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A

GRAMMAR

OF THE

LATIN LANGUAGE,

For Middle and Higher Class Schools.

BY

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CLASSICAL EXAMINER IN THE UNIVERSITY OF LONDON, ETC.

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INTRODUCTION.

The Latin language is one of the great family of Aryan or Indo-European languages. Nearest akin to it is the Greek, the resemblance to which, both in its roots and its inflections, is so great and so striking, that we cannot avoid the conclusion that at one time the two languages were entirely one and the same, which modern scholars, for want of a better name, have called the Graeco-Italian language. That must have been the time when Greeks and Latins (or Italians) were still united as one nation, and before they separated. Afterwards one branch proceeded into the eastern peninsula of southern Europe, called Greece, while the other branch migrated into the peninsula of Italy. When once settled in these two peninsulas, separated by the Adriatic Sea, each branch and its language entered upon a separate career of development, and what originally had perhaps been only different dialects, now became two different languages—the Greek and the Latin—which, though differing in many respects, yet retain unmistakable signs of their original identity.

If we compare Latin and Greek with the Sanscrit, their elder sister, we find that the Latins in some respects preserved the old forms of their once common language with greater care than the versatile Greeks; for, in declension, the Sanscrit has nine cases, of which the Latin has preserved six,

while the Greek has only five. On the other hand, the Greek has retained the dual, of which there is scarcely a trace in Latin, and a much greater variety of forms in the conjugation of its verbs, though regard for euphony has frequently so far modified the forms that they resemble the Sanscrit less than the Latin does.

A careful comparison with the Greek and other kindred languages has, in our days, greatly modified the study and treatment of Latin Grammar, especially that part of it commonly called the accidence; and henceforth no grammar can be satisfactory which does not incorporate the principles and positive results of such a comparison. Many phenomena in Latin, as well as in other languages, which until recent times seemed inexplicable and arbitrary, are now explained and appear in their proper light, while many erroneous notions have been dispelled. But what has been of no less importance is a comparison of the Latin of the best or classical period of its literature with the earlier forms of the language, for much that seems mysterious in the later language turns out to be the natural growth and outcome of more ancient and fuller forms; in short, to be rightly understood, a language must be compared not only with others, but with itself at different periods of its development. Every language is subject to a process of decay, or rather simplification, in its forms and inflections, and the further we go back in its history, the more we discover its original and fuller forms out of which the later ones have grown by a natural process of decay or development.

The grammar of a language, therefore, is not the same in all the periods of its history, and a complete grammar ought to exhibit the rules as they were observed at the various stages of its progress and development; but a Latin Grammar which, like the present, claims to be no more than a School

Grammar, must, on the whole, limit itself to a statement and exposition of the laws which were observed by the best writers commonly read in schools, who lived and wrote during the period from about 80 B.C. to about 14 A.D. Earlier and later authors, however, are not, and cannot be, wholly excluded. But even a School Grammar must avail itself of all the aids which scientific and philological investigations may place at its disposal, especially in the accidence or etymological part, where, to mention only one point, it is of the utmost importance that the beginner should learn to distinguish between the stem of a word and its inflections—a point which is still much neglected in some of our recent Latin Grammars.

In regard to the Syntax of the Latin language, the progress made in recent times is less considerable, as the practical structure of clauses and sentences had to be learned from the texts of the extant authors which, on the w[illegible] are the same now as they were a century ago. But even this part of grammar, sounder principles are now established on many points. The improvements in syntax, therefore, must consist in reducing its rules to rational and intelligible principles, and thereby to simplify them. How far I have succeeded in this, and whether the general character of the Grammar is in harmony with the progress of modern scholarship, I must leave to others to decide, though I may add that, as far as my knowledge goes, I have neglected nothing that I thought might be of any assistance to make the book useful to schools, and, at the same time, to impart to it that scientific character without which no real progress is possible.

L. SCHMITZ.

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LATIN GRAMMAR.

PART I.—THE ACCIDENCE.

CHAPTER I.

THE ALPHABET AND PRONUNCIATION.

§ 1. The Latin alphabet consists of twenty-one letters, viz., *a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i (j), k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, v (u), x.*

Five of them, *a, e, i, o,* and *u,* are vowels, and the remaining sixteen are consonants.

With the Romans the letter *i* was used for both *i* and *j,* and *v* was used both for *v* and *u.*

NOTE.—The letters *y* and *z* occur only in words adopted from the Greek.

§ 2. The vowels were pronounced by the Romans as they are still in Italian—*i.e.*, with their full and open sound. The *v,* when followed by a vowel, was pronounced like the English *v* or *w,* as in *vir, vallum;* but when followed by a consonant, it was pronounced as the vowel *u.* In like manner the *i,* when followed by a vowel, was pronounced like the English *y* in *young, yet,* hence *juvenis* = *yuvenis;* in all other cases it was pronounced like the English *i* in *hit, bid.* But in order to facilitate reading, the *i* and *j,* and *v* and *u,* are generally kept distinct in modern books.

The diphthongs in Latin are *ae, au, ei, eu, oe, oi,* and *ui;* but *ei, oi,* and *ui* occur very rarely. Their correct pronunciation is somewhat uncertain, though the name diphthong (double sound) seems to suggest that both vowels were heard in pronunciation.

§ 3. The consonants were probably pronounced as they are written, and in the same manner under all circumstances.

Thus *c* was always pronounced as *k*, and the *g* as the English *g* in *good*, *gift*, *gang*. The *t* also was always pronounced as the English *t* in *tin*, *tan*, *tomb*. The letter *x* is a double consonant, being a combination of *c* or *g* with *s*. The consonant *k* is used only in a few words, where it is followed by *a*, as *kalendae*, *Kaeso*, *Karthago*. The letter *q* is never used without a *u* after it, together with which we pronounce it like *kw*, as *qui*, *quae*, *quod*, though the Romans appear to have pronounced the two letters like a simple *k*, as is still the case in French.

In England, the common custom is to pronounce Latin as if it were English.

§ 4. In pronouncing Latin words attention must be paid to the quantity of syllables, *i.e.*, a distinction must be made between those which are long and those which are short. Long are those which contain a long vowel or a diphthong, and those in which a vowel, though naturally short, is followed by two or more consonants, in which case the vowel is said to be long by position. A vowel followed by another vowel is generally short. Single vowels may be long or short: when long they may be marked thus *ā*, *ē*, *ī*, *ō*, *ū*; when short thus *ă*, *ĕ*, *ĭ*, *ŏ*, *ŭ*.

§ 5. Words of two syllables always have the emphasis or accent on the first. In words of more than two syllables, the accent falls on the last but one, if it be long, as *Románus*; but if the last syllable but one be short, and the one preceding it long, this latter has the accent, as *Rómŭlus*, *amávĕrat*. When both the second and third last syllable are short, the accent is nevertheless put upon the third last, as in *múlier*. No Latin word has the accent on the last syllable.

CHAPTER II.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

§ 6. All the words of the Latin language are divided into nine classes, commonly called the parts of speech. They are:—

1. **Substantives**, that is, names of persons or things: as *homo*, a man; *puer*, a boy; *Carolus*, Charles; *Athenae*, Athens.
2. **Adjectives**, names of qualities or attributes belonging to persons or things: as *bonus*, good; *malus*, bad; *fortis*, brave; *audax*, daring.
3. **Pronouns**—they are so called, because some of them stand for the names of persons or things: as *ego*, I; *tu*, thou; *ille*, he or that one; *id*, it, &c.
4. **Numerals**, expressing the number of persons or things and other relations of number: as *unus*, one; *duo*, two; *tres*, three; *decem*, ten, &c.
5. **Verbs**, words which express an action, a state, or a condition in which a person or thing is: as *scribo*, I write; *curro*, I run; *dormio*, I sleep.
6. **Adverbs**, words qualifying the ideas expressed by verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs: as *bene*, well; *male*, badly; *diligenter*, diligently; *diu*, long; *saepe*, often.
7. **Conjunctions** serve to connect words and sentences: as *et*, and; *vel*, or; *sed*, but; *ut*, that.
8. **Prepositions**, words expressing the relations in which persons, things, or actions stand to others: as *ab*, from; *in*, in; *sub*, under; *super*, over; *ante*, before; *post*, after.
9. **Interjections** are mostly mere exclamatory sounds, expressive of joy, grief, wonder, amazement, &c.: as *heu!* alas!

NOTE.—The Latin language has no article, so that *homo* may mean man, a man, or the man; but the context always shows how it ought to be translated.

§ 7. **Substantives, adjectives, pronouns,** and many **numerals** are capable of inflection, that is, they change their terminations to indicate number and case. This inflection is called *Declension.*

NOTE.—Adjectives are capable of two more kinds of inflection, one to express gender, and the other to express the degrees of comparison. Many pronouns also have inflections to express gender.

§ 8. **Verbs** are capable of inflection, and their inflection is called *Conjugation.*

The remaining parts of speech and many numerals are not capable of any inflection, but remain the same in all circumstances.

§ 9. In declension and conjugation the inflected or changeable part of a word must be carefully distinguished from the part which remains unchanged. This latter is called the **Stem,** and consists of that part of a word which remains unaltered in all circumstances, *e.g., pleb-s, pleb-is, pleb-e,* where *s, is,* and *e* are the terminations, and *pleb* the stem; *audi-o, audi-vi, audi-tum, audi-re,* where the stem is *audi,* and the terminations are *o, vi, tum,* and *re.*

CHAPTER III.

SUBSTANTIVES AND THEIR GENDERS.

§ 10. Substantives are names given to persons or things, because they have certain qualities or properties in common, and such names are called *common nouns;* but if they are names belonging to only one person or thing, they are called *proper names.* Thus, *equus,* a horse, *canis,* a dog, *homo,* a man, are common nouns; but *Cæsar, Vesuvius, Roma, Tiberis,* are proper names. But if more than one person or place bears the same name, it is a mere accident, and not because they have any qualities in common.

§ 11. Common nouns again may be divided into *concrete* and *abstract* nouns, the former denoting things which we perceive by means of our senses, and the latter those things which we conceive only by the mind as distinct existences. Thus, *domus,* a house, *arbor,* a tree, are names of concrete things; but *virtus,* manliness, *justitia,* justice, *venustas,* beauty, are abstract terms.

§ 12. All substantives are either of the masculine, feminine, or neuter gender. The gender of any given substantive may be ascertained partly from its meaning, and partly from its termination. The following general rules may be laid down,

which will be explained more fully in the chapters on the declensions.

1. **Masculine** are the names of male beings, of rivers, of winds, and of months, except the rivers *Albula, Allia, Lethe, Matrona,* and *Styx,* which are feminine.
2. **Feminine** are the names of female beings, and most of the names of towns, trees, countries, islands, and precious stones.
3. **Neuter** are all indeclinable nouns, and such words as, without being real substantives, are used as such, as for example the infinitives of verbs.

NOTE 1.—Properly speaking, the names of all inanimate objects ought to be neuter, as is the case in English; but, owing to a certain process of personification and for other reasons, in Latin as in most other languages, some of these names have become masculine and others feminine, and their genders must be ascertained from their terminations. See the chapters on the declensions.

NOTE 2.—Some substantives denoting living beings have two forms, one for the male and the other for the female: as *filius,* a son, and *filia,* a daughter; *rex,* a king, and *regina,* a queen; *avus,* a grandfather, and *avia,* a grandmother; *lupus,* a wolf, and *lupa,* a she-wolf; *equus,* a horse, and *equa,* a mare. But most names of animals have only one form for both the male and the female; and when the sex is to be specially indicated, it is done by the addition of the words *mas* (male) and *femina* (female).

CHAPTER IV.

THE DECLENSIONS.

§ 13. Declension consists of certain changes in the termination of nouns, to express the relations in which they stand to other words in a sentence. Such relations are generally expressed in English by prepositions: as *patr*-**is** *domus,* the house of the father, or the father's house; *patr*-**i,** to or for a father; *patr*-**e,** from, by, or with a father.

§ 14. There are in Latin six relations which can be expressed by terminations, or, as it is commonly expressed, there are six cases, viz.:—

1. The **Nominative,** denoting the person or thing spoken of, that is, the **subject** of a sentence: as *equus currit,* the horse runs.

2. The **Genitive** (more correctly Genetive), denoting the class or genus to which a thing belongs, and several other relations which are expressed in English by prepositions: as *arma milit-is*, the arms of a soldier; *amor patriae*, the love of one's country.
3. The **Dative**, denoting the person to whom, or for whose advantage or disadvantage anything is or is done. In English this relation is generally expressed by the preposition to or for: as *ostendit filio*, he shows to the son; *liber puero utilis est*, the book is useful to a boy; *patri consulit*, he gives advice to the father.
4. The **Accusative**, denoting the **object** towards which an action is directed: as *magister docet puerum*, the master teaches the boy.
5. The **Vocative** is used in addressing a person or a thing: as *O dii immortales*, O ye immortal gods!
6. The **Ablative** expresses various relations, as those of separation, cause, manner, instrument, time, place, &c., which are expressed in English by the prepositions from, by, with, in, at, &c.

NOTE.—The Sanscrit, the oldest of the Aryan languages, has two cases more, the *Locative* and the *Instrumental*; the forms of these cases being lost in Latin, with very few exceptions, their functions have been assigned to the dative and ablative, which, for this reason, express a greater variety of relations than the other cases.

§ 15. Latin, like English substantives, have two numbers, the **Singular** and the **Plural**; and in each number they have the six cases mentioned above, so that every noun might have twelve different endings, six for the singular and six for the plural.

§ 16. All substantives are declined in one of five ways, whence it is said that there are **Five Declensions.** Words of which the genitive singular ends in *ae* are said to belong to the first declension, those of which the genitive ends in *i* to the second, those of which the genitive ends in *is* to the third, those of which the genitive ends in *ūs* to the fourth, and those of which the genitive ends in *ei* to the fifth.

NOTE.—This rule, though repeated in nearly all grammars, is utterly unscientific. The declension of a noun depends entirely upon the final letter of its stem, and the number of declensions might be reduced to two—viz., the vowel declension, comprising what are com-

monly called the first, second, and fifth declensions, that is, all those of which the stem ends in *a*, *o*, or *e*; and the consonant declension, comprising all nouns of which the stem ends in a consonant, or the semi-consonants *i* and *u*. The stem of a noun always appears after the removal of the termination *um* or *rum* of the genitive plural. Every Latin dictionary ought to mention the stem of a substantive, along with its nominative, as the genitive singular does not always show the real stem.

It can, moreover, be shown that originally all nouns were declined in the same manner, and the apparent differences have arisen from contraction and other euphonic changes. A good type of what the one original declension must have been is still preserved in what is commonly called the third declension.

§ 17. There are some points in which all declensions are still the same, namely:—

1. The Vocative, with few exceptions, is, in all declensions, like the nominative.
2. The Nominative is generally formed by adding *s* to the stem; but no neuter substantive takes *s* as the sign of the Nominative.
3. The Accusative Singular always ends in *m*, as is still the case in the English *him* and *whom*, from *he* and *who*.
4. The Accusative Plural always ends in *s*, preceded by a long vowel, the *m* of the accusative singular having been thrown out.
5. The Ablative Singular in all declensions originally ended in *d* or *ed*. In the first, second, fourth, and fifth, the *d* is dropped, and the *e* is contracted with the preceding vowel into *ā*, *ō*, *ū*, and *ē*; but in the third the short *e* is preserved.
6. The Dative Plural is always like the Ablative plural.
7. All Neuter nouns are the same in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative singular; and in the plural these three cases always end in *ă*.

CHAPTER V.

THE FIRST OR A DECLENSION.

§ 18. Latin nouns, both substantive and adjective, belonging to this declension, have a stem ending in *a*, which is at the

same time their nominative. They are all of the feminine gender, except those which denote males: as *poëta*, a poet; *nauta*, a sailor; *agricola*, a husbandman, and others, which are masculine.

EXAMPLE.

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
Nom. & Voc.	**Mensă** (stem *mensa*),	a table.	**Mensae,**	tables.
Gen.	**Mensae,**	of a table.	**Mensā-rum,**	of tables.
Dat.	**Mensae,**	to a table.	**Mensīs,**	to tables.
Acc.	**Mensa-m,**	a table.	**Mensā-s,**	tables.
Abl.	**Mensā,**	from, with, or by a table.	**Mensīs,**	from, with, or by tables.

Words for Exercise.

Via, a way; *ara*, an altar; *penna*, a feather; *silva*, a wood; *hora*, an hour; *femina*, a woman; *porta*, a gate; *nauta*, a sailor; *tabula*, a tablet.

NOTE 1.—The stem *mensa* disappears in some of the cases; this arises from contraction of its final *a* with the initial vowel of the termination: the *ae* in the dative singular, and in the nominative and vocative plural represents *ai* (compare the Greek *ᾱ* and *αι* in *ἄκρᾳ* and *ἄκραι*); the *is* in the dative and ablative plural is a contraction of *ais* (compare the Greek *αις* in *ἄκραις*). The genitive singular was originally *aes* or *ais* (contracted into *ās;* compare the Greek *ᾱς*), of which the *s* was dropped. In some words the genitive in *ās* is still used, as *pater familiās*, the father of a family; *mater familiās*, the mother of a family; and in poetry we meet with such forms of the genitive as *aurās* and *auraï*, of a breeze. The ablative singular originally ended in *ad*, and the *d* being dropped left the *a* long. The ending *rum* in the genitive plural represents *sum* (Greek *σων*), the *s* between two vowels being very frequently changed in Latin into *r*.

NOTE 2.—The dative and ablative plural of some substantives end in *ā-bus* instead of *īs*, to distinguish them from the masculine forms, which belong to the second declension: as *filia*, dative and ablative plural *filia-bus*. So also *dea*, a goddess; *equa*, a mare; *liberta*, a freedwoman; and *duae* (two) and *ambae* (both), which make *duabus* and *ambabus*.

NOTE 3.—Some substantives, especially compounds of *gena* or *cola*, contract the *arum* of the genitive plural into *ūm*, as *terrigenum* and *caelicolum* for *terrigenarum* and *caelicolarum*.

Greek Words of the First Declension.

§ 19. Some Greek feminine nouns ending in *ē*, and several masculines ending in *ās* and *ēs*, chiefly proper names and patronymics, follow the first declension, though in some cases, especially in poetry, they retain their Greek terminations in preference to the Latin.

EXAMPLES.

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
Nom. & Voc.	Epĭtŏmē,	an abridgment.	Epitomae,	abridgments.
Gen.	Epitomē-s,	of an abridgment.	Epitomā-rum,	of abridgments.
Dat.	Epitomae,	to an abridgment.	Epitomīs,	to abridgments.
Acc.	Epitomē-n,	an abridgment.	Epitomās,	abridgments.
Abl.	Epitomē,	from, with, or by an abridgment.	Epitomīs,	from, with, or by abridgments.

	Singular.	*Singular.*
Nom.	Aenēās.	Anchīsēs.
Gen.	Aenēae.	Anchisae.
Dat.	Aenēae.	Anchisae.
Acc.	Aenēām or Aenēān.	Anchisen or Anchisam.
Voc.	Aenēā.	Anchisē or Anchisā.
Abl.	Aenēā.	Anchisē or Anchisā.

Words for Exercise.

Crambe, cabbage; *Circe*, *Daphne*, *Penelope*, *Boreas*, *Gorgias*, *Pythagoras*, *Pelīdes*, *Priamīdes*, *Tydīdes*.

CHAPTER VI.

THE SECOND OR O DECLENSION.

§ 20. All nouns, both substantive and adjective, of which the stem ends in *ŏ*, belong to the second declension. Their genitive singular ends in *ī*. The nominative ends in *us* (anciently *os*), *er*, or *um* (Greek *ον*). Those ending in *us* and *er* are masculine, and those ending in *um* are neuter.

EXAMPLES.

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
N.	Annŭ-s,	a year.	Annī,	years.
G.	Annī,	of a year.	Anno-rum,	of years.
D.	Annō,	to a year.	Annīs,	to years.
A.	Annu-m,	a year.	Annō-s,	years.
V.	Annĕ,	O year!	Annī,	O years!
Ab.	Annō,	from, with, or by a year.	Annīs,	from, with, or by years.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
N. & V.	Puĕr,	a boy.	Puerī, boys.
G.	Puerī,	of a boy.	Puerō-rum, of boys.
D.	Puerō,	to a boy.	Puerīs, to boys.
A.	Pueru-m,	a boy.	Puerō-s, boys.
Ab.	Puerō,	from, with, or by a boy.	Puerīs, from, with, or by boys.
N. & V.	Agĕr,	a field.	Agrī, fields.
G.	Agrī,	of a field.	Agrō-rum, of fields.
D.	Agrō,	to a field.	Agrīs, to fields.
A.	Agrū-m,	a field.	Agrō-s, fields.
Ab.	Agrō,	from, with, or by a field.	Agrīs, from, with, or by fields.
N., A., & V.	Templu-m,	a temple.	Templā, temples.
G.	Templī,	of a temple.	Templō-rum, of temples.
D.	Templō,	to a temple.	Templīs, to temples.
Ab.	Templō,	from, with, or by a temple.	Templīs, from, with, or by temples.

Words for Exercise.

Like *annus*, decline: *agnus*, a lamb; *hortus*, a garden; *corvus*, a raven; *digitus*, a finger; *equus*, a horse; *murus*, a wall; *servus*, a slave; and the adjectives *bonus*, good; *malus*, bad; *magnus*, great.

Like *puer*, decline: *socer*, a father-in-law; *gener*, a son-in-law; *Līber* (a name of Bacchus); *līberi* (plural), children; and the adjectives *asper*, rough; *līber*, free; *miser*, wretched; *tener*, tender.

Like *ager*, decline: *aper*, a boar; *cancer*, a crab; *caper*, a he-goat; *faber*, a smith; *liber*, a book.

Like *templum*, decline: *antrum*, a cave; *bellum*, a war; *donum*, a gift; *membrum*, a limb; *ovum*, an egg; *tergum*, the back.

The substantive *vir*, a man (and its compounds, *triumvir*, *decemvir*, *lēvir*, a brother-in-law, and *Trevir*), and the adjective *satur* (*a*, *um*), sated, are the only words in *ir* and *ur* that belong to the second declension.

NOTE 1.—In regard to gender, it must be remembered that, according to the general rule (§ 12), the names of towns, islands, trees, shrubs, and precious stones ending in *us* are feminine: as *Corinthus*, *Rhodus*, *fagus*, a beech tree; *malus*, an apple-tree; *papyrus*, the papyrus plant; *amethystus*, the amethyst. To these must be added: *alvus*, belly; *carbăsus*, linen; *humus*, earth; *vannus*, a corn-van. *Colus*, distaff, is sometimes feminine and sometimes masculine.

NOTE 2.—The following substantives in *us* are neuter: *virus*, a juice; *pelagus*, the sea; and *vulgus*, the common people.

NOTE 3.—In the *o* as in the *a* declension, the final vowel of the stem does not always clearly appear. Thus the *u* in the forms ending in *us* and *um* represents an original *o* (compare the Greek ος and ον), and this *o* is retained by writers of the best age of Latin literature, especially after a *v* and *u*, as *servos*, *servom*; *corvos* and *corvom*; *equos* and *equom*.

The original ending of the genitive singular, *oius* or *ius* (compare *qui*, genitive *quoius*; *unus*, one, genitive *unius*), which, after dropping the *us*, left *oi*=*i* (compare the Greek genitive λόγοιο for λογοσιο).

The dative ending *o* is a contraction for *oi* (compare the Greek ῳ).

The ablative singular originally ended in all declensions in *d*, after dropping which the preceding vowel is generally lengthened, whence the *ā* of the first, and *ō* in this declension.

The nominative and vocative plural originally ended in *oe* (Greek οι), which is still found in some early writers, but was commonly changed into *ī*. In like manner the ending *īs* in the dative and ablative plural has arisen out of *ois* (compare the Greek λόγοις).

NOTE 4.—The stem of words in *er* ends in *ero*; but, as in the case of *ager*, some nouns throw out the *e* in the oblique cases.

NOTE 5.—Substantives ending in the nominative singular in *ius* or *ium*, ought in the genitive singular to end in *ii*: but the best writers contract these two vowels into *ī*: as *Appius*, genitive *Appī*; *consilium*, genitive *consilī*.

NOTE 6.—The following adjectives, the masculine and neuter of which follow the o declension, and the feminine the *a* declension, retain in all their genders the old ending *īus* for the genitive, and *ī* for the dative singular; but in all the other cases they follow the ordinary first and second declensions:

Nominative.	Genitive.	Dative.
Unus, una, unum (one),	*unīus,*	*unī.*
Solus, sola, solum (alone),	*solīus,*	*solī.*
Totus, tota, totum (whole),	*totīus,*	*totī.*
Ullus, ulla, ullum (any),	*ullīus,*	*ullī.*
Nullus, nulla, nullum (none),	*nullīus,*	*nullī.*
Alius, alia, aliud (another),	*alīus,*	*aliī.*
Alter, altera, alterum (one of two),	*alterius,*	*alterī.*
Uter, utra, utrum (which of two),	*utrīus,*	*utrī.*
Neuter, neutra, neutrum (neither),	*neutrīus,*	*neutrī.*

All compounds of these words, as *uterque* (each of two), *utervis* (either of two), *utercunque* and *uterlibet* (whichever of two), follow the same rule.

NOTE 7.—Contrary to the general rule (§ 17, 1) nouns in *us* make their vocative in *e*; and proper names ending in the nominative in *ius* contract the *ie* of the vocative into *ī*: as *Julius*, vocative *Julī*; *Pompeius*, vocative *Pompeī*; *Junius*, vocative *Junī*; *Valerius*, vocative *Valerī*. So also the common nouns *filius*, a son, vocative *filī*; and *genius*, vocative *genī*. The possessive pronoun *meus* (my) makes the vocative *mi*, hence *mi fili*, my son.

NOTE 8.—The genitive plural in *orum* is sometimes contracted into *ūm* (Greek ων), especially in words denoting money, weight, measure, or trades, when accompanied by numerals. In like manner we find *liberūm*, for *liberorum* (of children); *fabrūm*, for *fabrorum* (of workmen); *virūm*,

for *virorum* (of men). Poets use such contractions more freely: as *Argivum, Danaum*, for *Argivorum* and *Danaorum*.

NOTE 9.—The declension of the word *Deus* (God) is as follows:—

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
Nom.	Deus,	God.	Dīi or dī,	gods.
Gen.	Deī,	of God.	Deo-rum or deūm,	of gods.
Dat.	Deō,	to God.	Diis or dīs,	to gods.
Acc.	Deu-m,	God.	Deō-s,	gods.
Voc.	Deus,	O God!	Dii or dī,	gods.
Abl.	Deō,	from, with, or by God.	Diis or dīs,	from, with, or by gods.

The plural forms *Dei* and *Deis* are rarely used.

Greek Words of the Second Declension.

§ 21. Greek words of this declension end in the nominative singular in *ŏs* or *ŏn* (corresponding to the Latin *us* and *um*), and generally retain the *o* in the accusative: as *Parŏs* (an island in the Ægaean), genitive *Pari*, dative *Paro*, accusative *Paron* or *Parum*, ablative *Paro*.

Greek words belonging to what is called the second Attic declension, and ending in the nominative singular in *ōs* or *ōn*, retain the *ō* in all cases, though they sometimes make the genitive singular in *ī*: as *Tyndareōs*, genitive *Tyndareō* or *Tyndarei*. Some names of this class make the accusative singular according to the third Greek declension: as nominative *Athōs*, accusative *Athōna*; *Androgeōs*, accusative *Androgeōna*.

Greek proper names ending in *eus* (*ευς*) may either be declined like Latin nouns in *us*, except that in the vocative they merely throw off the *s*, as *Prometheus*, vocative *Prometheu*; or they follow the third Greek declension, as nominative *Orpheus*, genitive *Orpheos*, dative *Orphei*, accusative *Orphea*, vocative *Orpheu*.

Some neuter plural nouns, which are used as the titles of books, such as *Georgica, Bucolica*, make their genitive as in Greek, in *ōn* (*ων*), as *Georgicon libri*, books of Georgics; *Bucolicon libri tres*, three books of Bucolics.

CHAPTER VII.

THE THIRD OR CONSONANT DECLENSION.

§ 22. All nouns of the third declension have a stem ending in a consonant or the vowel *i*. Many masculine and feminine nouns add an *s* to the stem to form the nominative, and this *s*, when preceded by other consonants, produces

certain changes, which will be seen in the following examples :—

§ 23. All nouns of the third declension may be divided into the following five classes :-

(1.) Nouns of which the nominative itself is the stem.

EXAMPLES.

1.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
N. & V.	Lăbŏr,	labour.	Labōr-ēs, labours
G.	Labōr-is,	of labour.	Labōr-um, of labours
D.	Labōr-ī,	to labour.	Labōr-ĭ-bus, to labours.
A.	Labōr-em,	labour.	Labōr-ēs, labours.
Ab.	Labōr-ĕ,	from, with, or by labour.	Labōr-ĭ-bus, from, with, or by labours.

2.

N. & V.	Arbŏr,	a tree.	Arbŏr-ēs, trees.
G.	Arbŏr-is,	of a tree.	Arbŏr-um, of trees.
D.	Arbŏr-i,	to a tree.	Arbŏr-ĭ-bus, to trees.
A.	Arbŏr-em,	a tree.	Arbŏr-ēs, trees.
Ab.	Arbŏr-ĕ,	from, with, or by a tree.	Arbŏr-ĭ-bus, from, with, or by trees.

3.

N. & V.	Consŭl,	a consul.	Consŭl-ēs, consuls.
G.	Consŭl-is,	of a consul.	Consŭl-um, of consuls.
D.	Consŭl-ī,	to a consul.	Consŭl-ĭ-bus, to consuls.
A.	Consŭl-em,	a consul.	Consŭl-ēs, consuls.
Ab.	Consŭl-ĕ,	from, with, or by a consul.	Consŭl-ĭ-bus, from, with, or by consuls.

4.

N. & V.	Anser,	a goose.	Anser-ēs, geese.
G.	Anser-is,	of a goose.	Anser-um, of geese.
D.	Anser-ī,	to a goose.	Anser-ĭ-bus, to geese.
A.	Anser-em,	a goose.	Anser-ēs, geese.
Ab.	Anser-ĕ,	from, with, or by a goose.	Anser-ĭ-bus, from, with, or by geese.

5.

Singular.		*Plural.*	
N. & V. Mōs,	manner.	Mōr-ēs,	manners.
G. Mōr-is,	of manner.	Mōr-um,	of manners.
D. Mōr-ī,	to manner.	Mōr-ĭ-bus,	to manners.
A. Mōr-em,	manner.	Mōr-ēs,	manners.
Ab. Mōr-ĕ,	from, with, or by manner.	Mōr-ĭ-bus,	from, with, or by manners.

6.

N. & V. Mātĕr,	a mother.	Mātr-ēs,	mothers.
G. Mātr-is,	of a mother.	Mātr-um,	of mothers.
D. Mātr-ī,	to a mother.	Mātr-ĭ-bus,	to mothers.
A. Mātr-em,	a mother.	Mātr-ēs,	mothers.
Ab. Mātr-ĕ,	from, with, or by a mother.	Mātr-ĭ-bus,	from, with, or by mothers.

Words for Exercise.

Aggĕr, aggĕris, a mound; *carcĕr, carcĕris,* a prison; *cŏlōr, cŏlōris,* a colour; *exsul, exsŭlis,* an exile; *pătĕr, patris,* a father; *frāter, frātris,* a brother; *flōs, flōris,* a flower; *mŭlĭĕr, mŭlĭĕris,* a woman; *murmŭr,* a murmur; *guttŭr,* the throat.

NOTE.—The *e* of many words ending in *er* is preserved only in the nominative and vocative singular, but is dropped in all the other cases, as in *mātĕr.*

Those nouns in which, as in *flōs,* the *s* belongs to the stem, it is changed in the oblique cases into *r,* according to the common practice of the Latins to change the *s* occurring between two vowels into *r,* as in *eram* and *ero* for *esam* and *eso,* and *Valerius* for *Valesius.*

The ending of the dative and ablative plural is *bus;* but in all those cases, where the stem ends in a consonant, an *ĭ* is inserted before it as a connecting vowel to facilitate the pronunciation.

§ 24. (2.) Masculine and feminine nouns in which the nominative is formed by adding *s* to the stem, without any further change except that *cs* and *gs* become *x.*

EXAMPLES.

1.

Singular.		*Plural.*	
N. & V. Rex (stem rēg),	a king.	Rēg-ēs,	kings.
G. Rēg-is,	of a king.	Rēg-um,	of kings.
D. Rēg-ī,	to a king.	Rēg-ĭ-bus,	to kings.
A. Rēg-em,	a king.	Rēg-ēs,	kings.
Ab. Rēg-ĕ,	from, with, or by a king.	Rēg-ĭ-bus,	from, with, or by kings.

2.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
N. & V.	**Dux** (stem **duc**),	a leader.	**Dŭc-ēs,** leaders.
G.	**Dŭc-is,**	of a leader.	**Dŭc-um,** of leaders.
D.	**Dŭc-ī,**	to a leader.	**Dŭc-ĭ-bus,** to leaders.
A.	**Dŭc-em,**	a leader.	**Dŭc-ēs,** leaders.
Ab.	**Dŭc-ĕ,**	from, with, or by a leader.	**Dŭc-ĭ-bus,** from, with, or by leaders.

3.

N. & V.	**Rādix** (stem **radic**),	a root.	**Rādīc-ēs,** roots.
G.	**Rādīc-is,**	of a root.	**Rādīc-um,** of roots.
D.	**Rādīc-ī,**	to a root.	**Rādīc-ĭ-bus,** to roots.
A.	**Rādīc-em,**	a root.	**Rādīc-ēs,** roots.
Ab.	**Rādīc-ĕ,**	from, with, or by a root.	**Rādīc-ĭ-bus,** from, with or by roots.

4.

N & V.	**Lex** (stem **leg**),	a law.	**Lēg-ēs,** laws.
G.	**Lēg-is,**	of a law.	**Lēg-um,** of laws.
D.	**Lēg-ī,**	to a law.	**Lēg-ĭ-bus,** to laws.
A.	**Lēg-em,**	a law.	**Lēg-ēs,** laws.
Ab.	**Lēg-ĕ,**	from, with, or by a law.	**Lēg-ĭ-bus,** from, with, or by laws.

5.

N. & V.	**Grex** (stem **greg**),	a flock.	**Grĕg-ēs,** flocks.
G.	**Grĕg-is,**	of a flock.	**Grĕg-um,** of flocks.
D.	**Grĕg-ī,**	to a flock.	**Grĕg-ĭ-bus,** to flocks.
A.	**Grĕg-em,**	a flock.	**Grĕg-ēs,** flocks.
Ab.	**Grĕg-ĕ,**	from, with, or by a flock.	**Grĕg-ĭ-bus,** from, with, or by flocks.

Words for Exercise.

Nux, nŭc-is, a nut; *pax, pāc-is,* peace; *fax, făc-is,* a torch; *vox, vōc-is,* a voice; *index, indĭc-is,* an informer; *pollex, pollĭc-is,* the thumb.

NOTE.—The word *urbs* (stem *urb*), a city, which belongs to this class, makes the genitive plural *urbi-um*, its stem originally ending in *i*, for *urbs* is no doubt the same word as *orbis*, a circle.

§ 25. (3.) Masculine and feminine nouns, the stem of which ends in *d* or *t*, lose these consonants before the *s* of the nominative.

EXAMPLES.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
	1.		
N. & V.	Aetas (stem aetat), an age.	Aetāt-ēs,	ages.
G.	Aetāt-is, of an age.	Aētāt-um,	of ages.
D.	Aetāt-ī, to an age.	Aetāt-ĭ-bus,	to ages.
A.	Aetāt-em, an age.	Aetāt-ēs,	ages.
Ab.	Aetāt-ĕ, from, with, or by an age.	Aetāt-ĭ-bus,	from, with, or by ages.
	2.		
N. & V.	Virtus (stem virtut), virtue.	Virtūt-ēs,	virtues.
G.	Virtūt-is, of virtue.	Virtūt-um,	of virtues.
D.	Virtūt-ī, to virtue.	Virtūt-ĭ-bus,	to virtues.
A.	Virtūt-em, virtue.	Virtūt-ēs,	virtues.
Ab.	Virtūt-ĕ, from, with, or by virtue.	Virtūt-ĭ-bus,	from, with, or by virtues.
	3.		
N. & V.	Mīlĕs (stem milit), a soldier.	Mīlĭt-ēs,	soldiers.
G.	Mīlĭt-is, of a soldier.	Mīlĭt-um,	of soldiers.
D.	Mīlĭt-ī, to a soldier.	Mīlĭt-ĭ-bus,	to soldiers.
A.	Mīlĭt-em, a soldier.	Mīlĭt-ēs,	soldiers.
Ab.	Mīlĭt-ĕ, from, with, or by a soldier.	Mīlĭt-ĭ-bus,	from, with, or by soldiers.
	4.		
N. & V.	Ars (stem art), art.	Art-ēs,	arts.
G.	Art-is, of art.	Arti-um,	of arts.
D.	Art-ī, to art.	Art-ĭ-bus,	to arts.
A.	Art-em, art.	Art-ēs,	arts.
Ab.	Art-ĕ, from, with, or by art.	Art-ĭ-bus,	from, with, or by arts.

5.

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
N. & V.	**Mons** (stem **mont**),	mountain.	**Mont-ēs,**	mountains.
G.	**Mont-is,**	of a mountain.	**Monti-um,**	of mountains.
D.	**Mont-ī,**	to a mountain.	**Montĭ-bus,**	to mountains.
A.	**Mont-em,**	a mountain.	**Mont-ēs,**	mountains.
Ab.	**Mont-ĕ,**	from, with, or by a mountain.	**Montĭ-bus,**	from, with, or by mountains.

6.

N. & V.	**Nox** (stem **noct**),	a night.	**Noct-ēs,**	nights.
G.	**Noct-is,**	of a night.	**Nocti-um,**	of nights.
D.	**Noct-ī,**	to a night.	**Noctĭ-bus,**	to nights.
A.	**Noct-em,**	a night.	**Noct-ēs,**	nights.
Ab.	**Noct-ĕ,**	from, with, or by a night.	**Noctĭ-bus,**	from, with, or by nights.

Words for Exercise.

Cassis, cassĭd-is, a helmet; *civitās, cīvĭtāt-is,* a state; *cŏmĕs, cŏmĭt-is,* a companion; *sācerdōs, sācerdōt-is,* a priest; *pars, part-is,* a part; *serpens, serpent-is,* a serpent; *frons, front-is,* the forehead.

NOTE.—All monosyllabic words of this class ending in the nominative singular in two or more consonants, insert an *i* before the *um* of the genitive plural, as is seen in the examples *ars, mons,* and *nox* (for *nocts*). This *i* owes its origin probably to the fact that their stems originally ended in *i*.

§ 26. (4.) Nouns in which the final consonant of the stem is dropped in the nominative, or the vowel preceding it modified; sometimes both these changes occur in the same word, as in *homo,* of which the stem is *homin.*

EXAMPLES.

1.

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
N. & V.	**Orātio** (stem **oration**),	a speech.	**Orātiōn-ēs,**	speeches.
G.	**Orātiōn-is,**	of a speech.	**Orātiōn-um,**	of speeches.
D.	**Orātiōn-ī,**	to a speech.	**Orātiōn-ĭ-bus,**	to speeches.
A.	**Orātiōn-em,**	a speech.	**Orātiōn-ēs,**	speeches.
Ab.	**Orātiōn-ĕ,**	from, with, or by a speech.	**Orātiōn-ĭ-bus,**	from, with, or by speeches.

	Singular.	2. *Plural.*
N., A., & V.	**Nōmĕn** (stem **nomin**), a name.	**Nōmĭn-ă**, names.
G.	**Nōmĭn-is**, of a name.	**Nōmĭn-um**, of names.
D.	**Nōmĭn-ī**, to a name.	**Nōmĭn-ĭ-bus**, to names.
Ab.	**Nōmĭn-ĕ**, from, with, or by a name.	**Nōmĭn-ĭ-bus**, from, with, or by names.

		3.
N., A., & V.	**Căpŭt** (stem **capit**), a head.	**Căpĭt-ă**, heads.
G.	**Căpĭt-is**, of a head.	**Căpĭt-um**, of heads.
D.	**Căpĭt-ī**, to a head.	**Căpĭt-ĭ-bus**, to heads.
Ab.	**Căpĭt-ĕ**, from, with, or by a head.	**Căpĭt-ĭ-bus**, from, with, or by heads.

		4.
N. & V.	**Hŏmo** (stem **homin**), a man.	**Hŏmĭn-ēs**, men.
G.	**Hŏmĭn-is**, of a man.	**Hŏmĭn-um**, of men.
D.	**Hŏmĭn-ī**, to a man.	**Hŏmĭn-ĭ-bus**, to men.
A.	**Hŏmĭn-em**, a man.	**Hŏmĭn-ēs**, men.
Ab.	**Hŏmĭn-ĕ**, from, with, or by a man.	**Hŏmĭn-ĭ-bus**, from, with, or by men.

Words for Exercise.

Nemo, nēmĭn-is, no man; *flūmen, flūmĭn-is,* a river; *carmĕn, carmĭn-is,* a poem; *fulmĕn, fulmĭn-is,* a flash of lightning; *lac, lactis,* milk.

This class also includes the neuter nouns in *us* and *os,* whose stems end in *es* or *os;* but in the oblique cases the *s* is changed into *r,* as is usual when it occurs between two vowels (see § 23, note). Hence the genitive *gĕnĕr-is* stands for *genes-is, corpŏr-is* for *corpos-is,* and *crūr-is* for *crus-is.*

EXAMPLES.

	Singular.	1. *Plural.*
N., A., & V.	**Gĕnŭs** (stem **genes**), a kind.	**Gĕnĕr-ă**, kinds.
G.	**Gĕnĕr-is**, of a kind.	**Gĕnĕr-um**, of kinds.
D.	**Gĕnĕr-ī**, to a kind.	**Gĕnĕr-ĭ-bus**, to kinds.
Ab.	**Gĕnĕr-ĕ**, from, with, or by a kind.	**Gĕnĕr-ĭ-bus**, from, with, or by kinds.

	Singular.		2. *Plural.*	
N., A., & V.	Tempŭs (stem tempos),	time.	Tempŏr-ă,	times.
G.	Tempŏr-is,	of time.	Tempŏr-um,	of times.
D.	Tempŏr-ī,	to time.	Tempŏr-ĭ-bus,	to times.
Ab.	Tempŏr-ĕ,	from, with, or by time.	Tempŏr-ĭ-bus,	from, with, or by times.

Words for Exercise.

Fūnŭs, fūnĕr-is, a funeral; *lătŭs, lătĕr-is*, a side; *sĭdŭs, sīdĕr-is*, a constellation; *vulnŭs, vulnĕr-is*, a wound; *littŭs, littŏr-is*, a shore; *corpŭs, corpŏr-is*, a body; *pectŭs, pectŏr-is*, a breast. So also, *ōs, ōr-is*, the mouth; and *crūs, crūr-is*, a leg.

§ 27. (5.) Nouns of which the stem ends in *i*. Masculine and feminine nouns add an *s* to the stem to form the nominative; but sometimes the *i* of the stem becomes *e* in the nominative. The true form of the stem, however, appears clearly in the genitive plural.

EXAMPLES.

	Singular.		1. *Plural.*	
N. & V.	Hostis (stem hostĭ),	an enemy.	Host-ēs,	enemies.
G.	Host-ĭs,	of an enemy.	Hostĭ-um,	of enemies.
D.	Host-ī,	to an enemy.	Hostĭ-bus,	to enemies.
A.	Host-em,	an enemy.	Host-ēs,	enemies.
Ab.	Host-ĕ,	from, with, or by an enemy.	Hostĭ-bus,	from, with, or by enemies.

			2.	
N. & V.	Rūpēs (stem rupi),	a rock.	Rūp-ēs,	rocks.
G.	Rūp-ĭs,	of a rock.	Rūpi-um,	of rocks.
D.	Rūp-ī,	to a rock.	Rūpĭ-bus,	to rocks.
A.	Rūp-em,	a rock.	Rūp-ēs,	rocks.
Ab.	Rūp-ĕ,	from, with, or by a rock.	Rūpĭ-bus,	from, with, or by rocks.

Words for Exercise.

Civis, a citizen; *classis*, a fleet; *vestis*, a garment; *ăvis*, a bird; *ŏvis*, a sheep; *fēlis*, a cat; *nūbes*, a cloud; *clādes*, a defeat; *sēdes*, a seat.

NOTE.—The ĭ preceding the termination *bus* in the dative and ablative plural of these words is not a mere connecting vowel, but belongs to the stem.

The accusative plural of this class of nouns sometimes ends in *īs* or *eis* instead of *ēs*, as *hostīs* and *classīs* for *hostēs* and *classēs*. So also *urbīs* and *artīs* for *urbēs* and *artēs*; *omnēis* or *omnīs* for *omnes*.

To this class also belong the neuter nouns in *e* = *i*, *al* = *ale*, and *ar* = *are*.

EXAMPLES.

1.

	Singular		*Plural.*	
N., A., & V.	**Mărĕ** (stem **mari**),	the sea.	**Mări-ă**,	the seas.
G.	**Măr-is**,	of the sea.	**Mări-um**,	of the seas.
D.	**Măr-ī**.	to the sea.	**Mărĭ-bus**,	to the seas.
Ab.	**Măr-ī**,	from, with, or by the sea.	**Mărĭ-bus**.	from, with, or by the seas.

2.

N., A., & V.	**Anĭmăl** (stem **animali**),	an animal.	**Anĭmāli-ă**,	animals.
G.	**Anĭmāl-is**,	of an animal.	**Anĭmāli-um**,	of animals.
D.	**Anĭmāl-ī**,	to an animal.	**Anĭmālĭ-bus**,	to animals.
Ab.	**Anĭmāl-ī**,	from, with, or by an animal.	**Anĭmālĭ-bus**	from, with, or by animals.

3.

N., A., & V.	**Calcăr** (stem **calcari**),	a spur.	**Calcāri-ă**,	spurs.
G.	**Calcār-is**,	of a spur.	**Calcāri-um**,	of spurs.
D.	**Calcār-ī**,	to a spur.	**Calcārĭ-bus**,	to spurs.
Ab.	**Calcār-ī**,	from, with, or by a spur.	**Calcārĭ-bus**,	from, with, or by spurs.

Words for Exercise.

Mŏnīle, a necklace; *ŏvīle*, a sheepfold; *rēte*, a net; *vectīgal*, a tax; *exemplar*, an example.

NOTE.—The words ending in *al*, as *animal* and *vectigal*, are properly the neuters of the adjectives *animalis* and *vectigalis*, and shortened for *animale* and *vectigale*.

CHAPTER VIII.

REMARKS ON SOME CASES OF THE THIRD DECLENSION, AND ON GREEK NOUNS FOLLOWING THIS DECLENSION.

§ 28. The real ending of the **Accusative Singular** in this as in all other declensions is *m*, before which an *e* is inserted, as a connecting vowel, in all words with a consonantal stem. In words, the stem of which ends in *i*, the accusative might be formed in *im* instead of *em*. But, from the analogy of other words, *em* is usually preferred, and only the following make the accusative regularly in *im: ămussis*, a rule; *rāvis*, hoarseness; *sĭtis*, thirst; *tussis*, a cough; *vis*, force; and the following names of towns and rivers: *Hispalis*, *Tiberis*, *Albis*, and *Baetis*.

The following fluctuate between *em* and *im: febris*, fever; *pelvis*, a basin; *puppis*, the stern of a ship; *restis*, a rope; *turris*, a tower; *secūris*, an axe; *clāvis*, a key; *messis*, the harvest; and *nāvis*, a ship.

§ 29. Nouns, the stems of which end in *i*, might form the **Ablative** in *ī*; but such is the case only—

1. With those which make the accusative in *im*.
2. With the neuter nouns in *e*, *al*, and *ar*.

NOTE.—Masculine and feminine nouns in *al* and *ar*, as *sal*, salt; *nectar*, nectar; *jūbar*, a sunbeam; *far* (genitive *farris*), spelt, make their ablative in *ĕ*. So also the neuter names of towns in *e*, as *Praeneste*, *Caēre*, *Reate*, regularly make their ablative in *ĕ*.

3. With all adjectives in *is*, *is*, *e*, and *er*, *is*, *e*.

Some nouns again fluctuate in the ablative between *ī* and *ĕ*. Such is the case—

1. With those which in the accusative fluctuate between *im* and *em:* as *puppis*, ablative *puppī* or *puppe;* also with *ignis*, fire; *avis*, a bird; *imber*, a shower; *vesper*, evening. But *restis* has only *restĕ*, and *securis* only *securī*.

2. With adjectives of one termination for all the three genders, and with all comparatives: as *audax*, ablative *audace* or *audaci*; *sapiens*, ablative *sapientĕ* or *sapientī*; *felix*, ablative *felicĕ* or *felicī*. But some adjectives of this class have *ĕ* exclusively: as *pauper*, poor; *pubes*, an adult; *compos*, master of; *impos*, not master of; *princeps*, chief; and one or two others.

NOTE.—The adjective *mĕmor*, mindful, and *pār*, equal, always make the ablative in *ī*; but the substantive *pār*, a pair or couple, has either *parĕ* or *parī*.

3. With participles in *ns* (genitive *ntis*); but in the construction called the ablative absolute, they always have *ĕ*, as *Romulo regnante*, in the reign of Romulus.

A few nouns of this declension have *ē* in the ablative, as if they belonged to the **e** or fifth declension, viz., *fames*, hunger, ablative *famē*; *tabes*, ablative *tabē*; *requies*, ablative *requiē*.

§ 30. The **Nominative Plural** in *ia* occurs—

1. In all neuter nouns with a stem ending in *i*, as those ending in the nominative in *e*, *al*, or *ar*; *e.g.*, *mare*, *animal*, *calcar*, nominative plural *maria*, *animalia*, *calcaria*.
2. In all adjectives which have their ablative singular either always in *ī*, or both in *ĕ* and *ī*, as *gravis*, *gravĭ*; *prudens*, *prudentĭ*; *audax*, *audacĭ*. Comparatives, however, have always simply *ĭ*: as *amplior*, *ampliorĭ*; *melior*, *meliorĭ*.

NOTE.—*Vetus*, genitive *veteris*, always has *vetera*, and *complures* has both *complura* and *compluria*.

§ 31. The **Genitive Plural** ends in *ium*—

1. In all nouns with a stem ending in *i*: as *navis*, *navium*; *hostis*, *hostium*; *aedes*, *aedium*; *animalium*.

NOTE.—The following are exceptions, and form their genitive plural in *um*: *jŭvenis*, a youth; *vātes*, a prophet; *cănis*, a dog; *ăpis*, a bee; *sēdes*, a seat; *volucris*, a bird.

2. In the words *imber*, a shower; *uter*, a leather bag;

linter, a wherry; *venter*, the belly; and whose genitive plural is *imbrium*, *utrium*, *venarium*, *carnium*, because they have a *il.* in *i*.

3. In monosyllabic words with a stem endin[illegible] senses. sonants: as *urbs* (stem *urb*), genitive *urbium* of senses. (stem *dent*), genitive *dentium* (compare § 25, senses. Also in the following monosyllabic words, whose h, or ends in a single consonant: *mūs*, a mouse; *mas*, male; *nix*, snow; *strix*, an owl; and *faux*, the throat.
4. In national names in *is* and *as*: as *Quīris*, genitive *Quiritium*; *Fidenas*, *Fidenatium*; *Arpinas*, *Arpinatium*. *Civitas*, a state, and similar nouns also sometimes have *ium*, as *civitatium*, though *civitatum* is preferable.
5. Polysyllabic words in *ns* may make the genitive plural either in *um* or *ium*, as *adolescens* (a young man), genitive either *adolescentum* or *adolescentium*.
6. Names of Roman festivals ending in *alia* (neuter plural), and following the second declension, sometimes form the genitive plural in *ium*, instead of *iorum*, as *Floralia*, genitive *Floralium* or *Floraliorum* (compare § 20, note 8).

§ 32. It has already been observed (§ 27, note) that many masculine and feminine nouns, whose stem ends in *i*, make the accusative plural either in *es*, *īs*, or *eis*: as *omnis*, accusative plural *omnēs*, *omnīs*, or *omneis*; *urbs*, accusative plural *urbes* or *urbīs*.

GREEK NOUNS OF THE THIRD DECLENSION.

§ 33. They are mostly proper names retaining in the nominative the same form as in Greek; in the other cases also they follow the Greek rather than the Latin declension.

1. The Genitive of names in *es* generally ends in *i* instead of *is*: as *Sophocles*, genitive *Sophocli*; *Pericles*, genitive *Pericli*. Many also take the Greek genitive in *ōs*: as *Pallas*, genitive *Pallados*; *chlamys* (a cloak), genitive *chlamydos*. Feminine names in *ō* generally make their genitive in *ūs*, instead of the Latin *ōnis*: *Sappho*, genitive *Sapphūs* or *Sapphōnis*; *Io*,

…e *Iūs* or *Ionis*. They may be declined in the Latin …, but their dative, accusative, and ablative are …ly like the nominative.

…ative frequently takes the Greek ending *ă* instead of …in *em*: as *Platona*, *Agamemnona*, for *Platonem*, …*mnonem*. So also the noun *āer* (air), accusative *āerā*, …*aerem*. Substantives in *is* with a stem ending in *i*, …uctuate between *in* and *im*: as *poësis*, accusative *poësin* or *poësim*; *Charybdis*, accusative *Charybdin* or *Charybdim*. Names in *is* with a consonantal stem make the accusative either in *ĭ* or *em*, as *Paris*, accusative *Parida*, *Paridem*, or even *Parin*. Proper names in *es* make the accusative either in *en* or *em* as *Aeschines*, accusative *Aeschinem* or *Aeschinen*; while those in *cles* have also an accusative in *a*, as *Pericles*, accusative *Periclem* or *Periclĕ*.

3. The Vocative of proper names is generally the same as the nominative, but those in *is*, *eus*, and *ys* drop the *s* in the vocative: as *Alexis*, *Orpheus*, *Cotys*, vocative *Alexi*, *Orpheu*, *Coty*. So also *Calchas* (genitive *Calchantis*), vocative *Calcha*.

4. The Nominative Plural frequently takes the Greek *ĕs* instead of the Latin *ēs*, as *Arcădĕs*, from *Arcas*, an Arcadian.

5. The Genitive Plural in *ōn* occurs only in titles of books: as *Metamorphoseon libri*, books of Metamorphoses; *Epigrammaton libri*, books of epigrams.

6. The Accusative Plural frequently takes the Greek ending *ăs* instead of the Latin *ēs*: as *Aethiops*, accusative plural. *Aethiopăs*; *Arcas*, accusative plural *Arcădăs*.

7. The Dative and Ablative Plural of Greek neuter substantives in *ma* (genitive *matis*) is more frequently formed by the ending *ĭs* than *ĭbus*, as *poëma*, dative and ablative plural *poëmatis*, for *poëmatibus*.

CHAPTER IX.

THE FOURTH OR U DECLENSION.

§ 34. The fourth declension comprises all nouns the stem of which ends in *u*; but it is in reality no separate declension, being only a contracted third. The nominative of masculine and feminine nouns ends in *ŭs*, and of neuters in *ŭ*.

Examples.

1.

	Singular.		*Plural.*
N. & V.	Sensŭ-s,	a sense.	Sensū-s, senses.
G.	Sensū-s,	of a sense.	Sensu-um, of senses.
D.	Sensū-ī,	to a sense.	Sensĭ-bus, to senses.
A.	Sensu-m,	a sense.	Sensū-s, senses.
Ab.	Sensū,	from, with, or by a sense.	Sensĭ-bus, from, with, or by senses.

2.

N. & V.	Artŭ-s,	a joint.	Artū-s, joints.
G.	Artū-s,	of a joint.	Artu-um, of joints.
D.	Artu-ī,	to a joint.	Artŭ-bus, to joints.
A.	Artu-m,	a joint.	Artū-s, joints.
Ab.	Artū,	from, with, or by a joint.	Artŭ-bus, from, with, or by joints.

3.

