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Grammar of the Latin Language

From Plautus to Suetonius

VOLUME 2

HENRY JOHN ROBY





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A GRAMMAR

OF THE

LATIN LANGUAGE

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A GRAMMAR

OF THE

LATIN LANGUAGE

FROM PLAUTUS TO SUETONIUS

Β¥

HENRY JOHN ROBY,
M.A. late FELLOW OF ST JOHN'S COLL. CAMBRIDGE.

IN TWO PARTS

PART II. containing:—
BOOK IV. SYNTAX.

Also PREPOSITIONS &c.

SECOND EDITION

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Table of Contents.

PREFACE.

Observations on Book IV.

Remarks on method observed, p. xvii. Of the analysis of the sentence, p. xxii. Of the syntax of concord, p. xxiv. Of the predicative dative, p. xxiv. Alphabetical list of words so used, p. xxxvii. Of the ablative, p. lvi. Of the so-called genitive (locative) of value, p. lvii. Of the gerund and gerundive, p. lxi.

- Connexion of the various usages, p. lxiii.
 - A. Use of gerund as active and apparently as passive, p. lxiii.
 - B. Rise of (oblique) gerundive, p. lxvii.
 - C. Predicative use of nominative gerund, p. Ixxi.
 - D. Use of gerundive with notion of 'obligation,' p. lxxiii.
 - E. Participial use of verbal stems in -undo, p. lxxviii. Criticism of other theories, p. lxxxi.
- ii. Origin of verbal stem in -undo, p. lxxxv.
- iii. Analogies in other languages, especially English, p. lxxxvii.

History of English form in -ing, p. xciv.

Of the subjunctive mood generally, p. xcvii.

Especially in hypothetical and conditional sentences, p. xcix. Of the expressions dicat aliquis, dixerit aliquis, p. ci.

Instances of videro, &c. p. cvi.

Advice to students of grammar, p. cvii.

Acknowledgment of obligations, p. cviii.

Miscellaneous remarks, p. cix.

Addenda et Corrigenda, p. cxi.



vi Table of Contents. Book IV.

BOOK IV. SYNTAX.

- Chap. I. Classification of words, p. 3.
 - II. Parts of a simple sentence and use of Parts of speech,
 - p. 5.
 - i. Elements of a sentence, p. 5.
 - ii. Of attributes, p. 7.
 - iii. Of predicates, p. 8.
 - iv Of the use of oblique cases and adverbs, p. 9.
 - v. Of coordination by conjunctions and otherwise, p. 11.
 - vi. Of fragmentary or interjectional expressions, p. 11.
 - III. Of the different kinds of sentences,
 - Affirmative, negative, interrogative; simple, compound, p. 12.
 - Coordinate sentences, p. 12.
 - Subordinate sentences, p. 13.
 - IV. Order of words and sentences.
 - i. Order of words in a prose sentence, p. 16.
 - ii. Position of subordinate sentences, p. 22.
 - Use of NOUN INFLEXIONS, especially those of gender and number, p. 23.
 - (A) General usage, p. 23.
 - (B) Use of the Participles, p. 29.
 - As predicate, p. 29; ordinary noun adjective, p. 30; noun substantive, p. 31.
 - VI. Use of Cases, p. 32.
 - VII. Use of Nominative Case, p. 33.
 - (A) Person or thing spoken of.
 - (B) Person (or thing) spoken to.



TABLE OF CONTENTS. BOOK IV.

vii

VIII. Use of Accusative Case, p. 34.

- (A) Compass or measure, p. 34.

 Of space, p. 34; of time, p. 36; extent of action, p. 36; cognate accusative, p. 40; part concerned, p. 40; description, p. 42; use with prepositions, p. 42.
- (B) Place towards which, p. 44.

 An action as goal of motion (active supine),
 p. 46; Use with prepositions, p. 46.
- (C) Direct object, p. 48.
 Double object, p. 50; object of passive verbs, p. 52; in exclamations, p. 52.

IX. Use of Dative Case, p. 54.

(A) Indirect object, p. 54.
Special usages, viz.; of local relation, p. 58;
agent, p. 60; person judging, p. 60; person interested (dativus ethicus), p. 62; person possessing, p. 62; in place of genitive,

p. 62; work contemplated, p. 64.

- (B) Predicative, p. 64.
 With esse, p. 65; with other verbs, p. 65.
- X. Use of Locative and Ablative Cases, p. 68.
 - (A) Place where (Locative and Ablative),

 (B) Instrument (Ablative).

 Place (Loc.), p. 68; (Abl.), p. 70;

 Time (Loc.), p. 74; (Abl.), p. 76;

 Amount (Loc.), p. 78.

 Price, penalty (Abl.), p. 82.

 Amount of difference, p. 84.

 Part concerned, means, cause, p. 86.

 Description, manner, circumstances, p. 96.
 - (C) Place whence (Ablative), p. 108.
 Of place, p. 108; of things, p. 110; origin,
 p. 110; standard of comparison, p. 112.



viii

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Suetonius, Volume 2
Henry John Roby
Frontmatter
More information

TABLE OF CONTENTS. BOOK IV.

