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February 1904.

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ARNOLD'S
LATIN PROSE COMPOSITION

REVISED BY G. G. BRADLEY

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AIDS TO WRITING LATIN PROSE

With Exercises

BY

G. G. BRADLEY, D.D.

DEAN OF WESTMINSTER

Edited and arranged by

T. L. PAPILLON, M.A.

FELLOW AND TUTOR OF NEW COLLEGE, OXFORD

LONGMANS, GREEN, AND CO.
LONDON, NEW YORK, AND BOMBAY

F. A. N. Pessoa.

A PRACTICAL INTRODUCTION

TO

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BY

THOMAS KERSCHEVER ARNOLD, M.A.

Edited and Revised

BY

GEORGE GRANVILLE BRADLEY, D.D.

DEAN OF WESTMINSTER

LATE MASTER OF UNIVERSITY COLLEGE, OXFORD
AND FORMERLY MASTER OF MARLBOROUGH COLLEGE

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THE MAYER OF CHICHESTER IN THE GARDEN
AND SEVERAL OTHERS BY MARY ANNE BRADLEY

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P R E F A C E

SOME years have passed since I was requested by the Publishers of the late Mr. T. Kerchever Arnold's educational works, to undertake the revision of his *Introduction to Latin Prose Composition*.

The wide and long sustained circulation of the book, both in England and America, was a proof that, whatever might be its defects, its author had provided something which commended itself as a practical aid to an exceedingly large class both of students and teachers of the Latin language.

The task, however, of so revising such a work as to place it on a level with the requirements of the present time I found far more serious than I had expected. The result of much labour, and of more than one unsuccessful attempt to satisfy myself, may be stated broadly as follows:—

In the first place, an Introduction has been prefixed containing three parts, two of which are new, the other much modified.

1. The first of these is an explanation of the traditional terms by which we designate the different "parts of speech" in English or Latin. The exposition is confined to the most simple and elementary points; but it is scarcely necessary to remind any experienced teacher of the extreme vagueness with which the nature of such essential distinctions is often mastered, even by those whose mental training has for years been almost confined to the study of Language.

2. This is followed by a few pages on the Analysis of the Simple and Compound Sentence. Such logical analysis of language is by this time generally accepted as the only basis of intelligent grammatical teaching, whether of our own or of

any other language. At all events, no teacher, who would care to make trial of the present work, will regret the insertion of a short explanation of the general principle on which all its exposition of syntactical questions is directly founded.

3. I have followed Mr. Arnold's example in prefixing some remarks, retaining so far as possible his own language, on the Order of Words; I have added some also on the Arrangement of Clauses in the Latin Sentence. It is desirable to point out, at the very earliest stage of the learner's progress, not only the great differences between the structure of the two languages in this respect, but also the grounds on which these differences rest, and to indicate the general laws which regulate what may appear to the uninstructed the loose and arbitrary texture of the Latin Sentence.

The matter for translation as comprised in the various Exercises has been almost entirely rewritten. I have not, after full consideration, taken what would have been the easier course, and substituted single continuous passages for a number of separate and unconnected sentences. I found that for the special purpose of the present work, dealing as it does with such manifold and various forms of expression, the employment of these latter was indispensable, and I have by long experience convinced myself of their value in teaching or studying the various turns and forms of a language which differs in such innumerable points from our own as classical Latin.

At the close of the Exercises, I have omitted Mr. Arnold's "List of Differences between English and Latin idioms." As these differences are, or should be, brought home to the reader in almost every line of the present revision of his work, such a list would either convey a false impression of general similarity with occasional disagreement, or would reach a length which would defeat its purpose. It is better that the pupil should learn from the very first, that as a general rule, Latin and English express the same or similar thoughts by a more or less different process, and that a

perfectly literal translation of every word in one language by a corresponding word in another will, whether he is translating English into Latin or Latin into English, almost inevitably result in absurdity and solecism.

A few words may be added on the order in which the various subjects treated in the different Exercises are arranged. Some surprise may be caused at its want of scientific method, and apparently of definite principle. It would have been quite possible to have started with exercises on the shortest and most elementary form of the simple sentence; then to have traced its various enlargements through all the manifold uses of the pronouns, oblique cases, uses of adjectives, adverbs, participles, gerunds, and prepositions, and thus to have deferred to the second or rather final portion of the work any notice of the various forms of the compound sentence, of many uses of the infinitive, of even the most ordinary uses of the relative, and of all subordinating conjunctions. I observe that in Seyffert and Busch's last edition of Ellendt's Latin Syntax, the construction of the accusative with the infinitive is not reached till two-thirds of the work have been read, that of the "indirect question" till considerably later. But had I followed this course, the pupil must have been conducted, by the aid of a long series of elaborately constructed specimens of the Simple Sentence, through all the range of usages that could possibly be comprised within its limits. Not till this was done could he have attempted to deal with the very commonest turns of language, such as meet him in every line of natural English, and form the texture of every sentence in Caesar or in Livy. He would have wasted his strength and patience in mounting and descending ladder after ladder of artificial language before he was invited to set foot on the free and natural paths of speech. It is difficult, no doubt, to decide which among the innumerable idioms of a language so unlike our own has the first claim on the attention of the teacher; and the precise order which should be adopted is a matter less of principle than one dictated by various and complex

considerations of practical utility. But I have not hesitated to invite the learner, who will follow the guidance of the present work, to leave at a very early period the artificially smoothed waters of such simple sentences as are carefully framed with a view to exclude the most ordinary forms of speech in both English and Latin, and to face as soon as possible the constructions of the Infinitive Mood, of the Relative and Interrogative Pronoun, of the Conjunctional Clause, and some of the main uses of the Subjunctive Mood, and of the Latin, as compared with the English, Tenses. It appears to me that after thus obtaining some firm grasp of the great lines in which the Latin language is modelled under the influence of that great instrument of thought, the Verb, he will be far more likely to notice and retain a permanent impression of the usages and mutual relations of other parts of speech, than if he had followed step by step an opposite system under the guidance of a synthetically arranged Syntax. At the same time, as some amount of systematic arrangement is desirable even on practical grounds, the Exercises have been arranged, as a glance at the Table of Contents will show, in groups of closely related subjects. Such questions as the use of the Cases, and of the various Pronouns, presented considerable difficulty. Placed where they are, they somewhat interrupt the main current of the general teaching on the structure of the Latin sentence, yet I hesitated to relegate them to the end of the book. As it is, I have used them largely, and I hope successfully, not only to elucidate the subject of which they directly treat, but also to renew, impress, and enforce the principles and details laid down in the earlier sections. At the same time there is no reason why the teacher should not postpone their use for a time, and pass on to any of the groups of Exercises which follow.

It only remains that I should express my obligations, not only to the great German Grammarians, including the recently completed *Historische Syntax* of Dr. Draeger, to Schultz's *Synonymik* and Haacke's *Stilistik*, but also to two such English

writers on Latin Grammar as Professor Kennedy and Mr. Roby. To the former, eminent alike as a teacher and a writer, I owed, as a comparatively young teacher, my first full perception of the educational value of a systematic study of Latin Syntax as based on the Analysis of the Sentence; to the second volume of Mr. Roby's valuable work I am largely indebted. I may also mention the less obvious but not less real assistance which I have received from the published works and ever ready assistance and guidance of Professor Max Müller; also from Professor Earle's treatise on the Philology of the English tongue, and from some interesting Lectures of Professor Burggraff of Liège.

I must also express my obligations for much help received in an earlier stage of the work from Mr. A. M. Bell of Balliol College; more recently from Mr. F. Madan of Brasenose College, and for the great aid given me in shaping the Vocabulary and drawing up the Index, by Mr. T. W. Haddon, late Scholar of my own College.

G. G. BRADLEY.

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G. G. BRADLEY.

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↓ See Preface, p. viii.

INTRODUCTION.

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

1. By Parts of Speech we mean the various classes, or headings, under which all words used in speaking or writing may be arranged.

2. In English Grammars eight are usually enumerated, viz. :—

Noun.	Pronoun.	Adverb.	Conjunction.
Adjective.	Verb.	Preposition.	Interjection.

3. Besides these there is a ninth, the Article, definite and indefinite, *the; an, a*. The former is merely a shortened form of the demonstrative pronoun *that*; the latter two of the numeral adjective *one*; and both may be classed under the adjective.

But in Latin Grammars the list is somewhat different, and it will be more convenient to follow the usual arrangement.

4. There is no Article in Latin, and the Adjective is included under the Noun.

i. Noun	{ Substantive.	iv. Adverb.
	{ Adjective.	v. Preposition.
ii. Pronoun.		vi. Conjunction.
iii. Verb.		vii. Interjection.

As all these names will be frequently used in the following pages, it is necessary that their meaning and nature should be understood.

The Noun.

5. (i.) The NOUN is the name (*nomen*) which we give to any person, thing, or conception of the mind; for even conceptions we may regard as *things*. We may name such

persons or things in two different ways; nouns therefore, or *names*, may be of two kinds.

6. The **Substantive** is a name which we give to a person or thing to distinguish it from other persons and things: Caesar, table, goodness; *Caesar, mensa, virtus*.

It denotes the assemblage, or *sum-total*, of all the qualities by which we recognise such person or thing.

Hence its name (*nomen substantivum*), as a name denoting what was once called the *substantia*, or essential nature of persons and things.

It denotes also something which is looked on as having an existence (*substantia*) by itself.

7. The **Adjective** is a name which we add or apply to a person or thing, to denote some *one quality* which we attribute to it: good, white, small; *bonus, candidus, parvus*.

8. As this one quality may be shared by many persons or things, the adjective is not well fitted to stand by itself as the name for persons or things; many different persons and things might be "good," "white," or "small."

Its proper use, therefore, is either to be attached to the *nomen substantivum*, or general name of an object, so as to define its meaning more closely, as *white horses, good men*; *equi albi, homines boni*; or to be *predicated*, that is asserted, of such substantive: the men are *good*; *homines sunt boni*; in the first case it is called an *attribute*, in the second a *predicate*. Hence its name, *nomen adjectivum*; a name, that is, fitted for adding, or attaching, to another name, from *adjicere*, "to add to."

9. In Latin this *fitness for attachment or addition* is even more marked than in English. Latin adjectives have, what the English have not, *inflexions*, *i.e.* variable terminations of gender, case, and number, which vary with those of the substantive *to* which they are attached, or *of* which they are predicated. Thus *mulier superba; vir est superbus; arbores vidi altas*. In English the adjective has no longer any inflexions: A *proud* lady, the man is *proud*, I saw *lofty* trees. We can attach the same word *proud* to *lady* and to *man*; the same word *lofty* to *tree* and *trees*.

Pronouns.

10. (ii.) PRONOUNS are words substituted for nouns (*pronome*) to *indicate* or *point to* a person, thing, or quality, without naming the thing, or its quality: *I, you, he, she, it; that, such, who*, and many others.

The noun then, and pronoun, *name* or *point to* persons, things, or the qualities of persons or things; but,

The Verb.

11. (iii.) The VERB *makes a statement* as to them, it joins together *two* such objects of our thought.

Vales, you are well; *curro*, I run; *vincuntur*, they are conquered.

In each of these Latin words not one but two separate conceptions are included; "you" and the "being well," "I" and "running," "they" and "being conquered;" of these, the first is called the *Subject*, the second the *Predicate*.

