

## SYNTAX

### SENTENCES

88. A sentence is a group of words so related as to express a complete thought. It consists of at least two parts — the *subject* (that of which something is said), and the *predicate* (that which 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 in its ending.

Sentences are declarative, interrogative, imperative, or exclamatory as in English.

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 fugerunt, Caesar came and the Gauls fled.*

91. A Complex Sentence consists of a simple sentence (called a *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 fugerunt, 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 the order of words or by the use of prepositions; yet the so-called possessive case illustrates the use of the Latin cases, for 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 the order of words shows the relation of the word to the rest of the sentence; while in Latin *miles* would be used in the first sentence, *militem* in the second, and *militi* in the third.

93. But each of the cases, except the nominative and the vocative, expresses more than one thing. Consequently one must know just 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 but once in the sentence. Examples: the accusative may express duration of time, but *militem*, *a soldier*, could not be used in this sense, while *multōs annōs*, *many years*, is quite probably so used. *Dicit pīlum militem vulnerāvisse* might mean either *he says that a javelin wounded the soldier*, or *a soldier wounded the javelin*, but the latter makes no sense. *Persuāsit*, *he persuaded*, needs a dative to express the person persuaded, and if there is but one dative in the sentence its use is evident.

94. For further clearness many relations are expressed in Latin by prepositions, though not so many as in English. Examples: *ā milite interfectus est*, *he was killed by a soldier*; *cum milite vēnit*, *he came in company with a soldier*.

#### 95. AGREEMENT OF SUBSTANTIVES

**RULE:** *A noun which explains another noun and means the same person or thing is put in 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 a verb of similar meaning.*

Such verbs are those meaning *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:** *An appositive is set beside the noun which it explains, without a connecting verb.*

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

96.

## NOMINATIVE

**RULE:** The nominative is used as the subject of a finite verb (i. e. the indicative, subjunctive, and imperative modes).

**EXAMPLE:** Gallia est divisa (I, 1, 1), *Gaul is divided.*

## GENITIVE

## A. GENITIVE WITH NOUNS

97. **GENERAL RULE:** A noun which explains or limits another noun and does not mean the same person or thing (compare 95) is put in the genitive.

The relation between the two nouns is usually expressed in English by *of*, but often by *for* or by other prepositions. These combinations of nouns are divided, according to their meanings into the groups given in 98-105.

A genitive may be either (a) *attributive*, depending directly upon another noun; as domus Caesaris, *Caesar's house*; or (b) *predicative*, connected by sum or a verb of similar meaning; as 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 means the same person or thing as the noun on which it depends. Example: tuorum comitum sentina (Cic. Cat. I, 12), *that refuse, your comrades*.

## ATTRIBUTIVE

98. **Subjective and Objective Genitives.** These depend on nouns which have corresponding verbal ideas, as amor, *love*, amo, *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 *some one loves his father* (objective); occasum solis (I, 1, 22), *the setting of the sun* (subjective); regni cupiditate (I, 2, 2), *by desire for power* (objective).

99. **Possessive Genitive.**

**RULE:** The genitive may express the possessor.

The possessive pronouns are regularly used instead of the possessive genitive of personal pronouns. Examples: finibus Belgarum (I, 1, 16), *by the territory of the Belgae*; finibus vestris, *by your territory*.

a. A genitive or possessive pronoun must precede *causâ* or *gratiâ*, for the sake of. Examples: *huius potentiae causâ* (I, 13, 14), for the sake of this power; *meâ causâ*, 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: *huiusce modi senâtus cōsultum* (Cic. Cat. I, 4), a decree of this kind; *trium mēnsium molita cibaria* (I, 5, 7), provisions 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* (I, 1, 15), one part of them; *hōrum omnium fortissimī* (I, 1, 6), the bravest of all these; *ubinam gentium sumus* (Cic. Cat. I, 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* (I, 40, 17), how much (of) good; *satis causae* (I, 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 *quidam*. Example: *ūnus & filiū captus est* (I, 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: *hi omnēs* (I, 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* (I, 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 consuetudinis* (IV, 5, 4), *this is a characteristic of the Gallic customs*.

104. Descriptive Genitive. The descriptive genitive (100) is often used predicatively. Example: *senatus consultum est huiusce modi*, *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 *magni*, *parvi*, *tanti*, *quantum*, *pluris*, *minoris*. Example: *tanti eius gratiam esse ostendit* (I, 20, 14), *he assured him that his friendship was of such value*.

## B. 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 *plenus*, *full (of)*. Examples: *bellandi cupidus* (I, 2, 13), *desirous of fighting*; *rei militaris peritissimus* (I, 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: *tui similis* (Cic. Cat. I, 5), *like you*; *veri simile* (III, 13, 11), *probable (like the truth)*.

c. Occasionally other adjectives. Example: *locum medium utriusque* (I, 34, 2), *a place midway between them*.

## C. GENITIVE WITH VERBS

107. Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting.

RULE: *Memini*, *bear in mind*, *reminiscor*, *remember*, and *obliviscor*, *forget*, govern either the genitive or the accusative.

The genitive is regular of persons, the accusative of neuter pronouns. Examples: *reminisceretur veteris incommodi* (I, 13, 11), *he should remember the former disaster*; *veteris contumeliae obliviisci* (I, 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. I, 4), *I pronounce myself guilty of inactivity.*

## 109. Verbs of Emotion.

**RULE:** The impersonal verbs *miseret*, *pity*, *paenitet*, *repent*, *piget*, *distat*, *pu-det*, *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 *miserere*, *pity*, also takes the genitive. Examples: *mē meōrum factōrum numquam paenitēbit* (Cic. Cat. IV, 20), *I shall never repent of my deeds*; *mē eius miseret* or *eius misereor*, *I pity him.*

## 110. Interest and Réfert.

**RULE:** The impersonal verbs *interest* and *réfert*, *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: *rei públicae intersit* (II, 5, 5), *it is to the interest of the state*; *meū interest*, *it is to my interest.*

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

For *potior* with the ablative see 145. Example: *Galliae potiri* (I, 3, 22), *to become masters of Gaul.*

## THE DATIVE

112. The dative expresses that *to* or *for* which anything is or is done. It may depend on a verb or an adjective or, very rarely, a noun; or it may 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.

These are especially verbs of *giving* and *saying*. The dative is usually translated by *to*, less often by *for*. For the indirect object with transitive verbs compounded with a preposition see 116. Example: *ei filiam dat* (I, 3, 15), *he gives (to) him his 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: *ei librum dōnō*, *I give (to) him a book*; *eum librō dōnō*, *I present him with a book*.

b. Some verbs, instead of admitting both the accusative and the dative, admit either, but with a different meaning. Especially *cōsulō*, *consult* or *consult for*, and *metuō*, *fear* or *fear for*. Examples: *ei mē cōsulis* (Cic. Cat. I, 13), *if you consult me (ask my advice)*; *cōsulite vōbīs* (Cic. Cat. IV, 3), *consult for yourselves (for your own interests)*.

c. This dative is retained with the passive voice. Example: *ei filia datur*, *his daughter is given to him*.