N., A., & V.	Cornu,	a horn.	Cornu-ă, horns.
G.	Cornū-s,	of a horn.	Cornu-um, of horns.
D.	Cornū (cornu-ī),	to a horn.	Cornĭ-bus, to horns.
Ab.	Cornū,	from, with, or by a horn.	Cornĭ-bus, from, with, or by horns.

Words for Exercise.

Grădus, a step; *fructus*, fruit; *mŏtus*, a movement; *ūsŭs*, use; *cāsus*, a fall; *passus*, a pace; *ăcus*, a needle; *lăcus*, a lake; *vĕru*, a spit; *gĕnu*, a knee.

All nouns in *u* are neuter, and those ending in *us* are masculine, unless they are names of females or of trees (see § 12). Besides these the following also are feminine: *mănus*, a hand; *trĭbus*, a tribe; *ăcus*, a needle; *dŏmus*, a house; *portĭcus*, a porch.

Note 1.—In the dative and ablative plural the *u* of the stem is generally changed into *i*—a change very common in Latin, as *optumus* and *optimus*. But the following nouns retain the *u*, as in the case of *artus : quercus*, an oak; *ăcus*, a needle; *arcus*, a bow; *lăcus*, a lake; *trĭbus*, a tribe; *portus*, a harbour; *partus*, a birth; *spĕcus*, cave; *vĕru*, a spit; and *pĕcu*, cattle; though *portus* and *veru* sometimes change the *u* into *i*.

Note 2.—The ending *ūs* in the genitive singular is a contraction of *uis*, which is still seen in early Latin, and the *ūs* in the nominative and accu-

sative plural is a contraction of *ues*. In the dative singular *uī* is sometimes contracted into *ū*, and in the genitive plural *uum* into *ūm*.

Sometimes nouns of this declension make their genitive singular in *i*, as if they belonged to the second declension: as *senatus*, genitive *senati*; *tumultus* (a tumult), genitive *tumulti*.

NOTE 3.—The word *dŏmus* is declined partly according to the second, and partly according to the fourth declension, as follows:—

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
N. & V.	Dŏmŭ-s,	a house.	Dŏmū-s,	houses.
G.	Dŏmū-s,	of a house.	Dŏmu-um or dŏmō-rum,	of houses.
D.	Dŏmū-ī,	to a house.	Dŏmĭ-bus,	to houses.
A.	Dŏmu-m,	a house.	Dŏmŏ-s or dŏmūs,	houses.
Ab.	Dŏmō,	from a house, or from home.	Dŏmĭ-bus,	from, with, or by houses.

CHAPTER X.

THE FIFTH OR e DECLENSION.

§ 35. All nouns of the fifth declension have a stem ending in *e*, from which the nominative is formed by the usual addition of *s*.

NOTE.—This declension, like the fourth, is, properly speaking, not a distinct or separate declension; but only a modification of the first. It thus answers to those words of the first Greek declension, whose stem ends in *ē* (*η*).

EXAMPLES.

1.

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
N. & V.	Diē-s,	a day.	Diē-s,	days
G.	Diē-ī,	of a day.	Diē-rum,	of days.
D.	Diē-ī,	to a day.	Diē-bus,	to days
A.	Die-m,	a day.	Diē-s,	days.
Ab.	Diē,	from, with, or by a day.	Diē-bus,	from, with, or by days.

2.

N. & V.	Rē-s,	a thing.	Rē-s,	things.
G.	Rĕ-ī,	of a thing.	Rē-rum,	of things.
D.	Rĕ-ī,	to a thing.	Rē-bus,	to things.
A.	Rē-m,	a thing.	Rē-s,	things.
Ab.	Rē,	from, with, or by a thing.	Rē-bus,	from, with, or by things.

Words for Exercise.

Acies, a point; *effĭgies*, a likeness; *făcies*, a face; *fĭdes*, faith; *spĕcies*, an appearance; *plēbes*, the commonalty; *spēs*, a hope; *sĕries*, a series; *mĕrīdies*, mid-day.

NOTE 1.—All words of this declension are feminine, except *dies*, which, in the singular, is used both as a masculine and as a feminine; but in the plural is masculine only. *Mĕrīdies* is masculine only.

NOTE 2.—The genitive and dative singular ending in *ei* is sometimes contracted into *ē* or *ī*, as *diē* = *diēī*; *plebī* = *plebei*. Moreover, the *e* preceding the *i* in these two cases is long when preceded by a vowel, but short when preceded by a consonant—hence *diēī*, but *rĕī*.

NOTE 3.—There are only a few nouns belonging to this declension, and *res* and *dies* are the only ones that have both the singular and the plural complete; all the rest are used only in the singular, or at most only in the nominative and accusative of the plural.

NOTE 4.—Several nouns of this declension, besides the nominative in *es*, have another ending in *a* and follow the first declension: as *materies* and *materia*, timber; *mollities* and *mollitia*, softness, and a few others.

CHAPTER XI.

PECULIARITIES AND IRREGULARITIES IN THE DECLENSION OF SUBSTANTIVES.

§ 36. 1. Some spurious compound substantives decline both nouns of which they are composed: as *respublica* (a state), genitive *reipublicae*, accusative *rempublicam*, &c.; *jūsjurandum* (an oath), genitive *jūrisjurandi*. The same is the case with some compound pronouns, as *unusquisque* (every one), genitive *uniuscujusque*, &c. (see § 61, 7).

2. Some substantives are indeclinable: as *fās*, a thing in accordance with divine law; *nĕfās*, contrary to divine law; *instar*, resemblance; *pondo*, a pound; the names of the letters of the alphabet, as *alpha*, *beta*, *gamma*; and any words which, without being substantives, are used as such. Verbs, however, when used as substantives, have a complete declension in the singular: as nominative *scribĕre*, writing; genitive *scribendi*, of writing; dative *scribendo*, to writing; accusative *scribere* or *scribendum*, writing; ablative *scribendo*, from, with, or by writing.

3. Some substantives are used only in the plural: as *arma*, arms; *lĭbĕri*, children; *fĕriae*, a holiday; *tĕnebrae*, darkness; *nuptiae*, marriage; *manubiae*, booty; *moenia*, the walls of a city; *divitiae*, wealth, and many others.

4. The following substantives have one meaning in the singular and another in the plural :—

Singular.	*Plural.*
Aedēs, a temple.	*Aedēs*, temples, or a house.
Aqua, water.	*Aquae*, waters, or mineral springs.
Auxĭlium, help.	*Auxilia*, auxiliary troops.
Carcĕr, a prison.	*Carcĕres*, prisons, or barriers in a racecourse.
Castrum, a fort.	*Castra*, a camp.
Cŏmĭtium, the place of meeting.	*Comĭtia*, the meeting, or assembly.
Cōpia, plenty.	*Cōpiae*, military forces.
Fīnis, the end.	*Fines*, the boundary, territory.
Fortūna, fortune.	*Fortūnae*, gifts of fortune.
Grātia, favour.	*Grātiae*, thanks.
Impĕdīmentum, a hindrance.	*Impĕdīmenta*, baggage.
Littĕra, a letter of the alphabet.	*Littĕrae*, an epistle.
Lūdus, a play or school.	*Lūdi*, public games.
Opĕra, work.	*Opĕrae*, workmen.
Opis (genitive of *ops*), help.	*Opes*, wealth.
Rostrum, a beak.	*Rostra*, the platform in the Forum.
Sāl, salt.	*Sălēs*, wit or witty words.
Tăbŭla, tablet or picture.	*Tabulae*, writing tablets.

5. Some substantives occur only in some cases and not in others. Some of them are used only in the oblique cases, the nominative being wanting: as genitive *dapis* (from *daps*), of food; *dĭtiōnis* (from *ditio*), of dominion; *frūgis* (from *frux*), of fruit; *internĕcĭōnis* (from *internĕcio*), of destruction; *opis* (from *ops*), help. *Fors*, chance, occurs only in the nominative and ablative singular. Of the obsolete *prex*, prayer, we have only the dative, accusative, and ablative singular, *prĕci*, *prĕcem*, and *prĕce*; the plural is complete. Of *vĭcis*, change, we have in the singular only the genitive *vĭcis*, the accusative *vĭcem*, and the ablative *vĭce*; its plural is complete, but wants the genitive. *Vis*, force, has in the singular, besides the nominative, only the accusative *vim*, and the ablative *vī*; but the plural is complete, *vīres*, *vīrium*, *vīribus*. The following three words exist in the singular only in the ablative, but their plural is complete: *ambāgĕ* (circuit), *faucĕ* (throat), and *verbĕrĕ* (a blow). *Sponte*, by inclination, occurs only in this ablative form. So also *jussū*, by order; *natū*, by birth. Other defective nouns of this kind must be learned by practice and observation.

§ 37. Some substantives have two or more forms in the nominative, and accordingly belong to different declensions. They are called Heteroclita—

1. Some fluctuate between the first and second declension: as *menda* and *mendum* (a fault); *vesper* (evening) makes the accusative *vesperum*, according to the second declension, while the ablative is commonly *vespĕrĕ* or *vespĕrī* (in the evening), according to the third.

2. Some substantives fluctuate between the second and fourth de-

clension : as *dŏmus* (see § 34, note 3), *ēventus* and *eventum*, an occurrence ; *suggestus* and *suggestum*, a platform for speakers. This is the case especially with some names of trees : as *laurus*, a bay tree ; *cŭpressus*, a cypress ; *fĭcus*, a fig tree ; *pīnus*, a pine tree.

3. Some fluctuate between the third and fifth declension : as *plebs* and *plēbēs*, the commonalty, genitive *plēbis* or *plēbeī ; rĕquies*, rest, genitive *rĕquiētis* and *rĕquiēī*.

4. Those fluctuating between the first and fifth declension, as *materia* and *materies*, have already been noticed (§ 35, note 4).

5. The word *vās* (a vessel), genitive *vāsis*, belongs to the third declension in the singular ; but the plural, *vāsa, vāsōrum, vāsis*, belongs to the second. *Jūgĕrum* (an acre), on the other hand, belongs to the second in the singular ; but the plural *jūgĕra, jūgĕrum, jūgĕrĭbus* to the third.

§ 38. Some substantives have different genders in the singular and in the plural. The principal words of this kind are—

Singular.	*Plural.*
Jŏcus (masculine), a joke.	*Jŏci* and *jŏca.*
Lŏcus (masculine), a place.	*Lŏci* and *lŏca.*
Carbăsus (feminine), linen.	*Carbăsa*, sails.
Caelum, heaven.	*Caelī*, heavens.
Frēnum, a bit.	*Frēni* and *frēna.*
Rastrum, a hatchet.	*Rastri* and *rastra.*
Ostrea, oyster.	*Ostreae* and *ostreă.*
Sībĭlus, hissing.	*Sībĭli* and *sībĭla.*
Tartărus, the lower regions.	*Tartăra.*

§ 39. The following words present some irregularities in the formation of the genitive singular, but the other cases are formed regularly from it :—

Jupiter or *Juppiter*, genitive *Jŏvis*, dative *Jŏvī*, accusative *Jŏvem*, ablative *Jŏvĕ*.
Sĕnex, old man ; genitive *sĕnis*, dative *sĕnī*, accusative *sĕnem*, &c.
Nix, snow ; genitive *nĭvis*, dative *nĭvī*, accusative *nĭvem*, &c.
Supellex, furniture ; genitive *supellectĭlis*, dative *supellectĭlī*, &c.
Căro, flesh ; genitive *carnis*, dative *carnī*, &c.
Iter, a journey ; genitive *ĭtĭnĕris*, dative *ĭtĭnĕrī*, &c.
Jĕcur, liver ; genitive *jecŏris, jecinŏris*, or *jocinŏris*, &c.
Bos, ox ; genitive, *bovis, bovi*, &c.

CHAPTER XII.

ADJECTIVES AND THEIR DECLENSION.

§ 40. All adjectives are declined according to one of the first three declensions, and no adjective follows the fourth or fifth.

All adjectives are divided into four classes :—

1. Adjectives in *us* and *er* have three distinct terminations—*us* or *er* for the masculine, *a* for the feminine, and *um* for the neuter. The masculine and neuter follow the second declension, and the feminine the first : as *bŏnus* (good), feminine *bŏna*, neuter *bŏnum ; mĭser* (wretched), feminine *mĭsĕra*, neuter *mĭsĕrum*.

NOTE 1.—Adjectives in *er, a, um*, generally throw out the *e* before the *r* in the feminine and neuter, and in all the oblique cases, as *săcer* (sacred), feminine *sacra*, neuter *sacrum*. The only adjectives retaining the *e* are—*asper* (rough), *aspĕra, aspĕrum ; lăcer* (torn), *lăcĕra, lăcĕrum ; lĭber* (free), *lĭbĕra, lĭbĕrum ; mĭser* (wretched), *mĭsĕra, mĭsĕrum ; prosper* (prosperous), *prospĕra, prospĕrum ;* and those with the suffixes *ger* and *fer* (from *gero* and *fero*), as *lānĭger* (wool-bearing), *lānĭgĕra, lānĭgĕrum ; ŏpĭfer* (bringing help), *ŏpĭfĕra, ŏpĭfĕrum. Sătur* (sated), feminine *sătŭra*, neuter *sătŭrum*, is the only adjective in *ur* (compare § 20).

NOTE 2.—Respecting certain adjectives and pronouns in *us* and *er*, which make their genitive in *ius*, and the dative in *i* for all genders, see § 20, note 6.

2. The second class contains a limited number of adjectives ending in the masculine in *er*, in the feminine in *is*, and in the neuter in *e*, as *ācer* (sharp), feminine *acris*, neuter *acre*. All follow the third declension. Their masculine originally also ended in *is*, and their stem always ends in *i*, with the single exception of *celer*. The *e* before the *r* is always thrown out except in the nominative of the masculine singular.

The following is a complete list of them :—

Masculine.	Feminine.	Neuter.	Genitive Plural.
Acer (sharp),	*ācris*,	*ācre*,	*acri-um.*
Alăcer (lively),	*ălacris*,	*ălacre*,	*ălacri-um.*
Campester (level),	*campestris*,	*campestre*,	*campestri-um.*
Cĕlĕber (famous),	*cĕlebris*,	*cĕlebre*,	*cĕlebri-um.*
Celer (swift),	*cĕlĕris*,	*cĕlĕre*,	*celer-um.*
Equester (equestrian),	*ĕquestris*,	*ĕquestre*,	*ĕquestri-um.*
Păluster (marshy),	*pălustris*,	*pălustre*,	*palustri-um.*
Pĕdester (on foot),	*pĕdestris*,	*pĕdestre*,	*pĕdestri-um.*
Pŭter (rotten),	*putris*,	*putre*,	*putri-um.*
Sălŭber (wholesome),	*sălubris*,	*sălubre*,	*sălubri-um.*
Silvester (woody),	*silvestris*,	*silvestre*,	*silvestri-um.*
Terrester (of the land),	*terrestris*,	*terrestre*,	*terrestri-um.*
Vŏlucer (flying),	*vŏlucris*,	*vŏlucre*,	*volucri-um.*

The names of the months ending in *er*, as *October, November*, &c., are properly adjectives of this class.

3. The third class comprises all adjectives in *is*, and the comparatives in *ior*. They have only two terminations—*is* and *ior* for both the masculine and feminine, and *e* and *ius* for the neuter as: masculine and feminine *tristis* (sad), neuter *triste;* masculine and feminine *major* (greater), neuter *majus*. All adjectives of this class belong to the third declension, and the stem of those in *is* ends in *i*, while that of the comparatives ends in the consonant *r*.

4. All other adjectives have only one termination for all the three genders as: *săpiens*, wise; *audax*, bold; *concors*, unanimous; *mĕmor*, mindful; *lŏcuples*, rich. All belong to the third declension, and their stem ends in *i*.

Examples of Adjectives of the First Class.

1.

	Singular. M.	F.	N.	*Plural.* M.	F.	N.
N.	Bŏnu-s,	bŏna,	bŏnum.	Bŏnī,	bŏnae,	bŏnă.
G.	Bŏnī,	bŏnae,	bŏnī.	Bŏnō-rum,	bŏnā-rum,	bŏnō-rum.
D.	Bŏnō,	bŏnae,	bŏnō.	Bŏnīs,	bŏnīs,	bŏnīs.
A.	Bŏn-um,	bŏna-m,	bŏnum.	Bŏnō-s,	bŏnā-s,	bŏnă.
V.	Bŏnĕ,	bŏna,	bŏnum.	Bŏnī,	bŏnae,	bŏnă.
Ab.	Bŏnō,	bŏnā,	bŏnō.	Bŏnīs,	bŏnīs,	bŏnīs.

2.

N. V.	Săcer,	sacra,	sacrum.	Sacrī,	sacrae,	sacră.
G.	Sacrī,	sacrae,	sacrī.	Sacrō-rum,	sacrā-rum,	sacrō-rum
D.	Sacrō,	sacrae,	sacrō.	Sacrīs,	sacrīs,	sacrīs.
A.	Sacru-m,	sacra-m,	sacrum.	Sacrō-s,	sacrā-s,	sacră.
Ab.	Sacrō,	sacrā,	sacrō.	Sacrīs,	sacrīs,	sacrīs.

3.

N. V.	Mĭser.	mĭsĕra,	mĭsĕrum.	Mĭsĕrī,	mĭsĕrae,	mĭsĕră.
G.	Mĭsĕrī,	mĭsĕrae,	mĭsĕrī.	Mĭsĕrō-rum,	mĭsĕrā-rum,	mĭsĕrō-rum.
D.	Mĭsĕrō,	mĭsĕrae,	mĭsĕrō.	Mĭsĕrīs,	mĭsĕrīs,	mĭsĕrīs.
A.	Mĭsĕru-m,	mĭsĕra-m,	mĭsĕrum.	Mĭsĕrō-s,	mĭsĕrā-s,	mĭsĕră.
Ab.	Mĭsĕrō,	mĭsĕrā,	misĕrō.	Mĭsĕrīs,	mĭsĕrīs,	mĭsĕrīs.

Example of Adjectives of the Second Class.

	Singular. M.	F.	N.	*Plural.* M. & F.	N.
N. V.	Acer,	ācris,	ācrĕ.	Acrēs,	ācrī-ă.
G.	Acris,	acris,	acris.	Acri-um,	acri-um.
D.	Acrī,	acrī,	acrī.	Acrĭ-bus,	acrĭ-bus.
A.	Acre-m,	acre-m,	acrĕ.	Acrēs,	acri-a.
Ab.	Acrī,	acrī,	acrī.	Acrĭ-bus,	acrĭ-bus.

Examples of Adjectives of the Third Class.

	Singular.		1. *Plural.*	
	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
N. V.	Fortis,	fortĕ.	Fortēs,	forti-ă.
G.	Fortis,	fortis.	Forti-um,	forti-um.
D.	Fortī,	fortī.	Fortĭ-bus,	fortĭ-bus.
A.	Forte-m,	fortĕ.	Fortēs,	forti-ă.
Ab.	Fortī,	fortī.	Fortĭ-bus,	fortĭ-bus.
			2.	
N. V.	Altior,	altius.	Altiōr-ēs,	altiōr-a.
G.	Altiōr-is,	altiōr-is.	Altiōr-um,	altiōr-um.
D.	Altiōr-ī,	altiōr-ī.	Altiōr-ĭbus,	altiōr-ĭbus.
A.	Altiōr-em,	altius.	Altiōr-ēs,	altiōr-ă.
Ab.	Altiōr-ĕ,	altiōr-ĕ.	Altiōr-ĭbus,	altiōr-ĭbus.

Examples of Adjectives of the Fourth Class.

	Singular.		1. *Plural.*	
	M. & F.	N.	M. & F.	N.
N. V.	Săpiens,	săpiens.	Săpient-ēs,	săpienti-ă.
G.	Săpient-is,	săpient-is.	Săpienti-um,	săpienti-um.
D.	Săpient-ī,	săpient-ī.	Săpientĭ-bus,	săpientĭ-bus.
A.	Săpient-em,	săpiens.	Săpient-ēs,	săpienti-ă.
Ab.	Săpient-ĕ,	săpient-ĕ	Săpientĭ-bus,	săpientĭ-bus.
			2.	
N. V.	Audax,	audax.	Audāc-ēs,	audāci-ă.
G.	Audāc-is,	audāc-is.	Audāci-um,	audāci-um.
D.	Audāc-ī,	audāc-ī.	Audācĭ-bus,	audācĭ-bus.
A.	Audāc-em,	audax.	Audāc-ēs,	audāci-ă.
Ab.	Audāc-ĕ,	audāc-ĕ.	Audācĭ-bus,	audācĭ-bus.

Note 1.—The adjective *dīvĕs* (rich), genitive *dīvĭt-is*, appears also in the contracted form, nominative *dīs*, neuter *dite*, genitive *dīt-is*, dative *dīt-i*, &c.; plural *dites*, neuter *dītiă*.

Note 2.—Some adjectives have double forms, and accordingly belong either to the first or the third class of adjectives: as *hĭlărus, a, um*, and *hĭlăris, hĭlărĕ* (cheerful); *inermus, a, um*, and *inermis, inerme* (unarmed).

Note 3.—Some adjectives are indeclinable, as:

Frūgi (honest)—hence *homo frugi*, as well as *hominem* or *homines frugi*.
Nēquam (worthless).
Opus and *nĕcesse* (necessary); there are a few others which occur only in certain cases or in certain phrases.

CHAPTER XIII.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

§ 41. Adjectives in Latin, as in English, have what are called three degrees of comparison—viz., the Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative, as:

Altus, high; *altior*, higher; *altissĭmus*, highest.

The comparative ends in *ior* (English *er*), and the superlative in *issĭmus*. These terminations are added to the stem of an adjective after the removal of its final vowel, as:

Superbus, proud (stem *superbo*); comparative *sŭperbior*, superlative *superbissĭmus*.
Tristis, sad (stem *tristi*); comparative *tristior*, superlative *tristissĭmus*.
Sapiens, wise (stem *sapienti*); comparative *sapientior*, superlative *sapientissĭmus*.
Audax, bold (stem *audaci*); comparative *audacior*, superlative *audacissĭmus*.

§ 42. All comparatives are adjectives of two terminations, masculine and feminine *ior*, and neuter *ius*; both make the genitive in *ōris*, and are declined like adjectives of the third class (see § 40, 3).

All superlatives are adjectives of three terminations *us*, *a*, *um*, and belong to the adjectives of the first class (see § 40, 1).

§ 43. Adjectives ending in *er* drop the *e* in forming the comparative when they drop it in the oblique cases; but they form the superlative by adding *rĭmus* to the nominative singular, as:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Acer, sharp,	*ācrior*,	*ācerrĭmus.*
Lĭber, free,	*lĭbĕrior*,	*lĭberrĭmus.*
Pulcher, beautiful,	*pulchrior*,	*pulcherrĭmus.*
Miser, wretched,	*miserior*,	*miserrĭmus.*

NOTE.—To this class also belongs the adjective *vĕtus* (old), the stem of which is *vĕter* or *vetes* (genitive *vĕtĕris*), whence superlative *vĕterrĭmus*.

§ 44. The following six adjectives in *ĭlis* form the comparative regularly, but the superlative by changing the final *is* into *limus*:

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Făcĭlis (easy),	*făcĭlior*,	*făcillĭmus*.
Difficilis (difficult),	*difficilior*,	*difficillĭmus*.
Sĭmĭlis (like),	*sĭmilior*,	*sĭmillĭmus*.
Dissĭmĭlis (unlike),	*dissĭmĭlior*,	*dissĭmillĭmus*.
Grăcĭlis (thin),	*grăcĭlior*,	*grăcillĭmus*.
Hŭmĭlis (low),	*hŭmĭlior*,	*hŭmillĭmus*.

§ 45. Adjectives ending in *dĭcus*, *fĭcus*, and *vŏlus* form their comparative in *entĭor* and the superlative in *entissĭmus*, as if their positive ended in *dicens*, *ficens*, and *volens*: as

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Mălĕdĭcus (slanderous),	*mălĕdĭcentior*,	*mălĕdĭcentissĭmus*.
Bĕnĕfĭcus (beneficent),	*bĕnĕfĭcentior*,	*bĕnĕfĭcentissĭmus*.
Bĕnĕvŏlus (benevolent),	*bĕnĕvŏlentior*,	*bĕnĕvŏlentissĭmus*.

NOTE.—The two adjectives *egēnus* (needy) and *provĭdus* also form their degrees from the positives *egens* and *providens* (cautious): as *egentior*, *egentissimus* and *provĭdentior*, *providentissĭmus*.

§ 46. Adjectives in which the ending *us* is preceded by a vowel, generally do not form the degrees of comparison in the regular manner, but express them by a paraphrase with *magis* (more) and *maxime* (most), as is done in many cases in English: as *anxius* (anxious), comparative *magis anxius*, superlative *maxime anxius*.

NOTE.—As *qu* was pronounced like *k*, the *u* is not regarded as a vowel; hence *antīquus* (ancient), comparative *antiquior*, superlative *antiquissimus*.

IRREGULAR DEGREES OF COMPARISON.

§ 47. The following adjectives form the degrees of comparison in an irregular manner:—

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Bŏnus (good),	*mĕlior* (better),	*optĭmus* (best).
Mălus (bad),	*pējor* (worse),	*pessĭmus* (worst).
Magnus (great),	*mājor* (greater),	*maxĭmus* (greatest).

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Multus (much),	*plus* (more); genitive *plūris*; plural, *plūres* and *plūra*.	*plūrĭmus*.
Parvus (small),	*mĭnor* (smaller),	*mĭnĭmus* (smallest).
Nēquam, indecl. (worthless),	*nēquior*,	*nēquissĭmus*.
frūgi, indecl. (frugal),	*frūgālior*,	*frūgālissĭmus*.

NOTE 1.—*Sĕnex* (an old man), and *jŭvĕnis* (a youth), though substantives, have a comparative *sĕnior* (older) and *jūnior* (younger). Their superlatives are expressed by paraphrase—*natu maximus* (the oldest) and *natu mĭnĭmus* (the youngest). *Dēterior* (worse), *ōcior* (swifter), and *prior* (former) have no positive, and their superlatives are *dēterrĭmus*, *ōcissĭmus*, and *prīmus*. *Novus* (new) again has no comparative, but the superlative *novissimus* is very common.

NOTE 2.—Some comparatives and superlatives have no corresponding positives, the place of which is supplied by adverbs; and where a positive occurs, it slightly differs in meaning from the two other degrees of comparison. The following list contains the principal examples of this kind :—

	Comparative.	Superlative.
Citrā (on this side),	*cĭtĕrior* (more on this side),	*cĭtĭmus* (most on this side).
Extrā (outside of),	*extĕrior* (outer),	*extrēmus* or *extĭmus* (outer most).

There is a plural of the positive, *extĕrī*, which signifies "foreigners."

Ultrā (beyond),	*ultĕrior* (farther),	*ultĭmus* (farthest, last).
Infrā (below),	*infĕrior* (lower),	*infĭmus* or *īmus* (lowest).

The positive *infĕrī* in the plural signifies the inhabitants of the lower world; in the singular it occurs only in the name *Mare Inferum*, the sea in the west of Italy.

Intrā (within),	*intĕrior* (inner),	*intĭmus* (innermost).
Prŏpĕ (near),	*prŏpior* (nearer),	*proxĭmus* (nearest).
Post (after),	*postĕrior* (later),	*postrēmus* (last).

There is a positive *postĕrus* signifying the following, and the plural *postĕrī* signifies "descendants."

Prae or *pro* (before),	*prior* (former),	*primus* (first).
Suprā (above),	*sŭpĕrior* (upper),	*suprēmus* or *summus* (uppermost).

There is a positive in the plural, *sŭpĕrī*, signifying the gods above; but the singular occurs only in the name *Mare Superum*, the Adriatic.

NOTE 3.—There is a large number of adjectives which, on account of their meaning, cannot have either a comparative or a superlative, such as golden, iron, dead, &c.

CHAPTER XIV.

THE NUMERALS.

§ 48. Most numerals are in reality declinable or indeclinable adjectives. They are divided into six classes:—

1. **Cardinal Numerals**, simply mentioning the number of objects: as *ūnus*, one; *duo*, two; *trēs*, three, &c.

2. **Ordinal Numerals**, indicating the order or succession of objects: as *prīmus*, the first; *sĕcundus*, the second; *tertius*, the third, &c.

3. **Distributive Numerals**, denoting how many each time: as *singŭli*, one at a time; *bīni*, two and two, or two each time; *ternī*, three each time, &c.

4. **Adverbial Numerals**, denoting the number of times that anything happens or is done: as *sĕmĕl*, once; *bĭs*, twice; *tĕr*, three times, &c.

5. **Multiplicative Numerals**, denoting how manifold a thing is: as *duplex*, twofold; *triplex*, threefold.

6. **Proportional Numerals**, denoting how many times more one thing is than another: as *triplus*, three times as much.

§ 49. The first three cardinal numerals are declinable, but the rest up to 200 are indeclinable; two hundred, *dŭcenti, ae, a*, and the other hundreds up to 1000, are plural adjectives of three terminations. *Mille*, a thousand, again is an indeclinable adjective; whereas its plural *millia* is a regular neuter substantive, genitive *mīllium*, dative and ablative *mīllĭbus*. All ordinal numerals are adjectives of

three terminations, *us, a, um;* and all distributive numerals are plural adjectives of three terminations, *ī, ae, ă.*

Declension of the First Three Cardinal Numerals.

1.

	Singular.			*Plural.*		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N.	**Unus,**	**ūnă,**	**ūnum.**	**Unī,**	**ūnae,**	**ūnă.**
G.	**Unīus,**	**ūnīus,**	**ūnīus.**	**Unō-rum,**	**ūnā-rum,**	**ūnō-rum.**
D.	**Unī,**	**ūnī,**	**ūnī.**	**Unīs,**	**ūnīs,**	**ūnīs.**
A.	**Unu-m,**	**ūna-m,**	**ūnum.**	**Unō-s,**	**ūnā-s,**	**ūnā.**
V.	**Unĕ,**	**ūnă,**	**ūnum.**	**Unī,**	**ūnae,**	**ūnă.**
Ab.	**Unō,**	**ūnā,**	**ūnō.**	**Unīs,**	**ūnīs,**	**ūnīs.**

Note.—The plural of *ūnus* is used in connection with plural substantives, which have a different meaning in the plural from that of the singular: as *ūna castra,* one camp; *unae litterae,* one letter; *unae aedes,* one house.

2.

	M.	F.	N.
N. & V.	**Duo,**	**duae,**	**duo.**
G.	**Duō-rum,**	**duā-rum,**	**duō-rum.**
D. & Ab.	**Duō-bus,**	**duā-bus,**	**duō-bus.**
A.	**Duō-s,**	**duā-s,**	**duo.**

3.

	M.	F.	N.
N. & V.	**Trēs,**	**trēs,**	**tri-ă.**
G.	**Tri-um,**	**tri-um,**	**tri-um.**
D. & Ab.	**Trĭ-bus,**	**trĭ-bus,**	**trĭb-us.**
A.	**Trēs,**	**trēs,**	**tri-ă.**

Note.—*Ambo, ae, o,* both, is declined like *duo.*

The following table exhibits the chief numerals of the first four classes, according to which the rest may easily be formed by the pupil.

NUMERALS.

Arabic Numerals.	Roman Numerals.	Cardinals.	Ordinals.	Distributives.	Adverbs.
1	I	ūnŭs, a, um	prīmŭs	sĭngŭlī	sĕmĕl.
2	II	dŭŏ, ae, o	sĕcundŭs	bīnī	bĭs.
3	III	trēs, tria	tertĭŭs	tērnī *or* trīnī	tĕr.
4	IV	quāttuŏr, quātuor	quārtŭs	quāternī	quātĕr.
5	V	quīnquĕ	quīntŭs	quīnī	quīnquiēs.
6	VI	sex	sextŭs	sēnī	sexiēs.
7	VII	sĕptem	sĕptimŭs	sĕptēnī	sĕptiēs.
8	VIII	octŏ	octāvŭs	octōnī	octiēs.
9	IX	novem	nōnŭs	nŏvēnī	nŏviēs.
10	X	decem	decimŭs	dēnī	deciēs.
11	XI	ūndecim	ūndecimŭs	ūndēnī	ūndeciēs.
12	XII	dŭŏdecim	dŭŏdecimŭs	dŭŏdēnī	dŭŏdeciēs.
13	XIII	trĕdecim	tertĭŭs decimŭs	tērnī dēnī	trĕdeciēs.
14	XIV	quāttŭordecim	quārtŭs decimŭs	quāternī dēnī	quāttŭordeciēs.
15	XV	quindecim	quīntŭs decimŭs	quīnī dēnī	quindeciēs.
16	XVI	sēdecim	sextŭs decimŭs	sēnī dēnī	sēdeciēs.
17	XVII	sĕptēmdecim	sĕptimŭs decimŭs	sĕptēnī dēnī	sĕptiēsdeciēs.
18	XVIII	dŭŏdēvīgintī	dŭŏdēvicēsimŭs	dŭŏdēvicēnī	dŭŏdēviciēs.
19	XIX	ūndēvīgintī	ūndēvicēsimŭs	ūndēvicēnī	ūndēviciēs.
20	XX	vīgintī	vicēsimŭs	vicēnī	viciēs.
21	XXI	ūnŭs ĕt vīgintī *or* vīgintī unus	ūnŭs ĕt vicēsimŭs *or* prīmus et vicēsimus	vicēnī sĭngŭlī	sēmĕl ĕt viciēs.
28	XXVIII	dŭŏdētrīgintā	dŭŏdētrīgēsimŭs	dŭŏdētrīcēnī	dŭŏdētrīciēs.

20	XX	vīgintī	ūndēvīcēsimūs	ūndēvīcēnī	dūōdēvīciēs.
21	XXI	ūnūs ēt vīgintī *or* vīgintī unus	ūnūs ēt vīcēsimūs *or* prīmus et vīcēsimus	vīcēnī singŭlī	ūndēvīciēs. vīciēs. sēmēl ēt vīciēs.
28	XXVIII	dūōdētrīgintā	dūōdētrīgēsimūs	dūōdētrīcēnī	dūōdētrīciēs.
29	XXIX	ūndētrīgintā	ūndētrīgēsimūs	ūndētrīcēnī	ūndētrīciēs.
30	XXX	trīgintā	trīgēsimūs	trīcēnī	trīciēs.
40	XL	quādrāgintā	quādrāgēsimūs	quādrāgēnī	quādrāgiēs.
50	L	quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēsimūs	quīnquāgēnī	quīnquāgiēs.
60	LX	sēxāgintā	sēxāgēsimūs	sēxāgēnī	sēxāgiēs.
70	LXX	sēptuāgintā	sēptuāgēsimūs	sēptuāgēnī	sēptuāgiēs.
80	LXXX	ōctōgintā	ōctōgēsimūs	ōctōgēnī	ōctōgiēs.
90	XC	nōnāgintā	nōnāgēsimūs	nōnāgēnī	nōnāgiēs.
99	IC	ūndēcentum	ūndēcentēsimūs	ūndēcentēnī	ūndēcentiēs.
100	C	centum	centēsimūs	centēnī	centiēs.
101	CI	centum ēt ūnūs	centēsimūs primūs	centēnī singŭlī	centiēs sēmēl.
200	CC	dūcentī (ae, ă)	dūcentēsimūs	dūcēnī	dūcentiēs.
300	CCC	trēcentī	trēcentēsimūs	trēcēnī	trēcentiēs.
400	CCCC	quādringentī	quādringentēsimūs	quādringēnī	quādringentiēs.
500	D *or* IↃ	quīngentī	quīngentēsimūs	quīngēnī	quīngentiēs.
600	DC	sēxcentī	sēxcentēsimūs	sēxcēnī	sēxcentiēs.
700	DCC	sēptingentī	sēptingentēsimūs	sēptingēnī	sēptingentiēs.
800	DCCC	ōctingentī	ōctingentēsimūs	ōctingēnī	ōctingentiēs.
900	DCCCC	nōngentī	nōngentēsimūs	nōngēnī	nōngentiēs.
1000	M *or* CIↃ	mīllĕ	mīllēsimūs	singŭlā mīlliă	mīlliēs.
2000	MM *or* IIM	dūŏ mīlliă	bīsmīllēsimūs	bīnă mīlliă	bis mīlliēs.
5000	VM *or* IↃↃ	quīnquĕ mīlliă	quīnquiēs mīllēsimūs	quīnă mīlliă	quīnquiēs mīlliēs.
10,000	XM *or* CCIↃↃ	dĕcem mīlliă	dĕciēs mīllēsimus	dēnă mīlliă	dĕciēs mīlliēs.
50,000	LM *or* IↃↃↃ	quīnquāgintă mīlliă	quīnquāgiēs mīllēsimūs	quīnquāgēnă mīlliă	quīnquāgiēs mīlliēs.
100,000	CCCIↃↃↃ	centum mīlliă	centiēs mīllēsimūs	centēnă mīlliă	centiēs mīlliēs.
500,000	IↃↃↃↃ	quīngentă mīlliă	quīngentiēs mīllēsimūs	quīngēnă mīlliă	quīngentiēs mīlliēs.
1,000,000	CCCCIↃↃↃↃ	dĕciēs centum mīlliă	dĕciēs centiēs mīllēsimus	dĕciēs centēnă mīlliă	dĕciēs centiēs mīlliēs.

NOTE 1.—Distributive numerals are also used instead of cardinals with substantives that have no singular, or have in the plural a different meaning from that of the singular: as *bina castra*, two camps; *binae litterae*, two letters; *bīnae aedēs*, two houses.

NOTE 2.—When there are only two objects, "the first" is expressed by *prior*, and "the second" by *alter*.

NOTE 3.—Dates are in Latin always expressed by ordinal numerals with the addition of the word *annus*, as *annus millesimus octingentesimus septuagesimus quintus*, the year 1875.

NOTE 4.—From ordinal numerals a special class ending in *ānus* is derived, describing a person as belonging to a certain division, class, or legion: as *primānus*, belonging to the first class or division; *vicesimanus*, belonging to the 20th legion. Another class of derivative numerals, ending in *ārius*, denotes of how many parts or units a thing consists: as *versus senārius*, a verse consisting of six units or feet; *vir octogenarius*, a man eighty years old.

§ 50. The use of *Multiplicative* and *Proportional Numerals* is very limited. Of the former, ending in *plex*, genitive *plĭcis*, there are no more than eight in common use, viz.:—

Simplex, onefold.
Duplex, twofold.
Triplex, threefold.
Quadruplex, fourfold.
Quincuplex, fivefold.
Septemplex, sevenfold.
Dĕcemplex, tenfold.
Centumplex or *centuplex*, a hundredfold.

The *Proportional Numerals* in common use are likewise few. They are—

Simplus, duplus, triplus, quadruplus, quincuplus or *quinquiplus, septuplus, octuplus, dĕcuplus*, and *centuplus*.

§ 51. Fractions are expressed by *pars*, as *dimidia pars* = $\frac{1}{2}$; *tertia pars* = $\frac{1}{3}$; *quarta pars* = $\frac{1}{4}$, &c.

When the number of parts is less by one than that in which the whole is divided, as $\frac{2}{3}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{4}{5}$, the fractions are expressed by *duae, tres, quatuor* (*partes*), that is, two out of three, three out of four, four out of five parts, &c. All other fractions are expressed as in English, as *duae quintae* = $\frac{2}{5}$; *quatuor septimae* = $\frac{4}{7}$; *quinque octavae* = $\frac{5}{8}$.

CHAPTER XV.

THE PRONOUNS.

§ 52. Many of the pronouns are in reality adjectives, while some have the force of substantives. They are divided into nine classes:—

1. **Personal** or **Substantive** pronouns: *ĕgo*, I; *tū*, thou; *nōs*, we; *vōs*, you.
2. **Adjunctive** pronouns: *ipse, ipsa, ipsum*, self.
3. **Demonstrative** pronouns: *hīc, haec, hoc*, this; *istĕ, istă, istŭd*, that; *illĕ, illă, illŭd*, that.
4. **Determinative** pronoun: *ĭs, eă, ĭd*, he, she, it, or that; and its derivative *īdem, eădem, ĭdem*, the same.
5. **Possessive** pronouns: *meus, a, um*, my; *tuus, a, um*, thy; *noster, nostra, nostrum*, our; *vester, vestra, vestrum*, your.
6. **Relative** pronouns: *quī, quae, quŏd*, who or which, and its compounds, *quicunque* and *quisquis*, whosoever.
7. **Interrogative** pronouns: *quis, quae, quid*, and *qui, quae, quod*, who? which? or what?
8. **Indefinite** pronouns: such as *quidam, quaedam, quiddam* or *quoddam*, some one; *ălĭquis, ălĭqua, ălĭquid* and *ălĭquod*, some one or somebody; and several others.
9. **Correlative** pronouns. See § 62.

§ 53. The Personal Pronouns are substantives, being the direct representatives of a name or names. Their declension is irregular.

1. Personal pronoun of the First Person—

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
N.	**Egŏ,**	I.	**Nōs,**	we.
G.	**Meī,**	of me.	**Nostrī** or **nostrum,**	of us.
D.	**Mĭhi,**	to or for me.	**Nōbīs,**	to or for us.
A.	**Mē,**	me.	**Nōs,**	us.
Ab.	**Mē,**	from, with, or by me.	**Nōbīs,**	from, with, or by us.

2. Personal pronoun of the Second Person—

	Singular.		*Plural.*	
N. & V.	**Tū,**	thou.	**Vōs,**	you.
G.	**Tuī,**	of thee.	**Vestrī** or **vestrum,**	of you.
D.	**Tĭbi,**	to or for thee.	**Vōbīs,**	to or for you.
A.	**Tē,**	thee.	**Vōs,**	you.
Ab.	**Tē,**	from, with, or by thee.	**Vōbīs,**	from, with, or by you.

A pronoun of the third person, answering to the English he, she, it, does not exist in Latin, and instead of it the determinative *is, ea, id,* or *ille, illa, illud* is used. What is sometimes called the pronoun of the third person is a reflective pronoun, which occurs only in the oblique cases, and is the same in the singular and plural, and for all genders.

Singular and *Plural.*

N.	Is wanting.	
G.	Suī,	of himself, herself, itself, or themselves.
D.	Sĭbi,	to or for himself, herself, itself, or themselves.
A.	Sē or sēsē,	himself, herself, itself, or themselves.
Ab.	Sē or sēsē,	from, with, or by himself, herself, &c.

NOTE 1.—The genitives plural *nostrum* and *vestrum* are used only in a partitive sense, as *multī nostrum*, many of us; whereas *nostri* is the regular genitive, as *memor est nostri*, he is mindful of us.

NOTE 2.—All the cases of the personal pronouns may be made more emphatic by the addition of the suffix *met*, except the plural genitives, and the nominative and vocative of *tu*, which last is strengthened by the addition of the suffix *te*: as *egomet*, I myself; *mihimet, tibimet, nobismet, vobismet, sībimet, sēmet*; but *tute* or *tutemet*. Sometimes the forms of the pronouns are doubled like *sese*, as *meme, tete*, without thereby becoming particularly emphatic.

NOTE 3.—The dative *mihi* is sometimes contracted into *mī*.

§ 54. The Adjunctive Pronoun, *ipse, ipsa, ipsum* (self, same), is generally added to substantives and other pronouns, and is declined as follows:—

	Singular.			*Plural.*		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N.	Ipsĕ,	ipsă,	ipsum.	Ipsī,	ipsae,	ipsă.
G.	Ipsīus,	ipsīus,	ipsīus.	Ipsōrum,	ipsārum,	ipsōrum.
D.	Ipsī,	ipsī,	ipsī.	Ipsīs,	ipsīs,	ipsīs.
A.	Ipsum,	ipsam,	ipsum.	Ipsōs,	ipsās,	ipsă.
Ab.	Ipsō,	ipsā,	ipsō.	Ipsīs,	ipsīs,	ipsīs.

NOTE.—*Ipse* is a compound of *is, ea, id*, and the suffix *pse*; hence we find such forms as *eapse* and *eopse, eumpse, eampse*, and *reapse*—that is, *re eapse* or *re ipsa*.

§ 55. There are three Demonstrative Pronouns: viz., *hic, haec, hoc*, this one near me; *istĕ, istă, istud*, that one near you; and *illĕ, illă, illud*, that one near him, or yonder.

They accordingly correspond to the three personal pronouns. *Hic, haec, hoc* is declined as follows :—

	Singular.			*Plural.*		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N.	Hīc,	haec,	hoc.	Hī,	hae,	haec.
G.	Hūjus,	hūjus,	hūjus.	Hōrum,	hārum,	hōrum.
D.	Huic,	huic,	huic.	Hīs,	hīs,	hīs.
A.	Hunc,	hanc,	hoc.	Hōs,	hās,	haec.
Ab.	Hōc,	hāc,	hōc.	Hīs,	hīs,	hīs.

NOTE.—The final *c* in many of the forms of this pronoun is a remnant of the demonstrative suffix *ce*, which is still found complete in such forms as *hujusce, huiusce, hascc*, and in the early forms *hance* and *hace*.

§ 56. The other demonstrative pronouns, *iste, istă, istud*, and *ille, illă, illud*, are declined like *ipse, ipsa, ipsum;* genitive *istīus, illīus;* dative *istī, illī*, &c.

NOTE 1.—In the early language these pronouns also, like *hic*, took the demonstrative suffix *ce:* as *istace, istisce, illace, illisce, illosce, illasce;* or, clipped : *istic, istaec, istoc, istac, illoc, illac.*

NOTE 2.—The full form of the demonstrative *ce* is *ecce* or *en* (lo, behold !) ; hence we also find such forms as *ellum, ellam, ellos*, and *ellas* for *ecce illum, ecce illam, en illam, en illos, en illas;* and *eccistam* for *ecce istam.*

NOTE 3.—An ancient form of *ille* was *ollus*, of which the dative singular *ollī* and the nominative plural *ollī* still occur in Vergil.

§ 57. The Determinative Pronoun, *is, eă, id*, generally refers to a person or thing mentioned before, and thus supplies the place of the personal pronoun of the third person, or it is the antecedent to a relative. Its declension is :—

	Singular.			*Plural.*		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N.	Is,	eă,	id.	Iī (eī),	eae,	eă.
G.	Ejus,	ējus,	ējus.	Eōrum,	eārum,	eōrum.
D.	Eī,	eī,	eī.	Iīs (eīs),	iīs (eīs),	iīs (eīs).
A.	Eum,	eam,	id.	Eōs,	eās,	eă.
Ab.	Eō,	eā,	eō.	Iīs (eīs),	iīs (eīs),	iīs (eīs)

NOTE.—This pronoun also is sometimes compounded with the demonstrative *ecce*, whence such forms as *eccum, eccam, eccos*, and *eccas*, for *ecce, eum, eam, eos, eas*. The derivative *īdem, eădem, idem*, is declined in the same manner.

§ 58. Possessive Pronouns are adjectives of three terminations; the masculine in *us* and *er* and the neuter in *um*

follow the second declension, and the feminine in *a* the first. *Meus* (my) however makes the vocative *mi*, and not *mee*.

NOTE 1.—The ablative singular of some of the possessives is sometimes strengthened by the suffix *pte:* as *suopte, suapte, meopte, tuopte,* and *nostrapte. Suus* sometimes takes the suffix *met:* as *suōmet, suāmet;* and we also find *meāmet.*

NOTE 2.—From the ordinary possessives is derived a class which may be called Gentile Possessives which end in *as* for all genders: as *nostrās* (genitive *nostrātis*), a countryman of ours; *vestrās,* a countryman of yours. So also the interrogative *cujās,* of what country? There is, moreover, a possessive interrogative *cūjus, cūja, cūjum,* which however is rarely used, and principally in legal phraseology.

§ 59. The Relative Pronoun, *quī, quae, quŏd,* who, which, or what, is declined as follows:—

	Singular.			*Plural.*		
	M.	F.	N.	M.	F.	N.
N.	Quī,	quae,	quŏd.	Quī,	quae,	quae.
G.	Cūjus,	cūjus,	cūjus.	Quōrum,	quārum,	quōrum.
D.	Cuī,	cuī,	cuī.	Quĭbus,	quĭbus,	quĭbus.
A.	Quem,	quam,	quŏd.	Quōs,	quās,	quae.
Ab.	Quō,	quā,	quō.	Quĭbus,	quĭbus,	quĭbus.

NOTE 1.—In ancient Latin the genitive singular was *quoius,* and the dative *quoi;* and the ablative *quī* instead of *quo* was retained even by the classical writers, especially in connection with the preposition *cum,* as *quīcum* for *cum quo* or *quocum.* Instead of the ablative plural *quibus,* there is a more ancient form *quīs* or *queis.*

NOTE 2.—From the relative are formed two indefinite relatives: *quicunque, quaecunque, quodcunque,* whoever or whichever; and *quisquis* (masculine and feminine), *quidquid,* every one or any one who. *Quicunque* is regarded as an adjective, and is declined like *qui,* the suffix *cunque* being simply added to the cases, as *cujuscunque, cuicunque,* &c. *Quisquis* is used both as an adjective and as a substantive, but the neuter *quidquid* occurs only as a substantive. *Quisquis* and *quidquid,* moreover, are defective in declension; for besides these two forms we only find the ablative *quōquō,* except in the expression *cuicui modi* (in any way) for *cujuscujus modi.*

§ 60. Of the Interrogative Pronoun there are two forms: *quis, quae, quĭd* and *quī, quae, quŏd.* The difference is that the latter is used only as an adjective; *quis* and its feminine *quae* both as substantives and adjectives; but *quid* only as a substantive: as *quid fecit?* what has he done? but *quod facinus admisit?* what deed has he done? The declension of *qui, quae, quod* is the same as that of the relative pronoun, and *quis, quae, quid* differs from it only in its nominatives *quis* and *quid.*

NOTE 1.—In the ablative singular there is a form *quī*, which however is used only in the sense of "how," as *quī fit?* how does it happen?

NOTE 2.—When a question is asked with a certain degree of impatience, the suffix *nam* is added to the interrogative pronoun: as *quisnam, quaenam, quidnam, quodnam, quemnam, quonam*, &c.

NOTE 3.—When the question is "which of two?" *uter, utra, utrum* must be used (see § 61, 9) and not *quis*.

§ 61. Indefinite Pronouns express an indefinite generality. The following are those most frequently met with:—

1. *Alĭquis* or *ălĭqui*, feminine *ălĭqua*, neuter *aliquid* and *ălĭquod* (from *alis*, another, and *quis*), properly some one else, then "some one" or "any one." *Alĭquis* and *aliquid* are used as substantives; but *aliqui, aliqua*, and *aliquod* as adjectives. Its declension is like that of the relative, except that in the nominative feminine singular and in the neuter plural the form is *ălĭquī* and not *aliquae*. The prefix *ali*, moreover, is generally dropped after *si, nisi, ne, num, quo, quanto*, and *quam*, unless *aliquis* is to be pronounced with a certain emphasis.

2. *Ecquis, ecqua, ecquid* (from *en* and *quis*), any one? also *ecqui, ecquae, ecquod*. It is sometimes strengthened by the suffix *nam*, as *ecquisnam*. All forms are declined like the interrogative *quis*.

3. *Quidam, quaedam, quiddam* and *quoddam*, a certain one. The declension is like that of the relative, as *cujusdam, cuidam*, &c. *Quiddam* is used as a substantive, and *quoddam* as an adjective.

4. *Quispiam, quaepiam, quidpiam*, and *quodpiam*, any one. *Quispiam* is generally used as a substantive, but *quidpiam* always. A strengthened form is *ălĭquispiam*.

5. *Quisquam* (masculine and feminine), *quidquam* (neuter), any one at all, is generally used only in negative clauses. *Quisquam* is both a substantive and an adjective, but has no plural. The adjective *ullus, a, um* has the same meaning.

6. *Quivis* (any one you wish), *quīlĭbet* (any one you like), and *quisque* (every one), make their other genders *quaevis, quidvis* or *quodvis; quaelibet, quidlibet* and *quodlibet;* and *quaeque, quidque* and *quodque*. The neuter forms in *quid* are substantives, those in *quod* adjectives. Their declension is like that of the relative.

7. *Unusquisque, unaquaeque, unumquidque*, and *unumquodque*, every one, is declined in both parts: as *uniuscujusque, unicuique*, &c.

8. *Quicunque, quaecunque, quodcunque*, whosoever, is declined like the relative, *cujuscunque, cuicunque*, &c. *Quisquis* (masculine and feminine), *quidquid* (neuter), has the same meaning, but generally occurs only in these two forms.

Besides these the following pronominal adjectives may be noticed.

9. *Uter, utra, utrum* (for *cuter*), which of two? with its compounds *ŭtervis, utravis, utrumvis*, which of the two you wish; *ŭterlibet, utralibet, utrumlibet*, which of the two you please; *ŭtercunque, utracunque, utrumcunque*, whichever of two; *ŭterque, utraque, utrumque*, each of two or both; and *alterŭter*, either the one or other.

They are all declined like *ŭter*. In *alteruter*, sometimes both words are declined, and sometimes the latter only, as *alterum utrum* or *alterutrum*.

10. *Alter, altĕra, alterum*, one of two, the other, or the second; genitive *alterĭus*, dative *alterī*, &c. (see § 20, note 6.)

11. *Neuter, neutra, neutrum* (from *ne* and *uter*), neither of two, is declined like *uter*.

12. *Alius, ălĭa, ălĭud*, another (out of many). Respecting its declension see § 20, note 6.

13. *Ullus, ulla, ullum* (a diminutive of *unus, i.e., unulus*, any). For its declension see § 20, note 6.

14. *Nullus, nulla, nullum* (*ne* and *ullus*), none, or no one. For its declension see § 20, note 6.

§ 62. Correlative Pronouns are mostly adjectives, declinable or indeclinable, which in different forms express the same idea in a demonstrative, relative, interrogative, and indefinite way, as is shown in the following table :—

Demonstrative.	Relative and Interrogative.	Indefinite Relative.	Indefinite.
Tālis, e, such, or of such a kind.	*Quālis, e*, of such a kind as, or of what kind?	*Quālīscunque* or *quālisquālis*, of whatever kind.	*Quālislĭbet*, of any kind you please.
Tantus, a, um, so great.	*Quantus*, as great as, or how great?	*Quantuscunque* or *quantusquantus*, however great.	*Aliquantus*, of some considerable size.
Tŏt (indeclinable), so many.	*Quot* (indeclinable), as many as, and how many?	*Quotcunque* and *quotquot*, how many soever.	*Alĭquot*, some in number.
Tŏtĭdem (indeclinable), just so many.	—	—	*Quŏtlĭbet*, as many as you please.
—	*Quotus*, what number in a series?	—	—

Respecting the numerous pronominal adverbs see the chapter on Adverbs.

CHAPTER XVI.

THE VERB IN GENERAL.

§ 63. A Verb expresses an action or a condition in which a person or thing is. Those expressing a state or condition are called Static verbs: as *dōrmio*, I sleep; *aegrōto*, I am ill; *sedeo*, I sit.

A verb expressing an action is either transitive or intransitive.

Transitive verbs are those which express an action that cannot be fully conceived without an object directly affected by the action. Such an object is in the accusative case: as *amo filium*, I love my son; *domum emo*, I purchase a house.

Intransitive verbs are those which denote an action that does not require an object either expressed or understood, but convey by themselves a complete sense: as *curro*, I run; *loquor*, I talk; *ambulo*, I walk.

§ 64. Every transitive verb has two voices, the active and the passive—that is, the person or thing acted upon in the active voice, may be conceived as the subject of a sentence enduring or suffering the action, *filius amatur a patre*, the son is loved by the father; or a person may be conceived as performing the action on himself: as *verto*, I turn, passive *vertor*, I turn myself; *delecto*, I delight, *delector*, I am delighted, or delight myself; *moveo*, I move, *moveōr*, I am moved, or move myself. In the latter case the passive is said to be used in a reflective sense.

Intransitive verbs can only have an impersonal passive—that is, they have a passive only in the third person singular: as *itur*, the act of going is performed, or they go; *curritur*, running is going on, or they run; *pugnatur*, fighting is going on, or they fight.

§ 65. There is a large class of verbs which have a passive form with an active (transitive or intransitive) meaning. These are called Deponent verbs; most of them were originally passives with a reflective meaning: as *utor*, I use; *vescor*, I feed upon; *imitor*, I imitate; *morior*, I die.

