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## AN ELEMENTARY LATIN GRAMMAR

Henry John Roby


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#### Abstract

Classics From the Renaissance to the nineteenth century, Latin and Greek were compulsory subjects in almost all European universities, and most early modern scholars published their research and conducted international correspondence in Latin. Latin had continued in use in Western Europe long after the fall of the Roman empire as the lingua franca of the educated classes and of law, diplomacy, religion and university teaching. The flight of Greek scholars to the West after the fall of Constantinople in 1453 gave impetus to the study of ancient Greek literature and the Greek New Testament. Eventually, just as nineteenth-century reforms of university curricula were beginning to erode this ascendancy, developments in textual criticism and linguistic analysis, and new ways of studying ancient societies, especially archaeology, led to renewed enthusiasm for the Classics. This collection offers works of criticism, interpretation and synthesis by the outstanding scholars of the nineteenth century.


## Elementary Latin Grammar

Henry John Roby (1830-1915) was a Cambridge-educated classicist whose influential career included periods as a schoolmaster, professor of Roman law, businessman, educational reformer and Member of Parliament. An Elementary Latin Grammar (1862) is a complete, concise introduction to the Latin language. Written for classroom use, it presents essential grammatical constructions in the clearest possible manner, using ample material from the classical authors as demonstrations of basic principles. The book guides the reader through noun and adjective declensions and the full array of verb conjugations before turning to prosody and syntax, where Roby's innovations in Latin instruction are most evident. Simple, direct, and based upon examples including texts by Livy and Cicero, the book shows students how to parse basic sentences while also introducing them to more subtle and complex constructions. It remains a useful resource for teachers of Latin, and a fascinating document in the history of education.

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# Elementary Latin Grammar 

Henry John Roby

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ELEMENTARY
LATIN GRAMMAR.

## ELEMENTARY

## LATIN GRAMMAR

BY

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1862.
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## PREFACE.

Tee following pazes will be found to differ very considerably from the Eton Grammar and those formed more or less on its model-for instance, King Edward VIth's and Dr Kennedy's. On this account the Syntax at least may perhaps require one or two careful readings, before the mode in which it deals with grammatical difficulties be fully apprehended. My object has been in the Accidence to state, as accurately as I could within the limits of a book for learners, the inflexional forms in use among the Romans of the best period; and in the Syntax to explain briefly and precisely the use of them. The examples are chiefly from Cæsar, Cicero, or Livy, or such as they might have written; and have been so chosen and so translated as to give frequent subsidiary hints on Latin construction or English translation. Peculiarities, especially those of earlier or later writers and of the poets generally, have been usually left to be explained by the teacher on their occurrence. If the principles given be correct, such peculiarities will not cause much difficulty.

The leading principles and arrangement of the book, especially the Syntax, are chiefly my own, at least so far as direct
help goes; but for details throughout I have made the amplest use of Madvig's Grammar. The facts of the Accidence have been almost entirely either derived from it, or corrected by its aid. In the Syntax I may particularly mention the treatment of objective propositions ( $\$ 295.4$ ), of the tenses, and of the oratio obliqua; besides numerous examples. Where my use of his book has amounted almost to an abridgment of some length, his name has been added. I have not often deliberately differed from him. The edition which I have used is the first of the English translation: one correction (8 81. 3) and some slight additions are from the last edition of the German ( ${ }^{8} 8_{57}$ ), to which no attention appears to have been paid in the last edition of the translation (1859).

My acknowledgments are also due to Morell's English Grammar for parts of the aualysis (on Becker's system) of sentences; to Key's larger Grammar, 2nd ed. (a book well worth knowing, as it exhibits the results of a very fresh study of Latin) for some examples and useful hints; and to Donaldson's larger Grammar for similar occasional help, but in a less degree. Kennedy's School-grammar (almost always neat and ingenious) has been of some service, chiefly as indicating the amount of information usually required, but also in other ways. Many points of agreement with each of these writers will be found, where I am not conscions of any direct debt. Indeed Dr Kennedy's book I did not become acquainted with till I had written the first draught of the Syntax. My other obligations to books of this class are too slight to deserve separate mention.

There are some novelties in the Accidence which had perhaps better be noticed here. I have followed Madvig in his arrangement of the cases, which commends itself both by its propriety and simplicity: in omitting mei, tui, \&c, as the direct genitive of the personal pronouns (see $\S 56$ ) ; in distinguishing the imperative forms into a present and a future tense; and in omitting cmaminor, \&c. as being a form due only to a corruption of an old singular amamino. I have followed Donaldson
in referring the gerundive to the active voice, and have given short reasons in a note to § 254. Madvig's view (see his Bemerkungen) and Key's appear to me substantially the same.

I have also confined the vocative case to those Latin nouns, substantive and adjective, of the 2nd declension which end in $u s$ : for in these alone is it different from the nominative. In pp. 12-23 no notice is taken of some rare words, which schoolboys are likely to have little or nothing to do with; and generally, but especially in the Prosody, Greek nouns have been banished to a note (p. 79) and Appendix A. No translation is given in the paradigms of the Subjunctive and Infinitive, but the matter is fully treated in the Syntax (especially $8 \%$ 238, 247). The usual translations correspond to but few of the uses of either, and, as I know by experience, constantly lead to blunders. Prima facie indeed they are wrong. Amem is not $I$ can love, nor $I$ may love: although the latter may serve in some sentences, the former is better avoided altogether. The term potential mood is, I think, product and cause of similar mistakes.

The treatment of much of the Accidence might be greatly improved, if it were the custom of schools to pay more attention to the principles of sounds and letter-changes. But it would not be easy to do this successfully for boys first learning Latin, and I have therefore acquiesced (e.g. in $\S{ }^{25}$ ) in an unscientific procedure.

The usual names for the cases, moods, tenses, \&c. are retained and used without any reference to their etymological meaning. This appeared to me less objectionable than adding a new nomenclature or fresh selection of terms to those already existing. In the Syntax, the ordinary names of constructions, \&c. will be often found appended even where I thought them very bad, e.g. Ablative Absolute. Such vague terms as a Genitive or Accusative of respect or reference, I have endeavoured to avoid. By Active or Passive voice, I have generally meant the form only, whether the meaning be transitive or intransitive.

## Preface.

The analysis of the sentence has been simplified from that given in Morell's Grammar ; and the terms secondary and oblique predicate strictly defined (rather differently from Donaldson) and freely used. They will, I beheve, be found valuable instruments in syntactical analysis. The logical copula is omitted altogether. Whatever may be said in logic, Pastor est supinus and Pastor dormit supinus are precisely the same grammatically, and est has as good a right to be considered the predicate as dormit. Moreover, it is very objectionable to treat an adverb as forming the predicate; and yet what is to be done with bene est if est be the copula?

In treating of the cases and moods, I have endeavoured to deduce from their use the proper meanings of each, considering their construction to be determined by this. Such a method is exactly the reverse of the Eton system, which treats the use of particular cases and moods as resulting from the arbitrary preferences of different classes of verbs and adjectives, or the several prepositions, or certain conjunctions. Upon this base. less theory rest the exhibition of the use of the genitive, dative, \&c. after adjectives, as something quite separate from their use after verbs; the omission of any leading distinctions between the several cases (partially supplied in K. Edw.VIth's, and still more in Kennedy's Grammar); the separate treatment of their use to denote relations of space and time; perpetual dreams of an ellipse of this or that preposition (now, however, generally disclaimed); of si, of $u t$, of $a$ with the vocative, of the 'participium existendi' (a most gratuitous supposition when the language does not possess any participle of being, and existere, in good Latin, never denotes ' being'); and what is almost worst of all, rules to explain the moods based upon the frequency of their occurrence with particular conjunctions; in fact, a statistical statement, appealing, I presume, to some theory of probabilities, substituted for a rational explanation, even in so important a matter as the subjunctive mood.

But as such rules are often called safe practical guides, to be
used like a rule of thumb, it may be as well to examine one or two of those most in use, to see how far this is the case. I give Dr Kennedy's words, that the rules may wear the best face possible.
I. "Cum duo substantiva diversarum rerum concurrunt, alterum in genitivo ponitur, When two substantives of different things come together, one is put in the genitive case." Not to dwell upon diversarum rerum and concurrunt, both of which contain plenty of pitfalls, the rule actually does not state which substantive is to be put into the genitive, thus leaving the student to adopt either the Latin or the Hebrew idiom. Other grammars have posterius for alterum; and then we get a rule which has the singular infelicity of flying in the face of the only case-inflexion in English nouns. Cecsar's friend, Cæsaris amicus, are generally better English and better Latin than The friend of Ccesar, Amicus Cæsaris (i.e. friendly to Ccesar), and probably nore common. But a boy does not really use these rules. In writing Latin he is guided by the English inflexion or the preposition of; and in translating from Latin he reverses the same process besides tbinking of the sense. The rule is carried in his mind as a collateral piece of knowledge, and is recited as a mere incantation against the master's wrath with not so much meaning as Cato's Ista pista sista, muttered over a sprain. Dr Kennedy gives subsequently other rules respecting the genitive of a very different character; but what possible good can such a rule as the above do at any time?
2. "Dativum ferme regunt verba composita cum adverbiis bene satis male, et cunn præpositionibus presertim his, Ad ante $a b$, In inter de, Sub super ob, Con, post et pra." To which, however, is wisely subjoined "Multa ex his variant constructionem." But then what becomes of the rule of thumb?

The truth is, I believe, that verbs compounded with these prepositions have other cases and constructions quite as often as a dative. 2ndly, The rule (I do not speak of the examples
given) makes no distinction between the direct and indirect object, although many of these verbs are transitive, and therefore have both. 3rdly, The dative after such verbs, when it occurs, is only the ordinary dative of the indirect object.
3. "Quum, causali sensu, subjunctivum plerumque regit; sed interdum Indicativum:
"Quod, quando, quia, quandoquidem, quoniam, siquidemque causali sensu Indicativo gaudent: nisi opus sit subjunctivo.
" Quunn, quando, quoties, simul ut, simul atque, ubi, postquam temporales Indicativo gaudent: quum sæpe subjunctivo, post et ante tempus Præteritum.
"Dum, donec, quoad, antequam, priusquam pro sententia loci, nunc Indicativum, nunc Subjunctivum capiunt."

What then should a boy do? first decide on his conjunction, and then put Indicative and Subjunctive alternately? or two Subjunctives for one Indicative? or vice versâ? There is not the slightest clue given to the real meanings of the moods in such sentences: all hinges on their comparative frequency after certain conjunctions. Pro sententia loci nowhere gets any explanation: nisi opus sit subjunctivo may refer to the Oratio obligua, or to what Dr Kennedy mentions as the Potential and Optative uses, which however he distinguishes from the subjunctive 'as subjoined to particles:' but how, or to which it refers, is not said.

If the meaning of the cases and moods be well grasped, it is very interesting then to notice the natural or accidental attraction of particular verbs, \&c. to particular constructions; but it does not appear to me possible to do this adequately within the limits of a boy's grammar. Madvig's does it well, but with much reduction it would lose its value.

If any should object that the treatment of the subjunctive mood in these pages is more difficult than that of the ordinary system, I would venture to ask whether, if so, this may not be due to the fact that the points of difficulty are really ignored in the ordinary system: and let a boy know the rules ever so per-
fectly, he would not be able to explain Latin authors, or know when to use the subjunctive and when the indicative. But my own belief is that boys get their first notions of graminar, not so much from rules as from examples, and that in writing their exercises they do not obey a precept but follow a precedent. As they make progress, they will want the rule to fix their nascent conceptions; and when they want it, they will begin to understand it. Syntax is never interesting, except to an advanced or advancing scholar; the difficulty lies in the subject itself, and cannot be conjured out of it by meaningless mesmeric passes. If it could, Latin would lose its educational worth, and the question might be fairly urged whether French or German wonld not be more useful to English boys. A boy has no real mental training unless some abstract thought be evoked, and Latin syntax cannot be acquired without it. Of course a boy need not go into the matter fully at first, but had better not get into a wrong mode altogether.

The treatment of the Cases is more likely to be charged with want of minute details. It will be found however that many of the ordinary details are necessary only on the artificial system adopted: and that others are only poetic, or rare. For boys writing Latin prose, it is desirable to keep poetic usages in the background: there will be little trouble with them if boys grasp well the meaning of the cases. The Latin dative is, I fancy, the very simplest oblique case in either Latin or Greek, and seems to me adequately treated for school-boys in two or, at most, four rules.* Now in Edward VIth's Grammar, the 'Dative after the Adjective' contains 6 rules: and the 'Dative after the Verb' 22 more, all in large print; of these 5 do not belong to the dative, but are due to some of the rules having overshot the mark: but,

[^0]if they are deducted, their place is more than supplied by 7 other rules in other parts of the Syntax. A boy must have a good head to understand the use of a case which requires 30 rules to explain it, and 5 others to explain the rules. The Revised Eton Grammar reduces them to 14: Dr Kennedy's to 9 in the Syntaxis Minor. But all these grammars, by laying down arbitrary rules about verbs of commanding and delighting, make such a perfectly regular use as the accusative after the transitive verbs leedo, delecto, juvo, rego, jubeo, guberno, appear as an act of delinquency and violation of a general rule, or, as Dr Kennedy expresses it, 'they are joined to the accusative contra regulam.'

It must not be supposed that I regard the analysis of the cases, \&c. as carried to its farthest point: I have stopped where I thought practical usage required it. Doubtless (in Latin) all genitives ultimately imply possession (or partition ?): all datives, the person (or thing) for whom. The ablative has an obscure birth and is somewhat intractable : the accusative Madvig may be right in asserting to be the word used without any further grammatical definition than that it is not the subject, and that the notion of place is merely subordinate. But whether or not we can talk in such matters of actual historical priority, it seems to me more probable that in this case as in others, Space furnished the primary intuition and gave form and outness to the mental conception : and to this it is no objection that the general conception of object is far wider and includes in a sort that of place tovards which. The genitive is hardly sufficiextly appreciated in school-grammars, and its broad distinction from the other cases, as doing for substantives and partly for adjectives, what the nominative, accusative, and dative (and sometimes the ablative), do for verbs, is therefore frequently not caught. The genitive after verbs $(\$ 200 . b)$ scarcely deviates from the proper conception (accuso $=$ causam facio : indigeo $=$ indigus sum, \&e.) : certainly even so it is very different from any of the other cases.

The ultimate identity of many of the usages of each case is clearly indicated by their being equally referable to more than one head.

The Completed future is not free from diffculty. That the Latins treat it as a tense of the indicative mood is unquestionable: but could they have told whether videris ( $\$ 235.8$ ) is an indicative or subjunctive? There is, it appears to me, much plausibility in Donaldson's identification of this tense with the perf. subj., as there is also in Madvig's deduction (see his Opuscula) of the perf. subj. from the compl. future: if the ground for such distinct subordination of the one to the other is not rather cut away from both by the common origin of ero and sim, of amav-ero and amav-erim (=amav-esim), which I believe is Curtius' view. Madvig goes the length of supposing a compl. future of the subjunctive as a different tense though the same in form with the perf. subj. This appears to me unnecessary, though his instances, in this case, as always, are very good. But when it is remembered how much more distinctly a completed future fixes events and circumstances which do not yet exist, than a simple future does, it may be doubted whether sufficient consideration has been given to the fact that the ist pers. sing. which alone differs from the perf. subj., and differs by assuming an indicative termination, is the only one in which any positiveness of assertion respecting the future is natural. A man may speak positively of his own intentions, or may prophesy from knowledge of his own circumstances, but to do so of another must partake much more of the nature of a supposition, or a wish, or a command. Sed heec viderint doctiores: non equidem repugnavero.

If any scholars should honour my little book with criticism either public or private, I shall be very grateful, as it will give me the best chance of improving it; and if objections be but specific, it will matter but little in this respect whether they be kindly or severely urged.

I have now only to thank warmly my kind friends, the Rev. J. E. B. Mayor, M.A., Rev. C. B. Hutchinson, M.A., and J. R. Seeley, Esq., M.A., for many valuable corrections and suggestions given amidst numerous engagements.
H. J. R.

Dolwich College,
October, 186z.

## LATIN GRAMMAR.

## ACCIDENCE or <br> STATEMENT OF INFLEXIONAL FORMS.

## OF THE LETTERS.

§ 1. The Latin Alphabet is the same as the English, with the omission of the letter $w$. The letters are also written and pronounced nearly the same as in English.
$a, e, i, o, u, y$, are called vowels, the rest are called consonants.

Of the consonants,
-Some are pronounced in the throat, called Guttural; viz. $c$ (hard), $g$ (hard), $k, q$ (both which have same sound as hard $c$ ).
Some are pronounced at the teeth, called Dental; viz. $t, d$.
Some are pronounced with the lips, called Labial; viz. $p, b, f$.
Of these $c, k, q, t, p$ are called sharp consonants (tenues); $g, d, b$, flat consollants (mediæ).
$l, r, m, n$, are called liquids. Of these $m$ is a labial liquid, $n$ is a dental liquid.
$s$ is a (sharp) sibilant (or hissing letter); $x$ is a combination of ks.
$h$ is a rough breathing or aspirate.
$j$ and $v$ are called semi-vowels.
R. $\mathbf{G}$.
§ 2. K was a letter but little used by the Romans: $Y$ and Z only to write Greek $\Upsilon$ and $Z$.
C was probably always pronounced hard.
Q was always followed by $u$, and $q u$ was pronounced as $k w$ in English.
I and U, before a vowel at the beginning of words, or between two vowels, were pronounced like (English) $y$ and $w$ respectively. V was so pronounced also after $n g, l$, and $r$, unless the $v$ belonged to the termination of inflexion, as colui; sometimes also after $s$, as in suadeo. (In this use they are generally written $J$ and V). See § 7.
$U(V)$ and $H$, when in the composition and inflexion of words they occur between two vowels were often omitted in pronunciation and the syllables coalesced: as amavisse (i.e. amawisse) is contracted into amasse: prcahibeo into probeo. $u$ following $v(u)$, and sometimes $e$ following $v$, was changed into o: as quom for quum, servos for servus, vorto for verto.
$\mathbf{M}$ appears to have had at the end of words a faint pronunciation, on which account it was dropped in verse before a word beginning with a vowel.
R was perhaps originally like English th in those: at least words in the older period written with an $s$ (as arbos) were afterwards written with $r$ (as $a r \cdot b o r$ ), especially between two vowels, as Papirius for Papisius. Compare meridie for media die \&c.
S final was at one time omitted in pronunciation. See § 21 , 75, and App. F.
§ 3. According to the mode of pronunciation the Latin consonants may be arranged as follows :
Non-Continuous,
Sharp, Flat.

(tenues) (medie) | Continuous, |
| :---: |
| (aspirataz) |
| Sharp. Flat. |$\quad$ Liquids. $\quad$ Semi-vowels.

Guttural
(throat letters) $\mathrm{C}(k, q) \quad \mathrm{G}$ (hard) $\mathrm{H} \quad \mathrm{J}$
Dental
(tooth letters) $\mathbf{T} \quad \mathrm{D} \quad \mathbf{R ( ? )} \mathrm{N}$
Labial
$\begin{array}{llllll}(l i p \text { letters }) & \mathbf{P} & \mathbf{B} & \mathbf{F} & \mathbf{M} & \mathbf{V}\end{array}$

## § 4. Changes of Consonants. (Madvig.)

When consonants of a different character are brought together, either by composition or by the addition of a termination of inflexion or derivation, one or other of the consonants is frequently changed so as to facilitate pronunciation: Thus some-times-
(I) A sharp before a liquid is changed into the corresponding flat, as neg-ligens from nec-lego.
(2) A fat before a sharp, or before $s$ is changed into the corresponding sharp (in pronunciation though not always in writing);
as ac-tus from ag-o, scrip-tus, scrip-si, from scrib-o.
(3) By assimilation, a consonant is completely changed into that which succeeds it: thus,
(a) $d, t, b$ into $s$, as ced-si into ces-si, pat-sus into pas-sus, jub-si into jus-si (from cedo, patior, jubeo).
(b) $n, r$ into $l$ : as corolla (coronula) from corona, agellus (agĕrülus) from ayer.

## § 5. Changes of Vowels. (Madvig.)

If the root-vowel be lengthened in inflection,
$\breve{a}$ is generally changed into $e$; as, $\breve{a} g o, ~ e ́ g i . ~$
If the root-vowel be weakened by an addition before the word,
$\breve{a}$ is changed into $\breve{\iota}$ if the syllable be open (i. e. ending in a vowel); as, făcio, perf $\check{\imath}$-cio: into $\breve{e}$ if the syllable be close (i.e. ending in a consonant); as, fucio, perfec-tus.
$\check{e}$ is often changed into $\check{\imath}$ (in an open syllable); as, teneo, contineo; nomuen, nomi-nis; but remains in a close syllable, or before $r$; as, teneo, conten-tus; fero, effero.
Conversely, $\check{\varepsilon}$ is changed into $\check{e}$ in a close syllable; thus the crude form judic- makes nom. judex.
$\check{y}$ in an open sylable often becomes $\breve{u}$ in a close one; as, ad̆̆lesco, adultus; cŏlo, cultus; so the nominative corpŭs, ebŭr, compared with corpל-ris, eb̆-ris.
$u$ often takes the place of these vowels before $l$; as, pello, pepŭli; scalpo, exsculpo ; famı̆lia, famŭlus.
§ 6. Diphthongs are formed by the coalescence of two vowels rapidly pronounced into one vowel sound. In Latin the diphthongs in ordinary use are

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \infty \\
& c \\
& a \\
& a u \quad \text { sounded (in England) like } e e \text { in fe............. } a \text { in hall, }
\end{aligned}
$$

$e u=\bar{u}, e i=\bar{\imath}, u i=\bar{\imath}$ (e. g. huic, cui), are rarely found.
The Greek $a t, o u, \epsilon \iota$ are usually expressed in Latin by $a, a$, and $\bar{i}$.
$x$ is changed into $\bar{\imath}$ if the radical vowel be lengthened by an addition before the word; as, leedo, illīdo.
§7. N.B. In the rapid pronunciation of two vowels, if the first be a vowel sounded farther back in the mouth than the second, a diphthong is produced : if the contrary, the first becomes a semi-vowel. Thus (sounding $a$ as in fäther, o like $a$ in hall, $i$ as in machine and $u$ as in mute) ai (=English $\bar{v})$, au $(=$ English ow ), oi (as in English) are compound vowel sounds; but $i$ or $u$ sounded before $a$ or $e$, give ya, ye, wa, we: hence the consonant sound of $i(j=y$ Engl. $)$ and $u(v=w \cdot$ Engl. $)$ in Latin.

## OF NOUNS.

§ 8. Nouns are inflected, that is, have different terminations, in order to denote differences of number, gender, and case.

Nouns are either Substantive or Adjective. (See the Syntax, § 140.)

1. Substantives have inflexions of case and number, but each is only of one gender. But see $\$ 12$.
2. Adjectives have inflexions of number, gender, and case.
§ 9. There are two Numbers: Singular, used when speaking of one; Plural, used when speaking of more than one.

Three Genders: Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter.
Five Casss, called Nominative, Accusative, Genitive,

Dative, and Ablative. To which a Vocalive is added in the singular of some nouns of the second declension (see § 21 ); and in Greek nouns (see App. A.).
N.B. The accusative, genitive, dative, and ablative are often called Oblique cases.

The genitive case often requires the preposition of to translate it into English; the dative for, sometimes to; the ablative by or with. The siguification and use of these cases will be learnt from the Syntax; the forms will be found in the following examples, and are generally referred to five great types, called Declensions. The following general resemblances may be observed:
§ 10. Singular. The accusative case always ends in $m$ in masc. and fem. nouns, viz. Ist decl. am; 2nd, um; 3 rd , em or im ; 4th, um; 5th, em. In neuter nouns it is always like the nominative both in singular and plural.

Plưral. Nom. and acc. of neuter nouns always end in $a$.

Gen. always ends in um, viz. in lst decl. ärum; 2nd $\overline{\sigma r u m} ; 3 \mathrm{rd}, \mathrm{um}$ or ium ; 4th, uum; 5th, ērum.

Acc. of masc. and fem. nouns always ends in $s$, viz. in 1st decl. $\bar{a} s ; 2 \mathrm{nd}, \bar{o} s ; 3 \mathrm{rd}, \bar{e} s$ or $\bar{\imath} s$; 4th, $\bar{u} s ; 5 \mathrm{th}, \bar{e} s$.

Dat. and Abl. are always alike; and in 1st and 2nd decl. end in $\bar{\imath} s$; in 3 rd , 4th, 5 th, in $b \breve{u} s$; viz. 3rd, in $\check{\imath} b u \bar{s}$; 4th

$\S 10 \alpha$. The declensions of nouns substantive are (in dictionaries) distinguished by the endings of the genitive case singular; which
in the 1st declension ends in $a e$,
... 2nd ................... $i$,
... 3rd .................... йs,
... 4th .................... üs,
... 5th ..................... ei.

## Declension 1 .

Nom. ending in a (Fem.)
e. g. mensa, a table.

## § 11.

| Declension 1. | Declension 11. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. ending in a (Fem.) e. g. mensa, a table. | in us and er ( e. g. dominus, a lords | er, a boy. | unn (Neut.) <br> e. g. regnum, a kingdom. |
| Singular. |  |  |  |
| Nom. mensă | Nom. dŏmı̆นŭs | puěr | Nom. $\}$ |
| Acc. mensam | Ace. dŏmınum | puĕrum | Acc. $\}$ regnum |
| Gen. mensce | Gen. dŏnnŭıй | puĕri | Gen. regnで |
| Dat. mensce | Dat. \} dømınō | 1uĕrō | mat. $\}$ reguō |
| Abl. mensa ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Abl. } \text { domino }_{\text {doc. }}^{\text {doninĕ }} \end{aligned}$ | риӗо | Abl. Y regno |
| Plural. |  |  |  |
| Nom. mens $\mathscr{C}$ | Nom. dŭmun | puĕrì | Nom. ${ }^{\text {l }}$ |
| Acc. mensas | Ace dơnıoss | 100\% | Acc. $\}$ regnă |
| Gen. mensārum |  | puèrörum | Gen. regnōrum |
| 1at. Abl. $\}$ mens $\bar{s}$ | Dat. All. $\}$ dŏmŭū̄s | 1 )uĕrı̄s | Dat. Abl. $\}$ regnīs |

N.B. Most nouns in er omit $e$ in the oblique cases: as ager, agrum, agri, \&c. Nouns in ius have their vocative case ending in $i$, as filius, Voc, fili.

## Declenston III.

(On the terminations of the nominative see § 25 : on the gender, § 41-46.)


## 8

Declension of Nouns Substantive.
(c) Masc. Fem.
e. g. judex (mase. and fem.), a judge.
Singular.
Nom. jūder serpens
Acc. jūdйcem
Gen. jūdīč̌s
Dat. jūdĭci
Abl. jūdĭcě
Plural.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Nom. } \\ \text { Acc. }\end{array}\right\}$ jūdǔcēs
Gen. jūď̌cum

(d) Masc. Fem.
e. g. serpens (fem. usually), a serpent.
serpentem
serpentŭs
serpentī
serpentĕ
serpentēs
serpentium
serpentübŭs

Declension IV. Declension V.
Nom. in us (Masc. or Fem.) $u$ (Neut.) in es (Fem. except dies, § 48.)
e. g. fructus, fruit;
e. g. cornu, a horn ;
e.g. dies, a day.

Singular.

| Nom. | fructurs fructum | Nom. ${ }^{\text {Acc. }}$ \}cornū | Nom. diēs |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. | fructūs | Gen. cornūs | Gen. diè $\bar{\imath}$ |
| Dat. | fructŭ $i$ | Dat. ) | Dat. diē̄ |
| Abl. | fructū | Abl. ${ }^{\text {cor }}$ | Abl. diē |

Plural.

| Nom. Acc. | fructūs | cornu $\breve{a}$ | diēs |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. | fructuam | cornuum | diērum |
| Dat. | fructūbŭs | corň̌ ${ }^{\text {cüs }}$ | diēbŭs |

§ 12. Some substantives have a different form for the masculine and feminine, and therefore are almost the same as adjectives, and are frequently (esp. class 3) used as such.

Ex. 1. équus, horse; ĕqua, mare: so tībīcĕn (for tībīcẹ̆nus), flute-player; tībicinna, female fluteplayer.
2. măgister, master; măgistra, mistress.
3. victor, conqueror; victrix, conqueress.

The forms victricia, conquering, ultricia, avenging, are used as neut. pl. adjectives.
4. Persă, Persian man; Persĭs, Persian woman.
5. Phœnix, Phœnician man; Phœnissă, Phœnician woman.
6. Tyndărides, son of Tyndŭr $u s$; Tyndărǐs, daughter of Tynctartes.
7. Thestĭădes, son of Thestius; Thesť̌ăs, daughter of Thestius.
N. B. The last two and similar forms are named patronymics. The last four are Greek forms.

## DECLENSION OF NOUNS ADJECTIVE.

§ 13. Adjectives (in the positive degree) differ from substantives only in having inflexions to denote differences of gender. They may be divided into two classes.

1. Those which have a different form for all three genders.
2. Those which have one form for masculine and feminine, and either another form for the neuter or the same form.

The ist class has a feninine termination (nom.in a) like the first declension; and masculine (nom. in uts or er), neuter (nom. in um) like the second declension.

Thus Nom. bonus, bona, bonum; just like dominus, mens $a$, regnum.

The 2nd class have terminations similar to the third declension.
(a) Those ending in $i s$, neuter $e$, as tristis, triste, like III. (a) navis, mare.
N.B. The ablative singular is always in $i$.
(b) Those ending in or, neuter $u s$, as melior, melius, like ILI. (b), labor, corpus.

The penult however of adjectives of the comparative degree is always long; that of substantives like corpus always short.
(c) Those ending in $x, a s$, es, and ans or ens, (and some others), as felix, nostra $\bar{s}$, amans, \&c. like III. (c) and (d); excepting that the neuter acc. sing. is the same as the nominative, and the neuter nom. and acc. plural end in $i a$, as felicia, amantia.

The formation of the cases from the genit. sing. is similar to that of substantives of the III. decl. (See §25.)
N.B. In (b) and (c) the ablative singular ends either in $e$ or $i$, but in (b) $e$ is more usual, and in (c) $i$ is more usual: (but in ablatives absolute, $\S 184$, always $e$ ).
§ 14. 1. Ex. bŏnus, good.

N.B. The Voc. Sing. Masc. is bŏnĕ.

So also těner (for tĕnĕrus), teněra, tenĕrum, and other adjectives in er, the masculine being declined like puer.

> 2. (a) Ex. tristis, sad.

Singular.
Masc. and Fem. Neut.
Nom. tristěs tristĕ Acc. tristem tristĕ $\begin{array}{ll}\text { Gen. } & \text { trist } \check{\imath} s \\ \text { Dat. } & \text { tristī } \\ \text { Abl. }\} & \end{array}$

Plural. Masc. and Fem. Neut. Nom. $\}$ tristēs tristiă Gen. tristium Dat. \} tristžbŭs
2. (b) Ex. mĕlior, better.

Singular.
Masc. and Fem. Neut. Nom. měliơr měliŭs $\begin{array}{lll}\text { Acc. měiiōrem měliŭus } & \text { Nom.). mèliōrēs měliōrắ } \\ \text { Acc. }\end{array}$ Gen. měliōř̆s Gen. měliōrum $\left.\begin{array}{lll}\text { Dat. } & \text { měliōr } \bar{\imath} & \text { Dat. } \\ \text { Abl. } & \text { měliōrĕ } & \text { Abl. }\end{array}\right\} \quad$ měliōrı̆bǔs
(or měliōr $\bar{\imath}$ )
2. (c) Ex. ămans, loving.

Singular. Masc. Fem. Neut.
Nom. ănans
Nom. \} amantēs amantiă
Acc. amantem(neut.)amans Acc.
Gen. amant $\grave{\text { G }}$ Gen. amantium
$\left.\begin{array}{ll}\text { Dat. amant } \\ \text { Abl. amantĕ (or amant } \bar{z}) & \text { Dat. } \\ \text { Abl. }\end{array}\right\} \quad$ amant $\check{z} b u \check{c} s$
§15. The following adjectives are declined like tris$t$ is, excepting that in the nom. sing. the masculine ends in err, and only the feminine in ris, the neuter in re, as acer, acris, acre.

| ăcer, leen. | pĕdester, of the infantry. |
| :--- | :--- |
| ălăcer, alert. | pŭter, putrid. |
| canpester, of the field. | sălūber, healthy. |
| cĕleber, frequented. | silvester, of the wood. |
| cĕler (gen. celelris), swift. | terrester, of the earth. |
| équester, of the cavalry. | vŏlucer, winged. |
| păluster, of the marsh. |  |
| September, and other names of months. |  |
| The nom. masc. of these adjectives rarely ends in is. |  |

§ 16. Some adjectives of the first class have the genidive and dative singular (ending in $\bar{\imath} u s$ and $i$ respectively) the same for all genders, as totus, whole.

Singular.
Masc. Fem. Neut. Masc. Fem. Neut.
Acc. tōtum tōtam tōtum Acc. tōtos tōtas tōtă Gen. tōtīus Gen. tōtōrum tōtārum tōtōrum Dat. tōt̄̄ Dat. Abl. tōto tōt $\bar{a}$ tōto Abl. $\}$ tōt $\bar{s}$

Similarly are declined Sōlus, alone, ūnus, one, ullus (for ūnŭlus), any, nullus, none, alter (gen. alterŭus), the other (of two), ŭter (gen. ŭtrīus), which of two (generally interrogative), and its compounds, neuter, neither, ŭterque, each (of two), \&c.
§ 17. In the plural unus is only used with substantives whose plural denotes a singular; as, unæ litteræ, one epistle, uni Suevi, the (nation of the) Suevi alone. So utrique means each set of persons; neutri, neither set, \&cc.
§ 18. Ullus and mullus are the adjectives corresponding respectively to the substantives quisquam ( $\$ 57$ ) and nemo (of which neminis and nemine are not used in good authors). The gen. ullius, rullius and abl. ullo, nullo are also used of persons as substantives: so also (rarely) in the dat. ulli, nulli.

## Peculiar forms of Cases in the several Declensions of Nouns.

§ 19. First Dellension.
Genitive Singular.
(a) Fămylia, a household, in old expressions has the genitive in $\bar{a} s$; as păter familiās, the liead of the household. In plural we find both patres familias and patres familiarum for heads of households.
(b) In the older poets sometimes in $\bar{\alpha} \bar{a}$ as aulā̄, of the hall.

Geritive Plural. arum is sometimes contracted into um; as cæIYcollum from cæIYcơla, a dweller in heaven. So drachmum, anphorum.
Dative and ablative Plural. In äbus in some words; as deäbus, filiaiaus (old form retained to distinguish them from the dative and ablative of deus and filius).
\$20. Second Declenston. To this declension belongs vyr, viri, a man. The nouns in er which retain $e$ in the oblique cases are sŏcer, father-in-law, gĕner, son-in-law, Līber, Bacchus, vesper, evening, and the adjectives asper, līber, lăcer, myser, tĕuer, prosper, and those (of more than two syllables) ending in fer and ger.
(Probably all these words originally ended in us: e.g. virus, puerus.)
s 21. Nominative. When a person is spoken to, the $u$ is shortened into e, thus domlne audi, hear, sir (cf. ipse for ipsus, ille for illus or ollus. Compare Willy for William). In words ending in ius the $e$ is absorbed by the $i$; thus fini (for filie), audi, hear, my son. This form is called the vocative case. Most Common nouns in ius have no vocative; but meus, mine, makes mi, as mi fili, my son.
§22. Genitive Singular. Nouns (substantive, not adjective) whose nom, ends in ius or ium (except trisyllables with the first syllable short) in the best writers contract $i i$ (of the genitive) into $i$. Thus ingĕnium, Gen. ingĕni.
§23. Genitive Plural. orum is sometimes contracted into um; as, fabrum for fabrōrum. So especially names of weights, measures, \&c.; as, nummum, sestertium, ducentum, "\&c.
§24. Deus is thus declined:

| Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- |
| Nom. Deus | Nom. Di (sometimes Dĕi or Dii) |
| Acc. Deum | Acc. Deos |
| Gen. Dei | Gen. Deorum (or Deum) |
| Dat. | Deo |
| Abl. $\}$ | Dat. |

The vocative does not differ from the nominative.
§ 25. Third Declension. In this declension the terminations of the nominative are very various.

If, however, the genitive be known, the other cases may be easily formed. Nouns of this declension are divided into two classes, according as the genitive singular has the same number of syllables as the nominative (Parisyllabic nouns), or an increased number (Imparisyllabic nouns).
I. Parisyllabic nouns form their genitive by changing

1. es, is, $e$ into is; as, nübes, nūbis, a clouch.
2. ter into tris; as, pătĕr, patris, a father (except lătĕr, lătěris, a brick); so also imber, imbris, a shower.
căro, flesh, makes carnis ; sĕnex, old man, sĕnis ; vis, force, has no gen. or dat. sing., but ace. vim; plur. nom. vires.
II. Imparisyllabic nouns form their genitive by
3. adding is to $l, r, t, n$ (ĕn is changed into $\begin{gathered}\text { ñis. cf. } \S 5 \text { ). }\end{gathered}$

Except
fel, fellis, gall. ěbŭr, ěbłris, ivory. měl, mellis, honey. črr, cordis, a heart. făr, farris, corn. jĕcưr, jěcðoris (also jǒç̛nơris), $a$ liver.
crput, coptis, a head rōbŭr, röbŏris, strength. Jūppłter (=Jov-păter), gen.Jŏrls.
2. adding nis to 0 ; as, sermō, sermönis, discourse.

Except
words ending in do or go, which change o into inis ; as, virgo, virgłnis, a virgin (but prædo, prædōnis, a robber; lygo, ligōnis, a hoe);
also hømo, hðmYnis, a man. turbo, turbłnis, a whivluind.
3. changing $x$ into cis (ex into ŭcis. cf. § 5).

Except
nex, nĕcis, death. lex, lëgis, a law or statute.
fæx, fæcis, dregs. rex, rēgis, a king.
vervex, vervecis, a wether. grex, gregis, a fock.
shupellex, sŭpellectrlis, fur- rēmex, rēmıgis, a rower. niture. strix, strigis, a screech-owl. nox, noctis, night. conjux, conjügis, a mate (i.e. nix, nY̌is, snow. husband or wife).
4. changing $s$ into tis (ěs generally into utis: sometimes into étis: but quiēs, quiētis; also lðcŭplēs, lðcŭplētis (adj.), wealthy).
Except
(a) dissyllabic neuters in $u s$, which make
ěris; as, pondŭs, pondĕris, weight; so also vetus, větĕris (adj.), old, and others;
or ðris; as, pěcus, pěcơris, cattle, and others;
also lěpus, léporis, a hare (masc.).
(b) the following, which change $s$ into ris:
mōs, mōris, custon, whim. tellūs, tellūris, the earth.
floss, flöris, a flower.
ōs, öris, mouth, face. rūs, rüris, the country. tūs, tūris, incense. jūs, jüris, lew; also a sauce. crūs, crūris, a leg. mūs, mūris, a mouse.
æs, æris, bronze. glis, gliris, a dormouse. mās, măris, a male. pulvys, pulvěris, dust. čnYs, cłnĕris, ashes. sanguys, sanguynis, blood. pübĕs, pūbĕris (adj.), grown up.
(c) the following, which change $s$ into dis:
vās, vădis, a bail (i.e. chlămy̆s, chlămy̆dis, a cloak.
surety).
pēs, pědis, a foot, and its compounds.
obsěs, obsidis, a hostage.
præsěs, præsídis, a protector.
dēsešs, dēsidis (adj.), inactive.
rěsěs, rěsidis ( $\mathrm{adj}_{\mathrm{j}}$ ), sluggish.
tyrannls, tyramǐdis, tyranny.
lăpłs, lăprdis, a pebble. cass's, cassidis, a helmet.
trypūs, trypơdis, a tripod. custōs, custōdis, a keeper. laus, laudis, praise. fraus, fraudis, fraud. incūs, incūdis, an anvil. pălūs, pălūdis, a marsh. pěcŭs, pĕcŭdis, a beast (i.e. cow, sheep, \&c.) glans, glandis, an acorn. frons, frondis, a leaf. urbs, urbis, a city. pres, prædis, a surety. hērēs, hērēdis, an heir. mercēs, mercēdis, hire.
also excors, excordis, senseless, and other compounds of cor.
(d) and the following, which change $s$ into $v i s$ or $i s$ or sis:
bōs, bơvis, an ox. grūs, grŭys, a crane. sūs, sừs, a sow. hërōs, herōis, a hero. os, ossis, a bone. $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ s, assis, a pound. vās, vāsis, a vessel (in plur. of the 2 d declen.)
hiems, hiëmis, winter. trabs, trăbis, a beam.
cælebs, cællbis (adj.), unmar. ried (of males only).
stirps, stirpis, a root.
ădeps, ădlpis, fat.
forceps, forcipis, pincers. mūņceps, müņ̌çpis, a freeman of a town, from capio; but the compounds of caupuxt change $s$ into tt ts; as, preceps, prečYYtis (adj.), headlong.
5. Nouns ending in $a$ add tis; as, pơēma, poēmătis, $a$ poem. So lăc, lactis, milk.
§26. Acc. Sing. (a) The following make $i n$ in the accusative:

| vis, force. | sltis, thirst. |
| :--- | :--- |
| tussis, $a$ cough. | amussis, $a$ (carpenter's) rule. |

So also names of rivers, towns, \&c. ending in $i s$, as Tiběris, Hispălis.
(b) The following make both $i m$ and $e m$ :
turris, a tower. puppis, the stern of a ship. nāvis, a ship. clāvis, a key. restis, a rope. febris, a fever. pelvis, a basin. sĕcūris, an axe. messis, harvest.
§ 27. Abl. Sing. Those nouns make the ablative in $i$ which make the accusative in im. Also ignis, and a few others.

