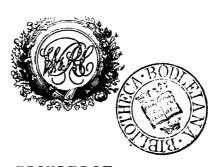
## CHAMBERS'S EDUCATIONAL COURSE—CLASSICAL SECTION. EDITED BY DRS SCHMITZ AND ZUMPT.

## ELEMENTARY

# LATIN GRAMMAR.

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### PREFACE.

THE Introductory Grammar of the Latin language here offered to the public, is essentially an abridgment of the Latin Grammar which forms part of the present series of Latin school-books, and is intended to be put into the hands of beginners, whose object is, in the first instance, to become acquainted only with the principal and leading features of the language. To those who wish to prosecute their studies further, it may serve as an introduction to the larger Grammar; while those learners who do not intend to enter more deeply into the study of the Latin language, will find in the present little work all that is essential for practical purposes. The work, therefore, claims a place among the Elementary Grammars commonly known under the name of Rudiments of the Latin Language; but it is hoped that it will be found to place the laws of the language before the learner in a more correct form than is done in many Rudiments which are still used in our schools, and in which incorrect statements, grammatical fictions, and unphilosophical definitions, are met with oftener than could be desired in books of which the substance is impressed upon the memory of the young, and which thus have a strong tendency to perpetuate error, and obstruct the progress of accurate knowledge.

As the book necessarily contains information on many points which the pupil may dispense with at the beginning of his career, but which, after having mastered the first elements, it will be useful and interesting to know, the parts which are thought more essential than others are printed in larger type, and are meant to be committed to memory. The parts printed in small type may at first be omitted; but after a little time, and especially when the pupil is revising what he had learned before, they ought to form subjects of explanation and discussion for the teacher, so as to extend the knowledge of the pupil, and establish it on a rational basis.

The number of examples illustrating the various rules might easily have been made more numerous; but as this Introductory Grammar is to be accompanied by a book of Exercises, beginning with the first elements of the language, it has been thought unnecessary to increase its size by such additions.

The rules of gender and quantity, which are generally treated of separately in elementary grammars, have been given in connection with the inflections, and certain general principles only are laid down in separate sections at the beginning of the work, because without some general rules of this kind the beginner will not be able even to read and pronounce a Latin word or proposition correctly.

L. S.

EDINBURGH, December 1851.

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### ELEMENTARY LATIN GRAMMAR.

#### ALPHABET AND ORTHOGRAPHY.

1. The Latin alphabet consists of twenty-five letters—namely, a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, o, p, q, r, s, t, u, v, x, y, z. Of these, six are vowels—a, e, i, o, u, and y; and the remaining seventeen are consonants.

In writing, the Romans represented the two sounds of i and j by i only; and those of u and v by v only.

2. There are five diphthongs—namely, ae, oe, au, ei, and eu.

Of these, the first three frequently occur; but ei is found only in a few interjections—such as hei, eia, oiei; and eu only in heu, heus, eheu; in ceu, seu, and neu; and in neuter and neutiquam. Oi is found only in oiei; and ui occurs only in the interjection hui, and in the datives huic and cui.

The consonants were probably pronounced uniformly by the Romans in every position. Accordingly, c was sounded as k, though we pronounce it as s before e, i, y, ae, and oe. In like manner t was pronounced as pure t, though we now pronounce it as sh when it precedes i followed by another vowel—as justitia, which we pronounce justish-i-a.

3. The consonants are divided into two classes—namely, mutes, b, c, d, f, k, p, q, t, v; and liquids, l, m, n, r. Besides these there are the guttural and the dental aspirates h and s; and the double consonants x and z; x being composed of k, c, or g and s, and z of d and s, yet it is pronounced as s soft.

Q occurs only before the vowel u, the two being pronounced as kw, though the Romans gave the combination the sound of k alone.

4. When a word ending with a vowel is immediately followed by another beginning with a vowel, there is felt an incon-

venience in pronunciation, which is called *hiātus*. To avoid this, in reading poetry, the final vowel sound is omitted.

Thus in verse, by elision, Sapere aude is pronounced Saper' aude; Dardanidae e muris, Dardanid' e muris, &c.

The same elision takes place in poetry when the second word begins with a vowel or h and the first ends in m—thus multum ille is read multille.

Capital letters, though generally employed by the Romans until a late period, are now used only as *initials*—1. In proper names, and adjectives derived from them; 2. At the beginning of a sentence; and 3. At the beginning of a verse.

When two vowels, which under ordinary circumstances form a diphthong, are to be pronounced separately, the second is marked with

diaeresis (")—as poëta, a poet; aër, air.

As a sign of punctuation, the Romans used the full stop only; but in modern editions of the Latin classics the same signs are employed as in our own language.

#### QUANTITY AND ACCENTUATION OF SYLLABLES.

5. A syllable may consist of a single vowel or a diphthong, or of a combination of one or more consonants with one vowel or diphthong—as i, go; e-go, I; au-ster, south-wind.

6. Syllables are either long or short, only a few being of a

doubtful nature, or sometimes long and sometimes short.

The length of a syllable depends upon the vowel which it contains. A long syllable should be dwelt upon about twice as long as a short one; hence two short vowels when united in a diphthong make one long sound.

A long syllable is marked by a horizontal line (\*) above its vowel; a short syllable by an under-curve (\*); and a doubtful syllable by the union of these two (\*)—as pěcūněů,

homő.

7. A syllable may be long by nature (that is, by the natural length of its vowel) or by position (that is, when its vowel is followed by two or more consonants.) Thus  $s\bar{s}l$  and  $tr\bar{a}dit$  have a and a long by nature, while  $f\bar{a}x$  and  $amab\bar{u}nt$  have a and u long by position.

8. All syllables containing a diphthong or a vowel which has arisen from a contraction of two others are long—as  $a\bar{c}des$ , a house;  $la\bar{u}s$ , praise;  $c\bar{o}\bar{c}lum$ , heaven;  $c\bar{o}go$  (contracted for  $c\check{o}ago$ ), I compel; malo (for  $m\check{o}g\check{e}v\check{o}lo$ ), I will rather;  $j\bar{u}nior$  (for  $j\check{u}v\check{e}nior$ ), younger.

9. One vowel immediately followed by another in the same

word is short—as deus, a god; pius, dutiful.

The breathing h in such cases does not affect the length of a syllable—as  $tr\ddot{a}ho$ , I draw;  $v\ddot{e}ho$ , I drive.

10. The vowels of radical syllables retain their natural quantity in derivative and compound words, even when the radical vowel is changed into another—as māter, māternus; păter, pāternus; amo, amor, amicus, amicitia, intmicitia; cado, incido; caedo, incido.

11. Monosyllabic words ending in a vowel are long—as  $m\bar{e}$ ,  $t\bar{e}$ ,  $t\bar{u}$ ; but the enclitic particles  $qu\bar{e}$ ,  $v\bar{e}$ ,  $s\bar{e}$ ,  $n\bar{e}$ ,  $t\bar{e}$  (tut $\bar{e}$ ),  $ps\bar{e}$ 

(reapse), and pte (suopte), are exceptions.

12. Monosyllabic substantives ending in a consonant are long—as  $s\bar{v}l$ , sun;  $v\bar{e}r$ , spring;  $f\bar{u}r$ , thief;  $j\bar{u}s$ , law; but all other monosyllabic words ending in a consonant are short—as ut, t,  $n\bar{e}c$ , t, ad,  $qu\bar{u}d$ ,  $s\bar{e}d$ ,  $qu\bar{s}d$ ,  $qu\bar{s}d$ .

The quantity of the final syllables in words of more than one syllable may be found in the chapters on *Declension*, Conjugation, and Derivation.

13. A syllable naturally short may become long by its vowel being followed by two or more consonants, whether these belong to the same word or to two different words—as amabūnt, fāx, dāntis, inferrētque, passūs sum.

The simple consonant j alone makes the preceding vowel long—as  $m\bar{a}jor$ ,  $\bar{e}jus$ . J was probably, like x and z, pronounced as a double consonant by the Romans.

14. One syllable in every word is accented, or pronounced more emphatically than the rest. This accent may be marked by either the acute (´) or the circumflex (`), but neither of these is now used in writing or printing Latin.

Enclitics, and prepositions when placed before the cases which they govern, have no independent accent—as paterque, tute, per urbem, propter moenia.

In dissyllables, the accent is on the penultima—as Rómā, hómē, lēctīs. In words of three or more syllables the accent is on the penultima, if the ultima be long; but if it be short, the accent falls on the antepenultima, or last syllable but two—as Rómānīs, Rōmānōs, Métellīs, moribūs, cārmīnībūs.

#### CLASSES OF WORDS, OR PARTS OF SPEECH.

15. The words of the Latin language are arranged in nine classes—namely, Substantive, Adjective, Pronoun, Numeral, Verb, Adverb, Preposition, Conjunction, and Interjection.

16. The first four classes may be comprehended under the common appellation of Nouns. With the exception of some of the numerals, these are subject to inflection, which is called declension. The verb also is subject to inflection, called con-

jugation. But the remaining four classes, with some of the numerals, are not affected by inflection.

Comparison, which affects the terminations of adjectives and adverbs, is another kind of inflection.

17. Declension, conjugation, and comparison consist chiefly in change of termination—as pater, a father; patris domus, a father's house: colo, I worship; coluisti Deum, thou hast served God: altus, high; altior, higher; altissimus, highest.

The various relations indicated by this change are expressed by separate words in languages which are destitute of inflections, or possess too few to mark those relations.

The Latin language has no article; hence in translating it into other

tongues the context must be the guide for supplying this word.

#### SUBSTANTIVE AND ITS GENDERS.

18. A substantive is the name of a distinct and independent existence, whether real or ideal—as mensa, a table; liber, a book; Julius, Julius; virtus, valour; justitia, justice.

19. All substantives are either generic terms or proper names—thus equus, a horse, is a generic term; and Roma,

Rome, is a proper name.

Generic terms are names applied to whole classes of persons or things which have in common certain qualities and peculiarities; and proper names are appellations given to individuals, mostly without any regard to qualities or peculiarities.

20. All substantives are designations either of living beings or of things; and as living beings are either male or female, their names in language are either masculine or feminine. Hence the names of things naturally destitute of sex should be neuter—that is, of neither gender; but the Latin language, as well as those most nearly allied to it, assigns the masculine or feminine gender even to names of things.

The gender of Latin substantives may be ascertained partly from their meaning, and partly from certain terminations which have been

appropriated to certain genders.

It is important to know the genders of Latin substantives, since adjectives, pronouns, and numerals, when united to the substantive, accommodate themselves to it by assuming a termination corresponding with the gender of the substantive—as pater bonus, a good father; filia bona, a good daughter; summum bonum, the chief good.

21. Names of males, rivers, winds, and months are masculine, whatever their terminations may be—as vir, a man; scriba, a scribe; poëta, a poet; aries, a ram; taurus, a bull; Tiberis,

the Tiber; Sequana, the Seine; Auster, south wind; Januarius,

January.

22. Names of females, whatever be their terminations, are feminine—as femina, a woman; uxor, a wife; soror, a sister; socrus, a mother-in-law.

Most of the names of trees, towns, countries, islands, and precious stones, are likewise feminine—as cedrus, a cedar;

pinus, a pine-tree; Tyrus, Tyre; smaragdus, emerald.

23. Indeclinable substantives, the names of the letters of the alphabet, and all words which, without being substantives, are used as such (except they refer to persons, as in the case of boni, good men), are neuter—as fas, divine right; gummi, gum; pascha, easter; sinapi, mustard; pondo, a pound.

24. Some substantives denoting persons are used as masculines when gender is not necessarily referred to—as hostis, an enemy; testis, a witness; civis, a citizen; parens, a parent. But they are used as feminine when directly designating a

female.

25. Some substantives receive different terminations according as they designate male or female beings. Thus many masculine substantives ending in -tor have a feminine termination in -trix, and some ending in us or any other termination have a feminine form in u—as victor, a conqueror, and victrix, a female conqueror; coquus, a male cook, and coqua, a female cook; rex, a king, and regina, a queen. The same is the case with many names of animals—as agnus, a male lamb, and agna, a female lamb; cervus, a stag, and cerva, a hind or doe; equus, a horse, and equa, a mare.

When the sex is not intended to be particularly indicated, the masculine is preferred, according to a principle recognised in all languages.

#### DECLENSION OF SUBSTANTIVES.

26. Declension is a change of termination in nouns to express the different relations in which they stand to other words in the same sentence—as pater, a father; patris domus, a father's house, or house of a father; patri, to a father; patre, from or by a father.

#### CASE.

27. By change of termination the Latin language indicates six great or general relations, and accordingly has six cases—

namely, Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Vocative, and Ablative, which are distinguished from each other by appropriate endings.

- 1. The Nominative expresses the subject of an assertion—as Deus creavit mundum, God created the world; in which Deus is the subject or nominative.
- 2. The Genitive denotes the author or possessor, or any of the relations expressed in English by of—as PATRIS filia, a father's daughter; in which PATRIS is the genitive, and thus expresses the relation of pater to filia.
- 3. The Dative expresses the person to whom anything is given or done—as pater dat filio librum, the father gives to the son a book; in which filio is the dative.
- 4. The Accusative denotes the object in which an action terminates—thus, in the sentence pater dat filio LIBRUM, LIBRUM is the accusative or object given.
- 5. The Vocative is used in addressing an object—as mater, O mother! or simply, mother!
- 6. The Ablative expresses primarily the source whence anything proceeds, but, besides, it expresses a variety of such relations as separation, instrumentality, time, place, &c. which are indicated in English by the prepositions from, by, with, in, at, &c.

#### NUMBER.

28. A substantive may denote a single individual or many—as pater, father; patres, fathers. When it denotes one, it is said to be in the singular number; and when more than one, in the plural.

29. In Latin there are two numbers—the Singular and the Plural—in each of which the noun has the six cases.

30. There are five modes in which nouns are declined; hence there are *Five Declensions*. Each of these declensions has a peculiar termination in the genitive singular—as

Declensions.	I.	II.	III.	IV.	v.
Terminations of the } Genitives singular, }	-ae.	-ī.	-ĭs.	-ūs.	-eï.

31. Certain features are common to all the declensions-

- 1. All neuter nouns have the nominative, accusative, and vocative alike, which in the plural end in -a.
  - Neuters are found only in the second, third, and fourth declensions.
- The accusative of masculine and feminine nouns of all the declensions ends in the singular in -m, and in the plural in -s.
- 3. The vocative, both singular and plural, is like the nominative, except in nouns in -us of the second declension.
- 4. The genitive plural of all the declensions ends in -um.
- 5. The dative and ablative plural are alike in all the declensions.

  32. The following table exhibits all the case-endings of the five declensions:—

SINGULAR.					
	lst.	2d.	3d.	4th.	5th.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc.	ă (ē, ās, ēs) ae (ēs) ae am (ēn) like Nom. ā (ē)	us, er (nt. um)	a, e, o, s, c, l, n,   is	$\vec{u}s$ (nt. $\vec{u}$ ) $\vec{u}s$ $\vec{u}i$ $\vec{u}m$ (nt. $\vec{u}$ ) like Nom.	eš eš em like Nom.
PLURAT.					

Nom.	ae	ī (nt. a)	ēs (nt. ă or iă)	ūs (nt. uă)	ēs .
Gen.	ārum	ōrum			ērum
Dat.	īs	īs		Thus or Thus	
Acc.	ās	os (nt. a)	like Nom.	like Nom.	like Nom.
Voc.	like Nom.	like Nom.	like Nom.	like Nom.	like Nom.
Abl.	like Dat.	like Dat.	like Dat.	like Dat.	like Dat.

33. In order to decline a noun, it is necessary to know the genitive, which consists of the stem of the word and the termination; the stem remains the same in all the cases, the termination being the only part that suffers change.

#### FIRST DECLENSION.

34. All nouns purely Latin (both adjective and substantive) belonging to the *first declension*, terminate in the nominative singular with -ĕ, which becomes -ae in the genitive.

There are a few Greek words ending in -ās, -ē, -ēs, which also belong to this declension, but are declined somewhat differently from genuine Latin words.

35. In this declension the nominative singular and the stem are identical.

#### Model Examples.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Nom.	mens-ă, a table.	Nom.	mens-ae, tables.
Gen.	mens-ae, of a table.	Gen.	mens-arum, of tables.
Dat.	mens-ae, to a table.	Dat.	mens-īs, to tables.
Acc.	mens-am, a table.	Acc.	mens-ās, tables.
Voc.	mens-ă, table!	Voc.	
Abl.		Abl.	mens-is, from, with, or
	by a table.		by tables.
	•	,	•
	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Nom.	vi-ă, a road.	Nom.	vi-ae, roads.
Gen.	vi-ae, of a road.	Gen.	vi-arum, of roads.
Dat.	vi-ae, to a road.	Dat.	vi-īs, to roads.
Acc.	vi-am, a road.	Acc.	vi-ās, roads.
	vi-ă, road!	Voc.	vi-ae, roads!
Abl.	vi-a, from, with, or by	Abl.	vi-is, from, with, or by
	a road.		roads.

#### Exercises.

Penna, a wing or feather; epistola, a letter; hora, an hour; porta, a gate; victoria, victory; silva, a forest; fuga, flight; uva, a grape.

All the feminine forms of adjectives and participles ending in a follow the first declension.

The first declension is sometimes called the A declension, because the termination a, which appears in the nominative, is retained in all the other cases, though in some it disappears, being contracted with another vowel contained in the termination.

The dative and ablative plural of feminine nouns in a originally ended in ābus, subsequently contracted into is; but the ancient form has been preserved in a few words, to distinguish them from masculines which follow the second declension, and make their dative and ablative plural in is—as dea (a goddess), filia (a daughter), anima (soul), liberta (freedwoman), equa (a mare), mula (a mule); which make their dative and ablative plural deābus, filiābus, animābus, libertābus, equābus, mulābus, if the gender be not sufficiently clear from the context.

Greek words terminating in ds,  $\bar{e}s$ , and  $\bar{e}$ , are declined like the following models. Many of them are proper names, and have no plural; but those which have a plural form it, like the genuine Latin substantives, in -a:—

Nom. Aene-ās.	Nom. Anchīs-ēs.
Gen. Aene-ae.	Gen. Anchis-ae.
Dat. Aene-ae.	Dat. Anchis-ae.
Acc. Aene-am or -an.	Acc. Anchis-ēn or -am.
Voc. Aene-ā.	Voc. Anchis-ē or -ā.
Abl. Acne-ā.	Abl. Anchis-ē or -ā.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. epitom-ē, an abridgment.	Nom. epitom-ae, abridgments.
Gen. epitom-ēs.	Gen. epitom-ārum.
Dat. epitom-ae.	Dat. epitom-is.
Acc. epitom-ēn.	Acc. epitom-ās.
Voc. epitom-ē.	Voc. epitom-ae.
Abl. epitom-ē.	Abl. epitom-īs.

The following Greek words of this declension are the most common in Latin:—Boreas (north wind), Gorgias, Midas, Pythagoras; planetes (a planet), comeles (a comet), dynastes (a ruler), satrapes (a satrape), sophistes (a sophist), anagnostes (a reader), Thersites, and all patronymics—that is, words derived from the name of a person, and denoting origin or descent from him; they end in des—as Aeneades, a son or descendant of Aeneas; Pelides, a son or descendant of Peleus; Priantdes, a son or descendant of Priam; Tydides, a son or descendant of Tydeus. Lastly, such words as aloë, the aloe; crambe, cabbage; Circe, Danaë, Phoenice, Penelope, Daphne.

36. Words of this declension ending in  $\check{a}$  or  $\check{e}$  are feminine, and those in  $\check{a}s$  or  $\check{e}s$  are masculine.

Some words in a denoting males are masculine—as auriga (a charioteer), collèga (a colleague), nuula (a sailor), poèla (a poet), scriba (a scribe), agricola (a husbandman), parricida (a murderer), incòla (an inhabitant), advèna (a comer, or one who arrives.) Names of rivers in a are masculine, according to the general rule; but Allia, Albula, and Matròna (the Marne), are feminine. Hadria (the Adriatic Sea) is likewise masculine.

#### SECOND DECLENSION.

37. Latin nouns of the second declension (both substantive and adjective) terminate with i in the genitive singular.

38. Masculine nouns of this declension end in -us and -er, and neuters in -um.

and neuters in -um.

39. Vir (a man), with its compounds, and satur (full), are the only words in -ir and -ur of this declension.

#### Model Examples.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Nom.	hort-us, the garden.	Nom.	hort-i, the gardens.
	hort-1, of the garden.	Gen.	hort-orum, of the gar- dens.
Dat.	hort-ō, to the garden.	Dat.	hort-is, to the gardens.
Acc.	hort-um, the garden.		hort-os, the gardens.
	hort-ĕ, Ó garden!		hort-i, O gardens!
	hort-o, from, with, or by	Abl.	hort-is, from, with, or
	the garden.		by the gardens.

Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc. Abl.	ager, a field. ager-ō, to a field. agr-o, to a field. agr-um, a field. ager, O field! ager-ō, from, with, or by a field.	Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc. Abl.	agr-1, fields. agr-orum, of fields. agr-os, fields. agr-os, fields. agr-ts, fo fields! agr-ts, from, with, or by fields.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc. Abl.	puer, the boy. puer-ī, of the boy. puer-ō, to the boy. puer-um, the boy. puer, O boy! puer-ō, from, with, or by the boy.	Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc. Abl.	puer-i, the boys. puer-ōrum, of the boys. puer-īs, to the boys. puer-ōs, the boys. puer-ī, O boys! puer-īs, from, with, or by the boys.
Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc. Abl.	vir, the man. vir-ī, of the man. vir-ō, to the man. vir-um, the man. vir, O man! vir-ō, from, with, or by the man.	Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc. Abl.	vir-i, the men. vir-orum, of the men. vir-is, to the men. vir-is, the men. vir-is, the men. vir-is, from, with, or by the men.
	templ-um, the temple. templ-\(\bar{\epsilon}\), of the temple. templ-\(\bar{\epsilon}\), to the temple. templ-um, the temple. templ-um, O temple! templ-\(\bar{\epsilon}\), from, with, or by the temple.	Nom. Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc. Abl.	templ-ă, the temples. templ-ōrum, of the temples. templ-īs, to the temples. templ-ā, the temples. templ-ā, Temples! templ-īs, from, with, or by the temples.

#### Exercises.

Agnus, a lamb; annus, a year; digitus, a finger; dolus, a trick; dominus, a master or owner; antrum, a cave; astrum, a star; bellum, a war; donum, a gift; ovum, an egg.

Respecting the peculiarity in the declension of neuters, see No. 31. Most nouns of this declension ending in er retain e only in the nominative and vocative like ager, where it is inserted for the purpose of facilitating the pronunciation; but in the other cases they omit it. The following retain e in all the cases:—adulter, an adulterer; socer,

father-in-law; gener, son-in-law; Liber, the god Liber or Bacchus; liberi (plur.), children (but libri, books, from liber); resper, evening; the adjectives asper, rough; liber, free; lacer, torn; miser, miserable; prosper, prosperous; tener, tender; and all nouns compounded with fer and ger (from fero and gero)—as mortifer, deadly; armiger, bearing arms; and lastly, the names of nations—lber, an Iberian, and Celtiber, a Celtiberian, and the Greek word presbyter, an elder. Dexter, right, and Mulciber (a surname of Vulcan), sometimes retain the e in the oblique cases, and sometimes drop it.

The second declension is sometimes called the O declension; for in the first place, several cases end in o; in the second, those which now end in um and us, anciently ended in om and os; and lastly, even the cases which now end in i or is seem at one time to have ended in oi and ois. The o, therefore, originally appeared in all the case-endings

of the second declension.

The following adjectives and pronouns, the masculine and neuter of which follow the second, and the feminine the first declension, make their genitive in all the three genders in  $\bar{\imath}\iota s$ , and the dative in  $\bar{\imath}:$ —unus, one; solus, alone; totus, all; ullus, any; nullus, none; alius, another; alter, one of two; uter, either; neuter, neither; together with the compounds of uter and alter—such as uterque, each of two; utervis, utercunque, uterlibet, whichever of two; e.g. unus, gen. unius, dat. uni; solus, gen. solius, dat. soli. In all their other cases they follow the declensions named above. The i before us in the genitive is sometimes shortened; and this is most frequently the case with alter, gen. alterlus.

40. Proper names in ius form their vocative in  $\bar{\imath}$ —as Mercurius, voc. Mercur $\bar{\imath}$ ; Julius, voc. Jul $\bar{\imath}$ . Among common nouns this vocative occurs only in filius (a son), voc. fili; genius, voc. gen $\bar{\imath}$ ; and Feretrius, voc. Feretr $\bar{\imath}$ . The word deus (God) may form the nom., dat., and ablat. plural dei, deis; but it more commonly has dii and diis, or the contracted forms d $\bar{\imath}$  and d $\bar{\imath}$ s.

The following words in us are exceptions to the general rule on the genders:—

- The names of towns and islands in us are feminine—as Corinthus, Ephesus, Rhodus (See No. 22.) To these must be added the names of some countries in us—as Aegyptus, Chersonesus, Epirus, Peloponnesus, though Cunopus is masculine.
- 2. The names of trees, and of certain shrubs and precious stones, are feminine; e.g. fagus, beech; ficus, a fig-tree; malus, an apple-tree; pirus, a pear-tree; pomus, an apple-tree; populus, a poplar; ulnus, elm-tree; papyrus, the papyrus plant; juniperus, juniper; amethystus, amethyst. See No. 22.
- 3. Some Greek words retain the feminine gender which they have in Greek—as methòdus, method; periòdus, period; atòmus, an atom; antiddus, antidots; dialectus, dialect; diamètrus, diameter; diphthongus, diphthong; paragraphus, paragraph.
- 4. The following words in us are neuter:—virus, juice or poison; vulgus, the common people (is, however, sometimes used as a masculine); pelagus, the sea.



#### THIRD DECLENSION.

41. The third declension is more difficult than either the first or second, for in it the nominative is sometimes the same as the pure stem, or is the stem with s added (either with or without a euphonic e or i), or the stem is altogether disguised in the nominative; so that one of the oblique cases must be known in order to distinguish the stem from the termination.

42. All words of the third declension terminate with -is in the genitive case singular.

The addition of s to the stem for the purpose of forming the nominative, produces considerable changes; for when the stem ends in c or g, it with the s becomes x—as grex from the stem greg, rex from reg, and judex from judic. In the last instance the i becomes e; and in the case of nox from noct, the t is omitted for the sake of euphony. When the stem ends in t or d, these letters are dropped before the s—as in acts from actat, miles from milit, amans from amant, dens from dent, praeses from praesid. In many cases i or e euphonic is inserted between the final consonant of the stem and the s—as in acis, navis, and ovis, for avs, navs, and ovs; caedes and clades, for caeds and clads. In some words, the s in the nominative is only the representative of r (r and s being interchangeable), and belongs to the stem—as in corpus, that is, corpor; decus, that is, decor; flos for flor, honos for honor, labos for labor, &c.

- 43. Nouns of the third declension may therefore be divided into the following five classes:—
- Nouns in which the nominative itself is the stem, so that the terminations of the oblique cases are merely added to it—as

#### Masculine.

SINGULAR.

Nom.	consul, a consul-	Nom.	consul-ēs, consuls.
Gen.	consŭl-is.	Gen.	consul-um.
Dat.	consul-ī.	Dat.	consul-ĭbus.
Acc.	consul-em.	Acc.	consul-ēs.
Voc.	consul.	Voc.	consul-ēs.
Abl.	consul-ĕ.	Abl.	consul-ĭbus.
	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Nom.		Nom.	
	honor, honour. honor-is.		honor-ës, honours.
Gen.	honor, honour.	Gen.	honor-ēs, honours.
Gen. Dat.	honor, honour.	Gen. Dat.	honor-ēs, honours. honor-um.
Gen. Dat. Acc.	honor, honour. honor-ïs. honor-ī.	Gen. Dat. Acc.	honor-ës, honours. honor-um. honor-ibus.
Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc.	honor, honour. honor-is. honor-i. honor-em.	Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc.	honor-ës, honours. honor-um. honor-ĭbus. honor-ës.

PLURAL.

#### Neuter.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Nom.	animal, animal.	Nom.	animal-ia, animals.
Gen.	animal-ĭs.	Gen.	animal-ĭum.
Dat.	animal-ī.	Dat.	animal-ĭbus.
Acc.	animal.	Acc.	animal-ia.
Voc.	animal.	Voc.	animal-ia.
Abl.	animal-ī.	Abl.	animal-ĭbus.

Stems ending in l or r take no additional nominative termination. Respecting the neuter termination of the plural ia, and the ablative singular i, see below.

2. Nouns in which s only is added to the stem, to form the nominative—as

	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	urb-s, a city.	Nom. urb-ēs, cities.
Gen.	urb-ĭs.	Gen. urb-ium.
Dat.	$urb$ - $\bar{\imath}$ .	Dat. urb-ĭbus.
Acc.	urb-em.	Acc. urb-ēs.
	urb-s.	Voc. urb-ēs.
	urb-ë.	Abl. urb-tbus.
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	grex (= greg-s), a flock.	Nom. greg-ēs, flocks.
	greg-is.	Gen. greg-um.
Dat.	greg-ī.	Dat. greg-ĭbus.
Acc.	greg-em.	Acc. greg-ēs.
Voc.	grex.	Voc. greg-ēs.
Abl.	greg-ĕ.	Abl. greg-ĭbus.
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom.	radix (= radic-s), root.	Nom. radic-ēs, roots
Gen.	radīc-is.	Gen. radic-um.
	$radic$ - $\bar{\imath}$ .	Dat. radic-ĭbus.
	radic-em.	Acc. radic-ēs.
	radix.	Voc. radic-ēs.
	radic-ĕ.	Abl. radic-ibus.
AUI.	rauto-e.	ani. Tuute-wus.

3. Nouns in which e or i is inserted between the stem and the final s of the nominative.

Words of this description, which are very numerous, in the nominative consist of the stem and the termination is or es, and thus resemble in their declension nouns of the first and second declensions, having in the oblique cases the same number of syllables as in the nominative—as

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

Nom.	nav-ĭs, a ship.	Nom.	nav-ēs, ships.
	nav-ĭs.		nav-ĭum.
Dat.	$nav$ - $\bar{\imath}$ .	Dat.	nav-ĭbus.
Acc.	nav-em.	Acc.	nav-ēs.
Voc.	nav-ĭs.	Voc.	nav-ēs.
Abl.	nav-ĕ, or nav-ī.	Abl.	nav-ĭbus.

#### SINGULAR.

## PLURAL.

	clad-ēs, a defeat.		clad-ēs, defeats
Dat.	clad-ī.	Dat.	clad-ĭbus.
	clad-em. clad-ēs.	Voc.	clad-ēs. clad-ēs.
Abl.	clad-ĕ.	Abl.	clad-ĭbus.

4. Nouns in which the final consonants of the stem (d, t) are omitted before the s of the nominative. Sometimes also i in the final syllable of the stem is changed into e—as

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLUBAL.

Nom.	aeta-s (= aetat-s), age.	Nom.	aetat-ēs, ages.
	aetat-is.		aetat-um.
Dat.	aetat-ī.	Dat.	aetat-ĭbus.
Acc.	aetat-em.	Acc.	aetat-ēs.
Voc.	aeta-s.	Voc.	aetat-ēs.
Abl.	aetat-ĕ.	Abl.	aetat-ĭbus.

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

Nom.	mile-s (= milit-s), sol-	Nom.	milit-ēs, soldiers.
Gen.	milit-is. dier.	Gen.	milit-um.
Dat.	milit-ī.	Dat.	milit-ĭbus.
Acc.	milit-em.	Acc.	milit-ēs.
Voc.	mile-s.	Voc.	milit-ēs.
Abl.	milit-ĕ.	Abl.	milit-ĭbus.

#### BINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

Nom.	lau-s (= laud-s), praise.	Nom.	laud-ēs, prai
	laud-is.	Gen.	laud-um.
	laud-ī.	Dat.	laud-ĭbus.
	laud-em.	Acc.	laud-ēs.
	lau-s.	Voc.	laud-ēs.
	laud-ë.		laud-ĭbus.

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

Nom. glan-s ( =	gland-s),	Nom.	gland-ēs, acorns.
Gen. gland-is.	acorn.	Gen.	gland-ĭum.
Dat. $gland-\bar{\imath}$ .	-	Dat.	gland-ĭbus.
Acc. gland-em.	1	Acc.	gland-ēs.
Voc. glan-s.	İ		gland-ēs.
Abl. aland-ĕ.	i	Abl.	aland-šhus.

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

Nom.	nepo-s (= nepot-s),	Nom.	nepot-ēs, grandsons.
Gen.	nepot-is. grandson.	Gen.	nepot-um.
Dat.	nepot-ī.	Dat.	nepot-ĭbus.
	nepot-em.	Acc.	nepot-ēs.
Voc.	nepo-s.	$\mathbf{v}_{\mathbf{oc.}}$	nepot-ēs.
Abl.	nepot-ĕ.	Abl.	nepot-ĭbus.

5. Nouns in which the stem, for the sake of euphony, is disguised in the nominative either by the omission of its final consonant, or by the addition of a euphonic vowel, or by the change of one vowel into another—as

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

Dat. sermon-ī.  Acc. sermon-em.  Voc. sermo.  Abl. sermon-ĕ.  Dat. sermon-ībus.  Acc. sermon-ēs.  Voc. sermon-ēs.  Abl. sermon-ĭbus.	mon-em. mo.	
ADI. SET MON-E.   ADI. SET MON-10003.	mon-e.	us.

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

Nom.	homo (= homin), man.	Nom.	homin-ēs, men.
	homin-is.		homin-um.
Dat.	homin-ī.	Dat.	homin-tbus.
Acc.	homin-em.	Acc.	homin-ēs.
Voc.	homo.	Voc.	homin-ēs.
Abl.	homin-ĕ.	Abl.	homin-ĭbus.

#### SINGULAR.

#### PLURAL.

Nom.	pat-e-r = patr, father.	Nom.	patr-ēs, fa
	patr-is.	Gen.	patr-um.
Dat.	patr-ī.		patr-tbus.
	patr-em.		patr-ēs.
	pat-e-r.	Voc.	patr-ēs.
	patr-ĕ.		patr-ībus.

Abl.

mar-ī.

10	ELEMENTARI LATIN GRAMMAR.		
Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc.	nomin-₹.	Nom. nomin-ă, names. Gen. nomin-um. Dat. nomin-tbus. Acc. nomin-ă. Voc. nomin-ă. Abl. nomin-tbus.	
Dat. Acc. Voc.	caput (= capit, nt.), capit-is. [head. caput. caput. caput. caput. capit-ĕ.	Nom. capit-a, heads. Gen. capit-um. Dat. capit-ibus. Acc. capit-a. Voc. capit-ibus.	
	SINGULAR.	PLURAL.	
Gen. Dat. Acc. Voc.	lac (= lact, nt.), milk. lact-is. lact-ī. lac.	Not used.	
Nom	SINGULAR,	PLUBAL.	

Nom.	$mar-\check{e} \ (=mar)$ , sea.	Nom.	mar-iă, seas.
Gen.	mar-ĭs.	Gen.	mar-ium.
Dat.	mar-ī.	Dat.	mar-ĭbus.
Acc.	mar-ĕ.	Acc.	mar-iă.
Voc.	mar-ě.	Voc.	mar-iă.

The following is a list of the terminations of the third declension, such as they appear in the nominative; added to each is its genitive and gender, so far as the latter is indicated by the termination:—

Abl.

mar-ĭbus.

- 1. Nouns in a are neuter, and have the stem in at, so that their genitive is in at-is—as poëma, poëmatis.
- Nouns in al are neuter, and form the genitive by adding is to the nominative—as animal, animalis. Sal, however, is commonly masculine (rarely neuter), like the proper name Hannibal, and makes its genitive salis, like Hannibalis.
- 3. Nouns in ar are neuter, and form their genitive by adding is to the nominative—as calcar (spur), gen. calcaris. In some, the syllable ar preceding the termination is short—as jubar, aris, ray or beam; nectar, aris, nectar. The following words in ar are masculine:—Caesar, aris; Arar, aris; and lar, laris, a household god; par, paris, a companion or equal; and its compounds—as dispar, disparis.

- 4. Nouns in as are feminine, and have their stem in at; they accordingly make their genitive in ātis—as aetas, aetātis. In the same manner are declined adjectives in as derived from names of townsas Arpinas, ātis, an inhabitant of Arpinum. Anas (a duck), however, makes its genitive anatis; as (a coin), makes assis; mas (a male), maris; vas (a surety), vadis; but vas (a vessel) is neuter, and makes its genitive vāsis.
- 5. Nouns in ax from a stem in ac, form the genitive by changing the s contained in the x into is, and are feminine—as pax (peace), pācis; fornax (oven), fornācis; fax (a torch), făcis. All adjectives in ax make the genitive in the same way.

6. Nouns in c, of which there are only two, are neuter—lac (milk),

gen. lactis; and alec (pickle), gen. alēcis.

7. Nouns in e are neuter, and make their genitive by changing e into

is—as mare (the sea), gen. maris; facile (easy), facilis.

8. The few nouns in el represent the pure root, and form their genitive by doubling l and adding is. They are neuter—as mel (honey), gen. mellis; fel (bile), gen. fellis.

9. Nouns in en, forming their genitive in inis, are generally neuter; but the following are masculine:—pecten, a comb; flamen, a priest; cornicen, a player on the horn; fidicen, a player on the lyre; tibicen, a flute-player; tubicen, a trumpeter; and oscen, a singing-bird.

Those making their genitive in enis are masculine—as ren (kidney), gen. rēnis; but Siren (a Siren) and Troezen (a Greek town) are of

course feminine.

10. Nouns in er either represent the pure stem, and only add is in the genitive; or the e before the r is only euphonic, and is thrown out

in the genitive.

- Those of the first class, making their genitive in Fris, are generally masculine - as carcer, carceris; but the following are neuter:cadāver, a dead body; tuber, a swelling; uber, udder; verbera (a plural—the singular verber does not occur), blows; and all botanical names—as acer, maple-tree; papaver, poppy; piper, pepper. But mulier, muliëris, a woman, is of course feminine. The adjectives degener (degenerate), pauper (poor), and uber (fertile), likewise make their genitive in eris,
- Those of the second class, which throw out the e in the genitive, are generally masculine—as venter (belly), gen. ventris. But linter, a boat, and mater, mother, are feminine. In the same manner are declined all substantives in ter (except later, gen. lateris); and all adjectives in er, which make their feminine in is, and the neuter in e-as acer, alacer, October, November. The two neuters ver (spring) and iter (journey) make their genitive respectively veris and itineris.
- 11. Nouns in es are divided into two classes, for the es is either simply the nominative termination (the e being only euphonic), which in the genitive is changed into is; or the consonant t or d has been thrown out before the s in the nominative, and reappears in the genitive. Those of the former class are commonly feminine—as caedes (murder), gen, cuedis; clades (defeat), gen. cladis; but palumbes (wood-pigeon) is either masculine or feminine; and vepres (a thorn-bush, commonly plural), verres (a boar), and the names of rivers, as Euphrates, Araxes, are masculine. (Compare No. 21.)
- In those nouns in which t or d has dropped out before s of the nominative, e either belongs to them, or has arisen from a euphonic

change of i into e—as paries, gen. parietis, and miles, gen. militis. Those which make their genitive in itis are masculine—as miles (a soldier), eques (a horseman), gen. equitis; hospes (a guest), gen. hospitis; but merges, itis (a sheaf of corn), is feminine. In like manner are declined nearly all adjectives in es—as dires (rich), sospes (safe), superstes (surviving), &c. Those which make their genitive in itis are partly masculine and partly feminine—as paries, parietis, masc. (a wall); seges, segitis, fem. (a field); aries, masc. (a ram); interpres, masc. (an interpreter.) In like manner are declined the following adjectives:—hebes, dull; indiges, native; praepes, swift; teres, round or smooth.

In those nouns in which d of the stem has dropped out before s, e likewise either belongs to the stem or is a euphonic change for i—as pes (foot), gen. pėdis; and obses (hostage), gen. obsidis. Words of this kind are commonly masculine; but merces, mercēdis (reward), quies, quietis (quiet), and its compound requies (tranquillity), are feminine. The adjectives deses and reses are declined like obses, and locuples like quies.

Ceres, gen. Cerëris, pubes and impubes, gen. pubëris and impubëris, do not belong to this class; for the s being the same as r, they present the pure stem in the nominative.

12. Nouns in ex are formed from the stem ec or eg, and accordingly change the x either into cis or gis in the genitive. In some of them, e belongs to the stem, while in others it is a euphonic change of i into e—as rex, rēgis; prex, prēcis; apex, apicis. Most of those which make their genitive in icis are masculine—as apex, the extreme point; but the following are feminine:—ilex, a species of oak; carex, sheer-grass; forfex, a pair of scissors; viiex, the chaste-tree; and pellex, a mistress. Some are used both as masculine and feminine—as imbrex, shingle; obex, a bolt; cortex, rind; silex, flint-stone; but atriplex, the herb orage, is neuter.

Those in which the stem ends in g are not very numerous, and are mostly masculine—as rex, rēgis (a king); remex, remigis (a rower); grex, grēgis (a flock); Lelea, Lelēgis; but lex, lēgis (law), is feminine;

13. Nouns in i are neuter, and change the i into is in the genitive—as sinapi (mustard), gen. sinapis; or into tis—as orymeli (a mixture of vinegar and honey), gen. oxymelitis.

14. Nouns in il represent the pure stem, are masculine, and form the genitive by simply adding is to the nominative—as pugil (a pugilist),

gen. puglis; vigil (watchful), gen. vigilis.

