

PART V.

SYNTAX.

160. Syntax treats of the use of words in sentences.

CHAPTER I.—*Sentences.*

CLASSIFICATION OF SENTENCES.

161. Sentences may be classified as follows:—

1. DECLARATIVE, which state something; as,—
puer scrībit, the boy is writing.
2. INTERROGATIVE, which ask a question; as,—
quid puer scrībit, what is the boy writing?
3. EXCLAMATORY, which are in the form of an exclamation; as,—
quot librōs scrībit, how many books he writes!
4. IMPERATIVE, which express a command or an admonition; as,—
scrībe, write!

FORM OF INTERROGATIVE SENTENCES.

162. Questions may be either Word-Questions or Sentence-Questions.

1. **Word-Questions.** These are introduced by the various interrogative pronouns and adverbs; such as—*quis, quī, quālis, quantus, quot, quotiēns, quō, quā, etc.* Thus:—

quis venit, who comes?

quam diū manēbit, how long will he stay?

2. Sentence-Questions. These are introduced —

- a) By *nōnne* implying the answer 'yes'; as, —
nōnne vidēs, do you not see?
- b) By *num* implying the answer 'no'; as, —
num expectās, do you expect? (i.e. you don't expect, do you?)
- c) By the enclitic *-ne*, appended to the emphatic word (which usually stands first), and simply asking for information; as, —
vidēsne, do you see?

A question introduced by *-ne* may receive a special implication from the context; as, —

sēnsistīne, did you not perceive?

- d) Sometimes by no special word, particularly in expressions of surprise or indignation; as, —
tū in iudicium cōspectum venīre audēs, do you dare to come into the presence of the judges?

3. Rhetorical Questions. These are questions merely in form, being employed to express an emphatic assertion; as, *quis dubitat, who doubts? (= no one doubts).*

4. Double Questions. Double Questions are introduced by the following particles: —

utrum . . . an;

-ne an;

— an.

If the second member is negative, *annōn* (less often *necne*) is used.
 Examples: —

<i>utrum honestum est an turpe,</i>	} <i>is it honorable or base?</i>
<i>honestumne est an turpe,</i>	
<i>honestum est an turpe,</i>	
<i>suntne dī annōn, are there gods or not?</i>	

- a. By an ellipsis of the first member, *an* sometimes stands alone. Its force depends upon the context; as, —

Ā rēbus gerendīs abstrahit senectūs. Quibus? An eīs quae iuventūte geruntur et vīribus? Old age (it is alleged) withdraws men from active pursuits. From what pursuits? Is it not merely from those which are carried on by the strength of youth?

5. Answers.

a. The answer YES is expressed by *ita*, *etiam*, *vērō*, *sānē*, or by repetition of the verb; as, —

‘*vīsne locum mūtēmus?*’ ‘*sānē.*’ ‘*Shall we change the place?*’ ‘*Certainly.*’

‘*estisne vōs lēgātī?*’ ‘*sumus.*’ ‘*Are you envoys?*’ ‘*Yes.*’

b. The answer NO is expressed by *nōn*, *minimē*, *minimē vērō*, or by repeating the verb with a negative; as, —

‘*jam ea praeteriit?*’ ‘*nōn.*’ ‘*Has it passed?*’ ‘*No.*’

‘*estne frāter intus?*’ ‘*nōn est.*’ ‘*Is your brother within?*’ ‘*No.*’

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

163. The two essential parts of a sentence are the SUBJECT and PREDICATE.

The SUBJECT is that *concerning which something is said, asked, etc.* The PREDICATE is that *which is said, asked, etc., concerning the SUBJECT.*

SIMPLE AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

164. Sentences containing but one Subject and one Predicate are called SIMPLE SENTENCES, those containing more are called COMPOUND SENTENCES. Thus *puer librōs legit*, *the boy reads books*, is a Simple Sentence; but *puer librōs legit et epistulās scribit*, *the boy reads books and writes letters*, is a Compound Sentence. The different members of a Compound Sentence are called CLAUSES.

165. COÖRDINATE AND SUBORDINATE CLAUSES. Clauses which stand upon an equality are called COÖRDINATE; a Clause dependent upon another is called SUBORDINATE. Thus in *puer librōs legit et epistulās scribit* the two clauses are Coördinate; but in *puer librōs legit quōs pater scribit*, *the boy reads the books which his father writes*, the second clause is Subordinate to the first.

CHAPTER II. — *Syntax of Nouns.*

SUBJECT.

166. The Subject of a Finite Verb (*i.e.* any form of the Indicative, Subjunctive, or Imperative) is in the Nominative Case.

1. The Subject may be—

a) A Noun or Pronoun ; as, —

puer scribit, the boy writes ;

hic scribit, this man writes.

b) An Infinitive ; as, —

decorum est pro patriâ mori, to die for one's country is a noble thing.

c) A Clause ; as, —

opportunē accidit quod vēnistī, it happened opportunely that you arrived.

2. A Personal Pronoun as Subject is usually implied in the Verb, and is not separately expressed ; as, —

scribō, I write ;

videt, he sees.

a. But for the purpose of emphasis or contrast the Pronoun is expressed ; as, —

ego scribō et tū legis, I write, and you read.

3. The verb is sometimes omitted when it can be easily supplied from the context, especially the auxiliary *sum* ; as, —

rēctē ille (sc. facit), he does rightly ; cōsul profectus (sc. est), the consul set out.

PREDICATE NOUNS.

167. A PREDICATE NOUN is one connected with the Subject by some form of the verb *Sum* or a similar verb.

168. A Predicate Noun agrees with its Subject in Case ;¹ as, —

¹ For the Predicate Genitive see §§ 198, 3 ; 203, 5.

Cicerō ōrātor fuit, *Cicero was an orator* ;
Numa creātus est rēx, *Numa was elected king*.

1. When possible the Predicate Noun usually agrees with its Subject in Gender also ; as, —

philosophia est vītae magistra, *philosophy is the guide of life*.

2. Besides **sum** the verbs most frequently accompanied by a Predicate Noun are —

a) **fiō**, **ēvādō**, **exsistō** ; **maneō** ; **videor** ; as, —

Croesus nōn semper mānsit rēx, *Croesus did not always remain king*.

b) Passive verbs of *making, calling, regarding, etc.* ; as, **creor**, **appellor**, **habeor** ; as, —

Rōmulus rēx appellātus est, *Romulus was called king* ;
habitus est deus, *he was regarded as a god*.

APPOSITIVES.

169. 1. An Appositive is a Noun explaining or defining another Noun denoting the same person or thing ; as, —

Cicerō cōsul, *Cicero, the Consul* ;
urbs Rōma, *the city Rome*.

2. An Appositive agrees with its Subject in Case ; as, —
opera Cicerōnis ōrātōris, *the works of Cicero, the orator* ;
apud Hērodotum, patrem historiae, *in the works of Herodotus, the father of history*.

3. When possible the Appositive agrees with its Subject in Gender also ; as, —

assentātiō adjūtrīx vitiōrum, *flattery, the promoter of evils*.

4. A Locative may take in Apposition the Ablative of **urbs** or **oppidum**, with or without a preposition ; as, —

Corinthī, urbe praeclārā, or **in urbe praeclārā**, *at Corinth, a famous city*.

5. PARTITIVE APPPOSITION. A Noun denoting a whole is frequently followed by an Appositive denoting a part ; as, —

mīlitēs, fortissimus quisque, **hostibus** restitērunt, *the soldiers, all the bravest of them, resisted the enemy*.

THE CASES.

THE NOMINATIVE.

170. The Nominative is confined to its use as Subject, Appositive, or Predicate Noun, as already explained. See §§ 166-169.

THE VOCATIVE.

171. The Vocative is the Case of direct address; as, —
crēdite mihi, jūdicēs, believe me, judges.

1. By a species of attraction, the Nominative is occasionally used for the Vocative, especially in poetry and formal prose; as, *audī tū, populus Albānus, hear ye, Alban people!*

2. Similarly the Appositive of a Vocative may, in poetry, stand in the Nominative; as, *nāte, mea magna potentia sōlus, O son, alone the source of my great power.*

THE ACCUSATIVE.

172. The Accusative is the Case of the Direct Object.

173. The Direct Object may express either of the two following relations:—

A. The PERSON OR THING AFFECTED by the action; as, —
cōnsulem interfēcit, he slew the consul;
legō librum, I read the book.

B. The RESULT PRODUCED by the action; as, —
librum scrīpsī, I wrote a book (i.e. produced one);
templum struit, he constructs a temple.

174. Verbs that admit a Direct Object of either of these two types are TRANSITIVE VERBS.

a. Verbs that regularly take a Direct Object are sometimes used without it. They are then said to be employed *absolutely*; as, —

rūmor est meum gnātum amāre, it is rumored that my son is in love.

Accusative of the Person or Thing Affected.

175. 1. This is the most frequent use of the Accusative; as in —

parentēs amāmus, *we love our parents*;
mare aspicit, *he gazes at the sea.*

2. The following classes of Verbs taking an Accusative of this kind are worthy of note: —

a) Many Intransitive Verbs, when compounded with a Preposition, become Transitive. Thus: —

1) Compounds of **circum**, **praeter**, **trāns**; as, —
hostēs circumstāre, *to surround the enemy*;
urbem praeterīre, *to pass by the city*;
mūrōs trāscendere, *to climb over the walls.*

2) Less frequently, compounds of **ad**, **per**, **in**, **sub**; as, —
adīre urbem, *to visit the city*;
peragrāre Italiam, *to travel through Italy*;
inīre magistrātum, *to take office*;
subīre perīculum, *to undergo danger.*

b) Many Verbs expressing emotions, regularly Intransitive, have also a Transitive use; as, —

queror fātum, *I lament my fate*;
doleō ejus mortem, *I grieve at his death*;
rīdeō tuam stultitiam, *I laugh at your folly.*

So also lūgeō, *maereō*, *mourn*; *gemō*, *bemoan*; *horreō*, *shudder*, and others.

c) The impersonals **decet**, *it becomes*; **dēdecet**, *it is unbecoming*; **juvat**, *it pleases*, take the Accusative of the Person Affected; as, —

mē decet haec dīcere, *it becomes me to say this.*

d) In poetry many Passive Verbs, in imitation of Greek usage, are employed as Middles (§ 256, 1; 2), and take the Accusative as Object; as, —

galeam induitur, *he puts on his helmet*;
cīnctus tempora hederā, *having bound his temples with ivy*;
nōdō sinūs collēcta, *having gathered her dress in a knot.*

Accusative of the Result Produced.

176. 1. The ordinary type of this Accusative is seen in such expressions as —

librum scribō, *I write a book*;
domum aedificō, *I build a house*.

2. Many Verbs usually Intransitive take a *Neuter Pronoun*, or *Adjective*, as an Accusative of Result. Thus: —

a) A Neuter Pronoun; as, —

haec gemēbat, *he made these moans*;
illud glōrior, *I make this boast*;
eadem peccat, *he makes the same mistakes*.

b) A Neuter Adjective, — particularly *Adjectives of number or amount*, — multum, multa, pauca, etc.; also nihil; as, —

multa dubitō, *I have many doubts*;
pauca studet, *he has few interests*;
multum valet, *he has great strength*;
nihil prōgreditur, *he makes no progress*.

NOTE. — In poetry other Adjectives are freely used in this construction; as, —

minitāntem vāna, *making vain threats*;
acerba tuēns, *giving a fierce look*;
dulce loquentem, *sweetly talking*.

3. The adverbial use of several Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives grows out of this Accusative; as, —

multum sunt in vēnātiōne, *they are much engaged in hunting*.

a. So also plūrimum, *very greatly*; plērumque, *generally*;
aliquid, *somewhat*; quid, *why?* nihil, *not at all*; etc.

4. Sometimes an Intransitive Verb takes an Accusative of Result which is of kindred etymology with the Verb. This is called a *COGNATE ACCUSATIVE*, and is usually modified by an Adjective; as, —

sempiternam servitūtem serviat, *let him serve an everlasting slavery*;
vītā dūram vixī, *I have lived a hard life*.

a. Sometimes the Cognate Accusative is not of kindred etymology, but merely of kindred meaning; as, —

stadium currit, *he runs a race*;
Olympia vincit, *he wins an Olympic victory*.

5. The Accusative of Result occurs also after Verbs of *tasting* and *smelling*; as, —

piscis mare sapit, the fish tastes of the sea;

ōrātiōnēs antīquitātem redolent, the speeches smack of the past.

Two Accusatives — Direct Object and Predicate Accusative.

177. 1. Many Verbs of *Making*, *Choosing*, *Calling*, *Showing*, and the like, take two Accusatives, one of the Person or Thing Affected, the other a Predicate Accusative; as, —

mē hērēdem fēcit, he made me heir.

Here *mē* is Direct Object, *hērēdem* Predicate Accusative.

So also —

eum iūdicem cēpēre, they took him as judge;

urbem Rōmam vocāvit, he called the city Rome;

sē virum praestitit, he showed himself a man.

2. The Predicate Accusative may be an Adjective as well as a Noun; as, —

hominēs caecōs reddit cupiditās, covetousness renders men blind;

Apollō Sōcratem sapientissimum iūdicāvit, Apollo adjudged Socrates the wisest man.

a. Some Verbs, as *reddō*, usually admit only an Adjective as the Predicate Accusative.

3. In the Passive the Direct Object becomes the Subject, and the Predicate Accusative becomes Predicate Nominative (§ 168. 2. b); as, —

urbs Rōma vocāta est, the city was called Rome.

a. Not all Verbs admit the Passive construction; *reddō* and *efficiō*, for example, never take it.

Two Accusatives — Person and Thing.

178. 1. Some Verbs take two Accusatives, one of the Person Affected, the other of the Result Produced. Thus: —

a) Verbs of *requesting* and *demanding*, as, —

ōtium dīvōs rogat, he asks the gods for rest;

mē duās ōrātiōnēs postulās, you demand two speeches of me.

So also *orō, poscō, reposcō, exposcō, flāgitō*, though some of these prefer the Ablative with *ab* to the Accusative of the Person; as, —

opem ā tē poscō, I demand aid of you.

b) Verbs of *teaching* (*doceō* and its compounds); as, —
tē litterās doceō, I teach you your letters.

c) Verbs of *inquiring*; as, —

tē haec rogō, I ask you this;

tē sententiam rogō, I ask you your opinion.

d) Several Special Verbs; *viz. moneō, admoneō, commoneō, cōgō, accūsō, arguō*, and a few others. These admit only a Neuter Pronoun or Adjective as Accusative of the Thing; as, —

tē haec moneō, I give you this advice;

mē id accūsās, you bring this accusation against me;

id cōgit nōs nātūra, nature compels us (to) this.

e) One Verb of *concealing*, *cēlō*; as, —

nōn tē cēlāvī sermōnem, I have not concealed the conversation from you.

2. In the Passive construction the Accusative of the Person becomes the Subject, and the Accusative of the Thing is retained; as, —

omnēs artēs ēdoctus est, he was taught all accomplishments;

rogātus sum sententiam, I was asked my opinion;

aliquid admonēmur, we are given some admonition.

a. Only a few Verbs admit the Passive construction.

Two Accusatives with Compounds.

179. 1. Transitive compounds of *trāns* may take two Accusatives, one dependent upon the Verb, the other upon the Preposition; as, —

militēs flūmen trādūcit, he leads his soldiers across the river.

2. With other compounds this construction is rare.

3. In the Passive the Accusative dependent upon the preposition is retained; as, —

militēs flūmen trādūcēbantur, the soldiers were led across the river

Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative.

180. 1. The Synecdochical (or Greek) Accusative denotes the *part* to which an action or quality refers; as, —

tremīt artūs, literally, *he trembles as-to his limbs, i.e. his limbs tremble*;
nūda genū, lit. *bare as to the knee, i.e. with knee bare*;
manūs revinctus, lit. *tied as to the hands, i.e. with hands tied*.

2. Note that this construction —

- a) Is borrowed from the Greek.
- b) Is chiefly confined to poetry.
- c) Usually refers to a part of the body.
- d) Is used with Adjectives as well as Verbs.

Accusative of Time and Space.

181. 1. *Duration of Time* and *Extent of Space* are denoted by the Accusative; as, —

quadrāgintā annōs vīxit, *he lived forty years*;
hīc locus passūs sescentōs aberat, *this place was six hundred paces away*.
arborēs quīnquāgintā pedēs altae, *trees fifty feet high*.
abhinc septem annōs, *seven years ago*.

2. Emphasis is sometimes added by using the Preposition *per*; as,
per biennium labōrāvī, *I toiled throughout two years*.

Accusative of Limit of Motion.

182. 1. The Accusative of Limit of Motion is used —

a) With names of *Towns, Small Islands, and Peninsulas*; as, —

Rōmam vēnī, *I came to Rome*;
Athēnās proficīscitur, *he sets out for Athens*;
Dēlum pervēnī, *I arrived at Delos*.

b) With *domum, domōs, rūs*; as, —

domum revertitur, *he returns home*;
rūs ībō, *I shall go to the country*.

NOTE. — When *domus* means *house* (*i.e. building*), it takes a preposition; as, —

in domum veterem remigrāre, *to move back to an old house*.

2. Other designations of place than those above mentioned require a Preposition to denote Limit of Motion; as,—

ad Italiam vēnit, *he came to Italy.*

- a. The Preposition is also customary with the Accusatives **urbem** or **oppidum** when they stand in apposition with the name of a town; as,—

Cirtam in urbem, *to the city Cirta;*

Genavam ad oppidum, *to the town Geneva.*

- b. The name of a town denoting limit of motion may be combined with the name of a country or other word dependent upon a preposition; as,—

Thūriōs in Italiam pervectus, *carried to Thurii in Italy;*
cum Acēn ad exercitum vēnisset, *when he had come to the army at Ace.*

3. To denote *toward*, *to the vicinity of*, *in the vicinity of*, **ad** is used; as,—

ad Tarentum vēnī, *I came to the vicinity of Tarentum;*

ad Cannās pugna facta est, *a battle was fought near Cannae.*

4. In poetry the Accusative of any noun denoting a place may be used without a preposition to express the limit of motion; as,—

Italiam vēnit, *he came to Italy.*

5. The *goal* notion seems to represent the original function of the Accusative Case. Traces of this primitive force are recognizable in the phrase **īnfītīās īre**, *to deny* (lit. *to go to a denial*), and a few other similar expressions.

Accusative in Exclamations.

183. The Accusative, generally modified by an Adjective, is used in Exclamations; as,—

mē miserum, *ah, wretched me!*

Ō fallācem spem, *oh, deceptive hope!*

Accusative as Subject of the Infinitive.

184. The Subject of the Infinitive is put in the Accusative; as,—

videō hominem abīre, *I see that the man is going away.*

Other Uses of the Accusative.

185. Here belong —

1. Some Accusatives which were originally Appositives; viz. —

id genus, of that kind; as, hominēs id genus, men of that kind
(originally *hominēs, id genus hominum, men, that kind*
of men);

virīle secus, muliebre secus, of the male sex, of the female sex;

meam vicem, tuam vicem, etc., for my part, etc.;

bonam partem, magnam partem, in large part;

maximam partem, for the most part.

2. Some phrases of doubtful origin; as, —

id temporis, at that time;

quod sī, but if;

id aetātis, at that time;

cētera, in other respects.

THE DATIVE.

186. The Dative case in general expresses relations which are designated in English by the prepositions *to* and *for*.

Dative of Indirect Object.

187. The commonest use of the Dative is to denote the person *to whom* something is *given, said, or done*. Thus:—

I. With transitive verbs in connection with the Accusative; as, —

hanc pecūniam mihi dat, he gives me this money;

haec nōbīs dīxit, he said this to us.

a. Some verbs which take this construction (particularly *dōnō* and *circumdō*) admit also the Accusative of the person along with the Ablative of the thing. Thus:—

Either Themistoclī mūnera dōnāvit, he presented gifts to
Themistocles, or

Themistoclem mūneribus dōnāvit, he presented Themis-
tocles with gifts;

urbī mūrōs circumdat, he builds walls around the city, or
urbem mūrīs circumdat, he surrounds the city with walls.

II. With many intransitive verbs ; as, —

nūllī labōrī cēdit, he yields to no labor.

- a.* Here belong many verbs signifying *favor*,¹ *help*, *injure*, *please*, *displease*, *trust*, *distrust*, *command*, *obey*, *serve*, *resist*, *indulge*, *spare*, *pardon*, *envy*, *threaten*, *be angry*, *believe*, *persuade*, and the like ; as, —

Caesar populāribus favet, Caesar favors (i.e. is favorable to) the popular party ;

amicīs cōfidō, I trust (to) my friends ;

Orgetorīx Helvētīs persuāsīt, Orgetorix persuaded (made it acceptable to) the Helvetians ;

bonīs nocet quī malīs parcīt, he injures (does harm to) the good, who spares the bad.

NOTE. — It is to be borne in mind that these verbs do not take the Dative by virtue of their apparent English equivalence, but simply because they are *intransitive*, and adapted to an indirect object. Some verbs of the same apparent English equivalence are *transitive* and govern the Accusative ; as, *juvō, laedō, dēlectō*. Thus : *audētēs deus juvat, God helps the bold ; nēminem laesit, he injured no one.*

- b.* Verbs of this class are used in the passive only impersonally ; as, —

tibi parcitur, you are spared ;

mihi persuādētur, I am being persuaded ;

eī invidētur, he is envied.

- c.* Some of the foregoing verbs admit also a Direct Object in connection with the Dative ; as, —

mihi mortem minitātur, he threatens me with death (threatens death to me).

III. With many verbs compounded with the prepositions : *ad, ante, circum, com*,² *in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super.*

These verbs fall into two main classes, —

- i.* Many simple verbs which cannot take a Dative of the indirect object become capable of doing so when compounded with a preposition ; as, —

afflictīs succurrit, he helps the afflicted ;

exercituī praefuit, he was in command of the army ;

intersum cōsiliīs, I share in the deliberations.

¹ Many such verbs were originally intransitive in English also, and once governed the Dative. ² This was the original form of the preposition *cum*.

2. Many transitive verbs which take only a direct object become capable, when compounded, of taking a Dative also as indirect object; as, —

pecūniae pudōrem antepōnit, he puts honor before money;

inicere spem amicis, to inspire hope in one's friends;

Labiēnum exercituū praefecit, he put Labienus in charge of the army.

Dative of Reference.

188. 1. The Dative of Reference denotes the person to whom a statement refers, of whom it is true, or to whom it is of interest; as, —

mihi ante oculōs versāris, you hover before my eyes (lit. hover before the eyes to me);

illī sevērītās amōrem nōn dēminuit, in his case severity did not diminish love (lit. to him severity did not diminish);

interclūdere hostibus commeātum, to cut off the supplies of the enemy.

a. Note the phrase *alicui interdīcere aquā et ignī*, to interdict one from fire and water.

NOTE. — The Dative of Reference, unlike the Dative of Indirect Object, does not modify the verb, but rather the sentence as a whole. It is often used where, according to the English idiom, we should expect a Genitive; so in the first and third of the above examples.

2. Special varieties of the Dative of Reference are —

a) **Dative of the Local Standpoint.** This is regularly a participle; as, —

oppidum primum Thessaliae venientibus ab Ēpīrō, the first town of Thessaly as you come from Epirus (lit. to those coming from Epirus).

b) **Ethical Dative.** This name is given to those Dative constructions of the personal pronouns in which the connection of the Dative with the rest of the sentence is of the very slightest sort; as, —

tū mihi istius audāciam dēfendis? tell me, do you defend that man's audacity?

quid mihi Celsus agit? what is my Celsus doing?

quid sibi vult? what does he mean? (lit. wish for himself?)

c) Dative of Person Judging; as, —

erit ille mihi semper deus, he will always be a god to me (i.e. in my opinion);

quae ista servitūs tam clārō hominī, how can that be slavery to so illustrious a man (i.e. to his mind)!

d) Dative of Separation. Some verbs of *taking away*, especially compounds of *ab, dē, ex, ad*, govern a Dative of the person, less often of the thing; as, —

honōrem dētrāxērunt hominī, they took away the honor from the man;

Caesar rēgī tetrarchiam ēripuit, Caesar took the tetrarchy away from the king;

silici scintillam excūdit, he struck a spark from the flint.

Dative of Agency.

189. The Dative is used to denote *agency* —

1. Regularly with the Gerundive; as, —

haec nobīs agenda sunt, these things must be done by us;
mihi eundum est, I must go (lit. it must be gone by me).

a. To avoid ambiguity, *ā* with the Ablative is sometimes used with the Gerundive; as, —

hostibus ā nobīs parcendum est, the enemy must be spared by us.

2. Much less frequently with the compound tenses of the passive voice and the perfect passive participle; as, —

disputātiō quae mihi nūper habita est, the discussion which was recently conducted by me.

3. Rarely with the uncompounded tenses of the passive; as, —

honesta bonīs virīs quaeruntur, noble ends are sought by good men.

Dative of Possession.

190. The Dative of Possession occurs with the verb *esse* in such expressions as: —

mihi est liber, I have a book;

mihi nōmen est Mārcus, I have the name Marcus.

1. But with *nōmen est* the name is more commonly attracted into the Dative; as, *mihi Mārcō nōmen est.*

Dative of Purpose or Tendency.

191. The Dative of Purpose or Tendency designates *the end toward which an action is directed or the direction in which it tends*. It is used —

1. Unaccompanied by another Dative; as, —

castris locum dēligere, to choose a place for a camp;
legiōnēs praesidiō relinquere, to leave the legions as a guard (lit. for a guard);
receptū canere, to sound the signal for a retreat.

2. Much more frequently in connection with another Dative of the person: —

a) Especially with some form of *esse*; as, —

fortūnae tuae mihi cūrae sunt, your fortunes are a care to me (lit. for a care);
nōbīs sunt odiō, they are an object of hatred to us;
cui bonō? to whom is it of advantage?

b) With other verbs; as, —

hōs tibi mūnerī mīsīt, he has sent these to you for a present;
Pausaniās Atticīs vēnit auxiliō, Pausanias came to the aid of the Athenians (lit. to the Athenians for aid).

