres. ămārĕ, to love. Perf. ămãvisseč, to have loved. FUr. ămãturiruss ${ }^{2}$ esseç, to be FUr. ămãtūrǔs, ${ }^{2}$ about to love. D — D about to love. T P Gerund. Supine.
Gen. ămaụdr, of loving,
Dat. ămandơ̆, for loving,
Acc. ămandŭm, loving, Acc. ămãtŭm, to love,
Abl. ămandŏ̃, by loving $\quad$ Abl. ămătū, to love, be loved.
${ }^{1}$ Decline like prudens, 158.

FIRST CONJUGATION. PASSIVE VOICE.
206. Amor, I am loved.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind åmŏr, $\bigcirc$ ảmārī, ămātŭs sŭm. Indicative Mood



ămätŭr:
 ămābäriš, or $\mathbf{~ F e ́ ~}$ ămăbātŭur ;

 ămămŭт ămāmĭñ ămantŭr. Future. ămābāmŭr
ămābāmı̆ni
ămābantŭr.

वัmābŏr àmăbĕrıs, or ree àmābitự:

ămãtŭs sǔm I have been or was loved.


I shall or will have been loved.


Subjunctive, (hat
Present.
I may or can be loved.
plural.
singulab.
ăměr ămēris, or $\mathbf{F e}$ ămētur: ;

Imparyect.
I might, could, would, or should be loved.

| ămāreer | ămārēmŭr |
| :---: | :---: |
| ămārērı̌s, or rés | ămärexminn |
| ămaxettur | ămarentur. |

Perfect.
I may have been loved.


I might, could, would, or should have been loved. ămãtŭs essěm ${ }^{1}$ ămãtras essees ămãtŭs essět;
ămatl essēmŭs ămâtr essētis ămãti essent.

## Imperative.

Pres. ămāré, be thou loved; 1 ămāmùnx, be ye loved
Fur. ămātŏr, thoushalt be loved,
ămātŏr, he shall be loved;
Infinitive.
ămantŏr, they shall be loved.
Participle.
Pres, àmañ $\overline{1}$, to be loved.
Perf, ãmãtŭs esseć, to have been
loved.

FUr. ămātưm $\overline{\mathbf{I r I}}$, to be about to Perv. ămätŭns, heving been loved.

Fux. ămandŭs, to be loved.
be loved.

[^19]SEOOND CONJUGATION. ACTIVE VOICE.
207. Moneo, I advise. PRINCIPAL PARTS.


SUBJUNCTIVE.
Presext.
I may or can advise.

| singular. | plural. |
| :---: | :---: |
| mǒneăm | mŏneămŭs |
| mŏneãs | mǒneătıs |
| mǒneăt ; | mŏneant. |

Inperfect.
I might, could, would, or should advise.


I may have advised.


Pres. mǒnē, advise thou; |mornēte, adeise ye.
Fut. mǒnēt̆̄, thou shalt advise, |mŏnētōte, ye shall advise, mŏnēt̄, he shall advise; mŏnente, they shall advise. INFINITIVE.

| Pres. mŏnexrĕ, to advise. | Pres. mŏnens, advising. |
| :--- | :--- | Perp. mŏnuissě, to have advised.

FUT. mơnĭtürŭs essec, to be FUT. mŏnĭtūrŭıs, about to advise. $\square$ about to advise.

GERUND.
SUPINE.
Gen. mŏnendr, of advising,
Dat. mǒnendĕ, for advising,
Acc. mŏnendĭ̀m, advising,
Abl. mŏnendè, by advising.

Acc. mǒnĭtŭm, to adutse, Abl. mơnitu, to advise, be adeised.

## SECOND CONJUGATION.

## PASSIVE VOICE.

208. Moneor, I am advised.

PRINCIPAL PAPTS.
Pres. Ind. Pres. Inf. Perf. Ind. mơneŏr, mőnēri, mŏnitŭs sŭm.

ADICATIVE Mood.
 Indicative I
PaLERE FLAMremt Texse
I am advised.


PLURAL.
2
mờе̄mй
mơnēmìñ mŏnentŭr.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

> Present.

I may or can be advised.
singular.
plural.
moัneãmŭт mŏneămıını mõneantŭr.

Imperfect.
I might, could, would, or should be advised.


I may have been advised.


Imperative.
Pres. mŏnērě, be thou advised; | mŏnēmunni, be ye advised.
Fur. mŏnétorr, thon shalt be ad-
mǒnētorr, ho shall be advised;
INFINITIVE.
Pres. mǒnērI, to be adurised,
Prrf. mŏnitŭs essect to have been advised,
FUr. mŏnuturim IrI, to be about to be advised.


Participle.
PERF. mǒnitŭis, advised,
FUT. mǒnendŭs, to be advisea,
ACTIVE VOICE.
209. Rego, I rule. PRINCIPAL PARTS.


00 D
rěgēbātis rěgēbant.

## rĕgèmŭs

 regetus rěgent.
rexĕraimŭs rexeraltis rexĕrant.
Future Perfect.
I shall or will have ruled.


## rex̌mŭs

 rexistis rexéruint, or ēré ectŭm.SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.
$I$ may or can rule.



Pres. rěgě
Fur. rěgĭtö, thou shalt rule, $\mid$ rĕğ̀tōté, ye shall rule, rĕgritö̀, he thall rule INEIVITIV

Pres. rěgĕreĕ, to rule.
Perf. rexissé, to have ruled.
FUT. rectürŭs essĕ, to be about FUT. rectūrŭs, about to rule.
to rule.
GERUND.

Supine.
Gen. rěgendr, of ruling,
Dat. rĕgend̆̈̆, for ruling,
Acc. rĕgendừm, ruling,
Abl. rĕgenđ̄̄̄, by ruling. $\mid A b i$. rectü, to rule, be ruled.

passive voice. 81

Subjunctive.
Present.
I may or can be ruled.

| AR | Plural. |
| :---: | :---: |
| rĕgă |  |
| rěgarars, or $\mathbf{r e c}$ | frimut |
| rěgātŭx : |  |

I might, could, would, or should bervuled.

```
rěgěrěr
rěgerrēris, or rě
rěgěrętŭw;
```

rĕgěrēmŭr rěgěrẹ̄mĭnix
Perfect.



## Imperative.


FUT. régitör, thou shalt be ruled,
rĕghtŏr, he shall be ruled; rěgenntơr, they shall bo ruled.

> INFINITIVE.

Participle.
Pres. rĕgi, to be ruled.
Perf, reetŭs essé, to have been Perf. rectŭs, ruled. ruled.
Fut. rectŭm Irix, to be about to Fur. rĕgenalus, to be ruled. be ruled.

FOURTH CONJUGATION.
active vorce.
211. Audio, I hear.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.


Perfect.


## audivǐmŭs audivistrs

 audivérunt, or éré.audivěrãmŭs audiverrātis audivęrant.
Futurb Perfect. $I$ shall or vill have heurd.
 audītŭm.


SUBJUNOTIVE.
Present. I may or can liear. singular. audiăm
audiăs
andiăt audiăt;
plural.
audiămăs

| audiăııs |
| :--- |
| audiant. |

Imperyect.
I might, could, would, or should hear.
audirĕm
audirés
audirět;
 audiverrltis audivĕrint.
Pluferfect.

I might, could, would, or should have heard.

| audivissém <br> audivissēs <br> audivissét; | audivissēmŭs <br> audivissētis |
| :--- | :--- |
| audivissemt. |  |

Pres. audr, hear thou; |auditě, hear ye.
Fur. audrtob, thou shalt hear, |audrtotece, ye shall hear, audita, he shall hear; audiuntŏ, they shall hear. INFINITIVE. $\int$ PARTICIPLE.
Pres. audiré, to hear. Pres. audiens, hearing. $^{\text {Pers }}$
Perf. audivissě, to have heard.
Fur. auditnrŭs essé, to be Fur. auditn̄ŭss, about to hear.
Fur. audout to hear.
GERUND.
SUPINE.

Gen. andlendx, of hearing.
Dat. audiendढ̆, for hearing.
Acc. audiendŭm, hearing.
Abl. audiend̄̈, by hearing. $\left\lvert\, \begin{array}{ll}\text { Acc. audit̄, to hear, be heard. } \\ \text { Abl. and }\end{array}\right.$

FOURTH CONJUGATION. PASSIVE VOICE.
212. Audior, I am heard

PRINCIPAL PARTS.


INDicative Mood.

- ALERE FLAM Prasent Texse



audiébăr $_{\text {audielbäris, or ré }}$ audiêbäris, or
audiêbătür; noumble



Subjunctive.

## Present.

I may or can be heard.



I might, could, would, or should be heard.


I may have been heard.
 audiēbămñ audiebantŭr.
$\qquad$日路
auditr simăs auditi sitis auditir sint.

## audiēmŭr audiém̌ñ audiéntŭr.

 audit̄ £̌rāmŭs auditi épatıs audite ĕrant.Plutperfect.
I might, could, would, or should have been heard.
auditŭıs essěm ${ }^{1}$ anditl essēmŭs a auditŭs essees auditŭs essět; auditr essētis auditi essent.

## IMPERATIVE.

Pres, audirě, be thou heard; $\mid$ audrminni, be ge heard.
Fux. auditorr, thou shalt be heard, audrtŏr, he shall be heard; | audiantŏr, they shall be heard.

[^20]
## VERBS IN IO OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

213. Verbs in io are generally of the fourth conjugation, and even the few which are of the third are inflected with the endings of the fourth wherever those endings have two successive vowels, as follows:
ACTIVE VOICE.
214. Capio, I take.


SRINCIPAL PARTS.


Indicative Mood. plural.
 Imperfect.
căpiêbăm, -iēbăs, -iēbăt; | cĕpiêbămǔs, -iébatits, -iēbant. Future.
căplăm, -ięs, -iět; 1 căpièmŭs, -iêtis, -ient. Pebrect.
cępt, -istu, -it; |ceepimŭs, -istis, -ėrunt, or ẽrě. Pluperfect.
cêpĕrăm, -ěrås, -ěrăt; $\quad \mid$ cêpe̊rămŭs, -ěrâtiss, ečrant.
Future Perfect.

Subjunctive.
Presemt.

căpěrěm, -ěręs, êrět; | căpĕrēmŭs, -ěrětis, -七̌rent. Perfect.
| cêpěrǐmǔs, -ěrǐtǐs, -ěrint. Pluperfect.
cêpissěm,--issęs, -issět; $\quad \mid$ cêpissēmŭs, -issêtus, -issent.

Imperative.


Imfinitive.
PRES. căpĕré.
Perr. cêpissĕ.
Fux. captarŭs essě.

## GERUND.



Gen. căpiendi.
Dat. căpiendơ.
Acc. căpiendŭm.
Abl. căpiendǒ.
Participle.
Pres. căpiens.
Fur. captâŭs.
SUPINE.
$\mid$

Acc. eaptüm Abl. captū.
215. Capior, I am taken.

PRINCIPAL PARTS.
Pres. Inf $\quad$ Perf. Ind.
căpī, captüs sŭm.
Indicative Mood.
Paesent Tense.
sisgular.

Imperfect.
căpiêbăr, -iébăriss, -iébãtŭr; | căpiêbāmŭr, -iébāmĭñ̃, -ièbantŭr. Future
| căpiêmŭr, -ièminnī, -ientur.
căpiăr, -ièrǐs, -iêtŭr; Perpecr. $_{\text {I cüpièmưr, -iên }}$
captŭs sŭm, ěs, est ; | captī sŭmŭs, estǐs, sunt.
Pluperfect.
captŭs ěrăm, ěrâs, črǎt; | capti ěrrämŭs, ěrattis, ĕrant. Future Perfect.
captŭs ěrơ, ěris, ěř̌t ; $\quad \mid$ captì ěřmŭs, ěritis, ĕrunt.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

## Present.

singular.
căpiăr, -iārǐs, -iãtŭr;
|căpiảmŭr, -iāmĭnī, -iantŭr. Imperfect.
căpĕrǒr, -ěrëris, -črêtŭrr; | căpěrēmŭr, č̌rēmĭnĭ, -ěrentŭr. Perfect.
| capti simǔs, sitis, sint. Pluperfect.
captŭs essčm, essés, essět; | capti essemŭs, essētĭs, essent. (OMPERATIVE.
Pres. căpěre;
Fot. capĭtơr, căpittor ;
INFINITIVE.
Pres. capi.
Perf. captŭs esse.
FUT. captŭm írī.
căpìmĭni.
căpiuntǒr.
Paiticiple.
Perr. captŭs Perr. captŭs.
Fux. cäpiendŭ

SYNOPSIS OF OONJUGATION 216. FIRST CONJUGATION.

## 1. aetive voice.

## 1. Principal Parts.

ămơ, ămāré, ămãví, ămātŭm.
wnoantive
Pres. ămǒ
Imp. âmabăm
Fut. àmabo
Perf. àmãi
Plup. àmavařŭuly
${ }_{\text {Plup. }}^{\text {P. ànaverrăm }}$
2. Moons and Teasses. ${ }^{1}$

## subuxative

ămẽm
ămãvěrǐm āmâvissěm
 ămătơ ămātūrŭs esse ămãvissé

Gerund, ămandr, dठ, etc. Supine, ămãtŭm, u.
${ }^{1}$ These tables, it will be observed, are so arranged as to exhibit not only the synopsis of each mood through the different tenses, as, Indic, amo, amäbam onlc, but synopsis of each mood through the different tenses, as, Indic. amo, amaboam, etc., but also the synopsis of each tense through the different moods, as, Paes, amo, amem,
ama, etc. The pupil should make himself so familiar with the verbs, as they oecur ama, etc. The pupil should make himself so familiar with the verbs, as they occur
in his reading lessons, as to be able to give the synopsis of any mood through all the tenses, or of any tenso through all the moods.
II. PASSIVE VOICE.

1. Principal Parts.
ămŏr, ămārī, ămātŭs sŭm.
2. Moods and Tenses.
neloative. Pres. ămŏr Imp. ămãbăr Fout. ămãbŏr Perf. ămātŭus sŭm Plup. ămãtưs ěrăm F.P. ămãtŭs ěrố

| subuenotive. <br> ăměr | IMPER. <br> ămărě | $\begin{aligned} & \text { isyinimiž } \\ & \text { ămârī } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ămărĕr |  |  |
| ămātǔs sim | ămãtor | ămātŭm īrĩ ămãtŭs essê |
| ămãtŭs essěm |  |  |

Participle

## ămandŭs.

ămatǔs.

## 217. SECOND OONJUGATION.

> I. ACTIVE VOICE.


1. Principal Parts.
mŏnérẽ, mŏnuī, mŏnĭtŭm.
2. Moods and Tenses.

$|$| $\begin{array}{l}\text { mǒneăm } \\ \text { mơnērěm }\end{array}$ | mŏnẽ | $\begin{array}{l}\text { mŏnērě }\end{array}$ | $\begin{array}{l}\text { mǒnens. } \\ \text { mǒnuěrim } \\ \text { mǒnuissěm }\end{array}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

Gerund, monnendī, dơ, etc. Supine, mŏň̆tŭm, u.
NAD] II. PASSIVE VOICE.

1. Principal Parts.
mőneor, mőnērī, mŏnĭtŭs sŭm.

## D B BIBL 2. Moons and Tenses.

## 218. THIRD CONJUGATION.

## I. ACTIVE VOICE.

1. Princtipal Parts.
rĕgõ̃, rěgěré, rexī, rectŭm.

| ndiostive | subusom | ${ }_{\text {mapre }}$ | nstintive. | Partiote |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pres. rěge | rêgăm | rege | rěgěrě | rěgens |
| Imp. régebăm | rĕgèrêm |  |  |  |
| Tut. regam |  | rêgito | rectürŭs essě | rectarŭs. |
| Plup. rexexrăm | rexissěm |  | rexis |  |
| F. P. rexěrồ |  |  |  |  |

Gorund, regendī, dð, etc. Supine, rectŭm, ũ.
II. Passive voice.

1. Principal Parts.
rëgör, rěgi, rectŭs sŭm.
2. Moods and Tenses.

Pres. rĕgŏr
Inp. rĕgĕbăr
Fut. rëgar
Perf. rectưs sŭm
Plup. reetüs ěrăn
F. $P$. rectüs ěrờ

## 219. VERBS IN IO OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION

I. Active vorce.

1. Principal Parts.

## II. PASSIVE VOICE

1. Principal Parts.
căpiôr, căpī, captŭs sŭm.
2. Moods and Tenses.

## nndicative.

Pres. căpiör
Pres. cappiè
Tmp. cilipiebă
Perf. captüs sŭm
Plip. captū̀s süm
F. P. captưs êrô


| raper căpětě | $\begin{aligned} & \text { nymintive. } \\ & \text { căpì } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| căpittor | eaptŭm inī captŭs essě |

Participle

## căpiendŭs.

 captŭs.220. FOURTH CONJUGATION.
I. Active voice.
221. Pringipal Parts.
audios, audirĕ, $\qquad$ auditūm.

Pres. audið ${ }^{*}$ Imp. audiëbăm Fut. audiăm Perf. audivi Plup. audivérăm F. P. audivěrờ
Gerund, audiendi, dǒ, cte. Supine, auditŭ̀̇m, t.
II. PASSIVE VOICE.

1. Principal Parts.

- audiŏr, audīrì, auditŭs sŭm.
căpiơ, căpěré, cēpĩ, captŭm.
Pres. carpið
Imp. căpiêbăm
Put. capià
Perf. cêpi
F. P. épềơ



Gerund, căpiendi, dŏ, etc. Supine, captŭm, n.

1. They have also in the Active, the future infinitive, the participles, gerund, and supine.
2. The Future passive participle generally has the passive signification; sometimes also the perfect passive; hortandus, to be exhorted; expertus, tried.
3. The Future Infinitive of the Passive form is rare, as the Active form is generally used.

${ }^{1}$ The tenses are inflected regularly throngh the persons and numbers; hortor, hortäris, hortätür, hortämür, hortäminī, hortantür.

All the forms in this synopsis have the active meaning, I echort, I voas ecthorting, ete., except the Part, in dus, which has the passive force, about to bo exhorted, to be exhorted. From its passive force this Part. cannot be used in intransitive Dep. verbs except in an impersoual sense. See 301, 2 and \&

THIRD CONJUGATION.
224. Sequor, $I$ follow.
I. Principal Parts.
sĕquŏr, séquī, sěcŭtŭs sŭm.

## II. Moods and Tenses.

| indicative. Pres. sěquŏr mp. sěquêbăr | sebjusotive <br> sěquăr <br> sĕquěrĕr | nyper séquěréc | nefisitive. <br> sěquī | partictiple sěquens. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sěquăr |  | sěquitor | sěcūtūrŭs essể | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { sěcūtūrŭs. } \\ \text { sěquendŭs. }\end{array}\right.$ |
| ǔs sŭm | sěcûtŭs simm |  | sěcuturs essex | sěecutus. |
| up. sēcûtǔs ěrăm | sěcūtŭs essĕm |  |  |  |

Gerund, sěquendi, dگ, etc. Supine, sěcūtŭm, ū.
225. Patior, I suffer.
I. Princtipal Parts.
pătiōr, pătī, passŭs sŭm.
II. Moods and Tenses.


FOURTH CONJUGATION.
226. Blandiŏr, I flatter.
I. Pringipal Parts.
blandiri, blanditús sưm.
II. Moods and Tenses.


## PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION.

227. The Latin has also two Periphrastic conjugations, formed respectively from the two regular future participles combined with the various tenses of the auxiliary sum.
228. The First or Active Periphrastic conjugation, compounded of the Future Active participle and sum, expresses an intended or future action or state: amatürus sum, 1 am about to love; moniturus sum, I am about to advise.
229. The Second or Passive Periphrastic conjugation, compounded of the Future Passive participle and sum, expresses necessity or duty : amandus sum, I must be loved.

## I. Active Periphrastic Conjugation.

230. Amaturus sum, I am about to love.

231. The Periphrastic Conjugation, in the widest sense of the term, includes all forms compounded of participles with sum: amans est, he is loving; amatiorus est, he is about to love; amätus est, he has been loved; amandus est, he is to be loved, or must be loved. But as the Pres. Part. with sum is equivalent to the Pres. Ind. (anans est $=$ amat), and is accordingly seldom used, and as the Perf. Part. with sum is, in the strietest sense, an integral part of the regular conjugation, the term Periplurastic is generally limited to the two conjugations above given.
232. The First Periphrastic conjugation may be formed from either ransitive or intransitive verbs; the Second from transitive verbs only except in an impersorial sense. See 301. 2 .
[^21]
## CONTRAOTIONS AND PECULIARITIES IN CONJUGATION,

234. Perfects in āvi, ēvi, īvi, and the tenses derived from them, sometimes drop $\mathbf{v}$ and suffer contraction before $s$ and $r$. Thus

A-i and a-e become à: amavisti (amaisti), amasti; amavĕram (amaeram ), amärain; amavisse (amaisse), amasse.
$\mathbf{E}-\mathrm{i}$ and $\mathrm{e}-\mathrm{e}$ become é : nēvi (to spin), nevisti (neisti), nesti ; nevèrunt, (neerunt), nërunt.

I-i becomes i: audivisti (audiisti), audisti; audivissem (audiissem), audissem.

1. Perfects in ivi sometimes drop $v$ in any of their forms, bat generally without contraction, except beforo s: audivi, audii, audiiit, audieram ; audivisti, auduisti or audisti.
2. Perfects in övi.-The perfect of nosco, to know, and möreo, to move, sometimes drops $v$ and suffers contraction before $r$ and $s:$ novisti, nosti.
3. Perfects in si and $x i$ sometimes drop is, is, or sis: scripsisti, scripsti; dixises, dixe ; accessidtis, accestis.
4. Erě for ērunt, as the ending of the third Pers. PL. of the Perf. Ind. Act., is common in the historians.

The form in ere does not drop $v$. In poetry èrunt occurs.
236. Re for ris in the ending of the second Pers. of the Pass. is rare in the Pres. Indic.
237. Dic, duo, fac, and fer, for dïce, düce, füce, and fore, are the Imperatives of dico, duco, facio, and fero, to say, lead, make, and bear.

1. Dice, düce, and füce occur in poetry.
2. Compounds follow the simple verbs, except those of facio which change $a$ into $i$ : confice.
3. Undus and undi for endus and endi occur as the endings of the Fut. Pass, Part. and of the Gerund of Conj. III. and IV.: dicundus from dico, to say; puttiundus, from potior, to obtain.
4. Axciest and Rary Forms, - Various other forms, belonging in the main to the earlier Latin, occur in the poets, even of the classical period, and occasionally also in prose, to impart to the style an air of antiquity or solemnity. Thus forms in
5. ibam for iebam, in the Imp. Ind. of Cobj. IV. : acibam for sciebam. See Imp. of $\omega$, to go, 295 .
6. ibo, izor, for iam, iar, in the Fut. of Conj. IV.: servibo for saroiam; opperibor for opperiar. See Fut. of eo, 295.
7. im for $a m$ or $e m$, in the Pres. Subj. : edim, edis, etc., for edam, as, etc.; duim (from duo, for do), for dem.-In sim, velim, nolim, malim (204 and 298), $i m$ is the common ending.
8. asso, csso, and so, in the Fut. Perf, and assim, essim, and sim, in the Perf. Subj. of Conj. I. II. III.: faxo (facso) for fecéro (from facio); factim for fecirim; ausim, for ausus sim (for ausèrim, from audeo). Rare examples are: levasso for levavéro; prolibesso for prohibuéro; capso for cepěro; axo for egěro ; jusso for jussiro; occisit for occidenit ; taxis for tetigeris.
9. to and mino for tor, the former in both numbers, the latter in the singular of the Fut. Imp. Pass. and Dep.: arbiträto, arbitramino for arbitrā̈tor; utunto for utuntor:
10. ier for $i$ in the Pres. Pass. Infin.: amarier for amäri; viderier for viluer.

## FORMATION OF THE VARIOUS PARTS OF THE VERB.

240. Princtral Parts.-From an inspection of the paradigms, it will be seen, that the Principal Parts are paradigms, in the four conjugations with the following endings : ${ }^{1}$


Examples.

amãtum, to love.
deletum, to destroy.
monitum, to advise.
carptum, to pluck.
actum, to shappen.
auditum, to hear.
241. Entire Conjugation--Again, from an inspection of the paradigms, it will be seen, that all the forms of any regular verb, through all the moods and tenses of both voices, arrange themselves in three distinct groups or systems of forms:

[^22]I. The Present System, with the Present Infinitive as its basis, comprises

1. The Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative-Active and Passive.
2. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive-Active and Passive.
3. The Imperative-Active and Passive.
4. The Present Infinitive-Active and Passive.
5. The Present Active and Future Passive Participle.
6. The Gerund.

These parts are all formed from the Present Stem, found in the Present Infinitive of the several conjugations, by dropping the endings-äre, ēre, čre, īre of the Active, or-äri, êri, $i$, $\bar{r} r$, of the Passive: amäre, present stem, AM ; monēre, MON ; regěre, REG; audire, AUD.
II. The Perfect System, with the Perfect Indicative Active as its basis, comprises in the Active voice

1. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect Indicative.
2. The Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.
3. The Perfect Infinitioe.

These parts are all formed from the Perfect Stem, found in the Perfect Indicative Active by dropping $i$; amãvi, perfect stem AMAV ; monui, monu.
III. The Supine System, with the Supine as its basis, comprises

1. The Supines in $u m$ and $u$, the former of which with $\bar{r} i$ forms the Future Infinitive Passive.
2. The Future Active and Perfect Passive Participles, the former of which with eese forms the Future Active Infinitioe, and the latter of which with the proper parts of the auxiliary sum forms in the Passive those tenses which in the Active belong to the Perfect System.

These parts are all formed from the Supine Stem, found in the Supine by dropping $u m$ : amätum, supine stem, AMAT ; monitum, MONIT.
242. Verb Stem.-The true basis of all verbal inflections is the Verb Stem; but this is generally identical with the Present Stem. Accordingly in nearly all verbs the Present Stem is also the Verb Stem. Thus Amr, the Present Stem of amo, is also its Verb Stem.

1. In a few verbs the Present Stem has assumed one or more letters not found in the Verb Stem. Thus in fundo, vinco, the Verb Stems are fud, vic, but the Present Stems are fund, vinc, strengthened by assuming $n$.
2. We add the following table of verbal inflections.

TABLE OF
PRESENT SYSTEM. active voice.
Indicative Mood.


VERBAL INFLECTIONS.
PRESENT SYSTEM.
Passive voice.
Indicative Mood.


Verbs in io of Conj. III, have certain endings of Conj. IV. See 213.

Pres. Infinitive.

| ăm | -ărī ; |
| :--- | :--- |
| mỡn | -erí; |
| rég | -í; |
| aud | -irí; |

TABLE OF
PERFECT SYSTEM.
ACTIVE VOICE
Indicative Mood.
Perfect.


Pluperfect.


Infinitive Perfect
ămāv
mǒnu
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { mǒnu -issě. } \\ \text { rex } \\ \text { audiv }\end{array}\right]$

## SUPINE SyStem.

Infinitive Fut. ămăt mơnĭt -ârŭs essě. audit

Part. Fut.
-ărŭs.

SUPINE
-ŭm, -ū.

VERBAL INFLECTIONS.

## SUPINE SYSTEM.

PASSIVE VOICE.
Indicative Mood.


Infinitive Fut. ămãt mǒnìt monit
rect
audit
-ŭm Irí.

Part. Perf.
-ŭs.


## COMPARATIVE VIEW OF THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

PRESENT SYSTEM.-Active Voice. ${ }^{1}$
243. The Four Conjugations, it will be seen from this table, differ from each other only in the formation of the Principal Parts and in the endings of the Present System.
244. But by a close analysis it will be found

1. That even these differences in a great measure disappear, and that the four conjugations become only varieties of one general system of conjugation.
2. That these varieties have been produced by the union of different final letters in the various stems with one general system of endings.
3. According to this analysis
4. The stems in the four conjugations end in the following letters:

| I. | II. | III. | IV. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| a $_{2}$ | e, | consonant or $\mathrm{u}_{2}{ }^{2}$ | i. |

2. The general endings are
1) For Principal Parts: $\square$
0 ,
ěre,
si (i), vi, tum.
2) For Other Parts:-the endings given above for the third conjugation, but in the Future, bo and bor are regular endings as well as am and ar, and in the Infinitive Passive, ěri as well as $i$.
3. The manner in which these endings unite with the different stems may be seen in the following

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF CONJUGATIONS.

${ }^{2}$ By contraction: $a m a-o=a m o$.
${ }^{3}$ Like deleo, delëre, delēvi, delitum. See 240. II. - For changes see 247. 1.


| Imperfect. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| ama-eibam amãbam. | $\begin{array}{\|l\|l} \text { mone-ēbam } & \begin{array}{l} \text { rog-êbam } \\ \text { monëbam. } \end{array} \\ \text { regēbam } . \end{array}$ |
| ama-ebo amãbo. | $\begin{array}{l\|l} \text { mone-ebo } & \text { reg-am } \\ \text { monēbo. } & \text { regam. } \end{array}$ |
|  | Subjunctive. Presemt. |
| $a m a-a m$ amem. ${ }^{2}$ | mone-am <br> moneam. |



IMPERATIVE.


INDICATIVE.
audi-żbam audiëbam. audi-am audiam.
audi-e
audi audi-रte audite.
${ }^{1}$ The Passive has the same changes as the Active: ama-or =amor; ama-eris $=$ amüris ; mone-̇ris $=$ monëris; audi-\&ris $=$ audiris, etc.
${ }^{2} A$ changed to e, so throughout ; ama-as $=$ ames, etc.

246. The general rule for obtaining these forms has already been given (240), but as they are the basis of all verbal inflections, a fuller treatment of the subject is desirable. We notice

## 1. Regular Formations. <br> II. Irregular Formations.

## I. Regular Formations.

247. The Principal Parts of verbs in the four conjuga tions are formed with the following endings:

248. The Esdisas $u i$ and itum are only shortened forms of zoi and atum. thus the full forms in moneo would be, monevi, monetum ; by dropping e, we have monvi, montum; but to facilitate pronunciation, the consonant $v$ after $n$ is changed into its corresponding vowel $u$; monui (for monvi), and the two successive consonants in montum are separated by a short $i$; monitum (for montum).
249. Analysts of Exdisgs.-If we analyze the endings of the Perfect, we shall find that the final $i$ is the ending of the first person, the preceding $v$ the tense-sign of the Perfect, and the preceding vowel the characteristic of the conjugation. In the ending si,s is the tense-sign, while in the ending $i$ the ense-sign is wanting.
250. The Supise Esdive is properly tum (245.2), as the preceding vowels $\bar{a}, \bar{\epsilon}$, and $\bar{i}$, are the characteristics of the conjugation, and $i$ in Conj. III. is the connecting vowel. Practically, however, it is more convenient and simple to treat these vowels as a part of the endings.

## Euphonic Changes in the Regular Formation.

248. Before si and tum in the Principal Parts of the Third Conjugation, certain euphonic changes take place.

## I. Before si of the Perfect.

1. $\mathrm{A} \mathbf{k}$-sound $(c, g, q u)$ or $\mathbf{h}^{2}$ generally ${ }^{2}$ unites with the $s$ and forms $x:^{3}$ düco, duxxi (ducsi); régo, rexi (regsi); cưquo, coxi (coqusi); träho, traxi (trahsi).
2. A $t$-sound ( $d, t$ ) is generally dropped: ${ }^{4}$ claudo, clausi (claudsi); mitto, misi (mittsi).
3. B is changed to $p:$ scribo, scripsi (scribsi).
4. $\mathbf{M}$ is sometimes assimilated and sometimes strengthened with $p$ : prĕmo, pressi (premsi); sīmo, sumpsi (sumsi).
5. $\mathbf{R}$ is sometimes assimilated: gěro, gessi (gersi).

## II. Before tum of the Supine.

1. A $\mathbf{k}$-sound ( $c, g, q u$ ) or $\mathbf{h}^{3}$ becomes c: régo, rectum (regtum); cơquo, coctum (coqutum); träho, tractum (trahtum).
2. B becomes $p$, as in the perfect: scribo, scriptum (scribtum).
3. $\mathbf{M}$ is strengthened with $p$ : ${ }^{0}$ sumo, sumptum (sumtum).
4. $\mathbf{N}$ is often dropped: vinco, victum (vínctum). See 242. 253. 2.
5. $\mathbf{R}$ sometimes becomes s: ğ̌ro, gestum (gertum).
 Fluo, fluci, and struo, structi, form their perfects in ci ns if from a stem in a $t$-sound.

- Sometimes assimilated : cedo, ceessi (cedsi).
${ }^{5}$ Sometimes also ou or $v$ : exxtinguo, exatinctum; vico, victum. But $v$ is often
changed into its corresponding vowel $u$ : solvo, solütum (solvtum).
${ }^{-}$But dropped in ${ }_{5}{ }^{*}$ rumpo, ruptum (rumptum).


## II. Irregular Formations. <br> I. Present Indicative.

249. A few verbs of the Third Conjugation form the Present Indicative in io, ior, like verbs of the Fourth Conjugation. These are
250. The following with their compounds:

Cäpio, to take ; cưpio, to desire; fäcio, to make; fódio, to dig; fügio, to flee; jücio, to throw; părio, to bear; ${ }^{1}$ quätio, to shake; răpio, to seize; süpio, to be wise.
2. The compounds of the obsolete laccio, to entice, and spečcio, to look; allicio, elicio, illicio, pellicio, etc.; aspicio, conspicio, etc.
3. The Deponent Verbs: grădior, to go; mŏrior, to die; pătior, to suffer.
II. Present Infinitive.
250. Do, dãre, to give, is irregular in having ăre, instead of äre.
III. Perfect Indicative Active.
251. The Perfect presents three distinct Irregularities.
252. First Irregularity-Formation after the Analogy of other conjugations. - A few verbs in each conjugation form the Perfect according to the analogy of one or more of the other conjugations:

| Sorno, | sonäre, | sonui (2d), | to sonnd. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Augeo, | augēre, | auxi (augsi, 3d), | to increase. |
| Pěto, | peťre, | petivi (4th), | to seek. |
| Vincio, | vincire, | vinxi (vincsi, 3d), to bind. |  |

1. Explanamon,-Srano, it will be observed, though a verb of the first conjugation, forms its perfect in $u i$, after the analogy of the second; augeo, of the second, forms its perfect in $s i(x i=g s i)$ after the analogy of the third; pito, of the third, follows the analogy of the fourth, and vincio, of the fourth, the analogy of the third. Strictly speaking, such verbs are partly of one conjugation and partly of another, but they are generally classed with the conjugation to which the infinitive belongs.
2. In the First Conjegation, a fevw verbs ${ }^{2}$ follow the analogy of the Second: dömo, domāre, domui, to tame.
3. In the Second, a few ${ }^{2}$ follow the analogy of the Third : augeo, augore, auxi (augsi), to increase.

[^23]4. In the Third, a few follow the analogy of the First, Szcond, or Fourth: sterno, sternère, strävi (1), to strew; frèmo, fremère, fremui (2), to rage ; pêto, petère, petivi (4), to scek.
5. In the Fourti, a few follow the analogy of the Second or Third: äperrio, aperive, aperui (2), to open; vincio, vincire, vinxi (3), to bind.
253. Second Irregularity.-Stem-vovoel lengthened.-A few verbs in each conjugation form the Perfect in $\mathbf{i}$, but lengthen the stem-vowel :

| Jŭvo, | jŭvāre, | jūvi, | to assist. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Video, | vídēre, | vỉdi, | to see. |
| Edo, | éděre, | ēdi, | to eat. |
| Věnio, | venire, | vêni, | to come. |

1. Vowel Changed.-The stem-vowels $\check{a}$ and (in compounds) $i$ often become ẽ: fäcio, feci, to make; afficio, effecu', to effect.
2. $M$ or $N$ Droppeb.-The Present Stem in a few of these verbs is strengthened by the insertion of $M$ or $N$, which disappears in the Perfect : rumpo, rûpi (rumpi), to break; vinco, vici (vinci), to conquer. See 242.1.
3. Third Irregularity,-Reduplication.-A few verbs of the First, Second, and Third conjugations form the Perfect in i, but reduplicate the stem:

| Do, | dăre, | dědi, | to give. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Mordeo, | morděre, | mŏmordi, | to bite. |
| Curro, | currěre, | cŭcurri, | to run. |

1. The Reduplication consists of the initial consonant (or consonants) of the stem with the following vowel, or with e,-generally with the following vowel, if that vowel is e, i, o, or $u$, otherwise with e; see examples above.
2. Vowel Changed.-The stem-rowel is often changed: cado, ceicidi (for ceculdi), to fall.
3. $N$ Dropped. $-N$ is sometimes dropped, because it does not belong to the Verb Stem, but has been inserted in the Present : tundo, tuitüdi, to beat.
4. Reduplication with $S p$ or $S t$.-In verbs beginning with $s p$ or $s t$, the reduplication retains both consonants, but the stem drops the 8: spondeo, sporpondi (for spospondi), to promise; sto, stiti (for stesti), to stand.
5. In Compounns the reduplication is generally dropped, but it is retained in the compounds of do, to give; sto, to stand; diseo, to learn ; posco, to demand; and sometimes in the compounds of curro, to run ; re-spondeo, rospondi (redup. dropped), to answer; circum-do, circum-dedt (redup. retained); circum-sto, circum-stati, to encircle. The compounds of do which are of the third conjugation change $\epsilon$ of the reduplication into $i: a d-d o$, ad$d \tilde{u} d i$ (for $a d-d \bar{d} d i$ ), to add.
IV. Supine.
6. The Supine presents two principal Irregularities.
7. First Irregularity.-Formation after the Analogy of other conjugations.-A few verbs in each conjugation
form the Supine according to the analogy of one or more of the other conjugations :

| Sono, | sonāre, | sonui, | sonitum (2d), |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Augeo, | to sound. |  |  |
| Angēre, | auxi, | auctum (3d), | to increase. |
| Pěto, | petěre, | petivi, | petitum (4th), |
| to seek. |  |  |  |
| Vincio, vincire, | vinxi, | vinctum (3d), | to bind. |

Vincio, vincire, find verbs 1 follow the analogy of the 1. In the Fiest Conjugation, a few verbs Secosd or Third: (3d), to cut.
2. In the Second, a few follow the analogy of the Third: augeo, augere, auxi, audum, to increase.
3. In the Third, a few follow the analogy of the Second or Fourth : frèmo, fremère, fremui, fremătum (2d), to rage; cưpio, cupère, oupivi, cupir um (4th), to desire.
4. In the Fourth, a few follow the analogy of the THird: venio, venire, vëni, ventum, to come.
257. Second Irregularity.-Ending Sum.-Some verbs of the Second conjugation, many in the Third, and a very few in the Fourth form the Supine in sum:


1. Euphomic Changes are the same in supines in sum as in perfects in so (248. I.) : claudo, clausi, olausum (248, I. 2); mergo, mersi, mersum (248. I. 1), to merge ; flecto, flexi (for fleesi, for fledsi, 248. I. 1 and 2), flexum (for flecsum, for flectsum, 248. I. 1 and 2), to turn.
2. In the Fourth Conjegation, only raucio, to be hoarse, and sentio, to perceive, with its compounds, have sum.
3. The several modes above described for the formation of the Perfect and Supine may be presented for convenience of reference in the following table :

FORMATION OF THE PERFECT AND SUPINE.

## I. Perfect.

1. REGULAR PERFECT.
Conj. I.

First Irregularity.

| analogy of <br> Conj. II. | analogy of <br> Conj. III. | analogy of <br> Conj. I., II. or IV. | analogy of <br> Conj. II. or III. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

${ }^{1}$ For lists, see under Chassification of Verbs, 261, $84 q$.

Conj. I. stem-vowel

Second Irregularity.
Conj. IL $\quad$ Conj. III. stem-vowel 'stem-vowel lengthened. lengthened (and often changed).
Third Irregularity.
reduplication. | reduplication. | reduplication. |

> II. Supine.

1. regular supine.
ātum.

| ētum. | tum. |
| :--- | :--- |
| itum. |  |

2. irregular supine.

First Irregularity.

| $\begin{array}{c}\text { analogy of } \\ \text { Conj. II. or III. }\end{array}$ | analogy of | analogy of |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Conj. III. | Conj. II. or IV. |  |

Conj. II. or III.
analogy of Conj. III.

## PRINCIPAL PARTS IN COMPOUND VERBS.

259. I. Compound verbs generally form their principal parts like simple verbs:

260. II. But compounds of verbs with dissyllabic supines generally change the stem-vowel in forming the principal parts :
261. When the Present of the compound has $\mathbf{i}$ for $\mathbf{e}$ of the simple verb
1) The Perfect and Supine generally resume the e:

| Rĕggo, | regerre, | rexi, | rectum, | to rule. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Di-rigo, | dirigere, | direxi, | directum, | to direct. |

2) But sometimes only the Supine resumes the e:

| tenui, tentum, |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  |  | De-tineo, detinēre, detinui, detentum, to detain. 2. When the Present of the compound has $\mathbf{i}$ for $\mathbf{a}$ of the simple verb.

1) The Perfect generally resumes the vowel of the simple perfect and the supine takes $e$, sometimes a:

| Căpio, | capĕre, | cépi, | captum, | to take. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Ac-cipio, | decipere, | accépi, | acceptum, | to accept |

2) But sometimes the Perfect retains $\mathbf{i}$ and the Supine takes e:
Răpio, rapĕre, rapui, raptum, to seize. Di-ripio, diripěre, diripui, direptum, to tear asunder. For Reduplication in compounds, see 254.5 ; other peculiarities of compounds will be noticed under the separate conjugations.

## OLASSIFICATION OF VERBS

According to the Perfect-Formation. ${ }^{1}$
ALERE FLAMM FIRST CONJUGATION.
Class I. Regular Formation.
261. Principal Parts in: 0 , āre, āvi, ātum.

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation: the following are examples:


Class II. Irregular Formation. ${ }^{2}$ - Three Irregularities.
262. First Irregularity.-Perfect (and generally Sit
pine) after the Analogy of the Second Conjugation.
Principal Parts in: o, āre, ui, řtum (generally) Orěpo, crepăre, crepui, crepĭtum, to creak.

| Cŭbo, Dŏmo, Eněco, | cubăre, domãre, enecäre, | cubui, domui, eněcui, | cubĭtum, domitum, enectum, | to recline. ${ }^{3}$ <br> to tame. <br> to kill. ${ }^{4}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |

${ }^{1}$ The Perfect-Formation is selected as the special basis of this classification, because the irregularities of the other principal parts are less - important and cail be readily assooiated with this formation.

2 Tho lists contain all the simple verbs which belong to this class and such compounds as deviste in any important particular from their simple verbs.
${ }^{3}$ Compounds which insert $m$, as accumbo, etco, are of Conj. III. See 276. II. 1 .

- The simple neco is regular, and even in the compound the forms in ávi and âtum oceur.

| Fríco, Mico, | fricãre, micare, âre, ãvi | fricui, micui, tum; emic | $\xlongequal{\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { frictum, } \\ \text { fricātum, } \end{array}\right.}$ | to rub. <br> to glitter |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Plico, | plicare, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { plicui, } \\ \text { plicãvi, } \end{array}\right.$ | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { pličtum, } \\ \text { plicatum }, \end{array}\right.$ | to fold. |
| Sěco, | multipers | prico, and secui, | orco are regular sectum, | àvi, âtum to cut. |
| Sŏno | sonäre, <br> le, sonatur | sonui, Most comp | sonitum, ds want Sup. |  |
| Tŏno, Věto, | tonăre, vetäre, | tonui, vetui, | (tonitum), vetitum, | to thun to forbi |

1. Poto, äre, avi, ätum, to drink, has also pötum in the supine.
2. The Passive Participles coenätus and furätus (coeno, to dine, and jûro, te swear) are active in signification, having dined, etc. Pōtue, from pṑo, is also sometime active.
3. Second Irregularity.-Perfect lengthens StemVowel.

Principal Parts in: $\mathbf{o}$, āre, $\mathbf{i}$, tum.
Jǔvo, juvãre, jûvi, jutum, to assist.

Participle juvatūrus, but in compounds jutūrus is also used.
Lăvo, lavire, lãyi, $\quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { lautum, } \\ \text { lotum, } \\ \text { lavâtum, }\end{array} \quad\right.$ to wash.

In poetry this is sometimes of Conj. III: Lavo, lavire, lävi, etc.
264. Third Irregularity.- Perfect Reduplicated.

Principal Parts in: 0 , āre, $i$, tum.

| Do, |
| :---: |
| Sto, dăre, |
| stāre, |$\quad$| dědi, |
| :--- |
| stěti, |$\quad$| dătum, |
| :--- |
| statum, |$\quad$ to give.

to stand.

1. In do the chamateristic is short by exception: adabam, dabo, darem, ete. Four compounds of do, circumdo, pessumdo, satiedo and venumido, are conjugated like the simple verb; the rest are dissyllabie and of the third Conj. (2s0).
2. Compounds of sto are conjugated like the simple verb, if the first part is a
syllable, otherwise they take stiti for statt : adsto, adetare, dissyllable, otherwise they take stiti for stett: adsto, adstiare, adstti, adstatum. Disto wants Perf. and Sup.

## D- B B 265, Deronent Verbs,

In this conjugation deponent verbs are entirely regular. Thus,

| Cōnor, | conāri, | conātus sum, | to endeavor. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Hortor, | hortāri, | hortâtus sum, | to exhort. |
| Miror, | mirări, | mirātus sum, | to admire. |

266. P̈rincipal Parts in: $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { I. eo, êre, êvi, êtum. }{ }^{1} \\ \text { II. eo, êre, vi, }\end{array}\right.$ II. eo, êre, ui, Ǐtum.
III. eo, ēre, ui, tum or sum. ēvi, ētum.
These endings belong to the following verbs: Compleo, complêre, complēvi, completum, to fill.

So other compounds of pleo; as expleo, implea.


1. Aboteo, abolive, aboliex, abozitum, to destroy, is compounded of ab and oleo (not used). The other compounds of oles generally end in esco, and are of the third conjugation. See abdresco, 276. II. 1.
2. Vieo, viere, vietum, to weave, bend, is rare, except in the participle vietus.
II. eo, ēre,
ui,
ǐtum.

These endings belong to most verbs of this conjugation. The following are examples:

| Oăreo, | carēre, | carui, | caritum, | to be without. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Deabeo, | debēre, | debui; | debitum, | to ove. |
| Hăbeo, | habere, | habui, | habitum, | to have. |
| Mŏneo, | monêre, | monui, | monitum, | to advise. |
| Nöceo, | nocerre, | nocui, | nocitum, | to hurt. |
| Păreo, | parēre, | parui, | paritum, | to obey. |
| Plăceo, | placēre, | placui, | placitum | to please. |
| ceo, | tacêre, | tacui, | tacitum, | to be silent. |
|  | eo, | e, |  | $r$ sum. |

These endings, slightly irregular in the Supine, belong to the ollowing verbs :

${ }^{1}$ We class $\overline{e v i}$ and etum, though belonging to but few verbs, with the regular formations, because they are the full and original forms from which the more commod $w i$ and t tum are derived. See 247,1 .
267. Supine Wanting.-Many verbs, regular in the Perfect, want the Supine: the following are the most important:

| Aceo, to | Maxdeo, to be sect. | Sordeo, to be so |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Calle, to be shi |  |  |
| Candeo, | Ole | Studeo, to study. |
| Egeo, to want. ${ }_{\text {Emineo }}$, to stand forth. | Palleo, to be pale. | Sturpeo, to |
| Emineo, to stand forth. | Păteo | Timeo, to |
| Frondeo, to bear leavas. | Rigeo, to be stiff. | Torpeo, to |
| Horreo, to shudder. | Sileo | $\checkmark$ |
| Laxteo, to be hid. | Sorbeo, to swallow. | Vireo, to be green |

268. Perfect and Suping Wanting.- Some verbs, derived mostly from adjectives, want both Perfect and Supine: the following are the most important
Albeo, to be white.
Aveo, to coret Aveo, to covet. Calveo, to be bald.
Cäneo, to be gray. Câneo, to be gray. Foeteo, to be filid.

Polleo, to be poweerful.
Renideo, to shine
Scattoo, ot gush forth.
Squāleo, to be flith
Vegeo, to be Wively.

## Class II. Irregular Formation.-Three Irregularities.

## 269. First Irregularity.-Perfect in si (rarely i) after

 the Analogy of the Third Conjugation:Principal Parts in: eo, ēre, si (i), tum or sum.


| Rideo, | rîdēre, | rísi, | risum, | to laugh. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | stridëre, | stridi, |  | to crea |
| Suãdeo, | suadēre, | suâsi, | suasum, | to advise. |
| Tergeo, | tergêre, | tersi, | tersum, | to wipe. |
| Torgo, of Conj. III, alse occurs: tergo, tre, si, sum. |  |  |  |  |
| Torqueo, | torquēre, | torsi | tortum, | to twist. |
| Turgeo, | urgêre, |  | - |  |
|  |  |  |  | press. |


| Misěreor, | miserēri, |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Reor, | rēri, | miserítus sum, |
| misertus sum, | to pity. |  |
| rătus sum, | to think. |  |

3. Semi-Deponent.-Deponent in the Perfect.

| Audeo, | audēre, | ausus sum, | to dare. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gaudeo, | gaudëre, | gavisus sum, | to rejoice |
| Solleo, | solêre, | solitus sum, | to be accustomed. |

1. Cieo, ciere, civi, citum, to arouse, has a kindred form, cio, cire, civi, citum, from which it seems to have obtained its perfect. In compounds the forms of the fourth Conj. prevail, especially in the sense of to call, call forth.
2. Second Irregularity.-Perfect lengthens Stem-

Vowel.

Principal Parts in : eo, ēre, i, tum (sum).
 assessum; but dissideo, praesideo, and resideo want Supine.

| Vĭdeo, | vidére, | vidi, | visum, | to see. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Vŏveo, | vovẽre, | vōvi, | vōtum, | to voro. |

## 271. Third Irregularity.-Perfect Reduplicated.

Principal Parts in: eo, ère, i, sum.

| Mordeo, | mordēre, | mǒmordi, | morsum, | to bitt. |
| :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Pendeo, | pendēre, | pěpendi, | pensum, | to hang. |
| Spondeo, | spondēre, | spơpondi, | sponsum, | to promise. |
| Tondeo, | tondēre, | tơtondi, | tonsum, | to shear. |

For reduplication in compounds, see 254.5

272. Deponent Verbs.

1. Regular.

| Lǐceor, | licerri, | licǐus sum, | to bid. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Merreor, | merêri, | meritus sum, | to deserve. |
| Polliceor, | pollicêri, | pollicitus sum, | to promise. |
| Tueor, | tu | tuitus sum, | to protect. |
| Věreor, |  | itus sum, | to fear. |
|  |  | Irregular. |  |
| Fǎteor, Médeor, | fatêri, medēri, | fassus sum, | to confess. ${ }^{1}$ <br> to cure. |

[^24]
## THIRD CONJUGATION.

Class I. Regular Formation in the Perfect.
273. Principal Parts in : $\left\{\begin{array}{lll}\text { I. o (io), ère, si, } & \text { tum. } \\ \text { II. o, } & \text { ëre, } i, & \text { tum. } \\ \text { III. o, } & \text { ěre, si or } i, & \text { sum. }\end{array}\right.$
I. o (io), ěre, si, tum.

These are the regular endings in verbs whose stems end in a
consonant; the following are examples: ${ }^{1}$

| Carpo, | carpere, | carp | tum, | luck. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Cingo, | cingere, | cinxi ( $g s i$ ), | cinctum, | to gird. |
| Cómo, | coměre, | compsi, | comptum, | to adorn. |
| Dēmo, | demerre, | dempsi, | demptum, | to take avay. |
| Díco, | dicěre, | dixi, | dietum, | to say. |
| Dūco, | ducěre, | duxi, | ductum, | to lead. |
| Fingo, | fingere, | finxi, | fietum, | to feign. |
| Gěro, | gerěre, | gessi, | gestum, | to carry. |
| Nubo, | nuběre, | nupsi, | nuptum, | to marry. |
| Pingo, | pingerre, | pinxi, | pietum, | to paint. |
| Rěgo, | promĕre, | promp <br> rexi, | promptum, rectum, | to bring out. to rule. |
| Scalpo, | scalpěre, | scalpsi, | scalptum, | to engrave. |
| Sümo, | suměre, | sumpsi, | sumptum, | to take. |
| Träho, | trahěre, | traxi, | tractum, | to draw. |
| Uro, Veho, | ürĕre, vehĕr |  | ustum, |  |
| Vivo, | vivěre, |  | , | to carr to live. |

1. Change of Stem. Vowel in Compounds; see 260.

Rarpo: de-cerpo, decerpěre, decerpsi, decerptum, to pluck off.
Hi dirgo, dirgere, direxi, directum (260. I.), to direct.
forms its princinal parts precisely the same stem-vowel as the simple carpo, the stem-vowel in forming those parts, having $i$ in the Pres, and in change and Sup.
2. Compounds of Obsolete Simple Verbs present the same vowel changes: Lăcio (obs.): al-lício, allicěre, allexi, allectum (260. IL.), to allure.
So illicio, pellicio. For dicio, see 276. II. Spěcio (obs.), p-spicio. For eficio, see 276. II. spécio (obs.) : a-spicio, aspicěre, aspexi, aspeetum, to look at.

$$
\text { II. } \quad \mathbf{0} \text { ěre, } \quad \text { i, tum }
$$

These are the regular endings of verbs whose stems end in $u$; the following are examples:


These endings, slightly irregular in the Supine, belong to the following verbs :
Accendo, accenděre, accendi, accensum, to kindle.
So other compounds of cando (obsolete): incendo, succendo.
to kindle.
to vield.
cederre,
cessi,
cessum,
to yield.
to close.
$\begin{array}{ccc}\text { Claudo, claudĕre, clausi, clausum, } & \text { to close. } \\ \text { Compounds have } u \text { for au: conctã̃o, exctudo. } & \\ \text { Cudo, } & \text { cudere, } & \text { cudi, }\end{array}$
Dēfendo, defenděre, defendi, defensum,
to defend.
So other compounds of fendo (obsolete): offendo, etc.
\(\left.$$
\begin{array}{l}\text { Divǐdo, } \\
\text { Evădo, }\end{array}
$$ $$
\begin{array}{c}\text { dividĕre, } \\
\text { evadĕre, }\end{array}
$$ \quad \begin{array}{c}divisí, <br>

evãsi,\end{array}\right) \quad\)| divisum, |
| :---: |
| evãsum, |$\quad$| to divido. |
| :--- |
| to evade. |


| Figo, | figěre, | fixi, | fixum, | to fasten. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Findo, | finděre, | fidi (findi), | fissum, | to part. |
| Flecto, | flectëre, | flexi, | flexum, | to bend. |

${ }^{1} V$ is here changed to its corresponding vowel $u$ : volitum for volotwm. ${ }^{2}$ For enphonic changes before sum, see $25 \pi .1$


Future.
Viso, visěre, visi, visum, to visit.
${ }^{1}$ Compounds take this form in the Perfect.
274. Supine Wanting.-The following verbs, regular in the Perfect want the Supine:
Ango, ěre, anxi, to strangle.
Annuo, ère; $i$, to assent.
So other compounds of nuo, bat abnuo,
has Part. abnuitūrus.
Bătuo, ère, $i$, to beat.
Bibo, ëre, i, to drink.
Congruo, ere, $i$, to agree.
Ingruo, ĕre, $i$, to assail
Lambo, êre, i, to lick.
Luo, ëre, i, F to wash.
Part. luituras Compounds-abluo, al. luo, etc. have Sup. tutum
Mětuo, ěre, $i, \quad$ to fear. fect and Supine.

1. The following:

Clango, to clang.
Claudo, to be lame
Gliseo, to grow.
Hisco, to gape.
Stinguo, to quench
nguo, to quench; contemno, ere, con-
2. Many Inceptives. See 281. II. 1.
Class II. Irregular Formatton.-Three Irregularities. ${ }^{1}$
276. First Irregularity. - Perfect after the Analogy of other Conjugations.

## I. Perfect in āvi, as in Conjugation I



## II. Perfect in ēvi, ui, as in Conjugation II.

1. The following:

Abǒlesco, abolescěre, abolévi, T abolitum, to disappear.
So inolesco; but adolesco has Supine adultum; exolesco, exotetum; obs5 lesco, obsolétum.
Accumbo, accumběre, accŭbui, accubǐtum, to recline.
So other compounds of cumbo, cubo. See cubo, 262.

[^25] will be found on page 828 .

Ningo, ěre, ninxi, to snow
Nuo, obs.; see annuo.
Pluo, ěre, i or vi, to rain.
Psallo, ère, i, to play on a stringed instrument.
Sido, ěre, i, to sit down.
Perf. and Sup. generally supplied from sedeo; hence sedd, sessum. So in compounds
Strīdo, ěre, i, to creak.
Also strideo, Zre (Conj. II.).
Sternuo, ěre, i, to sneeze.
275. Perfect and Supine Wanting.-Some verbs want both Per-
$\square$but distinguo, ĕre, distinxi, distinctum, so exstinguo.
Temno, to despise ; but
tempsi, contemptum. ādo, to go. See evā do, 273. III. Vergo, to incline.
to nourish.

Cello, obsolete. See excello bem. See excello belov.
Cerno, cerněre crěvi, cratum $\begin{array}{lll}\text { Cǒlo, } & \begin{array}{l}\text { colěre, } \\ \text { Compesco, }\end{array} & \begin{array}{c}\text { colui, } \\ \text { compescęre, }\end{array} \\ \text { compescui, }\end{array}$ cultum , Compesco, compescěre, $\begin{aligned} & \text { compescui, } \\ & \text { Consǔlo, } \\ & \text { consulěre, }\end{aligned}$, crescere, erevi,

Ineresco and suceresco want supine.
Cumbo for cubo, in compounds: see accumbo.

| Depso, | depsĕre, | depsui, | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { depsǐtum, } \\ \text { depstum, }\end{array}\right.$ | to knead. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Elício, | elicěre, | elicui, | elicitum, | to elieit. |

Other compounds of ldoio, thus: allsoio, fre, allewi, allectum
Excello, excellěre, excellui (rare), - to excel
Other compounds of cello want Perf. and Sup, except percello, percellerce, percüll, perculsum.
Frëmo,

| Frěmo, | freměre, |
| :--- | :--- |
| Fưro, | furěre, |
| Gěmo, | geměre, |
| Gigno, | gigněre, |

Lacio, obsolete. See elicio.


Eerro, serĕre, sêvi, sătum,

2. Many Inceptives in esco form the Perfect in $u i$ from their primitives, See 281. I. 2.

## III. Perfect in ivi, as in Conjugation IV.

1. The following:


## $\begin{array}{lll}\text { Rǔdo, rudere, } & \text { rudivi, } & \text { ruditum, } \\ \text { Săpio, } & \text { sapěre, } & \text { sapivi, sapui, }\end{array}$ <br> to bray.

Compounds have $i$ for $a$, as restpio. Desípio wants Perf. and Sup.
Sino, sinere, sivi, situm, to permit. Yero, terěre, trivi, tritum, to rub.
2. A few Inchoatives in isco form the Perfect in $\bar{v} v i$ from their primitives. See 281. I. 2.
277. Perfrct in ōvi.-Noseo and its compounds form the perfect in ōvi after the analogy of $\overline{v v i}$ e evi, and ivi:
Noseo, noscěre, nōvi, nõtum, to knovo.
So ignosco.- Agnosco and cognosco have ttum in Sup., agnstum; dignosco and internosco want Supine.
278. Vowel Conjugation, - Noseo, verbs in uo, and regular verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations form a complete vovel-conjugation, whose Perfects and Supines in the full form are entirely analogous, as follows:

279. Second Irregularity.-Perfect lengthens StemVowel. See 253.1 and 2.
Ago, ăgěre, (ěgi, $\bigcirc$ actum, $\square$ to drive. So ciroumdgo and perígo; satago wants Perf and Sup. Other compounds change $a$ into $i$ in the Pres.: abigo, eve, abëgi, abactum; but coigo becomes cïgo ère, coह̈gi, coactum, and delgo, digo, ére, digh, without Sup. Prodrgo wants Sup, and $a m b t g o$, Perf and Sup.
Căpio, capĕre,
cêpi,
eaptum, to take.

So antecapio; other compounds thus: accipio, erre, accipit, acceptum.

| Edo, ěǎ̌re, | edi, | ẽsum, | to eat. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Emo, | ěměre, | êmi, | emptum, to buyy. |

So coèmo; other compounds thus: adèmo, čre, adèmi, adomptum.
Făcio, facěre, fêci, factum, to make.

Passive irregular: foo, fierl, flectus sum. See 294.
So satisfacio and compounds of ficio with verbs, but compounds with prepositions thus: conficio, conficerre, confeci, confectum, with regular Pass, conficior, coufici, confectuss sum.-Compounds of facio with nouns and adjectives are of Conj. I.: signtiflco, äre, âvi, àtum.

| Födio, | foděre, | fōdi, | fossum, | to dig. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Frango, | frangëre, | frëgi, | fractum, | to break: |

Compounds thus: confringo, êre, confrëgi, confractum.

| Fŭgio, | fugěre, | fugi, | fuǧtum, | to flee. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Fundo, | funděre, | fadi, | fusum, | to pour: |
| Jăcio, | jacěre, | jēci, | jactum, | to throu. |

Superyacio has jactum or jectum in Sup.; other compounds thus: abreio, tre, abjeot, abjectum.
Légo, legère, légi, lectum, to read.
So compounds, oxcept (1) coltrgo, üre, collegh, collectum; so detrgo, eligo, sel\$-go,-(2) diaigo, ëre, dileoil, delectum; so intellrgo, negrago.

| Linquo, | linquĕre, | hiqui, |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Compounds with Sup.: relinquo, לre, reliqui, relictum. |  |  |  |
| Rumpo, | rumpěre, | rup | ruptum |
| Scąbo, | seaběre, | i, |  |
| Vinco, | vincěre, | ci, | victum, |

280. Third Irregularity.-Perfect Reduplicated. See

$$
254.1-5
$$

Abdo,
abdĕre,
abdidi,
abđ̌tum,
to hide. So all compounds of do, except those of Conj. I. (264) : addo, condo, cretdo,
 drops redapication: abe-conal.