A few verbs, on the other hand, have an active form, but a passive meaning: as *fio*, I am made, or become; *veneo*, I am sold; *vapulo*, I am beaten. Others, again, have an active form in the tenses denoting an imperfect or incompleted action, but a passive form with an active meaning in the tenses of a completed action: as *audeo*, I dare, perfect *ausus sum*, I have dared; *gaudeo*, I rejoice, *gavisus sum*, I have rejoiced; *soleo*, I am accustomed, *solitus sum*, I have been accustomed; *fido*, I trust, *fisus sum*, I have trusted.

§ 66. Some verbs express actions which we do not, or cannot ascribe to a definite agent, and which are used only in the third person singular. These are called Impersonal verbs: as *pluit*, it rains; *ningit*, it snows.

§ 67. The active and the passive voice have each three moods (modes of expression) :—

1. The Indicative, which states an action or condition simply as a fact, either in the form of an assertion, a negation, or a question : I write a letter ; I am not writing a letter ; Did he write a letter ?
2. The Subjunctive represents an action as a mere conception of the mind, as a possibility, a wish, a condition, concession, &c. See the Syntax on the subjunctive mood.
3. The Imperative is the form of a verb expressing a command, either that a thing is to be done at once, or at some future time : as Write down your name ; Thou shalt not steal.

§ 68. The Infinitive, which is commonly described as a mood, is no mood at all, but only the name of the verb—that is, an indeclinable substantive governing the case of the verb to which it belongs. It exists only in the nominative and accusative, the other cases being supplied by the Gerund, which is likewise a verbal substantive : as nominative *amare*, to love or loving ; genitive *amandi*, of loving ; dative *amando*, to or for loving ; accusative *amare* or *amandum*, to love or loving ; ablative *amando*, from, with, or by loving.

There is yet a third verbal substantive, called the Supine. It belongs to the fourth declension, but occurs only in the accusative and ablative, as *amatum* and *amatu*. This substantive also differs from other substantives, inasmuch as it governs the case of its verb.

§ 69. Participles, as their name implies, partake of the nature of a verb and of an adjective. In form they are adjectives, but in their meaning they are verbs. The active voice has two participles, one for the present and the other for the future ; as *amans*, loving ; *amaturus*, about to love. The passive has also two participles, the perfect participle and the gerundive : as *amatus*, loved, and *amandus*, deserving to be loved.

Deponent verbs have all the four participles.

§ 70. A Latin verb has six tenses (times), three describing an incompleted action, which may therefore be called Imperfect tenses. These are the present, the imperfect, and the future. The three others describe a completed action, and may therefore be called Perfect tenses. They are the perfect, the pluperfect, and the future perfect. The subjunctive mood has only four tenses.

1. The Present denotes an action going on in present time, or one which takes place at all times : *scribo epistolam*, I am writing a letter ; *tonitru sequitur fulmen*, thunder follows lightning.
2. The Imperfect represents an action as going on in past time : as *scribebat*, he was writing.
3. The Future describes an action as going on in future time : as *scribam* I shall be writing.

4. The **Perfect** expresses an action as completed in present time: as *scripsi epistolam*, I have written the letter.
5. The **Pluperfect** describes an action as completed in past time: as *epistolam scripseram*, I had written the letter.
6. The **Future Perfect** denotes an action completed in future time: as *epistolam scripsero*, I shall have written the letter.

NOTE.—These six tenses, most of which occur both in the indicative and subjunctive, have not always the same meaning in the two moods. See Syntax.

§ 71. An action or condition may be ascribed either to one or to more than one person or thing; accordingly, a verb, like a noun, must have both a singular and a plural.

Lastly, as there are three persons, first the person or persons speaking (first person), the person or persons spoken to (second person), and the person or persons spoken of (third person), a verb has three forms for the singular and three for the plural.

NOTE.—The personal pronouns (I, thou, he, she, it, we, you, they) are generally not expressed in Latin. In the ancient times they were added as suffixes to the verbs; but in the course of time they have been worn away, so that sometimes scarcely a trace of them remains. See § 75, notes.

§ 72. The voices, moods, tenses, numbers, and persons are generally indicated, as in the declensions, by special suffixes or terminations; and to put a verb through all these forms is called its **Conjugation.**

In order to conjugate a verb it is necessary, as in declension, to know its stem. As in reality there are only two declensions—viz., the vowel and the consonant declension—so there are really only two conjugations, the vowel and the consonant conjugation.

The former comprises all verbs the stems of which end in the vowels *a*, *e*, or *i*, and the latter all those the stem of which ends in a consonant or *u*. Still, as the verbs with vowel stems are not always conjugated in exactly the same manner, we shall for practical purposes follow the usual method of assuming four conjugations, the first being the *a* conjugation, the second the *e* conjugation, the fourth the *i* conjugation, and the third that of verbs whose stem ends in a consonant or *u*.

§ 73. The present indicative in all the conjugations ends in *o*, and the infinitive in *ĕre* (i.e., *esse*).

In the first conjugation the *o* of the present is long, being a contraction of *ao* (originally *aom*, the personal suffix *m* being dropped). In the first, second, and fourth conjugations the first *e* of the infinitive suffix *ĕre* is contracted with the final vowels of the stem into *ā*, *ē*, and *ī*, so that *amāre*, *delēre*, and *audīre* stand for *amă-ĕre*, *delĕ-ĕre*, and *audi-ĕre*.

Besides the present and infinitive stem, it is further necessary to know the perfect indicative and the supine, in order to be able fully to conjugate a verb; for all other tenses are derived from these fundamental forms, and the stems of the perfect and supine often differ considerably from that of the present or infinitive: as in *frang-o* (I break), perfect *freg-i*, supine *frac-tum*.

§ 74. All the tenses expressing an incompleted action are formed from the present stem, and all the tenses expressing a completed action are formed from the perfect stem. The latter set of tenses in the passive voice are made up of participles derived from the supine and the auxiliary verb *esse*.

NOTE.—When the present stem, the perfect, and the supine are known, a verb can easily be conjugated, and there is no practical advantage in saying, you must know the three stems of the present, the perfect, and the supine, whatever may be said from a scientific or philological point of view.

§ 75. In regard to the personal suffixes, which ought to be the same in all the tenses and moods of the active voice, and again the same in all the tenses and moods of the passive voice, the following table exhibits them in the active and the passive, in both the singular and the plural:—

ACTIVE VOICE.		PASSIVE VOICE.	
Singular.	*Plural.*	*Singular.*	*Plural.*
1. Pers. m,	ŭmus or ĭmus.	1. Pers. r,	ĭmur.
2. Pers. is (isti),	ĭtis (istis).	2. Pers. ĕris,	ĭmini.
3. Pers. it,	unt (ont).	3. Pers. ĭtur,	untur.

NOTE 1.—The *m*, a remnant of the personal pronoun of the first person, is dropped in the present and perfect indicative active, as also in the future of the first and second conjugations: as *amo, deleo, rego, audio; amari, delevi, rexi, audivi;* and *amabo, delebo.*

NOTE 2.—The *i* in the *is* and *it* of the second and third persons singular is absorbed by the final vowel of the stem: as *amas* and *amat* for *amais, amait; deles, delet*, for *deleis, deleit;* and *audis* and *audit* for *audiis, audiit; amaveras, amaverat*, &c. The perfect alone has *isti* instead of *is*.

NOTE 3.—The personal suffix *umus* of the first person plural still occurs in the words *summus, volumus, malumus, quaesumus*. In the consonant conjugation it is *imus;* as *legimus, regimus*. In the vowel conjugations the first vowel *i* or *u* is absorbed by the final vowel of the stem: as *amāmus, delēmus, audīmus* for *amaimus, deleimus, audiimus; amaveramus, deleveramus* for *amaveraimus, deleveraimus*.

NOTE 4.—The personal suffix of the second person plural loses the first *i* when preceded by a vowel: as *amatis, deletis, amabatis, amaveratis*, for *amaitis, deleitis, amabaitis, amaveraitis*. The perfect indicative alone has *istis* for *itis:* as *amavistis, delevistis*.

NOTE 5.—The initial *u* or *o* of the personal suffix of the third person plural is lost where it is preceded by a vowel: as *amant, delent;* but when preceded by *i* it remains: as *capiunt, audiunt*. In the consonant conjugation the personal suffixes are preserved entire.

NOTE 6.—In forming the passive an *r* is added to the *o* of the active; and where the active ends in *m*, this *m* is changed into *r*: as *amo, deleo, amabo, delebo* make the passive *amor, deleor, amabor, delebor*. The second person *is* is changed into *ĕris*, which, however, loses its *ĕ* when preceded by a vowel: as *amaris, deleris, audiris* for *amaeris, deleeris, audieris*. The *it* of the third person is changed into *itur*, which loses its *i* in the same cases in which *it* loses it. In the first person plural the final *s* of *imus* is simply changed into *r*, as *imus, imur*; and in the third plural *ur* is simply added to the active: *amant, delent*, passive *amantur, delentur*.

The second person plural of the passive is difficult to explain; but it seems to be some ancient participial suffix (Greek *μενος*), to which some auxiliary was either added or understood.

NOTE 7.—From the preceding remarks it will be seen that the consonant conjugation has preserved the personal suffixes more completely than any of the vowel conjugations, in which the initial vowel of the suffix is almost invariably absorbed by the final vowel of the stem.

§ 76. Besides the personal suffixes, which are the remains of personal pronouns, we must pay attention to the tense suffixes, which are the remains of auxiliary verbs: such as *ēba-m, ēre-m, vi, v-eri-m, v-era-m, v-isse-m, v-ĕro, v-isse*, of which the first two lose their initial vowel, when preceded by the vowels *a* or *e*: as *amabam, amarem, delebam, delerem*; but *regebam, regerem*, and *audiebam*, which however loses the *e* in the subjunctive *audirem* for *audierem*.

The perfect of verbs with vowel stems generally ends in *vi* (that is, the perfect stem ends in *v*); but the majority of the verbs belonging to the *e* conjugation throw out the short *e* of the stem, and change it in the supine into *ĭ*, as *mone-o, mon-u(v)i, monĭtum*. In the consonant conjugation the perfect frequently ends in *si*—*i.e.*, the perfect stem ends in *s*: as *scribo, scrips-i; rego, rex-i*.

The supine in all conjugations generally ends in *tum*, from which the past participle passive in *tus, ta, tum*, and the future participle active in *turus, tura, turum* are formed. The supine stem therefore generally ends in *t*.

The present participle ends in *ens*, and the gerund in *endum*, with its gerundive in *endus, a, um*; but the initial *e* is lost after *a* and *e*: as *amans, amandum; delens, delendum*; but *scrib-ens, scrib-endum; audiens, audiendum*. A more ancient form for *endum* is *undum*.

CHAPTER XVII.

THE VERB esse, TO BE.

§ 77. The stem of the verb *esse* is *es*, so that *sum, sumus, sunt, sim*, &c., stand for *esum, esumus, esunt, esim*, &c. Its conjugation is defective, as it possesses only the imperfect

tenses; the perfect tenses are supplied from the totally different stem *fu*. In some cases the *s* of the stem *es* is changed into *r*, as *eram* and *ero* for *esam* and *eso*.

Stem.	*Present Indicative.*	*Perfect.*	*Present Infinitive.*
Es.	Sum.	Fuī.	Essĕ.

Indicative.	Subjunctive.
Present.	
Sing. S-um, I am.	S-im, I am, or may be.
Es, thou art.	S-īs, thou art, or mayst be.
Es-t, he (she or it) is.	S-ĭt, he is, or may be.
Plur. S-ŭmŭs, we are.	S-īmus, we are, or may be.
Es-tĭs, you are.	S-ītis, you are, or may be.
S-unt, they are.	S-int, they are, or may be.
Imperfect.	
Sing. Er-am, I was.	Es-sem, I was, might, or should be.
Er-ās, thou wert.	Es-sēs, thou wert, mightst, or shouldst be.
Er-ăt, he (she or it) was.	Es-sĕt, he was, &c.
Plur. Er-āmŭs, we were.	Es-sēmŭs, we were, &c.
Er-ātĭs, you were.	Es-sētĭs, you were, &c.
Er-ant, they were.	Es-sent, they were, &c.
Future.	
Sing. Er-o, I shall be.	None.
Er-ĭs, thou wilt be.	
Er-ĭt, he will be.	
Plur. Er-ĭmŭs, we shall be.	
Er-ĭtĭs, you will be.	
Er-unt, they will be.	

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
	Perfect.	
Sing.	**Fu-ī**, I was, or have been.	**Fu-ĕrim**, I have been, or may have been.
	Fu-istī, thou wert, or hast been.	**Fu-ĕrĭs**, thou hast been, or mayst have been.
	Fu-ĭt, he was, or has been.	**Fu-ĕrĭt**, he has been, &c.
Plur.	**Fu-ĭmŭs**, we were, or have been.	**Fu-èrĭmus**, we have been, &c.
	Fu-istĭs, you were, or have been.	**Fu-ĕrĭtĭs**, you have been, &c.
	Fu-ērunt, or **fuēre**, they were, or have been.	**Fu-ĕrint**, they have been, &c.
	Pluperfect.	
Sing.	**Fu-ĕram**, I had been.	**Fu-issem**, I had been, or I might or should have been.
	Fu-ĕrās, thou hadst been.	**Fu-issēs**, thou hadst been, or thou mightst or wouldst have been.
	Fu-ĕrăt, he had been.	**Fu-issĕt**, he had been, &c.
Plur.	**Fu-ĕrāmŭs**, we had been.	**Fu-issēmus**, we had been, &c.
	Fu-ĕrātĭs, you had been.	**Fu-issētĭs**, you had been, &c.
	Fu-ĕrant, they had been.	**Fu-issent**, they had been, &c.
	Future Perfect.	
Sing.	**Fu-ĕro**, I shall have been.	None.
	Fu-ĕrĭs, thou wilt have been.	
	Fu-ĕrĭt, he will have been.	

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Future Perfect.	
Plur. **Fu-ĕrĭmŭs**, we shall have been.	None.
Fu-ĕrĭtis, you will have been.	
Fu-ĕrint, they will have been.	

IMPERATIVE.

Present.	*Future.*
Sing. **Es**, be thou.	**Es-tō**, thou shalt be.
	Es-tō, he shall be.
Plur. **Es-tĕ**, be ye.	**Es-tōtĕ**, you shall be.
	S-untō, they shall be.

INFINITIVE.

Present Infinitive, **Essĕ**, to be.
Perfect Infinitive, **Fu-issĕ**, to have been.
Future Infinitive, **Fŭ-tūrum, am, um, esse**, or **fŏrĕ**, to be about to be.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, does not exist.
Future, **Fŭ-tūrus, a, um**, one who is to be, or is about to be.

NOTE 1.—The verb *esse* has neither gerund nor supine. The present participle, if it did exist, would be *es-ens* or *sens*, as it actually occurs in the compounds, *ab-sens*, absent (from *absum*), and *prae-sens*, present (from *praesum*).

NOTE 2.—The compounds *absum*, I am away from; *adsum*, I am present; *desum*, I am wanting or missing; *insum*, I am in; *intersum*, I am between or among; *obsum*, I am against or in the way; *praesum*, I am before or at the head; *prosum*, I am useful; *subsum*, I am under; *supersum*, I am over, I am left—are all conjugated like the simple *sum*. *Prosum*, however, inserts a *d* wherever the *pro* is followed by the radical vowel *e*: as *prod-est*, *prod-erām*, *prod-essem*, *prod-ero*, *prod-esse*; but *prosum*, *prosim*, *profui*, &c., do not require it. *Possum* (I am able, or I can) is composed of *potis sum* or *pot sum*; but its conjugation is irregular (see § 103).

NOTE 3.—Instead of the forms of the present subjunctive given above, early Latin writers have the forms *siem, sies, siet,* and *sient;* and somewhat more frequently the forms *fuam, fuas, fuat,* and *fuant,* from the obsolete *fuo.* The inchoative forms *escit* and *escunt* (that is, *esit* and *esunt*), for the future *erit* and *erunt,* are obsolete.

NOTE 4.—Instead of the infinitive *futurum* (*am, um*) *esse,* there is another form, *fŏre* (from *fuo*); and instead of the imperfect subjunctive *essem,* we have (likewise from *fuo*) *fŏrem, fŏres, fŏret,* and *fŏrent,* which are frequently used by the best writers, especially in conditional clauses. Instead of the usual perfect, we find in the earliest writers the forms *fuvimus, fuverint* or *foverint, fuvissent,* &c.

CHAPTER XVIII.

§ 78. FIRST OR a CONJUGATION.

Active Voice.

Stem.	*Present.*	*Perfect.*	*Supine.*	*Infinitive.*
Amā.	Amŏ.	Amā-vī.	Amā-tum.	Amā-rĕ.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Sing. Amŏ, I love.	Am-ēm, I love, or may love.
Amā-s, thou lovest.	Am-ēs, thou lovest, or mayst love.
Amă-t, he loves.	Am-ĕt, he loves, or may love.
Plur. Amā-mŭs, we love.	Am-ēmŭs, we love, or may love.
Amā-tĭs, you love.	Am-ētĭs, you love, or may love.
Ama-nt, they love.	Am-ent, they love, or may love.
Imperfect.	
Sing. Amā-bam, I was loving or I loved.	Amā-rem, I loved, might, or should love.
Amā-bās, thou wert loving or lovedst.	Amā-rēs, thou lovedest, mightst, or shouldst love.
Amā-bă-t, he was loving or loved.	Amā-rĕt, he loved, might, or should love.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Imperfect.	
Plur. **Amā-bāmŭs**, we were loving or we loved.	**Amā-rēmŭs**, we loved, might, or should love.
Amā-bātĭs, you were loving or loved.	**Amā-rētĭs**, you loved, might, or should love.
Amā-bant, they were loving or loved.	**Amā-rent**, they loved, might, or should love.
Future.	
Sing. **Amā-bo**, I shall love.	None.
Amā-bĭs, thou wilt love.	
Amā-bĭt, he will love.	
Plur. **Amā-bĭmŭs**, we shall love.	
Amā-bĭtĭs, you will love.	
Amā-bunt, they will love.	
Perfect.	
Sing. **Amā-vī**, I loved, or have loved.	**Amā-vĕrim**, I have loved, or may have loved.
Amā-vistī, thou lovedst, or hast loved.	**Amā-vĕrĭs**, thou hast loved, or mayst have loved.
Amā-vĭt, he loved, or has loved.	**Amā-vĕrĭt**, he has loved, &c.
Plur. **Amā-vĭmŭs**, we loved, or have loved.	**Amā-vĕrĭmŭs**, we have loved, &c.
Amā-vistĭs, you loved, or have loved.	**Amā-vĕrĭtĭs**, you have loved, &c.
Amā-vērunt or **amā-vērĕ**, they loved, or have loved.	**Amā-vĕrint**, they have loved, &c.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Pluperfect.	
Sing. **Amā-vĕram**, I had loved.	**Amā-vissem**, I had, might, or should have loved.
Amā-vĕrās, thou hadst loved.	**Amā-vissēs**, thou hadst, mightst, or shouldst have loved,
Amā-vĕrăt, he had loved.	**Amā-vissĕt**, he had, &c.
Plur. **Amā-vĕrāmŭs**, we had loved,	**Amā-vissēmŭs**, we had, &c.
Amā-vĕrātĭs, you had loved.	**Amā-vissētĭs**, you had, &c.
Amā-vĕrant, they had loved.	**Amā-vissent**, they had, &c.
Future Perfect.	
Sing. **Amā-vĕro**, I shall have loved.	
Amā-vĕrĭs, thou wilt have loved.	
Amā-vĕrĭt, he will have loved.	
Plur. **Amā-vĕrĭmŭs**, we shall have loved.	None.
Amā-vĕrĭtĭs, you will have loved.	
Amā-vĕrint, they will have loved.	

IMPERATIVE.

Present.	*Future.*
Sing. **Amā**, love thou.	**Amā-tō**, thou shalt love.
	Amā-tō, he shall love.
Plur. **Amā-tĕ**, love ye.	**Amā-tōtĕ**, ye shall love.
	Amā-ntō, they shall love.

Infinitive.

Present, **Amā-rĕ**, to love.
Perfect, **Amā-vissĕ**, to have loved.
Future, **Amā-tūrum (am, um) esse**, to be about to love.

Gerund.

Gen. **Ama-ndī**, of loving.
Dat. **Ama-ndō**, to loving.
Acc. **Ama-ndum**, loving.
Abl. **Ama-ndō**, with or by loving.

Supine.

Amā-tum, (in order) to love; and **amā-tū**, to be loved.

Participles.

Present, **Ama-ns**, loving.
Future, **Amā-tūrŭs, a, um**, being about to love.

Passive Voice.

Indicative.	Subjunctive.
Present.	
Sing. **Amŏr**, I am loved.	**Am-ĕr**, I am loved, or may be loved.
Amā-rĭs or **rĕ**, thou art loved.	**Am-ērĭs** or **am-ērĕ**, thou art loved, or mayst be loved.
Amā-tŭr, he is loved.	**Am-ētŭr**, he is loved, &c.
Plur. **Amā-mŭr**, we are loved.	**Am-ēmŭr**, we are loved, &c.
Amā-mĭnī, you are loved.	**Am-ēmĭnī**, you are loved, &c.
Amā-ntŭr, they are loved.	**Am-entŭr**, they are loved, &c.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
	Imperfect.	
Sing.	**Amā-băr**, I was loved, or was being loved.	**Amā-rĕr**, I was, might be, or should be loved.
	Amā-bārĭs or **bārĕ**, thou wert loved, &c.	**Amā-rērĭs** or **rērĕ**, thou wert, &c.
	Amābātŭr, he was loved, &c.	**Amā-rētŭr**, he was, &c.
Plur.	**Amā-bāmŭr**, we were loved, &c.	**Amā-rēmŭr**, we were, &c.
	Amā-bāmĭnī, you were loved, &c.	**Amā-rēmĭnī**, you were, &c.
	Amā-bantŭr, they were loved, &c.	**Amā-rentŭr**, they were, &c.
	Future.	
Sing.	**Amā-bŏr**, I shall be loved.	None.
	Amā-bĕrĭs or **bĕrĕ**, thou wilt be loved.	
	Amā-bĭtŭr, he will be loved.	
Plur.	**Amā-bĭmŭr**, we shall be loved.	
	Amā-bĭmĭnī, you will be loved.	
	Amā-buntŭr, they will be loved.	
	Perfect.	
Sing.	**Amā-tŭs (ă, um) sum**, I was or have been loved.	**Amā-tŭs (ă, um) sim**, I have been, or may have been, loved.
	Amā-tŭs, (ă, um) es, thou wert, &c.	**Amā-tŭs (ă, um) sis**, thou hast been, &c.
	Amā-tŭs (ă, um) est, he was, &c.	**Amā-tŭs (ă, um) sit**, he has been, &c.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Perfect.	
Plur. **Amā-tī (ae, ă) sumus,** we were, &c.	**Amā-tī (ae, ă) simus,** we have been, &c.
Amā-tī (ae, ă) estis, you were, &c.	**Amā-tī (ae, ă) sitis,** you have been, &c.
Amā-tī (ae, ă) sunt, they were, &c.	**Amā-tī (ae, ă) sint,** they have been, &c.
Pluperfect.	
Sing. **Amā-tŭs (a, um) eram,** I had been loved.	**Amā-tŭs (a, um) essem,** I had been, might, or should have been loved.
Ama-tus (a, um) eras, thou hadst been loved.	**Ama-tus (a, um) esses,** thou hadst been, &c.
Ama-tus (a, um) erat, he had been loved.	**Ama-tus (a, um) esset,** he had been, &c.
Plur. **Amā-tī (ae, a) eramus,** we had been loved.	**Amā-tī (ae, a) essemus,** we had been, &c.
Ama-ti (ae, a) eratis, you had been loved.	**Ama-ti (ae, a) essetis,** you had been, &c.
Ama-ti (ae, a) erant, they had been loved.	**Ama-ti (ae, a) essent,** they had been, &c.
Future Perfect.	
Sing. **Amā-tŭs (a, um) ĕro,** I shall have been loved.	
Ama-tus (a, um) eris, thou wilt, &c.	
Ama-tus (a, um) erit, he will, &c.	
Plur. **Amā-tī (ae, a) erimus,** we shall, &c.	**None.**
Ama-ti (ae, a) eritis, you will, &c.	
Ama-ti (ae, a) erunt, they will, &c.	

IMPERATIVE.

Present.	*Future.*
Sing. **Amā-rĕ**, be thou loved.	**Amā-tŏr**, thou shalt be loved.
	Amā-tŏr, he shall be loved.
Plur. **Amā-mĭnī**, be ye loved.	**Amā-bĭmĭnī**, ye shall be loved.
	Amā-ntŏr, they shall be loved.

INFINITIVE.

Present, **Amā-rī**, to be loved.
Perfect, **Amā-tum (am, um) esse**, to have been loved.
Future, **Amā-tum īrī**, to be about to be loved.

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect, **Amā-tŭs, a, um**, loved.
Gerundive, **Ama-ndŭs, a, um**, deserving or requiring to be loved.

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§ 79. SECOND OR e CONJUGATION.

The second, being a vowel conjugation like the first and fourth, might be expected to form the perfect by adding *vi*, and the supine by adding *tum* to the stem: as in *dele-o*, *delē-vi*, *delē-tum*; but this is the case only in very few *e* verbs; by far the greater majority throw out the *ĕ* before the *vi* or *ui* of the perfect, and change it into *ĭ* before the *tum* of the supine: as stem *monĕ*, present *mone-o*, perfect *monui* (that is, *monvi*), supine *monĭtum*.

Active Voice.

Stem.	*Present.*	*Perfect.*	*Supine.*	*Infinitive.*
Mŏnĕ.	**Mŏneo.**	**Mŏn-ui.**	**Mŏnĭ-tum.**	**Monē-re.**

INDICATIVE. *Present.* SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sing. **Mŏne-o**, I advise.	**Mŏne-am**, I advise, or may advise.
Mŏnē-s, thou advisest.	**Mone-ās**, thou advisest, or mayst advise.
Mŏnĕ-t, he advises.	**Mone-ăt**, he advises, or may advise.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Plur. **Mŏnē-mus**, we advise.	**Mone-āmus**, we advise, or may advise.
Mŏnē-tis, you advise.	**Mone-ātis**, you advise, or may advise.
Mŏne-nt, they advise.	**Mone-ant**, they advise, or may advise.
Imperfect.	
Sing. **Mŏnē-bam**, I was advising.	**Mŏnē-rem**, I advised, or might advise.
Monē-bās, thou wast advising.	**Monē-rēs**, thou advisedst, or mightst advise.
Monē-bat, he was advising.	**Monē-rĕt**, he advised, or might advise.
Plur. **Monē-bāmus**, we were advising.	**Monē-rēmus**, we advised, or might advise.
Monē-bātis, you were advising.	**Monē-rētis**, you advised, or might advise.
Monē-bant, they were advising.	**Monē-rent**, they advised, or might advise.
Future.	
Sing. **Mŏnē-bo**, I shall advise.	
Monē-bis, thou wilt advise.	
Monē-bit, he will advise.	
Plur. **Monē-bĭmus**, we shall advise.	**None.**
Monē-bĭtis, you will advise.	
Monē-bunt, they will advise.	

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE
Perfect.	
Sing. **Mŏn-uī**, I advised, or have advised.	**Mŏn-uĕrim**, I may have advised.
Mon-uisti, thou advisedst, or hast advised.	**Mon-uĕris**, thou mayst have advised.
Mon-uit, he advised, or has advised.	**Mon-uĕrit**, he may have advised.
Plur. **Mon-uĭmus**, we advised, or have advised.	**Mon-uĕrimus**, we may have advised.
Mon-uistis, you advised, or have advised.	**Mon-uĕrĭtis**, you may have advised.
Mon-uērunt or **uēre**, they advised, or have advised.	**Mon-uĕrint**, they may have advised.
Pluperfect.	
Sing. **Mŏn-uĕram**, I had advised.	**Mŏn-uissem**, I might have advised.
Mon-uĕras, thou hadst advised.	**Mon-uissēs**, thou mightst have advised.
Mon-uĕrat, he had advised.	**Mon-uissĕt**, he might have advised.
Plur. **Mon-uĕrāmus**, we had advised.	**Mon-uissēmus**, we might have advised.
Mon-uĕrātis, you had advised.	**Mon-uissētis**, you might have advised.
Mon-uĕrant, they had advised.	**Mon-uissent**, they might have advised.
Future Perfect.	
Sing. **Mŏn-uĕro**, I shall have advised.	
Mon-uĕris, thou wilt have advised.	None.
Mon-uĕrit, he will have advised.	

Indicative.	Subjunctive.
Future Perfect.	
Plur. **Mon-ŭerĭmus**, we shall have advised. **Mon-uĕrĭtis**, you will have advised. **Mon-uĕrint**, they will have advised.	None.

Imperative.

Present.	*Future.*
Sing. **Mŏnē**, advise thou.	**Mŏnē-to**, thou, or he shall advise.
Plur. **Mŏnē-tĕ** advise you.	**Mŏnē-tōte**, you shall advise. **Mŏne-nto**, they shall advise.

Infinitive.

Present, **Mŏnē-re**, to advise.
Perfect, **Mŏn-uisse**, to have advised.
Future, **Moni-turum (am, um) esse**, to be about to advise.

Gerund.

Gen. **Mŏne-ndī**, of advising.
Dat. **Mŏne-ndŏ**, to, or for advising.
Acc. **Mŏne-ndum**, advising.
Abl. **Mŏne-ndō**, by, or in advising.

Supine.

Acc. **Mŏnĭ-tum**, in order to advise.
Abl. **Monĭ-tū**, to be advised.

Participles.

Present, **Mŏne-ns**, advising.
Future, **Mŏnĭ-tūrus**, about to advise.

Passive Voice

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
	Present.	
Sing.	**Mŏne-or**, I am advised.	**Mŏne-ar**, I am, or may be advised.
	Monē-ris or **re**, thou art advised.	**Mone-āris** or **āre**, thou art, or mayst be advised.
	Monē-tur, he is advised.	**Mone-ātur**, he is, or may be advised.
Plur.	**Monē-mur**, we are advised.	**Mone-āmur**, we are, or may be advised.
	Monē-mĭni, you are advised.	**Mone-āmĭni**, you are, or may be advised.
	Mone-ntur, they are advised.	**Mone-antur**, they are, or may be advised.
	Imperfect.	
Sing.	**Mŏnē-bar**, I was being advised.	**Mŏnē-rer**, I might be advised.
	Monē-bāris or **bāre**, thou wast being advised.	**Monē-rēris** or **rēre**, thou mightst be advised.
	Monē-bātur, he was being advised.	**Monē-rētur**, he might be advised.
Plur.	**Monē-bāmur**, we were being advised.	**Monē-rēmur**, we might be advised.
	Monē-bāmĭni, you were being advised.	**Monē-rēmĭni**, you might be advised.
	Monē-bantur, they were being advised.	**Monē-rentur**, they might be advised.
	Future.	
Sing.	**Mōnē-bor**, I shall be advised.	None.
	Monē-bĕris or **bĕre**, thou wilt be advised.	
	Mōnē-bĭtur, he will be advised.	

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
	Future.	
Plur.	**Monē-bĭmur**, we shall be advised.	None.
	Monē-bĭmĭni, you will be advised.	
	Monē-buntur, they will be advised.	
	Perfect.	
Sing.	**Mŏnĭ-tus (a, um) sum**, I was, or have been advised.	**Mŏnĭ-tus (a, um) sim**, I may have been advised.
	Monĭ-tus (a, um) es, thou wast, or hast been advised.	**Moni-tus (a, um) sis**, thou mayst have been advised.
	Monĭ-tus (a, um) est, he was, or has been advised.	**Moni-tus (a, um) sit**, he may have been advised.
Plur.	**Monĭ-tī (ae, a) sumus**, we were, or have been advised.	**Moni-tī (ae, a) simus**, we may have been advised.
	Monĭ-tī (ae, a) estis, you were, or have been advised.	**Moni-ti (ae, a) sitis**, you may have been advised.
	Monĭ-ti (ae, a) sunt, they were, or have been advised.	**Moni-ti (ae, a) sint**, they may have been advised.
	Pluperfect.	
Sing.	**Mŏnĭ-tus (a, um) eram**, I had been advised.	**Mŏnĭ-tus (a, um) essem**, I might have been advised.
	Moni-tus (a, um), eras, thou hadst been advised.	**Moni-tus (a, um) esses**, thou mightst have been advised.
	Moni-tus (a, um) erat, he had been advised.	**Moni-tus (a, um) esset**, he might have been advised.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
	Pluperfect.	
Plur.	**Moni-ti (ae, a) eramus,** we had been advised.	**Moni-ti (ae, a) essemus,** we might have been advised.
	Moni-ti (ae, a) eratis, you had been advised.	**Moni-ti (ae, a) essetis,** you might have been advised.
	Moni-ti (ae, a) erant, they had been advised.	**Moni-ti (ae, a) essent,** they might have been advised.
	Future Perfect.	
Sing.	**Mŏnĭ-tus (a, um) ero,** I shall have been advised.	
	Moni-tus (a, um) eris, thou wilt have been advised.	
	Moni-tus (a, um) erit, he will have been advised.	
Plur.	**Moni-ti (ae, a) erimus,** we shall have been advised.	None.
	Monī-ti (ae, a) eritis, you will have been advised.	
	Moni-ti (ae, a) erunt, they will have been advised.	

	Present. IMPERATIVE.	*Future.*
Sing.	**Mŏnē-re,** be thou advised.	**Mŏnē-tor,** thou, or he shall be advised.
Plur.	**Monē-mĭni,** be ye advised.	**Monē-bĭmĭnī,** you shall be advised.
		Mŏne-ntor, they shall be advised.

INFINITIVE.

Present, **Monē-rī**, to be advised.
Perfect, **Mŏnĭ-tum (am, um) esse**, to have been advised.
Future, **Mŏnĭ-tum īrī**, to be about to be advised.

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect, **Mŏnĭ-tus, a, um**, advised.
Gerundive, **Mŏne-ndus, a, um**, deserving or requiring to be advised.

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§ 80. THIRD OR CONSONANT CONJUGATION.

Active Voice.

Stem.	*Present.*	*Perfect.*	*Supine.*	*Infinitive.*
Scrib.	**Scrīb-ŏ.**	**Scrip-sī.***	**Scrip-tum.***	**Scrīb-ĕrē.**

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE
	Present.	
Sing.	**Scrīb-o**, I write.	**Scrīb-am**, I write, or may write.
	Scrīb-ĭs, thou writest.	**Scrīb-ās**, thou writest, or mayst write.
	Scrīb-ĭt, he writes.	**Scrīb-ăt**, he writes, &c.
Plur.	**Scrīb-ĭmŭs**, we write.	**Scrīb-āmŭs**, we write, &c.
	Scrīb-ĭtĭs, you write.	**Scrīb-ātĭs**, you write, &c.
	Scrīb-unt, they write.	**Scrīb-ant**, they write, &c.
	Imperfect.	
Sing.	**Scrīb-ēbam**, I wrote, or was writing.	**Scrīb-ĕrem**, I wrote, might, or should write.
	Scrīb-ēbās, thou wrotest, or wast writing.	**Scrīb-ĕrēs**, thou wrotest, mightst, or shouldst write.
	Scrīb-ēbăt, he wrote, &c.	**Scrīb-ĕrĕt**, he wrote, &c.

* As to the change of the *b* into *p* in these forms, see § 93.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
	Imperfect.	
Plur.	**Scrib-ēbāmŭs**, we wrote, &c.	**Scrib-ĕrēmus**, we wrote, &c.
	Scrib-ēbātĭs, you wrote, &c.	**Scrib-ĕrētis**, you wrote, &c.
	Scrib-ēbant, they wrote, &c.	**Scrib-ĕrent**, they wrote, &c.
	Future.	
Sing.	**Scrīb-am**, I shall write.	None.
	Scrib-ēs, thou wilt, &c.	
	Scrib-ĕt, he will, &c.	
Plur.	**Scrib-ēmus**, we shall, &c.	
	Scrib-ētĭs, you will, &c.	
	Scrib-ent, they will, &c.	
	Perfect.	
Sing.	**Scrip-sī**, I wrote, or have written.	**Scrip-sĕrim**, I have, or may have written.
	Scrip-sistī, thou wrotest, or hast written.	**Scrip-sĕrĭs**, thou hast, or mayst have written,
	Scrip-sĭt, he wrote, &c.	**Scrip-sĕrĭt**, he has, &c.
Plur.	**Scrip-sĭmŭs**, we wrote, &c.	**Scrip-sĕrĭmus**, we have, &c.
	Scrip-sistĭs, you wrote, &c.	**Scrip-sĕrĭtis**, you have, &c.
	Scrip-sērunt or **sēre**, they wrote, &c.	**Scrip-sĕrint**, they have, &c.
	Pluperfect.	
Sing.	**Scrip-sĕram**, I had written.	**Scrip-sissem**, I had, might, or should have written.
	Scrip-sĕrās, thou hadst, &c.	**Scrip-sissēs**, thou hadst, mightst, or wouldst have written.
	Scrip-sĕrăt, he had, &c,	**Scrip-sissĕt**, he had, &c.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
	Pluperfect.	
Plur.	**Scrip-sĕrāmŭs**, we had, &c.	**Scrip-sissēmŭs**, we had, &c.
	Scrip-sĕrātĭs, you had, &c.	**Scrip-sissētĭs**, you had, &c.
	Scrip-sĕrant, they had, &c.	**Scrip-sissent**, they had, &c.
	Future Perfect.	
Sing.	**Scrip-sĕro**, I shall have written, &c.	
	Scrip-sĕrĭs, thou wilt have written.	
	Scrip-sĕrĭt, he will have written.	
Plur.	**Scrip-sĕrĭmus**, we shall have, &c.	None.
	Scrip-sĕrĭtis, you will have, &c.	
	Scrip-sĕrint, they will have, &c.	

IMPERATIVE.

	Present	*Future.*
Sing.	**Scrib-ĕ**, write thou.	**Scrib-ĭto**, thou shalt write.
		Scrib-ĭto, he shall write.
Plur.	**Scrib-ĭtĕ**, write ye.	**Scrib-ĭtōte**, you shall write.
		Scrib-unto, they shall write.

INFINITIVE.

Present, **Scrib-ĕrĕ**, to write.
Perfect, **Scrip-sissĕ**, to have written.
Future, **Scrip-tūrum (am, um) esse**, to be about to write.

GERUND.

Gen. **Scrīb-endī**, of writing.
Dat. **Scrib-endo**, to writing.
Acc. **Scrib-endum**, writing.
Abl. **Scrib-endō**, by or in writing.

SUPINE.

Scrip-tum, (in order) to write; **Scrip-tū**, to be written.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, **Scrīb-ens**, writing.
Future, **Scrip-tūrŭs**, about to write.

Passive Voice.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
	Present.	
Sing.	**Scrīb-or**, I am, or am being written.	**Scrīb-ar**, I am, or may be written.
	Scrib-ĕrĭs or **rĕ**, thou art, or art being written.	**Scrib-ārĭs** or **ārĕ**, thou art, or mayst be written.
	Scrib-ĭtŭr, he is, &c.	**Scrib-ātŭr**, he is, or may be, &c.
Plur.	**Scrib-ĭmŭr**, we are, &c.	**Scrib-āmŭr**, we are, &c.
	Scrib-ĭmĭnī, you are &c.	**Scrib-āmĭnī**, you are, &c.
	Scrib-untŭr, they are, &c.	**Scrib-antŭr**, they, are, &c.
	Imperfect.	
Sing.	**Scrīb-ēbăr**, I was, or was being written.	**Scrīb-ĕrer**, I was written, might, or should be written.
	Scrib-ēbārĭs or **bārĕ**.	**Scrib-ĕrērĭs** or **rērĕ**.
	Scrib-ēbātŭr.	**Scrib-ĕrētŭr**.
Plur.	**Scrib-ēbāmŭr**.	**Scrib-ĕrēmŭr**.
	Scrib-ēbāmĭnī.	**Scrib-ĕrēmĭnī**.
	Scrib-ēbantŭr.	**Scrib-ĕrentŭr**.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Future.	
Sing. Scrīb-ăr, I shall be written.	None.
Scrib-ērĭs or ērĕ.	
Scrib-ētŭr.	
Plur. Scrib-ēmŭr.	
Scrib-ēmĭnī.	
Scrib-ēntŭr.	
Perfect.	
Sing. Scrip-tŭs (a, um) sum, I was, or have been written.	Scrip-tŭs (a, um) sim, I have, or may have been written.
Scrip-tus (a, um) es.	Scrip-tus (a, um) sis.
Scrip-tus (a, um) est.	Scrip-tus (a, um) sit.
Plur. Scrip-tī (ae, a) sūmus.	Scrip-tī (ae, a) simus.
Scrip-ti (ae, a) estis.	Scrip-ti (ae, a) sitis.
Scrip-ti (ae, a) sunt.	Scrip-ti (ae, a) sint.
Pluperfect.	
Sing. Scrip-tŭs (a, um) eram, I had been written.	Scrip-tŭs (a, um) essem, I had been, might, or should have been written.
Scrip-tus (a, um) eras.	Scrip-tus (a, um) esses.
Scrip-tus (a, um) erat.	Scrip-tus (a, um) esset.
Plur. Scrip-tī (ae, a) eramus.	Scrip-tī (ae, a) essemus.
Scrip-ti (ae, a) eratis.	Scrip-ti (ae, a) essetis.
Scrip-ti (ae, a) erant.	Scrip-ti (ae, a) essent.
Future Perfect.	
Sing. Scrip-tŭs (a, um) erō, I shall have been written.	None.
Scrip-tus (a, um) eris.	
Scrip-tus (a, um) erit.	

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Future Perfect.	
Plur. Scrip-tī (ae, a) erimus. Scrip-ti (ae, a) eritis. Scrip-ti (ae, a) erunt.	None.

IMPERATIVE.

Present.	*Future.*
Sing. Scrīb-ĕrĕ, be thou written.	Scrīb-ĭtŏr, thou shalt be written. Scrib-ĭtor, he shall be written.
Plur. Scrib-ĭmĭnī, be ye written.	Scrib-ē-mĭnī, ye shall be written. Scrib-u-ntor, they shall be written.

INFINITIVE.

Present, Scrīb-ī, to be written.
Perfect, Scrip-tum (am, um) esse, to have been written.
Future, Scrip-tum īrī, to be about to be written.

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect, Scrip-tŭs, a, um, written.
Gerundive, Scrīb-endŭs, a, um, requiring, or deserving to be written.

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§ 81. FOURTH OR I CONJUGATION.

Active Voice.

Stem.	*Present.*	*Perfect.*	*Supine.*	*Infinitive.*
Audi.	Audi-ŏ.	Audī-vī.	Audī-tum.	Audī-rĕ.

	Indicative.	Subjunctive.
	Present.	
Sing.	Audi-ŏ, I hear, or am hearing.	Audi-ăm, I hear, or may hear.
	Audī-s.	Audi-ās.
	Audĭ-t.	Audi-ăt.
Plur.	Audī-mŭs.	Audi-āmŭs.
	Audī-tis.	Audi-ātĭs.
	Audĭ-unt.	Audi-ant.
	Imperfect.	
Sing.	Audĭ-ēbam, I heard, or was hearing.	Audī-rem, I heard, or should hear.
	Audĭ-ebās.	Audī-rēs.
	Audĭ-ebăt.	Audī-rĕt.
Plur.	Audĭ-ēbāmŭs.	Audī-rēmŭs.
	Audĭ-ēbātĭs.	Audī-rētĭs.
	Audĭ-ēbant.	Audī-rent.
	Future.	
Sing.	Audĭ-am, I shall hear.	None.
	Audĭ-ēs.	
	Audĭ-ēt.	
Plur.	Audĭ-ēmŭs.	
	Audĭ-ētĭs.	
	Audĭ-ent.	
	Perfect.	
Sing.	Audī-vī, I heard, or have heard.	Audī-vĕrim, I have, or may have heard.
	Audī-vistī.	Audī-vĕris.
	Audī-vĭt.	Audī-vĕrit.
Plur.	Audī-vĭmŭs.	Audī-vĕrĭmŭs.
	Audī-vistĭs.	Audī-vĕrĭtĭs.
	Audī-vērunt, or vērĕ.	Audī-vĕrint.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Pluperfect.	
Sing. Audī-vĕram, I had heard.	Audī-vissem, I had heard, &c.
Audī-vĕrās.	Audī-vissēs.
Audī-vĕrăt.	Audī-vissĕt.
Plur. Audī-vĕrāmŭs.	Audī-vissēmŭs.
Audī-vĕrātĭs.	Audī-vissētĭs.
Audī-vĕrant.	Audī-vissent.
Future Perfect.	
Sing. Audī-vĕro, I shall have heard.	None.
Audī-vĕrĭs.	
Audī-vĕrĭt.	
Plur. Audī-vĕrĭmŭs.	
Audī-vĕrĭtĭs.	
Audī-vĕrint.	

IMPERATIVE.

Present.	*Future.*
Sing. Audī, hear thou.	Audī-to, thou shalt hear.
	Audī-to, he shall hear.
Plur. Audī-tĕ, hear ye.	Audī-tōtĕ, you shall hear.
	Audī-unto, they shall hear.

INFINITIVE.

Present, Audī-rĕ, to hear.
Perfect, Audī-vissĕ, to have heard.
Future, Audī-tūrum (am, um) esse, to be about to hear.

GERUND.

Gen. Audī-endī, of hearing.
Dat. Audi-endō, to hearing.
Acc. Audi-endum, hearing.
Abl. Audi-endō, by, or in hearing.

SUPINE.

Audī-tum, (in order) to hear; **Audī-tū**, to be heard.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, **Audi-ens**, hearing.
Future, **Audī-tūrŭs**, about to hear.

Passive Voice.

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
	Present.	
Sing.	**Audī-or**, I am heard.	**Audĭ-ăr**, I am, or may be heard.
	Audī-rĭs.	**Audi-ārĭs.**
	Audī-tŭr.	**Audi-ātŭr.**
Plur.	**Audī-mŭr.**	**Audi-āmŭr.**
	Audī-mĭnī.	**Audi-āmĭnī.**
	Audi-untur.	**Audi-antur.**
	Imperfect.	
Sing.	**Audĭ-ēbar**, I was heard.	**Audī-rĕr**, I was heard, &c.
	Audi-ēbārĭs or **bārĕ.**	**Audī-rērĭs** or **rērĕ.**
	Audi-ēbātŭr.	**Audī-rētŭr.**
Plur.	**Audi-ēbāmŭr.**	**Audī-rēmŭr.**
	Audi-ēbāmĭnī.	**Audī-rēmĭnī.**
	Audi-ēbantŭr.	**Audī-rentur.**
	Future.	
Sing.	**Audĭ-ăr**, I shall be heard.	
	Audi-ērĭs.	
	Audi-ētŭr.	**None.**
Plur.	**Audi-ēmŭr.**	
	Audi-ēmĭnī.	
	Audi-entŭr.	

	INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
	Perfect.	
Sing.	**Audī-tŭs sum**, I have been heard.	**Audī-tŭs sim**, I have been heard, &c.
	Audi-tus es.	**Audi-tus sis.**
	Audi-tus est.	**Audi-tus sit.**
Plur.	**Audī-tī sumus.**	**Audī-tī simus.**
	Audi-ti estis.	**Audi-ti sitis.**
	Audi-ti sunt.	**Audi-ti sint.**
	Pluperfect.	
Sing.	**Audī-tŭs eram**, I had been heard.	**Audī-tŭs essem**, I had been heard, &c.
	Audi-tus eras.	**Audi-tus esses.**
	Audi-tus erat.	**Audi-tus esset.**
Plur.	**Audī-tī eramus.**	**Audī-tī essemus.**
	Audi-ti eratis.	**Audi-ti essetis.**
	Audi-ti erant.	**Audi-ti essent.**
	Future Perfect.	
Sing.	**Audī-tŭs ero**, I shall have been heard.	
	Audi-tus eris.	
	Audi-tus erit.	None.
Plur.	**Audī-tī erimus.**	
	Audi-ti eritis.	
	Audi-ti erunt.	

IMPERATIVE.

	Present.	*Future.*
Sing.	**Audī-rĕ**, be thou heard.	**Audī-tŏr**, thou shalt be heard.
		Audī-tŏr, he shall be heard.
Plur.	**Audī-mĭnī**, be ye heard.	**Audī-ēmĭnī**, ye shall be heard.
		Audĭ-untŏr, they shall be heard.

INFINITIVE.

Present, Audī-rī, to be heard.
Perfect, Audī-tum (am, um) esse, to have been heard.
Future, Audī-tum īrī, to be about to be heard.

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect, Audī-tŭs (a, um), heard.
Gerundive, Audī-endŭs, a, um, deserving, or requiring to be heard.

CHAPTER XIX.

DEPONENT VERBS.

§ 82. **Deponent Verbs**, being in form passive, are conjugated entirely like passive verbs, but in their meaning they are active (either transitive or intransitive). They have, however, all the four participles of a transitive verb: as *hortans*, admonishing; *hortatus*, having admonished; *hortaturus*, about to admonish; and *hortandus*, deserving or needing to be admonished. Deponents also have the gerund and the supine. Those with a stem ending in *a*, *e*, or *i* belong to the first, second, or fourth conjugation; all others follow the third.

NOTE.—Many deponents are in reality passives used in a reflective sense, and are occasionally used as real passives, as *comitor*, I accompany, and I am accompanied. This passive meaning however occurs most frequently in the past participle, and the gerundive has always a passive meaning.

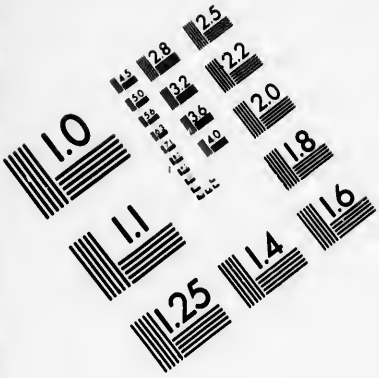
The following table shows the principal parts of deponents of all the four conjugations :—

INDICATIVE.

	First.	*Second.*	*Third.*	*Fourth.*
Present,	Hort-or, I admonish.	vĕre-or, I fear.	ūt-or, I use.	parti-or, I distribute.
	Horta-ris (e), &c. (like am-or).	verē-ris (e), &c. (like mone-or).	ut-ĕris, &c. (like scribo).	partī-ris, &c. (like audi-or).
Imperfect,	Hortā-bar.	verē-bar.	ut-ēbar.	parti-ēbar.
Future,	Hortā-bor.	verē-bor.	ut-ar.	parti-ar.
Perfect,	Hortā-tus (a, um) sum.	verĭ-tus (a, um) sum.	ū-sus (a, um) sum.	partī-tus (a, um) sum.
Pluperfect,	Hortā-tus (a, um) eram.	verĭ-tus (a, um) eram.	ū-sus (a, um) eram.	partī-tus (a, um) eram.
Fut. Perf.,	Hortā-tus (a, um) ero.	verĭ-tus (a, um) ero.	ū-sus (a, um) ero.	partī-tus (a, um) ero.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present,	Hort-er.	vere-ar.	ut-ar.	parti-ar.
Imperfect,	Hortā-rer.	verē-rer,	ut-ĕrer.	partī-rer.
Perfect,	Hortā-tus (a, um) sim.	verĭ-tus (a, um) sim.	ū-sus (a, um) sim.	partī-tus (a, um) sim.
Pluperfect,	Hortā-tus (a, um) essem.	verĭ-tus (a, um) essem.	ū-sus (a, um) essem.	par tus (a, um) [illegible].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IMPERATIVE.

	First.	*Second.*	*Third.*	*Fourth.*
Present,	Hortā-rĕ.	verē-rĕ.	ut-ĕrĕ.	partī-rĕ.
Future,	Hortā-tor.	verē-tor.	ut-ĭtor.	partī-tor.

INFINITIVE.

Present,	Hortā-rī.	verē-rī.	ūt-ī.	partī-ri.
Perfect,	Hortā-tum (am, um) esse.	verĭ-tum (am, um) esse.	ū-sum (am, um) esse.	partī-tum (am, um) esse.
Future,	Hortā-turum (am, um) esse.	verĭ-turum (am, um) esse.	ū-surum (am, um) esse.	partī-turum (am, um) esse.

SUPINE.

	Hortā-tum, hortā-tū.	verĭ-tum, verĭ-tū.	ū-sum, ūs-ū.	partī-tum, partī-tū.

GERUND.

	Horta-ndum, &c.	ver-endum, &c.	ut-endum, &c.	parti-endum, &c.

PARTICIPLES.

Present,	Horta-ns.	ver-ens.	ut-ens.	parti-ens.
Perfect,	Hortā-tus, a, um.	verĭ-tus, a, um.	u-sus, a, um.	partī-tus, a, um.
Future,	Hortā-turus, a, um.	verĭ-turus, a, um.	u-surus, a, um.	partī-turus, a, um.
Gerundive,	Horta-ndus, a, um.	ver-endus, a, um.	ut-endus, a, um.	parti-endus, a, um.

CHAPTER XX.

CONTRACTED AND ARCHAIC VERBAL FORMS.

§ 83. In the perfect of the first and second conjugations when ending in *avi* and *evi*, and in the forms derived from it, where the *i* is followed by *s* or *r*, the *v* is frequently thrown out, and the two vowels are contracted into one. In the perfect of the fourth conjugation ending in *ivi* the *v* may always be thrown out; but a contraction of the two vowels takes place only when the *i* is followed by *s*. In the first person of the perfect indicative the *v* is never thrown out, *e.g.* :—

Perfect, 2nd person singular—*Amavisti, amasti; delevisti, delesti; audivisti, audisti.*

Perfect, 2nd person plural—*Amavistis, amastis; delevistis, delestis; audivistis, audistis.*

Perfect, 3rd person plural—*Amavērunt, amārunt; delevērunt, delērunt; audivērunt, audiērunt.*

Subjunctive, 1st person—*Amaverim, amārim; deleverim, delērim; audiverim, audiērim.*

Infinitive—*Amavisse, amasse; delevisse, delesse; audivisse, audiisse* or *audisse.*

Pluperfect indicative—*Amavĕram, amāram; delevĕram, delēram; audivĕram, audiĕram.*

Pluperfect subjunctive—*Amavissem, amassem; delevissem, delessem; audivissem, audissem.*

NOTE 1.—The *v* is but rarely dropped in the first person singular, as, *e.g.*, in *petii* for *petivi*; *desii* for *desivi*; but it is nearly always the case in the compounds of *eo*, I go: as *abeo*, perfect *abii*; *redeo*, perfect *redii*; *pereo*, perfect *perii*. Their infinitive and pluperfect subjunctive therefore may end in *iisse, iissem*, or *isse* and *issem*.

NOTE 2.—The verb *novi* (I know) frequently drops the *v*, and admits of contraction: as *novisti, nosti; novistis, nostis; novērunt, nōrunt; novĕram, nōram; novisse, nosse*, &c. But *nōro* for *novĕro* does not occur.

NOTE 3.—In some forms, generally poetical, *is* is thrown out: as *dixti* for *dixisti*; *direxti* for *direxisti*; *promisii* for *promisisti*; *consumpsti* for *consumpsisti*; *traxe* for *traxisse*; *decesse* for *decessisse*; *surrexe* for *surrexisse*; and the like.

NOTE 4.—Instead of the ending *ērunt* in the third person plural of the perfect indicative, we frequently find *ēre*: as *amavēre, delevēre, audivēre, scripsēre*, for *amavērunt, deleverunt, audiverunt, scripserunt*; but never *amare* for *amarunt*.

NOTE 5.—Instead of the ending *ris* in the second person singular of the passive we frequently find *re*; as *delebare, amarēre, laudabēre*, for *delebaris, amareris, laudabēris*.

NOTE 6.—The imperatives of the verb *dicĕre, ducĕre, facĕre*, and *ferre*, are *dic, duc, fac, fer*. The compounds of *fero* also have *fer*: as *refer, con-*

fer; whereas those of *dico* and *facio* always have the final *e:* as *edĭce, effice, caleface.* Those of *ducere* may have either *duc* or *duce,* as *educ* and *educe.*

NOTE 7.—Verbs of the third and fourth conjugations sometimes substitute the more ancient *u* for *e* in the ending of the gerund and gerundive: as *potiundus, faciundus,* for *potiendus, faciendus.* This is the case invariably with the verb *eo* (I go), as *eundum est.* In certain legal phrases the older form *undus* is always used: as *res repetundae,* things to be reclaimed, in case of a man being guilty of extortion.