Also neuters, which have nominative in $e$, al, ar (except jŭbar, far, nectar). In the poets we have also abl. rete, mare.

Those nouns make the ablative in $i$ or $e$ which make the aecusative in im or em; but reste, sěcuri always. (For adjectives, see § 13.)
§ 28. Nom. Plur. Neuter nouns make nom. in ia, which make ablative sing. in $i$. Also the neuters of all adjectives of the 2nd class, except the comparative degree, and vétus.

But of adjectives of one termination ( $\$ 13, c$ ) only those which end in ans or ens, in as (rarely), $r s, a x, i x$ and $o x$, and numeral adjectives in plex, have any neuter plural. Also in later writers hebes, teres, quadrupes, versicolor. Add also some occasional datives and ablatives, e.g. supplicibus verbis, discoloribus signis.
§29. Gen. Plur. The following make their genitive in ium:
a. Neuter nouns ending in $e, a l$, ar (gen. $\bar{a} r i s)$ ).
b. Parisyllabic nouns (including adjectives of the 2nd class),
except păter, māter, frāter, sénex, jŭuĕnis, vātes, cănis.
c. Nouns (including adjectives and participles) ending in $x$ or $s$ preceded by a consonant (except $p s$, also cælebs). These sometimes have the genitive in $u m$ also: but this chiefly in the poets. It is very rare in parisyllabic adjectives.
d. Also the monosyllables: mās, a male; mūs, a mouse; nix, snow; nox, night; ŏs, a bone; pax, peace; līs, luwsuit; dōs, a dowry; glis, a dormouse; vìs (gen. viriuu), force.
N.B. The genitives plural of cor, heart; cos, whetstone; rus, country; sal, salt; sol, sun; vas, gen. vădis, surety, do not occur. Madvig.
§ 30. Acc. Plur. This is in many editions written $\bar{\varepsilon}$, not es; as, cædes, slaughter; acc. plur. ceedis. Both forms are contractions of eis. And the same form sometimes occurs in the nom. plural also.

## Fodrth Declension.

§ 31. Dat. Sing. $U$ is is often contracted into $u$, as ĕquĭtätus for equitatui; and this appears to be universal in neuter nouus.
§ 32. Dat. ) Plur. The following nouns have ubus instead Abl. $\}$ of ibus: ăcus, a needle. artus, a limb. arcus, $a$ bow. portus, a port. lăcus, a lake. quercus, an oak. tribus, a tribe. spĕcus, a.cave.
vĕru, a spit.
§33. Dðmus, a house, is thus declined:

Singular.
Nom. domŭs
Acc. domum
Gen. domūs
Dat. domui
Abl. domo

Plural.
Nom. domūs.
Acc. domos (rarely domūs).
Gen. domuum; or domörum.
Dat. $\}$ domibus.
Abl. $\}$ domibus.

Domi, at home, is the locative case. See $\S 201$.

## § 34. Fifth Drclension.

Gen. Sing. Sometimes ei is contracted into $\bar{e}$; as, die, acie, Dat. $\}$ fide.
Plural. The genitive, dative, and ablative are not found in goud authors, except in the words, res, dies, and spěcies.
R. G.

## GENDER OF NOUNS SUBSTANTIVE.

§ 35. Masculine. All names of males, peoples, winds, months, mountains, and rivers.

The rivers Styx and Lethe are feminine.
The names of months are really adjectives, agreeing with mensis.
§ 36. Feminine. All names of females, countries, cities, islands, plants.

Except rŭbus, bramble; dūmus, thornbush; călămus, reed; carduus, thistle, \&c. which are masculine.
§ 37. Neuter. All indeclinable nouns.
§38. Common to masculine and feminine. Names derived from offices, employments, \&c. held by either men or women; as, judex, a judge; hostis, an enemy; dus, a leader.

The above general rules must be borne in mind throughout.

## § 39. First Declension.

Femining. All excepting a few names of men; as, nauta, a sailor: agricolla, a tiller of the ground; advĕna, a new comer.
§ 40. Second Declension.
Masculine. Words ending in $u s$ and er, except feminine, alvus, stomach; hŭmus, ground; cǒlus, distadf; and a few others.

Neuter. Words ending in um; also virus, poison; vulgus, common people; pělăgus, the high sea; plur. pělăgē or pellăgă.

Third Declension.*
§41. A. Parisyllabic nouns

## 1. Mascoline. Nouns ending in er.

Except linter, a boat, which is feminine.
§ 42. 2. Feminine. All words ending in is and es.

## Except masculine:

amnis, a river.
anguis, a snake (also fem.).
axis, an axle.
callis, a path.
cănālis, a canal.
cănis, $\operatorname{dog}$ (also fem.).
cassis, a henter's net.
caulis, a stalk.
collis, a hill.
crīnis, hair.
ensis, a sword.
fascis, a bundle.
finis, an end (rarely fem.
and only in sing.).
follis, a leather bag.
fūnis, a rope.
ignis, fire.
mānes (plur.) ghosts.
mensis, a month.
orbis, a circle.
fustis, a cudgel.
pānis, a loaf of bread.
piscis, a fish.
postis, a door-post.
sentis, a bramble.
torquis, a collar (rarely fem.).
sơdālis, a companion.
torris, a firebrand.
unguis, a finger-nail.
vectis, a bar.
vermis, a zoorm.
annālis (sc. l̄ber), year-book.
nātālis (sc. dies), birth-day.
mơläris (sc. lapis or dens), grindstone, or grinder-tooth.
pŭgillāres (sc. libri), writing-tablets.
Comyon to masc. and fem.
corbis, a basket, and clünis, haunch.
§ 43. 3. Necter. Nouns ending in ě.

* Nouns neuter all end in $a, e$,
ar, ur, üs, $l, c, n$, and $t$ :
Nouns masculine will all prefer
or, os, o (ōnis), es, ex, er:
The rest and $i o$ feminine; to these
Add parisyllables in is and es.


## § 44. B. Nouns Imparisyllabic.

1. Masculine. Nouns ending in o (not io), gen. $\bar{o} n i s$, er, or, es, os, and ex.

Except in er, Nedt. ăcer, a maple.
cădāver, a corpse.
Yter, a journey.

plper, pepper.
tūber, a hump or swelling (also a truffe).
uber, an udder.
vēr, spring.
verber (only used in plur.), a blow.
in or, Fem. arbor (also arbōs), a tree.
Neut. ador, wheat. corr, the heart. equor, a surface. marmor, marble.
in es, Fem. ăbiēs (gen. abjêtis), fir-tree.
mergès, a sheaf.
mercès, hire.
quiès, rest.
sěgĕs, standing corn.
tĕgěs, a mat.
in os, Fem. cös, a whetstone. dös, a dowry.
Nevt. ōs, öris, the face. ठ ठs, ossis, a bone.
in $\epsilon x$, Fem. fæx, lets (of wine, \&c.).
forfex, scissors.
forpex, curling-tongs.
lex, a law or statute.
nex, death.
pellex, a concubine.
sŭpellex, hotısehold furniture.
§45. 2. Fempine. Nouns ending in o (gen. $\begin{aligned} & \text { mis }\end{aligned}$, $i o$, aus, as, is, $\bar{u} s$ (gen. $\bar{u} t i s)$, or $s$ (preceded by a consonant), $a_{x} x, i_{x}, \omega_{x}, u x$, or $x$ (preceded by a cousomant).

Gender of Nouns Substantive.
Except Masc. in o, gen. innis, cardo, a hinge.
homo, a man.
margo, a border, brink. ordo, order. turbo, a whirlaind.

Except Masc. in io, pŭgio, a dagyer.
scipio, a staff.
sēnio, the number six.
septentrio, the Great Bear or north.
unio, a pearl.
vespertīlio, a bat.
in $a s, \bar{a} s($ a bronze coin).
mās (gen. măris), a male.
vās (gen. vădis), a bail.
in is, č̌nis, ashes.
glis, dormouse.
lăpis, a pebble.
pulvis. dust.
sanguis, blood.
sêmis, half an as.
in $s$, preceded by a consonant,
dens, a toolh.
fons, a fountain.
mons, a mountain.
pons, a bridge.
rüdens, a cable.
scrobs, a ditch (sometimes feminine).
ădeps, fat, forceps, pincers, are both masc. and fem.
in $a x$, thōrax, a breastplate.
in $i x$, călix, a cup.
fornix, a vault or arch.
in $x$, preceded by a consonant, deunx, eleven-twelfths (of an $\alpha s$ ). quincunx, five-twelfths, \&c.
Neut. vās (gen. vāsis), a vessel.
§46. 3. Neuter. Nouns ending in $a, a r, u r, u s$ (except $\bar{u} s$, gen. $\bar{u} t i s), c, l, n$, and $t$.

Also æs, bronze.
Except in ar, Masc. lār (gen. lăris), a household god.
pār, a comrade (from pār, adj.), but pār, a pair, is neuter.
in $u r$, Masc. augur, a soothsayer.
fūr, a thief.
furfur, bran.
turtur, a turtle-dove. vultur, a vulture.
in $u s$, Masc. lĕpŭs, a hare. mūs, a mouse.
FEM. incūs, an anvil.
pălūs, a marsh.
pěcŭs, pěctudis, a beast (i.e. cow, sheep, \&c.).
tellūs, the earth.
sūs, a swine, grūs, a crane. (These two are rarely masculine.)
in l, Masc. sāl, salt (gen. sălis). sōl, the sun.
And some names of persons, as Consul, \&c.
in $n, M_{A s o}$. pectěn, a comb. rēn, the kidney. splèn, the spleen.
And some names of persons; as, tīīcěn, a flute-player.
§47. Fourth Declension.
Masculine. Nouns ending in $u s$.

| Except feminine, | ăcus, a needle. colus, a distaff. dø̌mus, a house. idūs (plur.), the ides. mănus, a hand. pĕnus, a store of provisions. | portycus, a portico. quercus, an oak; and other trees. <br> trybus, a tribe. <br> spécus, a cave. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |

Neuter. Nouns ending in $u$.

# §48. Fifth Declension. 

Feminine. All
Except dies, which is feminine sometimes, but in the singular only, and then generally denotes a period of time: otherwise it is masculine.

## DEGREES OF NOUNS ADJECTIVE.

§ 49. Adjectives are also inflected in order to denote the degree of the quality exprest by them. The simple form is called the positive. The comparative expresses a higher degree of the quality in a comparison of two things or persons. The superlative expresses a higher degree in a comparison of more than two things or persons; as, dūrus, hard, dūrior, harder, dūrissimus, hardest.
§ 50. The comparative expresses also that the quality is possessed in too high a degree.

The superlative expresses also that the quality is possessed in a very high degree.

Many (especially derivative) adjectives have no comparative or superlative, their meaning not admitting of them.

## Formation of Comparative and Superlative.

## § 51. From the positive are formed

(1) The comparative, by changing $i$ or $i s$ of the genitive into $\breve{\circ} \mathrm{or}$;
(2) The superlative, by changing $i$ or $i s$ of the genitive into isš̌mus. Thus,
dūrus, gen. dur̄̄, comp. durĭor, superl. durissimus. tristis, gen. tristis, comp. tristăor, superl. tristi simus. felix, gen. felicis, comp. felicior, superl. felicissimus.
§ 52. Adjectives ending in er form their superlative by adding rimus to the nominative case : pulcher, gen. pulchrī, comp. pulchrı̆or, superl. pulcherrïmus.

The following form the superlative by changing $s$ into йmus and doubling the $l$; făcilis, easy; šmilis, like; diffĭč̌lis, difficult; dissǐmilis, walike; grăcullis, thin, slender; hŭmĭlis, low; as, facilis, făcillìmus.
§53. If a vowel comes before $u s$ in the nominative case the comparative and superlative are not formed by a change of the word, but by prefixing măgis, more, for the comparative, and maxime, most, for the superlative; as, arduus, steep, măgis arduus, more steep, maxime arduus, most steep; except words ending in quus, as, antīquus, antīquior, antīquissimus.
§ 54. The following are irregular:

| Positive. | Comp. | Superl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| brnus, good | mělior | optimus |
| mălus, bad | pejor | pessYmus |
| magnus, great. | major | maxymus |
| parvus, small | minor | minYmus |
| multus, much | plūs* (neut.) | plūrı̌mus |
| $\underset{\text { wicked }}{\text { néquan (indecl.), }}$ | nēquior | nęquisšımus |
| dives, rich | dīv̌ltior | dīvYtissYmus |
| sěnex, old |  | , |
| jưvěnis, young | jūňor (for jŭvĕnior) | (nātu miņmus) |
| extĕrus, outside (in plur only) | extěrior | )estrēmus |
|  | infěrior | $\begin{aligned} & \text { (infímus } \\ & \text { imus } \end{aligned}$ |
| $\left.\begin{array}{r} \text { superrus, high } \\ \text { (chiefly used in } \\ \text { plural, the beings, } \\ \text { places, \&c. above) } \end{array}\right\}$ | superrior | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { sǔprēmus } \\ \text { summus } \end{array}\right.$ |


|  | Of Pronouns. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Positive. postěrus, next (in time) | Comp. postĕrior, later, hinder | Supert. postrēmus, last |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { cytra (adv.), on this } \\ \text { side } \end{array}\right\}$ | crtuerior | cìtimus |
| intra (adv.), within | interior | intiomus |
| ultra (adv.), beyond | ultěrior | ultrmus |
| præ (prep.), before | prior | primus |
| prope (adv.), near | prơpror | proxĭmus |
| $\left.\begin{array}{l} \text { portis, potte (only } \\ \text { in, these forms), } \\ \text { able, possible } \end{array}\right\}$ | pøtYor, better | potisslmus, lest |
|  | dētĕrior, worse | dēterrimus |
|  | oclor, suifter | ōcisslmus |

§ 55. Pronouns are
(A) Substantive.

1. Personal.

First Person.

Singular.
Nom. ĕgo, I
Acc. mē
Dat. mŭhī
Abl. mē

Plural.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Nom. } \\ \text { Acc. }\end{array}\right\}$ nōs, ace
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Dat. } \\ \text { Abl. }\end{array}\right\}$ nōbis

Second Person.
Singular. Plural.
Nom. tū, thou
Acc. tē
Nom. $\}$ vos, $y e$
Acc.
Dat. tĭbĭ
Abl. tē
2. Reflexive Pronoun, referring to subject of sentence.

Singular and Plural.
Acc. sē (or sēsē), himself, herself, themselves
Dat. sǐbī
Abl. sē (or sēsē)
§56. The genitives of ego and $t u$ were $m i s$ and $t i s$, but these became obsolete after Plautus' time, and in place of the genitive of these pronouns and of se, the adjectives meus (voc. masc. mi), mine; noster, ours; tuus, thine; vester, yours; suus, his, her, or their are used*

For the (a) possessive genitive, they are used as adjectives; as, mea manus, my hand.
(b) partitive genitive, (and possessive genitive when omnium precedes) the gen. plur. nostrûm, vestrûm (for noströrum, vestrōrum) and suorum or ex se are used; as, omnium nostrum dignissimus, worthiest of us all.
(c) objective genitive, the gen. sing. neut. mei, nostri, tui, vestri, sui; as, misĕrēre mei, have pity on me.
3. For interrogatives (quis, ecquis, \&c.) see below, § 59 ; and for quisquam see § 57 .
§ 57. (B) AdJective.

1. Possessive pronouns: meus, tuus, \&c. as above, § 56. From these are formed nostrās, vestrās (gen. ātis), of our, your, country.
2. Demonstrative:

First person; hic, this near me.
Second person ; iste, that near you.
Third person ; ille (for ollus), the man, \&ic. at a distance from either of us.
To these add 'is,' that, he, and its compounds, Idem, the same;
ipse (for ipsus), he himself.

* It is due to this that we have constructions such as, Ut mea defunctæ molliter ossa cubent (Ovid), That my bones when I have done with life may softly lie (mea being equivalent to mei). Vestra consilia accusantur, qui mihi summum honorem imposuistis, It is your plans that are really subject to the charge, for you have put me in the highest office (where vestra is equivalent to the genitive of vos).

Hence moreover the adjective is sometimes used for the objective genitive; as, ob simultatem suam, from hatred to him.
3. Relative: qui, who or which; quisquis, quicunque, whoever, or whichever.

Of quisquis only quisquis, quidquid or quicquid (subst.), quoquo, and gen. cuicuimodi are usual: and but few other forms are found at all.
4. Interrogative: quĭs or qui*? quisnam or quinam? who? or which? ecquĭs or ecqui? anyone?
5. Indefinite:
quys, any one (after relative and interrogative particles; si, \&c.). Its compound quispiam has the same meaning.
quisquam, any one at all (in negative, interrogative, or conditional sentences, where all are excluded).
Always used as a substantive; unless it be considered an adjective when used with names of persons, as quisquam scriptor, quisquam Gallus, \&c.
(Quisquam is not used in the feminine or plural.)
quīvis \} any one you please; where all are inquilibeĕt $\}$ cluded.
alı̆quĭs, some one.
quĩdam, a certain person (known but not named).
quisque, each one, in distributive meaning.
§ 58. The adjective pronouns are thus declined:
Singular.
Plural.


* The interrogative pronoun is merely the relative pronoun in a particular use, as (Tell me the man) who did it. The relative again is originally a demonstrative, as is clearly seen in (especially the Homeric and Platonic usage of) the Greek ös, and is implied in the identity of the indefinite quis, quidam, \&c., with qui, quis? Compare Shakespeare (Cor.v.5): Him I accuse, The city gates by this has entered, i. e. Quem accuso, urbem ingressus est.

Singular.
M. F. N.
N. ille illă illud
A. illum illam illud
G. illı̄us
D.

Ab, illo ill $\bar{a}$ illo

In the same way as ille are declined iste, ista, istud; alus, alia, aliud (Gen. alius for aliius, Dat. alli), another; also ipse, ipsa, ipsum, only with $m$ (not $d$ ) in the neuter sing. See also \& 16.

Istic (i.e. iste ce) and illic (i.e. ille ce) are declined like hic in the nom. acc. and abl. sing. The neut. nom. and acc. is often istuc. The other cases of iste and ille rarely have ce appeoded.

Singular.

Plural.
m. F. N.
§ 59. The relative is also used as an interrogative, both substantively and adjectively. When used adjectively it preserves the same forms; as, qui homo, what man? when used substantively it has nom. sing. quis, quæ, quid.

And this distinction of quid for substantive, guod for adjective holds through the compounds; as, quiddam, a certain thing; quoddam os, a certain bone; alĭquid, romething; alǐquod os, some bone.
§ 60. Alĭquis, and quis (indef.) make aliquă, qǔ in fem. sing. nom.

The compounds of quis and qui are declined like them; as, quivis, quævis, quidvis or quodvis, gen. cujusvis, \&c.

The neut. sing. nom. and acc. of quisquam is quicquid.


## OF ADVERBS.

§62. Adverbs are indeclinable words, mostly oblique cases of nouns and pronouns.
I. Adverbs derived from nouns adjective (were probably originally oblique cases, and) end

1. In $\bar{o}$, as certō, certainly; cit万, quickly: or (more
frequently) in $e^{*}$, as certē, certainly; digne, worthily; from adjectives and participles in us, $a$, um.
2. In ter, as fēlicicter, happily; grăvĭtĕr, heavily; amanter, lovingly; from other adjectives and participles.
3. In im, chiefly from participles;
as, sensim, by degrees (lit. in perceived parts).
tribūtim, tribe by tribe (lit. in distributed parts).
partim, by parts, partly. turmătim, troop-wise, in troops. privātim, as a private person.
4. In $\check{\text { utus, }}$, as cælĭtus, from heaven, chiefly from subst.

Sometimes the neuter of the adjective is used adverbially (cf. § 175); as, multum anxius, very anxious; fäcilĕ primus, easily first; and the neuter of the comparative adjective always forms the comparative of the adverb; as, dignius, more worthily; plus, more; minus, less. The superlative is formed in $\bar{e}$; as, dignissimē, most worthily.
§ 63. II. A. The following are the chief pronominal adverbs of manner, cause, \&c.:

Demonstr.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { sīc, } \\ \text { Ytă, }\end{array}\right\}$ so, thus.
ăliōquī, in other respects, besides.
tālytěr (rare), in such a way.
tam, so, so very.
ē, therefore. (cf. § 194.)
$\quad$ Rel. and Interrog.
ŭt, as (for cut or quat).
utcunque, in whatsoever way.
quī, how?
quālŭtĕr, in which way.
quam, as.
quobd,
quia, because.
cūr, why?

Rel. and Interrog.
ŭt, $a s$ (for cut or quut). utcunque, in whatsoever way. qui, how?
quam, as.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { quŏd, } \\ \text { quia, }\end{array}\right\}$ because.
cūr, why?

* Macte (in verse mactĕ: cf. benĕ, malĕ) is considered to be an adverb by Madvig, who says the word is invariable in form, the supposed instances of macti in Livy and Pliny not being supported by the manuscripts.
$\S 64$. B. The following are the chief pronominal adverbs of pluce:

alqquō, to some place or ălicunde, from some place ălicŭbi, somewhere or other. ăliqquā, by some way. other. or other.
quōvis, to any place you undĕvis, twhence you čbyīs, \}where you quāvis, bby any way you quöľㅡㄹet, \{ please. undělíbet, \} please.
quōquam, anywhither (in
negative, \&c. sentences). siquō, if anywhither.
nequō, lest anywhither.
ăliō, to another place. gative, \&c. sentences).
sìcunde, if from any place. sīcŭbr, if anywhere. nēcunde, lest fron any- nēcŭbй, lest anywhere. where.
xliunde, from another place.
allibi, elsewhere.
 nequà, lest by any way. ălià, by another way.
quōcunque, $\}_{\text {whithersoever. unđěcunque, whencesoever. ŭbīcunque, wheresoever. }}$ quācunque, bby whatsoever quāquā, $\int$ way.
nusquam, nowhere.
hāctěnus, thus far.
eàtĕnus, so far.
Tr ăluquātěnus, to some point.
\& quādamtěnus, to a certain point.
quorsum (i.e. whitherwards?
quōversum) \}whitherwards.
N.B. The $c$ in alicubi, sicubi, ne $c u b i$, \&c. shows the original form of $u b i$, viz, cubi, the dative of cuis or $q u i s$, contracted into cui. So sicunde, \&c. shows the original form of unde, viz. cunde.
§ 65. C. The following are the chief pronominal adverbs of time: Quando, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { when? } \\ \text { when. }\end{array}\right.$ quamdiū, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { how long\} } \\ \text { as long as. }\end{array}\right.$ quǒtiēs, $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { how often? } \\ \text { as often as }\end{array}\right.$
quum, when.
nunc, now.
tunc, thom, then.
antehāc, before this.
posthāc, after this.
nondum, not yet.
ăliās, at another time.
intĕrim, meanwhile.
intĕreā, $\}$ meanwhile.
quondam, |formerly, or hereafter (olim is from
ōlim, $\quad$ ollus ( $=$ ille) and so means at that time).
$\omega$
D. Numeral adverbs are given with the numeral adjectives on the following pages.
§ 66．Numbrals（chiefly from Kennedy）．

| Arabre Signs． | Roman Siens． | Catrinal： <br> answering the question <br> Qưt＇：how many？ <br> （Adjectives） | Ordival； <br> answering the question Quŏtŭs？which in numertcal order 9 <br> （All declinable adjectives） | Distributive； answering the question Quotenì？how many each？ <br> （All declinable adjectives） | Nemeral Adverbs； answering the question Quŏties？how many times？ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $r$ | I | प̄nйs，$a, u m$ ， | primŭs（prior，first of two） | sīngutul | š̌měl． |
| 2 | II |  | sě̆cundưs or alter | bīn | blis． |
| 3 | III | tress，triat | tertirus | ternī or trini | ter． |
| 4 | IIII or IV | quattŭŭr | quartŭs | quăterni | quătěr． |
| 5 |  | quinque | quintŭs | quini ${ }^{\text {＇}}$ | quinquies． |
| 6 | VI | sex | sextŭs | sėni | sexies． |
| 7 | VII | septem | septilmŭs | septēni | septiès． |
| 8 | VIII | octŏ | octavy | octōni | octrees． |
| 9 | VIIII or IX | novvem | nōnŭs | n¢vēni | nơvies． |
| 10 | X | dĕcem | děchmŭs | dènī | dĕçès． |
| II | XI | undĕcim | unděç̌măs | undēnī | unděclës． |
| 12 | XII | dǔơdĕcim | dươděçmuns | dưỡeni | dŭŏďêçēs． |
| 13 | XIII | trěděcim | tertưus dexclmus | ternì denni | trědĕclēs． |
| 14 | XIIII or XIV | quattŭordĕcim | quartŭs dĕçımŭs | quăternī dēnī | quāttŭordexckes． |
| 15 | XV | quindecim | quintŭs dexcimụ̂s | quīnì denni | quinděclés． |
| 16 | XVI | sēděcim | sextŭs dexcimùs | sēnì dēni | sēdĕçēs． |
| 17 | XVII | septendecim | septimŭs dexclmŭs | septēni denni | septiesděciess． |
| 18 | XVIII or XIIX | dươdēvīginti | dữơdēviceesimuts | dươdēviceni | dưỡēviçēs． |
| 19 | XVIIII or XIX | undeviginti | undevicēslmŭs | undēviceeni | undēviclès． |
| 20 | XX | viginti（indeclinable） | vīcēsimus | vīcènî | vicrēs． |
| 21 | XXI |  | ūnŭs 厄̌t vīcesslmŭs | vicên aingǔlī |  |
| 28 | $\underset{\text { XXVIII }}{\text { XXIX }}$ | dŭodetriginta undētrigintā | dtudaetrigessmurs undetrigesimŭs | d九odetricēni <br> undētricēni | dưOdetrīciès． |
| ［ | xXX | trigintã | trīgexarmous |  | und |
| 50 | L | quinquãgin | quinquāgēsimŭs | quinquāgèni | quinquā̧lēs． |
| 60 | LX | sexāgint ${ }_{\text {a }}$ | sexaggesimuts | sexägēnì | sexagres． |
| 70 | LXX | septol̃aginta | septữ̄gēslm | septưagēnī | septuag |
| 80 | LXXXor XXO | octoginta | octōgēsimulis | octogeñ | octogres． |
| 90 | LXXXX or XC | nōnăgintă | nōnägēšmŭs | nōnāgēnī | nönāgless． |
| 99 | XCIX or IC | undēcentum | undēcentēsǐmŭs | undecentēni | undecentYes |
| 100 | 0 | centum | centēsimŭs | centēnì | centrès． |
| IOT | CI | centum 枵 | centesimắs primĭs | centènī singtrli | centrès sĕmel． |
| 200 | CO | dŭcent $\bar{i}, t e, \breve{a}$ | dứcentersYmừs | dǐicēnı̄ | dŭcentiēs． |
| 300 | CCC | trěcentio，$a, a$ | tré̛cēntēšımŭs | trěcēnī | trěcentY̌es． |
| 400 | CCCC or CD | quādringentiz，$x, a$ | quādringentēšmňs | quādringēni | quādringentiēs． |
| 500 | D or Io | quingent $\bar{i}, c e, a$ | quingentēsimŭs | quingēnī | quingentYës． |
| 600 | DC | sexcenti，$\alpha, a$ | sexcentēsumus | sexcëni | sexcentrēs． |
| 700 | DCC | septingent $\bar{i}, \alpha, \alpha$ | septingentesimuls | septingēn̄ | septingentiēs． |
| 800 | DCCC | octingenti，$c, a$ | octingentessumits | octingen ${ }^{\text {l }}$ | octingentiess． |
| 900 | DCCCC | nongent $\vec{u}, a, a$ | nongentesimùs | nongēnī | nongentres． |
| 1000 | M or cIo | mille | millēsimăs | singula millyă | milliēs． |
| 2000 | MMarctocio | dŭŏ millya | bismillēslmŭs | bină millư̆ | brs millyes． |
| 5000 | VM or Too | quinquĕ millia | quinquîes millēslmurs | quin $\times$ milly | quinquyès milliēs． |
| 10，000 | XMor ccloo | decem millyă | deçēs millēsimŭs | dēnă millix | děciēs millyes． |
| 50，000 | LM or Iooo | quinquāginta milliua | quinquāg Yés millēslmŭs | quinquāgenă millǐa | quinquāglés milliēs． |
| 100，000 | $\operatorname{cccl}_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{O} 0$ | centum millyă | centīes millesimits | centēnă millŭ | centyēs milliés． |
| 500，000 | Ionoo | quingent ${ }^{\text {a millix }}$ | quingenties millessunus | quingenă milluă | quingentiēs millyēs． |
| 1，000，000 | cccclono | decciès centum millya | děcres centies millestmus | děcrês centēnă millıă | dĕcliès centuēs milliess． |

Mourtpliontive，answering the question Quơtuplex？how many fold？are：simplēx，duplēx，triplēx，quādru－ plēx，quincuplēx，\＆c．So sēptēmplēx，sevenfold；dĕcemplēx，tenfold；centuplèx，a hundredfold．

Proportional，answering the question Quơtuplŭs？how many times more？are：simplŭs，duplŭs，triplŭs， quādruplŭs，\＆c．

N．B．Sexcenti is used of an indefinitely large number，as we say a hundred，a thousand．
§67. Dŭŏ, two, Trēs, three, and Millĭă, thousands.


Ambō, both, is declined like Dŭð (acc. masc. ambo or ambos).
The other Cardinal Numbers, from quattürr to centum, are undeclined. Millě is also used as an undeclined Adjective. Thus, mille pedes, a thousand feet.
§ 63. From the ordivals are formed adverbs in um (rarely o) to denote for which time; as, primum, for the first time; iterum, for the second time; tertium, quartum, \&c., e.g. tertium consul, for the third time consul, \&c.; ultimum (postremum, extremum), for the last time.
§ 69. The distributives are used also as the cardinals of plural substantives; as binæ litteræ, two epistles (duo litteræ, two letters of the alphabet).
§ 70. In compounding numbers, whether cardinal or ordinal, from i3 to 20 , the units are prefixed to the ten without et, or the ten prefixed to the units with et : as septemdecim, or decem et septern.

In compounding numbers from zo up to roo, either the ten without et, or the units with et, are placed first, as in English, thus, viginti unus, or unus et viginti. The hundreds (in prose) are always placed before the tens with or without et; then the tens, then the units, as centum sexaginta septem, or centum et sexayinta septem.
§ 71. Fractions are exprest by the ordinal adjectives, agreeing with pars or partes exprest or understood: as $\frac{1}{3}$, tertia pars; $\frac{3}{7}$, tres septumæ. But for $\frac{2}{3}$ and $\frac{3}{4}$ the Romans said duæ partes, tres partes.

For twelfths, the as (originally pound of bronze) was taken as the unit, and its parts (uncix, ounces) denote the fractions. Thus
$\frac{1}{122}$ uncia, gen. ce (fem.). $\quad \frac{6}{12}$ quincunx, gen. cis (masc.).
$\frac{2}{12}=\frac{1}{6}$ sextans, gen. tis (masc).
$\frac{3}{2 z}=\frac{1}{4}$ quădrans.
$\frac{4}{22}=\frac{1}{3}$ triens.
$\frac{6}{12}=\frac{1}{2}$ sēmis, gen. semissis (masc.), (or pars dimidia, or dimidius, as adj., as dimidius modius, a half

Of Verbs. 37
bushel). Semis is some- $\frac{9}{12}=1-\frac{1}{2}$ dodrans (detimes used as indeclinable.
$\mathrm{T}^{7}{ }^{7}$ septunx.
$\frac{s}{12}=\frac{2}{3}$ bes, gen. bessis (masc.).
quadrans).
$\frac{1}{1} \frac{0}{2}=1-\frac{1}{6}$ dextans (de-sex-
tans).
$\frac{11}{12}=r-\frac{1}{12}$ deun $x$.
$\mathrm{I}=\mathrm{as}$.
§72. The following expressions should also be noticed, quadrans quartus ( $\alpha$, um) is $3 \frac{\frac{1}{4}}{4}$ : semis sextus is $5 \frac{1}{2}$ : semis tertius (contracted into sestertius) $2 \frac{1}{2}$. The last quantity was represented in symbols by adding s (i.e. semis) to the symbol for two with a line running through the whole, as in our to or $£$ pounds. Printers have substituted the letters HS*.

## OF VERBS.

§ 73. Latin verbs have inflexions to denote differences of

1. Nember.
(a) Singular, when one person is acting or suffering.
(b) Plural, when more than one person is acting or suffering.
2. Person.
(a) First person, if the person acting or suffering be the speaker.
(b) Second person, if the person acting or suffering be spoken to.
(c) Third person, if the person acting or suffering be spoken of, but is neither the speaker nor spoken to.
3. Tense, i.e. the time when the action is performed.
(a) Present: as, I am loving, or I love.
(b) Imperfect: as, I was loving.

* Key, Lat. Gr. § 27,
(c) Perfect: as, Iloved; also, I have loved.
(d) Pluperfect: as, I had loved.
(e) Future: as, I shall love.
( $f$ ) Completed Future, or 2nd Future: as, I shall have loved.

4. Mood, i.e. the mode in which the action is conceived.
(a) Indicative, expresses a direct assertion.
(b) Subjunctive, expresses a supposition.
(c) Imperative, expresses a command.

To which are added certain verbal forms called the
(d) Infinitive, i.e. the verb used mainly as substantive.
(e) Participle, i.e. the verb used as an adjective.
( $f$ ) Gerund and Gerundice, i. e. a participle used as a substantive and adjective.
(g) Supine, i.e. certain cases of a verbal noun.
N.B. The first three are called Finite moods, or the Finite verb. The rest are sometimes called the Infinite verb.
5. Voicf.
(a) Active: used when the person spoken of does or is something.
(b) Passive: used when the person spoken of has something done to him, whether by himself, or by others.
§ 74. Verbs are distinguished according to their meaning into
(1) Transitive, which express an action exercised upon an object; as, I love a man.
(2) Intransitive, which express either a state of being, or an action not exercised upon an object; as, I stand, $I$ faint.
(A) Verbs with active inflexions are either
(a) Transitive; as, amo, I love.
(b) Intransitive; as, sto, $I$ stand.
N.B. These latter, called neuter verbs, have no passive voice, except when used impersonally in the 3rd pers. singular.
(B) Verbs with passive inflexions are either
(1) Verbs which have also an active voice:
(a) Passive; as, amor, I am being loved.
(b) Middle, or Reflexive ; as, pascor, I feed myself.
(2) Verbs which have no active voice, called Deponents:
(c) Transitive; as, hortor, I exhort.
(d) Intransitive; as, morior, I die.
§ 75. Sum, $I$ am, is thus declined:
[It will be seen that some tenses are derived from a root es (whence essum, Greek $\epsilon i \mu$, originally $\epsilon \sigma \mu$ ), and some from a root $f u$ (whence $f i z o$, cf. Greek $\phi \dot{v} \omega$.)]

## Indicative Mood.

Present Tense. Imperfect. Perfect. Pluperfect. Future. Completed Fut:
Sing. 1. sum, $I$ am
ěram, I was
2. ไ̌s, thou art ěrăs
3. $\mathrm{e} s t$, he (she, it) is ĕră $t$

Plur. 1. sŭmus, we are ĕrămus
2. estis, ye are ĕrātis
3. sunt, they are ěrant

| fui, Ihave been | fueram,I | ěro, I shall | fuĕro, I shall |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| or $I$ was | had been |  | be |
| huve been |  |  |  |

## Subjunctive Mood.

Sing. 1. $\operatorname{sim}$
2. sis
3. sit

Plur. 1. simus
2. sitis
3. sint

| essem or forrem | fuĕrim | fuissem |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| essēs or fŏrēs | fuĕrǐs | fuissēs |
| essĕt or fŏrĕt | fuĕrit | fuissĕt |
| essèmus or fŏrḕmus | fuĕrīmus | fuissemus |
| essētis or fŏrētis essent or forrent | fuĕr̄̄tis <br> fu $n t$ | fuissêtis fuissent |

## Imperative Mood.

Present.
Sing. 2. ěs, be
3.

Plur. 2. este, be ye
3.

## Infinitive Mood.

## Present.

esse

Future.
esto, thou shalt be (or be thou)
esto, he shall be
estöte, you shall be (or be ye)
sunto, they shall be

Perfect. fuisse

Future.
fơre or fǔtūrus $-a-u m$ esse

## Partictples.

Present.
(sens or ens only found in compounds)

Futwe.
fưtūrus
N.B. When est came after a vowel or $m$, the $e$ was omitted in the earlier period (so in Cicero) both in speaking and writing (nata st, natum st, oratio st). In the comic writers a short final syllable in $s$ also coalesces with est (factust, opust, similist, for factus est, opus est, similis est); and both a final vowel and a final short syllable in $s$ occasionally coalesce with es (nactu's, nacta's, simili's, for nactus es, nacta es, similis es). Ritschl.

## OF THE REGULAR VERBS.

Regular verbs are divided according to their form into four classes, called Conjugations.
§ 76. The differences of tense, mood, number, and person, are denoted mainly by the addition of certain syllables or letters to what is called the crude form (or theme) of each verb, and which in the following examples of the conjugations is printed in roman letters. The variable parts are printed in italics. It will be seen that if the first person singular of the present and perfect indicative, and the supine and present infinitive be known, all the other parts of the verb can be easily formed from them. The four conjugations are generally distinguished by the vowel preceding $r e$ in the infinitive mood; which in the 1st conjugation is $\bar{a}$ : in the 2nd $\bar{e}$ : in the third $\breve{e}$ (not belonging to the crude form): in the fourth i. (N.B. E and I are shortened if they come before a vowel, and $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$, $\bar{e}$ and i are shortened before a final $t$.)
§ 77. The verbs are divided into vowel verbs, or consonant verbs, according as their crude form ends with a vowel or consonant.
I. First conjugation contains all vowel verbs, whose crude form ends in ā; as ămo, I love, perf. ămā $v i$, sup. ămătum, infin. ămāre.
II. Second conjugation contains all vowel verbs whose crude form ends in $\bar{e}$; as moneo, $I$ advise, perf, mŏn $u i$, sup. mŏň̆tum, infin. mŏnēre.
III. Third conjugation contains all verbs whose crude form ends in a consonant, or in the semivowel ŭ; as lego, $I$ pick or read, perf. lēgi, sup. lectum, infin. lĕgĕre: ăcŭo, I sharpen, perf. ăcui, sup. (ăcŭz̆tum, contracted into) acūtum, infin. ăcŭĕre.
IV. Fourth conjugation contains all vowel verbs whose crude form ends in $\overline{1}$, as audio, $I$ hear, perf, audivi, sup. audìtum, infin. audīre.
§ 78. In the perfect tense additions are sometimes prefixed to the crude form, viz. the first consonant together with the rootvowel if it be o or $u$, otherwise with $e^{*}$; as, mordeo, perf. momordi: this is called a reduplication. Sometimes the vowel of the root $\dagger$ is lengthened; as, lĕgo, leegi; and in reduplicated perfects changed according to $\$ 5$. The terminations also sometimes encroach upon or alter the final letter of the crude form; as, moneo, monui and thus the characteristic vowel is shortened before another vowel in the 2nd and $4^{\text {th }}$ conjugations, and the final consonant is frequently changed from a flat (i.e. $b, g, d$ ) into a sharp (i. e. $p, c, t$ ), as nūbo, perf. nupsi; or assimilated, as cēdo, perf. cessi; or omitted, as plaudo, perf. plausi. With these exceptions the crude form remains unaltered throughout. In the 3rd conjugation the short $\check{ }$ (preceding $r e$ in the infinitive) is merely a connecting vowel between the crude form and the termination, and is perbaps not part either of one or the other; it appears as $i$ in regit, as $u$ in regunt.

In the present tense we often find an insertion to strengthen a weak form, especially the letter $n$; as in findo, pango, \&c. compared with the perfects, fudli, peprigi. So also the inchoatives in -sco (§ IOg) exhibit a similar insertion.

* Originally the vowel of the prefix was always $e$ (as in Greek). Both Cicero and Cæsar are said to have written me. mordi, pepugi, spepondi. In spopondi and steti the reduplication is inserted after the $s$.
$\dagger$ The root is the word itself without either formative or inflexional additions: e.g. $a m$ is the root of amavi; ama- is the crude form (i.e. the root with a formative addition); and amavi shows the inflexional addition for the rst pers. sing. perf. indic. added to the crude form. In the 3 rd conj. the crude form does not differ from the root (as the terms are here used).

REGULAR VERBS.

