Latin grammar

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- The most accessible guide for students

OXFORD
A Latin Grammar
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This grammar is intended for everyone with an interest in Latin. While most of it should be accessible to near-beginners, it is hoped that those in their later years at school, as well as undergraduates and mature adults, will find it a good guide. It aims to be a ‘primer’ (a first book) and at the same time something more than that. It aspires in fact, however inadequately, to be a new Kennedy (The Revised Latin Primer by Benjamin Hall Kennedy) for the new millennium. It may smack of hubris to lay claim to the tradition established by the author of so trusty a book which has served so many generations so very well, especially in the impeccable revision of Sir James Mountford (1930). Yet, magnificently comprehensive though the revised Kennedy was, there are simply too many charts and too many exceptions for today’s Latinist, who is unlikely to have the time to learn that the accusative and ablative endings of sēmentis (sowing) are different from those of cīuis (citizen), and may feel that there are more important principal parts to be mastered than those of sarcīō (I patch).

A further point is that Kennedy would never have claimed that he offered more than a skeletal account of the many Latin constructions. I have attempted to lay out a fairly full and, as I hope, user-friendly analysis of them. To these analyses I have added sentences from both Latin into English and English into Latin through which users of this grammar can practise what they are learning, and I have included vocabularies which will not only make these exercises easier but will also make possible a detailed examination of the Latin sentences given as examples in the explanatory parts of the book.

I am delighted to have compiled the first Latin grammar in English to have banished the letter ‘v’ from the Latin alphabet. It was never there.
It is a pleasure to acknowledge the generous help I have received from many quarters. Sidney Allen, Denis Feeney, Gregory Hutchinson, Peter Pormann and Kim Richardson have made valuable contributions. John Penney gave magisterial guidance in a particularly tricky section.

Five individuals call for particular gratitude. Rachel Chapman saw to the production of the manuscript of the bulk of this book, her considerable skills proving more than equal to the scrawls with which I defaced the recurrent revisions. Maurice Balme is responsible for the basic lay-out of the grammar tables, which derive from those in our Oxford Latin Course. David Langslow, Ted Kenney and Ian McAuslan have been lavish of their seemingly limitless expertise in their detailed critiques of the entire manuscript. I have benefited more than I can say from their guidance. I hope that they will forgive me for the passages that remain where the demands of clarity have led me to be economical with the truth, and those in which misunderstanding or simple carelessness has caused me to remain mired in error. For these I take full responsibility.

James Morwood  
Wadham College, Oxford
Glossary of grammatical terms

ablative a case with the basic meanings of 'by', 'with', 'from', 'at', 'in' or 'on'; some prepositions take the ablative.

accusative the usual case of a direct object; many prepositions take the accusative.

active the form of a verb used when the subject of the sentence is the doer of the action: we saw = uīdimus.

adjective a word describing a noun, with which it agrees in gender and number: a happy girl = puella laeta.

adverb a word that describes or changes the meaning of a verb, an adjective or another adverb: he walks slowly = lentē ambulat.

agree are in the same case and number as

antecedent is the noun or pronoun to which a relative pronoun refers back.

aorist tense the tense of a verb that refers to something that happened in the past: I did this = hoc fēcī. (Compare the perfect tense, in which the word 'have' or 'has' is used in English.)

cardinals see numerals.

case the form of a noun, pronoun, adjective or article that shows the part it plays in a sentence; there are six cases: nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive, dative and ablative.

clause a self-contained section of a sentence in which there are at least a subject and a verb.

common either masculine or feminine according to meaning.

comparative the form of an adjective or adverb that makes it mean more, rather or too: more old (older), rather old, too old = senior.

complement a word of phrase which describes the subject of the verb; it is used with verbs such as 'I am' and 'I become' which cannot take an object: my sister is intelligent = soror mea sapiēns est.
compound verb  a verb formed by adding a prefix to a simple verb: I propose = prōpōnō.
concessive clause a clause usually beginning with the word ‘although’ or ‘though’.
conditional clause a clause usually beginning with the words ‘if’, ‘if not’ or ‘unless’.
conjugate give the different forms of the verb: e.g. amās = you love; āmāuerunt = they loved.
conjugation there are four main patterns according to which most Latin verbs change their endings; we call these ‘conjugations’.
conjunction a word used to join clauses, phrases or words together: pāx et imperium = peace and empire.
consonant a letter representing a sound that can only be used together with a vowel such as b, c, d: see vowel.
dative the case of an indirect object; among its many meanings are ‘to’ and ‘for’.
declension there are five main patterns according to which most Latin nouns change their endings; we call these ‘declensions’.
decline go through the different cases of a noun, adjective or pronoun, in order.
definite article in English, ‘the’. There is no definite article in Latin.
deliberative showing that a thought process is going on: What am I to do?
deponent verb a verb which is passive in form but active in meaning
direct object the noun or pronoun directly affected by the verb: he killed the king = rēgem interfēcit.
direct speech the words actually used by a speaker.
distributives see numerals.
ending letters added to the the stem of verbs, nouns and adjectives, according to tense, case, etc.
feminine one of the three genders: fēmina = a woman.
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<th>Term</th>
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<td>finite verb</td>
<td>a verb in a tense, as opposed to infinitives and participles.</td>
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<td>future perfect tense</td>
<td>the tense of a verb that refers to something in the future at a stage after it has happened: I shall have done this: hoc fēcerō.</td>
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<tr>
<td>future tense</td>
<td>the tense of a verb that refers to something that will happen in the future.</td>
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<tr>
<td>gender</td>
<td>the class in which a noun or pronoun is placed in a grammatical grouping; in both English and Latin, these classes are masculine, feminine, neuter, and common (i.e. either masculine or feminine according to meaning).</td>
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<tr>
<td>genitive</td>
<td>the case that shows possession; among its many meanings the dominant one is ‘of’.</td>
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<td>gerund</td>
<td>a verbal noun: the art of ruling = ars regendī.</td>
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<td>gerundive</td>
<td>a verbal adjective, frequently expressing the idea of obligation: this must-be-done = hoc faciendum est.</td>
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<td>imperative</td>
<td>the parts of the verb that express a command: hurry up! = festīnā!</td>
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<td>imperfect tense</td>
<td>the tense which expresses continuous or repeated or incomplete action in the past: I was walking = ambulābam.</td>
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<td>impersonal verb</td>
<td>a verb introduced in English by the word ‘it’, and in Latin found only in the 3rd person singular: it rains = pluit.</td>
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<td>indeclinable</td>
<td>refers to a noun or adjective which never varies.</td>
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<tr>
<td>indefinite article</td>
<td>in English, ‘a’ or ‘an’. There is no indefinite article in Latin.</td>
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<td>indicative</td>
<td>refers to a verb when it makes a statement or asks a question: he said this = hoc dīxit. In a Latin grammar, the main use of this word is to indicate that the verb is not in the subjunctive.</td>
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<td>indirect command</td>
<td>the reporting of an actual command: e.g. ‘Do this’ (direct speech, direct command), She instructed him to do this (indirect command).</td>
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indirect object  
the noun or pronoun indirectly affected by the verb, 
at which the direct object is aimed: I gave him the 
book = librum eî'dēl.

indirect question  
the reporting of an actual question: e.g. ‘What are 
you doing?’ (direct speech, direct question), I asked 
her what she was doing (indirect question).

indirect statement  
the reporting of someone’s actual words: e.g. ‘I have 
done this’ (direct speech), He said that he had done 
this (indirect speech).

infinitive  
a verbal noun, the basic part of a verb: to love = amāre.

inflection  
see ending.

interjection  
a sound, word or phrase standing outside the 
grammatical structure of the sentence and expressing 
an emotion such as anger, fear, distress or joy: alas! 
= ēheu!

intransitive verb  
a verb which does not take a direct object: e.g. ‘go’, 
‘come’.

irregular verb  
a verb that does not follow one of the set patterns 
(i.e. is not in one of the four conjugations) and has its 
own individual forms.

jussive  
giving an order.

locative  
the case which tells us where something is happening, 
e.g. domī = at home

main clause  
the clause which is the basic grammatical unit of a 
sentence. ‘Although I hate him, he still chases me.’ 
‘He still chases me’ makes sense on its own, while 
‘although I hate him’ does not. Thus ‘He still chases 
me’ is the main clause, and ‘although I hate him’ is 
a subordinate clause.

masculine  
one of the three genders: uir = a man.

mood  
the grammatical form of a verb which shows whether 
it is in the indicative, subjunctive or imperative.

negative  
expressing denial, refusal or prohibition. The words 
‘no’ or ‘not’ are generally used.

neuter  
one of the three genders: animal = an animal.
nominative
the case of the subject of a sentence or of the complement of a verb: the king is angry = rex irātus est.

noun
a word that names a person or thing: war = bellum.

numerals
numbers: in Latin these are either ‘cardinals’ (1, 2, 3, etc.), ‘ordinals’ (1st, 2nd, 3rd, etc.), ‘distributives’ (one each, two each, three each, etc.) or adverbs (once, twice, three times, etc.).

number
the state of being either singular or plural.

object
a noun or its equivalent acted upon by a transitive verb: the dog bit the boy: canis puerum momordit.

ordinals
see numerals.

part of speech
a grammatical term for the function of a word: noun, adjective, pronoun, verb, adverb, preposition, conjunction, interjection.

participle
an adjective formed from a verb. In Latin these are either present (a loving wife = uxor amāns), future (about to love her husband = uirum amātūra), and past (the murdered king = rex interfectus).

passive
in the passive form the subject of the verb does not perform the action but experiences it: the king was killed = rex interfectus est.

perfect tense
the tense of a verb that refers to a completed action. In English the word ‘have’ or ‘has’ is generally used: they have lived = uīxērunt.

person
a term that refers to the subject of a verb: 1st person - I (singular), we (plural); 2nd person — you (both singular and plural); 3rd person — he, she, it (singular), they (plural).

personal pronoun
a pronoun that refers to a person: e.g. I, you = ego, tú.

phrase
a distinct group of words which does not contain a finite verb: I swam in the sea.

pluperfect tense
the tense that means ‘had’, referring to an action already completed in the past: I had come to Rome = Rōmam aduēneram.

plural
of nouns, etc., referring to more than one: the trees = arborēs.
positive
not negative.

possessive pronoun
a pronoun that shows possession, belonging to someone or something: my, mine = meus, mea, meum.

prefix
a syllable or word added to the beginning of another word: prōcēdō = I proceed.

preposition
a word that stands in front of a noun or pronoun to produce an adverbial phrase. In Latin it will be followed by the accusative or ablative: ante merī-diem = before midday.

present tense
the tense of a verb that refers to something happening now: I am walking, I walk = ambulō.

principal parts
in Latin, the principal parts of active verbs generally consist of four elements, 1. the present tense, 2. the present infinitive, 3. the perfect tense, 4. the supine. Deponent and passive verbs do not have a supine.

pronoun
a word that stands instead of a noun or thing: e.g. he, she, this, that = is, ea, hoc, illud.

pronunciation
the way of pronouncing, or speaking, words.

reflexive pronoun
a word referring back to the subject of the verb, in which the action of the verb is performed on its subject: he washed himself: sē lāuit.

regular verb
a verb that follows a set pattern (i.e. that of one of the four conjugations) in its regular forms.

relative pronoun
a pronoun that introduces a subordinate clause, relating to the person or thing mentioned in the main clause: the man who loves me = uir qui me amat.

sentence
a group of words, with a subject and a verb, that can stand on its own to make a statement, ask a question or give a command.

sequence of tenses
the process by which the use of a certain tense in the main clause determines the tense of the subjunctive used in a subordinate clause.

singular
of nouns, etc., referring to just one: the tree = arbor.

stem
the part of a noun or verb to which endings are added: bell- is the stem of bellum = war; am- is the stem of amō = I love.
subject in a clause or sentence, the noun or pronoun that causes the action of the verb: the queen killed the king = rēgīna rēgem interfēcit.

subjunctive a verb form that is used, among many other functions, to express doubt or unlikelihood. Words such as may, might, would, should and could can indicate a subjunctive in English.

subordinate clause a clause which depends on another clause (usually the main clause) of the sentence in which it stands. In the sentence ‘This is a book which is hard to follow’, ‘which is hard to follow’ describes the book. The clause would not make sense on its own. Thus it is subordinate.

superlative the form of an adjective or adverb that makes it mean ‘most’ or ‘very’: most small (smallest), very small = minimus.

supine a part of the verb (the fourth of the principal parts) from which other forms of the verb, especially the passive, can be predicted.

syllable part of a word that forms a spoken unit, usually a vowel sound with consonants before and/or after: mi-ni-mus.

tense the form of a verb that shows when the action takes place: present, future, perfect, etc.

transitive verb a verb used with a direct object either expressed or understood, e.g. pick apples or pick till you are tired (but not he picked at the scab — here ‘picked’ is intransitive).

verb a word or group of words that describes an action: the children had set out = līberī prefectī erant.

vocative the case by which you address or call to someone: Quintus, come here = Quīnte, uenī hūc.

voice the set of forms of a verb that show the relation of the subject to the action, i.e. active or passive.

vowel a letter representing a vowel that can be spoken by itself: a, e, i, o, u, y.
Abbreviations

abl. ablative
acc. accusative
cf. cōnfer (Latin for ‘compare’)
dat. dative
e.g. exemplī grātiā (Latin ‘for the sake of an example’, introducing an example)
e tc. et cētera (Latin for ‘and so on’)
f. feminine
fem. feminine
gen. genitive
i.e. id est (Latin for ‘that is’, introducing an explanation)
m. masculine
masc. masculine
n. neuter
N.B. NOTA BENE (Latin for ‘note well’)
nom. nominative
p. page
perf. perfect
pl. plural
pluperf. pluperfect
plur. plural
pp. pages
sing. singular
subj. subjunctive
Pronunciation

| Number of syllables and stress in Latin |

The following rules should always be observed:

1. Except in obvious diphthongs (ae, au, oe, often eu), every single vowel signals a separate syllable, as in the English word *recipe* (three syllables). Thus in Latin *dēsine* is three syllables and *diem* is two.

2. The stress in Latin words of more than two syllables falls on the penultimate syllable if this is metrically ‘heavy’ (i.e. contains a ‘long’ vowel or a vowel before two consonants), e.g. *festīnā*, *agenda*. It falls on the antepenultimate (third from last) syllable when the penultimate syllable is metrically ‘light’ (i.e. contains a ‘short’ vowel before a single consonant), e.g. *dōminus*.

3. The stress almost always falls on the first syllable of two-syllable words.

4. What is recommended in 2 is natural for English speakers.

In this grammar (except where the material relates to English into Latin) all ‘long’ vowels are marked. Though a syllable containing any vowel before two consonants will probably be ‘heavy’ metrically, it does not follow that the vowel will be necessarily ‘long’. All vowels which are unmarked, whether before two consonants or not, are ‘short’.

Note:

The distinction observed here between syllable *quantity* and vowel *length*, i.e. between (metrically) ‘heavy’ and ‘light’ syllables and (naturally) ‘long’ and ‘short’ vowels, is relatively recent. Older books use ‘long’ and ‘short’ indifferently for both syllables and vowels, thereby encouraging mispronunciation. The convention with regard to classical Latin assumes arbitrarily that a ‘heavy’ syllable takes twice as long to pronounce as a ‘light’ one.
The pronunciation of consonants and vowels

The English sounds referred to are those of standard southern British English.

1 | Consonants

Consonants are pronounced as in modern English, but note the following:

- c is always hard, as in cat (never soft as in nice).
- g is always hard, as in God (except when it is followed by n; gn is sounded ngn as in hangnail: so magnus is pronounced mangnus).
- h is always sounded, as in hope.
- i is used as a consonant as well as a vowel; as a consonant it sounds like English y; so Latin iam is pronounced yam.
- q occurs, as in English, only before u; qu is sounded as in English quick.
- r is rolled as in Scots English, and is always sounded; so in Latin sors both r and s are sounded.
- s is always soft, as in sit (never like z, as in rose).
- u is used as a consonant as well as a vowel; it is pronounced like English w; so uïdï sounds weede. There is no v in Latin.

Where double consonants occur, as in sitting, both consonants are pronounced; so ille is pronounced ille (l is sounded long as in English hallight).

Distinguish between:

- érâs (you were) and érrâs (you wander)
- ádhûc (still) and addûc (lead to)
- cátuâs (puppy) and Catúllus (the name of a poet)

See the note on Church Latin at the end of the section on 'Diphthongs', p. 3.

2 | Vowels

- a short, as in English cup (not as in cap).
- à long, as in English father.
- e short, as in English pet.
- è long, as in English aim (or, more accurately, French gai).
- i short, as in English dip.
I long, as in English deep.
ó short, as in English pot.
ö long, as in English mobile (or, more accurately, French beau).
u short, as in English put.
ú long, as in English fool.

3 | Diphthongs

A diphthong can be defined as a vowel (a, e, or o) followed by a glide (i, e, or u).

- ae as in English high.
- au as in English how.
- ei as in English eight.
- eu e-u (as in English tell, not as in English yew).
- oe as in English boy (only shorter).
- ui u-i (as in French oui).

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In ‘Church Latin’ (the Latin used in the Roman Catholic Church), it is conventional to pronounce sounds in an ‘Italian’ way; e.g. c and g before e and i are pronounced ch and j, gn is pronounced ny, and ae is pronounced ay.

4 | One vowel followed by another separate vowel

In Latin words a vowel followed by another vowel (when the two vowels do not form a diphthong) is almost invariably ‘light’ (‘short’), e.g. dēus (god), galēa (helmet), tībīa (pipe). However, this does not necessarily apply in Greek and, since many Greek proper names are used in Latin, I give a few examples from many instances where the Latin rule of thumb would mislead:

Aenēās, Achełōus, Alphēus, Chrŷsēis, Cytherēa, Dēidamīa, Elegīa, Ėōus, Êphigenīa, Łāodamīa, Menēlaus, Thāis, Thalīa (or Thalēa), Trōicus.

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However, over the centuries, Latin has sounded very different indeed from what is recommended here. In the ancient world there were huge variations
over the vast expanse of the Roman Empire. And as Allen remarks, ‘anyone who has listened to Latin as pronounced until recently in the Westminster play, or at Grace by elder members of Oxford and Cambridge high tables, or in legal phraseology, will be aware that it bears little relation to the pronunciation with which we have been concerned’ (*Vox Latina*, p. 102).

Users of this grammar may therefore find it interesting to read the following brief account of the pronunciation of Latin in England, which is heavily indebted to Allen (*Vox Latina*, pp. 102–10); see also L. P. Wilkinson, *Golden Latin Artistry* (Cambridge, 1963), pp. 3–6).

### The pronunciation of Latin in England

Throughout the centuries in which Latin has been spoken in England, native speech habits have had a considerable effect on the pronunciation of the language. In the Old English period there was no attempt to observe the correct vowel lengths except in the penultimate syllables of words of more than two syllables: thus *mínimís* and *mellóra*. The first syllable of a two-syllable word was rendered heavy by lengthening the first vowel if it was originally ‘short’ (e.g. *líbrum* for *librum*). Also *s* after vowels was pronounced as *z*.

After the Norman conquest, the French influence made itself strongly felt. Consonantal *i* and *g* (before vowels) were pronounced like *j* in *judge* (e.g. in *iístum* and *genus*), *c* (before *i* or *e*) was pronounced like *s* (so Ciceró became Síséró, as he remains in English to this day), and long vowels before two or more consonants were pronounced short (*núllus* becoming *nullus*). The tendency to lengthen short vowels was reinforced (e.g. *ténèt* and *fócus* for *tenet* and *focus*).

In the mid-fourteenth century English started to establish itself as the medium for the teaching of Latin in England, which had its effect on the pronunciation of the language. Then in 1528 Erasmus’s dialogue *De recta Latini Graecique sermonis pronunctiatione* (Concerning the correct pronunciation of Latin and Greek) was published in Basle. This light-hearted conversation between a bear (the instructor) and a lion was a milestone on the journey towards the re-establishment of the classical pronunciation. It recommends *inter alia* hard *c* and *g* before all vowels and the pronunciation of *s* as simply *s* where a *z* sound had become traditional (e.g. in *mílitēs*). In addition it reasserts the importance of vowel length.

While Erasmus does not appear to have actually used his reformed pronunciation, his work had an important, if gradual, influence. Attempts to establish his recommended pronunciation at Cambridge, however, were
temporarily halted when the Chancellor of the University published in 1542 an edict specifically forbidding it. Undergraduates, he claimed, were becoming insolent in making use of an exotic pronunciation and relishing the fact that their elders could not understand it.

The Chancellor's edict was repealed in 1558. Even so, the new pronunciation was obstructed by inertia and the prejudice of traditionalists as well as by developments in English as the Middle English vowel system shifted to that of modern English (the so-called Great English Vowel Shift). These meant that the Latin vowels a, i, and e (at least when stressed) were pronounced as in English name, wine, and seen. In addition, in words of more than two syllables with a light penultimate, the antepenultimate (stressed) vowel was generally shortened. Thus Oedipus and Aeschylus became Edipus and Eschylus—as they remain in the USA—and Caesaris became Cesaris.

In the mid-nineteenth century vowel length began to be correctly taught, and hard g and c were established in some quarters. However, around 1870 there came to a head a feeling that something far more radical had to be done about the chaos in the pronunciation of classical Latin, and by the end of the century all the responsible bodies in England representing schools, universities and learned societies had recommended the adoption of an authentic scheme of pronunciation formulated by various Cambridge and Oxford colleges.