- XI. Use of Genitive Case, p. 116.
 - (A) Dependent on nouns or as secondary predicate, p. 116.

Possessor, &c., p. 116; divided whole, p. 120; kind or contents, p. 124; description, p. 126; object, p. 128; thing in point of which, p. 130.

- (B) Dependent on verbs (and some adjectives). Of accusing, &c., p. 132; of pitying, &c., p. 134; of remembering, &c., p. 134; of filling or lacking, p. 136.
- XII. Use of Infinitive, p. 138.
 - (A) Ordinary usages, p. 139.
 As object, p. 139; oblique predicate, p. 142; secondary predicate, p. 143; subject, p. 144; in exclamations, p. 145.
 - (B) As primary predicate to a subject in nominative case, p. 146.
 - (C) As genitive, ablative, or adverbial accusative, p. 147.
- XIII. Tenses of Infinitive, when used,
 - (A) as object, &c., p. 148.
 - (B) as oblique predicate, p. 148.
 - (C) in special usages, p. 150.
- XIV. Use of Verbal Nouns, especially the Gerund and Gerundive. General account, p. 152.
 - (A) Verbal nouns in oblique cases; viz.
 Accusative, p. 154; Dative, p. 156;
 Ablative, i. Locative and Instrumental, p. 158;
 ii. expressing place whence, p. 161;
 Genitive, p. 163.



TABLE OF CONTENTS. BOOK IV.

ix

- (B) Verbal nouns in nominative and (in oblique language) the accusative, p. 164.
- (C) Further uses of gerundive and passive participle, p. 166.
- XV. Use of VERB INFLEXIONS.

Inflexions of voice, p. 171. Construction of passive verbs, p. 174.

- XVI. Use of Verbal Inflexions of Person and Number.
 - i. Subject and predicate contained in verb, p. 177.
 - ii. Subject expressed by a separate word, p. 180.
 - iii. Omission of verbal predicate, p. 182.
- XVII. Of Indicative and Imperative moods and their tenses.
 - (A) Tenses of Indicative, p. 185.
 - i. Time to which the tenses relate, p. 186.
 - ii. Completeness or incompleteness of the action, p. 187.

Principal usages of

Present tense p. 189; Future, p. 191; Imperfect, p. 192; Perfect, p. 194; Completed future, p. 196; Future in -so, p. 197; Pluperfect, p. 198.

Future participle active with verb sum,

Future participle active with verb sum, p. 200.

- (B) Tenses of Imperative, p. 201.
- XVIII. Of the Subjunctive mood and its tenses.
 - i. Of the mood, p. 202.
 - ii. Of the tenses, p. 205.
 - XIX. Typical examples of Subjunctive mood and its tenses.
 - (A) Hypothetical, p. 208; (B) Conditional, p. 209;
 - (C) Optative, Jussive, Concessive, p. 212;



x Table of Contents. Book IV.

- (D) Final, p. 213; (E) Consecutive, p. 214;
- (F) Expressing attendant circumstances, p. 215;
- (G) Expressing reported definitions, reasons, conditions, questions, p. 216;
- (H) Because dependent on subjunctive or infinitive, p. 217.
- XX. Use of Moods in Hypothetical and Conditional clauses.
 - (A) Hypothetical subjunctive, p. 218.
 - i. With condition expressed in separate clause,
 p. 220.
 - With condition not formally expressed, p. 224.

Contrasted Indicative, p. 219.

- With conditions expressed in separate sentences, p. 221.
- 2. Unconditional statement of power, duty, &c., p. 225.
- 3. Various uses of indicative, p. 227.
- (B) Conditional subjunctive, p. 234.
 - 1. With apodosis in subjunctive, p. 236.
 - With apodosis in infinitive, future, participle or gerund, p. 240.
 - 3. With suppression or contraction of the proper hypothetical apodosis, p. 244.

'ontrasted Indicative (and Imperative, § 537), p. 235.

- In conditional clause, 1. with apodosis in indicative, p. 237.
- 2. With apodosis in imperative, p. 243.
- 3. With apparent apodosis in subjunctive, p. 245.

ndicative in sentences of comparison, p. 249.



TABLE OF CONTENTS. BOOK IV.

хi

XXI. Use of Subjunctive mood to express desire.

- (C) Optative and jussive subjunctive.
 - 1. Expressing wish, p. 254.
 - 2. Expressing simple command, p. 256.
 - In quasi-dependence on another verb, p. 260.
 - 4. In interrogative sentences, p. 262.
 - 5. In concessions, p. 266.

Contrasted Indicative and Imperative, p. 253.

- 1. Various uses of Indic., e.g. videro, p. 255.
- 2. Use of Imperative mood, p. 257.
- 3. Indicative in quasi-dependence, faxo scies, &c., p. 261.
- 4. Indicative in noticeable questions, p. 263.
- Indicative and Imperative in concessions, p. 267.
- (D) Final Subjunctive, p. 270.
 - 1. With qui (adj.), p. 272.
 - 2. With ut, quo; ut ne, ne; quominus, quin, p. 274.
 - 3. With dum, donec, quoad, p. 284; prius (ante) quam, potiusquam, p. 288.

