PREFACE.

In the preparation of this third edition of Gildersleeve's Latin Grammar, the office of the senior collaborator has been chiefly advisory, except in the Syntax. In the Syntax, Professor Lodge is responsible for nearly everything that pertains to the history of usage, but for all deviations from the theory of the old grammar we bear a joint responsibility. During the progress of the work we have been cheered and aided by the encouragement and advice of distinguished scholars and experienced teachers, and whereas the Preface of the old grammar mentioned but two faithful helpers, Professor Thomas R. Price and Professor William E. Peters, the present work has had the advantage of liberal coöperation.

Especial acknowledgment must be made of the attention paid to every detail by W. Gordon McCabe, Esq., Head-master of the University School, Richmond, Va., himself a Latinist of exact and penetrating scholarship, and by his accomplished assistant, Mr. C. W. Bain. Professor Minton Warren, of the Johns Hopkins University, has lent us the aid of his wide and accurate knowledge of the history of the Latin language, and Professor Chapman Maupin, one of the revisers of Gildersleeve's Latin Primer, has given us the benefit of his practical experience and his acute observation. Professor E. M. Pease, of Leland Stanford Junior University, whose removal to the distant West interrupted a collaboration which promised valuable results, has, in spite of his arduous labors as teacher and editor, put at our service his notes on the Grammar of 1872.

Among the scholars who have read the book in proof advance sheets, and who have suggested improvements
here and corrections there, we would gratefully mention Principal Bancroft, of Phillips Andover Academy, President Jesse, of the University of Missouri, Professor M. W. Humphreys, of the University of Virginia, R. W. Tustall, M.A., of Norfolk, Va., Professor Wm. C. Lawton, of Philadelphia, Professor W. P. Mustard, of Haverford College, Professor J. E. Goodrich, of the University of Vermont, Professor Jas. H. Dillard, of Tulane University, and Professor J. W. Redway, of New York. Finally we desire to express our joint thanks to Dr. C. W. E. Miller, Associate of the Johns Hopkins University, who has laid us both under especial obligations by his careful studies in the difficult chapter of Versification.

As in the Preface to the old grammar, so in the Preface to the new, it is considered out of place to enlarge on the excellence of the methods followed; but as the new grammar embraces a multitude of details that were not taken up in the old grammar, it has been thought fit that Professor Lodge should indicate the sources of the notes with which he has enriched a manual that has held its modest place for more than a quarter of a century.

B. L. Gildersleeve,
Gonzalez Lodge.

August 1, 1894.

The following supplementary note may serve to embody a partial bibliography of the more important works used in this revision, and some necessary explanations of the method:

Fairly complete bibliographies of works on Latin Etymolog and Syntax may be found in Reisig's Vorlesungen über lateinisch Sprachwissenschaft (new edition, by Hagen, Schmalz, and Landgraf 1881-1888), and in the Lateinische Grammatik of Stolz and Schmal: (in Müller's Handbuch der klassischen Altertumswissenschaft; 2nd edition, 1890). Important also are the Grammars of Kühner (1877, 1878)* and Roby (1881, 1882); though many statements in both, but especially in the former, must be corrected in the light of more recent study. Some indications of more modern theories may be found in

* A new Historical Grammar, by Stolz, Schmalz, Landgraf, and Wagener, was announced by Teubner in 1891.
the Erläuterungen zur lateinischen Grammatik of Deecke (1893). Many matters of importance both in Etymology and Syntax are treated in the Archiv für lateinische Lexikographie, and the constructions with individual words are often well discussed in Krebs' Antid garments der lateinischen Sprache (6th edition, by Schmalz, 1886).

For the accentuation and pronunciation of Latin we have also Corpsen's Aussprache, Vocalismus und Betonung der lateinischen Sprache (1868, 1870), and Seelmann's Die Aussprache des Latein (1885).

For the Etymology we must refer to Bücheler's Grundriss der lateinischen Declination (2d edition, by Windeki de, 1879) and to Schweizer-Sidler's Lateinische Grammatik (1888); also to many articles in various journals, most of which are given by Stolz. Indispensable is Neue's Formenlehre der lateinischen Sprache, of which the second volume of the third edition has already appeared (1892) and the first parts of the third volume (1894), under the careful revision of Wagener; also Georges' Lexikon der lateinischen Wortformen (1890).

For the Formation of Words and the relation of Latin forms to those of the related languages we have Henry's Précis de Grammaire Comparée and Brugmann's Grundriss der vergleichenden Grammatik, both now accessible in translations. On these, in connection with Schweizer-Sidler, the chapter on the Formation of Words has been based.

In the historical treatment of the Syntax we must still rely in large measure on Dræger's Historische Syntax der lateinischen Sprache (2d edition, 1878, 1881), faulty and inaccurate though it often is: many of the false statements have been corrected on the basis of more recent individual studies by Schmalz; but even Schmalz is not always correct, and many statements of his treatise have been silently emended in the present book. For the theoretical study of some problems of Latin Syntax Haase's Vorlesungen über lateinische Sprachwissenschaft (1880) should not be overlooked. Since the appearance of the second edition of Schmalz, in 1890, considerable progress has been made in the various journals and other publications, as may be seen from Deecke's summary in Bursian's Jahresbericht for 1893. Every effort has been made to incorporate in this grammar the main results of these studies as far as practicable. We may also draw attention to the following important articles, among others, some of which are mentioned in the books above referred to:

Wölflin's numerous articles in the Archiv; Thielmann's articles in the Archiv on habere with Perfect Participle Passive, and on the Reciprocal Relation; Landgraf's articles on the Figura Elymologica, in the second volume of the Acta Seminarii Erlangensis, and on the Future Participle and the Final Dative, in the Archiv; Hâle's treatise on The Cum Constructions, attacking the theories of Hoffmann (Lateinische Zeitpartikeln, 1874) and Lübbert (Die Syntax von Quom, 1869);
Hoffmann's reply to Hale (1891), and Wetzel's Der Streit zwischen Hofmann und Hale (1892): Dahl's Die lateinische Partikel ut (1882), with Gutjahr-Probst's Der Gebrauch von ut bei Terenz (1888); Zimmermann's article on quod und quia im älteren Latein (1889); Scherer's article on quando, in Studemund's Studien; Morris's articles on the Sentence Question in Plautus and Terence in the A.J.P. (vols. x. and xi.); Hale's articles on the Sequence of Tenses in the A.J.P. (vols. viii. and ix.), containing a discussion of the earlier Literature; Elmer's articles on the Latin Prohibitive in A.J.P. (vol. xv.)

A bibliography of the treatises on Prosody and Versification may be found in Gleditsch's treatise in the second volume of Müller's Handbuch; this, with Plessis' Métrique Grecque et Latine (1889), has been made the basis of the chapter on Prosody; but in the treatment of early metres, regard has been had to Klotz (Altrömische Metrik, 1890), and to Lindsay's recent papers on the Saturnian in the A.J.P. (vol. xiv.). In the matter of the order of words we have followed Weil's treatise on the Order of Words, translated by Super (1887).

The question of the correct measurement of hidden quantities is still an unsettled one in Latin; for the sake of consistency the usage of Marx, Hülfsbächlein für die Aussprache der lateinischen Vokale in positionslangen Silben (3d edition, 1889) has been followed.

The quotations have been made throughout from the Teubner Text editions except as follows: Plautus is cited from the Triumvirate edition of Ritschl; Vergil from the Editio Maior of Ribbeck; Ovid and Terence from the Tauchnitz Texts; Horace from the Editio Minor of Keller and Holder; Lucretius from the edition of Munro; Ennius and Lucilius from the editions of L. Müller; fragmentary Scenic Poets from the edition of Ribbeck. Special care has been taken to make the quotations exact both in spelling and wording; and any variation in the spelling of individual words is therefore due to the texts from which the examples are drawn.

Where it has been necessary to modify the quotations in order to make them suitable for citation, we have enclosed within square brackets words occurring in different form in the text, and in parentheses words that have been inserted; where the passage would not yield to such treatment, Cf. has been inserted before the reference. We have not thought it necessary to add the references in the Prosody except in the case of some of the citations from early Latin.

In the spelling of Latin words used out of quotation, as a rule u and v have been followed by o rather than by u; but here the requirements of clearness and the period of the language have often been allowed to weigh. Otherwise we have followed in the main Brampach's Hülfsbächlein für lateinische Rechtschreibung (translation by McCabe, 1877).

G. L.
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LATIN GRAMMAR.

ETYMOLOGY.

Alphabet.

1. The Latin alphabet has twenty-three letters:

\[A B C D E F G H I K L M N O P Q R S T V X Y Z\]

Remarks.—1. The sounds represented by C and K were originally distinct, C having the sound of G, but they gradually approximated each other, until C supplanted K except in a few words, such as Kalendae, Kaeso, which were usually abbreviated, Kal., K. The original force of G is retained only in C. (for Gaius) and Cn. (for Gnaeus).

2. J, the consonantal form of I, dates from the middle ages. V represented also the vowel u in the Latin alphabet; and its resolution into two letters—V for the consonant, and U for the vowel—also dates from the middle ages. For convenience, V and U are still distinguished in this grammar.

3. Y and Z were introduced in the time of Cicero to transliterate Greek v and z. In early Latin v was represented by u (occasionally by i or oi), and z by ss or s. Z had occurred in the earliest times, but had been lost, and its place in the alphabet taken by G, which was introduced after C acquired the sound of K.

Note.—The Latin names for the letters were: a, be, ce, de, e, ef, ge, ha, i, ka, el, em, en, o, pe, qu (= cu), er, es, te, u, ex (ix), to be pronounced according to the rules given in 3, 7. For Y the sound was used, for Z the Greek name (zeta).

Vowels.

2. The vowels are a, e, i, o, u, (y): and are divided:

1. According to their quality (i.e., the position of the organs used in pronunciation), into

- guttural (or back), a, o, u;
- palatal (or front), e, i, (y).

2. According to their quantity or prolongation (i.e., the time required for pronunciation), into

- long, (—);
- short, (—).
VOWELS—DIPHTHONGS—CONSONANTS.

Remark.—Vowels whose quantity shifts in poetry are called common (see 13), and are distinguished thus:

\( \approx \), by preference short; \( \approx \), by preference long.


\( \breve{a} = a \) in father. \( \breve{o} = o \) in bone.
\( \breve{e} = e \) in prey. \( \breve{u} = oo \) in moon.
\( \breve{i} = i \) in caprice. \( \breve{y} = u \) in sûr (French), German ü.

Remark.—The short sounds are only less prolonged in pronunciation than the long sounds, and have no exact English equivalents.

Diphthongs.

4. There are but few diphthongs or double sounds in Latin. The theory of the diphthong requires that both elements be heard in a slur. The tendency in Latin was to reduce diphthongs to simple sounds; for example, in the last century of the republic ae was gliding into \( \breve{e} \), which took its place completely in the third century A. D. Hence arose frequent variations in spelling: as glæba and glēba, sod; so oboedire and obedire, obey; faenum (foenum) and fēnum, hay.

\( ae = aye \) (āh-eh). \( ei = ei \) in feint (drawled).
\( oe = oy \) in boy. \( eu = eu \) in Spanish deuda (ēh-oo).
\( au = ou \) in our. (ui = we, almost).

Note.—Before the time of the Gracchi we find ai and oi instead of ae and oe.

5. The sign \( \cdot \) (Diārefsis—Greek=separation) over the second vowel shows that each sound is to be pronounced separately: \( \breve{a}er, air; \) Oenomaus, aloë.

Consonants.

6. Consonants are divided:

1. According to the principal organs by which they are pronounced, into

- Labials (lip-sounds): b, p, (ph), f, v, m.
- Dentals (tooth-sounds): d, t, (th), l, n, r, s.
- Gutturals (throat-sounds): g, c, k, qu, (ch), h, n (see 7).

Note.—Instead of dental and guttural, the terms lingual and palatal are often used.

2. According to their prolongation, into

A. Semi-vowels: of which

\( l, m, n, r \), are liquids (m and n being nasals).
\( h \) is a breathing.
\( s \) is a sibilant.
CONSONANTS—PHONETIC VARIATIONS.

B. Mutes: to which belong

- **P-mutes,** p, b, (ph), f, labials.
- **T-mutes,** t, d, (th), dentals.
- **K-mutes,** k, c, qu, g, (ch), gutturals.

Those on the same line are said to be of the same organ.

*Mutes* are further divided into

- **Tenués** (thin, smooth): p, t, k, c, qu, hard (surd).
- **Mediae** (middle): b, d, g, soft (sonant).
- **[Aspirātæ** (aspirate, rough): ph, th, ch, aspirate.

Those on the same line are said to be of the same order.

The aspirates were introduced in the latter part of the second century B.C. in the transliteration of Greek words, and thence extended to some pure Latin words: as, *pulcher, Gracchus.*

3. **Double consonants** are: z = dz in *adze*; x = cs (ks), gs; i and u between two vowels are double sounds, half vowel, half consonant.

**Sounds of the Consonants.**

7. The consonants are sounded as in English, with the following exceptions:

- **C** is hard throughout = k.
- **Ch** is not a genuine Latin combination (6, 2). In Latin words it is a k; in Greek words a *kh,* commonly pronounced as *ch* in German.
- **G** is hard throughout, as in *get, give.*
- **H** at the beginning of a word is but slightly pronounced; in the middle of a word it is almost imperceptible.
- **I consonant (J)** has the sound of a broad y; nearly like y in yule.
- **N** has a guttural nasal sound before c, g, q, as in anchor, anguish.
- **Qu = kw** (nearly); before o, qu = c. In early Latin qu was not followed by u. Later, when o was weakened to u, qu was replaced by c; thus *quom* became *cum.* Still later qu replaced c, yielding quum.
- **R** is trilled.
- **S** and **X** are always hard, as in *hiss, arc.*
- **T** is hard throughout; never like t in nation.
- **U consonant (V)** is pronounced like the vowel, but with a slur. In the third century A.D. it had nearly the sound of our w. In Greek it was frequently transliterated by **Ω;** so **Οὐαλέριος = Valerius.**

**Phonetic Variations in Vowels and Consonants.**

8. **Vowels.**

1. **Weakening.**—In the formation of words from roots or stems short vowels show a tendency to weaken; that is, a tends to become e
and then i, or o and then u, while o tends towards e or i, and u towards i. This occurs most frequently in compound words, to a less degree in words formed by suffixes. Diphthongs are less frequently weakened and long vowels very rarely. The principal rules for these changes are as follows, but it must be remembered that to all there are more or less frequent exceptions:

A.—i. In the second part of compound words, and in reduplicated words, the root-vowel a is weakened to e, which usually passes over into i in open syllables (11, r.), and often to u before l and labial mutes: cōn-scendō (scandō); con-cidō (cadō); dē-sultō (saltō); fefelli (fallō).
2. As final vowel of the stem a is weakened in the first part of a compound word, usually to ē, rarely to o or ū: aquirī-fer (aquila-); causa-dicus (causa-).
3. In or before suffixes, ā becomes ī: domi-tus (doma-).

Note.—A frequently resists change, especially in verbs of the First and Second Conjugations: as, sé-parāre (parāre); circum-iacēre (iacēre); so satis-facere (facere) and others.

E.—i. In the second part of compound words, root vowel e is usually retained in a close (11, r.) syllable, and weakened to ī in an open syllable; but it is invariably retained before r: in-flectō (flectō); obtīneō (teneō); ad-vertō (vertō).
2. In or before suffixes, and in the final syllable of a word, it also becomes ī: geni-tor (gene-); ūn-decim (decem).
I.—At the end of a word ī is changed to ē: mare (mari).
O.—i. In composition final stem-vowel ō is usually weakened to ī; before labials sometimes to ū: agri-cola (agro-); auru-fex (usually aurifer).
2. In suffixes, and in final syllables, it is weakened to ī: amici-tia (amico-); gracili-s (also gracilu-s).
U.—In composition final stem-vowel ū is usually weakened to ī; the same weakening occurs sometimes within a word or before a suffix: mani-festus (also manu-festus); lacrima (early lacruma).

AE, AU.—In the second part of a compound word root-diphthong ae is usually weakened to ī, but often there is no change; au is occasionally changed to ŭ: ex-quīrō (quaeorō); con-clūdō (claudō).
2. Omission.—Vowels are frequently omitted both in simple and compound words, either within the word (syncope) or at the end (apo-cope): dexterā and dextra; prīnceps (for prīnceps, from prīmiceps); pergō (for perregō); ut (utī); neu (nēve).
3. Epenthesis.—Vowels are sometimes inserted to ease the pronunciation, but usually before liquids or in foreign words: ager (agro-) see 31; Daphniē (= Daphnē); drachuma (= drachma).
4. Assimilation.—Two vowels in adjoining syllables tend to become like each other: this assimilation is usually regressive (i. e., of the first to the second), especially when l separates them; it is rarely pro-gressive. Compare facilis with facul, familia with famulus, bene with bonus.
5. A vowel before a liquid tends to become ù, less often o or e: aduléscëns and aduléscëns; vulgus and volgus; decumus (decem); compare tempus with temporis; peperï (from pariö), etc.


1. Assimilation.—When two consonants come together in Latin, they tend to assimilate one to the other. This assimilation is usually regressive; sometimes it is progressive. It is either complete, that is, the two consonants become the same; or partial, that is, the one is made of the same order or same organ as the other. These changes occur both in inflection and in composition, but they are especially noteworthy in the last consonant of prepositions in composition.

Scrip-tum for scrib-tum (regressive partial); ac-cëdere for ad-cëdere (regressive complete); cur-sum for cur-tum (progressive partial); celer- rimus for celer-simus (progressive complete).

2. Partial Assimilation.—(a) The sonants g and b, before the surd t, or the sibilant s, often become surds (c, p); the surds p, c, t before liquids sometimes become sonants (b, g, d); the labials p, b before n become m; the labial m before the gutturals c, q, g, h, i (j), the dentals t, d, s, and the labials f, v, becomes n; the dental n before labials p, b, m, becomes m; réct-tum (for rég-tum); scrip-si (for scrib-si); seg-mentum (for sec-mentum); som-nus (for sop-nus); prin-ceps (for prim-ceps).

Note.—Similar is the change of q (qu) to c before t or s: coc-tum (for coqu-tum).

(b) After l and r, t of the suffixes tor, tus, tum, becomes s by progressive assimilation: cur-sum (for cur-tum).

3. Complete Assimilation.—There are many varieties, but the most important principle is that a mute or a liquid tends to assimilate to a liquid and to a sibilant: puella (puer); cur-rere (for cur-sere); cés-si (for cëd-si); corölla (corëna), etc.

4. Prepositions.—Ab takes the form ã before m or v, and in ã-fúl; appears as au in au-féro, au-fugió; as abs before c, t; as as before p. Ad is assimilated before c, g, l, p, r, s, t, with more or less regularity; before gn, sp, sc, st, it often appears as ã. Ante appears rarely as anti. Cum appears as com before b, m, p; con before c, d, f, g, i, q, s, v; cò before gn, n; assimilated sometimes before 1 and r. Ex becomes è before b, d, g, i (j), l, m, n, r, v; ef or ec, before f. In usually becomes im before b, m, p; before l, r it is occasionally assimilated: the same holds good of the negative prefix in. Ob is usually assimilated before c, f, g, p, r; appears as us in a few words, as sus-cipiö; occasionally sù before s, as sù-spició. Tràns sometimes becomes trá before d, i (j), n; tràn before s. Amb- (inseparable) loses b before a consonant, and am is sometimes assimilated. Cir-cum sometimes drops m before i. Dis becomes dif before f; dir before a
vowel; ð before consonants, except c, p, q, t, s, followed by a vowel, when it is usually unchanged. The ð of red and sed is usually dropped before consonants.

Note.—In early Latin assimilation is much less common than in the classical period.

5. Dissimilation.—To avoid the harshness of sound when two syllables begin with the same letter, the initial letter of the one is often changed; this is true especially of liquids, but occasionally of other letters: singu-lā-ris (for singu-lā-lis); meri-die (for medi-die).

Note.—This principle often regulates the use of -brum or -bulum, and of -crum or -culum in word formation (181, 6): compare periculum with simulācrum.

6. Omission.—(a) When a word closes with a doubled consonant or a group of consonants, the final consonant is regularly dropped in Latin: sometimes after the preceding consonant has been assimilated to it. In the middle of a word, after a long syllable, ss and ll are simplified: ll is sometimes simplified after a short vowel, which is then lengthened if the syllable is accented (compensatory lengthening); but if the syllable is unaccented, such lengthening need not take place. In this case other doubled consonants may also be simplified.

fel (for fell); lac (for lact); vigil (for vigils); lapis (for lapid-s, lapiss); misi (for mis-si); villa and vilicus; but currus and cūrūlis.

Note.—X is retained, even after l and r, as in calx, arx; also ps, bs, as in stirps, urbs; ms is found in hiems only.

(b) In the tendency to easier pronunciation consonants are often dropped both at the beginning and in the middle of a word: stimulus (for stigmulus); pāstor (for pāscor); āiō (for āhiō); nātus (for gnātus, retained in early Latin, rarely later): lātus (for tlātus), etc.

7. Epenthesis.—Between m and l, m and s, m and t, a p is generated: ex-em-p-lum (ex-imō); cōm-p-si (cōmō); ēm-p-tus (emō).

8. Metathesis or transposition of consonants occurs sometimes in Latin, especially in Perfect and Supine forms: ocornō; Pf. crē-vi, etc.

Syllables.

10. The syllable is the unit of pronunciation: it consists of a vowel, or a vowel and one or more consonants.

A word has as many syllables as it contains separate vowels and diphthongs.

In dividing a word into syllables, a consonant, between two vowels, belongs to the second: a-mō, I love; li-xa, a sutler;
Any combination of consonants that can begin a word (including mn, under Greek influence) belongs to the following vowel; in other combinations the first consonant belongs to the preceding vowel: a-sper, rough; fau-stus, lucky; li-bri, books; a-mnis, river.

Remarks.—1. The combinations incapable of beginning a word are (a) doubled consonants: sic-cus, dry; (b) a liquid and a consonant: al-mus, fostering; am-bō, both; an-guis, snake; ar-bor, tree.

2. Compounds are treated by the best grammarians as if their parts were separate words: ab-igo, I drive off; res-pública, commonwealth.

11. The last syllable of a word is called the ultimate (última, last); the next to the last the penult (paene, almost, and ultima); the one before the penult, the antepenult (ante, before, and paenúltima).

Remark.—A syllable is said to be open when it ends with a vowel; close, when it ends with a consonant.

Quantity.

12. 1. A syllable is said to be long by nature, when it contains a long vowel or diphthong: mōs, custom; caelum, heaven.

Remarks.—1. A vowel before nf, ns, gm, gn, is long by nature: in-félix, unlucky; mén-sa, table; ág-men, train; ágnus, lamb. In many cases, however, the n has disappeared from the written word; so in some substantival terminations: ōs (Acc. Pl., 2d decl.). ūs (Acc. Pl., 4th decl.); in adjectives in ósus (fórmósus, shapely, for fórmónsus); in the numerical termination ósimus (= énsimus). See 95, n. 5.

2. Before i consonant (j) a vowel is long by nature: Pompéius, Pompey; except in compounds of iugum, yoke (bi-iugus, two-horse), and in a few other words.

Note.—From about 134 to about 74 B. C. ā, ē, ū, were often represented by aa, ee, uu; i by ei. From the time of Augustus to the second century i was indicated by a lengthened i. From Sulla’s time until the third century long vowels rarely, however, i were indicated by an Apex (').

2. A syllable is said to be long by position, when a short vowel is followed by two or more consonants, or a double consonant: ārs, art; cōllum, neck; a-brumpō, I break off; per mare, through the sea; nex, murder.
3. A syllable is said to be short when it contains a short vowel, which is not followed by two or more consonants: lócus, place; tábula, picture.

Remark.—A vowel is short by nature when followed by another vowel, or by nt, nd: dèus, God; innocéntia, innocence; amándus, to be loved.

13. A syllable ending in a short vowel, followed by a mute with l or r, is said to be common (anceps, doubtful): tenēbrae, darkness.

Remark.—In prose such syllables are always short. In poetry they were short in early times, common in the Augustan period.

14. Every diphthong, and every vowel derived from a diphthong, or contracted from other vowels, is long: saevus, cruel; conclúdō, I shut up (from claudō, I shut); cógō (from co-agō), I drive together.

Accentuation.

15. 1. Dissyllabic words have the accent or stress on the penult: équus, horse.

2. Polysyllabic words have the accent on the penult, when the penult is long; on the antepenult, when the penult is short or common: mandáre, to commit; mandére, to chew; intègrum, entire; circúmdare, to surround; supérstites, survivors.

Remarks.—1. The little appendages (enclitics), que, ve, ne, add an accent to the ultimate of words accented on the antepenult: lámináque, and lights; flámináve, or rivers; vémeréne? from a plowshare? Dissyllables and words accented on the penult are said to shift their accent to the final syllable before an enclitic: egómet, I indeed; amárevé, or to love; but it is more likely that the ordinary rule of accentuation was followed.

2. Compounds (not prepositional) of facere and dare retain the accent on the verbal form: calefácit, vénundáre.

3. Vocatives and genitives of substantives in ius of the second declension, as well as genitives of substantives in ium, retain the accent on the same syllable as the nominative: Vergíli.

Note.—Other exceptions will be noted as they occur. In the older language the accent was not bounded by the antepenult: áccipiō (accípiō), cóncutiō (concútiō).
Parts of Speech.

16. The Parts of Speech are the Noun (Substantive and Adjective), the Pronoun, the Verb, and the Particles (Adverb, Preposition, and Conjunction), defined as follows:

1. The Substantive gives a name: vir, a man; Cocles, Cocles; dōnūm, a gift.
2. The Adjective adds a quality to the Substantive: bonus vir, a good man.
3. The Pronoun points out without describing: hīc, this; ille, that; ego, I.
4. The Verb expresses a complete thought, whether assertion, wish, or command: amat, he loves; amet, may he love; amā, love thou!
5. The Adverb shows circumstances.
6. The Preposition shows local relation.
7. The Conjunction shows connection.

Remarks.—1. Substantive is short for noun-substantive, and adjective for noun-adjective. Substantives are often loosely called nouns.

2. The Interjection is either a mere cry of feeling: āh! ah! and does not belong to language, or falls under one of the above-mentioned classes.

3. The Particles are mainly mutilated forms of the noun and pronoun.

Notes.—1. The difference between substantive and adjective is largely a difference of mobility; that is, the substantive is fixed in its application and the adjective is general.

2. Noun and pronoun have essentially the same inflection; but they are commonly separated, partly on account of the difference in signification, partly on account of certain peculiarities of the pronominal forms.

Inflection.

17. Inflection (inflexiō, bending) is that change in the form of a word (chiefly in the end) which shows a change in the relations of that word. The noun, pronoun, and verb are inflected; the particles are not capable of further inflection. The inflection of nouns and pronouns is called declension, and nouns and pronouns are said to be declined.

The inflection of verbs is called conjugation, and verbs are said to be conjugated.
The Substantive.

18. A Substantive is either concrete or abstract; concrete when it gives the name of a person or thing; abstract when it gives the name of a quality; as amicitia, friendship.

Concrete substantives are either proper or common:
Proper when they are proper, or peculiar, to certain persons, places, or things: Horatius, Horace; Neapolis, Naples; Padus, Po.
Common when they are common to a whole class: dominus, a lord; urbs, a city; amnis, a river.

Gender of Substantives.

19. For the names of animate beings, the gender is determined by the signification; for things and qualities, by the termination.

Names of males are masculine; names of females, feminine. Masculine: Rōmulus; Iūppiter; vir, man; equus, horse. Feminine: Cornēlia; Iūnō; fēmina, woman; equa, mare.

20. Some classes of words, without natural gender, have their gender determined by the signification:
I. All names of months and winds, most names of rivers, and many names of mountains are masculine; as: Aprilis, April, the opening month; Aquilo, the north wind; Albis, the River Elbe; Athōs, Mount Athos.

Remarks.—I. Names of months, winds, and rivers were looked upon as adjectives in agreement with masculine substantives understood (mensis, month; ventus, wind; fluvius, amnis, river).
2. Of the rivers, Allia, Lēthē, Matrona, Sagra, Styx are feminine; Albula, Acherōn, Garumna vary, being sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine.
3. Of the mountains, Alpēs, the Alps, is feminine; so, too, sundry (Greek) names in a (G. ae), ē (G. ēs): Aetna (usually), Calpē, Cyllēnē, Hybla, Ida, Ossa (usually), Oeta (usually), Rhodopē, Pholoē, Pyrēnē, and Carambis, Pelōris. Pelion and Sōracte (usually), and names of mountains in a (G. ērum), as Maenala (G. Maenalōrum), are neuter.

II. Names of countries (terræ, fem.), islands (insulae, fem.), cities (urbēs, fem.), plants (plantae, fem.), and trees
(arborēs, fem.), are feminine: Aegyptus, Egypt; Rhodus, Rhodes; pirus, a pear-tree; abīēs, a fir-tree.

Remarks.—1. Names of countries and islands in us (os) (G. i) are masculine, except Aegyptus, Chius, Chersonēsus, Cyprus, Dēlos, Æpirus, Lēmnos, Lesbos, Peloponnēsus, Rhodus, Samos, Bosporus (the country).

2. Many Greek names of cities follow the termination. Towards the end of the republic many feminine names change the ending -us to -um and become neuter: Abýdus and Abýdum, Saguntus and Saguntum.

3. Most names of trees with stems in -tro (N. -ter) are masculine: oleaster, wild olive; pinaster, wild pine. So also most shrubs: dūmus, bramble-bush; rhūs, sumach. Neuter are acer, maple; lāser, a plant; papāver, poppy (also masc. in early Latin); rōbur, oak; sīler, willow; sīser, skirret (occasionally masc.); sūber, cork-tree; tūber, mushroom.

III. All indeclinable substantives, and all words and phrases treated as indeclinable substantives, are neuter: fās, right; ā longum, ā long; scire tuum, thy knowing; triste vale, a sad “farewell.”

21. 1. Substantives which have but one form for masculine and feminine are said to be of common gender: civis, citizen (male or female); comes, companion; iūdex, judge.

2. Substantiva mōbilia are words of the same origin, whose different terminations designate difference of gender: magister, master, teacher; magistra, mistress; servus, serva, slave (masc. and fem.); victor, victrix, conqueror (masc. and fem.).

3. If the male and female of animals have but one designation, mās, male, and femīna, female, are added, when it is necessary to be exact: pāvō mās (masculus), peacock: pāvō femīna, peahen. These substantives are called epicene (ēpīkouva, utrique generi commūnia, common to each gender).

Number.

22. In Latin there are two numbers: the Singular, denoting one; the Plural, denoting more than one.

Remark.—The Dual, denoting two, occurs in Latin only in two words (duo, two; ambō, both), in the nominative and vocative of the masculine and neuter. A similar formation is octō, eight (two fours).
Cases.

23. In Latin there are six cases:

1. Nominative (Case of the Subject).
   Answers: who? what?

2. Genitive (Case of the Complement).
   Answers: whose? whereof?

3. Dative (Case of Indirect Object or Personal Interest).
   Answers: to whom? for whom?

4. Accusative (Case of Direct Object).
   Answers: whom? what?

5. Vocative (Case of Direct Address).
6. Ablative (Case of Adverbial Relation).
   Answers: where? whence? wherewith?

Note.—These six cases are the remains of a larger number. The Locative (answers: where?), is akin to the Dative, and coincident with it in the 1st and 3d Declensions; in the 2d Declension it is lost in the Genitive; it is often blended with the Ablative in form, regularly in syntax. The Instrumental (answers: wherewith?), which is found in other members of the family, is likewise merged in the Ablative.

24. 1. According to their form, the cases are divided into strong and weak: The strong cases are Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative. The weak cases are Genitive, Dative, and Ablative.

2. According to their syntactical use, the cases are divided into Casus Recti, or Independent Cases, and Casus Obliqui, or Dependent Cases. Nominative and Vocative are Casus Recti, the rest Casus Obliqui.

25. The case-forms arise from the combination of the case-endings with the stem.

1. The stem is that which is common to a class of formations.

Notes.—1. The stem is often so much altered by contact with the case-ending, and the case-ending so much altered by the wearing away of vowels and consonants, that they can be determined only by scientific analysis. So in the paradigm mënsa, the stem is not mëns, but mënsä, the final ä having been absorbed by the ending in the Dative and Ablative Plural mënsis. So -d, the ending of the Ablative Singular, has nearly disappeared, and the locative ending has undergone many changes (ë, ĕ, i, ĕ). The "crude form" it is often impossible to ascertain.

2. The root is an ultimate stem, and the determination of the root belongs to com-
parative etymology. The stem may be of any length, the root was probably a monosyllable. In *penna* the stem is *penna-*; in *pennula*, *pennula-*; in *pennatulus*, *pennatulo-*; the root is *pet* (*petna*, *pesna*, *penna*), and is found in *pet-ere*, *to fly upon*; Greek, *πετομάχη, πτερόν*; English, *feather*.

2. The case-endings are as follows, early forms being printed in parenthesis:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N.V.</td>
<td>-es (cis, īs); -i; n. -a.</td>
<td>-um (om); -rum (som).</td>
<td>-bus; -is.</td>
<td>s (for -ns); n. -a.</td>
<td>-bus; -is.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>-i.</td>
<td>-um</td>
<td>-s (for -ns).</td>
<td>-is.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Declensions.

26. There are five declensions in Latin, which are characterized by the final letter of their respective stems (*stem-characteristic*).

For practical purposes and regularly in lexicons they are also improperly distinguished by the ending of the Genitive Singular.

**STEM CHARACTERISTIC. GENITIVE SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem Characteristic</th>
<th>Genitive Singular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I.</td>
<td>ā (ā).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II.</td>
<td>ō.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III.</td>
<td>ī, ū, a consonant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV.</td>
<td>ū.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>ē.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remark.—The First, Second, and Fifth Declensions are called Vowel Declensions; the Third and Fourth, which really form but one, the Consonant Declension, ī and ū being semi-consonants.

27. The case-endings in combination with the stem-characteristics give rise to the following systems of terminations:

**SINGULAR.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>N.</th>
<th>G.</th>
<th>D.</th>
<th>Ac.</th>
<th>V.</th>
<th>A0.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>a.</td>
<td>ae (ās, āī, ai).</td>
<td>ae (āī).</td>
<td>am.</td>
<td>a.</td>
<td>ā (ād).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>II.</th>
<th>III.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>us (os); wanting; um (om).</td>
<td>s; wanting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ī (īl).</td>
<td>is (us, es).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ō (oi).</td>
<td>ī (īl, i).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>um (om).</td>
<td>em, im.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>e; wanting; um (om).</td>
<td>e.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ō (ōd).</td>
<td>e, ī (ēd, ēd).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
FIRST DECLENSION.

IV.  
N. V.  us; ū.  
G. ūs (uos, uis).  
D. ūi, ū (uoī).  
Ac. um; ū.  
Ab. ū.

V.  
ēs.  
ēī, ē (es).  
ēī, ē.  
em.  
ē.

Plural.

I.  
N. V.  ae.  
G. ārum.  
D. A. īs (ēis); ābus.  
Ac. ās.

II.  
N. V.  ā (oe, ē, ēī); ā.  
G. um (om). ōrum.  
D. A. īs (ēis), ibus.  
Ac. ēīs; ā.

III.  
ēs (ēis, īs); a, ia.  
um, ium.  
ibus.  
īs, ēs; a, īa.

IV.  
N. V.  ūs (uos, uus); ua.  
G. uum.  
D. A. ubus, ibus.  
Ac. ūs; ua.

V.  
ēs.  
ērum.  
ēbus.  
ēs.

Note.—Final -s and -m are frequently omitted in early inscriptions.


I. For the strong cases.

Neuter substantives have the Nominative and the Vocative like the Accusative; in the Plural the strong cases always end in ā.

In the Third, Fourth, and Fifth Declensions the strong cases are alike in the Plural.

The Vocative is like the Nominative, except in the Singular of the Second Declension when the Nominative ends in -us.

II. For the weak cases:

The Dative and the Ablative Plural have a common form.

FIRST DECLENSION.

29. The stem ends in ā, which is weakened from an original ā. The Nominative has no ending.

Sg.—N. mēnsa (f.), the table, a table.  
G. mēnsae, of the table, of a table.  
D. mēnsae, to, for the table, to, for a table.  
Ac. mēnsam, the table, a table.  
V. mēnsa, O table! table!  
Ab. mēnsā, from, with, by, the table, from, with, by, a table.
SECOND DECLENSION.

Pl.—N. mēnsae, the tables. tables.
G. mēnsārum, of the tables. of tables.
D. mēnsis, to, for the tables. to, for tables.
Ac. mēnsās, the tables. tables.
V. mēnsae, O tables! tables!
Ab. mēnsis, from, with, by, the tables. from, with, by, tables.

Remarks.—1. The early ending of the Gen., ās, found in a few cases in early poets, is retained in the classical period (but not in Caesar or Livy) only in the form familiās, of a family, in combination with pater, father, māter, mother, filius, son, filia, daughter, viz.: paterfamiliaās, māterfamiliaās, filius familiās, filia familiās.

2. The Loc. Sing. is like the Genitive: Rōmae, at Rome; militiae, abroad.

3. The Gen. Pl. sometimes takes the form -um instead of -ārum; this occurs chiefly in the Greek words amphora (amphora, measure of tonnage), and drachma, franc—(Greek coin). The poets make frequent use of this form in Greek patronymics in -da, -dās, and compounds of -cola (from colō, I inhabit) and -gena (from root gen, begot).

4. The ending -ābus is found (along with the regular ending) in the Dat. and Abl. Pl. of dea, goddess, and filia, daughter. In late Latin the use of this termination becomes more extended.

Notes.—1. A very few masc. substantives show Nom. Sing. in ās in early Latin.

2. A form of the Gen. Sing. in āī, subsequent to that in ās, is found in early inscriptions, and not unfrequently in early poets, but only here and there in classical poetry (Ver., A., 3, 354, etc.) and never in classical prose.

3. The early ending of the Dat. āī (sometimes contracted into ā), is found occasionally in inscriptions throughout the whole period of the language.

4. The older ending of the Abl., ādī, belongs exclusively to early Latin. Inscriptions show āīs for ās in Dat. and Abl. Pl., and once ās in the Dat. Plural.

30. Rule of Gender.—Substantives of the First Declension are feminine, except when males are meant.

Hadria, the Adriatic, is masculine.

SECOND DECLENSION.

31. The stem ends in ō, which in the classical period is weakened to ū, except after ū (vowel or consonant), where ō is retained until the first century A.D. In combination with the case-endings it merges into ō or disappears altogether. In the Vocative (except in neuters) it is weakened to ē.

The Nominative ends in s (m. and f.) and m (n.). But many masculine stems in which the final vowel, ō, is preceded by r, drop the (os) us and e of the Nominative and Vocative, and insert ē before the r if it was preceded by a consonant.
32. 1. Stems in -ro. The following stems in -ro do not drop the (os) us and e of the Nom. and Voc.: erus, master; hesperus, evening star; icterus, jaundice; iuniperus, juniper; mōrus, mulberry; numerus, number; taurus, bull; virus, venom; umerus, shoulder; uterus, womb.

   Note.—Socerus is found in early Latin. Plautus uses uterum (m.) once.

2. In the following words the stem ends in -ero and the e is therefore retained throughout: adulter, adulterer; gener, son-in-law; Liber, god of wine; puer, boy; socer, father-in-law; vesper, evening; and in words ending in -fer and -ger, from ferō, I bear, and gerō, I carry, as, signifer, standard-bearer, armiger, armor-bearer.

   Also Iber and Celtibēr (names of nations) have in the Plural Iberī and Celtibērī.

33. Hortus (m.), garden; puer (m.), boy; ager (m.), field; bellum (n.), war; are thus declined:

   SG.—N.    hortus,    puer,   ager,    bellum,
          G.    hortī,    puerī,   agrī,   bellī,
          D.    hortō,    puerō,   agrō,   bellō,
          Ac.    hortum,    puerum,   agrum,   bellum,
          V.    hortus,    puer,    agrē,    bellum,
          Ab.    hortō,    puerō,    agrō,    bellō.

   I'.—N.    hortī,    puerī,   agrī,   bella,
          G.    hortōrum,    puerōrum,   agrōrum,   bellōrum,
          D.    hortīs,    puerīs,   agrīs,   bellīs,
          Ac.    hortās,    puerōs,   agrōs,   bella,
          V.    hortī,    puerī,   agrī,    bella,
          Ab.    hortīs,    puerīs,   agrīs,   bellīs.

Remarks.—1. Stems in -io have Gen. Sing. for the most part in ĭ until the first century A. D., without change of accent: ingēnī (N. ingenium), of genus, Vergīli, of Vergil. See 15, r. 3.

2. Proper names in -ius (stems in -io) have Voc. in ĕ, without change of accent: Antōnī, Tullī, Gālī, Vergīli. Filius, son, and genius, genus, form their Voc. in like manner: filī, genī. In solemn discourse -us of the Nom. is employed also for the Vocative. (See Liv. i. 24, 7.) So regularly deus, Deus.

3. The Loc. Sing. ends in ĭ (apparent Genitive), as Rhōdi, at Rhodes, Tarentī, at Tarentum.

4. In the Gen. Pl. -um instead of -ōrum is found in words denoting coins and measures; as, nummum, of monēs (also -ōrum) = sestertium, of sesterces; dēnārium (occasionally -ōrum); talentum (occasionally -ōrum); tetrachrum; modium (also -ōrum), of measures; iūgerum; mediumnum; stadium (also -ōrum). Likewise in some names of persons: deum (also
-örum); fabrum (in technical expressions; as praefectus fabrum, otherwise -örum); liberum (also -örum); virum (poetical, except in technical expressions, as triumvirum); socium (also -örum). Some other examples are poetical, rare or late.

5. The Loc. Pl. is identical with the Dative: Delphis, at Delphi.

6. Deus, God, is irregular. In addition to the forms already mentioned, it has in Nom. Pl. dei, dì, dì; in Dat. and Abl. Pl. deis, dis, dis.

Notes.—1. The ending -ö for -i in the Gen. Sing. is found only in inscriptions subsequent to the third Punic War.


3. The original Abl. ending -d belongs to early inscriptions.

4. In early inscriptions the Nom. Pl. ends occasionally in ēs, éis, īs: magistrēs (for magistri) virēis (for virī). The rare endings oe and ē (ploirumē for plūrimi) and the not uncommon ending ī belong to the same period.

5. Inscriptions often show ēis for īs in Dat. and Abl. Plural.

34. Rule of Gender.—Substantives in -us are masculine; in -um neuter.

Exceptions.—Feminine are: 1st. Cities and islands, as, Corinthus, Samus. 2d. Most trees, as, fāgus, beech; pīrus, pear-tree. 3d. Many Greek nouns, as, atomus, atom; dialectus, dialect; methodus, method; paragraphus, paragraph; periodus, period. 4th. Alvus, belly (in Plaut.); colus (61, N. 5), distaff (also m.); humus, ground; vannus, wheat-fan.

Neuters are: pelagus, sea; virus, venom; vulgus, the rabble (sometimes masculine).

THIRD DECLENSION.

35. 1. The stem ends in a consonant, or in the close vowels i and u.

2. The stems are divided according to their last letter, called the stem-characteristic, following the subdivisions of the letters of the alphabet:

I.—Consonant Stems.
A. Liquid stems, ending in l, m, n, r.
B. Sibilant stems, ending in s.
   (1. Ending in a P-mute, b, p.)
C. Mute stems, (2. Ending in a K-mute, g, c.
   3. Ending in a T-mute, d, t.)

II.—Vowel Stems.
1. Ending in i.
2. Ending in u,
   (Compare the Fourth Declension.)

36. 1. The Nominative Singular, masculine and feminine, ends in s, which, however, is dropped after l, n, r, s, and combines with a K-mute to form x. The final vowel of the stem undergoes various changes.
The Vocative is like the Nominative.
In the other cases, the endings are added to the unchanged stem.

2. Neuters always form:
The Nominative without the case-ending s.
The Accusative and Vocative cases in both numbers like the Nominative.
The Nominative Plural in á.

Notes on the Cases.

37. Singular.
1. Genitive.—In old Latin we find on inscriptions the endings -us (Gr. -ος) and -es.
2. Dative.—The early endings of the Dat. are -ē and -e. These were succeeded
by I after the second century B. C., e being retained in formulas like iūrē dicundō
(Liv., 42, 28, 6), in addition to the usual form.
3. Accusative.—The original termination -im, in stems of the vowel declension,
loses ground, and stems of this class form their Acc. more and more in -em, after the
analogy of consonant stems. For the classical usage see 57, r. 1.
4. Ablative.—In inscriptions of the second and first centuries B. C. we find -ē,
-ī, and -e. But -ē soon disappears, leaving e and ī. In general e is the ending for the
consonant stems and ī for the vowel. But as in the Acc., so in the Abl., the e makes
inroads on the ī, though never to the same extent. (See 57, n. 2.) On the other
hand, some apparently consonant stems assume the ending ī. Thus some in -ās,
-ās: hērēditātī (300 B. C.), acētātī (rare); līti (rare), suppellēctīlī (classical;
early e); also the liquid stems which syncopate in the Gen., as imber. The ending
-d is rare and confined to early inscriptions.
5. Locative.—Originally coincident in form with the Dat., the Loc. of the Third
Declension was finally blended with Abl., both in form and in syntax. In the following
proper names the old form is frequently retained: Karthāgīni, at Carthage, Sul-
mōnī, at Sulmo, Lacedaemonī, at Lacedaemon, Sicyōnī, Troezēnī, Anxurī,
Tiburī. Also Acheruntī. In the case of all except Anxur, Tibur, Acherūns, the
regular form is more common.
The following Loc. forms of common nouns are found: herī, lūcī, noctū (prin-
cipally in early Latin), orbī (Ctc.), peregrī (early Latin), praefiscīnī (early Latin),
rūrī, temperī (the usual form in early Latin), vesperī. In all cases the Abl. form
in e is also found.

38. Plural.
1. Nominative.—Early Latin shows -ēs, -īs in the masc. and feminine. The latter
was usually confined to vowel stems, but also occurs occasionally in consonant stems
(ōudicīs). Later the ending was -ēs for all kinds of stems.
2. Genitive.—The ending -um, uniting with the vowel in vowel stems, gives
-im. But many apparently consonant stems show their original vowel form by taking
-im; (1) Many fem. stems in -tāt- (N. tās) with -im as well as -um. (2) Mono-
syllables and polysyllabic stems in -t-, -c, with preceding consonant. (3) Monosyllables
in -p and -b, sometimes with, sometimes without, a preceding consonant. (4) Stems in
-ss-; see 48, r.
3. Accusative.—Old Latin shows also -ēs. The classical form is -ēs for consonant
and -is for vowel stems. But -ēs begins to drive out -is in some vowel stems and
wholly supplants it in the early Empire. On the other hand, some apparently original
consonant stems show -is in early Latin, but the cases are not always certain.
1.—CONSONANT STEMS.

A.—Liquid Stems.

1. Liquid Stems in \( l \).

39. Form the Nominative without \( s \) and fall into two divisions*:

A. Those in which the stem characteristic is preceded by a vowel:

1. \(-al, -alis\) : sál (with compensatory lengthening), sált; Punic proper names like Adherbal, Hannibal.

2. \(-il, -ilis\) : műgil (mûgilis is late), mûllet; pugil (pugilis in Varro), \( b \)oxer; vigil, \( w \)atchman. \(-il, -ilis\) : sîl, ochre; Tanaquil (with shortened vowel), a proper name.

3. \(-ōl, -ōlis\) : söl, sun.

4. \(-ul, -ulis\) : cōnsul, consul; exsul, exil.; praesul, dancer.

B. Two neuter substantives with stems in \(-ll\), one of which is lost in the Nominative: mel, mellis, honey; fel, fellis, gall.

Sg.—N. cōnsul, consul (m.). Pl.—N. cōnsulēs, the consuls.

G. cōnsulis, G. cōnsulum,

D. cōnsuli, D. cōnsulibus,

Ac. cōnsulem, Ac. cōnsulēs,

V. cōnsul, V. cōnsulēs,

Ab. cōnsule.

Ab. cōnsulibus.

Rules of Gender.—1. Stems in \(-l\) are masculine.

Exceptions : sîl, ochre, and sál, sált (occasionally, but principally in the Sing.), are neuter.

2. Stems in \(-ll\) are neuter.

2. Liquid Stems in \( m \).

40. Nominative with \( s \). One example only: hiem(p)s, winter (f.) ; Gen., hiem-is, Dat., hiem-i, \( e \)tc.

3. Liquid Stems in \( n \).

41. Most masculine and feminine stems form the Nominative Singular by dropping the stem-characteristic and changing a preceding vowel to \( o \).

* In the following enumerations of stem-varieties, Greek substantives are as a rule omitted.
Some masculine and most neuter stems retain the stem-characteristic in the Nominative and change a preceding i to e.

The following varieties appear:

1. -ēn, -ēnis: the masculine substantives liēn, splēn, spleen; rēnēs (pl.), kidneys.

2. -ō, -inis: homō, man; nēmō, no one; turbō, whirlwind; Apolllē, Apollo. Also substantives in -dō (except praedō, G. -onis, robber); and in -gō (except harpagō, G. -onis, grappling-hook; ligō, G. -onis, mattock); as, grandō, hail; virgō, virgin. -en, inis: the masc. substantives flāmen, priest; ōscen (also f.), divining bird: pecten, comb; musical performers, cornicen, fidicen, liticen, tībicen, tubicen. Also many neuters: as nōmen, name.

3. -ō (in early Latin ō, in classical period weakened), -ōnēs: leō, lion; and about seventy others. -o, -onis: Saxo, Saxon (late).

4. Irregular formations: carō, G. carnis, flesh; Aniō, G. Aniēnis, a river; Nērīō, G. Nērīēnis, a proper name. Sanguīs, blood, and pollis, flour, drop the stem characteristic and add s to form nominative; G. sanguinis, pollinis.

Note.—Early Latin shows homōnem, etc., occasionally.

43. Rules of Gender.—1. Substantives in -ō are masculine, except carō, flesh, and those in -dō, -gō, and -iō.

Exceptions.—Masculine are cardō, hinge; ōrdō, rank; harpagō, grappling-hook; ligō, mattock; margō, border (occasionally fem. in late Latin); and concrete nouns like pūgiō, dagger, titiō, firebrand, vespertiliō, bat.

2. Substantives in -en (-men) are neuter. See exceptions, 41, 1, 2.
CONSONANT STEMS.

44. Form Nominative without s.

Stems fall into the following classes:

1. -ar, -oris: salar, trout; proper names like Caesar, Hamilcar; the neuters baccar, a plant; iubar, radiance; nectar, nectar. -är, -oris: Lär, a deity. -år, -onis: När (Enn., Verg.), a river.

2. -er, -oris: acipenser, a fish; agger, mound; änder, goose; asser, pote: aster, a plant; cancer, the disease; carcer, prison; later, brick; mulier (f.), woman; passer, sparrow; tüber (m. and f.), apple; vesper, evening (68, 10); vomer, plowshare (17, 2). The neuters acer, maple; cadaver, dead body; cicer, pea; laver, a plant; papaver, poppy; piper, pepper; siler, willow; siser, skirret; tüber, tumor; über, teat; [verber], thong. -er, -oris: four words, accipiter, hawk; frater, brother; mater, mother; pater, father. Also some proper names, as Diæsiter, Falacer, and the names of the months, September, October, November, December. Also, imber, shower, linter, skiff, üter, bag. venter, belly, which were probably vowel stems originally (see 45, r. 1). -er, -oris: ær, air; aethër, ether. -ër, -oris: vër, spring.

3. -or, -oris: arbor (f.), tree (stem originally in -os); some Greek words in -tor, as rhētor, rhetorician; slave names in -por, as Mārcipor; the neuters: ador, spell; aequor, sea; marmor, marble. -or, -oris: very many abstract words, as amor, love; color, color; clámor, outcry; soror, sister; uxor, wife; these may come from stems in õs (see 47, 4); also verbs in -tor, as victor.

4. -ur, -urus: augur, augur; furfur, bran; turtur, dove; vultur, vulture; lemures (pl.), ghosts, and a few proper names; also the neuters fulgur, lightning; guttur, throat; murmur, murmur; sulfur, sulphur. -ür, -üris: fur, thief.

5. Four neuters, ebur, ivory: femur, thigh; iecur, liver; rōbur, oak, show Gen. in -oris; two of these, femur, iecur, have also the irregular forms feminis and iecineris, iecinoris, iocinoris. Iter, way, has G. itineris; and supellēx, furniture, has G. supellēctilis.

45. SINGULAR. PLURAL. SINGULAR. PLURAL.

N. labor, toil (m.). labōrés, pater, father (m.). patrés, patrum,
G. labōris, labōrum, patris, patribus,
D. labōri, labōribus, patri, patribus,
Ae. labōrem, labōrés, patrem, patres,
V. labor, labōrés, patre,
Ab. labōre, labōribus.
THIRD DECLENSION.

REMARKS.—1. Imber, shower, linter, skiff, āter, bag, venter, belly, show the vowel nature of their stems by having Gen. Pl. in -ium. Imber has also sometimes Abl. Sing. in i. (See 37, 4.)

2. Rōbur, strength, also forms a Nom. rōbus (47, 4), and vōmer, plow-share, vōmis (47, 2).

Note.—Arbor, and many stems in -ōr, were originally stems in -s; the s became r (47) between two vowels in the oblique cases, and then reacted upon the Nominative. But many Nominatives in -ōs are still found in early Latin; and some are still retained in the classical times: arbōs (regularly in Verg., frequently in Lucr., Hor., Ov.), honōs (regularly in Verg., commonly in Cic., Livy), and others.

46. Rules of Gender.—1. Substantives in -ar and -ur are masculine. 2. Substantives in -er and -ur are neuter.

Exceptions.—Masculine are salar, trout, and proper names in -ar; augur, augur; furfur, bran; names of animals in -ur and a few proper names in -ur.

Feminine are arbor, tree; mulier, woman; soror, sister; uxor, wife. Neuter are acer, maple; ador, spell; aequor, sea; cadāver, dead body; cicer, pea; iter, way; lāser, a plant; laver, a plant; marmor, marble; papāver, poppy; piper, pepper; siler, willow; siser, skirret; sūber, cork; tūber, tumor; āber, leat; vēr, spring; [verber], thong.

B.—Sibilant Stems.

47. The Nominative has no additional s, and changes in masculines e to i, and in neuters e or o to u before s.

In the oblique cases, the s of the stem usually passes over, between two vowels, into r (rhotacism).

There are the following varieties of stems:

1. -ās, -āris: mās, male. -ās, -āsis: vās (n.), vessel. -ās, -āsis: ās (m.), a copper (vowel long in Nom. by compensatory lengthening), and some of its compounds (with change of vowel), as bes, semis.

2. -ēs, -ēris: Cerēs, Ceres. -ēs, -ēris: cinis, ashes; cucumis, cucumber (see 57, r. 1), pulvis (occasionally pulvis), dust; vōmis, plow-share (see 45, r. 2). -ūs, -ūris: Venus, and occasionally pignus, pledge (see 4).


4. -ōs, -ōsis: old Latin ianitōs, labōs, clāmōs (see 45, n.). -ōs, -ōsis: os (n.), bone. -ōs, -ōris: ēōs, flower; glōs, sister-in-law; lepōs, charm; mōs (m.), custom; -ōs (n.), mouth; rōs, dew. -ūs, -ūris: corpus, body; decus, grace; pignus, pledge, and twelve others: on rōbus (see 45, r. 2).

5. -ūs, -ūris: Ligus, Ligurian. -ūs, -ūris: tellūs (f.), earth; mūs (m.), mouse; the neuters: crūs, leg; iūs, right; pūs, pus; rūs, country; tūs, incense.

6. aes, aeris, brass,
CONSONANT STEMS.

48. SINGULAR. | PLURAL. | SINGULAR. | PLURAL.
---|---|---|---
N. A. V. genus, *kind* (n.), | genera, | corpus, *body* (n.), | corpora, |
G. generis, | generum, | corporis, | corporum, |
D. generi, | generibus, | corpori, | corporibus, |
Ab. genere. | generibus. | corpore. | corporibus. |

Remark.—*Äs, a copper, and ōs, bone, form the Gen. Pl. in -ium, after the usage of vowel stems (see 38, 2). So also mūs, mouse.

49. Rule of Gender.—Masculine are substantives in -is (-eris), and -ōs, -ōris: except ōs, *mouth* (G. ēris), which is neuter.

Neuter are substantives in -us (G. -eris, -oris), and in -ūs (G. -ūris); except tellus, *earth* (G. tellūris), which is feminine; and the masculines, lepus, *hare* (G. leporis); mūs, *mouse* (G. mūris).

C.—Mute Stems.

50. All masculines and feminines of mute stems have *s* in the Nominative. Before *s* a P-mute is retained, a K-mute combines with it to form *x*, a T-mute is dropped.

Most polysyllabic mute stems change their final vowel *i* into *e* in the Nominative.

The stems show variations as follows:

51. Stems in a P-mute.

1. -abs, -abis: trabs, *beam*; Arabs. -aps, -apis: [daps], *feast*.
4. -ops, -opis: [ops], *power*.

Sg.—N. princeps, *chief* (m.), | Pl.—principēs, |
G. principis, | principum, |
D. principi, | principibus, |
Ae. principem, | principēs, |
V. princeps, | principēs, |
Ab. principe. | principēs, |

52. Stems in a K-mute.

2. -ex, -ecis: faenisex, mower; nex, murder; [prex], prayex; [resex], stump. -ex, -ecis: allêx (also allèc), brine; verrêx, wether.

3. -ex, -egis: grex, herd; aquilex, water-inspector. -ex, -egis: interrex; lex, law; rex, king.

4. -ex, -ecis: auspex, soothsayer, and about forty others. -ex, -egis: rémex, rower. -ex, -ecis: cervix, neck, and about thirty others; verbs in -ix, as victrix. -ix, -icis: appendix, appendix, and ten others. -ix, -egis: strix, screech-owl; also many foreign proper names, as Dumnorix, which may, however, be forms in -ix, -igis.


6. -ux, -ucis: arx, citadel; merx, wares. -ux, -içis: falx, sickle; calx, heel, lime. -ux, -içis: lanx, dish; compounds of -unx, as quincunx, and a few names of animals: phalanx has G. phalangis.

7. Unclassified: nix (G. nivis), snow; bôs (G. bovis; see 71), oex; [faux] (G. faucis), throat; faex (G. fecis), dregs.

Se.—N. réx, king (m.).
G. régis,
D. régi,
Ac. régem,
V. rëx,
Ab. rège,
Pl.—régis,
régum,
régibus,
régès,
régés,
régës,
régibus.

53. Stems in a T-mute

1. -ús, -ūtis: many feminine abstracts, as aetâs, age; some proper names, as Maecênâs. -us, -ūtis: anas, duck. -us, -ūdis: vas, bail; lampas, torch.


3. -es, -itis: antistes, overseer; caespès, sod, and some fifteen others. -es, -idis: obes, hostage; praesès, p. ector. -is, -îtis: lis, suit. -is, -îdis: capis, bowl; cassis, helmet, and nearly forty others, mostly Greek.

4. -òs, -òtis: cös, whetstone; dös, dowry; nepös, grandson; sacerdös, priest. -òs, -òdis: custös, guard.

5. -ús, -ūtis: glûs, glue, and some abstracts: iuventûs, youth; salûs, safety; senectûs, old age; servitûs, servitude; virtûs, manliness.
CONSONANT STEMS.


7. -ls, -ltis: puls, porridge. -ns, -ntis: infâns, infant; dêns, tooth; fôns, fountain; mûns, mountain; frôns, brow; pôns, bridge; gêns, tribe; lêns, lentil; mëns, mind; rudêns, rope; torrêns, torrent. -s, -ntis: latinized Greek words like gigâs, giant. -rs, -rtis: ars, art; cohors, cohort; fors, chance; Mârs; mors, death; sors, lot.

8. Unclassified: cor (G. cordis), heart; nox (L. noctis), night; caput (G. capitis), head; lac (G. lactis), milk.

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<tr>
<th>Pl.</th>
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<th>Ab.</th>
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<td>aetâtē, age</td>
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<td>aetâtum,</td>
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<td>D. aetâti,</td>
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<td>pedēbus,</td>
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54. Many substantives of this class were originally vowel stems (see 56), and show their origin by having the termination -ium in the Gen. Pl. and -i in the Abl. Singular. Some not originally vowel stems do the same. (See 38, 2.)

Monosyllabic mute stems, with the characteristic preceded by a consonant, have the Gen. Pl. in -ium: urbium, of cities; arcium, of citadels; montium, of mountains; partium, of parts; noctium, of the nights. But -um is also found in gentum (Attius), partum (Ennius).

Monosyllabic mute stems, with characteristic preceded by a long vowel or dipthong, vary: dôt-ium, lit-ium, fauc-ium, fraud-um (-ium), laud-um (-ium). But praed-um, vōcum.

Monosyllabic mute stems with characteristic preceded by a short vowel have -um; but fac-ium. nuc-um (-ium), niv-ium (-um).

The polysyllabic stems in -nt and -rt have more frequently -ium, as clientium (-um), of clients; cohortium (-um), of companies. So adulâscentium (-um), amantium (-um), infantium (-um), parentium (-ium), serpentium (-um), torrentium (-um); rudentum (-ium); but only quadrantum.

Of other polysyllabic stèmes feminine stems in -ât have frequently both -um and -ium, as aetâtum and aetâtium, civitâtum and civitâtium, etc.; the rest have usually -um; but artifex, abaruspex, extispex, iâdex, supplex, cóinux, rémex, and usually fornâx have -ium. Forceps, manceps, mûniceps, princeps have -um. Palâs has usually palüdium.

Notes.—1. The accusative lentim from [lêns] is occasionally found, and partim from pars, as an adverb.

2. Sporadic ablatives in -i occur as follows: animantī (Cic.), bidentī (Lucr.), tridentī (Sulp., Verg.), capīti, consonantī (gram.), herēdī (inscr.), légī (inscr.), lentī (Tit., Col.), lâci (early), mentī (Col.), occipitī (Pers., Aes.), pâci (Varro), partī, rudentī (Vitr.), sortī, torrentī (Sen.).
55. Rule of Gender.—Mute stems, with Nominative in s, are feminine.

1. Exceptions in a k-mute.
Masculines are substantives in -ex, -ēx, -ix, and -unx; except cortex, bark, forfex, shears, frutex, shrub, imbrex, tile, latex, fluid, obex, bolt, silex, flint, varix, varicose vein, which are sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine; and faex, dregs, forfex, tongs, léx, law, nēx, slaughter, vibēx, weal, and forms of [prex], prayer, which are feminine. Calx, heel, and calx, chalk, are sometimes masculine, sometimes feminine.

2. Exceptions in a t-mute.
Masculine are substantives in -es, -itis, except merges (f.), sheaf; also péas, foot, and its compounds; pāriēs, wall; lapis, stone.
Masculines in -ns are: dēns, tooth, and its compounds; fōns, spring; mōns, mountain; pōns, bridge; rūdēns, rope; torrēns, torrent; also some substantivized adjectives and participles.
Neuters are only: cor, heart, lac, milk, and caput, head.

II.—Vowel Stems.

56. Masculines and feminines form their Nominative in s. Some feminines change, in the Nominative, the stem-vowel i into e.
Neuters change, in the Nominative, the stem-vowel i into e. This e is generally dropped by polysyllabic neuters after l and r.
Stems in i have Genitive Plural in -ium.
Neuter stems in i have the Ablative Singular in ī, and Nominative Plural in -ia.

The varieties of stems are:

1. -is, -is: nearly one hundred substantives, like civis, citizen.
2. -ēs, -is: thirty-five, like vulpēs, fox. Some of these have also variant nominatives in -is in good usage.
3. -e, -is: some twenty neuters, as mare, sea.
4. -er, -is: twenty-four neuters, which form Nominative by dropping the stem characteristic and shortening the preceding vowel: animal, -ālis, animal; calcar (G. calcāris), sprmr.
5. For substantives in -er, -ris, see 44, 2. Irregular is senex, (G. senis; see 57, r. 3), old man.
Vowel Stems.

So.—N. collis, hill. turris, tower. vulpes, for. mare, sea. animal, living being.
G. collis, turris, vulpis, maris, anima, anima, living.
D. collis, turri, vulpi, mari, anima, animal.
Ac. collis, turrim (em), vulpem, mare, animal.
V. collis, turris, vulpes, mare, animal.
Ab. colle, turrire, vulpe, mari, anima, living.

Pl.—N. collas, turres, vulpes, maria, anima, animal.
G. collium, turrium, vulpium, marum, anima, animal.
D. collibus, turri-bus, vulpibus, maribus, anima, anima.
Ac. collis ès), turris ès), vulpis ès), maria, anima, animal.
V. collis, turres, vulpes, maria, anima, animal.
Ab. collibus, turri-bus, vulpibus, maribus, anima, animal.

57. Remarks.—1. The proper ending of the Acc. Sing. -im, is retained always in amussis, būris, cucumis (see 47. 2). fūtis, mephitis, ravis, rūmis, sitis, tussis, vis; and in names of towns and rivers in -is, as Neapolis, Tibers; usually in febris, puppis, pelvis, restis, secūris, turris; occasionally in bipennis, clavis, crātis, cutis, len(t)i(s) (see 54. n. 1), messis, nāvis, neptis, praesaepis, sementis, strigilis.

2. The Abl. in -i is found in substantives that regularly have -im in Acc. (except perhaps restis): also not infrequently in annmis, avis, bipennis, canālis, cīvis, clāsis, finis (in formulae), fūtis, ignis (in phrases), orbis, sementis, strigilis, unguis; occasionally in anguis, bilis, clavis, collis, convallis, corbis, messis, neptis; regularly in neuters in e, al, and ar, except in rōte, and in the towns Caere, Praeneste.

Note.—So also the adjectives of this class, when used as substantives by ellipsis: annalīs (sc. liber, book), chronicī; nātalīs (sc. diēs, day), birthday; Aprilī (sc. mēnsis, month), and all the other months of the Third Declension: Abl. annalī, natalī, Aprilī, Septemberi, etc. But iuvenis, young man; and aedilis, aedile, have Abl. iuvene, aedile; adjectives used as proper nouns have generally Abl. in -e, as, iuvenalis, iuvenale.

3. In the Gen. Pl., instead of the ending -ium, -um is found always in canis, dog, iuvenis, young man, pānis, bread, senex, old, struēs, heap, volucris, bird; usually in apis, bee, sēdēs, seat, vātēs, bard; frequently in mēnsis, month. On imber, etc., see 45. r. 1. Post-classical and rare are ambāgum, caedium, clādum, veprum, and a few others; marum (the only form found) occurs once.

4. In the Nom. Pl., -ēs and -ēs are found in early Latin. So occasionally in consonant stems (see 38, r), but in classical times such usage is doubtful.

5. The proper ending of the Acc. Pl., -ēs (archaic, -ēs), is found frequently in the classical period along with the later termination -ēs, which supplants -is wholly in the early empire. On the other hand, -is for -ē in consonant stems is confined to a few doubtful cases in early Latin.
58. Rule of Gender.—1. Vowel stems, with Nominative in -és are feminine; those with Nominative in -is are partly masculine, partly feminine.

*Masculine are*: amnis, river (f., early); antēs (pl.), rows; axis, axle; būris, plow-tail; cassēs (pl.), loits; canlis, stalk; collis, hill; crinis, hair; ēnsis, gavel; fascis, fagot; follis, bellows; fūnis, rope (f., Lucr.); fūtis, cudgel; ignis, fire; mānēs (pl.), Maes; mēnsis, month; mūgilis, mullet; orbis, circle; pānis, bread; postis, door-post; torris, fire-brand; unguis, nail; vectis, lever; vermis, worm.

*Common are*: callis, footpath; canālis, canal; clūnis, haunch; corbus, basket; finis, end; rētis, net (also rēte, n.); sentis (usually pl.), bramble; scrobis, ditch; torquēs (es), necklace; tōlēs (pl.), goitre; veprēs (pl.), bramble.

Remark.—Of the names of animals in -is, some are masculine; tigris, tiger (fem. in poetry); canis, dog (also fem.); piscis, fish; others feminine: apis, bee; avis, bird; ovis, sheep; fēlis, cat (usually fēlēs).

2. Vowel stems, with Nominative in -e, -al, -ar, are neuter.

2. Vowel Stems in -u.

59. Of stems in -u, the *monosyllabic* stems, two in number, belong to the Third Declension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.—N.</th>
<th>grūs, crane (f.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>gruis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>grui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ae.</td>
<td>gruem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>grūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>grue</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pl.</th>
<th>gruēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gruum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gruibus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gruēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gruēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gruibus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Sus, swine (commonly f.), usually subus, in Dat. and Abl. Plural.

Table of Nominative and Genitive Endings of the Third Declension.

The * before the ending denotes that it occurs only in the one word cited.

60. A. NOMINATIVES ENDING WITH A LIQUID.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nom.</th>
<th>Gen.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-āl</td>
<td>-āli-s animal, animal.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-āl</td>
<td>-ālis Hannibal, proper name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-āl*</td>
<td>-ālis sāl, salt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-el*</td>
<td>-ēl-is mel, honey.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-il</td>
<td>-ēl-is pugil, boxer.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-il</td>
<td>-ēl-is Tanaquil, proper name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ōl</td>
<td>-ōl-is sōl, the sun.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ul</td>
<td>-ul-is cōnsul, consul.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ēn</td>
<td>-ēn-is rēnēs (pl.), kidneys.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ēn</td>
<td>-ēn-is nōmen, name.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ar*</td>
<td>-āri-s calcar, spur.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ar*</td>
<td>-āri-s nectar, nectar.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-är*</td>
<td>-arr-is fār, spelt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-er*</td>
<td>-er-is ānser, goose.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-r*</td>
<td>-r-is pater, father.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*-iner-is</td>
<td>*-iner-is iter, journey.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ēr*</td>
<td>-ēr-is vēr, spring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-or*</td>
<td>-or-is color, color.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-or*</td>
<td>-or-is aequor, expanse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*-ord-is</td>
<td>*-ord-is cor, heart.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ur*</td>
<td>-ur-is fulgur, lightning.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ur*</td>
<td>-ur-is rōbur, oak.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ār*</td>
<td>-ār-is fūr, thief.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
VOWEL STEMS.

B. NOMINATIVES ENDING WITH s, OR x (cs, gs).

-ās *-ās-is vās,  -ls *-lt-is puls,  porridge.
*ar-is mās,  -mp-s *-m-is hiems,  winter.
-āt-is aétās,  -ns -nd-is frōns,  leafy branch.
-as -ad-is vas,  -nt-s frōns,  forehead.
*ass-is as,  -rs -rd-is concors,  concordant.
-at-is anas,  -rt-s pars,  part.
-aes*aed-is praes,  -bs -b-is urbs,  city.
*aer-is aes,  -ps -p-is stirps,  stalk.
-aus -aud-is fraus,  -eps -ip-is princeps,  chief.
-ēs -is nūbēs,  -üp-is auceps,  fowler.
-ed-is pēs,  -ax -āc-is pāx,  peace.
-ēd-is hērēs,  -ax *-ac-is fax,  torch.
*er-is ĉerēs,  -aex -acc-is faex,  dyegs.
-et-is abiēs,  -aux -auc-is [faux],  throat.
-ēt-is quīēs,  -ex -ec-is nex,  death.

-es -et-is seges,  -ic-is ēdēx,  judge.
-id-is obse,  -eg-is grex,  flock.
-it-is miles,  *-ig-is rēmex,  rover.

-is -is annis,  -ēx *-ēc-is allēx,  pickle.
-id-is lapsis,  *-ic-is vībēx,  weed.
-in-is sanguis,  -āg-is rēx,  king.
-er-is cinis,  *-ix -ic-is cervix,  neck.
-īs *-it-is līs,  -ix -ic-is calix,  cup.

-oēs *-ōd-is ĉūstōs,  *-ig-is strix,  screech-owl.
-ōr-is flōs,  *-iv-is nix,  snow.
-ōt-is cōs,  -ōx *-oc-is praecox,  early-ripe.

-os *-oss-is os,  *-og-is Allobroges,  Allobrogiun.

-us *-ud-is pecus,  *-oct-is nox,  night.

-cē *-cē-is lāc,  milk.
-ēc *-ēc-is allēc,  pickle (68, 12).

C. NOMINATIVES ENDING WITH A MUTE.

-ac *-act-is lác,  milk.
-ut *-it-is caput,  head.

D. NOMINATIVES ENDING WITH A VOWEL.

-e  -i-s  mare, sea.
-o  -on-is  Saxo, Saxon.
-ō  -ōn-is  pāvō, peacock.

-in-is  homō, man.

-*-n-is  carō, flesh.
FOURTH DECLENSION.

61. The Fourth Declension embraces only dissyllabic and polysyllabic stems in \textit{u}.

The endings are those of the Third Declension.

In the Genitive and Ablative Singular, and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural (sometimes, too, in the Dative Singular), the \textit{u} of the stem absorbs the vowel of the ending, and becomes long. In the Dative and Ablative Plural it is weakened to \textit{i} before the ending -\textit{bus}.

The Accusative Singular, as always in vowel stems, has the ending -\textit{m}, without a connecting vowel (compare the Accusative in -\textit{i-m} of the stems in \textit{i}), hence -\textit{um}.

\begin{center}
\begin{tabular}{l l l l}
Masculine & Neuter \\
\hline
Sg.-N. & fructus, \textit{fruit}. & Pl.- & fruct\textit{us}, & Sg.- & cornu, \textit{horn}. & Pl.- & cornua, \\
G. & fruct\textit{us}, & fruct\textit{uum}, & corn\textit{us}, & corn\textit{um}, \\
D. & fruct\textit{u} (fruct\textit{u}), & fruct\textit{ibus}, & corn\textit{u}, & corn\textit{ibus}, \\
Ac. & fruct\textit{um}, & fruct\textit{us}, & corn\textit{u}, & corn\textit{a}, \\
V. & fruct\textit{us}, & fruct\textit{us}, & corn\textit{u}, & corn\textit{a}, \\
Ab. & fruct\textit{u}, & fruct\textit{ibus}, & corn\textit{u}, & corn\textit{ibus}. \\
\end{tabular}
\end{center}


2. \textit{Domus}, \textit{house}, is declined: G. domu-os (archaic), domu-is and dom\textit{i} (early), domu-us (late), dom\textit{us}. D. dom\textit{o} (early), dom\textit{u}. Ac. dom\textit{um}. V. dom\textit{us}. Ab. dom-\textit{u} (sporadic). dom\textit{o}. Loc. dom\textit{i}. Pl. N. dom\textit{us}. G. dom\textit{orum} (Locr. always, Verg., Flor.), dom\textit{uum} (late). D. Ab. dom\textit{ibus}. Ac. dom\textit{os}, dom\textit{us}. Classical forms are those in black-faced type. A classical variant for dom\textit{i} (Loc.) is dom\textit{u}.

Notes.—1. \textit{Singular; Genitive}. In early inscriptions we find the ending -\textit{os}, as sen\textit{atuos}; and in early authors not unfrequently -\textit{is}, along with the contraction -\textit{us} (-\textit{uis}), which becomes the regular form in classical times. In inscriptions under the empire -\textit{us} is occasionally found, as exercit\textit{us}. The termination -\textit{i}, after the analogy of the Second Declension, is common in early Latin, and is still retained in some words even into the classical period; as sen\textit{ati} (Cic., Sall., Livy), tumult\textit{i} (Sall.).

2. \textit{Dative}. In the early time -\textit{uEi} is found very rarely for -\textit{ui}. Also \textit{iu}, as sen\textit{atui}, fr\textit{uctui}, which became the only form for neuters. In classical times -\textit{u} in masc. and fem. is poetical only (Caesar uses, however, cas\textit{u}, exercit\textit{u}, magistrat\textit{u}, senat\textit{u}, quaest\textit{u}), but extends to prose in the Augustan age and later.


4. \textit{Genitive}. The poets frequently contract -\textit{uum} into -\textit{um} for metrical reasons, and this usage was sometimes extended to prose (not by Cicero) in common words; as pass\textit{um} for pass\textit{uum}.

62. Rule of Gender.—Substantives in -us are masculine; those in -ū are neuter.

Exceptions.—Feminines are acus, needle (usually), domus, house, idūs (pl.), the Ides, manus, hand, penus, victuals (also m.), porticus, piazza, quinquātrūs (pl.), festival of Minerva, tribus, tribe. Early and late Latin show some further variations.

FIFTH DECLENSION.

63. The stem ends in -ē; Nominative in s.

In the Genitive and Dative Singular -ē has been shortened after a consonant.

In the Accusative Singular we find always ē.

The ending in the Genitive Singular is that of the Second Declension, -ī; the other endings are those of the Third.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—N. diēs, day. Pl.—diēs,</td>
<td>Sg.—rēs, thing. Pl.—rēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. diēt,</td>
<td>rēta,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. diēd,</td>
<td>rēdum,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A. diēm,</td>
<td>rēt,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V. diēs,</td>
<td>rēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. diē.</td>
<td>rē.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diērum,</td>
<td>rērum,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diēbus,</td>
<td>rēbus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diēs,</td>
<td>rēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diēbus.</td>
<td>rēbus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remarks.—1. Plural: Gen., Dat., Abl. Common in but two substantives, diēs, rēs. Late Latin shows also speciēbus, and very rarely speciēbus and aciēbus.

2. Many words of the Fifth Declension have a parallel form, which follows the First Declension, as mollitiēs, softness, and mollitiā. Where this is the case, forms of the Fifth Declension are usually found only in the Nom., Acc., and Abl. Singular.

Notes.—1. Singular: Genitive. The older ending -ē-s is found sporadically in early Latin, but usually the ending -ē-ī, which became later -ē-ī after consonants, though early poets show numerous examples of rē, speī, fidēī. ēī was occasionally scanned as one syllable, whence arose the contraction ē, which is retained not unfrequently in the classical period; so aciē (Caes., Sall.), diē (Pl., Caes., Sall., Livy, later), fidē (Pl., Hor., Ov., late Prose), and other less certain cases; ē occurs very rarely, principally in early Latin (but diī, Verg., perniciē, etc.). Plebēs, in combination with tribānus, aedīlis, seictum, often shows a Gen. plēbēi (plēbēi).

2. Dative. The contraction -ē is found, but less often than in the Gen.: aciē (Sall.); diē, faciē (early Latin); fidē (early Latin, Caes., Sall., Livy), perniciē (Livy), and a few other forms. The Dat. in -ī is found very rarely in early Latin.

64. Rule of Gender.—Substantives of the Fifth Declension are feminine except diēs (which in the Sing. is common, and in the Pl. masculine), and meridīēs (m.), midday.
Declension of Greek Substantives.

65. Greek substantives, especially proper names, are commonly Latinized, and declined regularly according to their stem-characteristic. Many substantives, however, either retain their Greek form exclusively, or have the Greek and Latin forms side by side. These variations occur principally in the Singular, in the Plural the declension is usually regular.

Singular Forms of Greek Substantives.

First Declension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Greek</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>Pénélopēς</td>
<td>Leōnidās, Anchīsēs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>Pénélopēs,</td>
<td>Leōnidae, Anchīsae,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>Pénélopae,</td>
<td>Leōnidae, Anchīsae,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>Pénélopēn,</td>
<td>Leōnidam, ān, Anchīsēn, am,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>Pénélopē,</td>
<td>Leōnidā, Anchīsē ò, ò,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>Pénélopā,</td>
<td>Leōnidā, Anchīsā.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Second Declension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Greek</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>Dēlos, us,</td>
<td>Ïlion, um, Panthūs, Androgeōs, us,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>Dēlī,</td>
<td>Ïiī, Panthī, Androgeī,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>Dēlō,</td>
<td>Ïiō, Panthō, Androgeō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>Dēlon, um,</td>
<td>Ïlion, um, Panthūn, Androgeōn, ō, ōna,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>Dēle,</td>
<td>Ïion, um, Panthū, Androgeōs,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third Declension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Greek</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>Solōn, Solo,</td>
<td>Æir, air, Xenophōn, Atlās,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>Solōnis,</td>
<td>Æiris, Xenophōntis, Atlantīs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>Solōnī,</td>
<td>Æiri, Xenophōnt, Atlantī,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>Solōna, em,</td>
<td>Æera, em, Xenophōnta, em, Atlanta,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>Solōn,</td>
<td>Ær, Xenophōn, Atlā,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>Solōne,</td>
<td>Ære, Xenophōnte. Atlante.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Mixed Declensions.

II. III.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Greek</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>Orpheōs,</td>
<td>Athōs, Oedipōs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>Orpheī, ēi,</td>
<td>Athō, ōn, ōnis, Oedip-odis, -ī,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>Orpheō,</td>
<td>Athō, Oedipōdi,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>Orpheum, ea,</td>
<td>Athō, ōn, ōnem, Oedip-um, -oda,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>Orpheū,</td>
<td>Athōs, Oedipe,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IRREGULAR SUBSTANTIVES.

N. Achillēs, eus, Sōcratēs,
G. Achillīs, ei, i, eōs, Sōcratis, i,
D. Achilli, Sōcratī,
Ac. Achilem, ea, ēn, Sōcratēn, em,
V. Achillēs, ē, ēn, Sōcratē, es,
Ab. Achille, ē, i. Sōcrate.

Remarks.—1. In the Gen. Pl. -ōn and -eōn are found in the titles of books; as, Geōrgicōn, Metamorphōsēon.

2. Many Greek names, of the Third Declension in Latin, pass over into the First Declension in the Plural; as, Thūcýdidas, Hyperidae, and many names in -cratēs; as Sōcratēs; Pl., Sōcraτae (also Sōcratēs).

3. In transferring Greek words into Latin, the Accusative Singular was sometimes taken as the stem:

So κρατήρ, Acc. κρατῆρα, (punch) bowl.

Σαλαμίς, Acc. Σαλαμίνα, Salamis.
Salamis, Salaminis, and Salamina, ae.

66. Notes.—1. Singular: Genitive. The Greek termination oeo (0eo) appears rarely in early Latin, but ū (0v) is more frequent, especially in geographical names, etc. The termination -os (0s) is rare except in feminine patronymics in -is, -as. (G. -idos, -ados).

2. Dative. The ending -ī is very rare; and rarer still is the Dat. in -ō from feminines in -ō, and Dat. in -ī from Nominatives in -ys.

3. Accusative. -a is the most common termination in the Third Declension, and is found regularly in some words otherwise Latinized; as āera, aethera. Stems in -ō usually have -ō, very rarely -ōn.

4. Plural. In the Second Declension oe is found occasionally in the Nom., in early Latin; as, adelphōe. The Third Declension shows frequently ēs in the Nom. and ās in the Accusative; also occasionally ē in the Nom. and Acc. of neuters, and -si (but only in the poets) in the Dative.

5. For other peculiarities, not observable in the paradigms, the dictionaries should be consulted. Sometimes the forms are merely transliterations of Greek cases.

IRREGULAR SUBSTANTIVES.

1. Redundant Substantives. (Abundantia.)

67. A. Heterogeneous Substantives, or those whose gender varies:

The variation occurs in several cases in either number or in both.

abronum, -us, a plant (rare), clipeus, -um, shield,
acem (um), -us, age, collum, -us, neck,
baculum, -us, staff, costum, -us, a plant (rare),
balteus, -um, girdle, forum, -us, market,
busus, -um, box-wood (rare), gladius, -um, sword,
[calamister], -um, curling-iron (rare), intibus, -um, succory (rare),
cæseus, -um, cheese, iugulum, -us, collar-bone,
cavum (um), -us, cavity, nardum, -us, nard (rare),
cingulum, -us, belt, nāsus, -um, nose,
palátum, -us, palætæ, thésaurus, -um, treasure,
pileus, -um, cap, uterus, -um, womb,
sagum, -us, cloak, vallus, -um, palisade,
tergum, -us, back; and many others.

2. The gender varies in Singular and Plural. a. The Plural has
-a sometimes, while the Singular ends in -us (or -er): clivus, hill, iocus,
jest, locus (loca, localities; loci, usually passages in books, topics), and
many others, especially names of places.

b. The Plural has -i, while the Singular ends in -um: filum, thread,
frēnum, bit, rāstrum, hor. and many others.

68. B. Heteroclites, or substantivæ which show different stems with
the same Nominative; Metaphasts, or those which have certain forms
from another than the Nominative stem.

1. 1st, 2d. esseda, -um, chariot, margarīta, -um, pearl,
ostaera, -um, oyster,
and many others. See 63, n. 2.

3. 2d, 1st. mendum, -a, fault, sertum, -a, wreath.

The following form their Plural according to the First Declension only: balneum,
bath, dēlicium, pleasure, epulum, banquet, fulmentum, prop.

4. 2d, 3d. sequester, trustee, Mulciber, Vulcun.

5. 2d, 4th. Many names of trees of the Second Declension have certain cases
according to the Fourth; never, however, the Gen. and Dat. Pl., and very rarely the
Dat. Sing.; as cornus, cupressus, fāgus, ficus, laurus, myrtus, pīnus, and a
few others.

Also angiportus, alley, colus, distaff, domus, house, and a large number of
substantivæ of the Fourth Declension which have one or two cases of the Second;
so arcus has G. arcti; cōnātus (-um), iūs (iūsum), vultus have Nom. Pl. in a;

Finally, some substantivæ of the Second Declension form individual cases accord-
ing to the Fourth: fāstī (Ac. Pl. fāstūs), fretum (N. fretus, Ab. fretī), lectus (G.
lectūs), tributum (N. tribūtus), and others.

6. 2d, 5th. dīlūvium, -ēs, flood.

7. 3d, 2d. Vās, vessel, and vāsum; palumbes, pigeon, and palumbus; [iūger],
acre, and iūgerum; all Greek nouns in -a (G. atis), as poēma, poem (G. poēmatis),
but Pl. Gen. poēmatōrum, Dat. Abli. poēmatis.

8. 3d, 5th. Fāmes, hunger, tābēs, corruption, have Abli. famē, tābē; requēs,
quiē (G. -ētis) has Acc. requiem, Abl. requiē; satīās (G. atis) is early and late for
satiēs, sufficiency, and a form satīēs is cited from late authors; plēbēs (G. plēbis),
common, and plēbēs (G. plēbeī).

9. 4th, 3d. Specus, cave, has occasionally forms of the Third Declension.

10. 2d, 3d, 1st. Vesper, evening, has Acc. vesperum; Dat. Abli. vesperō; Pl.
Nom. vespera of the Second Declension: Acc. vesperam; Abl. vespera of the First:
Gen. vesperis; Abl. vespere; Loc. vespere, vesperti of the Third.

11. 4th, 2d, 3d. Pēnus, food, (G. ās). Forms of the Second Declension are rare;
of the Third early and late.

12. Variations in the same Declension: femur (G. femoris, feminis, etc.); iecur
(G. iecoris, iecinoris, etc.); pēcus, early, also pēcu (G. pecoris, pecudis, etc.).

Also ālēc and ālēx, bacca and baccharis; cassis and cassida, lac and lacte
(early), pānis and pāne (early), rēte and rētis, satīēs and satietās.
II. Defective Substantives.

I. SUBSTANTIVES DEFECTIVE IN NUMBER.

69. A. Substantives used in Singular only: Singulāria tantum.
Most abstract substantives, and names of materials; such as

fīstītia, justice, aurum, gold.

B. Substantives used in Plural only: Plurālia tantum.

altāria, ium, altar (sing. late).
ambāgēs, round about.
angustia, straits.
antae, door-postes.
antēs, rows (of vines).
arma, ōrum, arms.
armāmenta, ōrum, tackle.
bellāria, ōrum, dessert.
bīgae, quadrigae, two-horse, four-horse chariot (sing. late).
cancellī, lattice.
cassēs, toils (snare).
caulae, opening.
cervīcēs, neck (sing. early, late, and poet.).
cibāria, victuals.
clastrum, lock (sing. late).
clitellae, pack-saddle.
cōdicilli, a short note.
copēdēs, fetters.
crepundia, cradle.
cūnae, riches.
dāmēta, ōrum, thorn-bush.
epulae (epulum), banquet.
excubiae, watching.
exsequiae, the internal organs.
extra, ōrum, equipments.
exuviae, willicism (sing. early and late).
fācētia, calendar.
fātis (fāstūs), gullet.
fācēs, holidays.
fēriae, breezes.
fēbra, door (sing. early, late and poet.).
forēs, strawberries.
frāga, ōrum, thanks.
frātēs, winter quarters.
frēbera, ōrum, rites, Calends, Nones.
frēbula, swaddling-clothes.
frēs, truce.

insidiae, sacrifices for the dead.
 lactēs, ambuscade.
lāmente, intestines.
lautomiae, lamentations.
liberī, stone-quarries.
mānēs, children.
mānubiae, shades of the dead.
mineae, spoils.
mōnia, ōrum, threats.
mūndiae (-num), town-walls.
nūptiae, market.
palpebrae, wedding.
parentālia, eyelids (sing. late).
parietinae, festival for dead relations.
penētes, rains.
phalerae, the Penates.
praecordia, ōrum, trappings.
praestrigiae, diaphragm.
prēces, -um, jugglers' tricks.
prēmitiae, prayer.
prēstitia, first-fruits.
quisquiliae, rubbish.
reliquiae, remains.
renēs, kidneys.
salinae, salt-pils.
sclāe, stairway.
spēlāia, brambles.
sponsālia, spoils (sing. late, and poet.).
spōlia, ōrum, betrothal.
suppetiae, succor (early and late).
tālāria, ium, winged sandals.
tenebrae, darkness.
thermae, warm baths.
tōnsillae, tonsils.
tormina, colic.
trīcae, tricks.
ūtēnsilia, ōrum, necessaries.
valua, folding-doors.
verbēra, ōrum, scourging (sing. poet. and late).
vestes, a legal claim.
viscidiae, shrubbbery.
virgulta, ōrum, entrails (sing. poet. and late).
Notes.—1. Four of these have the Abl. Sing. in -e: ambage, compede, fauce, prece.

2. Names of persons or towns, and collectives and the like, may be either singulāria tantum, as Iūppiter; Rōma; capillus, hair; or plurālia tantum, as māliorēs, ancestors; Quirītes; liberī, children; pulmōnes, lungs. Many of these are not included in the above list, which is meant to contain only the principal forms.

Akin to plurālia tantum are:

C. Substantives used in Plural with a special sense: Heterologa.

aeōs, is, temple (better aēdis), aedēs, house, palace.

aque, water, aquae, mineral springs.

auxilia, auxiliaries, reinforcements.

carcer, prison, carcerēs, barriers.

castrum, fort, castra, camp.

cēra, wax, cērae, wais tablets.

comitium, place of assembly, comitia, assembly for voting.

cōpia, abundance, cōpiae, forces, troops.

dēlicium, pleasure, dēliciae, pet.

facultās, capability, facultātēs, goods.

finis, limit, finēs, territory, borders.

fortūna, fortune, fortūnae, possessions.

habēna, strap, habēnae, reins.

impedimentum, kindrance, impedimenta, baggage.

littera, letter (of the alphabet), litterae, epistle, literature.

lūdus, game, school, lūdi, public games.

opera, work, opera, workmen.

pars, part, partēs, also role.

rōstrum, beak, rōstra, the tribunal at Rome.

sors, lot, sortēs, also oracles.

tabula, board, tablet, tabulae, also accounts.

vigilia, a night-watch, vigiliae, pickets.

2. SUBSTANTIVES DEFECTIVE IN CASE.

70. A. Substantives occurring in only one case: Gen. dicis, form; Acc. infiniēs (fire), (to) lie: peussum (fire), (to) perish: Abl. pondō, in weight; sponte, of free will; tābō, corruption (Gen. late); and many verbs in ā, as accētū, admonitū, arcessitū, coāctū, compressū, concēssū, domitū, inductū, interpositū, invitātū, iūssū (other forms late), inīssū, mandātū, missū, nātū, permissū, prōmptū, rogātū. A few others occur occasionally in ante-classical and post-classical Latin.

B. Substantives with only two cases: fās, nefās, Sing. N. Ac.; instar, Sing. N. Ac.; internecio, Sing. Ac. Ab.; nauncum, Sing. G. Ac.; secus, Sing. N. Ac.; spinter, Sing. N. Ac.; suppeltiae, Plur. N. Ac., and a few others. Some verbs in -us have in Plural only Nom. and Acc., as impetūs, monitūs. Greek neuters in -os have only Nom. and Acc. Singular.


D. Defective substantives with more than three cases are numerous, but in the classical period the most important are: calx, lime; cōs, [daps], dica, [diciō], flēmen, blast, forum, [frūx], [indagō], later, lūx, [ops], ōs, month, pāx, rēmex, vis, [vix], and most substantives of the Fifth Declension. The Nominatives in brackets do not occur, but only oblique cases.

E. Nēmō, nobody, substitutes for Gen. and Abl. nūllius hominis, and nūlō homine. In the Dat. and Acc. it is normal; nēmini, nēminem.
ADJECTIVES.

71. III. Peculiarities.

ās, assis (m.), a copper.
accepis, accepis, a copper.
bós (for bov), bovis (v.), ox, cow.
G. Pl. boum.
D. Ab. būbus, bōbus.
caput, capitis (n.), head.
accepis, ancipitis, two-headed.
praeceps, -cipitis, headlong.
carō, carnis (f.), flesh.
Pl. G. carnium.
Cerēs, Cereris, Ceres.
fār, farris (n.) spelt.
fel, fellis (n.), gill.
femur, femoris (m.), thigh.
ofeminis.
iter, itineris (n.), way, route
icerv, iecoris (n.), liver.
ieceoris, iecineris, iocineris.
Iūppiter, Iovis.
mel, mellis (n.), honey.
nīx, nivis (f.), snow.
os, ossis (n.), bone (vs r.).
ōs, ōris (n.), mouth.
pollis, pollinis (m.), flour.
sanguis, sanguinis (m.), blood.
senex, senis, old man.
supellēx, supellēctilis (f.), furniture.
Venus, Veneris, Venus.

ADJECTIVES.

72. The adjective adds a quality to the substantive. Adjectives have the same declension as substantives, and according to the stem-characteristic are of the First and Second, or Third Declension.

Adjectives of the First and Second Declension.

73. Stems in -o for masculine and neuter, -a for feminine; nominative in -us, -a, -um; (er), -a, -um. The same variations in termination occur as in the substantives; except that adjectives in -ius form Singular Genitive and Vocative regularly. See 33, R. 1 and 2.

Bonus, bona, bonum, good.

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<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>SG.-N.</td>
<td>bonus</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonusum</td>
<td>boni</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>bona</td>
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<td>G.</td>
<td>bonī</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>bonī</td>
<td>bonōrum</td>
<td>bonārum</td>
<td>bonōrum</td>
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<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>bonō</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>bonō</td>
<td>bonīs</td>
<td>bonis</td>
<td>bonis</td>
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<td>A.</td>
<td>bonum</td>
<td>bonam</td>
<td>bonum</td>
<td>bonōs</td>
<td>bonās</td>
<td>bonā</td>
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<td>V.</td>
<td>bone</td>
<td>bona</td>
<td>bonum</td>
<td>bonī</td>
<td>bonae</td>
<td>bona</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>bonō</td>
<td>bonā</td>
<td>bonō</td>
<td>bonīs</td>
<td>bonis</td>
<td>bonis</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Miser, misera, miserum, wretched.

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<th></th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
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</thead>
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<tr>
<td>SG.-N.</td>
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<td>misera</td>
<td>miserum</td>
<td>miserī</td>
<td>miserae</td>
<td>misera</td>
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<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>miserī</td>
<td>miserae</td>
<td>miserī</td>
<td>miserōrum</td>
<td>miserārum</td>
<td>miserōrum</td>
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<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>miserō</td>
<td>miserae</td>
<td>miserō</td>
<td>miserīs</td>
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<td>miserīs</td>
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<tr>
<td>A.</td>
<td>miserum</td>
<td>miseram</td>
<td>miserum</td>
<td>miserōs</td>
<td>miserās</td>
<td>miserā</td>
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<td>V.</td>
<td>miser</td>
<td>misera</td>
<td>miserum</td>
<td>miserī</td>
<td>miserae</td>
<td>misera</td>
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<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
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<td>miserā</td>
<td>miserō</td>
<td>miserīs</td>
<td>miserīs</td>
<td>miserīs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ADJECTIVES.

Piger, pigra, pigrum, slow.

SG.—N. piger, pigra, pigrum. PL.—pigrī, pigrae, pigra.

G. pigrī, pigrae, pigrī. pigrōrum, pigrārum, pigrōrum.

D. pigrō, pigrae, pigrō. pigris, pigris, pigris.

Ac. pigrum, pigram, pigrum. pigrōs, pigrās, pigra.

V. piger, pigra, pigrum. pigri, pigrae, pigra.

Ab. pigrō, pigrā, pigrō. pigris, pigris, pigris.

Remark.—For irregularities in the declension of ambo, both, duo, two, see 95; for meus, my, see 100, r. 1.

74. Stems in -ro follow the same principle in the formation of the Nominative masculine as the substantives, except that -us is retained in ferus, wild, properus, quick, praeproperus, praeposterus, absurd, inferus, lower (infer is early), superus, upper (super is early), and a few others in late Latin; also when -ro is preceded by a long vowel; as, austerus, harsh, mātūrus, early, prōcērus, tall, pūrus, pure, sevēr us, serious, sincērus, sincere, sērus, late, vērus, true.

Remarks.—1. Dextra, dexterum, etc.; right, are found side by side with dextra, dextrum, etc., throughout the language (see 8, 2). Caesar uses only the shorter form.

2. A few adjectives of this class lack the Nom. Sing. wholly or in part; so there is no cēterus or posterus in the classical period.

75. Notes on the cases.—1. The Gen. Sing. in -i from adjectives in -ius occurs occasionally in inscriptions and in late authors. The Gen. Sing. fem. in early Latin had sometimes āi, and in inscriptions occasionally -aes and -es.

2. The Dat. Sing. fem. in early Latin occasionally ended in āī, and in the oldest inscriptions in -ā.

3. In early inscriptions the -d of the Abl. is occasionally retained.

4. Very rarely in early inscriptions does the Nom. Pl. masc. end in -ēis, and in one case the Nom. Pl. fem. of a perfect participle ends in -āī.

5. In poetry, but at all periods, we find -um alongside of -ōrum and -ārum in the Gen. Plural.

6. In the Dat. and Abl. Pl. -īs from adjectives in -ius is often contracted to īs; usually in names of months and in adjectives formed from proper names. In early inscriptions -ābus is found occasionally for -īs in the Dat. and Abl. Pl. feminine.

76. The so-called pronominal adjectives alter, one of the two; alteruter (a combination of alter and uter), either of the two; alius, other; neuter, neither; nūllus, none; sōlus, sole; tōtus, whole; ūllus, any; unus, one; uter, which of the two, and their compounds, show the following variations in declension:
ADJECTIVES.

1. They usually make the Gen. Sing. in -ius for all genders.

Remarks.—1. The Gen. alius is very rare, and as a possessive its place is usually taken by alienus.

2. The i of the ending -ius (except in alius) could be shortened in poetry. This was usually the case with alter, and regularly in the compounds of uter; as, utrusque.

Note.—The regular forms are early and rare; in classical prose only nulli (Cic. Rosc. Com. 16, 48) and occasionally aliae.

2. They usually make the Dat. Sing. in -i.

Note.—Regular forms are sometimes found, but in classical prose only alterae, nullō, tōtō, and perhaps tōtae. Ali is found in early Latin for alii.

3. In the compound alteruter we find usually both parts declined; sometimes the second only.


Note.—Alis and alid, for alius and aliud, are early and rare; the latter, however, occurs several times in Lucr. and once in Catullus.

Adjectives of the Third Declension.

77. The declension of the adjectives of the Third Declension follows the rules given for the substantives.

Most adjectives of the Third Declension are vowel stems in -i, with two (rarely three) endings in the Nominative.

The remaining adjectives of the Third Declension are consonant stems and have one ending only in the Nominative.

Adjectives of Two Endings.

78. 1. These have (except stems in -ri) one ending in the Nominative for masculine and feminine, one for neuter.

Most stems in -i form the masculine and feminine alike, with Nominative in s; but the Nominative neuter weakens the characteristic i into e. (Compare mare, sēa.)

2. Several stems in -i, preceded by r (cr, tr, br), form the Nominative masculine, not by affixing s, but by dropping the i and inserting short e before the r, as, stem ācri, sharp, Nom., ācer (m.), ācris (f.), ācre (n.).

These adjectives are ācer, alacer, campester, celeber, celer, equester, palāster, pedester, puter, salūber, silvester, terrester, volucer, and the last four months; and are sometimes called adjectives of three endings.

The e belongs to the stem in celer, celeris, celere, swift, and therefore appears in all cases.
ADJECTIVES.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M. and F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sc.—N.</td>
<td>facilis, easy.</td>
<td>facile,</td>
<td>ācer, sharp,</td>
<td>ācris,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>facilis,</td>
<td>facillis,</td>
<td>ācris,</td>
<td>ācris,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>facili,</td>
<td>facili,</td>
<td>ācīrī,</td>
<td>ācīrī,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>facilem,</td>
<td>facile,</td>
<td>ācrem,</td>
<td>ācrem,</td>
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<tr>
<td>V.</td>
<td>facilis,</td>
<td>facile,</td>
<td>ācer,</td>
<td>ācris,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>facili.</td>
<td>facili.</td>
<td>ācīrī,</td>
<td>ācīrī,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

P.1.—N. faciles, facilia, | ācrēs, | ācrēs, | ācria, |
| G. facilium, facilium, | ācriculum, | ācriculum, | ācriculum, |
| D. facilibus, facilibus, | ācribus, | ācribus, | ācribus, |
| Ac. faciles (is), facilia, | ācrēs (is), | ācrēs (is), | ācria, |
| V. faciles, facilia, | ācrēs, | ācrēs, | ācria, |
| Ab. facilibus, facilibus, | ācribus, | ācribus, | ācribus. |

Remark.—Stems in -āli and -āri differ from the substantival declension in not suffering apocope in the Nom. Sing. neuter, except occasionally capital. See 56.

79. Remarks.—1. Many adjectives of two endings (except stems in -ri) have also -ē in the Ablative. This is found chiefly in the poets, very rarely, if ever, in classical prose, occasionally in early and pre-Augustan prose, and more often in inscriptions. When, however, these adjectives become proper names, -ē is the rule. See 57, r. 2, n.

2. The Gen. Pl. in -um is found occasionally in inscriptions, frequently in the poets. In classical prose are found only Titiēnum and familīārum.

Notes.—1. The Nom. Pl. has in early Latin not unfrequently -is.

2. In the Acc. Pl., masc. and fem., of adjectives, the ending -ēs (ēs) is found alongside of -ēs in every period of the language, though in decreasing proportion, and after the Augustan period principally in omnēs.

ADJECTIVES OF ONE ENDING.

80. Adjective stems of one ending (consonant stems) close with l, r, s, a p mute, a k mute, or a t mute. Examples are:

vigil, alert, memor, mindful, pauper, poor, cicur, tame, pūbēs, adult, vetus, old,
vigilis. memoris. pauperis. cicuris. pūberis. veteris.

particeps, sharing, caelebs, unmarried, inops, poor, participis. caelibus.
inopsis.

audāx, bold, felix, lucky, duplex, double, ferōx, fierce, trux, savage,
audācis. felicis. duplicis. ferōcis. trucis.
dives, rich, dēses, slothful, compos, possessed of, prūdēns, wise, concors, harmonious
divitis. dēsitis. compotis. prūdentis. concordis.
Present active participles are also consonant stems and follow the same declension.

81. The stem varieties are:

1. Liquid stems in (a) -1: vigil (G. vigil-is), alert, pervigil; (b) -r: pár (G. par-is), equal, impár (these two lengthen the vowel in the Nom.), compar, and three others; pauper (G. pauper-is), poor, Über; memor (G. memor-is), mindful, im-memor; concolor (G. -or-is), and three other compounds of color; dégener (G. -er-is), from genus (G. gener-is).

2. Sibilant stems in (a) -s: exos (G. exoss-is), boneless (LUCR.); (b) -r: gnárus (G. gnárur-is; PLAUT.), Ligus, vetus; pübës (G. püber-is), impübës.

3. Mute stems in (a) a K-mute: audâx (G. audâc-is), bold, and four others; felix (G. fêlic-is), pernix, âtrôx (G. âtrôc-is), ferôx, vêlôx: exlêx (G. -lêg-is); trux (G. truc-is), redux; the multiplicatives in -plex (G. -plic-is), as simplex, etc. (b) A P-mute: inops (G. inop-is); caelebs (G. caelib-is); compounds of -cëps (G. -cip-is, from capere), as parëcëps, and of -cëps (G. -cipit-is, from caput), ës ancesp, præcëps (PLAUT. sometimes uses, in the Nom., ancipes, præcipes, etc.). (c) A T-mute: hebes (G. hebet-is) and three others; locuplès (G. -plét-is) and three others: dives (G. divit-is), for which in poetry dis (G. dit-is), sósipes; compos (G. compot-is), impos; superstes (G. -sti-tis), ëles; exhëres (G. ëd-is); déses (G. désid-is), resës; compounds from substantives: cônors (G. -ort-is), exors; concors, discors, misericors, sôcors, vêcors; expres (G. -ert-is), iners, sollers; âmëns (G. âment-is), démëns; intercus (G. cut-is); pernox (G. -noct-is); bipës (G. -ped-is), quadrupës, alipës; adjectives and participles in -ãs, ëns (G. -ant-is, -ent-is); and proper names in -ís (G. ât-is), -ís (G. -it-is), -ns (G. -nt-is), -rs (G. -rt-is), Arpinâs, Samnis, Veïëns, Camers.

82. The consonant stems have the same forms in all the genders, except that in the Accusative Singular, and in the Nominative, Accusative, and Vocative Plural, the neuter is distinguished from the masculine and feminine.

In the oblique cases they follow in part the declension of vowel stems; thus,

1. In the Ablative Singular they have i and e—when used as adjectives commonly i; when used as substantives commonly e.

The participles, as such, have e: but used as substantives or adjectives, either e or i, with tendency to i.

2. In the neuter Plural they have ia; except vetus, old, which has vetera. Many have neuter.

3. In the Genitive Plural they have: ium, when the stem-characteristic is preceded by a long vowel or a consonant; um, when the characteristic is preceded by a short vowel. The participles have ium.
### Adjectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>M. and F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M. and F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M. and F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Nom.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Abl.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amans, amans</em></td>
<td><em>prē venus, prē venus</em></td>
<td><em>felicibus, felix</em></td>
<td>*prūdentibus, <em>prudentibus</em></td>
<td>*amantia, *amans, *amans, *amans, *amans,</td>
<td>*decimus, *decimus, *decimus, *decimus, *decimus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>amans, amans</em></td>
<td><em>violentus, violentus</em></td>
<td><em>felicibus, felix</em></td>
<td>*prūdentibus, <em>prudentibus</em></td>
<td>*amantia, *amans, *amans, *amans, *amans,</td>
<td>*decimus, *decimus, *decimus, *decimus, *decimus,</td>
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<td>*amantia, *amans, *amans, *amans, *amans,</td>
<td>*decimus, *decimus, *decimus, *decimus, *decimus,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 83. Remark.

In early and late Latin, and at all periods in the poets, -e is often found for -i in the Abl. Singular. In classical prose we find regularly compote, déside, impūbere, participe, paupere, pūbere, superstite, vetere, and frequently divite (but always dītī), quadrupede, sapiente. With participles, -i is usual when they are used as adjectives, but classical prose shows -e also in antecēdēns, candēns, consentiēns, despiciēns, effluēns, hiāns, inmiēns, influenza, prōdūēns, consequēns (but sequēns not before Livy), titubāns, vertēns.

### Notes.

1. In the Nom. and Acc. Pl.-is for Ḗs belongs to early Latin and the poets, but a few cases of the Acc. are still found in Cicero. In the case of participles -is is very common, and is the rule in Vergil and Horace. In the neuter, -a for -ia is found only in ūbera, vetera; dītia is always used for the unsyncopated form divitid.

2. Compound adjectives, whose primitives had -um in Gen. Pl., have usually -um instead of -iūm; quadrupēs, quadrupedum, and other compounds of pēs; inops, inopum; supplex, supplicium. Also, cicur, cicurum; vetus, veterum; ēdives, divitum; locuplēs, locuplētum (rare, usually -iūm). In the poets and in later writers, -um is not unfrequently found where classical prose uses -ium.

### Irregular Adjectives.

#### 84. Abundantia.

1. Some adjectives which end in -us, -a, -um, in the classical times, show occasionally in early Latin, in the poets, and in later Latin, forms in -is, e. g., imbēcillus and imbēcillus; infrēnus and infrēnis; biiugus and biiugis, violēntus and violēns; indecorōs and indecoris; so also perpetuus and perpes. In a number of other adjectives the variant forms are very rare or disputed.
2. Many adjectives which end in -is, -e, in the classical times, show parallel forms in -us, -a, -um, in early Latin, and more rarely in late Latin. Adjectives in -us, -a, -um, in early Latin, seem to have had a tendency to go over into forms in -is, -e. Thus, hilarus is the regular form in early Latin; in Cicero it is used side by side with hilaris, and later hilaris is universal. Other examples in the classical period are inermis and inermus; imberbis and imberbus; álāris and álārius; auxiliāris and auxiliārius; intercalāris and intercalārius; tālāris and tālārius.

85. B. Defective.

1. Several adjectives lack a Nom. Singular, wholly or in part: as, cētera (f.), cēterum, perperum (n.), nūperum (n.), primōris (G.), bimāris (G.), bimātris (G.), tricorporis (G.), and a few others.

2. Some adjectives are defective in other cases: thus, exspēs and perdius, -a are found only in the Nom.; exlēx only in the Nom. and Acc. (exlēgem); pernox only in Nom., Abl. (pernocte), and Nom. Pl. (pernoctēs, rare); centimanus has only the Acc. Sing. (Hor., Ov.); also ūnīmanus (Līv.), and a few others.

C. Indeclinables.

Nēquam; potis, and pote (early): frūgī; macte (mactus, -um, very rare); necesse, necessum, and necessus (early and poetical): volup and volupe (early); and the judicial damnās.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

86. The Degrees of Comparison are: Positive, Comparative, and Superlative.

The Comparative is formed by adding to the consonant stems the endings -ior for the masculine and feminine, and -ius for the neuter.

The Superlative is formed by adding to the consonant stems the endings -is-simus, -a, -um (earlier -is-sumus).

Vowel stems, before forming the Comparative and Superlative, drop their characteristic vowel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>altus, a, um, high</td>
<td>altior, higher, altius</td>
<td>altissimus, a, um, highest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fortis, e, brave</td>
<td>fortior, fortius</td>
<td>fortissimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>útilis, e, useful</td>
<td>útilior, útilius</td>
<td>útilissimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audāx, bold</td>
<td>audāciōr, audāciōs</td>
<td>audācissimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prūdēns, wise</td>
<td>prūdentior, prūdentius</td>
<td>prūdentissimus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—In early Latin we find very rarely -iōs for iōr; also -iōr used for the neuter as well.
ADJECTIVES.

Peculiarities.

87. 1. Adjectives in -er add the Superlative ending (-rumus) -rimus (for -simus by assimilation; see 9, 1) directly to the Nominative masculine. The Comparative follows the rule.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>miser, a, um,</td>
<td>miserior,</td>
<td>miserrimus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>celer, is, e,</td>
<td>celerior,</td>
<td>celerius,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acer, acris, acre,</td>
<td>acrior,</td>
<td>acrius,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>acerrimus.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remarks.—1. Dexter, right, and sinister, left, have always dexterior and sinisterior in the Comparative. Deterior, worse, deterrimus, lacks a Positive.

2. Vetus, old, has Comp. veterior (archaic) or vetustior; Sup., veterrimus. Mātūrus, ripe, has occasionally Sup. mātūrrimus in addition to the normal mātūrissimus.

Note.—In early Latin and in inscriptions this rule is occasionally violated. Thus celerissimus in Ennius; integrissimus, miserissimus, in inscriptions.

2. Some Comparatives in -er-iōr, whose Positive is lacking or rare, form the Superlative either in -rēmus by metathesis; or in -imūs or -umus; or in both. These are: citerior, on this side, citimus (rare); exterior, outer, extremus, extimus (latter not in Cic.); dexterior (87, 1, r. i; once in Cic.), dextimus (rare; not in Cic.); inferior, lower, infimus, imus; interior, inner, intimus; posterior, hinder, postrēmus, postumus; superior, upper, suprēmus, summus.

3. Six adjectives in -ilis add -limus to the stem, after dropping -i, to form the Superlative: perhaps by assimilation: facilis, easy; difficilis, hard; similis, like; dissimilis, unlike; gracilis, slender, and humilis, low.

facilis, Comp. facilior, Sup. facillimus.

4. Adjectives in -icus, -ācus, -volus, borrow the Comparative and Superlative from the participial forms in -dicens, -ficēns, and -volēns.

benevolus, benevolent, Comp. benevolentior, Sup. benevolentissimus.
maleđicus, scurrilous, maledicentior, maledicentissimus.
māgnificus, distinguished, māgnificentior, māgnificentissimus.

Note.—Benevolēns, malevolēns, maledicēns, still occur in early Latin.

5. In like manner egēnus and prōvidus form their Comparative and Superlative.

egēnus, Comp. egentior, Sup. egentissimus.
prōvidus, Prōvidentior, prōvidentissimus.
6. Adjectives in -us (os), preceded by a vowel (except those in -quos), form the Comparative and Superlative by means of magis and máximē, more and most.

idōneus, fit, Comp. magis idōneus, Sup. máximē idōneus.

But

antiquos, old, Comp. antiquior, Sup. antiquissimus.

Remark.—But pius, piōns, which lacks the Comparative, forms the Superlative regularly, piissimus (in inscriptions also pientissimus); likewise in late Latin, impius.

Notes.—1. A few words, chiefly in early Latin, show the normal comparison. In Cic. only, assiduissimē (adv.) and alsius.

2. Comparison by means of plūs and plūrimum is late.

7. Some Comparatives and Superlatives are in use, whilst the corresponding Positive is either lacking or rare.

So dēterior (87, r. r. 1); ocēr, swift, ocēssimus; potior, better, potissimus; exterior, outer (87, 2), from exērus, on the outside, and prep. extra, without; superior, upper (87, 2), from superus, on the top, and prep. suprā, above; inferior, lower (87, 2), from inferus, below, and prep. infrā, below; posterior, hinder (87, 2), from posterus, coming after, and prep. post, after; citerior, on this side (87, 2), from citer, and prep. citrā, on this side.

8. The Positive stem of existing Comparatives is sometimes met with only in a preposition or an adverb: as, ante, before; anterior, that is before; prope, near; proprior, proximus; ulterior, further, ultimus, from ultrā, beyond; interior, inner, intimus, from intrā, within; prior, former, primus, first, from prō, before; sequior (late), worse, from secus.

9. Many adjectives lack one or both of the degrees of comparison: especially those denoting material, relationship, time, etc.

Novus, new, falsus, untrue, meritus, deserved, have no Comparative.
Longinquos, afar, propinquos, near, salūtāris, healthful, iuvenis, young (Comparative iunnior), and senex, old (Comparative senior), have no Superlative.

"Youngest" and "oldest" are expressed by minimus, máximus (nātū).

Note.—The Plautine and late mediōximus, middlemost, lacks Positive and Comparative.

10. Dives, rich, shows in Cic. only divitior and divitissimus; otherwise the Comparative and Superlative are found principally in poetry and later prose, the more usual forms being the syncopated dītior, dītissimus.

88. Partic平les used as adjectives are subject also to the same laws of comparison: as, amāns, lōring, amantior, amantissimus; apertus, open, apertior, apertissimus.
ADJECTIVES.

89. The Superlative follows the declension of adjectives of Three Endings of the First and Second Declensions. The Comparative is declined according to the Third Declension, thus:

M. and F. | N. | M. and F. | N.
---|---|---|---
Sg.—N. altior, | altius, | altiorēs, | altiora.
G. altioris, | altioris. | altiorum, | altiorum.
D. altiorī, | altiorī. | altioribus, | altioribus.
Ac. altiorēm, | altius. | altiorēs, | altiora.
V. altior, | altius. | altiorēs, | altiora.
Ab. altiorē and -ī, | altiorē and -ī. | altioribus, | altioribus.

Remarks.—1. In classical prose the Abl. Sing. ends in -e. In the poets and in early and late prose, often in -ī.

2. Extremely rare is the ending -īs for -ēs in the Nom. Plural. In the Acc. Pl. this ending -īs (-ēis) is more common but still not frequent, and confined mainly to plūris, minōris, māioris, melōris. The neuter in -īa is found rarely in complūria, and perhaps once in plūria.

3. The Gen. Pl. in -ium is found in plūrium and complūrium only.

90. Irregular Comparison.

| bonus, | good, | melior, | melius, | optimus. |
| malus, | bad, | pēior, | pēius, | pessimus. |
| māgnus, | great, | māior, | māius, | maximus. |
| parvus, | small, | minor, | minus, | minimus. |
| multus, | much, | | | |

S. ——— | plūs (no Dat. nor Abl.), | plūrimus. |
Pl. | plūres, | complūres, | complūra and -ia. |

| nēquam, | worthless, | nēquior, | nēquius, | nēquissimus. |
| frūgi (indecl.), frugal, | frūgālior, | | frūgāliissimus. |

ADVERBS.

91. Most adverbs are either oblique cases or mutilated forms of oblique cases of nominal or pronominal stems.

The cases from which they are derived are principally the Accusative and the Ablative.

1. (a) From the Accusative are Substantival Adverbs in -tim. This was a favorite formation, and is used very often in all periods. In the classical times the adverbs of this form are:

Acervātim, articulātim, centuriātim, certātim, generātim, gradātim, gregātim, membrātim, paulātim, privātim, sēparātim, singulātim, statim, summātim, virītim, tribūtim, strictim, pedetemptim, raptim, fūrtim, partim, praesertim, confēstim, and a few others; disguised forms of -tim are: caesim, in-cisim, sēnsim, cursim, passim, vicissim, for caed-tim (9, 1-t), etc.; also interim.
(b) A few very common adverbs are, perhaps, from Accusative Singular feminine of adjectives and pronominal stems. Chiefly clam, secretly, córam, in one's presence, palam, openly, perperam, wrongly, tam, so, quam, as, aliquam, some, iam, already; and forms in -fāriam, as bi-fāriam, multifāriam, etc.

(c) The Accusative Singular neuter of many adjectival and pronominal stems is used as an adverb. This is true of all Comparatives.

Multum, much; paulum, a little; nimium, too much; cēterum, for the rest; primum, first; postrēmum, finally; potissimum, chiefly; facile, easily; dulce, sweetly; trīste, sadly; impūne, scot-free; aliquantum, somewhat, and others.

To the Comparatives belong magis, more; nīmis, too; satis, enough.

(d) The Accusative Plural feminine is found in aliās, at other times, perhaps in forās, out-of-doors. The Accusative Plural neuter is found in alia, cētera, omnia, and occasionally in reliquā and a few others.

2. (a) From the Ablative are some substantival adverbs: the principal ones in classical Latin being domō, at home; impendiō, greatly; initō, at the outset; modo, only; oppidō, very; principiō, in the beginning; privātō, privately; vulgō, commonly; forte, by chance; māgnopere, greatly, and other compounds of -opere; grātiis, for nothing, and ingrātiis, and a few others.

(b) Ablatives are also adverbs in ē from adjectives in -us and -er: altus, lofty, altē; pulcher, beautiful, pulchrē; miser, wretched, miserē. Also ferē and fermē (Sup.), almost.

(c) The Ablative of some adjectives and pronouns serves as an adverb:

tūtō, safety; falsō, falsely; perpetuō, ceaselessly; continuō, forthwith; imprōvisō, unexpectedly; prīmō, at first; hoc, here; istō, there, etc.

(d) In a few cases the adverbial form is the Abl. Sing. feminine: aliā, otherwise; aliūna, somehow; dexterā and dextrā, to the right; sinistrā and laevā, to the left hand; quā, on which side; rēctā, straightway, and some others.

(e) A large number of these adjectives show adverbs in two endings, sometimes with a difference in meaning:

consultē and consultō, purposely; certē, at least, and certō, certainly (certē sciō, I certainly know: certō sciō, I know for certain): rārē, thinly, and rārō, seldom; vērē, in truth, and vērō, true but: rēctē, correctly, and rēctā, straightway: dexterā or dextrā, to the right; and dexterē, skillfully.

(f) Ablatives are also qui, how (archaic), nāquiquam, to no purpose; aliōqui, otherwise; perhaps also diū, by day, and its compounds.
3. Locative in origin are the following, in addition to those mentioned under 37, 5: diē (in combination with numeral adjectives in early Latin, as diē septimī) and its compounds cottidiē, daily, hodie, to-
day, pridīē, the day before, postridīē, the day after; quotannis, yearly; foris, outside. Also many forms from the pronominal stems, as hīc, illīc, istīc (isti belongs to early Latin and Verg.). sic, so, ut (utī, utēī), as; ibi, there, and its compounds alibi, ibīdem; ubi (cubi), where, and its compounds.

4. A number of adverbs cannot be referred to a definite case, as: adverbs of separation: hinc, hence, illīc (illīm), istīc (istīm), thence; temporal adverbs: tunc, then, cum, when, quondam, once, quando, when? and its compounds; also, ante, before; post (poste), after; paene, almost; prope, propter, near; saepe, often; circiter, around; praeter, past; ergō, therefore; cras, to-morrow; hand (hau, haut), not; item, likewise; susque dēque, up and down; vix, scarcely.

92. 1. Adjectives and participles of the Third Declension form their adverbs by adding -ter (-iter) to the stem; stems in -nt dropping the t, and stems in a k-mute inserting the connecting vowel i before the ending; also a few adjectives of the Second Declension: fortis, brave, fortiter; ferōx, wild, ferōciter; prūdēns, foreseeing, prūdenter.

Exceptions: audāx, bold, audāc-ter (seldom audāciter); difficilis, hard to do, difficiliter, difficiliter (but generally, nōn facile, vix, aegrē), and others.

2. A large number of adjectives of the Second Declension in -us, -a, -um, and -er, -era, -erum, form in early and late Latin their adverbs by dropping the t, and stems in a k-mute inserting the connecting vowel i before the ending; also a few adjectives of the Second Declension: fortis, brave, fortiter; ferōx, wild, ferōciter; prūdēns, foreseeing, prūdenter.

3. Some adverbs of origin are formed from substantival or adjectival stems by the ending -tus. In classical Latin mainly antiquitus, from early time; divinitus, from the gods; funditus, from the foundation; peni-
tus, from the depths; rādicitus, from the roots; also intus, from within.

4. The termination -vorsus, -vorsum, is used to show direction whither; but in classical Latin it is found principally in the adverbs: intrōrsus (intrōvorsus), inwards; prōrsus (-um), onwards; rūrsus (-um, rūsum), back; sūrsum (sūsum), up; vorsum, towards.

5. A very large number of adverbs are formed by adding various other terminations; as, -de: inde, thence, unde, whence; -dem: prīdem, long ago, itidem, likewise, etc.; -dō: quando, when, etc.; -dam: quondam, once; -dum: dūdum, a while ago; vixdum, hardly yet, etc.; -per: nūper, lately, parumper, a little, semper, always, etc.; -quam: nunquam, ever, nunquam, never, etc.; -secus: extrinsecus, outside, etc.; -tenus: quātenus, how far? etc.
6. Syntactical and miscellaneous: admodum, very (to a degree), dēnuō, anew, imprīmis; super, above, and its compounds, dēsuper, insuper; ex-templō, at once; usque, to, and its compounds: invicem, in turn; adeō, so; anteā, before; interea, meanwhile; postea, after; praeterea, besides; propterea, on that account, and a few others.

**COMPARISON OF ADVERBS.**

93. The Comparative of the adverb is the Accusative neuter of the Comparative of the adjective. The Superlative ends in -is-simē, -er-rimē, etc., according to the Superlative of the adjective.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
<th>Superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>altaē, pulchrē, miserē, fortēr, audācter, tūtō, facile, bene, male, [parvus], [māgnus], multum, cito, dīū, saepe, nūper, satis</td>
<td>altius, pulchrius, miserius, fortius, audācius, tūtius, facilius, melius, pēius, minus, magis, plus, citius, dīūtius, saepius, satius</td>
<td>altissimē, pulcherrimē, miserrimē, fortissimē, audācissimē, tūtissimē, facillimē, optimē, pessimē, minimē, maximē, plūrimum, citissimē, dīūtissimē, saepissimē, nūperrimē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**NUMERALS.**

**NUMERAL ADJECTIVES.**

94. The Cardinal numerals answer the question quot, how many? and are the numbers used in counting. The Ordinal numerals are derived from these and answer the question quotus, which one in the series? They are as follows:

1. CARDINAL NUMBERS.

| 1 | I | unus, ëna, ënum |
| 2 | II | duo, duae, duo |
| 3 | III | tres, tria |
| 4 | IV (III) | quattuor |
| 5 | V | quīnquē |
| 6 | VI | sex |
| 7 | VII | septem |

2. ORDINAL NUMBERS.

| 1 | primus, -a, -um (prior) |
| 2 | secundus (alter) |
| 3 | tertius |
| 4 | quártus |
| 5 | quintus |
| 6 | sextus |
| 7 | septimus |
### 1. Cardinal Numbers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numeral</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>VIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>IX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>XI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>XII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>XIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>XIV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>XV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>XVI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>XVII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>XVIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>XIX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>XX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>XXI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>XXII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>XXIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>XXIV</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>XXV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>XXVI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>XXVII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>XXVIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>XXIX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>XXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>XL</td>
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<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>L</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>LX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>LXX</td>
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<td>80</td>
<td>LXXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>XC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>C</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>CI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110</td>
<td>CX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>120</td>
<td>CXI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>130</td>
<td>CXX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>CC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>CCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td>CCCP</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>D (L)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600</td>
<td>DC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700</td>
<td>DCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800</td>
<td>DCCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900</td>
<td>DCCCC</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>M (CM)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2. Ordinal Numbers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numeral</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>octō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>novem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>decem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>õndecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>duodecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>tredecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>quattuordecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>quīndecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>sēdecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>septendecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>duodēviginti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>õndēviginti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>viginti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21</td>
<td>viginti ānus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22</td>
<td>viginti duo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>23</td>
<td>viginti trēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>viginti quattuor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>viginti quīnque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>viginti sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>viginti septem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>duodētrīgintā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>õndētrīgintā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30</td>
<td>trīgintā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>40</td>
<td>quadrāgintā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50</td>
<td>quīnquāgintā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>60</td>
<td>sexāgintā</td>
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<tr>
<td>70</td>
<td>septuāgintā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>80</td>
<td>octāgintā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>90</td>
<td>nōnāgintā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100</td>
<td>centum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>101</td>
<td>centum ānus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>110</td>
<td>centum et quīndecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>120</td>
<td>centum et viginti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>130</td>
<td>centum et trīgintā</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>200</td>
<td>ducentī, -ae, -a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>300</td>
<td>trecentī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>400</td>
<td>quadrāgingentī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>500</td>
<td>quīngentī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>600</td>
<td>sēscentī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>700</td>
<td>septingentī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>800</td>
<td>octingentī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>900</td>
<td>nōngentī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1000</td>
<td>mīlle</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

*mus* centēsimus, centēsimus (et) quintus decimus

centēsimus vicēsimus

centēsimus vicēsimus prīmus

ducentēsimus

trecentēsimus

quadringentēsimus

quippentēsimus

sēscentēsimus

septingentēsimus

octingentēsimus

nōngentēsimus

millēsimus
### 1. Cardinal Numbers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numeral</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1001</td>
<td>MI</td>
<td>mille et unus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1101</td>
<td>MCI</td>
<td>mille centum unus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1120</td>
<td>MCXX</td>
<td>mille centum viginti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1121</td>
<td>MCXXI</td>
<td>mille centum viginti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1200</td>
<td>MCC</td>
<td>mille ducenti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>MM</td>
<td>duo milia (millia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2222</td>
<td></td>
<td>bina milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>LDDD</td>
<td>quinque milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>CCLII</td>
<td>decem milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>dēna milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>unus et viginti milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>centum milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>centēna milia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2. Ordinal Numbers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numeral</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1001</td>
<td>MI</td>
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<tr>
<td>1120</td>
<td>MCXX</td>
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<td>1121</td>
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<td>duo milia (millia)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2222</td>
<td></td>
<td>bina milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5000</td>
<td>LDDD</td>
<td>quinque milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10,000</td>
<td>CCLII</td>
<td>decem milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>dēna milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>unus et viginti milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000,000</td>
<td></td>
<td>centum milia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>centēna milia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

95. The Cardinal numerals are indeclinable, except: unus, one, duo, two, trēs, three, the hundreds beginning with ducenti, two hundred, and the plural milia, thousands, which forms milium and milibus.

N. duo, two, duae, duo, M and F. trēs, three, tria.
G. duōrum, duārum, duōrum, trium, trium.
D. duōbus, duābus, duōbus, tribus, tribus.
A. duōs, duo, duās, duo, trēs, trīs, tria.
Ab. duōbus, duābus, duōbus, tribus, tribus.

Like duō is declined ambō, -ae, -ō, both.

Remarks.—1. For the declension of unus see 76. It occurs also in plural forms in connection with plurālia tantum, as unus litteris (Cat. Att., v. 9. 2), or with another numeral in the sense only; in the latter sense also with substantives.

2. The Gen. of the hundreds, ducenti, etc., ends in -um and not -ōrum. This must be distinguished from the use of the neuter singular in -um as a collectivum, as argentī sēscēntum (I.r.c.), a six hundred of silver.

3. The Pl. milia, milium, milibus, are treated almost always as substantives, the adjectival form being the Singular.

Notes.—1. The form oinos for unus is found in early Latin. A Voc. ūne is occasional (Cat., 37, 17).

2. For duae late Latin shows occasionally duo, and in inscriptions dua, for neuter
NUMERALS.

2. Numerals.

D is short for D, M for CM. Adding D on the right of D multiplies by 10; CCD = 5000; CCCD = 50,000. Putting C before as often as D stands after multiplies the right-hand number by 2; CD = 1000; CCCI = 10,000; CCCCI = 100,000. A line above multiplies by 1000; \[ \overline{X} \overline{X} \overline{X} = 1,000,000 \]. A line above and at each side multiplies by 100,000; \[ \overline{X} \overline{X} \overline{X} \overline{X} = 1,400,000 \]. These signs may be combined; thus, \[ \overline{X} \overline{X} \overline{X} \overline{X} \overline{X} = 1,337,500. \] Plin., N. H. iv., 72, 24. Other signs are \( \nabla \), \( \downarrow \) (inscr.) for 50, \( \varphi \), \( \alpha \) (inscr.) for 1000, and \( \odot \) for 100,000 (inscr.), and \( \nabla \) for 500,000 (inscr.).
NUMERALS.

3. Distributive Numerals.

1 singuli, -ae, -a, one each.
2 bini, -ae, -a, two each.
3 terni (trini),
4 quaterni,
5 quini,
6 seni,
7 septeni,
8 octeni,
9 noveni,
10 deni,
11 undeni,
12 duodenini,
13 terni deni,
14 quaterni deni,
15 quini deni,
16 seni deni,
17 septeni deni,
18 octeni deni, duodevicieni,
19 noveni deni, undevicieni,
20 vicieni,
21 vicieni singuli,
22 vicieni bini, bini et vicieni,
28 duodevicieni,
29 undevicieni.

These answer the question quoteni, how many each?

Remarks.—1. The Gen. Pl. masc. and neuter ends usually in -um, except that singulus has always singulorum, and Cicero uses binorum.

2. The Distributives are used with an exactness which is foreign to our idiom, whenever repetition is involved, as in the multiplication table. But when singuli is expressed, the Cardinal may be used.

3. The Distributives are used with pluralia tantum: binae litterae, two epistles. But with these uni is used for one, trini for three: unae litterae, trinae litterae.

4. The same rules as to the insertion or omission of et apply to the Distributives as to the Ordinals (96, 1, 3, 4).

Notes.—1. The poets and later prose writers occasionally use the Distributives for Cardinals, with words other than pluralia tantum (n. 3); also some forms of the Singular. Especially noteworthy is the combination trinum nundinum, which is technical, and therefore found also in model prose.

2. Parallel forms not found in classical times are quadrini (early, late), and the late duocenteni, trecenteni, quadringenteni, quingenteni, sescenteni, milleni, etc.

Only the following forms occur:

1 simplex, single, 5 quincuplex
2 duplex, double, 7 septemplex
3 triplex, triple, 10 decemplex
4 quadruplex, quadruple.

These answer the question, how many fold?

5. Proportional Numerals.

Only the following forms occur:

1 simplus, -a, -um, single, 4 quadruplus
2 duplus, double, 7 septuplus
3 triplus

These answer the question, how many times as great?

98. NUMERAL ADVERBS.

1 semel, once,
2 bis, twice.

3 ter
4 quater
5 quinquies (-ëns)
6 sexies (-ëns)
7 septies (-ëns)
8 octies (-ëns)
9 novies (-ëns)
10 decies (-ëns)
11 undecies (-ëns)
12 duodecies, etc.
13 ter decies, tredecies
14 quater decies, quattuordecies
15 quinquies decies, quindecies
16 sexies decies, sèdecies
17 septies decies
18 duodëcies, octies decies
19 undécies, novies decies
20 viciés
21 semel et viciés, viciés et semel, 1,000,000 milliès

viciés semel *

These answer the question quotiens (ës); how often?

* Not semel viciés, bis viciés, etc., because that would be, once twenty times = 20 times; twice twenty times = 40 times; this, however, does not hold for numerals between 10 and 20.
Remarks.—1. These adverbs, from quinquës on, have an older form in -ēns; quinquiēns. In totiēns, so often, and quotiēns, how often, this remained the more usual form in classical times.

2. The combination of an adverb with a distributive adjective was much liked by the Romans: as bis ūna for quaterna, etc. But the normal forms are not unfrequent.

Note.—For the adverbs from undecīēs on, examples are very rare, and some are cited only from the grammarians. So, when two forms are given, one is often due to the grammarians; thus quinquēs decīēs, sexīēs decīēs, are cited only from Priscian. The order, too, of compound adverbs varies.

PRONOUNS.

99. Pronouns point out without describing.

Note.—The pronoun is not a word used instead of a noun. The noun says too much, for all nouns (proper as well as common) are originally descriptive: the pronoun simply points out. The noun says too little, because it cannot express person, as ego, I, tū, thou; it cannot express local appurtenance, as hic, this (here), ille, that (there).

A. PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

100. I. Personal Pronouns of the First Person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Substantive</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—N.</td>
<td>ego, I, meus, -a, -um, mine or my.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>mei, of me, -a, -um, mīne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>mīhi, to, for me, nostrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>mē, me, nostrī, of us, nostrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>mē, from, with, by me, nōs,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—N.</td>
<td>nōs, we, nos, nōbis, to, for us, nōstrum, nōstrī, of us, nostrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>nostri, of us, nostrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td>nōbis, to, for us, nostrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac.</td>
<td>nōs, us, nostrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab.</td>
<td>nōbis, from, with, by us, nostrum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remarks.—1. The Voc. Sing. masc. of meus is mī, except when meus is used with a substantive which does not change its form in the Voc.: thus, meus ocellus (Plaut.; possibly, however, appositional), but mī anime.

2. Nostrum in the Gen. Pl. is the form for the Partitive Genitive.

Notes.—1. Early Latin shows the following: Sg., N. egō; G. mīs; D. mī, mīhē (inser.); mīhē (inser.); Ac. mēd, mēmē; Ab. mēd (mēmē is doubtful); Pl., X. Ac. ēnōs (in Carmen Arvale only); G. nostrōrum, nostrārum (for nostrum); D. Ab. nōbeis (inser.).


3. The forms of meus, of tuī and tuos, of sui and suos, very frequently suffer Synizesis (727) in early Latin.

4. On the combination of these pronouns with -met and -pte see 102, N. 2, 3.
## 101. II. Personal Pronouns of the Second Person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Substantive</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sg.</strong></td>
<td><strong>N.</strong> tū, thou,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G. tuī, of thee,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D. tībī, to, for thee,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ac. tē, thee,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ab. tē, from, with, by thee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pl.</strong></td>
<td>N. vōs, ye or you,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G. vestīrī, of you,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D. vōbīs, to, for you,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ac. vōs, you,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ab. vōbīs, from, with, by you.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Notes.
1. Early forms are: G. tis; D. tībēi (inscr.), tibē (inscr.); Ac. Ab. tēd, tētē; Pl. G. vostri, vōstrōrum, -ārum.
2. Vestrum is for the Partitive Genitive.
3. Tuōm and vostrom in the Gen. Pl. of the Possessives are rare and confined to early Latin.
4. On Synizesis see 100, N. 3. On combination with -met or -pte see 102, N. 2, 3.

## 102. III. Personal Pronouns of the Third Person.

The original personal pronoun of the third person, together with its possessive, is used only as a reflexive in Latin, and therefore lacks a Nominative. Its place is taken in the oblique cases by the Determinative is (103).

### Determinative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Substantive</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sg.</strong></td>
<td>[is, ea, id], he, she, it,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G. ēius, of him,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pl.</strong></td>
<td>[ei, i, i; eae, ea], they,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G. eōrum, cārum, eōrum, of them, eōrum, cārum, eōrum, their or theirs.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Reflexive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Substantive</th>
<th>Possessive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sg.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G. sui, of him, her, it(self),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D. sībī, to, for him(self), her(self),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ac. sē, sēsē, him(self), her(self),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ab. sē, sēsē, from, with, by him(self).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pl.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>G. suī, of them(selves),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>D. sībī, to, for them(selves),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ac. sē, sēsē, them(selves),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Ab. sē, sēsē, from, with, by them(selves).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Notes.—1. Inscriptions show sibēi. The use of sēsē in classical prose is regulated mainly by artistic reasons. Suum in Gen. Pl. from suus is rare and early.

2. The enclitic -met may be added to all the forms of ego (except nostrum), to all the forms of tū (except tā and vestrum), to sibi, sē, and some forms of suus; egomet, / myself. Instead of tumet, tūte is found: from which early poets formed occasionally tūtemet, tūtimet. Met is also occasionally appended to forms of meus (early) and tuus (late).

3. The enclitic -pte is joined very rarely to forms of the Personal Pronoun (mēpte, Pl., Men. 1659); more often to the Abl. Sing. of the Possessives; it is especially common with suō; suōpte ingenīō, by his own genius.

4. From noster and vester and also from cūis, whose? are formed the Gentile adjectives of one ending: nostrās, of our country; vestrās, of your country; cūiās, of whose country? G. nostrātis, vestrātis, cūiātis.

103. B. DETERMINATIVE PRONOUNS.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. is, ea</td>
<td>id, i, ei, i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. ēius, ēius, ēius</td>
<td>eōrum, eārum, eōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. ei, ei, ei</td>
<td>iis, eis, is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac. eum, eam</td>
<td>id, eōs, eās, ea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. eō, eā</td>
<td>eōs, is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—The following variations in the forms are found: N. it for id (post-cl.); G. ēius (inscr.), ēius (early poetry); D. ēiē (inscr.), ēi, ēi (early poetry); eae (f.); Ac. em, im (early), for eum; Pl. N. ēis, ēēs, ēīs, ēi (early and rare), for ei; the usual classical form is iē; G. eum (inscr.) for eōrum; D. ēīs, ēēs, ēīs (inscr.), ēbus (early poetry and rare); the usual classical form is iis. The early forms sum, sam, sōs, sās, for eum, eam, eōs, eās, are cited by Festus. Acc. and Abl. Sing. and Gen. Pl. often suffer Synizesis in early poetry.

2. idem (is + dem), the same.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. idem, eadem, idem, idem, idem, idem, eadem, eadem</td>
<td>idem, idem, idem, idem, idem, eadem, eadem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. ēiūsem, ēiūsem, ēiūsem, ērūrūdem, ērūrūdem</td>
<td>ērūrūdem, ērūrūdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. idem, idem, idem, idem, idem</td>
<td>idem, idem, idem, idem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac. eundem, eandem, idem, ēōdem, ēōdem</td>
<td>ēōdem, ēōdem, ēōdem, ēōdem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. ēōdem, ēōdem, ēōdem</td>
<td>ēōdem, ēōdem, ēōdem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note.—Variations in form: N. ēiūsem, isdem (inscr., early) for idem; D. idem (inscr.) for idem; Pl. N. idem (more usual in poetry), ēiūsem, īsedem (inscr.); D. Ab. īiūsem (rare), īsedem (uncommon in classical prose). Synizesis is common.

3. ipse (perhaps is + pse), he, self.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>SINGULAR</th>
<th>PLURAL</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. ipse, ipsa, ipsum, ipsī, ipsae</td>
<td>ipsae, ipsa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. ipsius, ipsius, ipsius, ipsōrum, ipsārum, ipsōrum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. ipsī, ipsī, ipsī, ipsīs, ipsīs, ipsīs, ipsīs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ac. ipsum, ipsam, ipsum, ipsōs, ipsās, ipsās, ipsās</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. ipsō, ipsā, ipsō, ipsī, ipsīs, ipsīs, ipsīs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Notes.—1. In the earlier time the first part of ipse was also declined, thus: N. eapse; Ac. eumpse, empse; Ab. eōpse, ēapse. Other forms are doubtful.

2. For ipse the form ipsus was very commonly employed in early Latin, but fades out with Terence, and later is only sporadic.

3. Inflectional variations are: D. ipsō, ipsae (late); Pl. N. ipsēl (inscr.). The few other forms are uncertain. Ipsius is dissyllabic twice in Terence.

4. Plautus shows ipsissimus (comp. Gr. αὐτότατος), and in late Latin ipsimus and ipsima are found. A post-Ciceronian colloquialism was isse, issa.

5. Ipse combines with -met: ipsemet and ipsimet (N. Pl.), both rare.

104. C. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

I. Demonstrative Pronoun for the First Person.

hic, this.

Sg.—N. hic, haec, hoc, Pl.—hi, hae, haec, these,
G. hūius, hūius, hūius, hōrum, hārum, hōrum,
D. huic, huic, huic, his, his, his,
Ac. hunc, hanc, hoc, hōs, hās, haec,
Abl. hōc, hāc, hoc, his, his, his.

Notes.—1. The full forms of hic in -ce are still found in limited numbers in early Latin; G. hōiusce (in the phrase hūiusce modi, the form is common in the classical period and later); D. hōice (inscr.); Pl. N. hēisce, hīscē (not uncommon); G. hōrunc (rare); D., Ab. hīscē (in Plaut. and Ter. usually before vowels); Ac. hōscē, hāscē (not uncommon; occasionally in Cic.).

2. Other variations in form are: G. hūius and hūrus (in early poetry for metrical reasons); D. hae (rare and early); Ac. honc; Pl. N. hēl, hēs for hi, haec for hae (in Plaut. and Ter. regularly before vowels or h, occasionally before consonants; occasionally also in classical times and later); G. hōrunc, hārunc (early). Pl. N. hic for hi and D. Ab. hēbus for his are doubtful.

3. Hic combines with -ne. Usually -ne was appended to hicce, etc., and the e weakened to i. Sometimes -ne is added directly to the regular forms. The examples are frequent in early Latin, but occur also in Cic. and later writers: hicine, haecine, hōcine, huicine, huncine, hancine, hōcine, hācine, haecine (N. Pl. fem.), haecine (N. Pl. neut.), hiscine, hiscine, hāscine; also hiscine, haecine, hōcine, hūiusne, huncine, hancine, hōcine, hācine, haecine, hōsne, hāsne.

II. Demonstrative Pronoun for the Second Person.

iste, that.

Sg.—N. iste, ista, istud, Pl.—isti, istae, ista,
G. istius, istius, istius, istōrum, istārum, istōrum,
D. isti, isti, isti, istis, istis, istis,
Ac. istum, istam, istud, istōs, istās, ista,
Abl. istō, istā, istō, istis, istis, istis.

Notes.—1. The Dat. Sing. shows istic in late and istae in early Latin.

2. Iste combines with -ce. In a very few cases (three times in early, once in late Latin) this -ce is retained unchanged, but usually it is shortened to -c. The following forms occur, all except istuc (more common than istud in classical Latin) and istaece
(neuter, occasionally in Cic., Ep. and later), being wholly confined to early and late Latin. N. istic, istaeco, istuc (istoc, once); D. istic; Ac. istunc, istanc; Ab. istoc, istaco. Pl. N. istaec (f.), istaec (m.).

3. In a few cases in Plaut. and Ter. -ne is appended to istucine, etc., the preceding e being weakened to i: istucine, istocine, istacine, istocin1.

III. Demonstrative Pronoun for the Third Person.

Sg.—N. ille, illa, illud, Pl.—illī, illae, illa,
G. illius, illius, illius, illōrum, illārum, illōrum,
D. illi, illī, illī, illis, illis, illis,
Ac. illum, illum, illud, illōs, illās, illa,
Ab. illō, illā, illō, illis, illis, illis.

Notes.—1. The older forms from stem oll(o) occur on early inscriptions, in laws, and in the poets (except Plaut. and Ter.), even to a very late period, as follows: N. ollus, -e (early); D. ollah; Pl. N. olla, olla; G. ollom, ollārum (early); D. olleis, ollis; Ac. ollōs (early).

2. Inscriptions show illut occasionally for illud. Other rare forms are: G. illi (doubtful); D. illae; Pl. N. illēi. Illius is often disyllabic in early Latin.

3. Ille often combines with -ce, which is, however, usually shortened to -c: illūscē, illēcē, illōcē, illōscē, illāscē, illiscē, all in early Latin, shortened forms: N. illic, illacē, illoc; D. illic; Ac. ilunc, illanc; Ab. illōc, illāc; Pl. N. illaec (f.), illaec (m.), all with rare exceptions confined to Plautus and Terence.

4. A few cases of combination with -ne: illicine, illancine occur in Plautus and Terence.

105. D. RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

qui (Substantive and Adjective), who.

Sg.—N. qui, quae, quod, Pl.—qui, quae, quae,
G. cūius, cūius, cūius, quōrum, quārum, quōrum,
D. cui, cui, cui, quibus, quibus, quibus,
Ac. quem, quam, quod, quēs, quās, quae,
Ab. quō, quā, quō, quibus, quibus, quibus.

General Relatives are:

Substantive. quisquis, whoever, quiaquit, quicquid, quicquid, whatever.

Adjective. (quiaquī, quaequae, quodquod) whosoever.

quiaquunque, quaequunque, quodquunque, whichever.

Notes.—1. Archaic and legal are quis and quid as relatives.

2. The prevalent form of Gen. on inscriptions of the Republican period and in early Latin is quōius; quius, cuius, and other variations are also found. Other archaic forms are: D., quoī. D. Pl. quēs. D. Ab. Pl., quis is common in the poets at all periods; and also in prose writers; but not cited from Caesar, and only from the letters of Cicero.

3. The Abl. Sing. qui for all genders is the prevalent form in early times, and in combination with cum is preferred to quō, quā by Cicero.

4. Quisquis is occasionally used as an adjective, but not in classical Latin. Occasionally, also, but rarely in Cicero, it is used for quīsus, quīdque. The Nom. Sing. of the adjective quīquī, etc., probably does not occur. In the other cases the forms are
the same as those of quisquis and can be distinguished only by the usage. In combination with modi we find cuicui in Gen. sometimes in Cicero. In the Plural the only form found is quibusquibus. (Liv. xli., 8, 10.)

5. In quicumque the -cumque is often separated by tmesis. The only variations in form are quicquomque, quescumque in early Latin, and occasionally quiscumque for quibuscumque (several times in Cicero).

106. E. INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

Substantive. quis ? who ?  quid ? what ?
Adjective. qui ? quae ? quod ? which ?
Subst. and Adj. uter ? utra ? utrum ? who, which of two ?

Strengthened Interrogatives.

ecquis?  is there any one who?  ecquid?
Adjective. quinam ? quae?  quodnam ? which, pray?
ecqui ? ecqua?  (ecquae)?  ecquod?

REMARK.—In the poets qui is sometimes found as a substantive for quis in independent sentences. In dependent sentences the use always fluctuates. A difference in meaning can hardly be made other than that qui is generally used in much the same sense as quâlis. On the other hand, quis is often used as an adjective for qui; usually, however, the substantive which follows is best looked upon as in apposition. In the classical period qui is the normal form for the adjective in dependent questions.

NOTES.—I. Inscriptions show here and there quitt and quot for quid and quod. Quid is sometimes used for quod, but usually in the phrase quid nomen tibi est and only in early Latin. Sometimes quae seems to be used as a substantive, but another explanation is always possible.

2. In the oblique cases the same variations occur as in the oblique cases of the relative. The Abl. qui means how?

3. For the declension of uter see 76.

4. The possessive cuius (quoilus), -a, -um was used both as relative and as interroga-
tive. It is frequent in Plaut. and Ter., but rare in other authors. Besides the Nom., the only forms found are Ac. quōsium, quōsiam; Ab. quōsia; Pl. N. quōsiae, and, perhaps, G. Pl. quōsium.

5. Quisnam is sometimes used as an adjective for quīnam and quīnam occasionally for quīsnam as a substantive. The -nam may be separated by tmesis. Ecquis and ecqui are not common, and are subject to the same fluctuations as quis and qui. Ecquis combines with -nam to form ecquisnam and a few other occasional forms, as: ecquaenam, ecquidnam, ecquodnam, ecquōnam, ecquōsnam.

107. F. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

1. Substantive. aliiquis, aliqua (rare), aliiquid, 1 somebody, some one
   quis, qua, quid, 1 or other.

Adjective. aliiqui, aliqua, aliiquod, 1 same, any.
   qui, quae, qua, quod, 1 some, any.

Remark.—The common rule is that quis and qui occur properly only after si, nisi, nē, num, or after a relative; otherwise aliiquis, aliiqui.

Notes.—1. Aliiquis and quis are not unfrequently used as adjectives instead of aliiqi, qui, but rarely in early Latin. Occasionally (not in early Latin) aliqua is used as a substantive. Qui is also so used, but only after si, sin, sive, nē.

The use of quid and aliiquid for quod and aliiquod, and of aliiquod for aliiquid, is very rare and late.

2. Besides the variations in form mentioned under the relative and interrogative, the indefinite quis shows quēs as an early form for qui (N. Pl.), and in Pl. Nom. Acc. neut. quae and qua in equally good usage. Aliiquis shows in Abl. Sing. aliiqui (rare and early), in the Pl. Nom. Acc. neut. always aliqua, and not unfrequently in post-classical Latin aliiquis for aliiquibus.

2. quidam, quaedam, quiddam (and quoddam), a certain, certain one.

Remark.—Quidam, quaedam occur both as substantives and adjectives, but quiddam is always substantive, quoddam always adjective. The Plural is rare in early Latin (never in Plautus).

3. quispiam, quaepiam, quidpiam (and quodpiam), some one, some.
   quisquam, ———, quicquam, any one (at all). No plural.

Notes.—1. quispiam, quaepiam are rare as adjectives. In the neuter, quippiam and quoppiam occur rarely. The comic poets do not use the Plural, and it is rare elsewhere.

2. Quisquam is seldom used as an adjective, except with designations of persons; scriptor quisquam, any writer (at all), Gallus quisquam, any Gaul (at all). The corresponding adjective is ullus. The use of quisquam as a feminine is only in early Latin. Quidquam is a poor spelling for quicquam. In Abl. Sing. quicquam occurs occasionally. In Sing. Gen. Dat. Acc. frequently, and in Plural always, forms of ullus were used.
4. quivis, quaevis, quidvis (and quodvis), any one you please, quilibet, quaclibet, quidlibet (and quodlibet), you like.

