
GRAMMATICAL APPENDIX

from Caesar: Selections from his COMMENTARII DE BELLO GALLICO

Introduction

This Appendix is a revision of the one that bears the same title in Arthur Tappan Walker's *Caesar's Gallic War with Introduction, Notes, Vocabulary, and Grammatical Appendix* (Chicago and New York: Scott Foresman and Company, 1907), pp. 424–528. Examples derive primarily from Caesar's *Commentariū*, but a few derive from Cicero. References to Caesar provide book, chapter, and verse: 1.1.1 would, for example, refer to the first sentence of Caesar's *Dē bellō Gallicō*. Examples from Caesar's other works include the title and, if from Cicero, name and title.

Pronunciation

QUANTITY OF VOWELS

1. A *vowel* is usually short:
 - a. Before another vowel or before **h**; as **ineō**, **nihil**.
 - b. Before **nd** and **nt**; as in **laudandus**, **laudant**.
 - c. In words with more than one syllable, before any final consonant other than **s**; as in **laudem**, **laudat**. (But compare **laudās**.)
2. A *vowel* is long:
 - a. Before **nf**, **ns**, **nx**, and **nct**; as in **īnferō**, **cōnsul**, **iūnxī**, **iūnctum**.
 - b. When it results from contraction; as in **īssset**, from **iisset**.
3. A *vowel* is usually long:
 - a. In one syllable words (monosyllables) not ending in **b**, **d**, **l**, **m**, or **t**; as in **mē**, **hīc** (but compare **ab** and **ad** where the vowels are short).

PRONUNCIATION OF VOWELS

4. In classical Latin pronunciation, long vowels, whether they were accented or not, were supposed to receive twice the time given to the pronunciation of short vowels. In English, we generally give more time only to the vowels in accented syllables. Observing this rule matters more when we read Latin poetry than it does when we read Latin prose, but attention to vowels in Latin prose will help you when you turn to poetry and it will increase your sensitivity to the language generally.

a = *a* in *tuba*

e = *e* in *net*

i = *i* in *pin*

o = *o* in *for* (**not** as in *hot*)

u = *oo* in *book*

y = French *u* or German *ü*; but this sound rarely occurs.

ā = *a* in *father*

ē = *e* in *they*

ī = *i* in *machine*

ō = *o* in *pony*

ū = *oo* in *boot*

SOUNDS OF DIPHTHONGS

5. Diphthongs are the sounds produced by two vowels when the first slides into the second so quickly that it seems as if both are pronounced simultaneously. A diphthong thus produces only one, not two, syllables. The following diphthongs are those that appear in classical Latin:

ae = *ai* in *aisle*

oe = *oi* in *oil*

au = *ow* in *how*

eu has no English equivalent. Run together in one syllable the sounds *eh'-oo*.

ui has no English equivalent. Run together in one syllable the sounds *oo'-ee*. This diphthong appears in **cui**, **huic**, **cuius**, and **huius**.

- a. When the consonant **i** (= **j** in older classical editions) appears between two vowels, as in **maior**, **eius**, **Troia**, and **cuius**, although **i** was written only once, it was pronounced twice, as if the spelling were **maior**, **eiius**, **Troiia**, and **cuiius**. The second **i** is the consonant, pronounced like *y* in *yet*.

The first **i** is a vowel, which makes a diphthong with the vowel that precedes it. In such cases,

ai = *ai* in *aisle*

ei = *ey* in *they*

oi = *oi* in *oil*

ui as indicated above.

SOUNDS OF CONSONANTS

6. The consonants are generally pronounced as they are in English, but the following points should be noted:

c and **g** are always hard, as in *can* and *go*

i (the consonant, which is sometimes printed **j**) = *y* in *yet*

n before **c**, **g**, **q**, and **x** = *ng* in *sing*

r should always be pronounced

s should always be pronounced as in *this*, never as in *these*

t as in *tin*, never as in *nation*

v = *w*

x = *ks*

z = *dz*

ch, **ph**, **th** = *c*, *p*, *t*

bs, **bt** = *ps*, *pt*

qu = *qu* in *quart*

ngu = *ngu* in *anguish*

su = *sw* as in **suādeō**, **suāvis**, **suēscō**, and their compounds.

- a. When consonants are doubled, as in **mittō** and **annus**, both consonants should be pronounced, as they are in *out-take* and *pen-knife*. We pronounce only one consonant in *kitty* and *penny*.
7. We generally consider **i** a consonant when it occurs between vowels, and when it appears at the beginning of a word in front of another vowel. In compounds of **iaciō** (throw), we find the form **iciō**. We believe that in these words the consonant **i** was pronounced, even though it was not written, before the vowel **i**. If we adopt this rule, **dēiciō** is pronounced as if it were spelled **dēiiciō** and **abiciō** as if it were spelled **abiiciō**.

SYLLABLES

8. Every Latin word has as many syllables as it has vowels or diphthongs.
- When a single consonant appears between two vowels, it is pronounced with the vowel that follows it; as in **fe-rō**, **a-gō**, **mo-nē**.
 - Some consonants can be pronounced indefinitely. They “flow,” and are thus called “liquids.” Other consonants fall silent immediately after they are pronounced. Such consonants are called “mutes.” When “liquids” (**l** or **r**) follow “mutes” (**b**, **c**, **d**, **g**, **p**, **t**, **ch**, **ph**, or **th**), the resulting combination is often pronounced like a single consonant together with the following vowel; as in **pa-tris** and **a-grī**. (In poetry, however, such combinations are often divided; as in **pat-ris** and **ag-rī**.)
 - Any other combination of two or more consonants is divided before the last consonant, or before the “mute-liquid” combination described above (§8, *b*), as we find in **mit-tō**, **dic-tus**, **magis-ter**, and **magis-trī**.

QUANTITY OF SYLLABLES

9. A syllable is long:
- If it contains a long vowel or a diphthong; as in both syllables of **lau-dās**, and the first syllable of **ēius** (§5, *a*).
 - If its vowel is followed by any two consonants, except the combination of a mute and a liquid (see §8, *c*) or by one of the double consonants **x** (= *ks*) and **z** (= *dz*). The quantity of a short vowel is not changed by its position: **est** is pronounced **est**, not **ēst**. The syllable, not the vowel, becomes long. The time taken to pronounce a consonant at the end of a syllable before the consonant at the beginning of the next syllable (§8, *c*) lengthens that syllable. You will perceive this if you pronounce each of the consonants that are supposed to be pronounced distinctly in **mit-tō** (see §6, *a*), **an-nus**, **dic-tus**, **par-tōs**, and **nos-ter**.
 - Often in poetry when a short vowel is followed by the combination of a mute and a liquid (see §8, *c*). In poetry, this combination produces **pat-ris** and **ag-rī** (§8, *c*), thus making the first syllable long. In prose, however, such a syllable is always considered short because the combination produces **pa-tris** and **a-grī**. (See §8, *c* to review details.)

ACCENT

10. Words with two syllables are accented on the first syllable; as in **om'nis**.
11. Words with more than two syllables are accented on the second to last syllable or *penult*, if that syllable is long, as in **divi'sa** and **appel'lō**. If the penult is short, the syllable third from the end or *antepenult* receives the accent; as in **per'tinent**.
12. When an enclitic (a word that attaches to the end of another word) is joined to another word, the accent falls on the syllable immediately preceding the enclitic; as in **Gallia'que**.

Inflection

NOUNS

THE GENERAL RULES OF GENDER

13. Latin nouns are classified as masculine, feminine, or neuter. For most nouns, gender is grammatical rather than biological. Often the gender of nouns can be determined from the nominative ending. In other instances, it must be learned for individual words. The following rules should prove helpful.
- a. The names of male beings (human, animal, divine) as well as rivers, winds, and months are *masculine*.
 - b. The names of female beings (human, animal, divine) as well as countries, towns, islands, plants, trees, and most abstract qualities are *feminine*.
 - c. Indeclinable nouns and infinitives, phrases, and clauses used as nouns are *neuter*.

DECLENSIONS

14. There are five declensions of Latin nouns. They are distinguished from one another by the final letter of the stem, and the ending of the genitive singular.

DECLENSION	FINAL LETTER of STEM	ENDING OF GEN. SING.
I. First	ā	–ae
II. Second	o	–ī
III. Third	consonant or i	–is
IV. Fourth	u	–ūs
V. Fifth	ē	–ēī or –eī

- a. In a linguistically precise world, we are supposed to form cases by adding case endings to the stem. But when the stem ends in a vowel, that vowel is often modified in some way, or is combined with the true case ending in some way with the result that we can see neither the stem-vowel nor the true case ending. Therefore it is more convenient to apply the name case ending to the combined stem-vowel and true case ending, and to say that the cases are formed by adding case endings to the “base” (which many—incorrectly actually—refer to as the “stem”). In common practice (because it works), we find the base of a noun by dropping the ending of the genitive singular.

FIRST DECLENSION

15. The *stem* ends in –ā; the nominative in –a; (and the *base* ends in whatever remains after removing the genitive singular; see §14, c). The gender is usually feminine.

lingua, F., *tongue, language*

	SINGULAR	ENDINGS
<i>Nominative</i>	lingua a language (as <i>subject</i>)	–a
<i>Genitive</i>	linguae of a language, language’s	–ae
<i>Dative</i>	linguae to or for a language	–ae
<i>Accusative</i>	linguam a language (as <i>object</i>)	–am
<i>Ablative</i>	linguā by, from, in, or with a language	–ā
<i>Vocative</i>	lingua O language!	–a

	PLURAL		ENDINGS
<i>Nominative</i>	linguae	languages (as <i>subject</i>)	–ae
<i>Genitive</i>	linguārum	of languages, languages'	–ārum
<i>Dative</i>	linguīs	to or for languages	–īs
<i>Accusative</i>	linguās	languages (as <i>object</i>)	–ās
<i>Ablative</i>	linguīs	by, from, in, or with languages	–īs
<i>Vocative</i>	linguae	O languages!	–ae

a. Exceptions in gender are generally revealed by the meanings of words (see §13); as in **Belgae**, M., *the Belgae* (because groups of people are considered masculine); **Matrona**, M., *the (river) Marne* (because rivers are masculine).

b. The locative singular ends in –ae; as in **Samarobrīvae**, *at Samarobriva*.

SECOND DECLENSION

16. The *stem* ends in –o; the nominative masculine in –us, –er, or –ir; the nominative neuter in –um; and the *base* will be found by removing the genitive singular ending (see §14, a).

	animus , M., <i>mind</i>	puer , M., <i>boy</i>	ager , M., <i>field</i>	vir , M., <i>man</i>	bellum , N., <i>war</i>
	SINGULAR				
N.	animus	puer	ager	vir	bellum
G.	animī	puerī	agrī	virī	bellī
D.	animō	puerō	agrō	virō	bellō
Acc.	animum	puerum	agrum	virum	bellum
Abl.	animō	puerō	agrō	virō	bellō
V.	anime	puer	ager	vir	bellum
	PLURAL				
N.	animī	puerī	agrī	virī	bella
G.	animōrum	puerōrum	agrōrum	virōrum	bellōrum
D.	animīs	puerīs	agrīs	virīs	bellīs
Acc.	animōs	puerōs	agrōs	virōs	bella
Abl.	animīs	puerīs	agrīs	virīs	bellīs
V.	animī	puerī	agrī	virī	bella

NOUNS ENDING IN –ius

	filius , M., <i>son</i>	Gāius , M., <i>Gaius</i>	Bōi , M., <i>the Boi</i>	deus , M., <i>god</i>	
	SING.	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
N.	filius	Gāius	Bōi	deus	deī, dī
G.	filī	Gāī	Bōiōrum	deī	deōrum
D.	filīō	Gāiō	Bōīs	deō	deīs, dīs
Acc.	filium	Gāium	Bōiōs	deum	deōs
Abl.	filīō	Gāiō	Bōīs	deō	deīs, dīs
V.	filī	Gāī	Bōi	deus	diī, dī

a. Exceptions in gender are revealed by the meanings of the words (see §13). **Vulgus**, *crowd*, is usually neuter. **Locus**, M., *place*, has the plural **loca**, N., *places*.

b. The locative singular ends in –ī; such as **Agedincī**, *at Agedincum*.

- c. Nouns ending in **-ius** regularly form the genitive and vocative singular with **-ī**, instead of with **-ii** and **-ie**, and nouns ending in **-ium** form the genitive with **-ī**. The words are accented as if the longer form were used; **consi'li**, of a plan; **ini'ti**, of a beginning.
- d. Proper names ending in **-āius**, **-ēius**, and **-ōius** are declined like **Gāius** and **Bōi**.
- e. A few words have **-um** instead of **-ōrum** in the genitive plural; such as **socium** (or **sociōrum**), of the allies.

THIRD DECLENSION

17. Third declension *stems* end in a consonant or in **-i**. The nominative case ending for masculines and feminines is an **-s** or none; for neuters, none. The *base* may be found by removing the genitive ending (see §14, a).

A. CONSONANT STEMS

18. Stems ending in **b** or **p** (“labial mutes”). These consonants are formed with the lips, and are thus called “labials.” Because they fall silent immediately after being pronounced, they are also called “mutes.” The nominative ending is **-s**.

prīnceps, M., chief

Stem **prīncip-**

	SING.	PLURAL
N.	prīnceps	prīncipēs
G.	prīncipis	prīncipum
D.	prīncipī	prīncipibus
Acc.	prīncipem	prīncipēs
Abl.	prīncipe	prīncipibus
V.	prīnceps	prīncipēs

19. Stems ending in **d** or **t** (“dental mutes”). These consonants are formed with the teeth, and are thus called “dentals.” Because they fall silent immediately after being pronounced, they are also called “mutes.” The nominative ending for masculines and feminines is **-s**, and the final **d** or **t** of the stem is dropped before the nominative ending.

	laus , F., praise Stem laud-		miles , M., soldier Stem milit-		caput , N., head Stem capit-	
	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
N.	laus	laudēs	miles	militēs	caput	capita
G.	laudis	laudum	militis	militum	capitis	capitum
D.	laudī	laudibus	militī	militibus	capitī	capitibus
Acc.	laudem	laudēs	militem	militēs	caput	capita
Abl.	laude	laudibus	militē	militibus	capite	capitibus
V.	laus	laudēs	miles	militēs	caput	capita

20. Stems ending in **g** or **c** (“guttural mutes”). These consonants are formed in the throat (Latin: **guttur**=throat), and are thus called “gutturals.” Because they fall silent immediately after being pronounced, they are also called “mutes.” The nominative ending is **-s**, which combines with the final **g** or **c** of the stem to form **x**.

	lēx , F., <i>law</i>		dux , M., <i>leader</i>	
	Stem lēg-		Stem duc-	
	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
N.	lēx	lēgēs	dux	ducēs
G.	lēgis	lēgum	ducis	ducum
D.	lēgī	lēgibus	ducī	ducibus
Acc.	lēgem	lēgēs	ducem	ducēs
Abl.	lēge	lēgibus	duce	ducibus
V.	lēx	lēgēs	dux	ducēs

21. Stems ending in **l** or **r** (“liquids”). Because we can continue to pronounce these consonants indefinitely, they seem to “flow like liquids,” hence their name. There is no nominative case ending.

	cōnsul , M., <i>consul</i>		māter , F., <i>mother</i>		aequor , N., <i>sea</i>	
	Stem cōnsul-		Stem mātr-		Stem aequor-	
	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
N.	cōnsul	cōnsulēs	māter	mātrēs	aequor	aequora
G.	cōnsulis	cōnsulum	mātris	mātrum	aequoris	aequorum
D.	cōnsulī	cōnsulibus	mātrī	mātribus	aequorī	aequoribus
Acc.	cōnsulem	cōnsulēs	mātre	mātrēs	aequor	aequora
Abl.	cōnsule	cōnsulibus	mātre	mātribus	aequore	aequoribus
V.	cōnsul	cōnsulēs	māter	mātrēs	aequor	aequora

22. Stems ending in **m** or **n** (“nasals”). Because these consonants resonate through the nose when pronounced, they are called “nasals.” There is no nominative case ending, except for the word **hiems**, which is the only word with a stem ending in **-m**. The nominative of masculines and feminines usually drops the final **n** and changes the preceding vowel to **ō**.

	homō , M., F., <i>human being</i>		ratiō , F., <i>reason</i>		flūmen , N., <i>river</i>	
	Stem homin-		Stem ratiōn-		Stem flūmin-	
	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
N.	homō	hominēs	ratiō	ratiōnēs	flūmen	flūmina
G.	hominis	hominum	ratiōnis	ratiōnum	flūminis	flūminum
D.	hominī	hominibus	ratiōnī	ratiōnibus	flūminī	flūminibus
Acc.	hominem	hominēs	ratiōnem	ratiōnēs	flūmen	flūmina
Abl.	homine	hominibus	ratiōne	ratiōnibus	flūmine	flūminibus
V.	homō	hominēs	ratiō	ratiōnēs	flūmen	flūmina

23. Stems ending in **s** (although the **s** makes its appearance as an **r**, because **s** changes to **r** between two vowels). The nominative has no case ending, but usually ends in **s** and sometimes in **r**.

	mōs , M., <i>custom</i> (Stem mōs -) Base mōr -		honor , M., <i>honor</i> (Stem honōs -) Base honōr -		tempus , N., <i>time</i> (Stem tempos -) Base tempor -	
	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
N.	mōs	mōrēs	honor	honōrēs	tempus	tempora
G.	mōris	mōrum	honōris	honōrum	temporis	temporum
D.	mōrī	mōribus	honōrī	honōribus	temporī	temporibus
Acc.	mōrem	mōrēs	honōrem	honōrēs	tempus	tempora
Abl.	mōre	mōribus	honōre	honōribus	tempore	temporibus
V.	mōs	mōrēs	honor	honōrēs	tempus	tempora

B. i-STEMS

24. Third declension nouns are **i**-stems, if (1) they are masculine and feminine nouns ending in **-is** or **-ēs** and they have the same number of syllables in the genitive as in the nominative or if (2) they are neuter nouns that end in **-e**, **-al**, or **-ar**.
25. Because this declension became confused with that of consonant stems, the **i** does not appear consistently, and no absolute rule can be given for the endings. Masculine and feminine nouns usually have accusative **-em**, ablative **-e**, and accusative plurals either in **-ēs** or **-īs**. Neuters have ablative **-ī**.

	turris , F., <i>tower</i> Stem turr -	hostis , M., <i>enemy</i> (Stem hosti -) Base host - SINGULAR	caedēs , F., <i>slaughter</i> (Stem caedi -) Base caed -
N.	turris	hostis	caedēs
G.	turris	hostis	caedis
D.	turrī	hostī	caedī
Acc.	turrem	hostem	caedem
Abl.	turrī or e	hoste	caede
V.	turris	hostis	caedēs
		PLURAL	
N.	turrēs	hostēs	caedēs
G.	turrium	hostium	caedium
D.	turribus	hostibus	caedibus
Acc.	turrēs or -īs	hostēs or -īs	caedēs or -īs
Abl.	turribus	hostibus	caedibus
V.	turrēs	hostēs	caedēs

	cubile , N., <i>couch</i> (Stem cubili-) Base cubīl-	vectīgal , N., <i>tax</i> (Stem vectīgāli-) Base vectīgāl-
	SINGULAR	
N.	cubile	vectīgal
G.	cubilis	vectīgālis
D.	cubīlī	vectīgālī
Acc.	cubile	vectīgal
Abl.	cubīlī	vectīgālī
V.	cubile	vectīgal
	PLURAL	
N.	cubilia	vectīgālia
G.	cubilium	vectīgālium
D.	cubilibus	vectīgālibus
Acc.	cubilia	vectīgālia
Abl.	cubilibus	vectīgālibus
V.	cubilia	vectīgālia

- a. Most nouns ending in **-is** are declined like **hostis**. **Arar** (for **Araris**), M., *the (river) Saone*, and **Liger** (for **Ligeris**), M., *the (river) Loire*, are declined in the singular like **turris**. **Ignis**, M., *fire*, and **nāvis**, F., *ship*, often have the ablative **-ī**. **Mare**, N., *sea*, is declined like **cubile**, but appears in the plural generally only in the nominative and accusative cases.

C. MIXED STEMS

26. Some third declension nouns with consonant stems have borrowed the genitive plural ending **-ium** and the accusative plural ending **-īs** from the **i**-stems. In this category, we find most one syllable words ending in **-s** and **-x** that are preceded by a consonant as well as most nouns ending in **-ns** and **-rs**, and a few nouns ending in **-tās**, **-tātis**.

	cliēns , M., <i>dependent</i> Stem client-		urbs , F., <i>city</i> Stem urb-	
	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
N.	cliēns	clientēs	urbs	urbēs
G.	clientis	clientium	urbis	urbium
D.	clientī	clientibus	urbī	urbibus
Acc.	clientem	clientēs or -īs	urbem	urbēs or -īs
Abl.	cliente	clientibus	urbe	urbibus
V.	cliēns	clientēs	urbs	urbēs

D. IRREGULAR NOUNS

27. The following nouns are irregular:

	senex , M., <i>old man</i>	os , N., <i>bone</i>	vīs , F., <i>force</i>	bōs , M., F., <i>cow</i>	Iuppiter , M., <i>Jupiter</i>
			SINGULAR		
N.	senex	os	vīs	bōs	Iuppiter
G.	senis	ossis	vīs	bovis	Iovis
D.	senī	ossī	vī	bovī	Iovī
Acc.	senem	os	vim	bovem	Iovem
Abl.	sene	osse	vī	bove	Iove
V.	senex	os	vīs	bōs	Iuppiter
			PLURAL		
N.	senēs	ossa	vīrēs	bovēs	
G.	senum	ossium	vīrium	bovum or boum	
D.	senibus	ossibus	vīribus	bōbus or būbus	
Acc.	senēs	ossa	vīrēs	bovēs	
Abl.	senibus	ossibus	vīribus	bōbus or būbus	
V.	senēs	ossa	vīrēs	bovēs	

28. The gender of many third declension nouns is revealed by the meaning of the word (see §13). The following rules may help for determining the gender of third declension nouns, but you should keep in mind that there are many exceptions to them.

- a. *Masculine*: nouns that end in **-ō**, **-or**, **-ōs**, **-er**, **-ur**, or **-es**. (Exceptions to this rule include nouns that end in **-dō**, **-gō**, or **-iō**; see next section.)
- b. *Feminine*: nouns that end in **-dō**, **-gō**, **-iō**, **-ās**, **-ēs**, **-is**, **-ūs**, **-ys**, or **-x**, and, when preceded by a consonant, nouns that in **-s**.
- c. *Neuter*: all other nouns; namely, nouns that end in **-a**, **-e**, **-ī**, **-y**, **-c**, **-l**, **-n**, **-t**, **-ar**, **-ur**, and **-us**.

FOURTH DECLENSION

29. The *stem* of fourth declension nouns ends in **-u**; the nominative masculine ends in **-us**, the nominative neuter in **-ū**. The *base* may be found by removing the genitive singular ending.

	passus , M., <i>pace</i>		cornū , N., <i>horn</i>	
	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
N.	passus	passūs	cornū	cornua
G.	passūs	passuum	cornūs	cornuum
D.	passuī	passibus	cornū	cornibus
Acc.	passum	passūs	cornū	cornua
Abl.	passū	passibus	cornū	cornibus
V.	passus	passūs	cornū	cornua

- a. **Domus**, *house*, **manus**, *hand*, and **Īdus**, *Ides*, are feminine.
- b. The dative singular of nouns in **-us** sometimes ends in **-ū**.
- c. The dative and ablative plural of a few nouns sometimes end in **-ubus**.
- d. **Domus**, F., *house*, has some second declension forms. The forms in general use are:

	SING.	PLURAL
N.	domus	domūs
G.	domūs	domuum
D.	domuī or domō	domibus
Acc.	domum	domōs
Abl.	domō or domū	domibus
V.	domus	domūs
Locative	domī (at home)	domibus

FIFTH DECLENSION

30. Fifth declension nouns have a *stem* that ends in *-ē* and a nominative in *-ēs*. They are usually feminine.

	<i>rēs, F., thing</i>		<i>diēs, M., F., day</i>	
	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
N.	rēs	rēs	diēs	diēs
G.	reī	rērum	diēī	diērum
D.	reī	rēbus	diēī	diēbus
Acc.	rem	rēs	diem	diēs
Abl.	rē	rēbus	diē	diēbus
V.	rēs	rēs	diēs	diēs

- In the singular, **diēs** is either masculine or feminine (the feminine is usually used in the sense of an appointed day or for a long space of time); in the plural, **diēs** is masculine. Its compounds are also masculine.
- The ending of the genitive and dative singular of fifth declension nouns is *-ēī* after a vowel, *-eī* after a consonant. Sometimes the ending *-ē* is used instead of either.
- Diēs** and **rēs** are the only nouns of this declension that are declined throughout the plural. **Acīēs**, **spēs**, and a few others have plural forms only in the nominative and accusative.

ADJECTIVES

FIRST AND SECOND DECLENSION ADJECTIVES

31. **magnus**, *large*

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
N.	magnus	magna	magnum	magnī	magnae	magna
G.	magnī	magnae	magnī	magnōrum	magnārum	magnōrum
D.	magnō	magnae	magnō	magnīs	magnīs	magnīs
Acc.	magnum	magnam	magnum	magnōs	magnās	magna
Abl.	magnō	magnā	magnō	magnīs	magnīs	magnīs
V.	magne	magna	magnum	magnī	magnae	magna

liber, free

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
N.	liber	libera	liberum	liberī	liberae	libera
G.	liberī	liberae	liberī	liberōrum	liberārum	liberōrum
D.	liberō	liberae	liberō	liberīs	liberīs	liberīs
Acc.	liberum	liberam	liberum	liberōs	liberās	libera
Abl.	liberō	liberā	liberō	liberīs	liberīs	liberīs
V.	liber	libera	liberum	liberī	liberae	libera

noster, our

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
N.	noster	nostra	nostrum	nostrī	nostrae	nostra
G.	nostrī	nostrae	nostrī	nostrōrum	nostrārum	nostrōrum
D.	nostrō	nostrae	nostrō	nostrīs	nostrīs	nostrīs
Acc.	nostrum	nostram	nostrum	nostrōs	nostrās	nostra
Abl.	nostrō	nostrā	nostrō	nostrīs	nostrīs	nostrīs
V.	noster	nostra	nostrum	nostrī	nostrae	nostra

ADJECTIVES WITH GENITIVE IN -IUS.