However, inertia as well as downright opposition ensured that the reforms took at least a generation to come into effect. Especially controversial was the recognition that in Latin there is no sound v (the equivalent sound was English w). Thus what had been written vēnī, vīdī, vīcī should be pronounced wayny, weedy, weaky—which for some reason struck the reactionaries as being very funny.

Even as late as 1939 The Times received—and suppressed—a letter against the old pronunciation by the Kennedy Professor of Latin at Cambridge, and the controversy lingered on until the 1950s. Indeed, one elderly teacher at a famous English school could still be heard regularly using the old pronunciation in 1980. In addition, it has to be acknowledged that, as Allen crisply remarks, the reforms do not go so far as to involve any actually non-English sounds (Vox Latina, p. 106). In fact it has been Allen's work, enthusiastically propagated by the Joint Association of Classical Teachers, which has eventually shifted the English pronunciation of classical Latin closer to the Mediterranean basin.
Number, gender and cases

In English grammar we are familiar with the concept of number, i.e. singular and plural:

The **boy** was attracted to the **girls** but **they** were not attracted to **him**.

Here the words in bold are singular while the words underlined are plural.

We are also familiar with the concept of gender, i.e. masculine, feminine, and neuter:

The girl and the boy love the cat but it feels no affection for them.

Here the girl is ‘feminine’ and the boy is ‘masculine’. While the cat will of course in reality be either male or female, it is here regarded as neither: hence the word ‘it’. This is the ‘neuter’ gender.

Cases

Latin is an inflected language, i.e. the endings of most of its words change depending on their function in a sentence. English is largely uninflected, though some words do change according to their function:

I looked for my father **whom** I had lost, but I could not find **him**.

Meanwhile our mother was out looking for **us**.

‘Whom’, ‘him’, and ‘us’ are the *accusative* of ‘who’, ‘he’, and ‘we’. (You can see how English tends to abolish inflection from the fact that most speakers nowadays would say ‘who’ and not ‘whom’ in this sentence.)

Verbs in tenses (see p. 32) are called finite verbs; they have *subjects* and often have *objects*. The subject carries out the action of the verb; the object is on the receiving end of the action of the verb. In the sentence above, ‘I’ is the subject of the verb ‘looked for’, ‘my father’ is its object. ‘I’ am doing the looking; he is being looked for. Which words are the subjects and the objects in the following sentences?
The gardener mowed the lawn.
The dog obstructed him.
I saw them.

The subject is in the **nominative** case, the object is in the **accusative**. In what cases are: *she, her, whom, he, them*?

Nominative and accusative are the names of just two of the Latin cases in Latin. In Latin there are seven of these cases and they have names which are almost all still used in English grammars (though in English the case we refer to below as the *ablative* tends to be called the ‘instrumental’ case).

In Latin the endings of nouns (note that there is no definite article (*the*) or indefinite article (*a* or *an*) in Latin), pronouns, and adjectives vary according to the case they are in. In English this happens only in some pronouns, as in the examples above. The endings by which the cases are marked on most Latin nouns fall into a number of regular patterns. (The word ‘case’ comes from Latin *cadō* (I fall) and thus the word ‘fall’ is highly appropriate.) We call these patterns **declensions**. It is customary to recognize five of these. To **decline** is to go through the different cases of a noun, adjective or pronoun, in order.

In Latin, adjectives are in the same number, gender, and case as the nouns to which they refer. (This is called **agreement**.) The endings, however, could well be different, since the adjective may belong to a different declension from its noun.

---

1 In the vocabulary lists in this Grammar, nouns are given in their nominative and genitive singular, and adjectives are given in their nominative singular, masculine, feminine, and neuter.

---

1 | **Nominative**

The nominative is, as we have seen, the case of the **subject** of the verb:

**Quīntus ambulābat.**
Quintus was walking.

It is also used of the **complement** of the verb:

**Quīntus est frāter meus.**
Quintus is my brother.
Genitive

The basic meaning of the genitive case is 'of'. It is used mainly in these senses:

- possessive:
  
  *ullam mātris meae uendidī.*
  I sold my mother's villa (the villa of my mother).

- partitive:
  
  *fer mihi plūs uīnī.*
  Bring me more wine (literally, more of wine).

- descriptive (this is often called the genitive of quality):
  
  *fēmina magnae prūdentiae*
  a woman of great good sense

- characterizing:
  
  *bonī est rēm pūblīcam cōnseruāre.*
  It is characteristic of a good man to look after the state.

- of value:
  
  *ōrātiō nūllīus mōmentī*
  a speech of no importance

- after the verbs of remembering and forgetting (both can also take an accusative)
  
  *memīnī, memīnisse* I remember
  *oblūīscor, oblūīscī, oblūtus sum* I forget

- expressing the charge after the verbs:
  
  *absolūō, absolūere, absolūī, absolūtum* I acquit
  *accūsō (1)* I accuse
  *damnō, condemnō (1)* I condemn

  *māiestātis Petrōniuṁ accūsō.*
  I accuse Petronius of treason.
  *
  *sicāriuṁ illum capitis damnō.* 1
  I condemn that assassin to death.

  1. In this example 'caput', meaning head or life, is the penalty.

- after the following adjectives:
  
  *auidus, auida, auidum* greedy (for)
  *cōnsčius, cōnsčia, cōnsčium* conscious (of)
  *cupidus, cupida, cupidum* desirous (of)
  *expers, expers, expers* without, lacking
memor, memor, memor  mindful (of), remembering
immemor, immemor, immemor  unmindful (of), forgetting
nescius, nescia, nescium  not knowing, ignorant (of)
peītus, peīta, peītum  expert (in), experienced (in)
plēnus, plēna, plēnum—>  full (of)²
studiōsus, studiōsa, studiōsum  eager (for)
similis, similis, simile—>  like³
dissimilis, dissimilis, dissimile  unlike³
filius patris  simillimus  a son very like his father

2. This adjective can also be used with the ablative.
3. A genitive is always correct after these; a dative can also be used.

• in front of the ‘postpositions’ causā and grātiā, both meaning ‘for the sake of’. Postpositions are prepositions which follow the noun dependent on them.

uestrae salūtis grātiā
for the sake of your safety

3 | Dative

The basic meanings of the dative case are ‘to’ and ‘for’. It goes naturally with verbs of giving (it derives from the Latin word dō (I give): datum means ‘given’). These verbs are regularly followed by a direct object in the accusative and an indirect object in the dative:

librum filiae meae dedī.
I gave a book (direct object) to my daughter (indirect object)—or
I gave my daughter a book.

Other uses of the dative include:
• possessive:
  est mihi canis.
  I have a dog (literally, there is to me a dog).
• of advantage or disadvantage:
  rem públicam nōbīs seruāuit.
  He saved the state for us.
of separation:

\[ \text{gladium mihi rapuit.} \]
He snatched my sword from me.\(^1\)

the so-called ‘ethic’ or ‘polite’ dative:

\[ \text{aperī mihi hanc iānua.} \]
Open this door for me, i.e. Please open this door.\(^2\)

after a large number of verbs (see pp. 11–12).

---

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{1. This is in fact a dative of disadvantage.} \\
\text{2. Compare in Elizabethan English ‘Knock me this door’.
}\end{align*} \]

---

**Verbs followed by the dative case**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>appropinquō (1)</th>
<th>I approach</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cōnfidō, cōnfidere, cōnīsus sum</td>
<td>I trust, have confidence in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diffidō, diffidere, diffīsus sum</td>
<td>I mistrust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnsulō(^3), cōnsulere, cōnsulūī, cōnsultum</td>
<td>I take care of, provide for(^3)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crēdō, crēdere, crēdītī, crēditum</td>
<td>I believe, trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>faueō, fauère, faūī, fautum</td>
<td>I favour, back up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grātulor (1)</td>
<td>I congratulate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ignōscō, ignōscere, ignōuī, ignōtum</td>
<td>I forgive, pardon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(like nōscō)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>immineo, imminēre, —, —</td>
<td>I threaten, overhang</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>indulgeō, indulgeīre, indulsiī, indulsum</td>
<td>I am kind to, am lenient to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inuideo, inuidere, inuīdī, inuīsum</td>
<td>I envy, grudge (like uideō)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>īrāscor, īrāscī, īrātus sum</td>
<td>I am angry (with)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>medeōr (2)</td>
<td>I heal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noceō (2)</td>
<td>I hurt</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nūbō, nūbere, nūpsiī, nūptum</td>
<td>I marry (woman as subject)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obstō, obstāre, obstītī, obstitum</td>
<td>I stand in the way of, withstand, hinder (like stō, but note obstītī, obstitum)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>occurrō, occurrere, occurrī, occursum</td>
<td>I run to meet (like currō)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>succurrō, succurrere, succurrī, succursum</td>
<td>I run to help</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parcō, parcere, pepercī, parsum</td>
<td>I spare</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

\[ \begin{align*}
\text{3. When cōnsulō is followed by the accusative, it means ‘I consult’}\end{align*} \]
pāreō (2)  
persuādeō, persuādēre, persuāsī, persuāsum
placeō (2)
displaceō (2)
praecipio, praecipere, praecepT, praeceptum
resistō, resistere, restitī, —
seruiō (4)
studeō, studēre, studuī, —
subueniō, subuenēre, subuēnī, subuentum

I obey  
I persuade  
I place  
I please  
I displease  
I teach, order (like capiō, but note praeceptum)
I resist  
I am a slave to, work for  
I devote myself to, am keen on, study  
I come to the help of (like ueniō)

Note:
Most of these verbs fall into the categories of helping, favouring, obeying, pleasing, serving or ordering, persuading, trusting, sparing, pardoning, envying, being angry.

Note also these verbs followed by the accusative and the dative:
tibi aliquid obiciō, obicere, obiēcī, obiectum.
I throw something in your way.
(I reproach you with something.)
tē exercituī praeficiō.
I put you in charge of the army.

Compounds of sum (except for possum, absūm, ūnsum) are followed by the dative:

senātuī adsum. I am present at the senate.
gemmae dēsunt mihi. I lack jewels.
hīs rēbus interfuī. I was involved in these things.
exercituī praesum. I am in command of the army.
cōnsilium tuum mihi prōdest. Your advice is useful to me (benefits me).
parentibus superfūī. I survived my parents.

The predicative dative is frequently used with the verb ‘to be’, as in the following expressions:
argumentō esse  to be proof
auxiliō esse  to be a means of help
bonō esse  to profit, be advantageous
cordī esse  to be dear
cūrae esse  to be a cause of concern
dannō esse  to hurt, harm
dēdecorī esse  to be a cause of shame
dētrimentō esse  to be harmful, to cause loss
dolōri esse  to be a cause of grief
dōnō esse  as a present
exemplō esse  to be an example
exitō esse  to prove the destruction (of)
honorī esse  to be an honour
impedimentō esse  to be a hindrance
lucrō esse  to be profitable
lūdīri esse  to be an object of ridicule
malō esse  to harm
odiō esse  to be an object of hatred
onerī esse  to be a burden
praesidiō esse  to be a defence, a protection
pudōri esse  to be a cause of shame
salūti esse  to prove the salvation (of)
subsidiō esse  to be a help
ūsuī esse  to be of use, benefit

Horatius, quia tam fortis erat, nōn modo suīs magnō praeidia fuit sed etiam reipublicae salūti.
Because he was so brave, Horatius proved not only a strong defence to his men but also the salvation of the state.

For the dative of the agent with the gerundive, see p. 111.

4 | Accusative

The accusative is, as we have seen, the case of the object:

cauē canem!
Beware of the dog!

• It is also used after a large number of prepositions (see pp. 29–30).
• It is used in expressions of time, place, and space (see pp. 71–5).
Exclamations are in the accusative:

- mē miserum!
  poor me!
- ō tempora! ō mōrēs!
  o these times! o these customs! (i.e. what have things come to!)

The subject of the infinitive is in the accusative:

- sapientem eum esse crēdō.
  I believe him to be wise.

5 | Ablative

The basic meanings of the ablative case are 'by', 'with', 'from', 'at', 'in' or 'on'. When the meaning is 'by' and it is a living creature that performs the action, Latin uses ā or ab with the ablative:

- rēgīna ā marītō suō occīsa est.
  The queen was killed by her own husband.

When the action is caused by an inanimate object, Latin uses the ablative without ā or ab:

- canis lapide laesus est.
  The dog was injured by a stone.

The ablative is also used after a large number of prepositions (see pp. 29–30). It is used in expressions of time, place, and space (see pp. 71–5).

- Note the ablative of description:
  - puer longīs capillīs
    a boy with long hair
  - puella maximā prūdențiā
    a girl of the greatest good sense

Unlike the genitive of description (see p. 8), it can be used of visible and tangible qualities, as in the first example above. This usage is often called the ablative of quality.

- the ablative of price:
  - uīllam magnō pretiō ēmī.
    I bought the villa at a considerable price.

Compare the genitive of value:

- hanc uīllam maximī aestimō.
  I value this house very highly.
Note the following ablatives of price:

- **magnō** at a great price
- **plūrimō** at a very great price
- **paruō** at a small (low) price
- **nihilō** for nothing
- **uiūi** cheaply

- The ablative of comparison. When *quam* (than) is not used, the object of comparison (i.e. the word after ‘than’ in English) is in the ablative:

  **sorōre meā sapientior sum.**  
  I am cleverer than my sister.

But note that in classical prose *quam* is the norm for this kind of comparison. The ablative of comparison came to be used as an alternative in the poets particularly.

- The ablative of the measure of difference:

  **soror mea sorōre tua multō sapientior est.**  
  My sister is much wiser (*literally*, wiser by much) than yours.

- For the ablative absolute construction, see pp. 79–80.

The following verbs are followed by the ablative:

- **abūtor, abūti, abūsus sum** I use up, waste, misuse
- **careō (2)** I am without, lack
- **egeō (2)** I am without, lack
- **fruor, fruí, frúctus (or fruitus) sum** I enjoy
- **fungor, fungī, fúctus sum** I perform, discharge (sometimes with acc.)
- **opus est mihi (tibi, etc.)** I (you, etc.) need
  - **gladiō puellae opus est.** The girl needs a sword.
- **potior (4)** I take possession of, possess
- **uēscor, uēscī, —** I feed on
- **ūtor, ūti, ūsus sum** I use

---

1. **potior** can also be followed by the accusative and genitive.

- The ablative is used after the following adjectives:
  - **contentus, contenta, contentum** contented with, satisfied with
  - **dignus, digna, dignum** worthy of
  - **indignus, indigna, indignum** unworthy of
frētus, frēta, frētum  
relying on  
orbis, orba, orbun  
deprived of, bereft of  
praeditus, praedita, praeditum  
endowed with

6 | Vocative

The vocative is the case by which you address or call to someone:

Quīnte, cauē canem!
Quintus, beware of the dog!

The vocative is in most instances indistinguishable in form from the nominative in Latin, and we have therefore omitted it from our tables of grammar. We have referred in a note to the kinds of word in which it is different.

7 | Locative

The locative case tells us the place where something is happening:

Rōmae  at Rome
domī  at home
rūrī  in the country
humī  on the ground

See note 8 on p. 18.

| Practice sentences |

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1 Brūtus Cassiusque Caesarem dictātōrem occīdērunt.
2 uir magnae auctūritātis—homō nihilī—animō ignāuus, procāx ēre.
3 plūs praedae mīlitibus dōnat.
4 bēstiae sunt ratiōnis et ēratiōnis expertēs. (Cicero, de officiis, 1.51)
5 cīuis bonī est lēgibus pārēre.
6 perfer et obdūrā: multō grāuiōra tulistī. (Ovid, Tristia, 5.11.7)
7 Romulus founded the city (of) Rome.
8 His deeds were a cause of shame to the Greeks.
9 One man is in command of all the Romans.
10 The horse was worth a lot of money but I bought it cheaply.
11 She is much more stupid than her brother.
12 I forgot his words, but my friend remembered them.
# Reference Grammar

## Nouns

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<th>2nd declension</th>
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<td>stems in -a</td>
<td>stems in -o</td>
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<tr>
<td><strong>feminine</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>puell-a (<em>girl</em>)</td>
<td>domin-us (<em>master</em>)</td>
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<td>gen.</td>
<td>puell-ae</td>
<td>domin-ī</td>
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<td><strong>masculine</strong></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
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## 3rd declension

<table>
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<th>stems in i</th>
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<tbody>
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<td><strong>masc. &amp; fem.</strong></td>
<td>domin-ī</td>
<td>nāu-ī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>rex (<em>king, m.</em>)</td>
<td>nāuis (<em>ship, f.</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>rég-is</td>
<td>litor-is</td>
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<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>rég-ī</td>
<td>litor-ī</td>
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<td>acc.</td>
<td>rég-em</td>
<td>litus</td>
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<tr>
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<td>rég-e</td>
<td>litor-e</td>
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<td><strong>neuter</strong></td>
<td>domin-ī</td>
<td>nāu-ī</td>
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<td>rég-ēs</td>
<td>litor-a</td>
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<td>rég-um</td>
<td>litor-um</td>
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<td>rég-ibus</td>
<td>litor-ibus</td>
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<td>rég-ēs</td>
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<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>rég-ibus</td>
<td>litor-ibus</td>
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</table>
### 3rd declension

**ending in 2 consonants**

<table>
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<th>masc. &amp; fem.</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>urbs (city, f.)</td>
<td>pater (father, m.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>urb-is</td>
<td>patr-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>urb-ī</td>
<td>patr-ī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>urb-em</td>
<td>patr-em</td>
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<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>urb-e</td>
<td>patr-e</td>
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### 4th declension

**stems in -u**

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<th>feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>grad-us (step)</td>
<td>corn-ū (horn, wing of an army)</td>
<td>r-ēs (thing)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>grad-ūs</td>
<td>corn-ūs</td>
<td>r-eī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>grad-uī</td>
<td>corn-uī</td>
<td>r-eī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>grad-um</td>
<td>corn-ū</td>
<td>r-em</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
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<td>corn-ū</td>
<td>r-ē</td>
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### 5th declension

**stems in -e**

<table>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>grad-us</td>
<td>corn-ua</td>
<td>r-ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>grad-uum</td>
<td>corn-uum</td>
<td>r-ērum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>grad-ibus</td>
<td>corn-ibus</td>
<td>r-ēbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>grad-ūs</td>
<td>corn-ua</td>
<td>r-ēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>grad-ibus</td>
<td>corn-ibus</td>
<td>r-ēbus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Notes

1. The vocative is the same as the nominative for all nouns of all declensions except for 2nd declension masculine nouns in -us, e.g. domin-us, which form vocative singular -e, e.g. domin-e; and in -ius, e.g. fil-ius (son), which form vocative singular -ī, e.g. fil-ī.

2. All nouns of the 1st declension are feminine except for a few which are masculine by meaning, e.g. nauta (sailor), agricola (farmer), scriba (clerk, secretary).
3 2nd declension masculine nouns with nominative singular *-er*, e.g. *puer* (boy), *ager* (field): some keep *-e-* in the other cases, e.g. *puer, puer-i*; others drop it, e.g. *ager, agr-i*.

The genitive singular of masculine nouns ending *-ius* and neuter nouns ending *-ium* in nominative is often contracted from *-ii* to *-i*, e.g. *fili* (son), *ingeni* (character).

4 The following 2nd declension nouns have minor irregularities: *deus* (god) has nominative plural *deii* or *di*, genitive plural *deorum* or *deum*, ablative plural *deis* or *dis*; *uir, uiri* (man) has genitive plural *uirorum* or *uirum*.

5 3rd declension. The gender of all 3rd declension nouns has to be learned.

Genitive plural: the general rule is that nouns with stems in *i* have genitive plural *-iut*, while those with stems in consonants have genitive plural *-um*. All nouns with nominative *-is*, e.g. *nauis*, have stems in *i*. And so do nouns with nominatives that end in two consonants, e.g. *fons* (spring), *urbs*, genitive plural *fontium, urbium* (their original nominative was, e.g., *urbis*). Apart from these nouns ending in two consonants, if a 3rd declension noun gets longer in the genitive singular, it does not get any longer in the genitive plural (which therefore ends in *-um*); and if it does not get longer in the genitive singular, its genitive plural ends in *-iut* (exceptions: *canis* (dog), *iuuenis* (young man), *senex* (old man), *sedes* (seat, residence), *pater* (father), *mater* (mother), *frater* (brother)).

Nouns with stems in *i* have alternative forms for ablative singular, e.g. *nau* or *nai* and for accusative plural, e.g. *nauis* or *nai*. But *uis* (force) in singular has only accusative *uim* and ablative *ui*. The plural *uiras* (strength) is regular, with genitive *uirum*.

6 Most 4th declension nouns are masculine; *manus* (hand) is feminine, as is *domus* (house, home), which has alternative 2nd declension endings in the dative singular (*domui* or *domo*) and in the genitive and accusative plural (*domuum* or *domorum*, *domus* or *domos*); locative *domi*.

There are very few neuter 4th declension nouns; the only common ones are *cornu* and *genu* (knee).