3. In connection with the Gerundive; as, —

decemvirī lēgibus scrībundīs, decemvirs for codifying the laws;
mē gerendō bellō ducem creāvēre, me they have made leader for carrying on the war.

NOTE. — This construction with the gerundive is not common till Livy.

Dative with Adjectives.

192. The use of the Dative with Adjectives corresponds very closely to its use with verbs. Thus: —

1. Corresponding to the Dative of Indirect Object it occurs with adjectives signifying: *friendly, unfriendly, similar, dissimilar, equal, near, related to, etc.*; as, —

mihi inimīcus, hostile to me;
sunt proximī Germānīs, they are next to the Germans;
noxiae poena pār estō, let the penalty be equal to the damage.

- a. For *propior* and *proximus* with the Accusative, see § 141, 3.
2. Corresponding to the Dative of Purpose, the Dative occurs with adjectives signifying: *suitable, adapted, fit*; as,—
- castrīs idōneus locus, a place fit for a camp;*
apta diēs sacrificiō, a day suitable for a sacrifice.

NOTE.—Adjectives of this last class often take the Accusative with *ad*.

Dative of Direction.

193. In the poets the Dative is occasionally used to denote the *direction of motion*; as,—

it clamor caelō, the shout goes heavenward;
cinerēs rīvō fluentī jace, cast the ashes toward the flowing stream.

1. By an extension of this construction the poets sometimes use the Dative to denote the *limit of motion*; as,—

dum Latīō deōs inferret, till he should bring his gods to Latium.

THE GENITIVE.

194. The Genitive is used with Nouns, Adjectives, and Verbs.

GENITIVE WITH NOUNS.

195. With Nouns the Genitive is *the case which defines the meaning of the limited noun more closely*. This relation is generally indicated in English by the preposition *of*. There are the following varieties of the Genitive with Nouns:—

Genitive of Origin,	Objective Genitive,
Genitive of Material,	Genitive of the Whole,
Genitive of Possession,	Appositional Genitive,
Subjective Genitive,	Genitive of Quality.

196. Genitive of Origin; as,—

Mārōī filius, the son of Marcus.

197. Genitive of Material; as,—

talentum aurī, a talent of gold;
acervus frūmentī, a pile of grain.

198. Genitive of Possession or Ownership ; as, —

domus Cicerōnis, Cicero's house.

1. Here belongs the Genitive with *causā* and *grātiā*. The Genitive always precedes ; as, —

hominum causā, for the sake of men ;

meōrum amīcōrum grātiā, for the sake of my friends.

2. *Īnstar* (lit. *image*) also takes the Possessive Genitive ; as, —

equus īnstar montis, a horse as large as a mountain.

3. The Possessive Genitive is often used predicatively, especially with *esse* and *fieri* ; as, —

domus est rēgis, the house is the king's ;

stultī est in errōre manēre, it is (the part) of a fool to remain in error ;

dē bellō iudicium imperātōris est, nōn mīlitum, the decision concerning war belongs to the general, not to the soldiers.

199. Subjective Genitive. This denotes the person who makes or produces something or who has a feeling ; as, —

dicta Platōnis, the utterances of Plato ;

timōrēs liberōrum, the fears of the children.

200. Objective Genitive. This denotes the object of an action or feeling ; as, —

metus deōrum, the fear of the gods ;

amor libertātis, love of liberty ;

cōnsuetūdō bonōrum hominum, intercourse with good men.

1. This relation is often expressed by means of prepositions ; as, —

amor ergā parentēs, love toward one's parents.

201. Genitive of the Whole. This designates the whole of which a part is taken. It is used —

1. With Nouns, Pronouns, Comparatives, Superlatives, and Ordinal Numerals ; as, —

magna pars hominum, a great part of mankind ;

duo mīlia peditum, two thousand foot-soldiers ;

quis mortālium, who of mortals ?

major frātrum, the elder of the brothers ;

gēns maxima Germānōrum, the largest tribe of the Germans ;

primus omnium, the first of all.

- a. Yet instead of the Genitive of the Whole we often find **ex** or **dē** with the Ablative, regularly so with Cardinal numbers and **quidam**; as, —
fidēlissimus dē servīs, *the most trusty of the slaves*;
quidam ex amicīs, *certain of his friends*;
ūnus ex militibus, *one of the soldiers*.

- b. In English we often use *of* where there is no relation of whole to part. In such cases the Latin is more exact, and does not use the Genitive; as, —

quot vōs estis, *how many of you are there?*

trecentī conjūrāvimus, *three hundred of us have conspired* (i.e. we, three hundred in number).

2. The Genitive of the Whole is used also with the Nominative or Accusative Singular Neuter of Pronouns, or of Adjectives used substantively; also with the Adverbs **parum**, **satis**, and **partim** when used substantively; as, —

quid cōsiliī, *what purpose?*

tantum cibi, *so much food*;

plūs auctōritātis, *more authority*;

minus labōris, *less labor*;

satis pecūniae, *enough money*;

parum industriae, *too little industry*

- a. An Adjective of the second declension used substantively may be employed as a Genitive of the Whole; as, **nihil bonī**, *nothing good*.
 b. But Adjectives of the third declension agree directly with the noun they limit; as, **nihil dulcius**, *nothing sweeter*.

3. Occasionally we find the Genitive of the Whole dependent upon Adverbs of place; as, —

ubi terrārum? ubi gentium? *where in the world?*

- a. By an extension of this usage the Genitive sometimes occurs in dependence upon **prīdiē** and **postrīdiē**, but only in the phrases **prīdiē ejus diēi**, *on the day before that*; **postrīdiē ejus diēi**, *on the day after that*.

202. **Appositional Genitive.** The Genitive sometimes has the force of an appositive; as, —

nōmen rēgis, *the name of king*;

poena mortis, *the penalty of death*;

ars scribendī, *the art of writing*.

203. **Genitive of Quality.** The Genitive modified by an Adjective is used to denote quality. This construction presents several varieties. Thus it is used —

1. To denote some internal or permanent characteristic of a person or thing; as, —

vir magnae virtūtis, *a man of great virtue*;
rationēs ejus modī, *considerations of that sort*.

a. Only a limited number of Adjectives occur in this construction, chiefly **magnus**, **maximus**, **summus**, **tantus**, along with **ejus**.

2. To denote measure (*breadth, length, etc.*); as, —

fossa quīdecim pedum, *a trench fifteen feet wide (or deep)*;
exsilium decem annōrum, *an exile of ten years*.

3. By omission of **pretī** (*price*), or some kindred word, **tantī**, **quantī**, **parvī**, **magnī**, **minōris**, **minimī**, **plūrimī**, **maximī** are used predicatively to denote *indefinite value*; as, —

nūlla studia tantī sunt, *no studies are of so much value*;
magnī opera ejus exīstimāta est, *his assistance was highly esteemed*.

a. **Plūris** (not strictly an adjective) follows the same analogy.

4. By an extension of the notion of *value*, **quantī**, **tantī**, **plūris**, and **minōris** are also used with verbs of *buying* and *selling*, to denote *indefinite price*; as, —

quantī aedēs ēmistī, *at how high a price did you purchase the house?*

5. Any of the above varieties of the Genitive of Quality may be used predicatively; as, —

tantae mōlis erat Rōmānam condere gentem, *of so great difficulty was it to found the Roman race*.

GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES.

204. The Genitive is used with many Adjectives, *to limit the extent of their application*. Thus: —

1. With Adjectives signifying *desire*, *knowledge*, *familiarity*, *memory*, *participation*, *power*, *fulness*, and their opposites; as, —

studiōsus discendī, *desirous of learning*;
perītus bellī, *skilled in war*;
īsuētus labōris, *unused to toil*;
īmemor mandātī tuī, *unmindful of your commission*;
plēna periculōrum est vīta, *life is full of dangers*.

a. Some participles used adjectively also take the Genitive: as, —

diligēns vērītātis, *fond of truth*;
amāns patriae, *devoted to one's country*.

2. Sometimes with **proprius** and **commūnis**; as, —
virī propria est fortitūdō, *bravery is characteristic of a man.*
memoria est commūnis omnium artium, *memory is common to all professions.*

a. **proprius** and **commūnis** are also construed with the Dative.

3. With **similis** the Genitive is the commoner construction in Cicero, when the reference is to living objects; as, —

filius patris simillimus est, *the son is exactly like his father.*
meī similis, *like me*; **vestrī similis**, *like you.*

When the reference is to things, both Genitive and Dative occur; as, —

mors somnō (or **somnī**) **similis est**, *death is like sleep.*

4. In the poets and later prose writers the use of the Genitive with Adjectives is extended far beyond earlier limits; as, **atrōx animī**, *fierce of temper*; **incertus cōsiliī**, *undecided in purpose.*

GENITIVE WITH VERBS.

205. The Genitive is used with the following classes of Verbs: —

Meminī, Reminīscor, Oblīvīscor.

206. 1. WHEN REFERRING TO PERSONS —

a. **meminī** always takes the Genitive of personal or reflexive pronouns; as, —

meī meminērīs, *remember me!*
nostrī meminit, *he remembers us.*

With other words denoting persons **meminī** takes the Accusative, rarely the Genitive; as, —

Sullam meminī, *I recall Sulla.*
vīvōrum meminī, *I remember the living.*

b. **oblīvīscor** regularly takes the Genitive; as, —

Epicūrī nōn licet oblīvīscī, *we mustn't forget Epicurus.*

2. WHEN REFERRING TO THINGS. **meminī, reminīscor, oblīvīscor** take sometimes the Genitive, sometimes the Accusative, without difference of meaning; as, —

animus praeteritōrum meminit, *the mind remembers the past*;
meministine nōmina, *do you remember the names?*
reminīscere veteris incommodī, *remember the former disaster*;
reminīscēns acerbitātem, *remembering the severity.*

- a. But neuter pronouns, and adjectives used substantively, regularly stand in the Accusative; as, —

haec meminī, *I remember this*;

multa reminiscor, *I remember many things*.

3. The phrase **mihi (tibi, etc.) in mentem venit**, following the analogy of **meminī**, takes the Genitive; as, —

civium mihi in mentem venit, *I remember the citizens*.

Admoneō, Commoneō, Commonefaciō.

207. These verbs, in addition to an Accusative of the person, occasionally take a Genitive of the thing; as, —

tē admoneō amicitiae nostrae, *I remind you of our friendship*.

- a. But more frequently (in Cicero almost invariably) these verbs take **dē** with the Ablative; as, —

dē pecūniā mē admonēs, *you remind me of the money*.

- b. A neuter pronoun or adjective used substantively regularly stands in the Accusative (178. I. d); as, —

tē hōc admoneō, *I give you this warning*.

Verbs of Judicial Action.

208. I. Verbs of *Accusing, Convicting, Acquitting* take the Genitive of the charge; as, —

mē fūrtī accūsāt, *he accuses me of theft*;

Verrem avāritiae coarguit, *he convicts Verres of avarice*;

impietātis absolūtus est, *he was acquitted of blasphemy*.

2. Verbs of *Condemning* take —

- a. The Genitive of the charge; as, —

pecūniae publicae damnātus, *condemned (on the charge) of embezzlement (lit. public money)*;

capitis damnātus, *condemned on a capital charge (lit. on a charge involving his head)*.

- b. The Ablative of the penalty; as, —

capite damnātus est, *he was condemned to death*;

mille nummīs damnātus est, *he was condemned (to pay) a thousand sesterces (lit. by a thousand sesterces, Abl. of Means)*.

3. Note the phrases:—

vōtī damnātus, vōtī reus, *having attained one's prayer* (lit. *condemned on the score of one's vow*);

dē vī, (accused, convicted, etc.) *of assault*;

inter sicāriōs, (accused, convicted, etc.) *of murder*.

Genitive with Impersonal Verbs.

209. 1. The Impersonals pudet, paenitet, miseret, taedet, piget take the Accusative of *the person affected*, along with the Genitive of *the person or thing toward whom the feeling is directed*; as,—

pudet mē tuī, *I am ashamed of you* (lit. *it shames me of you*);

paenitet mē hūjus factī, *I repent of this act*;

eum taedet vītae, *he is weary of life*;

pauperum tē miseret, *you pity the poor*.

- a. Instead of the Genitive of the thing we often find an Infinitive or Neuter Pronoun used as subject of the verb. Thus:—

mē paenitet hōc fēcisse, *I repent of having done this*;

mē hōc pudet, *I am ashamed of this*.

2. Misereor and miserescō also govern the Genitive; as,—
miserēminī sociōrum, *pity the allies*.

Interest, Rēfert.

210. With interest, *it concerns*, three points enter into consideration; viz.—

- a) the *person concerned*;
- b) the *thing about which* he is concerned;
- c) the *extent* of his concern.

211. 1. The *person concerned* is regularly denoted by the Genitive; as,—

patris interest, *it concerns the father*.

- a. But instead of the Genitive of the personal pronouns, mē, tuī, etc., the Latin uses the Ablative Singular Feminine of the Possessive, viz.: meā, tuā, etc.; as,—

meā interest, *it concerns me*.

2. The *thing about which* a person is concerned is denoted —

a) by a Neuter Pronoun as subject; as, —

hōc reī pūblīcae interest, this concerns the state.

b) by an Infinitive; as, —

omnium interest valēre, it concerns all to keep well.

c) by an Indirect Question; as, —

meā interest quandō veniās, I am concerned as to when you are coming.

3. The *degree of concern* is denoted —

a) by the Genitive (of Quality): *magnī, parvī, etc.*; as, —

meā magnī interest, it concerns me greatly.

b) by the Adverbs, *magnopere, magis, maximē, etc.*; as, —

cīvium minimē interest, it concerns the citizens very little.

c) by the Neuters, *multum, plūs, minus, etc.*; as, —

multum vestrā interest, it concerns you much.

4. *Rēfert* follows *interest* in its construction, except that it rarely takes the Genitive of the person. Thus: —

meā rēfert, it concerns me;

but rarely *illīus rēfert, it concerns him.*

Genitive with Other Verbs.

212. 1. Verbs of *Plenty* and *Want* sometimes govern the Genitive; as, —

pecūniae indigēs, you need money.

a. These verbs more commonly take the Ablative (§ 214, 1); *indigēō* is the only verb which has a preference for the Genitive.

2. *Potior*, though usually followed by the Ablative, sometimes takes the Genitive, almost always so in Sallust; and regularly in the phrase: *potīrī rērum, to get control of affairs.*

3. In poetry some verbs take the Genitive in imitation of the Greek; as, —

dēsine querellārum, cease your complaints;

operum solūtī, freed from their tasks.

THE ABLATIVE.

213. The Latin Ablative unites in itself three cases which were originally distinct both in form and in meaning; *viz.* —

The Ablative or **from**-case.

The Instrumental or **with**-case.

The Locative or **where**-case.

The uses of the Latin Ablative accordingly fall into Genuine Ablative uses, Instrumental uses, and Locative uses.

GENUINE ABLATIVE USES.

Ablative of Separation.

214. The Ablative of Separation is construed sometimes with, sometimes without, a preposition.

1. The following words regularly take the Ablative without a preposition:—

a) The Verbs of *freeing*: *liberō*, *solvō*, *levō*;

b) The Verbs of *depriving*: *privō*, *spoliō*, *exuō*, *fraudō*, *nūdō*;

c) The Verbs of *lacking*: *egeō*, *careō*, *vacō*;

d) The corresponding Adjectives, *liber*, *inānis*, *vacuus*, *nūdus*, and some others of similar meaning.

Thus:—

cūrīs liberātus, *freed from cares*;

Caesar hostēs armīs exuit, *Caesar stripped the enemy of their arms*;

caret sēnsū commūnī, *he lacks common sense*;

auxiliō eget, *he needs help*;

bonōrum vīta vacua est metū, *the life of the good is free from fear*.

NOTE 1.—Yet Adjectives and *liberō* may take the preposition *ab*,—regularly so with the Ablative of persons; as,—

urbem ā tyrannō liberārant, *they freed the city from the tyrant*.

NOTE 2.—*Indigeō* usually takes the Genitive. See § 212, 1, a.

2. Of Verbs signifying *to keep from, to remove, to withdraw*, some take the preposition, others omit it. The same Verb often admits both constructions. Examples:—

abstinēre cibō, *to abstain from food*;

hostēs finibus prohibuērunt, *they kept the enemy from their borders*;

praedōnēs ab insulā prohibuit, *he kept the pirates from the island*.

3. Other Verbs of separation usually take the Ablative with a Preposition, particularly compounds of **dis-** and **sē-**; as,—

dissentiō ā tē, *I dissent from you*;

sēcernantur ā nōbīs, *let them be separated from us*.

4. The Preposition is freely omitted in poetry.

Ablative of Source.

215. The Ablative of Source is used with the participles **nātus** and **ortus** (in poetry also with **ēditus**, **satus**, and some others), to designate *parentage* or *station*; as,—

Jove nātus, *son of Jupiter*;

summō locō nātus, *high-born* (lit. *born from a very high place*);

nōbilli genere ortus, *born of a noble family*.

1. Pronouns regularly (nouns rarely) take **ex**; as,

ex mē nātus, *sprung from me*.

2. To denote remoter descent, **ortus ab**, or **oriundus** (with or without **ab**), is used; as,—

ab Ulixē oriundus, *descended from Ulysses*.

Ablative of Agent.

216. The Ablative accompanied by **ā** (**ab**) is used with passive verbs to denote the *personal agent*; as,—

ā Caesare accūsātus est, *he was arraigned by Caesar*.

1. Collective nouns referring to persons, and abstract nouns when personified, may be construed as the personal agent. Thus:—

hostēs ā fortūnā dēserēbantur, *the enemy were deserted by Fortune*;

ā multitudīne hostium mōntēs tenēbantur, *the mountains were held by a multitude of the enemy*.

2. Names of animals sometimes admit the same construction. Thus:—

ā canibus laniātus est, *he was torn to pieces by dogs*.

Ablative of Comparison.

217. 1. The Ablative is often used with Comparatives in the sense of *than*; as, —

melle dulcior, sweeter than honey;

patria mihi vitā cārior est, my country is dearer to me than life.

2. This construction, as a rule, occurs only as a substitute for *quam* (*than*) with the Nominative or Accusative. In other cases *quam* must be used; as, —

tuī studiōsior sum quam illius, I am fonder of you than of him.

Studiōsior illō would have meant, *I am fonder of you than he is.*

3. *Plūs, minus, amplius, longius* are often employed as the equivalents of *plūs quam, minus quam, etc.* Thus: —

amplius vīgintī urbēs incenduntur, more than twenty cities are fired;

minus quīnque mīlia prōcessit, he advanced less than five miles.

4. Note the use of *opīniōne* with Comparatives; as, —
opīniōne celerius venit, he comes more quickly than expected (lit. *than opinion*).

INSTRUMENTAL USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Means.

218. The Ablative is used to denote *means* or *instrument*; as, —

Alexander sagittā vulnerātus est, Alexander was wounded by an arrow.

There are the following special varieties of this Ablative: —

1. *Ūtor, fruor, fungor, potior, vescor*, and their compounds take the Ablative; as, —

dīvitiis ūtitur, he uses his wealth (lit. *he benefits himself by his wealth*);

vitā fruitur, he enjoys life (lit. *he enjoys himself by life*);

mūnere fungor, I perform my duty (lit. *I busy myself with duty*);

carne vescuntur, they eat flesh (lit. *feed themselves by means of*);

urbe potītus est, he got possession of the city (lit. *made himself powerful by the city*).

a. *Potior* sometimes governs the Genitive. See § 212, 2.

2. With *opus est* (rarely *ūsus est*), *there is need*; as, —
duce nōbīs opus est, we need a leader.

a. A Neuter Pronoun or Adjective often stands as subject with *opus* as predicate. Thus: —

hōc mihi opus est, this is necessary for me.

b. An ordinary substantive rarely stands as subject. Thus *dux nōbīs opus est* is a rare form of expression.

c. Note the occasional use of a perfect passive participle with *opus est*; as, —

opus est properātō, there is need of haste.

3. With *nītor*, *innīxus*, and *frētus*; as, —

nītitur hastā, he rests on a spear (lit. *supports himself by a spear*);

frētus virtūte, relying on virtue (lit. *supported by virtue*).

4. With *continērī*, *cōsistere*, *cōnstāre*, *consist of*; as, —

nervīs et ossibus continentur, they consist of sinews and bones (lit. *they are held together by sinews and bones*);

mortālī cōsistit corpore mundus, the world consists of mortal substance (lit. *holds together by means of, etc.*).

6. In expressions of the following type: —

quid hōc homine faciās, what can you do with this man?

quid meā Tulliolā fiet, what will become of my dear Tullia? (lit. *what will be done with my dear Tullia?*)

7. In the following special phrases at variance with the ordinary English idiom: —

proeliō contendere, vincere, to contend, conquer in battle;

proeliō lacessere, to provoke to battle;

currū vehī, to ride in a chariot;

pedibus ire, to go on foot;

castrīs sē tenēre, to keep in camp.

8. With Verbs of *filling* and Adjectives of *plenty*; as, —

fossās virgultīs complērunt, they filled the trenches with brush.

a. But *plēnus* more commonly takes the Genitive. See § 204, 1.

9. Under 'Means' belongs also the Ablative of the Way by which; as, —

vīnum Tiberī dēvectum, wine brought down (by) the Tiber.

10. The means may be a person as well as a thing. Thus: —

militibus ā lacū Lemannō ad montem Jūram mūrūm perdūcit, *with*
(i.e. by means of) *his troops he runs a wall from Lake Geneva to Mt. Jura.*

Ablative of Cause.

219. The Ablative is used to denote *cause*; as, —

multa glōriæ cupiditatē fēcit, *he did many things on account of his love of glory.*

1. So especially with verbs denoting mental states; as, **dēlector**, **gaudeō**, **laetor**, **glōrior**, **fīdō**, **cōfīdō**. Also with **contentus**; as, —

fortūnā amīcī gaudeō, *I rejoice at the fortune of my friend (i.e. on account of it);*

victōriā suā glōriantur, *they exult over their victory;*

nātūrā locī cōfīdēbant, *they trusted in the character of their country*
(lit. *were confident on account of the character*).

a. **fīdō** and **cōfīdō** always take the Dative of the person (§ 187. II. a); sometimes the Dative of the thing.

2. As Ablatives of Cause are to be reckoned also such Ablatives as **ussū**, *by order of*, **injussū**, *without the order*, **rogātū**, *etc.*

Ablative of Manner.

220. The Ablative with **cum** is used to denote *manner*; as, —

cum gravitatē loquitur, *he speaks with dignity.*

1. The preposition may be omitted when the Ablative is modified by an adjective; as, —

magnā gravitatē loquitur, *he speaks with great dignity.*

2. The preposition is regularly omitted in the expressions **jūre**, **injuriā**, **jocō**, **vī**, **fraude**, **voluntātē**, **fūrtō**, **silentiō**.

3. A special variety of the Ablative of Manner denotes that *in accordance with which* or *in pursuance of which* anything is or is done. It is generally used without a preposition. Thus: —

meā sententiā, *according to my opinion;*

suīs mōribus, *in accordance with their custom;*

suā sponte, *voluntarily, of his (their) own accord;*

eā condiōne, *on these terms.*

Ablative of Attendant Circumstance.

221. The Ablative is often used to denote an *attendant circumstance* of an action or an event; as, —

bonis auspiciis, under good auspices;

nūlla est altercātiō olāmōribus umquam habita majōribus, no debate was ever held under circumstances of greater applause;

extinguitur ingentī lūctū prōvinciae, he dies under circumstances of great grief on the part of the province;

longō intervallō sequitur, he follows at a great distance.

Ablative of Accompaniment.

222. The Ablative with *cum* is used with verbs of motion to denote *accompaniment*; as, —

cum comitibus profectus est, he set out with his attendants;

cum febrī domum rediit, he returned home with a fever.

1. In military expressions the Ablative may stand without *cum* when modified by any adjective except a numeral; as, —

omnibus cōpiis, ingentī exercitū, magnā manū; but usually *cum exercitū, cum duābus legiōnibus*.

Ablative of Association.

222 A. The Ablative is often used with verbs of *joining, mixing, clinging, exchanging*; also with *assuēscō, cōnsuēscō, assuēfaciō*, and some others to denote *association*; as, —

improbītās scelere jūcta, badness joined with crime;

āēr calōre admixtus, air mixed with heat;

assuētus labōre, accustomed to (lit. familiarized with) toil;

pācem bellō permūtant, they change peace for (lit. with) war.

Ablative of Degree of Difference.

223. The Ablative is used with comparatives and words involving comparison (as *post, ante, infā, suprā*) to denote the *degree of difference*; as, —

dimidiō minor, smaller by a half;

tribus pedibus altior, three feet higher;

paulō post, a little afterwards;

quō plūra habēmus, eō cupimus ampliōra, the more we have, the more we want.

Ablative of Quality.

224. The Ablative, modified by an adjective, is used to denote *quality*; as, —

puella eximiā fōrmā, a girl of exceptional beauty;
vir singulārī industriā, a man of singular industry.

1. The Ablative of Quality may also be used predicatively; as, —
est magnā prūdentiā, he is (a man) of great wisdom;
bonō animō sunt, they are of good courage.
2. In place of the Adjective we sometimes find a limiting Genitive; as, —
sunt speciēs et colōre taurī, they are of the appearance and color of a bull.
3. In poetry the Ablative of Quality sometimes denotes *material*; as, —
scopulis pendentibus antrum, a cave of arching rocks.

Ablative of Price.

225. With verbs of *buying* and *selling*, price is designated by the Ablative; as, —

servum quīnque minīs ēmit, he bought the slave for five minae.

1. The Ablatives *magnō, plūrimō, parvō, minimō* (by omission of *pretiō*) are used to denote *indefinite price*; as, —
aedēs magnō vēndidit, he sold the house for a high price.
2. For the Genitive of Indefinite Price, see § 203. 4.

Ablative of Specification.

226. The Ablative of Specification is used to denote that *in respect to which* something is or is done; as, —

Helvētī omnibus Gallīs virtūte praestābant, the Helvetians surpassed all the Gauls in valor;
pede claudus, lame in his foot.