32. Nine adjectives of the first and second declensions have a genitive singular that ends in **-ius** (the genitive of **alter** is usually **-ius**) and a dative singular that ends in **-ī** in all genders. These nine adjectives are **alius**, *another*, **sōlus**, *only*, **tōtus**, *whole*, **ūllus**, *any*, **nūllus**, *no*, **ūnus**, *one*, **alter**, *the other*, **uter**, *which* (of two), and **neuter**, *neither*. In the plural, the case endings of these adjectives are exactly the same as they are for **magnus**. Note also the ending **-ud** in the neuter of **alius**.

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
N.	alius	alia	aliud	aliī	aliae	alia
G.	aliīus	aliīus	aliīus	aliōrum	aliārum	aliōrum
D.	aliī	aliī	aliī	aliīs	aliīs	aliīs
Acc.	alium	aliam	aliud	aliōs	aliās	alia
Abl.	aliō	aliā	aliō	aliīs	aliīs	aliīs

	SINGULAR			SINGULAR			SINGULAR		
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
N.	ūnus	ūna	ūnum	tōtus	tōta	tōtum	alterus	altera	alterum
G.	ūnīus	ūnīus	ūnīus	tōtīus	tōtīus	tōtīus	alterius	alterius	alterius
D.	ūnī	ūnī	ūnī	tōtī	tōtī	tōtī	alterī	alterī	alterī
Acc.	ūnum	ūnam	ūnum	tōtum	tōtam	tōtum	alterum	alteram	alterum
Abl.	ūnō	ūnā	ūnō	tōtō	tōtā	tōtō	alterō	alterā	alterō

THIRD DECLENSION ADJECTIVES

33. Adjectives of the third declension include both consonant stems and i-stems. Third declension adjectives with *three endings* have a different form in the nominative singular for each gender. Third declension adjectives with *two endings* have one form in the nominative singular for the masculine and feminine and another for the neuter. Third declension adjectives with *one ending* have the same form in the nominative singular for all three genders. Except comparatives, all third declension adjectives with two or three endings always have *-ī* in the ablative singular.

A. CONSONANT STEMS

34. Two Endings.

fortior, *braver* (a comparative, hence *-e*, not *-ī* in the ablative)

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	<i>Masc. & Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masc. & Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
N.	fortior	fortius	fortiōrēs	fortiōra
G.	fortiōris	fortiōris	fortiōrum	fortiōrum
D.	fortiōrī	fortiōrī	fortiōribus	fortiōribus
Acc.	fortiōrem	fortius	fortiōrēs	fortiōra
Abl.	fortiōre	fortiōre	fortiōribus	fortiōribus
V.	fortior	fortius	fortiōrēs	fortiōra

- a. All comparatives follow this pattern; but **plūs**, *more*, is irregular and defective (i.e., it does not appear in all theoretically possible forms). In the singular, it is used only as a noun.

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masc. & Fem.</i>	<i>Masc. & Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
N.	plūs	plūrēs	plūra	plūra
G.	plūris	plūrium	plūrium	plūrium
D.	---	plūribus	plūribus	plūribus
Acc.	plūs	plūrēs or -īs	plūra	plūra
Abl.	plūre	plūribus	plūribus	plūribus

35. One Ending (hence *-e*, not *-ī* in the ablative).

vetus, *old*

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	<i>Masc. & Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masc. & Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
N.	vetus	vetus	veterēs	vetera
G.	veteris	veteris	veterum	veterum
D.	veterī	veterī	veteribus	veteribus
Acc.	veterem	vetus	veterēs	vetera
Abl.	vetere	vetere	veteribus	veteribus
V.	vetus	vetus	veterēs	vetera

- a. The adjective **prīnceps**, *chief*, follows this pattern. **Dives**, *rich*, also belongs here, but has **dītia** for the nominative, accusative, and vocative neuter plural.

B. i-STEMS

36. Three Endings.

ācer, sharp

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
N.	<i>ācer</i>	<i>ācris</i>	<i>ācre</i>	<i>ācrēs</i>	<i>ācrēs</i>	<i>ācria</i>
G.	<i>ācris</i>	<i>ācris</i>	<i>ācris</i>	<i>ācrium</i>	<i>ācrium</i>	<i>ācrium</i>
D.	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācribus</i>	<i>ācribus</i>	<i>ācribus</i>
Acc.	<i>ācrem</i>	<i>ācrem</i>	<i>ācre</i>	<i>ācrēs or -īs</i>	<i>ācrēs or -īs</i>	<i>ācria</i>
Abl.	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācrī</i>	<i>ācribus</i>	<i>ācribus</i>	<i>ācribus</i>
V.	<i>ācer</i>	<i>ācris</i>	<i>ācre</i>	<i>ācrēs</i>	<i>ācrēs</i>	<i>ācria</i>

a. Other adjectives that follow this pattern include **celeber**, *famous*, **equester**, *equestrian*, **pedester**, *pedestrian*; names of months that end in **-ber**; and a few others.

37. Two Endings.

omnis, all

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	<i>Masc. & Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masc. & Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
N.	<i>omnis</i>	<i>omne</i>	<i>omnēs</i>	<i>omnia</i>
G.	<i>omnis</i>	<i>omnis</i>	<i>omnium</i>	<i>omnium</i>
D.	<i>omnī</i>	<i>omnī</i>	<i>omnibus</i>	<i>omnibus</i>
Acc.	<i>omnem</i>	<i>omne</i>	<i>omnēs or -īs</i>	<i>omnia</i>
Abl.	<i>omnī</i>	<i>omnī</i>	<i>omnibus</i>	<i>omnibus</i>
V.	<i>omnis</i>	<i>omne</i>	<i>omnēs</i>	<i>omnia</i>

a. All third declension adjectives ending in **-is**, **-e** follow this pattern.

38. One Ending.

audāx, bold

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	<i>Masc. & Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masc. & Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
N.	<i>audāx</i>	<i>audāx</i>	<i>audācēs</i>	<i>audācia</i>
G.	<i>audācis</i>	<i>audācis</i>	<i>audācium</i>	<i>audācium</i>
D.	<i>audācī</i>	<i>audācī</i>	<i>audācibus</i>	<i>audācibus</i>
Acc.	<i>audācem</i>	<i>audāx</i>	<i>audācēs or -īs</i>	<i>audācia</i>
Abl.	<i>audācī</i>	<i>audācī</i>	<i>audācibus</i>	<i>audācibus</i>
V.	<i>audāx</i>	<i>audāx</i>	<i>audācēs</i>	<i>audācia</i>

oriēns, rising

	SINGULAR		PLURAL	
	<i>Masc. & Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masc. & Fem.</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
N.	oriēns	oriēns	orientēs	orientia
G.	orientis	orientis	orientium	orientium
D.	orientī	orientī	orientibus	orientibus
Acc.	orientem	oriēns	orientēs or -īs	orientia
Abl.	orientē or -ī	orientē or -ī	orientibus	orientibus
V.	oriēns	oriēns	orientēs	orientia

- a. Most third declension adjectives with one ending follow this pattern as well as all participles in **-āns** and **-ēns**. Participles usually have an ablative singular that ends in **-ī** only when they are used as adjectives, and in **-e** when they are used as participles or nouns.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

39. The regular comparative endings are the third declension adjective endings **-ior** (M. & F.), **-ius** (N.). The superlative, **-issimus, -a, -um**, uses first and second declension adjective endings. They are added to the base of the positive form of the adjective (which is found by removing the case ending from the genitive singular). Examples: **altus, -a, -um, high**; **altior, -ius, higher**; **altissimus, -a, -um, highest**; **fortis, brave**; **fortior, braver**; **fortissimus, bravest**.
40. Adjectives in **-er** form the comparative regularly, but form the superlative by adding **-rimus** to the *nominative* of the positive. Example: **ācer, sharp** (base, **ācr-**), **ācrior, ācerrimus**.
41. Most adjectives in **-ilis** form the comparative and superlative regularly. Six adjectives, however, although they form the comparative regularly, form the superlative by adding **-limus** to the *base* of the positive. These six are **facilis, easy**; **difficilis, difficult**; **similis, like**; **dissimilis, unlike**; **humilis, low**; **gracilis, slender**. Example: **facilis, facilior, facillimus**.

IRREGULAR COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

42. **bonus, melior, optimus, good, better, best.**
malus, peior, pessimus, bad, worse, worst.
magnus, maior, maximus, big, bigger, biggest.
parvus, minor, minimus, small, less, least.
multus, plūs, plūrimus, much, more, most.
dexter, dexterior, dextimus, on the right, favorable (because good omens appeared on the right).

DEFECTIVE COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES

43. The following comparatives and superlatives lack an adjective in the positive because they are formed from stems not used as adjectives:
- (**citrā, adv., on this side**) **citerior, citimus, closer, closest.**
(**dē, prep., down**) **dēterior, dēterrimus, worse, worst.**
(**intrā, prep., in, within**) **interior, intimus, inner, inmost.**
(**prae, prep., before**) **prior, prīmus, former, first.**
(**prope, adv., near**) **propior, proximus, nearer, next.**
(**ultrā, adv., beyond**) **ulterior, ultimus, farther, farthest.**

44. The following adjectives rarely use the positive forms, except when they are used as nouns (and then generally in the plural):

(**exterus**) **exterior**, **extrēmus** (**extimus**), *outer, outmost*.

(**inferus**) **inferior**, **īfimus** (**īmus**), *lower, lowest*.

(**posterus**) **posterior**, **postrēmus** (**postumus**), *latter, last*.

(**superus**) **superior**, **suprēmus** (**summus**), *higher, highest*.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES WITH ADVERBS

45. When an adjective ends in a **-us** that is preceded by a vowel, it generally forms the comparative and superlative by using the adverbs **magis**, *more*, and **maxime**, *most*. Many other adjectives employ this method as well. Example: **idōneus**, *suitable*; **magis idōneus**, *more suitable*; **maximē idōneus**, *most suitable*.

COMPARISON OF ADVERBS

46. Most adverbs are formed from adjectives in all the degrees of comparison.
- The *positive* form of the adverb is formed from adjectives of the first and second declensions by adding **-ē** to the base; such as **lātus**, *wide*, **lātē**, *widely*. Adjectives of the third declension add **-ter** or **-iter** to the base, except third declension adjectives whose base ends in **nt**, which instead add only **-er**; some examples include **audāx**, **audācis**, *bold*, **audacter**, *boldly*; **fortis**, *brave*, **fortiter**, *bravely*; **prūdēns**, **prūdentis**, *prudent*, **prūdentē**, *prudently*. The neuter accusative singular of adjectives of all declensions may also be used adverbially; such as **multum**, *much*, **facile**, *easily*.
 - The *comparative* form of the adverb is identical with accusative singular neuter of the comparative form of the adjective; such as **lātius**, *more widely*, **audācius**, *more boldly*, **fortius**, *more bravely*, **prūdentius**, *more prudently*, **plūs**, *more*, **facilius**, *more easily*.
 - The *superlative* form of the adverb is formed by adding **-e** to the base of the superlative form of the adjective; or, less often, is its accusative singular neuter; such as **lātissimē**, *most widely*, **audācissimē**, *most boldly*, **fortissimē**, *most bravely*, **prūdentissimē**, *most prudently*, **plūrimum**, *most*, **facillime**, *most easily*.

NUMERALS

47. Numeral adjectives belong to three categories: *cardinals*, which answer the question *how many?* such as *one, two, three, etc.*; *ordinals*, which answer the question *in what order?* such as *first, second, third, etc.*; and *distributives*, which answer the question *how many at a time* or *how many to each?* such as *one at a time* (or *one to each*), *two at a time* (or *two to each*), *three three at a time* (or *three to each*), etc.

Roman Numerals	Cardinal Numbers	Ordinal Numbers	Distributive Numbers
I.	ūnus, -a, -um	prīmus, -a, -um	singulī, -ae, -a
II.	duo, -ae, -a	secundus or alter	binī
III.	trēs, tria	tertius	ternī or trinī
IV.	quattuor	quārtus	quaternī
V.	quīnque	quīntus	quīnī
VI.	sex	sextus	sēnī
VII.	septem	septimus	septēnī
VIII.	octō	octāvus	octōnī
IX.	novem	nōnus	novēnī
X.	decem	decimus	dēnī
XI.	ūndecim	ūndecimus	ūndēnī
XII.	duodecim	duodecimus	duodēnī
XIII.	tredecim	tertius decimus	ternī dēnī
XIV.	quattuordecim	quārtus decimus	quaternī dēnī
XV.	quīndecim	quīntus decimus	quīnī dēnī
XVI.	sēdecim	sextus decimus	sēnī dēnī
XVII.	septendecim	septimus decimus	septēnī dēnī
XVIII.	duodēvigintī	duodēvicēsīmus	duodēvicēnī
XIX.	ūndēvigintī	ūndēvicēsīmus	ūndēvicēnī
XX.	vīgintī	vicēsīmus	vicēnī
XXI.	ūnus et vīgintī (vīgintī ūnus)	vicēsīmus prīmus	vicēnī singulī
XXVIII.	duodētrīgintā	duodētricēsīmus	duodētricēnī
XXIX.	ūndētrīgintā	ūndētricēsīmus	ūndētricēnī
XXX.	trīgintā	tricēsīmus	tricēnī
XL.	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsīmus	quadrāgēnī
L.	quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēsīmus	quīnquāgēnī
LX.	sexāgintā	sexāgēsīmus	sexāgēnī
LXX.	septuāgintā	septuāgēsīmus	septuāgēnī
LXXX.	octōgintā	octōgēsīmus	octōgēnī
XC.	nōnāgintā	nōnāgēsīmus	nōnāgēnī
C.	centum	centēsīmus	centēnī
CI.	centum (et) ūnus	centēsīmus (et) prīmus	centēnī (et) singulī
CC.	ducentī, -ae, -a	ducentēsīmus	ducentēnī
CCC.	trecentī	trecentēsīmus	trecentēnī
CCCC.	quadrīngentī	quadrīngentēsīmus	quadrīngēnī
D.	quīngentī	quīngentēsīmus	quīngēnī
DC.	sescentī	sescentēsīmus	sescentēnī
DCC.	septīngentī	septīngentēsīmus	septīngēnī
DCCC.	octīngentī	octīngentēsīmus	octīngēnī
DCCCC.	nōngentī	nōngentēsīmus	nōngēnī
M.	mille	millēsīmus	singula milia
MM.	duo milia	bis millēsīmus	bina milia

a. The ending *-ēsīmus* is often used for *-ēsīmus*.

48. The cardinal numbers **ūnus**, **duo**, and **trēs** are declined; cardinals from **quattuor** to **centum** are indeclinable; cardinals from **ducentī** to **nōnāgentī** are declined like the plural of **magnus** (§31); **mille**, when used as an adjective, is indeclinable, but, when used as a substantive, it is declined like the plural of **cubile** (§25) and generally spelled **mīlia**. Ordinal numbers are declined like **magnus**, distributives like the plural of **magnus**.
49. For the declension of **ūnus**, see §32. Its plural usually means *only* or *alone*, but it is used in the sense of *one* with nouns that are used only in the plural; such as, **ūna castra**, *one camp*. **Duo** and **trēs** are declined as follows:

	duo, two			trēs, three	
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>	<i>M. & F.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
N.	duo	duae	duo	trēs	tria
G.	duōrum	duārum	duōrum	trium	trium
D.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus	tribus
Acc.	duōs, duo	duās	duo	trēs, trīs	tria
Abl.	duōbus	duābus	duōbus	tribus	tribus

50. The numbers that would fall between the numbers provided in the table in §47 may be produced as follows: In a combination of tens and ones, the ones may precede the tens, followed by *et*; as in **trēs et quadrāgintā**, *three and forty = forty-three*; or the tens may precede the ones, but without an *et*; as in **quadrāgintā trēs**, *forty-three*. In other combinations of two numbers, the higher number precedes the lower number, with or without *et*; as in **ducentī (et) vīgintī**, *two hundred (and) twenty*. In combinations of three or more numbers, the order is as in English, without *et*; as in **duo milia sescentī vīgintī sex**, *two thousand, six hundred twenty-six*.

PRONOUNS

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

51. First person, **ego**, *I* / Second person, **tū**, *you*

	First person, ego , <i>I</i>		Second person, tū , <i>you</i>	
	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
N.	ego	nōs	tū	vōs
G.	meī	nostrum or nostrī	tuī	vestrum or vestrī
D.	mihi	nōbīs	tibi	vōbīs
Acc.	mē	nōs	tē	vōs
Abl.	mē	nōbīs	tē	vōbīs

- a. There is no personal pronoun for the third person. A demonstrative pronoun generally serves in its place, often **is**, *he*, **ea**, *she*, **id**, *it*, §57, although other demonstrative pronouns may be used as well. When, however, *him*, *her*, *them*, etc., refer to the subject (§163), reflexive pronouns are used for the third person.
- b. **Nostrum** and **vestrum** are the forms used as partitive genitives (§101); **nostrī** and **vestrī** are the forms used as objective genitives (§98).
- c. The preposition **cum** is enclitic with personal pronouns (i.e., it attaches to the personal pronoun); as in **nōbiscum**, *with us*.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

52. There is no nominative form of reflexive pronouns because they cannot be the subjects of finite verbs (infinitives have accusative subjects), and they cannot agree with the subject of finite verbs. For the first and second persons, the personal pronouns are also used as reflexives. For the third person, however, there is a special pronoun.

	First person, meī , <i>of myself</i>		Second person, tuī , <i>of yourself</i>		Third person, suī , of <i>himself, of herself, of itself</i>	
	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
G.	meī	nostrum <i>or</i> nostrī	tuī	vestrum <i>or</i> vestrī	suī	suī
D.	mihi	nōbis	tibi	vōbis	sibi	sibi
Acc.	mē	nōs	tē	vōs	sē	sē
Abl.	mē	nōbis	tē	vōbis	sē	sē

- a. The preposition **cum** is enclitic with reflexive pronouns (i.e., it attaches to the reflexive pronoun); as in **sēcum**, *with himself*.

POSSESSIVE ADJECTIVES & PRONOUNS

	SINGULAR	PLURAL
1st person	meus, -a, -um , <i>my</i>	noster, -tra, -trum , <i>our</i>
2nd person	tuus, -a, -um , <i>your</i>	vester, -tra, -trum , <i>your</i>
3rd person	eius (gen. sing. of is) <i>his, her, its</i> (when not referring to the subject).	eōrum, eārum, eōrum (gen. sing. of is) <i>their</i> (when not referring to the subject)
3rd person reflexive	suus, -a, -um , <i>his, her, its</i> (when referring to the subject)	suus, -a, -um , <i>their</i> (when referring to the subject)

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

54. **hīc**, *this* (near the speaker)

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
N.	hīc	haec	hoc	hī	haec	haec
G.	huius	huius	huius	hōrum	hārum	hōrum
D.	huic	huic	huic	hīs	hīs	hīs
Acc.	hunc	hanc	hoc	hōs	hās	haec
Abl.	hōc	hāc	hōc	hīs	hīs	hīs

55. **iste**, *that* (near the person spoken to)

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
N.	iste	ista	istud	istī	istae	ista
G.	istius	istius	istius	istōrum	istārum	istōrum
D.	istī	istī	istī	istīs	istīs	istīs
Acc.	istum	istam	istud	istōs	istās	ista
Abl.	istō	istā	istō	istīs	istīs	istīs

56. **Ille**, *that* (something more remote).

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
N.	ille	illa	illud	illī	illae	illa
G.	illius	illius	illius	illōrum	illārum	illōrum
D.	illī	illī	illī	illis	illis	illis
Acc.	illum	illam	illud	illōs	illās	illa
Abl.	illō	illā	illō	illis	illis	illis

57. **is**, *this, that, he, she, it* (unemphatic)

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
N.	is	ea	id	eī, iī	eae	ea
G.	eius	eius	eius	eōrum	eārum	eōrum
D.	eī	eī	eī	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs
Acc.	eum	eam	id	eōs	eās	ea
Abl.	eō	eā	eō	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs	eīs, iīs

58. **idem**, *the same*

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
N.	idem	eadem	idem	idem or eīdem	eaedem	eadem
G.	eiusdem	eiusdem	eiusdem	eōrundem	eārundem	eōrundem
D.	eīdem	eīdem	eīdem	iīsdem or eīsdem	iīsdem or eīsdem	iīsdem or eīsdem
Acc.	eundem	eandem	idem	eōsdem	eāsdem	eadem
Abl.	eōdem	eādem	eōdem	iīsdem or eīsdem	iīsdem or eīsdem	iīsdem or eīsdem

THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN

59. **ipse**, *self*

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
N.	ipse	ipsa	ipsum	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
G.	ipsius	ipsīus	ipsius	ipsōrum	ipsārum	ipsōrum
D.	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Acc.	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa
Abl.	ipsō	ipsā	ipsō	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs

THE RELATIVE PRONOUN

60. **quī**, *who, which*

	SINGULAR			PLURAL		
	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>	<i>Masc.</i>	<i>Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
N.	quī	quae	quod	quī	quae	quae
G.	cuius	cuius	cuius	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
D.	cui	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
Acc.	quem	quam	quod	quōs	quās	quae
Abl.	quō	quā	quō	quibus	quibus	quibus

- a. **Quicumque** and **quisquis**, *whoever*, are generalizing relatives. The **quī** of **quicumque** is declined regularly (i.e., decline **quī** and add **cumque**). **Quisquis**, **quicquid** (**quidquid**), and **quōquō** are the only common forms of **quisquis**.
- b. The preposition **cum** is usually enclitic with (i.e., it attaches to) the relative pronoun; as in **quibuscum**, *with whom*.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS & ADJECTIVES

61. The interrogative adjective **quī**, **quae**, **quod**, *what?* is declined like the relative pronoun (§60). The interrogative pronoun **quis**, **quid**, *who, what?* is used in the singular.

quis, *who? what?*

	SING.	
	<i>Masc. & Fem.</i>	<i>Neut.</i>
N.	quis	quid
G.	cuius	cuius
D.	cui	cui
Acc.	quem	quid
Abl.	quō	quō

- a. The enclitic **-nam** is sometimes added to an interrogative to strengthen it; **quisnam**, *who (in the world)?*
- b. **Cum** is usually enclitic with (i.e., it attaches to) the interrogative pronoun, as in **quōcum**, *with whom?*

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS & ADJECTIVES

62. The indefinite pronouns are **quis**, **quī**, and compounds formed with **quis**, **quī** as their base. **Quis** and **quī** in this sense are generally declined like the interrogatives.

PRONOUN

quis, **quid**, *any one*

aliquis, **aliquid**, *some one*

quispiam, **quidpiam**, *some one*

quisquam, **quicquam** (**quidquam**), *any one* (in the ablative singular and for all plurals, forms of **ūllus**, **-a**, **-um** are used)

quīvīs, **quaevīs**, **quidvīs**

or

quīlibet, **quaelibet**, **quidlibet**, *any one (you like)*

quīdam, **quaedam**, **quiddam**, *a certain one*

quisque, **quidque**, *each*

ADJECTIVE

quī, **quae** (**qua**), **quod**, *any*

aliquī, **aliquae** (**qua**), **aliquid**, *some*

quispiam, **quaequam**, **quodpiam**, *some*
(forms of **ūllus**, **-a**, **-um** are used)

quīvīs, **quaevīs**, **quodvīs**

or

quīlibet, **quaelibet**, **quodlibet**, *any you like*

quīdam, **quaedam**, **quoddam**, *a certain*

quisque, **quaeque**, **quodque**, *each*

- a. For **quī** and **aliquī**, the nominative and accusative plural neuter are **qua** (or **quae**) and **aliqua**.
- b. In the declension of **quīdam**, **m** becomes **n** before **d**; as in **quendam**. (Compare §58.)

VERBS

63. There are four conjugations of Latin verbs. They are distinguished from one another by the final vowel of the stem, which we can see most clearly in the present infinitive.

CONJUGATION	FINAL VOWEL OF STEM	PRESENT INFINITIVE ENDING
I.	ā	-āre
II.	ē	-ēre
III.	e (i, u)	-ere
IV.	ī	-īre

64. All verb forms can be produced on the basis of one of three stems, which we derive from a verb's "principal parts" (see §65): the present stem (which we derive from the first and second principal parts), the perfect stem (from the third principal part), and the supine stem (from the fourth principal part). In regular verbs, the perfect and supine stems are based on the present stem, but in some irregular verbs they are formed on distinct roots.
- Verb forms based on the present stem (derived from the first and second principal parts) include in both the *active and passive*: the present, imperfect, and future indicative; the present and imperfect subjunctive; the imperative; and the present infinitive. Additional verb forms include in the *active* only: the present participle and gerund; and, in the *passive* only: the gerundive.
 - Verb forms based on the perfect stem (found in the third principal part) include in the *active* voice only: the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect indicative; the perfect and pluperfect subjunctive; and the perfect infinitive.
 - Verb forms based on the supine stem (found in the fourth principal part) include in both the *active and passive*: the future infinitive; in the *active* only: the future participle and supine; and, in the *passive* only: the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect indicative; the perfect and pluperfect subjunctive; the perfect infinitive; and the perfect participle.
65. The "principal parts" of a verb are those forms commonly listed by grammars and dictionaries to reveal a verb's conjugation as well as its various stems. These parts are, in the active, (1) the first person singular present indicative (as the first principal part), (2) the present infinitive (to indicate the conjugation and give the present stem), (3) the first person singular perfect indicative (to give the perfect stem), (4) the supine (to give the supine stem).

For example, the principal parts of **laudō** are:

laudō, laudāre (present stem, **laudā-**)
laudavī (perfect stem, **laudāv-**)
laudātum (supine stem, **laudāt-**).

For most Latin verbs, no supine exists. Other forms are then supplied. Rather than the supine, some textbooks supply the perfect passive participle as fourth principal part. For example, **laudātus** rather than **laudātum**. In such cases, one finds the supine by removing a **us** rather than a **um**. At all events, because there is no one form that can be supplied for all verbs, the supine is commonly used for the sake of convenience.

CONJUGATION OF SUM (IRREGULAR VERB)

66. Principal parts: **sum, esse, fui, futūrum, be**

- a. Because there is no supine, we use the future active participle as the fourth principle part for forms based on the supine stem.

INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	
SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
	<i>Present</i>		<i>Present</i>
sum	sumus	sim	sīmus
es	estis	sīs	sītis
est	sunt	sit	sint
	<i>Imperfect</i>		<i>Imperfect</i>
eram	erāmus	essem (or forem)	essēmus (or forēmus)
erās	erātis	essētis (or forētis)	essētis (or forētis)
erat	erant	esset (or foret)	essent (or forent)
	<i>Future</i>		
erō	erimus		
eris	eritis		
erit	erunt		
	<i>Perfect</i>		<i>Perfect</i>
fuī	fuīmus	fuerim	fuerīmus
fuistī	fuistis	fueris	fueritis
fuit	fuerunt (or fuēre)	fuerit	fuerint
	<i>Pluperfect</i>		<i>Pluperfect</i>
fueram	fuerāmus	fuissem	fuissēmus
fuerās	fuerātis	fuissēs	fuissētis
fuerat	fuerant	fuisset	fuissent
	<i>Future Perfect</i>		
fuerō	fuerimus		
fueris	fueritis		
fuerit	fuerint		
	IMPERATIVE	PARTICIPLE	
	<i>Present</i>	<i>Fut. futūrus</i>	
<i>2nd pers. es</i>	este	INFINITIVE	
	<i>Present</i>	<i>Pres. esse</i>	
<i>2nd pers. estō</i>	estōte	<i>Perf. fuisse</i>	
<i>3rd pers. estō</i>	sunto	<i>Fut. futūrus esse or fore</i>	

FIRST CONJUGATION

67. Active principal parts: **laudō, laudāre, laudāvi, laudātum**, *praise*Passive principal parts: **laudor, laudārī, laudātus sum**, *be praised*

		ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
		INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
		<i>Present</i>		<i>Present</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	laudō		laudem	laudor	lauder
	laudās		laudēs	laudāris or –re	laudēris or –re
	laudat		laudet	laudātur	laudētur
<i>Plur.</i>	laudāmus		laudēmus	laudāmur	laudēmur
	laudātis		laudētis	laudāminī	laudēminī
	laudant		laudent	laudantur	laudentur
		<i>Imperfect</i>		<i>Imperfect</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	laudābam		laudārem	laudābar	laudārer
	laudābās		laudārēs	laudābāris or –re	laudārēris or –re
	laudābat		laudāret	laudābātur	laudārētur
<i>Plur.</i>	laudābāmus		laudārēmus	laudābāmur	laudārēmur
	laudābātis		laudārētis	laudābāminī	laudārēminī
	laudābant		laudārent	laudābantur	laudārentur
		<i>Future</i>		<i>Future</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	laudābō			laudābor	
	laudābis			laudāberis or –re	
	laudābit			laudābitur	
<i>Plur.</i>	laudābimus			laudābimur	
	laudābitis			laudābiminī	
	laudābunt			laudābuntur	
		<i>Perfect</i>		<i>Perfect</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	laudāvī		laudāverim	laudātus sum	laudātus sīmus
	laudāvistī		laudāverīs	laudātus es	laudātus sītis
	laudāvit		laudāverit	laudātus est	laudātus sint
<i>Plur.</i>	laudāvīmus		laudāverīmus	laudātī sumus	laudātī sīmus
	laudāvistis		laudāverītis	laudātī estis	laudātī sītis
	laudāvērunt or –ēre		laudāverint	laudātī sunt	laudātī sint
		<i>Pluperfect</i>		<i>Pluperfect</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	laudāveram		laudāvissem	laudātus eram	laudātus essem
	laudāverās		laudāvissēs	laudātus erās	laudātus essētis
	laudāverat		laudāvisset	laudātus erat	laudātus esset
<i>Plur.</i>	laudāverāmus		laudāvissēmus	laudātī erāmus	laudātī essēmus
	laudāverātis		laudāvissētis	laudātī erātis	laudātī essētis
	laudāverant		laudāvissent	laudātī erant	laudātī essent

	<i>Future Perfect</i>	<i>Future Perfect</i>
<i>Sing.</i>	laudā verō laudā veris laudā verit	laudāt us erō laudāt us eris laudāt us erit
<i>Plur.</i>	laudā verimus laudā veritis laudā verint	laudāt ī erimus laudāt ī eritis laudāt ī erunt

IMPERATIVE

ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
<i>Present</i>		<i>Present</i>	
<i>2nd pers.</i>	laudā	laudāte	laudāre
			laudā mini
<i>Future</i>		<i>Future</i>	
<i>2nd pers.</i>	laudātō	laudātōte	laudātor
<i>3rd pers.</i>	laudātō	laudantō	laudantor

INFINITIVE

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
<i>Present</i>	laudāre	laudārī
<i>Perfect</i>	laudāvisse	—
<i>Future</i>	laudātūrus esse	laudātum irī

PARTICIPLE

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
<i>Present</i>	laudāns	—
<i>Perfect</i>	—	laudātus
<i>Future</i>	laudātūrus	laudāndus

SUPINE (Active Voice)

<i>Accusative</i>	laudāt um
<i>Ablative</i>	laudāt ū

GERUND (Active Voice)

<i>Genitive</i>	laudand ī
<i>Dative</i>	laudand ō
<i>Accusative</i>	laudand um
<i>Ablative</i>	laudand ō

SECOND CONJUGATION

68. Active principal parts: **moneō, monēre, monuī, monitum**, *warn*Passive principal parts: **moneor, monērī, monitus sum**, *be warned*

		ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
		INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
		<i>Present</i>		<i>Present</i>	
Sing.	moneō	moneam	moneor	monear	
	monēs	moneās	monēris or –re	moneāris or –re	
	monet	moneat	monētur	moneātur	
Plur.	monēmus	moneāmus	monēmur	moneāmur	
	monētis	moneātis	monēmini	moneāmini	
	monent	moneant	monentur	moneantur	
		<i>Imperfect</i>		<i>Imperfect</i>	
Sing.	monēbam	monērem	monēbar	monērer	
	monēbās	monērēs	monēbāris or –re	monērēris or –re	
	monēbat	monēret	monēbātur	monērētur	
Plur.	monēbāmus	monērēmus	monēbāmur	monērēmur	
	monēbātis	monērētis	monēbāmini	monērēmini	
	monēbant	monērent	monēbantur	monērentur	
		<i>Future</i>		<i>Future</i>	
Sing.	monēbō		monēbor		
	monēbis		monēberis or –re		
	monēbit		monēbitur		
Plur.	monēbimus		monēbimur		
	monēbitis		monēbimini		
	monēbunt		monēbuntur		
		<i>Perfect</i>		<i>Perfect</i>	
Sing.	monuī	monuerim	monitus sum	monitus sīmus	
	monuistī	monuerīs	monitus es	monitus sītis	
	monuit	monuerit	monitus est	monitus sint	
Plur.	monuimus	monuerīmus	monitī sumus	monitī sīmus	
	monuistis	monuerītis	monitī estis	monitī sītis	
	monuērunt or –ēre	monuerint	monitī sunt	monitī sint	
		<i>Pluperfect</i>		<i>Pluperfect</i>	
Sing.	monueram	monuissē	monitus eram	monitus essem	
	monuerās	monuissēs	monitus erās	monitus essētis	
	monuerat	monuisset	monitus erat	monitus esset	
Plur.	monuerāmus	monuissēmus	monitī erāmus	monitī essēmus	
	monuerātis	monuissētis	monitī erātis	monitī essētis	
	monuerant	monuissent	monitī erant	monitī essent	

	<i>Future Perfect</i>	<i>Future Perfect</i>
<i>Sing.</i>	monuerō monueris monuerit	monitus erō monitus eris monitus erit
<i>Plur.</i>	monuerimus monueritis monuerint	monitī erimus monitī eritis monitī erunt

IMPERATIVE

ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
<i>Present</i>		<i>Present</i>	
<i>2nd pers.</i>	monēte	monēre	monēmini
<i>Future</i>		<i>Future</i>	
<i>2nd pers.</i>	monētō	monētor	
<i>3rd pers.</i>	monentō	monētor	monentor

INFINITIVE

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
<i>Present</i>	monēre	monēri
<i>Perfect</i>	monuisse	—
<i>Future</i>	monitūrus esse	monitum iri

PARTICIPLE

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
<i>Present</i>	monēns	—
<i>Perfect</i>	—	monitus
<i>Future</i>	monitūrus	monendus

SUPINE (Active Voice)

<i>Accusative</i>	monitum
<i>Ablative</i>	monitū

GERUND (Active Voice)

<i>Genitive</i>	monendī
<i>Dative</i>	monendō
<i>Accusative</i>	monendum
<i>Ablative</i>	monendō

THIRD CONJUGATION

69. Active principal parts: **dūcō, dūcere, dūxī, ductum**, leadPassive principal parts: **dūcor, dūcī, ductus sum**, be led

		ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
		INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
		<i>Present</i>		<i>Present</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	dūcō	dūcam	dūcā	dūcor	dūcar
	dūcis	dūcās	dūcās	dūceris or -re	dūcāris or -re
	dūcit	dūcat	dūcat	dūcitur	dūcātur
<i>Plur.</i>	dūcimus	dūcāmus	dūcāmus	dūcimur	dūcāmur
	dūcitis	dūcātis	dūcātis	dūcimīnī	dūcāminī
	dūcunt	dūcant	dūcant	dūcuntur	dūcantur
		<i>Imperfect</i>		<i>Imperfect</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	dūcēbam	dūcerem	dūcerem	dūcēbar	dūcerer
	dūcēbās	dūcerēs	dūcerēs	dūcēbāris or -re	dūcerēris or -re
	dūcēbat	dūceret	dūceret	dūcēbātur	dūcerētur
<i>Plur.</i>	dūcēbāmus	dūcerēmus	dūcerēmus	dūcēbāmur	dūcerēmur
	dūcēbātis	dūcerētis	dūcerētis	dūcēbāminī	dūcerēminī
	dūcēbant	dūcerent	dūcerent	dūcēbantur	dūcerentur
		<i>Future</i>		<i>Future</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	dūcam			dūcar	
	dūcēs			dūcēris or -re	
	dūcet			dūcētur	
<i>Plur.</i>	dūcēmus			dūcēmur	
	dūcētis			dūcēminī	
	dūcent			dūcentur	
		<i>Perfect</i>		<i>Perfect</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	dūxī	dūxerim	dūxerim	ductus sum	ductus sīmus
	dūxistī	dūxeris	dūxeris	ductus es	ductus sītis
	dūxit	dūxerit	dūxerit	ductus est	ductus sint
<i>Plur.</i>	dūximus	dūxerimus	dūxerimus	ductī sumus	ductī sīmus
	dūxistis	dūxeritis	dūxeritis	ductī estis	ductī sītis
	dūxērunt or -ēre	dūxerint	dūxerint	ductī sunt	ductī sint
		<i>Pluperfect</i>		<i>Pluperfect</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	dūxeram	dūxissem	dūxissem	ductus eram	ductus essem
	dūxerās	dūxissēs	dūxissēs	ductus erās	ductus essētis
	dūxerat	dūxisset	dūxisset	ductus erat	ductus esset
<i>Plur.</i>	dūxerāmus	dūxissēmus	dūxissēmus	ductī erāmus	ductī essēmus
	dūxerātis	dūxissētis	dūxissētis	ductī erātis	ductī essētis
	dūxerant	dūxissent	dūxissent	ductī erant	ductī essent

	<i>Future Perfect</i>	<i>Future Perfect</i>
<i>Sing.</i>	dūxerō dūxeris dūxerit	ductus erō ductus eris ductus erit
<i>Plur.</i>	dūxerimus dūxeritis dūxerint	ducti erimus ducti eritis ducti erunt

IMPERATIVE

ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
<i>Present</i>		<i>Present</i>	
<i>2nd pers. dūc (irregular for dūce)</i>	dūcite	dūcere	dūcimini
<i>Future</i>		<i>Future</i>	
<i>2nd pers. dūcitō</i>	dūcitōte	dūcitor	
<i>3rd pers. dūcitō</i>	dūcuntō	dūcitor	dūcuntor

INFINITIVE

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
<i>Present</i>	dūcere	dūcī
<i>Perfect</i>	dūxisse	—
<i>Future</i>	ductūrus esse	ductum īri

PARTICIPLE

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
<i>Present</i>	dūcēns	—
<i>Perfect</i>	—	ductus
<i>Future</i>	ductūrus	dūcendus

SUPINE (Active Voice)

<i>Accusative</i>	ductum
<i>Ablative</i>	ductū

GERUND (Active Voice)

<i>Genitive</i>	dūcendī
<i>Dative</i>	dūcendō
<i>Accusative</i>	dūcendum
<i>Ablative</i>	dūcendō

FOURTH CONJUGATION

70. Active principal parts: **audiō, audire, audivī, auditum, hear**Passive principal parts: **audior, audīri, auditus sum, be heard**

		ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
		INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
		<i>Present</i>		<i>Present</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	audiō	audiam	audiām	audior	audiar
	audīs	audiās	audiās	audīris or –re	audiāris or –re
	audit	audiat	audiāt	audītur	audiātur
<i>Plur.</i>	audīmus	audiāmus	audiāmus	audīmur	audiāmur
	audītis	audiātis	audiātis	audīmini	audiāmini
	audiunt	audiant	audiant	audiuntur	audiantur
		<i>Imperfect</i>		<i>Imperfect</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	audiēbam	audīrem	audīrem	audiēbar	audīrer
	audiēbās	audīrēs	audīrēs	audiēbāris or –re	audīrēris or –re
	audiēbat	audīret	audīret	audiēbātur	audīrētur
<i>Plur.</i>	audiēbāmus	audīrēmus	audīrēmus	audiēbāmur	audīrēmur
	audiēbātis	audīrētis	audīrētis	audiēbāmini	audīrēmini
	audiēbant	audīrent	audīrent	audiēbantur	audīrentur
		<i>Future</i>		<i>Future</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	audiam			audiar	
	audiēs			audiēris or –re	
	audiet			audiētur	
<i>Plur.</i>	audiēmus			audiēmur	
	audiētis			audiēmini	
	audient			audientur	
		<i>Perfect</i>		<i>Perfect</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	audivī	audiverim	audiverim	auditus sum	auditus sīmus
	audivistī	audiverīs	audiverīs	auditus es	auditus sītis
	audivit	audiverit	audiverit	auditus est	auditus sint
<i>Plur.</i>	audivimus	audiverīmus	audiverīmus	auditī sumus	auditī sīmus
	audivistis	audiverītis	audiverītis	auditī estis	auditī sītis
	audivērunt or –ēre	audiverint	audiverint	auditī sunt	auditī sint
		<i>Pluperfect</i>		<i>Pluperfect</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	audiveram	audivissem	audivissem	auditus eram	auditus essem
	audiverās	audivissēs	audivissēs	auditus erās	auditus essētis
	audiverat	audivisset	audivisset	auditus erat	auditus esset
<i>Plur.</i>	audiverāmus	audivissēmus	audivissēmus	auditī erāmus	auditī essēmus
	audiverātis	audivissētis	audivissētis	auditī erātis	auditī essētis
	audiverant	audivissent	audivissent	auditī erant	auditī essent

	<i>Future Perfect</i>	<i>Future Perfect</i>
<i>Sing.</i>	audīverō audīveris audīverit	audītus erō audītus eris audītus erit
<i>Plur.</i>	audīverimus audīveritis audīverint	audītī erimus audītī eritis audītī erunt

IMPERATIVE

ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
<i>Present</i>		<i>Present</i>	
<i>2nd pers.</i>	audī	audīre	audīmini
<i>Future</i>		<i>Future</i>	
<i>2nd pers.</i>	audītō	audītor	
<i>3rd pers.</i>	audītō	audītor	audiuntor

INFINITIVE

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
<i>Present</i>	audīre	audīrī
<i>Perfect</i>	audivisse	—
<i>Future</i>	audītūrus esse	audītum irī

PARTICIPLE

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
<i>Present</i>	audiēns	—
<i>Perfect</i>	—	audītus
<i>Future</i>	audītūrus	audiendus

SUPINE (Active Voice)

<i>Accusative</i>	audītum
<i>Ablative</i>	audītū

GERUND (Active Voice)

<i>Genitive</i>	audiendī
<i>Dative</i>	audiendō
<i>Accusative</i>	audiendum
<i>Ablative</i>	audiendō

THIRD -IŌ CONJUGATION

71. Active principal parts: **capīō, capere, cēpī, captum, take**Passive principal parts: **capior, capī, captus sum, be taken**

		ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
		INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
		<i>Present</i>		<i>Present</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	capīō	capiam	capiam	capior	capiar
	capis	capias	capias	caperis or -re	capiaris or -re
	capit	capiat	capiat	capitur	capiat̄ur
<i>Plur.</i>	capimus	capiamus	capiamus	capimur	capiamur
	capitis	capiat̄is	capiat̄is	capimini	capiamini
	capiunt	capiant	capiant	capiuntur	capiantur
		<i>Imperfect</i>		<i>Imperfect</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	capiebam	caperem	caperem	capiebar	capierer
	capiebās	caperēs	caperēs	capiebāris or -re	capiereris or -re
	capiebat	caperet	caperet	capiebātur	capieretur
<i>Plur.</i>	capiebāmus	caperēmus	caperēmus	capiebāmur	capieremur
	capiebātis	caperētis	caperētis	capiebāmini	capierēmini
	capiebant	caperent	caperent	capiebantur	capierentur
		<i>Future</i>		<i>Future</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	capiam			capiar	
	capies			capieris or -re	
	capiet			capietur	
<i>Plur.</i>	capiemus			capiemur	
	capietis			capiemini	
	capient			capientur	
		<i>Perfect</i>		<i>Perfect</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	cēpī	cēperim	cēperim	captus sum	captus sīmus
	cēpistī	cēperis	cēperis	captus es	captus sitis
	cēpit	cēperit	cēperit	captus est	captus sint
<i>Plur.</i>	cēpimus	cēperimus	cēperimus	capti sumus	capti sīmus
	cēpistis	cēperitis	cēperitis	capti estis	capti sitis
	cēperunt or -ere	cēperint	cēperint	capti sunt	capti sint
		<i>Pluperfect</i>		<i>Pluperfect</i>	
<i>Sing.</i>	cēperam	cēpissem	cēpissem	captus eram	captus essem
	cēperās	cēpissēs	cēpissēs	captus erās	captus essētis
	cēperat	cēpisset	cēpisset	captus erat	captus esset
<i>Plur.</i>	cēperāmus	cēpissēmus	cēpissēmus	capti erāmus	capti essēmus
	cēperātis	cēpissētis	cēpissētis	capti erātis	capti essētis
	cēperant	cēpissent	cēpissent	capti erant	capti essent

	<i>Future Perfect</i>	<i>Future Perfect</i>
<i>Sing.</i>	cēperō cēperis cēperit	captus erō captus eris captus erit
<i>Plur.</i>	cēperimus cēperitis cēperint	captī erimus captī eritis captī erunt

IMPERATIVE

ACTIVE VOICE		PASSIVE VOICE	
SING.	PLURAL	SING.	PLURAL
<i>Present</i>		<i>Present</i>	
<i>2nd pers.</i>	capite	capere	capiminī
<i>Future</i>		<i>Future</i>	
<i>2nd pers.</i>	capitō	capitor	
<i>3rd pers.</i>	capiantō	capitor	capiantor

INFINITIVE

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
<i>Present</i>	capere	capī
<i>Perfect</i>	cēpisse	—
<i>Future</i>	captūrus esse	captum irī

PARTICIPLE

	ACTIVE VOICE	PASSIVE VOICE
<i>Present</i>	capīens	—
<i>Perfect</i>	—	captus
<i>Future</i>	captūrus	capiendus

SUPINE (Active Voice)

<i>Accusative</i>	captum
<i>Ablative</i>	captū

GERUND (Active Voice)

<i>Genitive</i>	capiendī
<i>Dative</i>	capiendō
<i>Accusative</i>	capiendum
<i>Ablative</i>	capiendō

CONTRACTED FORMS

72. When the perfect stem ends in **v**, the **v** is sometimes dropped, and usually the two vowels are brought together as a result contract. Such forms are sometimes called syncopated.

- a. Perfects in **-āvī**, **-ēvī**, and **-ōvī**, and other tenses based on the same stem, sometimes (seem to) drop **ve**, **vē**, or **vi** before **r** or **s**.

Examples: **laudāsti** for **laudāvisti**; **laudāsse** for **laudāvisse**; **delērunt** for **delēvērunt**; **nōrim** for **nōverim**.

- b. Perfects in **-īvī** and other tenses based on the same stem sometimes drop **v** in all forms. When the combination of vowels resulting from this is **iis**, it usually contracts to **īs**.

Examples: **audiī** for **audīvī**; **audieram** for **audīveram**; **audisse** for **audīvisse**.

DEPONENT VERBS

73. Deponent verbs have passive forms with active meanings. But the future passive participle remains passive in meaning, and the perfect participle is sometimes passive in meaning. On the other hand, they have the following active forms: future infinitive, present and future participles, gerund, supine.

In the indicative, the subjunctive, and the imperative, the following verbs have the same forms that the verbs in their corresponding conjugation outlined above (§§68–71) have in the passive voice.

	hortor, hortārī, hortātus sum, urge <i>1st (§67)</i>	vereor, verērī, veritus sum, fear <i>2nd (§68)</i>	sequor, sequī, secūtus sum, follow <i>3rd (§69)</i>	partior, partīrī, partītus sum, share <i>4th (§70)</i>	adgredior, adgredī, adgressus sum, attack <i>3rd -iō (§71)</i>
	INFINITIVE				
<i>Present</i>	hortārī	verērī	sequī	partīrī	adgredī
<i>Perfect</i>	hortātus esse	veritus esse	secūtus esse	partītus esse	adgressus esse
<i>Future</i>	hortātūrus esse	veritūrus esse	secūtūrus esse	partitūrus esse	adgressūrus esse
	PARTICIPLE				
<i>Present</i>	hortāns	verēns	sequēns	partiēns	adgrediēns
<i>Perfect</i>	hortātus	veritus	secūtus	partītus	adgressus
<i>Future</i>	hortātūrus	veritūrus	secūtūrus	partitūrus	adgressūrus
<i>Future passive</i>	hortandus	verendus	sequendus	partiendus	adgrediendus
	GERUND				
	hortandī, -ō <i>etc.</i>	verendī, -ō <i>etc.</i>	sequendī, -ō <i>etc.</i>	partiendī, -ō <i>etc.</i>	adgrediendī, -ō, etc.
	SUPINE				
	hortātum, -ū	veritum, -ū	secutum, -ū	partitum, -ū	adgressum, -ū

SEMI-DEPONENT VERBS

74. Semi-deponent verbs have active forms for the tenses based on the present stem and passive forms for the tenses based on the perfect stem.

audeō, audēre, ausus sum, dare
gaudeō, gaudēre, gavisus sum, rejoice
soleō, solēre, solitus sum, be accustomed
fidō, fidere, fisis sum, trust

PERIPHRASTIC CONSTRUCTIONS

75. Active periphrastic constructions express thoughts about *future* or *intended* action. They are formed by combining the future active participle with the verb **sum**:

Present: laudātūrus sum, I am about to praise, I intend to praise.

Imperfect: laudātūrus eram, I was about to praise, I intended to praise, etc.

76. Passive periphrastic constructions express *obligation* or *necessity*. They are formed by combining the future passive participle with the verb **sum**:

Present: laudandus sum, I am to be praised, I have to be praised.

Imperfect: laudandus eram, I was to be praised, I had to be praised, etc.

IRREGULAR VERBS

Sum And Its Compounds

77. For the conjugation of **sum**, see §66. **Sum** is conjugated in the same way when combined in compounds with the prepositions **ad, dē, in, inter, ob, prae, sub, and super**. **Praesum** has a present participle: **praesēns**.
78. In the compound **absum**, **sum** is conjugated in the same way, but **ā** is used instead of **ab** before **f**, which yields **āfui, āfutūrus**, etc. There is a present participle: **absēns**.
79. In the compound **prōsum**, **sum** is conjugated in the same way, but the preposition **prō** has its original form **prōd** before all forms of **sum** beginning with **e**; as in, **prōdesse** and **prōderam**. The present tense is, **prōsum, prōdes, prōdest, prōsumus, prōdestis, prōsunt**.
80. **Possum, be able, can**, is a compound of **pot-** and **sum**.

Principal parts: **possum, posse, potui**

	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
<i>Present</i>	possum, potes, potest possumus, potestis, possunt	possim
<i>Imperfect</i>	poteram	possem
<i>Future</i>	poterō	
<i>Perfect</i>	potuī	potuerim
<i>Pluperfect</i>	potueram	potuissem
<i>Future Perfect</i>	potuerō	
	INFINITIVE	PARTICIPLE
<i>Present</i>	posse	potēns
<i>Perfect</i>	potuisse	—

81. **ferō, ferre, tulī, lātum, carry**

ACTIVE VOICE

	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
<i>Present</i>	ferō, fers, fert ferimus, fertis, ferunt	feram
<i>Imperfect</i>	ferēbam	ferrem
<i>Future</i>	feram	
<i>Perfect</i>	tulī	tulerim
<i>Pluperfect</i>	tuleram	tulissem
<i>Future Perfect</i>	tulerō	

PASSIVE VOICE

	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
<i>Present</i>	feror, ferris, fertur ferimur, ferimini, feruntur	ferar
<i>Imperfect</i>	ferēbar	ferrer
<i>Future</i>	ferar	
<i>Perfect</i>	lātus sum	lātus sim
<i>Pluperfect</i>	lātus eram	lātus essem
<i>Future Perfect</i>	lātus erō	

	ACTIVE IMPERATIVE	PASSIVE
<i>Present</i>	fer ferte	ferre ferimini
<i>Future</i>	fertō fertōte fertō fertuntō	fertor fertor feruntor

	INFINITIVE	
<i>Present</i>	ferre	ferrī
<i>Perfect</i>	tulisse	lātus esse
<i>Future</i>	lāturus esse	lātum irī

	PARTICIPLE	
<i>Present</i>	ferēns	—
<i>Perfect</i>	—	lātus

82. **volō, velle, voluī**, *be willing*
nōlō, nolle, nōluī, *be unwilling*
mālō, mälle, māluī, *prefer*

INDICATIVE

<i>Present</i>	volō	nōlō	mālō
	vīs	nōn vīs	māvīs
	vult	nōn vult	māvult
	volumus	nōlumus	mālumus
	vultis	nōn vultis	māvultis
	volunt	nōlunt	mālunt
<i>Imperfect</i>	volēbam	nōlēbam	mālēbam
<i>Future</i>	volam	nōlam	mālam
<i>Perfect</i>	voluī	nōluī	māluī
<i>Pluperfect</i>	volueram	nōlueram	mālueram
<i>Future Perfect</i>	voluerō	nōluerō	māluerō

SUBJUNCTIVE

<i>Present</i>	velim	nōlim	mālim
<i>Imperfect</i>	vellem	nōllem	māllem
<i>Perfect</i>	voluerim	nōluerim	māluerim
<i>Pluperfect</i>	voluissem	nōluissem	māluissem

IMPERATIVE

<i>Present</i>		nōli	nōlite
<i>Future</i>		nōlitō	nōlitōte
		nōlitō	nōluntō

INFINITIVE

<i>Present</i>	velle	nōlle	mälle
<i>Perfect</i>	voluisse	nōluisse	māluisse

PARTICIPLE

<i>Present</i>	volēns	nōlēns
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83. **Fīō**, *be made, be done, become, happen*, supplies the irregular passive of **faciō**, *make*. The vowel **ī** appears before all vowels except before the vowel **e** when **e** appears in the combination **-er**. In this case, **ī** becomes **ĭ**.