7 All 5th declension nouns are feminine except for *diis* (day), which can be masculine or feminine.

8 The locative case, meaning where:

1st declension singular: *-ae*, e.g. *Romeae* (at Rome) plural: *-ae*, e.g. *Atheneae* (at Athens)

2nd declension singular: *-i*, e.g. *Corinthii* (at Corinth) plural: *-is*, e.g. *Philippisi* (at Phillipi)

3rd declension singular: *-i/e*, e.g. *ruris, rure* (in the country), *humii* (on the ground) plural: *-ibus*, e.g. *Gadibus* (at Cadiz).
Adjectives

Masculine & neuter 2nd declension; feminine 1st declension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular</th>
<th>m.</th>
<th>f.</th>
<th>n.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>bon-us (good)</td>
<td>bon-a</td>
<td>bon-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>bon-ī</td>
<td>bon-ae</td>
<td>bon-ī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>bon-ō</td>
<td>bon-ae</td>
<td>bon-ō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>bon-um</td>
<td>bon-am</td>
<td>bon-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>bon-ō</td>
<td>bon-ā</td>
<td>bon-ō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

plural

| nom.       | bon-ī           | bon-ae          | bon-a           |
| gen.       | bon-ōrum        | bon-ārum        | bon-ōrum        |
| dat.       | bon-īs          | bon-īs          | bon-īs          |
| acc.       | bon-ōs          | bon-ās          | bon-a           |
| abl.       | bon-īs          | bon-īs          | bon-īs          |

Note

Similarly, miser (wretched), misera, miserum (keeping -e- like puer) and pulcher (beautiful), pulchra, pulchrum (dropping the -e-, like ager).

3rd declension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>consonant stems</th>
<th>m. &amp; f.</th>
<th>n.</th>
<th>stems in -ri</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>pauper (poor)</td>
<td>pauper</td>
<td>ācer (keen)³</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>pauper-is</td>
<td>pauper-is</td>
<td>ācr-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>pauper-ī</td>
<td>pauper-ī</td>
<td>ācr-ī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>pauper-em</td>
<td>pauper</td>
<td>ācr-em</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>pauper-ē</td>
<td>pauper-e</td>
<td>ācr-ī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

plural

| nom.            | pauper-ēs       | pauper-a        | ācr-ēs        | ācr-ia       |
| gen.            | pauper-um       | pauper-um       | ācr-ium       | ācr-ium      |
| dat.            | pauper-ibus     | pauper-ibus     | ācr-ibus      | ācr-ibus     |
| acc.            | pauper-ēs       | pauper-ēs       | ācr-ēs        | ācr-ia       |
| abl.            | pauper-ibus     | pauper-ibus     | ācr-ibus      | ācr-ibus     |

1. But f. ācr-īs; ācr-īs; ācr-ī; etc.
### 3rd declension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>M. &amp; F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>omnis (all)</td>
<td>omn-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>omn-is</td>
<td>omn-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>omn-ī</td>
<td>omn-ī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>omn-em</td>
<td>omn-e</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>omn-ī</td>
<td>omn-ī</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>omn-ēs</td>
<td>omn-ia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>omn-ium</td>
<td>omn-ium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>omn-ibus</td>
<td>omn-ibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>omn-ēs (-īs)</td>
<td>omn-ia</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>omn-ibus</td>
<td>omn-ibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Notes

1. Most 3rd declension adjectives have stems in i. Other types of adjective with stems in i are: *ferōx* (fierce; neuter *ferōx*), genitive *ferōc-is*; *celer* (quick; feminine *celeris*, neuter *celere*), genitive *celer-is*.

2. 3rd declension adjectives with stems in consonants are few, e.g. *dīues* (rich), *dīuit-is*; *pauper*, *pauper-is*; *uetus* (old), *ueter-is*; and the comparative adjective, e.g. *fortior* (stronger, braver; neuter *fortius*), genitive *fortīr-is*.

3. While the ablative of *ingēns* is *ingenti*, present participles, e.g. *amāns* (loving), end their ablatives in -e (*amante*) when used not as adjectives, but as participles.
Mixed 2nd and 3rd declensions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular</th>
<th>m.</th>
<th>f.</th>
<th>n.</th>
<th>m.</th>
<th>f.</th>
<th>n.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>alter</td>
<td>altera</td>
<td>alterum</td>
<td>uter</td>
<td>utra</td>
<td>utrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>alterus</td>
<td>alterius</td>
<td>alterius</td>
<td>uterius</td>
<td>utrīs</td>
<td>utrīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>altern</td>
<td>altern</td>
<td>altern</td>
<td>utrum</td>
<td>utram</td>
<td>utrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>alterum</td>
<td>alteram</td>
<td>alterum</td>
<td>utrum</td>
<td>utram</td>
<td>utrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>alterō</td>
<td>alterā</td>
<td>alterō</td>
<td>utrō</td>
<td>utrā</td>
<td>utrō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural like that of bon-i, bon-ae, bon-a. Similarly: uterque, utraque, utrumque (each of two).

The following adjectives have the same characteristics, i.e. gen. sing. -ius, dat. sing. -ī:

alis, alia, alius
nullus, nulla, nullum
ullus, ülla, üllum
solus, sola, solum
totus, tota, totum
unus, una, unum

different from the neuter

•••• >Note

nemo (no one) which declines: nēmō, nēminem, nullus, nēminē, nullū."
The comparative declines as a 3rd declension adjective (consonant stem):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>singular</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>m. &amp; f.</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>m. &amp; f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>longior</td>
<td>longius</td>
<td>longiorēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>longiorīs</td>
<td>longiorīs</td>
<td>longiorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>longiorī</td>
<td>longiorī</td>
<td>longioribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>longiorēm</td>
<td>longius</td>
<td>longiorēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>longiorē</td>
<td>longiorē</td>
<td>longioribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The superlative declines like bonus, bona, bonum.

The following common adjectives have irregular comparison:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>positive</th>
<th>comparative</th>
<th>superlative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bonus (good)</td>
<td>melior</td>
<td>optimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>malus (bad)</td>
<td>peior</td>
<td>pessimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>magnus (great)</td>
<td>maior</td>
<td>maximus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multus (much)</td>
<td>plūs*</td>
<td>plūrimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paruus (small)</td>
<td>minor</td>
<td>minimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>senex (old)</td>
<td>nātū maiōr</td>
<td>nātū maximus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iuuenis (young)</td>
<td>nātū minor</td>
<td>nātū minimus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* plūs in the singular is a neuter noun, declining: plūs, plūris, plūri, plūs, plūre. So plūs cibē = more (of) food. In the plural it is an adjective: plūrēs, plūra, etc. So plūrēs puellae = more girls.

Adjectives ending -er in the nominative double the -r- in the superlative, e.g.

- miser, (wretched) miserior, miserrimus
- pulcher, (beautiful) pulchrior, pulcherrimus
- celer, (quick) celerior, celerrimus

Six adjectives with nominative -ilis double the -l- in the superlative:

- facilis (easy), faciliōr, facillimus
- difficilis (difficult), difficiliōr, difficillimus
- gracilis (slender), graciliōr, gracillimus
- humilis (low), humiliōr, humillimus
- similis (like), similiōr, simillimus
- dissimilis (unlike), dissimiliōr, dissimillimus
Other adjectives with nominative -ilis form regular superlatives, e.g. amābilis (loveable), amābilior, amābilissimus.

| Adverbs |

1. From bonus type adjectives, adverbs are usually formed by adding -ē to the stem, e.g. lent-ūs (slow): lent-e (slowly); miser (wretched): miser-ē (wretchedly). A few add -ō, e.g. subit-ūs (sudden): subit-ō (suddenly).

2. From 3rd declension adjectives, adverbs are usually formed by adding -ter to the stem. e.g. fēlix (fortunate): fēlici-ter (fortunately); celer (quick): celeri-ter (quickly). A few 3rd declension adjectives use the accusative neuter singular as an adverb, e.g. facilis (easy), facile (easily); so also comparative adverbs. e.g. fortior (braver), fortius (more bravely).

3. There are many adverbs which have no corresponding adjectival form, e.g. diū (for a long time), quandō (when?), iam (now, already), semper (always).

4. Comparison of adverbs. The comparative adverb is the same as the neuter accusative of the comparative adjective; the superlative adverb is formed by changing the nominative ending -us to -ē, e.g.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>adverb</th>
<th>comparative adverb</th>
<th>superlative adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>longus (long)</td>
<td>longē (far)</td>
<td>longius</td>
<td>longissimē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fortis (strong, brave)</td>
<td>fortiter</td>
<td>fortius</td>
<td>fortissimē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note the following irregular adverbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>adverb</th>
<th>comparative adverb</th>
<th>superlative adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bonus (good)</td>
<td>bene</td>
<td>melius</td>
<td>optimē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>malus (bad)</td>
<td>male</td>
<td>peius</td>
<td>pessimē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>facilis (easy)</td>
<td>facile</td>
<td>facilius</td>
<td>facillimē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>magnus (great)</td>
<td>magnopere</td>
<td>magis (more, of degree)</td>
<td>maximē (most, very greatly)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multus (much)</td>
<td>multum</td>
<td>plūs (more, of quantity)</td>
<td>plurimum (most, very much)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paruus (small)</td>
<td>paul(l)um</td>
<td>minus</td>
<td>minimē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prīmus (first)</td>
<td>prīnum</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>diū (for a long time)</td>
<td>diūtius</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>diūtissimē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post (after)</td>
<td>posterius</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>postrēmō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
(irregular adverbs cont.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>adjective</th>
<th>adverb</th>
<th>comparative adverb</th>
<th>superlative adverb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>prope (near)</td>
<td>propius</td>
<td></td>
<td>proximē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saepe (often)</td>
<td>saepius</td>
<td></td>
<td>saepissimē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potius (rather)</td>
<td>potius (rather)</td>
<td></td>
<td>potissimum (especially)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Numerals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>cardinals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 ūnus   I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 duo    II</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 trēs   III</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 quattuor IV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 quinque V</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 sex     VI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 septem VII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 octō VIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 novem IX</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 decem X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 undecim XI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 duodecim XII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 tredecim XIII</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 quattuordecim XIV</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 quīndecim XV</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Notes**

1 The numbers 4–100 do not decline; 200–900 decline like bonī, -ae, -a.

2 Compound numbers: 24, for example, is uīgintī quattuor or quattuor et uīgintī (cf. English 'four and twenty').

3 mīlia does not decline; mīlia is a 3rd declension noun, so:
miō passus = a mile (1,000 paces)
duo mīlia passuum = 2 miles (2,000 (of) paces).

4 Adverbial numbers: semēl, bis, ter, quater, quīnquiēns, sexiēns, septiēns, octiēns, nouiēns, deciēns (once, twice, three times etc.); centiēns (100 times); mīliēns (1,000 times). The ending -iēns is often found as -īēs.
**ordinals**

1st prīmus, -a, -um  
2nd secundus, -a, -um/alter, -a, -um  
3rd tertius, -a, -um  
4th quārtus, -a, -um  
5th quintus, -a, -um  
6th sextus, -a, -um  
7th septimus, -a, -um  
8th octāvus, -a, -um  
9th nōnus, -a, -um  
10th decimus, -a, -um  
11th ūndecimus, -a, -um  
12th duodecimus, -a, -um  
13th tertius, -a, -um decimus, -a, -um  
14th quartus, -a, -um decimus, -a, -um etc.  
19th duodēuīcēnsimus, -a, -um  
20th uīcēnsimus, -a, -um  
30th trīcēnsimus, -a, -um  
40th quadrāgēnsimus, -a, -um  
50th quīnquāgēnsimus, -a, -um  
60th sexāgēnsimus, -a, -um  
70th septuāgēnsimus, -a, -um  
80th octōgēnsimus, -a, -um  
90th nōnāgēnsimus, -a, -um  
100th centēnsimus, -a, -um  
1,000th mīllēnsimus, -a, -um

---

**Note**
The ending -ēnsimus is often found as -ēsimus.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Declension of ūnus, duo, trēs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūnus (one)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>m.</th>
<th>f.</th>
<th>n.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>duo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td></td>
<td>duoae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td></td>
<td>duōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td></td>
<td>duōbus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td></td>
<td>duōbus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| nom.          | m. | f. | n.     |
| trēs (three)  |    |    | tria   |
| gen.          |    |    | tria   |
| dat.          |    |    | tribus |
| acc.          |    | tribus| tribus|
| abl.          |    | tribus| tribus|
# Pronouns

## Personal Pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>ego(1)</td>
<td>nōs (we)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>mē</td>
<td>nostrum, nostrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>mēhī</td>
<td>nobīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>mē</td>
<td>nōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>mē</td>
<td>nobīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>tū (you)</td>
<td>uōs (you)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>tuī</td>
<td>uestrī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>tūī</td>
<td>uōbīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>tē</td>
<td>uōs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>tē</td>
<td>uōbīs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

## Notes

1. Note the way the ablative of these words combines with cum (with): mēcum (with me), nōbīscum (with us), etc.

2. The genitives nostrī and uestrī are objective, e.g. cupidus nostrī (desirous of us, wanting us); the genitives nostrum and uestrum are partitive, e.g. ūnus uestrum (one of you).

### Possessive Adjectives

- meus, -a, -um (my)*
- tuus, -a, -um (your)
- suus, -a, -um (his own, her own)
- noster, nostrā, nostrum (our)
- uester, uestra, uestrum (your)
- suus, -a, -um (their own)

*All decline like bonus, -a, -um or pulcher, pulchr-a, pulchr-um but the vocative of meus is mī

## Deictic Pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
<th>M.</th>
<th>F.</th>
<th>N.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>hic (this)</td>
<td>haec</td>
<td>hoc</td>
<td>ille (that)</td>
<td>illa</td>
<td>illud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>huius</td>
<td>huius</td>
<td>huius</td>
<td>illius</td>
<td>illius</td>
<td>illius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>huic</td>
<td>huic</td>
<td>huic</td>
<td>illī</td>
<td>illī</td>
<td>illī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>hunc</td>
<td>hanc</td>
<td>hoc</td>
<td>illum</td>
<td>illam</td>
<td>illud</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>hōc</td>
<td>hāc</td>
<td>hōc</td>
<td>illō</td>
<td>illā</td>
<td>illō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>m.</td>
<td>f.</td>
<td>n.</td>
<td>m.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>hī</td>
<td>hae</td>
<td>haec</td>
<td>illī</td>
<td>illae</td>
<td>illa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>hörum</td>
<td>hārum</td>
<td>hōrum</td>
<td>illōrum</td>
<td>illārum</td>
<td>illōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>hīs</td>
<td>hīs</td>
<td>hīs</td>
<td>illīs</td>
<td>illīs</td>
<td>illīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>hös</td>
<td>hās</td>
<td>haec</td>
<td>illōs</td>
<td>illās</td>
<td>illa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>hīs</td>
<td>hīs</td>
<td>hīs</td>
<td>illīs</td>
<td>illīs</td>
<td>illīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>is*</td>
<td>ea</td>
<td>id</td>
<td>ipse (self)</td>
<td>ipsa</td>
<td>ipsum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>eius</td>
<td>eius</td>
<td>eius</td>
<td>ipsīus</td>
<td>ipsīus</td>
<td>ipsīus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>eī</td>
<td>eī</td>
<td>eī</td>
<td>ipsī</td>
<td>ipsī</td>
<td>ipsī</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>eum</td>
<td>eam</td>
<td>id</td>
<td>ipsum</td>
<td>ipsam</td>
<td>ipsum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>eō</td>
<td>eā</td>
<td>eō</td>
<td>ipsō</td>
<td>ipsā</td>
<td>ipsō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* (he, she, it: that)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>m.</th>
<th>f.</th>
<th>n.</th>
<th>m.</th>
<th>f.</th>
<th>n.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>eī</td>
<td>eae</td>
<td>ea</td>
<td>ipsī</td>
<td>ipsae</td>
<td>ipsa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>eōrum</td>
<td>éarum</td>
<td>eōrum</td>
<td>ipsōrum</td>
<td>ipsārum</td>
<td>ipsōrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>eīs</td>
<td>eīs</td>
<td>eīs</td>
<td>ipsīs</td>
<td>ipsīs</td>
<td>ipsīs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>eōs</td>
<td>eās</td>
<td>ea</td>
<td>ipsōs</td>
<td>ipsās</td>
<td>ipsa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>eīs</td>
<td>eīs</td>
<td>eīs</td>
<td>ipsīs</td>
<td>ipsīs</td>
<td>ipsīs</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>idem (same)</td>
<td>eadem</td>
<td>idem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>eiusdem</td>
<td>eiusdem</td>
<td>eiusdem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>éidem</td>
<td>éidem</td>
<td>éidem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>eundem</td>
<td>eandem</td>
<td>idem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>éodem</td>
<td>eādem</td>
<td>eōdem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>plural</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>(e)idem</td>
<td>eaedem</td>
<td>eadem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>eōrundem</td>
<td>eārundem</td>
<td>eōrundem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>éisdem</td>
<td>éisdem</td>
<td>éisdem</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>eōsdem</td>
<td>eāsdem</td>
<td>eadem</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>éisdem</td>
<td>éisdem</td>
<td>éisdem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>m.</th>
<th>f.</th>
<th>n.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>relative pronoun</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>quī (who)</td>
<td>quae</td>
<td>quod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>cuius which</td>
<td>cuius</td>
<td>cuius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>cui</td>
<td>cui</td>
<td>cui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>quem</td>
<td>quam</td>
<td>quod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>quō</td>
<td>quà</td>
<td>quō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Pronouns (continued)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>plural</th>
<th>m.</th>
<th>f.</th>
<th>n.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>qui</td>
<td>quae</td>
<td>quae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>quorum</td>
<td>quærum</td>
<td>quorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>quibus</td>
<td>quibus</td>
<td>quibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>quos</td>
<td>quas</td>
<td>quae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>quibus or quibus or quibus or quis quis quis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**quidam** (a certain, a) declines like the relative pronoun with the suffix *-dam*:

| nom.   | quidam | quaedam | quoddam |
| acc.   | quandam | quandam | quoddam etc. |

The interrogative pronoun **quis?** (who?, what?):

| nom.   | quis?  | quis?  | quid?  |
| acc.   | quem?  | quam?  | quid?  (the rest exactly like the relative pronoun) |

The interrogative adjective **qui?** (which?, what?):

| nom.   | qui?   | quae?  | quod?  (exactly like the relative pronoun) |

The indefinite pronoun **aliquis** (someone, something) declines like **quis?** with the prefix *ali-*, except in the nominative singular feminine:

| nom.   | aliquis | aliqua | aliquid |

The indefinite pronoun **quisquam, quicquam** (anyone, anything, after a negative) declines like **quis?** with the suffix *-quam*:

| nom.   | quisquam | quisquam | quicquam |

The indefinite pronoun **quisque** (each one individually):

| nom.   | quisque | quaeque | quidque (quodque) (the rest exactly like *quis*) |

Interrogatives, demonstratives, relatives, etc.

- **quis?**, **qui?** who? which?
- **uter?** which of two?
- **quâlis?** of what kind?
- **quâlis?** how great?
- **quantus?** how great?
- **ubi?** where?
- **unde?** from where?
- **quâ?** to where?
- **quâ?** by what way?

| is, ille, iste (ista, istud-like ille) that |
| alter one or the other of two |
| tâlis of such a kind, such |
| tantus so great |
| hic here |
| hinc from here |
| hic to here, hither |
| ibi, illîc, istîc there |
| inde, illinc from there |
| eō, illō, illūc, istō to there, thither |
| eā by that way |
quam? how?*  
quandō? when?  
quōtiēns? how often?  
quōmodo? in what way, how?  
quārē? why?  
tam so*  
nunc now  
tum, tunc then  
totiēns so often  
ita in that way, thus  
idcircō for that reason  

* with adjectives and adverbs

| Prepositions |

The following take the accusative:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ad</td>
<td>to, towards</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ante</td>
<td>before</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apud</td>
<td>at, near, among</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circum</td>
<td>around</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>circā, circiter</td>
<td>about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contrā</td>
<td>against</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extrā</td>
<td>outside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>into, on to, to, against</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inter</td>
<td>among</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intrā</td>
<td>within</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iuxtā</td>
<td>next to, beside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>per</td>
<td>through</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>post</td>
<td>after, behind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prope</td>
<td>near</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>propter</td>
<td>on account of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secundum</td>
<td>along; according to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub</td>
<td>up to: towards (of time)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>super</td>
<td>above</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>trāns</td>
<td>across</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ultrā</td>
<td>beyond</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following take the ablative:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Preposition</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ā/ab</td>
<td>from, by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōram</td>
<td>in the presence of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cum</td>
<td>with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dē</td>
<td>down from: about</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ē/ex</td>
<td>out of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>in, on</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prō</td>
<td>in front of, on behalf of</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sine</td>
<td>without</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sub</td>
<td>under</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Some expressions with prepositions

Prepositions followed by the accusative:

ad quadrāgintā (or any number)  about 40
nihil ad rem  nothing to do with the matter
ante merīdiem  before midday, a.m.
apud Caesarem (or any person)  at Caesar’s house
apud Līviun (or any writer)  in the works of Livy
cōnstat inter omnēs  everyone is agreed
in diēs  from day to day
in uicem  in turn
inter sē pugnant  they fight each other
per deōs  by the gods
per mē licet  I give permission
prope sōlis occāsum  near sunset
sub montem  to the foot of the mountain
sub noctem  just before night

Prepositions followed by the ablative:

ā tergō  from behind
mēcum, tēcum, sēcum, nōbīscum, uōbīscum  with me, with you (sing.), with himself (herself, themselves), with us, with you (pl.)
de diē in diem  from day to day
de industria, ex industria  on purpose
dē integro  afresh, anew
prō certō hoc habeō  I am certain about this

Conjunctions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Linking sentences or nouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>at, ast</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>atque, ac</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aut ... aut</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>autem*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enim*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ergō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>et</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>et ... et</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>igitur**</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Linking sentences or nouns

- **itaque** and so
- **nam** for
- **nec/neque** and not, nor
- **nec/neque ... nec/neque** neither ... nor
- **-que*** and
- **sed** but
- **tamen** but, however
- **uel ... uel** either ... or
- **uērum** however

* these always come second word in their sentence
** these tend to come second word in their sentence
*** translate in front of the Latin word to which it is joined

Subordinating

- **antequam (ante ... quam)** before
- **cum** when, since, although
- **dōnec** until
- **dum** while, until
- **etsī** even if, although
- **nē** lest, that not
- **nisi, nī** unless
- **priusquam** before
- **postquam** after
- **quamquam** although
- **quod** because
- **quoniam** since
- **sī** if
- **tametsī** even though
- **ubi** when
- **ut + indicative** as, when
- **ut + subjunctive** 1 (in order) that (purpose, command)

2 (so) that (consequence)
1 There are four main patterns into which most Latin verbs fall. We call these patterns Conjugations (‘joined together’ families of verbs). Thus if you learn these four conjugations you will be able to understand and form any part of the vast majority of verbs.