115. Indirect Object with Intransitive Verbs. The dative is used with all intransitive verbs whose meaning permits. Many of these verbs seem to be transitive in English, so that the indirect object must be translated by the English direct object.

**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: *civitatī persuāsit* (I, 2, 3), *he persuaded the state*; *movīs rēbus studēbat* (I, 9, 8), *he was anxious for a revolution*; *Allobrogibus imperāvit* (I, 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* (I, 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: *prōvinciāe mīlitum numerum imperat* (I, 7, 4), *he levies a number of soldiers on the province*; *id iīs persuāsit* (I, 2, 6), *he persuaded them to 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*, *iubēō*

*command, iuvō, please, vetō, forbid*, which are transitive and therefore take the accusative (124). Example: *Labienum iubet* (I, 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, though it is usually translated as a subject. Examples: *Caesari persuadēō, I persuade Caesar*, becomes *Caesari a mē persuādētur, Caesar is persuaded by me* (literally, *it is persuaded to Caesar*).

116. The Indirect Object with Compound Verbs. I. Certain prepositions usually give to verbs with which they are compounded a meaning which, in Latin idiom, requires the dative. If the simple verb is transitive the compound governs a direct object in addition to the indirect. The dative is variously translated with these verbs: when it is translated by *from*, it is sometimes called the *dative of separation*.

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

**EXAMPLES:** *cum omnibus praestarent* (I, 2, 5), *since they excelled all*; *finitimis bellum inferre* (I, 2, 12), *to make war upon their neighbors*; *munitiōni Labienum praeficit* (I, 10, 7), *he puts Labienus in command of the works*; *scūtō militi detractō* (II, 25, 13), *having snatched a shield from a soldier*.

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

**EXAMPLE:** *si Haedulis satisfaciant* (I, 14, 19), *if they should make restitution to the Haedui*.

a. The meaning of the compound does not always permit the dative. Among the most important exceptions are the transitive verbs, *aggredior, attack*; *incendō, burn*; *interficiō, kill*; *oppugnō, assault*; but there are many others. Example: *eōs aggressus* (I, 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. So especially if place is designated, or if motion is expressed. Example: *illum in equum intulit* (VI, 30, 15), *he put him on a horse*.

c. The dative is retained with the passive. Example: *munitiōni Labienus praeficitur, Labienus is put in command of the works*.



## 117. Dative of Possessor.

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

It may be translated as a nominative with the verb *have*. Examples: *mihī est liber*, *I have a book* (literally *a book is to me*); *demonstrant sibi nihil esse* (I, 11, 12), *they declared that they had nothing* (lit. *there was nothing to them*).

## 118. Dative of the Agent.

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

Compare the ablative of the agent (137), which is used with the other forms of the passive. Example: *nōn exspectandum sibi statuit* (Caes. I, 11, 13), *he decided that he must not wait* (lit. *that it must not be waited by him*).

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

## 119. Dative of Purpose.

**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 the possessor). Examples: *quem auxiliō Caesari miserant* (I, 18, 27), *whom they had sent to aid Caesar*, lit. *whom they had sent for an aid to Caesar*; *qui novissimīs praesidiō erant* (I, 25, 14), *who were guarding the rear*, lit. *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: *cibaria sibi quemque efferre iubent* (I, 5, 8), *they order each one to carry food for himself*; *seīs Caesari ad pedēs prōiēcerunt* (I, 31, 4), *they cast 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 the personal pronouns. Example: *Tongilium mihi eduxit* (Cic. Cat. II, 4), *he took me out Tongilius, he took out my Tongilius*, 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, suitable, govern the dative.*

Examples: *plēbi acceptus* (I, 3, 14), *acceptable (pleasing) to the people*; *proximi sunt Germānis* (I, 1, 9), *they are nearest to the Germans*; *castris idoneum locum* (VI, 10, 5), *a place suitable for a camp*.

a. With some of these adjectives a preposition with its proper case is often used instead of a dative. Example: *ad amicitiam idoneus*, *suitable for friendship*.

b. The adjectives *propior* and *proximus* and the adverbs *propius* and *proximē* sometimes govern the accusative, like the preposition *prope*. Example: *proximi Rhēnum* (I, 54, 3), *nearest the Rhine*.

c. For *similis* and *dissimilis* see 106, b.

## ACCUSATIVE

### 123. Subject of Infinitive.

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

Example: *certior factus est Helveticis traduxisse* (I, 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 *conspiratiōnem fecit*, *he made 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 laudatur*, *the boy is praised*; *conspiratio facta est*, *a conspiracy was made*.

c. Many compounds of intransitive verbs with prepositions, especially *ad*, *circum*, *in*, *per*, *praeter*, *sub*, *trans*, have transitive meanings. Example: *ire*, *to go*, intransitive; but *flumen transire*, *to cross (go across) the river*.

d. Many verbs which are transitive in English are intransitive in Latin; see especially 115.

### THREE CLASSES OF VERBS GOVERNING TWO ACCUSATIVES (125-127).

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 cēlō, I conceal) have a direct object of the thing, and may have another of the person.*

But with verbs of asking and demanding the person is usually expressed by the ablative with *ab*. Examples: *Haeduōs frumentum flāgitāre* (I, 16, 1), *he kept asking the Haedui for the grain*; *eadem ab aliis quaerit* (I, 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. II, 20), *I give them this advice*; *sī quid ille sē velit* (I, 34, 6), *if he wanted anything of him*.

c. With the passive of these verbs the accusative of the person becomes the subject, and the accusative of the thing is retained. Example: *Haeduī frumentum flāgitābantur*, *the Haedui were asked for the grain*; (ii) *hoc momentur*, *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* (IV, 21, 14), *whom he had appointed king*; *Caesarem certiorē fecit*, *he informed Caesar (made Caesar more certain)*.

a. With the passive of these verbs the direct object becomes the subject, and the predicate accusative becomes the predicate nominative (95, a). Examples: *qui rex cōstitūtus erat, who had been appointed king; Caesar certior factus est (I, 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 (cf. I, 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 kindred meaning, usually modified by an adjective or genitive.*

Examples: *eam vitam vivere, to live that life; trīdūl viam prōcēdere (I, 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 illis persuāsit (I, 2, 3), he persuaded them of this (lit. 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, plurimum, most, plērumque, for the most part, and nihil, not at all*. Here belong also *id temporis (Cic. Cat. I, 10), at that time, and maximam partem (IV, 1, 14), for the most part*. Example: *multum sunt in venātiōne (IV, 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. II, 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, *dies*, *day*; *pis*, *foot*. Compare 132 and 148. Examples: *rēgnum multōs annōs obtinuerat* (I, 3, 10), *he had held the royal power many years*; *millia passuum ducenta quadrāgintā patēbant* (I, 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 names of towns and *domus* and *rūs* omit the preposition.

Compare 134, *a*, and 151. Examples: *ad iudicium cōegit* (I, 4, 14), *he brought to the trial*; *in agrum Nōricum trāsierant* (I, 5, 11), *they had crossed over into the Noreian territory*; *sē Massiliam cōferet* (Cic. Cat. II, 14), *he will go to Marseilles*; *domum reditiōnis* (I, 5, 6), of a return home.