Principal parts: **fīō, fierī, factus sum**

	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
<i>Present</i>	fīō, fīs, fit fīmus, fitis, fiunt	fīam
<i>Imperfect</i>	fīēbam	fierem
<i>Future</i>	fīam	
<i>Perfect</i>	factus sum	factus sim
<i>Pluperfect</i>	factus eram	factus essem
<i>Future Perfect</i>	factus erō	

IMPERATIVE	INFINITIVE	PARTICIPLE
<i>Pres. fī, fite</i>	<i>Pres. fierī</i>	
	<i>Perf. factus esse</i>	<i>Perf. factus</i>

84. **eō, ire, ii, itum, go**

	INDICATIVE	SUBJUNCTIVE
<i>Present</i>	eō, īs, it īmus, ītis, eunt	eam
<i>Imperfect</i>	ībam	irem
<i>Future</i>	ībō	
<i>Perfect</i>	īī (for īvī)	ierim
<i>Pluperfect</i>	ieram	īissem or īssem
<i>Future Perfect</i>	ierō	

IMPERATIVE	INFINITIVE	PARTICIPLE
<i>Pres. ī, ite</i>	<i>Pres. īrī</i>	<i>Pres. iēns (Gen. euntis)</i>
<i>Fut. itō</i>	<i>Perf. iisse or īsse</i>	
<i>itōte</i>		
<i>euntō</i>	<i>Fut. itūrus esse</i>	<i>Fut. itūrus</i>

GERUND	SUPINE
eundī, etc.	itum, -ū

a. In the tenses based on the perfect stem, **ii** usually contracts to **ī** before **s**.

85. **Dō, dare, dedī, datum, give**, is conjugated like a verb of the first conjugation, except that the stem-vowel is regularly short **a**. **ā** appears only in the following active forms: **dās, dā, dāns**.

DEFECTIVE VERBS

86. The most important defective verbs (defective because they lack present tense forms) are the perfects **meminī**, *I remember*; **ōdī**, *I hate*; and **coepī**, *I have begun*. Notice that **meminī** and **ōdī**, although perfect in form, are used with present meanings. Their pluperfects and future perfects have the meanings of imperfects and futures.

INDICATIVE

<i>Perfect</i>	meminī	ōdī	coepī
<i>Pluperfect</i>	memineram	ōderam	coeperam
<i>Future Perfect</i>	meminerō	ōderō	coeperō

SUBJUNCTIVE

<i>Perfect</i>	meminerim	ōderim	coeperim
<i>Pluperfect</i>	meminissem	ōdissem	coepissem

IMPERATIVE

<i>Singular</i>	mementō
<i>Plural</i>	mementōte

INFINITIVE

<i>Perfect</i>	meminisse	ōdisse	coepisse
<i>Future</i>		ōsūrus esse	coeptūrus esse

PARTICIPLE

<i>Perfect</i>		ōsus	coeptus
<i>Future</i>		ōsūrus	coeptūrus

- a. Instead of **coepī**, the passive form **coeptus sum** is regularly used when a passive infinitive depends on it. Example: **laudārī coeptus est**, *he began to be praised*.

IMPERSONAL VERBS

87. Impersonal verbs correspond to English impersonals with *it*. They have no personal subject, but most of them take as subject a substantive clause or sometimes a neuter pronoun. They appear only in the third person singular of the indicative and subjunctive tenses, the present and perfect infinitives, and occasionally in the participles and gerund. Impersonal verbs include:

- Most verbs expressing actions of nature; such as **pluit**, *it rains*.
- The following, which are exclusively impersonal: **decet**, *it becomes*; **libet**, *it pleases*; **licet**, *it is permitted*; **miseret**, *it causes pity*; **oportet**, *it is right*; **paenitet**, *it repents*; **piget**, *it displeases*; **pudet**, *it shames*; **rēfert**, *it concerns*; **taedet**, *it wearies*. All of these except **rēfert** belong to the second conjugation.
- Personal verbs that are used impersonally with a special meaning; such as **accēdit**, *it is added*, from **accēdō**, *I approach*.
- The passives of most intransitive verbs; as **pugnātur**, *it is fought*.

Syntax

SENTENCES

88. A sentence is a group of words brought together to express a complete thought. It consists of at least two parts—the *subject* (about which something is said), and the *predicate* (what is said about the subject). These two essential parts may be modified in various ways. A sentence may consist of a single verb, because the subject is implied by its ending.
- As in English, Latin sentences are declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory.
89. **A Simple Sentence** has one subject and one predicate. Example: **Caesar vēnit**, *Caesar came*.
90. **A Compound Sentence** consists of two or more simple sentences of equal value. These sentences are called *coordinate clauses*, and are connected by *coordinating conjunctions*; i.e., by conjunctions with such meanings as *and, but, for, or*. Example: **Caesar vēnit et Galli fūgērunt**, *Caesar came and the Gauls fled*.
91. **A Complex Sentence** consists of a simple sentence (called the *main* or *principal clause*), modified by one or more dependent sentences (called *subordinate* or *dependent clauses*). The clauses are connected by relative pronouns or by *subordinating conjunctions*; i.e., by conjunctions with such meanings as *in order that, so that, if, because, although, when, after, before*. Example: **ubi Caesar vēnit, Galli fūgērunt**, *when Caesar came, the Gauls fled*.

THE FUNCTION OF CASES

92. The cases help to show in what relation to the rest of a sentence any given substantive stands. This is shown in English almost entirely by word order and by the use of prepositions. The possessive case in English may, however, illustrate the use of the Latin cases: the ending *'s* in the *soldier's arms* indicates that *soldier* modifies *arms* and that the soldier is the possessor of the arms. But in the English sentences *the soldier* (subject) *fights, he kills the soldier* (direct object), *he gives the soldier* (indirect object) *a sword*. Only word order shows the relation of the word *soldier* to the rest of the sentence, while in Latin **mīles** would be used in the first sentence, **mīlitem** in the second, and **mīlitī** in the third.
93. But each of the cases, except the nominative and the vocative, expresses more than one thing. Consequently we must know what uses each case can have, and must then determine which one of these uses it has in the sentence in which it occurs. This can be determined sometimes by the meaning of the word itself, sometimes by the obvious meaning of the sentence, sometimes by the fact that another word needs a certain case to satisfy its meaning and that case appears just once in the sentence. Examples: the accusative may express duration of time, but **mīlitem**, a *soldier*, could not be used in this sense, while **multōs annōs**, *many years*, is quite probably used in this way. **Dicit pīlum mīlitem vulnerāvīsse** might mean either *he says that a javelin wounded the soldier*, or *a soldier wounded the javelin*, but the latter makes much less sense. **Persuāsīt**, *he persuaded*, needs a dative to express the person persuaded, and, if there is just one dative in the sentence, its use is then evident.
94. For further clearness many relations are expressed in Latin by prepositions, although not by so many as in English. Examples: **ā mīlite interfectus est**, *he was killed by a soldier*; **cum mīlite vēnit**, *he came with (in the company of) a soldier*.

AGREEMENT OF SUBSTANTIVES (NOUNS)

95. **RULE:** A noun that explains another noun and represents the same person or thing is put into the same case.

Compare §97. Such a noun may be either a predicate noun or an appositive.

- a. **RULE:** A predicate noun is connected with the subject by *sum* or by a similar linking verb.

Examples of such linking verbs include *appear, become, seem, be called, be chosen, be regarded*, and the like.

Examples: **Pisō fuit cōsul**, *Piso was consul*; **Pisō factus est cōsul**, *Piso became consul*; **Pisō appellātus est cōsul**, *Piso was called consul*. For the predicate accusative with verbs of calling, etc., see §126.

- b. **RULE:** A noun in apposition to other nouns is set next to the noun that it explains without a connecting verb.

Examples: **Pisō, cōsul, militi Pisōni gladium dedit**. *Piso, the consul, gave a sword to Piso, the soldier.*

THE NOMINATIVE CASE

96. The nominative case is used for the subject of a finite verb (i.e., verbs in the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative moods).

Example: **Gallia est divīsa** (1.1.1), *Gaul is divided*.

THE GENITIVE CASE**GENITIVE WITH NOUNS**

97. **GENERAL RULE:** A noun that explains or limits another noun, but does not represent the same person or thing (compare §95) is put in the genitive case.

The relationship between two nouns is usually expressed in English with the preposition *of*, but also often with *for* or with other prepositions. These combinations of nouns are divided, according to their meanings into the groups arranged below in §§98–105.

A genitive may be either (a) *attributive*, depending directly upon another noun; as in **domus Caesaris**, *Caesar's house*; or (b) *predicative*, connected by *sum* or a similar linking verb; as is **domus est Caesaris**, *the house is Caesar's*.

- a. **Appositional Genitive.** But the genitive is sometimes used instead of an appositive; i.e., it sometimes represents the same person or thing as the noun on which it depends. Example: **tuōrum comitum sentīna** (Cic. *Cat.* 1.12), *that sewage, your comrades* (literally “the sewage of your comrades”).

ATTRIBUTIVE

98. **Subjective and Objective Genitives.** These depend on nouns that have corresponding verbal ideas, such as **amor**, *love*, from **amō**, *I love*. The thought expressed by the noun and limiting genitive can be expanded into a sentence. If the genitive then becomes the subject, it is a subjective genitive; if it becomes the object, it is an objective genitive. Examples: **amor patris**, *the love of the father*, may imply that *the father loves*, (subjective), or that someone *loves his father* (objective); **occīsum sōlis** (1.1.22), *the setting of the sun* (subjective); **regni cupiditate** (1.2.2), *by the desire for power* (objective).

99. Possessive Genitive.

RULE: *The genitive may express the possessor.*

The possessive adjectives are regularly used instead of the possessive genitive of personal pronouns. Example: **finibus Belgārum** (1.1.16), *by the territory of the Belgae* versus **finibus vestris**, *by your territory*.

- a. A genitive or possessive adjective must precede **causā** or **grātiā**, *for the sake of*. Examples: **huius potentiae causā** (1.18.14), *for the sake of this power*; **meā causā**, *for my sake*.

100. Descriptive Genitive.

RULE: *The genitive modified by an adjective may describe a person or thing by naming some quality.*

Compare the descriptive ablative (§141). This genitive is regularly used to express measure. Examples: **huiusmodi senātūs cōsultum** (Cic. *Cat.* 1.4), *a decree of this kind*; **trium mēnsium molita cibāria** (1.5.7), *food for three months*.

101. Partitive Genitive (Genitive of the Whole).

RULE: *The genitive may express the whole of which a part is mentioned.*

This genitive may depend on any substantive, adjective, pronoun, or adverb which implies a part of a whole. Examples: **eōrum ūna pars** (1.1.15), *one part of them*; **hōrum omnium fortissimī** (1.1.6), *the bravest of all these*; **ubinam gentium sumus** (Cic. *Cat.* 1.9), *where in (not of) the world are we?*

- a. Note especially the genitive of a noun, or of the neuter singular of a second declension adjective used substantively, depending on a neuter singular adjective or pronoun or on **satis** used substantively. Examples: **quantum bonī** (1.40.17), *how much (of) good*; **satis causae** (1.19.6), *sufficient (of) reason*.
- b. In place of this genitive the ablative with **dē** or **ex** is often used, especially with cardinal numerals and with **quīdam**. Example: **ūnus ē filiīs captus est** (1.26.12), *one of his sons was captured*.
- c. English often uses *of* in apparently similar phrases when there is really no partitive idea. Latin does not then use the genitive. Example: **hī omnēs** (1.1.3), *all of these*.

102. Genitive of Material.

RULE: *The genitive may express the material of which a thing is composed.*

Example: **aciem legiōnum quattuor** (1.24.3), *a battle line (consisting) of four legions*.

PREDICATIVE

103. Possessive Genitive. The possessive genitive (§99) is often used predicatively. Note especially such phrases as **est hominis**, *it is the part (duty, characteristic) of a man*. Example: **est hoc Gallicae cōsuetūdinis** (4.5.4), *this is a characteristic of the Gallic customs*.

104. Descriptive Genitive. The descriptive genitive (§100) is often used predicatively. Example: **senātūs cōsultum est huiusce modī**, *the decree is of this kind*.

105. The Genitive of Value. With **sum** and verbs of similar meaning, and with verbs of *valuing*, indefinite value is expressed by the genitive. Compare the ablative of price (§147). The words commonly so used are **magnī, parvī, tantī, quantī, plūris, minōris**. Example: **tantī eius grātiā esse ostendit** (1.20.14), *he assured him that his friendship was of such value*.

GENITIVE WITH ADJECTIVES

106. **RULE:** *Many adjectives take a genitive to complete their meaning.* They are:

- a. Regularly, adjectives with such meanings as *conscious (of)*, *desirous (of)*, *mindful (of)*, *sharing (in)*, *skilled (in)*, and their opposites, and **plēnus**, *full (of)*. Examples: **bellandī cupidī** (1.2.13), *desirous of fighting*; **rēs militāris perītissimus** (1.21.9), *most skilled in military science*.
- b. Sometimes with the genitive, sometimes with the dative (§122), **similis**, *like*; **dissimilis**, *unlike*. The genitive is more common of living objects, and regular of personal pronouns. Example: **tuī similis** (Cic. Cat. 1.5), *like you*; **vērī simile** (3.13.11), *probable (like the truth)*.
- c. Occasionally other adjectives. Example: **locum medium utrīusque** (1.34.2), *a place midway between them*.

GENITIVE WITH VERBS

107. **Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting.**

RULE: *Mēmīnī, bear in mind, reminīscor, remember, and oblivīscor, forget, govern either the genitive or the accusative.*

The genitive is regular of persons, the accusative of neuter pronouns. Examples: **reminīscerētur veteris incommodī** (1.13.11), *he should remember the former disaster*; **veteris contumēliae oblivīscī** (1.14.7), *to forget the former insult*.

108. **Verbs of Judicial Action.**

RULE: *Verbs of accusing, acquitting, convicting, and condemning take a genitive of the charge.*

The penalty is expressed by the ablative. Example: **mē inertiae condemnō** (Cic. Cat. 1.4), *I pronounce myself guilty of inactivity*.

109. **Verbs of Emotion.**

RULE: *The Impersonal verbs miseret, pity, paenitet, repent, piget, dislike, pudet, be ashamed, taedet, be disgusted, take the genitive of the person or thing which causes the feeling, and the accusative of the person who has the feeling.*

The personal verb **misereor**, *pity*, also takes the genitive. Examples: **mē meōrum factōrum numquam paenitēbit** (Cic. Cat. 4.20), *I shall never repent of my deeds*; **mē eius miseret** or **eius misereor**, *I pity him*.

110. **Interest and Rēfert.**

RULE: *The impersonal verbs interest and rēfert, It concerns, it is to the interest of, take the genitive of the person concerned.*

But if the person is expressed in English by a personal pronoun, **interest** is used with the ablative singular feminine of a possessive pronoun. Examples: **reī publicae intersit** (2.5.5), *it is to the interest of the state*; **meā interest**, *it is to my interest*.

111. **RULE:** *Potior occasionally governs the genitive.*

For **potior** with the ablative see §145. Example: **Galliae potīri** (1.3.22), *to become masters of Gaul*.

THE DATIVE CASE

112. The dative expresses that *to* or *for* which anything is done or is. The dative may depend on a verb or on an adjective or, very rarely, on a noun. It may also modify a whole sentence without depending on any one word.

113. Indirect Object.

GENERAL RULE: *The dative denotes the person or thing indirectly affected by the action of a verb.*

The indirect object depends closely on the verb, while the dative of reference (§120) modifies the whole clause.

114. Indirect Object with Transitive Verbs.

RULE: *Many verbs govern an indirect object in addition to a direct object.*

Verbs of *giving* and *saying* take an indirect object especially frequently. The dative is usually translated by *to*, less often by *for*. For the indirect object with transitive verbs compounded with a preposition (“dative with the compound verb”: see §116. Example: **eī filiam dat** (1.3.15), *he gives (to) him a daughter*.

- a. **Dōnō**, *give, present*, and a few other verbs take either the dative of the person and the accusative of the thing, or the accusative of the person and the ablative of the thing. Examples: **eī librum dōnō**, *I give (to) him a book*; **eum librō dōnō**, *I present him with a book*.
- b. Some verbs, instead of permitting both the accusative and the dative, can use either, but each with a different meaning. Especially **cōsulō**, *consult or consult for*, and **metuō**, *fear or fear for*. Examples: **sī mē cōsulis** (Cic. *Cat.* 1.13), *if you consult me (ask my advice)*; **cōsulite vōbīs** (Cic. *Cat.* 4.3), *consult for yourselves (for your own interests)*.
- c. This use of the dative is retained with the passive voice. Example: **eī filia datur**, *a daughter is given to him*.

115. Indirect Object with Intransitive Verbs. The dative is used with all intransitive verbs whose meaning permits it. Because many of these verbs seem to be transitive in English, the indirect object with such verbs in Latin must be translated with a direct object in English.

RULE: *The dative (usually of the person) is used with many verbs meaning benefit or injure, command or obey, please or displease, serve or resist, trust or distrust, believe, envy, favor, pardon, persuade, spare, threaten, and the like.*

Examples: **cīvitātī persuāsīt** (1.2.3), *he persuaded the state*; **novīs rēbus studēbat** (1.9.8), *he was anxious for a revolution*; **Allobrogibus imperāvīt** (1.28.7), *he commanded the Allobroges*.

- a. The dative is used with some phrases of similar meanings, as **audiēns sum**, *obey*, and **fidem habēre**, *trust*. Example: **cui fidem habēbat** (1.19.15), *whom he trusted*.
- b. Many of these verbs which are ordinarily intransitive occasionally take an accusative of the thing, usually a neuter pronoun. Examples: **prōvinciae militum numerum imperat** (1.7.4), *he levies a number of soldiers on the province*; **id eīs persuāsīt** (1.2.6), *he persuaded them of this* (literally, *he persuaded this to them*).
- c. Not all verbs with the meanings given above are intransitive. The most important exceptions are the verbs **dēlectō**, *delight*, **iubeō** *command*, **iuvō**, *please*, **vetō**, *forbid*, which are transitive and therefore take the accusative (§124). Example: **Labiēnum iubet** (1.21.5), *he commands Labienus*.
- d. Since only the direct object of the active voice becomes the subject of the passive (§124, b), no intransitive verb can have a personal subject in the passive. The verbs of §115 can be used in the passive only impersonally, and the dative is retained, although it is usually translated as a subject. Examples: **Caesarī persuādeō**, *I persuade Caesar*, becomes **Caesarī ā mē persuādētur**, *Caesar is persuaded by me* (literally, *it is persuaded to Caesar by me*).

116. The Indirect Object with Compound Verbs.

I. When they are compounded with verbs, certain prepositions usually give those verbs a meaning that, in Latin, requires the dative. If the simple verb is transitive, the compound verb governs a direct object in addition to the indirect. The dative is variously translated with such verbs: when it is translated with *from*, it is sometimes called the *dative of separation*.

RULE: *The dative is required with many compounds of ad, ante, con, dē, in, inter, ob, post, prae, prō, sub, super; and with some compounds of ab, circum, and ex.*

Examples: **cum omnibus praestarent** (1.2.5), *since they excelled all*; **finitimis bellum inferre** (1.2.12), *to make war upon their neighbors*; **mūnitiōnī Labiēnum praeficit** (1.10.7), *he puts Labienus in command of the works*; **scūtō militī dētractō** (2.25.13), *having snatched a shield from a soldier*.

II. RULE: *The dative is used with compounds of satis and bene.*

Example: **sī Aeduīs satisfaciant** (1.14.19), *if they make restitution to the Aedui*.

- a. The meaning of the compound does not always permit the dative. Among the most important exceptions are the transitive verbs, **adgredior**, *attack*; **incendō**, *burn*; **interficiō**, *kill*; **oppugnō**, *assault*; but there are many others. Example: **eōs adgressus** (1.12.9), *having attacked (or attacking) them*.
- b. Very often with these compounds the preposition is repeated, or some other preposition is used, governing its proper case, instead of the dative. This is the case especially if place is designated or if motion is expressed. Example: **illum in equum intulit** (6.30.15), *he put him on a horse*.
- c. The dative is retained with the passive. Example: **mūnitiōnī Labiēnus praeficitur**, *Labienus is put in command of the works*.

117. Dative of Possession.

RULE: *The dative is used in the predicate with sum to denote the possessor.*

The dative of possession may be translated as a nominative with the verb *have*. Examples: **mihī est liber**, *I have a book (literally a book is to me)*; **dēmonstrant sibi nihil esse** (1.11.12), *they declared that they had nothing (literally, there was nothing to them)*.

118. Dative of Agent.

RULE: *The dative is used with the passive periphrastic (§76) to express the agent.*

Compare the ablative of agent (§137), which is used with the other forms of the passive. Example: **nōn exspectandum sibi statuit** (1.11.13), *he decided that he must not wait (literally, that it must not be waited by him)*.

- a. The ablative of agent (§137) is often used with the passive periphrastic, especially if the dative would be ambiguous. Example: **civitātī ā tē persuādendum est**, *the state must be persuaded by you*.

119. Dative of Purpose (and the “Double Dative”).

RULE: *The dative may express purpose or tendency,*

This dative is especially common with **sum**. It is often found in connection with another dative (indirect object, dative of reference, dative of possession) in the “double dative construction.” Examples: **quem auxiliō Caesarī miserant** (1.18.27), *whom they had sent to aid Caesar (literally, whom they had sent for an aid to Caesar)*; **quī novissimis praesidiō erant** (1.25.14), *who were guarding the rear (literally, who were for a guard to the rear)*.

120. Dative of Reference.

RULE: *The dative may name the person with reference to whom the statement is made.*

This dative does not depend on any one word (compare §113), but loosely modifies the whole predicate. It often takes the place of a genitive modifying a noun. Examples: **cibāria sibi quemque efferre iubent** (1.5.8), *they order each one to carry food for himself*; **sēsē Caesarī ad pedēs prōiēcērunt** (1.31.4), *they threw themselves at Caesar's feet*.

121. Ethical Dative. The ethical dative is a dative of reference with so weak a meaning as to be unnecessary to the sense. It designates the person to whom the thought is of interest and usually shows some emotion. Its use is confined to personal pronouns. Example: **Tongilium mihi ēdūxit** (Cic. *Cat.* 2.4), *he took "me" out Tongilius, he took out "my" Tongilius, he took out Tongilius ("and I have some interest in this"), or simply he took out Tongilius.*

122. Dative with Adjectives.

RULE: *Adjectives meaning friendly or unfriendly, like or unlike, useful or useless, equal, fit, near, or suitable govern the dative.*

Examples: **plēbī acceptus** (1.3.14), *acceptable (pleasing) to the people*; **proximī sunt Germānis** (1.1.9), *they are nearest to the Germans*; **castrīs idōneum locum** (6.10.5), *a place suitable for a camp*.

- a. Instead of a dative, some of these adjectives use a preposition that takes its proper case. Example: **ad amicitiam idōneus**, *suitable for friendship*.
- b. Like the preposition **prope**, the adjectives **propior** and **proximus** and the adverbs **propius** and **proximē** sometimes govern the accusative. Example: **proximī Rhenum** (1.54.3), *nearest the Rhine*.
- c. For **similis** and **dissimilis**, see §106, b.

THE ACCUSATIVE CASE**123. Subject of Infinitive.**

RULE: *The accusative is used as the subject of the infinitive.*

Example: **certior factus est Helvētiōs trādūxisse** (1.12.5), *he was informed that the Helvetii had led across*.

124. Direct Object.

RULE: *The accusative is used with transitive verbs to express the direct object.*

The direct object may be either (a) the person or thing directly affected by the action of the verb, as **puerum laudat**, *he praises the boy*; or (b) the thing produced by the action of the verb, as **coniūrātiōnem fēcit**, *he formed a conspiracy*.

- a. The direct object may be a substantive clause (§§228, 229, 262, 277).
- b. The direct object of the active voice becomes the subject of the passive. Examples: **puer laudātur**, *the boy is praised*; **coniūrātiō facta est**, *a conspiracy was formed*.
- c. Many compounds of intransitive verbs with prepositions, especially **ad**, **circum**, **in**, **per**, **praeter**, **sub**, **trāns**, have transitive meanings, and thus take accusative direct objects. Example: **īre**, *to go*, intransitive; but **flūmen trānsire**, *to cross (go across) the river*.
- d. Many verbs that are transitive in English are, however, intransitive in Latin; see especially §115.