## § 79.

## Indicative Mood

Present Tense.
Sing. 1. I love, \&c. or I am loving, \&c.
2. Thou lovest, \&c. or \&c.
3. He loves, \&e. or \&c.

Plur. 1. We love, \&c. or \&c.
2. Ye love, \&c. or \&c.
3. They love, \&c. or \&c.

Active Voice.
Vowel Conjugations.
$\overbrace{\text { in } \alpha .} \quad$ II. $_{\text {in } e .} \quad \operatorname{IV}_{\text {in } i .}$
ăm amās amăt amāmus amātis amant
mŏnĕo moness monět monēmus monētis monent
auď̆o
audīs
audǐt
audimus
auditis
audiunt

Iĕgo legis
leg $2 \mathrm{l} t$ leǧmus leǧ̌tis legunt
Consonant and in $u$. III.

## Imperfect.

Sing. 1. I was loving, \&c.
2. Thou wast loving, \&c.
3. He was loving, \&c.

Plur. 1. We were loving, \&c.
2. Ye were loving, \&c.
3. They were loving, \&c.
ăinàbam
amābās amābăt amābãmus
amābātis amäbant
mŏnēbam monēbās monēbăt monëb̄āmus monēbātis monēbant
audiēbam audiēbās audiēbăt audiēbāmus audiēbātis audiebant
luggêbam
$\operatorname{leg} \bar{b} b \bar{a} s$
Iegēbăt
legēbāmus
legēbātis
legēbant

Perfect.
Sing. 1. I loved, \&c. or I have loved, \&c.
2. Thou lovedst, \&c. or \&c.
3. He loved, \&c. or \&c.

Plur. 1. We loved, \&c. or \&c.
2. Ye loved, \&c. or \&c.
3. They loved, \&c. or \&c.
ămā $v i$
amävisti
amāvăt
amāvžmus
amävistis
amāvērunt
or amāvere
mönui
monuisti
monuĕt monuămus monuistis monuērunt
or monuẽrs
ămāoĕram
amāvěrās
amãvĕrăt
amāvĕr $\bar{a} m u s$
amāvĕrāatis
amăvěront
mŏnzěram
monuĕräs
monuĕrăt
monuĕrāmus
monuěreat is
monuĕrant

ămābo
amābŭs amābŭt
amābămues
amābŭtis
amābunt
mŏnēbo
monēbŭs monebăt monebimus
monebitis
monebunt
 lēgi
legisti legŭt leğmus legistis legērunt or lēgère
audivĕram lēgĕram
audīĕ̆rās legĕ́rās
audivĕrăt andivĕrāmus legèrăt legèrämus $\begin{array}{ll}\text { audītĕrātis } & \text { legĕrātis } \\ \text { audívĕrant } & \text { legĕrant }\end{array}$

| audiam | lěgam |
| :---: | :---: |
| audiès | leges |
| audièt | legĕt |
| audiemus | legèmus |
| audiètis | legẽtis |
| audient | legent |

## Completed Future

Sing. I. I shall have loved, \&c. ămaxero
2. Thou wilthave loved, \&c. amāvĕrīs
3. He will have loved, \&c. amāvĕrăt

Plur. 1. We shall have loved, \&c. amāvĕrămus
2. Ye will have loved, \&c. amāvĕrēt tis
3. They will have loved, \&c. amāvĕrint
mŏnuĕr
monuĕr $\overline{\text { uns }}$ monuĕrăt monuĕrй̀mus monuĕrītis monuĕrint

| audivero | lêgěr ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| audivèrīs | legěris |
| audìvěrĭt | legerrăt |
| adive̛rrūmus | legèrīm |
| audiverūtis | legěrūtis |
| audiverint | legěrint |

audivĕrīs audīveř̌t rimu audiverint
legěrī̀s legerè̆t legĕrū̆mus
legĕrŭtis
legërint

Subjunctive Mood.

| Present. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sing. 1. | ămem | mŏneam |
| 2. | ames. | mone $\bar{\alpha} s$ |
| 3. | amĕt | mone ${ }_{\text {ct }}$ t |
| Plur. 1. | amèmus | moneămus |
| 2. | amètis | moneātis |
| 3. | ament | moneant |
| Imperfect. |  |  |
| Sing. 1. | àmarem | moñèrem |
| 2. | amārès | monerees |
| 3. | amārĕt | monerèt |
| Plur. 1. | amãrèmus | monerēmus |
| 2. | amārētis | monērētis |
| 3. | amārent | monērent |


| audiam | lĕgam |
| :---: | :---: |
| audia ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | $\operatorname{leg} \bar{a} s$ |
| audiăt | legăt |
| audiāmus | legàmus |
| audiàtis | legatis |
| audiant | legant |
| audirem | lĕgĕrem |
| audirēs | legěrēs |
| audirět | legĕrĕt |
| audīrèmus | legĕrēmus |
| audirētis | legěrētis |
| audīrent | legĕrent |

Active Voice.

Perfect.
Sing.
Sing. 1. ămāvĕrian
2. amāvĕr ${ }^{\text {In }}$ s
3. amāvĕrı̆t

Plur. 1. amāvĕřmus
2. amāvĕř̆̄tis
3. amāvĕrint

Pluperfect.
Sing. 1. ămārissem
2. amāvissēs
3. amāvissĕt

Plur. 1. amãrissèmus
2. amā $u i s s e ̄ t i s$
3. amāvissent
mŏnuĕr ${ }^{\text {mims }}$
monuĕr
monuer
mat
monuĕrămus
montĕtritis
monuĕrint
mŏnuissem
monuissës
monuissět
monuissëmus
monuissētis
monuissent
audīvĕrinn
audiĕr
audivĕrŭt
audivĕrĭmus
audivĕrūtus audivěrint
audivissem audvissēs audīvissĕt andivissēmus audivissētis audivissent

Imperative Mood.
Present.
Sing. 2. Lov (tor
Plur. 2. Love (ye)
Futhue.
Sing. 2. Thou shatt lore
3. He shall lote

Plur. 2. Ye shall love
3. They shall love
ămā
amāte
mŏné
mŏnête
mŏnēto
monetote
monento
and
lëgĕ leǧ̌te
,
ămāto
amātōte
amanto
Infintitive Mood.

| Present. | ămă 1 ¢ | mơnēre | audire | lĕgěre |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perfect. | ămāoisse | $\mathrm{m} \Varangle \mathrm{n} u \mathrm{isse}$ | audivisse | lëgisse |
| Future. | ămātrirus ( $a, u m$ ) | mŏn ̌tūrus ( $a, u m$ ) | auditūrus ( $a, u m$ ) | lectūrus ( $a, u m$ ) |
|  | esse | esse | esse | esse |

(When a verb has no future participle the inf. fut, is formed by fore ut; as, Spero fore ut id contingat nobis, I hope that will happen to us.)

| Participles. |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Present. | Loving | Kmans | mŏnens | audiens | lĕgens |
| Future. | About to love | ămātūrus | mŏn t turus | auditurus | lectūrus |
| Gerundife. |  | ămandus | mŏnendus | audiendus | lĕgendus |
| Strines. |  | ămātum | mŏn ̆̌tum | auditum | lectum |
|  |  | ămātu | moัnว̆tu | auditu | lectu |

(N.B. There is no perfect participle in the active voice. (See § 259,5 .) The participles are declined like adjectives, viz. the present part. like adjectives of the second class; the future part. and gerundive like adjectives of the first class.)

Indicative Mood. Present Tense.
Sing. I. I am being
loved, \&c. (or I am loved, \&c.)
2. Thou artbeing loved, \&c. or \&c. 3. He is being loved, \&c. or \&c.
Plur. 1. We are being loved, \&c. or \&c. 2. Ye are being loved, \&c. or \&c. 3. They are being loved, \&c. or \&c.
Imperfect.
Sing. I. I was being loved, \&c.
2. Thou wast being loved, \&c.
3. He was being loved, \&c.
Plur. 1. We were being loved, \&e.
2. Ye were being loved, \&c.
3. They were being loved, \&c.
§80. PASSIVE VOICE.

| ăm ${ }_{\text {ch }}$ | mơnĕరr | audior | Iĕgorn |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| amar ${ }^{\text {ars }}$ | monerres | audin'ts | legerrls |
| amatura | monētŭr | andilur | legătŭr |
| amàm"̆ | monēmŭr | audimŭr | $\operatorname{leg}$ mŭ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| $2 \mathrm{mäm}$ | monēmĕnı | audìmĭni | legămănī |
| amantŭr | monentŭr | audiuntür | leguntŭr |
| ămäbăr | mónēbăr | audiēbăr |  |
| amābārıัs | monēbār ${ }^{\text {chs }}$ | audiēbăv̌ัs | $\operatorname{leg}$ èbär ${ }^{\text {l }}$ |
| amābātŭr | monēbātŭ | audiēbātŭr | legēbātŭr |
| $\mathrm{amā} b \bar{a} m u ̆ r$ | monēbāmŭ ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | audiēb̄āmür | $\operatorname{legēbãmŭr~}$ |
| $\operatorname{amā} b \bar{a} m i n n \bar{z}$ | monēbāmนัn̄ | audiëbämin | legēbàmĭn |
| amābantün | monēbantŭr | audiëbantür | legēbantŭr |

Perfect.
Sing. I. I am (or was)

2. Thou art (or
wast) loved, \&c.
3. He is (or was)
" es
,
loved, \&c., est
est,, est
"
es
est
"
,
es

We are (or
were) loved, \&c. amā $t \bar{l}(\infty, \bar{a})$
2. Ye are (or
were)loved, \&c.
3. They are (or were) loved, \&c.
" estis
, estis
stis
,
a) su
"
est
Plur. I. We are were), Loved,
ect.
sing. I. I had been

2. Thou hadst (or fừram) been loved, \&c.
3. He had been - loved, \&c.
$"$ е̌ras

Plur. I. We bad been loved, \&c. amāti (ce, a) erāmus monyti ( $a, a$ ) erāmus andīti ( $a, a$ ) erāmus lecti ( $\alpha, a$ )
2. Ye bad been loved, \&c.
3. They had been
loved, \& c .
" erātis ",
erant
erätis
erātis
"
erātis
$\because$,

## Passive Voice.

## 51

## Future.

Sing. I. Isball be loved,
\&c.
loved, \&c.
3. He will be loved, \&c.
Plur. I. We shall be
loved, \&c.
2. Ye will be loved, \&c.
3. They will be loved, \&c.

| ămāborr | mర̆nēb̆r | audiär | lĕgăr |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| amābĕr ${ }_{\text {chs }}$ | .monēberris | audièř̌ı | legeeris |
| amābututu | monebrtur | audiētưr | legētür |
| amābัmŭ | monëbrmŭr | audiēmŭr | legēmŭr |
|  | monèb̆rmĭni | audiēmıัñ | legēmiñ |
| amābuntŭr | monēbuntŭr | audientür | legentŭr |

Completed Future.
Sing. I. I shall have
been loved, \&c. amatūs ( $a$, um) ero monitus ( $a$, um) ero auditus ( $a, u m$ ) ero lectus ( $a, u m$ ) ero
2. Thou wilthave been loved, \&c.
3. He will have
keen loved, \&c.
(or fuěro)
eris
erit ,,
erit
erit
been loved have
2. Ye will have
been loved, \&c.
3. They will have beenloved, \&c
,"
erytis
erunt
(or fuěro) ", (or fuĕro) (or fuěr
eris erit
beenloved,\&c. ", erunt " erunt ," erunt ," erunt

## Subjunctive Mood.

Present Tense.

Sing. I. ămĕr
2. amērŭs
3. amētŭr

Plur. ェ. amēmйr
2. $\operatorname{ame} \bar{e} m \nsucceq n \vec{\imath}$
3. amentŭr.

Imperfect.
Sing, 1. ămāręr
2. amārērres
3. amārētŭr

Plur. I. amārēmŭr
2. amārēm̌ัñ
3. amārentŭr

mŏnētĕr
monērēts
monērētŭr monērēmŭr
monērēmŭni
monērentŭr
audYăr
audYārı̆s
audYătŭr
audYāmŭr
audYăm̌ñ
audYantŭr.

1еgăr
legārı̆s
$\operatorname{leg} \bar{a} t u ̆ r$
$\operatorname{leg} \bar{\alpha} m u{ }_{r}{ }^{\circ}$
$\operatorname{leg} \bar{a} m \pi n \bar{u}$
legantür

1 1̆gĕrĕr
legĕrērŭs
legĕrētŭr
legĕrē̄mŭr.
legěrëmĕñ
legĕrentür

## Perfect.

| Sing. 1. | ămātus (a, um) | $\operatorname{sim}$ | monxtus (a,um) | $\operatorname{sim}$ | auditus ( $\alpha, u m$ ) | $\operatorname{sim}$ | lectus ( $\alpha, u m$ ) | $\operatorname{sim}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2. | , | sis | ", | sis | ", | sis | " | sis |
| 3. | , ,, | sit |  | sit | , | sit | " | sit |
| Plur. | amāti ( $\propto, a)$ | sīmus | moniti ( $\propto, a)$ | simus | auditi ( $x, a$ ) | sīmus | lecti ( $a, a)$ | simus |
| 2. | ', | sītis | ", | sitis | " | sītis | , | sintis |
| 3. | נ | sint | ; | $\sin t$ | " | $\sin t$ | " | sint |

Pluperfect.


 esset
essēmus auditi $i(c, a)$ esses $\quad$, esses esset
essēmus lecti $(c, ", a)$ esset essëtis ," $\begin{array}{ll}\text { essētis } & " \\ \text { essent } & "\end{array}$ essētis $\quad$, essemus $\begin{array}{ll}2 . & " \\ 3 . & "\end{array}$ essent "

Imperative Mood.

## Present.

Sing, 2. Be thou loved, \&c.
Plur. 2. Be ye loved, \&c.
Future.
Sing. 2. Thou shalt be loved, \&c.
Plur. 3. They shall be loved, \&c.

## Ø̆māre <br> 

mơnēre mǒnē $m$ ตัn
audire audīmiñ
lĕgĕre


| ămātorr | m Onnēt $^{\text {r }}$ r | auditor | legator |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ămāntor | mǒnēntơr | audīuntor | lěguntơr |

## Infinitive Mood.

| Present. | ămār |  | audiri | 1 lg d |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Perfect. | $\begin{array}{r} \text { ămātus } \\ \left(\alpha,{ }_{\text {esse }}\right) \end{array}$ | mǒnǐtus ( $\alpha, u m$ ) <br> esse | $\text { audītus ( } a, u m \text { ) }$ esse | $\begin{gathered} \text { lectus }(a, u m) \\ \text { esse } \end{gathered}$ |
| Future. | ămātum iri | mơnĭtum īri | auditum iri | lectum iri |

(N.B. This future infinitive is composed of the supine and the passive infin. of eo, go. Amatum ire in the active, means to go to love, to be about to love: hence in passive, amatum iri. When a verb has no supine the fut. infin. pass. is formed by fore ut: as spero fore ut urgeatur, $I$ hope he will be pushed.

## Parititiples.

Perfect.
Having been (or being)
loved, \&c. ămātus monĭtus auditus lectus
(N.B. There are no present or future participles in the passive voice. The perfect participle is declined like an adjective of the first class.)

Deponents have all the inflexions of the passive voice (except the future infinitive) with the significations of the active voice. Thus, e. g. hortor, $I$ exhort; hortatus sum, I exhorted; hortabor, I shall exhort; hortatus ero, I shall have exhorted; hortatus, having exhorted, \&ic. They have also gerundive, gerunds, supines, and-future infinitive and participle similarly to the active voice: e.g. hortandus, hortatum, hortaturus esse.

## Varieties of form in the Conjugations. (Madvig.)

$\oint 81$. 1. In active perfects ending in $\bar{a} v i$, and $\bar{e} v i$, and tenses formed from them, the semivowel $v$ (pronounced $v o$ by the Romans) is often omitted, if $r$ or $s$ follow $v e$ or $v i$, and the two vowels thus brought together coalesce into a long $\bar{a}$ or $\bar{e}$. Thus amavisse, implēvérint, \&c. become amēsse, implērint.

In active perfects ending in ivi, and the tenses formed from them, $v$ is often omitted before $e$, or $i s$ : in which latter case $i i$ in prose is almost always contracted into $i$. More rarely (in the poets) $v$ is left out before $i t$. Thus we have quesiĕram, audissem, sisti, audiit, \&c. for quasivĕram, audīvissem, sīvisti, aud̄̄vit, \&c.
fit is not unfrequent in petiit, and is the only form used in the compounds of eo; e.g. rediit. So always desiit. In the compounds of eo the ist person is always in $i i$. Sonetimes petii.
2. We also in the older writers and poets meet with such contractions as scripsti, dixe, consumpset, dc. for scripsisti, dixisse, consumpsisset.
3. In the passive voice the $2 n d$ person singular very often (in Cicero usually) ends in refor ris; except in the present indicative, in which it is more rare, and confined to deponents; and in the 4th conjugation very rare. Thus amabāre for amabāris, legĕrēre for legĕrēris, \&c.
4. In some poets the old form of the passive present infinitive (in ier) is retained, as $a m \bar{a} r u ̈ e r ~ f o r ~ a m a ̄ r i ̄ . ~ . ~$
5. The fut. ind. act. and pass. of the 4th conjug. in the older style ended in ibo, ibor; as, audz $\bar{b} o$, audizbor, for audiam, audiar.
6. In the language of the comic poets we meet with another (simple) future formed by adding so or sso to the crude form; and a subjunctive form in $\operatorname{sim}$ or ssim, as lĕvasso, prohĭbesso, axo (=ag-so); levassim, prohibessim, axim. The later language retained faxo (only in 1st per-
son), I will make, and the subjunctive form faxim, ausim (from audeo). Many consider these forms to be completed futures, and as such the indicative form was occasionally used, but not in a principal sentence.
7. An active participle with a present signification is formed from some verbs by adding to the crude form bundus (a, um), e.g. cunctabundus, loitering (cunctor); deliberābundus, deliberating (delibero); furibundus, raging (furo); treměbundus, trembling (tremo). It is rarely transitive.
§ 82. Some verbs of the 3rd conjugation end in io. These are conjugated like verbs of the 4th conjugation in the imperf. and fut. indic. and pres. subj. both active and passive; they also retain the $i$ in the 3 rd pers. plur. of the pres. indic. and of the fut. imper. both active and passive, and in the gerundive. In the other parts of the verb they are conjugated as if they ended in $o$ instead of $i o$. Thus,

Active.
Indic. Pres. Sing. 1. căpio
2. căpĭs
3. căpĭt

Plur. 1. căpĭmus
2. căprtis
3. căpiunt căpiébam
căpiam, căpies, \&c.

Subj. Pres.
Impf.
Imper. Pres. Sing. 2. căp६
Plur. 2. căpĭt
Fut. S. 2\&3. căprto
Plur. 2. căpittote
Infin. Pres.
Gerondive.
3. căpiunto

сӑрiam, сӑpiās, \&c. căpěrem

сӑреъе căpiendus

Passive
capior
căpĕris
căpitur
căpı̆mur
căpĭmǐni
căpiuntur
căpièbar
сӑpiar, capiēris, \&c.
căpiar, căpiāris, \&c.
сӑрӗrer
căpěrĕ
căpı̆mĭnY
căpĭtor
căpiuntor
căpī

The following verbs and their compounds are so conjugated:

| căpio | (lăcio) only in comp. e.g. allicio. |
| :--- | :--- |
| cŭpio | pătio |
| făcio | quătio (compounds concǔtio, \&c.) |
| fodio | răpio |
| fügio | săpio |
| jăcio | (spěcio) only in comp. e.g. aspicio. |

Also the following deponents; the three last however having some forms of the fourth conjugation.
grădior mơrior (inf. mơrī or mơrī̄i, part. fut. pătior moriturus).
ŏrior (inf. ðrīiri, imp. subj. ðrïrer or ðrěrer).
pŏtior (inf. pottiri, imp. subj. potěrer or pðtīrer, perf. potitus sum).

## § 83. IRREGULAR VERBS.




## DEFECTIVE VERBS.

§ 84. Quěo, nĕquěo, are declined like $e o$, but have no imperative, future participle, or gerund.
§ 85. Ajo, and inquam, both meaning say, quoth, have but few forms. Inquam is only used when a person's speech is given in his own words (i.e. not in the oratio obliqua), and is illways inserted after ene or more words of the speech cited.

Indicative. Subjunot. Imper.


Sing. t. inquam inquyēbam
2. inquis inquiebas inquisti inquies inquias $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { inque } \\ \text { inquito }\end{array}\right.$
3. inquit inquēēat inquit inquietinquiat

Plur. I. inquimus inquēebamus
2. inqurtis inqułēbatis inquistis inquiātis inquite
3. inquyunt inquȳēbant
inquiant
Sing. I. ājo ājebam

3. ăıt च̄jēebat
$\bar{a} j \bar{a} t$
Plur. 1.
2.
ajuunt ājebant
$\bar{a} j a ̄ n t$
§ 86. Copi, měminni, ōdi, are only used in the perfect and tenses derived from it: except that the imperative form mĕmento, mĕmentōte, and the perf. pass. participle coeptus, and future active participles copturus and osürus, are also found. A present copio occurs in Plautus.
coepi, I began or begin; cœpłram, I had begun or was beginning; cœpero, I shall have begun or shall begin;
mèmĭni, $I$ remember; mĕmı̆nĕram, $I$ was remembering; měmüněro, I shall remember;
ōdi, I hate; ōdĕram, I was hating; ōdĕro, I shall hate.
(Similarly, nōvi (from nosco, $I$ get knowledge of) means, $I$ know; nōvěram, I was knowing; nōvěro, I shall know. Proba-
bly coepi *(in present signification) means, I have taken in hand; i.e. I commence : and memini, I have noticed, i.e. I remember.)
§ 87. Infit, (he, \&c.) begins, is only used in this one form.
§ 88. Fari, to speak, with its compounds (affāri, præfāri, prōfäri) is used only in the following forms (but those within brackets are found only in the compounds):

Indic. SubJ.
Pres. fātur (fāmur, fāmłni)
Imp. fābar
Perf. fātus sum, \&c. fātus sim, \&c.
Plup. fātus eram, \&c. fātus essem, \&c.
Fut. făbor (fāb̆ris) fābitur.

| Pres. Sing. | Imper. <br> fāre | Infin <br> fări | Supine. fātu |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pres. | Partic. fantem fantis, | Perf. <br> fātus om.) | Gerdnd. fandus |

§ 89. The following imperatives of verbs otherwise defective are also found:

| Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | ---: |
| salvé, hail | salvēte |
| salvēto |  |
| salvēre, fut. 2 Sing. salvēbis) |  |


| ăvē, hail avêto | avēte, inf. avēre |
| :---: | :---: |
| cědx, give | cette (for cědyte). |

- The derivation is supposed to be from co- apio, join together ; whence aptus, apiscor: also coppula.


## IMPERSONAL VERBS.

§ 90. The following verbs (of the and conjugation) are only used in the 3 pers. sing.

Pres. Perf.
lybet, or, lubet (mihi), it pleases libuit, or, liblytum est
licet (mihi), it is permitted lycuit, or, lyč̌um est

ơportet (me), it behoves 厄̌portuit,
pliget (me), it vexes
penitet (me), it repenteth
pŭdet (me), it shames
tædet ( me ), it wearieth
Many other verbs, e.g.
dĕcet (me), it becomes dĕcuit
deděcet (me), it misbecomes deděcuit
are used without a personal subject (see § $\mathbf{1 5 1}$ ), but have besides a regular personal use.

## CLASSIFICATION OF PERFECTS AND SUPINES.

§91. There are four modes of forming the perfect active, which do not however differ in signification :

1. By reduplication (§ 78 ); as, mordeo, mŏmordi.
2. By lengthening the root-vowel ; as, lĕgo, lēgi.
3. By adding $v i$ or $u i$ to the crude form or root, as amā-, amàvi; mon-, monui.
4. By adding si to the root (with occasional alteration of final consonant); as, lū̄c-, luxi; reg-, rexi; plaud-, plausi (cf. Greek aorist $\lambda \hat{v}^{\prime} \omega$, ${ }^{[1} \lambda v-\sigma a$ ).

Those verbs which form their perfect in $i$ only, have probably either lost a reduplication, or absorbed the $v$ (or ac) of $2 i$

## Classification of Perfects and Supines. 63

The supine is formed by adding tum or sum to the crude form or root.
(N.B. Where no perfect is mentioned, none is known to exist. The supine is not of common occurrence, but is here mentioned whenever a future part. act. or perfect pass. are known, as these are similarly formed. In the case of deponents, as the perfect gives the form, it is unnecessary to add the supine.)

## FIRST CONJUGATION.

Regular perfect in $\bar{a}-v i$, supine in $\bar{a}$-tum.
§ 92. i. Perfect Reduplicated:
do, give dĕcli dătum
(Compounds are of 3 rd conj. except circumdo, satisdo, \&c. in which the preposition is almost a separate word.)
sto, stand stěti stătum (ef. §120.5.b)
§93. 2. Perfect wifh Root-vowel lengthened:

| jŭvo, help, deliyht | jūvi | jūtum (fut. part. <br> jйvãturus) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Iăvo, wash | lāvi | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { lautum } \\ \text { lōtum }\end{array}\right.$ |

(Compounds are of 3 conj. ; as, abluo.)
§ 94. 3. Perfect with ui added:

$\underset{(\text { to shore })}{\text { applico, apply, put in }}$| $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { appliccui } \\ \text { applicāvi }\end{array}\right.$ | appľ̌̌tum <br> applycãtum |
| :--- | :--- |

(So the compounds of plico generally; Cicero uses the forms in avi, atum.)
crěpo, rattle cǔbo, lie, lie ill domo, tame
ēněco, stifle completely
fiYco, rub
mico, vibrate, flash
crĕpui crĕp̆̌tum
căbui căbYtum (cf. cumbo, § 106)
dŏ́nui dơmitum
§ēuĕcui ēnectum

- е̄nĕcāvī
frǐcui
mycui
(But emico has sup. emĭcātum, and dimico is quite regular.)


## 64 Classification of Perfects and Supines. <br> sěco, cut sĕcui sectum (fut. part. <br> ono sound šnui tøno, thunder tornui tonnłtum věto, forbid vĕtui vêťtum

4. Perfect with si added:

None.

## SECOND CONJUGATION IN e.

Regular perfect in $u i$; supine in $\mathrm{u} t u m$.
§ 95. i. Perfect reduplicated:

| bite | mơmordi | morsum |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pendeo, hang, intr | pヶpen |  |
| spondeo, promise, pledge oneself | spŏpondi | sponsum |
| tondeo, shear | trtondi | tonsu |

§96. 2. Perfect with Root-vowel lengthened:

| cǎveo, beware, beware of |  | cautum (contracted for căvĭtum) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| făveo, favour | fāvi | fautum (contracted for făvǐtum) |
| fŏveo, keep warm, cherish |  | $\begin{gathered} \text { fotum (contracted } \\ \text { for fơvitum) } \end{gathered}$ |
| mơveo, move, trans. | mōvi | mōtum (contracted for mbvitum) |
| płveo, quake with fear | pāri |  |
| sědeo, sit | sēdi | sessum |
| vłdeo, see | vidi | visum |
| จ®veo, vow | vōvi | vōtum (contracted for vovitum) |

§97. Perfect in $i$ simple:

| conṇiveo, wink | \{connīvi |
| :---: | :---: |
|  | (connixi |
| ferveo, boil, glow | fervi (ferbui most generally ferbui compounds) |
| langueo, languish | langui |

## Classification of Perfects and Supines. 65

| lyqueo, be clear | $\{\text { Y̌qui }$ |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| prandeo, dine strīdeo, hiss, screech | prandi | pransu |

§ 98. 3. Perfect with $v i$ added:

| aboleo, destroy (lit. destroy growth) | aborlēvi | abolytum |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| cyeo, stir up | cĭvi | cytum (see cio, § 115) |
| delleo, blot out |  | deletum (contracted |
|  |  | for delevitum), real- |
|  |  | ly a compound of |
|  |  | lave |
| fleo, weep | đēvi | flètum (contracted for flevìtum) |
| impleo, fill | implēvi | implêtum |
| (So also the other | mpounds |  |
| neo, spin | nēvi | nētum (contracted |
| VYeo, plait (twigs, \&c.) | viēvi | viêtum |

§99. 4. Perfect witi si ( $x i=c s i$ ) added :

| algeo, be cold | alsi |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ardeo, be on fire | arsi | arsum |
| augeo, increase, endow | anxi | anctum |
| frigeo, be cold | frixi | frictum |
| fulgeo, shine | fulsi |  |
| hæreo, stick | hæsi | hæsum |
| indulgeo, be indulgent, yield | indulsi | indultun |
| jŭbeo, bid | jussi | jussum |
| lūceo, shine | luxi |  |
| lügeo, mourn ${ }^{\text {, }}$ | luxi |  |
| măneo, remain, await | mansi | mansum |
| mulceo, soothe mulgeo, milk | mulsi | mulsum |
| rideo, laugh | rissi | risum |
| sorbeo, sup up, swallow | sorpsi <br> (also sorbui) | sorptum |
| suādeo, recommend | suāsi | \$uasum |
| tergeo, wipe | tersi | tersum |
| torqueo, twist, hurl | torsi | tortum |
| turgeo, swell | tursi |  |
| urgeo, push, press | ursi |  |

R. G.

## 66 Classification of Perfects and Supines.

§ $\mathbf{1 0 n}$. The following are regular in the perfect, but omit ; in the supine:

| censeo, assess, think | censui | censum (recenseo has also recenst tum) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dбceo, teach | ďcui | doctum |
| misceo, mix | miscui | mistum |
|  | tĕnu | mixtum |
| torreo, roast | torrui | tostum |

§ 101. Semimeponents (intransitive):
audeo, dare gaudeo, be glad sơleo, be wont
Deponents:
făteor, acknowuledge rĕor, think tuěor, look at, protect
ausus sum
gāvīsus sum
solitus sum
(The perf. is only found in compounds: tutätus sum is used for perf. of tueor in the sense of protect.)
N.B. Some of these verbs have another form belonging to the 3 rd conjugation; as, fervo, fulgo, tergo, strido. Cüeo has another form of the 4 th conj. cio.

## THIRD, OR CONSONANT CONJUGATION.

N.B. All the verbs (not compounds) of this conjugation that have any perfect or supine are here given.
§102. r. Perfect redoplicated:
(N.B. The compounds of these verbs rarely retain the reduplication; but the verbs with short penult. when compounded with r$\breve{e}$ (or rĕd) have the antepenult (of the perf. only) long; as, repulit, or reppulit, as if for repepulit):

| cădo, fall | cěcĭdi | cāsum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| čedo, fell, cut, slay | cěcīdi | cæsum |
| căno, sing, play (on a | cěcinn | (cantus, subst.) | harp, \&c.)

(The compounds concinno, occĭno, prcecino, have concinuó, concentum, \&c.; other compounds have no perf.)

```
    Classification of Perfects and Supines. }6
condo, put by, hide, condidi condltum
    build
crēdo, entrust,believe crēdY̌i crēdYtum
    (And other compounds of do. N.B. Accrēdo makes
            accrēd\check{dili.)}
curro, run cŭcurri cursum
    (Accurro sometimes has accucurri.)
disco, learn dYdǐci (so addisco, addidici)
fallo, deceive, elude fefelli falsum
păciscor, bargain pĕplgi pactum
    (Pango (§ 108) not used in this sense.)
parco, spare . pĕperci parsum
(perf. parsi is rarely found)
părio, get, bring forth pĕperi partum (but părü-
pello, push, drive back pĕpŭli pulsum
pendo, hang, trans. pěpendi pensum
posco, demand pơposci (so deposco, dep̆рposci)
pungo, prick pŭpŭgi punctum
    (But compounds have punxi.)
\begin{tabular}{lll} 
tango, touch & tětygi & tactum \\
teado, stretch, tend & tětendi & \{ tensum \\
tentum
\end{tabular}
(Ostendo, ostensum; but other compounds -tentum.)
tundo, thump tŭtŭdi \(\quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { tūsum } \\ \text { tunsuin }\end{array}\right.\)
```

§ 103. 2. Perfect with Root-vowel lengthened:

$$
\text { ăgo, do, drive } \quad \text { ēgi } \quad \text { actum }
$$

(So the compound cōgo, coēgi, coactum.)


* Such insertions as the $p$ in emptum, temptum, and their compounds, are perhaps the only real euphonic additions. The $p$ is naturally, but unintentionally, pronounced in passing from $n$ to $t$.

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| făcio, make, do | fēci | factum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fŏdio, dig | fōdi | fossum |
| frango, break in pieces | frēgi | fractum |
| fŭgio, flee, fly from | fūgi | fŭgĭtum |
| fundo, pourtr | fūdi | fūsum |
| jăcio, throw | jēci | jactum |
| lĕgo, pickup, choose, read lēgi | lectum |  |

(So the compounds generally, but for diligo, intelligo, neğ̆go, see § 108.)

| linquo, leave | līqui | (rělictum, from com- <br> pound relinquo) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| rumpo, burst, break | rūpi | ruptum |
| scǎbo, scratch | scābi |  |
| vinco, conquer | vīci | victum |

§ 104. Perfect in $i$ simple:
a. Verbs in $u 0$ (and $v o$ ):

| ăcǔo, sharpen | ăcui | ancūtum (for ăcŭ̆̆- <br> tum: and so the <br> others also) |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
| argǔo, chacrge (with <br> crimes, \&c.) | argui | (argūtus, adj. sharp) |

(So also other compounds of $n$ ŭo.)

| imbŭo, steep, imbue | imbui iun |
| :--- | :--- |
| lŭo, wash, expiate | imbūtum |

(Same word as lăvo of ist conj.; compounds have supine, ablūtum, \&c.)

| mětruo, fear | mětui |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| mınŭo, lessen | minnui | mYnūtum |
| plŭo, rain | \{plui <br> \{plüvi |  |
| rŭo, tumble, dash | rui | rı̌tum (butrun̆tünus) |
| solvo, loosen, pay | solvi | sǒlūtuon |
| spŭo, spit | spui | spūtura |

## Classification of Perfects and Supines. 69

| stătřo, set up, settle with oneself | stătui | stătūtum |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sternŭo, sneeze | sternui |  |
| sčo, sew | sui | sūtum |
| trưbǔo, assign, grant | trybui | trivūtum |
| volvo, roll | volvi | vơlūtum |

§ 105. b. Other Verbs:
accendo, light up accendi accensum
(So also the other compounds of cando.)

| bǐbo, drink | bǐbi |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cūdo, hammer | cūdi | cūsum |
| dêfendo, wardofi, guard dēfendi | dēfensum |  |

(So also offendo, strike against, from fendo (or fando?), strike.)

| dego, dwell | degi |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| findo, cleave | fidi | fissum |
| frendo, gnash the teeth |  | fressum |
| ico, strike (for the pres. | ici | ictum |
| ferio is generally used) |  |  |
| lambo, lick | lambi |  |
| mando, chew | mandi | mansum |
| pando, open | pandi | \{passum <br> pansum |
| percello, strile | perculi | perculsum |
| prěhendo, lay hold of | pre̛hendi | prěhensum |
| psallo, play on a stringed psalli instrument |  |  |
| scando, climb | scandi | scansum |
| scindo, tear, cut | sçdi | scissum |
| sido, settle (intrans.) | sidi (sēdi are mor | essum, from mon) |

(Strido, see strideo § 97.)

| sisto, set, stay | sty̌ti (rare) | stătum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| tollo, lift up | sustŭli | sublātum |

(N.B. tuli (for tĕtưli) and latum (properly tlātum) are taken by fero; so that tollo borrows sustŭli, sublatum, from its compound sustollo.)
vello, pull, pluck $\quad\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { velli } \\ \text { vulsi (rare) }\end{array} \quad\right.$ vulsum

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| verro, brush | verri | versum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| verto, turn | verti | versum |

(Devertor, put up (at an inn), revertor, return, have usually active perf.: prævertor, attend to first, is deponent, but præverto, be beforehand with, act. trans.)
viso, visit vīsi
$\$ 106.3$. Perfect with $u i$ or $v i$ added.
a. With $u i$ added.

| ălo, nourish | ălui | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { ylľtum } \\ \text { altum } \end{array}\right.$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| colo, till, pay attention to | corlui |  |
| compesco, restrain | compescui | (so dispesco) |
| concYno, sing in concert | concYnui | concentum |
| (So other compounds of сӑno.) |  |  |
| consŭlo consult | constului | consultum |
| cumbo, lie | cŭbui | cŭbıtum |
| (Only in compounds, cf. cubo, § 94.) |  |  |
| depso, knead | depsui | depstum |
| elycio, lure forth | èlicui | ellicitum |
| (For allicio see § 108.) |  |  |
| excello, excel | excellui | (hence excelsus) |
| frěmo, roar, chafe at | frěmui | fremitum |
| gĕmo, sigh, groan | gěmui | gěmYtum |
| gigno, beget, produce | gěnui | genytum |
| mêto, mow | messui | messum |
| molo, grind | mơlui | mǒlytum |
| necto, link together. | \{nexui | nexum |
|  | (nexi |  |
| occŭlo, conceal | occŭlui | occultum |
| pinso, pound | \{pinsui | pinsitum |
| pinso, pound | (pinsi | pinsum |
| pōno, place | pờsui | pŏsitum |
| răpio, snatch, hurry away, trans. | răpui | raptum |
| sěro, put in rows | sěrui | sertum |
| (This perfect and supine only in compounds.) |  |  |
| sterto, snore | stertui |  |
| strěpo, make a din | strepui | strěpitum |
| texo, weave | texui | textum |

```
    Classification of Perfects and Supines. 71
trĕmo, tremble trĕmui
volo, wish volui
    (And so compounds of volo; as, māto, nōlo.)
vormo, vomit vŏmui vơmitum
```

§ 107. $b$. With $v i$ (some with $\bar{i} v i$ ) added.

| accerso, \} fetch, send for | ersivi | accersitum |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| arcesso, $)$, |  | arcessitum |
| căpesso, undertake | căpessivi | capessitum |
| cerno, sift, distinguish, | crēvi | crētum (hence adj |

(N.B. The meaning see is not given to perfect or supine.)

| cresco, grow | crēvi | crētum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cŭpio, desire | cưpīvi | cŭpītum |
| făcesso, cause | făcessivi | făcessitum |
| incesso, attack | incessivi |  |
| lăcesso, provoke | lăcêssivi | lăcessītum |
| luno, smear | \{livi | lĭtum |
| nosco, get to know | nōvi | nōtum |

(Agnosco, cognosco have agnătum, cognĕtum; ignosec has ignōtum.)

| pasco, feed (cattle), tranc. | pāvi | pastum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| peto, seek, aim at | pêtīvi | pětitum |
| quæro, seek, inquire | quæsīvi | quæsituın |

(Quæso, prythee, quæsumus, i.e. ust sing. and pilur. of pres. ind. are also found.)

| quiesco, rest | quiēvi |
| :--- | :--- |
| rŭdo, roar, bray | rŭdīvi (rare) | quiētum


| scisco, enact | seīvi | scītum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sěro, sow, plant | sēvi | sătum (hence siltus, |
| syno*, leave, suffer | sīvi | siltunı (hen |
|  |  | situated) |

- Sino in subj. pres. makes sītim, siris, sirit, sirint. Its compound, desino, makes in perf. \&c. ind. desīvi, desisti, desiit, desieram, \&c. Pres. sub. desierim.