15. Nouns in is are divided into two classes. In the first, the termination is simply is added to the stem, the s being the nomine ending, and the is a cuplonic addition—as in navis from navis. In the second class, the s of the nominative has caused more or less important changes in the stem—as in cuspis for cuspid-s, sanguis for sanguin-s, and cinis for ciner (where the s is changed into i, and r converted into its equivalent s.)

Nouns of the first class have the genitive like the nominative, and are mostly feminine—as navis (ship), gen. navis; avis (bird), gen. avis; valis (valley), gen. valis. But many of them are masculine—as amnis, river; axis, axis; callis, path (sometimes feminine); canalis, canal; cassis, hunter's net; caulis, stalk; collis, hill; crinis, hair; ensis, sword; fascis, bundle; finis, end (sometimes feminine in the singular, but never in the plural); follis, bellows; funis, rope; fustis,

club; ignis, fire; mensis, month; orbis, circle; panis, bread; piscis, fish; postis, a post; scrobis, pit; sentis, thorn-bush; torquis (also torques as feminine), chain; torris, firebrand; unguis, nail; vectis, lever; vermis, worm. Besides, a number of adjectives which are used as substantives, a masculine substantive being understood—as annalis (liber), chronicle; natalis (dies), birthday; molaris (lapis or dens), a millstone or grinder; pugillares (libri), tablet for writing; Aprilis (mensis), April. The compounds of as, as decussis, ten asses, and some others which are masculine on account of their meaning—as hostis, enemy; testis, witness; Tiberis, the river Tiber. Canis (dog) and anguis (snake) are used oftener as masculine than as feminine; and corbis (basket) and clumis (haunch) are either masculine or feminine. All adjectives in is are declined in the same manner, the genitive being like the nominative—as facilis, gen. facilis; acris, gen. acris.

Those nouns in is in which the d or t of the stem is thrown out before s in the nominative, form their genitive in idis and itis, and are mostly feminine—as cuspis (point), gen. cuspidis; cassis (helmet), gen. cassidis; pyramis (pyramid), gen. pyramidis; lis (dispute), gen. litis; Samnis, gen. Samnitis; Dis, gen. Ditis; Quiris, gen. Quiritis. Lapis (a stone), gen. lapidis, and Phasis, the name of a river, are

masculine.

A few masculines in is make the genitive in *inis*, restoring n, which had been dropped before s of the nominative—as sanguis (blood), gen. sanguinis; pollis (fine flour, not used in the nom.), gen. pollinis.

Some, again, which end in is, have changed the er of the stem into is, and accordingly make their genitive in ĕris—as cinis (ashes), gen. cinĕris; so also cucumis, cucumber; pulvis, dust; vomis (also vomer),

ploughshare.

16. Nouns in ix are feminine. As they are formed from a stem ending in c or g, the x is changed in the genitive either into cis or gis—as salix (willow), gen. salixis; radix (root), gen. radixis; strix (a fabulous bird), gen. strivis. The following are masculine:—calix, tcis, cup; fornix, tcis, vault; while varix (a swollen vein) is both masculine and feminine. Phoenix, the name of a bird, as well as of a people, is masculine. Nix (snow), gen. nivis, is irregular.

17. Nouns ending in o represent the stem but imperfectly, for sometimes an n has been thrown out after o—as in sermo (conversation), gen. sermön-is; and sometimes the o represents a stem ending in in—as virgo (maiden), gen. virgin-is. Two classes, therefore, must be

distinguished.

Words of the first class make their genitive in ōnis, and are generally masculine—as sermo. But those which end in io, and are derived from verbs, are feminine—as lectio, reading; oratio, speaking or speech; legio (from lėgo, I select), a legion; regio (from rego, I direct), a district; natio (from nascor), a nation; so also communio (from the adjective communis), community; and consortio (from consors); but all other substantives in to are masculine—as vespertilio, a bat; scipio, staff; pugio, dagger; septemtrio, north. Some words of this class are masculine, notwithstanding their being names of towns—as Sulno, Narbo, and Vesontio. A few words have the o short in the genitive—as Macedo, gen. Macedonis; and Seno, gen. Senonis.

Words of the second class change o of the nominative into inis in the genitive; this is the case chiefly in those which end in do and go,

most of which are feminine—as hirundo (swallow), gen. hirundinis; imago (image), gen. imaginis; Carthago (Carthage), gen. Curthaginis. The following, however, are masculine:—ordo, order; cardo, hinge; margo, margin. Cupido (a god) is masculine; but in the sense of 'love' or 'desire' it is generally feminine. The following masculines also make their genitive in inis, like those in do and go—homo, man; nemo (i.e. ne homo, no man); turbo, whirl; and Apollo. The following words in do and go are masculine, and make their genitive in önis:—praedo, robber; spado, eunuch; ligo, spade; mango, slavedealer; harpāgo, hook. The feminine caro (flesh) alone is irregular, making its genitive carnis.

18. The only noun ending in ol is the masculine sol (the sun), gen. solis.

19. All nouns in on are Greek masculines, making their genitive, according to the Greek, either in \(\tilde{o}\_{ni}\), \(\tilde{o}\_{ni}\), or ontis—as Babyl\(\tilde{o}\_{ni}\), gen. Babyl\(\tilde{o}\_{ni}\), gen. Clesiphonis; Clasicedon, gen. Chalcedonis.

20. Nouns in or represent the pure stem in the nominative, and form the genitive by simply adding is to it. Those in which o is long are generally masculine—as dolor (pain), gen. dolōris; but soror (sister) and uxor (wife) are feminine. All comparatives of adjectives are declined in the same manner—as facilior and facilius (more easy), gen. faciliōris. Nouns in which o is short are generally neuter—as aequor (surface of the sea), gen. aequōris; marmor (marble), gen. marmŏris; ador (spelt), gen. adŏris; but arbor, ŏris (teacher of orstory), masculine.

21. Nouns in os either represent the pure stem (s being equivalent to r), or t or d has been dropped before s. The former accordingly make the genitive in \(\tilde{o}ris\), and are masculine—as mos (manner), gen. m\(\tilde{o}ris\); flos (flower), gen. floris; but os (mouth), gen. \(\tilde{o}ris\); is neuter. Those in which t or d has been omitted in the nominative are sometimes feminine—as \(\colons \colons to \text{sos} \cdot \colons \cdot 
22. Nouns in ox have a stem ending in c or q, and accordingly make the genitive in cis or gis. These are mostly feminine—as vox (voice), gen. vōcis; celox (a swift-sailing ship), gen. celoxis. In like manner are declined adjectives in ox—as atrox (fierce), velox (swift); praecox (precocious), however, has praecocis. Names of nations are of course masculine—as Cappadox, Cappadoxis; Allobrox, Allobrögis, The feminine nox (night) alone has nociis.

23. Nouns in *ul* represent the pure stem, and are masculine—as *consul* (consul), gen. *consulis*; *exsul* (exile), gen. *exulis*; *praesul* (one who goes before), gen. *praesulis*.

24. Nouns in ur represent the pure stem, and make the genitive by simply adding is to it. The following are masculine:—fur (thief), gen. fūris; furfur (bran), gen. furfūris; turtur (turtle-dove), gen. turtūris; vultur (vulture), gen. vultūris; augur (augur), gen. augūris; and the adjective cicur, ūris (tame.) The following are neuter:—fulgur (lightning), gen. fulgūris; Tibur, Tibūris; robur (strength), gen. robŏris; ebur (ivory), gen. ebŏris; femur (loin), gen, famoris; jecur (liver), gen. jecoris.

Jouns in us form two classes. In some the stem ending in d or t has

lost this letter before s of the nominative, and accordingly recovers it in the genitive. These are all feminine—as virtus (virtue), gen. virtütis; salus (safety), gen. solūtis; palus (marsh), gen. palūdis; incus (anvil), gen. incūdis; pecus (cattle), gen. pecūdis; the adjective intercus makes the genitive intercūtis. In others us of the nominative represents the stem ur, or, or er, and most of these are neuters—as jus (law), gen. jūris; crus (leg), gen. crūris (and so also pus, viscous matter; rus, country; tus, incense); corpus (body), gen. corpŏris; decus (ornament), gen. decŏris; genus (kind or species), gen. genĕris; vulnus (wound), gen. vulnĕris. The following are exceptions in regard to gender:—Ligus, ūris, a Ligurian, and the plural Lemūres, spectres; and lepus, ŏris, a hare, are masculine; tellus, ūris (earth), and Venus, ĕris, are fenimine.

- The following words are of a different kind, s in the nominative being simply added to the stem:—sus (pig), gen. suis; grus (crane), gen. grus. The only two Latin words ending in aus—namely, laus (praise) and fraus (fraud)—both feminine—have lost d before s, so that their genitive is laudis, fraudis. Some Greek names of places in us make the genitive in untis—as Pessinus, gen. Pessinuntis; and others make the genitive in ödis—as tripus (tripod), gen. tripödis.
- 26. Nouns in y are of Greek origin, form the genitive by simply adding is to the nominative, and are all neuter—as misy (vitriol), gen. misyis. Those in ys are likewise Greek, but mostly feminine: the genitive is either yis or ydis—as chelys (lyre), gen. chelyis; chlamys (cloak), chlamyddis. Othrys, gen. Othryis, the name of a mountain, is masculine.
- 27. Nouns in yx are all Greek, and make the genitive in ȳcis, ȳcis, ȳgis, ȳgis, or ȳchis, according as the stem in Greek ends in c, g, or ch. They are generally masculine—as calyx (cup of a flower), gen. calȳcis.
- 28. Nouns in ns have a stem ending either in t or d, which letters have been dropped before s. Those whose stem ends in t, accordingly form their genitive in tis, and are generally masculine—as mons (mountain), gen. montis. The following, however, are feminine:—gens, family or nation; lens, a kind of pulse; mens, mind; frons, forehead; bidens, a sheep of two years old; sorpens (namely, bestia), a snake; continens (namely, terra), the continent. To this class of words belong all participles and adjectives in ns.
- Those whose stem ends in d, and which make the genitive in dis, are feminine—as glans (acorn), gen. glandis; frons (foliage), gen. frondis; juglans (walnut), gen. juglandis.
- 29. Nouns in bs have the stem ending in b, s being only the sign of the nominative, so that the genitive ends in bis; their gender is feminine—as urbs (town), gen. urbis. So also the adjective caelebs, gen. caelibis.
- 30. Nouns in ps are formed from a stem ending in p, s being only the sign of the nominative. The ps is usually preceded by e, a euphonic change for i; e.g. daps (fem. food), gen. dapis. The following are used both as masculine and feminine:—adeps (fat), gen. adipis; forceps (forceps), gen. forcipis. In like manner are declined all adjectives in ceps, which are derived from capio—as princeps (though auceps makes aucupis); while those derived from caput—as anceps, praeceps, biceps, and triceps, make the genitive in cipitis—as ancipitis, praecipitis, &c.

31. The only word in ms is the feminine hiems (winter), gen. hiemis.

There is likewise only one in ls—puls (pap), gen. pultis.

32. Nouns in rs have the stem ending in t, which has been omitted before s. They are feminine—as ars (art), gen. artis; but Mars (for Mavors) is of course masculine. In like manner are declined the adjectives in ers-as iners, gen. inertis.

33. The only nouns in t are caput (head) and its compounds occiput and sinciput, which are all neuters, u being only a euphonic change

for i; the genitives are capitis, occipitis, sincipitis.

34. Nouns in a, preceded by a consonant, are feminine, and their stem ends in c—as arx (citadel), gen. arcis; falx (sickle), gen. falcis. Those ending in unx (derived from uncia) are masculine—as deunx (eleven-twelfths of an as), so also quincunx, septunx. Calx (limestone) and lynx (lynx) are sometimes masculine and sometimes feminine.

#### PECULIAR FORMATION OF CERTAIN CASES IN THE THIRD DECLENSION.

44. Some words in is, which make their genitive in is without any increase, have in the accusative im instead of em.

This is the case commonly with amussis, a ruler; buris, trunk of a plough; cucumis, cucumber; ravis, hoarseness; sitis, thirst; tussis, cough; vis, force; and in the names of towns and rivers in is—as Hispalis, Tiberis, Albis, Baetis. The following have more frequently im than em:-febris, fever; pelvis, basin; puppis, stern of a ship; restis, rope; turris, tower; securis, axe; while clavis, key, messis, harvest, and navis, ship, have more frequently em than im.

- 45. Many words make the ablative singular in  $\bar{\imath}$  instead of ĕ, and some may have either termination.
- (a.) The following have the ablative in i exclusively:—

1. All those words which make their accusative singular in im instead of em-as amussis, buris, sitis, &c. See No. 44.

2. All neuter nouns ending in the nominative singular in e, i, al, and ar-as mare (sea), abl. mari; sinapi (mustard), abl. sinapi; calcar (spur), abl. calcari; animal, abl. animali.

The neuter names of towns ending in e make their ablative invariably

in e-as Praeneste, Reate, Caere.

- 3. All adjectives of two, as well as those of three terminations (those ending in is, e, and those in er, is, e)—as facilis and facile, which both make the ablative facili; gracilis and gracile, abl. gracili; acer, acris, and acre, abl. acri. The same is the case with all substantives in is, which were originally adjectives—as familiaris, friend; and natalis, birthday.
- (b.) The following words make their ablative both in e and i:-

1. Those substantives which may form their accusative singular both in em and im—as febris, pelvis, puppis, clavis, messis, &c. But restis

has always reste, and securis always securi.

2. All adjectives and participles which have only one termination for the three genders—as prudens, abl. prudente and prudenti; amans, abl. amante and amanti; iners, abl. inerte and inerti; felix, abl. felice and felici: Arpinas, abl. Arpinate and Arpinati.

- 3. All comparatives of adjectives—as major and majus, abl. majore and majori, though the termination e is usually preferred.
- 46. All neuter substantives ending in e, al, and ar, make the nominative, accusative, and vocative plural in ia instead of a-as mare (sea), plur. maria; animal, plur. animalia; calcar, plur. calcaria.

The same is the case with the neuter of all adjectives and participles in the positive—as elegans, neut. plur. elegantia; iners, neut. plur. inertia; animans, neut. plur. animantia. Vetus alone has vetera, and complures (several) both complura and compluria.

- 47. The genitive plural of some words ends in ium instead of um. This is the case—
- 1. With substantives ending in es and is, which do not increase in the genitive, but merely change the termination of the nominative into is—as aedes, house; crinis, hair; gen. plur. aedium, crinium.

2. With the following nouns, which should be remembered separately:-imber, rain; linter, boat; venter, belly; uter, bag; and caro, flesh; as imbrium, lintrium, ventrium, carnium, &c.

3. With all monosyllabic nouns ending in s or x preceded by a consonant—as mons, mountain; arx, citadel; urbs, town; which make montium, arcium, urbium. The same is the case with the following monosyllabic words:—glis, lis, mas, mus, os (gen. ossis), vis, faux (not used in the nom. sing.), nix, nox, and sometimes also fraus.

4. With all nouns ending in ns and rs, whether consisting of one or more syllables—as cliens, client; cohors, cohort; amans, loving; solers, industrious; gen. plur. clientium, cohortium, amantium, solertium. Those in ns, however, admit both um and ium. Those which are properly participles, when used as substantives, prefer ium to um-as adolescens, sapiens; gen. adolescentium, sapientium. Parens, however, has more frequently parentum than parentium.

5. With all neuter substantives ending in e, al, and ar, and in all those adjectives and participles which make their neuter plural in ia—as animal, gen. plur. animalium; mare, marium; calcar, calcarium; acer, acris, and acre, acrium; facilis and facile, facilium; felix,

felicium; elegans, elegantium; iners, inertium.

6. With names of peoples ending in is and as—as Quiris, Arpinas, Fidenas; gen. plur. Quiritium, Arpinatium, Fidenatium. The same is the case with the plurals penates (household gods), and optimates (nobles), which generally make their genitive in ium, but rarely in um. Other substantives in as also, as civitas, sometimes make their genitive in ium, though um is more usual.

7. The names of Roman festivals, which are neuter plurals ending in alia, make their genitive either in ium, according to the third declension, or in orum, according to the second—as Floralia, gen. Floralium or Floraliorum; Bacchanalia, gen. Bacchanalium or Bacchanaliorum. So also ancile (a shield fallen from heaven), and vectigal (revenue.)

48. Greek neuter substantives in ma commonly make the dative and ablative plural in is instead of ibus — as poëma (a poem), dat. and abl. plur. poëmatis instead of poëmatibus.

#### FOURTH DECLENSION.

49. The fourth declension is a modification of the third. The stem of words belonging to it ends in u, which is retained in all the cases. The vowel of the termination generally coalesces with u of the stem into  $\bar{u}$ , or one of the vowels is dropped.

#### Model Examples.

SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. fructŭ-s, fruit.	Nom. fructū-s, fruits.
Gen. fructū-s.	Gen. fructu-um.
Dat. fructŭ-i.	Dat. fructi-bus.
Acc. fructu-m.	Acc. fructū-s.
Voc. fructŭ-s.	Voc. fructū-s.
Abl. fructū.	Abl. fructi-bus.
•	•
SINGULAR.	PLURAL.
Nom. cornū, horn.	Nom. cornŭ-ă, horns.
Gen. cornū (cornū-s.)	Gen. cornŭ-um.
Dat. cornū (cornŭ-i.)	Dat. cornž-bus.
Acc. cornū.	Acc. cornŭ-ă.
Voc. cornū.	Voc. cornŭ-ă.
Abl. $corn\bar{u}$ .	Abl. corni-bus.

#### Exercises.

Actus, act; cursus, course; gradus, step; lusus, play; magistratus, magistracy; motus, movement; sensus, sense; sumptus, expenditure; vultus, countenance.

The following are the only neuters:—genu, knee; gelu, cold; veru, a spit, broach; and pecu (the same as pecus, ŏris, or ŭdis), cattle.

The dative and ablative plural of the following words end in *ibus* instead of *ibus:—acus*, needle; *arcus*, arch; *lacus*, lake; *quercus*, oak; *specus*, cave; *pecu*, cattle; *artus*, limb; *partus*, birth; *tribus*, tribe; and *veru*, spit. Portus (harbour) has both portibus and portubus.

The word domus (a house) is declined in the following manner:—

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.	
Nom.	domŭs.	Nom.	domūs.	
Gen.	domūs.	Gen.	domŭum or domōrum.	
Dat.	domŭi (rarely domo.)	Dat.	domĭbus.	
Acc.	domum.	Acc.	domōs (rarely domūs.)	
Voc.	domŭs.	Voc.	domūs.	
Abl.	domō (rarely domu.)	Abl.	domĭb <b>us.</b>	

The form domi is only used in the sense of 'at home.'

50. Words of the fourth declension ending in us are masculine; those which end in u are neuters without exception.

The following in us, however, are feminine:—acus, needle; anus, old woman; colus, distaff; domus, house; manus, hand; nurus, daughter-in-law; penus, provision; porticus, portico; quercus, oak; tribus, tribe; socrus, mother-in-law; and sometimes also specus, a cave. The two plural nouns, idus (gen. iduum), the 13th or 15th day of a month; and quinquatrus (gen. quinquatruum), a certain Roman festival, are likewise feminine.

#### FIFTH DECLENSION.

51. The fifth declension is, as the fourth, only a modification of the third. The stem of words belonging to it ends in e, to which s is added, to form the nominative. The words of this declension are few, and the genitive is formed by changing es of the nominative into et.

#### Model Examples.

	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Nom.	$r\bar{e}$ -s, a thing.	Nom.	rē-s, things.
Gen.	rě-ī.	Gen.	rē-rum.
Dat.	rě-i.	Dat.	rē-bus.
Acc.	re-m.	Acc.	rē-s.
Voc.		Voc.	
Abl.	rē.		rē-bus.
	SINGULAR.		PLURAL.
Nom.	diē-s, day.	Nom.	diē-s, days.
Gen.	diē-₹.	Gen.	diē-rum.
Dat.	diē-ī.	Dat.	die-bus.
	die-m.	Acc.	$diar{e}$ -s.
	$diar{e}$ -s.		diē-s.
Abl.	diē.	Abl.	diē-bus.

#### Exercises.

Species, appearance; spes, hope; acies, battle-array; effigies, image; facies, face; scries, series.

The words dies and res are the only nouns of this declension which have the plural complete. Nearly all the others are used only in the singular—as caries, rottenness; fides, faith; macies, leanness; rabies, madness; scabies, itch; pernicies, destruction; superficies, surface.

52. All words of the fifth declension are feminine except dies, which in the singular is either masculine or feminine, but in

the plural masculine only. Its compound meridies (mid-day) is masculine only.

#### PECULIARITIES IN DECLENSION-DEFECTIVE AND IRREGULAR DECLENSION.

- 53. There are a few compound words in which each of the two elements is declined according to its peculiar declensionas respublica (republic), gen. reipublicae (the first word belonging to the fifth, and the second to the first declension); just urandum (oath), gen. jurisjurandi (the first word belonging to the third, and the second to the second declension.)
- 54. Proper names, and such common nouns as express a thing or an idea in its totality, without regard to the various objects in which the idea is manifested, are generally used only in the singular, in Latin as well as in other languages—as justitia, justice; humanitas, humanity; senectus, old age; fames, hunger; quies, rest; plebs and vulgus, common people; supellex, furniture; aurum, gold; ferrum, iron; triticum, wheat; oleum, oil; sanguis, blood.
- 55. Some words are used only in the plural, either because they designate a number of individual things or persons—as \* majores, ancestors; or because they originally conveyed the idea of repetition, or of a thing consisting of several parts—as arma (gen. armorum), armour; fides (gen. fidium), lyre. The following notes contain classified lists of the principal words of this kind:-

The following, which denote living beings, are used only in the plural:-

liberi, children. gemini, twins. majores, ancestors. posteri, descendants. primores and proceess, the princi- manes, spirits of the dead. pal persons or chieftains.

inferi, inhabitants of Hades. superi, inhabitants of Olympus. coelites, inhabitants of heaven. penates, household gods. excubiae, outposts or sentinels.

If it is to be specified that only an individual is meant, it must be expressed by 'one of the children,' 'one of the ancestors,' &c .- as unus liberorum, unus e majoribus, &c.

The following denote parts of the human body:—

artūs, limbs. cani (properly an adjective, to which capilli is understood), gray hair.

exta, intestina, and viscera, the intestines. ilia, the loins. praecordia, midriff.

The following denote things which were conceived by the Romans as consisting of several parts:—

arma, armour.
armamenta, tackling.
balneae, a bathing-house.
cancelli, balusters or rails.
casses, a hunter's net.
clathri, railing.
cunae, cunabula, and incunabula,
oradle.
exuviae, spoil.
fides, lyre.

fori, a row of seats, loculi, repository.
manubiae, booty.
moenia, wall of a town.
phalèrae, trappings.
salinae, salt-works.
scopae, broom.
sentes, brier.
spolia, spoils or booty.
virgulta, bush.

#### Names of days and festivals:-

calendae, the first day of a month. nonae, the fifth or seventh day of a month. dis, the thirteenth or fifteenth of a month. ferias, a holiday.
nundinae, a market-day.
Bacchanalia, Suturnalia, Floralia,
Ambarvalia, &c. all of which are
names of Roman festivals.

#### The following must be noticed separately:-

ambăges, a round-about way.
argutiae, witticism.
blanditiae, flattery.
crepundia, toy.
deliciae, delight.
dirae, curse.
divitiae, wealth.
epulae, meal.
exsequiae, funeral.

fasti, calendar.
grates, thanks.
illecebrae, bait.
induciae, truce.
inferiae, sacrifice to the dead.
inimicitiae, enmity.
insidiae, ambuscade.
nuptiae, wedding.
tenebrae, darkness.

Some words denote in the singular, as usual, a single object; but in the plural express both a plurality of such objects and an aggregate of the same or similar objects, which in many cases we express in English by a substantive in the singular—as littera, a letter of the alphabet; litterue, both letters of the alphabet, and a letter or epistle; auxilium, aid; auxilia, auxiliary troops.

The following list contains the principal words of this kind:-

#### SINGULAR.

aedes, a temple. aqua, water.

carcer, prison.

castrum (more commonly castellum), a fort. comitium, a part of the forum. copia, abundance. facultas, power to do a thing. finis, end.

#### PLURAL.

aedes, temples, and a house.

aquae, waters, and medicinal
springs.

carceres, prisons, and the barriers
of a race-course.

castra, a camp.

comitia, the assembly of the people. copiae, provisions or troops. facultates, property. fines, boundary or territory.

SINGULAR.

fortuna, fortune gratia, favour. hortus, garden.

impedimentum, an obstacle.

ludus, a game or pastime.

naris, nostril.
natalis (scil. dies), birthday.
opera, work.
opis (gen. from the obsolete ops),

help.
pars, part.

pars, part.
rostrum, a beak or pointed front of
a ship.

sal, salt.
tabula, a board or table.

PLURAL.

fortunae, gifts of fortune.
gratiae, thanks.
horti, gardens and pleasuregrounds, or country seat.
impedimenta, obstacles, and baggage
of an army.

ludi, games, or a public exhibition on the stage or in the circus. nares, the nose.

natales, a man's descent or origin. operae, labourers. opes, wealth, power.

partes, parte, and a party.
rostra, a place in the Roman forum,
which was adorned with the
beaks of ships, and from which
the orators addressed the people.
sales, wit.
tabulae, boards, and a register.

56. A few nouns do not admit of any inflection; hence they are termed indeclinable.

Words of this kind are the names of the letters of the alphabet, both in Latin and Greek—as alpha, beta, gamma. To these must be added the following:—fas, divine right; nefas, wrong; instar, weight, importance, validity; mane, the morning; caepe, onion; gummi, gum; pondo, pound weight.

- 57. Some nouns capable of inflection have not all the cases, and are therefore termed *defectives*. The following is a classified list of the principal words of this kind:—
- The nominative is wanting to the following words, of which we shall give only the genitive, though the other oblique cases also occur:—
  - Dapis, food (from daps); dicionis, dominion (from dicio); frugis, fruit (from frux); internecionis, destruction (from internecio); opis, help (from ops); pollinis, fine flour (from pollen); stipis, little money (from stipes.)
- 2. The following words occur only in certain cases of the singular:— Fors (chance), in the nominative and ablative forte, by chance or accidentally. Impëtis and impëte, the gentitive and ablative of an obselete nominative impers (vehemence) for which impetus is

accidentally. Impětis and impěte, the genitive and ablative of an obsolete nominative impes (vehemence), for which impetus is commonly used. Lues (an epidemic) occurs only in the nominative, accusative (luem), and ablative (lue.)

 The following occur only in certain cases of the singular and plural:—

From the obsolete sordes (filth), we have only the accusative and ablative singular, sordem and sorde; but the plural is complete. From the obsolete vepres (a thorn-bush), we have only the

accusative and ablative singular, veprem and vepre; but the plural is complete. Of the obsolete vicis or vix (change), there exist the genitive, accusative, and ablative singular, vicis, vicem, vice; the plural, except the genitive, is complete.

4. The following words occur in the singular only in the ablative, and, generally speaking, only in poetry:—

Ambage, compede, fauce, obice; prece, verbere. The last two occur also in prose.

- 5. The following words also are used only in the ablative singular:—
  Sponte (impulse), as mea sponte, of my own accord; sua sponte, of
  his own accord. A number of verbal substantives of the fourth
  declension, occurring always joined either to a genitive or to a
  possessive pronoun—as jussu populi, by command of the
  people; mandatu Caesaris, by the order of Caesar; rogatu meo,
  at my request. So also natu, joined with magnus, major, maximus, and the expressions in promptu, in procinctu, concessu,
  permissu, effagitatu, and others.
- 58. Some words have in the nominative two or three different terminations, in consequence of which they may belong to different declensions, and sometimes also are of different genders—as eventus and eventum, an event; jugulus and jugulum, the throat; luxuria and luxuries, luxury.
- 1. In the second declension, some masculines in us have at the same time a neuter form in um—as callus and callum, a wart; commentarius and commentarium, a memoir; jugulus and jugulum, throat; lupinus and lupinum, lupine; porrus and porrum, leek; cubitus and cubitum, the elbow, or a cubit.
- 2. The following words belong either to the first or to the second declension, according to their terminations:—menda and mendum, a fault; vespera and vesper, evening (the ablative, however, is commonly vespere or vesperi, according to the third declension; while vesper, the evening star, belongs entirely to the second); aranea and araneus, a spider; essedum and esseda, a travelling carriage.
- 3. The following words belong either to the first or to the fifth declension, according as they end in ia or ies:—barbaria or barbaries, a barbarous country; mollitia or mollities, effeminacy; luxuria or luxuries, luxury; materia or materies, matter, though the latter usually signifies timber.
- 4. Some verbal substantives of the fourth declension in us have a second form in um, following the second declension—as eventus and eventum, an occurrence; suggestus and suggestum, the hustings.
- 5. The following merit special notice:-

Plebs or plebes, gen. plebis and plebei, or contracted, plebi; the former of the third, and the latter of the fifth declension.

Jugerum (an acre), of the second declension, has certain forms belonging to the third—namely, ablative jugere, genitive plural jugerum, and dative and ablative jugeribus.

Fames (hunger) belongs to the third declension, but has in the ablative always fume, according to the fifth, instead of fume.

Requies (rest), gen. requietis, makes the accusative and ablative both requietem, requiete and requiem, requie.

Gausape, gausapis, and gausapum (a piece of woollen cloth), are neuter; the first two forms belong to the third, and the third to the second declension; but there also exist the feminine gausapa of the first, and the masculine gausapes, gen. is, of the third declension.

Praesēpe, gen. praesēpis (a manger), is neuter; but praesēpes, gen. praesēpis, is feminine, and praesēpium is neuter.

Tapes, gen. tapētis (a carpet), is masculine; but tapēte, gen. tapētis and tapētum, are neuter.

Ilia (a neut. plur.), the loins, makes its genitive plural ilium or iliorum, and the dative and ablative ilibus only.

6. Some words have not only different terminations in the different cases, but the stem itself is different; so that they may be regarded as different words; for example-

Femur (thigh), gen. femoris and feminis (from the obsolete femen.) Jecur (liver), gen. jecoris; but also jecinoris, jocinoris, and jocineris. Juventus and juventa (youth), gen. juventutis and juventae, while Juventas (the goddess of youth) makes Juventatis.

Senectus and senecta (old age), gen. senectutis and senectae; but the

latter, like juventae, is used only in poetry.

Pecus (cattle), when feminine, makes the genitive pecudis; when neuter, pecoris. There is also a plural pecua, dat. and abl. pecubus.

Penus (provisions), gen. penoris, plur. penora; but it is also a feminine of the fourth declension, gen. penus, and a neuter, penum, of the second. The two last forms do not occur in the

Colluvio and colluvies (a mass of filth flowing together), are both feminine; the former of the third, and the latter of the fifth declension.

Scorpio and scorpius (a scorpion), are both masculine; the former of the third, and the latter of the second declension.

59. Some substantives, though they have only one form in the singular, have in the plural either two forms of different genders, or one form only, which, however, differs in gender from the singular:-

Jocus (a joke), plur. joci and joca.

Locus (a place), plur. loca, places, but loci, passages in books: this distinction, however, is not always observed.

Carbasus (fem. linen), plur. carbasa, sail.

Coelum (heaven), plur. coeli.

Frenum (bit), plur. freni and frena.

Rastrum (a hatchet), plur. rastri and rastra.

Ostrea (oyster), plur. ostreae and ostrea.

Sibilus (a hissing), plur. sibili, and in poetry sibila.

Tartarus (the lower world), plur. in poetry Tartara.

Balneum (bath), plur. balneae, a public bath-house.

Epulum (a solemn feast), plur. epulae, a meal.

Vas (a vessel) belongs to the third declension, but in the plural follows the second, vasa, vasorum, vasis.

60. The only substantives really irregular in declension are

Jupiter, which makes its genitive Jövis, the remaining cases being regularly formed from Jovis; caro (flesh, meat) makes its genitive carnis; senex (an old man), sēnis; nix (snow), nīvis; supellex (furniture), gen. supellectilis; and vis (violence), though it makes the accusative and ablative vim and vi, yet has the plural vires, virium, viribus, &c.

## TERMINATIONS AND DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES.

61. Adjectives denote qualities, peculiarities, and properties of persons or things, when they are not regarded as independent existences, but as attached to persons or things. In fortis miles (a brave soldier), the word fortis is an adjective, denoting the quality of bravery as connected with or attached to the soldier; but fortitudo (bravery), which likewise denotes a quality, is not an adjective, but a substantive, because the quality expressed by fortitudo is regarded as an independent existence, or abstract quality.

62. Adjectives are commonly joined to substantives, with which they agree in gender, number, and case. In order to make an adjective agree in gender, it must have three different terminations corresponding to the three genders. This, however, is not always the case, for some adjectives have only two terminations to indicate gender—one for the masculine and feminine, and another for the neuter; while a large number

have only one termination for all the genders.

What is here said of adjectives holds good also of participles, pronouns, and some numerals, which, so far as their form is concerned, must be regarded as adjectives.

63. There are only two classes of adjectives which have three distinct terminations for the three genders — namely, those in us and er, both forming the feminine in a and the neuter in um—as bonus (good), fem. bona, neut. bonum; amatus (beloved), fem. amata, neut. amatum; liber (free), fem. libera, neut. liberum; niger (black), fem. nigra, neut. nigrum. To these must be added the adjective satur (full), fem. satura, neut. saturum.

Those adjectives which retain e before r in the genitive singular, also retain it in the feminine and neuter—as in liber, libera, liberum; while those which throw it out in the genitive also drop it in the feminine and neuter—as niger, nigra, nigrum.

64. The masculine and neuter of these adjective forms follow the second declension, but the feminine in a the first.

Respecting those ending in -us, -a, -um, which make their genitive

in all genders in ius, and their dative in i, though they are regular in all other respects, see page 11.

65. There are thirteen adjectives in er which make their feminine in is, and the neuter in e, all of which forms follow the third declension. The three genders, however, can be distinguished only in the nominative singular, since the declension of the masculine is quite the same as that of the feminine. These adjectives are:—

MASC. PEM. NEUT. acris, acre (gen. acris), sharp. acer, alacre (gen. alacris), cheerful, alacer, alacris. campester, campestris, campestre (gen. campestris), belonging to a plain or field. celeber, celebris, celebre (gen. celebris), famous. celer, celeris, celere (gen. celeris), swift. equester, equestris, equestre (gen. equestris), equestrian, paluster, palustris, palustre (gen. palustris), marshy. pedester, pedestris, pedestre (gen. pedestris), on foot. putris, putre (gen, putris), rotten. puter, saluber, salubris, salubre (gen. salubris), wholesome, silvestre (gen. silvestris), woody. silvester, silvestris, terrester, terrestris, terrestre (gen. terrestris), earthy. volucris, volucre (gen. volucris), swift, winged. volucer,

66. Adjectives in is, and comparatives in ior, have only two terminations—one for the masculine and feminine, and one for the neuter. Those in is make their neuter in e, and comparatives in ior make their neuter in ius—as levis (masc. and fem.), leve (neut.), light; pulchrior (masc. and fem.), pulchrius (neut.), handsomer. All the forms of these adjectives belong to the third declension; both levis and leve making their genitive levis, and pulchrior as well as pulchrius make pulchrioris.

There are twelve adjectives which have double forms; one in us, a, um, and the other in is, e—namely:—

Bijugus, a, um, and bijugis, e, with two yokes. Exanimus, a, um, and exanimis, e, dead.
Hilarus, a, um, and hilaris, e, cheerful.
Imbecillus, a, um, and imbecillis, e, weak, imbecile, Imberbus, a, um, and imberbis, e, without a beard.
Inermus, a, um, and inermis, e, unarmed.
Infrenus, a, um, and infrenis, e, with out a bridle.
Multijugus, a, um, and quadrijugis, e, with four yokes.
Quadrijugus, a, um, and quadrijugis, e, with four yokes.
Semienmus, a, um, and semienmis, e, half-dead.
Unanimus, a, um, and unanimis, e, unanimous.

67. All other adjectives have only one termination for all genders, and all belong to the third declension. For example, sapiens, wise; felix, happy; legens, reading; concors, unanimous; atrox, atrocious; locuples, rich; memor, remembering.

But although in these adjectives the neuter is like the two other genders, still it differs from them by having, according to the general rule, the nominative, accusative, and vocative singular alike, and by having the same cases of the plural ending in ia; hence the neuter nominative, accusative, and vocative of prudens is prudens, and the same cases in the plural are all prudentia. Vetus (old), gen. veteris, alone makes the plural vetera.

# 68. The following adjectives are indeclinable:-

Frugi (discreet); hence homo frugi, hominis frugi, homines frugi, &c. Nequam (good for nothing) occurs only as a neuter in connection with the verbs esse and habere.

Opus and necesse (necessary) occur only in connection with esse.

Praesto (ready or at hand) occurs only with esse.

Semis (and a half) occurs only in connection with numerals; and the conjunction et (and) being omitted, it must be rendered by and a half —as recipe uncias quatuor semis, take four ounces and a half.

Potis, neut. pote (able), occurs only in the nominative with the verb esse, with which it is contracted into posse (to be able.)

Damnas (condemned) is used only as a law-term in connection with the imperatives esto and sunto.

69. The following adjectives are deficient either in cases or numbers:—

Of the feminine cetera, neut. ceterum (the other), the masculine nominative ceterus is not used; but all the other cases both of the singular and plural are common.

The genitive primoris (of the first) has no nominative; but in the plural it is common in the sense of 'chiefs' or 'leaders.'

Of sontis (guilty), puberis (full-grown), and seminěcis (half-dead), the nominative sons, pubes, and seminex, do not occur.

The words exlex, lawless; exspes, hopeless, occur in the nominative only.

Pauci (a few) and plerique (many, or the greater number) are used only in the plural; but the singular sometimes occurs in connection with collective substantives—as pleraque nobilitas, the greater part of the nobility; pleraque juventus, the greater part of the youths; plerusque exercitus, the greater part of the army. Plerique has no genitive, but that of plurimi supplies its place.

The vocatives macte and macti are the only forms of this adjective

that occur.

#### COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

70. As adjectives denote qualities, and as the same quality existing in two different persons or things may be in a higher degree in the one than in the other; and again, as among many persons or things possessing the same quality one may possess it in the highest degree, every language has some means of expressing these degrees. Their number is threethe Positive, the Comparative, and the Superlative. The positive is the adjective in its fundamental form—as bonus, good; felix, happy; fortis, brave.

71. When a comparison is instituted between two persons or things in regard to a quality they have in common, or when the same quality existing in the same object is compared with itself at different times, and when the result of the comparison is that the quality exists in one object in a higher degree than in the other, or at one time in a higher degree than at another, the comparison is expressed by the comparative form: e.g., he is wiser than his brother; he is wiser now than he ever has been.

72. When a comparison is instituted between more than two objects in regard to a quality which they have in common, and when the result of the comparison is that one possesses the quality in a higher degree than the others, or in the highest degree, the comparison is expressed by the superlative form: e.g., he is the most diligent of all my pupils; Socrates was the wisest of all the Greeks.

The Latin language frequently employs the comparative in an elliptic manner, where we should say either 'too' or 'rather'—as doctior, 'more learned'—namely, than should be; that is, 'rather learned,' or 'too learned.' In like manner the Latin language is very partial to the use of the superlative where we simply say 'very' -as doctissimus may either mean 'the most learned man' or 'a very learned man.'

73. The comparative degree is formed in Latin by the termination ior (for the masculine and feminine) and ius (for the neuter) being added to the stem of the adjective, such as it appears in any of the oblique cases—as opulentus, comp. opulent-ior, ius; sapiens, comp. sapient-ior, ius; sagax, comp. sagac-ior, ius; liber, comp. liber-ior, ius; pulcher, comp. pulchr-ior, ius; levis, comp. lev-ior, ius.

74. Those adjectives in er which lose e in the oblique cases, lose it also in the comparative — as in pulcher, pulchrior. Sinister (left) alone has sinisterior, although its genitive is sinistri. All comparatives follow the third declension, making their genitive in oris.

75. The superlative is formed by adding the termination issimus, a, um, to the stem of the adjective, such as it appears in any of the oblique cases—as opulentus, sup. opulent-issimus, a, um; sapiens, sup. sapient-issimus, a, um; sagax, sup. sagacissimus, a, um; levis, sup. lev-issimus, a, um.

76. All adjectives ending in er make the superlative by adding rimus, a, um, to the masculine nominative of the positive—as pulcher, sup. pulcherrimus; liber, sup. liberrimus; acer,

sup. acerrimus; celeber, sup. celeberrimus.

Vetus (old, gen. veter-is) likewise makes its superlative veterrimus, and nuperus (late, from nuper), nuperrimus. Maturus (early) has two forms in the superlative, maturissimus and maturrimus.

77. The following adjectives in lis—facilis (easy), difficilis (difficult), gracilis (slender), humilis (humble), similis (similar), and dissimilis (dissimilar)—form their superlatives by adding limus to the stem—as facil-limus, difficil-limus, simil-limus, &c. But all other adjectives in lis form their superlative in the

regular manner-as utilis, sup. util-issimus.

78. Adjectives ending in dicus, ficus, and volus (from the verbs dico, facio, and volo), make the comparative by changing us into entior, and the superlative by changing us into entissimus, just as if the positive ended in ens—as maledicus (slanderous), comp. maledicentior, sup. maledicentissimus; munificus (munificent), comp. munificentior, sup. munificentissimus; malevolus (ill-disposed), comp. malevolentior, sup. malevolentissimus.

79. The masculine and neuter of all superlatives follow the

second declension, and the feminine the first.

80. Some adjectives form their degrees of comparison in an irregular manner, or rather from obsolete words and different stems:—

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
Bonus, good,	melior, ius,	optimus, a, um.
Malus, bad,	pejor, pejus,	pessimus, a, um.
Magnus, great,	major, majus,	maximus, a, um.
Multus, much,	plus (gen. pluris),	plurimus, a, um.
	plural, plures, plura.	
Parvus, small,	minor, minus,	minimus, a, um.
Nequam, good for nothing,	nequior, ius,	nequissimus, a, um.
Fruoi, cheerful.	frugalior ins	frugalissimus, a. um.