Cădo
Incido, tre, incidi, incêsum; so occido and recido; other compounds want

In
supine.
Caedo,
o,
caedĕre,
Compounds thus: concido, ere, concidi, conctsum.
Căno, caněre, cěč̆ni, cantum, to sing.
Concino, dre, cončinui, -iso occino and praccino; other compounds
want Perf. and Sup.
Creedo, creděre, creďidi, credǐtum, ${ }^{3}$ to believe.
${ }_{6}^{1}$ Explained as compound of $d_{0}$; вee abdo.

Curro,
currěre, cŭcurri,
cursum,
to run.
Excurro and praecurro generally retain the reduplication, excuicurri, praecks. curri; other compounds generally drop it.


Compingo, ére, compêgh, compactum; so also impingo. Depango wants eri, repango, Peri and Sup.
Parco, parcére, prrperci (parsi), parsum, to spare.
Comparco, ire, comparsi, comparsum, also with ofor a: comperco, dre, ete. Imparco and reparco want Perf, and Sup.
Părio, parerre, pěpěri, partum, to bring forth. Participle pariturns; compounds are of Conj. IV

| ello, | pelle̊re, | pěpŭ | pulsum, ${ }^{1}$ | to |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pendo, | penděre, | pěpendi, | pensur |  |
| Posco, | poscêre, | pŏposci, |  | d |
| Pungo, | pungěre, | pŭpŭgi, | , | to prick |

Compounds thus: compungo, ere, compuraci, compunctum.
isto, stătum, to place.
sistěre, stiti,
Sisto seems to have been derived from sto, and forms the Perf. and Sup. after
that analogy.-Compounds thus: consisto, ere, consrith, consthtum ; but circumstelf
also ocours.
Tango, tangĕre, tětĭgi, tactum, to touch.

Compounds thus: attingo, erre, attigi, attactum.
Tendo, tenděre, tětendi, $\quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { tentum, to stretoh. }\end{array}\right.$
Compounds drop reduplication and prefer Sup., tentum, but detendo and osten-
do have tensum; and extendo, protendo and retendo have both forms.
Tollo, tolle̛re, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { tětŭli (obs.), sublãtum, to raise } \\ \text { sustŭli, }\end{array}\right.$
Attollo and eatollo want Perf. and Sup.

${ }^{1}$ Compounds drop reduplication, $254,5$.
${ }^{2}$ Compounds retain reduplication, 254. 5.
${ }^{3}$ Explained as compound of $d o$; see abdo.

## 281. Inceptives.

Inceptives end in seo, and denote the beginning of an action. When formed from verbs, they are called Verbal Inceptives, and when formed from nouns or adjectives, Denominative Inceptives.

## I. Verbal Inceptives.

1. Most verbal inceptives want the Supine, but take the Perfect of their primitives.

The following are examples

2. The following take the Perfeet and Supine of their primi
tives:

| ${ }_{\text {Cobilesco }}$ | ${ }_{(a b)}^{(a b)}$ | ¢re, | arb | abo | to dizappear. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Coneutisiso | (con, cupio), |  |  |  |  |
| valeseo | 2) | cre, | ii, |  |  |
| ardesco |  | re, |  |  |  |
| diterasco |  | 8re, |  | inveteritam, |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Scisco, | (scio), | dre, | scivi, | $\xrightarrow{\text { revictum, }}$ soctum, |  |

ere, scivi, soitum, to enact.
3. The following are Inceptives only in form:

| Cresco, | crescerre, | crêvi, | crêtum, | to grow. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Fătisco, | fatiscerre, |  |  | to gape. |
| Glisco, | gliscěre, |  |  | to swell. |
| Nosco, | noscěre, | nōvi, | nētum, | to know. |
| Pasco, <br> Quiesco, | pascere, quiescěre, | ${ }_{\text {que }}^{\text {puievi, }}$ | pastum, |  |
| Suesco, | suescěre, |  | suêtum, | to b |

1. Most denominative inceptives want both Perfect and Supine. Thus
Aegresco (aeger), to grows sick. Jŭvěnesco, (juvēnis), to become a youth.
Ditesco (dives), to arow rich. Mitesco (mitis) Ditesec (diver),
Dulcesco (duleis), to become swet. Mollesco (molis), to grow soft.
Grandesco (gramdis), to growo targe. Grăvesco (grávis), to grow heavy. Pinguesco (pinguis), to grow fat
2. The following have the Perfect in $u i$ :

obsotetum.



## FOURTH CONJUGATION.

## Class I. Regular Formation.

283. Principal Parts in: io, ire, ivi, itum.

The following are examples:

| Audio, | audire, | audivi, | auditum, | to hear. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Condio, | condire, | condivi, | conditum, | to season. |
| Finio, | finire, | finivi, | finitum, | to finish. |
| Lēnio, | lenire, | lenivi, | lenitum, | to alleviate. |
| Mūmio, | mumire, | munivi, | munitum, | to fortify. |
| Punio, | punire, | punīi, | punitum, | to punish. |
| Scio, | scire, | scivi, | scitum, | to know. |
| Sĕpèlio, | sepelire, | sepelivi, | sepultum, ${ }^{2}$ | to bury. |
| Sitio, | sitire, | sitîvi, |  | to thirst. |
| Vãgio, | vagire, | vagivi, |  | to ory. |

1. Perfect in ii for Ivi. $-V$ is often dropped in the ending of the Perfect; a Perfect and Supine Wa

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Vantin } \\
& \text {,ivi, }
\end{aligned}
$$


 Sup. Also a few others:
Balbûtio, to stammer. Gannio, to barlk. Singultio, to sob. $\begin{array}{llll}\text { Balbutio, to stammer. } & \text { Gannio, } & \text { to trifle } & \text { Supprbio, to bs proud. } \\ \text { Caecutio, to be bind. } & \text { Ineptio, to to to } \\ \text { Ferio, } & \text { to strike. } & \text { Sãgio, to wise. } & \text { Tussio, to cough. }\end{array}$
Class II. Irregular Formation.-Tioo Iiregularities. 284. First Irregularity. - Perfect after the Analogy of the Second and Third Conjugations.
I. Perfect in ui, as in Conjugation II.

Principal Parts in: io, ire, ui, tum.

II. Perfect in si (i), as in Conjugation III.

Principal Parts in: io, ire, si (i), tum (sum)

285. Second Irregularity.-Perfect lengthens Stem. Vowel.
Věnio, venire, vēni, ventum, to come.
Vĕnio, venire, vēni, ventum, to come.
Věnio, venire, vēni, ventum, to come.
Vĕnio, venire, vēni, ventum, to come. So compounds: advenio, convento, derenio, invenio, obvenio, pervenio, etc.
286. Deponent Verbs.

1. Regutar.


Blandior,
Largior, Mentior, Mölior, Partior, $\quad \begin{gathered}\text { iri, } \\ \text { ini, }\end{gathered}$ blanditus sum, largitus sum, mentitus sum, molitus sum, partitus sum,

Potior, iri, potitus sum,
Sortior, iri, potitus sum, sortitus sum
2. Irregular.


Part. oritionus. - Pros, Ind. of Conj. III, orérs, oritur. Imp, Sabj., oriver or ordrer:- So compounds, but adorior follows Conj. IV
${ }^{1}$ From parrio of Conj. III.
${ }^{2}$ Comp. assentio has a deponent form, assentior. See 286,2
${ }^{2}$ In the Pres. Ind. and Imp. Subj., forms of Conj. III. occur
${ }^{4}$ Compounded of ad and sentio. Sec sentio, 254 . II.
${ }^{5}$ Compounded of ex and pario; ob and pario. See comperiv, 281. IL.

## IRREGULAR VERBS.

287. A few verbs which have unusual personal endings, are called by way of preèminence Irregular or Anomalous Verbs. They are

$$
\begin{gathered}
\text { Sum, edo, fero, volo, fio, eo, queo, } \\
\text { and their compounds. }
\end{gathered}
$$

$$
\text { 288. Sum, } I \text { am. }
$$

The conjugation of sum has been already given (204.); its numerons compounds-absum, ${ }^{2}$ adsum, dēsum, praesum, ${ }^{1}$ etc.- ex numerous compounds-ausum, cent possum and prösum, are conjugated in the same way.

> 289. Possum, I am able.


${ }^{1}$ Absum and pracsum, like possum, have Pres. Participles, absens and praesens.

## Pluperfegt.

pǒtuissěm, -issēs, -issět; pǒtuissēmǔs, -issētǐs, -issent.

## Imperative.- Wanting.

Participle.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Pres. } \\
& \text { Perf. } \\
& \text { posseul. } \\
& \text { póssě. }
\end{aligned} \quad \text { Pres. pǒtens (as an adjective). }
$$

1. Composmos.-Posoum is compounded of potre, able, and sum, to be. The parts are sometimes separated, and then potis is indeclinable: $p$ otis sum, potis nimus, ete.
2. Isfegulaninis.-It possum observe
1) That potis drops is and tiat $t$ final of the stem is assimifated before $8:$ posnum for polsum
2) That $f$ of the simple is dropped after $t$ : potuif for potfui.
3) That the Infin, posse and Subj. possen are shortened forms for potesse and potessem.

Oid and Raze Forms. See 2041 and 2.
290. Prosum, I profit, is compounded of pro, for, and sum, to be. It inserts $d$ when the simple verb begins with $e ; p r o ̈ s u m$, prôdĕs, prōdest, ete. Otherwise it is conjugated like sum.
291. Edo; I cat.

This verb is sometimes regular, and sometimes takes forms like those of sum which begin in es. Thus:


Subj. Imp.) also oceur.
 2. Fobms
edas, edatit, etc.
8. Compounds are conjugated like the simple verb, but comedo has in Supcomēsum or comestum.

## 292. Fero, I bear. ACTIVE VOICE.

Fěrơ, ferrě, tŭll, lātŭm. .

Indicative.


1 Fers for foris; fort for forst, fortis for feriths (i dropped).
${ }^{2}$ Ferrem, etc. for firtérem, ete; forre for fêtér' (o dropped).
Fer for ferd; fertī, fortz, fertote for fersio, ferite, foritits (i dropped).

- Ferris for ferterls ; fertür for jeritür.
$6^{*}$


## Subjunctive.



1. Teregulumring.- Fero, it will be seen, has two principal irregularities:
1) It forms its Perf. and Sup. tüld (rarely tetizil) and lātum from obsolete stems
2) It drops the connecting vowel e or $i$ in certsin forms of the Pres. Indic, and Infin, the Imperf: Subj. and the Imperat. It doubles $r$ in the Pres. Infin. Pass.
2. Coupoutsps of fero are conjugated like the simple verb, but in a fow of them the preposition suffers a euphonic change:

| ab- | वuरً | nufe | abstall, | ablãtum. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ad. | affitro, | afferre, | attüli, | allatu |
| con- | conffro, | coiferre, |  | ollàtum. |
| dis- | diftro, | differre, | distül, | ${ }^{\text {dualtum. }}$ |
|  | efficro, infiro, |  | extulil | cliltu |
|  |  |  | intuli, |  |
|  | ouluro, suffero, | oiferre, |  | oblãtum. |

## )

ICATIVE.
Presemt.

${ }^{1}$ Forver, eto, for ferereir, eta, forrefor fort
Fertor for feritor.
Fervi for fori (Conj. III.).

## Imperfect.



## Present.

| nơ̆lim | malǐm |
| :---: | :---: |
| notlis | mâlis |
| nôlit | mâlit |
| nōlimǔs | mãlimŭs |
| nölitis | mâlitios |
| nölint. | maalint. |
| Imperyect. |  |
| nollěm | mallĕm |
| nollés | mallès |
| nollĕt | malľ̌t |
| nollêmŭs | mallěmŭs |
| nollêtǐs | malletis |
| nollent. | mallent. |

Perfect.


Imperative.
Present.
$\square \square \square \int \frac{\text { Future. }}{\substack{\text { nöli, nölitě. }}}$
nôlitǒ, nōlitōtě;
1 Vellem and velle are syncopated forms for velfrem, vellere; ois dropped and $r$ ssimilated; vellerem, velrem, vellem; veldre, velre, velle. So nollem and nolle, for nolłrem and notére; mallem and malle, for malerem and malére.


1. Conposmion- Nolo is compounded of ne or non and volo; mälo, of majgis and volo.
2. Rabs Foprse,-(1) Of vóvo: volt, voltio, for vull, vultis; sis, sultis, for sh vis, si vultis; vin' for visnc.- (2) of wólo: nevis, nevult (nerolt), nevelle, for non cis, non vult, nolle.-(8) of yalo: macoblo, mavellim, mavellem, for malo, malim, mallem.
3. Fio, I become.
$\underbrace{\text { Indion, }}_{\text {singular. }}$ 294. Fio, I become.

Peve. fiol, fis, fit; fimǔs, fitis, fiun fio, fis, fit Mr. fiébăm Fut. făm;
Perf. factüs sum Perf. factus surm; Plep. fimǔs, fitis, fiunt. fēbämŭ fiêmŭ factī sŭmŭs,
factì ěrāmŭ factī ěrāmŭ
factī ěrimŭs
.

| Pres. | fiăm; | fîamŭs. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| MP. | f ¢êrěm; | fěrèmŭs. |
| Perf. | facturs sim; | factī sīmŭs. |
| P. | factưs essen | facti̇ essēmŭ |

Pres. fi;
Infinitive.


1. Irregulartry.-Fio is only silghitly irregular, as will be seen from the para- digm.
2. Mranng.-Fio means (1) to become, (2) to be made, appointed. In the second sense it is used as the passive of facio. See 279 .
3. Compotisns of fo are conjugated like the simple verb, but confth, defit, and infit are defective. See 297. IIL. 2.
4. Eo, I go.
E $\delta$,
irě,
inin,
ťŭm.
INDICATIVE.

| SINGU | AR. | plural. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pres. | eê, is, it; | imǔs, ition, eunt. |
| Imp. | ibăm; | İbảmŭs. |
| Fur. | ibơ ; | ibimǔs. |
| Perf. | Ivi; | ivimŭs. |
| Plup. | ivěrăm; | ivěrâmǔs. |
| Fut. Perf. | ivěrర̌; | ivěrıั้mŭs. |

SUBJUNCTIVE.

| Pres. | eăm; | eãmŭs. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Imp. | irěm; | irēmưs. |
| Perf. | ivěrı̆m; | iverrimŭs. |
| Plup. | Ivissěm; | ivissěmŭs, |

296. Queo, $I$ am able. Nequeo, $I$ am unable.

Queo, quīre, quīvi, quitum, and Nequeo, nequīre, nequīvi (ii), nequǐtum, are conjugated like eo, but they want the Imperative and Gerund, and are rare, except in the Present tense. ${ }^{1}$

## DEFECTIVE VERBS.

297. Defeetive Verbs want certain parts: we specify the following. ${ }^{2}$
I. Present Sxstrm Wanting.

Coepi, I have begun. Memini, I remember. Odi, I hate.


Indicative.

| Perf. | сосрі. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Plup. | coepêrăm. |
| Fut, Prer. | coepěrơ. | měmini. měmǐnĕrăm. méminěrơ. ōděrŏ. SUbjunctive.

Perf.
Plut.
měminnĕrĭm. mëminissěm.
 ôdissem.

IMPERATIVE.
S. měmentơ.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { S. měmentō. } \\
& \text { P. mêmentōte. }
\end{aligned}
$$

INFINITIVE.

Perf. coepissě, coeptürŭs essě.
memĭnisse.
Participle


1. Passiva Form.-With passive infinitives coepi generally takes the passive form: coeptus sum, eram, etc. The Part, coeptus is passive in sense
2. Present in Sense,-Memini and ódi are present in sense; hence in the Pluperf. and Fut. Perf. they have the sense of the Imperf and Fat.- Növi, I know, Perf. of nosco, to learn, and consuévi, I am wont, Perf, of consuesco, to scenstom one's self, are also present in sense.
${ }^{1}$ A passive form, quittur, nequitur, etc, sometimes oceurs before a Pass, Infl
${ }^{2}$ Many, which want the Perf. or Sup. or both, have been mentioned under the Classification of Verbs.
${ }^{3}$ Osus is active in eanse, hating, but is rare except in compounds: exōsus, perösus.

## II. Parts of Each System Wanting.

1. Aio, I say, say yes. ${ }^{\text {. }}$
 Imper. Pres, ai (rare). aiās, Part. Pres. aiens (as adjective).
2. Inquam, I say.

Indic. Pres. inquăm, inquiss, inquǔt; inquǔmǔs, inquǔťs, inquiunt.
 Inper. Pres. inque. Fut. inquitot.
3. Fari, to speak. ${ }^{\circ}$


Subj. Perf. fâtüs sǐm, sils, sit; fâti simǔg, sitís, sint. Plup. fâtŭs essẽm, essês, essět; faiti essemús, essetis, essent.
Imper. Pres, făré.
Inyiv. Pres. färī
${ }_{\text {PArt. }}$ Pres. (fans) fantis, Perf. fatūs, Fut. fandŭs.
Gerund, Gen. and $A b l$. fandī, dồ. SUPise, $A b l$. fatatu.
III. Imperatives and Isolated Forms.

1. Imprratives.-ăvē, avēte; avêtǒ; ; Inf, avēre, hail.
 sell me, give me.

${ }^{1}$ In this verb $a$ and $i$ do not form a diphthong; before a vowel the $i$ hns the
sound of $y$ : ayyo, alis. See 9.2 .
${ }^{2}$ The interrogative form aiene is often shortened to ain:.
${ }^{3}$ Aibam, aibas, etce, oceur in comedy.
D Also written inquibat.

- 1 fow forms of the Subj. are sometimes given, but they are not found in the classics.
- Fari is used chiefly in poetry. Compounds have somo forms not found in the simple; thus: afamur, afuninin, afobar, effabbris. Subj. Imp. farer also occurs fn compounds
rater is also wsed for the Imperat
${ }^{8} A g e$ is also used in the sense of the Plural.

2. Isolated Forms.

| $\begin{aligned} & \begin{array}{l} \text { Indic. Pres. Fut. } \\ \text { confít, } \\ \text { dēfit, } \\ \text { infit, } \\ \text { definnt, } \\ \text { infiunt, } \end{array} \end{aligned}$ | Sub. Pres. Imp. conffăt, confiěre̛t, definit, $\qquad$ | Inyin. <br> confǐ̀rín, to be done. defiěrī, to be vanting. $\qquad$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sub. Imp. fơrěm, forrēs, forět, $\qquad$$\qquad$ förent. -Inr. forrě. Ind. Pres. òvăt. Part. ŏvans, |  |  |
|  |  |  |
|  |  |  |

## MMPERSONAL VERBS.

298. Impersonal Verbs never admit a personal subject. They correspond to the English Impersonal with it: licet, it is lawful, oportet, it behooves. ${ }^{2}$. They are conjugated like other verbs, but are used only in the third person singular of the Indicative and Subjunctive and in the Present and Perfect Infinitive.
299. Strictly Impersonal are only:

|  |
| :---: |
|  |  |
|  |  |

it becomes,
it pleases.
, licitưm est,
Niserrèt, misěritu
me misëret,

portět, öportuit

1. Pantropples are generally wanting, but a few oceurr, though with a somewhat modified sense: (1) from unser: Thens, willing; (2) from nlogr: तौcens, free ented (4) from pris: prier: poenitens, penitent; poenitendüs, to be re pented of; ( $($ ) from PCDET: pudens, modest ; püdendüs, shamefol.
2. GERUXDS are generally wanting, but occur in rare instances; poentendüm,
3. Generally Impersonal are several verbs which designate the changes of weather, or the operations of nature:

${ }^{1}$ Forem $\rightarrow$ essem : fors $=$ futurum esse. See 204.1 .
${ }^{2}$ Old forms for quaero and quaerimus.
${ }^{3}$ The real subject is generally an infintive or clanse, sometimes a nenter pronoun: hoo fiéri oportet, that this should be done is neeessary.
${ }^{T}$ These four occur in the third person plural, but without a personal subject. So the Comp. didecet. So also some of the others in rare instances
4. Many other verbs are often used impersonally. Thus
5. The following:

| Accidit, | it happens. | Fit, | it happens. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Apparet, | it appears. | Intêrest, |  |
| Attinet, | it concorns. | Jưvat, | it delights. |
| Condacit, | it is useful. | Pătet, | it is plain. |
| Constat, | it is cvident. | Pertinet, | it pertains. |
| Contingit, | it happens. | Plăcet, | it pleases. |
| Convěnit, | it is fitting. | Praestat, | it is bett |
| Delectat, | it delights. | Praetěrit (me), | it escapes (me). |
| Displicet, | it displeases. | Refert, | it concerns. |
| Dölet, | it gricues. | Restat, | it remain |
| Evěnit, | it happens. | Sübit, | it occur |
| Expědit, | it is expedient. | Sufficit, | it suffices. <br> it remains. |
| ${ }_{\text {Fualit }}^{\text {Falt }}$ ( $\}$ (me), | it escapes (me). | Supërest Văcat, | it remains. there is leisur |

2. The Second Periphrastic Conjugation (233) is often used impersonally. The participle is then neuter :

Mihi scribendum est, $I$ must write; tibi scribendum est, you must write; illi scribendum est, he must urite.
3. Verbs which are intransitive in the active, i. e., do not govern the accusative, can only be used impersonally in the passive, and many others may be so used. The participle is then neuter:

Mihi creditur, it is credited to me, I am believed; tibi creditur, you are believed; illi ereditur, he is believed; certatur, it is contended; curritur, there is running, people run; pugnatur, it is fought, they, we, ete., fight, seribitur, it is vritten; venitur, they come, wec come, etc.; vivitur, wee, you they live. $\qquad$ $-$

## 

302. The Latin has four parts of speech sometimes called Particles: the Adverb, the Preposition, the Conjunction, and the Interjection.

## ADVERBS.

303. The Adverb is the part of speech which is used to qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs: celeriter currere, to run swiftly; tam celer, so swift; tam celeriter, so swiftly.
304. Isolated Forms.

| $\begin{aligned} & \begin{array}{l} \text { Indic. Pres. Fut. } \\ \text { confít, } \\ \text { dēfit, } \\ \text { infit, } \\ \text { definnt, } \\ \text { infiunt, } \end{array} \end{aligned}$ | Sub. Pres. Imp. conffăt, confiěre̛t, definit, $\qquad$ | Inyin. <br> confǐ̀rín, to be done. defiěrī, to be vanting. $\qquad$ |
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## ADVERBS.

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304. Adverbs may be divided, according to their signification, into four principal classes
I. Adverbs of Place.


305. Comparison.- Most Adverbs are derived from adjectives, and are dependent upon them for their comparison. The comparative is the neuter singular of the adjective, and the superlative changes the ending $u s$ of the adjective into $\bar{e}$ :


| altus, | altior, | altissimus, | lofty. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| alte, | altius, | altissime, | loftily. |
| pradens, | prudentior, | prudentissimus, | prudent. |
| prudenter, | prudentius, | prudentissime, | prudently. |

1. Magrs and Maxme.- When the adjective is compared with măgis and macime, the adverb is compared in the same way:
egregius, măgis egregius, maxĭme egregius, egregie, măgis egregie, maxime egregic excellent. 2. Irragular Comparisos.- When the adjective is irregular, the advetb has the same irregularity:

| bǒnus, | melior, | optimus, | good. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| běne, | melius, | optime, | vell. |
| măle, | pejus, | pessime, | badly. |

8. Defective Comparison.-When the adjective is defective, the adverb is generally defective:

9. Not Compared.-Most adverbs not derived from adjectives, as also those from adjectives incapable of comparison (169), are not compared: hic, here; nunc, now; vulgariter, commonly.
10. Surenlatives iv 0 or $u m$ are used in a few adverbs : primo, primum, potizssimum.

## PREPOSITIONS.

306. The Preposition is the part of speech which shows the relations of objects to each other: in Italia esse, to be in Italy; ante me, before me.

For list of prepositions, see 433-435.
307. Inskparable Prepositions. $-A m b \bar{i}$, $a m b$, around, about; dis, $d \hbar$, asunder; re, red, back; se, aside, apart; ne and ve, not, are called inseparable prepositions, because they are used only in composition.

## CONJUNOTIONS.

308. Conjunctions are mere connectives: pater ET flius, the father and son ; pater AUT filius, the father or son.
309. Conjunctions are divided, aecording to their use, into two classes:
I. Coördinate Conjunctions, 一which connect similar constructions: labor voluptasque, labor and pleasure; Carthaginem cepit ac diruit, he took and destroyed Carthage.
II. Subordinate Conjunctions,-which connect subordinate with principal constructions: haec dum colligunt, effugit, while they collect these things, he escapes.

## I BTR I. Coördinate Conjunctions.

310. Coördinate Conjunctions comprise five subdivisions :
311. Copulative Conjunctions, denoting union:

Et, quě, atquê, åc, and. Etiam, quơquě, also. Nêquě, něe, and not. Nêquě-nĕquẽ, nẽc-nẽe, nĕquě-něc, neither-nor.
2. Disuunctive Conjunctions, denoting separation: Aut, vĕl, vě, sivec (seu), or. Aut-aut, vẽl-vél, either-or. Sivěsivē, either-or.
3. Adversative Conjunctions, denoting opposition:

Sēd, autem, vērum, vēro, but. At, but, on the contrary. Atquï, but rathor. Cētērum, but still. Tămen, yet.
4. Lllative Conjunctions, denoting inference:

Ergo, igitür, inde, proinde, itŭque, hence, therefore. See also 587, IV, 2.
5. Causal Conjunctions, denoting cause:

Nam, namque, ẽnim, etēnim, for.

## II. Subordinate Conjunctions.

311. Subordinate Conjunctions comprise eight subdivisions:
312. Tenporal Conjunctions, denoting time:

Quando, quum, when. Ut, ŭbi, as, when. Quum prīmum, ut primum, ǔbi primum, simǔl, simmưlac, š̆mǔlatque, as soon as. Dum, dõněc, quoad, quamdiu, while, until, as long as. Antēquam, priusquam, before. Postě̌quam, after.
2. Comparative Conjunotions, denoting comparison:

Ut, ǔti, sičŭt, sicǔti, as, so as. Vélŭt, just as. Praeŭt, prǒ̌t, according as, in comparison with. Quam, as. Tanquam, quăsi, ŭt sī, ãe sí, velưt si, as if.
3. Conditional Conjunotions, denoting condition:
$\mathrm{Si}_{\mathrm{S}}$, if. Sì nôn, nǐis, nī, if not. Sin, but if. Sì quidem, if indeed. Sì mǒdǒ, dum, mǒdŏ, dummǒdơ, if only.
4. Concessive Conjunctions, denoting concession:

Quamquam, licet, quum, although. Etsī, tămetoĩ, etiamsī, even if: Quamvis, quantumvis, quantumiibet, horcever much, although. Ut, grant that. Nè, grant that not.
5. Final Conjunctions, denoting purpose or end:

Ut, üti, that, in order that. Ne, nêee (neu), that not. Quo, that. Quōminuss, that not.
6. Consecutive Conjunctions, denoting consequence or result:

Ut, so that. Ut nōn, quin, so that not.
7. Causal Conjunctions, denoting cause :

Quiả, quǒd, beccuse. Quum, since. Quŏniam, quandǒ, quandơquǐdem, siquǐdem, since indeed.
8. Interrogative Conjunctions, denoting inquiry :

N®̃, nonnĕ, num, utrum, an, whether. An nôn, necne, or not.

## INTERJECTIONS.

312. Interjections are certain particles used as expressions of feeling or as mere marks of address. They may express
313. Astonishment: ढ̈, hem, ehem, hui, aha, ătat, păpae, vah, èn, eccë.
314. Joy: io, ha, he, eu, evooe.
315. Sorrow: vae, hei, heu, eheu, ohē, ahh, au, prö or proh.
316. Disgust: ahă, phut, ăpăgĕ.
317. Calling: heus, o, cho, ehodum.
318. Praise : ouǧ̌, eju, hejü.

319. Worns may be formed in two ways:
I. By Derivation ; i. e., by the addition of certain endings to the stems of other words : amor, love, from amo, to love.
II. By Composition; i. e., by the union of two or more words or their stems: benevölens, well-wishing, from bene, well, and volens, wishing.
320. Smple and Courpoumb.-Words formed by composition are called Compounds ; those not thus formed are called Simple Words,
321. Pramitive and Derivative.-Simple words formed by derivation are called Derivatives; those not thus formed are called Primitives.
Ealled Derwatives; thoso not hus formed are cill
DERIVATION OF WORDS.
NOUNS.
322. Nouns are derived from other Nouns, from $A \mathbb{Z}$ jectives, and from Verbs.

## I. Nouns from Nouns.

315. Dininutives generally end in
ǔlus, ǔla, ǔlum, cǔlus, cŭla, cŭlum.

| hort-ŭlus, | a small gard | from | hortus, | ga |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| virg-üla, | $a$ small branch, |  |  |  |
| oppid-ulum, | a small town, |  |  |  |
|  | $a \mathrm{sm}$ |  |  |  |
| Ti- |  |  |  |  |

1. Ulus, ǔla, ülum are generally added to the stems of nouns of Dec. L and II., and to some of Dec. III.
2. Olus, ola, olum are used for člus, ǔla, úlum, when a vowel precedes: filiölus, little son, from filius; filiöla, little daughter, from filia ; atriolum, small hall, from atrium.
3. Ellus, ella, ellum; illus, illa, llum, are sometimes used, especially with primitives of Dec. I. and II., whose stems end in I, $\boldsymbol{n}$, or $\boldsymbol{r}$; but $l l$ and $i l$ in these endings generally displace the last syllable of the stem: ocellus, small eye, from ocülus; fabella, short fable, from fāüla; bacillum, small staff, from bacülum.
4. Cŭlus, cüla, cülum are used with primitives of Dec. IV. and V., and with some of Dec. III. These are appended
1) To the Nominative: fos, flos-cillus; mulier, muliercuila; munus, munus. cilum.
2) To the Stem with a connecting vowel $i$, sometimes e: pons (bridge), ponti. cïhus ; pars, particüla; vulpes (fox), vulpecuila.
3) To the Stem of nouns in 0 ( $G$. onis, inis), with stem-vowel changed to $u$ : thomo (man), homun-cïlus; virgo (maiden), virguncüla. Like nouns in 0, a fow other words form diminutives in unculhus, uncüla: acus (uncle), avunoühus; conus (hoose), domuncüla.
5. Uleus and cio are rare: equuleus, a small horse, from equus; homuncia, a small man, from homo.
6. Patronyames, or names of descent, generally ǐdes, Ides, iădes, ădes, masculine. Thes-ides, son of Tantalus; Tantăl-is, doughter of Tantalus. Laert-ǐ̃des son of Theseus; Thes-eis, daughter of Theseus. Thesti-ädes, son of Laertes; Laert-ias, daughter of Laertes. Thesti-as, daughter of Thestius.
7. Ides (i) and is are the common endings.
8. Ides (i) and ëis are used especially with primitives in eus.
9. Iădes, ădes, and ias, as, are used principally with primitives in ius, and in those in as and es of Dec. I.-Aenias has Aeneädes, masc. and Aeneis, fem.
10. Ine and ōne are rare feminine endings: Neptun-ine, daughter of Neptune ; Acrisi-öne, daughter of Acrisius.
11. Designations of Plage are often formed with the endings

| ārium, | ētum, | ile. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| columb-ärium, | a dovecot, | from | columba. |
| querc-êtum, | a forest of oaks, | " | quercus. |
| ov-ile, | a sheepfold, | " | ovis. |

1. Arium designates the place where anything is kept, a receptacle: aerärium, treasury, from aes.
2. Etum, used with names of trees and plants, designates the place where they flourish: olivetum, an olive grove, from oliva.
3. Ile, used with names of animals, designates their stall or fold: bovile, stall for cattle, from bos.
4. Derivatives are also formed with several other endings, especially with

5. Arius and io generally designate one's occupation.
6. Ium and itium denote office, condition, or collection: servitium, servitude, sometimes a collection of servants.
7. Tus and ittus designate some characteristic or condition: virtus, manliness, virtue, from vir; juventus, youth, from juvĕnis.
8. Atus denotes rank, office, collection: consulätue, consulship, from consul; senätus, senate, collection of old men, from senea.
9. Patrlal or Gentilis Nouns.-See 826. 3.

10. From Adjectives are formed various Abstract Nouns with the endings

11. Itas, tas, ětas.-Itas sometimes drops $i$ : libertus, liberty, from liber; cetas is used with primitives in ius: piẽtas, piety, from pius. Sometimes
the stem of the adjective is slightly changed: facilis, facultas, faculty; dificilis, difficultas, difficulty ; potens, potestas, power; honestus, honestas, honesty.
12. Itūdo and ǐtas.-A few adjectives form abstracts with both these endings: firmue, firmàtas, firmitūdo, firmness. Polysyllabic adjectives in tus generally change tus into tūdo: sollicitus, sollicitudo, solicitude.
13. Imonia is rare: Parsimonia, parsimony, from parcus, changes c into 8.

## (1) Nouns from Verbs. <br> 1. From the Present Stem.

320. From the Present stem are formed Verbal Nouns with various endings, especially with
or; ium; men, mentum; bŭlum, cǔlum, brum, crum, trum.

| am-or, | love, | from | amo. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tim-or, | fear, |  | meo. |
| gaud-ium, | joy, | " | gaudeo. |
| cert-ä-men, | contest, | 4 | certo. |
| orn-â-mentum, | ornament, | " | orno. |
| voc-a-bŭlum, | appellation, | " | voco. |
| veh-i-cŭlum, | vehicle, | " | veh |
| fl-a-brum, | blast, | 4 |  |
| simul-aterum, | image, | ، | simǔlo. |
| ar-àtram, | plough, |  | aro |

1. Or designates the action or state denoted by the verb.
2. Ium has nearly the same force, but sometimes designates the thing done: aedificium, edifice, from aedifico.
3. Men and mentum generally designate the means of an action, or its involuntary subject: Alumen, a stream, something which flows, from fluo; agmen, an army in motion, from ago.

These endings are generally preceded by a connecting vowel: orn-a-mentum, mament: vest--mentum, clothing Sometimes the stem itself is slortened of changed: fragmentum, fragment, from frango; momentum, moving force, from move.
4. Bǔlum, cǔlum, brum, crum, trum designate the indrument or the place of the action : vehicitum, vehicle, instrument of the action, from veho ; stabulum, stall, place of the action, from sto.

These endings generally take a connecting vowel. Sometimes the stem itself is changed: sepulcrum, sepulchre, from sepotio.
5. Ulum, ǔla.-Uhum for cülum occurs after $c$ and $g$ : vino-ĩlum, a bond, from vinoio; cing-ülum, girdle, from cingo. Ula also occurs: regila, rule, from rego.
6. Us, a, o sometimes designate the agent of the action : coquus, cook, from coquo; scriba, writer, from seribo; erro, wanderer, from erro.
7. Ela, Ido, igo and a few other endings also occur: querila, complaint, from queror ; oupido, desire, from cupio; origo, origin, from orior.
2. From the Supine Stem.
321. From the Supine stem are formed Verbal Nouns with the endings


1. Or denotes the agent or doer. When $t$ precedes, corresponding feminine nouns are generally formed by changing tor into trix: victor, victrix.
2. Io, us, and ūra form abstract nouns, and denote the act itself.

## ADJECTIVES.

322. Derivative adjectives are formed from Nouns, Adjectives, Verbs, and Adverbs.
I. Adjectives from Nouns.
323. From Common Nouns.
324. Fulness.-Adjectives denoting fulness, abundance, supply, generally end in

| ōsus, | lentus, ātus, | Itus, | ūtus. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| anim-ōsus, | full of courage, | from | animus. |
| op-u-lentus, | opulent, | " | opes. |
| turr-itus, | turreted, | " | turris. |

1. Uōsus is used for ösus in adjectives from nouns of Dec. TV. and in some others: fructuösus, fruitful.
2. 2. Lentus takes a connecting vowel, generally $u$, sometimes $o: o p-14-$ Lentus, vin-o-lentus.
1. Estus and ustus also oceur, but generally with a change in the $R$ stem : modestus, modest, from nodus; justus, just, from jus.
2. Miterial.-Adjectives designating the material of which anything is made generally end in

| eus, innus, | nus, | neus; | rarely ãceus, and icius. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| aur-eus, | golden, | from | aurum. |
| cedr-inus, | cedar, | " | cedrus. |
| popul-nus, | of poplar, | " | popŭlus, |
| popul-neus, | of poplar, | " | popŭlus. |


| papyr-áceus, | of papyrus, from | papyrus. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| later-icius, | of brick, | " |

325. Characteristic.-Adjectives signifying belonging to, derived from, generally end in
ǐcus, ilis, inus, ius; ālis, ānus, āris, ārius, ensis.
civ-icus, relating to a citizen, from civis.
civ-ilis,
relating to a citizen

| civ-ilis, | relating to a citizen, | " | civis. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| equ-inus, | of, pertaining to a horse, | " | equus. |
| reg-ins, | royal, | " | rex. |
| mort-alis, | mortal, | " | mors. |
| urb-anus, | of, pertaining to a city, | " | urbs. |
| salut-aris, | salutary, | s | salus. |
| auxil-arius, | auciliary, | auxilium |  |
| for-ensis, | forensic, | a | forum. |

1. Ticus is sometimes added to the Nom. : rus, rus-tious, rustic.
2. Ernus, ester, itimus and a few other endings also occur : pater, paternus, paterual; campus, campester, level; mare, marǐtimus, maritime.
3. From Proper Nouns.
4. Adjectives from proper nouns generally end in ānus, iānus, inus; iăcus, ǐcus, ius, ensis, iensis; as, aeus, ēus,

| Sull-änus, | of Sylla, | from | Sulla. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Rom-ānus, | Roman | " | Roma. |
| Ciceron-iãnus, | Giceroni | " | Cicêro. |
| Lat-inus, | Latin, | " | Latium. |
| Corinth-iăcus, | Corinthian, | " | Corinthus, |
| Corinth-ius, | Corinthian, | 4 | Corinthus, |
| Britann-reus, | British, | \% | Britannus. |
| Cann-ensis, | of Cannae, | " | Cannae. |
| Athen-iensis, | Athenian, | " | Athēnae. |
| Fidēn-as, | of Fidenae, | " | Fidẽnae. |
| Smyrn-aeus, | Smyrnean, | \% | Smyrna. |
| Pythagor-eus, | Pythagorean, | / | Pythagorras |

1. Ianus is the ending generally used in derivatives from Names of Persons; but $\overline{a n} u s$, inus, ius, and the Greek endings èus and icus also occur.
2. Ensis and cānus (änus) in derivatives from names of countries signify merely being in the country, in distinction from belonging to it: thus exercitus Hispaniensis is an army stationed in Spain, but exercitus Hispanicus is a Spanish army.
3. Patrials.- Many of these adjectives from names of places are also used substantively as Patrial or Gentile Nouns to designate the citizens of the place: Corinthii, the Corinthians; Athenienses, the Athenians.
II. Adjectives from Adjectives.
4. Diminutives from other adjectives generally end like diminutive nouns (315) in
ülus, ǔla, ǔlum, cǔlus, cǔla, cǔlum.
long-ŭlus, a, um, rather long, from longus. pauper-cŭlus, a, um, rather poor, " pauper.
5. Olus, ellus, and illus also occur as in nouns.
6. Cǔlus is sometimes added to comparatives: durius-cülus, somewhat hard, from durius.
III. Adjectives from Verbs.
7. Verbal adjectives generally end in


miror. caleo.
paveo.
amo. audeo.
8. Bundus and cundus have nearly the force of the present participle; but bundus is somewhat more expressive than the Part.: laetabundus, re joicing greatly; and cundurg generally denotes some characteristic rather than a single act or feeling: vercoundus, diffident.

These endings take a connecting vowel. See examples.
2. Idus retains the simple meaning of the verb.
3. Tis and bilis denote capability, generally in a passive sense: amabilis, capable or worthy of being loved; sometimes in an active sense: terribilis, terrible, capable of producing terror.

These endings are generally added to the Present Stem (bilis with a connecting vowel), but sometimes to the Supine Stem: flexiblis, flexible.
4. Ax denotes inclination, generally a faulty one: loquax, loquacious.
5. Uus, ǔlus, icius, and ivus also occur:-(1) uus in the sense of duus: vacuus, vacant.-(2) ulus in the sense of $a x$ : credüuns, credulous.-(8) icius and ivus (added to Sup. Stem) in the sense of the Perf. Part: ficticius, feigned, from fingo (fictum); captious, captive, from cupio (captum).
IV. Adjectives from Adverbs and Prepositions. $R$
329. A few adjectives are formed from adverbs and


VERBS.
330. Derivative Verbs are formed from Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.
I. Verbs from Nouns and Adjectives.
331. Verbs formed from nouns and adjectives end in

| Conj. I. | Conj. II. | Conj. IV. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| O, | eo, | io. |



## arma. <br> cura. <br> nomen. <br> caecus. liber.

Conjugation II.-Intransitive.


Conjugation IV.-Generally Transitive.


Deponent.-Derivatives, like other verbs, may of course be deponent : dominor, to domineer, from dominus.
II. Verbs from Verbs.
332. Verbs derived from other verbs are- $F$ requentatives, Inceptives, Desideratives, and Diminutives.
I. Frequentatives denote repeated or continued action.

They are of the first conjugation and are formed

1. From Supines in ātum by changing ātum into ǐto:
elam-ĭto,
to exclaim,
from
volo,
clamâtum.
vol-ito,
to flit,
2. From other Supines by changing um into 0 , some. times íto:

| adjūt-o, | to assist often, | from | adjŭvo, | adjutum. |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- | :--- |
| habit-o, | to have often, | " | habeo, | habitum. |
| lect-ito, | to read ofter, | " | lego, | lectum. |

1) Ito is sometimes added to the Present Stem of verbs of Conj. III. : ago, agito ; quaero, quaerito.
2) Eisso and isso form derivatives which are generally classed with
frequentatives, though they are intensive in force, denoting earnest rather than repeated action, and are of Conj. III. : facio, facesso, to do earnestly; incipio, incipisso, to begin eagerly. The regular frequentatives sometimes have the same force: rapio, rapto, to seize eagerly.
II. Inceptives, or Ivchoatives, denote the beginning of the action. They are of the third conjugation, and end in

1. Asco is used in inceptives from verbs of Conj. I., and in a ferv from nouns and adjectives : puer, puerasco, to become a boy.
2. Esco is by far the most common ending, and is used in inceptives from verbs of Conj. II., and in many from nouns and adjectives : dutrus, dêresco, to grow hard.
III. Desideratives denote a desive to perform the action. They are of the fourth conjugation and are formed from the Supine by changing um into ǔrio:

| es-ŭrio, | to desire to eat, from ědo, eesum. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| empt-ürio, | to desire to buy, | " emmo, | emptum. |

IV. Dimnutives denote a feeble action. They are of the first conjugation and are formed from the Present by changing the ending into illo:

| cant-illo, | to sing feebly, | from | canto. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| conscrib-illo, to scribble, | 11 | conscribo. |  |

## ADVERBS

333. Adverbs are formed from Nouns, Adjectives, Participles, Pronouns, and Prepositions.
I. Adverbs from Nouns.
334. Adverbs are formed from nouns
335. By simply taking a case-ending, especially that of the ablative:
tempöre, tempöri, in time ; forte, by chance; jüre, with right, rightly.
336. By taking special endings:
1) ātim, tim, denoting MaNner: grex, gregätim, by herds; fur, furtim, by stealth.
2) Itus denoting origin, source: coelum, coelitus, from heaven; fundus, funditus, from the foundation.

## II. Adyerbs from Adjectives and Participles.

335. Adverbs from adjectives and participles generaliy end in
doctus, docte, learnedly; liber, libëre, freely; elĕgans, eleganter, elegantly; prüdens, prudenter, prudently; ciler, celeriter, quickly.
336. $\boldsymbol{E}$ is added to the stems of most adjectives and participles of Dec. I. and II. See examples.
337. Er and iter are added to the stems of adjectives of Dec. III.-er to stems in $n t$, iter to other stems.-Er and iter also occur in adverbs from adjectives and participles of Dec. I. and II.
338. Atim, im, and itus also occur in adverbs from primitives of Dec. I. and II. : singǔti, singulâtìm, one by one; passus, passim, everywhere; divinus, divinttus, divinely.
339. Other Forms.-Certain forms of adjectires sometimes become adverbs:
1) Neuters in e , um, rarely a: fücile, easily; multum, multa, much.
2) Ablatives in $\mathrm{a}, \mathrm{o}$, is: dextra, on the right; consulto, designedly ; pauois, briefly, in few words.
3) Accnsatives in am: bifariam, in two parts; multifariam, in many parts or places (partem, understood).
5. Numeral Adverbs.-See 181.
III. Adyerbs from Pronouns.
6. Various adverbs are formed from Pronouns: thus from hic, ille, and iste are formed

| hic, here; hue, hither; hine, | hence. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| illic, |  |  |
| istic, there; | thither; | illine, thence. |
| istue, | thither; | istine, thence, |

## IV. Adverbs from Prepositions.

337. A few adverbs are formed from Prepositions, or are at least related to them:
intra, intro, within; ultra, ultro, beyond ; in, intus, within ; sub, subtus, beneath.

COMPOSITION OF WORDS.
338. The elements of a compound may unite in three distinct ways:
I. The two elements unite without change of form : decem-viri, the decemvirs, ten men; ab-eo, to go away; ante-pöno, to place before.
II. One element, generally the first, is put in an oblique case, generally the genitive, dependent upon the other: legis-lator, legislator, from lex, legis, and lator.
III. The stem of the first element unites with the second element, either with or without a connecting vowel-generally $i$, sometimes $e$ or $u$ : bell. $i$ geiro, to wage war, from bellum and gëro, with connecting vowel; magn-animus, magnanimous, from magnus and animus, without connecting vowel.

1. Prepositions in Composition admit the following ouphonic changes.

A, ab, abs:-a before $m$ and $v$; abs before $c, p, t ; \mathrm{ab}$ before the vowels and the other consonants: $a$-mitto; $a b s-c o n d o ; ~ a b-c o, a b$-jicio. But $a b s$ before $p$ drops $b$ : as-porto for $a b s-p o r t o . ~ A b$ becomes $a u$ in au-fèro and au-fugio.
$\mathbf{A d},-$ unchanged before vowels and before $b, d, h, j, m$, and $v ; \mathbf{d}$ generally assimilated before the other conisonants, but changed to $c$ before $q$ and dropped before $g n$ and often before $s c, s p$, and $s t$; $a d-e o, a d-d o, a d-j u n g o$; $a f$ fêro, al-lĭgo; ac-quiro, a-gnosco (ad and grosco), a-scendo.

Ante,-unchanged, except in anti-cipo and anti-sto.
Circum,-unchanged, except in circu-eo.
Com for cum,-(1) unchanged before $b, m, p:$ com- $b$ ibo, com-mitto,(2) m generally dropped before vowels, $h$, and $g n: c o-c o$, co-haereo, co-gnoseo, -(3) m assimilated before $l, n, r$ : col-ligo, con-rumpo,-(4) m changed to $n$ before the other consonants : con-fïro, con-gěro.

E, ex:-ex before vowels and before $c, h, p, q, \varepsilon, t$, and with assimilation before $f$; e generally before the other consonants and sometimes before $p$ and 8: ex-eo, ex-pöno, ef-fëro; e-duco, ell̆go, e-püto, escendo. $S$ after $e x$ is often dropped: exspecto or expecto.
In, -n assimilated before $l, m, t$, changed to $m$ before $b, p$; dropped before $g n$; in other situations unchanged: il-ztudo, im-mitto; im-bro, im-pono; i-gnosco; in-eo, in-düco.

Inter,-unchanged, except in intel-ligo.
$\mathrm{Ob},-\mathrm{b}$ assimilated before $c, f, g, p$; in other situations generally unchanged : oc-curro, of-fioio, og-gěro, op-pöno; ob-jǐio, ob-sto. But $b$ is dropped in o-mitto, and an old form obs occurs in a few words: obs-olesco, os-tondo for obs-tendo (b dropped).

Per,-unchanged, except in pel-ž̈cio, pel-lũceo, and po-jëro.
Post,-unchanged, except in po-moerium and po-meridiänus.

- Pro,-sometimes prod before a vowel : prod-co, prod-igo.

Sub,-b assimilated before $c, f, g, p$, generally before $m$ and $r$; dropped before $s p$; in other situations unchanged; suc-cumbo, su-spicio for sub-spicio; vub-eo, sub-dūco. An old form suba shortened to sus occurs in a few words: sus-cipio, sus-pendo.

Trans,-drops $s$ before 8 , and often $n s$ before $d, j, n$ : trans $+c$, , transféro; transilio for trans-silio; tra-do for trans-do; tra-jeio for trans-jücio; tra-no for trans-no.
2. Inseparable Prepostrioss (307) also admit euphonéc changes :

Ambi, amb:-amb before vowels; ambi, am, or an before consonants: amb-igo; ambi-dans, am-pitto, an-quīo.

Dis, di:-dis before $c, p, q, t, s$ before a vowel, and, with assimilation, before $f$; dit in most other sitnations; dis-curro, dis-pöno, dif-fluo; di-dreco, di-möveo. But dir occurs in dir-imo and dir-ibeo (dis and habeo), and botk dis and di occur before $j:$ : dis-jungo, di-judico.

Re, red:-rel before vowels, before $h$, and in red-do; re in other situab tions: red-co, red-igo, red-libeo; re-clado, re-vello.

COMPOUND NOUNS.
339. In compound nouns the first part is generally a noun, but sometimes an adjective, adverb, or preposition; the second part is a verb or noun:
art-i-fex, eapr-i-comus, aequ-i-noctium, ne-mo, pro-nōmen,

| artist, | from |
| :--- | :---: |
| capricorn, | $"$ |
| equínox, | $u$ |
| nobody, | $u$ |
| pronoun, | $u$ |

ars and facio. caper and cornu. aequus and nox. ne and homo. pro and nomen.

1. Genitrye in Compounds.-In compounds of two nouns, or of a noun and an adjective, the first part is often a genitive: legis-lētor, legislator; juris-consultus, lawyer.
2. Componnds in fex, cen, and cola are among the most important compounds of nouns and verbs; fex from fücio; cen from cana; cola from colo; art--fex, artist; bub-z-cen, trumpeter; agr-z-cola, husbandman.

## COMPOUND ADJECTIVES.

340. In compound adjectives the first part is generally a noun, adjective, or preposition, and the second a noun, adjective, or verb:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { lêt-1-fer, } & \text { death-bearing, from } \\
\text { magn-animus, } & \text { magnanimous, } \\
\text { per-fäcilis, } & \text { very and feasy, }
\end{array}
$$

## COMPOUND VERBS.

341. In compound verbs the first part is a noun, adjective, verb, adverb, or preposition, and the second is a verb:

| aed-ǐ-fieo, | to build, | from | aedes and facio. |
| :--- | :--- | :---: | :--- |
| ampl-i-fico, | to enlarge, | " | amplus and facio. |
| pat-ě-ficio, | to open, | " | pateo and facio. |
| bene-facio, | to benefit, | " | bene and facio. |
| ab-eo, | to go away, | " | ab and eo. | facio as above; pat-e-facio.

2. Noun or Adsective and Verb.-When the first part is a nown or ad jective, the second part is generally, but not always, fäcio or ágo. These verbs then become fico and igo of Conj. I. : aed-i-fico, äre, to build; nav-igo, are, to sail, from navis and ago.
3. Vowel Changes.-Verbs compounded with prepositions often undergo certain vowel-changes.
1) A short and è generally become $\bar{c}$ : hăbeo, ad-hibeo; tăneo, con-tïneo. But $a \check{a}$ sometimes becomes $\check{\text { é }}$ or $u$ : carpo, de-cerpo; calco, con-culco.
2) Ae becomes I: caedo, in-cīdo.
3) Au generally becomes o or $u$ : plaudo, explōdo; claudo, in-clūdo.
4. Changes in Preposimons.-See 338.1 and 2.
COMPOUND ADVERBS.
5. Compound Adverbs are variously formed, but most of them may be divided into three classes :
6. Such as consist of an oblique case with its preposition : ad-modum, very, to the full measure; ob-viam, in the way.
7. Such as consist of a noun with its adjective: ho-die (hoc and dic), today, on this day; qua-re, wherefore, by which thing.
8. Such as consist of two particles: a/ouc, hitherto; inter-dum, some-



## PART THIRD.

S Y N T A X .

CHAPTER I.
SYNTAX OF SENTENCES.
TALER
Vi
 SECTION I.
OLASAIFIOATION OF SENTENOES.
343. Syntax treats of the construction of sentences.
344. A sentence is thought expressed in language.
345. In their structure, sentences are either Simple, Complex, or Compound:
I. A Simple Sentence expresses but a single thought:

Deus mundum aedifficeavit, God made the woorld. Cic.
II. A Complex Sentexor expresses two (or more) thuughts so related that one is dependent upon the other:

Dönec ěris fellix, multos nưměräbis ămicos; So long as you are prospereus, jou will number many friends. Ovid.

1. Clauses. - In this example two simple sentences, (1) "You will be prosporous," and (2) "You will number many friends," are so united that the first only specites the time of the second: You will number many friends (when?), so long as you are prosperous. The parts thas united are called Clauses or Members.
2. Persorpal and Subordincme.-The part of the complex sentence which makes complete sense of itself-multos numerābis amicos-is called the Principal Clatuse; and the part which is dependent upon it-donec eris felix-is called the
Completer Clause; and the part
Subordtrate Clause.
III. A Compound Sentence expresses two or more independent thoughts:

Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, The sun descends and the mountains are shaded. Virg. $\circlearrowright \perp$ U $\bigcup$ I
346. In their USE, sentences are either Declarative, In. terrogative, Imperative, or Exclamatory.
I. A Declarative Sentence has the form of an assertion:

Miltiădes accūsatus est, Miltiades was acoused. Nep.
II. An Interrogative Sentence has the form of a question:

Quis notu paupertãtem estímescit, Who does not fear poverty? Cic

1. Interroaative Words,-Interrogative sentences generally contain some interrogative word-either an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb, or ons of the interrogative particles, ne, nonne, num:
1) Questions with ne ask for information: Scribitne, Is he writing? No is Iways thus appended to some other word. Bnt ne appended to the principal yerb often suggests the answer yes, whilo appended to any other word, it often suggests the answer no. It is sometimes appended to utrum, num, or $\alpha \pi$, without affecting their meaning, and sometimes inserted in the classe after utrum:

Utrum ticieamne, an praedicem, Shall I be silent, or shall I speak? Ter.
2) Questions with nonne expect the answer yes: Nomne scribit, Is he not writing? Non for nonne indicates surprise that there slould be any doubt on the question: Non ridee, Do you really not see?
8) Questions with num expect the answer no: Num scribit, Is be writing?
4) Questions with an. See 2.4 ) below.
5) The Interrogative word is sometimes omitted, and sometimes numquid is used for num, and ecquid for ne or nonno: Eequid vides, Do you not see?
2. Doubie Questrons.-Double or disjunctive questions offer a choice or alternative, and generally take one of the following forms:

1) The firat elanse has utrum, num, or ne, and the second an:

Utrum ea vestra an nostra culpa est, Is that your fauth or ours? Cic.
2) The first clanse onits the particle, and the second has an or ne:

Eloquar an sileam, Shall I utter it, or keep silence? Virg.
3) When the second clause is negative, the partlcle geverally unites with the negative, giving annon or neene:
Suot haec tua verbs necne, Are theso your words or not? Cic
4) By the omistion of the first clause, the second often stands alone with an, in the sense of or:

An hoc timémus, or do ree fear this? Liv.
5) Other forms are rare.
3. Asswrins.-In answers the verb or some emphatic word is usually repeated, often with prorsus, viro, and the like; or if negative, with non;

Dixitno causam? Dixit. Did he state the crave? Ho stated it Cic. Possŭmusne tititi esse? Non possŭmuns. Can we be sqfer. We cannot. Cie

1) Sometimes the simple particle is used; affirmatively, sïne, ctiam, tua, veiro, certe, ete, negatively, non, minime, etc.

Vénitne? Nout Has he comes No. Plant.
III. An Imperative Sentence has the form of a com mand, exhortation, or entreaty: S

Justitiam cőle, Cultivate justice. Cic.
IV. An Exclamatory Sentence has the form of an exclamation :

Réliquit quos viros, What heroes he has left! Cic.
Exelamatory sentences are ofen elliptical.

SECTION II.
SIMPLE SENTENCES.

## Elements of Sentences.

347. The simple sentence in its most simple form consists of two distinct parts, expressed or implied:
348. The Subuect, or that of which it speaks.
349. The Predicate, or that which is said of the subject:

Cluilius mǒritur, Cluilius dies. Liv.
Here oluilius is the subject, and moritur the preficate.
348. The simple sentence in its most expanded form consists only of these same parts with their varions modifiers:

In his castris Cluilins, Albănus rex, möritur; Cluilizus, the Albon King, dies in this camp. Lir.

Here Cluitiuus, Aitannus rex, is the subject in its cnlarged or modifed form, and in his castris moritur is the predicate in its enlaffed or modifed form.
349. Principal and Subordinate.-The subject and predicate, being essential to the structure of every sentence, are called the Principal or Essential elements; but their modifiers, being subordinate to these, are called the Subordinate elements.
350. Snmpie and Complex.- The elements, whether principal or subordinate, may be either simple or complex:

1. Simple, when not modified by other words.
2. Complex, when thus modified.

## Stimple Subject

351. The subject of a sentence, expressed or implied, must be a noun or some word or words used as a noun:

Rex dēcrēvit, The king decreed. Nep. Ego scribo, I write. Cic. Video idem valet, The word video has the same meaning. Quint.
DIREC Coipes furne ENERA
352. The subject admits the following modifiers:
I. An Adjective :

Pŭpŭlus Rōmänus dēerēvit, The Roman poople decreed. Cic.
II. A Noun either in apposition with the subject, in the genitive, or in an oblique case with a preposition :

Cluilius rex möritur, Clueitius the king dies. Liv. Rex Rüthêrum, the king of the Rutuli. Liv. Liber de nfficiis, The book on duties. Cic.

1. Modiremes or Nouss.-Any noun may be modified like the subject. 2. Appositive and its Subject.-The noun in apposition with another is called an Appositive, and the other noun is called the Sutject of the appositive.
2. Adverbs wirt Nouss.-Sometimes adverbs and adverbial expres. sions occur as modifiers of nouns:

Non ignãri sŭmus ante mălōrum, We are not ignorant of past misfortunes. Virg. Victōria ăpud Cnidum, The victory at Cnidus. Nep.

## Simple Predicate.

353. The simple predicate must be cither a verb or the copula sum with a noun or adjective:

Miltiădes est accūsãtus, Milliades was accused. Nep. Tu es testis You are a woinness. Cic. Fortūna caeca est, Fortune is blind. Cie.

1. Like Sum several other verbs sometimes unite with a noun or adjective to form the predicate. See 362. 2. A noun or adjective thus used is called a Prodicate Noun or Predicate Adjective.
2. Sum with an Adverb sometimes forms the predicate

Omnia recte sunt, All things are right. Cic.

## Complex Predicate.

354. I. The Vers admits the following modifiers:
I. Objective Modifiers:
355. A Direct Object in the Accusative-that upon which t.ee action is directly exerted:

Miltiàdes Athènas libĕrävit, Mifliades liberated Athens. Nep.
2. An Indirect Object in the Dative-that to or for which something is or is done:

Läböri stŭdent, They devote themselves to labor. Caes.
3. Combined Objects consisting of two or more cases:

Me rơgavit sentertiam, He usked me my opinion. Cic. Pons iter hos. abus dexit, The bridge furrishled a passaige to the cremy. Liv.
II. Adverbial Modifiers:

1. Adverbs:

Bella foticiter gessit, He waged wars succecssfully. Cic.
2. Adverbial Eapressions-consisting of oblique cases of nouns, with or without prepositions:

In his castris mǒritur, He dies (where?) in this camp. Liv. Vere convēnēre, They assembled (when?) in the spring. Liv.
355. II. The Predicate Noun is modified in the various ways specified for the subject (352).
356. III. The Predicate Adjective admits the following modifiers:
I. An Adverb:

Satis hünris est, He is sufficiently humble. Liv.
II. A Nouv in an oblique case:

1. Genitue: Avidi laudis fueruun, They were desirous of praise. Cic. 2. Deative: Omini aetâti mors est comminnis, Deall is common to cuery age. Cic.
2. Ablative: Digni sunt ămicitia, They are worthy of friondship. Cic. SECTION III.
COMPLEX SENTENCES.
3. A Complex sentence differs from a Simple one only in taking a sentence or clanse as one (or more) of its elements:
I. A Sentence as an Element:
"Givis Rōmānus sum" audiēbãtur, "I am a Roman citizen" vas heard, Cie. Aliquis dieat mihi: "Nulla hăbes vitia;" Some one may say to me, "Have you no fautls?" Hor.
4. In the first example, an entire sentence-Civis Romãnus sum-is used as the Subject of a new sentence; and in the second example, the sen tence-Nulla habes vitia-is the Object of dicat.
5. Any sentence may be thus quoted and introduced without change of form as an element in a new sentence.
II. A Clause as an Element :

Trăditum est Hǒmērum caecum fuisse, That Homer was blind has been handed down by tradition. Cic. Qualis sit ănīmus, ănìmus nescit, The soul knows not what the soul is. Cic.