125. Two Objects. A few verbs take two objects, one of the person, one of the thing.

- a. RULE:** *Verbs of asking, demanding, and teaching, (also celō, I conceal) have a direct object of the thing, and may have another of the person.*

Example: **Aeduōs frūmentum flāgitāre** (1.16.1), *he kept asking the Aedui for the grain.*

But with verbs of asking and demanding the person is usually expressed by the ablative with **ab**. Example: **eadem ab aliīs quaerit** (1.18.5), *he asked the same question of others.*

- b. RULE:** *Moneō, I warn, advise, and a few other verbs may take an accusative of the person and the neuter accusative of a pronoun or adjective of the thing.*

The pronoun is an *inner accusative* (§128, a). Examples: **eōs hoc moneō** (Cic. Cat. 2.20), *I give them this advice; sī quid ille sē velit (1.34.6), *if he wanted anything of him.**

- c.** With the passive forms of these verbs the accusative of the person becomes the subject, and the accusative of the thing is retained. Example: **Aeduī frūmentum flāgitābantur**, *the Aedui were asked for the grain; (eī) hoc monentur*, *they are given this advice.*

126. Object and Predicate Accusative.

RULE: *Verbs of making, choosing, calling, regarding, showing, and the like take a direct object and a predicate accusative, both referring to the same person or thing.*

The predicate accusative may be either a noun or an adjective. Examples: **quem rēgem cōstituerat** (4.21.14), *whom he had appointed king; Caesarem certiōrem fēcit*, *he informed Caesar (made Caesar more certain).*

- a.** With the passive forms of these verbs the direct object becomes the subject, and the predicate accusative becomes the predicate nominative (§95, a). Examples: **quī rēx cōstitūtus erat**, *who had been appointed king; Caesar certior factus est* (1.12.5), *Caesar was informed (made more certain).*

127. Two Objects with Compounds.

RULE: *Transitive verbs compounded with trāns may take one object depending on the verb, another depending on the preposition.*

Example: **trēs partēs flūmen trādūxērunt** (1.12.6), *they led three parts across the river.*

- a.** With the passive of these verbs the object of the verb becomes the subject, the object of the preposition is retained. Example: **trēs partēs flūmen trāductae sunt**, *three parts were led across the river.*

128. Cognate Accusative.

RULE: *An intransitive verb may take an accusative of a noun of related meaning, usually modified by an adjective or genitive.*

Examples: **eam vītam vivere**, *to live that life; trīduī viam prōcēdere (1.38), *to advance a three days' march.**

- a.** A neuter accusative of a pronoun or adjective is often used in a similar way. This is sometimes called an *inner accusative*. Examples: **id eis persuāsit** (1.2.3), *he persuaded them of this (literally he persuaded this to them); multum posse*, *to have much power.*
- b. Adverbial Accusative.** A few accusatives are used adverbially. In some cases it is impossible to decide whether an accusative should be classed here or under *a*. The most common adverbial accusatives are **multum**, *much*, **plūs**, *more*, **plūrimum**, *most*, **plērumque**, *for the most part*, and **nihil**, *not at all*. Under this rubric belong also **id temporis** (Cic. Cat. 1.10), *at that time*, and **maximam partem** (4.1.14), *for the most part*. Example: **multum sunt in venātiōne** (4.1.15), *they engage much in hunting.*

129. Accusative in Exclamations.

RULE: *An accusative is sometimes used as an exclamation.*

Example: **O fortunātam rem publicam** (Cic. Cat. 2.7), *Oh, fortunate state!* The nominative and vocative are less often used in the same way.

130. Accusative of Time and Space.

RULE: *The accusative is used to express duration of time and extent of space.*

The noun must be one meaning time or distance, as, **diēs**, *day*, or **pēs**, *foot*. Compare §152 and §148. Examples: **rēgnum multōs annōs obtinuerat** (1.3.10), *he had held the royal power many years*; **mīlia passuum ducenta quadrāgintā patēbant** (1.2.16), *extended two hundred and forty miles*.

131. Place to Which.

RULE: *Place to which is regularly expressed by the accusative with ad or in, but the names of towns and the words domus and rūs omit the preposition.*

Compare §134, a, and §151. Examples: **ad iūdicium coēgit** (1.4.14), *he brought to the trial*; **in agrum Nōricum trānsierant** (1.5.11), *they had crossed over into the Noreian territory*; **sē Massiliam cōferet** (Cic. Cat. 2.14), *he will go to Marseilles*; **domum reditiōnis** (1.5.6), *of a return home*.

a. **Ad** is, however, sometimes used in the sense of *towards* (not *to*), or *in the vicinity of*. Example: **ad Genavam pervenit** (1.7.4), *he reached the vicinity of Geneva*.

THE VOCATIVE CASE

132. The name of the person addressed is put in the vocative. Example: **dēsilitē, commilitōnes** (4.25.11), *jump down, comrades*.

THE ABLATIVE CASE

133. At an earlier stage in its development, Latin had two more cases than it has in its classical form: the instrumental and the locative. The *original ablative* meant separation (*from*), the *instrumental* meant association or instrument (*with* or *by*), and the *locative* meant place where (*in*). The forms of these three cases united in the Latin ablative. As a result, this single case has meanings that originally belonged to three separate cases. This fact accounts for the many and widely differing uses of the ablative.

134. Ablative of Separation.

RULE: *Separation is usually expressed by the ablative, with or without ab, dē, or ex.*

With some verbs both constructions are used. The individual usage of other verbs must be learned. For the so-called dative of separation see §116, I. Examples: **suīs finibus eōs prohibent** (1.1.13), *they repel them from their own territory*; **quae hostem ā pugnā prohibērent** (4.34.9), *which kept the enemy from battle*; **ā Bibracte aberat** (1.23.2), *he was distant from Bibracte*.

a. *Place from which:* with verbs expressing motion:

RULE: *Place from which is expressed by the ablative with ab, dē, or ex, but the names of towns and the words domus and rūs omit the preposition.*

Compare §131 and §151. Examples: **ut dē finibus suīs exīrent** (1.2.4), *to go out from their territory*; **quī ex prōvinciā convēnerant** (1.8.2), *who had gathered from the province*; **Rōmā profūgērunt** (Cic. Cat. 1.7), *they fled from Rome*; **domō exīre** (1.6.1), *to go out from home*.

Ab is, however, used with names of towns to express *from the vicinity of*.

b. RULE: With verbs and adjectives of depriving, freeing, being without, and the like, the ablative without a preposition is generally used.

Examples: **magnō mē metū liberābis** (Cic. Cat. 1.10), *you will free me from great fear*; **proeliō abstinēbat** (1.22.11), *refused battle (literally, refrained from battle)*.

135. Ablative of Source.

RULE: The ablative, usually without a preposition, is used with the participles nātus and ortus to express parentage or rank.

Examples: **amplissimō genere nātus** (4.12.13), *born of the highest rank*; **sorōrem ex mātē (nātam)** (1.18.16), *his sister on his mother's side*.

136. Ablative of Material.

RULE: The material of which anything is made is expressed by the ablative with ex, less often by the ablative with dē.

Example: **nāvēs factae ex rōbore** (3.13.5), *the ships were made of oak*.

137. Ablative of Agent.

RULE: The agent of the passive voice is expressed by the ablative with ab.

The agent is the *person* who performs the act. Compare the ablative of means (§143), and the dative of agent (§118). Example: **exercitum ab Helvētiīs pulsum** (1.7.13), *that his army had been routed by the Helvetii*.

138. Ablative of Cause.

RULE: Cause is expressed by the ablative, generally without a preposition.

Examples: **grātiā et largitiōne** (1.9.5), *because of his popularity and lavish giving*; **quod suā victoriā glōriārentur** (1.14.11), *that they boasted (because) of their victory*.

a. Cause is more frequently expressed by **causā** and the genitive (§99, a); by the accusative with **ob**, **per**, or **propter**; and by **dē** or **ex** with the ablative. Examples: **propter angustias** (1.9.2), *because of its narrowness*; **quā dē causā**, (1.1.11), *and for this reason*.

139. Ablative of Comparison.

RULE: With comparatives, "than" may be expressed by the ablative.

Examples: **lūce sunt clariōra tua cōsilia** (Cic. Cat. 1.6), *your plans are clearer than day*; **nōn amplius quīnīs aut sēnīs mīlibus passuum** (1.15.14), *not more than five or six miles (compare b)*.

This is not to be confused with the ablative of measure of difference (§148).

a. When **quam** is used for *than*, the two nouns compared are in the same case. The ablative is generally used only when the first noun is nominative or accusative, and when the sentence is negated.

b. **Plūs, minus, amplius**, and **longius** are often used instead of **plūs quam**, etc. Example: **quae amplius octingentae ūnō erant visae tempore** (5.8.19), *of which more than 800 had been in sight at one time*.

140. Ablative of Accompaniment.

RULE: Accompaniment is expressed by the ablative with cum.

Example: **ut cum omnibus cōpiīs exirent** (1.2.4), *to go out with all their troops*. In military phrases *cum* is sometimes omitted.

Example: **Caesar subsequēbātur omnibus cōpiīs** (2.19.1), *Caesar followed with all his troops*.

141. Descriptive Ablative.

RULE: *The ablative modified by an adjective may describe a person or thing by naming some quality.*

The ablative may be used in this way either attributively or predicatively. Compare the descriptive genitive (§100). Examples: **hominēs inimicō animō** (1.7.15), *men of unfriendly disposition*; **nōndum bonō animō vidērentur** (1.6.11), *they did not yet seem (to be) well disposed (of a good spirit)*.

142. Ablative of Manner.

RULE: *Manner is expressed by the ablative, usually with either cum or a modifying adjective, rarely with both.*

Examples: **pars cum cruciātū necābātur** (5.45.5), *some were killed with torture*; **magnīs itineribus** (1.10.8), *by forced marches*.

a. Ablative of Accordance.

RULE: *In some common phrases the ablative means “in accordance with.”*

The ablative of accordance (or means with the meaning of “in accordance with”) is especially common with the following nouns, modified by either an adjective or a genitive—**cōnsuētūdine, iūre, iussū (iniussū), lēge, mōribus, sententiā, sponte, voluntāte**. Examples: **iniussū suō** (1.19.4), *without his orders*; **mōribus suis** (1.4.1), *in accordance with their customs*; **suā voluntāte** (1.20.11), *in accordance with his wish*.

b. Ablative of Attendant Circumstances.

RULE: *Sometimes the ablative expresses situation or an attendant circumstance.*

Usually it is impossible to distinguish clearly the ablative of attendant circumstances from the ordinary ablative of manner. Examples: **imperiiis populī Rōmānī** (1.18.22), *under the sovereignty of the Roman people*; **intervallō pedum duōrum iungēbat** (4.17.9), *he joined at a distance apart of two feet*.

143. Ablative of Means.

RULE: *The means or instrument by which a thing is done is expressed by the ablative without a preposition.*

Compare the ablative of agent (§137). Example: **rēgni cupiditāte inductus** (1.2.2), *influenced by the desire for royal power*.

- a. Notice the ablative with the following words—verbs and adjectives of *filling* (except **plēnus**, §106); **fidō, cōfidō**, *trust in*; **nitor**, *rely upon*; **laccessō (proeliō)**, *provoke (to battle)*; **adsuēfactus, adsuētus**, *accustomed to*; **frētus**, *relying upon*. Examples: **nātūrā locī cōfidēbant** (3.9.12), *they trusted in the nature of the country*; **nullō officiō adsuēfactī** (4.1.17), *accustomed to no obedience*.

144. Ablative of the Way.

RULE: *The road or way by which a person or thing goes is expressed by the ablative of means.*

Examples: **frūmentō quod flūmine Ararī navibus subvexerat** (1.16.5), *the grain which he had brought up (by way of) the Saone*; **eōdem itinere contendit** (1.21.8), *he advanced by the same road*.

145. Ablative with Special Deponent Verbs. The ablative is used with **ūtor**, *use*, **fruor**, *enjoy*, **fungor**, *perform*, **fulfill**, **potior**, *get possession of*, **vēscor**, *eat*, and their compounds.

This is an ablative of means, but should be translated as a direct object. Examples: **eōdem usī cōnsiliō** (1.5.9), *adopting (having used) the same plan*; **imperio potiri** (1.2.6), *to get possession of the government*.

146. Ablative with opus est.

RULE: *The ablative of means is used with opus est and ūsūs est, meaning there is need of.*

Example: **Caesarī multīs auxiliīs opus est**, *Caesar needs many auxiliaries.*

- a. But if the thing needed is expressed by a neuter pronoun or adjective it may be used as the subject, with **opus** as predicate noun. Example: **sī quid opus esset** (1.34.5), *if he needed anything.*
- b. Sometimes the ablative neuter of the perfect passive participle is used with **opus est**. Example: **sī opus factō esset** (1.42.19), *if there should be need of action.*

147. Ablative of Price.

RULE: *With verbs of buying, selling, and the like, price is expressed with the ablative.*

Compare the genitive of value (§105). Example: **parvō pretiō redēpta** (1.18.9), *bought up at a low price.*

148. Ablative of Degree of Difference.

The ablative is used with comparatives and words of similar meaning to express the degree of difference.

Compare §139. Examples: **nihilō minus** (1.5.1), *literally, less by nothing = nevertheless*; **paucīs ante diēbus**, (1.18.25), *a few days before (literally, before by a few days).*

- a. **Eō . . . quō**, in this construction, may be translated *the . . . the*. Example: **eō gravius ferre quō minus meritō accidissent** (1.14.3), *literally, he endured these things with more anger by that amount by which they had happened less deservedly = he was the more angry the less deservedly these things had happened.*

149. Ablative of Respect or Specification.

RULE: *The ablative is used to express that in respect to which a statement is true.*

Examples: **linguā inter sē differunt** (1.1.3), *they differ in language*; **maior nātū**, *older (greater in birth).*

- a. The ablative is used with **dignus**, *worthy*, and **indignus**, *unworthy*. Example: **ipsis indignum** (5.35.11), *unworthy of themselves.*

150. Ablative Absolute.

GENERAL RULES: **1.** *A noun and a participle in the ablative may modify a sentence as a subordinate clause would.* **2.** *Two nouns, or a noun and an adjective, may stand in the ablative absolute when English would connect them with the word “being.”*

The construction is called *absolute* (literally “cut loose from”) because it does not depend syntactically on anything else in the sentence. This construction is used much more frequently than we use the nominative absolute in English, and for this reason it should be translated in some other way. It is always possible to translate the construction as a subordinate clause, but sometimes other translations are more convenient. Note the translations of the following examples: (translated by an active past participle) **remōtīs equīs proelium commisit** (1.25.2), *having sent the horses away, he began the battle*; (translated by prepositional phrase) **Marcō Messalā Marcō Pisōne cōsulibus** (1.2.2), *in the consulship of Marcus Messala and Marcus Piso*; **eō deprecātore** (1.9.4), *by his mediation*; (translated by subordinate clause) **omnibus rēbus comparātis diem dicunt** (1.6.13), *when everything was ready they set a day*; **Sēquanīs invitīs ire nōn poterant** (1.9.1), *if the Sequani refused, they could not go*; **monte occupātō nostrōs expectābat** (1.22.11), *although he had occupied the mountain, he waited for our men*; (translated by coordinate clause) **locīs superiōribus occupātis . . . conantur** (1.10.12), *they occupied advantageous positions and tried, etc.*

151. Ablative of Place Where.

RULE: *Place in which is regularly expressed by the ablative with in.*

Compare §131 and §134, a. Example: **in eōrum finibus bellum gerunt** (1.1.13), *they fight in their territory.*

- a. **RULE:** *Names of towns and small islands stand in the locative (§15, b; §16, b) if they are singular nouns of the first and second declensions; otherwise in the ablative without a preposition.*

The locatives **domī**, *at home*, and **rūrī**, *in the country*, are also in regular use. Examples: **Samarobrivae** (5.24.1), *at Samarobriva*; **domī largiter posse** (1.18.13), *he had great influence at home.*

- b. **RULE:** *No preposition is regularly used with locō, locīs, parte, partibus when accompanied by an adjective or an equivalent genitive; or with any noun modified by tōtus.*

Examples: **nōn nullis locīs trānsitur** (1.6.8), *is crossed in several places*; **vulgō tōtis castrīs** (1.39.17), *everywhere throughout the entire camp.*

- c. Latin often uses some other construction where the English would lead one to expect the construction of place in which. So **ab** and **ex** are used to express position; and the ablative of means is often used instead of the ablative with **in** if the construction is at all appropriate. Examples: **ūnā ex parte** (1.2.7), *on one side*; **cotidiānis proeliīs contendunt** (1.1.12), *they contend in (by means of) daily battles*; **memoriā tenēbat** (1.7.12), *he held in (by means of) memory.*

152. Ablative of Time.

RULE: *Time when or within which is expressed by the ablative without a preposition.*

Compare the accusative of time (§130). Examples: **eō tempore** (1.3.14), *at that time*; **id quod ipsī diēbus vīginti aegerrimē confēcerant** (1.13.4), *a thing which they had barely accomplished in (within) twenty days.*

- a. The ablative rarely denotes duration of time. Example: **eā tōtā nocte iērunt** (1.26.13), *they marched during that whole night.*

CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS**153. Ablative.** The following prepositions govern the ablative: **ab, absque, cōram, cum, dē, ex, prae, prō, sine, tenus.**

- a. The forms **ab** and **ex** must be used before words beginning with a vowel or **h**. It is always safe to use **ā** and **ē** before words beginning with a consonant, although **ab** and **ex** are often found.

- b. **Cum** is enclitic with the personal and reflexive pronouns, and usually with the relative and interrogative.

154. Accusative or Ablative. **In** and **sub** with the accusative imply motion from outside *into* and *under*, respectively. **Subter** and **super** sometimes govern the ablative.**155. Accusative.** All other prepositions govern the accusative.**PREDICATE AND ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVES**

- 156.** A *predicate* adjective is connected with its noun by some part of the verb **sum** or a verb of similar meaning (see §95, a); as, **flūmen est lātum**, *the river is wide*. An *attributive* adjective modifies its noun without such a connecting verb; as, **flūmen lātum**, *the wide river*.

AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES

157. RULE: *Adjectives (including participles and adjective pronouns) agree with their nouns in gender, number, and case.*

Examples: **homō bonus**, *a good man*; **mulierī bonae**, *to a good woman*; **bellōrum magnōrum**, *of great wars*.

a. An adjective can refer to more than one noun:

1. If attributive, the adjective regularly agrees with the nearest noun. Examples: **vir bonus et mulier**, *a good man and woman*; **bella et victōriae magnae**, *great wars and victories*.
2. As a predicate, the adjective regularly agrees with all the nouns to which it refers, and must, therefore, be plural. If the nouns are of the same gender the adjective usually takes that gender; otherwise it is neuter unless one or more of the nouns denote things with life, in which case the adjective is usually masculine rather than feminine, feminine rather than neuter. But the adjective may be neuter under almost any circumstances. Examples: **hominēs et mōrēs sunt bonī**, *the men and their characters are good*; **hominēs et arma sunt magnī**, *the men and their arms are large*; **montēs et flūmina sunt magna**, *the mountains and rivers are large*.

ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY

158. Adjectives are rarely used as substantives (i.e., as nouns) in the singular, more commonly in the plural. The masculine is used in all cases in the sense of *man* or *men*, and the feminine in the sense of *woman* or *women*. The neuter is used in the sense of *thing* or *things*, and commonly only in the nominative and accusative because these are the only cases in which masculine and neuter forms can be distinguished from each other. But the genitive singular neuter is common as the partitive genitive (§101, a). Examples: **multī**, *many men*; **multōrum**, *of many men*; **multae**, *many women*; **multārum**, *of many women*; **multa**, *many things*; **multārum rērum**, *of many things*.

ADJECTIVES FOR ADVERBS

159. Some adjectives are commonly used where English generally prefers adverbs, primarily when such adjectives modify the subject or object. Examples: **invitus vēnit**, *literally he came unwilling = he came unwillingly or he was unwilling to come*; **primus vēnit**, *literally he the first came = he came first or he was the first to come*.

ADJECTIVES WITH PARTITIVE MEANING

160. Some adjectives mean only a part of an object. The most common of these adjectives are **īmus**, **īfīmus**, *the bottom of*; **medius**, *the middle of*; **summus**, *the top of*; **primus**, *the first part of*; **extrēmus**, *the last part of*; **relīquus**, *the rest of*. Examples: **in colle mediō** (1.24.3), *on the middle of (half way up) the slope*; **summus mons** (1.22.1), *the top of the mountain*; **primā nocte** (1.27.12), *in the first part of the night*; **multō diē**, *late in the day*.

COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

161. Comparatives and superlatives of both adjectives and adverbs are usually to be translated by the corresponding English forms; but the comparative is sometimes to be translated by *quite*, *rather*, *somewhat*, or *too*, the superlative by *very*. Examples: **diūturniōrem impūnitātem** (1.14.15), *quite long immunity*; **cupidius īsecūti** (1.15.5), *following too eagerly*; **monte Iūrā altissimō** (1.2.9), *by the very high mountain Jura*.

- a. The superlative is often strengthened by **quam**, with or without a form of **possum**. Examples: **quam maximum numerum** (1.3.3), **quam maximum potest numerum** (1.7.4), *as great a number as possible, or the greatest possible number*.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS

- 162.** A personal pronoun (§51) is rarely used as the subject of a finite verb except for emphasis or contrast. Example: **ego maneō, tū abīs**, *I remain, you go*.
- a. The first person plural (we) is used more often for the first person singular (I) than it is in English. On the other hand, the plural of the second person is not used for the singular, as is done in English. Example: **utī suprā dēmōnstrāvīmus** (2.1.1), *as I (literally we) have said before*.

REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

- 163. GENERAL RULE:** *Reflexive pronouns refer to the subject of the clause or sentence in which they stand.*

Reflexive pronouns correspond to *myself, himself*, etc., in such sentences as *I praise myself, he praises himself*. This use of *myself*, etc., must not be confused with the use in such sentences as *I myself praise him*, where *myself* emphasizes *I* and is in apposition with it. This latter use corresponds to the Latin intensive pronoun (§172). The reflexive of the third person has two uses.

- 164. The Direct Reflexive.**

RULE: *Suī and suus are used in every kind of sentence or clause to refer to the subject of the clause in which they stand.*

Example: **eum videō quī sē laudat**, *I see the man who praises himself*.

- 165. The Indirect Reflexive.**

RULE: *In a subordinate clause that expresses the thought of the main subject suī and suus are also used to refer to the main subject (i.e., the subject of the main clause) instead of the subject of the subordinate clause in which they stand.*

This rule is especially important in indirect statement (§271) where the whole indirect statement expresses the thought of the speaker, and consequently every pronoun referring to the speaker is regularly some form of **suī** or **suus**. Example: **Caesar dīcit mē sē laudāvīsse**, *Caesar says that I praised him (i.e., Caesar)*.

- 166. The Reciprocal Expression.** The reflexive pronouns are used with **inter** to express the reciprocal idea, *one another, each other*. Examples: **inter nōs laudāmus**, *we praise one another or each other*; **obsidēs utī inter sēsē dent** (1.9.10), *that they give hostages to each other*.

POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS

- 167.** The possessive pronouns (or adjectives) are rarely expressed except for clearness or contrast. Example: **Caesar exercitum dūxit**, *Caesar led (his) army*.
- a. **Suus** is the adjective of the reflexive pronoun **suī**, and is used in the same way. See §164 and §165.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

- 168. Hīc** refers to something near the speaker, and is sometimes called the demonstrative of the first person. Example: **hīc liber**, *this book (near me)*.
- 169. Iste** refers to something near the person spoken to, and is sometimes called the demonstrative of the second person. Example: **iste liber**, *that book (near you)*. When used of an opponent, it often implies contempt.

170. **Ille** refers to something more remote from the speaker or person spoken to, and is often called the demonstrative of the third person. Example: **ille liber**, *that book* (over there).
- a. **Ille** and **hic** are often used in the sense of *the former, the latter*. **Hic** is usually *the latter*, as referring to the nearer of two things mentioned; but it may be *the former*, if the former object is more important and therefore nearer in thought.
171. **Is** is the weakest of the demonstratives and the one used most often as the personal pronoun of the third person, or to refer, without emphasis, to something just mentioned, or as the antecedent of a relative.
- a. When **is** is used substantively, it is translated by a personal pronoun; when used as an adjective, it is translated by *this* or *that*; when used as the antecedent of a relative, it is translated in various ways,—*the man, a man, such a man, that*, etc.

THE INTENSIVE PRONOUN

172. **Ipse** emphasizes the noun with which it agrees. It is usually translated by *self*, and is not to be confused with the reflexive pronoun. Examples: **ipse Caesar eum laudat**, *Caesar himself praises him*; **ipse Caesar sē laudat**, *Caesar himself praises himself*.
- a. **Ipse** is often used to strengthen a possessive pronoun. It then stands in the genitive to agree with the genitive implied in the possessive. Examples: **meus ipsius liber**, *my own book (the book of me myself)*; **vester ipsorum liber**, *your own book (the book of you yourselves)*.

THE RELATIVE PRONOUN

173. **RULE: A relative pronoun agrees with its antecedent in gender and number, but its case depends on its use in its own clause.**

If the relative pronoun is used as the subject, the verb agrees in person with the antecedent. If the relative has two or more antecedents it follows the same rules of agreement as predicate adjectives (§157, a, 2). The relative pronoun is never omitted. Examples: **Caesar, quem laudō**, *Caesar, whom I praise*; **ego, quī eum laudō**, *I, who praise him*; **Caesar et Cicerō, quī mē laudant**, *Caesar and Cicero, who praise me*.

- a. **Conjunctio Relativa or the Coordinate Relative.** It is often necessary to translate a relative by a coordinating conjunction (*and, but, etc.*) and a personal or demonstrative pronoun. Example: **relinquēbātur ūna via, quā ire nōn poterant** (1.9.1), *there was left only one way, and by it they could not go*. Latin is fond of letting a relative stand at the beginning of an entirely new sentence, with its antecedent in the preceding sentence. It is then usually best translated by a personal or demonstrative pronoun. Example: **quī** (1.15.5), *they*.

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

174. **RULE: Quis, anyone, is the indefinite commonly used after sī, nisi, nē, and num.**

Example: **sī quis laudat**, *if anyone praises*.

175. **RULE: Aliquis (aliquī) is the indefinite commonly used in affirmative sentences to mean someone, some, etc.**

Example: **aliquis dicat**, *someone may say*.

176. **Quispiam** has almost exactly the same meaning as **aliquis**, but is rare. Example: **quispiam dicat**, *someone may say*.

177. **RULE:** *Quisquam* and *ūllus* are the indefinites commonly used in negative sentences (except with *nē*), and in questions implying a negative, to mean any, anyone, etc.

Examples: **neque quemquam laudō**, nor do I praise anyone; **cur quisquam iūdicāret** (1.40.6), why should anyone suppose?

178. **Nesciō quis** (**nesciō quī**), originally meaning *I know not who*, is often used in a sense very much like that of **aliquis**, but with even more indefiniteness. Example: **nesciō quis laudat**, someone or other praises.

AGREEMENT OF VERB AND SUBJECT

179. **RULE:** A finite verb agrees with its subject in person and number.

In the compound tenses the participle agrees with the subject in gender. Examples: **Caesar laudātus est**, Caesar was praised; **mulierēs laudātae sunt**, the women were praised.

a. But the verb sometimes agrees with the meaning of the subject rather than its grammatical form. Thus a singular collective noun sometimes has a plural verb, and a neuter noun a masculine participle in agreement. Examples: **multitudō venērunt**, a great number came; **duo milia occīsī sunt**, two thousand were killed.