NOTE 8.—Poets sometimes form the future active of the fourth conjugation in *bo* instead of *am,* as *scibo, servibo,* as is always the case in *eo* (I go), future *ibo.*

NOTE 9.—Sometimes we find the present subjunctive ending in *im:* as *ĕdim* for *ĕdam, effodint* for *effodiant;* so also *duim* for *dam, perduim* for *perdam.* This ancient ending is always used in *sim, velim, nolim,* and *malim.*

NOTE 10.—The present subjunctive and the future active are sometimes formed in an antiquated manner by adding *sim* and *so* to the pure stem: as *faxint* (*facsint*) for *faciant; faxo* for *faciam; adaxim* (*adagsim*) for *adigam; taxim* (*tagsim*) for *tangam; capso* for *capiam; rapsim* for *rapiam.* So also frequently *ausim* for *audeam.* Similar forms in the first and second conjugations are *levassim* and *levasso* for *levaverim* and *levavi* o, and *habessit* for *habuerit.*

NOTE 11.—In early Latin the ending of the present infinitive passive was *ier* instead of *i:* as *laudarier, admittier, labier,* for *laudari, admitti, labi.*

CHAPTER XXI.

FORMATION OF THE PRESENT, PERFECT, AND SUPINE FROM THE STEM.

§ 84. The pure stem of many verbs is strengthened or otherwise modified in the present—

1. By doubling its final *l, r,* and *t,* as: *pello, curro, mitto,* from the stems *pel, cur, mit.* This is the case especially when the stem ends in the liquids *l* or *r.*
2. By adding a strengthening *n*—

   (*a.*) To stems ending in a vowel, as in *sino, lino,* from the stems *si* and *li.*

   (*b.*) To stems with final *r* or *m,* as: *cerno, temno,* from *cer* and *tem.*

   (*c.*) To stems before a final mute, as: *vinco, frango, fundo,* from *vic, frag, fud.* In *rumpo* and *cumbo* the *m* represents *n;* the stems are *rup* and *cub.*

3. By adding a strengthening *t*, as: *flecto, plecto,* from *flec, plec.*
4. By adding a strengthening *sc* or *isc*, as: *cresco, obdormisco,* from *cre* and *dormi; apiscor, proficiscor, nanciscor,* from the stems *ap, fac,* and *nac.*
5. By reduplication, as in *gi-gno* (for *gi-geno*), *sisto,* from the stems *gen* and *sta.*
6. By the addition of *u*, as *tinguo,* from *ting.*
7. By the addition of *i*, as: *capio, facio,* from *cap* and *fac.*
8. Many stems which really end in a consonant form the present, as if they belonged to one of the vowel conjugations, as: *video, venio,* from *vid* and *ven.*

§ 85. 1. The perfect is generally formed from the pure stem by adding *vi* if the stem ends in a vowel, as: *ama-vi, dele-vi, audi-vi.*

NOTE.—Most verbs of the second conjugation drop the final *ĕ* of the stem. See § 79.

2. Consonantal stems with a short radical vowel form the perfect in *i;* but the short radical vowel is lengthened, and *ă* becomes *ē*, as: *lĕg-o, lēgi; vĭde-o, vīd-i; fŏd-io, fōdi; fŭg-io, fūgi; ăgo, ēgi; căp-io, cēpi.*

NOTE.—This lengthening of the radical vowel has arisen from reduplication, which, being combined with the short radical vowel made it long. Thus from *pango* we have both *pĕpĭgi* and *pēgi.*

3. Consonantal stems with a long radical vowel make the perfect in *si*, as: *rēpo, repsi; scribo, scripsi; dīco, dixi* (*dicsi*); *aug-eo, auxi* (*augsi*); *rādo, rasi* (for *radsi*); even when the radical vowel is long by position, as: *cārpo, carpsi; ping-o, pinxi;* but *vinc-o* makes *vīci.*

NOTE.—Stems in *nd* make an exception, forming the perfect in *i*, as: *defendo, defendi.*

4. Stems in *u* form the perfect by adding *i*, as: *minu-o, minui; acu-o, acui.*

5. Several verbs have a reduplication in the perfect—that is, the initial consonant with the vowel following it is repeated; but sometimes the vowel is modified in the reduplication. The ending of the perfect in these cases is always *i*, as: *pendo, pĕ-pendi; disco, dĭ-dĭci; posco, pŏ-posci; curro, cŭ-curri; cădo, cĕ-cĭdi; părio, pĕ-pĕri; parco, pĕ-perci; caedo, cĕ-cīdi; pello, pĕ-pŭli; tollo, sus-tŭli* (for *te-tuli*).

NOTE 1.—When the verb begins with two consonants, such as *sp* and *st*, they are both retained in the reduplication, but the verb itself rejects the *s*, as: *spondeo, spo-pondi; sto, ste-ti; si-sto, sti-ti* (from *sto*).

NOTE 2.—In compound verbs of this class the reduplication is usually dropped, as: *perpendo, perpendi; occīdo, occĭdi; occĭdo occīdi; expello, expuli; attingo, attigi.* Only the compounds of *do, sto, disco,* and *posco* retain it, as: *circumdo, circumdedi; consto, constiti; perdisco, perdidici; deposco, depoposci;* but *decurro* has both *decurri* and *decucurri.*

§ 86. 1. The supine in the case of stems ending in a vowel is formed by simply adding *tum* to the stem; but most verbs of the second conjugation change the final *ĕ* of the stem into *ĭ*, as: *ama-tum, dele-tum, audi-tum, tribu-tum;* but *moneo* (stem *monĕ*), *monĭ-tum.*

NOTE.—Some verbs of the second conjugation throw out the final *e* of the stem altogether, as: *doceo, doc-tum; teneo, ten-tum.*

2. Stems ending in a *p* (*b, p*) or *k* (*c, g, qu*) sound form the supine by adding *tum*, as: *cap-io, cap-tum; scrib-o, scrip-tum; rep-o, rep-tum; faci-o, factum; dic-o, dic-tum.*

NOTE 1.—Exceptions are *labor, lapsum;* and those in which the *k* sound in the present is strengthened by the addition of *t*, as: *flecto, flexum; plecto, plexum; pecto, pexum; necto, nexum.* Further, some in which the *k* sound is preceded by a liquid, as: *mergo, mersum; tergo, tersum; spargo, sparsum. Fingo* has *fictum*, and *figo, fixum.*

NOTE 2.—In some cases the *k* sound (*e.g., qu*) is dropped in the perfect and supine before the initial *t* or *s* of the supine ending, as: *fulc-io, ful-si, ful-tum; torqu-eo, torsi, tortum; farcio, farsi, fartum.*

3. Stems ending in a *t* sound (*d* or *t*) have *sum* in the supine, as: *ĕd-o, ē-sum; lūd-o, lū-sum; defend-o, defen-sum.*

4. Stems ending in a liquid (*l, m, n, r*) sometimes have *tum* and sometimes *sum.* The stems ending in *m* or *n* generally have *tum*, while those ending in *l* or *r* have *sum, e.g., em-o, em-tum; can-o, can-tum; verr-o, ver-sum; fall-o, fal-sum. Par-io*, however, has *par-tum*, and *man-eo, man-sum.*

NOTE.—The supine itself is not often used, but its existence must often be presupposed when the future participle active occurs, which is formed from the supine. But in some cases that participle is formed from the stem as it appears in the present tense, and not from the supine, as: *sonare, sonui, sonitum*, but *sonaturus; morior, mortuus*, but *moriturus*, and some others.

§ 87. When the stems of the present, the perfect, and the supine are known, any verb may be conjugated without difficulty, as all the other forms are derived from them.

NOTE.—It may be observed here that as the personal endings are remnants of the personal pronouns, so the tense suffixes are remnants of the auxiliary verb *esse;* as in *amav-i* (*fui*), *amav-ĕram, amav-issem* (*essem*); but in *ama-bo* and *ama-bam* the *bo* and *bam* are of the same origin as the English *be* (*fuo, φύω*).

CHAPTER XXII.

VERBS FOLLOWING DIFFERENT CONJUGATIONS IN DIFFERENT TENSES.

§ 88. A change in the conjugation of a verb is visible, for example, in *crepo*, which in the imperfect tenses follows the

first conjugation with the stem *crepa* (*crepas, crepat, crepabam, crepabo, crepans,* &c.); but in the perfect and supine (*crepui, crepĭtum*) and the tenses derived from them it follows the second.

§ 89. Such a change of conjugation is caused by a vowel, such as *e, i,* or *u,* being added to the pure stem, or by the stem receiving a strengthening increase in the present. The following cases may be noticed :—

1. Some consonantal stems, forming their perfect and supine regularly, follow the vowel conjugation in the imperfect tenses, as : *augeo, auxi, auc-tum, augēre ; saepio, saep-si, saep-tum, saepire ; sentio, sen-si, sen-sum, sentire ; vincio, vinxi, vinc-tum, vincīre ; video, vid-i, vi-sum, vidēre.*
2. Vowel stems, in consequence of a strengthening increase of the present, follow the third conjugation; but form the perfect and supine from the pure vowel stem, as : *si-u-o, si-vi, si-tum, sinĕre ; cre-s-co, cre-vi, cre-tum, crescĕre.*
3. Some consonantal stems form the imperfect tenses after the third ; but the perfect and supine after the second or fourth conjugation, as : *fremo* (3), *fremui* (2), *fremitum* (2), *fremĕre* (3) ; *peto* (3), *peti-vi* (4), *petītum* (4), *petĕre* (3).
4. Some vowel stems sometimes follow one and sometimes another of the vowel conjugations, as: *crepo* (1), *crepui* (2), *crepĭtum* (2), *crepare* (1); *aperio* (4), *aperui* (2), *apertum* (2), *aperire* (4).
5. The verbs *dare* and *stare* in their perfects *dedi* and *steti* follow the third conjugation.

What has been stated in this and the preceding chapter is intended to explain the phenomena on account of which a large number of verbs used to be called irregular. But though they are not irregular in the ordinary sense, the following chapters will furnish classified lists so as to enable the student to see at a glance how the principles above explained are carried out.

CHAPTER XXIII.

LISTS OF VERBS FORMING THEIR PERFECTS AND SUPINES DIFFERENTLY FROM THOSE GIVEN IN THE TABLES OF THE CONJUGATIONS.

VERBS OF THE FIRST CONJUGATION.

§ 90. 1. Most verbs of the first conjugation form their perfect, supine, and infinitive, like *amo,* by adding the suffixes, *vi, tum,* and *re* to the stem ; but the following form the perfect in *ui,* and the

supine in *ĭtum*, as if they belonged to the second conjugation, the final *a* of the stem being thrown out :—

Crĕpo (creak, make a noise),	*crĕpui,*	*crĕpĭtum,*	*crĕpāre.*
Cŭbo (lie down),	*cŭbui,*	*cŭbĭtum,*	*cŭbāre.*
Dŏmo (tame),	*dŏmui,*	*dŏmĭtum,*	*dŏmāre.*
Sŏno (sound),	*sŏnui,*	*sŏnĭtum,*	*sŏnāre.*
Tŏno (thunder),	*tŏnui,*	*tŏnĭtum,*	*tŏnāre.*
Vĕto (forbid),	*vĕtui,*	*vĕtĭtum,*	*vĕtāre.*
Mĭco (glitter, dart),	*mĭcui,*	—	*mĭcāre.*
Frĭco (rub),	*frĭcui,*	*frictum* or *fricātum,*	*frĭcāre.*
Plĭco (fold),	*plicui* or *plĭca-vi,*	*plĭcĭtum* or *plĭcātum,*	*plĭcāre.*
Sĕco (cut),	*sĕcui,*	*sectum,*	*sĕcāre.*

NOTE 1.—As a general rule compound verbs are conjugated like the simple verbs from which they are formed. But there are some exceptions to this rule, *e.g.*, *nĕco*, I kill, is conjugated like *amo;* but the compound *enĕco* has in the perfect either *enĕcavi* or *enĕcui*, and in the supine either *enĕcātum* or *enectum*. The same is the case with some compounds of *crĕpo*, as: *discrepo* (I differ), *discrĕpui* and *discrĕpavi*, *discrepĭtum* and *discrĕpatum;* *increpo* (I chide), *increpui* and *increpari*, *increpĭtum*, and *increpātum;* and of *plico*, as: *explico*, *explicui* and *explicavi*, *explicĭtum* and *explicatum*.

NOTE 2.—Several compounds of *cŭbo* strengthen the present stem by the addition of *m* (*n*), and follow the third conjugation, as: *accumbo* (I recline at table), *accŭbui*, *accŭbĭtum*, *accumbĕre;* *occumbo* (I die), *occŭbui*, *occubĭtum*, *occumbĕre*.

NOTE 3.—The compound *ēmĭco* (I spring out), has *ēmĭcui*, *ēmĭcatum;* but *dimico* (I fight) is conjugated like *amo*. *Seco* and *sono*, though their supines are *sectum* and *sonĭtum*, have the future participles *secātūrus* and *sonātūrus*.

2. The following form their perfect by reduplication :—

Do (I give or put),	*dĕdi,*	*dătum,*	*dăre.*
Sto (I stand),	*stĕti,*	*stătum,*	*stāre.*

NOTE.—These two verbs when compounded with prepositions of two syllables are conjugated in the same way, as: *circumdo* (I surround), *circumdĕdi*, *circumdătum;* but *do* when compounded with prepositions of one syllable follows the third conjugation, as: *addo* (I add), *addĭdi*, *addĭtum*, *addĕre;* and *sto* makes *stĭti*, as: *adsto* (I stand near), *adstĭti*, *adstare;* *obsto* (I stand in the way), *obstĭti*, *obstĭtum*, *obstāre*.

3. The following must be noticed separately :—

Jŭvo (I assist),	*jūvi,*	*jūtum,*	*jŭvāre.*
Lăvo (I wash),	*lāvi,*	*lāvātum, lautum,* or *lōtum,*	*lăvāre.*
Poto (I drink),	*potavi,*	*potatum* or *potum,*	*potāre.*

NOTE 1.—*Jŭvo* has a future participle, *jŭvātūrus;* and of *lăvo* we also have an infinitive *lavĕre* of the third conjugation.

NOTE 2.—The verbs *jūro* (I swear), and *caeno* (I sup), have a past participle passive with an active meaning: *jūrātus*, one who has sworn, and *caenatus*, one who has supped.

CHAPTER XXIV.

VERBS OF THE SECOND CONJUGATION.

§ 91. 1. Most verbs of the second conjugation drop the final *ĕ* of the stem before the *ui* (*vi*) of the stem, and in the supine reduce it to *ĭ*, as has been seen in *moneo*.

2. A few only retain the final *e* of the stem throughout, as in the two other vowel conjugations. These are :—

Dēleo (destroy),	*dēlēvi*,	*dēlētum*,	*dēlēre*.
Fleo (weep),	*flēvi*,	*flētum*,	*flēre*.
Neo (spin),	*nēvi*,	*nētum*,	*nēre*.
Compleo (fill up),	*complēvi*,	*complētum*,	*complēre*.
Vieo (hoop a vessel),	*viēvi*,	*viētum*,	*viēre*.
Abŏleo (abolish),	*abŏlēvi*,	*abŏlĭtum*,	*abŏlēre*.
Exŏleo (grow old),	*exŏlēvi*,	*exŏlētum*,	*exŏlēre*.
Obsŏleo (fall into disuse),	*obsŏlēvi*,	*obsŏlētum*,	*obsŏlēre*.

NOTE.—It will be observed that *abŏlĭtum* has *ĭ* instead of *ē*. To this class we may also add *cieo*, *cīvi*, *cītum*, *ciēre* (stir); but instead of the compound *concieo* (I stir up), we also have the forms *concio* and *accio*, which are regularly conjugated after the fourth conjugation. *Excio* has both *excītum* and *excĭtum*.

2. The following throw out the final *ĕ* of the stem both in the perfect and supine :—

Dŏceo (teach),	*dŏcui*,	*doctum*,	*docēre*.
Tĕneo (hold),	*tĕnui*,	*tentum*,	*tĕnēre*.
Misceo (mix),	*miscui*,	*mixtum* or *mistum*,	*miscēre*.
Torreo (roast),	*torrui*,	*tostum*,	*torrēre*.
Sorbeo (suck up),	*sorbui* or *sorpsi*,	———	*sorbēre*.
Censeo (think),	*censui*,	*censum*,	*censēre*.

NOTE.—The compound *recenseo* (I review), *recensui*, has in the supine either *recensum* or *recensītum*.

3. The following form the perfect in *i* and the supine in *sum*, as if they belonged to the third conjugation :—

Prandeo (breakfast),	*prandi*,	*pransum*,	*prandēre*.
Sĕdeo (sit),	*sēdi*,	*sessum*,	*sedēre*.
Video (see),	*vīdi*,	*vīsum*,	*vīdēre*.
Strīdeo (creak),	*strīdi*,	———	*strīdēre*.

The following verbs of this conjugation have a reduplicated perfect; but in their compounds the reduplication is dropped :—

Mordeo (bite),	*mŏmordi,*	*morsum,*	*mordēre.*
Pendeo (hang),	*pĕpendi,*	*pensum,*	*pendēre.*
Spondeo (promise),	*spŏpondi,*	*sponsum,*	*spondēre.*
Tondeo (shear),	*tŏtondi,*	*tonsum,*	*tondēre.*

NOTE.—The past participle *prānsus* has an active meaning, "one who has breakfasted." *Sedeo,* when compounded with prepositions of two syllables, remains the same; but with monosyllabic prepositions the radical *e* in the imperfect tenses is changed into *i.* as: *assĭdeo, insideo,* though the perfect and supine are the same as in *sĕdeo.*

4. The following shorten the perfect and supine by syncopation, and thus assume the appearance of verbs with consonantal stems :—

Căveo (take care),	*cāvi,*	*cautum,*	*căvēre.*
Făveo (favour),	*fāvi,*	*fautum,*	*făvēre.*
Fŏveo (cherish),	*fōvi,*	*fōtum,*	*fŏvēre.*
Mŏveo (move),	*mōvi,*	*mōtum,*	*mŏvēre,*
Vŏveo (vow),	*vōvi,*	*vōtum,*	*vŏvēre.*
Păveo (fear),	*pāvi,*	———	*păvēre.*
Fervĕo (boil),	*fervi* or *ferbui,*	———	*fervēre.*
Connīveo (wink),	*connīvi* or *connixi,*	———	*connivēre.*

5. The following follow the second conjugation only in the imperfect tenses; in all others they throw out the final vowel of the stem, and thus become consonantal verbs of the third conjugation :—

Augeo (increase),	*auxi,*	*auctum,*	*augēre.*
Indulgeo (indulge),	*indulsi,*	*indultum,*	*indulgēre.*
Torqueo (twist),	*torsi,*	*tortum,*	*torquēre.*
Ardeo (burn),	*arsi.*	*arsum,*	*ardēre.*
Haereo (stick),	*haesi,*	*haesum,*	*haerēre.*
Jŭbeo (order),	*jussi,*	*jussum,*	*jŭbēre.*
Măneo (remain),	*mansi,*	*mansum,*	*mănēre.*
Mulceo (stroke),	*mulsi,*	*mulsum,*	*mulcēre.*
Mulgeo (milk),	*mulsi,*	*mulctum,*	*mulgēre.*
Rīdeo (laugh),	*rīsi,*	*rīsum,*	*rīdēre.*
Suādeo (advise),	*suāsi,*	*suāsum,*	*suādēre.*
Tergeo (wipe),	*tersi,*	*tersum,*	*tergēre.*
Algeo (am cold),	*alsi,*	———	*algēre.*
Frīgeo (am cold),	*frixi,*	———	*frīgēre.*
Fulgeo (shine),	*fulsi,*	———	*fulgēre.*
Lūceo (give light),	*luxi,*	———	*lucēre.*
Lūgeo (grieve),	*luxi,*	———	*lūgēre.*
Turgeo (swell),	(*tursi*),	———	*turgēre.*
Urgeo (urge),	*ursi,*	———	*urgēre.*

6. The following three are semideponents (see § 65) :—

Audeo (dare),	*ausus sum,*	*audēre.*
Gaudeo (rejoice),	*gāvīsus sum,*	*gaudēre.*
Sŏleo (am wont),	*sŏlĭtus sum,*	*sŏlēre.*

7. The following four deponents deserve to be specially noticed :—

Fătĕor (confess),	*fassus sum,*	*fătēri.*
Prŏfĭtĕor (profess),	*prŏfessus sum,*	*prŏfĭtēri.*
Miserĕor (pity),	*miserĭtus* or *misertus sum,*	*miserēri.*
Reor (think),	*rātus sum,*	*rēri.*

NOTE.—There is a considerable number of verbs, mostly intransitive, which are in other respects conjugated like *moneo*, but have no supine, such as *arceo, lăteo, sĭdeo, sĭleo*, and others; while others again have neither perfect nor supine, such as *căneo, ărceo, flăreo*, &c.

CHAPTER XXV.

VERBS OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION.

§ 92. The apparent irregularities of verbs of the third conjugation generally arise out of the concurrence of the final consonant of the stem with the initial consonant of the suffix, which causes various changes. Sometimes, also, a verb in some of its tenses follows the second or fourth conjugation instead of the third, as: *pĕto* (3), perfect *pĕtīvi* (4), *pĕtītum* (4), *pĕtĕre* (3).

We shall classify the verbs according to the final consonants of their stems.

§ 93. 1. *Verbs whose Stems end in* b *or* p.

If the radical vowel of the verb is short, the perfect takes the suffix *i*, but if long, *si*; the supine always ends in *tum*.

Capio (*căp*), I take,	*cēpi,*	*captum,*	*căpĕre.*
Rumpo (*rŭp*), I break,	*rūpi,*	*ruptum,*	*rumpere.*
Rēpo (creep),	*repsi,*	*reptum,*	*rēpĕre.*
Carpo (pluck),	*carpsi,*	*carptum,*	*carpĕre.*
Glūbo (peel),	*glupsi,*	*gluptum,*	*glūbĕre.*
Nūbo (marry),	*nupsi,*	*nuptum,*	*nūbĕre.*
Scalpo (scratch),	*scalpsi,*	*scalptum,*	*scalpĕre.*
Sculpo (chisel),	*sculpsi,*	*sculptum,*	*sculpĕre.*
Scrībo (write)	*scripsi,*	*scriptum,*	*scrībĕre.*

NOTE.—Exceptions are: *clĕpo* (I steal), *clepsi*, but also *clēpi, clĕptum, clĕpĕre;* and *lambo* (I lick), *lambi, lambitum, lambere;* and *bibo* (I drink), *bibi, bibitum.* It must be noticed that *b* before *s* and *t* becomes *p*.

§ 94. 2. *Verbs whose Stems end in a Guttural,* **c, g, qu.**

They form the supine in *tum.*

1. The perfect takes *i,* when the radical vowel is short :—

Lĕgo (read),	*lēgi,*	*lectum,*	*lĕgĕre.*

So also in its compounds, except *diligo, intelligo, negligo,* which make *dilexi, intellexi, neglexi.*

Ago (act),	*ēgi,*	*actum,*	*ăgĕre.*

So also *circumăgo,* but with other prepositions *ăgo* becomes *ĭgo,* as : *transĭgo, transēgi, transactum, transĭgĕre*; *cogo* (*coăgo*), *coegi, coactum.*

Jăcio, stem *jac* (throw),	*jēci,*	*jactum,*	*jăcĕre.*
Făcio, stem *fac* (make),	*fēci,*	*factum,*	*făcĕre.*

With prepositions *facio* becomes *fĭcio, fēci, fectum ;* with other words it remains *făcio* as : *calefăcio, calefeci, calefactum, calefăcĕre.*

Ĭco or *īco* (strike),	*ici,*	*ictum,*	*ĭcĕre.*
Fŭgio, stem *fug* (flee),	*fūgi,*	(*fugĭturus*),	*fŭgĕre.*

In some verbs the present stem is strengthened by the addition of *n.*

Vinco, stem *vĭc* (conquer),	*vīci,*	*victum,*	*vincĕre.*
Frango, stem *frag* (break),	*frēgi,*	*fractum,*	*frangĕre.*

So also in compounds, *perfrīngo, perfrēgi, perfractum, perfringĕre.*

Rĕlinquo, stem *relic* (leave behind), *relīqui, relictum, relinquĕre.*

2. When the radical vowel is long, the perfect takes *si* :—

Dīco (say),	*dixi,*	*dictum,*	*dīcĕre.*
Dūco (lead),	*duxi,*	*ductum,*	*dūcĕre.*
Sūgo (suck),	*suxi,*	*suctum,*	*sūgĕre.*
Frīgo (roast),	*frixi,*	*frictum.*	*frīgĕre.*
Flīgo (beat),	*flixi,*	*flictum,*	*flīgĕre.*
Fīgo (fix),	*fixi,*	*fixum,*	*fīgĕre.*

In some verbs the pure stem is strengthened by *n,* which is retained in the perfect, and generally also in the supine :—

Fingo, stem *fig* (form),	*finxi,*	*fictum,*	*fingĕre.*
Pingo, stem *pig* (paint),	*pinxi,*	*pictum,*	*pingĕre.*
Stringo, stem *strig* (draw),	*strinxi,*	*strictum,*	*stringĕre.*
Plango (strike),	*planxi,*	*planctum,*	*plangĕre.*
Pango (drive in),	*panxi* (*pĕgi*),	*panctum,*	*pangĕre.*

Ango (frighten),	*anxi*,	———	*angĕre.*
Cingo (gird),	*cinxi*,	*cinctum*,	*cingĕre.*
Jungo (join),	*junxi*,	*junctum*,	*jungĕre.*
Emungo (blow the nose),	*emunxi*,	*emunctum*,	*emungĕre.*
Ningo (snow),	*ninxi*,	———	*ningĕre.*
Tingo or *tinguo* (dip),	*tinxi*,	*tinctum*,	*tingĕre* or *tinguĕre.*
Distinguo (distinguish),	*distinxi*,	*distinctum*,	*distinguĕre.*

So also *extinguo* and *restinguo.*

Ungo or *unguo* (anoint),	*unxi*,	*unctum*,	*ungĕre* or *unguĕre.*

Others, in which the pure stem is strengthened by a *t*, form the supine in *sum*, as :—

Flecto (bend),	*flexi*,	*flexum*,	*flectĕre.*
Plecto (twist),	(*plexi*),	(*plexum*),	*plectĕre.*
Pecto (comb),	*pexi*,	*pexum*,	*pectĕre.*
Necto (bind),	*nexi* or *nexui*,	*nexum*,	*nectĕre.*

When the guttural is preceded by *l* or *r*, the guttural is dropped before *s* and *t*, as :—

Mergo (immerse),	*mersi*,	*mersum*,	*mergĕre.*
Tergo (wipe),	*tersi*,	*tersum*,	*tergĕre.*

Compounds of *tergo* follow the second conjugation, but form the perfect and supino like *tergo.*

Spargo (scatter),	*sparsi*,	*sparsum*,	*-ĕre.*

The compounds, as *aspergo*, have *aspersi*, *aspersum.*

NOTE 1.—There are some verbs of this class which make their perfect in *si*, although their radical vowel is short, as :—

Rĕgo (direct)	*rexi*,	*rectum*,	*rĕgĕre.*

So also its compounds *dirĭgo*, *pergo*, and *surgo.*

Tĕgo (cover),	*texi*,	*tectum*,	*tĕgĕre.*
Cŏquo (cook),	*coxi*,	*coctum*,	*cŏquĕre.*
Dilĭgo (love),	*dilexi*,	*dilectum*,	*dilĭgĕre.*

About other compounds of *lĕgo*, as *intellĭgo*, *neglĭgo*, see above, No. 2.

Allĭcio (allure),	*allexi*,	*allectum*,	*allicĕre.*

So also *pellĭcio ;* but *elicio* makes *elicui*, *elicitum.*

Adspĭcio (look at),	*adspexi*,	*adspectum*,	*adspicĕre.*

So also the other compounds of *spicio*, stem *spĕc.*

There is only *ico* (strike), which, notwithstanding its long radical vowel, makes the perfect in *i*, *īci*, *ictum*, *icĕre.* Compare No. 1.

NOTE 2.—The following have the reduplication in the perfect:—

Posco (demand),	*pŏposci*,	———	*poscĕre.*
Disco (learn),	*dĭdici*,	(*disciturus*),	*discĕre.*
Parco (spare),	*pĕperci* (*parsi*),	*parsum*,	*parcĕre.*
Tango (touch),	*tĕtĭgi*,	*tactum*,	*tangĕre.*
Pango (make a bargain),	*pĕpĭgi*,	*pactum*,	*pangĕre.*
Pungo (prick),	*pŭpŭgi*,	*punctum*,	*pungĕre.*

But *interpungo* makes *interpunxi*, *interpunctum*.

§ 95. Verbs whose stems end in *h*, and some with a stem ending in *v* (*u*), form the perfect in *si* and the supine in *tum*, the *h* and *v* being hardened into *c* before *s* and *t*:—

Trăho (draw),	*traxi* (*tracsi*),	*tractum*,	*trahĕre.*
Vĕho (convey),	*vexi* (*vecsi*),	*vectum*,	*vĕhĕre.*
Vīvo (live),	*vixi* (*vicsi*),	*victum*,	*vivĕre.*
Fluo (flow),	*fluxi*,	*fluctum*,	*fluĕre.*
Struo (build),	*struxi*,	*structum*,	*struĕre.*

§ 95. *Verbs whose Stems end in a Dental*, d *or* t.

1. Those which have a short radical vowel and of which the stem ends in *d*, and all those ending in *nd*, form the perfect in *i* and the supine in *sum*, the *d* being dropped before *s*:—

Edo (eat),	*ēdi*,	*ēsum*,	*ēdĕre.*
Fundo (pour),	*fūdi*,	*fūsum*,	*fundĕre.*
Mando (chew),	*mandi*,	*mansum*,	*mandĕre.*
Scando (mount),	*scandi*,	*scansum*,	*scandĕre.*

So also *ascendo* and *descendo*.

Accendo (set on fire),	*accendi*,	*accensum*,	*accendĕre.*
Defendo (defend),	*defendi*,	*defensum*,	*defendĕre.*
Prehendo (seize),	*prehendi*,	*prehensum*,	*prehendĕre.*
Pando (spread),	*pandi*,	*passum* (for *pansum*),	*pandĕre.*
Fŏdi.. stem *fod* (dig),	*fŏdi*,	*fossum* (for *fodsum*),	*fŏdĕre.*

2. Verbs in *d* and *t*, with a long radical vowel, form the perfect in *si*, and the supine in *sum*, the *d* being thrown out before *s*:—

Rādo (scrape),	*rāsi*,	*rāsum*,	*rādĕre.*
Rōdo (gnaw),	*rōsi*,	*rōsum*,	*rōdĕre.*
Vādo (go),	*vāsi*,	*vāsum*,	*vādĕre.*

So also *invādo* and *evādo*.

Lūdo (play),	*lūsi*,	*lūsum*,	*lūdĕre.*
Trūdo (push),	*trūsi*,	*trūsum*,	*trūdĕre.*
Laedo (hurt),	*laesi*,	*laesum*,	*laedĕre.*

So also *allīdo*, *illīdo*, and *collīdo*.

Claudo (close),	*clausi*,	*clausum*,	*claudĕre.*

So also *includo*, *excludo*, *concludo*, *inclūsi*, *inclūsum*, &c.

Plaudo (applaud),	*plausi*,	*plausum*,	*plaudĕre.*

So also *explodo*, *explosi*, *explosum*; *complodo* and *supplodo*.

Cēdo (give way),	*cessi* (for *cedsi*),	*cessum* (for *cedsum*),	*cedĕre.*
Mitto (send),	*mīsi.*	*missum*,	*mittĕre.*

NOTE 1.—The following make the perfect in *si*, though the radical vowel is short:—

Divĭdo (divide),	*divīsi*,	*divīsum*,	*divĭdĕre.*
Quătio (shake),	———	*quassum* (for *quatsum*),	*quătĕre.*

The compound *concŭtio* makes *concussi*, *concussum*, *concutĕre.*

NOTE 2.—The following make the perfect in *i*, though their radical vowel is long:—

Cādo (forge),	*cūdi*,	*cūsum*,	*cudĕre.*
Sīdo (sit down),	*sīdi*,	*sessum*,	*sidĕre.*
Verto (turn),	*verti*,	*versum*,	*vertĕre.*

3. The following verbs with stems ending in a dental have reduplicated perfects:—

Cădo (fall),	*cĕcĭdī*,	*cāsum*,	*cădĕre.*

So also the compound *occĭdo* (perish), *occĭdi*, *occāsum*, *occidĕre.*

Caedo (cut down),	*cĕcīdi*,	*caesum*,	*caedĕre.*

So also *occīdo* (kill), *occīdi*, *occīsum.*

Tendo (stretch),	*tetendi*,	*tensum* also *tentum*,	*tendĕre.*

So also the compounds *ostendo*, *extendo*, *protendo*, &c.

Pendo (hang),	*pĕpendi*,	*pensum*,	*pendĕre.*
Tundo (pound),	*tŭtŭdi* or *tŭdi*,	*tunsum* or *tūsum*,	*tundĕre.*
Findo (split),	*fĭdi*,	*fissum*,	*findĕre.*
Scindo (split),	*scĭdi*,	*scissum*,	*scindĕre.*

NOTE.—The last two verbs throw off the reduplication, and retain the short radical vowel.

§ 96. *Verbs with Stems ending in a Liquid*, l, m, n, r.

1. Liquid verbs of the third conjugation generally form the perfect in *i*, and the supine partly in *tum* and partly in *sum*:—

Emo (buy, take),	*ēmi*,	*emtum*,	*ēmĕre.*

So also the compounds *cŏĕmo* and *redĭmo*. But the contracted forms *cōmo, dēmo, sūmo, prōmo*, take *si* in the perfect, and generally insert a *p* before *s* and *t*, as:

Cōmo (comb),	*compsi*,	*comptum*,	*comĕre.*
Dēmo (take away),	*dempsi*,	*demptum*,	*demĕre.*
Sūmo (take),	*sumpsi*,	*sumptum* (*sumtum*),	*sumĕre.*
Prōmo (take out),	*prompsi*,	*promptum* (*promtum*,	*promĕre.*

The same is the case with the stem *tem*, as *contemno* (despise), *contempsi* or *contemsi*, *contemptum* or *contemtum*, *contemnĕre.*

Verro (sweep),	*verri*,	(*versum*),	*verrĕre.*
Sallo (salt),	(*salli*),	*salsum*,	*sallĕre.*
Vello (pull),	*velli* (*vulsi*),	*vulsum*,	*vellĕre.*

The following have reduplicated perfects:—

Cănо (sing),	*cĕcĭni*,	*cantum*,	*cănĕre.*
Fallo (deceive),	*fĕfelli*,	*falsum*,	*fallĕre.*
Pello (expel),	*pĕpŭli*,	*pulsum*,	*pellĕre.*
Curro (run),	*cŭcurri*,	*cursum*,	*currĕre.*
Părio (bring forth),	*pĕpĕri*,	*partum*,	*parĕre.*

NOTE 1.—*Compĕrio* (experience) and *rĕperio* (I find) drop the reduplication: *compĕri, rĕperi*, and follow the fourth conjugation. *Percello* (strike down) has *percŭli, perculsum.*

NOTE 2.—In stems ending in *r* with a long radical vowel, the *r* represents *s*, which reappears in the perfect and supine, as in—

Uro (burn),	*ussi*,	*ustum*,	*urĕre*; so also *combūro.*
Gĕro (carry),	*gessi*,	*gestum*,	*gĕrĕre*, although its vowel is short.

§ 97. *Verbs with Stems ending in* S.

Many of these, when the *s* is preceded by a vowel, change the *s* into *r*, as is seen above; but the following retain the *s*:—

Vīso (visit),	*vīsi*,	——	*visĕre.*
Pinso (pound),	*pinsi, pinsui*,	*pinsitum, pinsum*,	*pinsĕre.*
Depso (knead),	*depsui*,	*depstum, depsitum*,	*depsĕre.*
Texo (weave),	*texui*,	*textum*,	*texĕre.*
Pōno (stem *pos*, place),	*pŏsui*,	*pŏsĭtum*,	*pōnĕre.*

Most of these form the perfect tenses after the second conjugation.

§ 98. Verbs with stems ending in *u* (*v*) form their perfect in *i*, and the supine in *tum*, whether the *u* (*v*) is preceded by a vowel or by a consonant; but in the former case the *u* coalesces with the preceding vowel into one long vowel, *ō* or *ū*:—

Acuo (sharpen),	*ăcui*,	*ăcūtum*,	*ăcuĕre.*
Arguo (prove),	*argui*,	*argūtum*,	*arguĕre.*
Delĭbuo (anoint),	*delĭbui*,	*delĭbūtum*,	*delibuĕre.*
Exuo (put off),	*exui*,	*exūtum*,	*exuĕre.*
Induo (put on),	*indui*,	*indūtum*,	*induĕre.*
Imbuo (soak),	*imbui*,	*imbūtum*,	*imbuĕre.*
Mĭnuo (lessen),	*mĭnui*,	*mĭnūtum*,	*minuĕre.*
Stătuo (set up),	*stătui*,	*stătūtum*,	*statuĕre.*
Suo (sew),	*sui*,	*sūtum*,	*suĕre.*
Trĭbuo (attribute),	*trĭbui*,	*trĭbūtum*,	*tribuĕre.*
Luo, abluo (cleanse),	*ablui*,	*ablūtum*,	*abluĕre.*
Congruo (agree),	*congrui*,	——	*congruĕre.*
Mĕtuo (fear),	*mĕtui*,	——	*mĕtuĕre.*
Adnuo, annuo (assent),	*adnui*,	——	*adnuĕre.*
Spuo (spit),	*spui*,	——	*spuĕre.*
Sternuo (sneeze),	*sternui*,	——	*sternuĕre.*
Pluo (rain),	*plui* or *pluvi*,	——	*pluĕre.*
Ruo (rush),	*rui*,	*rŭtum*,	*ruĕre.*
Lăvo (wash),	*lăvi*,	*lautum* (*lōtum*),	(*lavĕre*), comp. §90, 3.
Solvo (loosen),	*solvi*,	*solūtum*,	*solvĕre.*
Volvo (roll),	*volvi*,	*volūtum*,	*volvĕre.*

§ 99. Verbs ending in the present in *sco* are mostly inchoatives, that is, they denote the beginning of a state or action. Some of them form their perfect tenses according to the second conjugation, and others according to the fourth. When they are derived from verbs they take the perfect and supine from the simple verbs, as :

Abŏlesco (from *aboleo*),	*abŏlēvi*,	*abŏlĭtum*,	*abŏlescĕre.*
Coălesco (from *ălo*),	*coălui*,	*coălĭtum*,	*coălescĕre.*
Obdormisco (from *dormio*),	*obdormīvi*,	*obdormītum*,	*obdormiscĕre.*
Scisco (from *scio*),	*scīvi*,	*scītum*,	*sciscĕre.*

When they are derived from nouns they form the perfect, if they have one, in *ui*, but have no supine, as :

Consĕnesco (from *senex*),	*consĕnui*,	——	*consĕnescĕre.*
Ingrăvesco (from *gravis*),	——	——	*ingrăvescĕre.*
Jŭvĕnesco (from *juvenis*),	——	——	*jurĕnescĕre.*
Mātūresco (from *maturus*),	*mātūrui*,	——	*mātūrescĕre.*

The following verbs in *sco* are regarded as simple verbs, the older forms from which they are derived being no longer in use :—

Cresco (grow),	*crēvi*,	*crētum*,	*crescĕre.*
Glisco (swell),	——	——	*glisĕre.*
Hisco (from *hio*, gape),	——	——	*hiscĕre.*
Nosco (come to know),	*nōvi*,	*nōtum*,	*noscĕre.*

Pasco (feed),	*pāvi*,	*pastum*,	*pascĕre.*
Quiesco (rest),	*quiēvi*,	*quiētum*,	*quiescĕre.*
Suesco (become accustomed),	*suēvi*,	*suētum*,	*suescĕre.*

NOTE.—The perfect *nōvi* has the meaning of a present, "I know." In compounds, as *cognosco, agnosco*, the supine is *cognĭtum, agnĭtum.*

CHAPTER XXVI.

VERBS OF THE FOURTH CONJUGATION.

§ 100. Most verbs of the fourth conjugation form their perfect and supine by adding the suffixes *vi* and *tum* to the stem, as in the case of *audio;* but some form their perfect according to the third or second conjugation, as:

Farcio (cram), *farsi*, *fartum* or *farctum*, *farcīre.*

In compounds the *a* becomes *e*, as *confercio, refercio; confersi, confertum.*

Fulcio (prop),	*fulsi*,	*fultum*,	*fulcīre.*
Haurio (pump),	*hausi*,	*haustum*,	*haurīre.*
Sancio (ratify),	*sanxi*,	*sancītum* or *sanctum*,	*sancīre.*
Sarcio (patch),	*sarsi*,	*sartum*,	*sarcīre.*
Sentio (feel),	*sensi*,	*sensum*,	*sentīre.*
Saepio (fence in),	*saepsi*,	*saeptum*,	*saepīre.*
Vincio (bind),	*vinxi*,	*vinctum*,	*vincīre.*
Sălio (leap),	*salui* or *salii*,	*saltum*,	*salīre.*
Sĕpĕlio (bury),	*sĕpĕlīvi*,	*sĕpultum*,	*sĕpĕlīre.*
Vĕnio (come),	*vēni*,	*ventum*,	*vĕnīre.*
Amĭcio (clothe),	*ămicui* or *ămixi*,	*ămictum*,	*ămĭcīre.*
Apĕrio (open),	*ăpĕrui*,	*ăpertum*,	*ăpĕrīre.*
Opĕrio (cover),	*ŏpĕrui*,	*ŏpertum*,	*ŏpĕrīre.*
Eo (go).	*īvi*,	*ītum*,	*īre.*

NOTE.—The compounds of *salio* change the *a* into *i*, and in the supine into *u*, as: *desilio, desilui, desultum; transsilio, transsilui, transsultum.*

CHAPTER XXVII.

DEPONENT VERBS.

§ 101. 1. The deponents of the first conjugation are all conjugated regularly like *hortor.* But there are some belonging to the second conjugation which deviate from the normal form, as:

Fateor (confess),	*fassus sum,*	*fatēri.*

The compounds *confiteor*, *profiteor*, have *confessus* and *professus sum.*

Miserĕor (pity),	*miserĭtus* or *misertus sum,*	*miserērī.*
Reor (think),	*rătus sum,*	*rēri.*

2. There are many deponents of the third conjugation, which form their perfects apparently in an anomalous manner:

Fruor (enjoy),	*fructus* or *fruitus sum,*	*frui.*

Future participle *fruiturus.*

Fungor (perform),	*functus sum,*	*fungi.*
Grădior (step),	*gressus sum,*	*grădi.*

Compounds change the *a* into *e*, as *aggredior*, *congredior*; *aggressus* and *congressus sum.*

Lăbor (slip),	*lapsus sum,*	*labi.*
Līquor (melt),	(*liquefactus sum*),	*līqui.*
Lŏquor (speak),	*lŏcūtus sum,*	*lŏqui.*
Mŏrior (die),	*mortuus sum,*	*mŏri.*

Future participle *mŏrĭturus.*

Nītor (strain),	*nixus* or *nīsus sum,*	*nīti.*
Pătior (suffer),	*passus sum,*	*păti.*

But *perpetior*, *perpessus sum.*

Quĕror (complain),	*questus sum,*	*quĕri.*
Ringor (snarl),	———	*ringi.*
Sĕquor (follow),	*sĕcūtus sum,*	*sĕqui.*
Utor (use),	*ūsus sum,*	*ūti.*
Rĕvertor (return),	(*rĕversus sum*),	*rĕverti.*
Amplector (embrace),	*amplexus sum,*	*amplecti.*
Complector (embrace),	*complexus sum,*	*complecti.*
Apiscor (obtain, stem *ap*),	*aptus sum,*	*apisci.*
Adĭpiscor (obtain, stem *ap*),	*ădeptus sum,*	*ădĭpisci.*
Comminiscor (devise),	*commentus sum,*	*commīnisci.*
Rĕmĭniscor (remember),	———	*rĕmĭnisci.*
Dēfĕtiscor (grow weary),	*dēfessus sum,*	*dēfĕtisci.*
Expergiscor (wake up),	*experrectus sum,*	*expergisci.*
Irascor (am angry),	(*īratus sum*),	*īrasci.*
Nanciscor (obtain),	*nactus sum,*	*nancisci.*
Nascor (am born),	*nātus sum,*	*nasci.*
Obliviscor (forget),	*oblītus sum,*	*oblivisci.*
Păciscor (make an agreement),	*pactus sum* (*pepigi*),	*păcisci.*
Prŏfĭciscor (set out),	*prŏfectus sum,*	*prŏfĭcisci.*
Ulciscor (avenge),	*ultus sum,*	*ulcisci.*
Vescor (eat),	———	*vesci.*

3. There are a few deponents of the fourth conjugation, which form their perfect according to the third conjugation.

Assentior (assent),	*assensus sum*,	*assentīri.*
Expĕrior (try),	*expertus sum*,	*experīri.*
Oppĕrior (wait for),	*oppertus* or *oppĕrītus sum*,	*oppĕrīri.*
Mĕtior (measure),	*mensus sum*,	*mĕtīri.*
Ordior (begin),	*orsus sum*,	*ordīri.*
Orior (arise),	*ortus sum*,	*ŏrīri.*

Future participle, *orĭturus.*

NOTE.—*Orior* in the present follows the third conjugation, as *oreris, oritur, orimur*, &c.; but in the imperfect subjunctive we may either use *orĕrer* or *orīrer*. The same is the case with the compounds *oborior, coörior*, and *exorior.*

CHAPTER XXVIII.

IRREGULAR AND DEFECTIVE VERBS

§ 102. This class comprises those verbs which form their perfect and supine in an unusual way, and also differ from other verbs in the manner in which the terminations are added to the stem. Most of their irregularities, however, arise from euphonic changes, syncope, and contraction, or from the fact that different tenses of one verb are formed from different stems, as in the case of *sum* and *fero.*

There are eleven irregular verbs—*sum, possum, edo, fero, volo, nolo, malo, eo, queo, nequeo*, and *fio*, to which their derivatives and compounds must be added: but these are conjugated like the simple verbs.

As to *sum*, see § 77.

§ 103. *Possum* (I am able, or I can) is a compound of *pot* (from *potis, pote*, able) and *sum*, the *t* before *s* being assimilated to *s*, but reappearing wherever a tense of *sum* begins with a vowel; in theperfect tenses, the *f* (of *fui*, &c.) is thrown out.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Sing. **Pos-sum**, I am able, I can.	**Pos-sim**, I am able, or may be able.
Pŏt-ĕs, thou art able or canst.	**Pos-sīs.**
Pŏt-est, he is able or can.	**Pos-sĭt.**
Plur. **Pos-sŭmŭs**, we are able.	**Pos-sīmŭs.**
Pŏt-estĭs, you are able.	**Pos-sītĭs.**
Pos-sunt, they are able.	**Pos-sint.**
Imperfect.	
Sing. **Pŏt-ĕram**, I was able, or I could.	**Pos-sem**, I was, or should be, able.
Pŏt-ĕrās, thou wast able.	**Pos-sēs.**
Pŏt-ĕrăt, he was able.	**Pos-sĕt.**
Plur. **Pŏt-ĕrāmŭs**, we were able.	**Pos-sēmŭs.**
Pŏt-ĕrātĭs, you were able.	**Pos-sētĭs.**
Pŏt-ĕrant, they were able.	**Pos-sent.**
Future.	
Sing. **Pŏt-ĕro**, I shall be able.	
Pot-ĕrĭs, thou wilt be able.	
Pot-ĕrĭt, he will be able.	
Plur. **Pot-ĕrĭmus**, we shall be able.	None
Pot-ĕrĭtis, you will be able.	
Pot-ĕrunt, they will be able.	

Indicative.	Subjunctive.
Perfect.	
Sing. Pŏt-ui, I was able, or have been able.	Pŏt-uĕrim, I have been, or may have been able.
Pot-uistī.	Pot-uĕris.
Pot-uit.	Pot-uĕrit.
Plur. Pot-uĭmus.	Pot-uĕrĭmus.
Pot-uistis.	Pot-uĕrītis.
Pot-uērunt, or ēre.	Pot-uĕrint.
Pluperfect.	
Sing. Pŏt-uĕram, I had been able.	Pŏt-uissem, I might have been able.
Pot-uĕrās.	Pot-uissēs.
Pot-uĕrăt.	Pot-uissĕt.
Plur. Pot-uĕrāmus.	Pot-uissēmus.
Pot-uĕrātis.	Pot-uissētis.
Pot-uĕrant.	Pot-uissent.
Future Perfect.	
Sing. Pŏt-uĕro, I shall have been able.	None.
Pot-uĕris.	
Pot-uĕrit.	
Plur. Pot-uĕrĭmus.	
Pot-uĕrītis.	
Pot-uĕrint.	

Infinitive.

Present, Pos-sĕ, to be able.
Perfect, Pŏt-uissĕ, to have been able.

Participles.

Pŏtens is used only as an adjective = "powerful."
The imperative does not exist.

§ 104. *Edo* (I eat) may be conjugated regularly after the third conjugation, perfect *ēdī*, supine *ēsum*, infinitive *ĕdĕre;* but several of its forms by syncope become like the corresponding tenses of the verb *sum*. The following are the cases in which this resemblance occurs :—

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE
Present.	*Imperfect.*
Sing. **Ĕdis** or **ēs, ĕdit** or **est.**	**Ĕdĕrem** or **ēssem, ĕderes** or **ēsses, ĕderet** or **ēsset.**
Plur. **Ĕdĭtis** or **ēstis.**	**Ĕderēmus** or **ēssēmus, ĕderētis** or **ēssetis, ĕderent** or **ēssent.**

IMPERATIVE.

Present.	*Future.*
Sing. **Ĕdĕ** or **ēs.**	**Ĕdĭto** or **ēsto.**
Plur. **Edīte** or **ēste.**	**Edito** or **ēsto, ĕditote** or **ēstote.**

INFINITIVE.

Eděre or **ēsse.**

In the passive the syncope takes place in *ĕditur, ēstur,* and *ĕderetur, ēssetur.*

The same syncope occurs in the compounds of *edo,* as : *comedo, comedis* = *comēs, comedit* = *comēst, comedĕre* = *comēsse,* &c.

§ 105. The verb *fĕro* (I bring or bear) takes its perfect *tŭli* and its supine *lātum* from *tollo.* The imperfect tenses often omit the connecting vowel between the stem and the termination.

Active Voice.

Indicative.	Subjunctive.
Present.	
Sing. Fĕr-o, fer-s, fer-t, I bear, &c.	Fĕr-am, fĕr-ās, fĕr-ăt.
Plur. Fĕr-ĭmus, fer-tis, fĕr-u-nt.	Fĕr-āmus, fĕr-ātis, fĕr-ant.
Imperfect.	
Sing. Fĕr-ēbam, fer-ēbas, fer-ēbat.	Fer-em, fer-rēs, fer-rĕt.
Plur. Fer-ēbamus, fer-ēbatis, fer-ēbant.	Fer-rēmus, fer-rētis, fer-rent.
Future.	
Sing. Fĕr-am, fĕr-ēs, fĕr-ĕt.	
Plur. Fĕr-ēmus, fĕr-ētis, fĕr-ent.	None.
Perfect.	
Sing. Tŭl-ī, tŭl-istī, tŭl-ĭt.	Tŭl-ĕrim, tŭl-ĕrĭs, tŭl-ĕrĭt.
Plur. Tŭl-ĭmus, tŭl-istis, tŭl-ērunt or ērĕ.	Tŭl-ĕrĭmus, tŭl-ĕrĭtis, tŭl-ĕrint.
Pluperfect.	
Sing. Tŭl-ĕram, ĕrās, ĕrăt.	Tŭl-issem, issēs, issĕt.
Plur. Tŭl-ĕrāmus, ĕrātis, ĕrant.	Tŭl-issēmus, issētis, issent.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Future Perfect.	
Sing. Tŭl-ĕro, ĕris, ĕrit.	None.
Plur. Tŭl-ĕrĭmus, ĕrĭtis, ĕrint.	

IMPERATIVE.

Present.	*Future.*
Sing. Fĕr.	Fer-to.
	Fer-to.
Plur. Fer-tĕ.	Fer-tōte.
	Fĕr-unto.

INFINITIVE.

Present, Fer-rĕ.
Perfect, Tŭl-issĕ.
Future, Lā-tūrum (am, um) esse.

GERUND.

Fĕr-endi, fĕr-endo, fĕr-endum.

SUPINE.

Lā-tum and lā-tū.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Fĕr-ens. *Future*, Lā-tūrus, a, um.

Passive Voice.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Sing. Fĕr-or, fer-ris, fer-tur, I am borne, &c.	Fĕr-ar, āris, ātur.
Plur. Fĕr-ĭmur, fĕr-ĭmĭnī, fĕr-untur.	Fĕr-āmur, āmĭnī, antur.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Imperfect.	
Sing. Fĕr-ébar, ēbāris (or bārĕ), ēbātur.	Fer-rēr, fer-rēris (or rērĕ), fer-rētur.
Plur. Fĕr-ēbāmur, ēbāmĭnī, ēbantur.	Fer-rēmur, fer-rēmĭnī, fer-rentur.
Future.	
Sing. Fĕr-ar, ēris, ētur.	
Plur. Fĕr-ēmur, ēmĭnī, entur.	None.
Perfect.	
Sing. Lā-tus (a, um) sum, es, est.	Lā-tus (a, um) sim, sis, sit.
Plur. Lā-ti (ae, a) sumus, estis, sunt.	Lā-ti (ae, a) simus, sitis, sint.
Pluperfect.	
Sing. Lā-tus (a, um) eram, eras, erat.	Lā-tus (a, um) essem, &c.
Plur. Lā-ti (ae, a) eramus, eratis, erant.	Lā-ti (ae, a) essemus, &c.
Future Perfect.	
Sing. Lā-tus (a, um) ero, &c.	None.
Plur. Lā-ti (ae, a) erimus, &c.	

IMPERATIVE.

Present.	*Future.*
Sing. Fer- [illegible]	Fer-tor. Fer-tor.
Plur. Fĕr-[illegible]	Fĕr-untor.

INFINITIVE.

Present, Fer-rī.
Perfect, Lā-tum (am, um) esse.
Future, Lā-tum īrī.

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect, Lā-tus, a, um.
Gerundive, Fĕr-endus, a, um.

NOTE.—All the compounds of *fero* are conjugated like the simple verb, as: *affero* (from *ad* and *fero*), *attŭli, allātum*, or *allātum; auferō* (from *ab* and *fero*), *abstŭli, ablātum, auferre; offero* (from *ob* and *fero*), *obtŭli. oblatum; sufferō* (from *sub* and *fero*), *sustŭli, sublatum* (used as the perfect and supine of the verb *tollo*); *differo* (from *dis* and *fero*), *distŭli, dilatum; defero, detŭli, delatum; circumfero, circumtŭli, circumlatum; transfero, transtŭli, translatum.*

§ 107. *Vŏlo* (I will) is a simple verb, but *nōlo* (I will not) is compounded of *ne* and *vŏlo;* and *mālo* (I will rather) of *māgis* or *măje* and *vŏlo.* They are irregular only in the imperfect tenses.

INDICATIVE.

Present.

Sing.	Vŏlo, I will.	Nōl-o, I will not.	Māl-o, I will rather.
	Vīs.	Non vis.	Māvīs.
	Vul-t.	Non vul-t.	Māvul-t.
Plur.	Vŏl-ŭmus.	Nōl-ŭmus.	Māl-ŭmus.
	Vul-tis.	Non vul-tis.	Māvul-tis.
	Vŏl-unt.	Nōl-unt.	Māl-unt.

Imperfect.

Vŏl-ēbam, bas, &c. Nōl-ēbam, bas, &c. Māl-ēbam, bas, &c.

Future.

Vŏl-am, es, et, &c. Nōl-am, es, et, &c. Māl-am, es, et, &c.

Perfect.

Vŏl-ui, uisti, &c. Nōl-ui, uisti, &c. Māl-ui, uisti, &c.

Pluperfect.