12. The Latin verb differs from the English in not requiring the aid of a separate pronoun (*ego, tu*, etc.) to make its statement. The pronoun is contained in, and expressed by, its final syllable.

Vivo, I live; *vixisti*, you have lived; *amat*, he loves.

13. The verb then is a *saying* about persons or things (*verbum* = *Gk. ῥήμα*: a saying, or thing said).

It makes a statement, or, as it is called, a *predication*, as to the state of, or action done either by, or to, some person or thing.

Valeo, I am well; *vinco*, I conquer; *vincor*, I am conquered.

14. All these parts of speech have in Latin their *inflexions*, *i.e.* variable and movable terminations, answering to those in such English words as *dost, tables, comes*, and admit of other changes in form (cf. *I, me; come, came*), by the aid of which they express various relations, or notions, of *number, case, gender, degree of comparison, time, person, mood*.

In English, many, if not most, of these relations are expressed by separate words, as pronouns, prepositions, auxiliary verbs, or by the place of the word in the sentence; thus compare,

Pater filium videbit. The father *will* see his son.

Patrem filius vidērat. The son *had seen* his father.

Hunc librum tibi dederam. *I had* given this book *to* you.

15. But the other four parts of speech are not inflected, or *declined*; they are all called particles (*particula*), or less important *parts of speech*, because they are not so essential to the formation of a sentence as those already described. The first three can form a sentence by themselves, not so the last four.

The Adverb.

16. (iv.) The ADVERB (*adverbium*) is so called, because its main use is to attend upon the *verb*. All verbs make a statement; the adverb qualifies the statement which the verb makes, by adding some particular as to the *manner*, *amount*, *time*, or *place* of the state or action asserted.

Fortiter pugnavit.
He fought *bravely*.

tum excessit.
then, or at that time,
he went out.

ibi cecidit.
he fell *there, or*
in that place.

17. But adverbs, especially those of *amount* or *degree*, may also be joined with *adjectives*, and even with other *adverbs*.

Satis sapiens.
Sufficiently wise.

Admōdum negligenter.
Very carelessly.

18. Adverbs when derived from adjectives are capable of one kind of inflexion; that which expresses "more," "most," *sapienter, sapientius, sapientissime*.

19. Observe how often the adverb may be interchanged with an adverbial *phrase*; *i.e.* two or more words equivalent to an adverb: negligently, *with negligence*; hastily,

in haste; then, *at that time*. The same is the case in Latin: *Tunc = eo tempore*.

Prepositions.

20. (v.) PREPOSITIONS are words which are joined with, and almost invariably *placed before* (*praeposita*), nouns and pronouns, to define their relation to other words in the sentence.

<i>Ad me vēnit.</i>	<i>a Caesare victus est.</i>	<i>pro patriā mori.</i>
He came <i>to</i> me.	he was conquered <i>by</i> Caesar.	to die <i>for</i> one's native land.

21. There are a great many prepositions in Latin, and the same preposition is used in various senses, *e.g.*, *a* (*ab*), "from" and "by." They are rarely used with any but the accusative and ablative cases.

22. But the case-ending alone will often express what in English must be expressed by a preposition.

<i>Ense me percussit.</i>	<i>Romam Narbone rediit.</i>
He struck me <i>with</i> a sword (instrument).	He returned <i>to</i> Rome <i>from</i> Narbonne (motion from and to a town).

23. Many words used as prepositions are also used as adverbs, *i.e.* are not joined with nouns but with verbs.

<i>Ante te natus sum.</i>	<i>Hoc nunquam ante videram.</i>
I was born <i>before</i> you (prep.).	I had never <i>before</i> seen this (adverb).

24. Many also are prefixed to and compounded with verbs, to modify their meaning. Very often they convert an intransitive into a transitive verb.

Pugno, I fight; *oppugno*, I assault (a place).

The same was the case in Old English; we still use *overcome*, *withstand*, *gainsay*. In later English the preposition is placed after the verb: "He is *sent for*," "I am *laughed at*."

A list of prepositions, with the cases which they govern, or are joined with, will be found further on. (See Ex. XLIII., XLIV.)

Conjunctions.

25. (vi.) CONJUNCTIONS are indeclinable words which join together (*conjungo*) sentences or clauses,¹ and occasionally even words.

26. Their proper office is to unite two or more sentences or clauses, and to show the relation between the clauses which they unite. "You went, *but* I remained behind," the *but* expresses *opposition*; "you did this, *therefore* I will," *therefore* draws an *inference*.

27. *Obs.*—They often connect *words*, but generally the word connected represents a clause left out, *e.g.* You and I saw this = You saw this, *and* I saw this.

Sometimes however they really connect words, and words only: "This good *but* poor man would often say," or "two *and* two make four."

For the list of conjunctions and their classes see below.

Interjections.

28. (vii.) INTERJECTIONS are so called because they are words inserted (*interjecta*), or *thrown in among* the other words of a sentence to express some feeling or emotion. They are either mere exclamations, as *heu, vae, alas! woe!* or abbreviated sentences, such as *Me Deus fidius (juvet)*. Compare "good-bye" (God be with you). They do not enter into the construction of a sentence, and their *syntax* therefore presents no difficulty.

FURTHER REMARKS ON THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

29. THE NOUN.—(i.) SUBSTANTIVES are of more than one kind.

(a.) The **proper** name (*nomen proprium*), *i.e.* the special name appropriated to and the *property* of a single person or place: *Caius, Roma, Italia*.

(b.) The **common** noun or name (*nomen appellativum*), by which we can designate either a whole class, or an individual of the class: *arbor, flumen*; tree, river. Any tree or river may bear this name. Without the help of

¹ See below, Intr. 78.

these words we should require a separate name for every object that we speak of.

(c.) **Collective** nouns, or nouns of multitude (*nomina collectiva*) are such as, though singular, yet by their nature denote a number of individuals: *Exercitus, populus, senatus*; army, people, senate.

(d.) **Abstract** nouns (*nomina abstracta*) are words which denote some quality, or state, or action, as *withdrawn* from the person or thing *in which* we see it *embodied* (*concretum*), and looked on as existing *by itself*. Thus *servitium* is the state of "servitude" which we see existing in a number of *servi*; *candor*, "whiteness," the quality which is denoted by the adjective *candidus*, wherever that quality is found.

30. (ii.) ADJECTIVES may be divided into—

Adjectives of **quality**, as *bonus, malus, fortis*; good, bad, brave.

Adjectives of **quantity** and **number** (numeral): *multi, pauci, ducenti*; many, few, two hundred.

There is also a large number of *pronominal* adjectives formed from or closely connected with pronouns: *meus, tuus, ullus*, etc.; mine, thine, any, etc. These are more conveniently included under pronouns.

31. Though the adjective is especially fitted for *attaching to* or being *predicated of* substantives, yet where no ambiguity can arise it is capable of being used by itself as a substantive: *boni*, good (men); *bona*, good (things), the words *men* and *things* being represented by the masculine and neuter terminations of the Latin adjective; *-i* and *-a* representing the plural of "he," "it."

32. PRONOUNS.—The personal pronouns answering to the English *I, you*, as also to *he, she, it*, are essential parts of conversation in all languages to represent the person *speaking*, the person *spoken to*, and the person or thing *spoken of*.

We have already seen that they may be expressed in Latin by the termination of the verb. Rules for the insertion of *ego, tu, is, ille*, etc., will be given below.

33. Besides these *personal* pronouns, which indicate, without again naming, the two or three persons before named, there are a large number of words closely connected with them, which are also called pronouns (or in some cases *pronominals*, *i.e.* words resembling pronouns) Such are—

The Reflexive and Emphatic Pronouns	<i>sui, se ; ipse, egomet, etc.</i> ,—himself, myself, etc.
The Demonstrative	<i>hic ; iste, is, ille ; idem</i> ,—this; that; the same, etc.
The Interrogative	<i>quis, qui</i> (adjectival), <i>ecquis ; quot ?</i> etc.,—who? what? how many?
The Relative	<i>qui, quicumque, etc.</i> ,—that, who, which, whoever.
The Indefinite	<i>quidam ; quis ; aliquis</i> ,—a certain one; any; some, etc.
The Possessive	<i>meus, tuus, suus, noster, etc.</i> ,—mine, thine, his, ours, etc.
The Reciprocal	(No single word in Latin); each other, etc.

The majority of these are used adjectivally; but the personal pronouns of the first and second person, the reflexive (*se*), *quis* as opposed to *qui*, *quid* to *quod*, are substantival.

34. There are also certain **correlative** pronouns or pronominals, which are used in corresponding pairs. Such are *is . . . qui ; tantus . . . quantus ; tot . . . quot*. Their use will be explained further on. (See Ex. XII.)

35. VERBS.—The distinction between the different kinds of verbs must be carefully attended to in composition. Verbs are thus classed:—

(i.) **Intransitive** Verbs are so called because any action which they denote does not extend or pass over (*transire*) to any other person or thing besides that which forms the subject or nominative of the verb.

Spiro, I breathe; *curro*, I run; *cado*, I fall; *sum*, I exist.

Any of these verbs can form a complete sentence in Latin, though not in English, in a single word.

36. Some of them, however, hardly give a *clear* sense without the aid of a noun or pronoun to complete the statement which they make; and this is one of the chief uses of the dative case. Thus *noceo*, "I am hurtful," *pāreo*, "I am obedient," give a vague sense, unless we know *to whom* "I am hurtful" or "obedient"; and these intransitive verbs (which obviously contain an idea resembling that of the adjective) are mostly joined with a *dative* never with an *accusative*: *tibi noceo*; *mihi paret*. They are often represented in English by transitive verbs: "I *hurt* you," "he *obeys* me." There are many such apparently transitive, but really intransitive, verbs in Latin. (See Ex. I. 5.)

37. (ii.) **Transitive** Verbs are those which denote an action which necessarily affects, or *passes over to*, some person or thing other than the *subject* of the verb: *interficio*, I kill; *capio*, I take. Here *I* is the *subject* of the verb, but we ask at once *whom*, or *what*, do *I* kill, or take?

38. This other person or thing, without which the statement is incomplete, is called the *object* of the verb, and is always in the *accusative* case. In English the object follows the verb, in Latin it more often precedes it.

Fratrem tuum vidi. I saw *your* brother.

39. (iii.) Both transitive and intransitive verbs are called **Active**. Their inflexions are similar, and both denote *action* of some kind.

For English verbs used both transitively and intransitively, as "I move," etc., see 20, 21.

40. Many Latin transitive verbs may be used *absolutely* (*i.e.* without an expressed object).

Vinco, I conquer (my enemies), "I win the day"; *scribo*, I am writing (a letter or book).

41. (iv.) By **Passive** Verbs we mean a form or inflexion of the transitive verb which denotes that the action indicated by the verb takes effect, not on another person or thing, but on the *subject* of the verb.

Amor, I am loved; *interficitur*, he is killed.

I and *he* are no longer *agents* or actors, but recipients or sufferers (*patior*, *passivus*, adj.), and the *agent* is some one else represented in Latin by the ablative with the preposition *a*, *ab*.

Ab hoste interfectus est. He was slain by the enemy.

42. Remember that it is only transitive verbs, *i.e.* verbs which are joined with an accusative, that have a full passive voice. We cannot say *noceor*, or *curror*, or *vivor*.