There is a ‘mixed conjugation’ which takes its endings mainly from the 3rd but partly also from the 4th conjugation.

There are a significant number of irregular verbs and we give the most common of these in the tables of grammar and in the lists of principal parts. The principal parts of active verbs generally consist of four words, 1. the present tense active, 2. the present infinitive active, 3. the perfect tense active, 4. the supine (see below).

In this Grammar, if a verb is given with the numbers 1, 2, 3 or 4 in brackets, this tells you to what conjugation the verb belongs. We give the principal parts of irregular verbs.

2 In the following tables, the numbers 1, 2, and 3 (not in brackets) refer to ‘persons’. In the singular 1 is ‘I’, 2 is ‘you’, and 3 is ‘he’, ‘she’ or ‘it’. In the plural, 1 is ‘we’, 2 is ‘you’, and 3 is ‘they’. (In the principal parts, the present and perfect tenses are given in the first person singular.)

3 Almost all of the terms we use when talking about Latin verbs are used in English grammar. But note the following:

*deponent* — this is used of verbs which are passive in form but active in meaning, e.g. cōnor (1) (I try) and utor (3) (I use). Deponent verbs have no supine and their principal parts consist of 1. the present tense, 2. the present infinitive, 3. the perfect tense.

*supine* — this is a part of the verb (the fourth of the principal parts) from which other forms of the verb, especially the passive, and also derived nouns can be predicted. It is occasionally used in its own right (see p. 97).

*the imperfect tense* — this tense usually expresses continuous or repeated or incomplete action in the past, e.g. ‘I was doing...’ It can also have the
meanings ‘I began to...’ (inceptive) and ‘I tried to...’ (conative).

**the perfect tense** — this tense is both a pure perfect tense, e.g. ‘I have done ...’, and a simple past tense, e.g. ‘I did ...’ (aorist).

**the future perfect tense** — ‘I shall have done ...’, ‘you will have done’, etc.

**a finite verb** — a verb in a tense.

**indicative** — this term tells us that a verb in a tense is not in the subjunctive (see below). It is making a statement.

**the subjunctive** — the various uses of the subjunctive will become increasingly evident as this Grammar is studied. However, it is worth remarking that the subjunctive is used in English. The following citations are taken from The Oxford English Grammar (published in 1996):

- Israel insists that it *remain* in charge on the borders ...
- If they decide that it’s necessary then *so be it*.
- *... you can teach him if need be.*
- *... more customers are demanding that financial services be tailored to their needs.*
- He said Sony would not object even if Columbia *were to make* a movie critical of the late Emperor Hirohito.

Words such as ‘may’, ‘might’, ‘would’, ‘should’, and ‘could’ can also be helpful when translating the Latin subjunctive.

The subjunctive in a main clause is likely to be:

(a) jussive (giving an order). See p. 89.

(b) a wish:

- *stet haec urbs!* (Cicero, Pro Milone, 33)
- May this city stand!

(c) deliberative (thinking about things):

- *quid agam?*
- What am I to do?
- *quō me nunc uertam?* (Cicero, ad Atticum, 10.12.1)
- Where should I turn to now?

4 The perfect and pluperfect passive indicative and subjunctive, the future perfect passive indicative, the future and perfect participles, and the future infinitive active and perfect infinitive passive are all given in their masculine forms. They are made up of parts of the verb sum (I am) and a participle. The participle, being an adjective, must agree with the subject
of the verb. Thus, if the subject is feminine or neuter, the ending of the participle will be in the appropriate gender and not the masculine one given in these charts. Compare:

pueri moniti sunt
The boys have been advised

puella monita est
The girl has been advised

uerba dicta sunt
The words have been spoken
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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## 2nd conjugation—stems in -e

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3rd conjugation—stems in consonants

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## 4th conjugation—stems in -i

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| 3 | audi-t | 3 audi-ent | 3 audi-ent | 3 audi-ent
|   |         |         |           |         | 1 audiē-bam | 1 audiē-bāmus | 1 audiē-bāmus | 1 audiē-bāmus
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| 3 | audiū-it |         | audiū-it |         | audiū-ērunt (-ēre) | audiū-ērunt (-ēre) | audiū-ērunt (-ēre) | audiū-ērunt (-ēre)
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# Mixed conjugation

## Active Indicative

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**Note:** The verb is in parentheses for clarification.
| **Active Subjunctive** |

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## 1st conjugation—stems in -a

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### Mixed conjugation

#### Passive Indicative

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### Deponent verbs (passive in form, active in meaning)

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### Irregular verbs

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</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pluperfect</th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fu-ēssem etc.</td>
<td>potu-ēssem etc.</td>
<td>Īssem etc., ū-ēssem etc.</td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Imperative

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular</th>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>es, estō</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Ī</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>este</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>Īte</td>
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### Infinitives

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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>esse</td>
<td>posse</td>
<td>Īre</td>
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<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>fuisse</td>
<td>potuisse</td>
<td>Īsse</td>
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<td></td>
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### future

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participles</th>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>futūrus esse, fore</td>
<td>itūrus esse</td>
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</table>

### Gerund

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Participle</th>
<th>Present</th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>itūrus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Present Tense

#### active

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Present Active</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>uolō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>nōlō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>mālō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ferō</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### passive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Present Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>nolam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>noles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>nolet etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Plural Tense

#### active

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<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>uolūmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>nōlūmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>mālūmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ferimus</td>
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#### passive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>noulmus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>soulmus</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

### Future Tense

#### active

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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>uolam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>uolēs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>uolet etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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#### passive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
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<td>2nd</td>
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<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
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<tr>
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### Imperfect Tense

<table>
<thead>
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<th>Imperfect Active</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>uolēbam etc.</td>
<td>nōlēbam etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mālēbam etc.</td>
<td>ferēbam etc.</td>
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</tbody>
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### Perfect Tense

<table>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>uoluī etc.</td>
<td>nōluī etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>māluī etc.</td>
<td>tulī etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lātus sum etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
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<th>passive</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>uoluerō etc.</td>
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<td>māluerō etc.</td>
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<td>uolueram etc.</td>
<td>nōlueram etc.</td>
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<td>subjunctives</td>
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<td>nōlim etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>imperfect</td>
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<td>uellem etc.</td>
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<tr>
<td>perfect</td>
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<tr>
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<td>uoluissem etc.</td>
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<td>—</td>
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<td>Infinitives</td>
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<td></td>
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<td>uoluisse</td>
<td>nōluisse</td>
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Participles

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<th>Gerundive</th>
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<tr>
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<td>uolēns</td>
<td>nōlēns</td>
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<td>—</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ferēns</td>
<td></td>
<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>lātus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>lātūrus</td>
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<td>ferendum</td>
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<td>—</td>
<td>—</td>
<td>ferendus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**fīō, fierī** I become, I am made

This verb only exists in the present, future, and imperfect and takes the place of the equivalent passive forms of faciō (I make).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>indicative</th>
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<tbody>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>fīō</td>
<td>fiam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>fis</td>
<td>fiās</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>fit</td>
<td>fiat</td>
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<td>fiāmus</td>
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<td>[fītis]</td>
<td>fiātis</td>
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<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>fiunt</td>
<td>fiant</td>
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<tr>
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<td>fiam</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>fiēs</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>fiet etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
imperfect

1 fiēbam fierem
2 fiēbās fierēs
3 fiēbat etc. fieret etc.

| Principal parts of verbs: 1st, 2nd and 4th conjugations |

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Regular verbs</th>
<th>present</th>
<th>infinitive</th>
<th>perfect</th>
<th>supine</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>parō</td>
<td>parāre</td>
<td>parūī</td>
<td>parātum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>moneō</td>
<td>monēre</td>
<td>monūī</td>
<td>monitum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4th</td>
<td>audiō</td>
<td>audīre</td>
<td>audīūī</td>
<td>audītum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following are irregular:

1st conjugation

1 Perfect -ūī

cubō, cubāre, cubuī, cubītum I lie down
domō, domāre, domuī, domītum I tame
secō, secāre, secuī, sectum I cut
uetō, uetāre, uetuī, uetītum I forbid

2 Perfect with lengthened vowel

iuuō, iuuāre, iūūī iūtum I help
lauō, lauāre, lauī, lautum, or lōtum I wash

3 Reduplicated perfect

dō, dare, dedī, datum I give
stō, stāre, stetī, statum I stand

2nd conjugation

1 Perfect -ūī, supine -tum or -sum

cēnseō, cēnsēre, cēnūī, cēnūtum I judge, vote
doceō, docēre, docuī, doctum I teach
teneō, tenēre, tenuī, tentum I hold
2 Perfect -ēui
dēleō, dēlēre, dēlēui, dēlētum I destroy
fleō, fleère, fleūui, fleūtum I weep

3 Perfect -sī
ardeō, ardēre, arsī I burn, am on fire
augeō, augēre, auxī, auctum I increase
fulgeō, fulgēre, fulsī I shine
iubeō, iubēre, iussī, iussum I order
lūcea, lūcēre, lūxī I weep
lūgeō, lūgēre, lūxī I shine
maneō, manēre, mānsī, mānsum I stay, remain
rideō, rīdēre, rīsī, rīsum I laugh
suadeō, suādēre, suāsī, suāsum + dat. I persuade
torqueō, torquēre, torsī, tortum I twist, torture

4 Perfect with lengthened vowel
caveō, cauēre, cāuī, cautum I beware
faveō, fauēre, fāuī, fautum + dat. I favour
foueō, fouēre, fōuī, fōtum I cherish, look after
moueō, mouēre, mōuī, mōtum I move
sedeō, sedēre, sēdī, sessum I sit
uideō, uīdēre, uīdī, uīsum I see
uoueō, uouēre, uōuī, uōtum I vow

5 Verbs with reduplicated perfect
mordeō, mordēre, momordī, morsum I bite
pendeō, pendēre, pependī I hang
spondeō, spondēre, spongondī, spōnsum I pledge
but respondeō, respondēre, respondī, respōnsum I answer

Note
Compound verbs do not have reduplicated perfects, except for compounds of dō (I give) and stō (I stand).

4th conjugation

1 Perfect in -uī
aperiō, aperīre, aperuī, apertum I open
operiō, operīre, operuī, opertum I cover
saliō, salīre, saluī I dance
2 Perfect in -sī

sentīō, sentīre, sēnsī, sēnsum I feel
uincīō, uincīre, uīnxī, uīnctum I bind

3 Perfect with lengthened vowel

uenīō, uenīre, uēnī, uentum I come

---

3rd conjugation

1a Perfect -sī, supine -tum

carpō, carpere, carpsī, carptum I pick
cingō, cingere, cīnxī, cīntum I surround
dīcō, dīcere, dīxī, dīctum I say, tell
dūcō, dūcere, dūxī, ductum I lead
fingō, fingere, finxī, fictum I shape, pretend
gerō, gerere, gessī, gestum I carry, wear
intellegō, intellegere, intellēxī, intellēctum I understand
iungō, iungere, iūnxī, iūntum I join
neglegō, neglegere, neglēxī, neglēctum I neglect
nūbō, nūbere, nūpsī, nūptum I marry
regō, regere, rēxī, rēctum I rule
scribō, scribere, scripsī, scriptum I write
sūmō, sūmere, sūmpsī, sūptum I take
surgō, surgere, surrēxī, surrēctum I rise, get up
(ta compound of regō)
tegō, tegere, tēxī, tēctum I cover
trahō, trahere, trāxī, tractum I drag
uehō, uehere, uēxī, uectum I carry
uīuō, uīuere, uīxī, uīctum I live

---

**Note**

regō, surgō, tegō, trahō, uehō and their compounds lengthen the vowel of the stem in the perfect.

1b Perfect -sī, supine -sum

cādō, cēdere, cessī, cessum I withdraw, yield ('go' in compounds)
claudō, claudere, clausī, clausum I shut
ēuādō, ēuādere, ēuāsī, ēuāsum I escape
laedō, laedere, laesī, laesum I hurt, harm
lūdō, lūdere, lūsī, lūsum I play
mittō, mittere, mīsī, missum I send
plaudō, plaudere, plausī, plausum I clap, applaud
Note

1. This is especially common with verbs whose roots end in -t or -d.
2. Compound verbs usually form the perfect in the same way as the simple verb, e.g. prōcēdō, prōcēdere, prōcessī, prōcessum (I go forward), remittō, remittere, remissō, remissum (I send back). But some compounds opt for a perfect in -sī even when the simple verb has another formation, e.g. intellegō (simple verb legō, see 3 below).

2a Perfect stem the same as the present, supine -tum

- cōnstitūō, cōnstituere, cōnstituī, cōnstitūtum: I decide
- induō, induere, induī, indūtum: I put on
- metuō, metuere, metuī, metūtum: I fear
- soluō, soluere, soluī, solūtum: I loose
- uoluo, uoluere, uoluī, uolūtum: I roll

2b Perfect stem the same as the present, supine -sum

- accendō, accendere, accendī, accēnsum: I light (a fire)
- ascendō, ascendere, ascendī, ascēnsum: I climb
- dēscendō, dēscendere, dēscendī, dēscēnsum: I climb down
- dēfendō, dēfendere, dēfendī, dēfēnsum: I defend
- uertō, uertere, uertī, uersum: I turn

2c Perfect stem the same as the present but no supine

- bibō, bibere, bibī: I drink
- uīsō, uīsere, uīsī: I go to see

3 Verbs showing a lengthened vowel in the perfect, supine -tum

- agō, agere, ēgī, ēctum: I do, I drive
- cogō, cogere, coēgī, coāctum: I drive together, I compel
- emō, emere, ἐmī, ἐmptum: I buy
- legō, legere, lēgī, lēctum: I read, I gather
- frangō*, frangere, frēgī, frāctum: I break
- relinquō*, relinquere, reliquiē, religāctum: I leave
- rumpō*, rumpere, rūpī, ruptum: I burst open
- uincō*, uincere, uīcī, uictum: I conquer

Note

Verbs marked* insert n (m before p) in the present, which is dropped in perfect and supine, e.g. fra-n-gō, original stem frag-, hence frēgī, frāctum.
4a Verbs with reduplicated perfect, supine -\textit{tum}

Compound verbs do not have reduplicated perfects, except for compounds of \textit{dō} (I give) and \textit{sto} (I stand).

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{addō}, \textit{addere}, \textit{addidī}, \textit{additum}  
    \textit{I add} (so all compounds of \textit{dō})
  \item \textit{canō}, \textit{canere}, \textit{cecinī}, \textit{cantum}  
    \textit{I sing}
  \item \textit{(cō)n)sistō}, \textit{(cō)n)sistere}, \textit{(cō)n)stitī}, \textit{(cō)n)stitum}  
    \textit{I stand}
  \item \textit{tangō}, \textit{tangere}, \textit{tegtī}, \textit{tāctum}  
    \textit{I touch}
  \item \textit{tendō}, \textit{tendere}, \textit{tetendī}, \textit{tentum} or \textit{tēnsūm}  
    \textit{I stretch}
  \item \textit{but \textit{contendō}, \textit{contendere}, \textit{contendī}, \textit{contentum}}  
    \textit{I march, hasten}
\end{itemize}

4b Verbs with reduplicated perfect, supine -\textit{sum}

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{cadō}, \textit{cadere}, \textit{cecidī}, \textit{cāsum}  
    \textit{I fall}
  \item \textit{caedo}, \textit{caedere}, \textit{cecidī}, \textit{caesum}  
    \textit{I beat, kill}
  \item \textit{currō}, \textit{currere}, \textit{cucurrī}, \textit{currsum}  
    \textit{I run}
  \item \textit{discō}, \textit{discere}, \textit{didicī}  
    \textit{I learn}
  \item \textit{parcō}, \textit{parcere}, \textit{pepercī}, \textit{parsum} + dat.  
    \textit{I spare}
  \item \textit{pellō}, \textit{pellere}, \textit{pepulī}, \textit{pulsum}  
    \textit{I drive}
  \item \textit{poscō}, \textit{poscere}, \textit{poposcī}  
    \textit{I demand}
\end{itemize}

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{\textit{Note}}
  \item Compounds of \textit{cadō}, \textit{caedo}, \textit{currō} and \textit{pellō} do not have reduplicated perfects, e.g.
  
    \begin{itemize}
      \item \textit{occiddō}, \textit{occidere}, \textit{occidē}, \textit{occāsum}  
        \textit{I fall down, die}
      \item \textit{occīdō}, \textit{occidere}, \textit{occidī}, \textit{occīsum}  
        \textit{I kill}
      \item \textit{occurrō}, \textit{occurre}, \textit{occurrī}, \textit{occursum}  
        \textit{I run to meet, meet}
      \item \textit{expellō}, \textit{expellere}, \textit{expulī}, \textit{expulsum}  
        \textit{I drive out}
    \end{itemize}
\end{itemize}

5a Verbs forming perfect -\textit{uT}

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textit{arcessō}, \textit{arcessere}, \textit{arcessīuī}, \textit{arcessītum}  
    \textit{I summon}
  \item \textit{colō}, \textit{colere}, \textit{coluī}, \textit{cultum}  
    \textit{I cultivate}
  \item \textit{petō}, \textit{petere}, \textit{petīuī}, \textit{petītum}  
    \textit{I seek}
  \item \textit{pōnō}, \textit{pōnerere}, \textit{posuī}, \textit{positum}  
    \textit{I place}
  \item \textit{quaerō}, \textit{quaerere}, \textit{quaesīuī}, \textit{quaesītum}  
    \textit{I ask, seek}
  \item \textit{sinō}, \textit{sinere}, \textit{siūī}, \textit{situm}  
    \textit{I allow}
  \item \textit{but dēsinō}, \textit{dēsinere}, \textit{dēsiī}, \textit{dēsitum}  
    \textit{I cease}
  \item \textit{spernō}, \textit{spernere}, \textit{spērūī}, \textit{spētum}  
    \textit{I despise}
\end{itemize}

5b Inceptive verbs (i.e. verbs which express the beginnings of actions)

\begin{itemize}
  \item \textbf{\textit{Note}}
  \item The present of these verbs is formed with a suffix -\textit{scō} that is not an essential part of the verbal stem.
  
    \begin{itemize}
      \item \textit{cognōscō}, \textit{cognōscere}, \textit{cognōuī}, \textit{cognītum}  
        \textit{I get to know, learn}
      \item \textit{crēscō}, \textit{crēscere}, \textit{crēuī}, \textit{crētum}  
        \textit{I grow}
      \item \textit{nōscō}, \textit{nōscere}, \textit{nōuī}, \textit{nōtum}  
        \textit{I get to know}
      \item \textit{quiēscō}, \textit{quiēscere}, \textit{quiēuī}, \textit{quiētum}  
        \textit{I rest}
    \end{itemize}
\end{itemize}
**Mixed conjugation**

capiō, capere, cēpī, captum  
I take

cupiō, cupere, cupiūī, cupītum  
I desire

faciō, facere, fēcī, factum  
I make, do

fugiō, fugere, fūgī  
I flee

iaciō iacere, iēcī, iactum  
I throw

rapiō, rapere, rapūī, raptum  
I seize

(īn)spiciō, (īn)spicere, (īn)spexī, (īn)spectum  
I look at

**Deponent verbs**

### 1st conjugation (all regular)

cōnōr, cōnārī, cōnātus sum  
I try

### 2nd conjugation

cōnfiteor, cōnfītērī, cōnfessus sum  
I confess

reor, rērī, ratus sum  
I think

uereor, uerērī, ueritus sum  
I fear

### 3rd conjugation

amplector, amplectī, amplexus sum  
I embrace

fruor, fruī, fructus sum + abl.  
I enjoy

fungor, fungī, fūnctus sum + abl.  
I perform

lābor, lābī, lāpsus sum  
I slip, glide

loquor, loquī, locutus sum  
I speak

queror, querī, questus sum  
I complain

sequor, sequī, secūtus sum  
I follow

---

**Note**

The present of these verbs is formed with a suffix in -scor that is not an essential part of the verb stem.

īrāscor, īrāscī, īrātus sum + dat.  
I am angry (with)

nanciscor, nancisci, nactus (or nāctus) sum  
I obtain

nāscor, nāscī, nātus sum  
I am born

nītor, nītī, nīxus sum (or nīsus) sum  
I lean on, strive

oblīuiscor, oblīuisci, oblītus sum + gen.  
I forget

proficiiscor, proficiisci, profectus sum  
I set out

reuerter, reuerterī, reuersus sum  
I return

ūtor, ūtī, ūsus sum + abl.  
I use
4th conjugation

experior, experīrī, expertus sum I try
ordoior, ordīrī, orsus sum I begin
orior, orīrī, ortus sum I arise
potior, potīrī, potitus sum often + abl. I acquire, possess

Mixed conjugation

gradior, gradī, gressus sum I walk
morior, morī, mortuus sum (fut. part. morītūrus) I die
patior, patī, passus sum I suffer
prōgredior, prōgrediē, prōgressus sum I advance

| Semi-deponent verbs |

2nd conjugation

audeō, audēre, ausus sum I dare
gaudeō, gaudēre, gauūsus sum I rejoice
soleō, solēre, solitus sum I am accustomed

3rd conjugation

cōnfīdō, cōnfīdere, cōnfīsus sum + dat. I trust

Irregular

fīō, fierī, factus sum I am made, I become
Relative clauses

She is the woman who betrayed me.
I am the man whom she betrayed.
There is the man for whom she left me.
This is the house that Jack built.