1. In these examples the clauses used as elements have undergone certain changes to adapt them to their subordinate rank. The clause Homer rum caecum fuisse, the subject of traditum est, if used as an independent sentence, would be Homerus caccus fuit; and the clause Qualis sit animus, the object of nescit, would be Qualis est animus, What is the soul?
2. Forms of Subordinate Clauses.
1) Infinitive with Subject Accusative:

Hoc majōres dicerre andivi, I have heard that our ancestors said this. Cic.
2) Indirect Questions:

Quid dles frat, incertum est, What a day may bring forth is uncertain. Oic. 8) Relative Clauses:

Sententia, quae tutissima videbsitur, The opinion which seemed the sufest Liv. 4) Clauses with Conjunctions:

Mos est ut dient, It is his custom to speak. Cic. Priusquam licet, adsunt, They are present before it is light. Oic.
358. Infinitive Clauses sometimes drop their subjects:

Diligi juacundum est, It is pleasanst to be loved. Cie. Viverre est cögitāre, To live is to think. Cic. See 545. 2.
359. Participles often supply the place of subordinate clauses.

Plăto scribens mortuus est, Plato died while voriting, or while he was writing. Cic. See 576-578.

## SEOTION IV.

COMPOUND SENTENCES.
360. Compound sentences express two or more independent thoughts, and are of five varieties:
I. Cofulative Sentences-in which two or more thoughts are presented in harmony with each other:
Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, The sun desconds and the mountains are shaded. Virg.
II. Disuunctive Sentences-in which a choice between two or more thoughts is offered:

Audendum est ălquid aut omnia pătienda sunt, Somefling must be risked or all things must be endured. Liv.
III. Adversative Sentences-in which the thoughts are opposed to each other:

Gyges a nullo vǐdēbātur, ipse autem omnia v̌đēbat, Gyges was sean by no one, but he himself save all things. Cic.
IV. Illative Sentences-which contain an inference:

Nihil labbras, ydeo nithil hăbes; You do nodling, therefore you have nothing. Phaed.
V. Causal Sentences-which contain a cause or reason:

Difficile est consilium, sum ǒnim sōlus; Consullation is difficult, for I am alone. Cie.

1. The Connectives generally used in these several classes of compounds ans the corresponding classes of conjunctions, i. e, copulative, disjunctive, adversativo illative, and causal conjunctions. See 810 . But the connective is often omitted.
2. Disjunctive Questions have special connectives. Sce 346. IL. 2.
3. Compound sentences are generally abridged when their members have parts in common. Such sentenees have compound elements:
4. Compound Subjects :

Abŏriğnes Trojanique dưcem àmisurre, The Aborigines and the Trojons lost their leader. Liv,

The tro members here united are: Aborigines ducem amiserve and Trojini iucom amisëre; but as they have the same predicate, diccem amisire, that prediducem amisere; but as they have the same predicate, ducem amisere, that prediject: Aborigines Trojanīque.
2. Compound Predicates:

Römani părant consultantque, The Romans prepare and consult. Liv.
3. Compound Modifiers :

Athēnas Graeciamque liběrāvit, He liberated Athens and Greece. Nep.
Athēnas Graeciamque libĕrävit, He liberat
CHAPTER II.
SYNTAX OF NOUNS.
SECTION I.
AGREEMENT OF NOUNS

## RULE I.-Predicate Nouns,

362. A Predicate Noun denoting the same person or thing as its Subject agrees with it in CASE:

Ego sum nuntius, I am a messenger. Liv. Servius rex est déelariatus, Servius was declared king. Liv. Orestem se esse dixit, He said that he was Orestes. Cic. See 353.

1. In Gender and Nember Agreement either may or may not take place. But
1) If the Predicate Noun has different forms for different genders, it must agree with its subject in gender:

Usus măgister est, Experience is an instructor. Cic. Histotria est miggistra (not magister), History is an instructress. Cie.
${ }^{1}$ For Pred. Noun denoting a different person or thing from its subject, see 401.
For convenlence of reference the Rules will be presented in a body on page RT4
2. With Fintte Verbs.-Predicate Nouns are most frequent

1) With Sum and a few intransitive verbs : zoädo, exsisto, appäreo, and the like:

Ego sum nuntius, I am a messenger. Liv. Hormo magnus čviš̌rat, He had become (turned out) a great man. Cio. Esstitit vindex Tibertitit, He becamo (stood forth) tho defender of liverty. Cic.
2) With Passive verbs of appointing, making, naming, regarding, csteeming, and the like:

Servius rex est déclirritus, Servius was declared king. Liv. Mundas civitas esistimatur, The roorld is regarded as a state. Cic.
(1) In the poets, Predicate Nouns are used with great freedom after verbs of a grent variety of signifleations. Thus with audio = appellor: Rex audistl, You have great variety of significations. Thus with audio $=$ appeeto
been called king; fi, e, have heard yourself so called. Hor.
(2) For Predicate Aceusative, see 375. 1.
(3) The Dative of the object for which ( 390 ), pro with the Abl, and ZJico or in número with the Gen, are often kindred in farce to Predicato Nouns: hosti, pro hoste, ZJeo hostis, in nümero hostium, for or as an enemy. See also Pred. Gen. 401.
3. Wirr Infinitives, Participles, etc.- Predicate Nouns are used not
only with finite verbs, but also with Infinitives and Participles, and sometimes without verb or participle:
Déclaratus rex Nǜma, Numa haveing been declared King. Liv. Cäninio con-
süle, Caninius being eonsul. Cie. See 431, also Orestem under the rule.

1) For Predicate Nominatice anter esse, see 575.
${ }^{\text {2 }}$ ) For Infintive or Clususe as Predicate, see $535, \mathrm{~L}$; 495,2

## RULE II-Appositives,

363. An Appositive agrees with its Subject in Case:

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Hostis hostem occidĕre vollui, $I$ (ogo understood) an enemy roished to slay an enemy. Liv,
3. Force of Appositives.-A ppositives are generally kindred in force to Relative clauses, but sometimes to Temporal clauses:

Clullius rex, Cluilius (who was) the king. Liv. Fürius puer didicit, Furiur learnech, when a boy, or as a boy. Cie.
4. Partinive Apposirive.- The parts are sometimes in apposition with the whole:
Duo riges, tile bello, hic pitee civititem ausêrunt, Two kings addtinced the state, the former by vear, the latter by peace. Liv.

Conversely the whole may be in apposition with its parts.
5. Clatses.-A noun or pronoun may be in apposition with a clause, or a clause in apposition with a noun or pronoun. See 445, 7; 553, II.

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5. Clatses.-A noun or pronoun may be in apposition with a clause, or a clause in apposition with a noun or pronoun. See 445, 7; 553, II.

## SEOTION II.

NOMINATIVE.
364. Cases. - Nouns have different forms or cases to mark the various relations in which they are used. These cases, in accordance with their general force, may be arranged and characterized as follows :
I. Nominatire, Gase of the Subject
II. Vocative
III. Accusative
IV. Dative,
VI. Ablative,

Case of the subject
Case of Address.
Case of Direct Object.
Case of Direct Object.
Case of Indirect Object.
Case of Indirect Object.
Case of Adjective Relations. Case of Adjective Relations.
Case of Adverbial Relations.
365. Kispred Cases. - The cases naturally arrange themselves in pairs: the Nominative and Vocative require no governing word; the Acpairs: the Nominative and Vocative require no governing word; the AcGenitive has usually the force of an Adjective, and the Ablative that of an Adverb.
366. Nominative.-The Nominative is either the Subject of a Sentence or in agreement with another Nominative.

## RULE III,-Subject Nominative,

367. The Subject of a Finite Verb is put in the Nominative: ${ }^{3}$

Servius regnāvit, Servius reigned. Liv. Pătent portae, The gates are open. Cic. Rex vīcit, The king conquered. Liv.

1. The Subject is always a substantive, a pronoun, or some word or clause used substantively:

## Ego rêges ejēé, I have banishled kings. Cie.

2. Subseot Omited.-The subject is generally omitted
1) When it is a Personal Pronoun, unless expressed for contrast or emphasis, and when it can be readily supplied from the context:

Discipülos morneo, ut stüdia ăment, $I$ instruct pupils to love their studices Quint.

- 2) When it means men, people: F̌runt, They say. ${ }^{\text {3) }}$ When the verb is impersonal: Pluit, It rains.

3. Jerb Omitted.-The Verb is sometimes omitted, when it can be readily supplied, especially est and sunt:

[^26] its subject, see 460 .

Ecce tuae litterrae, Lo your letter (comes). Cic. Tot sententiae, There are (sunt) so many opinions. Ter. Consul prơfectus (est), The coneul set out. Liv.

1) Fdecio is often omitted in short sentences and clauses. Thns with nitad aliud (amplins, minns, etce) quam, nidid praeterquam $=$ merely, si nihil aliud, finem, eta: Nithil iliud quam stéterunt, They merely stood (did nothing other than). Liv. Also in brief expressions of opinion: Recte ille, He does righty. Cle.
368. Agreement.-A Nominative in agreement with another nominative is either a Predicate Noun or an Appositive. See 362 and 363.

For the Predicate Nominative after a verb with esse, see 547.

> SECTION III.
> VOCATIVE.

## RULE IV.-Case of Address.

369. The Name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative:

Perge, Laeli, Proceed, Laelius. Cic. Quid est, Cattlina, Why is it, Catiline? Cic. Tuum est, Servi, regnum, The kingdom is yours, Servius. Liv. $O$ dii immortales, $O$ immortal gods. Cic.

1. With Istersectuoss.-The vocative is used both with and without interjections.
2. Nomisative for Vocative.- In poetry and sometimes in prose, the nominative in apposition with the subject occurs where we should expect the vocative :

Andl tu, pőpūlus Albảnus, Hear ye, Alban people. Liv. Here popülus may be treated os a Nom. in apposition with th, thongh it may also be treated as an irregnlar Voc. See 45. 5. 8).
3. Vocative for Nominative. - Conversely the rocative by attraction sometimes occurs in poetry where we should expect the nominative:
Quibus, Hector, ab oris exspectito věnis, From nelat shores, Hector, do yons anciously avaited come? Virg.

## SECTION IV.

## $\triangle$ COUSATIVE.

370. The Accusative is used
I. As the Direct Object of an Action.
II. As the Subject of an Infinitive.
III. In Agreement with another Accusative.
IV. In anAdrerbial Sense - with or without Prepositions.
V. In Exclamations-with or without Interjections.

## RULE V.-Direct Object.

371. The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative:

Deus mundum aedificicavit, God made the world. Cie. Liběra ren publicam, Free the republic. Cic. Pŏpŭli Rōmāni saluatem dêfendite, Do fend the safety of the Roman people. Cie.

1. The Dibeor Obazor may be
1) The Object, person or thing, on which the action of the verb is directly exerted, as salutem above.
2) The Effect of the action, i. e., the object produced by it, as mumdrom above.
3) The Cognate Acousative. Many verbs, generally intransitive, some times become so far transitive as to admit an accusative of cognate or kindred meaning:

Eam vitam vivere, to live that life. Cic. Mirum somniäre somnium, to dream a wonderful dream. Plaut. Servitatem servire, to serve a servitude. Ter.
(1) This aecusative is usually qualifed by an adjective as in the first two exam(2) Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives otten supply the place of the Cognate accusative:

Eridem peceat, He makes the same mietakeer. Cic. Hoc stüdet ünum, He studies His one thing (this one stuly). Hor. Id assentior, I make this assent. Cl. Idem this one thing (this one stuys. Hor.
glörtiri, to maxib this same boast, Cie. Ii. . môreo me, I move (myself) ; vertit - vertit se, he moves (himsuelf).
(f) Some verls are sometimes transitive and sometimes intransitive: augeo, düro, incipio, laxe, ruo, suppldito, turbo, etc.
2. Withe or Without otier Cases.-The direct object may be used with all transitive verbs, whether with or without other cases. See 384.410.419.
3. Trassitive and Intransitive Verbs.-Many verbs transitive in English are intransitive in Latin. See 385. Conversely some verbs intransitive in English are transitive in Latin, or at least are often so used, especially verbs denoting

1) Feeling or Mental Slate: despēro, to despair of; d̄̆leo, to grieve for; chmo, to sigh over; horreo, to shudder at; lucrimo, to weep over; moereo, to mourn over; miror, to wonder at; rideo, to laugh at; sitio, to thirst for,
ete. Hŏnöres despērat, He despairs of honors. Cie. Haec gĕmēbant, They vere sighing over these things. Cic. Dëtrimentañet, He loughs at losses. Hor.
2) Taste or Smell: foco, süpio, and their compounds, both literally and figuratively:

Olet unguenta, He smells of perfumes. Ter. Orātio rédylet antiqquitatem, The oration smacks of antiquity. Cic.
4. Compounds of Prepositions.-We notice two classes:

1) Many compounds become transitive by the force of the prepositions with which they are compounded, especially compounds of ciroum, per, praetor, trans, süper, and subber:

Murmur concionnem pervãsit, $A$ murmur went through the aseembly. Liv. Rhênum transièrunt, They orossed (went across) the Rhine. Caes.
2) Many compounds, without becoming strictly transitive, admit an Accus. dependent upon the preposition

Circumstant sěnātum, They stand around the senate. Cic.
5. Clause as Obieot.-An Infinitive or a Clause may be used as Direct Object:

Impêräre cŭpinnt, They desire to rule. Just. Sentīmus callerre ignem, We perceive that fire is hot. Cic.
6. Passive Construotion.-When a verb takes the passive construction

1) The direct object of the active becomes the subject of the passive, and
2) The subject of the active becomes the $\Delta$ blative of Cause (414) or the Ablative of Agent with $a$ or $a b$ (414.5),

Thëbăni Lysandrum occideerunt, The Thubans elew Lysander. Passive: Lyssander occisus est a Thebānis, Lysander was slain by the Thebans. Nep.
7. Accusative in Spectal Instances.-Participles in due, verbal adjectives in bundus, and in Plautus a few verbal nouns, oceur with the accusative:

Vitazbundus castra, avoiding the camp. Liv. Quid tribi hanc carâtio est rem, What care have you of this? Plaut.
372. Two Accusatives.-Two aceusatives without any connective, expressed or understood, may depend upon the same verb. They may denote

1. The same person or thing.
2. Different persons or things.

Any number of sccusatites commected by conjunctions, exppessed or understood, may of course depend upon the same verb.

## RULE VI.-Two Accusatives-Same Person.

373. Verbs of making, choosing, calling, regarding, showing, and the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing:

Hämilcărem impĕràtörem fécērunt, They made Hamiloar commander. Nep. Ancum rêgem pŏpŭlus creâvit, The people elected Ancus king. Liv. Summum consilium appellãrunt Senãtum, They called their highest council Senate. Cic. Se praestititit prōpugnâtōrem libertatis, He showed
?
3) Verbs of Asking, Demanding: Ablative with a preposition:

Hoc a me poscêre, to demand this from me. Clic. Te iisdem derẽbus interrógo I ask you in regard to the same things. Cle
4) Pecto, postülo, and quaero take the Ablative of the person with a preposition:

Pücem a Rōmãnis pêtiêrunt, They asked peace from the Romans. Caes
4. Infinitive or Clause as Accusative of thing:

Te săpěre dǒcet, He teaches you to be wise. Cic.
5. A Nevter Pronoun or Adreorive as a second acousative occurs with many verbs which do not otherwise take two accusatives:

Hoc te hortor, I exthort you to this, I give you this exthortation. Cie. E mǒnēmur, We are admonished of these thinge. Cie.
6. Compound Verbs.- A few compounds of trans, circum, ad, and in admit two accusatives, dependent the one upon the verb, the other upon the preposition

Ibêrum cöpias trajēcit, He led Jis forces across the Ebro. Liv.
In the Passive, not only these, but even other compounds sometimes admit an Aceus. depending upon the preposition:

Praetervethor ostia Pantāgiae, I am carried by the mouth of the Pantagia. Virg.
7. Poetig Acousative. - In poetry, rarely in prose, verbs of lothing, unclothing-induo, exuo, cingo, accingo, indūco, etesometimes take in the Passive an accusative in imitation of the Greek:

Gǎleam indǔtur, He puts on his helmet. Virg. Inūtle ferrum einǧtur, He girds on his useless sword. Virg. Virgines longam indatae vestem, maidens attired in long robes. Liv.

## II. Accusative as Subject of Infintitive.

375. The Accusative is used as the Subject of an Infinitive; see 545 :

Plătōnem férunt in Itǎliam vênisse, They say that Plato came into Italy. Cic.

Matornem is the subject of venise

## III. Accusative in agreement with an Accusative

376. The Accusative in agreement with another Accusative is either a Predicate Noun or an Appositive:

Orestem se esse dixit, He scaid that he was Orestes. Cie. Apud Herro ithum, patrem historiae, in Herodotus, the father of history. Cie. See 362 and 363 .
IV. Accusative in an Adverbial Sense.
377. In an Adverbial sense the Accusative is used either with or without Prepositions.

1. With Prepositions. Sce 433.
2. Withour Prepositions.-The Adverbial use of the Accusative without Prepositions is presented in the following rules.

## RULE VIII.-Accusative of Time and Space.

378. Duration of Time and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative:

Römǔlus septem et triginta regnâit annos, Romulus reigned thirlyseven years. Liv. Quinque millia passuum ambŭlarre, to valk five miles. Cie. Pedes octơginta distarre, to be eighty feet distant. Caes. Nix quattuor pexdes alta, snow four feet deep. Liv. But

1. Deration of Time is sometimes expressed by the Ablative or the Accusative with a Preposition:
1) By the Ablative: Pugnatum est boris quinque, The battle vas fought five hours. Caes.
2) By the Accusative woith Preposition: Per annos viginti certātum est, The war was waged for twenty years. Liv.
2. Distanoe is sometimes expressed by the Ablative:

Millibus passuum sex consedit, He encamped at the distance of six miles. Caes. Sometimes with a preposition: Ab millibus passuum duobus, at the distance of two miles. Caes.

## RULE IX.-Accusative of Limit.

379. The Name of a Town used as the Limit of motion is put in the Accusative:

Nuntius Römam rexdit, The messenger returns to Rome. Liv. Plăto Tărentum venit, Plato came to Tarentum. Oic. Fügit Tarquünios, He fled to Tarquinii. Gic. But

1. The Accusative with $A d$ occurs:
1) In the sense of-to, tovard, in the direction of, into the vicinity of:

Tres sunt viae ad Mưutinam, Thereare threo roods to Mutina. Cic. Ad Zamam pervonit, He came to the vioinity of Zama. Sall.
2) In contrast with $a$ or $a b$ :

A Diainio ad STnōpen, from Dianium to Sinope. Cic.
2. Urbs or Oppüdum with a Preposition;

Perverit in oppidum Cirtam, He came into the town of Cirta. Sall.
3. Like Names of Towns are used

1) The Accusatives drmum, drmos, rus:

Scīpio dǒmum rěductus est, Scipio was conducted home. Cic. Dǒmos abducti, led to their homes. Liv. Rus êvöläre, to hasten into the country. Cic.
2) Sometimes the Accusative of names of Islands and Peninsulas:

Lãtöna confugit Dêlum, Latona fled to Delos. Cic. Pervênit Chersǒnêsum, He went to the Chersonesus. Nep.
4. Names of Other Places used as the limit of motion are generally in the Accusative with a Preposition :

In Aslam redit, He returns into Asia, Nep.
But the preposition is sometimes omitted before names of countries, and, in the poets, before names of nations and even before common nouns

Aegyptum profugit, He fled to Egypt. Cic. Itäliam vēnit, He came to Italy. Virg. Ibimus Afros, We shall go to the Africans. Virg. Livinia vénit litỏra, Ile camo to tho Lavinian shores. Virg.
5. A Poetic Dative for the accusative with or without a preposition occurs:

It elānor coelo (for ad coetum), The shout ascends to heaven. VIrg.

## RULE X.-Accusative of Specification.

380. 4 Verb or Adjective may take an Accusative to define its application:

Căpita vellàmur, We have our heads veiled (are veiled as to our heads). Virg. Nübe hŭměros ămictus, with his shoulders enveloped in a cloud, Hor. Miles fractus membra lăbōre, the soldier with limbs shattered with Labor (broken as to his limbs). Hor. Aenēas os deo similis, Aeneas like a god in appearance. Virg.

1. In a strict sense, the Accusative of Specification generally specifies the part to which the action or quality particularly belongs. In this sense, it is mostly poetic, but occurs also in prose. See 429 .
2. In a freer sense, this Accusative includes the adverbial use of partem, vicem, niliil, of id and genus in id tempóris, id actatis (at this time, age), id - genus, omne genus, quod genus (for fjus geňris, etc.), etc.; also of sicus, libra and of many neuter pronouns and adjectives; hoc, illud, il, guid ( 454,2 ), multum, summum, oteira, relliqua, etc. In this sense, it is common in prose.

Maximam partem lacte vivunt, They live mostly (as to the largest part) upon mill. Caes. Nihil motit sunt, They vere not at all moved. Liv. Lŏcus id temporis vacuus ĕrat, The place was at this time racant. Cio. Aliqquid id gěnus scribëre, to write something of this kind. Cie. Quaerit, quid possint, He inquites how potverful they are. Caes. Quid venis, Why do you come?

## V. Accusative in Exclamations.

RULE XI.-Accusative in Exclamations.
381. The Accusative either with or without an Interjection may be used in Exclamations :

Heu me misěrum, Ah me unhappy! Cic. Me misěrum, Me miserable ! ${ }^{1}$ Cic. 0 fallãcem spem, 0 deceptive hope! Cic. Me caecum ${ }_{2}$ Blind that 1 am ! Cie. Pro deōrum fidem, In the name of the gods! Cic. But

1. An Adjective or Genitive generally accompanies this accusative, as in the examples,
2. $O$, theu, heu are the Interjections most frequently used with the Accusative, though others oceur.
3. Other Cases also oceur in exclamations:
1) The Vocative - when an address as well as an exclamation is intended:

Pro sanete Jutpiter, O holy Jupiter. Cic. Infellx Dido, Unhappy Dido. Virg. 2) The Nominative-when the exclamation approsches the form of a statement En dextra, Lo the right hand (there is, or that is the right hand)! Virg. Ecce tuae littťrae, Lo your letter (comes)! Cio.
8) The Dative-to designate the person after hel, vae, and sometimes after ecee, en, hem.

Hei minh, Woe to me. Virg. Vae tibl, Woo to you. Ter. Ecce tibl, Lo to you (lo here is to you =observe). Cic. En tibi, Thus for you (lo I do this for you). Liv. See 889.2.

SECTION $V$.
DATIVE.

382: The Dative is the Case of the Indirect Object, and is used

## I. With Verbs.

## II. With Adjectives

III. With their Derivatives-Adverbs and Substantives. I. Dative with Verbs.
383. Indirect Object.-A verb is often attended by a noun designating the object indirectly affected by the action, that ro or ror which something is or is done. A noun thus used is called an Indirect Object.

## RULE XII.-Dative with Verbs

384. The Indirect Object is put in the Dative:
I. With Intransitive and Passive Verbs:

Tempori cedit, He yields to the time. Cice. Sibi timuerant, They had feared for themselves. Caes. Lăbōri stŭdent, They devote themselves to labor. Caes. Mundus deo păret, The world obeys God. ${ }^{2}$ Cie. Caesari supplǐcăbo, I will supplicate Caesar. ${ }^{3}$ Cic. Nóbis vita dǎta est, Life has
${ }^{1}$ Milton, Par. Lost, iv. 78
${ }^{2}$ Is subject to God.
${ }^{2}$ Will make supplication to Caesar
been granted to us. Cic. Nümitōri dēditur, Ho is delivered to Numitor. Liv.
II. With Traxsitive Verbs, in connection with the Aocusative :

Pons iter hostibus dedit, The bridge gave a passage to the enemy. Liv. Letges civitatitibus suis seripserunt, They prepared lavss for their states. Cic.

1. Double Construction.-A few verbs admit (1) the Dative of the person and the Accusative of the thing, or (2) the Accusative of the person and the Ablative of the thing: alïcui rem dönãre, to present a thing to any one, or aliquem re dönäre, to present any one with a thing. For the Dat. of the person, the Dat. of a thing sometimes occurs, especially if it involves persons or is in a measure personified :

Murum urbi circumdẽdit, He surrounded the city with a wall. Nep.
This double constraction occurs chiefly with: aspergo, circumdo, cireumffun$\tilde{d}_{0}$, dïno, exuo, impertio, induo, inspergo, interclüdo.
2. To and For are not always signs of the Dative: thus

1) To, denoting mere motion or direction, is generally expressed by the Accusative with or without a preposition (379. and 379. 4):

Vêni ad urbem, I came to the city. Cic. Dêlum vénĭmus, We came to Delos. Cic. But the Dative occurs in the poets: It clāmor coelo, The shout goes to heaven. Virg.
2) For, in defence of, in behalf of, is expressed by the Abl. with pro; for the sake of, for the purpose of, sometimes by the Accus. with in. Pro patria mŏri, to die for one's country. Hor. Dimicaire pro libertãte, to foght for liberty. Cic. Sătis in ûsum, enough for use. Liv.
3. Orier Exalish Eevivalents.-Conversely the dative is often used where the English either omits ro or ron, or employs some other preposition. We proceed to specify the cases in which this difference of idiom requires notice.
385. The Dative of Advantage and Disadvantage is used with verbs signifying to benefit or injuree, please or displease, command or obey, serve or resist ; also, indulge, spare, pardon, envy, threaten, be angry, believe, porsuade, and the like:

Sīi prōsunt, They benefit themselves. Cic. Nơcēre altěri, to injure another. Cic. Zênōni plăcuit, It pleased Zeno. Cic. Displicet Tullo, It displeases Tullus. Liv. Cüpiditatatibus imperare, to comanand desives. Cic. Deo pârëre, to obey God. Cie. Rēgi servire, to serve the king. Cie. Hostibus rěsistěre, to resist the enemy. Caes. Sibi indulgêre, to indulge one's self. Cic. Vitae parcęre, to spare life. Nep. Mihi ignoscecre, to pardon me. Cic. Minìtans patriae, threatening his country. Liv. Irasci ămicis, to be angry with friends. Cic. Mihi crêde, Believe me. Cic. Iis persuădère, to persuade them. Caes.

1. Other Cases.-Some verbs of this class take the Accusative: delecto, jüvo, laedo, offendo, ete. ; filo and confido generally the Ablative (419): Mărium jüvit, He helped Marius. Nep.
2. Speolal Verbs.-With a few verbs the force of the dative is found only by attending to the strict meaning of the verb: nübo, to marry, strictly to veil one's self, as the bride for the bridegroom; medeor, to cure, to administer a remedy to; saitiefácio, to satisfy, to do enough for, etc.
3. Accusamve or Dafive with a difference of signification: catvere afle quem, to ward off some one; cüvere ălicui, to care for some one; consütère ätiquem, to consult, etc.; üľ̆cwi, to consult for; mètuĕre, tïmère ălĭquem, to fear, etc.; äd̃oui, to fear for; prospicere, providere ălüquid, to foresee; àticui, to provide for; tempäräre, moddĕräri áläquid, to govern, direct; álïcui, to restrain, put a check upon; tempèräre (sibi) ab álăquo, to abstain from.

A few verbs admit cither the Acc. or Dat. without any special difference of meaning: ádàlor, to flatter; cómitor, to accompany, etc.
4. Dative rendered From, occurs with a few verbs of differing, dissenting, repelling, taking away : diffěro, discrěpo, disto, dissentio, arceo, etc. . Differre cuivis, to differ from any one. Nep. Discrěpäre istis, to differ from those. Hor. Sibi dissentire, to dissent from himself. Cic. See 412.
5. Dartve rendered $W_{I T H}$, occurs with misceo, admisceo, permisceo, jun-
go, certo, dicerto, lucto, altercor, and sometimes fäcio (434. 2):
Sěvērř̂ātem miscēre cōmirtāti, to unite severity with affability. Liv.
Misceo and its compounds, as also junctus and conjunctus, also take the Abl. with or without cum.
386. Dative with Compounds.-The dative is used with many verbs compounded with the prepositions:
ad , ante, con, in, inter,
ob, post, prae, sub, super:

Adsum ămicis, $I$ am present with my friends. Cic. Omnibas antestāre, to surpass all. Cic. Terris cohseret, $l l$ cleaves to the earth. Sen. Völuptãti inhaerēre, to be connecled with pleasure. Cic. Interfuit pugnae, He participated in the batlle. Nep. Consiliis obstāre, to oppose plans. Nep. Libertāti ǒpes postferre, to sacrifice wealth to liberty. Liv. Pǒpǔlo praesunt, They rule the people. Cie. Succumběre dölōrïbus, to yield to sorroves. Cic. Sǔperfuit patri, He survived his father. Liv.

1. Tasssrive Verbs thus compominded admit both the Accusative and Dative: Se opposuit hostibus, Ho opposed himself to the enemy, Cic.
2. Compounds or other Pabpositions, especially $a b$, de, ex, pro, and circum, sometimes admit the Dative; while several of the compounds specificd under the

- rale admit the Abl.: assuesco, consuesco, insueseo, acquiesco, süperstdeo (also with Ace.), etc.

Hoe Caesüri dênit, This failed (was wanting to) Caesar. Caes.
8. Motion on Direction-Compounds expressing mere motion or direction generally take the Accusative or repeat the preposition:

Adire üras, to approach the attare. Cic. Ad consǔles uidire, to go to the consuls. Cic.

In some instances where no motion is expressed, several of these compounds admit some other construction for the Dative:
387. The Dative of Possessor is used with the verb Sum:

Mihi est nŏverea, $I$ have (there is to me) a stepmother. Virg. Fonti nömen Arěthūsa est, The fountain has (there is to the fountain) the name Arelliusa. Cic. But

1. The Dative or the Name as well as of the possessor is common in expressions of naming: nömen est, nomen dãtur, etc.:

Scipiōni Africàno cognōmen fuit, Soipio had the surname Africanus. Sall. Here Africäno, instead of being in apposition with cognömen, is put by attraction in apposition with Seipiöni.
2. The Genitive of the Name dependent upon nomen occurs:

Nômen Mercûrii est mibi, I have the name of Mereury. Plant.
3. By a Grees Idiox, volene, cüpiens, or invitus sometimes accompanies the dative of possessor:

Quibus bellum volentibus Crat, They liked the roar (it was to them wishing). Tac.
388. Dative of Agent.-The Dative of Agent is used with the Participle in dus:

Suum cuiqque incommǒdum fěrendum est, Every one has his ovon trouble to bear, or must bear his own trouble. Cic.

1. Dative with Compound Tenses.-The Dative of the Agent is sometimes used with the compound tenses of passive verbs:

Mihi consilium captum jam diu est, Ihave a plan long since formed. Cic.

1) The Dative of Agent, with the Participle in dus, as in the Periphrastic Conjugation, designates the person who has the work to do; whille with the Compound Tenses of passive verbs, it designates the person who has the work already done. See examples above.
2) Habso with the Perfect Participle has the same force as usx mur with the Perfect Participle (358, 1):

Bellam hïbuit indictum, He had a war (already) declared. Cla.
8) The Ablative with a or $a b$ occurs:

Est a vöbis consulendum, Measures must be taken by you. Cle.
2. The Real Agent with Passive verbs is denoted by the Ablative with $a$ or $a b$. The Dative, though the regular construction with the Passive Peripbrastic conjugation, does not regard the person strictly as agent, but rather as possessor or indirect object. Thus, Suum ouique incommódum ext, means, Every one has his trouble (euique Dative of Possessor), and Suum cuique incommbdum forendum est, Every one has his trouble to bear. So too, Mihi consilium est, I have a plan; Miki consilium captum est, I have a plan (already) formed.
3. Dative with Simple Tenses.-The Dative is used with the tenses for incomplete action, to designate the person who is at once Agent and Indirect Object, the person BY whom and FOR (TO) whom the action is performed:

Hǒnesta bǒnis v̌ris quaeruntur, Honorable things aresought by good men, i. e., for themselves. Cic.
4. Dative of Agent in Poets.-In the poets the Dative is often used for the Ablative with $a$ or $a b$, to designate simply the agent of the action : Non intelligor ulli, I am not understood by any one. Ovid.
389. Ethical Dative.-A Dative of the person to whom the thought is of special interest is often introduced into the Latin sentence when it cannot be imitated in English:

At nbi věnit ad me, But $l_{0}$, he comes to me. Cic. Ad illa mihi intendat ănumum, Let liim, I pray, direet his attention to those things. Liv. Quid mini Celsus ăgit? What is my Celsus doing? Hor. But

1. The Etimeal Dative is always a personal pronoun.
2. Ethical Dative with volo and interiectioss:
1) With Folo: Quid vöbis vultis? What do you wish, intend, mean ? Lir. Aväritla quid sibi vult, What does avarice mean, or what object can it have? Cic. 2) With Istersectoos: heh, oae and some others: Hel mihi, ah me. Virg. Vae tibi, Wae to you. Ter. See 3s1. 3. 3).

## RULE XIII.-Two Datives-To which and For which.

390. Two Datives-the obsect to which and the obJECT FOR wHOH-occur with a few verbs:
I. With Intransitive and Passive Verbs:

Mîlo est hŏmŭmbus ǎvaritia, Avarice is an evil to men (lit. is to men for an evil). Cie. Est mihi cūrae, It is a care to me. Cic. Dǒmus dēděcŏri dŏmino fit, The house becomes a disgrace to ìts owner. Cic. Vênit Atticis auxilio, He came to the assistance of the Athenians. Nep. Hoc illi tribuēbātur ignāviae, This was imputed to him as covardice ( for covardice). Cic. Iis subsidio missus est, He was sent to them as aid. Nep.
II. With Transitive Verbs in connection with the AccusaTVVE:

Quinque cohortes castris praesidio rexliquit, He left five cohorts for the defence of the camp (lit, to the camp for a defence). Caes. Perricles agros suos dono rei pūblicae dědit, Pericles gave his lands to the republic as a present (lit, for a present). Just.

1. Verbs with Two Datives are
1) Intransitives signifying to be, become, $g o$, and the like; sum, fio, etc.
2) Transitives signifying to give, send, leave, impute, regard, choose, and the like: do, döno, dauco, hăbeo, mitto, rëlinquo, tribuo, verto, etc. These take in the Active two datives with an accusative, but in the Passive two datives ouly, as the Accusative of the active becomes the subject of the passive. See 371.6.
2. One Dative Omitred.-One dative is often omitted or tts place supplied by a Predicate Noun:

Ea sunt usul, These things are of use (for use). Caes. Tu illi piter es, You aro a father to him. Tac.
3. With Audiens two Datives sometimes occur, the Dat. dicto dependent upon audiens and a personal Dat, dependent upon dicto-audions treated as a verb of obeying ( 385 ) :

Dicto sum audiens, $I$ am listening to the word, I oboy. Plant. Nobls dicto andfens est, He is obedient to us. Cic. Sometimes dicto obediens is used in the same way: Milistro dicto obediens, obedient to his master. Plaut.

## II. Dative with Adjectives. <br> RULE XIV.-Dative.

391. With Adjectives the obsect to which the quality is directed is put in the Dative:

Patriae soclum ommibus carum est, The soil of their country is dear to all. Cic. Id aptum est temporii, This is adapted to the time. Cic. Omni aetãti mors est commūnis, Death is common to cvery age. Cic. Cănis sŭmîls lŭpo est, $A$ dog is similar to a woolf. Cio. Nâtarae accommơdãtum, adapted to nature. Cic. Graeciae atile, useful to Greece. Nep.

1. Adjectives with Dative.-The most common are those signifying:

Agreeable, easy, friendly, like, near, necessary, suitable, subject, useful, together with others of a similar or opposite meaning, and verbals in bilis

Such are: accommödàtus, aequails, alliênus ainicus and inimicus, aptus, cirrus, Gellis and diffichis, fideelis and infidelis, finitimus, grītus and ingritus, idönene, jǘ cundus and injūeundus, mōlestas, nc̄cessirins, nōtus and ignōtus, noxius, par and dispar, perniciósus, prôpinquus, proprius, sil̆ut tarris, simills and dissimilits, vicinus, eto
2. Other Constructions sometimes occur where the learner would expect the Dative:

1) Accusative with a Preposition: (1) in, erga, adversus with adjectives signifying friendly, hostille, etc., and (2) ad, to denote the object or end for which, with adjectives signifying usful, suitable, inclined, etc.:

Pêrindulgens in patrem, very kind to hizs father. Cic. Multas ad res pěrâtlis, very useful for many things. Cic. Ad cōmitatem prōelivis, inclined to affability. Cic. Prōnus ad luctum, inclined to mourning. Cic.
2) Accusative svithout a Preposition with pröpior, proximus :

Própior montem, nearer the mountain. Sall. Proxłmus măre, neareat to to the 88 . Caes. See 433 and 437 .
3) Ablative with or vithout a Preposition:

Aliênum a vìta mea, foreign to my life. Ter. Hormǐne ălienissimum, most foreign to man. Cic. Ei cum Roscio commanis, common to him and Roscius (with Roscius). Cic.
4) Gesietive : (1) with proprius, commùnis, contrūrius; (2) with silmilis,
4)
dissimilis, assimiliz, consimilis, par and dispar, especially to express likeness in character; (3) with adjectives used substantively, sometimes even in the superlative ; (4) sometimes with affinis, äliènus, insuetus, and a few others:

Pǒpŭli Rōmāni est propria libertas, Liberty is characteristic of the Roman people. Cic. Alexandri simmilis, Vike Alexander, i. e., in character. Cic. Dispar sui, unlike itself. Cic. Cujus păres, like whom. Cic. Amicissimus hǒmInum, the best friend of the men, i. e., the most friendly to them. Cie.
3. Idem occurs with the Dative, especially in the poets :

Idem fäcit occidenti, He does the same as kill, or as he who kills. Hor.
4. For the Genimfe and Dative with an adjective, see 399.6 .
III. Datiye with Derivatiye Nouns and Adverbs, RULE XV.-Dative.
392. A few Derivative Nouns and Adverbs take the Dative after the analogy of their primitives:
I. Verbar Noens.-Justitia est obtemperaatio lëgibus, Justice is obedience to lans. Cic. Sibi responsio, replying to himself. Cic. Opurlento hơminni servitus düra est, Serving a rich man (servitude to) is hard. Plaut.
II. Apverbs.-Congruenter näturrae vivecre, to live in accordance with nature. Cic. Sibi constanter dicĕre, to speak consistertly with kimself. Cic. Proxime hostium eastris, next to the camp of the enemy. Caes,

1. Dative with Nouss,-Nouns construed with the Dative are derived from verbs which govern the Dative. With other nouns the Dative is generally best explained as depondent upon some verb, expressed or understood:

Tégimenta gillels millites ficcure jubet, He orders the soldiers to makie coverings for their helmels Caes, Here galeis is probably the indirect object of facere and not dependent upon tegimenta. In conspectum vênërat bostrbus, He had come in sight of the enemy. Caes. Here hostibus is dependent not upon conspecturn, butupon venirat; the action, coming is sight, is conceived of as done to the enemy. See 898. 5.
2. Dative with Adverbs.-A few adverbs not included in the above rule occur With the Dative: Juic una - ina cum hoo, with him.

## SEOTION VI. <br> GENITIVE:

393. The Genitive in its primary meaning denotes source or couse, but in its general use, it corresponds to the English possessive, or the objective with of, and expresses various adjective relations.
394. But sometimes, especially when Objective (396, II.), the Genitive is best rendered by to, for, from, in, on account of, etc.:

Běnĕfficii grätia, gratituude for a favor. Cie. Lăbōrum fuiga, excapa. from labors. Cie.
394. The Genitive is used
I. With Nouns.
II. With Adjectives.
III. With Verbs.
IV. With Adverbs.

## I. Gentitive with Nouns. RULE XVI.-Genitive.

395. Any Noun, not an Appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive :

Cătōnis orraitiōnes, Cato's orations. Cic. Castra hostium, the camp of the enemy. Liv. Mors Hămilcäris, the death of Hamilcar. Liv. Deum mêtus, the fearn of the gods. Liv. Vir consilii magni, a man of great prudence. Caes. See 363.
396. Varieties of Genitive with Nouns,-The principal varieties of the Genitive are the following:
I. The Subiective Genitive designates the subject or agent of the action, feeling, etc., including the author and possessor:

Serpentis morsus, the bite of the serpent. Cie. Păvor Nŭmidarrum, the facr of the Numidians. Liv. Xĕnŏphontis libri, the books of Xenophon, Cic. Finnum Neptani, the temple of Nepture. Nep.
II. The Obiective Gemtive designates the object toward which the action or feeling is directed:

Amor glöriac, the love of glory. Cie. Měmőria mălörum, the reeollection of sufferings. Cic. Deum mextus, the fear of the gods. Liv.
III. The Partitive Geniutve designates the whole of which a part is taken:
Quis vestrum, which of you? Cic. Vitae pars, a part of life. Cic. Omnium saxpientissimus, the weisest of all men, Cic.

1. Nostridx and Vestrux. - As partitive genitives, nostrum and vestrum are generally used instead of nastri and vectri.
2. Uss.-The Partitive Genitive is used
1) With pars, nemo, niihil; nouns of quantity, number, weight, etc.: módius, ľgio, tullentum, and any nouns used quartitityely:

Equärum pars, a part of the horsese Liv. Mexdimnum tritcei, a buehel of wheat. Gic. Pẹcäniae tïlentum, a talent of money. Nep. Quörum Cäius, of whom Caius. Cic.
2) With Numerals used Substantively:

Quōrum quattuor, four of whom, Liv. Săpientum octãvus, the cighth of the wise men. Hor.
(1) But the Genitive should not be used when the two words refer to the same number of objects, even though of be used in English: Vivi qui (not quörum) duo silpersunt, the living, of whom twoo survive. Cle.
3) With Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively, especially (1) with hac, ille, quis, qui, alter, uter, nouter, etc.; (2) with comparatuves ani
superlatives: (3) with neuters: hoc, id, illud, quid; multum, plus, plürimum, minus, minàmum, tantum, quantum, etc. ; (4) with omnes and cuncti, rarely:
Quis vestrum, which of you? Cic. Consunlum alter, one of the consuls. Liv. Prior horum, the former of these. Nep. Gallorum fortissimi, the bravest of the Gauls. Caes. Id temporis, that (of) time. Cic. Multum operae, much (of) service. Cic. Hominum cuncti, all of the men. Ovid. But omnes and cuncti generally agree with their nouns: Omnes hŏminnes, all men. Cic.

Pronouns and Adjectives, exeept neuters, when used with the Part. Gen. take the gender of the Gen, uniess they agree directly with some other word; see Consùlum alter above.
4) With a few Adverbs used substantively; (1) with adverbs of Quan-tity-abunde, affatim, nimis, pärum, partim, quoad, sătis, etc.; (2) with viverbs of Place-hic, kue, musquam, vibi, etc.; (3) with adverbs of Extent, degree, etc.-co, huc, quo ; (4) with superlatives:

Armōrum affãtim, abundance of arms. Liv. Lücis nirmis, too much (of) light. Ovid. Săpientiae părum, little (of) wisdom. Sall. Partim cōpiārum, a portion of the forces. Liv. Quoad ejus faccerre pǒtest, as far as (as much of it as) he is able to do. Cic. Nusquam gentium, nowhere in the world. Cic. Hue arroggantiae, to this degree of insolence. Tac. Maxìme omnium, most of all. Cic.
3. Lüci and löcurum occur as partitive genitives in expressions of time:

Intërea Iŏci, in the mean time. Ter. Adhuc lŏcörum, hitherto. Plaut.
4. For id gĭnus = jus gǐnerrie, šicus, tibra, ete, see $380,2$.
5. For Predicate Genitive, see 401.
IV. The Gentitive of Characteristic designates character or quality, including value, price, size, weight, age, etc.

Vir maximi consilii, a man of very great prudence. Nep. Mitis ingěnii jŭvĕnis, a youth of mild disposition. Liv. Vestis magni prětii, a garment of great value. Cic. Exsilium dĕcem annōrum, an exile of ten years. Nep. Cörōna parvi ponděris, a crown of small weight. Liv. See 402, III. 1.

1. A noun designating character or quality may be either in the Gen. or in the Abl. See 428.
1) But it must be accompanied by an adjective, numemal, or pronoun, unless it be a compound containing such modifier; as hujusmödi $=$ hujus modi : tridui, from tres dies; btdui, from duo (bis) dies. With tridui and biduk, via or spatium is sometimes omitted: Abẻrant bidul, They were troo days journey diatant. Cic.
V. The Gentrive of Specification has the general force of an Appositive (363) :

Virtus continnentiae, the virtue of self-control. Cic. Verbum vŏluptiatis, the word (of) pleasure. Cic. Oppidum Antiǒchiae, the city of Antioch. Cic. Tellus Ausǒniae, the land of Ausonia. Virg.

## 397. Peculiarities.-We notice the following:

1. The Governivg Word is often omitted. Thus

Aedes, templum, discịpŭlus, hŏmo, jŭv̌̌nis, puer, etc. ; causa, grätia, and indeed any, word when it can be readily supplied:

Ad Jǒvis (sc. aedem), near the tomple of Jupiter. Liv. Hannibal annōrum nǒvem (sc. puer), Hannibal a boy nine years of age. Liv. Nāves sui commǒdi (causa) feceerrat, He had built vessels for his owon advantage. Caes. Conferre vitam Trëbonii cum Dolabellae (sc. vita), to compare the life of Trebonius vith that of Dolabella. Cic.

1) The governing word is generally omitted when it has been expressed before nother Gen. as in the last example ; and then the second Gen. is sometimes attracted another Gen. as in the last example; and then the second Gen. is sometimes attracted antecerdit, The nature of man surpasses (that of) the brutes. Cic.
2) In many cases-where we supply son, daughter, husband, wife, the ellipsis is only apparent, the Gen. depending directly on the proper noun expressed:

Hasdrübal Giscōnis, Gisco's Hasdrubal, or Hasdrubal the son of Gisco. Liv. Hasdrübal Giscōnis, Gector's Andromache, or Andromache the vife of Hector. Hector
Virg.
2. Two Genitives are sometimes used with the same noungenerally one Subjective and one Objective:

Memmii ǒdium pǒtentiae, Memmius's hatred of pooer. Sall.
3. Genitive and Possessive.-A Genitive sometimes accompanies a Possessive, especially the Gen. of ipse, sölus, ūnus, omnis:

Tua ipsius ămicitia, your oron friendship. Cic. Meum sölius peccātum, my fault alone. Cic. Nōmen meum absentis, my name while absent. Cic.
Here ipserus agrees with tul (of you) Involved in tua; solvus and absentis, with mei (of me) involved in meum.
398. Other Constructions-for the Genitive occur.

1. Ablative of Characteristic. See 428.
2. An Aprective is sometimes used for the Genitive:

Bellíca glöria = belli glöria, the glory of war. Cic. Conjux Hectörea $=$ conjux Hectoris, the wife of Hector. Virg.
3. The Posssssive is regularly used for the Subjective Gen. of Personal pronouns, rarely for the Objective:

Mea dǒmus, my house. Cic. Fâma tua, your fame. Cic.
4. Case with Preposition- - A case with a preposition may be used for the Gen.; especially, 1) For the Objective Genitive, the Accusative with in, erga, adversus:-2) For the Partitive Genitive, the Accusative with inter, ante, ăpud, or the Ablative with ex, de, in:

Odium in hǒminum gěnus, hatred of or towards the race of men. Cic. Erga vos ĭmor, love tovardsyou. Cic. Inter reges öpülentissimus, the most wealthy of (amoug) Kinge. Sen. Unus ex viris, one of the heroes. Cic.
5. A Dative depending on the veras is sometimes used, instead of the Genitive depending on a noun:

Urbi fundämenta jăcere, to lay the foundations of (for) the city. Liv. Caesări ad pédes projicère, to cast at the fect of Cuesar, i. e., before Caesar at his feet. Cacs. See 392, 1.

1) The tro constructions, the Gen, and the Case with Prep, are sometimes cornbined th the same sentence.

## II. Genitive with Adjectives.

## RULE XVII.-Genitive.

399. Many Adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning:

Aridus landis, desirous of praise. Cic. Otii cŭpǐdus, desirous of Leisure. Liv. Amans sui virtus, virtue fond of itself. Cic. Efficiens voluptâtis, productive of pleasure. Cic. Glōriae měmor, mindful of glory. Liv.

1. Force of this Genitive.-The genitive here retains its usual force-of in respect of-and may be used after adjeetives which admit this relation.
2. Adjeotives with the Gentitive.-The most common are
1) Verbals in ax and participles in ans and ens used adjectively: Virtâtum fërax, productive of virtues. Liv. Těnax pröpōš̌ti, tenacious (steadfast) of purpose. Hor. Amans patriae, loving (fond of) lis country. Cic. Fügiens lăböris, shunning labor. Caes,
2) Adjectives denoting desire, knooledge, skill, recollection, participation, mastery, fulness, and their contraries:
(1) Desrre, Averston-ăvidus, sưpidus, stüdiösus; fastidiossus, etc.; sometimes aemŭlus and invüurs, which also take the Dative:

Contentiōnis cŭpridus, desirous of contention. Cic. Săpientine stŭčiósus, studious of (student of) wiedom. Cic.
(2) Knowlebae, Skill, Recollection with their contraries-gnoirue,
ignärus, consultus, conscius, inscius, nescius, certus, incertus, suepensus; ; prōvïdus, prûdens, imprùdens ; përitus, impèritus, rüdis, insuètus; mëmor, immèmor, etc.:

Rei gnãrus, acquainted voith the thing. Cic. Prôdens rei militäris, skilled in military science. Nep. Pěritus belli, skilled in war. Nep. Insuētus lăbōris, unaceustomed to labor. Caes. Glörize mêmor, mindful of glory. Liv. Immémor běnéficii, forgetful of kindness. Cio.
(3) Parxicipation, Fulsess, Mastrary, with their contraries-affinis, con. sors, exsors, expers, particeps; plènus, fortilis, reffortus, ëjènus, inops, vücuus; pobtens, impotens, compos, impos, etc.

Affinnis culpae, sharing the fault. Cic. Rătionnis particeps, endoved with (sharing) reason. Cic. Rătiōnis expers, destitute of reason. Cic. Vita mětus plêna, a life full of fear. Cic. Mei pǒtens sum, $I$ am master of mysclf. Liv. Virtatis compos, capable of virtue. Cic,
3. Other Adjeotives also occur with the Genitive.

1) A few of a signification kindred to the above:

Mănffestus rêrum căpitalium, convicted of capital crimes. Sall. Noxius conjurātiōnis, guilty of conspiracy. Tac.
2) Stmilis, assimilis, consimilis, dissimalis ; par and dispar, especiully to denote internal or essential likeness. See 391. 2.4).
3) Sometimes ăhì̀nus, commûnìs, proprius, publicus, sücco, vicīnus:

Aliênus dignitatis, inconsident with dignity. Cic. Vri proprius, char acteristic of a man. Cie.
4) In the poets and late prose writers, especially Tacitus, a Genitive of Cause occurs with a few adjectives, especially those denoting emotion or feiling, and a Gen. having the force of-in, in respect of, for, especially $\begin{gathered}\text { animi }\end{gathered}$ and ingènie, with many adjectives:

Anxius poxtentiae, anxious for power. Tac. Lassus militiae, tired of military seroice. Hor. See Gen. with Verbs, 409. 2 and 4. Aeger ănǐmi, afflicted in mind. Liv. Anxias ănìmi, anxious in mind. Sall. Intĕger aeri, whole in respect of age, i. e., in the bloom of youth. Virg.
4. Partitive Genitive with Adjectives. See 396, III. 3).
5. Other Constructions for the Genitive also occur:

1) Dative: Mănus sübitis ăv̌dae, hande ready for sudden events. Tac. Insuētus mōribus Rōmãnis, unacoustomed to Roman manners. Liv. Făčnoćri mens conscia, a mind conscious of crime. Cie.
2) Accosative wirh Preposition: Insuêtus ad pugnam, unaccustomed to battle. Liv. Fertlis ad omnia, productive for all things. Plin. Avidus in notvas res, eager for neto things. Liv.
3) Ablitive with or witrout Preposition: Prâdens in jure civili, learned in civil lavo. Cic. Rŭdis in jorre civili, uninstructed in civil lavo. Cic. His de rêbus conscius, avoare of those things. Cic. Văcuus de dêfenso ribus, destitute of defenders. Caes. Câris văcuus, free from cares. Cic. Re fortus boruis, rephete with blessings. Cic.
6. The Genitive and Dative occur with the same adjective: sibi conscil culpae, conscious to themselves of fault. Cic.

## III. Genitive with Veras.

400. The Genitive with Verbs includes
I. Predicate Genitive.
II. Genitive of Place.
III. Genitive in Special Constructions.

## 1. Predicate Genitive.

## RULE XVIII.-Predicate Genitive.

401. A Predicate Noun denoting a different person or thing from its Subject is put in the Genitive:

Omnia hostium ërant, All things belonged to the enemy. ${ }^{1}$ Liv. Sěnătus Hannibălis đ̈rat, The senate was Hannibal's, i. e., in his interest. Liv. Jadicis est verrum séqui, To follow the truth is the duty of a judge. ${ }^{2}$ Ci.. Parvi pretii est, $I t$ is of small value. Cie.

1. Preppeate Genitive axd Predicats Nominative.-The Predicate Gentive is distinguished from the Predicate Nominative and Accusative by the fact that it always designates a different person or thing from its subject, while they always designate the same person or thing as their subjects. See 362.
2. Predicats Geyitive and Predicate Adjbctive,-The genitive is often nearly or quite equivalent to a predicate adjective (35s.1): hobminnis est $=$ humanum eet, it is the mark of a man, is human ; stulti est $=$ stultum est, it is foolish. The Gen. is the regular construction in adjectives of one ending: sapientis est (for süpiens est), it is the part of a wise man, is wise.
3. Varieties of Predicate Genitive.-The principal are,
I. Subjective or Possessive Genitive-generally best rendered byof, property of, duty, business, mark, characteristic of:

Haec hostium ěrant, These things were of (belonged to) the enemy. Liv. st impératoris sŭpěrare, It is the duty of a commander to conquer. Caes.
II. Partitive Gexitive:

Fies nöbilium fontium, You will become one of the noble fountains. .
III. Genitive of Caaracteristic-including value, price, sise, weight, etc.: Summae ficultstis est Summae fĩcultatis est, He is (a man) of the highest ability. Cic. Opera , The assistance voas of great value. Nep.

1. The Genitive of Price or Value is generally an adjective belonging to pretii understood; but sometimes pritiii is expressed:
[^27]Parvi prětii est, It is of little value. Cic. See 396. IV.
2. Price and Value with verbs of buying, selling, and the like, are espressed

1) Regularly by the Ablative. See 416.
) Sometimes by the Genitive of adjectives, like the Pred. Gen. of price: Vendo framentum plâris, Isell grain at a higher price. Cic.
But the Gen. is thns used only in indefnite and general expressions of price and value. A definite price or value regalarly requires the Ablative.
2) In familiar discourse sometimes by the genitives, assis, focci, nïnili, $p^{i l i}$ and a few others :

Non flocci pendêre, not to care a strauv (lock of wool) for. Plaut.
3. Böni and Aequi, as Predicate Genitives, occur in such expressions as aequi böni fäcère and böni consülère, to take in good part.
403. Verbs with Predicate Genitive.-The Predicate genitive occurs most frequently with sum and fücio, but sometimes also with verbs of seeming and regarding:

Haee hostium 乇rant, These things vere the enemy's. Liv. Oram Rōmãnae ditionis fecit, He brought the coast under (of) Roman rule. Liv.

1. Transitive Verbs of this class admit in the active, an Accusative with the Genitive, as in the second example.
2. With Verbs of Seeming and Regarding-vǐdeor, hăbeo, ducco, púto, etc.- -esse may generally be supplied:

Horminis v̌detur, It seems to be (esse) the marlo of a man. Cic.
404. Other Constructions for the Genitive also occur.
i. The Possessive is regularly used for the Pred. Gen, of personal pronouns:

Est tuum (not tui) vǐdēre, $I t$ is your duty to see. Cic.
2. The Genitive with Officium, Munus, Nigotium, Proprium:

Sĕnatus officium est, It is the duty of the senate. Cic. Fuit proprium porpuli, It was characteristic of the people. Cic.

The Predicate Genitive conld in most instances be explained by supplying some such word, but it seems to be more in accordance with the didiom of the Latin to regard the genitive as complete in itself.
3. The Ablative of Characteristic. See 428.

D BIBJII. Genitive of Place. See 421. II.

## III. Genitive in Special Constructions.

405. The Genitive, either alone or with an Accusative, is used in a few constructions which deserve separate mention.
2) By the Ablative Feminine of the Possessive:

Meä rëfert, It concerns me. Ter. Intěrest meẽ, It interests me. Cle,
This possessive regularly takes the place of the Gen. of personal pronouns, and may be explained es agreeing with re in refert, and with ro or cause to be supplied
406. The Genitive is used
I. With missĕreor and mǐsĕresco:

Misěrēre lăbörum, Pity the labors. Virg. Miscěrescite rěgis, Pity the King. Virg.
II. With rěcordor, mĕminni, rěmĭniscor, and obliviscor:

Měmǐnit praetěřtorrum, He remembers the past. Cic. Oblitus sum mei, I have forgotten myself. Ter. Flăgitior rum rěcordări, to recollect base deeds. Cic. Rěminnisci virtatis, to remember virtue. Caes.
III. With réfert and intërest:

Hlorum rêfert, Il concerns them. Sall. Intërest omnium, It is the interest of all. Gic.

1. Explanation:-The Genitive may be explained as dependent upon re in refert, and upon re or causa to be supplied with interest. With the other verbs it accords with the Greek idiom, and with verbs of remembering and forgetting, it also conforms to the analogy of the Gen. with the adjectives mémor and immémor (399.2,2) ).
2. Cosstrection sccordivg to sesse.- The expression Věnit milhi in mentem, It occurs to my mind, equivalent to remininiscor, is sometimes construed with the Gen. :

Venit mihi Plătōuis in mentem, The recollection of Plato comes to my mind, or I recollect Plato. Cie. But the Nom. is also admissible: Non rěnit in mentem pugna, Does not the battle come to mind? Liv.
407. Other Construcions with verbs of Remembering and Forgetting also occur:

1. The Accusative: Měminerram Paulum, I remembered Puulue. Cic.

This is the regular construction for the thing (not person), with recordor, and, if it be a neuter pronoun or adjective, also with other verbs:

Triumphos rěcordâri, to recall triumphs. Cic. Ea re̛miniscẹre, Remember those things. Cic.
2. The Ablative with Do: Rěcordüre de cêter ris, Bethink yoursolf of the others. C

This is the regul merson with refcordor, and occurs also memink, though that verb takes the Aco. of a contemporary.
408. The Construction with Rëfert and Intérest is as follows:

1. The Person or Thing interested is denoted
1) By the Geritive as under the rule.

## RULE XX.-Accusative and Genitive.

410. A few transitive verbs take both the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing :
I. Verbs of Reminding, Admonishing.
II. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting.
III. Misēret, Poenitet, Püdet, Taedet, and Piget.
I. Remisdisg, ETC.-Te ămičtiae commǒnĕf̌ăcit, He reminds you of friendship. Cic. Milites něcessitatis mŏnet, He reminds the soldiers of the necessity. Ter.
II. Accraing, etc.-Viros scelĕris arguis, You acouse men of crime. Cic. Lêvitatis eum convincerre, to convict him of levity. Cic. Absolvĕre injuriae eum, to acquit him of injustice. Cic.
III. Misenet, Poenitet, exc.-Ebrum nos miserret, We pity them (it moves our pity of them). Cic. Consilii me poenitet, I repent of my purpose. Cic. Me stultitiae meae pudet, I am ashamed of my folly. Cic.
411. The Grinive of Thivg designates, with verbs of reminding, etc., that to which the attention is called; with verbs of acousing, etc., the crime, clarge, and with miserreh, poentec, etc., the object which produces the feeling. See examples.
412. Passive Consmbucrion.-The personal verbs included under this Rule retain the Genitive in the Passive:

Accasãtus est prōditiōnis, He was accused of treason. Nep.
3. Verbs of Remindine, möneo, admoัnco, commŏneo, commönüfücio, sometimes take, instead of the Genitive,

1) The Acousatice of a neuter pronoun or adjective, rarely of a substantive, thus admitting two accusatives

Hlud me admornes, You admonish me of that. Cic.
2) The Ablative with de, möneo generally so:
4. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, sometimes take, instead of the Genitive of the crime, etc.,

1) The Cenitive with nömine or crimène:

Nōmĭne conjurâtiōnis daumāti sunt, They ioere condemned on the charge of conspiracy. Cic.
2) The Accusative of a nenter pronoun or adjective, rarely

Id me accussas, You accuse me of that. Plaut.
3) The Ablative alone or with a preposition, generally de:

De pěcũniis rěpětundis damnätus est, He was convicted of extortion. Cic
5. With Verbs of Condeminisg, the Punishment may be expressed

1) By the Genitive:

Capitis condemnăre, to condemn to death. Cic.
(1) Voti damnarr, to be condemned to fulfill a vow $=$ to obtain a wish.
2) By the Acousative with a preposition, generally $a d$ :

Ad bestias condemnāre, to condemn to the wild beasts. Suet.
3) By the Ablative; and, in the poets, sometimes by the Dative : Căpite damnāre, to condemn to death̆. Cic
6. With Miseret, Poenitet, Puder, Takdet, and Piget, an Infinitive or Clause is sometimes used, rarely a neuter pronoun or nihil:

Me poenîtet vixisse, I repent having lived. Cic.