Note.—Quivis, quaevis, quilibet (archaic -lubet), quaclibet may be used either as substantives or adjectives, but quidvis, quidlibet are substantives only. quodvis, quodlibet are adjectives only. Peculiar forms of quivis are G. quoivls in quovis-modi (Plaut.); D., quovis (late), Ab., quaevis (Plaut., Ter.), and the compounds cquisviscumque (Lucr. iii. 388) and quovisecumque (Mart. iv. 2, 1). Quilibet may be separated by tmesis into qui and libet (Sall., Cat. 5, 4).

5. quisque, quaeque, quidque and quodque, each one.

Unusquisque, unaquaeque, unumquidque and unumquodque, each one severally.

Note.—Quisque occurs occasionally in early Latin as a feminine, and with its forms is not unfrequently found in early and late Latin for quisquis, or quicumque. Quisque is substantive, quodque adjective. In the Abl. Sing. quique occurs occasionally. The Plural is regular, but rare until post-classical times. In Nom. Pl. quaeque is either fem. or neuter.

108. The declension of the pronominal adjectives has been given in 76. They are:

ullus, -a, -um, any; nůllus, -a, -um, no one, not one. The corresponding substantives are nēmō (76) and nihil, the latter of which forms only nihil (Gen.) and nihilō (Abl.), and those only in certain combinations.

nonullus, -a, -um, some, many a, declined like nullus.

alius, -a, -ud, another; the Possessive of alius is alīenus.

alter, -era, -erum, the other, one (of two).

neuter, neutra, neutrum, neither of two.

alteruter, alterutra, alterutrum, the one or the other of the two.

uterque, utraque, utrumque, each of two, either. ambō, -ae, -ō, both.

utervis, utravis, utrumvis, whichever you please of the two.

CORRELATIVES.

109. 1. CORRELATIVE PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.


quis ? who ?  is, that.  qui, who.

qualis ? of what kind ?  tālis, such (of that kind).  qualis, as (of which kind).

quantus ? how much ?  tantus, so much.  quantus, as much.

quot ? how many ?  tot, so many.  quot, as many.
110. II. CORRELATIVE PRONOMINAL ADVERBS.

1. Pronominal adverbs of place.

ubi? where? ibi, there. ubi, where.
quā? where, hic, hāc, here, this way. quā, where, which way.
which way?

istic, istāc, there, that way.
illic, illāc, there, yonder way.
unde? whence?
inde, hence. unde, whence.
hinc, hence.
istinc, thence.
illinc, thence, from yonder.
quō? whither?
eō, thither. quō, whither.
hūc, (hōc,) thither.
istūc, (istōc,) thither.
ilūc, (illiōc,) thither, yonder.

2. Pronominal adverbs of time.

quandō? when? tum, then. quandō, when.
tunc, at that time. quom, cum.
nunc, now.

quotiēns? how often? totiēns, so often. quotiēns, as often as.

3. Pronominal adverbs of manner.

quōmodo? qui? how? ita, sic, so, thus. ut, uti, as.
quam? how much? tam, so much. quam, as.

111. III. COMPOUNDS OF THE RELATIVE FORMS.

1. The relative pronouns become indefinite by prefixing ali-:

aliquantus, somewhat great; aliquot, several, some; alicubi, somewhere; alicunde, from somewhere; aliquandō, at some time.

2. The simple relatives become universal by doubling themselves, or by suffixing -cunque (-cumque), sometimes -que:

quantuscunque, however great; quāliscunque, of whatever kind; quot-quot, however many; ubicunque, wheresoever; quandōcunque, quandōque, whenever; quotiēscunque, however often; utut, in whatever way; utcunque, howsoever; quamquam, however, although.

3. Many of the relatives are further compounded with -vis or -libet:

quantuslibet, quantusvis, as great as you please; ubivis, where you will; quamvis, as you please, though.
THE VERB.

112. The inflection given to the verbal stem is called Conjugation, and expresses:
1. Person and Number;
2. Voice—Active or Passive.

The Active Voice denotes that the action proceeds from the subject: amō, I love.
The Passive Voice denotes that the subject receives the action of the Verb: amor, I am loved.


The Present, amō, I love; Future, amābō, I shall love; Pure Perfect, amāvī, I have loved; Future Perfect, amāverō, I shall have loved, are called Principal Tenses.

The Imperfect, amābam, I was loving; Historical Perfect. amāvī, I loved; Pluperfect, amāveram, I had loved, are called Historical Tenses.

Remark.—The Pure and Historical Perfects are identical in form.


The Indicative Mood is the mood of the fact: amō, I love.
The Subjunctive Mood is the mood of the idea: amem, may I love, I may love; amet, may he love, he may love; si amet, if he should love.

The Imperative Mood is the mood of command: amā, love thou!

For further distinctions see Syntax.

5. These forms belong to the Finite Verb. Outside of the Finite Verb, and akin to the noun, are the verbal forms called

Infinitive, Supine, Participle, Gerund.

The Infinitive active and the Supine are related to the noun, the former being originally a Dative or Locative and the Supine showing two cases, Accusative and Ablative.

No adequate uniform translation can be given, but for the general meaning see paradigms.

113. A large number of Verbs have the passive form but
are active in meaning: hortor, I exhort. These are called deponent (from dépôner, to lay aside).

114. The Inflection of the Finite Verb is effected by the addition of personal endings to the verb stems.

1. The personal endings are mostly pronominal forms, which serve to indicate not only person, but also number and voice. They are:

**Active.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pf.</th>
<th>Impv.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-m</td>
<td>-s</td>
<td>-t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(or a vowel, coalescing with the characteristic ending)</td>
<td>Pf. -s-tï; Impv. -tô-d</td>
<td>or wanting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Passive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pf.</th>
<th>Impv.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-r</td>
<td>-ris or -re; Impv. -re or -tor.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-tur; Impv. -tor.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2. The personal endings are added directly to the stem in the Present Indicative and Imperative only, except in the third conjugation, in some forms of the Future Indicative. In the other tenses certain modifications occur in the stem, or tense signs are employed:

(a) In the Present Subjunctive final ã of the stem is changed to ë (e); final ê to éa (ea); final î to ïa (ia); final ê to ã (a). In the Future Indicative final ë is changed to à or ê (e); final î to ìa (ie, ie).

(b) The tense signs are: for the Imperfect Indicative, bã (ba); for the Imperfect Subjunctive, rè (re); for the Future Indicative in ã and ê verbs bî (b, bu); for the Perfect Indicative, î (î); for the Perfect Subjunctive, -erî; for the Pluperfect Indicative, erã (era); for the Pluperfect Subjunctive, issê (isse); for the Future Perfect Indicative, erî (er).

3. The stem itself is variously modified; either by change of vowel or by addition of suffixes, and appears in the following forms:

(a) The Present stem: being the stem of the Present, Imperfect, and Future tenses. These forms are called the Present System.

(b) The Perfect stem: being the stem of the Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect tenses. These forms are called the Perfect System.

(c) The Supine* stem: being the stem of the Future Active and Perfect Passive Participles and of the Supine. These forms are called the Supine System.

*This designation is retained because it is an established terminus technicus; as a matter of fact the Supine stem is not the stem of the Participles.
115. 1. The Perfect, Pluperfect, and Future Perfect tenses in the Passive are formed by the combination of the Perfect Passive Particle with forms of the verb sum, I am.

2. The Future Passive Infinitive is formed by the combination of the Supine with the Present Passive Infinitive of eō, I go.

3. The infinite parts of the verb are formed by the addition of the following endings to the stems:

**Active.**

**Passive.**

| INFINITIVE. | Pr. | -re, | ri, i. |
| Pf. | -isse, | -tum (-tam, -tum) esse. |
| Fut. | -tūrum (-am, -um) esse, | -tum ēri. |

| PARTICIPLES. | Pr. | -ns (G. -ntis), | -tus (-ta, -tum). |
| Pf. | — | -tūrus (-a, -um). |

| GERUND. | GERUNDIVE. | SUPINE. |

116.

**THE VERB sum, I am.**

(Pres. stem es-, Perf. stem fu-)

**INDICATIVE.**

**PRESENT.**

| SG.—1. sum, | I am, | sim, | I be, |
| 2. es, | thou art, | sis, | thou be. |
| 3. est, | he, she, it is. | sit, | he, she, it be. |

| PL.—1. sumus, | we are, | simus, | we be, |
| 2. estis, | you are, | sitis, | you be, |
| 3. sunt, | they are. | sint, | they be. |

**IMPERFECT.**

| SG.—1. eram, | I was, | essem, | I were (forem), |
| 2. erās, | thou wast, | essēs, | thou wert (forēs), |
| 3. erat, | he was. | esset, | he were (foret). |

| PL.—1. erāmus, | we were, | essēmus, | we were, |
| 2. erātis, | you were, | essētis, | you were, |
| 3. erant, | they were, | essent, | they were (forent). |

**FUTURE.**

| SG.—1. erō, | I shall be, | | |
| 2. eris, | thou will be, | | |
| 3. erit, | he will be. | | |

| PL.—1. erimus, | we shall be, | | |
| 2. eritis, | you will be, | | |
| 3. erunt, | they will be. | | |
## The Verb

### Perfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td><em>fui</em></td>
<td><em>fuerim</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td><em>fuisti</em></td>
<td><em>fueris</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td><em>fuit</em></td>
<td><em>fuerit</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Pluperfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td><em>fueram</em></td>
<td><em>fuissem</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td><em>fueras</em></td>
<td><em>fuisses</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td><em>fuerat</em></td>
<td><em>fuisset</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Future Perfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td><em>fueris</em></td>
<td><em>es</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td><em>fuerit</em></td>
<td><em>estō</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td><em>suntō</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>esse, to be</td>
<td>futūrum (-am, -um) esse (fore), to be about to be</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
THE VERB.

Notes.—1. Early forms are:

(a) In the Pres. Ind. ēs for es; regularly in Plautus and Terence, but the quantity of the vowel is disputed.

(b) In the Pres. Subjv. siem, siēs, siet, sient; regular in inscriptions until the first century B.C. and common in early poets chiefly for metrical reasons; side by side with this occur fuam, fuās, fuat, fuant (also Lucret. iv., 637, Verg. x., 108, Liv. xxv., 12, 6), which are taken up again by later poets. Sit is also common.

(c) In the Impf. Subjv., the forms forem, forēs, foret, forent were probably in very early times equivalent to futurus essem, etc.; and occasionally this force seems to be still present in the later period, especially in Sallust; usually, however, they are equivalent to essem, essēs, esset, essent; in the Inf. fore always remained the equivalent of futūrum esse.

(d) In all the Perfect forms the original length was fu-, which is still found occasionally in early Latin.

(e) Early and principally legal are the rare forms escit, escet, esit, for erit; -essint for erunt.

2. The Pres. Part. is found only in the compounds; ab-sēns, absent, and praesēns, present.

117. Compounds of sum, I am.

ab-sum, I am away, absent. Pf. ob-sum, I am against, I hurt. Pf. obfui or offui.

ad-sum, I am present. Pf. affui. pos-sum, I am able.

dē-sum, I am wanting. praec-sum, I am over, I superintend.

in-sum, I am in. prō-sum, I am for, I profit.

inter-sum, I am between. sub-sum, I am under. No Pf.

super-sum, I am, or remain, over.

These are all inflected like sum; but prōsum and possum require special treatment by reason of their composition.

Prōsum, I profit.

118. In the forms of prōsum, prō- is used before vowels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDICATIVE</th>
<th>SUBJUNCTIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prō-sum, prō-es, prō-est,</td>
<td>prō-sim,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prō-sumus, prō-estis, prō-sunt,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prō-eram,</td>
<td>prō-essem,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prō-erō,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prō-fui,</td>
<td>prō-fuerim,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Perf.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prō-fuerō,</td>
<td>prō-fuisse</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INFINITIVE. Pres. prō-esse; Fut. prō-futūrum esse (-fore); Perf. prō-fuisse

Possum, I am able, I can.

119. Possum is compounded of pot (potis, pote) and sum; t becomes s before s; in the perfect forms, f (pot-fui) is lost.
## THE VERB.

### INDICATIVE.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>pos-sum, <em>I am able, can</em></td>
<td>pos-sumus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>pot-es,</td>
<td>pot-estis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>pot-est.</td>
<td>pot-est.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Subjunctive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>pos-sim, <em>I be able.</em></td>
<td>pos-simus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>pos-sis,</td>
<td>pos-sitis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>pos-sit.</td>
<td>pos-sint.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>pot-eram, <em>I was able, could</em></td>
<td>pot-eramus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>pot-eras,</td>
<td>pot-eratis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>pot-erat.</td>
<td>pot-erant.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Future.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>pot-ero, <em>I shall be able</em></td>
<td>pot-erimus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>pot-eris,</td>
<td>pot-eritis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>pot-erit.</td>
<td>pot-erunt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Perfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>pot-ui, <em>I have been able</em></td>
<td>pot-uiusmus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>pot-uistī,</td>
<td>pot-uistīis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>pot-uīt.</td>
<td>pot-uīt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Pluperfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>pot-ueram, <em>I had been able</em></td>
<td>pot-ueramus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>pot-uerās,</td>
<td>pot-uerātis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>pot-uerat.</td>
<td>pot-uerant.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Pluperfect.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td>pot-uissem, <em>I had, might have, been able</em></td>
<td>pot-uissemus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td>pot-uisēs,</td>
<td>pot-uisētis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td>pot-uisset.</td>
<td>pot-uissemt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
REGULAR VERBS.

FUTURE PERFECT.

Sg.—1. pot-uerō, I shall have been Pl.—1. pot-uerīmus,
2. pot-ueris, 2. pot-ueritis,
3. pot-uerit. 3. pot-uerint.

INFINITIVE. Pres., posse, to be able. Perf., potuisse, to have been able.

Notes.—1. In the early Latin the fusion of the two parts of the compound has not fully taken place; we accordingly find not infrequently: potis sum, potis es, potis est, potis sunt; potis siem, potis sis, potis sit, potis sint; potis erat; pote fuisset; and sometimes (even in classical and Augustan poets) potis and pote alone, the copula being omitted. Partial fusion is seen in Inf. pot-esse, potisse; Subjv. poti-sit (linscr.), poti-set.

2. Occasional passive forms (followed by a passive infinitive) are found in early Latin (not in Plaut. or Ter.) and Lucretius: potestur, possētur, possitur, poterētur. Poterint for poterunt is doubtful.

REGULAR VERBS.

SYSTEMS OF CONJUGATION.

120. 1. There are two Systems of Conjugation, the Thematic and the Non-thematic (132). The Non-thematic is confined to a small class. The Thematic System comprises four Conjugations, distinguished by the vowel characteristics of the present stem. ā, ē, ē, ī, which may be found by dropping -re from the Present Infinitive Active. The consonant preceding the short vowel stem-characteristic is called the consonant stem-characteristic.

2. From the Present stem, as seen in the Present Indicative and Present Infinitive active; from the Perfect stem, as seen in the Perfect Indicative active; and from the Supine stem, can be derived all the forms of the verb. These tenses are accordingly called the Principal Parts; and in the regular verbs appear in the four conjugations as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I. am-ō,</td>
<td>amā-re,</td>
<td>amā-vi,</td>
<td>amā-tum, to love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II. dēle-ō, mone-ō,</td>
<td>dēlē-re, monē-re,</td>
<td>dēlē-vi, mon-ūl,</td>
<td>dēlē-tum, to blot out.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IV. audi-ō,</td>
<td>audī-re,</td>
<td>audī-vi,</td>
<td>audī-tum, to buy.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

...
Rules for forming the Tenses.

121. 1. The Present System. From the Present stem as obtained by dropping -re of the Pres. Inf. Active, form

a. Pres. Subjv. by changing final ā to e, ē to ea, e to a (or -ia), i to ia, and adding -m for active, -r for passive; Pres. Impv. Passive by adding -re; Fut. Impv. by adding -to for Active and -tor for the Passive; Pres. Part. by adding -ns and lengthening preceding vowel; Gerund by adding -ndl after shortening ā and ē, changing i to ia, and adding -m for active, -r for passive; Pres. Indic. Passive may be formed from Pres. Indic. Act. by adding -r (after shortening ō).

b. Impf. Indic. by adding -bam for active and -bar for passive to the stem in the first and second conjugations; to the lengthened stem in the third and fourth (e to ē or iē, i to iē); Impf. Subjv. by adding the endings -rem and -rer, or by adding -m and -r respectively to the Pres. Inf. Active.

c. Future, by adding -bō and -bor to the stem in the first and second conjugations; -m and -r in the third and in the fourth (e being changed to a (ia); i, to ia).

2. The Perfect System. From the Perfect stem as obtained by dropping final i of the Perfect, form


c. Fut. Perf. Active by adding -erō.

3. The Supine System. From the Supine stem as obtained by dropping final -m of the Supine, form


b. Fut. Part. Active by adding -rus (preceding u being lengthened to ū).

c. The Compound Tenses in the Passive and the Periphrastic forms by combining these Participles with forms of esse, to be.

Remark.—Euphonic changes in the consonant stem-characteristic Characteristic b before s and t becomes p; g and qu before t become c; c, g, qu, with s, become x; t and d before s are assimilated, and then sometimes dropped. See further, 9.

scrib-ō, scrip-si, scrip-tum; legō, lēc-tum; coqu-ō, coe-tum; dic-ō, dixi (dic-si); iung-ō, iūnx-i (iūng-si); coqu-ō, coxi (coqu-si); ed-ō, ed-sum (ed-sum); cēd-ō, cēs-si (cēd-si); mitt-ō, mi-sī (mit-si), mis-sum (mit-sum).
122. First Conjugation.

Conjugation of amāre, to love.


Active.

Indicative.

Am loving, do love, love.

Sg.—1. am-ō,
2. amā-s,
3. amā-t,

Pl.—1. amā-mus,
2. amā-tis,
3. amā-nt,

Imperfect.

Was loving, loved.

Sg.—1. amā-ba-m,
2. amā-bā-s,
3. amā-ba-t,

Pl.—1. amā-bā-mus,
2. amā-bā-tis,
3. amā-ba-nt,

Future.

Shall be loving, shall love.

Sg.—1. amā-bi-ō,
2. amā-bi-s,
3. amā-bi-t,

Pl.—1. amā-bi-mus,
2. amā-bi-tis,
3. amā-bi-nnt,

Perfect.

Have loved, did love.

Sg.—1. amā-v-i,
2. amā-v-isti,
3. amā-v-it,

Pl.—1. amā-v-imus,
2. amā-v-istis,
3. amā-v-ērunt (-ēre),

Subjunctive.

Be loving, may love.

Present.

Sg.—1. amē-m,
2. amē-s,
3. amē-t,

Pl.—1. amē-mus,
2. amē-tis,
3. amē-nt.

Imperfect.

Were loving, might love.

Sg.—1. amā-re-m,
2. amā-re-s,
3. amā-re-t,

Pl.—1. amā-re-mus,
2. amā-re-tis,
3. amā-re-nt.

Perfect.

Have, may have, loved.

Sg.—1. amā-veli-m,
2. amā-veli-s,
3. amā-veli-t,

Pl.—1. amā-veli-mus,
2. amā-veli-tis,
3. amā-veli-nt.
First Conjugation.

ACTIVE.

**INDICATIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pluperfect</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Had loved</td>
<td>Had, might have, loved</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. — 1. amā-v-era-m</td>
<td>amā-v-isse-m</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā-v-era-s</td>
<td>amā-v-isse-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amā-v-era-t</td>
<td>amā-v-isse-t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. — 1. amā-v-era-mus</td>
<td>amā-v-isse-mus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā-v-era-tis</td>
<td>amā-v-isse-tis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amā-v-era-nt</td>
<td>amā-v-isse-nt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Shall have loved</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg. — 1. amā-v-er-ō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā-v-erī-s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amā-v-erī-t</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. — 1. amā-v-erī-mus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā-v-erī-tis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. amā-v-erī-nt</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**IMPERATIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg. — 1. —</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā, love thou, amā-tō, thou shall love.</td>
<td>amā-tō, he shall love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. —</td>
<td>amā-tō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. — 1. —</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. amā-te, love ye, amā-tōte, ye shall love.</td>
<td>amā-tōte, they shall love.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. —</td>
<td>amā-nō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amā-re, to love.</td>
<td>amā-v-isse, to have loved.</td>
<td>amā-tūr-um, -am, -um esse, to be about to love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**GERUND.**

N. [amā-re], loving.
G. ama-nd-i, of loving.
D. ama-nd-ō, to loving.
Ac. [amā-re], Ac. amā-tum, to love.
(ad) ama-nd-um, loving, to love.
Ab. ama-nd-ō, by loving. Ab. amā-tū, to love, in the loving.

**PARTICIPLES.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. amā-n-s (G. ama-nt-is), loving.</td>
<td>amā-tūr-us, -a, -um, being about to love.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## First Conjugation.

### Passive.

#### Indicative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>amo-r</td>
<td>ama-mur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>ama-ris (-re)</td>
<td>ama-mini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>ama-tur</td>
<td>ama-ba-ntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Present.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No.</th>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>ame-r</td>
<td>ama-re-mur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
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## Subjunctive.

#### Be, may be, loved.

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#### Were, might be, loved.

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#### Shall be loved.

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#### Have, may have, been loved.

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<td>estis,</td>
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First Conjugation.

PASSIVE.

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<td><strong>Pluperfect.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Had been loved.</strong></td>
<td><strong>Had, might have, been loved.</strong></td>
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<td><strong>Sg.-1.</strong></td>
<td>amā-t-us, -a, -um eram,</td>
<td>amā-t-us, -a, -um essem,</td>
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<td></td>
<td>2. erās,</td>
<td>essēs,</td>
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<td>3. erat,</td>
<td>esset,</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Pl.-1.</strong></td>
<td>amā-t-i, -ae, -a erāmus,</td>
<td>amā-t-i, -ae, -a essēmus,</td>
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<td>2. erātis,</td>
<td>essētis,</td>
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<td>3. erant.</td>
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**Future Perfect.**

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<td><strong>Sg.-1.</strong></td>
<td>amā-t-us, -a, -um erō,</td>
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<td>2. eris,</td>
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<td>3. erit,</td>
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<td><strong>Pl.-1.</strong></td>
<td>amā-t-i, -ae, -a erimus,</td>
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<td>2. eritis,</td>
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**IMPERATIVE.**

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<td><strong>Sg.-1.</strong></td>
<td>—</td>
<td>amā-tor</td>
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<td>2. amā-re, be thou loved.</td>
<td>thou shall be loved.</td>
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<td>amā-tor, he shall be loved.</td>
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<td><strong>Pl.-1.</strong></td>
<td>—</td>
<td>amā-nitor, they shall be loved.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. amā-mini, be ye loved.</td>
<td>amā-nitor, they shall be loved.</td>
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<td>3. —</td>
<td>amā-nitor, they shall be loved.</td>
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**INFINITIVE.**

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<th></th>
<th><strong>Pres.</strong> amā-ri,</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong> amā-tum, -am, -um esse,</td>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong> amā-tum, -am, -um fore.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>to be loved.</td>
<td>to have been loved.</td>
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**PARTICIPLE.**

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<th></th>
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<tr>
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<td>ama-nd-us, -a, -um, (one) to be loved.</td>
<td>ama-nd-us, -a, -um, (one) to be loved.</td>
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### Second Conjugation.

**Conjugation of delère, to destroy (blot out).**

**Prin. Parts:** delē-o, delē-re, delē-vi, delē-tum.

**ACTIVE.**

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<td>— delē-viri</td>
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<td>— delē-viri</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perfect.**
### Second Conjugation.

#### Active

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indic.</th>
<th>Subjv.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pluperfect.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. — delē-ver-am, delē-isse-m, delē-t-us eram, delē-t-us essem,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delē-verā-s, delē-isse-s, erās, essēs,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delē-verā-t, delē-isse-t, erat, esset,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. — delē-verā-mus, delē-isse-mus, delē-t-i eramus, delē-t-i essēmus,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delē-verā-tis, delē-isse-tis, erātis, essētis,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delē-verānt, delē-isse-nt, erant, essent.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Future Perfect.** | |
| Sg. — delē-verō, delē-t-us erē, | |
| delē-eri-s, eris, | |
| delē-erī-t, erit. | |
| Pl. — delē-eri-mus, delē-t-i erimus, | |
| delē-eri-tis, eritis, | |
| delē-eri-nt, erunt. | |

| **Imperative.** | |
| **Present.** | **Future.** |
| Sg. —, delē, delē-tō, | delē-re, delē-tor, |
| —, | —, delē-tor. |
| Pl. —, delē-te, delē-tōte, | delē-mīni, delē-nītor. |
| —, delē-ntō. | —, |

| **Infinitive.** | |
| Pres. delē-re. | Pres. delē-ri. |
| Perf. delē-visse. | Perf. delē-tum, -am, -um esse. |
| Fut. delē-tūr-um, -am, -um esse. | Fut. delē-tum īri. |
| Fut. Pf. delē-tum, -am, -um fore. | |

| **Gerund.** | **Supine.** | **Participles.** |
| N. [delē-re]. | Ac. delē-tum. | Pres. N. delē-n-s; G. delē-nt-is. |
| G. delē-nd-i. | | Fut. delē-tūr-um, -a, -um. |
| D. delē-nd-ō. | | Perf. delē-t-us, -a, -um. |
| Ab. delē-nd-ō. | | delē-nd-us, -a, -um. |
124. Like délère, to destroy, are conjugated only, nère, to spin, flère, to weep, and the compounds of -plère, fill, and -olère grow (the latter with Supine in -itum); also cière, to stir up. See 137(b).

All other verbs of the Second Conjugation retain the characteristic e in the Present System, but drop it in the Perfect System, changing vi to ui, and weaken it to i in the Supine System.

**Second Conjugation.**

**Conjugation of monère, to remind.**


**ACTIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDIC.</th>
<th>SUBJ.</th>
<th>PASSIVE.</th>
<th>SUBJ.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sg.</strong>-mone-ô,</td>
<td>monea-m, mone-o-r,</td>
<td>monea-r,</td>
<td>monea-r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monè-s,</td>
<td>monè-s, monè-ris (-re),</td>
<td>monè-ris (-re),</td>
<td>monea-tur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monè-t,</td>
<td>monè-t, monè-tur,</td>
<td>mone-a-mur,</td>
<td>mone-a-mur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pl.</strong>-monè-mus,</td>
<td>monea-mus,</td>
<td>monè-mur,</td>
<td>mone-a-mur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monè-tis,</td>
<td>monea-tis,</td>
<td>monè-mini,</td>
<td>mone-a-mini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mone-nt.</td>
<td>monea-nt.</td>
<td>monea-ntur.</td>
<td>mone-a-ntur.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Imperfect.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monè-ba-m,</td>
<td>monè-ba-r,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monè-bäs-s,</td>
<td>monè-ba-ris (-re),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monè-ba-t,</td>
<td>monè-ba-tur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monè-ba-mus,</td>
<td>monè-ba-mur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monè-ba-tis,</td>
<td>monè-ba-mini,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monè-ba-nt.</td>
<td>monè-ba-ntur.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monè-bô,</td>
<td>monè-bo-r,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monè-bi-s,</td>
<td>monè-be-ris (-re),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monè-bi-t,</td>
<td>monè-bi-tur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monè-bi-mus,</td>
<td>monè-bi-mur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monè-bi-tis,</td>
<td>monè-bi-mini,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monè-bu-nt.</td>
<td>monè-bu-ntur.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Perf.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-i,</td>
<td>mon-u-eri-m, moni-t-us sum,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-isti,</td>
<td>moni-t-us sis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-it,</td>
<td>mon-u-eri-s, est,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td>Pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-imus,</td>
<td>moni-t-i simus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-istis,</td>
<td>moni-t-i sis,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
REGULAR VERBS.

Second Conjugation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVE</th>
<th>PASSIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDIC.</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJ.V.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. — mon-u-era-m,</td>
<td>mon-u-isse-m,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-era-s,</td>
<td>mon-u-isse-s,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-era-t,</td>
<td>mon-u-isse-t.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. — mon-u-erā-mus,</td>
<td>mon-u-isse-mus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-erā-tis,</td>
<td>mon-u-isse-tis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mon-u-erā-nt,</td>
<td>mon-u-isse-nt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Future Perfect**

| Sg. — mon-u-erō, | | moni-t-us erō, |
| mon-u-eri-s, | | eris, |
| mon-u-eri-t, | | erit, |
| Pl. — mon-u-erī-mus, | | moni-t-i erīmus, |
| mon-u-erī-tis, | | erītis, |
| mon-u-erī-nt, | | erunt. |

**Imperative.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>PRESENT.</th>
<th>FUTURE.</th>
<th>PRESENT.</th>
<th>FUTURE.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monē,</td>
<td>monē-tō,</td>
<td>monē-re,</td>
<td>monē-tor,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>—</td>
<td>monē-tō,</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>monē-tor,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>monē-te,</td>
<td>monē-tōte,</td>
<td>monē-minī,</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>—</td>
<td>mone-ntō.</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>mone-ntor.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>monē-re.</td>
<td>monē-isse.</td>
<td>moni-tür-um, -am, um esse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Gerund.**

| N. | [monē-re]. |
| G. | mone-nd-ī. |
| D. | mone-nd-ō. |
| Ac. | [monē-re] (ad) mone-nd-um. |
| Ab. | mone-nd-ō. |

**Supine.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. mone-n-s; G. mone-nt-īs.</td>
<td>mone-tür-us, -a, -um.</td>
<td>mone-tus, -a, -um.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Participles.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>GERUNDIVE.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mone-nd-us, -a, -um.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 125. Third Conjugation.

**Conjugation of emere, to buy.**

**Prin. Parts:** em-o, eme-re, ēm-i, ēm(p)-tum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>ACTIVE</strong></th>
<th><strong>PASSIVE</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDIC.</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJ.</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Sg.</em> — em-o,</td>
<td>ema-m,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emi-s,</td>
<td>ema-s,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emi-t,</td>
<td>ema-t,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Pl.</em> — emi-mus,</td>
<td>ema-mus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emi-tis,</td>
<td>ema-tis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emu-nt,</td>
<td>ema-nt,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperfect.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Sg.</em> — eme-ba-m,</td>
<td>eme-re-m,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eme-ba-s,</td>
<td>eme-re-s,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eme-ba-t,</td>
<td>eme-re-t,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Pl.</em> — eme-ba-mus,</td>
<td>eme-re-mus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eme-ba-tis,</td>
<td>eme-re-tis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eme-ba-nt,</td>
<td>eme-re-nt,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Future.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Sg.</em> — ema-m,</td>
<td>ema-r,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ema-s,</td>
<td>eme-ris (-re),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ema-t,</td>
<td>ema-tur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Pl.</em> — eme-mus,</td>
<td>eme-mur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eme-tis,</td>
<td>eme-mini,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eme-nt,</td>
<td>eme-ntur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perfect.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Sg.</em> — ēm-i,</td>
<td>ēm-eri-m,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēm-isti,</td>
<td>ēm-eri-is,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēm-it,</td>
<td>ēm-eri-t,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>Pl.</em> — ēm-imus,</td>
<td>ēm-eri-mus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēm-istis,</td>
<td>ēm-eri-tis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ēm-erunt (-ēre), ēm-eri-nt.</td>
<td>ēm-eri-nt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### ACTIVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indic.</th>
<th>Subjv.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pluperfect.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. — ēm-er-a-m, ēm-er-a-s, ēm-er-a-t,</td>
<td>ēmp-t-us eram, ēmp-t-us erās, ēmp-t-us erat,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. — ēm-er-a-mus, ēm-er-a-tis, ēm-er-a-nt.</td>
<td>ēmp-t-ī erāmus, ēmp-t-ī ērātis, ēmp-t-ī ērant.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Future Perfect.** |
| Sg. — ēm-er-ō, ēm-erīs, ēm-erī-t, | ēmp-t-us erō, ēmp-t-us erīs, ēmp-t-us erīt, |

| **Imperative.** |
| Present. | Future. |
| Sg. eme, | emi-tō, |
| Pl. emi-te, | emi-tōte, |

### PASSIVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indic.</th>
<th>Subjv.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pluperfect.</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. — ēmp-t-us eram, ēmp-t-us erās, ēmp-t-us erat,</td>
<td>ēmp-t-us essem, ēmp-t-us essēs, ēmp-t-us esset,</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Future Perfect.** |
| Sg. — ēmp-t-us erō, ēmp-t-us erīs, ēmp-t-us erīt, | ēmp-t-ī erīmus, ēmp-t-ī ērītis, ēmp-t-ī ērunt. |

| **Imperative.** |
| Present. | Future. |
| Sg. eme-re, | emi-tō, |
| Pl. emi-nte, | emi-tōte, |

| **Infinitive.** |
| Sg. eme-re. | ēmp-t-um, -am, -um esse. | ēmp-tum ēri. | ēmp-t-um, -am, -um fore. |

| **Gerund.** |
| Pres. N. emē-n-ā; G. emē-nt-īs |
| Fut. ēmp-tūr-us, -a, -um esse. |

| **Supine.** |
| Pres. N. emē-n-s; G. emē-nt-īs |
| Fut. ēmp-tūr-us, -a, -um esse. |

| **Participles.** |
| Pres. N. emē-n-s; G. emē-nt-īs |
| Fut. ēmp-tūr-us, -a, -um esse. |

### GERUNDIVE.

| Ac. ēmp-tū. |
| Ab. em-e-nd-ō. |
126. Many verbs of the third conjugation with stem in *ie* (Pres. Indic. in *iō*) weaken this *ie* to *e* before *-re*, and to *i* before *m*, *s*, and *t* in all tenses of the Present System except the Future. Otherwise they follow the inflection of *eme*-re.

These verbs are capiō, cupiō, facio, fodiō, fugiō, iaciō, parīo, quatiō, rapiō, sapiō, and their compounds; also compounds of -liciō, -spiciō, and the deponents gradior and its compounds, morior and its compounds, patior and its compounds.

**Synopsis of Present System of cape-re, to take.**

**Prin. Parts:** capi-ō, cape-re, ēp-ī, cap-tum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ACTIVE</th>
<th>PASSIVE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>INDIC.</strong></td>
<td><strong>SUBJ.V.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Present.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sg.—capi-ō,</td>
<td>capia-m,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capi-s,</td>
<td>capia-s,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capi-t,</td>
<td>capia-t,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl.—capi-mus,</td>
<td>capiā-mus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capi-tis,</td>
<td>capiā-tis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiu-nt,</td>
<td>capia-nt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperfect.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—capiā-ba-m,</td>
<td>cap-e-re-m,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>etc.</td>
<td>etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sg.—capia-m,</td>
<td>capia-r,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiā-s,</td>
<td>capi-ris (̶re),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—cape,</td>
<td>cap-i-tō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cap-i-tō,</td>
<td>cape-re,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capi-te.</td>
<td>capi-tō-te,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiu-ntō.</td>
<td>capi-ntō.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Pres. cape-re.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PARTICIPLE.</td>
<td>GERUND.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. capiē-n-s.</td>
<td>G. capie-nd-ī.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**REGULAR VERBS.**

**127.**

**Fourth Conjugation.**

**CONJUGATION OF audire, to hear.**

**Prin. Parts:** audi-ō, audi-re, audi-vi, audi-tum.

**Active.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Present.</strong></td>
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<tr>
<td>Sg. — audi-ō,</td>
<td>audi-o-m,</td>
<td>audi-o-r,</td>
<td>audi-a-r,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audi-s,</td>
<td>audi-a-s,</td>
<td>audi-ris (re),</td>
<td>audi-a-ris (re),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audi-t,</td>
<td>audi-a-t,</td>
<td>audi-tur,</td>
<td>audi-a-tur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. — audi-mus,</td>
<td>audi-a-mus,</td>
<td>audi-mur,</td>
<td>audi-a-mur,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audi-tis,</td>
<td>audi-a-tis,</td>
<td>audi-minī,</td>
<td>audi-a-minī,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audi-nt.</td>
<td>audi-a-nt.</td>
<td>audi-u-ntur.</td>
<td>audi-a-ntur.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Imperfect.** | | | |
| Sg. — audiē-ba-m, | audiē-re-m, | audiē-ba-r, | audiē-re-r, |
| audiē-ba-s, | audiē-re-s, | audiē-ba-ris (re), | audiē-re-ris (re), |
| audiē-ba-t, | audiē-re-t, | audiē-ba-tur, | audiē-re-tur, |
| Pl. — audiē-ba-mus, | audiē-re-mus, | audiē-ba-mur, | audiē-re-mur, |
| audiē-ba-tis, | audiē-re-tis, | audiē-ba-minī, | audiē-re-minī, |
| audiē-ba-nt. | audiē-re-nt. | audiē-ba-ntur. | audiē-re-ntur. |

| **Future.** | | | |
| Sg. — audi-a-m, | audi-a-r, | | |
| audi-a-s, | audi-a-ris (re), | | |
| audi-a-t, | audi-a-tur, | | |
| Pl. — audi-e-mus, | audi-e-mur, | | |
| audi-e-tis, | audi-e-minī, | | |
| audi-e-nt. | audi-e-ntur. | | |

| **Perfect.** | | | |
| Sg. — audi-v-i, | audi-v-eri-m, | audi-t-us sum, | audi-t-us sim, |
| audi-v-isti, | audi-v-eri-s, | es, | sis, |
| audi-v-it, | audi-v-eri-t, | est, | sit, |
| Pl. — audi-v-imus, | audi-v-eri-mus, | audi-t-i sumus, | audi-t-i simus, |
| audi-v-itis, | audi-v-eri-tis, | estis, | sitis, |
| audi-v-erunt (-ēre). | audi-v-eri-nt. | sunt. | sint. |
### Fourth Conjugation

#### ACTIVE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>INDIC.</th>
<th>SUBJV.</th>
<th>INDIC.</th>
<th>SUBJV.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg. — audi-v-er-a-m, audi-v-eras, audi-v-er-a-t,</td>
<td>audi-t-us eram, erás,</td>
<td>audi-t-us essem, essēs,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>audi-v-isse-m, audi-v-isse-s, audi-v-isse-t,</td>
<td>erat,</td>
<td>esset,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. — audi-v-er-a-mus, audi-v-er-a-tis, audi-v-er-a-nt.</td>
<td>audi-t-i erāmus, erātis,</td>
<td>audi-t-i essēmus, essētis,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Passive

| Pluperfect. | | | |
| Sg. — audi-v-er-ō, audi-v-er-ē-s, audi-v-er-ē-t, | | audi-t-us erō, eris, erit, |
| Pl. — audi-v-er-i-mus, audi-v-er-i-tis, audi-v-er-i-nt. | audi-t-i erimus, eritis, erunt. |

#### Future Perfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg. —</td>
<td>audi-tō,</td>
<td>audi-re,</td>
<td>audi-tor, audi-tor,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audi,</td>
<td>audi-tō,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl. —</td>
<td>audi-tō,</td>
<td>audi-tō,</td>
<td>audi-mi, audi-mi, audi-ntō, audi-ntō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audi-te.</td>
<td>audi-tote,</td>
<td>audi-mi,</td>
<td>audi-ntor, audi-ntor,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>audi-ntō.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present.</th>
<th>Future.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres. audi-re.</td>
<td>audi-ri.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf. audi-v-isse.</td>
<td>audi-tum, -am, um esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. audi-tūr-um, -am, -um esse.</td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.Pf. audi-t-um, -am, -um esse.</td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. [audi-re].</td>
<td>audi-tum, -am, -um esse.</td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G. audie-nd-i.</td>
<td></td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. audie-nd-ō.</td>
<td></td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ad) audie-nd-um.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. audie-nd-ō.</td>
<td>Ab. audi-tū.</td>
<td>audi-nd-us, -a, -um.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Gerund

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N. audiē-n-s.</td>
<td>audi-t-um, -am, -um esse.</td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>audi-tūr-us, -a, -um.</td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td></td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ad) audie-nd-um.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. audie-nd-ō.</td>
<td>Ab. audi-tū.</td>
<td>audi-nd-us, -a, -um.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Supine

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>audiē-n-s.</td>
<td>audi-t-um, -am, -um esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>audi-tūr-us, -a, -um.</td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td></td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ad) audie-nd-um.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. audie-nd-ō.</td>
<td>Ab. audi-tū.</td>
<td>audi-nd-us, -a, -um.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Participles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>audiē-n-s.</td>
<td>audi-t-um, -am, -um esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>audi-tūr-us, -a, -um.</td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td></td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ad) audie-nd-um.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. audie-nd-ō.</td>
<td>Ab. audi-tū.</td>
<td>audi-nd-us, -a, -um.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### Gerundive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>N.</td>
<td>audiē-n-s.</td>
<td>audi-t-um, -am, -um esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G.</td>
<td>audi-tūr-us, -a, -um.</td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D.</td>
<td></td>
<td>audi-tum irī.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(ad) audie-nd-um.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ab. audie-nd-ō.</td>
<td>Ab. audi-tū.</td>
<td>audi-nd-us, -a, -um.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
DEPONENT VERBS.

128. Deponent verbs have the passive form, but are active in meaning. They have also the Present and Future Active Participles, and the Future Active Infinitive. Thus a deponent verb alone can have a Present, Future, and Perfect Participle, all with active meaning. The Gerundive, however, is passive in meaning as well as in form.

The conjugation differs in no particular from that of the regular conjugation.

1. First Conjugation.

CONJUGATION OF hortāri, to exhort.


INDICATIVE.                               SUBJUNCTIVE.

Exhort.

Sg.—hort-ō-r, hortā-ri (-re), hortā-tur,
Pl.—hortā-mur, hortā-mini, hortā-ntur.

Was exhorting.

Sg.—hortā-bā-r, hortā-bā-ri (-re), hortā-bā-tur,
Pl.—hortā-bā-mur, hortā-bā-mini, hortā-bā-ntur,

Shall exhort.

Sg.—hortā-bo-r, hortā-be-ri (-re), hortā-bi-tur,
Pl.—hortā-bi-mur, hortā-bi-mini, hortā-bi-ntur,
### Perfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Have exhorted</td>
<td>hortā-t-us, -a, -um sum, es, est.</td>
<td>hortā-t-i, -ae, -a sumus, estis, sunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfect</td>
<td>hortā-t-us, -a, -um sim, sis, sit.</td>
<td>hortā-t-i, -ae, -a simus, sitis, sint.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Pluperfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Had exhorted</td>
<td>hortā-t-us, -a, -um eram, erās, erat.</td>
<td>hortā-t-i, -ae, -a erāmus, erātis, erant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pluperfect</td>
<td>hortā-t-us, -a, -um essem, essēs, esset.</td>
<td>hortā-t-i, -ae, -a essēmus, essētis, essent.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Future Perfect

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Shall have exhorted</td>
<td>hortā-t-us, -a, -um erō, eris, erit.</td>
<td>hortā-t-i, -ae, -a erimus, eritis, erunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future Perfect</td>
<td>hortā-t-us, -a, -um esse, to be about to exhort.</td>
<td>hortā-t-i, -ae, -a esse, to be about to exhort.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg.</th>
<th>Pl.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hortā-re, exhort thou.</td>
<td>hortā-min, exhort ye.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>hortā-ri, to exhort.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>hortā-tūr-um, am, -um esse, to be about to exhort.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Participles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>hortā-n-s, exhorting.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>hortā-tūr-us, -a, -um, to exhort.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Gerundive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>G.</th>
<th>hortā-nd-us, -a, -um, [one] to be exhorted.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### Gerund

| G. | hortā-nd-i, of exhorting. |
2. Second, Third, Fourth Conjugations.

**Synopsis of verēri, to fear; loquī, to speak; mentirī, to lie.**

Prin. Parts: vere-or, verē-rī, veri-tus sum; loqu-ō-r, loqu-ī, locū-tus sum; menti-or, mentī-rī, mentī-tus sum.

### Indicative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>II.</th>
<th>III.</th>
<th>IV.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>vere-o-r.</td>
<td>loqu-o-r,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vere-ri-s (-re), etc.</td>
<td>loque-ri-s (-re), etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Imperf.</strong></td>
<td>vere-ba-r.</td>
<td>loquē-ba-r.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>vere-bo-r.</td>
<td>loqua-r.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong></td>
<td>veri-t-us sum,</td>
<td>locū-t-us sum,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>veri-t-us eram,</td>
<td>locū-t-us eram,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pluff.</strong></td>
<td>veri-t-us erō.</td>
<td>locū-t-us erō.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Subjunctive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>verea-r.</th>
<th>loqua-r.</th>
<th>menti-a-r,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>verea-ri-s (-re), etc.</td>
<td>loquē-ri-s (-re), etc.</td>
<td>mentiē-ri-s(-re), etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>verea-re-r.</td>
<td>loqua-re-r.</td>
<td>menti-re-r.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>veri-t-us sim.</td>
<td>locū-t-us sim.</td>
<td>menti-t-us sim.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>veri-t-us essum.</td>
<td>locū-t-us essum.</td>
<td>menti-t-us essum.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Imperative

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>vere-re,</th>
<th>loqu-e-re,</th>
<th>menti-re,</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vere-tor.</td>
<td>loqui-tor.</td>
<td>menti-tor.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Infinitive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>vere-ri.</th>
<th>loqu-i.</th>
<th>menti-ri.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>veri-tur-um esse,</td>
<td>locū-tur-um esse,</td>
<td>menti-tur-um esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>veri-tum esse,</td>
<td>locū-tum esse,</td>
<td>menti-tum esse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>veri-tum fore.</td>
<td>locū-tum fore.</td>
<td>menti-tum fore.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Participles

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Fut.</th>
<th>vere-n-s,</th>
<th>loquē-n-s,</th>
<th>mentiē-n-s.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>veri-tur-us,</td>
<td>locū-tur-us,</td>
<td>menti-tur-us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>veri-t-us,</td>
<td>locū-t-us.</td>
<td>menti-t-us.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf</td>
<td>vere-ndi, etc.,</td>
<td>loque-ndi.</td>
<td>menti-ndi,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vere-nd-us,</td>
<td>locū-tur-um esse,</td>
<td>menti-nd-us,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>veri-tum,</td>
<td>locū-tum.</td>
<td>menti-tum,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>veri-tū,</td>
<td>locū-tū.</td>
<td>menti-tū.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Periphrastic Conjugation.

129. The Periphrastic Conjugation arises from the combination of the Future Participle active and the Gerundive with forms of the verb *sum*.

**ACTIVE.**

**INDICATIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>amātūrus (-a, -um) sum,</td>
<td><em>Am about to love.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPF.</td>
<td>amātūrus eram,</td>
<td><em>Was about to love.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>amātūrus erō,</td>
<td><em>Shall be about to love.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERF.</td>
<td>amātūrus fuī,</td>
<td><em>Have been, was, about to love.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLUPF.</td>
<td>amātūrus fueram,</td>
<td><em>Had been about to love.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Perf.</td>
<td>amātūrus fuerō,</td>
<td><em>Shall have been about to love.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**SUBJUNCTIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>amātūrus (-a, -um) sim,</td>
<td><em>Be about to love.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPF.</td>
<td>amātūrus essem,</td>
<td><em>Were about to love.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>amātūrus fuerim,</td>
<td><em>Have, may have, been about to love.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLUPF.</td>
<td>amātūrus fuissem,</td>
<td><em>Had, might have, been about to love.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Perf.</td>
<td>amātūrus fuerō,</td>
<td><em>Shall have been about to love.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>amātūr-um (-am, -um) esse,</td>
<td><em>To be about to love.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERF.</td>
<td>amātūr-um fuisse,</td>
<td><em>To have been about to love.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**PASSIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>amandus (-a, -um) sum,</td>
<td><em>Have to be loved.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IMPF.</td>
<td>amandus eram,</td>
<td><em>Had to be loved.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>amandus erō,</td>
<td><em>Shall have to be loved.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERF.</td>
<td>amandus fuī,</td>
<td><em>Have had to be loved.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PLUPF.</td>
<td>amandus fueram,</td>
<td><em>Had had to be loved.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. Perf.</td>
<td>amandus fuerō,</td>
<td><em>Should have had to be loved.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**INFINITIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Pres.</td>
<td>amandum (-am, -um) esse,</td>
<td><em>To have to be loved.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>PERF.</td>
<td>amandum fuisse,</td>
<td><em>To have had to be loved.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Notes on the Four Conjugations.

130. The Present System.

1. Present Indicative.—(a) In the third person Singular active, early Latin, and occasionally later poets, often retain the original length of vowel in the endings -āt, -ēt, and -it of the first, second, and fourth conjugations. Final -it in the third conjugation is rare, and due, perhaps, to analogy or to metrical necessity. In the first person Plural the ending -mīs is found a few times in poetry. In third person Plural an earlier ending, -onti, is found only in a Carmen Saliare, and is disputed. The ending -ont is frequent in early Latin for -unt.

(b) In the second Singular, passive, in all tenses of the Present stem, the ending -re is much more common in early Latin than -ris, and is regular in Cic. except in the Pr. Indic., where he prefers -ris on account of confusion with Pr. Inf., admitting -re only in deponents, and then but rarely. In general, in the Pr. Indic. -re is rare in the first and second conjugations, more rare in the third, and never found in the fourth, in prose authors. Post-Ciceronian prose writers, e. g., Livy, Tacitus, prefer -ris, even in the other tenses of the Present stem. The poets use -ris or -re to suit the metre.

2. Imperfect Indicative.—In the fourth conjugation, instead of -iūs, we find in early times -i. This is common in early Latin (especially scibam), in the poets to suit the metre, and occasionally in later prose. In the verb eō, and its compounds (but ambire varies), this form was regular always.

3. Future Indicative.—Plautus shows sporadic cases of -it, as erit, vēnībit (vēneō). In the fourth conjugation -ibō for -iam is very common in early Latin (especially scibō), and forms in -ibō of the third conjugation are occasional.

4. Present Subjunctive.—Final -āt of the third person Singular active is occasional in early Latin and also in later poets. In early Latin the active endings -im, -is, -it, -int are found in dare (and some compounds), which forms very often duim, duis, duit, duint. On similar forms from esse, see 116; from edere, see 172.

5. Imperative.—(a) Four verbs, dīcere, dūcere, facere, ferre (171), form the Pr. Impv. active dic, dūc, fac, fer. But in early Latin dice, dūce, face are not uncommon. The compounds follow the usage of the simple verbs, except prepositional compounds of faciō. Scire, to know, lacks the Pr. Impv. scī.

(b) The original ending of the Fut. Impv. active -tōd is found in early inscriptions, but very rarely.

(c) The Pr. Impv. passive (second and third Singular) ends occasionally in early Latin in -minō. Appellāminō (Cic. Leg. III. 3, 8) as third Plur. is a blunder.

6. Present Infinitive Passive.—The early ending -rier (-ier) is very common in early Latin and occasionally in poetry at all periods. Plautus shows about 140 such formations. In literary prose it does not appear till very late.

7. The Present Participle occurs sporadically in early Latin with the ending -ās, -ēs, the n having been omitted owing to its weak sound; see 12, n. 1.

8. The older ending of the Gerund and Gerundive in the third and fourth conjugations was -undus; and -endus was found only after u. In classical times -undus is frequent, especially in verbs of third and fourth conjugations. Later, -endus is the regular form.

131. The Perfect System.

1. Syncopated Forms.—The Perfects in -āvi, -ēvi, -īvi, often drop the v before s or r, and contract the vowels throughout, except those in -īvi, which admit the contraction only before s.

The syncopated forms are found in all periods, and in the poet are used to suit the metre.
## Perfect.

### Sing.

2. amāvisti, amāsti.

3. 

### Plur.

2. amāvistis, amāstis.

3. amāvērant, amārunt.

### Subjv.

amāverim, amārīm, etc.

---

### Indic.

amāveram, amāram, etc.

### Subjv.

amāvissem, amāssem, etc.

---

### Future Perfect.

amāverō, amārō, etc.

### Infinitive Perfect.

amāvisse, amāsse.

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2. In the first and third persons Sing. and in the first person Pl. of the Perfect, syncope occurs regularly only in Perfects in īvi, and no contraction ensues. It is most common in the Perfects of ire (169) and petere. In other verbs this syncope is post-Ciceronian, except in a few forms. So Cicero uses dormit, erudīt, expediti, mollit, cupīt (also Plautus); Caeser, commūnīt, rescīt, quaeśīt. Dēsinere forms desiī and dēsiit, once each in early Latin (Cicero uses dēstīt and dēstitīt instead), and then in post-Augustan Latin; dēsiimus is cited once from Cicero. The unsyncopated forms are always common except those of ire (169), which are very rare in classical prose, but occur more often in the poets for metrical reasons.

Note.—The forms nōmus (Enn. = nōvimus), ēnārrāmus (Ter., Ad., 365), flēmus, mūtāmus, and nārrāmus (Prop.), suēmus (Lucr.), in the Perfect, are sporadic and sometimes doubtful.

3. nōvī, I know, and mōvī, I have moved, are also contracted, in their compounds especially.

Sing.—2. nōstī. Plur.—2. nōstis. 3. nōrunt. Subjv. nōrīm, etc.

Plupf. nōram, etc. Subjv. nōssem, etc. Inf. nōsse.

But the Fut. Perf. nōrō is found only in compounds.

Similar contractions are seen in mōvī, but not so often; iūvi shows also a few cases of syncope in poetry.

4. (a) In the early Latin poets frequently and occasionally in later, syncope takes place in Perfects in -sī. These drop the s and contract. A few cases are found in Cicero, especially in the letters. Examples are dīxī (found also in Ctc and probably an earlier formation, and not by syncope for dīxistī; dūxī, principally in compounds; intellextī (once in Ctc); scripsti; mīsti (mīsistī) and several others; and scriptis.

(b) Akin to these are a number of forms in -sō for Fut. Perfect; -sim for Pf. Subjv, and more rarely -sem for Plupf. Subjv. These forms are most usual in the third conjugation, but are also not unfrequent in the other three; thus,
1. _Future Perfect_: faxo (facere); capsó (capere) and compounds; iüssō (inbere; Verg.); amássō (amare); servássō (servare) and compounds, together with some others.

2. _Perfect Subjunctive_: faxim and compounds; duxim; ausim (audere, also used by Cic.); iüssim; émpsim (emere); locássim (locare); negássim (negare). In the second and third persons Sing., where the Fut. Pf. Indic. and the Pf. Subjv. are identical, the forms are much more common. The plural forms are much less frequent.

3. _Pluperfect Subjunctive_: faxem; prō-míssem; intel-lexēs; re-cēsset and a few other forms; érēpsēmus (Hor., 8., i. 5, 79). These forms are rare.

4. _Infinitive_: dixe; dé-spexé; ad-dúxe; etc.; intel-lexe; dé-trāxe, etc.; ad-vexe; ad-mísse, and a few others. Also the Future forms áveruncássere, reconcili-ássere, impetrássere, oppúgnássere.

The exact origin of these forms is still a matter of dispute, but the common view is that they are aoristic formations.

5. From the earliest times the third Plural of the Pf. Indic. active shows two endings, -éront (later -érunt) and -ére. The form in -érunt was always preferred, and in classical prose is the normal form. The form in -érē seems to have been the popular form, and is much liked by Livy and later writers. Tacitus seems to have preferred -érunt for the Pure Perfect, and -ére for the Historical Perfect. The poets seem, according to the exigencies of the metre, at all periods also -érunt.

6. In regard to the other endings, we have to notice in early Latin -is occasionally in the Pf. Subjv. and Fut. Pf. Indic. active; Perfects in -if are always written with -ief- on inscriptions; in other Perfects the third person Singular in -īt (older -ēt), or -it; as dedet; occasionally the first person ends in -ēī and the second in -istēi. Peculiar forms are dedrot (dedro), (for dederunt), fecēd (for fecit), and a few others.

**THE STEM.**

132. With the exception of the verbs _sum_, _I am_, _edo_, _I eat_, _eo_, _I go_, _ferō_, _I bear_, _volō_, _I wish_ (perhaps _dō_, _I give_), and their compounds, most of whose forms come directly from the root, all verbs in Latin form their stems from the root by the addition of a vowel or of a combination of a vowel with a consonant. This vowel is called the _thematic_ vowel; see 190.

In the first, second, and fourth conjugations, and in some verbs of the third conjugation, the stem thus formed is found throughout the whole conjugation; in other verbs the present stem shows different forms from the other stems.

1. **THE PRESENT STEM.**

133. I. _The Stem or Thematic class_: To this class belong those verbs whose stems are formed by the addition of a thematic vowel (usually i, sometimes u) to the root, as in the third conjugation, or to a stem formed by the addition of a, ē, or i to the root, as in the first, second, and fourth conjugations. The stem thus formed is seen (with lengthened vowel sometimes) in all forms of the verb. To this class belong verbs of the first, second, and fourth conjugations, and in the
third (a) verbs formed from a strong root, i.e., verbs with i, ü, ò, ø, ae, au; and with e in the stem: as dicō (= deicō), dúcō (= doucō), rādō, cēdō, rōdō, caedō, plaudō; vehō, vergō, pendō, etc.: (b) verbs formed from a weak root, i.e., those with vowel i, ü, ø, and probably those with ä: as di-vidō, furō, olō (olere), ago.

II. The Reduplicated class: The Present stem is formed by reduplication, with i in the reduplicated syllable:

gen-, gi-gnō (for gi-gnōs), gi-gne-re, to beget; sta-, si-stō, si-stere, to set, stand. Compare stāre, to stand. Other forms, as sidō (for si-s-e(d)o), serō (for si-so), and perhaps bibō, have the Reduplication concealed.

III. The T class: The root, which usually ends in a guttural, is strengthened by to, te: flectō (flec-t-), flecte-re, to bend.

IV. The Nasal class: In this class the root is strengthened by no, ne, the nasal being inserted

A. In vowel-stems: sinō (si-), sine-re, to let; linō (li-), line-re, to besmear.

B. After the characteristic liquid: cernō (cer-), cerne-re, to sift, separate; temnō (tem-), temne-re, to scorn.

Notes.—1. After l assimilation takes place: pelō (for pel-nō), pelle-re, to drive.

2. In a few verbs the strengthened forms (-no after a vowel, -ino after a liquid) are confined mainly to the third person Plural active of the Present, and are found not later than the sixth century of the city: danunt (= dant), explēnunt (= explicant), nequīnunt (= nequient), and a few others.

C. Before the characteristic mute: vincō (vic-), vince-re, to conquer; frangō (frag-), frange-re, to break; fundō (fund-), funde-re, to pour.

Before a p-mute n becomes m: rumpō (rup-), rumpe-re, to rend; cumbō (cum-), cumbe-re, to lie down.

D. Here belong also those verbs in which the root is strengthened by -nuō, nue; as sternuō (ster-), sternue-re, to sneeze.

Note.—In verbs like tinguō, I soak, the consonantal u disappears before a consonant in the Pf. and Supine: tinxī, tinc-tum.

V. The Inchoative class: The Present stem has the suffix -sco, -sce.

irā-scō, I am in a rage; crē-scō, I grow; ob-dormi-scō, I fall asleep; api-scō, I reach: pro-ficī-scō, I set out; nanci-scō (nacc-), I get; nō-scō (= gnō-scō), I become acquainted; pō-scō (= porc-scō), I demand; mis-ceō (= mic-sc-eō), I mix: discō (= di-dc-scō), I learn. A number of Inchoatives are derivative formations from substantives; as, lappidēscō (from lapis), I become stone.

VI. The I class: Instead of the simple thematic vowel i the root is increased by the form ie. In some forms of the Present stem, i.e., the Pr. Inf., Impf. Subjv., second Sing., Pr. Impv., this appears in the form e; in some other forms it appears as i: capi-ō (cap-), cape-re, to take.
Note.—Verbs of the fourth conjugation also belong to the i class; but for convenience the i class is here restricted as above.

VII. The Mixed class: Some verbs that originally belong to the i-class have gone over in the Present stem to the forms of the stem class: as venīō (VEN-), venī-re, to come; videō (VID-), vidē-re, to see; sonō (SON-), sonā-re, to sound.

II. THE PERFECT STEM.

134. I. Perfect in -vi (or -ui): These are formed by the addition

(a) Of -vi to the stem as it appears in the Present Inf. in combination with the thematic vowel. To this class belong the Perfects of the first and fourth conjugations, and the few verbs of the second conjugation mentioned in 124; amā-re, amā-vi; audi-re, audi-vi; delē-re, delē-vi.

(b) Of -ui to the Present stem after its characteristic vowel is dropped. Here belong the majority of the verbs of the second conjugation; monē-re, mon-ui.

II. Perfect in -si: These are formed by the addition of -si to the root; which is, as a rule, long either by nature or position. This class comprises a large number of verbs in the third conjugation in which the stem-characteristic consonant is a mute; three in which it is -m (preme-re, to press; sūme-re, to take; con-tem(m)e-re, to scorn); and a few in which it is -s, as ūr-ō, I burn, ūs-si; haerēō, I stick. haesi (= haes-si).

Examples are rēpō, I creep, rēp-si; scribō, I write, scrip-si; dicō, I say, dixi (= die-si); carpō, I pluck, carp-si; rādō, I scrape. rāsi (= rād-si).

Note.—But verbs in -ndō, take i in the Perfect: dēfend-ī, I strike (ward) off, dēfend-i; perhaps because they formed originally a reduplicated perfect; as, mandō, I chew, mandi-dī; so (se)fendī, I have struck.

III. Reduplicated Perfects: These are formed by prefixing to the unstrengthened root its first consonant (or consonantal combination) together with the following vowel, a and ae being weakened to e, or, if the root began with a vowel, by prefixing e, and adding the termination -i. In Latin but few of these forms remain, and they have been variously modified: discō, I learn, di-dici; spondeō, I pledge. spo(s)pondi; tangō, I touch, te-ti-gi; tundō, I strike. tu tud-i; ago, I act, ēgi (= e-ag-i): emo, I buy, ēmi (= e-em-i).

In composition the reduplication is in many cases dropped: so always in compounds of cade-re, to fall; caede-re, to fell; cane-re, to sing; falle-re, to deceive; pange-re, to fix; parce-re, to spare; pare-re, to bear; pendē-re, to hang; punge-re, to prick; tange-re, to touch; tende-re, to stretch (occasionally retained in late Latin); tondē-re, to shear (but occasionally retained in late Latin); tunde-re, to strike. Disce-re, to learn, always retains it, and so posce-re, to demand, and admordere, to bite. Of compounds of curre-re, to run, succurrere always
drops the reduplication, praecurrere always retains it: the others vary. Of compounds of dare, abscondere usually drops it, but all trisyllabic compounds that change the a, and all quadrissyllabic compounds, retain it. Compounds of sistere, to set, and stâre, to stand, retain it.

IV. Perfect in i. Verbs of the third conjugation, with a short stem-syllable, take i in the Perfect, after lengthening the stem-syllable and changing a into e. In many cases these Perfects are the remains of reduplicated forms: legō, I read, lég-i; videō, I see, vid-i; fodī-ō, I stab, fōd-i; fugī-ō, I flee. fug-i; frang-ō, I break, frēg-i.

V. Denominative verbs in -ūō, like acuō, I sharpen; metuō, I fear; also sternuō, I sneeze, form the Perfect in -ū-i after the analogy of primary verbs, and the formation in -ui gradually extended in Latin.

III. THE SUPINE STEM.

135. I. Supine in -tum, Perfect Passive Participle in -tus: The stems are formed by the addition of -tu or -to.

(a) To the stem as it appears in the Present Infinitive active. Here belong most verbs of the first and fourth conjugations, and those verbs of the second conjugation that are mentioned in 124: amā-tum, dēlē-tum, audī-tum. Those verbs of the second conjugation which form Perfect in -ui, form the Supine stem by weakening the thematic vowel e to i, and adding -tu, -to, except cēnsē-re, to deem, docē-re, to teach, miscē-re, to mix, tenē-re, to hold, torrē-re, to scorch, which omit the thematic vowel, and form cēnsum, doctum, mixtum, (tentum), tōstum.

(b) To the unstrengthened stem. Here belong most verbs of the third conjugation and the five verbs of the second just given, with sporadic forms in the other conjugations: cap-tum (capiō, I take), rép-tum (répō, I creep), dic-tum (dicō, I say), fac-tum (faciō, I do).

In combinations of -t with a dental, assimilation took place, giving usually ss after a short vowel and s after a long vowel: scissum (scindō, I cleave), caesium (caedō, I fell). On the analogy of this and under the influence often of Perfect in -si, we find -s also in some other stems:

1. In stems with a guttural characteristic; as, fīx-um (figō, I fix); often with a preceding liquid: mersum (mergō, I dip; Pf. mersi); tersum (tergeō, I wipe; Pf. tersi); parsum (parcō, I spare; Pf. parsi, old); spar-sum (spargō, I sprinkle; Pf. sparsi); mul-sum (mulgeō, I milk; Pf. mul-si); but far-tum (farcio, I stuff; Pf. farsi); tortum (torqueō, I twist; Pf. torti); indul-tum (rare and post-classical, from indulgeō, Indulge; Pf. indulsi).

2. In one with a labial characteristic: lāp-sum (labor, I slip).

3. In some stems with characteristic s; as, cēnsum (cēnseō, I deem; see I. a.); haesum (haereō, I stick); pinsum (pinsō, I pound).

4. In some stems with a nasal characteristic: pressum (premō, I press; Pf. pressi); mānsum (maneō, I remain; Pf. mānsi).

5. In stems where ll, rr has arisen by assimilation: pulsum (pellō, I drive); falsum (fallō, I falsify); vulsum (vellō, I pluck); cursum (currō, I run); versum (verrō, I sweep).
II. Future Active Participle in -tūrus.—The same changes occur in the stem as are found in the case of the Supine.

1. In some stems ending in -u a thematic vowel i is inserted; as arguītūrus (arguere, to prove); luitūrus (luere, to loose); abnuītūrus (abnuere, to deny); ruitūrus (ruere, to rush); ēruitūrus (ēruere, to root out); fruitūrus (fui, to enjoy).

2. Some Future Participles are found without corresponding Perfect: calītūrus (calere, to be warm); carītūrus (care, to lack); dolītūrus (dolere, to grieve); iaciūtūrus (iacere, to lie); pārītūrus (pāere, to obey); valītūrus (valere, to be well).

3. Irregular are: ānōtūrus, ānitūrus (agnoscere, to know well); discītūrus (discere, to learn); haustūrus, haustūrus (haūrire, to drain); nītūrus (nūtī, to lean); morītūrus (morī, to die); nōscītūrus (noscere, to know); orītūrus (orīri, to arise); parītūrus (parere, to bear).

Change of Conjugation.

136. A change of Conjugation occurs in verbs which show a long thematic vowel in the Present stem, but not in the Perfect stem, or the reverse.

1. Verbs with Perfect and Supine formed regularly, according to the third conjugation, have the Present stem formed according to one of the other three:

\[
\begin{array}{llllll}
\text{auge-ō,} & \text{augē-re,} & \text{aux-i,} & \text{auc-tum,} & \text{to increase.} \\
\text{senti-ō,} & \text{senti-re,} & \text{sēn-si,} & \text{sēn-sum,} & \text{to feel.} \\
\text{saepī-ō,} & \text{saepi-re,} & \text{saep-si,} & \text{saep-tum,} & \text{to hedge about.} \\
\text{venī-ō,} & \text{veni-re,} & \text{vēn-i,} & \text{ven-tum,} & \text{to come.} \\
\text{vide-ō,} & \text{vidē-re,} & \text{vidī-i,} & \text{vid-sum,} & \text{to see.} \\
\text{vincī-ō,} & \text{vinci-re,} & \text{vinx-i,} & \text{vinc-tum,} & \text{to bind.} \\
\end{array}
\]

2. Verbs with Perfect and Supine formed according to the first, second, or fourth conjugations, have the Present stem formed according to the third, in consequence of strengthening:

\[
\begin{array}{llllll}
\text{ster-n-ō,} & \text{ster-ne-re,} & \text{strā-vī,} & \text{strā-tum,} & \text{to strew.} \\
\text{crē-sc-ō,} & \text{crē-sce-re,} & \text{crē-vī,} & \text{crē-tum,} & \text{to grow.} \\
\text{li-n-ō,} & \text{line-re,} & \text{lē-vī lē-vī,} & \text{lī-tum,} & \text{to smear.} \\
\end{array}
\]

3. Verbs with the Present formed regularly according to the third conjugation, have the Perfect and Supine formed according to (a) the second, or (b) the fourth conjugation:

(a) accumbere, to recline; fremere, to rage; gemere, to groan; gignere, to beget; molere, to grind; strepere, to resound; vomere, to vomit, form Perfect in -ui, Supine in -tum.

alere, to nourish; colere, to cultivate; consulere, to consult; fremere, to show the teeth; succulere, to conceal; raperere, to snatch, and its compounds form Perfect in -ui, Supine in -tum (-sum). For ali-tus, see 142, 3.
compēscere, to check, con-cinere, to sing together, and other compounds of canere, to sing, excellere, to excel, stertere, to snore, tremere, to tremble, form Perfect in -ui, but no Supine.

(b) arcessere, to summon, incessere, to enter, cupere, to desire, petere, to seek, quaerere, to search, and its compounds, rudere, to roar, sapere, to savour, form Perfect in -ivi, Supine in -itum.

4. Stems vary among the first, second, and fourth conjugations.

(a) Verbs with the Present formed according to the first, and Perfect and Supine according to the second conjugation:
crepare, to crackle, cubare, to lie, domare, to conquer, micare, to flash, plicare, to fold, sonare, to sound, tonare, to thunder, vetare, to forbid, with Perfect in -ui, Supine in -itum:
ficire, to rub, necare, to kill, secare, to cut, with Perfect in -ui, Supine in -itum (but participles in atus are occasional, principally in later Latin).

(b) Verbs with Present formed according to fourth, and Perfect and Supine according to the second: amicire, to wrap, aperire, to open, operire, to cover, salire, to leap, and compounds.

(c) Of the second and fourth conjugations is cie-o (ci-o), ciē-re (ci-re), civi, citum (ci-tum), to stir up, and its compounds; while pōtō, pōtāre, to drink, forms Sup. pō-tum or pō-tātum, and Fut. Part. pō-tūrus or pōtā-tūrūs.

5. dare, to give, and stāre, to stand, pass over to the third conjugation in the Perfect, in consequence of reduplication.

LIST OF VERBS ACCORDING TO THE PERFECT FORM.

PERFECT: -vi; SUPINE: -itum.

137. Stem class:

(a) Verbs of first and fourth conjugations, except those mentioned in 136, 4. Irregular in Supine is

sepeli-ō, sepeli-re, sepeli-vi, sepul-tum, to bury.

(b) In the second conjugation:
dēlē-ō, dēlē-re, dēlē-vi, dēlē-tum, to destroy.
fle-ō, fle-re, fle-vi, fle-tum, to weep.
ne-ō, ne-re, ne-vi, ne-tum, to spin.
-ole-ō (ab-, in-), -ole-re, -ole-vi,
These compounds form Supine in itum; abolitum, inolitus.

-pleō, -pē-re, pē-vi, pē-tum, to fill.

So the compounds with com-, in-, ex-, re-, sup-.

vie-ō, vie-re, vie-tus, to plait.

Irregular is

cie-ō (ci-ō), ciē-re (ci-re), ci-vi, ci-tum (ci-tum), to stir up.

In the compounds we find the Participles concitus or concitus, percitus, excitus or excitus, but accitus.
(c) In the third conjugation:

arcess-ō, arcessē re, arcessi vi, arcessī-tum, to send for.

So, too, lacess-ō, I tease, capess-ō, I lay hold of. In early Latin we often find accersō, the relation of which to arcessō is variously explained. The forms arcessirī, and later arcessirētur, from the fourth conjugation, also occur.

in-cess-ō, in-cesse-re, in-cessī-vi (cessi), to attack.

So facess-ō, I cause, make off.

pet-ō, pete-re, peti-vi, peti-tum, to seek (fly at).

quaer-ō, quaere re, quaesi-vi, quaesi-tum, to seek.

con quir-ō, con-quire-re, conquisi-vi, conquisi-tum, to hunt up.

So other compounds of -quirō (quaerō).

rud-ō, rude-re, rudi-vi, rudi-tum, to roar.

ter-ō, tere-re, tri-vi, tri-tum, to rub.

138. Reduplicated class:

ser-ō, sere-re, sē-vi, sa-tum, to sow.

So cōnserō, but with Sup. cōn-situm.

139. Nasal class:

A. li-n-ō, li-ne-re, lē-vi, li-tum, to besmear.

So compounds of linō. Pf. li-ī is rare.

si-n-ō, si-ne-re, si-vi, si-tum, to let.

So dē-sinō, I leave off, and in early Latin, pōnō (= po-sinō), I put.

B. cer-n-ō, cer-ne-re, crē-vi, (crē-tum), to separate.

So dēcernō, I decide.

sper-n-ō, sper-ne-re, sprē-vi, sprē-tum, to despise.

ster-n-ō, ster-ne-re, strā-vi, strā-tum, to strew.

140. Inchoative class:

inveterā-sc-ō, inveterā-sce-re, inveterā-vi, inveterā-tum, to grow old.

pā-sc-ō, pā-sce-re, pā-vi, pās-tum, to graze (trans.).

vesperā-sc-ō, vesperā-sce-re, vesperā-vi, — to become evening.

So advesperāscō.

cre-sc-ō, crē-sce-re, crē-vi, crē-tum, to grow.

So the compounds.

con-cupi-sc-ō, -cupi-sce-re, -cupi-vi, -cupī tūm, to long for.

ob-dormi-sc-ō, -dormi-sce-re, -dormi-vi, -dormī-tum, to fall asleep.

So condormīscō, ēdormīscō.

ex-olē-sc-ō, -olē-sce-re, -olē-vi, -olē-tum, to get one’s growth.

So ob-solēscō, I grow old. But ab-olēscō, I disappear, has abolītum; co-olēscō, I grow together, co-alītum; ad-olēscō, I grow up, ad-ulītum in the Sup; and inolēscō lacks the Supine.

quiē-sc-ō, quiē-sce-re, quiē-vi, quiē-tum, to rest.

sci-sc-ō, sci-sce-re, sci-vi, sci-tum, to decree.

So ad-sciscō, I take on.
su-esc-o, suë-sce-re, suë-vi, suë-tum, to accustom one’s self.

So compounds as-, con-, dë-, man-.

(g’nó-sc-ó, nó-sce-re, nó-vi, (nó-tum), to know.

So ignóscó, I pardon; but có-gnóscó, I recognize, and other compounds of nóscó, have Sup. in -itum.

re-sip-isc-ó, -sipi-sce-re, -sipi-vi, — to come to one’s senses.

141. I-class:
cupi-ó, cupe-re, cupi-vi, cupi-tum, to desire.
sapi-ó, sape-re, sapi-vi (-ui), — to have a flavor.

PERFECT: -ui; SUPINE: -itum.

142. Stem class:

1. The majority of the verbs of the second conjugation; see 134, I, b, and 135, a. But
sorbe-ó, sorbē-re, sorb-ui, — to sup up.
Pf. sorp-si occurs in Val. Max. and Lucan.

2. Of the first conjugation:
crep-ó, crepā-re, crep-ui, crepi-tum, to rattle.

So the compounds, but in early and late Latin the regular forms of dis-crepāre and in-crepāre are occasional.
cub-ó, cubā-re, cub-ui, cubi-tum, to lie.

Occasional regular forms in post-Ciceronian Latin.
dom-ó, domā-re, dom-ui, domi-tum, to tame.

fric-ó, fricā-re, fric-ui, fric-tum (-ā-tum), to rub.

Occasionally in early and more often in post-classical Latin, the regular forms are found in the compounds; so always -fricā-tūrus.
mic-ó, micā re, mic-ui, — to quiver, flash.

But di-micāre, to fight (out), is regular, except occasionally in Ovid.

nec-ó, necā re, necā-vi (nec ui rare), necā-tum, to kill.

The compound ēnecā-re, to kill off, has ēnecāvi in early Latin, otherwise ēnecūf (rare); and ēnectus (but Plin. Mai., ēnecātus).
plic-ó, plicā-re, (plicā vi), plici-tum, to fold.

The simple forms of plicāre are rare. The compounds ap-, com-, ex-, im-, vary between -āvi and -ui in the Pf., and -ātum and -itum in the Sup.; but Cicero uses always applicāvi, applicātum; complicāvi, complicātum; and usually explicāvi, always explicātum; always implicātum; circumplicāre is always regular; forms of replicāre are rare.

sec-ó, secā-re, sec-ui, sec-tum, to cut.

Regular forms are early, late, and rare.

son-ó, sonā-re, son-ui, soni-tum, to sound.

But regularly sonātūrus. Regular forms are late. In early Latin the forms sonere, sonit, sonunt, resonit, resonunt, show that the simple verb was sonere.
ton-ó, tonā-re, ton-ui, — to thunder.

But at-tonitus and intonātus (Hor., Epop. 2, 51).
ACCORDING TO THE PERFECT FORM.

vet-ō, vetā-re, vet-ui, veti-tum, to forbid.
But Persius (5, 90) uses vetā-vi.

3. Of the third conjugation:

frem-ō, fremere, frem-ui, frem-tum, to roar, rage.
gem-ō, gemere, gem-ui, — to groan.
vom-ō, vome-re, vom-ui, vomi-tum, to vomit.
al-ō, ale-re, al-ui, al-tum, to nourish.

Participle ali-tus occurs from Livy on.
col-ō, cole-re, col-ui, cul-tum, to cultivate.
con-cin-ō, -cine-re, -cin-ui, to sing together.

So occinere, praecinere.
deps-ō, depse-re, deps-ui, deps-tus, to knead.

mol-ō, mole-re, mol-ui, moli-tum, to grind.
occul-ō, occule-re, occul-ui, occul-tum, to conceal.
pins-ō, pinsre, pins-ui, pinsi-tum, to pound.

Sup. also pinsum, pistum. Collateral forms of pisō, pisere, are early and rare; so also is pinsibant.

ser-ō, sere-re, — (ser-tum), to string (out).
Common in compounds: as. dēserō, dēserere, dēseruī, dēsertum, to desert.
The same forms are found occasionally in compounds of serere, to sow (138), but not in classical Latin.
stert-ō, sterte-re, stert-ui, — to snore.
strep-ō, strepe-re, strep-ui, (strep-ti-tum), to make a din.
tex-ō, texe-re, tex-ui, tex-tum, to weave.

Irregular are

met-ō, mete-re, mess-ui, mes-sum, to move.
vol-ō, vel-le, vol-ui, — to wish.

So nōlō, mālō; see 174.

4. In the fourth conjugation:

amici-ō, amici-re, amici-ui (amixi), amici-tum, to clothe.
aperi-ō, aperi-re, aperi-ui, aper-tum, to open.
operi-ō, operi-re, oper-ui, oper-tum, to cover up.
sali-ō, sali-re, sal-ui, sal-tum, to leap.

The regular Perfects salvi, sali, are found in compounds, but usually in post-classical writers, and often syncopated.

143. Reduplicated class:

gi-gn-ō (gen-), gi-gne-re, gen-ui, geni-tum, to beget.
Early Latin has the Present forms genit, genunt, genat, genitur, genuntur, genendi, geni.
144. Nasal class:

frend-ō, frende-re, — frē-sum, frēs-sum, to gnash.
Also in the form frende-ō, frendē-re.

ac-cumb-ō, -cumbe-re, cub-ui, cubi-tum, to lie down.
So also the compounds con-, dis-, in-; but re-cumbō lacks the Supine.

ex-cell-ō, -celle-re, (cell-ui), (cel-sus), to surpass.
But per-cellere, to beat down, has Pf. per-culi, Sup. per-culsum. Excelluērunt
is found in Gell. xiv. 3, 7, and in Augustine; otherwise forms of Pf. and Sup. do
not occur.

145. The Inchoative class:

dispēsc-ō, dispēsc-e-re, dispēsc-ui, — to let loose.
So compēscere, to check.

A large number of verbs are formed from verbs of the second
conjugation, or from substantives or adjectives, and take Pf. in -ui; as.

co-alēsc-ō, alēsc-e-re, al-ui, ali-tum, to grow together.
See 140.

ē-vānēsc-ō, vānēsc-e-re, vān-ui, — to disappear.
con-valēsc-ō, valēsc-e-re, val-ui, vali-tum, to get well.
in-gemisc-ō, gemisc-e-re, gem-ui, — to sigh.
nōtēsc-ō, nōtēsc-e-re, nōt-ui, — to become known.
incalēsc-ō, incalēsc-e-re, incal-ui, — to get warm.

146. The I-class:

rapi-ō, rape-re, rap-ui, rap-tum, to snatch.
cor-ripiō, ripē-re, rip-ui, rep-tum, to seize.

So other compounds. In early Latin, surripere syncopates some of its forms, as
surpuit, surpere; surpuerat occurs in Hon.; aoristic forms, as rapsit, surrepsit,
belong also to the early period. 131, 4, b. 2.

PERFECT: -sī; SUPINE: -tum, -sum.

147. Stem class:

I. In the second conjugation:

iube-ō, iubē-re, iūs-sī, iūs-sum, to order.
On sorbeō see 142, 1.

ārde-ō, ārdē-re, ār-sī, ār-sum, to be on fire.
ride-ō, rīdē-re, rī-sī, rī-sum, to laugh (at).
haere-ō, haerē-re, hae-sī, (hae-sum), to stick (to).
mane-ō, manē-re, mān-sī, mān-sum, to remain.
suāde-ō, suādē-re, suā-sī, suā-sum, to counsel.

With dental dropped before ending of Pf. and Supine.

auge-ō, augē-re, auxi, auc-tum, to cause to wax.
frige-ō, frigē-re, (frīxī), — to be chilled.
lūce-ō, lūcē-re, lūxi, — to give light.
According to the perfect form.

In early Latin, forms of the third conjugation occur: **fulgit, fulgere, effulgere** (Verg., A, viii. 677).

**Indulge-o, indulgē-re, indul-sī, (indul-tum), to give way.**

**Mule-o, mulcē-re, mulc-sī, mulc-sum, to stroke.**

Rarely **mulc-tus** in compounds.

**Mulgē-o, mulgē-re, mulc-sī, mulc-sum(ctum), to milk.**

**Tergē-o, tergē-re, terc-sī, terc-sum, to wipe.**

Forms of the third conjugation: **tergīt, tergitus, terguntur**, are occasionally found; and so too in some late compounds. **Varro** has **tērtus**.

**Torque-o, torquē-re, torc-sī, torc-tum, to twist.**

**Turge-o, turge-re, turc-sī, turc-sum, to swell.**

**Urge-o, urge-re, urc-sī, — to press.**

**Cō-nīve-o(guīgro), -nīve-re, -nīxī (īvī), — to close the eyes.**

2. In the Third conjugation:

**Carpo-o, carpe-re, carp-sī, carp-tum, to pluck.**

**Dé-cerp-o, dé-cerpe-re, dé-cerp-sī, dé-cerp-tum, to pluck off.**

**Clepo-o, clepe-re, clep-sī (clēp-i), clep-tum, to filch.**

Rare and ante-classic.

**Nūb-o, nūbe-re, nūp-sī, nūp-tum, to put on a veil (as a bride).**

**Rēp-o, rēpe-re, rēp-sī, rēp-tum, to creep.**

**Scalp-o, scalpe-re, scalp-sī, scalp-tum, to scrape.**

**Scrib-o, scribe-re, scrip-sī, scrip-tum, to write.**

**Sculp-o, sculpe-re, sculp-sī, sculp-tum, to chisel.**

**Serp-o, serpe-re, serp-sī, serp-tum, to creep.**

**Prem-o (-primō), preme-re, pres-sī, pres-sum, to press.**

Some compounds of **emo, I take, buy**, have Pf. in -si, Sup. in -tum, before which a euphonic p develops:

**Cōm-o, cōme-re, cōm-p-sī, cōm-p-tum, to adorn.**

**Dēm-o, dēme-re, dēm-p-sī, dēm-p-tum, to take away.**

**Prōm-o, prōme-re, prōm-p-sī, prōm-p-tum, to take out.**

**Sūm-o, sūme-re, sūm-p-sī, sūm-p-tum, to take.**

(On **contenn-o** see 149, c.

**Dic-o, dice-re, dixī (dic-sī), dic-tum, to say.**


**Dūc-o, dūce-re, düxi, duc-tum, to lead.**

Imperative **düc**, see 130, 5.

**Fig-o, figure-re, fixi, fixum, to fusten.**

Part. **fectus** for **fixus** is occasional in early Latin.

**Fīgl-ō (con-, af-, in-), -figē-re, -fixi, -fīc-tum, to strike.**

Simple verb is found occasionally in early Latin.

**Frīg-o, frige-re, frixi, fric-tum, to parch.**
LIST OF VERBS

sūg-ō, sugē-re, sūxi, sūc-tum, to suck.
   Fut. exsugebō is found in Plaut., Ep. 188.

merg-ō, merge-re, mer-si, mer-sum, to plunge.

sparg-ō, sparge-re, spar-si, spar-sum, to strew.

çon-sperg-ō, con-sperge-re, con-sper-si, con-sper-sum, to besprinkle.

cou-ō, coque-re, coxī, coc-tum, to cook.

[-lig-ō (leg-), -lige-re, -lēxi, -lēc-tum.]

dī-lig-ō, dī-lige-re, dī-lēxi, dīlēc-tum, to love.

intelligō, intellege-re, intel-lēxi, intel-lēc-tum, to understand.

negligō, or

neg-leg-ō, neg-lege-re, neg-lēxi, neg-lēc-tum, to neglect.

Other compounds have légī. Sall., J. 40, 1, has neglōgisset.

reg-ō, rege-re, réxi, réc-tum, to keep right.

dī-rig-ō, dī-rire-re, dī-rēxi, dī-rēc-tum, to guide.

per-g-ō, per-ge-re, per-rēxi, per-rēc-tum, to go on.

sur-g-ō, sur-ge-re, sur-rēxi, sur-rēc-tum, to rise up.

But ex pergō formed expergitus in early and late Latin.

teg-ō, tege-re, téxi, téc-tum, to cover.

claud-ō, claud-e-re, clau-si, clau-sum, to shut.

con-, ex-clūd-ō, ex-clūde-re, ex-clū-si, ex-clū-sum, to shut up, out.

Early Latin shows also clūdō, clūdere.

laed-ō, laede-re, lae-si, lae-sum, to harm.


lūd-ō, lūde-re, lū-si, lū-sum, to play.

plaud-ō (ap-plaud-ō), plau-de-re, plau-si, plau-sum, to clap.

ex-plōd-ō, ex-plōde-re, ex-plō-si, ex-plō-sum, to hoot oft. to hoot.

rād-ō, rāde-re, rā-si, rā-sum, to scratch.

rōd-ō, rōde-re, rō-si, rō-sum, to gnaw.

trūd-ō, trūde-re, trū-si, trū-sum, to push.

vād-ō (in-, ē-), -vāde-re, -vā-si, -vā-sum, to go.

cēd-ō, cēde-re, cēs-si, cēs-sum, to give way.

quati-ō, quate-re, (quas-si), quas-sum, to shake.

con-cutiō (per-, ex-), con-cutre-re, con-cus-si, con-cus-sum, to shatter.

mitt-ō, mitte-re, mi-si, mis-sum, to send.

dī-vid-ō, dī-vide-re, dī-vi-si, dī-vi-sum, to part.

ür-ō, ūre-re, ūs-si, ūs-sum, to burn.

com-bür-ō, com-bure-re, com-būs-si, com-būs-sum, to burn up.

ger-ō, gere-re, ges-si, ges-sum, to carry.

flu-ō (flugv-), flue-re, fluī, (flux-us), to flow.

stru-ō (strugv-), strue-re, struī, strūc-tum, to build.

trah-ō (tragh-), trahē-re, trāxī, trāc-tum, to drag.

veh-ō (vegh), vehe-re, vexī, vec-tum, to carry.

vīv-ō (vīgv-), vīve-re, vīxī, vic-tum, to live.
148. The T-class:

flect-ō, flect-ē, flexī, flexum, to bend.
nect-ō, nect-ē, nēxī (nexuī), nēxum, to knot.


pect-ō, pect-ē, pexī, pexum, to comb.
plect-ō, plect-ē, plexī, plexum, to plait.

149. The Nasal class:

(a) Supine without N:

fing-ō, fing-ē, finxī, fic-tum, to form.
ming-ō, ming-ē, minxī, mic-tum, to urinate.
ping-ō, ping-ē, pinxī, pic-tum, to paint.
string-ō, string-ē, strinxī, stric-tum, to draw tight.

(b) Supine with N:

ang-ō, ange-ē, anxī, — to throttle, vex.
cing-ō, cinge-ē, cinxī, cinc-tum, to gird.
ē-mung-ō, ē-munge-ē, ē-munxī, ē-munc-tum, to wipe the nose.
iung-ō, iunge-ē, īunxī, īunc-tum, to yoke, join.
ling-ō, linge-ē, linxī, line-tum, to lick.
ning-ō, ninge-ē, ninxī, — to snow.
pang-ō, pange-ē, panxī, pango-tum, to drive in.

Perfect also pēgī, and Supine pāc-tum. Compare 155 and pāciscor, 163.

plang-ō, plange-ē, planxī, planc-tum, to smile.
-stingu-ō, -stingu-ē, -stinxī, -stinc-tum, to put out.

So the compounds ex-, dis-, re-; the simple verb is ante-classic.

ting-ō (tingu-ō), ting(u)e-ē, tinxī, tinc-tum, to wet, dye.
ung-ō (ungu-ō), ung(u)e-ē, ūnxī, ūnc-tum, to anoint.

(c) tem-n-ō (rare) and its compounds form the Pf. with a euphonic p:

con-tem-n-ō, -temne-re, -tem- p-sī, -tem-p-tum, to despise.

150. The I-class:

1. In the third conjugation:

[-lici-ō (LAC), lice-re, -lexī, -lec-tum], to lure.
pel-lici-ō, pel-lice-re, pel-lexī, pel-lec-tum, to allure.

So allicere, illicere, which, however, have early Pf. in -ui, as does pellicere also
But ē-līcere has -ui regularly in classical times, and ē-lexī only later.

[-spici-ō (SPE), -spice-re, -spexī, -spec-tum], to peer.
per-spici-ō, per-spice-re, per-spexī, per-spec-tum, to see through.

So the compounds with ad-, con-, dē-, in-.
2. In the fourth conjugation:

saepi-ō, saepi-re, saep-si, saep-tum, to hedge in.
sanci-ō, sanci-re, sānxi, sānctum, to hallow.

The Sup. sanci-tum is rare.

vinci-ō, Vinci-re, vinxī, vinc-tum, to bind.
farcī-ō (-ferci-ō), farci-re, far-si, far-tum, to stuff.
fulci-ō, fulci-re, ful-si, ful-tum, to prop.
sarci-ō, sarci-re, sar-si, sar-tum, to patch.
sentī-ō, senti-re, sēn-si, sēn-sum, to feel.
hauri-ō, hauri-re, han-si, hauns-tum, to drain.

Verg., A. iv, 386, has hausūrus. Early Latin shows hauribant (Lucr.) and hauriērin; hauriīrus is very late.

rauci-ō, rau-ci-re, rau-si, rau-sum, to be hoarse.

This verb is very rare.

PERFECT: -I WITH REDUPLICATION; SUPINE: -sum, -tum.

151. In the first conjugation:

1. dō, da-re, ded-i, da-tum, to give, put, do.
   Everywhere ā, except in dās, thou givest, and dā, give thou.

1. Like dō, are conjugated the compounds with dissyllabic words, such as: circum-
dō, circum-da-re, circum-da-tum, to surround.

2. The compounds of da-re with monosyllabic words pass over wholly into the
   Third Conjugation.

ab-dō, ab-de-re, ab-did-i, ab-ditum, to put away.
ad-dō, ad-de-re, ad-did-i, ad-ditum, to put to.
con-dō, con-de-re, con-did-i, con-ditum, to put up (sound).
abs-con-dō, abs-con-de-re, abs-con-did-i, abs-con-ditum, to put far away.

Pf. abscondidī is found in Pl., Mer. 390, then not until late Latin.

crē-dō, crē-de-re, crē-did-i, crē-ditum, to put faith.
dē-dō, dē-de-re, dē-did-i, dē-ditum, to give up.
edō, edo, ede-re, edid-i, ed-tum, to put out.
in-dō, in-de-re, in-did-i, in-ditum, to put in.
per-dō, per-de-re, per-did-i, per-ditum, to feed (mīn).
prō-dō, prō-de-re, prō-did-i, prō-ditum, to betray.
red-dō, red-de-re, red-did-i, red-ditum, to give back.
tra-dō, tra-de-re, tra-did-i, tra-ditum, to give over.
vēn-dō, vēn-de-re, vēn-did-i, vēn-ditum, to put up to sale.

Note.—In early Latin dare formed the Pr. Subjv., also duīm. So in some of its
compounds, as perduīm. See 130, 4.

2. stō, stā-re, stet-i, (stā-tū-rus), to stand.

So the compounds:

ad-stō, ad-stā-re, ad-stit-i, —— to stand by.
cōn-stō, cōn-stā-re, cōn-stit-i, —— to stand fast.
According to the Perfect Form. 105

In-stō, in-stā-re, in-stit-ī, —— to stand upon.

Ob-stō, ob-stā-re, ob-stit-ī, —— to stand out against.

Per-stō, per-stā-re, per-stit-ī, —— to stand firm.

Prae-stō, praē-stā-re, praē-stit-ī, —— to stand firm.

Re-stō, re-stā-re, re-stit-ī, —— to stand over.

Di-stō, di-stā-re, —— to stand apart.

Ex-stō, ex-stā-re, —— to stand out.

All compounds of stāre with di-syllabic prepositions have, however, -stēf in the Perfect, as: ante-stō, I am superior; inter-stō, I am between; super-stō, I stand upon; thus:

circum-stō, circum-stā-re, circum-stēf, —— to stand round.

Note.—Compare sistō and its compounds; 151, 1.

152. In the second conjugation:

Morde-ō, mordē-re, mo-mord-ī, mor-sum, to bite.

Pende-ō, pendē-re, pe-pend-ī, —— to hang (intr.).

Sponde-ō, spondē-re, spo-pond-ī, spōn-sum, to pledge oneself.

Compounds omit the reduplication, but Plaut. shows also dé-spo-pondisse and dé-spo-ponderās.

tonde-ō, tondē-re, to-tond-ī, tōn-sum, to shear.

153. In the third conjugation:

(a) Stem class.

Reduplication lost in the compounds:

cad-ō, cade-re, ce-cid-ī, cā-sum, to fall.


Re-cidere sometimes forms reciddī, as well as recidi, in the Perfect.

Caed-ō, caede-re, ce-cid-ī, cae-sum, to fell.


Can-ō, cane-re, ce-cin-ī, (can-tum), to sing.

Compounds form the Pf. in -ui. For (cantum), cantātum was used.

Parc-ō, parce-re, pe-perc-ī (par-sī), (par-sūrus), to spare.

Com-parcō (-percō), Com-parce-re, com-pars-ī, com-par-sum, to save.

Parxi is common in early Latin, and is the only form used by Plautus. Early Latin shows rarely parcui. Ter. uses compersit.

154. (b) Reduplicated class:

1. sistō (= si-stō), as a simple verb, has the transitive meaning, I (cause to) stand, but in its compounds, the intransitive meaning, I stand. Compare stō, I stand, and its compounds (151):

sist-ō, sistē-re, (stit-ī), sta-tum, to (cause to) stand.

So the compounds:

cōn-sistī, cōn-siste-re, cōn-stit-ī, cōn-sti-tum, to come to stand.

dē-sistō (ab-), dē-siste-re, dē-stit-ī, dē-sti-tum, to stand off.
LIST OF VERBS

ex-sist-ō,  ex-siste-re,  ex-sti-tum,  to stand up.
ob-sist-ō,  ob-siste-re,  ob-sti-tum,  to take a stand against.
re-sist-ō,  re-siste-re,  re-sti-tum,  to withstand.
ad-sist-ō,  ad-siste-re,  ad-sti-tum,  to stand near.
in-sist-ō,  in-siste-re,  in-sti-tum,  to stand upon.
circum-sist-ō,  circum-siste-re,  circum-sti-tum,  to take a stand round.

2. bi-bō,  bi-be-re,  bi-bi,  (bi-bi-tus),  to drink.
   No Supine. The Pf. Part. is late.

155. (e) Nasal class:
fall-ō,  falle-re,  fe-fell-i,  fal-sum,  to cheat.
The compound refellō has the Perfect refelli, and lacks Supine.
pell-ō,  pelle-re,  pe-pul-i,  pul-sum,  to push, drive back.
   repellō loses the reduplicating vowel in Pf. reppuli.
toll-ō,  tolle-re,  ——  to lift up.
Pf. and Sup. are formed sus-tuli (from reduplicated Pf. tetuli, 171, n. 1) and sub-
lātum (for t'lä-tum); a recent view makes su-stulī from (s)tollō.

156. (d) Inchoative class:
discō (= di-d-e-c-sco),  discē-re,  di-dic-i,  — to learn.
   A late form is Fut. Part. discitūrus. Compounds retain reduplication. See 134, iii.
pōscō (= porc-sco),  pōscē-re,  po-pōsc-i,  — to claim.
   Compounds retain the reduplication. See 134, iii.

157. (e) The I-class:
pari-ō,  pare-re,  pe-per-i,  par-tum (paritūrus),  to bring forth.
The compounds drop the reduplication and form the Inf. in -ire. But reperīre, to find, forms its Pf. repperī, with omission of the vowel of reduplication.
PERFECT: -i; SUPINE: -tum, -sum.

158. In the first conjugation:

iu-vō, iuvā-re, iūv-i, iū-tum (iu-vātūrus), to help.
ad-iu-vō, -iu-vā-re, -iūv-i, -iū-tum (-iū-tūrus), to stand by as aid.
(lav-ō), (lav-ere), läv-i, lau-tum (lō-tum), to wash.
lav-ō, lavā-re, (lavā-vī), lavā-tum, to wash.

The Present forms of la-vere belong principally to early Latin, with occasional forms in Augustan poets and later writers; lautum and lōtum are both used in classical times; but lautum belongs rather to early, lōtum to post-classical Latin. The form lavātum is early and poetical.

159. In the second conjugation:

cave-ō, cavē-re, cāv-i, cau-tum, to take heed.
fave-ō, fave-re, fāv-i, fau-tum, to be well-disposed.
ferve-ō (o), fervē-re (ere), ferv-i (ferb-uī), — to see the.

The Pr. forms of the third conjugation belong to early Latin and the poets. The Pf. in -uī is post-Ciceronian.

fove-ō, fove-re, fōv-i, fō-tum, to keep warm.
move-ō, movē-re, mōv-i, mō-tum, to move.
pave-ō, pavē-re, pāv-i, — to quake (with fear).
prande-ō, prandē-re, prand-i, prān-sum, to breakfast.
sede-ō, sedē-re, sēd-i, ses-sum, to sit.
stride-ō (-dō), stride-re(-e-re), strīd-i, — to whistle, screech.
vove-ō, vovē-re, vōv-i, vō-tum, to row.

The Present forms of the third conjugation belong almost entirely to Augustan poets and later writers.

vide-ō, vidē-re, vid-i, vi-sum, to see.

160. In the third conjugation:

With long vowel in the Perfect.

1. The Stem class:

ag-o, age-re, ēg-i, ēc-tum, to do, drive.
cō-g-ō, cō-ge-re, co-ēg-i, co-ēc-tum, to compel.
dē-g-ō, dē-ge-re, — red-ēc-tum, to pass (time).
red-ig-ō, red-ige-re, red-ēg-i, — red-ēc-tum, to bring back.
em-o, eme-re, ēm-i, ēmp-tum, to take, to buy.
inter-im-ō, -ime-re, -ēm-i, -ēmp-tum, to make away with.
co-em-ō, I buy up, is conjugated like em-o. But the compounds with ad-, ex-, inter-, red-, take -im-ō. So, too, dir-im-ō, I sever.
ed-ō, ede-re, ēd-i, ē-sum, to eat.

Note.—In agere, edere, emere, the reduplication has coalesced with the root; as, ēgī = eago.

cūd-ō, cūde-re, (cūd-ī), (cū-sum), to hammer.

The Pf. and Sup. occur in compounds only.
LIST OF VERBS

**189**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
<th>Future Participle</th>
<th>Future</th>
<th>Past</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>Definition</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>leg-o</strong></td>
<td>leg-e</td>
<td>leg-i</td>
<td>leg-tum</td>
<td>to pick up, read</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>col-lig-o</strong></td>
<td>col-lig-e</td>
<td>col-lig-i</td>
<td>col-lig-tum</td>
<td>to gather</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>ic-o</strong> (defective)</td>
<td>ic-e</td>
<td>ic-i</td>
<td>ic-tum</td>
<td>to strike</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>sod-o</strong></td>
<td>sod-e</td>
<td>sod-i</td>
<td>sod-tum</td>
<td>to sit down</td>
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<td><strong>col-lig-o</strong></td>
<td>col-lig-e</td>
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<td>to gather</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>sol-v-o</strong></td>
<td>sol-v-e</td>
<td>sol-v-i</td>
<td>sol-v-tum</td>
<td>to loose, pay</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>vert-o</strong></td>
<td>vert-e</td>
<td>vert-i</td>
<td>vert-um</td>
<td>to turn</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>re-vert-or</strong></td>
<td>re-vert-or-e</td>
<td>re-vert-or-i</td>
<td>re-vert-or-tum</td>
<td>to turn back</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>vis-o</strong></td>
<td>vis-e</td>
<td>vis-i</td>
<td>vis-tum</td>
<td>to visit</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>vol-v-o</strong></td>
<td>vol-v-e</td>
<td>vol-v-i</td>
<td>vol-v-tum</td>
<td>to roll</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>psall-o</strong></td>
<td>psall-e</td>
<td>psall-i</td>
<td>psall-tum</td>
<td>to play on the cithern</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>sall-o</strong></td>
<td>sall-e</td>
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<td>to salt</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>vell-o</strong></td>
<td>vell-e</td>
<td>vell-i</td>
<td>vell-tum</td>
<td>to pluck</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>lamb-o</strong></td>
<td>lamb-e</td>
<td>lamb-i</td>
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<td>to lick</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>rump-o</strong></td>
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<td><strong>ac-cend-o</strong></td>
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<td>to strike away</td>
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<td><strong>fund-o</strong> (FUD)</td>
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<td><strong>ex-sed-o</strong></td>
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<td><strong>prehend-o</strong></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

On *percello*, *perculi*, see 144. On *tollö*, *sustuli*, see 155.

2. The Nasal class:

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<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>vulsi</strong> in <em>vulsi</em> is post-Augustan.</td>
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<td>to conquer</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
3. The I-class.

(a) With long vowel in the Perfect.

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
<th>Perfect Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capi-ō (cap-)</td>
<td>cape-re, cep-i,</td>
<td>cap-tum, to take.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ac-cipi-ō</td>
<td>ac-cipe-re, ac-cep-i,</td>
<td>ac-cep-tum, to receive.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faci-ō</td>
<td>face-re, fec-i,</td>
<td>fac-tum, to make.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cale-faci-ō (calf.)</td>
<td>cale-face-re, cale-fec-i,</td>
<td>cale-fac-tum, to make warm.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>per-fici-ō</td>
<td>per-fice-re, per-fec i,</td>
<td>per-fec-tum, to achieve.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The Pf. was originally reduplicated; on Impv. fac, see 130, 5.

(b) With short vowel in the Pf. due to the loss of the reduplication:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
<th>Perfect Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fodi-ō</td>
<td>fode-re, fōd-i,</td>
<td>fos-sum, to dig.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fugi-ō</td>
<td>fuge-re, fug-i,</td>
<td>(fug-i-tūrus), to flee.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iaci-ō</td>
<td>iace-re, iēc-i,</td>
<td>iac-tum, to cast.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>con-ici-ō</td>
<td>con-ice-re, con-iēc-i,</td>
<td>con-iec-tum, to gather.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The reduplicated form sci-cidī is found in early Latin.

161. In the fourth conjugation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
<th>Perfect Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amici-ō</td>
<td>amici</td>
<td>veni-tum, to come.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In early Latin sporadic tenses from a form venere occur, as advenat, ēvenat.

162. A number of verbs of the third conjugation have a characteristic -u-; these form the perfect in -i.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Present Participle</th>
<th>Perfect Participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ab-lu-ō</td>
<td>ab-lue-re, ab-lu-i,</td>
<td>ab-lū-tum, to wash off.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ab-nu-ō</td>
<td>ab-nue re, ab-nu-i,</td>
<td>(ab-nu-itūrus), to dissent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acu-ō</td>
<td>acue-re, acu-i,</td>
<td>acū-tum, to sharpen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ad-nu-ō (an-nu-ō)</td>
<td>ad nue-re, ad-nu-i,</td>
<td>to not assent.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>argu-ō</td>
<td>argue-re, argu-i,</td>
<td>argū-tum, to accuse.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>batu-ō</td>
<td>batue-re, batu-i,</td>
<td>to beat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>con-gru-ō</td>
<td>con-grue-re, con-gru-i,</td>
<td>to agree.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dē-libu-ō</td>
<td>dē-libue-re, dē-libu-i,</td>
<td>to amount.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ex-u-ō</td>
<td>ex-ue-re, ex u-i,</td>
<td>to put off, off.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>im-bu-ō</td>
<td>im-bue-re, im-bu-i,</td>
<td>to dip, dye.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lu-ō</td>
<td>lu-e-re, lu-i,</td>
<td>to atone for.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metu-ō</td>
<td>metue-re, metu-i,</td>
<td>to fear.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minu-ō</td>
<td>minue-re, minu-i,</td>
<td>to lessen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plu-ō</td>
<td>plue-re, plu-it, plūv-it,</td>
<td>to rain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ru-ō</td>
<td>rue-re, ru-i,</td>
<td>ru-tum (ruitūrus), to rush down.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spu-ō</td>
<td>spue-re, spu-i,</td>
<td>spū-tum, to spew.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>statu-ō</td>
<td>statute-re, statu-i,</td>
<td>statū-tum, to settle.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sternu-ō</td>
<td>sternue-re, sternu-i,</td>
<td>to sneeze.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>su-ō</td>
<td>sue-re, su-i,</td>
<td>sū-tum, to sew.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tribu-ō</td>
<td>tribue-re, tribu-i,</td>
<td>tribū-tum, to allot.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
163. The majority of the deponent verbs belong to the first conjugation. In many instances they have parallel active forms in early or in late Latin. The principal verbs are as follows:

In the first conjugation:

adul-or, adulā-ri, adulā-tus sum, to fawn upon.
Occasionally active in ante-classical Latin (Lact. v., 1070) and more often in later Latin.

alterc-or, altercā-ri, altercā-tus sum, to wrangle.
In early Latin altercāsti (Ter., And. 653), altercās. Active forms more common in late Latin.

arbitr-or, arbitrā-ri, arbitrā-tus sum, to think.
Plaut. uses this verb also as an active, but later this usage is rare.

aucup-or, aucupa-ri, aucupa-tus sum, to try to catch.
Active forms are common in early Latin.

augur-or, augurā-ri, augurā-tus sum, to take the auguries.
Active forms are early, legal, and late. Use as a passive is occasional in the classical period.

auspic-or, auspica-ri, auspica-tus sum, to take the auspices.
Active forms are early and late. Cic. and Livy use the verb as a passive in a few instances.

comit-or, comitā-ri, comitā-tus sum, to accompany.
Poets (Ov., Prop., etc.) use the active forms frequently. The Perfect Part. comitā-tus is common as a passive, also in classical Latin.

comment-or, commentā-ri, commentā-tus sum, to discuss.
Cic. uses commentātus as a passive in Br. 88, 301, Fam. xvi., 26, 1.

conflict-or, conflictā-ri, conflictā-tus sum, to struggle.
Occasionally found for cōnflīctāre. See Ter., And., 93.

conspic-or, conspicā-ri, conspicā-tus sum, to descry.
So dēspicer, sūspicer. But a few forms are occasionally (usually in early Latin) used as passives, especially dēspicātus (Plaut., Ter.), compared dēspicātissimus by Cic. (Sest. 16, 36, Verr. iii., 41, 98). Plaut., Cos. 394, sūspīces.

contempl-or, contemplā-ri, contemplā-tus sum, to survey.
The active forms are used frequently in early Latin (regularly by Plaut.).

cōpul-or, cōpulā-ri, cōpulā-tus sum, to join.
So Plaut., And. 116. Otherwise everywhere cōpulāre.

crīmin-or, crīminā-ri, crīminā-tus sum, to charge.
Plaut. uses crīmināret, Ennius crīmināt.

cunct-or, cunctā-ri, cunctā-tus sum, to delay.
Active forms are occasional in early and late Latin.

dīgn-or, dīgnā-ri, dīgnā-tus sum, to deem worthy.
This verb is predominantly post-classical and poetical. The active forms are early and rare; perhaps once in Cicero.
DEPONENTS.

fabric-or, fabricā-rī, fabricā-tus sum, to forge.
The active forms belong to poety and to post-Augustan prose.

faener-or, faenerā-rī, faenerā-tus sum, to lend on interest.
Active forms occasional in early Latin and more frequent in late Latin.

fluctu-or, fluctuā-rī, fluctuā-tus sum, to undulate.
Active forms are rare in Plaut. and in Cic., but not uncommon later. The deponent forms are post-Ciceronian.

(for), fā-rī, fā-tus sum, to speak.
See 175, 3.

frūstr-or, frūstrā-rī, frūstrā-tus sum, to deceive.
Active forms rare, but at all periods.

illacrim-or, illacrimā-rī, illacrimā-tus sum, to weep over.
In Cic. and Hor.; otherwise active.

interpret-or, interpretā-rī, interpretā-tus sum, to interpret.
Cic. uses interpretātus occasionally as a passive; likewise Livy and others.

luct-or, luctā-rī, luctā-tus sum, to wrestle.
Plaut., Ter., Ennius, Varro show sporadic forms of the active.

lūduc-or, lūducā-rī, lūducā-tus sum, to make sport.
Active frequent in Plaut., and occasionally later.

medic-or, medicā-rī, medicā-tus sum, to heal.
The active is once in Plaut., and frequent in poets and post-Augustan prose.

medit-or, meditā-rī, meditā-tus sum, to think over.
The form meditātus is very commonly found as a passive.

mūner-or, mūnerā-rī, mūnerā-tus sum, to bestow.
Active forms in early Latin and occasionally in Cic. and later.

nūtric-or, nūtricā-rī, nūtricā-tus sum, to suckle.
Active forms in early Latin.

odōr-or, odōrā-rī, odōrā-tus sum, to smell.
Active forms occasional at all periods.

opīn-or, opīnā-rī, opīnā-tus sum, to think.

opīnō is frequent in early Latin, and opīnātus as passive is common in Cicero.

palp-or, palpā-rī, palpā-tus sum, to stroke.
Is occasional (principally in early Latin) for palpāre.

popul-or, populā-rī, populā-tus sum, to ravage.
Active forms in simple verb and compounds are early, poetical, and post-classic.

sciscit-or, sciscitā-rī, sciscitā-tus sum, to inquire.
Plaut., Merc. 380, sciscitāre (active).

scrūt-or, scrūtā-rī, scrūtā-tus sum, to search.
Plaut., Anl. 657, perscrūtāvi. The use as a passive occurs first in Seneca.

sect-or, sectā-rī, sectā-tus sum, to pursue.
Active forms and passive usages are early.

stabul-or, stabulā-rī, stabulā-tus sum, to stable.
Active forms begin with Virgil.

tūt-or, tūtā-rī, tūtā-tus sum, to protect.
Active forms and passive usages are early and rare.
**DEPONENTS.**

**tumultu-or, tumultua-ri, tumultua-tus sum, to raise a riot.**
But Plautus uses active forms; and passive uses are occasional later.

**vag-or, vagā-ri, vagā-tus sum, to wander.**
Active forms belong to early Latin.

**vener-or, venerā-ri, venerā-tus sum, to reverence.**
But Plaut uses venerō, venerem; Verg., Hor., and later writers show passive uses.

164. In the second conjugation:

**fate-or, fatē-ri, fas-sus sum, to confess.**
**cōn-fite-or, cōn-fite-ri, cōn-fes-sus sum, to confess.**
Both fateor and cōnfito are used occasionally as passives by Cic. and later.

**lice-or, licē-ri, lici-tus sum, to bid (at a sale).**

**mere-or, merē-ri, meri-tus sum, to deserve.**
Especially in the phrases merēri bene dé aliquō, to deserve well of any one. Otherwise the active is usual.

**misere-or, miserē-ri, miseri-tus sum, to pity.**
In early Latin the active forms are found occasionally, e.g., Lucr. ii., 881.

**pollice-or, pollicē-ri, pollici-tus sum, to promise.**
Occasionally used as a passive in post-classical Latin.

**re-or, rē-ri, ra-tus sum, to think.**
Pr. Part. Active is wanting.

**tue-or, tuē-ri, tui-tus (tūtus) sum, to protect.**
In early Latin and occasionally later, a parallel form, tuor, tui, tuitus sum, occurs. For tuitus usually tūtātus.

**vere-or, verē-ri, veri-tus sum, to fear.**

165. In the third conjugation:

**apisc-or, apisc-i, ap-tus sum, to get.**
Simple verb is frequent in early and late Latin. Of the compounds, adipiscor, adipiscē, adeptus sum, is usually deponent in classical times, but occurs occasionally as a passive in Sall. and later writers. The compounds ind-, red-, are rare.

**am-plect-or, am-plect-i, am-plex us sum, to twine round, embrace.**
So the compounds complecto, circumplecto, in early Latin active forms are occasionally found; e.g., amplectētō, circumplectē (Plaut).

**com-min-isc-or, com-min-isc-i, com-men tus sum, to think up, devise.**
Ovid and later writers use commentus as a passive.

**experg-isc-or, (-reg-) ex-perg-isc-i, ex-per-rēc-tus sum, to (right one's self up) awake.**

**fung-or, fung-i, fūnc-tus sum, to discharge.**
This verb is used passively very rarely: Ter., Ad. 508. Lucr. iii., 968. Cic., Sest. 4, 10.

**fru-or (frugv-), fru-i, frūc-tus (fru-i-tus) sum, to enjoy.**
The form fruitus is rare and late.
DEPONENTS.

gradī-or, gradī-1, gres-sus sum, to step,
ag-gredi-or, ag-gredī-1, ag-gres-sus sum, to attack.

Occasionally active forms of the fourth conjugation are found in early Latin.

lāb-or, lāb-i, lāp-sus sum, to glide.
loqu-or, loqu-i, locū-tus sum, to speak.

mor-or, mor-i, mortu-us sum, to die.

Early Latin shows parallel forms of the fourth conjugation, as morī, ēmorī, Fut. Part. morītūrus; see 135, n., 3.
nanc-isc-or, nanc-isc-i, nac-tus (nanc-tus) sum, to get.

nāsc-or (gnā-), nāsc-i, nā-tus sum, to be born.

nit-or (gnict-ī, nit-i, from genū), nī-sus (nīx-us) sum, to stay one's self on.

ob-līv-isc-or, ob-līv-isc-i, ob-li-tus sum, to forget.
pac-isc-or, pac-isc-i, pac-tus sum (pepīgī), to drive (a bargain).

Occasionally active forms are found in early Latin; in Cic. pactus is frequently used as a passive. See pangō.

pati-or, pat-i, pas-sus sum, to suffer.
per-peti-or, per-pet-i, per-pes-sus sum, to endure to the end.

pro-fic-isc-or, pro-fic-isc-i, pro-fec-tus sum, to (get forward) set out.
But PLAUT., M. G. 1320, proficiscō.

quer-or, quer-i, ques-tus sum, to complain.
sequ-or, sequ-i, secū-tus sum, to follow.

cus-isc-or, cusc-isc-i, ul-tus sum, to avenge.

Active forms are rare; so once in ENNIUS. But SALL., LIVY, and later writers use the verb as a passive sometimes.

ut-or, ut-i, ā-sus sum, to use.
PLAUT. shows the compound abūsā as a passive (Asin. 196).

veh-or, veh-i, vec-tus sum, to (wagon) ride.
vesc-or, vesc-i, to feed.

166. In the fourth conjugation:

assenti-or, assenti-ri, assēn-sus sum, to assent.

Active forms are not uncommon in early Latin. Cic. uses the Pf. active forms frequently; likewise later writers.

com-peri-or, comperi-ri, — to find out.

Occasionally found (but rarely in classical Latin; as, SALL., J., 45, 1; 108, 3) for comperīō, comperīre. But experior, experīri, expertus sum, to try, is regularly deponent; though Cic. and others use often the Pf. active forms.

largi-or, largi-ri, largi-tus sum, to bestow.

menti-or, menti-ri, menti-tus sum, to lie.

The poets and later prose writers use this as a passive also.

mēti-or, mēti-ri, mēn-sus sum, to measure.

Passive usage is common, especially in the compounds: dēmēn-sus, dimēn-sus,
ēmēn-sus, permēn-sus, remēn-sus.
SEMI-DEPONENTS.

1. Some active verbs have a Perfect Participle passive with active meaning, as: cēnātus, one who has dined, from cēnāre, to dine; prānsus, having breakfasted, from prandēō, I breakfast; pōtūs, drunken, from pōtēō, I drink; iūrātus, having taken the oath, sworn, from iūrō, I swear; coniūrātus, a conspirator, from coniūrō, I conspire. Many such are used purely as Adjectives: considerātus, circumspect, from considerō; cautus, wary, from caveō, I beware.

2. The Perfect Participle of many deponent Verbs has both active and passive meaning: adeptus (adipiscor), having acquired, or being acquired; comitātus (comitor, I accompany); effātus (effor, I speak out); expertus (experior, I try); exsecrātus (exsecor, I curse); imitātus (imitor, I copy); meritus (mereor, I deserve); opinātus, necopinātus (opinor, I think); pactus (paciscor, I contract); partitus (partior, I distribute); sortitus (sortior, I cast lots); tueor, I protect; tūtus, safe.

For others, see the list of deponents.

SEMI-DEPONENTS.

167. 1. A few verbs form the Perfect forms only as deponents:

aude-ō, aude-re, au-sus sum, to dare.

On the aorist forms ausim, etc., see 131, 4, b.

fid-ō, fid-ere, fi-sus sum, to trust.

gaudē-ō, gaudē-re, gāv-isus sum, to rejoice.

sole-ō, solē-re, sol-itus sum, to be wont.

The Pf. active is found in early Latin; but rarely.

2. The reverse usage is found in:

re-vert-or, re-vert-I, re-vert-I, to turn back.

So also dēverti, but without Pf. Part. Reversus is also used actively, but reversus sum for reverti is post-classic.

See also assentior, etc., 166.

Notes.—I. Some active verbs have a Perfect Participle passive with active meaning, as: cēnātus, one who has dined, from cēnāre, to dine; prānsus, having breakfasted, from prandēō, I breakfast; pōtūs, drunken, from pōtēō, I drink; iūrātus, having taken the oath, sworn, from iūrō, I swear; coniūrātus, a conspirator, from coniūrō, I conspire. Many such are used purely as Adjectives: considerātus, circumpect, from considerō; cautus, wary, from caveō, I beware.

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For others, see the list of deponents.
168. Irregular in the formation of the tense-stems:

1. Nine verbs of the third conjugation, which have, in spite of the short stem-syllable, the Pf. in -si, viz.:

   clepō, I flit; regō, I keep right; tegō, I cover in; coquō, I bake; and the compounds of legō, I pick up; laciō, I lure; speciō, I spy (-ligō, -liciō, -spiciō); dividō, I part; quatiō, I shake. See 147, 2.

   From legō, however, only diligō, I love; intellegō, I understand; and neglegō, neglect, are irregular. The other compounds are regular. See 147, 2.

2. Five verbs of the third conjugation, which, in spite of long stem-syllable, have the Pf. in -i, viz.:

   lambō, I lick; cūdō, I hammer; sidō, I sit (160, 1); strideō, I whistle (159); vertō, I turn (160, 1).

3. Assimilation between bs and ms occurs in the Pf. and Sup. of

   iube-ō, I order.  
   prem-ō (-prim-ō), I press.  
   See 147, 1.  
   See 147, 2.

4. Special irregularities occur in:

   bib-ō, I drink.  
   mane-ō, I remain.  
   méti-or, I measure.  
   met-ō, I mow.  
   mori-or, I die.  
   rauoci-ō, I am hoarse.  
   re-or, I think.  
   154, 2.  
   147, 1.  
   166.  
   142, 3.  
   165.  
   150, 2.  
   164.

5. Formed from different tense-stems, are the tenses of

   fer-ō, I bear.  
   toll-ō, I lift.  
   171.  
   155.

169. Irregular in the conjugation of the Present-stem:

1. ori-or, ori-ri, or-tus sum, to arise.

   See 166.

2. i-re, to go.

The stem is i, which, before a, o, u, becomes e.

Prin. Parts: eō, ire, ivi (ii), itum.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I go</td>
<td>I be going</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pres. Sg.—1. e-ō</td>
<td>Pl. —e-mus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. i-s,</td>
<td>i-tis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. i-t,</td>
<td>eu-nt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—ea-m,</td>
<td>Pl.—ea-mus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eā-s,</td>
<td>eā-tis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ea-t,</td>
<td>ea-nt.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IRREGULAR VERBS.

IMPF.  I-ba-m, I went.  i-re-m, I were going.
Fut.  i-b-*ō, I shall go.  
Perf.  i-v-i (i-i), I have gone.  i-v-eri-m (i-eri-m).
Plupf.  i-v-era-m (i-era-m), I had gone.  i-v-isse-m (i-isse-m, i-sse-m).
Fut. Pf.  i-v-er-ō (i-er-ō), I shall have gone.

IMPERATIVE.

Sg.—2.  i,  go thou.  i-tō,  thou shalt go.
3.  ———
3.  ———

Pl.—2.  i-te,  go ye.  i-tō,  he shall go.
3.  ———

INFINITIVE.

Pres.  i-re.
Fut.  i-tür-um esse.
Perf.  i-v-isse (i-sse).

GERUND.
eu-nd-ī, etc.

PARTICIPLES.

Pres.  iē-ns (i. eu-nt-īs).
Fut.  i-tür-us.

SUPINE.
i-tum, to go.

Remarks.—1. Like the simple verb are inflected most of the compounds, except in the Perfect system, where syncope regularly takes place (see 131, 2). Vēn-eō, I am for sale, and per-eō, I perish, serve as passives to vēn-dō, I sell, and per-dō, I destroy, whose regular passives occur only in the forms vēnditus, vēndendus, and perditus (but see Hor., Sat., ii. 6, 59). Amb-iō, I solicit, follows the fourth conjugation throughout, but in post-Ciceronian writers (Livy, Tac., Plin. Min.) shows occasional forms like those of eō. Some compounds show occasionally Fut. in -eam after the time of Seneca.

2. The passive of the simple verb is found only in the impersonal forms itur, ibātur, itum est, īrī (in combination with the Supine). But compounds with transitive force are conjugated regularly; so, praeter-eō forms praeter-eor, -ēris, itur, -īmur, -īmini, -euntur, ībar, etc.; ītus sum, eram, ērō, -euntor, -ītor, -īrī, -eundus.

3. quire, to be able; nequire, to be unable.

170. (a) que-ō, I am able, is found in the following forms, of which those in parenthesis are unclassical, occurring in early and late Latin and the poets; Cæsar uses no form of queō.

Pr. Indic. queō, (quis), (quit), quīmus, (quitis), queunt. Pr. Subj. queam, queās, queat, queāmus, queātis, queant. Impf. (quībam), (quīrem). Fut. (quībō). Pr. quīvī, etc.; quīverim, etc. Plupf. quīveram, etc.; quīvissem, etc. Fut. Pr. quīverō, etc. Pr. Imp. quire. Pr. quīvisse. Part. quiēns.

(b) neque-ō, I am unable, has the same forms, all of which seem to be classic excepting the Future Indicative, which is not cited.
4. *fer-re*, *to bear*.

171. The endings beginning with *t, s, and r* are added directly to the root (132). Some parts are supplied by *tul-* (tol-, tla-).

**Prin. Parts**: *ferō, ferre, tuli, lātum*.

**ACTIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>I bear</td>
<td><em>I be bearing</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—1.</td>
<td><em>ferō</em></td>
<td><em>fera-m</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td><em>ferre</em></td>
<td><em>fera-mus</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td><em>fer-s</em></td>
<td><em>ferā-s</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td><em>fer-t</em></td>
<td><em>ferā-tis</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Impf.</strong></td>
<td><em>ferē-ba-m</em></td>
<td><em>fera-nt</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td><em>fera-m</em></td>
<td><em>fer-re-m</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong></td>
<td><em>tul-i</em></td>
<td><em>tul-eri-m</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plupf.</strong></td>
<td><em>tul-era-m</em></td>
<td><em>tul-isse-m</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut. Pr.</strong></td>
<td><em>tul-erō</em></td>
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**IMPERATIVE.**

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sg.—2.</strong></td>
<td>bear thou.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Pl.—2.</strong></td>
<td>bear ye.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>3.</td>
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**INFINITIVE.**

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<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>fer-re.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>lā-tūr-um esse.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong></td>
<td>tul-isse.</td>
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**GERUND.**

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fere-nd-i, etc.</td>
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**PARTICIPLES.**

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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td>fer-ē-rs, bearing.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td>lā-tūr-us.</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**SUPINE.**

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>lā-tum (t(o)lā-tum).</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**PASSIVE.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Pres.</strong></td>
<td><em>I am borne</em></td>
<td><em>I be borne</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg.—1.</td>
<td><em>fer-o-r</em></td>
<td><em>fera-r</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td><em>fer-ris</em></td>
<td><em>ferā-ris</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td><em>fer-tur</em></td>
<td><em>ferā-tur</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Impf.</strong></td>
<td><em>ferē-ba-r.</em></td>
<td><em>fer-re-r.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut.</strong></td>
<td><em>fera-r</em></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Perf.</strong></td>
<td>lā-tus sum.</td>
<td><em>lā-tus sim.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plupf.</strong></td>
<td>lā-tus eram.</td>
<td><em>lā-tus essem.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Fut. Pr.</strong></td>
<td>lā-tus erō.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
IMPERATIVE.

Sg.—2. fer-re, be thou borne.  fer-tor, thou shalt be borne.
3. —

Pl.—2. feri-minī, be ye borne. —
3. —

INFINITIVE.

Pres. fer-ri, to be borne.
Fut. lā-tum īrī.
Perf. lā-tum esse, to have been borne.

PARTICIPLE.

Pres. lā-tum
Fut. lā-tum īrī
Perf. lā-tum esse, to have been borne.

COMPOUNDS.

af-fer-ō, af-fer-re, at-tul-i, al-lā-tum, to bear to.
au-fer-ō, au-fer-re, abs-tul-i, ab-lā-tum, to bear away.
cōn-fer-ō, cōn-fer-re, con-tul-i, col-lā-tum, to collect.
dif-fer-ō, dif-fer-re, dis-tul-i, di-lā-tum, to put off.
ef-fer-ō, ef-fer-re, ex-tul-i, e-lā-tum, to carry out.
of-fer-ō, of-fer-re, ob-tul-i, ob-lā-tum, to offer.

Notes.—1. The Pf. tuli was originally reduplicated te-tuli. See 134, iii., 155. Traces of this are seen in rettuli.
2. Suf-ferō, I undergo, has the Pf. sus-tin-uī (sus-tul-i, sub-lā-tum, being appropriated to toll-ō). (155.)

5. cd-ere, to eat.

172. In certain forms the endings beginning with s, t, and r are added directly to the root (132); d before s (r) is dropped or assimilated (as ss), and before t becomes s.

Prin. Parts: edā, edere (ēsse), ēdī, ēsūm.

ACTIVE.

INDICATIVE.

I eat.

Present.

Sg.—1. ed-ō, Pl.—edi-mus, Sg.—eda-m, Pl.—edā-mus,
2. edi-s, ē-s, edi-tis, ēs-tis, edā-s, edā-tis,
3. edi-t, ē-st, edu-nūt, eda-t, eda-nūt.

Impf. edē-ba-m, I ate. ede-re-m, ēs-se-m, I were eating.
Fut. eda-m.
Perf. ēd-i.
Pluff. ēd-era-m.
Fut. Pf. ēd-er-ē.
## Irregular Verbs

**Imperative.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2. ede, ēs,</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>ēdī-te, ēs-te,</td>
<td>ēs-ūr-um esse.</td>
<td>ēdī-isse.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Infinitive.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>eat thou.</th>
<th>edi-to, ēs-tō,</th>
<th>thou shalt eat.</th>
<th>eat ye.</th>
<th>edi-tōte, ēs-tōte,</th>
<th>ye shall eat.</th>
<th>INFINITIVE.</th>
<th>edu-ntō,</th>
<th>they shall eat</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>ēdī-nte, ēs-nte,</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Passive.**

In the passive voice the only peculiarities are as follows: Pr. Indic. Sing. Third, editor and ēstur. Impf. Subjv. Sing. Third, ederētūr and ēsētūr. The Pf. Part. is ēsus and the Gerundive edendus.

Note.—In the Pr. Subjv. Active, early Latin shows edim, edīs, edīt, edimus, editis, editīnt. Also ēssum and ēssū in the Sup., ēssūrūs in the Fut. Part. Comedere also shows comestus for comēsus.

6. fi-eri, to become.

173. Fi-ō is conjugated in the Present, Imperfect, and Future, according to the fourth conjugation, but in the Subjunctive Imperfect and in the Infinitive the stem is increased by e; thus, fi-e-rem, I were becoming; fi-e-ri, to become. In these forms the i is short, but elsewhere it is long even before another vowel.

The Infinitive ends in -ī, and the whole Verb in the Present-stem is treated as the Passive to faciō, I make. The rest of the Passive is formed regularly from faciō.

**Prin. Parts:** fiō, fierī, factus sum.

### Active.

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<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>faciō, I make.</td>
<td>faciēbam, I made.</td>
<td>faciam, I shall make.</td>
<td>fēcī.</td>
<td>fēceram.</td>
<td>faciam, etc.</td>
<td>facerem, etc.</td>
<td>(fi), (fi-tō).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Passive.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indic.</th>
<th>Subjv.</th>
<th>Imperative.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fiō, I am made, I become.</td>
<td>fiām, fīās, fīat, etc.</td>
<td>fīt (fīmus, fītis), fīunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fis, fit</td>
<td>fierem, fierēs, etc.</td>
<td>fierēt, fierētum esse or fore.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fībam, I was made, I became.</td>
<td>fīctus sum.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fīam, I shall be made (become).</td>
<td>fīctus erō.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fīctus sum.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

**Supine.**

<table>
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<tr>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fierī.</td>
<td>factum esse, to have become.</td>
<td>factum esse or fore.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| Fut. | |
| futūrum esse |
Notes. 1. Occasionally in early Latin the form *fiere* is found for the Infinitive, which indicates that the verb was originally active. The forms *fieri* and *fiarem* are very common in early Latin, along with the normal forms. Of the forms in parenthesis *finus* and *fitis* do not certainly occur, and the Imperative forms are early. Passive forms of *fiō* are very rare; never in Plautus or Terence.

2. The compounds of *faciō* with Prepositions change the *a* of the stem into *i*, and form the Passive in classical Latin regularly from the same stem: *perficiō*, *I achieve*. But *interficiē, conficiē*, and several other forms are found in early Latin, and occasionally in classical times. When compounded with words other than prepositions, *faciō* retains its *a*, and uses *fiō* as its Passive:

`patefaciō, I lay open, Pass. patefiō; calefaciō, I warm, Pass. calefiō.`

For the accent, see 15, 2, r. 2.

174.  7. vel-le, to be willing.

*nōlle, to be unwilling; mālle, to be willing rather.*

Prin. Parts: *volō, velle, volui; nōlō, nōlle, nōlui; mālō, mālle, mālui.*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pres.</th>
<th>Indicative</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>volō,</td>
<td>nōlō,</td>
<td>mālō,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vis,</td>
<td>nōn vis,</td>
<td>māvis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vult,</td>
<td>nōn vult,</td>
<td>māvult,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volumus,</td>
<td>nōlumus,</td>
<td>mālumus,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vultis,</td>
<td>nōn vultis,</td>
<td>māvultis,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volunt.</td>
<td>nōlunt.</td>
<td>mālunt.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Impf.</td>
<td>volēbam,</td>
<td>mālēbam.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut.</td>
<td>volam,</td>
<td>mālām,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volēs,</td>
<td>nōlēs, <em>etc.</em></td>
<td>mālēs, <em>etc.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perf.</td>
<td>volui,</td>
<td>mālui, <em>etc.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plupf.</td>
<td>volueram,</td>
<td>mālueram, <em>etc.</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fut. 1st.</td>
<td>voluerō,</td>
<td>māluerō, <em>etc.</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

velim, *nōlim*, mālim,  
velīs, *nōlis*, mālis,  
velīt, *nōlīt*, mālīt,  
velimus, *nōlimus*, mālimus,  
velitis, *nōlītis*, mālītis,  
velint, *nōlint*, mālint,  

vellem, *nōllem*, māllem,  
voluerim, *nōluerim*, māluerim, *etc.*  
voluissem, *nōluissem*, māluissem, *etc.*
IMPV. (fac velis).  

SG. — nōlī, nōlītō.  

PL. — nōlīte, nōlītōte, nōluntō.

INF. Pr. velle,  

Pr. voluisse,  

PART. volēns,  

nōlle, mālle.  
nōluisse, māluisse.  
nōlēns.

Notes.—1. To the time of Cicero, and occasionally later, volt, voltīs, are employed for vult, vultīs. In familiar language sī vis, sī vultīs, were contracted to sī, sultīs; vis was further combined with -ne into vin.

2. Nōlō is a contraction of nevolō (= nōn volō), and in early Latin we find, along with the forms given above, also nevis, nevolt; also occasionally we find nōn velis, nōn velit, nōn velint, nōn vellem, for nōlis, etc.; but the feeling is slightly different.

3. Mālō = ma volō, from mag' magē, magis'-volo. Frequently in Plaut., but rarely in Ter., we find mavolo, mavolunt, mavolet, mavelim, -is, -it, mavellem, instead of mālō, mālim, mālis, etc.

175.  
DEFECTIVE VERBS.

1. āiō, I say aye.

INDIC. Pres. SG.—1. āiō,  

2. ais,  

3. ait,  

PL.—3. āiunt.

IMPF. āiēbam, etc.

PERF.  

SUBJ. Pres. SG.—  

2. āiās,  

3. āiat,  

3. āiant.

PART. āiēns (as adj.), afirmative.  

IMPV. āi.

Note.—In early Latin ain (= aisne ?) was scanned often as a monosyllable; and in the Impf., āibam, āibas, āibat, āibant were frequently employed along with the normal forms. The Impv. is rare, and found only in early Latin. Pr. Subj. āiam is emended into PL., Ep., 287.

2. inquam, I say, quoth I.

INDIC. Pres. SG.—1. inquam,  

2. inquis,  

3. inquit.  

PL.—1. inquimus,  

2. inquitis,  

3. inquiant.  

IMPF.  

FUT. SG.—  

2. inquiēs,  

3. inquiet.  

PERF. SG.—1. inquiē,  

2. inquisti,  

3. inquit.

IMPV. inque, inquitō.

3. fā-ri, to speak.

INDIC. Pres. fātur, FUT. fābor, fābitur. PERF. fātus sum, etc. IMPV. fāre.

PART. Pres. fāns, fantis, fanti, fantem. GER. fandi, fandō. SUP. fātū.

Note.—In addition to these, compounds show also Pres. : -fāris, -fāmur, -fāmini, -fāntur; IMPF. : -fābar, -fābantur; FUT. : -fābere, -fābimur; PART. : -fante and others. These forms, as well as the uncompounded forms, though occasionally found in prose, are peculiar to the poets until post-Augustan times. The PL. Part. is sometimes used passively; so especially fātum, fāte; effātus, designated.
4. havē-re (avē-re), salvē-re.

IMPV. havē, salvē, salvēbis, hail thou!
    havētō, salvētō.
    havēte, salvēte, hail ye!

INF. havēre, salvēre.

Corresponding to these are the forms of valēre, viz.: valē, valēte, valēre, farewell.

5. coepī, memīni, ēdi, nōvī.

In use only in the Perfect-stem are coepī, I have begun, which serves as a Perfect to incipīō, and memīni, I remember, ēdi, I hate, nōvī (from nōscō, see 131, 3, 140), I know, am aware, consuēvī (from consuēscō), I am wont, which have the force of Presents.

a. INDIC. coepī, I have begun. SUBJUV. coeperim.
    coeperam.
    coeperō.

INF. coepisse, to have begun.

Note.—Early Latin shows coepiō, coepiās, coepiāt, coeperam, coepere, coeperet.

Future Participle coeptūrus is Post-Augustan. Incēpi is ante-classical.

Passive forms coeptus sum, etc., occur with the same meaning in combination with a Passive Infinitive. See 423, n. 3.

b. INDIC. memiṇi, I remember

memineram.
meminerē.

IMPV. Sg.—mementō.

Pl.—mementōte.

SUBJUV. êderim.
êdisse.
êdissem.
êdisse, to hate.

FUT. PART. êsusārus.

Note.—Occasionally in early Latin, the poets, and later prose, deponent forms of the Perfect are found, êsus sum, etc. For the Passive the phrase odio esse is used.

d. INDIC. nōvī.

nōveram (nōram).

nōverō (nōrō).

SUBJUV. nōverim (nōrim).

nōvissem (nōsse).

INF. nōvisse (nōsse) to know.

6. cedo, quaesō.

Other defective forms are:

SG.—cedo, give! (old Impv.) PL.—cette.

INDIC. PRES. quaesō, please (i.e., I seek, beg), quaesumus.

Note.—Other forms of quaesō are found occasionally in early Latin, and sporadically in Cic., Sall., and later; the Pf. forms have been attached to quaeerere, 137, c.
FORMATION OF WORDS.

176. By the formation of words is meant the way in which stems are made of roots, new stems of old, and in which words are compounded.

177. All roots of the Latin language are probably monosyllabic.* They can be ascertained only by scientific analysis.

The difference between Root and Stem has been set forth in 25, xx. Sometimes the Stem is the same as the Root; so especially in the Root Verbs (132). But it is usually different.

178. Words are either simple or compound.
A simple word is one that is formed from a single root: sól, sun; stā-re, stand, stay.
A compound word is one that is made up of two or more roots: sól-stiti-um, sun-staying, solstice.

A.—Simple Words.

179. Simple words are partly primitive, partly derivative or secondary.

1. Primitive words come from the root, and as this usually appears in the simplest form of the verb-stem, primitive words are called verbals. Examples are the root-verbal forms (134, p. 132, 135, 1.), some substantives of the third declension, as dux (duc-s), leader, root duc (see 183, i), many substantives of the first, second, and fourth declensions, as: scrib-a (scribō, I write), scribe.

2. Derivative words are formed from a noun-stem; hence called denominatives: vetus-tās, age, from vetes- (N. vetus), old.

Note.—Denominative verbs include many verbs which cannot definitely be referred to any substantive; such as many frequentatives and intensives. In its narrower significance the term refers to the special class of verbs made from substantives in use.

180. Substantives are generally formed by means of a suffix. A suffix is an addition to a stem, and serves to define its meaning or show its relations. So from the verbal stem scrib-(scribō, I write) comes scrip-tor, writer; scrip-tio(n), writing.

* The theory of monosyllabic roots is adopted here as being somewhat more convenient than the theory of polysyllabic roots, now held by some important scholars. Of course it will be understood that the actual existence of mere roots can be assumed only for a very early period in the development of language, long before the independent existence of Latin.
Suffixes are either primary or secondary. A primary suffix is one added to a root (or verb stem) to form primitive words. A secondary suffix is one used in the formation of derivative words. Thus, -tor in scrip-tor is a primary suffix; -tās in vetus-tās is secondary.

Notes.—1. By the fading out of the difference between primary and secondary suffixes, primary suffixes come to be used sometimes to form secondary derivatives.

2. Consonant stems before consonant suffixes undergo the usual changes (9). So scrib-tor becomes scrip-tor; rēg-s becomes rēx. Stems are sometimes extended by a vowel, usually i, less often u, to facilitate pronunciation: val-i-dus, strong; doc-u-mentum, proof; sometimes they change the stem vowel: teg, cover; tog-a, toga; tug-urium, hut.

3. Vowel stems lengthen the final vowel: acu-, sharpen; acū-men, sharp part, point.

The final vowel often disappears before the suffix: opta-, choose; opt-īō, choice.

181. FORMATION OF SUBSTANTIVES.

The suffixes, as applied to various roots, have often special functions, and form words of definite meaning. The most important are as follows:

1. Agency is indicated by

   -tor, -tric (N. tor (m.), trīx (f.)): amā-tor, lover; vic-trīx, conqueress; occasionally -ter (N. ter, G. -trī): ar-bi-ter (= ad + ba, step), umpire; -ōn (N. ō, G. ōnis): com-bibō (fellow-drinker), boon companion; occasionally -o, -a (N. -us, -a): serv-os, slave; scrib-a, scribe; -ōno, -ōna (N. ōnu-s, -ōna): col-ōnu-s, settler; -(i)t (N. es, G. itis): mil-es, soldier, and a few others.

2. Action, Activity, and Event are indicated by


3. An Artisan or Tradesman is indicated by

   -ārio (N. āriu-s): argent-āriu-s, money changer.
4. The Trade is indicated by
   -āria: argent-āria, silver mine, bank.

5. The Locality of the work (or trade) is indicated by
   -ārio (N. āriu-m): sēmin-āriu-m, seed-plot; -ōnio (N. ōniu-m): full-
   ōnium, fuller’s shop; -ina: offic-ina, workshop; -cro, -culo (N. -cro-m,
   -culu-m): lavā-cru-m, bath; -trino, -trina (N. trina, trinu-m): sū-
   trina, shoemaker’s shop; pis-trinu-m, mill.

6. Instrument and Means are indicated by
   -bro, -bra (N. bra, bru-m): li-bra, balance; cri-brum, sieve; -cro,
   -culo (N. cru-m, culu-m): ba-culu-m, walking stick; -lo, -la (N. -la,
   -lu-m): pi-la, pillar; te-lu-m, weapon; -ulo, -ula (N. ulu-s, ula, ulu-m):
   cap-ulu-s, handle; rēg-ula, rule; einc-ulu-m, girdle; -mento (N.
   mentu-m): ali-mentu-m, nourishment; -tro, -tra (N. tra, tru-m):
   fenes-tra, window; arā-tru-m, plow.

7. Relationship is indicated by
   -ter (N. ter, G. tr-is): pa-ter, father; mā-ter, mother.

8. Condition or Relation by
   -īna: discipl-īna, discipline; medic-īna, medicine.

9. Function is indicated by
   -tūra (sūra): cul-tūra, cultivation.

10. Office is indicated by
    -ītu (N. ītus, G. ītus): cōnsul-ītu, consulship; -tūra (-sūra):
        dictā-tūra, dictatorship.

11. Dense Growths are indicated by
    -ēto (N. ētu-m): murt-ētu-m, myrtle grove; -to (N. tu-m): virgul-
        tu-m, brushwood.

12. Diminutives are indicated by
    -lo, -la (N. lu-s, etc.), before which a liquid is assimilated (9, 3):
        (ager), agel-lu-s, little field; (tabul-a), tabel-la, tablet; (corōn-a),
        corōl-la, chaplet; Catul-lu-s (= Catōn-lu-s); homul-lu-s (= homōn
        lu-s), manikin;
        -olo, -ulo: olo after e, i, v, otherwise -ulo (N. olu-s, ola, ulu-s, ula):
        (alve-us), alve-olu-s, little hollow; (fili-a), fili-ola, little daughter;
        (valv-a), valv-olae, pod (little flaps); (circu-s), circ ulu-s, little ring.
        -culo, -cula (N. culu-s, etc.), after e, i, u, and consonant stems:
        (spēs), spē-cula, slight hope; (amni-s), amni-culu-m, dear heart.
        (amni-s), amni-culu-m, streamlet; (versu-s), versi-culu-s, versicle;
        (homin-), homun-culu-s, manikin; (flos), flos-culu-s, floweret; (cor,
        cord-), cor-culu-m, dear heart.

Note. Diminutives have, as a rule, the gender of their primitives. Exceptions
are sometimes due to difference in signification.
182. FORMATION OF ADJECTIVES.

The significance of the most important adjective suffixes, which are often identical with the substantive suffixes, are as follows:

1. Action is indicated by

-\textit{bundo}, -\textit{bunda}: cunct\textit{ā}-bundu-s, lingering. Repeated action by -\textit{uto}, -\textit{ula}: crēd-ulu-s, quick to believe; quer-ulu-s, complaining. Passive action is indicated by -\textit{bili}: amā-bili-s, lovable, vēnd-i-bili-s, to be sold.

2. Capacity and Inclination are indicated by

-\textit{cundo}, -\textit{cura}: fā-cundu-s, of ready speech; verē-cundu-s, modest. Passive Capacity by -\textit{ili}: ag-ili-s, readily moved, quick; doc-ili-s, teachable. The Capacity and Resulting Condition by -\textit{tili}: duc-tili-s, ductile; fic-tili-s, capable of being moulded, of clay.

3. Tendency is indicated by

-\textit{āci} (N. āx): aud-āx, bold; rap-āx, greedy.

4. Likeness and Composition or Material are indicated by

-\textit{āceo}, -\textit{acea}: arundin-āceu-s, reedy; crēt-āceu-s, chalky; -\textit{icio}: later-iciu-s, made of brick; -\textit{no}, -\textit{na}: acer-nu-s, of maple; -\textit{neo}, -\textit{nea}: ae-neu-s, brazen.

5. Belonging to is indicated by

-\textit{io}, -\textit{ia}: imperatōr-iu-s, belonging to a general; -\textit{icio}, -\textit{icia}: aedil-iciu-s, belonging to an adile; -\textit{āno}, -\textit{āna}: hūm-ānu-s, human; urb-ānu-s, urbane, city.

6. Appurtenance and Medium are indicated by

-\textit{tico}, -\textit{tica}: aquā-ticu-s, aquatic; -\textit{tili}:- aquā-tili-s, aquatic; plūmā-tili-s, (embroidered) like feathers.

7. Origin is indicated by

-\textit{io}, -\textit{ia}: Cornēl-ia (lēx), Corinth-iu-s; -\textit{āno}, -\textit{āna}, -\textit{ino}, -\textit{ina}: Rōm-ānu-s, Lat-īnu-s.

8. Time is indicated by

-\textit{tino}, -\textit{tina}: crās-tinu-s, of to-morrow; -\textit{erno}, -\textit{erna}: hesternu-s, of yesterday; -\textit{urru}, -\textit{urna}: nocturnu-s, by night; -\textit{tino}, -\textit{tina}: mātū-tinu-s, of early morning.

9. Locality, where, whence, is indicated by

-\textit{ia}: Gall-ia, Gaul; -\textit{tino}: intes-tinu-s, inner, intestine; -\textit{ensi}: circ-ensi-s, from the circus; Sicili-ensi-s, Sicilian; -\textit{āti} (N. ās): cui-ās, of what country?
10. Fullness is indicated by
-ōso, -ōsa: anim-ōsu-s, full of spirit; verb-ōsu-s, wordy; -lento, lenta: sanguin-ōlentu-s, bloody; op-u-lentu-s, with abundant means.

11. Descent and Relationship are indicated in Latin mainly by Greek adjectives, made by the addition of Greek suffixes to proper names. These suffixes are

M. -idēs (G. idae), F. -is (G. idis), from Nominatives in us, or, ēs, and s preceded by a consonant; M. -adēs (G. adae), F. -ēs (G. ēdis), from Nominatives in -eus; M. -neas (G. neae) and -ās (G. -ae); M. -iadēs (G. iadae), F. -ias (G. iadis), from Nominatives in ius, ē, ēn, o; F. -inē, from Nominatives in -us and -eus; F. -iōnē, from Nominatives in ius: (Tantalus) Tantal-idēs, son of Tantalus; Tantal-is, daughter of Tantalus; (Pelops) Pelopidēs; (Thēs-eus) Thēs-idēs, Thēsēis; (Aeneās) Aene-adēs (Aeneadae also); (Läertēs) Läert-iadēs; (Neptūnus) Neptūn-inē; (Acrisius) Acrisioinē, etc.

12. Diminutive adjectives are formed by the same suffixes as diminutive substantives (181, 12): albus, white, albu-lus, whitish; miser, wretched, mis-ellus, poor (little); ācer, sharp, ācri-culu-s, somewhat sharp.

183. SUBSTANTIIVES WITHOUT SUFFIXES.
(Root Substantives.)

A few substantives are formed from roots without a suffix:

1. With weak root: duc-s (dux), leader, from root duc, lead; nec-s (nex), killing, from root nec, kill.
2. With strong root: lūc-s (lux), light, from root lūc, light; rēg-s (rēx), king, from root rēg, rule.
3. With reduplication: car-cer, jail; mar-mor, marble; mur-mur, murmur.

THE SUFFIXES IN DETAIL.

184. Vowels.

-ō, -a (N. u-s, a, u-m). Primary and secondary adjectives, and primary substantives. The primary adjectives resemble somewhat active participles in meaning; fer-u-s, wild; vag-u-s, wandering. Secondary are especially adjectives in -ōrus, as dec-ōr-u-s, graceful, from decor, grace, and many others. Masculine substantives in -u-s are often nouns of agency, sometimes nōmina āctionis and concretes therefrom: coqu-o-s, cook; rog-u-s, pyre. Those in -a (ā) are regularly nōmina agentis, especially in composition: scrib-a, scribe; agri-cola, husbandman (land-tiller). Feminines are in -o (which are principally names of trees: pir-us, pear tree) and in -a: lup-a, she-wolf, as well as lup-u-s. Neuters are those in -u-m, especially names of fruits: pir-u-m, pear.
FORMATION OF WORDS.

-i (N. i-s, e). Substantives: M. orb-i-s, circle; pisc-i-s, fish, etc.; F. av-i-s, bird; nāv-i-s, ship; N. mar-e, sea; conclāv-e, room. Adjectives: dulc-i-s, sweet; turp-i-s, ugly.

Note.—In adjectives especially, i is often weakened from -o, as inermis and inermus, etc. Sometimes in substantives the Nom. shows es instead of is, as caedēs and caedis, etc.

-iō, -iā (N. iu-s, ia, iu-m)._1. This is the principal secondary suffix, and is found in many combinations; but it is also found as primary in substantives: M. gen-iu-s, genius; glad-iu-s, sword; F. pluv-ia, rain; tīb-ia, fife; N. fol-iu-m, leaf; od-iu-m, hate; and in adjectives ex-im-iu-s, pre-eminent (taken out); sauc-iu-s, wounded, pluv-iu-s, rainy.

2. The suffix occurs as secondary in the forms -eio (-aeo), -io, eo, io, in a large number of Gentile names: Flāv-iu-s, Flāv-iu-s; Lūc-iu-s, Lūc-iu-s; similar to these are those in ed-iu-s, id-iu-s, id-iu-s, -ēl-iu-s, il-iu-s, as Lūc-id-iu-s, Corn-ēl-iu-s, Lūc-il-iu-s. Also in some adjectives of materiāt in eu-s, as aur-eu-s, golden; ferr-eu-s, iron. It occurs, moreover, in many compound adjectives and substantive endings, to be discussed later, and in many abstract substantives in -antia, -entia, as abundantia, abundance; scientia, knowledge, etc.

Note.—Instead of -ia, we find -ea in a few words: cav-ea, cage; cochl-ea, snail.