But there is a very common use of the third person singular of a passive form of intransitive verbs, without any nominative expressed, to denote that the action described by the verb is produced or effected; *Hac* itur, there *is a going*, *i.e.* men go, in this direction; *tibi nocetur*, harm is done to you, *i.e.* you are injured. Owing to the large number of verbs which, like *noceo*, are intransitive in Latin, this construction is of great importance. (See 5.)

43. (v.) Besides these **active** and **passive** verbs, there is a large class of verbs called **Deponent**.

These are verbs which, though having passive *inflexions*, have laid aside (*deponere*) a passive, and assumed an active, *sense*. Of these, some are transitive, some intransitive.

Te sequor, I follow you; *tibi irascor*, I am angry with you.

44. Some are called **Semi-deponents**; they have an active form in the present, a passive in the past, with no change of meaning.

Gaudeo, I rejoice; *gavisus sum*. *audeo*, I dare; *ausus sum*.

45. It is important to remember that deponent verbs differ from other Latin verbs in furnishing both a past and present participle with an active sense.

Proficiscor, I set out; *proficiscens*, and *profectus*, "setting out," and "having set out."

(See 14.)

46. (vi.) **Impersonal Verbs** are those which are not used in the first or second persons, but only in the third.

Even with the third person of such verbs, the subject or

nominative case is never a person, or even a substantive; but either (a) the vague *it* (or *he*) implied in the termination: or the verb is accompanied and explained by (b) an infinitive mood, or (c) a whole clause, or (d) a neuter pronoun.

Pudet. It shames me.

Haec fecisse piget. It is painful to have done this.

Accidit ut abessem. It happened that I was absent.

Hoc refert. This is of importance.

(See 123, and 202.)

Among these must be classed the very important construction mentioned above (42).

47. (vii.) By **Auxiliary Verbs** we mean verbs used as aids (*auxilia*) to enable other verbs to form moods and tenses which they cannot express within the compass of a single word. Compare "I fell" with "I *have* fallen," where "have" has lost the sense of possession, and only serves as an auxiliary verb to the verb *fall*. Such verbs abound in English, because the English verb often requires the aid of another word—*may, would, should, shall, will, let, etc.*—to express what can be expressed in Latin by a change in the verb itself. Compare "I *was* loving" with *amabam*; "let him go" with *eat*.

In Latin, the only auxiliary verb is *esse*, "to be," assisted by the forms, *fore, forem*. This is used largely in the passive voice and future infinitive: *auditus sum, auditurum fore*.

48. But much resembling these auxiliary verbs are certain verbs which are closely united with the infinitive of another verb, and add to that verb various *modes* of expressing its meaning, almost as if they were additional *moods*; hence they are called,

(viii.) **Modal Verbs**. Such are those of *being able, beginning, ceasing, wishing, etc.*

Possum, nequeo, desino, volo, haec dicere. I am able, unable, cease, wish, to say this.

(See 42.)

49. (ix.) **Copulative** or **Link** Verbs are those which unite together two nouns or pronouns, one of which, the predicate, is asserted or predicated of the other, the subject.

Caesar est Dictator. Caesar is Dictator.

Obs.—The principal of these is the verb *sum*, whose original meaning was "I breathe."

When *sum* means "I am," "I exist," it is called a *substantive* verb, because it expresses the idea of existence, *substantia*. (See 6.)

When it merely joins together the subject and predicate of a sentence, as above, it is called a *copulative* verb.

When it supplies the passive voice or infinitive mood with aid to form tenses, it is called an *auxiliary* verb.

50. Besides *sum* there is a large class of other verbs which have in some cases laid aside their original meaning, and are used to connect nouns. Such are *fit* (used as the passive of *facio*), *evado*, *existo*, and also the passive of verbs of *thinking*, *naming*, etc. Of course, as link verbs they couple together words which correspond as closely as possible, and the two nouns which they unite will be in the same case.

Caesar fit Dictator. Caesar becomes Dictator.

For Verbs called **Factitive** Verbs, see 239.

51. The verb, when its meaning is defined or limited (*finis*) by a nominative case, *i.e.* when used as a true verb, as in the first, second, or third person, is called sometimes a *finite* verb.

But sometimes the verb, to a certain extent, lays aside its true nature as the *instrument of making an assertion by joining together two objects of our thoughts*, and takes that of another part of speech, the noun, both the *substantive* and the *adjective*. The verb is used as a substantive in the *infinitive* mood, in the *gerund*, and in the two *supines*. It is used as an adjective in the *participles*, and in the *gerundive*, or *participle* in *-dus*.

These will all form subjects of Exercises.

52. **Adverbs** have been already classified. The learner must be again reminded that just as in English we use very freely a great number of *adverbial phrases* in place of

adverbs, *e.g.* *in silence*, for “silently,” *to the benefit of*, instead of “beneficially to,” the state, so he must not think that every English adverb or adverbial phrase is to be rendered literally into Latin. Full guidance, however, will be given in the following Exercises. (See, for instance, 61, 63, 64.)

PREPOSITIONS will be classified further on. (See Exercises XLIII, XLIV.)

53. CONJUNCTIONS are divided, both in English and Latin, into two classes; *Co-ordinating* and *Subordinating* conjunctions.

54. **Co-ordinating** conjunctions join together sentences on equal terms; these sentences are of equal grammatical rank, or co-ordinate (*ordo*, rank), *i.e.* each is *grammatically* independent of the other.

You go, *and*, *but*, *therefore*, I shall follow.

55. **Subordinating** conjunctions attach to a sentence or clause another clause which holds (grammatically) a lower or subordinate position, qualifying the principal clause just as an adverb qualifies a verb. “I will do this, *if* you do;” the *if*-sentence (or clause) is equivalent to the adverb *conditionally*. (See Intr. 82.)

56. The Co-ordinating conjunctions in Latin and English are—

a. **Copulative**—

Et, *-que*, *ac*, *atque*; *nec*, *neque* (when used for “and not”); *etiam*, *praeterea*, etc.

And, also; nor, and not; moreover, etc.

b. **Disjunctive**, *i.e.* they join together the sentences, but they *disjoin* or separate from each other the thoughts conveyed: “We must do this, *or* die.”

Aut, *vel*, *-ve*; *nec*, *neque*; *sive*, *seu*; (*an*, *-nē*).

Or, either; neither, nor; whether, or; (or).

c. **Adversative**. Two statements are opposed to each other—

Sed, *autem*, *verum*, *vero*, *tamen*.

But, nevertheless, notwithstanding, however, etc.

d. Illative or Inferential. The statement of one sentence "brings in" (*infert*) or proves the other;

Ergo, igitur, itaque. Therefore, accordingly, and so, etc.

e. Causal;

Nam, namque, enim, etenim. For.

57. Observe that Latin has a greater variety of conjunctions than English; for our "and" it has *et, -que, atque, ac*, for our "or" *aut, vel, -ve*, as well as *an*; and each of these words has a somewhat different meaning.¹

58. Very often also the relative pronoun *qui* may take the place of an English co-ordinating conjunction, and be placed at the head of a sentence or clause where we should use "and," "but," "so."

Quae postquam audivit. And after he heard this.

59. The Subordinating conjunctions are—

a. Final—

LATIN.	ENGLISH.
<i>Ut, quo;</i> and negative <i>nē, quominus.</i>	That (<i>followed by may or might</i>), in order to, to <i>with the Infinitive</i> ; that not, lest, etc.

¹ Latin has three Copulative conjunctions to represent our "and,"—*et; atque, ac;* and *-que*. *Et* simply couples words and clauses; *-que* couples two words as forming one whole, *se suaque*, etc., or connects a closely related clause; *atque* connects with emphasis, "and also," "and I may say."

Ac, the shorter form of *atque*, must never be used before words that begin with a vowel.

Aut . . . aut, and *vel . . . vel*, both answer to the English *either . . . or*, but *aut* marks a sharp distinction: *Hoc aut verum est aut falsum*, This is either true or false, *i.e.* if it is true, it is not false. *Vel (ve)* is connected with *velle*; and treats the difference as unimportant: "whichever you like."

Hoc velim vel vi vel clam facias.

I would have you do this either by force or secretly (as you prefer).

Hence *vel . . . vel* is often equivalent to *et . . . et*, and both = *alike . . . and*.

Vir vel (et) ingenio vel (et) virtute insignis.

A man remarkable *alike* for his ability *and* his goodness.

An is only used for "or" in questions. (See 159.)

b. Consecutive—

LATIN.

Ut; ut non, quin.

ENGLISH.

So that, so as to; so as not to, etc.

c. Temporal—

Quum, ubi, ut; quamdiu, dum; quoad, donec, priusquam, antequam; postquam.

When, as soon as; while, as long as; until, before that; after that, etc.

d. Causal—

Quod, quia, quoniam, quandoquidem, often quum; non quo.

Because, since, inasmuch as, seeing that, whereas; not that, not because, etc.

e. Conditional—

Si; nisi, si non; sive, seu; also dum, modo; dum ne, modo ne.

If; unless, if not; whether . . . or; provided that, so long as, on the condition that, etc.

f. Comparative and Proportional—

*Quam; quasi, tanquam, sicut, ut, quemadmodum, proinde ac; quo . . . eo, with comparatives.*Than; as, as if, as though, just as, in proportion as; *the* (old abl.) more . . . *the* more, etc.

g. Concessive—

Etsi, tametsi, quamquam, quamvis, licet, ut.

Although, albeit, etc.

h. Defining or Explanatory—

Quod, ut: but their use is limited in Latin, their place being largely taken by the infinitive mood.That (He says, or knows, etc., *that* I did it. It is true *that* he did it, etc.) Used most widely in English and modern languages.

i. Interrogative (with dependent clauses)—

Cur, utrum, an, num; quemadmodum, ut; cur, quamobrem; ubi, quando.

Whether . . . or, if; how; why, wherefore; where, when.

Observe in how many different senses *ut* and *quum* are used.60. The relative *qui* is used also very commonly in place of subordinating conjunctions: see Exercises LXIII, LXIV.

ANALYSIS OF THE LATIN SENTENCE.

61. By a **sentence**, whether in Latin or in English, we mean a grammatical combination of words, which either (1) makes a *statement*, or (2) asks a *question*, or (3) conveys a *command* or desire.

Every such sentence, however long or however short, consists of two parts:—

62. First, a **subject**—that of which something is stated, asked, or desired; secondly, a **predicate**—that which is stated, asked, or desired in reference to that subject.

He is well.	Is he well?	May he be well!
<i>Valet.</i>	<i>Valetne?</i>	<i>Valeat!</i>

In each of these sentences *he* (expressed in Latin by the termination, or personal inflexion of the verb: see 12) is the *subject*, the rest is the *predicate*. (See 11.)

63. But such short sentences are rare in all languages. They are shorter in Latin than in English for the reason given in 12.

The following more ordinary form of sentence is one that occurs in Bk. i. c. 1 of Caesar *de Bello Gallico*:—

Hi omnes lingua, institutis, moribus, inter se differunt.

These all (or all of these) differ from one another in language, institutions, and habits.

Here in both languages *Hi omnes* (these all) is the *subject*; all the rest is the *predicate*. The main part of the predicate is the verb *differunt*, the rest being *adjuncts* or additions to the verb, explaining and limiting it, telling us *from whom* all of these differ, and *in what points*.