1) Like Misitret are sometimes used misiresecit, commisidrescit, misieridur, com miserettur. Like Tuedet are used pertaedet, pertacsum est.
2) Püdet sometimes takes the Gen. of the Person before whom one is ashamed: Me tui pŭdet, I am ashamed in your presence. Ter. Pưdet hōminuum, $I t$ is a hamo in the sight of men. Liv.
3) Pertaesus admits the $\Delta$ censative of the object:

Pertaesus igniviliam suam, disgusted with his own inaction, Suet.
7. The Accosative and Gesitive occur with other Verbs.-Thus

1) With some Verbs of Frebing with the accessory notion of $\Delta$ ceuriting:

Eum culpae liběräre, to free him from blame, i. e., to acquit him of fault. Liv. So purgo, decipio, and the like.
2) With a few Verbs of Fulusg, like adjectives and verbs of plenty (399. 2. 2) and 409. 1), especially compleo and impleo:

Multítudinnem rëligiönis implévit, He inspired (filled) the multitude with religion. Liv. See 419.2.
3) With a few transitive verbs of Ehotion or Febing (409. 2), rarely:

Te angis ănǐmi, You malos yourself anxious in mind. Plaut.

## IV. Genitive with Adverbs.

411. The Genitive is used with a few Adverbs:
412. With Partitives. See 396. III. 2 ,
413. With Pridie and Postrīie, perhaps dependent upon die contained in them, and with Ergo and Tornus, origitally noums:

Pridie ejus diêi, on the day before that day. Caes. Postridie ejus diei,? on the day after that day. Caes. Virtatis ergo, on account of virtue. Cic. Lumbōrum te̛nus, as far as the loins. Gic. For tènus with the Abl., see 434.
withVerbs and Adjectives, while the genitive, as the case of adjective relations, is most common with Nouns. See 393.
413. The Ablative is used as
I. Ablative of Cause, Manner, Means-including 1. Ablative of Price.
2. Ablative after Comparatives.
3. Ablative of Difference.
4. Ablative in Special Constructions.
II. Ablative of Place.
III. Ablative of Time.
IV. Ablative of Characteristic.
V. Ablative of Specification.
VI. Ablative Absolute.
VII. Ablative with Prepositions.
I. Ablative of Cause, Manner, Means.

RULE XXI.-Cause, Manner, Means.
414. Cause, Manner, and Means are denoted by the Ablative:

Ars üthiltāte laudãtur, An art is prased because of its usefulness. Cic. Glōria dūcitur, He is led by glory. Cie. Daōbus mödis fit, It is done in two ways. Cie. Sol omnia lúce collustrat, The sun illumines all things with its light. Cic. Aeger ěrat vulnëribus, He was ill in consequence of his wounds. Nep. Laetus sorte tua, pleased with your lot. Hor.

1. Application of Rute.-This ablative is of very frequent occurrence, and is used both with verbs and adjectives.
2. The Ablative, or Cause designates that by which, by reason of which, because of which, in accordance woith wohich anything is or is done.
1) This includes such ablatives as meo juzticio, in accordance with my opinion; mea sententia, jussu, impulsu, mónitu, etc.; also the Abl. with döleo, gaudeo, glörior, läböro, ete.

The Abl. with afficio, and with sto in the sense of depend upom, abide by, is best explinined as Mreans. $\Delta f^{\text {ficio }}$ and the $A \mathrm{bl}$. are together ofton equivalent to another verb: hönöre afficire $=$ hönörïre, to honor; $a d m i n u t i o n o ~ a f f i c i c e ~=a d-$ miriarl, to admire.
2) With Pussive and Intransitive verbs, Cause is regularly, expressed by 'the Abl , though a preposition with the Acc. or Abl. sometimes occurs:

Amictia propter se expětitur, Friendship is sought for itself. Cic.
3) With Transitice verbs the Abl. without a Prep. is rare; but cousc, grätia and ablatives in $u$ of nouns used only in that case (134), juseu, rögatu manditu, etc., are thus used; sometimes also other words.

In other cases, Cause in the sense of-on account of, because of, is generally expressed-(1) by a Preposition with its case: ob, propter, $d e, e x, p r a e$, etc. ; or (2) by a Perfect Participle with an Ablative:

In opprdum propter tǐmōrem sêse rěč̌piunt, They betake themselves into the city on account of their fear. Caes. Regoi cưpiditate inductus conjorãtiōnem fecit, Injluenced by the desire of ruling, he formed a conspiracy. Caes.

Cupiditate in the 2d example really expresses the cause of the action fecit, but by the use of inductus, it becomes the AbL of Cause with that participle.
3. Ablative of Manner.-This ablative is regularly accompanied by some modifier, or by the Prep. cum ; but a few ablatives, chiefly those signifying manner-möre, ordine, rêtiōne, etc.-occur without such accompaniment:

Vi summa, with the greatest violence. Nep. Möre Persärum, in the manner of the Persians. Nep. Cum silentio audire, to hear in silence. Liv.

Per with the Acc, sometimes denotes IIFanner : per vim, violently.
4. Ablative of Means.-This inclades the Instrument and all other Means employed. See also 434. 2 ; 414, 2, 1).
5. Ablative of Agent.-This designates the Person by whom anything is done as a voluntary agent, and takes the Prep. $A$ or $A b$ :

Oceisus est a Thēbänis, He was slain by the Thebans. Nep.

1) The Abl. without a Prep. or the Accus. with per is sometimes used, especially when the Person is regarded as the Means, rather than as the Agent.

Cornua NŭmYais firmat, He strengthens the wings with Numidians. Liv.
Per Fabricium, by means of (through the agency of) Fabricius. Cic.
2) Dative of Agent. See 388.
6. Personifioation.-When anything is personified as agent, the ablative with $A$ or $A b$ may be used as in the names of persons:

Vinci a vorluptate, to be conquered by plecosure. Cic. A fortana dadtam occīsiōnem, an opportunity furnished by fortune. Nep.
7. Ablative of $\Lambda$ coompantment.-This generally takes cum:

Vivit cum Balbo, He lives with Balbus. Cic. But
In describing military movements, the preposition is often omitted, especially when the Ab. is qualifed by an adjective:

Ingenti exereitu proffectus est, Ho set out with a largo army. Liv.
415. Kiypreed Uses of the Ablative.-Kindred to the Ablative of Cause, etc., are
I. The Ablative of Price-that by which the trade is effected.
II. The Ablative with Comparatives-that by which the comparison is effected.
III. The Ablative of Difference-that by which one object differs from another.
IV. The Ablative in Special Constructions.

## RULE XXII.-Ablative of Price.

416. Price is generally denoted by the Ablative:

Vendi̛dit auro patriam, He sold his country for gold. Virg. Conduxit magno dŏmum, He hired a house at a high price. Cic. Multo sanguine Poenis victoria stextit, The victory cost the Carthaginians (stood to the Carthaginians at) much blood. Liv. Quinquāginta tälentis aestŭmarri, to be valued at fifty talents. Nep. Vile est viginti minnis, It is cheap at twenty mince. Plaut.

1. The Ablative or Price is used
1) With verbs of buying, selling, hiring, letting, èmo, vendo, condūco, Toco, vèneo, etc.
2) With verbs of costing, of being cheap or dear, sto, consto, licoo, sum, etc.
3) With verbs of valuing, aestimo, etc.
4) With adjectives of vafue, cärus, venalis, eto.
2. Exchasarsa.- With verbs of exchanging-mãto, commûto, etc.-the thing received is generally treated as the price, as with verbs of selling:

Pãce bellum mâtāvit, He exchanged voar for peace. Sall. But sometimes the thing given is treated as the price, as with verbs of buying, or is put in the Abl. with cum : Exsilium patria mûtävit, He exchanged country for exile. Curt.
3. Adverbs or Price are sometimes used: líne èmère, to purchase well, i.e., at a low price ; cäre aestimare, to value at a high price.
4. Gexinive op Price. See 402. III.

## RULE XXIII.-Ablative with Comparatives.

417. Comparatives without quam are followed by the Ablative:
Nihil est ămabilius virtate, Nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cie. Quid est mělius bŏnitatate, What is better than goodness? Cic.
418. Comparatives with Quam are followed by the Nominative, or by the case of the corresponding nown before them:

Hirbernia minor quam Britannia existī̀ātur, Hibernia is considered small. er thian Britannia. Caes. Agris quam urbi terribilior, mare terrible to the country than to the city. Liv.
2. Ablative, when admissible.-The construction with quam is the full form for which the Ablative is an abbreviation. This abbreviation is admissible only in place of quam with the Nominative or Accusative, but is not necessary even here except for quam
with a Relative:
ablative with comparatives. difference.
Scímus sölem majōrem esse terrā, We know that the sun is larger than the earth. Cic. Amiectia, qua nihil mêlius hăbêmus; friendèhip, than which we have nothing better. Cic. See also examples under the Rule.

1) In the first example the Ablative (terra) is admissible but not necessary, quam terram might have been used; but in the second example the Ablative (qué) is necessary, the conjunction quam would be inadmissible.
2) In the examples undsr the rule the ablatives virtüte and bonitüte are both equivalent to quam with the Nom. quam virtus and quam bonttas, which might have been used.
3) Instead of the Abl., a Preposition with its case, ante, prae, praeter, or supra is somettmes used: Ante allos immãior, more monstrous than (before) the others. Virg.
3. Constrectiox with Plus, Mists, etc.-Plus, minus, amplius, or longius, with or without quam, is often introduced in expressions of number and quantity, without influence upon the construction; sometimes also major, minor, etc. :

Técum plus annum vixit, He lived with you more than a year. Cic. Mirnus duo millia, kess than two thousand. Liv.

So in expressions of ago: nîtus plus triginta annos, having been born more than tuirty years. The same meaning is also expressed by-major triginta annos nstus, major triginta annis, major quam triginta annōrum, or major triginta annörum.
4. Atete or Ac for Qoar occurs chiefly in poetry and late prose:

Arctius atque hedaerū, more closely than woith ivy. Hor.
5. Alivs wite teie Ablative sometimes occurs. It then involves a comparison, other than:

Quaerit ălia his, He seeks other things than these. Plaut.
6. Pecclianimies.-Quam pro denotes disproportion, and many ablatives -ŏpiniöne, spe, aequo, justo, solito, etc.-are often best rendered by clauses: Minor caedes quam pro victōria, less slaughter than vas proportionate to the victory. Liv. Sérius spe vênit, He came later than was hoped (than hope). Liv. Plus aequo, more than is fair. Cic.

## (1) ROLE XXIV.-Ablative of Difference.

418. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative:
Uno die Iongiorrem mensem fäciunt, They make the month one day longer (longer by one day). Cic. Biduo me antěcessit, He preceded me by two days. Cie. Sunt magnitadi̛ne paulo infra elĕphantos, They are in size a little belov the elephant. Caes.
419. The Ablative is thus used with all words involving a comparison, but adverbs often supply its place: Nultum röbutior, much more robust,
420. The Ablative of Difference includes the Abl. of Distance (378, 2), and the Abl. with ante, post, and abhinc in expressions of time (427).

## 419. The Ablative is used

I. With ūtor, fruor, fungor, pottior, vescor, and their com pounds:

Plorimis rêbus fruimur et atimur, We enjoy and use very many things. Cic. Magma est praeda pötitus, He obtained great booty. Nep. Vescimur bestiis, We live upon animals. Cic.
II. With fido, confido, nitor, and innitor:

Nêmo pŏtest fortanae stǎbilitate confidĕre, No one can trust (confide in) the stability of fortune. Cic. Sillus veritate nititur, Safety rests upon truth. Cic.
III. With Verrs and Adjectivis of Plesty and Want:

Non égeo mědicina, I do not need a remedy. Cie. Vǎcăre culpa, to be free from fault. Cic. Villa äbundat lacte, càseo, melle; The villa abounds in mill, cheese, and honey. Cic. Urbs nuda praesidio, a city destitute of defence. Cie. Virtate praeditus, endowed woith virtuc. Cic.
IV. With dignus, indignus, contentus, and frētus:

Digni sunt ămičitia, They are vorthy of friendship. Cic. Nâtura parvo contenta, nature content with little. Cic. Fretus ămicis, relying uipon his friends. Liv.
V. With opus and ūsus:

Anctöritate tua nöbis ŏpus est, We reed (there is to us a need of) your authority. Cic. Usus est tua mihi ŏpěra, I need your aid. Plaut.

1. Explanation.-This Ablative may in most instances be readily explained as the Ablative of Cause or Means: thus ùtor, I use, serve myself by means of; fruor, I enjoy, delight myself with; vescor, I feed upon, feed myself with; fido, confïdo, I confide in, am confident because of, etc.
2. Accesative and Ablative.-Dignor and transitive verbs of Plenty and Want take the Accusative with the Ablative:

Me dignor hŏnōre, I deem myself worthy of honor. Virg. Armis nāves oněrat, He loads the ships with arms, Sall. Ocullis se privat, He deprives himself of his cyes. Cic. See 371.2.

1) Transitive verbs of Plenty and Want siguify to fill, furnish with, deprive of, ete: afficio, cîmülo, compleo, impleo, imbueo, instruo, ìnero, orno, etc.-orbo, prico, spoblio, etce. Dignor in the best prose ndmits only the Abl.
2) For the Accusatice and Genitive with some of these verbs, see 410. 7. 2).
3. Dative asd Ablative.-Opus eet and usus est admit the Dative of the person with the Ablative of the thing. See examples.
1) The Ablative is sometimes a Perfect Participle, or, with opus est, a Noun and Participle :

Consulto orpus est There is need of deliberation. Sall. Opus fult Hirtio convento, Thero wous need of meding Hirtius. Cia,
2) With opus est, rarely with ûsus est, the thing needed may be denoted(1) By the Nominative, rarely by the Genitive or Accusative:

Dax nöbs opns est, We neel a leader, or a leader is necesary (a necessty) for us. Cle. Temportis opusest, There is need eftima. Liv. Opns est cibum, There is need of food. Paut.
(2) By an Infinitive, a Clause, or a Supine:

Opus est te vălöre, $l t$ ts necessary that you be well. Cic. Opus est ut livem, $I t$ is necessary for mo to bathe (that I bathe). Playy. Dictu est ippus, $I n$ is necessary to be toll. Ter.
4. Otier Constructions also occur. Thus

1) Utor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor, originally transitive, are occestonally so used in classic authors. Their participle in dus is passive in sense. Utor admatt two ablutives of the same person or thing

Me uititur pittre, He will find (nse) me a father. Ter
2) Fido, confido, and innitor admit the Dative, rarcly the $\Delta t h$. with in.

Virtuiti cont idére, to confide in virtue. Cle. Sce sss, 1.
8) Dionus and indignus admit the Gen., fritus the Dat, nitor and innitor the

Acc or Abl. with Prop, and some verbs of Want the Abl. with Prep.
Dignus siliatis, eoorthy of soffty. Plant. Rei fritus, relying upon the Zling.
. Vicire ib oppre, to be free from soork: Caes
4) Genitive.-For the genitive with potion; sce 409. 3. For the genitive with verbs and adjectives of Pleity and Want, see 409. 1, 410. 7, and 899. 2. 2).
II. Ablative of Plage.
420. This Ablative designates
I. The place in which anything is or is done:
II. The place from whici anything proceeds;-including Source and Separation.

## RULE XXVI.-Ablative of Place.

421. I. The place in where and the plage from wiroin are generally denoted by the Ablative with a Preposition. But
II. Names of Towns omit the Preposition, and in the Singular of the First and Second declensions designate the place in which by the Genitive:
I. Hannibal in Itallia fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. Nep. In nostris castris, in our camp. Caes. In Appia via, on the Appian vay. Cic. Ab urbe prŏfíciscitur, He departs from the city. Caes. Ex Africa, from Afri$c a$. Liv.
II. Athēnis fuit, He was at Athens. Cic. Băby̌lōne mortuas est, He died at Babylon. Cie. Fügit Corrintho, He fled from Corinth. Cie. Rōmae fuit, He was at Rome. Cic.
422. Names on Places not Towns sometimes omit the preposition:
423. The Ablative of plaOE in wwicH, sometimes omits the preposition:
1) Generally the Ablatives-löco, locis, parte, partibus, dextra, laeva, sinistra, terra, mări, and other Ablatives when qualified by totus :

Alĭquid lŏco pōněre, to put anything in its place. Cic. Terra măríque, on land and sea. Liv. Tōta Graecia, in all Greece. Nep.
2) Sometimes other Ablatives, especially when qualified by adjectives: Hoc libro, in this book. Cic.
In poetry the preposition is often omitted even when the ablative has no modifier: Silvis agrisque, in the forests and fields. Ov.
2. The Ablative of place from whiol sometimes omits the preposition, especially in poetry

Cǎderre nūbibus, to fall from thie clouds. Virg. Lābi ěquo, to fall from a horse. Hor.
423. Names of Towns differ in their construction from other names of places,
I. Generally in simply omitting the preposition. But II. In the Singular of the First and Second declensions they designate the PLACE IN whien by the Genitive. See examples under the Rule.

1. Preposimion Retained. The preposition is sometimes retained, especially for emphasis or contrast :

Ab Ardea Rōmam vēnērunt, They cams from Ardea to Rome. Liv. So also when the vicinity rather than the town itself is meant: Discessit a Brunďsio, He departed from Brundisium, i. e., from the port. Caes. Apud Mantineeam, near Mantinea. Cic. Ad Trebiam, at or near the Trebia. Liv.
2. The Genitive, it must be observed, never denotes the place frou wसich.

The Genitive-Forms denoting the place in which, are genitives only in form, They probably belonged originally to a case called the Locative, afterward blended with the Ablative, except in the Sing. of Dec. I. and II, where it is united with the Gen. Accordingly these genitives are in force old Ablatives.

3 Othes Constructions for the Genitive also occur:

1) Ablative by Attraction:

In monte Albāno Lāviniōque, on the Alban mount and at Lavinium. Liv.
2) Ablative roithout Attraction, generally with a preposition :

In ipsa Alexandria, in Alexandria itself. Cic. Longa Alba, at Alba Longa. Virg.

This is the regular construction when the noun takes an adjective or adjective This is the regular construction when the noun takes an adjec
pronoun, but the Gen. $\alpha \dot{m i} i(424.2)$ admits a possessive or Clitnus :
onoun, but the Gen. aómi' ( 424 .
Dómi suae, at his home; Cic.
3) With an Appellative-urbs, oppridum-the name of the town is in the Gen. or Abl, but the appellative itself is in the Abl, generally with a Prep. In oppido Antiochrae, in the city of Antioch. Cic. In oppido Citio, in the town Citium. Nep. Albae, in urbe opportanna, at Alba, a convenient city. Cic.
424. Like Names of Towns are used

1. Many names of Islands:

Vixit Cypri, He lived in Cyprus. Nep. Delo prơficiscitur, He proceeds from Delos. Cic.
2. Domus, rus and the genitives hurmi, militiae and belli:

Rūri ăgěre vitam, to spend life in the country. Liv. Dŏmi militiaeque, at home and in the field. Cic. Dōmo prôfugit, He fled from home. Cie.
3. The Genitive of other nouns also occurs:

1) By Attraction after names of towns:

Rōmae Nümidiaeque, at Rome and in Numidia. Sall.
2) Without Attraction in a few proper names and rarely also the genitives ärenae, foci, terrae, viciniae:

Dǒmum Chersornēsi hǎbuit, IIe lad a house in the Chersonesus. Nep.
Truncum rexliquit ărênae, He left the body in the sand. Virg.

## RULE XXVII.-Ablative of Source and Separation.

425. Source and Saparation are denoted by the Ablative, generally with a preposition:

Source.-Hoc audivi de părente meo, I heard this from my father. Cic. Oriundi ab Säbïnis, descended from the Sabines. Liv. Stătua ex aere facta, a satuue made of bronze. Cic., Jöve natus, son of Jupiten Cie.

SEp iestrox.-Caedem a vōbis depello, I ward off sloughter from you. Ci.. Hunc a tuis aris areebis, You will keep this one from your allars. Cic. Expulsus est patria, He was banished from his country. Cic.

1. The Ablative or Souroe designates that from which anything is derived, including parentage, material, eto.
2. The Ablative of Separation designates that from which anything is separated, or of which it is deprived, and is used:
1) With Intransitive verbs signifying, to abstain from, be distant from, etc.
2) In connection with the Accusative after transitive verbs signifying, to hold from, separate from, free from, and the like: arceo, abstineo, deterreo, өjicio, exclūdo, exsolvo, lī̆̄̈ro, pello, prö̉abeo, rëmŏveo, solvo, etc. :
3) A few verbs of separation admit the Dative: alizo, furor, etc. See 385.4.
8. Preposition Omitted.-This generally oceurs
1) With Perfect Participles denotiog parentage or birth-gĕnätus, nätus, ortus, etc.

Jơve nitus, son of Jupiter. Cic.
2) With Verbs of Freeing, except $l$ tiero, which is used both with and without a preposition :

Somno solvi, ta be released from sleep. Cic. Dut in the sense of acquitting these verbs admit the genitive ( 410.7 ): Aliquem culpae libeerrāre, to frce one from blame, i. e, acquit him. Liv.
3) With Mroveo before the ablatives-lŏco, sencetu and tribu:

Signum möverre löco, to more the standard from the place. Cic.
4) The preposition is sometimes omitted with other words, especially in poetry.

## III. Ablative of Time.

 RULE XXVIII,-Time.426. The Time of an Action is denoted by the Ablative:

Octōgēsimo anno cest mortuus, He died in his eighticth year. Cic. Vēre convènēre, They assembled in the spring. Liv. Nâtali die suo, on his birthday. Nep. Hiéme et aestāte, in winter and summer. Cie.

1. Designations of Thme.-Any word, so used as to involve the time of an action or event, may be put in the ablative: bello, in the time of war; pugna, in the time of battle; luais, at the time of the games; memoria, in memory, i. e., in the time of one's recollection.
2. The Ablative wimi Is is used to denote
1) The circumstances of the time, rather than time itself:

In täli tempŏre, wndor such circumstancos. Tiv.
I) The time in

In diêbus proximis decem, in the naxt ten days. Sall.
(1) This is used especially after numeral adverbs and in designating the periods of life: bis in die, twice in the day; in puieritia, in boyhood.
(2) In a kindred sense oecur also the Abl with de and the Aceus, with inter or intra: De media nocte, in the middle of the night. Caes. Inter annos quattuordé$\mathrm{cim}, \mathrm{in}$ (within) Jourteen years Caes.
(8) The Ablative with or withont in sometimes denotes the time within which or after whith: paucts diebis, within (or after) a fow days.
427. Accusative or Ablative. - The time since an action or event is denoted by Abhinc or Ante with the Accusative or Ablative, and the time between two events, by Ante or Post with the Accusative or Ablative:

Abhinc annos trěcentos fuit, He lived (was) three hundred years since. Cic. Abhine annis quattuor, four years since. Cic. Hömêrus annis multis fuit ante Rōmŭlum, Homer lived many years before Romulus. Cic. Paucis ante diēbus, a few days before. Cic. Post dies paucos vēnit, Ho cante after a few daye. Liv.

1. Explanation.-(1) The Aceusative with abhine is explained as Duration of Time (378), with ante and post as dependent upon those prepositions. (2) The Ablative in both cases is explained as the Ablative of Difference (418).

With the $A b L$ ante and post are used adverbially unless an Accus, is expressed after them. Paucis his (ilis) diebus, means in these (those) few days.
2. Numbrals with Ante and Post.-These may be either cardinal or ordinal. Thas : five years after $=$ quinque annis post, or quinto anno post; or post quinque annos, or post quintum annum; or with post between the numeral and the noun, quinque post annis, etc.
8. Quay with Ante and Post.-Quam may follow anto and poot, may be united with them, or may even be used for postquam:

Quartum post annum quam rědiêrat, four years after hie had veturned. Nep. Nōno anno postquam, nine years after. Nep. Sexto anno quam ěrat expulsus, six years after he had been banished. Nep.
4. The Ablative of the Relative or Quear may be used for postquam:

Quătríduo, quo occisus est, four days after his was killed. Cic.
IV. Ablative of Characteristic.

RULE XXIX.-Characteristic.
428. The Ablative with an adjective may be used
to characterize a person or thing:
Summa virtate adodeseens, a youth of the highust pirtue. Caes. Catitlina ingěnio minlo fuit, Oatiline was a man of a bad spirit. Sall.

1. Ablative of Characteristre is used
1) With Substantives as in the first example.
2) In the Predicate with sum, and the other verbs which admit a Predicate Genitive (403) as in the second example.
2. The Ablative with a Genitive instead of the ablative with an adjective is sometimes used :

Uri sunt spěcie tauri, The urus is of the appearance of $a$ bull. Caes.
3. Genitive of Characteristic.-See 896. IV.

1. Genitife and Ablativa Dismingusien.-The Genitive generally expresses permanent and essential qualities; the Ablative is not limited to any particular kind of qualities.

## V. Ablative of Specticication. RULE XXX.-Specification.

429. The Ablative may be used with a word to define its application:

Agesilinus nömine, non pŏtestãte fuit rex, Agesilaus vas king in name, not in power. Nep. Claudus altĕro péde, lame in one foot. Nep. Môribus simites, similar in character. Gie.

1. Force or Absatrve-This shows in what respect or particular anything is true: thus, king (in what respect?) in name; similur (in what respect?) in charader.
2. Accusative of Specification, 'Sce 880
VI. Ablative Absolute.
3. A noun and a participle, a noun and an adjective, or two nouns may be grammatically independent of (absolved from the rest of the sentence, and yet may express various adverbial modifications of the predicate. When so used they are said to be in the case Absolute.

## RULE XXXI.-Ablative Absolute.

431. The Ablative is used as the Case Absolute:

Servio regnante viguêrunt, They fourished in the reign of Servius (Servius reigning). Cic. Reghibus exactis, consüles creãti sunt, After tho banishment of the lings, consulds were appointed. Liv. Sěrèno coelo, when the sky is clear. Sen. Cănñio consǔle, in the consulshiip of Caninius. Cic.

1. Use.- The Ablative Absolute is much more common than the English Nominative Absolute, and expresses a great variety of relations,-time, cause, reason, means, condition, concession, etc.
2. How Renderkd.-This ablative is generally best rendered (1) by a Clouse with-when, while, for, since, if, though, ete., (2) by a Noun with a Preposition,-in, during, after, by, from, through, eto, or (i) by an Active Participle with its Object:

Servio regnante, while Servius reigned, or in the reign of Seroius. Cic. Religiōne neglecta, because religion was neglected. Liv. Perdítis rebus omnbus, tămen, etc., Though all things are lost, still, etc. Cic. Equutatu praemisso, subsěquêbătur, Having sent forvard his cavalry, he folloveed. Caes.
3. A Connective sometimes accompanies the Ablative :,

Nisi minnitis castris, unless the camp should be fortifed.' Caes.
4. An Iversitive or Clatse may be in the Abl. Absolute with a neater participle or adjective:

Audito Därium môvisse, pergit, Having heard that Darius had withdraton (that Darins had, etc., having been heard), he advanced. Curt. Multi, incerto quid vitirent, intęriérunt, Many, uncertain shat they should avoid (what they, ete. being uncertain), perished. Liv.
5. A Pabtictple or Adjective may stand alone in the Abl. Absolute:

Multum certato, pervicit, Ho conquered after a hard strugole (it having been nuch contested). Tac.
6. Quisque in the Nominative may accompany the Abl. Absolute

Multis sibi quisque pětentibus, while many sought, each for himself. Sall.
VII. Ablative with Prepositions. See 432 and 434.

## SEOTION VIII. <br> OASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

## RULE XXXII.-Cases with Prepositions.

432. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with Prepositions :

Ad ămicum scripsi, I have written to a friend. Cic. In cāriam, into the senate house. Liv. In Itallia, in Italy. Nep. Pro castris, before the camp.
433. The Accusattive is used with

Ad, adversus (adversum), ante, ăpud, cirea, circum, circiter, cis, citra, contra, erga, extra, infra, inter, intra, juxta, ob, pĕnes, per, põne, post, praeter, prŏpe, propter, sěcundum, supra, trans, ultra, versus :
Ad urbem, to the city. Cio. Adyersus deos, tovard the gods. Cic. Ante lacem, bfore light. Cic. Apud conclium, in the presence of the council. Cic. Circa forum, around the forum. Cie. Gitra flamen, on this side of the river. Cic. Contra nātaram, contrary to nature. Cic. Intra maros with in the walle. Cie. Post eastra, belhind the camp. Caes. Sěcundum nütaram, acoording to nature. Cic. Trans Alpes, across the Alps. Cic.

1. Lise Proipe, the derivatives propior and proximus take the Accus, depend
ent perhaps upon ad undertood. Exadeersus (um) also occurs with the Aecus.:
Pröpior montem, nearer to the mountain. Sall. Proximus mirre, nearest to
the sea. Caes. See also 437, and for componnds, 871.4 , and 374 a.
2. Versus (um) and usque as adverbs often accompany prepositions, especially $a d$ and in: Ad Alpes versas, tovards the Alps.

## 434. The Ablative is used with



Ab urbe, from the city. Caes. Coram conventu, in the presence of the assembly. Nep. Cum Antiơcho, with Antiocluss. Cic. De föro, from the forum. Cic. Ex Asia, from Asia. Nep. Sine corde, without a heurt. Cic.

1. Many verbs compounded with $a b, d e, e x$, or süper, admit the Ablative dependent upon the preposition:

Abire migistrãtu, to retire from offce. Tac. Pugna excêdunt, They rettra from the battle. Caes.

Sometimes the Prep. is repeated, or one of kindred meaning is nsed
De vita déeéděre, to depant from lyje. Cie. Dèečdĕre ex Asia, to depart from Avia. Cic.
2. The Ablative with or without De is sometimes used with Fäcio, Fio, or Sum, as follows:

Quid hoc hömine ficielas, What are you to do woith this man ? Cic. Quid te (or de te) futirnm est, What will Zrcome of yous ? Cle.-

The Dative occurs in nearly the same sense:
3. $A, a b, a b s, e, e a-A$ and $e$ are used only before consonants, $a b$ and $c a$ either before vowels or consonants. Abs is antiquated, except before to.
4. Tenus follows its case:
Collo texns, up to the neck: Ov .
5. Owm with the Abl. of a Pers. Pronoun is appended to it: mẽoum, tzoum, etc generally also with a relative: quöcum, quizusscum.
435. The Acoubative or Ablative is used with
In, sub, subter, sŭper:

In Asiam prōfügit, He fled into Asia. Cic. Hannǐbal in Itălia fuit, Hannibal was in Italy. Nep. Sub montem, toward the mountain. Caes. Sub monte, at the foot of the mountain. Liv. Subter toggam, under the toga. Liv. Sabter testüdǐne, under a tortoies or shed. Virg. Sŭper Nŭmídiam, beyond Numidia. Sall. Hac sŭper re serïbam, I will writs on this subject. Cic.

1. In and Sub take the Accusative in answer to the question whither? the Ablative in answer to where? In Asiam (whither?), into Aoia; In Itälia (where?), in Italy.
2. Subter and Sũper generally take the Accusative, but sǔper with the force of-concerning, of, on (of a subject of discourse), takes the Ablative; see examples.
3. Prepositioxs as Adverbs,-The prepositions were originally adverbs, and many of them are sometimes so used in classical anthors.
4. Adverds as Pbepositions.-Conversely several adverbs are sometimes used as prepositions with an oblique ease, though in most instances a preposition could readily be supplied. Such are
5. With Aecusative : probius, procime, pridie, postr: ${ }^{\text {die, }}$, usque, dësüper: Própius pêricưlum (ad), nearer to danger. Liv. Pridle Idus (ante), the day before the Ides. Cic. Usque pedes (ad), even to the fect. Curt.
6. With Ablative: pillam, procul, stimul (poetie):

Palam pǒpullo, in tho presence of thre people. Liv. Probenl eastris, at a distanco from the camp. Tac. Simul his, with thees. Hor.
3. With Accusative or Ablative: clam, insuiper:

Clam patrem, without the father's knovoledge. Plant. Olam vöbls, woithout your knowledgo. Caes.

## CHAPTER III.

## SYNTAX OF ADJECTIVES.

## RULE XXXIII-Agreement of Adjectives.

438. An Adjective agrees with its Noun in gender, number, and case:

Fortona caeca est, Fortune is blind. Cic. Vêrae ămičtiae, true friendships. Cic. Măgister optïmus, the best teacher. Cic.

1. This Rule includes Adjectives, Adjective Pronouns, and Participles.
2. Atrmbunve and Predicate Admectives.-An adjective is called attributive, unless it unites with the verb (generally sum), to form the predicate; it is then called a predicate-adjective: as caeca eet, above.
3. Agreement with Clause, etc.-An adjective may agree with any word or words used substantively, as a pronoun, clause, infinitive, etc.:
Quis clatrior, Who is more illustrious? Cic. Certum est libêros ămāri, It is certain that chaidren are loved. Quint. See 35. III.

An adjective agreeing with a clause is sometimes pleral, as in Greek.
4. Neuter with Masculine.-Sometimes the Predicate Adjective is neuter, when the subject is Masc. or Fem.:

Mors est extrexmum, Death is the last (thing). Cic.
5. Neuter with Gentyive. - $A$ neuter adjective with a genitive is often used instead of an adjective with its noun:

Multum öpěrae (for mulła opèra), much sarcice (much of service). Cic.
Id tempơris, fluat time. Cic. Vïna rérum (for vänce res), eain things, Hor.
6. Construction accordisg to Smase.- Sometimes the adjective or par-
ciple conforms to the real meaning of its noun, without regard to grammatical gender or number :

Pars certitre pärati, a part (some), prepared to contend. Virg. Nōbis (for me, 446, 2), prassente, wee (1) being present. Plaut. Dèmosthenes cum
ceteris ěrant expulisi, Demosthencs with the others had been banished. Nep.
7. Agresment with Predicate Noun or Appositive.-See 462.
8. Agrebment with one Noun yon Another.- When a noun governs another in the Genitive, an adjective belonging in sense to one of the two nouns, sometimes agrees with the other:
Majōra (for majörum) Inltia rōrum, the beginnings of greater things. Liv. Cursus justi (justus) amnis, the regular course of the river. Liv.

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Majōra (for majörum) Inltia rōrum, the beginnings of greater things. Liv. Cursus justi (justus) amnis, the regular course of the river. Liv.
439. With two or more. Nouns.-An adjective or participle, belonging to two or more nouns, may agree with them all conjointly, or may agree with one and be understood with the others:

Castor et Pollux visi sunt, Castor and Pollux were seen. Cic. Těmĕ Castor et Pollux visi sunt, Castor and Polux wove sed. Cic.
ritas ignoratioque vitiosa est, Rashnezs and ignorance are bad. Cic.

1. The Atrubutive Abjecrive generally agrees with the nearest noun : Agri omnes et märia, all lands and seas. Cic.
2. Dipyenent Gexders.- When the nouns are of different genders, they may denote
1) Porsons: then the adjective or participle agreeing with them conjointly is masculine: Păter et mãter mortui sunt, Father and mother are dead. Ter.
2) Persons and Things: then the adjective generally takes the gender of the person: Rex rêgiaque classis proffecti sunt, The king and the royal flet set outs. Liv.
3) Things: then the adjective is generally neuter: Hǒnōres, victōriae tuits sunt, Honors and victories are accidental (things). Cic.
fortuita sunt, Honors and victories are accidental (things). Clic. nouns denoting inanimate objects, the adjective is often neuter:

Labor et doftor sunt finitíma, Labor and pain are kindred (things). Oic. Nox atque praeda hostes rěmơrāta sunt, Night and plunder detained the enemy. Sall.
4. Two or nors Admectrves. - Two or more adjectives in the singular may belong to a plural noun :
may belong to a plural nour.
Prima et viecsima lögiones, the first and the twentidh logions. Tac.
So in proper names: Cnsens et Publins Scipī̄nes, Craeus and Publius Scipio. Cic.
440. Use of Adjectives. - The Adjective in Latin corresponds in its general use to the Adjective in English.

1. An adjective may quantify the complex idea formed by a noun and an adjective: aes utitinum grande, a great debt. Here grande qualilics not aes alone, but aes atienum. In snch cises no connective is used between the adjectives

But the Latin uses the conjunction after multi even where the English omits it: multae et magnae tempestütes, many great emergencies.
441. Adjectives are often used substantively: docti, the learned; multi, many persons ; multa, many things.

1. In the Plural, Masculine Adjeetives often designate persons, and Neuter Adjectives things: fortes, the brave; divites, the rich; paupêres, the poor; multi, many: pauci, few; omnes, all; mei, my friends; utilili, useful things i mea, nostra, my, our things; omnia, all things; hace, illa, these, those things.
2. In the Singular, Adjectives are occasionally used substantively, especially in the Neuter with an abstract sense: doctus, a learned man;
vêrum, a true thing, the truth; nihil sinceri, nothing of sincerity, nothing sincere.
3. Noun Understood.-Many adjectives become substantives, by the mission of their nouns: patria (terra), native country ; dextra (manus), righthand, fira (bestis), wild beast, hibema (costra), winter-quarters.
4. With Res.-Adjectives with res are used with great freedom: res adversae, adversity; res sicundae, prosperity; res publica, republic.
5. From Proper Names.-Adjectives from proper names are often 5. From Proper Names.-Adjectives of of pugna Mărăthōnia, the battle of Marathon; Diāna Ephěsia, Diana of Ephesus; Hercǔles Xénơphontīus, the Hercules of Xenoplion.
6. Designating a Part.-A few adjectives sometimes designate a particular part of an object: primus, medius, ultimus, extremus, pastromus, intiтus, summus, inf imus, ітus, suprèmus, reliquus, cetera, etc.: prima nax, the first part of the night ; summus mons, the highest part of the mountain.

In Livy and late writers, the neuter of these adjectives with a genitive sometimes occurs:

Ad ultimum inơpiae, for ad ultimam inǒpiam, to ceatreme destitution. Liv.
442. Equivalent to a Clause.-Adjectives, like nouns in apposition, are sometimes equivalent to clauses:

Némo saltat sobrius, No one dances when he is sober, or when sober. Cic. Hortensium vivum ămāvi, I loved Hortensius, vohile he was alive. Cic. Hömo nunquam sobrius, a man, who is never sober. Cic.

1. Prior, primus, ultimus, postremus, are often best rendered by a relative clause:

Primus morem solvit, He was the first who broke the custom. Liv. With the adverb primum, the thonght would be, he first broke the custom, and then did something else.
443. Instead of Adyerbs.-Adjectives are sometimes used where our idiom employs adverbs:
Socrătes věnênum laefus hausit, Socrates chespfully drank the poison. Sen. Sexātus frequens convenit, The senate assembled in great numbers. Cic. Roscius érat Rōmae frěquens, Roscius was frequently at Rome. Cic.

Adjectives thus used are: (1) Those expressive of joy, knowledge, and their opposites: laetus, İbens, invitus, tristis, sciens, insciens, prâdens, imprîdens, etc. (2) Nullus, sintus, totue, unus; prior, prim:

Dőmesticns ötior, I iflle about fiome. Hor. Vespertinns pǒte teetum, At evenDobmesticns ötior, Ivole abouit hiome. Hor. Vespertinus
zng sedk your abode. Hor. Sce Examples above; also 835. 4.
444. Comparison.-A comparison between two objects requires the comparative degree; between more than two, the superlative:

Prior hōrum, the former of these (two). Nep. Ggllorrum fortissimi, the bravest of the Gauls. Caes.

1. With the force or Too or Very.-The comparative sometimes has the force of too, unusully, sonewhat, and the superlative, the force of very: doctior, too learned, or somewhat learned; doctissimus, very learned.
2. Comparative after Quas. - When an object is said to possess one quality in a higher degree than another, beth adjectives are put in the comparative; but when it is said to possess one quality rather than another, both are in the positive, the former with mágis or pölius:

CiIrior quam grãtior, more illustrious than pleasing. Liv. Disertus măgis quam săpiens, Juint rether thom woise. Cic.

In the firat case the positive is sametimes used in one or both members; and in the second caso mudgis is sometimes omitted, mond occasionally the adjective before guam is in the comparative.
3. Strevgernesixa Words.-Comparatives and Superlatives are often strengthened by a Prep. with its case, anth, proce, practer, supra (417. 2. 8), unus, ùnus omaium, alone, alone of all, far, by far; Comparatives also by etiam, even, still; multo, much, and Superlatives by longe, multo, by far, much, quam, quantur, as possible:

Muitomaxima pars by far the largest part. Cie. Res ina omnium difficillima, a thing by far tho moxt difficult of all. Cic Quam maximae côpine, forces as large as pobsiblo. sall. Qumnta maxima vastitas, the greatest possille devastation, Liv.
4. Comparison in Adverbs has the same force as in adjectives:

Quam saepissime, as often as passible. Cic. Fortius quam felicius, with more bracery than success. Lit.

OHAPTER IV.

## SYNTAX OF PRONOUNS.

## RULE XXXIV.-Agreement of Pronouns.

445. A Pronoun agrees with its antecedent in GENder, number, and Person :

Animal quod sangữnem Łăbet, an animal which has blood. Gic. Ego, qui te confirmo, I who encourage you, Cic. Vis est in virtututbus; cas excita, There is strength in virtues, grouse them. Cie.

1. Application or Rule.-This rule applies to all Pronouns when used as nouns. Pronouns used as adjectives conform to the rule for adjectives. See 438.

The Antecedent is the word or words to which the pronoun refers, and whose place it supplies. Thus, in the examples under the rule, animal is the antecedent of quod, and virtitubus the antecedent of eas.
2. Agremenent with Personal Pronoun.-When the antecedent is a Demonstrative in agreement with a Personal pronoun, the relative agrees with the latter:

Tu es is qui me ornasti, Tou are the one who commended me. Cie.
3. Witil two Antecedents.- When a relative or other pronoun, refers to two or more antecedents, it generally agrees with them conjointly, but it sometimes agrees with the nearest:

Puerri mǔliěresque, qui, boys and women, who. Caes. Peceãtum ac culpa, quae, error and faudt, which. Cic.

1) With antecedents of different genders, the pronoun conforms in gender to the rule for adjectlyes (439.2 and 3 ); hence puiri multeresque quik, above.
2) With antecedents of different persons, the pronoun prefers the first person to the second, aud the second to the thlird, conforming to the rule for verbs Sec 463 . 1 .
4. Wita Predicate Noun or Appositive.-A pronoun sometimes agrees with a Predicate-Noun or an Appositive instead of the antecedent:

Anîmal quem (for quod) vǒcàmus hoัminem, the animal which we call man. Cic. Thêbae, quod (quae) cäput est, Thebes which is the capital. Liv. Ea (id) črat confessio, That (i. e., the action referred to) was a con frasion. Liv. Flümen Rhēnus, quï, the river Rhine, wolich. Caes.

In the last example, qui agrees with the appositivo Ritenns: in the other examples, the pronouns $q u e m$, quod, and ea, are attracted to agree with therr predicate nouns homineem, caput, and confessio.
5. Construction according to Sexse.-Sometimes the pronoun is construed according to the real meaning of the antecedent, without regard to grammatical form; and sometimes it refers to the class of objects to which the antecedent belongs :

Equitatưs, qui videerunt, the cavalry whio sanv. Caes. Eărum rêrum utrumque, each of lhese Chỉngs. Gic. Dēmŏcritum ǒmittămus; ăpud istos; let us omit Democritus; with such (i. e., as he). Gic.
6. Antecedent Oyitted.-The antecedent of the relative is often omitted when it is indefinite, is the pronoun is, or is implied in a possessive:

Sunt qui censeant, There are some who think. Cie. Terra reddit quod accēpit, The carth returns what it has received. Cio. Vestra, qui cum integritite vixistis, hoe interrest, This interesto you who have lived with in tegrity. Cic. Here the antecedent is vos, implied in vestra.
7. Chatsb as Astrocedent.--When the antecedent is a sentence or clause, the pronoun, unless attracted (455. 4), is in the Nenter Singular, but the relative generally adds id as an appositive to such antecedent:

Nos, id quod dêbet, patria délectat, Our country deighta us, asit ought (iit. that which it owes). Cic.
8. Relativg Autracted.-The relative is sometimes attracted into the ease of the antecedent, and sometimes agrees with the antecedent repeated:

Judice quo (for quem) nosti, the judge wohom you know. Hor. Dies in-
stat, quo die, The day is at hand, on which day. Caes. Cūmae, quam urbem tënébant, Cumae, which city they held. Liv.
9. Antecedent Atrnacthd.-In Poctry, rarely in prose, the antecedent is sometimes attracted into the case of the relative; and sometimes incorporated in the relative clause in the same case as the relative:

Urbem quam stătuo, vestra est, The city which I am building is yours. Virg. Nălärum, quas ẳmor câras hăbet, oblîvisci (for malärum curärum quess), to forget the wretched cares which love hias. Hor.
$\qquad$

1. Persoxal and Possessive Pronouns.
2. The Nominative of Personal Pronouns is used only for emphasis or contrast :

Significarmus, quid sentiamus, We show what we think. Cic. Ego rēges ejêci, vos tyrannos intrōdưcitis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cio.

1. With quidem the pronoun is usually expressed, and then the third person is supplied by tic, zs, ille, which are then often redundant: tu quidem, you indeed, ille quidem, ho indeed. Quidem adds emphasis; équidem $=$ égo quidem.
2. The writer sometimes speaks of himself in the plaral, using nos for ego, noster for meus, and the-plural verb for the singular.
3. For Nostrum and Vestrum, seo 396. 1.
4. Possessive Pronouns, when not emphatic, are seldom expressed, if they can be supplied from the context:

Mǎnus läva, Fashyour hands. Cic. Mihi mea vita cāra est, My life is dear to me. Plaut.

For Possessive with Genitive in the sense of own, see 897. 3
NIVERSmymintoy etc.) ; sometimes also the other Personal and Possessive pronouns, together with $I s$, Ille, and Ipse:

Se diltgit, He lores himself. Gic. Sua vi mǒvêtur, He is mored by his own power. Cie. Me consōlor, I console myself. Cic. Persuädent Tulingis ŭti cum iis prơficiscantur, They persuade the Tulingi to depart with them. Caes.

1. Inter nos, inter vas, inter se, have a reciprocal force, each other, one another, together; but jnstead of inter se, the noun may be repeated in an oblique case:

Collơquimur inter nos, We converse together. Cic. Amant inter se, They love one another. Cic. Hömithes höminibus ûtles sunt, Men are useful to men, i. e, to one another. Ci
each other. Cic.
449. Sui and Suus generally refer to the Subject of the clause in which they stand:

Se diligit, He loves himsolf. Cic. Justitia propter sêse cǒlenda est, Justice should be cultivated for its ovon sake. Cic. Annǔlum suum dédit, He gave has ring. Nep.

1. In Subordisats Clauses expressing the sentiment of the principal subject, Sui and Suus generally refer to that subject:
Sentit ǐnĭmus se vi sua móveri, The mind perceives that it is movel by its ouon power. Oic. A me pětivit ut secum essem, He aiked (from) me to bo with him (that I would be). Cic. Pervestigat quid sui cives cōgitent, Ho ties to ascertain that his fellow citizens think. Cic.
1) As $S u i$ and Suus thus refer to subjects, the demonstratives, $I$, Ille, etc, gencrally refer either to other words, or to subjects, which do not admit sui and suzs,

Deum agroseis ex ejus ópëribns, You recognize a god by (from) his zoorks. Cic.
Obligat civitatem nihil eos mutitituros, Ho binds the state not to change anything (that they will). Just.
2) In some subordnate clauses the writer may at pleasure use either the Reflesive or the Demonstrative, according as be wishes to present the thoight as that of the principal subject, or as his own. Thus in the last example under 448, cum iis is the proper lang ang ior the 1 l pal subject; secum, which wonld be equally proner, would present the thonght as the sentiment of taat subject.
8) Sometimes the Reflexive occurs where we should expect the Demonstrative, and the Demonstrative where we should expect the Rellesive.
2. Sues $=$ His ows, wrc. - Suus in the sense of his oton, fitting, etc., may refer to subject or object:

Justitia suum cuique tribuit, Justice gives to evory man his due (his own). Cic.
3. Construetion $A$ ccording to Sexse. - When the subject of the verb is not the real agent of the action, sui and suus refer to the latter

A Caesăre invitor sibi ut sim légătus, $I$ am invited by Cacsar (real agent) to be his lieutenant. Cic.
4. Sues Substantively.-The Plaral of Swus used substantively-7tis, their friends, possessions, etc.--is used with great freedom, often referring to oblique cases:

Fuit hoc luctuōsum suis, This was aflicting to his frionds. Cic. Here suis refers to an oblique case in the preceding sentence.
5. Sur and Suus sometimes refer to an omitted subject:

Deforme est de se praedicaire, To boand of one's self is cligusting. Cie.
6. Reflexives referaina to different Subjects,-Sometimes a clause has one reflexive referring to the principal subject, and another referring to the subordinate subject:

Respondit nêmǐnem sêcum sǐne sua pernǐcie contendisse, He replied that no one had contended with him without (his) destruotion. Caes.

Here se refers to the subject of respondit and sua to nelminem, the subject of the subordinate clause.

## II. Demonstrative Pronouns.

450. Hic, Iste, Ille, are often called respectively demonstratives of the First, Second, and Third Persons, as hic designates that which is near the speaker; iste, that which is near the person addressed, and ille, that which is remote from both, and near only to some third person.

Custos hujus urbis, the gneardian of this city. Cic. Mäta istam mentem, Change that purpose of yours. Cie. Si illos negligis, if you disregard those. Cic.

1. Hic and llie in Contrasts.- Hic designates an object conceived as near, and ille as remote, whether in space or time:

Non antíquo illo mōre, sed hoo nostro fuit érǔditus, He was educated, not in that ancient, but in this our modern way, Cic.
2. Hic and lute, wormbr and latter.-In reference to two objects previously mentioned, (1) Hic generally follows Ille and refers to the latter object, white Ille refers to the former; but (2) Hic refers to the more important object, and Ille to the less important:

Ignävia, lăbor: illa, hic ; Indolence, labor: Hhe former, the latter. Cels. Pax, victôria: haec ( $p a x$ ) in tua, illa in deotrum pôtestate est ; Peace, vic tory: the former is in your powar, the latter in the power of the gods. Liv.
3. Hic and Ille are often used of what immediately follows in discourse, and Iste sometimes indicates contempt: haeo verba, these words, i. e., the following words; iste, that man, such a one.
4. Inle is often used of what is well known, famous:

Mèdēa illa, lial well-nnown Medea. Cie.

1) Hic with or without hormo, is sometimes equivalent to ezo. Alone it is sometis eqnivalent to meus or nostor:
2) Hic, ille, and is are sometimes redundant, especially with quidem ; Seiplo non multum ille quidem dicibat, Scerpio did not indeed say muct. Fie. See 46.1 . 3) A Demonstrative or Relative is sometimes cquivalent to a Genitive or a Prep, with its case: /ied dolor $=$ dolor hujus ree, grief on account of this; haec ciira $=$ cura de hoc, care concerring this.
451. Is and Idem refer to preceding nouns, or are the antecedents of relatives:

Diönỹsius aufựit: is est in prövincin Dionjsius uas tel. the province. Cic. Is quil saxtis hăbet, he who has enough Cic hee is in audire malunt, They profer to hear the same things. Liv.

1. $I_{s}$ is often omitted, espechally befrea a relative or a genitive:

Flibat pater de filii morte, de phatris fillus, The father wept over the death of the son, the son over (that) of the father. Cic. See also 445. G
2. Is or Ipse with a Conjunction is often used for emphasis, lite the English and that too, and that indeed:

Unam rem explleäbo eamgue maximam, One thing I will explain and that too a most important one. Cic.

Id thus used often refers to a clanse or to the general thought, and et ipse is often best rendered, too or also: Audire Craitippum, idque Athënis, to hear Cratippus, and that too at Athens. Cic.
3. Idem is sometimes best rendered, also, yet:

Nithil atile, quod non Idem bönestum, Nothing useful, which is not also honorable. Cic. Quum dicat-neigat Idem, Though he usserts-he yet denies (the same denies). Oic.
4. Is-qui $=$ he-who, snch-as, such-that:
Ii suimus, qui esso debeecmus, We are such as we ought to be. Cie. Es est gens quae nesciat, The race is such that it knows not. Liv.
5. Idem-qui; idem-ac, atque, quam, quasi, ut, cum with Abl. = the samewho, the same-as:

Iidem möres, qui, The same manners which or $\alpha$ s. Cic. Est fdem ac fuit, He is the same as he was. Ter.
6. Is Reflexive. See 448.
452. Ipse adds emphasis, generally rendered self:

Ipse Caesar, Caesar himsclf. Cic. Fae ut te ipsum custōdias, Sce that you guard yourself. Cic.

1. Ipse wiril Sunseor.-Ipse belongs to the emphatic word, whether subject or 1. tut with a preference for the subject:
object, but with a preference for the subject:
Me ipse consollor, I mysedf (not another) console myself. Cic,
2. IPsp, Venx. - Ipse is often best rendered by very:

Ipse ille Gorglas, that very Gorgias. Cle.
8. With Numerals Ipse has the force of-just so many, just:

Triginta dies ipsi, just thirty days. Cle.
4. Ipse in the Genitive with possessives has the force of oum, one's owon Nostra ipsơrum àmictia, Our oun fiendehip. Cic. See 897. 8.
5. Ipse Reflexive, sometimes supplies the place of an emphatic sui or suus:

Légitos misit quil ipsi vitam patturent, He sent messengers to ask lffe for himself. Sall.

## III. Relative Pronouns.

1 453. The relative is often used where the English idiom requires a demonstrative or personal pronoun; sometimes even at the begiming of a sentence :

Res lơquitur ipsa; quae semper vallet; The fact itself speaks, and this (which) ever has weight. Cic. Qui proelium committunt, They engage bat tle. Gaes. Quae quum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic.

1. Relative with Demonsthative.-Relatives and Demonstratives are often correlatives to each other: hic-qui, iste-qui, etc. These combinations generally retain the ordinary force of the separate words, but see is -qui, idem-qui, 451.4 and 5 .
1) Qutounque and Quiequis, whoever, whatever, sometimes have the force of overy by the ellipsis of fičri pôtest: quãeunque ritiöne, in every way, $i, e$, , in whatcver way it is possible.
2. A Demosistrative may supply the place of a Relative when otherwise two relative clauses would be brought together:

Quae nee hăbērēmus nec his âterrēmur, Which we should neither have nor use. Cic.

1) A Relative Clause with is is often equivalent to a substantive: it qui audiunt $=$ auditores, hearers.
3. Two Relatives sometimes oceur in the same clause:

Artes quas qui těnent, aits, vohose passessors (which, who possess). Cic. 4. A Relutiye Cuatse is sometimes equivalent to Pro with the Abl.: Quae tua prüdentia est = qua es prudentia = pro tua pràdentia $=8 u c h$ is your prudence, or you are of such prudence, or in accordance with your prudence, ete: : Spero, quae tua pradentia est, te vălêre, $I$ hope you are well, such is your prudence (which is, etc.).
5. Relative with Adjective.-Adjectives belonging in sense to the antecedent, sometimes stand in the relative clause in agreement with the relative, especially comparatives, superlatives, and numerals :

Visa, quae pulcherrima vidérat, the most beautiful vessels which he had seen (vessels; which the most beautiful he had seen). Cie. De servis suis, quem hăbuit fidè lissimum, misit, He sent the most faithful of the slaves which quem hàbuit
6. Quod Expletive, or apparently so, often stands at the beginning of a sentence, especially before $n i$, nisi, etzi, and sometimes before quia, quø̈niam, ütinam, ete. In trumslating it is sometimes omitted, and sometimes rendered by nove, but, and:

Quod st eceidecrint, if or but if they stionld fall. Cic.
7. Qui dicitar, qui vöcatur, or the carresponding netive quem dicunt, quem wricant, are often used in the sense of so called, the so called, what they or you call, etc:

Vestra quae dicitur vita, mors est, Your so called life (lit. your, which is callea life) is death. Oic. Lex ista quam vöcas non est lex, That laro as you call it, is not a lav. Cic.

## V. Indefintte Pronouns.

455. Aliquis, quis, qui, and quispiam, are all indefinite, some one, any one:

Est silfuuis, there is some one. Liv. Dixit quis, some one said. Cic. Si quis rex, , $\overline{\text { If any }}$ king. Cic. Alia res quaepiam, any other thing. Cic.

1. Arquis is less indefinite than quis, qui, and quiepiam.
2. Quis and quf are used chiefly after $\overline{\delta i}$, nरisi, ne, and num. Quis is generally used substantively and $q u i$ adjectively. Ariquis after $s i$, etc., is etophatic.
3. Quidam, a certain one, is less indefinite than aliquis:

Quĩdam rhẽtor antiquus, a cerlain ancient rhetorician. Cic. Accurrit quidam, A cerlain one runs up. Hor.

1. Quidam with an Adjective is sometimes used to qualify or soften tho statement:

Justitia mirifiea qunedam vidêtur, Justice scemss somewhat ioonderful. Cle.
2. Quidam with quäsb and sometimes without it, has the force of a certain, a kind of, as it were:
-Quisi älumna quaedam, a cortain foster caild as it were, Cic.
457. Quisquam and ullus are used chiefly in negative and conditional sentences, and in interrogative sentences implying a negative :

Neque me quisquam agnörit, Nor did any one recogrèze me. Cic. Si Neque me quisquam agnôvit, Norsed ullum ănimal esse, do you think there is any animal? Oic.

1. Nemo is the negative of quigquam, and like quisquam is generally used subtantively, rarely adjectively:

Neminem inesit, He hatmed is the negative of ullus, and is generally used adjectively, but it someimes supplies the Gen. and $\Lambda b b$. of nemo, which generilly wants those cases : Nullnm inimal, no animal. Cle. Nallius aures, the ears of no one. Cic.
8. Nullus for non.-Nullus and nilhil are sometimes used for an emphatic non: 8. Nullus for non,- Nullus yevit, He did not come. Cie. Mortui null sunt, The deal are not. Cic.
458. Quivis, Quilibet, any one whatever, and Quisque, every one, each one, are general indefinites (191):

Quaelibet res, any thing. Cic. Tuōram quisque něcessäriōrum, each once of your friends. Cic.

1. Qutsque with Superlatives and ordinals is generally best rendered by all or
by ever, atiocys, with prinus by cery, possibles:

Epicüreos doctissimus quisque contemnit, All the most Learned despise the Epicureans, or the most learned ever despise, etc. Cic. Primo quīque die, the earliest day possible, the very first. Cic.
2. Ul Quisque-ita with the superlative in both clanses is often best rendered, the more-the more:

Ut quisque sibl plurimum confidit, ita maxime excellit, The more one confiles in himself, the more he cacels. Ci..
459. Alius and Alter are often repeated: ălius-ălius, one-another; alii-alii, some-others; alter-alter, the one-the other; alteri-alteri, the one party-the other:

Alii goriae serviunt, ălii pěcūnine, Some are stanes to glory, others to money. Cic. Altëri dimicant, alterri timent, One party contends, the other fears. Cie.

1. Alitus repeated in different eases often involves an ellipsis:

Alius silla via civititem auxarunt, They adranced the state, one in one voury, enother in another. Liv. So also with atias or alder: Aliter alli vivunt, Some lice in ore way, ofhers in another. cic.
2. After Alius, Aliter, and the like, atque, ag, and et often mean than.

Non illus essem atque sum, $I$ would not bo other Uran 1 am. Cic.
3. Alter means the one, the other (of two), the second; allins, another, other. When atter-atem refers to objects previously mentioned, the first alter usually refers to the latter object, bat may pefer to either:

Inimicuss compestitor, cum alț̀ro-cum alterro, an enemy, a rival, with the lat. ar-with the forme: Cle
4. Uterguo means both, caclo of troo, and in the Plu. both, each of thoo partiee.
CHAPTER V.

## RULE XXXV.-Verb with Subject.

460. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in numBER and Person :

Deus mundum aediffeãvit, God made the woorld. Cic. Ego rêges ejēei, vos tyramos intrōdūčtis, I have banished kings, you introduce tyrants. Cic.

1. Partiomples in Compound Tenses agree with the subject aecording to 438 . See also 301. 2 and 3 :

Thēbãni accusasti sunt, The Thebans were acoused. Cic.

1) In the Infinitive, the Participle in um sometlimes occurs without any reference to the gender or number of the snbject:

Difiidentin futaram quae impecrivisset, from doubt that those things whicl he had commanded would take place. Sall.
2. Subsect Omitted. See 367. 2.

1) An Indefinite Subject is often denoted by the Second Pers. Sing, or by the First or Third Plur.: dieas, you (any one) may say; dieimus, we (people) say : dicunt, they say.
3. Verb Owitted.-See 367. 3.
4. Construction according mo Sense.-Sometimes the Predicate is construed according to the real meaning of the subject without regard to grammatical gender or number. Thus
5. With Collective Nouns, pars, multitudo, and the like:

Multitudo ăbeunt, The multitude depart. Liv. Pars per agros dilepsi, a part (some) dispersed throught the fields. Liv.

1) Here multatūdo and pare, thongh Sing. and Fem. in form, are Plur. and Masco. in sensc. See also 438.6.
2) Conversely the Imperative Singular may be used in addressing a multitude individually: Adde deffectionnem Stelliae, Add (to this, soldiers,) the revolt of Steily. Liv.
3) Of two verbs with the same collective noun, the former is often Sing., and the Intter Plur.: Jiventus ruit certantque, The youth rush forth and contend. Virg
2. With Millia, often masculine in sense:

Caesi sunt tria millia, Three thousand men were slain. Liv.
3. With Quisque, Cterque, Alius-Alium, Alter-Aľ̈rum, and the likeUterque êdacunt, they each lead out. Caes. Alter altörum vidēmus, We ses each other. Cio.
4. With Singular Subjects accompanied by an Ablative with cum:

Dux cum principibus căpiuntur, The leader with his chicfs is taken. Liv. See 438. 6.
5. With Partim-Partim in the sense of pars-pars:

Bŏnōrum partim nĕcessāria, partim non něcessăria sunt, Of good things some are necessary, others are not necessary. Cic.
462. Agrebment with Appositive on Predicate

Noun.-Sometimes the verb agrees, not with its subject, but with an Appositive or Predicate Noun :

Volsinii, oppǐdum Tuscōrum, concrěmâtum est, Volsinï, a toon of the Tuscans, vas burned. Plin. Non omnis errop stultitia est dicenda, Not every croor thoull be called folly. Cie.