-u (N. u-s, u). M. arc-u-s, bow; curr-u-s, chariot; F. ac-u-s, needle; man-u-s, hand; N. gel-u, frost; gen-u, knee. Secondary is soc-r-u-s, mother-in-law. This suffix is found occasionally in adjectives compounded with manus, as centi-manus, hundred-handed; also in the form -ui in a few adjectives, as ten-ui-s, thin.

Note.—The suffix -o often alternates with -u.

-uo, -uu (N. uo-s, ua, uo-m). Primary and secondary substantives and adjectives. Primary: M. eq-uo-s, horse; F. al-vo-s, belly; N. ar-vo-m, field; par-vo-s, small. Secondary: M. patr-uo-s, uncle; cer-vo-s, stag; F. iān-ua, gate; cern-uo-s, slooping; aesti-vo-s, of the summer.

Note.—ivo-s is found in voc-ivo-s (vacuos), rediv-ivo-s, etc. -vo is weakened to -vi in pel-vo-s, basin.

185. Suffixes with Gutturals.

1. -co, -ca (N. cu-s, ca, cu-m). This forms both adjectives and substantives, but is usually secondary. As primary it is found in: io-cu-s, jest; lo-cu-s, place; as secondary in: medi-cu-s, physician; ped-i-ca, fetter. Adjectives are primary: cas-cu-s, very old; or secondary: civi-cu-s, civic.

2. -āco, -āca (N. ācu-s, āca, ācu-m). Primary in clo-āca, sewer; secondary in ver-bēn-āca, vervain, and in adjectives, as mer-ācu-s, pure.
FORMATION OF WORDS.

3. -ico, -ica (N. icu-s, ica, icu-m). In substantives, such as: M. umbil-icu-s, navel; F. lect-ica, litter; urt-ica, nettle. In adjectives, as: am-icu-s, friends, etc.

4. -ico, -ica (N. icu-s, ica, icu-m). Primary in the adjectives: cad-icu-s, tottering; mand-icu-s, voracious; secondary in alb-icu-s, asphodel; and in substantives in -ica, as er-ica, caterpillar; verr-ica, wart.

Note.—Similar is the secondary suffix inquio in long-inquio-s, distant; proinquio-s, near.

5. -ico, -uca (N. uca-s, uca, uca-m). Primary in the adjectives: cad-ucu-s, tottering; mand-ucu-s, voracious; secondary in alb-ucu-s, asphodel; and in substantives in -uca, as er-uca, caterpillar; verr-uca, wart.

6. -ec (N. ex) forms substantives and adjectives; the latter expressing inclination. Primary: aud-ex, bold; fug-ex, fleeing. Secondary: F. forn-ex, furnace; lim-ex, snail; ver-ex, truthful.

7. -ec (N. ex) is found in verv-ex, wether.


9. -ec (N. ex) is found in the substantive cel-ex, yacht, and in a number of adjectives: atr-ex, ferocious.

10. -aceo, -acea (N. aceu-s, aca, acau-m), forms adjectives of material or likeness: cret-aceu-s, chalk-like.

Note.—Notice also the suffix -acio, especially in proper names: Ver-acia.

11. -ic-co, -ic-io (N. iceu-s, etc., iciu-s, etc.), form adjectives indicating material, the latter suffix also some indicating relation: palm-iceu-s, of palms; tribun-iciu-s, proceeding from a tribune.

12. -ic-io (N. iciu-s, etc.) is found in nov-iciu-s, new, and in words of participial meaning coming from forms in -to, as advent-iciu-s, stranger.

13. -ic-eo, -ic-io, occurs in pann-iceu-s or pann-iciu-s.

14. -cio and ci-ndo, ci-nio occur (perhaps) in vati-cinu-s, prophetic, and in some secondary neuter substantives, which denote action or event, as latro-cinu-m, robbery.

15. -cro, -cri, -clo, -culo (N. cer, cris, clu-m, culu-m) are found in some adjectives with participial force, and in a few neuter substantives indicating instrument or locality; as ala-cer, quick; medio-cris, mediocre; peri-clum (-culu-m), danger; ba-culu-m, stick (also m.): sepulcrum, grave. Also the primary ridi-culu-s, laughable, and the secondary anni-cula-s, aged.
186. Suffixes with a Dental.

1. -d (N. (d)s). Substantives only: frau-s, cheatery; mercê-s, pay; cûstô-s, guard.

2. -do, -di (N. du-s, etc., di-s). A secondary suffix used especially for the formation of adjectives: frig-i-du-s, cold; vir-i-dis, blooming.

3. -to (-so) (N. tu-s, ta, tu-m). This forms substantives and adjectives, and is both primary and secondary. Primary: M. cub-i-tu-s, elbow; dig-i-tus, finger; also substantives in -ta after Greek analogy: poê-ta, poet; F. has-ta, spear; am-i-ta, aunt; N. lu-tu-m, mud; têc-tum, roof; ap-tu-s, sit; bêa-tu-s, blessed. Secondary: M. nau-ta, sailor; F. iuven-ta, youth; N. dense growths in e-tu-m: frutic-e-tu-m, copse; iûs-tu-s, just; and passive adjectives like barb-a-tus, bearded.

4. -t (X. (t)s) forms primary and secondary substantives and adjectives. Primary: M. ûûs-ti-s, club; cas-si-s, hunting-net; F. cu-ti-s, skin; si-ti-s, thirst; for-ti-s, brave; mi-ti-s, mild. Secondary: (1) in adjectives and substantives indicating home, origin, usually preceded by â, î, more rarely ë: Camer-s (Camer-ti-s), from Camerinum; Arpina-s (Arpina-ti-s), of Arpinum; nostr-ûs, from our country; (2) in the form -ënsi (for ent-ti) in adjectives of origin and locality: Sicili-ënsi-s, from Sicily; castr-ënsi-s, belonging to a camp.

5. -t (N. (t)s) forms primary and secondary substantives and adjectives. Primary: M. com-e-s, companion: dên-s, tooth; F. qui-ë-s, rest; ar-s, art; locupl-e-s, wealthy; with preceding e: div-e-s, rich. Note also the Participles in -ns. Secondary: M. ûûl-e-s, bird; eque-s, horseman.

6. -ento- (N. -entu-s, etc.) forms substantives and adjectives; the latter are participial in nature. M. v-entu-s, wind; F. pol-enta, cluster; N. ungu-entu-m, salve; crn-entu-s, bloody. Secondary adjectives: gracil-entu-s, slender; and by false analogy corpul-entu-s, corpulent, and the like.

7. -tûl, -tût (M. tû-s, tú-s), forms secondary feminine abstracts and collectives: civ-i-ta-s, citizenship; liber-ta-s, freedom; iuven-tû-s, youth; vir-tû-s, manliness.

8. -tio, -tia, -tië (N. tiu-m, tia, tië-s), likewise form abstracts and collectives, some neuter, most masculine: servi-tiu-m, slavery; molli-tia and molli-tië-s, gentleness, etc.

Notes.—1. In in-i-tiu-m, beginning, and spa-tiu-m, room, the suffix is primary.
2. Many roots form various derivatives of similar meaning, thus: dûr-i-tia, dûr-i-tië-s, dûr-i-tû-s, hardness, etc.

9. -ti-co (N. tiu-s, etc.) forms secondary adjectives signifying pertaining to: domes-ticu-s, domestic; aqua-ti-co-s, aquatic.
Note.—In such substantives as canti-cu-m, triti-c-um, the ending -co has been added to a participial form in -to (canto, trito).

10. -ter forms primary substantives of kinship; as, pa-ter, etc. Different in formation is soror, which, like ux-or, has no feminine ending.

11. -tor (-sor), F. -tric (N. tor, trix), form substantives of agency, those in trix being all secondary: aud-i-tor, hearer; vënä-trix, huntress; -tor is secondary in gladiä-tor, etc.

12. -tūro-, -tūr-a (N. tūru-s, etc.), forms participles in tūru-s, as amā-tūru-s, and feminine substantives denoting activity or office: cultūr-a, cultivation; cēn-sūr-a, censorship.

13. -tör-io (-sör-io) (N. töriu-s, etc.), form neuter substantives of place and instrument, and adjectives denoting that which pertains to the actor: audi-tör-iu-m, lecture hall; äleä-tör-iu-s, pertaining to a dice-player.

14. -turo, -tra (N. tra, tru-m), forms substantives, mostly neuter, of means: arā-tra-m, plow; fenestra (f.), window. From words like mōn-s-tru-m, monster, come by false analogy those in -ster, as pin-aster, wild pine.

15. -tero, -tera (N. ter, tra, tru-m) forms comparatives: al-ter, other; dex-ter, right; nos-ter, our; perhaps also adjectives of relation, apparence, or locality in -ster (L. strīs), such as: palūs-ter (= palūd-ter), swampy; eques-ter, equestrian; campes-ter, champaign; terres-ter, of the earth, terrestrial.

16. -trino, -trina (N. trina, trinu-m), forms substantives of activity (f.), or of locality (f., n.): doc-trina, instruction; pis-trina, bakery; pis-trinu-m, (pounding) mill.

17. -tili (-sili) (N. tili-s, tile) forms primary adjectives of capacity and adaptation, and with preceding a secondary adjectives of relation or belonging: duc-tili s, ductile; mis-sili-s, missile; aquä-tili-s, belonging to the water.

18. -ter-no (N. terru-s, etc.) forms adjectives indicating time: hes-ternu-s, of yesterday.

19. -tur-no (N. turnu-s, etc.) forms substantives and adjectives indicating continuance, from which come proper names: Sā-turnu-s, Vol-turnu-s, tac-i turnu-s, silvnt.

20. -tino, -tino (N. tinu s, tinu-s, etc.), forms adjectives of time, the latter also of place: crās-tinu-s, of to-morrow; intes-tinu-s, inner, intestine; matii-tinu-s, of early morning.

21. -tu (-su) (N. tu-s, su-s) forms substantives of action and its result: adven-tu-s, arrival; cur-su-s, course; or-tu-s, rising.

22. -ā-tu (N. ā-tu-s) forms secondary substantives of office: cōnsul-ā-tu-s, consulship; sen-ā-tu-s, senate.
187.

### Suffixes with a Labial.

1. **-bo, -ba** (N. bu-s, etc.), forms substantives and adjectives: M. mor-bu-s, disease; F. bar-ba, beard; N. ver-bu-m, word; pro-bu-s, up right.

2. **-bro, -bra** (N. bra, bru-m), forms substantives indicating means or instrument. Primary: F. dolā-bra, cell; li-bra, balance; ter-e-bra, borer; N. cri-bru-m, sieve. Secondary: candēlā-bru-m, candlestick.

Note.—Very rare are masculines; as, fa-ber, wright; Mulci-ber, Vulcan.

3. **-bulo, -bula** (N. bula, bulu-m), form substantives: F. fā-bula, tale; fi-bula (fig.), brooch; N. pā-bulu-m, fodder; sta-bulu-m, stall.

4. **-bili** (N. bili-s) forms adjectives, mostly of passive meaning in classical prose: amā-bili-s, lovable; nō-bili-s, noble; flē-bili-s, tearful.

188.

### Suffixes with an original S.

1. **-is** (N. is, G. er-is) forms a few substantives: vōm-is (also vōm-er), plowshare; cin-is, ashes; pulv-is, dust; cucum-is, cucumber.

2. **-us** (N. us, G. er-is, or-is) forms primary and secondary neuter substantives. Primary: foed-us, bond; gen-us, race; temp-us, time. Secondary: pect-us, breast; fun-us, funeral.

Note.—Some such words have become monosyllabic, as aes, iūs, rūs.

3. **-ōs (-ōr)** (N. ōs, or, G. ōr-is) forms many primary and a few secondary masculine abstracts. Primary: flōs, flower; am-or, love. Secondary: aegr-or, sickness.

Note.—Noteworthy are M. lep-us, hare; F. arb-ōs, tree (45 n.); Ven-us (G. Ven-eris), and the adjective vet-us (G. veteris), old.

4. **-es** (N. es, ēs, G. is, ēt) forms a few substantives of the third and fifth declension: vāt-ēs, bard; fam-ēs, hunger; plēb-ēs, people.

5. **-ōr-o** (N. ōru-s, etc.) forms secondary adjectives, as: can-ōru-s, sounding; hon-ōru-s, honorable; and a few substantives, as: aur-ōra, morning: Flōra, etc.

189.

### Suffixes with a Liquid.

1. **-lō, -la** (N. lu-s, etc.), forms many feminine and neuter, and a few masculine substantives: M. mā-lu-s, mast; F. pi-la, pillar; N. cae-lu-m (= caed-lu-m), chisel; fi-lu-m, thread.

2. **-i-lo, -i-la** (N. ilu-s, etc.), forms primary and secondary sub-
statives and adjectives. M. sib-i-lu-s, hissing; N. cae-lu-m (=: cavi-lu-m, hollow), heaven; nüb-i-lu-s, cloudy.

3. (-o-lo), -u-lo, -u-la (N. ulu-s, etc.), form primary and secondary statives, most of which indicate instrument, and primary adjectives indicating repeated action or tendency: M. ang-u-lu-s, corner; oc-u-lu-s, eye; F. rég-u-la, rule; tég-u-la, tile; N. iac-u-lu-m, juculum; spec-u-lu-m, mirror; bib-u-lu-s, bibulous; créd-u-lu-s, quick to believe; quer-u-lu-s, complaining: caer-u-lu-s, blue (secondary), and caer-u-leu-s. Also fam-u-lu-s, servant, and the extension fam-il-i-a, family.

4. -li (N. li-s, le) occurs in the substantive: M. cau-li-s, stalk; and in adjectives: subt-il-i-s, fine; incil-i-s, cut in. Secondary in fidil-i-s, faithful.

5. -i-li (N. ili-s, ile) forms a few substantives and many adjectives indicating passive capacity: F. strig-i-li-s, scraper; N. teg-i-le, roof. Also vig-il, watchman; ag-il-i-s, readily moved; doc-il-i-s, teachable. Secondary in hum-il-i-s, low, and in the terminations -til-i-s, -sili-s.

6. -olo, -ola (after e, i, v), -ulo, -ula (N. olu-s, ulu-s, etc.), form diminutives: alve-olu-s, little belly; fili-olu-s, little son; riv-ulu-s, brooklet; rég-ulu-s, chief; vōc-ula, voice; grān-ulu-m, grain; alb-ulu-s, white; parv-olu-s, small.

7. -ello, -ella (N. ellu-s, etc.), forms diminutives after 1 and by assimilation after n, r: pop-ellu-s, tribelet; tab-el-la, tablet; pu-el-la, girl; bel-lu-s (bonus), good; misel-lu-s (miser), wretched. Doubly diminutives are catel-lu-s, puppy; cistel-la, basket; capitel-lu-m, head.

8. -illo, -illa (N. illu-s, etc.), forms diminutives, and is formed like ello, but usually after a preceding i: pulv-illu-s, small cushion; pistrilla, small mill; sig-illu-m, small image; bov-illu-s, bovine. Also cōdic-illu-s, billlet; paux-illu-s, slight; pus-illu-s, tiny.

9. -olla is found in cor-ōl-la, wreath; ōl-la, jar (aula).

10. -ullo, -ul-la, occurs in ūl-lu-s, any. Sul-la (= Sūr-u-la), Catul-lu-s (Catōn-lus), homullus (= homōn-lu-s).

11. (-co-lo), -cu-lo (N. culu-s, etc.), forms diminutives, especially after consonantal and e, i, u stems: M. flōs-culu-s, floweret; homun-culu-s, manikin (irregular); avu-n-culu-s, uncle (=mother’s brother, irregular); F. spē-cula, little hope; auri-cula, ear; arbus-culu-a, little tree (irregular); domu-n-culu-s, little house (irregular); N. cor-culu-m, (dear) heart; mānus-culu-m, little gift. Adjectives are dulci-culu-s, sweetish, and especially diminutives from comparative stems, melius-culu-s.

12. -cello (-cillo) (N. cellu-s, etc.) stands to culo as ello to ulo: M. pēni-cillu-s, m, painter’s brush; ōs-cillu-m, little mouth; molli-cellu-s, softish.
13. -uleo (N. üleu-s) forms substantives that were originally adjectival: acüleu-s, sting.

14. -āli, -āri (N. āli-s, āri-s, etc.), form secondary adjectives, some of which are substantivized in the neuter, and a few substantives: vēnālis, venal; mort-āli-s, mortal; singul-āri-s, unique; vulg-āri-s, common; can-āli-s, canid; animal, living being; calc-ar, spur.

15. -ēla (-ella) forms primary and secondary substantives, most of which indicate action: loqu-ēla (loqu-ella), talking; cand-ēla, candle; custōd-ēla, watching.

16. -ēlla forms primary and secondary substantives, mostly indicating activity: loqu-ēlla (loqu-ella), talking; cand-ēlla, candle; custōd-ēlla, watching.

17. -mo, -ma (N. mu-s, etc.), forms primary substantives and primary and secondary adjectives. The feminine substantives express usually the result of an action: M. an-i-mu-s, spirit; cal mu-s, call-a-mu-s, stalk; F. fā-ma, fame; flam-ma, flame; N. ar-ma, arms; pō-mum, fruit. Adjectives, primary: al-mu-s, fostering; fir-mu-s, strong. Secondary: op-i-mu-s, fat; patr-i-mu-s, master's.

18. -men (N. men, G. min-is) forms primary, neuter substantives, mostly indicating activity or results of activity: āg-men, train; flā-men, river; but M. flā-men, priest.

19. -men-to (N. mentu-m) forms substantives (mostly primary) indicating instrument: al-i-mentu-m, nourishment; tor-mentu-m, torture.

20. -men-to (N. mentu-m) forms substantives (mostly primary) indicating instrument: al-i-mentu-m, nourishment; tor-mentu-m, torture.

Notes.—1. -men and -mentum are often formed from the same radical. In that case -mentum is the more common: teg-u-men, teg-u-mentu-m, covering.
2. Rare and archaic feminines in -menta are: armenta = armentu-m.
3. -menti occurs in sementi-s (f.), seed = sēmen (n.).


22. -mino, -minu, -mno, -mma (N. minu-s, etc.), form substantives: M. ter-minu-s, boundary; F. al-u-mna, foster-daughter; fē-mina, woman; N. da-mnu-m, loss.

23. -mōn (N. mō, G. mōn-is) forms primary and secondary masculine substantives: pul-mō, lung; ser-mō, discourse; tē-mō, pole (of a chariot).

24. -mōn-io, -mōn-ia (N. mōnia, mōniu-m), forms primary and
FORMATION OF WORDS.

secondary substantives. Primary: F. al-i-mōnia, nourishment; quer-i-mōnia, complaint; N. al-i-mōniu-m, nourishment. Secondary: F. acri-mōnia, lartness; N. mātr-i-mōniu-m, marriage.

25. -mōr forms primary masculine substantives: cre-mor, broth; rū-mor, rumor.

26. -mic (N. mex, G. mic-is) forms a few substantives: ci-mex, buy; pu-mex, pumice.

27. a. -no, -na (N. nu-s, etc.), forms primary and secondary adjectives; the primary are participial in meaning; the secondary indicate material or relation, and occasionally locality; when added to local comparatives and adverbs, distributive numerals are also formed with this suffix. Primary: dig-nu-s, worthy; plē-nu-s, full. Secondary: diur-nu-s, daily; frater-nu-s, brotherly; acer-nu-s, maple; ex-ter-nu-s, outer; bi-ni, two each.

Note.—Adjectives denoting material have also -neo (= n'-eo), as ae-neu-s, brazen; fīlig-neu-s, quer-neu-s.

b. -no, -na (N. nu-s, etc.), forms primary and a few secondary substantives. Primary: M. fur-nu-s, oven; pūg-nu-s, fist; F. cē-na, meal; la-na, wool. N. dō-nu-m, gift; rēg-nu-m, kingdom. Secondary: M. tribu-nu-s, tribune; F. fortū-na, fortune; albur-nu-m, sap-wood.

Note.—This suffix is extended in pecū-nia, money.

28. -bundo-, -cundo (N. bundu-s, etc., cundu-s, etc.), form adjectives of activity: cunct-ā-bundu-s, delaying; fā-cundu-s, eloquent.

29. -ni (N. ni-s) forms primary substantives and adjectives: am-ni-s, stream; pē-ni-s, tail; pā-ni-s, bread; im-mā-ni-s, wild; sēg-ni-s, lazy.

30. -ino, -inu (N. inu-s, etc.), forms primary and secondary substantives and adjectives. Primary: M. dom-inu-s, lord; F. pāg-inu, page; lic-inu-s, curled upwards. Secondary: M. ped-ic-inu-s, foot; F. fisc-inu, basket; N. sēc-inu-m, amber; faec-inu-s, making dregs.

Note.—The suffix is extended in the proper name Lic-iniu-s.

31. -āno, ānu (N. ānu-s, etc.), forms secondary adjectives, some of which are substantivized. They indicate origin or appurtenance; decum-ānu-s, belonging to the tenth; hūm-ānu-s, human; alt-ānu-s, seawind. Primary in Volc-ānu-s, Di-āna.

32. -ān-eo (N. āneu-s, etc.) forms primary and secondary adjectives. Primary: cōsent-āneu-s, harmonious. Secondary: subit-āneu-s, sudden. This suffix becomes ānio (= ān'io) in proper names: Afr-āniu-s, Fund-āniu-s.

33. -ēno, -ēnu (N. ēnu-s, etc.), forms secondary substantives and
adjectives: M. Vibidi-ënus; F. cat-ëna, chain; hab-ëna, rein; N. ven-ënus, poison; eg-ënus, needly; ali-ënus, strange.

Note.—This is extended to ën-on in toll-ënô, (well) sweep.

34. -ëno, -ëna (N. ënus, etc.), forms primary and secondary substantives and adjectives. Primary: M. cat-ënus, -m, dish; F. rap-ëna, rapine; ru-ëna, rain; nec-op-ënu-s, unexpected. Secondary: M. pulvinus, cushion; sal-ënus, salt-cellar. and many feminines, especially those denoting shops and factories: rég-ëna, queen; cul-ëna, kitchen; offic-ëna, workshop; ágn-ënus, belonging to a lamb; div-ënus, divine.

Note.—An extension of this suffix is found in ric-ënus, veil.

35. -ën (N. -ên, G. -ën-is) forms a few substantives: M. pect-ën, comb; N. glut-ën, glue.

36. -ôn (N. ò, G. in-is) forms a few substantives: M. card-ô, hinge; marg-ô, rim; òrû-ô, row; F. a-sperg-ô, sprinkling; virg-ô, mail; ear-ô, flesh.

Notes.—1. Noteworthy is hom-ô, hom-ën-is, man.

2. This suffix occurs very commonly in compounds forming feminine abstracts:

-ëddôn (N. ëddô), dulc-ëddô, sweetness; -ëdôn (N. ëdô), cup-ëdô, desire; form-ëdô, fear; -ëdûn (N. ëdû), tell-ëdû, tortoise; -ëddûn (N. ëdûdô), aegri-tëdû, sickness; -ëgôn (N. ëgô), im-ëgô, image; -ëgûn (N. ëgô), aer-ëgô, rust; -ëgôn (N. ëgô), cal-ëgô, thick darkness; or-ëgô, origin, etc.

37. -ôn (N. ò, G. ônis) forms primary and secondary substantives. The primary are nouns of agency: combi-ô, fellow-drinker; prae-ô, herald; òri-ô, recruit. The secondary indicate often the possession of some bodily or mental peculiarities; ële-ô, dice-player; centuri-ô, centurion.

38. -iôn (N. iô) forms a few masculine and many feminine primary and secondary substantives. Primary: M. pûg-iô, dagger; F. opin-iô, opinion; rég-iô, region. Secondary: M. pell-iô, furrier; vespertil-iô, bat; F. com-mûn-iô, communion.

Note.—Especially frequent are feminine abstracts in t-iô (s-iô): amb-i-tiô, ambition; op-pûgnâ-tiô, siege. Noteworthy are the secondary diminutives, homunc-iô, senec-iô.

39. -ônö, -ônä (N. ônus, ôna), forms few primary and many secondary substantives; the masculines indicate agents, especially person employed: M. col-ônus, settler; F. mûtr-ônä, matron; Bell-ôna.

40. -ônio, -ônia (N. ônus, etc.), forms substantives and adjectives: M. Fav-ônius, zephyr; Pomp-ônus, etc.; caup-ônus, belonging to a host. Neuters indicate the trade or shop: full-ônus, fuiler's shop.

41. -ro, -ra (N. (e)r, -ra, ru-m), forms primary substantives and adjectives: M. ag-e-r, field; cap-e-r, goat; mû-ru-s, wall; F. lau-ru-s, laurel;
ser-ra, saw; N. flag-ru-m, whip; lab-ru-m, lip; clâ-ru-s, bright; pû-ru-s, clean.

Often a short vowel precedes: M. num-e-ru-s, number; F. cam-era, vault; N. iûg-eru-m, measure of land. So hil-aru-s, joyous; lib-er, free; cam-aru-s, vaulted; sat-ar, full.

Notes.—1. Extensions are Mer-cur-iu-s, tug-ur-iu-m, hto.

2. In a number of primary substantives and adjectives short vowel is preceded by a short vowel: M. late-r, tile; ans-er, goose; F. mul-i-er, woman; N. ac-er, maple; vûr (= ves-er), spring; cic-ur, tame.

42. -ri (N. -(e)-r, -ris, G. ris) forms substantives and adjectives: M. imb-e-r, rain-storm; ac-e-r, sharp; funeb-ri-s, funeral; perhaps celeb-er, thronged.

43. -äro forms adjectives, as: av-äru-s, greedy; am-äru-s, bitter.

44. -äri, -äli (N. äri-s, ali-s, etc.), forms secondary substantives and adjectives; -äri when the stem has l, -äli when it has an r: pugill-äre-s, tablets; primipil-äri-s, one who has been primipilus; some neuters in ar (from -are): calc-ar, spur; ex-em-p-l-ar, pattern; pulvin-ar, (sacred) couch; auxilli-äri-s, auxiliary; milit äri-s, military; cûnsul-äri-s, consular.

45. -äriu, -äriu (N. äriu-s, etc.), forms substantives and adjectives. There are sometimes collateral forms in -äri-s. The substantives, when masculine, indicate artisans; when feminine, business or profession; when neuter, the place where the work is carried on. M. argent-äriu-s, money-changer; ferr-äriu-s, iron-worker; F. argent-äria, silver mine, bank or banking; N. api-äriu-m, beehive; pûm-äriu-m, apple orchard.

46. -ëro (N. ėru-s, etc.) forms sev-ër-us, earnest, and the substantive gal-ër-us, -m, bonnet.

47. -ëri forms the substantive sec-ëri-s, axe, and by extension pën-ëria, want.

48. The letter r appears often in combination with other suffixes, as: -er-co in lup-erco-s, Pan; nov-erca, step-mother; -er-to in lac-ertu-s, arm; lac-ertu-s, a lizard; -er-bo in ac-erbu-s, sour; superbus, proud; -er-vo in acervo-s, heap; cat-erva, crowd; -er-na in caverna, hollow; lu-cerna, lamp; -ter-na in lan-ter-na, lantern; -ur-no in alburnu-s, white fish; laburnu-m, laburnum.

190. FORMATION OF VERBS.

1. Primitives are confined to the Third Conjugation, to some forms of the Irregular verbs, and to some Inchoatives. The various stem-formations are shown in 133.

2. Derivatives comprise the verbs of the First, Second, and Fourth
Conjugations, and some verbs of the Third Conjugation. They are all (except the Inchoatives and the Meditatives) formed with the suffix $io$, $ie$ (yo, ye), which is added either to simple verbal stems, or to noun (16) stems already existing or presupposed. The $i$ in $io$, $ie$, contracts with the preceding vowels $a$, $e$, $i$, $u$, leaving the ordinary forms of the regular conjugations. Certain categories of these verbs have obtained special names according to their various meanings:

The *Causatives*, formed by a change in the stem-vowel.

The *Desideratives*, formed by the addition of -$io$ to nōmina agentis in -tor; afterwards a desiderative force was associated with the combination -tor-io (-tar-io), and it was applied indiscriminately.

The *Frequentatives* come originally probably from participial stems in -to; Latin developed also the suffix -ito; further, this being added again to -to gave rise to -tito (-sito).

The *Inchoatives*, formed by a special suffix, -sco (sko), are treated in conjugation as primitives belonging to the Third Conjugation.

The *Meditatives* have not been explained.

Note.—Theoretically the *Verbālia* are all Denominativa, but owing to the wide working of Analogy, it has been impossible in many cases, as in amā-re, monē-re, to discover an original noun; while in other cases, as the verbal is formed from a part of a denominative verb, it is convenient to retain the division.

191. A. *Verbālia* (derived from verb-stems, 190, n.):

1. *Frequentatives* or *Intensives*, denoting repeated or intense Action. These verbs end in -tāre (-sāre), -itāre, -titāre (-sitāre), and follow the supine stem (perfect passive form).

(a) cantāre, sing; compare canō (cantum): cursāre, run to and fro; compare currō (cursum): dictāre, dictate; compare dicō (dictum): dormitāre, be sleepy; compare dormiō (dormitum): habitāre, keep, dwell; compare habēō (habitum): pollicitāri, promise freely; compare polliceor (pollicitus): pulsāre, beat; compare pellō (pulsum).

(b) agitāre (ago), nōscitāre (nōscō), sciscitāre (sciscō), visitāre (visō), vocitāre (vocō), volitāre (volō).

(c) cantitāre (cantāre), dictitāre (dictāre), cursitāre (cursāre).

Notes.—1. The simple verb presupposed by the frequentative or intensive is often out of use, as in the case of: gus-tāre, taste; hor-tāri, exhor. The frequentative or intensive in -tāre is often out of use: actitāre, repeatedly or zealously agitate (no actāre), from ago, actum: lēctitāre, read carefully (no lēctāre), from legō, lēctum.

2. The verbs of the Fourth Conjugation form no frequentatives except dormiō, sleep, dormitō; mūniō, fortify, mūniō (rare): saliō, leap; saltō; apertō, lay bare, and opertō, cover, and compounds of ventō (veniō, come).

2. *Inchoatives* indicate entrance upon an action. For their formation see 133, V.

3. *Desideratives* denote Desire or Tendency. They are formed
by means of the suffix -turiō (-suriō): ēsurīre (for ed-t), to be sharp-set for eating, hungry; ēm-p-turiō, to be all agog for buying.

4. Causatives signify the Effecting of the Condition indicated by their original verb. They are found mainly in the Second Conjugation, and show usually a change in the stem-vowel.

Change: cadere, fall, and caedere, fell; liquere, melt (trans.), and liquere, melt (intr.); from root men- (as in me-men tō) comes monēre, remind; necāre, kill, and nocēre, be death to; placēre, please, and plācāre, cause to be pleased, appease; sedēre, sit, and sēdāre, settle.

No change: fugere, flee, and fugāre, put to flight; iacere, throw, and iacēre, (lie) thrown; pendere (hang) weigh, and pendēre, hang (intr.).

5. Meditatives: (verbs that look forward to an action). These end in -essere: acessere, to summon; capessere, to catch at; facessere, to do eagerly; incessere, to enter; lacessere, to irritate (136, 3, b).

192. B. Denominatives (derived from noun-stems):

1. These are most commonly found in the First Conjugation, even though the stem-vowel of the noun is i or u.

(a) acervā-re, heap up (from acervo-s); aestuā-re, seethe (aestu-s); corōnā-re, wreathe (corōna); levā-re, lighten (lev-i-s); maculā-re, be-smārč (macula); nōminā-re, name (nomen, nōmin-is); onerā-re, load (onus, oner-is).

The Deponents signify Condition, Employment: ancillā-rī, be maid (ancilla); aquā-rī, be a drawer of water (aqua); fūrā-rī, thieve (fūr); laetā-rī, be glad (laetu-s).

(b) albē-rē, be white (albu-s); flōrē-re, be in bloom (flōs, floris); frondē-re, be in leaf (frōns, frondi-s); lūcē-rē, be light (lūx, lūc-is).

(c) arguē-re (be bright, sharp), prove; laede-rē, hurt; metuē-re, be in fear (metu-s).

(d) cūstōdi-re, guard (cūtōs, cūstōd-is); finī-re, cnūl (fini-s); lēni-re softēn (lēni-s); vesti-re, clothe (vesti-s).

3. Noteworthy are the Diminutives formed by the suffix -illāre: st-illāre, drop (st-illa); scint-illāre, sparkle (scint-illa); ōsc-illāre, to swing (ōscillum). Similar in function but of different formation are pululāre, sprout (pul-lus); fodicāre, punch (fodere, dig); albicāre, whiten (albu-s).

Notes.—1. The Denominatives of the First, Third, and Fourth Conjugations are regularly transitīve, those of the Second Conjugation are regularly intransītive.

2. These verbs are often found only in combination with prepositions: ab-undāre, run over, abound (from unda, wave); ac-cūsāre, accuse (from causa, case); ex-aggerāre, pile up (from agger); ex-stirpāre, root out (stirp-s); il-lūmināre, illumine (from lūmen, lūmin-is).
B.—Compound Words.

I. FORMATION OF COMPOUND WORDS.

193. 1. By composition words are so put together that a new word is made with a signification of its own. The second word is regularly the fundamental word, the first the modifier.

Note.—Properly speaking, composition occurs only in the case of substantives, i.e., where two or more simple stems come together. In verbs, there is either juxtaposition, where the parts still retain their original force, or the combination of a verb with a preposition. Broadly speaking, however, composition applies to all combinations of words.

2. Composition is either proper or improper.

194. Substantive.

In Composition Improper there are either traces of construction or the first part is still inflected: ē-nōrmis = ex nōrmā, out of all rule; légis-lātor, lawgiver; Senātūs-cōnsultūm, decree of the Senate.

Many of these compounds have gradually become inflectional: délirus (dē-līrā), crazy from fear; ēgregius (ē-grege), distinguished (from the crowd); prōcōnsul (for prō cōnsule); trium-vir (from trium virum), etc.

Note.—From composition we must distinguish juxtaposition. So a preposition is brought into juxtaposition with a substantive, or a substantive with a substantive: ad-modum, to a degree, very; ob-viam, in the way, meeting; āsusfructus, usu-fruct; Iūpiter, Father Jove. Noteworthy are the Copulative compounds; such are compound numerals like ān-decim, duo-decim, etc., and occasional others: su-ove-taur-ilia, offerings of swine, sheep, and bulls.

195. Composition Proper.

1. The first part of the compound may be a particle, as ne-fār-iu-s, nefarious; vē-sānus, mad, out of one's sound senses: or a substantive.

If it is a substantive—

(a) The stems in -a, -o, -u regularly weaken these vowels into -i before the consonants of the second part, which i may vanish: causidicus, pleader, lawyer (causa); signi-fer, standard-bearer (signu-m); corni-ger, horn-wearer (cornū); man-ceps (manu- and cap-), one who takes in hand, contractor. The i-stems retain i or drop it: igni-vomu-s, fire-vomiting (igni-s); nau-fragu-s, shipwrecked (nāvi-s).

(b) Vowel-stems drop their vowel before the vowel of the second part: māgn-animu-s, great-souled; ān-animu-s, of one mind.

(c) Consonant-stems either drop their consonants or add i: homi-cid-a, manslayer (homin-); lapi-cid-a, stone-cutter (lapid-); mātr-i-cid-a, mother-murderer, matricide.

Note.—The first part is rarely, if ever, a verb. Apuleius uses the form pōsci-3-ius.
2. The second part of the composition is a noun: tri-enn-i-u-m, space of three years (annus); miseri-cor-s, tender-hearted (cor).

When the second part ends in a vowel, it adapts itself, if an adjective, to changes of gender, as flāvi-comus, yellow-haired (coma, hair), but more often this final vowel becomes i and the adjective follows the third declension: tri-rēmi-s, trireme (rēmus, oar); ab-nōrmī-s, abnormal (nōrma, norm).

When the second part ends in a consonant, the last term usually undergoes no change: bi-dēn-s, two-pronged; simplex (sim-plec-s), simple.

Note.—From genus (G. generis), is formed dé-gener.

II. SIGNIFICATION OF COMPOUNDS.

196. Compounds substantives and adjectives are divided according to their signification into two main classes: Determinative and Possessive.

In Determinative compounds one of the terms is subordinate to the other. They fall into two classes: Attributive or Appositional, and Dependent.

197. i. Attributive compounds. The first part is the attribute of the second.

The first word is, (1) a substantive: āli-pēs, wing-foot(ed); (2) an adjective: māgn-animus, great-hearted; lāti-fundium, large estate; (3) a numeral: bi-enni-um (i.e., spatium), space of two years.

2. Dependent compounds. In these the second word is simply limited by the other, its signification not being altered.

(a) The first word is: (1) an adjective: meri-diēs (from medi-diē = mediō diē), mid-day; (2) an adverb: bene-ficus (well-doing), beneficent; male-ficus, evil-doing; (3) a numeral: ter-geminus, triple; (4) a particle: dis-sonus, harsh-sounding; per-māgnus, very large; in-dignus, unworthy; (5) a verb-stem: horri-ficus, horrible (horror-stirring).

(b) The first word gives a case relation, such as (1) the Accusative: armi-ger = arma gerēns, armor-bearer; agri-cola = agrum colēns (land-tiller), husbandman; (2) the Genitive: sōl-stitium = sōlis statio (sun-staying), solstice; (3) the Locative: aliēni-gena (born elsewhere), alien; (4) the Instrumental: tibi-cen = tibiā canēns, flute-player.

198. Possessive Compounds are adjectival only, and are so called because they imply the existence of a Subject possessing the quality indicated.

The first term is, (1) a substantive: angui-manus, (having a) snake-hand (elephant); (2) an adjective: flāvi-comus, (having) yellow hair; (3) a numeral: bi-frōns, (having) two front(s); (4) a particle: dis-cors, discordant; in-ers, inactive.
Note.—Notice that these divisions run into each other; thus *māgn-animus* is possessive, attributive, and dependent.

199. *Verb.*

In Composition Improper the verb is joined to a verb, substantive, or adverb. In Composition Proper the verb is combined with a preposition.

200. 1. *Composition Improper.*

(a) Verb with verb: This only takes place when the second part of the compound is *faciō* or *fiō* (173, n. 2). The first part of the compound is regularly an intransitive of the second conjugation: *cale-faciō*, *cale-fiō*, warm, am warmed.

(b) Verb with substantive: *anim-advertō = animum* advertō, take notice; *manū-mittō*, set free; *ūsū-capiō*, acquire by use.

(c) Verb with adverb: *bene-dīcō*, bless; *male-dīcō*, curse; *mālō*, nōlō (for mage (magis) volō, ne- volō), satis-faciō, satisfy.

2. *Composition Proper.*

The verb combines with separable or inseparable prepositions. Compare 413, r. 3.

(a) With inseparable prepositions: *amb-iō*, go about; *am-plector*, enfold; *an-helō*, draw deep breath, pant; *dis-currō*, run apart; *dir-imō*, 160, 1, and 715, r. 1; *por-tendo*, hold forth, portend; *red-dō*, give back; *re-solvō*, resolve; *sē-iungō*, separate.

(b) With separable prepositions: *ab-eō*, go away; *ad-eō*, come up; *ante-currō*, run in advance; *com-pōnō*, put together; *dē-currō*, run down, finish a course: *ex-cēdō*, overstep; *in-clūdō*, shut in; *ob-dūcō*, draw over; *per-agrō*, wander through; *post-habeō*, keep in the background; *praedīcō*, foretell; *praeter-eō*, pass by; *prōd-eō*, go forth; *praevideō*, foresee; *sub-iō*, put under; *subter-fugīō*, flee from under; *super-sum*, remain over; *trans-gredior*, pass beyond.
201. Syntax treats of the formation and combination of sentences.

A sentence is the expression of a thought (sententia) in words.

Sentences are divided into simple and compound.

A simple sentence is one in which the necessary parts occur but once; for the compound sentence see 412.

The necessary parts of the sentence are the subject and the predicate.

The predicate is that which is said of the subject.
The subject is that of which the predicate is said.

Lūna fulget, The moon shines.
Lūna is the subject; fulget, the predicate.

Remarks.—1. The Interjection (16, r. 2) and the Vocative case (23, 5) stand outside the structure of the sentence, and therefore do not enter as elements into Syntax, except that the Vocative is subject to the laws of Concord. See r. 3.

2. The Vocative differs from the Nominative in form in the second declension only, and even there the Nominative is sometimes used instead, especially in poetry and solemn prose.

Almae filius Māiae, H., O., 1, 2, 43; son of mild Māia! Audi tū, populus Albānus, L., 1, 24, 7; hear thou, people of Alba!

ō is prefixed to give emphasis to the address:

ō formōse puer, nimium nē crede colōri, V., Ec. 2, 17; O shapely boy! trust not complexion all too much.

The Vocative is commonly interjected in prose, except in highly emotional passages.

3. On the use of the Vocative of an adjective or participle in apposition, attribution, or predication, see 289, 325, r. 1.

Syntax of the Simple Sentence.

202. The most simple form of the sentence is the finite verb: su-m, I am; docē-s, thou teachest; scribi-t, he writes.
203. **Subject.**—The subject of the finite verb is always in the Nominative Case, or so considered.

Remarks.—1. The subj. of the Inf. is in the Accusative (343, 2). 2. The use of the Nom. in Latin is the same as in English.

204. The subject may be a substantive or a pronoun, or some other word, phrase, or clause used as a substantive:

Deus mundum gubernat, God steers the universe. Ego rēgēs eīcī, [C.] ad Her., iv. 53, 66; I drove out kings. Sapiēns rēs adversās nōn timet, the sage does not fear adversity. Vīti in servitūtem rediguntur, the vanquished are reduced to slavery. Contendisse deōrum est, Ov., M., ix. 6; to have struggled is honorable. Māgnūm beneficium [est] nāturae quod necesse est morī, Sen., E.M., 101, 14; it is a great boon of nature, that we mustneeds die. Vide habet duās syllabās, (the word) "vides" has two syllables.

Notes.—1. Masculine and feminine adjectives, and to a less degree participles, are used as substantives, but with the following limitations:

(a) Many adjectives in -ārius and -icus (the latter mostly Greek), designating office or occupation, and words expressing friendship, kinship, or other relationship, are used often as substantives both in the Sing. and the Pl. of the masculine and feminine: aquārius, waterman; librārius, bookman (seller, writer, etc.); grammaticus, grammarian; amicus, friend; cognātus, kinsman; socius, partner. Many of these have become almost wholly fixed as substantives, as amicus, friend. See 16, n. 1.

(b) Adjectives are very often used as substantives in the masc. Pl. when they designate a class: pauperēs, the poor; divitēs, the rich. In the oblique cases of the Sing., this use is also not uncommon; but in the Nom. the substantive is generally expressed: vir bonus, a good man; mulier peregrina, a foreign woman. So regularly, if used with a proper name: Platō, doctissimus homō, the learned Plato. Exceptions are rare and scattering in prose: ego et suāvissimus Cicerō valēmus, C., Fam., xiv. 5, 1.

(c) On the use of participles as substantives see 437, n.

(d) When persons are not meant, a substantive is understood: cāni (capilli), gray hairs; calīda (aqua), warm water; dextra (manus), right hand.

2. Neuter adjectives and participles are freely employed as substantives in both numbers; in the Pl. usually in Nom. and Acc., in the Sing. in all cases, but especially in connection with prepositions: medium, the midst; extrēmum, the end; reliquum, the residue; futūrum, the future; bonum, good; bona, blessings, possessions; malum, evil; mala, misfortunes. The Plural is frequently employed when the English idiom prefers the Singular: vēra, the truth; omnia, everything.

3. Adjectives of the Second Declension are sometimes used as neuter substantives in the Gen., after words of quantity or pronouns: alicuīd boni, something good; nihil mali, nothing bad. Adjectives of the Third Declension are thus employed only in combination with those of the Second, and even then very rarely (369, n. 1).

Usually the adjective of the Third Declension draws the adjective of the Second
into its own construction: Quid habet ista res ant laetabile aut gloriosum? C., Tusc., 1. 21, 49; what is there to be glad of or to brag about in that?

4. Instead of the nenter adjective, the word res, thing, is frequently used, especially in forms which are identical for different genders, and consequently ambiguous; so bonarum rerum, of blessings, rather than bonorum (masc. and neut.).

5. In Latin the Pl. of abstract substantives occurs more frequently than in English; adventus imperatorum, the arrivals of the generals (because there were several generals, or because they arrived at different times). Pluralizing abstract substantives often makes them concrete: fortitudines, gallant actions; formidines, bugbears; irae, quarrels.

6. Other Pl. expressions to be noted are: nives, snow-flakes; grandines, hail-stones; pluviae, streams of rain; ligna, logs of wood; carnes, pieces of meat; aera, articles of bronze; also symmetrical parts of the human body: cervicis, neck; pectora, breast.

The Pl. is freely used in poetry and in later prose: Ótia si tollás, periére Cupidinis arcús, Ov., Rem. Am., 139; if you do away with holidays, Cupid's bow (and arrows) are ruined.

7. The rhetorical Roman often uses the First Person Pl. for the First Person Singular. The usage originates in modesty, but mock modesty is the worst form of pomposity. It is never very common, and is not found before Cicero: Librum ad tē dé senectute misimus, C., Cat. M., 1, 3; we have sent you a treatise on old age.

In poetry there is often an element of rhymer: Sitque memor nostri necne, referite mihi, Ov., Tr., iv, 3, 10; bring me back (word) whether she thinks of us (me among others) or no.

8. (a) The Sing., in a collective sense, is also used for the Pl., but more rarely: faba, beans; porcus, pig (meat); gallina, fowl (as articles of food); vestis, clothing.

(b) The use of the Sing. in designations of nationalities and divisions of troops is introduced by Livy: Rōmānus, the Roman forces; Poenus, the Carthaginians; hostis, the enemy: miles, the soldiery; pedes, the infantry: eques, the cavalry.

205. Predicate and Copula.—When the predicate is not in the form of a verb, but in the form of an adjective or substantive, or equivalent, the so-called copula is generally employed, in order to couple the adjective or substantive with the subject.

The chief copula is the verb sum, I am.

Fortūna caeca est, C., Latil., 15, 54; fortune is blind. Usus magister est optimus, C., Rab. Post., 4, 9; practice is the best teacher.

Note.—Strictly speaking, the copula is itself a predicate, as is shown by the translation when it stands alone or with an adverb: est Deus, there is a God, God exists; rectē semper erunt res, things will always be (go on) well; sic vita hominum est, C., Rose Am., 30, 81; such is human life; "So runs the world away."

206. Other copulative verbs are: vidēri, to seem; nasci, to be born; fieri, to become; évādere, to turn out; créāri, to be created; deligī, to be chosen; putāri, to be thought; habēri, to be held; dici, to be said; appellāri, to be called; nōmināri, to be named. Hence the rule:

Verbs of seeming, becoming, with the passive of verbs of
making, choosing, showing, thinking, and calling, take two Nominatives, one of the subject, one of the predicate:

Nemō nāscitur dīvēs, Sen., E.M., 20, 13; no one is born rich. Aristidēs iūstus adpellātūr, Aristides is called just. [Servius] rēx est déclārātus, L., i. 46, 1; Servius was declared king. [Thucydīdēs] numquam est numerātus ērātōr, C., O., 9, 31; Thucydides has never been accounted an orator.

Remarks.—1. With esse, serve as: vidēri, seem; habēri, be held; dūci, be deemed, and rarely with other verbs, instead of the Predicate Nom., a phrase may be employed, as: prō with Abl., (in) locā, in numerō, with Gen., etc.

Audacīa prō mūrō habētur, S., C., 58, 17; boldness is counted as a bulwark. In filīi locā, C., Red. in Sen., 14, 35; as a son.

2. The previous condition is given by ex or de and the Abl. (396, s. 2). Ex ērātōrē arātor factus, C., Ph., iii. 9, 22; a pleader turned plowman.

3. All copulative verbs retain the Nom. with the Inf. after auxiliary verbs (423).

Beātus esse sine virtūte nēmō potest, C., N.D., i. 18, 48; no one can be happy without virtue.

4. On the Double Acc. after Active Verbs, see 340.

Notes.—1. The verbs mentioned, with some others, are found in good prose. Others are either poetical or unclassical, thus: perhibēri, to be held, is early; appārēre, to appear, is poetic and post-classical for vidēri; redī is not used for fieri; sistī, to be set down, is Plautine; manēre, to remain, is late (permanēre once in Cicero).

2. Noteworthy is the use of audīre, like the Greek ἀκούειν, to be called, which is confined to Horace; rēxque paterque audīsti, Ep., i. 7, 33; S., ii. 6, 20, just as “hear” in this sense is said to be confined to Milton.

207. Subject Omitted.—The personal pronoun is not expressed in classical prose, unless it is emphatic, as, for example, in contrasts:

Amāmus parentēs, We love (our) parents. Ego régēs ēiēči, vōs tyrannōs intrōdācitis, [C.] ad Her., iv. 53, 66; I drove out kings, ye are bringing in tyrants.

Note.—The insertion of the pronoun without emphasis is very common in the comic poets, and seems to have been a colloquialism. Also common in Catullus, Sallust (as an archaism), and Petronius.

208. Impersonal Verbs.—Impersonal Verbs are verbs in which the agent is regularly implied in the action, the subject in the predicate, so that the person is not expressed. Chief of these are:

1. Verbs pertaining to the state of the weather: tonat, it thunders, the thunder thunders, or rather, the Thunderer thunders; fulget, fulgu-
rat (less common), fulminat (poet.), it lightens; pluit (poet.), it rains; ningit, it snows, etc.

Nocte pluit töäa, V., (Poet. Lat. Min., iv. 155, B.) all night it (he, Jupiter) rains.

Note.—The divine agent is sometimes expressed; so, naturally, in religious or popular language: love tonante, fulgurante, C., Div., ii. 18, 43; love fulgente, C., N.D., ii. 25, 65.

2. The passive of intransitive verbs is often used impersonally; so regularly of verbs which in the active are construed with the Dat. (217): vivitur, people live; curritur, there is a running; pügnätur, there is a battle: mihi invidétur, I am envied. The subject is contained in the verb itself: sic vivitur = sic vita vivitur, such is life; pügnätur = püga pügnätur, a battle is (being) fought. In the same way explain taedet, it wearsies; miseret, it moves to pity; piget, it disgusts; pudet, it puts to shame.

Notes.—1. With all other so-called Impersonal Verbs an Inf. (422, 533) or an equivalent (533) is conceived as a subject: Nön lubet mihi deplöräre vitam, C., Cat. M., 23, 84. Sed accidit perincommode quod eum nüquam vidisti, C., Att., i. 17, 2.

2. Other uses coincide with the English. So the Third Person Pl. of verbs of Saying, Thinking, and Calling. Also the ideal Second Person Singular (258). To be noticed is the occasional use of inquit, quod he, of an imaginary person, but not by Caesar, Sallust, or Tacitus: Nön concedó, inquit, Epicürö, C., Ac., ii. 32, 101; I do not yield the point, quod he (one), to Epicurus.

209. Copula Omitted.—Est or sunt is often omitted in saws and proverbs, in short statements and questions, in rapid changes, in conditional clauses, and in tenses compounded with participles:

Summum iüss summa iniüria, C., Off., i. 10, 33; the height of right (is) the height of wrong. Némo malus félix, Juv., iv. 8; no bad man (is) happy. Quid dulcius quam habère quicum omnia audeás loqui? C., Lael., 7, 22; what sweeter than to have some one with whom you can venture to talk about everything? Sed haec vetera; illud vérö recëns, C., Ph., ii. 11, 25. Aliquamdiü certárum, S., Jug., 74, 3. Cür hostis Spartæus, si tú civis? C., Paral., 4, 30.

So also esse, with participles and the like:

Caesar statuit exspectandam clássem, Caes., B.G., iii. 14, 1; Caesar resolved that the fleet must be waited for.

Notes.—1. The omission of esse is not common with the Nom. and Infinitive.

2. Popular speech omits freely; so, mirum ní, mirum quín, factum, in Latin comedy; likewise potis and pote for forms of posse. To a like origin are the mirum quantum, nimium quantum, etc., found at all periods.

3. The ellipsis of other forms of the copula is unusual. Thus Cicero occasionally omits sit in the Indirect Question, and Tacitus other forms of the Subjv. besides. Fuisse is omitted by Livy, and not unfrequently by Tacitus.

4. The Ellipsis of esse was sometimes due to the desire of avoiding the heaping up
of Infinitives. Thus sentences like *nōn dubitō tē esse sapientem dicere* (to declare you to be wise) were regularly cut down to *nōn dubitō tē sapientem dīoere* (to declare you wise).

5. The ellipsis of other verbs, such as *facere, ire, venire, dīcere*, etc., is characteristic of popular speech; it is therefore not uncommon in Cicero’s letters (*ad Att*), in Pliny’s letters, and in works involving dialogue, such as Cicero’s philosophical writings. The historians avoid it, and it never occurs in Caesar and Velleius.

CONCORD.

210. THE THREE CONCORDS.—There are three great concords in Latin:

1. The agreement of the predicate with the subject (211).

2. The agreement of attributive or appositive with the substantive (285, 321).

3. The agreement of the relative with antecedent (614).

211. Agreement of the Predicate with the Subject.

The verbal predicate agrees with its subject \( \{ \) in number and \( \) in person.

The adjective predicate agrees with its subject \( \{ \) gender, and \( \) case.

The substantive predicate agrees with its subject in case.

Substantīva mōbilīa (21, 2) are treated as adjectives, and follow the number and gender of the subject.


Vērae amīcitiae sempiternae sunt, C., *Luc.*, 9, 32; true friendships are abiding. Dōs est decem talenta, Ter., *And.*, 950; the dowry is ten talents.


Remarks.—1. The violation of the rules of agreement is due chiefly to one of two causes; either the natural relation is preferred to the artificial (*coniunctio ad sēnsum, per synēsin, according to the sense*), or the nearer is preferred to the more remote. Hence the following

Exceptions.—(a) Substantives of multitude often take the predicate in the Plural: pars, part; vis (power), quantity; multitūdō, crowd; organized bodies more rarely. Also, but not often, such words as quisque, uterque, nēmō, etc.

Pars māior recēperant sēsē, L., xxxiv. 47, 6; the greater part had retired. Omnis multitūdō abeunt, L., xxxiv. 3, 15; all the crowd depart.
Magna vis eminus missa telorum multa nostris vulnera inferabant, Caes., B.C., ii. 6, 5. Uterque corum ex castris exercitum educunt, Caes., B.C., iii. 30, 3.

Note.—This usage is very common in comedy, but extremely rare in model prose. Livy shows a greater variety and a larger number of substantives than any other author, and poets and late prose writers are free. Yet Horace uses regularly the Sing. with a collective, while Vergil varies, often employing first a Sing. and then a Pl. verb with the same substantive (as A., i. 64). Tacitus often uses quisque with a Plural.

(b) The adjective predicate often follows the natural gender of the subject; so especially with milia. This usage belongs pre-eminently to the historians.

Capita coniurationis virgis caesi (sunt), L., x. i, 3; the heads of the conspiracy were flogged. Samnitan caesi tria milia, Cf. L., x. 34, 3; of the Samnites (there) were slain three thousand.

The passive verb often agrees in gender with the predicate: Non omnis error stultitia dicenda est, C., Div., ii. 43, 90; not every false step is to be called folly.

(c) The copula often agrees with the number of the predicate (“the wages of sin is death”):

Amantium irae (204, x. 5) amoris integrato est, Ter., And., 555; lovers’ quarrels are love’s renewal.

2. A superlativus adjective defined by a Partitive Gen. follows the gender of the subj. when it precedes:

Indus, qui est omnium fluminum maximus, C., N.D., ii. 52, 130; the Indus, which is the greatest of all rivers.

Otherwise it follows the Genitive; but this usage is post-classic:

Veloceissimum omnium animallium est delphinus, Plin., N.H., ix. 8, 20; the dolphin is the swiftest of all animals.

3. The Voc. is sometimes used by the poets in the predicate, either by anticipation or by assimilation. (See 325, r. i.)

4. The neuter adjective is often used as the substantive predicate of a masculine or feminine subject:

Triste lupus stabulis, V., Ec., 3, 80; the wolf is a baleful thing to the folds. Varium et mutabile semper femina, V., A., iv. 569; “a thing of moods and fancies” is woman ever.

This construction is poetical; in Cicero it is used with a few words only; such as extrimum, commune:

Omnium rerum (204, x. 4) mors [est] extrimum, Cf. C., Fam., vi. 21, 1; death is the end of all things.

5. The demonstrative pronoun is commonly attracted into the gender of the predicate:

Negat Epicurus; hoc enim vostrum lumine est, C., Fin., ii. 22, 70; Epicurus says No; for he is your great light. Ea non media sed nulla via est, L., xxxii., 21, 33; that is not a middle course, but no course at all.
But in negative sentences, and when the pronoun is the predicate, there is no change. So in definitions:


Exceptions are but apparent. C., O., ii. 38, 157.

6. The adjective predicate sometimes agrees with a substantive in apposition to the subject. So especially when the appositive is oppidum, civitas, and the like:

Corioli oppidum captum [est], L., ii. 33, 9; Corioli-town was taken. Corinthum, totius Graeciae lúmen, extinctum esse volvérunt, C., Imp., 5. 11; they would have Corinth, the eye of all Greece, put out.

Notes.—1. Peculiar is the occasional use of the Fut. participle in -ürum for feminines in early Latin: Alterō (gladiō) tē occisūrum ait (Casina), alterō vilicum. Pl., Cas., 693. So True., 490.

2. Age is often used in early Latin as if it were an adverb, with the Plural; occasionally also cævē: Age modo fabricāmini. Pl., Cas., 488.

Akin is the use of a Voc. Sing. with a Pl. verb, which is occasionally found in classical prose also: Tum Scaevola; quid est, Cotta? inquit, quid tacētis? C., O., 1. 35, 100.

The use of alīquis, some one of you, in this way is early: Aperite alīquis áctūm õstium, Ter., Ad., 634.

3. Other less usual constructions ad sēnsum are: the use of a neuter demonstrative where a substantive of a different gender is expected, and the construction of ēs as if it were neuter (both found also in Cicero); the neuter Singular summing up a preceding Plural:

In Graeciā múscí floruerunt, discēbantque id (that [accomplishment]) omnēs, C., Tusc., 1. 2, 4. Servitia repudiābat, cūius (of which [class]) initiō ad eum māgnae cópiæ concurrebant, S., C., 56, 5. See also C., Div., 11. 57, 117.

**Forms of the Verbal Predicate.**

**VOICES OF THE VERB.**

212. There are two Voices in Latin—Active and Passive.

Remark.—The Latin Passive corresponds to the Greek Middle, and, like the Greek Middle, may be explained in many of its uses as a Reflexive.

213. Active.—The Active Voice denotes that the action proceeds from the subject. Verbs used in the Active Voice fall into two classes, as follows:

Verbs are called Transitive when their action goes over to an object (trānseō, I go over); Intransitive when their action does not go beyond the subject: occidere, to fell = to kill (Transitive); occidere, to fall (Intransitive).
Remark.—Properly speaking, a Transitive Verb in Latin is one that forms a personal passive, but the traditional division given above has its convenience, though it does not rest upon a difference of nature, and a verb may be trans. or intrans. according to its use. So

(a) Transitive verbs are often used intransitively, in which case they serve simply to characterize the agent. This is true especially of verbs of movement; as déclināre, inclināre, movēre, mutāre, vertere, and the like, and is found at all periods.

(b) On the other hand, many intrans. verbs are often used transitively. This occurs also at all periods, but the Acc. is usually the inner object (332).

(c) On the use of the Inf. active, where English uses the passive, see 532, n. 2.

214. Passive.—The Passive Voice denotes that the subject receives the action of the verb.

The instrument is put in the Ablative.

Virgis caedēitur, C., Verr., iii. 28, 69; he shall be beaten with rods.

Ignis lūmine proditur suō, Ov., Her., 15, 8; the fire is betrayed by its own light.

The agent is put in the Ablative with ab (ā).

Ab amicīs prōdimur, C., Cluent., 52, 143; we are betrayed by friends.

Virgis caesi tribūni ab lēgātō sunt, L., xxix. 18, 13; the tribunes were beaten with rods by the lieutenant.

Remarks.—1. Intrans. verbs of passive signification are construed as passives: famē perīre, C., Inv., ii. 57, 172, to perish of hunger. So vēnīre, to be sold; vāpulāre (chiefly vulgar), to be beaten, ab aliquō, by some one.

Ab reō fūstibus [vāpulāvit], Cf. Quint., ix. 2, 12; he was whacked with cudgels by the defendant. Salvēbis ā meō Cicerōne, C., Att., vi. 2, 10; greeting to you from Cicero.

2. When the instrument is considered as an agent, or the agent as an instrument, the constructions are reversed:

Vinci ā Voluptāte, C., Off., i. 20, 68; to be overcome by Dame Pleasure.

Patricius iuvenibus saepe sperant latera, L., iii. 37, 6; they had flanked him with a guard of patrician youths.

The latter construction is very rare in Cicero, and seems to belong pre-eminently to the historians.

Animals, as independent agents, are treated like persons.

Ā cane nōn māgnō saepe tenētur aper, Ov., Rem. Am., 422; a boar is often held fast by a little dog.

Animals, as instruments, are treated like things.

Compare equō vehī, to ride a horse (to be borne by a horse), with in equō, on horseback.
215. The person in whose interest an action is done is put in the Dative. Hence the frequent inference that the person interested is the agent. See 354.

1. With the Perfect passive it is the natural inference, and common in prose.

Mihīrēs tōta prōvisa est, C., Verr., iv. 42, 91; I have had the whole thing provided for. Carmina nūlla mihi sunt scripta, Ov., Tr., v. 12, 35; poems—I have none written (I have written no poems).

2. With the Gerundive it is the necessary inference, and the Dative is the reigning combination.

Nihil [est] homini tam timendum quam invidia, C., Cluent., 3, 7; there is nothing that one has to fear to the same extent as envy.

216. The Direct Object of the Active Verb (the Accusative Case) becomes the Subject of the Passive.

Alexander Dārēum vicit, Alexander conquered Darius.
Dārēus ab Alexandrō victus est, Darius was conquered by Alexander.

217. The Indirect Object of the Active Verb (Dative Case) cannot be properly used as the Subject of the Passive. The Dative remains unchanged, and the verb becomes a Passive in the Third Person Singular (Impersonal Verb). This Passive form may have a neuter subject corresponding to the Inner object (333, 1).

Active: Miseri invident bonis, The wretched envy the well-to-do.
Passive: mihī invidētur, I am envied,
tibī invidētur, thou art envied,
ei invidētur, he is envied,
nōbis invidētur, we are envied,
vōbis invidētur, you are envied,
itōs invidētur, they are envied.

Nihil facile persuādētur invitōs, Q uint., iv. 3, 10; people are not easily persuaded of anything against their will. Ānulis nostrīs plūs quam animis crēditur, Sen., Ben., iii. 15, 3; our seals are more trusted than our souls.

Remarks.—1. In like manner a Gen. or Abl. in dependence upon an active verb cannot be made the subj. of the passive.
2. On the exceptional usage of personal Gerundives from intrans. verbs see 427, n. 5.

Notes.—1. The poets and later prose writers sometimes violate the rule, under Greek influence or in imitation of early usage: Cur invidētor mihi? (?), II., A.P., 56; vixequidem crēdar, Ov., Tr., iii. 10, 35; persuāsus vidētur
esse, [C.] ad Her., i. 6, 9. (Persuādeō hospitem, Petr., 62, 2, is perhaps an intentional solecism.)

2. Similar liberties are taken by poets and late prose writers with the passive of other intrans. verbs, such as concédere, permittere, praecipere, prōnūntiāre: Fātis numquam concēssa (= cui concēssum est) movērī Camarina, V., i., iii. 700.

218. Reflexive.—Reflexive relations, when emphatic, are expressed as in English:

Omne animal sē ipsum diligit, C., Fin., v. 9, 24, Every living creature loves itself.

But when the reflexive relation is more general, the passive (middle) is employed: labor, I bathe, I bathe myself.

Pūrgāri [nequivōrent], Cf. L., xxiv. 18, 4; they could not clear themselves. Cum in mentem vēnit, pōnōr ad scribendum, C., Fum., ix. 15, 4; when the notion strikes me I set myself to writing.

Note.—Some of these verbs approach the deponents, in that the reflexive meaning of the passive extends also to some active forms; thus, from vehōr, I ride, we get the form vehēns, riding (rare): Adulēscēntiam per mediās laudēs quasi quadrigīs vehentem, C., Br., 97, 331.

219. As the active is often used to express what the subject suffers or causes to be done, so the passive in its reflexive (middle) sense is often used to express an action which the subject suffers or causes to be done to itself: trahor, I let myself be dragged; tondeor, I have myself shaved.

Duōs Mysōs [insistī] in cūléum, Cf. C., Q. F., i. 2, 2, 5; you sewed two Mysians into a sack (had them sewn). Sīne gemītū adūruntur, C., Tusc., v. 27, 77; they let themselves be burned without a moan. Diruit, aedificat, H., Ep., i. 1, 100: he is pulling down, he is building. Ipse docet quid agam; fās est et ab hoste docēri, Ov., M., iv. 423; he himself teaches (me) what to do; it is (but) right to let oneself be taught even by an enemy (to take a lesson from a foe).

220. Deponent.—The Deponent is a passive form which has lost, in most instances, its passive (or reflexive) signification. It is commonly translated as a transitive or intransitive active: hortor, I am exhorting (trans.); morior, I am dying (intrans.).

Notes.—1. A number of intrans. verbs show also a Perfect Part. passive used actively; not, however, in classical prose combined with esse to take the place of the regular Perfect. See 163, n. 1.

Quid causae excogitārī potest, cur tē lautum voluerit, cēnātum nōluerit occidere? C., Dei., 7, 20.

2. Many verbs show both active and deponent forms side by side. In this case the active forms belong more often to early authors. See 163-167.
221. **Reciprocal.**—Reciprocal relations ("one another") are expressed by *inter, among,* and the personal pronouns, *nós, us; vós, you; sé, themselves.*

Inter sé amant, C., *Q. F.*, iii. 3, 1; *They love one another.*

**Remarks.**—1. Combinations of *alter alterum, alius alium, uterque alterum,* and the like, also often give the reciprocal relation: sometimes there is a redundancy of expression.

Placet Stócís hominés hominum causā esse generātōs, ut ipsi inter sé alii alii prōdesse possent, C., *Off.*, i. 7, 22; *it is a tenet of the Stoics that men are brought into the world for the sake of men, to be a blessing to one another.*

2. Later writers use *invicem* or *mītuō, inter sé, vicissim,* and early Latin shows occasionally *uterque utrumque.*

Quae omnia huc spectant, ut invicem ārdentius diligāmus, Plīn., *Ep.*, vii. 20, 7; *all these things look to our loving one another more fervently.*

Uterque utriquē cordi, Ter., *Ph.*, 800; *either is dear to other.*

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TENSES.

222. The Tenses express the relations of time, embracing:

1. The stage of the action (duration in time).
2. The period of the action (position in time).

The first tells whether the action is *going on,* or *finished.*

The second tells whether the action is *past, present,* or *future.*

Both these sets of relations are expressed by the tenses of the Indicative or Declarative mood—less clearly by the Subjunctive.

223. There are six tenses in Latin:

1. The *Present,* denoting *continuance in the present.*
2. The *Future,* denoting *continuance in the future.*
3. The *Imperfect,* denoting *continuance in the past.*
4. The *Perfect,* denoting *completion in the present.*
5. The *Future Perfect,* denoting *completion in the future.*
6. The *Pluperfect,* denoting *completion in the past.*

224. An action may further be regarded simply as *attained,* without reference to its *continuance or completion.* *Continuance and completion* require a point of reference for definition; *attainment* does not. This gives rise to the aoristic or *indefinite* stage of the action, which has no especial tense-
form. It is expressed by the Present tense for the present; by the Future and Future Perfect tenses for the future; and by the Perfect tense for the past.

Of especial importance are the *Indefinite* or *Historical* Present and the *Indefinite* or *Historical* Perfect (Aorist), which differ materially in syntax from the *Definite* or *Pure* Present and Perfect.

225. The Tenses are divided into *Principal* and *Historical*. The *Principal Tenses* have to do with the Present and Future. The *Historical Tenses* have to do with the Past.

The Present, Pure Perfect, Future, and Future Perfect are *Principal Tenses*.

The Historical Present, Imperfect, Pluperfect, and Historical Perfect are *Historical Tenses*.

The Historical Tenses are well embodied in the following distich:

\[ Tāia tentābat, sic et tentāverat ante, \]
\[ Vixque dedit victās ūtilitāte manus. \]

**Ov., Tr., i. 3, 87.**

226. Table of Temporal Relations.

**INDICATIVE MOOD.**

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**Note:**
- *Pres.* = Present
- *Fut.* = Future
- *Past.* = Past
- *Indefinite* or *Historical* Present
- *Indefinite* or *Historical* Perfect
- *Definite* or *Pure* Present
- *Definite* or *Pure* Perfect
- *Aorist* (Historical Present)
- *Historical* Imperfect
- *Historical* Pluperfect
- *Historical* Perfect

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Remark.—The English passive is ambiguous. The same form is currently used for continuance, attainment, and completion. The context alone can decide. A convenient test is the substitution of the active.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Continuance, } & \text{Some one was writing a letter.} \\
\text{Completion, } & \text{Some one had written a letter.} \\
\text{Attainment, } & \text{Some one wrote a letter.}
\end{align*}
\]

Present Tense.

227. The Present Tense is used as in English of that which is going on now (Specific Present), and of statements that apply to all time (Universal Present).

Specific Present:

Auribus teneō lupum, Ter., Ph., 506: I am holding a wolf by the ears.

Universal Present:

Probitās laudātur et alget, Juv., i. 74; honesty is bepraised and freezes.

Dulce et decōrum est pró patriā mori, ll., O., iii. 2, 13: sweet and seemly 'tis to die for fatherland.

So regularly of the quoted views of authors, the inscriptions of books, etc.:

Dé iuvenum amōre scribit Alcaeus, C., Tusc., iv. 33, 71; Alcaeus writes concerning the love of youths.

Notes.—1. The Specific Pr. is often to be translated by the English Progressive Present. The Universal Pr. is Aoristic, true at any point of time.

2. As continuance involves the notion of incompleteness the Pr. (see 233) is used of attempted and intended action (Present of Endeavor). But on account of the double use of the Pr. this signification is less prominent and less important than in the Impf. Do not mistake the Endeavor which lies in the verb for the Endeavor which lies in the tense.

Periculum vitant, C., Rofci. Inc., i. 1: they are trying to avoid danger. In the example sometimes cited: Quintus frāter Tusculānum vēnditat, C., Att., i. 14, 7; Brother Quintus is "trying to sell" his Tuscan villa, vēnditāre itself means to offer for sale. Translate: intends to offer for sale, if the notion lies in the Tense.

3. The Pr. when used with a negative often denotes Resistance to Pressure (233); this is, however, colloquial: Tacē; nōn taceō Pl., Cas. : 326; keep quiet! I won't.

4. The ambiguity of our English passive often suggests other translations. Use and Won't make Law; hence the frequent inference that what is done is what ought to be done; what is not done is not to be done: (Deus) nec bene prōmeritis capitur, nec tangitur irā, Lucr., ii. 651; God is not to be inveigled by good service, nor touched by anger.

228. The Present Tense is used more rarely than in English in anticipation of the future, chiefly in compound sentences:

Si vincimus, omnia tūta erunt, S., C., 58. 9: if we conquer (= shall conquer) everything will be safe. Antequam ad sententiam redeō dē mē paucā dicam, C., Cat., iv. 10, 20; before I return to the subject, I will
say a few things of myself. Exspectábo dum venit, Ter., Eun., 206; I will wait all the time that he is coming, or, until he comes.

Notes.—1. This construction is archaic and familiar. It is very common in the Comic Poets, very rare in Cicero and Caesar, but more common later. Some usages have become phraseological, as si vivō, if I live, as I live.
2. On the Pr. Indic. for the Deliberative Subjv., see 254, n. 2.

229. The Present Tense is used far more frequently than in English, as a lively representation of the past (Historical Present):

Cohortís incédere iubet, S., C., 60, 1; he orders the cohorts to advance.
Mātūrat profíciscī, Caes., B. G., 1, 7, 1; he hastens to depart.

Remark.—Dum, while (yet), commonly takes a Pr., which is usually referred to this head. Dum, so long as, follows the ordinary law, 571, ff.
Dum haec in colloquió geruntur, Caesarí nūntiátum est, Caes., B. G., 1, 46, 1; while these things were transacting in the conference, word was brought to Caesar.

230. The Present is used in Latin of actions that are continued into the present, especially with iam, now; iam diū, now for a long time; iam pridem, now long since. In English we often translate by a Progressive Perfect.

(Mithridátēs) annum iam tertium et vicēsimum régnavit, C., Imp., 3, 7; Mithridates has been reigning now going on twenty-three years. Libērāre vōs à Philippō iam diū magis vultis quam audētis, L., XXXII. 21, 36; you have this long time had the wish rather than (= though not) the courage to deliver yourselves from Philip.

"How does your honor for this many a day?" Shak., Ham., III. 1, 91.

Notes.—1. The Pr. sometimes gives the resulting condition:
Quī mortem nōn timet, māgnōm is sībī praeśidium ad beātam vitam comparat, C., Tus., ii, 1, 2; he who fears not death gets for himself great warrant for a happy life. (Dicunt) vincere (= victōrem esse) bellō Rōmānum, L., II. 7, 2.
2. More free is this usage in the poets, sometimes under Greek influence:
Auctōrē Phoebō gignor (γεγονοῦσα = γένος εἰμί); haud generis pudet. Sen., Ag., 205.

Vergil is especially prone to use a Pr. after a Past, denoting by the Past the cause, by the Pr. the effect: Postquam altum tenuère ratēs nec iam amplius ūllae adpārent terrae, A., III. 192.

Imperfect Tense.

231. The Imperfect Tense denotes continuance in the past: pūgnābam, I was fighting.

The Imperfect is employed to represent manners, customs, situations; to describe and to particularize. A good example is Ter., And., 74 ff.
The Imperfect and the Historical Perfect serve to illustrate one another. The Imperfect dwells on the process; the Historical Perfect states the result. The Imperfect counts out the items; the Historical Perfect gives the sum. A good example is Nep., ii. 1, 3.

232. The two tenses are often so combined that the general statement is given by the Historical Perfect, the particulars of the action by the Imperfect:

(Verrēs) in forum vēnit; ārdebant oculī; tōtō ex ōre crūdēlitās ēminēbat, C., Verr., v. 62, 161; Verres came into the forum, his eyes were blazing, cruelty was standing out from his whole countenance.

233. The Imperfect is used of attempted and interrupted, intended and expected actions (Imperfect of Endeavor). It is the Tense of Disappointment and (with the negative) of Resistance to Pressure. (Mere negation is regularly Perfect.)

Cūriam relinquerēbat, Tac., Ann., ii. 34, 1; he was for leaving the senate-house. [Lēx] abrogābātur, Cf. L., xxxiv. 1, 7; the law was to be abrogated. Simul ostendēbātur (an attempt was made to show) quōmodo cōnstitūtiōnem reperīrī oportēret, [C.] ad Ier., ii. 1, 2. Dicēbat (positive) melius quam scripsit (negative) Hortēnsius, C., Or., 38, 132; Hortēnsius spoke better than he wrote. Adītum nōn dabat, Nep., iv. 3, 3; he would not grant access (dēdit, did not). See also Mart., xi. 105.

Notes.—1. The Impf. as the Tense of Evolution is a Tense of Vision. But in English, Impf. and Hist. Pf. coincide; hence the various translations to put the reader in the place of the spectator.

2. The continuance is in the mind of the narrator; it has nothing to do with the absolute duration of the action. The mind may dwell on a rapid action or hurry over a slow one. With definite numbers, however large, the Hist. Pf. must be used, unless there is a notion of continuance into another stage (overlapping).

(Gorgiās) centum et novem vīxīt annōs, Quint., III. i. 9; Gorgias lived one hundred and nine years. Biennium ibi perpetuom misera illum tūli, Ter., I. c., 87; I bore him there—poor me!—for two long years together.

3. As the Tense of Disappointment, the Impf. is occasionally used, as in Greek, to express a startling appreciation of the real state of things (Imperfect of Awakening). Greek influence is not unlikely.

Tū aderās, Ter., Ph., 838; (so it turns out that) you were here (all the time). Peream male si nōn optimum erat, ii., S., n. 1, 6; perdition catch me if that was not the best course (after all).

Hence the modal use of dēbēbam and poteram (254, n. 2).

234. The Imperfect is used as the English Pluperfect, which often takes a progressive translation; especially with iam, iam diū, iam dūdum.
PERFECT TENSE.

Iam dūdum tibi adversābar, Pl., Men., 420: I had long been opposing you. (Archīās) domicilium Rōmē multōs iam annōs [habēbat], Cf. C., Arch., 4, 7; Archias had been domiciled at Rome now these many years.

Remark.—As the Hist. Pr. is used in lively narrative, so the Hist. Inf. is used in lively description, parallel with the Imperfect (647).

Perfect Tense.

The Perfect Tense has two distinct uses:


1. PURE PERFECT.

235. The Pure Perfect Tense expresses completion in the Present, and hence is sometimes called the Present Perfect.

1. The Pure Perfect differs from the Historical Perfect, in that the Pure Perfect gives from the point of view of the Present an instantaneous view of the development of an action from its origin in the Past to its completion in the Present, that is, it looks at both ends of an action, and the time between is regarded as a Present. The Historical Perfect obliterates the intervening time and contracts beginning and end into one point in the Past.

2. An intermediate usage is that in which the Perfect denotes an action in the Past (Historical), whose effect is still in force (Pure).

236. Accordingly, the Perfect is used:

1. Of an action that is now over and gone.

Viximus, C., Fam., xiv. 4, 5; we have lived (life for us has been). Filium unicum habeō, Immo habui, Ter., Heaut., 94; I have an only son—nay, have had an only son. Tempora quid faciunt: hanc volo, te volui, Mart., vi. 40, 4; what difference times make! (Time is) I want her, (Time has been) I wanted you.

2. Far more frequently of the present result of a more remote action (resulting condition):

Equum et mūlum Brundisii tibi reliqui, C., Fam., xvi. 9, 3; I have left a horse and mule for you at Brundusium—(they are still there). Perdidi spem quā mē oblectābam, Pl., Rud., 222; I've lost the hope with which I entertained myself. Actumst, peristi, Ter., Eun., 54; it is all over; you're undone.

Remark.—The Pure Pf. is often translated by the English Present: nōvī, I have become acquainted with, I know; memini, I have recalled, I remember; ōdi, I have conceived a hatred of, I hate; consuevi, I have made it a rule, I am accustomed, etc.
Ódērunt hilarem tristēs tristemque iocōsi, II., Ep., i. 18, 89; the long-faced hate the lively man, the jokers hate the long-faced man.

But the Aorist force is sometimes found:

Tacē, inquit, ante hoc nōvi quam tū nātus es, Phaed., v. q. 4; silence, quoth he, I knew this ere that you were born.

Note.—The Pf. is used of that which has been and shall be (Sententious or Gnomic Perfect, 242, n. 7), but usually in poetry, from Catullus on, and frequently with an indefinite adjective or adverb of number or a negative. It is seldom an Aorist (Greek).

Évertēre domōs tōtās optantibus īpīs dū faciēs, Juv., x. 7; whole houses at the masters' own request the (too) compliant gods overturn. Nēmo repente fuit turpissimus, Juv., ii. 83; none of a sudden ( hath ever) reached( ed) the depth of baseness.

237. As the Present stands for the Future, so the Perfect stands for the Future Perfect.

( Brūtus) si cōnservātus erit, vicīmus, C., Fam., xii. 6, 2: Brūtus!—if he is saved, we are victorious, we ( shall) have gained the victory.

238. Habeō or teneō, I hold, I have, with the Accusative of the Perfect Participle Passive, is not a mere circumlocution for the Perfect, but lays peculiar stress on the maintenance of the result.

Habeō statūtum, Cf. C., Verr., iii. 41, 95; I have resolved, and hold to my resolution. Perspectum habeō, Cf. C., Fam., iii. 10, 7; I have perceived, and I have full insight. Excūsātum habeās mē rogō, cēno domī, Mart., ii. 79, 2; I pray you have me excused, I dine at home.

2. HISTORICAL PERFECT.

239. The Historical or Indefinite Perfect (Aorist) states a past action, without reference to its duration, simply as a thing attained.

Milō domum vēnit, calceōs et vestīmenta mūtāvit, paulisper commorātus est, C., Mil., i. 28; Milo came home, changed shoes and garments, tarried a little while. (Gorgiās) centum et novem vixit annōs, Quint., iii. 1, 9 (233, n. 2). Vēnī, vidī, vici, Suet., Jul., 37; I came, saw, overcame.

Note.—The Pf., as the “short hand” for the Pluperfect, is mainly post-Ciceronian, but begins with Caesar. It is never common: superiōribus diēbus nōna Caesāris legiō castra eō locō posuīt, Caes., B. C., iii. 65, 2.

240. The Historical Perfect is the great narrative tense of the Latin language, and is best studied in long connected passages, and by careful comparison with the Imperfect. See C., Off., iii. 27, 100; Tusc., i. 2, 4.
Pluperfect Tense.

241. The Pluperfect denotes *Completion in the Past*, and is used of an action that was completed before another was begun. It is, so to speak, the Perfect of the Imperfect. Hence it is used:

1. Of an action *just concluded in the past*.
   
   Modo Caesarem régnavetem viserimus, C., Ph., ii. 42, 108; *we had just seen Caesar on the throne*.

2. Of an action that was *over and gone*.
   
   Fuerat inimicus, C., Red. in Sen., 10. 26; *he had been my enemy*.

3. Of a *resulting condition in the past*.
   
   Massilienses portas Caesari clauserant, Caes., B.C., i. 34, 4; *the Marseilles had shut their gates against Caesar. (Their gates were shut.)*

Remark.—When the Pf. of Resulting Condition is translated by an English Pr. (236, 2, r.), the Plupf. is translated by an English Imperfect: növeram, I had become acquainted with, *I knew*; memineram, I remembered; ōderam, I hated; consuèveram, I was accustomed, etc.

Notes.—1. Not unfrequently in early Latin, rarely in classical prose, but more often in the poets, the Plupf. seems to be used as an Aorist; so very often dixerat: Nil equidem tibi abstuli. EV. *At illud quod tibi abstulerás cedo*, Pl., Aud., 635. Nōn sum ego qui fueram, Prop., i. 12, 11. See Ov., Tr., iii. 11, 25.

2. The Periphrastic Plupf. with habeō corresponds to the Perfect (238). It is rare, and shows two forms, one with the Imperfect and one with the Plupf., the latter being post-classical.

Equitatum, quem ex omní prōvinciā coāctum habēbat, praemitterit, Caes., B.G., i. 15, 1. *Multorūm aurēs illa lingua attonitās habuerat, Val. M., iii. 3.*

Future Tense.

242. The Future Tense denotes *Continuance in the Future*: scribam, I shall be writing.

The Future Tense is also used to express indefinite action in the Future: scribam, I shall write.

Remarks.—1. In subordinate clauses the Latin language is more exact than the English in the expression of future relations.

Dōne eris fēlix, multōs numerābis amīcōs, Ov., Tr., i. 9, 5; *so long as you shall be (are) happy, you will count many friends*.

2. Observe especially the verbs volō, I will, and possum, I can.

Ōdero si poterō; si nōn, invitus amābo, Ov., Am., iii. 11, 35; *I will hate if I shall be able (can); if not, I shall love against my will. Qui*
adipisci vēram glōriam volet, iūstitiae fungātur officiis, C., Off., II. 13, 43; whoso shall wish to obtain true glory, let him discharge the calls of justice.

3. The Fut. is often used in conclusions, especially in Cicero:

Sunt ulla sapientis; aberit igitur a sapiente aegritudō, C., Tusc., III. 8, 18.

Notes.—1. The Fut. is used sometimes as a gnomic (236, n.) tense:

Haut facul femina inveniētur bona, Afr., 7; unsth (= hardly) a woman shall be found that's good. Et tremet sapiens et dolēbit, et expallescet, Sen., E.M., 71, 29.

2. Observe (the principally comic) use of the Future to indicate likelihood:

Verbum hercle hōc vērum erit, Ter., Eun., 732; this will be God's own truth.

243. The Future is used in an imperative sense, as in English, chiefly in familiar language.

Tu nihil dīces, II., A. R., 385: you will (are to) say nothing (do you say nothing). Cum volet accēdes, cum tē vitābit abībis, Ov., A. A., II. 529; when she wants you, approach; and when she avoids you, begone, sir. Nōn mē appellābis, si sapis, Pl., Most., 515; see C., Fam., V. 12, 10. Compare ātētur and ātātur, [C.] ad Her., II. 3, 5.

Similar is the Future in Asseverations (comic).

Ita mē amābit Iūpiter, Pl., Trin., 447; so help me God!

Future Perfect Tense.

244. The Future Perfect is the Perfect, both Pure and Historical, transferred to the future, and embraces both completion and attainment: fēcerō, Ter., Ph., 882; I shall have done it, or I shall do it (once for all); viderō, Ter., Ad., 538; I will see to it; prōfēcerit, C., Fin., III. 4, 14; it will prove profitable.

Remarks.—1. Hence, when the Pf. is used as a Pr., the Fut. Pf. is used as a Future: nōverō, I shall know; cōnsueverō, I shall be accustomed; ōdero, sī poterō, Ov., Am., III. II, 35 (242, r. 2).

2. In subordinate sentences, the Latin language is more exact than the English in the use of the Fut. Perfect; hence, when one action precedes another in the future, the action that precedes is expressed by the Fut. Perfect.

Qui prior strinxerit ferrum, ēius victōria erit, L., xxiv. 38, 5; who first draws the sword, his shall be the victory.

3. The Fut. Pf. is frequently used in volō, I will; nōlō, I will not; possum, I can: licet, it is left free; libet, it is agreeable; placet, it is the pleasure; whereas the English idiom familiarly employs the Present.

Sī potuerō, faciam vōbis satis, C., Br., 5, 21; if I can, I shall satisfy you.
4. The Fut. Pf. in both clauses denotes simultaneous accomplishment or attainment; one action involves the other.

Qui Antōniōm oppresserit, is bellum cōnfēcerit, C., Fam., x. 19. 2; he who shall have crushed (crushes) Antony, will have finished (will finish) the war. [Ea] vitia qui fūgerit, is omnia fērē vitia vitāverit, C., Or., 69, 231; he who shall have escaped these faults, will have avoided almost all faults.

Sometimes, however, the first seems to denote antecedence, the second finality. An Impv. is often used in the first clause.

Immutā (verbōrum collocātiōnem), perierit tōta rēs, C., Or., 70, 232; change the arrangement of the words, the whole thing falls dead.

Notes.—1. The independent use of the Fut. Pf. is characteristic of Comedy, but occurs occasionally later in familiar style. Sometimes it gives an air of positiveness:

Bene merenti bene prōfuerit, male merenti pār erit, Pl., Capt., 315; good desert shall have good issue; ill desert shall have its due. Ego crās hic erō; crās habuerō, uxor, ego tamen convivium, Pl., Cas., 786. Nūsquam facilius hanc miserrimam vitam vel sustentābō vel abiēcerō, C., Alt., iii. 19. 1. See also C., Ac., i. 44, 135; L., i. 58, 10.

2. The Periphrastic Fut. Pf. with habeō is rare. It corresponds to the Pf. and Pluperfect.

Quod si fēceris, mē máximō beneficiō dēvinctum habēbis, C., Alt., xvi. 16 b. 9.

245. As the Future is used as an Imperative, so the Future Perfect approaches the Imperative.

Dē tē tū videris; ego dē mē ipse profitebor, C., Ph., ii. 46, 118; do you see to yourself; I myself will define my position.

Note.—This is confined in Cicero almost entirely to videris, which is suspiciously like the familiar Greek future φές, and is used in the same way.

Periphrastic Tenses.

246. The Periphrastic Tenses are formed by combining the various tenses of esse, to be, with participles and verbal adjectives. See 129.

I. PERIPHRASTIC CONJUGATION—ACTIVE VOICE.

247. The Periphrastic Tenses of the Active are chiefly combinations of esse and its forms with the so-called Future Participle Active. The Future Participle is a verbal adjective denoting capability and tendency. Compare amātor and amātūrus. The translation is very various:

1. Scriptūrus sum, I am about to write, I am to write, I purpose to write, I am likely to write.
2. Scriptūrus eram, I was about to write, etc.
3. Scriptūrūs fui, I have been or was about to write (often = I should have written).
4. Scriptūrūs fueram, I had been about to write, etc.
5. Scriptūrūs erū, I shall be about to write, etc.
6. Scriptūrūs fuerū, I shall have made up my mind to write, etc. (of course very rare).

1. Fiet illud quod futūrum est, C., Div. ii. 8, 21; what is to be, will be.
2. [Rēx] nōn interfutūrus nāvālī certāmini erat, l., xxxvi. 43, 9; the king did not intend to be present at the naval combat.
3. Fasciēs īpsi ad mē délātūri fuērunt, C., Ph. xiv. 6, 15; they themselves were ready to tender the fasces to me. Dēditōs āltimīs cruciātibus affectionēs fuērunt, l., xxi. 44, 1; they would have put the surrendered to extreme tortures.

4. Māior Romanōrum grātia fuit quam quanta futūra Carthaginīēnsium fuerat, l., xxii. 22, 19; the Romans' credit for this was greater than the Carthaginians' would have been.
5. Eōrum apud quōs aget aut erit āctūrūs, mentēs sēnsūsque dēgustet, C., Or., i. 52, 223: he must taste-and-test the state of mind of those before whom he will plead or will have to plead.
6. (Sapiēns) nōn vivet, si fuerit sē homīne victūrūs, Sen., E. M., 9, 17. The wise man will not continue to live, if he finds that he is to live without human society. (The only example cited, and that doubtful.)

Remarks.—1. The forms with sum, eram, and the corresponding subj. forms with sim, essēm, are much more common than those with fui, etc., probably for euphonic reasons.
2. The subj. and Inf. scriptūrūs sim, essēm, fuerim, fuissem, scriptūrum esse, fuisse, are of great importance in subordinate clauses. (656.)

Notes.—1. The use of forem for essēm appears first in Sallust, but is not uncommon in Livy, and occurs sporadically later. Fore for essē is post-classical.

Dicit sē vēnisse quaeśitum pācem an bellum agitātūrus foret, S., Ing., 109, 2. 2. The periphrastic use of the Pr. Part. with forms of esse is rare, and in most cases doubtful, as the question always arises whether the Part. is not rather a virtual substantive or adjective. So with the not uncommon ut sīs sciēns of the Comic Poets. The effect of this periphrasis is to emphasize the continuance.

Nēmō umquam tam sui dēspiciēns (despiser of self, self-deprecator) fuit quin spērāret meliūs sē posse dicēre, C., Or., ii. 89, 351.

II. PERIPHRASTIC TENSES OF THE PASSIVE.

A. Of Future Relations.

248. The periphrases futūrum esse (more often fore) ut, (that) it is to be that, and futūrum fuisse ut, (that) it was to be that, with the Subjunctive, are very commonly used to take the place of the Future Infinitive active; necessarily so
PERIPHERATIC TENSES.

when the verb forms no Future Participle. In the passive they are more common than the Supine with *iri*.

Spērō fore ut contingat id nōbis, C., *Tusc.*, 1. 34. 82; *I hope that we shall have that good fortune.* In *fātis scriptum Veiēntēs [habēbant] fore ut brevī a Gallīs Rōmā caperētur*, C., *Div.*, 1. 44. 100; the Veientes had it written down in their prophetical books that Rome would shortly be taken by the Gauls.

**Remark.**—*Posse, to be able, and velle, to will, on account of their future sense, do not require a periphrasis. In the absence of periphrastic forms, the forms of posse are often used instead.* (656, r.)

**Notes.**—1. These periphrases do not occur in early Latin.
2. *Fore ut* is used chiefly with Pr. and Impf. Subjv.; Pf. and Plupf. are very rare. (C., *Att.*, xvi. 16e. 16.)
3. The form *futūrum fuisset ut* is used with passive and Supineless verbs, to express the dependent apodosis of an unreal conditional sentence.

*Nisi ēō ipsō tempore nāntū dē Caesaris victōriā essēt allāti, existimā-
bant plērique futūrum fuisset utī (oppidum) āmitterētur*, Caes., *B.C.*, III. 101, 3. (656, 2.)

4. The Subjv. forms *futūrum sit, esset, fuerit ut*, are used in the grammars to supply the periphrastic Subjv. of passive and Supineless verbs (see 515, r. 2). Warrant in real usage is scarce.

*An utique futūrum sit ut Carthāginem superent Rōmānī?* Quint. iii. 8, 17 (not merely periphrastic).

249. In ēō est, it is on the point, *ut, that (of), with* 
   erat, was (Impersonal), *fuit, the subjunctive.*

In ēō [erat] ut (Pausaniās) comprehenderētur, *Nep.*, iv. 5, 1; *it was on the point that Pausanias should be (P. was on the point of being) arrested.*

Note.—This phrase occurs in Nepos and Livy, seldom in earlier writers.

**B.—Of Past Relations.**

250. The Perfect Participle passive is used in combination with *sum, I am, and fui, I have been, I was, to express the Pure Perfect and Historical Perfect of the Passive Voice. Eram, I was, and fueram, I had been, stand for the Pluperfect; and erō, I shall be, and fuerō, I shall have been, for the Future Perfect.

**Remarks.**—1. *Fui* is the *favorite* form when the participle is frequently used as an adjective: *convivium exōrnātum fuit, the banquet was furnished forth; fui is the necessary form when the Pf. denotes that the action is over and gone: amātus fui, I have been loved (but I
am loved no longer). The same principle applies to fueram and fuerō, though not so regularly.

Simulācrum ē marmore in sepulcrō positum fuit; hōc quidam homō nōbilis dēportāvit, C., Dom., 43, 111; a marble effigy was deposited in the tomb; a certain man of rank has carried it off. Arma quae fixa in parietibus fuerant, ea sunt humī inventa, C., Div., 1, 34, 74; the arms which had been fastened to the walls were found on the ground. Quod tibi fuerit persuāsum, huic erit persuāsum, C., Rosc. Com., 1, 3; what is (shall have proved) acceptable to you will be acceptable to him.

2. To be distinguished is that use of the Pf. where each element has its full force, the Participle being treated as an adjective. In this case the tense is not past.

Gallia est omnis divisa in partēs tēs, Caes., B. G., 1, 1.

Notes.—1. The fuī, etc., forms are rarely found in Cicero, never in Caesar, but are characteristic of Livy and Sallust.

2. Forem for essem is common in the Comic Poets, occurs twice in Cicero’s letters (1.lett., vii. 21, 2; x. 14, 3), never in Caesar, but in Livy and Nepos is very common, and practically synonymous with essem.

C.—Periphrastic Conjugation—Passive Voice.

251. 1. The combination of the Tenses of esse, to be, with the Gerundive (verbal in -ndus), is called the Periphrastic Conjugation of the Passive, and follows the laws of the simple conjugation (129). The idea expressed is usually one of necessity.

Praepōnenda [est] divitiis glōria, C., Top., 22, 84; glory is to be preferred to riches.

2. According to the rule (217) the Gerundive of intransitive verbs can be used only in the Impersonal form:

Parcendum est victis, The vanquished must be spared.

Notes.—1. The Gerundive is a verbal adjective, which produces the effect of a Progressive Participle. Whenever a participle is used as a predicate it becomes characteristic, and good for all time. As amāns not only = qui amat, but also = qui amat, so amandus = qui amētur. Compare 438, n.

2. Forem for essem is post-classical and comparatively uncommon.

TENSES IN LETTERS.

252. The Roman letter-writer not unfrequently puts himself in the position of the receiver, more especially at the beginning and at the end of the letter, often in the phrase Nihil erat (habēbam) quod scriberem, I have nothing to write. This permutation of tenses is never kept up long, and applies only to temporary situations, never to general statements.
MOODS.

Table of Permutations.

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<td>I write</td>
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<td>scrips</td>
<td>or remains unchanged</td>
<td>or remains unchanged</td>
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<td>scribam</td>
<td>or remains unchanged</td>
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The adverbial designations of time remain unchanged—or

heri, yesterday, becomes pridie.
hodi, to-day, becomes quod dies habeas litteras dedi, dabam.
cras, to-morrow, becomes poster dies, postridie.
nunc, now, becomes tum.

Formiās mē continuō recipere cōgitābam, C., Alt., vii. 15, 3; I am thinking of retiring forthwith to Formiae. Cum mihi dixisset Caecilius puerum sē Rōmam mittere, haec scripsī rapiam, C., Alt., i. 9, 1; as Caecilius has told me that he is sending a servant to Rome, I write in a hurry. (Litteras) eram datūrus postridie ei qui mihi primum obviam vēnisset, C., Alt., ii. 12, 4; I will give the letter to-morrow to the first man that comes my way.

Note.—Cicero is much more consistent in this tense-shifting than Pliny; and exceptions are not numerous proportionally: Ego etsī nihil habeo quod ad tē scribam, scribō tamen quia tēcum loqui videor, C., Alt., xii. 53.

MOODS.

253. Mood signifies manner. The mood of a verb signifies the manner in which the predicate is said of the subject.

There are three moods in Latin:
1. The Indicative.
2. The Subjunctive.
3. The Imperative.

Note.—The Infinitive form of the verb is generally, but improperly, called a mood.

The Indicative Mood.

254. The Indicative Mood represents the predicate as a reality. It is sometimes called the Declarative Mood, as the mood of direct assertion.

The use of the Latin Indicative differs little from the English.

Remarks.—1. The Latin language expresses possibility and power, obligation and necessity, and abstract relations generally, as facts; whereas, our translation often implies the failure to realize. Such ex-
pressions are: débēo, I ought, it is my duty; oportet, it behooves; necesse est, it is absolutely necessary; possum, I can, I have it in my power; convenit, it is fitting; pār, aequom est, it is fair; infinitum, endless; difficile, hard to do; longum, tedious; and many others; also the Indic, form of the passive Periphrastic Conjugation. Observe the difference between the use of the Inf. in Eng. and in Latin after past tenses of débēo, possum, oportet, etc.

Possum persequī permulta obiectāmenta rērum rūsticārum, C., Cat. M., 16, 55; I might rehearse very many delights of country life. Longum est persequī āutilitātēs asinōrum, C., N.D., ii. 64, 159; it would be tedious to rehearse the useful qualities of asses (I will not do it). Ad mortem tē dūci oportēbat, C., Cat., i. 1, 2; it behooved you to be (you ought to have been) led to execution (you were not). Volumnia debuit in tē officiōsior esse, et id ipsum, quod fēcit, potuit diligentius facere, C., Fam., XIV. 16; it was Volumnia's duty to be (V. ought to have been) more attentive to you; and the little she did do, she had it in her power to do (she might have done) more carefully. Quae condicīō nōn accipienda fuit potius quam relinquenda patria? C., Atl., viii. 3, 3; what terms ought not to have been accepted in preference to leaving thy country? [Eum] vivum illinc exire non oportuerat, C., Mur., 25, 51; he ought never to have gone out thence alive.

The Pf. and Plupf. always refer to a special case.

2. The Impf. as the Tense of Disappointment is sometimes used in these verbs to denote opposition to a present state of things: débēbam, I ought (but do not); poterās, you could (but do not). These may be considered as conditionals in disguise. (See r. 3.)

Poteram morbōs appellāre, sed nōn conveniret ad omnia, C., Fin., iii. 10, 35; I might translate (that Greek word) "diseases," but that would not suit all the cases (poteram si conveniret). At poterās, inquis, melius mala ferre silendō, Ov., Tr., v. 1, 49; "But," you say, "you could (you do not) bear your misfortunes better by keeping silent" (poterās si silērēs).

3. The Indic. is sometimes used in the leading clause of conditional sentences (the Apodosis), thereby implying the certainty of the result, had it not been for the interruption. The Indic. clause generally precedes, which is sufficient to show the rhetorical character of the construction.

With the Impf. the action is often really begun:

Lābēbar longius, nisi mē retinuissem, C., Leg., i. 19, 52; I was letting myself go on (should have let myself go on) too far, had I not checked myself. Omninō supervacua erat doctrīna, sī nātūra sufficeret, Quint., ii. 8, 8; training were wholly superfluous, did nature suffice. Praeclārē vīcerāmus, nisi Lepidus recepisset Antōnium, C., Fam., xi. 10, 3; we had (should have) gained a brilliant victory, had not Lepidus received Antony.
In all these sentences the English idiom requires the Subjv., which is disguised by coinciding with the Indic. in form, except in "were."

4. In general relative expressions, such as the double formations, quisquis, no matter who, quotquot, no matter how many, and all forms in -cumque, -ever, the Indic. is employed in classical Latin where we may use in English a Subjv. or its equivalent: quisquis est, no matter who he is, be, may be; quâlecumque est, whatever sort of thing it is, be, may be.

Quidquid id est, timeō Danaús et dōna ferentes, V., A., 11. 19; whatever it (may) be, I fear the Danai even when they bring presents.

Cicero has exceptions (Ideal Second Person or by attraction) to this rule, and later writers, partly under Greek influence, frequently violate it. Exceptions in early Latin are not common.

Notes.—1. Cicero introduces (nōn) putāram, "I should (not) have thought so," and māleram, I could have preferred. Lucan and Tacitus alone imitate the latter; the former was never followed.

Māleram, quod erat susceptum ab illis, silentiō trānsīri, C., Alt., 11. 19, 3. Feriam tua viscera, Māgne; māleram soceri, Lucan, VIII. 521.

2. In early Latin, occasionally in the more familiar writings of Cicero, and here and there later we find the Pr. Indic. (in early Latin occasionally the Fut.) used in place of the Subjv. in the Deliberative Question.


Subjunctive Mood.

255. The Subjunctive Mood represents the predicate as an idea, as something merely conceived in the mind (abstracts from reality).

Remark.—The Latin Subjv. is often translated into English by the auxiliary verbs may, can, must, might, could, would, should. When these verbs have their full signification of possibility and power, obligation and necessity, they are represented in Latin by the corresponding verbs, thus: may, can, might, could by the forms of possē. to be able, licet, it is left free; will and would by velle, to will, to be willing; must, by dēbō or oportet (of moral obligation), by necesse est (of absolute obligation).

Nostrās iniuriās nec potest nec possit alius ulcīscī quam vōs, L., XXIX. 18, 18; our wrongs no other than you has the power or can will have the power to avenge.*

Note.—In the Latin Subjv. are combined two moods, the Subjv. proper, and the Optative, sometimes distinguished as the moods of the will and the wish. This fusion has rendered it difficult to define the fundamental conceptions of certain constructions.

* In this unique passage nec potest denies with the head, nec possit refuses to believe with the heart.
256. 1. The realization of the idea may be in suspense, or it may be beyond control. The first, or purely Ideal Subjunctive, is represented by the Present and Perfect Tenses; the second, or Unreal, is represented by the Imperfect and Pluperfect.

Notes.—1. The Subj., as the name implies (subiungō, I subjoin), is largely used in dependent sentences, and will be treated at length in that connection.

2. The following modifications of the above principles must be carefully observed:
(a) The Romans, in lively discourse, often represent the unreal as ideal, that which is beyond control as still in suspense. (596, R. 1.)
(b) In transfers to the past, the Impf. represents the Pr., and the Plupf. the Pf. Subjunctive. (510.)

2. The idea may be a view, or a wish. In the first case the Subjunctive is said to be Potential, in the second case Optative. The Potential Subjunctive is nearer the Indicative, from which it differs in tone; the Optative Subjunctive is nearer the Imperative, for which it is often used.

Potential Subjunctive.

257. 1. The Potential Subjunctive represents the opinion of the speaker as an opinion. The tone varies from vague surmise to moral certainty, from "may" and "might" to "must." The negative is the negative of the Indicative, nón.

2. The Potential of the Present or Future is the Present or Perfect Subjunctive. The verification is in suspense, and so future; the action may be present or future: with Perfect sometimes past.

Velim, I should wish; nōlim, I should be unwilling; mālim, I should prefer: dicās, you would say; crēdās, you would believe, you must believe; dicat, dixerit alīquis, some one may undertake to say, go so far as to say.

Caedī discipulōs minimē velim. Quint., i. 3, 13; I should by no means like pupils to be flogged. Tū Platonem nec nimis valdē nec nimis saepe laudāveris, C., Leg., iii. 1, 1; you can't praise Plato too much nor too often.

Notes.—1. The Pf. Subj., as a Potential seems to have been very rare in early Latin. Cicero extended the usage slightly and employed more persons; thus First Person Pl. and Second Sing. occur first in Cicero. From Cicero's time the usage spreads, perhaps under the influence of the Greek Aorist. It was always rare with Deponents and Passives. Another view regards this dixerit as a Fut. Pf. Indicative.

2. The Potential Subj. is sometimes explained by the ellipsis of an Ideal or of an
Unreal Conditional Protasis. But the free Potential Subjv. differs from an elliptical conditional sentence in the absence of definite ellipsis, and hence of definite translation. Compare the two sentences above with:

Eum qui palam est adversarius facile cavendō (si caveâs) vítare possis, C., Verr., 1. 15, 39: an open adversary you can readily avoid by caution (if you are cautious). Nil ego contulerim iúcundō sánus (= dum sánus eró) amícó, II., N., 1. 5, 44; there is naught I should compare to an agreeable friend, while I am in my sound senses.

3. The Potential Subjv., as a modified form of the Indic., is often found where the Indic. would be the regular construction. So after quanquam (607, n. 1).

258. The Potential of the Past is the Imperfect Subjunctive, chiefly in the Ideal Second Person, an imaginary "you."

Créderês victōs, L., II. 43, 9; you would, might, have thought them beaten. Haud facile discernerēs utrum Hannibal imperātorī an exercitū cārior esset, L., xxii. 4, 3; not readily could you have decided whether Hannibal was dearer to general or to army. Mirārētur qui tum cerneret, L., xxxiv. 9, 4; any one who saw it then must have been astonished.

Vellem, I should have wished; nōllem, I should have been unwilling; māllem, I should have preferred (it is too late).

Notes.—1. With vellem, nōllem, māllem, the inference points to non-fulfilment of the wish in the Present (261, n.); with other words there is no such inference.

2. The Unreal of the Present and the Ideal of the Past coincide. What is unreal of a real person is simply ideal of an imaginary person. The Impf. is used as the tense of Description.

The Aoristic Pf. Subjv. and the Plnpf. Subjv. are rarely used as the Ideal of the Past:


259. The Mood of the Question is the Mood of the expected or anticipated answer (482). Hence the Potential Subjunctive is used in questions which serve to convey a negative opinion on the part of the speaker.

Quis dubitet (= nēmō dubitet) quīn in virtūte divitiae sint? C., Parad., vi. 2, 48; who can doubt that true wealth consists in virtue? (No one.) Quis tulerit Gracchōs dē seditiōne querentēs? Juv., ii. 24; who could hear the Gracchi complaining of rebellion? (No one.) Apud exercitum fuerīs? C., Mur., 9, 21; can you have been with the army? Hōc tantum bellum quis umquam arbitrārētur ab ūnō imperātōre cōnfē posse? C., Imp., ii. 31; who would, could, should have thought that this great war could be brought to a close by one general?

Optative Subjunctive.

260. The Subjunctive is used as an Optative or wishing mood.
The regular negative is nē. Nōn is used chiefly to negative a single word: but very rarely in the classical period. A second wish may be added by neque or nec (regularly if a positive wish precedes), but this is also rare in the classical period, and is denied for Caesar.

The Pr. and Pf. Subjv. are used when the decision is in suspense, no matter how extravagant the wish; the Impf. and Plupf. are used when the decision is adverse. The Pf. is rare and old.

Stet hæc urbs, C., Mil., 34. 93: may this city continue to stand! Quod dī ömen āvertant, C., Ph., III. 14. 35: which omen may the gods avert. Ita di faxint (= fecerint), Plo., Poen., 911: the gods grant it! Nē istūc Iūppiter optimus màximus sīrit (= sīverit) I., xxxiv. 24, 2: may Jupiter, supremely great and good, suffer it not?

261. The Optative Subjunctive frequently takes utinam, utinam nē, utinam nōn; ut is archaic and rare: ō si, oh if, poetical and very rare; qui, how, occurs chiefly in early Latin and in curses.

Valės beneque ut tibi sit, Plo., Poen., 912; farewell! God bless you! Utinam modo cōnāta efficere possim, C., Att., iv. 16; may I but have it in my power to accomplish my endeavors. Utinam reviviscat frāter! Gell., x. 6, 2: would that my brother would come to life again! Utinam inserere iocēs mōris esset, Quint., ii. 10, 9; would that it were usual to introduce jokes! Illud utinam nē vērē scriberem, C., Fam., v. 17, 3: would that what I am writing were not true! Utinam suspεctus nōn essem, C., Att., III. 41, 8; would I had not been born! (Cicero's only example of nōn.) Ō mihi praeterītōs referat si Iūppiter annōs, V., A., viii. 560; O if Jove were to bring me back the years that are gone by!

Remark.—For the wish with adverse decision, vellem and māllem (theoretically also nōllem) may be used with the Impf. and sometimes (especially vellem) with the Plupf. Subjunctive.

Vellem adesse posset Panaetius! C., Tusc., i. 33, 81: would that Panaetius could be present! Vellem mē ad cēnam invitāssēs, C., Fam., XII. 4, 1; would that you had invited me to your dinner-party.

So velim, nōlim, etc., for the simple wish (346, r. 2).

Tuam mihi dāri velim ēloquentiam, C., N. D., ii. 59, 147: I could wish your eloquence given to me.

Notes.—1. Utinam was perhaps originally an interrogative, How, pray? If so, it belongs partly to the potential: hence the frequent occurrence of nōn, ō si (occasionally sī, V., A., vi. 187) introduces an elliptical conditional sentence, which is not intended to have an Apodosis. When the Apodosis comes, it may come in a different form; as in the example: V., A., viii. 560, 568.

2. The Impf. Subjv. is occasionally used in early Latin to give an unreal wish in the Past. This is almost never found in the later period.

Utinam té dī prius perderent, quam periistī ē patriā tua, Pl., Capt., 537. Tunc mihi vita foret, Tib., i. 10, 11.
The Optative Subjunctive is used in asseverations:

Ita vivam ut maximos sumptus facio, C., Att., v. 15, 2; as I live, I am spending very largely (literally, so may I live as I am making very great outlay). Moriar, si magis gauderem si id mihi accidisset, C., Att., viii. 6, 3; may I die if I could be more glad if that had happened to me.

Note.—The Fut. Indic. in this sense is rare: Sic me di amabunt ut me tuarum miseritumst fortunatum, Ter., Hecat., 463.

The Subjunctive is used as an Imperative:

1. In the First Person Plural Present, which has no Imperative form:

Amemus patriam, C., Sest., 68, 143; let us love our country. Ne difficilia optemus, C., Verr., iv. 7, 15; let us not desire what is hard to do.

Note.—In the First Person Singular, the command fades into the wish.

2. In the Second Person.

(a) In the Present chiefly in the Singular, and chiefly of an imaginary “you”:

Istō bonō utāre, dum adsit, cum absit, ne requiras, C., Cat. M., 10, 33; you must enjoy that blessing so long as ‘tis here, when it is gone you must not pine for it.

Note.—The Comic Poets use the Pr. negatively very often of a definite person, sometimes combining it with an Impv.: ignosce, irata ne siēs, Pl., Am., 924; but in the classical period such usage is rare, and usually open to other explanations; a definite person may be used as a type, or the sentence may be elliptical.

(b) In the Perfect negatively:

Ne transieris Hiberum, L., xxi. 44, 6; do not cross the Ebro. Ne vos mortem timueritis, C., Tusc., i. 41, 98; have no fear of death!

3. In the Third Person Present (regularly):

Suum quisque nōscat ingenium, C., Off., i. 31, 114; let each one know his own mind. Dōnis impii ne plācāre audeant deōs, C., Leg., i. 16, 41; let the wicked not dare to try to appease the gods with gifts.

Note.—The Pf. in this usage is very rare. S., Ing., 85, 47; Tac., Ann., iv. 32, 1.

The Subjunctive is used as a Concessive:

Sit für, C., Verr., v. 1, 4; (granted that) he be a thief. Fuerit (malus civis), C., Verr., i. 14, 37; (suppose) that he was a bad citizen.

For other examples with ut and né, see 608.

Note.—The past tenses are very rarely used concessively; see C., Tusc., iii. 19, 75 (Impf.); Sest., 19, 43 (Plupf.).
265. The Subjunctive is used in Questions which expect an Imperative answer (coniunctivus deliberativus).

Genuine questions are commonly put in the First Person, or the representative of the First Person:

Utrum superbiam prius commemorām an crudālitātem, C., Verr., i. 47, 122; shall I mention the insolence first or the cruelty? Māna fuit contentiō utrum moenibus sē défenderent an obviam fregent hostibus, Nēp., i. 4, 4; there was a great dispute whether they should defend themselves behind the walls or go to meet the enemy. (Utrum nōs défendāmus an obviam eāmus?) [Example of Third Person, 428, n. 1.]

Rhetorical questions (questions which anticipate the answer), under this head, are hardly to be distinguished from Potential.

Quō mē nunc vertam? Undique custōdior, C., Alt., x. 12, 1; whither shall I now turn? Sentinels on every side. Quid agerem? C., Sest., 19, 42; what was I to do?

Remark.—The answer to the Deliberative Question is the Impv. or the Imperative Subjv. of the Present (263, 2) or Past (272, 3).

Imperative Mood.

266. The Imperative is the mood of the will. It wills that the predicate be made a reality. The tone of the Imperative varies from stern command to piteous entreaty. It may appear as a demand, an order, an exhortation, a permission, a concession, a prayer.

Abi in malam rem, Pl., Capt., 877; go (to the mischief), and be hanged. Compsēce mentem, II., O., i. 16, 22: curb your temper. Dā mihi hoc, mel meum! Pl., Trin., 244; give me this, honey dear!

267. The Imperative has two forms, known as the First and the Second Imperative (also, but less accurately, as the Present and Future Imperative). The First Imperative has only the Second Person; the Second Imperative has both Second and Third Persons. The First Person is represented by the Subjunctive (263, 1).

Remark.—Some verbs have only the second form. This may be due to the signification: so scītē, know thou; mementō, remember thou; and habētō, in the sense of know, remember.
On violation of Concord with the Imperative, see 211. x. 2.

Note.—The use of the Pronouns tū, vōs, etc., with the Impv., is colloquial, hence common in Comedy; or solemn: see V., A., vi. 95, 365, 675, 834, etc.

268. 1. The First Imperative looks forward to immediate fulfilment (Absolute Imperative):

Special: Patent portae; proficiscere, C., Cat., i. 5, 10. Open stand the gates; depart.


2. The Second Imperative looks forward to contingent fulfilment (Relative Imperative), and is chiefly used in laws, legal documents, maxims, recipes, and the like; likewise in familiar language.

Rēgiō imperiō duo suntō; nīque cōnsulēs appellāminō (130, 5, c); nēmīnī pārentō; ollīs (104, iii. x. 1) salūs populi sūpěrma lēx estō, C., Leg., iii. 3, 8; there shall be two (officers) with royal power: they shall be called consuls; they are to obey no one; to them the welfare of the people must be the paramount law. Rem vōbis prōpōnam: vōs eam pendītōte, C., Verr., iv. i, 1; I will propound the matter to you; do you thereupon perpend it. Percontātōrem fugītō, nam garrulus idem est, ii., Ep., i. 18, 69; avoid your questioner, for he is a tell-tale too.

269. Strengthening Words.—The Imperative is often strengthened and emphasized by the addition of Adverbs, fossilized Imperatives, Phrases, etc.: age, agite, agedum, agitēdatum, come; enclitic dum, then; modo, only; iamādūnum, at once; prōinde, well, then; quīn, why not? sānē, certainly; amābō, obsecrō, quaeōs, please; sīs (sī vīs), sultīs (sī voltīs), sōdēs (sī audēs), if you please. Most of these belong to familiar language, and are therefore found in great numbers in Comedy and in Cicero’s letters. In the classical prose, and even later, they are not common. Dum in classical times is confined to agedum; quīn is cited twice in Cicero (Mil., 29, 79; Rosc. Com., 9, 25), and rarely later. Iamādūnum begins with Vergil, and belongs to poetry and late prose. Sānē is not cited for the classical period. Sultīs is confined to early Latin; and sōdēs occurs but once in Cicero (Mil., vii. 3, 11).


Note.—On the violation of Concord with age, see 211, n. 2.

270. Negative of the Imperative.—1. The regular negative of the Imperative is nē (nēve, neu), which is found with the Second Imperative; with the First Imperative, it is poetical or colloquial.

Hominem mortuum in urbe nē sepelītō nēve ūritō, C., Leg., ii. 23, 58; one shall not bury nor burn a dead man in the city. Impius nē audētō plācāre dōnīs frām deōrum, C., Leg., ii. 9, 22; the impious man must not
dare attempt to appease by gifts the anger of the gods. Tu nē cēde malis, sed contrā audentior itō, V., A., vi. 95; yield not thou to misfortunes, but go more boldly (than ever) to meet them.

Remarks.—1. Nōn may be used to negative a single word:
   À légibus nōn recēdāmus, C., Client., 57, 155; let us not recede from (let us stick to) the laws. Opus poliat lima, nōn exterat, Cf. Quint., x. 4, 4; let the file rub the work up, not rub it out.
   2 Instead of nē with the First Imperative was employed either nōli with the Infinitive (271, 2); or nē with the Pf. Subjv., but the latter is very rare in elevated prose (263, 2, b). On nē with Pr. Subjv. see 263, 2, a.

Note.—The use of nōn with the actual Impv. is found only in Ovid; but the addition of a second Impv. by neque, nec, instead of nēve, neu, begins in classical times (C., Afl., xii. 22, 3), and becomes common later. The use of neque (nec), nihil, nēmō, nūllus with the Subjv. in an Impv. sense has recently been claimed for the Potential Subjv. (must, 257, 1) on account of the negative.

271. Periphrases.—1. Cūrā (cūrātō) ut, take care that; fac (facitō) ut, cause that; fac (facitō), do, with the Subjunctive, are common circumlocutions for the Positive Imperative.

Cūrā ut quam primum (303, 8. 1) veniās, C., Fam., iv. 10, 1; manage to come as soon as possible. Fac cōgitēs, C., Fam., xi. 3, 4, Do reflect!

Notes.—1. Facitō is almost wholly confined to early Latin, especially Plautus; so also cūrātō.
   2. Early Latin also shows vidē and vidētō with Subjv. Terence introduces volō, velim, with Subjv., which is found also in later times; as, C., Fam., ix. 12, 2.

2. Cavē and cavē (cavētō) nē, beware lest, with the Subjunctive, and nōli, be unwilling, with the Infinitive, are circumlocutions for the Negative Imperative (Prohibitive). Fac nē is also familiarly used.

Cavē fēstīnēs, C., Fam., xvi. 12, 6; do not be in a hurry. Tantum cum fingēs nē sis manifesta cavētō, (ov., A. i. 1. iii. 801; only when you pretend, beware that you be not detected. Nōli, amābō, verberāre lapidem, nē perdās manum, Pl., Curc., 197; don't beat a stone, I pray you, lest you spoil your hand. Fac nē quid aliud cūrēs hōc tempore, C., Fam., xvi. 11, 1; see that you pay no attention to anything else, at this time.

Notes.—1. Rare and confined to early Latin is the use of cavē with any but the second person. Cf. Pl., Aud., 660; Ter., Aud., 403.
   2. Other phrases are those with vidē nē and cūrātō nē, with Subjv.: comperce, compēsce with Inf. (all ante-classical); parce, mitte, omitte with Inf. (poetical and post-classical); nōlim with Subjv. (Cic.); fuge with Inf. (Hor.); absiste with Inf. (Verg.).
272. **Representatives of the Imperative.**—1. Instead of the Positive Imperative, may be employed:

(a) The Second Person of the Present Subjunctive (263, 2).
(b) The Second Person of the Future Indicative (243).
(c) The Third Person of the Present Subjunctive (263, 3).

2. Instead of the Negative Imperative (Prohibitive), may be employed:

(a) The Second Person of the Present Subjunctive, with ne (263, 2, n.).
(b) The Second Person of the Perfect Subjunctive, with ne (263, 2).
(c) The Second Person of the Future, with non (243).
(d) The Third Person of the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, with ne (263, 3).

**Remark.**—The Pr. Subjv. is employed when stress is laid on the continuance of the action; the Pf., when stress is laid on the completion. Hence the use of the Pf. Subjv. in total prohibitions and passionate protests.

3. The Imperative of the Past is expressed by the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive (unfulfilled duties). Compare 265, n.

Dōtem darētis; quaereret alium virum, Ter., Ph., 297; you should have given her a portion; she should have sought another match. Crās īrēs potius, hodie hic cēnārēs. Valē, Pl., Pers., 710; you ought rather to have put off going till to-morrow, you ought to (have) dined(đ) with us to-day. Good-bye. (Anything decided is regarded as past.) Potius docēret (causam) nōn esse aequam. C., Off., III. 22, 88; he should rather have shown that the plea was not fair. Nē popōscissēs (librōs), C., Alt., I. 1, 3; you ought not to have asked for the books.

Observe the difference between the Unfulfilled Duty and the Unreal of the Past (597).

Morerētūr; fēcisset certē si sine máximō dēdecōre potuisset, C., Rub. Post., 10, 29; he ought to have died; he would certainly have done so, could he have (done so) without the greatest disgrace.

**Note.**—The Plupf. tense in this usage is not ante-classical.

273. Passionate questions are equivalent to a command:

Nōn tacēs? Pl., Am., 700; won't you hold your tongue? Quīn tacēs? Why don't you hold your tongue? Quīn datis, si quid datis? Pl., Cas., 765; why don't you give, if you are going to do it? (Compare Fac, si quid facis, Mart., 1. 46, 1.) Ĉūr nōn ut plēnus vitae convīva recēdis? Lucr., III. 938; why do you not withdraw as a guest sated with life?
274. Puta, ut puta, for example, begins with [C.] ad Her., ii. 11, 16 (reading doubtful); then ii., s., u. 5, 32, Quinte, puta, aut Públi. Later it becomes more common, especially with the Jurists. See C., Ph., ii. 6, 15.

275. Summary of Imperative Constructions.

Positive.

2d P. Audi, hear thou; auditō (legal or contingent); audiēs (familiar); audiās (ideal Second Person chiefly).

3d P. Auditō (legal), let him hear; audiat.

Negative.

2d P. Nē audi, hear not (poetic); nē auditō (legal); nōn audiēs (familiar); nē audiās (chiefly ideal); nēi audīre (common); nē audīveris (rarer).

3d P. Nē auditō (legal), let him not hear; nē audiat; nē audīverit.

Tenses of the Moods and Verbal Substantives.

276. The Indicative alone expresses with uniform directness the period of time.

277. 1. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive have to do with continued action, the Perfect and Pluperfect with completed action. The Perfect Subjunctive is also used to express the attainment.

2. In simple sentences Present and Perfect Subjunctive postpone the ascertaining of the Predicate to the Future. The action itself may be Present or Future for the Present Subjunctive; Present, Past, or Future for the Perfect Subjunctive.

Credat. He may believe (now or hereafter).

Crēdiderit. Let him have had the belief (heretofore), he may have come to the belief (now), he may come to the belief (hereafter).

3. In simple sentences the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are Past Tenses, and regularly serve to indicate unreality. (See 597.)

Note.—A Subjv. of the Past, being a future of the past, gives a prospective (or future) action the time of which is over (or past), so that the analysis of the past tenses of the Subjv. shows the same elements as the Periphrastic Conjugation with eram and fuī. Hence the frequent parallel use. See 251, r. 2, and 597, r. 3.

4. In dependent sentences the Subjunctive is future if the leading verb has a future signification (515, r. 3); otherwise
the Subjunctive represents the Indicative. The tense is regulated by the law of sequence. (See 509.)

278. The Imperative is necessarily Future.

279. The Infinitive has two uses:
1. Its use as a Substantive.
2. Its use as a representative of the Indicative.

280. The Infinitive as a Substantive.—As a Substantive the Infinitive has two tenses, Present and Perfect. (See 419.)

1. The Present Infinitive is the common form of the Infinitive, used as a Substantive. It has to do with continued action.

(a) The Present Infinitive is used as a subject or predicate. (See 423, 424.)

Quibusdam tōtum hōc displicet philosophāri, C., Fin., i. 1. 1; to some this whole business of metaphysics is a nuisance.

(b) The Present Infinitive is used as the object of Verbs of Creation (Auxiliary Verbs, Verbs that help the Infinitive into being; see 423.)

Cato servire quam pūgnāre māvult, C., Att., vii. 15, 2: Cato prefers to be a slave rather than to fight (being a slave to fighting).

2. The Perfect Infinitive is comparatively little used as a Substantive. It has to do with completed action, and is also used to express attainment.

(a) As a subject, it is used chiefly in fixed expressions or in marked opposition to the Present.

Plūs prōderit dēmōnstrāsse rēctam prōtīminus viam quam revocāre ab errōre iam lāpsōs, Quint., ii. 6, 2; it will be more profitable to have pointed out the right path immediately than to recall from wandering those that have already gone astray. [Nōn] tam turpe fuit vincī quam contendisse decōrum est, Ov., M., ix. 5; 'twas not so much dishonor to be beaten as 'tis an honor to have struggled.

Remarks.—1. By a kind of attraction decuit, became, takes occasionally a Pf. Inf. (emotional).

Tunc fēssē decuit, L., xxx. 44, 7; that was the time when it would have been becoming to weep (to have wept). Et ērubuisse decēbat, Ov., M., iv. 330; the very flush of shame was becoming.
2. So oportuit, behooved, is frequently followed by the Pf. Part. passive, with or without esse. This seems to have belonged to familiar style; it is accordingly very common in early Latin.

[Nòc] iam pridem factum esse oportuit, C., Cat., i. 2, 5; this ought to have been done long ago.

(b) As an object, the Perfect Infinitive is seldom found in the active, except aftervelle, to wish, which seems to have been a legal usage.

Nèminem notà strènui aut ignàvi militia notàsse volui, L., xxiv. 16, 11; I wished to have marked (to mark finally, to brand) no soldier with the mark of bravery or of cowardice. Annàles, quibus crédidisse màiis, L., xlìii. 1, 1. Ne quis eorum bacanál habuisse velet, S. C. de BAC.

Otherwise it is found mainly in the poets (after the fashion of the Greek Aorist Inf.), and usually with the Pf. and Plupf. tenses, volui, etc., potui, dèbueram (dèbuit).

Fràtrès tendentès opácò Péliōn imposuisse Olympò, II., O., iii. 4, 52; The brothers striving to pile Péliōn on shaly Olympus.

Notes.—1. This usage with velle seems to have approached often the Fut. Pf. in force. A Pf. Inf. after the Pr. of posse occurs very rarely: Nòn potes probàsse núgás, Pl., Adv., 828; see V., i., vi. 78, and several cases in OVID and MARTIAL.

2. The Pf. Inf. act. (subj. or obj.) is often found in the poets, especially in elegiac poetry, as the first word in the second half of a pentameter, where it can hardly be distinguished from a Present. This usage may be due partly to analogy with verbs of wishing, partly to the exigencies of the metre, partly to the influence of the Greek Aorist. It must be distinguished from the normal usage of the Perfect: Quam invat immítes ventòs audire cubantem Et dominam tenerò dètiniisse sinù! TIB., i. 1, 45.

3. Noteworthy is the occasional use of dèbeò with the Pf. Inf. act. in the sense “must have”: statim vícisse dèbeò, C., Rocsc. Am., 23, 73; dèbès adnotàsse, Plin., Ep., vii. 20, 6.

(c) In the Passive, the Perfect Infinitive is used after verbs of Will and Desire, to denote impatience of anything except entire fulfilment. See 537.

[Patriam] exstinctam cupit, C., Fin., iv. 24, 66; he desires his country blotted out.

Here the Infinitive esse is seldom expressed.

Corinthum patrès vestrì tòtius Graeciae lùmen exstinctum esse voluérunt, C., Imp., 5, 11 (211, r. 6).

Note.—This usage is common in Comedv and in Cicero, rare, if at all, in Caesar and Sallust; and later also it is rare, surviving chiefly in phrases. The principal verb is volò, less often cupiò, very rarely expetò and nòlò.

281. The Infinitive as the Representative of the Indicative.—As the representative of the Indicative, the
Infinitive has all its Tenses: Present, Past, Future, and Future Periphrastics.

1. The Present Infinitive represents contemporaneous action—hence the Present Indicative after a Principal Tense, and the Imperfect after a Historical Tense:

Dicō eum venire, I say that he is coming; dicēbam eum venire, I said that he was coming.

2. The Perfect Infinitive represents Prior Action—hence the Perfect and Imperfect Indicative after a Principal Tense, and the Pluperfect, Imperfect, and Historical Perfect Indicative after a Historical Tense:

Dicō eum vēnisse, I say that he came, has come, used to come.
Dixī eum vēnisse, I said that he had come, used to come, did come.

Note.—Memini, I remember, when used of personal experience, commonly takes the Present: Tum mē rēgem appellārī ā vōbris memini, nunc tyrannum vocāri videō, L., xxxiv. 31, 13; I remember being styled by you a king then, I see that I am called a tyrant now.

So also rarely memoria teneō, recordor, I remember, I recall, and fugit mē, I do not remember. When the experience is not personal, the ordinary construction is followed: Memineram Marium ad infāmōrum hominum misericordiam consūgisse, C., Sest., 22, 50; I remembered that Marius had thrown himself on the mercy of a set of low creatures.

The peculiar construction with the Pr. arises from the liveliness of the recollection. When the action is to be regarded as a bygone, the Pf. may be used even of personal experience: Mē memini irātum dominae turbāsse capillōs, Ov., A. A., 11, 169; I remember in my anger having loused my sweetheart's hair.

282. The Present Participle active denotes continuance; the Perfect passive, completion or attainment.

Note.—The Latin is more exact than the English in the use of the tenses. So the Pf. Part. is frequently employed when we use the Present; especially in classical prose, with verbs that indicate a condition, mental or physical, where the action of the participle is conceived as continuing up to, and sometimes into, that of the leading verb, as ratus, thinking; veritus, fearing; ġāvisus, rejoicing, etc. This usage spreads later: complexus, embracing; hortātus, exhorting.

283. The Future Participle (active) is a verbal adjective, denoting capability and tendency, chiefly employed in the older language with sum, I am, as a periphrastic tense. In later Latin it is used freely, just as the Present and Perfect Participles, to express subordinate relations.

Notes.—1. The so-called Fut. Part. passive is more properly called the Gerundive, and has already been discussed (251).
2. The Supine, being without tense relations, does not belong here,
SIMPLE SENTENCE EXPANDED.

284. The sentence may be expanded by the multiplication or by the qualification, A, of the subject, B, of the predicate.

A.

1. Multiplication of the Subject.

Concord.

285. NUMBER.—The common predicate of two or more subjects is put in the Plural number:

Lúcius Tarquinius et Tullia minor iunguntur núptiis, L., i. 46, 9; Lúceius Tarquinius and Tullia the younger are united in marriage. Pater et māter mortu[i sunt], Terr., Eun., 518: father and mother are dead.

Exceptions.—1. The common predicate may agree with a Sing. subject when that subject is the nearest or the most important: "My flesh and my heart faileth," Psal., lxxxiii. 26.

Aētās et fōrmā et super omnia Rōmānum nōmen tē fereōriērem facit, L., xxxi. 18, 3; your youth and beauty, and, above all, the name of Roman, makes you too mettlesome. Latāgum saxō occupat ōs faciemque adversam V., A., x. 695 (323, n. 2).

The agreement depends largely also upon the position of the verb. If it precedes or follows the first subj., the Sing. is more apt to stand.

2. Two abstracts in combination, when conceived as a unit, take a Sing. verb: "When distress and anguish cometh upon you," Prov., i. 27.

Religio et fidēs antepōnātur amīcitiae, C., Off., iii. 10, 46; let the religious obligation of a promise be preferred to friendship.

So any close union: "Your gold and silver isankered," Jas., v. 3.

Senātus populusque Rōmānum intellegit, C., Fam., v. 8, 2; the senate and people of Rome perceives (= Rome perceives). Tua fāma et gnātæ vita in dubium veniet, Terr., Ad., 340; your good name will be jeopardized and your daughter's life.

3. When the same predicate is found with two or more subjects, who are conceived as acting independently, classical usage requires that the predicate be in the Singular. Livi introduces the Pl., which grows, and becomes the rule in Tacitus: Palātium Rōmulus, Remus Aventīnum ad inaugurandum templam captuunt, L., i. 6, 4.

Notes.—1. Neque neque, neither—nor, allows the Pl. chiefly when the Persons are different: Haec neque ego neque tū fēcit, Terr., Ad., 103; neither you nor I did this.
The same is true, but not so common, of *et* and *sunt* (as well as), *aut*—*aut*, *either—or*.

2. A Sing. subj. combined with another word by *cum*, *with*, is treated properly as a Singular. It is treated as a Pl. once each by Cato, Terence (*Heauton*, 473), Cicero (by anacoluthon), Caesar (*C. B. C.*, iii. 88), more often by Sallust and his imitators, Livy, and later writers. Velleius, Valerius M., and Tacitus follow the classical usage.

Sulla *cum Scipione*. . . *leges inter se contulérunt*, C., *Ph.*, xii. 11, 27. *Ipse dux* *cum aliquot principibus capiuntur*, L., *xxi. 60*, 7; the general himself with some of the leading men are captured.


286. Gender.—When the Genders of combined subjects are the same, the adjective predicate agrees in gender; when the genders are different, the adjective predicate takes either the strongest gender or the nearest.

1. In things with life, the masculine gender is the strongest; in things without life, the neuter.

(a) The strongest:


(b) The nearest:

*Convicta est Messálína et Silius*, Cf. Tac., *Ann.*, xii. 65; Messalina was convicted and (so was) Silius. *Hippolochus Larissaeórumque déditum est præsidium*, L., *xxxvi. 9*, 14; Hippolochus and the Larissaeans garrison (were) surrendered.

2. When things with life and things without life are combined, the gender varies.

(a) Both as persons:

*Rex régiaque clássis profecti* (sunt), L., *xxi. 50*, 11; the king and the king's fleet set out.

(b) Both as things:

*Nátūrā inimíca* [sunt] *libera cívítas et réx*, Cf. L., *xliv. 24*, 2; a free state and a king are natural enemies.

3. When the subjects are feminine abstracts the predicate may be a neuter Plural (211. 4).

*Stultitiam et intemperantiam dicimus esse fugiendā*, C., *Fin.*, III. 11, 39; folly and want of self-control (we say) are (things) to be avoided.

Note.—This usage does not appear in early Latin, nor in Caesar or Sallust.
287. Persons.—When the persons of combined subjects are different, the First Person is preferred to the Second, the Second to the Third:

Si tā et Tullia, láx nostra, valētis, ego et suāvissimus Cicerō valēmus, C., Fam., xiv. 5, 1; if Tullia, light of my life, and you are well, dearest Cicero and I are well.

Remark.—(a) In contrasts, and when each person is considered separately, the predicate agrees with the person of the nearest subject.

Et ego et Cicero meus flagitabit, C., Att., iv. 18, 5; my Cicero will demand it and (so will) 1. Beātē vivere alii in aliō, vōs in voluptāte pōnitis, C., Fin., ii. 27, 86; some make a blessed life to rest on one thing, some on another, you on pleasure.

So regularly with disjunctives, see 285, n. 1.

(b) The order is commonly the order of the persons, not of modern politeness: Ego et uxor mea, Wife and I.

2. Qualification of the Subject.

288. The subject may be qualified by giving it an attribute. An attribute is that which serves to give a specific character. The chief forms of the attribute are:

I. The adjective and its equivalents: amicus certus, a sure friend.

Remark.—The equivalents of the adjective are:

1. The pronouns hic, this, ille, that, etc.
2. Substantives denoting rank, age, trade: servus homō, a slave person; homō senex, an old fellow; homō gladiātor, a gladiator-fellow; mulier ancilla, a servant-wench.
3. The Genitive (360, 1).
4. The Ablative (400).
5. Preposition and case: excessus a vita, departure from life.
6. Adverbs, chiefly with substantival participles: rectē facta, good actions.
7. Relative clauses (505).

II. The substantive in apposition: Cicerō orātor, Cicero the orator.

I. ADJECTIVE ATTRIBUTE.

Concord.

289. The Adjective Attribute agrees with its substantive in gender, number, and case:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Number</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Vir sapīēns, a wise man</td>
<td>virī sapientēs, wise men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mulier pulchra, a beautiful woman</td>
<td>mulierēs pulchrae, beautiful women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rēgium dōnum, royal gift</td>
<td>rēgia dōna, royal gifts</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
ADJECTIVE ATTRIBUTE.

Case.

Vir sapientis, of a wise man.
Mulier pulchrae, for a beautiful woman.
Virum sapientem, wise man.

bone fill! good son!
reţiö döôö, by royal gift.
mulierēs pulchrās, beautiful women.

290. The common attribute of two or more substantives agrees with the nearest; rarely with the most important.


Remarks.—1. For emphasis, or to avoid ambiguity, the adj. is repeated with every substantive. Sometimes also for rhetorical reasons simply.

(Semprōniae) multae facētiae, multusque lepōs inerat, S., C., 23, 25; Semprōnia had a treasure of witticisms, a treasure of charming talk.

2. When a substantive is construed with several similar adjectives in the Sing., it may be in agreement with one in the Sing., or may stand in the Pl., according to its position:

Quārta et Mārtia legiōnēs, C., Fam., xi. 19, 1, but Lēgiō Mārtia quārtaque, C., Ph., v. 17, 46, The fourth and Martian legions.

Notes. 1 A common surname is put in the Plural: M. (et) Q. Cicerōnēs, Marcus and Quintus Cicero; C., Cn., M. Carbōnēs, Gaius, Gnaeus (and) Marcus Carbo; otherwise, M. Cicerō et Q. Cicerō, Marcus and Quintus Cicero.

2. Poets are free in regard to the position of the adjective: Semper honōs nōmenque tunum laudēsque manēbunt, V., A., i. 609.

291. Position of the Attribute.—1. When the attribute is emphatic, it is commonly put before the substantive, otherwise in classical Latin ordinarily after it. But see 676.

1. Fugitīvus servus, a runaway slave (one complex).
2. Servus fugitīvus, a slave (that is) a runaway (two notions).

Many expressions, however, have become fixed formula, such as civis Rōmānus, Roman citizen; populus Rōmānus, people of Rome.

Compare body politic, heir apparent in English.

Remarks.—1. Variation in the position of the adj. often causes variation in the meaning of the word. Thus rēs bonae, good things; bonae rēs, articles of value, or good circumstances; rēs urbānēs, city matters; urbānēs rēs, witticisms; mēnsa secunda, a second table; secunda mēnsa, dessert.
2. Superlatives which denote order and sequence in time and space are often used partitively, and then generally precede their substantive: *summa aqua*, the surface of the water; *summus mons*, the top of the mountain; *vère prímô, primô vère*, in the beginning of spring. Similarly *in media urbe*, in the midst of the city; *reliqua, cêtera Graecia*, the rest of Greece, and the like.

2. When the attribute belongs to two or more words, it is placed sometimes after them all, sometimes after the first, sometimes before them all.

_Divitiae, nomen. opēs vacuae cōnsiliō dédecoris plēnae sunt_, C.. _Rep._, 1. 34, 51: riches, name, resources (when) void of wisdom are full of dishonor.

For examples of the other positions see 290.

**Numerals.**

292. _Duo_ means simply *two, ambō, both* (two considered together), _uterque, either* (two considered apart, as, ''They crucified two other with him, on either side one,” _John_, xix. 18):

_Supplicātiō ambōrum nōmine et triumphus utrique dēcrētus est, L., xxviii. 9, 9; a thanksgiving in the name of both and a triumph to either (each of the two) was decreed. Qui utrumque probat, ambōbus dēbuit ūti, C., _Fin._, 11. 7, 26; he who approves of either ought to have availed himself of both._

Remark.—_Uterque is seldom Pl., except of sets; so with pluralia tantum._

_Utrique (i.e., plēbis autōrēs et senātus) victōriam crudēlīter exercēbant, S., C., 38, 4; either party (democrats and senate) made a cruel use of victory. Duae fuērunt Ariovistī uxōrēs: utraeque in ea fugā periērunt, Caes., _B.G._, 1. 53, 4; Ariovistus’s wives were two in number; both perished in that flight. Proximō dīē Caesar ē castrīs utriquē cōpiās suās ēdūxit, Caes., _B.G._, 1. 50, 1._

On _uterque_ with the Pl., see 211, r. 1; with Gen., see 371, r.

293. _Mille, a thousand, is in the Sing. an indeclinable adj. and is less frequently used with the Genitive: mille militēs, rather than mille militum, a thousand soldiers; in the Pl. it is a declinable substantive, and must have the Genitive: duo milia militum, two thousand(s of) soldiers = two regiments of soldiers. If a smaller number comes between, the substantive usually follows the smaller number:_
NUMERALS.

3500 cavalry.

tria milia quingenti equites,
tria milia equitum et quingenti, but
equites tria milia quingenti, or
equitum tria milia quingenti.

But duo milia quingenti hostium in acie periere. L., xxii. 7, 3.

Note.—The use of mille as a substantive with the Part. Gen. is found mostly in anteclassical and post-classical Latin. Cicero and Caesar use it but rarely, and in phrases such as mille nummum, mille passuum. Livy is fonder of it.

294. Ordinals.—The Ordinals are used more often in Latin than in English; thus always in dates: annō ducentēsimō quārtō, in the year 204. Sometimes they are used for the cardinals with a carelessness that gives rise to ambiguity:

Quattuor anni sunt, ex quō tē nōn vidī.
It is four years, that I have not seen you (since I saw you).
Quartus annus est, ex quō tē nōn vidī.
It is the fourth year (four years, going on four years).

Note.—To avoid this ambiguity forms of incipere, to begin, and exigere, to finish, seem to have been used. Cf., Pl., Capt., 98o; Cist., 161.

On quisque with the ordinal, see 318, 2.

295. Distributives.—The distributives are used with an exactness which is foreign to our idiom wherever repetition is involved, as in the multiplication table.

Bis bina quot [sunt] ? C., N.D., II. 18, 49; how many are twice two?
Scriptum eculeum cum quinque pedibus. pullōs gallīnaceōs tris cum ternis pedibus nātōs esse, L., xxxii. I, 11; a letter was written to say that a colt had been foaled with five feet (and) three chickens hatched with three feet (apiece).

With singuli the distributive is preferred, but the cardinal may be used.

Antōnius (pollicitus est) dēnāriōs quīngēnōs singulis militibus datūrum, C., Fam., X. 32, 4; Antonius promised to give five hundred denarii to each soldier. Singulis cēnsōribus dēnāriī trecentī (so all MSS.) imperāti sunt, C., Verr., II. 55, 137; the censors were required to pay three hundred denarii apiece.

*Note.—Poets and later prose writers often used the distributive when the cardinal would be the rule; thus bini is not unfrequently used of a pair even in Cicero: biōs (scyphōs) habēbam, Verr., iv. 14, 92. When there is an idea of grouping, the distributive is often broken up into a multiplicative and a distributive; as,

Carmen ab ter novēnīs virginibus caeli iussērunt, L., xxxi. 12, 9; they ordered a chant to be sung by thrice nine virgins.
On the other hand, prose sometimes shows a cardinal when exact usage would require a distributive. So regularly milia.

Milia talentum per duodecim annōs (dabitis), L., xxxvii. 45, 15.
On the distributives with plurālia tantum, see 97, R. 3.

Comparatives and Superlatives.

296. Comparative.—The comparative degree generally takes a term of comparison either with quam, than, or in the Ablative:

Ignoratio futurorum malōrum ūtilior est quam scientia, C., Div., ii. 9, 23; ignorance of future evils is better than knowledge (of them). Nihil est virtūte amābilis, C., Lael., 8, 28; nothing is more lovable than virtue.

Remarks.—1. (a) The Abl. is used only when the word with quam would stand in the Nom. or Acc. (644).

Caesar minor est quam Pompēius, Caesar is younger than Pompey.

Caesarem plus amāmus quam Pompēium, we love Caesar more than Pompey.

In the second example the use of the Abl. may give rise to ambiguity, as the sentence may also mean "we love Caesar more than Pompey loves him." This ambiguity is always present when adverbs are used, and hence good prose avoids using a comparative adv. with an Ablative. See II., S., i. 1, 97.

(b) With cases other than Nom. or Acc., quam is regularly used to avoid ambiguity.

Ānulis nostris plus quam animis créditur, Sen., Ben., iii. 15, 3 (217).

2. The Abl. is very common in negative sentences and is used exclusively in negative relative sentences.

Polybium sequāmur, quō nēmō fuit diligentior, C., Rep., ii. 14, 27; let us follow Polybius, than whom no one was more careful.

3. Measure of difference is put in the Ablative (403).

4. Quam is often omitted after plus, amplius, more, and minus, less, and the like, without affecting the construction:

Hominī miserō plus quingentōs colaphōs īnfrēgit mihi, Ter., Ad., 199; he has dealt me, luckless creature, more than five hundred crushing boxes on the ear. Spatium est nōn amplius pedum sescentōrum, Caes., B.C., i. 38, 5; the space is not more than (of) six hundred feet.

But the normal construction is not excluded:

Palūs nōn lātiore pedibus quinquāgintā, Caes., B.G., vii. 19, 1; a swamp not broader than fifty feet (or pedēs quinquāgintā). Nosti militēs amplius hōris quattuor pūgnāvērunt, Caes., B.G., iv. 37, 3.
5. In statements of age we may have a variety of expressions; thus, *more than thirty years old* may be:

2. *Nátus plús trigintá annís (rare).* 4. *Máior trigintá annís (nátus).*
5. *Máior trigintá annórum.*

6. On the combination of the comparative with *opinióne, opinión,* *spé, hope,* and the like, see 398, n. 1.

**Notes.**—1. Verbs and other words involving comparison sometimes have the Abl. where another construction would be more natural. Thus, *málle, to prefer* (poet. and post-classical), *aequē, adaequē, equally* (early and late), *alíus, other* (mainly poetic and rare): *Núllós his mállem lúdós spectásse,* II., S., ii. 8, 79. *Quí mé in terrá aequē fortúnátus erít?* Pl., *Cúræ,* i. 41. *Né putés alíum sapiéntem bonóque béátum,* Ep., i. 16, 20.

2. Instead of the Abl., the Gen. is found occasionally in late Latin.

3. Instead of *quam* or the Abl., prepositional uses with the positive are often found; as *praé, in comparison with,* *praeter, ante, beyond;* also *suprá quam.* Poetical is the circumlocution with *quális,* as Hor., *Epod.* 5, 59. *Inferior* is sometimes construed with the Dat., according to the sense; *inferior to instead of lower than.*

4. *Atque for quam* is mainly poetical; see 644, n. 2.

297. Standard of Comparison omitted.—When the standard of comparison is omitted, it is supplied: 1. By the context; 2. By the usual or proper standard; 3. By the opposite.

1. By the context:

*Sólemt régés Persárum plúrēs uxorēs habérē,* Cf. C., *Verr.*, iii. 33, 76; *the kings of Persia usually have more wives [than one].

2. By the proper standard:

*Senectús est náturā loquációr,* C., *Cat. M.*, 16. 55. *Old age is naturally rather (or too) talkative.*

3. By the opposite:

*Quiēsse erit meliùs,* L., iii. 48, 3; *it will be better to be-perfectly-quiet* (than to make a disturbance).

298. Disproportion.—Disproportion is expressed by the comparative with *quam prō, than for,* and the Ablative, or with *quam ut, that,* or *quam quí, who,* and the Subjunctive:

*Minór caedēs quam prō tantā victóriā fuit,* L., x, i. 4, 21; *the loss was (too) small for so great a victory.* *Quis nōn intellegit Canachi signá rigidíōra esse quam ut imitentur vérítátem?* C., *Br.* 18, 70; *who does not perceive that Canachus' figures are too stiff to imitate the truth of nature?* *Máior sum quam cuí possít Fortūna nocère,* Ov., *M.*, vi. 195; *I am too great for Fortune possibly to hurt me.*
COMPARATIVES.

Remark.—Disproportion may also be expressed by the positive in combination with prepositional phrases, etc.: prō multitūdine angusti finēs, Caes., B. G., 1. 2, 5; boundaries too small for their multitude.

Notes.—1. The constructions quam prō and quam quī are both post-Ciceronian.
2. The ut is frequently omitted after quam, as: Dolabella celerius Asia (ex-cēssit), quam eō praesidium addūcī potuisset, C., Fam., xii. 15, 1. This is especially common after potius quam.

299. Two Qualities compared.—When two qualities of the same substantive are compared, we find either magis and quam with the positive, or a double comparative:

Celer tuus disertus magis est quam sapiēns, C., Att., x. 1, 4; your (friend) Celer is eloquent rather than wise—more eloquent than wise. Acūtiorem sē quam ārnātiorem [vult], C., Opt. Gen., 2, 6; he wishes to be acute rather than ornate.

Notes.—1. There is no distinction to be made between the two expressions. In the latter turn, which is found first, but rarely, in Cicero, the second comparative is merely attracted into the same form as the first. The same rule applies to the adverb: fortius quam felicius, with more bravery than good luck.
2. Post-Augustan Latin shows occasionally the comparative followed by quam, and the positive: Nimia pietās vestra ācrius quam cōnsiderātē excitāvit, Tac., H., 1. 83.

300. Restriction to the Comparative.—When but two objects are compared, the comparative exhausts the degrees of comparison, whereas, in English, the superlative is employed, unless the idea of duality is emphatic.

Nātū māior, the eldest (of two), the elder; nātū minor, the youngest, the younger. Prior, the first; posterior, the last.

Posteriorēs cōgitātiōnēs, ut āiunt, sapientiōrēs solent esse, C., Ph., xii. 2, 5; afterthoughts, as the saying is, are usually the wisest.

Remark.—The same rule applies to the interrogative uter, which of two? (whether?): Ex duōbus uter dignior? ex pluribus, quis dignissimus? Quint., vii. 4, 21; of two, which is the worthier? of more (than two), which is theworthiest?

Note.—Quis is rarely used instead of uter, as C., Fam., vi. 3, 1; V., A., xii. 725.

301. Comparative Strengthened. The comparative is often strengthened during the classical period by the insertion of etiam, even; later also by adhuc, still. Multō is properly the Ablative of difference, and is the normal form until the time of Vergil, when its place is taken largely by longē, except in Horace, who retains multō. Ante-classical and post-classical Latin occasionally doubles the comparative: magis dulcius, Pl., Stich., 699. Nihil inveniēs magis hōc certō certius, Pl.,
Capt., 643. Even in Cicero a word involving Preference is sometimes strengthened by potius:

[Themistocli fuit] optābilius oblīvīscī posse potius quam meminisse, C., Or., ii. 74, 300; Themistocles thought it (more) preferable to be able to forget (rather) than to be able to remember.

302. Superlative.—The Latin superlative is often to be rendered by the English positive, especially of persons:

Quintus Fabius Māximus, Quintus Fabius the Great. Māximō impetū, māiore fortūnā, L., xlvii 36, 2; with great vigor, with greater luck. Tam fēlix essēs quam fōrmōsissima vellement, Ov., Am., i. 8, 27; would thou were fortunate as (thou art) fair.