Senex (an old man) and juvenis (a young man), although substantives, have their comparatives senior and junior, but no superlatives.

81. Some adjectives have two irregular forms of the superlative, and sometimes with a slight difference in meaning—as

Positive. Comparative. Superlative. exterus, being without, exterior, outer, extrēmus and extimus, the inferus, being below, inferior, infimus, or contracted, imus. superus, being above, superior, supremus, the last in point of time, and summus, the highest. posterus, one who follows, posterior, postremus, the last, and postumus, one born after his father's death.

82. There are some comparatives and superlatives to which there is no adjective in the positive, and which are generally derived from adverbs; and there are others which cannot be derived either from adjectives or from adverbs—namely,

Comparative. Superlative. citerior, situated on this side. citimus, from the adverb citra. ulterior, placed beyond, ultimus, from the adverb ultra. interior, interior, intimus, from the adverb intus. propior, nearer, proximus, from the adverb prope. deterior, inferior, deterrimus, the lowest. ocior, quicker, ocissimus, from the Greek &zús. potior, preferable, potissimus, from the obsolete potis. prior, first of two, primus, from the adverb prae. sequior, sequius, or secius, less good, — from the adverb secus. anterior, being before another, - from the adverb ante.

The following adjectives have a superlative, but no comparative:diversus (different), diversissimus; falsus (false), falsissimus; inclitus (famous), inclitissimus; novus (new), novissimus; sacer (sacred), sacerrimus. Vetus has veterrimus, but vetustus, which has the same meaning, furnishes the comparative vetustior, and has also a superlative vetustissimus.

83. There are many adjectives which cannot have any degrees of comparison at all, because they denote qualities which cannot be conceived to exist in a higher or lower degree than that in which they commonly appear.

This is chiefly the case with those which denote the material of which something is made, origin, and a definite time—as aureus, golden; argenteus, made of silver; ligneus, wooden; Romanus, Roman; paternus, paternal; hibernus, wintery; hodiernus, belonging to this day; vivus, alive; examinis, dead; caecus, blind; sinister, left-handed; ater, black; surdus, deaf; jejunus, not having breakfasted; and many others. Many adjectives do not form their degrees of comparison in the

ordinary way, but by adding the adverbs magis (more) and maxime (most) to the positive — as idoneus (fit), comp. magis idoneus, sup.

maxime idoneus. This is the case-

1. With all adjectives ending in us in which the us is preceded by a vowel—as idoneus, suitable; dubius, doubtful; necessarius, necessary.

2. With many adjectives which are compounds of verbs or substantives, such as those ending in ger and fer (from gero and fero), and many others—as ignivomus, fire-spitting; degener, degenerate; discolor, of different colours; inops, poor; magnanimus, generous. Those ending in dicus, ficus, and volus, however, as well as those compounded with ars, mens, and cor, may have their regular degrees -as iners, sollers, demens, amens, concors, discors, vecors.

3. The following adjectives have no regular degrees:—almus, nourishing: caducus, falling or fragile; calvus, bald; curvus, crooked; ferus, wild; gnarus, knowing; lacer and mutilus, mutilated; lassus, tired; mediocris, middling; memor, mindful; mirus, wonderful; navus, industrious; rudis, rude; trux, fierce.

Sometimes an adjective, instead of being put in the superlative, has per prefixed to it - as permagnus, percommodus. Others take prae in a similar sense—as praegelidus (very cold.) Adjectives thus compounded with per or prace have no degrees of comparison, except pracelarus (illustrious), which is treated as a simple adjective, and accordingly has its degrees praeclarior and praeclarissimus.

## NUMERALS.

- 84. Most numerals are in reality adjectives denoting number -as unus homo, one man; primus homo, the first man; terni milites, soldiers by threes together; duplex numerus, double number. One class of numerals only belongs to adverbs—as semel, once; bis, twice; ter, thrice. All numerals may be divided into six classes :-
- 1. Cardinal numerals, or those which simply denote the number of objects, and answer to the question 'how many?'-as one, two,

2. Ordinal numerals, or those indicating the order or succession of objects—as the first, second, third.

3. Distributive numerals, or those which denote how many each time—

- as terni, three each time. 4. Multiplicative numerals, denoting how many fold a thing is - as triplex. threefold.
- 5. Proportional numerals, denoting how many times more one thing is than another—as triplum, three times as much.

6. Adverbial numerals, denoting how many times a thing occurs—as quater, four times.

85. The first three cardinal numerals—unus, a, um (one); duo, duae, duo (two); and tres, tria—are declinable; the rest, up to two hundred, are indeclinable; but from two hundred up to a thousand they are declinable, and have a distinct termination for each gender. Mille, one thousand, is an indeclinable adjective, but it has a plural, millia, which is declinable, and used as a substantive.