Vŏl-uĕram, uĕras, &c.	Nōl-uĕram, uĕras, &c.	Māl-uĕram, uĕras, &c.

Future Perfect.

Vŏl-uĕro, uĕris, &c.	Nŏl-uĕro, uĕris, &c.	Māl-uĕro, uĕris, &c.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Present.

Sing.	Vĕl-im.	Nōl-im.	Māl-im.
	Vĕl-īs.	Nōl-īs.	Māl-īs.
	Vĕl-it.	Nōl-it.	Māl-it.
Plur.	Vĕl-īmus.	Nōl-īmus.	Māl-īmus.
	Vĕl-ītis.	Nōl-ītis.	Māl-ītis.
	Vĕl-int.	Nōl-int.	Māl-int.

Imperfect.

Vel-lem, es, et, &c.	Nol-lem, es, et, &c.	Mal-lem, es, et, &c.

Perfect.

Vŏl-uĕrim, uĕris, &c.	Nōl-uĕrim, uĕris, &c.	Māl-uĕrim, uĕris, &c.

Pluperfect.

Vōl-uissem, uisses, &c.	Nōl-uissem, uisses, &c.	Māl-uissem, uisses, &c.

IMPERATIVE.

Present, ———	Nōl-ī, nōlītĕ.	———

Future.

Sing.	Nōl-īto.	Plur.	Nōl-ītōtĕ.
	Nōl-īto.		Nōl-unto.

INFINITIVE.

Present,	Vel-lĕ.	Nol-lĕ.	Mal-lĕ.
Perfect,	Vŏl-uisse.	Nōl-uisse.	Māl-uisse.

PARTICIPLES.

Present,	Vŏl-ens.	Nōl-ens.	———

§ 108. The verb *eo* (I go) belongs to the fourth conjugation, and is almost regular. Its stem consists of a simple *ī*, which before *a*, *o*, and *u* is changed into *e*.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Sing. E-o, ī-s, ĭ-t.	E-am, e-ās, e-ăt.
Plur. I-mus, ī-tis, e-unt.	E-āmus, e-ātis, e-ant.
Imperfect.	
Sing. I-bam, ī-bās, ī-băt, &c.	I-rem, ī-rēs, i-rĕt, &c.
Future.	
Sing. I-bo, ī-bis, ī-bit, &c.	None.
Perfect.	
Sing. I-vī, ī-vistī, ī-vĭt, &c.	I-vĕrim, ī-vĕris, ī-vĕrit, &c.
Pluperfect.	
Sing. I-vĕram, ī-vĕrās, ī-vĕrăt, &c.	I-vissem, ī-vissēs, ī-vissĕt, &c.
Future Perfect.	
Sing. I-vero, ī-vĕris, ī-vĕrit, &c.	None

IMPERATIVE.

	Present.	*Future.*
Sing.	I.	I-to. I-to.
Plur.	I-te.	I-tōte. E-unto.

INFINITIVE.

Present, Irĕ.
Perfect, I-visse.
Future, I-tūrum (am, um) esse.

GERUND.

E-undi, e-undo, e-undum.

SUPINE.

I-tum, ĭtū.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, I-ens; genitive, e-untis.
Future, I-tūrus, a, um.

NOTE.—The compounds of *eo* generally throw out the *v* in the perfect, as: *abeo,* perfect *abii, abiisti,* or *abisti; redeo,* perfect *redii, rediisti,* or *redisti, redieram, rediissem,* or *redissem,* &c.

Two compounds deserve special notice—*vēneo* (I am sold), and *ambio* (I go round or about). The former, which has a passive meaning, is compounded of *vēnum* and *eo,* and is used as the passive of *vendo (venum do),* I sell. *Ambio* is conjugated regularly according to the fourth conjugation—as *ambiant, ambiam, ambībam* (also *ambibam*), *ambient* (also *ambibunt*), *ambiendum, ambiens,* genitive *ambientis.*

§ 109. The verbs *queo* (I can) and *nĕqueo* (I cannot) are both conjugated like *eo*—perfect *quīvi* and *nĕquīvi,* supine *quĭtum* and *nĕquĭtum,* infinitive *quīre* and *nĕquīre;* but neither of them has an imperative, a gerund, or a future participle.

§ 110. *Fĭo* (I become, or am made) belongs to the fourth

conjugation, and presents few irregularities, except that its perfect tenses are taken from *facio*, to which it supplies the place of a passive. Its stem is *fī*.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.	
Sing. Fī-o, fī-s, fĭ-t.	Fī-am, fī-ās, fī-ăt.
Plur. (Fī-mus), (fī-tis), fī-unt.	Fī-āmus, fī-ātis, fī-ant.
Pluperfect.	
Sing. Fī-ēbam, fī-ēbās, fī-ēbat.	Fī-ĕrem, fī-ĕres, fī-ĕret.
Plur. Fī-ēbāmus, fī-ēbātis, fī-ēbant.	Fī-ĕrēmus, fī-ĕrētis, fī-ĕrent.
Future.	
Sing. Fī-am, fī-ēs, fī-et.	None.
Plur. Fī-ēmus, fī-ētis, fī-ent.	
Perfect.	
Fac-tus (a, um) sum, es, &c.	Fac-tus (a, um) sim, sis, &c.
Pluperfect.	
Fac-tus (a, um) eram, eras, &c.	Fac-tus (a, um) essem, esses, &c.
Future Perfect.	
Fac-tus (a, um) ero, eris, &c.	None.

IMPERATIVE.

Present.	*Future.*
Sing. Fī.	None.
Plur. Fī-tĕ.	

INFINITIVE.

Present, Fī-ĕrī.
Perfect, Fac-tum (am, um) esse.
Future, Fac-tum īrī.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, None.
Perfect, Fac-tus, a, um.
Gerundive, Făc-i-endus.

NOTE.—The *ī* in *fīo* is long throughout, even when followed by another vowel; but it is short in *fĭt*, and wherever it is followed by *-er*.

§ 111. Defective verbs are those of which only certain forms occur in Latin authors. Such verbs are *coepī*, *mĕmĭnī*, *ōdī*, *nōvī*, *āio*, *inquam*, *fārī*, *cĕdo*, *quaeso*; and the imperatives, *ăvē*, *ăpăgĕ*, *salvē*, *vălē*, and *ŏvāre*.

§ 112. The verbs, *coepī* (I begin), *mĕmĭnī* (I remember), *ōdī* (I hate), *nōvī* (I know), are in reality perfects, the prescats of which are not in use, with the exception of *nōvi*, which is the perfect of *nosco* (I become acquainted). They have the meaning of a present; for *nōvi*, "I have become acquainted," is equivalent to "I know"; hence the pluperfect has the meaning of an imperfect, and the future perfect that of a simple future. They occur only in the perfect tenses; and their conjugation is quite regular.

INDICATIVE.

Perfect.

Coep-ī.	Mĕmĭn-ī.	Od-ī.	Nōv-ī.
Coep-istī.	Mĕmĭn-istī.	Od-istī.	Nōv-istī.
Coep-ĭt, &c.	Mĕmĭn-ĭt, &c.	Od-ĭt, &c.	Nōv-ĭt, &c.

Pluperfect.

Coep-ĕram,	Mĕmĭn-ĕram,	Od-ĕram.	Nōv-ĕram.

Future Perfect.

Coep-ĕro.	Mĕmĭn-ĕro.	Od-ĕro.	Nōv-ĕro.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Perfect.

Coep-ĕrim.	Mĕmĭn-ĕrim.	Od-ĕrim.	Nōv-ĕrim.

Pluperfect.

Coep-issem.	Mĕmĭn-issem.	Od-issem.	Nōv-issem.

IMPERATIVE.

Future.

Sing. ———	Mĕmen-to.	———	———
Plur. ———	Mĕmen-tōtĕ.	———	———

INFINITIVE.

Coep-isse.	Mĕmĭn-isse.	Od-isse.	Nōv-isse.

PARTICIPLES.

Perfect.

Coep-tus.	———	O-sus (hating).	———

Future.

Coep-tūrus.	———	O-sūrus.	———

NOTE.—*Coepi* has also a passive *coeptus* (*a*, *um*) *sum* which is used in connection with other passive verbs—*domus aedificari coepta est* (the building of the house was commenced).

§ 113. Of *āio* (I say, I say yes, or I affirm), only the following forms occur :—

	INDICATIVE.			SUBJUNCTIVE.		
			Present.			
Sing.	Āio,	ăĭs,	ăĭt.	——	āiās,	āiăt.
Plur	——	——	aiunt.	——	——	āiant.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Imperfect.	
Aiēbam, aiebas, aiebat, &c.	—— —— ——

Participle.

Aiens, affirming.

NOTE.—*Ait* is also used as a perfect.

§ 114. *Inquam* (I say) is very defective; the following forms only occur:—

INDICATIVE.

Present.		*Imperfect.*		
Sing. Inquam, inquĭs, inquĭt.		——	——	inquībat and inquiebat.
Plur. Inquĭmus, inquiunt.	inquĭtis,	——	——	——
Perfect.		*Future.*		
——	inquistī, inquĭt.	——	inquiēs,	inquiĕt.

IMPERATIVE.

Present.	*Future.*
Inquĕ.	Inquĭto.

NOTE.—*Inquam* is, like *ait*, used only between the words of a quotation—as *tum ille, nego, inquit, verum esse*, "he then said, I deny that it is true."

§ 115. The verb *fārī* (to speak), stem *fa*, is very defective; but some of its compounds—as *affari, effari, praefari*, and *profari*—have a few more forms, which are placed in brackets:

INDICATIVE.		SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present.		
Sing. ——	fāris, fātur.	None.
Plur. [Famur, famini] ——		

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Imperfect.	
[Fabar].	[Farer, &c.].
Future.	
Fābor [fabĕris], fābĭtur.	None.
Perfect.	
Fātus [a, um] sum, &c.	Fātus [a, um] sim, &c.
Pluperfect.	
Fātus [a, um] eram, &c.	Fātus [a, um] essem, &c.

IMPERATIVE.	INFINITIVE.	SUPINE.
Present, Fārĕ.	*Present*, Fārī.	Fātū.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, Fantis, fanti, fantem, fante (compare infans).
Perfect, Fātus, a, um.
Gerundive, Fandus, a, um.

GERUND.

Fandi, fando.

§ 116. *Cĕdo* is used only as an imperative in the sense of "give" or "tell," as: *cedo librum*, "give up the book"; *cedo quid faciam*, "tell me what I am to do."

§ 117. *Quaeso* (I pray) and *quaesŭmus* (we pray) are only different forms of *quaero* and *quaerimus*. Both *quaeso* and *quaesumus* are, like the English "pray," inserted in a sentence, as: *dic, quaeso, unde venias*, "tell me, pray, whence you come."

§ 118. The imperatives, *ăvē, ăpăgĕ, salvē, vălē*, are derived from the verbs *aveo* (I am inclined, desire), the Greek ἀπάγω

(Lat. *abigo*), *salveo* (I am safe), and *valeo* (I am well or strong).

Avē (or *hāvē*), plural *avēte*, and the future imperative *avēto* (sometimes *avēre jubeo*), signify "hail," "be greeted," or "good-day," "I am glad to see you."

Apāgĕ is used in the sense of "begone," or "be off." Sometimes the pronoun *te* is added.

Salvē, plural *salvēte*, and future *salvēto*, are used in the sense of "hail," or "be welcome."

Vălē or *vălēte* signify "farewell."

§ 119. Of *ŏvāre* (to rejoice, or celebrate an ovation), there occur only *ŏvas, ŏvat, ŏvāret, ŏvandi, ŏvātūrus, ŏvātus,* and *ŏvans.*

CHAPTER XXIX.

IMPERSONAL VERBS.

§ 120. Impersonal verbs are used only in the third person singular, and can have neither a substantive nor a substantive pronoun for their subject. They state only in a general way that something happens, as: *pluit*, it rains; *lĭcet*, it is permitted; *ŏportet*, it is necessary.

Some impersonal verbs describe the various states of the weather, as:

Pluit, it rains.
Ningit, it snows.
Grandĭnat, it hails.
Lăpĭdat or *lapidatum est*, stones fall from heaven.
Lūcescit and *illūcescit*, it dawns.
Fulgŭrat and *fulmĭnat*, it lightens.
Tŏnat, it thunders.
Vespĕrascit and *advespĕrascit*, it grows dark.

Others describe certain states of the mind, and require the person in whom the state of mind exists in the accusative:

Mĭsĕret (*me*), I pity, perfect *mĭsĕrĭtum est, mĭsertum est*, or *mĭsĕruit.*
Pĭget (*me*), I regret, perfect *piguit* or *pigĭtum est.*
Poenĭtet (*me*), I repent, perfect *poenĭtuit.*

Pŭdet (*me*), I am ashamed, perfect *puduit* or *pudĭtum est*.
Taedet (*me*), I am disgusted, perfect *pertaesum est*, and rarely *taeduit*.
Oportet (*me*), it is necessary for me, I must, perfect *oportuit*.

§ 121. The following can have no personal subject, but may have the name of a thing in its place, and are also used in the third person plural with a neuter plural for their subject :

Dĕcet (*me*), it becomes me, perfect *dĕcuit*.
Dēdĕcet (*me*), it does not become me, *dēdĕcuit*.
Lĭbet or *lŭbet* (*mihi*), I like, choose, perfect *lĭbuit* or *lĭbĭtum est*.
Lĭcet (*mihi*), I am permitted, perfect *lĭcuit*, or *lĭcĭtum est*.
Līquet, it is obvious, perfect *licuit*.

NOTE.—We may accordingly say, *hic color eum decet*, "this colour is becoming to him"; *parva parvum decent*, "small things become a small man"; *multa* or *omnia licent*, "many or all things are permitted."

§ 122. Some verbs assume in the third person singular a meaning, differing from that which they have in the other persons. They are impersonal only in a peculiar sense. The most common among them are :

Interest and *rĕfert*, it is of importance to.
Accĭdit, *ēvĕnit*, *contingit*, or *fit*, it happens.
Accēdit, it is added to, or in addition.
Attĭnet and *pertĭnet* (*ad*), it concerns or pertains to.
Condūcit, it is conducive.
Convĕnit, it suits.
Constat, it is known, or established.
Expĕdit, it is expedient.
Dēlectat and *jŭvat* (*me*), it delights me.
Fallit, *fŭgit*, and *praeterit* (*me*), it escapes me.
Plăcet, it pleases, perfect *plăcuit*, or *plăcĭtum est*.
Praestat, it is better.
Restat, it remains.
Văcat, it is wanting.
Est, in the sense of *lĭcet*, it is permitted or possible—as *est videre*.

§ 123. Intransitive verbs have an impersonal passive, indicating generally that an action takes place, without attributing it to any definite person, as : *currĭtur*, "running is going on," or "people run"; *vīvĭtur*, "people live"; *ventum est*, "people came," or "have come"; *dormītur*, "sleeping is going on," or "people sleep." So also *ventum est*, "they came"; *pugnandum est*, "it is necessary to fight"; *veniendum est*, "it is necessary to come."

CHAPTER XXX.

ADVERBS.

§ 124. Adverbs, expressing the relations of time, place, manner, degree, &c., qualify the ideas expressed by adjectives, verbs, and other adverbs. In regard to their form, they may be divided into three classes :—

1. *Primitive Adverbs*, as: *nunc*, now ; *jam*, already ; *saepe*, often ; *sātis*, enough ; to which may be added many prepositions which are used in their original sense as adverbs, as : *ante*, before, or earlier ; *post*, after, or later.

2. *Adverbs formed from adjectives* by the terminations *ē*, *ō*, and *ter*, answering to the English *ly*, as : *male*, badly , *rarō*, rarely ; *sapienter*, wisely.

(*a.*) Adjectives ending in *us* and *er* belonging to the second declension, including all superlatives, form adverbs by the termination *ē*, as : *altus* (high), *altē ; pulcher* (beautiful), *pulchre ; miser* (wretched), *misere*.

(*b.*) Adjectives of the third declension form adverbs by adding *ter* to their stem, and where the stem itself ends in *t*, this *t* is dropped, as : *sapiens* (stem *sapient*), *sapienter , fortis* (stem *forti*), *fortiter ; ferox* (stem *ferōci*), *ferociter*.

NOTE.—*Audax* makes more commonly *audacter* than *audaciter*, and *difficilis* sometimes makes *difficulter*, rarely *difficiliter* or *difficile*.

(*c.*) The neuter gender of adjectives in the comparative is also used as an adverb, as : *altius*, higher or more highly ; *pulchrius*, more beautiful or more beautifully ; *fortius*, braver or more bravely.

(*d.*) Adjectives which form their degrees of comparison irregularly, are also irregular in the formation of adverbs, as:

	ADVERBS.		
Bŏnus (good),	*bĕnĕ*,	*mĕlius*,	*optime*.
Mălus (bad),	*mălĕ*,	*pējus*,	*pessime*.
Multus (much),	*multum*,	*plūs*,	*plūrimum*.
Magnus (great),	*magnōpĕrĕ*,	*măgis*,	*maxime*.
Parvus (little),	(*parum*),	*mĭnus*.	*mĭnime* and *minimum*.

(*e.*) Adverbs formed from adjectives have, of course, their degrees of comparison; but besides them the following also are compared:—

Diū (long),	*diūtius*,	*diūtissime.*
Sātis (enough),	*satius*,	——
Nūper (lately),	——	*nūperrime.*
Saepe (often),	*saepius*,	*saepissime.*
Sĕcus (otherwise),	*sēcius*,	——
Tempĕri (i.e., *tempŏri*, otherwise),	*tempĕrius*,	——

3. Adverbs which are originally cases (ablative and accusative) of nouns, as: *gratis* (for thanks, that is, for nothing, gratis); *diū* (long), an old ablative of *dies; noctu* (by night), from an obsolete *noctus* = *nox; continuo*, continuously; *subito*, suddenly; *hic*, here; *hinc*, hence; *huc*, hither; *ibi* (here), from *is, ea, id; ubi* (where), for *cubi*, from *qui* or *quis*.

NOTE 1.—Most adverbs are in reality ablatives, and many adjectives in the ablative of the neuter gender are used as adverbs, like *continuo*. Some have two forms with different meanings as: *primo*, at first, but *primum* for the first time; *certe*, at all events, *certo*, certainly; *vere*, truly, *vero*, in truth; *summe*, in the highest degree, *summum*, at most.

NOTE 2.—Some adjectives in *us* form adverbs both in *ē* and in *ter* without difference of meaning, as: *durus* (hard), *dure* and *duriter; firmus* (strong), *firme* and *firmiter; largus* (copious), *large* and *largiter; navus* or *gnavus* has only *naviter, gnaviter*.

NOTE 3.—The accusative is often used adverbially. This is always the case—

(*a.*) In the neuter of the comparative. See above, No. 2, (*c*).

(*b.*) In the positive of adjectives expressing number or measure, as: *multum, tantum, quantum, paulum, ceterum, solum, plerumque, plurimum, potissimum; facilĕ, impunĕ, sublimĕ*.

(*c.*) Feminine accusatives: *bifariam*, in two parts; *perperam*, wrongly; *palam*, openly; *aliās*, at another time; *foras*, abroad.

(*d.*) Several adverbs ending in *im, tim*, and *sim*, must likewise be regarded as old forms of the accusative, as: *partim*, partly; *furtim*, stealthily; *raptim*, hurriedly; *nominatim*, by name; *privatim*, privately; *paulatim*, gradually; *confestim*, immediately; *viritim*, man for man; *cursim*, in a running manner; *passim*, in all directions; *sensim*, slowly.

NOTE 4.—There are yet several other forms of adverbs, some ending in *us*, as: *cominus*, near at hand; *eminus*, at a distance; others in *ītus*, as: *caelitus*, from heaven; *divinitus*, from the gods; *funditus*, from the ground, utterly; *rādicitus*, from the root; *penitus*, thoroughly. Some, lastly, are compound words, as: *magnopere*, greatly; *quotidie* or *cotidie*, daily; *quotannis*, every year; *quemadmodum*, in what manner; *forsitan*, perhaps; *scilicet*, to wit or namely; *nimirum*, no wonder, without doubt.

CHAPTER XXXI.

PREPOSITIONS.

§ 125. Prepositions are originally adverbs, and many are still often used as such. They all express originally local relations—that is, they express either rest in a place, or motion to a place, or motion from a place. But in a more extended sense they also express relations of cause and time. All these relations are expressed in Latin by two cases, the accusative and the ablative, and hence only these two cases are accompanied by, or, as it is usually said, are governed by prepositions.

§ 126. The following prepositions always govern the accusative :—

Ad, to or near.
Adversus or *adversum*, opposite, against.
Ante, before.
Apud, by or near.
Circa or *circum*, around.
Circĭter, about.
Cis or *citra*, on this side of.
Contrā, against.
Ergā, towards.
Extrā, outside of.
Infrā, below.
Inter, between, among.
Intrā, within.
Juxta, close by.
Ob, on account of.
Pĕnes, in the power of.
Per, through.
Pōnĕ, behind.
Post, after.
Praeter, besides.
Prŏpĕ, near.
Propter, on account of.
Secundum, according to.
Suprā, above.
Trans, across.
Ultrā, on the other side of.
Versus or *versum*, towards.

NOTE 1.—The final consonant of a preposition, when compounded with other words, frequently undergoes certain changes for the sake of euphony. The most common change consists in the assimilation of the final consonant to the initial consonant of the following word: *alloquor* for *adloquor*, *attribuo* for *adtribuo*, *affigo* for *adfigo*, *annuo* for *adnuo*. *Inter* and *per* undergo this assimilation only in *intelligo* and *pellicio* and their derivatives. *Ob* assimilates its *b* only to *c*, *f*, *g*, and *p*, as: *occurro*, *offero*, *oggĕro*, *oppono*. *Trans* is frequently shortened into *tra*, as: *trajicio*, *traduco*.

NOTE 2.—Prepositions generally stand before the case they govern, but

versus is always placed after its accusative, as: *portam versus*, towards the gate; *Brundisium versus*, towards Brundisium.

§ 127. The following prepositions always govern the ablative:—

A, *ab*, or *abs*, by, from.
Absque, without.
Cōram, in the presence of.
Cum, with.
Dē, down from, about.
E or *ex*, out of.
Prae, before.
Prō, before, in front, or in defence of.
Sĭnĕ, without.
Tĕnus, as far as

NOTE 1.—*Ab* is used before vowels and *h*; before consonants we find both *a* and *ab*. *Abs* occurs rarely except in the expression *abs te*. In composition *ab* is sometimes changed into *au* (*av*), as: *aufero*, *aufugio*. *Abs* is used in composition before *c* and *t*, as: *abscondo*, *abstineo*.

NOTE 2.—*Cum*, when joined to personal pronouns, is put after the pronoun with which it coalesces into one word, as: *mecum*, *tecum*, *secum*, *nobiscum*, *vobiscum*. The same is very often the case with relative pronouns, as: *quacum*, *quocum*, *quibuscum*. In composition *cum* is often changed into *com*, as: *compono*, *committo*. Before *l*, *n*, and *r* the *m* assimilates itself to them, as: *colligo*, *connivco*, *corrigo*. Before other consonants the *m* is changed into *n*, as: *conjungo*, *confero*, *contuli*, and before vowels it is dropped, as: *coactus*, *coco*, *coitus*; so also in *cohaereo*.

NOTE 2.—*Ex* is used before vowels and *h*; before consonants we find both *ex* and *e*. *Tĕnŭs* is always put after its ablative, as, *mento tenus*, up to the chin.

§ 128. The following prepositions govern the ablative when they express being or rest in a place, and the accusative when they express motion towards a place:—

In, in, into, or against.
Sub, under.
Sŭper, over.
Subter, under.
Clam, without the knowledge of.

NOTE 1.—*In* changes its *n* into *m* before *b*, *p*, and *m*, as: *imbuo*, *impedio*, *immineo*; before *l* and *r* it is assimilated, as: *illudo*, *irrideo*; before other consonants it remains unchanged.

NOTE 2.—*Sub* in composition assimilates its *b* to *c*, *f*, *g*, *m*, and *p*, as: *succumbo*, *suffectus*, *suggero*, *summoveo*, *suppono*, also in *surripio*. *Super* and *subter* usually take the accusative, even when they express rest, or being over or under a thing.

§ 129. The prepositions (or adverbs), *amb* (around), *dis* or *di* (in different directions), *rĕ* or *rĕd* (back), and *sē* or *sēd* (aside), are never used by themselves, but occur only in composition.

NOTE.—*Amb* (compare *ambo*), on both sides, around, drops the *b* before *p*, as: *amplector, amputo;* before gutturals and *f* it becomes *n*, as: *anceps* (two-headed, doubtful), *anquiro* (I search all around), *anfractus* (a bending round).

Dis before *f* assimilates its *s* to it, as: *diffido, diffundo.*

The original form of *re* is *red*, and the *d* is retained when the word with which it is compounded begins with a vowel, as: *redeo, redimo.* The same is the case with *se* and *sed*, as: *seduco, securus*, but *seditio.*

CHAPTER XXXII.

CONJUNCTIONS.

§ 130. Conjunctions are words serving to connect words and clauses or sentences, and to show the relations in which they stand to one another. In form they are either simple, as: *et*, and; *sed*, but; *vel*, or; *nam*, for; *ut*, that; or they are compounds, as: *atque*, and yet; *quamvis*, although; *postquam*, after; *quamquam*, although. In regard to their meaning, they may be divided into a number of classes:—

1. **Copulative** or **Connective Conjunctions**, by which words or clauses are simply placed in juxtaposition with each other, as it were, on a footing of equality, as: *et, atque, ac*, and *que* (and); *aut, vel, ve* (or); *neque, nec, neve, neu* (neither or nor); *sive, seu* (or if); *etiam, quoque, necnon* (also).

NOTE.—*Que* and *ve* are always appended to the word which is connected with another, as: *senatus populusque*, the senate and the people; *plus minusve*, more or less. *Ve* is only a shortened form for *vel*. *Ac* is only a shortened form for *atque*, and *neu* and *seu* for *neve* and *sive.*

2. **Adversative Conjunctions**, answering more or less to the English "but," as: *sed, autem, at, ast* (but); *atque* (and yet); *tamen, attamen* (yet, but yet); *verum, vero, enimvero* (but indeed); *ceterum* (however); *quamquam* (however).

3. **Conditional Conjunctions**, answering more or less to the English "if," as: *si* (if); *nĭsi* or *nī* (if not); *sin* (but if), *dum modo, dummodo* (if only, provided that); *dummodo ne* (if only not); *quodsi* (if then).

4. **Concessive Conjunctions**, as: *etsi, etiamsi, tametsi, licet, quamquam, quamvis* (although); *quum* (although); *ut* (granting that); *quidem* (indeed).

5. **Causal Conjunctions**, as: *quum* (as, since); *quod, qui, quoniam*

(because); *quandoquidem* (seeing that); *nam, namque, enim, etenim* (for).

6. Final Conjunctions, expressing a purpose or intention, as: *ut, uti, quo* (in order that, or that thereby); *quin, quominus* (that not); *ne, neve, neu* (that not, lest).
7. Temporal Conjunctions: *quum, ut, ubi* (when); *antequam, priusquam* (before); *postquam* (after); *simulac* or *simulatque* (as soon as); *donec, dum, quoad* (until).
8. Conclusive Conjunctions, as: *ergo, igitur, itaque, ideo, idcirco* (therefore, accordingly); *quocirca, quare, quapropter, quamobrem* (wherefore); *unde* (whence, wherefore).

NOTE.—The special uses of all these conjunctions and the influence they exercise upon the construction of sentences will be explained in the Syntax.

CHAPTER XXXIII.

INTERJECTIONS.

§ 131. The Interjections scarcely deserve to be called a part of speech; they are mostly mere sounds or cries expressive of some mental emotion, of joy, grief, wonder, surprise, and the like, as:

1. Cries of joy: *īo, ha, ēvoe, eu, euge*, &c.
2. Cries of grief: *ah, heu, eheu, hei, vae*, &c.
3. Cries of wonder and surprise: *ō, en, eccĕ, pāpae, ătat*, &c.
4. Cries of disgust: *phuī, ăpăgĕ, hui, vah, vae*, &c.

To these may be added the oaths *mehercle, hercle, pol, ēdĕpol, mĕdius fĭdius*, and a number of other exclamations, such as *pax*, be still; *infandum*, for shame; *belle*, well done, &c.

PART II.—SYNTAX.

CHAPTER XXXIV.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE—ATTRIBUTE—APPOSITION—RELATIVE PRONOUN.

§ 132. Syntax teaches us in what manner we have to apply words and their different forms so as to produce sentences.

The simplest sentence consists of a **subject** and **predicate**—that is, of a person or thing spoken of, and that which is said (predicated) of it, as:

Aqua fluit.	The water flows.
Equus currit.	The horse runs.

The subject is in the nominative case, and may be a substantive, a personal pronoun, or any word or combination of words which supply the place of a substantive, as:

Equus *currit.*	The horse runs.
Ego *scribo.*	I write.
Sapientes *docent.*	Wise men teach.
Bona *appetuntur.*	Good things are desired.
Errare *humanum est.*	To err is human.
Qui hoc fecerit *punietur.*	Whoever has done this will be punished.
Pro patria mori *honestum est.*	To die for one's country is honourable.

NOTE.—In Latin the subject is frequently not expressed where in English we use a personal pronoun, the pronoun being contained in the ending of the verb, so that a sentence may consist of a single word, as: *dormit*, he sleeps or is asleep; *currunt*, they run. The personal pronoun however must be expressed when it is emphatic.

§ 133. The **predicate** consists either of a verb or of a noun—that is, of an adjective or a substantive. In the latter case a link (*copula*) is required to connect the subject

with the predicate. This link is usually the verb **esse** (to be), as:

Puer bonus est.	The boy is good.
Cicero erat *orator.*	Cicero was an orator.
Discipulus diligentissimus est.	The scholar is most diligent.

But there are many other verbs besides *esse*, which are used as a copula, and may be termed copulative verbs, as: *videor*, I seem; *maneo*, I remain; *duro*, I endure; *fio*, I become; *evado*, I turn out or become; *creor*, I am created; *deligor*, I am elected; *declaror*, I am declared; *dicor*, *appellor*, *vocor*, *nominor*, I am called; *designor*, I am appointed; *judicor*, I am judged; and some others, as:

Canis videtur acer.	The dog seems fierce.
Canis dicitur acer.	The dog is called fierce.
Cyrus creatur rex.	Cyrus is created king.
Romulus appellatus est rex.	Romulus was called king.

§ 134. When the predicate is a **verb**, it must agree with the subject in number and person, and it must be observed that all substantives represent the third person, as:

Milites clamant.	The soldiers call out.
Nos clamamus.	We call out.
Illi clamant.	They call out.

When there is more than one subject the predicative verb must be in the plural, and if they are of different persons, the verb is put in the first person plural, if there is a first person among the subjects, and in the second if there is among them a second and no first person. In all other cases the verb is in the third person plural, as:

Ego et frater ambulamus.	I and my brother take a walk.
Tu et frater tuus ambulatis.	You and your brother take a walk.
Ille et frater ejus ambulant.	He and his brother take a walk.

NOTE 1.—Sometimes when there are two or more subjects, the verb (predicate) agrees only with the one nearest to it, especially if it is the more important one or implies the others, as: *voluntas deorum et inimicorum iniquitas vocat nos*, the will of the gods and the injustice of our enemies call us. This is the case especially, when two subjects express only one idea, as: *Senatus populusque Romanus voluit*, the Senate and the Roman people wished—the Senate and the people forming only one body.

NOTE 2.—Sometimes a collective substantive, *i.e.*, one implying a num-

ber of persons or things though itself in the singular, has the predicate in the plural, as: *pars magna venerunt*, a great part (of men) went. This is the case especially with such substantives as *juventus* (the young men), *exercitus* (an army), *classis* (a fleet), and *populus* (the people).

§ 135. When the predicate is an **adjective**, it must agree with the subject in gender, number, and case, as:

Miles est callidus.	The soldier is cunning
Milites sunt callidi.	The soldiers are cunning.
Soror est pulchra.	The sister is beautiful.
Sorores sunt pulchræ.	The sisters are beautiful.
Templum est magnum.	The temple is large.
Templa sunt magna.	The temples are large.

When there are two or more subjects of the same gender, the predicative adjective is either put in the plural of the gender of the subjects, or agrees only with the subject nearest to it, as:

Milites et centuriones impavidi erant.	The soldiers and captains were fearless.
Sorores et mater mea mortuæ sunt.	My sisters and my mother are dead.
Templa et castella permagna erant.	The temples and castles were very great.
Sorores et mater mea mortua est.	My sisters and my mother are dead.

But when the subjects are of different genders and denote persons, the predicate is commonly in the plural of the masculine, if there is a masculine among the subjects, as:

Pater et mater mortui sunt.	My father and mother are dead.

When the subjects are names of inanimate things, the predicative adjective is generally in the neuter plural; but when the subjects are names of persons mixed with names of things, the predicative adjective may either follow the gender of the persons, or it may be put in the neuter plural, as:

Imperia, honores, victoriæ fortuita sunt.	Powers, honours, and victories are accidental.
Multi hostes et arma capti (or *capta*) *sunt.*	Many enemies and arms were taken.

NOTE 1.—In this case also it frequently happens that the predicative adjective agrees only with the subject nearest to it.

NOTE 2.—Sometimes the predicative adjective is used substantively in the neuter gender irrespective of the gender of the subject, as: *lupus est triste stabulis*, a wolf is a sad thing for the stables; *mulier est varium et semper mutabile*, a woman is a varying and always changeable thing.

NOTE 3.—In some cases we find an adverb as a predicate instead of an adjective, as: *omnia sunt recte*, all things are right; *inceptum frustra est*, the undertaking is useless; *hostes prope sunt*, the enemies are near.

NOTE 4.—Sometimes a predicative adjective agrees, not with the grammatical subject, but rather with what is meant by the subject, as: *capita conjurationis caesi sunt*, the heads of the conspiracy were scourged; *duo millia hostium capti sunt*, two thousand enemies were captured.

§136. When the predicate is a **substantive**, it can as a rule agree with the subject only in case, as:

Maecenas est dulce decus meum.	Maecenas is a sweet ornament to me.

But when the predicative substantive has two genders, as: *rex*, feminine *regina*; *magister*, feminine *magistra*; it also agrees in gender with the subject, as:

Philosophia est magistra vitae.	Philosophy is the instructor of life.
Aquila est regina avium.	The eagle is the king of birds.

NOTE.—When the predicate is a substantive, the copulative verb often agrees with the predicate instead of with the subject, as *hic honor ignominia putata est*, this honour was regarded as a disgrace.

§137. Both the subject and the predicate of a simple sentence may be enlarged and extended in a variety of ways.

The substantive forming the subject may receive an **attributive adjective**, which must agree with it in gender, number, and case, as:

Malus servus aufugit.	The wicked slave ran away.
Pulchra filia mortua est.	The beautiful daughter is dead.
Splendidum templum incensum est.	The splendid temple was set on fire.
Diligentes discipuli discunt.	The diligent pupils learn.

Or it may be enlarged by a **qualifying genitive**, as:

Domus Ciceronis eversa est.	The house of Cicero was destroyed.

Or it may be explained by another substantive, standing to it in the relation of **apposition**—that is, being only another name for the same person or thing, as:

Cicero, summus orator, consul factus est.	Cicero, the greatest orator, was made consul.

A substantive in apposition to another must always be in the same case with it.

NOTE.—It often happens that the predicate agrees with the noun in apposition, instead of with the subject itself, and this is the case especially when the name of a town has the apposition *urbs*, *civitas*, or *oppidum*, as *Athenae, urbs nobilissima, direpta est*, Athens, the most illustrious city, was plundered.

§138. The predicate may be enlarged by adverbs, adverbial combinations, and, when it consists of a transitive verb, by the addition of an object in the accusative, as:

Amicus meus bene dormivit.	My friend has slept well.
Servus ex urbe fugit.	The slave fled from the city.
Servus clam ex urbe fugit.	The slave fled secretly from the city.
Bonus pater filio splendidum librum dedit.	The good father gave to his son a splendid book.

NOTE.—Both the subject and the object of a sentence, as well as any other part, may again be enlarged in various ways, especially by the introduction of relative clauses, of which we shall have to speak later on.

§139. An **attributive adjective**, like the predicative adjective, agrees with its substantive in gender, number, and case, hence:

Pater bonus.	A good father.
Patris boni.	Of a good father.
Mater bona.	A good mother.
Matris bonae.	Of a good mother.
Magnum templum.	A large temple.
Magni templi.	Of a large temple, &c.

NOTE.—When the attributive adjective belongs to several substantives, it generally agrees only with the one nearest to it.

§140. (1.) A **relative pronoun**, which always refers to a person or thing mentioned before, must agree with it in gender, number, and person; its case depends upon the circumstances of the clause in which it occurs, as:

Tu, qui (or, if a woman is spoken to, *quae*) *mihi adesse debuisti, auxilium non tulisti.*	You, who ought to have stood by me, have brought me no help.
Ego, qui rempublicam servavi, invidia oppressus sum.	I who have saved the state, have been crushed by hatred.

Hostes, qui urbem ceperant, subito aufugerunt.	The enemies, who had taken the city, suddenly took to flight.
Hospes, quem benigne acceperam, filiam meam abduxit.	The stranger, whom I had kindly received, carried off my daughter.
Puer, cui librum dederam, mortuus est.	The boy, to whom I had given the book, is dead.

NOTE.—As the relative pronoun may itself be the subject of a clause and have a substantive for its predicate, the relative generally agrees with this predicative substantive, as: *Tarentum profectus est, quae* (not *quod*) *est urbs Italiae*, he went to Tarentum, which is a city of Italy; *idem velle atque idem nolle, ea* (not *id*) *demum vera amicitia est.*

(2.) When a relative pronoun has a whole clause for its antecedent, that clause is treated as a neuter substantive, the relative accordingly is *quod*, or more commonly *id quod* (a thing which), as:

Timoleon, id quod difficilius putatur, multo sapientius tulit secundam quam adversam fortunam.	Timoleon bore prosperity much more wisely than adversity, a thing which is thought more difficult.

NOTE.—Sometimes a relative has no apparent antecedent, in which case *qui* must be rendered by "he who" or "they who," and *quae* by "those things which," as: *qui patriam amat, non dubitabit pro ea mortem oppetere*, he who loves his country, will not hesitate to die for it; *quae ad me detulisti non vera sunt*, the things which you have reported to me are not true. Sometimes, however, the real antecedent follows after the relative, as *quae ad me detulisti, ea non sunt vera: qui petulantes sunt, eos procul a te remove*, keep far away from you those who are petulant.

CHAPTER XXXV.

THE NOMINATIVE.

§ 141. The nominative is called the *casus rectus*, while the other cases are termed oblique cases, *casus obliqui*.

The subject of a sentence and the predicate, when it consists of a declinable word, are both in the nominative (§ 132).

NOTE.—The only cases in which the subject and predicate of a clause are not in the nominative occur in the construction of the accusative with the infinitive, and in the ablative absolute; in the former the subject and predicate are in the accusative, and in the latter in the ablative. These points will be explained later on.

It must be remembered that the copulative verbs mentioned in § 133, which in meaning are only modifications of *esse*, have the predicate in the nominative, like *esse*, *e.g.* :

Catilina hostis judicatus est.	Catiline was declared an enemy.
Munitiones integrae manebant.	The fortifications remained entire.
In rebus angustis animosus et fortis appare.	In misfortune show thyself courageous and brave.

The same verbs have the predicate in the nominative even when they are in the infinitive governed by any of the quasi-auxiliary verbs *possum, cupio, coepi, desino, volo, nolo, malo,* and others, as :

Beatus esse sine virtute nemo potest.	Without virtue no one can be happy.
Desinant esse timidi.	Let them cease to be timid.

NOTE.—When, however, the infinitive of such verbs is the subject of a clause or the object of another verb, their predicate is in the accusative, as : *timidum esse non decet*, it is not becoming to be timid ; *semper honestum est virum bonum esse*, it is always honourable to be a good man : *consulem fieri valde utile videtur*, to be made consul seems very useful : *tyrannum existere invidiosum est*, to rise up as a tyrant is hateful.

The accusative of the predicate must further be used after *volo, nolo,* and *malo,* when they and the infinitive have different subjects, hence : *volo bonus esse*, I wish to be good ; but *volo te bonum esse*, I wish you to be good ; *nolo timidus esse*, I will not be timid ; but *nolo te timidum esse*, I do not wish you to be timid. Compare the section on the accusative with the infinitive.

CHAPTER XXXVI.

THE ACCUSATIVE.

§ 142. (1.) The accusative is first of all the case denoting the object of an action, and is accordingly governed by all transitive verbs, either active or deponent—that is, verbs, which cannot be fully understood without an object, which is directly affected or produced by the action, as :

Puer verberat canem.	The boy beats the dog.
Filius patrem amat.	The son loves the father.
Lego epistolam.	I read the letter.
Scribo epistolam.	I write a letter.
Deus creavit mundum.	God has created the world.
Hostis urbem aggreditur.	The enemy attacks the city.
Hortatur amicum.	He exhorts his friend.

(2.) All active transitive verbs may have a complete passive, and in changing a clause from the active into the passive, the object or accusative becomes the subject or nominative, and the person by whom the action is performed, or from whom it proceeds, is expressed by the ablative and the preposition *a* or *ab*, as :

Canis a puero verberatur.	The dog is beaten by the boy.
Pater amatur a filio.	The father is loved by the son.
Mundus a Deo creatus est.	The world has been created by God.

NOTE 1.—Deponent verbs can have no passive voice, and intransitive active verbs have only an impersonal passive—that is, the third person singular, as : *curritur*, running is going on ; *currebatur*, running was going on ; *pugnatur*, fighting is going on. Compare § 123.

NOTE 2.—It must be observed that some verbs are transitive in one language, but not in others. Thus I persuade, I pardon, I obey, I trust, and others are in English transitive, but in Latin they are not, and govern the dative, as *persuadeo fratri meo*, I persuade my brother ; *mihi persuadetur* or *persuasum est*, I am persuaded.

NOTE 3.—Many verbs which are in themselves intransitive, may become transitive by being compounded with such prepositions as *circum*, *in*, *ob*, *per*, *praeter*, and *trans*, as : *ire*, to go, but *obire* to meet, *circumire*, to surround, and *transire* to cross ; *gradior*, I step, but *transgredior*, I overstep, or cross.

(3.) Many intransitive verbs take an accusative of a substantive which has the same root or is akin to them in meaning, **the cognate accusative** ; but such an accusative is generally accompanied by an attributive adjective, as:

Servitutem servire.	To be a slave.
Gravem pugnam pugnare.	To fight a severe battle.
Vitam tutam vivere.	To live a safe life.
Cursus currere.	To run a race.
Somnium somniare.	To dream a dream.
Jusjurandum jurare.	To take an oath.

In such cases the intransitive verb is used transitively, and may have a passive, as :

Pugna pugnatur.	A battle is fought.

NOTE 1.—Some verbs in reality intransitive become transitive in a certain sense, and then govern an accusative, as : *lugeo*, I mourn over, *horreo*, I shudder at, *depereo*, I perish for love of some one, *e. g.*, *horreo crudelitatem*, I shudder at the cruelty ; *deperire mulierem amore*, to die of love for a woman. A similar use of the accusative occurs with the verbs *oleo*, *redoleo* (I smell of), and *sapio* (I taste of), but this is only an abbreviated

mode of speaking, for *oleo ceram*, I smell of wax, is the same as *oleo odorem cerae*. So also *Cyclopa saltare = saltare saltum Cyclopis*, to dance the dance of a Cyclops; *vincere Olympia = vincere victoriam Olympiorum*, to gain a victory at Olympia.

NOTE 2.—The neuter of adjectives, both in the singular and plural, is sometimes used as an adverbial accusative with intransitive verbs, as: *dulce ridēre*, to smile sweetly; *raucum* or *rauca sonare*, to utter a harsh sound; *aeternum vivere*, to live for ever; *longum laetari*, to rejoice long.

(4.) Intransitive verbs very frequently have for their object the accusative neuter of some pronoun, though they generally govern another case or take a preposition, as: *hoc studet unum*, this alone he pursues, for *studeo* otherwise takes the dative; so also:

Illud tibi assentior.	In that I agree with you.
Quae homines arant, navigant, aedificant, virtuti omnia parent.	Whatever things men plough, sail, or build, all are subject to virtue.

Transitive verbs do the same, so that they may have two accusatives, as:

Hoc te moneo.	This I advise you.
Illud te hortor.	To that I exhort you.

(5.) There are five impersonal verbs expressive of certain feelings which govern the accusative of the person in whom the feeling exists, and the genitive or the infinitive of the thing which causes the feeling. These are *piget me*, it grieves me or I grieve; *pudet me*, I am ashamed; *taedet me*, I am wearied; *poenitet me*, I repent; *miseret me*, I pity, as:

Piget me stultitiae meae.	I am grieved at my folly.
Pudet me facti.	I am ashamed of the deed.
Miseret me hujus hominis.	I pity this man.
Pudet me confiteri.	I am ashamed to confess.
Taedet me enumerare.	I am wearied to enumerate.

In like manner the impersonals *decet*, it is becoming, *dedecet*, it is not becoming, *latet*, it is hidden from, take the accusative of the person to whom anything is or is not becoming, and from whom anything is hidden; but the thing is expressed either by the infinitive or the nominative

of a substantive which are thus virtually the subjects of the impersonal verbs, as :

Oratorem irasci minime decet, simulare non dedecet.	It is not at all becoming an orator to be angry, but to simulate (anger) is not unbecoming.
Trux decet ira feras.	Savage anger is becoming to wild beasts.

NOTE.—All these impersonal verbs sometimes have a neuter pronoun for their subject, as : *idne pudet te? nihil poenitet eum ; id maxime decet.*

§143. (1.) Some verbs have a **double object**, and accordingly govern two accusatives. Thus *doceo*, I teach (also *dedoceo* and *edoceo*), and *celo*, I hide or conceal from, have one accusative of the person and another of the thing, as :

Quid nunc te litteras doceam?	Why should I now teach you the letters?
Iter omnes celat.	He conceals his journey from all.

When these verbs are changed into the passive, the accusative of the thing remains, as :

Cicero per legatos cuncta edoctus est.	Cicero was informed of everything by the ambassadors.

NOTE 1.—Instead of the accusative of the thing we sometimes find an infinitive or an ablative, with the preposition *de*, as : *Dionysius filias suas tondere docuit*, Dionysius taught his daughters to shave him ; *me de hoc libro celavit*, he concealed this book from me. *Doceo* in the sense of "I inform" generally takes the preposition *de* with the ablative or the accusative with the infinitive, as : *docuit me de adventu hostium*, he informed me of the arrival of the enemy ; *docuit milites hostem non longe abesse*, he informed the soldiers that the enemy was not far off ; *docendus sum Latine loqui*, I must be taught to speak Latin.

NOTE 2.—The ablative alone, which is sometimes found with *docco*, as *docere aliquem fidibus*, to teach one to play on the lyre, must be regarded as an instrumental ablative, and some verb, such as *uti* or *canere*, has to be supplied.

(2.) A double accusative *may* be used after the verbs *oro*, I entreat ; *rogo*, I ask ; *interrogo*, *percontor*, I ask ; *posco*, *reposco*, and *flagito*, I demand, as :

Achaei auxilia Philippum orabant.	The Achaeans implored Philip for auxiliary troops.
Rogo te quaedam geometrica.	I ask you some geometrical questions.
Pacem te poscimus omnes.	We all demand peace of you.
Caesar Aeduos frumentum flagitabat.	Caesar demanded corn of the Aedui.

NOTE.—The verbs *peto*, *quaero*, and *postulo*, though they have a similar meaning, never take two accusatives; they take an accusative of the thing, but the person is expressed by the ablative with the preposition *ab*, *ex*, or *de*. The accusative of the thing with the verbs mentioned in the rule, however, is most common, when it is the neuter of a pronoun, as: *quid me istud rogas?* why do you ask me this? But in the official phrase *sententiam rogare*, to ask the opinion, we always find the two accusatives in the active, as *me sententiam rogavit*, he asked me for my opinion; and in the passive, the accusative of the thing remains, as *sententiam rogatus sum*, I was asked for my opinion.

(3.) The active of the copulative verbs mentioned in § 133, and signifying to make, to name, to appoint, regard, &c., have two accusatives, one of which is the object and the other the predicate, as:

Romulus urbem Romam vocavit.	Romulus called the city Rome.
Non duxit Siculos homines.	He did not regard the Sicilians as human beings.
Populus Ancum Marcium regem creavit.	The people made Ancus Marcius king.
Senatus Catilinam hostem judicavit.	The Senate declared Catiline an enemy.

NOTE.—Verbs compounded with *circum* and *trans* may have two accusatives, but only one of them is governed by the verb, and the other depends upon the preposition, which in fact may be repeated before it, as: *Cæsar copias Rhenum traduxit*, or *trans Rhenum traduxit*, Cæsar led his troops across the Rhine; *Pompeius Roscillum omnia sua præsidia* (or *circum omnia sua præsidia*) *circumduxit*, Pompey led Roscillus round all his entrenchments. The accusative governed by the preposition of course remains when the clause is changed into the passive, as *exercitus Rhenum traducitur*, the army is led across the Rhine.

§ 144. **Motion towards a place or person** is generally expressed by the accusative with a preposition. The only case in which it is expressed by the accusative alone is that of the names of towns and small islands, as:

Romam profectus est.	He is gone to Rome.
Athenas advenit.	He arrived at Athens.
Legatos misit Tarentum.	He sent ambassadors to Tarentum.

The words *domus*, house, and *rus*, the country, are likewise put in the accusative to denote motion to, as:

Redeo domum.	I return home.
Rus ibo.	I shall go into the country.

NOTE 1.—Poets extend this use of the accusative farther, and employ it also when speaking of countries, as *Italiam venit*, he came into Italy, for

in Italiam venit. When the name of a town or island is accompanied by the words *urbs, oppidum, insula*, the usual prepositions must be employed, as *pervenit in urbem Athenas*, he arrived in the city of Athens.

NOTE 2.—In English we sometimes say "at" or "in a town," where in Latin the idea of motion contained in the verb requires the accusative, as: *Romam convenerunt* or *advenerunt*, they met or arrived at Rome; he went to Themistocles at Athens, *profectus est Athenas ad Themistoclem.*

§ 145. The accusative without a preposition is used both with verbs and adjectives to express **duration of time and extension of space** in answer to the questions How long? how far? how high? how low? how deep? how broad? *e.g.*:

Luscinia totam fere noctem canit.	The nightingale sings almost the whole night.
Troia decem annos oppugnata est.	Troy was besieged for ten years.
Trabes inter se binos pedes distabant.	The beams were three feet apart from one another.
Zama quinque dierum iter a Carthagine abest.	Zama is five days' journey from Carthage.
Turris centum pedes alta.	A tower one hundred feet high.
Fossa trecentos pedes longa.	A trench three hundred feet long.

The participle *natus* (born) takes the accusative of the time that a person has been born — that is, describing his age, as:

Decem annos natus est.	He is ten years old.
Cyrus quadraginta annos natus regnare coepit.	Cyrus began to reign at the age of forty.

NOTE 1.—Duration of time is sometimes expressed by the preposition *per* with the accusative, especially when it is to be intimated that the time is a long one, as *per decem annos*, for ten long years. Sometimes duration of time is expressed by the ablative, either with or without a preposition, as *pugnatum est horis quinque*, fighting was going on for five hours. The verbs *abesse* and *distare* (to be distant) also sometimes take the ablative, as: *bidui spatio aberam ab eo*, I was a two days' march distant from him; *Ariovisti copiae a nostris militibus passuum quatuor et viginti aberant*, the forces of Ariovistus were 24,000 paces distant from our men.

NOTE 2.—In answer to the question "for how long a time?" we must use *in* with the accusative, as: *indutias in triginta annos impetraverunt*, they obtained a truce for thirty years; *in multos annos*, for many years. Hence *in omne tempus*, for all time; *in praesens tempus*, for the present; *in posterum*, for the future; *in diem, in horam vivere*, to live (only) for the day, for the hour; *in dies*, from day to day, *i.e.*, daily.

§ 146. In some cases the accusative is used adverbially especially in the following phrases: *magnam partem*, to a great extent; *maximam partem*, for the most part; *vicem patris*, in place of or on account of

my father; so also *meam vicem, tuam vicem, nostram vicem. Id temporis* = *eo tempore*, at that time; *id aetatis*, at that age; *id genus* = *ejus generis*, of that kind. Of the same kind are the expressions *ceterum* and *cetera*, as to the rest, however; *quod si*, if in this respect; *quid?* why? and some others.

§ 147. An accusative of reference or limitation is used with verbs and adjectives, and denotes the part of a person to which an action or an attribute is limited, as:

Ictus adversum femur.	Struck in front of the thigh.
Os humerosque deo similis.	Like a god in face and shoulders.
Saucius pedes.	Wounded in the feet.

NOTE.—This use of the accusative is almost confined to poetry; in prose the ablative is more common, as: *ore humerisque deo similis; saucius pedibus.*

In some cases the accusative may be regarded as the object of the verb which is used in the sense of the Greek middle voice, describing a person doing something to or for himself, as: *Dido Sidoniam chlamydem circumdata*—that is, *quae sibi circumdederat; pueri laevo suspensi loculos tabulamque lacerto*, carrying their satchels and tablet fastened to their left arm; *galeam induitur*, he puts on a helmet; *Priamus ferrum cingitur*, Priam girds on his sword.

§ 148. The accusative with or without an interjection is used in exclamations about a person or a thing; the name of the person or thing in this case is always accompanied by some attributive adjective or other attribute, as:

Me miserum or *hen me miserum!*	Wretched man that I am!
O fallacem hominum spem!	Oh, the deceitful hope of men!
Pro deorum atque hominum fidem!	In the name of gods and men!
Hancine hominem!	Call this a human being!

NOTE 1.—The accusative in these exclamations probably depends upon some verb understood, such as "look at" or "behold."

Such an accusative must be carefully distinguished from the vocative by which a person or thing is *addressed*. Instead of the accusative, the nominative may be used, if the accompanying adjective is a predicate rather than an attribute, as *calamitosus Deiotarus qui a suis accusetur!* the unhappy Deiotarus who is accused by his own people!

NOTE 2.—The interjections *en* and *ecce* generally take the nominative, as: *ecce tuae litterae*, here is your letter! *ecce homo!* here is the man! But in connection with pronouns *ecce* takes the accusative, as: *ecce me! eccum* = *ecce eum; eccam* = *ecce eam; eccos* = *ecce eos; eccillum* = *ecce illum; eccillam* = *ecce illam; eccistam* = *ecce istam.*

The interjections *vae!* and *hei!* always take the dative, as: *vae victis!* woe to the conquered! *hei mihi misero!* woe to wretched me!

For the prepositions which always govern the accusative, see § 126, and for the construction of the accusative with the infinitive, see the chapter on the infinitive.

CHAPTER XXXVII.

THE DATIVE.

§149. (1.) The dative generally denotes **the remoter object** of transitive as well as intransitive verbs—that is, the person or thing to or for which anything is done. The same relation is expressed in English by the preposition to or for, as:

Domus dominis aedificatur, non muribus.	The house is built for the owners, not for mice.
Facile, quum valemus, recta consilia aegrotis damus.	When we are in health, we easily give the right advice to the sick.
Non scholae sed vitae discimus.	We learn not for the school, but for life.
Homines hominibus plurimum prosunt.	Men are most useful to men.

So also with adjectives, as:

Patriae solum omnibus carum est.	The soil of their native country is dear to all.
Locum idoneum castris delegit.	He selected a place suitable for a camp.

The dative above described, which occurs with all classes of verbs and adjectives, denotes the person or thing to which anything is of advantage or disadvantage, and is hence called the *dativus commodi* and *incommodi*.

NOTE 1.—When the preposition "for" signifies "instead of," it must be expressed by *pro* with the ablative, or by *loco* (in the place of) with the genitive, as *pro patre* or *loco patris*, instead of the father; when it signifies "in defence of," it is always expressed by *pro*, as *pro patria mori*, to die for, or in the defence of, one's country.

When the preposition "to" implies the idea of locality—*i.e.*, motion from one place to another, it cannot be expressed by the dative, but the preposition *in* or *ad* with the accusative must be used, as: *epistolam puero dedit*, he gave the boy a letter (for his own use, to read it), *epistolam ad puerum dedit*, he gave a letter to be carried to, or addressed to, the boy.