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303. Superlative Strengthened.—The superlative is strengthened by multō, much (especially in early Latin); longē, by far (the normal usage in the classical period): vel, even; ēnus, ēnus omnium, one above all others; quam (with adverbs and adjectives), quantus (with māximus), ut (with adverbs)—potest, potuit, as—as possible.

Ex Britannis omnibus longē sunt hūmānissimī qui Cantium incolunt, Caes., B.G., v. 14, 1; of all the Britons by far the most cultivated are those that inhabit Kent. 302. Superlative.—The Latin superlative is often to be rendered by the English positive, especially of persons:

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Ex Britannis omnibus longē sunt hūmānissimī qui Cantium incolunt, Caes., B.G., v. 14, 1; of all the Britons by far the most cultivated are those that inhabit Kent.

Remarks.—1. The omission of potest leaves quam with the superlative, which becomes a regular combination: as (great) as possible.

2. For tam, tantum, with positive followed by quam, quantum qui, and the superlative, see 642, r. 5.

PRONOUNS.

I. Personal Pronouns.

304. 1. The personal Pronoun is usually omitted when it is the subject of a verb; see 207.

2. The Genitive forms, meī, tuī, suī, nostri, vestri, are used mainly as Objective Genitives; see 364, n. 2.

(Mārcellinus) sē acerrimum tuī dēfēnsōrem fore ostendit, C., Fam., i. i. 2; Marcellinus showed that he would be your keenest defender.

Notes.—1. Nostrum and vestrum for nostri, vestri, are very rare: [Iūppiter, custūs] hūius urbīs ac vestrum, (Cf. C., Cat., iii. 12, 29).

2. The Possessive pronouns sometimes are found in place of this Genitive: Neque neclegentiā tuā neque odiō id fēcit tuō, Ter., Ph., 1016; he did this neither from
neglect of thee nor from hatred of thee. Vester conspectus reficit et recreat mentem meam, C., Plaut. iii. 2. the sight of you refreshes and renews my spirits.

"If I be a master, where is my fear?" Mal. i. 6.

3. The Genitive forms, nostrum and vestrum, are used partitively; see 364, r.

Tē ad mē venire uterque nostrum cupit, C., Att., xiii. 33. 2; each of us two desires that you should come to me.

Notes.—1. So regularly also in certain phraseological uses which may be partitive at basis. Frequentia vestrum, consensus vestrum, regularly in combination with omnium (364, r.), and occasionally when the Possessive is more natural; is enim splendor est vestrum, C., Att., vii. 133, 8.

2. For a Part. Gen. of the third person (reflexive) a circumlocution must be used, such as ex sē or the Possessive suōrum.

2. Demonstrative Pronouns.

305. Hic, this (the Demonstrative of the First Person), refers to that which is nearer the speaker, and may mean:

1. The speaker himself: hic homō = ego, Pl., Trin., 1115.

2. The persons with whom the speaker identifies himself, e. g., the judges in a suit at law: sī ego hōs nōvi, if I know these men (= the jury).

3. The most important subject immediately in hand: hic sapiēns dē quō loquor, C., Ac., ii. 33, 105; this (imaginary) wise man of whom I am speaking.

4. That in which the speaker is peculiarly interested: hōc studium, this pursuit of mine, of ours.

5. That which has just been mentioned: haec hāctenus, these things thus far = so much for that.

6. Very frequently, that which is about to be mentioned: hīs condiōnibus, on the following terms.

7. The current period of time: hic diēs, to-day; haec nox, the night just past or just coming; hic mēnis, the current month.

306. Iste, that (of thine, of yours), refers to that which belongs more peculiarly to the Second Person (Demonstrative of the Second Person):

Perfer istam militiam, C., Fam., vii. 11, 2; endure that military service of yours. Adventū tuō ista subsellia vacuēfacta sunt, C., Cat., i. 7, 16; at your approach the benches in your neighborhood were vacated.

Note.—The supposed contemptuous character of iste arises from the refusal to take any direct notice of the person under discussion, "the person at whom one speaks or points," and precisely the same thing is true of hic and ille, but less common.

307. Ile, that (the Demonstrative of the Third Person), denotes that which is more remote from the speaker, and is often used in contrast to hic, this.
Sōl mē ille admonuit, C., Or., iii., 55, 209: that (you) sun reminded me.
Q. Catulus nōn antiquō illō mōre sed hōc nostrō ērūditus, C., Br., 35, 132;
Q. Catulus, a cultivated man, not after the old-fashioned standard of a
by-gone time (illō) but by the standard of to-day (hōc).

Ille may mean:
1. That which has been previously mentioned (often ille quidem):
illud quod initiō vōbis prōposui, C., Font., 7, 17; that which I propounded
to you at first.
2. That which is well known, notorious (often put after the substantive):
tēstula illa, that (notorious) potsherder = institution of ostracism;
illud Solōnis, that (famous saying) of Solon's.
3. That which is to be recalled: illud imprimis mirābile, that (which
I am going to remind you of) is especially wonderful.
4. That which is expected:
illa diēs veniet mea quā lūgubria pōnam, Or., Tr., iv. 2, 73; the day
will come when I shall lay aside (cease) my mournful strains.

Remarks.—1. Hic and ille are used together in contrasts: as, the
latter—the former, the former—the latter.
(a) When both are matters of indifference the natural signification is
observed: hic, the latter; ille, the former.
Ignāvia corpus hebetat, labor firmat; illa mātūram senectūtem, hic
longam adolescentiam reddit, Cels., 1. 1; laziness weakens the body, toil
strengthens it: the one (the former) hastens old age, the other (the
latter) prolongs youth.
(b) When the former is the more important, hic is the former, ille, the
latter:
Melior tūtiorque est certa pāx quam spērāta victōria; haec in nostrā,
illa in deōrum manū est, L., xxx. 30, 19: better and safer is certain peace
than hoped-for victory; the former is in our hand(s), the latter in the
hand(s) of the gods.
2. Hic et ille; ille et ille; ille aut ille, this man and (or) that man =
one or two.
Nōn dicam hōc signum ablātum esse et illud; hōc dicō, nūllum tē
signum reliquisse, C., Verr., 1. 20, 53: I will not say that this statue was
taken off and that; (what) I say (is) this, that you left no statue at all.
3. The derived adverbs retain the personal relations of hic, iste, ille:
hic, here (where I am); hinc, hence (from where I am); hūc, hither
(where I am); istic, there (where you are); illic, there (where he is), etc.
4. The Demonstratives hic, iste, ille, and the Determinative is, are
often strengthened by quidem, indeed. The second member is then intro-
duced by sed, sed tamen (more rarely tamen, vērum, autem, vērō), vērum-
tamen, and sometimes is added asyndetically. The sentence often re-
quires that either the demonstrative or the particle be left untranslated.
Optäre hoc quidem est, non docère, C., Tusc., n. 13, 30: that is a (pious) wish, not a (logical) proof. Nihil perfertur ad nos praeter ruminóres satis istós quidem constantés sed adhúc sine auctóre, C., Fam. XII. q. 1; nothing is brought to us except reports, consistent enough, it is true, but thus far not authoritative.

ILLE is most often used thus; is, iste, hic, more rarely.

Notes.—1. Hie and ille are sometimes employed to add a qualification to a substantive by means of a contrast: Ὠράτορ nón ille vulgáris sed hic excelléns, C., Or., 14, 45; an orator, not of the (you) common type, but of the ideal excellence (we seek).

2. Not unfrequently in poetry, very rarely in prose, in a long sentence a substantive is repeated by means of ille: V., A., 1, 3; ille et terrís iactátus; II., O., iv. 9, 51.

3. Sometimes two forms of hic, ille, or is are found in the same clause referring to different substantives: Evolve diligenter éius [i.e., Platónis] eum librum, qui est dé animó, C., Tusc., i. 11, 21.

4. Ille may refer to an oblique form of is: Nón est amíci talem esse in eum, quális ille in sǽ est, C., Læd., 16, 59.

5. Ille is found chiefly in poetry with the personal pronouns ego, tū, and occasionally with hic, and when so used takes its fullest force. Hunc illum fátís externá ab sède profectum portendi generum, V., A., vii. 255.

3. Determinative and Reflexive Pronouns.

308. IS, that, is the determinative pronoun, and serves as the lacking pronoun of the Third Person. It furnishes the regular antecedent of the relative:

Míhí vénit obviam tuus puer; is mihí litteráis abs tē reddítit, C., Alt., n. 1, 1: I was met by your servant; he delivered to me a letter from you.

Is minimó eget mortális qui minimum cupit, SYRUS, 286 (Fr.): that mortal is in want of least, who wanteth least.

Remarks.—1. IS, as the antecedent of the relative, is often omitted, chiefly in the Nom., more rarely in an oblique case (619).

Bis dat qui dat celeriter, SYRUS, 235 (Fr.): he gives twice who gives in a trice.

Often it has the force of tális (631, 1) in this connection:

Ego is sum qui nihil umquam meá potius quam meórum civium causás fecérím, C., Fam., v. 21, 2: I am a man never to have done anything for my own sake, rather than for the sake of my fellow-citizens.

2. IS, with a copulative or adversative particle, is used as he or that in English, for the purpose of emphasis. Such expressions are: et is, atque is, isque, and he too, and that too: neque is, et is nón, and he not, and that not; sed is, but he, further strengthened by quidem, indeed. To refer to the whole action id is employed.

Exemíla quærínumus et ea nón antiqua, C., Verr., III. 90, 210: we are looking for examples, and those, too, not of ancient date. Epicúrus ûnâ in domó et eà quidem angustá quam mágnoùs tenuit amicórum gregés, C., Fin., I. 20, 65: what shouts of friends Epicurus had in one house, and
that a pinched-up one! Negotium măgnum est navigare atque id mense Quintili, C., Att. v. 12, 1; it is a big job to take a voyage and that in the month of July.

3. Is does not represent a substantive before a Gen., as in the English that of. In Latin the substantive is omitted, or repeated, or a word of like meaning substituted.

Non iūdiciō discipulōrum dicere dēbet magister sed discipulī magistrī, Quint., ii, 2, 13; the master is not to speak according to the judgment of the pupils; but the pupils according to that of the master. Nūlla est celeritās quae possit cum animī celeritāte contendere, C., Tusci., i. 19. 43; there is no speed that can possibly vie with that of the mind. M. Coelius tribūnāl suum iūxtā C. Trebonī sellam colocāvit, Caes., B.C. iii. 20, 1; Marcus Coelius placed his chair of office next to that of Gaius Trebonius.

Of course hic, ille, and īste can be used with the Gen. in their proper sense.

309. Reflexive. Instead of forms of is, the Reflexive Pronoun suī, sībī, sē, together with the Possessive of the Reflexive suos (-us), sua, suom (-um) is used. (See 521.)

1. Regularly when reference is made to the grammatical subject of the sentence:

Ipse sē quisque diligit quod sībī quisque cārus est, C., Lael., 21. 80; every one loves himself, because every one is dear to himself. (Fadius) a mē diligitur propter summam suam hūmānitātem, C., Fam., xv. 14, 1; Fadius is a favorite of mine by reason of his exceeding kindliness.

The subject may be indefinite or (occasionally) impersonal.

Contentum suis rēbus esse máximae sunt divitiae, C., Par., vi. 3. 51; to be content with one's own things (with what one hath) is the greatest riches. Perventum ad suōs erat, L., xxxiii. 8, 6.

"Pure religion and undefiled is this . . . to keep himself unspotted from the world." James, i. 27.

2. Frequently when reference is made to the actual subject (521, R. 2):

Suos rēx rēgīnae placet, Pl., St., 133; every queen favors her own king (every Jill loves her own Jack). Osculātur tigrīn suīs cūstōs, Sen., E.M., 85, 41; her own keeper kisses the tigress (the tigress is kissed by her own keeper). Cuī prōposita sit conservātiō suī necesse est huic partēs quoque suī cārās esse, C., Fin., v. 13, 37; he who has in view the preservation of himself (self-preservation) must necessarily hold dear the parts of (that) self also.

This is especially common with suos, which when thus employed has usually its emphatic sense: own, peculiar, proper.
3. Suī, sibī, sē are the regular complements of the infinitive and its equivalents when a reflexive idea is involved; and sē is also used with prepositions ergā, inter, propter, per, for especial emphasis.

(Rōmānī) suī oclligendī hostibus facultātem (nōn) relinquunt, Caes., B. G., III. 6, 1; the Romans do not leave the enemy a chance to rally. Ipsum Furnium per sē vidī libentissimē, C., Fam., x. 3, 1.

4. Suōs (-us) is also used in prepositional phrases that are joined closely with the substantives; so after cum, inter, and more rarely after in, intrā, and ad.

Māgōnem cum clāsse suā in Hispāniām mittunt, L., xxiii. 32, 11; they sent Mago with his fleet to Spain. Helvētiōs in finēs suōs revertī iūsīt, Caes., B. G., i. 28, 3; he ordered the Helvetians to return to their own country.

So the phrases suō tempore, at the right time; suō locō, at the right place.

Cōmōediae quem ūsum in pueris putem suō locō dicam, Quint., i. 8, 7; what I consider to be the good of comedy in the case of boys I will mention in the proper place.

Notes.—1. The writer may retain forms of is, if he desires to emphasize his own point of view. So too in prepositional combinations.

(Caesar): Cicerōnem prō ēius meritō laudat, Caes., B. G., v. 52, 4; Caesar praises Cicero according to his desert. (Pompēius) cum dēcretum dē mē Capuae fecit, ipse cūntae Italiae ēius fidem īmplōrāntī signum dedit, C., Mil., xv. 39.

2. In early comedy and then again in late Latin. suōs is sometimes strengthened by sibī: Suō sibī gladīō hunc iugulō, Ter., Ad., 958; very rarely in classical Latin (C., Ph., xi. 37, 90). Similarly mea mihi, Pl., Truc., 698.

3. On suum quisque, see 318, 3.

4. In dependent clauses the reflexive is used with reference either to the principal or to the subordinate subject. See for fuller treatment 521.

310. Idem, the same, serves to unite two or more attributes or predicates on a person or thing; it is often to be translated by at the same time; likewise, also; yet, notwithstanding.

(Cimon) incidit in eandem invidiam quam pater suus, Nep., v. 3, 1; Cimon fell into the same odium as his father. Quidquid honestum [est] idem [est] ātile, C., Off., vii. 3, 10; whatever is honorable is also (at the same time) useful. Nil prōdest quod nōn laedere possit idem, Ov., Tr., xi. 266; nothing helps that may not likewise hurt. (Epicūrus), cum optimam et praestantissimam nātūram dei dicat esse, negat idem esse in deō grātiam, C., N. D., i. 43, 121; although Epicurus says that the nature of God is
transcendently good and great, yet (at the same time) he says that there is no sense of favor in God. Difficilis facilis, iucundus acerbus, es idem, Mart., xi. 47, 1; crubed (and) kindly, sweet (and) sour, are you at once.

Remarks.—1. When a second attribute is to be added to a substantive it is often connected by idemque, et idem, atque idem: Vir doctissimus Platō atque idem gravissimus philosophorum omnium, C., Leg., ut. 6. 14; Plato, a most learned man, and at the same time weightiest of all the philosophers.

2. The same as is expressed by idem with qui, with atque or ac, with ut, with cum, and poetically with the Dative. See 359, x. 6, 642, 643.

The same is expressed by idem with qui, with atque or ac, with ut, with cum, and poetically with the Dative. See 359, x. 6, 642, 643.

Tibi mēcūm in eōdēm est pistrinō vivendum, C., Or., ut. 33, 144; you have to live in the same treadmill with me.

3. Idem cannot be used with is, of which it is only a stronger form (is + dem).

311. 1. Ipse, self, is the distinctive pronoun, and separates a subject or an object from all others:

Ipse fēcī, I myself did it and none other, I alone did it, I did it of my own accord, I am the very man that did it. Nunc ipsum, at this very instant, at this precise moment.

Valvae subitō sē ipsae aperūerunt, C., Div., i. 34, 74; the folding-doors suddenly opened of their own accord. (Caesar) mortuus est annis octōgintā sex ipsis ante [Ciceronem] consulem, C., Br., i. 15, 61; Cato died just eighty-six years before Cicero’s consulship. Huic rei quod satis esse visum est militūm reliquit (Caesar); ipse cum legiōnibus in finēs Trèverorum proficiscitur, Caes., B. G., v. 2, 4.

Remarks.—1. Owing to this distinctive character, ipse is often used of persons in opposition to things; riders in opposition to horses; inhabitants in opposition to the towns which they inhabit; the master of the house in opposition to his household, etc.

Eō quō mē ipsa misit, Pl., Cas., 790; I am going where mistress sent me. Ipse dixit, C., N. D., i. 5. 10; the master said (avtōs cφa).

2. Et ipse, likewise, as well, is used when a new subject takes an old predicate:

[Locri urbēs] dēscīverat et ipsa ad Poenōs, L., xxix. 6. 1; Locri-city had likewise (as well as the other cities) revolted to the Carthaginians. [Camillus] ex Volscis in Aequōs transtūt et ipsōs bellum mōlientēs, L., vi. 2, 14; Camillus went across from the Volscians to the Aquians, who were likewise (as well as the Volscians) getting up war.

Cicero prefers in this meaning ipse alone, but et ipse occurs occasionally (not in Caesar or Sallust), and becomes the prevailing form in Livy and later.

2. Ipse is used to lay stress on the reflexive relation; in
the Nominative when the subject is emphatic, in the Oblique Cases when the object is emphatic.

Sē ipse laudat, he (and not another) praises himself. Sē ipsum laudat, he praises himself (and not another).

Piger ipse sibi obstat, Prov. (Sen., E. M., 94. 28); the lazy man stands in his own way, is his own obstacle. Nōn egeō medicīnā; mé ipse cōnsōlor, C., Lael., 3. 10; I do not need medicine; I comfort myself (I am my only comforter). Eōdem modō sapiēns erit affectus ergā amicum quō in sē ipsum, C., Fin., 1. 20. 68; the wise man will feel towards his friend as he feels towards himself.

Exceptions are common:

Quique aliis cāvit, nōn cavet ipse sibi, Ov., A. A., 1. 84; and he who cared for others, cures himself.

Note.—Livū seems to use sometimes ipse in connection with a reflexive as if it were indeclinable or absolute: cum diēs vēnit, causā ipse prō sē dictā, damnātur, L., iv. 44. 10; when the appointed day came he pleaded his own cause and was condemned.

4. Possessive Pronouns.

312. The Possessive Pronouns are more rarely used in Latin than in English, and chiefly for the purpose of contrast or clearness.

Manūs lavā et cēnā, C., Or., ii. 60. 246; wash (your) hands and dine. Praedia mea tū possidēs, ego aliēnā misericordiā vīvō, C., Rosc. Am., 50, 145; you are in possession of my estates, (while) I live on the charity of others.

Remarks.—1. Observe the intense use of the Possessive in the sense of property, peculiarity, fitness: suum esse, to belong to one’s self, to be one’s own man.

Tempore tuō pūgnāsti, L., xxxviii. 45, 10; you have fought at your own time (= when you wished). Hōc honōre mē adfectistis annō meō, C., Leg. Agr., ii. 2, 4; you visited me with this honor in my own year (= the first year in which I could be made consul). Pūgna suum finem, cum iacet hostis, habet, Ov., Tr., iii. 5, 34; a fight has reached its fit end when the foe is down.

2. On the use of the Possessive Pronouns for the Gen., see 364.

5. Indefinite Pronouns.

313. Quidam means one, a, a certain one, definite or indefinite to the speaker, but not definitely designated to the hearer. In the Plural, it is equivalent to some, sundry, without emphasis.
Interea mulier quaedam commigravit huc, Ter., And., 69: meanwhile a certain woman took up her quarters here. Intellegendum est quibusdam quaestionibus aliōs, quibusdam aliōs esse aptiores locōs, C., Top., 21, 79: it is to be observed that some grounds are more suitable for some questions, for some, others. Tam nescire quaedam militēs quam scire oportet, Tac., II., 1. 83.

Remarks.—1. With an adjective quidam often serves to heighten the attribute by adding a vagueness to it. (Gr. τως).

Est quidam incredibilis rōbare animi, C., Mil., 37, 101: really he is endowed with a strange strength of mind (one that is past belief).

2. Quidam is often used with or without quasi, as if, to modify an expression:

Nōn sunt istī audiendī quī virtūtem dūram et quasi ferream esse quandam volunt, C., Lael., 13, 48; those friends of yours are not to be listened to who will have it (maintain) that virtue is hard, and, as it were, made of iron. Est quaedam virtūtem vitiumque viciniam, Quint., II. 12, 4 (cf. iii. 7, 25); there is a certain neighborly relation between virtues and vices.

3. Quidam may be strengthened by the addition of certus or unus:

Vita agenda est certō genere quidam, nōn quōlibet, C., Fīn., iii. 7, 24. Est eloquentia unā quaedam de summis virtūtibus, C., Or., iii. 14, 55.

314. Aliquis (aliqui) means, some one, some one or other, wholly indefinite to the speaker as well as to the hearer:

[Declamābām] cum aliquō cottidie, C., Br., 90, 310; I used to declaim with somebody or other daily.

In the predicate it is often emphatic (by ῾Iōtōs, 700): sum aliquis, aliquid, I am somebody = a person of importance, something = of some weight; opposed to: nōllus sum, nihil sum, I am a nobody, nothing.

This force is often heightened by a following contrast:

Est hoc aliquid, tametsi nōn est satis, C., Div. in Caec., 15, 47: this is something, although it is not enough. Fac, ut mē velis esse aliquem, quoniam, qui fui et qui esse potui, iam esse nōn possum, C., Att., iii. 15, 8; do make out that I am somebody, since I can no longer be the man I was and the man I might have been.

Remarks.—1. Aliquis and aliqui are distinguished as substantive and adjective; accordingly, when aliquis is used with a substantive the relation is appositional. This always occurs with Proper names; and even with other substantives the Romans seem to have preferred aliquis to aliqui. (See 107, n. 1.)

2. With numerals, aliquis is used like English some. Occasionally also it has the force of many a. So in Caes., B.C., 1. 2. 2, dixerat aliquis ĭēniōrem sententiam, where aliquis refers to three persons, named later.
315. Quis (qui), fainter than aliquis, is used chiefly after si, if; nisi, unless: nē, lest; num, whether, and in relative sentences. See 107, r.

Nē quid nimis! Ter., And., 61: nothing in excess! Fit plērumque ut i qui boni quid volunt adferre, adiungant aliquis, quō faciant id, quod nūntiant, laetius, C., Ph., 1. 3, 8: it often happens that those who wish to bring (some) good tidings, invent something more, to make the news more cheering.

Notes. — 1. Aliquis is used after si, etc., when there is stress: si quis, if any; si aliquis, if some: si quid, if anything; si quidquam, if anything at all.

Si aliquid dandum est voluntātē, senectūs modicūs convivīs dēlectāri po-test, C., Cat. M., 14, 44: if something is to be given to pleasure (as something or other must), old age can take delight in mild festivities.

Aliquis is regular if the sentence contains two negatives: [Verrēs] nihil umquam fēcit sine aliquō quaestū, C., Terr., v. 5, 11. (46.)

2. Quis and qui are distinguished as aliquis and aliquid, but the distinction is often neglected, even in classical Latin. See 107, 8, 1.

316. Quispiam is rarer than aliquis, but not to be distinguished from it, except that quispiam never intimates importance. Dixerit quispiam, C., Cat. M., 3, 8: some one may say.

317. 1. Quisquam and ullus (adjective) mean any one (at all), and are used chiefly in negative sentences, in sentences that imply total negation, and in sweeping conditions:

[Iūstitia] numquam nocet cuisquam, C., Fin., 1. 16, 50: justice never hurts anybody. Quis umquam Graecorum rhētorum a Thūcūdide quidquam dūxit? C., Or., 9, 317: what Greek rhetorician ever drew anything from Thucydides? [None]. Si quisquam, ille sapiēns fuit, C., Lael., 2, 9: if any one at all (was) wise, he was. Quaṃdiū quisquam erit qui tē dēfendere andeat, vivēs, C., Cat., 1. 2, 6: so long as there shall be any one to dare defend you, live on. Hostem esse in Syriā negant ullum, C., Fam., iii. 8, 10: they say that there is not any enemy in Syria. Omnimō nēmō ullius reī fuit ēmptor cui dēfuerit hic vēnditor, C., Ph., 11, 38, 97: generally there was never a buyer of anything who lacked a seller in him (no one ever wanted to buy anything that he was not ready to sell).

So after comparatives:

Sēlis candor inlūstrīor est quam ullius ignis, C., N. D., 11. 15, 40; the brilliancy of the sun is more radiant than that of any fire.

Notes. — 1. Quisquam is occasionally (principally in Livy) strengthened by unus, especially after a negative: Cum multi magis feremerent, quam quisquam unus recūsāre audēret, l., iii. 45, 1.

2. After sine, without, omni is often used instead of ullō (ullā) in early Latin: Sine omni curā dormiās, Ph., Trit., 621.

3. On quisquam as an adj., see 107. 3, n. 2. Ullus is occasionally a subst. in Livy.
The negative of *quisquam* is *nēmō*, nobody; *nihil*, nothing (108). The negative of *ullus* is *nullus*, no, none, which is also used regularly as a substantive in the Genitive and Ablative instead of *neminis* and *nemine*.

*Nēmō* is also sometimes used apparently as an adjective, though the conception is usually appositional.

*Nēmō* vir māgnus, C., *N.D.*, ii. 66, 167; no great man, no one (who is) a great man.

Notes.—1. On *neque quisquam* and *et nēmō*, see 180.

2. *Nullus* is used in familiar language instead of *nōn* (so sometimes in English): Philippus *nullus* *ūquam*, L., xxxii. 35, 2; no Philip anywhere. *Quis* is also used familiarly: *Prospectum petit, Anthea si quem videat*, V., ii., i. 181; an Antheus, i.e., Antheus or somebody who would answer for him.

3. *Nēmō* and *nullus* are occasionally strengthened by *ūnis*.

1. *Quisque* means each one, as opposed to *omnis*, every, and is usually post-positive.

Mēns cūiusque, is est quisque, C., *Rep.*, vi. 24, 26; each man's mind is each man's self. Laudāti omnēs sunt dōnātique prō meritō quisque, L., xxxviii. 23; all were praised and rewarded, each one according to his desert. Quam quisque nōrit artem in hāc sē exerceat, [C.], *Tusc.*, ii. 18, 41. (616.)

2. With superlatives and ordinals *quisque* is loosely translated every:

Optimum quidque rārissimum est, C., *Fin.*, ii. 25, 81; every good thing is rare; more accurately, the better a thing, the rarer it is. (645, r. 2.) Quintō quōque annō Sicilia tota cēnsētur, C., *Verr.*, ii. 56, 139; every fifth year all Sicily is assessed.

3. *Quisque* combines readily with the reflexives, *sui*, *sibī*, sē, suus, in their emphatic sense (309, 2). Here, except for special reasons, the reflexive precedes. *Suum cuique* has become a standing phrase.

Sua quemque fraus et suus terror vexat, C., *Rose.Am.*, ii. 24, 67; it is his own sin and his own alarm that harasses a man.

Notes.—1. After Cicero's time, owing to the phraseological character of the combination, *sui etc. quisque*, we find it used without agreement.


2. Classical but not common is the attraction of *quisque* into the case of the reflexive. *Haec prōclīvitās ad suum quodque genus ā similitūdine corporis aegrōtātiō dicātur*, C., *Tusc.*, iv. 12, 28.
3. Quisque combined with primum has two meanings: (a) as early as possible, (b) one after the other in order (deinceps).

Primō quōque tempore, C., Ph., III. 15, 39; at the earliest time possible. Primum quidque (each thing in order) considērā quále sit, C., N.D., I. 27, 77.

4. The various uses of quisque are well summed up in Nägelsbach’s formulae:
   a. Nōn omnīa omnibus tribuenda sunt, sed suum cuīque;
   b. Omnēs idem faciunt, sed optimus quisque optimē;
   c. Nōn omnibus annōs hōc fit, sed tertīō quōque annō;
   d. Nōn omnēs idem faciunt, sed quod quīisque vult.

319. Alter and alius are both translated other, another, but alter refers to one of two, alius to diversity. They are used in various phraseological ways, which can be best shown by examples:

   Sōlus aut cum alterō, alone or with (only) one other; alter Nerō, a second Nero.

   Alter alterum quae-rīt, one (definite person) seeks the other (definite person); alius alium quae-rīt, one seeks one, another another; alterī—alterī, one party—another party (already defined); aliī—aliī, some—others. Alter often means neighbor, brother, fellow-man; alius, third person.

   Alter:

   (Āgēsilāüs) fuit claudus alterō pede, Nep., XVII. 8, 1; Agesilāüs was lame of one foot. Alterā manū fert lapidem, pānem ostentat alterā, Pl., Anth., 195; in one hand a stone he carries, in the other holds out bread. Mors nec ad vivōs pertinet nec ad mortuōs: alterī nūllī (317, 2, N. 2) sunt, alterōs nōn attinget, C., Tusc., I. 38, 91: death concerns neither the living nor the dead: the latter are not, the former it will not reach.

   Alius:

   Fallācía alia aliam trūdīt, Ter., And., 779; one treads on the heels of another (indefinite series). Alii voluptātis causā omnia sapientēs facere dixērunt; aliī cum voluptātē dignitātem coniungendam putāvērunt, C., Cael., I. 41; some have said that wise men do everything for the sake of pleasure, others have thought that pleasure is to be combined with dignity. Divitiās aliī praepōnunt, aliī honōres, C., Læl., VI. 20; some prefer riches, others honors. Alii vestrum ānserēs sunt, aliī canēs, C., Rosc. Am., 20, 57; some of you are geese, others dogs. Aliud aliī nātūra iter ostendit, S., C., 2, 9; nature shows one path to one man, another path to another man.

   Alter and alius:

   Ab aliō expectēs alterī quod fēcerīs, Syr., 2 (Fr.); you may look for from another what you’ve done unto your brother (from No. 3, what No. 1 has done to No. 2).
Notes.—1. *Alius* is found occasionally, especially in late Latin, for *alter*; *alius* *Nerō, Suet., Th. 7*; but in *Caes., B.G., I. 1, 1, alius* follows *unus.* *Alii* for *reliqui* or *céteri* is occasional, in the earlier times, but more common in *Livy* and later.

2. The Greek usage of *alius* in the meaning *besides,* is post-Ciceronian and rare.

*Eō missa planastra iūmentaque alia, L., iv. 41, 8.*

**APPPOSITION.**

320. By apposition one substantive is placed by the side of another, which contains it:

*Cicero oratōr, Cicero the orator.* *Rhēnus flūmen, the river Rhine.*

**CONCORD.**

321. The word in apposition agrees with the principal word (or words) in case, and as far as it can in gender and number:


*Cnidus et Colophōn, nōbilissimae urbēs, captae sunt,* *Cf. C., Imp., 12, 33; Cnidus and Colophon, most noble cities, were taken.* *Omnium doctrinārum inventricēs Athēnae, * *Cf. C., Or., 1. 4, 13; Athens, the inventor of all branches of learning.*

Remarks.—1. Exceptions in *number* are due to special uses, as, for example, when *dēliciae* or *amōres,* *etc.,* are used of a *Singular*:

*Pompeius, nostri amōres, ipse sē affīxīt, C., Att., ii. 19, 2*; *Pompey, our special passion, has wrecked himself.*

2. The Possessive Pronoun takes the Gen. in apposition:

*Tuum, hominis simplicis, pectus vidimus,* *C., Ph., ii. 43, 111*; *we have seen your bosom bared, you open-hearted creature!* *Urbs meā ūnus operā fuit salva,* *Cf. C., Pis., 3, 6*; *the city was saved by my exertions alone.*

3. On the agreement of the predicate with the word in apposition, see 211, r. 6.

Notes.—1. In poetry, instead of the *Voc.* in apposition, the *Nom.* is often found.

*Semper celebrābere dōnis, Corniger Hesperidum, fluvius rēgnātor aquārum, V., A., viii. 77.* *In prose not before Pliny.*

2. Very rarely persons are looked upon as things, and the *Appositives* used in the *nemer*; *Dum patrēs et plēbem, invalida et inermita, lūdificētur, Tac., Ann., i. 46.*

**322. Partitive Apposition.**—Partitive Apposition is that form of Apposition in which a part is taken out of the whole. It is sometimes called Restrictive Apposition.

*Māxuma pars ferē mōrem hunc hominēs habent,* *Pl., Capt., 232*; *man-kind—pretty much the greatest part of them—have this way.* *Cētera multitudō sorte decumus quisque ad supplicium lēctī (sunt), L., ii. 59, 11*; *(of) the rest of the crowd every tenth man was chosen by lot for punishment.*
323. Distributive Apposition.—Distributive Apposition is that form of Apposition in which the whole is subdivided into its parts, chiefly with *alter—alter*, *the one—the other*; *quisque, uterque*, *each one*; *alii—alii, pars—pars, some—others*. (It is often called Partitive Apposition.)

Duæ filiae altera occisa altera capta est, Caes., B.G., i. 53, 4; (of) two daughters, the one was killed, the other captured.

Remark.—The Part. Gen. is more commonly employed than either of these forms of apposition.

Notes.—1. Partitive Apposition is not found in Cicero or Caesar, and Distributive Apposition rarely. They are more frequent in Sallust, and not uncommon in Livy.

2. The Greek figure of the whole and the part (σχῆμα καθ' δόλον καὶ μέρος) is rare and poetical in Latin. *Latagum saxó occupatös faciemque adversam*, V., A., x. 698; *smiles Latagus with a bawler, full (in) mouth and face* (Cf. Eng. “hand and foot”).

324. Apposition to a Sentence.—Sometimes an Accusative stands in apposition to a whole preceding sentence; either explaining the contents of the sentence or giving the end or the aim of the action involved in the sentence. The latter usage, however, is not found in Cicero or Caesar.

Admoneor ut aliquid etiam dē sepultūrā dicendum existimem, rem nōn difficilēm, C., Tusq., i. 43, 102; I am reminded to take into consideration that something is to be said about burial also—an easy matter. Dēserunt tribūnāl, ut quis praetōriānorum militum occurreret manūs inten-tantēs, causam discordiae et initium armōrum, Tac., Ann., i. 27.

If the main verb is passive the Appositive may be in the Nominative: *Tac., Ann., iii. 27.*

Notes.—1. Neuter adjectives and participles are occasionally used in the same way, and some regard such neuters as Nominatives.

2. This Acc. is to be regarded as the object effected (330) by the general action of the sentence.

Predicative Attribution and Predicative Apposition.

325. Any case may be attended by the same case in Predicative Attribution or Apposition, which differ from the ordinary Attribution or Apposition in translation only.

Nomina tive: *Filius aegrōtus rediuit.*

Ordinary Attribution: *The sick son returned.*

Predicative Attribution: *The son returned sick = he was sick when he returned.*

Hercules iuvenis leōnem interfécit.

Ordinary Apposition: *The young man Hercules slew a lion.*
Predicative Apposition: Hercules, when a young man, slew a lion = he was a young man when he slew a lion.

Genitive: Po
testās ēius adhibendae uxoris, the permission to take her to wife.

Dative: Amīcō vivō nōn subvēnisti, you did not help your friend (while he was) alive.

Accusative: Herculēs cervam vivam cēpit.

Ordinary Attribution: Hercules caught a living doe.

Predicative Attribution: Hercules caught a doe alive.

Ablative: Aere ūtuntur importātō, they use imported copper = the copper which they use is imported.

Remarks.—1. The Voc., not being a case proper, is not used predicatively. Exceptions are apparent or poetical.

Quō, moritūre, ruis? V., A., x. 810; "whither dost thou rush to die" (thou doomed to die)? Sic veniās, hodie 

erne, Tib., i. 7, 53.

Notice here the old phrase: Macte virtūte estō, II., S., i. 2, 31; increase in virtue = heaven speed thee in thy high career.

Macte is regarded by some as an old Voc., from the same stem as māgnus; by others as an adverb. A third view is that macte with estō is an adverb, and only when used absolutely a Vocative.

2. Victōrēs rediērunt may mean, the conquerors returned, or, they re- turned conquerors; and a similar predicative use is to be noticed in idem, the same: Idem abeunt quī vēnerant, C., Fin., iv. 3, 7: they go away just as they had come (literally, the same persons as they had come).

3. Predicative Attribution and Apposition are often to be turned into an abstract substantive:

Défendi rem públicam adulēscēns, nōn dēseram senex, C., Ph., ii. 46. 118; I defended the state in my youth, I will not desert her in my old age.

So with prepositions:

Ante Cicerōnem cōnsulem, before the consulship of Cicero; ante urbem conditam, before the building of the city.

4. Do not confound the "as" of apposition with the "as" of comparison—ut, quasi, tamquam, sicut, velut (602, x. 1, 642): Hanc (virtūtem) vōbis tamquam hērēditātem māiores vestri reliquērunt, C., Ph., iv. 5, 13: your ancestors left you this virtue as (if it were) a legacy.

5. When especial stress is laid on the adjective or substantive predic- icate, in combination with the verbal predicate, the English language is prone to resolve the sentence into its elements:

Fragilem trucī commīsit pelagō ratem prīmus, II., O., i. 3, 10: his frail bark to the wild waves he trusted first = to trust his frail bark to the wild waves he was first. Ūna salūs victis nūllam spērēre salūtem, V., A., ii. 353; sole safety for the vanquished 'tis, to hope for none—the only safety that the vanquished have is to hope for none.
6. The English idiom often uses the adverb and adverbial expressions instead of the Latin adjective: so in adjectives of inclination and disinclination, knowledge and ignorance, of order and position, of time and season, and of temporary condition generally: libēns, with pleasure; volēns, willingly; nōlēns, unwillingly; invitus, against one's will; prūdēns, aware; imprūdēns, unwares; sciēns, knowing(ly); primus, prior, first; ultimus, last; medius, in, about the middle; hodiernus, to-day; mātūtinus, in the morning; frequēns, frequently; sublimis, aloft; tōtus, wholly; sōlus, alone, and many others.

Ego eum à mé invitisimī dimisi, C., Fam., xiii. 63, 1; I dismissed him most unwillingly. Plus hodie boni se civitatis quam sciēns ante hunc diem umquam, Ter., IIec., 880: I have done more good to-day unwares than I have ever done knowingly before. Adcurrit, mediam mulierem complectitur, Ter., And., 133: he runs up, puts his arms about the woman's waist. Qui prior strinxerit ferrum eīus victoria erit, L., xxiv. 38, 5 (244, r. 2). Vespertīnus pete tēctum, II., Ep. i 6, 20; seek thy dwelling at eventide. Rārus venit in cēnācula miles, Juv., x. 13: the soldiery rarely comes into the garret. Sē tōtōs trādiderunt voluptātībus, C., Lact., 23, 86: they have given themselves wholly to pleasure. Sōli hōc contingit sapientī, C., Par., v. 1, 34: this good luck happens to the wise man alone = it is only the wise man who has this good luck.

7. Carefully to be distinguished are the uses of primus, and the adverbs primum, first, for the first time, and primō, at first. Primum means first in a series: primō, first in a contrast. But these distinctions are not always observed.

Primum docent esse deōs, deinde quālēs sint, tum mundum ab iīs administrārī, postrēmō cōnsulere eōs rēbus hūmānis, C., N.D., ii. 1, 3; first, they teach us that there are gods, next of what nature they are, then that the world is ruled by them, finally, that they take thought for human affairs. Prīmō Stoicorum mōre agāmus, deinde nostrō institūtō vagābimur, C., Tusc., iii. 6, 13; let us treat the subject at first after the manner of the Stoics, afterwards we will ramble after our own fashion.

B.

1. Multiplication of the Predicate.

326. The Multiplication of the Predicate requires no further rules than those that have been given in the general doctrine of Concord.

2. Qualification of the Predicate.

327. The Qualification of the Predicate may be regarded as an External or an Internal change:
I. External change: combination with an object.

1. Direct Object, Accusative. 2. Indirect Object, Dative.

II. Internal change: combination with an attribute which may be in the form of

1. The Genitive case. 3. Preposition with a case.
2. The Ablative. 4. An Adverb.

Note.—The Infinitive forms (Infinitive, Gerund, Gerundive, and Supine) appear now as objects, now as attributes, and require a separate treatment.

I. External Change.

Accusative.

The great function of the Accusative is to form temporary compounds with the verb, as the great function of the Genitive is to form temporary compounds with the noun. Beyond this statement everything is more or less extra-grammatical, and sharp subdivisions are often unsatisfactory. Still it may be said that

328. The Accusative is the case of the Direct Object.

The Direct Object is the object which defines directly the action of the verb.

Remark.—The Dative defines indirectly because it involves an Accusative; and the Genitive with the verb depends upon the nominal idea contained in the verb.

1. (a) The Object may be contained in the verb (Inner Object, Object Effected):

Deus mundum creavit, God made a creation—the universe.

(b) Akin to this is the Accusative of Extent:

A recta conscientia tráversum unguem nón oportet discédere, C., Att., xiii. 20, 4; one ought not to swerve a nailbreadth from a right conscience.

Decem annós (Tróia) oppágnáta est, L., v. 4, 11; ten years was Troy besieged. Máximam partem lacte vívunt, Caes., B.G., iv. 1, 8; for the most part they live on milk.

2. The object may be distinct from the verb (Outer Object, Object Affected):

Deus mundum gubernat, God steers the universe.
General View of the Accusative.

329. I. Inner Object: Object Effected:
   Cognate Accusative.
   Accusative of Extent.
   1. In Space.
   2. In Time.
   3. In Degree.
   Terminal Accusative (Point Reached).

II. Outer Object: Object Affected:
   1. Whole.
   2. Part (so-called Greek Accusative).

III. Inner and Outer Objects combined:
   1. Asking and Teaching.

IV. Accusative as the most general form of the object (object created or called up by the mind):
   1. In Exclamations.
   2. Accusative and Infinitive.

DIRECT OBJECT (Inner and Outer).

Note.—The Accusative is the object reached by the verb. This object is either in apposition to the result of the action of the verb, and then it is called the Inner Object or Object Effected; or it is in attribution to the result of the action, and then it is said to be the Outer Object or Object Affected. The Inner Object is sometimes called the Voluntary Accusative, because it is already contained in the verb; the Outer Object is sometimes called the Necessary Accusative, because it is needed to define the character of the action; both verb and substantive contribute to the result; compare HOMINEM CAEDERE (occidere), to slay a man (Object Affected), with HOMICIDIO FACERE (Cf. QUINT., V. 9, 9), to commit manslaughter (Object Effected).

330. Active Transitive Verbs take the Accusative case:

Rōmulus Urbem Rōmam condidit, Cf. C., Div., I. 17, 30; Romulus founded the City of Rome. (Object Effected.)

[Mēns] regit corpus, C., Rep., vi. 24, 26: mind governs body. (Object Affected.)

Remark.—Many verbs of Emotion which are intrans. in English are trans. in Latin, as: dolere, to grieve (for); despērēre, to despair (of); horrēre, to shudder (at); mirāri, to wonder (at); ridēre, to laugh (at).

Honōrēs despērant, C., Cat., II. 9, 19; they despair of honors (give them up in despair). Necāta est Vitia quod filii necem fēvissent (541), Tac., Ann., vi. 10, 1; Vitia was executed for having wept (for) her son’s execution.

Conscia mēns rectī Fāmae mendācia risit, Ov., F., iv. 311; conscious of right, her soul (but) laughed (at) the falsehoods of Rumor.
Notes.—1. From the definition of transitive given above (213, n.) it will be seen that this traditional rule reverses the poles; it is retained merely for practical purposes.

2. This Acc. with verbs of Emotion is very rare in early Latin, and is not widely extended even in the classical period. With most verbs an Abl. of Cause or a prepositional phrase is much more common, as: Cùr dè sua virtùte despèrarent? Caes., B.G., i. 40, 4.

3. The Acc. with verbal substantives is confined to Plautus: quid tibi nōs tāctiōst, mendice homō! Adv., 423.

4. The Acc. with verbal adjectives in -undus is rare and mainly post-classical: Haec prope contiōnābundus circumibat hominēs, L. iii. 47, 2.

331. Verbs compounded with the prepositions ad, ante, circum, con, in, inter, ob, per, praeter, sub, subter, super, and trāns, which become transitive, take the Accusative.

All with circum, per, praeter, trāns, and subter.

Many with ad, in, and super.

Some with ante, con, inter, ob, and sub. See 347.

Pythagorās Persārum māgōs adīt, C., Fin., v. 29, 87; Pythagoras applied to (consulted) the Persian magi. Stella Veneris antegreditur sōlem, C., N.D., ii. 20, 53; the star Venus goes in advance of the sun. Omnēs Domitian circumstānt, Caes., B.C., i. 20, 5; all surround Domitian. Eam, si opus esse vidēbitur, ipse conveniam, C., Fam., v. ii. 2; I will go to see her, myself, if it shall seem expedient. Convivium cum patre nōn inibat, C., Rosc Am., 15, 52; he would not go to banquets with his father. Fretum, quod Naupactum et Patrās interfluit, L., xxvii. 29, 9; the frith that flows between Naupactus and Patrae. Alexander tertīō et trīcēsīmō annō mortem obiit, C., Ph., v. 17, 48; Alexander died in his thirty-third year. Caesar omnem agrum Picēnum percurrit, Caes., B.C., i. 15, 1; Caesar traversed rapidly all the Picenian district. [Populus] solet dignōs praeterire, C., Planc., 3, 8; the people is wont to pass by the worthy. Epaminōndās poenam subīt, Cf. Nēp., xv. 8, 2; Epaminondas submitted to the punishment. Criminum vim subter fugēre nūllo modō poterat, C., Verr., i. 3, 8; he could in no way evade the force of the charges. Rōmāni ruinās mūri supervādēbant, L., xxxii. 24, 5; the Romans marched over the ruins of the wall. Crassus Euphrātem nūlā bellī causā trānsiit, Cf. C., Fin., iii. 22, 55; Crassus crossed the Euphrates without any cause for war.

Remarks.—1. If the simple verb is trans., it can take two Accusatives: Equitum māgnam partem flūmen trāiēcit, Caes., B.C., i. 55, 1; he threw a great part of the cavalry across the river.

2. With many of these verbs the preposition may be repeated; but never circum: Cōpiās trāiēcit Rhodanum, or trāns Rhodanum, he threw his troops across the Rhone.

3. Sometimes a difference of signification is caused by the addition of the preposition:
Adire ad aliquem, to go to a man: adire aliquem, to apply to (to consult) a man.

**INNER OBJECT.**

332. Any verb can take an Accusative of the Inner Object, when that object serves to define more narrowly or to explain more fully the contents of the verb.

The most common form of this object is a neuter pronoun or adjective.

The most striking form is the so-called Cognate Accusative.

333. 1. Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives are often used to define or modify the substantive notion that lies in the verb.

Xenophon eadem ferē peccat, C., N.D., i. 12. 31; Xenophon makes very much the same mistakes. Vellem equidem idem possem gloriāri quod Cyrus, C., Cat. M., io. 32; for my part I could wish that it were in my power to make the same boast as Cyrus.

With trans. verbs an Acc. of the person can be employed besides:

Discipulōs id ānum moneō ut praeceptōres suōs nōn minus quam ipsa studia ament, Quint., n. 9. 1; I give pupils this one piece of advice, that they love their teachers no less than their studies themselves.

Remarks.—1. The usage is best felt by comparing the familiar English *it* after intrans. verbs, "to walk it, to foot it," *etc.*, where "*it*" represents the substantive that lies in "walk, foot," *etc*.

2. In many cases the feeling of the case is lost to the consciousness, so especially with the interrogative quid, which has almost the force of *cūr*. Quid ridēs? what (laughter) are you laughing = what means your laughter?

Id nōs ad tē, si quid vellēs, vēnimus, Pl., M.G., 1158; that's why we have come to you, to see if you wanted anything.

Notes.—1. With verbs of Emotion this Acc. gives the ground of the emotion:

Utrumque laetor (I have a double gladness, I am doubly glad), et sine dolore tē fuisset et animō valuisse, C., Fam., vii. 1, 1. Laetae exclāmant: vēnit! id quod (in this that, for this that) mē repente aspexerant, Ter., Hec., 368.

From this arises the causal force of quod, *in that = because*.

2. Occasionally, but at all periods, the relative is used thus, to facilitate connection with a demonstrative clause:

Quae hominēs arant (what men do in the way of plowing, *etc*.), nāvīgant, aedificant, omnia virtūtē pārent, S., C., 2, 7. Id ipsum quod maneam in vitā (in the very fact of my remaining in life) peccāre mē [existimō], C., Fam., iv. 13. 2.

2. Cognate Accusative.—When the dependent word is of the same origin or of kindred meaning with the verb, it is called the Cognate Accusative, and usually has an attribute-

Remark.—After the analogy of the Cognate Acc. are many phraseological usages, such as rem certāre, to fight a case; foedus ferire, to make a treaty (compare, to strike a bargain); iūs respondēre, to render an opinion; causam vincere, to win a case, etc. Also the phrases with ire: exsequiās ire, to attend a funeral; inātiās ire, to deny, etc.

Notes.—1. The omission of the attribute is found most often in legal phraseology, proverbs, and the like:
Māliorum nēmō servitūtem servīvit, C., Top., 6, 29: of our ancestors no one ever slaved (what you would call) a slavery. Sī servos fūrtum faxit noxiamve noxīt, xii. Tab.
2. When the Cognate Acc. is replaced by a word of similar meaning, but of a different root, the effect is much the same as when an adjective is employed with the normal Accusative. This usage, however, is rare, and mainly poetical
Tertiam iam aetātem hominum (Nēsto) vivēbat, C., Cat. M., 10, 31 (reading doubtful). Omne militābitur bellum, II., Epod., 1, 23.
3. Interesting extensions are found in the poets, and rarely in prose.
Quī Curiōs simulānt et Bacchānālia vivunt, Juv., ii. 2. Nunc Satyrum, nunc agrestem Cyclopa movētur, II. Ep., ii, 2, 125.
4. Instead of the Inner Acc. the Abl. is occasionally found: lapidibus pluere, to rain stones; sangnine südāre, to sweat blood.
Herculis simulācrum multō südōre mānāvit, C., Div., i, 34, 71: the statue of Hercules ran freely with sweat.
5. Verbs of Smell and Taste have the Inner Object, which is an extension of the Cognate variety.
Piscis sapit ipsum mare, Cf. Sex., N. Q., iii, 18, 2: the fish tastes of the very sea. Nōn omnēs possunt olēre unguenta exōtica, Pl., Most., 42: it is not everyone can smell of foreign perfumes.
6. A poetical and post-classical construction is that which makes a substantival neuter adjective the object of a verb. This occurs chiefly with verbs of sound: nec mortāle sonāns, V., i, vi, 50; māgna sonāturum, II., s., i, 14, 14. Yet bolder is nec vox hominem sonat, V., i, 1, 328. A verb of sight is found in tam cernīt inātum, II., s., i, 3, 26. Cf. dulce ridentem, ii., O., i, 22, 23.

Accusative of Extent.

The Accusative of Extent has to do with Degree, Space, or Time.

334. The Accusative of Extent in Degree is confined to neuter adjectives and pronouns used substantively, multum, plūs, tantum, quantum, etc.

Si mē amās tantum quantum profectō amās, C., Att., ii. 20, 5; if you love me as much as in fact you do love me.
Remarks.—1. The number of adjectives and pronouns so used is large, and in many cases the form is felt more as an adverb than as a substantive.

2. Here belong the adverbial Accusatives tuam, etc., partem, vicem, which occur occasionally at all periods.

335. The Accusative of Extent in Space is used properly only with words that involve a notion of space. When space is not involved in the governing word the idea of extent is given by the use of per, through.

Trabès, distantēs inter sē binōs pedēs, in solō collocantur, Caes., B.G., v. 23. 1; beams two feet apart are planted in the ground. A rectā conscientiā trāversum unguem non oportet discēdere, C. Att., xiii. 20, 4 (338, b). Equitēs per īram maritimām dispositi sunt, Cf. Caes., B.G., iii. 24, 4; cavalry were posted along the sea shore. Phoebidās iter per Thēbās [fecit], Nep., xvi. 1, 2; Phoebidās marched through Thebes. Milītēs aggerem lātum pedēs trecentōs trigintā altum pedēs octōgintā exstrūxē-runt, Caes., B.G., viii. 24, 1; the soldiers raised an embankment three hundred and thirty feet wide (and) eighty feet high.

Remarks.—1. The adjectives in most common use with this Accusative are longus, long, lātus, wide. altus, deep, high. Thickness, which was indicated in early times by crassus, is expressed by phrases with crassitūdō. Similarly occur phrases with māgnitūdō, longitūdō, lātītūdō, altītūdō. Profundus, deep, never occurs with the Accusative.

2. With abesse and distāre, an Abl. of Measure may also be used:

Milibus passuum quattuor et viginti abesse, Caes., B.G., i. 41, 5; to be twenty-four miles from....

Note.—When the point of reference is taken for granted, ab (ā) with the Abl. is occasionally used; but only by Caes-ār and Livy. Here it has been suggested that ab is used adverbially, and the Abl. is one of Measure.

(Hostēs) ab milibus passuum minus duōbus castra posuērunt, Caes., B.G., i. 7, 3; the enemy pitched their camp less than two miles off.

336. The Accusative of Extent in Time accompanies the verb, either with or without per, in answer to the question, How long?

Duodēquadragintā annōs tyrannus Syrāicusānorum fuit Dionysius, C., Tusc., v 20. 57; thirty-eight years was Dionysius tyrant of Syracuse. (Gorgiās) centum et novem vīxit annōs, Quint., iii. i. 9 (233, s. 2). Lūdi per decem diēs factī sunt, C., Cat., iii. s. 20; games were performed for ten days. Est mēcum per diem tōtum, Plin., Ep., i. 16, 7; he is with me the livelong day. Sedet aeternumque sedēbit infēlix Thēseus, V., A., vi. 617; there sits and shall forever sit unhappy Theseus.
Remarks.—1. In giving definite numbers with *iam*, *iam diū*, *iam dūdum*, *etc.*, the Latin often employs the ordinal where the English prefers the cardinal. Compare the Ablative of Measure (403).


2. Per with the Acc. is frequently used like the Abl. of Time Within Which. *Per illa tempora = illis temporibus*, *in those times.*

So especially with the negative:

*Nālla rés per triennium nisi ad nātum istīus iūdicāta est*, C., *Verr.* 1. 5. 13; *no matter was decided during (in) the three years except at his beck.*

3. With an Aoristic tense the dating point is given by *abhinc*, which usually precedes the temporal designation.

*Abhinc annōs factumst sēdecim*, Pl., *Cas.* 39; *'twas done sixteen years ago.* *Dēmosthenēs abhinc annōs prope trecentōs fuit*, C., *Div.* 11. 57, 118; *Demosthenes lived nearly three hundred years ago.*

The use of an Acc. with an Aoristic tense without a dating word, like *abhinc*, is very rare and doubtful. *Caes., B. G.*, 11. 35-4, has been emended.

4. *Nātus, old (born)*, seems to be an exception to r. 3, but it is only an apparent one, as the dating point is involved in the verb with which it is construed. For various constructions with *nātus*, see 296. r. 5.

*Puer decem annōs nātus est*, *the boy is ten years old.* *Quadragintā annōs nātus rēgnāre [coepit]*, C., *Div.* 1. 23, 46; *he was* forty years old *(when) he began to reign.*

Notes.—1. The use of the indefinite substantival adjective is rare. *Plautus* uses *sempiternum*, *Virgil* introduces *aeternum* (see example above), while *perpetuum* does not appear until *Apuleius*.

2. Here belong the phraseological uses *id temporis, id aetātis*, which belonged to the popular speech, and never became firmly rooted in literature. *Thus Cicero* rarely uses them, except in his earliest works and his letters. *Id genus* is used after the same general analogy, but is not temporal. This occurs in *Cicero* but once, *Att.*, 13. 12, 3. *Caesar* never uses any of these forms.

3. Poetical and rare is the extension which makes the Accusative of Extent the subject of a passive verb.

*Nunc tertia vivitur aetās*, Ov., *M.* xi. 158 = *nunc tertiam vivitur aetātem.*

*Tōta mihi dormītur hiem*

Normally the verb becomes impersonal or is regularly used with a proper subject, and the Accusative of Extent is unchanged: *Bellum quō duodecimum annum Italia ürēbātur*, L., xxvii. 39. 9.

**Accusative of the Local Object.**

**Terminal Accusative.**

337. The activity of a verb may be defined by the Point Reached. Hence the rule: *Names of Towns and small Islands, when used as limits of Motion Whither, are put in the Accusative.*
So also rūs, into the country, domum, domōs, home.

Missi légati Athenās sunt, L., iii. 31, 8: envoys were sent to Athens.
Lātōna confugiit Dēlum, Cf. C., Verr., i. 18, 48; Latona took refuge in Delos. Ego rūs ibō atque ibi manēbō, Ter., Eun., 216; I shall go to the country and stay there. Innumeraēilibēs (philosophi) numquam domum revertērunt, C., Tusc., v. 37, 107; innumerable philosophers never returned home.

Remarks.—1. Countries and large islands being looked upon as areas, and not as points, require prepositions, such as: in, into; ad, to; versus, -ward; in Graeciam proficisci, to set out for Greece.

2. When urbem, city, or oppidum, town, precedes the name of the city or town, the idea of area is emphasized, and the preposition in or ad is prefixed; if urbem or oppidum follows, in or ad may be omitted: In (ad) oppidum Cirtam, to, in (at) the town (of) Cirta.

When urbem or oppidum is qualified by an adjective, it regularly follows the name of the town, and has the preposition:

Iugurtha Thalam pervēnit in oppidum māgnum et opulentum, S., Iug., 75, 1: Iugurtha arrived at Thala, a great and wealthy town.

3. Domum, with a possessive pronoun, or Gen., may mean house as well as home, and accordingly may or may not have in before it: domum meam, or, in domum meam, to my house; domum Pompejī, or, in domum Pompejī, to Pompey’s house; also domum ad Pompejum. Otherwise: in māgnificam domum venire, to come into a grand house.

4. Ad means to the neighborhood of, often before, of military operations. Ad Mutinam, to the neighborhood (sige of) Mutina (Modena).

5. The simple Aee. will suffice even for extent:
Omnir illa municipia, quae sunt a Vibōne Brundisium, C., Planc., 41, 97; all the free towns from Vibo to Brundisium.

6. Motion to a place embraces all the local designations:
Phalara in sinum Mālicacum prōcēsserat, L., xxxv. 43, 8: he had advanced to Phalara on the Maliaec Gulf. Tarentum in Italiam inferiōrem proficisci, to set out for Tarentum in Lower Italy.

Notes.—1. The omission of the preposition before countries and large islands is poetical and post-classical. Caesar shows such omission with Aegyptus only, Cicero not at all.

2. Poets and later prose writers extend the Acc. also to names of peoples and streams. Beginnings of this are seen in Cicero: cum Bosphorum confugiisset, Mur., 16, 34.

3. The insertion of the preposition with names of towns and small islands is rare in good prose, but is always legitimate when the preposition is to be emphasized.

1. The use of usque with this Acc. to emphasize the continuity of the motion is found first in Terence, occasionally in Cicero. From Livy on it spreads and is used also with other local designations.

5. Verbal substantives are also occasionally followed by this Accusative: Reditus Rōmam, C., Ph., ii. 42, 108; return to Rome.
OUTER OBJECT.

Accusative of Respect.

338. The Accusative of the object affected sometimes specifies that in respect to which the statement of a passive or intransitive verb, or an adjective, applies. There are two varieties:

1. Definite: The Accusative of the part affected.

Percussa nova mentem formidine, V., G., iv. 357; her mind stricken with a new dread. Iam vulgatum actis quoque saecius pectus, Quint., ix. 3, 17; by this time "breast-wounded" is actually become a common newspaper phrase.

2. Indefinite: cetera, alia, reliqua, omnia, pleraque, cuncta; in other respects, in all respects, in most respects.

Cetera adsentior Crassō, C., Or., i. 9, 35; in all other points I agree with Crassus. Omnia Mercuriō similis, V., A., iv. 558; in all respects like unto Mercury.

Notes.—1. This is commonly called the Greek Accusative, because it is so much more common in Greek, and because its extension in Latin is due to Greek influence. The first variety is very rare in early Latin; introduced into prose by Sallust, it is rare in Livy and later, and is applied usually to wounds. It is much more common in the poets. Of the second variety cetera is found here and there at all periods; the others are very rare. Good prose uses the Ablative for the first variety, and for the second, ad cetera, in ceteris, per cetera, etc.

2. Different is the Accusative with indurō, I dun; exxor, I doff; cingor, I gird on myself; and other verbs of clothing and unclothing, as well as passives, where the Subject is the Agent; in which verbs the reflexive or middle signification is retained. These uses are poetical or post-classical.

Inūtile ferrum cingitur, V., A., ii. 510; he girds on (himself) a useless blade. Loricam induitur fidōque accingitur ēnse, V., A., vii. 649; he dons a corselet and bejirds himself with his trusty glaive. (Arminius) impetū equi pervāsit oblitus faciem suō cruōre nē nōscerētur, Tac., Ann. ii. 17, 7; Hermann pushed his way through, thanks to the onset of his charger, having smeared his face with his own gore, to keep from being recognized.

DOUBLE ACCUSATIVE (Inner and Outer).

When two Accusatives depend on the same verb, one is the Inner and the other the Outer object. Theoretically any combination of Inner and Outer objects is allowable; practically the language has restricted its usage to varieties a and b.

339. (a) Active verbs signifying to Inquire, to Require, to Teach, and cēlāre, to conceal, take two Accusatives, one of the Person, and the other of the Thing.

Pūsionem quendam Socratēs interrogat quaedam geometricā, C., Tusc., 1. 24, 57; Socrates asks an urchin sundry questions in geometry. Caesar Aeduōs frumentum flāgitābat, Caes., B.G., 1. 16, 1; Caesar kept demanding the corn of the Aedui. Quid nunc tē, asine, litterās doceam! (265), C., Pis., 30, 73; why should I now give you a lesson in literature.
you donkey? Non tē cēlāvī sermōnem Ampii, C., Fam., ii. 16, 3, I did not keep you in the dark about my talk with Ampius.

Remarks.—1. The expressions vary a good deal. Observe:

This then is not the only way; Pōscō, I claim, and flāgītō,
For it is also right to say, And always petō, pōstulō,
Docerē and cēlāre dé, Take aliquid ab aliqūō,
Interrogāre dé quā rē. While quaerō takes ex, ab, dé, quō.

Adherbal Rōmam lēgātōs miserat, qui senātum docerēnt dē caede frātris, S., Iug., 13, 3; Adherbal had sent envoys to Rome to inform the senate of the murder of his brother. Bassus noster mē dē hoc libro cēlāvit, C., Fam., vii. 20, 3; our friend Bassus has kept me in the dark about this book. Aquam à pūnīce nunc pōstulas, Pl., Pers., 41; you are now asking water of a punice-stone (blood of a turnip).

2. With docerō the Abl. of the Instrument is also used: docerē fidibus, equō, to teach the lyre, to teach riding; with ērudīre, the Abl., in with the Abl. or (rarely) dē. Doctus and ēruditus generally take the Abl.: Doctus Graecis litterīs, a good Grecian.

3. With cēlāri the Acc. of the Thing becomes the subject, and the Acc. of the Person is retained; or the Acc. of the Person is made the subject, and instead of the Acc. of the Thing, dē with the Abl. is used.

Notes.—1. There is a great deal of difference in the relative frequency of these verbs. So docerō and its compounds, rogō, pōscō, repōscō, cēlō, are common: interrogō, orō, expōscō, pōstulō, flāgītō, consulō, are rare, exigō (in passive), percontor, are ante-classical and post-classical. So, too, the classical Latin in general avoids two Accusatives, unless one is a neuter pronoun.

2. The construction with ab, with verbs of Inquiring, is much more common than the double Acc., and in some cases is necessary; so, too, the construction with dē after verbs of Inquiring.

3. Other verbs of teaching than docerō and its compounds, and ērudīre, always have dē until late Latin, as instructere, etc. So docerē, when it means to inform.

4. The Passive form, with the Nom. of the Person and the Acc. of the Thing, is sparingly used. Discerē is the prose word for docerī, except that the past participle doctus is classical but rare.

Mōtūs docerī gaudet Iōnicōs mātūra virgō, II., O., iii. 6. 21; the rare ripe maid delights to learn Ionic dances. Vir omnēs bellī artēs ēdoctus, L., xv. 40, 5; one who had learned (been taught) thoroughly all the arts of war.

340. (b) Verbs of Naming, Making, Taking, Choosing,Showing, may have two Accusatives of the same Person or Thing:

[Intam] bene Ennius initium dīxit insānīae, C., Tusc., iv. 23, 52; well did Ennius call anger the beginning of madness. Ancum Mārcium rēgem populus creāvit, 1., i. 32. 1; the people made Ancus Marcus king. Catō Valerium Flaccum habuit collegam, Cf. Nep., xxiv. 1, 2; Cato had Valerius Flaccus (as) colleague. Eum simillimum dēō iūdicō, C., Marc., 3, 8; I judge him (to be) very like unto a god. Athēniēnsibus Pỹthia praecepit ut
Miltiadem sibi imperatorem sumerent, NEP., I. I, 3; the Pythia instructed the Athenians to take Miltiades (as) their commander. Praestā tē eum qui mihi es cognitus, C., Fam., I. 6, 2: show yourself the man that I know you to be. Quem intellegimus divitem? C., Par., vi. I, 42; whom do we understand by the rich man?

Remarks.—I. The Double Acc. is turned into the Double Nom. with the Passive (206). Reddō, I render, is not used in the Passive, but, instead thereof, fiō, I become.

Habeō, with two Accusatives commonly means to have: in the sense of hold, regard, other turns are used; usually pró.

Utrum pró ancillā mē habēs an pró filiā? PL., Pers., 341: do you look upon me as a maid-servant or as a daughter?

Similarly habēre servōrum locō, (in) numerō deōrum, to regard as slaves, as gods.

2. With verbs of Taking and Choosing the end is indicated by the Dat. or ad with Accusative.

(Rōmulus) trecentūs armātōs ad custōdiām corporis habuit, I., I. 15, 8: Romulus had three hundred armed men as a body-guard.

341. (c) Double Accusatives, where one is the cognate, are very uncommon:

Tē bonās precēs precor, CATO, R.R., I. 3, 4. Tam tē bāsia multa bāsiāre vēsānō satis et super Catullōst, Cat., vii. 9.

Notes.—1. Curious extensions occasionally occur:

Idem iūs iūrandum adigit Afrānium, CAES., B.C., I. 76.

2. In early Latin frequently, and in later times occasionally, the Inner object is given by a neuter pronom, in the simplest form. Quid mē vis? what do you want of me? what do you want me for? So with prohibēre; also with iubēre (once in Cicero and CAESAR), admonēre, etc.


342. (d) In early Latin we find cases of two Accusatives with a single verb, where the verb forms a single phrase with one of the Accusatives, and the second Accusative is the object of the phrase: animum advertere, to perceive; lūdōs facere, to make game of; manum incere, to lay hands on, etc. In classical Latin these phrases have been usually, where possible, formed into a single word: animadvertere, lūdificāri.

Animum advertit Gracchus in contione Pisonem stantem, C., Tusc., III. 20, 48; Gracchus perceived Piso standing in the assembly.

Note.—On the Double Accusative with compound verbs, see 331, II. 1.

ACCUSATIVE AS A GENERAL OBJECTIVE CASE.

343. The Accusative as the Objective Case generally is used as an object of Thought, Perception, Emotion; an ob-
ject created by the mind, evoked or deprecated by the will. Hence the use of the Accusative:

(a) In Exclamations. (b) With the Infinitive.

1. The Accusative is used in Exclamations as the general object of Thought, Perception, or Emotion:

Mē miserum, C., Fam., xiv. 1, 1; poor me! Mē caecum qui haec ante nōn viderim, C., Att., x. 10, 1; blind me! not to have seen all this before.

So in Exclamatory Questions:

Quō mihi fortūnam, si nōn conscīditur āti? II., Ep., i. 5, 12; what (is the object of) fortune to me if I'm not allowed to enjoy it?

Interjections are used:

Heu mē miserum! Alas! poor me! Ō miserās hominum mentēs, Ō pectora caeca, Lucr., ii. 14; oh, the wretched minds of men, oh, the blind hearts!

So, in apposition to a sentence, see 324.

Notes.—1. Ȧ with the Voc. is an address; with the Nom. a characteristic; with the Acc. an object of emotion.

2. Em, Lo! and Ecce, Lo here! have the Acc. in the earlier language:

Em tībī hominem! Pl., Asin., 88о; here's your man! Ecce mē! Pl., Ep., 68о; here am I!

So eccum, ellow, ecamm, eccillam, in comic poetry.

Ecce takes only the Nom. in classical Latin. Distinguish between em and ēn, the latter of which, in the sense lo! does not appear until Cicero's time, and takes the Nominative, rarely the Accusative.

Prō takes the Vocative: Prō di immortālēs! Ye immortal gods! The Accusative occurs in: Prō deum atque hominum fidem! C., Tusc., v. 16, 48; for heaven's sake! and similar phrases.

Ei: Ȧhi! and Vae! take the Dative.

Ei mihi! Ah me! Vae victis! Woe to the conquered!

2. The Accusative and the Infinitive are combined so as to present the notion of Subject and Predicate as an object of thought or perception (527). Hence the Accusative with the Infinitive is used:

(a) In Exclamations. (See 534.)

(b) As an Object. (See 527.)

(c) As a Subject. (See 535.)

**DATIVE.**

344. The Dative is the case of the Indirect Object, and always involves a Direct Object, which may be contained in the verb or expressed by the complex of verb and object.
Nēmō errat ūnī sībī, Sex., E.M., 94. 54; no one errs (makes mistakes) to (for) himself alone. Non omnibus dormiō, C., Fam., viii. 24. 1: it is not for everybody that I am asleep. Tibī exercitum patria prō sē dedit, C., Ph., xiii. 6, 14; your country gave you an army for its own defence. Mulier sībī fēlicior quam viris, C., Ph., v. 4, 11.

Note.—In English the form of the Indirect Object is the same as that of the Direct: "He showed me (Dat.) a pure river;" "he showed me (Acc.) to the priest." Originally a case of Personal Interest, it is used freely of Personified Things, sparingly of Local Relations, and this despite the fact that Locative and Dative are blended in the First and Third Declensions. If a Locative, the Dative is a sentient Locative.

**Dative with Transitive Verbs.**

345. The Indirect Object is put in the Dative with Transitive verbs, which already have a Direct Object in the Accusative. Translation, to, for, from. This Accusative becomes the Nominative of the Passive. The Dative depends on the complex.

Active Form:

To: Facile omnēs, quom valēmus, rēctā cōnsilia aegrōtīs damus, Ter., And., 309; readily all of us, when well, give good counsel to the sick.

For: Frangam tōnsōri crūra manūsque simul, Mart., xi. 58, 10; I'd break the barber's legs for him and hands at once.

From: Somnum mīhī [adēmit], C., Att., ii. 16, 1; it look my sleep away from me.

Passive Form:

Merces mīhī glōria dētur, Ov., F., iii. 389: let glory be given to me as a reward. Immeritis franguntur crūra caballīs, Juv., x. 60; the innocent hacks get their legs broken for them. Arma [adimuntur] militibus, i., xxii. 44, 6; the soldiers have their arms taken from them. Domus pulchra dominīs aedificātur nōn mūribus, Cf. C., N.D., iii. 10, 26; a handsome house is built for its owners, not for the mice.

Remarks.—1. These constructions are found with more or less frequency at all periods. But the Dat. with verbs of Taking Away, Prohibiting, and the like, is mostly confined to poetry and later prose. The translation from is merely approximate, instead of for. When the idea of Personal Interest is not involved, the Abl. is necessary.

Is frāter, qui ēripuit frātrem carcere, nōn potuit ēripere fātō, Sex., Dial., xi. 14, 4.

A good example of a play on construction is Pl., Aul., 635: St. Nīhil equidem tībī abstulī. Eu. At illud quod tībī abstulerās cedo.

2. The translation For is nearer the Dat. than To. It is the regular
form when the Acc. is that of the object affected; when it is that of the object affected the translation is more often to; but for (in defence of) is pró: prō patriā morī, to die for one's country. To (with a view to) is ad or in, and when the idea of motion is involved, the preposition must be used, even with dare, which gives its name to the Dative:

Litterās alīciū dare, to give one a letter (to carry or to have).

Litterās ad alīquiem dare, to indite a letter to one.

Rogās ut mea tībī scripta mittam, C., Fam., i. 9. 23: you ask me to send you my writings (you wish to have them). Librōs iam prīdem ad tē misiśsem si esse ōdendōs putāśsem, C., Fam., i. 9, 23; I should have sent the books to you long since if I had thought they ought to be published.

Dative with Intransitive Verbs.

346. The Indirect Object is put in the Dative with many Intransitive Verbs of Advantage or Disadvantage, Yielding and Resisting, Pleasure and Displeasure, Bidding and Forbidding.

Fuit mirificus in Crassō pudor, quī tamen nōn obesseōt ēius ōrātiōnī, C., Or., i. 26, 122: Crassus had a marvellous modesty, yet, however, such as to be a bar to the effectiveness of his oratory. Ipsa sībī imbēcillitās indulget, C., Tusc., iv. 18. 42: weakness gives free course to itself. Probus invidet nēmini, C., Tim., 3. 9: your upright man cherishes envy to no one. Catilīna litterās mittit sē fortūnae cēdere, S., C., 34. 2: Catiline writes that he gives way to fortune. Diēs stultīs quoque medērī solet, C., Fam., vii. 28. 3: time is wont to prove a medicine even to fools. Moderāri et animō et ōrātiōnī est nōn mediocris ingenii, C., Q. F., i. ii. 13, 38: to put bounds both to temper and to language is the work of no mean ability. Sic agam, ut ipsī auctōri hāius disciplīnae placet, C., Fin., i. 9, 29: I will act as it seems good to the head of this school (of thought) himself. [Mundus] deō pāret et huic oboedient maria terraeque, C., Leg., III. i. 3: the universe is obedient to God, and seas and lands hearken unto him. Vīrtūtī suōrum satis crēdit, Cf. S., Ing., 106, 3: he puts full confidence in the valor of his men. Illī poena, nōbis libertās [appropriquat], C., Ph., iv. 4, 10; to him punishment, to us freedom, is drawing nigh.

Remarks.—1. Of course the passives of these verbs are used impersonally (208):

Qui invident egent, illis quibus invidētur, īrem habent, Pl., Truc., 745: those who envy are the needy, those who are envied have the stuff.

2. The verbs found with this Dat. in classical Latin are: prōdesse, obesse, nōcēre, conducit, expedīt; assentīrī, blandīrī, cupere, favēre, grātiās signātās, rēgulae, ignōscere, indulgēre, mōrgerāri, studēre, suffragāri; adversāri, insidiāri, invidēre, ōrāci, maledicere, mināri, mīnūrī, obtrēctāre,
officere, refragari, suscensere; cedere, concedere; resistere; auxiliari, consulere, mederi, optulare, parcare, pröpicere; moderari, temperare (sibī); placere, displicere; auscultare, imperare, obœdire, obsequi, obtenequare, päre, persuadere, servire, suădere; crèdere, fidere, confidere, diffidere, despèrare; accidit, contingunt, evenit; libet, licet; appropinquare, repugnare. Also nubere, to marry (of a woman); supplicare, to implore.

Notes.—1. Some other verbs are used occasionally in the same way, as incommode, which Cicero uses once. Also, dolere, with Dat. of suffering person, is found sometimes in Cicero, though it belongs rather to the Comic Poets.

2. Some of these words have also other constructions. These occur usually in anticlassical and post-classical Latin; if in classical Latin a different meaning is usually found in the new construction. Thus indulgere aliquid, to grant a thing; invidere aliquam, to grieve at, obtrèctare, with Acc., suădere, persuadere, with Acc. of the person, are post-classical and late; moderari, with Acc., is found in Lucretius and in Silver Latin; temperare, meaning mix, takes Acc. at all periods. Fidere, considue, diffidere are found also with Ablative.

Sometimes the personal interest is emphasized when the Dat. is employed, as over against the Accusative. So regularly with verbs of fearing, as: metuere aliquem, to dread some one, but metuere aliquam, to fear for some one; cavere aliquam, to take precautions for some one, but cavere aliquam (also de, ab aliquo), to take precautions against some one; cavere aliquam ré (early), to be wary of a thing. Consulere aliquam, to consult a person; consulere aliquam, to consult for a person. On venire, see 347, r. 2.

Noteworthy are the constructions of invidere and vacare:

Invidere aliquam in aliquam ré (Cic. uses prep.) to begrudge a man a thing.

aliquam aliquid (Ver. Hor. Liv. etc.) to be envious of a thing.

aliquam rei (once in Horace, S. ι. 6, 84) to be envious of a thing.

(aliquam) aliquam rei (common), to envy something belonging to a man.

Vacare rei, to be at leisure for, to attend to;

re, a ré, to be at leisure from a matter.

Sometimes there is hardly any difference in meaning:

Comitor aliquem, I accompany a man; comitor aliquam, I act as companion to a man; praestólor aliquam (better) or aliquam, I wait for.

3. Some words with similar meanings take the Accusative: the most notable are:

aequare, to be equal; decere (to distinguish), to be becoming; decere, to be wanting; dixere, to please; invicare, to be a help; jubere, to order; laedere, to injure; and vetare, to forbid. The Dat. also occurs after aequare and decere.

Eam picturas imitati sunt multi, aequavit némō, Plin., N.H., xxxv. 11, 126; that style of painting many have imitated, none equalled. Fórmà viròs neglecta decet, ov. ι. 4, 1. 509; a careless beauty is becoming to men. Me diès déflciat, cf. C., Verr., ι. 21, 52; the day would fail me. Fortis fortuna diu iuvat, Ter., Ph., 203; fortune favors the brave.

Tacitus is the first to use jubere with Dative; Ann., iv. 72, etc.

4. The Dat. use is often obscured by the absence of etymological translation. So núbere aliquam, to marry a man (to veil for him); mederi aliquam, to heal (to take one's measures for) a man; supplicare, to beg (to bow the knee to); persuadere, to persuade (to make it sweet).

5. After the analogy of verbs the phrases audientem esse, to hear, i.e., to obey; supplicem esse, to entreat, auctórem esse, to advise, fidem habère, to have faith in, are also found with the Dative:

Si potest tibi dixto audientes esse quisquam, C., Verr., ι. 44, 111.

6. The poets are very free in their use of the Dat. with verbs of the same general
meaning as those given. So sē miscēre, to mingle with; coire, concurreire, to meet; verbs of contending, as contendere, bellāre, pūgnāre, certāre; verbs of disagree-
ment, as differre, discrepāre, distāre, dissentire. Here belongs haerēre with the
Dat., as V., I., iv. 73, which may, however, be a Locative construction.

Dative and Verbs Compounded with Prepositions.

347. Many verbs compounded with the prepositions ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, (post), prae, sub, and super, take the
Dative, especially in moral relations.

Transitive Verbs have an Accusative case besides.

Plēbēs cūncta comitiis adfuit, C., Planc., 8, 21: the entire commonly
was present at the election. Omnis sēnsum hominum multō antecellit sen-
sibus bēstiārum, C., N.D., ii. 57, 145: every sense of man is far superior
to the senses of beasts. (Ennius) equi fortis et victōris senectūtī comparat
suam, C., Cat.M., 5, 14; Ennius compares his (old age) to the old age
of a gallant and winning steed. Imminere duo rēgēs tōtī Asiae, C.,
Imp., 5, 12; two kings are menaces to all Asia. Interes cōnsilīi, C.,
Att., xiv. 22, 2; you are in their councils, are privy to their plans. Piger
ipse sībī obstat, Prov. (311, 2). Omnibus Druidibus praeest ūnus, Caes.,
B.G., vi. 13, 8: at the head of all the Druids is one man. Anatum ōva
gallinis sæpe suppōnimus, C., N.D., ii. 48, 124: we often put ducks' eggs
under hens (for them to hatch). Neque dēesse neque superesse rei publicae
volō, C. (Pollio), Fam., x. 33, 5: no life that is not true to the state,
no life that outlives the state's—that is my motto.

Remarks.—1. The Dat. is found, as a rule, only when these verbs
are used in a transferred sense. In a local sense the preposition should
be employed, although even classical Latin is not wholly consistent in
this matter. In poetry and later prose the Dat. is extended even to
the local signification. In early Latin the repetition of the preposition
is the rule.

So incumbere in gladium, C., Inv., ii. 51, 154, to fall upon one's sword.

2. The principal intrans. verbs with the Dat. in classical Latin are:

Accedēre (to join, or, to be added; otherwise usually preposition ad);
accumbere (once in Cic.): adesse (also with ad, in, and, in Plaut., apud);
adhaerēscere (ad of local uses): arriēre (once in Cic.); annuere (occas-
ionally with Acc.): assentīri; assidēre; antecēdere (also with Acc.);
anteire (also with Acc.): antecellere (with Acc. from Livy on); con-
gruere (also with cum): cōnsentire (also with cum); cōstāre; convenire (to
suit; with cum, to agree with, especially in the phrase convenit mihi
cum aliquō, I agree with); illudere (also with Acc. and occasionally in
and Acc.): impendere (with Acc. is archaic; occasionally in); incēdere
(Sall., Livy, etc.): incidere (twice in Cic.; regularly in); incubāre (but
incumbere regularly with in or ad); inesse (once in Cic.); inhaerēre (occa-
sionally ad or in with Abl.) ; inhīāre (Plaut. has Acc. only) ; innāscī (innātus) ; inservīre ; insinuāre (once in Cic.; usually in) ; insistere (locally, in with Abl.; occasionally Acc.) ; instāre ; invādere (once in Cic.; occasionally Acc.; regularly in) ; intercēdere ; intercurrere ; interesse (also with in and Abl.) ; intervenire ; obesse ; obrēpere (usually in, ad) ; obsistere ; obstāre ; obstrēpere ; obtingere ; obvenīre ; oversāri ; occurrere ; occursāre ; praestāre ; praesidere ; subesse ; subvenire ; succēdere ; succumbere ; succēscere (once in Cic.) ; succurrere ; superesse.

3. The same variety of construction is found with transitive verbs, in composition.

4. After the analogy of praestāre, excellere, to excel, is also found with the Dative.

5. Some trans. verbs, compounded with dē and ex (rarely with ab), take the Dat., but it properly comes under 345.

Caesar Deiotarō tetrarchian ēripuit, eidemque dētrāxit Armeniam, Cf. C., Dīr., n. 37, 79: Caesar wrested from Deiotarus his tetrarchy, and stripped from him Armenia.

Dative with Verbs of Giving and Putting.

348. A few verbs, chiefly of Giving and Putting, take a Dative with an Accusative, or an Accusative with an Ablative, according to the conception.

Praedam militibus dōnat, Caes., B.G., viii. 11, 9; he presents the booty to the soldiers. But Rubrium corōnā dōnāstī, C., Verr. iii. 80, 185; thou didst present Rubrius with a crown.

Nātūra corpus animō circumdedit, Sen., E.M., 92. 13; Nature has put a body around the mind. But Deus animum circumdedit corpore, Cf. C., Tim., 6, 20; God has surrounded the mind with a body.

Remarks.—1. These are: aspergere, to besprinkle and to sprinkle on; circumdāre, circumfundere, to surround; dōnāre, to present; impertire, to endow and to give; induere, to clothe and to put on; exuere, to strip of and to strip off; interclūdere, to shut off; miscēre, to mix and to mix in.

2. In general, classical Latin here prefers the Dat. of the person, but no fixed rule is followed.

Dative of Possessor.

349. Esse, to be, with the Dative, denotes an inner connection between its subject and the Dative, and is commonly translated by the verb to have:

DATIVE.

xvi. 166; or perhaps you do not know that kings have long arms? Compare non habet, ut putamus, fortunā longās manūs, Sen., E.M., 82.5.

Remarks.—1. The predicate of esse, with the Dat., is translated in the ordinary manner: Caesar amicus est mihi, Caesar is a friend to me (amicus meus, my friend, friend of mine).

2. The Dat. is never simply equivalent to the Genitive. The Dat. is the Person interested in the Possession, hence the Possession is emphatic; the Gen. characterizes the Possession by the Possessor, hence the Possessor is emphatic. The Gen. is the permanent Possessor, or owner; the Dat. is the temporary Possessor. The one may include the other: Latini concédunt Rōmam caput Latīō esse, Cf. L., viii. 4, 5; the Latins concede that Latium has its capital in Rome. (Latīō: that Latium’s capital is Rome.)

3. Possession of qualities is expressed by esse with in and the Abl., by inesse with Dat. or with in, or by some other turn:

Fuit mirificus in Crassō pudor, C., Orv., 1. 26, 122 (346). Cimon habēbat satis eloquentiae, Nep., v. 2, 1: Cimon had eloquence enough.

Sallust introduces the Dat. also for these relations.

4. Abesse and dēesse, to be wanting, to fail, take also the Dat. of Possessor.

5. The Dat. of the person is regular with the phrases nōmen (cōgnōmen) est, inditum est, etc. Here the name is in the Nom. in apposition to nōmen, in the best usage. Rarely in Cicero, always in Sallust, never in Cæsar, more often in early and post-Ciceronian Latin, the name is found in the Dat.; either by attraction with the Dat. of the person or on the analogy of the Double Dative. The Appositional Genitive (361) is first cited from Velleius. The undelined Nom. after an active verb appears first in Ovid; then in Suetonius.

Fōns aquae dulcis, cui nōmen Arethūsa est, C., Verr., iv. 53, 118; a fountain of sweet water named Arethusa. Apollodōrus, cui Pyragrō cōgnōmen est, C., Verr., iii. 31, 74; Apollodorus, surnamed Pyragrus (fire-long). Nōmen Arctūrō est mihi, Pl., Rud., 5; my name is Arcturus. Tibi nōmen insānō posuēre, ll., S., ii. 3. 47; they called you “cracked.” [Samnitēs] Maleventum, cui nunc urbi Beneventum nōmen est, perfugerunt, L., ix. 27. 14; the Samnites fled to Maleventum (Welcome), a city which now bears the name Beneventum (Welcome). Aetās, cui fecimus ‘aurea’ nōmen, Ov., M., xv. 96; the age to which we have given the name ‘Golden.’

Dative of Personal Interest.

In its widest sense this category includes the Dative with Transitive and Intransitive Verbs, already treated, and the Ethical Dative, Dative of Reference, and Dative of Agent, to follow. In its narrower sense it applies only to persons or their equivalents who are essential to, but not necessarily participant in or affected by, the result, and differs from the Dative with Transitive and Intransitive Verbs, in that the connection with the verb is much more remote.
350. 1. The person from whose point of view the action is observed, or towards whom it is directed, may be put in the Dative. A convenient but not exact translation is often the English Possessive (Datīvus Energicus).

Ei libenter mē ad pedēs abiēcī, Cf. C., Att., viii. 9, 1; I gladly cast myself at his feet. In conspectum vēnerat hostibus, Hirt., viii. 27; he had come into the sight of the enemy. Tuō virō ocūli dolent, Cf. Ter., Ph., 1053; your husband’s eyes ache; nearer, your husband has a pain in his eyes (tuī virī ocūli, your husband’s eyes).

Note.—This Dat. is denied by some for early Latin and is rare in Cicero. But it becomes common from Livy on. With Relative and Demonstrative pronouns it is often used by Ciceronian and Augustan poets. In the case of many of the examples we have parallel constructions with the Gen. of Possessor, which is the normal usage.

2. The Dative is used of the person in whose honor, or interest, or advantage, or for whose pleasure, an action takes place, or the reverse (Datīvus Commodi et Incommodi):

Consurrēxisse omnēs [Lysandrō] dicuntur; C., Cat. M., 18, 63; all are said to have risen up together in honor of Lysander. [Deō] nostra altāria fūmant, V., Ec., i. 43; our altars smoke in honor of the god. Si quid peccat mihi peccat, Ter., Ad., 115; if he commits a fault, it is at my cost.

Ethical Dative.

351. The Ethical Dative indicates special interest in the action. It may be called the Dative of Feeling, and its use is confined to the personal pronouns (Datīvus Ethicus.)

Tū mihi Antōnīī exemplō istius audāciām defendis? C., Verr., iii. 91, 213; do you defend me (to my face) by Antony’s example that fellow’s audacity? Ecce tibi Sebōsus! C., Att., ii. 15; here’s your Sebōsus!

“She’s a civil modest wife, one (I tell you) that will not miss you morning nor evening prayer.”—Shakespeare.

Notes.—1. This is essentially a colloquialism, common in comedy, especially with ecce and em, frequent in Cicero’s letters, occasionally found elsewhere. In poetry, notably Augustan, it is almost wholly absent; but there are several cases in Horace. Cicero does not use em. Livy does not use ecce.

2. Especially to be noted is sibi velle, to want, to mean: Quid tibi vis, ēnsāne, C., Or., ii. 67, 269; what do you want, madman? Quid vōt sibi haec ōrātiō? Ter., Heaut., 615; what does all this holding forth mean?

Dative of Reference.

352. This indicates the person in whose eyes the statement of the predicate holds good (Datīvus Indicantis).

Ut mihi déformis, sic tibi māgnīficus, Tac., ii., xii. 37; to me a monster, to yourself a prodigy of splendor. Quintiā fōrmōsa est multīs, Cat., 86, 1; Quintia is a beauty in the eyes of many.
Note.—This Dative is characteristic of the Augustan poets, but it is also common enough in Cicero and the prose authors.

353. Noteworthy is the use of this Dative in combination with participles, which shows two varieties, one giving the local point of view, the other the mental, both post-Ciceronian and rare. Caesar gives the first local usage, Livy the first mental.

[Hoc] est oppidum primum Thessaliae venientibus ab Epirō, Caes., B.C., III. 80; this is the first town of Thessaly to those coming (as you come) from Epirus. Vērē aessimantī, L., XXXVII. 53, 8; to one whose judgment was true.

Notes.—1. This construction is probably drawn from the Greek, although Vitruvius shows several examples.
2. Certainly Greek is the Dat. of the person with volentī, cupientī, invitō (est), etc., which is found first in Sallust, once in Livy, and sporadically in Tacitus, and later.

Dative of the Agent.

354. The Dative is used with Passive Verbs, in prose chiefly with the Perfect Passive, to show the interest which the agent takes in the result. That the person interested is the agent is only an inference. (See 215.)

Mīhī rēs tōta prōvisa est, C., Verr., IV. 42, 91; I have had the whole matter provided for. Cui nōn sunt auditaē Démosthenis vigiliae? C., Tusc., IV. 19, 44; to whom are not Demosthenes' long watchings a familiar hearsay?

Notes.—1. Instances of this Dat. with the Tenses of Continuance are poetical, or admit of a different explanation:

Barbarus hic ego sum qui nōn intellegor ūlli, Ov., Tr., V. 10, 37; I am a barbarian here because I can't make myself intelligible to any one.

Whenever an adj. or an equivalent is used, the Dat. Pl. may be an Ablative:

Sic dissimillimis bēstiolis commūnītē cibus quaeritur, C., N.D., II. 48, 123; so, though these little creatures are so very unlike, their food is sought in common. Carmina quae scribuntur aquae pōtōribus, II., Ep. i. 19, 3; poems which are written when people are water-drinkers. Ėnā ministrātur puerīs tribus, II., S., I. 6, 116; Dinner is served, (the waiters being) the waiters are (but) three.

2. This Dat. is rare in early Latin, rare, if ever, in Caesar, not uncommon in Cicero. But it is much liked by the poets and by some prose writers, notably by Tacitus.

355. The agent of the Gerund and Gerundive is put in the Dative, at all periods.

Diligentia praeципē colenda est nōbīs, C., Or., II. 35, 148: carefulness is to be cultivated by us first and foremost. Despērandā tibi salvā concordia scorū, Juv., VI. 231; you must despair of harmony while Mother-in-law's alive.
Remark.—To avoid ambiguity, especially when the verb itself takes the Dat., the Abl. with ab (ā) is employed:

Civibus ā vobis consulendum, C., Imp., 2, 6 : the interest of the citizens must be consulted by you. Supplicātiō ab eō decernenda non fuit, C., Ph., xiv. 4, 11.

Where there is no ambiguity there is no need of ab:

Linguae moderandum est mihi, Pl., Curc., 486 ; I must put bounds to my tongue.

Note.—Poets are free in their use of this Dative; so with verbals in bilis; as, multisille bonis flēbilis occidit, II., O., 1. 24, 9 : nūlli exorābilis, Sil. Ital., v. 131.

Dative of the Object For Which.

356. Certain verbs take the Dative of the Object For Which (to what end), and often at the same time a Dative of the Personal Object For Whom, or To Whom.

Nēmini meus adventus labōri aut sūmptuī fuit, C., Verr., 1. 6, 16 ; to no one was my arrival a burden or an expense. Virtūs sōla neque datur dōnō neque accipitur, S., Ing., 85, 38 : virtue alone is neither given nor taken as a present. Hābēre quaestuī rem publicam turpe est, C., Off., 11., 22, 77 ; it is base to have the state for one’s exchequer.

Remarks.—1. Noteworthy is the legal phrase cui bonō? to whom is it for an advantage? = who is advantaged?

2. In the classical times the principal verbs in this construction are esse, dare, dūcere, habēre, vertere, and a few others which occur less frequently. Later Latin extends the usage to many other verbs, and especially to Gerundive constructions. Dare is used principally in the phrase dōnō dare.

3. The Double Dative is found principally with esse, but occasionally with other verbs. Here there seems to have been a tendency, mainly post-Ciceronian, to use the predicative Nom. instead of the Dative. Interesting sometimes is the shift in usage; thus, Cicero says est turpītūdō, Nepos, fuit turpītūdīni.

Notes.—1. In the same category, but with the idea of finality more clearly indicated, are the agricultural usages, alimentō serere, condītū legere ; the medical, remedīō adhibere ; the military terms, praeсидiō, auxiliō, mittere, esse, etc.

2. With Livy we notice the great extension of this Dat. with verbs of seeking, choosing, etc., where classical Latin would prefer some other construction. So locum insidiās (insidiārum is classical) circumspectāre Poenus coepit, L., xxii. 53, 11. Tacitus goes furthest in such usages. Caesar, however, shows a few instances (B. G., 1. 30, 3).

3. The Final Dative with intrans. verbs is military and rare. So receptū canere, to sound a retreat, is found first in Caes., B. G., vii. 47. Sallust shows a few examples. The Dat., with similar substantives, is an extension, and is very rare. Cicero, Ph., xiii. 7, 15, says receptū sigraum.
4. The origin of this usage may have been mercantile (Key). In English we treat Profit and Loss as persons: Quem fors diērum cumque dabit lucrō appōne, II., O., 1. 9. 14; "Every day that Fate shall give, set down to Profit."

On the Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive in a similar sense, see 429.

Dative with Derivative Substantives.

357. A few derivative substantives take the Dative of their primitives:

Iūstitia est obtemperātīō lēgibus, C., Leg., 1. 15, 42; justice is obedience to the laws.

Note.—We find a few examples in Plautus, several in Cicero, and only sporadically elsewhere. Usually the verbal force is very prominent in the substantives; as, insidiās cōnsuli mātūrāre, S., C., 32, 2.

Local Dative.

358. The Dative is used in poetry to denote the place whither.

Karthāgīnī iam nōn ego nūntiōs mittam superbōs, II., O., iv. 4, 69; (to) Carthage no more shall I send haughty tidings. Iam satis terris nīvis atque dīrae grandinis mīsit pater, H., O., 1. 2, 1; full, full enough of snow and dire hail the Sire hath sent the Land.

Notes.—1. This construction begins with Accius, and is not uncommon in the Augustan poets. No examples are cited from Plautus or Terence, hence the inference is fair that it was not a colloquialism. As a poetical construction it seems to have sprung from personification.

2. Occasionally the substantive is also thus construed; as in the facilis descēnus Avernō of Virgil (A., vi. 126).

The extreme is reached when the Dative follows ire and the like:

It cælō clāmorque virum clangorque tubārum, V., A., xi. 192; mounts to High Heaven warriors' shout and trumpets' blare.

3. Tendere manūs has a few times, even in Cicero and Caesar, the Dat. of the person, which is sometimes referred to this head. But the usual construction is ad.


Dative with Adjectives.

359. Adjectives of Likeness, Fitness, Friendliness, Nearness, and the like, with their opposites, take the Dative:

Canis similis lupō est, C., N. D., 1. 35, 97; the dog is like unto the wolf.

Castris idōneus locus, Caes., B. G., vi. 10. 2; a place suitable for a camp.

Ūtile est rei publicae nōbilēs homiēs esse dignōs māiōrībus suis, C., Sest., 9. 21; it is to the advantage of the state that men of rank should be worthy of their ancestors.

Vir mihi amicissimus, Q. Fabricius, C., Sest., 35, 75; my very great friend, Q. Fabricius.

Proximus sum egomet mihi, Ter., And., 636; myself am nearest to me.

Omni aetātī mors est com-
mūnis, Cf. C., Cat. M., 19, 68; death is common to every time of life. (Tēstis) id dicit quod illi causae maxime est aliēnum, C., Caece., 9, 24; the witness says what is especially damaging to that case (side).

Remarks.—1. Many adjectives which belong to this class are used also as substantives, and as such are construed with the Genitive: amicus, friend; affinis, connection; aequālis, contemporary; aliēnus (rare), foreign, strange; cōgnātus, kinsman; commūnis, common; contraērius, opposite; pār, match; proprius, peculiāris, own, peculiar; similis, like (“we ne’er shall look upon his like again”), especially of gods and men, and regularly with personal pronouns, and in early Latin; sacer, set apart, sacred; superstes (rare), survivor. Comparatives have regularly the Dative: Superlatives vary.

[Ilium], cūius paucōs parēs haece civitās tulist, C., Pis., 4, 8; (he was) a man few of whose peers the state hath borne. Utinam tē nōn sōlum vitae, sed etiam dignitātīs meae superstitem reliquissem, C., Q. F., 1, 3, 1; would that I had left thee survivor not only of my life but also of my position.

2. The object toward which is expressed by the Acc. with in, ergā, adversus:

Manlius (fuit) severus in filium, C., Off., III. 31, 112; Manlius was severe toward his son. Mē esse scīt sēsē ergā benivolum, Pl., Capt., 350: he knows that I am kindly disposed toward him. Vir adversus merita Caesaris ingrātissimus, Cf. Vell., 11, 89, 1; a man most ungrateful towards Caesar’s services (to him).

3. The object for which may be expressed by the Acc. with ad, to:

Homō ad nūllam rem ūtilis, C., Off., III. 6, 29: a good-for-nothing fellow.

This is the more common construction with adjectives of Fitness.

Notes.—1. Propior, nearer, proximus, next, are also construed (like prope, near) occasionally with the Acc. (principally by Caesar, Sallust, Livy), the adverbial forms also with the Abl. with ab, off:

Crassus proximus mare Oceanum hiemārat, Caes., B. G., III. 7, 2; Crassus had wintered next the ocean. Id propius fidem est, L., 11, 41, 11; that is nearer belief, i.e., more likely.

2. Aliēnus, foreign, strange, is also construed with the Abl. with or without abā; so commonly absōnus.

Homō sum, hūmānī nihil a mē aliēnum putō, Ter., Hœaut., 77; I am a man, and nothing that pertains to man do I consider foreign to me.

3. Iūnctus, cōnīūnctus, joined, are also construed frequently with cum and the Abl.: sometimes with the Abl. only: improbitās scelere iūncta, C., Or., 11, 58, 237.

4. Similis is said to be used with the Gen. when the likeness is general and comprehensive; with the Dat. when it is conditional or partial; hence, in classical prose, always vēri simile, Livy being the first to say vērō simile.

5. Adversus, opponent, seems to be construed with the Gen. once in Sallust (C., 52, 7) and once in Quintilian (xii. 1, 2). Invidus, envious, is cited with the Gen. once in Cicero (Flac., 1, 2), then not till late Latin; with the Dat. it is poetical; otherwise the possessive pronoun is used, as tuī invidī (C., Fam., 1, 4, 2). Prōnus, inclined, with the Dat., occurs in Sallust (Iug., 11, 4, 2), then not till Tacitus; the usual construction is ad. Intentus, intent upon, has Abl. in Sallust (C., 2, 9, etc.);
otherwise Dat., or ad (in) with Acc. Notice the use of áversus with Dat. in Tac., Ann., i. 66, 2; some other examples are doubtful.

6. In poetry, idem, the same, is often construed after Greek analogy, with the Dative.

Invitum qui servat idem facit occidenti, ii., A.P, 467: who saves a man’s life against his will does the same thing as one who kills him (as if he had killed him).

7. Adverbs of similar meaning sometimes take the Dative: Congruenter nátūrae convenierenterque vivere, C., Ægin., iii. 7, 36.

II. Internal Change.

Genitive.

360. 1. The Genitive Case is the Case of the Complement, and is akin to the Adjective, with which it is often parallel. It is the substantive form of the Specific Characteristic.

The chief English representatives of the Genitive are:

(a) The Possessive case: Domus régis, the king’s palace.
(b) The Objective case with of: Domus régis, the palace of the king.
(c) Substantives used as adjectives or in composition: Arbor abietis, fir-tree.

Remarks.—1. Other prepositions than of are not unfrequently used, especially with the Objective Genitive. (363, r. 1.)

Patriae quis exsil sé quoque fügit? II., O., i. 16, 19; what exile from his country ever fled himself as well? Boiörum triumphi spem collegae reliquit, L., xxxiii. 37, 10; he left the hope of a triumph over the Boii to his colleague.

Via mortis may be considered the way (mode) of death or the death-path, instead of via ad mortem (L., xliv. 4, 14).

2. An abstract substantive with the Gen. is often to be translated as an attribute:

Verni temporis suávitás, C., Cat. M., 19, 70; the sweet spring-time.

Fontium gelidae perennitátēs, C., N.D., ii. 39, 98; cool springs that never fail. Compare S., C., 8, 3.

And, on the other hand, the predicative attribute is often to be translated as an abstract substantive with of:

Ante Rómam conditam, before the founding of Rome. (325, r. 3.)

Notice also hic metus, this fear = fear of this, and kindred expressions: Quam similitúdinem = cāius rei similitúdinem, C., N.D., ii. 10, 27.

2. The Genitive is employed:

I. and II. Chiefly as the complement of Substantives and Adjectives.

III. Occasionally as the complement of Verbs.

Note.—As the Accusative forms a complex with the verb, so the Genitive forms a complex with the Substantive or equivalent. No logical distribution can be wholly satisfactory, and the following arrangement has regard to convenience.
1. GENITIVE WITH SUBSTANTIVES.

Adnominal Genitive.

361. The Genitive is sometimes used to specify the contents of generic words instead of Apposition in the same case: there are two varieties:

1. Appositional Genitive.—Genitive after such words as, vox, expression; nomen, name, noun: verbum, word, verb: res, thing, etc.

Nomen amicitiae, C., Fin., ii. 24, 78; the name friendship.

2. Epexegetical Genitive.—Genitive after such words as genus, class; vitium, vice; culpa, fault, etc.

[Virtutes] continentiae, gravitatis, iustitiae, fidei, C., Mur., ii. 23; the virtues of self-control, earnestness, justice, honor.

Notes.—1. The former variety is very rare in Cicero, the latter much more common. A special variety is the use of the Gen. after such words as urbs, oppidum, flumen, etc. This is not found in Plautus and Terence, occurs perhaps but once in Cicero, and seems to be confined to a few cases in poetry and later prose. Often personification is at work; thus, in fons Timavī (V., l. 1. 244), Timavus is a river god, and fons is not equal to Timavus. Cf. V., i., vtr. 72.

2. Examples like arbor abietis (L., xxiv. 3, 4), fir-tree; arbor fici (Cf. C., Flac., 17, 41), fig-tree, etc., occur only here and there.

3. Colloquial, and probably belonging here, are: scelus viri (Pl., M. G., 1434), a沈ourdrel of a man; flagitium hominis (Pl., Asin., 473), a scamp of a fellow, and the like. Quaedam pestes hominum, C., Fam., v. 8, 2; certain pestilent fellows.

Possessive Genitive, or Genitive of Property.

362. The Possessive Genitive is the substantive form of an adjective attribute with which it is often parallel; it is used only of the Third Person.

Domus regis = domus regia, the palace of the king, the king's palace = the royal palace.

Remarks.—1. The Possession in the First and Second Person (and in the Reflexive) is indicated by the Possessive Pronouns (until after Livy): amicus meus, a friend of mine; gladius tuus, a sword of thine. But when omnium is added, vestrum and nostrum are used; aris et focis omnium nostrum inimicus, C., Ph., xi. 4, 10. Sometimes the adjective form is preferred also in the Third Person: canis alienus, a strange dog, another man's dog: filius erilis, master's son.

2. The attention of the student is called to the variety of forms which possession may take. Statua Myronis, Myron's statue, may mean:
1. A statue which Myron owns; 2. Which Myron has made; 3. Which represents Myron.

3. Sometimes the governing word is omitted, where it can be easily
supplied, so especially aedēs or templum, after ad, and less often after other prepositions: Fecūnia utinam ad Opis maneret, C., Ph., 1. 7, 17; would that the money were still at Opis' (temples).

Notes.—1. The Family Genitive, as Hasdrubal Gisgōnis (L., xxviii., 12, 13), Gisgo's Hasdrubal, Hasdrubal, Gisgo's son (as it were, Hasdrubal O'Gisgo). Hectoris Andromachē (V., A., iii. 319), Hector's (wife) Andromache, is found twice only in Cicero, otherwise it is poetical and post-Ciceronian. Servos, however, is regularly omitted; Flaccus Claudi, Flaccus, Claudius' slave.

2. The Chorographic (geographic) Genitive is rare and post-Ciceronian: Rēx Chalcidem Euboeae vēnit, L., xxvii. 30, 7; the king came to Chalcis of (in) Euboea.

The Chorographic Genitive is not found with persons. Here an adjective or a prepositional phrase is necessary: Thalēs Mīlēnius, or ex Mīlētō, Thales of Miletus.

Active and Passive Genitive.

363. When the substantive on which the Genitive depends contains the idea of an action (nōmen āctīonis), the possession may be active or passive. Hence the division into

1. The Active or Subjective Genitive: amor Deī, the love of God, the love which God feels (God loves); patriae beneficia, the benefits of (conferred by) one's country (376, r. 2).

2. Passive or Objective Genitive: amor Deī, love of God, love toward God (God is loved).

Remarks.—1. The English form in of is used either actively or passively: the love of women. Hence, to avoid ambiguity, other prepositions than of are often substituted for the Passive Genitive, such as for, toward, and the like. So, also, sometimes in Latin, especially in Livy, and later Historians generally:

Voluntā Servīli ergā Caesarem, Cf. C., Q.F., iii. 1. 6, 26; the goodwill of Servilius toward Caesar. Odium in bonōs inveterātum, C., Val., 3. 6; deep-seated hate toward the conservatives.

2. Both Genitives may be connected with the same substantive:

Veterēs Helvetiōrum iniuriae populī Rōmānī, Cf. Caes., B.G., 1. 30, 2; the ancient injuries of the Roman people by the Helvetians.

Note.—The use of the Genitive with substantives whose corresponding verbs take other cases than the Accusative, gradually increases in Latin, beginning with the earliest times, but it is not very common in the classical language.

364. The Subjective Genitive, like the Possessive, is used only of the Third Person. In the First and Second Persons the possessive pronoun is used, thus showing the close relationship of Agent and Possessor.

Amor meus, my love (the love which I feel). Desiderium tuum, your longing (the longing which you feel).
Additional attributives are put in the Genitive (321, r. 2):

Iūrāvī hanc urbem meā unius operā salvam esse, C., Pis., 3. 6; I swore that this city owed its salvation to my exertions alone.

Remark.—Nostrum and vestrum are used as Partitive Genitives:

Māgna pars nostrum, a great part of us; uterque vestrum, either (both) of you.

Nostrī melior pars means the better part of our being, our better part. With omnium, the forms nostrum and vestrum must be used (362, r. 1).

Notes.—1. Occasionally, however, in Latin, as in English, the Gen. is used instead of the possessive pronoun; so Cicero says splendor vestrum (.l.t., vii. 13 a, 3), and consensūs vestrum (Ph., v. 1, 2), and one or two others; but other examples are very rare until after Tacitus, when the Singular forms, after the example of Ovid (J., 1. 30), become not uncommon. See 304, 3, n. 1. “For the life of me” = “for my life.”

2. On the other hand the Genitives of the personal pronouns are used regularly as the Objective Genitive:

Amor meī, love to me. Dēsiderium tui, longing for thee. Memoria nostri, memory of us (our memory).

Occasionally the possessive pronoun is used even here; see 304, 2, n. 2, and compare “The deep damnation of his taking off.”

Genitive of Quality.

365. The Genitive of Quality must always have an adjective or its equivalent.

Vir māgnae auctōritātīs, Caes., B. G., v. 35. 6; a man of great influence. Homō nihilī (= nullīs pretīi), Pl., B., 1188; a fellow of no account. Tridūi via, Caes., B. G., i. 38. 1; a three days’ journey. Nōn multī cibi hospitēm accipiēs, multī iōci, C., Fam., ix. 26. 4; you will receive a guest who is a small eater but a great joker.

Remarks.—1. The Genitive of Quality, like the adjective, is not used with a proper name. Exceptions are very rare in classical Latin (Caes., B. G., v. 35. 6, Quintus Lācānius, ēlusdem ērdinis). But later they are more common.

2. The Genitive of Quality is less common than the Ablative, being used chiefly of the essentials. The Genitive always of Number, Measure, Time, Space; the Ablative always of externals, so of parts of the body. Often the use seems indifferent. (400.)

Note.—The omission of the adjective is not found before Apuleius, in whom, as in English, a man of influence may be for a man of great influence.

Genitive as a Predicate.

366. The Genitives of Possession and Quality may be used as Predicates.

Hic versus Plauti nōn est, hic est, C., Fam., ix. 16. 4; this verse is not
by Plautus, this is. Omnia quae mulieris fuærant, virî fisæ dôtis nòmine, C., Top., iv. 23; everything that was the woman's becomes the husband's under the title of dowry. Virtûs tantârum vírîum est ut sè ipsa tueátur, C., Tusc., v. 1, 2; virtue is of such strength as to be her own protector.

Remarks.—1. The Possession appears in a variety of forms, and takes a variety of translations:

Hûius eró vívus, mortuus hûius crî, Prop., ii. 15, 35; hers I shall be, living; dead, hers I shall be. Nólæ senâtus Rômânórüm, plêbs Hânnîbalis erat, L., xxiii. 39, 7; at Nônu the senate was (on the side of) the Romans, the common folk (on) Hannibal's. Damnâtiô est iûdîcîm, poena légis, C., Sull., 22, 63; condemning is the judges' (business), punishment the law's. Est animi ingenui cui multum débeäs eidem plûrimum velle débère, C., Fam., ii. 6, 2; it shows the feeling of a gentleman to be willing to owe very much to him whom you already owe much. Pau-peris est numerâre pecûs, Ov., III. xiii. 523; 'tis only the poor man that counts his flock (tis the mark of a poor man to count the flock).

Observe the special variety, Genitus Auctôris: Is [Herculès] dice-bâtur esse Myrônìs, C., Verî., iv. 3, 5; that (statue of) Hercules was said to be Myron's (work), by Myron.

So also with facère, to make (cause to be), which is common in Livy especially:

Rômânae dicioinis facere, L., xxii. 60, 3; to bring under the Roman sway. Summum imperium in orbe terrârum Macedonum fêcerant, L., xlvi. 7, 3; the paramount authority of the world they had brought (into the hands) of the Macedonians.

2. For the personal representative of a quality, the quality itself may be used sometimes with but little difference, as: stultitiae est, it is the sort of folly; stultî est, it is the sort of a fool. So, too, stultum est, it is foolish. But when the adj. is of the Third Declension, the neuter should not be used, except in combination with an adj. of the Second.

Tempóri cèdère semper sapientis est habitum, C., Fam., iv. 9, 2; to yield to the pressure of the times has always been held wise. Pigrum et iners vidètur südère adquirere quod possis sanguine parāre, Tac., G., 14, 17; it is thought slow and spiritless to acquire by sweat what you can get by blood.

Some combinations become phraseological, as: cûsûtûdïnis, mórîs est (the latter post-classical), it is the custom.

3. The same methods of translation apply to the Possessive Pronoun in the Predicate ("Vengeance is mine"): meum est, it is my property, business, way.

Nõn est mentíri meum, Ter., Heaut., 549; lying is not my way (I do not lie). His tantis in rèbus est tuum vidère, quid agâtûr, C., Mur., 38, 83; in this important crisis it is your business to see what is to be done.
Partitive Genitive.

367. The Partitive Genitive stands for the Whole to which a Part belongs. It is therefore but an extension of the Possessive Genitive. It may be used with any word that involves partition, and has the following varieties (368–372):

368. The Partitive Genitive is used with substantives of Quantity, Number, Weight.

Máximus vini numerus fuit, permágnum pondus argenti, C., Ph., ii. 27. 66: there was a large amount of wine, an enormous mass of silver. In iügeró Leontíní agrí medímmus trítiçí serítur, C. Verr., iii. 47. 112: on a jüger of the Leontine territory a medimnus of wheat is sown. Campanórum álám, quíngentós féré equéités excéédere acíé iübet, L., n. 29. 2; he orders a squadron of Campanians, about 500 horsemen, to leave the line.

Remark.—This is sometimes called the Genitivus Generis. Whether the conception be partitive or not, depends on circumstances.

Medímmus trítiçí, a medímmus of wheat, may be a medímmus of wheat (Genitivus Generis) or a medímmus of wheat (Partitive).

Note.—The reversed construction is occasionally found. Sex diēs ad eam rem cónficiéndam spatii pöstulant, Caes., B.C., i. 3. 6, instead of spatium sex diērūm.

369. The Partitive Genitive is used with the Neuter Singular of the following and kindred words, but only in the Nominative or Accusative.

tantum, so much, quantum, as (how much), aliquantum, somewhat.

multum, much, plús, more, plúríimum, most.
paulum, little, minus, less, minimum, least.
satis, enough, parum, too little, nihil, nothing.
hóc, this, id, illud, istud, that, idem, the same.

quod and quid, which and what? with their compounds.

Quod in rébus honestis operae cúraeque pönétur, id iüre laudábitur, C., Off., i. 6. 19; what (of) effort and pains shall be bestowed on reputable deeds, will receive a just recompense of praise. Is locus ab omni turbá id temporis (336. n. 2) vacuus [erat], C., Fin., v. 1. 1: that place was at that (point of) time free from anything like a crowd. Satis eloquentiae, sapientiae parum, S., C., 5. 4; enough (of) eloquence, of wisdom too little.

Remarks.—1. Neuter adjectives of the Second Declension can be treated as substantives in the Gen.; not so adjectives of the Third, except in combination with adjectives of the Second, but here usually the Second Declension adjective is attracted: aliquid bonum, or boni, something good; aliquid memorábile, something memorable; aliquid boni
et memorabilis, something good and memorable (better aliquid bonum et memorabile).

Quid habet ista res aut laetabile aut gloriosum? C., Tusc., i. 21, 49 (204, n. 3).

2. A familiar phrase is: Nihil reliqui facere. 1. To leave nothing (not a thing). 2. (Occasionally), to leave nothing undone.

Notes.—1. The conception is often not so much partitive as characteristic. So Quodcumque hoc regni, V., A., i. 78; this realm, what (little) there is of it (what little realm I have). Perhaps, too, such combinations as flagitium hominis may be classed under this head. See 361, n. 3.

2. The partitive construction, with a preposition, is not found in Cicero or Caesar, but begins with Sallust:

Ad id loci, S., C., 45, 3; ad id locorum, S., Jug., 63, 6.

370. The Partitive Genitive is used with numerals, both general and special.

Special:

Centum militum, a hundred (of the) soldiers, a hundred (of) soldiers.

(Centum milités, a, the hundred soldiers.)

Quintus régum, the fifth (of the) king(s).

(Quintus rēx, the fifth king.)

General:

Multi militum, many of the soldiers, many soldiers.

(Multi milités, many soldiers.)

Remarks.—1. The English language commonly omits the partition, unless it is especially emphatic:

Multi civium adsunt, many citizens are present. Multi civēs adsunt, many are the citizens present.

2. When all are embraced, there is no partition in Latin:

(Nōs) trecentī coniūrāvimus, L., i. 12, 15; three hundred of us have bound ourselves by an oath. Volnera quae circūm plurima mūrōs accēpit patriōs, V., A., ii. 277; wounds which he received in great numbers before his country's walls.

Qui omnēs, all of whom. Quot estis? how many are (there of) you? So always quot, tot, totidem. Here the English language familiarly employs the partition. Exceptions are very rare.

3. On mille and milia, see 293. On prepositions with numerals, see 372, r. 2.

371. The Partitive Genitive is used with Pronouns.

Iī militum, those (of the) soldiers. Iī militēs, those soldiers.

Illi Graecōrum, those (of the) Greeks.

Fīdenātium qui supersunt, ad urbem Fīdenās tendunt, L., iv. 33, 10; the surviving Fidenates take their way to the city of Fidenae.
Remarks.—1. Uterque, either (both), is commonly used as an adjective with substantives: uterque consul, either consul = both consuls; as a substantive with pronouns, unless a substantive is also used: uterque hórum, both of these; but uterque ille dux. So, too, with relatives in the neuter, and with Plural forms of uterque, concord is the rule. Compare uterque nostrum, C., Sull., 4, 13, with utrique nōs, C., Fam., xi. 20, 3. See 292.

2. On the use of prepositions instead of the Genitive, see 372, r. 2.

Note.—The use of the relative with the Genitive is characteristic of Livy.

372. The Partitive Genitive is used with Comparatives and Superlatives:

Prior hórum in proeliió ceñcit, Nep., xxi. 1, 2; the former of these fell in an engagement. Indus est omnium flúminum máximus, C., V. D., ii. 52, 130 (211, r. 2).

Remarks.—1. When there are only two, the comparative exhausts the degrees of comparison (300).

2. Instead of the Partitive Genitive with Numerals, Pronouns, Comparatives, and Superlatives, the Abl. may be employed with ex, out of; dē, from (especially with proper names and singulars), in, among (rare), or the Acc. with inter, among, apud: Gallus pròvocat únus ex Rómanís, the Gaul challenges one of the Romans; únus dé multis, one of the many (the masses); Croesus inter régës opulentissimus, Croesus, wealthiest of kings. With únus, ex or dē is the more common construction, except that when únus is first in a series, the Gen. is common.

3. On the concord of the Superlative see 211, r. 2.

Notes.—1. The Partitive Genitive with positives is occasional in poetry; in prose it begins with Livy and becomes more common later.

Sequimur tē, sāncte déorum, V., A., iv. 576; we follow thee, holy deity. Canum dégenerés (caudam) sub alvom flectunt, Plin., V. H., xi., 50, 265; currish dogs curl the tail up under the belly.

2. Substantival neuters, with no idea of quantity, were rarely followed by the Gen. in early Latin. Cicero shows a few cases of Plurals of superlatives, and one case of a Plural of a comparative in this construction: in interiōra aedíum Sullaæ (Att. iv., 3, 3). Caesar shows one case of a positive: in occultis ac reconditis templi (B. C., iii. 105, 5). Sallust shows the first case of the Singular: in praerupti montis ex-tremō (Jug., 37, 4). Then the usage extends and becomes common, especially in Tacitus. In the poets it begins with Lucretius.

Ardua dum metuunt últimt vēra víāi (29, N. 2), Lucr., i. 660; the while they fear the steeper road, they miss the true.

So amāra cūrārum, II., O., iv. 12, 19; bitter elements of cares, bitter cares; strāta viārum, V., A., i. 422 = strātæ viæ, the paved streets.

3. The Partitive Genitive is also used with Adverbs of Quantity. Place, Extent: ar-mōrum adfатim, L., xxvii. 17, 7; abundance of arms; ubi terrārum, gentium? where in the world? (Very late Latin, tum temporis, at that time.) The usage with hūc, eō, as hūc, eō arrogantiae prócessit, he got to this, that pitch of presumption, is a colloquialism, which begins with Sallust, but is not found in Cicero or Caesar.
Notice especially the phrase: *quod (or quoad) eius (facere) possum, as far as I can do so*; C., Fam., iii. 2, 2; Att., xxi. 12, 4; Inv., ii., 6, 20.

4. The Partitive Genitive with proper names is rare, and mostly confined to Livy: Censorum Sulpicius in dextrō Poetelius in laëvō cornu consistunt, L., ix. 27, 8.

5. The Partitive Genitive as a Predicate is Greekish: *Fies nobilium tū quoque fontium, ii., O., iii., 13, 13; thou too shalt count among the famous fountains.*

**Genitive with Prepositional Substantives.**

373. Causā, grātiā, ergō, and instar are construed with the Genitive.

[Sophistae] quae estus causā philosophābantur, C., Ac., ii. 23, 72; the professors of wisdom dealt in philosophy for the sake of gain. Tū me amōris magis quam honōris servāvisti grātiā, Enn., F., 287 (n.); thou didst save me more for love's (sake) than (thou didst) for honor's sake. Virtūs ergō, C., Opt. Gen., 7, 19; on account of valor. Instar montis equus, V., A., ii, 15; a horse the bigness of a mountain. Platō mihi ānus instar est omnium, C., Br., 51, 191; Plato by himself is in my eyes worth them all.

Remarks.—1. Causā and grātiā, for the sake, commonly follow the Gen. in classical Latin and also in the Jurists. In Livy and later they often precede. Ergō, on account, belongs especially to early Latin, except in formulae and laws, and follows its Genitive. It is rare in the poets. Instar is probably a fossilized Infinitive (instantē), meaning "the equivalent," whether of size or value.

2. Except for special reasons causā takes the possessive pronoun in agreement, rather than the personal pronoun in the Genitive; more rarely grātiā:

Vestrā reique publicae causā, C., Verr., v. 68, 173; for your sake and that of the commonwealth. But in antithesis, multa quae nostri causā numquam facerēmus, facimus causā amicōrum! C., Lael., 16, 57 (disputed).

II. GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

374. Adjectives of Fulness, of Participation, and of Power, of Knowledge and Ignorance, of Desire and Disgust, take the Genitive.

3, 10 (204, n. 7). Čonscia mēns rēctī Fāmæ mendācia risit, Ov., F., iv. 311 (330, r.). Agricola laudat iūris lēgumque peritus, II., S., i. 1, 9; the husbandman’s lot is praised by the counsel learned in the law. Omnēs immemorem beneficiōō dērunt, C., Off., ii. 18, 63; all hate a man who has no memory for kindness. (Bēstiae) sunt ratioōnis et oratioōnis expertēs, C., Off., i. 16, 50; beasts are devoid of reason and speech (lack discourse of reason).

Omnia plēna cōnsiliōrum, inānia verbōrum vidēmus, C., Or., i. 9, 37: we see a world that is full of wise measures, void of eloquence. Gallia frūgum fertilis fuit, L., v. 34, 2; Gaul was productive of grain.

Notes.—1. Of adjectives of Fullness, with the Gen., only plēnus, replētus, inops, and inānis are classical and common; single instances are found of liberālis, profūsus, in Sallust (C., 7, 6: 5, 4), and iēūnus occurs once in Cicero. Plautus also uses onustus and prōdigus. Poets and later prose writers are free. Plēnus occurs very rarely with the Abl. in Cicero and Caesar, more often in Livy. Refertus is used by Cicero usually with the Abl. of the Thing and with the Gen. of the Person.

2. Participation: Classical are particeps, experts, cōnsors, with some adjectives expressing guilt, as manifestōs (archaic), affinis, reus. Of these particeps takes also the Dat. in post-classical Latin, and experts has also the Abl. (not classical) from Plautus on. (See S., C., 33, 1.) Affinis has the Dat. in Livy, in local sense also in Cicero; reus takes Abl. or dē.

3. Power: Compos alone is classical, and is occasionally found with Abl. in Sallust, Vergil, Livy. Potēns is found in Plautus, the poets, and post-classical prose; impos in Plautus, and then not until Seneca.

4. Knowledge and Ignorance: Classical are some eighteen. Of these peritus has also Abl., and rarely ad; insuetus takes also Dat. as well as dē; prūdēns has also ad; rudis has Abl. with in more often than the Gen. in Cicero, but also ad. Anticlassical Latin shows a few more adjectives.

5. Desire and Disgust: Classical are avidus, cupidus, fāstīdiōsus, studīōsus. Of these avidus has also in with Acc. and with Abl.; studīōsus has Dat. in Plautus (M.G., 80); single examples are cited with ad and in. Fāstīdiōsus occurs but once in Cicero (see above); see II., O., iii. 1, 37.

6. In later Latin and in the poets almost all adjectives that denote an affection of the mind take a Gen. of the Thing to which the affection refers, where model prose requires the Abl. or a preposition: cōnsili ambuguus, Tac., ii., iv. 21; doubtfull of purpose.

Ingrātus salūtis, V., i., x. 665.

The analogy of these adjectives is followed by others, so that the Gen. becomes a complement to the adjective, just as it is to the corresponding substantive.

Integer vitae, II., O., i. 22, 1; spotless of life; like integritās vitae. (Compare fāmā et fortūnās integer, S., II., i. 41, 5 D; in fame and fortunes intact.)

7. The seat of the feeling is also put in the Gen., chiefly with animi and ingenii (which were probably Locatives originally). Aeger animi, L., i. 58, 9; sick at heart, heartsick. Audāx ingenii, Stat., s., iii. 2, 64; daring of disposition. The Pl. is animis.

8. The Gen. with adjectives involving Separation instead of the Abl. (330, 3) begins with the Augustan poets; though Sallust shows nūdus and vacuus (Ing., 79, 6; 99, 1); liber labūrum, II., A.P., 212.

9. Classical Latin uses certus with Gen. only in the phrase certīōrem facere, to inform, which has also dē (always in Caes.).

10. Dignus, worthy, and indignus, unworthy, with Gen. are poetical and rare.

11. On aliēnus, strange, see 359, n. 2. On aquālis, commānīs, cōnsicius, contrārius, pār, proprius, similis, superstes, and the like, see 359, n. 1.
Genitive with Verbals.

375. Some Present Participles take the Genitive when they lose their verbal nature; and so occasionally do verbals in -āx in poetry and later prose.

(EPAMINONDAS) erat adeō vēritātis diligēns ut nē iocō quidem mentirētur, NEP., XV. 3, 1; Epaminondas was so careful (such a lover) of the truth as not to tell lies even in jest. Omnia consēnsū capāx imperiī nisi imperāset, TAC., II. 1. 49; by general consent capable of empire, had he not become emperor.

Notes.—1. The participle is transient; the adjective permanent. The simple test is the substitution of the relative and the verb: amāns (participle), loving (who is loving); amāns (adjective), fond, (substantive), lover; patiens (participle), bearing (who is bearing); patiens (adjective), enduring, (substantive), a sufferer.

2. Ante-classical Latin shows only amāns, cupiēns, concupiēns, fugitāns, gerēns, persequēns, sciēns, temperāns. Cicero carries the usage very far, and it is characteristic of his style. Caesar, on the other hand, has very few cases (B.C., I. 69, 3).

Cicero also shows the first case of a Gen. after a compared participle. Sumus nātūrā appetentissimi honestātis, C., Tusc., II. 24, 58. These participles can also revert to the verbal constructions.

3. Of verbals with the Gen., Plautus shows one example: mendāx (Asin., 855); Cicero perhaps one: rapāx (Lael., 14, 50). The usage in later Latin and the poets is confined at most to about one dozen verbals.

III. GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

Genitive with Verbs of Memory.

376. Verbs of Reminding, Remembering, and Forgetting, take the Genitive.

Tē veteris amicitiae commonefecit, [C.] ad Her., IV. 24, 33; he reminded you of your old friendship. Est proprium stultitia aliōrum vitia cernere, oblivisci suōrum, C., Tusc., III. 30, 73; the fact is, it shows a fool to have keen eyes for the fault of others, to forget one’s own. Ipse iubet mortis tē meminisse deus, Mart., II. 59; a god himself bids you remember death.

Remarks.—1. Verbs of Reminding take more often the Abl. with de (so regularly in Cicero), and the Acc. neut. of a pronoun or Numerical adjective. Tacitus alone uses monēre with the Gen. (Ann., I. 67, 1).

Orō ut Terentiam moneātis dē testamentō, C., Att., XI. 16, 5: I beg you to put Terentia in mind of the will. Discipulōs id ūnum moneō, QUINT., XI. 9, 1 (333, 1).

2. Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting also take the Acc., especially of Things:
Haec ēlim meminisse iuvābit, V., A., i. 203; to remember these things one day will give us pleasure. Qui sunt boni civēs, nisi qui patrīae beneficia memorārunt? C., Planc., 33, 80; who are good citizens except those who remember the benefits conferred by their country? Obliviscī nihil solēs nisi iniūrīs, C., Liy., 12, 35; you are wont to forget nothing except injuries.

Recordor (literally = I bring to heart, to mind) is construed with the Acc. of the Thing, except in three passages from Cicero; dē is found with Persons.

Et vōcem Anchīsae māgni voltumque recordor, V., A., viii. 156; and I recall (call to mind) the voice and countenance of Anchises the Great.

Meminī, I bear in mind, I (am old enough to) remember, takes the Accusative:

[Antipatrum] tū probē meministi, C., Or., iii. 50, 194; you remember Antipater very well.

3. Venit mihi in mentem, it comes into (up to) my mind, may be construed impersonally with the Gen., or personally with a subject; the latter by Cicero only when the subject is a neuter pronoun.

Venit mihi Platonis in mentem, C., Fin., v. 1, 2; Plato rises before my mind’s eye.

Genitive with Verbs of Emotion.

377. Misereor, I pity, takes the Genitive, and miseret, it moves to pity, paenitet, it repents, piget, it irks, pudet, it makes ashamed, taedet and pertaesum est, it tires, take the Accusative of the Person Who Feels, and the Genitive of the Exciting Cause.

Miserēminī sociōrum, C., Verr., i. 23, 72; pity your allies! Suae quemque fortūnæ paenitet, C., Fam., vi. 1, 1; each man is discontented with his lot. Mē nōn sōlum piget stultitiae meae, sed etiam pudet, C., Dom., i. 29; I am not only fretted at my folly, but actually ashamed of it.

Remarks.—1. Pudet is also used with the Gen. of the Person whose Presence excites the shame:

Pudet deōrum hominumque, L., iii. 19, 7; it is a shame in the sight of gods and men.

2. These Impersonals can also have a subject, chiefly a Demonstrative or Relative pronoun: Nōn tē haec pudent? Ter., Ad., 754; do not these things put you to the blush?

3. Other constructions follow from general rules. So the Inf. (422) and quod (542).

Nōn mē vixisse paenitet, C., Cat. M., 23, 84 (540). Quintum paenitet quod animum tuum offendit, Cf. C., Att., xi. 13, 2; Quintus is sorry that he has wounded your feelings.
Notes. — 1. With the same construction are found misereō (early Latin), misereścō (poetical), dispenset (early Latin), distaedet (early Latin), vereor (mostly in early Latin), and a few others.

2. Miserāri and commiserāri, to pity, commiserate, take Acc. until very late Latin.

Genitive with Judicial Verbs.

The Genitive with Judicial Verbs belongs to the same category as the Genitive with Verbs of Rating, both being extensions of the Genitive of Quality.

378. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Condemning, and Acquitting take the Genitive of the Charge.

(Militiades) accusātus est prōditiōnis, Nep., 1. 7, 5: Militiades was accused of treason. [Fannius] C. Verrems insinulat avāritiae, C., Verr., 1. 49, 128: Fannius charges Cains Verves with avarice. Videō nōn tē absolutum esse improbitātis sed illōs damnātōs esse caedis, C., Verr., 1. 28, 72: I see not that you are acquitted of dishonor, but that they are convicted of murder.

Remarks. — 1. Judicial Verbs include a number of expressions and usages. So capi, tenēri, déprehendi, sē adstringere, sē adligāre, sē obligāre (ante-classical), and others, mean to be found guilty; increpāre, increpitāre, urgēre, déferre, arguere, etc., mean charge.

So also kindred expressions: reum facere, (to make a party) to indict, to bring an action against; nōmen déferre dé, to bring an action against; sacrilegii compertum esse, to be found (guilty) of sacrilege.

2. For the Gen. of the Charge may be substituted nōmine or crimine with the Gen., or the Abl. with dé: nōmine (crimine) coniurātiōnis damnāre, to find guilty of conspiracy; accusāre dé vi, of violence (Gen. vis rare); dé venēficiō, of poisoning: dé rébus repetundis, of extortion. Pōstulāre always has dé in Cicero. We find sometimes in with Abl.; convictus in crimine, on the charge: or. inter: inter sīcāriōs damnātus est, convicted of homicide (C., Cluent., 7, 21: Cf. Ph., II, 4, 8).

3. Verbs of Condemning and Acquitting take the Abl. as well as the Gen. of the Charge and the Punishment, and always the Abl. of the definite Fine; the indefinite Fine. quantī, dupli, quadrupli, etc., is in the Genitive.

Accusāre capitis, or capite, to bring a capital charge. Damnāre capitis, or capite, to condemn to death. Damnāri decem milibus, to be fined ten thousand.

Multāre, to mutel, is always construed with the Ablative: Multāre pecūniā, to mutel in (of) money.

Manlius virtūtem filii morte multāvit, Quint., v. 11, 7: Manlius punished the valor of his son with death.

4. Destination and Enforced Labor are expressed by ad or in, but all examples are post-classical: damnāri ad bēstīas, to be condemned (to be
thrown) to wild beasts; ad (in) metalla, to the mines; ad (in) opus púb-
licum, to hard labor. Vötī damnāri, to be bound to fulfil a vow, is
Livian (except Nēr., xx. 5, 3, where it has a different sense).

5. Verbs of Accusing may have also the Acc. of the Thing and the
Gen. of the Person: inertiam accūsās adulēscentium, C., Or., i. 58, 246.

Genitive with Verbs of Rating and Buying.

379. Verbs of Rating and Buying are construed with the
Genitive of the general value or cost, and the Ablative of the
particular value or cost. (404.)

Verbs of Rating are: aestimāre, existimāre (rare), to value; putāre,
to reckon; dūcere (rare in Cicero), to take; habēre, to hold; pendere
(mostly in Comedy), to weigh; facere, to make, put; esse, to be (worth);
fierī, to be considered.

Verbs of Buying are: emere, to buy; vēndere, to sell; vēnire, to be
for sale; stāre and cōnstāre, to cost, to come to; prōstāre, licēre, to be
exposed, left (for sale); condūcere, to hire; locāre, to let.

380. i. Verbs of Rating take:

Māgni, much, plūris, more, plūrimi, māximī, most,
Parvi, little, minōris, less, minimī, least,
Tantī, tantidem, so quantī (and compounds), nihili, naught.

much, how much,

Equivalents of nihili, nothing, are floccī, a lock of wool, naucī, a trifle,
assīs, a copper, pīli (both in Catullus, mainly), and the like, and so also
hūius, that (a snap of the finger), all usually with the negative.

Dum nē ob malefacta, peream; parvī existumō, Pr., Capt., 682; so
long as it be not for misdeeds, let me die; little do I care. |Voluptātem|
virtūs minimī facit, C., Fin., ii. 13, 42: virtue makes very little account
of the pleasure of the senses. |Sācīs| rem públicam floccī nōn faciunt,
Cf. C., Att., iv. 15, 4; the judges do not care a fig for the State. Nōn
habeō naucī Marsum augurem, C., Div., i. 58, 132; I do not value a
Marsian augur a baneec.

Remark.—Tantī is often used in the sense of operaē pretium est = it
is worth while.

Est mihi tantī hūius invidiae tempestātem subire, C., Cat., ii. 7, 15; it
is worth while (the cost), in my eyes, to bear this storm of odium.

Notes.—1. Aestimō is found with the Abl. as well as with the Genitive. So
aestimāre māgnō and māgni, to value highly. Cicero prefers the Ablative.

2. Observe the phrases: bonī (aequi bonique) faciō (a colloquialism), bonī cō-
sulō (an old formula), I put up with, take in good part. Nōn pēnsī habēre (dūcere),
to consider not worth the while, is post-Augustan and rare.
2. Verbs of Buying take tanti, quanti, plūris, and minōris, The rest are put in the Ablative.

Vēndō meum (frumentum) nōn plūris quam cēterī, fortasse etiam minōris, C., Off., iii. 12, 51; I sell my corn not dearer than everybody else, perhaps even cheaper. Magis illa iuvant quae plūris emuntur, Juv., xi. 16; things give more pleasure which are bought for more. Emit (Canius hor-tōs) tanti quanti Pythius voluit, C., Off., iii. 14, 59; Cantius bought the gardens at the price Pythius wanted.

Quanti cēnās? What do you give for your dinner?
Quanti habitās? What is the rent of your lodgings?
But:
Parvō famēs cōnstat, māgnō fāstidium, Sen., E.M., 17, 4; hunger costs little, daintiness much.

An instructive shift:
Emit? periī herele: quanti?—Vigintī minis, Ter., Eun., 984; he bought her? I’m undone. For how much?—Twenty minae.

Remark.—Bene emere, to buy cheap; bene vēndere, to sell dear: male emere, to buy dear; male vēndere, to sell cheap. So, too, other adverbs: melius, optīmē, pēius, pessimē.

Genitive with Interest and Rēfert.

381. Interest and Rēfert take a Genitive of the Person, seldom of the Thing, concerned.

Interest omnium rēctē facere, C., Fin., ii. 22, 72; it is to the interest of all to do right. Rēfert compositionis quae quibus antepōnās, Quint., ix. 4, 44; it is of importance for the arrangement of words, which you put before which.

Instead of the Genitive of the personal pronouns, the Ablative Singular feminine of the possessives is employed.

Meā interest, meā rēfert, I am concerned.

Notes.—1. Rēfert is commonly used absolutely, occasionally with meā, etc., seldom with the Gen., in the classical language.
2. Instead of Appositive use the Relative:
Vehe meter intererat vestrā, qui patrēs estis, liberōs vestrōs hic potissi-
mum discere, Plīn., Ep., iv. 13, 1; it were vastly to the interest of you parents, that your children, if possible, were taught at home.
3. The Nom. as a subject is rare, except in Pliny’s Natural History:
Ūsque adeō māgnī rēfert studium atque voluptās, Lchr., iv. 984.
Occasionally the Nom. of a neuter pronoun is found:
Quid (Acc.) tua id (Nom.) rēfert? Ter., Ph., 723; what business is that of yours?
4. Rēfert is the more ancient, and is employed by the poets (interest is excluded from Daectylic poetry by its ordinary forms) to the end of the classical period. Interest is peculiar to prose, employed exclusively by Cæsar, and preferred by Cicero when a complement is added.
5. No satisfactory explanation has been given of this construction. One view is that meā réfert was originally [ex] meā ré fert (like ex meā ré est), it is to my advantage, and that the ex was lost. Interest having much the same force, but being later in development, took the constructions of réfert by false analogy. The Gen. would be but parallel to the possessive.

382. 1. The Degree of Concern is expressed by an Adverb, Adverbial Accusative, or a Genitive of Value.

Id meā minumē réfert, Ter., Ad., 881; that makes no difference at all to me. Theodōri nihil interest, C., Tusc., i. 43. 102; It is no concern of Theodorus. Māgni interest meā ūnā nōs esse, C., Alt., xiii. 4; it is of great importance to me that we be together.

2. The Object of Concern is commonly put in the Infinitive, Accusative and Infinitive, ut or né with the Subjunctive, or an Interrogative Sentence.

Quid Milōnis intererat interfici Clōdium? C., Mil., 13. 34; what interest had Mito in Clodius' being killed? [Caesar dicere solēbat] nōn tam suā quam reī publicae interesse utī salvus esset, Suet., Iul., 86; Caesar used to say that it was not of so much importance to him(self) as to the State that his life should be spared. Vestrā interest nē imperātōrem pessimi faciant, Tac., H., i. 30; it is to your interest that the dregs of creation do not make the emperor. Quid réfert tālēs versūs quā voce legantur? Juv., xi. 182; what matters it what voice such verses are recited with?

3. The Thing Involved is put in the Accusative with ad:

Māgni ad honōrem nostrum interest quam prīmum mē ad urbem venire, C., Fam., xvi. 1, 1; it makes a great difference touching our honor that I should come to the city as soon as possible.

Occasional Uses.

383. 1. The Genitive is found occasionally with certain Verbs of Fulness: in classical Latin principally implēre, complēre, egēre, indigēre.

Pīsō multōs cōdictēs implēvit eārum rērum, C., Verr. 1. 46, 119; Piso filled many books full of those things. Virtūs plūrimae commentātiōnis et exercitātiōnis indiget, Cf. C., Fin. iii. 15, 50; virtue stands in need of much (very much) study and practice.

Notes.—1. Classical Latin shows in all cases the Abl. much more frequently than the Gen., except in the case of indigēre, where Cicero prefers the Genitive. Livy likewise prefers the Gen. with implēre.

2. Ante-classical and poetic are explēre (Verg.), abundāre (Luc.), scatēre (Lucr.), saturāre (Plaut.), obsaturāre (Ter.), carēre (Ter.). Carēre and egēre have the Acc. occasionally in early Latin.

3. Other Grecisms are labōrum dēcipitur, H., O., ii. 13, 38 (reading doubtful).
Regnavit populorum, H., O., III. 30, 12. Also mirari with Gen. in Vergil (A., XL 126). Noteworthy is the occasional use of credere with Gen. in Plautus; so once falli.

2. A Genitive of Separation, after the analogy of the Greek, is found in a few cases in the poets.

Ut me omnium iam laborum levas, Pl., Rud. 247; how you relieve me at last of all my toils and troubles. Desine mollium tandem querellarum, H., O., II. 9, 17; cease at last from womanish complainings.

3. The Genitive in Exclamations occurs in a very few instances in the poets. Cat., IX. 5; Prop., IV. (V.) 7, 21; compare Pl., Most., 912; Lucan, II. 45.

On the Genitive after comparatives, see 296, n. 2.

ABLATIVE.

384. The Ablative is the Adverbial, as the Genitive is the Adjective case. It contains three elements:

A. Where? B. Whence? C. Wherewith?

In a literal sense, the Ablative is commonly used with prepositions; in a figurative sense, it is commonly used without prepositions.

A. The Ablative of the Place Where appears in a figurative sense as the Ablative of the Time When.
B. The Ablative of the Place Whence appears as:
C. The Ablative of the Thing Wherewith appears in a figurative sense, as:

Remark.—It is impossible to draw the line of demarcation with absolute exactness. So the Ablative of Cause may be derived from any of the three fundamental significations of the case, which is evidently a composite one.

To these we add:

I. The Literal Meanings of the Ablative.

A. ABLATIVE OF THE PLACE WHERE.

Ablativus Localis.

385. The Ablative answers the question Where? and takes as a rule the preposition in.

In portu navigo, Ter., And., 480; I am sailing in harbor. Pons in Hibero prope effectus (erat), Caes., B.C., 1. 62, 3; the bridge over the
Ebro was nearly finished. Histriō in scena [est], Pl., Poen., 20; the actor is on the stage. Haeret in equō senex, C. C., Dei., 10, 28; the old man sticks to his horse.

Remarks.—1. Verbs of Placing and kindred significations take the Abl. with in, to designate the result of the motion: classical are pōnere, to place, and compounds; locāre, collocāre, to put; statuere, constitüere, to set; cōnsidere, to settle; défigere, to plant; démērgere, to plunge; imprimere, to press upon; insculpere, to engrave (figurative); inscribere, to write upon; incidere, to carve upon; inclūdere, to shut into.

Platō ratiōnem in capite posuit. Īram in pectore locāvit, C., Tusc., 1. 10, 20; Plato has put reason in the head, has placed anger in the breast. (Lucrētia) cultrum in corde dēfigit, L., 1. 58. 11: Lucrētia plants a knife in (thrusts a knife down into) her heart. Philosophē in īs libros ipsis quōs scribunt dē contemnēdā glōriā sua nōmina inscribunt, C., Tusc., 1. 15. 34: philosophers write their own names on (the titles of) the very books which they write about contempt of glory. (Foedus) in columnā aēnēa incisum, C., Balb., 23, 53; a treaty cut upon a brazen column.

The same observation applies to sub:

Pōnē sub currū nīmium propinquī sōlis in terrā domibus negātā, II., O., 1. 22. 21; put (me) under the chariot of the all-too neighboring sun, in a land denied to dwellings.

2. Verbs of Hanging and Fastening take ex, ab, or dē.

Cui spēs omnis pendet ex fortūnā, huic nihil potest esse certi, C., Par., II. 17: to him who has all his hopes suspended on fortune, nothing can be certain.

3. Here and there in is often rendered by per: C., Fam., I. 7, 6, per prōvinciās, here and there in the provinces; V., A., III. 236.

Notes.—1. In classical prose the use of the Abl. without in is confined to a few words, mostly phrasologically. So terrā, on land; mari, by sea; usually in the phrase terrā marique (rarely in the reversed order), on land and sea. In terrā is more common otherwise than terrā. Locō and locis, especially when used with adjectives, usually omit in. The same is true of parte and partibus; so regularly dextrā (parte), sinistrā, laevā, etc., on the right, on the left. Livy uses regiō like locus. The tendency, however, is observable as early as Cicero's time to omit the in when an adjective is employed, even in words other than those given above; this tendency becomes more marked in Livy and is very strong in later Latin. The poets are free. Regard must always be had to 389.

2. The Acc. with in after verbs of Placing is very rare in classical prose. In early Latin it is more common; so with pōnere, impōnere, collocāre. The examples with Acc. in classical Latin are principally with compounds of pōnere, as impōnere (usually), repōnere, expōnere. Collocāre with in and Acc. in Caes., B.G., 1. 18, 7, is not in a local sense. Sometimes the Dat. is found with impōnere.

3. With a verb of Rest the motion antecedent to the rest is often emphasized by constructing the verb with in and the Acc. instead of with in and the Abl. This occurs most often with esse and habēre, and seems to have been colloquial, as it is very rare in classical prose.

Numerō mihī in mentem fuit dis advenientem grātiās agere, Pl., Am., 180.

386. Names of Towns in the Singular of the Third Declension, and in the Plural of all Declensions, take the Ablative of Place Where without in.

Ut Rōmae cōnsulēs sic Carthāgīne quotannis bīnī rēgēs creābantur, Nep., xxiii. 7, 4; as at Rome (two) consuls, so in Carthage two kings, were created yearly. Tālis (Rōmae Fabricius), quālis Aristidēs Athēnis, gis, C., Off., iii. 22, 87; Fabricius was just such a man at Rome as Aristides was at Athens.

Remarks.—1. Appositions are put in the Abl. commonly with in; when the appositive has an attribute, the proper name regularly precedes: Neāpoli, in celeberrimō oppidō, C., Rab. Post., 10, 26; at Naples, a populous town.

2. In the neighborhood of, at. is ad with Acc., especially of military operations: pūgna ad Cannās (better Cannēnsis), the battle at Cannae; pōns ad Genāvam, Caes., B. G., 1. 7; the bridge at Geneva.

Note.—The Abl. in names of Towns of the Second Declension is found once in Cae- sar (B. C., iii. 35, but the reading is questioned): more often in Vitruvius and later Latin, but in Greek words only. Apparent exceptions in Caesar and Cicero are to be referred to the Abl. of Separation. The poets, however, are free.

387. In citations from Books and in Enumerations, the Ablative of the Place Where is used without in.

Librō tertīō, third book; versū decimō, tenth verse; aliō locō, elsewhere. But in is necessary when a passage in a book and not the whole book is meant: Agricultūrā laudātur in eō librō qui est dē tuendā rē familiāri, C., Cat. M., 17, 59; agriculture is praised in the work on domestic economy.

388. In designations of Place, with tōtus, cūncntus, whole; omnis, all; medius, middle, the Ablative of the Place Where is generally used without in.

Menippus, meō iūdiciō, tōtā Asiā disertissimus, C., Br., 91, 315; Menippus, in my judgment, the most eloquent man in all Asia (Minor). Battiadēs semper tōtō cantābitur orbe, Ov., Am., 1. 15, 13; Battiales (Callimachus) will always be sung throughout the world.

Remark.—In is not excluded when the idea is throughout, in which case per also may be used. Negō in Siciliā tōtā (throughout the whole of Sicily) āllum argenteum vās fuisse, etc., C., Verr., iv. 1, 1.

389. In all such designations of Place as may be regarded in the light of Cause, Manner, or Instrument, the Ablative is used without a preposition,
Ut terrā Thermopylārum angustiae Graeciam, ita marī fretum Euripī claudit, L., xxi. 23, 12; as the pass of Thermopyle barriers Greece by land, so the strait of Euripus by sea. Ariovistus exercitum castris continuuit, Caes., B.G., i. 48, 4; Ariovistus kept his army within the camp. Egressus est non viis sed trāmitibus, C., Ph., xiii. 9, 19; he went out not by high roads but by cross-cuts. Nēmō āre quemquam públicā prohibet viā, Pl., Curc., 35: no man forbiddest (any one to) travel by the public road. Mātris cinerēs Rōmam Tiberī subvectī sunt, Cf. Suet., Cal., 15; his mother's ashes were brought up to Rome by the Tiber.

So recipere aliquem tēctō, oppidō, portā, to receive a man into one's house, town, harbor; where, however, the Acc. with in is not excluded: recipē me in tectum. Pl., R., 574.

B. ABLATIVE OF THE PLACE WHENCE.

Ablātūvs Sēparātīvus.

390. 1. The Ablative answers the question Whence? and takes as a rule the prepositions ex, out of, dē, from, ab, off.

(Eum) exturbāstī ex aedibus? Pl., Trin., 137; did you hustle him out of the house? Arānēās dēciām dē pariete, Pl., St., 355; I will get the cobwebs down from the wall. Alcibiadem Athēniēnsēs ē civitāte expulē-runt, Cf. Nep., vii. 6, 2; the Athenians banished Alcibiades from the state. Dēcēdit ex Galliā Rōmam Naevius, C., Quinct., 4, 16; Naevius withdrew from Gaul to Rome. Unde dēiēcisti sive ex quō locō, sive ā quō locō (whether out of or from which place), eō restituēs, C., Caec., 30, 88.

2. The prepositions are often omitted with Verbs of Abstaining, Removing, Relieving, and Excluding; so regularly with domō, from home, rūre, from the country.

With Persons a preposition (chiefly ab) must be used.

(Verēs) omnia domō ēius abstulit, C., Verr., ii. 34, 83; Verres took everything away from his house. Ego, cum Tullius rūre redierit, mittam eum ad tē, C., Fin., v. 20, 9; when Tullius returns from the country, I will send him to you.

Compare Aliēnō manum abstinēnt, Cato, Agr., 5, 1; let them keep their hand(s) from other people's property, with [Alexander] vix ā sē manūs abstīnit, C., Tusc., iv. 37, 79; Alexander hardly kept (could hardly keep) his hands from himself (from laying hands on himself).

Compare Lapidibus optimōs vimōs forō pellī, C., Har. Res., 18, 39; you drive men of the best classes from the forum with stones, with Istum aemulum ab eā pellitō, Ter., Erin., 215; drive that rival from her.

Compare Omnium rērum nātūrā cognītā liberāmur mortis metū, C., Fin., i. 19, 63; by the knowledge of universal nature we get rid of the
fear of death, with Te ab eō liberō, C., Q. F., iii. i. 3, 9; I rid you of him.

Compare Amicitia nullō locō exclūditur, C., Lael., 6, 22; friendship is shut out from no place, with Ab illā exclūdor, hoc conclusōr, Cf. Ter., And., 386; I am shut out from her (and) shut up here (to live with her).