*a*. *Ad* is, however, sometimes used in the sense of *towards* (not *to*), or *in the neighborhood of*. Example: *ad Genavam pervenit* (I, 7, 4), *he reached the neighborhood of Geneva*.

## 132.

## VOCATIVE

The name of the person addressed is put in the vocative. Example: *dēillite, commilitōnēs* (IV, 25, 11), *jump down, comrades*.

## 133.

## ABLATIVE

The language from which Latin developed had two more cases than Latin has,—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; so that this one case has meanings which belonged to three separate cases. This fact accounts for the many and widely differing uses which the case has.

## 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 others must be noted. For the so-called dative of separation see 116, I. Examples: suis finibus eos prohibent (I, 1, 13), *they repel them from their own territory*; quae hostem a pugna prohiberent (IV, 34, 9), *which kept the enemy from battle*; a Bibracte aberat (I, 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 names of towns and *domus* and *rūs* omit the preposition.

Compare 131 and 151. Examples: ut dē finibus suis exirent (I, 2, 4), *to go out from their territory*; qui ex provinciā convenerant (I, 8, 2), *who had gathered from the province*; Rōmā profugerunt (Cic. Cat. I, 7), *they fled from Rome*; domō exire (I, 6, 1), *to go out from home*.

*Ab* is, however, used with names of towns to express *from the neighborhood 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. I, 10), *you will free me of great fear*; proeliō abstinēbat (I, 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 (IV, 12, 13), *born of the highest rank*; sorōrem ex matrē (nātam) (I, 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 *dē*.*

Example: nāvēs factae ex rōbre (III, 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 Helveticis pulsum (I, 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: gratiâ et largitiône (I, 9, 5), *because of his popularity and lavish giving*; quod suâ victoriâ gloriarentur (I, 14, 11), *that they boasted (because) of their victory*.

a. Cause is more frequently expressed by causâ and the genitive (99, a); by the accusative with ob, per, or propter; and by de or ex with the ablative. Examples: propter angustias (I, 9, 2), *because of its narrowness*; quâ de causâ, (I, 1, 11), *and for this reason*.

### 139. Ablative of Comparison.

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

Examples: luce sunt clariora tua consilia (Cic. Cat. I, 6), *your plans are clearer than day*; non amplius quinque aut sex milibus passuum (I, 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. Plus, minus, amplius, and longius are often used instead of plus quam, etc. Example: quae amplius octingentae uno erant visae tempore (V, 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 copiis exirent (I, 2, 4), *to go out with all their troops*.

In military phrases cum is sometimes omitted.

Example: Caesar subsequēbatur omnibus copiis (II, 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.*

It may be used either attributively or predicatively. Compare the descriptive genitive (100). Examples: *hominēs inimicō animō* (I, 7, 15), *men of unfriendly disposition*; *nōndum bonō animō vidērentur* (I, 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* (V, 45, 5), *some were killed with torture*; *magnis itineribus* (I, 10, 8), *by forced marches*.

## a. Ablative of Accordance.

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

These are especially the following nouns, modified by either an adjective or a genitive,—*cōsuetūdine, iūre, iussū (iniussū), lēge, mōribus, sententiā, sponte, voluntāte*. Examples: *iniussū suō* (I, 19, 4), *without his orders*; *mōribus suis* (I, 4, 1), *in accordance with their customs*; *suā voluntāte* (I, 20, 11), *in accordance with his wish*.

## b. Ablative of Attendant Circumstance.

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

Usually it is impossible to distinguish clearly such an ablative from the ordinary ablative of manner. Examples: *imperio populī Rōmānī* (I, 18, 22), *under the sovereignty of the Roman people*; *intervallō pedum duōrum iungēbat* (IV, 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 the agent (137). Example: *rēgni cupiditate inductus* (I, 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*; *nitōr*, *rely upon*; *laccōsō* (*proeliō*), *provoke (to battle)*; *assuēfactus*, *assuētus*, *accustomed to*; *frētus*, *relying upon*. Examples: *nātūrā loci cōfidēbant* (III, 9, 12), *they trusted in the nature of the country*; *nūllō officiō assuēfacti* (IV, 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 Arari nāvibus subvexerat* (I, 16, 5), *the grain which he had brought up (by way of) the Saone*; *eōdem itinere contendit* (I, 21, 8), *he advanced by the same road*.

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

This is an ablative of means, but is to be translated by a direct object. Examples: *eōdem dēi cōsiliō* (I, 5, 9), *adopting (having used) the same plan*; *imperiō potiri* (I, 2, 6), *to get possession of the government*.

#### 146. Ablative with *opus est*.

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

Example: *Caesari multis auxiliis 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: *si quid opus esset* (I, 34, 5), *if he needed anything*.

b. Sometimes the ablative neuter of the perfect passive participle is used with *opus est*. Example: *si opus factō esset* (I, 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 by the ablative.*

Compare the genitive of value, 105. Example: *parvō pretiō rēempta* (I, 18, 9), *bought up at a low price*.

## 148. Ablative of Degree of Difference.

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

Compare 139. Examples: nihilō minus (I, 5, 1), lit. less by nothing, = nevertheless; paucis ante diēbus, (I, 18, 25), a few days before (lit. before by a few days).

a. Eō . . . quō, in this construction, may be translated *the . . . the*. Example: eō gravius ferre quō minus meritō accidissent (I, 14, 3), lit. he endured them with more anger by that amount by which they had happened less deservedly, = he was the more angry the less deservedly they had happened.

## 149. Ablative of Specification.

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

Examples: linguā inter se differunt (I, 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 (V, 35, 11), unworthy of themselves.

## 150. Ablative Absolute.

**RULE:** A noun and a participle in the ablative may modify a sentence as a subordinate clause would.

**RULE:** Two nouns, or a noun and an adjective, may stand in the ablative absolute when the English would connect them by the word "being."

The construction is called *absolute* because it does not depend syntactically on anything in the sentence. It is used much more frequently than the nominative absolute in English; hence it should be translated in some other way. It is always possible to translate by a subordinate clause, but sometimes other translations are more convenient. Notice the translations of the following examples: (translated by active past participle) remōtis equis proelium commisit (I, 25, 2), having sent the horses away, he began the battle; (translated by prepositional phrase) M. Messalā M. Pisōne cōsulibus (I, 2, 2), in the consulship of, etc.; eō dēprecātore (I, 9, 4), by his mediation; (translated by subordinate clause) omnibus rēbus comparātis diem dicunt (I, 6, 13),

when everything was ready they set a day; *Stquanis invitis ire non poterant* (I, 9, 1), if the *Sequani* should refuse they could not go; *monte occupato nostris expectabat* (I, 22, 11), though he had occupied the mountain he waited for our men; (translated by coordinate clause) *locis superioribus occupatis . . . conantur* (I, 10, 12), they occupied advantageous positions and tried, etc.