180. If there are two or more subjects, the verb is usually plural. In the compound tenses of the passive, the participle follows the rule given for predicate adjectives (§157, a, 2). If the subjects differ in person the first person is preferred to the second and the second to the third. Examples: **homō et mulier occīsī sunt**, the man and the woman were killed; **ego et tū vēnimus**, you and I came.

a. The verb may agree with the nearest subject, especially if the verb stands first or after the first subject. It regularly does so if the subjects are connected by conjunctions meaning *or* or *nor*. Example: **Caesar vēnit et Labiēnus**, Caesar and Labienus came; **neque Caesar neque Labiēnus vēnit**, neither Caesar nor Labienus came; **filia atque ūnus ē filiīs captus est** (1.26.11), his daughter and one of his sons were taken.

b. If the two or more subjects are thought of as forming a single whole, the verb is singular. Example: **Matrona et Sēquana dividit** (1.11.5), the Marne and Seine separate (they make one boundary line).

THE VOICES OF VERBS

181. The voices of verbs (i.e., active and passive) have the same meanings and uses as in English. An intransitive verb cannot be used in the passive except impersonally. Examples: **laudat**, he praises; **laudātur**, he is praised; **eī creditur** (§115, d) literally *it is believed to him* = *he is believed*.

THE MOODS OF VERBS

182. The Latin verb has three moods—the indicative, the subjunctive and the imperative. The name *mood*, which derives from the Latin *modus* or mode, is applied to them because they indicate the manner in which the action of the verb is spoken of; for example, as fact, as wished, as willed.

183. **The Indicative** mood speaks of the action as a fact, either stating a fact or asking a question about a fact. Examples: **laudat**, he praises; **nōn laudat**, he does not praise; **laudatne?** does he praise?

184. **The Subjunctive** mood has three classes of meanings, some of which may be further subdivided.

a. *The Subjunctive of Desire.* Both in independent sentences and in dependent clauses the subjunctive may express will (then called *volitive subjunctive*) or wish (then called *optative subjunctive*). Examples: **laudet**, let him praise or may he praise; **imperō ut laudet**, I command that he praise, i.e., I give the command “let him praise.”

- b. *The Subjunctive of Contingent Futurity (or Potential Subjunctive)*. Both in independent sentences and in dependent clauses the subjunctive may express what would take place under some condition, either expressed or implied, or, very seldom, it may express what may possibly take place. The latter use is the *potential subjunctive*. Examples: **laudet**, *he would praise* (if there should be a reason to do so); **is est quī laudet**, *he is a man who would praise*.
- c. *The Subjunctive of Fact*. Only in dependent clauses may the subjunctive express certainty and be translated like the indicative.
- Example: **laudātur cum laudet**, *he is praised because he praises*. Compare **laudātur quod laudat**, *he is praised because he praises*.

185. **The Imperative** mood is used only in independent sentences. It expresses a command. Example: **laudā**, *praise (you sing.)*; **desilite** (4.25.11), *jump down (you pl.)*.

OTHER VERBAL FORMS

186. **The Infinitive** is not, strictly speaking, a mood, but a verbal noun. It is, however, used as a mood in certain kinds of dependent clauses. Example: **dicit Caesarem laudāri**, *he says that Caesar is praised*.
187. **Verbal Nouns and Adjectives**. The gerund and the supine are verbal nouns; the gerundive and the participles are verbal adjectives. None of these can form clauses in Latin, although they are often best translated into English by clauses.

THE NEGATIVES

188. There are two kinds of negatives in Latin.

- a. **RULE: Nōn (not) and neque (and not, nor) are used to negate statements and questions.**

That is, they are used with the indicative, the subjunctive of contingent futurity (or potential subjunctive) (§184, b), the subjunctive of fact (§184, c), and the infinitive. Examples: **nōn laudat**, *he does not praise*; **nōn laudet**, *he would not praise*; **nōnne laudat?** *does he not praise?*

- b. **RULE: Nē (not) and nēve (and not, nor) are used to negate the subjunctive of desire (§184, a).**

But **nē . . . quidem**, *not even*, is used in statements. Examples: **nē laudet**, *let him not praise, or may he not praise*; **nē laudat quidem**, *he does not even praise*.

THE TENSES OF VERBS

189. The tense of a verb tells either one or both of two things: (1) the time of the action, whether past, present, or future; and (2) the stage of progress of the action at that time, whether already completed, still going on, or about to take place. For example, the following forms are all past, and yet express different things: **laudāvit**, *he praised* simply puts the action in the past; **laudāverat**, *he had praised*, means that the action was already completed in the past time; **laudābat**, *he was praising*, means that the action was going on in the past time; and **laudātūrus erat**, *he was going to praise*, means that in the past time the action was on the point of taking place. Latin is much more accurate in its use of tenses than English is.

THE TENSES OF THE INDICATIVE

- 190. The Present** tense regularly puts the action in the present time and corresponds to all the forms of the English present. Example: **laudat**, *he praises* (simple), *he is praising* (progressive), *he does praise* (emphatic).
- The historical present speaks of a past fact as if it were present, in order to put it vividly before the mind. It is much more common in Latin than in English, and therefore should usually be translated with a past tense. Example: **oppida sua omnia incendunt** (1.5.3), *they burned* (*burn*) *all their towns*.
 - With such expressions as **iam diū**, **iam pridem**, *for a long time*, **multōs annōs**, *for many years*, the Latin present should be translated with the English present perfect. Example: **multōs annōs tē moneō**, *I have been warning you for many years*. There are really two ideas, "I have been in the past" and "I still am." English expresses one of them; Latin, like French and German, expresses the other.
 - For the present with **dum**, etc., see §234, *a*.
- 191. The Imperfect** tense puts the action in the past and represents it as going on at that time. See §189. Example: **laudābat**, *he was praising*.
- The imperfect is often used of repeated past action; as **laudābat**, *he used to praise*, or *he kept praising*. It is less often used of attempted past action; as **laudābat**, *he tried to praise*.
 - With the expressions mentioned in §190, *b*, the imperfect should be translated with the English past perfect. Example: **multōs annōs tē monēbam**, *I had been warning you for many years*.
- 192. The Future** tense puts the action in the future time and corresponds to the English future. See §199. Example: **laudābo**, *I shall or will praise*, or *be praising*.
- 193. The Perfect** tense has two uses.
- The present (or definite) perfect corresponds to the English present perfect with *have*.
It represents the action as completed at the present time. Example: **laudāvī**, *I have praised*.
 - This perfect is often nearly equivalent to a present. For example, **vēnī**, *I have come*, is nearly equivalent to *I am here*. A few perfects are regularly translated by presents; especially **nōvī**, **cognōvī**, *I know* (literally *I have found out*), and **consuēvī**, *I am accustomed* (literally *I have become accustomed*). Cf. in English, "I've got it," for "I have it."
 - The historical (or indefinite) perfect simply puts the action in the past, without telling anything about the stage of progress (§189) at that time. It corresponds to the English past tense. Example: **laudāvī**, *I praised*.
- 194. The Pluperfect** tense describes the action as already completed in the past, or puts it at a time before another past point of time. See §189. Example: **laudāveram**, *I had praised*.
- The pluperfect of the verbs mentioned in §193, *I, a*, are nearly equivalent to imperfects. Examples: **vēneram**, *I had come*, i.e., *I was there*; **nōveram**, *I knew*; **cōnsuēveram**, *I was accustomed*.
- 195. The Future Perfect** tense represents the action as completed in future time, or as to take place before some future point of time. See §199. Example: **laudāverō**, *I shall or will have praised*.
- The future perfects of the verbs mentioned in §193, *I, a*, are nearly equivalent to futures. Examples: **vēnerō**, *I shall have come*, i.e., *I shall be there*; **nōverō**, *I shall know*; **cōnsuēverō**, *I shall be accustomed*.
- 196. The Active Periphrastic (§75) Tenses** represent the action as about to take place in a time future to the time of the tense of **sum**. Examples: **laudātūrus est**, *he is about to praise*; **laudātūrus erat**, *he was about to praise*; **laudātūrus erit**, *he will be about to praise*.

INDICATIVE TENSES IN NARRATION

197. In telling about past events, the indicative tenses used are the historical perfect (or the equivalent historical present), the imperfect, the pluperfect, and occasionally the imperfect periphrastic. The perfect is the tense used for narrating the main sequence of events in a story. The other tenses are descriptive tenses, and are used for the details that surround the main events. See §189.

For example, suppose we wished to begin a story with the following points. “The Helvetii lived in a small country; they planned to leave; Caesar went to Gaul.” Told in this way all the verbs would be perfects; but the story is badly told. One would certainly pick out some chief event or events and group the others around them; and whatever events we picked out in this way would be expressed by the perfect, while the rest would be imperfect and pluperfect. We might begin in this way: “The Helvetii, who lived . . . , planned But Caesar went” In this telling, *planned* and *went* are perfects, each being thought of as a separate step in the story; but *lived* is thought of as subordinate detail, telling something that was going on at the time of the main event (*planned*) and must thus be imperfect in Latin, although English would use the simple past tense. Or we might prefer to begin in this way: “The Helvetii, who lived . . . , had planned But Caesar went.” In this case, *went* is thought of as the first main event, and is the only perfect; *lived* is still imperfect; but *had planned* is thought of as a subordinate detail, tellings us something that had happened before the *went*, and which led up to it, and is, therefore, a pluperfect.

198. The main events, which are therefore expressed by perfects, usually appear in the main, or independent clauses; and the subordinate details, which are therefore expressed in imperfects and pluperfects, usually appear in the subordinate, or dependent clauses. The following principle is thus a good one to follow unless there appears a clear reason for violating it:

RULE: *In a narrative of past events the independent clauses generally use the perfect, the dependent clauses generally use the imperfect and pluperfect.*

- a. But there are dependent indicative clauses where this principle does not hold. The following are the most important exceptions:
 1. After **postquam**, **ubi**, etc. (see §237), the perfect or historical present is regularly used. See also §235, a, and §236, a.
 2. After **dum**, *while* (see §234, a) the present is regularly used.

THE FUTURE AND FUTURE PERFECT

199. Latin is very accurate in the use of the future and future perfect, while English is very inaccurate. In many subordinate clauses English uses the present for the future or the future perfect, while Latin uses the tenses required by the meanings. For an example see §256.

THE TENSES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

200. The tenses of the subjunctive have two sets of meanings.

- a. When the subjunctive has the same meaning as the indicative (§184, c), the tenses of the subjunctive mean the same as the corresponding indicative tenses.
- b. When the subjunctive has one of its other meanings (§184, a, b), the time denoted by the tenses is future to that denoted by the corresponding indicative tenses. Examples: **laudet**, *let him praise*, is a command to praise in the future; **imperāvit ut laudāret**, *he commanded that he praise*, is a past command, to be carried into effect after the time of commanding.

201. The following table shows the meanings of the subjunctive tenses.

Present subjunctive = present *or* future

Imperfect subjunctive = imperfect *or* future to a past event

Perfect subjunctive = perfect *or* future perfect

Pluperfect subjunctive = pluperfect *or* future perfect to a past event

a. Some tenses have developed special meanings in certain constructions. See §§221, 226, 254.

b. Any tense of the subjunctive may thus refer to the future. But where the meaning would be doubtful and it is necessary to express the future clearly, the periphrastic tenses are used. So **rogō quid faciās** regularly means *I ask what you are doing*, and would not be understood to mean *I ask what you will do*. Therefore the latter meaning must be expressed by **rogō quid factūrus sis**.

THE SUBJUNCTIVE TENSES IN DEPENDENT CLAUSES

202. When a subjunctive clause depends on some other clause, a little knowledge of the real meaning of the English will enable one to use the right tense, just as in the indicative. When the tenses of the subjunctive mean the same thing as the corresponding tenses of the indicative, they will be used in the same way (§§197, 198). When, on the other hand, the subjunctives refer to the future (see above §201), it will be found that a present or perfect tense is usually required after a tense of present or future meaning, and the imperfect and pluperfect tenses after one of past meaning. For example: *I come, or I shall come, that I may praise, laudem; I came that I might praise, laudārem*. In the subjunctive, the usage is more regular than in the indicative, so that the convenient but not very accurate rule, called the *rule of the sequence of tenses*, can be followed.

RULE: *In dependent subjunctive clauses, primary tenses (i.e., present and future tenses) follow primary tenses, and secondary (i.e., historical or past) tenses follow secondary tenses.*

203. Primary tenses are those that have to do with the present and future, secondary tenses are those that have to do with the past. The following table of examples shows which are the primary and which the secondary tenses of both indicative and subjunctive.

		Primary Tenses	
	INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE
Present	rogō I ask	Present	quid faciat <i>what he is doing</i>
Future	rogābō I will ask	Perfect	quid fecerit <i>what he has done (or did)</i>
Present Perfect	rogāvī I have asked		
Future Perfect	rogāverō I will have asked		

		Secondary Tenses	
Imperfect	rogābam I was asking	Imperfect	quid faceret <i>what he was doing</i>
Historical Perfect	rogāvī I asked	Pluperfect	quid fecisset <i>what he had done</i>
Pluperfect	rogāveram I had asked		

a. Notice that the perfect subjunctive, even when it means past time, is still called a primary tense.

204. Exceptions to Rule of the Sequence of Tenses. Two special points must be mentioned which are not hard to understand if one remembers that this rule tells only how the natural meanings of the tenses make them depend on each other.

- a. An exception may occur whenever the meaning of the sentence makes it natural. Still, Latin is not fond of these exceptions, and, if exceptional tenses must be used, it is better to use an indicative construction instead of a subjunctive, when there is a choice. For example, if the sentence, *he marched around because the mountains are high*, were put into Latin, **cum sint** would be an exception to sequence and it is better to use the indicative construction **quod sunt**.

The most common exceptions are in result clauses, where a perfect subjunctive sometimes follows a perfect indicative. Example: **temporis tanta fuit exiguitas, ut tempus dēfuerit** (2.21.9), *so short was the time that there was no opportunity*.

- b. A subjunctive following an historical present may be either primary or secondary, for it may either keep up the liveliness of the present or behave as if the historical perfect had been used. Examples: **diem dīcunt quā diē conveniant** (1.6.14), *they appoint a day on which they are to assemble*; **omne fūmentum combūrent ut parātiōrēs ad perīcula subeunda essent** (1.5.5), *they burned all the grain so that they might be more ready to undergo danger*.

TENSES OF INFINITIVES AND PARTICIPLES

205. RULE: *The time denoted by infinitives and participles is relative to the tenses of the verbs on which they depend.*

In other words, a present infinitive or participle expresses action as going on at the same time as the main verb, whether that time is present, future, or past; a future infinitive or participle expresses action as future to the time of the main verb; and a perfect infinitive or participle expresses action as completed at the time of the main verb. The following table gives examples of the infinitive. The *tense* meanings of the participles are the same.

	eum	laudāre	laudātūrum esse	laudāvisse
literally:	<i>him</i>	<i>to be praising</i>	<i>to be about to praise</i>	<i>to have praised</i>
dīcō				
<i>I say</i>	<i>that he</i>	<i>is praising</i>	<i>will praise</i>	<i>has praised or praised</i>
dīcam				
<i>I will say</i>	<i>that he</i>	<i>is praising</i>	<i>will praise</i>	<i>has praised or praised</i>
dīxī				
<i>I said</i>	<i>that he</i>	<i>was praising</i>	<i>would praise</i>	<i>had praised</i>

- a. With such perfects as **dēbui, licuit, oportuit, potui**, Latin correctly uses the present infinitive, although English illogically says *ought to have*, etc. Example: **laudāre potui** literally *I was able to praise* = *I could have praised*.
- b. Some verbs lack the supine stem and therefore have no future active infinitive. The future passive infinitive which is given in the paradigms is rarely used. In both cases, the place of the future infinitive is taken by **fore (futūrum esse) ut**, *it will (would) be that*, with the present or imperfect subjunctive. Examples: **dīcit fore ut timeat**, literally *he says that it will be that he fears* = *he says that he will fear*; **dīxit fore ut laudārētur**, literally *he said that it would be that he was praised* = *he said that he would be praised*.

STATEMENTS

206. **The Indicative** mood is used to state facts. Examples: **Caesar vēnit**, *Caesar came*; **Caesar nōn veniet**, *Caesar will not come*.
207. **The Subjunctive of Contingent Futurity** (§184, *b*) is used to state what *would* take place under some condition. The condition is usually, but not always, expressed. This kind of statement is the conclusion of the conditional sentences in §254 and §257. For the peculiar use of tenses in such cases, see those paragraphs. In many grammars this use of the subjunctive is called *potential subjunctive*. Examples: **Caesar veniat**, *Caesar would come*; **Caesar nōn venisset**, *Caesar would not have come*; **velim**, *I would like*.
208. **The Potential Subjunctive** (§184, *b*) is sometimes used to state what *may* or *can* happen. It is very rarely used except where a negative is expressed or implied and in the phrase **aliquis dīcat**, *someone may say*. In an independent sentence, the student should always express *may*, *might*, *can*, *could*, by such words as **possum** and **licet**. Example: **nēmō dubitet**, but usually **nēmō dubitāre potest**, *no one can doubt*.

QUESTIONS

USE OF MOODS

209. The indicative, the subjunctive of contingent futurity (or potential subjunctive), and, rarely, the potential subjunctive (in its more restricted sense, see above §208), are used in questions with precisely the same meanings as in statements (§§206–208). Examples: **quis veniet?** *who will come?* **quis veniat?** *who would come?* **quis dubitet?** *who can doubt* (implying that no one can)?
210. **A Deliberative Question** is one that asks for an expression of someone's will. The answer, if any, is a command. This kind of question is asked by the subjunctive. Example: **quid faciam?** *what shall I do? what am I to do?*
- a. Under deliberative questions are usually classed those subjunctive questions which ask why one should do something or what one should do. Example: **cur dubitem?** *why should I doubt?*
211. *A rhetorical question* is one that is used for rhetorical effect and that expects no answer. Any of the above questions may be either rhetorical or real. The rhetorical character of the question has no effect on the mood.

INTRODUCTORY WORDS

212. Questions that cannot be answered by *yes* or *no* are introduced in Latin, as in English, by an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb. Examples: **quis vēnit?** *who came?* **qualis est?** *what sort of man is he?* **ubi est?** *where is he?*
213. **RULE: Questions that can be answered by yes or no are usually, but not always, introduced by an interrogative particle.**

In written English the question mark and (usually also) the order of words show that a sentence is a question. Because Romans had no question mark, and the order of words was freer, an introductory particle was usually necessary.

- a. **RULE: When the question asks for information, without suggesting the answer, the enclitic –ne is added to the first word.**

The first word is regularly the verb, unless some other word is put first for emphasis. Examples: **scribitne epistulam?** *is he writing a letter?* **epistulamne scribit?** *is it a letter that he is writing?*

b. RULE: When the form of the question suggests that the answer is yes, the interrogative particle is *nōnne*.

Example: *nōnne epistulam scribit?* *is he not writing a letter?*

c. RULE: When the form of the question suggests that the answer is no, the interrogative particle is *num*.

Example: *num epistulam scribit?* *he is not writing a letter, is he?*

DOUBLE QUESTIONS

214. Double questions ask which of two or more possibilities is true. **Utrum** may stand at the beginning of a question not to be translated, but instead merely as a warning that a double question will follow; or **–ne** may be added to the first word; or no introductory word may be used at all (as always in English). The *or* is expressed by the particle **an**; *or not* is expressed by **annōn**. Examples: **utrum pugnāvit an fūgit? pugnāvitne an fūgit? pugnāvit an fūgit?** *did he fight or run away?* **pugnāvit annōn?** *did he fight or not?*

ANSWERS

215. Latin has no words corresponding exactly to *yes* and *no*. It often replies by repeating the verb as a statement; or Latin may use **ita**, **sānē**, etc., for *yes*, **nōn**, **minimē**, etc., for *no*. Example: **epistulamne scribit? scribit,** *yes; nōn scribit,* *no.*

COMMANDS AND PROHIBITIONS

216. Commands and prohibitions are expressions of will, for which the appropriate moods are the subjunctive of desire (§184, *a*) and the imperative (§185). The negative with the subjunctive is **nē** (§188, *b*).

217. RULE: An exhortation is a command or prohibition in the first person plural of the present subjunctive.

Examples: **laudēmus,** *let us praise;* **nē eāmus,** *let us not go.*

218. RULE: A command in the second person is expressed by the imperative.

The future imperative is seldom used unless the verb used has no present. Examples: **venīte,** *come (you pl.); mementō,* *remember.*

219. RULE: A prohibition (negative command) in the second person is usually expressed by *nōlī*, *nōlīte*, *be unwilling*, and the present infinitive.

A prohibition is less often expressed by **cavē** (with or without **nē**), *take care*, and the present subjunctive; or by **nē** and the perfect subjunctive. Examples: **nōlī dubitāre,** *do not doubt;* less often **cavē (nē) dubitēs,** or **nē dubitāveris.**

220. RULE: A command or prohibition in the third person is regularly expressed by the third person of the present subjunctive.

Examples: **eat,** *let him go;* **nē veniant,** *let them not come.*

WISHES

221. Wishes are regularly expressed by the subjunctive of desire (§184, *a*) and are usually introduced by **utinam** (not to be translated).

a. RULE: *A wish for something in the future is expressed by the present subjunctive, with or without utinam.*

Example: (**utinam**) **adsit**, *may he be here!*

b. RULE: *A wish for something at the present time is expressed by the imperfect subjunctive with utinam.*

c. RULE: *A wish for something in the past is expressed by the pluperfect subjunctive with utinam.*

Both of these express a wish, or rather a regret, for something unattainable. Examples: **utinam adesset**, *would that he were here or if only he were here*, **utinam adfuisset**, *would that he had been here or if only he had been here!*

COORDINATE CLAUSES

222. A coordinate clause is connected with another clause by means of a *coordinating conjunction*. The coordinating conjunctions are such as mean *and, but, or, for*, and the like. They are used as in English.

DEPENDENT CLAUSES

223. Dependent clauses are those that are attached to other clauses by a relative or interrogative pronoun or adverb, or by a subordinating conjunction. Subordinating conjunctions are such as mean *if, because, although, when, after, before, in order that, so that*, and the like.

Neither the relatives nor any of the conjunctions have in themselves any effect on the mood of the verb in the dependent clause. Such clauses may thus contain the indicative or the subjunctive with any of its meanings (§184, *a-c*).

Dependent clauses are classified according to their meaning and use in the following groups: purpose clauses (§225), result clauses (§226), substantive clauses of desire (substantive purpose) (§228), substantive clauses of result or fact (§229), relative clauses of characteristic (§230), determining relative clauses (§231), parenthetical relative clauses (§232), temporal clauses (§§233–242), causal clauses (§§243–245), adversative (concessive) clauses (§§246, 247), substantive **quod** clauses (§248), conditional clauses (§§249–259), clauses of proviso (§260), clauses of comparison (§261), indirect questions (§262–264), indirect statement (§§265–273), attracted clauses (§274), infinitive clauses (§§277–280).

PURPOSE AND RESULT CLAUSES

224. The subjunctive of desire (§184, *a*) is used in purpose clauses, the subjunctive of fact (§184, *c*) in result clauses. This explains the difference in negatives (§188), and on the other hand the presence of a negative determines the kind of clause. In the **ut** clauses, or when an English clause is to be translated into Latin, the only test is the meaning: if any feeling of will or intention is implied, the clause is one of purpose; otherwise, of result.

PURPOSE CLAUSES**225. RULE: Purpose may be expressed by the subjunctive with *ut*, *nē*, *quō*, or a relative.**

The infinitive, common in English, is never to be used. For the so-called substantive clause of purpose, see §228. The connecting words are used as follows:

a. In affirmative clauses:

1. If the main clause contains a noun that can conveniently be used as an antecedent, a relative pronoun or adverb is commonly used. Example: **hominēs mīsīt quī vidērent**, *he sent men to see*, literally *who were to see*.
2. If the purpose clause contains an adjective or adverb in the comparative degree, **quō** is used. Example: **vēnit quō facilius vidēret**, *he came that he might see more easily*, literally *by which the more easily he might see*.
3. Otherwise, and most commonly, the conjunction **ut** is used. Example: **vēnit ut vidēret**, *he came to see*, *that he might see*, or *in order to see*; **venit ut videat**, *he comes to see*.

b. In negative clauses the conjunction **nē** is always used. Example: **hoc fēcit nē quis** (not **ut nēmō**) **vidēret**, *he did this that no one might see*, or *to keep anyone from seeing*.**RESULT CLAUSES****226. RULE: Result is expressed by the subjunctive with *ut* or *ut nōn*.**

For the so-called relative clause of result see §230, *a*. For the substantive clause of result see §229. Examples: **mōns impendēbat, ut perpaucī prohibēre possent** (1.6.4), *a mountain overhung, so that a very few could easily prevent*; **incrēdibilī lēnitāte, ita ut iūdicārī nōn possit** (1.12.2), *of extraordinary sluggishness, so that it cannot be determined*; **tam fortis est ut pugnet**, *he is so brave that he would fight*, or *as to fight*, or *that he fights*.

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES OF DESIRE (OR PURPOSE) AND OF RESULT**227.** Substantive clauses of desire and result differ from clauses of purpose and result in that they are used like nouns, either as the object of a transitive verb, or as the subject of the passive, or in apposition with a noun or neuter pronoun.

They are also called *complementary clauses*, because they serve to complement (complete) the meaning of such expressions as *I command, I hinder, the result is*.

There is the same difference between substantive clauses of desire (or purpose) and substantive clauses of result as between purpose clauses and result clauses, and they are to be distinguished in the same way (§224).

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES OF DESIRE (OR PURPOSE)

228. Substantive clauses of desire (or purpose) all consist of the subjunctive of desire (§184, a) introduced by a conjunction. As the subjunctive of desire is divided into the *volitive* (expressing will) and the *optative* (expressing wish), some grammars divide these clauses into *substantive volitive clauses* and *substantive optative clauses*. Another common name, *substantive purpose clauses*, is not as precise, because they do not really express purpose. For example: **imperō ut eās**, *I command you to go*, does not really mean *I command in order that you will go*, but rather *I give the command "go."*

a. **RULE: Most verbs expressing any form of desire, or of attempt to carry out a desire, may take the subjunctive with ut or nē.**

Such verbs are verbs meaning *accomplish* (when the subject is a conscious agent), *command*, *permit*, *persuade*, *request*, *resolve*, *strive*, *urge*, *wish*, and the like.