Notes.—1. In classical Latin the preposition is usually employed in local relations, and omitted in metaphorical relations; though there are some exceptions.

2. It is to be noted that in the vast majority of cases the separation is indicated by a verb; hence this Abl. is found commonly with verbs compounded with prepositions. Thus, classical Latin shows but few simple verbs with the Abl., as follows: movēre, chiefly in general or technical combinations: movēre locō, senātū, tribū (Caesar, however, has no case); pellere, in technical language with civitātem, domō, forō, patriā, possessiōnibus, suīs sēdibus; cēdere is found with patriā, vitā, memorā, possessione, Itāliā; cadere, technical with causā; solvere with lēge (lēgibus), religione, etc., somnō; levāre and liberāre are found chiefly in metaphorical combinations, and especially in Cicero: arcēre has peculiarly ab with metaphorical, Abl. with local forces. In the case of most of these verbs, the preposition with the Abl. is also found.

3. Of compound verbs with the Abl., Cicero shows only sē abdicāre (principally technical), abesse (rarely), abhorrēre (once); abire (in technical usage = sē abdicāre), abrumpere (once), absolvere, abstinēre (intrns. without, transit. more often with preposition), dēicere (with aedilitāte, etc.), dēmovēre (once), dépellere, dēsisterē, dēturbaē; ēdūcere (rare); efferre (rare); ēgredi; ēicere; ēlābi (rare); emīttere (Caes.); ēripere (rare; usually Dat.); ēvertere; excēdere; excūdēre; exīre (rare); expellere; exsolvere; existēre (rare); exturbaē; intercēdēre; interdicere (alicui aliquā rē; also alicui aliquid); praeceptāre (Caes.); prohibēre; supersedēre.

Early Latin shows a few more verbs with this construction. The poets are free with the Abl., and also later prose writers, beginning with Livy.

4. Humō, from the ground, begins with Vergil. The preposition ā is found occasionally with domō; necessarily with a word (adjective or adverb) involving measurement, as; longinquē, longē, procūl.

5. Compounds with di (dis) also take the Dative (in poetry):

Paulum sepultae distat inertiae eulātā virtūs, II., O., IV, 9, 20; little doth hidden worth differ from buried sloth.

6. The Place Whence gives the Point of View from which. In English a different translation is often given, though not always necessarily: ā tergō, in the rear; ex parte dextrā, on the right side; ab oriente, on the east; ā tantō spatiō, at such a distance; ex fugā, on the flight; ā rē frumentāriā laborāre, to be embarrassed in the matter of provisions.

3. The prepositions are also omitted with kindred Adjectives.

Animus excelsus omnī est liber curā, C., Fin., i. 15, 49; a lofty mind is free from all care. (Catō) omnibus hūmānis vitīs immūnis, semper fortūnam in suā potestate habuit, Vell., ii. 35, 2; Cato, exempt from all human failings, always had fortune in his own power. Jugurtha (Adherbalum) extorrem patriā effecit, S., Ing., 14, 11; Jugurtha rendered Adherbal an exile from his country. Utrumque (fraus et vis) homine aliēnissimum, C., Off., i, 13, 41.
Notes.—1. The preposition is more usual in most cases, Pūrus and immūnis, with simple Abl., are poetical and post-Augustan. Expers, with Abl. instead of with Gen., belongs to early Latin and Sallust. Recēns, fresh from, with Abl., belongs to Tacitus.

2. Procul, far from, regularly takes the preposition ab, except in the poets and later prose.

3. The Abl. of the Supine is early and late, as Cato, Agr., 5; Vilicus prīmus cubītū surgat, postrēmus cubītum eat. See 436, n. 4.

391. Names of Towns and Small Islands are put in the Ablative of the Place Whence.

Dēmarātus fūgit Tarquinīōs Corinthō, C., Tus., v. 37. 109; Demaratus fled to Tarquiniī from Corinth. Dolābella Dēlō proficiscitur, C., Verr., i. 18, 46; Dolabella sets out from Delos.

Remarks.—1. The prepositions ab (ā) and ex (ē) are sometimes used for the sake of greater exactness, but rarely in model prose. So regularly ab with the Place from which distance is measured:


When the substantives urbe, cīty, and oppidō, town, are employed, the use of the preposition is the rule, as also when not the town, but the neighborhood is intended; also always with longē. When the Appositive has an attribute the proper name regularly precedes.

Aulide, ex oppidō Boeōtiae, from Aulis, a town of Boeotia. Ex Apollōnīā Pontī urbe, from Apollonia, a city of Pontus. Ex oppidō Gergoviā, Caes., B.G., vii. 4, 2; from the town of Gergovia.

Early Latin is free in the use of prepositions; and also from Livy on the usage seems to increase.

2. The Place Whence embraces all the local designations:

Agrigentō ex Aesculapīī fānō whereas we should say, from the temple of Aesculapius at Agrigentum. Unde domō? V., i., viii. 114; from what home?

3. Letters are dated from rather than at a place.

Note.—Names of countries are but rarely used in the Ablative. Cicero, Sallust, and Livy show no instance, Caesar only one (B.G., iii. 58. 1). Occasional examples are found in early Latin and in old inscriptions; then in later historians, beginning with Velleius. The use of prepositions with towns seems in general to have been a colloquialism, Cf. Suet., Aug., 86. The poets are free in their usage.

C. ABLATIVE OF THE THING WHEREWITH.

Ablātīvus Sociātīvus.

392. The Ablative of Attendance takes the preposition cum, with.

Cum febrī domum ređiit, C., Or., iii. 2, 6; he returned home with a
fever. Catilina stetit in comitiō cum tēlō, Cf. C., Cat., i. 6, 15: Catiline stood in the place of election with a weapon (on him). Cum baculō pērāque [senex], Mart., iv. 53, 3; an old man with stick and wallet. Nec tē-cum possum vivere nec sine tē, Mart., xii. 47, 2; I can't live either with you or without you.

Remarks.—1. In military phrases, the troops with which a march is made are put in the Ablative, with or without cum; generally without cum when an adjective is used (Ablative of Manner), with cum when no adjective is used (Ablative of Attendance). With definite numbers, however, cum is regularly employed.

Albānī ingenti exercitū in agrum Rōmānum impetum fēcere, L., i. 23, 3; the Albans attacked the Roman territory with a huge army. Caesar cum equitibus DCCCC in castra pervēnit, Caes., B.C., i. 41, 1; Caesar arrived in camp with nine hundred cavalry.

2. Not to be confounded with the above is the Instrumental Ablative:

Nāvibus proiectus est, C., Fam., xv. 3. 2; he set out by ship.
So also with verbs which denote other military actions:

Hasdrubal mediam aciem Ἰσπανίς firmat, L., xxiii. 29, 4; Hannibal strengthens the centre with Spanish troops. Āctum nihil est nisi Poenō milite portās frangimus, Juv., x. 155; naught is accomplished unless we break the gates with the Punic soldiery (as if with a battering-ram).

II. The Figurative Meanings of the Ablative.
A. The Place Where is transferred to the Time When.

Ablative of Time. Ablātīvus Temporis.

393. Time When or Within Which is put in the Ablative.

Quā nocte nātus Alexander est, eādem Dīnāe Ephesiae templum dēflagrāvit, Cf. C., N.D., ii. 27, 69; on the same night on which Alexander was born, the temple of Diana of Ephesus burned to the ground. Sāturnī stella trigintā fērē annis currum sōnō fuit, C., N.D., ii. 20, 52; the planet Saturn completes its period in about thirty years.

Many adverbial forms of time are really Locative Ablatives:

So hōdīē, to-day; herī(e), yesterday; máne, in the morning.

Remarks.—1. Time Within Which may be expressed by per and the Accusative:

Per eōs ipsōs diēs quibus Philippus in Achaīā fuit, Philoclēs saltum Cithārōnīs trānscendit, L., xxxi. 26, 1; during those very days, while Philip was in Achaia, Philoclus crossed the range of Cithaeron.

2. Time Within Which may embrace both extremities; so usually with tōtus, all, whole:
Nocte pluit tōtā, redeunt at māne serēna, V. (Poet. Lat. Min., iv. 155 B); all night (Jupiter) rains; clear skies come back in the morning. Cf. Caes., B.G., i. 26, 5.

So with definite numbers; but rarely, until the post-Augustan period:

Scriptum est trīgintā annis vixisse Panaetium, posteāquam illōs librōs ēdidisset, C., Off., iii. 2, 8; it is written that Panaetius lived for thirty years after he had published those books (not to be confounded with the Abl. of Difference, 403). Apud Pythagoram discipulis quinque annis tacendum erat, Sen., E.M., 52, 10; in the school of Pythagoras the disciples had to keep silence five years.

3. When the Notion is Negative, the English Time For Which is the Latin Within Which.

[Rōscius] Rōmam multīs annīs nōn vēnit, C., Rosc. Am., 27, 74; Rōscius has not come to Rome in (for) many years. Not always, however; compare Sex mēnis iam hīc nēmō habitat, Pl., Most., 954; no one has been living here these six months.

4. Especially to be noted is the Abl. of Time with hīc, this; ille, that:

Cui vigintī hīs annīs supplicātiō dēcrēta est? C., Pl., xiv. 4, 11; to whom during these last twenty years has a supplication been decreed? [Karthaēginem] hīc biennīō ēvertēs, C., Rep., vi. 1, 11; Carthage you will over-turn in the next two years.

Transferred to Ōrātiō Obliqua, hīc becomes ille (660, 3):

Diodōrus [respondit] illud argentum sē paucīs illīs diēbus mīssisse Lilybaeum, C., Verr., iv. 18, 39; Diodorus answered that he had sent that silver plate to Lilybaeum within a few days (a few days before).

5. The Abl. of Time is regularly accompanied by an attribute in classical Latin, except in the case of a number of common designations, as aestāte, diē, hieme, nocte, vespere (vesperi). Exceptions are rare, such as comitīs, lāce, pāce, militiā, and some names of games.

394. The Ablative with the preposition in is used of points within a period of time, or of the character of the time.

Bis in diē, twice a day; in pueritiā, in boyhood; in adulēscentiā, in youth.

Nūllō modō mīhi placuit bis in diē saturum fierī, C., Tusc., v. 35, 100; it did not suit me in any way to eat my fill twice a day. Feci ego istaece itidem in adulēscentiā, Pl., B., 410; I did those things too in my youth.

Remark.—The use or omission of in sometimes changes the meaning. So bellō Persicō, at the time of the Persian war; but in bellō, in war times; in pāce, in peace times. Phraseological is in tempore, more frequent than tempore, at the right time. But in illō tempore means in those circumstances, at that crisis. At present, for the present, is always in praesentiā or in praeuenti (rare).
Notes.—1. Classical Latin confines the use of in to designations of Time of Life (though here, when an adjective is employed, in is usually omitted) and to the periods of time. Later in is used much more extensively. With numerals in is the rule. Cat. and the poets have sometimes bis die, as dies = anus dies.

2. Dē, from, is also used in designations of time: principally in the phrase dē die, dē nocte. Ut ingulgent hominem surgunt dē nocte latrōnēs, ll., Ep., i. 2, 32; to kill a man, highwaymen rise by night, i.e., while it is yet night.

Inter, between: Quae prandia inter continuum perdidi triennium, Pl., St., 213; what luncheons I have lost during three years together.

Intra, within: Subēgit sōlus intra viginti diēs, Pl., Curs., 443; he quelled them all alone in less than twenty days.

On per, through, see 336, R. 2.

Cum, with, is found occasionally in phrases, as cum prīmā lūce, with daybreak.

B. The Place Whence is transferred:

1. To Origin. 2. To Respect or Specification.

I. Ablative of Origin.

395. Participles which signify Birth take the Ablative of Origin; sometimes with the prepositions ex and dē.

Amplissimā familīā nātī adultēscēntēs, Caes., B.G., vii. 37, 1; young men born of a great house. Numae Pompiliī rēgis nepōs, filīa ortus, Ancus Mārcius erat, L., i. 32, 1; King Numm Pompius’s grandson, a daughter’s issue, was Ancus Mārcius. Maecēnās atavis ēdite rēgibus, H., O., i. 1, 1; Maecenas, offshoot of great-grand sire kings. Dis genite et genitūre deōs. V., A., ix. 639; begotten of gods, and destined to begot gods! Sate sanguine divum! V., A., vi. 125; seed of blood divine! Ex mē atque ex hōc nātus es, Ter., Heaut., 1030; you are his son and mine. Odīrunt nātōs dē paelicē, Juv., vi. 627; they hate the offspring of the concubine.

Ab, and occasionally ex, are employed of remote progenitors:

Plērique Belgae sunt ortū ab Germānīs, Cf. Caes., B.G., ii. 4, 1; Bel- gians are mostly of German descent. Oriundi ex Etrūscīs, Cf. L., ii. 9, 1; of Etruscan origin.

Notes.—1. The principal participles thus used are nātus, prōgnātus, oriundus; ortus, genitus, and satus begin in prose with Livy; ēditus and crētus are poetic; prōcreātus is late. Cícero usc oriundus but once; it denotes remote origin.

2. With names of Places the preposition is the rule (336, N. 2); but there are a few exceptions in early Latin and in Cícero, and a couple of examples in Caes. Later the simple Abl. disappears. The Abl. was the rule with names of Tribes.

Periphanēs Rhōdō mercātōr, Pl., Asia, 499. Magius Cremenā, Caes., B.C., i. 24, 4. Q. Verrēs Rōmiliā, C., Verr., i. 8, 23; Q. Verrēs of the Romilian tribe.

3. With finite verbs denoting Origin, the preposition is regular, except occasionally with nāscī.

4. The Ablative of Agent properly belongs here. But for convenience of contrast it is treated under 401.

396. The Ablative of Material takes ex in classical Latin.
Ex animō cōstāmus et corpore, Cf. C., Fin., iv. 8, 19; we consist of mind and body.

Statua ex aurō, ex aere, facta, a statue made of gold, of bronze. Often an adjective is used: aurēus, golden; ligneus, wooden.

Notes.—1. After Cicero cōstāres is used more often with the Abl.: cōnsistere (with the Abl.) is poetical. Continēri, to be contained, i.e., almost "to consist of," takes the Abl. only, but with a different conception. Medicīna tōta cōnstat experimentis, Quint., ii. 17, 9; all medicine is made up of experiments (is empirical).

2. With fieri the previous state is indicated by dē as well as by ex. Dē templō carcerem fieri! C., Ph., v. 7, 18; from a temple to become a jail. Fiēs dē rhētore cōnsul, Juv., vii. 197; from (having been) a rhetorician you will become consul. Ex ērātōre arātor factus, C., Pl., iii. 9, 22 (206, ii. 2).

3. Otherwise the simple Ablative of Material is poetic or late: Māvors caelātus ferrō, V., A., viii. 790; Mars caven of iron. Meliōre lutō finxit, Juv., xiv. 35; he fashioned it of better clay.

2. Ablative of Respect.

397. The Ablative of Respect or Specification gives the Point From Which a thing is measured or treated, and is put in answer to the questions From What Point of View? According to What? By What? In Respect of What?

Discriptus populus cēnsū, ārdinibus, acetātibus, C., Leg., iii. 19, 44; a people drawn off according to income, rank, (and) age. Ennius ingenīō maximus, arte rudis, Ov., Tr., ii. 424; Ennius in genius great, in art unskilled. Animō ignāvus, procāx ōre, Tac., ii. 11, 23, 18; coward of soul, saucy of tongue.

Noteworthy are the phrases: crīne ruber, red-haired; captūs oculis (literally, caught in the eyes), blind; captūs mente, insane; meā sententīā, according to my opinion; iūre, by right; lēge, by law, etc.; and the Supines in -ā (436).

Notes.—1. Prepositions are also used, which serve to show the conception:

(Caesaris) adventus ex colōre vestītūs cōgnitus, Cf. Caes., B. G., vii. 88, 1; the arrival of Caesar was known by the color of his clothing. Dē gestū intellegō quid respondeas, C., Iul., 15, 35; I understand by your gesture what answer you are giving. Ab animō aeger fui, Pl., Ep., 129; at heart I was sick. Ētium sum aēr animō, Ter., Ph., 340; easy in mind.

Similarly ex lēge, according to law; ex pactō, according to agreement; ex dē more, according to custom; ex animī sententīā, according to (my) heart's desire; ex ēsū, useful.

2. A special category is formed by words indicating cōminence or superiority; so excellere, anteceellere, praestāre, superāre, vincere; and the adjectives: insignis, illustris, dignus; excellēns, praecellēns. Praecellere is found in early and late Latin, while dignāri is poetic and post-Augustan.

Māximē populus Rōmānus animī māg𝑛itūdine excellit, C., Off., i. 18, 61; the Roman people excel most in loftiness of mind.

On dignus with Gen., see 374, n. 10.
ABLATIVE.

A curious usage is that of decōrus and decēre, with Abl., in Pl., M. G., 619; Asin., 577.

3. The origin of these constructions is still undetermined. They may be deduced also from the Instrumental side of the Abl., or from the Locative side.

398. The Ablative of Respect is used with the Comparative instead of quam, than, with the Nominative or Accusative; but in the classical language mainly after a negative, or its equivalent. (Ablātīvus Comparātiōnis.)

Tunica propior palliōst, Pl.. Trin., 1154; the shirt is nearer than the cloak. Nihil est virtūte amābilius, C., Læl., 8, 28: nothing is more attractive than virtue. Quid est in homine ratiōne divinius? C., Leg., I. 7, 22: what is there in man more godlike than reason?

So also after adverbs, but not so freely in prose:

Lacrīmā nihil citius ārēscit, C., Iav., 1. 56. 109: nothing dries more quickly than a tear. Nēmō est qui tibi sapientius suādēre possit tē ipsō, C., Fam., II. 1, 7, 1: there is no one who can give you wiser advice than yourself. Pulcrum ērnātum turpēs mōrēs pēius caeñō conlinunt, Pl., Most., 291: foul behavior doth bedraggle fine apparel worse than mud.

Remark.—When the word giving the point of view is a relative, the Abl. must be used. See 296, r. 2.

Phīdias simulācrīs quibus nihil in illō genere perfectius vidēmus, cōgitāre tamen possimus pulchriōra, C., Or., 2, 3: the statues of Pheidias, than which we see nothing more perfect in their kind, still leave room for us to imagine those that are more beautiful.

Notes.—1. The comparative is also employed with the Abl. of certain abstract substantives and adjectives used as substantives; so opīniōne, spē, exspectātiōne; aequō, iūstō, solitō, and the like, all post-Ciceronian except aequō, opīniōne.

(Consul) sērius spē (= quam spēs fuerat) Rōmam vēnit, L., XXVI. 26, 4; the consul came to Rome later than was hoped. Solitō citātior amnis, L., XXIII. 19, 11: the river running faster than usual.

2. Aequē and adaequē are found once each in Plautus with the Abl.; and then not till the time of the elder Pliny.

3. For other details, see 296 and 644.

C. ABLATIVE OF THE THING WHEREWITH.

Ablātīvus Sociātīvus. Ablative of Attendance.

1. Ablative of Manner.

399. The Ablative of Manner answers the question How? and is used with the Preposition cum when it has no Adjective; with or without cum when it has an Adjective or its equivalent. (Ablātīvus Modi.)

[Stellae] circulōs suōs orbēsque cōnﬁcicunt celeritāte mirābili, C., Reæ., vi. 15, 15; the stars complete their orbits with wonderful swiftness. Vōs
ōrō ut attentē bonāque cum veniā verba mea audīātis, C., Rose. Am., 4, 9; I beg you to hear my words attentively and with kind indulgence. Beātē vivere, honestē, id est cum virtūte, vivere, C., Fin., III. 8, 29; to live happily is to live honestly, that is, virtuously.

Notes.—1. The simple Abl. without an attribute is confined to a few substantives, which have acquired adverbial force: early Latin shows astū, curriculō, dolō, ergō, grātiās and ingrātiās, ioculō, merītō, numerō, optātō, ērdine, sortītō, voluntātē, vulgō. Terence adds: vi, iūre, iniūriā. Classical Latin shows some of these, also ratiōne, ratiōne et viā, mōrībus, rōsūtūdine, silentiō, cāsū, lēge, fraudē, vitiō, sacra mentō (beginning with Livy), and a few others. Sometimes the idea of Specification is prominent, as in lēge, iūre (337); sometimes it is hard to distinguish between the Manner and the Instrument: vi, violently and by violence; vi et armīs, by force of arms; pedibus, afoot; nāvibus, by ship. Notice, also, the use of per, through, with the Accusative: per vim, by violence: per litterās, by letter.
2. The post-Ciceronian Latin extends the use of the Abl. without an attribute.
3. The phrases sub conditione, sub lēge, etc., begin with Livy.

2. Ablative of Quality.

(Descriptive Ablative.)

400. The Ablative of Quality has no Preposition, and always takes an Adjective or an equivalent.

[Hannibalīs] nōmen erat māgnā apud omnēs gloriā, C., Or., II. 16, 75; the name of Hannibal was glorious in the esteem of all the world. (Agesilāus) statūrā fuit humilī, Nēp., XVII. 8, 1; Agesilāus was (a man) of low stature. Ista turpiculō puella nāsō, Cat., 41, 3; that girl of yours with the ugly nose. Clāvī ferrei digitī pollicis crassitūdine, Cf. Caes., B.G., III. 13, 4; iron nails of the thickness of your thumb.

Remarks.—1. External and transient qualities are put by preference in the Ablative; Measure, Number, Time, and Space are put in the Genitive only; parts of the body in the Ablative only. Otherwise there is often no difference.
2. Of unnatural productions cum may be used: āgnus cum suillō capite, L., XXXI. 12, 7; a lamb with a swine’s head.

3. Ablative of Means.

401. The Means or Instrument is put in the Ablative without a Preposition.

The Agent or Doer is put in the Ablative with the Preposition ab (ā). The Person Through Whom is put in the Accusative with per.

Xerxēs certior factus est, 

1. nūntiō, by a message.

Xerxes was informed, 

2. ā nūntiō, by a messenger.

3. per nūntium, by means of a messenger.
Qui sunt homines, à quibus ille sē lapidibus adpetitum, etiam percussum esse dixit? C., Dom., 5. 13; who are the men by whom he said he had been thrown at with stones, and even hit? Vulgō occidēbantur? Per quōs et à quibus? C., Rosc. Am., 20, 80; were they cut down openly? Through whose instrumentality and by whose agency? Nec bene prōmeritis capitur neque tangitur frā, Lucr., ii. 651 (227. x. 4). Ipse docet quid agam: fās est et ab hoste docēri, Ov., M., iv. 428 (219). Discite sānāri per quem didicistis amāre, Ov., Rem. Am., 43; learn to be healed by means of (him by) whom you learned to love.

Remarks.—i. When the Instrument is personified and regarded as an Agent, or the Agent is regarded as an Instrument, the constructions are reversed; when an adjective is used, the construction may be doubtful: see 354, x. 1, and 214, r. 2.

So iacent suis tēstibus, C., Mil., 18, 47; they are cast by their own witnesses; or, they are cast, their own men being witnesses.

2. A quality, when personified, has the construction of the person. So dēserī a mente, a spē.

Vōbis animus ab ignāviā atque sōcordiā corruptus [est], S., Ing., 31, 2; you have had your soul(s) debauched by sloth and indifference.

Notes.—i. The number of verbs constructed with this Abl. is very large and comprises several categories; so verbs of Clothing and Providing, Adorning and Endowing, Training (ērudire also takes in; others take Acc., see 339), Living and Nourishing, etc.

2. Of special importance are assuēscō, assuēfaciō, assuētus; (Catilina) sce- lerum exercitātiōne assuēfactus, C., Cat., ii. 5, 9. The Dat. is found first in Livy in prose. Ad with the Acc. is also classical.

3. Afficere, to treat, with the Ablative, is a favorite turn; see the Lexicons.

4. Verbs of sacrificing, such as sacrificāre, sacrum facere, dividām rem facere, facere and fieri (mostly poetical), immolare, litāre (poetical), have the Abl. of Means. But immolare usually has Acc. and Dat., and so the others occasionally, except facere.

Quinquāgintā capris sacrificāverunt, L., xliv. 16, 6; they sacrificed fifty she- goats.

5. Here belong also verbs like pluere, sūdāre (not classic), stillāre (not classic), fuere, mānāre, and the like: sanguine pluissē, L., xxiv. 10, 7. The Acc. is also common.

6. Nītor, I stay myself, is construed with the Abl.; occasionally with in. Fīdō, cōndīdō, I trust, rely on, have the Abl.; but with persons the Dat., sometimes also with things. On the other hand, dīffidō, I distrust, always has the Dat. in classical Latin, but Tacitus shows Abl., and so do other later writers. Stāre, to abide by, usually has the Abl., but occasionally in; manāre has usually in; the Abl. is poetical. Acquī-ficere, to acquiēscere in, with Abl. is rare. Frētus, supported, takes the Abl. regularly; Livy alone uses the Dative. Contentus, satisfied with (by), is used only of one's own possessions (rēbus, fortūnā, etc.), and has the Ablative.

Salūs omnium nōn vēritāte sōlum sed etiam fāmā nītitur, (cf. C., Q.F., i. ii. 1, 2; the veritāte of all rests not on truth alone, but also on repute. Ėius iūdicīō stāre nōlim, C., Tusc., ii. 26, 63; I should not like to abide by his judgment.

7. A remnant of the old usage is found with fīō, faciō, and esse:

Quid fēcisti scipionē? Pl., Cas., 975; what have you done with the wand? Quid
mē fiet? Pl., Most., i. 166; what will become of me? Quid tē futūrumst? Ter., Pl., 137; what is to become of you? Quid hōc homine faciās? C., Verr., i. 16, 39; how will you dispose of this man? Quid huic homini faciās? C., Cæc., i. 30; what will you do to this man? Quid dē nōbis futūrum est? C., Fam., ix. 17, 1; what is to happen in our case?

The use of the Dative is rare, and still more rare the use of dē.

The construction is colloquial, and never found in Cæsar and Tacitus; it is always in an interrogative sentence, except in Cato and Ovid.


402. The Standard of Measure is put in the Ablative with verbs of Measurement and Judgment.

Benevolentiam nōn ārdōre amōris sed stabilitāte iūdicēmus, C., Off., i. 15, 47; good will we are to judge not by ardor but by steadfastness. Magnōs hominēs virtūte mētimur, nōn fortūnā, Nep., xviii. 1, 1; we measure great men by worth, not by fortune. Sonis hominēs ut aera tinnitū dignōscimus, Quint., xi. 3, 31; we distinguish men by sound, as coppers by ring.

Remarks.—1. It is often hard to distinguish the Measure from the Respect (see 397).

2. Ex with the Abl. is frequently found with these verbs; so regularly with aestimāre, existimāre, spectāre, in the sense of judge, value.

Dicendum erit nōn esse ex fortūnā fidem ponderandam, C., Part. Or., 34, 117; the plea will have to be made that faith is not to be weighed by fortune. Sic est vulgus: ex vēritāte pauca, ex opinīōne multa aestimāt, C., Rose. Com., io, 29; this is the way of the rabble: they value few things by (the standard of) truth, many by (the standard of) opinion.

403. Measure of Difference is put in the Ablative.

Sōl multis partibus māior (est) quam terra ūniversa, C., N. D., ii. 36, 92; the sun is many parts larger than the whole earth. (Via) alterō tantō longiōrem habēbat ānfrāctum, Nep., xviii. 8, 5; the road had a bend (that made it) longer by as much again, as long again. Quintiēns tantō amplius Verrēs, quam licītum est, civitātibus imperāvit, Cf. C., Verr., iii. 97, 225; Verres levied on the various cities five times more than was allowed by law. Turrēs dēnis pedibus quam mūrus altīōres sunt, Curt., v. 1, 26; the towers are (by) ten feet higher than the wall. Tantō est accusāre quam défendere, quantō facere quam sānāre vulnera, facilius, Quint., v. 13, 3; it is as much easier to accuse than to defend, as it is easier to inflict wounds than to heal them. Perfer et obdūrā: multō graviōra tulisti, Ov., Tr., v. 11, 7; endure to the end and be firm; you have borne much more grievous burdens.

Notes.—1. This rule applies to verbs involving difference (such as abesse, distāre, mālle, praestāre, excellere, etc.), as well as to comparatives, with which must be reckoned infra, suprā, ultra.
ABLATIVE.

[Aesculapītemplum] quīnque milibus passuum ab urbe [Epidaurō] distant, Cf. L., xlv. 28, 3; the temple of Aesculapius is five miles from the city of Epidaurus.

2. The Acc. is sometimes employed (see 325); especially with neuter adjectives multum, tantum, etc., but this is not common except with verbs.

3. The Plantine Abl. nimiō, with the comparative, is not classical (compare [C.], Alt., x. 8 a, 1), but reappears in Livy. Aliter with this Abl. is very rare and is not classical. So also the Abl. with the positive, of which a few examples are cited from early Latin, as Ter., Heaut., 205.

4. (a) Especially to be noted is the use of the Abl. of Measure with ante, before, and post, after:

Paucis ante diēbus. Paucis diēbus ante, a few days before.

Paucis post diēbus. Paucis diēbus post, a few days after, afterward.

Duōbus annis postquam Romā condita est, two years after Rome was founded.

Paulō post Trōiam captam, a little while after the taking of Troy.

The Acc. can also be employed: post paucōs annōs, after a few years; ante paucōs annōs, a few years before; and the ordinal as well as the cardinal numbers (but only when quām follows): two hundred years after (warc) may be:

Ducentis annis post or Ducentēsimō annō post,

Post ducentōs annōs or Post ducentēsimum annum.

(b) Ante and post do not precede the Abl. in classical Latin except with aliiquantō (rare) and paulō. Ante and post, with the Acc. followed by quām, instead of antequam and postquam with the Abl., belong preeminently to post-classical Latin; classical examples are rare. Cicero never has ante.

(c) Ante hōs sex mēnsēs, six months ago (compare 393, r. 4), more frequently abhinc sex mēnsēs (336, r. 3); abhinc sex mēnsibus, means six months before.

(d) With a relative sentence the Abl. of the relative may be used alone, instead of ante (post) quām:

Mors Rōsci quadriduō quō is occīsus est, Chrysogonō nūntiatur, C., Rosc. Am., 37, 105; the death of Roscus was announced to Chrysogonus four days after he was killed (in the course of the four days within which he was killed). See 333.

(e) Hence is ad: ad sex mēnsēs, six months hence.

(f) Do not confuse the Acc. with ante and post with the Acc. of Duration of Time.

5. Ablative of Price.

404. Definite Price is put in the Ablative.

Eriphyle aurō viri vitam vēndidit, C., Inv. i. 50, 94; Eriphyle sold her husband’s life for gold. Viginti talentis ūnam oratīōnem Ἰσοcrapēs vēndidit, Plin., N. H., vii. 31, 110; Isocrates sold one speech for twenty talents. Ēmit morte immortālitātem, Quint., ix. 3, 71; he purchased deathlessness with death. Argentum accēpī, dōte imperium vēndidī, Pl., Asin., 87; the cash I took, (and) for a dowry sold my sway.

Notes.—1. Mūtāre, to exchange, is sometimes Give, sometimes Get; sometimes Sell, sometimes Buy. The latter use is confined to poetry and later prose.

Nēmō nisi victor pāce bellum mūtāvit, S., c. 58, 15; no one unless victorious (ever) exchanged war for peace. Misera pāx vel bellō bene mūtātur, Cf. Tac., Ann., iii. 44, 10; a wretched peace is well exchanged even for war.

But ēur valle permūtēm Sabinā divītias operōssōres? H., O., iii. 1, 47; why should I exchange my Sabine vale for riches sure to breed (me) greater trouble?


3. For Genitive of Price, see 379.
6. Ablative with Verbs of Plenty and Want.

405. Verbs of Depriving and Filling, of Plenty and Want, take the Ablative.

[Democritus] dicitur oculis se privasse, C., Fin., v. 29, 87; Democritus is said to have deprived himself of his eyes. Deus bonis omnibus explēvit mundum, Cf. C., Univ., 3, 9; God has filled the universe with all blessings. Capua fortissimōrum virōrum multitudine redundat, C., Pis., 11, 25; Capua is full to overflowing with a multitude of gallant gentlemen. Nōn caret effectū quod voluēre dux, Ov., Am., II. 3, 16: what two have resolved on never lacks execution. Quō māior est in [animis] praestantia, eō māiore indigent diligentia, C., Tusc., iv. 27, 58.

Notes.—1. Verbs of Depriving are commonly referred to the Ablative of Separation, rather than to the Instrumental Ablative, and are put here for convenience of contrast. But it must be remembered that in the classic tongues the construction of opposites is identical.

2. Egoō and (more frequently) indigeō also take the Genitive:

Nōn tam artis indigent quam labōris, C., Or., i. 34, 156; they are not so much in need of skill as of industry. So implēri, V., I., i. 214.

3. Adjectives of Plenty and Want take the Gen., but some of them follow the analogy of the verb (374, n. 1). So onustus, orbūs, have Abl. more often than Gen.; indigus, egēnus, and inops have the Gen. more commonly. Plēnus has usually the Gen.; the Abl. in increasing proportion from Lucretius on. Frēquēns and va-lidus do not take the Gen. until the post-Augustan period. See 374.

Asellus onustus aurō, C., Alt., i. 16, 12; a donkey laden with gold. Pollicitis dives quilibet esse potest, Ov., I., I., i. 444; anybody can be rich in promises. Amor et melle et felle est fecundissimus, Pl., Cist., 69; love is (very) fruitful both in honey and in gall (of acrimony).

406. Opus and ūsus take the Dative of the Person who Wants and the Ablative of the Thing Wanted; but the Thing Wanted may be the subject, and opus (not ūsus) the predicate.

Nōvō consiliō mihi nunc opus est, Pl., Ps., 601; a new device is what I'm needing now. Viginti iam īsusī filiō argenti minīs, Pl., Asin., 89; my son has urgent need of twenty minae silver. Nihil opus est simula-tione et fallācīs, C., Or., ii. 46, 191; there is no need of making believe, and of cheating tricks. Nōn opus est verbis sed ēstibus, C., Pis., 30, 73; there is need not of words, but of cudgels. Emās nōn quod opus est, sed quod necesse est; quod nōn opus est asse ēárūm est, Cato (Sen., E. M., 94, 27); buy not what you want, but what is absolutely needful; what you do not want (have no use for) is dear at a penny.

So with the Perfect Participle Passive.

Quod parātō opus est parā, Ter., And., 523; what must be got ready, get ready. Vicinō conventōst opus, Pl., Cas., 502, the neighbor must
be called on. Citius quod non factoster usus fit quam quod factoster opus, Pl., Am., 505.

Notes.—1. Opus est means properly: there is work to be done with; usus est, there is making use of (like utor); hence the Ablative. Some think that opus takes Abl. by analogy with usus.

2. Opus est is common throughout; usus est is very rarely found after the early period. It belongs especially to comedy.

3. The Gen. with opus est occurs twice in Livy; also in Propertius, Quintilian, and Apuleius.

4. The neut. Acc. is usually adverbial (333, i):

Quid (Acc.) digitos opus est graphio lassare tenendo? Ov., Am., 1, 11, 23; what is the use of living the fingers by holding the stylus?

5. Besides the Pr. Part. pass., we find the infin. and sometimes ut; in this case the Person is usually in the Dat. with opus (usus) est, but may be in the Acc., with the Inf., or may be omitted.

Opus est tene animo valore ut corpore posseis, C. Fam., xvi, 14, 2; you must be well in mind in order to be well in body. An quoquamist usus homini se ut cruciet? Ter., Hert., 81; of what good is it to any man to torture himself?

The Supine is found occasionally; in Cicero only scitum (Inf., 1, 20, 38; disputed).

6. In Plautus and Lucanets are occasional examples of usus as a predicate, with the Thing Wanted as the subject.

7. Ablative with Sundry Verbs.

407. The Deponent Verbs utor, abutor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor, take the Ablative.

Victoriam uti nescis, L., xxii, 51, 4; how to make use of victory you know not. Quod usque tandem abutere patientia nostrae, C., Cal., 1, 1, 1; how long, tell me, will you abuse our patience? Lux qua fruimus a Deo nobis datur, C. C., rose, Am., 45, 131; the light which we enjoy is given to us by God. Funguntur officio; defendunt suos, C., Cael., 9, 21; they acquit themselves of a duty; they defend their own people. Fungor vice cotis, H., 1, 2, 19; I shall acquit myself of, discharge, the office of a whetstone. Tu tus esse arbitrabantur sine ulli vulnere victorii potiri, Caes., B. G., iii, 24, 2; they thought it safer to make themselves masters of the victory without any wound. Numidae lacte vescabantur, S., Ing., 89, 7; the Numidians made their food of milk (fed on milk).

Notes.—1. These Ablatives are commonly regarded as Ablatives of the Instrument: but fruor, I get fruit, and vescor, I feed myself from, and perhaps fungor, may take the Abl. as a Whence-case.

2. These verbs seem to have been originally construed with the Acc.; but this case is not found in classical Latin except in the Gerundive construction (27, 5, 5).

(a) Utor with Acc. is very common in Plautus, less so in Terence, but only with neuter pronouns. Cato uses also the Abl. of substantives. Abutor is combined only with Acc. in early Latin.

(b) Fruor with Acc. is not in Plautus, but occasionally in Terence and Cato. Fruniscor (rare) is transitive in Plautus and Quintilianus (ap. Gell.).

(c) Fungor with Acc. is the rule in early Latin (Ter., Ad, 603, is disputed), then in Nepos, Tacitus, Suetonius, and later.

(d) Potior has Gen. at all periods (rare in Cicero; once in Caesar); the Acc.
occasionally in early and late Latin, in the b. Afr., the b. Hisp., and in Sallust. Note-worthy is the use of an act. potire with Gen. in Pl., Am., 178, and a pass. potitus with Gen. in several places in Plautus.

(c) Vescor takes the Acc. rarely in early Latin, in the poets, and in later Latin. Vivere, hélùái, take Abl. like vesci.

3. Útor is a favorite word, and has a most varied translation:
Úti aliqúd amícò, to avail one's self of (to enjoy) a man's friendship (to have a friend in him); úti cónsilió, to follow advice; úti bonò patre, to have the advantage of having a good father; úti légibus, to obey the laws. See the Lexicons.

D. ABLATIVE OF CAUSE.

408. The Ablative of Cause is used without a preposition, chiefly with Verbs of Emotion. Ablātīvus Causae.

In culpā sunt qui officia déserunt mollitiā animi. C., Fin., i. 10, 33; they are to blame who shirk their duties from effeminacy of temper. Ódèrunt peccáre boni virtútis amóre, 11. Ep., i. 16, 52; the good hate to sin from love of virtue. Délictó dolère, corréctiōne gāudère (opportet), C., Lat., 24, 90; one ought to be sorry for sin, to be glad of chastisement. Nón dicó potest quôm flagrem désidériò urbìs, C., Att., v. 11, 1; I burn (am asfìre) beyond expression with longing for Rome.

Notes.—1. A number of combinations become phraseological, as the verbs: abrücktū, hortātū, impulsū, iüssū, missū, rogātū, etc.; also cónsiliō, auctoritāte, with a Gen. or possessive pronoun: iüssū cīvium, at the bidding of the citizens; meō rogātū, at my request.
2. The moving cause is often expressed by a participle with the Abl., which usually precedes: adductus, led; ārdēns, fired; commótus, stirred up; incitātūs, urged on; incensūs, inflamed; impulsūs, driven on; mōtus, moved, and many others; amóre, by love; ira, by anger; odio, by hate; metū, by fear; spē, by hope, etc. Metū perterrītus, sore frightened: verécundiā déterrītus, abashed, etc.
3. Instead of the simple Abl. the prepositions dé and ex (sometimes in), with the Abl., ob and propter with the Acc., are often used; perhaps occasionally ab.
4. The preventing cause is expressed by prae, for (417, 9): Prae gaudīo ubi sim nesció, Ter., Heaut., 308: I know not where I am for joy.
5. On causā and grátiā with the Gen., see 273.
6. The use of the Abl. for the external cause, as rēgāle genus nōn tam rēgni quām rēgis vitis repudiātum est (C., Leg., iii. 7, 15), the kingly form of government was rejected not so much by reason of the faults of the kingly form, as by reason of the faults of the king, is not common in the early and in the classical period, except in certain formulae; but it becomes very common later.
7. The Ablative of Cause may have its origin in the Instrumental Ablative, in the Ablative of Source, or in the Comitative Ablative.

E. ABLATIVE ABSOLUTE.

409. The so-called Ablative Absolute is an Ablative combined with a participle, and serves to modify the verbal predicate of a sentence. Instead of the participle, a predicative substantive or adjective can be employed.
410. The Ablative Absolute may be translated by the English so-called Nominative (originally Dative) Absolute, which is a close equivalent; but for purposes of style, it is often well to analyze the thought, to change Passive into Active, to make use of an abstract substantive.

Xerxe règnante (= cum Xerxès règnæret), Xerxes reigning. When Xerxes was reigning. In the reign of Xerxes.

Xerxe victō (= cum Xerxès victus esset), Xerxes being, having been, defeated. When Xerxes had been defeated. After the defeat of Xerxes.

Xerxe rége (= cum Xerxès réx esset), Xerxes [being] king. When Xerxes was king.

Patre vivō, while father is, was alive (in father's lifetime).

Urbe expūgnātā imperātor rediit:
Passive Form: The city [being] taken (after the city was taken), the general returned.
Active Form: Having taken the city (after he had taken the city), the general returned.

Abstract Form: After the taking of the city. After taking the city.

Māximās virtūtēs iacēre omnēs necesse est voluptāte dominante, C., Fin., ii. 35, 117; all the great(est) virtues must necessarily lie prostrate, if (or when) the pleasure (of the senses) is mistress. Rōmāni veterēs règnāri omnēs vōlēbant libertātis dulcēdine nōndum expertā, L., i. 17, 3; the old Romans all wished to have a king over them (because they had) not yet tried the sweetness of liberty.

Remarks.—1. As the Latin language has no Pf. Part. active, except when the Deponent is thus used, the passive construction is far more common than in English:

Iuvenēs veste positā corpora olēō perūnxērunt, C., Tusc., i. 47, 113; the youths, (having) laid aside their clothing, anointed their bodies with oil; or, laid aside their clothing, and anointed their bodies with oil.

2. The Abl. Abs., though often to be rendered by a coordinate sentence, for convenience' sake, always presents a subordinate conception:

(Lysander) suādet Lacedaemoniēs ut rēgiā potestāte dissolūtā ex omnibus dūx deligātur ad bellum gerendum, Nep., vi. 3. 5; Lysander advises the Lacedaemonians that the royal power be done away with, and a leader be chosen from all, to conduct the war. Here the one is necessary to the other.

3. As a rule, the Abl. Abs. can stand only when it is not identical
with the subject, object, or dependent case of the verbal predicate. Manlius slew the Gaul and stripped him of his necklace is to be rendered: Mānius caesum Gallum torque spoliāvit.

This rule is frequently violated at all periods of the language, for the purpose either of emphasis or of stylistic effect. The shifted construction is clearer, more vigorous, more conversational.

Neque illum mē vivō corrumpi sinam, Pl., B., 419; nor will I suffer him to be debauched while I am alive.

The violation is most frequent when the dependent case is in the Genitive:

Inugurtha frātre meō interfecstō régnum éius sceleris sui praedam fécit, S., Ing., 14. 11; Inugurtha killed my brother, and (= after killing my brother) made his throne the booty of his crime.

Notes.—1. The Pf. Part. of Deponents and Semi-deponents as an active in the Abl. Abs. is not found in early Latin, and is not common in classical Latin, where it is always without an object and is confined to verbs of Growth (principally ortus, coortus, nātus), Death, and Motion. It becomes common later, being used with an object from Sallust on.

2. The Pf. Part. of Deponents as a passive in the Abl. Abs. is confined in classical Latin to ēmeritus, pactus, partitus. Sallust and Livy, as well as later writers, extend the usage. Tacitus, however, shows but two cases: adeptus (Ann., 1. 7, 8) and ausus (Ann., III. 67, 4).

3. The Fut. Part. act. in the Abl. Abs. is post-Ciceronian, beginning with Pollio and Livy.

4. The impersonal use of the Abl. Abs. is found not unfrequently in early Latin and Cicero, rarely in Caesar and Sallust. Most of the forms so used have become adverbial in character, as optātō, sortītō, intēstātō, consultō, auspiciātō, directō, meritō, etc. The use of a following clause dependent upon the Abl. is begun in Cicero: adiūntō ut (Off., II. 12, 42). Sallust uses audītō and compertō with the Infinitive. But Livy extends this construction very greatly, and introduces the use of neuter adjectives in the same way: incertō praec tenebris quid aut peterent aut vitārent, L., XXVIII. 36, 12. It is frequent in Tacitus.

5. The use of adjectives and substantives in the Abl. is not common in early Latin, but is a favorite usage of the classical period and later: mē auctōre, C., Or., III. 14. 51.

6. A predicate substantive, with the participle, is rare, but occurs in good prose: Praetōre dēsignātō mortuō filiō, C., Thuc., III. 28. 70.

LOCATIVE.

411. In the Singular of the First and Second Declensions, names of Towns and Small Islands are put in the Locative of the Place Where.

Pompeius hiemāre Dýrrhachii, Apollōniae omnibusque oppidis constitutēr, Caes., B.C., III. 5. 1; Pompey had determined to winter at Dyr rhachium, Apollonia, and all the towns. Timotheus Lesbī (vixit), Nεp., XII. 7. 4; Timotheus lived at Lesbos. Rhodī ego nōn fui, sed fui in Bithy nia, C., Planc., 34, 83; I was not at Rhodes, but I was in Bithynia.
Remarks.—1. A few substantives of the Third Declension also form sporadic Locatives; so Carthaginii, in Plautus, Cicero, and later; Tiburi in Cicero, Livy, and later, and a few others. See 386.

2. Other Locative forms are, domi, at home (61, r. 2), humi, on the ground (first in Cicero), bellii, and militiae, in the combinations domi militiaeque, bellii domique, in peace and in war, at home and in the field; ruris, in the country (but rure meō, on my farm).

Parvi sunt foris arma nisi est consilium domi, C., Off., i. 22, 76; of little value are arms abroad unless there is wisdom at home. Iacere humi, C., Cat., i. 10, 26: to lie on the ground. Humi prōsternere, L., xlv. 20, 9; to throw flat on the ground.

Belli is found alone occasionally in Terence and Cicero; Ennius, Vergil, and Ovid have terrae; Vergil also campi.

3. Appositions are put in the Ablative, commonly with in, and regularly follow when qualified by an attribute:

Militēs Albæ constitērant in urbe opportūnā, C., Ph., iv. 2, 6; the soldiers halted at Alba, a conveniently situated town. Archiās Antiochiae nātus est celebri quondam urbe, C., Arch., 3, 4; Archias was born at Antioch, once a populous city.

When urbe, city, oppidō, town, or insulā, island, precedes, the preposition is always employed:


4. Domī takes the possessive pronoun in the Genitive:

Domī suae senex est mortuus, C., N.D., iii. 32, 81; the old man died at his own house. Metuis ut meae domi cūrētur diligenter, Tert., Hec., 257; you fear that she will not be carefully nursed at my house. Also aliēnae domīi (61, r. 2), C., Tusc., i. 22, 51; in a strange house; domī illius, C., Div. in Caec., 18, 58; in his house.

But in domō Pericli (65), Nep., vii. 2, 1; in the house(hold) of Pericles.

In domō castā, in a pure house. In domō, in the house (not, at home).

Notes.—1. Early Latin shows a number of Locative forms that have disappeared for the most part in the classical period. So temperī (tempori) replaced by tempore in Cicero (Livy and Tacitus only in tempore); māni, replaced by māne; vespēri and heri; and rare forms like diē, crāstini, proximī. See 37, 5.

2. On Locative forms of the pronouns, see 91, 3. On animī, see 374, n. 7.

PREPOSITIONS.

412. The Prepositions are originally local adverbs, which serve to define more narrowly the local ideas involved in the cases. The analogy of the local adverbs is followed by other adverbs, which are not so much prepositions as prepositional adverbs. Of the Prepositions proper, that is, Prepositions
used in composition (see Note), as well as in the regimen of
cases, cum (con) does not clearly indicate a local relation.

The only cases that involve local ideas are the Accusative
and Ablative. The Accusative, as the case of the Direct
Object, represents the relation *whither*? the Ablative repres-
sents the relations *whence*? and *where*?

Remarks.—1. In verbs of Motion, the Result of the Motion is often
considered as Rest in a place (where). See 385, n. 2.

2. In verbs of Rest, the Rest is sometimes conceived as the Result
of Motion (whither). See 385, n. 3.

Note.—Prepositions derive their name from the fact that they are prefixed in com-
position. Many of the Latin Prepositions are not used in composition, and these may
be called improper Prepositions. The prefixes amb- (am-an-), dis (di), por- (purr-,
pol-), red- (re-), sed- (sé-) and vé- are sometimes called inseparable prepositions.

413. Position of the Preposition.—The Preposition gen-
erally precedes the case.

Remarks.—1. Cum always follows a personal pronoun, and may or
may not follow a relative pronoun: mēcum, with me; quōcum or cum
quō, with whom. Dē is not uncommonly placed after quō and qua, rarely
after quibus. Position after the relative is found here and there also
in the case of other Prepositions, but principally in early Latin or the
poets, as follows: ab, ad (also in Cicero), ex, in, per, post (after hunc,
C., Tusc., ii. 6, 15), and prō.

Dissyllabic Prepositions are postponed more often, but Cicero re-
stricts this to pronouns, with the following Prepositions: ante, circā,
contrā, inter, penes, propter, sine, ūltrā. Caesar postpones intrā also.

Tenuis. as far as, and versus, -ward, always follow.

2. When the substantive has an attribute the Preposition may come
between; hanc igitur ob causam (C., Br., 24. 94), for this reason, therefore.

3. The Preposition may be separated from its case by an attributive
adjective or its equivalent, or other modifier of the case: post vérō Sullae
victōriam, but after Sulla’s victory; ad beātē vivendum, for living hap-
pily. But model prose usually avoids separating the Preposition by
more than a word or two. The poets have no scruples.

Notes.—1. A peculiarity of poetry, Livy, and later prose is the post-position of both
Preposition and attribute: metū in màgnō, l., ix. 37, 11; in great fear.

2. Especially to be noted is the position of per, through (by), in adjurations: Lydīa
dic per omnēs té deōs òrō, II., O., i. 8, 1; Lydīa, tell, by all the gods, I pray thee.
Per ego té deōs òrō, Ter., And. 834; I pray thee, by the gods.

3. Between the Preposition and its case are often inserted the enclitics que, ne, ve;
and after ante, post, and præter the conjunctions autem, enim, quidem, tamen,
vērō, occur, but not frequently. The first word in the combinations et- et, aut aut,
simul—simul, vel—vel, sometimes follows the Preposition: cum et diurno et nocturno metu, C., Tusc., v. 23, 66.

414. Repetition and Omission of the Preposition.—With different words which stand in the same connection, the Preposition is repeated, when the Preposition is emphatic, or the individual words are to be distinguished; so regularly after aut—aut, et—et, nec—nec, vel—vel, non modo—sed etiam, sed, nisi, quam, and in comparative clauses with ut. Otherwise it is omitted; so always with que.

Et ex urbe et ex agris, C., Cat., ii. 10, 21; both from (the) city and from (the) country. De honore aut de dignitate contendimus, C., Tusc., iii. 21, 50; we are striving about office, or about position.

Remarks.—1. When a relative follows in the same construction as its antecedent, the Preposition is usually omitted.

(Cimon) incidit in eandem invidiam (in) quam pater suus, Nep., v. 3, 1; Cimon fell into the same disrepute into which his father had fallen.

2. So in questions: Ante tempus mori miserum. Quod tandem tempus? C., Tusc., i. 39, 93; a hard case 'tis, to die before the time. (Before) what time, pray?

3. After quasi, tamquam, sicut, the Preposition is more often inserted.

Rus ex urbe tamquam e vinculis evolaverunt, Cf. C., Or., ii. 6, 22; they sped from the city to the country as if from a jail.

4. Two Prepositions are rarely used with the same word. Either the word is repeated, a form of is used, or one Prep. turned into an adverb: Præ Scipionem et adversus Scipionem, for and against Scipio. Ante pugnam et post eam, before and after the battle. Et in corpore et extra [sunt] quaedam bona, C., Fin., ii. 21, 68. But intra exträque munitiones, Caes., B.C., iii. 72, 2.

415. As adverbs without a case are used:

Ad, about, with numerals in Caesar, Livy, and later; adversus, to meet, especially in Plautus and Terence; ante and post of Time (403, n. 4); contrá, opposite, on the other hand; circá, round about, and circum (rare); præ, forward, in Plautus and Terence; prope, near, and propter (rare); inúxtæ, near by (rare); inetrà, inside (post-classical); extrà, outside; infrà, below; suprà, above; subter, beneath, and super, above, both rare; citrâ, on this side; ultrà, beyond; coram, in the presence of; clam, secretly; praeter, except (Sall., Livy and later).

I.—Prepositions Construed with the Accusative.

416. The Prepositions construed with the Accusative are:

Ad, adversus, ante, apud, circà, circum, circiter, cis, citrâ,
clam, conträ, ergä, exträ, infrä, inter, inträ, iüxtä, ob, penes. per, post (pöne), praeter, prope, propter, secundum, supra, träs, ulträ, ûsque, versus.

1. Ad. Of Motion Whither, to, up to. Of Direction, towards (ad orientem). Of Respect, for, with regard to (ad häs rês perspicäx); found first in Terence. Of Manner, after, according to (ad hunc modum); colloquial (in Cicero's speeches only quem ad modum). Of Place, at (= apud), colloquial (ad montem, C., FAm., xv. 2. 2) and legal (ad forum, ad te), rare in Cicero's speeches. Of Time, at, refers only to future, and gives either a point (ad vespérum, at evening), an interval (ad paucös diês, a few days hence) or an approaching time, towards. With Numerals, about. Of Purpose, for (castra hostī ad praedam relinquunt, L., iii. 63, 4). Also in phrases. Post-Ciceronian Latin extended the sphere of ad, and colloquially it was often a substitute for the Dative.

2. Adversus (-um), [i.e., turned to]. Towards, over against, against. Rare in early Latin and in Caesar and Sallust. In the sense, over against, it is found first in Livy. In the transferred sense, towards, it expresses usually hostile disposition, but begins to indicate friendly disposition in Cicero. Exadversus (-um) is found occasionally, beginning with Cicero, and is always local.

3. Ante [i.e., over against, facing]. Of Place Where, before. Of Place Whither, before; rarely (not in Cicero). Of Time, before; the most frequent use. Of Degree, before; not in Cicero or Caesar.

4. Apud is used chiefly of Persons. At the house of (characteristic locality). In the presence of (iudicem). In the writings of (Platönem). In the view of. Of Place, at, in (= in); common in comedy (apud villam); rare elsewhere, especially with proper names, where ad was preferred, except by Sallust. In phrases like apud sê esse, to be in one's senses.

5. Circä (circum). Around. Circum is exclusively local (except once in Vitruvius, where it is temporal). Circä in the local sense is found first in Cicero. In the meaning about, of Time or Number, it is found first in Horace. So, too, in the transferred sense of the sphere of mental action: circä virentis est animus campōs, II., O., n. 5. 5.

6. Circiter. Of Place, about; once in Plautus. Usually of Time, about, especially with numerals; but the prepositional usage is on the whole small.

7. Cis, citrä. This side, short of. Of Place; cis found first in Varro, citrä in Cicero. Cis is occasionally temporal in Plautus, Sallust, Ovid. Citrä, of Time, within, this side of; found first in Ovid. Without (stopping short of); found first in Livy, then in Ovid, and
the post-Augustan prose writers. In C., Or., 18, 50, citra may be rendered further back; i.e., nearer the beginning.

8. Clam. Secretly. With Acc. in early Latin, in the b. Hisp., and in the Jurists. With Abl. in Caesar (B.C., ii. 32, 8), and in the b. Afr., i, 4 (both passages disputed). Clanculum with Acc., only in Terence.

9. Contrā. Opposite to, over against, opposed to, against. It appears as a Preposition first in the classical period, and is used both in local and transferred senses. In the latter case the force is predominantly hostile.

10. Ergā. Opposite, towards. Of Place; very rarely, in early and late Latin. Usually in the transferred sense of friendly relations. The hostile sense is occasional in comedy, Nepos, and later writers. Ergā is used always of Persons or personified Things until the time of Tacitus.

11. Extrā. Without, outside of, beside. It is used of local and transferred relations; rarely in the sense of sine (Tac., II., i. 49); occasionally in sense of praeter, except.

12. Infra. Beneath, lower down. Of Space; more frequently in classical Latin, of Rank or Grade; Temporal but once (C., Br., i, 40). It occurs but rarely in later Latin, and is cited only once from early Latin (Ter., Enni., 489).

13. Inter. Between. Of Place Where, rarely of Place Whither. Colloquial were phrases like inter viam (viās), on the road, inter nōs, between ourselves. Inter paucōs, preeminently, is post-classical. Of Time, during; at all periods, but in Cicero principally in the Letters.


15. Íuxtá [i.e., adjoining]. Hard by, near, next to. It appears as a Preposition first in Varro, then in Caesar, but not in Cicero. It is used locally until Livy, who employs it also in transferred senses of Time, Order, etc.

16. Ob [i.e., over against, opposite to]. Right before. Of Place occasionally at all periods (not in Caesar, Livy, Curtius, Tacitus). Of Cause, for; found in early Latin (not with personal pronouns in Plautus), in classical and post-classical Latin in increasing proportion. Caesar uses it only in formulae with rem (rēs) and causam.

Cicero and Caesar do not use ob id or ob ea, which, found in early Latin, reappear in Sallust. Ob has almost completely supplanted propter in Tacitus. With the substantive and participle (ob défēnsum Capitolium) ob is found first in Livy.

17. Penes. With = in the hands of; of Persons. Applied to
Things, it is found in poetry first in Horace; in prose first in Tacitus. It is found wholly with esse until later Latin.

18. Per. Of Space, through; of Time, during; of Cause, owing to; of Instrument, by (both persons and things); of Manner, by, in. It is used phraseologically in oaths, by; also with persons (sometimes things), as per me licet, as far as I am concerned you may. Per = ab of Agent is found only in late Latin.

19. Pone. Behind, only in Local relations; it is most frequent in Plautus, occurs but once in Cicero, never in Caesar or Horace, and is rare in general.

20. Post. Of Place, behind; rare, but in good usage. Of Time, after. Of Rank, subordinate to; in Sallust, poets, and late prose.

21. Praeter. Of Place, in front of, on before, past. In a transferred sense, except; contrary to (opiniolem and the like). Of Rank, beyond (praefer omnes is cited only from Plautus and Horace; usually praeter ceteros).

22. Prope. Of Place, near; found first in the classical period. It sometimes has the constructions of adjectives of Nearness. Of Time, near; very rare and post-classical, as Livy, Suetonius. Propius is found first in Caesar as a preposition.

23. Propter. Of Place, near. Of Cause, on account of; very common in early and classical Latin, but avoided by many authors, notably Tacitus. With substantive and participle it appears first in Varro; then is common in Livy, and later.

24. Secundum [i.e., following]. Of Place, along (litus), close behind; very rare (C., Fam., iv. 12, l). Of Time, immediately after; in early Latin and Cicero, common in Livy, but never in Caesar, Sallust, Tacitus. Of Series, next to; in Plautus and Cicero. Of Reference, according to; at all periods. Secus is ante-classical and rare.

25. Supra. Of Place, above, beyond; so Cicero almost exclusively. Of Time, beyond; very rare. Of Grade, above. Of Authority, in charge of; Vitruvius and later.

26. Trans. On the other side, beyond, across; only in Local relations.

27. Ultra. Of Space and Measure, on that side, beyond. Of Time; only in late Latin. The early form uls is very rare and in formulae, as, Cis Tiberim et uls Tiberim. In late Latin ultra supplants praeter almost wholly.

28. Usque, up to, is found once in Terence, several times in Cicero, and occasionally later, with the Acc. of the name of a town. With other names of localities it appears first in Livy.

29. Versus, -ward. As a preposition it first appears in the classical period and is found usually with names of Towns, and small Islands; with other words it is regularly combined with the prepositions ad (not in Cicero) or in.
II. Prepositions Constrained with the Ablative.

417. Prepositions constrained with the Ablative are ā (ab, abs), absque, cōram, cum, dē, ē (ex), prae, prō, sine, tenus; rarely fine, palam, procul, simul.

1. Ā (ab, abs). Of Place Whence, from, especially of the point of departure; so in phrases, ā tergo, ā capite, etc. Of Cause, from (Irā); beginning with Livy. Of Agent, by. Of Remote Origin, from. Of Time, from. Of Reference, according to, after. Of Specification, in (doleō ab oculis); often with compound verbs.

Note.—The form before vowels and h is always ab; before consonants usually ā, though ab is not uncommon before consonants other than the labials b, f, p, v, and is frequent before l, n, r, s, and i (j); abs is found only before ē and in the combination absque. Cicero uses abs ē in his early writings, but prefers ā ē in his later ones.

2. Absque [i.e., off]. Without. Peculiar to early Latin, where it is used in conditional sentences only. Occasionally in later Latin, as, absque sententiā (Quint., vii. 2, 44), for praeter sententiam.

3. Cōram. Face to face with, in the presence of; it is used with Persons only, and is found first in Cicero, and then in later writers, but in general it is rare until the time of Tacitus, who uses it very often in the Annals and always postpones.

4. Cum. With; of Accompaniment in the widest sense. With Abl. of Manner regularly when there is no attributive; often when there is one. Sometimes it is used of mutual action: ōrāre cum, plead with (Plautus), etc.

5. Dē. Of Place, down from, and then from; especially with compounds of dē and ex. Of Source, from; with verbs of Receiving (actual and mental). Of Origin; but mainly in poetry and later prose. Of Object, concerning. Of Time; in phrases dē nocte, dē diē (diem dē diē, day after day). Of the Whole from which a part is taken. Of Reference, according to (dē sententiā). Of Material; poetical and late.

6. Ė (ex). Of Place, out of, from. Often in phraseological usages, as ex parte, partly; ex asse, and the like. With verbs of Receiving, from. Of Time, from; ex tempore is phraseological. Of Origin, from. Of Reference, according to. Of Manner: in many phrases, as ex aequō, ex ērdine. Ė is used before consonants only, ex before both vowels and consonants.

7. Fine (or fini). Up to; found in Plautus and Cato, then not until very late Latin. With the Gen. it occurs in b. Afr. and in Sallust, Fr.; then not until Ovid and very late Latin.

8. Palam, in the sense of cōram, in the presence of, is found first in Horace and Livy, and is rare.
9. Prae. Of Place, in front of; with verbs of Motion only, in classical Latin. In early Latin in the phrase prae manū, at hand. Of the Preventive Cause, for; with negatives only, in and after the classical period; in early Latin, also in positive sentences. Of Comparison, in comparison with; occasionally at all periods.

10. Prō. Of Place, before; not in early Latin, but found first in the classical period, where it is confined to certain combinations, as prō rōstris, castris, aede, vāllō, etc., and means before and on. In behalf of; not cited for early Latin. Instead of; very common at all periods. In proportion to; at all periods. Quam prō; found first in Livy.

11. Procul, far from, is poetical, and begins in prose with Livy. In classical Latin prose always with ab.

12. Simul, in the sense of cum, belongs to poetry and Tacitus (Ann., iii. 64).

13. Sine, without, is opposed to cum.

14. Tenus, to the extent of. Of Space (actual and transferred), as far as. It is found occasionally with the Gen., but almost wholly with Pl., and perhaps but once in Cicero (Ad ret., 83); otherwise it belongs to poetry, making its first appearance in prose in Cicero (Dei., 13, 36) and Livy. It occurs with the Acc. in late Latin. Tenus is always postponed.

III. Prepositions Constrained with the Accusative and Ablative.

418. Prepositions constrasted with the Accusative and Ablative are in, sub, subter, super.

1. In (the forms endo, indu, are early and rare). (a) With Accusative: Of Place, into, into the midst of. Of Disposition and Direction, towards. Of Time, into (multam noctem), for (diem, multōs annōs, posterum). Of Purpose or Destination, for; mostly post-classical. Of Manner, in, after. Phraseologically with neuter adjectives: in dēterius, for the worse; but mainly post-classical. With Distributives, to, among.

(b) With Ablative: Of Place, in, on. Of Time, within. Of Reference, in the case of, in regard to, in the matter of. Of Condition, in (armīs). In many phrases, especially with neuter adjectives, in incertō, dubīō, integrō, ambiguō, etc.

2. Sub. (a) With Accusative: Of Place Whither, under. Of Time Approaching, about (noctem, vesperum); just Past, immediately after. Of Condition, under (sub potestātem rediū).

(b) With Ablative: Of Place Where, under; also in phrases, sub armīs, etc. Of Time When. about: rare, and first in Caesar. Of Position, under (rēge, iūdice, etc.). Of Condition, under (ea condiciōne); first in Livy.
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3. **Subter.** (a) With Accusative; rare, and locally equal to **sub**.
   (b) With the Ablative; more rare and almost wholly poetical (Catullus and Vergil). *Cf.* C., *Tusc.*, v. 1, 4, which may be Acc. **Subtus** occurs only in *Vitr.*, iv. 2, 5, and then with the Accusative.

4. **Super.** (a) With Accusative but once before the classical time: Of Place, over, above. Of Time, during; found first in Pliny, *Epp.* Metaphorically of Degree, beyond (super modum); post-classical.
   (b) With the Ablative: Of Space, above. Of Time, during (not until the Augustan poets). Metaphorically = praeter; very rare: = de, concerning; colloquial; hence in Plautus, Cato, Cicero’s Letters (*ad Att.*), Sallust, Horace, Livy; but uncommon.

INFINITIVE.

The Infinitive as a Substantive.

419. The Infinitive is the substantive form of the verb.

**Note.**—The Infinitive differs from a verbal substantive in that it retains the adverbial attribute, the designations of voice and time, and the regimen of the verb:

*Amare,* to love; *valde amare,* to love hugely; *amari,* to be loved; *amavisse,* to have loved; *amare aliquem,* to love a man; *nocere alicui,* to hurt a man.

But the great claim of the Infinitive to be considered a verb lies in the involution of predicate and subject. Like the finite verb, the Infinitive involves predicate and subject; but the subj. is indefinite and the predication is dependent.

420. The Infinitive, when it stands alone, involves an indefinite Accusative Subject, and the Predicate of that Subject is, of course, in the Accusative Case.

*Regem esse,* to be king. *Bonum esse,* to be good. Compare *quid stultius quam aliquem eō sibi placere quod ipse non fecit,* Sen., *E.M.*, 74, 17; what is more foolish than for a man to (that a man should) pride himself on what he has not done himself.

So in the paradigm of the verb:

*Amaturum esse,* to be about to love.

**Note.**—On the Nom. with the Inf. by Attraction, see 528.

In consequence of this double nature, the Infinitive may be used as a substantive or as a verb.

421. The Infinitive, as a substantive, is used regularly in two cases only—Nominative and Accusative. In the other cases its place is supplied by the Gerund and the Ablative Supine.

**Notes.**—1. Traces of the original Dat. (or Loc.) nature of the Infinitive are still apparent in many constructions, which are, however, mostly poetical:
(a) With verbs of Motion in early Latin and the later poets, when ut, ad with
Gerundive or Sup. is to be expected.

Abiit aedem visere Minervae, Pl., B., 900; she went away to visit the temple
of Minerva. Semper in Oceanum mittit me quaerere gemmass, Prop., II. (iii.) 16
(S), 17; she is always sending me to the Ocean to look for (in quest of) pearls.

(b) With verbs of Giving, Rendering, and the like, in early Latin and the poets, where
the Acc. of the Gerundive is to be expected. Classical is the use of bibere only, in this
way. (The old form biber points to the effacement of the final sense of this Inf.)

Iovi bibere ministrâre, (f. C., Disc., 1. 26. Quem virum aut hêroa lyrâ vel
âcri tibiâ sümês celebrare, Clîo? II., O., 1. 12, 1. Different, of course, are cases
like di tibi posse tuôs tribuant defendere semper, Ov., Tr., iii. 5, 21, where posse
défendere is felt as potestâtem défendendi.

(c) With many adjectives where the Sup. in ã, or some construction of Purpose, is to
be expected.

In early Latin the adjectives are pàratûs, cônsuêtûs, défessus. But this usage is
widely extended by the Augustan poets Vergil and Horace, and later.

It is confined principally, however, to adjectives of capability, ability, necessity, etc.,
and adjectives like facilis (with act. as well as pass. Inf., first in Prop.), difficilis, and
the like: Rôma capî facilis, Lucan, II. 656. Note the strange usage dissentire
manifestus, Tac., Ann., ii. 57, 1, and occasionally elsewhere.

2. The Inf. may take an adj. attribute, but in classical prose this is limited to ip-
sum, hoc ipsum, and tòtum hoc:

Vivere ipsum turpe est nóbis, living itself is a disgrace to us. Quibusdam
tôtum hoc disiplicet philosophâri (280, 1, a).

The Infinitive as a Subject.

422. The Infinitive, as a Subject, is treated as a neuter
substantive.

Incipere multò est quam inpetrâre facilius, Pl., Pœn., 974: beginning
is much easier (work) than winning. Miserum est déturbâri fortunis
omnibus, C., Quinct., 31, 95; it is wretched to find one's self turned rudely
out of all one's fortunes. Non tam turpe fuit vincì quam contendisse
dêcûrum est, Ov., M., ix. 6 (280, 2, a).

Notes.—1. The use of the Inf. as a subj. grew out of its use as an obj., but the
original Dat. (Loc.) sense was lost to the consciousness just as the prepositional sense
of our own is lost when our Inf. becomes a subj.; as in, to err is human, to forgive
divine. No Roman felt turpe fuit vincì, as, there was disgrace in being beaten ;
bonus est legere was to him another bona est lêctîo (see Prîscian, 408, 27).

2. The substantives used as predicates are not common in early Latin. Lubidô est
is confined to Plautus. Stultitìa est, cônsilium est, and tempus est are universal.
Cicerò introduces the not uncommon mûs est, and many others with est, as: côns-
suêtûdî (-inis), vitium, iûs, fâs, nefâs, facinus, fûtum, caput, réts (Caesar),
opus, mûnus, officium, onûs, sapientia, and a few others. Still more are found
later. Many of these also take ut; so officium always in comedy (except Ter., And.,
331).

3. Neuter adjectives are used as predicates in great variety. Ciceronian are certiùs
(quam), cônsentâneum, falsum, incrèdibile, integrum, glôriûsum, mûnûs
(quam), mûrum, novom, optimum, réctum, singulâre, trítum, vêrimile,
vêrûm. Most of them, however, but once. Some of these also take ut, but not often
in good prose.
4. In early Latin many impersonal verbs are used as predicates. Classical Latin retains most of them, but drops condecect, disputet, subolet, and adds some, such as paenitet, ëdecet, displicet, prödest, obet, attinet. Others come in later. Some, such as oportet, also take ut or the simple Subj. Noteworthy is est, it is possible, found first in Varro and Lucr., then not till Ver. and Hor., and never common.

5. Certain abstract phrases, whose meanings are akin to the words already mentioned, take the Inf. as a subject. So especially predicate Genitives, as consuetudinis and mōris; or combinations like quid negotii, nihil negotii est; predicate Datives such as cordi est, cūrae est, both unclassical; or phrases, as operae pretium, in animō esse, in mentem venire, of which the last two were introduced by Cicero.

The Infinitive as an Object.

423. 1. The Infinitive is used as the Object of Verbs of Creation, commonly known as Auxiliary Verbs.

These Verbs help the Infinitive into existence.

2. Such verbs denote Will, Power, Duty, Habit, Inclination, Resolve, Continuance, End, and the like, with their opposites.

Émorî cupiô, Ter., Heaut., 971; I want to die. [Catô] esse quam vidēri bonus mâlēbat, S., C., 54. 5: Cato preferred being (good) to seeming good. Sed precor ut possim tūtius esse miser, Ov., Tr., v. 2, 78; but I pray that I may be more safely wretched. Vincere scis, Hannibal; victoriā útī nescis, L., xxii. 51; how to win victory, you know, Hannibal; how to make use of victory, you know not. Qui morî didicit, servire dēdidicit, Sex., E. M., 26. 10; he who has learned to die has unlearned to be a slave. Maledictis dēterrēre nē scribat parat, Ter., Ph., 3; he is preparing (trying) to frighten (him) from writing, by abuse. Qui mentiri solet, pēeriāre consuévit, C., Rosc. Com., 16, 46; he who is wont to lie is accustomed to swear falsely. Vulnera quae fēcit dēbuit ipse pati, Ov., Am., ii. 3, 4; the wounds he gave he should himself have suffered. Vereor laudāre praesentem, C., N. D., 1. 21, 58; I feel a delicacy about praising a man to his face. Religionem animum nōdis exsolvere persō, Lucr., 1, 932: I go on to loose the spirit from the bonds of superstitions creeds. Tuā quod nīl rēfert, percontāri dēsinās, Ter., Hec., 810; cease to inquire what matters naught to you.

So habēō, I have (it in my power).

Tantum habēō pollicēri mē tibi cumulātē satisfactūrum, C., Fami., 1, 54, 3; so much I can promise, that I will give you abundant satisfaction.

Notes.—1. The original force of the Inf. is, in most of these constructions, hard to determine, and was certainly not felt by the Romans themselves. In many cases the Inf. seems to have been used because the governing word or phrase was felt to be more or less equivalent to a Verb of Creation.

2. The principal verbs, construed thus with the Inf., are as follows:

Will: velle, mālle, nōlle, cupere, optāre (rare, except in passive), petere, pōstu-lāre, avēre, audēre, dēsiderāre (first in Cíc., praestigire, gestire, ērdēre,
metuere (ante-class.), verēri, timēre, formidāre (ante-class.), reformidāre, horrēre, horrēscere, hortāri and compounds, monēre and compounds, suādēre (first in Cic.), persuādēre, iubēre, imperāre, praecipere, cōgere, permittere (once in Cic., then later), concēdere (first in Cic.), cūrāre (not in Caes., Sall., Livy), vetāre, recusāre (first in Cic.), mittere, omittere, intermittent, cunctāri, cessāre, morāri, dubitāre, gravāri, prohibēre, impedire, dēterrēre.

_Power:_ posse, quire, nequire, sustinēre (first in Cic.), valēre (first in Cic.), pollère (first in Cic.), habēre (rare, except in Cic.), scire, nescire.

_Duty:_ dēbēre, necesse habēō.

_Habit:_ assuēscere, assuēfacere (first in Cic.), cōnsuēscere, solēre.

_Inclination:_ cōnāri (only with Inf.), studēre, contendere, intendere (Caes.), laborāre (always with neg. in Cic.), mōlīri (rare). aggredi, ingredi, adorīri, nītī (first in Caes.), ēnītī (ante-class. and post-class.), quaerere (first in Cic.), temptāre (first in Hirticus).

_Resolve:_ cōgitāre, meditāri, meminī (mostly poet.), parāre, statuere (first in Cic.), constituere (first in Ter.), dēcernere (not class. in pass.), iūdicāre (first in Cic.), dēstināre (first in Caes.), certum est, dēliberātum est, prōpositum est (first in Cic.).

_Continuance:_ stāre (first in Cic.). Instāre, perstāre (once in Cic., then late), persēvērāre (first in Cic.), properāre (only word used in early Latin), fēstināre (first in Cic.), mātūrāre (first in Cic.).

_Beginning and End:_ coepī, incipere (first in Cic.), exōrdīri, pergere, dēscinere.

Poets are free in using the Inf. after other verbs.

3. Notice that _coepī, I have begun_, and _dēsinō, I cease_, are used in Pf. pass. with passive infinitives, in early Latin, Cicero, Caesar, always; later the construction varies, and Tacitus does not observe the rule.

Belō Athēniēnsēs undique premi sunt coeptī, Nep., xiii. 3. 1: _the Athenians began to feel the pressure of war on (from) all sides_. Veterēs grātiōnēs legī sunt dēsitae, C., Br., 32, 123; _the old speeches have ceased to be read_.

When the passives are really reflexives or neuter, the active forms may be used.

4. Verbs of Will and Desire take _ut_ as well as the Infinitive. So regularly _optō, I choose_, in classical prose.

5. Verbs which denote Hope, Promise, and Threat are treated as verbs of Saying and Thinking (539), but also occasionally as in English:

Spērant sē máximum fruētum esse captūrōs, C., Lael., 21. 73; _they hope that they will derive great advantage_. Subruptūrum pallam prōmisit tibī, Pl., Aesin., 930; _he promised to steal the mantle from you_.

6. Doceō, _I teach, iubeō, Tibi, vetō, I forbid, sinō, I let_, take the Inf. as a Second Accusative (339):

(_Dionysius_) nē collum tōnsōri committeret tondēre filiās suās docuit, C., Tusc., v. 20, 58: _Dionysius, to keep from trusting his neck to a barber, taught his daughters to shave (taught them shaving)._ Ipse iubet mortis tē meminisse deus, Mait., ii. 59 (676). _Vitae summa brevis spem nōs vetat inchoāre longam, H., O., i. 4, 15: life's brief sum forbids us open (a) long (account with) hope_. _Neu sinās Mēdōs equitāre inultōs, H., i. 2, 51: nor let the Median ride and ride unpunished_.

The Infinitive as a Predicate.

424. _The Infinitive, as a verbal substantive, may be used as a Predicate after the copula esse, to be, and the like._

_Doctō hominī et ēruditō vivere est cōgitāre_, C., Tusc., v. 38, 111; _to a learned and cultivated man to live is to think_.

"INFINITIVE."

"277"
GERUND AND GERUNDIVE.

425. The other cases of the Infinitive are supplied by the Gerund. With Prepositions, the Gerund, and not the Infinitive, is employed.

N. Legere difficile est, reading (to read) is hard to do.
G. Ars legendi, the art of reading.
   Puer studiósus est legendi, the boy is zealous of reading.
D. Puer operam dat legendo, the boy devotes himself to reading.
Ac. Puer cupid legere, the boy is desirous to read.
   Puer própensus est ad legendum, the boy has a bent toward reading.
Ab. Puer discit legendo, the boy learns by reading.

Note. Of course the Inf. may be quoted as an abstract notion, a form of the verb:
   Multum interest inter “dare” et “accipere,” Sen., Ben., 5, 10; there is a vast difference between “Give” and “Receive.”

426. As a verbal form, the Gerund, like the Infinitive, takes the same case as the verb.

Hominēs ad deōs nullā ré propius accēdunt, quam salūtem hominibus dandō. C., Lig., 12, 38; men draw nearer to the gods by nothing so much as by bringing deliverance to their fellow-men.

Notes.—1. The Gerund is the substantive of the Gerundive (251, n. 1). The most plausible theory connects the forms in -ndu- with those in -nt- (Pr. Part. active) as being verbal nouns originally without any distinction of voice. The signification of necessity comes mainly from the use as a predicate, i.e., through the characteristic idea. Thus, he who is being loved, implies he who is of a character to be loved (qui amētur), and then he who was loved.

   The Gerundive is passive: the Gerund, like other verbal nouns (363), is theoretically active or passive, according to the point of view. Practically, however, the passive signification of the Gerund is rare.

Iugurtha ad imperandum (= ut ei imperārētur, perhaps an old military formula) Tisidium vocabātūr, C. S., Leg., 62, 8.

2. Gerundive and Pr. Part. passive are often translated alike; but in the one case the action is progressive or prospective, in the other it is completed.

Caesare interficiendō Brūtus et Cassius patriae libertātēm restituere cōnāti sunt; by the murder of Caesar (by murdering Caesar), Brutus and Cassius endeavored to restore their country’s freedom to her. Caesare interfectō, Brūtus et Cassius patriae libertātēm nōn restituērunt; by murdering Caesar, Brutus and Cassius did not restore their country’s freedom to her.

427. Gerundive for Gerund.—Instead of the Gerund, with an Accusative Object, the object is generally put in the case of the Gerund, with the Gerundive as an Attribute.

G. Plācandō Dei, of appeasing God.
D. Plācandō Deō, for appeasing God.
Ab. Plācandō Deō, by appeasing God.
In model prose this construction is invariably employed with Prepositions.

Ad placandos Deos, for appeasing the gods (C., Cat., iii. 8, 20).

In placandis Dii, in appeasing the gods.

Notes.—1. It is impossible to make a distinction between the Gerund and the Gerundive form. They are often used side by side, where there can be no difference (L., xxi. 5, 5; xxy. 40, 6; xxviii. 37, 1; xxi. 26, 6). The preference for the Gerundive is of a piece with the use of the Pr. Part. pass. in preference to an Abstract Substantive (309, 1: 2).

2. The impersonal Gerundive is found with an Acc. obj. once in Plautus (agitantum dignitas, Trin., 869), and occasionally elsewhere in early Latin (principally Varro); very rarely in Cicero and for special reasons (Cat., ii., 2, 6); here and there later (not in Caesar, Horace, Ovid, and, perhaps, Livy).

Aceternas quoniam poenás in morte timendumst, L. Cr., i. 111; since we must fear eternal punishments in death.

3. Neuter adjectives and pronouns are not attracted: aliquid faciendo ratio, C., Inv., i. 25, 36; method of doing something. Cupiditas plúra habendí, greed for having more. But when the neuter adjective has become a substantive (204, n. 2), the Gerundive form may be used: cupiditas verí videndi, C., Fin., ii. 11, 46; the desire of seeing the truth.

4. The Gerundive with personal construction can be formed only from Transitive Verbs, like other passives (217). Hence the impersonal form must be used for all verbs that do not take the Acc., but with such verbs prepositions are rarely found.

Ad non pàrendum senátui, L., xlii. 9, for not obeying the senate.

5. But the Gerundives from útor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor (407) have the personal construction, but usually only in the oblique cases (C., Fin., i. 1, 3, is an exception), as a remnant of their original usage. The poets and later prose writers use still more forms in the same way, as laetandus, dolendus, medendus, paenitendus, etc. Cicero also shows single instances of glorìandus, dissérendus, respondéndus.

6. The use of the Num. of the Gerundive follows the ordinary rules of the Nominative.

Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive.

428. The Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive is used chiefly after substantives and adjectives which require a complement:

Sapientia aras vivendi putanda est, C., Fin., i. 13, 42; philosophy is to be considered the art of living. Et propter vitam vivendi perdere causas, Juv., viii. 84; and on account of life, to lose the reasons for living. Raucaque garrulítás studiumque immáne loquendi, Ov., Met., v. 678; and hirsute chattering, and a monstrous love of talking. Triste est nónem ipsum carrendi, C., Tusc., i. 36, 87; diss mát is the mere word “care” (go without). Nón est placandi spés mihi nulla Dei, Ov., Tr., v. 8. 22; I am not without hope of appeasing God. Ignorant cupidí maledícendi plúr invidiam quam convicium posse, Quint., vi. 2. 16; those who are eager to abuse know not that envy has more power than billingsgate. (Titus) equitandí perítissimus fuit, Suet., Tit., 3; Titus was exceedingly skillful in riding. Neuter sui prótegendi corporis memor (erat), L., ii. 6, 9; neither
thought of shielding his own body. Qui hic mōs obsidendī viās et virōs aliēnōs appellandī? L., xxxiv. 2, 9; what sort of way is this of blocking up the streets and calling upon other women's husbands? Summa ēlū-dēndī occāsiōst mihi nunc senēs, Ter., Ph., 885; I have a tip-top chance to fool the old chaps now.

Remarks.—1. As meī, tuī, suī, nostri, vestri, are, in their origin, neuter singulars, from meum, my being, tuum, thy being, suum, one's being, etc., the Gerundive is put in the same form: conservandī suī, of preserving themselves; vestrī adhortandī, of exhorting you; and no regard is had to number or gender.

Cōpia plācandī sit modo parva tuī, Ov., Her., 20, 74; let (me) only have a slight chance of trying to appease you (feminine).

2. The Gen. of the Gerund and Gerundive is used very commonly with causā, less often with grātia, and rarely with (antiquated) ergō, on account of, to express Design: Dissimulandī causā in senātum vēnit, S., C., 31, 52; he came into the senate for the purpose of dissimulation.

The Gen. alone in this final sense is found once in Terence, several times in Sallust, occasionally later, especially in Tacitus.

(Lepidus arma) cēpit libertātis subvortundae, S., Phil. Fr., 10: Lepidus took up arms as a matter of (for the purpose of) subverting freedom.

More commonly ad, rarely ob. See 432.

Esse with this Gen. may be translated by serve to; this is occasional in Cicero; see 366, 429, 1.

Omnia discrimina tālia concordiae minuendae [sunt], L., xxxiv. 54, 5; all such distinctions are matters of (belong to) the diminishing of concord (serve to diminish concord). Compare Caes., B. G., v. 8, 6: [nāvēs] quās suī quisque commodi fēcerat, ships which each one had (had) made (as a matter) of personal convenience.

Notes.—1. In early Latin, in Cicero (early works, Philippics and philosophical writings), then in later authors, we find occasionally a Gen. Sing. of the Gerund, followed by a substantive in the Plural. Here it is better to conceive the second Gen. as objectively dependent upon the Gerund form.

Agitur utrum Antōniō facultās dētur agrōrum suis latrōnibus condō-nandī, C., Ph., v. 3, 6; the question is whether Antony shall receive the power of giving away (of) lands to his pet highwaymen.

2. Fās est, nefās est, iūs est, fātum est, cōpia est, ratiō est, cōnsilium est, cōnsilium capere, cōnsilium inōre, and a few others, have often the Inf. where the Gerund might be expected. Sometimes there is a difference in meaning; thus tempus, with Gerund, the proper time (season), with Inf., high time.

The poets and later prose writers extend this usage of the Infinitive.

3. Another peculiarity of the poets is the construction of the adj. or subst. like the cognate verb with the Inf., instead of with the Gen. of the Gerund. (At) sēcūra quiēs et nescia fallere (= quae nesciat fallere) vita, V., C., 11, 467; quiet without a care, and a life that knows not how to disappoint (ignorant of disappointment).

Later prose is more careful in this matter.

4. The Gen. of Gerund, depending upon a verb, is rare and Tacitean (Ann., 11, 43). Tacitus also uses the appositional Gerund with a substantival neuter (Ann., xiii, 26).
GERUND AND GERUNDIVE.

5. Some substantives, like auctor, dux, may have a Dat. instead of a Gen.; Liv., 1. 23: me Albani gerendō bellō ducem créavère.

Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive.

429. The Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used chiefly after words that denote Fitness and Function.

1. The usage is rare in classical Latin, and begins with a few verbs and phrases: esse (= parem esse), to be equal to; praeesse and praeescer, to be (put) in charge of; studère and operam addère, labōrem impertire, to give one's attention to; then it is used with a few substantives and adjectives to give the object for which, and with names of Boards.

Solvendo civitātēs nōn erant, Cf. C., Fam., III, 8, 2; the communities were not equal to (ready for) payment. (were not solvent). [Sapiēns] virēs suās nōvit, scit sē esse onerī ferendō, Sen., E. M., 71, 26; the wise man is acquainted with his own strength; he knows that he is (equal) to bearing the burden.


2. Classical Latin requires ad with the Acc., but from Livy on the use of this Dat. spreads, and it is found regularly after words which imply Capacity and Adaptation. It is found also technically with verbs of Decreeing and Appointing, to give the Purpose.


Notes.—1. In early Latin the use of this Dat. is very restricted, it being found principally after studère; operam dare, or sūmere (both revived by Livy): finem (or modum) facere; and a few adjectival forms. Of the latter, Cicero uses only accommodātus, Caesar only pār.

2. Rare and unclassical is the Acc. in dependence upon a Dat. of the Gerund.

Epidicum operam quaerendō dabō, Pl., Ep., 605.

Accusative of the Gerundive.

430. The Gerundive is used in the Accusative of the Object to be Effected, after such verbs as Giving and Taking, Sending and Leaving, Letting, Contracting, and Undertaking. (Factive Predicate.)

Divītī hominī īd aurum servandum dedit. Pl., B., 338; he gave that
gold to a rich man to keep. Conōn mūros reficiendōs cūrât, Nep., ix. 4, 5; Conon has the walls rebuilt. Patriam diriipiendam reliquimus, C., Fam., xvi. 12, 1; we have left our country to be plundered. [Carvilius] aedem faciendam locāvit, l., x. 46, 14; Carvilius let the (contract of) building the temple.

Of course, the passive form has the Nominative:

Fìlius Philippì Dēmētrius ad patrem reducendus lēgātīs datur est, l., xxxvi. 35, 13; the son of Philip, Demetrius, was given to the envoys to be taken back to his father.

Notes.—1. Early Latin shows with this construction dare, conducere, locāre, rogāre, petere, habēre, prōpināre. Classical Latin gives up rogāre, petere, propīnāre, but adds others, as trādere, obicere, concedere, committere, cūrāre, relinquere, prōpōnere. Livy introduces suscipere. The use of ad in place of the simple Acc. is not common.

[Caesar] oppidum ad diriipiendum militibus concēssit, Caes., B. C., 118. 80, 6. But ad is necessary in nēmini sé ad docendum dabat, C., Br., 89, 306; he would yield to no one for teaching, i.e., would accept no one as a pupil.

2. Habeō dicendum and the like for habeō dicere, or, habeō quod dicam, belongs to later Latin (Tac., Dell., 37; Ann. iv. 40, etc.).

Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive.

431. The Ablative of the Gerund or Gerundive is used as the Ablative of Means and Cause, seldom as the Ablative of Manner or Circumstance.

Unus homō nōbis cunctandō restituit rem, Ennius (C., Cat. M., 4, 10); one man by lingering raised our cause again. Hominis mēns discendō alitur et cōgitandō, C., Off., l. 30, 105; the human mind is nourished by learning and thinking. Plaumum mē nómine recitandō dedérunt, Cf. C., Att., iv. 1, 6; they clapped when my name was read. Exercendō cottidie militē hostem opperiēbātur, l., xxxiii. 3, 5; drilling the soldiers daily he waited for the enemy.


2. The Abl. after a comparative is cited only from C., Off., i. 15, 47.

3. In post-Augustan Latin, and occasionally earlier, we find the Abl. of the Gerund paralleled by the Pr. participle: Bocchus, seu reputandō (= reputāns) . . . seu admonitus, etc., 8, lug., 103, 2.

Prepositions with the Gerund and Gerundive.

432. The Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive follows the preposition ad, seldom ante, circā, ergā, in, inter, ob, propter, and super. See 427.

Nūlla rēs tantum ad dicendum prōficit quantum scriptiō, C., Br. 24, 92;
nothing is as profitable for speaking as writing. Atticus philosophorun. praeeptis ad vitam agendam nōn ad ostentatiónem ütēbātur, Cf. Nēp., xxy. 17, 3; Atticus made use of the precepts of philosophers for the conduct of life, not for display. Inter spoliandum corpus hostis exspiravit, Cf. L., ii. 20, 9; while in the act of stripping the body of the enemy he gave up the ghost.

Remark.—Ad is very common; noteworthy is its use with verbs of hindering (palūs Rōmānōs ad însequendum tardābat, Caes., B. G., vii. 26, 2); with substantives to give the End (for); with adjectives of Capacity and Adaptation (aptus, facilis, etc.). See 429, 2.

Notes.—1. Ante is very rare (L., Praef., 6; V., G., iii. 206). Circā and ergā are post-Augustan and very rare. In gives the End For Which, and is classical but not common. Inter is temporal, during, while, and is found rarely in early, more often in later, but not in classical prose. Ob is used first by Cicero (not by Caesar), and is rare. Propter occurs first in Valerius Maximus; super first in Tacitus.

2. On the Infinitive after a Preposition, see 425.

433. The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive takes the prepositions ab, dē, ex, often in, but seldom prō. Post-Ciceronian and rare are cum and super.

Prohibenda máximē est īra in pūniendā, C., Off., i. 25, 89; especially to be forbidden is anger in punishing. [Brūtus] in liberandā patriā (= dum liberat) est interfactus, C., Cat., M., ii. 20, 75; Brutus was slain in the effort to free his country. Philosophi in īs libris īpsīs quōs scribunt dē con-
temnendā glōriā sua nōmina įnscribunt, C., Tusc., i. 15, 34 (385, r. 1). Ex discendō capiunt voluptātem, Cf. C., Fin., v. 18, 48; they receive pleasure from learning.

Notes.—1. In with Abl. is sometimes almost equivalent to a Pr. participle: In circumeundō exercitū animadvertit, b. Afr., 82.

2. Sine is used once in Varro, L.L., 6, 75, and in Donatus (Ter., And., 391).

3. Even when the word and not the action is meant, the Gerund is the rule: Discrepat ā timendō cōnsidere, C., Tusc., iii. 7, 11; the Inf. in Varro, L.L., 6, 50.

SUPINE.

434. The Supine is a verbal substantive, which appears only in the Accusative and Ablative cases.

The Accusative Supine.

435. The Accusative Supine (Supine in -um) is used chiefly after verbs of Motion, to express Design.

Galliae lēgātī ad Caesarem grātulātum convēnērunt, Caes., B. G., 1, 30, 1; the commissioners of Gaul came to congratulate Caesar. Spectātum
veniunt; veniunt spectentur ut ipsae, Ov., A. A., i. 99; they come to see the show; they come to be themselves a show. (Galli gallinacei) cum sole eunt cubitum, Plin., N. H., x. 24, 46; cocks go to roost at sunset. Stultitia est venatur ducere invitās canēs, Pl., St., 139; 'tis foolishness to take unwilling dogs a-hunting.

Notes.—1. Īre and venire are the most common verbs with the Supine, and they form many phrasological usages, as: īre coctum, cubitum, dormitum, pāstum, supplicātum, sessum, salūtātum, etc. Similarly dare is found in phrases with nūptum, venum, pessum.

2. The Supine is very common in early Latin, less so in Cicero, comparatively rare in Caesar, frequent again in Sallust and Livy. Later Latin, and especially the poets, show but few examples, as the final Inf. takes its place.

3. The Acc. Supine may take an object, but the construction is not very common:

(Hannibal) patriam défensus (more usual, ad défendendam patriam) revocātus est, Nep., xxiii. 6, 1; Hannibal was recalled to defend his country.

4. The Fut. Inf. passive is actually made up of the passive Inf. of īre, to go, īrī (that a movement is made, from itur; 298, 2), and the Supine:

Rūmor venit datum īrī gladiātōrēs, Ter., Hec., 39; the rumor comes that gladiators (gladiatorial shows) are going to be given.

The consciousness of this is lost, as is shown by the Nom. (528).

Reus damnātum īrī vidēbātur, Quint., ix 2, 88; the accused seemed to be about to be condemned.

The Ablative Supine.

436. The Ablative Supine (Supine in -ū) is used chiefly with Adjectives, as the Ablative of the Point of View From Which (397). It never takes an object.

Mirābile dictū, wonderful (in the telling) to tell, visū, to behold.

Id dictū quam rē facilius est, L., xxxi. 38, 4; that is easier in the saying than in the doing (easier said than done).

Notes.—1. Cicero and Livy are the most extensive users of this Supine; Caesar has but two forms: factū and nātū; Sallust but three; Cicero uses twenty-four. In early Latin and in the poets the usage is uncommon; in later Latin it grows. Altogether there are over one hundred Supines, but only about twenty-five Supines occur in Abl. alone; the most common are dictū, to tell, factū, to do, audītū, to hear, visū, to see, memorātū, relātū, trāctātū; then, less often, cognitū, to know, inventū, intellectū, sciētū, adsectū.

2. The adjectives generally denote Ease or Difficulty, Pleasure or Displeasure, Right or Wrong (fās and nefās). These adjectives are commonly used with Dative, and a plausible theory views the Supine in ā as an original Dative (uī).

3. Ad, with the Gerundive, is often used instead: Cibus facillimus ad concordandum, C., Fin., ii. 20, 64; food (that is) very easy to digest.

The Infinitive, facibilis concóquitūr, is poetical. Common is facīle concōquitūr.

Other equivalents are active īmīn., a verbal substantive, a Pf. Part. pass. (with opus), or a relative clause (with dignus).

4. The use of the Abl. Supine with verbs is very rare.

(Vilicus) primus cubītū surgat, postrēmus cubītum eat, Cat., Agr., 5, 5; the steward must be the first to get out of bed, the last to go to bed. Obsōnātū redeō, Pl., Men., 277; I come back from marketing (imitated by Statius).
PARTICIPLE.

437. The Participle may be used as a substantive, but even then generally retains something of its predicative nature.

Nihil est magnum somniandi, C., Div., ii. 68, 141: nothing is great to a dreamer (to a man, when he is dreaming). Regia, crede mihi, res est succurrere lapsis, Ov., Pont., ii. 9. 11: it is a kingly thing, believe me, (to run to catch those who have slipped,) to succor the fallen.

Remark.—The Attribute of the Participle, employed as a substantive, is generally in the adverbial form: recte facta, right actions; facete dictum, a witty remark.

Notes.—1. This use as a substantive is rare in classical prose, but more common in the poets and in post-classical prose. In the Pr. Part., principally sapiens, adulescens, amans; in the Pf. more often, but usually in the Plural: docti, the learned, victi, the conquered. The first examples of Fut. Part. used as substantives are nuntiatus (Curt., viii. 4, 32), peccatus (Tac., Agr., 19).

2. The use of an attributive or predicative Pf. Part. with a substantive is a growth in Latin. Early Latin shows very few cases, and those mostly with opus and usus. Cato has post dimissum bellum, and this innovation is extended by Varro, with propter. Cicero is cautious, employing the prepositions ante, de, in, post, praeter, but Sallust goes much farther, as the strange sentence inter haec parata atque decreta (664, r. 2) indicates. Livy and Tacitus are, however, characterized by these prepositional uses more than any other authors. The use of a Part. in the Nom. in this way is found first in Livy.

438. The Participle, as an adjective, often modifies its verbal nature, so as to be characteristic, or descriptive.

(Epaminondas) erat temporibus sapienter utiens, Nep., xv. 3. 1: Epaminondas was a man who made (to make) wise use of opportunities (= is qui uteretur). Senectus est operosa et semper aequae aliquid et meliens, Cf. C., Cat. M., 8, 26; old age is busy, and always doing something and working at something.

Remark.—Especial attention is called to the parallelism of the participle or adjective with the relative and Subjunctive:

Res parva dicta, sed quaee studiis in magnum certamen excesserit, L. xxxiv. 1; a small thing to mention, but one which, by the excitement of the parties, terminated in a great contest. Munera non ad delicias multaebris quaesita nec quibus nova nupta comatur, Tac., Germ., 18.

Note.—The Fut. Part. active is rarely used adjectively in classical Latin except the forms futurus, venturus. The predicate use after verbs of Motion to express Purpose is found first in Cicero (Terr., i. 21, 56), though very rarely, but becomes increasingly common from Livy's time. Livy is the first to use the Fut. Part. as an adjective clause, a usage which also becomes common later.

(Maroboduus) misit legatosis ad Tiberium oraturos auxilia, Tac., Ann., ii. 46; Marbod sent commissioners to Tiberius, to beg for reinforcements. Servilius adest
dē tē sententiam lātūrus (perhaps due to est). C., Terr., i. 21, 56. Rem ausus plūs fāmae habitūram (that was likely to have) quam fidei, L., ii. 10, 11. (Dictator: ad hostem dūcit, nūllō locō, nisi quantum necessitās cōgeret, fortūnāe sē commissūrus (with the intention of submitting), L., xxii. 12, 2.

**ADVERB.**

439. 1. The Predicate may be qualified by an Adverb.

2. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs, and sometimes substantives, when they express or imply verbal or adjective relations.

Male vivit, he lives ill: bene est, it is well; ferē omnēs, almost all; nimis saepe, too often; admodum adulescens, a mere youth; lāté rēx (V., A., i. 21), wide-ruling; bis cōnsul, twice consul; duo simul bella, two simultaneous wars.

Notes.—1. The form of the Adverb does not admit of any further inflection, and therefore the Adverb requires no rules of Syntax except as to its position.

2. With other adverbs and with adjectives, adverbs of degree only are allowable, to which must be reckoned bene, egregiē, and (later) insigniter. Poetical are such expressions as turpiter āter, splendide mendāx (II., A.F., 3; O., iii. 11, 35). Male as a negative is found with sānus only in Cicero (Att., ix. 15, 5); other combinations are poetical, or post-classical.

3. The translation for very varies at different periods: multum is common in Plautus and in Horace's Satires and Epistles, rare elsewhere; valē is introduced by Cicero, but did not survive him, to any extent. Sānē is also frequent in Cicero, especially in the Letters ad Attïcum. Cornificius affected vehementer, and so do colloquial authors, as Vitruvius; fortiter comes in later; bene is occasional in Plautus and Terence, more common in Cicero; oppidō is characteristic of early Latin, and Livy and the Archists; admodum is Ciceronian, but adatim comes later and is rare. Abundē is rare before the time of Sallust. Nimium (nimīō) belongs to early Latin, as do impēnsē and impendiō. Satis is common in the classical period, and also nimis, but mainly with negatives.

4. The Adverb as an attribute of substantives is rare. Cicero shows tum, saepe, quasi, tamquam. Livy uses more.

440. **Position of the Adverb.**—Adverbs are commonly put next to their verb, and before it when it ends the sentence, and immediately before their adjective or adverb.

Iniūstē facit, he acts unjustly. Admodum pulcher, handsome to a degree, very handsome. Valē diligenter, very carefully.

Remark.—Exceptions occur chiefly in rhetorical passages, in which great stress is laid on the adverb, or in poetry:

[Intam] bene Ennius initium dixit insāniae, C., Tusc., iv. 23, 52; well did Ennius call anger the beginning of madness. Vixit dum vixit bene Ter., Iuc., 461; he lived while he lived (and lived) well.

One class of Adverbs demands special notice—the Negatives.
Negative Adverbs.

441. There are two original negatives in Latin, nē and haud (haut, hau). From nē is derived nōn [nē-oimom (ūnum), no-whit, not]. Nē is used chiefly in compounds, or with the Imperative and Optative Subjunctive. The old use appears in nē—quidem. Nōn is used with the Indicative and Potential Subjunctive; hand negatives the single word, and is used mainly with adjectives and adverbs.

442. Nōn (the absolute not) is the regular Negative of the Indicative and of the Potential Subjunctive.

Quem amat, amat; quem nōn amat, nōn amat, Petr., 37; whom she likes, she likes; whom she does not like, she does not like.

Nōn ausim, I should not venture.

Remarks.—1. Nōn, as the emphatic, specific negative, may negative anything. (See 270, r. 1.)

2. Nōn is the rule in antitheses: Nōn est vivere sed valēre vita, Mart., vi. 70, 15; not living, but being well, is life.

Notes.—1. Nōn in combination with adjectives and adverbs, and rarely with substantives and verbs, takes the place of negative in- or ne-. Nōn arbitrabatur quod efficeret aliquid posse esse nōn corpus (ἀρσαματον), C., Ac., 1. 11, 39; Bell. M., 14, 17.

2. Other negative expressions are neutiquam, by no means; nihil, nothing ("Adam, with such counsel nothing swayed "). On nūlurus, see 317, 2. 8.

3. Nēc = nōn is found in early Latin, here and there in Verg., Livy, and Tacitus. In classical Latin it is retained in a few compounds, as: necopināns, negōtium, and in legal phraseology.

443. Hand is the negative of the single word, and in model prose is not common, being used chiefly with adjectives and adverbs: hand quisquam, not any; hand māgnus, not great; hand male, not badly.

Notes.—1. Hau is found only before consonants, and belongs to early Latin and Vergil. Haut (early) and hand are found indiscriminately before vowels.

2. Hand is very rarely or never found in Conditional, Concessive, Interrogative, Relative, and Infinitive sentences.

3. Caesar uses hand but once, and then in the phrase hand sciō an (457, 2). Cicero says also hand dubitō, hand ignōrō, hand errāverō, and a few others; and combines it also with adjectives and adverbs, but not when they are compounded with negative particles, i.e., he does not say hand difficilis, and the like.

4. Hand with verbs is very common in early Latin, and then again in Livy and Tacitus. In antitheses it is not uncommon in comedy, but usually in the second member: inceptiōst āmentium hand amantium, Ter., And. 218; the undertaking is one of lunatics, not lovers.

5. A strengthened expression is hand quaquam.
444. 1. **Nē** is the Negative of the Imperative and of the Optative Subjunctive.

Tū nē cēde malis, V., 4., vi. 95; *yield not thou to misfortunes.* **Nē** trānsieris Hibērum, L., xxii. 44, 6; *do not cross the Ebro.* **Nē** vivam, si scīo, C., Att., iv. 16, 8; *may I cease to live (strike me dead), if I know.*

**Notes.—1.** On the negative with the Imperative, see 270, n.

2. **Nē** as a general negative particle, = nōn, is found very rarely in early Latin, mostly with forms of velle (nē parcunt, Pl., Most., 124, is disputed). Classical Latin retains this only in nē—quidem, in compound nēquāquam, and in a shortened form in nefās, negō, neque, etc.

2. **Nē** is continued by nēve or neu. See 260.

Nē illam vēndās neu mē perdās hominem amantem, Pl., Ps., 322; *don't sell her, and don't ruin me, a fellow in love.*

445. **Subdivision of the Negative.**—A general negative may be subdivided by neque—neque, as well as by aut—aut, or strengthened by nē—quidem, not even.

Nihil umquam neque insolēns neque glōriōsum ex óre [Timoleontis] prōcessit, Nep., xx. 4, 2; *nothing insolent or boastful ever came out of the mouth of Timoleon.* Consciōrum nēmō aut latuit aut fūgit, L., xxiv. 5, 14; *of the accomplices no one either hid or fled.* Numquam [Scipiōnem] nē minimā quidem rē offendi, C., Lael., 27, 103; *I never wounded Scipio's feelings, no, not even in the slightest matter.*

("I will give no thousand crowns neither."—Shakespeare.)

**Note.**—In the same way negō, I say no, is continued by neque—neque (nec—nec): Negant nec virtūtēs nec vitia crēscere, C., Fin., iii. 15, 48; *they deny that either virtues or vices increase (that there are any degrees in).*

446. **Negative Combinations.**—In English, we say either no one ever, or, never any one; nothing ever, or, never anything; in Latin, the former turn is invariably used: nēmō umquam, no one ever.

Verrēs nihil umquam fēcit sine aliqū quaestū, C., Verr., v. 5, 11; *Verres never did anything without some profit or other.*

**Notes.—1.** No one yet is nōndum quisquam; no more, no longer, is iam nōn.

2. The resolution of a negative nōn ullus for nūllus, nōn umquam for numquam, nōn scīo for nesciō, is poetical, except for purposes of emphasis, or when the first part of the resolved negative is combined with a coordinating conjunction (480); Nōn ülla tibi facta est inīuria, Cf. C., Div. in Cae., 18, 60.

447. Negō (I say no, I deny) is commonly used instead of dicē nōn, I say—not.

Assem sēsē datūrum negat, C., Quintet., 5, 19; he says that he will not give a copper. Vel ai vel negā, Accius, 125 (R.); say yes or say no!

Remark.—The positive (āīō, I say) is sometimes to be supplied for a subsequent clause, as C., Fin., i. 18, 61. The same thing happens with the other negatives, as volō from nōlō, iubeō from vetō, sciō from nesciō, quēō from nequeō, quisquam from nēmō, ut from nē.

POSITION OF THE NEGATIVE.

448. The Negative naturally belongs to the Predicate, and usually stands immediately before it, but may be placed before any emphatic word or combination of words.

Potes nōn reverti, Sex., E.M., 49, 10; possibly you may not return. (Nōn potes reverti, you cannot possibly return.) Saepe virī fallunt; tenerae nōn saepe puellae, Ov., A.A., iii. 31; often do men deceive: soft-hearted maidens not often. Nōn omnis aetās, Lyde, lūdō convenit, Pl., B., 129; not every age, (good) Lydus (Playfair). sorts with play. Nōn ego ventōsa plēbis suffrāgia vēnor, II., Ep., i. 19, 37; I do not hunt the voices of the windy commons, no, not I.

Notes.—1. As the Copula esse, to be, is, strictly speaking, a predicate, the Negative generally precedes it, contrary to the English idiom, except in contrasts. The difference in position can often be brought out only by stress of voice: felix nōn erat, he wasn't happy; nōn felix erat, he was not happy, he was far from happy.

2. Nē—quidem straddles the emphatic word or emphatic group (445); but very rarely does the group consist of more than two words.

3. A negative with an Inf. is often transferred to the governing verb: nōn putant lūgendum (esse) virīs, C., Tusc., iii. 28, 70; on negō, see 447.

449. Two negatives in the same sentence destroy one another, and make an affirmative, but see 445:

Nōn negō, I do not deny (I admit).

Remarks.—1. Nōn possum nōn, I cannot but (I must).

Quī mortem in malīs pōnit nōn potest eam nōn timēre, C., Fin., iii. 8, 29; he who classes death among misfortunes cannot but (must) fear it.

2. The double Negative is often stronger than the opposite Positive; this is a common form of the figure Litotēs, understatement (700).

Nōn indoctus, highly educated: nōn sum nesciō, I am well aware.

Nōn indecorō pulvere sordidi, II., O., ii. 1, 22; swart (soiled) with (no dis)honorable dust. Nōn ignāra malī miseriis succurrere dicē, V., A., i. 630; not unacquainted (= but too well acquainted) with misfortune, I learn to succor the wretched.
3. It follows from n. 2 that nec non is not simply equivalent to et, and: nec belongs to the sentence, non to the particular word:

Nec hoc [Zeno] non vidit, C., Fin., iv. 22, 60; nor did Zeno fail to see this. At neque non (di) diligunt nōs, C., Div., ii. 49, 102; but neither (is it true that) the gods do not love us, etc.

In the classical Latin this form of connection is used to connect clauses but not single words, and the words are regularly separated. Varro, the poets, and later prose use necnon like et, and connect with it also single ideas.

4. Of especial importance is the position of the Negative in the following combinations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indefinite Affirmative</th>
<th>General Affirmative</th>
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<tr>
<td>nōnhil,</td>
<td>nihil nōn,</td>
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<tr>
<td>nōnnēmō,</td>
<td>nēmō nōn,</td>
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<td>nōnnūlli,</td>
<td>nūlli nōn,</td>
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<td>nōnnumquam,</td>
<td>numquam nōn,</td>
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<tr>
<td>nōnnūsquam,</td>
<td>nūsquam nōn,</td>
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In ipsā cūriā nōnnēmō hostis est, C., Mur., 39, 81: in the senate-house itself there are enemies (nēmō nōn hostis est, everybody is an enemy). Nōn est plācandi spēs mihi nulla Dei, Ov., Tr., v. 8, 22 (428); I have some hope of appeasing God (nulla spēs nōn est, I have every hope). Nēmō non dīdicisse māvult quam discere, Quint., iii. 1, 6; everybody prefers having learned to learning.

**INCOMPLETE SENTENCE.**

Interrogative Sentences.

450. An interrogative sentence is necessarily incomplete. The answer is the complement.

451. A question may relate:

(a) To the existence or the non-existence of the Predicate: Predicate Question.

Vivitne pater? Is my father alive?

(b) To some undetermined essential part of the sentence, such as Subject, Object, Adjective, Adverbial modifier: Nominal Question.


Remarks.—1. The second class requires no rules except as to mood (462).

2. The form of the question is often used to imply a negative opin-
452. 1. Interrogative sentences are divided into simple and compound (disjunctive). *Am I?* (simple); *Am I, or am I not?* (disjunctive).

**Note.**—Strictly speaking, only the simple interrogative sentence belongs to this section; but for the sake of completeness, the whole subject will be treated here.

2. Interrogative sentences are further divided into direct and indirect, or independent and dependent. *Am I?* (direct); *He asks whether I am* (indirect).

### DIRECT SIMPLE QUESTIONS.

453. Direct simple questions sometimes have no interrogative sign. Such questions are chiefly passionate in their character, and serve to express Astonishment, Blame, Disgust.

Infelix est Fabricius quod rüs suum fodit? Sex., Dial., i. 3. 6: Fabricius is unhappy because he digs his own field? (Impossible!) Heus, inquit, linguam vis meam praecidere? Phaedr., i. 23. 5: Ho! ho! quoth he, you wish to shut my mouth, you do? (You shall not.) Tuom parasitum nón novisti? Pl., Men., 505; you don't know your own parasite? (Strange!) Hune tū vitæ splendidōrem maculis adspergis istic? C., Plane., 12. 30; you bespatter this splendid life with such blots as those?

**Notes.** 1. Questions of this kind are characteristic of the Comic Poets. In Cicero they are found especially in expressions of doubt, with *posse*, and with an emphatic personal pronoun.

2. Such a question may have the force of a command. So in the phrase *etiam tū tacēs?* won't you keep quiet? common in comedy (Pl., Trin., 514).

3. Noteworthy is the occasional usage of the question in place of a condition. *Amat?* sapit, Pl., Am., 905; *is he in love? he is sensible.* Tristis es? indignor quod sum tibi causa doloris, Ov., Tr., iv. 3, 33 (543). See 593, 4.

4. When several questions follow in immediate succession, only the first generally takes the Interrogative Pronoun, or -ne. Repeated questioning is passionate.

5. On *ut* in the exclamatory question, see 538

454. **Interrogative Particles.**—*Ne* (enclitic) is always appended to the emphatic word, and generally serves to denote a question, without indicating the expectation of the speaker.

Omnisne pecūnia dissolūta est? C., Verr., iii. 77. 180: *is all the money paid out?* (Estne omnis pecūnia dissolūta? *is all the money paid out?*)

**Remarks.**—1. As the emphatic word usually begins the sentence,
so -ne is usually appended to the first word in the sentence. But exceptions are not uncommon.

2. -Ne is originally a negative. Questioning a negative leans to the affirmative; and -ne is not always strictly impartial.

Notes.—1. -Ne sometimes cuts off a preceding -s (in which case it may shorten a preceding long vowel), and often drops its own e. *Viden? Seest? Tüh? Satin? For certain? Also scin, ain, vín, itan, etc.* This occurs especially in early Latin.

2. This -ne is not to be confounded with the asserervative -ne, which is found occasionally in Plautus and Terence, Catullus, Horace (ō sērī studiōrum, quīne putētis, etc.), II., S., 1, 10, 21, a much discussed passage), and later appended to personal, demonstrative, and relative pronouns.

3. In poetry -ne is sometimes appended to interrogative words, to heighten the effect: *utrumne (II., S., 11, 3, 251), quōne (II., S., 11, 3, 295).*

4. -Ne is often added to personal pronouns in indignant questions: *tūne ināne quicquam putēs esse? C., Ac., II, 40, 125.*

5. In early Latin -ne seems to be used sometimes with a force similar to that later exercised by nōnne; but in most of the examples the expectation of an affirmative answer seems to be due rather to the context than to ne; see, however, R. 2.

455. Nōnne expects the answer *Yes.*

Nōnne meministi? C., Fin., II, 3, 10; *do you not remember? Nōnne is generōsisissimus qui optimus? Quint., V, 11, 4; is he not the truest gentleman who is the best man?*

So the other negatives with -ne: nēmōne, nihilne, and the like.

Note.—Nōnne is denied for Plautus, but wrongly, though it occurs but rarely, and regularly before a vowel. It is also rare in Terence. In classical Latin it is frequent, but is never found in Catullus, Tibullus, and Seneca Rhétor.

456. Num expects the answer *No.*

Numquīs est hic alius praetēr mē atque tē? Nēmō est, Pl., Tr., 69; *is anybody here besides you and me? No. Num tibi cum faūces ērit sitis, aurea quærus pōcula? II., S., 1, 2, 114; *when thirst burns your throat for you, do you ask for golden cups? [No.]*

Note.—Numne is found very rarely, perhaps only in C., N. D., 1, 31, 88, and Lact., II, 36. Numnam belongs to early Latin. In many cases in early Latin, num seems to introduce a simple question for information, without expecting a negative answer.

457. 1. An (or) belongs to the second part of a disjunctive question.

Sometimes, however, the first part of the disjunctive question is suppressed, or, rather, involved. The second alternative with an serves to urge the acceptance of the positive or negative proposition involved in the preceding statement. This abrupt form of question (or, then) is of frequent use in Remonstrance, Expostulation, Surprise, and Irony.

Nōn manum abstīnēs? An tibi iam māvīs cerebrum dispersam hic? Ter., Ad., 751; *are you not going to keep your hands off? Or would
you rather have me scatter your brains over the place now? (Vir custōdit absēns, my husband, keeps guard, though absent. Is it not so?) An nescīs longās régibus esse manūs? Ov., Her., 16, 166; or perhaps you do not know (you do not know, then) that kings have long hands (arms).

Notes.—1. This usage is found in early Latin, but is a characteristic of Cicero especially.
2. An is strengthened by ne. This is found frequently in early Latin, more rarely later. Cicero uses anne only in disjunctive questions, and Horace, Tibullus, Propertius not at all.
3. In early Latin very frequently, less often in the poets; occasionally in prose, beginning with Livy, an is used as a simple interrogative; so nescīō an = nescīō num. There seems to be good reason for believing that an was originally a simple interrogative particle, but became identified later with disjunctive questions.

2. Especially to be noted, in connection with an, are the phrases, nescīō an (first in Cicero, and not common), haud scīō an (this is the usual phrase: haud sciam an is rare), I do not know but; dubitō an, I doubt, I doubt but = I am inclined to think; incertum an (once in Cicero), and rarely dubitārim and dubium an, which give a modest affirmation; very rarely a negation. Negative particles, added to these expressions, give a mild negation.

Haud scīō an ita sit, C., Tusc., ii. 17, 41; I do not know but it is so. Haud scīō an nulla (senectūs) beātior esse possit, C., Cat.M., 16, 56; I do not know but it is impossible for any old age to be happier.

Dubitō an [Thrasybūlum] primum omnium pōnam, Nep., viii. 1, 1; I doubt but I should (= I am inclined to think I should) put Thrasybulus first of all.

Note.—In early Latin these phrases are still dubitative. The affirmative force comes in first in Cicero, and seems to have been equivalent to forsitān, perhaps, with the Potential Subjunctive: Æquās Ĥeque fuit quae fāta requirās, V., l., 11, 506; perhaps you may ask what was the fate of Priam, too.

DIRECT DISJUNCTIVE QUESTIONS.

458. Direct Disjunctive Questions have the following forms:

First Clause. Second and Subsequent Clauses.

utrum, whether, an (anne), or
-ne, an,

Utrum nescīs quam altē ascenderīs, an prō nihilō id putās? C., Fam., x. 26, 3; are you not aware how high you have mounted, or do you count that as nothing? Vōsne Lūciūm Domitiūs an vōs Domitiūs déseruit? Caes., B.C., ii. 32, 8; have you deserted Lūcius Domitius, or has Domitius deserted you? Ėloquar an uileam? V., A., 111. 39; shall I speak, or hold my peace? Utrum hōc tū parum commeministi, an ego nōn satis intellexi, an mūtāsti sententiam? C., Att., ix. 2: do you not remember this, or did I misunderstand you, or have you changed your view?
294 INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

Notes.—1. Utrumne—an is found once in Cicero (Inv., i. 31, 51), not in Caesar or Livy, occasionally elsewhere (L., Epod., i, 7); utrum—ne—an is more common. Ne—an, which is common in prose, is not found in Cat., Tib., Prop., Hor., Lucan.
2. Ne in the second member, with omitted particle in first member, occurs only in: II., Ep., i. 11, 3 (disputed), in the direct question, except in the combination necne (459).
3. Ne—ne is very rare; V., A., ii. 738; xi. 126.
4. Aut (or), in questions, is not to be confounded with an. Aut gives another part of a simple question, or another form of it (or, in other words). An excludes, aut extends.

(Voluptās) melioremne efficit aut laudābiliōrem virum? C., Parad., i. 3. 15: does pleasure make a better or more praiseworthy man? (Answer: neither.) Tū virum mē aut hominem députās adeō esse? Ter., Iec., 524: do you hold me to be your husband or even a man?

459. In direct questions, or not is annōn, rarely necne; in indirect, necne, rarely annōn.

Isne est quem quaerō, annōn? Ter., Ph., 852: is that the man I am looking for, or not? Sitque memor nostri necne, referte mihi, Ov., Tr., iv. 3. 10 (204, n. 7).

Notes.—1. Necne is found in direct questions in Cicero, Tusc., iii. 18, 41 (sunt haec tua verba necne?), Flacc., 25, 59; and also Lucr., iii. 713. Annōn in indirect questions occurs in Cicero, Inv., i. 52, 95; i. 20, 60; Cat., xi, 52; Bulb., 8, 52, etc.
2. Utrum is sometimes used with the suppression of the second clause for whether or not? but not in early Latin. So C., Flacc., 19, 45, etc.

INDIRECT QUESTIONS.

460. Indirect questions have the same particles as the direct, with the following modifications.

1. Simple Questions.

(a) Num loses its negative force, and becomes simply whether. It decays in later Latin.

Speculāri (iussērunt) num sollicitāti animi sociōrum essent, L., xlii. 19, 8; they ordered them to spy out whether the allies had been tampered with.

(b) Sī, if, is used for whether, chiefly after verbs and sentences implying trial. Compare Ō si (261).

Temptāta rēs est sī primō impetū capī Ardea posset, L., i. 57, 2; an attempt was made (in case, in hopes that, to see) if Ardea could be taken by a dash (coup-de-main). Ōbō, visam sī domi est (467, n.), Ter., Heaut., 170; I will go (to) see if he is at home.

Notes.—1. An is sometimes used for num and ne, but never in model prose.
Conāsuluit deinde (Alexander) an tōtius orbis imperium fātis sībī dēstīnārētur, Curt., iv. 7, 26; Alexander then asked the oracle whether the empire of the whole world was destined for him by the fates.
2. Nōnne is cited only from Cicero and only after quaerere (Ph., xii. 7, 15).
2. Disjunctive Questions.

In addition to the forms for Direct Questions (458), a form with -ne in the second clause only is found in the Indirect Question, but is never common; see 458, n. 2.

Tarquinius Prisci Tarquinii regis filius neposne fuerit parum liquet, L., 1. 46, 4; whether Tarquin was the son or grandson of king Tarquin the Elder does not appear.

Notes.—1. The form -ne is not found in Caesar or Sallust.
2. The form ne—ne is poetical, except once in Caesar (B. G., viii. 141, 8).
3. Utrum ne—an is rare but classical. Utrumne—an begins with Horace, is not found in Livy, Vell., Val. M., or either Pliny. In Tacitus only in the Dialogus.

SUMMARY OF DIRECT AND INDIRECT DISJUNCTIVE QUESTIONS.

461. Direct.

Is the last syllable short or long? Cf. C., Or., 64, 217.

Postrēma syllaba utrum brevis est an longa?

brevis ne—an longa?

Indirect.

In a verse it makes no difference whether the last syllable be short or long:

utrum postrēma syllaba brevis sit an longa.

postrēma syllaba brevisne sit an longa.

postrēma syllaba brevis an longa sit (Cicero).

postrēma syllaba brevis sit longane.

MOODS IN INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

1. In Direct Questions.

462. The Mood of the question is the Mood of the expected or anticipated answer.

463. Indicative questions expect an Indicative answer, when the question is genuine.

A. Quis homō est? B. Ego sum, Ter., And., 965; who is that? It is I.

A. Vivitne (pater)? B. Vivom liquimus, Pl., Capt., 282; is his father living? We left him alive.

464. Indicative questions anticipate an Indicative answer in the negative when the question is rhetorical.

Quis non paupertātem extimēscit? C., Tusc., v. 31, 89; who does not dread poverty?
Remark.—Nonne and num in the direct question are often rhetorical (see Pl., Am., 539; C., Div., 1. 14, 24). With nonne a negative answer is anticipated to a negative, hence the affirmative character. Compare further, 451, r. 2.

465. Subjunctive questions which expect Imperative answers are put chiefly in the First Person, when the question is deliberative.

A. Abeam? B. Abi, Pl., Merc., 749; shall I go away? Go.
A. Quid nune faciam? B. Te suspendito, Pl., Ps., 1229; what shall I do now? Hang yourself.

Remark.—So in the representative of the First Person in dependent discourse (265).

466. Subjunctive questions anticipate a potential answer in the negative, when the question is rhetorical.

Quis hoc crēdat? who would believe this? [No one would believe this.] Quid faceret aliud? what else was he to do? [Nothing.]
Quis tulerit Gracchōs dē sēditiōne quarentēs? Juv., ii. 24 (359).

Remark.—On the Exclamatory Question see 534, 558.

2. In Indirect Questions.

467. The Dependent Interrogative is always in the Subjunctive.

The Subjunctive may represent the Indicative.

[Cōnsiderābimus] quid fēcerit (Indic. fēcit), quid faciat (Indic. facit), quid factūrus sit (Indic. faciet or factūrus est), Cf. C., Inv., 1. 25, 36: we will consider what he has done, what he is doing, what he is going to do (will do). (Epaminondās) quaesīvit salvusne esset clipeus, C., Fin., ii. 30, 97: Epaminondas asked whether his shield was safe. (Salvusne est?)

The Subjunctive may be original. See 265.

Ipse docet quid agam: fās est et ab hoste docerī, Ov., M., iv. 428 (219); (Quid agam, what I am to do; not what I am doing). Quaeō a tē cūr C. Cornēlium nōn dēfenderem, C., Val., 2, 5: I inquire of you why I was not to defend C. Cornelius. (Cūr nōn dēfenderem? why was I not to defend?)

Remarks.—1. Nesciō quis, nesciō quid, nesciō quī, nesciō quod, I know not who, what, which; may be used exactly as indefinite pronouns, and then have no effect on the construction. This usage is found at all periods.

Nesciō quid māius nāscitur Ἰλιάδε, Prop., ii. (iii.) 32 (34), 66; something, I know not what, is coming to the birth, greater than the Ἰλιάδ.
2. The Relative has the same form as the Interrogative quis except in the Nom. Sing.; hence the importance of distinguishing between them in dependent sentences. The interrogative depends on the leading verb, the relative belongs to the antecedent. (611, r. 2.)

Interrogative: dic quid rogem, tell me what it is I am asking.
Relative: dic quod rogō, Ter., And., 764; tell me that which I am asking (the answer to my question).

The relative is not unfrequently used where we should expect the interrogative, especially when the facts of the case are to be emphasized:

Dicam quod sentiō, C., Or., 1. 44, 195; I will tell you my real opinion.

Incorporated relatives are not to be confounded with interrogatives:

Patefació vōbis quās īstī penitus abstrūsās insidiās (= insidiās quās) sē posuisset arbitrantur, C., Agr., ii. 18, 49; I am exposing to your view the schemes which those people fancy they have laid in profound secrecy.

Note.—In the early Latin of Comedy the leading verb is very frequently disconnected from the interrogative, which consequently appears as an independent sentence with the Indicative. This is most common after dic, respondē, loquere, and kindred imperatives: vidē (Plautus also circumspice, respice); tē rogō, interrogō, quaerō, and similar phrases: audire, videre, etc., sé; relative words, quī, quōmodō, etc., where the modal and not interrogative force is prominent. Classical prose has given up all these usages. A few cases in Cicero are contested or differently explained. In poetry and later prose the examples are found only here and there.

Dic, quid est? Pa., Men., 399; tell me, what is it? (Dic quid sit, tell me what it is.) Quīn tū ūnō verbō dic: quid est quod mé velis? Ter., And., 45; won't you tell me in one word: What is it you want of me? Dic mihi quid fēcisti nōn saperenter amāvi, Ov., Her., ii. 27; tell me what have I done, save that I have loved unwise.

So also, nesciō quōmodō, I know not how = strangely; and mirum quantum, it (is) marvellous how much = wonderfully, are used as adverbs:

Mirum quantum prōfuit ad concordiam, L., ii. 11, 11; it served wonderfully to promote harmony. Nesciō quō pactō vel magis hominēs iuvat gloria lāta quam māgna, Plin., Ep., iv. 12, 7; somehow or other, people are even more charmed to have a widespread reputation than a grand one.

Early Latin shows also perquam, admodum quam, nimis quam, incredibile quantum; Cicero mirum (mirē) quam, nimium quantum, sănē quam, valde quam; Caes. B. G. of these; Sallust immāne quantum; Livy add oppidō quantum; Pliny Mai. immēnsum, infinitum quantum; Florus plūrimum quantum.

The position excludes a conscious ellipsis of the Subjunctive.

PECULIARITIES OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

468. The subject of the dependent clause is often treated as the object of the leading clause by Anticipation (Prolēpsis).

Nōsti Márcellum quam tardus sit, Caēlius (C., Flum., viii. 10. 3): you know Marcellus, what a slow creature he is.

Note.—This usage is very common in Comedy, and belongs to conversational style in general.
PECULIARITIES OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

469. Contrary to our idiom, the interrogative is often used in participial clauses. In English, the participle and verb change places, and a Causal sentence becomes Final or Consecutive.

Quam utilitatem petentis scire cupimus illa quae occultae nobis sunt? C., Fin., iii. 11, 37; what advantage do we seek when we desire to know those things which are hidden from us? [Solon Pisistrato tyranno] quaerentis quæ tandem ré frētus sībī tam audāciter resisteret, respondisse dicitur senectūte, C., Cat. M., 20, 72; Solon, to Pisistratus the usurper, asking him (= when Pisistratus the usurper asked him) on what thing relying (= on what he relied that) he resisted him so boldly, is said to have answered " old age."

Note.—The Abl. Abs. with the interrogative is rare. C., Verr., iii. 88, 185.

470. Final sentences (sentences of Design) are used in questions more freely than in English.

Sessum it praetor. Quid ut iūdicētur? C., N. D., iii. 30, 74; the judge is going to take his seat. What is to be adjudged? (To adjudge what?)

Remark.—The Latin language goes further than the English in combining interrogative words in the same clause; thus two interrogatives are not uncommon:


Yes and No.

471. (a) Yes is represented:

1. By sānē, (literally) soundly, sānē quidem, yes indeed, etiam, even (so). vērō (rarely vērum), of a truth, ita, so, omninō, by all means, certē, surely, certō, for certain, admodum, to a degree, etc.

Aut etiam aut nōn respondēre [potest], C., Ac., iii. 32, 104; he can answer either yes or no.

2. By cēnsēō, I think; scilicet, to be sure.

Quid si etiam ocentem hymenaeum? Cēnsēō, Pl., Cas., 866; what if I should also sing a marriage-song? I think you had better.

3. By repeating the emphatic word either with or without the confirmatory particles, vērō (principally with pronouns). sānē, prōrsus, etc.

Estīsne? Sumus, are you? We are. Dāsne? Dō sānē, C., Leg., i. 7, 21; do you grant? I do indeed.

(b) No is represented:

1. By nōn, nōn vērō, nōn ita, minimē, by no means, nihil, nothing, minimē vērō, nihil sānē, nihil minus.

2. By repeating the emphatic word with the negative:
Non irata es? Non sum irata, Pl., Cas., 1007; you are not angry? I am not.

(c) Yea or Nay.—Immō conveys a correction, and either removes a doubt or heightens a previous statement: yes indeed, nay rather.

Ecquid placeant (sedēs) mē rogās? Immō perplacent, Pl., Must., 907; do I like the house, you ask me? Yes indeed, very much. Causa igitur nōn bona est? Immō optima, C., Att., IX. 7, 4; the cause, then, is a bad one? Nay, it is an excellent one.

Remark.—Yes, for, and no, for, are often expressed simply by nam and enim: Tum Antōnius: Heri enim, inquit, hōc mihi prōposueram, C., Or., II. 10, 40; then quoth Antony: Yes, for I had proposed this to myself yesterday.

SYNTAX OF THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

472. 1. A compound sentence is one in which the necessary parts of the sentence occur more than once; one which consists of two or more clauses.

2. Coördination (Parataxis) is that arrangement of the sentence according to which the different clauses are merely placed side by side.

3. Subordination (Hypotaxis) is that arrangement of the sentence according to which one clause depends on the other.

He became poor and we became rich; the second clause is a coördinate sentence.

He became poor that we might be rich; the second clause is a subordinate sentence.

4. The sentence which is modified is called the Principal Clause, that which modifies is called the Subordinate Clause. "He became poor" is the Principal Clause, "that we might be rich" is the Subordinate Clause.

Remark.—Logical dependence and grammatical dependence are not to be confounded. In the conditional sentence, vivam si vivet, let me live if she lives, my living depends on her living; yet "vivam" is the principal, "si vivet" the subordinate clause. It is the dependence of the introductory particle that determines the grammatical relation.

COÖRDINATION.

473. Coördinate sentences are divided into various classes, according to the particles by which the separate clauses are bound together.
Remark.—Coördinate sentences often dispense with conjunctions (Asyndeton). Then the connection must determine the character.

Copulative Sentences.

474. The following particles are called Copulative Conjunctions: et, -que, atque (āc), etiam, quoque.

Note.—The Copulative Conjunctions are often omitted, in climax, in enumerations, in contrasts, in standing formulae, particularly in dating by the consuls of a year, if the praenōmina are added; and finally, in summing up previous enumerations by such words as alίī, cēterī, cūntī, multi, omnēs, reliquī.

475. Et is simply and, the most common and general particle of connection, and combines likes and unlikes.

Panem et aquam nātūra dēsiderat, Sen., E.M., 25, 4; bread and water (is what) nature calls for. Probitās laudātur et alget, Juv., i. 74; honesty is bepraised and—freezes.

Notes.—1. We find sometimes two clauses connected by et where we should expect et tamen. This usage is characteristic of Tacitus, but is found all through the language. Fīerē potest, ut rectē quis sentiat et id, quod sentit, politē eloquī non possit, C., Tusc., i. 3, 6.

2. Et sometimes introduces a conclusion to a condition expressed in the imperative, but only once in early Latin, never in classical prose. Dīc quibus in terris; et eris mihi māgnus Apollo, V., Ec., iii. 104.

3. Et, instead of a temporal conjunction, begins with Cæsar (Cf. B.G., i. 37, 1) and Sallust (Iug., 97, 4); it is never common.

4. On neque āllus for et nāllus and the like, see 489. On et after words indicating Likeness, see 643. On et for etiam, see 478, n. 2.

476. -Que (enclitic) unites things that belong closely to one another. The second member serves to complete or extend the first.

Senātus populusque Rōmānus, C., Flanec., 37, 90; the Senate and people of Rome. Ibi mortuus sepultusque Alexander, L., xxxvi. 20, 5; there Alexander died and was buried. [Sol] oriēns et occidēns diem noctemque cōnficit, C., N.D., ii. 40, 102; the sun by its rising and setting makes day and night.

Notes.—1. Que was very common in early Latin, especially in legal phraseology, where it was always retained.

2. Que -que -que is ante-classical and poetic.

3. Que is always added to the first word in the clause it introduces, in Plautus, as well as in classical prose; but the Augustan poets are free in their position, for metrical reasons. As regards prepositions, que is never appended to ob and sub, rarely to a and ad, but frequently to other monosyllabic prepositions; it is always appended to dissyllabic prepositions in -ā, and often to other dissyllabic prepositions.

4. On que for quoque see 479, n. 2.

5. Combinations:
(a) et et;
(b) que et; rare in early Latin, never in Cicero, Cæsar; begins with Sallust.
Sallust and Tacitus always add the que to the pronoun, Livy and later prose writers to the substantive.

(c) et—que; rare, and beginning with Ennius.

(d) que—que begins with Plautus, Ennius. Cicero has it but once (noctesque diesque, Fin., 1. 26, 51); it enters prose with Sallust, and poets are fond of it.

Et dominó satis et nimium fúrióque lupóque, Tib., IV. 1. 187; enough for owner, and too much for thief and wolf.

477. Atque (compounded of ad and -que) adds a more important to a less important member. But the second member often owes its importance to the necessity of having the complement (-que).

Ac (a shorter form, which does not stand before a vowel or h) is fainter than atque, and almost equivalent to et.

Intra moenia atque in sinu urbis sunt hostes, S., C., 52, 35; within the walls, ay, and in the heart of the city, are the enemies. A. Servos? Ego?

B. Atque meus, Pl., Cas. 735: a slave? I? And mine to boot.

Notes.—1. The confirmative force of atque, as in the second example, is found especially in Plautus, occasionally later.

2. Atque adds a climax, and then is often strengthened by écastor, profectó, vêrō, etc., Pl., B., 86; C., Tusc., 1. 20, 46.

3. In comedy, atque has sometimes demonstrative force: atque eócum, Pl., St., 577.

4. Occasionally in Cicero, then in the Augustan poets. Livy and later prose writers, notably Tacitus, atque or ac is often used to connect the parts of a clause in which et or que (sometimes both) has been already employed:

Et potentés sequitur invidia et humilēs abiectōsque contemptus et turpēs ac nocentēs odium, Quint., IV. 1, 14; the powerful are followed by envy; the low and grovelling, by contempt; the base and hurtful, by hatred.

5. Atque atque is found occasionally in Cato, Catullus, Cicero, and Vergil.

Que—que begins in poetry with Vergil, in prose with Livy, and is very rare.

6. Atque, introducing a principal clause after a temporal conjunction, belongs exclusively to Plautus: Dum circumspéctō me, atque ego lembum cónspicor, B., 279. Also Ep., 217.

7. Atque is used before consonants, as well as ac, to connect single notions; when sentences or clauses are to be connected, ac only is allowable; either atque or ac with expressions of Likeness.—Stamm.

8. On atque, after words indicating Likeness, see 643. Atque follows a comparative only after a negative in early and classical Latin. Horace is first to use it after a positive.

9. Phraseological is alius atque alius, one or another, found first in Livy, and rare.

478. Etiam, even (now), yet, still, exaggerates (heightens), and generally precedes the word to which it belongs.

Nóbis rēs familiāris etiam ad necessāria deest, Cf. S., C., 20, 11; we lack means even for the necessities of life. Ad Appī Claudī senectūtem accédebat etiam ut caecus esset, C., Cat. M., 6, 16 (553, 4).

Notes.—1. Etiam as a temporal adverb refers to the Past or Present, and means still; it is sometimes strengthened by tum (tunc) or num (nunc). But beginning with
Livy, adhuc, which properly refers only to the Present, is extended to the Past and used like etiam (tum).

Non satis me pernóstë etiam quális sim, Ter., And., 503: you still do not know well enough (= little know) what manner of person I am. Cum iste (i.e., Polemar-chus) etiam cubáret, in cubículum introductus est, C., Verr., iii. 23, 56; while the defendant (Polemarthus) was still in bed, he was introduced into the bedroom.

2. Instead of etiam, et is occasional in Plautus, in a change of person. Cicero uses it also after an adversative conjunction, as vérum et; also after nam et simul; more often when a pronoun follows, as et ille, et ipse. Caesar never uses it so, Sallust rarely, but it becomes common from Livy on.

3. Phraseological is etiam atque etiam, time and again. On etiam for yes, see 471, 1.

479. Quoque, so also, complements (compare que) and always follows the words to which it belongs.

Cum patrì (Timothei) populus statuam posuisset, filió quoque dedit, Cf. Nep., xiii. 2, 3; the people, having erected a statue in honor of the father of Timotheus, gave one to the son also (likewise).

Remark.—The difference between etiam and quoque is not to be insisted on too rigidly:

Grande et conspicuum nostro quoque tempore mònstrum, Juv., iv. 115; a huge and conspicuous prodigy, even in our day.

Notes.—1. In ante-classical and post-classical Latin the double forms etiam—quoque, etiam quoque, are sometimes found, and in classical Latin also quoque etiam occasionally: nunc vèrò meà quoque etiam causá rogò, C., Or., i. 35, 164.

2. Que in the sense of quoque is rare (compare mèque, Cat., ch. 3; me too), and is found chiefly in the post-Augustan hodieque, to-day also.

480. Copulation by means of the Negative.—Instead of et and the negative, neque (nec) and the positive is the rule in Latin.

Optiōnibus vulgī rapimur in errōremenec vērā cernimus, C., Leg., ii. 17. 43; by the prejudices of the rabble we are hurried into error, and do not distinguish the truth. (Caesar) properāns noctem diēi coniunxerat neque iter internimerat, Caes., B.C., iii. 13, 2; Caesar in his haste had joined night with day and had not broken his march.

Remarks.—1. Et—nōn, and—not, is used when the negation is confined to a single word, or is otherwise emphatic; but neque is found occasionally here, even in Cicero (Off., iii. 10, 41).

Et militāvī nōn sine gloriā, II., O., iii. 26, 2; and I have been a soldier not without glory.

On nec nōn, the opposite of et nōn, see 449, r. 3.

2. In combination with the negative we have the following

Paradigms: And no one, neque quisquam, nor any one.
And no, neque illus, nor any.
And nothing, neque quidquam, nor anything.
And never, neque umquam, nor ever.
Neque amet quemquam nec amētur ab ūllō, Juv., xii. 130. may he love no one, and be loved by none.

3. Nec is often nearly equivalent to nec tamen, and yet not:

Extra invidiam nec extra gloriām erat, Tac.. Agr.. 8, 3; he was beyond the reach of envy, and yet not beyond the reach of glory. Cf. Ter., Eun., 249; C., Tusc., ii., 25, 60.

Notes.—1. Neque = nē quidem, is ante-classical and post-classical: nec nunc, cum nē vocat ēltrō, accēdam? II., N., ii. 3. 262 (the only case in Horace).

2. Caesar, Lucretius, Vergil, and Propertius use neque regularly before vowels.

3. Combinations:

(a) neque—neque; nec—nec; neque—nec; nec—neque. Sometimes the first neque has the force of and neither; but this is limited in prose to Caesar, Sallust, and Livy; in poetry to Catullus and Propertius.

(b) neque—et; neque—que; neque—āc. Of these neque—et is rare in early Latin, but more common in Cicero and later: neque—que is rare, and found first in Cicero; neque—atque (āc) is very rare, and begins in Tacitus.

(c) et—neque is found first in Cicero, who is fond of it, but it fades out after him.

4. Neque is usually used for nōn, when followed by the strengthening words enim, tamen, vērō, etc.

481. 1. Insertion and Omission of Copulative.—When multus, much, many, is followed by another attribute, the two are often combined by copulative particles: many renowned deeds, multa et praeclāra facinora; many good qualities, multae bonaeque artēs.

2. Several subjects or objects, standing in the same relations, either take et throughout or omit it throughout. The omission of it is common in emphatic enumeration.

Phrygēs et Pisidae et Cilicēs, C., Div., 1, 41, 92; or. Phrygēs, Pisidae, Cilicēs, Phrygians, Pisidians, and Cilicians.

Note.—Et before the third member of a series is rare, but occurs here and there at all periods; in Cicero it usually draws special attention to the last member. Atque (āc) is used thus a little more frequently (morēs institūta atque vita, C., Fam., xv., 4, 14), and que is not uncommon: aegritūdinēs, frat libidinēsque, C., Tusc., 1, 33, 80.

3. Et is further omitted in climaxes, in antitheses, in phrases, and in formulæ.

Virī nōn [est] dēbilitāri dolōre, frangī, succumbere, C., Fin., 11, 29, 95; it is unnanly to allow one's self to be disabled (unnerved) by grief, to be broken-spirited, to succumb. Difficilis facilis, iūcundus acerbus, es idem, Mart., xii. 47. 1 (310).

Patrēs ġonscripti, Fathers (and) Conscripi (Senators).

Iūpīter Optimus Máximus, Father Jove, supremely good (and) great.
Other Particles Employed.

482. Other particles are sometimes employed instead of the copulative in the same general sense.

1. Temporal: tum—tum, then—then; alias—alias, at one time—at another; iam—iam, nunc—nunc, modo—modo, now—now; simul—simul, at the same time.

Tum Graecē—tum Latinē, partly in Greek, partly in Latin. Horatius Cocles nunc singulōs prōvocābat, nunc increpābat omnes, Cf. L., ii. 10. 8; Horatius Cocles now challenged them singly, now taunted them all. Modo huc, modo illuc, C., Att., xiii. 25. 3: now hither, now thither (hither and thither). Simul spernēbant, simul metuēbant, they despised and feared at the same time (they at once despised and feared).

Notes.—1. Of these tum—tum is not ante-classical. nunc—nunc is found first in Lucr., and is introduced into prose by Livy: simul—simul is found first in Caesar, but not in Cicero; iam—iam begins with Vergil and Livy. Aliquāndō—ali-quandō, quandōque—quandōque, are post-Augustan; interdum—interdum is rare, but occurs in Cicero.

2. The combinations vary in many ways. Ciceronian are tum—alias; alias—plērumque; interdum—alias; modo—tum; modo—viciissim; most of them found but once. Some fifteen other combinations are post-Ciceronian.

3. On cum—tum, see 588.

2. Local: In Cicero only aliō—aliō; hinc—illinc. Others are: hic—illic (first in Vergil); hinc—hinc (Vergil, Livy); hinc—inde (Tacitus); illinc—hinc (Livy); inde—hinc (Tacitus); alibi—alibi (Livy); aliunde—aliunde (Pliny).

3. Modal: aliter—aliter; quā—quā, rare, and lacking in many authors (e.g., Caesar, Sallust). In Cicero only four times, and confined to the Letters; pariter—pariter is poetical and post-classical; aeque—aequē is found once in Horace and once in Tacitus.

4. Comparative: ut—ita, as—so:

Dolābellam ut Tarsēnsēs ita Laodicēnī āltro arcessiērunt, C., Flam., xii. 13. 4; as the people of Tarsus so the people of Laodicea (= both the people of Tarsus and those of Laodicea) sent for Dolabella of their own accord.

Often, however, the actions compared are adversative; and ut may be loosely translated although, while.

Haec omnia ut invītīs ita nōn adversantibus patriciīs trānsācta, L., iii. 55. 15: all this was done, the patricians, though unwilling, yet not opposing (= against the wishes, but without any opposition on the part of the patricians).

Note.—There are also many other similar combinations, as: quemadmodum—sic; ut—sic; tamquam—sic, etc. The adversative use of ut—ita is rare in the classical period, but extends later.
5. Adversative: non modo, non solum, non tantum, not only; sed, sed etiam, sed—quoque, verum etiam, but even, but also:

Urbès maritimae non solum multis periculis oppositae sunt sed etiam caecis, C., Rep., ii. 3, 5: cities on the seaboard are liable not only to many dangers, but even (also) to hidden (ones). [Non] docèrī tantum sed etiam délectări volunt, Quint., iv. 1, 57; they wish not merely to be taught, but to be tickled to boat.

In the negative form, non modo non, not only not; sed nē—quidem, but not even; sed vix, but hardly.

Ego nōn modo tibi non iráscor, sed nē reprehendō quidem factum tuum, C., Sull., 18, 50; I not only am not angry with you, but I do not even find fault with your action.

Remarks.—1. Instead of nōn modo (solum) nōn—sed nē—quidem, the latter nōn is generally omitted, when the two negative clauses have a verb in common, the negative of the first clause being supplied by the second: otherwise both negatives are expressed.

Pisōne cōnsule senātur nōn solum iuvāre rem pūblīcam sed nē lāgēre quidem licēbat, Cf. C., Pis. 10, 23: when Piso was consul, it was not only not left free for the senate (= the senate was not only not free) to help the commonwealth, but not even to mourn (for her).

2. Nēdum, not (to speak of) yet, much less, is also used, either with or without a verb in the Subjunctive: it is found first and only once in Terence, never in Caesar and Sallust, in Cicero only after negative sentences: from Livy on it is used after affirmative clauses as well.

Satrapa numquam sufferre ēīus sūmptūs queat, nēdum tū possis, Ter., Heaut., 454: a nabob could never stand that girl's expenditures, much less could you.

Notes.—1. Non tantum is never found in early Latin, Caesar and Sallust, rarely in Cicero. Sed—quoque is found first in Cicero; so, too, sed simply, but rarely. Livy is especially free in his use of sed. Vērum, in the second member, is not ante-classical or Tacitean. Non alone in the first member is rare, but Ciceronian, it is usually followed by sed only; occasionally by sed etiam. Sed is sometimes omitted from Livy on. (Cf. L., xxvii. 39, 11: Tac., Ann., iii. 19, 2, etc.

2. Sed et, for sed etiam, belongs to post-Augustan Latin.

Adversative Sentences.

483. The Adversative particles are: autem, sed, verum, vērō, at, atquī, tamen, cēterum. Of these only sed and tamen are really adversative.

Note.—The Adversative particles are often omitted: as when an affirmative is followed by a negative, or the reverse, or in other contrasts.

484. Autem (post-positive) is the weakest form of but, and
indicates a difference from the foregoing, a contrast rather than a contradiction. It serves as a particle of transition and explanation (= moreover, furthermore, now), and of resumption (= to come back), and is often used in syllogisms.

Modo accédens, tum autem recédens, C., N. D., ii. 40, 102; now approaching, then again receding. Rúmōribus mēcum pūgnās, ego autem ā tē rationēs requiro, C., N. D., iii. 5, 13; you fight me with rumors, whereas I ask of you reasons. Quod est bonum, omne laudābile est; quod autem laudābile est, omne est honestum; bonum igitur quod est, honestum est, C., Fin., iii. 8, 27: everything that is good is praiseworthy; but everything that is praiseworthy is virtuous; therefore, what is good is virtuous.

Remark.—Autem commonly follows the first word in the sentence or clause; but when an unemphatic est or sunt occupies the second place, it is put in the third. So igitur and enim.

Notes.—1. Noteworthy is the use of autem in lively questions. Cicero employs it in this way, also to correct his own previous questions (Epanorthōsis).


2. Autem is a favorite word with Cicero, especially in his philosophical and moral works, but not with the Historians, least of all with Tacitus, who uses it only nine times in all.

485. Sed (set) is used partly in a stronger sense, to denote contradiction, partly in a weaker sense, to introduce a new thought, or to revive an old one.

Non est vivere sed valēre vita, Mart., vi. 70, 15 (442, r. 2). Domitius nūllā quidem arte sed Latinē tamen dicebat, C., Br., 77, 267; Domitius spoke with no art it is true, but for all that, in good Latin.

Notes.—1. The use of sed to carry on a narrative is characteristic of the historians, though found also in Cicero. Sed in ea coniūrātiōne fuit Q. Cārius, s., C., 23, 1.

2. Sed is repeated by anaphora (68-2), occasionally in Cicero (Verr., iii. 72, 169), more often later.

3. Sed may be strengthened by tamen; by vērō, enimvērō, enim; by autem, but only in connection with quid, and then only in comedy and in Vergil. Sometimes it is equal to sed tamen, as in V., A., iv. 660.

486. Vērum, it is true, true, always takes the first place in a sentence, and is practically equivalent to sed in its stronger sense.

Si certum est facere, faciam; vērum nē post cōnferās culpam in mé, Ter., Eunn., 388; if you are determined to do it, I will arrange it; but you must not afterward lay the blame on me.
Note.—Verum gradually gives place to sed in Cicero. It is used occasionally to return to the subject (verum haec quidem haec tenus, C., Tus., iii. 34, 84), and in yielding a point (verum esto, C., Fin., ii. 23, 75), where sed is the usual word.

487. Verō, of a truth, is generally put in the second place, asserts with conviction, and is used to heighten the statement.

[Platōnem] Diōn adeō admirātus est ut sē tōtum ei trāderet. Neque verō minus Platō δελεκτάτους est Diōne, Nep., x. 2, 3; Diōn admired Plato to such a degree that he gave himself wholly up to him; and indeed Plato was no less delighted with Diōn.

Notes.—1. Verō is properly an affirmative adverb, and such is its only use in Plautus. In Terence it has also acquired adversative force, which it preserves throughout the language in greater or less degree; so in the historians it is hardly more than autem.
2. The combination verum verō is ante-classical; on combinations with enim, see 498, n. 6.
3. Verō is also, but not so commonly, used in transitions; especially in the formule age verō, iam verō.