\section*{72 Classification of Perfects and Supines. <br> | sperno, reject, despise | sprē̄vi | sprētum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sterno, throw on the | strāvi | strātum |
| ground, cover |  |  |
| suesco, accustom oneselff | suē̄̄ | suētum |
| têro, rub | trīvi | trītum |}

§ 108 . 4. Perfect with $8 i(x i=c s i)$ added.
affiggo (trans.), strike affixi afflictum against, prostrate
(And other compounds of figo, except prōfligo, which is of ist conj.)
allicio, entice allexi allectum
(But for ētrcio, see § 106.)

| ango, throttle, vex | anxi | anctum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| carpo, crop, pluck | carpsi | carptum |
| cedo, go, yield | cessi | cessum |
| cingo, gird | cinxi | cinctum |
| claudo, shut | clausi | clausum | cōmo, put together, dress compsi comptum

(So the other compounds of eैmo (originally take), § 103, viz. dēmo, prōmo, sūmo.)
conspľcio, behold conspexi conspectum
(So other compounds of specio.)

| č̌quo, $000 \%$ | coxi | coctum |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dico, say | dixi | dictum |
| dilligo, love | dālexi | dīlectum |
| (So also intellygo, understond, and neglugo, leave behind.) |  |  |
| dīv̌do, divide | dīvīsi | dīvisum |
| dūco, lead, account | duxi | ductum |
| emungo, wipe the nose | èmunxi | èmunctum |
| $\overline{\mathrm{e}} \overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{do}$, go out | ēvāsi | ēvāsum |
| (And other compounds of vado.) |  |  |
| fëro, bring | (festam, (?) compare infestus, manifestus: for perf. see tollo, \& 105.) |  |
| figo, fix | fixi | fixum |
| fingo, form, inveni | finxi | fictum |
| flecto, bend | flexi | flexuma |

## Classification of Perfects and Supines. 73

| fluo, flow | fluxi | (fluxus, adj. loose, |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| frīgo, roast (corn, \&c.) | frixi | fluctus, subst. wave) frictum |
| fulgo, see fulgeo, § 99 . |  |  |
| gĕro, carry, perform | gessi | gestum |
| glūbo, peel . | glupsi | gluptum |
| jungo, yoke, join | junxi | junctum |
| læedo, hurt | læsi | lesum |
| lūdo, sport | lūsi | lūsum |
| lingo, lick | linxi | linetum |
| mergo, sink | mersi | mersum |
| mitto, send | mīsi | missum |
| ningo, snow | ninxi |  |
| nūbo, put on a veil (as a bride) | nupsi | nuptum |
| pango, fasten | $\left\{\begin{array}{l} \text { panxi } \\ \text { peggi } \end{array}\right.$ | panctum <br> pactum |
| (In sense of make agreements, păciscor, §102, is generally used.) |  |  |
| pecto, comb | \{pexi \{pexui | pexum |
| plecto, plait |  | part. plexus |
| pingo, paint | pinxi | pictum |
| plango, beat (esp. the breast) | planxi | planctum |
| plando, clap the hands | plausi | plausum |
| prëmo, press | pressi | pressum |
| quătio, shake | (quassi not used) | quassum |
| (So its compounds, e.g. concutio, concussi, concussum, \&c.) |  |  |
| rādo, scrape | räsi | rāsum |
| rego, rule | rexi | rectum |
| rēpo, creep | repsi |  |
| rōdo, gnaw | rōsi | rōsum |
| scalpo, scrape | scalpsi | scalptum |
| scribo, write | scripsi | scriptum |
| sculpo, carve in stone | sculpsi | sculptum |
| serpo, crawl | serpsi | serptum |
| spargo, scatter, besprinkle | sparsi | sparsum |
| stinguo, exstinguis $h$ | stinxi | stinctum |
| (Compounds chiefly used.) |  |  |
| stringo, strip, graze, draw tight | strinxi | strictum |

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| struo, heap up, build | struxi | structum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sūgo, suck | suxi | suctum |
| těgo, cover | texi | tectum |
| temno, despise | tempsi | temptum |
| tergo, see tergeo, § 99. |  |  |
| tingo, dip, dye | tinxi | tinctum |
| trăho, draw | traxi | tractum |
| trūdo, thrust | trūsi | trūsum |
| v̌̆ho, carry | vexi | vectum |
| vīo, live | vixi | victum |
| ungo, anoint | unxi | unctum |
| ūro, burn | ussi | ustum |

§ 109. There are a great many verbs of this conjugation which end in sco, called inchoatives, because they express the beginning of an action; the perfect of course does not contain this addition. This strengthened form of the present has often superseded the regular form (of the and conj.) in eo. Thus: horresco, I begin to shudder; horrui, I shuddered. Most have no supine, many no perfect.
§ Il0. SEMDDEPONENT:
fido, trust fisus sum
Defonents:

```
adYpiscor, get for oneself, ădeptus sum
    obtain
    (From ăpiscor, to fasten to oneself, hence aptus, fitted.)
amplector, twine oneself amplexus
    round, embrace
comminiscor, devise commentus
defĕtiscor, grow weary defessus
    (From fătisco, fătiscor (rare), gape, droop; hence fessus,
        wearied.)
expergiscor, avake one- experrectus
    self
frŭor, enjoy \(\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { fructus } \\ \text { fruitus }\end{array}\right.\)
fungor, discharge (an functus
    office, \&c.)
grädror, step
    gressus
irascor, grow angry irātus
    (iratus sum, I am angry; succensui I grew augry.)
```


# Classification of Perfects and Supines. 

lābor, slip, glide
liquor, melt away
lơquor, spealc
morior, die
nanciscor, obtain
nascor, be born
nītor, rest oneself on
strain (intr.)
lapsus
liquor, melt away liquéfactus lơquor, speak mơrior, die
locūtus
mortuus $\quad$ See § 82 .
nactus
nätus
nascor, be born strain (intr.)

Snisus
(Originally gnitor, lneel, from gĕnu, knee.)

| obliviscor, forget | oblitus | See § 82. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pătior, suffer | passus |  |
| prŏflciscor, set out | profectus |  |
| quĕror, complain | questus |  |
| sěquor, follow | sěcūtus |  |
| ulciscor, avenge oneself on, avenge | ultus |  |
| Titor, use | ussus |  |

## FOURTH CONJUGATION.

Regular perfect in $\bar{\imath}-v i$. Regular supine in $\bar{\imath}-t u m$.
§ lll. 1. Perfect Redoplioated:
None.
2. Perfect, with Root-vowel lengthened:
věnio, come vēni ventum
§112. Perfect in $i$ stmple:

| compĕrio, discover | comp̌̌ri | compertum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| rĕpěrio, find | reppěrí | répertum |

§ 113. 3. Perfect with ui added:

| ăpërio, open | ăpěrui | ăpertum |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| (From ab, părio, and so means get off: so ðpěrio for ob perio, \&c.) |  |  |
| ðpěrio, cover | ðpěrui | ¢pertum |
| sălio, leap | $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { sălui } \\ \text { salii }\end{array}\right.$ | saltum |

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§ 114. 4. Perfect with si $(x i=c s i)$ added:

| ămicio, clothe |  | axmictum |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| farcio, stuff | farsi | fartum |
| fulcio, prop | fulsi | fultum |
| haurio, drain, draw | hausi | haustum |
| (water) . | (fut. par | urus and |
| swpio, hedge in | sæpsi | sæptum |
| sancio, hallow, ordain | sanxi | sanctum cīvi, |
| sarcio, patch | sarsi | sartum |
| sentio, feel, think | sensi- | sensum |
| vincio, bind | vinxi | vinctum |

§ 115. Irregolar in Supine :

| eo, go | īvi | Y̌tum |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| cio, stir up | civi | č̌tum |

(But accitus and sometimes excitus, see § 98.)
sěpĕlio, bury sępĕlīvi sĕpultum
§ 116. Deponents:
expərior, try mētior, measure oppèrior, wait for ordior, commence
expertus sum
mensus
oppertus
orsus

## PROSODY.

§ 117. Prosody is that part of Grammar which treats of the Quantity of Syllables.

If the voice dwells upon a syllable in pronouncing it, it is called a long syllable: if it passes rapidly over it, it is called a short syllable.

Long syllables are marked by a straight line over the vowel: thus, aùd $\bar{d}$.

Short syllables are marked by a curved line over the vowel: thus, rěgĕ.

Two short syllables are considered to occupy the same time as one long syllable.

A syllable is long or short, (1) on account of the position of its vowel; (2) or because it contains a vowel naturally long or short.
§118. I. Quantity of vowels by position.

1. A syllable containing a vowel immediately followed by two consonants*, or by $x, z$, or $j$ is long ; as, regēnt, strīx, májor.

## Except

If the two consonants so following a vowel be, the first a mute ( $p, b, c, g, t, f$ ), the second $r$ or $l$; in this case a syllable containing a vowel naturally short may either remain short or be lengthened; as, pā̆tris.
(N.B. In prose these are pronounced as short syllables.)

But this does not hold if the combination of mute and liquid be due to composition only; as, sübruo (not sǔbruo).

In the compounds of jugum $j$ does not lengthen the preceding vowel, as břjŭgus.
§ 119. 2. A syllable containing a vowel (or diphthong) immediately followed by another vowel, or by $h$ and a vowel, is short; as, vŭa, prěustus.

* $h$ is not reckoned a consonant in Prosody.


## Except

(a) In the genitives of pronouns, \&c. in -ius; as, illùus, where $i$ is common (but in alterius always short; in al̄̄us (gen. case) always long).
(b) The genitive of the 5th declension in $i \bar{e} i$; as, dū̆̄̄̄̄ (but rěi, spĕi).
(c) The old genitive of the lst declension in $\bar{a} i$; as, aulā̀.
(d) In all the cases of proper names ending in ius; as, Са̄̆̆йs, Pompē̄̆йиs.
(e) In $f \bar{\imath} o$ (except before er; as, fŭĕri).
§ 120. II. Quantity of vowels by nature, not in the rabt SYLLABLE OF A WORD.

1. All diphthongs are long (except before another vowel); as, aūurum.
2. All vowels which have originated from contraction are long; as, cōgo for cŏ-ăgo, mömentum for mŏvĭmentum, tibūcen for tibŭur-cen.
3. The quantity of the radical syllables of a word are generally preserved in composition or derivation, even when the vowel is changed; as, mäter, mäternus; cădo, incŭdo; cäedo, inc̄̄do; ămo, व̆mor, ămīcus, inйm̄̄cus.
4. Reduplicated perfects have the first syllable short; as, mŏmordi.
5. Dissyllabic perfects and supines have the penult long.

Except
(a) Perfects, $b \grave{b} b i$, $d e \check{d} d i, f \check{\imath} d i$,

(b) Supines, dătum, $̌$ čtum, ľ̌tum, cĭtum, rătum, rŭtum, sătum, stătum*, š̌tum.

[^1]6. The 3rd pers. plur. of the perf. act. in erunt has the penult short sometimes in poetry; as, stetërunt.

For the quantity of other vowels no rule can be given : they must be learnt from the dictionary.
§121. III. Quantity of vowels by nature, in the last syllable of a word.
(A) Monosyllables are long.

Except
(a) The enclitics quĕ, nĕ, vĕ.
(b) Words ending with $b, d, t$.
(c) $\breve{e} s$ (from sum), făc, lŭc, nĕc, fĕl, mĕl, $\breve{a} n$, , $\mathrm{\imath} n, f \breve{c} r$,
 The pronoun $h \overline{\breve{c}} c$ is common.
§122. (B) In polysyllables, being true Latin words*

1. $a$ and $e$ final are short.

* Greek words retain their proper quantity in Latin. Of these the most noticeable deviations from the above rules are exemplified by the following words. See also the declensions, App. A.
I. I. Těcmessa, Dăphne, Cy̆cuus.

2. $\bar{a}$ ëra (acc. sing.), herōas, Ænēas.
III. B. I. REnē̆ (voc.), Tempē (neut. pl.), crambē (fem. sing.).
3. Parl (voc.).
4. Aneān (acc.), Sirīn, Epigrammatōn (gen.). aēr, æthēr, cratē.
5. Lliăs, craterăs (acc.).

Arcad s s, craterĕs.
5. Simoĩs, Eleusis.

Delbs, Erinnyŏs (gen.). Sapphūs (gen.), Panthū̀s.
Also $y$ and $y s$ are short, as moly̆, Coty̆s.
§ 123. Except $a$ in
(a) Abl. sing. of 1st declension; as, musā.
(b) Imperative of verbs of 1st conjugation; as, amā.
(c) Indeclinable words; as, intrā, quadragintā; but $p u t a ̆, i t a ̆, q u i \breve{a}, ~ e j a ̆ . ~$
§ 124. Except $e$ in
(a) Abl. sing. of 5th declension; as, faciē; so also hŏdiè.
(b) Imperative of 2nd conjugation; as, monē.
(c) Adverbs from adjectives in $u s, a, u m$; as, doctē, to which add fĕerē, fermè; but benĕ, malĕ, infernĕ, supernĕ (mactĕ, § 62).
§ 125. 2. $i, o, u$ final are long.
§ 126. Except $i$ in
$m i h \bar{\imath}, t i b \bar{\imath}, s i b \bar{\imath}, u b \bar{\imath}, i b \bar{\imath}$, in which $i$ is common, and quव̆sŭ, nŭs̆̆.
§ 127. Except $o$ in
citŏ, immŏ, modŏ (and compounds), duŏ, octŏ, egŏ, céd $d$ (§ 89).
§ 12s. 3. Final syllables ending in any other single consonant than $s$ are short.

But the final syllable is long in
(a) all cases of illic, istic, except the nom. masc.
(b) all compounds of $p \bar{a} r$, as dispūr.
(c) $\bar{u} \bar{u} t$, petī̀zt, and their compounds. (So Lachmann.)
§ 129. 4. Of the final syllables in $s$, $\bar{a} s, \bar{e} s, \bar{o} s$, are long.
§ 130. Except
(a) ăn̆̆s, compŏs, impйs, pěnĕs.
(b) nom. sing. in ĕs of nouns of 3rd declension, which have $\breve{e} t i s$, , $\mathrm{t} t i s, \breve{a} d i s$, in genitive, as sĕgĕs, mūlĕs, obsěs: but pariès, abiēs, arī̄es.
(c) compounds of es (from sum), as ab厄̌s.
§ 131. 5. $\quad \stackrel{t}{s}$ and $\check{u} s$ are short.
Except $\bar{z} s$ in
(a) dat. and abl. plural, as mensīs, nobiss; so grat̄ $\bar{\imath} s$, forìs. (Also $\bar{\imath} s$ for $\bar{e} s$ or eis, § 30.)
(b) 2nd pers. sing. pres. ind. of 4th conj. audts: also possīs and other compounds of $s \bar{\imath} s$, vel $\bar{\imath} s$, nolīs, mat̄s.
(c) in 2nd pers. sing. of perf. subj. and compl. fut. in which $\overline{\bar{\imath}} s$ is common.
(d) Samn̄̄s, Quirı̄s.
§132. Except $\imath \bar{\iota} s$ in
(a) gen. sing. and nom. and acc. plu. of 4th declension.
(b) nom. of 3 rd declension, when genitive singular has long penultimate, as tellicts, telluiris.
§133. IV. In verse notice is taken of the way in which the last syllable of a word is affected by the following word.

1. A final vowel (or diphthong), or a final sylable in $m$, is omitted in pronunciation if the mext word commence with a vowel (or diphthong), or with $h$.

Thus vita est, vive hodie, monstrum ingens, are read (in verse) vit-est, viv-hodie, monstr-ingens.

A long vowel or diphthong is rarely shortened instead of being elided, as

Insŭlü̆ Īoňo. Virg. An. iii. 21 I.
§ 134. 2. A final syllable ending in a consonant is always long, if the next word begin with a consonant, as regit R. $G$.
nentos: here it though naturally short is lengthened by its position if the words occur in verse.
3. A final syllable ending in a vowel is generally lengthened if the next word begin with $s c, s p, s q$, st, or $x$.
N.B. These rules hold only when the words are in the same line or verse.
§ 135. A foot is a particular number and order of long and short syllables:

Spondee is two long syllables; as, mūsās.
Dactyl is one long followed by two short ; as, peectorrĕ.
Anapcest is two short followed by one long ; as, těnĕrōs.
lambus is one short followed by one long; as, rĕgūnt.
Trochee is one long followed by one short; as, leggě.
Pyrrhich is two short syllables; as, rĕgě.
Tribrach is three short syllables; as, rĕlĕgě.
§ 136. An Hexameter line is a verse containing six feet, of which the first four may be either dactyls or spondees: the fifth must be a dactyl, and the sixth must be a spondee or trochee.

In some few verses we find a spondee for the fifth foot. If this be the case the fourth foot is generally a dactyl.

A Pentameter line is a verse containing two parts (called Penthemimers), of which the first contains two feet, either dactyls or spondees, followed by a long syllable: and the second contains two feet which must both be dactyls, followed by a syllable either long or short (rarely ending with a short vowel).
§ 3 37. Heroic metre consists entirely of Hexameter verses, in which the sentences are continued, irrespectively of the division into verses.

Elegiac metre consists of hexameter and pentameter lines alternately: and the sentence is rarely (in Ovid at least) carried on from a pentameter to the following lines.

Heroic metre is like the following:
Armă vǐ|rūmquě că|nō, Trō|jæ quī | prīmŭs ăb \| ōrīs Ītălǐæ fā|tō prơfŭ|gūs Lā|vīnăquě | vênǐt
 $\& c$.

## Elegiac metre :

Nūllŭs ăn|hēlā|bāt sŭb ădiūncō | vōmĕrě | taūrŭs:
nūllă sŭb | ìmpěrì|ō || tērră cöllēntǐs e̛răat:
nūllŭs ăd|hūc crrăt | ūsŭs ě|quī: se | quīsquĕ fěrē̄băt:

$\& c$.

## SYNTAX, or

## USE OF INFLEXIONAL FORMS.

§ 138. Syntax teaches the right use of the different parts of speech (i.e. classes of words), and of their different inflexions.
§ 139. Words may be divided into three classes:
I. Words which name.
II. Words which declare (or predicate).
III. Words which connect.
§ 140. I. Words which name.

1. Substantives name persons and things and abstract notions.
(a) Personal Pronouns (in Latin) are names to denote the person speaking and the person spoken to. Ex. I, thou.
(b) Proper nouns are names of individual persons or places. Ex. John, Rome.
(c) Common nouns are names of classes of persons or things. Ex. conqueror, table.
(d) Abstract nouns are names of qualities, actions, and states, considered apart from the persons or things possessing or performing them. Ex. greatness, health, departure.
(e) Infinitive mood of verbs and gerunds are verbs used as substantives.
2. Adjectives name relations and qualities considered as inhering in persons and things. They are used as attributes to substantives.
(a) Pronominal adjectives are names of relations, chiefly derived from local nearness to the person speaking, spoken to, or spoken of. They are often used instead of nouns. Ex. mine, this, that, which.
(b) Noun adjectives are names of qualities in general. Ex. great, healthy.
(c) Participles (including gerundive) are verbs with adjective inflexions.
3. Adverbs name relations and qualities considered as qualifying qualities and actions. They are used as attributes to verbs and adjectives (and other adverbs).
(a) Pronominal adverbs. Ex. here, then.
(b) Prepositions. Especially used to give precision to the cases of nouns. Ex. in, out, of.
(c) Nominal adverbs (of quality and manner). Ex. well, brightly.
II. Words which declare.

Finite Verbs (viz. in indicative, subjunctive and imperative moods). Ex. say,do.
III. Words which connect.

Conjunctions (are those adverbs which) connect names with names, assertions with assertions, or sentences with sentences. Ex. Henry and I walk and talk together. I am going, but he is coming.
§ 141. To these three classes may be added
Interjections; which are either natural vocal sounds, expressive of sudden emotions, or abbreviated sentences. Ex. oh! mercy!

Parts of a Simple Sentence and tse of the Parts of Speech.
§ 142. When we speak we (A) either name a person or thing,
(B) or we declare something of a person or thing.
(A) The name of a person or thing is expressed by a substantive (pronoun or noun).
(B) A complete thought always contains more than the name, for it declares something of the person or thing named. Every complete thought (called in Grammar a sentence) contains at least two ideas, viz.

1. The person or thing of which we speak, called the Subject.
2. Our declaration respecting it, called the Predicate.
§ 143. The subject (strictly speaking) is always a substantive in the nominative case, or something used as such.

The predicate (strictly speaking) is always a finite verb*.
Thus in the sentence, equus currit, the horse runs, equus, horse, is the subject ; currit, runs, is the predicate.
§ 144. (A) If a single substantive does not name or define a person or thing sufficiently, additions are made to it, and these are either adjectives or of the nature of adjectives. They are called attributes, or sometimes epithets.

* If authority be needed for the omission of the copula in grammar, I may refer to Madvig, Lat. Gr. § 209 b , Obs. 1. It is convenient sometimes to divide the whole of a sentence into two parts only: in this view the grammatical subject with all its attributes \&c. is the (logical) subject: the rest of the sentence is the (logical) predicate.

The principal kinds of simple attributes are
(a) Adjectives. Ex. Equans albus, White horse.
(b) Other substantives used in apposition, i. e. as additional names of the same person or thing. Ex. Equus albus Victor, The white horse Conqueror.
(c) Genitive case of substantives. Ex. Coesaris equus albus, Ccesar's white horse.
(B) If a single verb does not express all that we wish to declare of a person or thing, additions are made of various kinds, viz.:
(a) If the verb express an action upon some person or thing, a substantive in the accusative case is added to denote the person or thing acted on. This is called the object (or direct or immediate object). Ex. Cæsar ferit equum, Ceesar strikes the horse.
(b) If the verb express an action or fact indirectly or remotely affecting a person or thing, a substantive (in the dative case in Latin) is added to express such an indirect (or remote) object. Intransitive verbs have this indirect object only: many transitive verbs have both a direct and an indirect object; this direct object being generally a thing, the indirect object being generally a person. Ex. Vulnus nocet puero, The wound hurts (is hurtful for) the boy; Puer dat librum fratri, The boy gives the book to his brother.
(c) If the verb express boing or state, a noun is often added (and sometimes when it expresses action) to complete its meaning. Ex. Canis est rabidus, The dog is mad. The verb est expresses that the dog is in some state or other; rabidus expresses what that state is. So Canis manet rabidus, Canis vocatur rabidus, The dog remains, is called, mad. This construction is very common with verbs in the passive voice. The noun is called the secondary predicate.
N.B. In Latin, when there is a secondary predicate, the primary predicate, if it be some part of the verb sum
(especially if in the indicative mood), is often omitted. If a sentence be short and have no verb exprest, the word est or sunt is frequently the right word to supply.
(d) Actions or states of being may be further qualified by adding the place, time, manner, cause, \&c., at, in, or by which the action is done, or the state exists. These are most simply exprest by oblique cases of nouns (with or without prepositions) or by adverbs.

Ex. Cæsar ferit caput gladio, Coesar strikes the head with a sword.
Cicero habitabat ibi, Cicero was duelling there.
Sextâ horâ Julius moritur placide, At the sixth hour Julius dies calmly.
§ 145. Sometimes an infinitive mood or noun (adjective or substantive) is added to an oblique case, especially the object, not as a part of its name but to convey an assertion respecting it. This is called an oblique predicate, and the object is, with reference to this predicate, called its subject.

Ex. Fabius consul Papiriun inimicum suum dixit tacitus dictatorem, The consul Fabius nominated in silence Papirius his enemy dictator. Here consul is an epithet of Fabius forming part of his name: dixit is the (primary) predicate: tacitus is the secondary predicate: inimicum suum is an epithet of Papirium: Papirium is object of dixit, and subject to dictatorem : dictatorem is an oblique predicate of Papirium.

Sub Hasdrubale imperatore militavit, He served under Hasdrubal as commander.
Jubet Cicero Rullum tacere, Cicero bids Rullus be silent.
So Hoc primum Cæsar fecit, This was the first thing Ccesar did.
Hoc primus Cæsar fecit, Cusar was the first person to do this.
(But Primo hoc Cæsar fecit, In the first place [i.e. firstly] Ceesar did this.)
See also the examples in $\$ \S \mathrm{r}_{5} 5,156$.
§ 146. Thus a (primary) predicate is always a finite verb: a secondary predicate is a substantive or adjective used predicatively of the subject of the sentence: an oblique predicate is a substantive, adjective, or infinitive mood used predicatively of some substantive, which is in an oblique case.
§ I47. Besides their use to qualify verbs, adverbs and oblique cases of nouns with or without prepositions are used also to qualify adjectives, and oblique cases with prepositions sometimes qualify substantives*.

Ex. Valde utilis, Very useful. Utilis ad hoc, Useful for this purpose. Tuum in me odium, Your hatred towards me. Plus (or plusquam) trecenti cadunt, More than three hundred men fall.
§ 148. Conjunctions unite those words only which occupy the same part of the sentence. (See also $\$ \S 212,260$.)

Ex. Romani ac socii veniunt, The Romans and allies come.
Nec regem nec reginam ea res delectavit, That thing pleased neither the king nor queen.
Sunt multæ et graves causæ, There are many (and) weighty reasons.
Cui potius credam quam tibi? Whom should I believe rather than you?
Bella fortius quam felicius geris, You carry on wars more bravely than (more) happily.

* N.B. A substantive in an oblique case (except the genitive) with or without a preposition, generally qualifies a verb or participle. If intended to qualify a substantive it should be placed close to the substantive and away from the verb, or between the substantive and its attribute. Thus Tuum in me odium (above). Exemplum Cæsaris ad te litterarum, A copy of Casar's letter to you. So Syracusas in Siciliầ ivit would mean He journeying in Sicily went to Syracuse (in Sicilià belonging to ivit); not He went to Syracuse in Sicily, which would be in Latin, In Siciliam Syracusas ivit, He went into Sicily to Syracuse, or, Syracusas in Siciliâ sitas ivit, He went to Syracuse (which is) situated in Sicily.


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Use of Inflextons of Person and Gender.
§ 149. As the finite verb has inflexions to denote differences of number and person, it must be put in the same person and number as its subject.

## Ex. Equus currit, The horse runs. <br> Equi currunt, The horses run. <br> Nos amamus, We love. <br> I'u regis, Thou rulest.

§ 150. The subject, especially if a substantive pronoun, is, although exprest in English, frequently omitted in Latim wherever there is no risk of mistake. Thus the pronouns of the first and second persons are usually omitted, the form of the verb being sufficient to indicate them; and the third person of the verb naturally refers to the subject last mentioned, unless a new subject be exprest, or the person and number of the verb be different. Thus curro, curris, currimus, curritis refer to the speaker and person spoken to.

Ex. Rullus andit: currit ad urbem: jubet servos sequi, Rullisk hears: runs to the city: orders his slaves to follow. Here Rullus is subject to currit and jubet.
§ 151. Certain verbs (libet, piget, pudet, poenitet, tcedet) expressive of the existence of personal feelings are used in Latin in the third person sing. only, and sometimes without any definite subject exprest. They are called impersonal verbs. (See $\S 90$. )

Ex. Miseret me aliorum, Pity seizes me for others.
For a similar use of the passive voice see $\S 25^{8,3}$. Other verbs, as oportet, convenit, expedit, \&c., also called impersonals, have usually a sentence or infinitive mood for subject: all occasionally have a neuter pronoun (quod or $h o c$ ) appareutly for subject.
§ 152. When two or more subjects of different persons have the same predicate, the verb is put in the first person, if any one of the subjects be in the first person; if not, in

Use of Infexions of Person and Gender. 91
the second, if any one of the subjects be in the second person.

Ex. Ego et Tullia valemus, $I$ and Tullia are well. Tu et Tullia valetis, Thou and Tullia aro well. Hæс neque ego neque tu fecimus, Neither I nor thou have done this.
§ 153. Nouns in the singular number, but denoting a multitude of persons, sometimes have the verb in the singular, sometimes in the plural.

Ex. Pars abiit, A part has left.
or Pars abierunt, A part have left.
§ 154. So we frequently have the plural in expressions like the following:

Alius alium vulnerant, They wound (one one man), another another.
Suam quisque domum incendunt, They set on fire each his own home.
§ 155. As the adjective has inflexions to denote differences of number, gender, and case, it must agree in all these respects with the substantive when used as epithet, and with its subject when used as secondary or oblique predicate.
(a) As epithet.

Ex. Terra dura, Hard land.
Terre duræ, Of hard land.
(b) As secondary or oblique predicate.

Ex. Terra manet dura, The land remains hard. Ego sum timidus (if the speaker be a mau), Ego sum timida (if the speaker be a woman), I am timid.
Scit mulierem esse timidam, He knows the woman to be timid.

Reddit Cæsarem felicem, He makes Ccesar happy.
§ 156. As the substantive has inflexions to denote differences of number and case, it must agree in these respects with the principal substantive when used as epithet (i.e. in apposition), and with its subject, when used as secondary or oblique predicate.
(a) As epithet:

Ex. Urbs Roma, The city Rome, or (as we say), The city of Rome.
Urbis Romæ, Of the city Rome.
(b) As secondary or oblique predicate:

Ex. Hæec urbs est Roma, This city is Rome.
Asia Scipioni provincia obtigit, Asia fell to Scipio as his province.
Cæsar factus est imperator, Ccesar was made general.
Scio Cæsarem esse factum imperatorem, Iknow that Casar was made general.
Puero datur nomen Egerio, To the boy is given the name Egerius.
Te judicem æquum puto, I think you a fair judge.
§157. This use of substantives, to add a further description, whether as epithet or secondary (or oblique) predicate, is not confined to the additions of a single expression only.

Ex. In tribunali Q. Pompeii, pretoris urbani, familiaris nostri, sedebamus. We were sitting on the bench (in the court) of Q. Pompeius, the city prector, our friend.
Quattuor liberos habuit, tres filios, filiam unam. He had four children, three sons and one daughter.
§158. Relative adjectives (qui, qualis, quantus, \&c.)
agree with the word to which they refer (called their antecedent) in number and gender, but are put in the case required by their own sentence.

Ex. Terra in quâ vivimus fertilis est, The land in which we live is fertile.
Divitiæ quantas habebat perditæ sunt, All the wealth he possessed was lost (lit. The wealth, as much as he was possessing, was lost).
§ 159. Adjectives are frequently used without the substantive which they qualify being exprest. In this case there is often some word in the passage to which they naturally refer; if not, if the adjective be of the masculine gender, persons are usually meant ; if of the neuter gender, things are meant.

Ex. Ipsorum linguâ Keltæ, nostrâ Galli appellantur, In their own language they are called Kelts, in our (language) Gauls.
Docti censent, The learned are of opinion (i.e. learned persons).
Suavia delectant, Sweets delight (i.e. sweet things).
Imperatum facit, He executes the command.
Qui hoc censent errant, Persons who are of this opinion err.
Quæe imperata sunt facit, $H e$ does the things which were ordered.
A primo, from the first: In perpetuum, for ever.
§ 160. Many adjectives being specially applicable to particular substantives are used without them and pass as substantives.

Ex. Dextra, The right, i.e. Dextra manus, The right hand.
Cāni (i.e. capilli), White hairs. Cumānum (i. e. prædium), A villa (or estate) at Cumce.
§ 161. If an adjective qualifies two or more substantives of different genders, it is made to agree with the nearest to itself in the sentence: but if they are spoken of

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distinctly as persons, the masculine gender is used; if distinctly as things, the neuter gender is used.

Ex. $\begin{aligned} & \text { Omnes agri et maria) } \\ & \text { Agri et maria omnia }\end{aligned}$, All the felds and seas.
Uxor mea et filius mortui sunt, My wife and son are dead.
Honores, imperia, victoriæ fortuita sunt, Honours, commands, victories are chance things.
§ 162. Both an adjective used as secondary or oblique predicate and a relative adjective may be considered as really agreeing with a substantive understood, which substantive is the real secondary or obligue predicate, and to which the adjective or relative is an epithet. The substantive understood is usually the subject of the predicative adjective, or the antecedent of the relative; but sometimes the sense admits of another substantive being understood; in that way we frequently find the adjective and relative in the neuter singular.

Ex. Triste lupus stabulis, $A$ wolf is a sad (thing) for the folds.
Pars militum sunt cæsi, A part of the soldiers are slain (men).
Lupus quod est sævum animal (i.e. quod animal est sævam animal) appropinquat, The wolf which is a savage animal approaches.
§ 163. This substantive is sometimes exprest twice; sometimes only with the relative or as secondary (or oblique) predicate.

Ex. Erant omnino itinera duo quibus itineribus domo exire possent, There were only two roads by which (roads) they could march from home. For the subjunctive posseint, see $\$ 235$. 10.
Hæc est vera via, This (way) is the true vay.
Interfecit quos milites invenit, He killed what soldiers he found (He lilled the soldiers which soldiers he found).
§ 164. An infinitive mood, or a sentence when used in place of a substantive, is considered as of the neuter gender.

Ex. Dulce est pro patriâ mori, It is sweet to die for one's country. (Pro patria mori is subject to est.)
Via prima salutis, quod minime reris, Graiâ pandetur ab urbe, The first way of safty will, what you least expect, be opened by (or from) a Graian city. (The antecedent of quod is the whole of the principal sentence.)

## Use of Inflextons of Case.

§ 165. The cases are chiefly used as follows: (originally they probably denote relations of space or place):

Nominative expresses name of person addressed or subject of sentence.

Accusative expresses (direct) object.
Dative expresses indirect object.
Ablative expresses adverbial additions of place, time, manner, circumstances, \&c.

Genitive expresses adjectival addition or the object after adjectives and substantives.
\$166. Nominative.

1. Name of the person (or thing) spoken to. (This is often called the Vocative case.)

Ex. Musa veni, Come, O Muse.
N.B. In nouns of the second declension ending in $u s$ a shorter form is used, see § 21 .
§ 167. 2. Name of person or thing spoken about; i.e. the subject of the sentence when the predicate is a finite verb.

Ex. Cæsar loquitur, Ccesar speaks.
Vos dicite, Say ye.
Hence frequently as secondary predicate when the predicate is a finite verb. See $\$ \S 155,156$.
§168. Accusative.

1. Object of Verb (or, rarely, of verbal substantives, cf. § 256).
(a) Place towards which.
N.B. In prose the preposition $a d$ is generally prefixed, except before the names of towns and islands small enough to be considered as one place,

Ex. Venit Romam, He comes to Rome.
Domum reditio, $A$ return home.
§ 169. (b) Object of action of a transitive verb.
Ex. Percussit dextram, He struck the right hand.
Cupit divitias, He desires riches.
§170. Under this head fall certain special usages:
(A) To this belongs the use of the accusative as subject to an infinitive mood as predicate; on which see below, §246.2.
Ex. Dicit eum venire, He speaks of him as coming (He says that he is coming).
For the noun used as predicative accusative, see $\S 156$.
(B) If a verb (as verbs of teaching, concealing, asking) can have as a direct object, either a person or a thing, it may have both together.
Ex. Docet Catonem Grecas litteras, He teaches Cato Greel literature.

Cf. § 246. 1 , Docebo, \&c.

Non celavi te sermonem hominum, $I$ have not leept you in ignorance of people's talk.
Cæsar frumentum Eduos flagitabat, Ccesar constantly csked the EXdui for corn.
Tbe accus. of the thing remains even when the verb is in the passive voice, e.g. Primus Cato rogatus est sententiam, Cato was first asked his opinion.
§ 172 (C) In exclamations (really object after some verb understood).
Ex. $\quad$ O me miserum, $O$ (pity or help) me wretched.
Testes egregios! Fine witnesses! (ironically).
§ 173.2 . Compass or measure of the action or quality (after verbs, adjectives, and nominal adverbs).
(a) Space over which*; i. e. distance, length, \&c.

Ex. Abest sex millia passuum, He is six miles off. Nix minus quattuor pedes alta jacuit, The snow lay less than four feet deep.
§174. (b) Time during which.
Ex. Quâttuor dies vixit, He lived for four days.
Decessit Alexander, mensem unum annos tres et triginta natus, Alexander died, aged thirty-three years and one month.
§ 175. (c) The extent of the action of the verb exprest either by a neuter adjective of definition or quantity;

* In considering the meaning of the cases, and the translation into English, the meaning of the words themselves must be borne in mind: thus, where totus is added to the substantive, the ablative case is used to express the space over which (because the whole over which is conceived as one place at which); as, urbe totâ gemitus fit, over the whole city (i.e. in the city as a whole) there is lamentation. So on the other hand, to fly in all directions is in Latin 'in omnes partes fugere', to fly into all parts. Similarly with regard to the moods and tenses of verbs. See §86. 259.3 .
R. G.

Ex. Hoc doleo, This is the pain I feet.
Quid prodest? Of what use is it?
Multum nocet, He does much injury.
Plurimum possunt, They have most power. Quid me ista lædunt? What hurt do those matters (of yours) do me?
Nescio quid conturbatus esse videris, You seem to be somewhat confused.
Nescio quid (like a compound pronoun) qualifies conturbatus.
Similarly, Nostram vicem anxius, Anxious on our account (or in our stead). So multum, \&c. used adverbially, $\S 62$.
§ 176. Or by a substantive of the same meaning as the verb, accompanied by an oblique adjectival predicate.

Ex. Duram (or hanc) servit servitutem, He has a hard (or this) service to perform.
This is called the cognate accusative.
§ 177. (d) Part concerned or affected (only in poetry).
Ex. Similis vultum, Like in looks.
Tremit artus, He trembles all over his limbs.
§ 178. Dative is used to express the indirect object, both after transitive verbs, which have also a direct object, and after intransitive verbs, which have this indirect object only (with or without an accusative of the extent), and which in English are often translated by a transitive verb, and therefore without any preposition*.
*The following verbs in common use, although intransitive in Latin, at least in certain senses, and therefore requiring their object (generally a person) to be put in the dative, are usually translated by transitive verbs in English :

| adversor, oppose. | displyceo, displease. |
| :--- | :--- |
| æmŭlor, rival (in bad sense). | fäveo, favour. |
| blandior, soothe. | fïdo, trust (so confido). |
| crēdo, trust, believe (a per- | grätyficor, gratify, oblige. |
| son). | ignosco, pardon, forgive. |
| diffido, distrust. | illūdo, mock. |

179. 180. Person (or thing) for or to whom (i.e. the person or thing affected by an action or by the existence of a quality, although not directly acted on). (See App. D.)

Ex. Dat librum illi, He gives him the book.
Sedibus hunc refer ante suis, First restore him to his fit abode.
Nocet puero, It is hurtful for the boy.
Utilis reipublicæ est, He is usefulfor the state.
Vicinus urbi habitat, He dwells near for (or to) the city.
Nonnihil irascor tibi, I am somewhat angry with you.
Credit aliquid mulieri, He entrusts something to the woman.
Id Cassio persuadet, He persuades Cassius of that (lit. He is a persuader to Cassius regarding that).
Scuto uni militi detracto, $A$ shield having been snatched from one soldier.
Hæc vobis illorum per biduum militia fuit, Such was their two days' service that they have
impěro, command (persons, offYcio, obstruct. \&c.).
indulgeo, indulge.
invłdeo, envy.
mălĕdīco, scold, abuse.
mědeor, heal.
minor, threaten.
mơderor, check.
nöceo, hurt, damage.
nūbo, marry (of a woman).
ŏbēdio, obey.
obsëquor, obey (comply with).
obsisto, thewart.
obsum, hinder.
obtrecto, disparage.
occurro, meet.
opitullor, help. parco, spare. pāreo, obcy. plăceo, please. præcurro, outstrip. presto, excel. presum, superintend. pröpinquo, approach. prōsum, profit, benefit. sătisfăcio, sattisfy. servio, serve. subvěnio, support. sŭpersum, survice. supplico, supplicate. tempero, check.

$$
7-2
$$

to shew you (or Such, let me tell you, was their two days' service).
Nequaquam visu ac specie æstimantibus pares, By no means alike in the eyes of those who judged (or judge) of them by their appearance and display (lit. for those judging, \&c.).

Sese omnes Cæsari ad pedes projecere, All threw themselves at Casar's feet (for Ccesar at his feet).
§ 180. Under this head fall certain special usages:
(A) Person possessing (after verb of being).

Ex. Est mihi pater, $A$ father exists for me, i.e. $I$ have a father.
§ 181. (B) Agent. Rare in prose, except with gerundive and passive participle.
Ex. Hæc mihi dicta sunt, This is what I said (lit. These things are for me said things).
Nihil restat illis faciendum, Nothing remains for them to do.
§ 182. 2. Purpose for which.
Ex. Cui bono est, Who gains by it? (lit. To whom is it for a good?).
Duas legiones castris præsidio relinquit, He leaves two legions to guard the camp (lit. For the benefit of the camp, for the purposs of a guard).
Urbi condendæ eum præfecit, He placed him over the building of the city.
Decemviri legibus scribendis, $A$ commission of ten for drawing up laws.
Suam virtutem irrisui fore indoluerunt, They were vexed that their valour would be (a matter) for derision.
§1s3. Ablative expresses adverbial qualifications, and usually requires a preposition (from, at, in, by, with) to translate it into English.

In consequeace probably of an early confusion of the forms of the cases, the ablative is used to express both the place from which and the place at which, both the origin and the instrument or manner of an action or state; which notions properly belong to the genitive and dative* respectively. This has restricted the uses of the genitive and dative, and occasioned some uncertainty in the meaning of the ablative, which is however practically removable by considering the meaning of the passage.
§ 18 . From the nature of the expressions put in the ablative a simple substantive is very frequently insufficient; and an adjective, or participle (agreeing with the substantive), is added as (oblique) predicate. This construction is often called ablative absolute. Not unfrequently (see the last three examples in § 192) we have a subjective genitive similarly added.

## § $185 . \quad$ 1. Place whence.

(a) Place, \&c. from which.
N.B. In prose a preposition ( $a b$ or $e x$ ) is generally prefixed except before the names of towns and smaller islands.

Ex. Româ proficiscitur, He sets out from Rome.
Frumentum Rhodo advehit, He brings the corn up from Rhodes.
Pellit loco milites, He drives the soldiers from their place.
Data Id. Jun. Thessalonicâ, Despatched on the Ides of June from Thessalonica (data agrees with epistola understood). (See App. G.)

* It should be remembered that the forms for the dative and ablative are the same in the plural of all declensions, and not unfrequently in the singular.
§ 186. (b) Thing from which separation takes place (or exists).
Ex. Arcet tyrannum reditu, He keeps the tyrant from returning.
Solvit eum vinclis, He releases him from chains.
Mortui sensu carent, The dead want feeling.
Vacat culpâ, He is free from fault.
Coegimus decemviros abire magistraitu, We compelled the decemvirs to abdicate their office.
Alienum existimatione meâ, Foreign to my reputation. (See App. D.)
Orbus rebus omnibus, Deprived of everything.
§ 187. (c) Origin.
Ex. Mercurius Jove natus, Mercury sprung from Jove.
Animâ constamus et corpore, We are composed of soul and body.
L. Domitius Cn. F. Fab. Ahenobarbus, i.e. Lucius Domitius Cnæi filius Fabiâ (i.e. tribu) Ahenobarbus, Lucius (son of Cnaus) Domitius Ahenobarbus of the Fabian tribe.
§ 188. To this head probably* belongs the ablative of the standard of comparison.