1. Note the phrases: —
major nātū, older (lit. greater as to age);
minor nātū, younger.
2. Here belongs the use of the Ablative with *dignus, worthy, indignus, unworthy, and dignor, deem worthy of*; as, —
dignī honōre, worthy of honor (i.e. in point of honor);
fidē indignī, unworthy of confidence.
mē dignor honōre, I deem myself worthy of honor.

Ablative Absolute.

227. The Ablative Absolute is grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence. In its commonest form it consists of a noun or pronoun limited by a participle; as, —

urbe captā, Aenēās fūgit, when the city had been captured, Aeneas fled (lit. *the city having been captured*).

1. Instead of a participle we often find an adjective or noun; as, —

vivō Caesare rēs pūblica salva erat, while Caesar was alive the state was safe (lit. *Caesar being alive*);

Tarquiniō rēge, Pŷthagorās in Italiam vēnit, in the reign of Tarquin Pythagoras came into Italy (lit. *Tarquin being king*).

Cn. Pompejō, M. Crassō cōsulibus, in the consulship of Gnaeus Pompey and Marcus Crassus (lit. *P. and C. being consuls*).

2. The Ablative Absolute is generally used in Latin where in English we employ subordinate clauses. Thus the Ablative Absolute may correspond to a clause denoting —

a) Time, as in the foregoing examples.

b) Condition; as, —

omnēs virtūtēs jacent, voluptāte dominante, all virtues lie prostrate, if pleasure is master.

c) Opposition; as, —

perditīs omnibus rēbus, virtūs sē sustentāre potest, though everything else is lost, yet Virtue can maintain herself.

d) Cause; as, —

nūllō adversante rēgnū obtinuit, since no one opposed him, he secured the throne.

e) Attendant circumstance; as, —

passīs palmīs pācem petivērunt, with hands outstretched they sued for peace.

3. An Infinitive or clause sometimes occurs in the Ablative Absolute construction, especially in Livy and later writers; as, —

audītō eum fūgisse, when it was heard that he had fled.

4. A noun or pronoun stands in the Ablative Absolute construction only when it denotes a different person or thing from any in the clause in which it stands. Exceptions to this principle are extremely rare.

LOCATIVE USES OF THE ABLATIVE.

Ablative of Place.

A. Place where.

228. The place where is regularly denoted by the *Ablative with a preposition*; as, —

in urbe habitat, he dwells in the city.

1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; *viz.* —

- a) Names of towns, — except Singulars of the First and Second Declensions (see § 232. 1); as, —

Carthāginī, at Carthage;

Athēnīs, at Athens;

Vejīs, at Veii.

- b) The general words *locō, locīs, parte*, also many words modified by *tōtus* or even by other Adjectives; as, —

hōc locō, at this place;

tōtīs castrīs, in the whole camp.

- c) The special words: *forīs, out of doors; rūrī, in the country; terrā marīque, on land and sea.*

- d) The poets freely omit the preposition with any word denoting place; as, —

stant lītore puppēs, the sterns rest on the beach.

B. Place from which.¹

229. Place from which is regularly denoted by the *Ablative with a preposition*; as, —

ab Italiā profectus est, he set out from Italy;

ex urbe rediit, he returned from the city.

1. But certain words stand in the Ablative without a preposition; *viz.* —

- a) Names of towns and small islands; as, —

Rōmā profectus est, he set out from Rome,

Rhodō revertit, he returned from Rhodes.

¹ Place from which, though strictly a Genuine Ablative use, is treated here for sake of convenience.

b) *domō*, from home; *rūre*, from the country.

c) Freely in poetry; as, —

Italiā dēcessit, he withdrew from Italy.

2. With names of towns, *ab* is used to mean *from the vicinity of*, or to denote the point *whence distance is measured*; as, —

ā Gergoviā discessit, he withdrew from the vicinity of Gergovia.

ā Rōmā X mīlia aberat, he was ten miles distant from Rome.

Urbe and *oppidō*, when standing in apposition with a town name, are accompanied by a preposition; as, —

Curibus ex oppidō Sabīnōrum, from Cures, a town of the Sabines.

Ablative of Time.

A. Time at which.

230. The Ablative is used to denote the time *at which*; as, —

quārtā hōrā mortuus est, he died at the fourth hour;

annō septuāgēsīmō cōnsul creātus, elected consul in his seventieth year.

1. Any word denoting a period of time may stand in this construction, particularly *annus*, *vēr*, *aestās*, *hiems*, *diēs*, *nox*, *hōra*, *comitia* (*Election Day*), *lūdī* (*the Games*), etc.

2. Words not denoting time require the preposition *in*, unless accompanied by a modifier. Thus:—

	<i>in pāce</i> , in peace;	<i>in bellō</i> , in war;
but	<i>secundō bellō Pūnicō</i> , in the second Punic War.	

3. Expressions like *in eō tempore*, *in summā senectūte*, take the preposition because they denote *situation* rather than *time*.

B. Time within which.

231. Time *within which* is denoted by the Ablative either *with* or *without a preposition*; as, —

stella Sātūrnī trīgintā annīs cursum cōnficit, the planet Saturn completes its orbit within thirty years;

ter in annō, thrice in the course of the year.

1. Occasionally the Ablative denotes *duration of time*; as, —

bienniō prōsperas rēs habuit, for two years he had a prosperous administration.

THE LOCATIVE.

232. The Locative case occurs chiefly in the following words:—

1. Regularly in the Singular of names of towns and small islands of the first and second declensions, to denote the place *in which*; as,—

Rōmae, at Rome; Corinthī, at Corinth;
Rhodī, at Rhodes.

2. In the following special forms:—

domī, at home; humī, on the ground;
bellī, in war; mīlitiae, in war;
vesperī, at evening; herī, yesterday.

3. Note the phrase *pendēre animī*, lit. *to be in suspense in one's mind*.

4. For *urbs* and *oppidum* in apposition with a Locative, see § 169. 4.

CHAPTER III. — *Syntax of Adjectives.*

233. 1. The word with which an Adjective agrees is called its Subject.

2. **Attributive and Predicate Adjectives.** An Attributive Adjective is one that limits its subject directly; as,—

vir sapiēns, a wise man.

A Predicate Adjective is one that limits its subject through the medium of a verb (usually *esse*); as. —

vir est sapiēns, the man is wise;
vir vidēbātur sapiēns, the man seemed wise;
vir jūdicātus est sapiēns, the man was judged wise;
hunc virum sapientem jūdicāvimus, we adjudged this man wise.

3. Participles and Adjective Pronouns have the construction of Adjectives.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES.

234. Agreement with One Noun. When an Adjective limits one noun it agrees with it in Gender, Number, and Case.

1. Two Adjectives in the Singular may limit a noun in the Plural; as, *prīma et vīcēsima legiōnēs*, *the first and twentieth legions*.

2. A Predicate Adjective may stand in the Neuter when its Subject is Masculine or Feminine and denotes a thing; as, —

mors est miserum, *death is a wretched thing*.

235. Agreement with Two or More Nouns.

A. AGREEMENT AS TO NUMBER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in number with the nearest noun; as, —

pater tuus et māter, *your father and mother*;
eadem alacritās et studium, *the same eagerness and zeal*.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative, it is regularly Plural; as, —

pāx et concordia sunt pulchrae, *peace and concord are glorious*.

B. AGREEMENT AS TO GENDER.

1. When the Adjective is Attributive, it regularly agrees in gender with the nearest noun; as, —

rēs operae multae ac labōris, *a matter of much effort and labor*.

2. When the Adjective is Predicative —

a) If the nouns are of the same gender, the Adjective agrees with them in gender; as, —

pater et filius captī sunt, *father and son were captured*.

Yet with feminine abstract nouns, the Adjective is more frequently Neuter; as, —

stultitia et timiditās fugiendā sunt, *folly and cowardice must be shunned*.

b) If the nouns are of different gender; then, —

α) In case they denote persons, the Adjective is Masculine; as, —

pater et māter mortuī sunt, *the father and mother have died.*

β) In case they denote things, the Adjective is Neuter; as, —

honōrēs et victōriae fortuīta sunt, *honors and victories are accidental.*

γ) In case they include both persons and things, the Adjective is, —

αα) Sometimes Masculine; as, —

domus, uxor, liberī inventī sunt, *home, wife, and children are secured.*

ββ) Sometimes Neuter; as, —

parentēs, liberōs, domōs vīlia habēre, *to hold parents, children, houses, cheap.*

γγ) Sometimes it agrees with the nearest noun; as, —

populī prōvinciaeque liberātae sunt, *nations and provinces were liberated.*

c) Construction according to Sense. Sometimes an Adjective does not agree with a noun according to strict grammatical form, but according to sense; as, —

pars bēstiīs objectī sunt, *part (of the men) were thrown to beasts.*

ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY.

236. I. PLURAL ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY. Adjectives are quite freely used as Substantives in the Plural. The Masculine denotes persons; the Neuter denotes things; as, —

doctī, *scholars;*

malī, *the wicked;*

Graecī, *the Greeks;*

parva, *small things;*

magna, *great things;*

ūtilia, *useful things;*

nostrī, *our men.*

2. Neuter Plural Adjectives thus used are confined mainly to the Nominative and Accusative cases. Such forms as *magnōrum*, *omnium*; *magnīs*, *omnibus*, would ordinarily lead to ambiguity; yet where there is no ambiguity, they sometimes occur; as, —

parva compōnere magnīs, to compare small things with great.

Otherwise the Latin says: *magnārum rērum*, *magnīs rēbus*, etc.

237. SINGULAR ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY. Adjectives are less freely used as Substantives in the Singular than in the Plural.

1. Masculine Adjectives occur only occasionally in this use; as, —
probus invidet nēminī, the honest man envies nobody.

a. Usually *vir*, *homō*, or some similar word is employed; as, —
homō doctus, a scholar;
vir Rōmānus, a Roman.

b. But when limited by a pronoun any adjective may be so used; as, —
hic doctus, this scholar;
doctus quīdam, a certain scholar.

2. Neuters are likewise infrequent; as, —
vērū, truth;
iūstū, justice;
honestū, virtue.

a. This substantive use of Neuter Singulars is commonest in the construction of the Genitive of the Whole, and after Prepositions; as, —
aliquid vērī, something true;
nihil novī, nothing new;
in mediō, in the midst.

238. From Adjectives which, like the above, occasionally admit the substantive use, must be carefully distinguished certain others which have become nouns; as, —

<i>adversārius</i> , opponent;	<i>hīberna</i> , winter quarters;
<i>aequālis</i> , contemporary;	<i>propinquus</i> , relative;
<i>amīcus</i> , friend;	<i>socius</i> , partner;
<i>cognātus</i> , kinsman;	<i>sodālis</i> , comrade;
<i>vīcīnus</i> , neighbor; etc.	

ADJECTIVES WITH THE FORCE OF ADVERBS.

239. The Latin often uses an Adjective where the English idiom employs an Adverb or an adverbial phrase; as, —
senātus frequēns convēnit, the senate assembled in great numbers;
fuit assiduus mēcum, he was constantly with me.

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES.

240. 1. The Comparative often corresponds to the English Positive with 'rather,' 'somewhat,' 'too'; as, —

senectūs est loquācior, old age is rather talkative.

2. So the Superlative often corresponds to the Positive with 'very'; as, —

vir fortissimus, a very brave man.

3. Strengthening Words. *Vel* and *quam* are often used with the Superlative as strengthening particles, *vel* with the force of 'very,' and *quam* with the force of 'as possible'; as, —

vel maximus, the very greatest;

quam maximae cōpiae, as great forces as possible.

4. Phrases of the type 'more rich than brave' regularly take the Comparative in both members; as, —

exercitus erat dītiōr quam fortior, the army was more rich than brave.

OTHER PECULIARITIES.

241. 1. Certain Adjectives may be used to denote a part of an object, chiefly *prīmus*, *extrēmus*, *summus*, *medius*, *īnīmus*, *īmus*; as, —

summus mōns, the top of the mountain;

extrēmā hieme, in the last part of the winter.

2. *Prior*, *prīmus*, *ultimus*, and *postrēmus* are frequently equivalent to a relative clause; as, —

prīmus eam vīdī, I was the first who saw her;

ultimus dēcessit, he was the last who withdrew.

3. When *multus* and another adjective both limit the same noun, *et* is generally used; as, —

multae et magnae cōgitātiōnēs, many (and) great thoughts.

CHAPTER IV. — Syntax of Pronouns.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

242. 1. The Personal Pronouns as subjects of verbs are, as a rule, not expressed except for the purpose of *emphasis, contrast, or clearness*. Thus ordinarily : —

videō, I see ; amat, he loves.

But *ego tē videō, et tū mē vidēs, I see you, and you see me.*

2. The Genitives *meī, tuī, nostrī, vestrī* are used only as Objective Genitives; *nostrum* and *vestrum* as Genitives of the Whole. Thus : —

*memor tuī, mindful of you ;
dēsīderium vestrī, longing for you ;
nēmō vestrum, no one of you.*

a. But *nostrum* and *vestrum* are regularly used in place of the Possessive in the phrases *omnium nostrum, omnium vestrum*.

3. The First Plural is often used for the First Singular of Pronouns and Verbs. Compare the Eng. editorial 'we.'

4. When two Verbs govern the same object, the Latin does not use a pronoun with the second, as is the rule in English. Thus : —

virtūs amīcitiās conciliat et cōservat, virtue establishes friendships and maintains them (not eās cōservat).

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS.

243. 1. The Possessive Pronouns, as a rule, are not employed except for the purpose of *clearness*. Thus : —

*patrem amō, I love my father ;
dē filiī morte flēbās, you wept for the death of your son.*

But —

dē morte filiī meī flēbās, you wept for the death of my son.

a. When expressed merely for the sake of clearness, the possessive usually stands after its noun; but in order to indicate emphasis or contrast, it precedes; as, —

*suā manū liberōs occīdit, with his own hand he slew his children ;
meā quidem sententiā, in my opinion at least.*

2. Sometimes the Possessive Pronouns are used with the force of an Objective Genitive; as, —

metus vester, fear of you;
dēsīderium tuum, longing for you.

3. For special emphasis, the Latin employs *ipsīus* or *ipsōrum*, in apposition with the Genitive idea implied in the Possessive; as, —

meā ipsīus operā, by my own help;
nostrā ipsōrum operā, by our own help;

a. So sometimes other Genitives; as, —

meā ūnīus operā, by the assistance of me alone.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS.

244. I. The Reflexive Pronoun *sē* and the Possessive Reflexive *suus* have a double use:—

I. They may refer to the subject of the clause (either principal or subordinate) in which they stand, — ‘Direct Reflexives’; as, —

sē amant, they love themselves;
suos amīcōs adjuvat, he helps his own friends;
eum ōrāvī, ut sē servāret, I besought him to save himself.

II. They may stand in a subordinate clause and refer to the subject of the principal clause, — ‘Indirect Reflexives’; as, —

mē ōrāvit ut sē dēfenderem, he besought me to defend him (lit. that I defend himself);
mē ōrāvērunt, ut fortunārum suārum dēfēnsiōnem susciperem,
they besought me to undertake the defense of their fortunes.

a. The Indirect Reflexive is mainly restricted to those clauses which express the thought, not of the author, but of the subject of the principal clause.

2. The Genitive *suī* is regularly employed, like *meī* and *tuī*, as an Objective Genitive, e.g. *oblītus suī, forgetful of himself*; but it occasionally occurs — particularly in post-Augustan writers — in place of the Possessive *suus*; as, *fruitur fāmā suī, he enjoys his own fame.*

3. *Sē* and *suus* are sometimes used in the sense, *one’s self, one’s own*, where the reference is not to any particular person; as, —

sē amāre, to love one’s self;
suum genium propitiāre, to propitiate one’s own genius.

4. **Suus** sometimes occurs in the meaning *his own, their own, etc.*, referring not to the subject but to an oblique case; as, —

Hannibalem suū cīvēs ē cīvitāte ējēcērunt, *his own fellow-citizens drove out Hannibal.*

a. This usage is particularly frequent in combination with **quisque**; as, —

suus quemque error vexat, *his own error troubles each.*

5. The Reflexives for the first and second persons are supplied by the oblique cases of **ego** and **tū** (§ 85); as, —

vōs dēfenditis, *you defend yourselves.*

RECIPROCAL PRONOUNS.

245. 1. The Latin has no special reciprocal pronoun ('each other'), but expresses the reciprocal notion by the phrases: **inter**, **nōs**, **inter vōs**, **inter sē**; as, —

Belgae obsidēs inter sē dedērunt, *the Belgae gave each other hostages* (lit. *among themselves*);

amāmus inter nōs, *we love each other*;

Gallī inter sē cohortātī sunt, *the Gauls exhorted each other.*

a. Note that the Object is not expressed in sentences of this type.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

Hīc, **Ille**, **Iste**.

246. 1. Where **hīc** and **ille** are used in contrast, **hīc** usually refers to the latter of two objects, and **ille** to the former.

2. **Hīc** and **ille** are often used in the sense of 'the following'; as, —
Themistoclēs hīs verbīs epistulam mīsīt, *Themistocles sent a letter (couched) in the following words*;

illud intellegō, omnium ōra in mē conversa esse, *I understand this, that the faces of all are turned toward me.*

3. **Ille** often means *the famous*; as, **Solōn ille**, *the famous Solon.*

4. **Iste** frequently involves contempt; as, **iste homō**, *that fellow!*

5. The above pronouns, along with **is**, are usually attracted to the gender of a predicate noun; as, **hīc est honor, meminisse officium suum**, *this is an honor, to be mindful of one's duty.*

Is.

247. 1. **Is** often serves as the antecedent of the relative **quī**.
Thus:—

Maximum, eum quī Tarentum recēpit, dīlēxī, I loved Maximus, the man who retook Tarentum.

- a. Closely akin to this usage is **is** in the sense of *such* (= *tālis*); as, —

nōn sum is quī terrear, I am not such a person as to be frightened.

- b. Note the phrase **id quod**, where **id** stands in apposition with an entire clause; as, —

nōn suspiciābātur (id quod nunc sentiet) satis multōs testēs nōbīs reliquōs esse, he did not suspect (a thing which he will now perceive) that we had witnesses enough left.

Yet **quod** alone, without preceding **id**, sometimes occurs in this use.

2. **Is** also in all cases serves as the personal pronoun of the third person, 'he,' 'she,' 'it,' 'they,' 'them.'

3. When the English uses 'that of,' 'those of,' to avoid repetition of the noun, the Latin omits the pronoun; as, —

in exercitū Sullae et postea in Crassī fuerat, he had been in the army of Sulla and afterward in that of Crassus;

nūllae mē fābulae dēlectant nisi Plautī, no plays delight me except those of Plautus.

4. Note the phrases **et is, et ea, etc.**, in the sense: *and that too*; as, —
vincula, et ea sempiterna, imprisonment, and that too permanently.

Idem.

248. 1. **Idem** in apposition with the subject or object often has the force of *also, likewise*; as, —

quod idem mihi contigit, which likewise happened to me (lit. which, the same thing);

bonus vir, quem eundem sapientem appellāmus, a good man, whom we call also wise.

2. For **idem atque (ac)**, *the same as*, see § 341. I. c.

Iipse.

249. 1. **Iipse**, literally *self*, acquires its special force from the context; as, —

eō ipsō diē, *on that very day*;

ad ipsam rīpam, *close to the bank*;

ipsō terrōre, *by mere fright*;

valvae sē ipsae aperuērunt, *the doors opened of their own accord*;

ipse aderat, *he was present in person*.

2. The reflexive pronouns are often emphasized by the addition of **ipse**, but **ipse** in such cases, instead of standing in apposition with the reflexive, more commonly agrees with the subject; as, —

sēcum ipsī loquuntur, *they talk with themselves*;

sē ipse continēre nōn potest, *he cannot contain himself*.

3. **Iipse** is also used as an Indirect Reflexive for the purpose of marking a contrast or avoiding an ambiguity; as, —

Persae pertimuērunt nē Alcibiadēs ab ipsīs dēscīsceret et cum suis in grātiām redīret, *the Persians feared that Alcibiades would break with them and become reconciled with his countrymen*.

ea molestissimē ferre dēbent hominēs quae ipsōrum culpā contrācta sunt, *men ought to chafe most over those things which have been brought about by their own fault* (as opposed to the fault of others).

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

250. Agreement. 1. The Relative Pronoun agrees with its antecedent in Gender, Number, and Person, but its case is determined by its construction in the clause in which it stands; as, —

mulier quam vidēbāmus, *the woman whom we saw*;

bona quibus fruimur, *the blessings which we enjoy*.

2. Where the antecedent is compound, the same principles for number and gender prevail as in case of predicate adjectives under similar conditions (see § 235. B. 2). Thus: —

pater et fīlius, quī captī sunt, *the father and son who were captured*;
stultitia et timiditās quae fugiendā sunt, *folly and cowardice which must be shunned*;

honōrēs et victōriae quae sunt fortuīta, *honors and victories which are accidental*.

3. The Relative regularly agrees with a predicate noun (either Nominative or Accusative) instead of its antecedent; as, —

carcer, quae lautumiae vocantur, *the prison, which is called Lautumiae*;

Celtae, quae est tertia pars, *the Celts, who are the third part*.

4. Sometimes the Relative takes its gender and number from the meaning of its antecedent; as, —

pars quī bēstiīs objectī sunt, *a part (of the men) who were thrown to beasts*.

5. Occasionally the Relative is attracted into the case of its antecedent; as, —

nātus eō patre quō dīxī, *born of the father that I said*.

251. Antecedent. 1. The antecedent of the Relative is sometimes omitted; as, —

quī nātūram sequitur sapiēns est, *he who follows Nature is wise*.

2. The antecedent may be implied in a possessive pronoun (or rarely an adjective); as, —

nostra quī remānsimus caedēs, *the slaughter of us who remained*;
servīlī tumultū, quōs ūsus ac disciplīna sublevārunt, *at the up-
 rising of the slaves, whom experience and discipline assisted*
 (servīlī = servōrum).

3. Sometimes the antecedent is repeated with the Relative; as, —
erant itinera duo, quibus itineribus, *there were two routes, by which*
(routes).

4. **Incorporation of Antecedent in Relative Clause.** The antecedent is often incorporated in the relative clause. Thus:—

a) When the relative clause stands first; as, —

quam quisque nōvit artem in hāc sē exerceat, *let each*
one practice the branch which he knows.

b) When the antecedent is an appositive; as, —

nōn longē ā Tolōsātium fīnibus absunt, quae cīvitās
est in prōvinciā, *they are not far from the borders of*
the Tolosates, a state which is in our province.

c) When the logical antecedent is a superlative; as, —

Themistoclēs dē servīs suis, quem habuit fidēlissimum,
mīsit, *Themistocles sent the most trusty slave he had*.

d) In expressions of the following type —

quā es prūdentiā; quae tua est prūdentiā, *such is your prudence* (lit. *of which prudence you are; which is your prudence*).

5. The Relative is never omitted in Latin as it is in English. Thus *the boy I saw* must be *puer quem vidī*.

6. The Relative is used freely in Latin, particularly at the beginning of a sentence, where in English we employ a demonstrative; as, —

quō factum est, *by this it happened;*

quae cum ita sint, *since this is so;*

quibus rēbus cognitīs, *when these things became known.*

7. The Relative introducing a subordinate clause may belong grammatically to a clause which is subordinate to the one it introduces; as, —

numquam dignē satis laudārī philosophia poterit, cui quī pāreat, omne tempus aetātis sine molestiā possit dēgere, *philosophy can never be praised enough, since he who obeys her can pass every period of life without annoyance* (lit. *he who obeys which, etc.*).

Here *cui* introduces the subordinate clause *possit* and connects it with *philosophia*; but *cui* is governed by *pāreat*, which is subordinate to *possit*.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

252. 1. *Quis*, *any one*, is the weakest of the Indefinites, and stands usually in combination with *sī*, *nisi*, *nē*, *num*; as, —

sī quis putat, if any one thinks.

2. *Aliquis* (adj. *aliquī*) is more definite than *quis*, and corresponds usually to the English *some one*, *somebody*, *some*; as, —

nunc aliquis dīcat mihi, now let somebody tell me;

utinam modo agātur aliquid, oh that something may be done.

3. *Quīdam*, *a certain one*, is still more definite than *aliquis*; as, —
homō quīdam, a certain man (i.e. *one whom I have in mind*).

a. *Quīdam* (with or without *quasi*, *as if*) is sometimes used in the sense: *a sort of, kind of*; as, —

quaedam cognātiō, a sort of relationship;

mors est quasi quaedam migrātiō, death is a kind of transfer, as it were.

4. **Quisquam**, *any one, any one whoever* (more general than **quis**), and its corresponding adjective **ūllus**, *any*, occur mostly in negative and conditional sentences, in interrogative sentences implying a negative, and in clauses of comparison; as, —

jūstitia numquam nocet cuiquam, *justice never harms anybody*;
sī quisquam, Catō sapiēns fuit, *if anybody was ever wise, Cato was*;
potestne quisquam sine perturbātiōe animī irāscī, *can anybody be angry without excitement?*

sī ūllō modō fierī potest, *if it can be done in any way*;
taetrior hīc tyrannus fuit quam quisquam superiōrum, *he was a viler tyrant than any of his predecessors.*

5. **Quisque**, *each one*, is used especially under the following circumstances: —

a) In connection with **suus**. See § 244. 4. a.

b) In connection with a Relative or Interrogative Pronoun; as, —

quod cuique obigit, id teneat, *what falls to each, that let him hold.*

c) In connection with superlatives; as, —

optimus quisque, *all the best* (lit. *each best one*).

d) With ordinal numerals; as, —

quīntō quōque annō, *every four years* (lit. *each fifth year*).

6. **Nēmō**, *no one*, in addition to its other uses, stands regularly with adjectives used substantively; as, —

nēmō mortālis, *no mortal*;

nēmō Rōmānus, *no Roman.*

PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES.