### 151. Place in Which.

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

Compare 131 and 134, c. Example: *in eorum finibus bellum gerunt* (I, 1, 13), they fight in their territory.

a. **EULE:** 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 *domi*, at home, and *rūri*, in the country, are also in regular use. Examples: *Samarobrivae* (V, 24, 1), at *Samarobriva*; *domi largiter posse* (I, 18, 13), he had great influence at home.

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

Examples: *non nullis locis transitur* (I, 6, 8), is crossed in several places; *vulgō tōtis castris* (I, 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: *unā ex parte* (I, 2, 7), on one side; *cotidianis proeliis contendunt* (I, 1, 12), they contend in (by means of) daily battles; *memoriā tenebat* (I, 7, 12), he held in (by means of) memory.

### 152. Ablative of Time.

**EULE:** Time at or within which is expressed by the ablative without a preposition.

Compare the accusative of time (130). Examples: *eō tempore* (I, 3, 14), at that time; *id quod ipsi diebus viginti aegerrimē confecerant* (I, 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 ierunt* (I, 26, 13), they marched during that whole night.

## CASES WITH PREPOSITIONS

153. Ablative. The following prepositions govern the ablative: *ab*, *abque*, *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 *a* and *e* before words beginning with a consonant, though *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.

## 156. PREDICATE AND ATTRIBUTIVE ADJECTIVES

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*.

## 157. AGREEMENT OF ADJECTIVES

**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 which belongs in sense to two or more nouns,—

1. If attributive, 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. If predicative, regularly agrees with all the nouns, 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, when 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*.

## 159. ADJECTIVES USED SUBSTANTIVELY

Adjectives are rarely used as substantives 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 they are the only cases in which masculine and neuter forms can be distinguished. But the genitive singular neuter is common as the partitive genitive (101, a). Examples: *multi*, *many men*; *multorum*, *of many men*; *multae*, *many women*; *multarum*, *of many women*; *multa*, *many things*; *multarum rerum*, *of many things*.

## 159. ADJECTIVES FOR ADVERBS

Some adjectives are commonly used where the English idiom suggests the use of adverbs, chiefly when they modify the subject or object. Examples: *invitus venit*, lit. *he came unwilling*, = *he came unwillingly* or *he was unwilling to come*; *primus venit*, lit. *he the first came*, = *he came first*, or *he was the first to come*.

## 160. ADJECTIVES WITH PARTITIVE MEANING

Some adjectives mean only a part of an object. The most common of these are, *imus*, *infimus*, *the bottom of*; *medius*, *the middle of*; *summus*, *the top of*; *primus*, *the first part of*; *extremus*, *the last part of*; *religius*, *the rest of*. Examples: *in colle mediō* (I, 24, 3), *on the middle of (half way up) the slope*; *summus mōns* (I, 22, 1), *the top of the mountain*; *primā nocte* (I, 27, 12), *in the first part of the night*; *multō diū*, *late in the day*.

## 161. COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

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: *diuturniorem impunitatem* (I, 14, 15), *quite long immunity*; *cupidius insecuti* (I, 15, 5), *following too eagerly*; *monte Iurā altissimō* (I, 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* (I, 3, 3), *quam maximum potest numerum* (I, 7, 4), *as great a number as possible*, or *the greatest possible number*.

## 162.

## PERSONAL PRONOUNS

A personal pronoun (51) is rarely used as the subject of a finite verb except for emphasis or contrast. Example: *ego maneb, tū abis, I remain, you go.*

a. The plural of the first person is more often used for the singular than in English. The plural of the second person is not used for the singular, as is done in English. Example: *utī suprà dēmōnstrāvimus (II, 1, 1), as I (lit. we) have said before.*

## REFLEXIVE PRONOUNS

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

They 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. The latter use corresponds to the Latin intensive pronoun (172). The reflexive of the third person has two uses.

## 164. The Direct Reflexive.

**RULE:** *Sui 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 vidē qui sē laudat, I see the man who praises himself.*

## 165. The Indirect Reflexive.

**RULE:** *In a subordinate clause which expresses the thought of the principal subject sui and suus are also used to refer to the principal subject instead of the subject of the clause in which they stand.*

This is especially important in indirect discourse (271) where the whole indirect discourse expresses the thought of the speaker, and consequently every pronoun referring to the speaker is regularly some form of *sui* or *suus*. Example: *Caesar dicit mē sē laudāvisse, Caesar says that I praised him (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 sēs dent (I, 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 *sui*, and is used in the same way. See 164 and 165.

## DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

168. *Hic* refers to something near the speaker, and is sometimes called the demonstrative of the first person. Example: *hic 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 (yonder).*

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 most used 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, 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. *Ipsē* 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 se laudat, Caesar himself praises himself.*

a. *Ipsē* 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 ipse liber*, *my own book (the book of me myself)*; *vester ipse 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 construction in its own clause.*

If it is used as 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 is never omitted. Examples: *Caesar, quem laudō*, *Caesar, whom I praise*; *ego, qui eum laudō*, *I, who praise him*; *Caesar et Cicerō, qui mē laudant*, *Caesar and Cicero, who praise me*.

a. *Coordinate Relative.* It is often necessary to translate a relative by a coordinating conjunction (*and, but, etc.*) and a personal or demonstrative pronoun. Example: *relinquēbatur ūna via, quā ire nōn poterant* (I, 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: *qui* (I, 15, 5), *they*.

### INDEFINITE PRONOUNS

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

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

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

Example: *aliquis dicat*, *some one may say*.

176. *Quispiam* has almost exactly the same meaning as *aliquis*, but is rare. Example: *quispiam dicat*, *some one 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 iudicaret* (I, 40, 6), *why should anyone suppose?*



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a. *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 (I, 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: *qui (I, 15, 5), they.*

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Examples: *neque quemquam laudō, nor do I praise anyone; cur quisquam iudicaret (I, 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*, *some one 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 laudatus est*, *Caesar was praised*; *mulierēs laudatae 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: *multitūdō vēnerunt*, *a great number came*; *duo milia occisi 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 occisi 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 unus ē filius captus est* (I, 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* (I, 1, 5), *the Marne and Seine separate* (they make one boundary line).

### THE VOICES

181. The voices have the same meanings and uses as in English. An intransitive verb can not be used in the passive except impersonally. Examples: *laudat*, *he praises*; *laudatur*, *he is praised*; *ei creditur* (115, d) lit. *it is believed to him* = *he is believed*.

## THE MODES

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

183. The Indicative 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 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*) or wish (then called *optative*). 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.* 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*. Examples: *laudet, he would praise (if there should be reason)*; *is est qui laudet, he is a man who would praise.*

c. *The Subjunctive of Fact.* Only in dependent clauses the subjunctive may 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 is used only in independent sentences. It expresses a command. Example: *laudā, praise (thou)*; *dēsillite (IV, 25, 11), jump down.*

## OTHER VERBAL FORMS

186. The Infinitive is not, strictly speaking, a mode, but a verbal noun. It is, however, used as a mode in certain kinds of dependent clauses. Example: *dicit Caesarem laudārī, 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, though 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 negative statements and questions.