Contrasted Indicative, p. 271.

With qui in simple statements, p. 273.

Comparative sentences, viz. tantus...quantus, tam...quam, sic...ut, p. 275.

With eo...quod, eo...quo, p. 277; mirum quantum, nimis quam, &c., p. 279.

With satin' ut, vide ut, p. 281.

With ne...quidem, non modo...sed etiam, p. 283.

With dum, donec, quoad, quamdiu, p. 285.
With quam after prius, ante, citius, &c., p. 289.

xii Table of Contents. Book IV.

XXII. Use of Subjunctive mood to express causation.

- (E) Consecutive Subjunctive, p. 292.
 - With qui (adj.), quin (= qui non), cum,
 p. 294.
 - 2. With ut, ut qui (adv.), ut non, quin, p. 300.

Contrasted Indicative, p. 293.

With qui (adj.) in simple definitions, p. 295.
With qui quidem, qui modo, p. 299; quisquis, quamquam, &c. p. 301.
With quod, 'that,' p. 303; tantum quod, p. 303.
With ut, 'as,' p. 305.

- (F) Subjunctive of attendant circumstances, p. 308.
 - 1. With adjectives qui, ut qui, utpote qui, quippe qui; also ut ubi, p. 310.
 - Of cases frequently occurring; with quicumque, cum, 'whenever,' ubi, &c.,
 p. 312.
 - With cum (a) 'when,' p. 314; (b) 'whereas,' p. 316; (c), (d) 'although,' p. 316.

Contrasted Indicative, especially with temporal conjunctions, p. 309.

- 1. With adjectives qui, quippe qui, p. 311; qui, 'such,' p. 311.
- 2. Of cases frequently occurring; with quicumque, cum, 'whenever,' &c., p. 313.
- 3. With other conjunctions of time, e.g. ut, ubi, posteaquam, &c., p. 315.
- 4. With cum (a) 'when,' p. 315; (b) 'to the time that,' p. 317; (c) 'because,' p. 319; (d) 'in that,' p. 319; 'although,' p. 321; (e) 'and then,' p. 321; (f) 'whilst,' 'both,' p. 321.



TABLE OF CONTENTS. BOOK IV.

xiii

XXIII. Use of Subjunctive to express alien or contingent assertions.

- (G) Subjunctive of reported statements, p. 322.
 - Reported definition with qui (adj.),
 p. 324.
 - 2. Reported or assumed reason with quod, quia, &c., p. 324.
 - 3. Reported condition with st, nt, p. 328.
 - 4. Other reported clauses, e.g. of time, p. 332.
 - 5. Reported question, p. 332; forsitan, quin, p. 334.

Contrasted Indicative, p. 323.

- 1. With qui (adj.) of facts, p. 325.
- 2. With causal conjunctions quod, quia, &c., p. 325.
- 3. Vide si, &c., mirum ni, nimirum, p. 331.
- 4. In direct questions, especially in connexion with expletives, as die mini, solo, viden', &c., p. 333.
- Scio quod quæris; forsitan, p. 335;
 nescio quis, &c., p. 337.

(H) Subjunctive because dependent

- 1. on infinitive, p. 338.
- 2. on subjunctive, p. 340.

Contrasted Indicative.

Indicative, although dependent

- 1. on infinitive, p. 339.
- 2. on subjunctive, p. 341.

XXIV. Of Reported Speech.

Use of moods, tenses, persons, p. 344. Tabular statement of same, p. 344. Examples, p. 345.



xiv

Table of Contents. Book IV.

SUPPLEMENT TO SYNTAX.

1. Prepositions and quasi-prepositional adverbs.

Summary, p. 351.

Palam, p. 415.

Abs, ab, a, af, p. 353. Absque, p. 357. Ad, p. 357. Adversum, Adversus; exadversum, exadversus, p. 363. Amb-, am-, an-, p. 364. An- $(a\nu a)$, p. 365. Ante (antid), p. 365. Apud, p. 367. Circum, circa, circiter, p. 368. Cis, citra, citro, p. 371. Clam, clanculum, p. 373. Com, cum, p. 373. Contra, p. 377. Coram, p. 380. De, p. 380. Dis-, di-, p. 386. Erga, p. 387. Ergo, p. 388. Ex, e, p. 389. Extra, extrad, p. 395. In, endo, indu, p. 397. Infra, p. 405. Inter, p. 406. Intra, intro, p. 409. Intus, p. 410. Juxta, p. 411. Ob, obs, p. 412.