The following table contains the principal cardinal numerals, according to which all others may be formed:—

```
I. unus, una, unum.
  2.3.4.5.6.7.8.
                           IL duo, duae, duo.
                          III. tres, tria.
                 IIIL or IV. quatuor.
V. quinque.
                          VI. sex.
                         VII. septem.
                        VIII. octo.
  9.
                IX. or VIIII. novem.
 10.
                           X. decem.
 11.
                          XI. undecim.
 12.
                         XII. duodecim.
 13.
                        XIII. tredecim, or decem et tres (tria), or tres (tria)
                                   et decem.
 14.
                         XIV. quatuordecim.
 15.
                         XV. quindecim.
 16.
                        XVI. sedecim, sexdecim, or decem et sex.
 17.
                       XVII. decem et septem, or septemdecim.
 18.
                      XVIII. decem et octo, or better duodeviginti.
 19.
                        XIX. decem et novem, or better undeviginti.
 20.
21.
22.
                        XX. viginti.
XXI. unus (a, um) et viginti, or viginti unus (a, um.)
                       XXII. duo (duae) et viginti, or viginti duo (duae.)
 23.
                      XXIII. tres (tria) et viginti, or viginti tres (tria.)
 24.
                      XXIV. quatuor et viginti, or viginti quatuor.
                    XXVIII. duodetriginta, more rarely octo et viginti, or
                                   viginti octo.
 29.
                      XXIX. undetriginta, more rarely novem et viginti, or
 30.
                       XXX. triginta.
                                                              viginti novem.
 31.
                      XXXI. unus (a, um) et triginta, or triginta unus
                                   (a, um.)
 40.
                          XL. quadraginta.
                            L. quinquaginta.
 50.
 60.
                          LX. sexaginta.
                        LXX. septuaginta.
 70.
 80.
                      LXXX. octoginta.
 90.
                          XC. nonaginta.
 99.
                IC. or XCIX. nonaginta novem, or novem et nonaginta, or
100.
                            C. centum.
                                                               [undecentum.
101.
                           CI. centum et unus (a, um), or centum unus.
102.
                          CII. centum et duo (duae), or centum duo.
200.
                           CC. ducenti, ae, a.
300.
                         CCC. trecenti, ae, a.
400.
                       CCCC. quadringenti, ae, a.
500.
                     D. or ID. quingenti, ac, a.
                          DC. sexcenti, ae, a.
 600.
 700.
                         DCC. septingenti, ae, a.
 800.
                       DCCC. octingenti, ae, a.
 900.
                     DCCCC. nongenti, ae, a.
1000.
                   M. or CIO. mille.
             CIOCIO. or MM. duo millia, or bis mille.
2000.
3000. CIOCIOCIO. or MMM. tria millia, or ter mille.
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5000. 10,000. CCIDD. decem millia, or quinquies mille. 100,000. CCCIDD. decem millia, or decies mille.

M seems to be the initial of *mille*. The other leading symbols are I=1, V=5, X=10, L=50, C=100, IO or D=500, M or CIO=1000. In reading the Latin symbols, the following points must be observed:—

- 1. Two symbols of equal value are added together—as II = 2, CC = 200. 
  2. A symbol of less value before one of greater is subtracted—as IX = 9, XC = 90.
- A symbol of less value after one of greater is added—as XI = 11, CX = 110.
- 4. Each inverted C (3) after the symbol IO (500), indicates that the latter must be multiplied by ten, so that IOO is 5000, and IOOO, 50.000.
- 5. When we place as many C's before I as there are inverted O's after it, we double the number—as IOO = 5000, but CCIOO = 10,000; again, IOOO = 50,000, but CCCIOOO = 100,000; and a million would accordingly be expressed by CCCCIOOO.
- 86. Unus, a, um, is one of those adjectives which in all genders form the genitive in  $\bar{\imath}us$ , and the dative in  $\bar{\imath}$ ; but in the other cases the masculine and neuter follow the second declension, and the feminine the first. (See p. 11.)

87. Duo and tres of course occur in the plural only, and are declined thus:—

	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.		M. & F.	Neut.
Nom.	duo,	duae,	duo.	Nom.	tres,	tria.
Gen.	duŏrum,	duārum,	duōrum.	Gen.	trium,	trium.
Dat.	duōbus,	duābus,	duobus.	Dat.	trībus,	trībus.
Acc.	duōs (or duo),	duās,	duo.	Acc.	tres,	tria.
Abl.	duōbùs,	duābus,	duōbus.	Abl.	trībus,	trībus.

Ambo, ambae, ambo (both) is declined like duo.

- 88. Centum itself is indeclinable, but ducenti, ae, a; trecenti, ae, a; quadringenti, &c. down to nongenti, are all plural adjectives, the masculine and neuter of which follow the second declension, and the feminine the first. Mille is commonly treated as an indeclinable adjective, and is accordingly joined to any case of a substantive; but it has a complete plural (millia, gen. millium, dat. millibus, &c.), which is regarded as a substantive of the neuter gender—as duo millia, tria millia, quatuor millia, multa millia, &c. and is accordingly followed by the genitive of the objects counted—as tria millia militum, 3000 soldiers.
- 89. The ordinal numerals are adjectives of three terminations (masculine us, feminine a, neuter um); and with the exception

of primus and secundus, they are all formed from the cardinal numerals.

The following table contains the principal ordinal numerals, according to which all the others may be formed:-

- 1. primus, the first.
- 2. secundus or alter, the second.
- 3. tertius, the third.
- 4. quartus, the fourth.
- 5. quintus, the fifth. 6. sextus, the sixth.
- 7. septimus, the seventh.
- 8. octavus, the eighth.
- 9. nonus, the ninth.
- 10. decimus, the tenth.
- 11. undecimus, the eleventh.
- 12. duodecimus, the twelfth, &c.
- 13. tertius decimus, rarely decimus et tertius.
- 14. quartus decimus, rarely decimus et quartus, &c.
- 15. quintus decimus.
- 16. sextus decimus.
- 17. septimus decimus.
- 18. duodevicesimus, rarely octavus decimus.
- 19. undevicesimus, rarely nonus decimus.
- 20. vicesimus (or vigesimus.)
- 21. unus et vicesimus (una et vicesima, unum et vicesimum), more rarely primus et vicesimus, or vicesimus primus.
- 22. alter (rarely secundus) et vicesimus, vicesimus alter, or duo et [vicesimus.
- 23. tertius et vicesimus, or vicesimus tertius. 24. quartus et vicesimus, or vicesimus quartus, &c.
- 28. duodetricesimus, more rarely octavus et vicesimus, and vicesimus
- octavus.
- 29. undetricesimus, more rarely nonus et vicesimus, and vicesimus nonus.
- 30. tricesimus, or trigesimus.
- 31. primus et tricesimus, tricesimus primus, or unus et tricesimus. (See above, 20.)
- 38. duodequadragesimus, more rarely octavus et tricesimus, or tricesimus octavus.
- 39. undequadragesimus, more rarely nonus et tricesimus, or tricesimus 40. quadragesimus. [nonus.
- quinquagesimus.
- 60. sexagesimus.
- septuagesimus.
- 80. octogesimus.
- 90. nonagesimus.
- 100. centesimus.
- 101. centesimus primus.
- 110. centesimus decimus.
- 124. centesimus vicesimus quartus.
- 200. ducentesimus.
- 300. trecentesimus.
- 400. quadringentesimus.
- 500. quingentesimus.
- 600. sexcentesimus.

700. septingentesimus.
800. octingentesimus.
900. nongentesimus.
1000. millesimus.
2000. bis millesimus.
3000. ter millesimus, &c.
10,000. decies millesimus.
1,000,000. centies millesimus.

The years before and after the birth of Christ, after the foundation of Rome, or of any other era, are expressed in Latin by ordinal numerals—as 1854 is anno millesimo octingentesimo quinquagesimo quarto; all these words being in the ablative.

90. Distributive numerals answer to the question 'how many each time?' They are used only in the plural, and are adjectives of three terminations, -i, -ae, -a. The English language has no corresponding numerals, but has recourse to circumlocution—as term milites, soldiers by threes.

The following table contains the leading distributive numerals:—

1. singuli, ae, a, one each time, or one by one. 2. bini, two each time. 3. terni (trini), three each time. 4. quaterni. quini. 6. seni. septēni. 8. octoni. 9. novēni. 10. dēni. 11. undēni. 12. duodēni. 13. terni deni. 14. quaterni deni, &c. 18. octoni deni, or duodeviceni. noveni, or undeviceni. 20. vicēni. 21. viceni singuli. 22. viceni bini, &c.

30. tricēni. 40. quadragēni. 50. quinquageni. 60. sexageni. 70. septuageni. 80. octogeni. 90. nonageni. 100. centēni. 200. duceni. 300. treceni. 400. quadringeni. 500. quingeni. 600. sexceni. 700. septingeni. 800. octingeni. 900. nongeni. 1000. singula millia, or simply 2000. bina millia. [millia. 3000. terna millia.

10,000. dena millia.

Distributives are used instead of cardinals when joined to substantives which have no singular, or of which the plural has a different meaning from that of the singular—as bina castra, two camps; binae litterae, two letters; binae aedes, two houses. In this case, however, it is customary to use uni, ae, a, and trini, ae, a, instead of singular and terni. Words which have a different meaning in the singular and plural deserve particular attention; thus binae litterae signifies two letters or epistles, but duae litterae two letters of the alphabet; duae aedes, two temples, but binae aedes, two houses.

Distributives, from the nature of their meaning, are employed in multiplication in connection with adverbial numerals—as bis bina,

twice two; quater septeni dies, four times seven days; bis seni pueri, twice six boys.

91. Multiplicative numerals answering to the question 'how many fold? end in plex, and are adjectives of the third declension (gen. plicis), and have one termination only for all genders.

The following are the only multiplicatives that occur in Latin

simplex, simple. duplex, twofold. triplex, threefold. quadruplex, fourfold. quincuplex, fivefold. septemplex, sevenfold. decemplex, tenfold. centumplex, a hundredfold.

92. Proportional numerals answer to the question 'how many times more?' They are adjectives ending in plus, a, um; but occur generally only in the neuter gender.

The only proportional numerals that occur in Latin writers are—

- 1. simplus, a, um, simple.
- 2. duplus, a, um, twice as much.
- 3. triplus, thrice as much.
- 4. quadruplus, four times as much.
- 5. quincuplus, five times as much.
- septuplus, seven times as much.
- 8. octuplus, eight times as much.
- 10. decuplus, ten times as much. 100. centuplus, a hundred times as
- 93. Adverbial numerals denoting repetition answer to the question 'how often?' As adverbs, they are not susceptible of any inflection.
  - 1. semel, once.
  - 2. bis, twice.
  - 3. ter, thrice.
  - 4. quater, four times.
  - 5. quinquies, five times, &c.
  - 6. sexies, or sexiens.
  - 7. septies, or septiens, &c.
  - 8. octies.
- 9. novies. decies.
- 11. undecies.
- duodecies.
- 13. terdecies, or tredecies.
- quaterdecies, or quatuordecies.
- 15. quinquiesdecies, or quindecies.
- 16. sexiesdecies, or sedecies.
- septies decies.
- 18. duodevicies, or octiesdecies.
- 19. undevicies, or noviesdecies.
- 21. semel et vicies, or vicies semel.
- 22. bis et vicies, or vicies bis.

- 23. ter et vicies, or vicies ter, &c.
- 30. tricies.
- 40. quadragies.
- 50. quinquagies.
- 60. sexagies.
- 70. septuagies.
- 80. octogies.
- 90. nonagies.
- 100. centies.
- 130. centies tricies, or centies et 200. ducenties. [tricies.
- 300. trecenties.
- 400. quadringenties. 500. quingenties.
- 600. sexcenties.
- 700. septingenties.
- 800. octingenties.
- 900. nongenties.
- 1000. millies.
- 2000. bis millies, &c.
- 10,000. decies millies.
- 100,000. centies millies.

94. Fractional numbers are always expressed in Latin by pars (part)—as dimidia pars, \(\frac{1}{2}\); tertia pars, \(\frac{1}{3}\); quarta

pars, 1; quinta pars, 1; sexta pars, 1.

95. When the number of parts in a fractional number is less by one than the number of parts into which the whole is divided—as \(\frac{3}{3}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \text{the fractions are expressed simply by duae, tres, quatuor, to which must be understood partes, and it must be conceived thus: two parts out of three, three parts out of four, four parts out of five.

96. All other fractions are expressed just as in English—as \(\frac{2}{3}\), duae quintae; \(\frac{2}{3}\), quatuor septimae;

, quinque septimae, partes being understood.

## PRONOUNS.

97. Pronouns are words which supply the place of substantives, or refer to substantives mentioned either before or after—as Ego, I; tu, thou; nos, we; vos, you; homo QUI laudat,

the man who praises; ille vir, that man.

- 98. The pronouns ego, tu, nos, and vos, supplying the place of names, may be regarded as substantives, and convey a full meaning by themselves; whence they are called substantive, or personal pronouns. All other pronouns may be regarded as adjectives, their meaning not being complete without a substantive either expressly added or understood.
  - 99. Latin pronouns may be arranged in seven classes:-

1. Substantive pronouns—as ego, tu, nos, vos.

2. Adjunctive pronouns—as ipse, ipsa, ipsum, self.

3. Demonstrative pronouns—as hic, huec, hoc, this; iste, ista, istud, that; ille, illa, illud, that; is, ea, id, and its derivative, idem, eadem, idem.

4. Possessive pronouns—meus, a, um; tuus, a, um; suus, a, um; noster, nostra, nostrum; vester, vestra, vestrum.

5. Relative pronouns—qui, quae, quod, and its compounds,

quicumque and quisquis.
6. Interrogative pronouns—quis, quae, quid, and qui, quae,

auod.

7. Indefinite pronouns—as aliquis, aliqua, aliquid and aliquod; quidam, quaedam, quiddam and quoddam; quispiam, quaepiam, quidpiam and quodpiam, and the compound aliquispiam; quisquam (masc. and fem.), quidquam; quivis, quaevis, quidvis and quodvis; quilibet, quaelibet, quodlibet and quidlibet; quisque, quaeque, quodque, and all other compounds of qui and quis.



First Person.

in us.

100. Substantive pronouns always stand by themselves, and are not joined to substantives.

Ego denotes the person speaking - that is, the first person: and tu the person spoken to, or the second person. In English, we have also a pronoun of the third, or the person spoken of - namely, he, she, and it; but the Latin language has no substantive pronoun for the third person in the nominative; and when it is to be expressed. its place must be supplied by the demonstrative pronoun is or ille. In the oblique cases, however, there are forms for the third person.

101. The substantive pronouns are very peculiar in the formation of their cases: they are declined thus:-

## SINGULAR. Second Person.

Nom. ĕgo, I.	$t\bar{u}$ , thou.	wanting.
Gen. mei, of me.	$tu\bar{\imath}$ , of thee.	suī, of himself, her- self, itself.
Dat. mihi, to me.	tĭbi, to thee.	sibi, to himself, herself, itself.
Acc. mē, me.	$t\bar{e}$ , thee.	$s\bar{e}$ , himself, herself, itself.
Voc. wanting.	$t\bar{u}$ , thou.	wanting.
Abl. $m\bar{e}$ , with, by, from, or in me.	tē, with, by, from, or in thee.	sē, with, by, from, or in himself, &c.
	PLURAL.	
Nom. nōs, we.	vōs, you.	wanting.
Gen. nostrī, or nostrum, of us.	vestrī, or vestrum, of you.	suī, of themselves.
Dat. nobīs, to us.	vōbīs, to you.	stbi, to themselves.
Acc. nos, us.	vōs, you.	$s\bar{e}$ , themselves.
Voc. wanting.	vōs, you.	wanting.
Abl wahra with	wahaa mish her	at with her from

The pronoun of the third person is properly a reflective; that is, one which refers either to the subject of the clause in which it occurs, or if it appears in an inserted clause, to the subject of the leading clause—as Cato se interfecit, 'Cato killed himself,' the se referring to Cato, the subject; amicus meus contemnebat divitias, quod se felicem reddere non possent, 'my friend despised wealth, because it could not make him happy,' the se referring to my friend, the subject of the leading clause. Wherever there is no such reference to the subject, but where the pronoun refers to a different person or thing from the subject, the oblique cases must be taken from is, ca, id, or from ille, illu, illud-as ubi ad hostem accessit, interfecit eum, 'when he came near

Abl. nobis, with, vobis, with, by, se, with, by, from, by, from, or from, or in you. or in themselves.

Third Person.

the enemy, he slew him,' the eum not referring to the subject, but to hostem.

The genitives mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, are the genitives of the neuter of the possessive pronouns meum, tuum, suum, nostrum, vestrum, so that mei properly means 'of my being;' that is, 'of me.' The genitives plural nostrum and vestrum are used only in a partitive sense—as 'every one of us,' unusquisque nostrum; but 'he remembers us,' nostri reminiscitur.

102. The adjunctive pronoun ipse, ipsa, ipsum, is commonly joined to substantives and other pronouns, and is declined as follows, the plural being the same as that of adjectives in us, a, um:—

SINGULAR.				PLURAL.			
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.		Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	ipse,	ipsă,	ipsum.	Nom.	ipsī,	ipsae,	ipsă.
Gen.	ipsius,	ipsiús,	ipsius.	Gen.	ipsórum,	ipsārum,	ipsorum.
Dat.	ipsī,	ipsī,	ipsī.	Dat.	ipsīs,	ipsīs,	ipsīs.
Acc.	ipsúm,	ipsam,	ipsum.	Acc.	ipsos,	ipsās,	ipsă.
Abl.	ipsō,	ipsā,	ipsö.	Abl.	ipsīs,	ipsīs,	ipsīs.

103. Demonstrative pronouns point to an object. Hic, haec, hoc, points to an object near to the speaker, and accordingly answers to the English 'this;' whereas ille, illa, illud, points to a more distant object, and answers to the English 'that,' or 'yon.' Iste, ista, istud, refers to the person spoken to, or to things connected with him, and is accordingly termed the demonstrative of the second person.

As by using hic a speaker may point to himself, hic, hace, hoc, is sometimes called the demonstrative of the first person, while ille, illa, illud, pointing to a distant object, or the one spoken of, is termed the demonstrative of the third person. Is, ea, id, generally refers to something mentioned before, being almost equivalent to 'the person or thing mentioned before,' or it is followed by an explanatory relative clause, as in English 'he who,' is qui. This pronoun can hardly be called a demonstrative. Idem, eadem, idem, 'the same,' expresses unity or identity.

104. The declension of the demonstrative pronouns has many peculiarities.

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.				
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.		Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	hic,	haec,	hōc.	Nom.	hī,	hae,	haec.
Gen.	hūjus,	hūjus,	hūjus.	Gen.	hốrum,	hārum,	hōrum.
		hūic,		Dat.		hīs,	hīs.
Acc.	hunc,	hanć,	hōc.	Acc.	hōs,	hās,	haec.
Abl.	hōc,	hāc,	hōc.	Abl.	hīs,	hīs,	hīs.

	PLURAL.					
Masc.	Fem.	Neut.		Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom. is,	еă,	ĭd.	Nom.	$i\bar{\imath}$ (ei),	eae,	eă.
Gen. ējus,	ējus,	ējus.	Gen.	eōrum,	eārum,	eōrum.
Dat. eī,	eī,	$e \bar{\imath}$ .	Dat.	iīs (eīs),	iīs (eīs),	iīs (eīs.)
Acc. eum,	eam,	ĭd.	Acc.	eōs,	eās,	eă.
Abl. eō,	eā,				iīs (eīs),	iis(eis.)

Ille, illa, illud, and iste, ista, istud, are both declined like ipse (No. 102)—as, gen. illius, dat. illi, &c.; istius, isti, &c. Idem, eddem, idem, being composed of is, ea, id, with the suffix dem, is declined like is, ea, id, with dem attached to it—as, gen. ejusdem, dat. eidem, acc. eundem, eandem, idem, &c. The n in eundem and eandem is merely a euphonic change for eumdem, eamdem, and so also in the genitive plural eorundem and earundem.

105. The possessive pronouns are real adjectives of three terminations (masculine us or er, feminine a, neuter um); the masculine and neuter following the second, and the feminine the first declension. They are—meus, meu, meum, my; tuus, tua, tuum, thy; suus, sua, suum, his; noster, nostra, nostrum, our; vester, vestra, vestrum, your. Meus, however, makes the vocative singular masculine mi instead of meë.

There is a class of possessive pronouns ending in as (for all genders), genitive dtis—as nostras, vestras, and cujas; these signify 'belonging to our, your, whose country, family, or party;' so that nostrates means our countrymen, or the men of our party or family.

106. The relative pronoun qui, quae, quod, 'who,' or 'which,' generally refers to a noun in a preceding clause, and introduces an explanatory clause—as Socrates, who was the wisest of the Athenians, was sentenced to death. Its declension is as follows:—

SINGULAR.			PLURAL.				
	Masc.	Fem.	Neut.		Masc.	Fem.	Neut.
Nom.	quī,	quae,	quod.			quae,	quae.
Gen.	cūjus,	cūjus,	cūjus.	Gen.	quorum,	quārum,	quōrum.
Dat.	$c\overline{u}i$ ,	$c\overline{u}\imath$ ,	cũī.	Dat.	quĭbus,	quĭbus,	quĭbus.
Acc.	quem,	quam,	quod.	Acc.	quōs,	quās,	quae.
Abl.	quō,	qua,	quō.	Abl.	quĭbus,	quibus,	quĭbus.

107. The compound quicunque, quaecunque, quodcunque, signifies 'whoever' or 'whichever;' and quisquis (masc. and fem.), quidquid (neut.), denotes 'every one who.' Quicunque, in all its genders, is joined to substantives, and is accordingly treated as an adjective; quisquis is likewise sometimes joined to substantives, but quidquid never, and is accordingly regarded as a substantive. Quicunque is declined like qui, cunque being

merely affixed to the cases—as cujuscunque, cuicunque, quemcunque, &c. Quisquis commonly occurs only in the nominative masculine, the nominative and accusative neuter (quidquid),

and in the ablative masculine and neuter (quoquo.)

108. There are two interrogative pronouns, quis, quae, quid, and qui, quae, quod, the latter of which is in form the same as the relative pronoun. The former has the nature of a substantive, and is therefore not joined to a substantive, but used by itself, while the latter, having the nature of an adjective, is joined to a substantive—as quid facis? 'what art thou doing?'—quod facinus commist?' what crime has he committed?'

109. The declension of the interrogative pronouns is the same as that of the relative. When a question is to be expressed with a certain degree of impatience, the particle num is attached to quis—as quisnam, quaenam, quidnam, or

quodnam, 'who then?' or 'what then?'

The ablative singular for all genders, qui, occurs only in the sense of 'in what manner?' or 'how?'—as qui fit? 'how does it happen?'—qui convenit?' 'how is it consistent?'

110. The indefinite pronouns express an indefinite generality. Their declension is almost the same as that of the relative pronoun.

The most common indefinite pronoun is aliquis, aliqua, aliquid and aliquod (some one.) The neuter, aliquid, has the nature of a substantive, and aliquod that of an adjective. The masculine aliquis is used both as a substantive and as an adjective. The feminine singular and the neuter plural differ in termination from the relative pronoun, being aliqua, and not aliquae, which is the feminine plural. There is also a simple form without the prefix ali (from the obsolete form alis, neut. alid.); namely, quis, quae, quid, and qui, qua, quod, which is declined like the relative, except that the feminine is both quae and qua, and the neuter plural likewise both quae and qua. Quid is used only as a substantive, and quod as an adjective. Quis may be used in both senses—as dicat quis, 'some one may say;' si quis dux, 'if any general.' It may be said, in general, that this simple indefinite occurs only after the particles si, nisi, ne, num, and after the relatives quo, quanto, and quum.

Another indefinite pronoun is ecquis, ecqua, ecquid, and ecqui, ecquae, ecquod (from en and quis), signifying 'whether any one.' A strengthened

form is ecquisnam or numquisnam.

Quidam, quaedam, quiddam and quoddam, 'a certain one.' The form quiddam is a substantive, and quoddam an adjective. It is declined like the relative, gen. cujusdam, dat. cuidam, &c.

Aliquispiam, or quispiam, quaepiam, quidpiam and quodpiam. Quispiam is chiefly used as a substantive, but aliquispiam occurs also as an

adjective, and quidpiam is used only as a substantive.

Quisquam (masc. and fem.), quidquam (neut.), 'any one,' occurs only in negative clauses, or at least has always a negative meaning. Quisquam is used both as a substantive and as an adjective—as scriptor quisquam, 'any writer;' quisquam Gallus, 'any Gaul;' but it has no

plural. Ullus, which has the same meaning as quisquam, occurs only

as an adjective, excepting a few passages.

Quivis, quilibet (any one who pleases, from vis, 'thou wilt,' and libet, 'it pleases'), and quisque (every one), are declined like the relative; when used as substantives, they make the neuter quid, and when used as adjectives, quod.

Unusquisque, unaquaeque, unumquidque and unumquodque, 'every one,' is declined in both the words of which it is composed—as gen. uniuscujusque, dat. unicuique, acc. unumquemque, unamquumque, &c.

Quincunque, quaecunque, quodcunque, 'whosoever,' or 'whichsoever,'

has no neuter quidcunque.

Quisquis, quidquid, generally occurs only in these two forms as a substantive. Its place is supplied by quicunque, which has the same meaning. (See No. 107.)

111. Besides the pronouns above enumerated, there are others, commonly termed pronominal adjectives:—

Uter, utra, utrum, 'which of two,' and its compounds utervis, uterlibet, utercunque (which of the two you please), uterque (each of two or both), and alteruter (either the one or the other.) They are all declined like uter, gen. utrius, dat. utri. In alteruter, sometimes both words are declined, and sometimes the latter only—as gen. alterius utrius, acc. alterum utrum, or alterutrum.

Neuter, neutra, neutrum (that is, ne or non uter), 'neither of the two,'

is declined like uter.

Alter, altëra, altërum, 'one of two,' or 'the second,' gen. alterius, dat. alteri. &c.

Alius, alia, aliud, 'another,' gen. alius, dat. alii, is never used in speaking of two; hence it means 'another,' and not 'the other.'

Ullus, ulla, ullum, 'any,' gen. ullius, dat. ulli, &c. Nullus, a, um (that is, ne or non ullus), 'none,' or 'no one.'

112. There is another class of pronominal adjectives, denoting the nature, size, or number of things. Some of them can express the same idea in a demonstrative, relative, interrogative,

or indefinite form; and those in which this is the case are termed correlatives, as—

Demonstrative.  talis, e, such a one.	Relative and Interrog. qualis, e, as, or of what kind.	Indefinite. qualiscunque and qualislibet, of
tantus, a, um, so great.	quantus, a, um, as great, or how great?	whatever kind. quantuscunque and quantuslibet, however great.
tot (indeclinable), so many. totidem, just as	quot, as many, or how many?	quoteunque and quotquot, how- ever many.
many.	quotus, a, um, which in the series?	

There are a few with the prefix ali—as aliquantus, of a certain or tolerable greatness; aliquot, some or a few; which may likewise be classed among the indefinite pronominal adjectives.

113. From pronouns are formed a number of pronominal adverbs, denoting place where; place whither; and place whence;—the way, manner, or time in which anything is done:—

- 1. Pronominal adverbs denoting the place where anything is done:—ibi, here or there; hic, here; istic, there, near you; illic, in that place; ibidem, in the same place; altbi, elsewhere; ubi, where; ubicunque and ubiubi, wherever; alicubi, somewhere; uspiam and usquam, anywhere; nusquam, nowhere; utrobīque, in both places; ubiris and ubilibet, anywhere; ubique, everywhere. All these adverbs ending in i (those in e have the demonstrative enclitic ce attached) are properly ancient datives or locatives, denoting place where.
- 2. Pronominal adverbs denoting the place whither anything proceeds:—eo, thither; huc, hither; istue and isto, to the place where you are; illue and illo, thither, or to the place where he (or it) is; eodem, to the same place or part; alio, to another place; quo, to which place; utro, to which of two places; quocunque, quoquo, to which place soever; quovis, quolibet, to whichever place you please; aliquo, to some place; utroque, to both places; usquam, to any place; nusquam, to no place.
  - 3. Pronominal adverbs denoting the place whence anything proceeds: inde, thence; hinc, from this place; istinc, from that place where you are; illinc, from that place where he or it is; indidem, from the same place; aliunde, from another place; unde, whence; undecunque, undeunde, whencesoever; alicunde, from some place; utrinque, from both sides or places; undique, from any or all sides; undelibet, whencesoever you please.
  - 4. Pronominal adverbs denoting the way or manner in which anything is done: eā, in that way; hāc, istāc, illāc or illā, eādem, ita, sic, ut or uti, aliā, quā, quī, quācunque, quāquā, aliquā, quāvis, and quālibet.

All these forms are properly ablatives of the feminine, to which the substantive viā or ratione may be understood. They also appear in the compounds eatenus and quatenus.

- 5. Pronominal adverbs denoting time:—the demonstrative tum or tunc, then; the interrogative quando, when? ecquando, whether ever; the relative quum, when; the indefinite aliquando, at some time; quandocunque and quandoque, whenever; unquam, ever; nunquam, never.
- 6. Pronominal adverbs of degree:—as tam, so, so much; quam, as, as much, or how much? quantumvis or quamvis, however much; and the compound adeo, to that degree.
- 7. Pronominal adverbs of number:—toties, so often; quoties, as often, or how often? quotiescunque, however often; aliquoties, sometimes.
- 8. Pronominal adverbs of cause :—eo, hoc, for this reason; quod or quia, because; cur, why?

#### THE VERB.

114. A verb is a word which denotes that a person or thing is in a certain state or condition, performs an action, or is acted upon. It therefore always implies existence and time; for whatever exists, exists in time. For example: I sleep—that is, I am asleep at the present time; I sat all day long—that is, I was sitting all day long (in past time); I have worked—that is,

I have been (in past time) at work.

115. Verbs which denote that the action expressed by them terminates in the agent or subject are called *intransitive* verbs. For example: 'I run,' 'I walk,' are actions complete in themselves without requiring an object. Verbs, on the other hand, which denote that the action of the agent passes from the agent to an object, are called *transitive* verbs—as 'I purchase,' 'I strike;' these are actions requiring an object, and cannot be fully understood unless that object is mentioned or understood from the context—as 'I purchase a house,' 'I strike the offender.'

116. The object of a transitive verb is generally in the accusative. The object in which the action terminates may also be considered as the subject in the state of undergoing the action. Hence every transitive verb has an active and a passive form. 'I strike you,' therefore, is the active form, but 'you are struck by me' is the passive form. Intransitive verbs, however, generally have no passive form; and when it does occur, it is only as an impersonal verb—as curritur, 'running is taking place;' or, as we should say, 'they' or 'people run.'

In the case of a transitive verb, the subject may at the same time be the object—as amo me, I love myself; amat se, he loves himself. In this case a verb is said to be used in a reflective sense. Many verbs assume a passive form to express their reflective meaning—as delector, I delight myself, or am delighted; fallor, I am deceived, or deceive myself.

117. There are numerous verbs in Latin which have a passive form, but an active meaning. These are called *Deponents*—as *imitor*, I imitate; *hortor*, I admonish; *morior*, I die; *reminiscor*, I remember. Many of them are in reality passives, or verbs used in a reflective sense—such as *vehor*, I ride in a carriage, properly signifies 'I am carried;' *versor*, I stay in a place, properly signifies 'I turn myself.'

118. A few verbs, however, have an active form, but a passive meaning—as fio, I become, or am made; vapulo, I am beaten; veneo, I am sold—such are called neuter passives. Some again

have a passive form in the past participle, and the tenses formed from it, though in meaning, as well as in all their other forms, they are active—as audeo, I dare; fido, I trust; gaudeo, I rejoice; soleo, I am wont; their perfects, therefore, being ausus sum, fisus sum, gavisus sum, solitus sum. These are termed Semideponents.

119. The Latin language has four moods, or modes, of representing a state or action, and each of them is indicated by

special forms of the verb.

 The Indicative represents a state or action simply as a fact—as laudo, I praise; laudavi, I have praised; laudabo, I shall praise; laudor, I am praised.

 The Subjunctive represents a state or action as possible, conceivable, or desirable—laudet aliquis, some one may praise; opto ut reniat, I

wish that he may come; veniat, let him come!

3. The Imperative represents a state or action in the form of a command

-as lauda, praise; scribite, write ye.

4. The Infinitive represents a state or action in the most general and indefinite manner, without ascribing it to any subject—as laudare, to praise; laudavisse, to have praised; scribere, to write; scripsisse, to have written.

120. Besides these moods, the verb has certain forms which may be classed among nouns (at least so far as their form is concerned), and are accordingly declinable. These are—

1. The Supine, which has only an accusative in um, and an ablative in u—as amatum and amatu; lectum and lectu; auditum and auditu.

The Gerund likewise expresses a state or action in a general way.
 It also is a verbal noun ending in ndum, but it is used only in its oblique cases—as gen. amandi, dat. amando, acc. amandum, abl. amando.

3. The Participles are in form adjectives derived from verbs, but at the same time retain the idea of time which is inherent in the verb. A verb may have two participles in the active and two in the passive. Those in the active are the participle of the present ending in ns for all genders, and the participle of the future ending in -urus, -a, -um; the former represents the action as going on or in progress, and the latter as going to take place in future—as amans, loving; scribens, writing; amalurus, going to love, or about to love; scripturus, going to write, or about to write. The two participles of the passive are the past participle ending in -us, -a, -um, and what is called the gerundive, ending in ndus, -nda, -ndum; the former represents an action in a state of completion, the latter indicates that it is going on, or must take place—as amatus, loved; scriptus, written; auditus, heard; amandus, to be loved; audiendus, to be heard.

Intransitive verbs, having no regular passive voice, cannot have either of the passive participles; but their neuter is nevertheless used in connection with the verb esse, 'to be '—as cursum est, running has taken place, or people have been running; currendum est, there is a necessity for running. Deponent verbs have the four participles—as imitans, imitating; imitatus, having imitated; imitaturus, about to

imitate; and imitandus, to be imitated.



121. Every state or action is represented as taking place either in past, or present, or future time. But in each of these times a state or action may be described as completed, or as progressing. Hence arise six forms or Tenses to express the different times and relations of a state or action; and a verb is said to have six tenses, which might occur in all the moods: but the Latin language has its six tenses, both in the active and passive, of the Indicative only; the Subjunctive has but five; the Infinitive three; and the Imperative only two. Three of these tenses represent a state or action as not completed or in a state of progress, and the three remaining as completed. The three tenses expressing incompleteness or progression are—

The Present—as laudo, I praise, or am praising; and laudor, I am praised; the action not being terminated at the present time.
 The IMPERFECT—as laudabam, I praised, or was praising; and lauda-

The IMPERFECT—as laudabam, I praised, or was praising; and laudabar, I was being praised; the action is past, but not completed in past time.

 The FUTURE—as laudabo, I shall praise, or shall be praising; laudabor, I shall be praised; the action is future, but not yet completed.

The three tenses expressing a completed action are—

1. The Perfect — as laudavi, I have praised; laudatus sum, I have been praised, denoting a past action completed at the present time.

2. The PLUPERFECT—as laudaveram, I had praised; and laudatus eram, I had been praised, denoting a past action completed in past time.

 The FUTURE PERFECT—as laudavero, I shall be praised; and laudavus ero, I shall have been praised, denoting an action completed in future time.

When a state or action is ascribed to one person or thing, the verb is in the singular; when to two or more, in the plural—as laudo, I praise; laudamus, we praise. A state or action further may be assigned to the person or persons speaking (I or we), to the person or persons spoken to (thou or you), and to the person or persons spoken of (he, she, it, or they.) There are accordingly three persons in the singular, and three in the plural, which are commonly distinguished by the terms, the first, second, and third person singular or plural. The two numbers occur in all moods except the infinitive, and the three different persons only in the indicative and subjunctive; the imperative has only the second and third persons, and the infinitive does not assign an action to any person at all. The pronouns I, thou, he (she, it), we, you, they, are usually not expressed in Latin, as they are sufficiently indicated by the terminations of the verb itself; they are expressed only when they have a particular emphasis.

To put a verb through the active and passive voice, through its moods, tenses, numbers, and persons, is called the conjugation of a verb. Conjugation, like declension, consists mainly in change of termination. These terminations may be classified, according to the persons, in the active as well as in the passive voice. In the active, the first person singular, in all the tenses and moods, except the imperative, terminates in o, i, or m; in the passive in r: the second

person singular in the active in s or sti; in the passive in ris: the third person singular active in t; in the passive in tur: the first person plural active ends in mus; in the passive in mur: the second person plural active ends in tis; and in the passive in min: the third person plural active ends in mt; and in the passive in mtur.

122. The different manners in which the terminations marking the moods, tenses, numbers, and persons are united with the stem of the verb, and the difference among the stems themselves, render it necessary to divide all verbs into four classes;

hence there arise four conjugations.

123. The first conjugation, which may be termed the a conjugation, comprises all verbs whose stems end in a, which in the first person of the present indicative is contracted with the o of the termination into o, and in the present subjunctive is changed into  $\bar{e}$ —as amo, amem, from the stem ama; but in all other forms of the verb it reappears—as in ama-s, thou lovest; ama-t, he loves; ama-re, to love. The infinitive of verbs of this conjugation always ends in -are.

124. The second, called also the e conjugation, comprises all verbs whose stems end in e—as mone-o, I admonish; monē-re, to admonish; doce-bam, I taught; docē-re, to teach. The

infinitive of this conjugation always ends in -ēre.

125. The third or consonant conjugation comprises all verbs whose stems end in a consonant or the vowel u—as scrib-o, I write; scrib-ere, to write; minu-o, I lessen; minu-ere, to lessen. The infinitive of verbs of the third conjugation invariably ends in -ere—as facto, facere.

- A few insert i in the present indicative and the tenses formed from it—as cap-i-o, I take; present subjunctive, cap-i-am; imperfect indicative, cap-i-ebam; future indicative, cap-i-am; participle present, cap-i-ens; but in all other tenses the i is omitted.
- 126. The fourth conjugation, called also the *i* conjugation, comprises those verbs whose stems end in *i*, which is retained in all the moods and tenses—as audi-o, I hear; audi-e-bam, I heard; audi-vi, I have heard; audi-re, to hear. The infinitive of the fourth conjugation invariably ends in -ire.

As the stems of verbs of the first and second conjugations end in a vowel, the terminations are simply added to the stem—as amo, ama-s, ama-t, ama-mus, ama-tis, ama-nt; mone-o, mone-s, mone-t, mone-mus, mone-tis, mone-nt, and so also in the passive; but in the third conjugation a connecting vowel is inserted between the stem and the termination—as leg-o, leg-i-s, leg-i-t, leg-i-mus, leg-i-tis, leg-u-nt. The fourth conjugation likewise sometimes requires a connecting vowel—as in audi-e-bam, audi-u-nt.

127. The present indicative in each conjugation ends in o, and the infinitive respectively in āre, ēre, ēre, īre. But in order to be able to form the complete conjugation of a verb, it is

necessary, in addition to the present indicative and infinitive, to know the perfect indicative and the supine, since several other tenses are formed immediately from these.

128. The perfect is formed in the first and fourth conjugations by simply adding vi to the stem—as amā-vi, audī-vi. In the second conjugation the e of the stem is thrown out, and the termination ui is added—as mone-o, mon-ui.

129. In the third conjugation the perfect ends sometimes in si and sometimes in ui. The verbs whose stems end in u simply add i to them—as minu-o, minu-i. Those of which the stem ends in a consonant take si. When the stem ends in c, g, h, or qu, these consonants coalesce with s into x—as dic-o, dixi; reg-o, rexi; veho, vexi; coquo, coxi; b before 8 is changed into p—as scrib-o, scripsi; and d is thrown out as laed-o, lae-si; but sometimes the s also must give way—as in defend-o, defend-i, instead of defend-si. The perfect in ui occurs chiefly in verbs ending in lo and mo—as alo, alui; molo, molui; gemo, gemui.

Some verbs whose stems end in consonants make their perfect by simply adding i—as lego, legi; emo, emi; and it should be observed that all verbs of this kind lengthen the vowel of the penult when it is short, as in the two examples just given: the only verbs in which the vowel of the penult remains short are -bib-i, fid-i, scid-i, and tül-i, from bibo, findo, scindo, and fero.

130. The supine is formed in the first, third, and fourth conjugations, by adding tum (abl. tu) to the stem of the verb —as am-o, ama-tum, em-o, em-tum, audi-o, audi-tum. It must, however, be observed that b before t is changed into p; and q, h, and qu, into c-as scrib-o, scrip-tum; leg-o, lec-tum; trah-o, trac-tum; coqu-o, coc-tum. Verbs of the third conjugation, whose stems end in d, make their supines in sum (abl. su), before which the d is thrown out—as laed-o, lae-sum; claud-o, clau-sum. Verbs of the second conjugation change the e of the stem into i before tum—as mone-o, moni-tum.

131. It now remains to shew how from the four principal forms of a verb-namely, the present, perfect, infinitive, and

supine—all the remaining forms are derived.

(a.) From the present are formed—

1. The present subjunctive active, by changing in the first conjugation the o into em-as am-o, am-em; and in the three other conjugations into am-as mone-o, mone-am; leg-o, leg-am; audi-o, audi-am.

2. The present indicative passive, by the addition of r-as am-o, am-or;

mone-o, mone-or; leg-o, leg-or; audi-o, audi-or.

3. The present subjunctive passive, by changing the m of the present subjunctive active into r-as am-em, am-er; mone-am, mone-ar; leg-am, leg-ar; audi-am, audi-ar.

4. The imperfect indicative active, in the first and second conjugations, by adding bam to the stem; and in the third and fourth, by prefixing the connecting vowel ē before bam-as am-o, ama-bam; mone-o, mone-bam; leg-o, leg-e-bam; audi-o, audi-e-bam.

5. The imperfect indicative passive, by changing the m of the imperfect indicative active into r-as ama-bar, mone-bar, leg-e-bar,

audi-e-bar.

6. The future indicative active, in the first and second conjugations, by adding bo to the stem—as ama-bo, mone-bo; in the third and fourth, by changing the o of the present into am—as leg-o, leg-am; fac-i-o, fac-i-am; audi-o, audi-am.

The future indicative passive, in the first and second conjugations, by adding r to the bo in the future indicative active—as ama-bor, mone-bor; in the third and fourth conjugations, by changing the m

of the future indicative active into r—as leg-ar, audi-ar.

8. The participle present, by adding ns to the stem; in addition to which, however, in the third and fourth conjugations, the connecting vowel e is inserted between the stem and the termination ns—as ama-ns, mone-ns, leg-e-ns, audi-e-ns. From this participle, again, is formed the gerund and gerundivum, by changing s into dum and dus--as ama-ndus and ama-ndum, &c.

(b.) From the perfect are formed-

1. The perfect subjunctive active, by changing the i of the perfect into ĕrim—as ama-vi, ama-verim; mon-ui, mon-uerim; leg-i, leg-erim; audi-vi, audi-verim.

2. The pluperfect indicative active, by changing the i of the perfect into eram-as ama-vi, ama-veram; mon-ui, mon-ueram; leg-i, leg-

eram; audi-vi, audi-veram.

- 3. The pluperfect subjunctive active, by changing the i of the perfect into issem—as ama-vi, ama-vissem; mon-ui, mon-uissem; leg-i, legissem; audi-vi, audi-vissem.
- 4. The future perfect active, by changing i into ĕro—as ama-vi, ama-
- vero; mon-ui, mon-uero; leg-i, leg-ero; audi-vi, audi-vero.

  5. The perfect infinitive active, by changing i into isse—as ama-vi, ama-visse; mon-ui, mon-uisse; leg-i, leg-isse; audi-vi, audi-visse.
- (c.) From the present infinitive active are formed—
- 1. The imperfect subjunctive active, by adding m to the termination re—as ama-re, ama-rem; mone-re, mone-rem; leg-e-re, leg-e-rem; audi-re, audi-rem.
- 2. The imperfect subjunctive passive, by adding r to the termination of the infinitive re—as ama-re, ama-rer; mone-re, mone-rer; leg-e-re, leg-e-rer; audi-re, audi-rer.
- 3. The imperative active, by dropping the termination re—as ama-re, amā; mone-re, monē; leg-e-re, legĕ; audi-re, audī.
- 4. The imperative passive, which in all conjugations is quite like the infinitive active.
- 5. The infinitive present passive, by changing re into ri—as ama-re, ama-ri; mone-re, mone-ri; audi-re, audi-ri; but in the third conjugation the two syllables ere are changed into i—as leg-e-re, leg-i.
- (d.) From the supine are formed—
- 1. The participle perfect passive, by changing um into us, a, um—as ama-tum, ama-tus, a, um; moni-tum, moni-tus, a, um; lec-tum, lec-tus, a, um; audi-tum, audi-tus, a, um.



2. The participle future active, by changing um into ūrus, a, um—as ama-tum, ama-turus, a, um; moni-tum, moni-turus, a, um; lec-tum, lec-turus, a, um; audi-tum, audi-turus, a, um.

Some tenses cannot be formed without the auxiliary verb Esse, 'to be.' These tenses are in the active, the future subjunctive, and the future infinitive, which consist of the participle future active with esse; and in the passive, the perfect indicative and subjunctive, the pluperfect indicative and subjunctive, the future perfect, and the perfect infinitive, which consist of the participle perfect passive with esse.

## THE VERB ESSE, TO BE.

132. Esse is the only Latin auxiliary, but is also used as a principal verb, denoting existence. Its conjugation is irregular; the perfect, and the tenses derived from it, are formed from the obsolete verb fuo, and the remaining tenses from the stem ès; so that the present sum, sim, sumus, sunt, sis, sit, &c. are shortened forms for es-um, es-im, es-umus, es-unt, es-is, es-it, &c. The s of the stem is in some forms changed into r, as is most common in the Latin language—as eram, ero, for esam, eso. Esse has neither gerund nor supine.

## PRINCIPAL FORMS.

Present Indicative. Perfect. Present Infinitive. sum. Present Infinitive. esse.

PRESENT.

INDICATIVE MOOD.

SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

Plur. sumus, we are.
estis, you are.
sunt, they are.

Sing. ĕr-am, I was.

ĕr-ās, thou wert.

er-at, he (she or it) was.
Plur. er-amus, we were.
er-atis, you were.
er-ant, they were.

Sing. sim, I am, or may be.
sīs, thou art, or mayst be.
sīt, he is, or may be.

Plur. sīmus, we are, or may be. sītis, you are, or may be. sint, they are, or may be.

IMPERFECT.

Sing. ess-em, I was, might, or should be.

ess - ēs, thou wert, mightst, or shouldst be.

ess-ēt, he was, &c.
Plur. ess-ēmus, we were, &c.
ess-ētis, you were, &c.
ess-ent, they were, &c.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

## FUTURE.

Sing. ĕr-o, I shall be.

ĕr-is, thou wilt be.

ĕr-it, he will be.

Plur. ĕr-ĭmus, we shall be.

er-itis, you will be.

*er-unt*, they will be.

Sing. fü-türus (a, um) sim, I shall be, or may be about to be.

fu-turus sis, thou wilt be, or mayst be about to be.

fu-turus sit, he will be,

Plur. fu-turi (ae, a) simus, we shall be, &c.

fu-turi sītis, you will be,

fu-turi sint, they will be, &c.

## PERFECT.

fu-istī, thou wert, or hast been.

fu-it, he was, or has been.

Plur. fu-imus, we were, or have been.

fu-istis, you were, or have been.

fu-erunt, or fu-ere, they were, or have been.

Sing. fu-i, I was, or have been. | Sing. fu-ërim, I have been, or may have been.

fu-ĕris, thou hast been, or mayst have been.

fu-ĕrit, he has been, &c.

Plur. fu - ěrimus, we have been, &c.

fu-erttis, you have been, &c.

fu-ĕrint, they have been, &c.

## PLUPERFECT.

Sing. fu-ĕram, I had been.

fu-ĕrās, thou hadst been.

fu-ĕrăt, he had been. Plur. fu-ĕrāmus, we had been.

fu-ĕrātĭs, you had been.

fu-ĕrant, they had been.

Sing. fu-issem, I had been, or I might or should have been.

> fu-isses, thou hadst been. or thou mightst or wouldst have been.

fu-issět, he had been, &c. Plur. fu-issēmus, we had been,

fu-issētis, you had been,

fu-issent, they had been. &c.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

## FUTURE PERFECT.

Sing. fu-ĕro, I shall have been.

fu-ĕris, thou wilt have been.

fu-ĕrit, he will have

Plur. fu-ĕrīmus, we shall have | The Subjunctive does not exist. been.

fu-ĕrītis, you will have

fu-ĕrint, they will have

### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

PRESENT.

FUTURE.

Sing. &, be thou.

Sing. es-to, thou shalt be. es-to, he shall be.

Plur. es-tě, be ye.

Plur. es-tōtĕ, you shall be. sunto, they shall be.

## INFINITIVE MOOD.

Present infinitive, esse, to be.

Perfect infinitive, fu-isse, to have been.

Future infinitive, fu-turum, am, um, esse, or fore, to be about to be.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Present, does not exist.

Future,  $f\bar{u}$ -turus, a, um, one who is to be, or is about to be.

The participle present, if it did exist, should be es-ens or sens, as it actually does occur in the compounds ab-sens, absent (from absum),

and prae-sens, present (from praesum.)

The compounds absum, I am absent; 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 pro-d-est, pro-d-eram, pro-d-essem, pro-d-ero, pro-d-esse; but prosum, prosim, profui, &c. are regular. Possum (I am able, or I can) is composed of potis sum or pot sum; but its conjugation is irregular.

Instead of the infinitive futurum (am, um) esse, there is another form, fore (connected with fuo); and instead of the imperfect subjunctive essem, we have (likewise from fuo) forem, fores, foret, and forent.

#### THE FOUR REGULAR CONJUGATIONS.

The following specimens of the four conjugations may serve as models according to which all other regular verbs are conjugated. Lego, although it has a slight irregularity, has been chosen as an example of the third conjugation, because its very irregularity renders unnecessary all change of the stem, which might tend to confuse rather than assist the learner at the outset.

#### FIRST CONJUGATION.

## ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT. PERFECT. ămā-vī. ămð.

SUPINE. ămā-tum. INFINITIVE. ămā-rē.

#### INDICATIVE.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PRESENT.

Sing. ămő, I love.

amā-s, thou lovest.

amă-t, he loves.

Phir. amā-mus, we love.

amā-tis, you love.

ama-nt, they love.

Sing. am-em, I love, or may love.

> am-ēs, thou lovest, or mayst love.

> am-ĕt, he loves, or may love.

Plur. am-ēmus, we love, or may love.

am-ētis, you love, or may love.

am-ent, they love, or may love.

## IMPERFECT.

Sing. amā-bam, I was loving, | Sing. amā-rem, I loved, might, or loved.

amā-bās, thou wert loving, or lovedst.

 $am\bar{a}$ - $b\check{a}t$ , he was loving, or loved.

Plur. amā-bāmus, we were Plur. amā-rēmus, we loved, loving, or loved.

amā-bātīs, you were loving, or loved.

amā-bant, they were loving, or loved.

or should love.

amā-rēs, thou lovedst. mightst, or shouldst

amā-rět, he loved, might, or should love.

might, or should love. amā-rētis, you loved,

might, or should love. amā-rent, they loved,

might, or should love.

FUTURE.

#### INDICATIVE.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sing. amā-bo, I shall love.

amā-bīs, thou wilt love.

amā-bǐt, he will love.

Plur. amā-bīmus, we shall love.

amā-bītis, you will love.

amā-bunt, they will love.

PERFECT.

Sing. amā-vē, I loved, or have | Sing. amā-vērim, I have loved, loved.

amā-vistī, thou lovedst, or hast loved.

· amā-vit, he loved, or has loved.

Plur. amā-vīmus, we loved, or have loved.

amā-vistis, you loved, or have loved.

amā-vērunt, or amāvere, they loved, or have loved.

I shall love, or may be about to love. amā-tūrus (a, um) sis,

Sing. amā-tūrus (a, um) sim,

thou wilt love, or mayst be about to love.

amā-tūrus (a, um) sit, he will love, &c.

Plur. amā-tūri (ae, a) simus, we shall love, &c.

amā-tūri (ae, a) sitis, you will love, &c. amā-tūri (ae, a) sint,

they will love, &c.

or may have loved.

amā-věris, thou hast loved, or mayst have loved.

amā-věršt, he has loved, &c.

Plur. amā-vērīmus, we have loved, &c.

amā-věrītis, you have loved, &c.

amā-vērint, they have loved, &c.

#### PLUPERFECT.

Sing. amā-věram, I had loved. | Sing. amā-vissem,

amā-věras, thou hadst loved.

amā-věrăt, he had loved. Plur. amā-vērāmus, we had loved.

amā-věrātis, you had loved.

ama-věrant, they had loved.

might, or should have loved.

amā-vissēs, thou hadst, mightst, or shouldst have loved.

amā-vissět, he had, &c. Plur. amā-vissēmus, we had, &c.

amā-vissētis, you had, &c.

amā-vissent, they had, &c.

# SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### FUTURE PERFECT.

Sing. amā-vēro, I shall have loved.

amā-vēris, thou wilt have loved.

amā-vērit; he will have loved.

Plur. amā-vēritus, we shall have loved.

amā-vēritis, you will have loved.

amā-vērint, they will have loved.

The Subjunctive does not exist.

## IMPERATIVE.

#### PRESENT.

FUTURE.

Sing. amā, love thou.

Sing. amā-to, thou shalt love.

amā-to, he shall love.

Plur. amā-tōte, ye shall love.

Plur. amā-tě, love ye.

Plur. amā-tōte, ye shall love. ama-nto, they shall love.

#### INFINITIVE.

Present, amā-rě, to love.

Perfect, amā-visse, to have loved.

Future, amā-tūrum (am, um) esse, to be about to love.

### GERUND.

Gen. ama-ndi, of loving.

Dat.  $ama-nd\bar{o}$ , to loving.

Acc. ama-ndum, loving.

Abl. ama-ndo, with or by loving.

#### SUPINE.

amā-tum (in order), to love; and amā-tu, to be loved.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Present, ama-ns, loving.

Future, amā-tūrus, being about to love.

#### PASSIVE VOICE.

#### INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

## PRESENT.

Sing. amor, I am loved.

amā-ris, or re, thou art loved.

 $am\bar{a}$ - $t\check{u}r$ , he is loved.

Sing. am-ēr, I am loved, or may be loved.

am-ērš, or am-ērš, thou art loved, or mayst be loved.

am-ētŭr, he is loved, &c.

## PRESENT.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

Plur.  $am\bar{a}$ - $m\bar{u}r$ , we are loved.

amā-mĭnī, you are loved.

amā-ntŭr, they are loved.

Plur.  $am-\bar{e}m\bar{u}r$ , we are loved, &c. am-ēmīnī, you are loved,

> am-entur, they are loved, &c.

#### IMPERFECT.

Sing. amā-bar, I was loved, or | Sing. amā-rer, I was, might was being loved. amā-bāris, or bāre, thou

wert loved, &c. amā-bātŭr, he was loved,

Plur.  $am\bar{a} - b\bar{a}m\breve{u}r$ , we were

loved, &c. amā-bāmīnī, you were loved, &c. amā-bantur, they were loved, &c.

be, or should be loved. amā-rēris, or rērē, thou wert, mightst be, or shouldst be loved. amā-rētŭr, he was, &c.

Plur. amā-rēmur, we were, &c.

amā-rēmīnī, you were, &c. amā-rentur, they were,

## FUTURE.

Sing. amā-bor, I shall be loved. ama-běris, or běrě, thou wilt be loved. amā-bitur, he will be

loved. Plur. amā-bīmūr, we shall be loved.

amā-bīmīnī, you will be loved.

amā-buntur, they will be loved.

The subjunctive is wanting.

### PERFECT.

Sing. amā-tūs (ă, um) sum, I | Sing. amā-tūs (ă, um) sim, I was, or have been loved.

amā-tūs (ă, um) es, thou wert, or hast been loved.

amā-tūs (ă, um) est, he was, or has been loved.

have been, or may have been loved. amā-tus (ă, um) sis, thou hast been, &c.

> amā-tus (ă, um) sit, he has been, &c.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PERFECT.

Plur. amā-tī (ae, ă) sumus, | Plur. amā-tī (ae, ă) simus, we we were, &c. amā-tī (ae, ă) estis, you were, &c. amā-tī (ae, ă) sunt, they were, &c.

have been, &c. amā-tī (ae, ă) sitis, you have been, &c. amā-tī (ae, ă) sint, they have been. &c.

## PLUPERFECT.

Sing. ama-tus (a, um) eram, I | Sing. ama-tus (a, um) essem, had been loved.

ama-tus (a, um) eras, thou hadst been loved. ama-tus (a, um) erat, he had been loved.

Plur. ama-ti (ae, a) eramus, we had been loved. ama-ti (ae, a) eratis, you had been loved. ama-ti (ae, a) erant, they had been loved.

I had been, might, or should have been loved. ama-tus (a, um) esses,

thou hadst been, &c. ama-tus (a, um) esset. he had been, &c.

Plur. ama-ti (ae, a) essemus, we had been, &c. ama-ti (ae, a) essetis, you had been, &c. ama-ti (ae, a) essent, they had been, &c.

## FUTURE PERFECT.

Sing. ama-tus (a, um) ero, I shall have been loved. ama-tus (a, um) eris, thou wilt have been loved. ama-tus (a, um) erit, he will have been loved. Plur. ama-ti (ae, a) erimus, we shall have been loved. ama-ti (ae, a) eritis, you will have been loved. ama-ti (ae, a) erunt, they will have been loved.

The subjunctive is wanting.

### IMPERATIVE.

## PRESENT.

Sing. amā-rē, be thou loved.

## FUTURE.

| Sing. ama-tor, thou shalt be loved. amā-tor, he shall be loved.

## IMPERATIVE.

#### PRESENT.

FUTURE.

Plur. amā-mīnī, be ye loved.

Plur. amā-bīmīnī, ye shall be loved.

amā-ntör, they shall be loved.

## INFINITIVE.

Present, amā-rī, to be loved. Perfect, ama-tum (am, um) esse, to have been loved. Future, ama-tum iri, to be about to be loved.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Perfect, ama-tus, a, um, loved. Gerundive, ama-ndus, deserving or requiring to be loved.

## SECOND CONJUGATION.

#### ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT. PERFECT. mŏně-ð. mŏn-ŭi.

Supine. Infinitive. mone-re.

#### INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PRESENT.

Sing. mone-o, I advise.

monē-s, thou advisest.

mŏnĕ-t, he advises. Plur. mŏnē-mus, we advise.

monē-tis, you advise.

monē-nt, they advise.

Sing. moně-am, I advise, or may advise.

moně-ās, thou advisest, or mayst advise.

moně-ăt, he advises, &c.

Plur. moně-ātus, we advise, &c.

moně-ātis, you advise, &c.

moně-ant, they advise,

### IMPERFECT.

Sing. monē-bam, I was advising, or I advised. | Sing. monē-rem, I advised, might, or should ad-

monē-bās, thou wert advising, or advisedst.

monē-băt, he was advising, &c.

Sing. mone-rem, 1 advised, might, or should advise. wise. mone-res, thou advisedst, mightst, or wouldst

advise.

&c.

mone-ret, he advised, &c.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### IMPERFECT.

Plur. monē - bāmŭs, we were | Plur. monē-rēmus, we advised, advising, &c. monē-bātis, you were

advising, &c.

monē-bant, they were advising, &c.

FUTURE.

Sing. mone-bo, I shall advise.

monē-bis, thou wilt advise.

monē-bit, he will advise.

Plur. monē-bimūs, we shall advise.

monē-bitis, you will advise. monē-bunt, they will

advise.

PERFECT.

have advised. mon - ŭistī, thou visedst, or hast advised.

mon-ŭit, he advised, &c.

Plur. mon-ŭimus, we advised, &c. mon-ŭistĭs, you advised,

mon-ŭērunt, or ēre, they advised, &c.

PLUPERFECT.

vised.

mon - uěrās, thou hadst advised.

mon-uĕrăt, he had advised.

&c.

mone-retis, you advised,

mone-rent, they advised.

Sing. moni-tūrus (a, um) sim, I shall, or may be about to advise.

moni-tūrus (a, um) sis, thou wilt, or mayst be about to advise.

moni-tūrus (a, um) sit, he will, &c.

Plur. moni-tūri (ae, a) simus, we shall. &c.

mont-tūri (ae, a) sitis, you will, &c.

mont-tūri (ae, a) sint, they will, &c.

Sing. mon-uī, I advised, or | Sing. mon-uĕrim, I have, or may have advised.

mon-uěris, thou hast, or mayst have advised.

mon-uĕrĭt, he has advised, &c.

Plur. mon-uertmus, we have advised, &c.

mon-uĕrĭtis, you have advised, &c.

mon-uerint, they have advised, &c.

Sing. mon-uěrăm, I had ad- | Sing. mon-uissem, I had, might, or should have advised.

> mon-uissēs, thou hadst, mightst, or shouldst have advised.

mon-uissět, he had advised, &c.

E

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PLUPERFECT.

advised. mon-uěrātis, vou had

advised.

mon-uĕrant, they had advised.

Plur. mon-uěrāmus, we had | Plur. mon-uissēmus, we had advised, &c. mon-uissētīs, you had

advised, &c. mon - uissent, they had advised, &c.

## FUTURE PERFECT.

Sing. mon-uěro, I shall have advised.

> mon-uěris, thou wilt have advised.

> mon-uěršt, he will have advised.

Plur. mon - uěrtmůs, we shall have advised.

mon - uěrttis, you will have advised. mon - uĕrint, they will

have advised.

The subjunctive is wanting.

## IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

Sing. monē, advise thou. Plur. monē-te, advise ye. FUTURE.

Sing. monē-to, thou shalt advise.

monē-to, he shall advise. Plur. monē-tōte, ye shall advise.

mone-nto, they shall advise.

#### INFINITIVE.

Present, mone-re, to advise.

Perfect, mon-uisse, to have advised.

Future, moni-tūrum (am, um) esse, to be about to advise.

# GERUND.

Gen. mone-ndī, of advising.

Dat. mone-ndo, to advising. Acc. mone-ndum, advising.

Abl. mone-ndo, with, in, or by advising.

## SUPINE.

mont-tum (in order), to advise; mont-tū, to be advised.

# PARTICIPLES.

Present, mone-ns, advising.

Future, moni-tūrus, a, um, being about to advise.

#### PASSIVE VOICE.

#### INDICATIVE.

# SUBJUNCTIVE.

# PRESENT.

being advised.

monē-rīs, or re, thou art advised.

monē-tŭr, he is advised.

Plur. monē-mur, we are advised.

monē-minī, you are advised.

mone-ntur, they are advised.

# IMPERFECT.

Sing. monē-băr, I was advised, | or was being advised.

> monē-bārīs, or bāre, thou wert advised, &c.

monē-bātŭr, he was advised.

Plur.  $mon\bar{e} - b\bar{a}m\bar{u}r$ , we were advised.

> monē-bāminī, you were advised.

> monē-bantur, they were advised.

> > FUTURE.

Sing. monē-bor, I shall be advised.

monē-běris, or běrě, thou wilt be advised.

monē-bitur, he will be advised.

Plur. monē-bīmŭr, we shall be advised.

> monē - bīmīnī, you will be advised.

> monē - buntur, they will be advised.

Sing. moně-or, I am, or am | Sing. moně-ar, I am advised, or may be advised.

mone-āris, or ārē, thou art advised, or mayst be advised.

mone-ātŭr, he is advised,

Plur. mone-āmŭr, we are advised, &c.

> mone-āminī, you are advised, &c.

mone-antur, they are advised, &c.

Sing. monē-rer, I was advised, might, or should be

> advised. monē - rēris.  $\mathbf{or}$ rēre. thou wert advised. mightst, or shouldst

monē-rētur, he was advised, &c.

Plur. monē - rēmur, we were advised, &c.

be advised.

monē-rēminī, you were advised, &c.

monē-rentur, they were advised, &c.

The subjunctive is wanting.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sing. mont-tüs (a, um) sum, I | Sir was, or have been advised.

moni-tus (a, um) es, thou wert, or hast been advised.

mont-tus (a, um) est, he was, &c.

Plur. mont-ti (ae, a) sumus, we were, &c.

monĭ-ti (ae, a) estis, you were, &c.

moni-ti (ae, a) sunt, they were, &c.

PLUPERFECT.

Sing. mont-tus (a, um) eram, I had been advised.

> moni - tus (a, um) eras, thou hadst been advised.

mont-tus (a, um) erat, he had been advised. Plur. mont-ti (ae, a) eramus,

we had been advised.

mont-ti (ae, a) eratis,
you had been advised.

mont-ti(ae, a) erant, they
had been advised.

FUTURE PERFECT.

Sing. mont-tus (a, um) ero, I shall have been advised.

mont-tus(a,um) eris,thou wilt have been advised. mont-tus (a, um) erit, he

will have been, &c.

Plur. mont-ti (ae, a) erimus, we
shall have been, &c.
mont-ti (ae, a) eritis, you
will have been, &c.

mont-ti(ae, a) erunt, they will have been, &c.

Sing. mon't-tus (a, um) sim, I have been, or may have been advised.

mont-tus (a, um) sis, thou hast been, or mayst have been advised.

mont-tus (a, um) sit, he has been, &c.

Plur. mont-ti (ae, a) simus, we have been, &c.

moni-ti (ae, a) sitis, you have been, &c.

moni-ti (ae, a) sint, they have been, &c.

Sing. mont-tus (a, um) essem,
I had been, might,
or should have been
advised.

moni-tus (a, um) esses, thou hadst been, &c.

moni-tus (a, um) esset, he had been, &c.

Plur. moni-ti (ae, a) essemus, we had been, &c.

mont - ti (ae, a) essetis, you had been, &c. mont - ti (ae, a) essent, they had been, &c,

The subjunctive is wanting.

#### IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

FUTURE.

Sing. monē-re, be thou advised. | Sing. monē-tor, thou shalt be

advised.

monē-tor, he shall be advised.

Plur. monē-minī, be ye advised.

Plur. monē-bīmīnī, ye shall be advised. mone-ntor, they shall be

advised.

# INFINITIVE.

Present, monē-rī, to be advised.

Perfect, moni-tum (am, um) esse, to have been advised. Future, moni-tum iri, to be about to be advised.

## PARTICIPLES.

mont-tus, a, um, advised.

Gerundive, mone-ndus, a, um, deserving, or requiring to be advised.

#### THIRD CONJUGATION.

#### ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT. lĕg-ð.

PERFECT. lĕg-ī.

SUPINE. lec-tum. INFINITIVE. lĕg-ĕrĕ.

#### INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sing. leg-ŏ, I read.

leg-i-s, thou readest.

leg-ĭ-t, he reads. Plur. leg-ĭ-mŭs, we read. leg-ĭ-tĭs, you read.

leq-u-nt, they read.

PRESENT. Sing. leg-am, I read, or may read.

leg-ās, thou readest, or mayst read. leg-ăt, he reads, &c.

Plur. leg-āmŭs, we read, &c. leg-ātis, you read, &c. leg-ant, they read, &c.

#### IMPERFECT.

Sing. leg-ē-bam, I read, or was | Sing. leg-ĕ-rem, I read, might, reading.

leg-ē-bās, thou readest, or wert reading.

leg-ē-băt, he read, &c.

or should read. leg-ĕ-rēs, thou readest, mightst, or wouldst read.

leg-ĕ-rĕt, he read, &c.

IMPERFECT.

#### INDICATIVE.

# SUBJUNCTIVE.

Plur. leg-ē-bāmās, we read, &c. | Plur. leg-ĕ-rēmās, we read, &c. leg-ē-bātis, you read, &c. leg-e-bant, they read, &c.

leg-ĕ-rētis, you read, &c. leg-ĕ-rent, they read, &c.

#### FUTURE.

Sing. leg-am, I shall read.

leg-ēs, thou wilt read.

leg-ĕt, he will read.

Plur. leg-ēmŭs, we shall read.

leg-ētis, you will read.

leg-ent, they will read.

Sing. lec-tūrŭs (a, um) sim, I shall, or may be about to read.

> lec - tūrus (a, um) sis, thou wilt, or mayst be about to read.

> lec-tūrus (a, um) sit, he will, &c.

Plur. lec-tūri (ae, a) simus, we shall, &c.

lec-tūri (ae, a) sitis, you will, &c.

lec-tūri (ae, a) sint, they will, &c.

#### PERFECT.

Sing. leg-t, I read, or have | Sing. leg-trim, I have read, or

leg-istī, thou readst, or hast read.

*lēg-ĭt*, he read, or has read.

Plur. leg-ĭmŭs, we read, or have read.

leg-istis, you read, or have read.

leg-ērunt, or ēre, they read, or have read.

may have read.

leg-ĕrĭs, thou hast read, or mayst have read. leg-ěrit, he has read, &c.

Plur. leg-ĕrīmus, we have read,

leg-ĕrĭtĭs, you have read,

leg-ĕrint, they have read, &с.

#### PLUPERFECT.

Sing. leq-ĕram, I had read.

leg-ĕrās, thou hadst read.

leg-ĕrăt, he had read.

Sing. leg-issem, I had, might have, or should have read.

leg - issēs, thou hadst, mightst, or wouldst have read.

leg - issět, he had read, &c.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

Plur. leg-ĕrāmŭs, we had read.

leg-ĕrātĭs, you had read.

leg-ĕrant, they had read.

PLUPERFECT.

Plur. leg-issēmus, we had read, &c.

leg-issētis, you had read, &c.

leg-issent, they had read, &c.

#### FUTURE PERFECT.

Sing. leg-ĕro, I shall have read. leg-ĕris, thou wilt have read.

leg-ĕrĭt, he will have read.

Plur. leg-ĕrīmŭs, we shall have read.

leg-ĕrĭtĭs, you will have read.

leg-ĕrint, they will have read.

The subjunctive is wanting.

#### IMPERATIVE.

#### PRESENT.

Sing. leg-ĕ, read thou.

Plur. leg-ĭ-te, read ye.

#### FUTURE.

Sing. leg-t-to, thou shalt read. leg-t-to, he shall read.

Plur. leg-ĭ-tōte, you shall read. leg-u-nto, they shall read.

#### INFINITIVE.

Present, leg-ĕrĕ, to read.

Perfect, leg-isse, to have read.

Future, lec-turum (am, um) esse, to be about to read.

#### GERUND.

Gen. leg-e-ndī, of reading.

Dat. leg-e-ndo, to reading.

Acc. leg-e-ndum, reading.

Abl. leg-e-ndo, with, by, or in reading.

#### SUPINE.

lec-tum (in order) to read; lec-tū, to be read.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Present, leg-e-ns, reading.

Future, lec-tūrus, about to read.

#### PASSIVE VOICE.

PRESENT.

#### INDICATIVE.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sing. leg-or, I am read.

leg-ĕ-ris, or re, thou art

leg-ĭ-tŭr, he is read.

Plur. leg-ĭ-mŭr, we are read.

leg-ĭ-mĭnī, you are read.

leg-u-ntur, they are read.

Sing. leg-ăr, I am read, or I may be read.  $leg - \bar{a}ris$ , thou art read,

or mayst be read. leg-ātŭr, he is read, or may be read.

Plur. leg-āmŭr, we are read, or may be read. leg-āminī, you are read,

or may be read. leg-antur, they are read, or may be read.

#### IMPERFECT.

was being read.

leg-ē-bāris, or bārē. leg-ē-bātŭr.

Plur. leg-ē-bāmŭr. lea-ē-bāminī.

lea-ē-bantur.

Sing. leg-ē-bar, I was read, or | Sing. leg-ē-rēr, I was read, might be read, or should be read. leg-ĕ-rēris, or rērē. leg-ĕ-rētur.

Plur. leg-e-rēmur. leg-ĕ-rēminī. leg-ĕ-rentŭr.

#### PUTURE.

Sing. leg-ar, I shall be read. leg-ēris, or ērē. leg-ētŭr.

Plur. leg-ēmŭr. leg-ēmīnī. leg-entur. The subjunctive is wanting.

#### PERFECT.

Sing. lec-tus (a, um) sum, I | Sing. lec-tus (a, um) sim, I was read, or have been read.

> lec-tus (a, um) es. lec-tus (a, um) est.

Plur. lec-tī (ae, a) sumus. lec-ti (ac, a) estis. lec-ti (ae, a) sunt.

have, or may have been read.

lec-tus (a, um) sis. lec-tus (a, um) sit.

Plur. lec-ti (ae, a) simus. lec-ti (ae, a) sitis. lec-ti (ae, a) sint.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PLUPERFECT.

had been read.

lec-tus (a, um) eras. lec-tus (a, um) erat. Plur. lec-ti (ae, a) eramus. lec-ti (ae, a) eratis. lec-ti (ae, a) erant.

Sing. lec-tus (a, um) eram, I | Sing. lec-tus (a, um) essem, I had been, might, or should have been read. lec-tus (a, um) esses. lec-tus (a, um) esset. Plur. lec-ti (ae, a) essemus. lec-ti (ae, a) essetis.

lec-ti (ae, a) essent.

#### FUTURE PERFECT.

Sing. lec-tus (a, um) ero, I shall have been read. lec-tus (a, um) eris. lec-tus (a, um) erit.

Plur. lec-ti (ae, a) erimus. lec-ti (ae, a) eritis. lec-ti (ae, a) erunt.

The subjunctive is wanting.

#### IMPERATIVE.

#### PRESENT.

#### FUTURE.

Sing. leg-ĕrĕ, be thou read.

Plur. leg-ĭ-mĭnī, be ve read.

| Sing. leg-ĭ-tŏr, thou shalt be read. leg-ĭ-tŏr, he shall be read. Plur. leg-ē-minī, ye shall be leg-u-ntor, they shall be read.

#### INFINITIVE.

Present,  $leg-\bar{\imath}$ , to be read. Perfect, lec-tum (am, um) esse, to have been read. Future, lec-tum iri, to be about to be read.

#### PARTICIPLES.

lec-tus, a, um, read.

Gerundive, leg-e-ndus, a, um, requiring, or deserving to be read.

#### FOURTH CONJUGATION.

#### ACTIVE VOICE.

PRESENT. PERFECT. SUPINE. INPINITIVE. audi-ö. audi-vi. audī-tum. audī-rē.

INDICATIVE.

SUBJUNCTIVE.

audī-rent.

PRESENT.

Sing. audi-o, I hear. Sing. audī-ăm, I hear, or may hear. audi-ās. audi-s. audi-t. audi-ăt. Plur. audi-mus. Plur. audi-āmŭs. andi-tin. audi-ātīs. audi-u-nt. audi-ant.

IMPERFECT.

Sing. audi-ē-bam, I heard, or | Sing. audi-rem, I heard, might, was hearing. or should hear. audi-ē-bās. andī-rēs. audi-ē-băt. audī-rět. Plur, audi-ē-bāmŭs, Plur. audī-rēmŭs. audi-ē-bātis. audi-rētis. audi-ē-bant.

Sing. audī-tūrus (a, um) sim, Sing. audi-am, I shall hear. I shall, or may be about to hear. audi-ēs. audī-tūrus (a, um) sis. audī-tūrus (a, um) sit. audi-ět. Plur. audī-turi (ae, a) simus. Plur. audi-ēmās. audī-turi (ae, a) sitis. audi-ētis. audi-ent. audī-turi (ae, a) sint.

PERFECT.

Sing. audī-vī, I heard, or have | Sing. audī - vērim, I heard, or may have heard. heard. audi-visti. audī-vēris. audi-vit. audī-vērit. Plur. andi-rimas. Plur. audi-vērimus. audi-vistis. audī-vērītīs. audī-vēruni, or vērē. audi-verint.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PLUPERFECT.

Sing. audī-vēram, I had heard. | Sing. audī-vissem, I had heard,

or I might or should have heard.

audī-vissēs. audī-vissĕt.

audī-vērāt. Plur. audī-vērāmŭs. audī-nērātīs. audī-věrant.

audī-vērās.

Plur. audī-vissēmus. audī-vissētīs. audī-vissent.

## FUTURE PERFECT.

Sing. audī-vēro, I shall have

heard. audī-vērīs.

audī-vērīt.

Plur. audī-vērīmus. audī-věržtis. audī-věrint.

#### IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

FUTURE.

Sing. audī, hear thou.

Plur. audī-tĕ, hear ye.

Sing. audī-to, thou shalt hear. audī-to, he shall hear. Plur. audī-tōtě, you shall hear. audi-u-nto, they shall hear.

#### INFINITIVE.

Present, audī-rě, to hear. Perfect, audī-vissē, to have heard. Future, audī-tūrum (am, um) esse, to be about to hear.

#### GERUND.

Gen. audi-e-ndī, of hearing. Dat. audi-e-ndo, to hearing. Acc. audi-e-ndum, hearing.

Abl. audi-e-ndo, with, by, or in hearing.

#### SUPINE.

audī-tum (in order), to hear; audī-tū, to hear.

# PARTICIPLES.

Present, audi-e-ns, hearing. Future, audī-tūrus, about to hear.

#### PASSIVE VOICE.

#### INDICATIVE.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

# PRESENT.

Sing. audit-or, I am heard.

audī-rĭs, or rĕ. audī-tŭr.

Plur. audī-mūr. audī-mīnī.

audi-u-ntur.

Sing. audi-ăr, I am heard, or may be heard. audi-ăris. audi-atur.

Plur. audi-āmūr. audi-āmīnī.

audi-antar.

#### IMPERFECT.

Sing. audi-ē-bar, I was heard, or being heard.

audi-ē-bārĭs, or bārē. audi-ē-bātŭr.

Plur. audi-ē-bāmūr. audi-ē-bāmīnī.

audi-ē-bantūr.

sing. auai-rēr, I was heard, might, or should be heard. audi-rērīs, or rērē. audi-rētūr.

Plur. audī-rēmūr. audī-rēmīnī. audī-rentūr.

#### FUTURE.

Sing. audi-ăr, I shall be heard. audi-ēris.

audi-ētur.

Plur. audi-ēmūr. audi-ēmīnī.

audi-entar.

The subjunctive is wanting.

#### PERFECT.

Sing. audi-tüs (a, um) sum, I | Sing. audi-tüs (a, um) sim, I was heard, or have been heard, or have been heard.

audi-tus (a, um) es. audi-tus (a, um) est.

Plur. audī-tī (ae, a) sumus. audī-tī (ae, a) estis. audi-ti (ae, a) sunt. Sing. audi-tüs (a, um) sim, I
have been heard, or
may have been heard.
audi-tus (a, um) sis.
audi-tus (a, um) sit.
Plur. audi-ti (ae, a) simus.
audi-ti (ae, a) sitis

audi-ti (ae, a) sitis. audi-ti (ae, a) sint.

## SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PLUPERFECT.

had been heard.

audi-tus (a, um) eras. audi-tus (a, um) erat. Plur. audi-tī (ae, a) eramus. audi-ti (aé, a) eratis. audi-ti (ae, a) erant.

Sing. audī-tūs (a, um) eram, I | Sing. audī-tūs (a, um) essem, I had been heard, might, or should have been heard. audi-tus (a, um) esses. audi-tus (a, um) esset.

Plur. audi-tī (ae, a) essemus. audi-ti (ae, a) essetis. audi-ti (ae, a) essent.

#### FUTURE PERFECT.

Sing, audī-tŭs (a, um) ero, I shall have been heard. audi-tus (a, um) eris. audi-tus (a, um) erit. Plur. audi-tī (ae, a) erimus. audi-ti (ae, a) eritis. audi-ti (ae, a) erunt.

The subjunctive is wanting.

#### IMPERATIVE.

#### PRESENT.

#### FUTURE.

Sing, audī-rē, be thou heard.

Sing. audī-tor, thou shalt be heard. audī-tor, he shall be heard.

Plur. audī-minī, be ye heard.

Plur. audi-ēminī, ye shall be heard. audi-untor, they shall be heard.

#### INFINITIVE.

Present,  $aud\bar{\imath}-r\bar{\imath}$ , to be heard. Perfect, audī-tum (am, um) esse, to have been heard. Future, audi-tum iri, to be about to be heard.

#### PARTICIPLES.

audī-tŭs (a, um), heard. Gerundive, audi-e-ndus, deserving, or requiring to be heard.

#### DEPONENT VERBS.

133. Deponent verbs being in form passives, are conjugated like them, and follow the four regular conjugations. Those whose stems end in  $\bar{\alpha}$ ,  $\bar{\epsilon}$ , and  $\bar{\epsilon}$ , follow the first, second, and fourth conjugations, and all the rest belong to the third. But the conjugation of a deponent verb has more forms than the ordinary passive; for it has not only the supine and the gerund, but also four participles: the participle present—as hortans (admonishing), denoting the action in progress; perfect hortaturus (about to admonish), describing an action as future; and the gerundive hortandus (to be admonished), which has a passive meaning, and accordingly is formed only from those deponents which have a transitive signification. In the neuter gender, however, it occurs also from intransitive verbs.

# 134. DEPONENTS OF THE FOUR CONJUGATIONS.

Present, Imperfect, Future, Perfect, Pluperfect, Fut. Perfect,		Present, Imperfect, Future, Perfect, Pluperfect, Fut. Perfect,
Present, hort-er. Imperfect, hortā-ter. Future, hortā-tirus (a, um) sim. Perfect, hortā-tus (a, um) esem. Pluperfect, hortā-tus (a, um) esem. Fut. Perfect, hortā-tus (a, um) ero.		Present, hort-or, I admonish. hort-dris (e), &c. (like am-or.) Imperfect, hortd-bar. Future, hortd-bar. Perfect, hortd-tus (a, um) sum. Pluperfect, hortd-tus (a, um) eram. Fut. Perfect, hortd-tus (a, um) ero.
vere-ar. veri-turus (a, un) sim. veri-tus (a, un) sim. veri-tus (a, un) essem. veri-tus (a, un) essem.	Subjunctive.	SECOND.  INDICATIVE.  vere-or, I fear. cere-ris (e), &c. chike mone-or.) vere-bar. vere-bor. vere-bor. vert-tus (a, um) sum. vert-tus (a, um) eram. vert-tus (a, um) ero.
ut-ar. ut-x-rer. ut-x-rer. ut-sirus (a, um) sim. u-sus (a, um) sim. u-sus (a, um) essem. u-sus (a, um) ero.	7E.	THIRD.  E.  ut-or, I use. ut-tris, &c. (like leg-or.) ut-t-bar. ut-ar. ut-ar. u-sus (a, um) sun. u-sus (a, um) eran. u-sus (a, um) ero.
parti-ar. parti-ter. parti-tirs (a, um) sim parti-tus (a, um) sim. parti-tus (a, um) seem. parti-tus (a, um) esem.		FOURTH.  parti-or, I distribute. parti-ris, &c (like audi-or.) parti-dar. parti-us: (a, um) sum. parti-tus (a, um) cram. parti-tus (a, um) crom.

FOURTH.		parti-re. parti-tor.		parti-tin (am, um) esse. parti-turun (am, um) esse.		partī-tum, partī-tu.	-	parti-e-ndum, &c.		parti-e-ns.	parti-turus, a, um.	parti-e-ndus, a, um.
THIRD.	ಟ	ut-tre. ut-t-tor.		ut-t. u-sum (am, um) esse. u-surum (am, um) esse.		n-snm, us-n.		ut-e-ndum, &c.	<b>3</b>	ut-e-ns.	u-surus, a, um.	ut-e-ndus, a, um.
SECOND.	IMPERATIVE.	verë-re. verë-tor.	INFINITIVE.	verë-ri. vert-tum (am, um) esse. vert-turum (am, um) esse.	SUPINE	vert-tum, vert-tu.	GERUND.	vere-ndum, &c.	PARTICIPLES.	verens.	vert-turus, a, um.	vere-ndus, a, um.
FIRST.		hortā-re. hortā-tor.		bortā-rī. hortā-tum (am, um) esse. verk-tum (am, um) esse. hortā-turum (am, um) esse. verr-turum (am, um) esse.		hortā-tum, hortā-ts.		horta-ndum, &c.		horta-ns.	hortā-turus, a, um.	horta-adus, a, um.
		Present, Future,		Present, Perfect, Future,						Present,	Future,	Gerundive,

#### PECULIAR AND CONTRACTED FORMS OF CONJUGATION.

135. The perfects ending in vi, as well as the tenses formed from them (namely, the pluperfect, future perfect, and the infinitive perfect), sometimes appear in a syncopated form—that is, the v is thrown out, and the two vowels thus following one another are contracted into one. This is the case—

1. When in the first conjugation vi or ve is followed by r or s the v is omitted, and the a of the stem is contracted with i or e into ā—as a māsti, amāsse, amārim, amārunt, amārun, amāro, for amavisti, amavisse, amaverim, amaverunt, amaveram, and amavero. The same is the case with verbs of the second and third conjugations forming their perfects in (ē)vi—as flēstis, flēvunt, flēvam, &c.; nēsti, nēstis, nēvunt; delēram, decrēsse for flevistis, fleverunt, fleveram, &c.; nevisti, nevisti, nevisti, neverunt; deleveram, decrevisse. So also sīris, sīrit, for siveris, siverit, from sino, I allow. Perfects ending in (o)vi are generally not contracted, and the only verbs in which a contraction does occur are nēvi (from nosco) and the compounds of moveo—as nōsti, nērunt, nēram, nērim, for novisti, noverunt, noveram, noverim (but we never find noro for novero); commēsse for commovisse, from commoveo.

2. In verbs making their perfect in (3)vi, the v is simply thrown out when s follows—thus audivisse, audivissem, become audiisse, audiissem; but here also the double i may be contracted into one—as audisse, audissem; so also petisse or petisse, from peto, perf. petivi. In those forms where the v is followed by e, the v is thrown out without any contraction taking place—as audierunt, audierum, desirerunt, definiverum, quasierum, for audiverum, audiverum, desiverumt, definiverum.

quaesiveram.

3. In the third person plural of the perfect indicative active we very often find the termination ere for erunt—as amavere, monuere, legere, audivere, for amaverunt, monuerunt, legerunt, audiverunt. Poets sometimes use the termination erunt with the e short—as steterunt for steterunt.

The second person singular in passive and deponent verbs generally ends in ris; but another termination equally common is re—as amabaris and amabare; amareris, amarere; amaberis, amabere; in the second person of the present indicative, however, the termination re occurs very rarely—as arbitrare for arbitraris. In the fourth conjugation re is

never used for ris in the present indicative.

Verbs of the third conjugation, of which the stem ends in a consonant, usually take e in the present imperative; but the verbs dico, I say; duco, I lead; facio, I do; and fero, I bear, form their imperatives without e—as dic, duc, fac, fer. The same is the case in their compounds—as educ, from educo; affer and refer, from affero and refero. Of facio, only those compounds follow this rule in which the a is retained—as calefac from calefacio; but all the other compounds in which the a is changed into are regularly formed—as confice, perfice, effice, from conficio, perficio, efficio.

Many verbs of the third and fourth conjugations take u as the connecting vowel instead of e in forming the gerundive. This is done especially when i precedes—as fac-i-undus for faci-e-ndus; poti-u-ndus

for poti-e-ndus; but we also find divid-u-ndus, reg-u-ndus, for divid-e-ndus, reg-e-ndus; and dic-u-ndus for dic-e-ndus.

Some verbs, chiefly intransitive (both active and deponent), form a sort of participle in bundus, a, um. In the first conjugation, where this form occurs most frequently, bundus is added to the stem—as cuncta-bundus, deliberu-bundus, mira-bundus, &c. In the third conjugation either i or e is prefixed to bundus—as fur-i-bundus, mor-i-bundus, frem-e-bundus. In the second and fourth conjugations such participles scarcely ever occur. Their meaning is like that of the present participle, but somewhat stronger; so that furibundus is 'full of fury,' whereas furens is only 'furious.' When they are derived from transitive verbs they may, like other participles, govern the case of their verb.

#### CONJUGATION BY PERIPHRASIS OR CIRCUMLOCUTION.

136. A conjugation by circumlocution might be formed by means of the verb esse in conjunction with any participle; but the Latin language does not possess that conjugation which is formed in English by means of the participle present and the verb esse; so that 'I am loving,' 'I was loving,' &c. cannot be expressed in Latin otherwise than by the simple forms amo, amabam, &c.

137. Esse, in combination with the participle perfect passive, is used to form some of the ordinary tenses of the passive voice, as perf. amatus sum and amatus sim; pluperf. amatus eram and amatus essem; fut. perf. amatus ero; infin. perf. amatum esse. But instead of sum, eram, ero, and esse, we also find the forms fui, fueram, fuero, and fuisse, in quite the same sense as the forms of the tenses denoting an incomplete action; so that amatus sum is equivalent to amatus fui, amatus eram to amatus fueram, amatus ero to amatus fuero, and amatum esse to amatum fuisse. Hence, as far as form is concerned, we here have a complete periphrastic conjugation.

138. A real and complete periphrastic conjugation is formed by means of the verb esse with the participle future active. Throughout this conjugation the action is represented as one that will take place, or is to take place: e. a.—

that will take place, or is to tak	e place; e. g.—
INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
Present, dicturus sum, I am	Present, dicturus sim, I am
about to say.	about to say, or
·	may be about to
	say.
Imperfect, dicturus eram, I	Imperfect, dicturus essem, I
was about to say.	was, might be, or
•	was, might be, or should be, about
	to sav.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

Future, dicturus ero, I shall | No future. be about to say. Perfect, dicturus fui, I was, or have been,

about to say.

Pluperfect, dicturus fueram, I | Pluperfect, dicturus fuissem, I had been about to sav.

Fut. Perf. dicturus fuero, I | No future perfect. shall have been,

Perfect, dicturus fuerim, I have been, or may have been, about, &c.

had been, might, or should have

been, about, &c.

No passive can be formed of this periphrastic conjugation; but its place may be supplied by longer circumlocutions—as futurum est ut dicatur, or in so est ut dicatur; futurum erat, or in so erat ut diceretur, &c.

139. A second real and complete periphrastic conjugation is formed by means of the verb esse combined with the neuter of the gerundive; and in this conjugation the action is invariably represented as necessary, and the person by whom it is to be performed is expressed by the dative case; e. g.—

#### INDICATIVE.

mihi scribendum est, I must write. Imperfect, mihi scribendum erat, I was obliged to write. Future, mihi scribendum erat, I shall be obliged to write. Perfect, mihi scribendum fuit, I was, or have been, obliged to write. Pluperfect, mihi scribendum fuerat, I had been obliged to write. Fut. Perf. mihi scribendum fuerit, I shall have been obliged to write.

In like manner are formed the subjunctive—as scribendum sit, scribendum esset, scribendum fuerit, scribendum fuisset, and the infinitive, scribendum fuisse.

# VERBS OF THE FIRST CONJUGATION FORMING THEIR PERFECT AND SUPINE DIFFERENTLY FROM THE GENERAL RULE.

140. Many verbs do not form the perfect and supine according to the rules laid down in 128, 129, and 130. Sometimes there is a difference in the termination which is appended to the stem, sometimes the stem itself undergoes a change, and sometimes both kinds of irregularities appear in the same verb. Thus juvo, instead of juva-vi, makes its perfect juvi, and instead of its supine juvatum, makes jutum. Again, frango makes its perfect freqi, and its supine fractum. But whatever the apparent irregularity in the perfect and supine may be, the tenses formed from these two are derived from them according to the general rules. (131, b and d.)

- 1. We shall in the subjoined lists give only the simple verbs, because, generally speaking, derivative and compound verbs are conjugated like the simple ones. Where, however, the compounds present any difference, they are added. There will be found some verbs which have either no perfect or no supine, or neither of them, and generally in such cases the tenses derived from those two do not exist.
- 2. The irregularities (so called) of which we are here speaking have mostly arisen from the fact, that the perfect and supine are formed from a more ancient and simpler stem than that which appears in the present; the stem of the present being extended and increased. This extension or increase of the stem consists most frequently—I. In the addition of a vowel (a,e, or i) to it—as son (sono, sound), increased sona, but the perfect sonsi, and the supine sonitum; rid (rideo, laugh), increased ride, but the perfect risi, and the supine risum; ven (venio, come), increased vini, but the perfect vini, supine venium: 2. In the addition of n to the stem—as si, strengthened sin (sino, allow), perfect sivi, supine situm; or in the insertion of n before the final consonant of the stem, the n being sometimes, for reasons of euphony, changed into m—as frang (original stem rup), runpo (break), but perfect frigi, supine fractum; rump (original stem rup), runpo (break), but perfect rūpi, supine ruptum. A few verbs also have a reduplication in the present, which disappears in the perfect and supine—as gi-gno, perfect genui, supine genium (from the stem gen); si-sto, perfect sitii, supine statum (from the stem sta.)

The verbs uro (ussi, ustum) and gero (gessi, gestum) have not an extended stem, but s of the stem is only changed into its equivalent r in the present. Some other merely apparent irregularities in the perfect and supine arise simply from the concurrence of the final letter of the stem with the s and t with which the terminations of the perfect and supine begin. The supine sometimes adds the termination tum to the stem without the connecting vowel, where, according to analogy, we should expect tum.

141 The following verbs of the first conjugation and their compounds form their perfect and supine in ui and itum, as if they belonged to the second conjugation:—

crĕpo,	crĕpui,	crepitum,	sound harshly.
discrepo,	{ discrepui, or } discrepavi.	discrepĭtum,	differ.
increpo,	increpavi, or increpui,	{ increpatum, or } increpitum,	scold.
сйbо,	cŭbui,	cŭbitum,	lie down.

When compounds of cubo take m before b, as in incumbo, they follow the third conjugation.