253. 1. **Alius**, *another*, and **alter**, *the other*, are often used correlatively; as, —

aliud loquitur, aliud sentit, *he says one thing, he thinks another*;

aliī resistunt, aliī fugiunt, *some resist, others flee*;

alter exercitum perdidit, alter vēdidit, *one ruined the army, the other sold it*;

alterī sē in montem recēpērunt, alterī ad impedīmenta sē contulērunt, *the one party retreated to the mountain, the others betook themselves to the baggage.*

2. Where the English says *one does one thing, another another*, the Latin uses a more condensed form of statement; as, —

alius aliud amat, one likes one thing, another another;
aliud aliis placet, one thing pleases some, another others.

a. So sometimes with adverbs; as, —

alii alio fugiunt, some flee in one direction, others in another.

3. The Latin also expresses the notion ‘each other’ by means of *alius* repeated; as, —

Galli alius alium cohortati sunt, the Gauls encouraged each other.

4. *Ceteri* means *the rest, all the others*; as, —

ceteris praestare, to be superior to all the others.

5. *Reliqui* means *the others* in the sense of *the rest, those remaining*, — hence is the regular word with numerals; as, —

reliqui sex, the six others.

6. *Nescio quis* forms a compound indefinite pronoun with the force of *some one or other*; as, —

causidicus nescio quis, some pettifogger or other;
misit nescio quem, he sent some one or other;
nescio quō pacto, somehow or other.



CHAPTER V. — Syntax of Verbs.

AGREEMENT.

With One Subject.

254. 1. Agreement in Number and Person. A Finite Verb agrees with its subject in Number and Person; as, —

vos videtis, you see;
pater filios instituit, the father trains his sons.

2. Agreement in Gender. In the compound forms of the verb the participle regularly agrees with its subject in gender; as, —

seditio repressa est, the mutiny was checked.

3. But when a predicate noun is of different gender or number from its subject, the verb usually agrees with its nearest substantive; as, —
Tarquinii māterna patria erat, *Tarquinii was his native country on his mother's side*;
nōn omnis error stultitia est dīcenda, *not every error is to be called folly*.

a. Less frequently the verb agrees with an appositive; as, —
Corioli, oppidum Volscōrum, captum est, *Corioli, a town of the Volsci, was captured*.

4. **Construction according to Sense.** Sometimes the verb agrees with its subject according to sense instead of strict grammatical form. Thus:—

- a) In Number; as, —
multitūdō hominum convēnerant, *a crowd of men had gathered*.
 b) In Gender; as, —
duo mīlia crucibus adfixi sunt, *two thousand (men) were crucified*.

With Two or More Subjects.

255. 1. Agreement in Number. With two or more subjects the verb is regularly plural; as, —

pater et filius mortui sunt, *the father and son died*.

2. But sometimes the verb agrees with the nearest subject; viz., —

- a) When the verb precedes both subjects or stands between them; as, —

mortuus est pater et filius;
pater mortuus est et filius.

- b) When the subjects are connected by **aut**; **aut . . . aut**;
vel . . . vel; **neque . . . neque**; as, —

neque pater neque filius mortuus est, *neither father nor son died*.

3. When the different subjects are felt together as constituting a whole, the singular is used; as, —

temeritās ignōrātiōque vitiōsa est, *rashness and ignorance are bad*.

- a. This is regularly the case in **senātus populusque Rōmānus**.

4. **Agreement in Person.** With compound subjects of different persons the verb always takes the *first* person rather than the *second*, and the *second* rather than the *third*; as, —

sī tū et Tullia valētis, ego et Cicerō valēmus, if you and Tullia are well, Cicero and I are well.

5. **Agreement in Gender.** With subjects of different genders the participle in the compound tenses follows the same principles as laid down for predicate adjectives. See § 235, B, 2.

VOICES.

256. 1. The Passive Voice sometimes retains traces of its original middle or reflexive meaning; as, —

ego nōn patiar eum dēfendī, I shall not allow him to defend himself.

2. In imitation of Greek usage many perfect passive participles are used by the poets as indirect middles, *i.e.* the subject is viewed as acting not upon himself, but as doing something *in his own interest*; as, —

vēlātus tempora, having veiled his temples.

a. Occasionally finite forms of the verb are thus used; as, —
tunicā indūcitur artūs, he covers his limbs with a tunic.

3. Intransitive Verbs may be used impersonally in the passive; as, —
curritur, people run (lit. it is run);
ventum est, he (they, etc.) came (lit. it was come).

TENSES.

TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE.

257. 1. The Latin tenses express two distinct notions: —

- a)* The *period of time* to which the action belongs: Present, Past, or Future.
- b)* The *kind of action*: Undefined, Going on, or Completed.

The Latin with its six tenses is able to express each of the three kinds of action for each of the three periods of time (making practically nine

tenses). It does this by employing certain tenses in more than one way, as may be seen by the following table:—

PERIOD OF TIME.				
		PRESENT.	PAST.	FUTURE.
KIND OF ACTION.	UNDEFINED.	Present: scribō, I write.	Historical Perfect: scripsī, I wrote.	Future: scribam, I shall write.
	GOING ON.	Present: scribō, I am writing.	Imperfect: scribēbam, I was writing.	Future: scribam, I shall be writing.
	COMPLETED.	Present Perfect: scripsī, I have written.	Pluperfect: scripseram, I had written.	Future Perfect: scripserō, I shall have written.

2. It will be seen that the Present may express Undefined action or action Going on; so also the Future. The Perfect likewise has a double use, according as it denotes action Completed in present time (Present Perfect) or Undefined action belonging to past time (Historical Perfect).

Principal and Historical Tenses.

258. Tenses which denote Present or Future time are called **Principal** (or Primary) Tenses; those which denote Past time are called **Historical** (or Secondary).

The Principal Tenses of the Indicative are: Present, Future, Present Perfect, Future Perfect.

The Historical Tenses are: Imperfect, Historical Perfect, Pluperfect.

Present Indicative.

259. Besides the two uses indicated in the table, the Present Indicative presents the following peculiarities:—

1. It is used to denote *a general truth, i.e.* something true not merely in the present but at all times ('Gnomic Present'); as,—

virtūs conciliat amicitias et cōservat, virtue establishes ties of friendship and maintains them (i.e. always does so).

2. It is used of an attempted action ('Conative Present'); as, —
dum vītant vitia, in contrāria currunt, *while they try to avoid*
(vītant) vices, they rush into opposite ones.

3. In lively narration the Present is often used of a past action ('Historical Present'); as, —

Caesar Haeduīs obsidēs imperat, *Caesar demanded hostages of the*
Haedui (lit. demands).

4. In combination with **jam, jam diū, jam pridem**, and similar words, the Present is frequently used of an action originating in the past and continuing in the present; as, —

jam diū cupiō tē vīsere, *I have long been desiring to visit you (i.e. I desire and have long desired).*

Imperfect Indicative.

260. 1. The Imperfect primarily denotes action *going on in past time*; as, —

librum legēbam, *I was reading a book.*

a. This force makes the Imperfect especially adapted to serve as the tense of *description* (as opposed to mere *narration*).

2. From the notion of action *going on*, there easily develops the notion of *repeated* or *customary* action; as, —

lēgātōs interrogābat, *he kept asking the envoys*;

puer C. Duīlium vidēbam, *as a boy I often used to see Gaius Duilius.*

3. The Imperfect often denotes an attempted action ('Conative Imperfect') or an action as beginning ('Inceptive Imperfect'); as, —

hostēs nostrōs intrā mūnitiōnēs prōgredi prohibēbant, *the enemy tried to prevent (prohibēbant) our men from advancing within the fortifications ('Conative');*

ad proelium sē expediēbant, *they were beginning to get ready for battle ('Inceptive').*

4. The Imperfect, with **jam, jam diū, jam dūdum**, etc., is sometimes used of an action which had been continuing some time; as, —

domicilium Rōmae multōs jam annōs habēbat, *he had had his residence at Rome for many years (i.e. he had it at this time and had long had it).*

Future Indicative.

261. 1. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future than is the English. We say: '*If he comes, I shall be glad,*' where we really mean: '*If he shall come,*' etc. In such cases the Latin rarely admits the Present, but generally employs the Future.

2. Sometimes the Future has Imperative force; as, *dīcēs, say!*

Perfect Indicative.

262. A. PRESENT PERFECT. Several Present Perfects denote the state resulting from a completed act, and so seem equivalent to the Present; as, —

nōvī, cognōvī, I know (lit. *I have become acquainted with*);

cōnsuēvī, I am wont (lit. *I have become accustomed*).

B. HISTORICAL PERFECT. The Historical Perfect is the tense of narration (as opposed to the Imperfect, the tense of description); as, —

Rēgulus in senātum vēnit, mandāta exposuit, reddī captīvōs negāvit esse ūtile, Regulus came into the Senate, set forth his commission, said it was useless for captives to be returned.

1. Occasionally the Historical Perfect is used of a general truth ('Gnomic Perfect').

Pluperfect Indicative.

263. The Latin Pluperfect, like the English Past Perfect, denotes an act *completed in the past*; as, —

Caesar Rhēnum trānsire dēcrēverat, sed nāvēs deerant, Caesar had decided to cross the Rhine, but had no boats.

a. In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (§ 262, A), the Pluperfect has the force of an Imperfect; as, —
nōveram, I knew.

Future Perfect Indicative.

264. The Future Perfect denotes an action *completed in future time*. Thus: —

scribam epistolam, cum redieris, I will write the letter when you have returned (lit. *when you shall have returned*).

a. The Latin is much more exact in the use of the Future Perfect than the English, which commonly employs the Present Perfect instead of the Future Perfect.

b. In those verbs whose Perfect has Present force (§ 262, A) the Future Perfect has the force of a Future; as, —
nōverō, I shall know.

Epistolary Tenses.

265. In letters the writer often uses tenses which are not appropriate at the time of writing, but which will be so at the time when his letter is received; he thus employs the Imperfect and the Perfect for the Present, and the Pluperfect for the Present Perfect; as, —

nihil habēbam quod scriberem, neque enim novī quidquam audieram et ad tuās omnēs epistulās jam rescripseram, I have nothing to write, for I have heard no news and have already answered all your letters.

TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

266. A. In Independent Sentences. See §§ 272–280.

B. In Dependent Sentences. In dependent sentences the tenses of the subjunctive usually conform to the so-called

Sequence of Tenses.

267. 1. In the Subjunctive the Present and Perfect are Principal tenses, the Imperfect and Pluperfect, Historical.

2. By the Sequence of Tenses Principal tenses are followed by Principal, Historical by Historical. Thus: —

PRINCIPAL SEQUENCE, —

videō quid faciās, I see what you are doing.

vidēbō quid faciās, I shall see what you are doing.

vīderō quid faciās, I shall have seen what you are doing.

videō quid fēcerīs, I see what you have done.

vidēbō quid fēcerīs, I shall see what you have done.

vīderō quid fēcerīs, I shall have seen what you have done.

HISTORICAL SEQUENCE, —

vidēbam quid facerēs, I saw what you were doing.

vidī quid facerēs, I saw what you were doing.

vīderam quid facerēs, I had seen what you were doing.

vidēbām quid fēcissēs, I saw what you had done.

vidī quid fēcissēs, I saw what you had done.

vīderam quid fēcissēs, I had seen what you had done.

3. The Present and Imperfect Subjunctive denote incomplete action, the Perfect and Pluperfect completed action, exactly as in the Indicative.

Peculiarities of Sequence.

268. 1. The Perfect Indicative is usually an historical tense (even when translated in English as a Present Perfect), and so is followed by the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive; as, —

dēmōnstrāvī quārē ad causam accēderem, *I have shown why I took the case* (lit. *I showed why, etc.*).

2. A dependent Perfect Infinitive is treated as an historical tense wherever, if resolved into an equivalent Indicative, it would be historical; as, —

videor ostendisse quālēs deī essent, *I seem to have shown of what nature the gods are* (*ostendisse* here corresponds to an Indicative, *ostendī, I showed*).

3. The Historical Present is sometimes regarded as a principal tense, sometimes as historical. Thus: —

Sulla suōs hortātur ut fortī animō sint, *Sulla exhorts his soldiers to be stout-hearted*;

Gallōs hortātur ut arma caperent, *he exhorted the Gauls to take arms*.

4. Conditional sentences of the 'contrary-to-fact' type are not affected by the principles for the Sequence of Tenses; as, —

honestum tāle est ut vel sī ignōrārent id hominēs suā tamen pulchritūdine laudābile esset, *virtue is such a thing that even if men were ignorant of it, it would still be worthy of praise for its own loveliness*.

5. In conditional sentences of the 'contrary-to-fact' type the Imperfect Subjunctive is usually treated as an Historical tense; as, —

sī sōlōs eōs dīcerēs miserōs, quibus moriendū esset, nēminem tū quidem eōrum quī vīverēt exciperēs, *if you called only those wretched who must die, you would except no one of those who live*.

6. In clauses of Result and some others, the Perfect Subjunctive is sometimes used as an historical tense. Thus: —

rēx tantum mōtus est, ut Tissaphernem hostem jūdicārit, *the king was so much moved that he adjudged Tissaphernes an enemy*.

This construction is rare in Cicero, but frequent in Nepos and subsequent historians. The Perfect Subjunctive in this use represents a

result simply as a fact without reference to the continuance of the act, and therefore corresponds to an Historical Perfect Indicative of direct statement. Thus, *jūdicārit* in the above example corresponds to a *jūdicāvit*, *he adjudged*. To denote a result as *something continuous*, all writers use the Imperfect Subjunctive after historical tenses.

7. Sometimes perspicuity demands that the ordinary principles of Sequence be abandoned altogether. Thus:—

- a) We may have the Present or Perfect Subjunctive after an historical tense; as,—

Verrēs Siciliam ita perdidit ut ea restitui nōn possit,
Verrēs so ruined Sicily that it cannot be restored
 (Direct statement; *nōn potest restitui*);

ardēbat Hortēnsius dīcendī cupiditāte sic, ut in nūllō
flagrantius studium vīderim, *Hortensius burned so*
with eagerness to speak that I have seen in no one a
greater desire (Direct statement: *in nūllō vīdī*, *I have*
seen in no one).

NOTE.—This usage is different from that cited under 6. Here, by neglect of Sequence, the Perfect is used though a principal tense; there the Perfect was used as an historical tense.

- b) We may have a principal tense followed by the Perfect Subjunctive used historically; as,—

nesciō quid causae fuerit cūr nūllās ad mē litterās
darēs, *I do not know what reason there was why you*
did not send me a letter.

Here *fuerit* is historical, as is shown by the following Imperfect Subjunctive.

Method of Expressing Future Time in the Subjunctive.

269. The Future and Future Perfect which are lacking to the Latin Subjunctive are supplied in subordinate clauses as follows:—

1. a) The Future is supplied by the Present after principal tenses, by the Imperfect after historical tenses.
- b) The Future Perfect is supplied by the Perfect after principal tenses, by the Pluperfect after historical tenses.

This is especially frequent when the context clearly shows, by the presence of a future tense in the main clause, that the reference is to future time. Thus:—

Gallī pollicentur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperet, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall order ;

Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs, quae Caesar imperāret, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should order ;

Gallī pollicentur sē factūrōs quae Caesar imperāverit, the Gauls promise they will do what Caesar shall have ordered ;

Gallī pollicēbantur sē factūrōs quae Caesar imperāvisset, the Gauls promised they would do what Caesar should have ordered.

2. Even where the context does not contain a Future tense in the main clause, Future time is often expressed in the subordinate clauses by the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive. Thus:—

timeō nē veniat, I am afraid he will come ;

Caesar exspectābat quid cōsiliī hostēs caperent, Caesar was waiting to see what plan the enemy would adopt.

3. Where greater definiteness is necessary the periphrastic forms in **-ūrus sim** and **-ūrus essem** are employed, especially in clauses of Result, Indirect Questions, and after **nōn dubitō quīn** ; as, —

nōn dubitō quīn pater ventūrus sit, I do not doubt that my father will come ;

nōn dubitābam quīn pater ventūrus esset, I did not doubt that my father would come.

4. Where the verb has no Future Active Participle, or where it stands in the passive voice, its Future character may be indicated by the use of the particles **mox, brevī, statim, etc.**, in connection with the Present and Imperfect Subjunctive ; as, —

nōn dubitō quīn tē mox hūjus rei paeniteat, I do not doubt that you will soon repent of this thing ;

nōn dubitābam quīn haec rēs brevī cōnficerētur, I did not doubt that this thing would soon be finished.

TENSES OF THE INFINITIVE.

270. 1. The tenses of the Infinitive denote time not absolutely, but *with reference to the verb on which they depend.* Thus:—

a) The Present Infinitive represents an act as *contemporaneous* with the time of the verb on which it depends ; as, —

vidētur honōrēs adsequī, he seems to be gaining honors ;

vidēbātur honōrēs adsequī, he seemed to be gaining honors.

- b) The Perfect Infinitive represents an act as *prior* to the time of the verb on which it depends; as, —

vidētur honōrēs adsecūtus esse, *he seems to have gained honors*;

vīsus est honōrēs adsecūtus esse, *he seemed to have gained honors*.

- c) The Future Infinitive represents an act as *subsequent* to that of the verb on which it depends; as, —

vidētur honōrēs adsecūtūrus esse, *he seems to be about to gain honors*;

vīsus est honōrēs adsecūtūrus esse, *he seemed to be about to gain honors*.

2. Where the English says ‘*ought to have done*,’ ‘*might have done*,’ *etc.*, the Latin uses **dēbuī**, **oportuit**, **potuī** (**dēbēbam**, **oportēbat**, **poteram**), with the Present Infinitive; as, —

dēbuit dīcere, *he ought to have said* (lit. *owed it to say*);

oportuit venīre, *he ought to have come*;

potuit vidēre, *he might have seen*.

- a. **Oportuit**, **volō**, **nōlō** (and in poetry some other verbs), may take a Perfect Infinitive instead of the Present; as, —

hōc jam pridem factum esse oportuit, *this ought long ago to have been done*.

3. PERIPHRASTIC FUTURE INFINITIVE. Verbs that have no Participial Stem express the Future Infinitive Active and Passive by **fore ut** or **futūrum esse ut**, with the Subjunctive; as, —

spērō fore ut tē paeniteat levitātis, *I hope you will repent of your fickleness* (lit. *hope it will happen that you repent*);

spērō futūrum esse ut hostēs arceantur, *I hope that the enemy will be kept off*.

- a. The Periphrastic Future Infinitive is often used, especially in the Passive, even in case of verbs which have the Participial Stem; as, —

spērō fore ut hostēs vincantur, *I hope the enemy will be conquered*.

4. Passives and Deponents sometimes form a Future Perfect Infinitive with **fore**; as, —

spērō epistolam scrīptam fore, *I hope the letter will have been written*;

putō mē omnia adeptum fore, *I think that I shall have gained everything*.

THE MOODS.

MOODS IN INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

The Indicative in Independent Sentences.

271. The Indicative is used for the *statement of facts, the supposition of facts, or inquiry after facts.*

1. Note the following idiomatic uses : —

a) With *possum*; as, —

possum multa dicere, I might say much;

poteram multa dicere, I might have said much (§ 270, 2).

b) In such expressions as *longum est, aequum est, melius est, difficile est, ūtilius est*, and some others; as, —

longum est ea dicere, it would be tedious to tell that;

difficile est omnia persequi, it would be difficult to enumerate everything.

The Subjunctive in Independent Sentences.

272. The Subjunctive is used in Independent Sentences to express something —

1. As willed — Volitive Subjunctive;

2. As desired — Optative Subjunctive;

3. Conceived of as possible — Potential Subjunctive.

VOLITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

273. The Volitive Subjunctive represents the action *as willed*. It always implies authority on the part of the speaker, and has the following varieties :—

A. HORTATORY SUBJUNCTIVE.

274. The Hortatory Subjunctive expresses *an exhortation*. This use is confined to the first person plural, of the Present. The negative is *nē*. Thus :—

eāmus, let us go;

amēmus patriam, let us love our country;

nē dēspērēmus, let us not despair.

B. JUSSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

275. The Jussive Subjunctive expresses a *command*. The Jussive stands regularly in the Present Tense, and is used —

1. Most frequently in the third singular and third plural; as, —
dīcat, let him tell;
dīcant, let them tell;
quārē sēcēdant improbī, wherefore let the wicked depart!
2. Less frequently in the second person, often with indefinite force; as, —
istō bonō ūtāre, use that advantage;
modestē vīvās, live temperately.

C. PROHIBITIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

276. The Subjunctive is used in the second and third persons singular and plural, with *nē*, to express a *prohibition*. Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning; as, —

nē repugnētis, do not resist!
tū vērō istam nē reliqueris, don't leave her!
impiī nē plācāre audeant deōs, let not the impious dare to appease the gods!

- a. Neither of these constructions is frequent in classical prose.
- b. A commoner method of expressing a prohibition in the second person is by the use of *nōlī* (*nōlīte*) with a following infinitive, or by *cavē* or *cavē nē* with the Subjunctive; as, —
nōlī hōc facere, don't do this (lit. be unwilling to do)!
nōlīte mentīrī, do not lie!
cavē ignōscās, cavē tē misereat, do not forgive, do not pity!
cavē nē haec faciās, do not do this (lit. take care lest you do)!

D. DELIBERATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

277. The Deliberative Subjunctive is used in *questions and exclamations implying doubt, indignation, the impossibility of an act, obligation, or propriety*. The Present is

used referring to present time, the Imperfect referring to past. The negative is *nōn*. Thus:—

quid faciam, what shall I do?

ego redeam, I go back!

huic cēdāmus! hūjus condiciōnēs audiāmus! are we to bow to him! are we to listen to his terms!

quid facerem, what was I to do?

hunc ego nōn dīligam, should I not cherish this man?

- a. These Deliberative Questions are usually purely Rhetorical in character, and do not expect an answer.

E. CONCESSIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

278. The Subjunctive is used to indicate something *as granted or conceded for the sake of argument*. The Present is used for present time, the Perfect regularly for past. The negative is *nē*. Thus:—

sit hōc vērūm, I grant that this is true (lit. let this be true);

nē sint in senectūte vīrēs, I grant there is not strength in old age.

fuerit malus cīvis aliīs; tibi quandō esse coepit, I grant that he was a bad citizen to others; when did he begin to be so toward you?

OPTATIVE SUBJUNCTIVE.

279. The Optative Subjunctive occurs in expressions of *wishing*. The negative is regularly *nē*.

1. The Present Tense, often accompanied by *utinam*, is used where the wish is conceived of *as possible*.

dī istaec prohibeant, may the gods prevent that!

falsus utinam vātēs sim, oh that I may be a false prophet!

nē veniant, may they not come!

2. The Imperfect expresses, in the form of a wish, the *regret that something is not so now*; the Pluperfect that *something was not so in the past*. The Imperfect and Pluperfect are regularly accompanied by *utinam*; as,—

utinam istud ex animō dīcerēs, would that you were saying that in earnest, (i.e. I regret that you are not saying it in earnest);

Pēlīdēs utinam vītāssset Apollinis arcūs, would that Achilles had escaped the bow of Apollo;

utinam nē nātus essem, would that I had not been born.

POTENTIAL SUBJUNCTIVE.

280. The Potential Subjunctive expresses *a possibility*. The negative is *nōn*. The following uses are to be noted:—

1. The 'May' Potential. — The Potential Subjunctive may designate *a mere possibility* (English auxiliary *may*). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:—

dīcat aliquis, some one may say;

dīxerit aliquis, some one may say.

a. This construction is by no means frequent, and is confined mainly to a few phrases like those given as examples.

2. 'Should'-'Would' Potential. — The Potential Subjunctive may represent something as *depending upon a condition expressed or understood* (English auxiliary *should, would*). Both Present and Perfect occur, and without appreciable difference of meaning. Thus:—

fortūnam citius reperiās quam retineās, one would more quickly find Fortune than keep it (i.e. if one should make the trial);
crēdiderim, I should believe.

a. Here belongs the use of *velim, mālim, nōlim*, as softened forms of statement for *volō, mālō, nōlō*. Thus:—

velim mihi ignōscās, I wish you would forgive me;

nōlim putēs mē jocārī, I don't want you to think I'm joking.

b. When the condition is expressed, we get one of the regular types of Conditional Sentences (see § 303); as,—

dīēs dēficiat, sī cōner ēnumerāre causās, time would fail if I should attempt to enumerate the reasons.

3. 'Can'-'Could' Potential. — In the Present and Imperfect the Potential occurs in the second person singular (with *indefinite force*; § 356, 3) of a few verbs of *perceiving, seeing, thinking*, and the like; as,—

videās, cernās, one can see, one can perceive;

crēderēs, one could believe;

vidērēs, cernerēs, one could see, perceive;

putārēs, one could imagine.

4. The Imperfect and Pluperfect in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of the contrary-to-fact type (see § 304) are also Potential in character. By omission of the Protasis, such an Apodosis sometimes stands alone, particularly *vellem, nōllem, māllem*; as,—

vellem id quidem, I should wish that (i.e. were I bold enough).

The Imperative.

281. The Imperative is used in *commands, admonitions, and entreaties* (negative *nē*); as, —

ēgredere ex urbe, depart from the city;
mihi ignōsce, pardon me;
valē, farewell.

1. The Present is the tense of the Imperative most commonly used, but the Future is employed —

- a) Where there is a distinct reference to future time, especially in the apodosis of conditional sentences; as, —

rem vōbīs prōpōnam; vōs eam penditōte, I will lay the matter before you; do you (then) consider it;
sī bene disputābit, tribuitō litterīs Graecīs, if he shall speak well, attribute it to Greek literature.

- b) In laws, treaties, wills, maxims, etc.; as, —

cōsulēs summum jūs habentō, the consuls shall have supreme power;
hominem mortuom in urbe nē sepelītō, no one shall bury a dead body in the city;
amīcitia rēgī Antiochō cum populō Rōmānō hīs lēgibus et condiōnibus estō, let there be friendship between Antiochus and the Roman people on the following terms and conditions;
quārtae estō partis Mārcus hērēs, let Marcus be heir to a fourth (of the property);
ignōscitō saepe alterī, numquam tibi, forgive your neighbor often, yourself never.

2. Except with the Future Imperative the negative is not used in classical prose. Prohibitions are regularly expressed in other ways. See § 276, *b*.