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

b. **RULE:** *Nē*, *not*, and *nēve*, and *not*, *nor*, are used to negative 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

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 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).

a. 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 by a past. Example: *oppida sua omnia incendunt* (I, 5, 3), *they burned (burn) all their towns.*

b. With such expressions as *iam diū, iam pridem, for a long time, multōs annōs, for many years*, the Latin present is to be translated by 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.

c. For the present with *dum*, etc., see 234, a.

191. The Imperfect puts the action in the past and represents it as going on at that time. See 189. Example; *laudābat, he was praising.*

a. 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.*

b. With the expressions mentioned in 190, b, the imperfect is to be translated by the English past perfect. Example: *multōs annōs tē monēbam, I had been warning you for many years.*

192. The Future puts the action in the future time and corresponds to the English future. See 199. Example: *laudābō, I shall or will praise, or be praising.*

193. The Perfect has two uses.

I. 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.*

a. This perfect is often nearly equivalent to a present. For example, *vēni, 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 *cōnsuēvī, I am accustomed* (literally *I have become accustomed*). Cf. the English, "I've got it," for "I have it."

II. 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: *laudāvi, I praised.*

194. The Pluperfect 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.*

a. The pluperfect of the verbs mentioned in 193, I, a, are nearly equivalent to imperfects. Examples: *veneram, I had come, i. e., I was there; noveram, I knew; consuēveram, I was accustomed.*

195. The Future Perfect 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.*

a. The future perfects of the verbs mentioned in 193, I, a, are nearly equivalent to futures. Examples: *venerō, I shall have come, i. e., I shall be there; noverō, I shall know; consuēverō, 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 of 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 narrating tense in which the successive main events of the story are told. The other tenses are the descriptive tenses in which the details which surround the main events are told. See 189.

For example, suppose one 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 that 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 about them; and whatever events he so picked out would be expressed by the perfect, while the rest would be imperfect and pluperfect. He might begin in this way, "The Helvetii, who lived . . . . ., planned . . . . . But Caesar went . . . . ." Then *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 be imperfect in Latin, though English uses the simple past tense. Or he might prefer to begin in this way, "The Helvetii, who lived....., had planned..... But Caesar went." Then *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, giving something which had happened before the *went* and which led up to it, and is, therefore, a pluperfect.

198. The chief events, thus expressed by perfects, are usually made the principal, or independent clauses; and the subordinate details, thus expressed in imperfects and pluperfects, are usually made the subordinate, or dependent clauses. Therefore the following principle is 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 in which this principle does not hold. The following are the most important.

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.



II. 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: *laudāvi, I praised.*

194. The Pluperfect 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.*

a. 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 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.*

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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 be imperfect in Latin, though English uses the simple past tense. Or he might prefer to begin in this way, "The Helvetii, who lived....., had planned..... But Caesar went." Then *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, giving something which had happened before the *went* and which led up to it, and is, therefore, a pluperfect.

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a. But there are dependent indicative clauses in which this principle does not hold. The following are the most important.

1. After *postquam*, *ubi*, etc. (see 237), the perfect or historical present is regularly used. See also 235, a, and 236, a.
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#### 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	= present or future
Imperfect	= imperfect or future to a past
Perfect	= perfect or future perfect
Pluperfect	= pluperfect or future perfect to a past

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 sīs*.

#### THE SUBJUNCTIVE TENSES IN DEPENDENCE

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 mean the same as those of the indicative they will be used in the same way (197, 198). When they have the future set of meanings, it will be found that a present or perfect is usually required after a tense of present or future meaning, and the imperfect and pluperfect 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 sequence of tenses*, can be followed.

**RULE:** In dependent subjunctive clauses principal tenses follow principal, and historical follow historical.

203. Principal tenses are those which have to do with the present and future, historical are those which have to do with the past. The following table of examples shows which are the principal and which the historical tenses of both indicative and subjunctive.

Principal Tenses			
INDICATIVE		SUBJUNCTIVE	
Present	rogō, <i>I ask</i>	Present	quid faciat, <i>what he is doing</i>
Future	rogābō, <i>I shall ask</i>	Perfect	quid fecerit, <i>what he has done (or did)</i>
Present perfect	rogāvī, <i>I have asked</i>		
Future perfect	rogāverō, <i>I shall have asked</i>		
Historical Tenses			
Imperfect	rogābam, <i>I was asking</i>	Imperfect	quid faceret, <i>what he was doing</i>
Historical perf.	rogāvī, <i>I asked</i>	Pluperfect	quid fecisset, <i>what he had done</i>
Pluperfect	rogāveram, <i>I had asked</i>		

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

204. Exceptions to Rule of Sequence. Two special points must be mentioned, 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*, is to be 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 defuerit* (II, 21, 9), *so short was the time that there was no opportunity*.

b. A subjunctive following an historical present may be either principal or historical, for it may either keep up the liveliness of the present or behave as if the perfect had been used. Examples: *dicunt quā diē convenient* (I, 6, 14), *they appoint a day on which they are to assemble*; *omne frumentum combūrunt ut parātiorēs ad pericula subeunda essent* (I, 5, 5), *they burned all the grain 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.*

That is, a present infinitive or participle expresses action as going on at the time of the main verb, whether that is present, future, or past; a future expresses action as future to the time of the main verb; and a perfect 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.

<i>dicō eum</i>	<i>laudāre</i>	<i>laudātūrum esse</i>	<i>laudāvisse</i>
lit. <i>him</i>	<i>to be praising</i>	<i>to be about to praise</i>	<i>to have praised</i>
<i>I say that he</i>	<i>is praising</i>	<i>will praise</i>	<i>has praised, or</i>
			<i>praised</i>
<i>dicam eum,</i>			
<i>I shall say that he is praising</i>		<i>will praise</i>	<i>has praised, or</i>
			<i>praised</i>
<i>dixi eum,</i>			
<i>I said 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, though English illogically says *ought to have*, etc. Example: *laudāre potui* lit. *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: *dicit fore ut timeat*, lit. *he says that it will be that he fears*. = *he says that he will fear*; *dixit fore ut laudārētur*, lit. *he said that it would be that he was praised*, = *he said that he would be praised*.

## STATEMENTS

206. The Indicative 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 see those paragraphs. In many grammars this use of the subjunctive is called *potential*. Examples: *Caesar veniat, Caesar would come; Caesar nōn vēnissēt, Caesar would not have come; velim, I should 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 dicat, some one 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 MODES

209. The indicative, the subjunctive of contingent futurity, and, rarely, the potential subjunctive, 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 some one'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: *cūr dubitem? why should I doubt?*

211. A rhetorical question is one which is used for rhetorical effect and which 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 mode.

## INTRODUCTORY WORDS

212. Questions which can not 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?* *quālis est?* *what sort of man is he?* *ubi est?* *where is he?*

213. *RULE:* Questions which can be answered by *yes* or *no* are usually, but not always, introduced by an interrogative particle.