1. The Verb regularly agrees with the appositive when thut is urbs, oppidum, civitae, in apposition with plural names of places, as in the first example.
1) The verb sometimes agrees with a noun in a subordinate clanse after quam, ňsi, cte. : Nihil illiud nisi pax quasita est (not quaesitum), Nothing but peace vecas sought Cic.
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3. Alius and Alter are often repeated: ălius-ălius, one-another; alii-alii, some-others; alter-alter, the one-the other; alteri-alteri, the one party-the other:

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2. The verb agrees with the predicate noun, when that is nearer or more emphatic than the subject, as in the second example.
3. Agrrement with Compound Subject.-With two or more subjects the verb agrees-
I. With one subject and is understood with the others:

Aut môres spectāri aut fortôna sollet, Either character or fortune is vont to be regarded. Cic. Hömērus fuit et Hessiơdus ante Rōmam condì vont to be regarded. Cic. Homerus fuit et hesiouns ante homam con.
II. With all the subjects conjointly, and is accordingly in the Plural Number:

Lentülas, Seipio periérunt, Lentulus and Scipio perished. Cic. Ego et Ciceroo râlemus, Cicero and I are well. Cic. Tu et Tullia valletis, You and Tullia are well. Cic.

1. Persox.-With subjects differing in Person, the verb takes the First Person rather than the Second, and the Second rather than the Third, as in the examples just given.
2. Particreass- SeO 439.
3. Two Surubcos As A Ukit.-Two singular subjects forming in sense a unit or whole, admit a singular verb:

Sennâtus pơpülusque intelligit, The senate and people (i. e,, the state as a unit) undertand. Cie. Tempus něcessitasque postŭlat, Time and neccasity (i. e., the crisis) demand. Cic.
4. Subsects with Aur or Nec.-With singular subjects connected by aut, vel, nec, neque or seu, the verb generally agrees with the nearest subject, but with subjects differing in person, it is generally Plur. :

Aut Brütus aut Cassius jodrcãvit, Either Brutus or Cassius judged. Cie. Haec něque égo nêque Tu fecimus, Neither you nor I have done these thingz. Ter.

SEOTION II.

> USE OF VOICES.
464. In a transitive verb, the Active voice represents the subject as acting upon some object, the Passive, as acted upon by some other person or thing:

Deus mundum aedifircãvit, God-made the vorld. Cic. A Deo omnia facta sunt, All things were made by God. Cie.
465. Active and Passive Construction.- With transitive verbs, a thought may at the pleasure of the writer be expressed either actively or passively. But
I. That which in the active construction would be the object must be the subject in the passive; and
II. That which in the active would be the subject must be put in the ablative with $a$ or $a b$, for persons, without it for things: (371.6):

Deus omnia constituit, God ordained all things, or: A Deo omnia constitata sunt, All things were ordained by God. Cic. Dei prōvidentia mundum administrat, The providence of God rules the world, or: Dei providentia mundus adminnistratur, The world is ruled by the providence of God. Cie.

1. The Passive Voice is sometimes equivalent to the Act. with a reflexive pronoun, like the Greek Middle:

Lavantur in flaminibus, They bathe (wash themselves) in the rivers. Caes. 2. Intraxsitive Verbs (193) have regularly only the active voice, but they are sometimes used impersonally in the passive:

Curritur ad praetörium, They run to the practorium (it is run to). Cic.
8 Deponext Verrs, though Passive in form, are in signification transiive or intransitive

Illud hirizbar, I admired that. Cie. Ab urbe profficisci, to set out from the city. Caes.
4. Sem-Defonents (272. 3) have some of the Active forms and some of the Passive, without change of meaning.
SEOTION III.
TENSES OF THE INDIOATIVE.
I. Present Indicative.
466. The Present Indicative represents the action of the verb as taking place at the present time:

Ego et Cicecro vãlèmus, Cicero and $I$ are well. Cic. Hoe te rǒgo, $I$ ask you for this. Cic.
467. Hence the Present Tense is used,
I. Of actions and events which are actually taking place at the present time, as in the above examples.
II. Of actions and events which, as belonging to all time, belong of course to the present, as general truths and customs:

Nihil est ămãhilius virtâte, Nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cic. Fortes fortunn adjüvat, Fortune helps the brave. Ter.
III. Of past actions and events which the writer wishes, for effect, to picture before the reader as present. The Present, when so used, is called the Historical Present:

Jŭgurtha vallo moenia cireumdat, Jugurtha surrounds the city with a rampart. Sall.

1. Historical Prasest.-The historical present may sometimes be best rendered by the English Imperfect, and sometimes by the English Present, as that has a similar historical use.
2. Present with Jambiv, Jampudum. -The Present is often used of a present action which has been going on for some time, rendered have, especially after jamdiu, jamdudum, etc.

Jamdiu ignōro quid ăgas, I have not known for a long time what you are doing. Cic.

1) The Imperfect is used in the same way of a past action whlch had been oing on for sonie time. Thus in the example above, Jamdiu ignōrübam, would mean, 1 had not dnoion for a long time.
2) The Present in the Infinitive and Participle is used in the same way of an setion which has been or had been going on for some time.
3. Present Applied to Authors. - The Present in Latin, as in Euglish, may be used of authors whose works are extant:

Xenơphon farcit Socrătem dispǎtantem, Xenophion represents Socrates discussing. Cic.
4. Presext with Dox.-With dum, in the sense of white, the Present is generally used, even of past actions:

Dum ea pŭrant, Săguntum oppugnābātur, Whilo they were (are) making these preparations, Saguntum was attacked. Liv.
5. Presest fon Future.- The Present is sometimes used of an action really future, especially in conditions:

Si vincimus, omnia tuta erunt, If we conquer, all things will be safe. Sall.

## II. Imperfect Indicative.

468. The Imperfect Indicative represents the action as taking place in past time:

Stabant nöbrlissimi jŭvěnes, There stood (were standing) most roble youths. Liv. Colles oppidum cingēbant, Hills encompassed the toron. Caes.
469. Hence the Imperfect is used especially
I. In lively description, whether of scenes or events: , Before the town extended a plain. Ante oppidum plänities pǎtēbat, Before the town extended a plain.
Ires. Fulgentes glădios vidēbant, They sawo (were seeing) the. gleaming caes. Fugge
II. Of customary or repeated actions and events, often rendered by woas wont, etc.

Pausănias ěpŭläbãtur mōre Persärum, Pausanias was wont to banquit the Persian style. Nep.

1. Imperfect of Attempted Action.- The Imperfect is sometimes used of an attempted or intended action :

Sedãbant turmultus, They attempted to quell the seditions. Liv.
2. Imperfect in Lititers.-See 472.1.
470. The Future Indicative represents the action as one which will take place in future time:

Scribam ad te, $I$ will write to you. Gic. Nunquam ǎberrabiomus, We shall never go astray. Oic.

1. Future with Imperative Force.-In Latin as in English, the Future Indicative sometimes has the force of an Imperative:

Câräbis et seribes, You will take care and write. Cic
2. Latin Future for Exglish Puesent. - Actions which really belong to future time are almost invariably expressed by the Future Tense, though sometimes put in the present in English :

Naturam si sêquēmur, nunquam ăberräbǐmus, If we follow nature, woe shall never go astray. Cic
3. Future Indicative with Melius.-With melius the Future Indicative has often the force of the Subjunctive:

Mexlius pexribĭmus, We would perish rather, or it would be better for us to perish. Liv.

## IV. Perfect Indicative.

471. The Perfect Indicative has two distinct uses:
I. As the Present Perfect or Perfect Definite, it represents the action as at present completed, and is rendered by our Perfect with have:

De gěnĕre belli dixi, I have spoken of the character of the war. Cic.
II. As the Historical Perfect or Perfect Indefinite, it represents the action as a simple historical fact:

Miltiǎdes est accasistus, Miltiades was accused. Nep.

1. Perfect of what has ceased to be.-The Perfect is sometimes used where the emphasis rests particularly on the completion of the action, implying that what was true of the past, is not true of the present:

Habuit, non babbet, He had, but has not. Cic. Fuit Ilium, Ilium voas. Virg.
with 2. Perpeor Indicative with Parne, Prope.- The Perfect Indicative with puene, prope, may often be rendered by might, would, or by the Pluperfed Indicative:

Bratum non minus ămo, paene dixi, quam te, $I$ love Brutus not less, $I$ might almost say, or Ihad almost said, than I do you. Cic.
3. Perpect yor Exglish Presest.-The Latin sometimes employs the Perfect and Pluperfect where the English uses the Present and Imperfect, especially in repeated actions, and in verbs which want the Present (297).

Měminit praetǒritōrum, He remembers the past. Cic. Quum ad villam vēni, hoc me delectat, When I come (have come) to a villa, this pleases me. Cic. Měminněram Paulum, I remembered Paulus. Cic.
4. Perfect with Postquas.-Postquam, ut, ut primum, etc., in the sense of as soon as, are usually followed by the Perfect; sometimes by the Imperfect or Historical Present. But the Pluperfect is generally used of repeated actions; also after postquam when a long or definite interval intervenes:

Postquam cěcicilit Hium, after (as soon as) Ilium fell. Virg. Anno tertio postquam prơfögerrat, in the third year after he had fled. Nep.

1) As a Rare Exeeption the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjenctive occur after postquam (posteăquam): Posteãquam nedificasset elasses, after he had built fleets. Cic.

VERITATIS
V. Pluperfect Indicative.
472. The Pluperfect Indicative represents the action as completed at some definite past time :

Cōpias quas pro castrís collǒcāvěrat, rěduxit, He led back the forces which he had stationed before the camp. Caes.

1. Tenses.-In letters the writer often adapts the tense to the time of the reader, using the Imperfect or Perfect for the Present, and the Pluperfect for the Imperfect or Perfect:

Nihil băbẽbam quod scriběrem: ad tuas omnes ěpistǒlas rescripsěram, Thave (had) nothing to write: I have already replied to all your letters (I had replied, i. e., before writing this). Cic.

1) The Perfeet is sometimes used of Future actions, as events which happen after the writing of the letter but before the receipt of it will be Future to the writer but Past to the reader.
2. Pluperfect for English Imprrfect.-See 471. 8.
3. Pluperfect to denote Rapidity.-The Pluperfect sometimes denotes rapidity or completeness af action :

## Urbem luctu complēverrant, They (had) fillea the city with mourning.

 Curt.
## VI. Future Perfect Indicative.

473. The Future Perfect Indicative represents the action as one which will be completed at some fature time:

Romam quum venêroo, seribam ad to, When Tshall have recached Baome, I will write to you. Cie. Dum tu hae léges, êgo illum fortasse convē̃eroro, When you read this, I shall perhaps have already met him. Cic.

1. Future Perfect to denote Certainty.-The Future Perfect is sometimes used to denote the speedy or complete accomplishment of the work:

Ego meam offleium praestřtěro, I will surely discharge my duty. Caes
2. The Future Perfect por English Paesent or Future is rare, but occurs in conditional clauses :

Si interprětäri pǒtuěro, his verbis ûtǐtur, If Ican (shall have been able to) understand him, he uses these words. Cic.

## SECTION IV.

USE OF THE INDICATIVE.

## RULE XXXVI.-Indicative.

474. The Indicative is used in treating of facts:

Deus mundum aedificãvit, God made the vorld. Cic. Nonne expulsus est patria, Was he not banished from his country? Cic. Hoe feeci, dum hicuit, I did this as long as it was permitted. Cie.
475. Special Uses.-The Indicative is sometimes used where our idiom would suggest the Subjunctive:

1. The Indicative of the Periplirastic Conjugations is often so used in the bistorical tenses, especially in conditional sentences (512.2):

Haec condítio non accǐpienda fuit, This condition should not have been accopted. Cic.
2. The Historical Tenses of the Indicative, particularly the Pluperfect, are sometimes used for Effect, to represent as an actual fact something which is shown by the context never to have become fully so :

Vicěrämus, nissi rěcěpisset Antōnium, We should have (lit. had) conqueved, had he not received Antony. Cic. See 511. 2.
3. Pronouns and Relative Adverbs, made general by being doubled or by assuming the suffix eunque (187.4), take the Indieative:

Quisquis est, is est săpiens, Whoever he is, he is wise. Cic. Hoc ulitimum, utcunque initum est, proelium fuit, This, however it was commenced, eoas the last battle. Liv.
4. In Expressions of Duty, Necessity, Albility, and the like, the Latin bfteu uses the Indicative where the English does not:

Tardius quam dêbuĕrat, more slowly than he should have done. Cic.

1) So also in sum with aequum, par, justum, mellius, vitlius, longum, diff ivite, ênd the like: Longum est perséqui âtilitates, It would be tedious (is a long task) to enumerate the uses. Cic.
SECTION V .
TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.
476. Tense in the Subjunetive does not designate the time of the action as definitely as in the Indicative, but it marks with great exactness its continuance or completion.
477. The Present and Imperfect express Incomplete action:

Văleant ciives, May the citizens be well. Cic. Utinam vêra invěnïre possem, $O$ that I were able to find the truth. Cie.
478. The Perfect and Pluperfect express Completed action:

Oblitus es quid diserrim, You have forgotten what $I$ said. Cic. Thèmistocles, quum Graeciam liberasset, expulsus est, Themistocles was banished, though he had liberated Greece. Cic.
479. The Future Tenses are wanting in the Subjunctive: the mood itself-used only of that which is merely conceived and uncertain-is so nearly related to the Future, that those tenses are seldom needed. Their place is however supplied, when necessary, by the periphrastic forms in rus (481. III. 1).
480. Sequence of Tenses.-The Subjunctive Tenses in their ase conform to the following
II. The Subjunctive dependent upon a Historical tense-imperfect, historical perfect, pluperfect-is put,

1. In the Imperfect for Incomplete Action:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Videbam quid ăğres, } & \text { Isano what you were doing. } \\
\text { Vidi quid ageres, } \\
\text { Videram quid ageres, } & \text { I sau what shat wou were doing } \\
\text { Vhat you were do }
\end{array}
$$

2. In the Pluperfect for Completed Action:

Videbbam quid érisses,
Vidi quid eqisses,
Vidi quid egisses,
I saw what you had done.
I saio what you had done.
Vidĕram quid egisses,
I had seen what you had done.
III. The Periphrastic Forms in rus conform to the rule:

Vídeo quid actarus sis, I see what you are going to do.
Videbbam quid actärus esses, $I$ savo what you were going to do.

1. Forune Surpured.-The Future is supplied when necessary (479), (1) by the Present 1 or Imperfect Subjunctive of the periphrastic forms in rus, or (2) by futurum sit $u t,{ }^{2}$ with the regular Present, and futarum esset $u t$, with the regular Imperfect. The first method is confined to the Active, the second occurs in both voices:

Incertum, est quam longa vita fũtara sit, It is uncertain hono long lifo will continue. Cic. Incertum èrat quo missûri classem fơrent, It wass uncertain whither they would sond the flect. Liv.
2. Future Perfect Supplied. - The Future Perfect is supplied, when necessary, by füturrum sit $u t$, with the Perfect, and futtarum exset $u t$, with the Pluperfect. But this circumlocution is rarely necessary. In the Passive it is sometimes abridged to futierus sim and füturus eseem, with the Perfect participle:

Non dübito quin confecta jam res fátura sit, I do not doubt that the thing will have been already accomplished. Cic.

IV, The Historical Present is treated sometimes as a Principal tense, as it really is in Form, and sometimes as a Historical tense, as it really is in Sense.

1. As Principal tense according to its Form:

Ubii Drant, ut sibi parcat, The Ubii implore him to spare them. Caes. 2. As Historical tense according to its Sense:

Persuădet Castico ut regnum occüpâret, He persuaded Casticus to seize the government. Caes.
V. The Imperifect Subrunotive often refers to present time, especially in conditional sentences (510. 1); accordingly, when thus used, it is treated as a Principal tense:

[^28]Mĕmŏrăre possem qưbus in lŏcis hostes füděrit, $I$ might (now) state in what places he routed the enemy. sall.
VI. The Present and Future Infinitives, Present and Future Pabtioiples, as also Gerunds and Supines, share the tense of the verb on which they depend, as they express only relative time (540.571):

Spëro fơre ${ }^{1}$ ut contingat, I hope it will happen (I hope it will be that may happen). Cic. Non spēriverrat fơre ut ad se dēfĩcěrent, He had not hoped that they rooudd revolt to him. Liv.
482. Pecullatities in Sequence.-The following peculiarities in the sequence of tenses deserve notice:

1. After Perfect Tense.-The Latin Perfect is sometimes treated as a Historical tense, even when rendered with have, and thus admits the Imperfect or Pluperfect:

Quŏnian quae subsidia hǎbēres expŏsui, ${ }^{2}$ nunc dĩcam, Since I have shown what aids you have (or had), I will now speak. Cic.
2. After Historical Tensps.-Conversely Historical tenses, when followed by clauses denoting consequence or result, often conform to the law of sequence for Principal tenses, and thus admit the Present or Perfect:

Epăminondas fĩde sic ūsus est, ut possit jūdicări, Epaminondas uszd such fidelity that it may bo judged. Nep. Adeo excellebat Aristides abstinnentia, ut Justus sit appellatus, Aristides so excelled in self-control, that he has been called the Just. Nep.

This peculiarity arises from the fact that the Result of a past action may itself be present and may thus be expressed by a Principal tense. When the result belongs to the present time, the Present is used: possit jüdicär $\hat{\imath}$, may be judged now; when it is represented as at present completed, the Perfect is used: sit appellatus, has been called i. e. even to the present day; but when it is representel as simultaneous with the action on which it depends, the Imperfect is used in accordance with the general rule of sequence ( 450 ).
3. In Indireot Discourse, Oratio Obliqua.- In indirect discourse (528. and 533.1) dependent upon a Historical tense, the narrator often uses the Principal tenses to give a lively effect to his narrative ; oceasionally also in direct discourse:

Exitus fuit ôrātiônis: Něque ullos văcäre agros, qui dări possint; The close of the oration was, that there voro (are) not eany lands unoccupied which coutd (can) be given. Caes.
${ }^{1}$ Here före shares the tense of spèro, and is accordingly followed by the Present contingat, but below it shares the tense of spèraveirat, and is accordingly followed by the Imperfect deficetrent.
${ }^{2}$ Exprisui, though best rendered by our Perf. Def. with have, is in the Latin treated as the Historical Perf. The thought is as follows: Since in the preceding topics I ect forth the aids whith you hatt, I will novo speak, \&c.

## SECTION VI.

## USE OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

483. The Subjunctive represents the action of the verb, not as an actual fact, but as something supposed or conceived. It may denote that the action is conceived,
484. As Possible, Potential.
485. As Desirable.
486. As a Purpose or Result.
487. As a Condition.
488. As a Concession.
489. As a Cause or Reason.
490.     - As an Indirect Question.
491. As dependent upon another subordinate action: (1) By Attraction after another Subjunctive, (2) In Indirect Discourse.
492. Varieties.-The Subjunctive in its various uses may accordingly be characterized as follows:
I. The Potential Subjunctive.
II. The Subjunctive of Desire.
III. The Subjunctive of Purpose or Result
IV. The Subjunctive of Condition.
V. The Subjunctive of Concession.
VI. The Subjunctive of Cause or Reason.
VII. The Subjunctive in Indirect Questions.
VIII. The Subjunctive by Attraction.
IX. The Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse.

## I. The Potential Subuunctive.

## RULE XXXVIII-Potential Subjunctive.

485. The Potential Subjunctive represents the ac tion not as real, but as possible:

Forsitan quaerätis, Perhaps you may inquive, Cie. Hoc nēmo dixečrit, No one woould say this. Cie. Huie eēdămus, hujus condǐtiōnes audiämus, Shall we yidd to him, shall we listen to his terms? Cic. Quis dübitet ( $=$ nēmo dübitatt), Who would doubt, or veho doubts ( $=$ no one doubts)? Cic. Quid fäcçrem, What was I to do, or what should I have done? Virg.
486. Application of the Rule.-In the Potential sense, the Subjunctive is used,
I. In Declarative Sentences, to express an affirmation doubtfully or conditionally, as in the first and second examples.
II. In Questions of Appeal, ${ }^{1}$ to ask not what is, but what may be or should be, generally implying a negative answer, as in the last example under the rule.
III. In Subordinate Clauses, whatever the connective, to represent the action as possible rather than real:
Quamquam épulis căreat sènectus, though old aqe may be without its fcast. Cic. Qubninm non possent, since they would not be able. Caes. posceret, whenever the case might demand. Liv.
Here the subjunetive after, quamquam, quEniam, and $\dot{u} b$, is entirely independent of thoso conjunctions. In this way many conjunctions which do not require the Subjunetive, admit that mood whenever the thought requires it.

1. Use of rie Potextial Subuective, -This Subjunctive, it will be observed, has a wide application, and is used in almost all kinds of sentences and clauses, whether declarative or interrogative, principal or subordinate, whether introduced by conjunctions or relatives.
2. How rendered. - The Potential Subjunctive is generally best rendered by our Potential signs-may, can, must, might, etc., or by shall or will.
3. Ixclination.-The Subjunctive sometimes denotes inelination:

Ego censeam, I should think, or I am inclined to think. Liv.
4. Imprrpect yor Pluprrifer. - In the Potential sense, the Imperfect is often used where we should expect the Pluperfect: dicires, you would have said; credères, pưtäres, you would have thought; videires, cerneres, you would have seen.

Moesti, erederes rictos, recdeunt in castra, Sad, vanquished you would have thought them, they returned to the camp. Liv.
5. Subjusctive of Repeated Action.-Subordinate clanses in narration sometimes take the Subjunctive to denote that the action is often or indefinitely repeated. Thus with uibi, whenever, quठties, as often as, quicunque, whoever, $u t$ quisque, as each one, and the like:

Id fetialis übi dixisset, hastam mitterbat, The fetial priest was wont to lurl a spear whenever (i. e., every time) he had said this. Liv.
6. Present and Perpect.-In the Potential Subjunctive the Perfect often has nearly the same force as the Present:

Tu Plǎtonem laudāvēris, You would praise Plato. Cic. TRDA 1) The Perfect with the force of the Present ocours also in some of the other uses of the Subjunctive.
7. Conditional Sextences.-The Subjunctive in the conclusion of conditional sentences is the Potential Subjunctive, but conditional sentences will be best treated by themselves. See 502 .

[^29]
## II. The Subuunctive of Desire.

## RULE XXXIX.-Desire, Command.

487. The Subjunctive of Desire represents the action not as real, but as desired:

Valeant cives, May the citizens be well. Cic. Amēmus patriam, Let us love our country. Cie. Rōbŏre âtăre, Use your strength. Cic. Scribĕre ne pigrexre, Do not neglect to write. Cic.
488. Applioation of the Rule.-The Subjunctive of Desire is used,
I. To express a wish, as in prayers, exhortations, and entreaties, as in the first and second examples.
II. To express a command mildly, as in admonitions, precepts, and varnings, as in the third and fourth examples.

1. With Utivas.-The Subjunctive of Destre is often accompanied by uitraam, and sometimes-especially in the poets, by $u t$, si, osi :
Utĩnam cơnâta efficerre possim, May I be able to acoomplieh my endeavors. Cic.
2. Fonce of Tenses.-The Present and Perfect imply that the wish may be fulfilled; the Imperfect and Pluperfect, that it cannot be fulfilled:

Sint beãti, May they be happy. Cic. Ne transiéris Ibêrum, Do not cross the Ebro. Liv. Utinam possem, utinam potuissem, Would that I were able, would that Ihad been able. Cic. See also 486. 6.1).

The Imperfect and Pluperfect may often be best rendered, should have been, ought to have been:

Hoc dicecrect, He should have said this. Cic. Mortem oppetilises, You should have met death. Cle.
3. Negative Ne , - With this Subjunctive the negative is ne, rarely non: Ne audennt, Let them not dare. Cic. Non recediamus, Let us not trecede. Cic.
4. In Asseverations.-The first person of the subjunctive is often found in earnest or solemn affirmations or asseverations:

Mơriar, si pŭto, May I die, if I think. Cic. Ne sim salvus, si scribo, May I not be sofe, if I write. Cic.
So with ita and sic: Sollicitat, Ita vivam, As Ilive, it troubles me. Cic.
Here ita vivam means literally, may I so fice, L. e., may $I$ live only in case this is true.
5. Is Relative Clatses.-The Subjunctive of desire is sometimes used in relative clauses:

Quod faustum sit, rēgem creăte, Elect a king, and may it be an auspicious event (may which be auspicious). Liv. Sénectus, ad quam ŭťnam pervěniatis, old age, to which may you attain. Cie.
III. Subjunctive of Purpose or Result.

## RULE XL,-Purpose or Result.

489. The Subjunctive of Purpose or Result is used, I. With ut, ne, quo, quin, quōminnus:

Purpose.-Enititur ut vincat, He etrives that he may conquer. Cic. Panit ne peceêtur, He punishics that crime may not be committed. Sen.

Resurx. - Ita vixit ut Athēniensibus esset cärissimnas, He so lived that he vas very dear to the A thenians. Nep.

## II. With qui $=u t$ is, $u t$ ĕgo, tu, etc.:

Purposs.-Missi sunt, qui (ut ii) consülërent Apollinem, They voere seat to consult Apolto (who should or that they should). Nep.

Resurt.-Nor is sum qui (ut ego) his atar, $I$ am not such an one as to use these thinge. Cic.

1. Ut with the Suty metive sometimes forms with fuicio, or dgo, rarely with ert a circumlocution for tho Indicative: fuctio at dicam = dies; ficcio ut scribam $=$ scribo: Invftus fielo ut ricorider, 1 uncilitingly recall. Cic.
Conjunctions of Purpose or Result.
2. Ut and Ne.- Ut and ne are the regular conjunctions in clauses denoting Purpose or Result. Ut and ne denote Purpose ; ut and ut non, Result.
3. With connective ne becomes nèbe, neu, rarely néque. Nêve; neu, $=$ aut ne or
 one should be accused or punished. Nep.
4. Pure Purpose.-Ut and ne-that, in order that, that not, in order that not, lest, etc.-are used after verbs of a great variety of significations to express simply the Purpose of the action. A correlative-ideo, idcireo, etc. -may or may not precede

Lêgum idcireo servi sŭmus, ut lỉběri esse possimmus, We are servants of the lawo for this reason, that we may be free. Ci.. See also the examples under the Rule.
492. Mixed Purpose.-In their less obvious applications, ut and ne are used to denote a Purpose which partakes more or less of the character of a Direct Object, sometimes of a Subject, Predicate or Appositive-Mixed Purpose. Thus with verbs and expressions denoting

1. Effort.-striving for a purpose; attaining a purpose: nitor, contendo, stŭdeo,-caro, id ăgo, ŏp九̆ram do, etc., fâcio, efficio, impetro, consơquor, etc.

Contendit, ut vincat, He strives to conquer. Cic. Cûrãvi ut běne vivè rem, I took care to lead a good life. Sen. Effecit ut impěrā̆tor mittérêtur, He caused a commander to be sent (attained his purpose). Nep. But see 495.
2. Exhortation, Impulse-urging one to effort:
 praecipio, etc.:

Te hortor ut lĕgas, Iexhiort you to read. Cic. Mŏrêmur ut bǒni simus, We are influenced to be good, Cic. Te rŏgo ut eum jŭves, $I$ aek you to aid him. Cic. See also 551 . II. 1 and 2 ; 558. VI.
3. Desire and ixs Expression : hence decision, decree, etc.:
opto, postülo,-censeo, dēcerno, stǎtuo, constituo, etc.-rarely vǒlo, nōlo, mălo:

Opto ut id audiastis, I desive (pray) that you may hear this. Cie. Sennūopto ut id audiatis, I desire (pray) that you may hear thied. Cic. Sênièdefend the Aedui. Caes. See 551. II. and 558. II. and VI.
4. Fear, Danger:
mětuo, tìmeo, věreor, -perrícŭlum est, câra est, etc. :
Tïmeo, ut sustinneas, I fear you will not endure them. Cic. Vêreor ne lăbörem augeam, I fear that I shall increase the labor. Cic.

1) By a Difference of taiom ut must here be rendered that not, and ne by that or test. The Latin treats the clanse as a wish, a desired purpose.
test. The Latin treats the clanse as a wish, a desires purpose,
2) After verbs of fearing ne non is sometines used for $u t$, regularly so after nogative ellauses: Värcor ne non possit, Ifear that he veill not be able. Cie.
3) After verbs of fearing, especially verceor, the infnitivo is sometimes used:, V čreor laudìre, Ifear (hesitate) to praise. Cic.
493. Peculiarities.-Expressions of Purpose present the following peeuliarities:
494. Ut ne, rarely ut non, is sometimes used for ne:

Praedixit, nt ne lêgatos dimittěrent, He charged them not to (that they should not) release the delegates. Nep. Ut plara non dicam, not to say more, should that I may not. Cie.
2. Ut is sometimes omitted, especially with völo, nôlo, mâlo, fücio, and verbs of directing, urging, etc. Ne is often omitted with cüre:

Tu reclim sis, I desire that you may be. Cic. Fac hăbens, see (make) that you have. Oic. Sčnātus decrēvit, dărent ơpêram consưles, The senate decreed that the consuls stould see to it. Sall. See also 585. 1, 2).
3. Clauses with $U t$ and Ne may depend upon a noun or upon a verb omitted:

Fēeit päcem his condütiōnỉbus, ne qui afficěrentur exsllio, He madepeace on these terms, that none should be punished with exile. Nep. Ut Ita dicam, so to speak (that I may speak thus). Cic. This is often inserted in a sentence, like the English so to speak.
4. Nēdum and $N e$ in the sense of much less, not to say, are used with the Subjunctive:

Vix in tectis frigus vitätur, nēdum in mări sit făchle, The cold is avoided with difficulty in our houses, much less is it easy (to avoil it) on the sea. Gic.
494. Pure Result.-Ut and ut non-so that, so that not-are often used with the Subjunctive, to express simply a Result or a Consequence:

Ita vixit ut Athēniensibus esset cärissimus, He so lived that he was very dear to the Atherians. Nep. Ita laudo, ut non pertǐmescam, I so praise as not to fear. Cie.

A correlative-ita in these examples-generally precedes; thus, ita, sic, tam, ädeo, tantopire, -tälis, tantue, shusmëdi.
495. Mixid Result.-In their less obvious applications, ut and ut non are used with the Subjunctive to denote a Result which partakes of the character of a Direct Object, Subject, Predicate, or Appositive: Thus

1. Clauses as Obeeot axd Restit occar with fücio, eff cicio, of the action of irrational forces;

Sol efficit ut omnia fiogreant, The sun causes all things to bloom, i. e., produces that result. Cic. See 492.1 .
2. Clauses as Subject and Reself occur with impersonal verbs signifying it happens, remains, follows, is distant, etc.:
acč̌dit, contingit, êvěnit, fit, restat,-sěqǔ̌tur,-ǎbest, etc.
Fit ut quisque delectetur, The result is (it happens) that every one is delighted. Cic. Séquitur ut falsum sit, it follows that it is false. Cic.

1) The Subjunctive is sometimes, though rarely, used when the predicate is a Noun or Adjective with the copula sum:

Mos est ut nōlint, It is their custom not to be willing (that they are unwilling). Cic. Proximum est, ut dorceam, The neat point is, that $I$ shovo. Cic. See 556. I. 1 and 2.
2) Subjunctive Clauses with $u t$, in the form of questions expressive of surprise, sometimes stand alone, by the omission of some predicate, as cridendum est, verisimile est, is it to be credited, is it probable?

Tu ut unquam te corrigas, that you should ever reform? i. e., Is it to be supposed that you will ever reform? Cic.
3) See also 556 with its subdivisions.
3. Clauses as Appositive and Result, or Predicate and Result, occur with Demonstratives and a few Nouns:

Hǎbet hoe virtus ut delectet, Virtue has this advantage, that it delights. Cie. Est hoe vitium, ut invidia gloriae colmes sit, There is this faull, that
envy is the companion of glory. Nep. envy is the companion of glory. Nep.
496. Peculiarities.-Expressions of Result present the following peculiarities:

1. $U t$ is sometimes omitted, regularly so with orportet, generally with ơpus est and nécesse est:

Te ǒportet virtus trăhat, It is necessary that virtue should attract you. Cic. Causam hăbeat něcesse est, It is nocessary that it should have a couse. Cic.
2. The Subjunctive occurs with Quam-with or without ut:

Libbĕrälius quam ut posset, too freely to be able (more freely than so as to be able). Nep. Impōnēbat amplius quam ferre possent, He imposed more than they were able to bear.
3. Tantum äbcst.-After tantum ăbest ut, denoting result, a secondeut of result sometimes occurs :

Phĭľsơphia, tantum ǎbest, ut laudêtur ut ětiam v̌tŭpěrētur, So far is it from the truth (so much is wanting), that plitosophy is praised that it is even consured. Cic.
497. Quo.-Quo, by which, that, is sometimes used for $u t$, especially with comparatives:
Medico dăre quo sit stưdiossior, to give to the physiciann, llaut (by this means) he may be more attentive. Cic.

For non quo of Cause, see 520. 3.
498. Quin.-Quin (qui and ne), by which not, that not, is often used to introduce a Purpose or Result after negatives and interrogatives implying a negative. Thus

1. Quin is often used in the ordinary sense of ne and ut non:

Rětĭnĕri non pǒtěrant, quin tela conjiceěrent, They could not be restrained from hurling (that they might not) their weapons. Caes. Nihil est tam difficile quin (ut non) investigāri possit, Nothing is so difficult that it may not be investigated. Ter.
may not be investigated. Ter.
after verbs of hindering, opporing, and the like, quin was the force of ne.
2. Quin is often used after Nemo, Nullus, Nihil, Quis?

Adest nēmo, quin videat, There is no one present who does not see. Cic. Quis est quin cernat, Who is there who does not perceive? Cic.

18 or $i u$ is sometimes expressed after quin:
Ninil est quin id interreat, There is nothing which does not perish. Cic.
3. Quin is often used in the sense of that, but that, without with a participial noun, especially after negative expressions, implying doubt, uncertainty, omission, and the like:

Non est dưbium quin běněf f̌cium sit, There is no doubt that it is a benefit. Sen. Nullum intěrmīsi diem quin all̆quid dărem, $I$ allowed no day to
pass, without giving something. Cic. Fŭcěre non possum quin littĕras mittam, I eannot but send a letter. Cic

1) Such expressions are: non dūbito, non dũbium est-non multum äbest, pan-
 non, nihil practermitto-ficĕre non possum, fièri non potest.
2) The Infitive, for ouin with the Subjunctive, occurs with verbs of doubting owis dubitat pittire Eurōpam, Who doubts that Europe is exposed? Curt. 8) Non Qu'n of Cause. See 520.8.
3) Outh is used in questions in the sense of ochy not? and with the Imperative ense of rell but: Quin arrite but come. Virs. It occasionally means nay, in the sense
499. Quomnus.-Quominus (quo and minus), that thus the less, that not is sometimes used for ne and ut non, after verbs of hindering, opposing, and the like :

Non dēterret săpientem mors quōminnus reipublicae consǔlat, Deafl does not deter a vise man from detiberating for the ropublic. Cie. Non rěeusavit, quominus pocnam sưbiret, He did not refuse to submil to pumishment. Nep. - Per eum stětit quōminnus dimicărētur, It vos oroing to lainn (stood through him), that the engagement was not made. Cats.

1. Expressions of hindering, ete., are: déterreo, impüăio, pröhibeo,-obsto, obsisto, officio,-récusso, per me stat, etc
2. Verbs of hindering admit a variety of constructions: the Infinitive, the Subjunctive with ut, ne, quo quin, on quöminus.

## Roclative of Purpose or Result.

500. A Relative Clause denoting a Purpose or a Reult is equivalent to a clause with $u t$, denoting purpose or result, and takes the Subjunctive for the same reason. The relative is then equivalent to $u t$ with a pronoun : $q u i=u t$ ego, ut tu, ut is, ett. :

Purpose.- Missi sunt qui (ut ii) consŭlĕrent Apollinem, They were sent o consult Apollo (who should, or that they should). Nep. Missi sunt deleeti qui Thermöpylhas occưparent, Picked men were sent to take possession of Thermopylac. Nep.

Ressur. - Non is sum quí ( $=$ ut $\quad$ goo his itar, $I$ am not such a one asto use these things. Cic. Inñcentia est affectio talis ăñmi, quae $(=u t$ ca) ň"ceat nēminii, Trnocence is succh a s'ate of mind as injures no one, or as to inceat nemmi,
jure no one. Cic.

1. Relative Partioles.-The subjunctive is used in the same way in clauses introduced by relatice particles; übi, unde, etc.:

Dormum übi hăbitâret, leggit, Ho selected a house that he might dreell in it (where he might dwell). Cic.
2. Purposs and Resels-Relative clauses denoting purpose are readily recognized; those denoting result are used, in their more obvions applieations, after such words as $t a m$, so ; talis, is, ejusmedi, such, as in the above examples; but see also 501
3. Ismoative after Tadis, btc.-In a relative clause after tâlis, $i s$, etc., the Indicative is sometimes used to give prommence to the faet:

Mihi causa tailis oblìta est, in qua ôrâtio deesse nêmini pôtest, Such a cause hau been offered me, (one) in which no one can fail of an oration. Cic
501. Relative clauses of Result, in their less obvious applications, include,
I. Relative clauses after Indefinite and General antecedents. Here tam, tälis, or some such word, may often be supplied:

Nunc dicis ăliquid (ejusmoddi, or tâle) quod ad rem pertineat, Now you state something which belongs to the subject (i. e., something of sucb a character as fo belong, etc.). Cic. Sunt qui pütent, there are some who think. Cic. Nemo est qui non cúpiat, there is no one who does not lesire, i. e., such as not to desire. Cic.

1. In the same way quod, or a relative particle, ǔbi, unde, quo, cur, etc, with the Subjunctive, is used after est, there is reason, non est, nithil cosh, there is no reason, quid est, what reason is there? non hibleo, nithil hiben, I have no reason:

Est quod gandeas, There is reason why you should refoice, or so that you may. Plaut. Non est quod crèdas, There is no reasen why you should believe. Sen. Nihil häbeo, quod facusem sěncetūtem, $I$ have no veason why $I$ should accuse old age. Cic
2. Indicative after Indefintios Antegedent,-A Relative clause after an indefinite antecedent also takes the Indicative, when the fact itself is to be made prominent:

Sunt qui non andent dicêre, There are some who (actunilly) do not dare to speak. Cic. Mnlta sunt, quae dici possunt, There are many things which may bo In peetry and late prose the Indictire often fllows a
noctry and late prose the Indicative often follows sunt qui:
3. Restrictive Clateshe with guod, as muod sciam, as
ar as I know; quod II. Pelative clauses after Unus, sulus, and the like, take the subjunctive:

Săpientia est ûna, quae moestǐtiam pellat, Wisdom is the onty thing which dropels sadness (such as to dispel). Cie. Söli centum errant qui creäri possent, There were only one hundred who could be appointed (such that they could be). Liv.
III. Relative clauses after Dignus, Inägnus, Idōneus, and Aptus take the subjunctive:

Fäbŭlae dignae sunt, quae lěgantur, The fables are vorthy to be read (that they should be read). Cic. Rofum Caesar İdōneum judicãvěrat quem mittěret, Caesar hadjudged Rufus a suitable person to send (whom he might send). Caes.
IV. Relative clauses after Comparatives with Quam take the subjunctive

Damna majöra sunt quam quae $(=u t e a)$ aestimäri possint, The losses are too great to be estimated (greater than so that they can be). Liv.

## IV. Subjunctive of Condimon.

502. Every conditional sentence consists of two distinct parts, expressed or understood,-the Condition and the Conclusion:

Si něgem, mentiar, If I should deny it, I should speak falsely. Cic. Here si negem is the condition, and mentiar, the conclusion.

## RULE XLI.-Subjunctive of Condition.

503. The Subjunetive of Condition is used,
I. With dum, mðdo, dummodo:

Mănent ingěnia, moัdo permăneat industria, Mental potvere remain, if only industry remains. Cic.
II. With ac si, ut si, quăsi, quam si, tanquam, tanquam si, vělut, vèlut si:

Crudelitatem, vèlut si ädésset, horrēbant, They shuddered at his cruelty, as if he were present. Caes.
III. Sometimes with si, nisi, ni, sin, qui $=s i$ is, si quis:

Dies dēficiat, si vělim nŭměräre, The day would faul me, if $I$ should wish to recount. Cie. Impröbe fêcěris, nǐsi mönuěris, You zould do worong, if you should not give warning. Cic. Si vorluisset, dimiccasset, If he had

1. Si Omitted.-Two clanses without any conjunction sometimes have the force of a conditional sentence:

Něgat quis, něgo, Does any one deny, I deny. Ter. Rǒges me, nihil respondeam, Should you ask me, I should make no reply. Cic. See also Imperative, 585.2 .
2. Condition Supplied.-The condition may be supplied,

1) By Participles: Non pǒtestis, vǒluptāte omnia dirigentes (si dïrigh̆ tis), rětĭnēre virtûtem, You cannot retain your manhood, if you arrange all things with reference to pleasure. Cic.
2) By Oblique Cases: Nêmo sinne spe (nïsi spem häbared) se offerret ad mortem, No one without a hope (if he had not a hope) would expose himself to death. Cic.
3. Irony.-The condition is sometimes ironical, especially with $n i s i$ vèro, nisi forte with the Indicative, and with quăsi, quüsi vèro with the Present or Perfect Subjunctive:

Nisi forte insänit, unless perhiaps he is insane. Cic. Quăsi vêro něcesse sit, as if indeed it were necessary. Caes.
4. Irs-sr, erc.-Ita-si, so-if, means oniy-if. Si quidem, if indeed, sometimes has nearly the force of since.
5. Et omitted.-See 587. I. 6.
504. Force of Tenses.-In conditional sentences the Present and Perfect tenses represent the supposition as not at all improbable, the Imperfect and Pluperfect represent it as contrary to the fact. See examples above. See also 476 to 478.

1. Peesent for Imperpect.-The Present Subjunctive is sometimes used for the Imperfect, when a condition, in itself contrary to reality, is still conceived of as possible :

Tu si hic sis, allter sentias, If you were the one (or, should be), you would think differently. Ter.
2. Imperfect for Pluprryect.-The Imperfect Subjunctive is sometimes used for the Pluperfect, with the nice distinction that it contemplates the supposed action as going on, not as completed:

Num Opimium, si tum esses, těměrärium cīvem pǔtāres? Would you think Opimitus an audacious citizen, if you vere living at that time (Pluperf. would you have thought-if you had lived)? Cic.
505. Duñ, Mŏdo, Dumarŏdo.-Dum, mŏdo, and dummǒdo, in conditions, have the force of- if only, provided that, or with ne, if only-not, provided that not:

Dum res măneant, verba fingant, Let them make words, if only the facts remain. Cic. Mŏdo permăneat industria, if only industry remains. Cic. Dummǒdo rěpellat pěricŭlum, provided he may avert danger. Cic. Mǒdo ne laudārent, if only they did not praise. Cic.

When not used in conditions, these conjunctions often admit the indieative:
Dum leges vigetant, whitle the lanos were in force. Cic.
503. Ac st, Ut si, Quǐsi, etc.-Ac si, ut si, quam si, quăsi, tanquam, tanquam si, vělut, vělut si, involve an ellipsis of the real conclusion:

Miserior es, quam si čululos non habberres, You are moro unhappy than (esses, you would be) if you had not eyes. Cic./ Cradeititatem, vèlut si a desset, horrébant, They shuddered at his cruelty as (they would) if ho were present. Caes. Ut si in suam rem alliena convertant, as if they sloudd appropriate others possessions to their own use. Cic. Tanquam audiant, as if they ate others posses
$C_{\text {eu }}$ and $S i e n ̃ t i$ are sometimes used in the same way:
Cen bellh forent, as if there weere wars. Virg. Sientiti audiri possent, as if they could be heard. Sall.
507. St, Nisr, Ní, Siv, Qur.-The Latin distinguishes three distinct forms of the conditional sentence with $s i$, $n \check{s} i, n i$, sin:
I. Indicative in both Clauses.
II. Subjunctive, Present or Perfect, in both Clauses. III. Subjunctive, Imperfect or Pluperfect, in both Clauses.
508. First Form.-Indicative in both Clauses.-This form assumes the supposed case as real, basing upon it any statement which would be admissible, if it were a known fact :

Si haee civitas est, civis sum ügo, If this is a state, I am a citizen. Cic. Si non liceēbat, non nécesse errat, If it was not lawful, it was nol necessary. Cic. Dŏlörem si non pơte̛ro frangěre, occultảbo, If I shall not be able to overcome sorrow, $I$ will concecal it. Cie. Parvi sunt foris arma, nisi est consilium domi, Arms are of litle value abroad, unless there is wisdom at home. Cie.

1. Cosprrtos.- The condition is introduced, when affirmative, by $s i$, with or without other particles, as quidem, mödo, etc., and when negative, by oi nom, nisis, ni. The time may be either present, past, or future. See examples above.
2. Coscucsion.-The conclasion may take the form of a command :

Si peccitivi, ignosce, If I have arred, pardon me. Cic.
3. Si xos, Nisi.- Si non and nisi are often used without any perceptible difference of meaning; but strictly si non introduces the negative condition on which the conclusion depends, while nisi introduces a qualification or an exeption. Thus in the second example above the meaning is, If it was not lawful, it follows that it waas not necessary, while in the fourth If it was not laveful, it follows that it was not necasary, whil
the meaning is, Arms are of little value abroad, except, when there is sivislom the mea
509. Second Form.-Subjunctive Present or Perfect in both Clauses.-This form assumes the condition as possible:

Haec si tēcum patria lŏquatur, nonne impeträre dēbeat, If your country should speak thus with you, ought she not to obtain her request? Cic. Impröbe fecerris, nisi mơnuĕris, You mould do wrong, if you should not give vearning. Cic. See also examples under the Rule, 503 ; also 486. 7 .

When dependent upon a Historical tense, the Present and Perfect are of course generally changed to the Imperfect and Pluperfect, by the law for Sequence of tenses (480).

Mơtuit ne, si Iret, retrăhĕrētur, He foared lest if he should go, he might be brought back. Liv.
510. Third Form.-Subjunctive Imperfect or Pluperfect in both Clauses. -This form assumes the supposed case as contrary to the reality, and simply states what would have been the result, if the condition had been fulfilled:

Sŭpientia non expectěrêtur, si nihil efficcĕret, Wisdom would not be sought (as it is), if it accomplished nothing. Cic. Si optìma těnēre possēmus, haud sāne consilio ëgêreèmus, If we were able to secure the highest good, wee should not indeed need counsed. Cic. Si vorluisset, dïmiceasset, If he had wished, he would have fougld. Nep. Nunquam ăbisset, nisi sibi viam münlvisset, He zoould never have gone, if he had not prepared for limself a way. Cic. See also 486. 7.

1. Here the Imperfect relates to Present time, as in the first and second examples: the Pruperfect to Past time, as in the third and fourth examples.
2. In the Periphrastic forms in rus and dus and in expressions of Duty, Necessity, and Ability, the Perfect and Imperfect Indicative sometimes occur in the conclusion.

Quid fưtarum fuit, si plebs ăǧtâri coepta esset, What vould have boen the result, if the plebeians lad begun to be agitated? Liv. See also 512. 2.

1) When the contest, frrespective of the condition, requires the Subjunctive, the tenso remains unchanged withont reference to tho tense of the principal verb:
Adeo est Inöpla coactus ut, nisit timuikset, Galliam rèpètitürus faürlt, He was so presed by wont that if he had not feared, he woold have returned to Gaul. Liv. Here $r$ pectititurus fuerit is in the Subj. not because it is in a conditional sentence, - but because it is the Subj. of Result with $u t$; but it is in the Perfect, because, if it were not dependent, the Perfect Indicative would have been used.
511. Mixed Forms.-The Latin sometimes unites a condition belonging to ene of the three regular forms with a conclusion belonging to another, thus producing certain Mixed Forms.
I. The Indicative sometimes occurs in the Condition with the Subjunctive in the Conclusion, but here the Subjunctive is generally dependent not upon the condition, but upon the very nature of the thought:

Pěream, si pǒtèrunt, May $I_{\text {perishl (subj. of desire, 487), if they shall }}^{\text {lat }}$ be able. Cic. Quid tǐmeam, si beătus füturus sum, Why should I faar (486. I.), if Lam to be happy? Cic.
II. The Subjunctive sometimes ocerrs in the Condition with the Indicative in the Conclusion. Here the Indicative often gives the effect of reality to the conclasion, even though in fact dependent upon contingencies; but see also 512 :

Dies déficiect, si vèlim causam dêfendĕre, The day voould (will) fail me, if I should woish to defend the cause. Cic. Vicêrämus nǐsi rěcêpisset Antōnium, We had conquered, had he not recived Antony. Cic.

1．The Future Indicative is often thus usea in consequence of its near relation－ ship in force to the Subjunctive，as whatever is Future is more or less contingent． See first example．

2．The Illstorical tenses，especially the Pluperfect，are sometimes used，for effect， 2．Then an actual fiet something whioh is shown by the context never to have become fully so，as in the last example．

3．Conditional sentences made np partly of the second form（509）and partly of the theted are rare．

512．Subiunctive and Indicative．－The combination of the Subjunctive in the Condition with the Indicative in the Conclusion is often only apparent．Thus

1．When the truth of the eonclusion is not in reality affected by the condition，as when si has the force of ceven if，although：

Si hoe plăceat，tămen vorlunt，Even if（although）this pleascs them，they still wish．Cic．

2．When that which stands as the conclusion is such only in appear－ ance，the real conclusion being understood．This occurs

1）With the Indicative of Dibeo，Possum，and the like：
Quem，si ulla in te piětas esset，collerre dēbēbas，Whom you ought to kave Que， Cic．Deleéri exercìtus pǒtuit，si persěcūti victōres essent，The army might have been destroyed（and would have been），if the victors had pursued．Liv．

2）With the Imperfect and Perfect Indicative of other verbs，especial－ ly if in a periphrastic conjugation or accompanied by Paene or Pröpe：

Rêlictưri agros êrant，nîsi littĕras misisset，They vereabout to leave their lands（and would have done so），had he not sent a letter．Cic．Pons iter paene hostibus dedit，ni ünus vir fuisset，Z⿻丷木犬 bridge almost furnished a pas－ sage to the enemy（and would have done so），had there not been oneman．Liv．

513．Relative involving Condition．－The relative takes the subjunctive when it is equivalent to si or dume with the subjunctive：

Errat longe，qui crēdat，etc．，He greatly erre who sumposes，etc．，i．e．， if or provided any one supposes，he greatly errs．Ter．Haec qui videat， cōgãtur，If any one should see these things，he would be compelled．Cie．


514．A concessive clause is one which concedes or admits something，generally introduced in English by though or although：

Quamquam intelligunt，though they understand．Cic．

## RULE XLII．－Subjunctive of Concession．

515．The Subjunctive of Concession is used，
I．With licet，quamvis，quantumvis，－ut，ne，quum，although： Lǐcet irrideat，plus tămen rătio välębit，Though he may deride，reason woill yet avail more．Cic．Ut desint vires，tămen est laudanda volluntas， Though the strength fails，still the will should be approved．Ovid．

II．With qui＝quum（licet）is，quum ěgo，ete．，though he：
Absolvite Verrem，qui（quum is）se fâteâtur pěcūnias cêpisse，Acquit Verres，though he confesses（who may confess）that he has accepted money． Cic．

III．Generally with etsi，tămetsi，ětiamsi：
Quod sentiunt，etsi optǐmum sit，tămen non audent dicěre，They do not dure to state what they think，even if（though）it be most excellent．Cie．

516．Concessive Clauses may be diyided into three classes：

I．Concessive Clauses with quamquam in the best prose generally take the Indicative：
Quamquam intelligunt，tămen nuuquam dicunt，Though they understand， they never speak．Cic．

1．The Subjunctive may of course follow quamquam，whenever the thonght itself，irrespective of the concessive character of the clanse，requires that mood（4S5）．

2．The Subjunctive，even in the best prose，sometimes occurs with quamquam where we should expect the Indicative：Quamquam ne id quidem suspiciornem hatbu－ irit，Though not even that gave rise to any sumpicion．Cic

3．In poetry and some of the later prose，the subjunctive with quamquam is not uncommon．In Tacitus it is the prevailing construction．
4．Quamquam and etsi sometimes have the force of yet，but yet，and yet： Quamquam quid loquor，And yet what do Isay？Cle．

II．Concessive Clauses with licet，quamvis，quantumvis， －ut，ne，quum，although ；－qui＝quum（or licet）is，ego， tu，etc．，take the Subjunctive ：

Non tu possis，quantumvis excellas，You would not be able，however mucho （although）you excel．Cic．Ne sit summum mălum dôlor，mălum certe est， Though pain may not be the greatest avil，it is cortainly an evil．Cic．See 518. I．Ur axd Ne．－This concessive use of $u t$ and ne may readily be ex－ plained by supplying some verb like fac or sine：thus，ut desint vires（515． I．）＝fac or sine ut desint vires，make or grant that strength fails．See 489．

The Concessive Particls is sometimes omitted ：
Sed hăbeat，tămen，But grant that it has it，yet．Cic．
Ux－sic or ITA，as－so，though－yet，does not require the subjunctive．
2. Quamyis axd Quantuyyis.-These are strictiy adverbs, in the sense of however much, but they generally give to the clause the force of a concession. When used with their simple adverbial force to qualify adjectives, they do not affect the mood of the clause : quamvis multi, however many.
3. Mood with Quanvis.-In Cicero and the best prose, quamvis takes the Subjunctive almost without exception, generally also in Livy and Nepos; but in the poets and later prose writers it often admits the Indicative:

Erat dignitute régia, quamvis cĩrébat nōmine, He was of royal dignity, though he was without the name. Nep.
4. Relative in Coxcessioss.- The relative denoting concession is equivalent to liact, or quum, in the sense of though, with a Demonstrative or Personal pronoun, and takes the Subjunctive for the same reason: $q u i=$ licet (quum) is, fich ego, tu, etc. See eamples under the Rule, 515.
III. Concessive Clauses with the compounds of si: etsi, étiamsi, tametsi in the use of Moods and Tenses conform to the rule for conditional clauses with $s i$ :

Etsi niliul hăbeat in se gloria, tămen virtatem sĕquǐtur, Though glory may not pasesess anything in itself, yet it follows virtuc. Cic. Etiamsi mors oppétenda esset, erentr${ }^{t}$ death ought to bo met. Cic.

## VI. Subuunctive of Cause and Time. <br> RULE XLIII.-Subjunctive of Cause.

517. The Subjunctive of Cause or Reason is used,
I. With quum (cum), since; qui = quum is, etc.:

Quum vita métus plèna sit, since life is full of fear. Cic. Quae quum îta sint, perge, Since these things are so, proceed. Cic. 0 vis veritatitis, quae (quam ea) se defendat, O the force of truth, since it defends itself. Cic.
II. With quod, quia, quəniam, quando, to introduce a reason on another's authority:
Socrätes accasitus est, quod corrumpěret jüventītem, Socrates voas accused, because (on the alleged ground that) he corrupted the youth. Quint.

Causal Clauses with Quum and Qui.
518. Quvar.-Quum takes the Subjunctive when it denotes,
I. Cause or Concession:

Quum sint in nöbis rătio, prâdentia, since there is in us reason and prudence. Cic. Phōcion fuit pauper, quum dī̌rtissimus esse posset, Phocion was poor, though he might have been very rich. Nep. See also 515.
II. Time with the accessory notion of Cause or Concession :

Quum dìmǐcäret, occīsus est, When he engaged battle, he vas slain. Nep. Zênōnem, quum Athênis essem, audiēbam frëquenter, $I$ often heard $Z_{\text {eno }}$, when $\frac{1}{\text { w was at Athens. Cic. }}$

1. Quem in Narration,-Quum with the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive is very frequent in narration even in temporal clauses. See examples under II. above.

This use of Quum with the Subjunctive may in most instances be readily explained by the fact that it involves Cause as well as Time. Thus quum dimicaret, in the first example, not only states the time of the aetion-ocoisusest, but also its cause or occasion: the engagement was the occasion of his death. So with quum essem, as presence in Athens was an indispensable condition of hearing Zono. Bat in some instances the notion of Cause or Concession is not at all apparent.
2. Quex with Tempes, erc.-Quum with the Subjunctive is sometimes used to characterize a period:

Id saecullum quum plēna Graecia poêtārum esset, that age when (such that) Grecee was full of pocts. Cic. Erit tempus, quum desi̊deres, the time will come, when you vill desire. Cic. So without terpus, etc. : Fuit quum arbiträrer, there was (a time) when Ithought. Cic.
3. Qucas wirir limicative.-Quum denoting time merely, with perhaps a few exceptions in narration, takes the Indicative:

Quum quiescunt, prơbant, While they are quiet, they approve. Cic. Paruit, quum něcesse ĕrat, Ho oboyed when it was necessary. Cic.
519. Qui, Cause or Reason.-A Relative clause denoting cause or reason, is equivalent to a Causal clause with Quum, and takes the Sabjunctive for the same reason:

0 fortūnăte ădőlescens, qui (quum tuu) tune virtūtis Hǒmērum praecōnem invénĕris, 0 fortunate youth, since yout (lit. who) have obtained Homer as the herald of your valor. Cic.

1. Equivalests.-In such clauses, qui is equivalent to quum égo, quum tu, quum is, etc.
2. Indicative. - When the statement is to be viewed as a fact rather than as a reason, the Indicative is used:

Hǎbeo sěnectuti grâtiam, quae mihi sermōnis ǎvidititatem auxit, $I$ cherish gratitude to old age, which has increased my love of conversation. Cic.
3. Qui wiri Coxsuxcrions. - When a conjunction accompanies the rela-
tive, the mood varies with the conjunction. Thus,

1) The Subjunctive is generally used with quum, quippe, ut, utporte:

Quae quam Ita sint, since these things are so. Cic. Quippe qui blandia-
tur, since he flatters. Cii. Ut qui collōni essent, since they weere colonists. Cic. But the Indieative is sometimes used to give prominence to the fact.
2) The Indicative is generally used with quia, quŏniam:

Quae quia certa esse non possunt, since these things cannot be sure. Cic. Qui quǒniam intelligg nōluit, since he did not wish to be understood. Cic.

Causal Clauses with Quod, Quia, Quoniam, Quando.
520. Quod, quia, quöniam, and quando generally take,
I. The Indicatrve to assign a reason positively on one's own authority:

Quǒniam supplicatio decrēta est, since a thanksgiving has been decreed. Cic. Gaude quod spectant te, Rejoice that (because) they behold you. Hor.
II. The SurjuncIIve to assign a reason doubtfully, or on another's authority:
Aristides nonne expulsus est patria, quod justus esset, Was not Aristides banished because (on the alleged ground that) he was just? . Cic.

1. Quod wiri Dico, ETC. - Drico and puito are often in the Subjunctive instead of the yerb depending upon them:

Quod se bellum gestûros dice̛rent $=$ quod bellum gestâri essent, ut dicee. bant, becturse they were about, as they said, to wage war. Caes.
2. Clauses wita Quod Unconneoted. See 554. IV.
3. Nos Quo, zrc.- Non quo, non quod, non quin, rarely non quia, also 3. Nos Quo, arc. $\rightarrow$ with the Subjunctive to denote that something was quam quod, etc., are used with the Subjuactive to de

Non quo hăbērem quod scriběrem, not bceause (that) I had anything to vite. Oic. Non quod dorleant, not because they are pained. Cic. Quia něquivĕrat quam quod ignōrāret, because he had been unable, rather than because he did not know, Liv.
4. Potential Subjunctive. Sce 485 and 486.

## RULE XIIV.-Time with Cause.

521. The Subjunctive of Time with the accessory notion of Cause or Purpose is used,
I. With dum, dōneo, quoad, until:

Exspectas dum dicat, You are roaiting till he speaks, i. e., that he may speak. Cic. Ea continēbis quoad te videam, You will keep them till I see you. Cie.
II. With antĕquam, priusquam, before, before that:

Ante̛quam de re pablica dicam, expōnam consilium, I will set forth my plan before 1 (can) speak of the republic, i. e., preparatory to speaking of the republic. Cic. Priusquam incipias, before you begin. Sall.

1. Explasation.-Here the temporal clause involves purpose as well as time: dum dicat is nearly equivalent to ut dicat, which is also often used after exspecto. Antéquam dicam is nearly equivalent to ut postea dicam: I will set forth my views, that I may afterwards speak of the republic.
2. Wifi otmen Consusetions.-The Subjunctive may of course be used in any temporal clause, when the thought, irrespective of the temporal partiele, requires that mood; see 486. III.

Ubi res poscěret, whenever the case might requive. Liv.
522. Dum, Donec, and Quoad take
I. The Indicative,-(1) in the sense of while, as long as, and (2) in the sense of until, if the action is viewed as an actual fact:

Dum leges vigèbant, as long as the lanss were in force. Cie. Quoad rěnuntiătum est, uidil il cuas (actually) announcod. Nep.
II. The Subjunctive, when the action is viewed not so much as a fact as something desired or proposed:

Differrant, dum deffervescat ira, Let them defer it, till their anger cools, i. e., that it may cool. Cic. See also examples under the rule.

1. Donec, in Tacitvs, generally takes the Subjunctive:

Rhēnus servat viŏlentiam cursus, dōnec Oceăno misceātur, The Phine preserves the rapidity of its current, till it mingles with the ocaan. Tac.
2. Dosec, in Livy, occurs with the Subjunctive even in the sense of while, but with the accessory notion of cause.