3. Questions in the Indicative introduced by *quīn* (*why not?*) are often equivalent to an Imperative or to the Hortatory Subjunctive; as, —

quīn abīs, go away! (lit. why don't you go away?);
quīn vōcem continētis, keep still! (lit. why don't you stop your voices?);
quīn equōs cōnscendimus, let us mount our horses (lit. why do we not mount our horses?).

MOODS IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES.

Clauses of Purpose.

282. 1. Clauses of Purpose are introduced most commonly by *ut* (*utī*), *quō* (*that, in order that*), *nē* (*in order that not, lest*), and stand in the Subjunctive; as, —

edimus, ut vivāmus, we eat that we may live;

adjūtā mē quō hōc fiat facilius, help me, in order that this may be done more easily;

portās clausit, nē quam oppidānī injūriam acciperent, he closed the gates, lest the townspeople should receive any injury.

- a. *Quō*, as a rule, is employed only when the purpose clause contains a comparative or a comparative idea. Occasional exceptions occur; as, —

haec faciunt quō Chremētem absterreant, they are doing this in order to frighten Chremes.

- b. *Ut nē* is sometimes found instead of *nē*. Thus: —

ut nē quid neglegenter agāmus, in order that we may not do anything carelessly.

- c. *Ut nōn* (not *nē*) is used where the negation belongs to some single word, instead of to the purpose clause as a whole. Thus: —

ut nōn ējectus ad aliēnōs, sed invitātus ad tuōs vidēāre, that you may seem not driven out among strangers, but invited to your own friends.

- d. To say ‘*and that not*’ or ‘*or that not*,’ the Latin regularly uses *nēve* (*neu*); as, —

ut eārum rērum vīs minuerētur, neu pontī nocērent, that the violence of these things might be lessened, and that they might not harm the bridge;

profūgit, nē caperētur nēve interficerētur, he fled, that he might not be captured or killed.

- e. But *neque* (for *nēve*) is sometimes used in a second Purpose Clause when *ut* stands in the first, and, after the Augustan era, even when the first clause is introduced by *nē*.

- f. Purpose Clauses sometimes stand in apposition with a preceding noun or pronoun; as, —

hāc causā, ut pācem habērent, on this account, that they might have peace.

2. A Relative Pronoun (*quī*) or Adverb (*ubi*, *unde*, *quō*) is frequently used to introduce a Purpose Clause; as, —

Helvētīī lēgātōs mittunt, quī dīcerent, the Helvetii sent envoys to say (lit. *who should say*);

haec habuī, dē senectūte quae dīcerem, I had these things to say about old age;

nōn habēbat quō fugeret, he had no place to which to flee (lit. *whither he might flee*).

a. *Quī* in such clauses is equivalent to *ut* is, *ut* ego, etc.; *ubi* to *ut ibi*; *unde* to *ut inde*; *quō* to *ut eō*.

3. Relative clauses of purpose follow *dignus*, *indignus*, and *idōneus*; as, —

idōneus fuit nēmō quem imitārēre, there was no one suitable for you to imitate (cf. *nēmō fuit quem imitārēre, there was no one for you to imitate*);

dignus est quī aliquandō imperet, he is worthy to rule sometime.

4. Purpose Clauses often depend upon something to be supplied from the context instead of upon the principal verb of their own sentences; as, —

ut haec omnia omittam, abiimus, to pass over all this, (I will say that) we departed.

Clauses of Characteristic.

283. 1. A relative clause used to express a quality or characteristic of a general or indefinite antecedent is called a Clause of Characteristic, and usually stands in the Subjunctive; as, —

multa sunt, quae mentem acuant, there are many things which sharpen the wits.

Clauses of Characteristic are opposed to those relative clauses which are used merely to state some fact about a definite antecedent, and which therefore take the Indicative; as, —

Catō, senex jūcundus, quī Sapiēns appellātus est, Cato, a delightful old man, who was called 'The Wise.'

The Clause of Characteristic implies 'a person of the sort that does something'; the Indicative relative clause implies 'a particular person who does something.'

2. Clauses of Characteristic are used especially after such expressions as, *est quī; sunt quī; nēmō est quī; nūllus est quī; ūnus est quī; sōlus est quī; quis est quī; is quī; etc.* Thus:—

sunt quī dīcant, there are (some) who say;

nēmō est quī putet, there is nobody who thinks;

sapientia est ūna quae maestitiam pellat, philosophy is the only thing that drives away sorrow;

quae cīvitās est quae nōn ēvertī possit, what state is there that cannot be overthrown?

nōn is sum quī improbōs laudem, I am not the sort of man that praises the wicked.

a. Sometimes (very rarely in Cicero and Caesar) the clause of characteristic is used after comparatives; as,—

nōn longius hostēs aberant quam quō tēlum adigī posset, the enemy were not too far off for a dart to reach them (lit. further off than [a point] to which a dart could be cast).

3. The Clause of Characteristic often conveys an accessory notion of cause (*since*) or opposition (*although*). Thus:—

a) Cause. The relative is then frequently accompanied by *ut quippe, utpote; as,—*

ō fortunāte adulēscēns, quī tuae virtūtis Homērum praecōnem invēnerīs, O fortunate man, since you have found a Homer as the herald of your valor;

ut quī optimō jūre eam prōvinciam obtinuerit, since he held that province by excellent right.

b) Opposition:—

egomet quī sērō Graecās litterās attigissem, tamen complūrēs diēs Athēnīs commorātus sum, I, although I had taken up Greek literature late in life, nevertheless tarried several days at Athens.

4. Clauses of Characteristic may also be introduced by *quīn = quī (quae, quod) nōn; as,—*

nēmō est quīn saepe audierit, there is no one who has not often heard;

nēmō fuit mīlitum quīn vulnerārētur, there was no one of the soldiers who was not wounded.

5. Related to Clauses of Characteristic are also phrases of the type: *quod sciam, so far as I know; quod audierim, so far as I have heard.*

Clauses of Result.

284. 1. Clauses of Result are usually introduced by *ut* (*that, so that*), negative *ut nōn* (*so that not*), and take the Subjunctive. The main clause often contains *tantus, tālis, tot, is* (= *tālis*), *tam, ita, sic, adeō*, or some similar word. Thus:—

quis tam dēmēns est ut suā voluntāte maereat, who is so senseless as to mourn of his own volition?

Siciliam ita vāstāvit ut restituī in antiquum statum nōn possit, he has so ravaged Sicily that it cannot be restored to its former condition;

mōns altissimus impendēbat, ut facile perpaucī prohibēre possent, a very high mountain overhung, so that a very few could easily stop them;

nōn is es ut tē pudor umquam ā turpitūdine āvocārit, you are not so constituted that shame ever called you back from baseness.

2. A Result Clause is often introduced by a Relative Pronoun or Adverb, *quī* (= *ut is*), *quō* (= *ut eō*), *etc.*; *as*,—

nēmō est tam senex quī sē annum nōn putet posse vīvere, nobody is so old as not to think he will live a year;

habētis eum cōnsulem quī pārere vestris dēcrētis nōn dubitet, you have a consul such as does not hesitate to obey your decrees.

a. These Relative Clauses of Result are closely related to the Clause of Characteristic, and sometimes it is difficult to distinguish the two constructions. It is best to class the relative clause as one of Characteristic, unless the result idea is clear and unmistakable.

3. Result clauses may also be introduced by *quīn* = *ut nōn*; *as*,—
nihil tam difficile est quīn quaerendō invēstīgārī possit, nothing is so difficult that it cannot be discovered by searching;

nēmō est tam fortis quīn rei novitāte perturbētur, no one is so steadfast as not to be thrown into confusion by a strange occurrence.

4. Note the use of *quam ut* (sometimes *quam* alone) to denote Result after comparatives; *as*,—

urbs erat mūnitior quam ut primō impetū capī posset, the city was too strongly fortified to be taken at the first attack (lit. more strongly fortified than [so] that it could be taken, etc.).

Causal Clauses.

285. Causal clauses are introduced chiefly by the following particles:—

1. Quod, quia, quoniam.
2. Cum.
3. Quandō.

286. The use of moods is as follows:—

I. Quod, quia, quoniam take the Indicative when the reason is *that of the writer or speaker*; they take the Subjunctive when the reason is viewed *as that of another*. Thus:—

Parthōs timeō quod diffidō cōpiīs nostrīs, *I fear the Parthians, because I distrust our troops.*

Themistoclēs, quia nōn tūtus erat, Corcyrā dēmigrāvit, *Themistocles, since he was not safe, moved to Corcyra.*

neque mē vīxisse paenitet, quoniam bene vīxī, *I do not regret having lived, since I have lived well.*

Sōcratēs accūsātus est quod corrumpere juventūtem, *Socrates was arraigned on the ground that he was corrupting the young.*
(Here the reason is not that of the writer but of the accuser. Hence the Subjunctive.)

Haedui Caesarī grātiās ēgērunt, quod sē periculō liberāvisset, *the Haedui thanked Caesar because he had delivered them from danger.* (The reason of the Haedui.)

quoniam Miltiadēs dīcere nōn posset, verba prō eō fēcit Tisagorās, *since Miltiades could not speak, Tisagoras spoke for him.* (The reason of Tisagoras.)

noctū ambulābat Themistoclēs, quod somnum capere nōn posset, *Themistocles used to walk at night because (as he said) he couldn't sleep.*

- a. Verbs of *thinking* and *saying* often stand in the Subjunctive in causal clauses as though the act of thinking or saying, and not the contents of the thought or language, constituted the reason. Thus:—

Bellovacī suum numerum nōn complēvērunt, quod sē suō nōmine cum Rōmānīs bellum gestūrōs dīcerent, *the Bellovacī did not furnish their complement,*

because they said they were going to wage war with the Romans on their own account.

- b.* **Nōn quod, nōn quō** (by attraction for **nōn eō quod**), **nōn quia**, *not that, not because*; and **nōn quod nōn, nōn quō nōn, nōn quīn**, *not that . . . not; not because . . . not; not but that*, are usually employed merely to introduce a hypothetical reason, and hence take the Subjunctive; as, —

id fecī, nōn quod vōs hanc dēfēnsiōnem dēsīderāre arbitrārer, sed ut omnēs intellegent, this I did, not because I thought you needed this defense, but that all might perceive;

Crassō commendātiōnem nōn sum pollicitus, nōn quīn eam valitūram apud tē arbitrārer, sed egēre mihi commendātiōne nōn vidēbātur, I did not promise a recommendation to Crassus, not that I did not think it would have weight with you, but because he did not seem to me to need recommendation.

- c.* But clauses introduced by **nōn quod, nōn quia** take the Indicative *if they state a fact*, even though that fact is denied to be the reason for something; as, —

hōc ita sentiō, nōn quia sum ipse augur, sed quia sīc exīstimāre nōs est necesse, this I think, not because I am myself an augur (which I really am), but because it is necessary for us to think so.

2. **Cum** causal regularly takes the Subjunctive; as, —

quae cum ita sint, since this is so;

cum sīs mortālis, quae mortālia sunt, cūrā, since you are mortal, care for what is mortal.

- a.* Note the phrase **cum praesertim** (**praesertim cum**), *especially since*; as, —

Haeduōs accūsāt, praesertim cum eōrum precibus adductus bellum suscēperit, he blamed the Haedui, especially since he had undertaken the war at their entreaties.

3. **Quandō** (less frequent than the other causal particles) governs the Indicative; as, —

id omittō, quandō vōbīs ita placet, I pass over that, since you so wish.

Temporal Clauses introduced by *Postquam*, *Ut*, *Ubi*,
Simul ac, etc.

287. I. *Postquam* (*posteaquam*), *after*; *ut*, *ubi*, *when*; *cum primum*, *simul*, *simul ac* (*simul atque*), *as soon as*, when used to refer to a single past act regularly take the Perfect Indicative; as, —

Epaminōndās postquam audīvit vīcissee Boeōtiōs, 'Satis' inquit 'vīxī,' *Epaminondas, after he heard that the Boeotians had conquered, said, 'I have lived enough';*

id ut audīvit, Corocyram dēmigrāvit, *when he heard this, he moved to Corcyra*;

Caesar cum primum potuit, ad exercitum contendit, *Caesar, as soon as he could, hurried to the army*;

ubi dē Caesaris adventū certiōrēs factī sunt, lēgātōs ad eum mittunt, *when they were informed of Caesar's arrival, they sent envoys to him*.

a. The Historical Present may take the place of the Perfect in this construction.

2. To denote the repeated occurrence of an act, *ut*, *ubi*, *simul atque*, *as often as*, when following an historical tense, take the Pluperfect Indicative (compare §§ 288, 3; 302, 3); as, —

ut quisque Verris animum offenderat, in lautumiās statim coniciēbātur, *whenever anybody had offended Verres's feelings, he was forthwith put in the stone-quarry*;

hostēs, ubi aliquōs ēgredientēs cōspexerant, adoriēbantur, *whenever the enemy had seen any men disembarking, they attacked them*.

a. In Livy and succeeding historians the Imperfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are used to denote this repeated occurrence of an act ('Indefinite Frequency'); as, —

id ubi dixisset, hastam mittēbat, *whenever he had said that, he hurled a spear*.

3. Occasionally the above conjunctions are followed by the Pluperfect Indicative of a single occurrence. This is regularly the case with *postquam* in expressions denoting a definite interval of time (days, months, years, etc.), such as *post tertium annum quam, trienniō postquam*. Thus: —

quīnque post diēbus quam Lūcā discesserat, ad Sardiniam vēnit,
five days after he had departed from Luca he came to Sardinia;

postquam occupātae Syrācūsae erant, profectus est Carthāginem, *after Syracuse had been seized, he set out for Carthage.*

4. The Imperfect Indicative also sometimes occurs to denote a continued state; as, —

postquam Rōmam adventābant, senātus cōsultus est, *after they were on the march towards Rome, the Senate was consulted;*

postquam strūcti utrimque stābant, *after they had been drawn up on both sides and were in position.*

5. Rarely postquam, posteāquam, following the analogy of cum, take the Subjunctive, but only in the historical tenses; as, —

posteāquam sūmptuōsa fieri fūnera coepissent, lēge sublāta sunt, *after funerals had begun to be elaborate, they were done away with by law.*

Temporal Clauses introduced by Cum.

A. Cum REFERRING TO THE PAST.

288. I. Cum, when referring to the past, takes —

A. The Indicative (Imperfect, Historical Perfect, or Pluperfect) to denote *the point of time at which* something occurs.

B. The Subjunctive (Imperfect or Pluperfect) to denote *the situation or circumstances under which* something occurs.

Examples: —

INDICATIVE.

an tum erās cōsul, cum in Palātiō mea domus ardēbat, *or were you consul at the time when my house burned up on the Palatine?*

crēdō tum cum Sicilia flōrēbat opibus et cōpiis magna artificia fuisse in eā Insulā, *I believe that at the time when Sicily was powerful in riches and resources there were great crafts in that island;*

eō tempore pārui cum pārēre necesse erat, *he obeyed at the time when it was necessary to obey;*

illō diē, cum est lāta lēx dē mē, *on that day when the law concerning me was passed.*

SUBJUNCTIVE.

Lysander cum vellet Lycūrgi lēgēs commūtāre, prohibitus est, *when Lysander desired to change the laws of Lycurgus, he was prevented;*

Pŷthagorās cum in geōmetriā quiddam novī invēnisset, Mūsīs bovem immolāsse dicitur, *when Pythagoras had discovered something new in geometry, he is said to have sacrificed an ox to the Muses.*

a. Note that the Indicative is much less frequent in such clauses than the Subjunctive, and is regularly confined to those cases where the main clause has **tum, eō diē, eō annō, eō tempore** or some similar correlative of the **cum**. Sometimes it depends entirely upon the point of view of the writer whether he shall employ the Indicative or Subjunctive.

2. When the logical order of the clauses is inverted, we find **cum** with the Perfect Indicative or Historical Present, in the sense of *when, when suddenly*. The main clause in such cases often has **jam, vix, aegrē, nōndum**; as, —

jam Gallī ex oppidō fugere apparābant, cum matrēs familiae repente prōcurrērunt, *the Gauls were already preparing to flee, when suddenly the matrons rushed forth (logically, the matrons rushed forth as the Gauls were preparing to flee);*

Trēvirī Labiēnum adorīrī parābant, cum duās legiōnēs vēnisse cognōscunt, *the Treviri were preparing to attack, when (suddenly) they learned that two legions had arrived.*

3. To denote a *recurring action* in the past, **cum** is followed by the Indicative, particularly of the Pluperfect (compare §§ 287, 2; 302, 3); as, —
cum ad aliquod oppidum vēnerat, eādē lecticā ad cubiculum dēferēbātur, *whenever he had arrived at some town, he was (always) carried in the same litter to his room;*

cum equitātus noster sē in agrōs ējēcerat, essedāriōs ex silvīs ēmittēbat, *whenever our cavalry had advanced into the fields, he would send his charioteers out from the woods.*

a. Sometimes the Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive is thus used; as, —
saepe cum aliquem vidēret minus bene vestitum, suum amiculum dedit, *often, whenever he saw some one more poorly clothed, he gave him his own mantle;*

cum prōcucurrissent, Numidae effugiēbant, *as often as they had advanced, the Numidians ran away.*

This construction is frequent in Livy and subsequent historians.

B. Cum REFERRING TO THE PRESENT OR FUTURE.

289. When *cum* refers to the Present or Future it regularly takes the Indicative; as, —

tum tua rēs agitur, pariēs cum proximus ardet, *your own interests are at stake when your neighbor's house is burning;*
cum vidēbis, tum sciēs, *when you see, then you will know.*

- a. The Indicative of the Present or Future may denote also a recurring action; as, —

stabilitās amicitiae cōfirmārī potest, cum hominēs cupidinibus imperābunt, *firm friendship can be established whenever men shall control their desires.*

C. OTHER USES OF Cum.

290. 1. **Cum Explicative.** *Cum*, with the Indicative, is sometimes used to indicate the identity of one act with another; as, —

cum tacent, clāmant, *their silence is a shout* (lit. *when they are silent, they shout*).

2. *Cum . . . tum.* When *cum . . . tum* mean *both . . . and*, the *cum*-clause is in the Indicative; but when *cum* has the force of *while, though*, it may take the Subjunctive; as, —

cum tē semper dilēxerim, tum tuīs factīs incēnsus sum, *while I have always loved you, at the same time I am incensed at your conduct.*

Clauses introduced by *Antequam* and *Priusquam*.

A. WITH THE INDICATIVE.

291. *Antequam* and *priusquam* (often written *ante . . . quam, prius . . . quam*) take the Indicative to denote an actual fact.

1. Sometimes the Present or Future Perfect; as, —
prius respondēs quam rogō, *you answer before I ask;*
nihil contrā disputābō priusquam dixerit, *I will say nothing in opposition, before he speaks.*

2. Sometimes the Perfect, especially after negative clauses; as, —
nōn prius jugulandī finis fuit, quam Sulla omnēs suōs dīvitīs explēvit, *there was no end of murder until Sulla satisfied all his henchmen with wealth.*

B. WITH THE SUBJUNCTIVE.

292. *Antequam* and *priusquam* take the Subjunctive to denote an act as *anticipated*.

1. Thus the Subjunctive may denote —

- a) An act in preparation for which the main act takes place; as, —
priusquam dīmīcārent, foedus īctum est, i.e. in anticipation of the fight, a treaty was struck.

By an extension of this usage, the Subjunctive is sometimes used of *general truths*, where the anticipatory notion has faded out; as, —

tempestās minātur antequam surgat, the tempest threatens before it rises.

- b) An act anticipated and forestalled; as, —
priusquam tēlum adicī posset, omnis aciēs terga vertit, before a spear could be hurled, the whole army fled.

- c) An act anticipated and deprecated; as, —
animum omittunt priusquam locō dēmigrent, they die rather than quit their post.

2. After historical tenses the Imperfect Subjunctive is used, especially by post-Augustan writers, where the notion of anticipation has practically vanished; as, —

sōl antequam sē abderet fugientem vīdit Antōnium, the sun before it set saw Antony fleeing.

Clauses introduced by *Dum*, *Dōnec*, *Quoad*.

293. I. *Dum*, *while*, regularly takes the Indicative of the Historical Present; as, —

Alexander, dum inter prīmōrēs pugnat, sagittā īctus est, Alexander, while he was fighting in the van, was struck by an arrow; dum haec geruntur, in finēs Venellōrum pervēnit, while these things were being done, he arrived in the territory of the Venelli.

II. *Dum*, *dōnec*, and *quoad*, *as long as*, take the Indicative; as, —

dum anima est, spēs est, as long as there is life, there is hope; Lacedaemoniōrum gēns fortis fuit, dum Lycūrgī lēgēs vigēbant, the race of the Lacedaemonians was powerful, as long as the laws of Lycurgus were in force;

Catō, quoad vīxit, virtūtum laude crēvit, Cato, as long as he lived, increased in the fame of his virtues.

III. *Dum, donec, and quoad, until, take:—*

1. The Indicative, to denote *an actual event*; as, —
donec rediit, fuit silentium, there was silence till he came;
ferrum in corpore retinuit, quoad renūtiātum est Boeōtiōs
vīcisse, he kept the iron in his body until word was brought that
the Boeotians had conquered.

a. In Livy and subsequent historians *dum* and *donec* in this sense often take the Subjunctive instead of the Indicative; as, —
trepidātiōnis aliquantum edēbant donec timor quīetem
fēcisset, they showed some trepidation, until fear produced quiet.

2. The Subjunctive, to denote *anticipation or expectancy*; as, —
exspectāvit Caesar dum nāvēs convenīrent, Caesar waited for the
ships to assemble;
dum hostēs veniant, morābor, I shall wait for the enemy to come.

Substantive Clauses.

294. A Substantive Clause is one which as a whole serves as the Subject or Object of a verb, or stands in some other case relation.

A. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Volitive.

295. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Volitive are used with the following classes of verbs:—

1. With verbs signifying *to admonish, request, command, urge, persuade, induce,*¹ etc. (conjunctions *ut, nē, or ut nē*); as, —
postulō ut fiat, I demand that it be done (dependent form of the Jussive *fiat, let it be done!*);
orat, nē abeās, he begs that you will not go away;
mīlitēs cohortātus est ut hostium impetum sustinērent, he ex-
horted his soldiers to withstand the attack of the enemy;
Helvētiīs persuāsit ut exīrent, he persuaded the Helvetii to march forth.

a. *Jubeō, command, order*, regularly takes the Infinitive.

¹ Especially: *moneō, admoneō; rogō, orō, petō, postulō, precor, flagitō; mandō, imperō, praecipio; suādeō, hortor, cohortor; persuādeō, impellō.*

2. With verbs signifying *to grant, concede, permit, allow*,¹ etc. (conjunction *ut*) ; as, —

huic concēdō ut ea praetereat, I allow him to pass that by (dependent form of the Jussive *ea praetereat, let him pass that by!*) ;
cōsulī permissum est ut duās legiōnēs scrīberet, the consul was permitted to enroll two legions.

3. With verbs of *hindering, preventing*,² etc. (conjunctions *nē, quōminus, quīn*) ; as, —

nē lūstrum perficeret, mors prohibuit, death prevented him from finishing the lustrum (dependent form after past tense of *nē lūstrum perficiat, let him not finish, etc.*) ;

prohibuit quōminus in ūnum cōirent, he prevented them from coming together ;

nec quīn ērumperet, prohibērī poterat, nor could he be prevented from rushing forth.

a. *Quīn* is used only when the verb of *hindering* is accompanied by a negative, or stands in a question implying a negative ; it is not necessarily used even then.

4. With verbs of *deciding, resolving*,³ etc. (conjunctions *ut, nē, or ut nē*) ; as, —

cōstitueram ut prīdiē Idūs Aquīnī manērem, I had decided to remain at Aquinum on the 12th ;

dēcrēvit senātus ut Opīmius vidēret, the Senate decreed that Opimius should see to it ;

convēnit ut ūnīs castrīs miscērentur, it was agreed that they should be united in one camp.

5. With verbs of *striving*,⁴ etc. (conjunctions *ut, nē, or ut nē*) ; as, —

fac ut eum exōrēs, see to it that you prevail upon him!

cūrā ut vir sīs, see to it that you are a man!

labōrābat ut reliquās cīvitātēs adjungeret, he was striving to join the remaining states to him.

a. *Cōnor, try*, always takes the Infinitive.

NOTE. — Verbs of all the above classes also admit the Infinitive, especially in poetry.

¹ Especially: *permittō, concēdō, nōn patior.*

² Especially: *prohibeō, impediō, dēterreō.*

³ Especially: *cōstituō, dēcernō, cēnseō, placuit, convenit, pacīscor.*

⁴ Especially: *labōrō, dō operam, id agō, contendō, impetrō.*

6. With a few other expressions, such as *necesse est*, *reliquum est*, *sequitur*, *licet*, *oportet*; as, —

reliquum est ut doceam, *it remains for me to show*;

licet redeās, *you may return*;

oportet loquāmur, *we must speak*.

On the absence of *ut* with *licet* and *oportet*, see paragraph 8.

7. Here also belong phrases of the type: *nūlla causa est cūr*, *quīn*; *nōn est cūr*, *etc.*; *nihil est cūr*, *etc.*; as, —

nūlla causa est cūr timeam, *there is no reason why I should fear*
(originally Deliberative: *why should I fear? There's no reason*);
nihil est quīn dīcam, *there is no reason why I should not say*.

8. Many of the above classes of verbs at times take the simple Subjunctive without *ut*. In such cases we must not recognize any omission of *ut*, but simply an earlier form of expression which existed before the *ut*-clause arose. This is regularly the case with *necesse est*, *licet*, and *oportet*; see 6. Other examples are: —

eōs moneō dēsinant, *I warn them to stop*;

huic imperat adeat cīvitātēs, *he orders him to visit the states*.

B. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Optative.

296. Substantive Clauses Developed from the Optative occur: —

1. With verbs of *wishing*, *desiring*, especially *cupiō*, *optō*, *volō*, *mālō* (conjunctions *ut*, *nē*, *ut nē*); as, —

optō ut in hōc jūdiciō nēmō improbus reperiātur, *I hope that in this court no bad man may be found* (here *ut reperiātur* represents a simple optative of direct statement, *viz. reperiātur*, *may no bad man be found!*);

cupiō nē veniat, *I desire that he may not come*.

a. The simple Subjunctive (without *ut*) sometimes occurs with verbs of this class. (See § 295, 8.) Examples are: *velim scribās*, *I wish you would write*; *vellem scripsisset*, *I wish he had written*.