```
domo,
        dŏmui,
                  domitum, tame, or subdue.
sŏno.
        sŏnui,
                  sŏnĭtum.
                              sound (part. fut. sonātūrus.)
tono.
        tŏnui.
                  tonitum.
                              thunder. Intono has a partic. intonatus.
věto,
        větui,
                  větttum,
                              forbid.
```

142. The following have the supine either regular, or throw out the vowel a:—

```
micui,
mico.
                                    dart, glitter.
ēmico.
         ēmicui,
                     ēmicatum.
                                    dart forth.
dimico, dimicavi,
                     dīmīcatum,
                                    fight.
                     fricatum, or
frico,
         fricui,
                                    rub.
                    frictum,
sĕco.
         sĕcui,
                     sectum,
                                    cut (partic. fut. secaturus.)
nĕco,
         něcavi,
                     něcatum.
                                    kill; but eneco has enecui and enecavi.
                                      as well as enecui, enectum.
```

143. The following are peculiar:—

~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~ ~

```
juvo.
        jūvi,
                  nitum,
                             support, assist (partic. fut. juvaturus.)
                  lavatum,
        lāvi.
lavo.
                  lautum,
                             wash. The infinitive is lavere or lavare.
                  lötum,
```

( potum, or

poto,	potavi,	(pōtātum,	drunk.
do,	dĕdi,	dătum, inf. dăre	, give. Many of the compounds of do belong to the third conjugation — as reddo, addo.
sto, obsto,	stěti, obstěti,	stätum, obstitum,	stand. oppose.
praesto, antesto.	praestiti, antestěti.	praestitum,	perform, excel (part. fut. praestand before. [staturus.)
disto,		<del></del>	be at a distance.
plico,			fold.
duplico,	duplicavi,	duplicatum,	double.
applico,	{ applicavi, or applicui,	{ applicatum, or applicatum,	apply.

drink.

Potus means both

The verbs jūro (swear) and coeno (sup) have a perfect participle which, like potus, has an active meaning-juratus, 'one who has sworn,' and coenatus, 'one who has supped.'

# VERBS OF THE SECOND CONJUGATION FORMING THEIR PERFECT AND SUPINE DIFFERENTLY FROM THE GENERAL RULE.

144. Many verbs of the second conjugation are defective, having no supine, and many have neither perfect nor supine, nor of course any of the forms derived from them. Their irregularity consists in either the perfect or supine, or both of them, being formed as in verbs of the third conjugation.

The short i before tum is sometimes thrown out. Verbs having v before the e of the stem are contracted in the perfect and supine—as moveo,  $m\bar{o}vi$ ,  $m\bar{o}tum$ , for  $m\bar{o}vui$ ,  $m\bar{o}vitum$ .

145. The following form the perfect by adding vi, and the supine by adding tum to the stem, like the regular verbs of the first and fourth conjugations, except that  $\bar{e}$  before tum is sometimes changed into i:—

dēleo, fleo, neo,	dēlē <b>vi,</b> flēvi, nēvi,	dēlētu <b>m,</b> flētum, nētum,	destroy. weep. spin.
compleo (from the ) obsolete pleo),	complēvi,	complētum,	fill up.
vieo, aboleo, exoleo,	vi <del>ēvi</del> , <b>ab</b> olēvi, exolēvi,	viētum, abolĭtum, exolētum,	hoop a vessel. abolish. fade.
inoleo,	inolēvi,	{ inoletum, or inolitum,	come into use.
obsoleo,	obsolēvi,	obsolētum,	become obsolete.

146. Verbs in which the e of the stem is preceded by v form the perfect and supine by contraction, the perfect ending in vi, and the supine in tum, which terminations are added to the stem after the removal of the e:—

căveo.	cāvi,	oautum,	take care.
faveo,	fāvi,	fautum,	favour.
foveo,	fōvi,	folum,	cherish.
· moveo,	mõvi,	mōtum,	move.
roveo,	υδυi,	võtum,	vow.
păveo,	pāvi,		dread.
ferveo,	{ fervi, or { ferbui,		glow, boil.
conniveo,	{ connīvi, or } connixi.		wink, connive.

147. The following have the perfect regular, but throw out the vowel i before tum of the supine:—

```
dŏceo,
           dŏcui.
                         doctum,
                                     teach.
                                     hold.
těneo.
           tĕnui.
                          tentum,
                        mistum, or
                                     mix.
misceo.
           miscui,
                        mixtum,
                                     toast.
torreo,
           torrui,
                         tostum.
sorbeo,
           sorbui.
                                                       [pass. also censītus.
                         sorptum.
                                     value, believe.
censeo.
           censui,
                         censum,
                                                           The part. perf.
```

148. The following make the perfect in i, and the supine in

oun.						
prandeo, sĕdeo.	prandi, sēdi.	pransum, sessum.	breakfast sit.	(partic.		having fasted.)
video,	vidí,	visum,	see.		•	•
strīdeo.	strīdi.		whistle, h	iss (also	strido, str	idēre.)

149. The following form the perfect and supine in the same

manner, but take a reduplication in the perfect, which, however, does not occur in their compounds: mordeo. momordi. morsum. bite. pendeo. pěpendi, pensum, hang. spondeo. spopondi, sponsum, engage to give. tondeo. totondi. fonsum, shear. 150. The following make the perfect in si, and the supine in tum:auxi, auctum, increase. augeo, indultum. indulgeo, indulsi, indulge. torium, twist. torqueo, torsi, 151. Verbs which have the perfect in si, and the supine in sum:ardeo, arsi, arsum, burn. haereo, haesi, haesum, cling. jubeo, jussum, command. jussi, mansum, remain. maneo. mansi. mulceo, mulsi, mulsum. stroke, caress. mulsi, mulsum, milk. mulgeo. rīsi, rideo. risum. laugh. suādeo, suāsi. suāsum, advise. tersi, tersum, wipe. tergeo, 152. The following make the perfect in si, but have no supine :alsi, algeo, shiver with cold. freeze with cold. fingeo. frixi, fulsi, shine brightly. fulgeo, turgeo. tursi. swell. urgeo, ursi, press, urge. luxi, luceo. shine. lugeo, luxi, mourn. 153. The following are peculiar:stir up; also, cio, cire, citum. cĭtum. venture (a semi-deponent.) audeo, ausus sum, gaudeo, gavisus sum, rejoice. solitus sum, am in the habit, ..... soleo, 154. Verbs (mostly intransitive) which have neither perfect nor supine:adoleo, kindle. liveo, am pale. aveo, desire. (mineo), immineo, am imminent. calveo, am bald. maereo, mourn. polleo, am strong. caneo, am gray. cēreo, wag the tail. promineo, am prominent. denseo, grow thick.

flāveo, am yellow.

foeteo, stink.

lacteo, suck.

hĕbeo, am dull. hūmeo, am damp. rěnideo, shine. scateo, gush forth. squāleo, am dirty. ureo, am juicy. věgeo, am gay.

155. The following deponents of the second conjugation form their supines irregularly:—

făteor, fassum, confess. profiteor, professum, professum, profess. misĕreor, misĕrium and misertum, pity. reor. rătum, think.

# VERBS OF THE THIRD CONJUGATION FORMING THEIR PERFECT AND SUPINE DIFFERENTLY FROM THE GENERAL RULE.

156. In treating of verbs of the third conjugation, it is particularly necessary to remember the general rules respecting the formation of the perfect and supine. It was observed that verbs, whose stem ends in u (or v), form their perfect by simply adding i to the stem, and the supine by adding tum—as minuo, perf. minui, sup. minūtum; solvo, solvi, solūtum.

157. The following verbs of this kind are regular, but want the supine:—

arguo, I accuse (argutus, clear, is an adjective.)

luo, pay, atone for (has, however, a part. fut. luiturus. Some compounds form the supine regularly—as ablūtum, dilūtum, elūtum, perlūtum, &c.) (nuo, nod) occurs only in the compounds adnuo, abnuo, renuo; but abnuo has a part. fut. abnuiturus.

congruo, agree; and ingruo, penetrate.

metuo, fear.

pluo (generally impersonal), rain; the perfect is sometimes pluvi, instead of plui.

ruo, fall, has a part. fut. ruiturus, and rarely a part. perf. riitus, though in compounds this is the common form—as diriitus, obriitus.

158. The following three verbs are irregular:-

fluo, fluxi, fluxum, flow. struo, struxi, structum, build, pile up. vīvo, vixi, victum, live.

159. Verbs in which the vowel i is inserted in the present after the stem, form the perfect and supine from the pure stem without the i—as

căpio, cēpi, captum, take. concepio, concepi, conceptum, conceive. făcio, fēci, factum, make, do.

The passive of facio is fio, and so also in its compounds, except in those compounded with a preposition, for they are regular—as perficio, perfēci, perfectum, passive perficior. Conficio, however, has sometimes conficior, and sometimes confic and deficio both deficior and defic.

jacio, jēci, jactum. When jacio is compounded with a preposition, the a is changed into i—as conjicio, injicio.

fodio, fodi, fossum, dig.

(lacio occurs only in compound verbs, as)—
allicio, allexi, allectum,

pario, pėpėri, partum, quatio, (quassi not used), quassum, concutio, concussi, concussum, (specio or spicio only in compounds.)

aspexi.

allure; but elicio makes ēlicui, ēlīcium. bring forth, get; part. fut. shake. [parturus. shake together.

160. The following are irregular:-

căpio, căpīvi, căpītum, fūgio, fūgi, fūgitum, răpio, rāpui, raptum,

desire. flee. snatch.

161. Verbs ending in bo and po form the perfect in psi, and the supine in ptum, according to the laws of euphony—as scribo, scripsi, scriptum; glubo, glupsi, gluptum.

aspectum.

162. The following form exceptions:—

(cumbo only in compounds.)

aspicio.

incumbo. incubui. incubitum, lie upon. rumpo, rūpi, ruptum. break. strěpui, strěpo, strepitum, make a noise. bibo. bĭbi, drink. lambo, lambi. lick. scăbo. scābi, scratch.

- 163. Verbs ending in co (not sco), go, ho, guo, quo, form their perfect in si—which, combined with the final letter of the stem, becomes xi (qu and gu=c)—and the supine in tum, before which the final consonant of the stem is always c—as dico, dixi, dictum; tego, texi, tectum; traho, traxi, tractum; exstinguo, exstinxi, exstinctum; coquo, coxi, coctum.
- 164. The following deviate from this rule. In some of them the stem is increased in the present, and the simple stem reappears in the supine; thus—

fingo, finxi, fictum, feign. mingo, minxi, mictum, urinate. pinxi, pictum, paint. pingo, press close. stringo, strinxi, strictum, do, drive, act. actum, ēgi.

In compounds the a is generally changed into t—as abigo, redigo; but perago and circumago. Dego is contracted for deago, and cogo for coago, perf. coegi, sup. coactum.

frēgi, break. frango, fractum, ico (icio?), īci, strike. ictum. gather, read. In some compounds lēgi, lectum, lĕgo, the e is changed into i as intelligo, colligo, deligo, eligo. (lictum), leave. linguo. līqui,

vinco.	vici,	victum.	conquer.
figo,	fixi,	fixum.	fasten.
mergo,	mersi,	mersum,	dip.
spargo,	sparsi,	sparsum,	scatter.
tergo.	tersi,	tersum,	wipe.
vergo,		<u>_</u>	incline towards. [parsi.
parco,	pěperci,	parsum,	spare. The perfect is sometimes
pungo,	рйрйді,	punctum,	prick. The compounds make the perfect regularly punxi.
tango,	tětřgi,	tactum,	touch. Compounds change the a into i—as attingo, attigi, attactum.
pango,	{ panxi, or pēgi,	{ panctum, or pactum,	fix in. This verb, in the sense of bargain, makes the perfect p*p*p*g*, and the supine pactum. Compounds regularly have pēgi
			and pactum.

165. Verbs in do form their perfect in si, and the supine in sum, the d being thrown out before these terminations for euphony—as claudo, clausi, clausum. There are, however, many in which this general rule is not complied with:—

cēdo, accendo,	cessi, accendi,	cessum, accensum,	move, yield. kindle. So also the other com-
	•		pounds of cando, which itself is not used.
cūdo,	cūdi,	cūsum,	forge, stamp.
defendo.	defendi,	defensum,	ward off, defend.
ĕdo,	ēdi.	ēsum,	eat.
fundo.	fūdi,	fūsum,	pour.
mando,	(mandi),	mansum,	chew.
prehendo,	prehendi,	prehensum,	sometimes prendi, prensum, seize.
scando,	scandi,	scansum,	climb. Compare accendo above.
strīdo,	strīdi,	. —	whistle, hiss. (Sometimes strideo,
rŭdo,	{ rudīvi, and } rudi,	}	bray. [stridere.)
findo,	`fIdi,	fissum,	split.
frendo,	<del></del> .	{ fressum, or } { fresum,	gnash.
pando,	pandi,	passum, or pansum,	spread open. Dispando has only dispansum.
scindo,	scĭdi,	scissum.	cut.
sīdo,	sēdi (sīdi),	sessum,	seat myself.
cădo,	cĕcĭdi,	cāsum,	fall. In compounds there is no reduplication, and the & is
			changed into i — as concido, occido, recido.
caedo,	cecīdi.	caesum,	cause to fall. In compounds there
cueuo,	cecui,	cuceum,	is no reduplication, and the ae is changed into i—as concido,
pendo.	pëpendi.	m.com.001990	concisi, concisum. weigh. Its compounds have no
penato,	ререния	pensum,	reduplication.

tendo,	tĕtendi,	ftensum, or tentum,	stretch. Its compounds have no reduplication, and usually have tentum; though some, as extendo and retendo, have both forms.
tundo, crēdo,	tĭttĭdi, crēdĭdi,	{ tūsum, or { tunsum, crēditum,	beat. Its compounds generally have tūsum. believe, intrust.

do in compounds following the third conjugation makes the perfect in didi, and supine dium—as addo, adduli, addum; condo, conduli, conduum. The double compound abscondo has usually abscondi, and rarely abscondidi.

fido, fisus sum, trust (a semi-deponent.)

166. Verbs ending in lo never form the perfect and supine according to the general rule; some make them according to the second conjugation—perfect ui, supine tum or itum—and others present other irregularities. The following are of this kind:—

ălo, cŏlo, consŭlo, occŭlo, mŏlo, antecello,	ălui,  colui,  consului,  occului,  molui,  antecellui,	dlium, or dlium, cultum, consultum, occultum, molitum,	nourish.  cultivate, till. give advice, or ask for advice. conceal. grind. excel. From the obsolete cello: in like manner are conjugated excello and praecello.
fallo, pello, percello, psallo, vello,	f efelli, pëp ŭli, percŭli, psalli, velli (vulsi),	falsum, pulsum, perculsum, vulsum,	deceive. thrust. The compounds have no strike down. [reduplication. play a stringed instrument. pull or pinch. The compounds have velli, vulsum; but arello and evello have both arelli and evelli, and also avulsi and evulsi.
tollo,	sustăli,	sublātum,	lift up. Perfect and supine are here formed from a different stem, with the preposition sub.

167. Verbs ending in mo make their perfect regularly in si, and the supine in tum; but a euphonic p is generally inserted before these terminations—as sumo, sumpsi, sumptum; como, compsi, comptum. The following, however, do not comply with this rule:—

frěmo,	frĕmui,	frĕmĭtu <b>m,</b>	make a noise.
gĕmo,	gĕmui,	gĕmĭtum,	groan.
vomo,	vŏmui,	vomitum,	vomit.
tremo.	trěmui,		tremble.

sterno,

strāvi.

strātum.

žmo, žmi, emptum, buy. Its compounds, with the exception of cožmo, change ž into i—as adimo, adžmi, ademptum. So also eximo, interimo, perimo, redimo.

premo. pressi. pressum. pressu.

168. Verbs ending in no deviate from the general rule for the formation of the perfect and supine, with the exception of temno and its compounds, which make the perfect tempsi, and the supine temptum—as contemno, contempsi, contemptum. The following are peculiar:—

sing. Among its compounds, concino and căno. cĕcĭni, cantum. occino (also occano) make their perfect concinui and occinui, and the supine concentum and occentum. gěnitum, beget. gigno, gěnui, pŏsui, positum, place. pono, lēvi, } anoint, daub. Another form is linio, linire. lino, litum, \ līvi, \ sīvi. stium. allow, permit. Desino, perf. desivi, adsino. mits of contraction—desii, desisti, desiit, desieram, &c. crēvi, (crētum), separate, perceive. cerno, sperno, sprēvi, despise. sprētum,

169. Verbs in ro generally form the perfect and supine irregularly, but r being changed into s cannot be regarded as an irregularity, s and r being convertible, as—

throw down.

gëro, gessi, gestum, carry. ūro, ussi, ustum, burn. curro, cūcurri, cursum, run, race.

170. Verbs in so (xo) usually form their perfect in ui, like those of the second conjugation; but in the supine they generally drop the connecting vowel i before tum, as—

viso. vīsi. visit. depso, depsui, depstum, knead. ( pinsttum, ) ( pinsui, or pinso, pinsum, pound. pinsi. pistum, textum, texo. texui. weave.

171. Those in esso make their perfect in zvi, and the supine in ztum, as verbs of the fourth conjugation:—

arcesso, arcessivi, arcessitum, { send for. The passive infinitive accerso, accersivi, accersitum, } is sometimes arcessiri.

172. In many verbs ending in cto the t is only an increase of the stem in the present, and is accordingly omitted in the perfect and supine, the original stem ending in c—as flecto, flexie, flexum; but the following are not reducible to any rule:—

měto, messui. messum. reap. mitto. mīsi, missum, send. { pětivi, or } petitum, seek, aim at. pěto, pětii. stätum. cause to stand. In its intransitive sisto. stiti. meaning, 'I stand,' its perfect is stěti (from sto, stare), and the supine statum. sterto, stertui. snore. verto. verti, versum, turn.

173. In verbs ending in sco, the sco either belongs to the stem, and is consequently retained in conjugation, or sco is a suffix, by means of which verbs are derived from verbs, substantives, and adjectives. This class of derivative verbs is called *inchoative*, and denotes an action or condition as beginning to take place. There are few verbs in which the sc belongs to the stem:—

disco, d'd'ici, — learn.
posco, pŏposci, — demand.
glisco, — increase.

174. Inchoative verbs take the perfect of the simple verbs from which they are formed—as incalesco, perf. incalui (from caleo); ingemisco, ingemui (from gemo); deliquesco, delicui (from liqueo, perf. liqui or licui.)

Few inchoative verbs have the supine of the verbs from which they are derived. Some, which are derived from adjectives in us, a, um, or er, a, um, form a perfect in ui, but have no supine—as maturesco (grow ripe), perf. maturui; obmutesco (grow dumb), obmutui; percretresco (become frequent), percretrui; and so also evilesco, evilüi, though it is derived from the adjective vilii. Irraucesco (grow hoarse, from raucus) makes the perfect irregularly irrausi. All others derived from adjectives in is, and many of those derived from adjectives in us, have neither perfect nor supine.

175. The following inchoatives have also the supine of their simple verbs:—

coalesco, coalui, coalum, grow together (from alo.) concupisco, concupitu, concupitum, desire strongly (from cupio.)

convalesco. convalui. convalitum, grow well, strong (from valeo.) begin to blaze (from ardeo.) exardesco. exarsi, exarsum, inveteratum, inveterasco. inveteravi, grow old (from invetero.) obdormisco. obdormīvi. obdormitum, fall asleep (from dormio.) revivisco. revixi. revictum. revive (from vivo.)

176. The following verbs, though originally inchoatives, have lost their inchoative meaning, or are derived from simple verbs which are no longer in use, and may therefore be regarded as simple verbs:—

) from the obsolete adolesco. adolēvi. adultum. grow up, exolēvi, exolētum. disappear, exolesco. [oleo, grow. crēvi. crētum, grow. cresco. compescui, tame, subdue. compesco, dispesco. dispescui, sever, separate. hisco. yawn. novi, nōtum, become acquainted. Its comnosco. pounds make the supine in itum — as agnosco, agnitum; cognosco, cognitum; but ignosco (pardon) has ignōtum. pāvi, pastum, feed. pasco, quiesco, quiēvi, quiētum, rest. suesco, suēvi, suētum. accustom myself. scīvi, ordain, sanction (from scio.) scisco. scītum,

177. The following deponent verbs also form their supine, or rather their perfect participle, peculiarly:—

(fruitus, and )

enjoy (part. fut. fruiturus.) fruor, fructus sum, grădior. proceed. gressus sum, aggressus sum. attack. aggrědior, liquor, melt. loquor. locutus sum. speak. sĕquor, seculus sum, follow. die (part. fut. moriturus.) morior. mortuus sum, nixus, or nītor, lean upon, strive. d nīsus sum,∫ pătior. suffer. passus sum, amplector, and ) amplexus, and ) embrace (from plecto.) complector, complexus sum, { queror, questus sum, complain. ringor, gnash the teeth. ūtor, ūsus sum. aptus sum, obtain; adipiscor, adeptus sum, apiscor, defessus sum. grow weary. [is more common. defetiscor, experrectus sum. awake. expergiscor, irascor, irātus sum, am angry. comminiscor. commentus sum, devise. reminiscor, remember. (nactus, or nanciscor. obtain. \ nanctus sum, \

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nascor,
                   nātus sum,
                                      am born (part, fut, nasciturus.)
obliviscor.
                   oblītus sum.
                                      forget.
paciscor.
                   pactus sum,
                                      make a treaty.
proficiscor,
                   profectus sum.
                                      depart, travel.
ulciscor.
                   ultus sum.
                                      avenge.
vescor,
                                      feed on.
                   reversus sum,
revertor,
                                      return.
divertor,
                                      turn aside.
```

# VERBS OF THE FOURTH CONJUGATION FORMING THEIR PERFECT AND SUPINE DIFFERENTLY FROM THE GENERAL RULE.

178. Verbs of the fourth conjugation make their perfect by adding to the stem vi for the perfect, and tum for the supine; but the following make the perfect in si, and the supine in tum, before which the i of the stem is often omitted:—

```
stuff. In compounds the a is changed
                      fartum, or
farcio.
           farsi.
                      farctum.
                                         into e-as refercio, refersi, refertum.
fulcio,
            fulsi,
                        fultum,
                        haustum,
                                       draw (part. fut. hausturus, or hausu-
haurio,
            hausi.
                      { sanctum, or }
            sanxi,
                                      decree.
sancio,
                       sancitum.
sarcio,
                        sartum,
                                      patch.
            sarsi,
sentio,
                                      feel.
            sensi,
                        sensum,
saepio,
            saepsi,
                        saeptum.
                                      hedge in: is also spelled sepio.
vincio.
            vinxi,
                        vinctum,
```

179. The following present various irregularities:—

```
amicīvi.
                        amictum.
                                      clothe.
amicio,
            cīvi,
                        ctum,
                                      summon, call.
cio,
eo,
            īvi,
                        Itum,
                                      go.
                                      strike.
ferio,
            ăpĕrui,
ăpěrio,
                        apertum,
                                      open.
reperio,
            rēpēri,
                       repertum,
                                      find; the perfect is better spelled
                                        reppěri. So also comperio, com-
                                        pěri, compertum.
           ( sălui, or )
                                      leap. In compounds the a is changed
sălio,
                       saltum,
           \ sălii,
                                        into i-as desilio, desilui, or desilii,
                                        desultum.
            sĕpĕlīvi,
                        sepultum,
sĕpĕlio.
                                      bury. There is also a perfect sepeli.
            vēni.
                        ventum.
                                      come.
věnio,
```

180. Desiderative verbs end in urio, and are derivatives denoting a desire to do that which is implied in the simple verb; they have neither perfect nor supine—as dormiturio, wish to sleep, or am sleepy; esurio, want to eat. The same is the case with some derivatives from adjectives—as caecutio (from caecus), am blind; ineptio (from ineptus), am silly.

181. There are also some deponents of the fourth conjugation which form the past participle differently from the general rule:—

assentior, expěrior, mětior,	assensus sum, expertus sum, mensus sum,	assent. experience. measure.
oppĕrior,	{ oppertus, or } oppertus sum, }	wait for.
ordior, orior,	orsus sum, ortus sum,	begin. rise (fut. part. orttūrus, and gerundive oriundus.)

In the present indicative, orior is inflected according to the third conjugation—as orëris, oritur, orimur; in the imperfect subjunctive we find both orërer and orirer. The same is the case with the compounds coörior and exorior; but adorior follows the fourth conjugation in every respect.

#### IRREGULAR VERBS.

- 182. Irregular verbs are those which not only form their perfect and supine in an unusual manner, but also differ from the ordinary forms in the manner in which the terminations are added to the stem. Most of these irregularities, however, arise from euphonic changes, syncope, contraction, and from the fact, that different tenses of one verb are formed from different stems, as in the case of the verb esse.
- 183. The number of simple irregular verbs is eleven—sum, possum, edo, fero, volo, nolo, malo, eo, queo, nequeo, and fio, to which their derivatives and compounds must be added: these, however, are conjugated like the simple verbs.
- 184. The verb 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 sum begins with a vowel; in the perfect, and the tenses derived from it, the f (of fuo) is thrown out.

#### INDICATIVE.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PRESENT.

Sing. pos-sum, I am able, I can.

pŏt-ĕs.
pōt-est.

Plur. pos-sūnus.
pŏt-estis.
pos-sunt.

Sing. pos-sim, I am able, or may be able.
pos-sīt.
pos-sīt.
Plur. pos-sīnus.
pos-sītis.
pos-sīnt.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### IMPERFECT.

Sing. pot-eram, I was able, or | Sing. pos-sem, I was, might, I could. pŏt-ĕrās.

or should be, able.

pos-sět.

pŏt-ĕrat. Plur. pot-eramus. pot-ĕrātis. pot-ĕrant.

Plur. pos-sēmus. pos-sētis. pos-sent.

#### FUTURE.

Sing. pŏt-ĕro, I shall be able. pot-ĕris.

pot-ĕrit. Plur. pot-ĕrĭmus. pot-ĕrĭtis.

#### PERFECT.

Sing. pŏt-ui, I was, have been, Sing. pŏt-uĕrim, I may have able.

pot-uistī. pot-uit.

pot-ĕrunt.

Plur. pot-uimus. pot-uistīs. pot-uērunt, or ēre.

been able. pot-uěris.

pot-uěrit. Plur. pot-uěrtmus.

pot-uěritis. pot-uĕrint.

#### PLUPERFECT.

able.

Sing. pot-ueram, I had been | Sing. pot-uissem, I had, should, or might have been able.

pot-uissēs. pot-uissět.

pot-uěrat. Plur. pot-uěrāmus. Plur. pot-uissēmus. pot-uĕrātis. pot-uissētis. pot-uĕrant. pot-uissent.