The relative pronoun (who, which, whom, that) is one of the English words which can change according to its function in the sentence. Note, however, that in English the word ‘whom’ is now used very little. The third of the three sentences above could be rephrased:

There is the man (who/that) she left me for.

As you can see, the word ‘who’, ‘whom’ or ‘that’ may be omitted in English. (The relative pronoun cannot be omitted in Latin.)

The relative pronoun refers back to a noun or pronoun, in the above sentences ‘woman’, ‘man’, ‘man’, and ‘house’ respectively. We call this word the antecedent.

In Latin the word for ‘who’ is qui, quae, quod (see pp. 27–8). It agrees in gender and number with its antecedent, but its case depends on its function in the clause which it introduces.

epistulam accēpī quam tū mihi mēserās.
I received the letter which you had sent me.

ille qui tibi epistulam mēsit nōn tē prōdet.
The man who sent you the letter will not betray you.

ille est amīcus cui epistulam mēsi.
He is the friend to whom I sent the letter.

In the first sentence quam is feminine and singular because it agrees with its antecedent epistulam in gender and number. It is accusative, not because epistulam is accusative, but because it is the object of the verb ‘had sent’.

In the second sentence, qui is masculine and singular because it agrees with its antecedent ille in gender and number. It is nominative not because ille is nominative, but because it is the subject of the verb ‘sent’.

If you are translating from English into Latin, you can always discover the case of the relative pronoun by phrasing the English relative clause as a full sentence. In the first sentence above, you can change ‘which you had sent
me’ to ‘You had sent me it (the letter)’. It would be accusative in Latin. The Latin word for ‘letter’ is feminine and singular. Hence quam. In the third sentence, ‘to whom I sent the letter’ can be rephrased ‘I sent the letter to him’: dative, masculine, and singular. Hence cui.

Practice sentences

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. uxor quae bona est ünō uirō est contenta.
2. hoc illīs nārrō quī mē nōn intellegunt. (Phaedrus, 3.128)
3. iste est amīcus ā quō prōditus sum.
4. mātrēs quārum līberōs Rōmānī trucidāuērunt miserrimae erant.
5. Give me a man who loves women.
6. He is a friend without whom I am unwilling to leave the city.
7. The children I gave the money to were very happy.
8. He is a man whom I try to avoid.
Time, place, and space

| Time

- In Latin the *accusative* expresses ‘time how long’:
  
  tōtam noctem dormiui.
  I slept the whole night.

  septem hōrās uiātōrēs ambulābant.
  The travellers were walking for seven hours.

  *Note*: puella quīnque annōs nāta
  a girl five years old (*literally*, a girl born for five years)

- The *ablative* expresses ‘time when’:
  
  domum tuam secundā hōrā ueniam.
  I shall come to your house at the second hour.

  paucīs post diēbus Capuam aduēnērunt.
  A few days later they came to Capua.

| Note:

In the above example, *post*, which is usually a preposition followed by the accusative (e.g. post merīdiem (*after midday*)), is used adverbially.

The ablative also expresses ‘time within which’:

  tribus diēbus Rōmam reueniam.
  I shall return to Rome within three days.

Note that this use of the ablative developed into an alternative to the accusative expressing ‘time how long’.

| Some Latin ‘time’ words and expressions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>heri, here</th>
<th>yesterday</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hodiē</td>
<td>today</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crās</td>
<td>tomorrow</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
prīdiē on the day before
posterior die, postrīdiē on the next day
abhinc1—> ago
interdiū by day
intrā + acc. within (intrā trēs annōs within three years)
māne in the morning, early next day
mediā nocte in the middle of the night, at midnight
merīdiē at midday
multā nocte late at night
multō diē late in the day
noctū/nocte at night
per + acc. throughout (per tōtum diem throughout the whole day)
prīmā hōrā at the first hour2—>
prīmā lūce at first light, at dawn
proximus, -a, -um closest in time, last, next
proximā nocte last night or the coming night (depending on the context).
quamdiūi? how long?
quotannīs every year
quotidiē, cotidiē every day
sōlis occāsū at sunset
sōlis ortū at sunrise
sub lūcem towards daybreak
sub uesperum towards evening
tertiīs uigilīīs during the third watch2—>
uesperī in the evening

1. This adverb is used with both the accusative and the ablative: abhinc annōs trēs and abhinc annīs trībus mean three years ago—abhinc is an adverb, not a preposition.
2. The time of daylight was divided into twelve hours (hōra, hōrae, f., an hour). Thus in summer the hours were longer than in winter. The time of night was divided in the same way, but in military language it was divided into four watches (uigiliae, uigilīārum, f.pl.).

For the date in Latin, see pp. 145–6.
| Place |

- In Latin the ‘place to which‘ is expressed by in or ad with the *accusative*:
  - ad oppidum
to the town
  - in Graeciam
to Greece

Note that *ad Graeciam nauigāūī* means *I sailed to Greece* in the sense of *towards Greece*, while *in Graeciam īī* means *I went to Greece* and actually set foot there.

- The ‘place from which‘ is expressed by ā, ab, ē or ex with the *ablative*:
  - ex oppidō
  from the town
  - ā flūmine
  from the river

- The ‘place where‘ is expressed by in with the *ablative*:
  - in oppidō
  in the town
  - in Britanniā
  in Britain

*However*, if the place is a town, city, or small island (Rhodes is the largest small island), the place name is usually put into the appropriate case *without* the preposition. The same applies to three common nouns, *domus*, domī (or domūs), *f.* (*house, home*), *rūs*, rūris, *n.* (*country, countryside*), and *humus*, humī, *f.* (*ground*).

Athenās nauigāūērunt.
They sailed to Athens.

Rōmā abiērunt.
They went away from Rome.

rūs Rōmā effūgī.
I fled to the country from Rome.
The **locative** case expresses place where, e.g. *Rōmae* means *at Rome*. For the formation of this case, see p. 18, n. 8.

**Note:**
- domī: at home
- humī: on the ground
- rūrī: in the country

### Latin ‘place’ words

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ubi, ubi?</td>
<td>where, where?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hīc</td>
<td>here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibi</td>
<td>there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>illīc</td>
<td>there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibīdem, ibidem</td>
<td>in the same place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>utrimque</td>
<td>on both sides</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quō, quō?</td>
<td>to where, to where?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hūc</td>
<td>to here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eō</td>
<td>to there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>illūc</td>
<td>to there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eōdem</td>
<td>to the same place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>usque</td>
<td>all the way (+ <em>ad</em> + <em>acc.</em>, right up to)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unde, unde?</td>
<td>from where, from where?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hinc</td>
<td>from here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inde</td>
<td>from there, then</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>illinc</td>
<td>from there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>indidem</td>
<td>from the same place</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>undique</td>
<td>from everywhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quā, quā?</td>
<td>by what route, by what route?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hāc</td>
<td>by this route</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eā</td>
<td>by that route</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>illāc</td>
<td>by that route</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>alibī</td>
<td>elsewhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nusquam</td>
<td>nowhere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ubīque</td>
<td>everywhere</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Space

The *accusative* is used to express distances and dimensions:

_{Arpīnum sexāgintā mīlia passuum ab urbe abest._}  
Arpinum is sixty miles away from the city.

_{flūmen uīgintī pedēs lātum trānsiērunt._}  
They crossed a river twenty feet wide.

Practice sentences

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. *māter mea, prīmā hōrā profecta, sex hōrās ambulāuit et merīdiē Rōmam aduēnit._
2. *Rōma tredecim mīlia passuum ā marī distat._
3. *labōribus urbānīs dēfessus, cōnsul rūs Rōmā rediit._
4. *postrīdiē Brundisiō discēssī ut in Graeciam aduenīrem._
5. Where have you come from? Where are you going to? How long will you stay with us?
6. She was sick for the whole day and died at midnight.
7. Leave Rome and sail to Rhodes (Rhodus, Rhodi, f.) at once.
8. I shall visit you again within two years.
Participles

The girl reading the book.
A rolling stone gathers no moss.
The boy about to read the book.
Mother, having read the book.
It's silly to cry over spilt milk.

Participles are verbal adjectives, i.e. they are formed from verbs and so describe an action, but they are adjectives and so in Latin almost always agree with a noun or pronoun.

| Present participles

Present participles end in -ns (-āns (first conjugation) or -ēns (all other verbs)). They can be formed from deponent verbs. They decline like ingēns, except that their ablative singular ends in e (am-ante), though the ending is ī when they are used in a purely adjectival sense, e.g. ā uirō ambulantī (by the walking man). Their genitive plural sometimes ends in -tum (am-antum) in poetry.

☑️ Note:
1 sum (I am) and fīō (I become) do not have present participles.
2 The present participle of eō (I go) is iēns, euntīs. (The nominative participle of uncompounded eō is very rare.)

The action described in the present participle always takes place at the same time as the action of the main verb. (Expressions using the words 'while' or 'during' are often used in English to convey this.)
cēnam edēns, puer laetus erat.
The boy was happy while eating the meal.
puerō ēsurientī cēnam dedī.
I gave a meal to the hungry boy.
exercitum proficīscendentem hortātus est.
He encouraged the army while it was setting out.
Atalanta est celerrima puellārum currentium.
Atalanta is the fastest of the running girls.

Note:
In its use of the present participle, English is often less precise than Latin in the matter of time.

Getting into her chariot, Boudicca drove off aggressively.
Latin could not use the present participle here since Boudicca got into her chariot before she drove off. Something like postquam in currum cōnsendit (= after she had got into her chariot) would be needed.

| Future participles |

These are active in meaning: ‘about to see’, ‘on the point of getting up’, ‘about to set out’. They are formed by adding -ūrus, -a, -um (declined like bonus) to the stem of the verb (in active verbs the supine without the final -um). They can be formed from deponents.

uīsūrus, surrectūrus, profectūrus

Of what verbs are these the future participles? What do the participles mean?

Note the irregular future participle of morior (I die), moritūrus.

Rōmam relictūrus es?
Are you about to leave Rome?
omnia semper āctūra, nihil cōnficit.
Always on the point of doing everything, she finishes nothing.
locūtūrus eram cum tumultus ērūpit.
I was about to speak when a riot broke out.

Note:
In poetry and later prose writers, the future participle can express purpose:
Maroboduus mīsit lēgātōs ad Tiberium ērātūrōs auxilia.
(Tacitus, Annals, 2.46)
Maroboduus sent ambassadors to Tiberius to beg for help.

Past participles

Past participles are formed by adding -us, -a, -um (declined like bonus) to the stem of the verb (the supine without the final -um).

All those formed from active verbs (the vast majority) are passive in meaning.

puellam cōnspectam salūtāuī.
Having caught sight of the girl, I greeted her.

cōnspectam is passive. It in fact means 'having been seen', not 'having seen'. Therefore if a Latin writer wishes to use a participle here, he has to say 'I greeted the having-been-seen girl.'

'Having been' is a useful aid in translating past participles, but it is unacceptable in English. The sentence above could be translated in a variety of ways, e.g.

I caught sight of the girl and greeted her.
After (when) I had caught sight of the girl, I greeted her.
Catching sight of the girl, I greeted her.
On (after) catching sight of the girl, I greeted her.

Rōmā expulsus, magnopere dolēbam.
Driven out of Rome (after or because I had been driven out of Rome), I was very distressed.

nautam ē nāue ēiectum in salūtem trāxī.
I dragged the sailor (who had been) flung out of his ship to safety.
puella ‘amātā nōbīs quantum amābitur nūlla’. (Catullus, 8.5)
A girl beloved by us as much as no girl will ever be loved.

Deponent verbs (which are passive in form and active in meaning) have active past participles.

in urbem ingressa, ad forum accessī.
Having gone into the city (going into the city), I went to the forum.

prīmā lūce profectus, Rōmam sōlis occāsū aduēnī.
After setting out at dawn, I reached Rome at sunset.

✓ Note:
The past participles of deponent and semi-deponent verbs are often used to refer to actions which began before the action of the main verb but continue and overlap with the action of that verb.

Marcellum esse ratī, portās clausērunt.
Thinking it was Marcellus, they shut the gates.
They thought it was Marcellus both before and during the shutting of the gates.

| Ablative absolute |

In all the examples in the first three sections of this chapter the participles have agreed with the subject or object of a verb or with a noun or a pronoun which forms some other part of the clause it belongs to, as in this sentence:

Cicerō epistulam lēctam Tīrōnī iuxtā sedentī trādidit.
Cicero read the letter and handed it over to Tiro who was sitting nearby.
Literally: Cicero handed over the having-been-read letter to Tiro sitting nearby.

Often, however, the participial phrase (i.e. the noun + the participle) is independent of the structure of the rest of the sentence, e.g.

Caesar, hīs dictīs, mīlitēs dīmīsit.
After saying these things, Caesar dismissed the soldiers.
Literally: Caesar, these things having been said, dismissed the soldiers.
dictis agrees with hīs, which is not the subject or object of the main verb and is independent of the clause in which it sits. The technical term for this is ‘absolute’ (= loosed or freed). In phrases such as this, both noun and participle are in the ablative case.

This construction does not go very naturally into English, and, while it is helpful for the translator to use ‘having been’ to begin with, it is important to move on to more idiomatic translations.

cēnā parātā, coquus quiēscēbat.
When dinner was ready (literally, dinner having been prepared), the cook had a rest.

Cicerōne locūtō, Tīrō gaudēbat.
After Cicero had spoken (literally, Cicero having spoken), Tiro was delighted.

Horātiō in Acadēmīā studente, Brūtus Athēnās aduēnit.
(While) Horace (was) studying in the Academy, Brutus arrived at Athens.

Note

1 Remember that the ablative singular of the present participle, when it is used as a participle, ends in -e.

2 Remember that uncompounded sum has no present participle. In the following phrases, this non-existent present participle is understood:

mē (tē, etc.) inuitō
against my (your, etc.) will

tē (Caesare, etc.) duce
under your (Caesar’s, etc.) leadership

mē (tē, etc.) auctōre
at my (your, etc.) suggestion

Cicerōne cōnsule
when Cicero was consul, in the consulship of Cicero.

Note also

mē praesente, mē absente
in my presence, in my absence
Practice sentences

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. haec dixit moriēns.
2. haec scribēns maximē dolēbam.
3. īlī ad mortem euntī succurriī.
4. urbem oppugnātūrus cōnstitit.
5. amīcus adest auxilium mihi lātūrus.
6. hoc somnium ueritus, Caesar cōnstituit ā cūriā abesse.
7. puellīs uīsīs, puerī multō laetiōrēs factī sunt.
8. liber ā tē datus mihi magnopere placuīt.
9. serpentem in herbā cēlātam Eurydicē nōn uīdit.
11. While walking in the town I saw my sister.
12. I saw my sister walking in the town.
13. When on the point of setting out, I embraced my husband lovingly.
14. I thanked (gratias ago + dative) the young man (who was) about to help me.
15. Leaving (use relinquō) the town I walked happily (use laetus) through the fields.
16. She captured the city and burnt it (use a participle for 'captured').
17. He threw away the book after he had read it (use a participle for 'after he had read').
18. After setting out early from the city, I reached the harbour at mid-day.
19. The general called his soldiers together and left the camp (use a participle).
20. After my friend's departure, I was very unhappy (egredior = I depart).
Indirect statement

**Direct speech**
- I am reading the book.
- I have read the book.
- I shall read the book.

**Indirect speech**
- I said I was reading the book.
- I knew that I had read the book.
- I promised that I would read the book.

An indirect statement comes after a verb in which the voice, ears, eyes, or mind is used (e.g. say, hear, discover, see, observe, know, think), followed by ‘that’, or with ‘that’ understood, e.g.

I think that I am ill. I think I am ill.

It can be seen from the examples above that in English the words of direct speech are usually changed when they are converted into indirect speech. The Latin words change too, but in a different way.

The subject of the clause in indirect speech is in the **accusative**, and it must not be left out (though see note 6 below). The verb is in the **infinitive** and the infinitive is in the **tense of the words actually spoken or thought**. The infinitive exists in three tenses, present, future, and perfect.

This construction is often called ‘the accusative and infinitive’, and it is found in good English usage, e.g.

I believe him to be a fool.

**Active**

- dixi mē librum legere. (same time)  
  I said I was reading the book.

- dixi mē librum lēctūrum esse. (later time)  
  I said that I would read the book.

- dixi mē librum lēgissee. (earlier time)  
  I said I had read the book.

**Passive**

- dixi librum ā mē legī.  
  I said that the book was being read by me.

- prōmīsi librum ā mē lēctum īrī.  
  I promised that the book would be read by me.

- scīi librum ā mē lēctum esse.  
  I knew that the book had been read by me.
Note

1 The reflexives se and suus refer back to the subject of the verb which introduces the indirect statement.

   Marcus scūit se suum librum eī dedisse.
   Marcus knew that he (Marcus) had given his (own) book to him (or her, certainly to someone else).

2 In the infinitives which include participles (future active-lectūrus esse, perfect passive-lēctus esse), the participle agrees with the accusative subject of the infinitive.

   uxor mea dicit se Bāiās adiūram esse.
   My wife says that she will go to Baiae.

   The future passive infinitive, however, which is very rare, never changes (supine plus ĕri). Latin prefers fore ut (it will be (come about) that) followed by the subjunctive:

   spērō fore ut dēleātur Carthāgō.
   I hope that Carthage will be destroyed.

3 'Say ... not' is negō (1). dīcō is only followed by nōn when a single word is negated.

   marītus negāuit se Rōmae mānsūrum esse.
   The husband said that he would not stay at Rome.

   pater dixit se nōn mihi sed Marcō librum dedisse.
   Father said that he had given the book not to me but to Marcus.

   Note the following:

   negō quemquam    I say that no one
   negō quicquam    I say that nothing
   negō ūllum . . .  I say that no . . .
   negō . . . umquam  I say that . . . never
   negō . . . usquam  I say that . . . nowhere

4 Verbs meaning 'hope', 'promise', and 'threaten' are usually followed in English by the word 'to', i.e. by the infinitive. In Latin they are followed by the accusative and infinitive construction, and the infinitive is usually future.

   minātus est sē mē necātūrum esse.
   He threatened to kill me. Literally: He threatened that he would kill me.

   But hopes and promises can refer to the present or past—in which case the present or perfect infinitive is used.

   spērō Herculem leōnem occīdisse.
   I hope that Hercules has killed the lion.

5 Subordinate clauses in indirect statement have their verbs in the subjunctive, the tense to be determined by the sequence of tenses (see pp. 86–7) established by the main verb.
Indirect statement can continue from one main clause to another. The main verb does not need to be repeated as long as its subject remains unchanged. Also, if the subject of the second or subsequent infinitives is the same as that of the first infinitive, it does not have to be repeated.

6 Indirect statement can continue from one main clause to another. The main verb does not need to be repeated as long as its subject remains unchanged. Also, if the subject of the second or subsequent infinitives is the same as that of the first infinitive, it does not have to be repeated.

7 There are two future infinitives of sum, futurus esse and fore.

8 cōnsitūō (I decide) is followed by a present infinitive when the subject of the dependent verb is the same as the subject of cōnsitūō.

9 Verbs which introduce indirect statement in fact cover a much wider ground than mere statement, as can be seen from the following (by no means exhaustive) list, which should be learnt:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>arbitror (1)</td>
<td>I think</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiō (4)</td>
<td>I hear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(aliquem) certiōrem faciō, facere, fēcī, factum</td>
<td>I inform (someone)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cognōscō, cognōscere, cognōūī, cognitum</td>
<td>I get to know, discover</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstat (inter omnes)</td>
<td>it is common knowledge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>crēdō, crēdere, crēdīdī, crēditum</td>
<td>I believe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dīcō, dīcere, dīxi, dictum</td>
<td>I say</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dīcō, discere, dīdicī,—</td>
<td>I learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>exīstimō (1)</td>
<td>I think</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ferunt</td>
<td>men say</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ignōrō (1)</td>
<td>I am unaware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intellegō, intellegere, intellexī, intellectum</td>
<td>I understand (like legō)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iūrō (1)</td>
<td>I swear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>memini, meminisse</td>
<td>I remember</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minor (1)</td>
<td>I threaten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nārrō (1)</td>
<td>I tell, relate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negō (1)</td>
<td>I say . . . not</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. fratrem tuum fortem esse intellego.
2. puella mihi dixit se dono meo delectatam esse.
3. puer me certiorem fecit puellam donum suum nondum accepisse.
4. negauT me ante adventum tuum abitOrum esse.
5. promitto me carmina recitOrum esse quae Horatius mihi miserit.
6. expliOrator Caesarl nuntiauit hostes iam non procul abesse; maximum igitur periculum Romanls imminere.
7. I think that she is much cleverer than he is.
8. Marcus said that his friend would give him back the book which he had lent (trado) him.
9. He says that the city will never be captured.
10. I hope to see you soon and I promise to bring you a present.
11. I realized that he was no longer friendly to me, and (realized) that he was unwilling to speak to me.
12. The senators were informed that the women were picketing (obsideo) the streets which led to the senate house.
In Latin, the tense of the subjunctive used in a subordinate clause is affected by the tense of the main verb. This process occurs in English too.

I am helping you so that you can/may get better.
I was helping you so that you could/might get better.