64. A sentence of this kind, whether short (as the examples in 62) or longer (as that in 63), is called a *simple sentence*.

By a **simple sentence** we mean one which consists of a single subject and a single predicate.

65. *Obs.*—Sometimes there is a *single predicate* and *two or more subjects* united by conjunctions, as

You and I lifted up our hands.
You and I are old.

Sometimes a *single subject* with *two or three predicates*, as

The army *put to flight* and *killed* many of the enemy.

These are sometimes called *contracted sentences*, as they are a shortened form of such sentences as,

You lifted up your hands, *and* I lifted up my hands.

It may be better to look on them as simple sentences with a subject or predicate consisting of two or more words, united by the conjunction *and*. (See 27.)

66. In both languages the **subject** will always be a substantive of some kind, or its equivalent. The equivalent may be a substantival pronoun (33), or an adjective, participle, or adjectival pronoun used as a substantive (31), or an *infinitive mood* (51), or some combination of words, used as a substantive. (See Examples in 67.)

67. The **predicate** will always consist either of a verb, or else of some adjective,¹ substantive, or combination of words, connected with the subject by a verb expressed or understood (see 49), *e.g.*:—

Caesar vixit. Caesar *has lived*.

Sapientes sunt beatissimi. Wise men *are the happiest*.

Hic rex est. He (this man) *is king*.

Agnum colere mihi delectationi est. Cultivating the land (or farming) *is a delight to me*.

Obs.—Where the link verb is omitted we supply it (at least in English and Latin) in thought.

Happy the good!

Quot homines tot sententiae.

(There are) as many views as there are men.

68. The subject may, even in a simple sentence, be greatly *enlarged* or prolonged by the addition of *adjectives*, *adjectival phrases*,² *pronouns*, words in *apposition*, etc.

Boni reges amantur. Good kings are loved.

Caius, vir optimus et magnae auctoritatis, interficitur.

Caius, *an excellent man and of great influence*, is slain.

¹ The adjective is specially adapted for a predicate; it may even be said that the substantive when used as a predicate is used adjectivally.

² By an adjectival phrase we mean some word or combination of words other than an adjective used in place of an adjective:—

vir summae fortitudinis = *vir fortissimus*.

haec res tibi magnae erit delectationi = *gratissima*.

69. So also the **predicate** may be enlarged and made more distinct and intelligible by the addition of oblique cases of substantives to the verb to express its nearer and remoter objects; and these substantives may have in their turn various adjuncts, such as adjectives or other substantives in apposition.

Pater filio, puero aetatis tenerae carissimo, librum pretiosissimum Romae emptum, dono dedit. The father gave his much-loved son of tender years a present of a costly book bought at Rome.

“The father” is the subject; all the rest is the predicate.

Obs.—The verb *dedit* says of the father that he gave something. The dative case *dono*, closely combined with the verb, explains (by a special use of that case) that what he gave he gave *as*, or *for*, a present. The dative case *filio* does the regular work of the dative, *i.e.* specifies the remoter object of that gift, the son who benefited by it; the substantive and adjective in apposition, together with the adjectival phrase *aetatis tenerae*, give some further particulars as to that remoter object.

The accusative case *librum* completes the idea vaguely expressed by *dono dedit*. It performs the proper function of the accusative case, as it completes the idea only half expressed by a transitive verb, by supplying the (nearer) object of the verb. (See 38.)

It is in turn made more distinct by its combination with an adjective, *pretiosissimum*, and a participle combined with the local case of a noun, *Romae emptum*. These tell us its value, and the place where it was purchased.

But the main and essential parts of the predicate are the verb *dedit* with its two accompanying cases *filio* and *librum*.

70. Again, the action described by the verb may be explained and made distinct by the addition of *adverbs*, or of substantives used **adverbially** (especially the ablative and locative cases), *adverbial phrases*, *participles*, *gerunds*, *gerundives*, or *adjectives* used adverbially; *e.g.*

Diu vixit. He lived long.

Vixit nonaginta annos. He lived ninety years.

Fame interiit. He died of famine.

Summa cum celeritate venit (= celerrime venit). He came with the utmost speed.

Londini *vixit*. He lived *at London*.

Pugnans *interficitur*. He is killed *while fighting*.

Sui liberandi causa *pugnavit*. He fought *to free himself*.

Invitus *hoc feci*. I did this *unwillingly*.

In each of these sentences we have adverbs, or their equivalents, fulfilling the proper function of adverbs, *i.e. qualifying and explaining the action described by the verb*.

71. The verb, instead of being, as in the example above, a very important part of the predicate, may serve as little more than a **link to connect together** the subject and predicate.

Ego consul ero. I shall be consul.

Here the verb *ero* is a mere link (adding however the idea of time) between the subject and predicate.

So other verbs in a less degree.

Rex Numa appellatur. The king *is named* Numa.

(See 50.)

In such cases the predicate and subject will, as already explained, be in the same case, as it is their agreement or identity that the verb asserts.

72. The use of the **adjective**, when it stands in such sentences as the **predicate**, must be distinguished from its use as an **attribute**. (See 8.)

Hic rex bonus (predicate) est. *Reges boni (attribute) amantur*.

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

73. Simple sentences are in English and in Latin rather the exception than the rule.

In Latin, as in English, we can neither converse nor write without using sentences which are either combined with, or contain within themselves as part of their subject or predicate, other sentences or clauses.¹

I. CO-ORDINATION.

74. Sentences are combined together by **Co-ordination**. That is, two or more sentences are placed side by side in combination with each other; they stand to each other on equal terms; one is grammatically as important as the other. (See 54.)

75. Such sentences are connected in English and Latin by co-ordinating conjunctions, *and*, *but*, *for*; *et*, *aut*, *nam*, etc.

You do this, *but* I do that;
I shall go home, *for* I am tired;
Either you must go, *or* I shall (go).

For a list of English and Latin co-ordinating conjunctions, see 56.

76. It has been stated that even the relative *qui*, among its other uses, is frequently used to connect two co-ordinated sentences. (See 58.)

In English also this is the case, though more rarely;

I met your son, who told me that you were at home.

Here *who*=*and* *he*.

¹ The term *clause* is used for the various *sub-sentences* which make up the whole compound sentence.

Notice again how many sentences, and even chapters, in Caesar and other Latin authors begin with a relative.

Obs.—Sometimes co-ordinate sentences are placed side by side without any conjunction.

Veni, vidi, vici. I came, I saw, I conquered.
Contempsit Catilinae gladios, non pertimescam tuos.

77. The syntax of the co-ordinate sentence will cause no special difficulty. The characteristic of a co-ordinate sentence is, that it does not *grammatically depend on another*; it is a sentence combined with another, but on an *independent footing*. The mood and tense of its verb, the case of its noun or nouns, are in no way dependent upon any other sentence.

II. SUBORDINATION.

78. Sentences may be joined together by SUBORDINATION.

A **sentence** may consist of different **clauses**, each containing its own verb, so combined that we have one principal or main clause, containing the principal verb, to which other clauses stand, so far as grammar is concerned, in a *subordinate* or dependent position.

Hereupon the commodore, after he had cast anchor, sent some of his men to land, and ordered them to ask whether provisions and water could be procured, if the fleet that was yet to come should need them.

Here we have what we may call a *double compound sentence*; *i.e.* two co-ordinate main clauses (in italics) connected by *and*, each with one or more subordinate clauses dependent on it.

79. Such subordinate clauses will answer to the three different parts of speech—the substantive, the adjective, and the adverb,—which form with the verb the chief component parts of a sentence.

i. Substantival.

80. They may be **SUBSTANTIVAL**. That is, they may stand in the relation of **substantives** to the verb of the principal clause.

The following are three clearly marked instances of different kinds of substantival clauses—

- (a) *Se regem esse dixit.* He said *that he was a king.*
- (b) *Quid fieret quaesivit.* He asked *what was being done.*
- (c) *Ut sibi ignoscerem oravit.* He entreated me *to pardon him.*

In each of these Latin sentences the main clause consists of a single word, the verbs *dixit*, *quaesivit*, *oravit*; but each has appended to it a subordinate clause, answering to an accusative case, and containing (a) a statement, (b) a question, (c) an entreaty.

ii. Adjectival.

81. Subordinate clauses may also be **ADJECTIVAL**. By this we mean that they may stand in the same relation to the principal clause as an **attributive adjective**. (See 8.)

They include all such "clauses" as are introduced by *qui* in its simplest use as the relative; used, that is, to define or specify some previous substantive expressed or understood.

They are called **adjectival** because they define more closely such **antecedent** substantive or pronoun, precisely as an adjective or a substantive used as an adjective, *i.e.* in apposition, would do.

For "*Boni reges amantur*" we may say "*Reges, qui boni sunt, amantur.*"

For "*Servorum fidelissimum misi*" we may say "*Servum misi, quem fidelissimum habui.*"

For "*Cicero Consul*" we may say "*Cicero, qui Consul est,*" or "*fuit.*"

iii. Adverbial.

82. There also is a great variety of ADVERBIAL clauses.

By these we mean those which add to the principal clause, grammatically complete without them, some further clause expressing *end in view, result, time, cause, condition, contrast, likeness*.

These clauses play the part of **adverbs** or **adverbial phrases** to the main clause. Compare—

<i>Hoc consulto feci,</i>	with	<i>Hoc feci ut tibi placerem ;</i>
I did this <i>purposely,</i>	with	I did this <i>in order that I might</i> <i>please you ;</i>

where the adverbs *consulto* and *purposely* are replaced by *adverbial clauses*.

Or take an English sentence—

I will do this conditionally.

We have here a simple sentence, in which the predicate is qualified by the adverb *conditionally*. Substitute—

I will do this, *if (or on the condition that) you do that*.

Here we have no longer a simple but a compound sentence, the principal clause, *I will do this*, being qualified by a subordinate adverbial clause.

83. These **adverbial** clauses are divided into seven classes—

1. Final, those which denote a *purpose*.
2. Consecutive, ,, *result*.
3. Temporal, ,, *time*.
4. Causal, ,, *reason or cause*.
5. Conditional, ,, *supposition*.
6. Concessive or adversative, *contrast*.
7. Comparative, ,, *comparison or proportion*.

84. They are connected with the main clause sometimes by subordinating conjunctions, a list of which has been given above (see 59), sometimes by the relative *qui*, the use of which is in Latin far wider and more varied than in English.

85. The following are instances :—

Final,	.	Huc veni, <i>ut te viderem.</i> I came here <i>in order to see you.</i>
Consecutive,	.	Humi cecidit <i>ut crus frangeret.</i> He fell on the ground <i>so as to break his leg.</i>
Temporal,	.	<i>Quum haec dixisset,</i> abire voluit. <i>When he had spoken thus,</i> he wished to depart.
Causal,	.	<i>Quod haec fecisti,</i> gratias tibi ago. I return thanks to you <i>for acting thus.</i>
Conditional,	.	<i>Si hoc feceris</i> poenas dabis. <i>If you do this</i> you will be punished.
Concessive,	.	<i>Quanquam festino,</i> tamen hic morabor. <i>Though I am in haste,</i> yet I will delay here.
Comparative or Modal,)	<i>Proinde ac meritis</i> es te utar. I will deal with you <i>as you have deserved.</i>

In each case the subordinate clause, or its substitute in English, is in italic letters, the main clause in Roman.