#### FUTURE PERFECT.

G

Sing. pŏt-uĕro, I shall have been able.

pot-uĕris.

pot-uĕrās.

pot-uěrit. Plur. pot-uěržmus.

pot-ueritis. pot-uĕrint.

The subjunctive is wanting.

#### INFINITIVE.

Present, pos-se, to be able. Perfect, pot-uisse, to have been able.

#### PARTICIPLE.

*Potens*, is used only as an adjective = 'powerful.' The imperative does not occur.

185. The verb ĕdo (I eat) may be conjugated regularly after the third conjugation, perf. ēdī, sup. ēsum, inf. ēdēre; but in several of its forms a syncope is sometimes employed, in consequence of which they become like the corresponding tenses of the verb sum. The following are the tenses in which this resemblance occurs :---

#### INDICATIVE.

#### PRESENT.

Plur. edimus, editis or ēstis, edunt.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### IMPERFECT.

Sing. edo, edis or ēs, edit or ēst. | Sing. ederem or ēssem, ederes or esses, ederet or esset. Plur. ederemus or ēssemus, . *ederetis* or ēssetis.

ederent or essent.

#### IMPERATIVE.

#### PRESENT.

Sing. ede or ēs. Plur. edite or este.

#### FUTURE.

Sing. edito or esto.

Plur. edito or esto, editote or

# INFINITIVE.

*ĕdĕre* or *ēsse*.

In the passive, the syncope takes place only in editur, estur, and ederetur, ëssetur.

The same syncope occurs in the compounds of edo—as comedo. comedis = comes, comedit = comest, comedere = comesse, and so on. The e in all these syncopated forms was pronounced as long by nature, and not only by position.

186. The irregularity of the verb fero (I bring or bear), which properly belongs to the third conjugation, consists in its taking its perfect tuli and its supine latum from different words. The tenses derived from these two forms, however, are perfectly regular; but in the other tenses an occasional irregularity occurs, which arises from the omission of the connecting vowel between the stem and the termination:-

#### ACTIVE VOICE.

# INDICATIVE. SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sing. fër-o, fer-s, fer-t.
Plur. fër-i-mus, fer-tis, fëru-nt.

PRESENT.
Sing. fër-am, fër-as, fër-at.
Plu. fër-amus, fër-atis, fërant.

IMPERFECT.

Sing.  $fer - \bar{e} - bam$ ,  $fer - \bar{e} - bas$ ,  $fer - \bar{e} - bat$ .

Plur.  $fer - \bar{e} - bamus$ ,  $fer - \bar{e} - batis$ ,  $fer - \bar{e} - bant$ .

Plur.  $fer - \bar{e} - bant$ .

Plur. fer - remus, fer - retis, fer - rent.

FUTURE

Sing. fēr-am, fēr-ēs, fēr-et.

Plur. fēr-ēmus, fēr-ētis, fērent.

Sing. la-turus (a, um) sim, sis,
sit.

Plur. la-turi (ae, a) simus,
sitis, sint.

PERFECT.

Sing. tăl-i, tăl-isti, tăl-it.

Plur. tăl-imus, tăl-istis, tălērunt, or ēre.

Sing. tăl-ĕrim, tăl-ĕris, tălĕrit.
Plur. tăl-ĕrimus, tăl-ĕrštis,
tăl-ĕrint.

PLUPERFECT.

Sing. tăl-ĕram, ĕras, ĕrat. | Sing. tăl-issem, isses, isset. | Plur. tăl-ĕrāmus, ĕrātis, ĕrant. | Plur. tăl-issemus, issetis, issent.

FUTURE PERFECT.

Sing. tăl-ĕro, ĕris, ĕrit.
Plur. tăl-ĕrimus, ĕritis, ĕrint.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.
Sing. fer.
Sing. fer-to.
Flur. fer-te.
Plur. fer-te.
Plur. fer-u-nto.

INFINITIVE.

Present, fer-re. Perfect, tŭl-isse. Future, lā-tūrum (am, um) esse.

GERUND.

fer-endum, fer-endi, fer-endo.

SUPINE. lā-tum and lā-tū.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Present, fër-e-ns. Future, lā-tūrus, a, um.

#### PASSIVE VOICE.

#### INDICATIVE.

bantur.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

fer-rentur.

#### PRESENT.

Sing. fër-or, fer-ris, fer-tur.
Plur. fër-i-mur, fër-i-mini,
fër-u-ntur.
Sing. fër-ar, aris, atur.
Plur. fër-amur, amini, antur.

#### IMPERFECT.

Sing. fēr-ē-bar, bāris (or bāre), bātur.

Plur. fēr-ē-bāmur, bāmini, Plur. fer-rēmur, fer-rēmini,

FUTURE.

Sing. fër-ar, ëris, ëtur.
Plur. fër-ëmur, ëmini, entur.

The subjunctive is wanting.

# PERFECT.

Sing. la-tus (a, um) sum, es, | Sing. la-tus (a, um) sim, sis, est. | Sing. la-tus (a, um) sim, sis,

Plur. la-ti (ae, a) sumus, estis, Plur. la-ti (ae, a) simus, sitis, sint.

#### PLUPERFECT.

Sing. la-tus (a, um) eram, eras, Sing. la-tus (a, um) essem, erat.

Plur. lā-ti (ae, a) eramus, Plur. lā-ti (ae, a) essemus, &c. eratis, erant.

FUTURE PERFECT.

Sing. lā-tus (a, um) ero, &c. Plur. lā-ti (ae, a) erimus, &c. The subjunctive is wanting.

# - IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT. Sing. fer-re.

Sing. fer-tor. fer-tor. Plur. fer-u-ntur.

Plur. fĕr-ēmini.

# INFINITIVE.

Present, fer-ri. Perfect, la-tum (am, um) esse. Future, la-tum iri.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Perfect, la-tus, a, um. Gerundive, fer-e-ndus, a, um.

All the compounds of fero are conjugated like the simple verb—as affero (from ad and fero), attuli, allatum; aufero (from ab and fero), abstuli, ablatum, aufere; offero (from ob and fero), obtuli, oblatum; suffero (from sub and fero), sustuli, sublatum (used as the perfect and supine of the verb tollo); differo (from dis and fero), distuli, dilatum; defero, detuli, delatum; circumfero, circumtuli, circumlatum; transfero, transtuli, translatum.

187. Vŏlo (I will) is a simple verb, but nōlo (I will not) is compounded of ne or non, and volo; and mālo (I will rather) of magis or mage, and volo. They are irregular only in the tenses formed from the present indicative and the infinitive.

#### INDICATIVE.

		PRESENT.	
Sing. voi	l-o,	nōl-o,	mal-o.
้ ขริง	,	non vīs,	māvīs.
vu	ĺ-t,	non vul-t,	māvul-t.
	l-ú-mus, l-tis, -u-nt,	nōl-ŭ-mus, non vul-tis, nōl-u-nt.	māl-ŭ-mus. māvul-tis. māl-u-nt.
006	-u-nı,	ποι-α-πι,	7/1011-11-711.

#### IMPERFECT.

vol-ē-bam, bas, &c. no	il-ē-bam, bas, &c.	māl-ē-bam,	bas, &c.
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#### FUTURE.

völ-am, es, et, &c.	<b>n</b> ōl-am, es, et, &c.	māl-am, es, &c.
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#### PERFECT.

vŏl-ui, uisti, &c.	nol-ui, uisti, &c.	māl-ui, uisti, &c.
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#### PLUPERFECT.

vŏl-uĕram, uĕras,	nōl-uĕram, uĕras,	māl-uĕram, ueras.
&c.	&c.	·

#### FUTURE PERFECT.

vol-uëro, uëris, &c. nol-uëro, uëris, &c. mal-uëro, uëris.

# SUBJUNCTIVE.

	FREDERI L.	
Sing. věl-i-m,	nōl-i-m,	māl-i-m.
včl-₹-8,	nōl-ī-s,	māl-ī-s.
věl-i-t,	nōl−i−t,	māl-i-t.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE. PRESENT. Plur. věl-ī-mus, nōl- $ar{\imath}$ -mus, māl-ī-mus. věl-ī-tis, nol-ī-tis, māl-ī-tis. věl-i-nt, nōl-i-nt, māl-i-nt. IMPERFECT. vel-lem, es, et, &c. nol-lem, es, et, &c. mal-lem, es, et, &c. PERFECT. vŏl-uĕrim, ueris, nōl-uĕrim, uĕris, māl-uĕrim, uĕris, &c. &c. &c. PLUPERFECT. vol-uissem, uisses, nol-uissem, uisses, māl-uissem, uisses, &c. &c. &c. IMPERATIVE. PRESENT. nol-ī, nol-ītě. FUTURE. Sing. nol-1-to. | Plur. nol-1-tote. nol-ī-to. nõl-u-nto. INFINITIVE. nol-lĕ, mal-lĕ. Present, vel-le, Perfect, vol-uisse, nol-uisse, mal-uisse. PARTICIPLES.

188. The verb eo (I go) belongs to the fourth conjugation, and is almost regular. Its stem consists of a simple i, which is f in

Present, vol-e-ns. nol-e-ns.

INDICATIVE.	SUBJUNCTIVE.
formed without the connecting vow bo instead of am.	

PRESENT. | Sing. e-am, e-as, e-at. Sing. e-o, ī-s, ĭ-t. Plur. 1-mus, 1-tis, e-unt. Plur. e-āmus, e-ātis, e-ant.

IMPERFECT.

Sing. *ī-bam*, *ī-bas*, *ī-bat*, &c. | Sing. *ī-rem*, *i-res*, *i-ret*, &c.

INDICATIVE.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sing. ī-bo, ī-bis, ī-bit, &c.

FUTURE.

Sing. \(\frac{1}{2}\)-t\(\bar{u}\)rus (a, um), sim, sis, &c.

PERFECT.

₹-vī, ₹-visti, ₹-vit, &c.

ī-verim, ī-vēris, ī-vērit, &c.

PLUPERFECT.

₹-věram, ₹-věras, ₹-věrat,

ī-vissem, ī-visses, ī-visset,

FUTURE PERFECT.

-vēro, ī-vēris, ī-vērit, &c.

The subjunctive is wanting.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT. Sing. 7.

FUTURE. Sing. ī-to.

TD1 - - 4

ī-to.
Plur. ī-tote.
e-unto.

Plur. 1-te.

INFINITIVE.

Present, i-re.

Perfect, 7-visse.

Future, i-tūrum (am, um) esse.

GERUND.

e-u-ndum, e-u-ndi, e-u-ndo.

SUPINE.

ĭ-tum, ĭ-tu.

PARTICIPLES.

Present, i-e-ns; gen. e-u-ntis. Future, ĭ-tūrus, a, um.

In like manner are conjugated all the compounds of eo; but in the perfect voi, voisti, &c. the endings are generally contracted into ü, iisti, or isti—as abeo, perf. abii, abiisti, or abisti; redeo, perf. redii, rediisti, or redisti, redieram, rediissem, or redissem, &c.

Among the compounds of eo two deserve special notice—vēneo (I am sold), ambio (I go round.) The former, which has a passive meaning, is composed of venum and eo, and takes the place of the passive of endo (venum do), I sell.

Ambio is conjugated regularly according to the fourth conjugation—as ambiunt, ambiam, ambiebam (also ambibam), ambient (also ambibunt), ambiendum, ambiens, genitive ambientis.

189. The verbs queo (I can) and nequeo (I cannot) are both conjugated like eo—perfect quīvi and nequīvi, supine quītum and nequītum, infinitive quīre and nequīre; but neither of them has an imperative, a gerund, or a future participle.

190. Fiv (I become, or am made) is a verb of the fourth conjugation, and presents few irregularities, except that its compound tenses are taken from facto, to which it supplies the

place of a passive. Its stem is fi.

#### INDICATIVE.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

#### PRESENT.

Sing. fi-o, fi-s, fi-t. | Sing. fi-am, fi-as, fi-at. | Plur. fi-amus, fi-at. | Plur. fi-at. | Plur. fi-at.

#### IMPERFECT.

Sing.  $f\bar{\imath}$ - $\bar{e}$ -ban,  $f\bar{\imath}$ - $\bar{e}$ -bās,  $f\bar{\imath}$ - $\bar{e}$ -bat.

Plur.  $f\bar{\imath}$ - $\bar{e}$ -bāmus,  $f\bar{\imath}$ - $\bar{e}$ -bātis,  $f\bar{\imath}$ - $\bar{e}$ -bant.

Sing.  $f\bar{\imath}$ - $\bar{e}$ -rem,  $f\bar{\imath}$ -e-res,  $f\bar{\imath$ 

#### FUTURE.

Sing. fi-am, fi- $\bar{e}s$ , fi-et. Plur. fi- $\bar{e}mus$ , fi- $\bar{e}tis$ , fi-ent. The subjunctive is wanting.

#### 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. | The subjunctive is wanting.

#### IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.

FUTURE.

Sing. fī. Plur. fī-te.

The future is wanting.

#### INFINITIVE.

Present, fi-ëri. Perfect, fac-tum (am, um) esse. Future, fac-tum iri.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Present is wanting. Perfect, fac-tus, a, um. Gerundive, fac-i-e-ndus.

The  $\bar{\imath}$  in fio is long throughout, even when followed by another vowel; but it is short in  $f\bar{\imath}$ , and wherever it is followed by -er.

#### DEFECTIVE VERBS.

191. Defective verbs are those of which only certain isolated forms occur in Latin authors. Such verbs are coept, memint, ōdi, nōvī, aio, inquam, fūrī, cedo, quaeso; and the imperatives,

ăve, ăpăge, salve, văle, and ovare.

coep-ĕrim,

192. The four verbs coept (I begin),  $m \in m \in n$  (I remember),  $\bar{c}d\bar{t}$  (I hate),  $n \bar{c}v\bar{t}$  (I know), are in reality perfects, the presents of which are not in use, with the exception of  $n \bar{c}v\bar{t}$ , which is derived from nosco (I become acquainted.) These perfects have the meaning of a present; for  $n \bar{c}v\bar{t}$ , 'I have become acquainted; is equivalent to 'I know;' hence the pluperfect has the meaning of an ordinary imperfect, and the future perfect that of an ordinary future. They have of course only those tenses which are derived from the perfect; and their conjugation is quite regular.

#### INDICATIVE.

#### PERFECT.

coepī, coep-istī, coep-it, &c.	měmřn-ī, měmřn-istī, měmřn-it, &c.	ōd−ī, ōd-istī, ōd-it, &c.	nōv-ī. nōv-istī. nōv-it, &c.
	PLUPE	RFECT.	
coep-ĕram,	měmĭn-ěram,	ōd-ĕram,	nōv <b>-ĕ</b> ram.
	FUTURE :	PERFECT.	
coep-ĕro,	měmĭn–ěro,	ōd-ĕro,	nōv-ĕro.
	SUBJUN	CTIVE.	
	PERI	FECT.	
_			_

měmin-ěrim,

### SUBJUNCTIVE.

	PLUPERFECT.		
coep-issem,	měmřn-issem,	$\bar{o}d$ -isse $m$ ,	nōv-issem.

IMPERATIVE.

	101	O AGES	
——— Sing. Plur.	měmen-to. měmen-tōte.		•
	· INFIN	ITIVE.	
coep-isse,	měmĭn-isse,	ōd-is <b>s</b> e,	nōv-isse.
	PARTI(	CIPLES.	
	PER	FECT.	
coep-tus,		ō-sus (obsolete),	$(n\bar{o}$ -tus.)
	FUT	URE.	
coep-tūrus,		ō-sūrus.	
connection with building of the l	other passive ver nouse was comme	us (a, um) sum, wh bs—domus aedificari enced.) Hence we ero, coeptus essem, co	coepta est (the have the forms
193. Of aio forms occur :		or affirm), only	the following
INDICA		SUBJUNC	TIVE.
Sing. aio, ais, a		Sing. — aias, Plur. — —	aiat. aiant.
IMPER	PPCT	PARTIC	TPLR.
		Present, aiens,	
The imperative present.	e ai is obsolete,	and the perfect	ait is like the
194. Inquam	(I say) is very	defective; the fo	llowing forms
	INDIC	ATIVE.	
PRES	BENT.	IMPERE	ECT.
Sing. inquam, a Plur. inquimus quiunt.	inquis, inquit. , inquitis, in-	Sing. — — — Plur. — —	– inquiēbat. – ——

#### INDICATIVE.

Sing. — inquisti, inquit. | Sing. — inquiës, inquiet.

IMPERATIVE.

PRESENT.
Sing. inque.

FUTURE. Sing. inquito.

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

195. The verb  $f\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$  (to speak), a deponent of the first conjugation, is defective; there are, however, some of its compounds—as affari, effari, praefari, and profari—which have a few more forms, distinguished from the others by being placed within parentheses.

#### INDICATIVE.

#### SUBJUNCTIVE.

Sing. \_\_\_\_\_\_fātur. | The subjunctive is wanting.

IMPERFECT.

(fabar.)

| (farer, &c.)

FUTURE.

fabor (faberis), fabitur. | The subjunctive is wanting.

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.

Pres. fare.

Pres. fāri.

fātu.

#### PARTICIPLES.

Present, fantis, fanti, fantem, fante.

Perfect, fātus, a, um. Gerundive, fandus, a, um.

196. Cèdo 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.'

197. Quaeso (I pray) and quaesumus (we pray) are only different in form from quaero and quaerimus. Both quaeso and

quaesumus are, like the English 'pray,' inserted in a sentence—as dic, quaeso, unde venius, 'tell me, pray, whence you come.'

198. The four imperatives ἄνē, ἄρἄgĕ, salvē, vǎlē, 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 have), plural avēte, and the future imperative avēto (sometimes avēre jubeo), signify 'be greeted,' or 'good-day,'

'I am glad to see you.

άμασε was used by the Romans 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.'

199. Of övāre (to rejoice, or celebrate a triumph), there occur only övet, övāret, övandi, övāturus, övātus, övandi, and frequently ovans.

#### IMPERSONAL VERBS.

200. 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, and their subject in English is the indefinite 'it'—as pluit, it rains; licet, it is permitted; opportet, it is a duty.

201. Impersonal verbs are those which denote the various

states of the weather, as-

pluit, it rains.
ningit, it snows.
grandinat, it hails.
lapidat, or lapidatum est, stones fall
from heaven.

lucescit and illucescit, it dawns.
fulgürat and fulminat, it lightens.
tönat, it thunders.
vesperascit and advesperascit, it
grows dark.

202. The following impersonal verbs describe certain states of the mind, and require the person in whom the state of mind exists in the accusative:—

miseret (me), I pity, perf. miseritum est, misertum est, or miseruit. piget (me), I regret, perf. piguit, or pigitum est. poenitet (me), I repent, perf. poenituit. pidet (me), I am ashamed, perf. puduit, or puditum est. taedet (me), I am disgusted, perf. pertaesum est, and rarely taeduit. oportet (me), it is necessary for me, I must, perf. oportuit.

203. The following 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 as their subject:-

děcet (me), it becomes me, perf. děcuit. děděcet (me), it does not become me, děděcuit. libet or libet (mihi), I like, choose, perf. libuit, or libitum est. licet (mihi), I am permitted, perf. licuit, or licitum est. liquet, it is obvious, perf. licuit.

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.'

204. A second class of impersonal verbs contains those which in the third person singular assume a peculiar meaning, differing from that which they have in the other persons. They are accordingly personal verbs, and impersonal only in a pecu-The most common among them are liar sense.

ance to. accidit, evenit, contingit, or fit, it happens. accēdit, it is added to, or in addition to. attinet and pertinet (ad), it concerns or pertains to. conducit, it is conducive. convěnit, it suits. constat, it is known or established. expedit, it is expedient.

interest and refert, it is of import- | delectat and juvat (me), it delights fallit, fügit, and praeterit (me), it escapes me. placet, it pleases, perf. placuit, or placitum est. praestat, it is better. restat, it remains. vacat, it is wanting. est, in the sense of licet, it is permitted or possible — as est

205. The third person singular passive is very often used impersonally, especially of intransitive verbs, which otherwise have no passive. This mode of speaking is employed to indicate generally that an action takes place, without attributing it to any definite person—as curritur, 'running is going on,' or 'people run;' vivitur, 'people live;' ventum est, 'people came,' or 'have come;' dormitur, 'sleeping is going on,' or 'people sleep.' The compound tenses of such passives have the participle only in the neuter—as ventum est; and in like manner the gerundive occurs only in the neuter in connection with esse—as pugnandum est, 'it is necessary to fight;' veniendum est, 'it is necessary to come.'

#### ADVERBS.

206. Adverbs are indeclinable words qualifying adjectives, verbs, or other adverbs, to which they stand in the same relation as adjectives to substantives—as valde strenus, 'very energetic;' bene loquitur, 'he speaks well;' epistola male scripta, 'a badly-written letter;' satis bene scriptum, 'tolerably well written.'

207. All adverbs, so far as their form is concerned, may be divided into three classes:—1. Primitive adverbs—as saepe, often; nunc, now; to which may be added prepositions when used as adverbs—as ante, before; post, after.—2. Adverbs derived from adjectives by the terminations \(\bar{e}, \bar{e}, \text{ ter} \) (answering to the English \(\bar{l}y\)—as docte, learnedly; merito, deservedly; fortiter, bravely; or the adjective in its neuter form—as facile (from facilis), easily.—3. Adverbs which are in reality particular cases or forms of substantives, pronouns, or adjectives—as noctu (an old ablative), by night; partim (an old accusative for partem), partly; hic, here; qua, where; ibi (from is), there; ubi (from qui), where. In regard to meaning, they chiefly express circumstances of place, time, manner, order, or degree.

208. The only inflection of which adverbs are capable is that of comparison. This, however, is limited almost entirely to

those derived from adjectives.

209. The general rule for the comparison of adverbs is, that the neuter singular of the comparative of an adjective is at the same time its adverb; and that the superlative of an adjective is changed into that of an adverb by changing the termination us into  $\bar{e}$ —as doctus, adverb doct $\bar{e}$ ; comparative doctior, neuter doctius, which is also an adverb; doctissim $\bar{e}$  is the adverb formed from the superlative doctissimus.

210. Primitive adverbs, and those formed from substantives and pronouns, except the following six, have no degrees of

comparison :-

Positive.	Comparative.	Superlative.
diū (long),	diūtius,	diūtissimē.
saepě (often),	saepius,	saepissimē.
sĕcus (otherwise),	sēcius,	
tempěri (in time),	tempĕrius,	
nuper (lately),		nuperrimē.
sătis (enough, or sufficient),	sătius,	

#### PREPOSITIONS.

- 211. Prepositions are not inflected: they simply denote in what relation or connection one person, thing, or action stands to another: e. g., Rome is a town in Italy; I travel through England.
- 212. Many of the relations which we express in English by prepositions, are expressed in Latin by certain cases of nouns without a preposition, whereby the Latin language has the advantage of conciseness—as domo, 'from home;' hoc modo, 'in this manner;' me ducente, 'under my guidance.'
- 213. Prepositions always exercise an influence upon the noun with which they are connected, and this influence is called government, rendering it necessary that the noun should be in a particular case.
- 214. According to the cases which prepositions govern, they are divided into three classes—
- 1. Prepositions governing the accusative are twenty-six in number:—

ad, to, up to, near, or nearly. adversus, or adversum, opposite, antë, before. [against. dpud, near, with. circa, or circum, around, about. circuer, about (in time or number.) cis, or cira, on this side of. contrā, against. ergā, towards. extrā, without (opposite of intrā.) infrā, below, beneath. inter, between, among. intrā, within.

juxtā, near to or beside.

ob, against or on account of.

pēxēs, in the power of.

per, through.

post, after.

praeter, besides, excepting.

propter, on account of, close by.

sēcundum, next after, in accordance

suprā, above.

trans, on the other side of, beyond.

ultrā, beyond.

versus, towards (a place.)

2. Prepositions governing the ablative are eleven in number:-

a, ab, or abs, from. absquë, without (wanting.) cõrām, in the presence of. cum, with, together with. drom, concerning. e or ex, out of, of, from. prae, before, in consequence of. pro, before, instead of, for. palam, with the knowledge of. sine, without (that is, not with.) tënus, up to, as far as.

3. The following four prepositions govern sometimes the accusative, and sometimes the ablative: the former, when

sub,

super.

subter.

they denote motion towards; and the latter, when they denote rest, or being in a place :-

With the Accusative. With the Ablative. into, against, under, about, towards, under. above, over, upon, concerning. under, beneath; generally with the accusative in either sense, rarely with the ablative.

215. Prepositions are very frequently compounded with other words, and if the latter begin with a consonant, the preposition in many cases undergoes a change for the sake of euphony—as attero (for adtero), aufero (for abfero.)

There are certain particles which are never used by themselves, and are found only in composition with other words, whence they are called inseparable particles, or inseparable prepositions. They are amb, around; dis, asunder; re, or red, again or back; and se, aside or without.

#### CONJUNCTIONS.

216. Conjunctions are indeclinable words, which shew the connection existing between sentences or clauses.

217. In form conjunctions are either simple or compound words—as et, āc, āt, sěd, věl, aut, nam; atque, quamvīs, attăměn, ěnimvērō, quamquam.

218. In regard to their meaning, all conjunctions may be arranged in ten classes :-

1. Copulative conjunctions, whereby clauses are put in the relation of equality to one another, or are merely placed in juxtaposition, asět, que, ac and atque (and); etiam (even, also); neque, or nec (and not or nor); nec non, or neque non (equivalent to et, and); quoque (also); neque-neque, or nec-nec (neither-nor); věl-věl, sīvě-sīvě, aut-aut (eitheror); modo-modo, or nunc-nunc (sometimes-sometimes); quum-tum (both-and.)

2. Comparative conjunctions:—it, iti, sicit, vēlit, proit, praeit, and ceu (as, or like); quam, 'than;' tamquam, quasi, ut si, ac si, 'as if.' Also āc and atque in the sense of 'as' and 'than.'

3. Conjunctions denoting concession, all of which are rendered in English by 'although,' 'though,' and 'even if'—as etsī, Etiamsī, tămetsi, or tămenetsi, quamquam, quamvis, quantumvis, quamlibet, licet, and sometimes quum; quidem or equidem signifies 'indeed.'

Conditional conjunctions:—sī (if); sin (if however); guodsī (if therefore); nīsī, or nī (if not); simödö, dummödö, dum, mödö (if only,

if but); dummodo ne, modo ne, or dumne (if but not.)

5. Inferential conjunctions, meaning 'therefore'—as ergō, "tottur, "taque, eō, ideō, idcircō, proinde, proptereā; to which may be added quāpropter, quare, quamobrem, quocirca (wherefore); and unde (whence, or for which reason.)

6. Conjunctions denoting reason or cause:—nam, namque, ĕnim, ĕtĕnim (for); quiā, quod, quōniam (because); and quippe, quum, quandō, quandōquidem, and siquidem (since, or as.)

7. Conjunctions denoting a purpose or object:—it, or iti (in order that); quō (in order that thereby); nē, or it nē (in order that not); nēvē, or neu (and in order that not); quōn (that not); quōnninis (in

order that not.)

8. Adversative conjunctions, all of which answer more or less to the English 'but,' or 'however:'—sëd, autem, vērum, vērō, dt, dt ĕnim, atquē, tāmēn, attiāmēn, sedtāmēn, vērumtāmēn, at vērō, ĕnimvērō, vērum ĕnimvērō, cētērum.

9. Conjunctions denoting time:—quum, üt, übi, quandō (when); quum primum, ut primum, übi primum, simülāc, simülatque, or simül (as soon as); postquam (after); antequam, priusquam (before); dum, usque dum,

donec, quoad (until, as long as.)

10. Interrogative conjunctions:—num, utrum, an; the suffix ne (nonne, annon), necne (or not); and the prefixes ec and en.

These interrogative particles are generally untranslatable into English, since with us the interrogative nature of a clause is indicated by the position of the words.

#### INTERJECTIONS.

219. Interjections are indeclinable words, being sounds uttered to express some strong emotion. Such sounds expressing the emotions of joy, grief, wonder, surprise, &c. are pretty nearly the same in all languages. The following interjections are actually found in ancient authors:—

```
are expressive of joy and delight.
io, iu, ha (ha), he,
hei, heu, ēheu, pāpae, ō,
                                         of grief (alas!)
her, neu, encu, pro, dtat, hem, ξ
                                         of astonishment and surprise.
  ehem, en, ecce,
hui, phui, vah, vae,
                                         of contempt and disgust.
heus, ō, ehō, ehodum,
                                         of calling attention to something.
                                   ...
                                         of praise (well done! bravo!)
eid, euge,
                                   ...
                                         of triumphant joy.
ēvoe, evax,
```

Interjections do not exercise any influence on the construction of a sentence. In Latin, as well as in English, it often happens that words which belong to other parts of speech are used as interjections. Those most commonly occurring are—

Nouns—pax! peace! be still!—infandum! shame!—miserum! wretched!
—mactě! (voc. sing.), macti! (voc. plur.), or mactě virtute!
admirable! bravo!

Verbs -age! agite! come! or quick!-cedo! give up!-sodes! my good friend!

Advs. — belle! excellent! bravo!—bene! very well!—cito! quick!

All kinds of invocations of the gods may be regarded as interjections—as per deos! 'by the gods!'—per deos immortales!' by the immortal gods!'—mehercule, mehercle, hercle! 'by Hercules!' Such exclama-

tions are sometimes accompanied by real interjections—as prok or pro Jupiter!—pro dii immortales!

#### ETYMOLOGY IN GENERAL.

220. All the actual words of a language are simple, derivative, or compound. The basis of both simple and derivative words is called the stem. A stem by itself does not convey any distinct meaning, but becomes significant by the addition of certain suffixes. Thus the stem duc, by the addition of section of e it becomes the substantive ducs = dux (leader), and by the addition of e it becomes the verb duce (I lead.) Words thus formed from a stem, by the simple addition of a suffix to give to the stem a definite meaning, are called simple words.

221. Derivative words may, like simple ones, be traced at once to their stem, but it is customary to trace them only to the simple ones; for a simple word conveys distinctly the idea of what is indistinctly contained in the stem, whereas a derivative word gives a modification of the idea conveyed by the simple word. As ama, verb amo, I love; from amo, is formed amabilis, amiable; amabilitas, amiability; and amator,

lover.

222. Derivative words are formed from simple ones by derivative suffixes, also called simply suffixes, as in the above example, bilis, bilitas, and tor. The same derivative suffix generally modifies in the same way all words to which it is added.

- 1. Derivative suffixes are generally appended to the stem of a word, such as it appears when divested of those simple suffixes by which it becomes a distinct word—as from miles (stem milit) are derived militars, militia; frango (stem frag), fragilis, fragor; semen (stem semin), seminarium.
- In substantives of the first, second, and fourth declensions, the final vowels of the stem a and u(s) are usually thrown out—as filia, filiola; luna, lunula; hortus, hortulus.
- Verbs of the first and second conjugations generally drop ā and ē before those derivative suffixes which begin with a vowel—as amo (stem ama), amor; palleo (stem palle), pallor.

3. The e in verbs of the second conjugation is dropped also before consonants, except in those verbs which make their perfect in vi.

4. When the stem ends in a consonant, and the derivative suffix begins with one, a connecting vowel (i or i) is often inserted between them, or one of the consonants is thrown out—as in fulmen (from fulgeo, stem fulg.) The latter is the case especially when the stem ends in r—as mōtus, mōtilis (from moveo, stem mov); adjutor and adjumentum (from juvo.)

5. When the stem of a verb ends in a, e, i, or u, these vowels are

generally lengthened before the derivative suffix—as velāmen, com-

plēmentum, molīmen, volūmen.

6. In forming nouns from verbs by suffixes beginning with t, the stem undergoes the same change as in the formation of the supine ending in tum; whence it may be said that they are formed from the supine —as amator (from amo, amatum), lector (from lego, lectum.)

# DERIVATION OF SUBSTANTIVES FROM VERBS, SUBSTANTIVES, AND ADJECTIVES,

223. The most natural way of deriving words from others is generally to form the stem into a verb, and then to deduce from that verb all other derivatives.

224. We shall here enumerate the different suffixes by means of which substantives are derived from verbs, substantives, and adjectives, treating first of substantives derived from verbs.

1. Substantives are derived from verbs (chiefly intransitives of the first three conjugations) by adding the suffix or to the pure stem (that is, after the a and e of the first and second conjugations are dropped); and such substantives express the action or condition substantively—as amor, error, clamor, from amo, erro, clamo.

 Substantives are formed from verbs by adding or to the stem as it appears in the supine—that is, by changing um into or. These denote a male person performing the action implied in the verb—as

amator, a lover; adjutor, a helper.

From many of these substantives in tor, feminines may be formed by changing tor into trix—as victor, victrix. Those in sor sometimes make feminines in strix—as tonsor, tonstrix; but expulsor, throwing out the s, makes expultrix.

3. Substantives denoting abstractly the action or condition expressed by a verb are formed from the supine by changing the termination

um into io, gen. ionis-as tractatio (from tracto, tractatum.)

4. Substantives with the termination us (fourth declension), are likewise formed from verbs by changing the supine ending um into us. Their meaning is very nearly the same as that of substantives in io, and in some cases the same verb admits the formation of substantives both in io and in us—as contemptio, contemptus; concursio, concursus. In some words of this kind in io, the abstract idea of what is implied in the verb is lost—as in legio, a legion; coenatio, a diningroom; regio, a district.

5. There are a few verbs from which substantives in \$50 are formed, denoting an action or a condition which is the result of the action —as or\$50, origin (from orior); rertigo, turning or whirl (from verto.)

6. Substantives in men (gen. minis) derived from verbs denote the thing performing the action expressed by the verb, or serving the purpose of performing the action. In some cases men is affixed to the stem—as flumen (a river, from fluo), velamen (a cover, from velo), lumen (a light, from luceo, the c being thrown out.) In others a connecting vowel (i or u) is introduced between the stem and men—as regimen (from rego), specimen (from specio.) In many cases the

ending men is lengthened by the addition of tum, without producing any change of meaning—as velamen, velamentum. The termination mentum, however, occurs more frequently in words which have no

form in men-as ornamentum, instrumentum.

7. Substantives ending in culum (contracted clum) or bulum are derived from the stem of verbs, sometimes with, and sometimes without, a connecting vowel; these denote the instrument, and sometimes the place, of the action expressed by the verb—as gubernaculum (rudder, from guberno), coenaculum (dining-room, from coeno.) If the stem of the verb ends in c or q, the termination is ulum—as cinqulum (from cingo.)

- 225. Substantives are derived from other substantives in a variety of ways: a very common process is to form feminine substantives from masculines. This is the case especially with names of animals ending in er or us, from which feminines are formed by adding a to the stem of the word instead of the masculine termination—as asinus, asina; equus, equa.
- 1. By the terminations lus (la, lum) and culus (cula, culum), diminutives are formed from other substantives. Such diminutives denote primarily a small thing, but are used also as terms of endearment or contempt—as hortulus, a small garden; filiolus, dear little son; homunculus, a contemptible little man. All diminutives are of the same gender as the substantives from which they are formed, so that if the primitive is a masculine, the diminutive must end in lus or culus; if a feminine, in lu or cula; and if neuter, in lum or culum.

2. The termination ium, when added to the stem of substantives denoting persons, expresses an assemblage or an association-as collega, a colleague; collegium, an assembly of colleagues; sacerdos, sacerdotium; conviva, convivium. When ium is added to verbal substantives in tor, it denotes the place where the action is going on-

as auditor, auditorium; conditor, conditorium.

3. The termination atus, suffixed to words denoting persons, expresses position or office—as consul, consulatus; tribunus, tribunatus. The same thing is sometimes expressed by the suffix ura being added to

the stem—as dictator, dictatura.

4. Substantives derived from others by the suffix ārius denote persons pursuing as a trade that which is implied in the primitive—as aqua, aquarius; sica, sicarius; argentum, argentarius; mensa, mensarius. Those derived from others by the termination arium denote a place where the things expressed by the primary word are collected and kept—that is, a receptacle—as granum, granarium; semen, semi-

5. The termination ētum, suffixed to the stem of names of plants denotes the place where they grow-as oliva, olivētum; myrtus, myr-

6. The termination ile, when added to names of animals, denotes the place in which they are kept—as ovis, ovile; bos, bovile. In like manner are formed cubile (a place for lying), and sedile (a place for sitting), from cubo and sedeo.

7. The termination ina, when added to names of persons, denotes a business, pursuit, or the place where it is carried on—as medicus,

medicīna; sutor, sutrīna.

- 8. Some substantives are derived from others by the ending io, and denote persons occupying themselves with that which is expressed by the primitive—as restis (rope), restio (ropemaker); centurio (a centurion), from centuria (a division of a 100); pellis (skin), pellio
- 9. A few substantives denoting a condition or quality are derived from names of persons by adding tus to the stem-as vir, virtus; senex, senectus.

226. Substantives denoting quality are formed from adjectives by the following terminations:-

- 1. tas added to the stem of the adjective, together with the connecting vowel i, produces substantives denoting a quality abstractedly—as bonus, bonus; asper, asperuas. Adjectives ending in ius take the connecting vowel e-as pius, pietas; and those in stus take no connecting vowel at all—as honestus, honestas. In these last cases one t is dropped, as no consonant can be doubled when preceded by another.
- 2. ia added to the stem is principally used to form substantives from adjectives and participles of one termination for all genders—as audax, audacia; concors, concordia; clemens, clementia. But the same termination is also used to form substantives from adjectives ending in cundus-as facundus, facundia.

3. tia, with the connecting vowel i, serves to form substantives from a few adjectives, the stem of which ends in t or r-as justus, justutia; avarus, avaritia; but pudicitia and tristitia are from pudicus and tristis.

4.  $t\bar{u}do$ , with the connecting vowel  $\xi$ , is employed to form substantives from adjectives of two or of three terminations—as altus, altitudo; similis, similitudo. Some adjectives, whose stem ends in t, require no connecting vowel—as consuetus, consuetudo.

5. monia, preceded by the connecting vowel i, occurs only in a few

substantives as sanctus, sanctimonia; castus, castimonia.

### DERIVATION OF ADJECTIVES FROM VERBS, SUBSTANTIVES, AND PROPER NAMES.

227. Adjectives are derived from verbs as well as from common and proper nouns, and a few from other adjectives and adverbs.

228. Adjectives are derived from verbs by means of the following suffixes:-

1. dus, added to the stem of verbs of the second conjugation, with the change of e into i, produces adjectives denoting the condition or quality implied in the verb—as caleo, calidus; frigeo, frigidus; but we have also rapidus, from rapio.

2. lis, preceded by the connecting vowel i, added to stems of verbs ending in a consonant, denotes the capability of enduring the action implied in the verb - as frango, fragilis; facio, facilis. The same meaning is still more frequently produced by the suffix bilis,

which is sometimes preceded by the connecting vowel \(i-\)as amo, anabilis.

- 3. ax, added to the stem of a verb, produces adjectives denoting inclination or propensity, and in most cases a censurable one—as pugno, pugnax; audeo, audax. Sometimes the suffix ax gives to the verb merely the meaning of a present participle—as minor, minax = minans.
- 4. cundus is less frequently employed to derive adjectives denoting capability, inclination, or approximation—as iracundus, of an angry disposition (from irascor); facundus, eloquent (from facio.)
- 5. lus, with the connecting vowel & added to the stem of verbs, produces adjectives either simply denoting an action or the inclination to it—as patel, patulus (being open); credo, credulus (credulous.)
- uus forms adjectives of a passive meaning, from transitive verbs—as
  conspicuus, individuus; and others of an active meaning from intransitives—as assiduus.
- 229. Adjectives are formed from substantives by a great variety of terminations, some of which present scarcely any difference in meaning, and cannot therefore be clearly defined in every instance.
- 1. eus, added to the stem of substantives, produces adjectives denoting the material of which a thing consists or is made—as lignum, ligneus.
- 2. cius, preceded by the connecting vowel i added to the stem of a substantive, produces adjectives denoting that a thing consists of what is implied in the substantive or belongs to it—as later, later cius. Sometimes adjectives are formed by the suffix icius from the supine of verbs—as commentum, commenticius.
- decus forms adjectives almost exclusively from substantives of the first declension, denoting a substance or a resemblance to it—as arvilla, arvillaceus.
- 4. cus, preceded by the connecting vowel i, forms adjectives which denote belonging or relating to a thing—as civis, civicus. Sometimes the suffix ficus is employed in the same way—as rus, rusticus.
- 5. Uis, appended to the stem of substantives, produces adjectives denoting what is in accordance with, like, or becoming to that which is expressed by the substantive—as civis, civilis; hostis, hostilis; vir. vivilis.
- 6. alis serves to form adjectives of the same meaning as those ending in ilis, but is employed much more frequently—as annus, annalis. When the stem of the substantive ends in l, or its last syllable begins with l, alis mostly becomes aris—as populus, popularis.
- 7. ius forms adjectives denoting suitableness, belonging or peculiar to the idea expressed by the substantive—as rex, regius; puter, patrius. This suffix is appended only to substantives denoting persons; and those words in or, which do not denote persons, form adjectives by simply adding us to the nominative—as odor, odorus.
- 8. inus makes adjectives, especially from names of animals, denoting what belongs to, or is derived from, that expressed by the substantives, most commonly the flesh of the animals—as divus, divinus; mare, marinus; fera, ferinus; canis, caninus; but from bos, ovis, and sus, we have bululus, ovillus, and suillus.

9. ānus, added to the stem of substantives, makes adjectives denoting a resemblance, or belonging to what is expressed by the substantive—as urbs, urbānus; mons, montānus. In like manner are formed adjectives from ordinal numerals, to denote that which belongs to the number implied—as quartāna febris, a fever lasting for four days;

primānus, belonging to the first legion.