488. At (another form of ad = in addition to) introduces startling transitions, lively objections, remonstrances, questions, wishes, often by way of quotation.

"Philocēta, St! brevis dolor." At iam decimum annum in speluncā iacet, C., Fin., ii. 29, 94: "Philocetes, still! the pain is short." But he has been lying in his cave going on ten years. "At multis malis affectus?" Quis negat? C., Fin., v. 30, 92: "but he has suffered much?" Who denies it? At vidēte hominis intolerābilem audāciam! C., Dom., 44, 115: well, but see the fellow's insufferable audacity! At vēbis male sit! Cat., iii. 13; and ill luck to you!

Notes.—1. Ast is the archaic form of at, and is found occasionally in Cicero, de Leg. and ad Att., but more often in the poets and the later archaists.
2. At is used in anaphora, and also, especially in the poets, in continuing the narrative. Noteworthy is its use after conditional sentences (in Cicero only after negatives, never in Sallust), where it is frequently strengthened by certē, tamen, saltem: si minus suppliciō adhici, at custōdiri oportēbat, C., Ferr., v. 27, 69.

489. Atqui (but at any rate, but for all that) is still stronger than at, and is used chiefly in argument.

Vix crēdibile. Atqui sic habet, II., S., 1, 9, 52; scarce credible. But for all that, 'tis so.

Notes.—1. Atquin is occasional in early Latin, and even in Cicero.
2. At seems sometimes to be used for atqui. C., Tus., iii. 9, 19.

490. Tamen (literally, even thus), nevertheless, is often combined with at, verum, sed.
It is commonly prepositive, unless a particular word is to be made emphatic.

Nātūram expellēs furcā, tamen ūsque recurret, H., Ep., i. 10, 24; you may drive out Dame Nature with a pitchfork, for all that she will ever be returning. Domitia nullā quidem arte sed Latinē tamen dicēbat, C., Br., ii. 77, 267 (485).

Remark.—Nihilōminus (nothing the less), nevertheless, is used like tamen, by which it is occasionally strengthened.

491. Ĉeterum, for the rest, is used by the Historians as an adversative particle.

Duo imperātōres, ipsi parēs ĉeterum opibus disparibus, S., Ing., 52, 1; two commanders, equal in personal qualities, but of unequal resources.

Note.—Ĉeterum is found once in Terence (Enn., 452), once in Cicero (Q.F., ii. 12, 1), otherwise not before Sallust.

Disjunctive Sentences.

492. The Disjunctive particles are aut, vel, -ve, sive (seu).

Note.—The Disjunctive particles are but rarely omitted, and then mainly in contrasted opposites like pauper dives, plus minus, and the like.

493. 1. Aut, or, denotes absolute exclusion or substitution. Vinceris aut vincis, Prop., ii. 8, 8; you are conquered or conquering.

2. Aut is often corrective = or at least, at most, rather (aut saltem, aut potius).

Cunctī aut māgna pars fidem mūtāvissent, S., Ing., 56, 5; all, or at least a great part, would have changed their allegiance. Duo aut summum trēs iuvenēs, L., XXXIII. 5, 8; two, or at most three, youths.

3. Aut—aut, either—or.

Quaedam terrae partēs aut frigore rigent aut āruntur calōre, Cf. C., Tusc., i. 28, 68; some parts of the earth are either frozen with cold or burnt with heat. Aut dic aut accipe calcem, Juv., iii. 295; either speak or take a kick.

Notes.—1. The use of aut to carry on a preceding negative is found first in Cicero, but becomes more common later: nēmō tribūnōs aut plēbēn timēbat, L., iii. 16, 4.

2. Aut is sometimes equivalent to partly—partly in Tacitus: Hausta aut obrucha Campaniāae fīra, H., i. 2.

3. On aut in interrogative sentences, see 458, n. 4.

494. 1. Vel (literally, you may choose) gives a choice, often with etiam, even, potius, rather.
Ego vel Cluviēnus, Juv., 1. 80; I, or, if you choose, Cluviēnus. Per
mē vel stertās licet, nōn modo quīscās, C., Ar., 11. 29, 93; for all I care,
you may (even) snore, if you choose, not merely take your rest (sleep).
Satis vel etiam nimium multa, C., Fam., iv. 14. 3: enough, or even too
much. Epicūrus homō minimē malus vel potius vir optimus, C., Tusce., 11.
19, 44; Epicurus (was) a person by no means bad, or, rather, a man of
excellent character.

2. Vel—vel, either—or (whether—or).

[Miltiādēs dixit] ponte rescissō régem vel hostium ferrō vel inopīā paucis
diēbus interītūrum, Nep., 1. 3, 4; Miltiades said that if the bridge were
cut the king would perish in a few days, whether by the sword of the
enemy, or for want of provisions.

Notes.—1. Vel, for example, is rare in Plautus and Terence, but common in
Cicero, especially in the Letters.

2. Vel in the sense of aut is rare in the classical period (C., Rep., 11. 28, 50), but is
more common later, beginning with Ovid. See Tac., Ann., 1. 59.

3. Vel—vel is found in Plautus occasionally in the sense as well as, but in clas-

cical Latin is rigidly distinguished from et—et.

4. Aut is not uncommonly subdivided by vel—vel: aut canere vel vōce vel
fidibus, C., Div., 11. 59, 122.

495. Ve (enclitic) is a weaker form of vel, and in Cicero
is used principally with numerals, in the sense at most, or
with words from the same stem or of similar formation.

Bis terve, C., Fam., 11. 1, 1: twice or at most thrice (bis terque, twice
and indeed as much as thrice, if not more).

Cūr timeam dubitemve locum défendere? Juv., 1. 103; why should I
fear or hesitate to maintain my position? Aliquid facienda nōn faciendive
ratiō, C., Inv., 11. 9. 31; the method of doing something or not doing it.

Notes.—1. In early Latin ve is more often copulative than adversative.

2. Ve—ve is poetical only.

496. 1. Sive (sen), if you choose, gives a choice between
two designations of the same object.

Urbem mātrī seu novercae relinquit, L.. 1. 3, 3; he leaves the city to his
mother or (if it seems more likely) to his step-mother.

2. Sive—sive (seu—seu), whether—or (indifference).

Sive medicum adhibueris sive nōn adhibueris nōn convaleścēs, C., Fat.,
12, 29); whether you employ a physician, or do not employ (one), you
will not get well. Seu visa est catulis cerva fidēlibus seu rūpit teretēs
Marsus aper plagās, 11., O. 1. 1, 27; whether a doe hath appeared to the
faithful hounds, or a Marsian boar hath burst the tightly-twisted toils.

Notes.—1. Single sive (≡ or) is not found in Plautus or Terence (Cf. And., 190),
but it occurs in Lucretius, Lucilius, and is common in Cicero. Caesar and Sal-
COÖRDINATION.

Thus, however, do not use it, and it is rare in the Poets. In the sense of sive sive it is found occasionally in poetry; but in prose only three times in Tacitus.

2. Sive sive is not found in Terence, but from Cicero on becomes common.

3. No distinction seems possible between sive and seu.

497. An is used in the sense of or not uncommonly in Cicero, especially in the Letters; occasionally in Livy, and frequently in Tacitus. Elsewhere it is rare. See 457.

Tiberius cáṣu manibus [Haterii] impeditus prōciderat, Tac., Ann., 1. 13. 7: Tiberius had fallen forward, either by chance or tripped by Haterius' hands.

Causal and Illative Sentences.

498. A. The Causal particles are nam, enim, namque, and etenim, for.

Nam is put at the beginning of a sentence; enim is post-positive (184, n.): namque and etenim are commonly put in the first place.

Sensus mirificē conlocāti sunt; nam oculi tamquam speculātōres altissīmum locum obtinent, C., N. D., ii. 50, 140; the senses are admirably situated; for the eyes, like watchmen, occupy the highest post. Piscēs óva relinquunt, facile enim illa aquā sustinēntur, C., N. D., ii. 51, 129; fish leave their eggs, for they are easily kept alive by the water. [Themistocles] mūrōs Atheniēnsium restituit suō periculō; namque Lacedaemoniī prohibēre cōnāti sunt, Nep., ii. 6. 2; Themistocles restored the walls of Athens with risk to himself; for the Lacedaemonians endeavored to prevent it.

Notes. 1. The Augustan poets postpone both nam and namque according to the requirements of the metre, and in prose, beginning with Livy, namque is found sometimes in the second place, but more often in Livy than later.

In early Latin enim is often first in the sentence; etenim is postponed in prose only in the elder Pliny and Apuleius; in the poets, not uncommonly, so in Afranius, Tibullus, Propertius, and Horace.

2. These particles are originally asseverative, and are often used not only to furnish a reason, but also to give an explanation or illustration (as for instance). Quid enim agās? what, for instance, can you do? This is especially true of enim, but is also common enough with nam (s. 3), and a broad difference between nam and enim (which is of common origin with nam) cannot be proved. Etenim is often used to carry on the argument, and gives an additional ground.

3. The asseverative force of nam is retained in conversational style occasionally, even in Cicero (Fest., i. 51, 133). Enim is almost wholly asseverative in Plautus and Terence. Namque is very rare in Plautus and Terence, and is found before vowels only. In classical Latin it is also rare, and found usually before vowels. With Livy it comes into general use before vowels and consonants equally Etenim is found but once in Plautus (Am., 26, an interpolation) and four times in Terence; in post-classical Latin also it is not common, but it is very frequent in classical Latin, especially in Cicero.

4. Noteworthy is the use of nam, in passing over a matter: nam quid ego dé actione ipsā plūra dicam? (C., O., 1. 5. 18), which is especially common in Cicero.

5. Nam shows an affinity for interrogative particles. Here it sometimes precedes in
the early language (Ter., Ph., 932), but becomes firmly attached in the classical period in the forms quinam, ubinam, etc., which, however, sometimes suffer mimesis and transposition in poetry (V., G., 4, 45).

6. In atenim (first in Cicero), nempe enim (ante-classical and post-classical), sed enim (rare), verumenim, enimverō, vérum enimverō, as in etenim, the enim gives a ground or an illustration of the leading particle, but translation by an ellipsis would be too heavy, and enim is best left untranslated:

A. Audi quid dicam. B. At enim taedet iam audire eadem miliēns, Ter., Ph., 487; A. Hear what I say. B. But (I won't, for) I am tired of hearing the same things a thousand times already.

7. Enim is used pleonastically after quia in early Latin, and then again in Petronius and Gellius; also after ut and nē in early Latin.

8. Quīppē is originally interrogative. From this the causal force develops, which is not uncommon in Cicero. In Sallust, and especially in Livy and later writers, quīppē is equal to enim.

499. B. Iltlative particles are itaque, igitur, ergō; eō, hinc, inde, ideō, idcireō, quōcireā, proptereā, quāpropter, proin, proinde.

500. Itaque (literally, and so), therefore, is put at the beginning of the sentence by the best writers, and is used of facts that follow from the preceding statement.

Nēmō ausus est Phōciōnem liber sepelire; itaque á servis sepultus est, Cf. Nep., xix. 4, 4; no free man dared to bury Phocion, and so he was buried by slaves.

Remark.—Itaque in early and classical Latin has first place in a sentence. It is first postponed by Lucretius, then by Cornificius and Horace, and more often later.

501. Igitur, therefore, is used of opinions which have their natural ground in the preceding statement; in Cicero it is usually post-positive, in Sallust never.

Mihi nōn satisfacit. Sed quot hominēs tot sententiae; fallē igitur possimus, C., Fin., 1, 5, 15; me it does not satisfy. But many men many minds. I may therefore be mistaken.

Note.—In historical writers igitur is sometimes used like itaque. Occasionally also (not in classical Latin), it seems to have the force of enim (Pl., Most., 1102, MSS.).

502. Ergō denotes necessary consequence, and is used especially in arguments, with somewhat more emphasis than igitur.

Negat haec filiam mē suam esse; nōn ergō haec māter mea est, Pl., Ep., 500; she says that I am not her daughter, therefore she is not my mother.

Notes.—1. In the Poets ergō sometimes introduces a strong conclusion in advance of the premise (II., 0., 1, 24, 5). In the classical period, however, its predominant use is to introduce the logical conclusion.
2. Ergō usually comes first, but its position is apt to vary in accordance with the stress laid upon it.

3. Itaque ergō is found in Terence and Livy: ergō igitur in Plautus.

503. Other Coördinating Conjunctions: hinc, hence, is found not unfrequently: hinc illae lacrurnae, Ter., And., 126. Inde, thence, therefore, is rare, and first in Cicero, but more common in later Latin. Eō, therefore, is found in early Latin, rarely in Cicero (Fam., vi. 20, 1), not in Caesar or Sallust; again in Livy and later; so ideō, on that account, but atque ideō is found once in Caesar. Idcirco, on that account, is rare, but from the earliest times. Quocirca, on which account, is rare, but from the earliest times. Quapropter is found here and there in early Latin, but more commonly in the classical time, rarely later; propterea, on that account, is rare, but belongs to early Latin. Proinde, accordingly, are employed in exhortations, appeals, and the like.

Quod praeceptum (nōse tē ipsum), quia māius erat quam ut ab homine vidērētur, idcirco assignātum est deō, C., Fin., v. 16, 44; this precept (know thyself), because it was too great to seem to be of man, was, on that account, attributed to a god. Proinde aut exeant aut quiēscant, C., Cat., 11. 5, 11; let them then either depart or be quiet.

SUBORDINATION.

504. Subordinate sentences are only extended forms of the simple sentence, and are divided into Adjective and Substantive sentences, according as they represent adjective and substantive relations.

This arrangement is a matter of convenience merely, and no attempt is made to represent the development of the subordinate sentence from the coordinate.

505. Adjective sentences express an attribute of the subject in an expanded form.

Uxor quae bona est, Pl., Merc., 812 (624) = uxor bona.

506. Substantive sentences are introduced by particles, which correspond in their origin and use to the Oblique Cases, Accusative and Ablative.

These two cases furnish the mass of adverbial relations, and hence we make a subdivision for this class, and the distribution of the subordinate sentence appears as follows:

507. A. Substantive sentences.

I. Object sentences.
II. Adverbial sentences:
1. Of Cause. (Causal.)
2. Of Design and Tendency. (Final and Consecutive.)
3. Of Time. (Temporal.)
4. Of Condition and Concession. (Conditional and Concessive.)

B. Adjective sentences. (Relative.)

Moods in Subordinate Sentences.

508. 1. Final and Consecutive Clauses always take the Subjunctive. Others vary according to their conception. Especially important are the changes produced by Ὄρατιο Ὀβλικούα.

2. Ὄρατιο Ὀβλικούα, or Indirect Discourse, is opposed to Ὄρατιο Ῥέκτα, or Direct Discourse, and gives the main drift of a speech and not the exact words. Ὄρατιο Ὀβλικούα, proper, depends on some Verb of Saying or Thinking expressed or implied, the Principal Declarative Clauses being put in the Infinitive, the Dependent in the Subjunctive.

Socratês dicere solēbat:

Ὁ. Ῥ. Ὄμνῆσεν εἰς ὅ quod sciunt satis sunt eteloquentēs.
Socrates used to say: "All men are eloquent enough in what they understand."

Ὁ. ὸ. Ὄμνῆσεν εἰς ὅ quod scirent satis esse et eloquentēs, Ḍ. Ὺ., 14, 63.
Socrates used to say that all men were eloquent enough in what they understood.

3. The oblique relation may be confined to a dependent clause and not extend to the whole sentence. This may be called Partial Obliquity.

 đoán. Nova nupta dicit: Fleō quod ire necesse est.
The bride says: I weep because I must needs go.

ὃ. ὸ. Nova nupta dicit sē flēre quod ire necesse sit.
The bride says that she weeps because she must needs go.

ἅ. Ῥ. Nova nupta flēt quod ire necesse est, Ḍ. ῳ., 1. 81.
The bride weeps because she must go.

Π. ὸ. Nova nupta flēt quod ire necesse sit.
The bride is weeping because "she must go" (quoth she).
4. Akin to \( \delta \). \( \theta \). is the so-called Attraction of Mood, by which clauses originally Indicative are put in the Subjunctive because they depend on Infinitives or Subjunctives. (663.)

\[ \text{Non dubito quin nova nupta flet quod ire necesse sit. I do not doubt that the bride is weeping because she must go.} \]

Remark.—The full discussion of \( \delta \). \( \theta \). must, of course, be reserved for a later period. See 648.

## SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

509. 1. In those dependent sentences which require the Subjunctive, the choice of the tenses of the dependent clause is determined largely by the time of the leading or principal clause, so that Principal Tenses are ordinarily followed by Principal Tenses; Historical, by Historical.

Note.—As the subordinate sentence arose out of the coördinate, hypotaxis out of parataxis, the tenses of the Subjv. had originally an independent value, and the association was simply the natural association of time. But in some classes of sentences a certain mechanical levelling has taken place, as in the Final sentence; and in others, as in the Interrogative sentence, the range of the Subjv. is restricted by the necessity of clearness, just as the range of the Inf. is restricted by the necessity of clearness (530); so that a conventional Sequence of Tenses has to be recognized. To substitute for every dependent tense a corresponding independent tense, and so do away with the whole doctrine of Sequence, is impossible. At the same time it must be observed that the mechanical rule is often violated by a return to the primitive condition of parataxis, and that

2. This rule is subject to the following modifications:

1. Tense means time, not merely tense-form, so that

\( a \) The Historical Present may be conceived according to its sense (Past) or according to its tense (Present). (229.)

\( b \) In the Pure Perfect may be felt the past inception or origin (Past), or the present completion (Present). (235, r.)

2. The effect of a past action may be continued into the present or the future of the writer (513).

3. The leading clause may itself consist of a principal and dependent clause, and so give rise to a conflict of tenses with varying Sequence (511, r. 2).

4. An original Subjunctive (467) of the past (265) resists levelling, especially in the Indirect Question.
510.

All forms that relate to the Present and Future (so especially Principal Tenses) are followed by the Present Subjunctive (for continued action); the Perfect Subjunctive (for completed action).

All forms that relate to the Past (so especially Historical Tenses) are followed by the Imperfect Subjunctive (for continued action); the Pluperfect Subjunctive (for completed action).

Remark.—The action which is completed with regard to the leading verb may be in itself a continued action. So in English: *I do not know what he has been doing, I did not know what he had been doing.* The Latin is unable to make this distinction, and accordingly the Imperfect Indicative (*I was doing*) is represented in this dependent form by the Perfect and Pluperfect, when the action is completed as to the leading verb.

511.

Pr. (Pure or Hist.),

<table>
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<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ĉōgnōscō,</td>
<td><em>I am finding out,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ĉōgnōscam,</td>
<td><em>I shall (try to) find out,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ĉōgnōvī,</td>
<td><em>I have found out (I know),</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>ĉōgnōverō</td>
<td><em>I shall have found out (shall know),</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ĉōgnōscō,</td>
<td><em>I am (was) finding out,</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>ĉōgnōscēbam,</td>
<td><em>I was finding out,</em></td>
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<tr>
<td>ĉōgnōvī,</td>
<td><em>I found out,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ĉōgnōveram,</td>
<td><em>I had found out (I knew),</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ĉōgnōscō,</td>
<td><em>quid faciās,</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ĉōgnōvī,</td>
<td><em>quid facerēs,</em></td>
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When the Subjunctive is original, we have:

- *quid faciās,* what you are doing;
- *quid facerēs,* what you were doing.

Principal Tenses.

*Nihil réfert postrēma syllaba brevis an longa sit, Cf. C., Or., 61, 217 (461). Ubii (Caesarem) ōrant (historical) ut sibi parcat, Caes., B G., vi. 9.*
SEQUENCE OF TENSES.


Utrum nescis quam altē ascenderis an prō nihilō id putās? C., Fam., x. 26. 3 (458). Laudat Āfrīcānum Panaetius quod fuerit abstinēns, C., Off., ii. 22. 76 (542). Nōn is es ut tē pudor umquam ā turpitūdine revocārit, C., Cat., i. 9. 23 (552). Quem mea Calliopē laeserit ūnus egō (sum), Ov., Tr., ii. 568 (631, 1). Sim licet extremum, sicut sum, missus in orbem, Ov., Tr., iv. 9. 9 (607). Multi fuērunt qui tranquillītātem expetentēs ā negotiis publicīs sē remōverint, C., Off., i. 20. 69 (631, 2).

Historical Tenses.


Tanta opūbus Etrūria erat ut iam nōn terrās sōlum sed mare etiam fāmā nōminis suī implēsset, L., i. 2. 5 (521, r. 1). Cum prīmī ġōrdīes hostium concidissent, tamen ācèrrimē reliquī resistēbant, Caes., B. G., vii. 62. 4 (587). Dēlēta (est) Ausōnum gēns perinde āc sī internecīvō bellō certāsset, L., ix. 25. 9 (602).

Original Subjunctive Retained.

Ipse docet quid agam (original, agam): fās est et ab hoste docēri, Ov., M., iv. 428 (219). Quaerō ā tē cūr ego C. Cornēlium nōn dēfenderem (original, dēfenderem), C., Cat., ii. 2. 5 (467). Misērunt Delphōs cōnsultum quid facerent (original, faciāmus), Nep., ii. 2. 6 (518).

Remarks.—1. The treatment of the Hist. Pr. according to its sense (past) is the rule in classical Latin, especially when the dependent clause precedes. But there are many exceptions.

2. Noteworthy is the shift from the primary to the secondary sequence; this is mostly confined to clauses of double dependence, i.e., where one subordinate clause is itself principal to a second subordinate clause.
Here the first has usually the primary, the second the secondary sequence.

Rogat ut cüret quod dixisset, C., Quinct., 5, 18; he asks him to attend to what he had said (he would).

So of authors:

[Chrysippus] disputat æthera esse eum quem hominès Iovem appellārent, C., N.D., i. 15, 40; Chrysippus maintains that to be æther which men call Jove.

3. The Pure Pf. is usually treated as a Hist. Pf. in the matter of sequence:

Quae subsidia habērēs et habēre possēs, exposui, Q. Cicero. 4, 13; what supports you have or can have I have set forth.

4. The reverse usage, when an Hist. Pf. is followed by a primary Subjv., is not common. Many of those cited from Cicero are from the Letters, where the shift of tense might be influenced by the letter-tense principle (252).

Sed quō consiliō redierim, initiō audistis, post estis expert!, C., Ph., x. 4, 8.

Quis miles fuit, qui Brundisiī illum nōn viderint! C., Ph., ii. 25, 61. (The context shows that fuit cannot be Pure Pf.)

512. Sequence of Tenses in Sentences of Design.—Sentences of Design have, as a rule, only the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive. The Roman keeps the purpose and the process, rather than the attainment, in view.

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<td>edunt, they are eating,</td>
<td>edērant, they have eaten,</td>
<td>edent, they will eat,</td>
<td>ederint, they will have eaten,</td>
<td>edēbant, they were eating,</td>
<td>ederant, they had eaten,</td>
<td>edērun, they ate,</td>
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Spectātum veniunt, veniunt spectentur ut ipsae, Ov., A.A. i. 99 (435). Sed precor ut possim tūtius esse miser, Ov., Tr., v. 2, 78 (424). Gallinae pennis fovent pullōs nē frigore laedantur, Cf. C., N.D., ii. 52, 129 (545). Lēgem brevem esse oportet quō facilius ab imperitis teneātur, Sex., E.M. 94. 38 (545). Mē praemīsit domum hæc ut nūntiem uxōri suae, Pl., Am., 195: he has sent me home ahead of him, to take the news to his wife. Oculōs ecfodiām tibi nē mē observāre possis, Pl., Aul., 53; I will gouge out your eyes for you, to make it impossible for you to watch me.

[Laelius] veniēbat ad cēnam ut satiāret désideria nātūrae, C., Fin., ii. 8, 25; Laelius used to go to table, to satisfy the cravings of nature. (Phaēthōn) optāvit ut in currum patris tollerētur, C., Off., iii. 25, 94 (546, 1).
SEQUENCE OF TENSES.

Remark.—Parenthetical final sentences like ut ita dicam, nē errētis, are really dependent on the thought or utterance of the speaker, and have the present sequence everywhere.

Nē longior sim, valē. C., Fam., xv. 19; not to be tedious, farewell! Nē tamen ignōrēs, virtūte Neronis Armenius cecidit, H., Ep., l. 12, 25; but that you may not fail to know it, it was by the valor of Nero that the Armenian fell.

Notes.—1. The Pf. and Plnf. Subjv. are sometimes found in sentences of Design, chiefly in earlier and later Latin (no example is cited from Caesar or Sallust), when stress is laid on completion, or when an element of Hope or Fear comes in: Ut sic dixerim (first found in Quint.), if I may be allowed to use the expression.

Affirmāre audeō nē omni ope adnīsūrum esse nē frūstrā vōs hanc spem dē nē conceperitis, L. xliv. 22; I dare assure you that I will strain every nerve to keep you from having conceived this hope of me in vain. (After a past tense, nē concēpissētis.) Nunc agendum est nē frūstrā oppressum esse Antōnium gāvisi simus, C., ad Br., l. 4, 3. Hic obsistam, nē imprūdentǐ hic ea sē subrēpsit (131, 4, b, 2) mihi, Pl., M. G., 333. Effecit nē cūius alterius sacrilegium rēs publica quam Neronis sēnsisset, Tac., Agr., 6.

When the tense is compound, the participle is usually to be considered as a mere adjective.


2. Occasional apparent exceptions are to be explained in various ways. Thus, in C., Sest., 15, 33: etiamne edicere audeās nē maerērent, we have a repetition as an indignant question of the preceding statement: edicunt (Hist. Pr.) duo cōnsulēs ut ad suum vestitum senātōres redīrent.

513. Exceptional Sequence of Tenses:—Sentences of Result (Consecutive Sentences). In Sentences of Result, the Present Subjunctive is used after Past Tenses to denote the continuance into the Present, the Perfect Subjunctive to imply final result. This Perfect Subjunctive may represent either the Pure Perfect or Aorist, the latter especially with the negative: the action happened once for all or not at all.

Present Tense:

[Siciliam Verrēs] per triennium ita vexāvit ut ea restitution in antiquum statum nūllō modō possit, C., Verr., l. 4, 12; Verres so harried Sicily for three years as to make it utterly impossible for it to be restored to its original condition. In [Lūcullō] tanta prudentia fuit ut hodie stet Asia, C., Ac., ii. 1, 3; Lucullus’s forethought was so great that Asia stands firm to-day.

Perfect Tense (Pure):

(Mūrēna) Asiam sic obīt ut in eā neque avāritiae neque lūxuriae vēstīgium reliquerit, C., Mur., 9, 20; Murena so administered Asia as not to have (that he has not) left in it a trace either of greed or debauchery (there is no trace there).
Perfect Tense (Aorist):

Equitēs hostium ācriter cum equitātū nostrō cōnfixērunt, tamen ut nostrī eōs in silvās collēsque compulerint, Caes., B. C., v. 15; 1; the cavalry of the enemy engaged the cavalry on our side briskly, and yet (the upshot was that) our men forced them into the woods and hills. Neque vērō tam remissō āc languidō animō quisquam omnium fuit qui eā nocte conquēverit, Caes., B. C., i. 21, 5; and indeed there was no one at all of so slack and indifferant a temper as to take (a wink of) sleep that night.

Remarks.—1. After a Pure Pf., if the dependent clause is affirmative, Cicero prefers the Impf. (he has but five cases of Pf.); if negative the Pf. (in the proportion 2 to 1).

2. After accidit, contigit, and other verbs of Happening, the Impf. is always used, the result being already emphasized in the Indic. form.

Accidit ut ūnā nocte omnēs Hermæ dēicerentur, Nep., vii. 3, 2; it happened that in one night all the Hermæ were thrown down.

Notes.—1. The use of the Aoristic Pf. Subjv. after an Aoristic Pf. Indic. seems to have been an attempt of the Romans to replace the consecutive Aor. Inf. in Greek with διστα. Examples are not found in early Latin, are rare in Cicero, very rare in Caes., perhaps not at all in Sallust; more frequent in Livy, common in Tacitus, very common in Nepos and Suetonius, etc.

2. In two coördinated clauses depending on the same verb we find the tenses occasionally varying. The Pf. in the first subordinate, with Impf. in the second, is doubtful in any case, rare in Cicero, and is cited but once each from Caes. (B. C., vii. 17) and Sallust (i. 9, 1). The reverse construction, Impf. followed by Pf., is more common, but found first (though rarely) in Livy, and belongs mainly to late Latin.

Zēnō nūllo modō is erat qui nervōs virtūtis inciderit, sed contra qui omnīa in virtūte pōneret, C., Ac., i. 10, 25. Here the shift is due to the negative. Tantus pavor omnēs occupāvit ut nōn modo alius quisquam arma caperet sed etiamipse rēx perfūgerit, L., xxiv. 40, 12. Here the tenses depend on the ideas of continuance and completion, of the many and the single (nōn capiēbant—rēx perfūgit).

3. In relative sentences of coincident action with causal coloring, either the coincidence is retained, or a principal clause in the Past is followed by the Impf. Subjunctive.

Tū hūn nānissimē fēcisti qui mē certiōrem fēceris, C., All., xiii. 43, 1. Cum hoc Pompeius vehementer ēgit cum diceret, etc., C., All., ii. 22, 2. Videor mihi grātum fēcisse Siciłīs, quod eōrum iniūriās sim persecūtus, C., Verr., ii. 6, 15 (515, n.).

Representation of the Subjunctive in the Future and Future Perfect Tenses.

514. The Subjunctive has no Future or Future Perfect, which are represented either by the other Subjunctives, or in the Active by the Subjunctive of the Periphrastic Conjugation.

Rule I.—(a) After a Future or Future Perfect Tense, the Future relation (contemporary with the leading Future) is
represented by the Present Subjunctive: the Future Perfect (prior to the leading Future) by the Perfect Subjunctive, according to the rule.

Cōgnōscam,
I shall (try to) find out,

quid faciās, what you are doing (will be doing).

Cōgnōverō,
I shall have found out (shall know),

quid fēcerīs, what you have done (will have done).

(b) But whenever the dependent Future is subsequent to the leading Future, the Periphrastic Tense must be employed.

Cōgnōscam,
I shall (try to) find out,

quid factūrus sis, what you are going to do (what you will do).

Cōgnōverō,
I shall have found out (shall know),

[Considerābimus], [we shall consider].

A. Quid fēcerit aut quid ipsī acciderit aut quid dīcerit, what he has done, or what has happened to him, or what he has said.

B. Aut quid faciat, quid ipsī accidat, quid dīcat, or, what he is doing, what is happening to him, what he is saying.

C. Aut quid factūrus sit, quid ipsī cāsūrum sit, quā sit ūsūrus ēratiōne, C.. Inv., I. 25, 36; or what he is going to do (will do), what is happening to him, what plea he is going to employ (will employ).

Tū quid sis āctūrus pergratūm erit si ad mē sciruperūs, C., Fam., ix. 2. 5; it will be a great favor if you will write to me what you are going to do.

Remark.—In some of these forms ambiguity is unavoidable. So A may represent a real Perfect, B a real Present.

515. Rule II.—After the other tenses, the Future relation is expressed by the Active Periphrastic Subjunctive, Present or Imperfect.

Cōgnōscē,  
I am finding out,  

quid factūrus sis (what you are going to do), what you will do.

Cōgnōvī,  
I have found out (know),

Cōgnōscēbam,  
I was trying to find out,  

quid factūrus essēs (what you were going to do), what you would do.

Cōgnōveram,  
I had found out,

I shall (try to) find out,
Tam ea rēs est facitis ut innumerābilis nātūra mundōs effectūra sit, efficiat, effecerit, Cf. C., N.D., i. 21. 53; the thing is so easy that nature will make, is making, has made, innumerable worlds.

Incertum est quam longa cūiusque nostrum vita futūra sit, C., Verr., i. 58, 153; it is uncertain how long the life of each one of us is going to be (will be).

Anteā dubitābam ventūrae esse legiōnēs; nunc mihi nōn est dubium quin venētūrae nōn sint, C., Fam., ii. 17, 5; before, I was doubtful whether the legions would come (or no); now I have no doubt that they will not come.

Remarks.—1. The Pf. and Plupf. Subjv. of the Periphrastic are used only to represent the Apodosis of an Unreal Conditional Sentence.

Cōgnōscō, Cōgnōvī, quid factūrus fueris, (what you have been knowing).
I am finding out, I have found out what you would have done, going to do.

Cōgnōscēbam, Cōgnōveram, [quid factūrus fuissent, (what you had been doing, doing, doing, doing].
I was trying to find out, I had found out, what you would have done, going to do.

done, rare.]

2. There is no Periphrastic for the Fut. Pf. active, no Periphrastic for passive and Supineless Verbs. The Grammarians make up a Periphrastic for all these from futūrum sit, esset ut, as:

Nōn dubitō quin futūrum sit,
I do not doubt ut redierit, that he will have returned.

ut maerēat, that he will grieve.

ut necētur, that he will be killed.

But there is no warrant in actual usage.

For the dependent Fut. Pf. act. Terence says (Hec., 618): Tuā réfert nil utrum illae fecerint quandō haec abierit.

For the dependent Fut. Pf. pass. Cicero says (Fam., vi. 12, 3): Nec dubitō quin cōnecta rēs futūra sit, nor do I doubt but the matter will have been settled.

In the absence of the Periphrastic forms, use the proper tenses of posse. (248, R.)

3. When the preceding verb has a future character (Fear, Hope, Power, Will, and the like), the simple Subjv. is sufficient.

Galli, nisi perfrēgerint munitionēs, dē omnī salūte déspērant; Rōmāni, si rem obtinuerint, finem labōrum omnium exspectant, Caes., B.G., vii. 85, 3; the Giants despair of all safety unless they break through (shall have broken through) the fortifications; the Romans look forward to an end of all their toils, if they hold their own (shall have held). Vēnērunt querenēs nec spēm ullam esse resistendi, nisi prae sidium Rōmanus misisset, L., xxxiv. 11, 2; they came with the complaint that there was no hope of resistance unless the Roman sent a force to protect them. Intenti quandō hostis in prōdentīa rueret, Tac., H., ii. 34.

Of course the Deliberative Subjunctive is future: Examples. 263.

Et certāmen habent lēti, quae viva sequātur cōniugium, Prop., iv. 12, 19 (M.).

516. Sequence of Tenses in Œrātiō Obliqua: In Œrātiō Obliqua and kindred constructions, the attraction of tenses ap-
plies also to the representatives of the Future and Future Perfect Subjunctive.

In [clavā] erat scriptum nisi domum revertētur sē capitis eum damnā-
tūrōs, Nēp., iv. 3, 4, it was written on the staff that if he did not re-

turn home, they would condemn him to death. (Ōrātiō Recta: nisi 
domum revertēris, tē capitis damnāvimus, unless you (shall) return home, 
we will condemn you to death). Pythiā praecēpit ut Miliādem sibi imper-

atōrem sūmerent; id sē fēcissent (Ō. R., fēcerīs) incepta prōspera futūra 
(Ō. R., erunt), Nēp., i. i, 3; the Pythia instructed them to take Miliades 
for their general; that if they did that, their undertakings would be successful. 
Lacedaemonī, Philippō minitante per litterās sē omnia quae conārentur (Ō. R., conābimini) prohibītūrum, quasīvĕrunt num sē esset eti-
am morī prohibitūrus (Ō. R., prohibēbis), C., Tusc., v. 14, 42; the Lacedae-
monians, when Philip threatened them by letter that he would prevent 
everything they undertook (should undertake), asked whether he was going to (would) prevent them from dying too.

517. Sequence of Tenses after the other Moods.—The Impera-
tive and the Present and Perfect Subjunctive have the Sequences of the Principal Tenses; the Imperfect and Plu-
perfect have the Sequences of the Historical Tenses.

[Nē] compōne comās quia sis ventūrus ad illam, Ov., Rem. Am., 679; do not arrange (your) locks because (forsooth) you are going to see her.

Excellentiūs ingeniīs citiūs dēfuerit ārūs quā cīvēm regant quam quā hostem superent, L., ii. 43, 10; great geniuses would be more likely to lack the skill to control the citizen than the skill to overcome the enemy. Quid 

mē prohibēret Epicūrēum esse, si probārem quae ille diceret? C., Fin., i. 8, 27; what would prevent me from being an Epicurean if I approved what he said (says)? Tum ego tē primus hortārer diū pensusūrēs quem potissimum ēligerēs, Plin., Ep., iv. 15, 8; in that case I should be the first to exhort you to weigh long whom you should choose above all others. Quae vita finisset Priāmō si ab adulēscentiā scisset quōs ēventūs senectūtīs esset habitūrus? C., Div., ii. 9, 22; what sort of life would Priam have led if he had known, from early manhood, what were to be the closing scenes of his old age?

Remarks.—1. Of course, when the Pf. Subjv. represents an Historical Tense, it takes the historical Sequence:

Māgna culpa Pelopī qui nōn docuerit filium quātēnus esset quidque 
ciurandum, C., Tusc., i. 44, 107; greatly to blame is Pelops for not having taught his son how far each thing was to be cured for. Quī scis an eā causā mē ὀδίσσε adsinulāverit, ut cum mātre plús ūnā esset? Tēr., Hec., 235: how do you know but she has pretended to hate me in order to be more with her (own) mother?
So also in the Conditional proposition, when the action is past. For varying conception, see C., Off., iii. 24, 92.

2. The Impf. Subjv., being used in opposition to the Present, might be treated as a Principal Tense, but the construction is less usual:

Verērēr nē immodicum orātiōnem putārēs nisi esset generis ēius ut saepe incipere saepe désinere videātur, Plin. Ep., ix. 4. 1; I should be afraid of your thinking the speech of immoderate length, if it were not of such kind as to produce the effect of often beginning, often ending. Ō ego nē possim tālēs sentire dolōrēs quam māllem in gelidis montibus esse lapsī?

Tib., ii. 4, 7.

518. Sequence of Tenses after an Infinitive or Participle.
—When a subordinate clause depends on an Infinitive or Participle, Gerund or Supine, the tense of that clause follows the tense of the Finite verb, if the Finite verb is Past; if the Finite verb is Present, it follows the tense that the dependent verb would have had, if it had been independent.

**Dicit sē interrogāre (original interrogō),**
_He says that he is asking,_

- quid agās,
- quid ēgerīs,
- quid āctūrūs sīs,

- what you are doing,
- what you have done,
- what you are going to do (will do).

**Dicit sē interrogāssee (original interrogāvi),**
_He says that he asked,

- quid agerēs,
- quid egerēs,
- quid āctūrūs essēs,

- what you were doing,
- what you had done,
- what you were going to do (would do).

**Dixit sē interrogāre (original interrogō),**
_He said that he was asking,

- quid agat,
- quid ēgerit,
- quid āctūrūs sit,

- what he is doing,
- what he has done,
- what he is going to do (will do),

- quid ageret,
- quid ēgisset,
- quid āctūrūs esset,

- what he was doing,
- what he had done,
- what he was going to do,

- nōn respondeat,
- nōn respondit.

Mīhī interrogantī, **when I ask him,**
_(literally: to me asking),_

- quid agās,
- quid ēgerīs,
- quid āctūrūs sīs,

- what you are doing,
- what you have done,
- what you are going to do (will do).

- quid agerēs,
- quid egerēs,
- quid āctūrūs essēs,

- what you were doing,
- what you had done,
- what you were going to do (would do).

**Mīhī interrogantī, when I asked him,**
_(literally: to me asking),_

- quid agat,
- quid ēgerit,
- quid āctūrūs sit,

- what he is doing,
- what he has done,
- what he is going to do (will do),

- nōn respondeat,
- nōn respondit.

Apud Hypanim fluvium Aristotelēs ait bēstiolās quāsdam nāscī quae ūnam diēm vivant, C., Tusc., i. 39. 91 (650). Satis mīhī multa verba fēcisse videor quārē esset hoc bellum necessārium, C., Imp., i. 10, 27: I think I have said enough (to show) why this war is necessary. Apellēs pictōrēs ēōs
peccāre dicēbat qui nōn sentīrent quid esset satis, C., Or., 22, 73; Apelles used to say that those painters blundered who did not perceive what was (is) enough. Athēniēnsēs Cyrsilum quendam suādentem ut in urbe manērent lapidibus obrērant, C., Off., iii. 11, 48 (546). Cupīdō incēssit animōs iuvenum sciscitandi ad quem ēorum rēgnum Rōmānum esset ventūrum, L., i. 56, 10; the minds of the young men were seized by the desire of inquiring to which of them the kingdom of Rome would come. Miserunt Delphōs cōnsultum quid facerent, Nep., ii. 2, 6; they sent to Delphi to ask the oracle what they should do. See 265.

Remark.—Nevertheless examples are not unfrequent where the sequence of the governing verb is retained: Videor mihi gratum fēcisse Siculis quod ēorum injuriās mēō periculō sim persecutus, C., Verr., ii. 6, 15; I seem to have pleased the Sicilians, in that I have followed up their injuries at my own risk (on account of the coincidence, 513, n. 3).

519. Original Subjunctives in Dependence.—1. The Potential of Present or Future after a Past tense goes into the Past; the same is true of Deliberative Questions (465). On the other hand, the Potential of the Past must be retained even after a Present tense (467).

Videō causās esse permultās quae [Titum Rōscium] impellērent, C., Rose. Am., 33, 92; I see that there are very many causes which might have impelled Titus Roscius. Quaerō à te cūr Gāium Cornēlium nōn dēfenderem, C., Vat., 2, 5 (467).

2. On the behavior of Conditional Subjunctives in dependence see 597, n. 4.

Remark.—The Sequence of Tenses is not unfrequently deranged by the attraction of parenthetic clauses or, especially in long sentences, by the shifting of the conception. Examples are C., Balb., i. 2; Ph., iii. 15, 39; Ac., ii. 18, 56, and many others.

USE OF THE REFLEXIVE IN SUBORDINATE SENTENCES.

520. In subordinate clauses, the Reflexive is used with reference either to the subject of the principal, or to the subject of the subordinate, clause; and sometimes first to the one and then to the other.

521. The Reflexive is used of the principal subject when reference is made to the thought or will of that subject; hence, in Infinitive Sentences, in Indirect Questions, in Sen-
tences of Design, and in Sentences which partake of the Oblique Relation.

Sentit animus sē vi suā, nōn aliēnā movēri, C., Tusc., 1. 23. 55; the mind feels that it moves by its own force, (and) not by that of another. Quaesīverunt num sē esset etiam mori prohibītūrus, C., Tusc., v. 14, 42 (516). Pompēius ā mē petīvit ut sēcum et apud sē essem cottidīē, Cf. C., Att., v. 6, 1; Pompey asked me to be with him, and at his house, daily. Paetus omnēs librōs quōs frāter suus reliquiisset mīhī dōnāvit, C., Att., ii. 1, 12; Paetus presented to me all the books (as he said) that his brother had left (quōs frāter ēius reliquerat, would be the statement of the narrator).

Remarks.—1. Sentences of Tendency and Result have forms of is, when the subj. is not the same as that of the leading verb; otherwise the Reflexive:

Tarquinius sic Servium dīligebat ut is ēius vulgō habēretur filius, C., Rep. 11. 21, 38; Tarquin loved Servius so that he was commonly considered his son. But Tanta opibus Etrūria erat ut iam nōn terrās sōlum sed mare etiam fāmā nōminis sui implēsset, L., 1. 2, 5; so great in means (= so powerful) was Etruria that she had already filled not only the land, but even the sea, with the reputation of her name.

2. The Reflexive may refer to the real agent, and not to the grammatical subj. of the principal clause. (309, 2.)

Ā Caesare invitō sībī ut sim lēgātus, C., Att., ii. 18, 3; I am invited by Caesar (= Caesar invites me) to be lieutenant to him.

Especially to be noted is the freer use of suus (309, 4). The other forms are employed chiefly in reflexive formulæ (309, 3), as sē recipere, to withdraw, etc.

(Rōmānī) suī colligendī hostibus facultātem (nōn) relinquent, Caes., B. G., iii. 6, 1 (309, 3).

3. The Reflexive is used in general sentences, as one, one’s self, etc. (309, 1): Déforme est dē sē ipsum praedicāre, C., Off., 1. 38, 137; it is unseemly to be bragging about one’s self.

With the Inf. this follows naturally from 420.

4. In Indic. relative sentences, which are mere circumlocutions (505), is is the rule:

Socratēs inhonestam sībī crēditit ōrātiōnem quam ei Lysīsās reō compo- suerat, Quint., ii. 15, 30; Socrates believed the speech which Lysias had composed for him when he was arraigned, dishonoring to him.

Sometimes, however. the Reflexive is put contrary to the rule:

Metellus in īs urbis quae ad sē dēfēcerant praesidia impōnit, S., Jug., 61, 1; Metellus put garrisons in those towns which had gone over to him; regularly, ad eum.

Ille habet quod sībī dēbēbātur, Petr., 43, 1; he has his due; regularly, ei.
5. Sometimes the Demonstrative is used instead of the Reflexive, because the narrator presents his point of view:

Solôn, quô tãtior víta éius esset, furere sê simulâvit, C., Off., i. 30. 108; Solon feigned madness that his life might be the safer. (The notion of Result intrudes.) Pompeius ignés fieri prohibuit, quô occultior esset éius adventus, Caes., B.C., iii. 30. 5; Pompey forbade fires to be kindled in order that his approach might be the better concealed.

Notes.—1. Occasionally, principally in early Latin, the Reflexive seems to be used with the force merely of a third personal pronoun:

Vitis sî macra erit, sarmenta sua conciditô minútê, Cato, Agr., 37. 3.

But sentences like eum fecisse áiunt quod sibi faciundum fuit (Pl., Poën., 956), where the relative clause is but a circumlocation for officium suum, belong properly under i. 4. Similarly, C., Inv., i. 33. 55. In the sentence, Cicerô tibi mandat, ut Aristodêmô idem dê sê respondeâs quod dê frâtrev suô respondísti (C., Att., ii. 7, 5), dê frâtrev éius would jar on account of the sê to which it refers.

2. Examples of Reflexives pointing both ways:

Rômânî] légátôs misérunt qui à [Prúsia] pterent né inimicissimum suum (= Rômânôrum) apud sê (= Prúsiam) habérêt, Nep., xxi. 12. 2; the Romans sent ambassadors to ask Prusias not to keep their bitterest enemy at his court. Agrippa Atticum féns ôrâbat atque obscrâbat ut sê sibi suísque reservâret, Cf. Nep., xxv. 22. 2; Agrippa begged and conferred Atticus with tears to save himself [Atticus] for him [Agrippa] and for his own family [Atticus].

Hopeless ambiguity:

Hërês meus dare illî damnâs estô omnia sua, Quint., vii. 9. 12; my heir is to give him all that is his.

3. For the sake of clearness, the subj. of the leading sentence is not unfrequently referred to in the form of the Demonstrative instead of the Reflexive:

Helvétii Allobrogibus sêcé vel persuásârôs existimâbant vel vi coâctûrôs ut per suôs finês eós îre paterentur, Caes., B.G., i. 6. 3; the Helvetians thought that they would persuade or force the Allobroges to let them [the Helvetians] go through their territory.

4. Ipse is always used in its proper distinctive sense; so, when it represents the speaker in Ò, O. (660.)

Éius and Suî.

522. Alexander moriêns ânulum suum dederat Perdiccææ, Nep., xviii. 2. 1: Alexander, [when] dying, had given his ring to Perdiccas.

Perdiccæs accéperat éius ânulum, Perdiccas had received his ring.

Quârê Alexander déclârâverat sê rëgnum eî commendâtse, thereby, Alexander had declared that he had committed the kingdom to him.

Ex quô Perdiccæs conîcécerat eum rëgnum eî commendâtse, from this Perdiccas had gathered that he had committed the kingdom to him.

Ex quô omnês conîcécerant eum rëgnum eî commendâtse, from this, all had gathered that he had committed the kingdom to him.

Perdiccæs pôstulâvit ut sê rëgem habérênt cum Alexander ânulum sibî dedisset, Perdiccas demanded that they should have him for king, as Alexander had given the ring to him.

Amicî pôstulâvérunt ut omnês eum rëgem habérênt cum Alexander ânu-
lum ei dedisset, (his) friends demanded that all should have him for
king, as Alexander had given the ring to him. (Lattmann and Müller.)

Ita sē gesserat Perdiccās ut ei régnum ab Alexandrō commendārētur. 
Perdiccās had so behaved himself that the kingdom was intrusted to
him by Alexander.

OBJECT SENTENCES.

523. Verbs of Doing, Perceiving, Conceiving, of Thinking and Saying, often take their object in the form of a
sentence.

Notes.—1. These sentences are regarded, grammatically, as neuter substantives.
The Accusative of neuter substantives is employed as a Nominative. Hence, a passive
or intransitive verb may take an object sentence as a subject.

2. To object sentences belong also Dependent Interrogative clauses, which have
been treated elsewhere for convenience of reference. See 452, i., x., 460, 467.

I. Object Sentences introduced by QUOD.

524. Clauses which serve merely as periphrases (circumlocutions) or expansions of elements in the leading sentence are introduced by quod, that.

Notes.—1. This usage seems to be in origin explanatory; that is, a demonstrative
in the leading clause is explained by the quod clause. But as the relative can always
include the antecedent demonstrative, the prevailing usage is without an antecedent.
In any case, however, the construction is essentially relative.

2. The original relation of quod and its antecedent is adverbial. They are Accusative
of Extent, that = in that, and are to be classed under the Inner Object (332). But
after transitive verbs quod and its antecedent are felt as Outer Objects, though whenever
the notion of Cause intrudes (in that = because), the original relation comes back,
as in causal sentences proper.

3. The antecedent demonstrative (whether omitted or inserted) would therefore be
either the direct object of the verb or it would be in adverbial or prepositional relation.
We have then two uses of the explanatory clause; (a) with verbs, with or without an
antecedent demonstrative; (b) as explanatory of an antecedent (expressed or implied)
in adverbial relation to the verb or dependent upon a prep. sition.

525. I. Quod (the fact that, the circumstance that, in
that) is used to introduce explanatory clauses, after verbs of
Adding and Dropping, and after verbs of Doing and Happening with an adverb.

Adde húc quod perferrī litterae nūllā condiciōne potuērunt, Pollio (C.,
Fam., x. 31, 4); add to this the fact that letters could under no cir-
stances be got through. Adde quod ingenuās didicisse fidēliter artēs
ēmollit mōre nec sinit esse fēros, Ov., Pont., ii. 9, 47; add (the fact) that
to have acquired faithfully the accomplishments (education) of a gentle-
man, softens the character, and does not let it be savage. Praetereō quod
eum nūsquam vidísti, C., Alt., i. 17, 2; it happened very unfortunately that you saw him nowhere. Bene mihi evenit quod mittor ad mortem, C., Tusc., i. 41, 97; it is fortunate for me that I am sent to death (execution).

Notes.—1. Of verbs of Adding adicere is introduced by Livy, addere is cited once each from Accius (269, R.) and Terence (Pl., 168), then more often from Lucrecius, Horace, and Ovid. Accedere is the passive of addere and occurs at all periods. Of verbs of Dropping, only praetereō, mittō, and omissō (C., Alt., viii. 3) are cited (all classical).

2. Esse is found mostly in the combinations quid (hoc) est quod, why is it that, this is why, which are confined to early Latin: Scin quid est quod ego ad tē veniō? Pl., Men., 677; hoc est quod ad vōs veniō, Pl., St., 127. Est quod, nihil est quod, etc., occur here and there later, but the effect of the negative on the mood is noteworthy. Compare positive sed est quod suscēset tibi (Ter., And., 448); there is something that makes him angry with you, with negative nihil est iam quod mihi suscēnseās (Pl., Merc., 377); there is nothing to make you angry with me.

3. To this group belongs the exclamatory interrogation Quid? quod, or quid quod — what of this, that?

Quid quod simulāc mihi collitum est praestō est imagō? C., N.D., i. 38, 108; what is to be said of the fact that the image presents itself as soon as I see it? (Nay, does not the image present itself?)

4. The use of quod after verbs of Doing and Happening is found first in Cicero; Plautus uses quia in this construction.

5. With several of the above-mentioned verbs ut can be employed, as well as quod (ut), of the tendency—quod, of the fact:

Ad Appi Claudī senectūtem accédēbat ut etiam caecus esset, C., Cat. M., 6, 16 (535, 4), or, quod caecus erat. Accēdit quod patrem plus etiam quam ipse scit amō, C., Alt., xiii. 21, 7; besides, I love the father even more than he himself knows.

But when the action is prospective or conditional, ut must be used:

Additur ad hanc définiçonem a Zénōne rectē ut illa opinio praesentis mai in rerum, C., Tusc., iii. 31, 75.

6. Quod with verbs of Motion as an adverbial Acc. is confined to early Latin and to veniō (Pl., Men., 677) and mittō (Pl., Ps., 639).

7. The extension of quod to verba sentiendi et dicendi is very unusual. One example in early Latin (Pl., Asin., 52) is much disputed; suspicious examples are C., Fam., iii. 8, 6; Caes., B.C., i. 23, 8, but a certain example is in b. Hisp. (io, 2), re-nuntiārunt quod hàberent. The only case in Augustan poetry is V., i., i. 289; it is doubtful in Livy; perhaps twice in Tacitus (Ann., iii. 54; xiv. 6). In later Latin, from Petronius on, it becomes frequent.

2. Quod (in that, as to the fact that, whereas) introduces explanatory clauses after demonstratives (expressed or implied), independent of the leading verb. See 627, R. 2.

Mihi quidem videntur hominēs hāc rē máximē bēstīis praestāre, quod loqui possunt, C., Inv., i. 4; to me men seem to excel beasts most in this, that they have the power of speech. Praeterquam quod fieri nōn potuit, nē fingi quidem potest. C., Div., ii. 12, 28; besides the fact that this could not be done, it could not even be made up. Nil habet infēlix paupertās
dūrius in sē quam quod (= id quod) ridiculōs hominēs facit, Juv., iii. 152; unhappy poverty hath in itself nothing harder (to bear) than that it makes people ridiculous. Māgnum beneficiūm [est] nātūrae quod necesse est morī, Sen., E. M., 101, 14 (204). Quod spīrō et placeō, si placeō, tuum est, II., 0., iv. 3, 24; that I do breathe and please, if that I please, is thine.

Notes.—1. In early usage the antecedent is not common, but it is employed very often by Cicero, for the purposes of argument.

2. Prepositional usages with the Abl. are ex eō, dē eō, in eō, prō eō, cum eō quod. Of these cum eō quod, with the proviso that, is very rare, occurring but once in Cicero (Att., vi. 1. 7). The prepositional usages with the Acc. are ad id quod (only in Livy); super id quod (only in Tacitus); praeter quod (Flor. and late writers); prae quod (Plaut. only). Similar is exceptō quod (Hor., Quint.). As praeter and super are comparative in force, we find praeter quam quod (early Latin, Cic., and later) and super quam quod (only in Livy). Similar to praeter quod is nisi quod (Plaut., Cicero [not Orations], Sall., Livy, and later). Tantum quod = nisi quod, once in Cicero (Verr., i. 45, 116) and is rare; tantum quod, temporal, “just,” is colloquial, and found first in Cicero’s Letters, then not till the post-Augustan period.

3. Quod, “as to the fact that,” is combined also with the Subjv. in early Latin: quod ille gallinam sē sectāri dicat, etc. (Pl., M. G., 162). This is explained as being the Potential Subjv., inasmuch as all the examples cited involve supposed statements or actions of a second or third (often indefinite) person, which the speaker merely wishes to anticipate. The usage is occasional, also, later: C., Pis., 27, 66; Verr., v. 68, 175, and sporadically in Fronto and Gaius. Sometimes the idea of Partial Obliquity enters, as in C., Br., 18, 73, quod aequālis fuerit Livius, minor fuit aliquantō; Inv., ii. 29, 89, (reading doubtful).

In general the usage of quod, “as to the fact that,” is familiar. Cicero uses it often in his Letters. But Caesar is fond of it too. Tacitus has it but once (Dial., 25).

3. The reigning mood is the Indicative. The Subjunctive is only used as in Ōrātiō Obliqua.

Cum Castam accusārem nihil magis pressī quam quod accusātor ēius praevāricātiōnis criminē corruisset, Plin., Ep., iii. 9, 34: when I accused Casta there was no point that I laid more stress on than (what I stated) “that her accuser had gone to pieces under a charge of collusion.”

Remark.—Verbs of Emotion, such as Rejoicing, Sorrowing, etc., take quod with the Indic. or Subjunctive. See Causal Sentences, 539.

11. Object Sentences, with Accusative and Infinitive.

526. Preliminary Observation.—On the simple Infinitive as an object, see 423.

The Inf., as a verbal predicate, has its subject in the Accusative. (420.)

527. Active verbs of Saying, Showing, Believing, and Perceiving (verba sentiendi et déclārandi), and similar expressions, take the Accusative and Infinitive:

Thalēs Milēsius aquam dixit esse initium rērum, C., N. D., i. 10, 25;
Thales of Miletus said that water was the first principle of things. [Solon] — furere sē simulāvit, C., Off., 1. 30. 108; Solon pretended to be mad. Medici causā morbi inventā cūrātiōnēm esse inventam putant, C., Tusc., iii. 10, 23; physicians think that, (when) the cause of disease (is) discovered, the method of treatment is discovered. Volucrēs vidēmus fingere et cōnstruere nidōs, C., Or., 11. 6, 23; we see that birds fashion and build nests. Audiet civēs acuisset ferrum, H., O., 1. 2, 21; [the youth] shall hear that citizens gave edge to steel. Timāgenes auctor est omnium in litterīs studiōrum antiquissimam mūsicēn extitisse, Quint., 1. 10, 10; Timagenes is the authority (for the statement) that of all intellectual pursuits music was the most ancient.

The sentence very often passes over into the Acc. and Inf. (O. O.) without any formal notice.

Remarks. — 1. Verba sentiendi comprise two classes, those of (a) Actual and those of (b) Intellectual Perception. Some verbs, such as sentīre, vidēre, cernere, audīre, belong to both classes. Otherwise the most common are:

(a) Cōnspicāri, cōnspicere, aspicere, sūspicere, prōspicere, also rarely tuēri and somniāre (early).

(b) Intellegere, cōgnōscere, compērīre, scīre, nescīre, and less commonly, but Ciceronian, discere, ignōrāre, accipere, animadvertere, perspicere, etc.

2. Verba declarandī can likewise be divided into two classes: (a) those of Actual and (b) those of Intellectual Representation; but the classes often fade into each other, or, rather, a verb of Intellectual Representation can be readily used as one of Actual Representation. In general, verbs of Intellectual Representation are those of Thinking, Remembering, Belief and Opinion, Expectation. Trust and Hope. Verbs of Actual Representation are those of Saying, Showing, Approving, Boasting, Pretending, Promising, Swearing, Threatening, Accusing (the last have more often quod). Verbs of Concluding belong always to both classes. The principal of these verbs are: putāre, dūcere, arbitrāri, cēnsēre, sūspicāri, crēdere, eōstīmāre, meminisse, cōnfidere, spē-rāre, dēspē-rāre. Then dīcere, ēdicere, affīrmāre, cōnfirmāre, āīō (rare), loquī (rare), negāre, faterī, narrāre, trādere, scribere, nūntiāre, ostendere, probāre, glōriāri, dēmonstrāre, persuādēre, signifīcāre, pollicēri, prōmittere, mināri, simulāre, dissimulāre, etc.; conclūdere, colligere, efficere. Also pōnerē, to suppose (rare), facere, to represent. Similar expressions are spēs est, opinīō est, fāma est, auctor sum, tēstis sum, certīōrem aliquem facere, etc.

3. When the subj. of the Inf. is a personal or reflexive pronoun, that subj. may be omitted—chiefly with Fut. Inf.—and then esse also is dropped. This occurs rarely in Cicero, more frequently in early Latin, Caesar, and later.
II. dependent

4. The simple Inf. is often used in English, where the Latin takes Acc. and Infinitive. This is especially true of verbs of Hoping and Promising. 

\( \text{Spērō mē hoc adeptūrum esse, I hope to (that I shall) obtain this.} \)

\( \text{Prōmittēbat sē ventūrum esse, he promised to (that he would) come.} \)

5. When the Acc. with the Inf. is followed by a dependent Acc., ambiguity may arise:

\( \text{Āio tē, Aeacidā, Rōmānōs vincere posse (C., Div., vi. 56, 116), in which} \)

\( \text{tē may be subject or object.} \)

Real ambiguity is to be avoided by giving the sentence a passive turn:

\( \text{Āio ā tē, Aeacidā, Rōmānōs vincī posse, I affirm that the Romans can} \)

\( \text{be conquered by thee, son of Aeacus} \)

\( \text{Āio tē, Aeacidā, ā Rōmānīs vincī posse, I affirm that thou, son of} \)

\( \text{Aeacus, canst be conquered by the Romans.} \)

When the context shows which is the real subj., formal ambiguity is of no importance. But see Quint., vii. 9, 10.

Notes.—1. Verbs of Perception and Representation take the Part. to express the actual condition of the object of Perception or Representation (536). As there is no Pr. Part. pass., the Inf. must be used, and thus the difference between Intellectual and Actual Perception is effaced, sometimes even in the active, and, in fact, the use of the Part. is confined to authors who are consciously influenced by a rivalry with the Greek.

\( \text{Audiō cīvēs acuentēs ferrum, (Cf. II., O., i. 2. 21: I hear citizens sharpening the} \)

\( \text{steel.} \; \text{Audiō ā cīvibus acuī ferrum, I hear that the steel is sharpened by citizens; or,} \)

\( \text{the steel as it is sharpened by citizens.} \; \text{Octāvium (dolōre cōnfiē vīdī, C., Fin.,} \)

\( \text{ii. 28, 93; I have seen Octavius (when he was) weeping out with anguish. Vīdī} \)

\( \text{historiōnes flentēs ēgredī, Quint., vi. 2. 35; I have seen actors leave the stage weeping.} \)

\( \text{(Platō) ā Deō aedificārī mundum facit, C., N.D., i. 8, 19; Plato makes out that} \)

\( \text{the universe is built by God.} \; \text{Polyphēnum Homērus cum ariete conuentōm} \)

\( \text{facit, C., Tusc., v. 39, 115 (536).} \; \text{Fac, quaeśō, quī ego sum esse tē, C., Fam., vii. 23,} \)

\( \text{1; suppose, I pray, yourself to be me.} \)

2. The (Greek) attraction of the predicate of the Inf. into the Nom. after the Verb of Saying or Thinking, is poetical: the first example is Pl., Asin., 634.

\( \text{Phasēlus ille, quem vidētis, hospitēs, ait fuīse nāvium celerrimus, Cat.,} \)

\( \text{iv. 1; that pinece younder, which you see, my stranger guests, declares she used to be} \)

\( \text{(claims to have been) the fastest craft afloat.} \)

There is one example in Cicero (Att., ii. 21. 57).

3. The use of the Acc. and Inf. with \text{verba dēclārandi} is an outgrowth of the use after verbs of Creation (423), just as in English “I declare him to be,” is an extension of “I make him to be,” in which Acc. and Inf. have each its proper force. This is the origin of the so-called \text{ōrātiō Obliqua}, or Indirect Discourse, which represents not the exact language used, but the general drift, and in which the tenses of the Inf. seem to represent approximately the tenses of the Indicative. It was to complete the scheme of the Tenses that the Fut. Inf. was developed, and this is the sole use of that tense. The use of the Acc. and Inf. after \text{verba sentiendi}, like the use in English “I see him go,” is more primitive, but the original case of the Inf. is no longer felt.
Nominative with Infinitive.

528. Passive verbs of Saying, Showing, Believing, and Perceiving:

1. In the Simple tenses prefer the personal construction, in which the Accusative Subject of the Infinitive appears as the Nominative Subject of the leading verb.

2. In the Compound tenses prefer the impersonal construction, which is the rule with Gerund and Gerundive.

Thus, instead of

Trädunt Homērum caecum fuisset, they say that Homer was blind,

we should have,

Träditur Homērus caecus fuisset, Homer is said to have been blind,

or,

[Träditum] est Homērum caecum fuisset, C., Tusc., v. 39. 114; there is a tradition that Homer was blind.

[Aristaeus] inventor olei esse dicitur, C., Verr., iv. 57, 128; Aristaeus is said to be the inventor of oil. Terentī fābellae propter elegantiam sermonis putābantur a Laeliō scribī, C., Ait., vii. 3, 10; Terence’s plays, on account of the elegance of the language, were thought to be written by Laelius. [Si Vēiōs migrābimus] āmīsisse patriam vidēbimus, L., v. 53. 5; if we remove to Veji, we shall seem to have lost our country. Reus damnātum īrī vidēbātur, Quint., ix. 2, 88 (435, n. 4). Crēditur Pythagōrae audītōrem fuisset Numam, L., xl. 29. 8; it is believed that Numa was a hearer of Pythagoras.

But:

[Venerem] Adōnidī nūpsisse prōditum est, C., N.D., iii. 23, 59; it is recorded that Venus married Adonis. (Philōnem) existimandum est disertum fuisset, C., Or., i. 14. 62; we must suppose that Philo was eloquent.

Remarks.—1. The impersonal construction is the rule if a Dat. is combined with the verb: mihi nuntiābatur Parthōs trānsisse Euphrātem, C., Fam., xv. 1, 2; it was announced to me that the Parthians had crossed the Euphrates.

2. Various peculiarities are noteworthy in the matter of these verbs. Thus, dicitur usually means it is maintained, dictum est, it is said. Crēditur, etc. (impersonal), is the regular form in classical prose: the personal construction is poetical and late. Vidēri is used, as a rule, personally: the impersonal construction vidētar is rare. The active forms trädunt, crēdunt, etc., are everywhere common.
TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

Notes.—1. In early Latin the personal construction is found with argui, cluère (a virtual passive), dicit, existimari, inveniri, iubiri, nuntiari, perhiberi, reperiri. All these, except cluère, are retained in the classical period. Cicero and Caesar add twenty-five new verbs, and from this time on the construction increases.

2. Virtual passives, on the analogy of cluère, are rare; apparere, constare, venire in suspicionem, are Ciceronian; so also opus est in [C.], Fam., xi. 11, 2, and perhaps Ter., And., 337.

3. A second clause following a Nom. with the Inf. takes its subj. in the Accusative C., Or., ii. 74, 299.

4. In verbs of Saying, except dicó (compare Tac., Ann., iv. 34, 3), the personal construction is confined to the third person. The poets are free in treating verbs under this head.

Tenses of the Infinitive with Verba Sentiendī et Declārandī.

529. The Infinitive denotes only the stage of the action, and determines only the relation to the time of the leading verb (281).

530. After verbs of Saying, Showing, Believing, and Perceiving, and the like,
The Present Infinitive expresses contemporaneous action;
The Perfect Infinitive expresses prior action;
The Future Infinitive expresses future action.

Remark.—The action which is completed with regard to the leading verb may be in itself a continued action. So in English: I have been studying, I had been studying. Hence, the Impf. Indic. (I was studying) is represented in this dependent form by the Pf. Inf., because it is prior to the leading verb.

In this table the Present is taken as the type of the Principal, the Imperfect as the type of the Historical, Tenses.

531. Contemporaneous Action.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P. T. Dicit: tē errāre,</td>
<td>tē déciπi, that you are (being) deceived (217, R.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He says, that you are going wrong,</td>
<td>tē déciπi, that you were (being) deceived</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H. T. Dicebat: tē errāre,</td>
<td>tē déceptum esse, that you have been deceived,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He was saying, that you were going wrong,</td>
<td>that you were deceived (Aor.), (that people have been deceiving you)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Prior Action.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P. T. Dicit: tē errāsse,</td>
<td>tē deceptum esse, that you have been deceived,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>He says, that you have gone wrong,</td>
<td>that you were deceived (Aor.),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that you went wrong,</td>
<td>(that people have been deceiving you)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that you have been going wrong,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
H. T. *Dicēbat: tē errāsse,*
*He was saying, that you had gone wrong,*
*that you went wrong,*
*that you had been going wrong,*

*te deceptum esse,*
*that you had been deceived,*
*that you were deceived (Aor.),*
*(that people had been deceiving you)*

**Subsequent Action.**

P. T. *Dicit: tē errātūrum esse,*
*He says, that you (are about to go wrong), will (be) going wrong,*

*te deceptum iri,*
*that you (are going to) will be deceived.*

H. T. *Dicēbat: tē errātūrum esse,*
*He was saying, that you were about to (would) go wrong,*

*te deceptum iri,*
*that you were going to (would) be deceived.*

**Periphrastic Future.**

The following form (the *Periphrastic Future*) is necessary when the verb has no Sup. or Fut. participle. It is often formed from other verbs to intimate an interval, which cannot be expressed by other forms, and is more common in the passive than the Fut. Inf. pass. of the paradigms.

P. T. *Dicit: fore (futūrum esse) ut errāres (metuās),*
*fore (futūrum esse) ut errāveris (rare),*

*fore ut decipiāris (metuāris),*
*fore ut deceptus sis (rare), usually deceptus fore (not futūrum esse).*

H. T. *Dicēbat: fore (futūrum esse) ut errāres (metuerēs), errāssēs (rare),

decptum fore (rarely: fore ut deceptus essēs).*

**Notes.**—1. For examples of the Periphrastic, see 248.

Carthaginians debellatum mox fore rebantur, L., xxiii. 13, 6; the Carthaginians thought that the war would soon be (have been) brought to an end. From debellatum erit, it will be (have been) brought to an end. So in the deponent adep tum fore.

2. Ponderous periphrastics are of rare occurrence. So fētialēs dēcrēverunt utrum eōrum fēcisset rectē factūrum (L., xxxii. 8); not fore ut fēcisset, although the Ō. R. requires utrum fēceris, rectē fēceris. (244, n. 4.) See Weissenborn’s note.

3. Posse, velle, etc., do not require the Periphrastic, and seldom take it. (248, n.)

4. Spērāre, to hope, prōmittere (pollicēri), to promise, which regularly take the Fut. Inf., have occasionally the Pr. when an immediate realization of the hope is anticipated. With spēs est the Pr. Inf. is more common.

Lēgāti veniunt qui pollicantur obsidēs dare, Caes., B. G., iv. 21, 5; ambassadors come to promise the giving of (to give) hostages.

So, too, when the Fut. Inf. is not available, sometimes also when it is, posse and the Pr. is a fair substitute. Tōtīus Galliae sēsē potīri posse (= potitūros esse) spērant, Caes., B. G., i. 3, 8; they hope they can (will) get possession of the whole of Gaul. See 233, n. 5.

Of course spērāre may be used simply as a verb of Thinking.
Accusative and Infinitive with Verbs of Will and Desire.

532. Verbs of Will and Desire take a Dependent Accusative and Inifinitive.

The relation is that of an Object to be Effected.

Si vis me fiere, dolendum est primum ipsi tibi, H., A. P., 102: if you wish me to weep, you must first feel the pang yourself. Utrum [Milonis] corporis an Pythagorae tibi malis viris ingenii dari? (C.. Cat., M.. 10, 33; which (whether) would you rather have given to you, Milo's strength of body or Pythagoras' strength of mind? Ipse iubet mortis té meminisse deus, Mart., II. 59 (376). Vitaee summa brevis spem nös vetat inchoare longam, H., O. I. 4, 15 (423, x. 6). Némô ire quemquam públicâ prohibet viā, Pl., C. u. 35 (389). Germâni vinum ad sé omninò importâtì nôn sinunt, Cae., B.G., IV. 2, 6: the Germans do not permit wine to be imported into their country at all.

Remarks.—1. A list of these verbs is given in 423, x. 2.

2. When the subj. of the Inf. is the same as the subj. of the leading verb, the subj. of the Inf. is usually not expressed:

Ní pârere velis, pereundum erit ante lucernás, Juv., x. 339; unless you resolve to obey, you will have to perish before candle-light. Et iam nállet equós numquam tetigisse paternós, Ov., M., ii. 182; and now he could have wished rather never to have touched his father's horses.

But the subj. may be expressed, and commonly is expressed, when the action of the Inf. is not within the power of the subject; so especially with an Inf. passive:

(Timoleon) máluit sé dilígì quam metuí, N. p., xx. 3, 4; Timoleon preferred that he should be loved rather than that he should be feared. Êgo rús abitûram mé certó décrévi, Te., Hec., 586. Principem sé esse măvult quam vidérì, C., Off., i. 19, 65.

Notes.—1. On the construction of this class of verbs with ut (né, quómínus), see 546. Imperó, I command, in model prose takes only the Inf. passive or deponent; in Sallust, Hirtius, Curtius, Tacitus, and the Poets sometimes the active.

(Hannibal) imperávit quam plúrimás venënátás serpentés vivâs colligí, N. p., 23, 10; Hannibal ordered as many poisonous serpents as possible to be caught alive.

Permittó seldom takes the Inf. (e.g., C., Ferr., v. 9, 29); the Acc. with Inf. begins in Tacitus: concédo takes Inf. pass. only, in classical prose. Iubeó, I bid; sinó, I let; vetó, I forbid; prohibó, I prohibit, always have the Inf. of passive verbs. With sinó and vetó the model construction is Inf. only. Sinó takes ut occasionally in early and late Latin, vetó does not have né till in the post-Ciceronian period. Iubre takes ut when it is applied to decrees of the Senate, and from Livy on when used of the orders of generals; prohibére takes né and quómínus. These verbs may themselves be turned into the passive: inueor, sinor, vetor, prohibor.

2. After iubeó, I bid, and vetó, I forbid, the Inf. act. can be used without a subj. (even an imaginary or indefinite one):

Iubet reddere, he bids return (orders the returning).
ACCUSATIVE AND INFINITIVE.

Vetat adhibère medicinam, C., Att., xvi. 15. 5; *he forbids the administration of medicine.* Infandum, régina, iubēs renovāre dolōrem, V., i., ii. 3; *unspeakable, O queen, the anguish which you bid (me, us) revive.*

3. After volō, nolō, mālō in early Latin, ut and the Subjv. is proportionally more common than in the classical time. But with the Potential forms, velim, màlim, vellem, māllem, Cicero uses only the Subjv. (without ut). When volō means *maintain,* it takes the Inf. only; see 546, r. 1.

4. It is noteworthy that in classical Prose *cupere* never takes ut, while *optāre* never takes the Infinitive.

5. On the use of the Pf. Inf. instead of the Pr. after these verbs, see 537, n. 1.

6. The Poets go much further in using verbs and phrases as expressions of Will and Desire. See 423, n. 4.

Accusative and Infinitive with Verbs of Emotion.

533. Verbs of Emotion take a dependent Accusative and Infinitive, inasmuch as these verbs may be considered as verbs of Saying and Thinking. (542.)

Salvom tē advēnisse gaudeō, Ter., Ph., 256; *I rejoice that you should have arrived safe (to think that you have arrived safe, at your arriving safe).* Quod salvos advēnisti, that you have arrived safe. Quod salvos advēnēris, that (as you say) you have arrived safe.

İnfēriōres nōn dolōre [dēbent] sē a suis dignitāte superāri, C., Lael., 20, 71; *inferiors ought not to consider it a grievance that they are surpassed in rank by their own (friends).*

Remarks.—1. This construction, outside of a few verbs, is not common, though found in a wide range of authors. Gaudēre, laetāri, dolēre, querī (beginning in Cic.), mīrāri, are common; in addition Cicero uses, rarely, however, more than once each. maerēre, lugēre, cōnfici, discruciāri, angī, sollicitāri, indignāri, fremere, dēmīrāri, admirāri, subesse timōrem. Early Latin shows ridēre (Naev.), gestīre, mīhi dolet (Ter.), maestus sum (Plaut.), cruciāri (Plaut.), lāmentāri (Plaut., Hor.), sūspirāre (Lucr.), incendor irā (Ter.), ferōx est (Plaut., invidēre (Plaut., Hor.), formidāre, verērī, in addition to the common gaudēre, etc., already cited.

2. On the Participle after a verb of Emotion, 536, n. 2.

Accusative and Infinitive in Exclamations.

534. The Accusative with the Infinitive is used in Exclamations and Exclamatory Questions as the object of an unexpressed thought or feeling.

Hem, mea lūx, tē nunc, mea Terentia, sic vexāri. C., Fam., xiv. 2, 2; *hem, light of my life, for you to be so harassed now, Terentia dear.*

Hominemne Rōmānum tam Graecē loquī? Plin., Ep., iv. 3, 5; *a Roman speak such good Greek?* (To think that a Roman should speak such
**ACCUSATIVE AND INFINITIVE.**

Good Greek.) Mēne inceptō dēsistere—? V., A., 1. 37; I—desist from my undertaking? Hinc abire mātre? Ter., Hec., 612; mother go away from here?

Remarks.—1. Different is quod, which gives the ground.

Ei mihi quod nūllīs amor est sānābilis herbis. Ov., M., 1. 523; woe's me that (in that, because) love is not to be cured by any herbs.

2. On ut, with the Subjv. in a similar sense, see 558. Both forms offer an objection.

**Accusative and Infinitive as a Subject.**

535. The Accusative with the Infinitive may be treated as the Subject of a sentence. The Predicate is a substantive or neuter adjective, an impersonal verb or abstract phrase.

In the English "for—to," the "for" belongs not to the case but to the Infinitive, but the object relation has been effaced here as it has been in Latin. See 423, X. 1.

Est inūsītātum rēgem reum capitum esse, C., Dev., 1. 1; it is an extraordinary thing that a king should (for a king to) be tried for his life.

Facinus est vincire civem Rōmānum. C., Ver., v. 66, l. 0; it is an outrage to put a Roman citizen in chains.

Necesse est facere sūmptum qui quaerit (= eum qui quaerit) lucrum, Pl., As., 215; need is that he make outlay who an income seeks.

Lēgēm brevem esse oportet. quō facilius ab imperitis teneātur, Sen., E. M., 94. 38; it is proper that a law should be brief (a law ought to be brief), that it may the more easily be grasped by the uneducated.

Quid Milōnis intererat interficī Clōdium, C., Mil., 1, 34 (382, 2). Opus est tē animō valēre, C., Fam., xvi. 14, 2 (406, x. 5).

Remarks.—1. A list of expressions taking the Inf. as a subj. is given in 422, xx.

2. Oportet, it is proper, and necesse est, must needs, are often used with the Subjunctive. So also many other phrases with ut. (See 557.)

Necesse also takes the Dat. of the Person:

Ut culpent aliī, tibi mē laudāre necesse est, Ov., Her., 12, 131: let others blame, but you must give me praise.

3. When the indirect obj. of the leading verb is the same as the subj. of the Inf. the predicate of the subj. is put in the same case as the indirect object: in standard prose chiefly with licet, it is left (free): in poetry and later prose with necesse, with satius est, it is better, contingit, it happens, vacat, there is room.

Licuit esse ōtiosā Themistocleī. C., Tusc., 1. 15, 33; Themistocles was free to live a life of leisure.

The Acc. is occasionally found: always if the Dat. is not expressed.

Mediōs esse iam nōn licēbit (nōs), C., Alt., x. 5, 4: it will no longer be allowable to be neutral.
Object Sentences Represented by the Participle.

536. The Participle is used after verbs of Perception and Representation, to express the actual condition of the object of perception or representation.

Catōnem vidī in bibliothēcā sedentem multis circumspīsum Stoicōrum libros, C., Fin., III. 2, 7; I saw Cato sitting in the library with an ocean of Stoic books about him. Prōdigā nōn sentit perœuentem fēmina cēnsum, Juv., vi. 362; the lavish woman does not perceive (how) the income (is) dwindling. Saepe illam audivi fūrtīvā vōcē loquentem, Cat., lxvii. 41; I have often heard her talking in a stealthy (in an under-) tone. Gaudē quod spectant oculī tē mille loquentem, II., Ep., i. 6. 19 (542). Polyphē-mum Homērus cum ariete conloquentem facit, C., Tusc., v. 39, 115; Homer represents Polyphemus (as) talking with the ram.

Notes.—1. This construction is found but once in early Latin (Piso), then in Cicerō, Sallust, Nepos, Vitruvius, Livy, Horace. The naturalization of it is due to Cicerō, and other students of Greek models. The poverty of Latin in participles was a serious drawback to the convenient distinction from the Infinitive; and it may be said that the participle was never perfectly at home.

2. On the Inf., see 527, n. 1. The Greek construction of Part. agreeing with the leading Nom. after verbs of Perception and Emotion, is rare and poetical:

Gaudent scribentēs, II., Ep., ii. 2. 107; they have joy while writing. Sēnsit mediōs délāpsus in hostēs, V., i. 41. 377; he perceived (it) having fallen (that he had fallen) midst the enemy. Gaudent perfūsī sanguinem frātrum, V., i. 41. 310; they rejoice, bedrenched with brothers’ blood.

537. The Perfect Participle Passive is used after verbs of Causation and Desire, to denote impatience of anything except entire fulfilment:

Si qui voluptātibus dūcuntur missōs faciant honōrēs, C., Sest., 66, 138; if any are led captive by sensual pleasures, let them dismiss honors (at once and forever). Huic mandēs si quid rectē cūrātum velīs, Ter., Ad., 372; you must intrust to him whatever you want properly attended to.

Notes.—1. After verbs of Will and Desire, the Inf. esse is occasionally found with this Part., and hence it may be considered a Pf. Infinitive (280, 2, c). Compare, however, Pf. Part. pass. with opus est, ūsus est (406).

2. The verbs of Causation thus employed are cūrāre, dare, facere, reddere. The usage is most common in early Latin. In the classical period only missum facere.

Causal Sentences.

538. Causal sentences are introduced:

1. By quia, because, quod, (in that) because.
2. By quoniam (quam iam), now that, quandō, quandōdem, since.

(Cause Proper.)
3. By *cum* (quam). *as.* (Inference.)

4. By the Relative Pronoun, partly alone, partly with *ut, utpote, quippe, etc.* (See 626, 634.)

Notes.—1. *Quod* is the Acc. Sing. neuter, and *quia* is probably the Acc. Pl. neuter from the relative stem. They have accordingly often a correlative demonstrative; so with *quod:* *eò, ea ré, ideò, idcircò, ea gratia* (in *Sallust* only), *hóc, hác mente* (*H., S., II. 2, 90), *proptereà,* and a few combinations with *ob* and *propter;* with *quia* are found *eò, ea ré, ideò, idcircò, proptereà,* and *ergò* (in *Plautus* only).

2. *Quod* and *quia* differ in classical prose, chiefly in that *quod* is used, and not *quia,* when the causal sentence is at the same time an object sentence.

3. *Quoniam* is originally temporal, and as such is still found in *Plautus.* The causal use of it becomes much more extensive in classical prose, and, like *quando* (*quandò-quisdem*), it is used of *vident* reasons.

4. *Quando* is used principally as a temporal particle. In a causal sense it is very rare in Cicero (in the *Orations* never, unless compounded with *quisdem*), and is not found in *Caesar.* The compound with *quisdem* is more common.

5. *Quatenus,* *in so far as,* is poetical and in late prose. Porson shows first example, *O., III. 24, 30.* Valerius M., *Quintilian,* Tacitus, Pliny *Minor,* and *Suetonius* show occasional examples.

Causal Sentences with *Quod, Quia, Quoniam,* and *Quando.*

539. Causal sentences with *quod, quia, quoniam,* and *quando* are put in the Indicative, except in oblique relation (Partial or Total).

Remark.—The other person of the oblique clause may be imaginary, and the writer or speaker may quote from himself indirectly:

> *Laetatus sum, quod mihi licèret recta defendere,* *C., Fam., I. 9, 18;* I was glad (to say to myself) *that I was free to champion the right.*

540. Causal sentences with *quod, quia, quoniam,* and *quando* take the Indicative in Direct Discourse.

> *Torquatus filium suum quod is contrà imperium in hostem pùgnàverat necàri fùsit,* *S., C., 52, 30;* Torquatus bade his son be put to death because he had fought against the enemy contrary to order(s) [quod pùgnàset = because, as Torquatus said or thought]. Amantès dé fòrmà iùdicàre nòn possunt, quia sènsùm oculòrurn praècipit animus, *Quint., VI. 2, 6;* lovers cannot judge of beauty, because the heart forestalls the eye. Quia nátùra mútàrì nòn potèst idcircò vèrae amicitiae sempiterneae sunt, *C., Lact., 9, 32;* because nature cannot change, therefore true friendships are everlasting. *Neque mé vixisse paenitet quoniam ita vixì ut nòn frùstrà mé nátùm existìnum,* *C., Cal. M., 23, 8;* and I am not sorry for having lived, since I have so lived that I think I was born not in vain. *Sòlus erò quoniam nòn licet esse tuum,* *Prop., II 9, 46;* I shall be alone since I may not be thine. Voluptàs sèmovenda est quando ad màiòra quaedam nàti sumus, *Cf., C., Fin., V. 5, 21;* pleasure is to be put aside.
because we are born for greater things. Erant quibus appetentior fāmae [Helvidius] vidērētur quandō etiam sapientibus cupīdō glōriae novissima exuitur, Tac., II., iv. 6, 1; there were some to whom Helvidius seemed too eager for fame, since, even from the wise, ambition is the last (infirmity) that is put off. Sequitur ut liberātōres (sint), quandōquidem tertium nihil potest esse, C., Ph., ii. 13, 31.

541. Causal sentences with quod, quia, quoniam, and quandō take the Subjunctive in Oblique Discourse (Partial or Total).

Noctū ambulābat in pūblīcō Themistoclēs quod sōmnum capere nōn pos- set, C., Tusc., iv. 19, 44; Themistocles used to walk about in public at night because (as he said) he could not get to sleep. Aristidēs nōnne ob eam causam expulsus est patriā quod praeter modum iūstus esset? C., Tusc., v. 36, 105; (there is) Aristides; was he not banished his coun- try for the (alleged) reason “that he was unreasonably just”? [Nē] compōne comās quia sis ventūrūs ad illam, Ox., Rem. Am., 679 (517). Quoniam (so most MSS.) ipse prō sē dicere nōn posset, verba fēctū frāter eius Stēsagorās, Nep., i. 7, 5; “as [Miltiades] could not speak for himself,” his brother, Stesagoras, made a speech. (Indirect quotation from the speech of Stesagoras.)

A good example is Pl., M. G., 1412–15.

Notes.—1. Quia is the usual particle in the causal sense in Plautus, quod being very rare; but quod is more common in Terence, and is the regular particle in classical prose (Caesar has but one case of quia), though the use of quia revives in post- classical Latin. Cicero makes a point on the difference in meaning in Rosc. Am., 50, 145: concēdō et quod (by reason of the fact that) animus aequus est, et quia (because) nesses est.

2. A rejected reason is introduced by nōn quod with the Subjv. (as being the suggestion of another person). The Indic., which is properly used of excluded facts, is also used of flat denials, like the negative and Indic. in the independent sentence, but the Subjv. is the rule. Nōn quia is the rule in early Latin, but classical prose shows very few examples. From Cic. on it becomes common. Other equivalents are nōn quō, nōn sō quod, nōn sō quō; further, nōn quin for nōn quō nōn. All of these are found with Subjv. only. The corresponding affirmative is given by sed quod or sed quia indiscriminately, regularly with the Indicative.

Subjunctive:

Pugilēs in iactandis caestibus ingemiscunt, nōn quod doleant, sed quia profundēnē vōce omne corpus intenditur venitique plāga vehementior, C., Tusc., ii. 23, 56; boxers in plying the caestus heave groans, not that (as you might sup- pose) they are in pain, but because in giving full rent to the voice all the body is put to the stretch and the blow comes with a greater rush. Māiōrēs nostri in dominum dē servō quaeri nōlēbant; nōn quin posset vērum invenīri, sed quia videbātūr indicium esse, C., Mil., 22, 59; our ancestors would not allow a slave to be questioned by torture against his master, not because (not as though they thought) the truth could not be got at, but because such a course seemed degrading. A [Lacedaemoniōrum exulibus] praetor vim arcuerat, nōn quia salvōs vellet sed quia perire causā indictā nōlēbat, L., xxxviii, 33, 11; the praetor had warded off violence from the
CAUSAL SENTENCES.

Lucedononian exiles, not (as you might have supposed) because he wished them to escape, but because he did not wish them to perish with their case not pleaded (unheard). The same principle applies to magis quod (quod), quia—quam quod (first in Cicero), quod (first in Sallust), quia (first in Livy), with the moods in inverse order.

Libertatis originem inde, magis quia annuum imperium consulare factum est quam quod demínuitum quidquam sit ex régis potestáte, numerés, L. ii. 1, 7; you may begin to count the origin of liberty from that point, rather because the consul's government was limited to a year, than because ought was taken away from the royal power.

Indicative:

Sum non dicam miser, sed certe exercitus, non quia multis débeo sed quia saepe concurrunt alíquorum bene de mé meritórum inter ípsós contentiónés, C., Planc., 32, 78; I am, I will not say, wretched, but certainly worried, not because I am in debt to many, but because the rival claims of some who have deserved well of me often conflict. Compare also II., S., ii. 2, 89.

3. Verbs of Saying and Thinking are occasionally put in the Subjv. with quod by a kind of attraction. Compare 585, n. 3.

Impeträre non potui, quod religione sē impediri dicerent, C., Fam., iv. 12, 3; I could not obtain permission, because they said they were embarrassed (prevented) by a religious scruple (= quod impedirentur, because (as they said) they were prevented).

This attraction is said to occur not infrequently in Cicero, several times in Caesar and Sallust, but is not cited from any other author. Compare, however, créderent, L., xxi. 3, 3.

4. On the use of tamquam, etc., to indicate an assumed reason, see 602, n. 4.

5. Quandoque is archaic and rare. It is found first in the Twelve Tables, a few times in Cicero and Livy, three times in Horace, and occasionally later.

6. Causal sentences may be represented by a participle (669), or by the relative (626).

**QUOD with Verbs of Emotion.**

542. Quod is used to give the ground of Emotions and Expressions of Emotion, such as verbs of Joy, Sorrow, Surprise, Satisfaction and Anger, Praise and Blame, Thanks and Complaint.

The rule for the Mood has been given already: 539.

Indicative:

Gaudé quod spectant oculi tē mille loquentem, II., Ep., i. 6, 19; rejoice that a thousand eyes are gazing at you (while you are) speaking. Dolet mihi quod tū nunc stomachāris, C., Phil. Br., i. 17, 6; it pains me that you are angry now. Quintum paenitet quod animum tuum offendit, Cf. C., Att., xi. 13, 2 (377, r. 3). Iuvat mē quod vigent studia, Planc., Ep., i. 13, 1: I am charmed that studies are flourishing. Tristis es? indignor quod sum tibi causa dolóris, Ov., Tr., iv. 3, 33: are you sad? I am provoked (with myself) that I am a cause of pain to you. Tibi grátias agō, quod mē omni molestiā liberásti, C., Fam., xiii. 62; I thank you, that you freed me from all annoyance.

Subjunctive:

Gaudet miles quod vicerit hostem, Ov., Tr., ii. 49: the soldier rejoices.
at having conquered the enemy. Neque mihī umquam veniet in mentem poenitēre quod ā mé ipse non dēscīverim, C., Att., ii. 4, 2; it will never occur to me to be sorry for not having been untrue to myself. Laudat Africānum Panaetius quod fuerit abstīnēns, C., Off., ii. 22, 76; Panaetius praises Africānus for having been abstinent. Nēmō est grātōrem quod Latinē loquerētur admirātus, C., Or., iii 14, 52; no one (ever) admired an orator for speaking (good) Latin. Sōcratēs accūsātus est quod corrumpēret inventūtem, Quint., iv. 4, 5; Socrates was accused of corrupting youth. Memīni glōriāri solītum esse Quintum Hortēnsium quod numquam bellō civīli interfīsset, C., Fam., ii. 16, 3; I remember that Quintus Hortēnsius used to boast of never having engaged in civil war. Agunt grātiās quod sībī pepercissent, Caes., B.C., i. 74, 2 (511, R. i).

Remark.—This class of verbs may be construed with the Acc. and Inf.: salvom tē advēnisse gaudeō (533); also with quia, principally in early Latin, and in Cicero’s Letters, then occasionally in Livy, Tacitus, Suetonius, and later. But in Expressions of Praise and Blame, Thanks and Complaint, quod is more common. On cum, see 564, n. 2.

Amō tē et nōn neglēxisse habeō grātiām, Ter., Ph., 54; I love you (= much obliged), and I am thankful to you for not having neglected (it). Grātulār ingeniūm nōn latuisse tuum, Ov., Tr., i. 9, 54; I congratulate (you) that your genius has not lain hidden. [Isocrates] queritur plūs honōris corporum quam animōrum virtūtibus dāri, Quint., iii. 8, 9; Isocrates complains that more honor is paid to the virtues of the body than to those of the mind.

Notes.—1. Perplexing Emotion (Wonder) may be followed by a Conditional, or by a Dependent Interrogative, as in English, but this construction is not found in Vergil, Caesār, Sallust, and is never common.

Mīrō sī [Tarquinius] quemquam amicum habēre potuit, C., Lael., 15, 54; I wonder if Tarquin could ever have had a friend.

Besides mīrō (and mīrum), there is one case of gaudeō sī in Cicero (Verr., iv. 17, 37), and a few cases after expressions of Fear in Tacitus. There are also sporadic cases of indignāri (indignitās) sī.

2. Noteworthy is the phrase mīrum (-a) nī (nisi), ‘is a wonder that—not, which belongs to the colloquialisms of early Latin (Pl., (cap., 820), but reappears once in Livy.

SENTENCES OF DESIGN AND TENDENCY.

543. 1. Sentences of Design are commonly called Final Sentences. Sentences of Tendency are commonly called Consecutive Sentences. Both contemplate the end—the one, as an aim ; the other, as a consequence.

2. They are alike in having the Subjunctive and the particle ut (how, that), a relative conjunction.
3. They differ in the Tenses employed. The Final Sentence, as a rule, takes only the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive. Consecutive Sentences may take also Perfect and Pluperfect.

4. They differ in the kind of Subjunctive employed. The Final Sentence takes the Optative. The Consecutive Sentence takes the Potential. Hence the difference in the Negative.

Final: né (ut nē), 
Consecutive: ut nōn, that not.

nē quis, 
ut nēmō, that no one.
nē ūllus, 
ut nūllus, that no.

nē umquam, (nē quandō,)
ut numquam, that never,
nē úsquam, (nēcubi,)
ut nūsquam, that nowhere.

nē aut—aut, (ut nēve—nēve,) ut neque—neque, that neither—nor.

Remarks.—1. Verbs of Effecting have the Final Sequence.

2. Verbs of Hindering have the sequence of the Final Sentence, but often the signification of the Consecutive.

3. Verbs of Fearing belong to the Final Sentence only so far as they have the Optative Subjunctive: the subordinate clause is only semi-dependent upon the principal, and we have a partial survival of original parataxis.

Notes.—1. Inasmuch as the Subj. cannot express a fact, the Latin Consecutive clause does not properly express actual result, but only a tendency, which may, we infer, lead to a result. To obviate this difficulty, the Latin has recourse to the circumstances with accidit, événit, etc.

2. It is to be remarked that the difference between Final and Consecutive often consists only in the point of view. What is final from the point of view of the doer is consecutive from the point of view of the spectator: hence the variation in sequence and negative after verbs of Effecting. A frustrated purpose gives a negative result; hence the variation in negative after verbs of Hindering.

3. Here and there in Cicero, more often in Livy and later writers, instead of nēve (neu), a second clause is added by neque, the force of the final particle being felt throughout the sentence.

Monitor tuus suădēbit tibi ut hinc discēdās neque mihi verbum ūllum respondeās, C., Div. in Cæc., 16, 52; your adviser will counsel you to depart hence and answer me never a word.

FINAL SENTENCES.

544. Final Sentences are divided into two classes:

1. Final Sentences in which the Design is expressed by the particle; Pure Final Sentences (Sentencees of Design).

Oportet ēsse, ut vivās, nōn vivere ut edās, [C.], ad Her., iv. 23, 39; you must eat in order to live, not live in order to eat.
This form may be translated by, (in order) to; sometimes by that may, that might, that, with the Subjunctive and the like.

II. Final Sentences in which the Design lies in the leading verb (verba studii et voluntatis, verbs of Will and Desire); Complementary Final Sentences.

Volo uti mihi respondeas, C., Vol., 7, 17: I wish you to answer me.

This form is often rendered by to, never by in order to, sometimes by that and the Subjunctive, or some equivalent.

Of the same nature, but partly Final and partly Consecutive in their sequence, are:

Verbs of Hindering.

Peculiar in their sequence are:

III. Verbs of Fearing.

Remarks.—1. The use of the Subjv. with Temporal Particles often adds a final sense, inasmuch as the Subjv. regularly looks forward to the future. So dum, donec, quoad (572), antequam, priusquam (577).

2. The general sense of a Final Sentence may also be expressed:
   (1) By the Relative qui with the Subjunctive. (630.)
   (2) By the Genitive of Gerund or Gerundive, with (seldom without) causā or grātiā. (428, n. 2.)
   (3) By ad with Gerund and Gerundive. (432.)
   (4) By the Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive. (429, 2.)
   (5) By the Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive after verbs of Giving, etc. (430.)
   (6) By the Accusative Supine after verbs of Motion. (435.)
   (7) By the Future Participle Active (post-Ciceronian). (438, n.)
   (8) By the Infinitive (poetic and rare). (421, n. 1, a.)

1. Pure Final Sentences.

545. Pure Final Sentences are introduced by:

1. Ut (ut1) (how) that, and other relative pronouns and adverbs. (630.)

Ut and nē are often preceded by a demonstrative expression, such as: idcirco, therefore; eō, to that end; propterea, on that account; eō consiliō, with that design; eā causā, rē, for that reason.

2. Quō = ut eō, that thereby; with comparatives, that the . . . —:
3. 

Nē, that not, lest, continued by nēve, neu. (444.)

Oportet ēsse, ut vivās, nōn vivere ut edās, [C.], ad Her., IV. 28, 39 (544. 1.). Inventa sunt specula, ut homō ipse sē nōset, Sen., N. Q., i. 17, 4: mirrors were invented, to make man acquainted with himself. Ut amēris, amābilis estō, Ov., A. A., ii. 107; that you may be loved (to make yourself loved, in order to be loved), be lovable. Lēgem brevem esse oportet, quō facilius ab imperitis teneātur, Sen., E. M., 94, 38 (535). | Senex| serit arborēs, quae alterī saeclō prōsint, Caecilius (C., Tusc., i. 14, 31): the old man sets out trees, to do good to the next generation. Semper habē Pyladēn aliquem qui ēuret Orestem, Ov., Rem. Am., 589: always have some Pylades, to lend Orestes. [Athēniēnēs] creant decem praetōrēs qui exer- cituī praesent, Nep., i. 4, 4: the Athenians make ten generals to com- mand their army. [Māgnēsiam Themistocli Artaxerxēs] urbem dōnārat, quae ei pānem praeōrēt, Nep., ii. 10, 3; Artaxerxes had given Themis- tocles the city of Magnesia, to furnish him with bread. Gallinae pennis fovent pullōs, nē frigore laedantur, C.f. C., N. D., ii. 52, 129; hens keep (their) chickens warm with (their) wings, that they may not be (to keep them from being) hurt by the cold. Dionysius, nē collum tōnsōrī com- mitteret, tondēre filiās suās docuit, C., Tusc., v. 20, 58 (423, n. 6).

Remarks.—1. Ut nē is found for nē with apparently no difference in signification, occasionally at all periods, but not in Caesar, Sallust, Livy. Quō without comparative is rare and cited only from Plautus, Terence, Sallust, Ovid, and later Latin: quōnē (= ut nē) is not found till the time of Dictys; apparent examples in classical Latin are to be otherwise explained. Quōminus and quin occur in special uses.

2. Ut nōn is used when a particular word is negated:

Cōnfer tē ad Mallium, ut nōn ēiectus ad aliēnōs sed invitātus ad tuōs isse videāris, C., Cat., i. 9, 23: betake yourself to Mallius, that you may seem to have gone not as an outcast to strangers but as an invited guest to your own (friends).

3. Ut and nē are used parenthetically at all periods, depending on a suppressed word of Saying or the like.

Utque magis stupeās lūdōs Paridemque reliquit, Juv., vi. 87; and to stun you more (I tell you that) she left Paris and the games.

The verb of Saying may be inserted: atque ut omnēs intellegant dicō, C., Imp., 8, 20; and that all may understand, I say.

II. Complementary Final Sentences.

A. Verbs of Will and Desire.

546. Complementary Final Sentences follow verbs of Willing and Wishing, of Warning and Beseeching, of Urg-
ing and Demanding, of Resolving and Endeavoring (verba studii et voluntatis).


Volō uti mihi respondeās, C., Val., 7, 17 (544, II.). (Phaethōn) optāvit ut in currum patris tollerētur, C., Off., III. 25, 94; Phaethon desired to be lifted up into his father's chariot. Admoneō ut cottiديدة medītēre resistendum esse irācundiae, C., Q. F., I. 1. 13, 38: I admonish you to reflect daily that resistance must be made to hot-headedness. Ubii (Caesarem) ōrant, ut sibī parcat, Caes., B. G., VI. 9, 7; the Ubii beg Caesar to spare them. Sed precor ut possim tūtius esse miser, Ov., Tr., v. 2, 78 (423, 2). Exigis ut Priamus nātōrum fūnere lūdat, Ov., Tr., v. 12, 7; you exact that Priam sport at (his) sons' funeral. Atheniēnsēs cum statuerent ut nāvēs cōnscenderent, Cyrsilum quendam suādentem ut in urbe manērent lapidībus obruērunt, C., Off., III. 11, 48; the Athenians, resolving to go on board their ships, overwhelmed with stones (= stoned) one Cyrsilus, who tried to persuade them to remain in the city.

So also any verb or phrase used as a verb of Willing or Demanding.

Pythia respondit ut moenibus ligneis sē mūnirent, Nep., II. 2, 6; the Pythia answered that they must defend themselves with walls of wood.

2. Negative: nē, ut nē; continued by nēve (neu), and not.

Caesar suis imperāvit nē quod omnīnō tēlum in hostēs rēicerent, Caes., B. G., I. 46, 2; Caesar gave orders to his (men) not to throw back any missile at all at the enemy. Themistoclēs [collēgis suis] praedixit ut nē prius Lacedaemoniōrum légātōs dīmitterent quam īpse esset remissus, Nep., II. 7, 3; Themistocles told his colleagues beforehand not to dismiss the Lacedaemonian envoys before he were sent back. Pompeius suis praedīxerat ut Caesaris impetus exciperent nēve sē locō movērent, Caes., B. C., III. 92, 1; Pompey had told his men beforehand to receive Caesar's charge and not to move from their position.

Remarks.—1. When verbs of Willing and Wishing are used as verbs of Saying and Thinking, Knowing and Showing, the Inf. must be used. The English translation is that, and the Indic.: volō, I will have it (maintain), moneō, I remark, persuādeo, I convince, dēcernō, I decide, cōgō, I conclude.

[Moneō] artem sine adsiduitāte dicendī nōn multum iuvarē, Cf. [C.], ad Her., I. 1, 1; I remark that art without constant practice in speaking is of little avail. Vix cuiquam persuādebātur Graecii omni cēssūros (Rōmānōs), L., XXXIII. 32. 3; scarce any one could be persuaded that the Romans would retire from all Greece. Nōn sunt istī audiendi qui virtūtem duāram et quasi ferream esse quandam volunt, C., Lael., 13, 48 (313, r. 2). Est
mōs hominum ut nōlint eundem pluribus rēbus excellere, C., Brut., 21, 84; it is the way of the world not to allow that the same man excels in more things (than one).

2. When the idea of Wishing is emphatic, the simple Subjv., without ut, is employed, and the restriction of sequence to Pr. and Impf. is removed:

Velim existimēs nēminem cuīquam cāriōrem umquam fuisses quam tē mihi, C., Fam., i, 9, 24; I wish you to think that no one was ever dearer to any one than you to me. Mālō tē sapiēns hostis metuat quam stultī civēs laudent, L., xxii, 39, 20; I had rather a wise enemy should fear you than foolish citizens should praise you. Excūsātum habēas mē rogo, cēno domī, Mart., ii, 79, 2 (238). Hūc ades, insānī feriant sine litora fluctūs, V., Ec., 9, 43; come hither (and) let the mad waves dash the shores. Tam fēlix essēs quam fūrōsisima vellem, Ov., Am., i, 8, 27 (302).

Vellem mē ad cēnam invitāssēs, C., Fam., xi, 4, 1 (261, r.). Occidit occīderīque sinās cum nōmine Trōia, V., A., xii, 825; 'tis fallen, and let Troy be fallen, name and all.

So iubeō in poetry and later prose. Compare also potius quam, 577, x, 6.

3. Ut nē is not used after verbs of negative signification, as impedīō, I hinder, recusō, I refuse (548). Otherwise there seems to be no difference in meaning between it and nē, except that sometimes the nē seems to apply more to a single word in the sentence.

4. On nēdum, see 482, 5, r. 2.

Notes.—1. Such verbs and phrases are: Willing and Wishing: volō, nōlō, mālō, optō, studeō. Warning and Beseeching: hortor, adhortor, moneō, admoneō, auctor sum, cōnsilium dō, ὥρ, rogō, petō, precor, pōscō, pūstulō, flāgitō, obscōrō. Urging and Demanding: suādeo, persuādeo, cēnō, imperō, mandō, praecipiō, ędicō, dicō, scribō Resolving and Endeavoring: statuō, cōstituō, dēcernō, nitor, contendō, labōrō, pūgnō, id agō, operam dō, cūrō, videō, prōvideō, prōspiciō, legem ferō, lex est, etc.

2. Substantives of kindred meaning, in combination with the copula or other verbs, take similar constructions. Such are voluntās, cupidītās, spēs, ārdor, auctōritās, cōnsilium (especially in the combination eō, hoc cōnsiliō), signum, praeceptum, exemplum, prōpositum, officium, negotium, mānus, verba, and litterae (with dare, mittere, etc.), sententia, animus (especially eō animō), condiciō (especially eā condiciōne), foedus, iūs, lex (eā lege), cūra, opera, causa, ratiō.

3. Instead of ut with the Subjv., the Inf. is frequently used with this class of verbs. So, generally, with iubeō, lorder, 532. With verbs of Asking, however, the Inf. is not common until Vergil. Ōraē has Inf. once in Plautus, then in Vergil and later poets; in prose first in Tacitus. Rogāre has ut regularly, Inf. only once (Cat., xxxv, 10). Quaesō, implorō, obscōrō, obtēstōr, never have Inf., flāgitare only once (i., S., ii, 4, 61) until Suetonius; pōstulāre very often, especially in early Latin in the sense expect; pōscere not till the Augustan poets. Authors vary. The use of the Inf. is wider in poetry and silver prose.

B. Verbs of Hinderin.

547. The dependencies of verbs of Hinderin may be regarded as partly Final, partly Consecutive. Nē and quōminus are originally final,
but the final sense is often effaced, especially in quōminus. Quīm is a
consecutive particle. The sequence of verbs of Hindering is that of
the Final Sentence.

The negative often disappears in the English translation.

548. Verbs and phrases signifying to Prevent, to Forbid,
to Refuse, and to Beware, may take nē with the Subjunc-
tive, if they are not negatived.

Impedior nē plūra dicam, C., Sull., 33, 92; I am hindered from say-
ing more (I am hindered that I should say no more). "Who did hinder
you that ye should not obey the truth?" Gal., v. 7.

Servitūs mea mihi interdixit nē quid mirer meum malum, Pl., Pers.,
621: my slavery has forbidden me to marvel aught at ill of mine. Hi-
stiaeus nē rēs cōnferētūr obstītīt, Nep., 1 3, 5; Histiaeus opposed the
thing’s being done. (Rēgulus) sententiam nē dīceret recūsāvit, C., Off.,
iii. 27, 100; Regulus refused to pronounce an opinion. Maledictis dētērĕre
nē scribat parat, Ter., Ph., 3 (423, 2). Tantum cum fingēs nē sis mani-
fēsta cavētō, Ov., A.A., iii. 801 (271, 2). Tantum nē noceās dum vis prō-
deser videūtō, Ov., Tr., 1. 1, 101; only see (to it) that you do not do harm
while you wish to do good.

Notes.—1. The most important of these words are: Preventing: impedīre, im-
pedimentō esse, prohibēre, tenēre, retinēre, dētērēre, interclūdere, interpel-
lāre, dēpārcēři, obsīstere, obstāre, intercēdērē, interpōnērē. Forbidding:
interdicēre. Refusing: recūsāre, repūgnāre, resistere, sē tenēre, sē repri-
mere, sībī temperāre, morārī. Beware: cavēre, vidēre, and a few others,
especially the phrase per alīquem stārē (more often with quōminus).

2. Many verbs of Preventing and Refusing also take quōminus (549), and some also
the Infinitive (423, 2, n. 2).

3. Cavēre, to beware, and prae cavēre belong to verbs of Hindering only so far as
action is contemplated. Cavēre, followed by ut, means to be sure to; by nē or ut
nē, to see to it that not; by nē, to take precautions against. When nē is omitted,
cavē, cavētō, with the Subj., form circumlocutions for the negative Imperative
(271, 2). So with vidē ut, nē. Cavēre also has the Inf occasionally as a verb of
negative Will (423, 2, n. 2), beginning with Plautus. In prose it is cited only from
Cato (once), Cicero (Att., iii. 17, 3), Sallust (Aug., 64, 2), and Pliny Maj.

4. Vidē nē (nē nōn), see to it lest, is often used as a polite formula for dubitō an
(457, 2). I am inclined to think. Crēdere omnia vidē nē nōn sit necesse, C., Div.,
n. 13, 31.

549. Verbs of Preventing and Refusing may take quōminus
(= ut eō minus), that thereby the less, with the Subjunctive.

Aētās nōn impedit quōminus agrī colendi studia teneāmus, C., Cat.M.,
17, 60; age does not hinder our retaining interest in agriculture. Nōn
dētērret sapientem mors quōminus rei publicae cōnsulat, C., Tusc., i. 38,
91; death does not deter the sage from consulting the interest of the
State. Quid obstat quōminus (Deus) sit beātus? C., N.D., i. 34, 95; what
is in the way of God's being happy? Caesar cognovit per Afraniium stare quominus proeliō dimicārētur, Caes., B.C., i. 41, 3; Caesar found that it was Afranius's fault that there was no decisive fight (stat, there is a stand-still).

Notes.—1. With impedire and prohibère Caesar never uses quominus; Cicero rarely. But with other words implying Hindrance Cicero uses quominus not unfrequently. With prohibère the regular construction is the Inf., but this is rare with impedire, quominus being the rule. With recūsāre, the Inf. is rare (Caes., B.C., n. 22, 3) but classical, becoming more frequent from Livy on. The passive of déterrēre is also construed with the Inf. occasionally.

2. Plautus does not use quominus, Terence first, but seldom. It is especially common from the time of Cicero. In Terence the elements are sometimes separated (quō minus), thus emphasizing the relative character. But it is not so used in the classical Latin, and in the Silver Age the force of its origin ceases to be felt, so that it is construed like quin. The fact that it is not found in Plautus nor in Vitruvius has led to the suggestion that it is a book-word.

3. The difference in usage between quominus and quin seems to be that while quin is always used with negatives, quominus occurs sometimes with positives, so that according to the connection it is either Final or Consecutive.

4. Quō sētius for quominus is archaic, but occurs twice in Cornificius and twice in Cicero (I.e., n. 45, 132: 57, 170).

III. Verbs of Fearing.

550. 1. Verbs of Fearing, and expressions that involve Fear, take the Present and Perfect, Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.

The Present Subjunctive represents the Present and Future Indicative. The Perfect Subjunctive regularly represents the Perfect Indicative.

Present and Perfect Subjunctive become Imperfect and Pluperfect after a Past Tense.

These constructions are survivals of the original parataxis, when nē and ut were particles of wish. Thus, timeō: nē veniat, I am afraid; may he not come (i.e., I am afraid that he will), becomes, when the two clauses are combined, timeō nē veniat, I am afraid lest (that) he may (will) come. Similarly with ut, which in this usage was originally how. Hence,

2. With verbs of Fearing, nē, lest, shows that the negative is wished and the positive feared: ut (nē nōn) shows that the positive is wished and the negative feared: nē nōn is used regularly after the negative, or an interrogative with negative force.

Vereor nē hostis veniat, I fear lest the enemy come, that he is coming, that he will come. (I wish he may not come.)

Vereor nē hostis venerit, I fear lest the enemy have come, that (it will turn out that) he has come.
Vereor ut amicus veniat, I fear (how my friend can come) lest my friend come not, that he is not coming, will not come. (I wish he may come.)

Vereor ut amicus venerit, I fear lest my friend have not come, that he has not come.

Nōn vereor nē amicus nōn veniat, I do not fear that my friend is not coming, will not come.

Nōn vereor nē amicus nōn venerit, I do not fear that my friend has not come.

Id paves, nē dūcās tū illam, tū autem ut dūcās. Ter., And., 349; that's what you dread, you lest you marry her (nē dūcām!); you, on the other hand, lest you don't (utinam dūcām!)

Vereor nē dum minuere velim laborem augeam, C., Leg., t. 4, 12; I fear lest, while I wish to lessen the toil, I increase it (that I am increasing it). Verēmur nē parum hic liber mellis et absinthii multum habēre videātur, Quint., iii. 1, 5; I am afraid that this book will seem to have too little honey and (too) much wormwood. Timeō nē tibi nihil praeter lacrimās quam reddere, C., Planc., 42, 101; I am afraid that I can give you nothing in return save tears. Aurum inspicere volt nē subruptum siet, Pl., And., 39; he wishes to inspect the gold (for fear) lest it be filched.

Timeō ut sustineās (labōrēs), C., Fam., xiv. 2, 3; I fear that you will not hold out under your toils. Vereor nē dum défendam meōs, nōn parcam tuīs, C., Att., t. 17, 3; I fear lest in defending my own I may not spare thine.

Nōn vereor nē tua virtūs opiniōnī hominum nōn respondēat, Cf. C., Fam., ii. 5, 2: I do not fear that your virtue will not answer to (come up to) public expectation. Metuō nē id consiliī cēperimus quod nōn facile explicāre possimus, C., Fam., xiv. 12; I fear that we have formed a plan that we cannot readily explain. Únum illud extimēscēbam nē quid turpiss facerem, vel dicam, iam effecissem, C., Att., ix. 7, 1; the only thing I feared was, lest I should act disgracefully, or, I should (rather) say, (lest) I had already acted disgracefully.

Notes.—1. Ut seems to be used only after metuō, paveō, timeō, and vereor. Most common is vereor; metuō is common in early Latin, but is cited but rarely later (Horace, Cicero); paveō has to be supplied once with ut in Ter., And., 349. Timeō ut is found first in Cicero, and is very rare.

2. Nē nōn is very rare in early Latin, but becomes more frequent from Cicero on. Ut nē is never found for nē.

3. Two strange cases are cited where, instead of nē, ut seems to be used, viz., Hor., S., i. 3, 120. nam ut ferulā caedās meritum māliōra subīre verbera, nōn vereor, and L., xxviii. 22, 12. nihil minus, quam ut ēgredi obsessū moenibus audērent, timēri poterat. In the first case the ut clause precedes, and the nōn vereor is used by anacoluthon; in the second the ut clause is a circumlocution for an omitted illud, parallel to nihil. This is also helped by the antecedence of the ut clause.

4. When a verb of Fear is a verb of Uncertainty an indirect question may follow: vereor quō modō acceptūri sitis, [C.], ad Ier., iv. 37, 49.
5. (a) With the Inf. verbs of Fear are verbs of (negative) Will: vereor = prae timore nolē.

Vōs Allobroğum tēstīmōnīs nōn crēdere timētis? C., Font., 12. 26: "Are ye afraid to disbelieve the testimony of the Allobroges?" Vereor laudāre prae sentem, C., N.D., t. 21, 58 (423, 2). Nil metuunt iūrāre, Cat., Lxiv. 146: "they have no fear to take an oath.

These constructions are found at all periods; chiefly, however, in the poets and later prose writers. Cicero shows reserve. The usage of the Inf. as an out-and-out verbal subst. in the Acc. is poetical: nec morī per vim (= mortem violentam) metuam, II., 0., III., 14, 15.

(b) With the Acc. and Inf. verbs of Fear are verbs of Thinking or of Perception: vereor = cum timōre putō or videō.

Verebar nōn omnēs causam vincere posse suam [Ov., Iher., 16. 75]. Tēlum-que instāre tremēscit, V., A., xii, 916.

This construction is rare, but occurs at all periods; more often, however, it involves the substantives timor and metus, especially in Livy, who shows seven cases in all.

CONSECUTIVE SENTENCES.

Sentences of Tendency and Result.

551. 1. Consecutive Sentences are those sentences which show the Consequence or Tendency of Actions. In Latin, Result is a mere inference from Tendency, though often an irresistible inference. In other words, the Latin language uses so as throughout, and not so that, although so that is often a convenient translation. The result is only implied, not stated.

2. Consecutive Sentences are divided into two classes:

I. Consecutive Sentences in which the Tendency is expressed by the Particle: Pure Consecutive Sentences.

II. Consecutive Sentences in which the Tendency lies in the leading Verb: (a) after verbs of Effecting; (b) after negatived verbs of Preventing, Doubt, and Uncertainty; (c) after words and phrases requiring expansion.

I. Pure Consecutive Sentences.

552. Pure Consecutive Sentences are introduced by

1. Ut (uti), that, so that, and other relative pronouns and adverbs (631).

2. Ut—nōn, that, so that, as—not, continued by neque, nec (543, 4).

3. Quīn = ut nōn, after a negative sentence (554).

Correlative demonstratives occur very often: ita (sic), tam,
tanthopere, tantō, tantum, adeō, eō, hunc; tālis, tantus, tot, is, eius modi, and others of similar meaning.

In virtūte multi sunt adscensūs, ut is māximē glōriā excellat, quī virtūte plūrimon praestet, C., Planc., 25, 60; in virtue there are many degrees, so that he excels most in glory who is most advanced in virtue. Neque mē vixisse paenitet quoniam ita vixī ut nōn fruṣtrā mē nātum existumem, C., Cat., M., 23, 84 (540). Tanta vīs probitātīs est, ut eam in hoste etiam diligānus, C., Lael., 9, 29; so great is the virtue of uprightness, that we love it even in an enemy. Nōn is es ut tē pudor umquam ā turpitudine revocārit, C., Cat., 1, 9, 22; you are not the man for shame ever to have recalled you (= ever to have been recalled by shame) from baseness. Nēmō adeō ferus est ut nōn mitēscere possit, H., Ep., 1, 1, 39; no one is so savage that he cannot (be made to) soften. Nil tam difficile est quin quaerendō investigāri possit, Ter., Heaut., 675; naught is so hard but it can (= that it cannot) be tracked out by search. Numquam tam male est Sīculis quīn aliquid factē et commodē dicant, C., Verr., iv. 43, 95; the Sicilians are never so badly off as not to (have) something or other clever and pat (to) say.

Remarks.—1. Notice especially the impersonal tantum abest, ausit (rarely aberat)—ut—ut. The phrase originates with an abstract Abl. dependent on a personal absum, which abstract Abl. is afterward expanded into a consecutive clause with ut.

[Āgēsilāus] tantum ausit ab insolentiā glōriāe ut commiseratūs sit fortūnam Graeciae, Nep., xvii. 5, 2; Agesilaus was so far from the insolence of glory that he pitied the (mis)fortune of Greece. Tantum abest ab eō ut malum mors sit ut verear nē homīnī sit nihil bonum alius, C., Tusc., 1, 31, 76; so far is it from death (= so far is death from) being an evil that I fear man has no other blessing. Tantum ausit, ut illōrum praesidiō nostram firmārēmus clāsem, ut etiam ā Rhodiis urbe prohiberentur nostrī militēs, Lentulus [C., Fam., xii. 15, 2]; so far were we from strengthening our fleet by reinforcements from them that our soldiers were actually kept away from the city by the Rhodians. Tantum abest ut nostra mirēmur ut ūisque eō difficīlēs sitūnus ut nōbis nōn satisfaciat ipse Dēmosthenēs, C., Or., 29, 104; so far are we from admiring our own compositions that we are so hard to please that Demosthenes himself fails to satisfy us.

The personal construction is extremely rare.

The second ut may be omitted, and a declarative sentence follow asyndetically: Tantum aberat ut binōs (librōs) scriberent: vix singulōs confecerunt, C., Att., xiii. 21, 5; so far were they from writing two copies of each book, it was with difficulty they finished up one.

2. Dignus, worthy, indignus, unworthy, aptus, idōneus, fit, take a consecutive sentence with quī. Occasionally in early, more often in later
Latin, dignus and indignus take ut. In poetry all these words are taken sometimes with the Infinitive.

Qui modestè paret, videtur qui aliquando imperet dignus esse, C., Leg., iii. 2, 5: he who obeys duly seems to be worthy to command some day.

3. While ita (sic) is usually antecedent to a consecutive ut, it may also be antecedent to a final ut or nè when the design or wish intrudes. Ita mè gessi nè tibi pudóri essen, L., xl. 15, 6: I behaved myself so as not to be a disgrace to you.

So not unfrequently when a restriction or condition is intended:

Ita probanda est mánusétudó ut adhibéatur rei públícae causá severitás, C., Off., i. 25, 88: mildness is to be approved, so that (provided that) strictness be used for the sake of the commonwealth. Ita frui volunt volúptátibus ut núlli propter eas consequantur dolorès, C., Fin., i. 14, 48: they wish to enjoy pleasures without having any pain to ensue on account of them. [Pythagóras et Plató] mortem ita landant ut fugere vitam vetent, C., Scaur., 4. 5: Pythagoras and Plato so praise death, that they (while they praise death) forbid fleeing from life. Ita tū istaec tua miscéto nè mè admisceás, Ter., Heaut., 783: mix up your mixings so you mix me not withal. Tantum à valló [Pompeí] prima aciés aberat, uti nè télò adici possét, Caes., B.C., iii. 55.

Ut alone may also be used thus: Rēx esse nōlim ut esse crudēlis velim, Syr., 577; king I would not be, if I must school myself to cruelty.

4. Ut nōn is often = without, and the English verbal in-ing:

(Octáviánus) numquam fílios suós populó commendávit ut nón adiceret: si merébuntur, Suet., Aug., 56: Octaviánus (Augustus) never recommended his sons to the people in such a way as not to add (= without adding): if they are worthy. Qui nè malum habeat abstinet sē ab injúriā certē mālet existímāri bonus vir ut nón sit quam esse ut nón putētur, C., Fin., ii. 22. 71: he who, to avoid misfortune, abstains from injury, will certainly prefer being thought a good man without being such, to being (a good man) without being believed (to be such).

II. Complementary Consecutive Sentences.

A. Verbs of Effecting.

553. Verbs of Effecting belong partly to the Consecutive, partly to the Final Sentence. The negative is nón or nè; the sequence, final or consecutive.

Such verbs are:

1. Verbs of Causation: facere, efficere, perficere, I make, effect, achieve; assequi, conseguí, I attain, accomplish, and many others (sequence, final).

The following are cited as more or less common in Cícerò: pròficere,
impetrāre, valēre, committere, tenēre, adipisci, praestāre, ferre (in phrases cōnsuetūdō, nātūra, fortūna fert), adferre, adiuvāre, expūgnāre, extorquēre, exprimere, and a few others.

Efficiam ut intellegātīs, C., Client., 3, 7; I will cause you to understand. Sed perfice, ut Crassus haec quae coartāvit nōbis explicet, C., Or., l. 35, 163; but bring it about that Crassus (make Crassus) unfold to us what he has condensed. Nōn committam ut causam aliquam tibi recūsandī dem, C., Or., II. 57, 233; I shall not make the blunder of giving you an excuse for refusing.

Negatives:

Rērum obscurītās nōn verbōrum facit ut nōn intellegātur ērātīō, C., Fin., II. 5, 15; it is the obscurity of the subject, not of the words, that causes the language not to be understood. Potestis efficere ut male moriar, ut nōn moriar nōn potestis, Plin., Ep., III. 16, 11; you may make me die a hard death, keep me from dying you cannot. Efficiam posthāc nē quemquam vōce lacessās, V., Er., 3, 31; I will bring it about that you challenge no one hereafter in song.

Facere ut is often little more than a periphrasis; especially in the forms fac ut and faxō, faxit (both peculiar to Comedy).

Fortūna vestra facit ut irae meae temperem, L., XXXVI. 35, 3; your fortune causes that I (makes me) restrain my anger (put metes to my anger). Invitus (325, r. 6) faciō ut recorder ruinās rei publicae, C., Vat., 9, 21; (it is) against my will that I (am doing so as to) recall the ruined condition of the commonwealth.

2. Verbs of Compelling and Permitting (sequence, final):

Cōgere. adigere, impellere, dūcere, with its compounds, movēre, com-movere, to which must be added exōrāre, to force by pleading. Permit-tere, sinere, concēdere, dare, (nōn) pati, and less often largīri, tribuere, ferre.

Tenēmus memorīā Catulum esse coactum ut vitā sē ipse privāret, C., Or., III. 3, 9; we remember that Catulus was forced to walk his own life. Illud nātūra nōn patitur, ut aliōrum spoliis nostrōs cōpiās augeāmus, C., Off., III. 5, 22; nature does not allow us to increase our wealth by the spoils of others. Collēgam perpulerat nē contrā rem publicam sentīret, S., C., 26, 4; he had prevailed upon his colleague, not to take sides against the commonwealth.

Note.—Cōgere has usually the Inf. (423, 2, n. 2), also sinere (423, n. 6) pati. On permittere, see 532, n. 1. Cōgere in the sense conclude is a verb of Saying (546, n. 1). Facere and efficere, in the sense cause, are very rarely used with the Infinitive. Compare C., Br., 38, 142. Actīō tāles orātōres vidēri facit, quāles ipsī sē vidēri volunt. This becomes more common in very late Latin.

3. Passive verbs of Causation, and their equivalents,
namely, many Impersonal Verbs of Happening and Following, of Accident and Consequent (sequence, consecutive).

Such verbs are cœncí, effici, fit, accidit, contingit, obtingit, évenit, it happens, isù venit, it occurs, sequitur, it follows, and many others. So also est, it is the case. For the sequence, see also 513, r. 2.

Ex quō efficiitur, nōn ut volúptás nē (the design of the arguer) sit volúptás, sed ut volúptás nōn (the result of the argument) sit summum bonum, C., Fin., ii. 8, 24: from which it results, not that pleasure is not pleasure, but that pleasure is not the supreme good. Potest fieri ut fallar, C., Fam., xiii. 73, 2; (it) may be (that) I am mistaken. Potest fieri ut is unde tē audisse dices irátus dixerit, C., Or., ii. 70, 285; (it) may be (that) he from whom you say you heard (it) said it in anger. Persaepe évenit ut útilitás cum honestáte certet, C., Port. Or., 25, 89; it very often (so) happens that profit is at variance with honor.

Note.—Noteworthy is the early Latin use of (fierí) potis ut nē, as in fierī potis est ut nē quā exeat, Ter., Ad., 626.

4. Very many impersonal verbs and combinations of neuter adjectives with est, after the analogy of the impersonals just mentioned (sequence, consecutive).

Such are: additur, accédit, it is added; restat, reliquom est, it remains; appāret, it is plain. Enumerations, as, próximum, tertium, extrēmum est; inúsitātum, rārum est, it rarely happens that; novom, singulāre, mirum, inaudītum, vērum, falsum, (nōn) vérīsimile, cōnsequēns, etc. Also rarely, interest, necesse est, necessārium est, and the like.

Ad Appi Claudi senectūtem accédēbat etiam ut caecus esset, C., Cat. M., 6, 16; to the old age of Appius Claudius was further added his being blind. Èi ne intégrum quidem erat ut ad iūstitiam remigrāret, C., Tuscr., v. 21, 62: for him it was not even an open question to go back to justice. Rārum (= rārō accidit) ut sit iðoneus suae rei quisque défensor, Quint., iv. 1, 46; it is rare for a man to be a good defender of his own case.

Remarks.—1. Necesse est, it is necessary, generally, and oportet, it behooves, always omit ut:

[Leuctrica pūgna] immortālis sit necesse est, Nep., xv. 10, 2: the battle of Leuctra must needs be immortal. Sed nōn effugiēs; mēcum moriāris oportet, Prop., ii. 8, 25: but you shall not escape; you must die with me.

2. The neuter adjectives are rarely used with ut until the post-classical period and are far more commonly construed with the Infinitive.

3. Very common is the periphrasis fore (futūrum) ut, which gives the common form of the Fut. Infinitive. See 248.
CONSECUTIVE SENTENCES.

B. Verbs of Hindering.

554. Quin is used like quōminus, with Verbs of Preventing, Refusing, etc., but only when they are negated or questioned.

Notes.—1. Quin is compounded of qui—an interrogative-relative Ablative or Locative—and nē (nōn). Its first use is interrogative: “why not?” in an indignant question; almost equivalent to an indignant Imperative, with which, through the falling out of its composition, it is occasionally connected, especially in early and later Latin, rarely in Cicero (239).

2. An indignant question (How not? Why not?) objects to opposition, and is therefore naturally construed with the negative of a verb of Hindering. Hence quin, as an interrogative (How not?), takes the sequence of the Interrogative Sentence. But this shows itself only after words of doubt; after verbs of Preventing the sequence coincides with that of the Final Sentence, and after other negative sentences the sequence coincides with that of the Consecutive Sentence.

3. By its combination with verbs of Preventing, quin came to be felt as a consecutive particle = ut nōn, and was then used in other consecutive connections for ut nōn.

555. Quin is used when Verbs and Phrases of Preventing, Omitting, Refraining, Refusing, and Delaying, Doubt, and Uncertainty, are negated or questioned.

1. Verbs of Preventing and the like (sequence of the Final Sentence).

Vix nunc obsistitur illis quin lanient mundum, Ov., M., i. 58; they are now hardly to be kept (that they should not rend) from rending the universe. Antiochus nōn sē tenuit quin contra suum doctōrem librum ēderet, C., Ac., ii. 4, 12; Antiochus did not refrain from publishing a book against his teacher. Vix reprimor quin tē manēre iubeam, Pl., M.G., 1368; I am scarcely kept back (keep myself back) from bidding you remain. Neque mē Iūppiter [prohibēbit] quin sic faciam uti consitui, Pl., A.n., 1051; nor will Jupiter prevent me from doing just as I determined to do.

Remark.—The list of verbs is given in 548, n. 1.

2. Verbs of Doubt and Uncertainty (sequence of the Interrogative Sentence).

Nōn dubium est quin uxōrem nōlit filius, Ter., And., 172; there is no doubt that (my) son does not want a wife. Quis dubitet (= nēmō dubitet) quin in virtūte divitiae sint? C., Parad., vi. 2, 48 (259). Nōn dubitārī debet quin fuerint ante Hōmērum poētae, C., Br., 18, 71: it is not to be doubted that there were poets before Homer. Nunc mihi nōn est dubium quin ventūrae nōn sint (legiōnēs), C., Fam., ii. 17, 5 (515).
Occasionally verbs of Saying and Thinking are found with the same construction, because they are near equivalents.

Negāri nōn potest quīn rēctius sit etiam ad pācātōs barbarōs exercitum mitti, Cf. L., xl. 36, 2; it cannot be denied (doubted) that it is better for an army to be sent to the barbarians even though they be quiet. Nōn abest yūspiciō (Lītōtēs [700] for dubitāri nōn potest) quīn (Orgetorix) ipse sībī mortem cōnsciēnt, CAES., B. G., i. 4, 4: there is no lack of ground to suspect (= there is no doubt that) Orgetorix killed himself.

REMARKS.—1. The principal gain of the interrogative sequence is that the Periphrastic Fut. may be employed (of which, however, the first example is cited from Cicero), but according to 515, r. 3, nōn dubitō quīn may have the simple Subjv. instead of the Periphrastic:

Nōn dubitāre quīn dē omnibus obsidibus supplicium sūmat (Ariovistus), CAES., B. G., i. 31, 15: “he did not doubt that Ariovistus would put all the hostages to death.” Compare Cat., cviii. 3.

So when there is an original Subjv. notion:

Nōn dubitō quīn ad tē statim vēniām, C. Alt., viii. ii b, 3: I do not doubt that I ought to come to you forthwith. (Vēniām? Shall I come?)

2. Of course dubitō and nōn dubitō may have the ordinary interrogative constructions (467). On dubitō an, see 457, 2.

3. Nōn dubitō, with the Inf., usually means I do not hesitate to:

Nōn dubitem dicere omnēs sapientēs semper esse beātōs, C. Fin., v. 32, 95; I should not hesitate to say that all wise men are always happy.

Et dubitāmus adhūc virtūtem extendere factis? V. A., vi. 806; and do we still hesitate to spread our (fame for) valor by our deeds? Compare vereor, timeō, I fear, hesitate to (550, 2. x. 5).

So occasionally nōn dubitō quīn. See r. 1.

(Rōmāni) arbitrābantur nōn dubitātūrum fortēm virum quīn cēderet ae-quō animō lēgibus, C., Mit., 23, 63; the Romans thought that a brave man would not hesitate to yield with equanimity to the laws.

NOTE.—Nōn dubitō with the Inf. for nōn dubitō quīn occurs chiefly in Nepos, Livy, and later writers.

Sunt multī quī quae turpia esse dubitāre nōn possunt utilitātīs speciē ducti probent, QUINT., iii. 8, 3; there are many who, led on by the appearance of profit, approve what they cannot doubt to be base.

556. Quīn, equivalent to ut nōn, may be used after any negative sentence (sequence of the Consecutive Sentence). Here it may often be translated “without.”

Nil tam difficile est quīn quae retardō invēstigāri possiēt, TER., Icunt., 675 (552). Nūllum adhūc intermīsi diēm quīn aliquid ad tē litterārum dārem, C., Alt., vii. 15, 1: I have thus far not allowed a day to pass but I dropped you (without dropping you) something of a letter (a line or two).
Note the combination (facere) non possum quin, I cannot but, and similar combinations; non possum non with Inf. is also classical.

Facere non possum quin cottidie ad te mittam (literas), C., Att., xii. 27, 2; I cannot do without (I cannot help) sending a letter to you daily. Non possum quin exclamem, Pl., Trin., 705; I cannot but (I must) cry out. (Nullo modo facere possum ut non sim popularis, C., Agr., ii. 3. 7 (reading doubtful); I cannot help being a man of the people.)

Nihil abest quin sim miserrimus, C., Att., xi. 15, 3; there is nothing wanting that I should be (= to make me) perfectly miserable. Fieri nullo modo poterat quin Cleomeni parceretur, C., Verr., v. 40, 104; it could in no wise happen but that Cleomenes should be spared (= Cleomenes had to be spared). Paulum auit quin (Fabius) Varrum interficeret, Caes., B.C., ii. 35, 2; there was little lacking but Fabius (had) killed Varus (= Fabius came near killing Varus).

Explanatory Ut.

557. A Consecutive Sentence with ut is often used to give the contents or character of a preceding substantive, adjective, or pronoun.

Est mōs hominum ut nōlint eundem plūribus rēbus excellere, C., Br., 21. 84 (546, r. 1). An quoquamst usus homini sē ut cruciet? Ter., Heaut., 81 (406, x. 5). Est miserorōrum ut malevolentōs sint atque invidiant bonōs, Pl., Capt., 583; the wretched have a way of being ill-natured and envying the well-to-do. Nec meum ad tē ut mittam grātiis, Pl., Asin., 190; nor is it my style to let her go to you as a gracious gift. Id est proprium cīvitātis ut sit libera, C., Off., ii. 22, 78; it is the peculiar privilege of a state, to be free. Illud ipsum habet consul ut eō reliquī magistrātūs pārent, C., Leg., iii. 7, 16; the consul has this very prerogative, that the other magistrates be obedient unto him. Tōtum in eō est, ut tibī imperes, C., Tusc., ii. 22, 53; all depends upon this (one thing), your self-command.

Remark.—These are principally mōs, cōnsūtūdō, habit, wont; opus, usus, need; many substantives of opinion and perception, as opinīō, sententia, cōgitātiō, mēns, sapientia, scientia, cōgnitio; nātūra, genus, status, and others, usually with a demonstrative attached; adjectives indicating possession: mēum, tuōm, suom (all mainly ante-class.), proprium, commune, praecipuum (Livv.), and predicate Genitives with esse: id, hoc, illud, etc. These should be distinguished from final usages.

Notes.—1. Tendency and Character lend themselves readily to circumlocution, and ut with Subj. becomes a manner of equivalent to the Inf., which, however, is by far the more common construction.

2. To the same principle is to be referred the use of ut after māior (magis) quam, non aliter quam (without), first in Livv.; after nisi (391, b, r. 3). See 298. Praeceptum mālus erat quam ut ab homine vidērētur, C., Fin., v. 16, 44 (503).
Exclamatory Questions.

558. Ut with the Subjunctive is used in Exclamatory Questions, usually with the insertion of -ne.

Egone ut tē interpellem? C., Tusc., ii. 18, 42; I interrupt you? Tū ut unquam tē corrīgās? C., Cat., i. 9, 22; you—ever reform yourself?

Di māgni, ut qui eīvem Rōmānum occidisset, impūnitātem acciperet, Sen., Ben., v. 16, 3; Great Gods! that one who had slain a Roman citizen, should escape unpunished!

Note.—The expression is closely parallel with the Acc. and Infinitive. The one objects to the idea; the other, to any state of things that could produce the result. In neither case is there any definite or conscious ellipsis. Compare Ter., Iev., 589, with 613.

TEMPORAL SENTENCES.

559. The action of the Temporal or Dependent clause may stand to the action of the Principal clause in one of three relations:

I. It may be antecedent.

Conjunctions: Postquam (Postēa quam, not ante-class.), after that, after; ut, as; ubi, when (literally, where); simulāc, as soon as; ut prīmum, cum prīmum, the first moment that.

II. It may be contemporaneous.

Conjunctions: Dum, dōnec, while, until; quoad, up to (the time) that; quamdiū, as long as; cum, when.

III. It may be subsequent.

Conjunctions: Antequam, priusquam, before that, before.

A special chapter is required by

IV. Cum (quom), when.

MOODS IN TEMPORAL SENTENCES.

560. 1. The mood of Temporal clauses is regularly the Indicative.

2. The Subjunctive is used only:

(1) In Ērātiō Obliqua (508). Total or Partial. So also in the Ideal Second Person.

(2) When the idea of Design or Condition is introduced.
I. ANTECEDENT ACTION.

561. In historical narrative. Temporal Clauses with postquam (posteāquam), ubi, ut, simulāc, ut primum, and cum primum commonly take the Historical Perfect or the Historical Present Indicative.

The English translation is not unfrequently the Pluperfect.

Postquam Caesar pervēnit, obsidēs popōscit, Caes., B.G., i. 27, 3 : after Caesar arrived, he demanded hostages. Quae ubi nūntiantur Rōmam, senātus extemplō dictātorem dīci iūssit, L., iv. 56, 8 : when these tidings were carried to Rome, the senate forthwith ordered a dictator to be appointed. Pompeius ut equitātum suum pulsum vīdit, acī excessest, Caes., B.C., iii. 94, 5 : as Pompey saw his cavalry beaten, he left the line of battle. (Pelopidas) nōn dubitāvit, simul ac cōnspexit hostem, cōnfigere (555, 2, r. 3), Nep., xvi. 5, 3 ; as soon as he (had) caught sight of the enemy, Pelopidas did not hesitate to engage (hīm).

Subjunctive in Ērātiō Obliqua.

Ariovistum, ut semel Gallōrum cōpiās vicerit (Ō. R. vicit), superbē imperāre, Caes., B.G., i. 31, 12 ; "that Ariovistus, as soon as he had once beaten the forces of the Gauls, exercised his rule arrogantly."

562. The Imperfect is used to express an action continued into the time of the principal clause (overlapping).

The translation often indicates the spectator (333, n. 1).

Tū postquam qui tībī erant amīcī nōn poterant vincere, ut amīcī tībī essent qui vincēbant efficēsti, C., Quinct., 22, 70 ; after (you saw) that those who were friendly to you could not be victorious you managed that those should be friendly to you who were going to be victorious. Ubi nēmō obvius ibat, ad castra hostium tendunt, L., ix 45, 14 ; when (they saw that) no one was coming to meet them, they proceeded to the camp of the enemy.

Subjunctive in Ērātiō Obliqua.

Scripsisti (eum) posteāquam nōn audebat (Ō. R. nōn audēbat) reprehendere, laudāre coepisse, C., Att., 1, 13, 4 ; you wrote that, after he could not get up the courage to blame, he began to praise.

563. 1. The Pluperfect is used to express an action completed before the time of the principal clause ; often of the Resulting Condition.

Albinus postquam dēcrēverat nōn ēgredi prōvinciā, militēs statīvīs castrīs habēbat, S., Lug., 44, 4 ; after Albinus had fully determined not to depart
from the province, he kept his soldiers in cantonments. Posteaquam multitūdinem collēgerat emblēmatum, instituit officinam, C., Verr., iv. 24, 51; after he had got together a great number of figures, he set up shop.

2. The Pluperfect is used with postquam when a definite interval is mentioned. Rarely also the Historical Perfect (Aorist).

Post and quam are often separated. With an Ablative of Measure, post may be omitted; with a relative both post (ante) and quam (403, x.4,d).

(Aristidēs) dēcēssit ferē post annum quàrtum quam Themistoclēs Athēnīs erat expulsus, Nēp., iii. 3, 3; Aristides died about four years after Themistocles had been (was) banished from Athens. Post diem tertium gesta rēs est quam dixerat, C., Mil., 16, 44; the matter was accomplished three days after he had said it would be. [Hamilcar] nōnō annō postquam in Hispāniam vēnerat occasus est, Nēp., xxii. 4, 2; Hamilcar was killed nine years after he came to Spain. (Aristidēs) sextō ferē annō quam erat expulsus in patriam restitūtus est, Nēp., iii. 1, 5; Aristides was restored to his country about six years after he was exiled. Trīduō ferē postquam Hannibal ā ripā Rhodanī movit, ad castra hostium vēnerat, L., xxii. 32, 1; (within) about three days after Hannibal moved from the banks of the Rhone he had come to the camp of the enemy.

Subjunctive in Īrātiō Obliqua.

Scriptum ā Posidōniō est trīgintā annis vīxisse Panaetium posteaquam librēs [dē officiis] edīdisset, C., Off., iii. 2, 8; it is recorded by Posidōnius that Panaetius lived thirty years after he put forth his books on Duties.

The attraction is sometimes neglected.

Notes.—1. The most common of these conjunctions is postquam, but the others also occur at all periods. Simul (atque) is rare in early Latin. In the following notes the usage in Iterative action is excluded.

2. The Impf. with postquam is cited but once from early Latin (Pl., Most., 640), it becomes more common in Cicero, but is distinctive of Livy, who shows nearly one hundred examples. The Impf. with ubi is cited once in early Latin (Ter., Enam., 405), where, however, it is Iterative, not at all from Cicero, once from Caesar, after which it is found more frequently, but never becomes common. The Impf. with ut is found first in Cicero, never in Caesar, Sallust, Vergil, but not uncommonly in Livy; only once in Tacitus (H., iii. 30), where it is Iterative. The Impf. with simul (atque) is not cited from Cicero and Caesar, but appears once in Sallust, where it is Iterative; it is very rare.

3. The Plupf. with postquam is not cited from Plautus or Horace, and but once from Terence (And. 177); Cicero uses it but rarely, Caesar but once (B. C., iii. 58, 5); Livy uses it often, and Tacitus is fond of it. The Plupf. with ubi is found once in Plautus, twice each in Cicero and Caesar, and then more frequently. The Plupf. with ut (primum) is found first in Cicero, perhaps but once in Caesar (B. C., iii. 63, 6), more often later. The Plupf. with simul (atque) is cited once from Cicero, not at all from Caesar, and rarely later.

4. Some dozen cases are cited, principally from Cicero, of the Subjv. with post-
564. Postquam and the like, with the Present and Perfect Indicative, assume a causative signification (compare quoniam, now that = since).

[Cūria] minor mīhi vidētur posteāquam est māior, C., Fin., v. 1, 2; the senate-house seems to me smaller now that it is (really) greater. Tremō horreōque postquam aspexī hanc, Ter., Eun., 84; I quivered and shiver since I have seen her.

Notes.—1. The use of temporal conjunctions, especially postquam in the Present Sphere, is much more common in early Latin than later. Ubi and ut occur at all periods, but rarely; ubi has almost the same force as si; ut means ex quō, since. Simul is rare, and found first in Lucretius.

2. Cum also, has sometimes the causal signification.

Grātulor tībī cum tantum vales, C., Fam., ix. 14, 3; I wish you joy now that you have so much influence.

565. Ubi and simul are occasionally found with the Future and Future Perfect; not so postquam and ut.

Ubi mē aspiciet ad carnuficem rapiet continuō, Pl., B., 689; as soon as he shall catch (catches) sight of me he will hurry me at once to the hangman. Id tibi quidem hercle fiet, Dēmaenetum simulāc conspexerō, Pl., Asin., 477; that indeed shall certainly be your fate, as soon as I shall have espied Dēmaenetus.

Note.—When thus used ubi and simul approach almost the meaning of cum (580). So also quandō; see 580, x. 3. These uses should be distinguished from those of Iterative Action.

Iterative Action.

566. Rule I.—When two actions are repeated contemporaneously, both are put in tenses of continuance.

Humilēs labōrant ubi potēntēs dissident, Phaed., i. 30, 1; the lowly suffer when the powerful disagree. Populus mē sibilat; at mīhi plaudō ipse domi simul āc nummōs temptōr in arcā, H., S., i. 1, 66; the people kiss me; but I clap myself at home as soon as I goat o'er my cash in the strong box. Ubi frumentō opus erat, cohortēs praesidium agitābant, S., Ing., 55, 4; when there was need of corn, the cohorts would serve as an escort.
The Subjunctive with the Ideal Second Person.

Bonus sēgnior fit ubi neglegēs, S., Ing., 31, 28; a good man becomes more spiritless when you neglect him.

567. Rule II.—When one action is repeated before another, the antecedent action is put in the Perfect, Pluperfect, or Future Perfect; the subsequent action in the Present, Imperfect, or Future, according to the relation.

As this use runs through all sentences involving antecedent action, all the classes are represented in the following examples.

Observe the greater exactness of the Latin expression. Compare 244, r. 2.

Quotiēns cecidit, surgit, As often as he falls, he rises.
Quotiēns ceciderat, surgēbat, As often as he fell, he rose.
Quotiēns ceciderit, surget, As often as he falls, he will rise.

Simul inflāvit tibicen a perítō carmen āgnōcitur, C., Ac., 11, 27, 86; as soon as the fluter blows, the song is recognized by the connoisseur. [Alcibiādēs] simul āc sé remiserat, lúxuriosus reperiēbatur, Nep., vii. 1, 4; as soon as Alcibiades relaxed, he was found a debauchee. Dociliōra sunt ingenia prīsquam obdūrūrēnt, Quint., 1, 12, 9; minds are more teachable before they (have) become hardened. [Ager] cum multōs annōs quiēvit, übereōres efferre frāgēs solet, C., Br., 4, 16; when a field has rested (rests) many years, it usually produces a more abundant crop. Cum pālam ēūs ānuli ad palmam converterserat (Gyges) ā nūllō videbātur, C., Off., iii. 9, 38; when(over) Gyges turned the bezel of the ring toward the palm (of his hand), he was to be seen by no one. Si pēs condoluit, si dēns, ferre nōn possumus, C., Tusc., 11, 22, 52; if a foot, if a tooth ache(s), we cannot endure it. Stomachābātur senex, si quid asperius dixeram, C., N. D., 1, 33, 93; the old man used to be fretted, if I said anything (that was) rather harsh. Quōs laborantēs cōnspexerat, hīs subsidia submittēbat, Cæs., B. G., iv. 26, 4; to those whom he saw (had espied) hard pressed he would send reinforcements. Haerēbant in memorīā quaecunque audierat et viderat (Themistocλēs), C., Ac., 11, 1, 2; whatever Themistocles had heard and seen (= heard and saw) remained fixed in his memory. Qui timēre dési-erint, ōdisse incipient, Tac., Agr., 32; those who cease to fear will begin to hate.

The Subjunctive with the Ideal Second Person.

Ubi cōnsulueris, mātūrē factō opus est, S., C., 1, 6; when you have deliberated, you want speedy action.

The Subjunctive in Ōrātiō Obliqua.

[Catō] mirāri sē aiebat quod nōn ridēret āruspex āruspicem cum vidis-
set, C., Div., ii. 24, 51; Cato said that he wondered that an haruspex did not laugh when he saw (another) haruspex. (Non ridet cum vidit.)

The Subjunctive by Attraction.

[Araeolae] refert texunt ut si quid inhaeseritكونeiي, C., N. D., ii. 48, 123; spiders weave webs to despatch anything that gets caught (si quid inhaesit, كونeiي). Quærē fiēbat, ut omnium oculōs, quotiescumque in publicum prōdisset, ad sé converteret, f. e. p. vii. 3; whereby it happened that he attracted the eyes of all every time he went out in public (quotiescumque prōderat, convertebat).

Note.—The Subjunctive in Iterative Tenses may be accounted for on the principle that a repeated action which is retrospective from the point of view of the narrator, and so naturally takes the Indicative, becomes prospective from the point of view of the agent, and so takes the Subjunctive. But, however the construction is justified, the fact remains that the Subjunctive in Iterative Sentences is a growth in Latin. With the principal tenses it is confined mostly to the Ideal Second Person. Indefinite quis is very near to this. So Cicerō, Rab. Post., 13, 36: ubi semel quis pēierāverit—opportet. With Impf. and Plupf. the first examples (excluding cum) are in Catullus (lxxxiv. 1), and Caesar (e. g. B. C., ii. 15, 3). Then it spreads, probably under Greek influence, and is very common in the historians, especially Livy and Tacitus. Ubi and ut are the particles employed; also very often si and relatives, in general quicunque, quōtiēns, etc. With cum, Iterative Subjunctives are found to a limited extent also in Cicerō and Caesār; but all cases of principal tenses in third person have been emended, and those with historical tenses are not common, and sometimes doubtful.

Cum ferrum sē inflexisset, neque ēvellere neque pūgnāre poterant (= vidē-bant sē non posse), Caes., B. G., i. 25, 3; when the iron had bent, they found that they could neither pull it out nor fight. Incurrere ea ēgens in Macedonian solita erat (as if constituerat) ubi rēgum occupātum externō bellō sēnisset, L., xxvi. 25, 7; that tribe was wont to make a raid on Macedoniam whenever they perceived the king engrossed in foreign war. Quī unum ēius rōrdinis offensissēd omne ad-versōs habēbat (as if certō sciēbat sē habitārum), L., xxxi. 46, 1; who so had offended one of that order was sure to have all against him. Modum adhibēndō ubi rēs pōseret, prōris erant, L., iii. 19, 3; by the use of moderation, when the case demanded it, they were his superiors.

II. CONTEMPORANEOUS ACTION.

568. Conjunctions used of Contemporaneous Action are:

Dum, dōnec, while, so long as, until; quoad, up to (the time) that; quamdiū, as long as; cum, when.

An action may be contemporaneous in Extent—so long as, while.

An action may be contemporaneous in Limit—until.

Remark.—Dum, (while) yet, denotes duration, which may be co-extensive, so long as, or not. It is often causal. Dōnec (old form dōni-cum, used only in the sense until), is parallel with dum in the sense so long as, until. Cicerō uses it only as until.

(So long as, while.)