ORDER OF WORDS AND CLAUSES IN A LATIN SENTENCE.

86. The order of words in a Latin sentence differs, in many important respects, from the English order. There are very few sentences in which the natural order of one language corresponds to that of the other. There is much greater freedom and variety in Latin, especially as regards substantives, adjectives, pronouns, and verbs. For these parts of speech are each susceptible of a great variety of changes in their terminations, called *inflexions*. It is these inflexions, and not their place in the sentence, which mark the relations of words to other words. As we have far fewer of these inflexions in English, we are obliged to look for the precise meaning of a word, not to its *form* but to its *position*.

87. If we take the English sentence, "The soldier saw the enemy," we cannot invert the order of the two substantives, and write "The enemy saw the soldier," without entirely changing the meaning; but in Latin we may write *miles vidit hostem*, *hostem vidit miles*, or *miles hostem vidit*, without any further change than that of shifting the emphasis from one word to another.

But for all this the following rules should be carefully attended to in writing Latin, and variations from them noticed in reading Latin prose authors.

ARRANGEMENT OF WORDS.

88. The subject of the sentence, the **nominative** case, stands, as in English, at the beginning of or early in the sentence.

Caesar, or *Tum Caesar exercitum in Aeduorum fines ducit*.
Compare—Thereupon Caesar leads his army into the territory of the Aedui.

89. The *verb* (or if not the verb, some important part of the predicate) comes last of all, as *ducit* in the sentence above.

Ea res mihi fuit gratissima.

That circumstance was most welcome to me.

Obs.—*Sum*, when used as a link verb, rarely comes last.

90. But if great stress is laid on the verb it is placed at the beginning, and the subject removed to the last place.

Tulit hoc vulnus graviter Cicero. Cicero doubtless felt this wound deeply.

Est caeleste nūmen. There really is, or there exists, a heavenly power.

This position of *sum* often distinguishes its **substantive** from its **copulative** and **auxiliary** uses. (See 49, *Obs.*)

91. For it must always be remembered that

The degree of **prominence** and **emphasis** to be given to a word is that which mainly determines its position in the sentence. And,

The two emphatic positions in a Latin sentence are the *beginning* and the *end*. By the former our attention is raised and suspended, while the full meaning of the sentence is rarely completed till the last word is reached.

Hence, from the habit of placing the most important part of the predicate, which is generally the verb, last of all, we rarely see a Latin sentence from which the last word or words can be removed *without destroying the life*, so to speak, of the whole sentence.

This can easily be illustrated from any chapter of a Latin author.

N.B. // 92. The more **unusual** a position is for any word, the more emphatic it is *for that word*. Thus

Arbores seret diligens agricola, quarum adspiciet baccam ipse nunquam.—(Cic.)

Here the adverb is made emphatic by position; in English we must express the emphasis differently, as by "though the day will never come when he will see their fruit."

A word that generally stands close by another receives emphasis by *separation* from it; especially if it be thus brought near the beginning or end of a sentence.

Voluptatem percepi maximam. Propterea quod aliud iter haberent nullum. Aedui equites ad Caesarem omnes revertuntur.

93. As regards the interior arrangement of the sentence, **governed words**, such as (1) the accusative or dative, expressive of the nearer or remoter objects of verbs, or (2) genitive or other cases governed by a noun or adjective or participle, come usually *before*, not as in English *after*, the words which govern them.

Hunc librum filio *dedi*.

Compare—I gave this book to my son.

Frater tuus tui est simillimus.

Compare—Your brother is exceedingly like you.

94. Adjectives, when used as attributes, are oftener than not placed *after* the noun with which they agree; but the pronoun *hic*, and monosyllabic pronouns and adjectives of number or quantity, *before*, as in English.

Vir bonus; civitas opulentissima; haec opinio; permulti homines.

When a substantive is combined both with an adjective and a genitive, the usual order is this—

Vera animi magnitudo. True greatness of mind.

95. A word in apposition generally stands, as does the adjective, after the word to which it relates.

Q. Mucius augur; M. Tullius Cicero consul; Pythagoras philosophus.

Luxuria et ignavia, pessimae artes.

96. Adverbs and their equivalents, such as ablative and other cases, and adverbial phrases, come before the verbs which they qualify.

Hic rex diu vixit. This king lived *long*.

Agrum ferro et igni vastavit. He laid waste the land *with fire and sword*.

Libenter hoc feci. I did this *cheerfully*.

Triginta annos regnavit. He reigned *thirty years*.

97. But in all these cases the usual order may be reversed to a far greater extent than in English for the sake of emphasis.

98. *Enim, vero, autem, quoque, quidem* (with the *enclitics*,¹ *-que, -ve, nē*), cannot be the first words of a clause; *quoque* and *quidem* follow the words to which they belong.

99. The negative adverbs *non, haud, neque*, are placed always before the words which they qualify; *ne quidem*, "not even," always enclose the word which they emphasise: as, *ne hic quidem*, "not even he."

¹ An enclitic is a word which does not stand by itself, but is written at the end of the word which it qualifies: *-nē* (interrogative), *-quē* = and, *-vē* = or, are the commonest Latin enclitics.

ARRANGEMENT OF CLAUSES.

Substantival Clauses.

100. **Substantival Clauses**, whether statements, questions, or commands, usually come before the verb on which they depend. (See 80.)

Errare se ait. He says *that he is wrong*.

Quid fiat dicam. I will tell *you what is being done*.

(Ut) hoc facias oro. I beg *you to do this*.

English and Latin here differ exactly as they do in the position of the accusative case, which in English *follows*, and in Latin *precedes*, the verb.

101. But if the dependent clause is long and important, and the principal clause short and unemphatic, the order is generally reversed.

Respondet ille, si velit secum colloqui, etc. (introducing a long speech).

Quaeris cur hoc homine tanto opere delecter

Oro ut me, sicut antea, attente audiatis.

Adjectival Clauses.

102. The **relative clause** is placed often where it would stand in an English sentence.

But it may be placed earlier and more in the centre of the sentence than is possible in English.

In his, quae nunc instant, periculis.

In these dangers *which now threaten us*.

This is accounted for by the principle laid down in 91, and the relative clause often, for the same reason, precedes the main clause.

Quam quisque norit artem, in hac se exerceat.

Let each practise the profession with which he is acquainted.

Adverbial Clauses.

103. These, like the adverbs in a simple sentence, usually, unless very emphatic, come *before* the main clause.

They are placed, in fact, much as they would be in an English sentence, but with a greater tendency to place the main and more emphatic clause last. (See 91.)

104. **Temporal clauses** such as, *haec ubi audivit*, etc., together with ablative absolutes (*hoc comperto*, etc.), and participial phrases, *id veritus*, etc., often, like adverbs of time and place, *tum*, *ibi*, *deinde*, etc., form the opening word of a sentence.

So also clauses introduced by *quum* (temporal), *quoniam* (causal), *quanquam* (concessive), *si* (conditional), *sicut* (comparative), usually come before the main clause; as do final clauses (*ut . . . ne . . .*), more frequently than in English.

But **consecutive clauses** (*ut*, so that) usually, as in English, follow the main clause.

105. The following are examples of the *usual* order:—

Quum haec dixisset, abiit (temporal).	Having said this, he departed.
Si futurum est, fiet (con- ditional).	If it is to be, it will come to pass.
Ut sementem feceris, ita metes (comparative).	You will reap as you have sown.
Quoniam vir es, congregi- amur (causal).	Since you are a man, let us close in fight.
Romani, quanquam fessi erant, tamen obviam pro- cedunt (concessive).	The Romans advanced to meet (them) in spite of their fatigue.
Esse oportet, ut vivas. } (final).	You should eat to live.
Haec ne facias, abi. }	To avoid doing this, begone.
Quis fuit tam ferreus, ut mei non misereretur (consecutive).	Who was so hard-hearted as not to pity me?

106. It may be well to add that a repeated word, or a word akin to another in the sentence (such as one pronoun to another), is generally placed as near to that word as possible.

Nulla virtus virtuti contraria est. No kind of *virtue* is opposed to *virtue*.

Te-nē ego aspicio? Is it *you* whom *I* see?

Aliis aliunde est periculum. Danger threatens *different* men from *different* quarters.

Timor timorem pellit. *Fear* banishes *fear*.

We see that Latin has a great advantage in this respect over English.

107. Of two corresponding *clauses* or *groups* of words of parallel construction, the order of the first is often *reversed* in the second: so that two of the *antithetical* words are as *near* as possible.

Fragile corpus animus sempiternus movet. Ratio nostra consentit; pugnat oratio. Quae me moverunt, movissent eadem te profecto.

To many of these rules exceptions may be found. For the order in Latin is determined, as has been already said, not by any strict rules, but by considerations of **emphasis, clearness, sound, rhythm, variety**, some of which sometimes defy explanation, but which may be easily noticed and understood by any one who reads Latin with observation and intelligence.

As a general rule, in any but the shortest clause the **English order is sure to be ill adapted to a Latin sentence.**

EXERCISES.

EXERCISE I.

ELEMENTARY AND GENERAL RULES.

MOST of the following rules necessarily follow from what has been said in the Introduction. Two or three are added on constructions of exceedingly frequent occurrence.

1. A finite verb (see Intr. 51) agrees with its *subject* (or its nominative case) in *number* and *person*.

Avis canit. The bird sings.
Aves canunt. The birds sing.

2. An adjective, pronoun, or participle agrees with the substantive to which it is attached, or of which it is predicated, in *gender*, *number*, and *case*. (Intr. 8, 9.)

Rex ille, vir justissimus, plurima foedera pactus est. That just king contracted many treaties.

3. When to a substantive or personal pronoun there is added a substantive explaining or describing it, the latter is said to be placed in *apposition* to the former, and must agree *in case* with the substantive to which it is added.

Alexander, *tot regum atque populorum* victor. Alexander, the conqueror of so many kings and nations.

Obs.—The substantive when thus used resembles an adjective. Alexander is here described by one *special quality*. (Intr. 7.)

4. A **transitive** verb, whether active or deponent, is joined with an **accusative** of the *nearer object*; that is to say, of the *person or thing acted upon*.

Sacerdos hostiam cecidit. The priest struck down the victim.

Alius alium hortatur. One man exhorts another.

This rule is invariable; **every really transitive verb governs an accusative.** (See Intr. 38.)

5. But many verbs that are transitive in English must be translated into Latin by what are really intransitive verbs, and are therefore joined with a **dative** of the person (or thing) *interested in* the action of the verb, *i.e.* the *remoter object*. (Intr. 36.) Thus—

I favour you,	tibi <i>faveo</i> ,	(I am favourable <i>to</i> you.)
I obey you,	tibi <i>pareo</i> ,	(I am obedient <i>to</i> you.)
I persuade you,	tibi <i>suadeo</i> ,	(I am persuasive <i>to</i> you.)
I please you,	tibi <i>placeo</i> ,	(I am pleasing <i>to</i> you.)
I spare you,	tibi <i>parco</i> ,	(I am sparing (merciful) <i>to</i> you.)

These verbs, in the passive voice, cannot be used otherwise than impersonally.