Usual only after comparative adjectives in nom. or acc. case.
Ex. Major Achille, Greater than Achilles (lit. greater if you take Achilles as your starting point).

[^2]Vilius argentum est auro, virtutibus aurum, Silver is less valuable than gold, gold (less valuable) than virtues.
Opinione* celerius venit, He is coming quicker than was expected.
§ 189.2 2. Place where.
(a) Place at which (if the noun be of the 3d decl. or of the plural number).

Ex. Babylone habitat, He lives at Babylon.
Bellum terrâ marique comparat, He is preparing war by land and sea.
Castris se tenet, He keeps himself in his camp.
Populi sensus et theatro et spectaculis perspectus est. Nam gladiatoribus, \&c., The feelings of the people were clearly seen at the theatre and the shows. For at the gladiatorial exhibition, \&c.
\& 190. With verbs of motion this ablative expresses the road by which. (Cf. § 64. в.)

Ex. Proximâ (sc. viâ) ibo, I will go by the nearest way.
Portâ Collinâ urbem intrat, He enters the city at (or by) the Colline Gate.
Pado frumentum subvehit, He carries the corn up the Po.
§ 191. (b) Time when or within which.
Ex. Sexto die venit, He came on the sixth day.
Vix decem annis urbem cepit, He hardly took the city in ten years.

* So also, with (usually before) either adjectives or adverbs, solito, justo, equo, necessario, spe, exspectatione, exspectato.

Sex. Roscii mors quatriduo, quo is occisus est, Chrysogono nuntiatur, News of the death of Sextus Roscius is brought to Chrysogonus in four days from the time he was killed (lit. in the same period of four days in which he was killed).
Initio æstatis, When summer is (or was) commencing.
Imperante Tiberio, When Tiberius was emperor.
Regibus ejectis, After (or on) the expulsion of the kings.
Cicerone et Antonio coss. (i. e. consulibus), When Cicero and Antonius were consuls.
§ 192. (c) Amount at which, or after comparative, amount of difference. (See also p. 185, note.)

Ex. Vitam parvo* redemit, He purchased his life for (i.e. at or with) a small sum.
Tritici modius fuerat denariis quinque, $A$ bushel of wheat had been at five denaries (or, five denaries had been the price of, \&c.).
Magno detrimento certamen stetit, The contest was waged with much loss (lit. stood at much loss).
Dignus pœnâ, Worthy of punishment.
(The substantive dependent on dignus is (in prose) almost always put in the ablative.)
Multis partibus major, Many times greater.
Altero tanto longior, Longer by as much again (lit. by a second as great quantity).

* When the price is indefinitely expressed by nihilum, tantulum, or adjectives in the positive or superlative degree, the ablative is used; when by tantus, quantus, or adjectives in the comparative degree (e.g. pluris), the genitive is used. But after verbs of estimation (except cestimo, which has both cases), the genitive alone is used. Madvig.
§193. (d) Attendant cause or circumstances, means or instrument, manner, \&c. from, under, with, or in which. (The manner generally requires the addition of a nominal or pronominal adjective as oblique predicate, or the preposition cum (§ 206.c.3): the instrument does not.)
N.B. This use of the ablative might often be deduced from its other meaning under $\mathbf{I}$. (c).

Ex. More Carneadeo disputat, He disputes in the manner of Carneades.
Gladio regem ferit, He strikes the king with a sword.
Arcam lapidibus implet, He fills the chest with stones.
Dolo* hoc fecit, He did it treacherously.
Auctoritate tuâ opus mihi est, I need your (personal) authority (lit. There is a work for me with your authority).
Auctore Cassio lex lata est, The law was passed under the advice of Cassius (Cassius being the adviser).
Nullis impedimentis ibat, He was marching without baggage.
Cæsar equitatu præmisso subsequebatur omnibus copiis, Cossar having sent on his cavalry proceeded to follow with all his forces.
Reipublicæ vel salute vel victoriâ gandemus, We rejoice at the commonwealth's-safety (shall we call it?) or victory.
Quod benevolentiâ fit, id odio factum criminaris, What is really done from kindness, you charge to have been done from hatred.
Quid hoc populo obtineri potest? What can be maintained (or what measure can be carried) with such a people as this?

* In this adverbial way (without oblique predicate or cum) are used ordine, ratione, more, jure, injuria, clamore, silentio, consensu, fraude, vi, vitio, 'unduly,' cursu, agmine, \&c. at a distance of almost fifteen miles from Tarentum (lit. with an interval of, \&cc.).
Injussu imperatoris de statione discedit, $H e$ leares his post without his general's order.
Voluntate ejus reddere obsides Sequanis licebat, The Sequani might have restored the hostages with his consert.
N.B. The ablatives after fungor, 1 busy myself (wilh), fruor, I enjoy myself (with), utor, I employ myself $f$ (with), potior, I make myself powerful (with), vescor, Ifeed myself (with), nitor, I support myself (with), \&c. are of this class*.

The instrument must be carefully distinguished from the agent: the former is a thing and is put in the ablative without a preposition; as, gladio interfectus est, he was killed with a sword. The agent is (generally) a person, and is put in the ablative with the preposition $a b$; as, ab Antonio interfectus est, he was slain by Antony.
§ 194. So (especially after substantives and adjectives and the verb sum) to express the part concerned, i. e. thing in respect of which a term is applied : or (with oblique predicate) the characteristic quality.

Ex. Ager pedibus, Diseased in the feet.
Mancipiis locuples, Rich in slaves.
Major natu, Greater in respect of birth, i.e. older.
Freti ingenio, Relying on their ability.
Natione Gallus, $A$ Gaul by nation.

* The following verbs in common use are usually translated by transitive verbs in English, but have this (apparent) object in the ablative in Latin:
abūtor, misuse, abuse. indygeo, need (frequently with căreo, want.
ĕgeo, need (also with gen.).
fungor, discharge.
fruor, enjoy.

> gen.)
pluo, rain (generally impers.).
prtior, enjoy, gain (or with gen.).
ūtor, use.
So also (mihi) opus est, usus est, I need or require, have the thing required in the ablative.

Sunt quidam homines, non re sed nomine, There are some persons, men not in reality, but in name.
Eo felix, quod brevi mortuus est, Happy in that (fact) that he died shortly.
Agesilaus staturâ fuit humili, Agesitaus was of low stature (lit. was of stature low).
P. Valerius summâ virtute adolescens, Publius Valerius, a youth of the greatest excellence.
§195. Genitive expresses adjectival additions of two kinds, viz. subjective and objective, according as the word put in the genitive case is the subject or object of the action, \&c. indicated by the substantive upon which it depends. Ex. Helvetiorum injuriæ populi Romani, i.e. injuriæ quibus Helvetii populum Romanum affecerant. Helvetiorum is subjective genitive; populi Romani is objective.
§ 196. 1. Subtective.
(a) Person (or thing) possessing or originating.

Ex. Horti Cæsaris, Cossar's gardens.
Hectoris Andromache, Hector's Andromache (i.e. Hector's wife Andr.).
Ubi ad Dianæ veneris, When you have come to Diana's (i.e. temple, as we say to St John's).
Præsidium pudoris, The defence which modesty affords.
Illius amicissimi, His best friends.
Vitium proprium senectutis, A vice peculiar to old age.
Est boni judicis scire, A good judge would know (lit. it is the mark of, or belongs to, a good judge to know).
Carthaginienses tutelæ nostræ duximus, We considered the Carthaginians to be under our protection.
Cæsar dicere solebat non tam suâ* quam rei-

* A similar use of the possessive pronoun abl. ftm. is found after reefert. Quid tuâ id rëfert, What concern is that of
publica interesse ut salvus esset, Ccesar was in the habit of saying, that it was not so much his interest as that of the state, that he should be preserved.
§ 197. (b) Containing whole (called partitive genitive).
Ex. Pars militum, $A$ part of the soldiers.
Fortissimus Grecorum, Brarest of the Greeks.
Extremum æstatis, The end of summer.
Hoc præmi, This piece of revard.
Nihil relicui fecerunt, They left nothing undone
(they left nothing of leavings).
Parum prudentia, Too little prudence.
Ubinam gentium, Where in the world?
N.B. All of us is in Latin, nos omnes. So Trecenti conjuravimus, Three hundred of us have conspired; Tota Asia, The whole of A sia; Amici aderant quos multos habebat, His friends, of whom he has many, were present. The adjectives summus, medius, ultimus, extremus, imus, supremus, relicuns, ceterus, adversus, aversus, are used similarly; as, Summus mons, The top of the mountain; Relicua turba, the rest of the crowd; Adversa basis, the front of the pedestal; Aversa charta, the back of the paper.
§ 198. (c) Size, kind, or description of which a thing is.
Ex. Fossa centum pedum, $A$ ditch of a hundred feet (i.e. in length).

Acervus frumenti, A heap of corn.
Tridui viam processit, He advanced a journey of three days.
Vir consili magni, A man of great policy.
Vidi ibi multitudinem hominum, $I$ saw there numbers of people.
Dies dictionis causer, The day for pleading his cause (causce is genitive of object).
yours? The genitive after rēfert is not so common. (Probably the real expression was tuce rei fert, tuce (rei) interest; cf. posthac for posthece. Donaldson.)

Tum illud cujus est audaciæ! Then that other matter, what boldness it shews!
Voluptatem virtus minimi facit, Manly virtue counts pleasure of little worth.
Tanti est tacere, It is worth while to be silent (lit. Silence is of so much value).
To this head we may refer the genitive of definition.
Vox voluptatis, The word pleasure.
Numerus trecentorum, The number three hundred.
Nomen carendi, The term carere.
§ 199. 2. Objeotive.
(a). Object of action implied in substantives and adjectives. (See App. D.)

Ex. Timor hostium, Fear of the enemy.
Signum erumpendi, $A$ sign for breaking out.
Precepta vivendi, Rules for life.
Rogo ut rationem mei habeatis, I beg you to have regard to my interests.
Avidus gloriæ, Greedy of glory.
Tenax propositi, Tenacious of his purpose.
Reus furti, Charged with theft.
Prodigus æris, Lavish of his money.
Plenus odii, Full of hatred.
Similis tui, Resembling you (or a copy of you).
§ 200. (b) Secondary object of the thing after verbs of accusing, condemning, acquitting, reminding, the impersonal verbs piget, pudet, miseret, ponitet, tredet, and sometimes after impleo and compleo, which all have also a direct object of the person. (See also § 192, note.)

Ex. Admonuit illum sceleris, He reminded him of his wickedness.
Accusat eum furti, He accuses him of theft.

Also sometimes after memini, reminiscor, obliviscor, egea, indigeo, potior, and always after misereor: which have no direct object.

The first three often have an accus. instead of this gen., the others (except misereor) often have an ablative.

Miserere meæ egestatis, Have pity on my need.
Memini illius diei, I am mindful of that day.
Potitur rerum, He makes himself naster of the government.
Indigeo tui consili, $I$ am in need of your advice.
§ 201. 3. Place where: if noun be of lst or 2 d declension, singular number.

Ex. Romæ vivit, He lives at Rome.
Rhodi constitit, He stopt at Rhodes.
Patrem familias domi suæ occidere nolumus, We are unwilling to slay the head of a household at his own house.
N.B. In this last usage the case is really the locative (i.e. the original dative, cf. ruri and § 64. B), which happens to resemble the genitive in these declensions. So humi, and (in connection with domi), belli, militice, \&c. Perhaps also animi in pendemus, \&c. animi.

## USE OF CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS.

§ 202. Prepositions are originally adverbs of place, and are prefixed to oblique cases of substantives to give greater precision to the general ideas implied in the cases themselves. They are much more frequent in prose than in poetry. Some are used with the accusative, some with the ablative, some with either, but with suitable differences of meaning.

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(A) The following are used with the accusative only:

Ad, adversus, ante, apud, circum, cis, ob, penes, per, pone, post, prope, secundum, trans, and all ending in $a$ (except the preposition $a$ itself) and in ter. (Subter rarely has the ablative.)
(B) With the ablatioe only:
$A b$ (abs, a), absque, clam, coram, cum, de, ex (e), palam, pros, pro, sine, tenus. Also very rarely procul, simul.
(C) With accusative or ablative:

In, sub, subter, super.
(D) The following are also used as adverbs, without any case:

Ante, circa, circiter, clam, contra, coram, extra, infra, intra, juxta, pone, post, proeter, procul, prope, propter, simul, subter, supra, ultra, and rarely (with numerals) ad, 'about.'

## Use of the Accusative Case with Prepositions.

§ 203. The accusative case implies (1) place whither, (2) place over or about which. These meanings are made more definite by the prepositions as follows.

1. Place towards which.
(a) To (but not into).

Ad. Ad urbem venit, He came to the city; Devertit Clodius ad se, Clodius turns aside to his own house; Domum ad Ciceronem ivit, He went to Cicero's house; Litteras ad te dabo, I will post a letter to you. (Cf. App. G.)
This preposition is not generally required when the motion is towards a town mentioned simply by name. Thus, Romam venit, He came to Rome.
(2) Of time until: Ad summam senectutem tragodias fecit, He made tragedies up to extreme old age.

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(3) At (prèsence after motion) of place: Ad fluvium eum expectabat, He was expecting hion at the river. Senatus ad Apollinis fuit, The Senate was assembled at Apollo's (temple).
(4) Of time: Presto fuit ad horam destinatam, He was ready at the hour appointed. Ad famam obsidionis delectus haberi coeptus est, $A t$ the news of the blockade a levy was begun to be held.
(5) Metaphorically: Omnes ad unum consentiunt, All to a man agree. Ad viginti millia erant, There were present to the number of 20,000 men. (Cf. § 202.)
(6) In addition to: Ad cetera vulnera hanc quoque plagam inflixit, In addition to the other wounds he added this blow also.
(7) Looking at, in regard to: Ad istomm normam sapientes, Plilosophers if you look to your friends' pattern.
(8) Intended for: Canes ad venandum alit, He leeeps dogs for hunting. (See App. D.)

Ad compounded with versus, turned, makes
Adversus, towards, which is generally used metaphorically, towards and against, as, Mea adversus Cæsarem indignatio, My indignation against Cosar. Versus is occasionally used as a preposition, and put after its case.
Erga, towards, metaphorically, of friendly feelings; as, Mea erga te benivolentia, My good will towards you.
(b) To this side of,

Cis, Citra: Citra urbem hostes elicit, He entices the enemy to this (i.e. his) side of the city.
(2) Metaphorically, not amounting to: Citra satietatem, $N$ ot amounting to satiety.

For other usages, see $2(k)$.
(c) Into, on to,
$\mathrm{I}_{\mathrm{N}}$ : In Italiam venit, He came into Italy: Deiotărum in equum sustulerunt, They lifted Deiotarus on to his horse.
(2) Of a limit of time, for, ayainst: In posterum diem eam invitavit, He invited her for the next day.
(3) In distributions: Quingenos denarios pretium in capita statuerant, They had fixed 500 denaries as the price per head.
(4) Metaphorically, of a result: Ex homine se convertit in beluam, From a man he changes himself into a beast.
(5) Towards: Amore inflammati in ejusmodi patriam, Fired with love towards such a country. Cives servilem in modum cruciati, Citizens tortured after the manner of slaves. Hæc in rem sunt, These things tend to one's interest.
(6) Metaphorically, against: In eum scripsit carmen, He wrote a poem against him. In nos viri, in nos armati estis? A gainst us (do you show yourselves) men, against us are ye armed?
Inter, in and amongst; as, Inter falcarios venit, He came amongst the scythe-makers.

For other usages see 2 (c).
Intra, within: Intra mœ⿱ia compulsus, Having been driven within the walls.

For other usages, see $2(n)$.
(d) Outside of,

Extra; as, Extra terminos egredi non possum, $I$ cannot proceed beyond the bounds.
For other usages see $2(n)$.
R. $\quad$.

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(e) To and beyond,

Trans; as, Trans Rhenum ducit exercitum, He leads his army across the Rhine.
(f) To and under,

Sub, Subter; as, Exercitum sub jugum mittit, He sends the army under the yoke. Res unum sub aspectum subjiciuntur, The matters are brought under one glance.
(2) Of time, close to, i. e. generally about or just after: Sub noctem, At nightfall. Sub eas literas statim recitatæ sunt tuæ, Immediately after those dispatches yours were read aloud.
(g) To and over,

Stuper; as, Super montem exercitum ducit, He leads his army over the móuntain.
(2) Metaphorically, besides: Punicum exercitum super morbum etiam fames affecit, The Punic army besides sickness suffered also from famine.
(h) Following,

Secundum; as, Secumdum fluvium ibat, He was going along the river.
(2) Metaphorically: Secundum naturam vivere, To live in accordance with nature.
(3) Of time, immediately after: Secundum comitia, Immediately after the comitia.
(4) Metaphorically: Secundum vocem vultus valet, The look tells next to the voice. Secundum ea multe res hortabantur, In favour of that course (lit. those things) many things were urging him.

## Use of Accusative with Prepositions. <br> 115

§ 204. 2. Place over or about whioh.
(a) $A t$,

APDD; generally prefixed to persons; as, Apud me, At my house. Apud senatum verba fecit, He made a speech before the senate.
(2) Metaphorically: Apud Homerum, In Homer's writings.
Penes, in the custody of; as, Servi centum dies penes accusatorem fuere, The slaves for a hundred days were in the custody of the accuser.
(2) Metaphorically: Penes quos locutionis emendater laus fuit, Who had a right to the praise of correct language.
(b) Through,

Per; as, Per urbem venit, He came through the city.
(2) Of time: Per hiemem dormit, It sleeps all through the winter.
(3) Metaphorically, by means of: Per litteras rogat, He asks through the medium of a letter. Per Cæsarem facit, He does it by the agency of Coesar. Per me vel stertas licet, You may snore for all I care. So in entreaties, swearing, \&c.: Per te deos oro, I implore you by the Gods.
(4) By way of: Vastationem agrorum per contumeliam urbi ostentant, They display to the city by way of insult the ravaging of the fields. Per ludum et jocum, In sport and joke.
(c) Between, among,

Inter; as, Inter urbem ac Tiberim ager fuit, The land lay between the city and the Tiber.
(2) Of time: Inter hæ3, Whilst this vas going on.

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(3) Metaphorically: Inter has sententias dijudicat, He decides between these opinions. Quod colloquimur inter nos, Our talk amongst ourselves. Inter suos honestissumus, $A$ man of excellent character amongst his friends.
For other usages see $\mathbf{x}(c)$.
(d) Beside and past,

Preter; as, Preter castra copias duxit, He led his forces past the camp.
(2) Metaphorically, besides: Præter auctoritatem vires habuit, Besides his personal authority he had power also.
(3) Except: Præter me nemini hoc videtur, This seems so to none except me.
(e) Around,

Circum, round: Terra circum axem se convertit, The earth revoloes round its axis.
(2) About: Circum hæc loca commorabor, $I$ shall stop about these parts.
Circa, about: Plena templa circa forum, Full were the temples about the Forum.
(2) Of time, about: Circa lucem, About daylight.
Circiter, of time, about: Nos circiter Kalendas in Formiano erimus, We shall be at our Formian villa about the Kalends.
(f) Near,

Prope; as, Prope urbem castra posnit, He pitched his camp near the city. (So propius, proxime.)
Propter: Propter Ciceronem sedet, He sits near Cicero.
(2) Metaphorically, on account of: Propter metum, On account of fear.

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Juxta, close to; as, Juxta murum castra posuit, He pitched his camp close to the wall.
(g) Opposite to,
$\mathrm{O}_{\mathrm{B}}$; as, Mors ob oculos sæpe versata est, Death was often present before his eyes. So in the phrase, Ob viam alicui ire, \&c., To go, \&c. to meet a person.
(2) Metaphorically (so more frequently), on account of: as, Ob hanc causam, For this cause. Quam ob rem, on which account.
(h) Before,

ANTE; as, Ante ædes eum video, $I$ see him before the house.
(2) Of time; as, Ante hunc Aiem, Before this day.
(3) Metaphorically: Quem ante me diligo, Whom I love befure myself (i.e. more than myself $)$.
(i) Behind,

Pone (rare): Pone ædem Castoris, Behind the temple of Castor.
Post : Post me erat Rgina, Algina was behind me.
(2) Of time: Post hunc diem, After this day.
(3) Metaphorically; as, Erat Lydia post Chloen, Lydia came (in my affection) after Chloe.
(k) On this side of,

Citra: Citra Rhenum Germani sunt, The Germans are on this side the Rhine.
For other usages see I (b).
( $l$ ) On the other side of, beyond,
Ulrta; as, Cotte ultra Silianam villam est, Cotta's is beyond Silius' villa.

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(2) Metaphorically: Ultra vires, Beyond one's strength.
(m) Inside of, within,

Intra; as, Iliacos intra muros peccatur et extra, Within the walls of Ilium and without are sins being committed.
(2) Of time: Intra annos quattuordecim, Within fourteen years.
For other usages see $\mathrm{I}(c)$.
(n) Outside of,

Extra; as, Hi sunt extra provinciam trans Rhodanum primi, These are the first people outside of the province across the Rhone.
(2) Metaphorically: Extra jocum, without joking.
For other usages see $\mathrm{I}(d)$.
(o) Below,

Infra; as, Infra oppidum eum expectabat, He was waiting for him below the town.
(2) Metaphorically: Omnia infra se esse judicat, He holds all things to be beneath him.
(p) Above,

SUPRa; as, Supra pretoris caput, Above the head of the prator.
(2) Metaphorically: Supra hominis fortunam, Above the fortune of man.

## With Ablative Case.

§ 205. The ablative case implies (1) Place whence, (2) Place where. These meanings are made more definite by prepositions, as follows:

## 1. Place whence.

(a) From,
$\mathrm{A}, \mathrm{AB}, \mathrm{ARS}$; as, A portu venio, I come from the port. Domo a Cicerone ivi, I went from Cicero's house (from Cicero from his house, cf. § 259.7).
(2) Of the starting point in arranging, reckoning, \&c., even with verbs of rest; as, A lævâ stat, He stands on the left hand. A fronte, In front. Unus a novissimis miles, $A$ soldier in the rear rank. A nobis stat, He is on our side (metaphorically). Greecus ille ab omni laude felicior, The Greek is happier in every point of excellence. In later writers we have such expressions as, Antiochus Ti. Claudi Cæsaris a bibliothecà, Antiochus (was) Tib. Claudius Casar's librarian.
(3) Of time: Ab horâ tertiâ, From the third hour. Cæsar ab decimæ legionis cohortatione ad dextrum cornu profectus est, Casar, after his address to the tenth legion, proceeded to the right wing.
(4) Metaphorically: Ab injuriis defendere, $T_{o}$ defend from wrongs.
(5) Of the source of action, and so of the agent; as, A patre cognovi, I learnt it from my father. A patre culpari, To be blamed by a father. (Very rare with the gerundive. Cf. § 181.)
Procul, far from; as, Procul mari, Far from the sea (generally, procul $a$ mari, \&c.).
(b) Down from, from off,

De: De muro se dejecit, He threw himself from the wall. Nescio quis de circo maximo, Some one or other from the circus maximus.
(2) Of time, esp. De nocte, Whilst yet night. De nocte multâ, In the deep of night. De die

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potare, To carouse in the daytime. 'Only used when the subject of the sentence is a person.' Freund, s. $v$. (rarely just after).
(3) Signifying separation of a part from a whole: Hominem certum misi de comitibus meis, $I$ sent one of my retinue that I could rely on.
(4) Resulting from, in consequence of: De improviso, Of a sudden. De industriâ, On purpose.
(5) Or, about, concerning: De hac re dubito, About this matter I doubt.
(c) Out of,

E, Ex; as, Ex urbe venit, He came out of the city.
(2) From, whilst yet on: Ex equo pugnare, To fight on horseback. Ex itinere oppugnat oppidum, He attacks the town on the march, i. e. without regularly sitting down before it. Ex omnibus partibus rupes habet, It has rocks on all sides.
(3) Of time, just after: Cotta ex consulatu profectus est, Cotta set out immediately after his consulship. Diem ex die ducit, He puts it off from day to day (lit. Spends day after day).
(4) Out of, from: Ex eo quærit, He asks of him. Unus ex tribus modis, One of three ways. So of the material: Statua ex ære facta, $A$ statue made of bronze.
(5) In consequence of: Ex vulnere æger, Ill of a wound.
(6) In accordance with: Ex consuetudine, Inz accordance with one's custom. Ex animi sententiâ, In accordance with one's real opinion. Ex asse hæres factus, Named heir to the whole property. E re meâ est, $1 t$ is for my interest.
(d) Absence from,

Absque, without (only in the older writers).
Sine, without; as, Sine pecuniâ, Without money.
Clam, concealed from; as, Clam uxore meâ et filio, Without the knowledge of my wife and son.
§ 206. 2. Place where, i. e. at, or in, which.
(a) In,

In ; as, In corde, In the heart. In Italiâ, In Italy. In oppido Hispali, In the town (of) Seville (Hispalis).
N.B. In is used with names of towns when urbs or oppidum is prefixed.
(2) In and amongst: In eo numero fuit, He was of that number. Dolor in maximis malis ducitur, Pain is reckoned among the greutest evils.
(3) Of time: In vitâ, In the course of one's life.
(4) Metaphorically: In agris vastandis versatus, Engoged in laying waste the fields. Vitricum tuum fuisse in tanto scelere fatebare, You were admitting that your stepfather had been (an actor) in so great a crime.
(5) In the case of: Respondit se id quod in Nerviis fecisset facturum, He answered that he should do the same as he had done in the case of the Nervii. In eo potissinum populus abutitur libertate, per quem consecutus est, The people abuse their liberty in the case of the res'y man by whose means they have gained it.
(b) $O n$,

In : In equo sedit, He sat on his horse. In eo flumine pons erat, On (i.e. over) that rico there was a bridge.
(c) With,

Cum ; as, Cum Balbo vivit, He lives with Bablbus. Cum populo Romano bellum gerunt, They wage war with (i. e. against) the Roman people.
(2) Of things carried, worn, \&c.; as, Servus cum gladio comprehensus est, $A$ slave was seized wearing a sword (but servus gladio, \&c. would be, a slave was seized by means of a sword, abl. of instr.).
(3) Metaphorically: Qui cum timore aut malà spe vivunt, Who live in fear or wicked hope. Cum magno provincie periculo fieret, It would be attended with great danger to the province. Poeter cum voluptate audiuntur, Poets are listened to with pleasure. Cum curâ scribit, He writes with care.
N.B. Cum is always placed after the personal pronouns, and generally after the simple relative; as, mecum, vobiscum, quacum, quibuscum.

Studl; as, Simul nobis, Together with us (only in poets and late Latin).
(d) In front of,

Prex; as, Præ se armentum agens, Driving the herd in front of him.
(2) Metaphorically, compared with: Præ nobis beatus, Happy in comparison with us.
(3) In consequence of (chiefly of a hindrance): Nec loqui pre morore potuit, And he could not speak for grief.'
Pro; as, Pro rostris, in front of (i. e. on the fore part of) the tribune.
(2) Metaphorically, in behalf of: Pro patriâ mori, To die for one's country.

Use of Ablative with Prepositions. 123
(3) Instead of: Pro consule venit, He came as the consul's deputy (i. e. as Proconsul). Quum pro damnato esset, When he was as good as condemned.
(4) In proportion to: Plus quam pro meâ parte ago, I do more than in proportion to my share.
Coram ; as, Coram genero meo, In the presence of my son-in-law.
Palam (very rare); as, Me palam, Openly before me.
(e) As far as,

Tenus; as, Collo tenus, As far as the neck. Eatenus (i. e. ea parte tenus), So far.
N.B. Tenus is always put after its case. With plural substantive it generally takes a genitive case; as, Labrorum tenus, As far as the lips. On this usage see $\S 207$.
(f) Under,

Sub; as, Sub pellibus hiemare, To winter under tents of shins. Sub monte consedit, He sat down at the foot of the monutain.
(2) Of time, just at: Sub discessu tao, At the time of his departure.
(3) Metaphorically: Sub dicione Romanorum esse, To be under the power of the Romans. Sub pacto, Under an agreement.
SUbTER (rarely foumd): Subter densâ testudine, $U_{n}$ der a close tortoise-shell (i. e. shields locked ugether).
(g) Over,

Super: Ensis super cervice pendet, $A$ sword hangs over his neck.
(2) Metaphorically, upon, about: Super hac re scribam, Upon this matter I will write.

## 124 Use of Prepositions in Composition.

§ 207. Ergo, on account of; causâ, gratiâ, for the sake of; instar, like to; and tenus, reaching to, are used with the genitive case, but are not strictly prepositions. The first three are ablatives (ergo is strictly a Greek dative, ${ }^{\boldsymbol{t}} \boldsymbol{\beta} \gamma(\varphi)$ of the manner; the last two are indeclinable substantives (instar, likeness; tenus, extent); instar being in apposition, \&c. to some part of the sentence; tenus being an accus. by $\S 173$.
§ 208. Prepositions compounded with verbs, sometimes ( I ) retain their proper meaning, and even their ordinary use with particular cases, the preposition being either repeated with the noun (so esp. ad, in, ex, sub, cum) or not; (2) sometimes form with the verb a new meaning which may be suited to a different case. Many verbs have both constructions. If a local relation be clearly (even though figuratively) intended, a preposition is (in prose) usually prefixed to the noun.
E.g. (1) $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Trans Rhenum exercitum ducit; } ; \\ \text { Trans Rhenum exercitum traducit ; } ; \\ \text { Rhenum exercitum traducit. }\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned} & \text { all in same } \\ & \text { meaning. }\end{aligned}$
(2) Vitium aliquod inest in moribus;

His artibus (dat.) major prudentia inest.
§ 209. In composition some prepositions have, besides their usual meanings, certain special meanings, which they but partially exhibit out of composition. The following deserve notice:

Cum (in comp. con-, co-), tharoughly; as, sequor, follono; consequor, overtake: cædo, cut; concido, cut to pieces.

Per has a similar meaning; as, suadeo, recommend; persuadeo, persuade. Especially with adjectives; as, perjucundus, very pleasant.
$\mathrm{Pre}_{\mathrm{e}}$, at the end, along the edge; as, rodo, gnaw; prærodo, e.g. lingua dentibus prarosa, a longue bitten at the end.

Sub- (surs-, su-), (1) $U p$; as, emo, take; sumo, take up; suspicio, look up; sursum, i. e. su-versum, upwards.
(2) Secretly; as, rapio, snatch; surripio, snatch away secretly.
(3) Slightly; as, accuso, acsuse; subaccuso, accuse in a manner. Also witn adjectives; as, subobscurus, rather dark.
§ 210. Other prepositions are only used in composition:
Amb- ( $\Delta \mathrm{M}-$, $\Delta \mathrm{N}-$ ), about; as, amb-igo, lead about; am-plector, fold oneself round; an-ceps, two-headed.

Diss- (DYR-, Dī-), implies division; as, dilabor, stip in different directions; dissentio, think differently; dirimo, destroy (emo).

In, a negative prefix; as, injustus, unjust. So also vē- (rare); as, vēcors, senseless.

Red- ( fe -),
(1) Back; as, redeo, go back; rětraho, draw back.
(2) Again; as, rĕpeto, reseek.
(3) Reversal; as, rëfigo, unfix.

Sed- (sĒ-), separation; as, sed-itio, a secession; sēcedo, go apart, withdraw: in old Latin used as a preposition, se fraude esto, it shall be without risk.
N.B. The ' $d$ ' at the ead of these last two words is frund in many prepositions, and is probably the ' $d$ ' which was the sign of the ablative in old Latin. Thus, prod (prod-eo) is in front; red, in the back; extrad, on the outside; antid (antidhac=antea), in front.

## OF THE DIFFERENT KINDS OF SENTENCES.

§ 211. (A) A simple sentence contains only one assertion, and therefore only one primary predicate (i.e. finite verb).
§ 212. (B) A compound sentence contains two or more assertions co-ordinate to one another, and therefore contains two or more primary or verbal predicates connected by some conjunction, but independent of one another in construction; such as, et, and; aut, or; nec, nor; sed, but; igitur, therefore; enim, for; quanquam (when it means and yet), \&c.; also by the relative qui when it has the same effect as et $i s$, nam is, \&c. Occasionally the sentences are put together without any connecting word, but so that such a conjunction might be added without affecting the sense. When the subject or
object, \&c. of the co-ordinate sentences are the same, such subject, \&c. is usually exprest only once.

Ex. Rem cognoscit et sententiam dicit, He hears the case, and utters his opinion.
Cæsar venit: illi autem fugerunt, Cosar came: they however fled.
Cæsar adfuit: qui dixit, Ccesar was present : and he said.
Nam, quod ad populum pertinet, semper dignitatis iniquus judex est; qui ant invidet aut favet, For as regards the people, it is always an unfair judge of worth; for it is either envious or partial.
Pompeius fremit, queritur, Scauro studet, sed utrum fronte an mente, dubitatur, Pompey chafes, complains, is zealous for Scaurus, but whether in appearance or in heart, people cannot tell.
§ 213. (C) A complex sentence contains two or more sentences, of which one only is principal, and the others subordinate to it.

Subordinate sentences are either Substantival, Adjectival, or Adverbial sentences, according as they stand in the place of a Substantive, an Adjective, or an Adverb.
§ 214. I. Substantival sentences may occupy any place which a substantive in the nominative or accusative case may occupy, i.e. Subject, Object, Epithet (in apposition), and secondary or oblique predicate.

They are (in Latin) of four kinds:

1. Infinitive sentence*, the subject being in the accusative, and the predicate in the infinitive.

* Expressions with the infinitive mood are not strictly sentences, but fragments of sentences. They are here classed with substantival sentences, because they are used where in English we use substantival sentences, and because they represent in the oratio obliqua what would be proper sentences in the oratio recta.

Of the different kinds of Sentences. $\quad 127$
Ex. Scio te hæc dixisse, I know that you have said this. Te hoec dixisse is object to scio.
2. Sentences introduced by the conjunction quod.

Ex. Gratum est quod venisti, Your having come is pleasing. Quod venisti is the subject to est.
3. Dependent questions.

Ex. Cognovi cur hæc scripserit, $I$ have ascertained why he wrote this. Here cur hoec scripserit is object to cognovi.
4. Some sentences introduced by ut or ne; especially as objects after verbs of entreating, commanding, ejfecting, \&c. (Originally adverbial sentences of purpose, result, \&c.)

Ex. Peto non ut aliquid novi decernatur, sed ne quid novi decernatur, I ask not that some new decree be made, but that no new decree may be made. The clauses followed by $u t$ and ne are objects.
Accidit ut ibi adessem, It happened that I was there. Ut ibi adessem is subject to accidit.
§ 215. II. Adjectival sentences are always introduced by a relative (adjective, or adverb), as, qui, qualis, quantus, \&c. ubi, quando, and stand where an adjective may stand, i.e. either as epithet to a substantive, or secondary predicate to a subject.

Ex. Locus ubi constiti, The place where I stood.
Hic est quem quærimus, This is the man we are seeking.
§ 216. III. Adverbial sentences are used to qualify verbs or adjectives, and are introduced either by a conjunction, or relative adverb, as, $u t$, si, quum, quo, \&c. The different significations of adverbial sentences with the conjunctions introducing them are as follows:

1. Place where, whence, whither. Ubi, qua, quo, unde, \&c. (Local sentences.)
2. Time when, during which, until, after, before, as often as. Quum, ut (when), ubi, dum, donec, postquam, priusquam, quoties, \&c. (Temporal sentences.)
3. Manner in which; as, ut (as), ceu, quasi, quam, tanquam, velut, \&c. (Comparative sentences.)
4. Purpose; that, in order that. Ut, ut ne, ne. (Final sentences.)
5. Restex; so that. Ut, ut non. (Consecutive or illative sentences.)
6. Condrtion ; if, provided that, supposing that. Si , quasi, dum, modo, \&c. (Conditional sentences.)
7. Cavse ; because, since. Quod, quum, quia, siquidem, \&c. (Causal sentences.)
8. Concerssion ; although. Etsi, quanquam, ut. (Concessive sentences.)

Examples of these different kinds of adverbial sentences will be given below in treating of the moods. With them should be compared the use of oblique cases (except genitive) with and without prepositions, especially the ablative with an oblique predicate.
§ 217. A subordinate sentence may itself be a complex sentence, and thus what is subordinate to one sentence may be principal to another.

Ex. Ut iis bonis erigimur que exspectamus, ita lætamur iis, que recordamur, As we are excited by the good things which we expect, so we rejoice in the good things which we remember.
The principal sentence is sic lcetamur iis: to this there are two subordinate sentences, viz.
(I) quee recordamur, a simple adjectival sentence qualifying iis.
(2) ut erigimuer bonis iis, quce exspectamus, a complex adverbial sentence of manner.

Thus, ut erigimur bonis is subordinate to sic latamur, but principal to qua exspectamus.

## OF THE FINITE VERB.

§ 218. If I speak of an event taking place or an action being performed, I may wish to assert positively that it is taking, or has takent, or will take place, that a thing is so or is not so. In such cases the Romans used the indicative mood. Or again, I may wish to speak of an action or event not as a fact, but as an idea or supposition, referring to it as possible, or as existing in some other person's thoughts, or as desirable, or as an idea to promote or retard the realisation of which other actions are done, or other things exist. In this case the subjunctice mood is used. Or again, instead of asserting that a thing is so or is not so, I may order a person to do it. In this case the imperative mood is used.

## (A) Indicative Mood.

§219. I. The indicative mood is used in direct assertions or negations, or questions, and therefore it is the mood generally found in sentences not subordinate to others.
§ 220. II. In subordinate sentences ouly when they express actual facts or simple descriptions, \&c. Thus in

1. Substantival with conjunction quod.

Ex. Adde quod ingenuas didicisse fideliter artes emollit mores, Add the fact that to have lewnt faithfully the liberal arts softens the manners.
§ 221. 2. Adjectival: especially definitive of existing classes, or when substitutes for a simple term.
(a) Either with simple relative.

Ex. Apud Alexandriam, quæ in Egypto sita est, visit, He lived at the Egyptian Alexandria.
Omnibus, unde petitur, hoc consili dederim, To all defendants in a suit I would give this advice (lit. To all persons from whom (satisfaction) is sought, dec.).
R. G.

Jugurtha, quantas maximas potest, copias armat, Jugurtha arms as large a number of troops as he possibly can (arm).
(b) Or with doubled form of relatives and those with cunque attached; as, quisquis, quantusquantus and quicunque.

Ex. Quicquid erit, scribes, Whatever it be, you will write (the news).

Quoscunque de te queri audivi, quacunque ratione potui, placavi, All that I have heard finding fault with you, I have appeased in whatever way I could.
§ 222. III. In adverbial sentences of

1. Place, with conjunctions; ubi, ubicunque, qua, quaсипque, unde, quo, \&c.

Ex. Nunc proficiscar quo ire constitui, Now I will start for the place I settled to go to.
Ubicunque Patricius habitat, ibi carcer privatus est, Wherever there is a Patrician's dwelling, there is a private prison.
2. Time; with postquam, priusquam, quum (when the relation between the actions is regarded as entirely or predominantly one of time; and so when frequency of rectual occurrences is implied), ut, simul ac, dum, donec, quoad, quando, quoties, dc.

Ex. Dum latine loquentur litteræ, quercus huic loco non deerit, So long as literature shall talk Latin, this spot will not be without its oak.
Quum cecinit receptui, impellit rursum, After sounding for a retreat, he again rouses (to action).
Quum ver esse coeperat, dabat se labori, At the beginning of every spring he used to give himself up to toil. (See § 229. 4.)
3. Manner; with ut, 'as', quomodo (both interrogatively and relatively), quit? utcunque, \&c.

Ex. Ut dixi, ita feci, As I said, so I did.
Dicam quam brevissime potero, $I$ will tell in the very fewest words I can.
Orator utcunque animum audientium moveri volet, ita certum vocis admovebit sonum, $A n$ orator, whatever be the emotion he shall wish to excite in the mind of his hearers, will adapt to it a special modulation of his voice.
Ut quisque est vir optimus, ita difficillime esse alios improbos suspicatur, The better a man is, the greater difficulty has he in suspecting others to be rogues.
4. Condition, when the speaker is not so much supposing a possible case, as stating positively the circumstances under which a fact is or was occurring, or will occur or not: and this especially (but not exclusively) when the principal sentence has the indicative: with si, nisi.

Ex. Da certa piamina fulminis, si tua contigimus manibus donaria puris, Grant sure atonements of the lightning, if we luave (as we have) with pure hands touched thy shrines.
Perficietur bellum, si urgemus obsessos, The war will be finished, if we continue (as we are doing) to press the besieged.
Nisi hoc ita est, frustra laboramus, If this is not so, we are labouring in vain.
5. Cause (stated as a fact, not a supposition), with quod, quia, quoniam, siquidem, quando, quandoquidem and (after laudo, gratias ago, \&c.) quum.