NOTE 2.—Closely allied to the *dativus commodi et incommodi*, is what is commonly called the *ethical dative* (*mihi, tibi, sibi, nobis, vobis*), which occurs chiefly in questions and expressions of astonishment and indignation, as: *hic mihi quisquam misericordium nominat!* let any one here talk to me of pity; *quid mihi Celsus agit?* what is friend Celsus doing? *quid hoc sibi vult?* what does this mean? *quid tibi vis?* what do you want?

(2.) The verb **esse**, when it denotes possession, is construed with the dative. In English we use the verb "to have," as :

Mihi est amicus.	I have a friend.
Tibi est amicus.	Thou hast a friend.
Nobis sunt amici.	We have friends.
Vobis sunt amici.	You have friends.
Tibi cum eo magna familiaritas est.	You have great intimacy with him.
Patri est domus.	The father has a house.
Mihi est injusta noverca.	I have an unjust step-mother.

NOTE 1.—*Esse* in this sense is also construed with the genitive, but there is a slight difference in meaning, for in *domus est patri*, the emphasis lies on *domus*, whereas in *domus est patris*, the emphasis is on *patris*.

NOTE 2.—For the phrase *mihi nomen est*, my name is, the name itself may either be treated as the subject and put in the nominative, or be regarded as standing in apposition to *mihi*, as *mihi nomen est Julius*, or *mihi nomen est Julio*. We rarely find *mihi nomen est Julii*. Hence, *ei servo nomen fuit Androclus* or *Androclo*, that slave was called Androclus.

(3.) Many verbs, most of which are in **English transitive**, are in Latin **intransitive** and govern the dative, *e. g.*:

Subvenio, succurro, auxilior, I assist.

Resisto, adversor, obnitor, renitor, repugno, obsum, I resist or oppose.

Faveo, indulgeo, studeo, I favour, am devoted to, study.

Invideo, aemulor, I envy, emulate.

Placeo, arrideo, please, smile upon.

Pareo, obedio, obtempero, I obey.

Servio, prosum, I serve, am useful to.

Credo, fido, confido, diffido, I believe, trust, distrust.

Pareo, tempero, I spare, refrain from.

Suadeo, persuadeo, I advise, persuade.

Adulor, assentior, blandior, I flatter.

Medeor, medicor, I cure.

Ignosco, I pardon.

Gratulor, I congratulate.

Maledico, obtrecto, convicior, I revile.

Irascor, succenseo, I am angry.

Patrocinor, I protect.

Impero, imperito, praecipio, dominor, moderor, tempero, I command.

NOTE 1.—These verbs have, of course, only an impersonal passive, as: *mihi invidetur*, I am envied; *vobis invidetur*, you are envied; *mihi persuasum est*, I am persuaded; *mihi persuaderi nunquam potuit*, I could never be persuaded. Compare § 123.

NOTE 2.—*Invideo* may have an accusative of the thing for which you envy a person, as: *invideo tibi honorem;* but it is more common to say *invideo honori tuo.*

NOTE 3.—*Medeor* and *medicor* are sometimes construed with the accusative, and *aemulor* always, when it signifies "I rival." *Dominor, moderor,* and *tempero* are found even oftener with the accusative than with the dative.

(4.) Some verbs have a different meaning according as they are construed with the dative or accusative, as:

Caveo canem or *a cane.*	I am on my guard against a dog.
Caveo tibi.	I am security to you
Consulo magistrum.	I consult the master.
Consulo magistro	I give advice to the master, take care of the master.
Consulo crudeliter in magistrum or *de magistro.*	I act cruelly to the master.
Metuo and *timeo aliquem.*	I fear some one.
Metuo and *timeo alicui* or *de aliquo.*	I fear for some one.
Convenio ducem.	I meet the general.
Conveni' mihi tecum.	I agree with you.
Moderor rem.	I manage, conduct a thing.
Moderor linguae.	I moderate my tongue.
Tempero rem.	I moderate, regulate a thing.
Tempero sociis.	I spare the allies.
Tempero a lacrimis.	I abstain from tears.
Prospicio and *provideo aliquid.*	I foresee or provide a thing.
Prospicio and *provideo alicui.*	I take care or provide for some one.

§ 150. Many verbs compounded with the prepositions **ante, post, prae, ad, inter, in, ob, sub,** and **super,** govern a dative; and when their meaning is transitive, may have an accusative besides, as:

Amicitiam omnibus rebus antepono.	I place friendship before all things.
Hannibal Alexandro postponendus non est.	Hannibal is not to be regarded as inferior to Alexander.
Honestas utilitati praeferenda est.	Honourable conduct is to be preferred to utility.
Pelopidas omnibus periculis adfuit.	Pelopidas was present in all the dangers.
Aristides interfuit pugnae navali.	Aristides took part in the naval battle

Legatus praeerat exercitui.	A lieutenant was at the head of the army.
Legatum praefecit exercitui.	He put a lieutenant at the head of the army.
Pyrrhus Romanis bellum intulit.	Pyrrhus made war upon the Romans.
Succubuit oneri.	He succumbed under the burden.

NOTE 1.—Sometimes the preposition with which such a verb is compounded is repeated with its own case, especially when the idea of motion to a place is to be specially set forth, as: *totam Ciliciam ad imperium adjunxit*, he added the whole of Cilicia to the empire; *adhibere prudentiam ad omnes res*, to bring prudence to bear upon all things; *injecit se in medios hostes*, he threw himself into the midst of the enemies; *res subjectae sub oculos*, things brought under the eyes; *incumbere in gladium*, to fall upon the sword.

This is the case especially with those verbs which are compounded with *cum*: thus *communico* always repeats the *cum*, as *hoc tecum communico*, I communicate this to you.

Verbs of excelling, as *anteeo*, *antecedo*, *antecello*, *excello*, *praesto*, are commonly construed with the dative; but in later writers they take the accusative.

NOTE 2.—Some verbs, as *dono*, *circumdo*, *circumfundo*, *aspergo*, and *induo*, admit of two different constructions, without any difference in meaning, as: *donare alicui civitatem* or *donare aliquem civitate*, to give to some one the rights of a citizen; *urbi murum circumdare* or *urbem muro circumdare*, to surround the city with a wall; *aspergere labem alicui* or *aliquem labe*, to cast a slur upon some one; *Herculi Deianira tunicam* or *Herculem Deianira tunicâ induit*, Deianira put a tunic on Hercules.

§ 151. A **double dative** is used with the verbs *esse*, *fieri*, *dare*, *mittere*, *accipere*, *venire*, *relinquere*, *habere*, *tribuere*, *vertere*, *ducere*, and others. One of these datives is usually an ordinary dativus commodi, while the other signifies a purpose, intention, or result, as;

Haec res vobis exemplo sit.	Let this thing be for an example to you.
Vobis honori et amicis utilitati estis.	You are an honour to yourselves and an advantage to your friends.
Cui bono fuit?	To whom was it any advantage?
Alicui auxilio venire.	To come to the assistance of somebody.
Hoc mihi crimini datur.	This is imputed to me as a crime.
Legionem castris praesidio reliquit.	He left a legion for a protection to the camp.
Haec res mihi cordi or *curae est.*	This matter is a concern to me.
Habere aliquem derisui.	To make a laughing stock of some one.

NOTE.—In a somewhat similar sense poets sometimes use the dative in the sense of to or towards, instead of *ad* or *in* with the accusative, as: *it clamor caelo*, the shout rises up to heaven; *Orco demissus*, sent down into Orcus.

§152. **The dative is sometimes used with passive** verbs to denote the agent by whom a thing is done, instead of the ablative with the preposition *a* or *ab;* and with the gerundive the dative is always used to denote the agent, as:

Mihi (for *a me*) *consilium captum est.*	The plan has been formed by me.
Quidquid mihi (for *a me*) *susceptum est.*	Whatever has been undertaken by me.
Cui (for *a quo*) *non auditae sunt istae orationes?*	By whom have those speeches not been heard?
Barbarus sum, quia non intelligor ulli (for *ab ullo*).	I am a barbarian, because I am understood by no one.
Hoc mihi (for *a me*) *faciendum est.*	This must be done by me.
Ratio nobis (for *a nobis*) *reddenda est.*	An account has to be given by us.

NOTE.—Whenever any ambiguity arises from this use of the dative with the gerundive it must be avoided. In the sentence *ratio nobis reddenda est*, the meaning might be, an account has to be rendered to us, instead of by us.

§153. The impersonal verbs *licet*, it is allowed; *libet*, it pleases, and *expedit*, it is expedient or useful, govern the dative of the person to whom anything is allowed, pleasing, or expedient, as:

Licet nemini exercitum ducere contra patriam.	It is allowed, or lawful, to no one to lead an army against his country.
Libet mihi quod non licet.	I take pleasure in what is not lawful.

§154. Names of towns and small islands in answer to the question Where? are put in the dative, as:

Romae.	At Rome.
Athenis.	At Athens.
Karthagini (or *Karthagine*).	At Carthage.
Tarenti.	At Tarentum.

NOTE 1.—It may seem strange to call *Tarenti* a dative, but it certainly is not a genitive. The locative of the Sanscrit ends in *i*, and in Greek as well as in Latin some forms of this locative are preserved, such as *Tarenti*, and even *Romae*=*Romai* is a form of the locative. In Latin the ablative

and dative have generally been made to do duty for the locative, whence *Karthagine* as well as *Karthagini*. The same locative is seen in such forms as *domi*, at home; *ruri*, in the country; *humi*, on the ground; *domi militiaeque*, in peace and in war; and in some adverbs of place, as: *hi-c*, here; *ibi*, there; *ubi*, where, &c.

NOTE 2.—*Domi* remains the same when joined by possessive pronouns, as: *domi meae*, at my house; *domi tuae*, at thy house; *domi nostrae*, in our house. But when joined by any other adjective or a genitive of a substantive, we must say *in domo*, as. *in domo privata*, in a private house; *in domo Ciceronis*, in the house of Cicero.

NOTE 3.—When the name of a town has a qualifying adjective, the ablative must be used with or without the preposition *in*, as *ipsa Roma*, or *in ipsa Roma*, in Rome itself. When the name of a town or island is accompanied by the words *urbs*, *oppidum*, or *insula*, these words are put in the ablative with or without the preposition *in*, as *cum essem Athenis*, (*in*) *urbe celeberrima*, when I was at Athens, a most famous city.

CHAPTER XXXVIII.

THE GENITIVE.

A. *The Genitive governed by Substantives.*

§ 155. The most common function of the genitive is to express that relation between two substantives in which they conjointly designate only one thing, and the one in the genitive is equivalent to an attributive adjective, as:

Domus regis (*domus regia*).	The king's house, or the royal house.
Hostium (*hostiles*) *exercitus*.	The hostile army.
Nomen regis (*regium*).	The title of king.
Mercedem gloriae.	The reward of fame (fame itself being the reward).

NOTE 1.—The very name genitive, properly genetive (from *genus*), indicates that this case defines the genus or species to which anything belongs. Thus when I say *liber fratris*, the word *fratris* defines the book of which I am speaking, and distinguishes it from other books. But the genitive may yet stand in different relations to the substantive by which it is governed; it may stand to it in the relation of an attribute, as in *domus regis*, or in an appositional relation, as in *nomen regis*; *vox voluptatis*, the word pleasure; *verbum monendi*, the word to advise; *remedium ignis*, the remedy of fire (where fire is the remedy.)

NOTE 2.—When a substantive derived from a transitive verb has a

genitive dependent on it, the genitive may either represent the subject or the object, and is accordingly termed the subjective or objective genitive, as *amor Dei*, the love of God. If the meaning is "the love which God bears to man" (*Deus amat*), the genitive is subjective; but when it means "the love which man bears to God" (*Deum amat*), the genitive is objective So also *injuria sociorum* may mean the wrong done by or to allies.

NOTE 3.—When the objective genitive consists of a personal pronoun, it is always expressed by *mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri*, as: *meum desiderium tui*, my longing for you; *memoria nostri*, the remembrance of us; *imitator nostri*, an imitator of us. But whenever the genitive would be subjective, the possessive pronouns *meus, tuus, suus, noster, vester*, must be used, as a possessive pronoun always represents a genitive, as: *amicus meus*, my friend; *epistola tua*, your letter; *imagines nostrae*, our portraits; *amor meus*, my love (the love I feel for some one), whereas *amor mei* would be the love I bear to myself. Sometimes, however, the possessive is used to express the objective relation, as: *invidia mea*, hatred towards me; *injuria tua*, the wrong done to you; *ipse suus accusator fuit*, he was his own accuser.

NOTE 4.—Sometimes the substantives *filius, filia, uxor, servus* (and especially *aedes* and *templum* when joined by the preposition *ad*) are omitted before the genitive they govern, as: *Caecilia Metelli*, Caecilia, the wife or daughter of Metellus; *Darius Hystaspis*, Darius, son of Hystaspes; *Hasdrubal Gisgonis*, Hasdrubal son of Gisgo; *ad Vestae*, near the temple of Vesta; *ad Vulcani*, at the temple of Vulcan. Compare the English, I have been at St. Paul's.

NOTE 5.—Sometimes substantives expressive of certain feelings take a preposition instead of the objective genitive which might leave the sense doubtful, as: *odium in mulieres*, hatred towards woman; *amor erga me tuus*, your love for me. The same is the case with substantives denoting motion to or from a place, as: *adventus in Galliam*, the arrival in Gaul; *iter ex Italia*, the journey from Italy.

§ 156. Substantives (also adjectives, pronouns, and numerals, when used as substantives) denoting a part of a whole, have the whole in the genitive, called the **partitive genitive**, as:

Magnus numerus hostium.	A great number of enemies.
Minima pars exercitus.	The smallest part of the army.
Multum laboris.	Much of labour.
Nihil difficultatis.	Nothing of difficulty, no difficulty at all.
Quid novi?	What news?
Id negotii.	That part of the business.
Plus diligentiae.	More diligence.
Multi militum.	Many of the soldiers.
Ducenti militum.	Two hundred of the soldiers.
Fortissimi omnium Gallorum.	The bravest of all the Gauls.
Tantum auri.	So much gold.
Aliquid veri.	Some truth.
Major juvenum.	The older of the youths.

NOTE 1.—When the partitive nature is not to be expressed, we must say *tantus labor*, and not *tantum laboris*; so also *id negotium, multi milites, ducenti milites*. Adjectives of the third declension are scarcely ever used in the partitive genitive, hence: *aliquid dulce* (not *dulcis*), something sweet; *nihil suave* (not *suavis*), nothing pleasant.

NOTE 2.—A partitive genitive is also governed by adverbs of quantity, place, and time, as: *satis* (enough), *parum* (too little), *abunde* and *affatim* (abundantly), *nimis* and *nimium* (too much). To these also belong several pronominal adverbs, *hic* (here), *huc, eo* (thither), *ibi* (there), *ubi* (where), *ubicunque* (wherever), and a few others, as: *satis pecuniae*, enough money; *parum temporis*, too little time; *nimium laboris*, too much labour; *hic loci*, in this place; *huc* or *eo dementiae*, to that pitch of madness; *ubi terrarum?* where on earth? *ubicunque terrarum*, wherever on earth; *quoad ejus fieri potest*, as far as this can be done.

NOTE 3.—Instead of a partitive genitive, we often find the prepositions *ex, de, inter*, or *in*, as: *multi de* or *e civibus*, many of the citizens; *aliquis de militibus*, some one of the soldiers; *pauci inter cives*, few of or among the citizens. The genitives of the personal pronouns *nostrum* and *vestrum* are used only in a partitive sense, as: *multi nostrum*, many of us; *pauci vestrum*, few of you. Compare § 54, note 1. *Mille*, which is properly an indeclinable adjective, is sometimes found with a partitive genitive, as *mille militum*, one thousand of the soldiers.

§ 157. A substantive accompanied by an adjective, describing the quality of a person or thing, is put in the genitive (the **genitive of quality**), as:

Vir magni ingenii.	A man of great talent.
Equus mirae magnitudinis.	A horse of wonderful size.
Res magni laboris.	A thing of great labour.
Classis mille et ducentarum navium.	A fleet of 1,200 ships.
Vir ordinis senatorii.	A man of senatorial rank.
Homo summae audaciae.	A person of the greatest audacity.

NOTE 1.—The genitive of quality can never be used, unless the substantive is accompanied by an adjective. We cannot therefore say in Latin, as in English, a man of talent, a man of power; but instead of such genitives we must apply the adjectives talented and powerful.

NOTE 2.—A genitive of quality implies that the quality is inherent and abiding, and not manifested only in certain circumstances; in this latter sense the ablative of quality is more appropriate.

NOTE 3.—Sometimes an adverbial accusative is used instead of the genitive of quality, as: *homines id aetatis*, men of that age; *oratio aut aliquid id genus*, a speech or something of that kind; *alia id genus*, other things of that kind.

§ 158. A **predicative genitive** is governed by *esse* and *fieri*, and denotes possession or duty, as:

Domus est regis.	The house is the king's, belongs to the king.

Confiteor me nullius consilii fuisse.	I confess that I did not possess any wisdom.
Maximus honor Spartae senum fuit.	The greatest honour belonged at Sparta to old men.
Omnia viri fiunt.	All things come to belong to the man.
Thebae populi Romani factae sunt.	Thebes was made to belong to the Roman people.

NOTE 1.—The words signifying part or duty (*munus, officium, proprium*) are frequently omitted with *esse*, so that the genitive appears to be dependent on the verb *esse*, as : *est adolescentis majores natu vereri*, it is the duty of a young man to respect older persons ; *cujusvis hominis est errare*, it is the nature of every man to err ; *illud pusilli animi est*, that is the part or sign of a mean spirit ; *tempori cedere sapientis est*, it is the part of a wise man to yield to circumstances.

NOTE 2.—When possession is expressed by a personal pronoun it must be changed into the possessive, as : *haec domus est mea*, this house belongs to me, or is mine. The predicative use of the possessive pronouns is most frequent, when the subject is an infinitive, as : *tuum est parentes colere*, it is your duty to honour your parents ; *meum est consulere, vestrum fortiter pugnare*, it is my part to form the plan, yours to fight bravely.

§ 159. The substantives **causā** and **gratiā** (for the sake of), and **instar** (after the likeness, like), which have almost assumed the character of prepositions, are placed after the genitive, which they govern, as :

Mundus deorum hominumque causa factus est.	The world has been made for the sake of gods and men.
Patris mei causa.	For the sake of my father.
Epistola voluminis instar erat.	The letter was like a volume.

NOTE.—For my sake, thy sake, &c., is expressed by *meā causā ; tuā, suā, nostrā, vestrā causā.*

B. *The Genitive with Adjectives.*

§ 160. Many adjectives expressing capacity, desire, experience, fulness, remembering, forgetting, and requiring a substantive as a complement to their meaning, take that substantive in the genitive. The genitive itself is sometimes of an objective and sometimes of a partitive nature. Such adjectives are :

Avidus, covetous,	*Studiosus*, fond,
Plenus, full,	*Conscius*, conscious,
Cupidus, eager,	*Inscius, nescius*, ignorant,

Peritus, skilled,	*Compos*, master of,
Imperitus, unskilled,	*Inops*, weak,
Memor, mindful, remembering,	*Potens*, powerful,
Immemor, unmindful,	*Impotens*, not powerful,
Particeps, partaking,	*Insuetus*, unaccustomed,
Expers, exsors, not sharing,	*Providus*, foreseeing,

and some others; as:

Verres cupidus fuit pecuniae.	Verres was eager for money.
Homo cupidus rerum novarum.	A person eager for revolution.
Omnium doctrinarum studiosus fui.	I have been fond of all kinds of learning.
Conscius conjurationis fuerat.	He had been conscious of the conspiracy.
Peritus belli navalis.	Skilled in naval warfare.
Gallia est plena civium Romanorum.	Gaul is full of Roman citizens.
Memor beneficii.	Remembering an act of kindness.
Inops consilii.	Weak in giving advice.
Potens irae.	Controlling one's anger.
Providus rerum futurarum.	Foreseeing future events.

NOTE 1.—Some of these adjectives also admit other constructions; thus we may say *juris consultus* as well as *juris consultus; rudis in aliqua re*, and *ad aliquam rem*, as well as *alicujus rei; conscius de aliqua re*, as well as *alicujus rei*, and the like. Late writers and poets make very free use of the genitive with adjectives.

NOTE 2.—The present participles of transitive verbs, when used as adjectives, have their object in the genitive; but when they are real participles they retain their object in the accusative. Thus *miles laborum patiens* is a soldier capable of enduring hardships, whereas *labores patiens* is one who is actually enduring hardships.

§ 161. Some adjectives are construed either with the genitive or dative indiscriminately, though sometimes with a slight difference of meaning. Such adjectives are:

Par, equal, a match for,	*Contrarius*, contrary,
Impar, unequal,	*Proprius*, belonging to,
Similis, similar, like,	*Communis*, common,
Dissimilis, unlike,	*Sacer*, sacred,
Aequalis, equal in age,	*Superstes*, surviving—*e.g.*:

Par ceteris, or *par ceterorum.*	Equal to the rest.
Templum sacrum dei or *deo.*	A temple sacred to the god.
Superstes patris or *patri.*	Surviving his father.

NOTE 1.—*Similis* and *dissimilis*, when expressing resemblance in out-

ward appearance, are generally construed with the dative; but when denoting resemblance in character, they take the genitive, as: *canis similis est lupo*, the dog is like the wolf (in appearance); *Crassus Alexandri similis esse voluit*, Crassus wanted to be like Alexander (as a conqueror).

NOTE 2.—Some adjectives which, from their meaning, might seem to fall under these rules, nevertheless govern the ablative, as: *refertus, vacuus, orbus, liber, dignus, indignus, fretus, praeditus,* and *contentus. Vacuus, liber,* and *alienus* are frequently construed with the preposition *a* or *ab* and the ablative.

C. *The Genitive with Verbs.*

§ 162. Verbs of remembering, forgetting, and reminding generally govern an objective genitive. They are: *memini, reminiscor, recordor,* I remember; *obliviscor,* I forget; *admoneo, commoneo,* I remind—*e. g.:*

Animus meminit praeteritorum.	The mind remembers past things.
Reminiscor veteris amicitiae.	I remember the old friendship.
Obliviscor Epicuri.	I forget Epicurus.
Admonuit me beneficii tui.	He reminded me of your act of kindness.

NOTE 1.—Verbs of reminding are also construed with the accusative, or the ablative with *de*—the former when the thing is expressed by a neuter pronoun, as: *hoc te admoneo,* I remind you of this; *de proelio vos admonui,* of the battle I have reminded you. Those of remembering and forgetting also sometimes take the accusative, especially when the object is the name of a thing; and *recordor,* in particular, nearly always takes the accusative, as: *patriae beneficia meminerunt,* they remember the kind acts of their country; *oblivisci nihil soles,* you are wont to forget nothing; *Catonem senem memini,* I remember Cato when he was an old man.

I remember is sometimes expressed by *mihi venit in mentem* with the same construction as *memini*—*e. g., haec res mihi venit in mentem,* or *venit mihi in mentem hujus rei,* I remember this thing.

NOTE 2.—When the object which we remember or forget is expressed by a neuter pronoun or adjective, the accusative is always used, and not the genitive, as: *id memini,* I remember that; *multa reminiscor,* I remember many things; *omnia obliviscor* I forget all things.

§ 163. Some verbs expressing the feelings of pity, shame, regret, and disgust, have the person or thing calling forth these feelings in the genitive. Such verbs are: *misereor* and *miseresco,* I pity; and the impersonals *miseret, miserescit,* and *miseretur me,* I pity; *piget me,* it vexes me; *poenitet me,* I repent; *pudet me,* I am ashamed; *taedet me* or *pertaesum est,* I am wearied or disgusted—*e. g.:*

Miserere mei.	Pity me.

Pudet me negligentiae meae.	I am ashamed of my negligence.
Misereor (or *miseret me*) *amici mei.*	I pity my friend.
Poenitet me peccati.	I repent of my mistake.

NOTE.—When the thing calling forth the feelings implied in these impersonals is expressed by a verb, we may use either the infinitive or the conjunction *quod*, as *non poenitet me vixisse* or *quod vixi*. *Pertaesus* (disgusted with) generally takes the accusative, *pertaesus ignaviam suam.*

§164. The judicial verbs of **accusing** (*accuso, arguo, insimulo*), **convicting** (*convinco, coarguo*), **condemning** (*damno, condemno*), and **acquitting** (*absolvo, libero*), and a few others, take the substantive naming the offence or punishment in the genitive—*e. g.*:

Nemo ante actarum rerum accusetur.	Let no one be accused of his past actions.
Fannius Verrem insimulat avaritiae et audaciae.	Fannius accuses Verres of avarice and audacity.
Aliquem sceleris arguere.	To charge one with a crime.
Furti damnatus est.	He was condemned for theft.
Negligentiae convictus est.	He was convicted of negligence.
Capitis damnatus.	Condemned to death.

NOTE 1.—The verbs of condemning and acquitting sometimes have the name of the offence, and especially that of the punishment, in the ablative, which is always the case if the punishment is a fine. Hence we can say *capite aliquem damnare*, as well as *capitis*. The ablative with *de* is particularly common with the verbs *postulare* and *reum facere* (to accuse), as: *postulare aliquem repetundarum* or *de repetundis*, to accuse one of extortion; *de vi*, of violence.

NOTE 2.—A few adjectives similar in meaning to the above verbs, such as *reus, noxius, innoxius, insons, manifestus*, and *compertus*, are likewise construed with the genitive of the offence.

§165. Verbs of **buying, selling**, and **valuing**—as: *emo*, I buy; *vendo*, I sell; *veneo*, I am sold; *sto, consto, sum*, I cost; *prosto, liceo*, I am for sale; *conduco*, I hire; *loco, colloco*, I let; *aestimo, puto, duco, habeo, pendo, facio*, I value or tax—govern the genitive of the price or value, when it is expressed in a general way by *tanti, quanti, magni, parvi, minoris, plurimi, maximi*, or *minimi*—*e.g.*.

Auctoritatem tuam magni aestimo.	I value your authority highly.
Aliquid pluris putare.	To value something more highly.
Emit Canius hortos tanti, quanti Pythius voluit.	Canius bought the gardens at the price which Pythius wished.
Vendo meum frumentum pluris.	I sell my corn at a higher price.

But when a definite price is mentioned, the ablative must be used, as :

Isocrates vendidit unam orationem viginti talentis.	Isocrates sold one speech for twenty talents.

§166. The impersonal verbs **interest** and **rēfert** (it is of interest or importance) take the person to whom anything is of interest in the genitive ; but when the person is expressed in English by a personal pronoun, the Latins use the possessive forms *meā, tuā, suā, nostrā, vestrā*—*e.g.* :

Interest omnium recte facere.	It is of interest to all to act rightly.
Interest reipublicae.	It is of interest to the state.
Clodii intererat Milonem perire.	It was of importance to Clodius that Milo should perish.
Meā refert.	It is of interest to me.
Nihil tuā referebat.	It was of no interest to you.

NOTE 1.—*Rēfert* is rarely found with a genitive, and more frequently with the possessive pronouns.

NOTE 2.—The degree in which anything is of interest is expressed by adverbs as *valde, magnopere, multum, plus, tantum, quantum*, or by the genitives of price, *magni, parvi, quanti, pluris*. The thing in regard to which anything is of interest is expressed by *ad* with the accusative.

NOTE 3.—The thing which is of interest is never expressed by a substantive, but either by an infinitive, or by a clause beginning with *ut* or *nc*, or by an interrogative clause. Sometimes the thing of interest is expressed by a neuter pronoun, as : *hoc interesse arbitror*, I believe this to be of interest ; *nihil interest, quo modo hoc fiat*, it is of no importance how this is done ; *multum interest te ut videam*, it is of great importance that I should see you.

D. *Freer Use of the Genitive.*

§167. Poets and late writers make a very free use of the genitive both with verbs and adjectives, as :

Sceleris purus.	Free from guilt.
Solutus operum.	Released from work.
Desine querelarum.	Cease from complaints.
Felix cerebri.	Lucky in regard to the brain.
Notus paterni animi.	Known for fatherly affection.
Modicus voluptatis.	Moderate in pleasure.
Atrox odii.	Savage in hatred.

NOTE.—*Animi* is sometimes used in the sense of a locative (like *domi*) for the ablative, as : *crucior animi*, I am tortured in mind ; *pendeo animi*, I am in a state of mental suspense.

CHAPTER XXXIX.

THE ABLATIVE.

§ 168. The ablative expresses a variety of adverbial relations which are indicated in English by the prepositions *from, by, with, in,* or *at.* The chief ideas expressed by the ablative are those of separation and origin, place where, and those of cause, manner, and instrument. The ablative is used sometimes with, and sometimes without, a preposition.

NOTE.—The reason why the ablative expresses such a variety of relations is the fact that, owing to the loss of the locative and the instrumental cases, it has, in addition to its own proper functions, been made to do duty for these cases also.

A. *Ablative of Separation.*

§ 169. Separation from a person or thing seems to be the proper and original meaning of the ablative. It is used (with and without the prepositions *a* or *ab, ex, de*) with the verbs *cedo, pello, arceo, prohibeo, solvo, libero,* and many others compounded with the prepositions *ab, ex, de, dis-,* and *se-, e.g.:*

Cedere ingrata patria or *ex ingrata patria.*	To withdraw from an ungrateful country.
Brutus arcebat reditu or *a reditu tyrannum.*	Brutus kept the tyrant from returning.
Expellere aliquem finibus or *e finibus.*	To expel one from the territory.
Cibo se abstinere (or *a cibo*).	To abstain from food.
Ubios obsidione liberat.	He frees the Ubii from the blockade.
Solvere aliquem legibus.	To exempt one from the laws.

NOTE 1.—It must be remarked in general that the prepositions are used more especially when actual physical separation is to be expressed, and the ablative alone when the verbs are used in a secondary or moral sense, though this distinction is not always observed.

NOTE 2.—*Solvere, exsolvere, liberare, levare,* and *eximere,* are generally construed with the ablative alone. In some phrases, such as *movere tribu* (to remove one from his tribe), *movere senatu, loco, vestigio,* prepositions are never used.

NOTE 3.—The Latins often view the place in which an action takes place as the place from which it proceeds, as: *a tergo,* in the rear; *ab*

oriente, in the east; *ab* or *ex altera parte*, on the other side; *ex adverso*, on the opposite side.

§ 170. The ablative alone is used with the verbs of depriving and filling, such as: *privare, spoliare, nudare, orbare, fraudare, exŭĕre, complēre, implēre, explēre*, and with verbs denoting plenty, such as: *abundare, florēre, vacare, carēre, egēre, indigēre*—*e. g.*:

Urbem omni commeatu privavit.	He deprived the city of all supplies.
Murus defensoribus nudatus.	A wall denuded of its defenders.
Exuere hostem castris.	To deprive an enemy of his camp.
Sol terram luce complet.	The sun fills the earth with light.
Galli equitatu abundant.	The Gauls abound in cavalry.
Cura vacare.	To be free from care.

NOTE 1.—Similarly the ablative alone is generally used with adjectives denoting freedom or exemption from, as: *liber cura*, free from care; *expers fortunis*, destitute of fortune; but also *liber ab omni sumptu*, free from all expense.

NOTE 2.—*Egēre* is sometimes, and *indigēre* frequently, construed with the genitive, as *indigeo tui consilii*, I need your counsel.

§ 171. The expression **opus est**, there is need, takes the ablative of the thing needed, as:

Opus mihi est libro.	I need a book.
Opus mihi est libris.	I want books.

But *opus* may also be treated as an indeclinable adjective in a predicative sense, as:

Libri mihi opus sunt.	I want books.

NOTE.—When the thing needed is expressed by a verb, the infinitive must be used, or the ablative of a past participle, as: *id sciri non opus est*, it is not necessary that this should be known; *mature facto opus est*, it is necessary to act speedily. Sometimes *usus est* is used in the sense of *opus est*, and with the same construction.

§ 172. The **ablative of origin** denotes that from which anything is made or originates, and is used sometimes with, and sometimes without, a preposition. It is found most commonly with the participles *natus, ortus, oriundus* (sprung from), *genitus, satus, editus, creatus* (begotten)—*e. g.*:

Mercurius Jove natus et Maia.	Mercury born (or son) of Jupiter and Maia.

E nobis nati liberi vocantur.	Those born of us are called our children.
Renibus or *ex renibus laborare.*	To suffer from the kidneys.
Ex amicis inimici exsistunt.	Out of friends become enemies.
Aeger erat vulneribus.	He was suffering from his wounds.

Origin is very frequently expressed by the preposition *ex* or *de* with all kinds of verbs.

NOTE 1.—When the participles *natus*, *ortus*, and *genitus*, refer to the actual parents, they generally take the ablative alone, though even here we sometimes have the preposition *ex* or *de*. When a more remote origin is to be indicated, it is customary to use a preposition, as: *plerique Belgae orti sunt a Germanis; Cato Uticensis ortus a Censorino proavo.*

NOTE 2.—The verbs *facere* and *fieri*, (to make something out of something) generally take the preposition *ex;* but in the questions: What am I to do with you? What is to become of you? the ablative alone is usually employed, as: *quid hoc homine faciam?* what am I to do with this man? but we also find *quid de te futurum est?* and *quid huic homini facies?*

B. *Ablative of Cause, Manner, and Instrument.*

§ 173. The ablative without a preposition is used with verbs and adjectives to indicate the cause from which anything arises, the manner in which anything happens, and the means or instrument by which anything is effected—*e.g.*

Amore pugnandi in exercitu mansit.	He remained in the army from his love of fighting.
Hoc ego non faciebam insolentia.	I was not doing this from insolence.
Ista ratione tu id assequi non poteris.	In that way you will not be able to attain it.
Rem publicam summa aequitate constituit.	He arranged the affairs of the state with the greatest fairness.
Virgis aliquem caedĕre.	To scourge one with rods.
Suevi lacte atque pecore vivunt.	The Suevi live on (by means of) milk and cattle.

NOTE 1.—The student must carefully distinguish the means or instrument from the agent by whom, and the intermediate agent through whom anything is done, for while the instrument is expressed by the ablative alone, the agent is expressed by the ablative with the preposition *a* or *ab*, and the intermediate agent by *per* with the accusative, as *mittitur tibi epistola a patre per servum*, the letter is sent to you by your father through a slave. Names of persons, however, may be expressed by the instrumental ablative, if they are treated or viewed as mere tools in the hands of others, as *Etruriam barbaris vexavit*, he harassed Etruria through barbarians. The student must further observe that the preposition "with" is rendered by *cum* only when it denotes company, and not when

it denotes the instrument, as *venit cum gladio*, he came with (having) a sword; but *interfecit eum gladio*, he killed him with (by means of) a sword.

NOTE 2.—A preventive cause is expressed by *prae* with the ablative, as: *solem prae jaculorum multitudine non videbitis*, you will not see the sun because of the multitude of missiles; *prae gaudio ubi sim nescio*, I do not know for joy where I am. The idea of cause may also be expressed by the preposition *ob* and *propter*, as: *propter frigora*, on account of the cold; *ob eam rem* or *ob eam causam*, for that reason.

NOTE 3.—The ablative of manner is used only when the substantive has an attributive adjective, as *magna facilitate*, with great ease; but when manner is expressed by a substantive alone, the preposition *cum* and sometimes *per* is used, as: *cum cura*, with care; *cum diligentia*, with diligence: *per incuriam*, through carelessness. The ablatives *modo*, *more*, *ratione*, *ritu*, *lege*, *ordine*, *casu*, *jure*, *merito*, *consilio*, *consuetudine* are always used in the ablative alone, even when they have no qualifying attribute.

C. *Ablative of Time.*

§ 174. The time when and **within which** anything happens or is done is expressed by the ablative alone without any preposition, as:

Vere.	In spring.
Aestate.	In summer.
Hieme.	In winter.
Hoc anno.	In this year.
Die et nocte.	In the day and in the night.
Quinto quoque anno	Every fifth year.
Agamemnon vix decem annis unam cepit urbem.	Agamemnon with difficulty took one city in ten years.

NOTE 1.—The substantives in the ablative are generally nouns denoting time or parts of time, as in the above examples; but sometimes names denoting events, implying the idea of time, are used in the same manner, as: *adventu Caesaris*, on (at the time of) Caesar's arrival; *discessu hostium*, on the departure of the enemies; *comitiis centuriatis*, in (at the time of) the assembly of the centuries; *Saturnalibus*, at the Saturnalia; *bello Persico*, in (the time of) the Persian war; *initio*, in the beginning.

NOTE 2.—The preposition *in* is required to denote time when, if a single point within a given time is to be set forth, or when the idea of *within* is to be set forth emphatically, as: *in eo bello Lysander interficitur*, in (at a particular time of) that war Lysander is killed; *tres in anno statos dies habuerunt*, they had three fixed days within a year; *bis in die*, twice in a day; *in tam multis annis*, within so many years.

The preposition *in* is further required, when it is not so much the notion of time that is to be expressed, as that of circumstances, in which case the word *tempus* or *tempora* may be translated by "circumstances," as: *in eiusmodi tempore*, in circumstances of that kind; *in bello*, in times of war; *in ea aetate*, in the circumstances of that time. In describing a person's

age the ablative alone may be used, as: *primâ adolescentiâ*, in early youth; *virili aetate*, in the age of manhood. The phrase *in tempore* signifies "at the right time."

§ 172. The **place where** anything happens or is done is expressed by the ablative, sometimes with, and sometimes without a preposition. The ablative alone is used—

(1.) In the phrases *dextrâ* (*sc. parte*), on the right hand; *laevâ* or *sinistrâ*, on the left hand; *terrâ marique*, by land and by sea. The word *locus*, also, when accompanied by an attributive adjective or pronoun, is generally in the ablative alone, as:

Hoc loco, illo loco.	In this, in that place.
Meliore loco.	In a better place.
Altiore loco.	In a higher place.
Suo loco (also *in loco*).	In the right or proper place.
Loco (also *in loco*) *parentis.*	In the place of a parent.

The words *pars, via, iter* are used in the same way as *locus*, as:

Hac parte,	In this side
Eâdem viâ.	On or by the same road
Illo itinere.	By that road.

(2.) In all names of places which have the attribute *tot*[illegible] as:

Totâ urbe.	Throughout the city.
Totâ Siciliâ.	Throughout Sicily.
Toto orbe terrarum.	On the whole earth.

But when a particular point or points within the whole are to be indicated, the preposition *in* may be used, as:

Totâ in Italia terrae motus facti sunt.	In several parts throughout Italy earthquakes happened.
In tota Sicilia.	In every part of the whole of Sicily.

3.) When books or parts of books are referred to, as:

Libro secundo.	In the second book.
Capite quarto.	In the fourth chapter.
Versu decimo.	In the tenth verse.

But when a special part or passage in a book is to be indicated, the preposition *in* may be used, as:

Agricultura laudatur in eo libro, qui est de tuenda re familiari.	Agriculture is praised in that book, which treats about taking care of one's property.

NOTE.—Very often what appears to be an ablative of place, is in reality an instrumental ablative, as: *fugit eādem viā*, he flees by the same road; *recipere aliquem tecto*, to receive a person in one's house; *vincere bello, proelio, certamine*, to be victorious in war, in battle, in a contest; so also *equo, curru, navi vehor*, I ride on horseback, in a carriage, I sail in a ship, and many similar expressions. Poets take great liberties in using the ablative of place without a preposition.

Respecting the names of towns and small islands in answer to the question Where? see § 153.

§ 176. **The ablative of quality** is used, like the genitive of quality (see § 156), when a substantive with an attributive adjective is employed to describe the nature or character of a person or thing, as:

Femina eximiā pulchritudine.	A woman of extraordinary beauty.
Corpus insuitatu magnitudine.	A body of unusual size.
Flumen difficili transitu.	A river difficult to cross.

NOTE.—It must be remembered that the ablative of quality generally denotes such qualities as are not permanent, while the genitive of quality describes those which are lasting and inherent in a person or thing. But this distinction is not always observed.

§ 177. The ablative is used **with comparatives** instead of *quam* with the nominative or accusative, as:

Nemo est miserior me (*quam ego*).	No one is more wretched than I.
Nemo fortunatior est Lepido (*quam Lepidus*).	No one is more fortunate than Lepidus.
Nihil est virtute (*quam virtus*) *amabilius.*	Nothing is more loveable than virtue.
Dolabellā tuo nihil scito mihi esse jucundius (for *quam Dolabellam*).	Be sure that nothing is more agreeable to me than your Dolabella.
Num mittent hominem Servilio digniorem?	Will they send a man more worthy than Servilius?

NOTE 1.—The ablative, instead of *quam* with the accusative, can generally be used only where the accusative is virtually the subject, as in the construction of the accusative with the infinitive, or where it can be resolved into a nominative, as in the above example, where *Servilio* is equivalent to *quam Servilius est.*

NOTE 2.—This use of the ablative, which is found more particularly in negative sentences, always occurs when that with which anything is compared is expressed by a relative pronoun, as: *Agamemnon immolavit Iphigeniam, qua nihil erat eo anno natum pulchrius*, Agamemnon sacrificed Iphigenia, than whom nothing more beautiful had been born in that year; *quo opere quid potest esse praeclarius?* what can be more splendid than that work? *vita deorum, qua nihil beatius cogitari potest*, the life of the gods, than which nothing more blessed can be thought of.

NOTE 3.—The ablatives *opinione, spe, expectatione, aequo, justo,* and *solito* are regularly joined to a comparative instead of *quam*, as: *opinione celerius*, more quickly than was thought; *serius spe*, later than was hoped; *plus aequo*, more than is fair; *solito magis*, more than usual. So also *dicto citius*, more quickly than the word is spoken.

NOTE 4.—After the comparatives *plus, minus, amplius,* and *longius,* when measures or numerical relations are mentioned, *quam* is frequently omitted, without the noun following being put in the ablative, as: *plus pars dimidia*, more than one half; *tecum plus annum vixi*, I have lived with you more than a year; *minus duo milia hominum*, less than 2,000 men; *spatium non amplius pedum sexcentorum*, a space not more than 600 feet.

§178. The ablative is also used **with comparatives** to express the amount of difference between the things compared, as:

Turris decem pedibus altior erat quam murus.	The tower was ten feet higher than the wall.
Multo altior.	Much higher.
Paulo longius.	A little farther.
Dimidio minor.	Smaller by one half.
Biennio major.	Two years older.

The most common ablatives of this kind are: *multo, paulo, nihilo, eo, quo, tanto, quanto.*

NOTE 1.—On the same principle, verbs implying the idea of a comparative, such as *superare, antecedĕre, antestare, praestare, malle,* and sometimes also *abesse* and *distare*, may take an ablative expressing by how much one thing is superior to, or distant from, another, as: *magnitudine aliquem antecellere*, to excel one in size; *tu omnibus praestas gloriā*, you surpass all in glory; *bidui spatio abest ab eo*, he is removed from him by the space of two days. The verbs *abesse* and *distare*, however, are more commonly construed with the accusative, as *legiones magnum spatium aberant*, the legions were a great distance off; or with the preposition *a* or *ab*, as *vastra posita sunt a milibus passuum quindecim*, the camp was pitched at a distance of 15 miles.

NOTE 2.—The prepositions *ante* and *post*, when used as adverbs, signify virtually "earlier" and "later," and may accordingly take an ablative to express by how much earlier or later one thing was than another, as: *multo ante*, long before; *haud ita multo post*, not very long after; *multis saeculis ante*, many centuries before; *tribus annis post*, three years later. *Ante* and *post* in this case are generally put after the ablative, or between the substantive and its attribute, as: *tribus annis post*, or *tribus post annis; paucis diebus post* or *paucis post diebus.* Sometimes *quam* is omitted, as: *sexto fere anno quam erat expulsus*, for *sexto fere anno postquam erat expulsus*, about six years after he had been banished. It need hardly be remarked that *ante* and *post* are also used as prepositions with the accusative without any difference of meaning.

§179. The following nine **deponent verbs** and their compounds govern the ablative: *utor, fruor, fungor, vescor, potior, nitor, laetor, glorior,* and *dignor,* as:

Bene utitur armis et equis.	He uses arms and horses well.
Qui pace volunt frui.	Those who wish to enjoy peace.
Officio fungi.	To perform a duty.
Lacte vescor.	I feed on milk.
Oppido potitur.	He takes possession of the town.
Sua re gesta laetatur or *gloriatur.*	He rejoices at, or boasts of his own exploit.

NOTE 1.—These verbs seem to have originally been passives or reflectives, so that the ablative governed by them would be in fact an instrumental ablative. But in the early Latin writers they are frequently construed with the accusative. *Potior* often takes the genitive, and always in the phrase *rerum potiri,* to seize upon the management of the state. *Laetor* sometimes takes the preposition *de,* and *glorior* and *nitor* are found also with *in* and the ablative.

NOTE 2.—The adjectives *dignus,* worthy, and *indignus,* unworthy, govern the ablative of the thing of which any one is worthy or unworthy, as: *laude dignus,* worthy of praise; *multi indigni sunt luce,* many are unworthy of the light of day. What construction is to be used when that of which a person is worthy is expressed by a verb or a clause, will be explained in the chapter on the subjunctive.

§180. The following **prepositions** always govern the ablative: *a* or *ab, ex, de, cum, pro, prae, sĭne, tĕnus, cōram, clam.* See § 127. Respecting those which sometimes govern the ablative, and sometimes the accusative, see § 128.

§181. **Names of towns and small islands** in answer to the question Whence? are always put in the ablative without a preposition, as:

Proficiscitur Romā.	He starts from Rome.
Demaratus Corintho fugit.	Demaratus fled from Corinth.

NOTE.—When the appellatives *oppidum, urbs,* or *insula* are added, they take the ordinary preposition *ab* or *ex,* as *venit ex oppido Brundisio,* he came from the town of Brundisium.

§182. What is commonly called the ablative absolute may be defined as an adverbial clause put in the ablative; but its explanation must be reserved for the chapter on participles.

CHAPTER XL.

THE VOCATIVE.

§ 183. (1.) The vocative is used in addressing a person or thing, either with or without an interjection, the most common interjection being *o*, as:

Et tu, Brute!	You too, Brutus!
Tu, Pompei, mihi aderas!	You, Pompey, stood by me.
O superi!	O ye gods above!
O soror, o conjux, o femina sola superstes!	O my sister, my wife, O thou only surviving woman!

NOTE.—The vocative must be carefully distinguished from the accusative in exclamations about a person or thing. See § 147.

(2.) Instead of the vocative, the nominative is often used, especially in poetry and early Latin, as:

Audi tu, populus Albanus.	Hear it, ye people of Alba.
Vos, O Popilius sanguis.	O ye of the blood of Pompilius.

A noun in apposition to a vocative should of course be in the vocative, but it frequently appears in the nominative.

CHAPTER XLI.

ADJECTIVES.

§ 184. It has already been stated that an adjective, whether used as an attribute or as a predicate, must agree with the substantive to which it belongs or refers in gender, number, and case. See § 135, and following.

Adjectives, generally in the plural, are frequently used as substantives in the masculine gender when they denote persons, and in the neuter when they denote things, as:

Sapientes.	Wise men.
Boni.	Good men.

Omnes boni.	All good men.
Multos ex suis amiserunt.	They lost many of their own men.
Omne bonum.	Every good thing.
Omne malum.	Every evil.
Honesta.	Honourable things.
Turpia.	Disgraceful things.

NOTE.—An adjective used substantively may of course take another adjective, but more especially a numeral or a pronoun, as an attribute, as: *omnes boni, omne malum, nobilis indoctus*, an unlearned noble. Instead of adjectives used substantively, we may say, *e. g.: homines* or *viri sapientes* and *res bonae, res difficiles*, good things, difficult things; and as the genitive, dative, and ablative plural of neuter adjectives do not differ from the other genders, it might sometimes be doubtful whether persons or things are spoken of, and in such cases it is always advisable to use the words *homines* and *res*, unless the context clearly shows what is meant. Thus, *multorum* and *multis* might mean of many and to many persons as well as things. For the same reason, adjectives of the third declension are, as a rule, used substantively only in the nominative and accusative.

§ 185. Some **neuter adjectives** are used in the sense of abstract substantives, as:

Verum for *veritas.*	The truth.
Justum for *justitia.*	Justice.
Honestum for *honestas.*	Honourable conduct.
Aequum for *aequitas.*	Equity.

Hence such adverbial expressions as:

De integro.	Afresh or anew.
Ex or *de improviso.*	In an unforeseen manner.

186. Some adjectives denoting **time or place** are used where in English we employ a substantive or an adverbial expression. The most common of such adjectives are: *primus, ultimus, extremus, postremus, summus infimus*, or *imus, intimus, medius, reliquus*—*e. g.:*

In media aqua.	In the midst of the water.
Summa in arbore.	On the top of the tree.
Prima nocte.	In the first part of the night.
In extrema epistola.	In the last part of the letter.
Dedimus nos totos philosophiae.	We devoted ourselves wholly to philosophy.

187. **Proper names** generally cannot have an attributive adjective, but they may have an apposition, such as *vir*,

homo, adolescens, mulier, urbs, oppidum, &c., to which an attribute may be given—*e. g.:*

Socrates, homo sapiens.	The wise Socrates.
Alexander, adolescens nobilis.	The noble young Alexander.

But when the attribute has become a surname, it is added at once to the proper name, as: *Alexander Magnus, Sulla Felix,* and in all cases where a man's native place is indicated by an adjective, as *Miltiades Atheniensis,* Miltiades of Athens.

NOTE.—When a substantive has two attributes, they must be connected by *et*, as, many brave men, *multi et fortes viri;* but when the second adjective with its substantive expresses only a single idea the *et* is omitted, as *columna aurea solida,* where *columna aurea* forms only one idea, and receives the attribute *solida.*

§188. The Latins frequently use adjectives where in English we employ adverbs. In this case the adjective forms a kind of apposition to the substantive, describing the condition of the agent rather than the manner of the action as:

Natura tacita judicat.	Nature judges tacitly.
Imprudens hoc feci.	I have done this imprudently.
Multi eos quos vivos coluerunt mortuos contumelia afficiunt.	Many treat with insults after death those whom they have honoured while they were alive.

Adjectives of this kind are *invitus,* unwilling; *laetus,* joyful; *libens,* glad; *sciens,* knowing; *imprudens,* imprudent; *imperitus,* unskilled; so also *domesticus,* at home; *matutinus,* in the morning; *sublimis,* aloft.

NOTE 1.—The accusative singular or plural of a neuter adjective is sometimes, especially in poetry, used as an adverb, as: *dulce ridēre,* to smile sweetly; *turbidum laetari,* to rejoice boisterously; *acerba tueri,* to look fiercely.

NOTE 2.—Some adjectives are used as substantives, some substantive being understood, which determines the gender, as: *patria* (viz., *terra, urbs,* or *civitas*), one's native country or city; *fera* (*bestia*), a wild beast; *cani* (*capilli*), gray hair; *dextra* and *laeva* (*manus*), the right and left hand; *hiberna* (*castra*), winter quarters; *aestiva* (*castra*), a stationary camp; *praetexta* (*toga*), the toga praetexta; *frigida* (*aqua*), cold water, and others.

NOTE 3.—When the neuter of a past participle is used substantively, the qualifying attribute is commonly expressed by an adverb, and not by an adjective, as: *bene factum,* a good deed; *callide dictum,* a cunning word.

§ 189. The **comparative** of an adjective or adverb often signifies that a quality exists in too high a degree—that is, in a higher degree than usual, as:

Senectus est naturā loquacior.	Old age is naturally rather talkative.
Liberius vivebat.	He lived rather freely or too freely.

NOTE.—If a quality is described as existing in too high a degree for something, it is expressed by *quam pro* (than in proportion to), as: *proelium atrocius quam pro numero pugnantium*, a battle too fierce in proportion to the number of combatants. If the something is expressed by a verb, *quam qui* or *quam ut* is used, as: *major est quam cui nocere possis* or *quam ut ei nocere possis*, he is too great a man for you to be able to hurt him.

§ 190. When two qualities existing in the same person or thing are compared with each other, either both adjectives are put in the comparative, or the comparative of the first only is indicated by *magis*, as:

Corpora magna magis quam firma.	Bodies rather large than strong.
Oratio verior quam gratior.	A speech more true than pleasing.

NOTE.—After a comparative poets sometimes use *atque* or *ac* instead of *quam*. About the omission of *quam* after a comparative, see § 176.

§ 191. The **superlative** in Latin not only indicates the highest degree absolutely, but also relatively, which we express in English by "very" with the positive, whence *vir fortissimus* may mean the bravest man, or a very brave man; *optime valeo*, I am very well. The context always shows in which of the two senses a superlative is to be understood.

NOTE 1.—The force of a superlative is sometimes increased by the addition of *quam*, with or without the addition of the verb *possum*, as: *quam maximas copias armat*, or *quam maximas potest*, he arms as large a force as he can. Sometimes the same is effected by the addition of *unus, unus omnium, longe*, or *multo*, as: *unus praestantissimus vir, unus omnium vir praestantissimus, longe praestantissimus*, or *multo praestantissimus*, by far the most distinguished man. The superlative *maximus* sometimes takes *quantus* in the same sense, as *labor quantus maximus*, the greatest possible labour.

NOTE 2.—When in English a superlative in the plural has the word all before it, it may be expressed either in the same way, or more idiomatically by *quisque*, as: *optimus quisque*, all the best men; *sapientissimus quisque*, all the wisest men; *altissima quaeque flumina*, all the deepest rivers.

CHAPTER XLII.

PRONOUNS.

§ 192. It may be laid down as a general rule that all pronouns capable of expressing gender must agree in gender and number with the substantive which they represent; but their case depends upon the structure of the clause in which they occur—*e.g.*:

Bellum, quod Caesar contra Gallos gessit.	The war, which Caesar waged against the Gauls.
Jason navem aedificat, quae Argo nominata est, et in eam ascendit.	Jason built the ship, which was called Argo, and in it he embarked.

§ 193. In the personal pronouns, gender cannot be distinguished, except in that of the third person, where we have *is, ea, id*, he, she, it.

The nominative of the **personal pronouns** is generally not expressed in Latin, being already represented by the terminations of the verb; but when the pronouns are emphatic they must be expressed, as:

Ego te invitavi, sed tu non venisti.	I invited you, but you did not come.
Nos, nos consules desumus.	We, we the consuls are wanting in doing our duty.

NOTE 1.—In Latin, as in English, a writer often uses we (*nos*) instead of I (*ego*), which may be viewed as a modest way of speaking, the writer not wishing to intrude his own person on his readers. In the same way the possessive pronoun *noster* is often used for *meus*.

NOTE 2.—The student must carefully distinguish between the form *nostrum, vestrum*, and *nostri, vestri*, which are generally regarded as the genitives of *nos* and *vos*. But *nostrum* and *vestrum* are the only real genitives plural, and are used only in a partitive sense, while *nostri, vestri* are the genitive singular of the neuter possessive *nostrum, vestrum*, as: *quis vestrum?* which of you? *uterque nostrum*, each of us; *omnium vestrum voluntas*, the wish of all of you; but *meminit vestri*, he remembers you; *memor nostri*, mindful of us.

§ 194. The **reflective pronoun** of the third person, *sui, sibi, se*, and the possessive *suus, a, um*, are used as a rule

only when they refer to the subject of the clause in which they occur, as :

Laudat se.	He praises himself.
Sibi persuasum habet.	He has persuaded himself.
Septem Graeciae sapientes civitatibus suis praefuerunt.	The seven wise men of Greece were at the head of their states.

NOTE 1.—The same pronouns are often used, where they do not refer to the grammatical, but rather to the logical subject of a sentence, as : *a Caesare invitor, ut sibi sim legatus*, I am invited by Caesar (*c. g.*, Caesar invites me) to be a lieutenant to him ; *Hannibalem sui cives e civitate ejecerunt*, Hannibal was driven from his country by his own fellow-citizens. There are, however, cases of this kind, in which it is left to the writer's discretion, as to whether the reflective pronoun should be used or not, thus : *Fadius a me diligitur propter summam suam* (or *ejus*) *humanitatem*, Fadius is loved by me on account of his very great humanity. *Catilina admonebat alium egestatis, alium cupiditatis suae* (or *ejus*), Catiline reminded some of their poverty, others of their greediness.