You are favoured,	tibi <i>favetur</i> ,	(Favour is shown <i>to</i> you.)
You are spared,	tibi <i>parcitur</i>	etc.
You are pardoned,	tibi <i>ignoscitur</i> .	
You are persuaded,	tibi <i>persuadetur</i> .	
You are obeyed,	tibi <i>paretur</i> .	

6. The dative of the remoter object is sometimes, but by no means always, marked in English by the preposition *to* or *for*.

But it does not express *to* in the sense of *motion to*.

I gave this *to* my father. *Hoc patri meo dedi.*

but

I came *to* my father. *Ad patrem veni.*

For *to* in the sense of motion to a town, see 9, b. *For*, when it means "in defence of," "in behalf of," is expressed by *pro*.

Pro patria mori. To die *for* one's country.

7. The verb *to be*, and such verbs as *to become*, *to turn out*, *to continue*, etc., passive verbs of *being named*, *considered*, *chosen*, *found*, and the like, do not govern any case, but act as links between the subject and predicate, and therefore have the same case after as before them. (See Intr. 49, 50.)

Caius est justus. Caius is a just man.

Scio Caium justum fieri. I know that Caius is becoming just.

Caius imperator salutatus est. Caius was saluted as Imperator.

8. (a.) With passive verbs and participles, "the thing *by which*," or "*with which*" (the instrument), stands in the **ablative**; "the person *by whom*" (the agent), in the ablative **with the preposition *a* or *ab***. (Intr. 41.)

Castra vallo fossaque a militibus munita sunt. The camp has been fortified *by the soldiers with a rampart and ditch*.

(b.) But when "with" means "together or in company with" the preposition *cum* must be used.

Cum telo vēnit. He came *with a weapon*.

Cum Caesare hoc feci. I did this *with Caesar*.

Obs.—*Cum* is written after, and as one word with, the ablatives of the personal and reflexive pronouns (*mecum*, *tecum*, *secum*, *nobiscum*, *vobiscum*), and sometimes after the relative, as *quicum* (abl.), *quibuscum*.

9. (a.) The ablative also expresses the time *at* or *in* which a thing takes place, the accusative the time *during* which it lasts.

Hoc mense quindecim dies aegrotavi. I have been ill for fifteen days in this month.

Tres ibi dies commoratus sum, quarto die domum redii.
I stayed there three days, I returned home on the fourth day.

(b.) With the proper names of **towns** the ablative expresses motion *from*, without a preposition.

Romā venit, "he came from Rome," but *ex* or *ab Italiā*, "from Italy;" also *domo venit*, "he came from home."

Motion *to* a town is expressed by the accusative without a preposition.

Neapolin *rediit*, "he returned to Naples;" but *ad* or *in Italiam*, "to Italy."

The accusatives *domum*, (to) home, and *rus*, to the country, are used in the same way as towns, without a preposition.

10. One substantive in close connexion with another which it defines is put in the **genitive** case.

Horti patris. The gardens of my father = my father's gardens.

Laus ducis. The praise of the general.

Fortium virorum facta. The deeds of brave men.

This case corresponds often to the English possessive case, the only true *case* retained by English substantives.

11. (a.) PRONOUNS.—When a pronoun is the nominative case to a verb, it is not expressed in Latin, except for the sake of *emphasis* or particular *distinction*.

This is because the termination of the verb contains a pronominal element; therefore, to express the pronoun is really to have the person twice repeated. (See Intr. 12.)

Ama-t is a compound word = Love-he, *i.e.* he loves. *Ille amat* means, *As for that man*, he loves. There is a repetition of the pronoun to call special attention to the subject of the verb.

Ego hoc volo. *For myself* I wish this

(b.) When there is a distinction or contrast between persons to be expressed, the personal pronouns must be used.

Tu Tarentum amisisti, ego recēpi. *You* lost Tarentum, *I* retook it.

(c.) Even the *possessive* pronoun is seldom expressed when there can be no doubt as to *whose* the thing is.

Tum ille dextram porrigit. Then he (the other) holds out *his* right hand.

But it must be used when emphatic, *i.e.* = *his own*,

or when its omission would cause a doubt as to the meaning.

Suo se gladio vulneravit. He wounded himself with his (own) sword.

Patrem meum vidi. I have seen my father.

(d.) *He, she, it, they*, and their oblique cases, when they carry no emphasis, but merely *refer* to some person or thing already named, should be translated by *is, ea, id*, not by *ille*. *Ille* is much more emphatic, and often means "the other" in a story where two persons are spoken of, and sometimes "that distinguished person." *Iste* is "that of yours."

(e.) But when *him, her, them* denote the same person as the subject of the verb, *se, sui, sibi* must be used.

He says he (himself) will do it. *Hoc se facturum esse ait.*

The same rule applies to the possessive pronoun *suus*.

12. The relative pronoun *qui* agrees in *gender* and *number* with a substantive or demonstrative pronoun, which is usually expressed in a preceding sentence. Its *case* depends on the construction of its own clause. The substantive to which it thus *refers* (*refero, relativum*) is called its **antecedent** (or *fore-going* substantive).

Ille est equus, quem ēmi. Yonder is the horse which I have bought.

Pontem video, qui flumen jungit. I see a bridge which spans the river.

13. The relative is often used in place of the English conjunctions *and, but, so, etc.*, combined with the pronoun, *he, she, it, etc.* (See Intr. 58.)

Divitias optat, quas adepturus est nunquam. He is praying for riches, *but* is never likely to obtain *them*.

14. PARTICIPLES.—(a.) There is no past participle active in Latin except with deponent verbs. (Intr. 45.)

We can say *secutus* for "having followed," from *sequor* (verb dep.) But for "having come," we must say either *quum vēnisset*, or *postquam (ubi) vēnit*.

(b.) With a transitive verb the **ablative absolute** of the passive participle may also be used.

Thus for "having," or "after having, heard this," we may say either *hoc audito*, or *hoc quum audivisset*, or *hoc postquam (ubi) audivit*.

(c.) The participle in *-rus* is always active, and has various meanings.

Hoc facturus est. He is going to, likely to, intending to, ready to, destined to, do this.

15. Where in English two finite verbs are coupled by *and* we may often substitute a Latin participle in the proper case for one, and omit the *and*.

They marvelled *and* went away. *Admirati abiere.*

They heard *and* wondered at him. *Auditum admirati sunt.*

Vocabulary 1.

NOTE.—In the vocabularies hyphens (e.g. in *contem-no*, etc.) have not been inserted on any etymological principle, but simply to mark clearly the inflexions.

<i>again</i> , <i>rursus</i> .	<i>envy</i> , <i>I</i> , <i>in-video</i> , <i>ēre</i> , <i>-vīdi</i> , <i>-visum</i> (<i>dat.</i>). (See 5.)
<i>always</i> , <i>semper</i> .	<i>favour</i> , <i>I</i> , <i>fāveo</i> , <i>ēre</i> , <i>fāvi</i> , <i>fautum</i> (<i>dat.</i>).
<i>and</i> , <i>et</i> , <i>-que</i> , <i>atque</i> , <i>ac</i> . (See Intr. 57, note.)	<i>fire and sword</i> , <i>ferrum et ign-is</i> (<i>abl. -i</i>). ²
<i>arrive (at)</i> , <i>I</i> , <i>per-vēnio</i> , <i>īre</i> , <i>-vēni</i> , <i>-ventum</i> (<i>ad</i> with <i>acc.</i>).	<i>fortunate</i> , <i>fel-ix</i> , <i>-īcis</i> .
<i>begin</i> , <i>I</i> , <i>in-cīpio</i> , <i>ēre</i> , <i>-cēpi</i> , <i>-ceptum</i> .	<i>fourth</i> , <i>quart-us</i> , <i>-a</i> , <i>-um</i> .
<i>blockade</i> , <i>I</i> , <i>ob-sīdeo</i> , <i>ēre</i> , <i>-sēdi</i> , <i>-sessum</i> .	<i>friend</i> , <i>amic-us</i> , <i>-i</i> , <i>m</i> .
<i>brave</i> , <i>fort-is</i> , <i>-e</i> .	<i>halt</i> , <i>I</i> , <i>con-sisto</i> , <i>ēre</i> , <i>-stiti</i> .
<i>but</i> , <i>sed</i> , <i>vero</i> .	<i>hate</i> , <i>I</i> , <i>od-i</i> , <i>isse</i> , <i>-eram</i> . (Perf. with pres. meaning.)
<i>chief</i> , <i>prin-ceps</i> , <i>-cipis</i> , <i>m</i> .	<i>hear</i> , <i>I</i> , <i>aud-io</i> , <i>ire</i> , <i>-ivi</i> , <i>-ītum</i> .
<i>city</i> , <i>urbs</i> , <i>urbis</i> , <i>f</i> .	<i>hour</i> , <i>hor-a</i> , <i>-ae</i> , <i>f</i> .
<i>consul</i> , <i>cons-ul</i> , <i>-ūlis</i> .	<i>human</i> , <i>hūmanus</i> .
<i>day</i> , <i>di-es</i> , <i>-ei</i> , <i>m</i> . ¹	<i>I</i> , <i>ego</i> . (See 11.)
<i>daybreak</i> , <i>prima lux</i> (<i>lūcis</i>).	<i>if</i> , <i>si</i> .
<i>despise</i> , <i>I</i> , <i>contem-no</i> , <i>ēre</i> , <i>-psi</i> , <i>-ptum</i> .	<i>injure</i> , <i>I</i> , <i>nōc-eo</i> , <i>ēre</i> , <i>-ui</i> , <i>-ītum</i> (<i>dat.</i>).
<i>district</i> , <i>ag-er</i> , <i>-ri</i> , <i>m</i> .	<i>January</i> , <i>Januarius</i> .
<i>elected</i> , <i>I am</i> , <i>fi-o</i> , <i>ēri</i> , <i>factus</i> .	<i>lay waste</i> , <i>I</i> , <i>vasto</i> , <i>are</i> .
<i>enemy</i> , <i>host-is</i> , <i>-is</i> .	<i>march (subst.)</i> , <i>it-er</i> , <i>-inēris</i> , <i>n</i> .
	<i>messenger</i> , <i>nunti-us</i> , <i>-i</i> , <i>m</i> .

¹ Occasionally fem. in sing. only.

² Note order. *Ferrum*, "iron," used for "sword" in metaphorical sense. (See 17.)

mid-day, meridi-es, -ei, *m.*
month, mens-is, -is, *m.*
my, meus. (11, c.)
never, nunquam.
now, jam = *by this time*, can be used of the past; nunc, at the present, at the moment of speaking. (328, b.)
obey, I, pār-eo, ēre, -ui (*dat.*). (See 5.)
people, pōpul-us, -i, *m.*
race, gēn-us, -ēris, *n.*
right hand, dextr-a, -ae, *f.*
Roman, Romānus.
send (to), I, mitto, ēre, misi, missum (*ad.*). (6.)
send for, arcess-o, ēre, -īvi, -ītum (*acc.*).

show, I, monstro, are.
sometimes, interdum.
spare, I, parco, ēre, peperci, (*dat.*). (See 5.)
speak, I, lō-quer, -qui, -cūtus.
stretch forth, I, por-rigo, ēre, -rexi, -rectum.
take by assault, I, expugno, are.
that (pron.), ill-e, -a, -ud.
three, tres, tria.
to (motion), ad (*acc.*). (See 6.)
town, oppid-um, -i, *n.*
you, tu, *pl.* vos. (11, a and b.)
vote, suffragi-um, -i, *n.*
waste. (See lay.)
way, vi-a, -ae, *f.*

Exercise 1.