In written English the interrogation point and usually the order of words show that a sentence is a question. The Romans had no interrogation point, and the order of words was free, so that 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: *scrībitne epistulam?* *is he writing a letter?* *epistulamne scrībit?* *is it a letter that he is writing?*

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

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

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

Example: *num epistulam scrībit?* *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 not to be translated, but as a mere warning that a double question is to follow; or *-ne* may be added to the first word; or no introductory word may be used, as always in English. The *or* is expressed by *an*; *or not* is *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 answering exactly to *yes* and *no*. It often replies by repeating the verb as a statement; or it may use *ita*, *sānē*, etc., for *yes*, *nōn*, *minimē*, etc., for *no*. Example: *epistulamne scrībit?* *scrībit*, *yes*; *nōn scrībit*, *no*.

## COMMANDS AND PROHIBITIONS

216. These are expressions of will, for which the appropriate modes 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: *venite, come (ye); mementō, remember.*

219. *RULE:* A Prohibition (Negative Command) in the second person is usually expressed by *nōll*, *nōllite*, *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: *nōll dubitare, do not doubt; less often cavē (nē) dubitēs, or nē dubitaveris.*

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 plus-perfect subjunctive with *utinam*.

Both of these express a wish, or rather a regret, for something unattainable. Examples: *utinam adesset, would that he were here! utinam affuisset, would that 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 exactly as in English.

## DEPENDENT CLAUSES

223. Dependent clauses are those which 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 mode of the verb in the dependent clause; but that clause may 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 discourse (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 subjunctives with ut, uti, quod, 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 principal clause contains a noun which can conveniently be used as an antecedent, a relative pronoun or adverb is commonly used. Example: *hominēs misit qui vidērent*, *he sent men to see*, lit. *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*, lit. *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 perpauci prohibēre possent* (I, 6, 4), *a mountain overhung, so that a very few could easily check*; *incrēdibili lēnitāte, ita ut iūdicārī nōn possit* (I, 12, 2), *of extraordinary sluggishness, so that it can not 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 (PURPOSE) AND OF RESULT

227. These clauses 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*.

## 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 exactly as in English.

## DEPENDENT CLAUSES

223. Dependent clauses are those which 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 mode of the verb in the dependent clause; but that clause may 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 discourse (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, ut, quod, 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 principal clause contains a noun which can conveniently be used as an antecedent, a relative pronoun or adverb is commonly used. Example: *hominēs misit qui vidērent*, *he sent men to see*, lit. *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*, lit. *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 perpauci prohibere possent* (I, 6, 4), *a mountain overhung, so that a very few could easily check*; *incrēdibili lēnitāte, ita ut iūdicārī nōn possit* (I, 12, 2), *of extraordinary sluggishness, so that it can not 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 (PURPOSE) AND OF RESULT

227. These clauses 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 (purpose) and substantive clauses of result as between purpose clauses and result clauses, and they are to be distinguished in the same way (324).

### SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES OF DESIRE (PURPOSE)

228. These clauses 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*. The older name, *substantive purpose clauses*, is not good, because they do not really express purpose. For example: *imperō ut eās*, *I command you to go*, does not mean *I command in order that you may 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 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 it always is used after *iubeō*, *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 persuāsīt ut exirent* (I, 2, 3), *he persuaded the citizens to leave*; *civitātī persuāsīt nē exirent*, *he persuaded the citizens not to leave*; *oportet eā*, *he ought to go*; *ei licet eā*, *he may go*; *obsidēs utī dent perficit* (I, 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*, *quā*, or *quōminus*.

But the infinitive may be used instead. *Nē* is used after an *affirmative principal clause*, *quā* after a *negative*, *quōminus* after *either positive or negative*. Examples: *eum impediō nē*, or *quōminus*, *veniat*, *I hinder him from coming*; *eum nōn impediō quā*, or *quōminus*, *veniat*, *I do not hinder him from coming*; *neque recūsātūrōs quōminus esset* (I, 31, 24), *and that they would not refuse to be*.

#### SUBSTANTIVE *UT* CLAUSES OF RESULT OR FACT

229. These clauses 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 are to be translated by the indicative.

a. *EULE*: 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 can not) it impossible for them to leave*.

b. *EULE*: 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: *his rēbus fiēbat ut vagārentur* (I, 2, 11), *the result was that they wandered*.

c. *EULE*: Such phrases as *mōs est, cōsuetūdō 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 equis pugnent*, *it is their custom to fight on horseback*.

d. *EULE*: Negated verbs and phrases meaning *doubt* take the subjunctive with *quā*.

After an affirmative expression of doubting an indirect question with *num, an, or si* is used, as *whether* is in English. *Dubitō* with the infinitive means *hesitate*. Example: *nōn est dubium quā 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 which 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 modi, such*, or an adjective modified by *tam*. Certain grammars call some of these clauses *relative result clauses*. Usually the subjunctive is to be translated as if it were indicative.

Examples: *is est qui pugnet, he is a man who fights; secūtae sunt tempestates quae nostrōs in castris continērent* (IV, 34, 8), *storms followed which kept our men in camp (= such storms . . . . that they kept); tam improbus qui nōn fateatur* (Cic. Cat. I, 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 qui, there is a man who; nōn or nēmō or nūllus est qui, there is no one who; quis est qui? who is there who? sōlus or ūnus est qui he is the only man who; etc.* Usually the subjunctive is to be translated as if it were indicative.

Examples: *nūlli sunt qui putent, there are none who think; erant omnīnō itinera duo quibus exire possent* (I, 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 carri dūcerentur* (I, 6, 4), *one road by which wagons could be moved; neque commissum intellegeret quārē timēret* (I, 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 which 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 Hīspāniam* (I, 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: *Dumnorigi, qui principātum obtinēbat, persuādet* (I, 3, 14), *he persuaded Dumnorix, who held the chief power; the same meaning could be expressed by Dumnorigi (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, Caesari nūntiātum est* (I, 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* (IV, 12, 16), *he resisted as long as he could.*



*Until*

235. Conjunctions meaning *until* show that the action of the principal clause lasted up to that of the subordinate clause. Sometimes the actor in the principal clause foresees the second act 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 modes.

a. *RULE:* *Dum, donec, and quoad* meaning *until* are used with the indicative when the subordinate act is not represented as foreseen.

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

b. *RULE:* *Dum, donec, and quoad* meaning *until* are used with the subjunctive when the subordinate act is represented as foreseen.

Examples: *Galli expectaverunt 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 principal clause, and the principle on which the choice of modes is based is the same as that given in 235.

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

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

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

Example: *Galli magnas copias comparare conati 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 principal 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 se pugnaverunt quam Caesar venit, 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 certiores facti sunt, legatos mittunt (I, 7, 6), when they were informed of it they sent envoys.

*Cum*

238. Cum has three chief uses:—

temporal, when, after;  
causal, since, because;  
adversative (concessive), although.

It 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 modes with cum is much the same as with the declined relative (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. I, 10), since this is so, go on; his cum persuadere non possent, legatos mittunt (I, 9, 2), since they could not persuade them, they sent envoys; cum ad vesperum pugnatum sit (I, 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 principal verb is present or future.

*RULE:* Cum meaning when is generally followed by the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive when the principal 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 principal clause.