2. With expressions of *fearing* (*timeō*, *metuō*, *vereor*, *etc.*). Here *nē* means *that, lest*, and *ut* means *that not*; as, —

timeō nē veniat, *I fear that he will come* (originally: *may he not come! I'm afraid [he will]*);

timeō ut veniat, *I fear that he will not come* (originally: *may he come! I'm afraid [he won't]*).

- a. *Nē nōn* sometimes occurs instead of *ut*, especially where the verb of *fearing* has a negative, or where the writer desires to emphasize some particular word in the dependent clause; as, —

nōn vereor nē hōc nōn fiat, *I am not afraid that this will not happen*;

vereor nē exercitum firmum habēre nōn possit, *I fear that he is unable (nōn possit) to have a strong army.*

C. Substantive Clauses of Result.

297. Substantive Clauses of Result (introduced by *ut*, *ut nōn*) are a development of pure Result clauses, and occur with the following classes of words: —

1. As object clauses after verbs of *doing*, *accomplishing* (especially *faciō*, *efficiō*, *cōficiō*). Thus: —

gravitās morbi facit ut medicinā egeāmus, *the severity of disease makes us need medicine.*

2. As the subject of several impersonal verbs, particularly *fit*, *efficitur*, *accidit*, *evenit*, *contingit*, *accēdit*, *fieri potest*, *fore*, *sequitur*, *relinquitur*. Thus: —

ex quō efficitur, ut voluptās nōn sit summum bonum, *from which it follows that pleasure is not the greatest good*;

ita fit, ut nēmō esse possit beātus, *thus it happens that no one can be happy*;

accēdēbat ut nāvēs deessent, *another thing was the lack of ships* (lit. *it was added that ships were lacking*).

3. As predicate or appositive after expressions like *jūs est*, *mōs est*, *cōsuētūdō est*; also after neuter pronouns, *hōc*, *illud*, etc. Thus: —

est mōs hominum ut nōlint eundem plūribus rēbus excellere, *it is the way of men not to wish the same person to excel in many things.*

D. Substantive Clauses Introduced by *Quīn*.

298. Substantive Clauses introduced by *quīn* (used sometimes as subject, sometimes as object) occur after negative and interrogative expressions of *doubt*, *omission*, and the like, particularly after *nōn dubitō*, *I do not doubt*; *quis*

dubitāt, who doubts?; nōn (haud) dubium est, there is no doubt. The mood is the Subjunctive. Examples:—

quis dubitat quā in virtūte dīvitiae sint, who doubts that in virtue there are riches?

nōn dubium erat quā ventūrus esset, there was no doubt that he was about to come.

a. In Nepos, Livy, and post-Augustan writers an Infinitive sometimes takes the place of the *quā*-clause after *nōn dubitō*; as,—

nōn dubitāmus inventōs esse, we do not doubt that men were found.

b. *Nōn dubitō, I do not hesitate*, is regularly followed by the Infinitive, though sometimes by a *quā*-clause.

E. Substantive Clauses Introduced by *Quod*.

299. 1. *Quod, the fact that, that*, introduces Substantive Clauses in the Indicative. This construction occurs especially—

a) In apposition with a preceding demonstrative, as *hōc, id, illud, illa, ex eō, inde, etc.* Thus:—

illud est admirātiōne dignum, quod captīvōs retinendōs cēnsuit, this is especially worthy of admiration, that he thought the prisoners ought to be kept;

hōc ūnō praestāmus vel maximē ferīs, quod colloquimur inter nōs, in this one respect we are especially superior to the beasts, that we talk with each other.

b) After *bene fit, bene accidit, male fit, bene facere, mīror, etc.*; as,—

bene mihi accidit, quod mittor ad mortem, it is well for me that I am sent to death;

bene fēcistī quod mānsistī, you did well in remaining.

2. *Quod* at the beginning of the sentence sometimes has the force of *as regards the fact that*. Thus:—

quod multitudinem Germānōrum in Galliam trādūcō, id mei mūniendī causā faciō, as regards the fact that I am transporting a multitude of Germans into Gaul, I am doing it for the sake of strengthening myself;

quod mē Agamemnona aemulārī putās, falleris, as regards your thinking that I emulate Agamemnon, you are mistaken.

F. Indirect Questions.

300. 1. Indirect Questions are Substantive Clauses used after verbs of *asking, inquiring, telling*, and the like. They take their verb in the Subjunctive.¹ Like Direct Questions (see § 162) they may be introduced —

a) By Interrogative Pronouns or Adverbs; as, —

dīc mihi ubi fuerīs, quid fēcerīs, tell me where you were, what you did;

oculīs iudicārī nōn potest in utram partem fluat Arar, it cannot be determined by the eye in which direction the Arar flows;

bis bīna quot essent, nesciēbat, he did not know how many two times two were.

NOTE. — Care should be taken to distinguish Indirect Questions from Relative Clauses. The difference between the two appears clearly in the following: —

effugere nēmō id potest quod futūrum est, no one can escape what is destined to come to pass; but

saepe autem ne ūtile quidem est scīre quid futūrum sit, but often it is not even useful to know what is coming to pass.

b) By *num* or *-ne*, without distinction of meaning; as, —

Epaminōndās quaesīvit num salvus esset clipeus, or salvusne esset clipeus, Epaminondas asked whether his shield was safe;

disputātur num interīre virtūs in homine possit, the question is raised whether virtue can die in a man;

ex Sōcrate quaesītum est nōnne Archelāum beātum putāret, the question was asked of Socrates whether he did not think Archelaus happy.

NOTE. — *Nōnne* in Indirect Questions occurs only after *quaerō*, as in the last example above.

2. Often the Indirect Question represents a Deliberative Subjunctive of the direct discourse; as, —

nesciō quid faciam, I do not know what to do. (Direct: quid faciam, what shall I do!)

¹ Exclamations, also, upon becoming indirect, take the Subjunctive, as *cōnsiderā quam variae sint hominum cupīdīnēs, consider how varied are the desires of men. (Direct: quam variae sunt hominum cupīdīnēs!)*

3. After verbs of *expectation* and *endeavor* (*exspectō, cōnor, experior, temptō*) we sometimes find an Indirect Question introduced by *sī*; as,—

cōnantur sī perrumpere pōssint, they try whether they can break through.

a. Sometimes the governing verb is omitted; as,—

pergit ad proximam spēluncam sī forte eō vēstigia ferrent, he proceeded to the nearest cave (to see) if the tracks led thither.

4. Indirect Double Questions are introduced in the main by the same particles as direct double questions (§ 162, 4); *viz.*:—

utrum . . . an;
-ne an;
— an;
— ne.

Examples:—

<i>quaerō utrum vērū an falsū sit,</i>	} <i>I ask whether it is true or false?</i>
<i>quaerō vērūne an falsū sit,</i>	
<i>quaerō vērū an falsū sit,</i>	
<i>quaerō vērū falsūne sit,</i>	

a. 'Or not' in the second member of the double question is ordinarily expressed by *necne*, less frequently by *an nōn*; as,—

dī utrum sint necne, quaeritur, it is asked whether there are gods or not.

5. *Haud sciō an, nesciō an*, by omission of the first member of the double question, occur with the Subjunctive in the sense: *I am inclined to think, probably, perhaps*; as,—

haud sciō an hōc vērū sit, I am inclined to think this is true.

6. In early Latin and in poetry the Indicative is sometimes used in Indirect Questions.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

301. Conditional Sentences are compound sentences (§ 164) consisting of two parts, the Protasis (or *condition*), usually introduced by *sī, nisi, or sīn*, and the Apodosis (or *conclusion*). There are the following types of Conditional Sentences:—

First Type.—Nothing Implied as to the Reality of the Supposed Case.

302. 1. Here we regularly have the Indicative in both Protasis and Apodosis. Any tense may be used ; as, —

sī hōc crēdis, errās, if you believe this, you are mistaken ;
nātūram sī sequēmur, numquam aberrābimus, if we follow
Nature, we shall never go astray ;
sī hōc dixistī, errāstī, if you said this, you were in error.

2. Sometimes the Protasis takes the Indefinite Second Person Singular (§ 356, 3) of the Present or Perfect Subjunctive, with the force of the Indicative ; as, —

memoria minuitur, nisi eam exerceās, memory is impaired unless
you exercise it.

3. Here belong also those conditional sentences in which the Protasis denotes a repeated action (compare §§ 287, 2 ; 288, 3) ; as, —

sī quis equitum dēciderat, peditēs circumsistēbant, if any one
of the horsemen fell, the foot-soldiers gathered about him.

a. Instead of the Indicative, Livy and subsequent writers employ the Subjunctive of the Historical tenses in the Protasis to denote repeated action ; as, —

sī dicendō quis diem eximeret, if (ever) anybody consumed a day
in pleading ; sī quandō adsidēret, if ever he sat by.

4. Where the sense demands it, the Apodosis in conditional sentences of the First Type may be an Imperative or one of the Independent Subjunctives (Hortatory, Deliberative, etc.) ; as, —

sī hōc crēditis, tacēte, if you believe this, be silent ;
sī hōc crēdimus, taceāmus, if we believe this, let us keep silent.

Second Type. — ‘Should’-‘Would’ Conditions.

303. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive (of the Present or Perfect tense) in both Protasis and Apodosis ; as, —

sī hōc dicās, errēs, } if you should say this, you would be mis-
sī hōc dixeris, errāveris, } taken.

sī velim Hannibalis proelia omnia dēscribere, diēs mē dēficiat,
if I should wish to describe all the battles of Hannibal, time
would fail me ;

Protasis Apodosis

mentiar, sī negem, I should lie, if I should deny it;

haec sī tēcum patria loquātur, nōne impetrāre dēbeat, if your country should plead thus with you, would she not deserve to obtain her request?

a. The Subjunctive in the Apodosis of conditional sentences of this type is of the Potential variety.

b. Sometimes we find the Indicative in the Apodosis of sentences of the Second Type, where the writer wishes to assert the accomplishment of a result more positively; as, —

aliter sī faciat, nullam habet auctōritātem, if he should do otherwise, he has no authority.

Third Type.—Supposed Case Represented as Contrary to Fact.

304. 1. Here we regularly have the Subjunctive in both Protasis and Apodosis, the Imperfect referring to *present time*, and the Pluperfect referring to *past*; as, —

sī amīcī meī adessent, opis nōn indigērem, if my friends were here, I should not lack assistance;

sī hōc dīxissēs, errāssēs, if you had said this, you would have erred;

sapientia nōn expeterētur, sī nihil efficeret, philosophy would not be desired, if it accomplished nothing;

cōnsilium, ratiō, sententia nisi essent in senibus, nōn summum cōnsilium majōrēs nostrī appellāssent senātum, unless deliberation, reason, and wisdom existed in old men, our ancestors would not have called their highest deliberative body a senate.

2. Sometimes the Imperfect Subjunctive is found referring to the past, especially to denote a *continued act*, or a *state of things still existing*; as, —

Laelius, Fūrius, Catō, sī nihil litterīs adjuvārentur, numquam sē ad eārum studium contulissent, Laelius, Furius, and Cato would never have devoted themselves to the study of letters, unless they had been (constantly) helped by them;

num igitur sī ad centēsimum annum vīxisset, senectūtis eum suae paenitēret, if he had lived to his hundredth year, would he have regretted (and now be regretting) his old age?

3. The Apodosis in conditional sentences of this type sometimes stands in the Indicative (Imperfect, Perfect, or Pluperfect), *viz.* —

- a) Frequently in expressions of *ability, obligation, or necessity*; as, —

nisi fēlīcītās in sōcordiam vertisset, exuere jugum potuērunt, unless their prosperity had turned to folly, they could have thrown off the yoke;

NOTE. — In sentences of this type, however, it is not the *possibility* that is represented as contrary-to-fact, but something to be supplied in thought from the context. Thus in the foregoing sentence the logical apodosis is *et exuissent* understood (*and they would have shaken it off*). When the *possibility* itself is conditioned, the Subjunctive is used.

eum patris locō colere dēbēbās, sī ūlla in tē pietās esset, you ought to revere him as a father, if you had any sense of devotion.

- b) With both the Periphrastic Conjugations; as, —

sī Pompejus occīsus esset, fuistisne ad arma itūrī, if Pompey had been slain, would you have proceeded to arms?

sī ūnum diem morātī essētis, moriendū omnibus fuit, if you had delayed one day, you would all have had to die.

Protasis expressed without *Sī*.

305. 1. The Protasis is not always expressed by a clause with *sī*, but may be implied in a word, a phrase, or merely by the context; as, —

aliōquī haec nōn scrīberentur, otherwise (i.e. if matters were otherwise) these things would not be written;

nōn potestis, voluptātē omnia dīrigentēs, retinēre virtūtem, you cannot retain virtue, if you direct everything with reference to pleasure.

2. Sometimes an Imperative, or a Jussive Subjunctive, serves as Protasis. Thus: —

crās petitō, dabitur, if you ask to-morrow, it shall be given you (lit. ask to-morrow, etc.);

haec reputent, vidēbunt, if they consider this, they will see (lit. let them consider, etc.);

rogēs Aristōnem, respondeat, if you should ask Aristo, he would answer.

Use of *Nisi*, *Sī Nōn*, *Sīn*.

306. 1. *Nisi*, unless, negatives the entire protasis; *sī nōn* negatives a single word; as, —

ferreus essem, nisi tē amārem, I should be hard-hearted unless I loved you; but —

ferreus essem, sī tē nōn amārem, I should be hard-hearted if I did NOT love you.

In the first example, it is the notion of *loving you* that is negated, in the second, the notion of *loving*.

2. *Sī nōn* (*sī minus*) is regularly employed: —

a) When an apodosis with *at*, *tamen*, *certē* follows; as, —

dolōrem sī nōn potuerō frangere, tamen occultābō, if I cannot crush my sorrow, yet I will hide it.

b) When an affirmative protasis is repeated in negative form; as, —

sī fēceris, magnam habēbō grātiā; sī nōn fēceris, ignōscam, if you do it, I shall be deeply grateful; if you do not do it, I shall pardon you.

a. But if the verb is omitted in the repetition, only *sī minus* or *sīn minus* is admissible; as, —

hōc sī assecūtus sum, gaudeō; sī minus, mē cōnsōlor, if I have attained this, I am glad; if not, I console myself.

3. *Sīn*. Where one protasis is followed by another opposed in meaning, but affirmative in form, the second is introduced by *sīn*; as, —

hunc mihi timōrem ēripe; sī vērus est, nē opprimar, sīn falsus, ut timēre dēsīnam, relieve me of this fear; if it is well founded, that I may not be destroyed; but if it is groundless, that I may cease to fear.

4. *Nisi* has a fondness for combining with negatives (*nōn*, *nēmō*, *nihil*); as, —

nihil cōgitāvit nisi caedem, he had no thought but murder.

a. *Nōn* and *nisi* are always separated in the best Latinity.

5. *Nisi forte*, *nisi vērō*, *nisi sī*, unless perchance, unless indeed (often with ironical force), take the Indicative; as, —

nisi vērō, quia perfecta rēs nōn est, nōn vidētur pūnienda, unless indeed, because an act is not consummated, it does not seem to merit punishment.

Conditional Clauses of Comparison.

307. 1. Conditional Clauses of Comparison are introduced by the particles, *ac sī, ut sī, quasi, quam sī, tamquam sī, velut sī*, or simply by *velut* or *tamquam*. They stand in the Subjunctive mood and regularly involve an ellipsis (see § 374, 1), as indicated in the following examples:—

tantus patrēs metus cēpit, velut sī jam ad portās hostis esset, as great fear seized the senators as (would have seized them) if the enemy were already at the gates;

sed quid ego hīs testibus ūtor quasi rēs dubia aut obscura sit, but why do I use these witnesses, as (I should do) if the matter were doubtful or obscure;

serviam tibi tamquam sī ēmerīs mē argentō, I will serve you as though you had bought me for money.

2. Note that in sentences of this kind the Latin observes the regular principles for the Sequence of Tenses. Thus after principal tenses the Latin uses the Present and Perfect (as in the second and third examples), where the English uses the Past and the Past Perfect.

Concessive Clauses.

308. The term ‘Concessive’ is best restricted to those clauses developed from the Jussive Subjunctive which have the force of *granted that, etc.*; as, —

sit fūr, sit sacrilegus, at est bonus imperātor, granted that he is a thief and a robber, yet he is a good commander;

ut hōc vērū sit, granted that this is true;

nē sit summum malum dolor, malum certē est, granted that pain is not the greatest evil, yet it is certainly an evil.

Adversative Clauses with *Quamvis, Quamquam, etc.*

309. Clauses introduced by *quamvis, quamquam, etsī, tametsī, cum, although*, while often classed as ‘Concessive,’ are yet essentially different from genuine Concessive clauses. As a rule, they do not *grant* or *concede* anything, but rather state that something is true *in spite of*

something else. They accordingly emphasize the adversative idea, and are properly Subordinate Adversative Clauses. The different particles used to introduce these clauses have different meanings and take different constructions, as follows:—

1. **Quamvis**, *however much, although*, does not introduce a statement of fact, but represents an act merely as conceived. It is followed by the Subjunctive, usually of the present tense; as,—

hominēs quamvis in turbidīs rēbus sint, tamen interdum animīs relaxantur, *in however stirring events men may engage, yet at times they relax their energies*;

nōn est potestās opitulandī rei pūblicae quamvis ea premātur periculīs, *there is no opportunity to succor the state, though it be beset by dangers.*

2. **Quamquam**, **etsi**, **tametsi**, *although*, introduce a statement of fact, and are followed by the Indicative (of any tense); as,—

quamquam omnis virtūs nōs allicit, tamen iūstitia id maximē efficit, *although all virtue attracts us, yet justice does so especially*;

Caesar, etsi nōndum cōnsilium hostium cognōverat, tamen id quod accidit suspiciābātur, *Caesar, though he did not yet know the plans of the enemy, yet was suspecting what actually occurred.*

a. **Etsi**, *although*, must be distinguished from **etsi**, *even if*. The latter is a conditional particle and takes any of the constructions admissible for **sī**. (See §§ 302-304.)

3. **Cum**, *although*, is followed by the Subjunctive; as,—

Atticus honōrēs nōn petiit, cum ei patērent, *Atticus did not seek honors, though they were open to him.*

4. **Licet** sometimes loses its verbal force (see § 295, 6) and sinks to the level of a conjunction with the force of *although*. It takes the Subjunctive, Present or Perfect; as,—

licet omnēs terrōrēs impendeant, succurram, *though all terrors hang over me, (yet) I will lend aid.*

5. **Quamquam**, with the force *and yet*, is often used to introduce principal clauses; as,—

quamquam quid loquor, *and yet why do I speak?*

6. In post-Augustan writers **quamquam** is freely construed with the Subjunctive, while **quamvis** is often used to introduce statements of fact, and takes either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. Thus:—

quamquam movērētur hīs vōcibus, *although he was moved by these words* ;
quamvis multī opīnārentur, *though many thought* ;
quamvis infēstō animō pervēnerās, *though you had come with hostile intent.*

Clauses with Dum, Modo, Dummodo, denoting a Wish or a Proviso.

310. These particles are followed by the Subjunctive (negative **nē**) and have two distinct uses:—

I. They are used to introduce clauses *embodying a wish* entertained by the subject of the leading verb; as,—

multī honesta neglegunt **dummodo** potentiam cōsequantur,
many neglect honor in their desire to obtain power (if only they may attain) ;

omnia postposuī, **dum** praeceptīs patris pārērem, *I made everything else secondary, in my desire to obey the injunctions of my father* ;

nīl obstat tibi, **dum** **nē** sit dītior alter, *nothing hinders you in your desire that your neighbor may not be richer than you.*

II. They are used to express a *proviso* ('provided that'); as,—

ōderint, **dum** metuant, *let them hate, provided they fear* ;

manent ingenia senibus, **modo** permaneat studium et industria,
old men retain their faculties, provided only they retain their interest and vigor ;

nūbant, **dum** **nē** dōs fiat comes, *let them marry, provided no dowry goes with it.*

Relative Clauses.

311. Relative Clauses are introduced by Relative Pronouns, Adjectives, or Adverbs.

312. 1. Relative clauses usually stand in the Indicative Mood, especially clauses introduced by those General Relatives which are doubled or have the suffix **-cunque**; as,—

quidquid id est, timeō Danaōs et dōna ferentēs, *whatever it is, I fear the Greeks even when they offer gifts*;
 quidquid oritur, quālecunque est, causam ā nātūrā habet, *whatever comes into being, of whatever sort it is, has its primal cause in Nature.*

2. Any simple Relative may introduce a conditional sentence of any of the three types mentioned in §§ 302-304; as, —

quī hōc dīcit, errat, *he who says this is mistaken* (First Type);

quī hōc dīcat, erret, *he would be mistaken who should say this* (Second Type);

quī hōc dīxisset, errāset, *the man who had said this would have been mistaken.*

INDIRECT DISCOURSE (ŌRĀTIŌ OBLĪQUA).

313. When the language or thought of any person is reproduced without change, that is called Direct Discourse (*Ōrātiō Rēcta*); as, *Caesar said, 'The die is cast.'* When, on the other hand, one's language or thought is made to depend upon a verb of *saying, thinking, etc.*, that is called Indirect Discourse (*Ōrātiō Oblīqua*); as, *Caesar said that the die was cast; Caesar thought that his troops were victorious.*

a. For the verbs most frequently employed to introduce Indirect Discourse, see § 331.

MOODS IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Declarative Sentences.

314. 1. Declarative Sentences upon becoming Indirect change their main clause to the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, while all subordinate clauses take the Subjunctive; as, —

Rēgulus dīxit quam diū jūre jūrاندō hostium tenērētur nōn esse sē senātōrem, *Regulus said that as long as he was held by his pledge to the enemy he was not a senator.* (Direct: *quam diū teneor nōn sum senātor.*)

2. The verb of *saying, thinking, etc.*, is sometimes to be inferred from the context ; as, —

tum Rōmulus lēgātōs circā vīcīnās gentēs mīsit quī societātem cōnūbiumque peterent: urbēs quoque, ut cētera, ex infimō nāscī, *then Romulus sent envoys around among the neighboring tribes, to ask for alliance and the right of inter-marriage, (saying that) cities, like everything else, start from a modest beginning.*

3. Subordinate clauses which contain an explanatory statement of the writer and so are not properly a part of the Indirect Discourse, or which emphasize the fact stated, take the Indicative ; as, —

nūtiātum est Ariovistum ad occupandū Vesontiōnem, quod est oppidum maximum Sēquanōrum, contendere, *it was reported that Ariovistus was hastening to seize Vesontio, which is the largest town of the Sequani.*

4. Sometimes a subordinate clause is such only in its external form, and in sense is principal. It then takes the Infinitive with Subject Accusative. This occurs especially in case of relative clauses, where quī is equivalent to et hīc, nam hīc, etc. ; as, —

dīxit urbem Athēniēnsium prōpugnāculum oppositum esse barbarīs, apud quam jam bis classēs rēgiās fēcisse naufragium, *he said the city of the Athenians had been set against the barbarians like a bulwark, near which (= and near it) the fleets of the King had twice met disaster.*

5. The Subject Accusative of the Infinitive is sometimes omitted when it refers to the same person as the subject of the leading verb, or can easily be supplied from the context ; as, —

cum id nescīre Māgō dīceret, *when Mago said he did not know this (for sē nescīre).*

Interrogative Sentences.

315. 1. Real questions of the Direct Discourse, upon becoming indirect, are regularly put in the Subjunctive ; as, —

Ariovistus Caesarī respondit: sē prius in Galliam vēnisse quam populum Rōmānum. Quid sibi vellet? Cūr in suās possessionēs venīret, *Ariovistus replied to Caesar that he*

had come into Gaul before the Roman people. What did he (Caesar) mean? Why did he come into his domain? (Direct: *quid tibi vīs? cūr in meās possessiōnēs venīs?*)

2. Rhetorical questions, on the other hand, being asked merely for effect, and being equivalent in force to emphatic statements, regularly stand in the Infinitive in Indirect Discourse. Thus:—

quid est levius (lit. *what is more trivial*, = nothing is more trivial) of the Direct Discourse becomes *quid esse levius* in the Indirect.

3. Deliberative Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse remain unchanged in mood in the Indirect; as,—

quid faceret, *what was he to do?* (Direct: *quid faciat?*)

Imperative Sentences.

316. All Imperatives or Jussive Subjunctives of the Direct Discourse appear as Subjunctives in the Indirect; as,—

mīlitēs certiōrēs fēcit paulisper intermitterent proelium, *he told the soldiers to stop the battle for a little.* (Direct: *intermittite.*)

a. The Negative in such sentences is *nē*; as,—

nē suae virtūtī tribueret, *let him not attribute it to his own valor!*

TENSES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

A. Tenses of the Infinitive.

317. These are used in accordance with the regular principles for the use of the Infinitive as given in § 270.

a. The Perfect Infinitive may represent any past tense of the Indicative of Direct Discourse. Thus:—

sciō tē haec ēgisse may mean—

I know you were doing this. (Direct: *haec agēbās.*)

I know you did this. (Direct: *haec ēgistī.*)

I know you had done this. (Direct: *haec ēgerās.*)

B. Tenses of the Subjunctive.

318. These follow the regular principle for the Sequence of Tenses, being Principal if the verb of *saying* is Principal; Historical if it is Historical. Yet for the sake of vividness, we often find the Present Subjunctive used after an historical tense (*Repraesentātiō*); as, —

Caesar respondit, sī obsidēs dentur, sēsē pācem esse factūrum,
Caesar replied that, if hostages be given, he would make peace.

a. For the sequence after the Perfect Infinitive, see § 268, 2.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES IN INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

Conditional Sentences of the First Type.

319. **A. THE APODOSIS.** Any tense of the Indicative is changed to the corresponding tense of the Infinitive (§§ 270; 317, a).

B. THE PROTASIS. The protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive which are required by the Sequence of Tenses.