We call this process 'sequence of tenses' and it falls into two divisions, which we call primary (mainly present and future tenses) and historic or secondary (past tenses).

### Primary sequence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense of verb in main clause</th>
<th>Tense of subjunctive in subordinate clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>present</td>
<td>present (referring to the present or the future)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperative</td>
<td>perfect (referring to the past)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>'perfect with have'¹</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>future perfect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

¹. The 'perfect with have' is a shorthand expression for a perfect which tells us about a present state, e.g. cognōuī (I [have got to] know), intellexī (I [have understood =] understand), and uēnīstis (you [have come =] are present).

### Historic sequence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense of verb in main clause</th>
<th>Tense of subjunctive in subordinate clause</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>imperfect</td>
<td>imperfect (referring to the same time or a later time)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘perfect without have’ (aorist)</td>
<td>pluperfect (referring to something that has already happened)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pluperfect</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
While some would consider it pedantry, many good judges would argue that it is desirable to preserve the distinction between 'may' and 'might' according to sequence of tenses in English as well as Latin. For example:

- I am speaking slowly in the hope that you *may* understand me.
- The teacher spoke slowly in the hope that his students *might* understand him.
Direct and indirect command

Direct command

1 | Second person commands

Do this. Don’t do that.

- Positive direct commands in the second person are expressed in Latin by the imperative. **and don't** (e.g. do this and don’t do that) = neque/nec.

- Negative direct commands are expressed by *nōlī* (singular) and *nōlīte* (plural) (= refuse to, be unwilling to) followed by the present infinitive. *nē* + present or perfect subjunctive can be used. **and don't** = neu/nēue + present subjunctive.

*amā me fideliter.*
Love me faithfully.

*T, sequere Italiam.*
Go, make for Italy. (Virgil, Dido to Aeneas, *Aeneid*, 4.381)

*audi me nec abī.*
Listen to me and don’t go away.

*nōlīte spēluncās intrāre.*
Don’t go into the caves.

*nē fēcerīs quod timēs.*
Don’t do something you’re frightened of.

*illud nē fēcerīs nēue dīxerīs.*
Do not do or say that.
**Note:**
1 In negative direct commands in verse, *nē* can be followed by the imperative:
   
   *nē fuge mē.* Don’t run away from me.
   
   (Ovid, Jupiter to a prospective rape victim, *Metamorphoses*, 1.597)

2 The singular imperatives of *dīcō, dūcō, ferō, faciō* are *dīc, dūc, fer, fac*.

---

**First and third person commands**

Let’s go to see her. Let them hate me.

- Commands in the first and third person are expressed by the present subjunctive. Negative *nē* and not = *neu/nēue*.

  * amet.*
  
  Let him love.

  * exeat nēue plūra dīcat.*
  
  Let him go out and say no more.

  * gaudeāmus.*
  
  Let us rejoice.

---

**Indirect command**

He ordered me to go away.
He asked me to do this.

With two exceptions, all words of commanding and forbidding are followed by the same construction. This is *ut* or *nē* + the present or imperfect subjunctive (depending on sequence of tenses—see pp. 86–7). [The construction is the same as the purpose clause: see pp. 96–8.]

---

**Note**

1 Latin uses this construction not just for ‘order to’ or ‘tell to’, or ‘decree that’ but for less decisive and authoritative words too, e.g. ‘advise to’, ‘ask to’, ‘beg to’, ‘pray to’, ‘encourage to’, ‘warn to’, ‘persuade to’. *iubeō* (see note 2) is often more like ‘ask to’ than ‘order to’ in meaning.
2 Be careful to use *ut* or *né* plus the subjunctive. (English tends to invite an infinitive.) The two exceptions are *iubeō*, *iubère*, *iusś, iussum* = I order, and its converse *uetō, uetāre, uetūī, ueturum* = I order... not, I forbid. Both are followed by an accusative and infinitive. *iubeō* cannot be followed by *nōn* (except where *nōn* negatives a single word: *iubeō tē nōn hunc sed illum sequī* (*I order you to follow not this man but that one*)): *uetō* (or *imperō nē*) must be used instead.

```
tibi imperē ut hoc faciās.
I tell you to (*literally, that you should*) do this.
imperātōr suīs imperāuit nē prōgredērentur.
The general ordered his men not to (*literally, that they should not*) advance.
Vbī Caesārem orant ut sībī parcat.
The Ubīi beg Caesār to (*literally, that he should*) spare them.
hoc nē faciās admoneō.
I advise you not to do this.
mē iussit hoc facere.
He ordered me to do this.
mē uetuit abīre.
He told me not (forbade me) to go away. • • • •
```

---
The English word ‘tell’ can often mean ‘order’ (see p. 141).

---

3 The reflexives *sē* and *suus* refer back to the subject of the verb which introduces the indirect command.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The following verbs should be learnt:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ē-dīcō, -dīcere, -dīxī, -dictum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flagitō (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hortor (1) / adhortor (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperō (1) + dat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iubeō, iubère, iussī, iussum + infiniutive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moneō (2) / admoneō (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obsecrō (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orō (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>petō, petere, petīūī, petītum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poscō, poscere, pospōcī,−</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>postulō (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prae-cipiō, -cipere, -cēpī, -ceptum + dat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prae-dīcō, -dīcere, -dīxī, -dictum + dat. (like dīcō)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>precor (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rogō (1)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
suādeo / per-suādeo, -suādēre, -suāsī, -suāsum + dat. I urge, persuade
ueto, uetāre, uetūi, uetitum + infinitive I forbid, order not

| Practice sentences |

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. uenī hūc et dīc mihi id quod uīs.
2. nē ab urbe fugiat. occīde eum.
3. suīs imperāuit ut propius accēderent.
4. patrī meō persuāsī ut Rōmam uenīret.
5. Pompēius suīs praedīxerat ut Caesaris impetum exciperent nēue timērent.
6. I say, ‘Do this!’ and he does it.
7, 8. I ordered the girl to do this. (Express this in two different ways.)
9. I told the young man not to do this. (Use ueto.)
10. He was persuading me to leave my husband.
11. Leave the town and do not return.
12. I encouraged my teacher to work harder.
Direct and indirect questions

| Direct questions |

What are you doing?
When will you do that?
You can’t be thinking of doing that, can you?

Latin has two ways of asking direct questions. In both of them the verb is regularly in the indicative.

- If the question is introduced by a word that asks a question (e.g. *who? when? why?*, etc.), the word used will be one of the following:

  - quis? quid?
  - qui, quae, quod?
  - quālis, quālis, quāle
  - uter, utra, utrum?
  - quam?
  - quōmodo? quemadmodum?
  - quantus, quanta, quantum?
  - quot? (indeclinable)
  - quotiēns? quotiēs?
  - quamdiū?
  - cūr? quārē? quam ob rem? quid?
  - quandō?
  - ubi? quā?
  - quō?
  - unde?

  - who? what?
  - which? what? (adjective of above)
  - what sort of?
  - which (of two)?
  - how? (to what degree?) (with adjective or adverb)
  - how? (in what way?)
  - how great?
  - how many?
  - how often?
  - how long? (*of time*)
  - why?
  - when?
  - where?
  - where to? whither?
  - from where? whence?

  - quid dīcis?
  - What are you saying?

  - quot ĭberōs habet rēgīna?
  - How many children does the queen have?
quō uādis, domīne?
Where are you going to, master?

- If the question is not introduced by one of the above words which asks a question, see which of the following applies in the Latin:

1 If the answer to the question could be yes or no, you may find -ne added to the first word (which should be the emphatic word). However, just as in English, a question can be indicated by the sense or the context, without the reinforcement of -ne.

2 If the questioner is expecting the answer yes, the question will begin with nōnne.
   Surely you saw him?
   You did want to come to my grammar class, didn't you?

3 If the questioner is expecting the answer no, the question will begin with num.
   You didn't see him, did you?
   Surely you don't enjoy blood sports?

4 If there is a double question, you will probably find utrum... an or -ne (see 1) ... an. Negative utrum... annōn/necne.
   Are you laughing at him or at me?
   Are you going to do this work or not?

You need not find a translation for utrum in direct questions. It simply informs you that a second half to the question is coming up.

5 an can introduce a question containing the notion of surprise or indignation:

   an nescīs quae sit haec rēs? (Plautus, Pseudolus, 1161)
   Can you really be unaware what this business is about?

   mēne fugīs?
   Is it me you are running away from?
   (Virgil, Dido to Aeneas, Aeneid, 4.314)

   nōnne meministī?
   You do remember, don't you?

   num huius oblīta es?
   Surely you haven't forgotten him/her/this?

   serūīne estis an līberī?
   Are you slaves or free men?

   utrum eum uīdistī annōn?
   Did you see him or not?
Indirect questions

A verb in which the voice, eyes, ears, or mind is used (e.g. ask, observe, hear, deduce) followed by a word which asks a question (who? when? why?, etc.) is followed by a question word plus the subjunctive. The question words are the same as for direct questions. But note that ‘if’, ‘whether’ = num or an (not si). This is an important distinction. After num, quis, quid is used for ‘anyone’, ‘anything’.

The tense of the subjunctive corresponds to the English, but sequence of tenses (see pp. 86–70) is, of course, observed:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Primary</th>
<th>Historic</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Present</td>
<td>scit quid agam.</td>
<td>He knows what I am doing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Past</td>
<td>scit quid ēgerim (perf. subj.)</td>
<td>He knows what I did.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Future</td>
<td>scit quid āctūrus sim.</td>
<td>He knows what I am going to do (shall do).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>scīuit quid āgerem.</td>
<td>He knew what I was doing.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>scīuit quid ēgissem (pluperf. subj.)</td>
<td>He knew what I had done.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>scīuit quid āctūrus essem</td>
<td>He knew what I was going to do (would do).</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There is no future subjunctive in Latin. For this construction the language has to use a future participle together with the present or imperfect subjunctive of sum (whichever the sequence calls for).

minimī meā interest utrum rūrī mānsūrus sīs an Rōmam aduentūrus sīs.
It makes very little difference to me whether you stay in the country or come to Rome.

Note:
necne (not annōn) is used to mean ‘or not’ in indirect questions.

Practice sentences

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. quot librōs habet Atticus?
2. num tibi sum causa dolōris?
3. uīuitne pater?
4. quaerunt utrum dī sint necne.
5. quis scit quàlia tempora reī pūlicae futūra sint?
6. What do you think about the weather?
7. Where are you now? Where did you set out from, and where are you going to?
8. I asked him what he now had in mind.
9. I told him what I was about to ask the king.
10. I am asking myself whether you are foolish or not.
11. Surely no one can be so stupid?
Purpose clauses

I went to Rome in order to see the emperor.
so as to see

To express purpose Latin uses ut (= in order that) or, in the negative, nē (= in order that . . . not, lest, in case, to prevent) followed by the present or imperfect subjunctive depending on the sequence of tenses.

In this construction the sequence of tenses (see pp. 86–7) means that if the verb in the main clause is a present, imperative, future, or perfect with have, the verb in the ut/nē clause will be in the present subjunctive. If the verb in the main clause is in a past tense (imperfect, ‘perfect without have’, pluperfect), the verb in the ut/nē clause will be in the imperfect subjunctive.

Rōmam accēdō ut prīncipem uideam.
I am going to Rome so that I may see the emperor, to see the emperor, etc.

Rōmam adīī ut prīncipem uidērem.
I went to Rome so that I might see the emperor, in order to see the emperor, etc.

Note

1 In English, may and might are often equivalents of the Latin present and imperfect subjunctives respectively.

2 English often uses the infinitive to express purpose. Such an infinitive is not very common in classical Latin literature. ut . . . nōn must never be used in this construction (except when nōn negates a single word). Remember that the negative of ut is nē.

Rōmā excessit nē Antōnium uidēret.
He left Rome in order not to see Antony.

Note also:

nē quis, quis, quid in order that nobody . . . , in case anybody . . . , etc.
nē ūllus, ūlla, ūllum so that no . . . (stronger than nē quis)
nē umquam, nē quandō so that . . . never . . .
nē usquam, nēcubi so that . . . nowhere . . .
3 neu or nēue (and not) introduces a second purpose clause if it is negative.

Rōmā excessit nē Antōnium uidēret neu cōntiōnem audīret.
He left Rome in order to avoid seeing Antony and hearing his speech
(literally, and so as not to hear . . .).

4 When the purpose clause contains a comparative adjective or adverb, quō is used instead of ut.

cucurrī quō celerius eō aduenīrem.
I ran so as to get there faster.

5 The relative pronoun (qui, quae, quod) is used with the subjunctive to express purpose.

lēgātōs mīsit quī pācem peterent.
He sent ambassadors to seek peace (literally, who might seek . . .).

Rōmānī arma rapiunt quibus urbem suam dēfendant.
The Romans seize their arms in order to defend their city (literally, with which they may defend . . .).

The relative pronoun is regularly used in place of ut after verbs of giving, sending, and choosing, if the subject of the main clause is the same as the subject of the purpose clause.

6 se or suus in a purpose clause is likely to refer back to the subject of the main clause. See the last example.

7 Note the following words and phrases which can occur in main clauses and serve as a kind of signpost for a purpose clause:

idcirco for this reason
ideō for this reason
eō for this/that purpose
proptereā on this account
eō cōnsiliō with this/that intention
eā causā for this/that reason
eā rē for this/that reason

Cicerō eō cōnsiliō locūtus est ut Antōnium damnāret.
Cicero spoke with the intention of condemning Antony.

8 The supine (ending -um) can be used to express purpose after verbs of motion and verbs implying motion.

lēgātōs mīsit pācem petītum.
He sent ambassadors to seek peace.

Note cubītum eō = I go to bed: cubītum is the supine of cubō (cubō, cubāre, cubuī, cubītum, I lie down, I lie asleep). Thus cubītum eō literally means 'I go to lie down'.

9 For the use of the future participle and the gerund and gerundive to express purpose, see pp. 78 and 110 respectively.
10 uti is a variant spelling of ut and must be distinguished from utī, the present infinitive of the verb utor (= I use).

11 Purpose clauses are often called final clauses (from finis = end), referring to the end or purpose in view.

**Practice sentences**

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. puellae currunt ut ad fontem ueniant.
2. caue ne quis molestus tibi approprinquet.
3. lentius loquere quo te facilius intellegam.
4. haec uerba idcirco locūtus sum ut hanc rem haud dubiē intellegerēs.
5. semper habē Pyladēn aliquem qui ēret Orestēn. (Ovid, Remedia Amoris, 589. Pylades was a close and protective friend of Orestes. ‘Pyladēn’ and ‘Orestēn’ are Greek accusatives.)
6. ut amēris, amābilis estō (= be). (Ovid, Ars Amatoria, 2.107)
7-9. Express in three different ways:

10. Caesar sent out scouts to find the enemy’s camp.
11. We set out at dawn so that we could reach home more quickly.
12. I went to bed in order to have a good rest (= rest well).
13. Leave the city in case any enemy (inimicus) sees you anywhere and does not spare you.
I ran so fast that I collapsed.
Matilda told such dreadful lies, she made you gasp and stretch your eyes.

Result is expressed in Latin by *ut* (= so that, so as to) or *ut nōn* (so that ... not) plus the subjunctive. The subjunctive is in the natural tense (i.e. the tense is dictated by the sense). It is extremely likely to be the present or imperfect subjunctive depending on sequence of tenses. (see pp. 86–7)

• The present subjunctive in historic sequence stresses the ‘actuality’ of the result: it is now true. Compare the following:

  *tot uulnera accēpit ut moriātur.*
  He received so many wounds that he is (now) dying.

  *tot uulnera accēpit ut morerētur.*
  He received so many wounds that he was dying.

  *tot uulnera accēpit ut mortuus sit.*
  He received so many wounds that he died. (He has received so many wounds that he is dead.)

The perfect subjunctive stresses the completion of the result.

• If a future subjunctive is needed, the future participle plus *sim* or *essem* (according to sequence of tenses) is used.

  *tam diligenter labōrāmus ut crās in lectō mānsūrī simus.*
  We are working so hard that we shall stay in bed tomorrow.

---

**Note**

1 This construction is very frequently *signposted* by one of the following words:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tālis, tālis, tāle</td>
<td>such, of such a kind</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tantus, tanta, tantum</td>
<td>so great, so large</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tot (indeclinable)</td>
<td>so many</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>totiens, totiēs</td>
<td>so often, so many times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tam (with adjectives or adverbs)</td>
<td>so ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adeō (with verbs)</td>
<td>so much, to such an extent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ita</td>
<td>so (in such a way)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sīc</td>
<td>so (in such a way)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note that tālis is not used with another adjective. The Latin for 'such a brave man' is uir tam fortis.

2 In result clauses the reflexives sē and suus refer to the subject of the ut/ut nōn clause. So in the following sentence, eum is used, not sē.

tam fācundus erat Pompēius ut omnēs eum laudārent.
Pompeius was so eloquent that everyone used to praise him.

3 Remember that the negative of ut in this construction is ut nōn (not nē). When there is a second result clause and it is negative, Latin uses nec or neque (not nēue).

tam clārē Mārcum de illīs rēbus certiōrem fēcit ut omnia intellegearet neque iam esset ignārus.
So clearly did he inform Marcus about these things that he understood everything and was no longer in ignorance.

Note also:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construction</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ut nēmō</td>
<td>that nobody ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ut nihil</td>
<td>that nothing ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ut nūllus</td>
<td>that no ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ut numquam</td>
<td>that never ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ut nusquam</td>
<td>that nowhere ...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4 The relative with the subjunctive can be used to express result.

nōn tam stulta est Līvia quae mendācibus crēdat.
Livia is not so stupid as to trust liars. (Her stupidity is not so great that it leads to the result of her trusting liars (quae = ut ea).)

5 Note the idioms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construction</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sunt quī + subjunctive</td>
<td>there are some people who ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is sum quī + subjunctive</td>
<td>I am the type of person who ...</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sunt quī Graecōs meliōrēs quam Rōmānōs habeant.</td>
<td>There are people who consider Greeks superior to Romans.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ea est quae pauperēs semper cūret.</td>
<td>She is the sort of woman who is always looking after the poor.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We call this use of the subjunctive generic (from Latin genus (type, kind)) because it is used to convey the result of people being the 'types' they are.

6 quam quī (or quam ut) is used after a comparative in such sentences as

fortior est quam quī (ut) effugiat.
He is too brave to run away.

Literally, He is braver than the sort of man who runs away or He is too brave for the result to be that he runs away.
7 Note dignus/indignus sum qui + subjunctive = I am worthy/unworthy to . . ., I deserve to . . ., I do not deserve to . . .

digna est quae morte púnītur.
She deserves to be punished by death.

Literally, She is worthy so that (as a result) she should be punished by death.

8 Result clauses are also known as consecutive (i.e. consequence) clauses because the result clause follows on from (i.e. is a consequence of) the main clause.

| Practice sentences |

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. adeō terrēbar ut nihil facere possem.
2. ita carmina mea recitāuī ut omnēs dēlectārentur.
3. tam fortis est Herculēs ut omnia perīcula superātūrus sit.
4. nōn is sum qui ab inceptīs dēterrear.
5. Siciliam ita uastāuit ut restituī nūllō modō possit.
6. tanta uīs probitātīs est, ut eam in hoste etiam dīligāmus. (Cicero, de amicitia, 29)
7. He fled so fast that I couldn’t catch him.
8. He deserves to be hanged.
9. There are some people who believe the orator’s words.
10. I was so seriously beaten that I collapsed.
11. Who is so foolish as to believe you?
12. I am not the type to chase girls.
Verbs of fearing

I am afraid to do this.
I fear that the enemy will soon arrive.

Where English uses an infinitive after a verb of fearing, as in the first of these sentences, Latin also uses the infinitive.

*timeō hoc facere.*
I am afraid to do this.

Where in English the word ‘that’ follows (or is implied by) the verb of fearing, as in the following sentences, Latin uses *nē* + subjunctive.

*timeō nē hostēs mox adveniant.*
I am afraid (that) the enemy may soon arrive.

*timeō nē mē prōdiderīs.*
I am afraid (that) you have betrayed me.

The negative *nē* is logical since the person fearing hopes that the thing he or she fears will *not* happen. Old-fashioned English uses the negative word *lest* here:

I am afraid *lest* you (may) have betrayed me.

If you are working from English into Latin and find a clause of fearing that is *not* expressed in one of the above ways, you should re-cast it before translating, using ‘that’ or ‘lest’.

He was afraid of being found.
Re-cast: He was afraid that he might be found.
*timēbat nē inuenīrētur.*

The tense of the subjunctive is determined by the sequence of tenses (see pp. 86–7). Note that the present subjunctive can refer to the future in primary sequence and the imperfect subjunctive can refer to the future in historic sequence. (The future participle + *sim/essem* is generally *not* used after verbs of fearing.)

*uereor nē illa me uideat.*
I am afraid that she will see me.
metuēbam nē illa mē uidēret.
I was afraid that she would see me.

The negative of nē is nē ... nōn (or nē numquam, etc.) or ut (the latter never being used when the main verb is negative).

timuī nē mihi auxilium nōn fērēs.
I was frightened that you would not bring me help.