NOTE 2.—In subordinate clauses a reflective pronoun may refer to the subject of the subordinate clause itself, or to that of the leading clause, the latter especially when the subordinate clause expresses the thoughts or sentiments of the subject of the leading clause, as : *Gaius contemnebat divitias, quod se felicem reddere non possent*, where the subordinate clause expresses Gaius' own sentiment ; whereas, *quod eum felicem reddere non poterant*, would express the opinion of the narrator.

§ 195. A possessive pronoun always represents a genitive ; hence when a noun stands in apposition to it, the noun is put in the genitive, as :

Nulla epistola tua.	No letter from you, or of you.
Quum mea scripta nemo legat vulgo recitare timentis.	As no one reads my writings (the writings of me) who am afraid to read them to the multitude.

Possessive pronouns are not expressed in Latin when they can be easily understood from the context ; they are expressed only where there might be ambiguity without them, and where they are emphatic, in which case they are put before the substantive, as :

Mea domus.	My own house.
Domus mea.	My house.

NOTE.—Sometimes possessive pronouns have the meaning of "right," "proper," as : *suo tempore*, at the right time ; *suo loco*, in the proper place.

§ 196. The general meaning of the three demonstrative pronouns has been explained in § 56, and we shall here notice only some special uses of them.

Hic, haec, hoc, referring to something near the speaker, is sometimes equivalent to the English "the present," as :

In hac magnificentia urbis.	In the present splendour of the city.
Qui haec vituperari volunt.	Those who wish the present state of affairs to be blamed.

Ille, illa, illud, signifies not only that or yon person or thing spoken of, but also "the well known" or "the famous," as :

Illa aquila.	That famous eagle.
Illa Medea.	The well known Medea.

When *hic* and *ille* are opposed to each other in a sentence, *hic* generally means "the latter," and *ille* "the former," as :

Caesar beneficiis atque munificentia maynus habebatur, integritate vitae Cato: ille mansuetudine et misericordia clarus factus, huic severitas dignitatem addiderat.	Caesar was thought great for his acts of kindness and munificence, Cato for the purity of his life : the former became renowned through his gentleness and clemency, on the latter his sternness had conferred dignity.

Sometimes, however, *hic* refers to what is indeed more distant in the order of words, but is at the same time the first in the speaker's mind ; in this case *hic* means "the former," as :

Melior tutiorque certa pax quam sperata victoria; haec (pax) in tua, illa in deorum potestate est.	A sure peace is better and safer than a hoped-for victory ; the former is in your own power, the latter in that of the gods.

Hic and *ille*, lastly, are used to point to something following, but with this difference, that *hic* points to something connected with that which precedes, whereas *ille* points to something new and unconnected with what precedes.

Iste, ista, istud, properly the demonstrative of the second person, often conveys the idea of contempt, especially when in a speech an opponent is pointed to, as :

Iste gladiator.	That (contemptible) gladiator.

§ 197. The determinative pronoun *is, ea, id*, is really the personal pronoun of the third person, and refers to a person or thing known from the context, like the English he, she, it. But it is most commonly used as the antecedent to a relative pronoun, as *is qui*, he who ; in this sense, however, it is often omitted, when it is not

emphatic, so that *qui* alone comes to mean "he who." But when it is very emphatic, it is introduced after the relative clause, as :

Quod virtute effici debet, id tentatur pecunia. What ought to be effected by virtue, that is attempted by money.

About the agreement of the relative pronoun with its antecedent, see § 140.

NOTE.—When an attribute to a substantive is to be set forth with special emphasis, it is introduced by *et is, isque, atque is, et is quidem,* and in negative clauses by *neque is,* as : *vincula vero et ea sempiterna certe ad singularem poenam inventa sunt,* imprisonment, and that too for life, has certainly been devised for an extraordinary punishment; *unam rem explicabo eamque maximam,* I shall explain one thing, and that too the greatest; *una in domo et ea quidem angusta,* in one house, and that indeed a narrow one.

Idem, eadem, idem (the same), is sometimes used when to one attribute another is added, where we say "and also," as :

Avunculus meus, vir innocentissimus idemque doctissimus. My uncle, a most harmless and also a most learned man.

Contulit se ad Satrapem Ioniae eundemque generum regis. He went to the Satrap of Ionia, who was also the king's son-in-law.

Ipse, ipsa, ipsum (self), must sometimes be rendered in English by "very," "just," or "exactly," as :

Ipso natali die. On his very birthday, or just on his birthday.

Hoc ipso loco. Exactly in this place.

Hac ipsa de causa. For this very reason.

When *ipse* is joined to a personal pronoun, great care must be taken to determine whether it refers to the subject or the object of the clause, as :

Me ipse laudo. I praise myself (it is not another person that praises me).

Me ipsum laudo. I praise myself (not another person).

Cato se ipse interemit. Cato killed himself (*i.e.*, he himself did it).

Se ipsum interfecit. He killed himself (not any one else).

CHAPTER XLIII.

THE VOICES AND MOODS IN GENERAL.

§ 198. In regard to the use of the voices of a verb, it may be said in general that there is little difference between the Latin and the English, except that in Latin passive verbs are sometimes used in a reflective sense, as *vertor*, I am turned, and I turn myself; and that owing to the want of a past participle in the active, recourse must sometimes be had to the passive, where in English the active is used, as :

Captam urbem militibus diripiendam permisit. Having taken the city, he gave it up to the soldiers for plunder.

§ 199. The general character of the moods is—

(1.) The indicative states a fact or asks a direct question, as :

Pater filium Athenas misit. The father sent his son to Athens.
Cur hoc fecisti? Why have you done this?

(2.) The subjunctive does not express a fact, but only actions conceived by the mind as possible, intended, wished for, or conditional, as :

Dicat aliquis. Some one may say.
Edo ut vivam. I eat that I may live
Venias ad me. May you come to me.
Si ad me venias. If you come to me.

(3.) The imperative expresses a command either to be complied with at once, or to be obeyed whenever occasion requires it, as :

Subvenite mihi misero. Help me wretched man.
Hominem in urbe ne sepelito. Thou shalt not bury a man in the city.

(4.) The infinitive can scarcely be called a mood; it is only the name of an action, or a verbal substantive occurring only in the nominative and accusative, the remaining cases being supplied by the gerund, as :

Amare patriam honestum est. To love one's country is honourable.
Non potuit negare. He could not deny it.
Cupiditas habendi. The desire to possess.

The infinitive differs from ordinary substantives only by governing its case as a verb.

NOTE.—Participles are in form adjectives, but govern their cases as verbs.

CHAPTER XLIV.

THE INDICATIVE MOOD AND ITS TENSES.

§ 200. The indicative is commonly used after **indefinite relatives** and those which have the suffix *cunque*, as: *quisquis* (whoever), *quotquot* (however many), *quicunque* (whosoever), *quantuscunque* (however great), *utut*, *utcunque* (howsoever)—*e.g.*:

Quidquid dicis.	Whatever you may say.
Utcunque sese res habet.	However the matter may stand.
Quicunque is est.	Whoever he may be.

NOTE.—Later writers sometimes use the subjunctive with these relatives.

§ 201. The indicative is used in both parts of an **hypothetical sentence**, when the supposition is regarded as true, or is assumed to be true for the sake of argument, as:

Si est boni consulis ferre opem patriae, est etiam bonorum civium.	If it is the part of a good consul (as it really is) to render help to his country, it is also the part of good citizens.
Si Deus aut anima aut ignis est, idem est animus hominis.	If God is either air or fire (assuming this to be true for the sake of argument), the soul of man is the same.

NOTE.—Respecting the subjunctive in hypothetical sentences, see the chapter on the subjunctive.

§ 202. The **past tenses** of the verbs *oportet*, *necesse est*, *debeo*, *convenit*, *possum*, *licet*, and of the expressions *par*, *fas*, *aequum*, *justum*, *consentaneum*, *satis*, *satius*, *melius*, *aequius est*, are used in the indicative, where, according to the English idiom, we might expect the subjunctive. The imperfect in these cases signifies that something ought or might have been done, and that it is not too late yet; whereas the perfect and pluperfect intimate that it is too late—*e.g.*:

Ad mortem te, Catilina, duci jam pridem oportebat.	You, Catilina, ought long ago to have been put to death (and it may yet be done).

Patris loco eum colere debebas.	You ought to have honoured him like a father (and you may still do so).
Longe melius fuit interficere furem.	It would have been much better to kill the thief (but it cannot be done now).
Quanto melius fuerat.	How much better would it have been.
Volumnia debuit in te officiosior esse.	Volumnia ought to have been more attentive to you (but it cannot be altered now).

§ 203. (1.) The **present indicative** states not only what is happening at the present time, but also what happens at all times, as :

Ego nunc scribo epistolam.	I am now writing a letter.
Dies illucescit.	The day is dawning.
Deus mundum gubernat.	God rules the world.

The Latin language has no form to distinguish between I write and I am writing, both being expressed by *scribo*.

(2.) The present in historical narrative is often used in speaking of past events, to bring them more vividly before the reader or hearer. This is done more or less in all languages, and requires no illustration.

NOTE.—In historical narrative the conjunction *dum* in the sense of "while" is generally construed with the present indicative, though the event belongs to the past, as *dum haec geruntur in Asia, bellum jam ortum erat in Italia*, while these things were going on in Asia, war had already broken out in Italy. But this is not the case when *dum* signifies "as long as" or "until."

§ 204. The **imperfect indicative** describes an action either as going on, or as repeated, or as attempted in past time, as :

Etiam tum Athenae gloria litterarum florebant.	Even then Athens was flourishing through its literary glory.
Socrates dicebat.	Socrates used to say.
Cato pro lege quae abrogabatur ita disseruit.	Cato spoke thus in support of the law which it was attempted to abrogate.

Hence *donabat*, he tried to give, *i.e.*, he offered.

NOTE 1.—From the first of the three meanings of the imperfect it follows that it is the tense to be employed in *describing* past states or

conditions as contrasted to historical events, as: *ea gens erat validissima totius Galliae*, that nation was the most powerful in all Gaul; *prae lacrimis loqui non poterat*, he was unable to speak for tears. In both these examples a continued state or condition is described; but it depends upon the writer's judgment whether he prefers to state them as conditions continuing to exist, or to mention them as historical facts, in which case he would be justified in using the perfect *fuit* and *loqui non potuit*. The manner of viewing the facts only would be different.

NOTE 2.—In the epistolary style the writer of a letter sometimes uses a past tense, the imperfect or the perfect, where in English we use the present, because when the receiver of the letter reads it, the act of writing is past, as: *nihil habebam quod tibi scriberem*, I have nothing that I may write to you; *haec ad te scripsi ante lucem*, I write this to you before day-break.

§ 205. The **future** simply states that which is to take place in time to come, as:

Cras ad te veniam. — To-morrow I shall come to you.
Hostes urbem aggredientur. — The enemies will attack the city.

NOTE 1.—The Latin is more exact in the use of the future than the English, for we often use the present where future time is meant, as: if we follow nature as our guide, *si sequemur naturam ducem*, the writer speaking of what will happen if (in future) we follow nature; he who wishes to gain true fame let him discharge the duties of justice, *qui adipisci veram gloriam volet, justitiae fungatur officiis.*

NOTE 2.—The future is sometimes used as a gentle command instead of the imperative when the writer or speaker wishes to intimate that he is sure the command will be obeyed, as: *scribes mihi de rebus urbanis*, write to me about the affairs of the city (I am sure you will do so).

§ 206. (1.) The **perfect indicative** has two distinct meanings; first, it simply states an historical fact as a point in the past, like the Greek aorist, as:

Romulus condidit urbem. — Romulus built the city.
Hannibal Romanos superavit. — Hannibal overpowered the Romans.

Secondly, it states a past event with reference to its present result, and in this sense it is the same as the English and Greek perfect. When, therefore, we read *Romulus urbem condidit*, the meaning may be, "Romulus built the city," or "Romulus has built the city" (the still existing city). In which of the two senses a perfect is to be taken is generally clear from the context, as:

Pater jam venit. — The father has already arrived.

Scripsi epistolam. — I have written the letter (it is now finished).

Fuimus Troes, fuit Ilium. — We Trojans have been, Troy has been (it is now no longer).

NOTE.—When the perfect states a past act with reference to present time, it may be called the present perfect, and hence several perfects have actually acquired the meaning of presents, as: *odi*, I hate; *memini*, I remember; *coepi*, I begin.

(2.) The perfect indicative is generally used after the conjunctions *postquam* (after), *ut*, *ubi* (when), *simul*, *simul ac* or *atque*, *ut primum*, *quum primum* (as soon as), where in English we commonly use the pluperfect, as;

Postquam nuntiatum est hostes appropinquare, castra movit. — After it had been announced that the enemy was approaching, he moved his camp.

Ubi Helvetii de adventu Caesaris certiores facti sunt, legatos ad eum mittunt. — When the Helvetii were or had been informed of Caesar's arrival, they sent ambassadors to him.

Ut or *ubi equitatum suum pulsum vidit, acie excessit.* — When he saw his cavalry was beaten, he withdrew from the battle.

Simul ac hostes conspexerunt, terga vertere coeperunt. — As soon as they perceived the enemy, they turned their backs.

NOTE.—*Postquam* sometimes takes the pluperfect, more especially when a particular time is mentioned after which anything happens, as: *tertio anno postquam patria excesserat in Africam rediit*, three years after he had left his country, he returned to Africa. Sometimes the above conjunctions and even *postquam* are construed with the present, provided the action spoken of was still going on while another took place, as: *postquam perfugae murum arietibus feriri vident, aurum atque argentum domum regiam comportant*, after the deserters saw the wall battered by the battering-ram, they carried their gold and silver into the royal palace. When *ubi* and *simulac* introduce a repeated action, they generally take the pluperfect, as: *Alcibiades, simulac se remiserat, luxuriosus reperiebatur*, as soon as (*i. e.*, whenever) Alcibiades had freed himself from business, he was found luxurious.

§ 207. The **pluperfect** indicative states an action which had already taken place when another commenced, as:

Turris jam corruerat, quum aries ad murum admovebatur. — A tower had already fallen, when the battering ram was moved towards the wall.

NOTE.—It is only by a poetical license that the pluperfect is occasionally used, for the sake of greater vividness, to describe an action which never was completed, but would have been completed, if circumstances had not

prevented it, as: *me truncus illapsus cerebro sustulerat* (for *sustulisset*), *nisi Faunus ictum dextra levasset*, a trunk of a tree descending upon my brains had (would have) killed me, had not Faunus with his right hand lightened the blow. (Compare § 215, note 2.)

§ 208. The **future perfect** indicates that something will have taken place in future, when some other action will take place, as:

Romam quum venero, ad te scribam. When I shall have arrived at Rome, I will write to you.

Dum tu haec leges, ego illum fortasse convenero. While you will be reading this, I shall perhaps have met him.

NOTE.—This tense requires careful attention, because in English, perhaps on account of its clumsy formation, it is rarely used, the simple future or even the present being substituted for it. Thus, in the above example, we may say: when I arrive at Rome, I will write to you. The Latins, with a certain partiality for this tense, employ it frequently where the simple future might be expected: *hoc tu ipse videris*, you will see this yourself; *de Carthagine vereri non ante desinam, quam illam excisam esse cognovero*, I shall not cease to fear about Carthage, until I hear that it is destroyed.

§ 209. The indicative of any tense is used in **direct questions** both with and without interrogative pronouns and adverbs, as:

Quis hoc fecit? Who has done this?
Quid tibi vis? What do you want?
Ubi heri fuisti? Where were you yesterday?
Ut valet? How is he?
Thrax est Gallina Syro par? Is the Thracian Gallina a match for Syrus?

When a direct question is asked without an interrogative pronoun or adverb, the interrogative character of the sentence is generally indicated by one of the particles *ne*, *num*, *utrum*, or *an*, with this distinction, that *ne*, which is appended to some word of the sentence, asks a simple question without any suggestion as to whether the answer is to be yes or no; whereas a direct question introduced by *num* expects a negative answer, as:

Audistine eum loquentem? Have you heard him speaking?
Num negare audes? Do you dare to deny it?
Nonne vides? Do you not see?
Canis nonne similis est lupo? Does a dog not resemble a wolf?

Utrum—an is used in double or alternative questions, as:

Utrum matrem an patrem pluris facis. Do you esteem your mother or your father more highly?

NOTE 1.—When a question is asked in a state of excitement, it is sometimes done without any interrogative particle as above, *Thrax est Gallina Syro par?* Sometimes *ecquid* or *numquid* are used as mere interrogative particles like *ne* and *num*, as: *ecquid animadvertis horum silentium?* do you observe the silence of these men? *numquid duas habetis patrias?* have you two native countries?

NOTE 2.—The usual mode of putting a double or alternative question is to introduce the first part by *utrum* (which of the two?) and the second by *an;* but sometimes the first part has *ne* instead of *utrum*, or no particle at all, while the second is almost invariably introduced by *an* and but rarely by *ne*.

NOTE 3.—Sometimes an apparently single question is introduced by *an* (or), but in such a case the first alternative is always understood and easily supplied from the context, as: *quid dicis? an bello fugitivorum Siciliam virtute tua liberatam?* What do you say? or (do you say) that Sicily was delivered by your valour from the war of the slaves?

When the second part of a double question is "or not," this is expressed either by *necne* or *annon*.

Regarding indirect questions see § 221.

CHAPTER XLV.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE AND ITS TENSES.

§ 210. The subjunctive has only four tenses, the present, imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect, but no future nor future perfect. An action merely conceived as possible or wished for in present time naturally belongs to the future; hence the present subjunctive involves the idea of the future, which it resembles even in form.

NOTE.—What used to be given as the future subjunctive—*e.g.*, *amaturus sim*, *deleturus sim*, &c., is only the present subjunctive of the periphrastic conjugation.

§ 211. In their meaning, the tenses of the subjunctive differ in some respects from those of the indicative, especially inasmuch as they only indicate in general whether an action takes place within past or present time, but they do

not indicate the state of the action—that is, they do not intimate whether an action is to be regarded as a mere point in time, or whether it is to be conceived as going on or repeated.

NOTE.—In what is called the *oratio obliqua* the case is somewhat different, for there subordinate clauses expressed by the subjunctive are originally conceived as indicative clauses, whence the state of an action is as apparent in them as in ordinary indicative clauses.

§ 212. The subjunctive mostly occurs in subordinate or dependent clauses, and the tenses of such clauses are determined by the tenses of the principal or leading clause. The rule respecting this **sequence of tenses** (*consecutio temporum*) is, that the tenses denoting present time (present and present perfect) must be succeeded by the subjunctive of tenses belonging or referring to the same time, and the tenses denoting past time (the imperfect, historical perfect, and pluperfect) must be succeeded by the subjunctive of the imperfect or pluperfect—*e.g.*:

Quaero (I ask) *quid facias* or *quid feceris.* — I ask what you are doing or what you have done.

Quaesivi (I have asked) *quid facias* or *quid feceris.* — I have asked what you are doing or have done.

Quaerebam (I was asking) / *Quaesivi* (I asked) / *Quaesiveram* (I had asked) — *quid faceres* or *quid fecisses*, what you did or had done.

NOTE 1.—The historical present which represents the historical perfect, may be followed either by a present or past tense, as: *Ubii legatos ad Caesarem mittunt qui doceant*, the Ubii send ambassadors to Caesar to inform him; *Athenienses creant decem imperatores, qui praeessent*, the Athenians appoint ten generals to be at the head; *Caesar cognoscit quid hostes fecerint* or *fecissent*, Caesar learns what the enemy has or had done.

NOTE 2.—When the verb of the principal clause is a future or future perfect, the dependent clause may take the subjunctive of the present or perfect, as *quaeram* or *quaesivero*, *quid facias* or *quid feceris*. When a dependent clause distinctly refers to the future, it takes the subjunctive of the periphrastic conjugation, as: *quaero* (I ask), *quaesivi* (I have asked), or *quaeram* (I shall ask), *quid facturus sis*, and *quid facturus fueris*, what you mean to do, and what you intended to do; *quaerebam, quaesivi* (historical), *quaesiveram, quid facturi essetis* and *quid facturi fuissetis*, I asked or had asked, what you meant to do, and what you had meant to do.

NOTE 3.—In consecutive sentences—*i.e.*, in sentences expressing the result or consequence of an action—the historical perfect or an imperfect is followed in the dependent clause by a present subjunctive, if the consequences are to be represented as still existing, and by the perfect subjunc-

tive, if the consequence is to be represented as an historical fact, as: *Verres Siciliam per triennium ita devastavit, ut ea restitui in antiquum statum nullo modo possit*, for three years Verres has devastated Sicily in such a manner that it cannot be restored in any way to its ancient condition: *inclusum in curia senatum habuerunt Salaminium ita multos dies, ut interierint nonnulli fame*, they kept the Salaminian Senate shut up in the senate house for so many days, that some died of hunger. (Here their dying of hunger is as much an historical fact as the fact of their being locked up.)

NOTE 4.—The subjunctive as a potential mood in a past tense may follow a present of the principal clause, as: *video causas esse permultas, quae Roscium impellerent*, I see very many reasons which might induce or may have induced Roscius; *verisimile non est, ut ab se dimitteret*, it is not likely that he should have dismissed, &c.

§ 213. **The subjunctive in hypothetical sentences.**—An hypothetical or conditional sentence consists of two parts, the one which contains the supposition and is called the **protăsis**, and the one which contains the conclusion or inference, and is called the **apodŏsis**. These two parts generally stand to each other in such a relation that the tense or form of the verb in the protasis determines that of the apodosis.

The protasis is introduced by one of the conjunctions *si, nisi, ni, etsi, etiamsi, quodsi, si non, modo*, and *dummodo* (if only).

NOTE 1.—It often happens in all languages that the apodosis alone is expressed, the protasis being left to be supplied by the mind, as: *illo tempore aliter sensisses*, at that time you would have felt otherwise, viz., if you had known it, or some similar phrase, which is always easily discovered from the context; *id ego non facerem*, I should not do this—viz., if I were in your place.

NOTE 2.—The substance of a protasis is sometimes expressed by a single word, a participle, or an ablative absolute, as: *mori nemo sapiens miserum dixerit*, no one, if he be wise, will say that to die is miserable; *his pulsis quomodo in hac urbe esse possim?* how could I live in this city if these men are expelled?

§ 214. If a supposition is put in such a manner that it is conceived as only possible or probable, both the protasis and the apodasis have the verb in the present or perfect subjunctive, as:

Dies deficiat, si velim numerare, quibus bonis male evenerit.	The day would not be long enough, if I wished to enumerate the good men who have been unfortunate.

Si id acciderit, simus armati.	If that should happen we shall be armed.
Pro patria quis bonus dubitat mortem oppetere, si ei sit profuturus?	What good man would hesitate to die for his country, if (thereby) he were to benefit it?
Si gladium quis apud te sana mente deposuerit, repetat insaniens, reddere peccatum sit.	If any one had while in [illegible]nd mind deposited with [illegible] a sword, and claimed it back while insane, to give it back would be a wrong act.
Si scieris aspidem occulte latere uspiam improbe feceris, nisi monueris alterum ne assidcat.	If you had found out that an asp is lying concealed somewhere, you would be acting wrongly if you did not warn another man not to sit there.

NOTE.—It may happen that, although the protasis puts a condition as only possible, the conclusion is nevertheless regarded as a fact, or a reality, and in this case the verb in the apodosis is in the indicative, as: *aliter si faciant, nullam habent auctoritatem*, if they act otherwise, they have no authority; *si possim, castra intrare volo*, if I can, I wish to enter the camp; *amicitiam tueri non possumus, nisi aeque amicos et nosmet ipsos diligamus*, we cannot maintain friendship unless we love our friends equally as ourselves. This is always the case with *non possum* in the apodosis, if the protasis also is negative.

§ 215. If a supposition is put in such a manner as to intimate that it is not, or was not true, and that, therefore, the conclusion also does not, or did not take place, the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive is used in both protasis and apodosis, as:

Si id crederes, errares.	If you believed this you would be mistaken.
Si id credidisses, errasses.	If you had believed this, you would have been mistaken.
Si provincia loqui posset, hac voce uteretur.	If the province could speak, it would use these words.
Pluribus verbis ad te scriberem, si res verba desideraret,	I should write to you in more words, if the affair required words.
Si ibi te esse scissem, ad te ipse venissem.	If I had known you to be there I should myself have come to you.
Si bis bina quod essent didicisset, certe haec non diceret.	If he had learned how much twice two is, he would certainly not say this.

NOTE 1.—It is obvious that in these examples the imperfect subjunctive has the meaning of a present, and refers to present time, and that the

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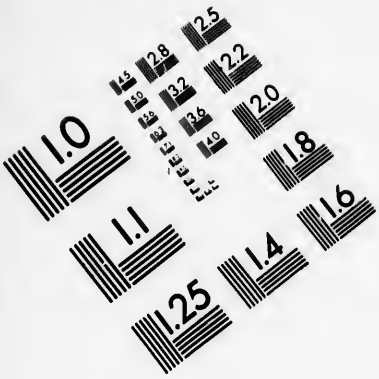

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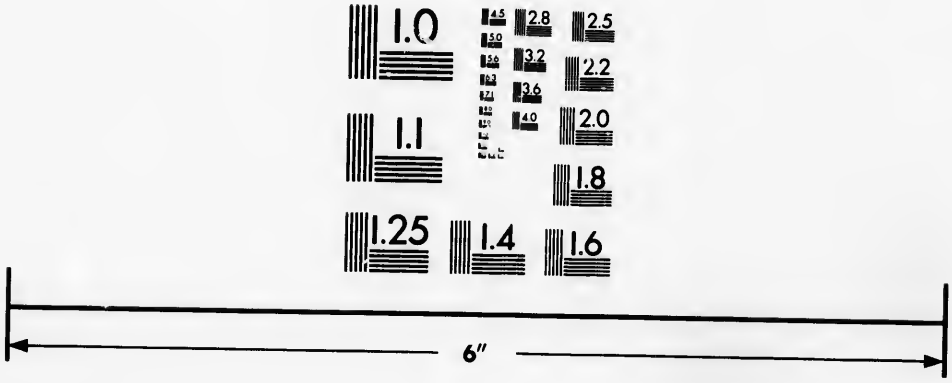

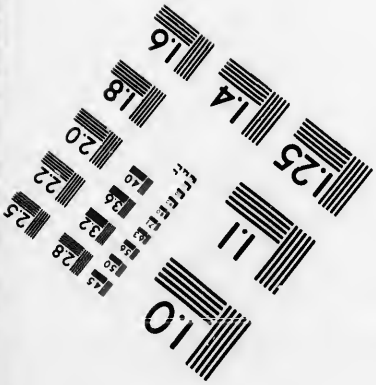

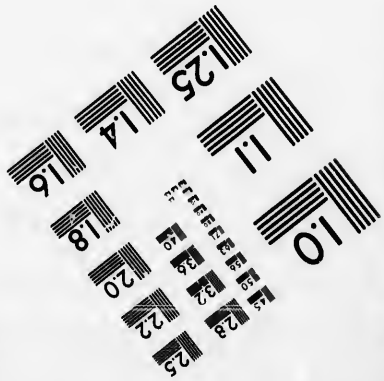

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pluperfect has the meaning simply of a past tense, and not that of a regular pluperfect. But there are many instances in which the imperfect retains its meaning of a past tense, more especially in the protasis, as: *num tu Opimium, si tum esses, temerarium civem aut crudelem putares?* if you had lived at the time, would you have regarded Opimius as a rash and cruel citizen? *tu, Eruci, accusator esses ridiculus, si illis temporibus natus esses*, you, Erucius, would have been a ridiculous accuser, if you had been born in those times; *qui* (i.e., *si quis*) *videret urbem, captam diceret*, if any one had seen the city, he would have said that it was a captured city.

NOTE 2.—In this class of hypothetical sentences also the apodosis sometimes has the verb in the indicative to express the action or condition as a real fact, as: *in Asiam ire nolui, quod si fieret aliquid a novis magistratibus, abesse longe nolebam*, I did not wish to go into Asia, because, if anything were done by the new magistrates, I did not wish to be far away; *certe nihil fuit praeterea, si te victori nolles committere*, certainly there was nothing else, if you did not wish to entrust yourself to the conqueror; *Cyrus grave bellum Graeciae passurus fuit, si quid in Croeso crudelius consuluisset*, Cyrus was likely to become involved in a serious war with Greece, if he had resolved upon anything too cruel in the case of Croesus. This is the case especially when the action mentioned in the apodosis was only commenced or attempted but not completed, as: *Caecina circumveniebatur, ni prima legio sese opposuisset*, Caecina was in the act of being surrounded (and would have been surrounded), had not the first legion opposed itself.

§ 216. **The subjunctive as a potential mood.**—The subjunctive as a potential mood expresses that something appears to the speaker as possible or probable. The present and perfect refer to present time, and the imperfect to the past, as:

Dicat or *dixerit quispiam.*	Some one may say.
Diceret quispiam.	Some one may have said.
Vix fortasse videatur.	It may perhaps scarcely seem.
Fortasse dixerit quispiam.	Some one may perhaps say.
Quis hoc non dederit?	Who would not grant this?
Quis tantum bellum arbitraretur ab uno imperatore confici posse?	Who would have believed that so great a war could be brought to an end by one general?
Hannibal, quod minime quis crederet, partem militum dimisit.	Hannibal dismissed a part of his soldiers, a thing which no one could have believed at all.

NOTE 1.—The potential subjunctive is frequently used, when an indefinite person is addressed, where the French would use *on*, as: *dissimulatio est cum aliter sentias ac loquare*, dissimulation exists, when you feel otherwise than you speak; *hanc modestiam ubi nunc inveneris, quae tum populi universi fuit?* where would you find that modesty now, which was then the character of the whole people? In the same manner the imperfects *diceres, videres, crederes, putares*, and others express a past potential, though in some cases they may be regarded as forming the apodosis of an hypothetical sentence of which the protasis is not expressed, as: *haud facile decerneres, utrum Hannibal imperatori an exercitui carior esset*, you

could not easily have decided (viz., if you had been present) whether Hannibal was dearer to the commander or to the army; *Romani moesti, credcres victos, in castra redeunt*, the Romans return to the camp in a state of depression, you might have believed that they had been defeated.

NOTE 2.—The potential subjunctive is further used to express a statement with a certain degree of reserve or modesty. This is the case especially with *velim, nolim, malim*, as: *ego quaerendum censeam*, I am inclined to think that it ought to be asked; *ego haud paullo hunc animum malim, quam eorum omnium fortunas*, I am inclined to prefer not a little this spirit to the fortunes of all of them.

The perfect of *video* which occurs very frequently may in some cases be regarded as a potential, as: *quam recte id faciat viderint sapientes*, how far I am doing this rightly, philosophers may decide.

§ 217. **The subjunctive as an imperative and optative** expresses a wish or a command in a somewhat milder form than the imperative. This is the case very commonly in the third person, as:

Valeant cives mei, sint beati, stet haec urbs praeclara.	Let my fellow-citizens be well, let them be happy, let this glorious city flourish.

But it also occurs in the first person singular and plural, for which the imperative has no forms, as:

Sed reprimam me.	But let me repress myself.
Amemus patriam, pareamus senatui, consulamus bonis.	Let us love our country, let us obey the senate, let us take care of the good men.

And in the second person singular, more especially when denoting an indefinite person, as:

Quidquid agis, prudenter agas.	Whatever you do, do with prudence.
Isto bono utare, dum adsit.	Use that advantage as long as it is before you.

The imperfect and pluperfect refer to the past, and intimate that something ought to have been done, as:

Pateretur.	He ought to have tolerated it.
Imitatus esses ipsum illum Voconium.	You ought to have imitated that very Voconius.
Frumentum ne emisses.	You ought not to have bought the corn.

NOTE.—When the command is negative, *ne* must be used, though *non*

also may be employed, if it is particularly emphatic, or if the negative refers only to some special word and not to the whole clause, as: *donis impii ne placare audeant deos*, let not the impious venture to appease the gods with presents; *a legibus non recedamus*, let us not depart from the laws; *ne me tetigeris*, do not touch me; *ne transieris Iberum*, do not cross the Iberus.

§ 218. A wish expressed by the present or perfect subjunctive (optative) suggests that the wish may be fulfilled, but if expressed by the imperfect or pluperfect it is intimated that the wish cannot be realised. The force of the wish is often increased by the addition of the particle *utinam* (would that), as:

Dii prohibeant a vobis impias mentes. May the gods keep impious dispositions from you.

Vellem adesse posset Panaetius. I wish Panaetius could be present.

Utinam illum diem videam. Would that I may see that day.

Utinam suspicionem vitare potuisses. Would that you had been able to avoid the suspicion.

§ 219. **The subjunctive as a concessive mood** expresses that something is conceded or granted, and is used both with and without the conjunction *ut*; if the concession is negative, *ne* must be used. Present time is indicated by the present, and the past by the perfect—*e.g.*:

Naturam expellas furca, tamen usque recurret. Granting that you drive out nature with a pitchfork, still it will always come back.

Ut desint vires, tamen est laudanda voluntas. Granting that the strength is wanting, yet the good will deserves praise.

Ne sit summum malum dolor. Granting that pain is not the greatest evil.

Fuerint cupidi, fuerint irati. Granting that they were greedy, granting that they were angry.

NOTE.—A concession expressed by the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive intimates that what is conceded is not true, as: *ut rationem Plato nullam afferret*, granting that Plato brought forward no reason; *vicissent improbos boni*, supposing or granting the good had conquered the wicked.

§ 220. The subjunctive is used in **direct doubtful questions**—that is, such questions which are put by a person in a state of perplexity and not knowing what to do, as:

Quid faciam? What am I to do?

Quid facerem? What was I to do? or what could I do?

Quo me nunc vertam?	In what direction am I to turn now?
Quid hoc homine faciatis?	What are you to do with this man?
Hoc quis ferre possit?	Who could bear this?
Pudaremne id unquam accidere posse?	Could I have believed that this would ever happen?
Tibi inimicus cur esset?	Why should he have been your enemy?

§ 221. The subjunctive is used in **all indirect questions**—that is, in all questions depending upon some verb of asking, saying, seeing, knowing, and the like. These questions are introduced by the same interrogative pronouns and particles as direct questions. The tense of the verb depends upon that of the verb in the principal clause, according to the rule about the sequence of the tenses, as:

Intelligo quid velit.	I see what he wants.
Memini quid mihi suasceris.	I remember what you have advised me.
Non satis videre possum quid velint.	I cannot see clearly what they wish.
Epaminondas quaesivit salvusne esset clipeus.	Epaminondas asked if his shield was safe.
Numquid vellem rogavit.	He asked me, if I wished anything.
Xenophonti consulenti, sequereturne Cyrum respondit Socrates.	Socrates replied to Xenophon, who consulted him, whether he should follow Cyrus.

NOTE 1.—Double or alternative questions follow the same rule, as: *honestumne factu sit, an turpe, dubitant*, they doubt whether it is honourable (to do) or disgraceful; *deliberabatur de Avarico, incendi placeret, an defendi*, there was a deliberation about Avaricum, whether it should be set on fire or be defended.

NOTE 2.—Indirect questions must be carefully distinguished from relative clauses, *dixi quid sentiam*, I have said what I think, and *dixi quod sentio*, I have said that which I think.

NOTE 3.—*Num* introducing an indirect question does not expect a negative answer. Compare § 209

NOTE 4.—The expressions *nescio quis* and *nescio quomodo* are sometimes used in the sense of *quidam* (some one) and *quodammodo* (in a certain manner), and accordingly exercise no influence on the structure of the sentence, as: *prope me nescio quis loquitur*, some one is speaking near me; *fit enim, nescio quomodo*, for it somehow happens. So also *mirum quantum* and *nimium quantum*, in the sense of extremely, as *id mirum quantum profuit nobismet ipsis*, that was extremely useful to ourselves.

§ 222. The subjunctive is used in all subordinate sentences expressing **intention or result.** They are introduced by the conjunctions *ut, uti* (in order that, so that), *quo* (in order that thereby), *ne* or *ut ne* (lest, in order that not), *ut non* (so that not), *quin, quominus* (that not)—*e.g.:*

Themistocles servum misit ut (or *qui*) *nuntiaret.*	Themistocles sent a slave to announce.
Arboribus Italia consita est, ut tota pomarium videatur.	Italy is covered with trees, so that the whole seems to be an orchard.
Ager aratur, quo meliores foetus possit edere.	The field is ploughed, in order that thereby it may produce better fruit.
Nolo esse laudator, ne videar adulator.	I do not wish to praise, lest I should seem to flatter.
Verres Siciliam ita vexavit, ut restitui non possit.	Verres has tortured Sicily in such a manner that it cannot recover.
Te infirmitas valetudinis tenuit, quominus ad ludos venires.	The weakness of your health prevented your coming to the games.
Vix me contineo, quin aggrediar illum.	I scarcely restrain myself so as not to attack him.

NOTE 1.—The above mentioned conjunctions require the verb to be in the subjunctive, because they indicate only an intention, and not a fact. The only case where a fact is expressed by the indicative is after *ut* in the sense of "so that," as *erat Alcibiades ea sagacitate, ut decipi non posset,* Alcibiades was a man of that sagacity that he could not be deceived, where the impossibility of his being deceived is as much a fact as that he possessed great sagacity. The subjunctive in this case only expresses grammatical dependence.

NOTE 2.—*Ut* with the subjunctive expresses either an intention (in order that), or a result (so that), or a concession (granting that). Respecting the last of these see § 219. The *ut* is often omitted, especially after *licet, oportet, necesse est, fac, faxo,* and also after *volo, nolo, malo, placet,* and *cupio,* as: *licet taceas,* you may be silent, although you are silent; *quid vis faciam?* what do you wish that I should do? *fac venias,* take care to come, or mind you come.

Ut very often introduces a clause only as an explanation of some general term preceding, such as *hoc* or *illud,* as: *est hoc commune vitium in magnis liberisque civitatibus, ut invidia gloriae comes sit,* a common failing in great and free states is this, that envy is the companion of glory. In a similar manner *ut* is often used after the expressions, *aequum est, justum est, mos est,* and *optimum est.*

Ut, lastly, is used after expressions signifying in general that something is or happens, such as: *fit, accidit, contingit, evenit* (it happens), *futurum est, usu venit, sequitur, restat* or *reliquum est, superest, proximum est,* and the like. In some cases these expressions are followed by an infinitive, as *non*

cuivis contingit adire Corinthum, it is not every one's good luck to visit Corinth.

NOTE 3.—*Ne* expresses a negative intention, whereas *ut non* introduces negative result or consequence, as: *hoc tibi nuntiavi, ne ignorares*, I reported this to you, that you might not be ignorant; but *Attici quies tantopere Caesari fuit grata, ut victor huic molestus non fuerit*, the fact that Atticus remained quiet, was so agreeable to Caesar that as conqueror he did not trouble him. Sometimes we find *ut ne* instead of the simple *ne*, in which case *ut* denotes the intention and *ne* its negative character.

Ne is further used after verbs of fearing, when the wish is intimated that the thing may not happen, as: *vereor ne veniat*, I am afraid he will come; whereas *vereor ut veniat* means I fear he will not come, implying the wish that he may come. After verbs of forbidding, hindering, preventing, and resisting (though they are sometimes followed by an infinitive or by *quominus* with the subjunctive), a negative intention is always expressed by *ut non*, when the negative belongs to a special word in the clause, and not to the whole clause, as *dedi tibi pecuniam ut non vinum emeres, sed panem*, I gave you the money that you might purchase not wine but bread.

NOTE 4.—*Quin*, a compound of *qui* and *non*, is used only after negative sentences or such as imply a negative, as: *nihil est quod non (quin) possit depravari*, there is nothing that cannot be deteriorated; *nullus est cibus tam gravis, quin concoquatur*, no food is so heavy that it cannot be digested; *non erat dubium quin Helvetii plurimum possent*, there was no doubt that the Helvetii were most powerful; *vix me contineo quin illum aggrediar*, I can scarcely refrain from attacking him. *Quin* is also used after verbs implying prevention, opposition, omission, and the like, because they imply a negative. *Dubito* (I doubt), when not accompanied by a negative, is generally followed by a question with *num*, as *dubito num res ita se habeat*, I doubt whether the matter is so. *Non dubito*, in the sense of "I doubt not," is generally followed by *quin*, and in that of "I do not hesitate" by the infinitive. Sometimes also we find *quin non* after *non dubito*, in which the *non* contained in *quin* seems to be forgotten. *Quin*, lastly, is used in direct questions for *quid non* (why not or nay), and in this case it has its verb of course in the indicative.

NOTE 5.—*Quominus*, a compound of *quo* and *minus*—that is, *ut eo minus*, in order that thereby less or not—is used after verbs of hindering and preventing, such as *impedio, prohibeo, officio, obsto, obsisto, deterreo*—*e.g.*, *non recusabo quominus omnes mea scripta legant*, I have no objection to all men reading my works; *hiems adhuc prohibuit, quominus de te certum aliquid haberemus*, winter has hitherto prevented us from having any definite news about you. Some of these verbs are sometimes followed by *ne, quin*, or an infinitive.

NOTE 6.—*Quo*—that is, *ut eo*, "in order that thereby"—denotes intention, and is commonly followed by a comparative, as: *ager aratur, quo meliores foetus possit edere*; *legem brevem esse oportet quo facilius teneatur*, a law must be brief, in order that it may be more easily remembered.

§ 223. Subordinate clauses introduced by the causal conjunctions **quod, quia, quoniam**, and **quando**, generally have the verb in the indicative, viz., when they state the writer's

or speaker's actual reason; but when he only quotes a reason assigned by others without expressing his own assent or dissent, the subjunctive must be used, as:

Aristides nonne ob eam causam expulsus est patria, quod praeter modum justus esset?	Was not Aristides expelled from his country because he was (said to be) unusually just?

Where *justus erat* would have expressed the writer's own reason.

Athenienses decem praetores, quod insepultos reliquissent eos, quos e mari propter vim tempestatis excipere non potuissent, innocentes necarunt.	The Athenians put ten innocent generals to death, because they had left unburied those whom, on account of the violence of a storm, they had been unable to pick up.
Romani, quia consules remprospere gererent, minus his cladibus commovebantur.	The Romans were less distressed by these defeats because (as they thought) the consuls were carrying on the war successfully.

NOTE—When a reason is stated with the intimation that it is not the true one, by a clause beginning with *non quod*, *non quo*, or *non quia*, the subjunctive is always used, while the true reason is added in the indicative, as: *pugiles in jactandis caestibus ingemiscunt, non quod doleant, sed quia profundenda voce omne corpus intenditur venitque plaga vehementior*, pugilists in throwing the quoits groan, not because they are in pain (as might be supposed), but because in uttering the sound the whole body is put in tension; *memoriam nostri tuam ut conserves, non quo de tua constantia dubitem, sed quia mos est ita rogandi, rogo*, I ask you to preserve the remembrance of us, not because I doubt your constancy (as you might suppose), but because it is the custom to make the request; *majores nostri in dominum de servo quaeri noluerunt, non quin (non quod non) posset verum inveniri, sed quia videbatur indignum esse*, our ancestors did not wish that a slave should give evidence against his master, not because (they thought) the truth could not be discovered, but because it appeared unworthy.

§ 224. **Quum** or **cum**, a temporal and causal conjunction, has three distinct meanings—viz., (1) when, (2) as or since (because), and (3) although, the last implying a concession. With the second and third meaning it always takes the subjunctive. Whenever "when" is equivalent to "at the time when"—that is, when it purely indicates time, it is followed by the indicative; but when in historical narrative two events may be regarded as standing to each other in the relation of cause and effect—that is, when one event could

not well have taken place without the other, *quum* is followed by the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive, as

Animus nec quum adest nec quum discedit apparet.	The soul is neither seen when (at the time when) it is present nor when it departs.
Sex libros de re publica tum scripsimus, quum gubernacula rei publicae tenebamus.	We wrote the six books on the republic at the time, when we were at the helm of the republic.
Lysander quum vellet Lycurgi leges commutare, Apollinis est prohibitus religione.	When Lysander wished to change the laws of Lycurgus, he was prevented by religious fear of Apollo.
Agesilaus quum ex Aegypto reverteretur, venissetque in portum, in morbum implicitus decessit.	When Agesilaus returned from Egypt and had entered the harbour, he was seized by an illness and died.
Caesari quum id nuntiatum esset, eos per provinciam nostram iter facere conari, maturat ab urbe proficisci.	When it had been reported to Caesar, that they were attempting to march through our province, he hastens to start from the city.
Socrates quum posset educi e custodia, noluit.	Although Socrates could be taken out of prison, he would not.

NOTE 1.—*Quum* when followed by *tum* frequently signifies "both—and," "on the one hand," while *tum* signifies "on the other hand," or "in general" and "in particular." *Quum* thus acquires the character of an adverb, and has no influence upon the mood of the verb, as *Pausanias Colonas se contulerat; ibi consilia quum patriae tum sibi inimica capiebat*, Pausanias had betaken himself to Colonae; he there was forming plans dangerous both to his country and to himself.

NOTE 2.—There are cases in which *quum*, though used in a causal sense, yet has the verb in the indicative, perhaps because it is used in the stronger or objective sense of *quod*, as *gratulor tibi quum* (or *quod*) *tantum vales apud Dolabellam*, I congratulate you because you have so much influence with Dolabella. But the distinction between causal and temporal *quum* is not always strictly observed.

§ 225. The conjunctions **dum, donec, quoad** in the sense of "until," are construed with the indicative, if the event introduced by them really happened; but if the event is conceived only as possible, or as one only wished for or likely to happen, the subjunctive is used, as:

Milo adfuit, donec senatus dimissus est.	Milo was present until the senate broke up.

Iratis subtrahendi sunt ii, in quos impetum conantur facere, dum se ipsi colligant. — From angry persons those whom they attempt to attack ought to be withdrawn, until they recover themselves (which is only possible or desirable, but not a fact).

NOTE.—In the sense of "while" these conjunctions, provided there are no other reasons for the subjunctive, are construed with the indicative; and *dum* in historical narrative is generally construed with the present indicative, whereas in English the past is used, as *dum ea geruntur in Asia*, while these things were going on in Asia.

§ 226. The conjunctions **antequam, priusquam** (before), and **postquam** (after), take the subjunctive when introducing an action which did not actually take place before or after another, but is conceived as one that might happen or have happened; otherwise they take the indicative, as:

Antequam ad sententiam redeo, de me pauca dicam. — Before I return to the resolution, I will say a few words about myself.

Priusquam de adventu meo audire potuissent, in Macedoniam perexi. — Before they could have heard of my arrival, I proceeded into Macedonia.

Prius Placentiam pervenere quam satis sciret Hannibal ab Ticino profectos. — They reached Placentia, before Hannibal could well know that they had left the Ticinus

NOTE.—Sometimes *antequam* and *priusquam* take the subjunctive, though they refer to actual facts, especially when they express that which usually happens before another event, as *tempestas minatur antequam surgat*, a storm threatens (usually) before it rises.

§ 227. The concessive conjunctions **quamvis, licet** (although), **quantumvis** and **quamlibet** (although) are generally construed with the subjunctive, while **quamquam** takes the indicative, as:

Quamvis Elysios miretur Graecia campos. — Although Greece admires the Elysian plains.

Licet mihi invisus sit, tamen eum non persequar. — Although he is hateful to me, I will not prosecute him.

Quamquam satis cautum erat de Saguntinis. — Although sufficient precaution had been taken about the Saguntines.

NOTE 1.—*Quamvis* is a compound of *quam* and *vis* (as much as you like); and *licet* is an impersonal verb, after which *ut* may be used. *Quamquam* is sometimes used in the adverbial sense of "however," when the speaker

corrects or modifies a previous statement, and in this case it exercises no influence upon the verb.

NOTE 2.—Some writers, especially poets and late prose writers, reversing the above rule, use *quamquam* with the subjunctive, and *quamvis* with the indicative. When *quamvis* is used adverbially, it may of course have the verb in the indicative, as *quamvis multos proferre possum*, I can mention as many as you like.

§ 228. The conjunctions **quasi, velut si, tamquam si, perinde ac si, aeque ac si, non secus ac si,** all of which signify "as if," naturally require the verb to be in the subjunctive, as they introduce a clause with the intimation that it is not a fact, but a mere conception of the mind, as :

Quid ego his testibus utor, quasi res dubia aut obscura sit?	Why do I make use of these witnesses, as if the case were doubtful or obscure?
Sic cogitandum est, tamquam aliquis in pectus intimum inspicere possit.	Our thoughts ought to be such, as if some one could look into our inmost heart.

NOTE.—The tense of the subjunctive introduced by these conjunctions depends upon that of the verb in the leading clause. Compare § 212

§ 229. **Relative clauses**—that is, such as are introduced by a relative pronoun or relative adverbs (*ubi, unde, quo*, where; whence, whither)—have the verb in the indicative, when they contain a simple explanation; but when they contain the idea of *cause, intention, condition, possibility*, or *consequence*, they have the verb in the subjunctive, as :

Cotta, qui cogitasset haec posse in itinere accidere, nulla in re communi saluti deerat.	Cotta, who had thought (because he had thought) that these things might happen on the march, was not wanting in anything to the common safety.
O fortunate adolescens, qui tuae virtutis Homerum praeconem inveneris!	O thou fortunate young man, who hast found (because thou hast found) a Homer as the herald of thy valour.
Legatos ad senatum misit qui auxilium peterent.	He sent ambassadors to the senate who were (intended) to ask for help.
Nihil bonum est quod hominem non meliorem faciat.	Nothing is good which does not (if it does not) make man better.
Majus gaudium fuit quam quod homines caperent.	The joy was too great for men to apprehend it (so great that men could not.)

NOTE.—When the relative implies the idea of cause, its force may be enhanced by the addition of *ut*, *utpote*, or *quippe*, as: *multa de mea sententia questus est Caesar, quippe qui a Crasso in me esset incensus*, Caesar complained much of my vote, because he had been incensed by Crassus against me; *magna pars Fidenatium, ut qui coloni additi Romanis essent, Latine sciebant*, a great number of the Fidenates knew Latin, naturally because they had been added as colonists to the Romans. The phrase *quod sciam* (as far as I know) is a potential subjunctive, which is particularly common when the relative has the limiting particle *quidem*, as: *qui quidem, quae quidem*, &c.

§ 230. The adjectives *dignus* and *indignus* govern the ablative of the thing of which a person is worthy or unworthy; but when the thing is expressed by a verb, the relative with the subjunctive is generally used, as:

Dignus est qui laudetur. — He is worthy of being praised.
Livianae fabulae non satis dignae sunt quae iterum legantur. — The plays of Livius are not well deserving of being read a second time.

NOTE.—Instead of the relative we sometimes find *ut* after these adjectives, and poets and late writers use the infinitive after them, as: *dignus est decipi*, he deserves to be deceived; *vina digna moveri*, wines deserving to be brought forward from the cellar. What has been said here about *dignus* and *indignus* also applies to *aptus* and *idoneus* (fit), as: *persona apta quae loquatur de senectute*, a character fit to speak about old age; *fons rivo dare nomen idoneus*, a fountain fit to give its name to a stream.

§ 231. The relative takes the subjunctive when it is the correlative of *is*, *talis*, or *tantus*, and kindred expressions, as:

Non sumus ii, quibus nihil verum esse videatur. — We are not the men to whom nothing seems to be true.
Innocentia est affectio talis animi, quae noceat nemini. — Innocence is that condition of mind which hurts no one.

In all such cases the relative is equivalent to *ut*, denoting a result or consequence.

§ 232. When the relative refers to an indefinite subject, such as is contained in the phrases *sunt* (there are persons), *non desunt* (persons are not wanting), *reperiuntur* (persons are found), *nemo est* (there is no one), *quis* or *quid est* (who or what is there), it generally has its verb in the subjunctive, as:

Sunt qui discessum animi a corpore putent esse mortem. — There are those who believe that death is the separation of the soul from the body.

Fuerunt qui crederent.	There have been persons who believed.
Qui se ultro morti afferant, facilius reperiuntur, quam qui dolorem patienter ferant.	Persons are more easily found who, of their own accord, offer to die, than those who bear pain patiently.

NOTE.—In all cases of this kind the relative has the meaning of "of such a nature" or "of such a kind that." But when this is not the case, and when *sunt qui* simply signifies "some," the verb is in the indicative, as: *sunt quos juvat*, it delights some; *est ubi peccat*, he sometimes goes wrong; *sunt qui putant*, some persons think; *sunt multa quae nos ducunt*, many things attract us.

§ 233. The relative sometimes takes the subjunctive in historical narrative when a repeated action or occurrence is spoken of, as:

Nemo Pyrrhum, qua tulisset impetum, sustinere valuit.	No one could stand against Pyrrhus, wherever he had made the attack.
Semper habiti sunt fortissimi, qui summam imperii potirentur.	Those have always been regarded as the bravest, who gained possession of the supreme power.

In these cases the relative may be said to require the subjunctive, because it involves the idea of a condition, and may therefore in some cases actually represent the conjunction *si*.

§ 234. The **oratio obliqua** is a speech quoted not in the exact form in which it was spoken, but in an indirect manner, and is generally introduced in English by the conjunction "that." It is always dependent upon some verb of saying, answering, observing, and the like—*e.g.*, "He said that he would come," which in direct speech (*oratio recta*) would be "He said, I will come."

The general rule about the construction of *oratio obliqua* is: All principal sentences are expressed by the accusative with the infinitive (*i.e.*, the subject is put in the accusative and the verb in the infinitive), and all secondary, explanatory, or dependent clauses have their verbs in the subjunctive—*e.g.*:

Apud Hypanim fluvium Aristoteles ait bestiolas quasdam nasci, quae unum diem vivant.	Aristotle says that on the banks of the river Hypanis certain little animals are born which live only for a day.

Socrates dicebat omnes in eo quod scirent satis esse eloquentes.	Socrates used to say that all men were sufficiently eloquent on those things which they knew.

The following further details must be observed :—

(*a.*) All imperatives of the oratio recta become subjunctives in the oratio obliqua, as :

Redditur responsum nondum tempus pugnae esse ; castris se tenerent.	An answer was returned, that it was not yet time for a battle, that they should keep in their camp.

When the command is negative, *ne* must be used, as :

Nuntius ei domo venit bellum Athenienses et Boeotos indixisse Lacedaemoniis, quare venire ne dubitaret.	A messenger came to him from home (saying), that the Athenians and Boeotians had declared war against the Lacedaemonians, that therefore he should not hesitate to come.

(*b.*) All direct questions of the oratio recta become indirect questions in the oratio obliqua, and are therefore expressed by the subjunctive, as :

Ariovistus respondit, se prius in Galliam venisse quam populum Romanum. Quid sibi vellet ? cur in suas possessiones veniret ?	Ariovistus replied, that he had come into Gaul before the Roman people, (and asked) what Caesar wanted ? and why he came into his possessions ?

(*c.*)The apodosis of an hypothetical sentence is expressed in the oratio obliqua by the accusative with the infinitive, as :

Ei legationi Ariovistus respondit, si quid ipsi a Caesare opus esset, sese ad eum venturum fuisse.	To this embassy Ariovistus replied, that if he had wanted anything from Caesar, he would have gone to him.

NOTE 1.—Sometimes a remark is introduced in an oratio obliqua by the reporter of the speech, and such a remark being no part of the speech is of course expressed by the indicative, as : *litteris eum certiorem feci, id agi, ut pons, quem in Hellesponto fecerat, dissolveretur*, I informed him by letter that the plan was to break down the bridge which he had made across the Hellespont. This is the case especially when a relative clause is inserted only to explain some particular word or expression : *Athenis audire ex Phaedro meo memini, Gellium, cum venisset Athenas, philosophos*

qui tunc erant, in locum unum convocasse, I remember hearing my friend Phaedrus at Athens saying, that Gellius after his arrival in Athens assembled the philosophers of the time in one place.

NOTE 2.—So-called rhetorical questions, which are equivalent to negative assertions, may have the verb in the infinitive, as: *Caesar legatis Helvetiorum ita respondit, si veteris contumeliae oblivisci vellet, num recentium injuriarum memoriam deponere posse?* Caesar thus replied to the ambassadors of the Helvetii, if he were willing to forget the old insult, could he also put away the recollection of the recent wrongs? The same is the case when the relative represents a demonstrative pronoun, as *Themistocles apud Lacedaemonios professus est, Atheniensium urbem ut propugnaculum oppositum esse barbaris, apud quam* (i.e., *nam apud eam*) *jam bis classes regias fecisse naufragium.* Themistocles declared before the Lacedaemonians that the city of the Athenians was like a bulwark against the barbarians, near which the king's fleet had already suffered shipwreck twice.