These clauses are in reality determining clauses (231), and are especially common when an antecedent like *tum* or *et tempore* is expressed in the principal clause. But a subjunctive is often found where an indicative might be expected. Examples: *tum cum ex urbe Catillinam eiciēbam* (Cic. Cat. III, 3), *at the time when I was trying to drive Catiline from the city*; *cum Caesar in Galliam vēnit, principēs erant Haedui* (VI, 22, 1), *at the time when Caesar came to Gaul the Haedui 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* (IV, 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 principal action is stated in the *cum* clause.

In the most common type of *cum* clauses (242, a) the principal action is stated in the principal 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 cohortātī (sunt) inter sē* (VI, 8, 1), *hardly had the line advanced, when the Gauls encouraged one another (for cum . . . . . prōcessisset, . . . . . cohortātī 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 principal 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 rūmōrēs afferēbantur* (II, 1, 1), *when Caesar was in Cisalpine Gaul, frequent rumors came to him* (mainly situation, for the fact that Caesar was in Cisalpine Gaul has been stated before, so that it is no new point in the story); *cum civitas iūs suum exsequi cōnārētur, Orgetorix mortuus est* (I, 4, 2), *while the state was trying to enforce its laws, Orgetorix died* (both situation and narrative, for 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* (I, 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 *quandō*, *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 praecedunt, quod contendunt* (I, 1, 11), *they surpass the other Gauls because they fight*; (with the subjunctive) *quod sit dēstitūtus queritur* (I, 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 *qui*, where the causal idea is perfectly clear. If *praesertim*, *especially*, stands in a subjunctive *qui* or *cum* clause, the clause is probably causal. Examples: (with the subjunctive) *illi autem, qui omnia praeclara sentirent, negotium suscepērunt* (Cic. Cat. III, 5), *and they, since they had none but patriotic thoughts, undertook the matter*; (with the indicative) *fuit militum virtus laudanda, qui adaequārunt* (V, 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 etiam, tametsi, even if, although*, are used with the indicative.

Example: *etiam nondum eorum consilia cognoverant, tamen suspicabatur* (IV, 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 Otero)*, *however much, however, although, qui, 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 contra opinionem acciderent* (Caes. III, 9, 17), *though everything should turn out contrary to their expectations.* But the indicative is sometimes used with *qui* 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 praeterea, quod Maelium occidit* (Cic. Cat. I, 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 unum pagum adortus es, noli ob eam rem despicere* (compare I, 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 and a conclusion. The condition is the dependent clause, and is so called because it states the condition on which the truth of the principal clause depends; the conclusion is the principal clause. Example: *if he comes* (condition) *I shall see him* (conclusion).

### CONNECTIVES IN CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

250. The connectives are the conjunctions *si, if, si nōn, if not, nisi, if not or unless, sin, 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 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:

a. Undetermined Present or Past (253). *si pugnāt, vincit, if he fights he conquers; si pugnāvit, vicit, if he fought he conquered.*

b. Present or Past Contrary to Fact (254). *si pugnāret, vinceret, if he were fighting he would be conquering; si pugnāvisset, vicisset, if he had fought he would have conquered.*

c. More Vivid (Confident) Future (256). *si pugnābit, vincet, if he fights (shall fight) he will conquer.*

d. Less Vivid (Confident) Future (257). *si pugnet, vincat, if he should fight he would conquer.*

#### A. Present or Past

252. In present or past time a conditional sentence may either express no opinion as 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 in consequence the conclusion is not fulfilled. There is no form of condition which affirms the truth of a statement. The speaker or hearer may know it to be true, but the sentence does not say so.

253. *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; qui fortis est pro patriā pugnat, whoever is brave fights for his country; nisi pro patriā pugnavit 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 should praise, or be praising, him (implying but he is not, and I do not); nisi pro patriā pugnavisset eum nōn laudāvisssem, unless he had (if he had not) fought for his country I should not have praised him (implying but he did, and I do; the contrary of the negative supposition); sī pugnavisset eum laudārem, if he had fought I should praise, or be praising, him (implying but he did not, and 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, though the 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 debu-erat, if he had been brave he ought to have fought (the duty rested upon him in any case; hence the indicative).*

*B. 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 can not be sure of the nonfulfillment of a future condition.

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

The English commonly uses the present with a future meaning in the condition. *If I see him I shall tell him*, means *if I shall see him I shall tell him*, and the Latin is precise in using the future. Moreover, if the condition must be fulfilled before the conclusion can take place, the Latin uses the future perfect, while the English commonly uses the present. *If he arrives first he will tell him*, means *if he shall have arrived first*, and the Latin is precise in using the future perfect. Examples: *si pugnabit eum laudabo*, *if he fights or is fighting (shall fight or shall be fighting) I shall praise him*; *qui pugnaverit laudabitur*, *whoever fights or has fought (shall have fought) will be praised*.

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

The difference between the present and perfect is the same as that between the future and future perfect indicative in 256. Examples: *si pugnet vincat*, *if he should fight, or were to fight, he would conquer*; *qui pugnet laudetur*, *whoever should fight, or should be fighting, would be praised*; *si non pugnaverit eum non laudem*, *if he should not fight, or should not have fought, I should 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: *si veniat hic adsumus*, *if he should 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: *damnatum poenam sequi oportebat* (I, 4, 3), (*if*) *condemned, it was necessary that punishment be inflicted on him*; *dicat*, *he would say* (if he should be asked); *velim*, *I should like*. The last two are simply the independent subjunctive of contingent futurity (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, for the subjunctive is always used, and the negative is often *nō*. This is because the construction originally meant *only let* (*him come: I will, etc*), and the mode is the subjunctive of desire (184, a). Examples: *magnō mē metū liberābis dummodo mūrus interit* (Cic. Cat. I, 10), *you will rid me of much fear if only there be (only let there be) a wall between us*; *modo nō (or nōn) discēdat eum vidēbō*, *if only he do not leave I shall 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 sequence 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 timēret*, *he ran as if he were afraid*.

### INDIRECT QUOTATION

#### A. 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 (260, 261) retain the subjunctive in the indirect form.*

The modal meaning 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) *rogāvi 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) *mihī 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). *Si* 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 si 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 not* is expressed by *necne*, instead of *annōn*. Examples: *rogāvi utrum pugnāvisset, an fūgisset*, *I asked whether he had fought or run away*; *rogāvi utrum pugnāvisset necne*, *I asked whether he had fought or not*.

## B. INDIRECT DISCOURSE

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

Indirect discourse may quote a long speech consisting of separate sentences, and periods may be used between these sentences; but, none the less, each sentence is to 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 principal clause in indirect discourse *one* means a clause that was principal in the direct form.

*Principal Clauses*

**266. Declarative Sentences. RULE:** Every principal clause containing a statement requires the infinitive with subject accusative in indirect discourse (270).

But the subject is not always expressed. Example: miles 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 there made 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 discourse.

This is a use of the subjunctive of desire; the negative is *nē*. Examples: ad Id. Apr. revertimini, return about the thirteenth of April, becomes respondit: . . . ad Id. Apr. reverterentur (I, 7, 19), he replied . . . : (that) they should return, etc.; is ita ēgit: . . . *nē* . . . despiceret (I, 13, 14), he should not despise (from an original *nōll despiceret* (219), do not despise).