10. ārius, added to the stem of substantives, makes adjectives signifying that something belongs, or has reference, to what is implied in the substantive—as legio, legionārius (belonging to a legion); greafarius, belonging to a fock. ārius also makes adjectives from distributive numerals, to denote the quality of having a certain number of units—as deni, denārius (a coin containing ten units—that is, ases); septuagenārius, a man who has lived seventy years; numerus ternārius, the number three—that is, containing three units.

11. vus, added to the stem of substantives, forms adjectives denoting that which belongs to, or is fit for, the thing expressed by the substantive—as furtum, furtivus; festum, festivus. When added to the stem of participles, it denotes the manner in which a thing has

arisen—as natus, natīvus; captus, captīvus.

12. ôsus, added to the stem of substantives, produces adjectives denoting fulness of what is expressed by the substantive or bringing it about—as calamitas, calamitõsus; lapis, lapidõsus. Sometimes the connecting vowel is introduced—as artifex, artificiosus.

13. lentus, with the connecting vowel & or & added to the stem, denotes

fulness or manner—as fraus, fraudülentus; vis, viölentus.

14. ātus, added to the stem of a substantive, forms numerous adjectives denoting possession of what is expressed by the substantive—as ansa, ansātus; barba, barbātus.

- 230. For the sake of convenience, all proper names may be divided into names of persons, towns, and countries, to shew in what manner adjectives are formed from each of these three classes.
- 1. The Roman Gentile names ending in ius—as Fabius, Cornelius—are in reality adjectives, and are used as such to designate the works of persons bearing those names—as lex Cornelia, lex Julia. Other adjectives in ānus, however, are formed from these names to denote things which have reference to a member of a family or gens, and are named after him—as jus Flavianum (from Flavius.)

 From Roman surnames (cognomen) are formed adjectives ending in ānus, sometimes with the connecting vowel; and with the same meaning as those in ānus derived from Gentile names—as Cicero, Ciceroniānus; Caesar, Caesariānus. The ending inus is more rare—

as Jugurtha, Jugurthinus.

- 231. Adjectives are formed from names of towns by the suffixes ānus, īnus, as, and ensis; they denote belonging to the place from which they are derived, and are therefore used as names for the inhabitants.
- ānus forms adjectives from names of towns ending in a, ae, um, and i—as Roma, Komānus; Formiae, Formiānus; Tusculum, Tusculānus; Fundi, Fundānus.



- inus makes adjectives from names of towns ending in ia, ium—as Ameria, Amerinus; Lanuvium, Lanuvius; but Praeneste and Reate also make Praenestinus Reatinus. Some names of Greek towns make adjectives by the same suffix—as Tarentum, Tarentinus; Saguntum, Saguntinus.
- 3. as (gen. ātis) forms adjectives from some names of towns ending in a, ae, and um—as Capena, Capenas; Fidenae, Fidenas; Arpinum, Arpinas; Antium, Antias.
- ensis is employed to derive adjectives from names of towns ending in o, and from some ending in a, ae, or um—as Narbo, Narbonensis; Athenae, Atheniensis.
- ius makes adjectives from Greek names of towns and islands in us, um, on, and some others—as Corinthus, Corinthius.
- 232. Of the names of nations, some are real adjectives, and are used as such—as Latinus, Romanus, Sabinus; e.g., lingua Latina, 'the Latin language;' nomen Romanum, 'the Roman name.' But others are real substantives, and from them are formed adjectives by means of the termination icus—as Gallus, Gallicus; Arabs, Arabicus; or by the ending ius—as Syrus, Syrus; Thrax, Thracius. When persons are spoken of, however, the adjective is not used, but the substantive, which stands in apposition to the name of the person—as miles Gallus, 'a Gallic soldier;' servus Thrax, 'a Thracian slave.'

233. Names of countries ending in ia, and formed from the names of nations, sometimes admit of the formation of adjectives, to denote that which belongs to, or comes from, the country—as pecunia Siciliensis, 'money derived from the country of Sicily,' not from the inhabitants; exercitus Hispaniensis, 'a Roman army stationed in Spain,' and not an army consisting of Spaniards.

# DERIVATION OF VERBS FROM SUBSTANTIVES, ADJECTIVES, AND OTHER VERBS.

234. The number of verbs derived from substantives and adjectives is not very great. As a general rule, it may be observed that intransitive verbs formed from nouns follow the second conjugation—as flos, florere (flourish); albus, albūre (be white); whereas transitive verbs follow the first conjugation—as fraus, fraudare (deceive); albus, albūre (whitewash.) There are a few verbs of the fourth conjugation formed from substantives in is—as finis, finire (end); vestis, vestire (clothe.)

235. Many deponents of the first conjugation are derived from substantives and adjectives, and most of them have an intransitive meaning—as philosophus, philosophur (I am a

- philosopher); Graecus, Graecor (I conduct myself like a Greek.) They have more rarely a transitive meaning—as osculum, osculor (I kiss.) A few deponents formed from nouns follow the fourth conjugation—as pars, partior (divide); sors, sortior (obtain by chance.)
- 236. Derivative verbs are much more frequently formed from simple verbs by means of certain suffixes which modify their meaning.
- 1. By means of the suffix \$\textit{to}\$ (in deponents, \$\textit{tor}\$) are formed what are called frequentative verbs—that is, such as denote repetition of an action. All frequentative verbs belong to the first conjugation. In verbs of the first conjugation this suffix is appended to the real stem of the word—as clamo, clam\textit{to}\$ or innor, mintor. In verbs of the third conjugation, as well as in those of the second and fourth which make their supine in the same manner as those of the third, the suffix \$\textit{to}\$ is appended to the stem as it appears in the supine—as lego, lectuo; cloo, dictuo.
- Another class of frequentative verbs, with the same meaning, are
  formed by adding the termination of the first conjugation to the
  stem of simple verbs, such as it appears in the supine—as curro,
  curso, cursare; tueor, tutor, tutari. In this manner some verbs have
  two frequentatives—as curro, curso, and cursito; dico, dicto, and
  dictito.
- 237. Inchoative verbs—that is, such as denote the beginning of the action implied in the primitive verb—are formed by means of the suffix sco. This suffix is appended to the stem of the verb, such as it appears in the infinitive after removing the termination re; but in the third conjugation, the connecting vowel i is inserted between the stem and the suffix. All inchoatives follow the third conjugation:—labo, labasco, I begin to waver; caleo, calesco, I begin to be warm; gemo, ingemisco.
- 238. Many inchoatives are derived from substantives and adjectives—as puer, puerasco; silva, silvesco; ignis, ignesco.
- 239. Desiderative verbs—that is, such as denote a desire to do that which is implied in the primitive verb—are formed by the suffix *ŭrio* appended to the stem, such as it appears in the supine—as edo, esŭrio, I desire to eat, or am hungry; emo, emptūrio, I wish to buy. All desideratives follow the fourth conjugation.
- 240. Diminutive verbs are formed by the suffix illo being appended to the stem. These are few, and they all follow the first conjugation—as canto, cantillo, I sing in an under voice, or shake; conscribo, and conscribillo, I scribble.
  - 241. There is a number of intransitive verbs from which

transitives are formed by changing the conjugation to which they belong, and sometimes also by changing the quantity of the vowel contained in the stem, as—

fŭgio, I flee.
jŭoco, I lie.
pendeo, I hang.
lŭqueo, I am clear, or fluid.
cădo, I fall.
sădeo, I sit.

fũgo, āre, put to flight.
jācio, ĕre, throw.
pendo, ĕre, weigh, or suspend.
lŭquo, āre, clear.
caedo, fell, or cause to fall.
sādo. appease, or cause to sit still.

#### DERIVATION OF ADVERBS.

- 242. Adverbs are derived from adjectives (participles), numerals, substantives, pronouns, and verbs, and sometimes also from other adverbs and from prepositions.
- 1. Adverbs are formed from adjectives and participles by the suffixes  $\tilde{e}$ ,  $\delta$ , and  $t\tilde{e}r$ .
- (a.) Adverbs in ē are formed from adjectives and participles belonging to the second and first declensions—that is, from those ending in us, a, um, and er, a, um—as altus, altē; longus, longē. Bonus makes its adverb irregularly bēnē, and malus makes mālē; and these two are the only adverbs of this class in which the final e is short.
- (b.) A limited number of adjectives of the second and first declensions form adverbs by adding the suffix \(\bar{o}\) to the stem—as tutus, tut\(\bar{o}\); creber, crebr\(\bar{o}\).
- 2. All adjectives and participles belonging to the third declension make their adverbs by adding the suffix ter to the stem: between the two, however, the connecting vowel t is commonly inserted—as gravis, graviter; acer, acriter; felix, feliciter. When the stem of an adjective ends in t, the connecting vowel is not used, and one t is thrown out—as sapiens, sapienter; prudens, prudenter.
- 3. There is a number of adjectives from which no regular adverbs are formed, and in which the neuter (in the accusative singular) supplies its place—as facilis, facile; recens, recens (recently); multus, multum; primus, primum, and all the ordinal numerals.

By means of the suffix *itus*, adverbs are formed from some substantives to denote origin from the thing implied by the substantive—as coelum, coelius, from heaven; fundus, fundus, from the foundation, completely.

Many adverbs are formed from the supine of verbs by means of the suffix *im*, and they generally denote manner—as *caesim*, by way of cutting down.

In a similar manner adverbs are formed from nouns by the termination ātim—as grex, gregatim; gradus, gradatim.

Some adverbs in o are formed from prepositions to denote motion towards a place—as citro, ultro, retro (from the inseparable particle re.)

These are formed on the same principle as those derived from

pronouns, such as eo, quo.

There is a considerable number of words which are used as adverbs, but which are in reality the ablative or accusative of nouns used in the sense of adverbs—as noctu, by night; vesperi, in the evening; mane, in the morning.

A large number of adverbs are formed by the composition of two or more words belonging to different parts of speech—as quamdiu, hodie (hoc die), nudius tertius (nunc dies tertius), imprimis (in primis), ilicet (ire licet), illico (in loco), cominus (cum and manus), eminus (e and manus.)

Respecting numeral adverbs, see No. 93.

#### FORMATION OF COMPOUND WORDS.

243. Compound words are those which consist of two or more words, each of which by itself conveys a distinct notion; but a compound word, nevertheless, expresses only one idea, made up of those contained in the separate words of which it consists. Thus from de and scribo we make the compound describo; and from pater and familia we make paterfamilias.

There are some compound words which, although they express only one idea, are yet treated as two distinct words (for example, in declension), and even admit of other words being inserted between them—as respublica, resquepublica; jus jurandum, jusve jurandum; senatus-consultum, unusquisque, alteruter, and some others. These may be termed spurious compounds. But there are some genuine compounds, especially verbs compounded with a preposition, which in poetry are sometimes separated from each other by the insertion of a particle—as for et illigatus, we find inque ligatus; for insulatusque, we find inque salutatus. The same is occasionally the case with the compound adverbhactenus, eatenus, quadamtenus; as in Horace—quadam prodire tenus. Adjectives compounded with per are sometimes separated even by prose writers—as per mihi mirum visum est for permirum mihi visum est. The same is likewise the case with quicunque, quadiscunque, and quilibet.

244. The class of words to which a compound belongs is determined by the last of the words of which it consists—that is, if the last be a substantive, the whole compound is a substantive; if the last be a verb, the whole is a verb; and if the last be an adjective, the whole is an adjective.

245. The first part of a compound word is either a noun (substantive, adjective, or numeral), an adverb, or a preposi-

tion, and in a very few cases a verb.

There is besides a number of inseparable particles which have a distinct meaning, but do not occur by themselves, being found only prefixed to other words—namely, amb (about, around); re, or red (back, again); se (aside); dis (in different directions, the English dis in distribute); and the negatives in (the English in or un, as in infallible, unjust) and ve.

246. When the first word of a compound is a noun, the second is usually appended to the stem of the first; should the noun belong to the first, second, or fourth declensions, the vowels a and u are omitted; and if the second begins with a consonant, i is usually inserted between the two as a connecting vowel—as magnanimus (from magnus and animus), corniger (from cornu and gero.)

247. When the first word of a compound is a preposition or the negative in, the vowel of the second word  $(a, \bar{c}, \text{ or } ae)$  is very often changed—as amicus, inimicus; arma, inermis; barba, imberbis. But this is not always the case; for maneo

makes permaneo; traho, contraho; &c.

It sometimes happens that a compound word belongs to a class of words different from the last part or element, and in this case the last receives a suitable termination to mark the class to which the whole belongs—as the adjective maledicus, from male and dico; opifex, from opus and facio. Sometimes, however, the addition of such a termination is unnecessary—as in crassipes, from crassus and pes; discolor, from dis and color.

Sometimes the last word in a compound assumes a derivative suffix, without which it cannot form a compound—as exardesco, from ex and ardeo; latifundium, from latus and fundus; Cisalpinus, from Cis and Alpes.



## SYNTAX.

- 248. Syntax is that part of grammar which teaches how to combine words so as to form sentences.
- 249. All the rules of syntax may be arranged under two heads:—1. The rules of concord or agreement; 2. The rules of government and dependence.

## RULES OF CONCORD BETWEEN SUBSTANTIVES AND WORDS WHICH QUALIFY THEM—APPOSITION.

250. Adjectives, pronouns, and declinable numerals, qualifying a substantive or a substantive pronoun in the same clause, must agree with it in gender, number, and case—as

pater bonus, a good father. mater cara, a dear mother. duae arbores, two trees. domus mea, my house.

251. When one adjective (participle or pronoun) belongs to two or more substantives, it agrees either with the one nearest to it only, or it is repeated before each substantive—as

Omnes agri et maria, or omnes agri et omnia maria. All lands and seas, or all lands and all seas.

If the substantives signify persons of different genders, the qualifying word must be in the masculine plural; but if any of them signify things without life, the qualifying word must be in the neuter plural.

When an adjective, a pronoun, or a numeral occurs in a different clause from that in which the substantive or substantive pronoun stands, it can agree with the substantive or substantive pronoun only in gender and number, the case being dependent on the nature of the clause in which it occurs—as Amicus adest, sed eum non video, The friend is here, but I do not see him.

252. Relative pronouns, which generally occur in a different clause from that containing the substantive to which they refer, agree with it only in gender and number; but when a

relative is joined to its substantive, it agrees with it in case also

quo die veneram,

on which day I had come; that is, on the day on which I had come.

When a relative pronoun refers to more than one substantive it is usually put in the plural. If the substantives denote living beings of different genders, any of which are masculine, the relative takes the gender of the masculine—as matres et parvuli liberi, quorum utrorumque actas misericordiam requirit; mothers and little children, the age of both of whom demands our sympathy.

If there be no masculine, but only feminines and neuters, the relative

takes the feminine.

When substantives are names of inanimate objects, the relative is usually in the neuter plural—as otium atque divitive, quae prima mortales putant; ease and riches, which mortals regard as the principal things.

Sometimes, however, the relative agrees in number and gender only with the last of several substantives—that is, with the one nearest to it—as eue fruges atque fructus, quos terra gignit, where the quos agrees only with fructus.

Sometimes several names of inanimate things may be of the same gender, and the relative, instead of taking their gender in the plural, appears in the neuter plural—as inconstantia et temeritas, quae digna certe non sunt deo.

When a relative refers to a common noun joined to a proper name, it may agree either with the former or with the latter—as flumen Rhenus, qui fluit, and flumen Rhenus, quod fluit.

When a relative refers to a whole clause, and not to a single word, the neuter singular is used, before which the pronoun id is frequently added, the clause being treated as a neuter substantive—as superntes contenti sunt rebus suis, quod est summum bonum; si a robis deserar, id quod non spero.

When a relative pronoun refers to a substantive, which is explained by another in a clause containing the verb sum or a verb of naming, the relative may agree either with the preceding substantive or with the explanatory one which follows—as animal, quod homo vocatur, or qui homo vocatur; veni ad locum, quem Pylas vocant, or quas Pylas vocant.

253. One substantive may be in apposition to another, or take the place of a qualifying word: when qualifying another substantive, it generally stands after it, and must agree with it in case—as

Cicero orator interfectus est, Cicero the orator was slain.

254. If the substantive which stands in apposition has two genders, it generally takes that of the substantive which it explains—as

aquila regina avium,

the eagle, the king of birds (because aquila is feminine.)

255. In other cases the apposition cannot agree in gender or number with the apposite substantive—as

Tullia, deliciae meae.

Tullia, my delight.

256. When plural names of places have such words as urbs, caput, in apposition to them, these words are always used in the singular—as

Athenae, urbs Graeciae, Athens, a city of Greece.

#### AGREEMENT BETWEEN SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

257. Every sentence consists of two parts: the subject, which is the person or thing spoken of; and the predicate, or that which is said of the subject.

As the Latin verb, in ordinary circumstances, does not require the addition of a personal pronoun, a sentence sometimes consists of a single word—as dormio, I am sleeping; eo, I go; sedet, he is sitting; dicunt, ferunt, they say.

The personal pronouns are expressed in Latin only when they are emphatic—as ego feci, non ille, I have done it, not he.

The subject of a sentence, when it is expressed, is generally a substantive, an adjective, or a pronoun; the two latter of which, however, must be regarded as representing substantives: pater amat filium; ego curro; boni virtutem colunt. But any word which is used as a substantive may be made the subject of a sentence, as is most frequently the case with the infinitive of a verb—as errare humanum est, where errare is the subject; in errore perseverare turpe est, where the expression in errore perseverare is the subject.

258. The subject of a sentence is generally in the nominative case; but when the verb is in the infinitive, the subject is always in the accusative—as

credo eum bonum esse virum.

I believe him to be a good man.

Here the first sentence consists of the word credo, and the subject of the infinitive esse is eum, which is accordingly in the accusative.

259. The predicate consists either of a verb or of a noun (adjective or substantive), joined to the subject by means of the verb esse-as

arbor crescit, urbs est splendida, mors non est calamitas,

the tree is growing. the town is splendid. death is not a misfortune. 260. When the predicate is a verb, it agrees with its subject in number and person—as

ego valeo, tu dormis, nos dolemus, I am well. thou sleepest. we grieve.

Every substantive in the singular represents the third person singular, and every substantive in the plural the third person plural; e.g., pater aegrotat, the father is ill; patres aegrotant, the fathers are

- a. When there are several subjects of different persons, one of which is a first person, the verb is put in the first person plural; if there be among them no subject of the first person, but one of the second, the predicate is put in the second person plural; and when all the subjects belong to the third person, the verb is put in the third person plural, precisely as in the English language—as ego et pater meus ambulamus, I and my father (we) are taking a walk; tu et ucor tua estis in periculo, thou and thy wife (you) are in danger; feminae, liberi et senes interfecti sunt, women, children, and old men (they) were killed.
- b. When there are several subjects of the third person, the predicate is plural, when the plurality of subjects is to be indicated, as is usually the case when the subjects are names of persons—as Romulus et Remus urbem Romam condiderunt. If, however, the several subjects may be conceived as forming only one whole—that is, one body of persons and things—the predicate is generally in the singular—as senatus populusque Romanus intelligit, where the people and senate form only one body of people.
- c. When one of several subjects is in the plural, the predicate is generally plural; but if the one nearest the predicate be singular, and is of particular importance, the predicate may agree with this subject alone—as prodigia et corum procuratio consules Romae (at Rome) tenuerunt; et Peripatetici et vetus Academia concedit, where concedit agrees with the nearest subject.
- 261. When the predicate consists of an adjective or a participle, it agrees with the subject in gender, number, and case—as

miles est fortis,
milites sunt fortes,
femina est timida,
femina esunt timidac,
templum est splendidum,
templa sunt splendida,

the soldier is brave. the soldiers are brave, the woman is timid. women are timid. the temple is splendid. the temples are splendid.

- a. When there are several subjects of the same gender, the predicate is either plural and of the same gender as that of the subjects; or, attaching itself more particularly to the one nearest to it, it remains singular.
- b. When the subjects are of different genders, the predicate may agree with the subject nearest to it, or it may be put in the plural: but in the latter case there are two conditions to be observed:—
- 1. If the subjects are names of persons, the predicate is commonly put in the plural of the masculine gender.

2. If the subjects are names of things, the predicate is commonly in

the neuter plural.

c. When the subjects consist of names of persons mixed with names of inanimate objects, the predicate may either agree in the plural with the gender of the names of persons, or may be put in the neuter plural—as rex et regia classis profecti sunt; Romani regem regnumque Macedoniae sua futura sciunt. But in these cases also. the predicate often agrees only with the subject nearest to it.

262. When the predicate consists of a substantive, it cannot, generally speaking, agree with the subject either in gender or in number—as

Maecenas est dulce decus meum. Maecenas is my delightful honour.

263. But when both the subject and the predicate denote persons or living beings, and when the substantive, used as predicate, has two genders, it agrees with its subject like an adjective-as

aquila est regina avium, philosophia est magistra vitae. the eagle is the king of birds. philosophy is the instructor of life.

When the subject is accompanied by an apposition, the predicate generally agrees in number with the subject—as Tullia, deliciae nostrae, tuum munusculum flagitat. But when plural names of places have the apposition urbs, oppidum, or civitas, the predicate agrees with the latter -as Athenae, urbs nobillissima Graeciae, a Sullae militibus direpta est.

When the subject consists of an indeclinable word, or of a whole clause, it is regarded as a neuter noun in the singular, and the predicate accommodates itself to it as such—as pro patria mori honestum est, where the subject consists of the clause pro patria mori.

- 264. The real nature and meaning of the subject of a sentence is often more attended to than its grammatical form; the most common cases of this kind are the following-
- 1. Collective nouns—as pars, vis, multitudo, uterque, quisque, and others. when they are used as subjects-have the predicate frequently in the plural, agreeing in gender with the beings understood—as pars perexigua Romam inermes delati sunt; missi sunt honoratissimus quique.

2. When males are expressed figuratively by feminine or neuter substantives, the predicate sometimes follows the natural rather than the grammatical gender of the words used—as capita conjurationis nirgis caesi ac securibus percussi sunt. The same is often the case with the numeral substantive millia—as millia triginta servilium capitum capti sunt.

3. A subject in the singular, connected with another by the preposition cum, usually has the predicate in the plural—as ipse dux cum aliquot principibus capiuntur; Ilia cum Lauso de Numitore sati. The singular, however, may be used when the subjects are not conceived as performing an action or enduring it in common—as Tu cum Sexto scire velim guid cogites, where the main point is to know what thou (tu) art thinking, and not what the two together are thinking.

265. Adjectives in the masculine or neuter gender are often used as the subjects of sentences without their referring to distinct persons or things mentioned in a preceding sentence. In this case they are said to be used substantively, the masculine gender denoting human beings, homo or homines being understood, and the neuter things, either in the singular or plural—as

sapientes virtutem colunt, iners laborem fugit, omne malum vitandum est, mala fortunae fortiter ferenda sunt,

the wise cultivate virtue.
the lazy flee labour.
every evil should be avoided.
misfortunes should be borne with
fortitude.

## RELATIONS EXPRESSED BY THE NOMINATIVE AND ACCUSATIVE CASES.

266. The nominative is the case which names the subject of a proposition—that is, the person or thing of which anything is predicated. Hence the subject of a sentence or clause is in the nominative case; and as the predicate must agree with the subject, the predicate also is in the nominative, when it consists of a declinable word, and is connected with the subject by means of the verb esse, or one of those verbs which express only modifications of the idea contained in esse—such as foo, I become; maneo, I remain; videor, I appear or seem—as

Cicero fuit magnus orator, Cicero fit consul, Cicero was a great orator. Cicero becomes consul.

The passive verbs dicor, vocor, nominor, appellor, nuncupor, scribor, ducor, habeor, judicor, existimor, numeror, putor, intelligor, agnoscor, reperior, invenior, reddor, creor, deligor, designor, declaror, renuntior, and some others are accompanied by a noun as a predicate, which must, accordingly, like the subject, be in the nominative case—as Numa rex creatus est.

267. The accusative denotes the object of transitive verbs—that is, the person or thing affected by the action expressed by a transitive verb in its active form. The object of a transitive verb in the active voice is therefore expressed in the accusative—as

pater amat filium, Caesar vicit Pompeium, the father loves his son. Caesar conquered Pompey.

Every sentence containing a transitive verb and an object (accusative) may be changed into the passive form by changing the accusative into the including the continuitive (the object into the subject), and changing the new that the ablative with the preposition a or ab before it

—as filius a patre amatur; liber emitur a fratre. The preposition a or ab in such cases denotes the quarter from which the action proceeds.

As to whether a verb be transitive depends entirely upon its meaning, so that the same verb may in one sense be transitive, while in another it is intransitive—as consulo aliquem, I consult a person; consult a dicui, I give a person advice, or take care of a person.

Many intransitive verbs denoting motion may, by being compounded with prepositions, and by thus modifying their meaning, become transitive, and accordingly govern the accusative—as exercitus fumen

transiit, the army crossed the river.

Sometimes the preposition with which such a verb is compounded is repeated before the accusative—as adire ad aliquem, to go to a person. Most verbs compounded with ob, however, govern the dative.

268. Transitive verbs, compounded with the preposition trans—such as traduco, trajicio, transporto—have two accusatives, one of the object, and the other dependent upon the preposition, which is sometimes repeated before it—as

Hannibal copias Ibērum traduxit, Hannibal led his troops across the Ibērus.

269. The impersonal verbs piget (I am vexed), pudet (I am ashamed), poenitet (I repent), taedet (I am disgusted), and miseret (I pity), govern the accusative of the person in whom these feelings exist, and the genitive of the thing which causes them—as

pudet me facti, miseret nos hominis, piget puerum negligentiae, I am ashamed of the deed. we pity the man. the boy is vexed at his carelessness.

270. Decet (it is becoming) and its compounds dedecet, condecet, and indecet, govern the accusative of the person to whom anything is or is not becoming. So also latet (it is concealed from, or unknown to.)

271. Many transitive verbs, conveying only an incomplete idea, govern, besides the accusative of the object, another which stands in the relation of a predicate to the object, and completes the idea contained in the verb. Verbs of this kind are those of creating, making, naming, electing, having, shewing, and the like—as

Romulus urbem Romam vocavit, populus Numam regem creavit, rex se clementem praebebat, Romulus called the city Rome. the people created Numa king. the king conducted himself with clemency.

272. These verbs, when in the passive, are accompanied by two nominatives, one being the subject, and the other the predicate or in apposition to it—e. g.,

Cicero consul creatus est.

Cicero was created consul.

273. Some transitive verbs, which have the name of a person as their object, govern a second accusative of the thing which may be regarded as a second object. Such verbs are the following—

Docco and edocco, I teach; dedocco, I cause to unlearn; celo, I conceal; e.g., doccre puellam litteras, to teach a girl the letters.
 Sometimes the preposition de with the ablative is used instead of the

accusative of the thing—as docere aliquem de alique re, to inform a

person of a thing.

2. Posco, reposco, and flagito (I demand), oro (I pray), rogo (I ask), interrogo and perconfor (I ask or question); e.g., pacem te poscimus, we demand peace of you. With these verbs the accusative of the thing remains unchanged when the verb is made passive—as inter-

rogatus sum sententiam, I was asked for my opinion.

3. Moneo, admoneo, and hortor (I admonish), and cogo (I compel), when the thing is expressed by the neuter of a pronoun or adjective—as te id unum moneo, this one thing I give you as my advice. The accusative of the thing with these verbs remains unchanged when the verb becomes passive—as multa monemur, many admonitions are given to us.

274. The following prepositions always govern the accusative:—ad, adversus or adversum, ante, apud, circa or circum, circiter, ois or citra, contra, erga, extra, infra, inter, intra, juxta, ob, penes, per, pone, post, praeter, propter, secundum, supra, trans, ultra, versus. Comp. No. 214.

Ante and post, as prepositions, are put before the case they govern; but they are also used as adverbs, and as such are put after their case, which becomes the ablative instead of the accusative—as ante mullos annos, before many years; but multis annis ante, many years before; post tres dies, after three days; but tribus diebus post, three days after.

275. The following four, which sometimes govern the accusative and sometimes the ablative, require special attention:—

1. In governs the accusative when it answers to the English 'into;' that is, when it denotes motion towards the interior of anything—as in urbem ire, in civitatem recipere, in mare projicere. Also, in a secondary sense, when it denotes activity directed towards something, or in general a tendency or direction towards something—as scannum habet sex pedes in longitudinem; oratio in Catilinam (a speech directed against Catiline); amor in patriam (love directed towards one's country); consisters in ordem (to stand together so as to form a circle); commeatus in tres annos (provisions for three years.)

In governs' the ablative when it denotes being in a place, answering to the English 'in'—as in urbe esse, in horto ambulari, in finmine navigure, in campo currere; and also in all derivative meanings, where no motion towards anything is expressed—as in morbo, in or during the disease; in hoc homine, in this man, or in the case of this man.

2. Sub governs the accusative when it denotes motion towards, so as to go under a thing—as venire sub oculos; also when it refers to time,

and signifies 'about'—as sub idem tempus, about the same time; sub noctem, towards night; sub Hannibalis adventum, about the time of Hannibal's arrival.

Sub governs the ablative when it denotes being under anything—as sub

muro, sub oculis.

3. Super governs the ablative, only when it denotes 'about' or 'concerning'—as super hac re ad te scribam, I shall write to you about this matter. In all other cases it governs the accusative.

4. Subter is generally construed with the accusative; but with the

ablative its use is almost confined to poetry.

276. Verbs, adjectives, and adverbs, denoting extent of time or space, govern the accusative of the noun describing that extent. Adjectives of this kind are *longus*, *latus*, *altus*, *crassus*; e.g.,

hasta sen pedes longa, Troja decem annos oppugnata est,

a lance six feet long. Troy was besieged ten years.

In like manner the participle natus, in the sense of 'old,' is joined with the accusative of the number of years which a person has lived—as viginti annos natus est, he is twenty years old; sex annos natus, six years old.

277. Names of towns and small islands are put in the accusative without any preposition to express motion towards them, when the question, whither? may be asked—as

Romam profectus est, legatos Athenas misit,

he has gone to Rome. he sent ambassadors to Athens.

278. In exclamations of wonder or grief at the state or condition of a person or a thing, the name of the person or thing is put in the accusative either with or without an interjection—as

heu me miserum! or me miserum! Oh, I, wretched man!

There are certain expressions in which the accusative, especially of neuter pronouns, stands for the genitive or ablative—as id temporis, at that moment of time, for eo tempore; id or illud actatis for ejus or illus actatis, of that age; id or hoc genus for ejus or hujus generis, of that kind.

#### USE OF THE DATIVE CASE.

279. The dative generally expresses the person or thing for which, or in regard to which, something is, or is done; it may therefore be termed the case of the remoter object. The English language generally expresses this relation by the prepositions 'to' or 'for'—as

Solon leges Atheniensibus scripsit, Solon wrote laws for the Athenians.

280. The dative accordingly is used with transitive verbs, when, besides their object, a person or thing is mentioned to which or for which the action is performed—as

exercitum collegae tradidit,

he surrendered the army to his colleague.

viam tibi monstro.

I shew you the way.

281. Many transitive verbs compounded with the prepositions ad, ante, circum, cum, ex, in, inter, ob, post, prae, and sub, have, besides their real object, another noun, the relation to which is indicated by the prepositions; and this other noun is put in the dative both with the active and passive of such compound verbs-as

milites consuli circumfundebantur.

haec res mihi magnum commodum this affair affords me a great advantage. the soldiers were crowding around,

the consul.

282. If, however, by such compound verbs, the idea of place contained in the prepositions is to be expressed more emphatically than the mere action contained in the verb, the preposition must be repeated with its proper case—as

signa inferre in hostes.

to carry the standards against the enemy.

283. The dative is joined with many intransitive verbs, such as those which denote benefiting, pleasing, injuring, and others.

The principal verbs of this kind are-prosum, obsum, noceo, incommodo, expedit, conducit; adversor, obtrecto, officio, cedo, suffragor, refragor, intercedo, gratificor; faveo, studeo, ignosco, indulgeo, invideo, insidior; auxilior, opitulor, patrocinor, consulo, prospicio, medeor, parco; placeo, displiceo; impero, obedio, obsequor, obtempero, pareo, servio, famulor; assentior, adulor, blandior, irascor, succenseo, convicior, maledico, minor; suadeo, persuadeo; credo, fido, confido, diffido; desum, nubo, propinquo, appropinquo, supplico, videor (seem or appear); accidil, contingil, evenit; libet, licet; obviam eo, praesto sum, dicto audiens sum.

284. Intransitive verbs compounded with the prepositions ad, ante, cum, in, inter, ob, post, prae, (re or red), sub, and super, follow the same rule as the compound transitives mentioned in number 282; e.g.,

adesse amicis. antecellere omnibus, to succour one's friends. to surpass all.

285. The verb esse governs the dative in the sense of 'to be,' or 'to exist for a person's use;' and in such construction it must be rendered into English by the verb 'to have'—as

mihi sunt multi libri, mihi nomen est, I have many books. I have a name, or I am called.

In the last-mentioned instance, when the name is added, it may either be put in the nominative, so as to stand in apposition to nomen—as nomen ipsi erat Romulus—or the name may be a sort of attraction to the dative ipsi and be put in the dative—as nomen ipsi erat Romulo.

286. Adjectives generally govern the dative when they express qualities which exist for some person or thing; e.g.,

pax reipublicae utilis erat,

the peace was useful to the republic.

res tibi facilis, ceteris difficilis,

a thing easy for you, difficult for

But the dative is joined in particular with those adjectives denoting a certain relation to something or somebody; such as those expressing a kindly or unkindly disposition, similarity, proximity; e.g., amicus, inimicus, aequus, iniquus, propitius, infensus, infestus, obnoxius; par, impar, dispar, similis, dissimilis, consentaneus, contrarius, aequalis; propinquus, propior, proximus, vicinus, finitimus, conterminus, affinis, cognatus; e.g., hie locus urbi propinquus est, this place is near the city.

287. Names of towns and small islands are put in the dative, to denote the place where anything is or happens—as

Romae, Capuac, Athenis, at Rome. at Capua. at Athens.

288. When the name belongs to the second or third declension, it takes the termination i—e.g.,

Corinthi, Carthagini, at Corinth. at Carthage.

Instead of the termination i in names of the third declension, we sometimes find e, which is only a corruption for i—as Carthagine, at Carthage; Lacedaemone, at Lacedaemon.

289. The dative is used to denote the purpose which anything serves, or the effect it produces. This is the case especially with esse (in the sense of 'to serve the purpose of'), do, habeo, mitto, venio, pono, duco, verto, tribuo. It not unfrequently happens that such verbs are also accompanied by their ordinary dative—as

cui bono est? est mihi et honori et utilitati, to whom is it (does it) any good? it does me honour and is useful to me.

290. With passive verbs the agent is sometimes expressed by the dative instead of the ablative with the preposition a or ab. This, however, is done more frequently in poetry than in

prose, and oftener with the compound tenses of the passive than with the simple ones—as

quidquid mihi (a me) susceptum est, whatever has been begun by me. non intelligor ulli (ab ullo), I am not understood by any one.

291. The gerundive is regularly construed with the dative instead of the preposition a or ab—as

hoc mihi faciendum est, non omnibus eadem facienda sunt,

this must be done by me.
not all men must do the same
things.

#### USE OF THE GENITIVE CASE.

292. The genitive serves principally to denote that relation between two substantives by which the two conjointly express only one idea the genitive supplying the place of an adjective

castra hostium,

domus patris,

the camp of the enemy—that is, the hostile camp. the house of the father—that is, the paternal house.

In speaking of the temple of a god, the words aedes and templum are often omitted, especially after the prepositions ad and ab—as ad Opis (aedes), near the temple of Ops; ad Vestae, near the temple of Vesta.

Substantives which are derived from transitive verbs, and have an active meaning, like all other substantives, govern a genitive; but this genitive may be of a twofold nature—namely objective, when it denotes the person or thing affected by the action implied in the substantive—as amor patriae, love for one's country; or subjective, when it denotes the person or thing from which the action implied in the governing substantive proceeds—as amor parentum, the love which parents entertain (for their children.)

One substantive is sometimes followed by another in the genitive, which contains in reality the same idea, and gives only a more specific explanation of it—as arbor fici, a fig-tree; arbor abietis, a fir-tree; nomen regis, the name of king (but it may also be 'the name of the king.') In cases of this kind, the genitive is little more than one

noun in apposition to another.

293. The genitive denotes the whole of which anything is a part, and is governed by the noun which expresses the part—as

magnus numerus militum, magna vis auri, a large number of soldiers. a great quantity of gold.

294. When the nature, quality, size, or extent of anything is described by a substantive accompanied by an adjective (numeral, participle, or pronoun), the latter is put in the geni-

tive (genitive of quality), which is governed by the substantive which they explain—as

vir magni ingenii, res magni laboris, a man of great talent. an undertaking of great labour.

Such a genitive of quality cannot be used when the substantive is not accompanied by an adjective; we cannot, therefore, translate 'a man of talent' by homo ingenii, but, using the adjective, by ingeniosus homo.

295. The genitive is governed by several adjectives denoting a quality existing in reference to certain things—that is, by relative adjectives, the meaning of which is not complete without the thing being added in regard to which it exists. Adjectives of this kind are—

All present participles of transitive verbs, when used as real adjectives, and all adjectives ending in ax, which are derived from transitives.

sitive verbs—as amans patriae; capax aquae.

2. Adjectives denoting desire, knowledge, experience, remembrance, and their opposites—such as avarus, avidus, cupidus, studiosus, conscius, inscius, nescius, gnarus, ignarus, peritus, imperitus, prudens, rudis, insoelens, insuetus, memor, immemor, and others; and sometimes also those which denote foresight and want of care—such as providus, diligens, curiosus, incurtosus—as cupidus gloriae, desirous of fame; ignarus omnium rerum, ignorant of all things; memor beneficii, remembering an act of kindness.

 Adjectives denoting power over a thing, or the contrary, such as compos, impos, potens, and impotens—as compos mentis, in possession of one's mind: impotens equi regendi, unable to control the horse.

 Adjectives denoting participation, such as particeps, expers, consors, exsors, reus, affinis, insons—as particeps consilii, partaking in a plan or

design; expers periculorum, not sharing the dangers.

 Adjectives denoting abundance, fulness, or want, may govern either the genitive or the ablative; but inops (poor) is construed with the genitive only, and plenus more commonly with the genitive than with the ablative.

6. The adjectives similis and dissimilis are joined with both the genitive and dative; the same is the case with proprius, though the neuter in the sense of 'property' or 'peculiarity' is generally joined with the genitive—as proprium est oratoris, it is peculiar to an orator; but tempus agendi mihi fuit proprium, the time of action was convenient to me.

296. The verbs sum and flo, when they connect two substantives, and signify 'to belong to' and 'to come to belong to,' govern the genitive of the person to whom anything belongs—as

domus est patris, omnia viri fiunt, the house belongs to the father.
all things come to belong to the
man.

The genitive with sum often denotes the person or thing to which

anything belongs, is proper or becoming, or whose duty anything is—as ista oratio non est hujus temporis, that speech is not suited to this time; non est mearum virium, it is not proper for my strength—that is, I have not strength enough.

When the person to whom anything is a duty or becoming, is expressed in English by a personal pronoun, the Latins use the neuter of the possessive—as meum est pro republica pugnare, it is

my duty to fight for the republic.

297. Verbs of remembering, forgetting, and reminding—as memini, reminiscor (recordor, rarely), obliviscor, admoneo, commoneo, and commonefacio, govern the genitive of the person or thing which is remembered, forgotten, or of which a person is reminded—as

semper hujus diei et loci meminero,

reminiscor beneficii tui, admonuit eos matris sororumque,

I shall always remember this day and place.

I remember your kindness.

he reminded them of their mother and sisters.

The verbs of remembering and forgetting, especially memini, are often joined with the accusative—as memini numeros, obliviscor causam, amicum meum bene meministi. This, however, is the case especially when the object of these verbs is a neuter adjective or pronoun used substantively. Recordor is more generally construed with the accusative than with the genitive.

298. The verb misereor (miseresco), I pity, and the impersonal verbs miseret (miserescit, miseretur), piget, poenitet, pudet, taedet, pertaesum est, are accompanied by the genitive of the thing exciting the feelings expressed by these verbs, and the impersonal verbs govern the accusative of the person in whom the feelings exist—as

misereor (miseresco or miseret me), amici mei, poenitet me consilii, pudet me negligentiae meae, pudet hunc hominem insolentiae,

I pity my friend.

I repent of my plan. I am ashamed of my carelessness. this man is ashamed of his inso-

299. Verbs of charging, accusing, convicting, condemning, and acquitting, govern the accusative of the person and the genitive of the thing with which one is charged, and of which he is accused, convicted, acquitted, &c.

Such verbs are accuso, incuso, insimulo, arcesso (I summon before a court of justice); postulo, ago cum aliquo (I begin a lawsuit with a person); arguo, coarguo, convinco, danno, condemno, absolvo; e. g., accusavit Titum furti, he accused Titus of theft; dannatus est repetundarum, he was found guilty of extortion; proditionis absolvit ducem, he acquitted the general of treachery.

300. When the price or value of a thing is stated in a general way, it is always expressed by the genitives magni, permagni, tanti, tantidem, quanti, quantivis, quanticunque, pluris, plurimi, maximi, parvi, minoris, minimi. This is the case especially with verbs of estimating and valuing—such as duco, facio, habeo, pendo, puto, taxo—as

domum tanti ducit quanti ducenda he values the house at as much as est, it should be valued.

sapiens voluptatem non tanti facit a wise man values pleasure not so quanti virtutem, much as virtue.

Verbs of selling and purchasing, however, are joined with the ablatives magno, purvo, minimo, nihilo, nonnihilo.

The verb aestimo may be joined either with the genitive or the ablative—as magni or magno virtutem aestimo, I value virtue highly.

301. The impersonal verbs interest and  $r\bar{e}fert$  (it is of importance, or interest to) are joined with the genitive of the person to whom anything is of interest or importance; but when the person is expressed in English by a personal pronoun, the Latins use the possessive forms mea, tua, sua, nostra, vestra—as

patris interest or refert, mea interest or refert, it is of interest to the father. it is of interest to me.