Examples: —

DIRECT.	INDIRECT.
sī hōc crēdis, errās,	{ dīcō, sī hōc crēdās, tē errāre; dīxī, sī hōc crēderēs, tē errāre.
sī hōc crēdēs, errābis,	{ dīcō, sī hōc crēdās, tē errātūrum esse; dīxī, sī hōc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse.
sī hōc crēdideris, errābis,	{ dīcō, sī hōc crēdiderīs, tē errātūrum esse; dīxī, sī hōc crēdidissēs, tē errātūrum esse.
sī hōc crēdēbās, errāvistī,	{ dīcō, sī hōc crēderēs, tē errāvisse; dīxī, sī hōc crēderēs, tē errāvisse.

a. Note that a Future Perfect Indicative of the Direct Discourse regularly appears in the Indirect as a Perfect Subjunctive after a principal tense, and as a Pluperfect Subjunctive after an historical tense.

Conditional Sentences of the Second Type.

320. A. THE APODOSIS. The Present Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse regularly becomes the Future Infinitive of the Indirect.

B. THE PROTASIS. The Protasis takes those tenses of the Subjunctive demanded by the sequence of tenses.

Examples :—

sī hōc crēdās, errēs, { *dīcō, sī hōc crēdās, tē errātūrum esse ;*
 { *dīxī, sī hōc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse.*

Conditional Sentences of the Third Type.

321. A. THE APODOSIS.

1. The Imperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes the Future Infinitive.

a But this construction is rare, being represented in the classical Latinity by a single example (Caesar, V. 29. 2). Some scholars question the correctness of this passage.

2. The Pluperfect Subjunctive of the Direct Discourse becomes :—

a) In the Active Voice the Infinitive in *-ūrus fuisse*.

b) In the Passive Voice it takes the form *futūrum fuisse ut* with the Imperfect Subjunctive.

B. THE PROTASIS. The protasis in Conditional Sentences of this type always remains unchanged.

Examples :—

<i>sī hōc crēderēs, errārēs,</i>	<i>dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc crēderēs, tē errātūrum esse ;</i>
<i>sī hōc crēdidissēs, errāvissēs,</i>	<i>dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc crēdidissēs, tē errātūrum fuisse ;</i>
<i>sī hōc dīxissēs, pūnītus essēs,</i>	<i>dīcō (dīxī), sī hōc dīxissēs futūrum fuisse ut pūnīrēris.</i>

322. When an apodosis of a conditional sentence of the Third Type referring to the past is at the same time a Result clause, or a

quīn-clause (after *nōn dubitō*, etc.), it stands in the Perfect Subjunctive in the form *-ūrus fuerim*; as, —

ita territī sunt, ut arma trāditūrī fuerint,¹ nisi Caesar subitō advēnisset, they were so frightened that they would have given up their arms, had not Caesar suddenly arrived;

nōn dubitō quīn, sī hōc dīxissēs, errātūrus fuerīs,¹ I do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have made a mistake.

- a. This peculiarity is confined to the Active Voice. In the Passive, such sentences, when they become dependent, remain unchanged; as, —

nōn dubitō quīn, sī hōc dīxissēs, vituperātus essēs, I do not doubt that, if you had said this, you would have been blamed.

- b. When an Indirect Question becomes an apodosis in a conditional sentence of the Third Type, *-ūrus fuerim* (rarely *-ūrus fuissēm*) is used; as, —

quaerō, num, sī hōc dīxissēs, errātūrus fuerīs (or fuissēs).

- c. *Potui*, when it becomes a dependent apodosis in sentences of this Type, usually changes to the Perfect Subjunctive; as, —

conkursū tōtius civitātis dēfēnsī sunt, ut frigidissimōs quoque ōrātōrēs populi studia excitāre potuerint, they were defended before a gathering of all the citizens, so that the interest of the people would have been enough to excite even the most apathetic orators.

IMPLIED INDIRECT DISCOURSE.

323. The Subjunctive is often used in subordinate clauses whose Indirect character is *merely implied by the context*; as, —

dēmōnstrābantur mihi praetereā, quae Sōcratēs dē immortālitate animōrum disseruisset, there were explained to me besides, the arguments which Socrates had set forth concerning the immortality of the soul (i.e. the arguments which, it was said, Socrates had set forth);

Paetus omnēs librōs quōs pater suus reliquisset mihi dōnāvit, Paetus gave me all the books which (as he said) his father had left.

¹ *Trāditūrī fuerint* and *errātūrus fuerīs* are to be regarded as representing *trāditūrī fuērunt* and *errātūrus fuistī* of Direct Discourse. (See § 304. 3. b.)

SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION.

324. 1. Subordinate clauses dependent upon the Subjunctive are frequently attracted into the same mood, especially when they do not express a fact, but constitute *an essential part of one complex idea*; as, —

nēmō avārus adhūc inventus est, cui, quod habēret, esset satis,
no miser has yet been found who was satisfied with what he had;

cum diversās causās afferrent, dum fōrmam suī quisque et animī et ingenī redderent, *as they brought forward different arguments, while each mirrored his own individual type of mind and natural bent;*

quod ego fatear, pudeat? *should I be ashamed of a thing which I admit?*

2. Similarly a subordinate clause dependent upon an Infinitive is put in the Subjunctive when the two form one closely united whole; as, —

mōs est Athēnīs quotanniīs in cōtiōne laudārī eōs quī sint in proeliis interfectī, *it is the custom at Athens every year for those to be publicly eulogized who have been killed in battle.* (Here the notion of 'praising those who fell in battle' forms an inseparable whole.)

NOUN AND ADJECTIVE FORMS OF THE VERB.

325. These are the Infinitive, Participle, Gerund, and Supine. All of these partake of the nature of the Verb, on the one hand, and of the Noun or Adjective, on the other. Thus: —

As Verbs, —

- a) They may be limited by adverbs;
- b) They admit an object;
- c) They have the properties of voice and tense.

As Nouns or Adjectives, —

- a) They are declined;
- b) They take Noun or Adjective constructions.

THE INFINITIVE.

Infinitive without Subject Accusative.

326. This is used chiefly as Subject or Object but also as Predicate or Appositive.

NOTE.—The Infinitive was originally a Dative, and traces of this are still to be seen in the poetical use of the Infinitive to express *purpose*; as, *nec dulcēs occurrent ōscula nātī praeripere*, and no sweet children will run to snatch kisses.

A. As Subject.

327. 1. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Subject of *esse* and various impersonal verbs, particularly *opus est*, *necesse est*, *oportet*, *juvat*, *dēlectat*, *placet*, *libet*, *licet*, *praestat*, *decet*, *pudet*, *interest*, *etc.*; as, —
dulce et decōrum est prō patriā morī, it is sweet and noble to die for one's country;
virōrum est fortium toleranter dolōrem patī, it is the part of brave men to endure pain with patience;
senātūī placuit lēgātōs mittere, the Senate decided (lit. it pleased the Senate) to send envoys.

2. Even though the Infinitive itself appears without Subject, it may take a Predicate Noun or Adjective in the Accusative; as, —
aliud est irācundum esse, aliud irātum, it is one thing to be irascible, another to be angry;
impūne quaelibet facere, id est rēgem esse, to do whatever you please with impunity, that is to be a king.

a. But when *licet* is followed by a Dative of the person, a Predicate Noun or Adjective with *esse* is attracted into the same case; as, *licuit esse ōtiōsō Themistoclī*, lit. it was permitted to Themistocles to be at leisure. So sometimes with other Impersonals.

B. As Object.

328. 1. The Infinitive without Subject Accusative is used as the Object of many verbs, to denote another action of the same subject, particularly after —

<i>volō, cupiō, mālō, nōlō;</i>	<i>cōgitō, meditor, purpose, intend;</i>
<i>dēbeō, ought;</i>	<i>neglegō, neglect;</i>
<i>statuō, cōstituō, decide;</i>	<i>vereor, timeō, fear;</i>

audeō, <i>dare</i> ;	mātūrō, festinō, properō, con-
studeō, contendō, <i>strive</i> ;	tendō, <i>hasten</i> ;
parō, <i>prepare</i> (so parātus);	assuēscō, cōnsuēscō, <i>accustom</i>
incipiō, coepī, instituō, <i>begin</i> ;	<i>myself</i> (so assuētus, insuētus,
pergō, <i>continue</i> ;	assuēfactus);
dēsinō, dēsisitō, <i>cease</i> ;	discō, <i>learn</i> ;
possum, <i>can</i> ;	sciō, <i>know how</i> ;
cōnor, <i>try</i> ;	soleō, <i>am wont</i> ; as, —

tū hōs intuērī audēs, *do you dare to look on these men?*

Dēmostenēs ad fluctūs maris dēclāmāre solēbat, *Demosthenes used to declaim by the waves of the sea.*

2. A Predicate Noun or Adjective with these Infinitives is attracted into the Nominative; as, —

beātus esse sine virtūte nēmō potest, *no one can be happy without virtue*;

Catō esse quam vidērī bonus mālēbat, *Cato preferred to be good rather than to seem so.*

Infinitive with Subject Accusative.

329. This is used chiefly as Subject or Object but also as Predicate or Appositive.

A. As Subject.

330. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative (like the simple Infinitive) is used as Subject with *esse* and Impersonal verbs, particularly with *aequum est*, *ūtile est*, *turpe est*, *fāma est*, *spēs est*, *fās est*, *nefās est*, *opus est*, *necesse est*, *oportet*, *cōnstat*, *praestat*, *licet*, *etc.*; as, —

nihil in bellō oportet contemnī, *nothing ought to be despised in war*;
apertum est sibi quemque nātūrā esse cārum, *it is manifest that by nature everybody is dear to himself.*

B. As Object.

331. The Infinitive with Subject Accusative is used as Object after the following classes of verbs:—

1. Most frequently after verbs of *saying*, *thinking*, *knowing*, *perceiving*, and the like (*Verba Sentiendī et Dēclārandī*). This is the

regular construction of Principal Clauses of Indirect Discourse. Verbs that take this construction are, among others, the following: *sentīō*, *audiō*, *videō*, *cognōscō*; *putō*, *jūdicō*, *spērō*, *cōfidō*; *sciō*, *meminī*; *dīcō*, *affirmō*, *negō* (*say that . . . not*), *trādō*, *nārrō*, *fateor*, *respondeō*, *scribō*, *prōmittō*, *glōrior*. Also the phrases: *certiōrem faciō* (*inform*), *memoriā teneō* (*remember*), etc.

Examples:—

Epicūrēi putant cum corporibus simul animōs interīre, the Epicureans think that the soul perishes with the body;

Thalēs dīxit aquam esse initium rērum, Thales said that water was the first principle of the universe;

Dēmocritus negat quicquid esse sempiternum, Democritus says nothing is everlasting;

spērō eum ventūrum esse, I hope that he will come.

II. With *jubeō*, *order*, and *vetō*, *forbid*; as,—

Caesar milītēs pontem facere jussit, Caesar ordered the soldiers to make a bridge.

a. When the name of the person who is ordered or forbidden to do something is omitted, the Infinitive with *jubeō* and *vetō* is put in the Passive; as, *Caesar pontem fieri jussit*.

III. With *patior* and *sinō*, *permit*, *allow*; as,—

nūllō sē implicārī negōtiō passus est, he did not permit himself to be involved in any difficulty.

IV. With *volō*, *nōlō*, *mālō*, *cupiō*, when the Subject of the Infinitive is different from that of the governing verb; as,—

nec mihi hunc errōrem extorquērī volō, nor do I wish this error to be wrested from me;

eās rēs jactārī nōlēbat, he was unwilling that these matters should be discussed;

tē tuīs dīvitiīs fruī cupimus, we desire that you enjoy your wealth.

a. When the Subject of both verbs is the same, the simple Infinitive is regularly used in accordance with § 328. 1. But exceptions occur, especially in case of *esse* and Passive Infinitives; as,—

cupiō mē esse clēmentem, I desire to be lenient;

Timoleōn māluit sē diligī quam metuī, Timoleon preferred to be loved rather than feared.

b. *Volō* also admits the Subjunctive, with or without *ut*; *nōlō* the Subjunctive alone. (See § 296. 1. a.)

V. With Verbs of *emotion* (*joy, sorrow, regret, etc.*), especially *gaudeō, laetor, doleō; aegrē ferō, molestē ferō, graviter ferō, am annoyed, distressed; mīror, queror, indignor; as, —*

gaudeō tē saluum advenīre, I rejoice that you arrive safely;
nōn molestē ferunt sē libīdinum vinculis laxātōs esse, they are
not troubled at being released from the bonds of passion;
mīror tē ad mē nihil scribere, I wonder that you write me nothing.

a. Instead of an Infinitive these verbs also sometimes admit a *quod*-clause as Object. (See § 299.) Thus:—

mīror quod nōn loqueris, I wonder that you do not speak.

VI. Some verbs which take two Accusatives, one of the Person and the other of the Thing (§ 178, 1), may substitute an Infinitive for the second Accusative; as, —

cōgō tē hōc facere, I compel you to do this (cf. tē hōc cōgō);
docuī tē contentum esse, I taught you to be content (cf. tē modestiam docuī, I taught you temperance).

Passive Construction of the Foregoing Verbs.

332. Those verbs which in the Active are followed by the Infinitive with Subject Accusative, usually admit the personal construction in the Passive. This is true of the following and of some others:—

a) *jubeor, vetor, sinor; as, —*

mīlitēs pontem facere jussī sunt, the soldiers were ordered to build a bridge;

pōns fierī jussus est, a bridge was ordered built;

mīlitēs castrīs exīre vetitī sunt, the troops were forbidden to go out of the camp;

Sēstius Clōdium accūsāre nōn est situs, Sestius was not allowed to accuse Clodius.

b) *videor, I am seen, I seem; as, —*

vidētur comperisse, he seems to have discovered.

c) *dīcor, putor, exīstimor, jūdīcor (in all persons); as, —*

dīcitur in Italiam vēnisse, he is said to have come into Italy;

Rōmulus prīmus rēx Rōmānōrum fuisse putātur, Romulus is thought to have been the first king of the Romans.

d) fertur, feruntur, trāditur, trāduntur (only in the third person); as, —

fertur Homērus caecus fuisse, Homer is said to have been blind;

carmina Archilochī contumēliis referta esse trāduntur, Archilochus's poems are reported to have been full of abuse.

NOTE. — In compound tenses and periphrastic forms, the last two classes of verbs, *c)*, *d)*, more commonly take the impersonal construction; as, —

trāditum est Homērum caecum fuisse, the story goes that Homer was blind.

Infinitive with Adjectives.

333. The Infinitive with Adjectives (except *parātus, assuētus*, etc.; see § 328, 1) occurs only in poetry and post-Augustan prose writers; as, —

contentus dēmōnstrāsse, contented to have proved;
audāx omnia perpetī, bold for enduring everything.

Infinitive in Exclamations.

334. The Infinitive is used in Exclamations implying *scorn, indignation, or regret*. An intensive *-ne* is often attached to some word in the clause. Examples: —

huncine sōlem tam nigrum surrēxe mihi, to think that to-day's sun rose with such evil omen for me!
sedēre tōtōs diēs in villā, to stay whole days at the villa!

Historical Infinitive.

335. The Infinitive is often used in historical narrative instead of the Imperfect Indicative. The Subject stands in the Nominative; as, —
interim cottīdiē Caesar Haeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre, meanwhile Caesar was daily demanding grain of the Haedui.

PARTICIPLES.

Tenses of the Participle.

336. 1. The tenses of the Participle, like those of the Infinitive (see § 270), express time not absolutely, but with reference to the verb upon which the Participle depends.

2. The Present Participle denotes action *contemporary with* that of the verb. Thus :—

audiō tē loquentem = *you ARE speaking and I hear you ;*

audiēbam tē loquentem = *you WERE speaking and I heard you ;*

audiam tē loquentem = *you WILL BE speaking and I shall hear you.*

a. The Present Participle is sometimes employed with Conative force ; as, —

assurgentem rēgem resupīnat, *as the king was trying to rise, he threw him down.*

3. The Perfect Passive Participle denotes action *prior to* that of the verb. Thus :—

locūtus taceō = *I HAVE spoken and am silent ;*

locūtus tacuī = *I HAD spoken and then was silent ;*

locūtus tacēbō = *I SHALL speak and then shall be silent.*

4. The absolute time of the action of a participle, therefore, is determined entirely by the finite verb with which it is connected.

5. Certain Perfect Passive Participles of Deponent and Semi-Deponent Verbs are used as Presents ; *viz.* **arbitrātus, ausus, ratus, gāvīsus, solitus, ūsus, cōnfīsus, diffīsus, secūtus, veritus.**

Use of Participles.

337. As an Adjective the Participle may be used either as an attributive or predicate modifier of a Substantive.

1. Attributive Use. This presents no special peculiarities. Examples are :—

glōria est cōsentiēns laus bonōrum, *glory is the unanimous praise of the good ;*

Conōn mūrōs ā Lysandrō dīrutōs reficit, *Conon restored the walls destroyed by Lysander.*

2. Predicate Use. Here the Participle is often equivalent to a subordinate clause. Thus the Participle may denote :—

a) Time ; as, —

omne malum nāscēns facile opprimitur, *every evil is easily crushed at birth.*

b) A Condition ; as, —

mente ūtī nōn possumus cibō et pōtiōne complētī, *if gorged with food and drink, we cannot use our intellects.*

c) Manner; as, —

Solōn senēscere sē dīcēbat multa in diēs addiscentem,
Solon said he grew old learning many new things daily.

d) Means; as, —

sōl oriēns diem cōnficit, *the sun, by its rising, makes the day.*

e) Opposition ('though'); as, —

mendācī hominī nē vērū quidem dīcentī crēdimus,
we do not believe a liar, though he speaks the truth.

f) Cause; as, —

perfidiam veritus ad suōs recessit, *since he feared treachery, he returned to his own troops.*

3. **Videō** and **audiō**, besides the Infinitive, take the Present Participle in the Predicate use; as, —

videō tē fugientem, *I see you fleeing.*

a. So frequently **faciō**, **ingō**, **inducō**, etc.; as, —

eīs Catōnem respondentem facimus, *we represent Cato replying to them;*

Homērus Laërtem colentem agrum facit, *Homer represents Laërtes tilling the field.*

4. The Future Active Participle (except **futūrus**) is regularly confined to its use in the Periphrastic Conjugation, but in poets and later writers it is used independently, especially to denote *purpose*; as, —

vēnērunt castra oppugnātūrī, *they came to assault the camp.*

5. The Perfect Passive Participle is often equivalent to a coördinate clause; as, —

urbem captam diruit, *he captured and destroyed the city (lit. he destroyed the city captured).*

6. The Perfect Passive Participle in combination with a noun is sometimes equivalent to an abstract noun with a dependent Genitive; as, —

post urbem conditam, *after the founding of the city;*

Quīnctius dēfēnsus, *the defense of Quinctius;*

quibus animus occupātus, *the preoccupation of the mind with which.*

7. **Habeō** sometimes takes a Perfect Passive Participle in the Predicate construction with a force not far removed from that of the Perfect or Pluperfect Indicative; as, —

cōpiās quās coāctās habēbat, *the forces which he had collected.*

8. The Gerundive denotes *obligation, necessity, etc.* Like other Participles it may be used either as Attributive or Predicate.

- a) Less frequently as Attributive. Thus :—
liber legendus, a book worth reading;
lēgēs observandae, laws deserving of observance.
- b) More frequently as Predicate.

1) In the Passive Periphrastic Conjugation (*amandus est, etc.*). In this use Intransitive Verbs can be used only impersonally, but admit their ordinary case-construction (Gen., Dat., Abl.); as, —

veniendum est, it is necessary to come;
oblīviscendum est injūriarum, one must forget injuries;
numquam prōditōrī crēdendum est, you must never trust a traitor;
suō cuique ūtendum est jūdiciō, every man must use his own judgment.

2) After *cūrō, provide for; dō, trādō, give over; relinquo, leave; concēdō, hand over;* and some other verbs, instead of an object clause or to denote purpose; as, —

Caesar pōntem in Ararī faciendum cūrāvit, Caesar provided for the construction of a bridge over the Arar;
imperātor urbem mīlitibus dīripiendam concessit, the general handed over the city to the soldiers to plunder.

9. For the Gerundive as the equivalent of the Gerund, see § 339, 1.

THE GERUND.

338. As a verbal noun the Gerund admits noun constructions as follows :—

1. **Genitive.** The Genitive of the Gerund is used —

- a) With Nouns, as Objective or Appositional Genitive (see §§ 200, 202); as, —
cupiditās dominandī, desire of ruling;
ars scribendī, the art of writing.
- b) With Adjectives; as, —
cupidus audiendī, desirous of hearing.
- c) With *causā, grātiā;* as, —
discendī causā, for the sake of learning.

2. **Dative.** The Dative of the Gerund is used —

a) With Adjectives ; as, —

aqua utilis est bibendō, water is useful for drinking.

b) With Verbs (rarely) ; as, —

adfui scribendō, I was present at the writing.

3. **Accusative.** The Accusative of the Gerund is used only with Prepositions, chiefly *ad* and *in* to denote purpose ; as, —

homō ad agendum nātus est, man is born for action.

4. **Ablative.** The Ablative of the Gerund is used —

a) Without a Preposition, as an Ablative of Means, Cause, etc. (see §§ 218, 219) ; as, —

mēns discendō alitur et cōgitandō, the mind is nourished by learning and reflection.

Themistoclēs maritimōs praedōnēs cōnsectandō mare tūtum reddidit, Themistocles made the sea safe by following up the pirates.

b) After the prepositions *ā, dē, ex, in* ; as, —

summa voluptās ex discendō capitur, the keenest pleasure is derived from learning ;

multa dē bene beātēque vivendō ā Platōne disputāta sunt, there was much discussion by Plato on the subject of living well and happily.

5. As a rule, only the Genitive of the Gerund and the Ablative (without a preposition) admit a Direct Object.

Gerundive Construction instead of the Gerund.

339. 1. Instead of the Genitive or Ablative of the Gerund with a Direct Object, another construction *may be, and very often is, used*. This consists in putting the Direct Object in the case of the Gerund (Gen. or Abl.) and using the Gerundive in agreement with it. This is called the Gerundive Construction. Thus : —

GERUND CONSTRUCTION.

*cupidus urbem videndī, desirous
of seeing the city ;*

*dēlector ōrātōrēs legendō, I am
charmed with reading the orators.*

GERUNDIVE CONSTRUCTION.

cupidus urbis videndae ;

dēlector ōrātōribus legendis.

2. The Gerundive Construction *must be used* to avoid a Direct Object with the Dative of the Gerund, or with a case dependent upon a Preposition; as,—

locus castris muniendis aptus, *a place adapted to fortifying a camp*;
ad pacem petendam venerunt, *they came to ask peace*;
multum temporis consumō in legendis poetis, *I spend much time in reading the poets.*

3. In order to avoid ambiguity (see § 236, 2), the Gerundive Construction must not be employed in case of Neuter Adjectives used substantively. Thus regularly —

philosophi cupidi sunt verum investigandi, *philosophers are eager for discovering truth* (rarely **veri investigandi**) ;
studium plura cognoscendi, *a desire of knowing more* (not **plurium cognoscendorum**).

4. From the nature of the case only Transitive Verbs can be used in the Gerundive Construction; but **utor**, **fruor**, **fungor**, **potior** (originally transitive) regularly admit it; as,—

hostes in spem potiundorum castrorum venerant, *the enemy had conceived the hope of gaining possession of the camp.*

5. The Genitives **mei**, **tui**, **sui**, **nostri**, **vestri**, when used in the Gerundive Construction, are regularly employed without reference to Gender or Number, since they were originally Neuter Singular Adjectives used substantively. Thus:—

mulier sui servandi causā aufugit, *the woman fled for the sake of saving herself*;

legati in castra venerunt sui purgandi causā, *the envoys came into camp for the purpose of clearing themselves.*

So nostri servandi causā, *for the sake of saving ourselves.*

6. Occasionally the Genitive of the Gerundive Construction is used to denote *purpose*; as,—

quae ille cepit legum ac libertatis subvertundae, *which he undertook for the purpose of overthrowing the laws and liberty.*

7. The Dative of the Gerundive Construction occurs in some expressions which have the character of formulas; as,—

decemviri legibus scribundis, *decemvirs for codifying the laws*;
quindecimviri sacris faciundis, *quindecimvirs for performing the sacrifices.*

THE SUPINE.

340. 1. The Supine in **-um** is used after Verbs of motion to express *purpose*; as, —

lēgātī ad Caesarem grātulātum convēnērunt, *envoys came to Caesar to congratulate him.*

a. The Supine in **-um** may take an Object; as, —

pācem petītum orātōrēs Rōmam mittunt, *they send envoys to Rome to ask for peace.*

b. Note the phrase: —

dō (collocō) filiam nūptum, *I give my daughter in marriage.*

2. The Supine in **-ū** is used as an Ablative of Specification with **facilis**, **difficilis**, **incrēdibilis**, **jūcundus**, **optimus**, *etc.*; also with **fās est**, **nefās est**, **opus est**; as, —

haec rēs est facilis cognitū, *this thing is easy to learn*;

hōc est optimum factū, *this is best to do.*

a. Only a few Supines in **-ū** are in common use, chiefly **audītū**, **cognitū**, **dictū**, **factū**, **vīsū**.

b. The Supine in **-ū** never takes an Object.

CHAPTER VI. — *Particles.*

COÖRDINATE CONJUNCTIONS.

341. **Copulative Conjunctions.** These *join* one word, phrase, or clause to another.

1. *a)* **et** simply connects.

b) **-que** joins more closely than **et**, and is used especially where the two members have an internal connection with each other; as, —

parentēs liberīque, *parents and children*;

cum hominēs aestū febrīque jactantur, *when people are tossed about with heat and fever.*

- c) **atque (ac)** usually emphasizes the second of the two things connected, — *and also, and indeed, and in fact*. After words of likeness and difference **atque (ac)** has the force of *as, than*. Thus : —

ego idem sentiō ac tū, I think the same as you ;
haud aliter ac, not otherwise than.