Penes, p. 416. Per, p. 416. Pone, p. 420. Por-, p. 420. Post, pos, postid, poste, p. 420. Præ, p. 422. Præter, p. 425. Pro, p. 427. Procul, p. 430. Prope, p. 432. Propter, p. 433. Red-, re, p. 434. Retro, p. 437. Sed, se, p. 437. Secundum, p. 439. -Secus, p. 439. Simul, simītu, p. 439. Sub, subter, p. 440. Super, insuper, desuper, p. 445. Supra, supera, p. 447. Tenus, p. 449, protenus, protinam, P. 450. Trans, p. 450. Vorsus, vorsum (versus, versum), p. 451. Uls, ultra, ultro, p. 453. Usque, p. 455.

- 11. Conjunctions.
- i. Copulative, p. 457.
- ii. Adversative, p. 461.
- iii. Disjunctive, p. 464.



TABLE OF CONTENTS. BOOK IV.

ΧV

- III. Negative Particles, p. 466.
- IV. Interrogative Particles, p. 473.
- i. In simple questions, p. 474.
- ii. In alternative questions, p. 475.

v. Pronouns.

Hic, iste, ille, is, p. 476.

Se, suus, ipse, p. 478.

Quis, quispiam, aliquis, quidam, alteruter, nonnemo, &c., p. 482.

Quisquam, ullus, uter, quivis, quilibet, utervis, p. 483.

Quisque, uterque, omnes, ambo, singuli, alterni, p. 485.

Quisquis, quicunque, utercunque, &c., p. 487.

Idem, alius, alter, ceteri, p. 489.

Quis ? quisnam ? ecquis ? p. 491.

Miscellaneous Remarks on pronouns, p. 491.

INDEX, p. 495.



Preface to Book IV.

General Remarks on Method Observed.

In writing this Book I have had three aims specially in view, which taken together have led to my treating the matter somewhat differently from most other recent writers on the subject.

1. I have endeavoured to set forth the usages both of the Latin of Plautus and of the post-Augustan writers, as well as the usage of Cicero and of the Augustan age. Few things can be more important in the treatment of language than an historical method: what appears hopelessly intricate and irrational, when judged from a scientific point of view which is not that of the historical development, becomes intelligible and almost simple, when we look along the line of growth. No doubt there is much about Latin constructions, as well as about Latin forms, which will always be dark, because we come upon the language not in its youth, but in its maturity, when it was no longer a mere rustic dialect, but a literary language; and, even so, we have at first but the plays of Plautus, a few fragments of other writers, and a few brief inscriptions. Nor have the materials, which exist, been as yet sufficiently studied from this point of view. There is no book on syntax which can bear comparison with Neue's work on inflexions. Yet something of the kind is necessary before a shorter treatise, such as I have attempted, can speak with real precision. Every year however increases the number of contributions to the work. All that I have thought to be within my limits of space and leisure is, starting from Cicero, Cæsar and Livy as a standard, to introduce earlier and later usages, when they are different, and to vary the sources of my examples where possible, so as to remind the reader that the question concerns the language, not of one writer or

В



xviii Preface: Observations on Book IV.

period only, but of the Roman people. Especially I have aimed at doing this, when the nature of the usage in question was such as to suggest a doubt, whether it belonged to the early language. But other considerations rendered it difficult to carry the plan out systematically. For the collection of examples under any one head has a double purpose: it has to illustrate what I may call the internal extension of the principle in various grammatical connexions, as well as the external extension of the principle in the historical series of authors. The number of such combinations would soon become unmanageable, and a limit must be put. I fear none but an arbitrary limit is possible for a book like this.

Secondly, I have desired to set example above precept, and to appeal to the intuition of my readers rather than to their power of abstract grammatical conception. A writer on (written) language has herein a great advantage over expositors of many other branches of science, that he can incorporate in his work specimens of the natural objects. I have made full use of this advantage, and aimed at giving my book the form, not so much of a treatise, as of a scientific arrangement of specimens interwoven with a catalogue raisonné. For this puts grammar in the proper light, as an account of what men do say, not a theory of what they should say. over few, except practised grammarians, can get a clear conception from grammatical exposition, except as a commentary on examples and as a clue and justification for the arrangement of them. On the selection of the examples I have naturally bestowed considerable pains. It is important that they should be various, exhibiting not only (as I have said above,) authors of more ages and styles than one, but also various types of circumstances in which the special case or mood in question occurs. A difference of tense often, and a difference of person sometimes, has influence over the mood; the presence or absence of an epithet, the meaning of the word itself, the character of the governing word, the position in the sentence, all have or may have a bearing on the particular case or construction. I have thought it well to give the examples with tolerable fulness, because we are hardly able to appreciate accurately the aspect of a particular expression, unless we see the whole of its surroundings. Further it is important that the exam-



General remarks on method observed.

xix

ples should be typical. We have to note the deliberate speech, we have also to note the natural, ordinary, habitual speech. But the accidental clumsiness or eccentricity of an individual on this or that particular occasion is no subject of interest or instruction, unless it happen to illustrate general laws. In that case it may be a suitable text for a commentator; it will rarely be a fit specimen for the ordinary grammarian's museum. But many eccentric instances owe their peculiarities to the copyist: and I have therefore used none but the best critical texts so far as I knew them, and endeavoured to avoid examples which were not free from critical uncertainty, at least in the vital parts. It would be more easy to insure this, if convenient texts existed, containing at the foot of the page the most important of the deviations from the best MSS. Baiter and Kayser's Cicero and Madvig's Livy are sadly deficient in this respect. It is still more to be regretted that there is not even one convenient critical edition of Livy, of the oratorical books of Cicero, of half Plautus, of Ovid, of Suetonius, and of others. Cato, Varro and Columella de re rustica remain as they were edited eighty years ago. An Englishman has however little right to complain, for he can hardly hope for the defect to be supplied except by German scholars.