Clauses of fearing are introduced by such words as:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>timeō (2)</td>
<td>I fear, I am afraid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metuō, metuere, metuī, metūtum</td>
<td>I fear, I am afraid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pauēō, pauēre, pāuī, —</td>
<td>I am frightened, terrified</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uereor (2)</td>
<td>I fear, I am afraid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ueritus, uerita, ueritum</td>
<td>fearing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>timor, timōris, m.</td>
<td>fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metus, metūs, m.</td>
<td>fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>periculum, periculī, n.</td>
<td>danger</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

sē or suus in the fearing clause refers back to the subject of the main verb:

Cicerō timuit nē fūrēs mēnsam suam pretiōsam abriperent.
Cicero was afraid that thieves might steal his valuable table.

| Practice sentences |

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. timuī ex urbe in agrōs abīre.
2. imperātor metuit nē hostēs exercitum suum oppugnārent.
3. ueritus nē amīcam suam nōn uidēret, ad urbem ānxius properābat.
4. periculum est nē soror tua sērius adueniat.
5. uereor nē dum dēfendam meōs, non parcam tuīs. (Cicero, ad Atticum, 1.17.3)
6. She was afraid that the house might fall down.
7. I fear that she does not love your brother.
8. Fearing that I might offend you, I did not talk about your poetry.
9. Ulysses (Ulixes) was afraid that he would never see his home again.
10. I am afraid that I have killed your best friend.
Impersonal verbs

It rains.
It pours.
It’s snowing.
It’s thundering.

In English, impersonal verbs (i.e. verbs with *it* used as a sort of empty or dummy subject) are frequently used of the weather. They are used in other contexts, for example, *It upsets me that . . .*, though far less frequently. In Latin they fall into the following categories:

1 Weather verbs: *tonat* it thunders; *ningit* it snows; *pluit* it rains; *aduesperāscit* it is drawing towards evening.

2(a) impersonal verbs with a dative of the person and an infinitive:
   - *dīcere mihi libet.*
     It pleases me to speak, I wish to speak.
   - *dīcere mihi licet.*
     It is allowed to me to speak, i.e. I may speak.
   - *dīcere mihi placet.*
     It pleases me to speak, I like speaking, I decide to speak.
   - *dīcere mihi iūuat.*
     It seems a good idea to me to speak, I decide to speak.

All these verbs are in the 2nd conjugation.

2(b) impersonal verbs used with an accusative of the person and an infinitive:
   - *dīcere mē decet.*
     It is fitting for me to speak.
   - *dīcere mē oportuit.*
     It was my duty to speak (in old-fashioned English, *It behoved me to speak*).
   - *dīcere mē iuuat.*
     It pleases me to speak, I like speaking.

*decat* and *opertet* are 2nd conjugation, *iuuat* is 1st.
3 Impersonal verbs of feeling: the person who feels is in the *accusative*; the cause of the feeling is in the *genitive*.

*mē miseret rēginæ.*
I am sorry for (I pity) the queen.

*mē paenitet dictōrum.*
I am sorry for (I repent) my words.

*mē piget studiōrum.*
I am repelled by my studies. (in old-fashioned English, it irks ...)

*mē pudēbat factōrum.*
I was ashamed of my deeds.

*mē taedet grammaticae.*
I am tired of grammar. (cf. it wearies me)

All these verbs are 2nd conjugation. They can be used with the infinitive:

*mē paenituit tot mala dē tē dīxisse.*
I was sorry to have said so many bad things about you.

*puellās lūdere pudet.*
The girls are ashamed to play.

---

**Note:**

1 *meā (tuā, suā, nostrā, uestrā) interest*
   it is important to me (you, him, her, us, you)

2 *meā (tuā, suā, nostrā, uestrā) rēfert*
   it concerns me (you, him, her, us, you)

With both *interest* and *rēfert*, when one of the above pronominal adjectives is not used, the person or thing concerned is in the genitive.

2 *necesse est* + infinitive or subjunctive = *it is necessary*
3 *acciōd ut* + subjunctive = *it happens that*

---

**Practice sentences**

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1 *imperātōrem miseret captūorum. licēbit eī illōs līberāre?*
2 *ōrātōrem amīcōs suōs dēfendere oportet, sed prō tālī dīcere mē magnopere puduit.*
accidit ut oratiōnun meārum semper mē paenīteat.
ningit, sed uidētur mihi proficīscī.
It is important for me to reach Capua.
Evening is approaching. Will the girls be allowed to come to my house?
It is fitting for good men to die for their fatherland.
I decided (use an impersonal verb) to run away from the battle.

The impersonal use of the passive

I killed the king They fought fiercely.
The king was killed. There was fierce fighting.

In Latin, if a verb is used transitively (i.e. with an accusative object), it can be put in the passive by making what was the accusative object the new nominative subject.

rēgem interfēcī. rēx ā mē interfectus est.

However, this is not possible when a verb either is intransitive or is used intransitively.

ācriter pugnāuērunt.

This can only be rendered impersonally in the passive. The subject becomes it, i.e. the third person singular in the neuter.

ācriter pugnātum est.

This impersonal passive is especially common with verbs of motion.

prīmā lūce profectī sumus. merīdīē ad lacum peruentum est.
We set out at dawn. At midday we came (literally, it was come) to the lake.

undique concurriritur.
People run together from every direction. Literally, It is run together from every direction

sīc ītur ad astra.
That (i.e. fame) is the way to the stars. Literally, Thus it is gone to the stars.

Verbs which are followed by the dative are also technically intransitive and so in the passive these too can only be used impersonally. (It is impossible
to make the dative object of the active verb the nominative subject of the passive verb.)

lēgibus pārēmus. (active)
We obey the laws.

lēgibus ā nōbīs pārētur.
The laws are obeyed by us. Literally, There is obeying/obedience to the laws by us.

captīuiīs parcētur.
The prisoners will be spared. Literally, There will be sparing to the prisoners.

cōnsulī ā nullō crēditur.
The consul is trusted by nobody.

| Practice sentences on the impersonal use of verbs in the passive. |

 Translate into English or Latin as appropriate.

 1. quattuor hōrās pugnātum est, sed tum hostēs nostrīs nōn iam restitērunt.
 2. prīncipi ab omnibus pārēbātur sed is sōlum paucīs fauēbat.
 3. postquam in campum uentum est, urbī appropinquāuimus.
 4. I obey the general but I do not trust him. (Use the impersonal construction.)
 5. The battle was long and fierce. (Use the impersonal construction.)
Gerunds and gerundives

By walking more quickly, he made faster progress.
She prefers walking to running.
He is addicted to eating sweets.

In these sentences the words walking, running, and eating are gerunds. Gerunds are verbal nouns, i.e. nouns formed from verbs. In English they end in -\textit{ing}, and can easily be confused with participles (see above, pp. 76–7). Thus, while in the second sentence above walking and running are gerunds, in the sentence \textit{The walking man beat the running boy} the words are adjectives. If in doubt, put the words ‘the act (or action) of’ in front of the word ending in -\textit{ing}. They will always make some sort or sense in front of a gerund but will be meaningless before a participle.

Note that in English the gerund can take an object, e.g. eating sweets in the third sentence above.

The gerund and gerundive in Latin

In Latin the present infinitive active supplies the nominative and accusative of the gerund. In the other cases -\textit{andī} or -\textit{andō} is added to the stem of first conjugation verbs, and -\textit{endī} or -\textit{endō} to the stem of all other verbs, including deponents. After prepositions governing the accusative, a gerund ending in -\textit{andum} or -\textit{endum} is used, and not the infinitive. The gerund is neuter.

\begin{tabular}{lllll}
Nom. & parāre & monēre & regere & audīre \\
 & (to prepare, preparing) & (to advise, advising) & (to rule, ruling) & (to hear, hearing) \\
Gen. & parandī & monendī & regendī & audiendī \\
Dat. & parandō & monendō & regendō & audiendō \\
Acc. & parāre, parandum & monēre, monendum & regere, regendum & audire, audiendum \\
Abl. & parandō & monendō & regendō & audiendō \\
\end{tabular}
amāre dulce est
Loving is delightful.

ars amandī
the art of loving

studuit amandō
He devoted himself to loving.

nescit amāre
He does not know how to love. (Literally, he does not know loving.)

parātus ad amandum
ready for loving

fēminās amandō
by loving women

The last example above is not, in fact, ideal Latin. While the gerund can take an object in English, Latin usually prefers to harmonize the endings of the gerund and its object. (The process is known as ‘gerundival attraction’, a faintly comic expression which makes it sound more difficult than it is.)

fēminās amandō  by loving women

Clearly the ablative must not be changed; if it is, the meaning by will be lost. The object of the gerund must therefore be put into the case of the gerund, which then becomes an adjective (ending in -andus, -a, -um or -endus, -a, -um) which then agrees with the noun. This adjective is called the ‘gerundive’. Thus we have fēminīs amandīs.

ars ciūēs regendi ‘the art of ruling the citizens’ becomes ars ciūium regendōrum.

Note:
1. Gerundival attraction always occurs (a) after prepositions; (b) when the gerund is in the dative.
2. Gerundival attraction tends to be avoided (a) with neuter pronouns or adjectives in the genitive, dative, or ablative; (b) when the meaning of the verb is stressed; (c) by some authors when it would lead to a repetition of first and second declension endings in the genitive plural. Thus ars librōs legendī may be preferable to the cumbrous ars librōrum legendōrum.
Note

1. *ad* + the gerund or gerundive (by attraction) expressing purpose, e.g.
   *ad pācem petendam* for the purpose of seeking peace.

2. The postpositions (prepositions placed after the nouns they govern) *causa* and *grātiā* (both with the genitive) 'for the sake of':
   *pācis petendae causa* (or *grātiā*)
   for the sake of seeking peace, *i.e.* in order to seek peace.

3. Nouns which take a 'determining' genitive (see examples), such as *occāsiō*, *occāsionis*, *f.* (opportunity), *facultās*, *facultātis*, *f.* (opportunity), *signum*, *signī*, *n.* (sign, signal), and adjectives which govern a noun in the genitive, such as *cupidus*, *-a*, *-um* (eager) and *perītus*, *-a*, *-um* (skilled), are followed, reasonably enough, by the genitive of the gerund or gerundive:
   *occāsiō amandī*
   an opportunity for loving, *i.e.* a chance to love
   *signum oppugnandī*
   the signal to attack
   *signum oppidī oppugnandī*
   the signal to attack the town (gerundive)
   *cupidus edendī*
   eager to eat (*literally*, desirous of eating)
   *perītus docendī*
   experienced in teaching

4. The following usages with verbs of entrusting and undertaking, e.g. *dō*, *dare*, *dedī*, *datum* (*I give*), *cūrō* (1) (*I see to*) and *suscipiō*, *suscipere*, *suscepī*, *suscep-tum* (*I undertake*):
   *librum legendum puellae dedī*.
   I gave the girl a book to read.
   *pontem aedificandum cūrāuit*.
   He saw to the building of the bridge.
   *suscēpit nauēs reficiendās*.
   He undertook the repair of the ships.

5. The gerund of *eō* (*I go*) is *eundum*. The form *faciundum* (instead of *faciendum* (from *faciō* *I make*, *do*) is common in old Latin. Note also the expression *(pecūniae) repetundae*, *f.*, *pl.*., meaning *extortion of money*.

Practice sentences on the gerund and gerundive can be found at the foot of the following section (the Gerundive of Obligation).
| The gerundive of obligation |

This film is on no account **to be missed**.
One thing remains **to be done**.

The gerundive in Latin is a passive verbal adjective (the equivalent of *to be missed*, *to be done* in the above sentences). Its endings are the same as that of the gerund save that it is an adjective ending in **-us, -a, -um** (e.g. *monendus, -a, -um*). When combined with the verb *esse* (to be) it expresses ideas of obligation (e.g. ‘ought’, ‘must’, ‘should’ ‘have to’), and is therefore called ‘the gerundive of obligation’.

| 1. The gerundive with transitive verbs |

*librum legō.*
I read the book.

*liber legitur.*
The book is read.

*liber legendus est.*
The book is to-be-read, *i.e.* The book must be (should be, ought to be, has to be) read.

*liber legendus erat.*
The book was to-be-read, *i.e.* The book had to be read.

When negatived the gerundive can express ideas of permissibility or appropriateness, e.g.

*rēs nōn contemnenda*  a thing not to be despised.

Remember that the gerundive is passive in meaning.

The agent goes into the dative.

*līber mihi legendus est.*
The book is to-be-read by me, *i.e.* I must read the book.

*puellā tibi amanda est.*
You must love the girl.

*urbis nōbīs relinquenda est.*
We must leave the city.
Note:
This pattern is followed only with transitive verbs which have their objects in the accusative.

2. The gerundive with intransitive verbs

The gerundive of intransitive verbs and verbs followed by cases other than the accusative (see list on p. 11) must be used *impersonally* (i.e. when translating into English, start with the word ‘it’, but remember that you may have to adjust your literal translation to achieve a stylish result) (see pp. 104–5).

- *ab urbe nóbīs discēdendum est.*
  It is to-be-left from the city by us, *i.e.* We must leave the city.

- *prīmā lūce nóbīs prōgrediendum est.*
  *We must set out at dawn.*

- *mihi errantī ignōscendum est.*
  I must be forgiven when I make a mistake.

- *lēgibus pārendum est.*
The laws must be obeyed.

1. Compare *urbs nóbīs relinquenda est.*

Note:
As we have seen, the agent normally goes into the dative. However, if a dative of the agent was inserted in the last sentence above, where the object of the verb (*lēgibus*) is in the dative, an ambiguity would arise: *lēgibus nóbīs pārendum est* could mean *either* ‘We must obey the laws’ or ‘The laws must obey us’. In such cases *ā* or *ab* with the ablative is used with the agent, *i.e.* *lēgibus ā nóbīs pārendum est.*
Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. omnia ūnō tempore erant agenda.
2. agrōs Heluetīs habitandōs dedit.
3. hostibus ā nōbīs parcendum est.
4. Titus equitandī perītissimus fuit.
5. sapientia ars uūendī putanda est. (Cicero, de finibus, 1.42)
6. ūnus homō nōbīs cunctandō restituit rem. (Ennius, quoted in Cicero, de officiis, 1.84)
7. I must cross the sea. (*Use gerundive.*)
8. Always eager to read, he was a glutton (helluo, (gen.) helluonis, m. + gen.) for books.
9. & I am sending scouts to find the legate.
10. (*Two ways, both involving the gerund.*)
11. Soldiers must obey generals.
12. By reading books, he becomes wiser every day.
Conditional sentences

Conditional clauses are introduced by *if, unless, if... not, whether... or*. Conditional sentences are made up of a conditional clause and a main clause giving the result or inference of the conditional clause. In both English and Latin the conditional clause usually (but by no means always) comes first.

If there are puddles in the road this morning, it rained last night.
If it rains later today, there will be puddles in the road.
If it were to rain, there would be puddles in the road.
If it had rained, there would have been puddles in the road.

In both English and Latin, conditional sentences can simply state facts, as in the first two sentences above and in the axiomatic

If a triangle has two equal sides, it is an isosceles triangle.

In this grammar we call these conditionals ‘open’ and the verbs in both the ‘if’ clause (the *protasis*) and the main clause (the *apodosis*) are—quite naturally, since they state facts—in the tense of the *indicative* which suits their sense.

The third and fourth sentences above fall into the category of the ‘remote’ and the ‘unfulfilled’ respectively. Comparison between the second and third sentences will show how the third is expressed in a doubtful or remote way in contrast with the second. The words ‘were to’ and ‘would’ (English equivalents of the subjunctive) signal this remoteness.

In the fourth sentence, we are in the area of the unreal or the impossible. It did not rain and so the condition is unfulfilled. Here the words ‘would have’ are the key. The subjunctive in Latin conditionals will lead inevitably to the use of the word ‘would’ in the main clause of an English translation. In Latin the verbs in both halves in ‘remote’ or ‘unfulfilled’ conditionals are in the subjunctive.

**Note:**
The Latin for ‘if’ is *si*, for ‘if not’ or ‘unless’ *nisi* (but see point 4 on pp. 116–17).
| Open conditions |

The appropriate tenses of the indicative are used in Latin:

\[ \text{si hoc dixit, errauit.} \]
If he said that, he was wrong.

\[ \text{si diligenter laboratis, discipuli mi, valde gaudeo.} \]
If you are working hard, my students, I am very happy.

\[ \text{si me ulseris, Romam ueni.} \]
If you want to see me, come to Rome.

\[ \text{si domum meam ueneris/uenies, libenter te salutabo.} \]
If you come to my house, I shall welcome you warmly.

In the last sentence a problem arises because of the difference between Latin and English. English tends to use a ‘concealed future’ (that is to say, ‘you come’ looks like a present tense, but in fact means ‘you will come’ or ‘you will have come’). Latin here must use the future or, if the action will be complete before the result, the future perfect. When translating from English into Latin, watch out for these concealed futures in the English.

| Remote and unfulfilled conditions |

These are always identifiable in English by the use of the word ‘would’ in the main clause (apodosis). In Latin the subjunctive is used in both clauses. The present subjunctive refers to future time—there is no future subjunctive—, the imperfect subjunctive refers to present time, and the pluperfect subjunctive to past time.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Time</th>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Example</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Future  | present subjunctive       | \[ si diligenter labores, proficias. \]  
If you worked (were to work) hard, you would make progress. |
| Present | imperfect subjunctive     | \[ si diligenter laborares, proficeres. \]  
If you were working hard, you would be making progress. |
| Past    | pluperfect subjunctive    | \[ si diligenter laborauisses, profecisses. \]  
If you had worked hard, you would have made progress. |
Note:
Like English, Latin can make a distinction between past and present time between the clauses, e.g.

sī diligenter labōrāuissēs, iam prōficerēs.
If you had worked hard, you would now be making progress.

---

Note

1 The English ‘subjunctive’ words ‘were to’, ‘would’, ‘would have’.

2 If the verb in the Latin main clause (apodosis) of a past unfulfilled conditional sentence means ‘can’, ‘must’, ‘is proper, necessary’, e.g. possum (I can), dēbeō (I ought), oportet (it is necessary or proper, ‘should’), or sum (I am) with a gerundive of obligation (see pp. 111–12), it is regularly in the indicative (imperfect or perfect, rarely pluperfect). These verbs contain within themselves a subjunctive type of meaning (e.g. ‘could’, ‘should’):

sī hoc fēcissēs, pūniendus fuistī (or erās).
If you had done this, you should have been punished.

3 The ‘double conditional’ words, seu . . . seu . . . (before consonants) or sīue . . . sīue . . . (whether . . . or . . .):

seu mē rūrī uīseris seu Rōmae mānseris, contentus erō.
Whether you come to see me in the country or stay in Rome, I shall be content.

sīue minus is used for ‘if not’ without a verb:

sīue mē uīseris sīue minus . . .
Whether you come to see me or not . . .

Note that sī minus (if not) can also be used without a verb.

4 nisi = unless, if not:

nisi mē uīseris, trīstissimus manēbō.
Unless you come to see me, I shall remain very sad.

sī nōn = if not is used:

(a) when the main clause (apodosis) contains at, tamen, or certē (yet, still, even so, at least, none the less, certainly):

sī mihi bonā rē pūbicā fruī nōn licuerit, at carēbō malā. [(Cicero, pro Milone, 93)]
If I am not allowed to enjoy good government, I shall at least be free of bad.
Conditional sentences | 117

(b) when the same verb is repeated:

hoc sī fēceris, habēbō grātiam; sī nōn fēceris, ignōscam.
If you have done this, I shall be grateful; if you haven’t done it, I shall forgive you.

(c) when individual words are contrasted:

cum spē, sī nōn optimā, at aliquā tamen uīuit.
He lives with some hopes, if not the highest.

5 quodsī and sīn both mean but if.

6 sī quis = if anyone nisi quis = unless anyone sī quandō = if ever

7 As in English the ‘if’ clause can come first or second in Latin:

habēbō grātiam sī hoc fēceris.
I shall be grateful if you do this.

| Practice sentences |

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. respīrābō sī tē uīderō. (Cicero, ad Atticum, 2.24.5)
2. respīrem sī tē uideam.
3. nēmō ferē saltat sōbrius nisi forte īnsānit. (Cicero, pro Murena, 13)
4. nisi ante Rōmā prōfectus essēs, nunc eam certē relinquerēs. (Cicero, ad familiares, 7.11.1)
5. nōn possem uīuere nisi in litterīs uīuerem.
6. hunc hominem, sī ūlla in tē esset pietās, colere dēbēbās.
7. If you come to Italy, I beg you to visit me at Rome.
8. If you were to come to Rhodes, I would show you the Colossus.
9. If she has done what (id quod) I asked, I shall thank her.
10. If Cicero had fled the country, he would not have been killed.
11. If you were helping me, I would be much happier.
12. What would you say if I spat (spuo, spuere) in your face?
13. Whether you like my poems or hate them, I hope you will come to my recital.
14. If you had learnt my poems, you could have recited them to your sister.
Time clauses

The beggar left the city before the senate house burnt down.
The mouse hurried off before the cat spotted it.
The mouse hurried off before the cat could spot it.

In the first of the sentences above, the time clause simply tells us when the beggar left the city: there is presumably no connection between his departure and the fire. In the second sentence there is probably an implication of purpose: the mouse hurried off in order to avoid being spotted by the cat. In the third sentence, the suggestion of purpose is made explicit by the use of the English 'subjunctive' *could*.

Latin uses the indicative in time clauses of the first kind (the vast majority) and the subjunctive in time clauses of the third kind. What difference would the use of (a) an indicative and (b) a subjunctive make in a Latin version of the second sentence above? Compare this pair of Latin sentences:

*priusquam Caesar peruēnit, obsidēs poposcit.*
Before Caesar arrived, he demanded hostages.

*collem celeriter priusquam ab hostibus cōnspicerētur commūnīuit.*
He quickly fortified the hill before he was (could be) noticed by the enemy.