But after most of these verbs the infinitive may be used instead, and the infinitive is always used after **iūbeō**, *command*, **cōnor**, *attempt*, **patior**, **sinō**, *permit*. See §280, a. **Ut** is often omitted after verbs of *asking*, *commanding*, and *wishing*, especially after **volō**. The subjunctive, usually without **ut**, is often used with **oportet**, *it is right*, and **licet**, *it is permitted*; but see §276. Examples: **civitātī persuāsit ut exirent** (1.2.3), *he persuaded the citizens to leave*; **civitātī persuāsit nē exirent**, *he persuaded the citizens not to leave*; **oportet eat**, *he ought to go*; **eī licet eat**, *he may go*; **obsidēs utī dent perficit** (1.9.11), *he causes them to give hostages*.

b. **RULE: Verbs expressing fear take the subjunctive with nē meaning that or ut meaning that not.**

But **nē nōn**, *that not*, is often used instead of **ut**. Examples: **timeō nē veniat**, *I fear that he will come* (originally **timeō: nē veniat**, *I am afraid: let him, or may he, not come*); **timeō ut** (or **nē nōn**) **veniat**, *I fear that he will not come* (originally **timeō: veniat**, *I am afraid: let him or may he, come*; **ut** or **nē nōn** was then used as the opposite of **nē**).

c. **RULE: Verbs meaning avoid, hinder, prevent, and refuse may take the subjunctive with nē, quīn, or quōminus.**

But the infinitive may be used instead. **Nē** is used after an *affirmative main clause*, **quīn** after a *negative*, **quōminus** after *either* positive or negative. Examples: **eum impediō nē**, or **quōminus, veniat**, *I hinder him from coming*; **eum nōn impediō quīn**, or **quōminus, veniat**, *I do not hinder him from coming*; **neque recūsātūrōs quōminus esset** (1.31.24), *and that they would not refuse to be*.

SUBSTANTIVE UT CLAUSES OF RESULT OR FACT

229. Substantive clauses of result or fact are all usually called substantive result clauses, but most of them are better called **ut** clauses of fact, since they do not express result. They usually contain the subjunctive of fact (§184, c) and should be translated by the indicative.

a. **RULE: Verbs meaning accomplish take the subjunctive with ut or ut nōn when the subject is not a conscious agent.**

Compare §228, a. Example: **montēs efficiunt ut nōn exire possint**, *the mountains make (that they cannot leave) it impossible for them to leave*.

b. **RULE: Impersonal verbs meaning the result is, it happens, it remains, there is added, and the like, may take the subjunctive with ut or ut nōn.**

The clause is the subject of the verb. But with some of these verbs an indicative **quod** clause of fact may be used with the same meaning. See §248. Example: **hīs rēbus fiēbat ut vagārentur** (1.2.11), *the result was that they wandered*.

- c. **RULE:** *Such phrases as **mōs est, cōnsuētūdō est** (it is the custom), may take the subjunctive with **ut** or **ut nōn**.*

The clause is a predicate nominative. But a substantive clause of desire (with **ut** or **nē**) may be used with such phrases, especially with **iūs est, lēx est**. Example: **mōs est ut ex equīs pugnet**, *it is their custom to fight on horseback*.

- d. **RULE:** *Negated verbs and phrases meaning doubt take the subjunctive with **quīn**.*

After an affirmative expression of doubting an indirect question with **num, an, or sī** is used, as *whether* is in English. **Dubitō** with the infinitive means *hesitate*. Example: **nōn est dubium quīn hoc fēcerit**, *there is no doubt that he did this*.

RELATIVE CLAUSES OF CHARACTERISTIC

230. **GENERAL RULE:** *The subjunctive is used in certain kinds of relative clauses that describe an indefinite antecedent.*

The subjunctive is not used in *all* relative clauses which describe an antecedent. If the antecedent is definite, the clause is parenthetical (§232). If the clause is used chiefly to tell who or what the antecedent is, it is a determining clause (§231). If the clause can be turned into a condition without changing the meaning of the sentence, it is a conditional clause (§250). Clauses of characteristic are of the following kinds.

- a. **RULE:** *The subjunctive is used in relative clauses which are equivalent in meaning to **ut** clauses of result.*

These clauses complete the meaning of an expressed or implied antecedent like **is = (such) a man** (§171, a), **eius modī**, *such*, or an adjective modified by **tam**. Certain grammars call some of these clauses *relative clauses of result*. Usually the subjunctive is to be translated as if it were indicative.

Examples: **is est quī pugnet**, *he is a man who fights*; **secūtae sunt tempestātēs quae nostrōs in castrīs continērent** (4.34.8), *storms followed which kept our men in camp (= such storms that they kept)*; **tam improbus quī nōn fateātur** (Cic. *Cat.* 1.5), *so villainous as not to admit*.

- b. **RULE:** *The subjunctive is used in relative clauses which complete statements and questions of existence and non-existence.*

So after **est quī**, *there is a man who*; **nōn** or **nēmō** or **nūllus est quī**, *there is no one who*; **quis est quī?** *who is there who?* **sōlus** or **ūnus est quī**, *he is the only man who*; etc. Usually the subjunctive is to be translated as if it were indicative.

Examples: **nūllī sunt quī putent**, *there are none who think*; **erant omnīnō itinera duo quībus exīre possent** (1.6.1), *there were only two ways by which they could leave*.

- c. In some relative clauses of characteristic the subjunctive is to be translated by *can, could, or by should, ought*. Examples: **ūnum (iter) vix quā singulī carrī dūcerentur** (1.6.4), *one road by which wagons could be moved*; **neque commissum intellegeret quārē timēret** (1.14.6), *he did not know that anything had been done on account of which he should be afraid*.

DETERMINING RELATIVE CLAUSES

231. **RULE:** *Relative clauses that are used for the purpose of telling what person or thing is meant by an indefinite antecedent employ the indicative.*

Example: **ad eam partem Ōceanī quae est ad Hispāniam** (1.1.21), *to that part of the ocean which is near Spain*.

PARENTHETICAL RELATIVE CLAUSES

232. **RULE:** *A relative clause for which a parenthetical statement may be substituted usually employs the indicative.*

The antecedent of a parenthetical clause must always be definite, so that the relative clause may be entirely removed without destroying the meaning of the rest of the sentence. When the antecedent is indefinite the clause is either characterizing (§230), determining (§231), or conditional (§250). Example: **Dumnorigī, quī principātum obtinēbat, persuādet** (1.3.14), *he persuaded Dumnorix, who held the chief power*; the same meaning could be expressed by **Dumnorigī (is principātum obtinēbat) persuādet**.

TEMPORAL CLAUSES

233. There are many conjunctions denoting time relations. The most common is **cum** which must be treated by itself, but the others may be classified according to their meanings.

WHILE, AS LONG AS

234. Conjunctions with these meanings show that one act was going on at the same time as another. **Cum** with the imperfect subjunctive does the same.

- a. **RULE:** *Dum meaning while (i.e., at some time during the time that) is used with the present indicative, even in speaking of past time.*

See §198, a, 2. Example: **dum haec geruntur, Caesarī nūntiātum est** (1.46.1), *while these things were going on, it was reported to Caesar*.

- b. **RULE:** *Dum, dōnec, quoad, and quam diū, as long as, while (i.e., during the entire time that) are used with the indicative, which is usually in the same tense as the main verb.*

Example: **quoad potuit, restitit** (4.12.16), *he resisted as long as he could*.

UNTIL

235. Conjunctions meaning *until* show that the action of the main clause lasted up to that of the subordinate clause. Sometimes the actor in the main clause foresees or expects the second action and intends to bring it about, or prepares for it, and sometimes he does not. This is the basis for the distinction in the use of moods.

- a. **RULE:** *Dum, dōnec, and quoad meaning until are used with the indicative when the subordinate action is not represented as foreseen or expected.*

The perfect is regularly used for past time. Example: **Galli expectāvērunt dum Caesar vēnit**, *the Gauls were free until Caesar came*.

- b. **RULE:** *Dum, dōnec, and quoad meaning until are used with the subjunctive when the subordinate action is represented as foreseen or expected.*

Examples: **Galli exspectāvērunt dum Caesar veniret**, *the Gauls waited until Caesar should come, or for Caesar to come, or until Caesar came*.

BEFORE

236. Conjunctions meaning *before* also represent the action of the subordinate clause as subsequent to that of the main clause, and the principle on which the choice of moods is based is the same as that given in §235.

a. **RULE: Priusquam and antequam are used with the indicative when the subordinate action is not represented as foreseen or expected.**

The perfect is regularly used for past time. Example: **Galli inter sē pugnāvērunt priusquam Caesar vēnit**, *the Gauls fought with one another before Caesar came.*

b. **RULE: Priusquam and antequam are used with the subjunctive when the subordinate action is represented as foreseen or expected.**

Example: **Galli magnās cōpiās comparāre cōnātī sunt priusquam Caesar veniret**, *the Gauls tried to prepare large forces before Caesar should arrive, or arrived, or in view of Caesar's arrival.*

c. These conjunctions are often written as two words, the **prius** or **ante** standing in the main clause, and the **quam** at the beginning of the subordinate clause. Translate as if the complete word stood where **quam** does. Example: **Galli prius inter sē pugnāvērunt quam Caesar vēnit**, translated as in a.

AFTER

237. **RULE: Postquam, after, ut, ubi, when (after, not while), simul ac, cum primum, as soon as (immediately after), are used with the indicative, generally the perfect or the historical present.**

Example: **ubi certiōrēs factī sunt, legātōs mittunt** (1.7.6). *when they were informed of it they sent envoys.*

CUM

238. **Cum** has three main uses:

temporal, *when, after*

causal, *since, because*

adversative (concessive), *although*

Cum is in reality an undeclined relative, whose antecedent is something like *at the time* or *at a time*, sometimes expressed, more often only implied. The use of moods with **cum** is similar to the use of moods with the declined relative pronoun (§§230–232, 245, 247, 250).

239. **Causal and Adversative Cum.**

RULE: Cum meaning since or although is used with all tenses of the subjunctive.

Compare the causal relative (§245) and the adversative relative (§247). Examples: **quae cum ita sint, perge** (Cic. *Cat.* 1.10), *since this is so, go on*; **his cum persuādāre nōn possent, legātōs mittunt** (1.9.2), *since they could not persuade them, they sent envoys*; **cum ad vesperum pugnātum sit** (1.26.4), *although they fought till evening.*

240. **Temporal cum.** Inaccurate but convenient rules are:

RULE: Cum meaning when is always used with the indicative when the main verb is present or future.

RULE: Cum meaning when is generally followed by the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive when the main verb is past.

See examples under §241 and §242, which give more accurate rules for the same clauses.

241. Temporal Cum with the Indicative,

a. Clauses of Date.

RULE: *Cum* meaning *when* is followed by the indicative when the clause merely dates the action of the main clause.

These clauses are in reality determining clauses (§231) and are especially common when an antecedent like **tum** or **eō tempore** is expressed in the main clause. But a subjunctive is often found where an indicative might be expected. Examples: **tum cum ex urbe Catilinam ēiciēbam** (Cic. *Cat.* 3.3), *at the time when I was trying to drive Catiline from the city*; **cum Caesar in Galliam vēnit, principēs erant Aedui** (6.12.1), *at the time when Caesar came to Gaul the Aedui were the leaders*.

b. Clauses of Repeated Action.

RULE: *Cum* meaning *whenever* is usually followed by the indicative.

These clauses correspond exactly to conditional relative clauses (§150). It is necessary only that *whenever* be a possible translation of **cum**; *when* is usually a better translation. For the occasional subjunctive in such clauses see §242, *b*.

Example: **haec cum dēfixerat, contrāria duo statuēbat** (4.17.10), *when he had set them firmly* (in each of several cases) *he put two others opposite*.

c. Inverted Cum Clauses.

RULE: *Cum* meaning *when* is followed by the indicative when the main action is stated in the **cum** clause.

In the most common type of **cum** clauses (§242, *a*) the main action is stated in the main clause, and the **cum** clause describes the situation under which it happened. In the inverted clause this relation is reversed.

Example: **vix agmen prōcesserat, cum Galli cohortāti (sunt) inter sē** (6.8.1), *hardly had the line advanced, when the Gauls encouraged one another* (for **cum . . . prōcesserat, . . . cohortāti sunt**, *when the line had advanced the Gauls encouraged, etc.*).

242. Temporal Cum with the Subjunctive.

a. Situation and Narrative Clauses.

RULE: *Cum* meaning *when* is followed by the subjunctive when the clause describes the situation under which the main action took place.

RULE: *Cum* meaning *when* is followed by the subjunctive when the clause states a new point in the story (unless the clause is inverted, §241, *c*).

These rules are given together because most subjunctive clauses are both situation and narrative clauses. Sometimes, however, one rule seems to apply better than the other. The situation clause corresponds to the relative clause of characteristic (§230). Examples: **cum esset Caesar in citeriōre Galliā, crēbrī ad eum rūmorēs adferēbantur** (2.11.1), *when Caesar was in Cisalpine Gaul, frequent rumors came to him* (primarily situation, because the fact that Caesar was in Cisalpine Gaul has been stated already, so that it is not a new point in the story); **cum civitas iūs suum exsequī cōnārētur, Orgetorix mortuus est** (1.4.2), *while the state was trying to enforce its laws, Orgetorix died* (both situation and narrative, because the fact that the state tried to enforce its laws is told only in this **cum** clause).

b. Clauses of Repeated Action.

RULE: *Cum* meaning whenever is sometimes followed by the subjunctive.

Compare §241, b. Example: **cum ferrum sē inflexisset, neque ēvellere poterant** (1.25.7), *when the iron had bent* (in each of many cases), *they could neither draw it out*, etc.

CAUSAL CLAUSES

243. Dependent causal clauses are introduced by the conjunctions **cum**, **quod**, **quia**, **quoniam**, and **quandō**, or by the relative. The conjunctions **nam**, **enim**, **etenim**, *for*, introduce coordinate clauses.

244. **RULE:** **Quod**, **quia**, **quoniam**, and **quando**, because, since, are used with the indicative unless the reason is quoted.

When the writer wishes to imply because (*as he said*), (*as he thought*), (*as I said*), (*as I thought*), the subjunctive is used. See §273. Examples: (with the indicative) **reliquōs Gallōs praecēdunt, quod contendunt** (1.1.11), *they surpass the other Gauls because they fight*; (with the subjunctive) **quod sit dēstitūtus queritur** (1.16.18), *he complained because (as he said) he had been deserted*.

245. **RULE:** **Cum**, since, because, and often **quī**, since he, etc., are used with the subjunctive.

But the indicative is often used with **quī**, where the causal idea is perfectly clear. If **praesertim**, especially, stands in a subjunctive **quī** or **cum** clause, the clause is probably causal. Examples: (with the subjunctive) **illī autem, quī omnia praeclāra sentirent, negōtium suscēpērunt** (Cic. *Cat.* 3.5), *and they, since they had none but patriotic thoughts, undertook the matter*; (with the indicative) **fuit militum virtūs laudanda, quī adaequārunt** (5.8.12), *the energy of the soldiers deserved praise, who (= since they) kept up with*, etc. For example with **cum**, see §239.

ADVERSATIVE (CONCESSIVE) CLAUSES

246. **RULE:** **Quamquam**, although, and **etsī**, **tametsī**, even if, although, are used with the indicative.

Example: **etsī nōndum eōrum cōnsilia cognōverant, tamen suspicābātur** (4.31.1), *although he did not yet know their plans, nevertheless he suspected*. But **quamquam** sometimes introduces an independent sentence, and is then best translated by *and yet*.

247. **RULE:** **Cum**, although, and less commonly **quamvis** (in Cicero), however much, however, although, **quī**, although he, etc., **ut**, although, are used with the subjunctive.

Examples: (for **cum** see §239) **quamvis senex sit, fortis est**, *however old he may be, he is brave*; **ut omnia contrā opiniōnem acciderent** (Caes. 3.9.17), *although everything should turn out contrary to their expectations*. But the indicative is sometimes used with **quī** when the adversative idea is clear.

SUBSTANTIVE QUOD CLAUSES

248. **RULE:** **Substantive clauses with quod**, that, employ the indicative.

This clause is most commonly used as the appositive of a neuter pronoun. Example: **illa praetereō, quod Maelium occidit** (Cic. *Cat.* 1.3), *I pass over this, that he slew Maelius*.

a. Sometimes the **quod** clause, standing at the beginning of its sentence, is used in the sense of *as to the fact that*, whereas. Example: **quod ūnum pāgum adortus es, nōlī ob eam rem dēspicere** (compare 1.13.12), *as to your having attacked one canton, do not despise us on that account*.

CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

249. A conditional sentence has two essential clauses, a condition (protasis) and a conclusion (apodosis). The condition is the dependent clause, and is so called because it states the condition on which the truth of the main clause depends; the conclusion is the main clause. Example: *if he comes* (condition), *I shall see him* (conclusion).

CONNECTIVES IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

250. The connectives are the conjunctions **sī**, *if*, **sī nōn**, *if not*, **nisi**, *if not or unless*, **sīn**, *but if*, and relative pronouns and adverbs used in a conditional sense.

Whenever a relative has for its antecedent, either expressed or implied, a word like *anyone, everyone, always, everywhere* (any word that includes all of a class of objects), it is a conditional relative, and the clause is a condition. For example, *anyone who thinks he will see*, means *if anyone thinks he will see*; *whenever I saw him he used to say*, means *if at any time I saw him he used to say*. Compare this use of the relative with those given in §§230–232.

CLASSES OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

251. There are four classes of conditional sentences, two for those dealing with present or past time, two for those dealing with future time:
- General or Undetermined Present or Past (§253). **sī pugnāt, vincit**, *if he fights he conquers*; **sī pugnāvit, vicit**, *if he fought he conquered*.
 - Present or Past Contrary to Fact (§254). **sī pugnāret, vinceret**, *if he were fighting, he would be conquering*; **sī pugnāvisset, vīcisset**, *if he had fought, he would have conquered*.
 - More Vivid (or Confident) Future (§256). **sī pugnābit, vincet**, *if he fights (shall fight), he will conquer*.
 - Less Vivid (or Confident) Future (§257). **sī pugnet, vincat**, *if he should fight (or fought), he would conquer*.

PRESENT OR PAST

252. In present or past time a conditional sentence may either express no opinion as to the truth or falsity of a statement, simply saying that one thing is true if another is; or it may imply that a condition is not fulfilled, and that as a result the conclusion is not fulfilled. There is no form of condition that affirms the truth of a statement. The speaker or hearer may know it to be true, but the sentence does not say so.
253. **General or Undetermined Present or Past. RULE: A present or past conditional sentence whose form affirms nothing as to its fulfillment employs the present or past tenses of the indicative.**

Examples: **sī fortis est, eum laudō**, *if he is brave, I praise him*; **quī fortis est prō patriā pugnāt**, *whoever is brave fights for his country*; **nisi prō patriā pugnāvit, nōn fortis fuit**, *unless he fought for his country he was not brave*.

254. **Present or Past Contrary to Fact. RULE: A present or past conditional sentence whose form implies that the condition is not or was not fulfilled employs the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive.**

The imperfect subjunctive is used to express present time, the pluperfect to express past time. Examples: **sī fortis esset, eum laudārem**, *if he were brave, I would praise, or be praising, him* (implying *but he is not, and so I do not*); **nisi prō patriā pugnāvisset, eum nōn laudāvīsem**, *unless he had (if he had not) fought for his country, I would not have praised him* (implying *but he did, and so I do*; the contrary of the negative supposition); **sī pugnāvisset, eum laudārem**, *if he had fought, I would praise, or be praising, him* (implying *but he did not, and so I do not*; notice the change of tense).

- a. When the conclusion of such conditions contains a verb meaning *could* or *ought*, or such expressions as *it would be hard*, or *just*, the verb of the conclusion is usually in the indicative, the imperfect for present time, the perfect or pluperfect for past time. The condition requires the subjunctive, like any other condition contrary to fact.

This is because the conclusion is not usually really contrary to fact, although English idiom makes it seem so. When the conclusion is really contrary to fact, the subjunctive is used. Examples: **sī fortis esset, pugnāre poterat**, *if he were brave, he could fight* (he has the power in any case; hence the indicative); **sī fortis fuisset, pugnāre debuit** or **debuerat**, *if he had been brave he ought to have fought* (the duty rested upon him in any case; hence the indicative).

FUTURE

255. There are two forms of future conditions, one expressing less confidence in the fulfillment of the condition than the other. There is no form to express nonfulfillment, since one cannot be sure of the nonfulfillment of a future condition.

256. **More Vivid (or Confident) Future. RULE: A future conditional sentence whose translation contains shall or will employs the future or future perfect indicative.**

English commonly uses the present with a future meaning in the condition. *If I see him, I will tell him*, means *if I will see him, I will tell him*. Latin, on the other hand, is precise in using the future. Moreover, if the condition must be fulfilled before the conclusion can take place, Latin uses the future perfect, while English commonly uses the present. *If he arrives first, he will tell him*, means *if he shall have arrived first*. Again, Latin is precise in using the future perfect. Examples: **sī pugnābit eum laudābō**, *if he fights or is fighting (shall fight or shall be fighting) I will praise him*; **quī pugnāverit laudābitur**, *whoever fights or has fought (shall have fought) will be praised*.

257. **Less Vivid (or Confident) Future. RULE: A future conditional sentence whose translation contains should or would employs the present or perfect subjunctive.**

The difference between the present and perfect is the same as that between the future and future perfect indicative in §256. Examples: **sī pugnet, vincat**, *if he should fight, or were to fight, he would conquer*; **quī pugnet laudētur**, *whoever should fight, or were to be fighting, would be praised*; **sī nōn pugnāverit, eum nōn laudem**, *if he should not fight, or should fail to fight, I would not praise him*.

MIXED CONDITIONS

258. In Latin, as in English, the condition and the conclusion are usually of the same form. But sometimes, in both languages, one may wish to use a condition of one form, a conclusion of another. Example: **sī veniat, hic adsumus**, *if he should come or were to come, we are here*.

CONDITION OMITTED OR IMPLIED

259. Instead of being expressed by a clause as in the examples given above, the condition may be implied in a phrase or even in a single word. Sometimes it is omitted altogether, but is supplied in thought. Examples: **damnātum poenam sequi oportēbat** (1.4.3), *(if) condemned, it was necessary that punishment be inflicted on him*; **dicat**, *he would say* (if he should be asked); **velim**, *I would like*. The last two are simply the independent subjunctive of contingent futurity or potential subjunctive (§207).

CLAUSES OF PROVISIO

260. RULE: Dum, modo, and dummodo in the sense of if only, provided that, are used with the subjunctive.

Notice that, although these seem like conditions, the construction is not the same, because the subjunctive is always used, and the negative is often **nē**. This is because the construction originally meant *only let* (*him come: I will, etc.*), and the mood is the subjunctive of desire (§184, a). Examples: **magnō mē metū liberābis dummodo mūris intersit** (Cic. Cat. 1.10), *you will rid me of much fear provided that there is (only let there be or if only there be) a wall between us*; **modo nē** (or **nōn**) **discēdat eum vidēbō**, *provided that (or if only) he does not leave, I will see him*.

CLAUSES OF COMPARISON

261. RULE: The subjunctive is used with ac sī, quam sī, quasi, ut sī, tamquam, tamquam sī, velut, velut sī, as if, just as if.

The tenses follow the rule of the sequence of tenses although the English translation might lead one to expect always the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive. Examples: **currit quasi timeat**, *he runs as if he were afraid*; **cucurrit quasi timeret**, *he ran as if he were afraid*.

INDIRECT QUOTATION

INDIRECT QUESTIONS

262. GENERAL RULE: The subjunctive is employed in all indirect questions.

An indirect question is a substantive clause introduced by an interrogative word. A direct question may be quoted in the exact words in which it was asked, as *he asked "where are you going?"*; or it may be quoted indirectly; that is, with such changes as make it a dependent clause, as *he asked where I (or he) was going*. In the latter form, it is an indirect question.

263. RULE: Subjunctive questions (§§209, 210) retain the subjunctive in the indirect form.

The meaning implied by the mood is unchanged. Examples: (direct) **quis veniat?** *who would come?* (indirect) **rogō quis veniat**, *I ask who would come*; (direct) **quid faciam?** *what am I to do?* (indirect) **rogāvī quid facerem**, *I asked what I was to do*.

264. RULE: All indicative questions change to the subjunctive in the indirect form.

- a. When the direct question is introduced by an interrogative pronoun, adjective, or adverb (§212), the same word serves to introduce the indirect form. Examples: (direct) **quis vēnit?** *who came?* (indirect) **rogō quis vēnerit**, *I ask who came*; (direct) **ubi est?** *where is he?* (indirect) **mihi dixit ubi esset**, *he told me where he was*.
- b. When the direct question can be answered by *yes* or *no* (§213) the indirect form is introduced by **num** or **-ne**, *whether* (no difference in meaning). **Sī** is also used in the sense of *to see whether* or *whether*. Examples: (direct) **venitne?** *is he coming?* (indirect) **rogō num veniat**, or **rogō veniatne**, *I ask whether he is coming*; **expectāvit sī venirent**, *he waited to see whether they would come*.
- c. Indirect double questions are introduced by the same particles as direct double questions (§214), but *or* or *not* is expressed by **necne**, instead of **annōn**. Examples: **rogāvī utrum pugnāvisset, an fūgisset**, *I asked whether he had fought or run away*; **rogāvī utrum pugnāvisset necne**, *I asked whether he had fought or not*.

INDIRECT STATEMENT (SPEECH, OR DISCOURSE)

265. *Direct discourse* repeats the exact words of a remark or a thought. Example: *he said, "the soldiers are brave."* *Indirect statement* (or *speech* or *discourse*) repeats a remark or thought with such changes in the words as to make of them a dependent construction. Example: *he said that the soldiers were brave.*

Indirect speech may quote a long speech consisting of separate sentences, and periods may be used between these sentences; but, nonetheless, each sentence should be thought of as depending on a verb of *saying* or *thinking*, which may be either expressed or implied at the beginning. When one speaks of a main clause in indirect statement, one means a clause that was the main clause in the direct form.

Main Clauses

266. **Declarative Sentences. RULE: Every main clause containing a statement requires the infinitive with a subject in the accusative in indirect statement (§279).**

But the subject is not always expressed. Example: *mīles est fortis, the soldier is brave*, becomes *dixit militem esse fortem, he said that the soldier was brave.*

- a. For the meanings of the infinitive tenses see §205. It follows from the statements made in §205 that the present infinitive must be used for an original present indicative, the future for the future indicative, and the perfect for the imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect indicative.