§ 235. The tenses of the subjunctive in the oratio obliqua depend upon the tense of the verb of saying in the leading or governing clause, and follows the rules of the sequence of tenses (see § 212), as:

Socrates dicit eos qui boni sint beatos esse.	Socrates says that those who are good are happy.

But

Socrates dixit or *dicebat eos qui boni essent beatos esse.*	Socrates said that those who were good were happy.

Hence,

Socrates nihil se scire dicit, nisi id ipsum; eoque praestare ceteris, quod illi quae nesciant scire se putent, ipse se nihil scire sciat.	Socrates says that he knows nothing except this very fact, and that thereby he is better than the others, because they believe to know what they do not know, but that he knows that he knows nothing.

NOTE 1.—Sometimes when the verb of the governing clause is in a past tense, the reporter in the oratio obliqua, for the sake of greater vividness, may use the present or perfect subjunctive by transferring himself, as it were, to the time of the speaker. Further, if the verb of the governing clause is an historical present, the dependent clauses in the oratio obliqua may be either present or past tenses.

NOTE 2.—It need hardly be observed that the pronouns referring to the speaker, both personal and possessive, are changed in the oratio obliqua into reflective pronouns, and that the person spoken to is referred to by *is* or *ille*. Caesar and Cicero contain numerous examples of oratio obliqua which ought to be carefully studied.

CHAPTER XLVI.

THE IMPERATIVE.

§ 236. The imperative expresses a command, a request, or an exhortation; it has two tenses, the present and the future. The present expresses a command in general, or one that is to be obeyed at once; while the future imperative expresses a command that a thing shall be done in future or when an occasion shall occur, as:

Catilina, perge quo coepisti, egredere ex urbe, proficiscere.	Catiline, proceed to the place to which you have begun to go, quit the city, start.
Justitiam cole et pietatem.	Honour justice and piety
Cras petito, dabitur, nunc abi.	Ask to-morrow, and it will be granted, now go away.
Prius audite paucis, quod quum dixero, si placuerit facitote.	First listen to a few words, and when I have spoken, you shall do it, if you please.

The future imperative from its very nature is the form employed in laws, contracts, wills, and the like, as:

Hominem mortuum in urbe ne sepelito neve urito.	Thou shalt neither bury nor burn a dead man in the city.
Nocturna sacrificia ne sunto.	There shall be no nocturnal sacrifices.
Salus populi suprema lex esto.	The safety of the people shall be the highest law.

§ 237. Instead of the imperative, the second and third persons of the subjunctive may be used to express an exhortation rather than a command; the second person singular is used more especially when an indefinite person is spoken to—*e.g.*:

Valeant cives mei, sint beati, stet haec urbs praeclara mihique patria carissima.	Farewell to my fellow-citizens, let them be happy, let this city, so glorious and to me most dear as my native place, flourish.
Quidquid agis, prudenter agas et respice finem.	Whatever you do, do cautiously and look to the end.

The first person plural, for which the imperative has no form, is always expressed by the subjunctive, as :

Amemus patriam, pareamus senatui, consulamus bonis, praesentes fructus negligamus, posteritatis gloriae serviamus.	Let us love our country, let us obey the senate, let us take care of the good, let us disregard present enjoyments, and look to the good repute with posterity.

Sometimes, though very rarely, even the first person singular of the subjunctive is used in the sense of an imperative, as :

Sed reprimam me.	But let me repress myself.

NOTE.—Sometimes the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive are used in the sense of a past imperative, but then it is always intimated that the action which ought to have been done, did not take place, as : *pateretur*, he ought to have suffered it ; *quodsi meis incommodis laetabantur, urbis tamen periculis commoverentur*, but if they rejoiced at my inconveniences, still they ought to have been moved by the dangers of the city ; *imitatus esses ipsum illum Voconium*, you ought to have imitated that very Voconius.

§ 238. A negative command, whether expressed by the imperative or by the subjunctive, takes the negative *ne*, and *non* only when it is particularly emphatic or refers only to one particular word. When there are two or more negative commands, the second is *neve*, as in *hominem mortuum*, &c., § 236 :

Tu ne cede malis.	Do not give way to misfortunes.
Ne difficilia optemus.	Let us not wish for difficult things.

NOTE 1.—A negative imperative is often expressed by the second person of the perfect subjunctive, and frequently also by a paraphrase with *noli* or *nolite* and the infinitive, as : *ne me tetigeris*, do not touch me ; *ne transieris Iberum*, do not cross the Iberus ; *noli me tangere*, do not touch me ; *nolite id velle quod fieri non potest*, do not wish that to be done which cannot be done.

NOTE 2.—Sometimes the imperative is expressed by paraphrases with *nolim, fac*, or *cave*, both with and without the conjunctions *ut* or *ne*, as : *hoc nolim me jocari putes*, do not think that I am joking in this ; *fac ne quid aliud cures*, do not care for anything else ; *cave facias*, beware of doing it ; so also *malo non roges* (i.e., *ut non roges*), I would rather you did not ask.

NOTE 3.—The subjunctive always expresses a command with less force than the imperative. Respecting the future indicative used as a command or request, see § 205, note 2.

CHAPTER XLVII.

THE INFINITIVE.

§ 239. The infinitive is, properly speaking, not a mood, but a verbal substantive of the neuter gender, simply naming the action or condition. It has only two cases, the nominative and the accusative, the other cases being supplied by the gerund. But it differs from ordinary substantives inasmuch as it governs its case as a verb, and cannot be accompanied by an attributive adjective, but only by an adverb.

The infinitive has three tenses, the present or imperfect tense, the perfect, and the future. What is called the present or imperfect infinitive is nothing more than the simple name of an action, without any regard to time, as:

Legere bonos libros utile est. — To read, or the reading of, good books is useful.

The perfect infinitive represents an action simply as past, and the future as one that is to come, as:

Pudet me haec dixisse. — I am ashamed of having said this.
Hanc rem tibi profuturam existimo. — I believe that this thing will be useful to you.

NOTE 1.—Poets sometimes use the perfect infinitive in the sense of a Greek aorist instead of the present, as: *sunt quos pulverem Olympicum collegisse* (for *colligere*) *juvat*, some delight in stirring up the Olympian dust; *fratres tendentes Pelion imposuisse Olympo*, the brothers trying to place mount Pelion upon Olympus.

NOTE 2.—The present infinitive is often used after *memini* (I remember), when the person who remembers wishes to intimate that he personally witnessed the thing he remembers, as *memini Catonem anno antequam mortuus est mecum et cum Scipione disserere*, I remember Cato, the year before his death, discussing with me and with Scipio.

NOTE 3.—Instead of the future infinitive, both in the active and in the passive, a paraphrase is often used with *fore* (i.e., *futurum esse*) *ut* and the subjunctive, as: *clamabant homines fore ut ipsi sese dii immortales ulciscerentur*, men exclaimed that the immortal gods themselves would avenge themselves; *spero fore ut contingat id nobis*, I hope that this may happen to us. This paraphrase is almost invariably used after the verb *spero*, and must be employed if the verb has no supine.

§ 240. The infinitive being used only in the nominative

and accusative is either the subject or the object of another verb, as:

Dulce est desipere (subject) *in loco.*	It is pleasant to play the fool at the right time.
Accusatores multos in civitate esse (subject) *utile est.*	The existence of many accusers in a city is useful
Fuge quaerere (object).	Avoid inquiring.
Nolo scribere (object).	I will not write.

The objective infinitive is required after a great many verbs which express an incomplete idea, and must have another verb for its completion. Such verbs are—*e.g.*, *volo, nolo, malo, cupio, conor, possum, audeo, vereor,* and many others. The subjective infinitive, on the other hand, is frequently the subject of such impersonal verbs as *juvat, apparet, constat, convenit, decet, expedit, oportet, opus est, fas est, necesse est, fugit, fallit* or *praeterit me*; also after such expressions as *in animo est, pulchrum est, certum est, aequum est, decorum est, &c.*, as:

Necesse est venerari deos.	It is necessary to worship the gods.
Omnibus bonis expedit salvam esse rempublicam.	The safety of the state is an advantage to all good men.
Te hilari animo esse valde me juvat.	It gives me great pleasure that you are of a cheerful disposition.

NOTE 1.—*Licet* (it is allowed) is rarely followed by the infinitive; it is generally construed with the dative and an infinitive, as *licet Ephoro hoc facere*, an Ephor is allowed to do this; and if there is a noun as a predicate, it agrees with the dative, as *licuit esse otioso Themistocli*, Themistocles was allowed to be idle; though we also find the accusative in such cases, as *civi Romano licet esse Gaditanum*, a Roman citizen may be a native of Gades. *Licet* sometimes becomes almost a conjunction in the sense of "although," and is then followed by the subjunctive.

NOTE 2.—Poets, in imitation of the Greek, sometimes use the infinitive, where in prose we should expect a gerund or a gerundive, as *nequidquam vitabis celerem sequi Ajacem* (for *in sequendo* or *ad sequendum*), in vain wilt thou try to avoid Ajax swift in pursuit.

§ 241. When the infinitive itself has a subject, it is generally in the accusative, and of course the predicate also, as:

Romanos adesse nuntiatur.	It is announced that the Romans are at hand.

Hoc vere dicitur parva esse ista.	This is said with truth that those things are small.
Traditum est Homerum caecum fuisse.	It has been reported that Homer was blind.

§ 242. The nominative with the infinitive is used with the passive of the verbs of saying, thinking, believing. This is always the case with *videor* (I seem), and generally with *dicor* (I am said) and *putor* (I am thought), and the passive forms *fertur, feruntur, traditur, traduntur,* and others of a similar meaning:

Graeci dicuntur victi esse.	The Greeks are said to have been conquered.
Non videmur esse victuri.	We do not seem likely to conquer.
Ennius in sepulcro Scipionum putatur esse constitutus e marmore.	Ennius is believed to have been placed in the form of a marble statue in the tomb of the Scipios.
Regnante Tarquinio in Italiam Pythagoras venisse reperitur.	Pythagoras is found to have come into Italy in the reign of Tarquinius.

NOTE.—The nominative with these verbs is the predicate, for they are of a copulative nature (see § 133), and in reality only modifications of the verb *esse;* so that *videor* = I am in appearance; *nominor* = I am in name; *judicor* = I am in the judgment; *putor* = I am in the opinion of some one.

§ 243. The passives of the above mentioned and similar verbs are sometimes used impersonally, especially in compound tenses, when they are intended to be emphatic. When so used they are followed by the accusative with the infinitive, as:

Dicitur eo tempore matrem Pausaniae vixisse.	It is said that at that time the mother of Pausanias was alive.
Nuntiatum est piratarum esse naves in portu.	It was reported that ships of pirates were in the harbour.
Memoriae proditum est Latonam deam confugisse Delum.	There is a tradition that the goddess Latona fled to Delos.

NOTE.—In all these cases the whole clause expressed by the accusative with the infinitive is virtually the subject of the passive verb.

§ 244. The active of the above passive verbs is followed

by the accusative with the infinitive when they have a whole clause for their object, as:

Dicunt Socratem fuisse sapientissimum omnium Graecorum.	They say that Socrates was the wisest of all the Greeks.
Unam esse spem salutis docent.	They show that there is one hope of safety.
Thucydides Themistoclem ait Magnesiae morbo mortuum esse.	Thucydides says that Themistocles died at Magnesia of an illness.
Lysander dicebat Lacedaemonem esse honestissimum domicilium senectutis.	Lysander used to say that Lacedaemon was the most honourable place for old men to live in.
Scio plerosque ita scripsisse.	I know that most men have written so.

NOTE.—The English language also sometimes employs the objective accusative with the infinitive, as "I know him to be an honest man," *scio eum honestum esse hominem*; "I wish them to come," "I allow him to read." But the subjective accusative with the infinitive cannot be imitated in English.

§ 245. An accusative with the infinitive, like the infinitive alone, may be the subject as well as the object of another verb, as:

Militem pro patria mori (subject) *honestum est.*	It is honourable for a soldier to die for his country.
Magna laus est unum hominem elaborare (subject) *in ea scientia.*	It is great praise that one man exerts himself in that science.
Par est omnes omnia experiri (subject).	It is meet that all men should try all things.

Every clause expressed by the accusative with the infinitive, therefore, is either the subject or the object of a verb or of some equivalent expression.

§ 246. The objective accusative with the infinitive is further used after the verbs *jubeo, veto, patior, sino, prohibeo, impedio, cogo,* and *assuefacio,* as:

Eurystheus Herculem leonem Nemaeum interficere jussit.	Eurystheus ordered Hercules to kill the Nemean lion.
Legatos Athenas miserunt qui id fieri vetarent.	They sent ambassadors to Athens to forbid the doing of this.
Augures dictatorem prohibuerunt comitia perficere.	The Augurs prevented the Dictator from holding the comitia to the end.

Me impedit pudor haec exquirere.	Shame prevents my searching into these things.
Urbes ad officium redire coegit.	He compelled the towns to return to their duty.

§ 247. Verbs expressing a wish or willingness, as *volo, nolo, malo, cupio,* may be construed either with the nominative or the accusative with the infinitive, provided the verb of wishing has the same subject as the infinitive, as :

Cupio clemens esse, or *cupio me clementem esse.*	I wish to be lenient.
Sapiens fieri volo or *sapientem me fieri volo.*	I wish to become wise.
Nolo consul fieri or *nolo me consulem fieri.*	I do not wish to be made consul.

But when the governing verb and the infinitive have different subjects, the accusative with the infinitive must be used, as :

Te tua frui virtute cupimus.	We desire you to reap the benefit of your own virtue.
Lycurgus corpora juvenum firmari labore voluit.	Lycurgus wished the bodies of the youths to be strengthened by labour.

§ 248. An objective accusative with the infinitive is often used after verbs of rejoicing, wondering, and such as express anxiety or discontent, such as *gaudeo, laetor, glorior, doleo, angor, sollicitor, indignor, queror, miror, admiror, aegre,* and *moleste fero ;* but it is equally common to find them followed by the conjunction *quod* either with the indicative or the subjunctive, as :

Gaudeo te id mihi suadere, or *quod id mihi suades.*	I am glad that you give me this advice.
Nihil me magis sollicitabat quam me non ridere tecum, or *quam quod non riderem tecum.*	Nothing vexed me more than that I did not laugh with you.
Laetor quod Gaius incolumis vivit in urbe, or *Gaium incolumem vivere in urbe.*	I rejoice that Gaius lives in the city unscathed.

NOTE.—There is generally a slight difference of meaning between the infinitive and the use of *quod,* the latter setting forth more distinctly the cause of the feeling expressed by the leading verb.

§ 249. The accusative with the infinitive is sometimes used in exclamations or questions expressing wonder, astonishment, or indignation, as :

Mene incepto desistere victam?	Am I to give up my undertaking as conquered?
Adeone hominem esse infelicem quemquam ut ego sum!	That any man should be so unhappy as I am!
Te in tantas aerumnas incidisse.	That you should have fallen into such troubles!

It is evident that these accusatives with the infinitive are dependent upon some expression understood—*e.g.*: "is it possible," or "is it conceivable."

§250. The present infinitive is often used in animated narratives, or rather descriptions, instead of the imperfect indicative. This infinitive is called the **historical** or better the **descriptive infinitive**; its subject is always in the nominative. It is sometimes found even after the conjunction *quum*—*e.g.*:

Verres minitari absenti Diodoro, vociferari palam, lacrimas vix interdum tenere.	Verres threatened the absent Diodorus, shouted publicly, and sometimes scarcely kept from weeping.
Senatus expectabat quum Appius jus de creditis pecuniis quam asperrime dicere.	The senate was waiting, when Appius pronounced sentence about the lent money in a most harsh manner.

NOTE.—The student must be careful in the use of the infinitive after the verb *spero* (I hope), *promitto* (I promise) *polliceor* (I promise), *minor* or *minitor* (I threaten), which in Latin are regularly followed by the future infinitive, while in English we use the present, as, I promise you to come, *promitto* or *polliceor tibi me venturum esse*

CHAPTER XLVIII.

THE GERUND AND THE GERUNDIVE.

§ 251. The **gerund**, like the infinitive, is a verbal substantive; it has four cases, the genitive, dative, accusative, and ablative, and governs the same case as its verb. The nominative is supplied by the infinitive; and the accusative is used

only when governed by a preposition; in all other cases the infinitive supplies the accusative.

The following table shows the declension of a verb by examples:—

N. Scribere *difficile est*, writing or to write is difficult.
G. *Ars* scribendi, the art of writing.
D. *Puer operam dat* scribendo, the boy studies writing.
A. *Puer cupit* scribere, the boy wishes to write.
A. *Puer paratus est* ad scribendum, the boy is ready to write.
Ab. *Puer futigatus est* scribendo, the boy is tired from writing.

NOTE 1.—Sometimes we find an infinitive, where we might expect the genitive of the gerund, especially after the expressions *tempus est*, *consilium capio*, and a few others; but in such cases *tempus est* is equivalent to "it is necessary," and *consilium capio* to "I resolve," as: *tempus est abire*, it is time (or necessary) to depart; *consilium capit pugnare*, he resolved to fight. The genitive of the gerund in these cases would slightly alter the meaning, and *tempus* and *consilium* would retain their full force.

NOTE 2.—The dative of the gerund is less frequently used than the other cases, and is generally changed into the gerundive. Examples: *aqua utilis est bibendo*, water is useful to drink; *intentus venando*, bent upon hunting; *solvendo non esse*, to be insolvent; *consul placandis diis* (for *placando deos*) *dat operam*, the consul devotes himself to appeasing the gods.

NOTE 3.—The accusative of the gerund is used only with the prepositions *ad*, *ob*, *ante*, *inter*, *circa*, and *in*. There are a few instances in which *inter* is found with an infinitive, as *Aristo et Pyrrho inter optime vivere et gravissime aegrotare nihil prorsus interesse dicebant*, Aristo and Pyrrho used to say that there was no difference at all between living in the best manner, and being most severely ill.

NOTE 4.—The ablative of the gerund is generally an ablative of the instrument or manner, and the gerundive is but rarely used in the construction called the ablative absolute.

§ 252. The **gerundive** is a passive participle, generally implying the idea of necessity or possibility, and has the agent by whom the action is to be done in the dative instead of the ablative with the preposition *a* or *ab*, as:

Pater amandus est.	The father is to be loved, must be loved, or deserves to be loved.
Ut religio propaganda est, sic superstitionis stirpes omnes ejiciendae.	As religion deserves to be propagated, so all the roots of superstition ought to be extirpated.
Mihi scribendum est.	Writing must be done by me, or I must write.
Bellum mihi gerendum est.	War must be carried on by me.

Caesari omnia uno tempore erant agenda. Caesar had to do all things at one and the same time.

Vix credendum est. It is scarcely to be believed.

NOTE 1.—It is only in cases where ambiguity would arise from the use of the dative with a gerundive, that the ablative with *a* or *ab* is preferable, as: *agantur bona multorum civium, quibus est a vobis consulendum*, the property of many citizens is at stake, whom you ought to care for; *admonendum te potius a me quam rogandum puto*, I think you ought rather to be encouraged than to be asked by me.

NOTE 2.—As intransitive verbs can only have an impersonal passive, so their gerundive can occur only in the neuter gender, as: *currendum est*, there must be running, or they must run; *pugnandum erat*, there was a necessity for fighting, or they had to fight.

§ 253. When the gerund belongs to a transitive verb, and should accordingly have its object in the accusative, it is generally changed into the gerundive and takes its object along with it, agreeing with it as an ordinary adjective, as:

Consilium urbis condendae (for *urbem condendi*). The plan of founding a city.

Consul placandis diis (for *placando deos*) *operam dat.* The consul devotes himself to appeasing the gods.

Comitia consulibus creandis (for *consules creando*). The comitia for electing the consuls.

NOTE 1.—The same is the case sometimes even with verbs which do not govern the accusative, especially *utor*, *fruor*, *fungor*, *potior*, and *vescor*, as: *tenendus est voluptatis fruendae modus*, moderation must be observed in the enjoyment of pleasure; *hostes in spem potiundorum castrorum venerunt*, the enemy conceived the hope of gaining possession of the camp. Otherwise the gerundive governs the case of its verb, *valetudini parcendum est*, we must be careful of our health; *utendum est viribus*, we must use our strength; *consilii nostri nobis poenitendum est*, we must repent of our plan.

NOTE 2.—When the object of a gerundive is a neuter adjective or pronoun, it remains in the accusative, as: *studium aliquid agendi* (not *alicujus*), the desire to do something; *cupiditas plura habendi* (not *plurium habendorum*), the eagerness to have more.

NOTE 3.—The gerundive sometimes supplies the place of a present participle passive, which the Latin language wants, as: *quis est, qui nullis officii praeceptis tradendis philosophum se audeat dicere*, who is he that ventures to call himself a philosopher, who does not give rules about duty? *meo nomine recitando*, by my name being mentioned.

NOTE 4.—In English we frequently use the preposition "without" with a gerund; but *sine* (without) is never used in Latin with the ablative of a gerund, and whenever "without" is so used, it must be expressed in Latin by a participle, or by the ablative absolute, as: I say this without fearing any one's blame, *haec dico nullius reprehensionem verens*; the consul began the battle without waiting for his colleague, *consul non expectato collega proelium commisit.*

CHAPTER XLIX.

THE SUPINE.

§ 254. The supine is a verbal substantive of the fourth declension, possessing only two cases—the accusative ending in **um**, and the ablative ending in **u**. The use of these two supines is very limited.

The supine in *um* denotes a purpose, and is used only after verbs of motion, such as *ire*, *venire*, and *mittere*, and may have an object in the accusative, as :

Cubitum eo.	I go to lie down or to bed
Legati venerunt pacem petitum.	Ambassadors came to sue for peace.
Legati venerunt questum injurias et ex foedere res repetitum.	Ambassadors came to complain of acts of injustice, and to demand reparation according to the treaty.

NOTE.—As this supine denotes a purpose, its force may also be expressed by the subjunctive and otherwise, as : *legati venerunt qui* or *ut pacem peterent*, *ad pacem petendam*, or *pacem petituri*. Any of these forms is preferred when the supine has an object in the accusative.

§ 255. The supine in **u**, properly an ablative of manner, is used only after such adjectives as *facilis*, *difficilis*, *credibilis*, *incredibilis*, *mirabilis*, *jucundus*, *honestus*, *fas*, *nefas*, and *opus est*, and denotes the object in regard to which these qualities are attributed to a thing. The supines in *u* most commonly used are *dictu*, *factu*, *auditu*, *visu*, *cognitu*, *aditu*, and *transitu*—*e.g.* :

Facile, incredibile dictu.	Easy, incredible to say.
Jucundum auditu.	Pleasant to hear.
Nefas est dictu.	It is sinful to say.
Uva peracerba gustatu.	A grape very bitter to taste.
Mirabile dictu.	Wonderful to say.

NOTE.—Instead of this supine with adjectives, we also find *ad* with the gerund, as : *res facilis ad intelligendum*, a thing easy to understand. In late writers it is sometimes used instead of the infinitive, as *pudet me dictu*, I am ashamed to say.

Poets often use the infinitive instead of either of the supines, as : *Proteus pecus egit altos visere* (for *visum*) *montes*, Proteus drove his cattle to visit the high mountains ; *facilis legi* (for *lectu*), easy to be read.

CHAPTER L.

THE PARTICIPLES.

§ 256. Participles are in form adjectives, but express time and govern the case of the verbs from which they are formed.

The Latin language is deficient in participles, for in the active there are only two: the present participle which represents an action as going on at any time, present, past or future; and the future participle which represents an action as about or likely to take place, or as intended.

In the passive also there are only two participles, the past participle and the gerundive. The past participle denotes an action completed at the time spoken of. Respecting the gerundive, see § 253.

Deponent verbs have all these four participles, as: *hortans, hortatus, hortaturus,* and *hortandus.*

NOTE 1.—As a substitute for the wanting present participle passive the gerundive is sometimes used (§ 253, note 3); and sometimes even a past participle, especially of deponent verbs, supplies the place of a present participle active, as: *melior est certa pax quam sperata victoria,* a sure peace is better than a victory that is only hoped for; *admiratus quaerit causam,* wondering he asks for the reason; *Caesar usus singulari militum studio oppidum expugnavit,* Caesar, availing himself of the extraordinary zeal of the soldiers, conquered the town. The participles *ratus* and *solitus* frequently have a present meaning, the present participle of *reor* and *soleo* not being used.

NOTE 2.—The following are the only active verbs that have a past participle with an active meaning, though the form is passive:

Audeo, I dare.	*ausus,* having dared.
Caeno, I dine.	*caenatus,* having dined.
Fido, I trust.	*fisus,* having trusted or trusting.
Gaudeo, I rejoice.	*gavisus,* having rejoiced or rejoicing.
Juro, I swear.	*juratus,* having sworn.
Nubo, I marry.	*nupta,* having been or being married to.
Odi, I hate.	*osus,* having hated or hating.
Prandeo, I breakfast.	*pransus,* having breakfasted.
Soleo, I am wont.	*solitus,* having been wont, or being wont

§ 257. As active verbs generally have no past participle, the deficiency is supplied either by changing the sentence

into the passive, or by using a paraphrase with some conjunction, as :

Urbem captam militibus diripiendam tradidit, or *quum urbem cepisset eam diripiendam tradidit.*	Having taken the city he gave it up to the soldiers to be plundered.

NOTE 1.—Sometimes the difficulty may be evaded by choosing a deponent verb.

NOTE 2.—The present participles of transitive verbs when used as adjectives, govern the genitive, as *amans patriae*, a patriotic man; *patiens laboris*, enduring labour. The present as well as past participles, when used as adjectives, also have their degrees of comparison, as *amans, amantior, amantissimus ; doctus, doctior, doctissimus.* The future participle is rarely used as an attributive adjective, and only in such phrases as *res futurae*, the future, and *anni venturi*, the coming years. Such participial adjectives may also be used substantively as : *mortui*, dead men ; *dormiens*, a sleeping man. When their neuter is used as a substantive, they generally take an adverb as a qualifying attribute, as : *bene factum*, a good deed ; *facete dicta*, witty words ; but we also find them qualified by adjectives, as : *praeclarum factum*, a noble deed ; *fortia facta*, gallant deeds.

§ 258. The Latin language, where possible, avoids the use of verbal substantives, and often employs participles where in English substantives are used, as :

Post urbem conditam.	After the foundation of the city.
Ab urbe condita.	From the foundation of the city.
Post and *ante Christum natum.*	After, before the birth of Christ.
Post reges expulsos.	After the expulsion of the kings.
Cicerone consule.	In the consulship of Cicero.
Omne malum nascens facile opprimitur.	Every evil is easily crushed in its beginning.

§ 259. A subordinate clause expressing time, cause, manner, instrument, or any of the ideas commonly expressed by the ablative, provided its subject is different from that of the leading clause, is expressed by the ablative absolute, that is, the conjunction is omitted, the subject is put in the ablative, and the verb, changed into a suitable participle, is made to agree with the subject in gender, number, and case, as :

Sole stante terra vertitur.	While the sun is standing still, the earth turns round.
Haec res gestae sunt Romulo regnante.	These things were done, when Romulus reigned.
Reluctante natura irritus labor est.	Exertion is useless when nature is against it.

Mucius Porsennam interficere, proposita sibi morte, conatus est.	Mucius attempted to kill Porsenna, although death stared him in the face.
Hoste victo.	When the enemy was conquered.
Classe illa amissa.	When that fleet was lost, or if that fleet should be lost.

NOTE 1.—An ablative absolute accordingly ought to consist of a noun and a participle; but a verbal substantive or an adjective often takes the place of the participle, as the verb *sum* has no present participle, as: *Romulo rege*, when Romulus was king; *rem auctore Aristide repudiarunt*, they rejected the affair on the advice of Aristides; *bellum Gallicum Caesare imperatore gestum est*, the Gallic war was carried on under the command of Caesar; *exigua parte aestatis reliqua*, as only a short part of the summer remained; *civibus salvis*, while the citizens were safe; *coelo sereno*, while sky was bright; *patre vivo*, while the father was alive; *me invito*, I being unwilling, or against my will.

Sometimes the ablative absolute consists of a participle alone in the neuter gender, which thus acquires the character of an adverb, as: *consulto*, deliberation having taken place—*i.e.*, deliberately; *audito*, it having been heard; *nuntiato*, it having been reported.

NOTE 2.—As there is no past participle in the active, it frequently becomes necessary for the purpose of using the ablative absolute to change the clause into the passive, as: Ariovistus having heard of Caesar's arrival sent ambassadors to him, *cognito Caesaris adventu, Ariovistus legatos ad eum misit;* Caius Sempronius having conducted his own defence was condemned, *Caius Sempronius causa ipse pro se dicta damnatus est.*

NOTE 3.—The present and past participles are the only ones that are used in forming the ablative absolute; the future participle and the gerundive are scarcely ever employed in the construction of the ablative absolute.

NOTE 4.—In English the nominative absolute answers to the Latin ablative absolute, but it is less extensively used.

CHAPTER LI.

REMARKS ON SOME OF THE PRONOUNS.

§ 260. (1.) The pronoun is, ea, id, which sometimes partakes of the demonstrative character, performs mainly two functions: First, it is used as the personal pronoun of the third person, answering to the English he, his, him, she, her, they, them, and it; Second, as the antecedent or correlative of the relative pronoun, whence its name of the determinative pronoun (compare § 57), *e.g.*:

Librum ei dedi.	I gave him the book.
Interficere eum conatus est.	He attempted to kill him.

Pecuniam ab eo accepit.	He received the money from him.
Eam magnopere vereor.	I fear her greatly.
Ii qui patriam amant mortem pro ea obire non recusabunt.	Those who love their country will not refuse to die for it.

NOTE 1.—Respecting the difference between *is, ea, id*, and the reflective pronoun, see § 53; as *is, ea, id* has something of a demonstrative character, the demonstrative *hic, haec, hoc*, or *ille, illa, illud* sometimes takes its place with scarcely any appreciable difference in meaning.

(2.) The is, as an antecedent to a relative, is frequently omitted, especially when it is in the same case with it, but also when it is in a different case. Qui then is equivalent to *is qui*, he who, and quod to *id quod*, that which or what—*e.g.* :

Quem arma non fregerant, vitia vicerunt.	Him, whom arms had not broken, vices have conquered.
Maximum ornamentum amicitiae tollit, qui ex ea tollit verecundiam.	He deprives friendship of its greatest beauty, who deprives it of (mutual) respect.
A me saepe disputatum est, qui unam haberet, omnes habere virtutes.	I have often maintained that he who possessed one virtue possessed all.

(3.) The clause containing the antecedent ought naturally to precede the relative, but for the sake of greater emphasis, it is very often put after it, as :

Quos ferro trucidari oportebat, eos nondum voce vulnero.	I do not yet wound with a word those who ought to have been killed with the sword.
Qui sibi hoc sumpsit, ut corrigat mores aliorum ac peccata reprehendat, quis huic ignoscat si, &c.	Who would pardon him who has presumed to correct the conduct of others, and to censure their errors, if, &c.
Est ridiculum, quod est dubium, id relinquere incertum ; quod nemini dubium potest esse, id judicare.	It is ridiculous to leave that uncertain which is doubtful, and to judge of that which cannot be doubtful to any one.

But even in such cases the antecedent is often omitted.

(4.) When thus the relative clause precedes its antecedent, the substantive to which the relative refers is often drawn into the relative clause, as :

Quam artem quisque novit in hac se exerceat.	Let every one exercise himself in that art which he knows.
Ad quas res aptissimi erimus, in iis potissimum elaborabimus.	We shall exert ourselves especially in those things for which we are best fitted.

Atticus familiares Antonii quibus rebus indiguerunt adjuvit. — Atticus supported the friends of Antonius with those things which they needed.

The same is the case when the substantive to which the relative refers is a noun in apposition to another, as:

Caesar Gomphos pervenit, quod est oppidum primum Thessaliae venientibus ab Epiro. — Caesar arrived at Gomphi, which is the first town of Thessaly to those coming from Epirus.

And lastly in such phrases as *quae tua prudentia est* (considering your prudence, or such is your prudence), as:

Qua prudentia es, nihil te fugiet. — Nothing will escape you, such is your prudence.

Si mihi negotium permisisses, qui meus in te amor est, confecissem. — If you had left the business to me, I should have settled it, such is my affection for you.

§ 261. When two relative clauses refer to the same antecedent, but stand to it in different relations, they ought not to be connected by *et*, as is often done in English, as:

Belgae proximi sunt Germanis qui trans Rhenum incolunt, quibuscum continenter bellum gerunt. — The Belgae are nearest to the Germans dwelling on the other side of the Rhine, with whom they are constantly at war.

Aequum est illos viros bonos nobilesque mittere, quibus fides habetur, qui rem explorent. — It is fair to send those good and noble men, in whom you have confidence, to explore the affair.

§ 262. In Latin sometimes two relatives stand side by side, which cannot be imitated in English, and where they occur the sentence has to be altered, as:

Epicurus non satis politus iis artibus, quas qui tenent eruditi appellantur. — Epicurus was not sufficiently versed in those arts the possession of which gives men the name of learned.

Num adolescentem ea discere mavis, quae quum praeclare didicerit, nihil sciat. — Do you prefer a young man to learn those things, after learning which in a splendid manner, he will yet know nothing?

§ 263. The Latin language, wherever possible, likes to connect a sentence with the preceding one by a relative; hence many a sentence in Latin begins with a relative, for which in English we have to substitute a demonstrative. Examples occur in every page of a Latin author.

In accordance with this tendency we often find sentences beginning

with *quod si, quod nisi*, which may be translated by "if therefore," "if therefore not," or "unless therefore," and sometimes by "but if" and "but unless." *Quod*, which is in the accusative case, virtually means in reference to what (was said before). In many cases it need not be translated at all, being only, as it were, the cement connecting the sentences—*e.g.* :

Tyranni coluntur simulatione dum-taxat ad tempus. Quodsi forte ceciderunt, tum intelligitur, quam fuerint inopes amicorum.	People pretend to honour tyrants at least for a time ; if therefore (or but if) by chance they have fallen, then it is seen how few friends they have had.

NOTE.—Respecting the cases in which the relative requires the verb to be in the subjunctive, see § 229 and following sections.

§ 264. The pronoun idem, eadem, idem (the same) has for its proper correlative *qui, quae, quod*, but instead of it we often find *atque, ac*, or *et*, and sometimes *ut* or *cum*, as :

Animus erga te idem ac fuit.	The feeling towards you is the same as it was.
Si quaeratur idemne sit pertinacia et perseverantia.	If it be asked whether obstinacy is the same thing as perseverance.
Eodem mecum patre genitus.	Begotten of the same father as I.

NOTE.—When a subject has two predicates, the second is introduced by *idemque* or *et idem*, as : Cicero was an orator, and also a philosopher, *Cicero erat orator idemque philosophus.*

§ 265. The indefinite pronouns aliquis (from *alis* and *quis*), some one else, or some one, generally drops the *ali* after *si, nisi, ne, sive*, and *num*, as :

Si quid in te peccavi ignosce.	If I have done you any wrong, pardon me.
Si quo erat longius proeundum.	If it was necessary to go to any greater distance.
Danda opera est ne qua amicorum discidia fiant.	Care must be taken, lest there should happen any rupture between friends.
Num quid simile populus Romanus audiverat aut viderat?	Had the Roman people heard or seen anything like it?

NOTE.—The same is the case sometimes after *ut, ubi, unde, quo, quanto, quum, quando*, and after a relative pronoun, as : *ubi semel quis pejeraverit*, when any one has once committed perjury. But in all these cases the *ali* is retained, if *aliquis* is to be pronounced with emphasis, as *si aliquid dandum est voluptati*, if *any* concession is to be made to pleasure. The simple indefinite *quis* occurs very rarely, as *alienum est a sapiente*

injuriam cui facere, it is against the nature of a wise man to do wrong to any one; *morbus aut egestas aut quid ejusmodi*, disease or poverty or something of that kind.

§ 266. The interrogative pronoun quid is often used in animated speeches in passing from one subject to another, as if the orator wished to say, What say you to this, that, &c., as:

Quid? cum te Praeneste occupaturum nocturno impetu esse confideres, sensistine, &c. — What of this? when you felt sure that you would seize Praeneste in an attack during the night, did you not perceive, &c.

Quid? quod adventu tuo ista subsellia vacuefacta sunt? — What say you to the fact that upon your arrival those benches were forsaken?

§ 267. Quisquam and nullus (any one) are generally used in negative sentences, *quisquam* as a substantive and *nullus* as an adjective, as:

Justitia nunquam nocet cuiquam. — Justice never harms any one.

Sine virtute neque amicitiam neque ullam rem expetendam consequi possumus. — Without virtue we can neither gain friendship nor anything worth striving after.

NOTE 1.—Among negative sentences are included those with *vix*, *aegre* (scarcely), rhetorical questions, and clauses beginning with *quam* after a comparative, as: *vix quisquam hoc dicet*, scarcely any one will say this; *aegre quisquam abstinebit*, with difficulty any one will abstain; *estne quisquam omnium mortalium, de quo melius existimes tu?* is there any mortal of whom you think better? *num censes ullum animal sine corpore esse posse?* do you think that any animal can be without a body? *nihil est exitiosius civitatibus quam quidquam agi per vim*, nothing is more ruinous to states than when anything is done by violence.

NOTE 2.—*Quisquam* and *ullus* are sometimes used in hypothetical sentences, as: *si quisquam est timidus in magnis periculosisque rebus, is ego sum*, if any person is timid in great and dangerous circumstances, I am that man: *si tempus est ullum jure hominis necandi*, if there is any time at which a man may be killed with justice. "Any" after *sine* (without) is always expressed by *ullus*, as: *sine ulla spe*, without any hope; *sine ulla mora*, without any delay.

CHAPTER LII.

SOME REMARKS ON THE NEGATIVES.

§ 268. (1.) There are in Latin three negatives, non, haud, and ne. *Non* denies absolutely or objectively; *haud* is less strong, and has more the character of a subjective negative, and with the exception

of *haud scio* (I know not), occurs almost exclusively with adjectives and adverbs, as :

Auctor haud contemnendus.	An author not to be despised.
Haud sane difficile.	Not indeed difficult.
Haud facile dixerim.	I should not like to say.

As to *ne* with the subjunctive and imperative, see § 222. It frequently occurs in composition, as : *nescio*, I do not know ; *nego*, I deny ; *nequeo*, I cannot ; *nequam*, worthless ; *nefas*, sin ; *nefarius*, sinful ; *ne-quidem*, not even ; *nullus* (*ne ullus*), no one ; *neque*, and not, neither.

NOTE 1.—Instead of *non*, we sometimes find *nihil*, which is much stronger and signifies "in no respect."

NOTE 2.—Sometimes *nullus* is used predicatively instead of an emphatic *non*, as : *misericordia quae tibi nulla debetur*, pity which you do not deserve at all ; *Sextus ab armis nullus discedebat*, Sextus did not withdraw from arms at all.

(2.) Neque or nec, literally "and not" and sometimes "but not," if repeated twice or oftener signifies neither—nor (both not the one and not the other) ; but it often happens that a sentence beginning with *neque* is followed by one beginning with *et*, in which the former alone is negative and the latter affirmative. In this case *neque* may be treated as equivalent to *non*, except that *neque* has a copulative power which *non* has not. When followed by *enim*, *vero*, *tamen*, it has always the same meaning as the simple *non*.

(3.) Ne-quidem (not even). These two words are never joined together, but always take between them the most emphatic word or words, as

Nunquam Scipionem offendi ne minima quidem re.	I have never offended Scipio even in the smallest matter.

The expression "not only not"—"but not even," is given in Latin exactly as in English, *non modo non—sed ne-quidem ;* but when both clauses have the same verb, the second *non* in *non modo non* is generally omitted, as :

Ego tibi non modo non irascor, sed ne reprehendo quidem factum tuum.	I am not only not angry with you, but do not even blame your act.
Assentatio, vitiorum adjutrix, non modo amico, sed ne libero quidem digna est.	Flattery, the support of vices, is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man.
Dolere non modo summum, sed ne malum quidem esse philosophi affirmant.	Philosophers maintain that pain is not only not the greatest evil, but not even an evil at all.

§ 269. In Latin as in most other languages two negatives neutralize each other, and in fact form a strong affirmative, as :

Non nescio or *non ignoro.*	I know very well.
Non nego.	I do not deny or I assert.
Non possum non.	I cannot help—*i.e.*, I must.

In regard to *nihil, nullus, nemo, nunquam,* and *nusquam,* it makes a great difference whether they precede or follow the negative. Thus :—

Non nihil, means "something" ; *nihil non,* everything.
Non nullus, non nemo, many a one ; *nullus* or *nemo non,* every one.
Non nunquam, sometimes ; *nunquam non,* always.
Non nusquam, somewhere ; *nusquam non,* everywhere.

NOTE.—When a negative is followed by two copulative clauses, these latter may take *neque—neque,* without the first negative being thereby neutralized, as *nihil nec tam inopinatum nec tam insperatum accidere potuit,* nothing could happen either so unforeseen or so unexpected. Sometimes *aut--aut* or *vel—vel* are used in such sentences instead of *neque—neque,* as *ante id tempus nemo aut miles aut eques a Caesare ad Pompeium transierat,* before that time no one either of the infantry or of the cavalry had gone over from Caesar to Pompey.

CHAPTER LIII.

SOME REMARKS ON THE STRUCTURE OF LATIN SENTENCES.

§ 270. As the inflections sufficiently show what function each word performs in a sentence, it is, on the whole, a matter of indifference in what order words are arranged in a sentence. Still words belonging to one another ought not to be separated ; a relative should not be too far removed from its antecedent, and a negative (*non*) when belonging to a whole clause should be placed before the finite verb, or before the auxiliary in a compound tense.

The very freedom in the arrangement of words enables a writer or speaker to assign to each word that position in which it is likely to produce the desired effect. The most important or emphatic word is thus generally placed at the head of a sentence, or, if it be desired to keep the attention of the reader or hearer in a state of suspense, at the end of

it. Thus even in a simple sentence like *Cicero summus fuit orator*, the arrangement of the words may be varied in several ways, without altering its essential meaning, though, if we deviate from the natural or logical order, and put, *e.g.*, *summus orator* first, these words have the chief emphasis. Similarly, my father is *pater meus*, but *meus pater* is *my* father. Further, the verb, which generally stands at the end of a sentence, may take the first place, if it is to be particularly emphatic.

Attention, however, must also be paid to euphony and elegance, and, as far as possible, words ought to be arranged in such a way that they can be pronounced with ease, and do not produce any disagreeable sound, which would be the case, for example, if several words with the same endings were to follow one another in uninterrupted succession.

The Latin language likes to connect sentences by relatives and conjunctions in such a manner as to produce a well rounded period, in which each performs its own function and shows in what relation it stands to the rest. Such a period is like an organic whole, of which each clause constitutes a link in the chain of thought. As the English language is averse to long and involved sentences, it often becomes necessary, in translating, to cut up a Latin period into one or more independent sentences.

All details of style must be left to the student's own observation, and he cannot follow a better model than that which he finds in the works of Cicero, which represent Latin prose in its highest perfection.

APPENDIX.

I.

ROMAN NAMES.

1. A Roman citizen generally had three names, as *Publius Vergilius Maro, Quintus Horatius Flaccus.* The first (*praenomen*) of the three corresponds to our Christian name, and distinguishes a person from other members of the same family; the third (*cognomen*) is the family name; and the middle, generally ending in *ius* (*nomen gentilicium* or simply *nomen*), describes the *gens* or *clan* to which a person belongs.

2. In addition to these a person might have a fourth name or *agnomen* as an honorary distinction on account of some military exploit or conquest, as *Publius Cornelius Scipio Africanus,* who destroyed Carthage, and added its territory to the dominions of Rome under the name of Africa.

3. When a person was adopted into another family of a different *gens,* he took the full name of his adoptive father, adding to it that of his former *gens* with the adjective termination *anus.* Thus a son of *L. Aemilius Paulus,* when adopted by *Publius Cornelius Scipio,* became *Publius Cornelius Scipio Aemilianus,* to which again an honorary *agnomen* might be added. Such an *agnomen* was transmitted by inheritance.

4. Women were designated simply by the feminine form of the gentile name, such as *Julia, Terentia, Fulvia, Sempronia, Cornelia.*

NOTE 1.—Sometimes a Roman, especially when he belonged to an obscure family, had only two names, as Caius Marius.

NOTE 2.—When a slave was manumitted, he generally took the praenomen and the nomen of his former master, to which the name he had

borne as a slave was added. Thus Cicero's slave Tiro, after his manumission, was called Marcus Tullius Tiro; and Chrysogonus, the freedman of Lucius Cornelius Sulla, was called Lucius Cornelius Chrysogonus.

5. As the Romans had only a very limited number of *praenomina*, it was customary, in order to distinguish one person from another, in important documents, to add the *praenomen* of his father and often also that of the grandfather, *e.g.*, *Cnaeus Pompeius Strabo* might be described as *Cnaeus Pompeius, Sex. F., Cn. N., Strabo*, that is, Cnaeus Pompeius Strabo, son of *Sextus*, grandson of *Cnaeus*.

NOTE.—In common conversation members of the same family addressed each other generally only by the praenomen, and persons of different families by the cognomen alone.

6. In writing the *praenomina*, the Romans generally used only the initials, as *M. Tullius Cicero, i.e., Marcus Tullius Cicero*. The following is a list of Roman *praenomina* in alphabetical order :—

A. = Aulus.
Ap. or App. = Appius.
C. or G. = Caius or Gaius.
Cn. or Gn. = Cnaeus or Gnaeus.
D. = Decimus.
K. = Kaeso.
L. = Lucius.
M. = Marcus.
M'. = Manius.
Mam. = Mamercus.
N. or Num. = Numerius.
P. = Publius.
Q. or Qu. = Quintus.
S. or Sex. = Sextus.
Ser. = Servius.
Sp. = Spurius.
T. = Titus.
Ti. = Tiberius.

7. To these may be added the abridged forms of certain Roman titles which occur in books and inscriptions, as :—

Aed. = Aedilis.
Cal. or Kal. = Kalendae.
Cos. = Consul.
Coss. = Consules.
D. = Divus.
Des. = Designatus.
Eq. Rom. = Eques Romanus.
F. = Filius.
Imp. = Imperator.
Leg. = Legatus or Legio.
N. = Nepos.
Non. = Nonae.
O. M. = Optimus Maximus.
P. C. = Patres Conscripti.
Pl. = Plebes.
Pop. = Populus.
P. R. = Populus Romanus.
Pont. Max. = Pontifex Maximus.
Pr. = Praetor.
Praef. = Praefectus.
Proc. = Proconsul.
S. = Senatus.
S. P. Q. R. = Senatus Populusque Romanus.
S. C. = Senatus Consultum.
Tr. = Tribunus.

II.

ROMAN MONEY.

1. In the earliest times, and till shortly before the outbreak of the first Punic war, B.C. 264, the Romans used a pound (*libra* or *pondo*) of copper (*aes*) as their common coin, and they called it *as* (genitive *assis*), *aes grave*, or *asses librales* (heavy money). The *as* was the unit, and when thousands of asses had to be mentioned, the word *assium* was generally omitted, but the word *aeris* was added, as *centum milia aeris*, a hundred thousand asses.

2. The value of such a pound of copper was about 18 pence; but in the course of time the weight of the *as* was continually diminished, so that at the time of the Punic war its copper value had been reduced to about 3 pence (*as sextantarius*), and afterwards even to one penny and a halfpenny (*as uncialis*), until towards the end of the republic it amounted to about one halfpenny (*as semiuncialis*).

3. In the year B.C. 269 silver is said to have been coined for the first time in the form of a *denarius* equal to 10 and afterwards to 16 asses; a *quinarius*, equal to 5 asses; and a *sestertius* (*i.e.*, *sesquitertius*), equal to 2½ asses. The last of these three coins (indicated by IIS, that is, *as as semis*, or LLS, that is *libra libra semis*, and finally by the symbol HS) had the value of about one penny and a halfpenny, and became the common coin, generally designated by the simple word *nummus*.

4. Sums of money from 1 to 999 were indicated by cardinal numerals, as *sestertii trecenti*, *sexcenti*, *octingenti*, &c.; but 1,000 sestertii was expressed by *mille sestertium* (for *sestertiorum*), as *IIS. VIII milibus lis aestimata est*, the lawsuit was estimated at 8,000 sestertii. The genitive *sestertium* (signifying 1,000 sesterces) gradually came to be regarded as a neuter substantive used only in the plural, and taking the distributive numerals, as: *sestertia octona*, 8,000 sesterces; *centena sestertia*, 100,000 sesterces.

5. A million fully expressed would be *decies centena milia sestertium*; but it was customary to use only the multiplicative numeral, so that a million was expressed briefly by *sestertium decies*, as *syngrapha sestertii centies*, a bill for 10,000,000 sesterces.

NOTE 1.—The symbol HS may mean *sestertius*, *sestertia*, and *sestertium*: if the first is meant, the number is simply added to the symbol, as HS $\overline{XX}$ = 20 sesterces; if the second, a line is drawn over the numeral, as HS $\overline{\overline{XX}}$ = 20,000, and if the third, a line is drawn over both the symbol and the number, $\overline{\text{HS XX}}$ = 2,000,000.

NOTE 2.—In the time of the emperors a gold coin (*aureus*, sc. *nummus*) was coined, and generally called *solidus*; its value was 25 denarii or 100 sesterces or 15 shillings.

III.

ROMAN WEIGHTS.

The Roman pound (*libra* or *pondo*), containing about 18 ounces, was divided into 12 *unciae*. The pound as a unit was called *as*, and its twelfth part *uncia*, its sixth part *sextans*, its fourth part *quadrans*, and its third part *triens*; $\frac{5}{12}$ of a pound was called *quincunx*, $\frac{1}{2}$ a pound *semis*, $\frac{7}{12}$ *septunx*, $\frac{2}{3}$ *bes* (genitive *bessis*), $\frac{3}{4}$ *dodrans*, $\frac{5}{6}$ *dextans*, and $\frac{11}{12}$ *deunx*.

NOTE.—These names are also employed to denote the fractions of a whole, especially in stating the portions of inheritances, *e.g.*, *heres ex asse*, one who inherits the whole of a man's fortune; *heres ex dodrante*, one who inherits three fourths. So also *fenus ex triente factum erat bessibus*, the rate of interest was raised from $\frac{1}{3}$ per cent to $\frac{2}{3}$.

IV.

ROMAN MEASURES.

1. The Roman foot *pes* (about equal to 0·3 metre) was divided into 16 *digiti* (inches); a *cubitum* (cubit or ell) was equal to $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot; a *passus* (pace) equal to 5 feet; a *decempeda* equal to 10 feet, and a thousand passus (*mille passus*) equal to a Roman mile, five of which would be equal to a geographical mile.

2. The measure for liquids was the *amphora*, equal to about $5\frac{3}{4}$ imperial gallons, contained 3 *urnae* or *modii*, 8 *congii*, and 48 *sextarii*. The *sextarius* was again divided into *unciae* or *cyathi*.

3. The common measure for dry substances was the *modius* (a peck); it contained 12 *sextarii*; and 5 *modii* make about one bushel.

V.

THE ROMAN CALENDAR.

1. The Romans did not, as we do, reckon the days of the month straight on from the first to the last, but according to three principal days which they called the *Kalendae*, the *Nonae*, and the *Idus*. The Kalendae is the 1st day of every month, the Nonae the 5th, and the

Idus the 13th ; but in the months of March, May, July, and October the Nonae fall on the 7th and the Idus on the 15th.

2. All the other days of a month are stated by counting backwards from any of the three principal days, but in such a manner as to include the day from which we start (the *terminus a quo*). Hence, *e.g.*, the last day of the month of August will be expressed by *pridie* (*ante*) *Kalendas Septembres;* and the day before that by *tertio* (*ante*) *Kalendas Septembres*, and so on back to the Ides, and thence again to the Nones. Hence on the day before the Ides will be *pridie* (*ante*) *Idus*, and the day before that *tertio* (*ante*) *Idus*, and so also *pridie* (*ante*) *Nonas*, and *tertio* or *quarto* (*ante*) *Nonas*, &c.

3. In regard to the Kalendae which are an extra day beyond the current month, a second day must be added to the number of days in the current month, whence, *e.g.*, *tertio* (*ante*) *Kalendas Julias* is the 29th of June.

NOTE.—The names of the Roman months are the same as ours, which are in fact borrowed from the Romans ; but before the time of the Emperor Augustus July was called *Quinctilis*, and August *Sextilis*, which names were then changed in honour of Julius Caesar and Augustus. The names of all the months are in reality adjectives with which the substantive *mensis* (month) is understood, and sometimes also expressed. In the plural they agree with the plural substantives Kalendae, Nonae, and Idus.

4. When a date is mentioned in answer to the question When? it is expressed, as usual, by the ablative of an ordinal numeral and the preposition *ante*, as *die tertio ante Kalendas Julias*. But both the word *die* and *ante* are commonly omitted, as *tertio Kalendas*, or the preposition is transposed and placed before the numeral, but leaving the accusative *Kalendas* unaltered, as *ante diem tertium Kalendas Julias*. In this case the words *ante diem* are treated as one indeclinable substantive, and may be preceded by a second preposition, as *in ante diem tertium Kalendas Julias*, for the third day before the Kalends of July ; *ex ante diem quintum Idus Octobres*, beginning from the fifth day before the Ides of October.

NOTE.—The word *pridie* may be followed either by the genitive or the accusative, the latter being dependent on *ante* understood, as *pridie Kalendarum* or *Kalendas*.

5. In leap years, the month of February has one day more, and this intercalary day is inserted after the 23rd of February—that is, on the 6th day before the Kalends of March. Hence the leap year itself was called *bis sextus*, the 23d and 24th being both *sextus ante Kalendas Martias*, perhaps distinguished by the attributes *prior* and *posterior*.

The following table contains the complete Calendar of an ordinary year, from which it will not be difficult to identify a Roman date with our own :—

CALENDARIUM.

Our days of the Month.	March, May, July, October, have 31 days.	January, August, December, have 31 days.	April, June, September, November, have 30 days.	February has 28 days, and in Leap Year 29.
1.	KALENDIS.	KALENDIS.	KALENDIS.	KALENDS.
2.	VI.	IV.	IV.	IV.
3.	V. } ante Nonas.	III. } ante Nonas.	III. } ante Nonas.	III. } ante Nonas.
4.	IV.	Pridie Nonas.	Pridie Nonas.	Pridie Nonas
5.	III.	NONIS.	NONIS.	NONIS.
6.	Pridie Nonas.	VIII.	VIII.	VIII.
7.	NONIS.	VII.	VII.	VII.
8.	VIII.	VI.	VI.	VI.
9.	VII.	V. } ante Idus.	V. } ante Idus.	V. } ante Idus.
10.	VI. } ante Idus.	IV.	IV.	IV.
11.	V.	III.	III.	III.
12.	IV.	Pridie Idus.	Pridie Idus.	Pridie Idus.
13.	III.	IDIBUS.	IDIBUS.	IDIBUS.
14.	Pridie Idus.	XIX.	XVIII.	XVI.
15.	IDIBUS.	XVIII.	XVII.	XV.
16.	XVII.	XVII.	XVI.	XIV.
17.	XVI.	XVI.	XV.	XIII.
18.	XV.	XV.	XIV.	XII.
19.	XIV.	XIV.	XIII.	XI.
20.	XIII.	XIII.	XII.	X. } Ante Kalendas Martias.
21.	XII.	XII.	XI. } Ante Kalendas (of the month following).	IX.
22.	XI. } Ante Kalendas (of the month following).	XI. } Ante Kalendas (of the month following).	X.	VIII.
23.	X.	X.	IX.	VII
24.	IX.	IX.	VIII.	VI.
25.	VIII.	VIII.	VII.	V.
26.	VII.	VII.	VI.	IV.
27.	VI.	VI.	V.	III.
28.	V.	V.	IV.	Pridie Kalendas Martias.
29.	IV.	IV.	III.	
30.	III.	III.	Pridie Kalendas (of the month following).	
31.	Pridie Kalendas (of the month following).	Pridie Kalendas (of the month following).		