569. Complete Coextension.—**Dum, dōnec, quoad, quamdiū, so long as, while**, take the Indicative of all the tenses.

**Vita dum superest, bene est, Maecenas** (Sen., E.M., 101, 11); *while* (so long as) *life remains*,' *is well.* **Sibi vérō hanc laudem relinquunt, “Vixit, dum vixit, bene,”** Ter., Hec., 461: they leave indeed this praise for themselves, “He lived well while he lived” (all the time). **Tiberius Gracchus tam diū laudābitur dum memoria rerum Rōmānārum manēbit, C., Off., II. 12, 43;** Tiberius Gracchus shall be praised so long as the memory of Roman history remains (shall remain). **Fuit haec gēns fortis dum Lycūrgī légēs vigēbant, C., Tusc., 1. 42, 101;** this nation was brave so long as the laws of Lycurgus were in force. **Dōnec grātus eram tibi, Persārum vigīri régé beātior, II., O., III. 9, 1;** while I was pleasing in your sight, I throve more blessed than Persia’s king. **Quoad potuit, restitit, Caes., B.G., IV. 12, 5;** as long as he could, he withstood.

Sub junctive in Órātiō Obliqua.

**(Rēgulus dixit) quam diū ïure īūrandō hostium tenēretur nōn esse sē senātōrem, C., Off., III. 27, 100;** [Regulus said] *that as long as he was bound by his oath to the enemy he was not a senator.* *(Quamdiū teneor nōn sum senātor.)*

Sub junctive by Attraction.

**Faciam ut méi memineris dūm vitam vivās, Pl., Pers., 494 (333, 2).**

**Notes.—1. Dum.—**In the Past Sphere we have the Pf. (Aor.), Hist. Pr., and Imperfect. Of these the Hist. Pr. is found first in Sallust (*C., 36, 1), and the Impf., while occurring at all periods, is rare. The Pf. is not in Caesar. **Dum** in the Present Sphere is rare; the Pure Pr. has been observed in Pl., B., 737: *mane dum scribit*, which looks much like parataxis, and occasionally in Cicero and later; the Pure Pr. is cited only from Terence (*And., 556, 507), and is only apparent. Several examples of the Future Sphere are cited, Pl., B., 225, *nōn metuō mihi dum hoc valēbit pectus*; *Ter., Heaut., 107; C., Rœsc. Am., 32, 991; V., I., 1, 607, etc.

**Dōnec** is not found in the sense “so long as,” until Lucr., v. 178; then H., O., i. 9, 16; III. 9, 1. **Also Ov., Tr., i. 9, 5.** Livy uses it occasionally, but Tacitus affects it, and employs Hist. Pf., Impf., and Fut. tenses.

**Quoad** (correlative with adeō) belongs especially to the classical poets, but is also found in prose. Compare C., *Ph., III. 11, 38, etc.* It is usually found in the Past Sphere; in the Present the adverbial force, “so far as,” seems to preponderate; Pl., *Asin., 256: quoad virēs valent.* The Future tenses are more common.

**Quamdiū** (correlative with tamdiū) is found with this usage first in Cicero.

2. When the actions are coextensive, the tenses are generally the same in both members, but not always.

570. Partial Coextension.—**Dum, while, while yet, dur-**
ing, commonly takes the Present Indicative after all Tenses: so especially in narrative.

Cape hunc equum, dum tibi virium aliquid superest, L., xxii. 49. 7; 
take this horse, while you have yet some strength left. Dum haec Rōmæ
aguntur, cōnsulēs ambō in Liguribus gērēbant bellum, L., xxxix. 1, 1; 
while these things were going on at Rome, both consuls were carrying
on war in Liguria. Praetermissa ēius rei occāsiō est, dum in castellis reći-
piendīs tempus teritur, L., xxxiii. 18, 20; the opportunity was allowed
to slip by, while time was wasted in recovering miserable forts.

Dum in this sense often resists the change into Subj. in O. O., especially in
post-classical Latin. (655, n. 3.)

Notes.—1. Quamdīū and quoad are, by their composition, incapable of being
used in this sense, and as dōnec was avoided, dum is the only temporal conjunction
of limit that is loose enough in its formation to serve for partial coextension. The
Pr. after it, formally an Hist. Pr., always connotes continuance, and the construction
becomes practically a periphrasis for a missing Pr. participle.

2. The Pure Pr. of the Present Sphere is found occasionally, principally in early
Latin. In this sense the relation is often causal, and the construction is parallel with
the Pr. participle, the lack of which in the passive it supplies.

Ardua dum metuunt (= metuentēs) ēmittunt vēra viāī, Lūcr., l. 660 (372, n. 2).
The causal relation is also often present with the other tenses.

3. Other tenses are extremely rare, as the Future; Pl., Mem., 214, dum coquētur,
interim pōtābimus; the Impf., Nep., xxiii. 2, 4, quae divīna rēs dum cōnficē-
bātur, quaeāvīt a mē.

4. Livy, xxxiil. 24, 5, shows one case of the Plupf. as a shorthand to express the
maintenance of the result. dum āverterat = dum āversōs tēnēbat.

2. Contemporaneous in Limit.

(Until.)

571. Dum, dōnec, quoad, up to (the time) that, until, have
the Present, Historical Present, Historical Perfect, and
Future Perfect Indicative.

Tityre, dum redeō, brevis est via, pāsce capellās, V., Er., 9, 23; Tity-
rus, while I am returning (= till I return)—the way is short—feed my
kids. Epamīnōndās ferrum in corpore āisque ēō retinuit, quoad renūntiātum
est vicīsse Boeōtiōs, Cf. Nep., xv. 9, 3; Epamīnondas retained the iron
in his body, until word was brought back that the Boeotians had con-
quered. Dōnec rediit Mārcellus, silentium fuit, L., xxiii. 31, 9; until
Mārcellus returned, there was silence. Haud dēsinam dōnec perfēcerō hōc,
Ter., Ph., 420; I will not cease until I have (shall have) accomplished
it. Exspectābō dum venit, Ter., Eun., 206; I will wait until he comes.

Subjunctive in Œrātiō Obliqua.

Scipīōnī Silānōque dōnec revocāti ab senātū forent prōrogātum imperiūm
est, L., xxvii. 7, 17: Scipio and Silanus had their command extended until "they should have been recalled by the senate."

Notes.—1. With the Past Sphere the idea of limit precludes the employment of a tense of continuance, which would naturally involve the notion of Overlapping Action. The Impr. is, therefore, not found until the time of Tacitus (once with donec, II. 1. 9). With the Present Sphere the tense must be iterative or historical. Otherwise the Pr. is used by anticipation for the Future.

2. The Fut. Indic. is found occasionally in early Latin, usually, however, the Present. In the classical times, and afterwards, the Subjv. takes its place. Thus Cicero uses the Subjv. regularly, after verba exspectandi, except in possibly four passages of the earlier Orations and Letters.

3. Donec is not uncommon in early Latin, but is very rare in Cicero, and never occurs in Caesar. On the other hand, Tacitus shows one hundred and thirty-eight cases of it.

4. Donicum belongs to early Latin, but is not found in Terence; one case with the Subjv. is found in Nepos. Donique is found in Lucretius four times with the Indic., always before vowels; in Vitruvius once with Indic., three times with Subjv.; otherwise it is not cited.

5. Quoad, until, occurs once in Plautus, and with the Subjunctive. Otherwise it is found with both moods occasionally throughout the language.

6. Livy introduces donec inversum like cum inversum (581). See xxii. 46, 6; xxxv. 50, 4, etc.

572. Dum, donec, and quoad, until, take the Subjunctive when Suspense and Design are involved.

Verginius dum collégam consuleret moratúus (est), L., iv. 21, 10; Verginius delayed until he could (long enough to) consult his colleague. At tanti tibi sit non indulgere theatris, dum bene de vacuó pectore cédat amor, Ov., Rem. Am., 751; but let it be worth the cost to you (= deem it worth the cost) not to indulge in play-going, until love be fairly gone from (your) untenanted bosom.

Often with verba exspectandi, especially exspectó, I wait.

Rústicus exspectat dum défuit amnis, II., Ep., i, 2, 42; the clown waits for the river to run off (dry).

Remarks.—I. The Subjv. is sometimes used in narrative with dum, while, and donec, while, until, to express subordination. The principle is that of Partial Obliquity. There is often a Causal or Iterative sense (like cum, 584, r.).

Dum intentus in eum sél réx tótus averteret, alter élátam secúrim in caput déiécit, L., i. 40, 7; while the king, intent upon him, was turning quite away, the other raised his axe and planted it in his skull. (Averteret from the point of view of alter = dum videt averténtem.)

2. Verba exspectandi have also other constructions, as ut, si, quin, but not the Infinitive.

573. Dum, modò, and dummodó, if only, provided only,
only, are used with the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive, rarely the other tenses, in Conditional Wishes.

The negative is nē (dum nē = nē interim).

Öderint dum metuant, Accius (C., Off., i. 28, 97); let them hate so long as they fear (provided that, if they will only fear). Quō lubeat nūbant, dum dōs nē fiat comes, Pl., Aul., 491; let them marry where (= whom) they please, if but the dowry do not go with them. Dummodō mōrāta rēctē veniat, dōtāta est satis, Pl., Aul., 239; provided only she come with a good character, she is endowed (= her dowry is) enough. In eō multa admiranda sunt: ēligere modo cūrae sit, Quint., x. 1, 131; many things in him are to be admired; only you must be careful to choose. Cōpia plācandī sit modo parva tuī, Ov., Her., 20, 74 (428, r. 1).

Notes.—1. It has been noticed that Tacitus uses dummodō only in the Germania and Dialogus. otherwise dum.
2. Dummodō nē and modō nē are found first in Cicero. In post-Augustan Latin nōn is sometimes used for nē; Juv., vii. 222, dummodo nōn pereat.

III. SUBSEQUENT ACTION.

Antequam and Priusquam with the Indicative.

574. Antequam and priusquam, before, take the Present, Perfect, and Future Perfect Indicative, when the limit is stated as a fact. The Present is used in anticipation of the Future.

Remarks.—1. The elements ante, anteā, prius, and quam are often separated.
2. As prius (ante) -quam is negative in its signification (= necādum), the Indic. is sometimes found where we should expect the Subjunctive.

Note.—Antequam is much rarer than priusquam, especially in early Latin, where it is cited only from Cato, Caelius, Terence (Irc., 146, with Subjv. in O. O.), and Varro. Cicero prefers it before a Pr. Indic., priusquam elsewhere.

575. The Present Indicative is used after positive sentences.

Antequam ad sententiam redeō, dē mē pauca dicam, C., Cat., iv. 10, 20; before I return to the subject, I will say a few things of myself. Omnia experīrī certum est priusquam pereō, Ter., And., 311; I am determined to try everything before I perish. (Prius quam peream = sooner than perish, to keep from perishing.)

Notes.—1. The Pure Pf. Indic. is used of Iterative Action, and is rare. (567.) Dociliōra sunt ingenia priusquam obdūravērunt, Quint., i. 12, 9 (567). Instead of this, the Pr. Subjv. is more common in general statements. (567, n.)
2. Tacitus shows no example of the Pr. Indicative.
576. The Perfect (Aorist) and Future Perfect Indicative are used both after positive and after negative clauses, chiefly the latter.

Hēracliō, aliquantō ante quam est mortuus, omnia trādiderat, C., Verr., II, 18, 46; some time before he died he had handed over everything to Heracleius. Lēgāti nōn ante depositi quam impositōs in nāvēs militēs vidē-runt, L., xxxiv. 12, 8; the envoys did not set out until they saw the soldiers on board. Neque dēfatīgābor ante quam illōrum viās ratiōnēsque et prō omnibus et contrā omnia disputāndi percēperō, C., Or., III. 36. 145; I will not let myself grow weary before (until) I learn (shall have learned) their methods of disputing for and against everything.

Subjunctive in Ōrātiō Obliqua.

Themistocles [collēgis suis] praedixit, ut nē prius Lacedaemoniōrum lēgātōs dimitterent quam ipse esset remissus, Nep., II. 7, 3 (546. 2). (Nōn prius dimittētis quam ego erō remissus.)

Remark.—After negative clauses containing a historical tense the Pf. is the rule and the connection is always close: nōn priusquam = dum. Violations of this rule are very rare: see 577, 2.

Notes.—1. The Fut. is found occasionally in Plautus, but has disappeared by the time of Terence. The Fut. Pf. is never common, but is found at all periods. Tacitus avoids it, and so do other authors.

2. The Impf. is confined to Livy, who shows four examples, and to one case in late Latin. The Plupf. is found once in Cicero (Dom., 30, 78), where it may be iterative, and once in early Latin (Ter., Hec., 146).

Antequam and Priusquam with the Subjunctive.

577. Antequam and priusquam are used with the Subjun-
tective when an ideal limit is given; when the action is expected, contingent, designed, or subordinate.

1. An ideal limit involves necessary antecedence, but not necessary subsequence. After positive sentences, the Subjunctive is the rule, especially in generic sentences and in narrative. (Compare cum, 585.) After Historical Tenses the Subjunctive is almost invariable when the action does not, or is not to, take place. The translation is often be-
fore, and the verbal in -ing (Greek πρὶν with the Infinitive).

Ante vidēmus fulgōrem quam sonum audiāmus, Sen., N.Q., II. 12, 6; we see the flash of lightning before hearing the sound (we may never hear it). But compare Lucr., VI. 170. In omnibus negotiis prius quam aggrediāre adhibenda est praeparātiō diligēns, C., Off., I. 21, 73; in all affairs, before addressing yourself (to them), you must make use of care-
ful preparation (Ideal Second Person) | Coilem] celeriter priusquam ab
adversāriis sentiātur communīt, Caes., B.C., i. 54, 4; he speedily fortified the hill before he was (too soon to be) perceived by the enemy (prius quam = prius quam ut). Hannibal omnia priusquam excēderat pāgnā (erat) expertus, L., xxx. 35, 4; Hannibal had tried everything before withdrawing from the fight (= to avoid withdrawing from the fight). Saepe māgna indolēs virtūtis prius quam reì públicae prōdesse potuisset extincta est, C., Ph., v. 17, 47; often hath great native worth been ex-

2. After an historical tense in the negative, the Subjunctive is exceptional. (576, r.)

Inde nōn prius ēgressus est quam (= ibi manēbat dum) rēx eum in fidem recipēret, Nep., ii. 8. 4; he did not come out until the king should take him under his protection (he stayed to make the king take him under his protection). See Caes., B.G., vi. 37, 2; L., xlv. 11, 3.

Notes.—1. The Pr. Subjv. is common, but is usually generic: the few cases of Final Subjv. are confined to early Latin. Very rarely the Hist. Pr. is found after a Hist. Present. See Caes., B.C., i. 22.

2. The Pf. occurs occasionally: it is usually in a final sense.

Nōn prius dīmittunt quam ab his sit concēssum, Caes., B.G., iii. 18.

3. In Livy we find the Impf. Subjv. used not unfrequently, where the idea of sus-

pense or design is very slight, much after the manner of cum nōndum (as C., Ph., v. r, 4).

4. The Plupf. Subjv. is cited five times from Cicero and four times from Livy. In these passages the completion rather than the continuance is in suspense.

5. Postridiēquam is found in Plautus, Cicero (Letters), and Suetonius with the Indicative. In Cicero, Ac., ii. 3, 9, with the Subjunctive. Prōdiēquam is found in Plautus and Cicero with the Indicative; in Livy, Val. Max., and Suetonius with the Subjunctive. Both are very rare.

6. When the will is involved, potius quam is used in the same way as prius quam.

Dépūgnā potius quam serviās, C., Att. vii. 7, 7; fight it out rather than be a slave.

IV. CONSTRUCTIONS OF CUM (QUOM).

578. Cum is a (locative) relative conjunction.

Note.—Originally locative (where), quom became temporal (when) like ubi. When time is not defined by a fixed date, it readily becomes circumstance, and this circumstance is interpreted as cause, condition, and the like. Compare the circumstantial relative itself. The first construction was with the Indicative as in any other merely relative clause, and this is the sole construction in earliest Latin. But, beginning with Terence, we can observe the drift ever increasing in Latin towards the expression of character by tendency (Subjv.) rather than by fact (Indic.), so that the relative of character takes more and more the Subjunctive, and cum follows the lead of ut and of the indocted relative pronoun.

579. There are two great uses of cum:

I. Temporal cum (when, then), with the Indicative.
II. Circumstantial cum (as, whereas), with the Subjunctive.

In the second usage the relation is still purely a matter of inference; but according to this inferential connection we distinguish:

(a) Historical cum, as, giving the attendant circumstances, mainly temporal, under which an action took place.

(b) Causal cum, as, whereas, since, indicating that the main action proceeded from the subordinate one.

(c) Concessive cum, whereas, although, indicating that the main action was accomplished in spite of that of the subordinate clause.

I. Cum vēr appetit, milites ex hibernīs movent, when spring approaches, soldiers move out of winter-quarters.

II. (a) Cum vēr appeteret, Hannibal ex hibernīs movit, as spring was approaching (spring approaching), Hannibal moved out of winter-quarters.

(b) Cum vēr appetat, ex hibernīs movendum est, as (since) spring is approaching, we must move out of winter-quarters.

(c) Cum vēr appeteret, tamen hostes ex hibernīs nōn mōverunt, whereas (although) spring was approaching, nevertheless the enemy did not move out of winter-quarters.


580. Cum, when, is used with all the tenses of the Indicative to designate merely temporal relations.

In the Principal clause, a temporal adverb or temporal expression is frequently employed, such as tum, tunc, then; nunc, now; diēs, day; tempus, time; iam, already; vix, scarcely, and the like.

Animus, nec cum adest nec cum discēdit, appāret, C., Cat. M., 22, 80; the soul is not visible, either when it is present, or when it departs.

Stomachor cum aliōrum nōn mē digna in mē cōnferuntur, C., Planc., 14, 35: I get fretted when other people's jokes that are not worthy of me are foisted on me. [Sex librōs dē rē publicā] tum scripsimus cum gubernācula rei publicae tenēbamus. C., Div., ii. i. 3; I wrote the six books about the State at the time when I held the helm of the State.

Recordāre tempus illud cum pater Cūriō maerēns iacēbat in lectō, C., Ph., ii. 18, 45; remember the time when Curio the father lay abed from grief. Longum illud tempus cum nōn erō magis mē movet quam hoc exiguum, C., Adv., xii. 18, 1; that long time (to come), when I shall not exist, has more effect on me than this scant (present time). Iam dilūcēscēbat cum signum cōnsul
dedit, L., xxxvi. 24. 6: by this day was beginning to dawn, when the consul gave the signal. (See 581.)

Ideal Second Person with the Subjunctive:

Pater, hominum inmortalis est infamia. Etiam tum vivit quom esse credás mortuam, Pl., Pers., 355; Father, immortal is the ill-fame of the world. It lives on even when you think that it is dead.

But the presence of a temporal adverb does not mean necessarily that the cum clause is merely temporal.

Remarks.—1. Fuit cum commonly follows the analogy of other characteristic relatives (631), and takes the Subjunctive:

Fuit tempus cum (= fuit cum) fūra coherent hominēs, Varro, R. R., iii. 1, 1; there was a time when all mankind tilled fields = were countrymen.
The Indic. is rare.

2. Memini cum, I remember the time when, takes the Indic., but audire cum takes the Subjv. parallel with the participle:

Memini cum mihī désipere vidēbāre, C., Fam., vii. 28. 1; I remember the time when you seemed to me to show the worst possible taste. Audīvi Mētrodōrum cum de ipsis rēbus disputāret, C., Or., ii. 90, 365; I have heard Metrodorus discussing these very matters.

3. Peculiar is the use of cum with Lapses of Time. Lapses of Time are treated as Designations of Time in Accusative or Ablative:

Multī annī sunt cum (= multōs annōs) in aere méō est, C., Fam., xv. 14. 1; (it is) many years (that) he has been (230) in my debt. Permultī annī iam crant cum inter patriciōs magistrātūs tribūnōsque nūlla certāminā fuerant, L., ix. 33. 3; very many years had elapsed since there had been any struggles between the patrician magistrates and the tribunes.

Nōndum centum et decem annī sunt cum (= ex quō = abhinc annōs) de pecūniā repetundis lāta lēx est, C., Off., ii. 21, 75; it is not yet one hundred and ten years since the law concerning extortion was proposed.


The same holds true for Terence, except that the Subjv. is now making its appearance in cases where it can be neither potential, ideal, nor attracted, as Hec., 341: nōn visam uxōrem Pamphili, quom in proxumō hic sit aegra?

Of course, this prevalence of the Indic. does not exclude the attraction into the Subjv., nor does it exclude the regular potential use.

2. The explicative use dies out, except where it is akin to the conditional; but it always retains the Indicative. With Causal and Concessive-Adversative uses, the Subjv. is used more and more in place of the Indicative.

3. In early Latin we find quoniam and quandō, used sometimes with the force of quom. In the case of quoniam several examples are cited from Plautus, in most of which, however, the causal conception lies very close at hand; the temporal force seems to have disappeared by the time of Terence, and only reappears in Gellius. The
temporal usage of quando is still the prevailing one in Plautus, over seventy instances having been collected. Of these the majority are in the Present and Future Spheres, in which the shift to the causal conception is very easy; many of them are also iterative. In Terence the temporal usage of quando has disappeared unless possibly in one passage (Ad., 266), but sporadic cases are found later, even in Cicero.

Quoniam hinc est prōfectūrus peregrē thēnsaurum dēmōnstrāvit mihi, Pl., Trin., 149. Tum, quando légātōs Tyrum mīsimus, C., Leg.Agr., 11. 16, ill.

581. Cum Inversum. When the two actions are independent, cum is sometimes used with the one which seems to be logically the principal clause, just as in English.

Iam nōn longius bīdūt viā aberant, cum duās vēnisse legiōnēs cōgnōscunt, Caes., B.G., vi. 7, 2; they were now distant not more than two days' march, when they learned that two legions were come.

Similar is the addition of an illustrative fact, often causal or adversative, by cum intereā (interim), quidem, tamen, etc., with the Indicative.

582. Explicative cum.—When the actions of the two clauses are coincident, cum is almost equivalent to its kindred relative quod, in that.

Āiācem, hunc quom vidēs, ipsum vidēs, Pl., Capt., 615; when you see him, you see Ajax himself. Cum tacent, clāmant, C., Cat., 1. 8, 21; when (= in that) they are silent, they cry aloud. Dixi omnia cum hominem nōmināvi, Plin., Ep., iv. 22, 4; I have said everything, in naming the man.

583. Conditional cum.—Cum with the Future, Future Perfect, or Universal Present, is often almost equivalent to si, if, with it it is sometimes interchanged.

Cum pōscēs, pōsce Latīnē, Juv., xi. 148; when (if) you (shall) ask (for anything), ask in Latin. Cum veniet contrā, digitō compēsce labellum, Juv., i. 160; when (if) he meets you, padlock your lip with your finger.

584. Iterative cum.—Cum in the sense of quotiens, as often as, takes the Tenses of Iterative Action.

Solet cum sē pūrgat in mē cōnferre omnem culpam, C., Att., ix. 2 a, 1; he is accustomed, when he clears himself, to put off all the blame on me. [Ager] cum multōs annōs requiēvit ūberōrēs efferre frūgēs solet, C., Br., 4. 16 (567). Cum pālam ēius ānuli ad palmam converterat (Gyges) a nūllō vidēbātur, C., Off., iii. 9. 38 (567).

Remark.—The Subjv. is also found (567, x.):

Cum in iūs dūci dēbitōrem vidissent, undique convolābant, l., ii. 27. 8: whenever they saw a debtor taken to court, they made it a rule to hurry together from all quarters.
2. Circumstantial Cum.

585. Historical cum.—Cum, when (as), is used in narrative with the Imperfect Subjunctive of contemporaneous action, with the Pluperfect Subjunctive of antecedent action, to characterize the temporal circumstances under which an action took place.

[Agæsilæus] cum ex Aegypto revertērētur dēcessit, N. ep., xvii. 8, 6; Agæsilæus died as he was returning from Egypt. Zēnōnem cum Athēnis essem audīēbam frequenter, C., N. D., i. 21, 59; when I was (being) at Athens, I heard Zéno (lecture) frequently. Athēniēnsēs cum statuerent ut nāvēs cōnscenterent, C., Off., iii. 11, 48 (546).

Cum Caesar Anconam occupāvisset, urbem reliquiμus, C., Fam., xvi. 12, 2; when (as) Caesar had occupied Ancona (Caesar having occupied Ancona), I left the city. Attalus moritur alterō et septuāgēsimō annō, cum quattuor et quadrāgintā annōs rēgnāset, L., xxxiii. 21, 1; Attalus died in his seventy-second year, having reigned forty-four years.

Remark.—The subordinate clause generally precedes. The circumstantiality often appears as causality, but sometimes the exact shade cannot be distinguished. Owing to this implicit character, cum with the Subjv. is a close equivalent to the participle, and often serves to supply its absence. Compare 611 with 631, 2.

Notes.—1. How closely allied the ideas of time and circumstance are, in these constructions, is seen from such examples as this:

Cum varīcēs secābantur C. Mariō, dolēbat, C., Tusc., ii. 15, 35 (time). Marius cum secārētur, ut suprā dīxi, vetuit, etc., C., Tusc., ii. 22, 33 (circumstances). Cum ad tribum Polliam ventum est, (date) et praeō cunctārētur (circumstances) citāre ipsum cēnsōrem; Cītā, inquit Nerō, M. Livīnum, L., xxix. 37, 8.

2. The use of Time When particles with the Pr. is necessarily limited to iterative or causal (adversative) relations. Hence there is no room for the circumstantial cum with the Subjv. except so far as it is causal-adversative. Fut. and Fut. Pf. are found chiefly in general or iterative relations.

3. By attraction similar to that with quod (541, n. 3) and other relatives, cum dicēret, with an Inf., is found where dicēret would be more naturally omitted or inserted as (ut dicēbat); so cum adṣentīre sē dicēret for cum adṣentīret, L., i. 54, 1. Similarly with cum causal: “saying, as he did,” C., Mil., 5, 12.

586. Causal cum.—Cum, when, whereas, since, seeing that, with any tense of the Subjunctive, is used to denote the reason, and occasionally the motive, of an action (580, n. 1).

Quae cum ita sint, effectum est nihil esse malum quod turpe nōn sit, C., Fin., iii. 8, 29; since these things are so, it is made out (proved) that nothing is bad that is not dishonorable. Cum [Athēnās] tamquam ad
mercāturam bonārum artium sis profectus, inānem redire turpissimum est, C., Off., iii. 2, 6; as (since) you set out for Athens as if to market for accomplishments, it would be utterly disgraceful to return empty (handed). Dolō erat pūgnandum, cum pār nōn esset armīs, Nep., xxiii. 10, 4; he had to fight by stratagem, as he (seeing that he) was not a match in arms.

Remarks.—1. The characteristic nature of the Subjv. with cum comes out more clearly in the causal connection, owing to the parallel with utpote, quippe, and the relative (626, n.).

2. The primary tenses are more common, in this connection, but the historical tenses are abundant enough. With the latter the causal relation need never be emphasized.

587. Concessive and Adversative cum.—Causal cum, whereas, becomes Concessive cum, whereas, although, with the Subjunctive, when the cause is not sufficient; the relation is often adversative, and there is no limitation as to tense.

The temporal notion is still at work; whether the times are for or against an action is a matter outside of language (580, n. 1).

Nihil mē adiūvit cum posset, C., Att., ix. 13, 3; he gave me no assistance, although (at a time when) he had it in his power. Cum primi ordinēs hostium concidissent, tamen acerrimē reliquī resistēbant, Caes., B.G., vii. 62, 4; although the first ranks of the enemy had fallen (been cut to pieces), nevertheless the rest resisted most vigorously. Perire artem putāmus nisi appāret, cum dēsinat ars esse, si appāret, Quint., iv. 2, 127; we think that (our) art is lost unless it shows, whereas it ceases to be art if it shows.

Remarks.—1. To emphasize the adversative idea, tamen is often added in the principal clause.

2. Adversative cum nōn, whereas not, is often conveniently translated without; cum nōn inferior fuisset, C., Off., i. 32, 116; without being inferior.

588 Cum—tum. 1. When cum, when, tum, then, have the same verb, the verb is put in the Indicative. Cum—tum then has the force of both—and especially, and a strengthening adverb, such as māximē, praecipuē, is often added to the latter.

(Pausaniās) cōnsilia cum patriae tum sībī inīmica capiēbat, Nep., iv. 3, 3; Pausaniās conceived plans that were hurtful both to his country and especially to himself.
2. When they have different verbs, the verb with cum is usually in the Indicative, but may be in the Subjunctive, especially when the actions of the two verbs are not contemporary; this Subjunctive often has a concessive force.

[Sisennae historia] cum facile omnēs vincat superiorēs, tum indicat tamen quantum absit a summō, C., Br., 64, 228; although the history of Sisenna easily surpasses all former histories, yet it shows how far it is from the highest (mark).

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

589. In Conditional Sentences the clause which contains the condition (supposed cause) is called the Protasis, that which contains the consequence is called the Apodosis.

Logically, Protasis is Premiss; and Apodosis, Conclusion.

Grammatically, the Apodosis is the Principal, the Protasis the Dependent clause.

590. Sign of the Conditional.—The common conditional particle is si, if.

Notes.—1. Si is a locative case, literally, so, in those circumstances (comp. si-c, so, and the English: "I would by combat make her good, so were I a man."—Shakespeare). Hence, conditional clauses with si may be regarded as adverbs in the Abl. case, and are often actually represented by the Abl. Absolute.

Sic is found as the correlative of si in the colloquial language, as: sic scribēs ali- quid, si vacābis (C., Att., xii. 38.2): sic ignōvisse putātō me tibi, si cēnās hodie mēcum (II., Ep., 1. 7, 69). Instead of sic, its equivalent tum occurs at all periods, being in the Augustan time restricted to formal uses. Igitur is also found as late as Cicero, who likewise uses ita. Other particles are post-classical.

2. The connection with the Causal Sentence is shown by si quidem, which in later Latin is almost = quoniam; see 595, r. 5.

3. The temporal particles cum and quandō, when, and the locative ubi, are also used to indicate conditional relations in which the idea of Time or Space is involved.

591. Negative of si.—The negative of si is si nōn or nisi.

(a) With si nōn, if not, the nōn negatives the single word; hence an opposing positive is expected, either in a preceding condition, or in the conclusion. Therefore, si nōn is the rule:

1. When the positive of the same verb precedes.

Si feceris, māgnam habēbō grātiam; si nōn feceris, ignōscam, C., Fam., v. 19; if you do it, I will be very grateful to you; if you do not, I will forgive (you).
2. When the Condition is concessive; in this case the principal clause often contains an adversative particle.

Si mihi bonā re públicā frui nōn licuerit, at carēbō malā, C., Mil., 34, 93; if I shall not be allowed to enjoy good government, I shall at least be rid of bad.

(b) With nisi, unless, the negative ni- refers to the principal clause, which is thus denied, if the conditional clause is accepted; hence:

1. Nisi adds an exception or restriction to the leading statement. Compare the general use of nisi, except (r. 2).

Nisi molestumst, paucis percontārier (130. 6) volō ego ex tē, Pl., Rud., 120; if it is not disagreeable, I wish to ask you a few questions.

So the formulae nisi fallor (nī fallor is found first in Ovid), nisi mē omnia fallunt (C., Att., viii. 7. 1), and the like.

2. Nisi is in favorite use after negatives.

Parvī (= nihili) sunt foris arma nisi est cōnsilium domī, C., Off., i. 22. 76 (411, r. 2). [Nōn] possem vivere nisi in litterōs vīverem, C., Fam., ix. 26. 1; I could not live unless I lived in study. Memoria minuitur nisi eam exercēās, C., Cat. M., 7, 21; memory wanes unless (except) you exercise it. (Si nōn exercēās, in case you fail to exercise it.)

So more often than si nōn, in asseverations. Peream nisi sollicitus sum, C., Fam., xv. 19, 4; may I die if I am not troubled.

Remarks.—1. Sometimes the difference is unessential:

Nisi Cūriō fuisset, hodiē tē múscæ comēdissent, Cf. Quint., xi. 3, 129; if it had not been for Curio, the flies would have eaten you up this day.

Si nōn fuisset would be equally correct.

2. Nisi is often used after negative sentences or equivalents in the significations of but, except, besides, only:

Inspice quid portem; nihil hic nisi trīste vidēbis, Ov., Tr., iii. 1. 9; examine what I am bringing; you will see nothing here except (what is) sad. Falsus honor iuvat et mendāx īnfāmia terret, quem nisi mendōsum et medicandum? H., Ep., i. 16, 39; "false honor charms and lying slander scares," whom but the faulty and the fit for physic?

So nisi si, except in case, with a following verb; occasional in early Latin, more common later, but not in Caes. (B.G., i. 31, 14, is disputed), Sall., Verg., Hor. Nisi ut, except on condition that, is post-classical.

Necessē est Casīlinēnsēs sē dēdere Hannibalī; nisi si mālunt famē perire, C., Inv., ii. 57. 171; the people of Casilinum must needs surrender to Hannibal; unless (except in case) they prefer to perish by hunger.

3. Nisi quod introduces an actual limitation—with the exception, that (525, 2, n. 2); so praeterquam quod; nisi ut (e. g. C., Imp., 23. 67),

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Nihil acciderat [Polycratî] quod nölet nisi quod ānulum quō délectābātur in mari abiēcerat, C., Fin., v. 30, 92; nothing had happened to Polycrates that he could not have wished, except that he had thrown into the sea a ring in which he took delight (= a favorite ring). Nihil peccat nisi quod nihil peccat, Plin., Ep., IX. 26, 1; he makes no blunder except—that he makes no blunder ("faultily faultless").

4. Nisi forte (found very often in Cicero, very rarely earlier), unless, perhaps, nisi vērō (peculiar to Cicero). unless, indeed, with the Indic., either limit a previous statement, or make an ironical concession:

Nēmō ferē saltat sōbrius nisi forte ūnsānit, C., Mur., 6. 13; there is scarce any one that dances (when) sober, unless perhaps he is cracked.

Plēnum forum est eōrum hominum, . . . nisi vērō paucoś fuisse arbitrāmini, C., Sull., 9, 28; the forum is full of those men; unless, indeed, you think they were (but) few.

Notes.—1. Nisi is sometimes strengthened by tamen, but, yet.

Nisi etiam hic opperiar tamen paulisper, Pl., Att., 805; cf. C., Att., v. 14, 3. Even without tamen it is adversative in colloquial Latin, especially after nescio.

2. Nī is found mostly in early Latin and the poets, and in legal formulæ and colloquial phrases. It is rare in Cicero, and never used in Caesar.

Peream nī pisces putāvi esse, Varro, R.R., III. 3, 9; may I die if I did not think it was a fish.

3. Nisi forte is found occasionally with the Subjv. from Apuleius on.

592. Two Conditions excluding each the other.—When two conditions exclude each the other, sī is used for the first; sin, if not (but if'), for the second.

Sin is further strengthened by autem, vērō (rare), but; minus, less (not); secus (rare), otherwise; aliter, else.

Mercātūra, sī tenuis est, sordida putanda est; sīn māgna et cōpiōsa, nōn est admodum vituperanda, C., Off., 1. 42. 151; mercantile business, if it is petty, is to be considered dirty (work); if (it is) not (petty, but) great and abundant (= conducted on a large scale), it is not to be found fault with much.

Remark.—If the verb or predicate is to be supplied from the context, sī minus, if less (not), sīn minus, sīn aliter, if otherwise, are commonly used. rarely sī nōn:

Ēdēc tēcum omēs tuōs; sī minus, quam plurimōs, C., Cat., 1. 5, 10: take out with you all your (followers); if not, as many as possible. Ōdēro sī poterō; sī nōn, invitūs amābō, Ov., Am., 111. 11, 35 (242, r. 2).

Note.—Much less common are simple sī, or sī strengthened by nōn, nihil, nūllus, minus, or by autem, vērō; or sed sī, at sī (COL.), sī contrā (HOH., Plin.). Sin may also be followed by nōn, but commonly only when one or more words intervene.

Pōma crūda sī sunt, vīx évelluntur; sī mātūra, décidunt, C., Cat.M., 19, 71; if fruit is green it can hardly be plucked, 'tis ripe it falls (of itself).
593. Other Forms of the Protasis.—I. The Protasis may be expressed by a Relative.

Qui vidēret, urbem captam diceret, C., Verr., iv. 23, 52: whoso had seen it, had said that the city was taken. Mirārētur qui tum cerneret, L., xxxiv. 9, 4 (258).

2. The Protasis may be contained in a Participle.

Si latet ars, prōdest; affert déprēnsa pudōrem, Ov., A.A., ii. 313; art, if concealed, does good; detected, it brings shame. Máximás virtūtēs iacēre omnēs nescisse est voluptāte dominante, C., Fin., ii. 35, 117; all the greatest virtues must necessarily lie prostrate, if the pleasure (of the senses) is mistress. Nihil [potest] evenire nisi causā antecedente, C., Fut., 15, 34; nothing can happen, unless a cause precede.

3. The Protasis may be involved in a modifier.

Fēcērunt id servi Milonis quod suōs quisque servōs in tāli ré facere voluisset, C., Mil., 10, 29; the servants of Milo did what each man would have wished his servants to do in such case (si quid tāle accidisset). At bene nōn poterat sine pūrō pectore vivi, Lucr., v. 18: but there could be no good living without a clean heart (nisi pūrum pectus esset). Neque enim materiam ipsam (cēnsēbant) cohaerēre potuisset si nūlā vi continērētur, neque vim sine aliquā materiā, C., Ac., i. 6, 24.

4. The Protasis may be expressed by an Interrogative, or, what is more common, by an Imperative or equivalent.

Tristis es? indignor quod sum tibi causa dolōris, Ov., Tr., iv. 3, 33 (542). Cēdit amor rébus: rēs age, tūtus eris, Ov., Rem. Am., 144; love yields to business; be busy (if you plunge into business), you will be safe. Immutā (verbōrum collocātiōnem), perierit tōta rēs, C., Or., 70, 232 (244, r. 4).

Classification of Conditional Sentences.

594. Conditional sentences may be divided into three classes, according to the character of the Protasis:

I. Logical Conditional Sentences: sì, with the Indicative.

II. Ideal Conditional Sentences: sì, chiefly with Present and Perfect Subjunctive.

III. Unreal Conditional Sentences: sì, with Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive.

Notes.—1. In some grammars of Greek and Latin, conditional sentences, and sentences involving conditional relations, have been divided into particular and general. Whether a condition be particular or general depends simply on the character of the Apodosis. Any form of the Conditional Sentence may be general, if it implies a rule of action. The forms for Iterative action have been given (566, 567).
I. LOGICAL CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

595. The Logical Conditional Sentence simply states the elements in question, according to the formula: if this is so, then that is so; if this is not so, then that is not so.

It may be compared with the Indicative Question.

The Protasis is in the Indicative; the Apodosis is generally in the Indicative; but in future relations any equivalent of the Future (Subjunctive, Imperative) may be used.

Protasis.

Si id crédias,
If you believe that,
Si id crédēbas,
If you believed that,
Si id crédidisti,
If you (have) believed that,
Si id crédēs,
If you (shall) believe that,
Si id crédideris,
If you (shall have) believe(d) that,
Si quid crédidisti,
If you have believed anything (= when you believe anything),
Si quid crédideras,
If you had believed anything (= when you believed anything),

Apodosis.

errās,
you are going wrong.
errābas,
you were going wrong.
errāsti,
you went (have gone) wrong.
errābis,
you will (be) going wrong (234, r.).
errāveris,
you will have gone (will go) wrong.
errās,
you go wrong. Comp. 569.
errābas,
you went wrong.

Si spiritum dūcit, vivit, C., Inv., i. 46. 86: if he is drawing (his) breath (breathing) he is living. Parvi sunt foris arma nisi est cōnsilium domi, C., Off., i. 22, 76 (111, r. 2). Si occidī, rectē fēcī; sed nōn occidī, QUINT., iv. 5, 13; if I killed him, I did right; but I did not kill him. [Nātūram] si sequēmur ducem, numquam aberrābimus, C., Off., i. 28, 100; if we (shall) follow nature (as our) guide, we shall never go astray. [Improbōs] si meus cōnsulātus sustulerit, multa saecula prōpāgārit rei publicae, C., Cat., ii. 5, 11; if my consulsip shall have done away with the destructive, it will have added many ages to the life of the State. Si pēs condoluit, si dēns, ferre nōn possumus, C., Tusc., ii. 22, 52 (567). Stomachābātur senex, si quid asperius dixeram, C., N.D., i. 33, 93 (567). Vivam, si vivet; si cadet ulla, cadam, Prop., ii. (iii.) 28 (25), 42 (8); let me live, if she lives; if she falls, let me fall. Nunc si forte potes, sed nōn potes, optima cōnLIHIX, finitis gaudē tot mihi morte malis, Ov., Tr., iii. 3, 55;
now, if haply you can, but you cannot, noble wife, rejoice that so many evils have been finished for me by death. Flectere si nequeō superōs, Acheronta movēbō, V., A., vii. 312; if I can't bend the gods above, I'll rouse (all) hell below. Si tot exempla virtūtis non movent, nihil umquam movēbit; si tanta clādēs vilem vitam non fēcit, nulla faciet, L., xxii. 60, 14; if so many examples of valor stir you not, nothing will ever do it; if so great a disaster has not made life cheap, none (ever) will. Dēsinēs timēre, si spērāre désieris, Sen., E.M., i. 5, 7; you will cease to fear, if you (shall have) cease(d) to hope. Peream male, si nōn optimum erat, II., s. ii. i. 6; may I die the death if it was not best. Si volēbās participāri, auferrēs (= auferre dēbēbās) dimidium domum, Pl., Truc., 748: if you wished to share in it, you should have taken the half home. Respi-rārō si tē viderō, C., Att., ii. 24, 5; I shall breathe again, if I shall have seen you.

Remarks.—1. After a verb of Saying or Thinking (ōrātiō Obliqua), the Protasis must be put in the Subjv., according to the rule.

(Si id crēdis, errās.)

Dicō, tē, si id crēdās, errāre.
Dixi, tē, si crēderēs, errāre.

(Si id crēdēs, errābis.)

Dicō, tē, si id crēdās, errātūrum esse.
Dixi, tē, si id crēderēs, errātūrum esse.

(Si id crēdidisti, errāsti.)

Dicō, tē, si id crēdideris, errāsse.
Dixi, tē, si id crēdidissēs, errāsse.

For examples, see Ōrātiō Obliqua, 657.

2. The Subjv. is used by Attraction:

[Arāneolae] rēte texunt ut si quid inhaeserit cōnficiunt, C., N.D., ii. 48, 123 (567). (Si quid inhaesit cōnficiunt.)

3. The Ideal Second Person takes the Subjv. in connection with the Universal Present:

(Senectās) plēna est voluptātis si illā sciās ῥūtī, Sen., E.M., i. 2. 4: old age is full of pleasure if you know (if one knows) how to enjoy it.

Memoria minuitur nisi eam exercēas, C., Cat. M., 7, 21 (591, b. 2).

4. Sive—sive (seu—seu) almost invariably takes the Logical form. (496, 2.) The Subjv. is occasionally used by Attraction or with the Ideal Second Person.

Seu vicit, ferōciter īnstat victis; seu victus est, instaurat cum victōribus certāmēn, L., xxvii. 14, 1; if he vanquishes (567), he presses the vanquished furiously; if he is vanquished, he renews the struggle with the vanquishers.

5. Sīquidem, as giving the basis for a conclusion, often approaches the causal sense (590, x. 2). In this case the Apodosis precedes.

Molesta vérītās, sīquidem ex ēā nāscitur odium, C., Lact., 24, 39; truth is burdensome, if indeed (sine"] hatred arises from it.

6. Sī modō, if only, serves to limit the preceding statement.
Ā deō tantum rationem habēmus, sí modo habēmus, C., N.D., iii. 28, 71; all that we have from God is (bare) reason, if only we have it.

Si vērō when thus used is ironical (C., Ph., viii. 8. 24). Si tamen seems to be post-classical.

Notes.—1. Phraseological are si quaeris (quaerimus) in a sense approaching that of prefectō (C., qdf., iii. 20, 80; Tusc., iii. 29, 73); Si dis placet, if the gods will, often ironical (cf. Ter., Enn., 919; C., Fin., ii. 10, 31). Si forte, peradventure (C., Or., iii. 12, 47; Mil., 38, 104).

2. It will be observed that the tense involved depends in each member upon the sense. But for this very reason certain combinations would be uncommon. Thus Pr.—Impf. and Fut.—Pr. are rare; Pr.—Fut. is more common in ante-classical and post-classical Latin than Fut.—Fut., the Pres. being used by anticipation. Cicero prefers Fut.—Fut. Cicero also uses frequently Fut. Pf.—Fut. Pf., which is also found elsewhere, but rarely. Pf.—Fut. is found first in Cicero, and is never common; also Impf.—Impf. Plupf.—Impf. is mostly found in ante-classical and post-classical Latin. The Pf., by anticipation for Fut. Pf., is not unfrequent in early Latin. So C., Fam., xii. 6. 2: (Brūtus) si conservātus erit, vicimus (237); C. Sen., Ben., iii. 62, 145. Also the Pr. by anticipation for the Fut. (228): Pl., Poen., 671: Rex sum, si ego illum ad mē adixerō.

II. IDEAL CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

596. The Ideal Conditional Sentence represents the matter as still in suspense. The supposition is more or less fanciful, and no real test is to be applied. There is often a wish for or against. The point of view is usually the Present.

1. The Protasis is put in the Present Subjunctive for continued action, and in the Perfect Subjunctive for completion or attainment.

The Apodosis is in the Present or Perfect Subjunctive. The Imperative and Future Indicative or equivalents are often found. The Universal Present is frequently used, especially in combination with the Ideal Second Person (595, r. 3; 663, 2).

On the difference between Subjunctive and Future, see 257.

Protasis.

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<tr>
<th>Si id crēdās,</th>
<th>errēs,</th>
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<tr>
<td>If you should (were to) believe that,</td>
<td>you would be going wrong.</td>
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<th>Si id crēdās,</th>
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<th>errēs,</th>
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<tr>
<td>1. If you should (prove to) have believed that (Perfect; Action Past or Future),</td>
<td>you would be going wrong.</td>
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<td>2. If you should (come to) believe that (Aor.; Action Future),</td>
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<tr>
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<th>errāverēs (rare),</th>
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<tr>
<td>If you (should have) believe(ū) that,</td>
<td>you would (have) go(ne) wrong.</td>
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</table>
**CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.**

_Si vicinus tuus equum meliorem habeat quam tuus est, tuumne quom mälis an illius?_ C., _Inv._, 1. 31. 52; _if your neighbor (were to) have a better horse than yours is, would you prefer your horse or his?_ Si gladium quis apud tē sānā mente déposuerit, repetat īnsāniēns, reddere peccātum sit, officium nōn reddere, C., _Off._, iii. 25, 95; _if a man in sound mind were to deposit (to have deposited) a sword with you, (and) reclaim it (when) mad, it would be wrong to return it, right not to return it._

_Hanc viam si asperam esse negotium, mentiar._ C., _Sest._, 46. 100; _if I should say that this way is not rough, I should lie._ Si nunc mē suspendam meam operam lūserim, et meis inimicīs voluptātem creāverim, _Pl._, _Cas._, 424; _should I hang myself now, I should (thereby) (have) food(ed) my work away, and give(n) to my enemies a charming treat._ Cicerōnī nē mo ducentōs nunc dederit nummōs nisi fulserit ānulus ingēns, _Juv._, vii. 139; _no one would give Cicero nowadays two hundred two-pences unless a huge ring glittered (on his hand)._ Si quis furūsō praeceptō det, erit ipsō quem monēbit, īnsānior, _Sen._, _E.M._, 94. 17; _if one should give advice to a madman, he will be more out of his mind than the very man whom he advises._ _Si valeant hominēs, ars tua, Phoebē, iacet._ _Ov._, _Tr._, iv. 3, 78; _should men keep well, your art, Phoebus, is naught._ _Ōtia sī tollās, perīère Cupīdinis arcūs._ _Ov._, _Rem._, _Am._, 139 (204. s. 6). (Senectūs) est pēna voluptātis, sī illā scīas ětū, _Sen._, _E.M._, 12. 4 (595, r. 3). Memoria minuitur nisi eam exercēās, _C._, _Cat._, _M._, 7, 21 (591. b. 2). _Nūlla est excūsātiō peccāti, sī amīcī causā peccāveris._ _C._, _Lael._, 11, 37; _it is no excuse for a sin to have sinned for the sake of a friend._

2. The Point of View may be the Past. In that case the Protasis is found in the Imperfect, very rarely the Pluperfect Subjunctive, and the Apodosis has corresponding forms. This usage, however, is rare, inasmuch as it coincides in form with the Unreal Condition, from which it is distinguishable only by a careful study of the context. When found with indefinite persons, the construction is the Potential of the Past.

The idea of: Partial Obliquity frequently enters, in which case _si_ may often be translated, _in case that._

Quod uṣū nōn veniēbat dē eō _si_ quis lēgem cōnstitueret nōn tam prohibēre vidērētur quam admonēro, _C._, _Tull._, 4. 9; _if one should make a law about that which was not customary, he would seem not so much to prevent as to warn._ (Present: _si_ quis cōnstituat, videātur.) _Si_ Alēnūs tum iūdīcium accipere vellet, dēnique omnia quae āpostulārēs facere voluisset, quid agerēs? _C._, _Quint._, 26, 83; _in case Alēnūs was willing then to undertake the trial, and should have been willing afterwards to do all that you required, what were you to do?_ (See the whole passage—Present:
si nunc velit, ... voluerit, agäs.) Si tribünī mē triumphāre prohibērent, Fūrium et Aemilium tēstēs citātūrus fui, L., xxxviii. 47: should the tri-
būnes prevent me from triumphing. I was going to summon Furius and
Aemilius as witnesses. Quid faceret? si vīvere vellet, Sēiānus rogandus
erat, Sen., Cons. Marc., 22, 6; what was he to do? if he wished to tire
Sejanus was (the man) to be asked. See Tac., Ann., iii. 13. Erat Quin-
tius, si cēderēs, placābilis, L., xxxvi. 32, 5; Quintius was, if you
yielded to him, (sure to be) placable. (Est si cēdās.) Si lūxuriae tem-
perāret, avāritiam nōn timērēs, Tac., ii. ii. 62; if he were to control
his love of pleasure, you should not have feared avarice. (Si temperet,
nōn timeās.) Cur igitur et Camillus dōlēret, si haec ... ēventūra putāret?
et ego doleam si ... putem? C., Tusc., i. 37, 90. (Present: dōleat si putet.)

Remarks.—1. The Ideal is not controlled by impossibility or im-
probability, and the lively fancy of the Roman often employs the Ideal
where we should expect the Unreal. (Comp. 256, n. 2.) This is more
common in early Latin.

Tū si hic sis, aliter sentiās, Ter., And., 310; if you were I (put your-
self in my place), you would think differently. Haec si tēcum patria
loquātur, nōnne impetrāre dēbeat? C., Cat., i. 8, 19; if your country
should (were to) speak thus with you, ought she not to get (what she
wants)? So C., Fin., iv. 22, 61.

2. Sometimes the conception shifts in the course of a long sentence:

Si reviviscant et tēcum loquantur—quid tālibus virīs respondērēs? C.,
Fin., iv. 22, 61; if they should come to life again, and speak with you
—what answer would you make to such men?

3. When nōn possum is followed by nisi (si nōn), the Protasis has
the Ideal of the Past, after the past tense, and may have the ideal
of the Present after a primary tense.

Neque mūniṭiōnēs Caesāris prohibēre poterat, nisi proelīō dēcertāre vellet,
Caes., B.C., iii. 44. See Madvig on C., Fin., iii. 21, 70.

4. In comparing Ideal and Unreal Conditionals, exclude future verbs
such as posse, velle, etc. The future sense of such Unreal Conditionals
comes from the auxiliary.

5. In ōrātiō Oblīqua the difference between Ideal and Logical Future
is necessarily effaced, so far as the mood is concerned. (656.)

III. UNREAL CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

597. The Unreal Conditional sentence is used of that
which is Unfulfilled or Impossible, and is expressed by the
Imperfect Subjunctive for continued action—generally, in
opposition to the Present; and by the Pluperfect Subjunc-
tive—uniformly in opposition to the Past.
The notion of Impossibility comes from the irreversible character of the Past Tense. Compare the Periphrastic Conjug. Perfect and Imperfect. Any action that is decided is considered Past (compare C., Off., ii. 21, 75). (See 277, 3, n.)

**Protasis.**

Si id crederes,  
If you believed (were believing) that, [you do not.]  
Si id credidisses,  
If you had believed that, [you did not.]

**Apodosis.**

errares,  
you would be going wrong.  
erravisses,  
you would have gone wrong.

Sapientia non expeteretur, si nihil efficeret, C., Fin., i. 13. 42; wisdom would not be sought after, if it did no practical good. Caederem te, nisi irasceret, Sen., Ira, i. 15, 3; I should flog you, if I were not getting angry. Si ibi te esse scissem, ad te ipse venissem, C., Fin., i. 8; if I had known you were there, I should have come to you myself. Hectora quis nöset, félix si Tröia fuisset? Ov., Tr., iv. 3, 75; who would know (of) Hector, if Troy had been happy? Nisi ante Römä profectus essës, nunc eam certe relinquerës, C., Fam., vii. 11; if you had not departed from Rome before, you would certainly leave it now. Ego nisi peperisset, Römä non oppressetur; nisi filium habërem, libera in libera patriä mortua essem, L., ii. 40, 8; had I not become a mother, Rome would not be besieged; had I not a son, I should have died a free woman in a free land.

**Remarks.**—1. The Impf. Subjv. is sometimes used in opposition to continuance from a point in the Past into the Present. This is necessarily the case when the Protas is in the Impf., and the Apodosis in the Plpf., except when the Impf. denotes opposition to a general statement, which holds good both for Past and for Present:

Nön tam facile opès Carthäginis tantae concidissent, nisi Sicilia clâssibus nostris patëret, Cf., C., Verr., ii. 11, 1; the great resources of Carthage (Carthage with her great resources) would not have fallen so readily, if Sicily had not been (as it still continues to be) open to our fleets. Si pudörem habërës, ultimam mihi pënsionem remisissës, Sen., E.M., 29, 10; if you had (= you had not, as you have not) any delicacy, you would have let me off from the last payment. Memoriam ipsum cum vœce perdidissëmus, si tam in nostrâ potestâte esset oblivisci quam tacère, Tac., Agr., 2, 4; we should have lost memory itself, together with utterance, if it were as much in our power to forget as to keep silent.

The Impf. in both members, referring to the Past, always admits of another explanation than that of the Unreal; thus we have a case of Representation (654, n.) in

Protogenës si Íalysum illum suum caenô oblîtum vidërët, mágnum, crëddô, acciperet dolère, C., Alt., ii. 21, 1: if Protogenes could see that famous Íalysus of his besmeared with mud, he would feel a mighty pang. See Pl., Atl., 742.
2. In Unreal Conditions, after a negative Protasis, the Apodosis is sometimes expressed by the Impf. Indic., when the action is represented as interrupted (233); by the Plupf. and Hist. Pf., when the conclusion is confidently anticipated (254, r. 3).

Lābébar longius, nisi mé retinuissem, C., Leg., i. 19, 52 (254, r. 3).

This usage after a positive is cited first in the post-Augustan writers. Cases like C., Verr., v. 42, 129; L., xxii. 28. 13, do not belong here.

Omninō supervacua erat doctrina, sī nātūra sufficeret, Quint., ii. 8, 8 (254, r. 3). Perāctum erat bellum, sī Pompēium Brandisii opprimere potuisset, Flor., ii. 13. 19; the war was (had been) finished, if he had been able to crush Pompey at Brundusium.

The Impf. Indic. is sometimes found in the Protasis:

Ipsam tībī epistolam mīsissem, nisi (v.l., sed) tam subitō frātris puer proficiscēbātur, C., All., viii. 1, 2; I should have sent you the letter itself, if my brother’s servant was not starting so suddenly.

3. (a) The Indicative is the regular construction in the Apodosis with verbs which signify Possibility or Power, Obligation or Necessity—so with the active and passive Periphrastic—vix, paene, scarcely, hardly, and the like. In many cases it is difficult to distinguish this usage from that of the Ideal (596, 2).

Cōnsul esse quī potuī, nisi eum vitae cursum tenuisse? C., Rep., i. 6, 10; how could I have been consul, if I had not kept that course of life? Antōnī gladiōs potuit contemnere, sī sic omnia dixisset, Juv., x. 123; he might have despised Antony’s swords, if he had thus said all (that he did say). Ėmendātūrus, sī licuisset, eram, Ov., Tr., i. 7, 40; I should have removed the faults, if I had been free (to do it). Pōns iter paene hostibus dedit (paene dedit = dabat = datūrus erat), nī ūnus vir fuisset, L., ii. 10, 2; the bridge weil nigh gave a passage to the enemy, had it not been for one man.

(b) With the Indic. the Possibility and the rest are stated absolutely; when the Subjv. is used the Possibility and the rest are conditioned as in any other Unreal sentence.

Compare quid facere potuisset, nisi tum cōnsul fuisset, with cōnsul esse quī potuī, nisi eum vitae cursum tenuisse, C., Rep., i. 6, 10. Quī si fuisset meliorē fortūnā, fortasse austeriōr et gravior esse potuisset, C., Pis., 29, 71.

4. In Ėrātīō Obliqua the Protasis is unchanged; the Apodosis is formed by the Periphrastic Pr. and Pf. Inf. (149), for the Active, futūrum (fore) ut, futūrum fuisse ut for passive and Supineless verbs.

A. Dīcō (dixi), tē, sī id crēderēs, errātūrum esse.
B. Dīcō (dixi), tē, sī id crēdidissēs, errātūrum fuisse.
A. Dīcō (dixi), sī id crēderēs, fore ut dēciperēris.
B. Dīcō (dixi), sī id crēdidissēs, futūrum fuisse ut dēciperēris.

A is very rare; A, theoretical. For the long form, B. the simple
Perfect Infinitive is found. Examples, see 659, n. In B, fuisset is omitted occasionally in later Latin; Tac., Ann., i. 33, etc.

5. (a) When the Apodosis of an Unreal Conditional is made to depend on a sentence which requires the Subjv., the Plupf. is turned into the Periphrastic Pf. Subjv.; the Impf. form is unchanged.

\[
\begin{align*}
& \text{Non dubitó,} \quad \text{quín, si id créderês, errárês,} \\
& \text{do nót doubt,} \quad \text{that, if you believed that, you would be going wrong.} \\
& \text{Non dubitatam,} \quad \text{quín, si id crédidisse, errátoruís fuerís,} \\
& \text{I did not doubt,} \quad \text{that, if you had believed that, you would have gone wrong.}
\end{align*}
\]

Honestum tálè est ut, vel sì ignórrarent id homínês, esset laudávide, (Cf. C., Fin., ii. 15, 49; virtue is a thing to deserve praise, even if men did not know it. Ea rês tantum tumultum ác fugam praebuit ut nisi castra Púnica extrá urbem fuissent, effúsùra sè omnis pavidá multitudá fuerit, L., xxvi. 10, 7; that matter caused so much tumult and flight (= so wild a panic), that had not the Punic camp been outside the city the whole frightened multitude would have poured forth. Nec dubium erat quin, si tam paucí simul obíre omnia possent, terga daturí hostés fuerint, L., iv. 38, 5; there was no doubt that, if it had been possible for so small a number to manage everything at the same time, the enemy would have turned their backs. Dict quidnam facturus fuerís, sì òo tempore censor fuisset? L., ix. 33, 7; tell (me) what you would have done, if you had been censor at that time? See C., Pis., 7, 14.

(b) The Periphrastic Plupf. Subjv. occurs rarely, and then only in the Dependent Interrogative. The only examples cited are from Livy.

Subibat cógitátió animum, quónam modó tolerábilis futúra Étrúria fuisset si quid in Samnìo adversi événisset, L., x. 45, 3.

(c) Potui (254, r. 1) commonly becomes potuerim, and fuí with the Periphrastic passive in -dus becomes fuerim, after all tenses.

Haud dubium fuit quin, nisi ea mora interívenisset, castra eó dié Púnica capi potuerint, L., xxiv. 42, 3; there was no doubt that, had not that delay interfered, the Punic camp could have been taken on that day. Quae (rês) suá sponte nefástia est ut etiamí lèx non esset, màgnopere vitanda fuerit, (C., Verr., i. 42, 108.

(d) The passive Conditional is unchanged:

\[
\text{Id ille si repudiásset, dubitátis quin ei vis esset alláta? C., Sesl., 29, 62; if he had rejected that, do you doubt that force would have been brought (to bear) on him?}
\]

The active form is rarely unchanged (L., ii. 33, 9). In the absence of the Periphrastic tense the Inf. with potuerim is often a sufficient substitute; see L., xxxii. 28, 6.

**Note.**—In Plautus and Terence, absque with the Abl. and esset (foret) is found a few times instead of nisi (sí nón) with Nom., and esset (fuisset) in the sense if it were not (had not been) for.

Nam absque tê esset, hodié numquam ad sôlem occásum vîverem, Pl., Men., 1022. (Cf. Liv., ii. 10, 2 (r. 3, above).
INCOMPLETE CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

598. Omission of the Conditional Sign.—Occasionally the members of a Conditional sentence are put side by side without a Conditional sign.

An ille mīhi (351) liber, cuī mulier imperat? pōsit, dandum est; vocat, veniendum est; cīcit, abeundum; minātur, extimescendum, C., Parad., 5, 2; or is he free (tell) me, to whom a woman gives orders? she asks, he must give; she calls, he must come; she turns out (of door), he must go; she threatens, he must be frightened. Únum cōgnōrīs, omnis nōrīs, Ter., Ph., 265; you know one, you know all. Dedissēs hūic animō pār corpus, fēcisset quod optābat, Plin., Ep., i. 12, 8; had you given him a body that was a match for his spirit, he would have accomplished what he desired.

599. Omission of the Verb of the Protasis.—When the verb of the Protasis is omitted, either the precise form or the general idea of the verb is to be supplied from the Apodosis.

Si quisquam (= sī quisquam fuit), Catō sapiēns fuit, Cf. C., Lael., 2, 9; if any one was wise, Catō was. Edūc tēcum omnēs tuōs; sī minus, quam plūrimōs, C., Cat., i. 5, 10 (592, r. 1).

600. Total Omission of the Protasis.—1. The Protasis is often contained in a participle or involved in the context; for examples see 593, 2 and 3.

2. The Potential Subjunctive is sometimes mechanically explained by the omission of an indefinite Protasis (257, n. 2).

Nīmiō plūs quam velim [Volscōrum] ingeniā sunt mōbilia, L., ii. 37, 4; the dispositions of the Volscians are (too) much more unstable than I should like. Tuam mīhi dāri vellem eloquentiam, C., N.D., ii. 59, 147; I could wish to have your eloquence given me. Tam fēlix essēs quam formōssissima vellem, Ov., Am., i. 8, 27 (302). (Utinam essēs!)

601. Omission and InvoluItion of the Apodosis.—The Apodosis is omitted in Wishes (261), and implied after verbs and phrases denoting Trial (460; 2). It is often involved in Ōrātiō Obliqua, and sometimes consists in the general notion of Result, Ascertainment, or the like.

Sī vērum excutiās, faciēs nōn uxōr amātur, Juv., vi. 143; if you were to get out the truth (you would find that) it is the face, not the wife, that
is loved. (Iugurtha) timēbat fram (= nē irāscerētur) senātus, nī pāruisset légātis, S., Ing. 25, 7; Iugurtha was afraid of the anger of the senate (that the senate would get angry) in case he did not (should not have) obey(ed) the legates.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES OF COMPARISON.

602. The Apodosis is omitted in comparisons with ut sī, velut sī, āc sī, quam sī (rare), tamquam sī, quasi, or simply velut and tamquam, as if.

The verb is to be supplied from the Protasis, as is common in correlative sentences. The Mood is the Subjunctive.

The tenses follow the rule of sequence, rather than the ordinary use of the conditional. In English, the translation implies the unreality of the comparison.

Nōlī timēre quasi [= quam timeās sī] assem elephantō dēs, Quint., vi. 3, 59; don't be afraid, as if you were giving a penny to an elephant. Parvī prīmō ortū sic iacent tamquam [= iaceant sī] omnīnō sine animō sint, C., Fin., v. 15, 42; babies, when first born, lie (there), as if they had no mind at all. Hic est obstandum, militēs, velut sī ante Rōmāna moenia pūgnāmus, L., xxi. 41, 15; here (is where) we must oppose them, soldiers, as if we were fighting before the walls of Rome (velut obstēmus, sī pūgnāmus, as we would oppose them, if we were to fight). Mē iuvat, velut ipse in parte labōris āc periculī fuerim, ad finem bellī Pūnicī pervēnisse, L., xxxi. 1; I am delighted to have reached the end of the Punic war, as if I had shared in the toil and danger (of it). Tantus patrēs metus cēpit velut si iam ad portās hostis esset, L., xxi. 16, 2; a great fear took hold of the senators, as if the enemy were already at their gates. Dēlēta (est) Ausonum gens perinde āc sī interneceō bellō certāsset, L., ix. 25, 9: the Ausonian race was blotted out, just as if it had engaged in an internecine war (war to the knife).

Remarks.—1. Occasionally the sequence is violated out of regard to the Conditional:

Massīliēnsēs in eō honōre audīmus apud [Rōmānōs] esse āc sī medium umbilicum Graeciae incolerent, L., xxxvii. 54, 21: we hear that the people of Marseilles are in as high honor with the Romans as if they inhabited the mid-navel (= the heart) of Greece. Eius negotium sic velim suscipiās, ut sī esset rēs mea, C., Fam., ii. 14, 1: I wish you would undertake his business just as if it were my affair.

2. The principal clause often contains correlative, as: ita, sic, perinde, proinde, similiter, nōn (haud) secus, etc.

Notes.—1. Tamquam and quasi are also used in direct comparison with the Indic-
Concessive Sentences.

1. The Conditional particles, etsi, etiamsi, tametsi (tamen-etsi).
2. The generic relative, quamquam.
3. The compounds, quamvis, quantumvis.
4. The verb licet.
5. The Final particles, ut (nē).
6. Cum (quom).

These all answer generally to the notion although.

Note.—Etsi (et + si), even if; etiamsi, even now if; tametsi, yet even if; quamquam (quam + quam), to what extent soever; quamvis, to what extent you choose; quantumvis, to what amount you choose; licet, it is left free (perhaps intrans. of lingūō, I leave).

604. Etsi, etiamsi, and tametsi, take the Indicative or Subjunctive, according to the general principles which regulate
the use of si, if. The Indicative is more common, especially with etsi.

De futūris rebus etsi semper difficile est dicere, tamen interdum connectūrā possis accédere, C., Fam., vi. 4, 1; although it is always difficult to tell about the future, nevertheless you can sometimes come near it by guessing. [Hamilcar] etsi flagrābat bellandi cupiditāte, tamen pāci servium dum putāvit, Nep., xxii. 1, 3; although Hamilcar was on fire with the desire of war, nevertheless he thought that he ought to subserv (to work for) peace. Inops ille etiam referre grātiam nōn potest, habēre certē potest, C., Off., ii. 20, 69; the needy man (spoken of), if he cannot return a favor, can at least feel it. Mē vérā prō grātis loqui, etsi meum ingeniūn nōn monēret, necessitās cōgit, L., iii. 68, 9; even if my disposition did not bid me, necessity compels me to speak what is true instead of what is palatable.

Remarks.—1. Si itself is often concessive (591, 2), and the addition of et, etiam, and tamen serves merely to fix the idea.

2. Etiam etiam is used oftener with the Subjv. than with the Indic., and seems to be found only in conditional sentences. On the other hand, etsi is also used like quamquam (605, r. 2), in the sense “and yet;” virtūtem si ūnam āmissēris—etsi āmittī nōn potest virtūs, C., Tusc., ii. 14, 32; so too, but rarely, tametsi. etsi is a favorite word with Cicero, but does not occur in Quintilian nor in Sallust, the latter of whom prefers tametsi. Tametsi is not found in the Augustan poets nor in Tacitus, and belongs especially to familiar speech.

3. Tamen is often correlative even with tametsi.

605. Quamquam, to what extent soever, falls under the head of generic relatives (254, r. 4), and, in the best authors, is construed with the Indicative.

Medici quamquam intellegunt saepe, tamen numquam aegris dicunt, illo morbō eōs esse moritūrōs, C., Div., ii. 25, 54: although physicians often know, nevertheless they never tell their patients that they will die of that (particular) disease.

Remarks.—1. The Potential Subjv. (257, x. 3) is sometimes found with quamquam: Quamquam exercitum qui in Volscis erat māllet, nihil recusāvit, L., vi. 9, 6; although he might well have preferred the army which was in the Volscian country, nevertheless he made no objection.

So especially with the Ideal Second Person.

2. Quamquam is often used like etsi, but more frequently, at the beginning of sentences, in the same way as the English, and yet, although, however, in order to limit the whole preceding sentence.

3. The Indic., with etsi and quamquam, is, of course, liable to attraction into the Subjv. in Ōrātiō Obliqua (508).
CONCESSIONE SENTENCES.

Note.—The Subjv. with quamquam (not due to attraction) is first cited from Cicero (perhaps Tusc., v. 30, 85), Nepos (XXV. 13, 6), after which, following the development in all generic sentences in Latin, it becomes more and more common; thus, in post-Augustan Latin, Juvenal uses it exclusively, and Pliny Min. and Tacitus regularly.

606. Quamvis follows the analogy of volō, I will, with which it is compounded, and takes the Subjunctive (usually the principal tenses).

Quantumvis and quamlibet (as conjunctions) belong to poetry and silver prose.

Quamvis sint sub aquā, sub aquā maledicere temptant, Ov., M., vi. 376; although they be under the water, under the water they try to revile. Quamvis ille niger, quamvis tū candidūs essēs, V., Ec., ii. 16; although he was black, although you were fair. [Vitia mentis], quamvis exigua sint, in māius excēdunt, Sen., E.M., 85, 12; mental ailments (= passions), no matter how slight they be, go on increasing. Quamvis sis molestus numquam tē esse confitēbor malum, C., Tusc., ii. 25, 61; although you be troublesome, I shall never confess that you are an evil.

Notes.—1. The Indic. with quamvis is cited in prose first from C., Rab. Post., 2, 4; Nep., i. 2, 3 (except in fragments of Varro and Vatinius); in poetry it appears first in Lucretius. Then it grows, so that in the post-Augustan period it is used just like quamquam with the Indic., though the Subjv. is also common:

Quamvis ingenīō nōn valet, arte valet, Ov., Am., i. 15, 14; although he does not tell by genius, he does tell by art.

2. The verb of quamvis is sometimes inflected: Quam volet Epicūrus iocētur, tamen numquam mē movēbit, C., N.D., ii. 17, 46.

607. Licet retains its verbal nature, and, according to the Sequence of Tenses, takes only the Present and Perfect Subjunctive:

Līcet irritēat sī qui vult, C., Parad., i. 1, 8; let any one laugh who will. Ārēat ipsa licet, tormentīs gaudet amantis, Juv., vi. 209; though she herself is aglow, she rejoices in the tortures of her lover. Sim licet extrēmum, sicut sum, missus in orbem, Ov., Tr., iv. 9, 9; although I be sent, as I have been, to the end of the world.

Notes.—1. Exceptions are extremely rare: Juv., xiii. 56.

2. Quamvis is sometimes combined with licet, as: quamvis licet insectēmur istōs—metuō nē sōlī philosophi sint, C., Tusc., iv. 24, 53.

3. Occasionally licet is inflected; e.g., ii., Epod., 15, 19; S., ii. 1, 59. From the time of Apuleius licet is construed with the Indicative.

608. Ut and nē are also used concessively for the sake of argument; this is common in Cicero, who often attaches to it sānē; the basis of this is the Imperative Subjunctive.

Ut dēsint virēs, tamen est laudanda voluntās, Ov., Pont., iii. 4, 79;
granted that strength be lacking, nevertheless you must praise (my) good will. \(\text{Né sit summum malum dolor, malum certè est}, \ C., \ Tusc., 11. 5, 14;\) granted that pain be not the chief evil, an evil it certainly is.

Remarks.—1. \(\text{Ut nón can be used on the principle of the Specific Negative: Hic dies ultimus est; ut nón sit, prope ab último est, Sen., E.M., 15, 12; this is your last day; granted that it be not, it is near the last.}\)

2. Examples with past tenses are rare: \(C., \ Mil., 17, 46; \ L., \ xxxviii. 46, 3, \text{etc}.\)

3. On \text{ita—ut, see} 262; on \text{ut—ita, see} 482. 4.

609. Concessive Sentence represented by a Participle or Predicative Attribute.—The Concessive sentence may be represented by a Participle or Predicative Attribute.

[\text{Risus}] \text{interdum ita repente erumpit, ut eum cupientēs tenēre nequeāmus, Cf. C., Or., 11. 58, 235; laughter between whiles (occasionally) breaks out so suddenly that we cannot keep it down, although we desire to do so.}\)

\text{Multōrum tē oculi et aurēs nón sentientem custōdient, C., Cat., 1. 2, 6; (of) many (the) eyes and ears will keep guard over you, though you perceive it not (without your perceiving it).}\ \text{Quis Aristidem nón mortuum diligent? C., Fin., v. 22, 62; who does not love Aristides, (though) dead?}

Notes.—1. \text{Quamquam, quamvis, and etsī are often combined with the participle. This, however, is rare in classical Latin, but becomes more common later.}\)

(\text{Caesar), quamquam obsidīōne Massiliae retardante, brevī tamen omnia subēgit, Suēt. \text{Jut.}, 34.}\)

2. With adjectives and adverbs this is much more common, so especially with \text{quamvis}, which is used with a positive as a circumlocution for the superlative. With \text{the superlative quamvis} is rare.

\text{Etsī nón iniquum, certē triste senātūs cōnsultum, L., xxv. 6, 2. Cum omnia per populum geruntur, quamvis iūstum atque moderātum tamen ipsa aequābilitās est iniqua, C., \text{Rep.}, 1. 27, 43.}

### RELATIVE SENTENCES.

610. The Latin language uses the relative construction far more than the English: so in the beginning of sentences, and in combination with Conjunctions and other Relatives.

Remarks.—1. The awkwardness, or impossibility, of a literal translation may generally be relieved by the substitution of a demonstrative with an appropriate conjunction, or the employment of an abstract noun:

\text{Quae cum ita sint, now since these things are so (Ciceronian formula).}

\text{Futūra modo exspectant; quae quia certa esse nón possunt, cōnfiniuntur et angōre et metū, C., Fin., 1. 13, 60: they only look forward to the future; and because that cannot be certain, they wear themselves out}
with distress and fear. [Epicurus] non satis politus ipsis artibus quas qui tenent, eruditi appellantur, C., Fin., i. 7. 26; Epicurus is not sufficiently polished by those accomplishments, from the possession of which people are called cultivated.

2. Notice especially quod in combination with si and its compounds ubi, quia, quoniam, ut (poetic and post-class.), utinam, ne, utinam ne, qui (rare), in which quod means and as for that, and is sometimes translated by and, but, therefore, whereas, sometimes not at all.

Quod si fuisset incogitans ita eum expectarem ut par fuit, Ter., Ph., 155; whereas, had I not been heedless, I should be awaiting him in proper mood.

Notes.—1. The use of the Relative to connect two independent clauses instead of a demonstrative, is very rare in Plautus, more common in Terence, but fully developed only in the classical period.

2. The Relative is the fertile source of many of the introductory particles of the compound sentence (quom, quia, quoniam, compounds of quam, ut, ubi, etc.), and is therefore treated last on account of the multiplicity of its uses.

611. Relative sentences are introduced by the Relative pronouns in all their forms: adjective, substantive, and adverbiai. (See Tables 109 foll.)

Remarks.—1. The Relative adverbs of Place, and their correlativeis, may be used instead of a preposition with a Relative. Unde, whence, is frequently used of persons, but the others rarely; occasional examples are cited for ubi and quod, the others less frequently: ubi = in eō, etc.; ubi = in quod, etc.; unde = ex eō, etc.; unde = ex quod, etc.; eō = in eum, etc.; quod = in quem, etc.

Potest fieri ut is, unde tē audisses dicis, irātus dixerit, C., Or., ii. 70, 285; it may be that he, from whom you say you heard (it), said it in anger. Quod (= quibus) lubeat nūabant, dum dos nē fiat comes, Pl., Aul., 491 (573).

2. The Relative is not to be confounded with the Dependent Interrogative sentence (467, r. 2).

Quae probat populus ego nesciō, Sen., E. M., 29, 10; the things that the people approves, I do not know (quid probet, what it is the people approves). Et quid ego tē velim, et tē quod quaeris, sciēs, Ter., And., 536; you shall know both what (it is) I want of you, and what (the thing which) you are asking (= the answer to your question).

612. Position of Relatives.—The Relative and Relative forms are put at the beginning of sentences and clauses. The preposition, however, generally, though not invariably, precedes its Relative (413).

613. Antecedent.—The word to which the Relative refers
is called the Antecedent, because it precedes in thought even when it does not in expression.

Remark.—The close connection between Relative and Antecedent is shown by the frequent use of one preposition in common (414, r. 1).

CONCORD.

614. The Relative agrees with its Antecedent in Gender, Number, and Person.

Is minimō eget mortālis, qui minimum cupit, Syrus, 286 (Fr.) (308). Uxor contenta est quae bona est ēnō virō, Pl., Merc., 812; a wife who is good is contented with one husband. Malum est cōnsilium quod mūtāri nōn potest, Syrus, 362 (Fr.); but is the plan that cannot (let itself) be changed. Hōc illi s narrō quī mē nōn intellegunt, Phaedr., 3. 128; I tell this tale for those who understand me not. Ego qui tē confirmō, ipse mē nōn possum, C., Fam., xiv. 4, 5; I who reassure you, cannot reassure myself.

Remarks.—1. The Relative agrees with the Person of the true Antecedent, even when a predicate intervenes; exceptions are very rare:

Tū es is, qui (mē) summūs laudibus ad caelum extulisti, C., Fam., xv. 4, 11; you are he that has(t) praised me to the skies.

The Latin rule is the English exception: Acts, xxii. 38; Luke, xvi. 15.

2. When the Relative refers to a sentence, id quod, that which, is commonly used (parenthetically). So also quae rēs, or simple quod, and, if reference is made to a single substantive, is qui or some similar form.

Si ā vōbīs id quod nōn spērō dēserar, tamen animō nōn dēficiam, C., Rosc. Am., 4, 10; if I should be deserted by you (which I do not expect), nevertheless I should not become faint-hearted. Nec audiendus [Theophrasti] auditor, Stratō, is qui physicus appellātur, C., N. D., 1. 13, 35.

3. The gender and number of the Relative may be determined:

(a) By the sense, and not by the form; that is, a collective noun may be followed by a Plural Relative, a neuter numeral by a masculine Relative, a possessive pronoun by a Relative in the person indicated by the possessive, etc.

Caesa sunt ad sex mīlia qui Pydna perfugiērant, L., xliv. 42, 7; there were slain up to six thousand who had fled to Pydna. Equitātum omnem praemittit, qui videant, Caes., B. G., 1. 15; he sent all the cavalry ahead, who should see (that they might see, to see).

(b) By the predicate or the apposition, and not by the antecedent; so especially when the Relative is combined with the copula or with a copulative verb.

Thēbae, quod Boeōtiae caput est, l., xlii. 44. 3: Thebes, which is the capital of Bocotia. Flūmen Scaldis, quod infulit in Mosam, Caes., B. G.,
vi. 33, 3; the river Scheldt, which empties into the Maas. Iūsta glōria, qui est fructus virtūtis, C., Pis., 24, 57; real glory, which is the fruit of virtue.

Exceptions are not unfrequent, especially when the predicative substantive in the Relative clause is a foreign word or a proper name.

Stellae quās Graeci comētās vocant, C., N. D., ii. 5, 14: the stars which the Greeks call comets. Est genus quoddam hominum quod Helōtæ vocātur, Nep., iv. 3, 6; there is a certain class of men called Helots.

4. The pronominal apposition may be taken up into the Relative and disappear:

Tēstārum suffrāgiīs quod illi ostracismum vocant, Nep., v. 3, 1; by pot-sherd votes—(a thing) which they call "ostracism."

5. When the Relative refers to the combined antecedents of different gender, the strongest gender is preferred, according to 286:

Grandēs nātū mātres et parvī liberi, quōrum utrumque actās misericordiam vestram requirīt, C., Verr., v. 49, 129: aged matrons and infant children, whose age on either hand demands your compassion. Ōtium atīnum divitiae, quae prima mortālēs putant, S., C., 36, 4; leisure and money, which mortals reckon as the prime things.

Or, the nearest gender may be preferred:

Eae frūgēs atque fructūs quōs terra gignit, C., N. D., ii. 14, 37; those fruits of field and tree which earth bears.

6. Combined Persons follow the rule, 287.

Note.—A noteworthy peculiarity is found in early Latin, where a generic Relative sentence with quī is made the subject of an abstract substantive with est, and represented by a demonstrative in agreement with that substantive.

Istaec virtūs est, quandō ēsus, quī malum fert fortiter, Pl., Asin., 323; that's manhood who (if one) bears evil bravely, when there's need.

The parallel Greek construction suggests Greek influence.

615. Repetition of the Antecedent.—The Antecedent of the Relative is not seldom repeated in the Relative clause, with the Relative as its attributive.

(Caesar) intellēxit diem instāre, quō die frumentum militibus mētiri oportēret, Caes., B. G., 1. 16, 5; Caesar saw that the day was at hand, on which day it behooved to measure corn (corn was to be measured out) to the soldiers.

Note.—This usage belongs to the formal style of government and law. Caesar is very fond of it, especially with the word die. It is occasional in Plautus and Terence, and not uncommon in Cicero; but after Cicero it fades out, being found but rarely in Livy, and only here and there later.

616. Incorporation of the Antecedent.—1. The Antecedent substantive is often incorporated into the Relative
clause; sometimes there is a demonstrative antecedent, sometimes not.

In quem primum ēgressī sunt locum Trōia vocātur, L., I. 1, 3; the first place they landed at was called Troy. Quam quisque nōrit artem, in ēāc sē exerceat, [C.], Tusc., I. 18, 41; what trade each man is master of, (in) that let him practisē (hīmselīf), that let him ply.

Notes.—1. Incorporation, while much less frequent than Repetition, is still not unfrequently met with in Livy; after Livy it decays. No examples are cited from Sallust with a demonstrative antecedent, and but one from Caesar. No example is cited from Caesar without a demonstrative antecedent.

2. Instead of a principal clause, followed by a consecutive clause, the structure is sometimes reversed. What would have been the dependent clause becomes the principal clause, and an incorporated explanatory Relative takes the place of the demonstrative. This is confined to certain substantives, and is found a number of times in Cicero, but rarely elsewhere (Sall., Hor., Livy, Ovid, Sen., Tac., Pliny Min.).

Quā enim prūdentīā es, nihil tē fugiet (= eā prūdentīā es, ut nihil tē fugiat), C., Fam., XI. 13, 1. Velis tantummodo; quae tua virtūs est), expūgnābis, II., S. IV. 9, 54.

2. An appositional substantive, from which a Relative clause depends, is regularly incorporated into the Relative clause.

[Amānus] Syriam ā Ciliciā dividit, qui mōns erat hostium plēnus, C., Att., V. 20, 3; Syria is divided from Cilicia by Amānus, a mountain which was full of enemies = the enemy.

Note.—This usage is found first in Cicero. The normal English position is found first in Livy, but it becomes more common in later Latin.

Priscus, vir cūius prōvidentiam in rē pūblicā ante experta cīvitās erat, L., IV. 45, 10.

3. Adjectives, especially superlatives, are sometimes transferred from the substantive in the principal clause and made to agree with the Relative in the Relative clause.

[Themistoclēs] dē servīs suis quem habuit fidēlissimum ad rēgem mīsit, Nēp., II. 4, 3; Themistocles sent the most faithful slave he had to the king. Nēmini crēdō, quī largē blandust dives pauperī, Pl., Aul., 196; I trust no rich man who is lavishly kind to a poor man.

617. Attraction of the Relative.—The Accusative of the Relative is occasionally attracted into the Ablative of the antecedent, rarely into any other case.

Hōc cōnfirmāmus illō auguriō quō diximus, C., Att., X. 8, 7; we confirm this by the augury which we mentioned.

Notes.—1. This attraction takes place chiefly when the verb of the Relative clause must be supplied from the principal sentence; that is, with auxiliary verbs like velle, solēre, iubēre; and after verbs of Saying and the like.
It is rare in early Latin, but common from Cicero on.

Quibus poterat sauciis ductis sècum ad urbem pergit, L., iv. 39, 9; having taken with him all the wounded he could, he proceeded to the city.

2. Inverted Attraction.—So-called Inverted Attraction is found only in poetry, and then usually in the Acc., which may be considered as an object of thought or feeling.

This Acc. stands usually for a Nom., sometimes, but only in Comedy, for the Gen. Dat. or Abl. A strange usage is the Nom. where the Acc. would be expected. This may be nominativus pendens, a form of anacoluthon (697), and is found only in early Latin.

Urbem quam statuò, vestra est, V., A., i. 573; (as for) the city which I am rearing, (it) is yours. Istum quem quaeris, ego sum, Pl., Curc., 419; (as for) that man whom you are looking for, I am he. Ille qui mandāvit eum exturbāsti ex aedibus? Pl., Trin., 137. ("He that hath ears to hear, let him hear."

618. Correlative Use of the Relative.—The usual Correlative of qui is is, more rarely hic, ille.

Is minimō eget mortālis, qui minimum cupid, Syrus, 286 (Fr.) (608).
Hic sapiens, de quo loquor, C., Ac., ii. 33, 105 (305, 3). Illa dies veniet, mea quā lugubria pōnām, Ov., Tr., iv. 2, 73 (307, 4).

619. Absorption of the Correlative.—The Correlative, is, is often absorbed, especially when it would stand in the same case as the Relative. This is a kind of Incorporation.

Postume, nōn bene olet, qui bene semper olet, Mart., ii. 12, 4; Postumus, (he) smells not sweet, who always smells sweet. Quem arma nōn frēgerant vitia vicērunt, Curti, vi. 2, 1; (him) whom arms had not crushed did vices overcome. Quem dī diligunt adulēscēns moritur, Pl., B., 816; (he) whom the gods love dies young. Xerxes praemium prōposuit qui [= ei qui] invenisset novam voluptātem, C., Tusc., v. 7, 20; Xerxes offered a reward to him who should invent a new pleasure. Missenda vita qui [= eorum qui] sē metuī quam amāri mālunt, Nep., x. 9, 5: pitiable is the life of those who would prefer being feared to being loved. Discite sānāri per quem [= per eum, per quem] didicitis amāre, Ov., Rem. Am., 43 (401).

Difficult and rare are cases like:

Nunc redeō ad quae (for ad ea quae) mihi mandās, C., Att., v. ii, 6.

620. Position of the Correlative clause.—The Relative clause naturally follows its Correlative, but it often precedes; incorporation also is common.

Male sē rēs habet cum quod virtūte effici dēbet id temptātur pecūnīā, C., Off., ii. 6. 22; it is a bad state of affairs when what ought to be accomplished by worth, is attempted by money. Quod vidēs accidere puēris hoc nobis quoque māiusculis puēris ēvenit, Sen., E.M., 24. 13: what you see befall children (this) happens to us also, children of a larger growth. Quam quisque nōrit artem, in hāc sē exerceat, [C.], Tusc., i. 18, 41 (616, 1).
The Correlative absorbed:

Quod non dedit fortūna, nōn ēripit, Sen., E.M., 59, 18; what fortune has not given (does not give), she does not take away. Per quās nōs petitis saepe fugātīs opēs, Ov., A.A., III. 132; the means you take to win us often scate us off.

621. Indefinite Antecedent.—The Indefinite Antecedent is generally omitted.

Ēlige cui dicās: tū mihi sōla placēs, Ov., A.A., 1. 42; choose some one to whom you may say: You alone please me.

Remark.—Such sentences are sometimes hardly to be distinguished from the Interrogative: [Conōn] nōn quaesivit ubi ipse tūtō viveret, Nep., ix. 2, 1; Conōn did not seek a place to live in safely himself, might be either Relative or Deliberative (265).

TENSES IN RELATIVE SENTENCES.

622. Future and Future Perfect.—The Future and Future Perfect are used with greater exactness than in current English (242, 244).

Sit liber, dominus qui volēt esse meus, Mart., ii. 32, 8; he must be free who wishes (shall wish) to be my master. Quī prior strinxerit ferrum, ēius victōria exit, Liv. (244, r. 2).

623. Iterative Action.—Relative sentences follow the laws laid down for Iterative action (566, 567).

I. Contemporaneous action:

Ōre trahit quocumque potest, atque addit acervō, II., S., i. 1, 34: drags with its mouth whatever it can, and adds to the treasure (heap). Quācumque incēdēbat āgmen, lēgātī occurrebant, L., XXXIV. 16, 6: in whatever direction the column advanced, ambassadors came to meet them.

II. Prior action:

[Terra] numquam sine usūrā reddit, quod accēpit, C., Cat. M., 15. 51; the earth never returns without interest what it has received (receives). Quod nōn dedit fortūna, nōn ēripit, Sen., E. M., 59, 18 (620). Nōn cēnāt quotiēns nēmo vocāvit eum, Mart., v. 47. 2; he does not dine as often as (when) no one has invited (invites) him. Haerēbant in memorīa quae cumque audierat et viderat [Themistocles], C., Ac., ii. 1, 2 (567). Sequentur tē quocumque pervēnēris vitia, Sen., E. M., 28. 1; vices will follow you whithersoever you go. Quī timēre désierint, ōdīsse incipient, Tac., Agr., 32 (567).

Remark.—On the Subjv. in Iterative Sentences, see 567, x.
Moods in Relative Sentences.

624. The Relative clause, as such—that is, as the representative of an adjective—takes the Indicative mood.

Uxor quae bona est, Pl., Merc., 812; a wife who is good (a good wife).

Remark.—The Relative in this use often serves as a circumlocution for a substantive, with this difference: that the substantive expresses a permanent relation; the Relative clause, a transient relation: if qui docent = those who teach = the teachers (inasmuch as they are exercising the functions). On the Relative with Subjv. after an adj. clause, see 438, r.

625. Indefinite and Generic Relatives.—1. Quicumque, quisquis, and the like, being essentially Iterative Relatives, take the Indicative according to the principles of Iterative action (254, r. 4). So also simple Relatives when similarly used.

Quicumque incēdebat āgmen, lēgāti occurrēbant, Liv., xxxiv. 16, 6 (623).

Remark.—According to 567, n., the Subjv. is used:
(1) In ὅρατῳ Obliqua (Total or Partial):
Mārti Galli quae bellō cēperint (Pl. Subjv.) dēvoent (= sē dāturōs vovent), Cf. Caes., B. G., vi. 17, 3; the Gauls devote (promise to give) to Mars whatever they (shall) take in war (Ō. R., Quae cēperimus, dabimus).
(2) By Attraction of Mood (Complementary Clauses):
(3) In the Ideal Second Person:
Bonus sēgnior fit ubi neglegās, S., Iug., 31, 28 (566).
(4) By the spread of the Subjv. in post-classical Latin:
Quī ūnum ēius ōrdinis offendisset omnēs adversōs habēbat, L., xxxiii. 46, 1 (567).

2. Quī = sī quis, if any, has the Indicative when the Condition is Logical.


Remark.—When the Condition is Ideal, the Subjv. is necessary (596). In post-classical Latin the Subjv. is the rule with all conditionals.

626. Explanatory Relative.—Quī, with the Indicative (= is enim, for he), often approaches quod, in that.

Habeō senectūtī māgnam grātiam, quae mīhī sērmōnis aviditātem
auxit, C., Cat. M. 14, 46; I am very thankful to old age, which (for it, in that it) has increased me (= in me) the appetite for talk.

Remark.—Quí with the Subjv. gives a ground, = cum is (586): quí with the Indic., a fact; and in many passages the causal sense seems to be inevitable:

Insanít hic quidem, quí ipse male dicit sibi, Pl., Men., 309: cracked is this man, who calls (= for calling) down curses on himself. Erráverim fortasse quí mē aliquid putávi, Plin., Ep., 1. 23, 2: I may have erred in thinking myself to be something.

Notes.—1. This causal sense is heightened by ut, utpote, as: quippe, namely. Ut quí is rare in early Latin, Caesar, and Cicero, and is not found at all in Terence and Sallust. Livy, however, is fond of it. The mood is everywhere the Subjunctive. Utpote is found only here and there in Latin, and not at all in Terence, Caesar, Livy; but once in Plautus. The mood is the Subjv. until late Latin. Quippe quí is the most common of the three, but does not occur in Caesar. In early Latin the mood is the Indic. (except Pl., Pers., 699); also in Sallust. Cicero uses the Subjv.; Livy uses both moods; later the Subjv. is the rule until the time of Apuleius.

2. Simple Explanatory quí has the Indic. most commonly in early Latin, and in general develops on the same line that cum follows.

627. The Subjunctive is employed in Relative clauses when it would be used in a simple sentence.

Potential: Habeó quaæ velim, C., Fin., 1. 8, 28: I have what I should like.

Optative: Quod faustum sit, rēgem creāte, L., 1. 17. 10; blessing be on your choice, make ye a king.

Remarks.—1. Especially to be noted is the Subjv. in restrictive phrases. Here the Relative often takes quidem, sometimes modo.

The early Latin shows only quod sciam (as if dum aliquid sciam), so far as I may be permitted to know something about it (= quantum scio, as far as I know, for all I know), which is used throughout the language, and quod quidem veniat in mentem (Pl., Ep., 63). Cicero, however, shows a great variety. Quantum sciam is found first in Quintilian.

Omnium òratòrum quós quidem cognōverim acûtissimum iūdicō Sertòrium, C., Br., 48. 180; of all orators, so far as I know them, I consider Sertorius the most acute. Nūllum òrnātum quí modo nōn obscūret subtrahendum putō, Quint., v. 14, 33: I think no ornament is to be withdrawn, provided that it do not cause obscurity.

2. Restrictions involving esse, posse, attinet, are regularly in the Indicative. Cicero and Caesar, however, show a very few cases of the Subjv., especially with possis.

Prōdidisti et tē et illam, quod quidem in tē fuit, Ter., Ad., 692: you have betrayed both her and yourself, so far as in you lay. Ego quod ad mē attinet, iūdīcēs, vīci, C., Verr., II. 1. 8, 21; I, judges, so far as pertains to me, have conquered.
628. The Subjunctive is used in Relative clauses which form a part of the utterance or the view of another than the narrator, or of the narrator himself when indirectly quoted (539, r.). So especially in Ōrātiō Obliqua and Final Sentences.

Rēctē Graeci praecipiunt, nōn temptanda quae effici nōn possint, QUINT., iv. 5, 17; right are the Greeks in teaching that those things are not to be attempted which cannot be accomplished. Apud Hypanim fluvium Aristotelēs ait, bēstiolās quāsdam nāsci quae ēnum diem vivant, C., Tusc., i. 39, 94 (650). Virtūs facit ut eōs diligamus in quibus ipsa inesse videātur, C., Off., i. 17, 56; virtue makes us love those in whom she seems to reside. Pōstulātur ab hominibus ut ab iis sē abstineant māximē vītiōs, in quibus alterum reprehenderint, C., Verr., iii. 2. 4: it is demanded of men that they refrain from those faults most of all as to which they have blamed another. Senātus cēnsuit utī quicumque Galliam provinciam obtinēret, Haeduōs dēfenderet, CAES., B.G., i. 35: the senate decreed that whoever obtained Gaul as his province should defend the Haeduī. Paetus omnēs librōs quōs frāter suōs reliquiisset mīhi dōnāvit, C., Att., ii. 1. 12; (this is Paetus’ statement; otherwise: quōs frāter ēlius (521) reliquīt; compare C., Att., i. 20. 7). Xerxēs praemium prōposuit quī [= ei qui] invēnisset novam voluptātem, C., Tusc., v. 7, 20 (619).

REMARK.—Even in Ōrātiō Obliqua the Indic. is retained:
(a) In explanations of the narrator:
Nūntiātur Afrāniō māgnōs commeātūs qui iter habēbant ad Caesarem ad dūmen cōnstitisse, CAES., B.C., i. 51. 1; it is (was) announced to Aframus that large supplies of provisions (which were on their way to Caesar) had halted at the river.

In the historians this sometimes occurs where the Relative clause is an integral part of the sentence, especially in the Impf. and Pluperfect; partly for clearness, partly for liveliness. For shifting Indic. and Subjv., see L., xxvi. 1.

(b) In mere circumlocutions:
Quīs neget haec omnīa quae vidēmus deōrum potestāte administrāri? Cf. C., Cat., iii. 9, 21; who would deny that this whole visible world is managed by the power of the gods? Prōvidendum est nē quae dicuntur ab eō qui dicit dissentiant, QUINT., III. 8, 48; we must see to it that the speech be not out of keeping with the speaker.

629. Relative sentences which depend on Infinitives and Subjunctives, and form an integral part of the thought, are put in the Subjunctive (Attraction of Mood).

Pigri est ingenii contentum esse iīs quae sint ab aliis inventa, QUINT., X.
2, 4; it is the mark of a slow genius to be content with what has been found out by others. Quis aut eum diligat quem metuat aut eum a quò sé metui putet? C., Lael., 15, 53: who could love a man whom he fears, or by whom he deems himself feared? Nam quod emās possis iūre vocāre tuum, Mart., 11, 20, 2: for what you buy you may rightly call your own. Ab aliō expectēs alteri quod feceris, Syrus, 2 (Fr.) (319). In virtūte sunt multī ascēnsūs, ut is glōriā mximum excellat, qui virtūte plūrimum praestet, C., Planc., 25, 60 (552). Si sōlōs eōs dicerēs miserōs quibus moriendum esset, nēminem eōrum qui vīverent excipērēs; moriendum est enim omnibus, C., Tusc., 1, 5, 9; if you called only those wretched who had (have) to die, you would except none who lived (live); for all have to die.

Remark.—The Indic. is used:
(a) in mere circumlocutions; so, often in Consecutive Sentences:
Necessē est facere sūmptum qui quaerit lucrūm, Pl., As., 218 (535).
Efticitur ab orātōre, ut iī qui audiant ita adfīcantur ut orātor velit; (Cf. C., Br., 49, 185; it is brought about by the orator that those who hear him (= his auditors) are affected as he wishes (them to be).

(b) of individual facts:
Et quod videās perisse perditum dūcās, Cat., viii. 2; and what you see (definite thing, definite person) is lost for aye, for aye deem lost. (Quod videās, anybody, anything.)

630. Relative Sentences of Design.—Optative Relative sentences are put in the Subjunctive of Design, when qui = ut is.

Sunt multī qui ēripiunt aliis quod aliis largiuntur, C., Off., 1, 14, 43; many are they who snatch from some to lavish on others. [Senex] serit arborēs, quae alteri saeclō prōsint, Caecilius (C., Tusc., 1, 14, 31) (545). Semper habē Pyladēn ali quem qui cūret Orestem, Ov., Rem. Am., 589 (545). [Māgnēsiam Themistoclis Artaxerxēs] urbem dōnārat, quae eī pānem praeberet, Nep., 11, 10, 3 (545).

Notes.—1. The basis of this construction is the characteristic Subj., and the conception seems Potential rather than Optative; but in many cases the characteristic force is no longer felt.
2. After mittere there are a few cases where the Impf. Indic. is used with much the same force as the Impf. Subj., but the purpose is merely inferential from the continuance in the tense. See 233. So in the following sentence investigabant = investigātūri erant.

Inmittēbantur illi canēs, qui investigābant omnia, C., Verr., iv, 21, 17.

3. By attraction similar to that with quod (511, n. 3) and quom (585, n. 3), the Relative is sometimes found with an Inf. and diceret, where the Subj., of the verb in the Inf., or the Indic., with a parenthetical ut dixit, is to be expected.
Litterās quās mē sībī misisse diceret (= misisset, or miserat, ut dixit) recītāvit, C., Ph., 11, 4, 7.

631. Relative Sentences of Tendency.—Potential Relative sentences are put in the Subjunctive of Tendency, when qui = ut iō.
The notion is generally that of Character and Adaptation, and we distinguish four varieties:

1. With a definite antecedent, when the character is emphasized; regularly after idôneus, suitable; aptus, fit; dignus, worthy; indignus, unworthy; after is, talis, eiusmodi, tam, tantus, and after unus and solus.

Est innocentia adfectiō talis animi, quae noceat nēmini, C., Tusc., 111. 8, 16; harmlessness (innocence) is that state of mind that does harm to no one (is innocuous to any one). Ille ego sim cūius laniet furiosâ capillos, Ov., A.A., 11. 451; may I be the man whose hair she tears in her seasons of frenzy. Sōlus es, C. Caesar, cūius in victorīā ceciderit nēmō, C., Dei., 12, 34; thou art the only one, Caesar, in whose victory no one has fallen. Quem mea Calliopē laeserit ūnus egō, Ov., Tr., 11. 568; I am the only one that my Calliope (= my Muse) has hurt. (Academicī) mentem sōlam cēnsēbant idōneam cui crēderētur, C., Ac., 1. 8, 30: the Academics held that the mind alone was fit to be believed (trustworthy).

Remarks.—1. Ut is not unfrequently found instead of qui after the correlatives.

2. Idōneus, dignus, etc., take also ut, and the Infinitive (552, r. 2).

2. With an indefinite antecedent; so especially after negatives of all kinds, and their equivalents, and in combinations of múlti, quidam, alii, nōnnūlli, etc., with est, sunt, existit, etc.

Est qui, sunt qui, there is, there are some who; nēmō est qui, there is none to; nihil est quod, there is nothing; habeō quod, I have to; reperīuntur qui, persons are found who (to) . . . ; quis est qui? who is there who (to) . . . ? est cūr, there is reason for, etc. So, also, fuit cum, there was a time when (580, r. 1).

Sunt qui discēssum animi a corpore putent esse mortem, C., Tusc., 1. 9, 18; there are some who (to) think that death is the departure of the soul from the body. Fuit qui suādēret appellātiōnem mēnīs Augustī in Septembrēm trānsferēndam, Suet., Aug., 100; there was a man who urged (= to urge) that the name of the month (of) August should be transferred to September. Multī fuērunt qui tranquillitātem expetentēs à negotiis públicis sē remōverint, C., Off., 1. 20, 69; there have been many who, in the search for quiet, have withdrawn themselves from public engagements. Omnīnō nēmō ullius rei fuit ēmptor cui défuerit hic vēndītor, C., Ph., 11. 38, 97 (317. 1). Post mortem in morte nihil est quod metuam malī, Pl., Capt., 741; after death there is no ill in death for me to dread. Nec mea qui digitis lūmina condat erit, Ov., Her., 10, 120; and there will be no one to close mine eyes with his fingers. Miserrimus est
qui quom esse cupit quod edit (172. n.) non habet, Pl., Capt., 463; he is a poor wretch who, when he wants to eat, has not anything to eat (non habet quid edat would mean does not know what to eat). Quotus est quisque qui somnis pâreant, C., Div., ii. 60, 125; (how many men in the world), the fewest men in the world obey dreams.

Remarks.—1. The Indic. may be used in the statements of definite facts, and not of general characteristics:

Multi sunt qui eripiant, Multi sunt qui eripiant,
There are many to snatch away. Many are they who snatch away.

Of course this happens only after affirmative sentences. The poets use the Indic. more freely than prose writers:

Sunt-qui ( = quidam) quod sentiant non audent (so mss.) dicere, C., Off., i. 24, 84; some dare not say what they think. Sunt-quibus ingrâte ti-
mida indulgentia servit, Ov., A. A., ii. 435; to some trembling indul-
gence plays the slave all thanklessly. Sunt qui (indefinite) non habeant, est-qui (definite) non curat habère, II., Ep., ii. 2, 182.

2. When a definite predicate is negated, the Indic. may stand on account of the definite statement, the Subjv. on account of the negative:

A. Nihil bonum est quod non eum qui id possideat meliorem faciat; or,
B. Nihil bonum est quod non eum qui id possideat meliorem faciat.

A. Nothing that does not make its owner better is good.
B. There is nothing good that does not make its owner better.

3. After comparatives with quam as an object clause.

Maiora in défectiœn deîiquerant, quam quibus ignôscì possett, I., xxvi.
12, 6; (in that revolt) they had been guilty of greater crimes than could be forgiven (had sinned past forgiveness). Non longius hostès aberant, quam quò tēlum adīci posset, Caes., B. G., ii. 21, 3; the enemy were not more than a javelin’s throw distant.


2. Instead of quam ut, quam is not unfrequently found alone, espe-
cially after potius, but also after amplius, celerius, etc.; in which case the construction resembles that of antequam.

4. Parallel with a descriptive adjective with which it is connected by et or sed.

Exierant (duo) adulûsentés et Drúsì màximè familiârès, et in quibus màgnam spem màlôrès collocaèrent, C., Or., i. 7. 25: two young men had come out (who were) intimates of Drusus and in whom their elders were putting great hopes.

632. Quin in Sentences of Character.—After negative clauses, usually with a demonstrative tam, ita, etc., quin is
often used (556) where we might expect qui non, and sometimes where we should expect quae non, or quod non.

Sunt certa vitia quae nemö est quin effugere cupiat, C., Or., iii. ii, 41; there are certain faults which there is no one but (= everybody) desires to escape. Nil tam difficile est quin quaerendö investigari possiet (= possit), Ter., Heaut., 675 (552).

Remark.—That quin was felt not as qui non, but rather as ut non, is shown by the fact that the demonstrative may be expressed:

Non cum quòquam arma contulï quin is mihi succubuerit, Nep., xviii. ii. 5; I have never measured swords with any one that he has not (but he has) succumbed to me.

633. Relative in a Causal Sense.—When qui = cum is, as he, the Subjunctive is employed. (See 586, r. i.)

The particles ut, utpote, quippe, as, are often used in conjunction with the Relative; for their range, see 626, n. 1.

(Caninius) fuit mirificæ vigilantiæ qui suò tôtô consulatû somnum non viderit, C., Fam., vii. 30, 1; Caninius has shown marvellous watchfulness, not to have seen (= taken a wink of) sleep in his whole consulship. Ó fortunatë adulæscëns, qui tuae virtūtis Homèrum præceœnem invēnerïs! C., Arch., io, 24; lucky youth! to have found a crier (= trumpeter) of your valor (in) Homer! Maior gloria in Scipione, Quinctii recentior ut qui eō annō triumphasset, L., xxxv. io, 5; Scipio's glory was greater, Quinctius' was fresher, as (was to be expected in) a man who (inasmuch as he) had triumphed in that year.

Remark.—On the use of the Indic. after quippe, etc., see 626, n. 1. On the sequence of tenses, see 513, n. 3.

634. Relative in a Concessive or Adversative Sense.—Quî is sometimes used as equivalent to cum is in a Concessive or Adversative Sense.

Ego qui leviter Graecâs litterâs attigisset, tamen cum vénissim Athenâs complûres ibi diēs sum commorâtus, C., Or., i. 18, 82: although I had dabbled but slightly in Greek, nevertheless, having come to Athens, I stayed there several days.

Note.—The Indic. is the rule for this construction in early Latin (580, n. 1).

635. Relative and Infinitive.—The Accusative and Infinitive may be used in Õratiō Obliqua after a Relative, when the Relative is to be resolved into a Coördinating Conjunction and the Demonstrative.

(Philosophi censent) unum quemque nostrum mundi esse partem, ex quo illud nâtûrâ consequi ut communem utilitâtêm nostræ antepônâmus, ' ',
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**Fin., III. 19, 64; philosophers hold that every one of us is a part of the universe, and that the natural consequence of this is for us to prefer the common welfare to our own.**

**Notes.—1.** This usage is not cited earlier than Cicero, and seems to be found principally there, with sporadic examples from other authors.

**2.** Occasional examples are also found of the Inf. after etsi (Livy), quamquam (Tac.), in the sense and yet; cum interim (Livy), quia (Sen.), nisi (Tac.), si non (Livy); and after quem admodum, ut (Cic., Livy, Tac.), in comparative sentences.

**636. Combination of Relative Sentences.**—Relative Sentences are combined by means of Copulative Conjunctions only when they are actually coördinate.

When the second Relative would stand in the same case as the first, it is commonly omitted (a).

When it would stand in a different case (b), the Demonstrative is often substituted (c); or, if the case be the Nomative (d) or Accusative (e), the Relative may be omitted altogether.

(a) Dumnorix qui principatum obtinebat ac plebs acceptus erat (Caes., B.G., i. 3, 5).

_Dumnorix, who held the chieftaincy, and (who) was acceptable to the commons;_

(b) Dumnorix qui principatum obtinebat cuique plebs favébat,

_Dumnorix, who held the chieftaincy, and whom the commons favored;_

(c) Dumnorix qui principatum obtinebat et plebs favébat,

_Dumnorix, who held the chieftaincy, and whom the commons favored;_

(d) Dumnorix quem plebs diligebat et principatum obtinebat,

_Dumnorix, whom the commons loved, and (who) held the chieftaincy;_

(e) Dumnorix qui principatum obtinebat et plebs diligebat,

_Dumnorix, who held the chieftaincy, and (whom) the commons loved._

Examples: (a) Caes., B.G., iv. 34, 4; (b) C., Leg., 23, 87; Tusc., i. 30, 72; (c) C., Br., 74, 258; Tusc., v. 13, 38; (c) C., Off., ii. 6, 21; L., x. 29, 3; (d) S., Ing., 101, 5; Ter., Ad., 85.

**Notes.—1.** The insertion of a demonstrative is almost confined to early Latin, Lucretius, and Cicero. Caesar and Sallust have no examples, and Livy very few. On the other hand, the use of a relative by senex (690) in connection with two or more verbs governing different cases is found at all periods.

2. (a) The Relative is not combined with adversative or illative conjunctions (but who, who therefore) except at the beginning of a sentence, when it represents a following demonstrative or anticipates it (690).

_Qui fortis est, idem fidens est; qui autem fidens est, is non extinguèsct;_ 

_C., Tusc., i. 3, 14; he who is brave is confident, but he who is confident is not afraid._

(b) Sed qui, qui tamen, can be used in antithesis to adjectives.

_Sóphrón mimórum quidem scripтор sed quem Platō probāvit, Quint., i. 10, 17; Sóphrón, a writer of names, 'his true, but (one) that Plato approved._

(c) _Qui tamen_ may be added to explain a foregoing statement.

_Causam tibi exposuimus Ephesí, quam tū tamen cōram facilius cógnoscés, C., Fam., xiii. 55, 1._

3. Two or more Relative clauses may be connected with the same antecedent when the one serves to complete the idea of the principal clause, the other to modify it:
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Ilia vis quae invēstigat occulta, quae inventiō dicitur, C., Tusc., i. 25, 61; the faculty that tracks out hidden things, which is called (the faculty of) research. 4. The Relative is often repeated by anaphora (682) for stylistic reasons. Compare C., Tusc., i. 25, 62; Planc., 33, 81; L., xxii. 14, 3.

637. Relative Sentence represented by a Participle.—The Relative sentence is sometimes represented by a Participle, but generally the Participle expresses a closer connection than the mere explanatory Relative.

Omnēs alīud agentēs, alīud simulantēs perfidi (sunt), C., Off., iii. 14, 60; all who are driving at one thing and pretending another are treacherous. [Pisistratus] Homēri librōs confessione antea sic disposisse dicitur ut nunc habēmus, C., Or., iii. 34, 137; Pisistratus is said to have arranged the books of Homer, which were (whereas they were) in confusion before, as we have them now.

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638. A peculiar phase of the Relative sentence is the Comparative, which is introduced in English by as or than, in Latin by a great variety of relative forms:

(a) By correlatives; (b) by atque or āc; (c) by quam.

639. Moods in Comparative Sentences.—The mood of the Dependent clause is the Indicative, unless the Subjunctive is required by the laws of oblique relation, or by the conditional idea (602).

Remark.—On potius quam with the Subjv., see below, 644, r. 3.

640. The dependent clause often borrows its verb from the leading clause. Compare 602.

Ignoratio futūrorum malorum utiliōr est quam scientia, C., Div., ii. 9, 23 (296). Servī mōribus isdem erant quibus dominus, Cf. C., Verr., iii. 25, 62; the servants had the same character as the master.

641. When the dependent clause (or standard of comparison) borrows its verb from the leading clause, the dependent clause is treated as a part of the leading clause; and if the first or leading clause stands in the Accusative with the Infinitive, the second or dependent clause must have the Accusative likewise.

Ita sentiō Latinam linguam locupletiōrem esse quam Graecam, C., Fin., i. 3, 10; it is my opinion that the Latin language is richer than the
1. Correlative Comparative Sentences.

642. Correlative Sentences of Comparison are introduced by Adjective and Adverbial Correlatives:

1. Adjective correlatives:

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<th>Adjective correlatives</th>
<th>(so) as many</th>
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<td>tot, totidem</td>
<td>quot,</td>
<td>quantus,</td>
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<td>tantus</td>
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<td>tālis</td>
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<td>idem</td>
<td>qui,</td>
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2. Adverbial correlatives:

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<th>Adverbial correlatives</th>
<th>(so) as much</th>
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<td>tam</td>
<td>quam,</td>
<td>quantopere,</td>
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<td>tamdiū</td>
<td>quamdiū,</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ita, sic</td>
<td>ut, uti, sicut, tamquam (rare),</td>
<td>quasi (rare),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>item, itidem</td>
<td>quemadmodum,</td>
<td></td>
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<td>quōmodo,</td>
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Quot hominēs, tot sententiae, (as) many men, (so) many minds, Ter., Ph., 454. Frūmentum tanti fuit quanti iste aestimāvit, C., Verr., iii. 84, 194; corn was worth as much as he valued it. Plērique habēre amicum tālem volunt, quālēs ipsi esse nōn possunt, C., Lact., 22, 82; most people wish to have a friend of a character such as they themselves cannot possess. Cimōn incidit in eandem invidiam quam pater suus, Nep., v. 3, 1 (310). Nihil est tam populāre quam bonitās, C., Lig., 12, 37; nothing is so winning as kindness. Sic dē ambitione quōmodo dē amicā queruntur, Sex., E.M., 22, 10; they complain of ambition as they do of a sweetheart. Tamdiū requiēscō quamdiū ad tē scribō, C., Att., ix. 4, 1; I rest as long as I am writing to you. Optō ut ita cuique ēveniat, ut dē rē publicā quīque mereātur, C., Ph., ii. 46, 119; I wish each one’s fortune to be such as he deserves of the state.

3. The Correlative is sometimes omitted.

Homō, nōn quam istī sunt, glōriōsus, L., xxxv. 49, 7; a man, not (so) vainglorious as they are. Discēs quamdiū volēs, C., Off., 1, 1, 2; you shall learn (as long) as you wish.

Remarks.—1. Instead of idem qui, idem ut is sometimes found.

Disputātiōnem expōnimus eisdem fērē verbīs ut āctum disputātumque
est, C., Tusc. ii. 3. 9; we are setting forth the discussion in very much
the same words in which it was actually carried on.

On idem with atque, ac, et, see 643; on idem with Dat., see 359, x. 6; on idem
with cum, see 310, n. 2.

2. (a) The more—the more, may be translated by quò (quisque)—eò, and
the like, with the comparatives; but usually by ut (quisque), quam—ita,
tam, etc., with the superlative, especially when the subj. is indefinite.

Tantò brevius omne quantò felicìus tempus, Pliny, Ep., viii. 14, 10;-
time is the shorter, the happier it is. Quam citissimè cònficiës, tam
máximè expediet, Cato, Agr., 64, 2; the quicker the better. Ut quìskue
sibì plúrimum cònfidit, ita máximè excellit, C., Lael., 9, 30; the more a
man trusts himself, the more he excels.

(b) When the predicate is the same, one member often coalesces with
the other: Optimum quidque rārißimum est, C., Fin., ii. 25, 81 (318, 2),
= ut quidque optimum est, ita rārißimum.

3. Ut—ita is often used adversatively (482, 4). On ita—ut, in asseverations, see 262.

4. Ut and pro eò ut are frequently used in a limiting or causal sense,
so far as, inasmuch as; prò eò ut temporum difficultás tulit (C., Verr.,
iii. 54, 126), so far as the hard times permitted; ut tum rès erant, as
things were then; ut temporibus illis (C., Verr., iii. 54, 125), for those
times; ut erat fùriòsus (C., Rose.Am., 12, 33), stark mad as he was; ut
Siculi (C., Tusc., 1. 8, 15), as (is, was, to be expected of) Sicilians.

Vir ut inter Aetólòs fàcundus, L., xxxii. 33. 9: a man of eloquence for
an Aetolian. Ut sunt húmāna, nihil est perpetuom datum, Pl., Cist., 194;
as the world wags, nothing is given for good and all.

5. On quam, quantus, and the Superlative, see 303.

Notice in this connection quam qui, ut qui, and the like, with the
Superlative (usually máximè):

Tam sum amicus rei publicae quam qui máximè (= est), C., Fam., v. 2,
6: I am as devoted a friend to the state as he who is most (= as any
man). Proelium, ut quod máximè umquam, commissum est, l., vii. 33, 5.
Domus celebràtur ita, ut cum máximè, C., Q.F., ii. 4, 6.

6. The Correlative forms do not always correspond exactly.
Subeunda dìmicàtiò totièns, quot consùrài ti superessent, L., ii. 13, 2.

11. Comparative Sentences with ATQUE (AC).

643. Adjectives and Adverbs of Likeness and Unlikeness
may take atque or ac.

Virtùs eadem in homine ac deò est, C., Leg., i. 8, 25: virtue is the same
in man as in god. Date operam nè simili utâmmur fortùnà atque úsi
sumus, Ter., Ph., 30; do your endeavor that we have not (ill)-luck like
that we had before. Dissimulàtiò est cum alia diciuntur ac sentiàs, C.,
COMPARATIVE SENTENCES.

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Or., II. 67, 269; dissimulation is when other things are said than what you mean (something is said other than what you mean). Similiter (602, r. 2) facis ac si me rogēs cūr tē duōbus contuear oculis, et nōn alterō convieam, C., N.D., iii. 3, 8; you are acting (like) as if you were to ask me why I am looking at you with two eyes, and not blinking with one. Nōn dixi secus ac sentiēbam, C., Or., ii. 6, 21; I did not speak otherwise than I thought.

NOTES.—1. The expression is commonly explained by an ellipsis: Aliter dixi atque [aliter] sentiēbam, I spoke one way and yet I was thinking another way.

So we find: Timeō nē aliu̓d crēdam atque aliu̓d nūntiēs, Ter., Hec., 844; I fear that I believe one thing, and you are telling another.

2. Instead of atque, et is sometimes used; this is not common, but the greater proportion of cases occurs in the classical period: Solent enim aliu̓d sentiēre et loquî, C., Fam., viii. 1, 3; for he has a way of thinking one thing and saying another.

3. These words are principally aequos, pār, pariter, idem, iūxtā (from the classical period on), perinde, proinde, prō cē; alius, aliter, secus (usually with a negative), contrā, contrārius, similis, dissimilis, simul; and rarely item, tālis, totidem, proximē, and a few others. Plautus uses thus some words which involve a similar meaning, as (démutāre) (M.G., i130). Compare also M.G., 763; B., 725.

4. Alius and secus have quam occasionally at all periods. On the other hand, nōn alius and other negative combinations seldom have atque, commonly quam or nisi. After negative forms of alius Cicero has regularly nisi, occasionally praeter.

Philosophia quid est aliud (= nihil est aliud) nisi dōnum deōrum? C., Tusc., 1. 26, 64; philosophy—what else is it but the gift of the gods?

III. Comparative Sentences with QUAM.

644. Comparative Sentences with quam follow the comparative degree or comparative expressions.

The Verb of the dependent clause is commonly to be supplied from the leading clause, according to 640.

In Comparative Sentences quam takes the same case after it as before it.

Melior tūtiorque est certa pāx quam spērāta victōria, L., xxx. 30, 19 (307, r. 1). Potius amicum quam dictum perdidī, Quint., vi. 3, 20: I preferred to lose my friend rather than my joke. Velim existimēs nēminem cuiquam cāriōrem umquam fuisset quam tē mihi, C., Fam., i. 9, 24 (546, r. 1).

REMARKS.—1. When the second member is a subj, and the first member an oblique case, the second member must be put in the Nom., with the proper form of the verb esse, unless the oblique case be an Accusative:

Vicīnus tuus equum meliōrem habet quam tuus est, Cf. C., Inv., i. 31, 52 (596). Ego hominem collidiōrem vidi nēminem quam Phormōnem, Ter., Ph., 591; I have seen no shrewder man than Phormio (= quam Phormiō est). Tibi, multō maiōri quam Aφricānus fuit, mē nōn multō minōrem quam Laelium addiunctum esse patere, Cf. C., Fam., v. 7, 3.
2. On quam prō, and quam quī, see 298. On the double comparative, see 299.

3. (a) When two clauses are compared by potius, rather, prius, before, citius, quicker, sooner, the second clause is put in the Pr. or Impf. Subjv. (512), with or (in Cicero regularly) without ut.

Dépūgnā potius quam serviās, C., Att., VII, 7, 7 (577, n. 6). (Dixérunt) sē miliāns moritūrōs potius quam ut tantum dēdecoris admītī patiāntur, L., iv. 2, 8: they said that they would rather die a thousand times than (to) suffer such a disgrace to slip in. Moritūrōs sē affirmābant citius quam in aliēnōs mōrēs verterentur, L., xxiv. 3, 12; they declared that they had rather die, than let themselves be changed to foreign ways.

(b) If the leading clause is in the Inf., the dependent clause may be in the Inf. likewise, and this is the regular construction in classical Latin when the Inf. follows a verb of Will and Desire; Cicero uses the Inf. regularly, Caesar generally, though examples of the simple Subjv. are not uncommon in both; Livy is very fond of the Subjv., especially with ut, which is cited first from him.

Sē ab omnibus désertōs potius quam abs té défensōs esse mālunt, C., Div. in Caecc., 6, 21; they prefer to be deserted by all rather than defended by you.

Notes.—1. Instead of tam quam, so—as, the Roman prefers the combinations nōn minus quam—nōn magis quam (by Lfotēs).

(a) Nōn minus quam means no less than = quite as much:

Patria hominibus nōn minus quam libēri căra esse dēbet, (Cf. C.) Fam., iv. 5. 2; country ought to be no less dear to men than children (= quite as dear as).

The meaning as little as is cited only from Ter., Hec., 647: nōn tibi illum factum minus placet quam mihi, where not less than = quite as much as = as little as.

(b) Nōn magis quam means quite as little, or quite as much:

Animus nōn magis est sānus quam corpus, Cf. C., Tusc., iii. 5, 10; the mind is no more sound than the body = as little sound as the body. (Or it might mean: The mind is no more sound than the body = the body is quite as sound as the mind.)

So with other comparatives.

Fabius nōn in armīs praestantior fuit quam in togā, Cf. C., Cat. M., 4, 11; Fabius was not more distinguished in war than in peace (no less distinguished in peace than in war, quite as distinguished in peace as in war).

2. After a negative comparative, atque is occasionally found for quam in Plautus, Terence, Catullus, Vergil; much more often in Horace (nine times in the Satires, twice in the Epodes), who uses it also after a positive.


THE ABRIDGED SENTENCE.

645. The compound sentence may be reduced to a simple sentence, by substituting an Infinitive or a Participle for the dependent clause.
THE INFINITIVE AND INFINITIVE FORMS.

646. The practical uses of the Infinitive and its kindred forms, as equivalents of dependent clauses, have already been considered:

Infinitive after Verbs of Creation: 423.
Gerund and Gerundive: 425-433.
Supine: 434-436.
Infinitive in Object Sentences: 520-531.
Infinitive in Complementary Final Sentences: 532.
Infinitive in Relative Sentences: 635.

Note.—Under the head of the Abridged Sentence will be treated the Historical Infinitive and Oratio Obliqua; the Historical Infinitive, because it is a compendious Imperfect: Oratio Obliqua, because it foreshortens, if it does not actually abridge, and effaces the finer distinctions of Oratio Recta.

HISTORICAL INFINITIVE.

647. The Infinitive of the Present is sometimes used by the historians to give a rapid sequence of events, with the subject in the Nominative; generally, several Infinitives in succession.

(Verrès) minitāri Diodōrō, vociferāri palam, lacrimās interdum vix tenēre, C., Verr., iv. 18, 39; Verres threatened (was for threatening) Diodorus, bawled out before everybody, sometimes could hardly restrain his tears.

Notes.—1. The ancient assumption of an ellipsis of coepit, began (QUINT., IX. 3, 58), serves to show the conception, although it does not explain the construction, which has not yet received a convincing explanation. A curious parallel is de with Infinitive in French. The Final Infinitive (to be) for, may help the conception, as it sometimes does the translation. It takes the place of the Imperfect, is used chiefly in rapid passages, and gives the outline of the thought, and not the details; it has regularly the sequence of a Past tense.

2. The Historical Infinitive is sometimes found after cum, ubi, etc. See S., Ingr., 98, 2; L., III. 37, 6; TAC., Ann., II. 4, 1; H., III. 31; Ann., III. 26, 2. No examples are cited from CICERO and CAESAR; this usage is characteristic of TACITUS.

Orātiō Obliqua.

648. The thoughts of the narrator, or the exact words of a person, as reported by the narrator, are called Orātiō Recta, or Direct Discourse.

Indirect Discourse, or Orātiō Obliqua, reports not the exact words spoken, but the general impression produced.

Remarks.—1. Under the general head of Orātiō Obliqua are em-
braced also those clauses which imply Indirect Quotation (Partial Obliquity). See 508.

2. Inquam, quo th I, is used in citing the Ὅρατιὸ Rēct a; ἀιό, I say, generally in Ὅρατιὸ Obliqua. Inquam never precedes the Ὅρατιὸ Obliqua, but is always parenthetic; ἀιό may or may not be parenthetic. Ὅρατιὸ Rēct a may also be cited by a parenthetic "ut ait," "ut a iunt," rarely ait, (as) he says, (as) they say. The subject of inquit often precedes the quotation, but when it is mentioned in the parenthesis it is almost always put after the verb.

Tum Cotta: rūmōribus mēcum, inquit, pūgnās, C., N. D., iii. 5, 13 (484). Aliquot somnia vēra, inquit Ennius, C., Div., ii. 62, 127; "some dreams are true," quo th Ennius.

3. The lacking forms of inquam are supplied by forms of dicere.

649. Ὅρατιὸ Obliqua differs from Ὅρατιὸ Rēct a, partly in the use of the Moods and Tenses, partly in the use of the pronouns.

Notes.—1. It must be remembered that as a rule the Roman thought immediately in Ō, O., and did not think first in Ō, R., and then transfer to Ō, O.; also that Ō, O. is necessarily less accurate in its conception than Ō, R., and hence it is not always possible to construct the Ō, R. from the Ō, O. with perfect certainty. What is ideal to the speaker may become unreal to the narrator, from his knowledge of the result, and hence, when accuracy is aimed at, the narrator takes the point of view of the speaker, and in the last resort passes over to Ō, Rēct a.

2. Ō. Obliqua often comes in without any formal notice, and the governing verb has often to be supplied from the context, sometimes from a preceding negative.

(Rēgulus) sententiam nē dic eret recūsāvit; (saying that) quam dīu iūre iūrandō hostium tenērētur, nōn esse sē senātōrem, C., Off., iii. 27, 100.

(Idem Rēgulus) reddī captiviōs negāvit esse utile; (saying that) illōs enim adolescentēs esse, sē iam confectum senectūte, n. b.

3. Sometimes, after a long stretch of Ō, Obliqua, the writer suddenly shifts to the Ō. Rēct a. Examples: C., Tusc., ii. 25, 61; L., ii. 7, 9, etc.

Moods in Ὅρατιὸ Obliqua.

650. In Ὅρατιὸ Obliqua the principal clauses (except Interrogatives and Imperatives) are put in the Infinitive, the subordinate clauses in the Subjunctive.

.INTEGER (but)
O. R. Socrates used to say: "All men are eloquent enough in what they understand."

O. O. Socrates used to say that all men were eloquent enough in what they understood.

Remark.—When the Principal Clause, or Apodosis, is in the Indic., the Inf. is used according to the rule for Verbs of Saying and Thinking. When the Principal Clause, or Apodosis, is in the Subjv., as in the Ideal and Unreal Conditions, special rules are necessary (656).

Otherwise, Subjv. in O. R. continues to be Subjv. in O. O.

Note.—In Caesar, B.C., iii. 73, 6, where a principal clause is apparently put in the Subjv., instead of detrimentum in bonum vereret, read (for ut) . . . vereret, with Vossius, Dübner, Perrin, Hoffmann. Nep., ii. 7. 6. is disputed.

651. Interrogative sentences are put in the Subjunctive, according to 467; inasmuch as the verb of Saying involves the verb of Asking.

Ariovistus respondit se prius in Galliam venisse quam populum Romænum: quid sibi vellet cur in suas possessiones veniret, Caes., B.G., i. 44. 7; Ariovistus replied that he had come to Gaul before the Roman people; what did he (Caesar) mean by coming into his possessions? (Quid tibi vis?)

Remarks.—1. Indicative Rhetorical Questions (164), being substantially statements, are transferred from the Indic. of O. R. to the Acc. and Inf. of O. O. when they are in the First and Third Persons. The Second Person goes into the Subjunctive.

Caes., B.G., i. 14; Could he?

Quid est turpius? What is baser? [Nothing.] Quid esse turpius?
Caes., B.G., v. 28, 6; What was baser?

Quō se repulsōs ab Rōmānis itūrōs? L., xxxiv. 11, 6; whither should they go, if repelled by the Romans? (Quō ibimus?) Cui nōn apparēre ab eō qui prior arma intelissent iniūriam ortam (esse)? L., xxxii. 10, 6; to whom is it not evident that the wrong began with him, who had been the first to wage war? (Cui nōn apparēt?)

Examples are not found in early Latin, are rare in classical period, but are especially common in Livy.

Sī bonum ducērent, quid prō noxiō damnāssent? L., xxvii. 34, 13; if they thought him a good man, why had they condemned him as guilty? (Sī bonum ducētis, quid prō noxiō damnāstis?)

The Question in the Second Person often veils an Imperative. Here from Livy on the Subjv. is the rule.

Nec cēssābant Sabini instāre rogitantēs quid tererent tempus, L., iii 61, 13. (O. R., Quid teritis?)
Exceptions are rare; Subjv. with Third Person, Caes., B.C., i. 32. 3; Inf. with Second Person, L., vi. 39, 10.

2. In Subjv. Rhetorical Questions the Subjv. is either retained or transferred to the Infinitive. *The Deliberative Subjv. is always retained.*

*Quis sibi persuāderet sine certā re Ambiorigem ad eiusmodi cōnsilium dēscendisse?* Caes., B.G., v. 29, 5; *who could persuade himself that Ambiorix had proceeded to an extreme measure like that, without (having made) a sure thing (of it)?* (*Quis sibi persuādeat?*)

The Inf. form would be the Future: *quem sibi persuāsūrum?* (659), and is not to be distinguished from the Fut. Indicative.

652. Imperative sentences are put in the Subjunctive, sometimes with, usually without, ut; the Negative is, of course, nē (never ut nē).

*Redditur responduum: nōndum tempus pūgnae esse; castrīs sē tenērent, L., ii. 45, 8; there was returned for answer, that it was not yet time to fight, that they must keep within the camp. (ō. R., castrīs vōs tenēte.)*

(Vercingetorix) *cohortātus est: nē perturbārentur incommōdō, Caes., B.G., vii. 29, 1; Vercingetorix comforted them (by saying) that they must not allow themselves to be disconcerted by the disaster. (ō. R., nōlīte perturbāri.)*

Remarks.—1. *Ut* can be used according to 546, after verbs of Will and Desire and their equivalents.

*Pythia respondit ut moenibus ligneis sē mūnīrent, Nep., ii. 2, 6; the Pythia answered that they must defend themselves with walls of wood.*

2. Verbs of Will and Desire, being also *verba dicendi,* frequently have an ut clause followed by an Acc. with the Inf., the second clause adding a statement to the request.

*Ubī ōrābant ut sibi auxilium ferret; ad auxilium spemque reliquī tempōris satis futūrum, Caes., B.G., iv. 16, 5.*

**Tenses in Orātiō Obliqua.**

653. The Tenses of the Infinitive follow the laws already laid down (530):

The Present Infinitive expresses contemporaneous action;

The Perfect Infinitive expresses prior action;

The Future Infinitive expresses future action.

Remark.—The Impf. Indic., as expressing prior continuance, becomes the Pf. Inf. in ō. 0., and hence loses its note of continuance.

654. The Tenses of the Subjunctive follow the laws of
sequence (510). The choice is regulated by the point of view of the Reporter, or the point of view of the Speaker.

Note.—By assuming the point of view of the speaker, greater liveliness as well as greater accuracy is imparted to the discourse. This form is technically called Representatio. In Conditional Sentences Representatio often serves to prevent ambiguity. The point of view not unfrequently shifts from reporter to speaker, sometimes in the same sentence; this has the effect of giving additional emphasis to the primary verb, and is therefore common in commands and in favorable alternatives.

Point of View of the Reporter:

Légätiōnī Ariovistus respondit: sibī mirum vidērī quid in suā Galliā quam bellō vīcisset, Caesarī negōtiī esset, Caes., B.G., 1. 34, 4; to the embassy Ariovistus replied, that it seemed strange to him (he wondered) what business Caesar had in his Gaul, which he had conquered in war.

Point of View of the Speaker:

[Légätiōs Helvétiōrum] Caesar respondit: cōnsuēsse deōs immortālēs, quō gravius hominēs ex commūtātiōne rērum doleant, quōs prō scelere eōrum ulciscī velint, his secundōrēs interdum rēs concedere, Caes., B.G., 1. 14, 5; to the envoys of the Helvetians Caesar replied, that the gods were (are) wont, that men might (may) suffer the more severely from change in their fortunes, to grant occasional increase of prosperity to those whom they wished (wish) to punish for their crime. (A long passage is L., xxviii. 32.)

Point of View shifted:

Ad haec Március respondit: Sī quid ab senātū petere vellent, ab armis discēdant, S., C., 34, 1; thereto Marcius replied: If they wished to ask anything of the senate, they must lay down their arms.

Prōinde aut cēderent (undesired alternative) animō atque virtūte genti per eōs diēs totiēns ab sē victae, aut itineris finem spērent (desired alternative) campum interiacentem Tiberī ac moenibus Rōmānīs, L., xxii. 30, 11; therefore they should either yield in spirit and courage to a nation which during those days they had so often conquered, or they must hope as the end of their march the plain that lies between the Tiber and the walls of Rome.

655. Object, Causal, Temporal, and Relative Clauses follow the general laws for Subordinate Clauses in Oratio Obliqua.

For examples of Object Clauses, see 525: for Causal, see 541; for Temporal, see 561–564, 569–577; for Relative, see 628.

Remarks.—1. Coördinate Relative Clauses are put in the Ace. and Infinitive (635).
2. Relative Clauses are put in the Indicative: (a) In mere circumlocutions. (b) In explanations of the narrator (628, r.).

3. Dum, with the Indic., is often retained as a mere circumlocution:

Dic, hospes, Spartae nōs tē hic visīsse iacentis, dum sānctis patriae légibus obsequīmus, C., Tusc., 1. 42. 101; tell Sparta, stranger, that thou hast seen us lying here obeying (in obedience to) our country’s hallowed laws.

So also sometimes cum; see C., Lael., 3, 12.

656. Conditional Sentences in Ērātiō Obliqua, Total and Partial.

1. The Protasis follows the rule for subordinate clauses (650).

2. The Indicative Apodosis follows the rule, but Present, Imperfect, and Perfect Subjunctive are turned into the Future Infinitive or its periphrases.

The Pluperfect Subjunctive is transferred to the Perfect Infinitive of the Active Periphrastic Conjugation.

Passive and Supineless Verbs take the circumlocution with futūrum fuisset ut . . . . 248, N. 3.

Remark.—Posse needs no Fut. (248, r.), and potuisse no Periphrastic Pf. Inf., so that these forms are often used to lighten the construction.

3. Identical Forms.—In the transfer of Conditions to Ō. 0., the difference between many forms disappears. For instance,

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<th>I. 1. Si id crēdis, errābis.</th>
<th>2. Si id crēdēs, errābis.</th>
<th>Dicō tē, si id crēdās, errātūrum esse.</th>
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<td>3. Si id crēdās, errēs.</td>
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<th></th>
<th>II. 1. Si id crēdis, errābis.</th>
<th>2. Si id crēdēs, errābis.</th>
<th>Dixo tē, si id crēderēs, errātūrum esse.</th>
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<td>3. Si id crēdās, errēs.</td>
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<td>4. Si id crēderēs, errārēs.</td>
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<th></th>
<th>III. 1. Si id crēdiderēs, errābis.</th>
<th>2. Si id crēdiderīs, errēs.</th>
<th>Dixo tē, si id crēdīdērēs, errātūrum esse.</th>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Si id crēdiderīs, errārēs.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4. Si id crēdīdērēs, errārēs.</td>
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Notes.—1. In No. 1. the difference is not vital, though exactness is lost.

2. (a) In No. II. the ambiguity lies practically between 2 and 3; inasmuch as Repraesentātiō is usually employed for the Logical Condition, and the Periphrastic Pf. Inf. is employed in the Unreal, wherever it is possible. The difference between an Unfulfilled Present and an Unfulfilled Past would naturally vanish to the narrator, to whom both are Past.

Ariovistus respondit: si quid ipsi ā Caesare opus esset, sēsē ad illum ventūrum fuisset: si quid ille sē velit, illum ad sē venire oportēre, Caes., B. G., 1.
THE ABRIDGED SENTENCE.

34. 2; Ariovistus answered, that if he had wanted anything of Caesar he would have come to him; if he (Caesar) wanted anything of him, he ought to come to him (Ariovistus). Ó. R.: sī quid mihi ā Caesare opus esset, ego ad illum vēnissem; sī quid ille mē vult, illum ad mē venire oportet.

Fātentur sē virtūtis causā, nisi ea voluptātem faceret, nē manum quidem versūrōs fuisse, C., Fin., v. 31, 93; they confess that for virtue’s own sake, if it did not cause pleasure, they would not even turn a hand. Ó. R.: nisi ea voluptātem faceret nē manum quidem verterēmus.

(b) Occasionally in the Logical Condition the Fut. Indic. is changed to the Fut. Periphrastic Subj., thus: sī adsēnsūrus esset, etiam opināturum is an Ó. O. quotation for sī... adsentīētur, opinābitur in C., Ac., ii. 21, 67.

3. No. III., like No. II., is used chiefly of the future. But in 3 the periphrases with fore (futurum esse) are commonly employed for the active and the Pf. participle, with fore for the passive. In 4 the same fading out of the difference between Unfulfilled Present and Past occurs as in II.

657. Logical Conditions in Örātiō Obliqua.

1. Ad haec Ariovistus respondit: sī ipse populō Rōmānō nōn praescriberet quemadmodum suō iūre uteōtētur, nōn oportēre sēsē ā populō Rōmānō in suō iūre impedīrī, Caes., B.G., i. 36, 2; to this Ariovistus made answer: If he did not prescribe to the Roman people how to exercise their right, he ought not to be hindered by the Roman people in the exercise of his right. (Ó. R.: sī ego nōn praescribō, nōn oportet mē impedīrī.)

2. Sī bonum ducerent, quid prō noxīō damnāssent? Sī noxium comperissent, quid alterum (cōnsulātum) crēderent? I., xxvii. 34, 13; if they thought him a good man, why had they condemned him as guilty; if, on the other hand, they had found him guilty, why did they intrust him with a second consulship? (Ó. R.: sī—dūcitis, quid damnāstis? sī—comperistis, quid crēditis?)

3. Titurius clāmitābat, suam sententiam in utramque partem esse tūtam; sī nihil esset (Ó. R.: sī nihil erit) dūrius, nūllū periculō ad proximam legiōnem perventūrōs (Ó. R.: perveniētis); sī Gallia omnis cum Germaēnīs cōnsentīret (Ó. R.: sī cōnsentīt) ūnam esse (Ó. R.: est) in celeritāte positam salūtem, Caes., B.G., v. 29, 6; Titurius kept crying out that his resolution was safe in either case: if there were (should be) no especial pressure, they would get to the next legion without danger; if all Gaul was in league with the Germans, their only safety lay in speed.

4. Eum omnium labōrum finem fore existimābant sī hostem Hibērō interclūdere potuissent, Caes., B.C., i. 65, 3; they thought that would be the end of all (their) toils, if they could cut off the enemy from the Ebro. (Ó. R.: is labōrum finis erit (or fuerit) sī hostem interclūdēre potuerīmus.

5. [Hi] Iugurthae nōn mediocrem animum pollicitandō accedēbant sī Micipsa rēx occidisset, fore utī sōlus imperi Numidiae potīrētur, S., Iug., S. 1; these persons kindled no little courage in Iugurthu’s (his) heart) by promising over and over that if King Micipsa fell, he alone should possess the rule over Numidia. (Ó. R.: sī Micipsa occiderit, tū sōlus imperi potīēris.)
6. [Fidēs data est] si Iugurtham vivōm aut necātum sībī trādidisset
fore ut illus senātus inpūnitātem et sua omnia concéderet, S., Iug., 61, 5; his
word was pledged that if he delivered to him Iugurtha, alive or dead,
the senate would grant him impunity, and all that was his. (Ō. R.: si
mīhi trādideris, tibī senātus tua omnia concēdet.)

7. Nōn multō ante urbem captam exaudīta vōx est . . . futūrum esse,
nisi prōvisum esset, ut Rōma caperētur, C., Div., I. 45, 101; not long before
the taking of the city, a voice was heard (saying), that unless precau-
tions were adopted, Rome would be taken. (Ō. R.: nisi prōvisum erit,
Rōma capiētur.)

8. Ariovistus respondit si quid ille sē velit illum ad sē venīre oportēre,
Caes., B.G., I. 34, 2 (656, 3, n. 2).

9. Ariovistus respondit nisi dēcēdat [Caesar] sēsē illum prō hoste habi-
tūrum; quod sī eum interfēcerit, multis sēsē nōbilibus principibusque populī
Rōmānī grātum esse factūrum, Caes., B.G., I. 44, 12; Ariovistus replied,
that unless Caesar withdrew, he should regard him as an enemy, and
in case he killed him, he would do a favor to many men of the highest
position among the Roman people. (Ō. R.: nisi dēcēdēs tē prō hoste
habēbō . . . si tē interfēcerō grātum fēcerō; 244, r. 4.)

Remark.—Posse is used as has been stated (656, 2, r.).

Negārunt dirimī bellum posse nisi Messēniās Achaeī Pylum redherent,
L., xxvii. 30, 13; they said that the war could not be stopped unless the
Achaeans restored Pylus to the Messenians. (Ō. R.: bellum dirimī nōn
potest (poterit) nisi Pylum reddent.)

Docent, sī turris concidisset, nōn posse militēs continērī quin spē prae-
da in urbem irrumperent, Caes., B.C., II. 12, 4; they show that if the tower
fell, the soldiers could not be kept from bursting into the city in the hope
of booty. (Ō. R.: si conciderit, nōn possunt (poterunt) continērī.)

658. Ideal Conditions in Ōrātīō Obliqua.

1. Ait sī sī ērātur "Quam hōc suāve" dictūrūm, C., Fin., II. 27, 88; he
declares that if he were to be burnt he would say, "How sweet this is."
(Ō. R.: sī ērar, dicam, same form as Logical.)

2. Voluptātem sī ipsa prō sē loquātur concēssūram arbitror Dignitāti,
C., Fin., III. 1, 1; I think that if Pleasure were to speak for herself, she
would yield (the palm) to Virtue. The context shows that the condi-
tion is Ideal, not Logical. Sī loquātur, concēdat. Compare 596, r. 1.

659. Unreal Conditions in Ōrātīō Obliqua.

1. Titurīus clāmitābāt Eburōnēs, sī [Caesar] adisset, ad castra ventūrōs
[nōn] esse, Caes., B.G., v. 29, 2; Titurīus kept crying out that if
Caesar were there, the Eburones would not be coming to the camp.
(Ō. R.: sī Caesar adesset, Eburōnēs nōn venīrent.) On the rareness of
this form, see 597, r. 4; and even this passage has been emended into ventūros sēsē (for esse).

2. [Appārēbat] si diūtius vixisset, Hamilcare duce Poenōs arma Italiae inlatūros fuisses, L., xxl. 2, 2; it was evident that if he had lived longer, the Punics would have carried their arms into Italy under Hamilcar's conduct.

3. Nisi ēō ipsō tempore nūntii dē Caesaris victoriā essent allātī existimā-bant plēriquē futūrum fuisses ut (oppidum) āmitterētur, Caes., B.C., iii. 101, 3; had not news of Caesar's victory been brought at that very time, most persons thought the city would have been lost. (Ō. R.: nisi nūntii allātī essent, oppidum āmissum esset.)

Note.—As the Plupf. Indic. is sometimes used (rhetorically) for the Subjv. (254, r. 3), so the ordinary Pr. Inf. is sometimes employed instead of the Periphrastic:

Nemō mihiī persuādēbit multōs praestantēs virōs tanta esse cōnātōs (= cōnātūros fuisses) nisi animō cernerent (597, r. 1) posteritātem ad sē pertinēre, C., Cat.M., 23, 82; no one will persuade me that (so) many eminent men had made such mighty endeavors, had they not seen with their minds' (eye) that posterity belonged to them. Agricola solēbat narrāre sē primā in iuventā studium philosophiae ācius hausisse (Ō. R.: hauserat), nisi prūdentia mātris coercu-isset, (Cf. Tac., Agr., 4, 5; Agricola used to relate that in his earliest youth he would have drunk in more eagerly the study of philosophy, had not his mother's prudence restrained him.

So with potuisses:

(Pompeium) plēriquē existimant sī ācius insequī voluisset bellum ēō diē potuisses finire, Caes., B.C., iii. 51, 3; most people think that if Pompey had (but) determined to follow up more energetically, he could have finished the war on that day. (Ō. R.: sī voluisset, potuit, 507, r. 3.) Namque illā multītūdine sī sāna mēns esset (507, r. 1) Graeciae, supplicium Persās dare potuisses, Nep., xvii. 5, 2; for with that number, if Greece had had (had been in her) sound mind, the Persians might have paid the penalty (due). (Ō. R.: sī sāna mēns esset Graeciae, suppli-cium Persae dare potuērunt.)

Pronouns in Īrātiō Obliqua.

660. 1. The Reflexive is used according to the principles laid down in 520 ff.

2. The person addressed is usually ille; less often is.


Of course, this does not exclude the ordinary demonstrative use.

3. Hic and iste are commonly changed into ille or is, nunc is changed into tum and tunc, except when already contrasted with tunc, when it is retained (S., Iug., 109, 3; 111, 1).

Diodōrus [respondit] illud argentum sē paucīs illīs diēbus misisse Lily-baeum, C., Verr., iv. 18, 39 (393, r. 4).
4. Nós is used when the narrator’s party is referred to; compare Caes., B.G., i. 44, below.

5. Ipse seems to be used sometimes in O. O. with reference to the principal subject, as contrasted with the person addressed. Usually, however, ipse would have occurred in the O. R. as well.

Ariovistus respondit: Si ipse populó Rómanó nón praescriberet, quemadmodum suó iúre úteré tur, nón oportére sésé á populó Rómanó in suó iúre impedíri, Caes., B.G., i. 36, 2 (657).

661. Speciméns of the conversion of Oratóri Óblíqua into Oratóri Récta.

Oratóri Óblíqua.

1. Ariovistus respondit:

Tránsii Rhénum sésé nón suá sponte sed rogátum et arcessitum á Gallis; nón sine mágni spé mágnisque praemíti domum propinquoque reliquisse; sédés habére in Galliá ab ipsis concéssás, obsídes ipsórum voluntáte datós; stipendíum capere iúre bellí, quod victóres victís impóñere cónsuérint. Nón sésé Gallis sed Gallós sibi bellum intulisse; omnés Galliáe civítátes ad sé oppúgnandum vénisse et contrá sé castra habuisse; cás omnés cópiás á sé únó proélíó pul- sás áe superátaes esse. Si iterum experíri velit, sité iterum paratum esse décérare; si páce úti velit, iniquum esse dé stipendió reçísare, quod suá voluntáte ad id tempus pependerint. Amiciéam populó Rómaní sibi órnuménto et praé- sidió, nón détrimento esse oportére idque sǽ spé petisse. Si per populó Rómanum stipendíum remítatur et déditéci subtrahantur, nón minus libenter sésé recéssá- turum populó Rómaní amiciéam quam appetíerit. Quod multitu- dinem Germánoúm in Galliá traédícat, id sé suá muniéndi, nón Galliáe impúgnandae causa facere; étius rei fétimónió esse quod nisi rogátus nón vénere et quod bellum nón intulerit sed défenderit.

Caes., B.G., i. 44.

Oratóri Récta.

Tránsii Rhénum nón meás sponte sed rogátus et arcessitum á Gallis; nón sine mágni spé mágnisque praemíti domum propinquoque reliquis; sédés habére in Galliá ab ipsis concéssás, obsídes ipsórum voluntáte datós; stipendíum capere iúre bellí, quod victóres victís impóñere cónsuérunt. Nón ego Ga- lis sed Gallí mihi bellum intulérunt; omnés Galliáe civítátes ad mé oppúgnandum vénérunt et con- trá mé castra habéntur; eae om- nés cópiás á mé únó proélíó pul- sás áe superátae sunt. Si iterum ex- perió volunt, iterum parásum décérare, si páce úti volunt, in- quum est dé stipendió reçísare, quod suá voluntáte ad húc tempus pependerunt. Amiciéam populó Rómaní mihi órnuménto et praé- sidió, nón détrimento esse oportét idque eá spé petiú. Si per populó Rómanum stipendíum remitétur et déditéci subtrahentur, nón mínus libenter reçísábo populó Ró- maní amiciéam quam appetiú. Quod multitu- dinem Germánoúm in Galliá traédícam, id mé muniéndi, nón Galliáe impúgnandae causa fació; étius rei fétimónió est quod nisi rogátus nón vénui et quod bellum nón intuli sed dífenderi.

* Allusion to the preceding speech, otherwise trádúco.
2. His Caesar ita respondit:

Eō siō minus dubitatiōnis darī quod eās rēs quās lēgātī Helvētīi commenōrāssent memorīā tenēret atque eō gravīus ferre quō minus merītō populi Rōmānī accidīssent; quī si alicuīus iniurīae sībi cōnscīus fuisset nōn fuīsse difficīle cavēre; sed eō dēceptum quod neque commiśsum sē sī intellegēret quārē tīmēret neque sīne causā tīmendum putāret. Quod sī veteris contumēliae oblivīsī vellet, num etiam recen·tium iniūriārum, quod eō invitō iter per prōvinciam per vim tempūssent, quod Aedūs, quod Ambarrōs, quod Allobrogas vexāssent memoriam dēpōnere posse? Quod suā victoriā tam insolenter gloriārentur, quodque tam diū sē impūne tulisse iniūriās admirārentur eōdem pertinērē. Cōnsuēssē enim deōs immortālēs quō gravīus homīnēs ex commutātione rērum doleant, quōs prō scelere eōrum ulcēscī velint, hīs secundōris interedium rēs et diūtūrnīōrem impūnītātem concēderē. Cum ea ita sint, tamen sī obsidēs ab iīs sībi dēntur, uti ea quae pollicēāntur factūrōs intellegat, et sī Aedūs dē iniūriās quās ipsās sociāsque eōrum intulereint, sēcē sūm iīs pācem esse factūrum.