Thirdly, I have regarded syntax not as being a synthesis of rules for the formation of sentences, but as an analytical statement of the meaning and use of the inflexions and of the parts of speech. This is a province capable of definition, and large enough to justify separate treatment without the intrusion of foreign matter. Accordingly I have followed the inflexions as my guide. Uninflected words require simply to have their general functions described; the rest of their use depends on their individual meaning, and is matter for a dictionary. Inflected words require to be treated according to the general character of their inflexions. Pronouns for instance are either substantives or adjectives, and their inflexions are referable to the ordinary classes of gender, number and case. Their distinctions from one another, e.g. the distinction of quisquam from aliquis, is no part of syntax, but of lexicography. Adjectives require only the general significance of their inflexions to be set forth (§ 1060), and they then (in Latin) fall under the general laws which regulate the use of cases. Incidentally indeed many matters of phraseology in

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PREFACE: OBSERVATIONS ON BOOK IV.

which our own idiom differs from that of Rome, but which do not strictly belong to syntax, find place as illustrative of the use of the cases or moods, or as more or less directly affecting them. Thus ut, cum, dum, si, &c., receive tolerably full discussion, so far as they bear on tense or mood; the degrees of adjectives come into prominence in treating of the ablative and genitive cases; the pronouns in various parts; the prepositions as enforcing the meaning of the cases, and limiting, while supplementing, the independent use of the cases. Indeed the use of prepositions is so full of interest and grammatical bearing, that besides this incidental though frequent reference to them, I have treated them at some length in connexion with each other, in a supplement to the Syntax. Coordinating conjunctions, negative and interrogative particles and the distinctive use of various pronouns I have noticed briefly.

It will be seen that the Syntax here falls into three main divisions: the first of which is a general introduction describing the names and functions of the several parts of speech, the classification of sentences, the order of the words in a sentence (chapp. I—IV); the second contains the use of noun inflexions (chapp. V—XIV); the third contains the use of verb inflexions (chapp. XV—XXIV). The infinitive and its complement, the gerund and gerundive, are verbal nouns, and, as such, come naturally at the end of the noun inflexions. Participles are verbal adjectives, and the only notice which collectively they appear to require is part of the general doctrine of attribute and predicate. Their use in the ablative absolute cannot be separated from the treatment of the ablative. Some other uses give and receive most illustration in connexion with the gerundive (§§ 1402, 1406).

In the analysis both of cases and moods (and of prepositions) I have tried to avoid minute subdivisions, and to form the various applications of the cases, &c., at any rate primarily, into broad groups. If the ordinary English translation were chosen as the clue, the subdivision would frequently become so extreme as to bewilder a student. English and Latin, or indeed any two languages that may be taken, shew different modes of conceiving the relation of actions and circumstances, and a different development of the same conception, according as this or that, among many possible analo-



General remarks on method observed.

XX

gies, has ruled the imagination. It thus becomes necessary to be constantly on one's guard against divorcing two usages of a case. because English does not use the same preposition, and against uniting two usages, because English does use the same. Much depends on the precise conception which belongs to the word itself. apart from consideration of its case or its tense or mood. This fact has led many grammarians to carry more of lexicography into grammar than it seems to me desirable to do. For such additions tend to obscure the main lines of the analysis, and lead to an insufficient and confused apprehension of the force of the case-suffix. The use of particular cases or particular prepositional constructions with particular verbs is a consequence of the notion, or circle of notions, which the Romans understood under that verb or adjective, and this notion or circle of notions it is for a dictionary to give. Whether such cases or expressions are usual or not with particular verbs or with particular classes of verbs, is the natural result of a harmony or want of harmony between the force of the case-suffix, and the sphere of the verb's meaning. The grammarian has done his part, when he has so explained the meaning of the case, as to render such a harmony or the want of it natural and intelligible. These casesuffixes are, as it were, the moulds into which the verbs or adjectives governing them must fit, and, as the case-suffixes are few, it is better to fix the attention on them, rather than distract it by enumerating the scores of different materials which can take the impress of the moulds. Hence, for instance, in my treatment of the dative, the enumeration of verbs and adjectives, whose meaning makes them associate with the dative, is omitted. For a grammar of the size of this cannot possibly give them fully; and to give them without properly distinguishing between ages, authors, styles and circumstances, is as likely to mislead as to instruct. A student had much better go to a dictionary at once for this information, as well as for much else. I have however endeavoured, by making a very full Index, to obviate any difficulties, which may naturally be experienced by those accustomed to a different conception of the subject and a different arrangement of the materials.



xxii

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Preface: Observations on Book IV.