Ex. Non pigritia feci, quod non neâ manu scribo, It is not from laziness that I do not write with my own hand.
Veni quia tu voluisti, I came because you wished. 9-2

Gratulor tibi, quum tantum vales apud Dolabellam, I congratulate you on your great influence with Dolabella.
6. Concession, with quanquam, etsi, utut. (Cf. § 221.b.)

Ex. Utut illud erat, manere pportuit, However that was he (she, they) ought to have stayed (iit. It was a duty to stay).

## Tenses of Indicative Mood.

§ 223. The tenses of the indicative mood may be conveniently divided into prinary and secondary.

The primary tenses denote time contemporaneous with, antecedent, or subsequent to the time at which we are speaking, or at some time at which we feign ourselves to be present and watching erents.

The secondary tenses denote time contemporaneous with, antecedent, or subsequent to some other time of which we are speaking, and which we affirm to be past.
§ 224.

## Adtive Vorce.

PRIMARY. SECONDARY.
Antecedent.
Perfect; dixi,
Pluperfect; dixeram, $I$ $I$ have said. had said.
Contemporary. $\begin{gathered}\text { Present; dico, } \\ \text { I am saying. }\end{gathered}$ Imperfect; dicebam, $I$ was saying.
Aorist; dixi, I said (i. e. after something had happened*).
The $2 n d$ or completed Pruture is used to denote an action completed at some future time, i. e. time antecedent to some event in future time; as, dixero, $I$ shall havg said.
*This arrangement is suggested. by Burnouf (quoted by Donaldson, New Crat. § 372; Varron. p. 4 II, 3rd ed.).
§ 225. In order to denote future time, especially if regarded from a point in the past or future, the participle in urus is used with the different tenses of the verb sum: thus,

Prmary. Secondary.
amaturus sum, amaturus eram (or, in the
Contemporary. I am about to poets, fueram), I was (or mean to) love. at the time about to love, \&c.
amaturus ero, $I$
Subsequent. shall be about amaturus fui, Iwas(once) about to love, \&c.
And the same form is resorted to for the subjunctive future ; as, amaturus sim, \&c. (Cf. § 237.)
§226. Passife Votce.
PRIMARY. SECONDARY.
Antecedent. Perf. $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { amatus sum, } I \\ \text { am(or have } \\ \text { been) loved. }\end{array}\right.$ Plup. $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { amatus eram, } \\ \text { (or fueram), } I \\ \text { had been loved, } \\ \text { sometimes, I } \\ \text { was loved. }\end{array}\right.$
Contemporary. Pres. $\underset{\text { being loved. }}{\text { amor }} \boldsymbol{I}$ am.$~ \underset{\text { being loved. }}{\text { amabar }} \boldsymbol{I}$
Subsequent. Fut. $\begin{gathered}\text { amabor, } I \\ \text { shall be loved. }\end{gathered}$ Aor. $\left\{\begin{array}{c}\text { amatus sum, } I \\ \text { uas loved. } I \\ \text { anatus fui, } I \\ \text { wis (for some- } \\ \text { time) loved. }\end{array}\right.$
Completed Future; amatus ero (or fuero), I shall have been loved.
The forms of some Latin tenses are used with different shades of meaning. Thus,

## § 227. (A) Present tense expresses

(1) Action at the time of speaking; as, scribo, I am writing.
(2) Action at a moment, rhetorically assumed to be present (frequent in vivid narrations).

Ex. Quum Caius moriebatur, accurrit Lucius, When Caius was dying, Lucius runs to him.
(3) Action extending over some time, including the time of speaking.

Ex. Jamdudum scribo, $I$ have been for a long time writing.
Tertium jam annum hic sumus, We are here now for the third year.
(4) Action about to be commenced.

Ex. Jam venio, Lo ! now I come.
(5) Action, without reference to any particular time (especially in stating abstract truths).

Ex. Virtus est verum bonum, Virtue is the true good.
§ 228. (B) Imperfect tense expresses
(1) Continuous action contemporaneous with past action referred to.

Ex. Quum hæc dicebat abibam, Whilst he was saying this I was going away.
(2) Habitual action in past time.

Ex. Hæc dicebat, He used to say this, or he kept saying this.
(3) Action commenced, or attempted, or intended in past time.

Ex. Servabam eum, I was on the point of saving him, or I tried to save him, or I proceeded to save him.
§ 229. (C) Perfect tense expresses an action done in past time. This, according to the point of riew, may be regarded as
(1) (Greek Aorist). Action subsequent to another action in past time: so usually in a continued narrative.

Ex. Postquam hæc dixit abiit, After that he had said this, he departed.
(2) Action single or momentary in past time.

Ex. Quum hoc proelium factum est Cæsar aberat, Cossar was absent at the time when this battle took place.
(3) (Greek Perfect). Action completed before present time, or before time assumed to be present; as, Scripsi, $I$ have written. Sometimes with emphasis; as, Perii, It is all over with me. Fuit Ilium, Ilium is a thing of the past.

So of an action quickly completed; as, Terra tremit: fugere feræ, The earth quakes: the beasts are fled and gone.
(4) It is used also in subordinate sentences, in speaking of repeated actions, when the principal verb is in the present tense. (For this the pluperfect is used when the principal verb is in the imperfect, as in $\$ 222$. 2, and not often otherwise in (subordinate) temporal sentences unless, after postquam, some lapse of time between the actions is signified.)
§ 230. (D) The Future is in Latin (besides its other uses) used in subordinate sentences, qualifying a principal future sentence, and referring to the same time. (In English the present is generally found.)

Ex. Dicam quum potero, I will say, when I can.
Naturam si sequemur ducem, nunquam aberrabimus, If we follow the guidance of nature we shall never go astray.
But this future in the oratio obliqua becomes a present (or imperfect); as, Negat Cieero, si naturam sequamur ducem, unquam nos aberraturos. (Negabat, si sequeremur, $\$ 248$. 6.)
§ 231. (E) The Completed Future expresses
(1) Action already completed at a given future time.

Ex. Quum tu hæcc leges, ego illum fortasse convenero, When you will be reading this, $I$ shall perhaps have spoken with him.
(2) Action completed simultaneously to another action in future time.

Ex. Qui Antonium oppresserit, is bellum confecerit. The man that shall have crushed Antony will (therein) have finished the war.
(3) Future result of a past action.

Ex. Si plane occidimus, ego omnibus meis exitio fuero, If we are utterly fallen, I shall have been the destruction of all my friends.
(4) Action postponed.

A frequent meaning in the comic poets, but confined in writers of the best period to the word videro.

Ex. Recte secusne, alias viderimus, Whether rightly or not, we shall see on some future occasion.

## (B) Surjunotive Mood.

§ 232. The subjunctive mood expresses the supposition or conception of a fact as opposed to the assertion of it. All its uses may be ultimately referred to this, but for convenience they may be classed in subordinate divisions as follows. Either the fact or truth supposed may be considered as the cause or condition of another fact or trutl : or itself dependent on conditions or on other statements being true: or it may be imagined as an idea to be realized, a purpose to be carried out, a comanand, a wish, a result. In conditional sentences we have the first two classes, the former as the protasis, the latter as the apodosis : the former stating the circumstances, not which do exist, but which we suppose will have (or would have had) to exist in order that a thing may take place, and which consequently limit and determine the mode of its existence: the latter stating the thing which takes place not as a certainty but as contingent on the fact and truth of the other. The third class is exemplified by those sentences which contain the conjunction $u t$.
I. Action, event, truth, \&c. of which the existence is supposed, (r) as a bare supposition. (Hypothesis or Concession.)
(2) as a condition. (Condition.)
(3) to be the attendant cause or circumstance of another action. (Cause).
II. Action \&c. of which the existence is assumed,
(4) if certain other things exist. (Conditional existence.)
(5) according to the report or opinion of others. (Oratio obliqua.)
(6) because it is a qualification of some other supposed or assumed action. (Dependent on infinitive or subjunctive moods.)
III. Action, \&c. of which the existence is intended or desired:
(7) Wish.
(8) Command or duty.
(9) Purpose.
(10) Result or consequence.
§ 233. It must be always remembered that a writer may sometimes (especially in relative sentences, putting a definition, $\S 22 \mathrm{I}$, for a natural result, $\S 235,9$ ), if he chooses, express a supposition positively, as if it were a fact, and therefore use the indicative mood; or, on the other hand, express a fact as if it were only a supposition, and therefore use the subjunctive mood. If, however, he wish to imply by the form of expression that it is a supposition, or conception (though it may be also a fact), he uses the subjunctive; otherwise he uses the indicative.
$\S 234$. The student must further bear in mind, especially if he connect the use of the indicative and subjunctive moods with particular conjunctions, that a sentence which ordinarily would have had the indicative mood may have the subjunctive for some collateral reason. Thus a subjunctive of the classes numbered 4 or 7 , \&c. will be often found (especially where the and pers. sing. stands for the indefinite one) where otherwise we should have expected the indicative.

Ex. Si stare non possunt, corruant, If they cannot stand, why let them fall.
Camillus, quamquam exercitum assuetum imperio, qui in Volscis erat, mallet, nihil recusavit, Camillus,
although he would have preferred (i.e. if he had had the choice) the army which was amongst the Volsci, accustomed as it was to his rule, still made no objection. Regularly we should have had malebat.
So usually in sentences under 5 and 6 .
§ 235 . The subjunctive mood is generally found in subordinate sentences, qualifying a principal sentence and introduced by relatives and conjunctions, especially qui ( $q u \propto, q u o d$ ), si, quum, and $u t$. The conjunctions, besides connecting the sentences, serve also to render the general meaning (§ 218. 232) more precise. The different shades of meaning may be enumerated as follows, but it will be seen that they are closely related, and that several of the examples might be referred to other heads than the one under which they are here placed.

1. An aution merely supposed; but with consequent assertion exprest or implied; e.g. concessive sentences.

Ex. (a) Dicat aliquis, A man may say, (cf. §. 259.2). Hæc sint falsa sane: invidiosa certe non sunt, Suppose these-assertions to be false : invidious they are not.
Vendat ædes vir bonus, \&xc., Suppose an honest man to sell his house, \&c. (See the passage in Cic. Off. III. 13.)
(b) With conjunctions, e. g. ut, quamvis, forsitan.
(Licet is not a conjunction but a verb. Its use comes under 9.)
Ut desint vires, tamen est laudanda voluntas, Grant that strength be wanting, yet the will is praiseworthy.
Quamvis desint, \&c., Suppose strength to be wanting to any extent you please.
2. An action supposed as the condition of another action (i. e. in the protasis* of a conditional sentence).
*The protasis is the relative or conditional clause; the apodosis is the corresponding demonstrative or conditioned clause.
(a) Without conjunction (the verb being generally put first in the clause):

Ex. Partem opere in tanto, sineret dolor, Icare haberes, Some place in this great voork, had grief permitted, Icarus, thou wouldst have had.
Dares hanc vim Crasso, in foro saltaret, Had you (been giving, i.e.) offered this power to Crassus, he would have been dancing in the forum.
(b) With relative, esp. qui quidem, qui modo.

Ex. Omnium oratorum, quos quidem ego cognoverim, acutissimum judico Q. Sestorium, of all orators, at least whom I have known, I judge the acutest to be Q. Sestorius.
Quod sciam, As far as I know (i.e. if I know).
(c) With conj. e.g. si, dum ('provided that'), modo, dummodo.

Si hic sis, aliter sentias, If you should be in my position, you would feel differently. (For sentias, see 4. a.)
Maneut̀ ingenia senibus, modo permaneat studium et industria, Old men retain their abilities, do but their interest and industry remain unimpaired.
(d) With apodosis not exprest, especially with conj. quasi, tanquam si, ceu.

Ex. Sed quid ego his testibus utor, quasi res dubia aut obscura sit? But why do I resort to these witnesses as (I should do) if the matter were doubtful or obscure? (quasi is qua faciam si).
$O$ si angulus ille proximus accedat, $O$ if that corner close to should but be added!
3. An agtion thought as the attendant cadse or CIRCDMSTANCE under or notwithstanding which other actions or events take place.
(a) With relative; qui, presertim qui.

Ex. Jamdudum ego erro, qui tam multa verba faciam, $I$ have long been making a mistake in speaking at such length.
Egomet, qui leviter Grecas litteras attigissem, tamen Athenis commoratus sum, $I$, although $I$ had but slightly touched Greek literature, yet tarried at Athens.
(b) With conj. esp. quum, which thus gets to mean 'since,' 'whereas,' 'notwithstanding' (so quum presertim), 'if ever'; also after ubi, quicunque, in the last meaning.

Quæ quum ita sint, hoc dico, And since this is the case, I say as follows.
Quum in jus duci debitorem vidissent, convolabant, If ever they caught sight of a debtor being led into court, they used to fly together. to his assistance.
Eo quum pervenisset, ad reliquas legiones mittit, When he had come thither, he sends to the rest of the legions.
Dion, quum crudeliter a Dionysio violatus esset, tamen eodem rediit, Dion, notwithstanding that he had been cruelly outraged by Dionysius, still returned to the same place.
With the imperfect and pluperfect in historical narration, after quum (as in the last two examples), the use of the subjunctive is very frequent, and implies (without positively asserting) that the action, event, \&c. was not merely coincident or antecedent in time, but that it exercised, or might have exercised an influence over the other action or event. In English we often mark time only.
4. An action supposed as existing if something ELSE EXIST (i.e. in the apodosis of a conditional sentence).
(a) With Condition exprest:

Suljunctive Mood.
Ex. Si hic sis, aliter sentias, You would feel differently if you should be in my position. (For sis, see above, 2. c.)
Quidnam homines putarent, si tum occisus esset quum, \&c., What, pray, would men have been thinking, if he had been slain when, dc.
(b) With Condition not exprest:

Tu velim ad me venias, I should like you to come to me (i. e. if you can do so. For venias, cf. 9).
Themistocles quidem nihil dixerit, in quo ipse Areopagum adjuverit, Themistocles will (if he have tried to do so) have named nothing in which he helped the Areopagus (for adjuverit, see 6).
Canes venaticos diceres, You (or one) would have said they were hounds (i. e. if you [or one〕 had not known to the contrary).
Mihi poenarum illi plus quan optarem dederunt, To me they hare ficen more satisfaction than I should (now) have wished.
5. An Action reported as stated, or hnown, or тHoverrt by some one else; in a subordinate sentence.
(a) Ex. Laudat Panætius Africanum, quod fuerit abstinens, Pancetius praises Africanus for being (as Panætius asserts) abstinent. (If the writer's own opinion were given we should have had fuit.)
Romani, quia consules prospere rem gererent, minus his cladibus coumovebantur, The Romans were not so much disturbed by these disasters, because they considered the consuls to be managing the matter successfitlly. (Because [as a matter of fact] the consuls were managing matters successfully, would have required gerebant.)

So especially after non quod, non quia, non quo, introducing a reason alleged, but false.

Pugiles in jactandis cestibus ingemiscunt, non quod doleant animove succumbant, sed quia profundendâ voce omne corpus intenditur, venitque plaga yehementior, Boxers groan when wielding their gauntlets, not that (as people may think) they are in pain, or their heart fails them, but because by exerting the roice all the body is put on the stretch, and the blow comes with greater force.

## (b) Dependent interrogative:

Quesivi quid faceret, $I$ inquired what he was doing.
Videte ut hoc iste correxerit, See how the defendant corrected this.
Haud scio an crudele sit spectaculum, I know not whether it be (i.e. I almost think that it is) a cruel spectacle.
Rem frumentariam, ut satis commode supportari posset, timere se dicebant, They kept saying that they were afraid, that the corn could not be conveniently brought up (afraid about the corn, how it could be, \&c. See 259.4.e).

Relative clauses must be distinguished from interrogative, e.g. Senes omnia quæ curant meminerunt; qui sibi, cui ipsi debeant, old men remember all things which they care about; who owe them money, and whom they owe money to.
6. An AOtION QUALIFYing ANOTHER SUPPOSED AOTION, i.e. in sentences subordinate to subjunctive moods or infinitives, and not expressing independent declaration of facts.

Non enim is sum qui, quidquid videtur, tale dicam esse quale videatur, For I am not the man to say that whatever we see (i.e. all visible things, cf.§ 221) is of the kind it appears to be.

Si luce quoque canes latrent, quum deos salutatum aliqui venerint, opinor, iis crura suffringantur, quod acres sint, quum suspicio nulla sit, If in daylight also dogs should bark, when persons have come to add ress the gods, they would, I imagine, have their legs broken for being so watch ful, when there is no ground for suspicion. (If $s i$ were removed all the verlos would be in the indicative.)
N.B. To this and the preceding class belongs the use of the subjunctive in the oratio olliqua, for which see $\S 248$.
7. An action supposed and wished.
(a) Ex. Valeant cives mei: sint incolumes, sint beati, Farewell to my fellow-citizens: safe and happy may they be.
Inteream si valeo stare, May I die if I have strength to stand.
(b) With conj. utinam: Utinam eum inveniam, That I may but find him!
8. An action supposed and commanded. (ef. §248.4.)
(a) Ex. Aut bibat aut abeat, He must either drink or leave.
Puer telum ne habeat, Don't let the boy have the dart.
Sed de hoc tu ipse videris, You yourself must look to this. (Madvig considers videris an indicative, cf. § 231, 4.)
Ne dixeris, Do not say.
Adservasses hominem, icc., You should have lept the man, \&c. (See Cic. Verr. v. 65.)
Frumentum ne emisses, You ought not to have bought the corn (in past time).
Imitemur majores nostros, We should imitate our ancestors.

In prohibitions, if exprest in the third person, the present and perfect are frequent; if in the second person, the perfect both active and passive is preferred, and the present is very rare.
(b) In interrogative sentences (if negative, with non).

Ex. Quid hoc homine faciatis? What are you to do with such a fellow as this?
Cur plura commemorem? Why should I mention more?
Hæc quum viderem, quid agerem? Seeing this, what was I to do? (Cic. Sest.19. See the answer, ib. 20.)
So also in a dependent sentence :
Non satis constabat quid agerent, They did not rightly know what they were to do.
9. An action stated as an idea to be realized, a purpose to be carried out.
N.B. In English the (so-called) infinitive is regularly used to express a purpose, in Latin very rarely, and only in poetry.
(a) Ex. Fac cogites, Mind that you thint.

Cave putes, \&c., Bexare of thinking, \&c.
Intereat necesse est, Die he must.
Sine te exorem, Let me prezail upon you.
Licet scribat, He is allowed to write (lit. It is allowed that he write).
Exercitum locis habeam opportunis, provinciam tuear, omniaque integra servem, dabo operam. $I$ will exert myself to have the army in good positions, protect the province, and keep everything unharmed.
(b) With a relative.

Misi ad Antonium qui hoc ei diceret, $I$ sent one to Antonius to tell him this.
Non habet unde solvat, He has not wherewith to pay.
(c) With conj. ut, 'in order that,' dum, quoad, or in negative sentences, ut ne, dum ne, ne, quominus, \&c.

IEx. Legum omnes servi sumus, ut liberi esse possimus, We are all bond to laws that it may be possible for us to be free.
Cura ut valeas, Take care of your health.
Vereor ne hoc sit, I fear lest this be (i.e. that it is) the case. Cf. § 259. 4.e.
Caius orat Dolabellam ut ad Julium proficiscatur, Caius implores Dolabella to set out on his journey to Julius.
Oppidum oppugnare instituit, ne quem post se hostem relinqueret, He commenced besieging the town, that he might not leave any enemy in his rear.
Dum reliquæ naves eo convenirent, ad horam nonam in ancoris expectavit, He waited at anchor to the ninth hour to allow of the other ships assembling there.

Non recusabo quominus omnes mea scripta legant, $I$ will not object to all men reading my writings.

Elephantos in primam aciem induci jussit, si quem injicere ea res tumultum posset, He ordered the elephants to be led into the first line, in hopes that this manceuvre might cause some confusion.
10. An aotion stated as the natural result of others.
(a) With relative.

Ex. Digna res est, quam diu multumque consideremus, The matter is worthy of our long and full consideration.
Plus tamen ferociæ Britanni præferunt, ut quos nondum longa pax emollierit, The Britons, hoxever,
R. $G$.
exhibit more mettle (than the Gauls), inasmuch as a long peace has not yet enervated them.
Non is es, qui gloriere, You are not the person to boast.

Quid habes quod mihi opponas? What have you to bring against me?
Innocentia est affectio talis animi, quæ nocent nemini, Innocence is that kind of affection of the miich, which is hurtful to no one.
(b) With conj. ut (ut non in negative sentences), quin.

Ex. Reliquos ita perterritos egerunt, ut non prius fugâ desisterent, quam in conspectum agminis nostri venissent, The rest they drove before them in such a panic of fear, that they did not stop .hying, before they had come into sight of our line of march.
Accidit ut illo tempore in urbe essem, It so happened that I was in the city at that time.
Proximum est ut doceam, \&c., The next thing is that I should show, \&c.
Mos est hominum at nolint eundem pluribus rebus excellere, $1 t$ is the habit of the world not to allow that the same person excels in more points than one.
Sunt qui putent, There are persons such as to think (or, There are persons who may be supposed to think. So sunt \&c. qui generally in prose).
Nemo est quin dubitet, There is no one but hesitates.

## Tenses of the Subjunctive.

§ 236. As the time in subordinate propositions is determined by the time of the principal sentence, the present and perfect subjunctive are used in sentences dependent on primary tenses, the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive
in sentences dependent on secondary tenses. The historical present is considered as primary or secondary at the will of the writer. The tenses are generally distinguished from one another in the same way as the tenses in the indicative mood.
§ 237. If future time require to be distinctly marked, the periphrasis of the future in rus with sim or essem is resorted to (§ 225). Otherwise the present and imperfect supply the place of a simple future, and the perfect and pluperfect of a completed future.
(In Virg. 2 En. vi. $87 \mathrm{I}, 879$, we have an illustration of the way in which past tenses come to be used in reference to future time; because the speaker throws himself in imagination into the future, and speaks from that point of view.)

The following examples show the use in the sentences most frequently occurring. It will be seen that some sentences admit of a greater variety of tenses than others:
§ 238. I. In dependent interrogative and consecutive sentences.

1. Dependent interrogative (5.b).
 $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Video } \\ \text { Videbo }\end{array}\right\}$ quid facias, $\frac{I}{\text { I see }}$ shall see $\}$ doing.
(b) $\qquad$ quid feceris, $\qquad$ what you did or hare done, or will have done.
(c) $\ldots . . .$. quid facturus sis, ...... what you will do.

$\qquad$ what you had done or would have done.
(cc) ......... quid facturus esses, ...... what you were about to do.
2. Consecutive Sentences (10.a,b).
(a) Eo factum $\left.\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { Eo factum } \\ \text { est (perf.) } \\ \text { Eo fit } \\ \text { Eo fiet }\end{array}\right\} \begin{array}{c}\text { So ilites has re- } \\ \text { sulted } \\ \text { animos } \\ \text { demittant, } \\ \text { So it results } \\ \text { So it will re- } \\ \text { sult }\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned} & \text { that the sol- } \\ & \text { diers lose } \\ & \text { heart. }\end{aligned}$
(b) $\qquad$ demiserint, ......... have (or will have) lost heart.
(c) $\qquad$ demissuri sint $\qquad$ will eventually lose heart.

Sometimes demiserint of a distinct historical fact.
$\qquad$ demisissent $\qquad$ had lost heart.
(cc) ............ demissuri essent ...... were eventually to lose heart.
§ 239. II. In imperative and final sentences.
Present is used in sentences subordinate to primary tences: imperfect in sentences subordinate to secondary tenses.

1. Imperative.

Ex. (a) Mandavit (perf) $)_{\text {occludat }}$ Hehasenjoined him to Mandat $\quad$ oceludat He enjoins. shut to Mandabit $\quad$ Fortas, He will enjoin the gates.
(aa) Mandaverat ) ocelu- He had enjoined hewas to $\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Mandabat } \\ \text { Mandavit (aor.) }\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned} & \text { ocelu- He was enjoining } \\ & \text { deret, } \begin{array}{l}\text { shut to } \\ \text { the gates }\end{array} \\ & \text { thoined }\end{aligned}$
2. Final.

Ex. (a) Occlusit $(p f$.) portas ut hostes excludat, He has shut, Occludit shuts, \&e. the gates to shut out the ene-
Occludet my (that he may shut out the enemy.
(a) Occluscrat portas ut hostes excluderet, He had Occludebat shut,was shutting, \&c. the gates to shut Occlusit(aor.) out the enemy (that he might shut out).
§ 240. III. Optative and conditional sentences.
Present and perfect are used to imply that the wish may be realized, or the condition occur.

Imperfect and pluperfect to imply that the wish cannot now be realized, or the condition cannot now occur.

1. Optative.
(a) O veniat mihi ille iterum, May he come again to please me.
(b) Venerit mihi ille iterum, May he but luave come, \&c.
(aa) Veniret mihi ille iterum, Were he but coming again to please me.
(bb) Venisset mihi ille iterum, IIad he but come afain to please me.
2. Conditional.
(a) Si pereat, doleam, If he were (or should be) perishing, I should be grieving.
(b) Si perierit, doluerim, If he have perished, I (shall) have grieved.
(aa) Si periret, dolerem*, If he had been perishing, I should have been grieving.
(bb) Si perisset, doluissem, If he had perished, I should have grieved.

* This may often be translated like the pluperfect, but it implies a state or continuous action, not a completed act.
§24r. If this last conditional expression be in a dependent sentence, so that the subjunctive mood would be required on that account also, a periphrasis is resorted to ; as,

Ostendis quomodo, si perisset, doliturus fueris, You show how you would have grieved, if he had perished.
Ostendisti, \&c. $\qquad$ fuisses, You show$e d$, dec. (fuisses only in dependent interrogative).
The subjunctive is in translating into English often not distinguished from the indicative, especially in sentences under § 235. 3, 5, 6, 10 (b). The examples given above will suggest other modes of translating.

## (C) Imperative Mood.

§ 242. The innperative mood is used in commands and entreaties, generally (from the nature of its meaning) in the second person with the subject (pronoun of the second person) suppressed, but with the name of the person addressed in the nominative (or cocative in nouns of the second declension*).
Ex. Patres conscripti, subvenite misero mihi, Conscript fathers, succour me in my wretchedness (literally, succour me wretched).
§ 243. The future imperative is used with express reference to the time following, or some particular case that may occur, and thus frequently in legal forms.
Ex. Quum valetudini ture diligentissime consulueris, tum consulito navigationi, Do not think of sailing until you have most carefully taken thought for your health.
Servus meus Stichus liber esto (in a will), My slace Stichus is to be free.
*The imperative mood stands in the same relation to the indicative that a vocative case does to a nominative cass. So ama is to amas, amate to amatis, as domine to dominus. A final ' $s$ ' was easily lost in Latin, if we may judge from the early poetry; see Appendix F.

Dic quibus in terris, \&c., et Phyllida solus habeto, Tell me in what lands, \&c., and then you may keep Phyllis to yourself.
N.B. Commands are also, and prohibitions are in prose always (except in legal forms where we find the fut. imp.), exprest by the subjunctive mood, see $\$ 235.8$.

## OF THE INFINITE VERB.

§ 244. Besides the indicative, imperative, and subjunctive moods, verbs have other special forms and usages, one as a substantive, and another as an adjective. The former is called the infinitive mood, the latter the pariiciple.

## Infinitive Mood.

§ 245 . The infinitive is used as a substantive to express the action of the verb as an abstract notion but (gencrally) referred to a subject *. It has inflexious for diffurences of voice and tense, but not for person, and exercises all the functions of a verb in requiring objects and qualificatory expressions, but is never except possibly in one peculiar idiom, infr. 5) a direct predicate, thougle frequently a predicate of an accusative case.
§ 246. 1. As olject after another verb and sometimes (chiefly in poetry) after adjectives.

The verbs so followed by an infinitive are generally such as involve a reference to another action (of the same subject) to complete their meaning: e.g. verbs expressing will, power, duty, resolution, custom, commencement, \&c. Examples of such will be found throughout this Syntax.
Rx. Pompeius quoque statuit prælio decertare, Pompey also determined to fight it out in a pitched battle.

* See the abstract character well exemplified in Cic. Tusc. D. 1. 36.

Vincere scis, Hannibal, victoriâ uti nescis, You understand conquering, Hannibal, but do not understand using your victory.
Docebo eum posthac tacere, I will teach him silence for the future (see § 171).
Cupit scire, He desires knowledge.
Cupidus scire, Desirous of knowledge (in prose generally cupidus sciendi).
2. As oblique predicate, with its subject in the accusative case, the whole expression forming the object after verbs.

The verbs so followed are such as naturally have a thing or fact, not a person, for their object: e. g. verbs expressing knowledge, opinion, declaration, wish, permission, satisfaction, surprise, \&c. Sometimes expressions equivalent to a verb, e.g. testis sum, \&c., have a similar object.

## Ex. Promittebat se venturum esse, He was promising to come (or, that he would come).

Scimus te venisse, We know of your having come (or, We know that you have come).
Miror te ad me nihil scribere, I wonder at your not writing to me.
Sapientem civem me et esse et numerari volo, $I$ wish (myself) both to be and to be accounted a wise citizen.
Varus promissa non servari querebatur, Varus kept complaining of the promises not being kept.
Herus me jussit Pamphilum observare, Master bade me watch Pamphilus (or, ordered my watching Pamphilus).
Quid me impedit hæc probare? What prevents my proving this (or, approving of this)?
Cæsar castra vallo muniri vetuit, Coesar forbade the camp's being fortified with a rampart.

This infinitive is retained even when the finite verb is put in the passive voice, and the subject of the infinitive becomes the subject of this passive verb.
Ex. Ille dicitur mortuus esse, He is said to be dead.
Consules jussi sunt exercitum scribere, The Consuls were ordered to enrol an army.
Regnante Tarquinio Superbo in Italiam venisse Pythagoras reperitur, Pythagoras is found to have come into Italy in the reign of Tarquinius Superbus.
3. As subject of a sentence, either (a) absolutely or (b) with its own subject in the accusative case.

The predicate of such a sentence is usually either est with a substantive, adjective or participle (e. g. dictum, dicendum est), or an impersonal verb (\$15I).
Ex. (a) Dulce et decorum est pro patriâ mori, Sweet and comely is death in our country's cause.
Oportet me hoc dicere, It behoves me to say this.
Certum est mihi omnia audacter dicere, 1 am determined to tell the whole matter boldly (lit. To tell, dec. is for me a settled thing).
(b) Te venire pergratum est, Your coming is very pleasant to me.
Senatui placuit Crassum Syriam obtinere, The Senate approved of Crassus' holding Syria (lit. Crassus' holding Syria pleased the Senate).
4. Infinitive sentence used in exclamations (object or subject to a verb understood).
Ex. Ergo me potius in Hispaniâ tum fuisse quam Formiis, There now! that I should have been in Spain, rather than at Formion just then.
At te Romæ non fore! Oh! but to think of your not going to be at Rome.
Mene incepto desistere victam? (Can it be supposed) that I should be conquered and give up my design?
5. As predicate to a subject in the nominative case (possibly with some such idea as incipiebant understood), to express actions just commenced and rapidly following one another.
(This is sometimes called the historic infnitive.)
Ex. Postgıam ædes irruperunt, diversi regem quærere, When they brole into the palace, they went in different directions to seek the king.
Jamque dies consumptus erat, quum tamen barbari nihil remittere, atque, uti reges præceperant, acrius instare, And now the day was spent, when the foreigners still relaxed no efforts, and, as their chiefs had instructed them, began to press more vigorously.

## Tenses of the Infinttive.

§ 247. The tenses of the infinitive are regulated by the time of the infinitive verb being contemporaneous with, antecedent, or subsequent to that of the verb on which it depends.
(a) Antecedent: (See also App. p. 196.)

Spero te scripsisse, I hope that you have written already.
Speravi te scripsisse, I hoped that you had written already.
Magna laus est tantas res solum gessisse, It is a great praise to have performed such important exploits alone.
In the passive scriptus fuisse corresponds to scriptus fui or eram: scriptus esse to scriptus sum or scribebar.
(b) Contemporaneous: (Other examples in § 259. 2.)

Ex. Dico te scribere, I say that you are writing.
Dixi illud scribi, I said that that was being written.
Voluit scribere, He wished to write.

Delendam esse Carthaginem censeo, My opinion (and vote) is that Carthage must be annihilated. (See § 254.) (esse is often omitted.)
(c) Subsequent:

Credo te scripturum esse, I believe that you are about to write. (esse is often omitted.)
Credebam te deceptum iri, $I$ was in the belief that you would be deceived. (See p. 54.)
For the future infinitive, both active and passive, a periphrasis with fore or futurum esse is often made use of.
Ex. Oredo fore ut amem, amer, I belicre that I shall love, be loved.
Credidi fore ut amarem, amarer, I believed that I should love, be loved.

The completed future passive (or deponent) is expressed by fore with the past participle, as

Hoc dico me satis adeptum fore, si ex tanto in omnes mortales beneficio nullum in me periculum redundârit, $T$ this I say, that I shall have grined enough, if from so great a benefit towards all mankind, no danger shall have flowed back upon me.

## OF REPORTED SPEECH.

§ 248. When a statement is directly made, a question directly put, or a supposition exprest as the speaker's own, the language is said to be direct (oratio recta). So also in the report of a speech when the first person is retained; as, Ccesar said: I am about to march, \&c.

When a statement, question, or supposition is reported as made, put, or exprest by another than the narrator, but without retaining the first person, the language is said to be oblique or indirect (oratio obliquac); thus, Casar said that he was about to march.
(1) The moods used in the oratio obliqua are the infinitive and subjunctive, never the indicative.
(2) All statements in principal sentences (in the indicative mood) in the oratio recta become infinitives in the oratio obliqua.

Those relative sentences in which $q u i=e t$ is or nam is, quum $=e t$ tum, \&c, are put in the infinitive.
(3) Questions in the indicative mood in oratio recta, are put in the infinitive if of the first or third person: in the subjunctive if of the second person.
(4) All subordinate sentences, as also all sentences in the subjunctive and imperative moods in oratio recta, are put in the subjunctive.
(5) The tenses of the infinitive are present, or perfect, or future according as the time would have been present, perfect, or future in the oratio recta.
(6) The tenses of the subjunctive are usually (because dependent on a past tense, "he said,") secondary, viz. imperfect and pluperfect, especially in commands or questions; but if the verb on wbich the whole oratio obliqua depends be in the present, then the present and perfect may be used, as they would be in the oratio recta, and sumetimes even when the governing verb is in the past.
§249. N.B. When an indicative mood is found in the midst of oratio obliqua, it expresses an assertion of the narrator, not of the person whose speech is being reported; as,

Cæsar per exploratores certior factus est, ex ê̂ parte vici, quam Gallis concesserat, omnes noctu discessisse, Casar was informed by scouts, that from that part of the village, which he had granted to the Gauls, all had departed in the night. The quam Gallis concesserat is Cæsar's explanation for the benefit of his readers: the scouts would describe it to him by the local relations.
$\S 250$. The above rules will be best illustrated by the following extracts:

See also Cæsar, Bell. Gall. 1. 17, 18, 20, 31, 35, 36, 44, 45. Livy, I. 50, 53 ; IV. 2 ; v. 20. Tacit. Ann. XIII. 43 ; XIV. I. Cicero, Orat, pro Milone, 35.

Oratio Recta.
Divico ita loquitur. Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvetiis faciet, in eam partem ibunt atque ibi erunt Helvetii

Oratio obliqua.
Is ita cum Cessare egit: Si pacem populus Romanus cum Helvetiis faceret in eam partem ituros atque ibi futuros Helve-
ubi $u u$ eos constitueris atque esse volueris: sin bello persequi perseveras, reminiscitor et veteris incommodi populi Romani et pristinæ virtutis Helvetiorum. Quod improviso unum pagum adortus es, cum ii qui flumen transierant suis auxilium ferre non poterant, ne ob eam rem aut tuce magnopere virtuti tribueris aut nos despexeris. Nos ita a patribus majoribusque nostris didicinus ut magis virtute, quam dolo contendamus aut insidiis nitamur. Quare ne commiseris ut hic locus ubi constitimus ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitus nomen capiat aut memoriam prodat.

Respondet Cæsar: Eo mihi minus dubitationis datur quod eas res quas vos (legati Helvetii) commennoravistis memoria teueo: atque eo gravius fero quo minus merito populi Rom. acciderunt; qui si alicujus imjuriæ sibi conscius fuisset, non fuit difficile cavere: sed eo deceptus est quod neque commissum a se iutelligebat quare timeret neque sine causa timendum putabat. Quod si veteris contumeliæ oblivisci volo, num etiam recentium injuriarum, quod me invito iter per provinciam per vim temptastis, quod Hærduos, quod Ambarros, quod Allobroges vexastis memoriann deponere possum? Quod vestra victoria tam insolenter gloriamini
tios ubi eos Ccesar constituisset atque esse voluisset: sin bello persequi perseveraret reminis. ceretur et veteris incommodi populi Romani et pristine virtutis Helvetiorum. Quod improviso unum pagum adortus esset, cum ii qui flumen transissent suis auxilium ferre non possent, ne ob eam rem aut suc magnopere virtuti tribueret aut ipsos despiceret : se ita a patribus majoribusque suis didicisse, ut magis virtute, quam dolo contenderent aut insidiis niterentur. Quare ne committeret ut is locus ubi constitissent ex calamitate populi Romani et internecione exercitus nomen caperet aut memorian proderet.

His Cæsar ita respondit: Eosibi minus dubitationis dari quod eas res, quas legati Helvetii commemorassent memoria teneret atque en gravius ferre quo minus merito populi Rom. accidissent: qui si alicujus injurie sibi conscius fusset, non fuisse difficile cavere; sed eo deceptum quod neque commissum a se intelligeret quare timeret neque sine causa timendum putaret. Quod si veteris contumelis oblivisci vellet, num etiam recentium injuriarum, quod eo invito iter per provinciam per vim temptassent, quod Hæduos, quod Ambarros, quod Allobroges vexassent memoriam deponere posse? Quod sua victoria tam insolenter gloriarentur, quodque tam diu
quodque tam diu me impune injurias tulisse admiramini eodem pertinet. Consuerunt enim dii immortales, quo gravius homines ex commutatione rerum doleant, quos pro scelere eorum ulcisci velint, his secundiores interdum res et diuturniorem impunitatem concedere. Cum hac ita sint, tamen si obsides a vobis mihi dabuntur, uti ea qua pollicemini facturos intelligam, et si Hæduis de injuriis quas ipsis sociisque eorum intulistis, item si Allobrogibus satisfacietis, equidem cum vobis pacem faciom.

In hunc modum loquuntur: Quid est levius aut turpius quam auctore hoste de summis rebus capere consilium?

Quid de prædâ faciendum censetis?

Quod vero ad amicitiam populi Romani adtulerint, id iis eripi quis pati possit?
se impune injurias tulisse admilarentur, eodem pertinere. Consuesse énim deos immortales, quo gravius homines ex commutatione rerum doleant, quos pro scelere eorum ulcisci velint, his secundiores interdum res et diuturniorem impunitatem concedere. Cum ea ita sint, tamen si obsides ab iis sibi dentur, uti ea quæ polliceantur facturos intelligat, et si Hxduis de injuriis quas ipsis sociisque eorum intulerint, iten si Allobrogibus satisfaciant, sese cum iis pacem esse facturum.

Casar, B. G. I. I3, 14.
Tribuni militum nihil temere agendum existimabant: Quid esse levius aut turpius quam auctore hoste de summis rebus capere consilium?

Cefsar, B. G. v. 28.

Quid de prædâ faciendum censerent? Liv. V. 20.

Docebat...Quod vero ad amicitiam populi Rom, adtulissent, id iis eripi quis pati posset?

Cestar, B. G. I. 43.

Fama est aram esse in vestibulo templi Laciniæ Junonis cujus ( $=$ et ejus) cinerem nullo unquam moveri vento.
Liv. Xxiv. 3.

Of the use of the Participies.
§ 251. The Participles exercise the functions of a verb in requiring objects and qualificatory expressions, but have adjective inflexions. Like other adjectives, they frequently (esp. in the neuter gender) assume the character of a substantive.
I. 1. Used predicatively (very frequent).

Ex. Currit intuens hostes, He runs keeping his eye on the enemy (or He leeeps, de. as he rums).
Abiit mane profectus, He started early and left. Jacet interfectus, He lies slain.
Venit nos visurus, He comes to see us.
Post natos homines, Since the creation of mon.
Barbarus eum ob iram interfecti domini obiruncavit, A barbarian cut him down out of revenge for the murder of his master.
In suspitionem incidit regni appetiti, He became suspected of having aimed at a despotism (regni appetendi, of aiming at, \&c.).
See also § 191, 192, 259. 5.
2. Used as an epithet.