3. Sulla rēgī patefēcit:

Quod pollicēātur, senātum et populum Rōmānum, quoniam amplius armīs valērūnt, nōn in grātīam habītūrōs; faciūndum ali·quid, quod illūrum magis quam suā rētulisse vidērētur; id ideo in prōmptū esse, quoniam Lugūrthae cōpiān habērēt, quem sī Rōmānīs trādīssent, forē ut iīlī plūrinum deōrētur; amīcitiam, foēδus, Num·nidiae partem, quam nunc petītis, tunc ultrō advenītūram.

S., Iug., 111.

Hoc mihi minus dubitatiōnis dulter quod eās rēs quās vōs, lēgātī Helvētīi, commenōrāsīs, memorīā teneō atque hoc gravīus ferō quō minus merītō populi Rōmānī acci·dērunt; quī sī alicuīus iniurīae sībi cōnscīus fuisset, nōn fuīdīcēle cavēre; sed eō dēceptus quod neque commiśsum sē sī intellegēbūl quārē tīmēret neque sīne causā tīmhendum putābat. Quod sī veteris contumēliae oblivīsī velō, num etiam recen·tium iniūriārum, quod mē invitō iter per prōvinciam per vim temptātīs, quod Aedūs, quod Ambarrōs, quod Allobrogas vexāstis, memoriam dēpōnere possēm? Quod vestrā victoriā tam insolenter gloriāminī, quodque tam diū vōs impūne tulisse iniūriās admirāminī cōlem pertinē. Cōnsuēvērunt enim diēs immortālēs quō gravīus homīnēs ex commutātione rērum doleant, quōs prō scelere eōrum ulcēscī volūnt, hīs secundōris interedium rēs et diūtūrnīōrem impūnītātem concēderē. Cum haece ita sint, tamen sī obsidēs à vōbis mihi dābuntur, uti ea, quae pollicēmīnī, factūrōs intellegēm et sī Aedūs dē iniūriās quās ipsās sociāsque eōrum intulereint, sēcē sūm iīs pācem faciam.
INVOLVED ÖRÄTIÖ OBLĪQUA. ATTRACTION OF MOOD.

662. Öratiö Obliqua proper depends on some verb of Thinking or Saying, expressed or understood. In a more general sense the term Ö. Obliqua is used of all complementary clauses that belong to ideal relations. The principle is the same in both sets of sentences, for in the one, as in the other, the Infinitive takes its dependencies in the Subjunctive, on account of the close relation between the Ideal mood and the Substantive Idea of the verb. Hence the favorite combination of the Infinitive and the Ideal Second person:

Difficile est amicitiam manère si a virtūte dēfeceris, C., Lael., 11, 37; it is hard for friendship to abide if you (one) have fallen away from virtue. Proprium hūmāni ingenii est ōdisse quem laeseris, Tac., Agr., 42, 4; it is (peculiar to) human nature to hate whom you have injured. (But ōdisti quem laesisti.)

The so-called attraction of mood by which clauses originally Indicative become Subjunctive in dependence on Subjunctives, is another phase of the same general principle.
663. 1. All clauses which depend on Infinitives and Subjunctives, and form an integral part of the thought, are put in the Subjunctive (Subjunctive by Attraction).

Recordātīōne nostrae amicitiae sic fruor ut beātē vixisse videar quia cum Scipīō vixerim, C., Lael., 4, 15: I enjoy the remembrance of our friendship so much that I seem to have lived happily because I lived with Scipio. Vereor nē dum minuere velim labōrem augeam, C., Leg., i, 4, 12; I fear lest while I am wishing to lessen the toil I may increase it (dum minuere volō, augeō). Istō bonō ūtāre dum adsit, cum absit, nē requirās, C., Cat. M., 10, 33 (263, 2, a). Quārē fīēbat ut omnium oculōs quotīēscumque in públicum prōdisset ad sē convertēret, N. E. P., vii. 3, 5 (567: quotīēscumque prōdierat convertēbat). Nescīre quid antequam nātus sīs acciderit, id est semper esse puerum, C., Or., 34, 120; not to know what happened before you were born, (that) is to be always a boy. Fraus fidem in parvis sibī praestructūt ut cum opera pretium sit, cum mercēdē māgnā fallat, L., xxviii. 42, 7: fraud lays itself a foundation of credit in small things in order that when it is worth while it may make a great profit by cheating. [Arāneolae] rēte textunt ut sī quid inhaeserit cōnficiant, C., N. D., ii. 48, 123 (567; sī quid inhaesit cōnficiunt). Abēunti sī quid popōscerīt concēdere mōris, Tac., G., 21, 4; to the departing (guest) it is customary to grant anything that he asks (sī quid popōscit concēdunt).

NOTES.—1. Dum not unfrequently resists the Attraction both in prose and poetry: Tantum nē noceās dum vis prōdesse vidētō, Ov., Tr., i. 1, 101 (548).

2. On the retention of the Indic. in Relative clauses, see 628, n.

2. Partial Obliquity.—(a) From this it is easy to see how the Subjunctive came to be used in a Generic or Iterative sense after Tenses of Continuance. Present, Imperfect, and Future Indicative may all involve the Notion of Habit, Will, Inclination, Endeavor, and the complementary clauses would follow the sense rather than the form. For examples, see 567, n.

(b) So also is explained the use of the Subjunctive in Causal Sentences, and especially in Conditional Sentences, where the Apodosis is embodied in the leading verb. (Iugurtha) timēbat īram senātūs (= nē īrāsērētur senātus) nī pāruisset lēgātīs, S., Iug., 25, 7 (601). [Ubiś] auxilium suum (= sē auxiliātūrum) pollicitus est, sī ab Suēbīs premerentur, Caes., B. G., iv. 19, 1. Praeōtor aedem (= sē aedificātūrum) Diovī vövit sī eō die hostīs fūdissent, L., xxxi. 21, 12.

The idea of Ō. 0. is shown in the tense:

Si per Metellum licītum esset mātrēs veniēbant (= ventūrae erant), C., Verr., v. 49, 129. [Dictātor] ad hostem dūcit nūllō locō nisi necessitās ōgeret fortūnā eā commissūrus, L., xxii. 12. 2 (438, n.).
PARTICIPIAL SENTENCES.

664. Participles are used in Latin even more extensively than in English, to express a great variety of subordinate relations, such as Time and Circumstance, Cause and Occasion, Condition and Concession. The classification cannot always be exact, as one kind blends with another.

Remarks.—1. It is sometimes convenient to translate a Participial Sentence by a coordinate clause, but the Participle itself is never coordinate, and such clauses are never equivalents. (410, r. 2.)

Mānius Gallum caesum torque spoliavit, L., vi. 42, 5; Manlius slew the Gaul and stripped him of his neckchain (after slaying the Gaul stripped him of his neckchain, having slain, etc.). (Miltiades) capitis absolutus, pecūniā multātus est, Nep., 1. 7, 6; Miltiades (though) acquitted of a capital charge, was mulcted in (a sum of) money (was acquitted, but mulcted).

2. A common translation of the Participle is an abstract substantive; see 325, r. 3; 437, n. 2.

Nec terra mūtāta mūtāvit mōrēs, L., xxxvii. 54, 18; nor hath the change of land changed the character. Teucer Ulixēn reum facit Āiacis occīsī, Quint., iv. 2, 13; Teucer indictς Ulysses for the murder of Ajax. Inter haece parāta atque décréta, S., C., 43. 3.

3. On the Participle after verbs of Perception and Representation, see 536.

665. Participles may represent Time When.

Alexander moriēns ānulum suum dederat Perdiccaē, Nep., xviii. 2, 1; Alexander (when he was) dying, had given his ring to Perdiccas. Dionyśius tyrannus Syrācūsīs expulsus Corinthī puerōs docēbat, C., Tusc., iii. 12, 27; Dionysius the tyrant, (after he had been) exiled from Syracuse (after his exile from Syracuse), taught (a) boys’ (school) at Corinth.

Ablative Absolute.

(Solōn et Pisistratus) Serviō Tulliō rēgnante viguērunt, C., Br., 10. 39; Solon and Pisistratus flourished when Servius Tullius was king (in the reign of Servius Tullius). Sōle ortō Volsīō sē circumvāllātōs vidērunt, Cf. L., iv. 9. 13; when the sun was risen (after sunrise), the Volscians saw that they were surrounded by lines of intrenchment.

Notes.—1. On the Abl. Abs. of the simple Participle, see 410, n. 4.

2. Suetonius uses the Abl. Abs. as well as the simple Participle with ante (prius) quam; (Tiberius) excēssum Augustī nōn prius palam fēcit quam Agrippā iuvene interēmptō, Tib., 22; see also Iul., 58.
PAETICIPIAL SENTENCES.

666. Participles may represent Cause Why.

Aρεσπαγιτae damnāvērunt puerum coturnicum oculōs ēruentem, Cf. Quint., v. 9, 13; the court of Mars' Hill condemned a boy for plucking out (because he plucked out) the eyes of quails. Athēniēnsēs Alcibiadem corruptum a rēgē Persārum capere nōluisse Cŷmēn arguēbant, Cf. Nep., vii. 7, 2: the Athenians charged Alcibiades with having been unwilling to take Cyme (because he had been) bribed by the King of Persia.

Ablative Absolute.

(Rōmānī veterēs) rēgnārī omnēs volēbant libertātīs dulcēdine nōndum expertā, L., i. 17, 3; the old Romans all wished to have a king over them (because they had) not yet tried the sweetness of liberty.

Note.—An apparent cause is given by ut, as, velut, as, for instance, tamquam, (so) as, quasi, as if, see 602, n. 3.

In this usage Cicero and Caesar are very careful, employing only quasi, ut. Livy introduces tamquam, utpote, velut, and the tendency grows until it reaches its culmination in Tacitus.

667. Participles may represent Condition and Concession.

Sī latet ars prōdest, affert dēprēnsa pudōrem, Ov., A...1., ii. 313 (593, 2). [Rīsus] interdum ita repente ērumpit ut eum cupientēs tenēre nequeāmus, Cf. C., Or., ii. 58, 235 (609). (Miltiadēs) capitis absolutus, pecūniā multātus est, Nep., i. 7, 6 (664, r. 1).

Ablative Absolute.

Māximās virtūtēs iacēre omnēs necesse est voluptātēs dominante, C., Fin., ii. 35, 117 (593, 2).

Note.—On the combination of quamquam, quamvis, and etsi with the Participle, see 609, n. 1; nisi also is not uncommon; tamen is sometimes added in the principal clause.

668. Participles may represent Relative Clauses (637).

Omnēs aliud agentēs, aliud simulantēs, perfīdī (sunt), C., Off., iii. 14, 60 (637). [Pisistratus] Homērī librōs cōnfūsōs antēā sic disposuisse dīcitur ut nunc habēmus, C., Or., iii. 34, 137 (637).

Remark.—So-called, qui dīcitur, vocātur, quem vocant; above-mentioned, quem antēā, supra diximus.

669. Future Participle (Active).—The Future Participle is a verbal adjective, denoting Capability and Tendency, chiefly employed in the older language with sum, I am, as a periphrastic tense. In later Latin it is used freely, just as the Present and Perfect Participles, to express subordinate relations.

Peculiar is the free use of it in Sentences of Design, and especially
noticeable the compactness gained by the employment of it in Conditional Relations.

670. In later Latin, the Future Participle (active) is used to represent subordinate relations (438, n.):

1. Time When.

(Tiberius) trāiectūrus (= cum trāiectūrus esset) Rhēnum commeātum nōn trānsmisit, Suet., Tib., 18; when Tiberius was about to cross the Rhine, he did not send over the provisions.

2. Cause Why.

Déridiculō fuit senex foedissimae adūlātiōnis tantum infāmiā ūsūrus, Tac., Ann., iii. 57, 3; a butt of ridicule was the old man, as infamy was the only gain he would make by his foul fawning. Antiochus sēcūrus dē bellō Rōmānō erat tamquam nōn trānsitūris in Asiam Rōmānis, L., xxxvi. 41, 1 (602, n. 3).

3. Purpose (usually after a verb of Motion).

(Marobodūrus) mīsit lēgātōs ad Tiberium ērātūrōs auxilia, Tac., Ann. ii. 46 (438, n.). Cōnsul Larīsam est profectus, ibī dē summā bellī cōnsultātūrus, L., xxxvi. 14, 5.

Note.—The Pr. Participle is sometimes used in a similar sense, but the Purpose is only an inference:

Lēgātī vēnērunt nūntiantēs Asiae quoque civitātēs sollicitārī, L., xxxi. 2, 1; envoys came with the announcement that the states of Asia also were tampered with.


(i) Protasis.

Dēditūris sē Hannibali fuisse accersendum Rōmānōrum praeсидium? L., xxiii. 44, 2; if they had been ready to surrender to Hannibal, would they have had to send for a Roman garrison? (= sī dēditūri fuissent, Ō. R.: sī dēditūri fuērunt.)

(ii) Apodosis.

Quatiunt arma, ruptūrī imperium nī dūcantur, Tac., ii., iii. 19, 3; they clash their arms, ready to break orders, if they be not led forward. Librum mīsī exigentī tībī, missūrus etsī nōn exēgissēs, Plin., Ep., iii. 13, 1: I have sent you the book, as you exacted it, although I should have sent it even if you had not exacted it.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

671. The Latin language allows greater freedom in the arrangement of words than the English. This freedom is, of course, due to its greater wealth of inflections.
ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

429

Two elements enter into the composition of a Latin Sentence, governing to some extent its arrangement: Grammar and Rhetoric.

672. 1. Grammatical arrangement has for its object clearness. It shows the ideas in the order of development in the mind of the speaker. By Grammatical arrangement the sentence grows under the view.

2. Rhetorical arrangement has for its objects Emphasis and Rhythm. It presents a sentence already developed in such a way that the attention is directed to certain parts of it especially.

(a) Emphasis is produced:
   1. By reversing the ordinary position.
   2. By approximation of similars or opposites.
   3. By separation.

In all sentences Beginning and End are emphatic points. In long sentences the Means as well as the Extremes are the points of emphasis.

(b) Rhythm.—Much depends on the rhythmical order of words, for which the treatises of the ancients are to be consulted. Especially avoided are poetic rhythms. So, for example, the Dactyl and Spondee, or close of an Hexameter at the end of a period.

673. Two further principles seem to underlie the arrangement of Latin sentences: (a) that of the ascending construction; (b) that of the descending construction. In the ascending construction, which is more common, the principal word is placed last, and the subordinate ones, in the order of their importance, precede. In the descending construction the reverse is the process. The descending construction is regular in definitions.

674. Rule I.—The most simple arrangement of a sentence is as follows:

1. The Subject and its Modifiers.
2. The Predicate and its Modifiers.

1. Dionysius tyrannus, Syrácūsīs expulsus. 2. Corinthī puerōs docēbat, C., Tusc., iii. 12, 27 (665).

Rhetorical positions:

Potentēs sequitur invidia, QUINTE, iv. 1, 14 (477, n. 4). Nōbīs nōn satis-

**Remark.**—The modifiers of the predicate stand in the order of their importance. The following arrangement is common:
1. Place, Time, Cause, or Means. 2. Indirect Object. 3. Direct Object. 4. Adverb. 5. Verb.

**Note.**—The postponement of the subject is rare and always for definite reasons in the classical period; later it becomes a mannerism, especially in the elder Pliny; to a less degree in Nepos and Livy.

675. **Rule II.**—Interrogative Sentences begin with the interrogative, subordinate clauses with the leading particle or relative.


Rhetorical position:


676. **Rule III.**—An Adjective usually precedes, but often follows, the word to which it belongs; a dependent Genitive usually follows the governing word; so too does a word in Apposition.


Rhetorical position:


**Remarks.**—i. The demonstrative pronouns regularly precede; the possessives regularly follow.

Rhetorical position:

Recordāre tempus illud, cum pater Cūriō maerēns iacēbat in lectō, C., Ph., i. 18, 45 (580). Œsculātur tigrim suus cūstōs, Sex., E.M., 85, 41 (309, 2).

2. Ordinals regularly follow, Cardinals regularly precede the substantive.

3. Many expressions have become fixed formulae: so titles, proper names, and the like; see 288.

Facinus est vincire civem Rōmānum, C., Verr., v. 66, 170 (535).

4. The titles rēx, imperātor, etc., frequently precede the proper name with which they are in apposition.

5. New modifiers of either element may be inserted, prefixed, or added:


Notes.—1. The tendency in Latin was to reverse the Indo-Germanic rule by which an attributive adjective and a dependent Genitive preceded the governing word. But in early Latin the adjective still holds its place more often before its substantive, while the Genitive has already succumbed for the most part to the tendency. In the classical period the adjective is more often used after its substantive. But neither position can be strictly called rhetorical. The same is true of the possessive pronoun.

2. The original force of a following adjective or Genitive was restrictive or appositional, while, when it preceded, it formed a close compound with its substantive; thus, bonus homō, a good man (one idea); homō bonus, a man (one idea) who is good (another idea). In classical Latin this distinction is no longer inevitable, though it is often essential.

677. Rule IV.—Adverbs are commonly put next to their verb (before it when it ends a sentence), and immediately before their adjective or adverb.

Zēnōnem cum Athēnis essem audiēbam frequenter ..., C., N.D., i. 21, 59 (585). Caeddī discipulōs minimē velim, Qūnt., i. 3, 13 (257). Vix cuiquam persuādēbatūr Graeciā omni cēs Maurōs (Rōmānōs), L., xxxiii. 32. 3 (546, r. 1). [Rīsus] interdum ita repente erumpit ut eum cupientēs tenēre nequeāmus, C., Or., ii. 58, 235 (609).

Rhetorical positions:

[Īram] bene Ennius initium dixit insāniae, C., Tusc., iv. 23, 52 (440). Saepe māgna indolēs virtūtis priusquam reī publicae prōd esse potuisset exstincta est, C., Ph., v. 17, 47 (577).

Remarks.—1. Ferē, paene, prope, usually follow:

Nēmō ferē saltāt sōbrius nisi forte insānit, C., Mur., 6, 13 (591, r. 4).

2. Negatives always precede, see 448.
Note.—The separation of adverbs from their adjectives is rare, except in the case of *tam* and *quam*, which Plautus, Terence, Cicero, and later authors often separate, e.g., by a preposition: *tam ab tenui exitio*. Hyperbaton with other adverbs is rare.

678. **Rule V.**—Prepositions regularly precede their case (413).


**Remarks.**—1. On *versus*, *tenus*, and the postposition of *cum* in combination with the personal pronouns and the relative, see 413, r. 1.

2. Monosyllabic prepositions are not unfrequently put between the adjective and substantive: māgnā *cum cūrā*. See 413, r. 2.

Less frequently they are placed between the Gen. and substantive; except when the relative is employed.

3. Dissyllabic prepositions are sometimes put after their case (Anastrophe), especially after a relative or demonstrative: most frequently *contra*, *inter*, *propter*. So also adverbs. See 413, r. 1.

4. The preposition may be separated from its case by a Gen. or an adverb (413, r. 3): *ad Appī Claudī senectūtem accédēbat etiam ut caecus esset*, C., *Cat. M.*, 6, 16 (553, 4).

5. Monosyllabic prepositions, such as *cum*, *ex*, *dé*, *post*, sometimes append the enclitics *-que*, *-ve*, *-ne*, as, *exque iis*, and *from them*. Usually, however, the enclitics join the dependent substantive: in patriamque rediit, and returned to his country. See 413, n. 3.

On the position of *per*, see 413, n. 2.

679. **Rule VI.**—Particles vary.

*Enim* commonly takes the second, seldom the third place; *nam* and *namque* are regularly prepositive. See 498, n. 1.

*Ergō* in the syllogism precedes, elsewhere follows; *igitur* is commonly second or third; *itaque* regularly first. See 502, n. 2; 500, r.

*Tamen* is first, but may follow an emphatic word. See 490.

*Etiam* usually precedes, *quoque* always follows. See 478, 479.

*Quidem* and *dēmum* (at length) follow the word to which they belong.

680. **Rule VII.**—A word that belongs to more than one word regularly stands before them all, or after them all, sometimes after the first (291).

Ariovistus respondit multis sēsē nōbilibus principibusque populī Rōmānī grātum esse factūrum, Caes., *B.G.*, i. 44, 12 (657, 9). [Isocrates] queritur plūs honōris corporum quam animōrum virtūtibus dāri, Quint., iii. 8, 9 (542, r.). Longum est mūlōrum persequi utilitātēs et asinōrum, C., *N.D.*, ii. 64, 159 (254, r. 1).
ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

681. Rule VIII.—Words of kindred or opposite meaning are often put side by side for the sake of complement or contrast.

Manus manum lavat, one hand washes the other. [Catō] mirāri sé āiēbat quod nōn rīdēret haruspex, haruspicem cum vidisset, C., Div., II. 24, 51 (567). Emit morte immortālītātem, Quint., ix. 3, 71 (404).

682. Rule IX. — Contrast ed Pairs.—When pairs are contrasted, the second is put in the same order as the first, but often in inverse order. The employment of the same order is called Anaphora (repetition). The inverse order is called Chiasmus, or crosswise position, and gives alternate stress. The principle is of wide application, not merely in the simple sentence but also in the period.

Same order (Anaphora).

Fortūna (1) vestra (2) facit ut Īrae (1) meae (2) temperem, L., xxxvi. 35. 3 (553, 1). Mālō tē sapiēns (1) hostis (2) metuat quam stultī (1) cīvēs (2) laudent, L., xxii. 39, 20 (546, r. 2).

Inverse order (Chiasmus).

Ante vidēmus (1) fulgōrem (2) quam sōnum (2) audiāmus (1), Sen., N.Q., II. 12, 6 (577). Parvi sunt forīs (1) arma (2) nisi est cōnsilium (2) domī (1), C., Off., I. 22, 76 (411, r. 2).

Remark.—Chiasmus is from the Greek letter X (chi):

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{1. Forīs} \\
&\text{2. arma} \\
&\text{1. domī} \\
&\text{X}
\end{align*}
\]

683. Poetical Peculiarities.—In the poets we find many varieties of arrangement of substantive and adjective, designed to draw especial attention to the idea or to color the verse. These occur chiefly in the Hexameter and Pentameter, but to a lesser degree also in other measures. Thus the substantive and adjective are put either at the end of each hemistich, or at the beginning of each hemistich, or one is at the end of the first and the other at the beginning of the second.


ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

684. A period is a compound sentence with one or more subordinate clauses, in which sentence the meaning is kept suspended to the close.
685. Latin periods may be divided into two classes:
1. Responsive or Apodotic, in which a Protasis has an
Apodosis.
2. Intercalary or Enthetic, in which the various items are
inserted in their proper place between Subject and Predicate.

Ut saepe hominēs aegri morbō gravi, cum aestū febrīque iactantur,
sī aquam gelidum biberunt, primō relevāri videntur, deinde multō
gravius vehementiusque affictantur: sīc hic morbus, quī est in rē pūb-
licā, relevātus istīnus poenā, vehementius, reliquis vivis, ingravēscet,
C., Cat., r. 13, 31 (Apodotic).

Catuvolcus, rēx dīmīdiāe partis Eburōnum, quī ūnā cum Ambiorīge
cōnsilium inierat, aetātē iam cōnfectus, cum labōrem aut belli aut fugae
ferrē nōn possēt, omnibus precibus dētōstātus Ambiorīgem, quī ēius
cōnsilii auctōr fuisset, taxō, cūius māgna in Gallīa Germaniāque cōpia
est, sē examīnāvit, Caes., B. G., vi. 31, 5 (Enthetīc).

686. Naegelsbach's careful study of the subject has led to the fol-
lowing results. The simplest period is composed of one subordinate (a)
and one principal (A) clause; the principal varieties are: (1) a : A,
where the principal clause follows the subordinate; (2) A (a) A, where
the subordinate clause is inserted within the principal clause; (3) A | a,
where the principal clause precedes the subordinate clause; (4) a (A) a,
where the principal clause is inserted within the subordinate clause.
When two subordinate clauses (a, b), independent of each other, are
used, the forms are: (5) a : A | b ; (6) a : A (b) a ; (7) A (a) A | b ; (8)
A (a) A (b) A ; (9) a : (b : A). If the dependent clauses are of different
degree (a, a, A), that is, one depending upon the other, some fifteen
additional forms are allowable.

Some examples are:
a (A) a : illatorum vidēs quam niteat orātiō, C., Fin., iv. 3, 5. a : (b : A):
cūr nōlint, etiamsi taceant, satōs dicunt, C., Div. in Caec., 6, 21. a : a : A :
quid agātur, cum aperuerē, facile erit statuere, C., Ph., v. 2, 6. a : A | α : illud quid sit, scīre cœpiō, quod iacis obsēcūrē, C., Att., ii. 7, 4. a | α (A) a :
nōs uti expectārēmus sē, reliquit quī rogāret, Varro, R. R., i. 2, 32.
A | α (a) α : mandō tībī plānē, tōtum ut videās cūius modī sit, C., Att., i.
12, 2.

687. Periods are also divided into Historical and Oratorical. The
former are, as a rule, simple. The most common form is a : A, i.e.,
where a subordinate clause is followed by a leading clause: Iā ubi
dixisset hastam in hostium finēs émittēbat, L., i. 42, 13. Another com-
mon period, developed and much liked by Livy, and later by Tacitus,
was α : a : A, consisting of (1) a participial clause: (2) a clause
introduced by a conjunction; (3) the principal clause. Cf. Tac., Ann.,
II. 69. 3, detentus ubi . . . accepit plebem prōturbat. Historians, having much occasion for description, are also prone to use the descending period, i.e., the form in which the principal clause precedes. So especially Nepos. Livy likes also to use two independent subordinate clauses asyndetically.

The Oratorical periods are much more diverse and complicated, owing to the greater variety of effects at which they aim. We find, however, the ascending structure, where the emphasis is continually ascending until it culminates at the end, more common.

See an excellent example in C., Imp., 5, 11:

Vōs eum rēgem inultum esse patiēmini quī lēgātum populi Rōmānī cōnsulārem vinculīs āc verberibus atque omnī suppliciō EXCRUCIĀTUM XECĀVIT?

**FIGURES OF SYNTAX AND RHETORIC.**

688. Ellipsis is the omission of some integral part of the thought, such as the substantив of the adjective (204, n. 1), the copula of the predicate (209), the verb of the adverb.

Unde domō? V., A., viii. 114 (391, n. 2).

Remark.—When the ellipsis is indefinite, do not attempt to supply it. The figure is still much abused by commentators in the explanation of grammatical phenomena.

689. Brachylogy (breviloquentia) is a failure to repeat an element which is often to be supplied in a more or less modified form.

Tam fēlix essēs quam fōrmōsissima (= es) vellem, Ov., Am., i. 8, 27 (302).

690. Zeugma or Syllēpsis is a junction of two words under the same regimen, or with the same modifier, although the common factor strictly applies but to one.

Manūs āc supplicēs vōcēs ad Tiberium tendēns, Tac., Ann., ii. 29, 2: stretching out hands and (uttering) suppliant cries to Tiberius.

691. Aposiopēsis is a rhetorical breaking off before the close of the sentence, as in the famous Vergilian Quōs ego . . .

692. Pleonasm is the use of superfluous words.

693. Enallage is a shift from one form to another: vōs ē Calliōpē precor, V., A., ix. 525.
Hypallage is an interchange in the relations of words: dare clássibus austrōs, V., A., iii. 61.

694. Oxymóron is the use of words apparently contradictory of each other: cum tacent clámant, C., Cat., i. 8, 21 (582).

695. Synecdoché is the use of the part for the whole, or the reverse: tectum for domum, puppis for nāvis, mucró for gladius, etc.

696. Hypérbaton, Trajection, is a violent displacement of words. Lýdia dic per omnēs tē deōs òrō, H., O., i. 8, 1 (413, n. 2).

697. Anacoluthon, or want of sequence, occurs when the scheme of a sentence is changed in its course.

698. Hendiadys (ἐν διὰ δεόν) consists in giving an analysis instead of a complex, in putting two substantives connected by a copulative conjunction, instead of one substantive and an adjective or attributive genitive.

_Vulgus et multitudō, the common herd._ Via et ratiō (C., Verr., i. 16, 47), _scientific method._ _Vi et armis, by force of arms._

So two verbs may be translated by an adverb and a verb: fundī fugārique, to be utterly routed.

699. Cōnstrüctiō Praegnāns. So-called cōnstrüctiō praegnāns is nothing but an extended application of the accusative of the Inner Object (Object Effected). The result is involved, not distinctly stated.

Exitium inritat, Cf. Tac., Ann., xiii. i, 1; _he provokes destruction_ (ad exitium inritat).

700. Litotēs, or Understatement, is the use of an expression by which more is meant than meets the ear. This is especially common with the Negative.

_Nōn indecorō pulvere sordidī, H., O., ii. 1, 22 (449, r. 2)._
PRINCIPAL RULES OF SYNTAX.

1. The Verb agrees with its subject in number and person (211).
2. The Adjective agrees with its subject in gender, number, and case (211).
3. The common Predicate of two or more subjects is put in the Plural (285); when the genders are different, it takes the strongest gender or the nearest (286); when the persons are different, it takes the first in preference to the second, the second in preference to the third (287).
4. The common Attribute of two or more substantives agrees with the nearest, rarely with the most important (290).
5. The Predicate substantive agrees with its subject in case (211).
6. The Appositive agrees with its subject in case; if possible, also in number and person (321).
7. The Relative agrees with its antecedent in gender, number, and person (614).
8. Disproportion is indicated by the comparative with quam pró, quam ut, quam qui (298).
9. In comparing two qualities, use either magis quam with the positive, or a double comparative (299).
10. Superlatives denoting order and sequence are often used partitively and then usually precede their substantive (291, R. 2).
11. The Genitive forms mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, are used mainly as objective genitives; nostrum and vestrum as partitive (304, 2).
12. The Reflexive is used regularly when reference is made to the grammatical subject; frequently when reference is made to the actual subject (309).
13. The Reflexive is used of the principal subject, when reference is made to the thought or will of that subject; hence, in Infinitive clauses, or Indirect Questions, in Sentences of Design, and in Ārātiō Obliqua (521).
14. The Possessive Pronoun is used instead of the Possessive or Subjective Genitive in the First and Second Persons (362, 364).
15. The Appositive to a possessive pronoun is in the Genitive (321, R. 2).
16. With words of Inclination and Disinclination, Knowledge and Ignorance, Order and Position, Time and Season, the adjective is usually employed for the adverb (325, R. 6).
17. The Indicative, not the Subjunctive, is used in expressions of Possibility, Power, Obligation, and Necessity (254, R. 1).
PRINCIPAL RULES OF SYNTAX.

18. The Potential of the Present or Future is the Present or Perfect Subjunctive (257); the Potential of the Past is the Imperfect Subjunctive (258).

19. The Optative Subjunctive may be used to express a Wish (260), an Asseveration (262), a Command (263), or a Concession (264).

20. The First Imperative looks forward to immediate, the Second to contingent, fulfilment (268).

21. The Negative of the Imperative is regularly nōlī with the Infinitive; sometimes neā with the Perfect Subjunctive (270, n. 2), or cavē with the Subjunctive (271) is also used.

22. The Infinitive, with or without a subject, may be treated as a neuter subject (422), object (423), or predicate (424).

23. The Infinitive is used as the object of verbs of Will, Power, Duty, Habit, Inclination, Resolve, Continuance, End, etc. (423).

24. The Accusative and Infinitive is used as the object of verbs of Will and Desire (532).

25. The Accusative and Infinitive is used as the object of verbs of Emotion (533).

26. The Accusative and Infinitive is used in Exclamation (534).

27. After verbs of Saying, Showing, Believing, and Perceiving, the Present Infinitive expresses action contemporary with that of the governing verb, the Perfect, action prior to it, the Future, action future to it (530).

28. The Genitive of the Gerund and Gerundive is used chiefly after substantives and adjectives that require a complement (428).

29. The Dative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used mainly in post-classical Latin after words of Fitness and Function; also after words of Capacity and Adaptation, and to express Design (429).

30. The Accusative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used after verbs of Giving and Taking, Sending and Leaving, etc., to indicate Design (430).

31. The Ablative of the Gerund and Gerundive is used to denote Means and Cause, rarely Manner (431).

32. The Supine in -um is used chiefly after verbs of Motion to express Design (435).

33. The Supine in -ā is used chiefly with adjectives to indicate Respect (436).

34. The Present Participle denotes continuance, the Perfect, completion, at the time of the leading verb (282).

35. The Future Participle is used in post-Ciceronian Latin to express Design (438, n.).
36. The Participle is used after verbs of Perception and Representation to express the actual condition of the object (536).

37. The Perfect Participle passive is used after verbs of Causation and Desire, to denote impatience of anything except entire fulfilment (537).

38. The subject of a finite verb is in the Nominative (203).

39. Verbs of Seeming, Becoming, with the passive of verbs of Making, Choosing, Showing, Thinking, and Calling, take two Nominatives, one of the subject, one of the predicate (206).

40. With passive verbs of Saying, Showing, Believing, and Perceiving, the Accusative subject of the Infinitive becomes the Nominative subject of the leading verb (528).

41. The Appositional Genitive is used after vox, nomen, verbum, res, etc. (361, 1).

42. The Epexegetical Genitive (or Genitive of Explanation) is used after genus, vitium, culpa, etc. (361, 2).

43. The Possessive Genitive is used of the Third Person to denote possession (362).

44. The Subjective Genitive is used of the subject of the action indicated by the substantive (363, 1); the Objective Genitive of the object of that action (363, 2).

45. Essential or permanent qualities are put in the Genitive, always with an adjective (365); external and transient qualities in the Ablative, always with an adjective (400). See No. 82.

46. The Genitives of Quality and Possession may be used as predicates (366).

47. The Partitive Genitive stands for the whole to which a part belongs (367).

48. Adjectives of Fulness and Want, of Knowledge and Ignorance, of Desire and Disgust, of Participation and Power, may take the Genitive (374). Also some present participles used as adjectives, and in later Latin some verbalms in -āx (375).

49. Verbs of Reminding, Remembering, and Forgetting take usually the Genitive (376); but sometimes the Accusative, especially of things (376, r.).

50. Impersonal verbs of Emotion take the Accusative of the Person Who Feels, and the Genitive of the Exciting Cause (371).

51. Verbs of Accusing, Convicting, Condemning, and Acquitting, take the Genitive of the Charge (378).

52. Verbs of Rating and Buying take the Genitive of the General, the Ablative of the Particular Value (379, 404). See No. 87.
53. *Interest* and *Refer* take the Genitive of the Person, rarely of the Thing concerned (381).

54. The Indirect Object is put in the Dative (345).

55. Verbs of Advantage and Disadvantage, Bidding and Forbidding, Pleasure and Displeasure, Yielding and Resisting, take the Dative (346).

56. Many intransitive verbs compounded with *ad, ante, con, in, inter, ob, post, prae, sub, and super* may take a Dative; transitive verbs also an Accusative besides (347). See No. 66.

57. Verbs of Giving and Putting take a Dative and Accusative, or an Accusative and Ablative (348).

58. The Dative is used with *esse* to denote possession (349).

59. The Dative is used of the Person Interested in the action (350).

60. The Ethical Dative is used of the personal pronouns only (351).

61. The Dative of Reference is used of the Person to whom a statement is referred (352).

62. The Dative of Agent is used with the Perfect passive, the Gerund, and the Gerundive (354).

63. The Dative may denote the Object For Which in combination with the Person To Whom (355).

64. Adjectives of Friendliness, Fulness, Likeness, Nearness, with their opposites, take the Dative (359).

65. Active transitive verbs take the Accusative case (330).

66. Many intransitive verbs, mostly those of Motion, compounded with *ad, ante, circum, con, in, inter, ob, per, praeter, sub, subter, super, and trans*, take the Accusative; transitive verbs thus compounded may have two Accusatives (331). See No. 56.

67. Intransitive verbs may take an Accusative of similar form or meaning (333, 2).

68. The Accusative may express Extent in Degree, Space, or Time (334–6).

69. Names of Towns and Small Islands are put in the Accusative of Place Whither; so also *domus* and *rūs* (337). See No. 74 and 92.

70. Verbs meaning to Inquire, Require, Teach, and Conceal, take two Accusatives, one of the Person, one of the Thing (339).

71. Verbs of Naming, Making, Taking, Choosing, and Showing, take two Accusatives of the same Person or Thing (340).

72. The subject of the Infinitive is regularly in the Accusative (420).

73. The Accusative may be used in Exclamations (343).

74. Place Where is denoted by the Ablative, usually with *in* (385);
Place Whence by the Ablative, usually with ex, de, or ab (390). Names of Towns and Small Islands omit the prepositions (386, 391). See No. 69 and 92.

75. Attendance is denoted by the Ablative with cum (392).
76. Time When or Within Which is denoted by the Ablative (393).
77. Origin or Descent is denoted by the Ablative with or without ex and de (395).
78. Material is denoted by the Ablative with ex (396).
79. The Point of View or Respect is denoted by the Ablative (397).
80. Comparatives without quam are followed by the Ablative (398).
81. Manner is denoted by the Ablative regularly with an adjective or cum (399).
82. External and transient qualities are denoted by the Ablative, always with an adjective (400); essential and permanent qualities by the Genitive, always with an adjective (365). See No. 45.
83. Cause, Means, and Instrument, are denoted by the Ablative (401, 402).
84. The Agent is denoted by the Ablative with ab (401).
85. The Standard of Measurement is denoted by the Ablative (402).
86. Measure of Difference is put in the Ablative (403).
87. Definite Price is put in the Ablative (404); General Price in the Genitive (379). See No. 52.
88. Verbs of Depriving and Filling, of Plenty and Want, take the Ablative (405).
89. The Ablative is used with opus and susus (406).
90. Utor, fruor, fungor, potior, and vescor take the Ablative (407).
91. The Ablative, combined with a participle, serves to modify the verbal predicate of a sentence: Ablative Absolute (409).
92. Names of Towns and Small Islands of the First and Second Declensions are put in the Locative of the Place Where (411). See No. 69 and 74.
93. Adverbs qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs (439).
94. A question for information merely is introduced by -ne (454).
95. A question that expects the answer yes is introduced by nonne (455).
96. A question that expects the answer no is introduced by num (456).
97. The Deliberative Question is in the Subjunctive (265).
98. The Indirect Question is in the Subjunctive (467).
99. Sequence of Tenses. Principal tenses are ordinarily followed by Principal tenses, Historical by Historical (509).

100. After a Future or Future Perfect, the Future relation is expressed by the Present, the Future Perfect by the Perfect Subjunctive (514). After other tenses the Future relation is expressed by the Active Periphrastic Present and Imperfect Subjunctive (515).

101. In Ὅρατι Ὅβλιqua all subordinate tenses follow the general law of sequence (516).

102. Quod, the fact that, in that, is used with the Indicative to introduce explanatory clauses after Verbs of Adding and Dropping, Doing and Happening, and demonstratives (525).

103. Quod, quia, quoniam, and quandó take the Indicative in Direct Discourse, the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse, to express Cause (540, 541).

104. Quod is used after verbs of Emotion with the Indicative in Direct, the Subjunctive in Indirect Discourse, to give the Ground (542).

105. Final Sentences have the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive with ut or ne (545).

106. Complementary Final Clauses are used after verbs of Will and Desire (546).

107. Positive verbs of Preventing, Refusing, Forbidding, and Bewaring, may take ne with the Subjunctive (548).

108. Verbs of Preventing and Refusing may take quōminus with the Subjunctive (549). See No. 112.

109. Verbs of Fear are followed by ne or ut (ne non) and all tenses of the Subjunctive (550).

110. Consecutive Sentences have the Subjunctive with ut and ut non (552).

111. Verbs of Effecting have the Subjunctive with ut and ne, or ut non (553).

112. Negatived or Questioned verbs of Preventing, Hindering, etc., of Doubt and Uncertainty, may be followed by the Subjunctive with quīn (555). See No. 108.

113. A Consecutive Clause with ut is often used to give the contents or character of a preceding substantive, adjective, or pronoun (557).

114. Ut, ut primum, cum, cum primum, ubi, ubi primum, simulāce, simul atque, and postquam take the Perfect Indicative, in the sense of as soon as; but the Imperfect of Overlapping Action, and the Pluperfect when a definite interval is given (561, 562, 563).

115. When two actions are repeated contemporaneously, both are put in the Indicative in tenses of continuance (566).
116. When one action is repeated before another, the antecedent action is put in the Perfect, Pluperfect, or Future Perfect, the subsequent in the Present, Imperfect, or Future, according to the relation (567).

117. Dum, dōnec, quoad, quamdiū, so long as, while, take the Indicative of all tenses (569).

118. Dum, while, while yet, takes the Present Indicative after all tenses (570).

119. Dum, dōnec, quoad, until, take the Present, Historical Present, Historical Perfect, and Future Perfect Indicative (571).

120. Dum, dōnec, quoad, until, take the Subjunctive when Suspense or Design is involved (572).

121. Dum, modo, and dummodo, if only, provided only, take the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive in Conditional Wishes (573).

122. Antequam and priusquam take the Indicative Present, Perfect, and Future Perfect when the limit is stated as a fact; the Subjunctive when the action is expected, contingent, designed, or subordinate (574, 577).

123. Temporal cum, when, is used with all tenses of the Indicative to designate merely temporal relations (580).

124. Historical cum, when, is used with the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive to give the temporal circumstances under which an action took place (585).

125. Causal and Concessive cum, when, whereas, although, are used with all tenses of the Subjunctive (586, 587).

126. The Logical Condition has usually some form of the Indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis (595).

127. The Ideal Condition has usually the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, less often the Imperfect or Pluperfect, in both clauses (596).

128. The Unreal Condition has the Imperfect Subjunctive of opposition to present, the Pluperfect of opposition to past fact (597).

129. Ut sī, āc sī, quasi, quam sī, tamquam, tamquam sī, velut, and velut sī, introduce a comparison in the Subjunctive. The tense follows the rule of sequence (602).

130. Concessive clauses may be introduced by etsī, etiamsi, tametsi, with the Indicative or Subjunctive (604); by quamquam, with the Indicative (605); by quamvis, with the Subjunctive (606).

131. Indefinite and generic relatives usually have the Indicative (625); so explanatory quī, when equivalent to quod (626).

132. The Subjunctive is used in Relative Clauses that form a part
of the utterance of another; so in Óratió Obliqua and Final Clauses (628).

133. Relative sentences that depend on Infinitives or Subjunctives, and form an integral part of the thought, are put in the Subjunctive by Attraction (629).

134. Relative sentences are put in the Subjunctive of Design when qui = ut (final) is (630).

135. Relative sentences are put in the Subjunctive of Tendency when qui = ut (consecutive) is; so after dignus, indignus, idóneus, aptus, etc.; after an indefinite antecedent; after comparatives with quam (631).

136. Comparative sentences after words of Likeness and Unlikeliness may be introduced by atque or ac (643).

137. Comparative sentences after comparatives are introduced by quam (644).

138. In Óratió Obliqua, Principal Clauses are put in the Infinitive, except Interrogatives and Imperatives, which are put in the Subjunctive; Subordinate clauses are put in the Subjunctive (650, 651, 652).
PROSODY.

701. Prosody treats of Quantity and Versification.

Remarks.—1. Prosody originally meant Accent. Latin Accent is regulated by Quantity, and as classical Latin versification is also quantitative, Prosody is loosely used of both quantity and versification.

2. In the earliest Latin the Accent was not regulated by Quantity, but was on the initial syllable (15, x.). This often resulted in

(a) The disappearance of the vowel (8, 2) in the antepenult or pro-antepenult; this occurs especially in Greek words, but also in some common Latin words: Poludeuces, Poludeucis, Polluceis, Pollux; balineion, balineum, balneum, bath; maximus, greatest, for magisimos; optumus, best, for opitumus, etc.

(b) The shortening of a long penult (8). This was still going on in the time of Plautus, and occurs here and there in the poets: anchor, anchor, from ankura; so peierō, I swear falsely, for periūrō; chorea, dance, from choreia, etc.

(c) The weakening (8) of the antepenult, sometimes also of the penult, both in Greek words and Latin: Massilia from Massalia; beni- and mali- for bene and male in composition; -hibēō for habeō in composition; and a few others, as -cidō for caedō in composition, etc.

QUANTITY.

702. Rule I.—A syllable is said to be long by nature when it contains a long vowel or diphthong: ō, vae, légēs, saevae.

Remarks.—(a) A vowel before -gm, -gn, -nf, -ns is long by nature;
(b) a vowel before -nt, -nd is short by nature.

Exceptions:

(a) Egnātius, Theognis, and some Greek words in -egma, as phlegma, phlegm; but pēgma.

(b) Cōntiō (for coventiō), assembly; iēntāculum, iēntātiō, breakfast; nūntius, messenger; quīntus, fifth; and some Greek substantives in -ūs, -antēs, -ōn, -ōntis; Charōndās, Epaminōndās; also nūndīnae (noven-d-), market day; nōndum, not yet; prēndō, I seize; quīndecim, fifteen; vēndō, I sell; āndecim, eleven; vīndēmia, vintage.

2. Inchoative verbs have vowel before -sc long by nature; dīscō, I learn.

3. Noteworthy are the following: quārtus, fourth; quīnque, five, and its derivatives; viginti, twenty; mille, thousand, and its derivatives.
4. In verbs the quantity of the Present Stem is generally retained throughout before two consonants (except -ns).

Except dicó, I say; Supine, dictum; dúco, I lead; Supine, ductum; and their derivatives, like dictió, etc.

5. Noteworthy are the following: ago, I drive, ēgi, āctum; emo, I buy. ēmi, ēmpum; frangó, I break, frēgi, frāctum; fungor, I perform, fūncus; iubeó, I order. iüssi, iüssum; iungō, I join, iünxi, iünctum; lego, I read, lēgi, lēctum; pangō, I fix, pāctum; rego, I govern, rēxi, rēctum; sanctō, I sanction, sānxī, sāntum, sāncitum; struo, I pile up, strūxi, strūctum; tangō, I touch, tāctum; tegō, I cover, tēxi, tēctum; traho, I draw, trāxi, trāctum; ungō, I amoint, ūnxī, ūntum; vincō, I conquer, vicī, victum; rumpō, I break, rūpi, ruptum.

6. In verbs, a vowel resulting from syncope is long before ss, st (131). Also, perhaps, i before s and t in syncopated Pf. forms of ire and petere.

Note.—On the method of distinguishing long vowels on inscriptions, see 12, r, n.

703. Rule II.—A syllable is said to be long by position (12, 2) when a short vowel is followed by two or more consonants, or a double consonant: ārs, collum, castra.

Remarks.—1. The consonants may be divided between two words: per mare, in terris; but when all the consonants are in the second word, the preceding short syllable commonly remains short, except in the Thesis (729) of a verse, when it is lengthened: praemia scribae.

2. Every vowel sound followed by i consonant (j) is long (except in the compounds of ingum, yoke). This is due sometimes to natural length of the vowel, sometimes to compensation: Gāius from Gāvius, pēierō for periūrō; but biiugus, two-horse.

Note.—In compounds of iacere, to throw, the i is often omitted, and the preceding vowel lengthened by compensation; so cōnicere; a short vowel with the i omitted is not found until Ovid's time.

3. Final s, preceded by a short vowel, is dropped before a consonant in the older poetry; often too in Lucretius (Apocope).

Īn somnis vidit priu(s) quam sam (= eam) discere cóepit.—Enn., A., 225.

Note.—In comic poetry, a short final syllable in s blends with est, and sometimes with es: opust (= opus est); simili's (= similis es).

704. Rule III.—A syllable ending in a short vowel before a mute, followed by l or r, is common (13): tenē-brae, darkness. In early Latin it is regularly short, so, too, when the mute and liquid begin a word.

Remarks.—1. The syllable must end in a short vowel: nāvi-fragus, ship-wrecking; mellī-fluus, flowing with honey; but in ab-rumpō the a is long by position.
2. In Greek words m and n are included under this rule: Tē-cmēssa, ὖ-cnus.

Exception.—Derivative substantives in ábrum, ácrum, átrum from verbs; as flābra, blasts. Zmarāgdos, Mart., v. 11, 1, cannot be paralleled.

705. Rule IV.—Every diphthong, and every vowel derived from a diphthong, or contracted from other vowels, is long (14): saevos, cruel; conclūdo, I shut up (from claudō); ini̇quos, unfair (from aequos); cōgō, I drive together (from coigo = con + ago).

Exception.—Prae in composition is shortened before a vowel until the time of Statius; prae-ūstus, burnt at the point (V., A., vii. 524).

706. Rule V.—One simple vowel before another vowelsound, or h, makes a short syllable: déus, God; pūer, boy; nihil, nothing.

Exceptions:
1. ā in the old Gen. of the First Declension: aurāi.
2. ē in -ēi of the Fifth Declension, when a vowel precedes: diēi, but fīdēi (63, n. 1).
3. a and e before i in proper names in -ius: Gāi, Pompēi.
4. i in the Gen. form -ius (76, r. 2). Alterius is often shortened, perhaps even in prose: ūnīus, ūllius, nūllius, tōtius, are found in poetry. In alius the i is never shortened (alius for aliīus).
5. i in fīō is long, except before er: fīō, but fieret and fieri.
6. ĕheu, Diāna, ŏhē, ďūs (= divus).
7. Many Greek words: āer, Menelāus, müsequm, Médēa.
8. In early Latin many words retain the original length of the vowel: āis, rēi; all forms of fīō; clōū; fūi and its forms; plūīt, lūīt, adnūī, etc. Most of the shortened forms also occur, and are more common.

Quantity of Final Syllables.

A. POLYSYLLABLES.

707. Rule VI.—In words of more than one syllable, final a, e, and y are short; i, o, and u are long.

1. a is short: terrā, earth; dōnā, gifts; capitā, heads.

Exceptions:
1. Abl. of the First Declension: terrā.
2. Voc. of words in ās (Aenēā), and Greek Nom. in ā (Ελεκτρά).
3. Impv. of First Conjugation: amā.
4. Most uninflected words: trigintā, iūxtā, but itā, quia, eīa. With putā, for instance, compare cavē below.

2. e is short.

Exceptions:
1. Abl. of the Fifth Declension: diē.
2. Impv. of Second Conjugation: monē (but see Note).
3. Most adverbs of Second Declension: rēctē; but benē, malē, infernē (Lucr.), máxumē (Plaut.), probē (Plaut.), supernē (Lucr., Hor.), temerē (Plaut., Ter.).
4. Greek words in ᾧ ( timeval): Tempē, melē.
5. Que is thought to be not unfrequently long in the Thesis of early Saturnians; so in the hexameter of the classical period if a second que follows in the Aريس.

Note.—Observe that in Plautus and Terence any dissyllabic Iambic impv. may have the last e shortened; principally cavē, habē, iubē, manē, monē, movē, tacē, tenē, valē, vidē. See 716. Later poets also shorten sometimes when the penult is long; salve (Mart.).

3. y is always short, except in contracted forms: misy (Dative misy = misyi).

4. i is long: domini, vigintī, audī.

Exceptions:
1. Greek Dat. si: Trōasi.
2. Greek Nom., as sināpī; Voc., as Parī; Dat. Sing. (rarely), as Minōidi.
3. quasi, nisi, cui (when a dissyllable).
4. i is common in mīhī, tībī, sībī, iūbī, ubī.
Observe the compounds: ibīdem, ibīque, ubīque, ubīnam, ubīvis, ubī-cunque, nēcūbī, utinam, utique, sicūti; (but uti).

5. o is long: bonō, tūtō.

Exceptions:
1. Common in homō; in the Augustan times in leō and many proper names; as Scipio; in the post-Augustan times in many common substantives: virgō. Nēmō is found first in Ovid, mentiō in Horace.
2. Frequently short in Iambic words in early Latin, especially in verbs, many of which remained common in the Augustan times, as volō, vetō, scio, petō, putō, etc.; so less often nescio, dēsinō, obsecrō, dīxerō, ōderō. From Seneca on, the Gerund may be shortened: amandō.
3. o is usually short in modō, citō, octō, egō, ilicō, Immo, duō, ambō (post-classical); and in many other words in later poetry.

6. u is always long: cornū, fructū, auditū.
708. Rule VII. — All final syllables that end in a simple consonant other than s are short.

Exceptions:
1. ãllec, liën, and many Greek substantives.
2. The adverbs and oblique cases of illic, illuc, istic, istuc, can hardly be considered exceptions, as -c is for -ce, and is merely enclitic.
4. it, petit, and their compounds.
5. Final -at, -et, -it, were originally long, and as such often occur in early Latin, and occasionally before a pause in the classical poets.

709. Rule VIII. — Of final syllables in s: as, es, os, are long; is, us, ys, short.

1. as is long: Aenéás, servás, amás.

Exceptions:
1. Greek substantives in ãs, ádis: Arcás, Arcádis.
3. anás, anátis.

2. es is long: régés, diés, monés.

Exceptions:
1. Nom. and Voc. Sing., Third Declension, when the Gen. has étis, itis, idis: segés, milés, obsés; but abiés, ariés, pariés.
2. Compounds of es, be (long syllable in Plautus): adés, potés.
3. penés (Preposition).
4. Greek words in ès (ës): Nom. Pl., as Arcadés; Voc., as Démosphénés; Neuter, as cacoethês.
5. Iambic verbal forms in Second Person Sing. in early Latin.

3. os is long: déós, nepós.

Exceptions:
1. Compós, impós, exós; and as the Nom. ending in the Second Declension.
2. Greek words in òs (òs): melós.

4. is is short: canís, legís.

Exceptions:
3. In the Nom. of sundry Proper Names, increasing long in the Genitive: Quiris, Quiritis.
5. In the verbal forms from vis, sis, fis, and velis: nō-lis, mā-lis, ad-sis, cale-fis.


7. Pulvis, cinis, sanguis, occasionally in early Latin.

5. us is short: servus, currus.

Exceptions:
2. Nom. Third Declension, when the Gen. has a long u: virtūs, virtūtis; incūs, incūdis; tellūs, tellūris.
3. In Greek words with ū (ovū): tripūs, Sapphus; but Oedipūs and polypūs.
4. Occasionally the Dat. and Abl. Pl. of the Third Declension, the First Person Pl. active of verbs, seem to be long in early Latin.

6. ys is short: chlamyds.

B. MONOSYLLABLES.

710. Rule IX.—All monosyllables that end in a vowel are long: ā, dā, mē, dē, hī, sī, ē, dō, tū.

Except the enclitics: -quē, -vē, -né, -cē, -tē, -psē, ptē.

711. Rule X.—Declined or conjugated monosyllables that end in a consonant follow the rules given: dās, flēs, scīs, dāt, flēt, īs, īd, quis, hīs, quīs, quōs.

hic, this one, is often shortened: dīc and dūc have the quantity of their verbs: ēs, be, is short in classical Latin, long in early Latin.

712. Rule XI.—Monosyllabic Nominatives of substantives and adjectives are long when they end in a consonant, even if the stem-syllable be short: ās, mōs, vēr, sōl, fūr, plūs; lār (lāris), pēs (pēdis), bōs (bōvis), pār (pāris).

Exceptions:
vir and lac, os (ossis), mel;
Also cor, vas (vadis), fel. Also quot, tot.

713. Rule XII.—Monosyllabic particles that end in a consonant are short: ān, ās, īn, nēc, pēr, tēr.

Excepting ēn and nōn and quīn;
And also crās and ēr and sīn;
Also the Adverbs in c: hīc, hūc, hāc, sic; and ār (atque).
Quantity of Stem-Syllables.

714. Rule XIII.—The quantity of stem-syllables, when not determined by the general rules, is fixed by the usage of the poets (long or short by authority).

Remarks.—1. The changes of quantity in the formation of tense-stems have been set forth in the conjugation of the verb (153, 2).

2. The occasional differences in the quantity of the stem-syllables which spring from the same radical can only be explained by reference to the history of each word, and cannot be given here. Some examples are:

| pāciscor | pāx, pācis. | sēdeō, | sēdēs. |
| mácer | mācerō. | fīdēs, | fīdō (feido). |
| lēgo | lēx, lēgis. | dux, dūcis, | dūcō (doucō). |
| régo | réx, régis. | vōcō, | vōx. |
| tēgo | tēgula. | lūcerna, | lūceō (loucēō). |
| ācer | ācerbus. | suspicor, | susplicō. |
| mōlēs | mōlestus. | móveō, | mōbilis (= movbilis). |

Quantity in Compounds.

715. Rule XIV.—Compounds generally keep the quantity of their constituent parts: (cēdō) ante-cēdō, dē-cēdō, prō-cēdō; (caedō), occidō; (cādō), occidō.

Remarks.—1. Of the inseparable prefixes, dī, sē, and vē are long, ré short: didūcō, sēdūcō, vēcors, rēdūcō; dī, in disertus, is shortened for dis, and in dirimo, dīr stands for dis.

2. Nē is short, except in nēdum, nēmō (ne-hemō), nēquam, nēquīquam, nēquāquam, nēquitia, nēve.

3. Rē comes from red, which in the forms redd, recc, rep, rell, rett, occurs principally in poetry before many consonantal verb forms; but this doubling varies at different periods, and is found throughout only in reddō. Rē by compensation for the loss of the d is found, occasionally, principally in Perfect stems and in dactylic poetry, especially in réicere, réligiō (also relligio and religiō), rēdūcō (once in Plaut.).

4. Prō is shortened before vowels, and in many words before consonants, especially before f: prōavos, prōhibēō, prōünde, prōfugīō, prōfugus, prōfundus, prōfīteor, prōfāri, prōfānus, prōniscor, prōcella, prōcul, prōnepōs. The older language shortens less frequently than the later. In Greek words prō (πρὸ) is generally short: prōphēta; but prōlogus.

5. The second part of the compound is sometimes shortened: dēiērō,
(from iūrō), cognitus, agnitus (from nōtus). Notice the quantity in the compounds of -dīcus: fātidicus, vēridicus (dīcō), and innūba, prōnūba (nūbō).

6. Mechanical rules, more minute than those given above, might be multiplied indefinitely, but they are all open to so many exceptions as to be of little practical value. A correct pronunciation of Latin cannot be acquired except by constant practice, under the direction of a competent teacher, or by a diligent study of the Latin poets, and consequently of Latin versification.

Peculiarities of Quantity in Early Latin.

716. The Iambic (734) Law. Any combination of short and long, having an accent on the short, or immediately preceding or following an accented syllable, may be scanned as a Pyrrhic. This applies to

(a) Iambic words, especially imperatives, as: rogō, víde, manē;

(b) Words beginning with an Iambus, when the second syllable is long by position, and the third syllable is accented, as: senectūtem, volūntātis;

(c) Two monosyllables closely connected, or a monosyllable closely connected with a following long initial syllable, as: quis hic est, ut occēpi. The monosyllable may have become so by elision.

(d) Trochaic words following a short accented syllable, as: quid ēstuc.

(e) Cretic words, but more often in anapaestic measure, or at the beginning of a hemistich, as vēnerānt.

Notes.—1. Before quidem a monosyllable is shortened: tū quidem.
2. A combination like volūptās mea is looked upon as a single word.
3. Authorities are not agreed as to the shortening: in polysyllabic words, when the second syllable is long by nature and the third syllable accented; in trisyllables which have become Iambic by elision; in Cretics at Trochaic and Iambic close; in polysyllables like simillumae.

717. Personal pronouns and similar words of common occurrence forming Trochees (734) may shorten the initial syllable when followed by a long syllable or its equivalent, even in the oblique cases: īle mē, omnium mē, unde tībī.

Notes.—1. The words involved are ille, illic, īste, istic, ipse, ecquis, omnis, nempe, inde, unde, quippe, immo, and a few others that are disputed, such as some disyllabic imperatives like mitte, redde, and monosyllables followed by -que, -ne, -ve, and the like.

2. Nempe, inde, unde, quippe, ille, īste, may perhaps suffer syncope and be scanned as monosyllables.

3. Nempe never forms a whole foot. Proin, dein, exin are used only before consonants: proinde only before vowels; deinde usually before vowels, rarely before consonants.

4. Trochees also come under the operation of the Iambic Law when they follow a short accented syllable.
Figures of Prosody.

718. Poetry often preserves the older forms of language, and perpetuates peculiarities of pronunciation, both of which are too frequently set down to poetic license.

719. 1. *Elision.*—When one word ends with a vowel and another begins with a vowel, or h, the first vowel is *elided.* Elision is not a total omission, but rather a hurried half-pronunciation, similar to grace notes in music.

ō fēlix ūn(a) ant(e) allās Priamēia virgō.—Verg.

2. *Ecthipsis.*—In like manner m final (a faint nasal sound) is elided with its short vowel before a vowel or h.

Mōnstr(um), horrend(um), īnīrīm(e) ingēns cui lūmen adēmptum.—Verg.

**Exception.**—After a vowel or m final, the word est, īs, drops its e and joins the preceding syllable (*Aphaerēsis*).

Si rīxast ubi tū pulsās ego vāpulō tantum.—Juv.

Aeternās quoniam poenās in morte timendumst.—Lucr.

720. *Hiatus.*—Hiatus is the meeting of two vowels in separate syllables, which meeting produces an almost continuous opening (yawning) of the vocal tube. In the body of a word this hiatus, or yawning, is avoided sometimes by contraction, often by shortening the first vowel (13).

**Remarks.**—1. The Hiatus is sometimes allowed: a, in the Thesis (729), chiefly when the first vowel is long; b, in an Arsis (729), or resolved Thesis, when a long vowel is shortened (Semi-hiatus); c, before a pause, chiefly in the principal Caesura (750); d, in early Latin, in the principal Caesura, before a change of speakers, and occasionally elsewhere.

(a) Stant et iūniperī (h) et castaneae (h) hīrsūtae.—Verg.

(b) Crēdimus ? an qui (h) amant ipsī sībī somnia fingunt ?—Verg.

(c) Prōmissam ēripūi generō. (h) Arma āmpia sūmpsi.—Verg.

(d) A. Abī. B. Quid ābeam ? A. St! abī (h). B. Abeam (h) ? A. Abī.—Plaut.

2. Monosyllabic interjections are not elided.

3. On the elision of e in -ne? see 456, r. 2.

721. *Diastolē.*—Many final syllables, which were originally long, are restored to their rights by the weight of the Thesis.
 FIGURES OF PROSODY.

Uxor, heus uxor, quamquam tū frāta’s mihi.—Plaut.
Dummodo mōrāta rectē veniat dōtāstast satis.—Plaut.
Perrūpit Acherontā Herculeus labor.—Hor.

Sometimes, however, Diastolē arises from the necessities of the verse (as in proper names), or is owing to a pause (Punctuation).

Nec quās Prīamidēs in aquōsis vallibus Ídae.—Ov.
Dēsine plūra puēr—et quod nunc īnstat agāmus.—Verg.
Pectorībūs iniāns spirāntia cōnsulit exta.—Verg.

Note.—The extent to which diastolē is allowable is a matter of dispute, especially in early Latin.

On quē, see 707, 2, Ex. 5.

722. Systolē.—Long syllables which had begun to shorten in prose, are shortened (Systolē).

Obstupui stetāruntque comae vox faucibus haesit.—Verg.
Ē terrā māgn(um) alterūs spectāre labōrem.—Lucr.
Ūnīus ad certam fōrmam prīmōrdia rērum.—Lucr.
Nullī us addictus iūrāre in verba magistri.—Hor.

Note.—The short penult of the Pfu in stetārunt, dēdērunt, was probably original (dedbo in inscriptions). See 131, 4, 5 and 6.

723. Hardening.—The vowels i and u assert their half-consonant nature (Hardening): abīētē (abīētē), gēnūā (gēnūā), tēnūā (tēnūā).

Flūviōrum rex Ėridanus campōsque per omnēs.—Verg.
Nam quae tēnūia sunt hiscendist nulla potestās.—Lucr.

724. Dialysis.—The consonants i and v assert their half-vowel nature: dissōlūō (dissolvō), Gāius (Gāius, from Gāvius).

Adulterētur et columba mīluā.—Hor.
Stāmina nōn īullī dissoluenda dēō.—Tib.

725. Syncopē.—Short vowels are dropped between consonants, as often in prose: calfaciō for calefaciō.

Templōrum positor templōrum sāncte repositor.—Ov.
Quiddam māgnūm addēns ānum mē surpīte (= surripite) mortī.—Hor.

726. Tmesis.—Compound words are separated into their parts.

Quō mē cunque (= quōcumque mē) rapit tempestās dēferor hospes.—Hor.

Note.—The earlier poets carry Tmesis much further, in unwise emulation of the Greek. Celebrated is: Saxō cere comminuit brum.—Ennius.
727. Synizēsis.—Vowels are connected by a slur, as often in the living language: dēnde, dēinceps.

Quid faciam roger anne rogem? quid dēinde rogābō?—Ov.
So even when h intervenes, as dehinc:
Eurum ad sē Zephyrumque vocat, dehinc tālia fatur.—Verg.

Remark.—Synizēsis (settling together) is also called Synaerēsis (taking together), as opposed to Diaeresis (5); but Synaerēsis properly means contraction, as in cōgō (for coagō), and nēmō (for nehemō). Synaloepha is a general term embracing all methods of avoiding Hiatus.

Note.—1. Synizesis is very common in early Latin, especially in pronominal forms: mī (mihī), meūs, and its forms, dissyllabic forms like ēō, eūm, etc.

728. Synapheia.—A line ends in a short vowel, which is elided before the initial vowel of a following line, or a word is divided between two lines, i.e., the two lines are joined together.

Sors exitūra et nōs in aetern(um)
Exilium impositūra cumbae.—Hor., O., ii. 3, 27.
Gallicum Rhēn(um), horribile aequor, últimoque Britannōs.—Cat., ii. 11.

VERSIFICATION.

729. Rhythm.—Rhythm means harmonious movement. In language, Rhythm is marked by the stress of voice (Accent). The accented part is called the Thesis;* the unaccented, the Arsis. The Rhythmical Accent is called the Ictus (blow, beat).

Remark.—Besides the dominant Ictus, there is a subordinate or secondary Ictus, just as there is a dominant and a secondary Accent in words.

730. Metre.—Rhythm, when represented in language, is embodied in Metre (Measure). A Metre is a system of syllables standing in a determined order.

* Thesis and Arsis are Greek terms, meaning the putting down and the raising of the foot in marching. The Roman Grammarians, misunderstanding the Greek, applied the terms to the lowering and raising of the voice, and thus reversed the significations. Modern scholars up to recent times followed the Roman habit, but at present the tendency is to use the terms in their original significations, as above.
731. Unit of Measure.—The Unit of Measure is the short syllable, (☉), and is called Mora, Tempus (Time).

The value in music is $\mathbf{j} = \frac{1}{2}$.

The long (—) is the double of the short.

The value in music is $\mathbf{J} = \frac{1}{4}$.

Remark.—An irrational syllable is one which is not an exact multiple of the standard unit. Feet containing such quantities are called irrational.

732. Resolution and Contraction.—In some verses, two short syllables may be used instead of a long (Resolution), or a long instead of two short (Contraction).

Resolution ☉☉  Contraction, ☉☉ ☉☉

733. Feet.—As elements of musical strains, Metres are called Bars. As elements of verses, they are called Feet.

As musical strains are composed of equal bars, so verses are composed of equal feet, marked as in music, thus $\mathbf{J}$.

Remark.—Theoretically, the number of metres is unrestricted; practically, only those metres are important that serve to embody the principal rhythms.

734. Names of the Feet.—The feet in use are the following:

Feet of Three Times.

Trochee,

Iambus,

Tribrach,

Feet of Four Times.

Dactyl,

Anapaest,

Spondee,

Proceleusmaticus,
Feet of Five Times.

Cretic, \(-\bigcirc-\) légérint. \(\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\)
First Paeôn, \(-\bigcirc\bigcirc\bigcirc\) légéritis. \(\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\)
Fourth Paeôn, \(\bigcirc\bigcirc\bigcirc\) légimíni. \(\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\)
Bacchius, \(\bigcirc\bigcirc\) légébant. \(\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\)
Antibacchius, \(\bigcirc\) légístis. \(\downarrow\downarrow\)

Feet of Six Times.

Iónicus à máiöre, \(-\bigcirc\bigcirc\) collégímus. \(\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\)
Iónicus à minöre, \(\bigcirc\bigcirc\bigcirc\) rélégébant. \(\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\)
Choriambus, \(\bigcirc\bigcirc\) collígérant. \(\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\)
Ditrochee, \(\bigcirc\bigcirc\) colliguntür. \(\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\)
Diiambus, \(\bigcirc\bigcirc\) légámíni. \(\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\downarrow\)

Remarks.—I. Other feet are put down in Latin Grammars, but they do not occur in Latin verse, if in any, such as:

Pyrrhic, \(\bigcirc\bigcirc\) légit. Antispast, \(-\bigcirc\bigcirc\) légébarís.
First Epitrite, \(-\bigcirc\bigcirc\) rélégérunt. Dispondee, \(-\bigcirc\bigcirc\) sélégérunt.
Second Epitrite, \(-\bigcirc\bigcirc\) élégébant. Second Paeôn, \(-\bigcirc\bigcirc\) légentíbus.
Third Epitrite, \(-\bigcirc\bigcirc\) sélégrént. Third Paeôn, \(-\bigcirc\bigcirc\) légítőtë.
Fourth Epitrite, \(-\bigcirc\bigcirc\) collégístis. Molossus, \(-\bigcirc\bigcirc\) légérunt.

2. For Irrational Feet see 743 and 744.

735. Ascending and Descending Rhythms.—Rhythms are divided into ascending and descending. If the Thesis follows, the Rhythm is called ascending; if it precedes, descending. So the Trochee has a descending, the Iambus an ascending, rhythm.

736. Names of Rhythms.—Rhythms are commonly called after their principal metrical representative. So the Trochaic Rhythm, the Anapaestic Rhythm, the Iambic Rhythm, the Dactylic Rhythm, the Ionic Rhythm.

737. Classes of Rhythms.—In Latin, the musical element
of versification is subordinate, and the principles of Greek rhythm have but a limited application.

The Greek classes are based on the relation of Thesis to Arsis.

I. *Equal Class*, in which the Thesis is equal to the Arsis (γένος ἰσον). This may be called the Dactylico-Anapaestic class.

II. *Unequal Class*, in which the Thesis is double of the Arsis (γένος διπλάσιον). This may be called the Trochaic-Iambic class.

III. *Quinquepartite or Paeonian Class* (Five-eighths class), of which the Cretic and Bacchus are the chief representatives (γένος ἰμίδιον).

738. *Rhythmical Series.*—A Rhythmical Series is an uninterrupted succession of rhythmical feet, and takes its name from the number of feet that compose it.

- **Dipody** = two feet.
- **Tripody** = three feet.
- **Tetrapody** = four feet.
- **Pentapody** = five feet.
- **Hexapody** = six feet.

**Remarks.**—1. The Dipody is the ordinary unit of measure (-meter) in Trochaic, Iambic, and Anapaestic verse. In these rhythms a mono-meter contains two feet, a dimeter four, a trimeter six, a tetrameter eight.

2. The single foot is the ordinary unit of measure (-meter) in Dactylic verse. Thus, a verse of one Dactyl is called a Monometer; of two, a Dimeter; of three, a Trimeter; of four, a Tetrameter; of five, a Pentameter; of six, a Hexameter.

3. There are limits to the extension of series. Four feet (in Greek, five) is the limit of the Dactylic and Anapaestic, six of the Trochaic and Iambic series. All beyond these are compounds.

739. *The Anacrustic Scheme.*—Ancient Metric discussed the colon, whether in Ascending or Descending Rhythm, according to the feet of which it was composed. Most modern critics, since the time of Bentley, regard the first Arsis in an ascending rhythm as taking the place of an upward beat in music (called by Hermann Anacrusis; i.e., *upward stroke, signal-beat*), whereby all rhythms become descending.

In this way the Iambus is regarded as an Anacrustic Trochee, the Anapaest as an Anacrustic Dactyl, the Ιοίνικα a minor as an Anacrustic Ιοίνικα a maior. The sign of the Anacrusis is:

740. *Equality of the Feet.*—Every rhythmical series is composed of equal parts. To restore this equality, when it is violated by language, there are four methods:

1. *Syllaba Anceps.*
2. *Catalexis.*
3. *Protraction.*
4. *Correction.*
741. Syllaba Anceps.—The final syllable of an independent series or verse may be short or long indiscriminately. It may be short when the metre demands a long; long when the metre demands a short. Such a syllable is called a Syllaba Anceps.

742. Catalexis and Pause.—A complete series is called Acatalectic; an incomplete series is called Catalectic. A series or verse is said to be Catalectic in syllabam, in dissyllabum, in trisyllabum, according to the number of syllables in the catalectic foot.

The time is made up by Pause.

The omission of one mora is marked \( \wedge \); of two \( \underline{\wedge} \).

743. Protraction and Syncopé.—Protraction (\( \tau \omicron \omicron \omicron \)) consists in drawing out a long syllable beyond its normal quantity. It occurs in the body of a verse, and serves to make up for the omission of one or more Arses, which omission is called Syncopé.

\[ \sim = 3 = \mathfrak{J} \] (triseme long); \[ \sim = 4 = \mathfrak{J} \] (tetraseme long).

744. Correption.—Correption is the shortening of a syllable to suit the measure.

1. So a long syllable sometimes takes the place of a short, and is marked \( \succ \); similarly, two short syllables often seem to take the place of one, and may be marked \( \sim \).

2. When a Daectyl is used as a substitute for a Trochee, the approximate value is often \( 1 \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + 1 = 3 = \mathfrak{M} \mathfrak{G} \mathfrak{G} \); which may be indicated by \( \sim \sim \) (cyclic Daectyl).

The following line illustrates all the points mentioned:

\[ a \succ | \sim | b \sim | c \sim | b \sim | c \sim | b \sim | d \sim | e \sim \wedge \]

\[ \text{Núllam | Vāre sa- | crā | vite pri- | us | séveris | arbo | -rem.} \]

(a) Irrational trochee (irrational long). (b) Cyclic daectyl. (c) Syncopé and Protrac- tion (triseme long). (d) Syllaba anceps. (e) Catalēxis.
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Remark.—Under this head, notice the frequent use of the irrational long in Anacrusis.

745. Verse.—A Simple Rhythm is one that consists of a simple series; a Compound Rhythm is one that consists of two or more series.

A Verse is a simple or compound rhythmical series, which forms a distinct and separate unit. The end of a verse is marked

1. By closing with a full word. Two verses cannot divide a word between them, except very rarely by Synapheia (728).
2. By the Syllaba Anceps, which can stand unconditionally.
3. By the Hiatus, i.e., the verse may end with a vowel, though the next verse begin with one. Occasionally such verses are joined by Synapheia (V., A., i. 332-3, 448-9; ii. 745-6).

746. Methods of Combining Verses.—The same verse may be repeated throughout without recurring groups (Stichic Composition); such as the Septenarius and Octonarius, the Trochaic Septenarius, the Heroic Hexameter, the Iambic Senarius (Trimeter). Or the same verse or different verses may be grouped in pairs (distichs), triplets (tristichs), fours (tetrastichs). Beyond these simple stanzas Latin versification seldom ventured.

Larger groups of series are called Systems.

Larger groups of verses are called Strophes, a name sometimes attached to the Horatian stanzas.

747. Cantica and Diverbia.—In the Drama there is a broad division between that part of the play which was simply spoken, and is called Diverbia, comprising the scenes in the Iambic Senarius, and that part which was either sung or recited to a musical accompaniment called Canticum. The Canticum is subdivided into: (1) Those scenes which were merely recited to the accompaniment of the flute, and were written in Trochaic and Iambic Septenarii and Iambic Octonarii; and (2) those parts which were written in varying measures (mutātis modīs cantica) and sung. The latter division is also called "Cantica in the narrow sense," and may be divided into monologues, dialogues, etc. The greatest variety of measures is found in the monologues.

748. Union of Language with Rhythm.—When embodied
in language, rhythm has to deal with rhythmical groups already in existence. Every full word is a rhythmical group with its accent, is a metrical group with its long or short syllables, is a word-foot. Ictus sometimes conflicts with accent; the unity of the verse-foot breaks up the unity of the word-foot.

749. Conflict of Ictus and Accent.—In ordinary Latin verse, at least according to modern pronunciation, the Ictus overrides the Accent; this conflict seems, however, to have been avoided in the second half of the Dactylic Hexameter, and the Ictus made to coincide with the Accent.

Note.—The extent to which this conflict was felt by the Romans themselves is a matter of uncertainty, but it seems likely that the dominant accent of a word was not so sharp as in modern pronunciation, and consequently the conflict would not be serious.

750. Conflict of Word-foot and Verse-foot.—The conflict of word-foot and verse-foot gives rise to Caesura. Caesura means an incision produced by the end of a word in the middle of a verse-foot, and is marked †.

This incision serves as a pause, partly to rest the voice for a more vigorous effort, partly to prevent monotony by distributing the masses of the verse.

Remarks.—1. So in the Heroic Hexameter the great Caesura falls before the middle of the verse, to give the voice strength for the first Arsis of the second half.

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{\mu}{\omega} & | \omega | \omega | \omega | \omega

Una salūs victis † nūllum spērāre salūtem.—Verg.
\end{align*}
\]

It does not occur at the middle, as in that case the verse would become monotonous.

2. In many treatises any incision in a verse is called a Caesura.

751. Varieties of Caesura.—Caesurae have different names to show their position in the verse, as follows:

Sēmiternāria, after the third half foot, i.e., in the second foot.
Sēmiqūnāria, after the fifth half foot, i.e., in the third foot.
Sēmiseptēnāria, after the seventh half foot, i.e., in the fourth foot.
Sēminovēnāria, after the ninth half foot, i.e., in the fifth foot.

Remark.—These Caesurae are frequently called after their Greek names, thus: trihemimeral, penthemimeral, hepthemimeral, etc.
752. Masculine and Feminine Caesurae.—In trisyllabic metres, when the end of the word within the verse-foot falls on a Thesis, it is called a Masculine Caesura; when on an Arsis, a Feminine Caesura.

\[
\text{Una sa} \mid \text{lūs} + \text{vi} \mid \text{ctīs} + \text{nūl} \mid \text{lam} + \text{spē} \mid \text{rāre} + \text{sa} \mid \text{lūtem}.
\]

\(a, b, c\), are Masculine Caesurae; \(d\), a Feminine Caesura.

Especially noteworthy is the Feminine Caesura of the third foot in the Hexameter, called the Third Trochee (783, r. 2).

753. Diaeresis.—When verse-foot and word-foot coincide, Diaeresis arises, marked ||

\[\text{Ite domum satura} \mid \text{venit} \mid \text{Hesperus} \mid \text{ite capellae}.\]—Verg.

Remarks.—1. Diaeresis, like Caesura, serves to distribute the masses of the verse and prevent monotony. What is Caesura in an ascending rhythm becomes Diaeresis as soon as the rhythm is treated anacrustically.

\[\text{Suīs} \mid \text{et i} \mid \text{psa} + \text{Rō} \mid \text{ma vi} \mid \text{ribus} + \text{ruit}.\] Iambic Trimeter.

\[\text{Su : īs et} \mid \text{ipsa} \mid \text{Rōma} \mid \text{vīri} \mid \text{bus} + \text{ru} \mid \text{it}.\] Troch. Trimeter Catal., with Anacrusis.

2. Diaeresis at the end of the fourth foot of a Hexameter is called Bucolic Caesura, and has a special effect (783, r. 3).

754. Recitation.—When the word-foot runs over into the next verse-foot, a more energetic recitation is required, in order to preserve the sense, and hence the multiplication of Caesurae lends vigor to the verse.

Remark.—The ordinary mode of scanning, or singing out the elements of a verse, without reference to signification, cannot be too strongly condemned, as,

\[\text{Unasa, lusvic, tisuul, lamspe, raresa, lutem!}\]

Numerus Italicus.

755. The oldest remains of Italian poetry are found in some fragments of ritualistic and sacred songs, and seem to have had no regard to quantity. No definite theory can be formed of this so-called Numerus Italicus in which they were composed, but they seem to have been in series of four Theses, usually united in pairs or triplets, but sometimes separate. An example is the prayer to Mars, from Cato, Agr., 141.

\[\text{Mārs pāter té prēcor} \mid \text{quāesōque úti sīs} \mid \text{vōlēns prōpītūs}\]

\[\text{Mīhī dōmō} \mid \text{fāmilīaeque nóstrāe, etc.}\]
Saturnian Verse.

756. The Saturnian verse is an old Italian rhythm which occurs in the earlier monuments of Latin literature. It divides itself into two parts, with three Theses in each; but the exact metrical composition has been a matter of much dispute, the remains not being sufficient to admit of any dogmatism. The two principal theories are:

1. The Quantitative Theory.—The Saturnian is a six-foot verse with Anacrusis, and a Caesura after the third Arsis, or more rarely after the third Thesis.

   Dabúnt malúm Metélí | Naévió poétæ.
   Cornéliús Lúcifus | Sélpió Barbátus.
   Quóius fórma vírútéí | parísumá fúit.

   Ēorúm sectám sequóntur | múltí mórtálēs.

   Notes.—1. The Thesis is formed by a long or two shorts; the Arsis by a short, a long, or two shorts (not immediately before the Caesura). The Arsis may be wholly suppressed, most often the second Arsis of the second hemistich. Short syllables under the lēctus may be scanned long. Hiatus occurs everywhere, but usually in Caesura.

   2. This theory is held by many scholars, but with various modifications. Thus, some do not accept the lengthening of the short syllables, others would scan by protraction four feet in each half verse, etc.

   Dabúnt malúm Metélí | Naévió poétæ, etc.

2. The Accentual Theory.—The Saturnian verse falls into two halves, the first of which has three Theses, the second usually three, sometimes two, in which case there is usually Anacrusis in the second hemistich. Quantity is not considered.

   Dábunt málum Metélí | Naévió poétæ.
   Quóius fórma virtúteí | parísumá fúit.

   Notes.—1. Two accented syllables are regularly divided by a single unaccented syllable, except that between the second and third there are always two. Hiatus allowed only at Caesura.

   2. A modification of this theory would scan

   Dábunt málum Métellí | Naévió poétæ.

3. Very recently a modification of the Accentual Theory has been proposed, which has much in its favor:

   (a) The accent must fall on the beginning of each line, though it may be a secondary accent; the first hemistich has three, the second has but two Theses.

   (b) The first hemistich has normally seven syllables, the second six; but an extra short syllable may be admitted where it would be wholly or partially suppressed in current pronunciation.

   (c) After the first two feet there is an alternation between words accented on the first and those accented on the second syllable.

   (d) A final short vowel is elided, otherwise semi-hiatus is the rule; but there may be full Hiatus at the Caesura.

   Dábunt málum Metélí | Naévió poétæ.
   Prima(a) incédít Céreris | Prosérpina púer.
Iambic Rhythms.

757. The Iambic Rhythm is an ascending rhythm, in which the Thesis is double of the Arsis. It is represented

By the Iambus: \( \circ \underline{\underline{\circ}} \);

By the Tribrach: \( \circ \underline{\circ} \circ \);

By the Spondee: \(- \underline{\underline{\circ}}\);

By the Dactyl: \( \circ \underline{\underline{\circ}} \);

By the Anapaest: \( \circ \circ \underline{\underline{\circ}} \); and

By the Proceleusmaticus: \( \circ \circ \circ \).

Remark.—The Spondee, Dactyl, Anapaest, and Proceleusmaticus are all irrational, and are consequently marked on the schemes thus: \( >-, >\circ\circ, \circ\circ-, \circ\circ\circ\); see 744.

758. Iambic Octōnārius (Tetrameter Acatalectic).

Iūss(i) ádparārī prāndium || amī-
c(a) expectat mé, sciō, Pl.,

\( > \circ \circ \rightarrow \circ \circ \circ \ \| \circ \circ > \rightarrow \circ \circ \circ \)

Hic finis est iāmbe salvē † vīndi-
cis doctor malī, Servius.

\( > \circ \circ \rightarrow \circ \circ \circ \rightarrow \circ \circ \rightarrow \circ \circ \circ \)

Anacrustic Scheme:

\( >: \circ (>) \ \| -\rightarrow \ | \circ (>) \ | -\rightarrow \ | \circ (>) \ | -\rightarrow \ | \circ \circ \ | -\rightarrow \)

Note.—This verse is predominantly a comic verse, occurring most frequently in Terence, who shows five hundred lines, while Plautus shows but three hundred. The substitutions are the same as in the Senarius (761, n. 1). There are two varieties:

(a) That which is divided into two equal halves by Diaeresis at the end of the fourth foot. In this case the fourth foot as well as the eighth has all the privileges of the final foot of the Senarius (Hiatus, Syllaba Anceps), and conforms also to its rules, so that the line is practically a distich of two Quaternarii; but Hiatus after the fourth foot is denied for Terence.

(b) That which is divided into two unequal halves by a Caesura after the fifth Arsis. Here the rules of the final foot apply only to the eighth, and the fourth may be a Spon-
dee. The principle which governs the choice of words after the semiquānāria in the Senarius applies here after the dividing Caesura. The Hiatus comes under the general rules. From the earliest period there is a tendency to keep the even feet pure. This variety is preferred by Terence to the former. Examples of the two forms are:

Ö Trōia, Ö patria, Ö Pergamum, Ö Priame, periiśti senex, Plaut.
Is porró m(ē) autem verberāt † incursat pūgnīs calcibus, Plaut.
Facil(e) omnēs quom valēmus rēcta † cōnsilia aegrōtīs damus, Ter.

759. Iambic Septēnārius (Tetrameter Catalectic).

Remítte palliūm mihi † meum quod
involāstī, Cat.

\( \circ \circ \circ - \circ \circ \circ - \| \circ \circ \circ - \circ \circ \circ - \circ \rightarrow \circ \rightarrow \rightarrow \)
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Anacreustic Scheme:

\[ \frac{\gamma}{\chi} : \frac{\gamma}{\chi} \frac{\gamma}{\chi} | \frac{\gamma}{\chi} \frac{\gamma}{\chi} | \frac{\gamma}{\chi} \frac{\gamma}{\chi} \]

Notes.—1. This verse is confined principally to Plautus and Terence; it is to be regarded as a compound of Dimeter + Dimeter Catalectic: hence regular Diaeresis after the fourth foot, which is treated as a final foot. The same rules, in regard to the various word-feet allowable, apply here as in the case of the Senarius (761, n. 6). Substitutions are allowable in every foot except the fourth in the fifth, when followed by a Diaeresis.

With Syllaba Ancipa:

Si abdúxeris celābitur itidem ut célāta adhúc est, Plaut.

With Hiatus:

Sed sí tibi viginti minae iargenti prōferuntur, Plaut.

2. Exceptionally in Plautus, more often in Terence, the line is cut by Cesura after the fifth Arsīs. In this case the fourth foot has no exceptional laws except that if the seventh foot is not pure the fourth should be, though this is not absolutely necessary.

760. The Iambic Sēnārius (a Stichic measure). This is an imitation of the Iambic Trimeter of the Greeks, but differs from it in that it is a line of six separate feet and not of three dipodies. In the early Latin there is no distinction between the odd and even feet, such as prevails in the Greek Trimeter, but the same substitutions were allowable in the one as in the other. This distinction is regained in Horace and Seneca, who follow the Greek treatment closely, and with whom the line may be with some degree of justice called the Iambic Trimeter, but it is very doubtful whether the Roman felt the Iambic Trimeter as did the Greek. In both Senarios and Trimieter the last foot is always pure.

761. The Early Use (Sēnārius).

Any substitution is allowed in any foot except the last.

Quamvis sermōnēs póssunt longī
téxier, Pl. Trin., 797. \[ > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} \]

Qui sēfīrī possīs tā aut ingenium
nōscere, Ter., And., 53. \[ > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} > \frac{\chi}{\gamma} > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} > \frac{\chi}{\gamma} > \frac{\chi}{\gamma} > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} \]

Sī uxōris tō prōpter amōrem nó-
lit dúce, Ter., And., 155. \[ > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} > \frac{\chi}{\gamma} > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} > \frac{\chi}{\gamma} > \frac{\chi}{\gamma} > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} \]

Di fōrtūnābunt tōvōstra cōnīli(a).
Ita volō, Pl., Trin., 576. \[ > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} > \frac{\chi}{\gamma} > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} > \frac{\chi}{\gamma} > \frac{\chi}{\gamma} > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} \]

Eī r(ei) óperam dare tēfūerat ali-
quant(ō) aēquis, Pl., Trin.,

119. \[ > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} > \frac{\chi}{\gamma} > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} > \frac{\chi}{\gamma} > \frac{\chi}{\gamma} > \frac{\gamma}{\chi} \]

Notes.—1. In the Iambic measure two shorts at the end of a polysyllabic word cannot stand in either Thesis or Arsīs; hence such feet as génēra, mā | terīa, would not be allowable. But a Dactyl is sometimes found in the first foot (Ter., Eum., 318). The two shorts of a Thesis cannot be divided between two words, when the second word is a polysyllable with the accent on the second syllable; hence fingīt amōrem is
faulty. The two shorts of an Arsis should not be divided between two words if the first short ends a word; but there are sundry exceptions; especially the case where two words are closely connected, as, for instance, a preposition and its case; propter amorem.

2. The most frequent Cæsura is the semiquinaria. Next comes the semisextenaria, which is usually accompanied by the semiterna or by Diaeresis after second foot. Examples above.

3. Elision is more frequent in the Iambic Senarius than in the Dactylic Hexameter, and occurs especially before the first and fifth Theses; also not unfrequently in the fourth foot. The proportion of elision varies between Terence (four elisions in every three verses) and Horace (one in five stichic verses, and one in seven in distichs).

4. Semi-hiatus (720), also called Gravecanicos or Lēgitimus, is very common both in Thesis and Arsis; Hiatus is also admitted at a change of speaker; whether it is admissible before proper names, foreign words, and in the principal Cæsura, is still a matter of dispute.

5. If the line is divided by the semiquinaria Cæsura, and the fifth foot is formed by a single word, the second half of the third foot, together with the fourth, may be formed by a single word only when that is a Cretic or a Fourth Pæon; as, filius bonān fidē (Pl.. Most., 670). Thus dēpinxti verbis probē would not be allowable for verbis dēpinxti probē (Pl., Pan., 114).

6. To close the line with two Iambic feet was not allowable, except as follows: (1) When the line ends with a word of four syllables or more. (2) When the line ends with a Cretic word. (3) When the line ends with an Iambic word preceded by an anapaest or Fourth Pæon. (4) When a change of person precedes the sixth foot. (5) When elision occurs in the fifth or sixth foot.

762. The Later Use (Trimeter).

Suís et ipsa † Róma viribús ruit  
Heu mé per urbem † nám pudet 
   tanti malf  
Dēripere lūnam † vōcibus possím 
   meis  
Ínsāmis Helenae † Cástor offēnsus 
   vicem  
Optát quiētem | Pēlopis infidi pater 
   Alītibus atque † cánibus homicid- 
   (am) Hēctorem  
Vectābor humeris † tūnc eg(o) ini- 
   micīs eques  
Pavidūnque lepor(em) et † ádve- 
   nam laqueō gruem, Hor.  
   Anacrustic Scheme :  

Notes.—1. The Iambic Trimeter, when kept pure, has a rapid aggressive movement. Hence, it is thus used in lampoons and invectives. It admits the Spondee in the odd places (first, third, fifth foot); the Tribrach in any but the last, though in Horace it is excluded from the fifth foot; the Dactyl in the first and third. The Anapaest is rare. The Procelus-maticus occurs only in Seneca and Terentianus. When carefully handled, the closing part of the verse is kept light, so as to preserve the character. The
fifth foot is pure in Catullus, but is almost always a Spondee in Seneca and Petronius.

2. Diacresis at the middle of the verse is avoided. Short particles, which adhere closely to the following word, do not constitute exceptions.

Labōriōsa nec cohors Ulixei, Hor.

Adulterētur et columba miluō, Hor.

In like manner explain—

Referoque tanta grex amicus ūbera, Hor.

3. The Caesura is usually the semiquānāria, but the semiseptēnāria is found also, but either with the semiquānāria or with Diacresis after the second foot.

4. The Šēnārius pūrus, composed wholly of Iambi, is found first in Catullus (iv. and xxix.); also in Horace (Epod., xvi.), Vergil (Cat., 3, 4, 8), and the Prāṇa.

5. Of course, in the Anacrustic Scheme, the Caesura of the ordinary scheme becomes Diacresis.

Le: vis cre | pante | lympha | dēsi | lit pe | de.

763. Iambic Trimeter Catalectic.

Meā renidet īn domō lacūnār
Rēgūnque pueris nēc satelles Ōrci, Hor.

Anacrustic Scheme: > : ≤ v — > | ≤ v — | — — (with Syncopē).

Notes.—This occurs in Horace (O., i. 4; ii. 18). No resolutions are found except in the second line quoted, where pueris may be dissyllabic (27), and the Spondee alone is used for the lambus, mainly in the third foot. The Caesura is always semiquānāria.

764. Trimeter Iambicus Claudius (Chōliambus); Scazon (= Hobbler) Hippōnactēns.

Misér Catulle désinās inéptīre, Cat.
Fulsère quondam cándidi tibi sóles, Cat.
Dominās parantur īsta; serviūnt vōbīs, Mart.

Anacrustic Scheme: > : ≤ v | — > | ≤ v | — v | — | — (with Trochaic Trimeter with Anacrusis, Syncopē, and Protraction).

Notes.—1. In the Choliambus the rhythm is reversed at the close, by putting a Trochee or Spondee in the sixth foot. The lighter the first part of the verse, the greater the surprise. It is intended to express comic anger, resentment, disappointment.

2. This metre, introduced into Rome by Mattius, was used frequently by Catullus and Martial. Persius also has it in his Prologue.

3. The Dactyl is occasional in the first and third feet, the Tribrach occurs very rarely in the first, more often in the third and fourth, frequently in the second. The Spondee is found in the first and third feet; the Anapæst only in the first.

4. The Caesura is usually semiquānāria, sometimes semiseptēnāria, which is regularly supported by Diacresis after the second foot.

765. Iambic Quaternārius (Dimeter).

Ināsīt aestuōsus
Imbrēs nivēsque cómparat
Vidēre properantēs domum
Ast ēgo vicissim rīserō, Hor.

Notes.—This occurs in Horace (O., i. 4; ii. 18).

In the Choliambus the rhythm is reversed at the close, by putting a Trochee or Spondee in the sixth foot. The lighter the first part of the verse, the greater the surprise. It is intended to express comic anger, resentment, disappointment.

2. This metre, introduced into Rome by Mattius, was used frequently by Catullus and Martial. Persius also has it in his Prologue.

3. The Dactyl is occasional in the first and third feet, the Tribrach occurs very rarely in the first, more often in the third and fourth, frequently in the second. The Spondee is found in the first and third feet; the Anapæst only in the first.

4. The Caesura is usually semiquānāria, sometimes semiseptēnāria, which is regularly supported by Diacresis after the second foot.
Anacrustic Scheme:

\[ \vdash : -\vdash | -\vdash | -\vdash \]

Note.—This verse is constructed according to the principles which govern the Senarius and Octonarius. It is rare in systems until the time of Seneca, and is usually employed as a Clausula in connection with Octonarii and Septenarii (Plautus, Terence), Senarius (Horace), or Dactylic Hexameter (Horace).

766. Iambic Ternarius (Dimeter Catalectic).

Id répperi (am) exemplum

\[ > < \vdash - > - \text{or} > : < > < - \vdash - \vdash \]

Note.—This verse is found mainly in Plautus and Terence, and used as a Clausula to Bacchic Tetrameters (Plautus), Iambic Septenarii (Plautus); but twice in Terence (And., 485; I. & C., 731). It is found in systems first in Petronius.

767. The Iambic Tripody Catalectic and the Dipody Acatalectic are found here and there.

Inóps amátor, Trin., 256. Bonu(s) sit bonis, B., 660.

Trochaic Rhythms.

768. The Trochaic Rhythm is a descending rhythm, in which the Thesis is double of the Arsis. It is represented,

By the Trochee: \(< > ;
By the Tribrach: \(\circ \circ \circ ;
By the Spondee: \(< - ;
By the Anapaest: \(\circ \circ - ;
By the Dactyl: \(\circ \circ \circ ;
By the Proceleusmaticus: \(\circ \circ \circ \circ \circ .

Remark.—The Spondee, Anapaest, Dactyl, and Proceleusmaticus are all irrational and are accordingly measured \(- > , \circ \circ > , \circ \circ \circ \text{or} - \circ \circ \circ \circ ;

769. Trochaic Octonarius (Tetrameter Acatalectic).

Scheme:

\[ \vdash - > - > - > - > \| \vdash - > - > - > \]

Párcie iam camoéna váti || párcie iam sacró furóri.—Servius.

Dáte viam quá fugere liceat, || fácite, tótae pláteae panteant, Pl., Aul., 407.

Note.—This verse belongs to the cantica of early Comedy. It is properly a compound of two Quaternarii. Hence Hiatus and Syllaba Anceps are admitted in the Dieresis. A fourth or sixth Thesis, formed by the last syllable of a word forming or ending in a Spondee or Anapaest, was avoided, as was also a monosyllabic close. The Substitutions were allowed in all feet except the eighth, where the Tribrach is rare.

770. Trochaic Septenarius (Tetrameter Catalectic).

Scheme:

\[ \vdash - > - > - > - > - > - > \circ \circ - \]


Crás amet qui númqu(am) amāvit | quíqu(e) amāvit crás amet.—Pervig Ven.

Tú m(ē) amōris mági' qu(am) honōris | sérvāvisti grātiā.—Ennius.

Vāpulār(e) ego tē vehementer | iūbēś: né me tērītēs.—Plaut.

Notes.—1. This is usually divided by a Diaeresis after the fourth Arsis into two halves, with the license of a closing verse before the Diaeresis; this is often supported by Diaeresis after the second foot. Not unfrequently the line is divided by Cesura after the fourth Thesis, which may in this case be Anceps or have Hiatus, though not in Terence; but other critics refuse to admit such a division, and prefer Diaeresis after the fifth foot. The substitutions are allowable in any foot except the seventh, which is regularly kept pure, though occasionally in early Latin a Tribrach or a Dactyl occurs even here. But the Dactyl is rare in the fourth foot.

2. The rule for the words allowable after the sēnīquānāria Cesura in the Senarius (761, n. 5) apply here after the Diaeresis, with the necessary modifications; that is, the second hemistich cannot be formed by a word occupying the fifth and the Thesis of the sixth foot, followed by a word occupying the two succeeding half feet, unless the first word is a Cretic or a Fourth Peon.

3. In regard to the close the same rules apply as in the case of the Iambic Senarius (761, n. 6); in regard to the fourth and sixth Theses the rules are the same as for the Octonarius (769, n.).

4. The strict Septenarius of the later poets keeps the odd feet pure, and rigidly observes the Diaeresis.

771. Trochaic Tetramerum Claudius.

Húnc Cerés, cíbi ministra, frúgibus suis
pórcet, Varro. 2

Note.—This verse is found only in the Menippean Satires of Varro, and is formed, like the Iambic Senarius Claudius, by reversing the last two quantities.

772. Trochaic Quaternārius with Anacρūsīs.

Si fráctus illābātur orbis, Hor. 3

Note.—This occurs only in the Alcaic Strophe of Horace.

773. Trochaic Ternārius (Dìmeter Catalectic).

Réspicε vērō Théspriō, Pl., Ep., 3.
Nón ebur nequ(e) aúreum, Hor.

Note.—An uncommon measure, confined mainly to early poetry and to Horace; it is used as a Clausula between Tetrameters (Plautus) and Iambic Senarius Catalectic (Horace), or in series. The third foot was kept pure; also the others in the strict measure.

774. The Trochaic Tripody Acatalectic (Ithyphallie).

Qu(om) úsus est ut púdeat, Plaut., 2

Note.—This is rare, and appears only in early Latin and as a Clausula, usually with Cretics. Substitutions were allowable in every foot.
VERSIFICATION.

775. Trochaic Tripody Catalectic.
Éhen, qu(am) égo malis || pérdidi modis,
Pl., Ps., 259.

Note.—This is found occasionally in early Latin; usually two at a time, otherwise as a Clausula. When the first word is a Cretic the line may end in two iambi.

776. Trochaic Dipody (Monometer).
Nímis inépta's, Pl., Rud., 681. \(\sim \circ \circ \circ \circ \sim\)

Note.—This is found occasionally as a Clausula with Cretic Tetrameters.

Anapaestic Rhythms.

777. The Anapaestic Rhythm is an ascending rhythm, in which the Thesis is to the Arsis as 2 to 2. It is represented,

By the Anapaest: \(\sim \circ \circ \circ\);
By the Spondee: \(- \circ \circ\);
By the Dactyl: \(- \circ \circ \circ\);
By the Procelemateticus: \(\circ \circ \circ \circ\).

Notes.—1. The Anapaestic measure is not uncommon in the Cantica of Plautus; but it is the metre most subject to license of all the early metres. Notice especially the operation of the Iambic Law (716, 717); the common occurrence of Synizesis, of Dia- stole, and less often of Syncope, etc.
2. Strict Anapaestic lines after the model of the Greek are found only in Varro, Seneca, and later authors.

778. Anapaastic Octonárius (Tetrameter Acatalectic), and Anapaest Septenárius (Tetrameter Catalectic).

Hostibús victís, cívibus salvis || ré plá-
cidā, pácibús pérfectís, Pers., 753.

Septámás ess(e) aedis à portā \| ub(i)
il(e) hábitat lénō quoí fússit, Ps., 597.

Ait illam miseram, crúciár(i) et lacru-
mántem s(e) adfiictāre, Pl., M.G., 1032.

Erit ét tib(i) éxoptāt(um) óbtinget || bo-
n(um) hab(e) ánimum nē formídā, Pl.,

M.G., 1011.

Notes.—1. These have regularly the Diēresis after the fourth foot, dividing the line into Quaternarii. Before the Diēresis, the licenses of a closing foot (Hiatus and Syllaba Anceps) are occasionally found.
2. In the Septenarius the seventh Thesis may be resolved, but the resolution of the eighth in the Octonarius is avoided.

779. Anapaestic Trimeter Catalectic.
Perspíció nihil meám vós grátiām fácere,
Pl., Cúrc., 155.

Note.—This verse is very rare, and is denied by some critics; it has the same treatment as the Septenarius.
780. Anapaestic Quaternarius (Dimeter Acatalectic).

Venient annis saecula seris
Quibus Oceanus vincula rerum
Laxet et ingens pateat tellus
Tethysque novos detegat orbes
Nec sit terris ultima Thule.—Sen. Trag.

Note.—This verse avoids resolution of the fourth Thesis: Syllaba Anceps and Hiatus are rare.

781. Anapaestic Dimeter Catalectic (Paroemiac).

Volucér pede corpore pulcher
Linguá catus òre canōrus
Vērūm memorāre magis quam
Functūm laudāre decébit.—Auson.

Notes.—1. This verse is not common except as the close of a system of Anapaestic Acatalectic Dimeters. It allows in early Latin resolution of the third Thesis.
2. Latin Anapaests, as found in later writers, are mere metrical imitations of the Greek Anapaests, and do not correspond to their original in contents. The Greek Anapaest was an anacrustic dactylic measure or march (in \( \frac{3}{4} \) time). Hence the use of Pause to bring out the four bars.

Paroemiacus: Anacrustic Scheme.

Volucér pede corpore pulcher

Dimeter Acatalectic: Anacrustic Scheme.

Quibus Oceanus vincula rerum

The Arses of the last feet are supplied by the Anacrusis of the following verse.

782. Anapaestic Dipody (Monometer Acatalectic).

Omne paratūmst, Pl., Men., 365

Note.—This verse is found in anapaestic systems between Anapaestic Dimeters.

Dactylic Rhythms.

783. The Dactylic Rhythm is a descending rhythm, in which the Thesis is equal to the Arsis (\( 2 = 2 \)).

The Dactylic Rhythm is represented by the Dactyl: \( \sim \sim \sim \). Often, also, by the Spondee: \( \sim \sim \).

784. Dactylic (Heroic) Hexameter.—The Heroic Hexameter is composed of two Dactylic tripodies, the second of which ends in a Spondee. Spondees may be substituted for the Dactyl in the first four feet; in the fifth foot, only when a special effect is to be produced. Such verses are called Spondaic. The longest Hexameter contains five Dactyls and one Spondee (or Trochee)—in all, seventeen syllables; the shortest in use, five Spondees and one Dactyl—in all, thirteen syllab-
bles. This variety in the length of the verse, combined with the great number of casural pauses, gives the Hexameter peculiar advantages for continuous composition.

\[ \text{Scheme:} \quad \frac{1}{5} \quad \frac{1}{5} \quad \frac{1}{5} \quad \frac{1}{5} \quad \frac{1}{5} \quad \frac{1}{5} \]

1. Ut fugiant aquilās + timidissima | turba columbæ. Ov.
2. At tuba terribilī | sonītū | procūl | aere canōrō, Verg.
7. Mūta metū terram + genibus + summissa petebat. Lucr.
8. Inter cunctantēs + cecidit + moribunda ministrōs. Verg.
13. Tēct(um) august(um) ingēns + centum subīme columnīs. Verg.
17. Āeriaeque Alpēs + et nūbīfer + Appennīnus. Ov.
19. Parturiunt montēs + nāscētur | ridiculus | mūs. Hor.
22. Et nigræ violae sunt + sunt et vaccinīa | nigra. Verg.
24. Quamvis sint sub aquā sub aquā maledicere tentant. Ov.
25. Mē mē) adsum qui fecī in mē convertite ferrum. Verg.

Notes.—1. The two reigning iætuses are the first and fourth, and the pauses are so arranged as to give special prominence to them—the first by the pause at the end of the preceding verse, the fourth by pauses within the verse, both before and after the Thesis.
2. The principal Cæsura is the semiquināria or penthemimeral, i. e., after the Thesis of the third foot, or Masculine Cæsura of the third foot; the next is the semisextēnāria or hepthemimeral, after the Thesis of the fourth foot; but usually supplemented by the semitermēnāria in the Thesis of the second or by one after the second Trochee; then the Feminine Cæsura of the third foot, the so-called Third Trochee, which is less used among the Romans than among the Greeks. As Latin poetry is largely rhetorical, and the Cæsura is of more importance for recitation than for singing, the Roman poets are very exact in the observance of these pauses.
VERSIFICATION.

In verses with several Caesurae, the _semitetragenaria_ outranks the _semiquartenaria_, if it precedes a period, and the latter does not, or if it is perfect and the latter is imperfect (i.e., formed by tnesis or by elision); it also as a masculine Caesura outranks the Third Trochee as a feminine. In other cases there may be doubt as to the principal Caesura.

3. The Diacresis which is most carefully avoided is the one after the third foot, especially if that foot ends in a Spondee, and the verse is thereby split in half.

Examples are found occasionally, and if the regular Caesura precedes, the verse is not positively faulty.

_His lacrimis vitam_ | _damus_ | _et miserescimus uldro._ —_VERG._

It is abominable when no other Caesura proper is combined with it.

_Poeni pervortentés_ | _omnia_ | _circumcursant._ —_PSEUDO-ENNIUS (MERULA)._ 

On the other hand the Diacresis at the end of the fourth foot divides the verse into proportionate parts (sixteen and eight morae, or two to one), and gives a graceful trochaic movement to the hexameter. This is called the Bucolic Caesura, and while common in Greek, is not so in Latin even in bucolic poetry. _JUVENAL_, however, is fond of it, showing one in every fifteen verses.

_Itė domum satorae_ | _venit Hesperus_ | _ite capellae._ —_VERG._

4. Verses without Caesura are very rare; a few are found in _ENNIUS_ (see No. 23) and _LUCILIUS_. _HORACE_ uses one designedly in _A.P._, 263.

5. Elision is found most often in _VERGIL_ (one case in every two verses) and least often in _LUCAN_ (leaving out _ENNIUS_ and _CLAUDIAN_). _CATULLUS_, _JUVENAL_, _HORACE_, _OVID_ stand about midway between these two extremes. It is very rare in the Thesis of the first foot, and is found oftenest in the following order: the Thesis of the second foot, the Arsis of the fourth, the Arsis of the first, the Thesis of the third.

6. Simple Hiatus is very rare in lines composed wholly of Latin words, except at the principal Caesura; it is found after a final short syllable (excluding -m) but twice (V., _Ec._, ii. 53; _A._, i. 405); after a long monosyllable (omitting Interjections ò and ã) but once (V., _A._, iv. 233). But before the principal Caesura, or if the line contains a Greek word, examples are not very uncommon. _VERGIL_ has altogether about forty cases; _HORACE_ shows two cases (S., i. 1, 108; _Epod._, 13, 3); _CATULLUS_ two in the Hexameter of the _Elegiae Distich_ (66, 11; 107, 1); _PROPERTIUS_ one (iii. 7, 49).

7. Of Semi-hiatus _VERGIL_ shows some ten examples at the close of the Dactyl, but all of Greek words except _A._, iii. 211; _Ec._, 3, 79; there are occasional examples elsewhere, as in _PROPERTIUS_, _HORACE_, _etc._ There are also several examples of Semi-hiatus after a monosyllable in the first short of the Dactyl, as: _CAT._, xvii. 1; _V._, _A._, vi. 507; _HOR._, S., i. 9. 38. Hiatus after _num_ occurs in _HOR._, S., ii. 2, 28.

8. _VERGIL_ is fond of _Diasolé_, showing fifty-seven cases, all except three (A., iii. 464, 702; _xii_. 643) of syllables ending in a consonant; _HORACE_, in _Satires_ and _Epistles_, has eleven, once only of a vowel (S., ii. 3, 23); _CATULLUS_, three; _PROPERTIUS_, three; _TIBULLUS_, four; _MARTIAL_ (in the _Distich_), two; _VERGIL_ also lengthens _que_ sixteen times, but only when _que_ is repeated in the verse, and before two consonants or a double consonant (except _A._, iii. 91); _OVID_ exercises no such care.

9. A short syllable formed by a final short vowel remains short before two consonants, of which the second is not a liquid (mainly _sc_, _sp_, _st_), especially in the fifth foot, less often in the first. _LUCILIUS_, _LUCRETIUS_, and _ENNIUS_ have numerous examples of this; _VERGIL_ but one case (A., xii. 309), except before _z_; _HORACE_ has eight cases in the _Satires_; _PROPERTIUS_ six; _TIBULLUS_ two cases, one before _smaragdos_.

10. A Hexameter should close (a) with a disyllable preceded by a polysyllable of at least three syllables, or (b) with a trisyllable preceded by a word of at least two syllables. The preposition is proclitic to its case. Exceptions to this rule are common in early Latin, but decrease later. Thus _ENNIUS_ shows fourteen per cent. of exceptional lines. In later times artistic reasons sometimes caused the employment even of a monosyllable at the end (see e.g., 18, 19).

11. Spondaic lines are exceptional in _ENNIUS_ and _LUCRETIUS_, more common in
VERSIFICATION.

Catullus, rare in Vergil, Ovid, Horace, never in Tibullus. The stricter poets required that in this case the fourth foot should be a Dactyl, and then the two last feet were usually a single word. Entirely Spondaic lines are found in Ennius (three cases, as Ann., i. 66, m.) and Cat. (116, 3).

12. Ennius shows three peculiar cases of the resolution of the Thesis in the Dactyl, Ann., 267; Sat., 53 and 59.

13. Hypermetrical verses running into the next by Synapheia are rare; e.g., Lucr., v. 846; Cat., 64, 298; 115, 5. Vergil has twenty cases, usually involving que or ve, but twice -m (A., vii. 160: G., i. 293); three other cases are doubtful. Horace has two cases (in the Satires), Ovid three, Valerius Flaccus one. Horace has also four cases of two verses united by tmesis of a compound word.

14. Pure dactylic lines are rare; the most usual forms of the first four feet of the stichic measure are these: DSSS, 15 per cent.; DDSS, 11.8 per cent.; DDDS, 11 per cent.; SDSS, 10 per cent. The most uncommon are SDDD, 1.9 per cent.; SDDD, 2 per cent. The proportion of Spondees to Dactyl in the first four feet varies from 65.8 per cent. of Spondees in Catullus to 15.2 per cent. in Ovid. The following statements are from Drobisch: (a) Excepting Ennius, Cicero, and SiliusItalicus, Latin poets have more Dactyls than Spondees in the first foot. (b) Excepting Lucretius, more Spondees in the second. (c) Excepting Valerius Flaccus, more Spondees in the third. (d) Without exception, more Spondees in the fourth.

15. Much of the beauty of the Hexameter depends on the selection and arrangement of the words, considered as metrical elements. The examples given above have been chosen with especial reference to the picturesque effect of the verse. Monosyllables at the end of the Hexameter denote surprise; anaepastic words, rapid movement, and the like.

Again, the Hexameter may be lowered to a conversational tone by large masses of Spondees, and free handling of the Caesura. Compare the Hexameters of Horace in the Odes with those in the Satires.

785. Elegiac Pentameter (Catalectic Trimeter repeated).

The Elegiac Pentameter consists of two Catalectic Trimmers or Penthemimers, the first of which admits Spondees, the second does not. There is a fixed Diaeresis in the middle of the verse, as marked above, which is commonly supplemented by the semiternaria Caesura. The Pentameter derives its name from the old measurement: -- O O, -- O O, -- O O, -- O O, -- ; and the name is a convenient one, because the verse consists of $2\frac{1}{2} + 2\frac{1}{2}$ Dactyls. The Elegiac Distich is used in sentimental, epimetric, epigrammatic poetry.

The musical measurement of the Pentameter is as follows:

\[ -- O O \ | -- O O \ | \ | -- O O \ | -- O O \ | -- \]

This shows why neither Syllaba Anceps nor Hiatus is allowed at the Diaeresis, and explains the preference for length by nature at that point. Át dolor in lacrimās || vérterat ómne merūm, Tib.

Mē legat et lēctō || cārmine dōctus amēt, Ov.

Át nunc bārbarīes || grāndis habēre nīhīl, Ov.

Concēssūm nūlā || læge redibit iter, Prop.
The Elegiac Pentameter occurs only as a Clausula to the Heroic Hexameter, with which it forms the Elegiac Distich. Consequently the sense should not run into the following Hexameter (exceptions rare):

Saep(e) ego tentāvi currās dēpellere vīnō
At dolor in lacrimās || verterat omne merum, Tib.
Ingenium quondam fuerat pretiosius auro
At nunc barbarīs || grandis habēre nihil, Ov.
Pār erat inferior versus : rīsisse Cupido
Dīcitur atque ānum || surripuisse pedem, Ov.
Saep(e) ego cum dominae dulcēs ā limine dūrō
Āgnōscō vôcēs || haec negat esse domi, Tib.

Notes.—1. In the first two feet of the Pentameter, which alone can suffer variation, the forms are as follows: òs, 46 per cent.; òd, 24.5 per cent.; ss, 16 per cent.; sd, 13.5 per cent. Catullus, however, has ss, 34.5 per cent.

2. Elision is rare, especially in the second hemistich. When it occurs it is generally in the first Arsis or second Thesis, and usually affects a short vowel or -m. Catullus shows the greatest proportion of examples, Ovid the smallest. Except in Catullus and Lygdamus there are fewer cases of Elision in the Pentameter than in the Hexameter.

3. Elision and Diastolē in the Diacresis are rare. Catullus especially, and Propertius occasionally, have Elision. Propertius and Martial show each two cases of Diastolē (Prop., ii. 8, 8; ii. 24, 4; Mart., ix. 101, 4; xiv. 77, 2).

4. A final short vowel before two consonants, one of which is a liquid or ñ, is lengthened twice in Tibullus, and remains short once in Propertius (Tib., i. 5, 38; i. 6, 34; Prop., iv. 4, 48).

5. Dialysis occurs in compounds of solvō and volvō; as, Cat., 66, 74; Tib., 1. 7, 2, etc.

6. In the strict handling of the Pentameter by Ovid, the rule was that it should close with a dissyllable. So in his Amores, Ovid shows no example of any other ending; and in his Tristia the proportion is one in one hundred and forty lines. In earlier times, however, there was no especial avoidance of polysyllabic endings, though more are found in Catullus than in any other author. Peculiar is Propertius, who, while almost equaling Catullus in his disregard of the law of the dissyllabic ending in the first book, equals the Tristia of Ovid in the observance of it in his fourth. With dissyllabic ending the prevailing forms of the second Hemistich are − o − , − o , − o − , and − o , o − , o − , but Tibullus and Ovid, and in less degree Catullus, employ quite often − o − o − , − o − and − , o o − , − o , o − .

786. Dactylic Tetrameter Acat. (metrum Alcmānium).

Nunc decet aút viridī nitidānum caput
Páltida mórs aequō pulsāt pede
Vítæa súmma brevīs spem nōs vetat

This verse occurs mainly in combination with an Rhymnatic to form the Greater Archilocharian verse; occasionally in stichic composition in Seneca; also in Ter., And., 625.

787. Dactylic Tetrameter Cat. in Dissyllabum (Archilochoïd).

Aút Ephesōn bimarisve Corīnthi
Ô fortēs pēiōraque pássi
Ménsōrēm cohībēnt Archyta, Hor
VERSIFICATION.

Note.—This line, which only occurs in the Alecmanian System, may also be looked upon as an Acatalectic Tetrameter with a spondaic close.

788. Dactylic Trimeter Catalectic in Syllabam (Lesser Archilochian).

Púlvis et úmbra sumús, Hor.  

Note.—This line occurs mainly in the first three Archilochian Strophes.

789. Dactylic Dimeter Catalectic in Dissyllabum (Adônic).

Térruit úrbem, Hor.  

Note.—Though generally measured thus, this verse is properly logaoedic, and will recur under that head (793). It occurs mainly in the Sapphic stanza, and at the close of series of Sapphic Hendecasyllabics in Seneca.

Logaoedic Rhythms.

790. The Logaoedic Rhythm is a peculiar form of the Trochaic rhythm, in which the Arsis has a stronger secondary ictus than the ordinary Trochee.

Instead of the Trochee, the cyclic Dactyl or the irrational Trochee may be employed. This cyclic Dactyl is represented in morae by \( 1\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, 1 \); in music, by \( \frac{3}{2}, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \).

When Dactyls are employed, the Trochee preceding is called a Basis, or Tread, commonly marked \( \times \). If the basis is double, the second is almost always irrational in Latin poetry. Instead of the Trochee, an Iambus is sometimes prefixed. Anacrusis and Syncopé are also found.

Remarks.—1. Logaoedic comes from λόγος, prose, and ἀοιδή, song, perhaps because the rhythms seem to vary as in prose.

2. Dactyls are usually, but not necessarily, employed.

No Dactyl.

791. Alcaic Enneasyllabie.

Sí fráctus illábâtur orbis, Hor.  

Note.—The Anacrusis should be long. Horace shows no exceptions in the fourth book and very few in the first three. The regular Cesura is the sêmiqânăria.

One Dactyl.

792. Adônic.

Térruit úrbem, Hor.  

Note.—Elision is not allowed in this verse. As far as its formation is concerned, it should consist either of a dissyllable + a trisyllable, or the reverse. Proclitics and enclitics go with their principals.
793. Aristophanic (Choriambic).

Lýdia díc per ómnês, Hor. 

\[ \sim \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim \]

Note.—This verse occurs mainly in the lesser Sapphic Strophe of Horace.

One Dactyl, with Basis.

794. Pherecratēan.

Nígris aéquora véntis, Hor. 

\[ \sim > | \sim \sim | \sim | \sim \]

Note.—This verse occurs in the fourth Asclepiadēan Strophe of Horace; also in Catullus (xvii.) and the Priāpēa. No Elision is allowed by Horace, and there is no regular Casura.

795. Glycōnīc.

Émirābitur ūnsolēns, Hor. 

\[ \sim > | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \]

Note.—This occurs in the second, third, and fourth Asclepiadēan strophes of Horace; also in Catullus (xvii.) and the Priāpēa. There is generally the sémier-nāria Casura; occasionally instead of it a second Trochee. Elision of long syllables is very rare in Horace; Elision of a short before the long of the Dactyl more often. Horace also shows occasional liberties, such as Diastolē (O., iii. 24, 5), Dialysis (O., i. 23, 4), and lines ending with monosyllables (O., i. 3, 19; i. 19, 13; iv. i, 33).

796. Phalaceēan (Hendecasyllabic).

Pásser mortuus est meā puēllae. 

\[ \sim \]

Áridā modo pūmic(e) expōlitum 

\[ \sim > \{ \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \}

Tuā Lēsbia sīnt satīs supérque. Cat. \[ : \]

Notes.—1. This verse, introduced into Latin by Laevius, was used very often by Catullus, Martial, Pliny Minor, Petronius, and Statius, as well as in the Priāpēa and elsewhere.

2. In Greek the Basis was not unfrequently an Iambus. So, too, in Catullus, but the tendency in Latin was to make it a Spondee; thus, in the Priāpēa, Petronius, and Martial it is always so, while Statius has but one case of a Trochee, and Ausonius but one of an Iambus.

3. The principal Casura is the sēmiqulnāria; but Catullus uses also almost as frequently Diaeresis after the second foot. Occasionally there is a Diaeresis after the third foot, supplemented by a Second Trochee Casura.

4. Elision is very common in Catullus; in the Priāpēa, Martial, and later it is very rare, if we exclude Aphaeresis from consideration. Hardening (723) is occasional, and Catullus shows a few cases of Semi-hiatus. A monosyllabic ending is very rare, with the exception of es and est.

5. Catullus, in 55, apparently shows a mixture of regular Phalaceceans and spurious Phalaceceans in which the Dactyl is supplanted by a Spondee. The poem is still under discussion.

One Dactyl, with Double Basis.

797. Sapphic (Hendecasyllabic).

Aūdiēt civēs † auṣiissē férrum, Hor. 

\[ \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim | \sim \]

Notes.—1. In the Greek measure, often retained in Catullus, the Dactyl is measured \( \sim \); in Horace, owing to a strong Casura after the long it is regularly \( \sim \).
Further, Catullus, like the Greeks, employed occasionally a Trochee in the second foot; Horace made it a rule to employ only a Spondee there.

2. The regular Cesura in Latin is the *sēmiqunāria*; but the Third Trochee (784, n. 2) is found not unfrequently in Catullus and Horace, but not later. The usage of Horace is peculiar in this respect: In the first and second books there are seven cases in two hundred and eighty-five verses; in the third none at all; in the fourth twenty-two in one hundred and five verses; in the Carmen Seculare nineteen in fifty-seven verses.

3. Elision is very common in Catullus, but occurs in Horace only in about one verse in ten. Later usage tends to restrict Elision. Licenses are extremely rare in the classical period. So Horace shows one example of Diastolē (O., ii. 6, 14). Monosyllabic endings are not common, but the word is usually attached closely with what precedes. The last syllable is regularly long.

4. Seneca shows some peculiarities: occasionally a Dactyl in the second foot, or a Spondee in the third; occasionally also Dialysis.

**One Dactyl with Double Basis and Anacrusis.**

798. *Alcaic (Greater) Hendecasyllabic.*

```
Vidēs ut áltā || stēt nive cándidūm > : ơ  | ơ > | ơ ơ | ơ  | ơ ∧
Sūrācte nēc iam || sustineant onūs, Hor.
```

**Notes.**—1. The second Basis is always a Spondee; the few exceptions having been emended. The Anacrusis is regularly long; Horace shows no exception in the fourth book and very few in the first three. The last syllable may be long or short.

2. The regular Cesura is a Diareisis after the second foot; Horace shows but two exceptions in six hundred and thirty-four verses (O., i. 37, 14; iv. 14, 17). A few others show imperfect Cesurae, as O., i. 16, 21; i. 37, 5; ii. 17, 21.

3. In regard to Elision, the facts are the same as in the case of the Sapphic.

4. Licenses are not common: Diastolē occurs in II., O., iii. 5, 17; Hardening (723) occurs in II., O., iii. 4, 41; iii. 6, 6. Tmesis is not unfrequent in forms of quidcumque (II., O., i. 9, 14; i. 16, 2; i. 27, 14).

**Two Dactyls.**

799. *Alcaic (Lesser) or Decasyllabic.*

```
Vertere fūneribus triūmphōs, Hor.
```

**Note.**—The Cesura is regularly the *sēmiternāria*, occasionally the Second Trochee. Elision occurs a little less often in the Hendecasyllabic. The last syllable is usually long. Diastolē occurs in II., O., iii. 13, 16.

In all these, the Dactyl has a diminished value. More questionable is the logoaedic character of the Greater Archilochian:

800. *Archilochian (Greater) = Dactylic Tetrameter and Trochaic Tripody.*

```
Solvitur ácris hiēms grātā vice || vēris et Favōni, Hor.
```
If measured logaoedically, the two shorts of the Dactyl must be reduced in value to one ($\sim = \sim$), and the logaoedic scheme is

$$\sim \sim
805. *Priápean* (Glyconic + Pherecratēan).

Hunc lūcūm tibi dēdīcō || cōnsecrōque Priāpe, Cat.

\[ \begin{align*}
\wedge > | \wedge \wedge | \wedge | \wedge | \wedge > | \wedge \wedge | \wedge | \wedge \\
\end{align*} \]

**Note.**—Diaeresis always follows the Glyconic, but neither Hiatus nor Syllaba Anceps is allowable. The verse occurs in Cat. 17 and *Priap.* 85.

**Cretic and Bacchic Rhythms.**

806. These passionate rhythms are found not unfrequently in *Plautus* and occasionally elsewhere. They both belong to the Quinquepartite or Five-Eighths class.

The distribution of the Creticus is 3 + 2 morae.

The metrical value of the Creticus is - - (Amphimacer).

For it may be substituted the First Pseon, - - - - , or the Fourth Paeon, - - - - .

**Note.**—Double resolution in the same foot is not allowable, and there is rarely more than one resolution in a verse. Instead of the middle short an irrational long is sometimes found.

807. *Tetrameter Acatalectic.*

\[ \begin{align*}
\wedge \wedge \wedge | \wedge \wedge \wedge | \wedge \wedge \wedge | \wedge \wedge \wedge \\
\end{align*} \]


**Note.**—Resolution is not allowed at the end nor in the second foot immediately before a Caesura. The Arsis immediately preceding (i.e., of the second and fourth foot) is regularly pure.

808. *Tetrameter Catalectic.*

\[ \begin{align*}
\wedge \wedge \wedge \wedge | \wedge \wedge \wedge \wedge | \wedge \wedge \wedge \wedge | \wedge \\
\end{align*} \]

Dā mi(hi) hōc mēl meūm sī m(ē) amās s(ī)audēs, *Pl.*, *Trin.*, 244.

**Note.**—The existence of such lines is disputed, but the balance of authority seems to be in favor of recognizing them.

809. *Dimeter Acatalectic.*

\[ \begin{align*}
\wedge \wedge \wedge \wedge | \wedge \wedge \wedge \wedge \\
\end{align*} \]

Nōse sālt(em) hunc quis ēst, *Pl.*, *Ps.*, 262.

**Note.**—This verse is found usually at the close of a Cretic system, or with Trochaic Septenarii. It follows the same rules as the Tetrameter, that is, the last long is not resolved and the second Arsis is kept pure.

810. *Acatalectic Cretic Trimeters* are rare and not always certain.

Compare Pl., *Trin.*, 267, 269, 271; *Ps.*, 1119; *Most.*, 338; *Catalectic Trimeters* and *Dimeters* are even more uncertain. Compare Pl., *Trin.*, 275; *Truc.*, 121.

811. The Bacchīus has the following measure: - - = 1 + 2 + 2 morae ( ♩ ♩ ♩ ♩ ), or if the descending form - - be regarded as the normal one 2 + 2 + 1 morae ( ♩ ♩ ♩ ♩ ).
For the long two shorts are sometimes substituted. On the other hand, an irrational long may be used for the short, and occasionally two shorts are also thus used.

812. Bacchic Tetrameter.

Quibus nēc locūst āllu' nēc spēs parātā
Miséricordiōr nūlla mēst féminārūm

Note.—In this verse there is usually a Caesura after either the second or third lambus; rarely Diaeresis after the second Bacchius. The Arsis is kept pure in the second and fourth feet if the following long closes a word. Not more than one dissyllabic Arsis is allowable. Usually there is only one resolved Thesis, very rarely two, never more than three.

813. Dimeter Acatalectic.

Ad āetāt(em) agūndām, Pl., Trin., 232.

Note.—This is rare except at the close of a Bacchic series, to form the transition to another rhythm.

814. Bacchic Hexameter occurs in nine lines in a monologue in Pl., Am., 633-642. Hypermetric combination into systems is found in Pl., Men., 571 ff, and Varro, Sat., p. 195 (r.).

Ionic Rhythm.

815. The Ionic Rhythm is represented by Iōnicus ā māiōre

For the Iōnicus ā māiōre may be substituted the Ditrochaeus — —. This is called Anáclasis (breaking-up).

The verse is commonly anacrustic, so that it begins with the thesis — —. Such verses are called Iōnicī ā minōre.

The second long has a strong secondary ictus.

In the early Latin, beginning with Ennius, the verse was used with much license. Resolution of the long syllables was common as well as the use of irrational long, and the contraction of two short syllables into a long. Horace alone shows the pure Ionic.

The Iōnicus is an excited measure, and serves to express the frenzy of distress as well as the madness of triumph.

816. Tetrameter Catalectic Ionic ā māiōre (Sōladčan).

This measure, introduced by Ennius, was used with great freedom by the earlier poets; but a stricter handling is found in later Latin poets, as Petronius. Martial, etc.
Nām quam varia sīnt genera
poēmatōrum, Baebī,

Quāmque longē dīscinct(a) ali(a)
āb aliis, sic nōscē.—Accius.

Later Latin:
The most common scheme is the pure Ionic with Anaclasis, especially in the third foot. Irrational longs are not used, and there is rarely more than one resolution, as: oo — oo or — oo oo oo.

Mōlēs veterēs Dēliacī manū recīsī
tér corripuī terribilēm manū bipēnnem.

—Prop.

817. A combination of the Ionic a māiore into systems is found in Laevics, who has a system of ten followed by a system of nine. Some traces of similar arrangement have been observed in the Satires of Varro.

818. Tetrameter Catalectic Ionic a minōre (Galliambic).

This verse was introduced by Varro in his Menippēan Satires, and appears also in Catullus 63, and in some fragments of Maecenas.

In Catullus the two short syllables may be contracted (ten times in the first foot, six times in the third), and the long may be resolved, but not twice in the same Dimeter (except 63), and very rarely in the first foot of the second Dimeter (once in 91), but almost regularly in the penultimate long. Diacrēsis between the two Dimeters is regular. Anaclasis is found in the majority of the lines; regularly in the first Dimeter (except 18, 54, 75).

The frequent resolutions and conversions give this verse a peculiarly wild character.

Ordinary Scheme:
Without Anaclasis: oo oz — oo oz — oo oz — oo oz
With Anaclasis: oo oz — oo oz — oo oz — oo oz.

Anaclastic Scheme:
Without Anaclasis: oo oz — oo | oz — oo | oz — oo | oz —
With Anaclasis: oo oz — oo | oz — oo | oz — oo | oz —

Et eār(um) omnia adírem furi-
būnda latībulā
Quō nōs decet citātis celerāre tri-
pūdiūs
Itaqu(e) út domum Cybēbēs teti-
gēre lassulaē
819. Dimeter Catalectic Ionic à minore (Anacreontic).

This verse is found first in Laevius, then in Seneca, Petronius, and later. Anaclasis is regular in the first foot. The long syllable may be resolved, or the two shorts at the beginning may be contracted. The verse may end in a Syllaba Anceps.

Vener(em) igitur álum(um) adórâns
Seu fémin(a) isve más est
It(a) ut álba Nóctilúcast.

Note.—Owing to the similarity of the verse to the Iambic Quaternarius Catalectic it is also called the Hemiambic.

Compound Verses.

820. Iambelegus (Iambic Dimeter and Dactylic Trimeter Cat.).

This verse occurs only in the second Archilochian Strophe of Horace, and is often scanned as two verses:

Tū vína Tórquató movē || cónsule présā méō.—Hor.

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{7} \quad \text{7} \quad \text{7} \\
&\text{7} \quad \text{7} \\
&\text{7} \\
\end{align*}
\]

821. Elegiambus (Dactylic Trimeter Cat. and Iambic Dimeter).

This verse occurs only in the third Archilochian Strophe of Horace, and is often scanned as two verses:

Désinet ímparibus || certāre submōtús pudōr.—Hor.

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{7} \quad \text{7} \\
&\text{7} \\
&\text{7} \\
\end{align*}
\]

822. Versus Reiziánus (Iambic Dimeter and Anapaestic Tripody Catalectic).

Redi, quō fugis nunc? tēnē tenē. || Quid stólidē clāmās?
Qui(a) ād tris vírōs i(am) ego dēferam || Nómen tūōm. Qu(am) óbreṃ?

Pl., Au{l.}, 415.

\[
\begin{align*}
&\text{7} \quad \text{7} \\
&\text{7} \\
&\text{7} \\
\end{align*}
\]

Note.—From the time of Reiz, after whom this verse has been named, it has been the subject of a great deal of discussion. In regard to the first part of the verse there
is considerable unanimity, in regard to the second opinions differ. Some regard it as an Iambic Dimeter Catalectic Syncopated (\( \circ \underline{\circ} \underline{\circ} \underline{\circ} \underline{\circ} \)); others as an Iambic Tripody Catalectic (\( \circ \underline{\circ} \underline{\circ} \underline{\circ} \underline{\circ} \)). Spengel regards it as a Hypercatalectic Anapaestic Monometer, and he has been followed with a variation in the nomenclature in the above scheme. Leo regards it as Logaedic. The most recent view (Klotz) regards it as sometimes Logaedic, and sometimes Anapaestic.

823. 1. Plautus shows several verses compounded of a Cretic Dimeter and a Catalectic Trochaic Tripody. These verses are usually, but not always, separated by Diaeresis. Examples: Ps., 1285, 1287.

2. Some authorities consider verses like Pl., Most., 693, Rud., 209, compounded of a Cretic Dimeter and a Clausula. Others regard them as Catalectic Cretic Tetrameters.

The Cantica of Early Latin.

824. The construction of the Cantica (in the narrow sense) of Plautus and Terence is still a matter of dispute. Three opinions have been advanced. One looks at them as antistrophic, following the scheme a.b.b.; others hold that the scheme is a.b.a. The third view is that with some exceptions the Cantica are irregular compositions, without a fixed principle of responsion.

In Terence, Trochaic Octonarii are always followed by Trochaic Septenarii, and very frequently the Trochaic Septenarii are followed by Iambic Octonarii. In Plautus there are long series of Cretic and Bacchic verses, and sometimes these alternate, without, however, any regular scheme, with other verses.


The Cantica of Later Latin.

825. 1. The Cantica of Seneca are composed mostly in Anapaestic Dimeters, closed frequently, though not necessarily, by a Monometer. A Dactyl is common in the first and third feet. The Spondee is likewise very common, a favorite close being \(-\underline{\circ} \underline{\circ} \underline{\circ} \). The Diaeresis between the Dimeters is regular. Examples: Herc. Fur., 125-203. In Ag., 310-407, Dimeters and Monometers alternate.

2. Iambic Dimeters, occasionally alternating with Trimeters, but usually stichic, are found occasionally; as Med., 771-786.
3. Peculiar to Seneca is the use of a large variety of Logacledic measures in his Cantica. So we find not unfrequently the following in stichic repetition: Lesser Aesclapiadéns, Glyconics, Sapphic Hendecasyllabics, Adonics, and other imitations of Horatian measures; but there are few traces of antistrophic arrangement.

Lyric Metres of Horace.

826. In the schemes that follow, the Roman numerals refer to periods, the Arabic to the number of feet or bars, the dots indicate the end of a line.

I. Asclepiadean Strophe No. 1. Lesser Aesclapiadean Verse (802 repeated in tetrastichs.

\[
\begin{align*}
&\rightarrow | \sim \ooml | - | \sim \ooml | - | - \wedge | 3 \\
&\rightarrow | \sim \ooml | - | \sim \ooml | - | - \wedge | 3 \\
&\rightarrow | \sim \ooml | - | \sim \ooml | - | - \wedge | 3 \\
&\rightarrow | \sim \ooml | - | \sim \ooml | - | - \wedge | 3 \\
\end{align*}
\]

O., i. 1; iii. 30; iv. 8.

II. Asclepiadean Strophe No. 2. Glyconics (795) and Lesser Aesclapiadean (802) alternating, and so forming tetrastichs.

\[
\begin{align*}
&\rightarrow | \sim \ooml | - | - | - \wedge | 4 \\
&\rightarrow | \sim \ooml | - | \sim \ooml | - | - \wedge | 3 \\
&\rightarrow | \sim \ooml | - | - | - \wedge | 4 \\
&\rightarrow | \sim \ooml | - | \sim \ooml | - | - \wedge | 3 \\
\end{align*}
\]

O., i. 3, 13, 19, 36; iii. 9, 15, 19, 24, 25, 28; iv. 1, 3.

III. Asclepiadean Strophe No. 3. Three Lesser Aesclapiadean Verses (802) followed by a Glyconic (795).

\[
\begin{align*}
&\rightarrow | \sim \ooml | - | \sim \ooml | - | - \wedge | 3 \\
&\rightarrow | \sim \ooml | - | \sim \ooml | - | - \wedge | 3 \\
&\rightarrow | \sim \ooml | - | \sim \ooml | - | - \wedge | 3 \\
&\rightarrow | \sim \ooml | - | - | - \wedge | 4 \\
\end{align*}
\]

O., i. 6, 15, 24, 33; ii. 12; iii. 10, 16; iv. 5, 12.
IV. Asclepiadéan Strophe No. 4. Two Lesser Asclepiadéan Verses (802), a Pherecratean (794), and a Glyconic (795).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I.} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \\
\text{II.} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \\
\text{II.} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \\
\text{II.} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II}
\end{align*}
\]


V. Asclepiadéan Strophe No. 5. Greater Asclepiadéan (803), repeated in fours.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I.} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \\
\text{II.} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \\
\text{II.} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \\
\text{II.} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II}
\end{align*}
\]

\textit{O.}, I. 11, 18; IV. 10.

VI. Sapphic Strophe. Three Lesser Sapphics (797), and an Adonic (792), which is merely a Clausula. In the Sapphic Horace regularly breaks the Dactyl.

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{I.} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \\
\text{II.} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \\
\text{II.} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \\
\text{II.} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} & \quad \text{\textbackslash_II} \quad \text{\textbackslash_II}
\end{align*}
\]

\textit{O.}, I. 2, 10, 12, 20, 22, 25, 30, 32, 38; II. 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 16; III. 8, II, 14, 18, 20, 22, 27; IV. 2, 6, 11; \textit{Carmen Saeculare}.

\textbf{Note.}—In Greek the third and fourth verses run together to form a single verse. In Latin this is rare: one case is found in Catullus, i, 11, and three in Horace, O., i. 2, 19; 25, 11; ii. 16, 7; but the occurrence of Hiatus between the two lines in Horace (O., i. 2, 47; ii. 7; ii. 12, 31; 22, 15, \textit{etc.}) may be considered as indicating that the verses were conceived as separate. Elision and Hiatus are also occasionally found in the lines. Elision, second and third: Cat., i, 22; ii, O., ii. 2, 18; 16, 34; iv. 2, 22; third and fourth: Cat., ii. 19; ii., O., iv. 2, 23; \textit{C.S.}, 47. Hiatus, first and second: \Pi., O., i. 2, 41; ii, 25; ii. 16, 5; iii. 11, 29; 27, 33; second and third: \Pi., O., i. 2, 6; 12, 6; 25, 18; 30, 6; \Pi. 2, 6; 4, 6; iii. 11, 50; 27, 10.
VII. Lesser Sapphic Strophe. Aristophanic (793), and Greater Sapphic (804). Two pairs are combined into a tetrastich.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim | - \\
\times \times \\
\sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim | - \\
\times \times \\
\sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim | - \\
\times \times \\
\end{array}
\]

O., I. 8.

VIII. Alcaic Strophe. Two Alcaic verses of eleven syllables (798), a Trochaic Quaternarius with Anacrusis (772), and one Alcaic verse of ten (799).

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\times \times \\
\sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim | - \\
\times \times \\
\sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim | - \\
\times \times \\
\sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim \sim | \sim | - \\
\times \times \\
\end{array}
\]

O., I. 9, 16, 17, 26, 27, 29, 31, 34, 35, 37; II. I. 3, 5, 7, 9, II, 13, 14, 15, 17, 19, 20; III. I, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 17, 21, 23, 26, 29; IV. 4, 9, 15, 17.

Note.—Elision between the verses is much more rare than in the Sapphic strophe; it occurs but twice: O., II. 3, 27; III. 29, 35. Hiatus, on the other hand, is very common.

IX. Archilochian Strophe No. 1. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), and a Lesser Archilochian (788), two pairs to a tetrastich.

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | - \\
\sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | - \\
\sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | - \\
\sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | - \\
\end{array}
\]

O., IV. 7.

X. Archilochian Strophe No. 2. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), and an lambegus (820).

\[
\begin{array}{c}
\sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | - \\
\times \times \\
\sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | - \\
\times \times \\
\sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | \sim \sim \sim | - \\
\times \times \\
\end{array}
\]

Epod., 13.
XI. Archilochian Strophe No. 3. An Iambic Trimeter (762), followed by an Elegiambus (821).

\[
\begin{align*}
\triangledown & : \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{ - } \wedge \\
\triangledown & : \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{ - } \wedge \\
\triangledown & : \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{ - } \wedge \\
\end{align*}
\]

Epod., 11.

XII. Archilochian Strophe No. 4. A Greater Archilochian (800), and a Trimeter Iambic Catalectic (763). Two pairs combined to form a tetrasich.

\[
\begin{align*}
\triangledown & : \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{ - } \wedge \\
\triangledown & : \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{- } \wedge \\
\end{align*}
\]

O., 1. 4.

This verse may be considered as Logaöedic, thus (800):

\[
\begin{align*}
\triangledown & : \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{- } \wedge \\
\triangledown & : \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{- } \wedge \\
\end{align*}
\]

O., 1. 7, 28; Epod., 12.

Note.—The Tetrameter may be considered acatalectic with a Spondee in the fourth place (787, x.).

XIII. Alemannian Strophe. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), followed by a Catalectic Dactylic Tetrameter (787).

\[
\begin{align*}
\triangledown & : \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{- } \wedge \\
\triangledown & : \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{- } \wedge \\
\end{align*}
\]

XIV. Iambic Trimeter repeated (762).

\[
\begin{align*}
\triangledown & : \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{- } \wedge \\
\end{align*}
\]

Epod., 17.

XV. Iambic Strophe. Iambic Trimeter (762), and Dimeter (765).

\[
\begin{align*}
\triangledown & : \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{- } \wedge \\
\triangledown & : \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{-} \triangledown \text{ | } \text{- } \wedge \\
\end{align*}
\]

Epod., 1-10.
XVI. *Pythiambic* Strophe No. 1. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), or Versus Pythius, and an Iambic Dimeter (765).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Epod., 14, 15.}
\end{align*}
\]

XVII. *Pythiambic* Strophe No. 2. A Dactylic Hexameter (784), and an Iambic Trimeter (760).

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{Epod., 16.}
\end{align*}
\]

XVIII. *Trochaic* Strophe. A Catalectic Trochaic Dimeter (772), and a Catalectic Iambic Trimeter (763). Two pairs make a tetra-stich.

\[
\begin{align*}
O., \text{II. 18.}
\end{align*}
\]

XIX. The *Ionic* System is found once in *Horace*; it consists of ten *Ionic* a minore feet, variously arranged by metrists. Some regard the system as composed of ten Tetrameters followed by a Dimeter. Others, with more probability, divide into two Dimeters followed by two Trimeters. The scheme may be made a maiore by Anacrusis.

**Ionicus a minore scheme:**

Miserārum (e)st neque amōri

dare lūdum neque dulci

mala vīnō laver(e) aut exanimāri

metuentēs patruae verbera linguae

**Ionicus a maiore scheme:**

\[
\begin{align*}
O., \text{III. 12.}
\end{align*}
\]
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**Carmen Saeculare** vi.

**Epode, 1-10** xv.

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**Epod. 1-10** xv.
APPENDIX.

ROMAN CALENDAR.

The names of the Roman months were originally adjectives. The substantive mēnsis, month, may or may not be expressed: (mēnsis) Ianuārius, Februārius, and so on. Before Augustus, the months July and August were called, not Iūlius and Augustus, but Quīntilis and Sextilis.

The Romans counted backward from three points in the month, Calends (Kalendae), Nones (Nōnae), and Ides (Īdūs), to which the names of the months are added as adjectives: Kalendae Ianuāriae, Nōnae Februāriae, Īdūs Mārtiae. The Calends are the first day, the Nones the fifth, the Ides the thirteenth. In March, May, July, and October the Nones and Ides are two days later. Or thus:

In March, July, October, May,
The Ides are on the fifteenth day.
The Nones the seventh; but all besides
Have two days less for Nones and Ides.

In counting backward ("come next Calends, next Nones, next Ides") the Romans used for "the day before" prīdiē with the Acc.: prīdiē Kalendās Ianuāriās, Dec. 31; prīdiē Nōnās Iān. = Jan. 4; prīdiē Īdūs Iān. = Jan. 12.

The longer intervals are expressed by ante diem tertium, quārtum, etc., before the Accusative, so that ante diem tertium Kal. Iān. means "two days before the Calends of January;" ante diem quārtum, or a. d. iv., or iv. Kal. Iān., "three days before," and so on. This remarkable combination is treated as one word, so that it can be used with the prepositions ex and in: ex ante diem iii. Nōnās Iūniās ēaque ad prīdiē Kal. Septembris, from June 3 to August 31: differre aliquid in ante diem xv. Kal. Nov., to postpone a matter to the 18th of October.

Leap Year.—In leap year the intercalary day was counted between a. d. vi. Kal. Mārt. and a. d. vii. Kal. Mārt. It was called a. d. bis sextum Kal. Mārt., so that a. d. vii. Kal. Mārt. corresponded to our February 23, just as in the ordinary year.

To turn Roman Dates into English.

For Nones and Ides.—I. Add one to the date of the Nones and Ides, and subtract the given number.
For Calends.—II. Add two to the days of the preceding month, and subtract the given number.


Year.—To obtain the year B.C., subtract the given date from 754 (753 B.C. being the assumed date of the founding of Rome, anno urbis conditae). To obtain the year A.D., subtract 753.

Thus: Cicero was born 648, a. u. c. = 106 B.C.
- Augustus died 767, a. u. c. = 14 A.D.

Note.—Before the reform of the Calendar by Julius Caesar in B.C. 46, the year consisted of 355 days, divided into twelve months, of which March, May, Quintilis (July), and October had 31 days, February 28, the remainder 29. To rectify the Calendar, every second year, at the discretion of the Pontifices, a month of varying length, called mensis intercalāris, was inserted after the 23d of February.

ROMAN SYSTEMS OF MEASUREMENT.

LONG MEASURE.

| 4 digitī | = 1 palmus,   |
| 4 palmī | = 1 pēs (11.65 in.), |
| 6 palmī | = 1 cubitus, |
| 1½ pedēs | = 1 gradus, |
| 2½ pedēs | = 1 passus, |
| 2 gradūs, | = 1 stadium, |
| 5 pedēs | = 1 mille passuum (mile), |
| 125 passus | = 1 stadium, |
| 8 stadia | = 1 mille passuum (mile), |

SQUARE MEASURE.

| 100 pedēs, | = 1 scripulum, |
| quadrātī | = 1 scripulum, |
| 36 scripula | = 1 clima, |
| 4 clīmata | = 1 āctus, |
| 2 āctūs | = 1 iūgerum (acre), |

The iūgerum contains 28,800 sq. ft. Rom.;
Eng. acre = 43,560 sq. ft.

DRY MEASURE.

| 1½ cyathī | = 1 acētābulum, |
| 2 acētābula | = 1 quārtārius, |
| 2 quārtāriī | = 1 hēmina, |
| 2 hēmineae | = 1 sextārius, |
| 8 sextāriī | = 1 sēmodius, |
| 2 sēmodī | = 1 modius (peck), |

LIQUID MEASURE.

| 1½ cyathī | = 1 acētābulum, |
| 2 acētābula | = 1 quārtārius, |
| 2 quārtāriī | = 1 hēmina, |
| 2 hēmineae | = 1 sextārius (pint), |
| 6 sextāriī | = 1 congius, |
| 4 congii | = 1 ūrna, |
| 2 ūrneae | = 1 amphora, |
| 20 amphorae | = 1 culleus, |

ROMAN WEIGHTS.

| 3 siliqüae | = 1 obolus, |
| 2 oboli | = 1 scripulum, |
| 2 scripula | = 1 drachma, |
| 2 drachmae | = 1 sicilicus, |
| 2 sicilici | = 1 sēmūncia, |
| 2 sēmūnciae | = 1 ūncia, |
| 12 ūnciae | = 1 libra (pound). |
Notes.—1. The multiples of the ēncia were sēscūncia (1½), sextāns (2), quadrāns (3), triēns (4), quincūnx (5), sēmis (6), septūnx (7), bēs (8), dodrāns (9), dextāns (10), deūnx (11).

2. The libra was also called ās (see below), which latter is taken as the unit in all measures, and the foregoing divisions applied to it. Hence, by substituting ās for īgerum, we have deīnx as 4½ of a īgerum, dextāns as 1½, etc.

**ROMAN MONEY.**

The unit was originally the ās (which was about a pound of copper), with its fractional divisions. This gradually depreciated, until, after the second Punic war, the unit had become a sēstertius, which was nominally 2½ assēs.

\[
2\frac{1}{2} \text{ assēs} = 1 \text{ sēstertius (about) 25 dēnāriī = 1 aureus (nummus).}
\]

\[
4 \text{ cts.} 1000 \text{ sēstertii} = 1 \text{ sēstertium} (\$42.94 \text{ to Augustus’s time}).
\]

**Note.**—Sēstertium (which may be a fossilized Gen. Pl. = sēstertiōrum) was modified by distributives (rarely by cardinals), thus: bina sēstertia, 2000 sestertices. But in multiples of a million (deciēns centēna milia sēstertium, i.e., sēstertiōrum), centēna milia was regularly omitted, and sēstertiōrum declined as a nunc singular. His stands as well for sēstertius as sēstertium; and the meaning is regulated by the form of the numeral; thus His viginti (XX) = 20 sēstertiī; His vicēna (XX) = 20 sēstertia, i.e., 20,000 sēstertiī.

**ROMAN NAMES.**

The Roman usually had three names; a nōmen, indicating the gēns, a cognōmen, indicating the familia in the gēns, and the praeņōmen, indicating the individual in the familia.

The nōmina all end in ius. The cognōmina have various forms, in accordance with their derivation. For example: Q. Mūcius Scaevola (from scaevos, left hand).

The praeņōmina are as follows, with their abbreviations:

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<td>Num.</td>
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<td>K.</td>
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<td>P.</td>
<td>Tiberius</td>
<td>Ti., Tib.</td>
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Notes.—1. Adoption from one gēns into another was indicated by the termination -iānus. From the fourth century A.D. a second cognōmen was also called an āgōnēmen.

2. Daughters had no peculiar praeņōmina, but were called by the name of the gēns in which they were born. If there were two, they were distinguished as māior and minor; if more than two, by the numerals tertia, quārta, etc.
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549.N.2

646.N.3;

557.N.2

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553. 2,n.

563,N.4and5;
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595.R.O

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602,n.5

616.2.N.; 625,1, R.

N.l; 669; 677,N.

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