Of the Analysis of the Simple Sentence.

The analysis of the simple sentence, although in some features the same as that put forth in my Elementary Grammar some years ago, has been further developed and corrected. I have thought it indefensible not to state at once that a predication may be made without a verb, when one has only to take up Livy and find the past participle used over and over again, without any form of the verb sum or of any other verb. Nor is it tolerable to see the finite verb spoken of primarily as predicate, or predicate and copula only, when every one knows, and is ready to whisper in a note, that it has subject and predicate combined in itself. Krüger, I find, in this as in many other matters, has clearly seen and stated the true view. It is probably the different formation of modern languages, which has prevented more general recognition of the fact. Again if in fusi hostes, fusi is a predicate, it seems to me merely the expression of an obvious truth, to give the same name of predicate to fusi, fusos, fusis in fusi sunt hostes, fusi redeunt hostes, fusos vidi bostes, fusis bostibus redeunt. It is most important to trace and mark an identity of relation under various forms and with words of various significance; and, if a familiar term is adequate to express it, so much the better. The same applies to the infinitive. Cupio mortem and cupio mori shew substantives in the same relation—that of an object, to the verb. In dicar victor and dicar vincere, these substantives are secondary predicates. But if we say dicar esse (or mori) victor, cupio esse, or mori, victor, victor is still (as well as esse and mori) a predicate—secondary, as I call it, tertiary as perhaps some may think it should strictly be called. The fact of the word victor being connected in sense with esse or mori, though these infinitives stand in different relations to cupio from what they do to dicar, makes no difference in the grammatical relation of victor to the subject of dicar or cupio. It is very remarkable how persistently a nominal predicate takes the case of its subject in spite of apparent impediments. In cupio esse victor, the esse, though the channel through which victor is brought into relation with the subject, would, if it had case inflexions, be put in the accusative. The absence of case inflexions in esse makes the use of the nominative victor to us less striking. But the Romans did not even require



Of the analysis of the simple sentence.

xxiii

this absence of inflexions to reconcile them to the maintenance of their rule, that a direct predicate should here, as elsewhere, be in the nominative. Look at the three last sentences in § 1069 and the passages from Liv. 41. 10 and 4. 44 in § 1073. The word solus in gerendo solus censuram is as closely connected with gerendo as is possible, but this neither hinders the predicate (solus) from being put in the nominative, nor the means (gerendo) from being put in the ablative. The same of ipse, quisque, and adveniens, in the other sentences. (See Madvig, Em. Liv. p. 311.) The Greeks have the same use; e.g. ὁπόθεν ποτὲ ταύτην τὴν ἐπωνυμίαν ἔλαβες τὸ μανικὸς καλεῖσθαι, οὐκ οἶδα ἔγωγε (Plat. Symp. 173 D); γίγνεται Θεμιστοκλῆς παρὰ τῷ βασιλεῖ μέγας ἀπὸ τοῦ πεῖραν διδοὺς ξυνετὸς φαίνεσθαι (Thuc. 1. 138). They have even gone further; for dixit non se sed eum imperatorem esse is οὐκ ἔφη αὐτὸς, ἀλλ' ἐκεῖνον στρατηγεῖν.

The only deviation from this rule, that I have noticed, is that mentioned in § 1347 e.g. descensuros pollicebantur. I agree with Madvig (Lat. Gr. § 401), in regarding this use, though not rare, as an irregularity. It has arisen from the want of a proper future infinitive, which was therefore supplied by the use of the future participle in the case of the object, until this accusative case at length seemed part of this new infinitive, and not changeable with a change of position in the sentence. But the fuller and regular expression descensuros se pollicebantur is also the more common.

In the sentence so often quoted civi Romano licet esse Gaditanum, and the few others¹ like it (p. 145 note), Gaditanum is a predicate, not of civi, but of the unexpressed subject which lies in the abstract use of the infinitive: 'The being a Gaditan is a thing permitted to a Roman citizen.' But this again is not the way in which the Romans usually spoke: and the fact that esse is subject to licet did not prevent them from saying Gaditano, as they also in perfect consistency usually said Nomen est mihi Marco, although they could legitimately say, and often did say nomen est mihi Marcus (cf. §§ 1058, 1059). Similarly tibi templum Statori Jovi voveo, i.e. 'by the name of Jove the Stayer,' (infr. § 1751).

¹ I see Draeger (*Hist. Synt.* i. 400) quotes from Val. M. 6. 9. 14, cui...consulem creari contigit, but the best MS. has only the abbreviation coñs. On some other passages, sometimes quoted, see Madvig Opusc. ii. 29.



xxiv Preface: Observations on Book IV.

Of the Syntax of concord.