267. **Imperative Sentences. RULE: Every sentence, containing a command or prohibition requires the subjunctive in indirect statement.**

This is a use of the subjunctive of desire; the negative is *nē*. Examples: *ad Īd. Apr. revertiminī, return about the thirteenth of April*, becomes *respondit: . . . ad Īd. Apr. reverterentur* (1.7.19), *he replied . . . : (that) they should return*, etc.; *is ita egit: . . . nē . . . dēspiceret* (1.13.14), *he instructed him: . . . (that) he should not despise* (from an original *nōlī dēspicere* (§219), *do not despise*).

268. **Interrogative Sentences.**

I. RULE: An indicative question (§209), if real (§211), changes to the subjunctive in indirect statement.

Example: *respondit: . . . quid sibi vellet* (1.44.24), *what did he want* (for an original *quid tibi vīs, what do you want?*)?

II. RULE: An indicative question (§209), if rhetorical (§211), changes to the infinitive in indirect statement.

This is because a rhetorical question is equivalent to a declarative sentence, which would require the infinitive (§266). Example: *respondit: . . . num memoriam dēpōnere posse* (1.14.8), *could he forget* (for an original *I cannot forget [can I?]*)?

III. RULE: A subjunctive question (§§209, 210), whether real or rhetorical, retains the subjunctive in indirect statement.

Example: *incusāvit: . . . cūr quisquam iūdicāret* (1.40.6), *why should anyone suppose* (for an original *iūdicet*. See §210, a)?

269. **Subordinate Clauses. RULE: Every subordinate indicative or subjunctive clause of the direct form requires the subjunctive in indirect statement.**

Infinitives remain unchanged. Example: *incusāvit: . . . ex quō iūdicārī posse quantum habēret in sē bonī constantia, proptereā quod . . . superāssent* (1.40.17), *from which it could be seen what an advantage courage had, since they had conquered* (for original *iūdicārī, potest, habeat, superāvistis*).

- a. But a coordinate relative clause (§173, a), because it is equivalent to a clause connected by *et*, or some other coordinating conjunction, sometimes uses the infinitive in indirect statement. See example under §269: since *quō* connects with the preceding sentence *posse* might have been a subjunctive.

Tenses of the Subjunctive

270. The tenses of the subjunctive regularly follow the rule of sequence, taking their time from the verb of *saying* or *thinking*.
- Repraesentātiō.** But after a past verb of *saying* or *thinking* the person who quotes very often drops the secondary sequence and uses the tenses of the original speaker, for the sake of vividness. It is best to use past tenses in translating. Example: **respondit: . . . cum ea ita sint . . . sēsē pācem esse factūrum** (1.14.16), *he replied . . . that, since these things were so, he would make peace.*
 - After a perfect infinitive, the secondary sequence must be used even if the infinitive depends on a primary verb of *saying* or *thinking*. This is because the perfect infinitive is past, even though it depends on a present. Example: **dicit Caesarem laudātum esse quod fortis esset**, *he says that Caesar was praised because he was brave.*
 - In changing from the direct form to a subjunctive of the indirect, the following rule is helpful: *keep the stem of the original and follow the sequence.* So for example a present or future indicative becomes present subjunctive after **dicit**, imperfect after **dixit**, in either case retaining the present stem; a perfect or future perfect indicative becomes perfect subjunctive after **dicit**, pluperfect after **dixit**, in either case retaining the perfect stem.

Other Changes

271. If a pronoun of the first person changes to one of the third person, it must be to some form of **suī** or **suus** (rarely of **ipse**). See §165. All other changes of person or pronouns are the same as in English. Example: **hunc militem laudō**, *I praise this soldier*, may become **dīcō mē hunc militem laudāre**, *I say that I praise this soldier*, or **dīcit sē illum militem laudāre**, *he says that he praises that soldier*. Adverbs will be changed in the same way, *now* to *then*, *here* to *there*, etc. Vocatives will become nominatives or disappear.

Conditions in Indirect Discourse

272. **I.** The condition, since it is the dependent clause, must have its verb in the subjunctive. The tense follows the rule for the sequence of tenses except that the imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive of conditions contrary to fact never change, even after a primary tense.
- II.** The conclusion, since it is the main clause, must have its verb in the infinitive. Indicative tenses change to infinitive tenses according to §266, *a*. The present and perfect subjunctive of less vivid (or confident) future conclusions become the future infinitive, in **-ūrus esse**. The imperfect and pluperfect of conclusions contrary to fact become an infinitive not elsewhere used, in **-ūrus fuisse**.

Examples are needed for only the conditions contrary to fact, since all others follow the regular rules of sequence and indirect statement. **Sī pugnāret, eum laudārem**, *if he were fighting, I would praise him*, becomes, after either **dicit** or **dixit**, **sī pugnāret, sē eum laudātūrum fuisse**; **sī pugnāvisset, eum laudāvissem**, *if he had fought, I would have praised him*, becomes, after either **dicit** or **dixit**, **sī pugnāvisset, sē eum laudātūrum fuisse**.

IMPLIED INDIRECT DISCOURSE

273. **RULE:** *The subjunctive may be used in any subordinate clause to imply that it is a quotation.*

This is the reason for the subjunctive in causal clauses with **quod**, etc. (§244). It is also especially common in clauses depending on purpose clauses and substantive clauses of desire (or purpose). Examples: **Caesar frumentum quod essent polliciti flāgitāre** (1.16.1), *Caesar kept demanding the grain which (as he said) they had promised*; **erat ei praeceptum nē proelium committeret nisi ipsius cōpiae visae essent** (1.23.8), *he had been commanded not to engage in battle unless Caesar's forces should be seen* (Caesar had said **nisi meae cōpiae visae erunt**, *unless my forces shall be seen*).

SUBJUNCTIVE BY ATTRACTION

274. **RULE:** *Sometimes a verb that would otherwise stand in the indicative is put in the subjunctive only because it depends on another subjunctive or on an infinitive.*

Example: **cum certissimae rēs accēderent, quod Helvētiōs tradūxisset** (1.19.1), *since the most clearly proven facts were added (namely) that he had led the Helvetii*.

THE INFINITIVE

For the tenses of the infinitive see §205.

WITHOUT SUBJECT ACCUSATIVE

Complementary Infinitive

275. **RULE:** *Many verbs which imply another action of the same subject take a present infinitive to complete their meaning.*

Such verbs are verbs meaning *be able, be accustomed, attempt, begin, cease, dare, determine, ought, wish*, and the like. But with some of these verbs a substantive clause of desire (or purpose) is often used. See §228, a. Examples: **ire potest**, *he can go*; **ire potuit**, *he could have gone*, literally *he was able to go*; **ire debet**, *he ought to go*; **cōstituērunt comparāre** (1.3.2), *they decided to prepare*.

- a. As these verbs have no subject accusative, either expressed or understood, a predicate noun or adjective must agree with the nominative subject of the principal verb. Example: **fortis esse cōnātur**, *he tries to be brave*.

Infinitive As Subject

276. The present infinitive (rarely the perfect) without an expressed subject accusative may be used as the subject of the verbs mentioned in §278. With **licet**, *it is permitted*, the dative is commonly used instead of a subject accusative. Examples: **ire oportet**, *one must go*, literally *to go is right*; **ire oportuit**, *one ought to have gone* (§205, a), literally *to go was right*; **eī ire licuit**, *he might have gone*, literally *to go was permitted to him*; **ire necesse est**, *one must go*.

- a. Since a subject accusative is easily supplied in thought with these infinitives, a predicate noun or adjective is regularly in the accusative. But with **licet** a predicate is commonly dative. Examples: **fortem esse oportet**, *one ought to be brave*; **virō licet esse fortī (fortem)**, *a man may be brave*, literally *it is permitted to a man to be brave*.

WITH SUBJECT ACCUSATIVE

277. The infinitive with a subject accusative (§123) forms an infinitive clause (§186).

Infinitive Clause As Subject

278. **RULE:** *The present infinitive (rarely the perfect) with subject accusative may be used as the subject of such impersonal verbs as decet, libet, oportet, placet, praestat, vīsum est, and of est with a predicate noun or adjective.*

But with some of these verbs the subjunctive is also used. See §228, *a*, and §229, *c*. As stated in §276, the subject accusative is not always expressed with these verbs, and with **licet** the dative is much more common. Examples: **mē ire oportet**, *I ought to go*; **Caesarem ire oportuit**, *Caesar ought to have gone* (§205, *a*); **mē ire necesse est**, *I must go*.

Infinitive Clause as Object

279. **RULE:** *The infinitive in all its tenses, with subject accusative, is used as the object of verbs of knowing, learning, and telling.*

This is indirect statement. For examples see §205 and §266.

- a.* When these verbs are made passive, either the personal construction or the impersonal is possible; but the personal is the more common in the uncompounded tenses. Examples: (personal) **Caesar vēnisse fertur**, *Caesar is said to have come*; (impersonal) **Caesarem vēnisse dictum est**, *it has been said that Caesar came*.
280. Note the use of the accusative and infinitive with the following verbs.
 - a.* The accusative and infinitive are used regularly with **iūbeō**, *order*, **vetō**, *forbid*, **patior**, **sinō**, *permit*, which might be expected to take the substantive clause of desire (purpose) (§228, *a*). Example: **militēs pugnāre iūssit**, *he ordered the soldiers to fight*.
 - b.* With **volō**, **nōlō**, **mālō**, **cupiō**, the accusative and infinitive are used regularly when the subject of the infinitive is not the same as that of the main verb, sometimes when it is the same (compare §275). Examples: **volō eum ire**, *I want him to go*; **cupiō mē esse clēmentem** (Cic. *Cat.* 1.4), *I desire to be merciful*.
 - c.* The accusative and future infinitive are used regularly with verbs of *hoping* and *promising*. But **posse** may be used instead of a future infinitive, after verbs of *hoping*, because **possum** implies futurity. Examples: **id sēsē effectūrōs spērābant** (7.26.4), *literally, they hoped that they could accomplish this = they hoped to accomplish this*; **sēsē potiri posse spērant** (1.3.22), *they hoped that they could get possession*.

WITH SUBJECT NOMINATIVE

281. **Historical Infinitive. RULE:** *The infinitive is sometimes used with a nominative subject, as an equivalent for an independent past indicative.*

Example: **cotidiē Caesar frūmentum flāgitāre** (1.16.1), *Caesar daily demanded the grain*.

PARTICIPLES

- 282.** Participles are verbal adjectives and are used either attributively or predicatively (§157). Like other adjectives they may be used substantively (§158). They may govern cases just as the finite verb does. For the meanings of their tenses, see §205.
- 283.** Participles are often used in Latin where English uses a coordinate or a subordinate clause. Only the meaning of the sentence shows what conjunction to use in translating. Examples: **victus fūgit** may mean *he was conquered and fled, when he had been conquered, he fled, or because he had been conquered, he fled*; **victus fugiet** may be translated by similar clauses, or by *if he is conquered, he will flee*. See also the examples under §150.

PRESENT PARTICIPLE

- 284.** The present active participle corresponds in meaning to the English present participle, but is much less frequently used. There is no present passive participle.
- a.* Therefore such forms as *seeing*, usually, and such forms as *being seen*, always, must be translated into Latin otherwise than by a present participle.
1. Present participles are often used in English where the action has actually been completed before the action of the verb: Latin uses the perfect participle when this is the case. For example, *seeing this he fled* means *having seen*, etc., and may be translated **hōc visō** (§150) **fūgit**, literally *this having been seen, he fled*.
 2. Present participles are very often used in English where Latin uses **dum** with the present indicative (§234, *a*) or **cum** with the imperfect (or pluperfect) subjunctive (§242, *a*). Examples: *he was killed (while) fighting*, sometimes **pugnāns occisus est**, usually either **dum pugnāt occisus est**, or **cum pugnāret, occisus est**; *seeing this he fled*, **cum hoc vidisset fūgit**.
 3. Remember that *he is running* is always **currit**, never **est currēns**.

FUTURE PARTICIPLES

- 285. I. The future active participle** is used by Caesar and Cicero only with some form of **sum**, making either the active periphrastic conjugation (§75 and §196) or the future active infinitive. Example: **praeter quod sēcum portātūrī erant** (1.5.5), literally *except what they were about to take with them = except what they intended*, etc.
- II. The future passive participle** has the same form as the gerundive (§288), but in usage is quite distinct. It has two uses.
- a.* The future passive participle is used with the verb **sum** to form the passive periphrastic conjugation (§76). This denotes duty or necessity; as **laudandus est**, *he is to be praised, he must (ought, deserves to) be praised*. The English form is usually active: remember that the Latin is passive. The agent is regularly dative (§118). Intransitive verbs must be used impersonally. Examples: **Caesar est mihi laudandus**, literally *Caesar must be praised by me = I must praise Caesar*; **mihi pugnandum fuit** (impersonal), literally *it had to be fought by me = I had to fight*.
- b.* The future passive participle is sometimes used to denote purpose, in agreement with the objects of verbs meaning *to have* (a thing done) or *to undertake* (to do a thing); especially **cūrō**, *cause, have* (literally *take care*), **dō**, *give over*, **suscipiō**, *undertake*. Examples: **pontem faciendum cūrāt** (1.13.2), *he had a bridge made*; **cōsulibus senātus rem pūblican] dēfendendam dēdit**, *the Senate entrusted the defense of the state to the consuls*.

PERFECT PARTICIPLE

286. Latin has a perfect passive participle, corresponding to such English forms as *seen* or *having been seen*, but no perfect active participle (but see *a*), corresponding to such English forms as *having seen*. The English perfect active participle with a direct object can usually be translated into Latin by putting the English object in the ablative and using the passive participle in agreement with it (ablative absolute, §150). Examples: **vīsus fūgit**, *having been seen he fled*; **Caesare vīsō fūgit**, *having seen Caesar he fled*; literally *Caesar having been seen he fled*. See also §150.

- a.* But the perfect passive form of deponent verbs usually (not always) has an active meaning, so that with these verbs the change described in §286 is not to be made. Example: **Caesarem cōspicātus fūgit**, *having seen Caesar he fled*.
- b.* The perfect passive participle is sometimes used in agreement with the object of **habeō**. The meaning is nearly the same as that of the past active tenses of the simple verb; but the resulting fact is emphasized, rather than the past action. Example: **magnās cōpiās coāctās habet**, *he has great forces (which he has) collected, or he has collected great forces (and still has them)*; while **magnās cōpiās coēgit**, *he (has) collected great forces, leaves it uncertain whether he still has them*. *c.* Note the translation of such phrases as **post urbem conditam**, *after the founding of the city*; literally, *after the city founded*.

GERUND

287. The gerund is an active verbal noun and corresponds to the English verbal nouns in *-ing*. It governs the case that is governed by the finite forms of the verb; but see §289, II. Examples: **fugiendī causā** (§99, *a*), *for the sake of fleeing*; **ad persuādendum eī** (§115), *for persuading him*; **urbem videndī causā**, *for the sake of seeing the city*.

GERUNDIVE

288. The gerundive is a passive verbal adjective, and must agree with its noun in gender, number, and case. For the same form used as a future passive participle, see §285, II.

The gerundive construction is commonly used in place of the gerund with a direct object. In this construction the English direct object takes the Latin case which the gerund would have taken, and the gerundive agrees with it. There is no exact English equivalent. The translation is the same as for a gerund with a direct object. For example, in the gerund construction **urbem videndī causā**, **videndī** is the genitive modifying **causā**, and **urbem** is the direct object of **videndī**. In the gerundive construction **urbis videndae causā**, **urbis** is the genitive modifying **causā** and **videndae** agrees with **urbis**, literally *for the sake of the city to be seen*. Both constructions alike must be translated *for the sake of seeing the city*.

CHOICE OF CONSTRUCTION

289. I. RULE: If the verb is intransitive, the gerund must be used.

The gerundive is passive, and intransitive verbs can be used in the passive only impersonally. Example: **eī crēdendī causā**, *for the sake of believing him* (§115).

- a.* But the gerundive of **ūtor**, **fruor**, **fungor**, **potior**, and **vēscor** (§145) is used. Example: **spēs potiundī oppidī** (2.7.5), *hope of taking the town*.

II. RULE: *If the verb is used transitively, the gerundive construction is more common and must always be used after a preposition.*

A direct object is sometimes used with a gerund in the genitive or the ablative without a preposition. Examples: (always) **ad effeminandōs animōs** (1.1.8), *for weakening minds and spirits*; (usually) **urbis videndae causā**, *for the sake of seeing the city*; sometimes **urbem videndī causā**, *for the sake of seeing the city*.

USE OF CASES

- 290.** Neither the gerund nor the gerundive is used as the subject or direct object of verbs.
- 291.** The Genitive is used with nouns and adjectives. With **causā** and **grātiā** it forms a common expression of purpose. Examples: **bellandī cupiditās**, *a desire of fighting*; **Caesaris** (or **Caesarem**) **videndī cupidus**, *desirous of seeing Caesar*; **bellandī causā vēnit**, *he came to fight (for the sake of fighting)*.
- a. If the substantive is a personal or reflexive pronoun, an irregular construction is used—**meī, tuī, suī, nostrī**, or **vestrī** with a genitive in **-ī** (sometimes called gerund, sometimes gerundive), regardless of gender and number. Example: **suī cōservandī causā**, *for the sake of saving themselves*. The usual gerund would be **sē cōservandī**; the gerundive **suī cōservandōrum**.
- 292.** **The Dative** is very rare.
- 293.** **The Accusative** is used with a few prepositions, especially **ad** expressing purpose. Examples: **parātus ad proficiscendum**, *ready to set out*; **ad Caesarem videndum** (gerundive, see §289, II), **vēnit**, *he came to see Caesar*.
- 294.** **The Ablative** is used, with the prepositions **ab, dē, ex, in**, and as the ablative of means or cause. Examples: **in quaerendō reperiēbat**, *in questioning (them) he learned*; **lapidibus subministrandīs** (3.25.4), *by furnishing stones*.

THE SUPINE

295. RULE: *The Accusative of the supine is used after verbs of motion to express purpose.*

It may govern a direct object. Examples: **grātūlātum vēnērunt** (1.30.2), *they came to offer congratulations*; **lēgātōs mittunt rogātum auxiliū** (1.11.4), *they sent envoys to ask aid*.

296. RULE: *The Ablative of the supine is used as an ablative of specification (§149).*

It does not take a direct object. The supine of the verbs **audiō, cognōscō, dicō, faciō, videō**, is most commonly found; and with the adjectives **facilis, difficilis, crēdibilis, incrēdibilis, iūcundus, iniūcundus, optimus, mirābilis**, and the expressions **fās est, nefās est, opus est**. Example: **perfacile factū** (1.3.16) literally *very easy as to the doing = very easy to do*.

The Roman Calendar

- 297. The Months.** The Latin names of months are adjectives, not nouns as are ours. In the times of Caesar and Cicero the names of the months were **Iānuārius (-a, -um)**, **Fēbruārius**, **Mārtius**, **Aprilis (-e)**, **Maius**, **Iūnius**, **Quīntilis**, **Sextilis**, **September (-bris, -bre)**, **Octōber**, **November**, and **December**. Later **Quīntilis** was changed to **Iūlius**, in honor of Julius Caesar, and **Sextilis** to **Augustus**, in honor of the emperor Augustus.

Before 46 BCE, that is, till near the death of Caesar and Cicero, March, May, July, and October had 31 days, February had 28, and each of the others had 29. In 46 BCE, Caesar reformed the calendar and gave the months their present number of days.

- 298. Calends, Nones, and Ides.** The Romans counted the days backwards from three points in each month, the Calends, the Nones, and the Ides, instead of forward from the first as we do. In other words, they called the days “the third before the Ides,” “the fourth before the Calends,” etc.

The *Calends* (**Kalendae, -ārum, f. pl.**) were always the first of the month. The *Nones* (**Nōnae, -ārum, f. pl.**) were the seventh, the *Ides* (**Īdūs, -uum, f. pl.**) the fifteenth of March, May, July, and October. In all other months they were the fifth and thirteenth.

- 299. Method of Reckoning.** In calculating dates, they counted both the first day and the last day; for example, while we would speak of Monday as the second day before Wednesday, a Roman would have counted Wednesday as one, Tuesday as two, and Monday as three, and would thus have called Monday the third day before Wednesday.

In counting back from the Calends, remember that the Calends do not belong to the month in which the required day is. Add one to the number of days in the preceding month, then count backwards, counting both ends as usual.

- 300. Method of Expressing Dates.** An idiomatic formula is commonly used, which can neither be parsed nor translated literally; for example **a. d. IV. Īd. Ian.** = **ante diem quārtum Īdūs Iānuāriās**. The logical, but less usual form is **diē quārtō ante Īdūs Iānuāriās**, *on the fourth day before the Ides of January*. For examples, take the dates:

Jan. 1 = **Kal. Ian.**

Jan. 10 = **a. d. iv. Īd. Iān.** (four days [see §299] before the Ides, i.e., the thirteenth of January)

Feb. 22 = **a. d. viii. Kal. Mār.** (eight days [see §299] before the Calends, i.e., the first, of March)

July 4 = **a. d. iv. Nōn. Iūl.** (four days [see §299] before the Nones, i.e., the seventh, of July)

Figures of Speech

This table is a slightly revised version of the one found in Kelsey 1918, pp. 582–584. It also appears in *Caesar: Selections from his COMMENTARII DE BELLO GALLICO*, pp. 307–309.

301. Caesar uses the following Grammatical Figures:

- a. *Asyndeton* (ă-sîn'-dē-tōn), the omission of a conjunction where a connective might have been used; the effect is terse and clipped (*compare polysyndeton*); as in, **loca, portūs, aditūs cognōvisset**, *should have become acquainted with the natural features, the harbors (and) the approaches* (BG 4.20); **Lūciō Pisōne, Aulō Gabīniō cōsulibus**, *in the consulship of Lucius Piso (and) Aulus Gabinius* (BG 1.6).
- b. *Brachylogy* (bră-kīl'-ō-gē), a condensed form of expression; as in, **cōnsimilis caprīs figūra**, *shape like (that of) goats, that is, figūra cōnsimilia figūrae* (dat.) **caprārūm** (BG 7.27).
- c. *Ellipsis* (ē-līp'-sīs), the omission of words essential to the meaning; as in, **Duae filiae**, for **Duae filiae fuērunt**, *There were two daughters* (BG 1.53).
- d. *Hendiadys* (hēn-dī'-ă-dīs), the use of two nouns with a connective where a noun with a modifying genitive or adjective might have been expected; as in, **fidem et iūs iūrandum**, *a pledge of good faith bound by an oath, lit., good faith and an oath* (BG 1.3).
- e. *Parenthesis* (pă-rēn'-thē-sīs), the insertion of an independent sentence or phrase that interrupts the construction with a separate thought, often one that helps explain the main construction; as in, **quam maximum potest militum numerum imperat (erat . . . legiō ūna), pontem . . . iubet** (historical present) **rescindi**, *he levied as many soldiers as possible (there was only one legion, altogether, in further Gaul), and gave orders that the bridge be cut down* (BG 1.7).
- f. *Polysyndeton* (pōl-ī-sīn'-dē-tōn), the use of more conjunctions than the sense requires; the effect tends to emphasize whatever is joined in this way (*compare asyndeton*); as in, **Centronōs et Graiocēli et Caturigēs**, *the Centrones, the Graioceli, and the Caturiges* (BG 1.10).
- g. *Prolepsis* (prō-lēp'-sīs), or *Anticipation*, the use of a noun as object in a clause preceding the one in which it naturally belongs as subject; as in, **rem frumentāriam, ut supportārī posset, timēre**, *that they feared that the supply of grain could not be brought in, lit., they feared the supply of grain, that it . . .* (BG 1.39).
- h. *Synesis* (sīn'-ē-sīs), construction according to the sense without regard to the grammatical form; as in, **civitatī persuāsit, ut . . . exirent**, *he persuaded the (people of his) state to go out, lit., he persuaded his state that they should go out* (BG 1.2). (i.e., *civitās* is singular, so, from a grammatical perspective, *exirent* should have been singular as well.)

302. Caesar uses the following Rhetorical Figures:

- a. *Anaphora* (ă-năf'-ō-ră), the repetition of the same word at the beginning of successive phrases or clauses; as in, **nōn aetāte cōfectīs, nōn mulieribus, nōn infantibus pepercērunt**, *they spared not the aged, not the women, not the children* (BG 7.28).
- b. *Antithesis* (ăn-tīth'-ē-sīs), the juxtaposition of contrasted expressions in like order; as in, **Non sēsē Gallia, sed Gallis sibi, bellum intulisse**, *He did not make war on the Gauls, but the Gauls on him* (BG 1.44).
- c. *Chiasmus* (kī-ăs'-mūs), an arrangement of contrasted words in inverse order (follows a pattern of ABBA) or inverted parallelism; as in, for example, **fāma nōbilēs potentēsque bellō**, *in reputation notable, and powerful in war* (BG 7.77).

- d. *Climax* (klī'-mǎx), an arrangement of words, phrases, or clauses with gradual increase of interest or vigor of expression to the end; as in, **cōnferre, comportārī, adesse**, *that it was being collected, was on the way, was at hand* (BG 1.16).
- e. *Euphemism* (yū'-fē-mīzm), the use of a mild expression in order to avoid a word of bad omen or occurrence; as in, **sī quid accidat Rōmānīs**, *if anything should happen to the Romans, meaning if any disaster should befall the Romans* (BG 1.18).
- f. *Hyperbaton* (hī-pēr'-bǎ-tōn), the arrangement of words in unusual order, as the separation of words that belong together, such as the insertion of one or more words between the parts of an ablative absolute; thus, **simulātā Caesarem amīcitiā**, *that Caesar under the pretense of friendship*, the usual order would be **Caesarem, simulātā amīcitiā** (BG 1.44).
- g. *Litotes* (līt'-ō-tēz or lī-tō'-tēz), the affirmation of an idea through thenegation of its opposite; as in, **neque tam imperitum esse rērum ut nōn scīret**, *and he was not so unversed in affairs as not to know*, meaning *that he was so worldly wise that he very well knew* (BG 1.44).
- h. *Personification* (pēr-sōn'-ī-fī-kā'-shūn), the representation of something inanimate or abstract as endowed with life and action; as in **Cōnspicātae nāvēs trirēmēs duae nāvem D. Brūtī**, *Two triremes, having caught sight of the ship of Decimus Brutus* (BC 2.6).