Nibil trěpridäbañt dönec ponte ăgěrentar, Thiey did not fear at all whỉle (and because) they were driven on the bridge. Liv.
523. Antequam and Priusquam generally take,
I. The Indicative, when they denote mere priority of time:

Priusquam lâcet, adsunt, They are present before it is light. (ic. Antěquam in STciliam vēni, before I came into Sicily. Cic.
II. The Subjunctive, when they denote a dependence of one event upon another. Thus,

1. In any Tense, when the accessory notion of purpose or cause is involved:

Priusquam incịpias, consulto ŏpus est, Before you begin there ios need of deliberation, i. e., as preparatory to your beginning. Sall. Tempestas minītur, antěquam surgat, The tempest threatens, bforore it rises, i. e., the threatening of the tempest naturally precedes its rising. Sen.
2. In the Imperfect and I'uperffoct, as the regular construction in nanration, because the one event is generally treated as the occasion or natural antecedent of the other. See also 471. 4.

Antěquam urbem căperrent, before they tool the city. Liv. Priusquam de meo adventur audire pǒtuissent, in Măcèdơniam perrexi, Beforethey were able to hear of my approach, I vent into Macedonia. Cic.
3. Pridie quam takes the same moods as Priusquam.

1) Indicative os Subrusotive - With antequam and priusquam, the Indicstive and Subjunctive are sometimes used without any apparent difference of meaning, but the Subjunetive probably denotes a closer connection between the two events:

Ante de incommödis dico, pauca dicend̉a, Before I (actually) speak of disadcantages, a foo things should be mentioned. Cic. Antěquam de re püblica dicam, expōnam consilium, Before $I$ speak of the republic, $I$ will set forth my plan. Cic.
2) Ante-quay, Paics-edam-The two parts of which antéquam, priusquam, and postquam are compounded are often separated, so that ante, pritu, or post stands in the principal clause and quam in the subordinate clause:

Pancis ante diebuus, quam Syricicūsae cüpùrentur, a foro dayà before Syracuse was taken. Liv. See Tmesis, 704 IV. 8.

## ALVII. Subuunctive in Indirect Questions.

524. A clanse which involves a question without directly asking it, is called an indirect or dependent question.

## RULE XIV.-Indirect Questions.

525. The Subjunctive is used in Indirect Questions:

Quid dies ferrat incertum est, What a day may bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Queeritur, cur doetissimi hőmines dissentiant, It is a question, why the most learned men disagree. Cic, Quaesiěrns, nonne pŭtírem, yout had asked whether I did not think. Cie. Qualis sit ănurmus, ănumus nescit, The soul knows not what the soul is. Cic.

1. With Intrarogatives.-Indivect or Dependent questions, like those not dependent, are introdaced by interrogative words: quid, our, nonne, quälis, etc.; rarely by si, eive, seu, whether; $u t$, how. See examples above.
2. Surstantive Force.-Indirect questions are used substantively, and generally, though not always, supply the place of subjects or objects of verbs. But an Accusative, referring to the same person or thing as the subject of the question, is sometimes inserted after the leading verb.

Ego illum nescio qui fuĕrit, I do not know (him), who hervas. Ter.
3. Direct and Indraect. - An indirect question may be readily changed to a direct or independent question.

Thas the direct question involved in the first example is: Quid dies foret, What will a day bring forth? So in the second: Cur doctiestimi hönines dissentiunt, Why do the most learned men disagree?
4. Subjuxctive Oumtred.-After nescio quis, 1 know not who $=$ quitam, some one ; nescio quömodo, I know not how, etc., as also after mîrum quantum, it is wonderful how much = wonderfally much, very much, there is an ellipsis of the Subjunctive:

Nescio quid ănimus praesägit, The mind forebodes, I linow not what (it forebodes, praesäjiat, understood). Ter. Id mirum quantum proffuit, This profited, it is wondesful howe much, i. e. it wonderfully profited. Liv.
5. Indirect Questrons Distivautished.-Indirect Questions must be carefully distinguished from certain similar forms. Thus,

1) From Relative Clauses.-Clauses introduced by Relative Pronouns or Relative Adverbs always have an antecedent or correlative expressed or understood, and are never, as a whole, the subject or object of a verb, while Indirect Questions are generally so used :

Dicam quod sentio (rel. clause). I will tell that which (id quod) Ithink. Cic. Dicam quid intelligam (indiroct question), I will tell what I know. Cio. Quaerãnus ŭbi măieff feium est, Let us soed there (ibi) where the crime is. Cic.

In the first and third examples, quod sentio and $\ddot{u} b i-$ est nre not questions, but relative clauses; $i d$ is understood as the antecedent of $q u o d$, and $¥ i i$ as the antecedent or correlative of $u \vec{b} i$; bnt in the second example, quid intelly gam is an Indirect guestion and the object of dicam: I woill tell (what?) what I knove, i. e, will answer that question.
2) From Direct Questions and Exclamations :

Quid ăgendum est? Nescio, What is to be done? I know not. Cic. Vide! quam conversa res est, See ! how changed is the case. Cic.
6. Indicative in Indireot Quistions.-The Indicâtive in Indirect Ques. tions is sometimes used in the poets; especially in Plautus and Terence:

Si měmöräre vělim, quam ff̛deli ănĬmo fui, possum, If I wish to mention hiono muck fidelity I sliowed, I am able. Ter.
7. Questions in tite Oratio Obligea. See 580. II. 2.
526. Single and Double Questions.-Indirect questions, like those which are direct (346. II.), may be either single or double.
I. An Indirect Single Question is generally introduced by some interitive word-either a pronoun, adjective, or adverb, or one of the particles ne, nonne, num. Here num does not imply negation :

Rơgitat qui vir esset (4si. IV.), He asked who he was. Liv. Epăminondas quaesivit, salvusne esset clĭpeus, Epaminondas inquired whether his shield was squfe. Cic. Dübito num débeam, I doubt whether I ought. Plin. See also the examples under the Rule, 525 .
II. An Indirect Double Question (whether-or) admits of two con- $?$ structions:

1. It generally takes utrum or $n e$ in the first member, and an in the second: $D$ T $\cap$ TT

Quaeritur, virtus suamne propter dignitittem, an propter fructus ăilquos expetatar, It is asked whether virtue is sought for its own worth, or for certain advantages. Cic.
2. But sometimes it omits the particle in the first member, and takes an or $n e$ in the second. Other forms are rare

Quaeritur, nātura an doctrina possit effici virtus, It is asked whether virtue can be secured by nature or by clucation. Cic. See also 346, 1, 1).

1) In the second member, neene, sometimes an non, is used in the sense of or not: Säpientia beatos eff iciat necne, quaestio est, Whether or not wisuom makes mon happy, is a question. Cic.
2) $A n$, in the sense of achether not, implying an affirmative, is used after verbs and expressions of doubt and uncertainty: dübüto an, nescio an, haud scio an, I doubt whether not, I know not whether not = I am fnclined to think; düblum est an, incertum est an, it is uncertain whether not $=$ it is probable:

Dübito an Thrişybūlum primum omnium pünam, $I$ doubt whether $I$ should not place Thrasybutus fing of all, I. e, I am inclined to think I should. Nep.
3) An sometimes has the force of aut, perhaps by the omission of incertum est, is used above:

Simönides an quis ilius, Stimonides or some other one. Cie.
VEII. Subiunctive by Ampraction.

## RULE ELVI.-Attraction.

527. The Subjunctive by Attraction is often used in clauses dependent upon the Subjunctive:

Vẽreor, ne, dum minnuĕre velim lübroem, augeam, $I$ fear $I$ shall increase the labor, whille $I$ wish to diminisish it. Cic. Tempus est hujusmơdi, ut, übi quisque sit, ibi esse minnme valit, The time is of such a character that erery one exishes to be least of all where he is. Gie. Mos est, ut dieat sententiam, qui velit, The custom is that he who wishes expreseses his opinion. Cic.

1. Application.-This rule is applicable to clauses introduced by conjunctions, adverbs, or relatives. Thus, in the examples, the clauses introduced by $d u m$, $u b i$, and $q u i$, take the subjunctive, because they are dependent upon clauses which have the subjunctive.
2. Indicative or Subiunctive.- Such clauses generally take,
1) The Indicatioe, when they are in a measure parenthetioal or give special prominence to the fact stated:

Milites misit, ut eos qui fugérant persěquěrentur, He sant soldiers to pursue those who had fled, i. e., the fugitives. Caes. Tanta vis prǒbittātis est, ut eam, vel in iis quos nunquam vidǐmus, diligāmus, Such is the force of integrity that woe love it even in those whom we have never seen. Cic.

The Indicative with dum is very common, especially in the poets and historians:
Fuêre qui, dum dübitat Senevinns, hortärentur Plsênem, There woere those wiho exhorted Piso, vorite Scaevinus hesitated. Tac. See also 46T. 4.
2) The Subjunctive, when the clauses tre essential to the general thought of the sentence, as in the examples under the rule.
3. After Infinitive Clauses.-The principle just stated (2) applies also to the use of Moods in clauses dependent upon the Infinitive. This
often explains the Subjunctive in a condition belonging to an Infinitive, especially with non possum:

Nec bǒnĭtas esse pǒtest, si non per se expětātur, Nor can goodness exist ( $=$ it is not possible that), if it is not sought for itself. Cie.

But clauses dependent upon the Infinitive are found most frequently in the Oratio Obliqua and are accordingly provided for by 529.

## ix. Subuecotive in Indireat Discourse, - -

Oratio Obliqua.
528. When a writer or speaker expresses thoughts, whether his own or those of another, in any other form than in the original words of the author, he is said to use the Indirect Discourse-Oratio Obliqua:

Pliktōnem ferrunt in Ităliam venisse, They say that Plato came into Italy, Cie. Respondeo to dolorem ferre moderate, 1 rephy that you bear the afficion with moderction. Cic. Utilem arbitror esse scientiam, I think that knooledge is uscful. Cic.

1. Direct and Indreecr.- In distinction from the Indirect DiscourseOratio Obliqua, the original words of the author are said to be in the Direct Discourse-Oratio Recta. Thus in the first example, Plütōnem in Ităliam venisse is in the indirect discourse; in the direct, i. e., in the original words of those who made the statement, it would be: Plăto in Ilŭliam vènit.
2. Quotation.-Words quoted withont change belong of course to the Direct Discourse:

Rex "duumrirros" inquit "sěcundum lêgem făcio," The King said, "I appoint duumvirs according to law." Liv.

## RULE XLVII.-Subjunctive in Indireot Discourse.

529. The Subjunctive is generally used in the Interrogative, Imperative, and Subordinate clauses of the Oratio Obliqua :

Ad postưlata Caesǎris respondit, cur věnriet (direct: cur věnis ?), To the demands of Caesar he reptied, why did he come. Caes. Scribit Labbiēno cum légionne verniat (direct: cum legionne věni), He writes to Labienus to come (that he should come) wiith a legion. Caes, Hippias glöriatus est, annŭlum quem hăbb̄ret (direect: hăbeo) se sua mănu confecisse, Hippius boasted lhat he had made with his own hand the ring which he wore. Cie.

Note.-For convenience of reference the following outline of the use of Moods, Tenses, Pronouns, etc. in the Oratio Obliqua is here inserted.
530. Moons in Principal Clauses.-The Principal clanses of the Direct discourse, on becoming Indirect, undergo the following changes of Mood:
I. When Declarative, they take the Infinitive (551):

Diecebat ǎnĭmos esse divinos (direct: ănuัmi sunt divini), He was wont to say that sonls weere divine. Cic. Plătōnem Tǎrentum vênisse ręp̌̌rio (Plưto Triventum vènèt), I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cic. Cǎto mìrärise (mirror) aitebat, Cato was zoont to say that he wondered. Cie.
II. When Interrogative or Imperative, they generally take the Subjunctive according to Rule XLVII.

1. Vere Omites, -The verb on which the Infinitive depends is often omitted, or only implied in some preceding verb or expression; especially after the Subjunctive of Purpose:

Py̌thia praecêpit ut Miltiădem impěrâtôrem sâmĕrent; incepta prosperra futerra, Pythia commanded that they should take Mittiades as their commander, (talling them) that their efforts would be successful. Nep.
2. Rhetomeat Questions.-Questions which are such only in form, requiring no answer, are generally construed, according to sense, in the Infinitive. They are sometimes called Rhetorical questions, as they are often used for Rhetorical effect instead of assertions: thus num possit, can he? for non pütest, he can not; quid sit turpius, what is more base? for nilail est turpius, nothing is more base.

Here belong many questions which in the direct form have the verb in the first or third person :

Respondit num měmǒriam dêpōnĕre posse, He replied, could he lay aside the recollection. Caes. Here the direct question would be: Num mêmôriam depōnêre possim ?
3. Ifperative Clafses with the Inemintive. See 551. II. 1.
531. Moods in Subordinate Clauses.-The Subordinate clauses of the Direct discourse, on becoming Indirect, put their finite verbs in the Subjunctive:

Oräbant, ut sibi ausilium ferret quod prěměrentur (direet: nōbis auxilium fer, quod prěmiัmur), They prayed that he would bring them help, because they were oppressed. Caes.

1. Infinitive in Relative Clauses.-It must be remembered (453), that Relative clauses, though subordinate in form, sometimes have the force of Principal clauses. When thus used in the Oratio Obliqua, they may be construed with the Infinitive:

Ad cum dêfertur, esse civem Rūmānum qui quĕrěrētur : quem ( $=c t$ oum ) asservĩtum esse, It was reported to him that there was a Roman citizen who made a complaint, and that he had been placed under guard. Cic. So also comparisons: Te suspǐcor iisdem, quïbus me ipsum, commơvéri, Isuspect that you are moved by the same things as $I$ am. Cic.
2. Infintive after certan Conjusctions.-The Infinitive occurs, especially in Livy and Tacitus, even in clauses after quia, quum, quamquam, and some other conjunctions :

Dícit, se moenibus inclasos těnêre eos; quia per agros văgāri, He says that he keeps them shut up within the walls, because (otherwise) they would wander through the fields. Liv. See also 551. I. 5 and 6.
3. Indicative in Paresthetical Clauses.-Clauses may be introduced parenthetically in the oratio obliqua without strictly forming a part of it, and may accordingly take the Indicative:

Rĕférunt silvam esse, quae appellatur Băcēnis, They report that there is a forest which is called Bacenis. Caes.
4. Indicative in Cladses not Paresthetical. - Sometimes clauses not parenthetical take the Indicative to give prominence to the fact stated. This occurs most frequently in Relative clauses :

Certior factus est ex ea parte vici, quam Gallis concesserrat, omnes discessisse, He was informed that all had withdrawn from that part of the village which he had assigned to the Gauls, Caes.
532. Tenses.-Tenses in the Oratio Obliqua generally conform to the ordinary rules for Infinitive and Subjunctive Tenses $(480,540)$, but the law of Sequence of Tenses admits of certain qualifications :

1. The Present and Perfeet may be used even after a Historical tense, to impart a more lively effect to the narrative:

Caesar respondit, si obsĭdes sibi dentur, sêse pācem esse factârum, Cacsar replied, that if hostages should be given him, he would make peace. Caes.
2. In Conditional sentences of the third form (510),

1) The condition retains the Imperfect or Pluperfect without reference to the tense of the Principal verb;
2) The Conclusion changes the Imperfect or Pluperfeet Subjunctive into the Periphrastic Infinitives in rus csse and rus fuisse:

Censes Pompēium laetātârum fuisse, si scîret, Do you think Pompey would have rejoiced, if he had known? Cic. Clamităbat, si ille ădesset, venturos esse, He cried out that they would come, if he were present. Caes.

But the Regular Infinitive, instend of the periphrastic forms, sometimes occurs in this construction, especially in expressions of Duty, etc. (4i5. 4).
3. Conditional Sentences of the second form (509), after Historical tenses, sometimes retain in their conditional clauses the Present or Perfect and sometimes change it to the Imperfect or Pluperfect, according to the Rule for Sequence of Tenses (480):

Respondit, si expěriri vělint, parrätum esse, He replied, if they wisheed to make the trial he was ready. Caes. Lêgātos mittit, si îta fécisset, ămicitiam futaram, He sent messengers saying that, if he would do thus, there twould be friendzhip. Caes.

Here mittit is the Historical Present. See 467. III.
4. The Future Perfect in a Subordinate clause of the Direct discourse is changed in the Indirect into the Perfect Subjunctive after a Principal tense, and into the Pluperfect Subjunctive after a Historical tense :

Agunt ut dimicent; îbi impěrium före, unde victōria fuěrit, They arrange that they-shall fight; that the sovereignty shall be on the side which shall win the victory (whence the victory may have been). Liv. Appareobat regnātorum, qui vicisset, If was evident that he would be king who should conquer. Liv.
533. Pronouns, Adverbs, ETC.-Pronouns and adverbs, as also the persons of the verbs, are often changed in passing from the Direct discourse to the Indirect:

Glōriatus est annŭlum se sua mănu confecisse (direct: annŭlum ego mea mănu confeci), He boasted that he had made the ring with his own mand. Cic.

1. Pronouns of first and second persons are often changed to the third. Thins above g go in the direct discourse becomes se, and mea becomes sua. In the same way hio and iste are often'changed to ille.
2. Adverbs meaning here or now are often changed to those meaning there or then; nune to tum; hio to illic.
3. In the use of pronouns observe
1) That references to the SpEAKER whose words are reported are made, if of the 1st Pers. by ego, meus, noster, etc., if of the 2d Pers. by tu, tuus, etc., and if of the 8d Pers. by sui, suus, ipse, etc., though sometimes by hic, is, ille.
2) That references to the Reponter, of Author, are made by zgo, meus, etc.
3) That references to the Person Addressed by the reporter are made by $t u$, tuus, etc.

Ariovistus respondit nos esse innquos qui se interpellĩrêmus (direct: vos estis iniqui qui me, etc.), Ariovistus replied that we were unjust who intorruptel him. Caes.

Here nos refers to the Reporter, Caesar, we Romans. So refers to the Speaker, Ariovistus. In the sccond example under 52s, te refers to the Peroon Addressed.

## SECTION VII.


I. Tenses of the Imperative.
534. The Imperative has but two Tenses:
I. The Present has only the Second person, and corresponds to the English Imperative:

Justitiam cơle, Practise justice. Cic. Perge, Cătilīna, Go, Catiline. Cic.
II. The Future has the Second and Third persons, and corresponds to the imperative use of the English Future with shall, or to the Imperative let:

Ii consǔles appellantor, They shall be called consuls, or let them be called consuls. Cic. Quod dixěro, fácitōte, You shall do what I say (shall
have said). Ter.

1. Future for Presbst.-The Future Imperative is sometimes used where we should expect the Present:

Quŏniam supplǐcătio decrēta est, cělebrātōte illos dies, Since a tüanlssgiving has been deorced, celebrate those days. Cic.

This is particularly common in certain verbs: thus scio has only the forms of
Future in common use the Future in common use.
2. Present for Future,-The Imperative Present is often used in poetry, and sometimes in prose, of an action which belongs entirely to the future:

Ubi ăciem videris, tum ordines dissipa, When yow shall see the line of battle, then seatter the renks. Liv.

## II. Use of the Imperative. <br> RULE XLVIII.-Imperative.

535. The Imperative is used in commands, exhortations, and entreaties:

Justitiam cơle, Practise justice. Cic. Tu ne cêde mǎlis, Do not yield to misfortunes. Virg. Si quid in te peccävi, ignosce, If I have sinned against you, pardon me. Cie.

1. Circumbontions.-Instead of the simple Imperative, several circumlocutions are common:
1) Curra ut, fac ut, fac, each with the Subjunctive:

Cara ut vènias, See that you come. Cic. See 489.
2) Fae ne, căve ne, căve, with the Subjunctive :

Căve făcias, Beware of doing it, or see that you do not do it. Cic.
3) Noli, nolite, with the Infinitive:

Nōli ĭmitāri, do not imitate. Cic. See 588. 2.
2. Iyprrative Clause for Condimon.-An Imperative clause may be used instead of a Conditional clause:

Lacesse; jam vidêbis furrentem, Provoke him (i. e., if you provoke him), you will at once see him frantic. Cic.
3. Imperative Supplied.-The place of the Imperative may be variously supplied:

1) By the Subjunctive of Desire (487):

Sint beāti, Let them be happy. Cie. Impii ne audeant, Let not the impious dare. Cic.
2) By the Indicative Future:

Quod optïmum videbitur, facies, You will do (for Imper. do) what shall seem best. Cic.
536. The Imperative Present, like the English Imperative, is used in commands, exhortations, and entreaties. See examples under the Rule.
537. The Imperative Future is used,
I. In commands involving future rather than present action:

Rem penditote, You shall consider the subject. Cic. Cras pětǐto; dăbĭtur, Ask tomorrow; it shall be grarted. Plaut.
II. In laws, orders, precepts, ete.:

Consưles nêmìni parrento, The consuls shall be subject to no one. Cic. Sălus ponpuli supréma lex esto, The safety of the people shall be the supreme law. Gic.
538. Imperative in Prohartrons.-In prohibitions or negative commands,

1. The negative ne, rarely non, accompanies the Imperative, and if a connective is required, $n \overline{e v e}$, or neu, is generally used, rarely nique:

Tu ne cude màlis, Do not yield to misfortunes. Virg. Hŏmǐnem morTu ne cede malis, in urbe ne sépelito, nêve ârito, Thou shalt not bury or burn a dead body in the city. Cic.
2. Instead of ne with the Present Imperative, the best prose writers generally use nolli and nölite with the Infiniprose:

Nölite pǔtare (for ne pưtate), do not think (be unwilling to think). Cic. Elchion Al TO

## SEOTION VIII.

infinitive.
539. The treatment of the Latin Infinitive embraces four topics :
I. The Tenses of the Infinitive.
II. The Subject of the Infinitive.
III. The Predicate after the Infinitive.
IV. The Construction of the Infinitive.

## I. Tenses of the Infinitive.

540. The Infinitive has three tenses, Present, Perfect, and Future. They express however not absolute, but relative time, denoting respectively Present, Past, or Future time, relatively to the Principal verb.
541. Pecrumarrisa,-These tenses present the leading peculifritics specified under these tenses in the Indicative. See 467. 2.
542. The Present Infinitive represents the action as taking place at the time denoted by the principal verb:

Cŭpio me esse clémentem, Idesire to be mild. Cic. Mäluit se diligi quam mětui, He preferred to be loved rather than faced. Nep.

1. Rear, Tmm,-Hence the real time denoted by the Present Infnitive is the time of the verb on which it depends
2. Presexs for Future. -The Present is sometimes used for the Future and sometimes has IIttle or no reference to time:

Cras argentum dire dixit, He said he would otve the sitver to-morroov. Ter.
 possum, and the like, the Present Infinitive is used where our idiom would lead us to expect the Perfect; sornetimes also after memini, and the like:
Dêuit officiēsior esse, He ought to have been more attertize. Cic. Id pôtuit ficicire, He might have done this. Cic.
542. The Perfect Infinitive represents the action as completed at the time denoted by the principal verb:

Plătōnem fêrunt in Ităliam vênisse, They say that Flato came into Italy. Cic. Conscius mihi erram, nihil a me commissum esse, I woas conscious to myself that no offence had been committed by me. Cic.

1. Real Thes-Hence the real time denoted by the Perfect Infinitive is thant of the Perfect tense, if dependent upon the Present, and that of the Plaperfect, if dependent upon a Historical tense, as in the examples.
2. Prergot pos Prssexi.- In the poets the Perfect Infnitive is sometimes used Sor the Present, rarely in prose:

Textigisee timent poestam, They fear to touch (to have touched) the poet Hor. 3. Passive Inyismive, -The Passive Infintive with esese sometimes denotes the result of the action: victus esse, to have been ranquished, and so, to be a yanquished man. Fuitse for esse emphasizes the completeness of the action: victus futise, to have been vanquished. See 5r5. 1.
543. The Future Infinimive represents the action as about to take place in time subsequent to that of the principal verb:

Brâtum visum íri a me păto, I think Brutus will be seen by me. Cic. Orīcưlum dătum ěrat vietrices Athēnas fơre, An oracle had been given, that Athens would be victorious. Cic.

Hence after a Principal tense the real time of the Futare Infinitive is Future, but after a Historical tense the real time can be determined only by the context.
544. Circumlocumon for Future Infinitive.-Instead of the regular Future Infinitive, the circumlocution fütürum esse ut, or före ut, with the Subjunctive,-Present after a Principal tense, and Imperfect after a Historical tense,-is frequently used:

Spero forre ut contingat id nöbis, I hope this will fall to our lot (I hope it will come to pass that this may happen to us). Cic. Non speriūverrat Hannibal, fore ut ad se defficerent, Hannibal had not hoped that they would revolt toltim, Liv. See 556. II. 1.
 tive, for the Fature Infinitive, is common in the Pasive, and is moreover necessary in both voices in all verbs which want the Supine and the Partieiple in rus.
2. Forr ut witri Prapret Sundux otive- tive, Perfect or Pluperfect, is used with the foree of a Future Perfect: and in Passive and Deponent verbs, fore with the Perfect Participle may be used with the same force:

Dtco me sitis đdeptum Fre, $I$ say flat I shall haze obtained enough. Cic
 junctive may be used in the conclusion of a conditional sentence of the third form when made dependent:
Nisi nuntil essent alliti, existimabant futīrum fakse, ut oppîdum āmittěrētur, They thought that the toron roould have been lost, if tidings had not been brougita Ches. See 538.2 .
II. Subitect of Infinitive.

RULE XLIX.-Subject.
545. The Subject of an Infinitive is put in the Ac cusative:
Sentìmus calère ignem, We perceive that five is hoot. Cic. Plãtonnem Tărentum vênisse rěpe̊rio, I find that Plato came to Tarentum. Cie. ${ }^{\text {N }}$

1. Historical Isfintitve.-In lively description the Infinitive is sometimes used for the Indicative Imperfect. It is then called the Historical Infinitive, and, like a finite verb, has its subject in the Nominative:

Hostes gaesa conjiccerre, The enemy hurled their javelins. Caes,
The Historical Infinitive may often be explained by supplying coepit or coepzrunt; but in most instances it is better to treat it simply as an idiom of the language.
2. Subject Omitted. -The Subject of an Infinitive may be omitted:

1) When it denotes the same person or thing as the subject of the principal clause, or may be readily supplied from the context:

Maguaněgōtia vǒlunt ăgĕre, They wieh to accomplish great undertakinge. Cic. Peccīre licet nêmǐni, It is not lauful for any one to sin. Cic.
2) When it is indefinite or general:

Diligi jucundum est, It is pleasant to be lored. Cic.
3. Isyinitive Omitted.-Esse and fuisse are often omitted in the compound forms of the Infinitive and with predicate adjectives, other infinitives less frequently (551.5) :

Andivi solilum Fabricium, I have heard that Fabricius qoas voont. Cic. Spērämus nōbis prōfutuaros, We hope to benefit gou. Cic.

## III. Predicate after Infinitive.

546. A Predicate Noun or Adjective after an Infinitive regularly agrees with the Subject, expressed or understood (362.3) :

Ego me Phidiam esse mallem, Ishould prefer to be Phidias. Cic. Traditum est, Hömẽrum caecum fuisse, It has boen handed down dy traditionthat Homer woas blind. Cic. Jügurtha omnłbus cärus esse (historical infini tive), Jugurtha was dear to all. Sall.
547. A Predicate Noun or Adjective, after an Infinitive whose Subject is omitted, is often attracted into the Nominative or Dative:
I. It is attracted into the Nominative to agree with the Subject of the principal verb, when the latter is the same person or thing as the omitted Subject:

Nôlo esse laudàtor, I am unxilling to be an eulogist. Cic. Beãtus esse šne virtate nēmo pōtest, No one can be happy viithout virtue. Cic.

1. This occurs most frequently (1) after verbs of duty, abiility, courage, oustom, desire, beginning, continuing, ending, and the like-dêbeo, possum, audeo, sőleo, cüpio, vơlo, mālo, nōlo, incǐpio, pergo, dēsino, etc., and (2) after various Passive verbs of saying, thinking, finding, seeming, and the like-dicor, träder, fêror-crédor, existimor, putor-répêrior-videor, etc.:

Quis scientior esse débuit, Who ought to have bean more learned? Cic. Părens diei pǒtest, He can be called a parent. Cic. Stoícus esse völuit, Ho wished to be a Stoic. Cic. Desinnant esse timirdi, Let them eease to be timid. Cic. Inventor esse dicitur, He is said to be the inventor. Cic. Prûdens esse pǔtībãtur, He was thought to be prudent. Cic.
2. Participles in the compound tenses of the Infinitive are also attracted: Pollictitus esse dicctur, Ho is said to have promised. Cic.
II. The Predicate Noun or Adjective is sometimes attracted into the Dative to agree with a Dative in the principal clause, when the latter denotes the same person or thing as the omitted Subject:

Patricio tribanno plebis fiěri non liceebat, It was not lavful for a patrio cian to be made tribune of the people. Cie. Nihi negligenti esse non licuit, It sas not permitted me to be negligent. Cic.

This is rare, but is the regular construction after tieet, and sometimes oceuts 1. This is rare, but is the regular construction after ucet, and sometimes

Illis timidis licet esse, nōbis nêcesse est fortibus viris esse, It is permitted them Ilis timidis licet esse, nobis nêcesse est fortious virs. But,
2. Even with lieet the attraction does not always take place:

Ei consülem flerri licet, It is laveful for hinsto be made consul. Caes.

## IV. Construction of the Infintitie.

548. The Infinitive, with or without a Subject, has in general the construction of a Noun in the Nominative or Accusative, and is used,
I. As a Nominative-Subject of a Verb.
II. As an Accusative-Object of a Verb.
III. In Special Constructions.

## 1. Infinitive as Sutbject.

549. The Infinitive, with or without a Subject, is often used as a Nominative, and is thus made the Subject of a sentence, according to Rule III.:
Wirn Subseot.-Făcinus est vinciri cirem Rōmãnum, That a Romair citizon should be bound is a crime. Cie. Certum est Iibèros ămaxit, $I t$ is certain that chilidren are loved. Quint. Letgenn bre̊rem esse ơportet, 1 It is necesosary that a Tavo be brief. Sen.

Wrruorr Sewrer.-Ars est difYcilis rem publicam regĕere, To rule a stato is a difficult art. Cie. CIrrum esse jacundum est, $t$ tis pleasannt to be held dear. Cie. Haee soire jưvat, To know these thlings affords pleasure. Sen. Peccāre licet nēmǐni, To sin is not lawful for any one. Cic.

1. Invintitve as Stumecr.- When the subject is an Infinitive, the Predicate is either (1) a Noun or $A$ djective with Sum, or (2) an Impersonal verb or a yerb used Impersonally. See the examples above.
1) Tempus $=$ tempestivam is thus used with the Infinitive:

Tempus sest dicure, it is time to speak. Cie.
2. Infinimive as Subject of an Infinitive.-The Infinitive may be the subject of another Infinitive:

Intelĭgi něcesse est esse deos, it must be understood that there are gods. Cic. Esse deos is the subject of intelligi, and inteltigi esse deos of necesse est. 3. Infinitive witi Demonstrative. -The Infinitive sometimes takes a Demonstrative as an attributive in agreement with it:

Quibusdam hoc displǐcet philŏsǒphāri, This philosoplazing (this to philosophize) displeases some persons. Cic. Viverre ipsum turpe est nōbis, To liee is itself ignoble for us. Cic.
4. Personal construction for Impersonal.-With Passive verbs, instead of the Infinitive with a subject accusative, a Personal construction is
common, by which the Subject Accusative becomes the Subject Nominative of the leading verb :

Aristides justissǐmus fuisse trädǐtur (for Aristĩdem justissimum fuisse traditur), Aristides is said to lave been most just. Cic.
1). The Personal Construction is used, (1) regularly with videor, jubeor, setor, and the Simple Tenses of many verbs of saying, thinking, and the like-dicor, trädor, fëror, perhibcor, pưtor, excistimor, etc., also with caeptus sum and desitus sum with a Passive Infinitive, and (2) sometimes with other verbs of saying, showing, perceiving, finding, and the like.

Sollem e mundo tollerre vildentur, They seem to remove the sun from the world. Cic. Plătōnem audivisse dicitur, He is said to have heard Plato. Cic. Dii beāti esse intellfguntur, The gods are understood to be happy. Cic.
2) In successive clauses the Personal construction is often followed by the Impersonal.
3) Videor with or without a Dafive often means to fancy, think: mili videor or videor, I fancy; ut vidèmur, as we fancy.

## II. Infinitive as Object.

550. The Infinitive, with or without a Subject, is often used as an Accusative, and is thus made the object of a verb, according to Rule V.:Te dicunt esse săpientem, They say that you are mise. Cie. Haec vitarre cưpimus, We desire to avoid these tlings. Cic. Mïnêre dērrēvit, vitãre cupimus,
He decided to remain. Nep.
551. Infintitive with Subaect Accusative.-This is used as object with a great variety of verbs. Thus,
I. With Verbs of Perceiving and Declaring, - Verba Sentiendi et Déclärandi.
II. With Verbs of Wishing and Desiring.
III. With Verbs of Emotion and Feeling.

1. Witi Verbs of Percestive and Declamiso.-Sentimus callere ignem, We perciive that fre is hot. Cic. Milib narrivit te sollicitum esse,
 transise, They wrote that Themistocles had gone over to Asia. Nep. $R$
2. Verba Sentiendi.-Verbs of Perceiving include those which involve (1) the exerecise of the senses:: audio, erideo, sentio, eto., fand (2) the exercise of the mind: thinking, beliering, knowing, cōgito, putto, ecistimo, cride, spito, -ineluijo, scio, etc.
3. Verba Decharaxdi- - Verbs of Declaring are such as state or commuvicate facts or thoughts: diec, narro, nuntio, dioceo, ostendo, promitto, etc.
4. Exprissoros wirt tue Fonce op Verss.-The Infinitive with a subject may be used with expressions equivalent to verbs of perceiving and declaring. Thus:

With füma fort, report snys, testis sum, I am a witness = I testify; conselus mith sum, I am conscious, I know:

Nullam mihi rélātam esse gratiam, tu es testis, You are a woitness (can testify) that no gratefui return has been made to me. Cic.
4. Participle for Infinitive.-Verbs of Perceiving take the Accusative with the Present Participle, when the object is to be represented as actually seen, heard, etc., while engaged in a given action

Cătōnem vidi in biblĭ́thèca seddentem, $I$ saw Cato sitting in the library. Cic.
5. Subiects Companab.-When two subjects with the same predicate are compared by means of quam, idem - qui, ete.; if the Accusative with the Infinitive is used in the first clause, the Accusative with its Infinitive omitted may follow in the second:

Plătōnem ferrunt Ǐdem sensisse, quod Pythăgerram, They say that Plato Theld the same opinion as Pythagoras. Cic.
6. Predicates Comparmd.-When two predicates with the same subject are compared and the Infinitive with a Subject is used in the first clause, the Infinitive with its subject omitted often follows in the second

Num pŭtātis, dixisse Antönium mỉnäcius quam factarum fuisse, Do you
thinds Antony spoke more threateningly than he would have acted? Cic.
But the second clanse may take the subjunctive, with or without $u t$ :
Audeo đicére ipsos pōtius cultóres agrōrum fōre quam ut cöl prohibeant, I dane say that they will themsetves become tillers of the fields rather than precent them from being tithed. Liv.
II. With Verbs of Wishivg and Desiring.- The Infinitive witb Subject Accusative is also used with verbs of Wishing and Desiring Te tua frui virtate cupimus, We desire that young and Desiring: tue. Cie. Pontem jübet rescindi, He orders the bridge to be broken vir. (that the bridge should be broken down). Caes. Lex eum něcīri town The law forbade that he should be put to death. Liv.

1. Verbs of Wismiva.-The Infinitive is thus used not only with verbs which directly express a wish, cŭpio, vŏlo, nölo, mãlo, etc., but also with many which involve a wish or command : paitior, sino, to permit; impèro,
jübeo, to command; prohibeo, véto, to forbid. See also 558 . II
2. Subjunctive for Infinitite Several veis involing command admit the Sobjunctive:

## 1) Opto, See 409: 8.

2) Valo, millo, nölo, impưro, and jübeo admit the Subjanctive, generally with ut or ne: prefor that the enemy should foar you. Cie. 8) Concedo, permitto, rarely you. Cie.

Coneedo ut haee apta sint, I admit that these, admit the Subjunctive with ut: Coneedo ut haee apta sint, I admit that theso things are suitable. Clc.
III. With Verbs of Emotion or Feeling.-The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is also used with verbs of Emotion or Feeling:

Gaudeo, te mihi suādēre, I rejoice that you advise me. Cic. Mirrāmur, te laetãi, We wonder that you rejoice. Cic.

Verbs of emotion are gaudeo, doleo, miror, queror, and the like; also aegre fêo, gruiviter ferro, etc.
552. Infinitive without Subject Accusative.-This is used as Object with many verbs:

Vincerre scis, You know howo to conquer (you know to conquer). Liv. Crêdŭli esse coeperrunt, They began to be oredulous. Cic. Haec vitäre cü. pĭmus, We desire to avoid these things. Cic. Solent cōgitare, They are accustomed to think. Oic. Nẽmo mortem effügěre pǒtest, No one is able to escape doath. Cic.

1. Verbs with the Infinitive.-The Infinitive may depend upon verhs signifying to dare, desire, determine-begin, continue, end-know, learn, neg-lect-owe, promise, etc., also to bo able, be accustomed, be wont, etc.
2. Inpinitive as a Second Object.-With a few verbs-döceo, cógo, as suffacio, arguo, etc.--the Infinitive is used in connection with a direct object; see 374. 4 :

Te săpěre dǒcet, He teaches you to be wise. Cic. Nätiōnes parēre assuefecit, He accustomed the nations to obey. Cic.

In the Passive these verbs of course retain the Infinitive:
Num sum Graece lóqui döcendus, Mfust I be taught to speak Greek $\rho$ Cic.
3. Infinitive after Adjectives.-By a construction according to sense, the Infinitive is used after adjectives in the sense of participles or'verbs with the Infinitive:

Est părätus (vult) audire, Ho is prepared to hear (is villing to hear). Cic.
Pêlides cêděre nescius (= nesciens), Pelides not knovoing hovo to yield. Hor. Avídi committére pugnam, eagè to engage battle. Ovid.

This construction is rare in good prose, but common in poetry.
4. Infinitive with Peeposimons,-The Infinitive regarded as a noun in the accusative, sometimes depends upon a preposition:

Multum intĕrest inter dăre et accilpěre, There is a great difference bedwcen giving and rectiving. Sen.
III. Infinitive in Special Constructions.
553. The Infinitive, with or without a Subject, is generally used as the Subject or Object of a verb, but sometimes occurs in other relations. It is thus used,
I. As Predicate; see 362 :

Exitus fuit orrātiōnis : sĭbi nullam cum his ǎmīčitiam, The close of his oration was that he had no friendship with these. Caes. Viverre est cögitarre, To live is to think. Crc .

Here ssbi-amioditam is used substantively, and is the Predicate Nominative after fuit, according to Rule I. cogitare is in the same construction after est.
II. As Appositive ; see 363 :

Oräcǔlum dătum ěrat victrices Athẽnas forre, The oracle that Athens would be viutorious had been given. Cic. Illud sǒleo mirräri non me accǐpěre tuas littěras, $I$ am accustomed to wonder at this, that $I$ do not receive your lettor. Cic.

1. Wrin Subizox- In this constraction the Infinitive takes a subject accusative, as in the examples.
2. Explanation.-In the examples, the clatise eictrices Athenas fore is in apposition with oraculum, and the clause non me accipere tuas litteras, in apposition with thud.
III. In Exclamations; see 381 :

Te sic vexarii, that you should be thus troubled! Cic. Mẽne incepto dê sistěre vietam, that I vanquished should abandon my undertaking! Virg.

1. Werin Sebject.-In this construction the Infinitive takes a Subject, as in the examples.
2. Explanatrox. - This use of the Infinifive conforms, it will be observed, to the use of Accusative and Nominative in exclamations (381, 851. 3). It may often be explained as an Aecus. by supplying some verb, as dobeo, ete, or as a Nom. by supplying credendum est or crichbile est. Thus the first example becomes: I arieve (dobleo) that you, ete, and the second becomes: Is it to be supposed (crédendam est) that 1 vanquished, etc.
3. Impassioned Quebtions - This construetion is most frequent in impassioned questions, as in the second exampte
IV. As Ablative Absolute. See 431. 4.
V. To express Purpose:

Pe̛cus egit altos visěre montes, He drove his herd to visit the lofty mountains. Hor. Non pơpŭläre pę辟es vênĭmus, We have not come to lay waste your homes. Virg.

This constraction is confined to poetry.
VI. Poetic Infinitive for Gerund. See 563. 6.

554. Subject and Object Clanses, in which, as we have just seen ( 549 and 550 ), the Infinitive is so freely used, assume four distinct forms:
I. Indirect Questions.-These represent the Subject or Object as Interrogative in character:

Quaertur, cur dissentiant, It is asked why they disagree. Cic. Quid ăgendum sit, nescio, I do not know what ought to be done. Cic. See 525.
II. Infinitive Clauses.-Thesa have simply the force of Nouns, merely supplying the place of the Nominative, or the Accusative:

Antĕcellĕre contilgit, It was lis good fortune to excel (to excel happened). Cic. Magna nêgōtia vơluit ăgęre, He wished to achicoe great undertakings. Cic. See 549,550 .
III. Subuexctive Clauses.-These clauses introduced by $u t$, ne, etc., are only occasionally used as subject or object, and even then involve Purpose or Result :

Contrgit ut patriam vindricāret, It was 7 his good fortune to save his country. Nep. Vǒlo ut míhi respondeas, I voish you would answer me. Cic. See 492, 405.

Here ut-vindicaret is at once subject and result: It was his good fortune to save his country, or his good fortune was such that he saved his country. In the second example, ut-respondeas expresses rot only the object desired, but also the parpose of the desire.
IV. Clauses with Quod.-These again are only oceasionally used as subject or object, and even then either give prominence to the fact stated, or present it as a Ground or Reason:

Běněficium est quod něcesse est morri, It is a blessing that it is necessary to die. Sen. Gaudeo quod te interpellavi, I rejoice that (because) I have interrupted you. Cic. See 520.

Clanses with quod sometimes stand at the beginning of sentences to amnounce the subject of remark;

Quod me Agănemnơnem aemǔlīri pǔtas, falleris, As to the fuct that you think I emulato Agamemnon, yow aro mistaken. Nep.

## I. Forms of Subiect Clauses.

555. Interrogative.-Sabject clanses which are interrogative in character, of course take the form of indirect questions. See 525. 2 and 554. I.
556. Not Interrogative--Subject clauses which are not interrogative, with some predicates take the form of Infinitive clauses, or clauses with quod; while with other predicates they take the form of Subjunctive clauses with $u t, n e$, etc. Thus,
I. With most impersonal verbs and with predieates consisting of est with a Noun or Adjective, the Subject may be supplied (1) by the Infinitive with or withont a Subject Accusative, or, (2) if
the fact is to be made prominent or adduced as a reason, by a clause with quod:

Me poenltet vixisse, I regret that I have lived. Cic. Quod te offendi me poenitet, I regret that (or because) I have affended you. Cic.

1. Substantive Predicates witil Subuunotive.-Mos est, mõrís est, consuêtūdo est, consuctūdinis est, it is a custom, etc., admit the Subjunctive for the Infinitive:
Mos est hominum ut molint, if is a custom of men that they are not willing.
2. Apjeotive Prediontes wim Subjunomive,-Relíquum est, proximum est, extręmum est-vêrum est, vêrisimile cêt, falsum est-glöriōsum est, mirum est, optinum est, ete, aidmit the Subjunctive for the Infinitive:
Relliquam est ut certümus it remains that wo contond. Cic. Vërum est ut bônos diligant, It is true that they love the good. Cic.
II. With Impersonal verbs signifying to happen-accudit, contingit, évěnit, fit-ut, ut non, with the Subjunctive, is generally used (495. 2):
Thrăsybonlo contrgit, ut pairiam vindicarret, It was the good fortune of Thrasybulus (happened to him) to deliver his country. Nep.
3. Here belong aceỉit ut, est $u t$, fütürum esse $u s$, or före ut, See 544.
4. Clauses with quod also oceur with verbs of happening.
III. With Impersonal verbs signifying it follovos, remains, is distant, and the like, the Subjunctive clause with $u t$ is generally used:

Rexlinquitur, ut quiescāmus, It remains that wee should submit. Cio. See 405.2
IV. Subjunctive clause standing alone. See 495.2.2).

## II. Forms of Object Clauses

557. Interrogative-Object clauses which are interrogative in character, of course, take the form of indirect questions. See 554.1 .
558. Not Interrogative.-Object clauses which are not interrogative in character, supplying the place of direet objects after transitive verbs, sometimes take the form of Infinitive clauses, sometimes of Subjunctive clanses, and sometimes of clauses with quod. Thus,
I. Verbs of declabna take,
559. Regularly the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. See 551. I.
560. But the Subjunctive with ut or ne, when they involve a command:

Dolasbellae dixit, ut ad me scríberret ut in Itǎliam věnirem, He told Dolabella to write to me to come into Italy. Cic. See 492.2.
II. Verbs of determinisg, stütuo, constituo, dicerno, and the like, take,

1. Generally the Infinitive, when the subject is the same as that of the principal verb, rarely the Subjunctive:

Mănêre dêcrēvit, He determined to remain. Nep. Stătuêrunt, ut libertia tem dêfenderent, They determined to defend liberty. Cic. See 551. II.
2. The Subjunctive with $u t$ or $n e$ (expressed or understood), when a new subject is introduced: *

Constǐtuěrat, ut tribunnus quěręrētur, He had arranged that the tribune ehould enter the complaint. Sall. Sěnātus dêcrêvit, dărent ǒpĕram consǔles, The senate decreed that the consuls should attond to it. Sall. See 492. 3.
Saítuo, dëcerno, cte, when they mean to think, deem, suppose, ete, become erba sentiendi (351. I. 1), and of course take the infinitive:

Laudem siplentise statuo esse maximam, I deem it to be the highest praise of visiom. Clo.
III. Verbs of stmiving, endeatoring, take the Subjunctive with $u t$ or ne. See 492.1. But contendo, nütor, stüdeo, and tento, generally take the Infinitive when the subject is the same:

Lơcum oppugnäre contendit, He proceeds to storm the city. Caes. Tentäbo de hoc diceerre, I will attempt to spealk of this. Quint. See 552.
IV. Verbs of eatsine, makise, accomphishing, take the Subjunctive with $u t, n e$, ut non. See 492, 495.

1. Examples.-Fäcio, effǐcio, perfĭcio-ădĭpiscor, impetro-assø̌quor, conse̊quor, and sometimes fero, are examples of verbs of this elass.
2. Facio and Efricro.- Fäcio in the sense of assume, suppose, takes the Infinitive; efficio in the sense of prove, show, either the Infinitive or the Subjunctive with $u t$, etc.:

Fac ănİmos non rĕmănẽre post mortem, Assume that souls do not survive after death. Cic. Vult efficcerre animos esse mortāles, He wishé to show that souls are mortal. Cic.
V. Verbs of emotion or feeline, whether of joy or sorrow, take,

1. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative, to express the ject in view of which the feeling is exercised. See 551. III.
2. Clanses with quod, to make more prominent the Reason for the feeling:

Gaudeo quod te interpellāvi, I rejoice that (or because) I have interrupt. ed you. Cic. Dötebbam quod sǒcium āmisēram, I was grieving because I had lost a companion. Cic. See 520. I.

For Verbs of Desibing, see 551. II. 2
VI. Verbs of asking, demanding, advibine, warning, com-
minding, and the like, take the Subjunctive, generally with $u t$ or ne:

Or ut hơmines miserros conserves, $I$ implore that you would preserve the unhappy men. Cis. Postulant ut signum detur, They demand that the signal be given. Lir. See 492. 2.

1. Examples. -Verbs of this class are numerons-the following are examples öro, rögn, pesto, précor, obsêcro-fligito, postūlo, praecipio-hortor, móneo, suădeo, persuaddeo-impelo, incite, móyeo, counmŏveo.
2. Usm as Vara Deolarasbi-Some of these verbs in particular significalions become verba declarandt (501. 2), and accordingly take the Infinitive with Subject Accusative: thus méneo, in the sense of remind and porsuädeo in the sense 3.
3. Isvixitize- Even in their ordinary significations some of these verbs, espeinly horton, mönco, and postülo, sometimes take the Infinitive with or without Subject Accusative:
Postulant se sbsolvi, He demands that hie should bo acquitted. Mic. See 1 and 2 . 1 and 2

The Infinitive is mich more common in poetry than in prose.
SECTION X.
GERUND. (<)

559. The Gerund is a verb in force, but a noun in form and inflection. As a verb it governs oblique cases and takes adverbial modifiers, as a noun it is itself governed.
560. The Gerund has four cases: Genitive, Dative, Aceusative, and Ablative, governed like nouns in the same sitnation:

Bette evivendi cüpidititate incensi sŭmus, We are animated with the desire of living happily. Sic. Charta inatitis scribendo, paper unfit for writing. Phi. Ad ăgendum nâtus, born for action. Gie. In ăgendo, in acting. Cic.

1. Aceessarive. The Accusative of the Gerund is used only after Prepofictions.
2. Geared asp Infistrive.-The gerund and the infinitive are kindred forms, expressing the meaning of the verb in the form of a noun (196. II.) They are also complements of each other, the one supplying the parts which are wanting in the other. Thus the infinitive supplies the nominative and the accusative after verbs (545); the gerund supplies the genitive, dative and ablative, and the accusative infer prepositions.
3. Gerunds with Direct Objects are regularly used only in the Genitive and in the Ablative without a preposition :

Jus vǒcanđi sěnätum, the right of summoning the senate. Lir. Injorias férendo laudem měrêběris, You sill merit praise by bearing wrongs. Sic.
562. Gerundive.-The place of the Gerund with a Direct Object is supplied by putting that object in the case of the Gerund and changing the latter into the participle in -dus in agreement with it. The participle is then called a Gerundive:

Anita suit conšlia urbis dêlendae $=$ urbem dêlendi, Plans have been formed for destroying the city (of the city to be destroyed). Cic. Nűma săcerdöthbus creandis ănimum adjecit, Duma gave his attention to the appoint mint of priests. Live.

1. Explanation.-With the Gerund, the first example would be : Inti aunt consilia urbem delendi, in which delendi is governed by constia, and $u r b e m$ by delendi. In changing this to the Gerundive construction,
1) Urbem, the object, is changed into uris, the case of the gerund, and is governed by consitia.
2) Delendi, the gerund, is changed into delendae, the gerundive, in agreemont with urbie.
2. Gerundive.-For the sake of brevity, the term Gerundive is used not only to designate the Participle, but also the Construction as a whole, including both the participle and the noun with which it agrees.
, 8. Use or Gerundive. -The Gerundive may be used for the Gerund with a Direct Object, and is almost invariably so used when the Gerund would be in the Dative or would depend upon a preposition. But see 563.2.

But in a few instances the Gerund with a Direct Object occurs in the Dative or dependent upon a preposition. See $564.1 ; 565.2$; and 566.2
4. Gertadives of tor, prior, etc.- In general only the gerundive of transitive verbs are used with their nouns as equivalents for Gerunds with Direct Objects; but the gerundives of utor, fruor, fungor, potions, and vescor, originally transitive verbs, admit this construction:

Ad manas fungendum, for discharging the duty. Cis. Spes portiundōrum castrōrum, the hope of getting possession of the camp. Cases.
5. Passive Sexse.-In a few instances, the Gerund has in appearmen a passive sense:

Nêque hăbent propriam percipiendi nơtam, Nor have they any proper mark of distinction, i. e., to distinguish them. Cis.

## I. Genitive of Gerunds and Gerundives

563. The Genitive of the Germ or Gerundive is used with nouns and adjectives:

Gerdxp.-Ars vivendi, the ort of living. Cic. Stǔdī̄sus ěrat audiendi, He was desirous of hearing. Nep. Jus vǒcandi sěnătum, the right of summoning the senate. Liv. Cusp lias te audiendi, desirous of hearing you. Cis.

Geruxdive.-Irbīdo ejus vǐdendi, the desire of seeing him. Sic. Plătōnis stưdiōsus audiendi fut, He was fond of hearing Plato. Cis.

1. The genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive occurs most frequently-
1) With ars, scientia, consuêtudo,-cŭpǐdřas, libido, stǔdium, consilium, vǒluntas, spes,-pǒtestas, făcultas, diff ícultas, occāsio, tempus,-gěnus, mơ- dus, rătio,-causa, gritia, etc.
2) With adjectives denoting derire, knowledge, skill, recollection, and their opposites: ăvǐdus, cŭpı̆dus, stŭdiōsus-conscius, guārus, ignãrus-pĕrītus, impěrîtus, insuêtus, etc.
2. Gerund preferbed,-A gerund with a neuter pronoun or adjective as olject should not be changed to the participial construction, because the latter could not distinguish the gender:

Artem vêra ac falsa dijodrcandi, the art of distinguishing true things from the false. Cic. $A$
3. Gerusp wifh Gexitive,-The Gerund in the Genitive sometimes as sumes so completely the force of a noun as to govern the Genitive instead of the Accusative:

Rejiciendi judicum portestas, the povoor of challenging (of) the judges. Cic.

Here rejrefendi may be governed by potestas, and may itself by its substantive force governjauticum, the challenging of the judges, etc. But these and similar forms in $d l$ are sometimes explained not as Gerunds but as Gerundives, like Gerundives with mei, nostri, etc. See 4 below.
4. Participial Constructron with aret, Nostri, bte.-With the Genitive of personal pronouns-mei, nostri, tui, vestri, sui-the participle ends in $d i$ without reference to Number or Gender:

Cöpia plüeandi tui (of a woman), an opportunity of appeasing you. Ov. Sui conservandi causa, for the purpose of preserving themseloes. Cic. Vestri adhortandi causa, for the purpose of exhiorting you. Liv.

This apparent irregularity may be accounted for by the fret that these genitives, though used as Persomal Pronouns, are all strictly in form in the nenter singular of the Possessives moum, twom, evum, etc., hence the participle in di agrees with them perfectly.
5. Purpose.-The Genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive is sometimes used to express Purpose or Tendency:

Haec trädendae Hannibăli victoriae sunt, Theso things are for the purpose of giving victory to Hannibal. Liv. Lēges pellendi clāros viros, laws for driving awoy illustrious men. Tac. Prơf Ïciscitur cognoscendae antiquitàtis, He sets out for the purpose of studying antiquity. Tac.

This genitive is sometimes best explained as Predicate Genitive (401), as in the first example; sometimes as dependent upori a noun, as pellendi dependent upon liges in the second example; and sometimes simply as a Genitive of Canse (393, 409.4), as in the third example; though in such cases, especially in the second and third, causa
mny be supplied. mny be supplied.
6. Infinitive for Gerund.-The Infinitive for the Genitive of the Gerund or Gerundive is often used in the poets with nouns and adjectives, sometimes even in prose:

Cŭpīdo Sty̆gios innäre lăcus, the desire to sail upon the Stygian lakes. Virg. Avìdus committěre pugnam, eager to engage battle. Ovid.

## II. Dative of Gerunds and Gerundives.

564. The Dative of the Gerund or Gerundive is used with a few verbs and adjectives which regularly govern the Dative:

Grrond.-Quum solvendo non essent, Since they were not able to pay. Cic. Aqua ûtlis est bibendo, Water is useful for drinking. Plin.

Grrundive.-Lǒcum oppǐdo condendo cêpērunt, They selected a place for founding a city. Liv. Tempǒra dēmětendis fructĭbus accommŏdāta, seasons suitable for gathering fruits. Cic.

1. Gerund.-The Dative of the Gerund is rave and confined mostly to late writers; with an object it is almost without example.
2. Gerundive of Purpose.-In Livy, Tacitus, and late writers, the Dative of the Gerundive often denotes purpose:

Firmandae vălētưdǐni in Campāniam concessit, He vithdrew into Campania to confirm his health. Tac.
3. Gerundive with Ofyichal Nabfs,-The Dative of the Gerundive also stands after certain official names, as decemvini, triumviri, comitia:

Dêcemvǐros leagĭbus scribendis creārĭmus, We have appointed a committee of ten to prepare laws. Liv. But the Dative is perhaps best explained as dependent upon the verb.

## III. Accusative of Gerunds and Gerundives.

565. The Accusative of the Gerund or Gerundive is used after a few prepositions :

Gerund.-Ad discendum prōpensi surmus, We are inclined to learn (to learning). Cic. Inter lûdendum, in or during play. Quint.

Gerundive.-Ad corlendos agros, for cultivating the fietds. Cic. Ant condendam urbem, before the founding of the city. Liv.

1. Prepositions.-The Accusative of the gerund or gerundive is used most frequently after ad; sometimes after inter and ob; very rarely after ante, circa, and in.
2. Wirh Object.-The acensative of a gerund with a direct object sometimes occurs, but is rare:

Ad plicandum deos pertinet, thends to appease the gods. Cic.
5. Purposs.- With verbs of giving, permitting, leaving, taking, etc., the purpose of the action is sometimes denoted by the Gerund with ad, or by the Gerundive in agreement with a noun :

Ad imĭtandum mihi prōpősitum exemplar illud, That model has been set before me for imitation. Cic. Attribuit Ităliam vastandam (for ad vastandum) Cătlinae, He assigned Italy to Catiline to ravage(to be ravaged). Cic. 12

## IV. Ablative of Gerunds on Gerundives,

566. The Ablative of the Gerund or Gerundive is use?,
I. As Ablative of Means or Instrument:

Grruxd.-Mens discendo alitur, The mind is nourished by learning. Cic. Sunlatem hơminnibŭs dando, by giving saféty to men. Cic.

Geruadive. - Légendis orat̄toribus, by reading the orators. Cic.
II. With Prepositions:

Gerend.- Virtutes cernuntur in ăgendo, Virtues are seen in action. Cic. Deterrere a scribendo, to deter from writing. Cic

Geruxilive.-Bratus in liběranda patria estinterfectus, Brutus was slain in liberating his country. Cic.

1. Prepositioss.-The ablative of the gerund or gerundive is used most frequently after in ; sometimes after a (ab), de, ex (e); very rarely after cum and pro.
2. With Obiscen- After prepositions, the ablative of the gerund with a direct object is exceedingly rare :

In tribuendo suum cuique, in giving every one his own. Cic
3. Without a Preposimion, the ablative of the gerund or gerundive de notes in a few instances some other relation than that of means, as time, separation, etc.:

Incrpiendo rěfügi, I drew back in the very beginning. Cic.

SECTION XI.
SUPINE,
567. The Supine, like the Gerund, is a-verb in foree, but a noun in form and inflection. As a verb it governs oblique cases, as a noun it is itself governed.
568. The Supine has but two cases: the Accusative in $u m$ and the Ablative in $u$.

## RULE L.-Supine in Um.

569. The Supine in $u m$ is used after verbs of motion to express purpose:

Lëgāti vēnērunt res rêpětītum, Deputies came to demand restitution. Liv. Ad Caesărem congratǔlatum convēnērunt, They came to Caesar to congratulate kim. Cues.

1. The Supine in $u m$ oecurs in a few instances after verbs which do not directly express motion;

Filiam Agrippae uuptum derdit, He gave his daughter in marriage to Agrippa. Suet.
2. The Supine in um with the verb $e o$ is equivalent to the forms of the first Periphrastic Conjugation, and mny often be rendered literally:

Bönos omnes perditum eunt; They are going to destroy all the good. Sall.
But in subordinate clauses the Supine in $u m$ with the verb co is often nsed for the simple verb:

Ultum Ire, $(=$ uleisci) injürias festinat, ITe hastens to avenge the injuries. Sall.
8. The Supine in $u m$ with iri, the infinitive passive of eo, forms, it will be remembered (241. 111. 1), the Futare Passive Infinitive:

Brūtum visum iri a me pǔto, I think Brutua will be seen by me. Clie
4. The Supine in umas an expression of purpose is not very common, its place is often supplied even after verbs of motion by other constructions:

1) By ut or qui with the Subjunctive. See 459 .
2) By Gerunds or Gerundives. See 563.5 ; 564. 2; 565.3.
3) By Participtes. See tis. V.
570. The Supine in $u$ is generally used as an Ablative of Specification (429) :

Quid est tam jacundum auditu, What is so agreeable to hear (in hearing)? Cic. Diffricile dictu est, It is difficult to tell. Cic.

1. The Supine in $w$ is used chiefly with-jutenndus, optimus-fielils, prōelivis, difficilis-incrédibilis, mẻmöribilis-hönestus, tarpis, fas, nefhs-dignus, indignusópus est.
2. The Supine in $u$ is very rure, and does not occur with an object. The only examples in common nse are: auditu, cognitu, dictu, and factu.
3. As the Supine in $u$ is little used, its pluce is supplied by other constrnctions 1) By ad with the Gerund: Verba ad audiendum juecunda, words agrecabde to hear. Cic.
2) By the Infinitive: Füchle est vincecre, It is eltsy to conquer. Cic.
3) By a Finite Mood with an adverb: Non ficlle djudicitur ämor fletus, Pretended love is not easy to detect (is not easily detected). Cic.

## SECTION XII.

## IA DE Numeramieon

571. Participles, like Infinitives, express only relative time, and represent the action as Present, Past, or Future, relatively to the principal verb.