1. I have been elected consul by the votes of the Roman people; you are favoured by the enemies of the human race. 2. The town had now been blockaded for three days; it was taken by assault on the fourth day. 3. I sent three messengers to you in the month (of) January.¹ 4. If you are (*fut.*) obeyed I shall be spared. 5. That district had been laid waste by the enemy² with fire and sword. 6. I am envied, but you are despised. 7. Fortune favours the brave (*pl.*), but sometimes envies the fortunate. 8. Having arrived at the city at daybreak he sent for the chiefs. 9. I never injured you, but you have always envied me, and you hate my friends. 10. Having heard this he halted for three hours, but at mid-day began his march again. 11. Having spoken thus,³ and having stretched⁴ forth his right hand he showed him the way.

¹ *Januarius* is properly an adjective.

² Plural; the singular *hostis* is used sometimes like our "enemy," as a collective noun. (Intr. 29, c.)

³ "These things," *haec*.

⁴ Abl. abs., *lit.* his right hand having been stretched out. (14, b.)

EXERCISE II.

MEANING OF WORDS AND PHRASES.

THOUGH Latin words answering to all the English words in the following Exercises will be found in the Vocabularies, yet some care and thought will be necessary, even with their aid.

16. The same English word is often used in very different senses, some **literal**, some **figurative**. It is most unlikely that a single word in Latin will answer to all the various meanings of a single English word.

(a.) Thus we use the word "country" (connected through the French with the Latin *contra*, "opposite to us") in a great variety of meanings: "rural districts" as opposed to "town;" "our native land," as opposed to a foreign country; "the territory," of any nation; "the state," as opposed to an individual; even "the inhabitants or citizens of a country." Each of these senses is represented by a different word in Latin. Thus:—

Rus abiit. He went into the *country*.

Pro patria mori. To die for one's (native) land or *country*.

In fines or in agros Helvetiorum exercitum duxit. He led his army into the *country* of the Helvetii.

Rei publicae (or civitati) non sibi consuluit. He consulted the interests of the *country*, not of himself.

Civibus omnibus carus fuit. He was dear to the whole *country* (or *nation*).

No Vocabulary or Dictionary therefore will be of any real use, unless we clearly understand the precise meaning of the English.

(b.) Again, we might meet with the word "world" in an English sentence; but we cannot translate it into Latin till we know whether it means "the whole universe," or

“this globe,” or “the nations of the world,” or “people generally,” or “mankind,” or “life on earth.”

Num casu factus est mundus? Was the *world* (sun, moon, stars, and earth) made by chance?

Luna circum tellurem movetur. The moon moves round the *world* (this planet).

Orbi terrarum (or omnibus gentibus) imperabant Romani.
The Romans were rulers of the *world*.

Omnes (homines) insanire eum credunt. The whole *world* thinks him out of his mind.

Nemo usquam. No one in the *world*.

Multum hominibus nocuit. He did the *world* much harm.

In hac vita nunquam eum sum visurus. I am never likely to see him in this *world*.

With words therefore used in such different senses we must ask ourselves their precise meaning. Great assistance will be given in the present book; but the learner cannot too soon learn to dispense with this kind of aid, and to think for himself.

17. There are a great number of **metaphorical expressions** in English which we cannot possibly render literally into Latin. We say, “His son ascended the throne,” or “received the crown,” or “lost his crown;” and we might be tempted to translate such phrases literally after finding out the words for “to ascend,” for “a throne,” for “to receive,” for “a crown,” and so on.

But the fact is that these words when so combined **mean** something quite different from what they **say**, and to translate the actual words literally would be to say in Latin something quite different from the idea which the English conveys.

Filius solium ascendit, or conscendit, would (except in a poem) merely mean that his son “went up,” or “climbed up,” a throne; *Filius coronam accepit* that he “received a (festal or other) garland.” A Roman would certainly say *regnum excepit*, “received in turn (inherited) the sovereignty.”

Obs.—This is only a specimen of the kind of mistakes which we may make by not asking ourselves what words *mean* as well as what they *say*.

Compare such common expressions as "he held his peace," "he took his departure," answering to *conticuit, abiit*. Mistakes in such phrases as these are more likely to occur in translating longer passages without the aid afforded in these Exercises; but the warning cannot be too early given.

18. There are many English words whose **derivation from Latin words** is obvious. We are apt to think that if we know the parent word in Latin we cannot do better than use it to represent the English descendant, which so much resembles it in sound and appearance; but we can hardly have a worse ground than that of the similarity of *sound* in Latin and English words on which to form our belief that their *meaning* is identical. Most of these words have come to us through the French, *i.e.* through a language spoken by Roman soldiers and settlers, and borrowed from them by the Gauls; the Gauls in turn communicated the dialect of Latin which they spoke to their German conquerors; from these the Normans, a Scandinavian people, learnt, and adopted, what was to them a foreign tongue, with words from which, after conquering England, they enriched the language spoken by our English or Saxon forefathers. It would be strange if the meaning of words had not altered greatly in such a process.

When, therefore, we meet such a word as "office" in an Exercise we must beware of turning it by *officium*, which means "a duty," or an "act of kindness." We shall learn in time, by careful observation, when the English and Latin kindred words correspond in meaning, and when they differ, but we cannot too early learn that they **generally differ**.

19. Thus—

"Acquire" is not *acquirere*, but *adipisci, consequi*.

A man's "acts" are not *acta*, but *facta*.

"Attain to" is not *attinere ad*, or *attingere ad*, but *pervenire ad*, or *consequi*.

"Famous" is not *famosus*, but *praeclarus*.

"Mortal" (wound) is not (*vulnus*) *mortale*, but *mortiferum*.

"Nation" is not *natio*, but *civitas, populus, res publica, cives*.

"Obtain" is not *obtinere*, but *consequi, adipisci, etc.*

- “Office” is not *officium*, but *magistratus*.
 “Oppress” is not *opprimere*, but *vexare*, etc.
 “Perceive” is not *percipere*, but *intellegerere*.
 “Receive” is not *recipere*, but *accipere*.
 “Ruin” (as a metaphor) is not *ruina*, but *pernicies*,
interitus, etc.
 “Secure” (safe) is not *securus*, but *tutus*.
 “Vile” is not *vilis*, but *turpis*.

These are only specimens. The Vocabularies will be a sufficient guide, but the learner cannot too early be on his guard against a fruitful source of blunders, or learn too soon to lay aside, as far as possible, the use of vocabularies and similar aids, and trust to his own knowledge as gained from reading Latin.

Vocabulary 2.

<p><i>acquire</i>, I, ad-ipiscor, i, -eptus. (See 19.) <i>admire</i>, I, admir-or, āri, -atus. <i>advantage</i>, emolument-um, -i, n. <i>all (things)</i>, (n. pl.), omnia. <i>as regards</i> = <i>from (the side of)</i>, a, ab (abl.). <i>attain to</i> = <i>arrive at</i>. Voc. 1. (19.) <i>both . . . and</i>, et . . . et. <i>boy</i>, pu-er, -eri. <i>care</i>. (See <i>free</i>.) <i>country</i>, rus, ruris, n.; patri-a, -ae, f. (See 16, a.) <i>crown</i>, regn-um, -i, n. (See 17.) <i>din</i>, strepit-us, -ūs, m. <i>do</i>, I, faci-o, ěre, fēci, factum. <i>empire</i>, imperi-um, -i, n. <i>ever</i> = <i>always</i>. Voc. 1. <i>famous</i>, praeclarus.¹ (19.) <i>father</i>, pat-er, -ris. <i>fight</i>, I, pugno, āre. <i>for (conj.)</i>, nam, enim. (Intr. 98.) <i>for (prep.)</i>, pro (abl.). (6.) <i>forefathers</i>, major-es,² -um.</p>	<p><i>foretell</i>, I, praedi-co, -ěre, -xi. <i>free from care</i>, securus. (19.) <i>from</i>, a, ab (abl.). <i>glory</i>, glori-a, -ae, f. <i>great</i>, magnus. <i>greatly</i>, maxime. <i>Hannibal</i>, Hannib-al, -ālis. <i>highest</i>, summus. <i>hold</i>, I, obtin-eo, ěre, -ui. (19.) <i>hold my peace</i>, I, contic-esco, ěre, -ui. (See 17, Obs.) <i>king</i>, rex, rēgis. <i>last, at</i>, tandem. <i>long (adv.)</i>, diu. <i>made, I am being</i>, fio. (See <i>become</i>, Voc. 1.) <i>means, by no</i>, haudquaquam. <i>mind</i>, anim-us, -i, m. <i>mortal (wound)</i>, morti-fer, -fera, -ferum. (19.) <i>much</i>, multus. <i>native country</i>. (See 16, a.) <i>nation</i>, civit-as,³ -atis, f. (19.) <i>never</i>, nunquam. <i>obedient to, I am</i>, = <i>obey</i>. Voc. 1.</p>
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¹ *Famosus* means “notorious” in a bad sense, “infamous.”

² *Patres* is never used in prose for “forefathers.” Our use of “fathers” in this sense came into English from Hebrew through the Bible.

³ *Natio* is rarely used of a civilised and organised nation; it means a people, or tribe, sprung from one race, of the same blood (*nascor*).

office, magistrat-us, -ūs, m. (19.)
 orator, orāt-or, -ōris.
 pleasing (to), gratus (dat.).
 ready to, I am, vōlo, velle, vōlui.
 receive, I, ac-cipio, ěre, -cēpi,
 -ceptum. (19.)
 reign, I, regno, āre.
 Rome = nation of, populus Romān-
 us. (See 319.)
 ruin, interit-us, -ūs, m.; clad-es,
 -is, f. (19.)
 say, I, dī-co, ěre, -xi, -ctum.
 secure = safe, tutus. (19.)

succeed to, I, (crown) = I inherit
 (see 17), ex-cipio, ěre, -cepi,
 -ceptum.
 sword (metaph.), arm-a, -orum, n.;
 ferr-um, -i, n. (17.)
 this, hic, haec, hoc.
 time, at that, tum. (64.)
 vile, turp-is, -e. (19.)
 violence, vis, abl. vi, f.
 whole, totus.
 world. (16, b.)
 wound, vuln-us, -ěris, n.
 yet, tāmen.

Exercise 2.

1. I was made king by the votes of the whole nation. *omnium civium.*
 2. He attained to the highest offices in (his) native country.
 3. I hate the din of cities; the ^{rus} country is always most
 pleasing to me. 4. Our forefathers acquired this district
 by the sword. 5. The whole world was at that time
 obedient to the empire of Rome. 6. He reigned long;
 the crown which he had acquired by violence he held to¹
 the great advantage of the nation. 7. He was a most
 famous orator, and all the world admired him greatly.
 8. He was most dear to the whole nation, for he was
 ever ready to do all things for the country. 9. He
 received a mortal wound (while) fighting for his native
 land. 10. At last he held his peace; he had said much
 (neut. pl.), and (spoken) long. 11. He succeeded to the
 crown (while) a boy; (as) king he attained to the highest
 glory. 12. He was now secure from all violence, yet he
 was by no means free from care as regards Hannibal.
 13. He never attained to his father's glory, but all things
 that were vile he always hated. 14. He foretold the ruin
 of his country.