The three concords are in this book not honoured with the preeminence, which has long been assigned to them. In truth the first two are generally stated in a way, which disguises their true nature, and the third is apt to confuse a learner. In the grammatical construction of the relative adjective qui, &c., there is nothing to distinguish it from is or from any other demonstrative pronoun, or indeed really from any other adjective. The gender and number will be regulated by the meaning, the case will be regulated by the function the word performs in the sentence. The ordinary rule leads to awkward explanations, when the 'antecedent' is expressed in the same sentence as the relative, and when the 'antecedent' is really wanting; e.g. soli sapientes, quod est proprium divitiarum, contenti sunt rebus suis (C. Par. 6, § 52). The real fault of treatment here, as in the other concords, is in not putting prominently forward the significance of the inflexions. Grammarians too often start with an erroneous conception of the finite verb, as if it were not complete in itself, but required the separate expression of a subject, and again with an erroneous conception of the adjective as if it required the expression of a substantive. It is well indeed, if grammar be not distorted to please logic, and videt be resolved into est videns. But rosa floret is not first, and floret second with the ellipse of rosa, or ea, or something, to be accounted for, any more than Jupiter pluit is to be regarded as properly prior to pluit. Nor is boni homines first, and boni second, with an ellipse of homines to be accounted for. Just the contrary: floret, pluit, boni are not degenerate offspring of the fuller originals, but these fuller forms are simply explanations and specifications of the shorter and vaguer originals. The i in boni is even more indicative of males, than the i of viri is. For there are feminine substantives with an i in the nom. plural, e.g. alni, ulmi, &c., and there are no feminine adjectives with i; just as there are a few masculine substantives with ae in the nom. plural, but no adjectives. It will be seen that systematic regard to the significance of the inflexions leads to some novelties in the statement of the matter of Chapp. v. and xvi.; and, I think, simplifies the treatment



Of the syntax of concord.

XXV

of some usages; e.g. capita conjurations caesi sunt requires no special rule or justification. 'The heads of the conspiracy were slain males,' is the literal translation, and the discrepancy of genders is of no more importance than in capita conjurationis viri sunt. Such expressions as triste lupus stabulis are not deviations from a normal tristis lupus stabulis (as I fear some students are led to think), but have a different meaning and therefore a different form. There is no more necessity to account elaborately for triste than there would have been to account for exitium, if exitium had been used instead. 'Tristis is 'a grievous he or she,' triste is 'a grief.' And the rules of concord, were it not for old habits requiring a more distinct treatment of these usages, might almost be reduced to the simple statement, that if a writer wishes to say one thing, he must not select forms that convey another. There is no sin against grammar in a man's saying 'sum timida' any more than in his saying 'sum timidus,' but the propriety of his using the feminine depends on his wishing to charge himself with being a very woman for fear, and not merely to declare himself a fearful man. If he means this last, then his error is in forgetting the meaning of the inflexion, not in the disregard of a rule of positive obligation. The more a student accustoms himself to regard the use of a wrong inflexion, as saying what he does not mean, as putting, for instance, man for woman, a thing for a person, the clearer will be his insight into what may otherwise appear a tangle of obscure threads.

Of the Predicative dative.

The second class of datives, commonly called datives 'of the purpose', deserve more special attention than grammarians have generally given to it. The class has well marked characteristics, although, as in other parts of grammatical classification, some ambiguous specimens will be found. Certain usages, not uncommonly referred to the same head, as what I have called predicative datives, appear to me to be of a different kind, and are therefore placed in §§ 1156 and 1163. I propose here to discuss more fully, than I could in the body of the work, the characteristics and connexions of this class of datives, and to subjoin a complete list of all



xxvi Preface: Observations on Book IV.

the instances that I have been able to collect. Some abridgment of this list might no doubt have been made without much probable loss, but on the whole the list tells its own tale better, if given in full. That it is some distance from being complete, I do not doubt; for, though I have hunted pretty vigorously, I have not *read* through the Latin authors for the purpose. But the additions that I have been able to make lately, are so few and slight, as to suggest that the matter, though not exhausted, is unlikely to yield any instances of such a character, or so numerous, as seriously to affect the account I shall give of the usage. If a similar list were prepared of other usages, our grammars would gain greatly in precision, and possibly some considerable aid might be obtained for the criticism of the text of the authors.

The characteristics of the class, broadly stated, are these. This dative is (1) a semi-abstract substantive, (2) in the singular number, (3) used predicatively, (4) and most frequently with est. It is not qualified (5) by any adjective except the simplest adjectives of quantity, nor (6) by a genitive or prepositional phrase, though a personal dative, as indirect object, is a very frequent accompaniment. (7) The usage is not very frequent anywhere, except in the case of some few words; and (8) there is, as it appears to me, a noticeable capriciousness shewn in the use of some words in this case and the non-use of others. This statement requires some illustration and some modification.

- 1. The usage is nearly confined to semi-abstract substantives, i.e. names of actions, effects, feelings. The only words originally of a thoroughly concrete character are cordi, cibo, frugi, melli, stomacho, veneno, and of these only cordi occurs frequently, the rest being found once only, and only cibo is used in its original character, the rest are used metaphorically. Of other words, which occur tolerably often, dono, impedimento, pignori, oneri, ornamento, remedio, spectaculo, have the best claim to be regarded as concrete terms. But equally, or more, common are auxilio, presidio, subsidio, ludibrio, exitio, bonori, vitio, and the perhaps still more
- ¹ Especially I have paid little attention, here or elsewhere, to the post-Augustan epic poets; and I cannot speak at all confidently of the elder Pliny, or Vitruvius.