- d) **neque (nec)** means *and not, neither, nor*.
2. a) **-que** is an enclitic, and is appended always to the second of two words connected. Where it connects phrases or clauses it is appended to the first word of the second clause ; but when the first word of the second clause is a Preposition, **-que** is regularly appended to the next following word ; as, —
ob eamque rem, and on account of that thing.
- b) **atque** is used before vowels and consonants ; **ac** never before vowels, and seldom before **c, g, qu**.
- c) **et nōn** is used for **neque** when the emphasis of the negative rests upon a special word ; as, —
vetus et nōn ignōbilis ōrātor, an old and not ignoble orator.
- d) For *and nowhere, and never, and none*, the Latin regularly said **nec ūsquā, nec umquā, nec ūllus, etc.**

3. **Correlatives.** Copulative Conjunctions are frequently used correlatively ; as, —

et . . . et, both . . . and ;
neque (nec) . . . neque (nec), neither . . . nor ;
cum . . . tum, while . . . at the same time ;
tum . . . tum, not only . . . but also.

Less frequently : —

et . . . neque ; neque . . . et.

- a. Note that the Latin, with its tendency to emphasize antithetical relations, often uses correlatives, especially **et . . . et, et . . . neque, neque . . . et**, where the English employs but a single connective.

4. **In enumerations —**

- a) The different members of a series may follow one another without connectives (Asyndeton ; see § 346). Thus : —

ex cupiditātibus odia, discidia, discordiae, sēditionēs,
bella nāscuntur, from covetous desires spring up
hatred, dissensions, discord, sedition, wars.

- b) The different members may severally be connected by **et** (Polysyndeton). Thus:—

hōrae cēdunt et diēs et mēnsēs et annī, *hours and days and years and months pass away.*

- c) The connective may be omitted between the former members, while the last two are connected by **-que** (rarely **et**); as,—

Caesar in Carnutēs, Andēs Turonēsque legiōnēs dēdūcit, *Caesar leads his legions into the territory of the Carnutes, Andes, and Turones.*

342. Disjunctive Conjunctions indicate an *alternative*.

1. a) **aut** must be used when the alternatives are mutually exclusive; as,—

cita mors venit aut victōria laeta, (*either*) *swift death or glad victory comes.*

- b) **vel**, **-ve** (enclitic) imply a choice between the alternatives; as,—

quī aethēr vel caelum nōminātur, *which is called aether or heaven.*

2. **Correlatives**. Disjunctive Conjunctions are often used correlatively; as,—

aut . . . aut, *either . . . or*;

vel . . . vel, *either . . . or*;

sive . . . sive, *if or if*.

343. Adversative Conjunctions. These denote *opposition*.

1. a) **sed**, *but*, merely denotes opposition.
 b) **vērūm**, *but*, is stronger than **sed**, but is less frequently used.
 c) **autem**, *but on the other hand, however*, marks a transition. It is always post-positive.

DEFINITION. A post-positive word is one that cannot begin a sentence, but is placed after one or more words.

- d) **at**, *but*, is used especially in disputation, to introduce an opposing argument.
 e) **atquī** means *but yet*.
 f) **tamen**, *yet*, usually stands after the emphatic word, but not always.
 g) **vērō**, *however, indeed, in truth*, is always post-positive.

2. Note the correlative expressions : —

nōn solum (**nōn modo**) . . . **sed etiam**, *not only . . . but also* ;
nōn modo nōn . . . **sed nē** . . . **quidem**, *not only not, but not even* ; as, —

nōn modo tibi nōn irāscor, **sed nē reprehendō quidem factum tuum**, *I not only am not angry with you, but I do not even blame your action.*

a. But when the sentence has but one verb, and this stands with the second member, **nōn modo** may be used for **nōn modo nōn** ; as, —

adsentātiō nōn modo amīcō sed nē liberō quidem digna est, *flattery is not only not worthy of a friend, but not even of a free man.*

344. Illative Conjunctions. These represent the statement which they introduce as *following from* or as *in conformity with* what has preceded.

1. a) **itaque** = *and so, accordingly.*
 b) **ergō** = *therefore, accordingly.*
 c) **igitur** (regularly post-positive¹) = *therefore, accordingly.*

2. **Igitur** is never combined with **et**, **atque**, **-que**, or **neque**.

345. Causal Conjunctions. These denote *cause*, or *give an explanation*. They are **nam**, **namque**, **enim** (post-positive), **etenim**, *for*.

346. Asyndeton. The conjunction is sometimes omitted between coördinate members, particularly in lively or impassioned narration. Thus : —

a) A Copulative Conjunction is omitted ; as, —

avāritia infīnīta īnsatiābilis est, *avarice is boundless (and) insatiable* ;

Cn. Pompejō, M. Crassō cōsulibus, *in the consulship of Gnaeus Pompey (and) Marcus Crassus.*

The conjunction is regularly omitted between the names of consuls when the praenomen (*Mārcus, Gāius, etc.*) is expressed.

b) An Adversative Conjunction may be omitted ; as, —

ratiōnēs dēfuerunt, ūbertās ōrātiōnis nōn dēfuit, *arguments were lacking, (but) abundance of words was not.*

¹ Except in Sallust and Silver Latin.

ADVERBS.

347. 1. The following particles, sometimes classed as Conjunctions, are more properly Adverbs :—

etiam, also, even.

quoque (always post-positive), also.

quidem (always post-positive) lays stress upon the preceding word.

It is sometimes equivalent to the English *indeed*, *in fact*, but more frequently cannot be rendered, except by vocal emphasis.

nē . . . *quidem* means *not even*; the emphatic word or phrase always stands between; as, *nē ille quidem*, *not even he*.

tamen and *vērō*, in addition to their use as Conjunctions, are often employed as Adverbs.

2. **Negatives.** Two Negatives are regularly equivalent to an affirmative as in English, as *nōn nūllī*, *some*; but when *nōn*, *nēmō*, *nihil*, *numquam*, *etc.*, are accompanied by *neque* . . . *neque*, *nōn* . . . *nōn*, *nōn modo*, or *nē* . . . *quidem*, the latter particles simply take up the negation and emphasize it; as,—

habēō hīc nēmīnem neque amīcum neque cognātum, *I have here no one, neither friend nor relative*.

nōn enim praetereundum est nē id quidem, *for not even that must be passed by*.

a. **Haud** in Cicero and Caesar occurs almost exclusively as a modifier of Adjectives and Adverbs, and in the phrase *haud sciō an*. Later writers use it freely with verbs.



CHAPTER VII.—Word-Order and Sentence-Structure.

A. WORD-ORDER.

348. In the normal arrangement of the Latin sentence the Subject stands at the beginning of the sentence, the Predicate at the end; as,—

Dārius classem quīngentārum nāvium comparāvit, *Darius got ready a fleet of five hundred ships*.

349. But for the sake of emphasis the normal arrangement is often abandoned, and the emphatic word is put at the beginning, less frequently at the end of the sentence ; as, —

magnus in hōc bellō Themistoclēs fuit, GREAT was Themistocles in this war ;

aliud iter habēmus nūllum, other course we have NONE.

SPECIAL PRINCIPLES.

350. 1. **Nouns.** A Genitive or other oblique case regularly follows the word upon which it depends. Thus : —

a) Depending upon a Noun : —

tribūnus plēbis, tribune of the plebs ;

filius rēgis, son of the king ;

vir magnī animī, a man of noble spirit.

Yet always senātūs cōsultum, plēbis scītum.

b) Depending upon an Adjective : —

ignārus rērum, ignorant of affairs ;

dignī amīcitiā, worthy of friendship ;

plūs aequō, more than (what is) fair.

2. **Appositives.** An Appositive regularly follows its Subject ; as, —

Philippus, rēx Macedonum, Philip, king of the Macedonians ;

adsentātiō, vitiōrum adjūtrīx, flattery, promoter of evils.

Yet flūmen Rhēnus, the River Rhine ; and always in good prose urbs Rōma, the city Rome.

3. The **Vocative** usually follows one or more words ; as, —

audī, Caesar, hear, Caesar !

4. **Adjectives.** No general law can be laid down for the position of Adjectives. On the whole they precede the noun oftener than they follow it.

a. Adjectives of *quantity* (including *numerals*) regularly precede their noun ; as, —

omnēs hominēs, all men ;

septingentae nāvēs, seven hundred vessels.

- b. Note the force of position in the following:—

media urbs, the middle of the city;
urbs media, the middle city;
extrēmum bellum, the end of the war;
bellum extrēmum, the last war.

- c. *Rōmānus* and *Latīnus* regularly follow; as,—

senātus populusque Rōmānus, the Roman Senate and People;
lūdī Rōmānī, the Roman games;
fēriæ Latīnae, the Latin holidays.

- d. When a Noun is modified both by an Adjective and by a Genitive, a favorite order is: Adjective, Genitive, Noun; as,—

summa omnium rērum abundantia, the greatest abundance of all things.

5. Pronouns.

- a. The Demonstrative, Relative, and Interrogative Pronouns regularly precede the Noun; as,—

hic homō, this man;
ille homō, that man;
erant duo itinera, quibus itineribus, etc., there were two routes, by which, etc.
quī homō? what sort of a man?

- b. But *ille* in the sense of 'that well known,' 'that famous,' usually stands after its Noun; as,—

testula illa, that well-known custom of ostracism;
Mēdēa illa, that famous Medea.

- c. Possessive and Indefinite Pronouns usually follow their Noun; as,—

pater meus, my father;
homō quīdam, a certain man;
mulier aliqua, some woman.

But for purposes of contrast the Possessive often precedes its Noun; as,—

meus pater, MY father (i.e. as opposed to yours, his, etc.).

- d. Where two or more Pronouns occur in the same sentence, the Latin is fond of putting them in close proximity; as,—

nisi forte ego vōbīs cessāre videor, unless perchance I seem to you to be doing nothing.

6. Adverbs and Adverbial phrases regularly precede the word they modify ; as, —

valdē dīligēns, *extremely diligent* ;
saepe dīxī, *I have often said* ;
tē jam diū hortāmur, *we have long been urging you* ;
paulō post, *a little after*.

7. Prepositions regularly precede the words they govern.

a. But limiting words often intervene between the Preposition and its case ; as, —

dē commūnī hominū memoriā, *concerning the common memory of men* ;
ad beātū vīvendum, *for living happily*.

b. When a noun is modified by an Adjective, the Adjective is often placed before the preposition ; as, —

magnō in dolōre, *in great grief* ;
summā cum laude, *with the highest credit* ;
quā dē causā, *for which cause* ;
hanc ob rem, *on account of this thing*.

c. For Anastrophe, by which a Preposition is put after its case, see § 144. 3.

8. Conjunctions. Autem, enim, and igitur regularly stand in the second place in the sentence, but when combined with est or sunt they often stand third ; as, —

ita est enim, *for so it is*.

9. Words or Phrases referring to the preceding sentence or to some part of it, regularly stand first ; as, —

id ut audīvit, Corcyrā dēmigrāvit, *when he heard that (referring to the contents of the preceding sentence), he moved to Corcyra* ;
eō cum Caesar vēnisset, timentēs cōfirmat, *when Caesar had come thither (i.e. to the place just mentioned), he encouraged the timid*.

10. The Latin has a fondness for putting side by side words which are etymologically related ; as, —

ut ad senem senex dē senectūte, sic hōc librō ad amīcum amīcissimus dē amīcitiā scrīpsī, *as I, an old man, wrote to an old man, on old age, so in this book, as a fond friend, I have written to a friend concerning friendship*.

11. Special rhetorical devices for indicating emphasis are the following :—

- a) **Hypérbaton**, which consists in the separation of words that regularly stand together ; as, —

septimus mihi Originum liber est in manibus, *the seventh book of my 'Origines' is under way* ;
receptō Caesar Ōricō proficiscitur, *having recovered Oricus, Caesar set out*.

- b) **Anáphora**, which consists in the repetition of the same word or the same word-order in successive phrases ; as, —

sed plēnī omnēs sunt librī, plēnae sapientium vōcēs, plēna exemplōrum vetustās, *but all books are full of it, the voices of sages are full of it, antiquity is full of examples of it*.

- c) **Chiasmus**,¹ which consists in changing the relative order of words in two antithetical phrases ; as, —

multōs dēfendī, laesi nēminem, *many have I defended, I have injured no one* ;
horribilem illum diēm aliīs, nōbīs faustum, *that day dreadful to others, for us fortunate*.

- d) **Sýnchysis**, or the interlocked arrangement. This is mostly confined to poetry, yet occurs in rhetorical prose, especially that of the Imperial Period ; as, —

simulātam Pompejānārum grātiām partium, *pretended interest in the Pompeian party*.

12. **Metrical Close**. At the end of a sentence certain cadences were avoided ; others were much employed. Thus :—

- a) Cadences avoided.

— ∪ — ∪ ; as, **esse vidētur** (close of hexameter).

— ∪ ∪ ; as, **esse potest** (close of pentameter).

- b) Cadences frequently employed.

— ∪ — ; as, **auxerant**.

— ∪ — ∪ ; as, **comprobāvit**.

— ∪ ∪ ∪ — ∪ ; as, **esse videātur**.

∪ — — ∪ — ; as, **rogātū tuō**.

¹ So named from a fancied analogy to the strokes of the Greek letter X (*chi*).
 Thus :—

multōs laesi
 X
 dēfendī nēminem

B. SENTENCE-STRUCTURE.

351. 1. Unity of Subject.—In complex sentences the Latin regularly holds to unity of Subject in the different members; as,—
Caesar primum suō, deinde omnium ex cōspectū remōtīs equīs, ut aequātō periculō spem fugae tolleret, cohortātus suōs proelium commisit, *Caesar having first removed his own horse from sight, then the horses of all, in order, by making the danger equal, to take away hope of flight, encouraged his men and joined battle.*

2. A word serving as the common Subject or Object of the main clause and a subordinate one, stands before both; as,—

Haedui cum sē dēfendere nōn possent, lēgātōs ad Caesarem mittunt, *since the Haedui could not defend themselves, they sent envoys to Caesar;*

ille etsī flagrābat bellandī cupiditatē, tamen pācī serviendum putāvit, *although he was burning with a desire to fight, yet he thought he ought to aim at peace.*

a. The same is true also

1) When the Subject of the main clause is Object (Direct or Indirect) of a subordinate clause; as,—

Caesar, cum hōc eī nūntiatum esset, mātūrat ab urbe proficiscī, *when this had been reported to Caesar he hastened to set out from the city.*

2) When the Subject of a subordinate clause is at the same time the Object (Direct or Indirect) of the main clause; as,—

L. Mānliō, cum dictātor fuisset, M. Pompōnius tribūnus plēbis diem dīxit, *M. Pomponius, tribune of the people, instituted proceedings against Lucius Manlius though he had been dictator.*

3. Of subordinate clauses, temporal, conditional, and adversative clauses more commonly precede the main clause; indirect questions and clauses of purpose or result more commonly follow; as,—

postquam haec dīxit, profectus est, *after he said this, he set out;*
sī quis ita agat, imprūdēs sit, *if any one should act so, he would be devoid of foresight;*

accidit ut unā nocte omnēs Hermae dēicerentur, *it happened that in a single night all the Hermae were thrown down.*

4. Sometimes in Latin the main verb is placed within the subordinate clause; as, —

sī quid est in mē ingenī, quod sentiō quam sit exiguum, if there is any talent in me, and I know how little it is.

5. **The Latin Period.** The term Period, when strictly used, designates a compound sentence in which the subordinate clauses are inserted within the main clause; as, —

Caesar etsī intellegēbat quā dē causā ea dīcerentur, tamen, nē aestātem in Trēverīs cōnsūmere cōgerētur, Indutiomarum ad sē venīre iussit, though Caesar perceived why this was said, yet, lest he should be forced to spend the summer among the Treveri, he ordered Indutiomarus to come to him.

In the Periodic structure the thought is suspended until the end of the sentence is reached. Many Roman writers were extremely fond of this sentence-structure, and it was well adapted to the inflectional character of their language; in English we generally avoid it.

6. When there are several subordinate clauses in one Period, the Latin so arranges them as to avoid a succession of verbs. Thus: —

At hostēs cum mīsissent, quī, quae in castrīs gererentur, cognōscerent, ubi sē dēceptōs intellēxērunt, omnibus cōpiīs subsecūtī ad flūmen contendunt, but the enemy when they had sent men to learn what was going on in camp, after discovering that they had been outwitted, followed with all their forces and hurried to the river.



CHAPTER VIII. — Hints on Latin Style.

352. In this chapter brief consideration is given to a few features of Latin diction which belong rather to style than to formal grammar.

NOUNS.

353. 1. Where a distinct reference to several persons or things is involved, the Latin is frequently *much more exact in the use of the Plural* than is the English; as, —

domōs eunt, *they go home (i.e. to their homes)* ;
Germānī corpora cūrant, *the Germans care for the body* ;
animōs militum recreat, *he renews the courage of the soldiers* ;
diēs noctēsque timēre, *to be in a state of fear day and night*.

2. In case of Neuter Pronouns and Adjectives used substantively the Latin often employs the Plural where the English uses the Singular ; as, —

omnia sunt perditā, *everything is lost* ;
quae cum ita sint, *since this is so* ;
haec omnibus pervulgāta sunt, *this is very well known to all*.

3. The Latin is usually *more concrete* than the English, and especially *less bold in the personification* of abstract qualities. Thus : —

ā puerō, ā puerīs, *from boyhood* ;
Sullā dictātōre, *in Sulla's dictatorship* ;
mē dūce, *under my leadership* ;
Rōmānī cum Carthāginiēnsibus pācem fēcērunt = *Rome made peace with Carthage* ;
liber doctrīnae plēnus = *a learned book* ;
prūdentiā Themistoclis Graecia servāta est = *Themistocles's foresight saved Greece*.

4. The Nouns of Agency in **-tor** and **-sor** (see § 147. 1) denote a *permanent* or *characteristic activity* ; as, —

accūsātōrēs (*professional*) *accusers* ;
ōrātōrēs, *pleaders* ;
cantōrēs, *singers* ;
Arminius, Germāniae liberātor, *Arminius, liberator of Germany*.

a. To denote *single instances* of an action, other expressions are commonly employed ; as, —

Numa, quī Rōmulō successit, *Numa, successor of Romulus* ;
quī mea legunt, *my readers* ;
quī mē audiunt, *my auditors*.

5. The Latin avoids the use of prepositional phrases as modifiers of a Noun. In English we say : ‘*The war against Carthage*’ ; ‘*a journey through Gaul*’ ; ‘*cities on the sea*’ ; ‘*the book in my hands*’ ; ‘*the fight at Salamis*’ ; etc. The Latin in such cases usually employs another mode of expression. Thus : —

a) A Genitive ; as, —

dolor injuriarum, *resentment at injuries*.

b) An Adjective; as, —

urbēs maritimae, *cities on the sea*;
pugna Salamīnia, *the fight at Salamis*.

c) A Participle; as, —

pugna ad Cannās facta, *the battle at Cannae*.

d) A Relative clause; as, —

liber quī in meis manibus est, *the book in my hands*.

NOTE. — Yet within certain limits the Latin does employ Prepositional phrases as Noun modifiers. This is particularly frequent when the governing noun is derived from a verb. The following are typical examples: —

trānsitus in Britanniam, *the passage to Britain*;
excessus ē vitā, *departure from life*;
odium ergā Rōmānōs, *hatred of the Romans*;
liber dē senectūte, *the book on old age*;
amor in patriam, *love for one's country*.

ADJECTIVES.

354. I. Special Latin Equivalents for English Adjectives are —

a) A Genitive; as, —

virtūtēs animī = *moral virtues*;
dolōrēs corporis = *bodily ills*.

b) An Abstract Noun; as, —

novitās rei = *the strange circumstance*;
asperitās viārum = *rough roads*.

c) Hendiadys (see § 374, 4); as, —

ratio et ordo = *systematic order*;
ardor et impetus = *eager onset*.

d) Sometimes an Adverb; as, —

omnēs circā populī, *all the surrounding tribes*;
suos semper hostēs, *their perpetual foes*.

2. Often a Latin Noun is equivalent to an English Noun modified by an Adjective; as, —

doctrīna, *theoretical knowledge*;
oppidum, *walled town*;

prudentia, *practical knowledge*;
libellus, *little book*.

3. Adjectives are not used in immediate agreement with proper names; but an Adjective may limit *vir*, *homō*, *ille*, or some other word used as an Appositive of a proper name; as, —

Sōcratēs, *homō sapiēns* = *the wise Socrates* ;

Scīpiō, *vir fortissimus* = *the doughty Scipio* ;

Syrācūsae, *urbs praeclārissima* = *famous Syracuse*.

4. An Adjective *may be* equivalent to a Possessive or Subjective Genitive; as —

pāstor rēgius, *the shepherd of the king* ;

tumultus servīlis, *the uprising of the slaves*.

PRONOUNS.

355. In Compound Sentences the Relative Pronoun has a fondness for connecting itself with the subordinate clause rather than the main one; as, —

ā quō cum quaererētur, quid maximē expedit, respondit, when it was asked of him what was best, he replied. (Less commonly, *quī, cum ab eō quaererētur, respondit.*)

2. *Uterque*, *ambō*. *Uterque* means *each of two*; *ambō* means *both*; as, —

uterque frāter abiit, *each of the two brothers departed (i.e. separately)* ;

ambō frātrēs abiērunt, *i.e. the two brothers departed together*.

a. The Plural of *uterque* occurs —

1) With Nouns used only in the Plural (see § 56); as, —
in utrīque castrīs, *in each camp*.

2) Where there is a distinct reference to two groups of persons or things; as, —

utrīque ducēs clārī fuērunt, *the generals on each side (several in number) were famous*.

VERBS.

356. 1. In case of Defective and Deponent Verbs, a Passive is supplied: —

a) By the corresponding verbal Nouns in combination with *esse*, *etc.*; as, —

in odiō sumus, *we are hated* ;

in invidiā sum, *I am envied* ;

admīrātiōnī est, he is admired;

oblīviōne obruitur, he is forgotten (lit. is overwhelmed by oblivion);

in ūsū esse, to be used.

b) By the Passive of Verbs of related meaning. Thus:—

agitārī as Passive of persequī;

temptārī as Passive of adorārī.

2. The lack of the Perfect Active Participle in Latin is supplied —

a) Sometimes by the Perfect Passive Participle of the Dependent; as,—

adhortātus, having exhorted;

veritus, having feared.

b) By the Ablative Absolute; as,—

hostium agrīs vāstātīs Caesar exercitum redūxit, having ravaged the country of the enemy, Caesar led back his army.

c) By subordinate clauses; as,—

eō cum advēnisset, castra posuit, having arrived there, he pitched a camp;

hostēs quī in urbem irrūperant, the enemy having burst into the city.

3. The Latin agrees with English in the stylistic employment of the Second Person Singular in an indefinite sense (= 'one'). Cf. the English 'You can drive a horse to water, but you can't make him drink.' But in Latin this use is mainly confined to certain varieties of the Subjunctive, especially the Potential (§ 280), Jussive (§ 275), Deliberative (§ 277), and the Subjunctive in conditional sentences of the sort included under § 302, 2, and 303. Examples:—

vidērēs, you could see;

ūtāre vīribus, use your strength;

quid hōc homine faciās, what are you to do with this man?

mēns quoque et animus, nisi tamquam lūminī oleum īnstīllēs, exstinguuntur senectūte, the intellect and mind too are extinguished by old age, unless, so to speak, you keep pouring oil into the lamp;

tantō amōre possessiōnēs suās amplexī tenēbant, ut ab eīs membra dīvellī citius posse dīcerēs, they clung to their possessions with such an affectionate embrace, that you would have said their limbs could sooner be torn from their bodies.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE ACCUSATIVE.

357. 1. To denote 'so many years, etc., afterwards or before' the Latin employs not merely the Ablative of Degree of Difference with **post** and **ante** (see § 223), but has other forms of expression. Thus: —

post **quīnque annōs**, *five years afterward;*

paucōs ante diēs, *a few days before;*

ante quadriennium, *four years before;*

post diem quartum quam ab urbe discesserāmus, *four days after we had left the city;*

ante tertium annum quam dēcesserat, *three years before he had died.*

2. The Latin seldom combines both Subject and Object with the same Infinitive; as, —

Rōmānōs Hannibalem vīcisse cōstat.

Such a sentence would be ambiguous, and might mean either that the Romans had conquered Hannibal, or that Hannibal had conquered the Romans. Perspicuity was gained by the use of the Passive Infinitive; as, —

Rōmānōs ab Hannibale victōs esse cōstat, *it is well established that the Romans were defeated by Hannibal.*

PECULIARITIES IN CONNECTION WITH THE USE OF THE DATIVE.

358. 1. The English *for* does not always correspond to a Dative notion in Latin, but is often the equivalent of **prō** with the Ablative, *viz.* in the senses —

a) *In defense of;* as, —

prō patriā morī, *to die for one's country.*

b) *Instead of, in behalf of;* as, —

ūnus prō omnibus dīxit, *one spoke for all;*

haec prō lēge dicta sunt, *these things were said for the law.*

c) *In proportion to;* as, —

prō multitudine hominum eōrum finēs erant angustī, *for the population, their territory was small.*

2. Similarly, English *to* when it indicates motion is rendered in Latin by *ad*.

a. Note, however, that the Latin may say either *scribere ad aliquem*, or *scribere alicui*, according as the idea of motion is or is not predominant. So in several similar expressions.

3. In the poets, verbs of *mingling with, contending with, joining, clinging to, etc.*, sometimes take the Dative. This construction is a Grecism. Thus:—

sē miscet virīs, he mingles with the men ;
contendis Homērō, you contend with Homer ;
dextrae dextram jungere, to clasp hand with hand.

PECULIARITIES IN THE USE OF THE GENITIVE.

359. 1. The Possessive Genitive gives emphasis to the *possessor*, the Dative of Possessor emphasizes *the fact of possession* ; as, —

hortus patris est, the garden is my father's ;
mihi hortus est, I possess a garden.

2. The Latin can say either *stultī* or *stultum est dicere*, *it is foolish to say* ; but Adjectives of one ending permit only the Genitive ; as, —

sapientis est haec sēcum reputāre, it is the part of a wise man to consider this.