Ex. Carbo ardens cecidit, A glowing coal fell.
Tempus venturum docebit, Future time will show.
Res bene gestæ, Successful exploits.
3. Used as substantive; as, Docti, learned men; factum, a deed; amans, a lover; futurum, the future.
If such a participle be used completely as a substantive, an epithet to it may be an adjective; otherwise an adverb. Thus we have, præclarum factum, a glorious deed; also, recte factum, a good deed (lit. a thing rightly done). Facete dictum, a witty saying.
§ 252. II. The participle in dus has two usages:
(a) Substantival*. The neuter is used as a verbal substantive, and inflected accordingly for the different cases.
Ex. Est nobis obtemperandum legibus, It is for us to obey the laws, or, We must obey the laws (lit. There is for $u$ an obeying the laws).
Leges ad obtemperandum faciles, Laws easy to oboy.
Non est solvendo, He is insolvent (lit. He is not for paying).
Summa voluptas ex discendo capitur, The highest pleasure is received from learning.
Est nobis studium agendi aliquid, We have a fondness for doing something.
§ 253. The gen., dat., and abl. are used where the infinitive, if declinable, would have been used in those cases respectively: but the genitive is never dependent on a verb; and the accusative is only used after prepositions, especially ad and inter. The accusative is never, the dative and (if accompanied by a preposition) the ablative, are rarely used with a direct object dependent on them. The adjectival form (see next $\S$ ) is used instead. Thus, ad placandos deos, not ad placandum deos. The nominative is used to express an obligation, and is confined to intrans. verbs.

In the acc., gen., dat., and abl., this form is called a gerund.
§ 254. (b) Adjectival. If the verb be transitive, instead of the object being put in the accusative case, it is generally attracted into the same case as the participle, which is then made to agree with it in gender $\dagger$.

* It was even considered so completely a substantive that the genitive was used (not after Cicero) with a genitive case dependent on it; as, Facultas agrorum latronibus condonandi, a power of granting (of) lands to brigands. Cic. Philipp. v. 3. Perbaps however, both genitives are immediately dependent on facultas, A power over lands, of granting them, \&c.
+ This adjectival use seems to differ from the substantival as by laws-obeying differs from by obeying laves.

That the participle in ' $d u s^{\prime}$ (probably originally a present

Ex. Sunt nobis leges legendæ, We must read the laus (lit. The laws are for us to read).
Venit ad leges legendas, He came to read the laws.
Damus operam legibus legendis, We devote our exertions to reading the laws.
Legibus legendis bene meruit, He deserved well by his reading the laws.
Studium legum legendarum, The desire of reading the laws.
In this use (and the subst. nom.) the participle is called the gerundive.
active participle; comp. volvendus, e. g. volvenda dies, rolliny time, oriundus, secundus) is not really passive is shown satisfactorily by Donaldson and Key.
I. The gerunds which are of the same form, are active.
2. Deponents have no passive, and yet the participle in dus is used just as from an active verb.
3. Similar intransitive uses of present participles are common in other languages ; as, Before the cily was built or building (or, a-building, i.e. on or in building), which corresponds to the Latin, Ante conditam condendamve urbem.
4. Infinitives (to which the gerundive approximates in character only with adjectival inflexion) often exhibit a certain oscillation as to the subject and object of the action exprest by them, e.g. He is the man to do it: here man is the doer. He is the man to hit, here man might be either subject or object of the action. So in Greek, кa入os $i \delta \epsilon \hat{\nu}$, fair to view, compared with $\delta \epsilon \omega$ òs $\lambda \epsilon \gamma \epsilon \omega \nu$, good at talking. With the Latin gerund and gerundive may be compared the German, Die Schuld ist zu bezahlen, The debt is to be paid (for us to pay). Die zu bezahlende Schuld, The debt to be paid.

The expression of obligation usually attributed to the nominative case both of the substantive and adjective (i.e. gerund and gerundive) is not due to the form itself. How easily such a notion may be attached by custom to words which of themselves do not contain it may be seen by comparing the English phrases, We are about to do it, where mere futurity is implied, We are to do it, where obligation is implied. So It is to be done, may mean either Potest fieri or faciendum est, i.e. fiat necesse est.
R. G. $^{\text {. }}$
(The nominative construction is often conveniently translated by the passive in English, These laws must be read by us.)

> Similarly,
> Conon muros Athenarum reficiendos curavit, Conon had the walls of Athens restored (lit. Conon took charge of the restoring of the walls of Athens).

Demus nos philosophir excolendos, Let us give ourselves to philosophy to refine.

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§255. Sometimes as a mere epithet (rare):
Vir minime contemnendus, By no means a man (for us) to despise.
Malum vix ferendum, An evil scarcely to be borne.
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## Supines.

§ 256. The verbal substantive of the fourth declension is used in the accusative and ablative cases in certain expressions, where in English we use respectively the active ard passive infinitive. The accusative may have an object in the same construction as the verb from which it is derived would.
N.B. These forms are called the active and passive supines.

1. Accusative after verbs expressing motion:

Ex. Ivit petitum pacem, He went to seel peace (to a seeking peace).
Quamprimum hæc risum veni, Come as soon as possible to (enjoy a) laugh at these things.

Lacedæmonii senem sessum receperunt, The Lacedoemonians received the old man to sit (among them).

## Of the Passive Construction.

2. Ablative, especially after adjectives of quality:

Ex. Turpe dictu, $A$ thing disgraceful to be said (disgraceful in the saying).
§257. We have the dative of the same form in such expressions as habere contemptui, to hold for (an object of) scorn. So Quoniam eo natus sum, ut Jugurthæ scelerum ostentui essem, Since I was born to serve for an exhibition of (i. e. to exhibit) the crimes of Jugurtha.

## Of the Passive Construdtion.

§ 258. Any sentence may be exprest passively as well as actively. See also $\$ 245.2$.

1. If the verb be transitive, the object of the active verb becomes the subject of the passive verb, and the subject of the active verb is put in the ablative with the preposition $a b$.

## Ex. Lucius interficit Marcum, Lucius slays Marcus. Marcus interficitur a Lucio, Marcus is being slain by Lucius.

An oblique predicate of the object becomes a secondary predisate of the subject. Thus, Lucius creat Marcum consulem, becomes Marcus creatur consul a Lucio.
2. If the verb be intransitive and have an indirect object in the dative, the passive (3rd person sing.) is used impersonally, the object remains in the dative, and the subject is put as before in the ablative with $a b$.

Ex. Lucius nocet Marco, Lucius (is injuriousto, i.e.) hurts Marcus.

Marco nocetur a Lucio, Injury accrues to Marcus from Lucius (or, Marcus is hurt by Lucius).
3. The passive impersonal construction is often used to express actions done generally without any particular agent being specified.
Ex. Ejus testimonio creditur, Credit is given to his evidence.
Cui parci potuit? Who could have been spared?
Itur in silvam, People go into the wood.
His persuaderi ut diutius morarentur non poterat, They could not be induced to tarry longer.

## MISCELLANEOUS OBSERVATIONS.

§ 259. 1. (a) The reflexive pronouns se, suus, almost always refer to the subject either of their own sentence or, if that be subordinate (not unfrequently), to the subject of the principal sentence, eum or illum to some one not the subject ; as,
Ex. Dicit eum non se consulem creatum esse, He says that he (the other man), not himself, is created consul.
Sibi autem mirum videri, quid in suâ Gallià Cæsari negoti esset, It was (he said) amazing to him what business Cossar had in his (the speaker's) Gaul.
Dixit neminem secum sine suâ pernicie contendisse, He said that no one had fought with him (i. e. the speaker) without destruction to himself' (i. e. the opponent).
(b) But suus sometimes refers to another word in the sentence.
Ex. Hannibalem sui cives e civitate ejecerunt, Hannibal was banished from the state by his own fellowcitizens (lit. his own fellow-citizens banished, \&c.)

Catilina admonebat alium egestatis, alium cupiditatis suæ, Catiline reminded one of his poverty, another of his lusts (or, used to remind).
2. An assertion of power, duty, \&c. is exprest by auxiliary verbs (not by the subjunctive), thus,

Possum facere, 1 can do.
Poteram facere, I could have done at the time, or, I could have been doing.
Non potui facere, I could not have done.
Licet facere, I may do.
Liccbat facere, I might have done at the time, or, I might have been doing.
Licuit facere, I might have done.
Debeo facere, I ought to do.
Debebam facere, I ought to have been doing, or, to have done at the time.
Debui facere, I ought to have done.
The auxiliary is usually in the indicative, except in a dependent sentence. (Cf. § 234.)
3. (a) The use of auxiliary verbs in the apodosis of conditional sentences should be noted. The auxiliary is put in the indicative in order to indicate that it is not the power, duty, lawfulness, \&c. which is conditional, but only the performance of the act. Thus,

Antoni gladios potuit contemnere, si sic omnia dixisset. The si dixisset really qualifies contemnere, not potuit.
Si victoria, præda, laus, dubia essent, tamen omnes bonos reipublicæ subvenire decebat. Sall. Jug. 85.
(b) So also the future in rus is used with eram (where a specified point of past time is spoken of), or fui (of past time merely), or (if the construction require it) fuisse (not
the subjunctive, unless in a dependent sentence) in the apodosis of conditional sentences; as,

Illi ipsi aratores qui remanserant relicturí omnes agros erant, nisi ad eos Metellus Roma litteras misisset, Would have left their lands (lit. were purposing at the time to leave).
(c) Similarly the Latins said, Жquum, longum, \&c. est, erat, fuit, fuerat; where we should say, It would be, would have (now) been, would have (then) been, would have (previously) been, right, \&c.
4. Sentences that are or may be introduced in English by the conjunction that are variously exprest in Latin.

Such sentences are frequently in apposition to a substantive (ea res, hic sermo, \&c.), or neuter pronoun, generally in nom., acc. or abl. cases. (Such a pronoun corresponds strictly to the English word that*.)
(a) That $=$ in order that, so that, expressing a consequence intended or actual, i.e. a purpose or result, requires ut or qui (qua, quod) with subjunctive. (Examples in § 235. 9, 10.)

Such sentences follow verbs (and phrases) of effecting, praying, providing, adwising, commanding, striving, \&c. : also talis, adeo, $i t a, \& c$.

Verbs of wishing and commanding have also an acc. with inf. So almost always jubeo, patior, veto (see § 246. z).
(b) That after verbs (and phrases) of perceiving, knowing, thinking, saying, (mental) feeling, \&c. requires accusative with infinitive. (Examples in § 246. 2.)

Verbs of (mental) feeling have also quod with indicative of actual facts (\$222.5).

* A sentence like the following gives exactly the English idiom (ne being originally a simple negative, not a conjunction). Non minus id contendunt et laborant ne ea quæ dixerint enuntientur, They contend and labour not less that the things which they have said be not divulged.

Miscellaneous Observations.
(c) That = the fact that, because (except after such verbs as have been mentioned supr. $b$ ), expressing actual facts, requires quod with indicative (in oratio recta; see § 220).

Ex. Eumeni inter Macedones viventi multum detraxit, quod alienæ erat civitatis, It was very prejudicial to Eumenes while living among the Macedonians, that he belonged to a foreign state.
Hoc uno præstamus vel maxime feris, quod exprimere dicendo sensa possumus, In this one point we have the greatest superiority over beasts, that we have the power of expressing our feelings by speech.
Quod me vetas quicquam suspicari, geram tibi morem, In that you forbid my harbouring any suspicion, I will do as you wish.
(d) That when preceded by it, the clause being really subject to an impersonal verb, or to est with a secondary predicate, has several constructions, viz.:
I. After accidit, fit, sequitur, proximum est, accedit, \&c. expressing a consequence, we find $u t$ with subjunctive. (See § 235. 10. After accedit we find also quod with indic. of facts.)
II. After oportet, convenit ('it is proper'), expedit, pudet. \&c. we find the acc. with inf. Oportet (signifying necessity, not $d u t y)$ and necesse est have also subj. (without $u t$ ).
III. After such expressions as mos est, verisimile est, gloriosum est, \&c.

1. That...should, is to, may be translated by $u t$ with subj.
2. That...is, are, was, \&c. by quod with indic.
3. Abstract notions (with either English translation) by acc. with inf. after some expressions of the kind.
Ex. Hoc vero optimum est, ut quis nesciat, \&c., Now this is excellent (ironical), that a man should not know, \&c.
Ad multas res magne utilitatis erit, quod Gaius adest, It will be found to be of great service for many purposes that Gaius is here (or, Gaus' being here will, \&c.).

## Miscellaneous Observations.

Accusatores multos esse in civitate utile est, $A$ number of accusers in the state is a useful thing (or, That there should be, \&c.; or, I'hat there are, \&c.).
(e) That after verbs of fearing requires a negative in Latin where it does not in English, and vice versa; thus,

Vereor ne pater veniat, I fear that my father will come (lest my father should come, § 235.9.c).
Vereor $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { ut pater veniat, } \\ \text { ne pater non veniats }\end{array}\right\}$ I fear that my father will not come (I am afraid as to how my father is coming, § 235.5.b).
5. The past participle active in English is generally exprest in Latin by
(1) Past participle of deponent verb. Ex. Locutus, Having spoken.
(2) Quam c. plup. subj. Ex. Quum Cæsarem Having interfecisset, killed
(3) Abl. with obl. pred. Ex. Cæsare interfecto, Ccesar.

An expression of this kind referring to the subject or object, \&c. of the sentence must be put in the nominative or accusative, \&c. respectively.
Ex. Cohortes pulsæ a Cæsare diffugerunt, The cohorts, being routed by Coesar, fled in different directions (not. Cohortibus a Cæsare pulsis diffugerunt, if Cohortes be the subject to diffugerunt).
Manlius cæsum Gallum torque spoliavit, The Gaul being slain, Manlius despoiled him of the chain (not Manlius cæso Gallo torque eum spoliavit).
Such expressions may often be better translated by two finite verbs; e.g. Manlius slew the Gaul and despoiled him of the chain.
6. Several uses of prepositions in English are liable to lead to error in translating into Latin.
(a) ' $\mathrm{To}^{\prime}$ ' before a substantive in Latin must genemally be translated by the dative, except when it comes after verbs of motion, when $a d$ with the accusative is required.
(b) 'With' requires cum with the ablative; (1) when it denotes accompanied by, especially if it precede a person's name, i. e. He went with John; (2) when it denotes manner (not means or instrument), and the substantive stands singly without attribute of any kind. See § 206.c. 3.
(c) ' By ' when used with names of persons, by whose agency or instrumentality anything was done, should be translated by per with accusative after an active voice, by $a, a b$, with an ablative after the passive voice; when it denotes past, e.g. aiter a verb of motion, by prater c. acc.
(d) 'In' dependent upon a noun requires that a participle be added in Latin, or that in with the accusative should be used, i. e. He went to his house in town, Ivit in urbem domum, or, Ad domum in urbe sitam (not domum in urbe). See note to § 147.
(e) ' For' = instead of, on behalf of, requires pro with the ablative.
( $f$ ) 'Without' prefixed to a participle in English is exprest in Latin by a negative (never by sine with a gerund); thus,

Miserum est nihil proficientem angi, It is miserable to be tortured without making any adeance by it.
Consul non expectato auxilio collegre pugnam committit, The Consul joins battle without waiting for the reinforcements of his colleague.
Hæc dijudicari non possunt nisi ante causam cognoverimus, These things cannot be decided without our having first learnt the cause.
7. The Latin idiom prefers to make all the parts of a sentence dependent on the primary predicate.
(a) Thus a notion which might be made dependent on a substantive, and be exprest by the genitive, is often

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put in the dative, as dependent on the predicate; e.g. thus, Coesari ad pedes se projecerunt (§ 179), rather than Casaris ad pedes se projecerunt.
(b) So in expressions of place, e.g. Domo a Cicerone ivi ( $§ 205 . a$ ); not a Ciceronis domo.

Ivit in urbem domum (supr. 6. d).
See also the examples at end of Appendix G.

## Of the dse of certaty Conjunctions in Co-ordinate Sentences (chiefly from Madvig).

§260. Co-ordinate sentences, regularly exprest, either have a conjunction with every member, or with all but the first. In the former case the writer shows that he has foreseen the distribution of his sentence into two or more co-ordinate clauses or parts; in the latter case the first clause expresses the original idea, the others are in the nature of after-thoughts. The following are the most important usages (in prose chiefly) requiring notice:
I. Copulative conjunctions, i.e. those which connect both sentences and meaning: et, quĕ (appended to the first word of a clanse), atquĕ (or before consonants $a c$ ).
(a) et...et simply connect, whether words or sentences.
(b) quĕ...et connect only words; as, Seque et ducem, Both himself and his leader.
(c) quĕ...quĕ, rare in prose; but used with a double relative; as, Quique Rome, quique in exercitu erant, Both those at Rome and those in the army.

When used only with second member, quĕ marks the second member as a supplement to the first: ac (atque) puts the second member forward more forcibly. The distinction is, however, not always preserved.

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Ex. Omnia honesta inhonestaque, All things becoming, and the unbecoming too.
Omnia honesta atque inhonesta, All things, the unbecoming no less than the becoming.
In joining tbree or more perfectly co-ordinate words, we may either omit the conjunction entirely, as, Summâ fide, constantiâ, justitia, or connect each of them with the preceding (prefixing a conjunction to the first also, or not, as we like), as, Sumnâ fide et constantiâa et justitiâ: or we may omit it between the first members and annex que to the last; as, Summâ fide constantià justitiâque.
2. Disjunctive conjunctions, i.e. those which connect the sentences, but disconnect their meaning: aut, vel, ve (appended to first word of clause), sive (or seu before consonants only).
(a) aut... aut connect things mutually exclusive, especially where an alternative is offered; as, Aut Cæsar aut nullus, Either Ccesar or nobody. Aut hoc aut illud, Either this or that (but not both).
(b) vel...vel give a chnice of expression, or connect things not mutually exclusive, or with either of which the assertion is equally true; as, Vel metu, vel spe, vel pœnâ potest Galliam vincere, He can conquer Gaul, either with fear, or hope, or reward (i. e. with any or all).
(c) vё...vॅ. Only in poets; similar to vel...vel.
(d) seu (sive)...seu (sive) connect (as mere conjunctions) only nouns and adverbs, and are used of unessential distinctions; as, Sen casu seu consilio deorum, Whether by chance or by the plans of the gods (no matter which). (If used with verbs they are equal to vel si...vel si).

When used only with second member, aut implies an essential distinction of ideas; vel (often rel potins, vel etiam), rĕ, seu $\langle s i z=\rangle$ (often seu potius, where a correction of something previously said is meant) are used to introduce expressions regarded as supplementary to, or possible corrections or substitutions for, a former expression.
3. Adversative conjunctions, i.e. those which contrast the meaning, while they connect the sentences: sed, autem, rerum, at (autem does not begin a sentence, but is placed after the first word).

## 172 Use of Co-ordinating Conjunctions.

(a) Sed, but, introduces a sentence which alters or sets aside the former; as, Ingeniosus homo sed in omni vita inconstans, A clever man, but unstable throughout life.
(b) Autem, hovever, introduces a different statement in continuation of a former, but in no way limiting it; as, Gyges a nullo videbatur, ipse autem omnia videbat, Gyges used to be invisible to everyone, and yet he himself see everything.

Nunc quod agitur agamus, agitur autem, \&c., Now let us attend to the real matter on hand, and that is, dec.
(c) At introduces an emphatic observation different from the preceding. It is especially used in lively discourses introducing objections, or interrogative exclamations; as,

At memoria minuitur, But (you say) the memory grows weal. So especially at enim.

Una mater Cluentium oppugnat. At quæ mater! Only his mother assails Cluentius. But what a mother!
(d) Verum (also verum etiam) is similarly used, but expresses the correction of the preceding more strongly.
4. Negative conjunctions, nĕque (nec before consonants), nēvĕ (neu before consonants).
[Non is not: haud has similar meaning, but is not usual with verbs (except in haud scio); ne is used in sentences denoting a will, wish, command, or design.]
(a) nĕque...nĕque, neither...nor.
(b) nęque...et, both not...and.
(c) et...nĕque, both... and not.
(d) nēve...nēve = et nē...et nē.
$N \bar{e} \ldots q u i d e m$ (the emphatic word being put between the particles) is not even, or neither (when we use this word in the second member, without nor following) ; as, Ne matri quidem dixi, Not even to your mother did I mention it.

Si non sunt, nihil possunt esse; ita ne miseri quidem. sunt, If they do not exist, they cannot be anything; neither then are they miserable.

## Use of Particles in Interrogative Sentences. 173

Neque in the second member is often joined with tamen, vero, enim: nēv״̈=et $n \bar{e}$ or ant $n \bar{s}$ is used in the second member to express a negative purpose, \&c. when ne or $u t$ has been used in the first.

Of the dise of Partideles in Interrogative Sentences.
§26r. Questions are either simple or alternative. The Latins generally distinguish interrogative sentences by particular particles.
(1) Simple questions.
(a) $N \check{e}$ (appended to the important word), when the answer may be either yes or no; as, Sentisne? Do you feel?
(b) Nonnĕ, when the answer yes is expected; as, Nonne sentis? Do you not feel?
(c) Num, when the answer no is expected; as, Num sentis? You do not feel, do you?
(Affirmative answers are etiam, ita, vero, sane, ita vero, ita est, sane quidem; or with the proper pronoun, as, Ego vero. Or the verb is repeated, as, Sentio.

Negative answers are non, minime, minime vero; or with the pronoun, as, Minime nos quidem; or with the verb, as, Non sentio. When the contrary, \&c. is asserted by way of reply, we have Imo, imo vero, 'No, on the other hand;' 'Nay, rather.')
(2) Aliernative questions.
(a) Utrum...an; as, Utrum nescis, quam alte ascenderis, an in pro nihilo habes, Are you ignorant what a height you have reached, or do you count it for nothing?
(b) N厄 (appended)...an. Pacemne huc fertis an arma? Is it peace or arms that ye bring?
(c) An (with second member of question). Sortietur an non? Will he draw the lot or not?

## 174 Use of Particles in Interrogative Sentences.

(d) Ne (only in dependent questions and with second member). In incerto erat vicissent victine essent, It was uncertain at the time whether they were conquerors or conquered.
N.B. $A n$ is frequently used in a question apparently simple, but in reality the first member is supprest, and this is in fact indicated by the use of an, which always belongs to the second member of an alternative question.

Ex. Quando autem ista vis evanuit? An postquam homines minus creduli esse coeperunt? But when did that efficacy you talk of pass away? (Need I ask) or was it (not) from the time when men began to be less credulous?

## APPENDICES.

## APPENDIX A.

## LATIN DECLENSIONS OF GREEK NOUNS.

(Chiefly from Madvig, Kennedy, and Donaldson.)
Many words, chiefly proper names, were adopted from the Greek, and retained, some more, some less, their Greek mode of declension. They belong to the 1st, 2nd, or 3rd declensions of Latin nouns. Many have also a purely Latin form.
ist Declension in $\vec{a} s, \bar{e} s, \bar{e}$. Greek nouns differ from Latin only in the singular. Some in $\bar{a} s$ have also a form in $\vec{a}$ for nominative; as, Mudă, or Mudās (Mídas) :
Sing.

Voc. Anēā Anchīsē, or - $\bar{a}$ ĕprtŏmē
Acc. Anēam, or -ān Anchīsēn ěpitŏ̌mēn
Gen. Anēæ Anchisæ épitơomēs
Diat. Anēæ Anchisæ ěp̌tơmæ
Abl. Ænēā Anchisē, or -ā 厄̌pitơmē
2nd Declension in $\check{u} s, \overline{o s}, \bar{u} s$, on neut.:
Sing,

| Nom | Dëlðs ( $\Delta \hat{\eta} \lambda o s$ ) | Androgěōs ('A $\lambda \delta \rho o ́ \gamma \epsilon \omega s$ ) | Panthūs ( $\Pi \alpha \dot{\alpha} \nu \theta_{o v s)}$ | ${ }^{\text {Nom. }}$ (cōlŏn |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Voc. | Dēle | Andrŏgěos | Panthū |  |
| Ace. | Dēlŏn,or -um | Andrưgēōn, or $\overline{0}$, or - o а | Panthum | Acc. |
| Gen. | Dēli | Andrơgěo, or -i | Panthi | Gen. cölī |
| Dat. | Dèlō | Andrơgěo | Pantho | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Dat. cōlō } \\ & \text { Abl. } \end{aligned}$ |

In the plural we find a few forms: nom. cănēphorroe, (female) basket-bearers; and gen. plur. Georgicōn, of farming matters.

Such as the following have inflexions belonging to the 3 rd decl., as well as those belonging to the and or ist decl.
Sing.

Voc. Orpheu Perseu Persē, or $-\breve{2}$
Acc. Orphĕum, or -̌̆̆ Persĕ̆ $\quad$ Persēn
Gen. Orphêi, or -ề, or -e̛ơs Persēì Persæ
Dat. Orphēō, or :Є̌̌, or -ḕ Persēō, or Persī Persæ
Abl. Orphē̄̄, or eo Persē̄̄, or -еे $\quad$ Persē, or $-\bar{\alpha}$
So also Achilles and Ulixes, which are otherwise of the 3 rd decl., have genitives $A$ chillzē and Ulixě̃̄ as well.

3rd Declension:
Sing.
Nom. Thăılēs Periclēs Păris
Voc. Thæ̌lé, or -ēs Pe̛riclēs, or ee Părı
Acc. Thălem, or -ēn, or -ētă Periclem, or -ĕa ParYn, or -im, or - -dă, or-Ydem
Gen. Thanlss, or -ētls
Dat. Thăli, or -ēti
Periclls, or -i Paridls
Abl. Thălē, or -ettĕ
Periclī • Părı̛̀ī
Periclé, or -i Părıde (or-í?)
Sing. Nom. Ĕrinny̌s
Voc. Erinny̆
Acc. Erinnny̌n, or -ym, or -y̆
Gen. Erinny̆ls, or - ууs, or y̆ð
Dat. Erinny̆l, or $-\bar{y}$
Abl. Erinny̆e, or $-\bar{y}$
Plur. Nom. $\left.\}_{\text {Voc. }}\right\}$ Erinny̆̌̆s, or $-\overline{\mathrm{ys}}$ Voc. ${ }_{\text {Acrinny̆ăs, or }-\overline{\mathrm{ys}}}$

Gen. Erinoy̌um
Dat. (Erinny̆s̆̆n, or -y̆bus?)
Sing. Nom. Nērē̌s
Voc. Nēē̄̄̀
Acc. Nērĕ̛̀dă, or -dem
Plur. Nom. $\left.{ }_{\text {Voc. }}^{\text {No }}\right\}$ Nērē̌rdĕs
Gen. Nērē̌̌ď̌s, or -dYs
Acc. Nērërldăs, or dēs
Dat. Nerē̌di
Abl. Nērē̌rdě
Gen, Nērē̆dum


## Terminations of Derivatives.

Sing. Nom. crāter
Voc. crāter
Acc. crātēră, or -em
Plur. Nom. Voc. $_{\text {Verātërĕs }}$

Gen. crätērıs
Gen. crātērum
Dat. crātērī
Abl. crātērě
Sing. Nom.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Nom. } \\ \text { Voc. } \\ \text { Acc. }\end{array}\right\} \bar{E} c h \bar{o}$
Gen. Ēchūs
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Dat. } \\ \text { Abl. }\end{array}\right\} \bar{E}^{\text {Echō }}$
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { Dat. } \\ \text { Abl. }\end{array}\right\}$ crātērłlbŭs
Sing. Nom. $\underset{\text { Voc. }}{\substack{\text { Nido }}}$
Voc. ${ }^{D}$
Acc. Dìdō, or -ōnem
Gen. Dìdūs, or -ōnYıs
Dat. Dī̀ō, or -ōnī
Abl. Dīdō, or ōné
Gen. Plur. in on is sometimes found; as, metumorphōseōn. The acc. sing. in $\breve{a}$, and plur. in $\breve{a} s$, from imparisyllabic nouns are very common.

## APPENDIX B.

## Terminations of Derivatives.

(Mainly an abridgment from Madvig.)
THE following are the most frequent terminations of derivalive substantives, adjectives, and verbs, with their most usual meanings. They are generally affixed to the root, which is sometimes slightly modified. (The short connecting vowel is here generally mentioned as part of the termination.)
I. r. Substantives, derived from substantives,
(a) and denoting persons, end in -ärius, e.g. argentarius, a banker, (argentum).
(b) denoting office, or employment, or condition, have these endings, (all affixed to personal names),
-ium, e.g. sacerdotium, priesthood; (sacerdos).


- w̄口a, e.g. prætura, proctorship; (prætnr).
-inco, e.g. doctrina, teaching; (doctor).
R. G.
(c) denoting place, end in
- $\bar{\alpha}$ rium, e.g. seminarium, seed-plot; (semen).
-ium, affixed to personal names in or; e.g. auditorium, lecture-room; (auditor).
-inum, affixed to personal names in or; e.g. pistrinum, bakehouse; (pistor).
-ile, affixed to names of animals; e.g. ovile, sheepfold; ( ovis ).
-ẽtum, affixed to names of plants; e.g. quercetum, oak-grove; (quercus).
(d) denoting material objects, end in
-al, e.g. animal, a breatzing thing; (anima).
-ar, e.g. calcar, a spur; (calx).
Some rarer terminations are seen in the following words: predo, a robber, (preda); lectīca, (lectus); fabrǐca, (faber); militia, (miles) ; ærugo, (æs).
(e) Diminutives, end in
$-\breve{u} l u s,-a$, -um, affixed to nouns of 1st and 2nd decl., and to some few of the 3 rd; e.g. servulus, a little slave; arcula, a small box; rēgulus, a petty liing, or chieftain; (servus, arca, rez).
- -lus, $-a$, $-u m$, (if vowel precede), e.g. filiolus, a little son; (filius).
-lus, $-a$, -um, with assimilation of preceding consonant; e.g. tabella, tablet; agellus, small plot of land; (tabula, a.ger).
-culus, -a, -um, affixed to nouns of 3rd, $4^{\text {th, }}$, or 5 th decl.; e.g. flosculus, flowret; virguncula, little girl; versiculus, versicle; diecula, short time; (flos, virgo, versus, dies).
-illus, -a, -um, e.g. sigillum, seal; lapillus, little pebble; (signum, lapis).
I. 2. Substantives, derived from adjectives,
and denoting quality, end in
-tas, or -ittas; e.g. bonitas, goodness; pietas, dutifulness; libertas, liberty;' (bonus, pius, liber, free).
-ia, affixed mostly to adjectives of one termination (§ I3. 2. c), e.g. audacia, boldness; (audax).
-tia, or -rtia; e.g. justitia, justice; (justus). $-\iota \bar{u} d o$, e.g. altitudo, height; (altus).
Rarer terminations are seen in grayēdo, (gravis), sanctimōnia (sanctus).
I. 3. Substantives, derived from verbs,
(a) and denoting agents, end in
-tor, or -sor, (i.e. or affixed to supine form), e.g. ad-
jutor, helper; tonsor, barber; (adjuvo, tondeo).
-trix, or -strix, fem. of above, e.g. adjutrix, tonstrix.
(b) denoting action, have endings
affixed to root of verb,
-or, e.g. amor, love; favor, favour; (amo, faveo).
-ium, e.g. imperium, a command; gaudium, delight; (impero, gaudeo).
-io, e.g. oblivio, forgetfulness; (obliviscor).
affixed to supine form,
-io, e.g. tractatio, treatment; divisio, division; (tracto, divido).
-us, e.g. auditus, hearing; visus, seeing; (audio, video).
-ūra, e g. conjectura, conjecture; (conjicio).
(c) denoting thing, i.e. means, and sometimes place, end in
-men, (sometimes denotes action), e.g. velamen, veil; lumen, (i.e. lucmen), light; tegmen, covering; molimen, effort; (velo, luceo, tego, molior).
-mentum, e.g. ornamentum, an ornament; tormentum, (for torcmentum), hurling-machine; (orno, torqueo).
-cŭlum, ollum, e.g. operculum, lid; (operio).
-crum, if the word have an $l$ near the affix, e.g. sepulcrum, tomb; (sepelio).
-ulum, -clum, if the root end in $c$ or $g$, e.g. vinculum, a bond; (vincio).
-bülum, -blum, e.g. pābulum, fodder; (pasco).
12-2
$-b r u m$, -bra, if the word bave an $l$ near the affix, e.g. flabrum, blast; dolabra, mattock; (flo, dolo).
-trum, (before which affix $d$ becomes s), e.g. aratrum, plough; rostrum, beak; (aro, rodo).

Rarer terminations are seen in the following words: prurigo, (prurio) ; cupīdo, (cupio); erro, a wanderer; (erro); tūtèla, (tutor); quĕrella, (queror); (i.e. $l$, when the preceding syliable is long: $l l$, when it is short. Lachmann).
II. I. Adjectives, derived from substantives.
A. From common nouns,
(a) and denoting the material, or resemblance, end in
-eus, e.g. ligneus, wooden; virgineus, maidenly; (lignum, virgo).
-neus, -nus, or -inus, (esp. of woods), poppulneus, of poplar-wood; ilignus, of holm-oak; fraternus, brotherly; cedrYnus, of cedar-wood; (poppulus, ilex, frater, cedrus).
-cicius, latericius, of brick; gentilicius, relating to the clansmen; (later, gentilis).
-āceus, e.g. chartaceus, of paper; (charta).
(b) denoting to what a thing belongs, end in
-ius, (usually from personal nouns in or), e.g. imperatorius, belonging to a general; regius, lingly; (imperator, rex).
-rcus, (chiefly in poetry), e.g. bellicus, relating to war; (bellum).
-ivus, e.g. festivus, festive; captivus, captive; (festus, captus).
-ilis, e.g. civilis, of a citizen; sextilis, of the sixth (month); (civis, sextus).
-ālis, e.g. fatalis, fated; naturalis, natural; (fatum, natura).

- ar ris, if the word have $l$ near to the affix, e.g. popplaris, popular; (pøpulus).
-inus, e.g. libertinus, belonging to a freedman; equinus, of horses; (libertus, equus).
$-\bar{a} n u s$, e.g. urbanus, of the city; primanus, of the fourth (legion); (urbs, primus).
$-\bar{a} r i u s$, e.g. agrarius, connected with land; septuagenārius, of seventy (years); (ager, septuaginta).
(c) denoting fulness, end in
-ōsus, e.g. damnosus, ruinous; lapidosus, full of stones; (damnum, lapis).
- ॅulentus, or -ðlentus, e.g. fraudulentus, fraudulent; violentus, violent; (fraus, vis).
(d) denoting what a thing is furnished with (participial forms), end in
-ätus, e.g. barbatus, bearded; (barba).
-itus, e.g. turritus, turreted; (turris).
-ūtus, e.g. cornutus, horned; (cornu).
-tus, e.g. onustus, laden; (onus).
The following words exhibit rarer terminations: rusticus, (rus); aquätülis, (aqua); diuť̆nus, (dies, or diu); legitimus, (lex); æternus, (ætas, i.e. ævitas) ; campester, (campus); subitāneus, (subitus); honörus, (honor).


## B. from Proper Names of Persons.

The names of Roman clans in ius are properly adjectives, and are used as such of a man's public works, e.g. Gens Fabia, the Fabian clan; M. Fabius, Marcus of the Fabian clan; hence lex Fabia, a lavo (or statute) procured by a Fabian, (as we say Lord Campbell's Act, mearing an Act of Parliament proposed by Lord Campbell); wia Appia, a road constructed by one of the Aprian clan.
(a) From these words are derived adjectives, ending in $-\bar{a} n u s$, relating to an individual of a family; e.g. bellum Marianum, the war against Marius.

So Romans adopted by another took the name of their adopted father, and appended to it an adjective of this kind derived from their own clan; e.g. U. Julius Cæsar Octavianus, was the name of Augustus, originally of the Octavian clan.
(b) From Roman surnames are derived adjectives, ending in
-iānus, e.g. Ciceronianus; (Cicero).
-ānus, (more rarely), e.g. Sullānus, Gracchānus; (Sulla, Gracchus).
-īnus, (rare), e.g. Verrīnus, Plautinus; (Verres, Plautus).
-е̌us, (in poets and later writers), e.g. Cæsareus, Romuleus; (Cæsar, Romulus).
(c) From Greek names are derived adjectives, ending in
-ēus, e.g. Aristoteleus; (Aristoteles).
-ľcus, e.g. Platonicus; (Plato).
C. from Proper Names of Places;
(a) from Latin names, end in
$\rightarrow \bar{a} n u s$, from names ending in $a, a, u m, i$, e.g. Romanus, Fundānus; (Roma, Fundi).
-inus, from names in ia and ium, e.g. Amerinns, Lanuvinus; (Ameria, Lanuvium).
$-\bar{a} s$, (gen. $\bar{t} t i s)$, from names in $a$, $\mathfrak{c}$, um, (esp. na, no, num), e.g. Arpinas, Fidenas; (Arpinum, Fidenæ).
-ensis, from names in $o$, and some in $a, a$, wim, e.g. Sulmonensis, Cannensis; (Sulmo, Cannæ).
(b) from Greek names, end in
-ius, e.g. Rhodius; (Rhodus).
-ātes, e.g. Spartiates; (Sparta).
-ītes, e.g. Abderites; (Abdera).
-ōtes, e.g. Heracleotes; (Heraclea). and others.
D. Names of nations are themselves adjectives, with the terminations previously noticed, e.g. Latinus. Others in scus, or cus, e.g. Volscus, Grecus. Others are for the most part substantives, e.g. Italus, Thrax; from these are formed adjectives ending in
-řcus, e.g. Italicus, Arabicus.
-ius, from Greek words, e.g. Thracius.
II. 2. Adjectives derived from verbs.
(a) denoting action, end in
$-a x$, affixed to root, e.g. minax, threatening; pugnax, pugnacious; (minor, pugno).
(b) denoting state, end in

- Tclus, affixed chiefly to root of intransitive verbs of 2nd conj.; e.g. calidus, hot; timidus, afraid; (caleo, timeo); rapidus, hurrying; (rapio).
(c) having passive signification, end in
-lilis, affixed to root and supine form, e.g. fragilis, brittle; docilis, teachable; fissilis, cleavable; (frango, doceo, findo).
-bilis, affixed to root and supine form, e.g. amabilis, loveable; flexibilis, pliable; (amo, flecto).
-icius, (affixed to supine form), commenticius, feigned; insiticius, grafted; (comminiscor, insero).
Other rarer terminations are seen in the following: facundus, eloquent, (for, I speak); querŭlus, querulous, (queror); conspicuus, visible, (conspicio).

The participles also are often used as mere adjectives; see § 8r. 7; 251. 2.
III. Derivative Verbs are derived from substantives, adjectives, and other verbs.
I. Verbs of the ist conjugation are mostly transitive.

They are derived
(a) from substantives, e.g. fraudo, $I$ cheat; vulnero, $I$ wound; (fraus, vulnus).
(b) from adjectives, denoting originally (but not always) to make a thing what the adjective denotes, e.g. maturo, I ripen; memoro, I make mention of; (maturus, memor).
(c) from verbs, denoting frequent repetition.

- utto, affixed to root of verbs of rst conj. or supine form of 3 rd conj., e.g. dictito, say frequently; visito, visit frequently; (dicto, viso).
-to, or $-s o$, i.e. inflexion of rst conj. affixed to supine form of 3 rd conj., denoting a new idea in which is involved frequent repetition of the original action, e.g. pulso, beat; tracto, handle; (pello, thrust; traho, draw).
(d) illo, diminutives; e.g. cantillo, quaver; (cano, hence probably cantus, cantillus, whence cantillo).
(e) mostly intransitive. Deponents formed from substantives and adjectives, and denoting to be something, or occupy oneself with something; e.g. ancillor, be a maid-servant; greecor, act like a Greek; aquor, fetch water; (ancilla, Græcus, aqua).

2. Verbs of and conj. are frequently intransitive.

They are derived
From substantives and adjectives, e.g. luceo, be light; floreo, flourish; (lux, flos); albeo, be white; (albus).
3. Verbs of 3rd conj. are derived

From other verbs, and end in
-sco, denoting commencement of action, chiefly from verbs of and conj., e.g. horreseo, shudder; (horreo). See § rog. Sometimes the simpler form in eo is not found, e.g. maturesco, formed (as if from matureo) from maturus.
4. Verbs of 4th conj. chiefly transitive (similar to verbs of ist conj.), are derived
(a) from substantives, e.g. finio, finish; punio, punish; (finis, poena).
(b) from adjectives, e.g. mollio, soften; superbio, be proud; (mollis, superbus).
(c) ürio, affixed to supine form, denoting inclination; e.g. esurio, hunger; parturio, be in labour; (edo, pario).

## APPENDIX C.

## Of the Construction of certain Verbs.

Many Latin verbs have a different construction or use from what would be expected from their ordinary English equivalents. The following are some of the most usual instances, which bave not been otherwise noticed in the preceding pages.
(Partly from Madvig and Donaldson.)

Abdico me magistratu,
Abeo magistratu,
Absum propius a Brundisio,
Adigo aliquem jusjurandum,
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { ad jusjurand } \\ \text { jurejurando, }\end{array}\right.$
Animadverto aliquem,
Animadverto in aliquem,
Attendo $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { aliquid, } \\ \text { aninum ad aliquid, }\end{array}\right.$
Aversor scelus,
Coeptus sum laudari (not capi, with pass. inf.), I began to be praised.
Caveo $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { aliquem, } \\ \text { ab aliquo }\end{array}\right.$
Caveo hane summam tibi, $\quad I$ give you security for this amount.
Cedo tibi possessione hortorum, I give you up possession of the gardens.
Circumdo $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { muras urbi, } \\ \text { urbem muris, }\end{array}\right.$
I throw a wall round the city.
Colloco filiam $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { viro, }, \\ \text { in matrimonio },\end{array}\right.$
$I$ give my daughter $\left\{\begin{array}{l}a \text { husband. } \\ \text { in marriage. }\end{array}\right.$
Commuto mortem cum vitâ, I get (more usually, give) death for life.