Proultantiss-Tenses in Farticiples present the leading pectiliarities specitled under the corresponding tenses in the Indcative. See 407. 2 .
572. Present Participle.-The present participle rep resents the action as taking place at the time denoted by the principal verb:

Ocullus se non videns ălia cernit, The eq/e, though it does not ree itself (not

## 268 USE OF PARTIOIPLES.

seeing itself), discerns other things. Cic. Plăto scribens mortuus est, Plato died white writing. Cic.
573. Future Participle.-The future active participle represents the action as about to take place, in time subsequent to that of the principal verb:

Săpiens bŏna semper plăeǐtûra laudat, The wise man praises blessings which will always plewee (being about to please). Sen.
But the Future Passive generally loses in a great degree its foree as a tense, and is ofter best rendered by a verbal noun. See 562 and 580 .
574. Perfect Participle. - The perfect participle represents the action as completed at the time of the principal verb.

Ura māturiata dulcescit, The grape, when it thas ripened (having ripened), becomes sweet. Cic.

1. The Perfect Participle, both in Deponent and in Passive verbs, is sometimes nsed of present time, and sometimes in Passive verbs it loses in a great degree its force as a tense, and is best rendered by a verbal noun. See 550 .
2. For the Partielple with hadeo, see 3s8. 1. 2).

## II. Use of Participles.

575. Particmles are verbs in force, but Adjectives in form and inflection. As verbs they govern oblique cases, as adjectives they agree with nouns:

Anǐmus se non videns ălia cernit, The mind, though it does not sce itself, discerns other things. Cic.

1. Participles in the Present or Perfect, rarely in the Future, may be used as adjectives or nouns: scripta spistoka, a written letter; mortwi, the dead. Participles with the force of adjectives may be used as predicate adjeetives with sum: occưpüti irant, they vere occupied; as a verb, had been occupied.
2. Participles are used to abridge or shorten discourse by supplying the place of finite verbs with relatives or conjunctions. They are used with much greater freedom in Latin than in English.
3. Partictple for Relative Clause.-In abridged sentences, the Participle often supplies the place of a Relative Clanse:

Omnes šliud ăgentes, ǎliud š̌mŭlantes imprǒbi sunt, All who do one thing and pretend another are dishonest. Cic.
578. For other Subordinate Clauses.-The Partieiple often supplies the place of a subordinate clause with a conjunction. It may express,
I. Time :

Plăto scribens mortaus est, Plato died while writing. Cic. Itôri in proelium cănunt, They sing when about to go into battle. Tac. .
II. Cause, Manner, Means :

Sol oriens diem conficit, The sun by its rising causes the day. Cic. Milĭtes rěnuntiant, se perf Ǐdiam věritos rěvertisse, The soldiers report that they returned because they fcarod perfily (having feared). Caes.
III. Condition:

Mendäci hơmĭni ne vêrum quǐdem dicenti crēdĕre non sǒlèmus, We are not wont to believe a liar, even if he epeaks the truth. Cic. Reluctante nätura, irritus lăbor est, If nature opposes, effort is vain. Sen.
IV. Concession :

Scripta tua jau diu exspectans, non audeo tămen flägitāre, Though I have been long expecting your voork, yet. I do not dare to ask for it. Cic.

## V. Purpose:

Perseus rědiit, belli cäsum tentãtãrus, Perseus returned to try (about to try) the fortune of war. Liv. Attríbuit nos trŭcidandos Cěthêgo, He as. signed us to Cethegus to slaughter. Cic.
579. Partictple for Principal Clatese.-The Participle sometimes supplies the place of a principal or coördinate clause, and may accordingly be best rendered by a finite verb with and or but:
Classem dextictam cêpit, He conquered and took the luat (took the fleet conquered). Nep. Re consentientes vơcibülis diff rectbant, They agred in fact, but differed in woords. Cic.
580. Participle for Verbal Notn.-The Passive Participle is often used in Latin where the English idiom requires a participial noun, or a verbal noun with of:

In ămicis elligendis, in selecting friends. Cic. Hömẽrus fuit ante Rōmam conditam, Homer lived (was) before the founding of Rome (before Rome founded). Cic.
581. Participle with Negative.-The Participle
with a negative, as non, nihil, is often best rendered by a participial noun and the preposition without:

Misěrum est, nihil prōf 1 cientem angi, It is sad to be troubled woithout accomplishing anything. Cic. Non êrübescens, woithout blushing. Cic.
582. Adverbs qualify verbs, ADJEOTIVEs, and other ADVERBS :

Saxpientes fêiciter vivunt, The wise live happily. Gic. Făcile doctissimus, unquestionably the mosh learned. Cie. Haud äliter, not othervise. Ving.
583. Adverbs are sometimes used with nouns:

1. When the nouns are used with the force of adjectives or participles: Mïnime largitor dux, a leader by no means liberal. Liv. Pơpŭlus lāte rex, a poople of extensive sway (ruling extensively). Virg.
2. When in sense a participle or verb may be supplied

Mărius, plāne vir, Marius, truly a man. Cic. Ompes circa pø̆pŭŭli, all the surrounding peoples. Liv. See also 353. 2.
584. The Common Negative Particles are : non, ne, haud.

1. Non is the usual negative, $n$ o is used in prolibitions, wishies and purposes (499), and haud, in haud scio an and with adjectives and ndverbs; haud miriubile, not wonderful; haud diter, not otherwise. Nif for ne is rave, Ne non after oldo is often best rendered 2 chicther.
2. 2. In non modo non and in non siotum nom, the second non is generally omitted before sed, or vervum, followed by $n e-q u i d e m$ or vio (rarely titam), when the verb of the eccond clanse belongs also to the first:

Assentitio non moxdo ǎmico, sed ne libïro quídem digna est. Thattery is not only not zoorthy of a friend, but not even of a free man. Cic.
3. Minus often has nearly tho force of non; si minus $=$ si non. Stn atuter bas nearly the same force as si minus.
585. Two Negatives are generally equivalent to an affirmative, as in English :

Nihil non arrơget, Let him claim everything. Hor. Nêque hoc Zẽno non videt, Nor did Zeno overlook this. Cic.

1. Non before a general negative gives it the force of an fndefinite alfirmative, but after such negative the force of a general affirmative:

Nonnêmo, some one; nonnitil, something; noununquam, sometimes
Nemo ana eray one nithl non, ecery thing; nunguam non, alvays.
2. After a general negutive, ne-quidem sives emphasis to the negation, and nique-nique, nève-nève, and the like, repeat the negation distributively:

Non practèreundum est ne id quidem, Wo must not pass by even this. Cica, Némo

3. Sio and ita mean so, thus. Ha has also a widg segree or result; tam, tan-
 topere, so much, tam used mostly before adjectives and edierta verbs
586. For the use of Prepositions, see 432 to 437.
587. Coürdinate Conjunctions unite similar constructions (309). They comprise five classes:
I. Copulative Conjunctions denote union:

Castor et Pollux, Castor and Polluxu. Cic. Sěnätus pŏpŭlusque, thesenate and people. Cie. Nec êrat diffricile, Nor was it difficult. Liv.

1. Lisr. See 310.1.
2. Divreansor ix Fozor-Et simply comnects; que implies a more intimate elationship; atque generally gives prominence to what follows, especially at the beinning of a sentence; ac, abbreviated from atoue, has gencrally the force of $e t$. Teque and nec have the force of et non. Et and ittam sometimes mean even.

Atque and ac generally mean as, thian after adjectives and adverbs of likeness and unlikeness; similis, dissimitis, similter, par, piriter, nequc, ilins, allter, sécus; aeque ac, equally as; dixter atque, otherwise than. See also 451. 5.
3. Qie, $\Delta 0, ~ A T q u z$. -Que is an enciltic, fi. e, is always apponded to some other word. Ac in the best prose is used only before consonnnts; atque, either before vowels or consonants.
4. Etciv, eqoeve, ADEO, and the like, are sometimes associtated with eh, atque, $e$, and que, and sometimes even supply their placel Meworque follows tho word wisive it comnects: is qujque, he also. Etiam, also, further, even, is more comprehensive than quspue and often adds a new circumstance.
5. Correlatives - sometimes two copulatives are used: et (que)-et (que), tum-tum, quum-tum, both-and; but quum-tum gives prominence to the second word or clause ; non solum (non modo, or non till ; nKue (rec)-et (que). not only-but also; néque (nee)-néque (nec), ne not-but (and); et-nĕque (nee), (both)-and not
6. Ourtrb.-Between two words connected copulatively the conjunction is enerally exprosesed, though sometimes omitted, espectally between the names of two colleagues. Between several words it is in the best prose generally repeated or
with a negative, as non, nihil, is often best rendered by a participial noun and the preposition without:

Misěrum est, nihil prōf 1 cientem angi, It is sad to be troubled woithout accomplishing anything. Cic. Non êrübescens, woithout blushing. Cic.
582. Adverbs qualify verbs, ADJEOTIVEs, and other ADVERBS :

Saxpientes fêiciter vivunt, The wise live happily. Gic. Făcile doctissimus, unquestionably the mosh learned. Cie. Haud äliter, not othervise. Ving.
583. Adverbs are sometimes used with nouns:

1. When the nouns are used with the force of adjectives or participles: Mïnime largitor dux, a leader by no means liberal. Liv. Pơpŭlus lāte rex, a poople of extensive sway (ruling extensively). Virg.
2. When in sense a participle or verb may be supplied

Mărius, plāne vir, Marius, truly a man. Cic. Ompes circa pø̆pŭŭli, all the surrounding peoples. Liv. See also 353. 2.
584. The Common Negative Particles are : non, ne, haud.

1. Non is the usual negative, $n$ o is used in prolibitions, wishies and purposes (499), and haud, in haud scio an and with adjectives and ndverbs; haud miriubile, not wonderful; haud diter, not otherwise. Nif for ne is rave, Ne non after oldo is often best rendered 2 chicther.
2. 2. In non modo non and in non siotum nom, the second non is generally omitted before sed, or vervum, followed by $n e-q u i d e m$ or vio (rarely titam), when the verb of the eccond clanse belongs also to the first:

Assentitio non moxdo ǎmico, sed ne libïro quídem digna est. Thattery is not only not zoorthy of a friend, but not even of a free man. Cic.
3. Minus often has nearly tho force of non; si minus $=$ si non. Stn atuter bas nearly the same force as si minus.
585. Two Negatives are generally equivalent to an affirmative, as in English :

Nihil non arrơget, Let him claim everything. Hor. Nêque hoc Zẽno non videt, Nor did Zeno overlook this. Cic.

1. Non before a general negative gives it the force of an fndefinite alfirmative, but after such negative the force of a general affirmative:

Nonnêmo, some one; nonnitil, something; noununquam, sometimes
Nemo ana eray one nithl non, ecery thing; nunguam non, alvays.
2. After a general negutive, ne-quidem sives emphasis to the negation, and nique-nique, nève-nève, and the like, repeat the negation distributively:

Non practèreundum est ne id quidem, Wo must not pass by even this. Cica, Némo

3. Sio and ita mean so, thus. Ha has also a widg segree or result; tam, tan-
 topere, so much, tam used mostly before adjectives and edierta verbs
586. For the use of Prepositions, see 432 to 437.
587. Coürdinate Conjunctions unite similar constructions (309). They comprise five classes:
I. Copulative Conjunctions denote union:

Castor et Pollux, Castor and Polluxu. Cic. Sěnätus pŏpŭlusque, thesenate and people. Cie. Nec êrat diffricile, Nor was it difficult. Liv.

1. Lisr. See 310.1.
2. Divreansor ix Fozor-Et simply comnects; que implies a more intimate elationship; atque generally gives prominence to what follows, especially at the beinning of a sentence; ac, abbreviated from atoue, has gencrally the force of $e t$. Teque and nec have the force of et non. Et and ittam sometimes mean even.

Atque and ac generally mean as, thian after adjectives and adverbs of likeness and unlikeness; similis, dissimitis, similter, par, piriter, nequc, ilins, allter, sécus; aeque ac, equally as; dixter atque, otherwise than. See also 451. 5.
3. Qie, $\Delta 0, ~ A T q u z$. -Que is an enciltic, fi. e, is always apponded to some other word. Ac in the best prose is used only before consonnnts; atque, either before vowels or consonants.
4. Etciv, eqoeve, ADEO, and the like, are sometimes associtated with eh, atque, $e$, and que, and sometimes even supply their placel Meworque follows tho word wisive it comnects: is qujque, he also. Etiam, also, further, even, is more comprehensive than quspue and often adds a new circumstance.
5. Correlatives - sometimes two copulatives are used: et (que)-et (que), tum-tum, quum-tum, both-and; but quum-tum gives prominence to the second word or clause ; non solum (non modo, or non till ; nKue (rec)-et (que). not only-but also; néque (nee)-néque (nec), ne not-but (and); et-nĕque (nee), (both)-and not
6. Ourtrb.-Between two words connected copulatively the conjunction is enerally exprosesed, though sometimes omitted, espectally between the names of two colleagues. Between several words it is in the best prose generally repeated or
onitted altogether, though que may be used with the last even when the corjunction is omitted between the others: pax et tranquillitas et concordia, or pax, tranquilVitaz, concordia, or pax, tranquillitas, concordiaque.
$E t$ is often omitted between conditional clauses, exeept before non.
II. Disjunctive Conjunctions denote separation:

Aut vestra aut sua culpa, either your fault, or his owon. Liv. Duäbus tribusve hōris, in two or three hours. Cic.

1. List. See 810.2 .
2. $A \cup \mathrm{UT}, \mathrm{VEI}, \mathrm{VE},-4 u$ denotes a stronger antithesis than vel, and must be used if the one supposition excludes the other: aut eirum aut falsum, either true or false. Vel implies a difference in the expression rather than in the thing. It is generally correetive mid is often followed by potius, ettiam or dicam: laudätur vel etiam dmätur, he is pralsed, or even (rather) loved. It sometimes means even and sometimes for example. Velut often means for example. Fe for cel is appended as an enclitic.
In negative clauses aut and ve often continue the negation: non lönor aut virtue, neither (not) honor nor virtue.
3. Srys ( $8 i-v e$ ) does not imply any real difference or opposition; it often connects different names of the same object: Pallas sive Minerva, Pallas or Minerva (anotber name of the same goddess).
III. Adversative Conjunctions denote opposition or contrast:

Cŭpio me esse clőmentum, sed mo inertine condemno, I voish to be mild, but I condemn myself for inaction. Cic.

## 1. Libx. See 310.8.

2. Difyenence in Foncz-Sead and rèum mark a direet opposition; autem and verro only a transition; at emphasizes the opposition; atqui often introduces an objection; cithrum, but still, as to the rest; tamen, yet.
3. Compounds or tamen are: attimen, sedtämen, vëruntamen, but yet.

4utem and vero follow the words which they connect: hic autem, hic vîro, but this one. They are often omitted, especially before non. They are admissible with qui only when it is followed by its antecedent.
IV. Illative Copjunctions denote inference:

In umbra Igittur pugnäbimus, We shall therefore fight in the shade. Cic. 1. Lrss. See 810.4.
2. Otien Wozds.Certain other words, sometimes classed with adverbs and sometimes with confanctionsiare also illatives: eo, ideo, idcirco, proptěrea, quamobrem, quâpropter, quäre, quồirca
3. IGres.-This generally follows the word which it conneets: Kic fgitur, this one therefore. After a digression zotur, sed, sed tamen, verum, verum tamen, ete, are often nsed to resume an interrupted thought or construction. They may often be Fendered $I_{\text {say }}$ : Sed si quis; if any one, I say.
V. Causal Conjunctions denote cause :

Difficile est consilium : sum ěnim solus, Counsel is difficult, for I am alone. Cic. Etennim jus ămant, For they love the right. Cic.

1. List. See 810.5.
2. Etenir and Nayque denoto a closer comnection thin enim and nam.
3. Exim follows its word.
4. Subordinate Conjunctions connect subordinate with principal constructions (309. II.). They comprise eight classes.
I. Temporal Conjunctions denote time:

Päruit quum něcesse ěrat, He obeyed when it was necessary. Cic. Dum gro in Sicilia sum, white I am in Sicily. Cic. See also 311. 1; 521-523.

1. Dum added to a negative means yet; nondum, not yet; vixdum, scarcely jet,
II. Comparative Conjunctions denote comparison:

Ut optasti, Ita est, It is as you desived. Cic. Vělut si ădesset, as if he were present. Caes. See also 311. 2; 503,506.

1. Cormenatives are ofton used: Tam-quam, $\alpha s, s 0$-as, as much as; thmuam quod maxime, as much as possible; non minus-quam, not less than; no mĭgis-quann, not more than.
Tam-quam and ut-ita with a superlative are sometimes best rendered by the with the comparative : ut maxime-ita maxime, the more-the more.
III. Conditional Conjunctions denote condition :

Si peccāvi, ignosce, If I have erred, pardon me. Cic. Nrsi est concilium dǒmi, unless there is wisdom at home. Cic. See also 311. 3; 508. 507.

1. N气st, if not, in negative sentences often means except, and ňsi quod, except thint, may be used even in affirmative sentences. Nksi may mean than. Nihil aliud $n i s i=$ nothing further (more, except); nilhil allud quam $=$ nothing else (other tham).
IV. Concessive Conjunctions denote concession:

Quamquam intelligunt, though they understand. Cic. Etsi nihil hăbeat, allkough he has nothing. Cie. See also 311. 4; 515. 516.
V. Final Conjunctions denote purpose:

Esse orportet, ut vivas, $I$ is necessary to eat, that you may live. Cic. See also 811. 5; 489-499.
VI. Consecutive Conjunctions denote consequence or

Attǐcus ǐta vixit, ut Athēniensibus esset cārissimus, Atticus so lired that he was very dear to the Athenians. Nep. See also 311. 6; 489-499.
VII. Causal Conjunetions denote cause :

Quae quum Ita sint, Since these things are 80. Cic. See also 811. 7; 517. 518.
VIII. Interrogative Conjunctions or Particles denote inquiry or question:

Quaesierras, nonne pŭtārem, You had asked whether I did not think. Cic. See also 311. 8; 846. II., 525.526.

## IV. Interjections

589. Interjections are sometimes used entirely alone, as eher, alas! and sometimes with certain cases of nouns. See 381 and 381. 3.
590. Various parts of speech, and even oaths and imprecations, sometimes have the force of interjections. Thus:

Pax (peace), be etill! misĕrum, mišrăablle, sad, lamentable! öro, pray! Ige, ăgite, come, well/ mehereutles, by Hercules! per deum fidem, in the name of the gols! süles = si audes (for andies), if you will hear!


## CHAPTER VII.

## RULES OF SYNTAX.

591. For convenience of reference, the principal Rules of Syntax are here introduced in a body. The enclosed numerals refer to the various articles in the work where the several topics are more fully discussed.

## NOUNS.

## Agreement.

I. A Premonte Noun denoting the same person or thing as its Subject, agrees with it in CASE (362):

Ego sum nuntius, I am a messengor. Liv.
II. An Appositive agrees with its Subject in Case (363) : Cluilius rex mŏritur, Cluithus the King dies. Liv.

Nominative.
III. The Subject of Finite verb is put in the Nominative (367):

## Servius regnāvit, Servius reigned. Liv.

## Vocative.

IV. The Name of the person or thing addressed is put in the Vocative (369) :

Perge, Laeli, Proceed, Laelius. Cic.

## Accusative

V. The Direct Object of an action is put in the Accusative (371) :

Deus mundum aedificicavit, God made the vorld. Cic.
VI. Verbs of makivg, choosing, calling, regarding, showing, and the like, admit two Accusatives of the same person or thing (373):

Hămilcărem impŏrātōrem fêeêrunt, They made Hamilcar commander. Nep.
VII. Some verbs of asking, Demanding, teaching, and concealing, admit two Accusatives in the Active, and one in the Passive (374):

Me sententiam rŏgāvit, He asled me my opinion. Cie.
VIII. Duration of Thie and Extent of Space are expressed by the Accusative (378):

Septem et triginta regnāvit annos, He reigned thirty-seven years. Liv. Quinque millia passuum ambulare, to walle five miles. Cie.
IX. The Name of a Town used as the Limit of motion is put in the Accusative (379):

Nuntius Rōmam rědit, The messenger returns to Rome. Liv.
X. A Verb or Adjective may take an Adverbial Accusative to define its application (380):

Căpita velàmur, We have our heads veiled. Virg. Nabe hŭměros ămictus, with his shoulders enveloped in a cloud. Hor.
XI. The Accusative, either with or without an Interjection, may be used in Exelamations (381):

Heu me misěrum, Ah me unhappy! Cic.

## Dative.

XII. The Indmect Obrect is put in the Dative (384): Temporiri ceedit, He yields to the time. Cic.
Dative of Advantage and Disadvantage (385).
Dative with Compounds (386).
Dative of Possessor (387).
Dative of Possessor (387). (388).
Ethical Dative (389).
XIII. Two Datives-the obsect to which and the orn JеCT For which-occur with a few verbs (390):

Mälo est hơminibos ǎvärtita, Avarice is (for) an evil to men. Cic.
XIV. With Adjectives the obreor to when the quality is directed is put in the Dative (391) : ,

Omnibus cirum est, It is diar to all. Cie.
XV. A few Derivative Nouns and Adverbs take the Dative after the analogy of their primitives (392):

Obtemperiatio lecibus, obecience to the laves. Cic. Congruenter nâturae, agreably to nature. Cis.

## Genitive.

XVI. Any noun, not an Appositive, qualifying the meaning of another noun, is put in the Genitive (395): Cattonis orationes, Cato's orations. Cic.
XVII. Many Adjectives take a Genitive to complete their meaning (399):

Avidus laudis, desirous of praise. Ciae.
XVIII. A Predicate Noun denoting a different person or thing from its Subject, is put in the Genitive (401):
Omnia hostium errant, All things belonged to (were of) the encmy. Liv.
XIX. The Genitive is used (406),
I. With misăreor and misĕresco:

Misêrere làborum, pity the labors. Virg.
II. With rěcordor, mëmini, rèminiscor, and obliviscor:

Merminit praetrêtitrum, He remenbers the past. Cieg ?
III. With refort and interest: Interest omnium, It is the interest of all. Cic.
XX. A few verbs take the Accusative of the Person and the Genitive of the Thing (410):
I. Verbs of Reminding, Admonishing: LERAJ

Te ămiectine commơnêficit, He reminds you of friendship. Cie.II. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting:

Viros scelěris argnis, You accuse men of crime. Cie.
III. Misèret, Poenitet, Pŭdet, Taedet, and Piget : Ērum nos misesret, We pity them. Cie.

For the Genitive of Place, see Rule XXVI.

## Ablative.

XXI. Causb, Manner, and Means are denoted by thè Ablative (414):

Utilitate laudatur, It is praised because of its usefulnees. Cic.
XXII. Price is generally denoted by the Ablative (416):

Vendidit auro patriam, He sold his country for gold. Virg.
XXIII. Comparatives without qUAM are followed by the Ablative (417):

Nibil est ămäblius virtate, Nothing is more lovely than virtue. Cie.
XXIV. The Measure of Difference is denoted by the Ablative (418) :
Uno die longior, longer by one day. Cie.
XXV. The Ablative is used (419),
I. With ütor, fruor, fungor, pottior, vescor, and their compounds:

Plärmis rebus frư̆mur, We enjoy very many things. Cic.
II. With fido, confido, nitor, innitor:

Sâlus veritate nititur, Safty rests upon trudh. Cic.
III. With Verbs and Adjectives of Pleaty and Want:

Non ěgoo médicicina, I do not need a remedy. Cie.
iv. With dignus, indignus, contentus, and fretus:

Digni sunt ămecitia, They are worthy of friendstiop. Cie.

XXVI. I. The place in which and the place from which are generally denoted by the Ablative with a Preposition. But
II. Names of Towns drop the Preposition, and in the Singular of the First and Second declensions designate the place in which by the Genitive (421):

In Itstia fuit, He was in Iaty. Nep. Ex Africa, from Africa. Liv. Athenis fuit, He vasa at Athuns. Cic. Rômae fuit, He was at Rome. Cie.
XXVII. Source and Separation are denoted by the Ablative, generally with a preposition (425):

Oriundi ab Sibinis, descended from the Sabines. Liv. Caedem a vobbis dépello, I ward off slaughter from you. Cic.
XXVIII. The Trme of an Action is denoted by the Ablative (426) :

Octögẽsimo anno est mortuus, Ho died in his eightieth year. Cie.
XXIX. The Ablative with an adjective may be used to characterize a person or thing (428):
Summa virtuite ǎdulescens, $a$ youth of the highest virtue. Caes.
XXX. The Ablative may be used with a word to define its application (429) :
Nōmine, non pǒtestãte fuit rex, He was king in name, not in power. Nep.
XXXI. The Ablative is used as the Case Absolute (431):

Servio regnante, in the reign of Servius (Servius reigning). Cic.
Cases with Preposimons.
XXXII. The Accusative and Ablative may be used with Prepositions (432):

Ad ămicum, to a friend. Cie. In Itălia, in Italy. Nep.

## ADJECIIVES.

* XXXIII. An Adjective agrees with its Noun in GenDER, NUMBER, and CASE (438):

Fortana caeca est, Fortune is blind. Cic.

## INIVERSII momome


XXXIV. A Pronoun agrees with its Antecedent in gender, number, and person (445):

Aň̌mal, quod sanguinnem hăbet, an animal which has blood, Cie.

## VERBS.

## Agreement.

XXXV. A Finite Verb agrees with its Subject in number and person (460):

Ego rēges ejēci, I have banished kings. Cic.

## Indicative Moó.

XXXVI. The Indicative is used in treating of facts (474):

Deus mundum redificaivit, God made the world. Cie.

## Subiunctive Tenses.

XXXVII. Principal tenses depend upon Principal tenses: Historical, upon Historical (480):

Nititur ut vincat, He strives to conquer. Cic. Quaesièras nonne pǔtalrem, You had asked whether I did not think. Cic.

## Subiunctive Mood.

XXXVIII. The Potential Subunctive represents the action not as real, but as possible (485) :

Forsitan quaeratis, perkaps you may inquire. Cie.
XXXIX. The Subunctive of Desire represents the action not as real, but as desired (487):

Valeant cives, May the citizens be well. Cic.
XL. The Suliunctive of Purpose or Result is used (489),
I. With ut, ne, quo, quin, quōminus:

Enititur ut vincat, He strives that ho may conquer. Cic.
II. With qui $=u t$ is, ut ĕgo, tu, ete.:

Missi sumt, qui (ut ii) consulerent Apollinem, They vere sent to consuit Apollo. Nep.
XLI. The Subjunotive of Condition is used (503),
I. With dum, mठdo, dummǒdo:

Mờdo permăneat industria, if only industry remains. Cie.
II. With ac si, ut si, quăsi, quam si, tanquam, tanquam si, velut, vèlut si:

Vellut si ădesset, as if ho were present. Caes.
III. Sometimes with si, nisi, ni, sin, qui $=$ si is, si quis: Si vellim nŭmêrare, if I should wish to recount. Cic.
XLII. The Subjunctive of Concession is used (515),
I. With licet, quamvis, quantumvis, ut, ne, quum, although:

Licet irrideat, though he may deride. Cic.
II. With qui = quam (lǐet) is, quum ěgo, etc., though he: Absolvite Verrem, qui (quum is) fâteâtur, Acquit Verres, though ho confesses. Cic.
III. Generally with etsi, tămetsi, ětiamsi :

Etsi optimum sit, even if (though) it be most excellent. Cic.
XLIII. The Subjunctive of Cause or Reason is used (517),
I. With quum (eum), since; qui = quum is, etc.

Quum vita mětus plena sit, since life is full of fear. Cic.
II. With quod, quia, quoriam, quando, to introduce a reason on another's authority:

Quod corrumpêret jüventâter, because (on the ground that) he corruptod the youth. Quint.
XLIV. The Subjunctive of Thie with the accessory notion of Cause or Purpose is used (521),
I. With dum, dōneo, quoad, until:-

Exspectas, dum dicat, You are waiting till he speaks, i. e., that he may speak. Cic.
II. With antĕquam, priusquam, before:

Ante̛quam de re pãbliea dicam, before $I$ (can) speak of the republic. Cic.
XLV. The Subjunctive is used in Indirect Questions (525):

Quid dies ferrat, ineertum est, What a day may bring forth is uncer-- tain. Cie.
XLVI. The Subjunetive by Attraction is often used in clauses dependent upon the Subjunctive (527):
Věreor, ne, dum mĩnuĕre velim lăbōrem, augeam, I faar I shall increase the labor, while I woish to diminish it. Cic.
XLVII. The Subjunctive is generally used in the Interrogative, Imperative, and Subordinate clauses of the Oratio Obliqua (529) :

Respondit, cur veniret, He replied, why did he come. Caes. Scribit Lăbiêno venniat, He rorites to Labionus to come. Caes.

## Imperative.

XLVIII. The Imperative is used in commands, exhortations, and entreaties (535):

Justititiam cǒle, Practise justice. Cic.

## Infintitive.

XLIX. The Subject of an Infinitive is put in the Accusative (545):

Sentimus callere ignem, We perceive that fire is hot. Cie.
Partictples, Gerunds, and Supines.
Participles are construed as adjectives (575), Gerunds and Supines as nouns $(559,567)$. But
L. The Supine in $u m$ is used after verbs of motion to express purpose (569):

Vênẽrunt res rĕpětitum, They came to demand restitution. Liv.

## PARTICLES.

LI. Adverbs qualify veres, ADJEctives, and other ADverds (582):

Săpientes feliciter vivunt, The wise live Kappily. Cic.

1. For Prepositions, see Rule XXXII
2. Conjuscrions are mere comnectives. See 587 and 588 .
3. Interjections are expressions of emotion or mere marks of address. See 589.

CHAPTER VIII.
ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS AND CLAUSES. SECTION I.

## ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

592. The Latin admits of great variety in the arrangement of the different parts of the sentence, thus affording peculiar facilities both for securing proper emphasis and for imparting to its periods that harmonious flow which characterizes the Latin classies. But with all this freedom and variety, there are certain general laws of arrangement which it will be useful to notice.

## I. General Rules.

593. The Subject followed by its modifiers occupies the first place in the sentence, and the Predicate preceded by its modifiers the last place:

Sol oriens diem conficit, The sun rising makes the day. Cic. Anĭmus aeger semper errat, $A$ disecased mind alvogys erro. Cic. Miltiădes Athênas inberrivit, Mîtiades liborated Athicne. Nep.
594. Emphasis and euphony often affect the arrangement of words :
I. Beginning.-Any word, except the subject, may be made emphatic by being placed at the beginning of the sentence:

Silont leges inter arma, Laws are silent in voar. Cic. Nümitōri Rěmus dēdĭtur, Remus is delivered to Numitor. Liv. Igni ăger vastăbătur, The field was ravaged with fires Sall.
II. End.-Any word, except the predicate, may be rendered emphatic by being placed at the end of the sentence:

Nūbis non sătisfarcit ipse Demosthínes, Even Demosthenes does not satiify us. Cic. Consuliatum petitivit nunquam, He never sought the consulship. Cie. Exsistit quaedam quaestio subdifficilis, There arises, a question somewhat diffirult. Cic.
III. Separation. - Tro words naturally connected, as a noun and its adjective, or a noun and its genitive, are sometimes made emphatic by separation:

Objurgätiönes nonnunquam inčdunt nëcessäriae, Sometimes necessary roproofs occur. Cic. Justitiae fungătur offrciis, Let him discharge the duties of justice. Cic. 595 . Contr sten
595. Contrasted Groups.- When two groups of words are contrasted, the order of the first is often reversed in the second:

Frăgle corpus ănǐmus sempiternus morvet, The imperislable sout moves the perishable body. Ci.. $\cup \perp$ UNIN
596. Kindred Words.-Different forms of the same word, or different words of the same derivation, are generally placed near each other:

Ad sěnem sěnex de sěnectate scripsi, $I$, an old man, wrote to an old man on the subject of old age. Cic. Inter se ăliis ǎlii prösunt, They mutually benefit each other. Cic.
597. Words with a common Relation.-A word which has a common relation to two other words connected by conjunctions, is placed,
I. Generally before or after both:

Päcis et artes et gloria, both the arts and the glory of peace. Liv. Belli päcisque artes, the arts of war and of peace. Liv.

A Genitive or Adjective following two nouns may quilify both, but it more frequently qualifies only the latter:
Hinec percunctãtio ac dènuntiatio bell, this inquiry and this declaration of war. Liv.
II. Sometimes directly after the first before the conjunction:

Hǒnöris certämen et gloriae, a struggle for honor and glory. Cic. Agri omnes et mărin, all lands and scas. Cic.

## II. Spectal Rules.

598. Modifiers of Nouns. - The modifiers of a noun generally follow it. They may be either adjectives or nouns:

Pơpŭlus Rṑmānus dēcrévit, The Roman people decreed. Cic. Hêrơdơtus, păter histơriae, Herodotus, the fasher of history. Cic. Liber de officiis, the book on duties. Cic.

1. Nors.- A noun as modifier of another noun is generally an appositive, a genitive, or a case with a preposition, as in the examples.
2. Witn Eaphasts,-Modiliers when emphatic are pled before their nouns:

Tuscus ăger Rōmāno adjŭcet, The Tuscan torvitory borders on the Roman. Liv. Cätōnis örătiōnes, Catós orations. Cic.
3. Adjective and Gexitive.-When a noun is modified both by an adjective and by a genitive, the usual order is, aljective-genitive-noun:

Magna eivium pēnuria, a great searcity of citisens. Cic.
599. Modifiers of Adjectives.-The modifiers of the adjective generally precede it, bnt, if not adverbs, they may follow it:
-1 Făchle doctissìmus, unquastionably the most tearned. Cic. Omni aetāti commanis, common to every age. Cic. Avidus laudis, desirous of praise. Cic.
600. Modifiers of Verbs.-The modifiers of the verb generally precede it :

Glöria virtatem sěqư̌tur, Glory follows virtue. Cic. Mundus deo păret, The world is subject to God. Cic. Vehermenter dixit, He spoke vehemently. Cic. Glöria dacitur, Ho is led by glory. Cic.

1. After the Verb.-When the verb is placed for the sake of emphasis at the beginning of the sentence, the modifiers, of course, follow. See first example under 594. I.
2. Emphasis.-An emphatic modifier may of course stand at the beginning or at the end of the sentence (594):

Făcillĭme cognoscuntur ădŏlescentes, Most easily are the young men reoognized. Cic.
3. Two or wore Modryizrs.- Of two or more modifiers belonging to the same verb, that which in thought is most intimately connected with the verb stands next to it, while the others are arranged as emphasis and euphony may require:

Rex Scythis bellum intŭlit, The Ring waged voar against the Scythians. Nep. Mors propter brěvitātem vitae nunquam longe ăbest, Death is never far distant, ins consequence of the siortness of life. Cic.
601. Modifiens of Adverbs. - The modifiers of the adverb generally precede it, but a Dative often follows it:

Valde vehěmenter dixit, He spoke very vehemently. Cic. Congruenter näturae vivit, He lives agreeably to nature. Cic.
602. Spreial. Words.-Some words have a favorite place in the sentence, which they seldom leave. Thus,
I. The Demonstrative generally precedes its noun :

Custos hujus urbis, the guardian of this city. Cic.

1. Mo in the sense of well-known ( 450 . 5 ) generally follows its noun, if not accomplanied by an adjective:

Médea illa, that well-knoron Medea. Oic.
2. Quisque the indefinite pronoun, follows some other word:

Justitia suuw cuique tribuit, Justice gives to every man his due (hils own). Cla.
II. Prepositions generally stand directly before their cases, but tünus and versus follow their cases:

In Asiam pröfugit, He fled into Asia. Cic. Collo tĕnus, up to the neck. Ov .

1. AFtar a Proxoun.- The preposition frequently follows the relative, sometimes other pronouns, and sometimes even nouns, especially in poetry:

Res qua de agitur, the subject of volich we are treating. Cic. Itilliam contra, ver against Italy. Virg.
2. Cust Appesped.-See 184. 6 and 187. 2.
3. Intervemise Words.-Genitives, adverbs, and a few other words sometimes stand between the preposition and its case. In adjurations per is usually separated from its case by the Acc. of the object adjured, or by some other word; and someTrom its ease by the Ace. of
times the verb öro is omitted:

Post Alexsudri magni mortem, after the death of Aleaander the Great. Cic. Ad běne vivendum, for living well. Cic. Per to deos oro, I pray you in the name of the gods. Ter. Per égo vos deos = per deos igo vos öro (öro understood). I pray you in the name of the gods Curt.
III. Conjenctions and Relatives, when they introduce clauses, generally
stand at the beginning of such clauses; but autem, ennim, quidem, quăque, vero, and generally gitur, follow some other word

Si peccāvi, ignosce, If Thave erred, pardon me. Cic. Ii qui súpěriôres sunt, those roho are superior. Cic. Ipse autem omnia vǐdêbat, But he himself sawo all things. Cie.

1. Empiatio Words and Relatives often precede the cobjunction.

Id ut audivit, as he heard this. Nep. Qune quum ita sint, since these things are so. Cic.
2. Ne-QUIDEs takes the emphatic word or words
Ne in oppidis quidem, not even in the towns. Cic.
8. Quidem often follows pronouns, superlatives, and ordinals:

Ex me quidem nihil audiet, He will hear nothing from me. Cic.
4. Que, ve, ne, introducing a clause or plirase, are generally appended to the first word, but if that word is a monosyllabic preposition, they are often appended to the next word: $a d$ plibemve, for $a d v e$, ete., or to the people; $i n$ forõque $=$ inque $\delta \%$ oro, and in the forum. Apud quosque, and before whom, occurs for euphony.
IV. Non, when it qualifies some single word, stands directly before that word, but when it is particularly emphatic, or qualifies the entire clause, it generally stands at the beginning of the clause:
Hac villa căröre non possunt, They are not able to do without this villa. Cic. Non fuit Jūiter mětuendus, Jupiter woas not to be feared. Cic.
V. Inquam, sometimes Aio, introducing a quotation, follows one or more of the words quoted. The subject, if expressed, generally follows its verb:

Nihil, inquit Brūtus, quod dicam, Nothing which I shall state, said Brutus. Cic.
VI. The Vocative rarely stands at the beginning of a sentence. It usually follows an emphatic word:

Perge, Laeli, Proceed, Laelius., Cic.

SEOTION II.
ADE Yuamauroín
603. Subject or Predicate.-A clause used as the subject of a complex sentence (357) generally stands at the begimning of the sentence, and a clause used as the predicate at the end:

Quid dies ferat incertum est, What a day may bring forth is uncertain. Cic. Exǐtus fuit ōrätiōnis: sǐbi nullam cum his ămicǐtiam esse, The clos of the oration was, that he had no friendship with these men. Caes.

1. This arrangement is the same as that of the simple sentence. See 598.
2. Emphasis and euphony often have the same effect upon the arrangement of clauses as of words. See 594.
3. Subordinate Elements.-Clauses used as the subordinate elements of complex sentences, admit three different arrangements:
I. They are generally inserted within the principal clause, like the subordinate elements of a simple sentence :

Hostes, ưbi primum nostros ěquites conspexêrunt, celęrriter nostros perturbãverunt, The enemy, as soon as they savo our cavalry, quickly put our men to routc. Caes. Sententia, quae tưtissima vǐdēbātur, vicit, The opinion monieh seemed the evfet prevailed. Liv.
II. They are often placed before the principal clause:

Quum quiescunt, pröbant, While they are quict, they approve. Cic. Quãlis sit ănimus, ăniัmus nescit, Thic soul knoves not what the soul is. Cic. Si haec civitas est, civis sum ego, If this is a state' ' am a citizen. Cic.

This arrangement is cepecinlly common when the subordinate clanse either refers back to the preceding sentence, or is preparatory to the thought of the principal
clause. Hence temporal, conditional, and concestive clauses often precede the prin-

 the clnuse with qui, quakio, guantus, quum, ut, etc., generally precedes.
III. They sometimes follow the principal clause:

Enititur ut vincat, He strives that he may conquer. Cic. Sol efficit ut omnia fioreant, Tho sun causes all things to bloom. Cic.

This arrangement is common when the subordinate clanse is either intimately connceted in thought with the following sentence or is explanatory of the principal clanse. Hence clauses of Purpose and Result generally follow the principal clanse, as in the examples. See aiso examples under articles $459-499$.
605. Latin Period.-A complex sentence in which the subordinate clause is inserted within the principal clause, as under $I$., is called a Period in the strict sense of the word.

In a freer sense the same term is also applied to any sentence in which the clauses are so arranged as not to make complete sense before the end of the sentence. In this sense the examples under II. are periods.

[^30]
## part Fourth.

## $P R O S O D Y$.

607. Prosody treats of Quantity and Versification,

## CHAPTER I.

## QUANTITY.

608. The time occupied in pronouncing a syllable in poetry is called its quantity. Syllables are accordingly characterized as long, short, or common. ${ }^{1}$
609. The quantity of syllables is determined by poetic usage. But this usage conforms in many cases to general laws, while in other cases it seems somewhat arbitrary.
610. Syllables whose quantity conforms to known rules are said to be long or short by rule.
611. Syllables whose quantity does not conform to known rules are said to be long or short by authority.
612. The rules for quantity are either general, i. e., applicable to most syllables, or special, i. e., applicable to particular syllables.

## SECTION I.


610. Rule I.-Diphthongs and Contracted syllables are Long :

Haee, coena, aura; ălus for ălius, cögo for coigo, occīdo for occaedo, nill for nihil.

1. Prae in composition is usually short before a vowel : praĕcucûtus, präeustus.
2. Ua, $u e, u i, u o$, and $u u$, are not strictly diphthongs, and accordingly do not come under this rule.
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3. Rule II.-A vowel is lona by postition before $j, x, z$, or any two consonants: ${ }^{1}$

Mījor, rexi, gãza, mẽns, servus.

1. But one of the consonnents at least must belong to the same word as the vowel: ab riupe, per saza.
1) A final vowel is not usually affected by consonants at the beginning of the following word, except before $s c, s p, s q$, and $s t$, where a short vowel is rare.
2) $H$ and $U$ must never be treated as consonants under this rule, ${ }^{2}$ except in rare instances where $u$ is so used by Synaeresis. See 669. II.
2. Before a mute followed by $L$ or $R$, a vowel naturally short becomes common: aủples, ăgri, pădres.
1) In Greek words a vowel is also common before a mute with $M$ or $N$ : Tecmessa, çfcnus.
2) A mute at the end of the first part of a compound before a liquid at the beginning of the second part makes the preceding vowel long by position: âb-rumpo, ob-rögo.
3) A vowel naturally long, of course, remains long before a Mute and Liquid: äcer, äcris.
3. Compounds of $j u g$ um retain the short vowel before $j: b y j u ̆ g u s$, quadrソ̈ท̆gus.
4. Rune III.-A vowel before another vowel, or a diphthong, is short by postrion :

Pius, prae, dơceo, trǎho.
No account is takerr of the breathing $\hbar$; hence $a$ in trako is treated as a vowel before another vowel.

Excertions.-The following are long before a vowel:

1. $\mathbf{A},-(1)$ in the genitive ending $\bar{a} i \vec{i}$ of Dec. I.: aulaji,$-(2)$ in proper names in âius: Câius (Cajus), -(3) before $i a, i e, i o$, $i u$, in the verb aio.
2. $\mathbf{E},-(1)$ in the ending $a i$ of Dec. V. when preceded by a vowel : $d i 8 i$;
and sometimes in fïď̌\%, rëi, spǎi,-(2) in proper names in eius: Pom-peius,- (3) in ehou.
3. $\mathbf{I}_{1}-(1)$ in the verb fio, when not followed by er: fiam, frebam, but freri,-(2) in the genitive älius. In other genitives $i$ in ius is common in poetry, though long in prose, but the $i$ in altorius is short, $-(8)$ in dius, $a$, um, for dīvus, $a, ~ u m,-$ (4) sometimes in Díäna.
4. O ,-is common in the.
${ }^{1}$ Strictly speaking, the syllable, and not the vowel, is lengthened, but the languago of convenience refers the quantity of the syllable to the vowel.
${ }^{2} Q u, g u$, and $s u$, when $u$ has the sound of $v$, are treated as single consonants.
5. In Greek words vowels are often long before a vowel, beoause long in the original: äer, Aonēas, Brisèis, Mënèläus, Tröes.

This often occurs in proper names in- $i a$, ta, euss, tus, àn, tou, ais, ois, oius: Mẽdēa, Alexandrīa, Pênūus, Dürius, Orion.

SECTION II.

## SPECIAL RULES OF QUANTITY.

I. Quantity of Fival Syllables.

## I. Monosyllables.

613. Rule IV.-Monosyllables are long:

Exceptioss - The following are short:



 Nom, or Acc. forms.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { II. Polysyllables. } \\
& \text { 1. FINAL vowels. }
\end{aligned}
$$


614. Rule V.-In words of more than one syllable, the endings $a, e$, and $\mathbf{y}$ are short; $\mathbf{i}$ and $\mathbf{u}$, long; $\mathbf{o}$, common :

615. A final is short! mensã, templä, böna.

Excepross. $-A$ final is long,

1. In the Ablative : mensā̃, bōnā, illä,
2. In the Yocative of Greek nouns in as (rarely es): Aenzã, Palla.


3. E final is short : servè, urbé, rēgè.

Exceptions.-E final is long,

1. In Dec. I. and V.: éputame, re, die. Hence in the compounds-lädie, 2nidie, pastridion, quäre.
2. In Greek plurals of Dee. III.: Tompe, mèle. - 13
3. In the Sing. Imperative Act. of Conj. II.: mŏne $d \mathscr{O}_{\sigma} \bar{e}$. But $e$ is sometimes short in cüvटे
4. In fere, ferme, ole, and in Adverbs from adjectives of Dec. II.: docte, recte. Except bönĕ, mălě, infernĕ, internĕ, sŭpornĕ.
5. Y final is short: misyy̆, mōly̆, cotty.

6. I final is long: servi, bŏnt, audi.

Excertions,-I final is,

1. Comros in mikit, tizun, sibt, ivz, utin. But
 Wh, sicão
 ending sí of Dat. and Abl. Plur.: Troẵ̆,-(8) in the Dat. and Voc. Sing., which end short in the Greek: Alexi, Păridi.

Un follows the rule, but not the compounds, ilinnam, uithque, siexth.
619. U final is long: fiuctū, comū, dictū.

Exceptions.-Indü for in, and nĕnu for non.
620. O final is common : ämǒ, sermō, virgơ.

Exceptions.-O final is,

1. Loxg,-(1) in Datives and Ablatives: servö, illo, qu words, when it represents a long Greek vowel : zclio, Argo, -( 3 ) in Adverbs:



2. In Greek words,-(1) en is long; often also an, in, on, $y n$ : Hymèn, Anchisen, Tîtän, Delphiin, Actaeon, Phorcyn,-(2) er is long in aer, aether, crater, and a few other words with long ending in the original.
3. This rule does not, of course, apply to syllables long by previous rules.

## 3. FINAL SYLLABLES IN S

622. Rule VII.-In words of more than one syllable, the endings as, es, and os are long; is, us, ys, short:
ămãs, mensās, mŏnēs, nūbēs, hōs, servōs; ăvis, urbiss, bŏnŭs, servǔs, chlămy̆s.
623. As final is long: Aeneäs, bönās, illās.

Excerpions.-As final is short,

1. In anŭs and in a few Greek nouns in ăs: Arcăs, lampăs.
2. In Greek Accusatives of Dec. III. : Arcưdüts, hêrỡăs.
3. Es final is long: nūbēs, moัnēs.

Exceptions.-Es final is short,

1. In Nominatives Singular of Dec. III., which inerease short in the Gen.: mî̆́ss (Itis), obsĕs (Idis), interprès (čtis). Except ăbies, ăriès, părizs, Ceress, and compounds of pess; as tipes, tripes, etc.

2. In Greek words, -(1) in the plural of those which increase in the Gen.: Arcüď̌s, Troüdes,-(2) in a few neuters in es: Hippŏmĕnĕs,-(3) in a few Vocatives singular: Demosthönčos.

## 625. Os final is long: eutstōs, virōs.

## Exceptions.- Os final is short,

1. In com pooss, impös, caŏs. ending short in the Greek: Detŏs, medos.
2. Is final is short: ävis, cänŭs.

Exceptions.-Is final is long,

1. In Plural Cases : mensis, sorvis, vöbtis.
2. In Plural Cases: mensis,
Hence forts, gratts, ingruxitis.
3. In Nominatives of Dec. III., increasing long in the Gen. : Quivvis (Itis), Sǎlãmìs (Inis).
4. In the Sing. Pres. Indic. Act, of Conj. IV. : audis.

Mâvis, quivis, útervis follow the quantity of ois.
4. In the Sing. Pres. Subjunct. Act. : possis, celizs, nôliz, mälis.
5. Sometimes in the Sing. of the Fut. Perf, and of the Perf. Subj. : ămävörts, dŏcueris.

## 627. Us final is short: servŭs, bönŭs.

Exceptrons.- Us final is long,

1. In Nominatives of Dee. III. increasing long in the Gen.: virtüs (utis), tellus (ûris).

But pdute (u short) oceurs in Horace. Ars P. 65 .
2. In Dec. IY., in the Gen. Sing., and in the Nom. Acc. and Voc. Plur.: fricturs.
3. In Greek words ending long in tha original: Punthūs, Sapphüs, tripưs. But we have Qedrpizs and potypris.
628. Is final is short: chlamy̆s, chelys.

Exceptioss,-Contracted endings are of cotrse long: Erymnys for Erynnyes.

> II. Quantity in Increments.
629. A word is said to increase in declension, when it has in any case more syllables than in the nominative singular, and to have as many increments of declension as it has additional syllables: sermo, sermōnis, sermōnibus.

Sermönts, having one syllable more than sermo, has one increment, while sermonitbus has two increments.
630. A yerb is said to inerease in conjugation, when it has in any part more syllables than in the second person singular of the present indicative active, and to have as many increments of conjugation as it has additional syllables: àmās, àmātis, àmābätis.

Amätis has one increment, dmabatis two
631. If there is but one increment, it is uniformly the penult, if there are more than one, they are the penult with the requisite number of syllables before it. The inerement nearest the beginning of the word is called the first increment, and those following this are called suecessively the second, third, and fourth inerements. Thus

In ser-mom ${ }^{2}$-bus, the first increment is mon, the second $i$; and in mon$\psi^{2} \cdot 0^{2} r^{3} a-m u s$, the first is $u$, the second $e$, the third $r a$. A. A

## I. Increments of Declension.

632. Rule VIII.-In the Increments of Declension, $a$ and $o$ are long; $e, i, u$, and $y$, short :
aetas, aetatitis, aetatilibus; serme, sermõnis; puer, puĕri, pučrōrum;
fulgur, fulgŭris; cllămys, chlamy̌dis; bơnus, bonārum, bonơrum; ille illarum, illorum; miser, misěri; supplex, supplicis; sǎtur, satưri.

Vowels long or short by position are of course excepted.
633. $\mathbf{A}$ in the increments of declension is long : pax, päcis; bönus, bonārum ; duo, duäbŭs.

Exceprions. $-A$ is short in the first increment

1. Of masculines in al and ar : Hannibcl, Hannibălis; Caesar, Caceäris. Except Car and Nar.
2. Of nouns in s preceded by a consonant: daps, düpis; Arabs, Arülibs.
3. Of Greek nouns in a and ăs: poima, poèmütis; Pullas, Pulladis.
4. Of the following:-(1) baccar, Kepar, jubbar, lar, nectar, par and its compounds,-(2) ànas, mas, vas (vădis),-(8) sal, fax, and a fev rare Greek words in $a x$.
5. O in the increments of declension is long: honor, honōris; bönus, bonōrum ; duo, duōbus.

Exceptions. $-O$ is short in the first increment,

1. Of Neuters: aequor, aequöris; tempus, tompöris. Except os (öris), atdor (adơris), and comparatives.
2. Of words in s preceded by a consonant; inops, inơpis. Except $C_{y}$. clops and hydrops.
3. Of arbor, bos, țpue,-compos, impos, mëmor, immennor,-4llobrox, Cappädox, praceox.
4. Of most Patrials : Mrucedo, Macedönis
5. Of many Greek nouns,-(1) those in or: rlietor, Hector,-(2) many in $o$ and on increasing short in Greek: aedon, addonis,-(3) in Greek compounds in pus: tripus (夭dis), Oedlpus.
6. E in the increments of declension is short : puer, puèri; liber, libëri.

Excerrions. $-E$ is long in the first increment

diebus, reibus.
2. Of houns in ēn, mostly Greek: Wienn, wonis, sitan, swerls. So Anio,
3. Of ciltiber, Iber, ver,-hieres, Tocüples, merces, quies, inquies, riquiks, pids,-lex, rex, alle, alex, vervex.
4. Of a fow Greek words in es and or, except aer and aether; as TWbee, Lebetis; crâter, crateris.
636. I in the inerements of declension is short: mites, mīlitis, militibus; anceps, ancipitis.

Excertions. - $I$ is long in the first increment,

1. Of most words in ix: radic, radicis; felito felicis.

But short in: appendia, edlix, cllix, fulia, fornix, nix, pix, adilix, strix, and a fow others, chiefly proper names.
2. Of dis, glis, lis, cis, Qư̌ris, Samnis.
3. Of delphin and a few rare Greek words.
4. For quantity of therending ins, see 612. 3 .
637. U in the increments of declension is short: dux; dŭcis ; arcus, arcūbus ; sätur, satüri.

Exceprions, $-U$ is long in the first increment,

1. Of nonns in us with the genitive in uris, utis, udis: jus, jurvis; sülus, suatis ; pälus, paladis. Except interous, Ligus, pécus.
2. Of fur, frux, lux, plus, Pothio.
3. $\boldsymbol{Y}$ in the increments of declension is short: chlämys, chlamydis.

Excerptions. - This increment occurs only in Greek words, and is long in those in $y n$, $\bar{y} n i s$, and in a few others.

## II. Increments of Conjugation.

639. Rule IX. -In the Increments of Conjugation (630), a, e, and o are long; $\mathbf{i}$ and $u$ short:
àmâmus, amêmus, amãtōte, régimus, sŭmus.
640. In ascertaining the incerements of the irregular verbs, faro, vollo, and their compounds, the fullform of the second person, feris, volit, etc., must be used. Thus fa fercebam and wolebam, the iscrements are re and lea
641. In ascertaining the increments of reduplicated forms (254), the redaplieation is not counted. Thus dddrmus bas but one increment $d i$,
642. A in the increments of conjugation is long: ämäre.

Exckprions. $-A$ is short in the first increment of do: dăre, dübam, cincumdz̈bam.
641. E in the increments of conjugation is long: mönère.

Exceprions. $-E$ is short before r ,

1. In the tenses in ram, rim, ro: ămătĕram, amavĕrim, amazēro; rewcrat, recicitit.
2. In first increment of the Present and Imperfect of Conj. III. : regeres, regěris, regërem, reğrer.
3. In the Fut. ending bĕris, běre: ümäbéris, or -ĕre, mönebéris.
4. Rarely in the Perf. ending erunt : stitirunt for steterunt. See 235 , also Systole, 669. IV.
5. O in the increments of conjugation is long without exception: mönētōte, rĕgĭtōte.
6. I in the increments of conjugation is short: regitis, reximus.

Exceprioss.- $I$ is long, except before a vowel,

1. In the first increment of Conj. IV., except imus of the Perf: audire, audivi, auditum; sentio, sentimus, sensimus (perf.).
2. In Conj. III. in the first increment of perfects and supines in ivi and itum (276. III.) and of the parts derived from them (except innus of Perf:
 Gäoizus from gaudeo follows the same analogy.
3. In the endings imus and itis of Pres. Subj.: eimus, sitis; velimus, velitis (289.8).
4. In nolite, nolito, nolitute, and in the different persons of ibam, ibo, from $e 0$ (295).
5. Sometimes in the endings rimus and ritis of the Fut. Perf. and Perf.

6. U in the increments of conjugation is short : vöturmus.

Excertions. $-U$ is long in the Supine and the parts formed from it: عòlatum, volatuarus, ămātūrus.

## III. Quantity of Derivative Endings.

645. Rule X.-The following derivative endings have the perult long:
I. ābrum, āorum, ātrum :
flabrum, simmŭlācrum, ărâtrum.
II. ēdo, ĩdo, ūdo ; āgo, Igo, ūgo:
dulcędo, cŭpido, sollitūdo; vơriğo, ơrīgo, aerûgo.
III. äs, ëis, öis, ötis, ine, ōne-in patronymics:



## IV. êla, Île; ālis, êlis, ūlis

## quĕrela, c̆vile; mortalis, fídelis, curralis.

V. ānus, ēnus, ōnus, ūnus; āna, ēna, ōna, ūna:
urbănus, ěgẽnus, patrỡus, tribūnus; membräna, hăbēna, annợna, lă-

## cūna.

Except gabonus.
VI. āris, ārus; ōrus, ōsus; āvus, īvus:
sǎlutăris, ăvărus; cĭnōrus, ănümōsus; octârus, aestǐvus.
VII. ātus, İtus, ūtus ; ātim, İtim, ūtim ; ētum, ēta:
ãītus, turritus, cornûtus; singŭlātim, vǐritim, trĭbǔtim; quercêtum, mǒnēta.

Except (1) änhelitus, fortuitus, grâtuitus, hãtus, hospitus, servitus, spiritus, (2) affitim, statim, and adverbs in itiks, as divinthus; and (3) participics provided for - by 639 .

VIII ēni, ini, ōni,-ir distributives:
septēni, quini, octōni.
646. Rule XI.-The following derivative endings have the pemult short:
I. ǎdes, iădes, ǐdes,-ir patronymices:

Aeneădes, Lä̈rtiădes, Tantăides.
Except (1) those in ides from nouns in ews and es; as, Telides (Peleus), Neo-

II. iăcus, ìous, idus:

Cơrinthiăcus, mödicus, cŭpǐdus. $\quad \square \square \square=\square$


Except amtous, anticys, apvicus, menaticus, postious, púdicus.
III. ǒlus, čla, ǒlum; ülus, ǔla, ǔlum ; cǔlus, cǔla, oŭlum,-in diminutives:
fillōlus, filiöla, atriǒlum; hortŭlus, virgǔla, oppǐdŭhum; fioscǔlus, partícưla, mûnusculum.
IV. ětas, ztas ,-in nouns; iter, itus, -in adverbs:
piettas, veritas; fortiter, divinitus.
V. ātilis, ilis, bilis,-in verbals; innus,-in adjectives denoting material or time:
versâtilis, dơcǐlis, ămãbilis; ădămantǐnus, cedrǐnus, crastĭnus, diatĭnus.
Ixcept mätütinues, repentènus, veopertinus,

1. Ilis in adjectives from nouns usually has the penult long: cirilis, hostilis, puerilis, virilis.
2. Inus denoting charactoristic (325) usually has the penult long: cănïnus, ёqū̃nus, mărinus.
3. RuLE XII. -The following derivative endings have the antepenult long:
I. āceus, ūceus, āneus, ārius, ārium, ōrius:
rơsãceus, pannũceus, sǔb̌̌tãneus, cǐbărius, cǒlumbărium, censōrius.
II. ābilis, ātilis, āticus :
ămâbǐlis, versatililis, ăquătǐcus.
III. äginta, Iginti, ēsimus,-in numerals :
nōnäginta, viginti, centẽsimus.
4. Rule XIII.-The following derivative endings have the antepenult short :
I. ¡bilis, itữo, zlentus, ülentus.
crèdibilis, solitiado, vinưlentus, ơpulentus
II. ürio,-in desideratives:
escurio, empturrio, partŭrio.
IV. Quantity of Stear Syllables.

## I. In Primitives.

649. The quantity of stem-syllables in primitive words, when not determined by the General Rules (Sec. I.), is in most cases best referred to authority. Thus,

In miter, cedoo, seribo, aठono, ator, the first syllable is long by authority, while in păter, tetgo, míco, š̃no, ûter, it is short by authority.
650. Rule XIV.-The quantity of stem-syllables remains unchanged in inflection:

In decusssiox,-ävis, ăvem; nates, nabium.
In courrasisoor,-lexii, levior, levisisimus.
In cosstantros, -mŏneo, mơnébam, mŏnui.

1. Position may howerer affect the quantity: äger, äyri ( 611,612 ); poswm, potui; solko, soblatum; colvo, wolituru.
 postion, becomes slort before a single consonant.
2. Gigno gives gĕnui, gĕnitum, and pōno, pŏsui, pŏsitum.
3. See also 651, 652.

F 651. Dissyllabic Perfects and Supines have the first syllable long, unless short by position :
jǔvo, jūvi, jūtum; fơveo, fôvi, fôtum.

1. These Perfects and Supines, if formed from Presents with the first syllable short, are exceptions to 650 .
2. Seven Perfects have the first syllable short:
bibi, decli, fidi, secti, steti, stiti, tūli.
$13^{*}$
3. Ten Supines have the first syllable short:
 tum. ${ }^{1}$
4. In trisyllabic Reduplicated Perfects the first two syllables are short:
cǎdo, cěč̌di; căno, cěcini ; disco, dĭdici.
5. Caedo has cioidd is distinction from celctdi from cadlo.
6. The second syllable may be made long by position: exucurri, mómordi.