Of the predicative dative.

xxvii

abstract curæ, gloriæ, odio, saluti, voluptati, usui, invidiæ, pudori. Indeed there seems to have been on the one hand something which suggested abstract terms, and again an instinct which militated against an indiscriminate use of them. The stems in -tu, between 20 and 30 in number, are with the exception of optentui, ostentui, potui, quæstui, sumptui and usui rare, and found chiefly in Varro and Tacitus. (Apuleius does not come within my range.) Of other verbals, there are 14 with stems in -tion, but they are found rarely in more than one passage; stems in -io are 20 in number and oftener used; in -ia only 4 (from verbs); in -or 10; in -mento 16; in -cŭlo 9. Of stems derived from adjectives there are 8 each in -tat, and -ia. The rest (over 50) are various, but contain some of the words most in use, e.g. cordi, cura, crimini, damno, dedecori, exemplo, dono, fraudi, frugi, honori, laudi, malo, oneri, operæ, pignori, prædæ, saluti. But the etymological formation, though an objective, is not a certain, criterion either way: an examination of the list will show that on the whole the words, used in this construction in more than isolated instances, are words of a somewhat ambiguous use, which denote sometimes a quality or an action, and sometimes an object which manifests that quality or action.

- 2. So far as I have noticed, this usage is absolutely confined to the singular number. We have voluptati and amori, but not deliciis; prædæ, but not manubiis; maculæ and turpitudini, but not sordibus; odio, but not inimicitiis; lucro, quæstui, emolumento, splendori, &c., but not opibus, or divitiis; frugi, not frugibus. This restriction seems to accord with the semi-abstract character of the usage.
- 3. This dative is used predicatively, and herein lies in my opinion the characteristic note of the usage. The word put in this dative is a name of the thing or person, of which it is predicated. 'To whom was it a benefit' (bono); 'That was not an hindrance' (impedimento); 'Food was not with them a lust or luxury;' 'You should be an honour to yourselves, a utility to your friends, a gain to the state;' 'His drink (potui) should be boiled water;' 'He leaves five cohorts, as a guard to the camp.' It is true there is not always such an English equivalent, as, being properly abstract, is



XXVIII PREFACE: OBSERVATIONS ON BOOK IV.

yet used in a concrete manner; but that is not a strong objection; there are enough such to show that the thing is possible, and indeed easy; and there is proof of the general truth in the fact, that many of these words are also found used predicatively in the nominative. Thus, besides the examples given in § 1161, may be mentioned such as cura (nostra C. Att. 10. 2); insigne documentum (L. 21. 19); emolumentum (C. Fin. 2. 18); exitium (totius Asiæ C. Verr. Act. 1. 4); indicium (L. 35. 44); ludibrium (Curt. 6. 10. 28); monumentum (C. Verr. 2. 2); mora et impedimentum (L. 23. 9); pignus (L. 43. 10); præsidium (Plin. 22. § 90); pudor (L. 40. 27); remedium (manifestum) Colum. 6. 6; risus (Ov. Fast. 1. 438); rubor (Val. M. 4. 4. 5); una est salus (L. 7. 35); solacium (Sen. Dial. 11. 1. fin.; ib. 5 fin.; but solacio ib. 12); quæ verecundia est postulare vos (L. 21. 19). Similarly præsidium et decus meum (Hor. Od. 1. 1. 2), desiderium (Catull. 2. 5), ludibrium and pudor (Lucan. 7. 380), pernicies frequently, (e.g. Plaut. Pseud. 363; C. Verr. Act. 1. 1,) are used as names of persons. remarkably close resemblance is seen in maximum vero argumentum est naturam ipsam de immortalitate animorum tacitam judicare, quod omnibus curæ sunt, et maxumæ quidem, quæ post mortem futura sint (C. T. D. 1. 14), compared with magnoque esse argumento, homines scire pleraque ante quam nati sint, quod jam pueri ita celeriter res adripiant &c. (C. Sen. 21). Further the use of tibi, not tuo, speaks strongly for the predicative character. Tux glorix est may be 'it contributes to your glory1, but tibi gloriæ est is more naturally 'it is a glory for you,' and when the latter form of expression is the regular one, and is never, or scarcely ever, exchanged for the former, the inference becomes inevitable, that the predicative conception is the true one. A good illustration may be seen in Cic. Dom. 33, where we have illis injuria inimicorum probro non fuit contrasted with tuum scelus meum probrum esse. The meum required probrum.

4. It is used most frequently with the vero esse. Of the whole number of datives about 117 are used with esse only; and there are

¹ Thus in C. Or. 2. 49 we have saluti fuisse and auxilium ferre in the same sentence. So also non terrorem afferre, sed præsidio esse (C. Mil. 26).