As a possessive pronoun is the representative of a noun in the genitive, it frequently occurs that a substantive standing in apposition to the person implied in the possessive pronoun is put in the genitive—as mea scripta timentis, my writings who (I) fear—that is, the writings of me who fear; mea unius opera respublica salva est, through my exertion alone the republic is safe.

Sometimes the genitive of the personal pronoun is used instead of a possessive pronoun. This is the case chiefly with substantives containing the meaning of an active verb, so that the genitive of the personal pronoun is an objective genitive—as accusator twis for accusator twis, your accuser (the man who accuses you.) Sometimes, however, there is a difference of meaning—as imago mea, my image, or the image belonging to me; but imago mei, an image of me, or a portrait of me.

### USE OF THE ABLATIVE CASE.

302. The ablative, which is peculiar to the Latin language, expresses a variety of relations necessary to define and modify the predicate—that is, those relations which in English are expressed by the prepositions by, with, from, in, or at. It is used sometimes with and sometimes without prepositions.

303. The ablative is used to denote the part of a person or thing, or the point to which the statement contained in the

predicate is limited—as

aeger est pedibus, tu temporibus errasti, claudus altero pede.

he is suffering in his feet. you were mistaken as to the times. lame in one foot.

304. The ablative is used to express the means or instrument by which anything is done or brought about—as

manu aliquem ducere, securi aliquem percutere, to lead a person by the hand. to strike one with an axe.

When a person is employed as the means or instrument through which anything is done, the ablative cannot be used; but instead of it must be used the preposition per with the accusative—as litteras tibi misi per servum, I sent you the letter by a slave.

305. The ablative denotes the moving cause by which, or through the influence of which, anything is done-as

ardere studio. exsultare gaudio,

to burn with zeal. to exult with delight.

The ablatives causa and gratia (for the sake of, on account of) are in reality ablatives of cause, and are joined with a genitive or a possessive pronoun. When joined with a genitive, they usually stand after itas patris causa or gratia, on the father's account; mea causa, on my account.

306. A substantive accompanied by an adjective, a pronoun. or a participle, is put in the ablative to express the manner or concomitant circumstance of the predicate—as

deos pura et incorrupta mente vene- we must worship the gods with a rari debemus.

summa acquitate rempublicam con- he settled the affairs of the republic with the greatest fairness. pure and sincere mind.

307. Substantives denoting manner - such as modus, mos. ratio, ritus, and consuctudo—are used in the ablative without being accompanied by an adjective, participle, or pronoun-as

lutronis modo. more majorum. in the manner of a highwayman. according to the custom of our forefathers.

Sometimes, however, the Latins use the preposition cum to express a concomitant circumstance, when this circumstance is something external, and is regarded as quite distinct from the idea contained in the predicate—as magno cum studio aderat, he was present with great zeal (that is, and displayed great zeal.)

When the substantive used to express a concomitant circumstance or manner is not accompanied by an adjective, participle, or pronoun, the preposition cum must be used—as cum cura aliquid facere, to do a

thing with care.

308. With verbs of buying, selling, estimating, and the like,



the price or value, if stated by a distinct sum or amount, is expressed in the ablative—as

emere aliquid denario, orationem vendidit viginti talentis, to purchase a thing for a denarius. he sold a speech for twenty talents.

309. The ablative is used with verbs denoting plenty, abundance, filling, conferring on, or providing with—as

affluere divitiis, manare cruore,

egere auxilio,

to abound in wealth. to drip with blood.

Verbs of this kind are such as—abundo, redundo, affluo, scaleo, compleo, expleo, impleo, refercio, cumulo, stipo, instruo, afficio, imbuo, conspergo, dignor.

310. Verbs, both transitive and intransitive, which denote want or deprivation, are accompanied by an ablative of the thing of which any one is in want or is deprived. Such verbs are—careo, egeo, indigeo, vaco; orbo, privo, spolio, fraudo, nudo—as

carere consustudine amioorum,

to be without the intercourse of friends.
to be in want of assistance.

311. The ablative is joined with verbs of abstaining, renouncing, freeing, delivering, and excluding—such as abstineo, solvo, exonero, excludo—as

abstineo maledictis, liberare hominem catenis. I abstain from calumny. to free a man from chains.

Verbs of abstaining, preventing, and excluding, however, often take the preposition a or ab—as abstance a vilis, to abstain from vices; milites a pugna prohibuit, he kept his soldiers from fighting. But the preposition must always be used when the ablative is the name of a person—as arcere hostes a civibus, to keep the enemies away from the citizens.

Verbs denoting a forcible removal of one from a place may be construed with the ablative alone, to denote the place from which; but it is more common to use the prepositions ab, ex, or de—as movere or pellere aliquem loco, to remove or expel a person from a place. In like manner the ablative alone is sometimes used with the words cedo, excedo, and decedo—as decedere Italia or ex Italia.

312. The verbs gaudeo, laetor, glorior, delector, doleo, maereo, fido, and confido, are followed by the ablative to denote the thing at which you rejoice or grieve, and in which you trust—as

gaudeo tua felicitate, doleo patris morte,

I rejoice at your happiness.
I grieve at the death of my father.

The ablative in these cases is in reality the ablative of the moving cause.

313. The verbs utor, abutor, fruor, perfruor, fungor, defungor, perfungor, potior, vescor, have their object in the ablative—as

carne utuntur, fruor suavi otio, hostes urbe potiti sunt, they use meat. I enjoy delightful ease. the enemy took possession of the city.

Potior is construed also with the genitive, especially in the expression rerum potiri, to occupy the highest power in the state, where the ablative is never used. Pascor (I feed or graze) is joined both with the ablative and the accusative.

314. The expression opus est (there is need, it is necessary) is either treated as an impersonal verb, and then takes the thing of which there is need in the ablative; or opus is treated as an indeclinable adjective, and then the thing which is needed is expressed by the nominative. The person to whom anything is needful is expressed in each case by the dative—as

praesidio opus est, exempla nobis opus sunt, there is need of a garrison. we need examples.

315. Adjectives denoting plenty, abundance, want of, and freedom from, govern the ablative—as

onustus praeda, dives agris, dignus laude,

laden with booty. rich in landed possessions. worthy of praise.

Such adjectives are—praeditus, onustus, plenus, fertilis, dives; inanis, orbus, vacuus, liber, immunis, purus, alienus; also dignus, indignus, contentus, anxius, luctus, maestus, superbus, fretus, and others of a similar meaning.

The adjectives plenus, fertilis, dives, and inanis, are also construed with the genitive, and plenus even more commonly than with the ablative—as Gallia plena bonorum civium. The participles refertus and completus likewise are often joined with the genitive when that of which anything is full are human beings—as career plenus sceleratorum; urbs referta mercatorum.

The word macte is used, either alone or in conjunction with an imperative of sum (este, esto), with the ablative of the thing for which we congratulate a person—as macte virtute, or macte virtute esto, I congratulate you on account of your valour.

316. Participles denoting origin or birth—such as natus, ortus, genitus, satus, editus—are joined with the ablative denoting the parents of whom, or the station in which, a person is born—as

nobili patre natus, humili genere natus, born of a noble father. born of a humble family. 317. With comparatives the ablative denotes the amount of difference existing between two things compared—as

Romani duolus millibus plures erant there were two thousand more quam Sabini, Romans than Sabines.

uno digito plus habere, to have one finger more.

The ablative, with the adverbs ante and post, likewise denotes how much one thing is earlier or later than another—as tribus annis ante, three years before or earlier; decem annis post, ten years after or later.

318. The ablative is often used with comparatives to denote the person or thing surpassed by another, which is commonly expressed by quam—as

filia matre pulchrior—that is, filia a daughter more beautiful than pulchrior quam mater, her mother.

Major fuit Scipione—that is, quam Scipio.

Scipio.

This mode of speaking, however, can be used only when the things compared with each other are either in the nominative or accusative.

319. The ablative of a substantive joined with an adjective, participle, or pronoun, is frequently used, both with and without the verb sum, to describe the nature or quality of anything—as

Agesilaus fuit corpore exiguo,

orator summo ingenio, flumen difficili transitu, Agesilaus was a man of a small body.

an orator of the highest genius.

a river difficult to cross.

Neither the genitive nor the ablative of quality can be used, unless the substantive is accompanied by an adjective, participle, or pronoun; 'a man of genius,' therefore, cannot be rendered either by homo ingenii or by homo ingenio, but must be changed into homo ingenious. (Comp. No. 294.)

320. The relations of place where? and whence? are generally expressed in Latin by the prepositions in, ab, ex, or de; but there are many cases in which these relations are expressed by the mere ablative without any preposition.

Place where? is expressed by the ablative alone in the case of the word locus, when accompanied by an adjective or pronoun; also in the expressions: dextrā (on the right-hand side), lacrā (on the left-hand side), terrā marique (by land and by sea), and sometimes medio (in the midst or middle), and numero (in the place of); e.g., hoe loco, in this place; illo loco, in that place; aequo loco, in a favourable place; medio aedium, in the centre of the house.

The ablative of place where? without a preposition is very frequently used when a substantive denoting place is accompanied by the adjective totus or omnis, and when the meaning is 'throughout a

place —as tota Italia, in all Italy or throughout Italy. The preposition in, however, may be added when the idea of 'throughout' is not to be emphatically stated—as in tota Sicilia, in all Sicily.

Place whence? is expressed by the ablative alone in the case of names of towns and small islands—as Roma proficise, to set out from

Rome; Delo Rhodum navigare, to sail from Delos to Rhodes.

In the same manner are used domo, from home; rure, from the country; and sometimes humo, from the ground.

321. The ablative of words denoting time is used to express the time when, at which, or within which anything happens—as

tertio anno bellum confecit,

in the third year he concluded the war.

hoc die,

on this day.

So also, hieme, in winter; aestate, in summer; vere, in the spring;

nocte, at or by night; luce, by daylight, or in daytime.

Some substantives not denoting time may nevertheless be used in the ablative to express the time at which, or the circumstances under which, anything happens—as adventu Chesaris, on the arrival of Caesar; bello Punico primo, at the time of the first Punic war.

322. Any substantive (or personal pronoun) accompanied by an adjective, participle, or another substantive standing in apposition, may be put in the ablative to describe the time or circumstances under which anything happens. This ablative, usually called the ablative absolute, may always be resolved into a distinct clause, and may therefore be defined as a clause put in the ablative to express time and circumstances; as

hoc factum est rege vivo,

this was done while the king was alive.

hae res gestae sunt rege duce,

these things were done under the guidance of the king.

urbem cepit me adjuvante, or me he took the city with my assistadjutore, ance.

Such an ablative absolute may either qualify a particular word (usually the predicate) or an entire clause; but the subject of a clause expressed by the ablative absolute must always be different from that of the leading clause. Compare No. 379.

323. The following prepositions always govern the ablative:
—a, ab (abs), absque, clam, coram, palam, cum, de, ex or e, prae, pro, sine, tenus.

Respecting in, sub, subter, and super, see No. 275. The verbs pono, loco, colloco, statuo, constituo, and consido, although they express motion, are generally construed with in and the ablative.

### USE OF THE VOCATIVE CASE.

324. The vocative is used to address a person, and is inserted in clauses without affecting their construction.

The vocative, like the nominative, is not governed by any other word. A vocative, however, may consist of a word which, when qualified by others, exercises its influence upon them as a word, but as a vocative it exercises none; e.g., vos, o âmici! you, my friends! primā dicte mihi, summā dicende camenā, Maecenas! Maecenas, praised by me in my first, and to be praised in my last poem!

### PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF ADJECTIVES.

325. An adjective is used in Latin not merely as a simple attribute and predicate, but frequently stands in apposition to a substantive or pronoun, and then expresses the condition in which a person or thing is during an action, where we generally use adverbs or adverbial combinations of words—as

tuos contumelia afficiunt,

natură ipsă de immortalitate animo- nature herself silently (tacită) exrum tacită judicat,

multi eos, quos vivos coluerunt, mor- many treat persons after their death (mortuos) with contumely, whom during their lifetime (vivos) they honoured.

presses her opinion of the immortality of the soul.

This is the case especially with adjectives denoting order (ordinal numerals) or succession—as Hispania postrema perdomita est, Spain was subdued last, or was the last country that was subdued.

326. Adjectives (and pronouns) are frequently used as substantives to denote persons or things of a certain kind or class.

When persons of a certain class are to be indicated, the masculine plural of an adjective is used—as boni, the good; sapientes, the wise; omnes fortes, all brave men. Sometimes the word homines is added.

When things of a certain class or kind are to be designated, the Latins use the neuter plural of an adjective, though they may also use the substantive res in the same way as is done in English—as bona, bonae res, good things or property; mala, bad things or evils.

The neuter singular of an adjective is used when an individual thing is to be indicated—as bonum, a good thing; malum, an evil or a bad thing; and when the abstract idea is to be expressed—as verum, the truth; justum, justice.

Some adjectives have so completely acquired the meaning of substantives, that they are almost invariably used as such—as amicus, a male friend; amica, a female friend.

Some adjectives are used as substantives with an ellipsis of some

substantive which determines the gender—as patria (terra, urbs or civilas), native country or city; fera (lestia), a wild beast; can (capilli), gray hair.

327. The comparative of both adjectives and adverbs is frequently used to denote a higher degree than usual, or than should be, where we generally employ the word 'rather'-as

senectus est naturā loquacior,

old age is naturally rather loqua-

liberius vivebat.

he lived too freely (which, however, may also be expressed by nimis libere.)

328. The superlative often does not indicate absolutely the highest degree of a quality, but only a very high degree—that is, the highest degree in comparison with some, but not with all. In this case we may render the Latin superlative into English either by 'very' with the positive, or with the positive alone-as

Sulla, qui est vir fortissimus et cla- Sulla, who is a very brave and optime valeo,

illustrious man. I am very well.

329. A considerable number of superlatives which denote order, succession, time, and place, are often joined to a substantive, although in reality they qualify only a part of the thing expressed by the substantive. Such superlatives are primus, postremus, ultimus, novissimus, summus, infimus, imus, intimus, extremus, and medius—as

primo vere—that is, prima parte } at the beginning of spring. in summo monte—that is, in summa } on the top of a mountain. parte montis,

In like manner are also used medius, reliquus, and cetera—as reliqua Graecia, the remaining part of Greece; cetera multitudo, the other part of the multitude; in media via, in the middle of the road.

## DIFFERENT KINDS OF CLAUSES AND THEIR RELATIONS TO ONE ANOTHER.

330. A clause is either an independent or leading clause, or it is a subordinate or explanatory one.

331. An independent clause simply states a fact by itself, in the form of an assertion or of a question—as

miles dormit. fratremne vidisti? the soldier sleeps. have you seen the brother?

332. A subordinate sentence is usually so constructed that it cannot stand by itself, and can be understood only when viewed in connection with another—as

miles dormit, ut vires reficiat,

the soldier sleeps, that he may restore his strength.

Sometimes an independent clause also remains unintelligible unless an accessory clause be added—as miles fortior est quam expectaveram, the soldier is braver than I had anticipated, where miles fortior est is not complete without the accessory clause.

Two clauses thus combined form a compound sentence, and always

convey a distinct meaning.

333. Subordinate clauses are connected with the leading clause by conjunctions, relative pronouns, or by interrogative particles-as

te non laudo, quoniam mihi non ob- I do not praise you, because you temperasti,

did not obey me.

omnes qui adfuerunt hoc sciunt, ex me quaesivit unde haec scirem,

all who were present know it. he asked me whence I knew this.

Subordinate clauses are often expressed in a peculiar way by the construction of the accusative with the infinitive—as scio eum esse bonum hominem, I know him to be a good man, or I know that he is a good man.

334. Two or more clauses may be joined together in such a manner by copulative or adversative conjunctions, that none of them is subordinate to another. Such clauses are termed co-ordinate. Co-ordinate clauses may be all leading or all subordinate clauses of the same sentence—as

haec res mihi valde placet, et pater this thing pleases me very much, am vehementer probat,

mihi huec res placet, sed pater eam improbat,

menter probes, neque cur pater tantopere improbet, intelligo,

and my father greatly approves

I am pleased with this thing, but my father disapproves of it.

neque cur tu hoc consilium tam vehe- I do not understand either why you so greatly approve of this plan, or why your father so much disapproves of it.

- 1. In subordinate or explanatory clauses introduced by a relative pronoun, the substantive to which the pronoun refers is often drawn into the relative clause, so that the demonstrative clause follows the relative one—as quae cupiditates a natura proficiscuntur, facile explentur sine injuria—that is, eae cupiditates, quae a natura, &c. those desires which proceed from nature are easily satisfied without injury.
- 2. When a substantive is followed by another substantive which stands in apposition to it, and is explained by a relative clause, the apposition is almost invariably drawn into the relative clause—as frumen-

tum, quae sola alimenta ex insperato fortuna dedit, ab ore rapitur, the corn, the only food which fortune unexpectedly afforded, is torn

away from the mouth.

3. Relative clauses do not always contain a mere explanation, but very often stand to the leading clause in a relation which is commonly expressed by conjunctions denoting intention, cause, and the like. Such clauses require to be expressed in Latin by the subjunctive mood.

### MOODS IN GENERAL.

335. The sentiment contained in a sentence is expressed in the form of a simple statement or question in the indicative mood; or in the form of a wish or command of the speaker in the imperative mood; or as a mere conception of the mind in the subjunctive mood—as

pater me in Graeciam misit, confer te in Graeciam, sophos audiret.

my father sent me into Greece. remove thyself into Greece. in Graeciam profectus est, ut philo- he went into Greece that he might hear the philosophers.

336. Co-ordinate clauses, whether they be leading or subordinate, usually have the same mood, though the verbs may he in different tenses.

There are cases in which even co-ordinate sentences are conceived in such a way that they require different moods—as pugiles ingemiscunt non quod doleant, sed quia omne corpus intenditur, boxers sigh, not because (as one might imagine) they feel pain, but because every part of their body is on the stretch (a fact.)

### INDICATIVE MOOD AND ITS TENSES.

337. The indicative mood is used to make a simple statement of a fact, either affirmatively or negatively, and to put a direct question—that is, in such a way that the clause containing the question is not in a relation dependent or subordinate upon any other clause-as

hunc librum legi, illum librum non legam, quando ad me venies? num pater veniet? quod non ex urbe profectus es, mili pergratum est.

I have read this book. that book I shall not read. when will you come to me? will the father come? the fact that you have not gone out of town is very agreeable to

The indicative is used in Latin in conditional clauses (beginning

with si, nisi, etiamsi, etsi, and sive), when it is to be intimated that the supposition is really true, so that si is equivalent to quum (as or since); or when, for the sake of argument, we assume that the supposition is true; or, when negatively expressed, it is not true—as si nikil aliud feceruni, satis praemii habent, if (or as) they have done nothing else,

they are sufficiently rewarded.

Certain tenses of the indicative are used in Latin where we should expect the subjunctive, especially in the case of the verbs oportet, necesse est, debeo, convenit, possum, licet, and in the expressions par, fas, aequum, justum, consentaneum, satis, satius, melius, aequius est. imperfect indicative of these verbs and expressions is used when we wish to express that at some past time something should have been done, but at the same time intimate that the time for doing it is not yet passed, or that it is not yet too late; e.g., ad mortem te duci jam pridem oportebat, 'you ought to have been put to death long ago;' suggesting that it is not too late yet, and that it may still be done. The perfect and pluperfect indicative of the same expressions are used when we wish to intimate that something ought to have been done, but that the time for it is now passed, and that it is too late—as Volumnia debuit in te officiosior esse, 'Volumnia ought to have been more attentive to you; suggesting that the time is now past, and that it is too late to make good her neglect. So also longe utilius fuit, it would have been far more useful.

The indicative is commonly used (if there be no special reason for the subjunctive) after doubled relatives, and those having the suffix cunque—as quisquis, quotquot, quicunque, quantuscunque, utut, utcunque;

e. g., quidquid id est, whatever this may be.

The tenses of the indicative in Latin answer, with few exceptions, to the same tenses in English. Any action or condition is either simply stated as past, present, or future, or as in relation to another action in reference to which it is past, present, or future.

In this manner we have three absolute tenses (present, perfect, and future), and three relative tenses (imperfect, pluperfect, and future

perfect.)

In animated narrative, past events are frequently related by the present tense, as if they were going on before our eyes. This present is termed the historic present.

# 338. The Latin perfect has two distinct meanings—

- 1. It is used, like the past tense in English, to relate the events of the past—as Caesar Galliam subegit, Caesar subdued Gaul; illo anno multae res memorables acciderunt, many memorable events occurred in that year. The perfect in this sense is called the historic perfect, as it is the tense by which past or historical events are related as facts.
- 2. It is used to describe an action as completed and past, but with reference to present time, and thus completely answers to the English perfect—as pater jam vēnit, the father has already come. The perfect in this sense may be termed the present perfect.

The conjunctions postquam, posteaquam (after); ubi, ut (when); simul, simulatque, ut primum, and quum primum (as soon as), are followed in Latin by the perfect, when it is to be expressed that two actions follow one another in immediate succession—as postquam victoria parta est, hostes refugerunt, after the victory had been gained, the enemy fied.

339. The imperfect describes a past action as in progress and not complete, and is therefore used in descriptions of things which in past time were in a certain condition, or of past events which are represented as going on. The imperfect is also used to relate events which usually or repeatedly occurred in past time—as

et artium florebant.

quum Verres ad aliquod oppidum whenever Verres came to any venerat, eadem lectica usque in cubiculum deferebatur,

etiam tum Athenae gloriā litterarum even at that time Athens was flourishing for its reputation in literature and the arts.

> town, he was (always) carried in the same lectica to his sleeping apartment.

340. The pluperfect states an action of past time which was completed before another action, at present likewise completed, began—as

dixerat judex, quum puer nuntiavit,

the judge had spoken when the boy gave information.

341. The future denotes an action or condition which is to take place at a future time unspecified, or at a particular moment in future time—as

hostes venient.

the enemies will come.

342. The future perfect describes a future act as completed at a certain future time—as

quum tu haec leges, ego illum for- when you (will) read this, I shall tasse convenero, perhaps have spoken with him.

The tenses of the periphrastic conjugation are, on the whole, used in the same way as those of the ordinary conjugation; but the action expressed by the participle future is in all tenses a future one—as scripturus sum, scripturus eram, scripturus ero, scripturus fui, scripturus fueram, scripturus fuero.

### SUBJUNCTIVE MOOD.

343. A verb in the subjunctive expresses an action or condition as a mere conception of the mind, in the form of a wish, a possibility, an intention, a supposition, a concession, and the like, so that the speaker does not treat it as a fact; as

scribo ut scias. quae si ita sint. facile aliquis dicat.

I write that you may know. if these things be so. a person may easily say.

344. The subjunctive is used both in leading and in subordinate clauses, though more especially in the latter. In leading clauses it is of a fourfold nature—expressing a supposition or hypothesis (hypothetical clauses), a possibility (when it is termed the potential mood), a wish or desire (the optative mood), and a concession (concession concession).

Every hypothetical sentence consists of two clauses—the one, which states the condition or supposition (beginning with si, nisi, ni, si non, etiamsi, tametsi), is called the protăsis; and the other, which contains the conclusion or inference, is called the apodŏsis. The protasis is sometimes not expressed, being either implied in something which precedes, or supplied by the mind of the hearer or reader—illo tempore aliter sensisses, 'at that time you would have thought differently'—namely, 'if you had looked at the matter,' or 'if you had lived.'

345. The present subjunctive is used both in the protasis and apodosis, to denote that the supposition is possible, and may be true; and accordingly, that the apodosis is also possible—as

me dies deficiat, si hoc nunc dicere the day would not suffice for me, velim, if I wished to say this now.

- 346. The imperfect subjunctive is used in the protasis and apodosis, to denote that the supposition is not or cannot be true, and that accordingly the inference also is not true. The time expressed in such sentences is the present—as
- si pecuniam haberem, ad te venirem,
  if I (now) had money I should
  come to you; implying that I
  have no money, and accordingly
  cannot come to you.
- 347. The pluperfect subjunctive is used in both clauses, if the supposition as well as the inference is not true, and belongs to past time—as •
- si pecuniam habuissem, ad te venissem, ad te venisif I had had money (which was not the case), I should have
  - if I had had money (which was not the case), I should have come to you (which, under the circumstances, was a matter of impossibility.)

Sometimes the imperfect and pluperfect are united in the same sentence—as si sibi cavere potuisset, viveret, if he had been able to be on his guard, he would (now) be living.

- 348. The subjunctive, as a potential mood, is used-
- To express that which does not really exist, but may or might exist, and is conceived as possible. The subject of such clauses is usually an indefinite or an interrogative pronoun—as dicat aliquis or

quispiam, some one may say; dixerit aliquis, some one might say; quis credat? who would believe it?

Things which are possible at the present time are expressed by the present or the perfect subjunctive, while a past possibility is expressed by the imperfect—as quis eum redargueret? who would have refuted him?

2. The potential subjunctive is also used with definite subjects for the purpose of expressing an opinion in a modest manner, and this occurs most frequently in the first person of the perfect when the speaker expresses his own opinion with a certain degree of modesty or hesitation—as haud facile dixerim, I would not easily say.

3. The potential subjunctive is used in doubtful questions containing a negative sense—as quid facian? what shall I do? equivalent to, 'I do not know what I shall do.' In like manner the potential subjunctive is used in questions expressive of disapproval—as hos cives pairia desideret? is the country to long for such citizens? the implied answer being 'assuredly not.'

349. The subjunctive, as an optative mood, is used to express a wish or desire-as

valeas, valeant cives. beati sint.

fare well. may my fellow-citizens fare well. may they be happy.

350. The subjunctive (a concessive mood), is used to express a concession or admission. It usually denotes that what is conceded is not true, or at least is undecided, but that it is granted for the sake of argument—as

sint hace falsa, invidiosa certe non granting that these things are sunt, false, invidious they certainly

are not.

sit sane dolor gravis, malum non est, granting that (or although) pain is severe, it is not an evil.

The conjunction ut (in the sense of 'granting that') is often added to a concessive subjunctive - as ut sit infelix, granting that he is unhappy; and in negative clauses ne must be added—as ne sint in senectute vires, granting that there is no strength in old age.

351. All dependent or subordinate clauses introduced by the conjunctions ut (that, in order that, so that, although), ne or ut ne (that not, or in order that not), ut non (so that not), quin (that not), quominus (that not), and quo (in the sense of ut eo, in order that thereby), have the verb in the subjunctive—as

sol efficit, ut omnia floreant,

virtutem colere debetis, ut beati esse possitis.

precor, ne me deseras,

the sun makes (that) all things flourish.

you must cultivate virtue, that (in order that) you may be able to be happy.

I pray that you may not desert

352. All questions expressed in the form of a subordinate clause - that is, indirect questions - have the verb in the subjunctive-as

quaero, quid facturus sis, quaesivi, quid faceret,

I ask what you are going to do. I asked what he was doing.

353. Subordinate sentences introduced by the conjunctions quod, quia, quonium, quando (because, since), usually have the verb in the indicative when the writer or speaker states his own view of a case; but the subjunctive must be used when he states the reason of another person, intimating that he merely quotes the opinion of another, without assenting to it or dissenting from it—as

Aristides expulsus est patria, quod Aristides was expelled from his praeter modum justus esset,

Socrates accusatus est, quod corrumperet juventutem et novas superstitiones introduceret,

country, because (it was alleged that) he was too just.

Socrates was accused, because (as his enemies said) he corrupted the young, and introduced new superstitions.

354. The conjunction quum or cum, when it denotes cause, and signifies 'as' or 'since,' is always construed with the subjunctive—as

cum vita brevis sit, summa diligentia as life is short, we must take the adhibenda est, ut ea bene utamur,

greatest care to make good use of it.

In historical narrative, where a preceding event may be looked upon as the cause of a subsequent one, quum is always construed with the subjunctive, even when we translate it by 'when,' as if it denoted time—as Epaminondas quum vicisset Lacedaemonios, alque ipse gravi vulnere exanimari se videret, quaesivit salvusne esset clypeus. If, on the other hand, quum expresses purely time, and is equivalent to tum quum (then or at the time when), it is construed with the indicative—as qui injuriam non propulsat, quum (that is, tum quum) potest, injuste facit, he who does not repel an injury when he can, acts wrong.

355. The conjunctions dum, donec, and quoad, in the sense of 'as long as,' are construed with the indicative. In the sense of 'until' they take the indicative, if the event is conceived as one that really happened or happens; but if the event is conceived as merely possible, and if an intention or purpose is implied, they have the verb in the subjunctive—as

non desinam, donec perfecero,

Milo adfuit, quoad senatus dimissus

iratis subtrahendi sunt ii, in quos impetum conantur facere, dum se ipsi colligant,

I shall not cease until I have accomplished it.

Milo was present until the senate broke up.

we must withdraw from angry persous those on whom they attempt an attack, until they recover themselves.

when it is simply stated that one action precedes another in time; the subjunctive, on the other hand, is used when the event does not or did not actually happen before the other—as priusquam de adventu meo audire I reached Macedonia before they potuissent, in Macedoniam perrexi, nunquam eris dives, antequam tibi ex tuis possessionibus tantum refi-

ciatur, ut eo legionem tueri possis,

could hear of my arrival.

you will not be rich until (before) you gain so much from your possessions that you can keep a legion with it.

357. The concessive conjunctions quamvis (however much), and licet (although), are construed with the subjunctive, like quantumvis and quamlibet, while quamquam (although) is joined with the indicative—as

nullo modo possum, non persequar,

dubia aut obscura sit?

quamvis neges, tumen tibi credere however much you may deny, still I cannot believe you in anyway. licet mihi invisus sit, tamen eum although he is hateful to me, still I will not persecute him.

358. The conjunctions quasi, velut si, tamquam si (sometimes tamquam, sicut, or poetically ceu alone), perinde ac si, aeque ac si, non secus ac si, are joined with the subjunctive, as they introduce a clause which is only a conception of the mind—as sic cogitandum est, tamquam aliquis our thoughts must be such, as if any one could look into our

in pectus intimum inspicere possit, innermost heart.

quid ego his testibus utor, quasi res why do I make use of these witnesses, as if the matter were doubtful or obscure?

359. Relative clauses which simply add an explanation of some word or circumstance contained in the leading clause, have the verb in the indicative. But when a relative clause, besides containing a simple explanation, implies at the same time the idea of intention, purpose, result or consequence, cause, and such like, the subjunctive is employed. In all these cases the relative involves the idea of ut (in order that, so that) or quum (as, since), which accounts for its requiring the subjunctive.

360. The following special cases render this plain-

1. The subjunctive is used in a relative clause when it expresses the intention or purpose of the action contained in the leading clause. In this case the relative is equivalent to ut is, 'in order that he;' e.g., legatos Romam misit, qui (ut ii) auxilium a senatu peterent, he sent deputies to Rome, who should ask the Roman senate for succour

2. After the adjectives dignus, indignus, aptus, and sometimes also idoneus, the relative is used with the subjunctive, if that of which a person is worthy or unworthy, or for which anything is fit, is expressed by a verb—as dignus or indignus est qui laudetur, he is

worthy or unworthy of being praised; non satis idoneus videtur, cui tantum negotium committatur, he does not seem quite fit to be

intrusted with so important a business.

3. The subjunctive is used in relative clauses which serve to complete the idea of a certain quality, and to express its effect; in such cases the relative is equivalent to talis ut, 'such that,' and the demonstratives talis, tanius, hic, ille, is, ejusmodi, hujusmodi, or tam, sometimes actually precede the relative, but sometimes they are understood; e.g., innocentia est affectio talis animi, quae (ut) noceat nemini, harmlessness is that (or such a) state of mind which hurts no one.

- 4. After such general and indefinite expressions as sunt (there are persons), inventuatur, reperiuntur (there are found men), non desunt (there are not wanting persons), existiit, exstiterunt, exortus est, habeo, est (ubi), nemo est, nihil est, and the like, the relative may be joined with the indicative as well as with the subjunctive. The latter is used when the relative implies a quality—as sunt, qui discessum animi a corpore putent esse mortem, there are persons (of such a kind, so stupid or so wise) who believe that death is the separation of the soul from the body. When the relative is joined with the indicative, a simple fact is stated without any intimation of quality, so that sunt quos juvat is equivalent to juvat quosdam, some persons take a delight; est ubi peccat, equivalent to interdum peccat, he sometimes blunders.
- 5. The relative is followed by the verb in the subjunctive when it implies a supposition or condition, so that it involves the idea of si—as nihil bonum est, quod hominem non meliorem faciat, nothing is good unless it makes man better. In such a case, however, the writer, if he chooses, may use the indicative, employing the relative in its pure sense without suggesting any condition—as nihil bonum est, quod hominem non meliorem facit, nothing is good which does not make man better.
- 6. Relative clauses have the verb in the subjunctive when they introduce a reason for what is contained in the leading clause; in such cases the relative is almost equivalent to quum (as, since)—as O, fortunate adolescens, qui tuae virtutis Homerum praeconem inveneris! O, fortunate youth, who (since thou) hast found in Homer a herald of thy valour!
- 7. Relative clauses have the verb in the subjunctive when the sentiment which they introduce is to be characterised as belonging to another person, and not as the sentiment of the speaker himself—as Socrates exsecrari eum solebat, qui primus utilitatem a jure sejunxisset, Socrates used to curse the man (whoever he was) who had first severed that which is useful from that which is just.
- 8. In historical narrative the subjunctive is sometimes used in a relative clause when actions of repeated occurrence are spoken of—as quemcunque lictor jussu consulis prehendisset, whomsoever the lictor had seized by the command of the consul.
- 361. The subjunctive is used in all clauses introduced into a dependent clause either by a relative pronoun or a conjunction, provided they form an integral part of it—as
- quod me admones, ut me integrum, your advice to keep myself uninquoad possim, servem, gratum est, jured, as far as I can, is acceptable.

By a dependent clause is meant one expressed by the accusative with the infinitive, or having its verb in the subjunctive. A clause forming an integral part of such a sentence is absolutely necessary, and without it the whole does not and cannot convey a distinct meaning.

### IMPERATIVE MOOD.

362. The imperative represents an action or condition in the form of a command, request, or admonition.

It has only two tenses—the present and the future: the former expresses a request or command in reference to present time, or without reference to any particular time; and the latter, a command or request that something is to be done in future, or when an occasion shall occur; and hence it is the appropriate form of expressing a command in laws, wills, contracts, or in writings composed in imitation of the style employed in such documents—as vine felia! live happily!—subvenite misero mihi, ite obviam injuriae! help me, wretched man, and resist the act of injustice!—regio imperio duo sunto, there shall be two men with kingly power; servus meus liber esto, my slave shall be free.

Instead of the imperative present, it is very common to use the subjunctive, and especially in the second person singular when an indefinite person is addressed—as aut bibat, aut abeat, let him drink, or go away; injurias fuqiendo relinquas, escape from injuries by flight. When a definite person is addressed in the second person singular, it is more common to use the imperative than the subjunctive.

A negative command in legal phraseology is expressed by the future imperative with ne, and 'nor' is expressed by neve—as nocturna sucri-

ficia ne sunto, there shall be no sacrifices at night.

Instead of the imperative present in a negative command, it is customary to use, in the third person, the subjunctive of the present or the future perfect; and in the second person in the active, the future perfect; and in the passive the perfect, or more rarely the present: the negative in these cases is likewise ne—as puer telum ne habeat, the boy shall not have a weapon; hoc ne feceris, do not do this.

A sentence which in direct speech is expressed by the imperative, becomes the subjunctive when the speech becomes indirect—as how mihi dicant, in indirect speech, stands for how mihi dicite, in direct

speech.

### INFINITIVE MOOD.

363. The infinitive expresses the action or condition implied

in the verb, as an abstract generality.

364. The infinitive may be regarded as a verbal substantive, which, generally speaking, exists only in two cases, the nominative and the accusative, and differs from other substantives by its governing the case of a verb.

The infinitive, both in the active and passive, has only three tenses:



- 1. That commonly called the infinitive of the present, representing an action in progress, and therefore the infinitive not only of the present, but also of the past and the future—as amare and amari; 2. The infinitive of the perfect representing an action as completed, and serving as the infinitive both of the perfect and pluperfect—as amavisse and amatum (am, um) esse; 3. The infinitive of the future simply representing an action as yet to come, whatever may be the point of time from which it is viewed—as amaturum esse and amatum iri.
- 365. The subject of an infinitive is, with few exceptions, in the accusative.

366. As the infinitive has only two cases, the nominative and accusative, it may be used either as the subject of another verb, or as its object.

367. The infinitive is the subject (nominative) when an action

is the thing of which something is predicated—as

patriam amare cujusvis est civis, to love one's country is the duty of every citizen.

368. The infinitive stands as an object (accusative) of many verbs which express an incomplete idea, and require another verb to complete it—as

cupio legere librum,

I want to read the book.

quished is generous.

Verbs of this kind are those denoting will, power, custom, inclination, beginning, continuing, ceasing, neglecting, and others—as volo, nolo, malo, cupio, studeo, conor, nitor, contendo, tento.

369. A clause expressed by the accusative with the infinitive, is the subject of another verb when the whole of it is conceived as a single idea or noun of which something is predicated—as victorem parcere victis acquum est, that the victor spare the van-

Here the clause victis victorem parcere is the subject, and aequum est is the predicate.

370. A clause expressed by the accusative with the infinitive is the object of another verb, when the whole of it is conceived as a single idea or noun, governed by a transitive verb—as

doceo te loqui, jussit me ad se venire. I teach you to speak. he ordered me to come to him.

### GERUND AND GERUNDIVE.

371. The gerund supplies the place of a verbal substantive in all cases except the nominative and vocative (the place of the nominative is supplied by the infinitive); but it differs from

ordinary substantives in governing its case as a verb, and in not being followed by the genitive of another substantive—as

studium obtemperandi legibus, ad fruendum frugibus terrae,

the zeal to obey the laws.
for the purpose of enjoying the
fruits of the earth.

372. When the gerund is a transitive verb having its object in the accusative, as in consilium condendi urbem, the common practice is to change the accusative into the case of the gerund, and the gerund into the gerundive, making it agree with its noun—as

consilium condendae urbis,

the plan of founding a city.

As the gerund, as far as its meaning is concerned, is nothing but the oblique cases of the infinitive, and as the infinitive cannot in all cases be used as an ordinary substantive, the gerund also cannot be used in all cases like an ordinary substantive.

The accusative of the gerund is used only after prepositions, especially ad and inter, in the sense of 'during' or 'amid'—as inter ludendum,

during the play.

373. The gerundive of transitive verbs is in form an adjective, and has a passive meaning signifying that something must be done; that is, it expresses necessity—as

vir haud contemnendus, patria defendenda est, a man not to be despised. our country must be defended.

If the agent who must do anything, or by whom anything must be done, is added, it is always expressed by the dative—as hoc mihi faciendum est, I must do this, or this must be done by me.

#### SUPINE.

374. The supine is a verbal substantive of the fourth declension, and has only two cases—the accusative (in um) and the ablative (in u.) It differs from an ordinary substantive, inasmuch as it governs the case of its verb—as

legati venerunt res repetitum,

ambassadors came to reclaim their property.

375. The supine in um has an active meaning, and is used after verbs of motion, to express the object of the motion—as

legati in castra venerunt questum deputies came into the camp to complain of the acts of injustice.

Fabius Pictor Delphos ad oraculum missus est sciscitatum, quihus precibus deos possent placare,

deputies came into the camp to complain of the acts of injustice. Fabius Pictor was sent to Delphi to the oracle, to inquire by what prayers they could propitiate the gods.

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376. The supine in u has a passive meaning, and is used with certain adjectives to denote that a quality is attributed to a subject with reference to the action expressed by the supine; e.g.,

pleraque dictu quam re sunt faciliora, honestum factu, turpe factu, most things are more easy to say than to do. honourable to do, disgraceful to

The words most commonly used with this supine are—fas, nefus, opus, honestus, turpis, jucundus, facilis, difficilis, incredibilis, memorabilis, utilis, dignus, indignus.

### PARTICIPLES.

377. A participle is in form an adjective, but differs from other adjectives by the fact of its expressing time, and governing the case of the verb from which it is formed.

In the active there are two participles: the one, called the present participle, represents an action or condition in progress, and accordingly, if present actions are spoken of, it may be regarded as a present participle—as accusat me dicens me ad hostes transfugiese, he accuses me, saying (present) that I deserted to the enemy; if past actions are spoken of, it may be termed the participle of the imperfect—as accusative dicens (imperfect) me ad hostes transfugiese, he accused me, saying (for he said) that I had deserted to the enemy. The future participle represents an action or condition as intended or as to take place in future time—as milites adversus urbem profecturi per totam noctem in costris se tenebant, the soldiers intending to march against the city kept themselves all night within the camp. The active voice has no participle for a completed action. The passive voice, if we except the gerundive, has only one participle, which expresses a completed action—as injuria illata, an injury which has been done.

378. A participle, when occurring in the same clause as the noun to which it refers, must agree with it in gender, number, and case, like an ordinary adjective—as

risum saepe cupientes tenere nequinus,
Caesar victos hostes interfecit,
Caesar put the conquered enemies to death.

379. If the time when, cause, manner, or any accompanying circumstance of an action is expressed by a subordinate clause having a subject different from that of the leading one, that clause is put in the ablative—that is, the subject is put in the ablative, and the verb, being changed into a participle, is made



to agree with the subject. A clause thus expressed is said to be in the ablative absolute (comp. No. 322)—as

rege expulso consules creati sunt,

sole stante terra vertitur,

after the king was expelled consuls were elected. hae res Tarquinio regnante gestae these things were done in the reign of Tarquinius. the earth turns round while the sun is standing still.

THE END.

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