- A definite penalty of money or land is always put in the ablative, e. g. damnari decem millibus, tertia parte agri.

Condono filium patri,
Confero culpam in aliquem, Consolor alicujus dolorem,
Convenio aliquem,
Conveniunt hæc vitia in aliquem,
Convēnit tempus $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { inter nos, } \\ \text { mihi tecum, }\end{array}\right.$ (not convenimus de tempore),
Defendo $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { injurias, } \\ \text { aliquem ab injuriis, } I \text { ward off injuries. } \\ \text { I defend a man from injury. }\end{array}\right.$
Desitus sum laudari (not desii, with pass. inf.),

I pardon the son out of regard to the father.
$I$ throw the blame on a man.
I console a man in his distress.
(I have an interview with a man.
\{In law, I sue a man.
These faults are appropriate to a man's character.
We have agreed upon the time.

I ceased to be praised.
I am obedient to Cosar.
(Dicto audiens, i. e. a hearing person for an order, has become a compound adjective.)
Doceo aliquem $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { aliquid, } \\ \text { de aliquà re, }\end{array}\right.$
Dubito, dubius sum $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { quid hocsit, } \\ \text { an hoc sit, }\end{array}\right.$ am doubtful $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { what this is. } \\ \text { whether it be so. }\end{array}\right.$ Non dubito quin *hoc sit, I do not doubt this being so.
Cave dubites
Quid est quod quin hoc facias Mind you don't hesitate $\{$ to do
$\left.\begin{array}{c}\text { Quid est quod } \\ \text { dubites }\end{array}\right\} \begin{aligned} & \text { quin hoc facias Mind you don't hesitate } \\ & \text { or ho facere, }\end{aligned}$ Excuso $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { tarditatem litterarum, } I \text { a apologize for my tardiness in } \\ \text { me de tarditate litt., } \\ \text { writing. }\end{array}\right.$
Facio damnum,
$I$ suffer loss.
Habeo pecuniæ magnam copiam, I have money in great abundance.
Habeo aliquid conscientiæ, Imake a thing a point of conscience.
Impero provincia milites, I command a province to furnish troops.
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Intercedo rogationi, } & I \text { put a veto on the proposed law. } \\ \text { Intercedo pro }\end{array}$ Intercedo pro aliquo magnam I stand security for a large sum for a person (I intercede is supplicor, deprecor).
Interdico $\begin{cases}\text { aliquem sacrificiis } & I \text { forbid a man to attend (or to } \\ \text { (Cæsar), } & \text { make) sacrifices. } \\ \text { alicui aqua et igni } & \text { I forbid a man the use of fire and } \\ \text { (Cicero), } & \text { veater. }\end{cases}$

* Quin follows negative and quasi-negative expressions only. Dubito without a negative has only dependent interrogatives.

Intercludo \{alicui fugam,
Inveh alıquem fugâ,
Invehor multa in aliquem,
Minor tibi $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { mortem } \\ \text { baculo },\end{array}\right.$
Muto oves pretio,
Nego hoc esse,
Paro bellum,
Pendeo ex te,
Peto aliquid ab aliquo,

Præsto tibi fidem,
Probo librum alicui,

I shut a man out from fight.
$I$ inveigh at length against a man.
I threaten you $\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { with death. } \\ \text { with a stick. }\end{array}\right.$
I get (more usually, give) sheep at a price.
$I$ say this is not so.
$I$ prepare for war.
$I$ depend on you.
$I$ ask a man for something.
I am answer- $\{$ for the loss. able to you for the outbreaks
I keep my word to you.
I gain a man's approval of a book.

Prohibeo regionem populationi- I prevent the districts being plunbus, dered.
Quæro ex (or abor de) aliquo $I$ ask a man the cause. causam,
Recipio in me,
Recipio alicui,
I pledge myself.
I pledge myself to some one.
I am at liberty to attend to this matter.
Vacat mihi,
Valeo apud aliquem,
I have time.
I have influence with a person.
\{I forbid your going.
$\left\{\begin{array}{l}\text { I conmand you not to go. }\end{array}\right.$
( $n o t$ Jubeo non or ne).
The desire to give early notice of a negative's being in the sentence, as seen in the uses of nego, veto, and cave (s. v. dubito), led the Romans to say, non poterat (or nequibat) facere, the could not do it; nec fecit, and he did not do it; nec quisquam alius, and no other (not et nemo); neu quisquam, not ut nemo, \&c.

Some verbs and phrases which are generally followed by ut with subj. take an acc. with inf. when they denote an opinion: e. g.
adducor, auctor sum, cogo,

With subj.
I an induced, $I$ advise, I compel,

With inf. I am induced to believe. $I$ assure. I prove.

| cedo, | $I$ permit, | $I$ grant. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| tendo, | I strive, | $I$ maintain. |
| conficio, | I accomplish, | I prove. |
| decerno, | $I$ decree, | I judge. |
| efficio, see conficio. moneo, | $I$ advise, | I remind (that so and so is). |
| persuadeo, | I persuade (to act | $I$ make a person believe. |
| statuo, | $I$ determine (that a person shatl), | $I$ assume. |

## APPENDIX D.

Of the Cases dependent on Adjectives.
The lists, \&c. chiefly from Madvig.
Ir will have been seen from a comparison of $\S \frac{179,186,194,}{}$ and 199 that the 'Dative, Ablative, and Genitive after Adjectives' have very different origins and usually very different meanings, preserving in fact their regular characteristics: the Dative being the indirect object, that is, the person (or personified thing) indirectly affected by the existence of the person or thing which possesses the quality denoted by the adjective; the Ablative being either an adverbial adjunct, expressing the attendant circumstances, part concerned, \&c., or the thing from which separation takes place; and the Genitive being either the possessor, or the object after a transitive adjective, fulfilling the same functions that a nominative or accusative does with the verb.

But with certain words these meanings may become coincident, so that we find some adjectives used with more than one case, without much practical distinction. Thus we have, Alienum illi cause, A thing which is for that case a foreign one. Alienum existimatione mea, Foreign from my reputation; Alienum mex dignitatis, Not belonging to my dignity. But so ex-
tended a range of cases, with similar meaning, is very unusual. An oscillation between dative and genitive, or ablative and genitive is not so uncommon.

1. The following adjectives have the dative of the indirect object or genitive either of the possessor, the adjective being used substantively, or of the object. (lnstead of the genitive of the possessor a possessive pronoun is found, $\S 56$.)

| æmulus, | dispar, <br> dissimilis (see similis. |
| :--- | :--- |
| æquus, | So |
| æqualis, | also other compounds), |
| affinis, | familiaris, |
| alienus (also with abl.), | inimicus, |
| cognatus, | iniquus, |
| communis, | invidus, |
| contrarius, | necessarius, intimate, |
| par, | sacer, |
| propinquus, | superstes, |
| propior (also with accus., | supplex, |
| §204. f), | similis (of living beings al- |
| proprius (rarely dat.), | most always with genitive), |
| proximus (see propion), | superstes. |

E. g. Siculi Verri inimici, Sicilians hostile to Verres. Inimicissimus Ciceronis, Cicero's bitterest enemy.

Mibi familiare, Familiar to me. Familiarissimus meus, $M y$ most confidential friend.

Locus propinquus urbi, A place near for the city. In propinquis urbis locis, In the city's neighbourhood.

Nec diu superstes filio pater, Nor was there for the son a father long surviving him. Superstes omnium suorum, Outliving all his friends.

Par similisque ceteris, A man of similar character for the others to consort with. Versus similes meorum, Verses, copies of my own.

Affinis ei turpitudini, Akin to (i. e. involved in) that disgrace. Affinis rei capitalis, An accomplice in a criminal matter.

Civitas Ubiorum socia nobis, The state of the Ubii allied to us; but, socia generis, sharing the race.
2. Many other adjectives, e.g. commodus, obnoxius, \&c. are used with a similar dative.

Aptus, habilis, idoneus, accommodatus, paratus, are used either with a dative or with $a d$ and the accusative.
E.g. Oratores aptissimi concionibus, Speakers well suited for popular meetings (or addresses). Orator ad nullam cansam idoneus, A speaker not fit to plead any case whatever.
N.B. In many examples, commonly given, the dative belongs to the predicate generally, not to the adjective specially.
3. The following are used with the ablative or genitive; the former as an ablative of the means, or the part of a man's possessions, \&c., in respect of which the particular quality is predicated, the latter as the case usually dependent on adjectives. With the ablative, full may be considered to mean filled with: with the genitive (of the object) pouring forth, possessing in abundance.
dives, uberrimus (gen. rare),
fertilis (in good prose gen.), refertus (gen. of persons only),
plenus (usually gen.)
opulentus,
completus, do.
E.g. Referta Gallia negotiatorum est, plena civium Romanorum, Gaul is stupfed full of traders, contains Roman citizens in crowds. Vita undique referta bonis, Life on all sides crammed with blessings.

Ager fertilis frugum, Land fruitful of corn. Gens Italia opulentissima armis, viris, pecunia, A race in all Italy with the amplest resources in arms, men, and money.

Locuples, preditus, onustus, \&c. have ablative only. (The last two are obviously participial forms.) Refertus, conopletus are true participles, and therefore might be expected to take the ablative only. But completus follows compleo: and refertus follows the analogy.
[Madvig (apparently) considers the ablative after dignus and indignus to be of this class. Key considers it to be the ablative of comparison, and this is at least plausible.]
4. The following have, as might be expected from their meaning, besides a genitive of the object, an ablatice of the thing
lacked ( 8 r 86 ). But the genitive is not much used in prose after the last five:
alienus (see above),
egenus,
immunis,
inanis,
indigus,
liber (with names of persons always ablat. with $a b$ ), nudus,
orbus (rarely with gen.), purus, vacuus.
E.g. Inanissima prudentix, Most void of (legal) still. Nulla epistola inanis aliquâ re utili, Not a letter without something useful in it. Omnia plena consiliorum, inania verborum.

Frugum vacuus, Devoid of $\operatorname{com}^{2} n$. Mœnia defensoribus vacua, Walls without defenders.

Extorris with ablative only.
Inops, pauper, with genitive only.

## APPENDIX E.

## List of some Words easily confused.

(Partly from Kennedy and Donaldson.)

| ăcer, maple; <br> arma (pl.), arms, weapons; | ācer (adj.), vigorous. armus, shoulder (of animals). |
| :---: | :---: |
| ăpis, bee; | Apis, an Egyptian god. |
| ăsilus, gadfly; | Øsy̆lum, place of refuge. |
| cælo (Ist), I engrave. | celo (rst), I conceal; |
| cælum, graving tool; | cælum, heaven. |
| canis, dog; | cānus (adj.), hoary. |
| căno (3rd), I sing; | cāneo, I am hoary. |
| cassis (-1dis, fem.), helmet; | cassis (-is, masc.), hunter's net. |
| cědo (\$ 89 ), give; | cēdo, I yield. |

cēdo, cessi, yield; cædo, cĕcīdi, strike; caxdo, cěčudi, fall. clāva, club; clāvus, nail; clāvis, key.
colus, distaff; colum, strainer. cőlo (3rd), cultivate; cōlo (1st), I strain. cơměs (-Ytis), companion; cōmis (adj.), affable; cŏma, hair; cơmědo (-ōnis), messmate;
cŭpildus (arłj.), desirous;
dĕcus (-oris), distinction;
děcơro (rst), I decorate;
dĕdēre, they have given;
dŭco (Ist), I dedicate;
diffidit, he has cloven;
dǒlo (Ist), I chip, hew;
cōmo (3rd), I arrange.
cömœdus, comedian.
cŭpìdo, desire.
decor (-ōris), grace;
dĕcōrus (adj.), graceful.
ědo, I eat;
dederre, to give up.
dīco (3rd), I tell.

厄s, thou art; ēs, thou eatest; æs, bronze.
ēdưco (1st), I troain; $\quad$ ēdūco (3rd), I lead forth.
făbŭla, a little bean; fyde, by good faith;
fābŭla, story.
fīdĕ, trust thou.
forfex, scissors; forpex, curling irons; forceps, pincers.
frětum, sea; frētus, relying.
fŭgo ( Ist ), I put to flight; fŭg1o ( 3 rd ), I flee.
hĭrundo, a swallow; hĭrūdo, leech; ărundo, reed.
Ydem, same thing; İdem, same man.
lăbor, labour; lābor, I slip.
lěvis (adj.), light; lēvis (adj.), smooth; levus, left-handed.
lĕgo (3rd), pick, read; lēgo, depute, appoint.
lĕpus (lepơris), have; lěpor (lěpōris), elegance.
lycet, it is lawful; liceo, I am valued; Heeor, I bid for.
ly̆ra, lyre; līra, furrow.
mălus (adj.), bad; mālum, apple; mālo, I prefer;
māla, jow, cheek; mālŭs, mast of a ship; also apple-tree.
mănē, wait thou; māné, morning.
merx (mercis), merchandise; merces (mercēdis), hire.
mulceo, I soothe;
missěris, for the wretched; miserrĭs, thou shalt have sent.
nitteo, $I$ shine; $\quad$ nītor (3rd), $I$ strive.
nöta, a mark; nơtus, south wind; nōtus, known.
oblytus, smeared; oblitus, forgetful.
occidens, setting (sun); occidens, slaying.
Opĕrior (4th), I am being covered; oppĕrior (4th), I am waiting for.
ŏs (ossis), bone; ōs, ōris mouth, face.
părio (3rd), I bring forth; păro (1st), I prepare; päreo (2nd), $I$

Specimens of Old Latin.
pendo (3rd), I hang up, weigh; pendeo (2nd), I am hung up. prla, a (racquet) ball; pīla, a pillar; pllus, a hair'; pīlum, pike; pīleus, cap.
plăga, a region;
proŭlus, a people;
potets, thou art able;
prơcĕres, nobles;
prōdite, betray ye;
proffectus, having started;
plāga, a blow.
pōpülus, poplar.
pōtës, shouldst thou drink.
prōcērus, tall.
prōdite, come ye forth.
proffectus, having been accomplished.
prŭnus, a plum; prūna, a live coal; prŭīna, hoar frost. rexfert, he brings back; refert, it is of consequence. (§§ 196, note.) sědeo, $I$ sitt; sēdes, a sat; sīdo, $I$ settle. shnus, fold (of dress); sīnum, bowl. tërgus (oris), lide (of beasts); tērgum, back (of man).
tríbūlis, fellow tribesman; tríbŭlus, caltrop; trībŭlum, threshing
titi (adv.), as, that;
uti, to use.
vās, vădis, bail;
vas, vāsis, vessel.
vêlis, shouldst thou wish;
vēīs, with sails.
věnio, I come; vēni, I came; vēneo (4th), I am sold.
vires, Thou art green; vīres (plur.), strength.

## APPENDIX F.

## Specimens of Old Latin.

Tee following extracts from old Latin laws and inscriptions which have been preserved to us will show the student some old forms of words and some old spelling. Both will be found very suggestive in etymological inquiries. A transcription in more recent Latin is given in italics. The punctuation throughout is modern.
(Chiefly from Donaldson's Varronianus; see also his Lat. Grain. Appendix I.)
R. G.

1. From a Tribunitian law, 493 b.c.

Set, qui aliuta faxsit, ipsos Jovei sacer estod; et sei qui im, quei eo plebei scito sacer siet, ocisit, pariceidas ne estod.

Si quis aliter fecerit ipse Jovi sacer esto; et siquis eum, qui eo plebis scito sacer sit, occiderit parricida ne esto.

## 2. From the XII. Tables, 450 b. $\sigma$.

Sei volet, suo vivito: ni suo vivit, qui em vinctum babebit, libras farris endo dies dato; si volet plus dato. (Of a debtor imprisoned.) Em is eum; endo is in.

Tertiis nundinis partis secanto: si plus minusve secuerunt, se fraude esto. (Of the creditor's rights over the person of an insolvent debtor.) Partis is acc. pl. Se (i.e. sine) fraude esto: It shall be without risk (to the creditors).

Si pater filium ter venum duit, filius a patre liber esto. Duit is for det.

Si morbus ævitasque vitium escit, qui in jus vocabit, jumentum dato: If disease or age shall prevent (a defendant's appearing to a summons), the plaintiff shall furnish a beast (to draw or carry him). Escit (apparently an inchoative form) is for erit.
3. Epitaph on L. Cornelius Scipio, cir. 260 b.c.
L. Cornelio' L. F. Scipio

Aidiles. Cosol . Cesor.
Honc oino' ploirume cosentiont Romani
Duonoro' optimo' fuise viro'
Luciom Scipione'. Filios Barbati
Cosol Cesor Aidiles hic fuet apud vos.
Hec cepit Corsica' Aleria'que urbe'
Dedet tempestatebus aide' mereto.
L. Cornelius L. F. Scipio Addiles, Consul, Censor.

Hunc unum plurimi consentiunt Romani
Bonorum optimum fuisse virum
L. Scipionem. Filius Barbati

Consul, Censor, Adiles, hic fuit apud vos.
Hic cepit Corsicam, Aleriamque urbem.
Dedit tempestatibus adem merito.
4. From an inscription on the Columna Rostrata, referring to the exploits of C. Duilius, who was Consul b.C. 260 .
En eodem macistratod bene rem navebos marid Consol primos ceset, socios clasesque navales primos ornavet paravetque, cumque eis navebos claseis Pœenicas omneis et maxsumas copias Cartaciniensis, presented sumod dictatored olorum, in altod marid pucnad vicet.

In eodem magistratu bene rem navibus mari consul primus gessit, socios classesque navales primus ornavit paravitque, cumque iis navibus classes Punicas omnes et maximas copias Carthagirienses, prosente summo Dictatore illorum, in alto mari pugna vicit.
5. From Q. Ennius (who died 169 в.c.).

Pellitur e medio sapientia, vei geritur res Sperniur orator bonus, horridu' miles amatur; Haut docteis dicteis certanteis, sed male dicteis, Miscent inter sese inimicitias agitanteis Non ex joure manu' consertum sed magi' ferro Rem repetunt regnumque petunt, vadunt solida vei.
vei $=v i$; horridu', manu', magi'=horridus, manus, magis; docteis, dicteis $=$ doctis, dictis; certanteis, agitanteis $=$ ccrtantes, ayitantes.
6. From the Senatus consultum de Bacchanalibus, B.c. 186 referred to by Livy xxxix. I 4 (given in full by Donaldson, Varron. p. 270 ).
Neiquis eorum Sacanal habuise velet; sei ques esent, quei sibei deicerent necesus ese Bacanal habere, eeis utci ad pr. urbanum Romam venirent...... Bacas vir ne quis adiese velet ceivis Romanus, neve nominus Latini neve socium quisquam,... neve post hac inter sed coniourase neve comvovise neve conspondise neve conpromesise velet,... sacra in oquoltod ne quisquam fecise velet, neve in poplicod neve in preivatod, neve exstrad urbem sacra quisquam fecise velet, nisei pr. urbanum adieset isque de senatuos sententiad, dum ne minus senatoribus c. adesent quom ea res cosoleretur iousisent, censuere... sei ques esent quei arvorsum ead fecisent, quam suprad scriptum est, eeis renı caputalem faciendam censuere; atque utei hoce in tabolann ahenam inceideretis. Ita senatus aiquom censuit. Uteique eam figier ioubeatis ubei facilumed gnoscier potisit.

Nequis eorum Bacchanal habuisse vellet; si qui essent, qui sibi dicerent necesse esse Bacchanal habere, ei uti ad protorem urbanum Romam venirent......Bacehas vir ne quis adiisse vellet civis Romanus neve nominis Latini neve sociorum quisquam,...neve post har inter se conjurâsse neve convovisse neve conspondisse, neve compromisisse vellet,...sacra in occulto ne quisquam fecisse vellet neve in publico neve in privato, neve extra urbem sacra quisquam fecirse vellet, nisi prcetorem urbanum adiisset isque de senatads sententia, dum ne minus senatoribus centum adessent quum ea, res consuleretur, jussissent, censuere...si qui essent qui adversum ea fecissent, quam supra seriptum est, eis rem capitalem faciendam censuere; atgue uti hoc in tabulam ahenam incideretis. Ita senatus cequum censuit. Utique eam figi jubeatis ubi facillime nosei possit.

Compromisisse vellet]. This use of the perf, inf. with verbs expressing will and power ( $\$ 246$, 1. not 2 or 3 ), was imitated by the poets, e.g. Fratres tendentes opaco Pelion imposuisse Olynipo. Hor. Od. III. 4. 52).
7. From the old Roman law on the Bantine table (probably not older than the middle of the 9 th century A.0.0.).
Seiquis mag. multam inrogare volet, ei multam inrogare liceto, dum minoris partus familias taxsat, liceto.

If any magistrate shall wish to impose a fine, it shall be allowed him to impose a fine provided that he fix it at a less part of his property (than the fine named before). Partus $=$ partis. This shows the origin of dumtaxat, estimating, i.e. precisely, only.

## APPENDIX $G$.

Of the Tenses, \&c. in the Epistolary Stile.<br>(Partly from Key, Lat. Gr. § 160 , 1 16ı. See also Madvig, § 345.)

The use of the tenses in epistolary writing is occasionally very peculiar. The letters of the Romans being sent nearly always by private hand, and the roads with the facilities for travelling being very defective, a long time often elapsed between the writing and the receiving a letter. Hence it was not uncommon for the writer to make allowance for this interval, and to use those tenses which were suited to the time when the letter should be read, viz. the imperfect and pluperfect for the present and perfect, and the participle in -rus with eram to express an immediate purpose. The perfect also frequently refers to the time of the letter in which it occurs. This use of the secondary tenses seems much more Cicero's habit (partly due to the familiar nature of much of his correspondence) than that of others, if we nay judge from such letters as are included in the collection entitled Ciceronis Epistolce ad Familiares. Nor is it at all common in Pliny's letters.

Nihil habebam quod scriberem; neque enim novi quidquam audieram, et ad tuas omnes epistolas rescripseram pritie; sed quam me ægritudo non solum somno privaret, \&c. (Cic, ad Att. ix. Io. \& I.) The receiver of the letter would repeat this as follows: Tum quum Cicero hanc epistolam seripsit, nihil habebat quod scriberet; neque enim novi quidquam audicrat et ad omnes meas epistolas rescripserat pridie, sed quum eum cegritudo, \&c.

Etsi nil sane habebam novi, quod post accidisset quam dedissem ad te Philogĕni* litterais, tamen quum Philotīmum Romam

* Notice that the letter-carrier is in dative case; the person addressed is accusative with ad. So, Ad te ideo antea rarius scripsi, quod non habebam idoneum cui darem, nec satis sciebam
remitterem, scribendum aliquid ad te fuit, \&c. (Cic. ad Att. vi. 3. § 工.) Although I have indeed nothing new to report that has occurred since $I$ gave my last to Philogenes to take to you, yet as I an sending Philotimus back to Rome, $I$ am bound to write something to you. (The tenses would naturally have been habeo, acciderit, dederim, rentittam, est.)

Triginta dies erant ipsi, quum has dabam litteras, per quos nullas a vobis acceperam. (Cic. ad Att. iii. 2r.) It is now exactly thirty days since 1 heard from you.

For additional examples see e.g. Cic. ad Att. iv. 3. §5. v. io. § 1. $15 . \S$ 3. 16. § I, 4. \&c. ad Q. Fr. ii. 7. \&c. Plin. Epist. vII. 19, Sil.

The secondary tenses occur where the writer has specially in mind the partioular time of his writing, and is describing the feelings and occurrences of the moment; and so most frequently at the beginning and end of letters. But they are not always adopted where they might be; and we often find the primary tenses in close connection with the others. Thus:

Ego tuas opiniones de his rebus exspecto. Formias me continuo recipere cogitabam. (Cic. ad Att. vii. I5, at end of letter.) $I$ expect to hear your thoughts on these matters. I am at this moment thinking of taking myself off at once to Formice.

Ipse, ut spero, diebus octo quibus has litteras dabam cum Lepidi copiis me conjungam. (Plancus apud Cic. ad Fam. x. is. sub fin.) I hope myself to join Lepidus' forces within eight days from the time of despatching this letter.

Vos quid ageretis in republica, quum has litteras dabam, non sciebam. Audiebam quædam turbulenta, quæ scilicet cupio esse falsa, ut aliquando ociosa libertate fruamur, quod vel minime mihi adhuc contigit. (Trebonius apud Cic. ad Fam. xï. 16.) What is the state of politics at present with you, I am at the time of writing this ignorant: I hear however that there are some disturbances, which you may be sure I wish may prove not to be the case, so that we may at length enjoy our liberty in ease: a thing which as yet has fallen very little indeed to my lot.
quo darem, The reason why $I$ did not write to you so frequently before, (as I should otherwise have done,) was because I had not any safe person to carry a letter, nor was I sure of your address (quo, whither). Both dative, and ad with accusative, are used for the person addressed after scribo, witto, \&c.

This mode of writing a letter, as if it were a subsequent narrative, led sometimes to an oblique mode of giving the date of the letter.

Puteolis magnus est rumor Ptolemæum esse in regno... Pompeius in Cumanum Parilibus vēnit; misit ad me statim qui salutem nuntiaret. Ad eum postridie mane vadebam, quum hæc scripsi. (Cic. ad Att. iv. Io.) We have a strong report down here that Polemy has been restored to his throne... Pompey arrived at his villa yesterday. He forthwith sent one of his people with his compliments to me. I am going to pay him a visit this morning.

Putcoli, April 22nd. (The festival of Pales being on the 2Ist.)
A Roman letter always begins with a greeting, and the date is either interwoven with the letter or appears at the end. The greeting contains the names of the sender and receiver of the letter, sometimes with full titles, (especially if the letter be at all formal,) sometimes without, and the words salutem dicit (i.e. says 'salve') (S. D.), or, salutem plurimam dicit (S. P. D.), or, simply salutem (S.), exprest by initials, either between the names of the sender and receiver, or after both. Thus:

Cæsar Imp. Ciceroni Imp. S. D. Ccesar General sends greeting to Cicero General.

Cn. Magnus Procos, S. D. M. Ciceroni Imp. Cnow (Pompeius) Magnus Proconsul, sends greeting to Marcus Cicero General.

Cicero Dolabellæ Cos. suo S. Cicero to his dear Dolabella Consul greeting.
M. Tullius M. F. M. N. Cicero Imp. S. D. C. Cælio L. F. C. N. Caldo Quæst. Marcus Tullius, son of Marcus, grandson of Marcus, Cicero General sends greeting to C. Caltus, son of Lucius, grandson of Caius, Caldus Qucestor.
Cicero App. Pulchro ut spero Censori S. D. Cicero to Appius Pulcher, Censor as I hope, sends greeting.
Plancus Imp. Cos. Des. S. D. Coss. Prætt. Tribb. Pl. S. P. Pl. Q. R. Plancus General Consul elect sends greeting to the Consuls, Prators, Tribunes of the Commons, Senale, Burghers, and Commons of Rome.

Tullius Terentiæ suæ et pater suavissimæ filiæ, Cicero matri et sorori S. D. P. Tullius sends hearty greeting to his dear Terentia, and the father (i.e. Cicero himself) to his darling daughter, Cicero (i.e. the son) to his mother and sister.

## The date is given thus:

Dat. v. Id. Decembr. a Pontio ex Trebulano. Despatched on Dec. 9 from Pontius' house at Trebula (lit. from his Trebulan villa, cf. \& 160. I85).
Ab Appii foro horâ quartâ. From Appii Forum at the $4^{\text {th h hour. }}$
Kal. Jan. M. Messala, M. Pisone Coss. Jan. Ist, in the Consulship of Marcus Messala and Marcus Piso.
D. Liberalibus. Despatched on the festival of Liber (i. e. March 17).

Dat. xiiii. Kal. Quinct. Thessalonicâ. Thessalonica, June 17. (Written before B.O. 45.)
viii. Idus Jan. Cularone ex finibus Allobrogum. Jan. 6 , Cularo, (now Grenoble, in the territories of the Allobroges.

Pliny's letters (excepting those to Trajan) end with Vale, Cicero's sometimes do so; but as a general rule have no formal conclusion.

## APPENDIX II.

# Of ter Roman Way of expressing tee Date. <br> <br> (Partly from Madvig, Suppl. to Gram.) 

 <br> <br> (Partly from Madvig, Suppl. to Gram.)}

Tes division of time into weeks of seven days with distinct names was not used by the ancient Romans (before the introduction of Christianity). The months were distinguished by the names adopted by us from the Romans, excepting that, before the time of the Emperor Augustus, Julius and Augustuts had the names of Quinctilis and Sextilis (i.e. fifth and sixth month, March being the first). The days of the month were computed from three leading days in each, which were called respectively Calendre (Kal.), Nonce (Non.), and Idlus (Id.); to these the name of the month was appended as an adjective. The Calendse was the first day of every month; the Nonce and Idus the fifth and thirteenth, except in the months of March, May, July, and October, in which they were the seventh and fifteenth respectively. From these days they counted backwards, the days between the rst and the Nones being reckoned as so many days before the Nones; the days between the Nones and ldes as so many days before the Ides; and the remaining days of the month as so many days before the Kalends of the next month. The day immediately preceding any of these reckoning points was called pridie Nonas, \&c.; the day next but one before was the third day before (since the Nones, \&c. were themselves included in the reckoning), and so on.

There are two abbreviated modes of denoting the date, e.g. the 27 th of March might be marked as vi Kal. Apr., or a. $d$. VI Kal. Apr. The first is for sexto (die ante) Kalendas Apriles; the second for ante diem sextum Kalendas Apriles. The later expression appears to have originally signified before (on the sixth day) the Kalends of April ; the exact day being thrown in parentheti-

## Roman Dates.

cally, and attracted from the ablative into the accusative case in consequence of following ante. Similarly we find the date sometimes denoted by the number of days preceding a festival ; as, a.d. v Terminalia, i.e. I9th Feb. (the festival of the god of boundaries being on the 23 rd Feb.). This expression was considered as one word, before which in or ex may stand; as, Ex ante diem iII Nonas Junias usque ad pridie Kalendas Septembres, from the 3 rd to the 3 rat August; differre aliquid in ante diem xv Kalendas Novembres, to put off something to the 18 th October.

The readiest way of reckoning the day is, (I) if the date lie between the Kalends and Nones, or between the Nones and Ides, to subtract the number of the day mentioned from the number of the day on which the Nones or Ides fall, and add one (for the inclusive reckoning): (2) if the date lie between the Ides and the Kalends, to subtract the number of the day mentioned from the number of the days in the month, and add two (i.e. one for the inclusive reckoning, and one because the Kalends are not the last of the month in which the date lies, but the first of the following month).

In leap year the intercalated day was counted between $a . d$. vi Kal. Mart. and a.d. vir Kal. Mart. and denominated a.d. bissextum Kal. Mart., so that a.d. vin Kal. Mart. answers as in the ordinary February to Feb. 23, and a.d. viI. Kal. Mart. to Feb. 22nd, \&c. (Hence the name of leap year, annus bissextilis.)

Before the reformation of the Calendar by Julius Cæsar, B. c. 45 , the number of days in the months were in March, May, July, and October, 31; in February 28; in all the rest 29. (Hence, as these four months were two days longer, the Nones and Ides were two days later.) This should be remembered in reading Cicero's letters, many of which were written before 45 B.c. After that year the number of days in each month was the same as it is with us to this day.

The following examples suppose the date to be subsequent to B.C. 45 . The usual abbreviated form is given. [It must be remembered that Kalendæ, Nonæ, and Idus are feminine, and the months adjectives; that the date ('on the first,' \&c.) is in the ablative (Kalendis, Nonis, Idibus); and that a.d. vi Non. Mart. \&c. is for ante diem sextum Nonas Martias.]

| Day of | of January | April | March |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Einglish | sh (So also Aug., | (So also Jun., Sept., | (So also May, Jul., |
| month. | h. Dec.). | Nov.). | Oct.). |
| 1 | Kal. Jan. | Kal. Apr. | Kal. Mart. |
| a. | a. d. Iv Non. Jan. | a. d. iv Non. Apr. | a.d. vi Non. Mart. |
| 4 | Prid. Non. Jan. | Prid. Non. Apr. | a.d. Iv Non. Mart. |
| 5 | Non. Jan. | Non. Apr. | a.d. imi Non. Mart. |
| 6 a. | a. d. vili Id. Jan. | a.d. vill Id. Apr. | Prid. Non. Mart. |
|  | a. d. VIr Id. Jan. | a.d. vii Id. Apr. | Non. Mar |
| 8 a | a. d. vi Id. Jan. | a. d. vi Id. Apr. | a. d. vili Id. Mart. |
| 12 | Prid. Id. Jan. | Prid. Id. Apr. | a.d. Iv Id. Mart. |
| 13 | Id. Jan. | Id. Apr. | a. d. III Id. Mart. |
| 14 a. | a. d. XIX Kal. F | d. xvin Kal. Mai. | Prid. Id. Mart. |
| $\mathrm{r}_{5} \mathrm{a}$. | a.d. xvini Kal. Feb | d. xvir Kal. Mai. | Id. Mart. |
|  | a. d. xvir Kal. Feb. | a.d. xvi Kal. Mai. | a. d. xvir Kal. Jun |
| 30 a | a. d. III Kal. Feb. | Prid. Kal. Mai. | a.d. III Kal. Jun. |
| 31 | Prid. Kal. Feb. |  | Prid. Kal. Jun. |

## APPENDIX I.

## Of tee Roman Computation of Money. <br> (Partly from Madvig. Suppl. to Gram.)

Sums of money were generally computed among the Romans by the sestertius (nummus sestertius, or nummus simply), a silver. coin, first coined B.c. 26 g , when it was equal to $2 \frac{1}{2}$ asses ( $\$ 72$ ), and subsequently, B.c. 217 , reduced to four asses, about $2 d$. These are counted regularly, e.g. trecenti sestcrtii, duo millio sestertiorum, or sestertiam, decies centum millia sestertiam, i.e. 1,000,000 sesterces, or (omitting centum millia) decies sestertialm.

The word sestertium appears to have been misunderstood and eventually treated as a neuter substantive (but never as a nom. or acc. sing.). Thus, when used with numeral adverbs, it is

## 204 Roman Computation of Money.

declined in the singular number; as, sestertio decies fundum mmi , I bought the farm for a million sesterces. When used with cardinal numbers it is used in the plural ; as, septem sestertia seven (thousand) sesterces. It will be seen that in the former case sestertium denotes 100,000 sesterces; in the latter 1000 sesterces. It is best in English always to use sesterce as the translation of sestertius, and multiply for sestertium.
duo sestertii, 2 sesterces.
decem sestertii, 10 sesterces.
centum sestertii, 100 sesterces.
mille sestertium, rooo (of) sesterces.
duo millia sestertium, \}
duo sestertia,
2000 sesterces.
$\left.\begin{array}{l}\text { centum, } \\ \text { centena, }\end{array}\right\}$ millia sestertium, $\}$
centum sestertia,
bis centena millia sestertium,
bis sestertium, 100,000 sesterces.
dis sestern,
200,000 sesterces.
decies, \&c., 1,000,000 sesterces.

HS is used as a symbol for sestertius ( $\$ 72$ ), sestertium, sestertia; and the context frequently can alone decide which is meant. Sometimes a line is drawn over the numeral figure to denote thousands.

HS. X. may mean decem sestertii $=10$ sesterces.
decem sestertia $=10,000$ sesterces (or HS.X.)
decies sestertiûm $=1,000,000$ sesterces.

The distributive adjectives (as well as the cardinals), e.g. contena, are used in these expressions of multiplication, without meaning 100,000 each person \&c. (They here mean 100 taken each of ten \&c. times).

## APPENDIX K.

## Abbreviations.

(Partly from Kennedy, Donaldson, Madvig).
(1) First Names (Prænomina).

| A. | Aulus. | M'. | Manius. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| App. | Appius. | Mam. | Mamercus. |
| C. or G. | Caius or (more correctly) Gaius. | N. or Num. P. | Numerius. Publius. |
| Cn. or Gn. | Cnzus or (more correctly) Gnæus. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Q. } \\ & \text { S. or Sex. } \end{aligned}$ | Quintus. Sextus. |
| D. | Decimus. | Ser. | Servius. |
| K. | Kæso. | Sp. | Spurius. |
| L. | Lucius. | T. | Titus. |
| M. | Marcus. | Ti. | Tiberius. |

(2) Titles of Persons, \&c.

Ad. Cur. Adilis Curulis. O. M. Optimus Maximus
Cos. Consul. (title of Jupiter).
Coss. Consules. P.C. Patres Conscripti.
D. Divus. P. M. Pontifex Maximus.

Des. Designatus. Pretr. Pretr. Prætor, Preto.
F. Filius. res.

III Viri A.A.A. F.F. Tres viri Proc. Proconsul. auro argentoære flan- Proq. Proquæstor. do feriundo. P. R. Populus Romanus.
III Vir. R.C. Triumvir reipub- Quir. Quirites. licæ constituenda. Resp. Respublica.
I.MP. Imperator.
N. Nepos.
R.P.P.R.Q. Respublica Populi Romani Quiritium.
S.P.Q.R. Senatus Populusque X. V. Decemvir. Romanus. X. Vir. Stl. Judik. Decemvir
S.P.P.Q.R. Senatus Populus stlitibus (i.e. litibus) judicandis.
Tr. Pl. Tribunus Plebis. XV.V.S.F, Quindecimviri saTr. Pot. Tribunicia Potestate. cris faciundis.

The name of the tribe to which a person belonged is some. times added to the name in an abbreviated form; thus, $P_{u p}$. for Pupinia. See $\$ 185$, and Cælius' letter in Cic. Epist. ad Fam. VIII. $8, \$ 5$.

## (3) Sepulchral.

F. C. Faciundum curavit.
H. C. E. Hic conditus est.
H. S. E. Hic situs est.

OB. Obiit.
P. C. Ponendum curavit. V. Vixit.
(4) In voting on trials.
In voting on laws.
A. Absolvo.
A.P. Antiquam (legem) probo.
C. Condemno.
V.R. Uti rogas.
N. L. Non liquet.

## (5) Epistolary.

D. Data (est epistola).
S. D. Salutem dicit.
S. P. D. Salutem plurimam dicit.
S. Salutem (dicit).
S. V.B.E. E.V. Si vales, bene est: ego valeo.
S. T. E. Q. V.B. E. E. Q. V. Si tu exercitusque valetis bene est: ego quoque valeo.
S. V.G.V. Si vales gaudeo. Valeo.

See also Appendix G.
(6) In decrees of the Senate.
D.E. P. I. C. De ea re ita censuerunt.
I. N. Intercessit nemo. Scr. arf. Scribendo adfuerunt.
S. C. Senatus consultum.
V.F. Verba fecit.
(7) Miscellaneous.
A. U.C. Anno urbis conditæ. F.F.F. Felix, faustum, forD.D. Dono dedit.

DD. Dederunt. tunatum.
D. D.D. Dat dicat dericar. Iterum.
D. M. Dis manibus. M. P. Mille Passuum.
Q.B.F.F.Q.S. Quod bonum felix faustumque sit.
(8) Modern Latin.

| A.C. Anno Christi. | i. q. id quod. |
| :---: | :---: |
| A. D. Anno Domini. | L. or Lib. Libb. Liber, Libri. |
| a.C.n.) ante ${ }^{\text {Che }}$ Christum natum. | L. B. Lectori Benevolo. |
| p. C.n. post ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ( ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | l. c. loco citato. |
| C. P. P. C. Collatis pecuniis | 1. l. loco laudato. |
| ponendum curaverunt | leg. lege, or, legatur. |
| cet. cetera. | L. S. Locus Sigilli. |
| cf. confer, or, conferatur. | MS. MSS. Manuscriptum, |
| Cod. Codd. Codex, Codices. | N. B. Nuta bene. |
| del. dele, or deleatur. | N. T. Novam Testamentum. |
| D. O. M. Deo optimo maximo. | obs. observa, or, observetur. |
| ed. edd. editio, editiones. | P.S. Postscriptum. |
| etc. et cetera. | sc. scilicet. |
| h.e. hoc est. | sq. sqq. sequenti, sequentibus |
| I. C. Jesus Christus. | vid. vide. |
| Ictus. Juris consultus. | viz. videlicet. |
| ibid. ibidem. | V. cel. Vir ceieberrimus. |
| . idem. | V.cl. Vir clarissinus. |
| i. e. id est. | V.T. Vetus ''estamentum. |


[^0]:    * The list on pp. 88 and 89 miglit be rendered unnecessary by a boy's learning from the first to connect an intransitive verb in English with each of the words named. Appendix $D$ has been added to obviate objections to the method adopted.

[^1]:    * Madvig gives stātum; in Lucan and Martial we have stāturus, constăturus; but all the derivatives have $\breve{a}$ : e.g. stătim, stătus (adj. and subst.), stătio, stătivus, stător, stătura, stătuo.

[^2]:    * For in Greek the genitive is used. But the usage may also be explained as coming under 2. $d$, thus: a person is magnus of himself, but major only in consequence of some one else possessing size or excellence.