¹ Use cum with abl.

EXERCISE III.

MEANING AND USE OF WORDS—Continued.

VERBS.

20. In translating a Verb into Latin, it is most important to be sure of the precise sense in which the verb is used.

We have in English a large number of verbs which are used in two senses, one **transitive**, the other **intransitive** or **reflexive**.

We say "he changed his seat," and "the weather is changing;" "he moved his arm," and "the stars move;" "we dispersed the mob," and "the fog dispersed;" "he turned his eyes," and "he turned to his brother;" "he collected books," and "a crowd collected;" "he joined this to that," "he joined his brother," "the two ends joined."

But in translating such verbs into Latin, we must carefully distinguish between these different senses of the same verb.

If the English transitive verb is used intransitively, or as we should say in Greek in the Middle Voice (as in "the crowd *dispersed*"), we must either (a) use the passive of the Latin verb, or (b) insert the reflexive pronoun *se*, or (c) use a different verb.

21. Thus—

(a.) He <i>changed</i> his seat.	<i>Sedem</i> mutavit.
The weather <i>is changing</i> , or <i>altering</i> .	Mutatur <i>tempestas</i> .
He <i>broke up</i> the crowd.	<i>Multitudinem</i> dissipavit.
The fog <i>broke up</i> .	Dissipata est <i>nebula</i> .
The moon <i>moves</i> round the earth.	<i>Luna</i> circa <i>tellurem</i> movetur.
He <i>moved</i> his arm.	<i>Brachium</i> movit.
He <i>rolled down</i> stones.	<i>Lapides</i> devolvit.
The stones <i>roll down</i> .	Devolvuntur <i>lapides</i> .
(b.) He will <i>surrender</i> the city.	<i>Urbem</i> dēdet.
The enemy will <i>surrender</i> .	Se dēdent <i>hostes</i> .
(c.) Riches <i>increase</i> .	Crescunt <i>divitiae</i> .
He <i>increased</i> his wealth.	<i>Opes suas</i> auxit.
He <i>collected</i> books.	<i>Libros</i> collēgit.
A crowd was <i>collecting</i> .	Conveniebat <i>multitudo</i> .

22. Many English verbs, usually intransitive, become transitive by the addition of a preposition: to hope, to hope *for* (trans.); to wait, to wait *for* (trans.); to sigh (intrans.), to sigh *for* (trans.); similarly "to gaze *on*," "to look *at*," "to smile *at*," and many others.

To determine whether the preposition really belongs to the verb, the verb may be turned into the passive; if the preposition *remains attached to the verb*, we may be sure that the two words form one transitive verb.

He *waits for* his brother. His brother *is waited for*.

To "wait *for*," therefore, is a compound verb; "to wait" is converted by the addition of a preposition from an intransitive to a transitive verb.

Fratrem expectat. *Frater* expectatur.

23. Some of the commonest of such words are—

I aim <i>at</i> distinctions (high office).	<i>Honores</i> peto.
I crave <i>for</i> leisure.	<i>Otium</i> desidēro.
I hope <i>for</i> peace.	<i>Pacem</i> spero.
I listen <i>to</i> you.	<i>Te</i> audio.
I look or wait <i>for</i> you.	<i>Te</i> expecto.
I look round <i>for</i> you.	<i>Te</i> circumspicio.

I look *up at* the sky.

Caelum suspicio.

I pray *for* (*i.e.* desire much) this.

Hoc opto.

But the number of such English verbs is very large.

24. In Latin (as in older English I *forego*, I *bespeak*) an intransitive verb very often becomes transitive by composition with a preposition prefixed to the verb. (See Intr. 24.)

Sedeo, I sit, *obsideo*, I blockade (a town); *vehor*, I am carried, *or* I ride, *praetervehor*, I ride past; *venio*, I come, *convenio*, I have an interview with, as, *ad te vēni, Caesarem convēni.*

25. A single Latin verb will often express an English *verbal phrase*, *i.e.* a combination of a verb with a substantive or other words. Thus—

Taceo, I keep silence; *abeo*, I take my departure; *navigo*, I take, *or* have, a voyage; *insanio*, I am out of my senses; *minor*, I utter threats; *colloquor*, I have a conversation; *te libero*, I give you your liberty; *adeo mortem pertimescit*, such is his terror of death.

Vocabulary 3.

absent, I am, *ab-sum, esse, etc.*

besiege, *obsideo*.¹ (See *blockade*, Voc. 1.)

bestow (*these things on you*), I (*haec tibi*) *larg-ior, īri, -ītus.*

bloody, *cruentus.*

carry on, I = I wage, *gě-ro, ěre, -ssi, -stum.*

country, *in the*, *ruri.*

crave for, I, *desidero, āre. (22, 23.)*

desert, I, *deser-o, ěre, -ui, -tum.*

disperse, to (*intrans.*), *di-labi, -lap-sus. (20.)*

down from, *de* (*abl.*).

eight, *octo* (*indec.*).

endeavour, I, *cōnor, ari.*

exile, *an*, *ex-ul, -ūlis.*

fatal,² *funestus.*

flock together, to, *congregari.*

friend. Voc. 1.

gate, *port-a, -ae, f.*

gather together, to, *con-venire, -vēni, -ventum.*

Heaven (*metaph.*), (17), *Di Immortales.* *Caelum* would mean "the sky."

leisure, *oti-um, -i, n.*

long (*adj. of time*), *diutīnus.*

look for, I, *expecto, are. (22, 23.)*

look round for, I, *circum-spicio, -ěre, -spexi, -spectum. (22, 23.)*

look up at, I, *suspicio, ěre, etc.*

many, *mult-i, -ae, -a.*

mingle with, I (*intrans.*), *im-misceor* (20), *ēri, -mixtus* (*dat.*).

morning, in the, *mānĕ* (*adv.*).

¹ *Obsideo* is "besiege" in the sense of blockading; *oppugno*, in that of assaulting.

² *Fatalis* is "destined," "fated," and may be used either in a good or bad sense. (See 18.)

mountain, mon-s, -tis, m.
multitude, multitud-o, -inis, f.
noon. See *mid-day*, Voc. 1.
obtain, I, ad-ipiscor, -ipisci, -eptus;
 conse-quer, i, -cutus. (19.)
one (of), unus (e, abl.).
our, nost-er, -ra, -rum.
peace, pax, pacis, f.
pray for, I, (*desire much*), opto,
 āre (acc.).
return (subst.), redit-us, -ūs, m.
rock, sax-um, -i, n.
roll, I (*intrans.*), vol-vor (21, a), vi,
 volutus.
soldier, mil-es, -itis.

struck (participle), ictus, (*fr. ico,*
 icēre.)
surrender, I, (*trans.*) de-do, ěre,
 -didi, -ditum; (*intrans.*) me dedo.
 (21, b.)
swarm out of, I, effundor, i, effus-
 us (abl.).
then, tum, tunc.
towards, ad (acc.).
turn, I (*intrans.*), con-vertor, i,
 -versus. (20.)
vain, in, frustrā.
vast,¹ maximus; ingen-s, -tis.
wait for, I, expecto. (22, 23.)
war, bell-um, -i, n.
world. (16, b.)

Exercise 3.

Verbs marked in *italics* are to be expressed by participles, the conjunction that follows to be omitted (15).

1. We all were craving for peace, for we had carried on a long and bloody war. 2. They at last surrendered the city, which-had-been-besieged (*part.*) for eight months (9, a). 3. He prays for peace and leisure, but² he is never likely³ to-obtain these things. 4. All the world is looking for war, but heaven will bestow upon us the peace for which we pray. 5. Then he *turned* (*part.*) towards his friends, and in vain endeavoured to look up at them. 6. He looked round for his friends, but all for whom he looked round (*imperf.*) had deserted him. 7. The enemy *had swarmed* out of the gates and were mingling with our soldiers. 8. The multitude which had gathered together in the morning dispersed before noon. 9. Many rocks were rolling down from the mountains, and one of our guides *was struck* by a vast mass, and received a mortal wound. 10. On that fatal day I craved for you, but you were absent in the country. 11. A vast multitude had flocked together, and was now waiting for the return of the exiles.

¹ *Vastus* does not mean "vast" in size, but either "shapeless," or "waste," "desolate," etc. (See 18.)

² Relative neut. pl. (13) = "which things."

³ "Likely-to," participle in -rus of "to obtain." (See 14, c.)

EXERCISE IV.

AGREEMENT OF THE SUBJECT, OR NOMINATIVE CASE AND VERB.

26. If one verb is predicated of two or more **subjects** of **different** grammatical **persons**, it will be in the plural number, and agree with the first person rather than the second, and with the second rather than the third.

Et ego¹ et tu manus sustulimus. Both you and I raised our hands.

Et tu et frater meus manus sustulistis. Both you and my brother lifted up your hands.

(For the analysis of these sentences see Intr. 65.)

27. But sometimes the verb will be in the **singular** and agree with the subject *nearest itself*.

Et tu ades, et frater tuus. Both you and your brother are here.

28. If a single verb is predicated of several subjects of the **third person**, it may either be in the plural number, or it may agree with the substantive nearest itself.

Appius et soror ejus et frater meus manus sustulerunt.
Appius and his sister and my brother lifted up their hands.

But "*Sustulit manus Appius et soror ejus et frater meus,*" with the same meaning, would be good Latin.

¹ For "Caius and I," the Romans, putting "I" first, said "*Ego et Caius.*" When therefore Cardinal Wolsey said "*Ego et Rex meus,*" he was a good grammarian but a bad courtier. Similarly they placed the second person before the third; "Your brother and you" would be, *Et tu et frater tuus.*

29. After **disjunctive** conjunctions (Intr. 56, *b*), *neque* (*nec*) . . . *neque*; *aut* . . . *aut*, etc., either construction may be used.

Neque tu neque frater tuus adfuistis. Or,
Neque tu adfuisti, neque frater tuus. Neither you nor your brother were present.

But the latter is much more usual.

Obs.—There is therefore great freedom in all these constructions in Latin; greater than is usual in English.¹

30. A singular collective noun (see Intr. 29, *c*) is *occasionally* followed by a plural verb.

Magna pars . . . fūgēre. A large proportion fled.

But *much oftener*, and always if it denotes a united body which acts as one man, it is followed by a singular verb.

Vult populus Romanus. It is the wish of the Roman people, *or*, of the people of Rome.

Exercitus e castris profectus est. The army started from the camp.

Senatus decrevit. The senate decreed.

Obs.—The singular is always used with *Senatus populusque*; the two words are looked on as forming one idea.

In English there is greater freedom; we can use the plural if we think rather of the individuals than of the body as a whole.

The gentry *were* divided in opinion.

Vocabulary 4.

Alexander, Alexand-er, -ri.
army, exercit-us, -ūs, *m.*
before (*prep.*), ante (*acc.*).
brother, frat-er, -ris.
Clitus, Clit-us, -i.
countryman, civ-is, -is.

decree, I, de-cerno, ěre, -crevi, -cretum.
end, fin-is, -is, *m.* (properly, *limit*).
ever, unquam.
exile, I am in, exulo, āre.
flock, gre-x, -gis, *m.*

¹ But compare:—

“The thought that thou art safe, and he.”—COWPER.

“For thine is the kingdom, the power, and the glory.”