## II. In Derivatives.

653. Rule XV.-Derivatives retain the quantity of their primitives:
bŏnus, bơnîtas; tĭmeo, tĭmor; ănĭmus, ănĭmôsus; civis, civǐcus; cựa, cûro.
654. Trequentatives in ito, have i short: clamsto. See 832. I.
655. Ina few Derivatives the short vowel of the primitive is lengthened:

656. In a few Derivatives the long vowel of the primitive is shortened:


This change of quantity in some instances is the result of contraction: nojorbulis, moxbyits, mobblis, and in others it serves to distinguish words of the same orthography: as the verbs ligis uges, regie, topes, sodes, from the nouns legis, liges, rejis, phy: as, sedes, or the verbs dadis, duces, fides, from the nouns dücis, dưces,fides.
ring
2. Inseparable Preposimions.-Dİ, sē, and vē are long, rě short: ne sometimes long and sometimes short:
dỉduco, sêdûco, vêcors, rêdưco, nêdum, nêfas:

1) Di is short in dirimo, disertus
2) $N e$ is long in nédum, nèmo, nëquam, néquäquam, nêquidquam, nêquťia, and neve. In other words it is short.
3) $R e$ is sometimes lengthened in a few words: rêtrgio, ritrquiae, ręperit, rêpülit, retaklit, eto.
3. Change of Quantity.-In a few words the quantity of the second element is changed. Thus
 de-jěro, cog-nĭtus, prō-nŭba.
4. Pro.-Pro is short in the following words:

Piŏcella, prŏcul, prŏfânus, prŏfäri, prŏfocto, prŏfestus, prŏfíciscor, prŏfitcor, prŏfrugio, prọfugus, pröfundus, prơnĕpos, pröneptis, prơterous, and most Greek words, as pröphèta, generally in prôfundo, prôpägo, prôpino, rarely in prö́curo, pröpello.
5. STEM. - When the first element is the stem of a word (338. III.), it is often followed by a short comnecting vowel:
căl-ě-făcio, lăb-đ̌-fäcio, bell-Ї-gěro, aed-ǐ-fico, art-1-fex, ampl-ǐ-fĭco, lŏc-ŭ-ples.

Before facio in a fow compounds e is sometimes lengthened: $\pi q$ qưfucio, patlfacio, putrifacio, tep ffacio. The first e in viallicet is long.
6. I love. $-I$ is long, - ( 1 ) in the first part of compounds of dies: meridies, pridie, postridie, quǒtidie, triduum, and ( 2 ) in the contracted forms, bigae, trigae, quadrigae, ilticot, sciliout, titioen for tibiicen.

But $i$ is short in Uduum and quatriduum. $\qquad$
7. 0 long. $-O$ is long in controv-, intrö, retrö, and quand $\overline{0}$-in composition; as: controversia, intrôdûco, vetrōverto, quandöque, but quandöquǔlem. 8. Spuchal Words.-Hodie, quăsi, and siquidem have the first syllable "DE NUEVOIEON

## III. In Compounds.

654. Ruxe XVI. - Compounds generally retain the quantity of their elements:
ante-fêro, deffro, dè-dieo, inn-aequalis, prō-dico.
655. The change of a vowel or diphthong does not affect the quantity: de-1igo (leqgo), oc-cido (eùdo), oc-ciido (eardo).
${ }^{1}$ From sisto, but stäturn from sto.

## CHAPTER II.

VERSIFICATION.

SECTION I.
GENERAL VIEW OR THE SUBJEOT
655. Latin Versification is based upon Quantity and Accent. Syllables are combined into certain metrical groups called Feet, and feet, singly or in pairs, are combined into Verses.

## I. Metrical Feet.

656. Feet are either simple or compound. For convenience of reference we add the following list:
I. Simple Heet.
Dissyllabte Feet.

Spondee,

Amphibrach, Amphimacer, ${ }^{2}$ Bacchīus, Antibacchīus,

II. Compound Feet.

These are only compounds of the dissyllabio feet, and all have four syllables.


1. Common Feet.-The feet of most frequent occurrence in the best Latin poets are,
1) The Dactyl and Spondec, used in the Heroic Hexameter.
2) Less frequent the Iambus, Trochee, Triörach, Anapaest, and Choriамвия.
2. Groups.-A Dipoily is a group of two fect; a Tripody, of three; a Tetrapody, of four, etc. A Triemimoris is a group of three half feet, i. e., a foot and a half; Penthentimorris, of two and a half; Ilephthemimëris, of three and a half, etc.
3. Metrical Equivadents.-A long syllable may often be resolved into two short ones, as equivalent to it in quantity, or two short ones may be contracted into a long one. The forms thus produced are metrical equivalents of the original forms. Thus,

The Dactyl becomes a Spondee by contracting the two short syllables into one long syilable; the Spondee becomes a Dactyl by resolving the second syllable, or an Anapaest by resolving the first. Accoratngly the Dactyl, tho Spondec, and the Anapaest are metrical equivalents In like manner the Iambns, the Trochee, and the Tribrach are metrical equivalents.
658. Metrical Substituyes.-In certain kinds of verse, feet are sometimes substituted for those which are not their metrical equivalents. Thus,
The Spondee is ofren substituted for the Trambus or the Trocice, thoongh not equivalent to efther. Sce 679, 682
659. Iotus or Rhythmic Accert.-As in the pronunciation of a word one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called accent, so in the pronunciation of a metrical foot one or more syllables receive a special stress of voice called Rhythmic Accent or Ictus.

1. Simple Feet.-Feet consisting of both long and short syllables have, the ictus uniformly on the long syllables, unless used for other feet. Thus,

The Dactyl and the Trochee have the ictus on the first syllable ; the Anapaest and the Iambus on the last.
2. Equivalents and Subsitutes.-These take the ictus of the feet for which they are used. Thus,

The spondee, when used for the Dactyl, takes the fetus of the Dactyl, i. e., on the first syllable; but when used for tho Amapaest, it takes the ictus of the Anipaest, A. en, on the last syllable.

1) Feet consisting entirely of long or entirely of short syllables are generally equivalents or substitutes, and are accented accordingly.
2) When two short syllables of an equivalent take the place of an accented long syllable of the originsl foot, tho ictus rests chiefly op the first of these two. Thus the Dactyl used for the Anapaest takes the fetus on the first short syllable.
3. Compound Femr.-These take the ictus of the feet of which they are composed. Thus,

The Choriombus (trochee and iambus) takes the ictus of the trochee on the first syllable and that of the fambus on the last.

But Ionio feet are generally read with the ictus on the first long syllable.
660. Arsis and Thesis.- The accented part of each foot is called the Arsis (raising) ; and the unaccented part, Thesis (lowering).

## II, Veress.

661. A verse is a line of poetry, and is either simple or compound.
I. A Simple verse has one characteristic or fundamental foot, which determines the ictus for the whole verse. Thus,

Every Dactylic Verse has the ictus on the first syllable, because the Dactyl, its characteristic foot, has it on that syllable.
II. A Compound verse has a characteristic foot for each member. See 692.
662. Caesural Pause.-Most verses are divided into two nearly equal parts by a panse or rest called the caesura ${ }^{2}$ or caesural pause. See 673 , 674 .
663. Metrical Namies of Verees.-The metrical name of a verse designates,
I. The Characteristic foot. Thus,

[^32]Dactylic, Trochaic, and Iambic verses have respectively the Dactyl, the Trochee, and the Iambus as the characteristic foot.
II. The Number of Feet or Measures. ${ }^{1}$ Thus,

1. Dactylic Hexameter is Dactylic verse of six measures
2. A verse consisting of one measure is Monometer ; of two, Dimeter; three, Trimeter ; of four Tetrameter; of five, Pentameter ; of six, Hexameter.
III. The Completeness or Incompleteness of the meas ures. Thus,
3. A verse is termed Acatalatic, when its last measure is complete; Catalectio, when it is incomplete.
1) A Catatectic verse is said to be catalectic in eyllabam, in đisyllabum, or in trisylldbum, according as the incomplete foot has one, two, or three syllables.
2) A Brachycatalectic verse wants the closing foot of the last Dipody.
3) An Acephalous verse wants the first syllable of the first foot.
4) A Hyporcatalectic verse, also called IIypermeter, has an excess of syllables.
2. The full metrical name combines the three particulars enumerated under I. II. and III., as Dactylic Hexameter Aeatalectio, Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic, etc.
1) But for the sake of brevity the term Acatatectic is often omitted when it ean be done without ambiguity.
2) Verses are sometimes known by names which merely designate the number of feet or measures. Thus Hexameter (six measures) sometimes destgnates the Dactylic Hexameter Acatalectic, and Senarius (six feet), the Iambic Trimeter Acatalectic.
664. Spectal Names of Verses.-Many verses are often designated by names derived from celebrated poets. Thus,

Alccicic from Alcaens, Arelitochian from Arechilochus, Sapphio from Sapplbo, Glyconic, from Glycoo, ete.

Verses somectimes receive a name from the kind of subjectst to whien they were ppplied: is Herroic, sppleed to to eroric snitjects; Paroentac, to proverth, eta.
665. Final Syluabie.-The final syllable of a verse may generally be either long or short.
666. Stanza.-A stanza is a combination of two or more verses of different metres into one metrical whole. See 699, 700 .

A stanza of two lines is called a Distich; of three, a Tristich; of four, a Tetrastich.
${ }^{1}$ A measure is a single foot, except in Anapuestie, Trochale, and Lambic verses, where it is a Dipody or Pair of feet.
667. Metre.-Metre signifies measure, and is used to designate,

1. A Foot or Dipody, as the measure, or metrical element of a verse.
2. A Verse or Stanza, as the measure of a poem.
3. SanNnNG.-Seanning consists in separating a poem, or verse, into the feet of which it is composed.

## ALERE FLAMIII. Figures of Prosody.

669. The ancient poets sometimes allowed themselves, in the use of letters and syllables, certain liberties generally termed Figures of Prosody. These are,
I. Sxanloepra. - This is the elision of a final vowel or diphthong, or of a final $m$ with the preceding vowel, before a word beginning with a vowel:

Monstr' (iorrend inform' ingens, for Monstrum horrendum informe ingens. Virg.

1. No account is taken of $h$, as it is only a breathing (2. 2). Hence horrendum is treated as a word beginning with a vowel.
2. Interjections, o, hen, ah, proh, etc., are not elided, but in other words the elision generally takes place in the best poets.
3. Finale in the interrogative no is sometimes elided before a consonant:

Pyrmin' connabia servas? for Pyrrhine commbia servas? Viry.
4. The elision of $s$ occurs in the early poets:

Ex omnirbu' rêbus, for Ex omnibus rêbus. Lucr.
Synatoppha may occur at the end of a line when the next line begins with a vowel. It is then called Synapheia.
II. Smpaeresis.-This is the contraction of two syllables into one: $\quad$ ar is the contratar aurē̄, dēnde, dēneeps, Ïdem, त̂sdem.

1. Synaeresis is of frequent application. It may unite 1) Two successive vowels, us in the exam 2) A vowel and a diphtbong: ceedem. beat.
2. In the different parts of deroum, ce is generally pronounced as one syllable: dë̃sse, dest, dēerat, deerit, etc.: so oi in the verb antoco: antēre, antīirem, antēs, antāt.
3. I and $u$ before vowels are sometimes used as consonants with the
 and tönừs become gemaŏúand tenveè.
III. Dineresis.-This is the resolution of one syllable into two:
auräi for aurae, Orphẽ̛us for Orphēus, soluendus, for solvendus, silua for silva.

As a matter of fict the Latin poets seldom, if ever, actually divide any syllable into two, and the examples generally explained by diceresis are only ancient forms, occasionally used by them for effect or convenience.
IV. Systole-This is the shortening of a long syllable: tưlèrunt for tŭlerunt, stětěrrunt for steťtểrunt (235), vidè̛n for videesne. This is a rare poetical Hicense, ocearring most frequently in the fitmi vowels and diphthongs, which would otherwise be elided. See 669. I. 2.
V. DinstoLe-This is the lengthening of a short syllable:

Priămǐdes for Priămǐdes.

1. This is a poctical license, ueed chfefly in proper names and in final syllables in the arsis of the foot ( 660 ). In the latter case the syllable is said to be lengthened by the ictue

2. All Dactylic Verses are measured by single feet (663. $\Pi_{\text {. }}$ ), and consist of Dactyls and their metrical equivalents, Spondees. The ietus is on the first syllable of every foot.

## I. Dactylic Hexameter:

671. The Dactylic Hexameter consists of six feet. The first four are either Dactyls or Spondees, the fifth a Dactyl, and the sixth a Spondee (665).

The scale is, ${ }^{1}$






[^33]672. Varieties.-The scale of dactylic hexameters admits sixteen varieties, produced by varying the relative number and arrangement of dactyls and spondees.

1. Illustraston.-Thus a verse may contain,
1) Five dactyls and one spondee, as in the first example above.
2) Four dactyls and two spondees. These again admit four different arrangements.
3) Three dactyls and three spondees, as in the second and third examples above. But these again admit six different arrangements.
4) Two daetyls and four spondees. These admit four different arrangements.
5) One dactyl and five spondees, as in the fourth example.
2. Eypect oe Daetyls.-Dactyls produce a rapid movement and are adapted to lively subjects. Spondees produce a slow movement and are adapted to grave subjects. But generally the best effect is produced in successive lines by variety in the number and arrangement of dactyls and spondees.
3. Sposparc Lise. - The Hexameter sometimes takes a spondee in the firth place. It is then called Spondaic, and generally has a dactyl as its fourth foot:

4. Catesural Pause. - The favorite caesural pause of the Hexameter is after the arsis, or in the thesis, of the third foot:



In the first Ine the ceaesural panse, marked \|, is after tendunt, after the arsis of the third foot; and in the second line after regina, in the thesis ( $n d j \overline{j u}$ ) of the third the th
foot.

1. Rare Carsural Patse.- The caesural pause is sometimes in the fourth foot, and then an additional pause is often introduced in the second foot. Sometimes indeed this last becomes the principal pause:

2. Becour Carsura.-A pause between the fourth and fifth feet is generally called the bucolic caesura, because often used in pastoral poetry:

Ingên- | tem coe- | 10 sŏnī- | tâm dědǐt; || Indě sě- | câtus. Vïrg.
3. Factut Cassura.- A caesural pause at the end of the third foot is regarded as a blemish in the verse:

674. Cafsura and Caesural Pause-The ending of a word within a foot always produces a caesura. A line may therefore have several caesuras, but generally only one of these (sometimes two) is marked by the caesural pause:

Armã vir- | rumque că- |nē, || Trō-| jaē quī | prịmŭs ăb | öris. Nîrg.

1. Here there is a caesura in every foot except the last, but only one of these, that after cüno, has the caesural pause.
2. In determining which caesura is to be marked by the pause the reader must be guided by the sense, introducing the pause where there is a pause of sense, or where at least it will not interfere with the sense.
3. The cnesura, with or without the pause, is an important feature in every hexameter. A line without it is prosaic in the extreme:

Rōmač | moēnĭa | têrrǔit | ìmpigĕr | Hãnnibăl| ãrmis. Enn.
675. Last Word of the Hexameter.- The last word of the Hexameter should be either a dissyllable or a trisyllable. See examples above.

1. Two monosyllables are not particularly objectionable, and sometimes even produce a happy effect:

Est is indeed often used even when not preceded by another monosyllable.
2. A single monosyllable, except est, is not often used at the end of the line, except for the purpose of emphasis or humor:

II. Dactylic Pentameter:
3. The Dactylic Pentameter consists of two parts separated by the caesural panse. Each part consists of two Dactyls and the arsis of a third. The Spondee may take the place of the Dactyl in the first part, but not in the second:

$$
\operatorname{luv}|\operatorname{Luv}| \perp \| \operatorname{Luv}|\operatorname{Lu}| \pm
$$



1. Pentanerer. - The name Pentameter is founded on the ancient divi sion of the line into five feet; the first and second being dactyls or spondees; the third, a spondee; the fourth and fifth, anapaests.
2. Eleciac Distich. The Dactylic Pentameter is seldom, if ever, used, except in the Elegiac Distich, which consists of the Hexameter followed by the Pentameter:
Sêmisè- | paltă ví- | ram |l curr- | vis ferri- - antŭr ă- | rãtris
Ossă, rŭ- | inō̄-| sãs ||

## III. Other Dactylic Verses.

677. The other varieties of dactylic verse are less important, but the following deserve mention:
I. Dactylic Tetrameter.-This consists of the last four feet of the Hexameter:

Ibĭmǔs | 0 sčci- - i i, cormǐ- | tésque, Hor.
In compound verses, as the Greater Archilochian, the tetrameter in composition with other metres, has a dactyl in the fourth pluce. See C91. I
II. Dactymo Trmeter Catahectig.-This is the Lesser Arehilochian, and is identical with the second half of the Dactylie Pentameter:

Arborio | basquí cǒ/ mae. Hor.
III. Dactymio Dineter. - This is the Adonic, and consists of a Dactyl and Spondee:

Montis i-1 mago. Hor.

> II. Anapaestio Verse.
678. Anapaestic verses consist of Anapaestic dipodies, An Anapaestic dipody consists of two Anapaests, but admits Spondees or Dactyls as equivalents.
I. Anapaestic Dimeter consists of two dipodies:

Vêněènt : âunis || saeculiă: sēris., ${ }^{2}$ Sen.
This is sometimes eatalectic ( 669 . II. 1), and has only a long syllable in place of the lhet foot. It is then ealled Paroemiac.
II. Asapaestio Monometer consists of one dipody: Dătă rês : pătriac. Auson.

1. In Anapacstle verse Dhetyls are nsed sparinsly, and are generally followed by Spondees. Each dipody generally ends with a word.
2. The hast sylhble is not common, as in most kinds of verso (065), but subject to the erdinary rules of quantity.
3. Anapaestic rerse does Hiot occur in the best Latin Poets.

## III. Trochatc Verse.

679. Trochaic verses consist of Trochaic dipodies.

A Trochaic dipody consists of two Trochees, or of a Trochee and a Spondee; but it admits the Tribrach as the equivalent of the Trochee, and the Anapaest, of the Spondee. The first foot has a heavier ictus than the second:
${ }^{1}$ In verses measured by dipodies, a dotted line is pisced between the feet, a singlo line between the dipodies, and a donble line in the place of the caesural pause.

\[

\]

## I. Trochaic Tetrameter Catatectic.

680. This consists of four Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. The caesural panse is at the end of the fourth foot, and the incomplete dipody admits no equivalents:


681. In Proper Names, a dactyl may be introduced in any foot except the fourth and seventh.
682. The Procelensmatio for the Spondec sometimes occurs.
683. In Comedy the Spondee and its equivalents ocenr in the odd feet, as well ss in the even, except in the last dipody.
684. The Trochato Tetrameter also oceurs in the earller poets in its complete form, i. e., with elght full feet :

II. Trochaic Dimeter Catalectic.
685. This consists of two Trochaic Dipodies with the last foot incomplete. In Horace it admits no equivalents and has the following scale,

$$
\text { Lu! } \ddagger \text { u| } 1 \text { u } \vdots
$$

Aulǎ : dǐvir- | têm mǎ- $\vdots$ net. Hor.

1. This is sometimes called Jambic Dineter Acephatous, i. e, an timbic Dimewith the first syllable wanting. 2. A Trochatic Tripody,-three Trochees-technically called a Trochaic Dimeter Brachyoatalectio, or an Ithyphallous, occurs in the Greater Archilochian. See 691. I.
2. For Sappite Verse, see 691. IV.

IV. Iambic Verse.
3. Iambic verses consist of Iambic dipodies.

An Iambic dipody consists of two Iambi, or of a Spondee and an Iambus; but it admits the Tribrach as the equivalent of the Iambus, and sometimes the Dactyl or the

Anapaest, of the Spondee. The first foot has a heavier ictus than the second.

In its full form it has the following scale:

```
\[
\sim_{u}^{\prime} \vdots \backsim \frac{1}{2}
\]
\[
\sim
\]
```


## I. Iambic Trimeter.

683. This verse, also called Senarius, consists of three Iambie Dipodies.
I. The first dipody has the full form.
II. The second admits no Anapaest.
III. The third admits no Anapaest or Dactyl, and in its second foot, no equivalent whatever.
IV. The Caesural Pause is usually in the third foot, but may be in the fourth.

The seale is,





1. Proper Names.-In proper names an Anapacst is admissible in any foot, except the last, but must be in a single word.
2. Horace.-In Horace the only feet freely admitted are the Iambus and the Spondee; their equivalents, the Tribrach, the Dactyl and Anapaest, are used very sparingly. The Tribrach never occurs in the fifth foot and only once in the first. The Anapeest occurs only twice in all.
3. Comeny.-In Comedy great liberty is taken, and the Spondee and its equivalents are freely admitted in any foot except the last.
4. Cromanbus, -This is a variety of Tambic Trimeter with a Spondee in the sixth foot and an Tambus in the fifth:

Misêr : Cătul- 1 I厄 dê-
Choliambur ovement. It means lame or limping Ianbus, and is so called from its limping ponactian, from His sometimes called Scasons for the same reason, and sometimes ITipponactian, from Hipponax, its reputed inventor.
684. Inmbic Trimeter Catalectic.-This is the Iambic Trimeter with the last foot incomplete. But in Horace the only feet admissible besides the Iambus are the Tri-
brach in the second foot and the Spondee in the first and third:

Vöcā• ! tŭs āt- | quě nōn $\vdots$ vŏcã- | tŭs au- $\vdots$ dit. Hor.

## II. Iambic Dimeter.

685. This verse consists of two Iambic Dipodies with their usual equivalents. But in Horace the only feet admissible besides the Iambus are the Tribrach in the second place, the Spondee in the first and third, and the Dactyl in the first:

Quĕrūn- ! tư̆r in $;$ silvis ! ăves. Hor.
Imbrès : nǐvẽs- | quĕ cōm- $\ddagger$ părat. Hor.
Ast égo ; vǐcis-| sĩm ri- ! séro. Hor.

1. Iambio Dmeter Hypermeter occurs in Horace with the following scale:


Pưêr | quils exx | aulă | căpil- | lis. IIor.
This is sometimes called the Alcaic Enneasyllabic verse and forms the thind line in the Alcaic Stanza. See 700. I.
2. Iamic Dimeter Catalectic does not occur in the pure Latin poets. Its scale is,

Mănú 引 püēr|lŏquā- $\ddagger$ ci. Pet. Arb.
3. Lurbic Drieter Acephilous.-This name is sometimes given to the
rochaic Dimeter Catalectic (681), which is then treated as Iambic Dimeter without the first syllable. Thus

Au- ¡ lă dF | vitem $\vdots$ mănet. Hor.

## III. Iambic Fetrameter.

686. The Tambic Tetrameter is little used in Latin except in Comedy. It consists of four Iambie Dipodies with their usual equivalents. The caesural pause is usually after the fourth foot:
 tiis, Ter.

The Iambic Tetraimeter Catalectio belongs mostly to comedy, but oecurs also in Catullus:


## V. Iomic Verse

687. The Ionic a Minōre consists entirely of Lesser Iomics. It may be either Tetrameter or Dimeter:


Hoerinis |hŭměrōs lā-| vǐt in ưndis. Mor.
Horar acgil pédé víctus. Hor.
688. Horace has this metre only in one short ode (IIL. 12). In some editions this ode consists entirely of Tetrameters; but in others it is arranged in stanzas of three lines; the first two, Tetrameters, and the third, a Dimeter.
689. In this verse the last syllable is not common, but subject to the ordinary rules of quantity, as in the Anapaestic yerse. See 678. 2.
690. The Ionic a Majore, Sotadtar Varse, scarcely occurs in Latin, except in Comedy. In its pure state it consists of three Greater Ionic feet and a Spondee, but in Martial the third foot is a Ditrochee:

$$
\left.\cup^{2}-u v|\div-v u| \begin{gathered}
1 \\
- \\
-u \\
-u
\end{gathered} \right\rvert\,
$$

Hüs cûm gěmǐ- |nã cōmpêde dêdicat că- | tênãs. Mart.

> VI. Choriambic Verse.
688. Choriambieverses begin with a Spondee followed by one, two, or three Choriambi, and end with an Iambus.

In Horace the Choriambie verse uniformly begins with the Spondee, bnt insome of the other poets the Trochee, the Anapaest, or the Iambus occasionally takes the place of the Spondee.
689. A Choriambie verse with one Choriambus is called the Glyconic; or, if catalectic, the Pherecratēan; with two, the Asclepiadean; with three, the Greater Asclepiadēan.
I. The Glycoxre has the following scale: $\dot{A}$ AI

DJ̃néc | griatus errum | tibi. Hor.
II. The Pherecratean is catalectic, but otherwise identical with the Glyconic. Its seale is,

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \perp-1 \div \sim 1= \\
& \text { nae. Hor. }
\end{aligned}
$$

Vix dū- | rārě cărī-| nae. Hor.
III. The Asclerpidean has the followìng scale:

$$
-1 \leq \cdots \pm 11=\cdots 110
$$

Maecē- | nās ǎtǎvis || êdittě rêg- | Ĭbus. Hor.
IV. The Greater Asclepladéan has the following scale:

$$
-1+w \div 11 \div v \div \|+w \div 1-\leq
$$

Seu plū- | rês hǐèmēs, || seu trỉbưit || Júpitěr ũl- | tĭmam. Hor.
This is sometimes called Choriambic Pentumcter and sometimes Choriambic retrameter.

## Epichoriambic Verse.

690. When a verse begins with a Second Epitrite followed by one or two Choriambi, and ends with a Bacchius, it is called Epichoriambic. Of this there are two important varieties:
I. The Sapphic Verse,-This consists of a Second Epitrite, a Choriambus and a Bacchius:
691. But the Sapphic verse may also be measured as a Trochaic Dipody £ollowed by an Aristophanio verse, i. e., as composed of a Trochee, a Spondee, a Dactyl, and two Trochees. See 691. IV.
692. The Caesural Pause usually occurs after the fifth syllable, as in the example, but sometimes after the sixth.
693. Catullus admits two Trochees in place of the Epitrite.
II. The Greater Sapphic Verse,-This differs from the Sapphie proper only in introducing a second Choriambus before the Bacchins:

Inte̛r aequã- | lês éqư̌tāt, |l Gallică nẽc | lŭpãtis. Hor.
This is sometimes improperly called Choriambic Tetrameter.

## VII. Logaordic Verse.

691. Logaoedic verses consist of Dactyls, or their equivalents, followed by Trochees.
I. Greater Archilochian.-This consists of a Dactylic Tetrameter (677. I.) followed by a Trochaic Tripody. The first three feet are either Dactyls or Spondees; the fourth, a Dactyl; and the last three, Trochees:

14

Vitaē | sûmmă brě- | vis spēm | nơs větǎt, || inchơ- ! anrě | lõngam. Hor.
The caesural panse is between the two members.
II. Alcatc Verse.-This consists of two Dactyls followed by two Trochees:


III. Aristopmante Verse,-This consists of a Dactyl followed by two Trochees:

Câr nêqué / mill- : lăris. Hor.
This verse is varionsly named, Aristophanic, Choriambic Dimeter, and Cho. riambic Dimeter Catatectic.
IV. Sapphic Verse.-This prefixes to the Aristophanic a Trochaic Dipody consisting of a Trochee and a Spondee (690. I.). The scale is,
-1~~ulㄴ: こ

Nāmquĕ : mê sill-| vã lŭpŭs | in Să- biña. Hor.
Sapphic verse may be classed at plensure either with the Logaoedic verses, as here, or with the Epichoviambic yerses, as in artiole 690. I.
V. Phalamclan Verse.-This consists of a Spoudee, a Dactyl, and three Trochees:

$$
-1+-1+0 \vdots-11=
$$

Nön êst | vîverě, il sêd vǎ- ! lêré | rita. Mart.
This verss is sometimes called, from the number of its syllables, Hendecasyllatic, of eleven syllables. It does not occur in Horace. In Catullus it sometimes has a Trochee, or an Iambus, in the first place.
693. Dactylioo-Inmbic Verse.-This consists of a pure Dactylic Penthemimeris (656.2) and an Iambic Dimeter (685):

$$
\mathscr{\sim}
$$

Jussŭs ăb- | irě dǒ- | mūm, || fěrę- $\ddagger$ băr inn- | cêrtō $\vdots$ pěde. Hor.

1. This verse is sometimes called Elegiambus
2. This verse and the following compounds-the Iambico-Dactylle and the Pri-apoian-have the peculiarity that the two members of each may be treated as separate lines, as the last syllable of the first member is common, as at the end of a line.
3. Iambico-Dactylio Verse.-This consists of an Iambic Dimeter and a Dactylic Penthemimeris, i. e., of the same parts as the preceding, but in an inverted order:

Nǐvès- ; quě dô- | dûcūnt | Jơvêm: || nûnc mărě, | nũnc silŭ- | ae. Mor. 1. This verse is sometimes called Tambelegus.
2. For the final syllable of the first member, see 693.2.
695. Priapetan Verse.-This consists of a Glyconic and a Pherecratēan (689. I. II.):


Quērcŭs | ārǐdă rūs- | ticã || cōnforr- | mātă sêcû- | ri. Catul.

1. In this verse, as it appears in Catullus, the Glyconic and the Pherecratean appear with such varintions as are allowed in that poct (688). Hence the Trochee quercus for the Spondee, in the example.
2. For the final syllable of the first member, see 683, 2.

## VIII. Miscellaneous Verses.

692. Greater Aloaic Verse.-This consists of an Iambic Penthemimeris and a pure Dactylic Dimeter, i. e., an Iambic Dipody, a long syllable and two Dactyls:


Vidés : ǔt anl-| tā || stêt nǐvè | cāndidum
Sörāe- ! tê nêe | jãm || sāstine - ānt ǒnŭs. Hor.
7. The Caesural Pause is usually between the two members.
2. In Horace the first foot is generally a Spondee.
3. This verse forms the first and second lines of the Alcaic Stanza.

## SHE VERsthication of virgil, horaoe, ovid, AND JUVENAL.

696. Virgil and Juvenal.-Virgil in his Eelogues, Georgies, and Aeneid, and Juvenal in his Satires use only the Dactylic Hexameter. See 671. \$
697. Ovid.-Ovid uses the Hexameter in his Metamorphoses, but the Elegiac Distich in his Epistles and other works. See 676. 2.
698. Horace.-Horace uses the Hexameter in his Epistles and Satires, but in his Lyries, i. e., in his Odes and Epodes, he uses a great variety of Metre.

699．Lyries of Horace．－Most of the Odes and Epodes consist of Stanzas of two，three，or four verses；but a few of them consist entirely of a single kind of verse．

## Lyric Metres of Horace，

700．For convenience of reference the following out． line of the Lyric metres of Horace is here inserted．
A. Stanzas of Four Verses.

I．Atoaro Staxza－First and second verses，Greater Aleaics （692）；third，Tambio Dimeter Hypermeter（685．I．）；fourth，Al－ caic（691．IL）．

In thirty－seven Odes：I． $9,16,17,26,27,29,31,34,35,37$ ；II． $1,3,5$ $7,9,11,13,14,15,17,19,20$ ；III． $1,2,8,4,5,6,17,21,23,26,29$ ；IV． 4 ， $9,14,15$ ．

II．Sapphio and Adonic．－The first three verses，Sapphics （691．IV．）；the fourth，Adonie（677．III．）．

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1. } \left.\begin{array}{l}
\text { 2. } \\
\text { 3. }
\end{array}\right\} \div v:-1 \perp u v \mid \div v: \perp \bar{u} \\
& \text { 4. }-v \mid \perp \simeq
\end{aligned}
$$

In Twenty－six Odes：I． $2,10,12,20,22,25,80,32,88$ ；II． $2,4,6,8,10$ ， 16；III．8，11，14，18，20，22，27；IV．2，6，11，and Sec．Hymn．

III．Asclepiadexan and Glyconio．－The first three verses， Asclepiadeans（689．III．）；the fourth，Glyconic（689．I．）
，Odes：I．6，15，24， 33 ；II．12；III．10， 16 ；IV．5， 12
IV．Abolzpiadeñ，Pherbecratean，axd Glyconto．－The first two verses，Asclepiadêms（689．III．）；the third，Pherecratean （689．II．）；the fourth，Glyeonic（689．I．）

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1. }\} \div-1 \div v \cup \perp 1 \perp u \cup \perp 1 v \stackrel{\downarrow}{-} \\
& \text { 3. } ー-1 \perp u v ン 15 \\
& \text { 4. } \perp-1 \perp \text { ○レ } 1 \cup \xlongequal{t}
\end{aligned}
$$

In seven Odes ：I．5，14，21， 23 ；III．7， 18 ；IV． 13.

## B．Stanzas of Three Verses．

V．Ionio a Mirore（687）．－The first two verses，Tetrameters： the third，Bimeter．


```
8.ひい隹|いこー
```

In Ode III． 12.

## C．Stanzas of Two Verses．

VI．Iambio Thmeter and Iambio Dimeter（ 683,685 ）．


VII．Gliyconio and Asolepiadēan（689．I．，III．）

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1. } \frac{1}{}-1-\cdots \leq 10 \div \\
& \text { 2. See IV. } 1 \text {. }
\end{aligned}
$$

In twelve Odes：I．3，13，19， 86 ；III． $9,15,19,24,25,28$ ；IV． $1,3$.
VIII．Hexameter and Dactylio Tetraneter（671；677．I．）．

In two Odes：I． 7,28 ，and Epode 12
IX．Hexameter and Daotylio Trmeter Cataleotio（671； 677 ．II．）．

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1. See VIII. } 1 . \\
& \text { 2. }\lfloor\cup \sim \mid 1 \stackrel{ \pm}{-}
\end{aligned}
$$

In Ode IV． 7 ．Hexameter and Lambio Trimeter（671，683）． See VIII． 1 and VI． 1
In Epode 16.
XI．Hexameter and Iambio Dimeter（671，680）．
See VIII． 1 and VI． 2.
In Epodes 14 and 15.
XII. Hexameter and Iambico-Dactylio (671, 694).

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { 1. See VIII. } 1
\end{aligned}
$$

In Epode 13.
XIII. Lanbio Teimeter and Dactyuco-Iambio (683, 693).

In Epode 11.
XIV. Trochato Dimeter Cataleoho and Iambio Thimeter Cataleomio (681, 684)

In Ode II. 18.
XV. Greater Arohilochin and Iambio Trimeter CataLEOTIO (691. I. ; 684).

In Ode I. 4.
XVI. Aristophanto and Greater Sapphio (691, III. ; 690. II).

 D. Verses used Singly.
XVII. Asclepladean (689. III.)

$$
1-1 \div u \div 1 \div u \backsim 1 v \pm
$$

In three Odes: I. 1; III. 30; IV. 8
XVIII. Greater Aschepiadean (689. IV.). ARA

In three Odes: I. 11, 18; IV. 10.
XIX. Lambic Thimeter (683). See VI. 1. In Epode 17.
701. Index to the Lyric Metres of Horace.

The Roman numerals refer to articles in the preceding outline, 700 .


## A PPENDIX.

I. Figures of Speech.
702. A Figure is a deviation from the ordinary form, construction, or signification of words.

Deviations from the ordinary forms are called Figures of Etymology ; from the ordinary cobnstructions, Figures of Syntax, and from the ordinary significations, Thgures of Rhetoric.
703. The Figures of Etymology are the following :

1. Apinazzests takes a letter ar syllable from the beginning of a word: 'st for ent. 2. Sxscorp takes a /etter or syllable from the middle of a word: virum for rirörum, diace for diatsese.
2. Argoore takes a letter or syllable from the end of a word: tun' for tüne
3. Pkosrunsts prefixes a letter or syllible to a word: tetatili for tüli
4. Eprxturssis inserts a letter or byllibble in a word: Alceìmē̃á for Alcmèna, âtuurm for atitum.
5. Paragoge adds a letter or syllhble to a word: dicier for dici
6. Meturnesis transposes letters or syllables: pistris for prietis.
7. Axrimiess substitutes ono letter for anotber: volnus for oulnus, outi for illi. Sce also Figures of Prosody, 662 .
8. The Figures of Syntax are the following :
9. Erirpsis is the omission of one or more words of a sentence :

Hăbitābat ad Jơvis (sc. templum), He dwelld near the temple of Jupiter.
Liv. Abiit, êvāsit (et), He has gone, has escaped. Cic.

1. Assmberos is an ellipsts of a conjumetion. Sec 5ST. I. 6; 587. III. 4.
2. Zevera is an ellipsis which etmploys a single verb with two subjeets or ob-
petst though strictly applicable to ouly one:
Picem an bellum

which leaves the sentence unflinishedit: Quos ero - sentence unflifished:
Quos ergo - sed mảtos praestat compönëre fluctus. Whom $I$ - but it is bot-
to caim the troubled to calm the troubled waves. Virg.
3. Psoverss are often ellipticl.
${ }^{\text {4 }}$. Proverbs are often elliptical.
4. Ehurirs of Eacio, Droo, Oro. See 400. 8; 602, II. $3 . \square \mathrm{B}$
II. Pleonasm is the use of superfluous words:

Erant Ǐtiněra duo, qư̆bus ǐtineribus exîre possent, There vere tivo voays by which ways they might depart. Caes. Eurusque Nơtusque ruunt, Both Eurus and Notus rush forth. Virg.

1. Poxissxderos is a pleonasm in the use of conjunctions, as in the last example 2. Hexpradys is the use of two nouns with a conjunction, instead of a noum
with an adjective or genitive:
rmis virisque for viris armitis, woith armed hen, Rac.
Asaprora is the repetition of a word at the beginning of successive clanses Me cuncta Italiti, me ûniverss efvitas consülem deediritivit, Me all Italy, me the whole state declared consul. Cic.

Efrimoss is the repetition of a word at the end of successive ciauses: Laelius nàvas êrat, doctus èrat, Laelius was diligent, vas learned. Cie
5. Monosyllabic prepositions are often repeated before successive nouns, regu-
lurly 50 with et-et:
Et in bellicis et in civilibus officis, both in mulitary and in cioil offices. Cle.
Other prepositions are sometimes repeated.

- 6. A demonstrative, pronoun or adverb, $i d$, hoc, illua, sic, zta, is offen used somewhat redundantly to represent a subsequent elanse. So also quid, in quid censes with a clanse:

Hlud te obrout dilizens sis, $I$ a alk you (that thing) to be (that you be) diugent. Cic. 7. Pronouns redundant with quideem. See 446. 1.
8. Pleonasm often oecurs with hicet:

Ut liceat pernittitur $=$ licet, It is lavfol (is permitted that it is, dec), Oic. 9. A word is ofen repeated for emplasis
10. Circumlocutions with res, oènus, mdidue and ratio are common.
III. Enallage is the substitution of one part of speech for another, or of one grammatical form for another :

Pŏpǔlus linte rex (for regnans), a people of extensive suay (ruling extensively). Virg. Sèrus (siro) in coelum rédeas, May you return late to heaven. Hor. Vina cădis (viñis caddos) őne̊räre, to full the flakks with wine. Virg.

1. Astumaris is the use of one part of speechi for another, as in the first two examples.
2. Hypaluage is the use of one case for another, as in the last example
3. Sxassis is a construction according to sense, without regard to grammatical
forms. See 438.6 and 461.
4. AsscoLétrios is a want of harmony in the construction of the different parts of a sentence:

Si, ut dieunt, omnes Gralos esse (Grail surt), XV, as they say, all are Greeks. Cic.
IV. Hyperbaton is a transposition of words or clauses:

Praeter arma nihil ěrat sǔper (sŭperěrat), Nothing remainel, except their
rins. Nep. Vălet atque vivit (vizīt atque vर̌let), Ho is alive and well. Ter
i. As astropras is the transposition of words only, as in the first example,
2. Hxstrenox Protrioos is a transposition of classes, as in the eccond example.
3. Tyssis is the separation of a compound word. See 5e9. 2. 2).
705. Figures of Rhetoric, also called Tropes, comprise several varieties. The following are the most important.
I. Metaphor. -This is an implied comparison, and assigns to one object the appropriate name, epithet or action of another :

Rei publicae yulnus (for damnum), the wound of the republic. Cie. Naufrăgium fortanae, the wreck of fortune. Cic.
II. Metonyary is the use of one name for another naturally suggested by it :

Aequo Marte (for proelio) pugnātum est, They fought in an equal contest. Liv. Fŭrit Vulcänus (ignis), The fire rages. Virg.

By this figure the cause is often put for the effect and the effect for the cause; the property for the possessor, the place or age for the people, the sign for the thing signifled, etc.: Mars for bellum, Vulcanus for ignis, Bacchus for oinum, nöbizitas for nöbiles, Graecia for Graeci, laurea for victorvia, ete.
III. SYNECDOCHE is the use of a part for the whole, or of the whole for a part; of the special for the general, or of the general for the special:
In restra tecta (vestras dómos) discēdrte, Depart to your homes. Cic. Stătio măle fida cãrinis (nävibus), a station unsafe for ships. Virg.
IV. Imony is the use of a word for its opposite :

Leagătos bonur (for mäluz) impěrätor vester non admisit, Four good commander did not admat the ambassadors. Liv.

1. Enim, denim, sethect, videlicet, nimirum, crido, and the like, are often ironical. See 503. 3.

## V. Hyperbole is an exaggeration:

Ventis et fulminis ocior alis, swifter than the winds and the wings of the lightining. Virg.
VI. Litotes denies something instead of affirming the opposite :

Non Opus est = perniciōsum est, it is not necessary. Cic $\sqrt[4]{\square}$
-II. Latin Authors.
706. The history of Roman literature embraces about eight centuries, from $250 \mathrm{~B} . \mathrm{C}$. to 550 A . D., and has been divided by Dr. Freund into three principal periods:
I. The Ante-Classical Period.-From 250 to 81 B . C. The principal authors of this period are:
Ennius, Plautus, Terence, Lucretius.
II. The Classical Period. -This embraces the Golden and the Silver age:

1. The Goiden Age.-From 81 B. C. to 14 A.D. The principal authors are:

| Cicero, <br> Cesar, | Nepos, <br> Livy, | Horace, <br> Ovid, | Tibullus, <br> Propertius. |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sallust, | Virgil, | Catullus, |  |
| 2. The Silver | Age.-From 14 to 180 | A. D. The principal |  |
| hors are: |  |  |  |


| Phaedrus, | The Plinies, | Quintilian, | Persius, |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Velleius, | Tacitus, | Suetonius, | Lucan, |
| The Seneas, | Curtius, | Juvenal, | Martial, |

The Senecas, Curtius, Juvenal, Martial.
III. The Post-Classical. Period.-This embraces the Brazen and the Iron Age:

1. The Brazen Age.-From 180 to 476 A.D. The principal authors are:
Justin, Eutropius, Lactantius, Claudian,
2. The Iron Age.-From 476 to 550 A.D. The principal authors are:

Boëthius, Cassiodorus, Justinian, Priscian.

## III. The Roman Calendar.

707. The Julian Calendar of the Romans is the basis of our own, and is identical with it in the number of months in the year and in the number of days in the months.
708. Peculinarties.-The Roman calendar has the following peculiarities:
I. The days were not numbered from the beginning of the month, as with us, but from three different points in the month:
709. The Calends, the first of each month;
710. The Nones, the fifth, -bat the seventh in March, May, July, and October;

October Thes, the thirteenth,-but the fifteenth in March, May, July, and October.
II. From these three points the days were numbered, not forward, but baekward.

Hence after the Ides of each month, the days were numbered from the Calends of the following month.
( A $\begin{aligned} & \text { Calends of the following month. } \\ & \text { III. In numbering backward from each of these points, the }\end{aligned}$ day before each was denoted by pridie Cülendas, Nonas, etc.; the second before each by die tertio (not sěcundo; third, not second) anto Cǎlendas, etc., the third, by die quarto, etc., and so on through the month.

1. Numisars. -This peconliarity in the use of the numerals, designating the second day beorere the Calends ete, as the third, and the third as the fourth, etc., second diy beorf
arises from the fact that the Calends, etc., were themselves counted ns the first. arises from the fact that the beome the second before the Calends, die tertio ante
Thus pridie ante Qalendas becomes Calendas, the third, etc.
2. Naxi of Mosmi.-In dates the name of the month is added in the form of an ajective in agreement with Culendas, Nònas, etc., as, dio quarto ante Nönas Jìnadjective in agreement worto quarto anto Nonas Jan, or IV. ante Nönas Jan. or wilhout ante, as, IV. Nonas Jan, the second of January.
3. 3. ANTE DIEN,-Instead of die-ante, ante diem is eommon, as, ante diem quartum Nönas Jan, for die quarto anto Nönas Jan.
1. As Indeclinable Nouns.-The expressions ante diem-Cal., ete, pridie Cal., etc, are pften used as indeclinable nouns with a preposition, as, ex ante diem V. Idus Oot, from the 11th of Oct. Liv. Ad pridio Nônas Maias, till the 6th of May. Oio.
2. Calendar for the Year.

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Days of } \\ & \text { the Morth. } \end{aligned}$ | March, May, July, Oet, | Jan. Aug. December. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { April, June, } \\ & \text { Scpt Nov. } \end{aligned}$ | Fesruary. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1 | Capradis 1 | Calespis | Casemps. | Calempis |
| $\frac{2}{8}$ | V. Nonas. ${ }^{\text {I }}$ | IV. Nonas | IV. Nonas | IV. Nonas. |
| 4 |  | Pridie Nonas. | Pridte Nonas. | Pridie Nonas. |
| 5 | $\mathrm{mil}_{\text {Pridi Noma }}$ | Nosis | Nomis. | Nonts. |
| $\stackrel{6}{7}$ | Pridie Nonss. Nosis | VIII. Idas. | VIL | VIII Idus. |
| 9 | VIIL Idm | VI. | VI. ${ }_{\text {V }}$ |  |
| T0 | VIL | V. ${ }_{\text {V }}$ | V. " | V. |
| 10 | V. $\quad 4$ | IV. | IV. " | IV. |
| 12 | IV. " | Pridie Idus. | $\mathrm{IIT}_{\text {Pridie Idus. }}$ | $\mathrm{IIF}_{\text {Pridie Idus. }}$ |
| 13 | $\underline{\text { Prim }}$ | Inmeus. | Imbues. | Pridio Idus. Imibus. |
| 14 | Pridie Idus, Imisus. | XIX. Catenás ${ }^{2}$ | XVIII Calend: | XVI. Calend. ${ }^{2}$ |
| 16 | XVU. Calend. ${ }^{2}$ | XVIL | XVI. | XV. $\quad$ - |
|  | XVL | XVI. | XV. | XIII. |
| 18 | XIV. | XIV. | XIV. | XII. |
| 20 | XIII | XIII. | XIII. | XI. |
| 21 | XII. | XLI. | XI. | IX. |
| ${ }_{23}^{23}$ | ${ }^{\mathrm{X} 1 .}$ | XL. | X. | VIII. |
| 24 | ix. | $\frac{1}{1 \times}$ | 1X. | VII. |
| 25 | VIII. | VIIL * | VII |  |
| ${ }_{27}^{26}$ | VII. | VII. " | VI. | Y'(VI) ${ }^{3}$ |
| 27 28 | VI. | VI. | V. | III. (IV.) |
| $\stackrel{29}{29}$ | IV. | V. ${ }_{\text {IV }}$ | IV. | Prid. Cal (IILCal) |
| 30 | III. | III. | $\stackrel{\text { III, }}{\text { Pridie Catend }}$ | (Prid. Cal.) |
| 31 | Pridie Calend. | Pridie Calend. | Pride Calend. |  |

710. English and Latin Dates.-The table (709) will furnish the learner with the English expression for any Latin date, or the Latin expression for any English date; but in translating Latin, it may be convenient also to have the following runslating
711. If the day is numbered from the Nones or Ides, sub
I. If the day is numbered from the Nones or Ides, subtr the number diminished by one from the number of the day on which the Nones or Ides fall
${ }^{1}$ To the Calends, Nones, ete, the narme of the month must of course be added. Before Nonas, Idns, ete, ante is sometimes osed and sometimes of courted (Tos. II. . ${ }^{2}$ The Calends of the following month are of course meant, as the 16th of March for instance is, XVII. Calendas $A$ prites.
${ }^{3}$ The enclosed forms apply to leap-year
VIII. ante Idus Jan. $=18-(8-1)=18-7=6$ th of Janusey.
II. If the day is numbered from the Calends of the following month, subtract the number diminished by two from the number of days in the current month:
XVIII. ante Cal. Feb. $=31-(18-2)=31-16=15$ th of January.

In Leap-year the 2 th and 25 th Fobruary are both ealled the sixth before the Calends of March, VI. Cal. Mart. The days before the 2 th are numbered precisely as if the month contained ns usual only 28 days, but the days after the 2sth are numbered regularly for a month of 29 days: $V ., 1 \mathrm{~V}, \mathrm{III}$. Cal, Mart, and pridie Cal. Mart.
711. Divisions of Day and Night.-The Roman day, from sun-rise to sun-set, and the night from sun-set to sun-rise, were each divided at all seasons of the year into twelve hours.

1. Nient Watcenss.-The night was also divided into four watehes of three Roman hours each.
2. Lexgti of Roway Hour.-The hour, being uniformly if of the day or of the night, of course varied in length, with the length of the day or night at different seasons of the year.

## IV. Roman Money, Wetghts, and Measuris.

712. Corss.-The principal Roman coins were the $a s_{3}$ of copper, the sestertius, quīnärius, dēnärius, of silver, and the aureus, of gold. Their value in the classical period was as follows:

713. As-tie Unit of Moxez.-The $A s$ was originally the unit of the Roman currency, and contained a pound of copper, but it was diminished from time to time in weight and value till at last it contained only $1 / 24$ of a pound.

But whatever its weight, 走 of the as is always called an uncia, $\frac{3}{3}$ s seextans, $\frac{x}{10}$


2. Sestertus, Quinarus, And Demarits. -The sestertius contained originally $2 \frac{1}{4}$ asses, the quinärius 5 , and the denärius 10 ; but as the as depreciated in value, the number of asses in these coins was incrensed.
3. As-tie Geseral Unit of Computation.-The as is also used as the unit in other things as well as in money. Thus

1) In Weight--The as is then a pound, and the uncia an ounce.
2) In Jeasure - the as is then a foot or a jugerrum ( 718 ), and the unoia is 교 교 a foot ur of a jugerum.
3) In Interest. -The as is then the unit of interest, which was one per cent. a month, i. e., twelve per year, the uncia is II per month, i. e., 1 per year, and the semis is ? ${ }^{2}$ per month, i, e. 6 per yenr, etc.
4) In Interitance.-The as is then the whole estate, and the uncia $\frac{1}{15}$ of it: heres ax asse, heir of the whole estate; hëres ea dodrante, heir of ? ${ }^{9}$
713. Computatton of Money.-In all sums of money the common unit of computation was the sestertius, also called nummus; but four special points deserve notice:
I. In all sums of money, the units, tens, and hundreds are denoted by sistertio with the proper cardinals:

Quinque sestertii, 5 satercee, vigintit sestertii, 20 sesterces, dücenti sestertii, 200 estercres.
II. One thousand sesterces are denoted by mille sestertii, or mille sestertium.
III. In sums less than $1,000,000$ sesterces, the thousands are denoted either (1) by millia scstertiain (gen. plur.), or (2) by sestertia:

Duo millia sestertium, or duo sestertia, 2,000 sesterces; quinque millia sestertium, or quinque sestertia, 5,000 sestercis

With sestertia the distributives were generally used, as, bina sestertia, for duo sestertia.
IV. In sums containing one or more millions of sesterces, sestertium with the value of 100,000 sesterces is used with the proper numeral adverb, děcies, vicies, etc. Thus

Děcies sestertium, $1,000,000(10 \times 100,000)$ sesterces; Vicies sestertium, $2,000,000(20 \times 100,000)$ sesterces.

1. Sestertioni-In the examples under IV., sestertium is treated and declined as a neuter noun in the singular, though originally it was probably the genitive plar. of sestertius, and the full expression for $1,000,000$ sesterces was Decies centóna millia sestertium, Centèna millia was afterward generally omitted, and finally sestertium lost its force as a genitive ploral, and became a neuter noun in the singular, capable of declension numeral adverb: as, decies, $1,000,000$ sesterces
2. Sren HS.-The sigu HS, is often used for sestertii, and sometimes for sestortáa, or sestertium:

Decem HS $=10$ sesterces (HS $=$ sestertii). Dena HS $=10,000$ sesterces (HS $=$ sestertia). Dectes HS $=1,000,000$ sedterces (HS $=$ sestertium)
714. Weight- The basis of Roman weights is the Intra, also called As or Pondo, equal probably to about $11 \frac{1}{2}$ ounces avoirdupois.

1. Ounces.-The Libra, like the as in money, is divided into 12 parts called by the names given under 712.1
2. Fractions of Ounces.- Parts of ounces also have special names: $\frac{f}{1}=$ seimislas.
3. Dry Measure.-The Modius is the basis, equal to about a peek.
 tāhŭtum, 릉 $=$ cyîthus.
4. Liquid Measure.-The Amphơra is the most convenient unit of the Roman liquid measure, and contained a Roman cubic foot, equivalent probably to about seven gallons, wine measure.
5. Culeus.-Twenty amphorae make one Cûteus.
6. Parts of Axphors.-Thees have special names: $\frac{1}{3}=$ urna, $\frac{1}{3}=$ congins, $\frac{3}{6}$

7. Long Measure.-The basis of this measure is the Roman foot, equivalent to about 11.6 inches.
8. Conbixatross of Fret.-Palmipes $=1 \frac{1}{4}$ Roman feet; cübitus $=11$; passus $=5$; stidium $=625$.
9. Parts of Foot. - Palmus $=\frac{1}{2}$ foot; uncia $=\frac{1}{1} ;$ digitus $=\frac{1}{10}$.
10. Square Measure.-The basis of this measure is the Jügerrum, containing 28,800 Roman square feet, equivalent to about six tenths of an acre.

The parts of the fugtrum have the same name as those of the $A$ a : mnola $=\frac{1}{6}$ sextans $=$ mene ete. See 712.1.
V. Abbreviations.
719. Names.
A. $=$ Aulus.
$\mathrm{Ap} .=$ Appins.
C. (G.) $=$ Caius (Gaius).
$\underset{\text { (Gnaens) }}{\mathrm{Cn} .(G n)}=$ Cnacus
(Gnaeus).
D. $=$ Děcimus.
L. $=$ Lacius.
$\mathrm{M}_{\mathrm{s}}=$ Marcus.
M '. = Mânius.
Mam. $=$ Mämercus. N . = Nŭměrius. P. = Publius.
Q. $(\mathrm{Qu})=$. Quintus.
Q. $(\mathrm{Qu})=$ Quintus.
S. (Sex.) $=$ Sestus. $\mathrm{Ser},=$ Servius. T. $=$ Titus. Ti. (Tib.) $=$ Tibërius.
20. Other Abbreviations.

Aed. = aedilis.
A. U. C. $=$ anno urbis conditae. F. C. $=$ Id. ravit. Idus Cal. (Kal.) = Călendae. Cos. $=$ eonsul.
Coss $=$ consŭles.
D. = divus.
D. $\overline{\text { D. }}=$ = döno dědit.

Des. $=$ désignâtus.
D. M. $=$ diis mãnibus.
D. S. $=$ de suo.
D. S. P. P. $=$ de sua
pěcunia pŏsuit.
Eq. Rom. = Eques Rō-
mănus.
F. $=$ fflius.

Imp. $=$ impĕràtor.
Leg. $=$ legatus.
Non, $=$ Nōnae.
0. M. =optimus maximus.
P.C. $=$ patres conscripti.
Pont. 1
Pont. Max. $=$ pontifex
maximus.
P. R . $=$ pǒpǔlus $\mathrm{R} \overline{-}$
mânus.
Pr. = praetor.
Praef. $=$ pracfectus.

Proc. $=$ próconsul. Q. B. F. F. Q. S. $=$ quod bŏnum, fêlix, faustumque sit. Quir. $=$ Quirites Resp. = res publica S. = sěnătus.
S. $\overline{\mathrm{c}} .=$ sěnātus consultum.
S. D. P. = silutem di-
cit plarimam.
S. P. Q. R. = sěnâtus pópûlusque Rōmă-
nus.
$\underset{\text { bis. }}{\mathrm{Tr} .}=$ trïbünus plē-

## INDEX OF VERBS．

721．This Index contains an alphabetical list，not only of all the simple verbs in common use which involve any important irregularities， but also of such compounds as seem to require special mention．

But in regard to compounds of prepositions，two important facts must be borne in mind：

1．That the elements，－preposition and verb－often appear in the compound in a changed form．See 338． 1 and 341． 3.

2．That the stem－vowel is often changed in the Perfect and Supine． See 260.

$$
A_{1}
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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ Some give to $i$ in both syllables of $t i b i$ and sibi the short sound.
    ${ }^{2}$ In these rules no account is taken of $h$, as that is only a breathing: henee the first $i$ in nihilum is treated as a vowel before another vowel; for the same reason, $\mathrm{ch}, \mathrm{ph}$,
    and th are treated as single mutes; thus th in Athos and Othrys.
    ${ }^{2}$ Penultimate, the last syllable but one.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ In other combinations, the two vowels are generally pronounced separately, but $e i$ and $e u$ occur as diphthongs with nearly the same sound as in English.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ Here vale and the clause amicitiam manire are both used as neuter nouns.
    ${ }^{2}$ Gender as determined by the endings of nouns will be noticed in connection with the several declensions.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ Here vale and the clause amicitiam manire are both used as neuter nouns.
    ${ }^{2}$ Gender as determined by the endings of nouns will be noticed in connection with the several declensions.

[^4]:    IThe endings for the Nom. and Voc. Sing, are wanting in nouns in er; thes puer is the stem without any ease-ending; the full form would be puorius.

[^5]:    ${ }^{1} \mathrm{X}$ in rex $=a s-a$ belonging to the stem, and $s$ being the nom. ending; but in
    judox, $x=c s-c$ belonging to the stem, and $s$ being the nom. ending.

[^6]:    ${ }^{2}$ Sometimes civitatiûm. $\quad 2$ Sometimes mare in poetry.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ Except (ops) ópis and the Greek nouns, grype, lynx, sphyna.
    ${ }^{2}$ Namely, faua, glis, lis, mas, nix, nox, os (ossis), vis, generally fraus and

[^8]:    This table presents the endings of all nouns in the Latin language, except a fow derived from the Groek.
    ${ }^{2}$ The dash denotes that the case-ending is sometimes wanting: $e r$ and ir in Decl. 1., 14 wil be remembered, are not case-endings, but parts of the stem (45. 1).
    ${ }^{3}$ The inclosed endings are less common than the others
    4 In this table observe

    1) That difforent endings characteristic of different genders may be found in one and the same declension.
    2) That a slight difference of declension is however apparent in the double forms
     scems to have been the original ending from which the second was derived.
[^9]:    ${ }^{1}$ The dash indicates that the ending is sometimes wanting. See 45.1.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ The dash indicates that the ending is sometimes wanting. See 45.1.

[^11]:    ${ }^{1}$ Comparative. For the declension of Plus, see 165. 1.

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ Theso adjectives aro formed from citra, de, intra, Greek wikus, prae or pre

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ Prior is used in speaking of two, and atter is often used for secundure

[^14]:    sometimes with the parts separated: docen et seex; decem et soptem.

[^15]:    Literally ten times a hundred thousand, the table might be carried up to any desired number by using the proper numeral ad̃verb with centẽna millia: centies centèna millia, $10,000,000$; sometimes in such combinations centorna millia is under stood and only the adverb is expressed, and sometimes centum millia is used.
    ${ }_{2}$ Dutōrum and duärum are sometimes shortened to duum.

[^16]:    1 So called from depono，to lay aside，as they dispense，in genersa，with the active form and the passive meaning．

[^17]:    1 So called from depono，to lay aside，as they dispense，in genersa，with the active form and the passive meaning．

[^18]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or you are; thou is confined mostly to solemn discourse ; in ordinary English, you are is used both in the singular and in the plaral.

[^19]:    ${ }^{1}$ Fuèrim, fuèris, ete., are sometimes used for sim, sis, cte. So alsofuissem,
    fuieses, ete., for cesem, essee, etc.; rarely fulisse for esse.
    4

[^20]:    

    INFINITIVE.
    Participle.
    Pres, nudiri, to be heard.
    Perv. auditŭs esses, to have been heard.
    Fux. auditùm Irx, to be about
    Perf. auditŭs, heard.
    Fur. audiendŭs, to be heard. to be heard.

[^21]:    ${ }^{1}$ The periphrastic forms are inflected regularly throngh the persons and numbers: amatirus sum, es, est. The Fut. Perf: is esceedingly rare. ${ }^{2}{ }^{2}$ r, Ideserve (onght) to be loved.

[^22]:    ${ }^{1}$ The forms in $z v i$ and etum of Conj. IL do not occur in the paradigms given ${ }^{1}$ The forms in $z v i$ and ethum of Conj. Il. do not occur in the paradigms, given
    ove, but belong to the regular forms of those conjugations. For a fuller statement of the formation of the Principal Parts with Exceptions, see 246-260.

[^23]:    ${ }^{2}$ Compounds are of the fourth conjugation.
    ${ }^{2}$ For lists, see under Classification of Verbs, 261, sqq.

[^24]:    ${ }^{1}$ Confiteor, êri, confessus; so profiteor

[^25]:    ${ }^{1}$ For convenience of reference a General List of all verbs involving irregularities

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ This arrangement is adopted in the discussion of the cases, because, it is thought,
    it will best present the force of the several cases and their relation to each other.
    ${ }^{2}$ For the Subject of the Infinitive, see 545. For the agreement of the verb with

[^27]:    Lit, were of the enemy, or were the enemy's.

[^28]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Present, of course, after Principal tenses, and the Imperfect after Historical tenses, necording to 450 .
    ${ }^{2}$ Futürum sit, ete, after Principal tenses, and futarum esset, etc., after Histori cal tenses.

[^29]:    ${ }^{2}$ These are also variously called Deliberatice, Doubting, or Rhetorical
    Questione. Questions.

[^30]:    II. In Compound Sentences. $R$ A 587) generally follow each other in the natural order of (587) generally follow each other in the natural order of
    the thought, as in English: the thought, as in English:

    Sol ruit et montes umbrantur, The sun descends and the mountains are shaded. Virg. Gyges a nullo vidébätur, ipse autem omnia videbat, Gyges was seen by no one, but he himself sawo all thinge. Cic.

[^31]:    II. In Compound Sentences. $R$ A 587) generally follow each other in the natural order of (587) generally follow each other in the natural order of
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[^32]:    ${ }^{1}$ Caesura (from caedo, to cut) means a cutting; it cuts or divides the verso into parts.

[^33]:    IIn this scale the sign marks the ictus (659).
    ${ }^{2}$ The final $i$ of illi is elided by Synaloeplia (669).