**268. Interrogative Sentences. I. RULE:** An indicative question (209), if real (211), changes to the subjunctive in indirect discourse.

Example: respondit: . . . quid sibi vellet (I, 44, 24), what did he want (for an original quid tibi vis, what do you want)?

II. **RULE.** An indicative question (209), if rhetorical (211), changes to the infinitive in indirect discourse.

This is because a rhetorical question is equivalent to a declarative sentence, which would require the infinitive (266) Example: respondit: . . . num memoriam dēponere posse (I, 14, 8), could he forget (for an original I can not forget [can I?])?

III. **RULE.** A subjunctive question (209, 210), whether real or rhetorical, retains the subjunctive in indirect discourse.

Example: incūsāvit: . . . cūr quisquam iūdicāret (I, 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 discourse.*

Infinitives remain unchanged. Example: *incūsāvit: . . . ex quō iūdicāri posse quantum habēret in sē boni cōstantia, propterea quod . . . superāssent (I, 40, 17), from which it could be seen what an advantage courage had, since they had conquered (for original iūdicāri, potest, habeat, superāvistis).*

a. But a coordinate relative clause (173, a), being equivalent to a clause connected by *et*, or some other coordinating conjunction, sometimes has the infinitive in indirect discourse. 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*.

a. *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 (I, 14, 16), he replied . . . that although these things were so he would make peace.*

b. After a perfect infinitive the secondary sequence must be used even if the infinitive depends on a primary verb of *saying* or *thinking*; for 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.*

c. 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 *sui* 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 *dico me hunc militem laudare, I say that I praise this soldier*, or *dicit se illum militem laudare, 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 of sequence 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 principal 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 (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 discourse. *Si pugnaret eum laudarem, if he were fighting I should praise him*, becomes, after either *dicit* or *dixit*, *si pugnaret se eum laudaturum fuisse*; *si pugnāvisset eum laudāvīsem, if he had fought I should have praised him*, becomes, after either *dicit* or *dixit*, *si pugnāvisset se eum laudaturum fuisse*.

#### C. 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 (purpose). Examples: *Caesar frumentum quod essent polliciti flagitare* (I, 16, 1), *Caesar kept demanding the grain which (as he said) they had promised*; *erat ei praeceptum ne proelium committeret nisi ipsius copiae visae essent* (I, 23, 8), *he had been commanded not to give battle unless Caesar's forces should be seen* (Caesar had said *nisi meae copiae 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 res accēderent, quod Helvētiōs trādūxisset* (I, 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.

## A. 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 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 (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* (I, 3, 2), *they determined 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 275. 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.

sative. But with licet a predicate is commonly dative. Examples: fertem esse oportet, *one ought to be brave*; virō licet esse forti (fortem), *a man may be brave*, lit. *it is permitted to a man to be brave*.

## B. 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, visum 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 discourse. 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. Regularly with iubeō, *order*, vetō, *forbid*, patior, *permit*, which might be expected to take the substantive clause of desire (228, a). Example: militēs pugnāre iussit, *he ordered the soldiers to fight*.

b. With volō, *wish*, nōlō, *wish not*, mālō, *wish to do otherwise*, cupiō, *wish*, regularly when the subject of the infinitive is not the same as that of the principal verb, sometimes when it is the same (compare 275). Examples: volō eum ire, *I wish him to go*; cupiō mē esse clementem (Cic. Cat. I, 4), *I desire to be merciful*.

c. Regularly the accusative and future infinitive 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* (VII, 26, 4), lit. *they hoped that they could accomplish this*, = *they hoped to accomplish this*; *sēsē potiri posse spērānt* (I, 3, 22), *they hoped that they could get possession*.

### C. WITH SUBJECT NOMINATIVE

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

Example: *cotidiē Caesar frūmentum flāgitāre* (I, 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 is really completed before the action of the verb: Latin then uses the perfect participle. For example, *seeing this he fled*, means *having seen*, etc., and may be translated *hōc visō* (150) *fūgit*, lit. *this having been seen*.



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 *pugnans occisus est*, usually either *dum pugnabat occisus est*, or *cum pugnaret, occisus est*; *seeing this he fled*, *cum hoc vidisset fugit*.

b. Remember that *he is running* is always *currit*, never *est currēns*.

## 285.

## FUTURE PARTICIPLES

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 secum portaturū erant* (I, 5, 5), lit. *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*, lit. *Caesar must be praised by me*, = *I must praise Caesar*; *mihi pugnandum fuit* (impersonal), lit. *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*, *suscipio*, *undertake*. Examples: *pontem faciendum cūrat* (I, 13, 2), *he had a bridge made*; *cōsulibus senātus rem publicam dēfendendam dedit*, *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: *visus fūgit, having been seen he fled*; *Caesare visō 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 act. 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: *fugēdī causā (99, a), for the sake of fleeing*; *ad persuādendum ei (115), for persuading him*; *urbem vidēdī 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, 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 vidēdī causā, vidēdī* is the genitive modifying *causā*, and *urbem* is the direct object of *vidēdī*. In the gerundive construction *urbis videndae causā, urbis* is the genitive mod-

ifying *causā* and *videndae* agrees with *urbis*, literally *for the sake of the city to be seen*. Both 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: *ei 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 oppidi* (II, 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 effēmandōs animōs* (I, 1, 8), *to weakening the courage*; (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*, *tui*, *sui*, *nostrī*, or *vestrī* with a genitive in -ī (sometimes called gerund, sometimes gerundive), regardless of gender and number. Example: *sui cōservandī causā*, *for the sake of saving themselves*. The usual gerund would be *sē cōservandī*; the gerundive *sui 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), venit, 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 subministrandis (III, 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: grātulātum vēnerunt (I, 30, 2), they came to offer congratulations; lēgātōs mittunt rogātum auxiliū (I, 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 (I, 3, 16) lit. 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 Ianuārius (-a, -um), Februārius, Mārtius, Aprīlis (-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 B. C., 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 B. C. 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; that is, they called

the days "the third before the Ides", "the fourth before the Calends," etc.

The *Calends* (*Kalendae*,—*arum*, *f. pl.*) were always the first of the month. The *Nones* (*Nōnae*,—*arum*, *f. pl.*) were the seventh, the *Ides* (*Idūs*,—*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 reckoning dates they counted both the first day and the last day; for example, while we should 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 reckon 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. Id. Ian. = ante diem quartum Idūs Ianuāriās. The logical, but less usual form is diē quartō ante Idūs Ianuāriās, on the fourth day before the Ides of January. For examples take the dates:

(LATIN-ENGLISH)

(ENGLISH-LATIN)

Jan. 1 = Kal. Ian.

(13 + 1 - 4 = 10) Jan. 10 = a. d. iv. Id. Ian. (13 + 1 - 10 = 4).  
 (28 + 2 - 8 = 22) Feb. 22 = a. d. viii. Kal. Mar. (28 + 2 - 22 = 8).  
 (7 + 1 - 4 = 4) July 4 = a. d. iv. Nōn. Id. (7 + 1 - 4 = 4).