The following words introduce time clauses:

\[
\begin{array}{ll}
\text{cum}^1 & \text{when} \\
\text{ubi}^2 & \text{as soon as} \\
\text{ut} & \text{before} \\
\text{cum/ubi/ut prīnum} & \text{after} \\
\text{simul atque/ac} & \text{after} \\
\end{array}
\]
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ex quō (tempore)</td>
<td>since, ever since</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dum¹</td>
<td>while</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quamdiū</td>
<td>whenever, as often as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quoad</td>
<td>until</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

1. *cum* and *dum* are used differently from other ‘time’ conjunctions. See separate entries on pp. 122-5.

2. Note that *ubi* is used meaning ‘when’ in time clauses; *quandō?* is used meaning ‘when?’ in direct and indirect questions. Remember that *ubi* also means ‘where’.

---

As we have said, the words which introduce time clauses are regularly followed by the indicative in the tense that the meaning requires.

### Note

1. The ‘concealed future’.

   > nōn tē uidēbō antequam Rōmam uñeneris.
   > I shall not see you before you come (will have come) to Rome.

   Here Latin uses the future perfect (*not* the future), whereas English uses the present tense relating to the future. *nōn . . . antequam* is the equivalent of *postquam* and the action of the time clause must happen and *be complete* before the action of the main clause.

   BUT *antequam* can be followed by a present indicative when the main verb is not negative:

   > antequam ad sententiam redeō, dē mē paūca dicam. (Cicero, in Catilinam, 4.20)
   > Before I return to the subject, I shall say a few things about myself.

2. *postquam* (*postēquam*), *ubi*, *ut*, *simul atque* (*simul ac*), *ut prīnum*, and *cum prīnum* are all followed by the perfect indicative when they refer to past time:

   > Pompēius ut equitātum suum pulsum uīdit, aciē excessit.  
   > (Caesar, de bello civili, 3.94.5)
   > When Pompey saw his cavalry beaten, he left the battle line.

   English is likely to say *When ‘Pompey had seen . . .’ while Latin uses the perfect.*
BUT in Latin the pluperfect is used with post... quam when a definite interval of time is mentioned:

post diem tertium gesta rēs est quam dixerat. (Cicero, pro Milone, 44)
The matter was dealt with on the third day (i.e. two days) after he had spoken.

3 The pluperfect is also used after ubi, ut, simul atque (simul ac), and quotiēns when the action of the verb has occurred repeatedly in the past (as after 'whenever' in English).

ubi litterās tuās accēperam, ualde gaudēbam.
Whenever I received a letter from you, I was very happy.

The perfect is also used frequently in this sense in primary sequence:

ubi litterās tuās accēpī, ualde gaudeō.
Whenever I receive a letter from you, I am very happy.

When the repeated action refers to the present or the future, quotiēns is used followed by the appropriate tense of the indicative.

4 The words antequam, postquam, and posteāquam are often split in two, the first bit going in the main clause, as in the second example in 2 above. There is no problem in translating into English if you hold up the translation of the words ante, post or posteā until you reach the word quam and translate it there.

ante ad urbem celeriter rediī quam tu Capuam aduēnisti.
I returned quickly to the city before you came to Capua.

5 Remember that if there is any idea of purpose, expectation or waiting for something to happen, the verb in the time clause goes into the subjunctive:

mūs celeriter effūgit priusquam fēlēs salīret.
The mouse hurried off before the cat could leap.

6 The verb in a time clause naturally goes into the subjunctive when this is a subordinate clause in indirect statement.

| Practice sentences |

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. simul atque hoc fēcī, scīī mē errāuisse.
2. Hamilcar nōnō annō postquam in Hispāniam uēnerat, occīsus est. (Nepos, 22.4.2)
3. nōn prius respondēbō quam tacueris.
4. ubi rēgīna hoc fēcerat, rēx ualde īrātus fīēbat.
5. ē iānuā effūgī priusquam coniūnx mea mē uituperāret.
6. She left the city before I saw her.
7. She left the city before I could see her.
8. Don’t do this before the king arrives.
9. Whenever she does that, I love her even more.
10. I killed her before she could kill me.
Cum (= when)

**cum illud fēceris, īrātus erō.**
When you do that, I shall be angry.

**cum illud fēcissēs, īrātus fuī.**
When you did that, I was angry.

When the verb in the *cum* clause is in a primary tense (see pp. 86–7), it is in the indicative. (Watch out for the ‘concealed future or future perfect’ as in the first example above.) When the verb in the *cum* clause is in a historic tense, it is in the subjunctive. This will always be *either* an imperfect subjunctive or a pluperfect subjunctive according to the sense (*never perfect*).

However, if there is a temporal adverb (e.g. *tum, tunc* (then), *nunc, iam* (now)) or a temporal expression (e.g. involving the words *tempus* (time) or *diēs* (day)) in the main clause, a historic tense of the indicative can be found in the time clause. In such sentences, the idea will be purely to do with time (i.e. there will be no hint of cause and effect between the time clause and the main clause):

**sex librōs dē rēpublicā tum scripsī cum gubernācula reī pūblicae tenēbam.**
(Cicero, de diuinatione, 2.3)
I wrote six books about the state in the period when I was holding the reins of power.

---

**Note:**

If it is the main clause and not the apparent time clause which contains the idea of time, the indicative is always used after *cum*:

**sōl occidēbat cum aduēnī.**
The sun was setting when I arrived.

This is known as ‘inverted *cum*’. Here the *cum* clause will naturally come second.

‘Inverted *cum*’ can also be used when the *cum* clause contains the more important contents. It often communicates a surprise, e.g.:
Hannibal iam subībat mūrōs cum repente ērupunt Rōmānī. (Livy, 29.7.8)
Hannibal was already approaching the walls when suddenly the Romans burst out.

| Some further uses of Cum |

1. **cum** = *whenever, as often as*
   - *cum eum uīderō*  (future time–future perfect indicative)
     whenever I see him
   - *cum eum uīdī*  (present time–perfect indicative)
     whenever I see him
   - *cum eum uīderam*  (past time–pluperfect indicative)
     whenever I saw him

2. **cum** = *since*
   - *quae cum ita sint*  
     since these things are so
   - *quae cum ita essent*  
     since these things were so

   *cum* meaning ‘since’ is always followed by the subjunctive, in the tense which best suits the meaning.

3. **cum** = *although, whereas*
   - *cum prīmi ordinēs hostium concidissent, tamen acerrīmē reliquī resistēbant.* (Caesar, de bello Gallico, 7.62.4)
     Although the first ranks of the enemy had fallen, the rest still (none the less, nevertheless) resisted most vigorously.

   *cum* meaning ‘although’ is always followed by the subjunctive.

-note:
To make it clear that *cum* means ‘although’, *tamen* is often included in the main clause (as in the sentence above).

Practice sentences on ‘cum’ are included in the exercise at the foot of the following chapter (*Dum* = while).
Dum (= while)

I nodded off from time to time while the instructor was talking. While the pile-driver was running, I could not hear a word you were saying.

In English the word ‘while’ tends to be used either with the meaning ‘in the course of the time that . . .’, as in the first sentence above, or, less frequently, to mean ‘exactly as long as . . .’, ‘all the time that . . .’, as in the second sentence.

For the former, far more common, meaning, Latin rather remarkably uses the present indicative in the ‘while’ clause, even in an indirect statement. But when ‘while’ means ‘exactly as long as . . .’, the verb goes into the natural tense of the indicative—which will regularly be the same as that of the main verb. So:

\[ \text{dum fēlēs abest, mūrēs lūdent} \]

means something different from

\[ \text{dum fēlēs aberit, mūrēs lūdent}. \]

The first sentence means that the mice will indulge in more or less play while the cat is away, the second that they will play every moment of its absence.

Think about the difference in meaning between:

\[ \text{dum haec geruntur, ego rīdēbam}. \]
\[ \text{dum haec gerēbantur, ego rīdēbam}. \]

Some further uses of Dum

1. dum = until: the same rules apply as with other regular time words (see pp. 118–20):

   \[ \text{manē hīc dum sōl occiderit}. \]
   Stay here until after sunset (Literally, until the sun shall have set).
exspectā dum litterās meās accipiās.
Wait until you get my letter (the idea of purpose).

2. dum, dummodo = provided that, if only, as long as:
ōderint dum metuant. (Accius, Atreus, fragment 4)
Let them hate provided that they fear.
dum hoc nē agās, tūtus eris.
As long as you don’t do this, you will be safe.

In these clauses, Latin regularly uses the subjunctive, negative nē.

3. dum = while, in a causal sense, i.e. because, in that:
dum òtium uolunt etiam sine dignitāte retinēre, ipsī utrumque āmitunt.
(Cicero, pro Sestio, 100)
While (because, in that) they wish to keep their leisure even at the price of their dignity, they themselves lose them both.

Here Latin uses the indicative.

| Practice sentences on ‘cum’ and ‘dum’ |

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. Zēnōnem cum Athēnīs essem audiēbam frequenter. (Cicero, de natura deorum, 1.21.59)
2. dum haec Rōmae aguntur, cōnsulēs ambō in Liguribus gerēbant bellum.
   (Livy, 39.1.1)
3. cum rosam ūderat, tum incipere uer arbitrabātur. (Cicero, in Verrem, 2.5.27)
4. Tiberius Gracchus tam diū laudābitur dum memoria rērum Rōmānārum manēbit.
   (Cicero, de officiis, 2.43)
5. dolō erat pugnandum, cum pār nōn esset armīs. (Nepos, 23.10.4)
6. Although (use cum) they hate the emperor, they still obey him.
7. While Horatius was reciting his poetry, people sometimes (aliquando) laughed.
8. When you see my sister, greet her warmly (comiter).
9. He stayed in Rome until he could see the consul.
10. Since you are my enemy I shall not trust you.
Because, although, as if

| Because |

Socrates was executed because he had corrupted young men.
Socrates was executed on the grounds that he had corrupted young men.

The first of these English sentences gives the actual reason for the execution of Socrates. The second gives an alleged reason, possibly an untrue one.

In Latin the difference is indicated by the use of *quod*, *quia*, or *quoniam* followed by the indicative when the actual reason is given, and by the use of *quod* followed by the subjunctive when an alleged reason is given. (An alleged reason is a thought in someone’s head and is thus in effect a subordinate clause in indirect statement.)

What is the difference in meaning between these two sentences?

*puella culpāta est quod librum incenderat.*
*puella culpāta est quod librum incendisset.*

*quod* followed by the indicative or the subjunctive (depending on the distinction given above) is frequently used after verbs of emotion, e.g.

*aegrē fero* I am sorry that . . .
*doleō* (2) I am sorry
*gaudeō* (2) I am glad
*laetor* (1) I am glad
*mīror* (1) I wonder

*u vehementer laetor quod scripsistī.*
I am extremely glad that you have written.

But all of these verbs are more commonly followed by the accusative + infinitive or by *si* (if) than by a *quod* clause.


---

Note

1 *nōn quod* or *nōn quō* (not because) introduces a rejected reason and the verb in such a clause, like that in an alleged reason, goes into the subjunctive. If the actual reason follows, it is introduced by *sed quia* and its verb is in the indicative.
in uīllā mānsit, nōn quod aeger esset, sed quia ego aderam.
He stayed in the villa not because he was sick but because I was there.

2 The reason can be emphasized by including eō, idcirco, ideō, or proptereā (all meaning ‘for this reason’) in the main clause.

Quīntum idcirco uīllāūī quod eum ōderam.
I avoided Quintus precisely because I hated him.

3 For cum meaning ‘because’ or ‘since’, see p. 123.

| Although |

Although you did no work, you still passed the exam.
Even if you did no work, you would still pass the exam.

Clauses beginning with the words ‘although’, ‘though’, ‘even though’, or ‘even if’ are known as concessive clauses. They can deal either with facts, as in the first sentence above (in which it is taken as true that ‘you did no work’), or with possibilities, as in the second sentence (in which you may or may not do some work).

In Latin the factual concessive clauses are introduced by quamquam, etsī, or tametsī (or sī in Latin poetry), etiam sī, or etiamsī, and their verb is in the indicative:

quamquam diligenter labōrāuistī, tamen errāuistī.
Although you worked hard, you still made a mistake.

The concessive clauses dealing with possibilities are introduced by quamuis, etsī. etiam sī, or etiamsī, and the verb goes into the subjunctive.

quamuis diligenter labōrēs, tamen errās.
However hard you may be working, you are still wrong.

(Notice the use of tamen in the main clause to reinforce the meaning ‘although’.)

etsī, etiam sī, and etiamsī are compounds of sī and mean ‘even if’. Therefore, when they are followed by a subjunctive, the tense of that subjunctive will be the one called for in a conditional clause (see p. 115).

Note

1 quamuis = ‘however’ with an adjective or adverb. When used in this way, it is always followed by the subjunctive.
quamulś diligenter labōrēs, nōn prōficīēs.
However hard you work, you will not succeed.
(The literal meaning of thequamulś clause is something like ‘You may work hard as much as you wish’.)

2 quamulś = ‘however’ can be used as an adverb with an adjective or adverb:
quamulś fortis, tamen effūgit.
However brave (he was), he still ran away.

3 licet + subjunctive = even though:
licet undique pērīcula impendeant, tamen ea subībō.
Although dangers threaten me on every side, I shall still face them.
(The literal meaning of the licet clause is something like ‘Let dangers threaten me on every side—it is permitted [to them to do so]’.)

4 For cum = ‘although’, see p. 123.

As if, as (comparisons)

The senators were terribly afraid, as if the enemy were already at the gates of Rome.
The general was rewarded as his courage deserved.

In the first of these sentences, the comparison is untrue. The enemy were not at the gates of Rome. In the second sentence, the comparison is true. The general’s courage did deserve to be rewarded.

In Latin if the verb conveys a fact (as in the second meaning above), it is naturally in the indicative since it is true. If the verb makes an imaginary (i.e. untrue) comparison (as with the first meaning above), it is in the subjunctive. Comparisons are much more likely to be untrue than true.

Among the Latin words and expressions for ‘as if’ or ‘as though’ are:

| perinde ac (sī) | tamquam sī |
| quasi | uelut |
| sīcut | uelut sī |
| tamquam | ut (sī) |

ut merita est, poenās persoluit.
She was punished as she deserved.

tamquam merita esset, poenōs persoluit.
She was punished as if she had deserved it.
Note
1 The tense of the subjunctive is usually determined by the sequence of tenses (see pp. 86–7), not the rules for conditional sentences.
2 haud aliter ac/atque = not otherwise than:
   haud aliter locútus est ac solébat.
   He spoke as he always did (literally, not otherwise than he was accustomed to).

| Practice sentences |

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:
1. Römānī quamquam itinere fessī erant, tamen obuiam hostibus prōcessērunt.
2. Aristidēs nōnne ob eam causam expulsus est patriā quod praeter modum iūstus esset? (Cicero, Tusculan Disputations, 5.105)
3. quamuis sīs molestus, numquam tē esse cōnfitebor malum. (Cicero, Tusculan Disputations, 2.62)
4. hic est obstandum, mīlitēs, uelut sī ante Römāna moenia pugnēmus. (Livy, 21.41.15)
5. Quīntum paenitet quod animum tuum offendit.
6. tanta est tempestās quantum numquam anteā uīdī.
7. I was extremely happy that my husband had died.
8. Although I was walking fast, I could not avoid the bore (molestus ille).
9. However fast you walk, you will not escape me.
10. He was praised because he had saved the state; but in fact (re uera) Cicero did that.
11. He was praised not because he had saved the state but because he wrote good poems.
12. He looked (i.e. appeared) as if he was sick, but in fact he was angry.
Quīn and quōminus

Quīn

I do not doubt that she is a respectable woman.
Nothing will prevent me from coming to your birthday party.

The English verbs ‘doubt’, ‘deny’, ‘hinder’, and ‘prevent’ are followed by a number of different expressions. Latin often uses quīn followed by the subjunctive (the tense depending on the sequence of tenses, see pp. 86–7) after a negative main verb with one of these meanings (e.g. nōn dubitō (1) ‘I do not doubt’, nōn negō (1) ‘I do not deny’, nōn impedīō (4) ‘I do not hinder, prevent’). The Latin for the sentences above could be:

nōn dubitātur quīn pudīca sit.
nihil mē impediet quīn nātāli tuō adsim.

The word quīn causes English speakers problems because it does not translate into idiomatic English. Literally, it means ‘by which not’. The old-fashioned ‘but that’ may be useful as a first stage in translation:

I do not doubt but that she is a respectable woman.

nōn dubitātur quīn Germānī oppugnāturī essent.
He did not doubt that the Germans were going to attack.

nōn negātur quīn ipse scelus admīsisset.
He did not deny that he himself had committed the crime.

nōn tē impediam quīn proficīscāris.
I shall not prevent you from setting out.

As we have seen, the main verb before quīn will be negative. Sometimes the words uīx or aegērē (scarcely) are found instead of a plain negative (they are known as ‘virtual negatives’). A question expecting the answer ‘no’ (num . . . ?) or implying the answer ‘no’ (who doubts that . . . ? can imply no one doubts that . . . ) may also come before quīn.

uīx quisquam dubitāre potest quīn stultus sīs.
Scarcely anyone can doubt that you are a fool.

num quisquam dubitāre potuit quīn sapiēns essēs?
Surely no one could have doubted that you were wise.
Note the following common expressions:

- **HAUD (NON) DUBIUM EST QUĬN...**
  there is no doubt that...
- **HAUD DUBITĂRĬ POTEȘT QUĬN...**
  it cannot be doubted that...
- **HAUD MULTUM (OR MINIMUM) ĄFUIT QUĬN...**
  almost *(literally, it was not much (or very little) distant but that . . .)*
  **HAUD MULTUM ĄFUĬ QUĬN INTERFICERĔR.** *(impersonal)*
  I was almost killed.

  **OR**

  **HAUD MULTUM ĄFUĬ QUĬN INTERFICERĔR.** *(literally, I was not much distant . . . (personal)).*

- **NŎN POSSŬM FACERE QUĬN...**
  I cannot help...
- **NŎN POTEST FIERĬ QUĬN...**
  it is impossible that . . . not
- **NĔMŎ EST QUĬN...**
  there is nobody who . . . not
  **NĔMŎ EST QUĬN HOC SCĬAT.**
  Everybody knows this.

## Quŏminus

**quŏminus** is used with much the same meaning as *quĭn* *(‘but that’ in old-fashioned English)* after verbs of hindering and preventing whether negativ-ed or not. As with *quĭn*, the main problem here for English-speakers is that **quŏminus**, which literally means ‘by which the less’, does not translate into idiomatic English.

*(nŏn) mĕ impedĭuit quŏminus in urbem inĕrem.*
He prevented (didn’t prevent) me from going into the city.

Note the following common idioms:

- **PER MĔ STAT QUŎMINUS...**
  it is due to me that . . . not
  **PER MĔ STETĬ QUŎMINUS RĒS PŬBLICA ĖUERTEĬTUR.**
  It was due to me that the republic was not overthrown.
per me stetit ut . . .

it was due to me that . . .

per me stetit ut res pública conseruāretur.

It was due to me that the republic was saved.

Note that prohibēō (2) (I prevent) can be followed simply by the infinitive.

prohibuī eum Rōmā ēgregī.

I prevented him from leaving Rome.

It can also be followed by nē or quōminus or, when negative, quīn, all with the subjunctive.

| Practice sentences |

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. non dubitārī dēbet quīn fuerint ante Homerum poētae. (Cicero, Brutus, 71)
2. non dēterret sapientem mors quōminus in omne tempus reī publicae cōnsulat. (Cicero, Tusculan Disputations, 1.91)
3. facere nōn possum quīn litterās cottīdiē ad tē mittam. (Cicero, ad Atticum, 12.27.2)
4. nihil abest quīn sim miserrimus. (Cicero, ad Atticum, 11.15.3)
5. impediuit eam coniūnx quōminus amatōrem uiseret.
6. I almost died laughing (use quin—for ‘laughing’ use the ablative of the gerund).
7. Who can prevent me from leaving Rome?
8. I could not help admiring your poems.
9. It is due to me that you are so rich.
10. Everyone knows that Homer was the greatest of poets (use quin).
Some, any, every, each, ever

| Some |

1. **aliquis**  
   - someone—it could be anyone
   - Also used to mean ‘a somebody’ in the sense of a person of consequence.
   - **aliquid**  
     - something—it could be anything
   - **aliquī, aliqua, aliquod**  
     - some . . . it could be any (adjectival)
   - **quīdam, quaedam, quoddam**  
     - some—not any but a particular . . .
   - Literally a certain—it usually follows its noun
   - **fēmina quaedam**  
     - a certain woman, some woman, a woman
   - There is no word for ‘a’ or ‘an’ in Latin: *quīdam* and *aliquis* are the closest equivalents.
   - **nescioquis, nescioquid**  
     - someone, something
   - Literally, I do not know who or what—cf. French je ne sais quoi—something or other
   - **nōnnūlli**  
     - some (of number)
   - **aliquot** (indeclinable adjective)  
     - some (of number)
   - **complūrēs**  
     - some, several

2. **ali-** in front of ‘question words’ (see p. 92) gives those words the meaning ‘some’:
   - **aliquantium** (with partitive genitive)  
     - some amount of
   - **alicubi**  
     - somewhere
   - **aliquamdiū**  
     - for some while
   - **aliquandō**  
     - at some time, sometimes, now and then

3. **alīī . . . alīī . . .**  
   - some . . . others . . .
If the word *alius* is repeated in a different case, the meaning is doubled, as here:

*alīī alia dīcunt.*

Some people say some things, others (say) other things.

The two *alius* words must come next or very close to each other to convey this double meaning.

### Any

**quisquam**

anyone (with prohibitions, negatives, virtual negatives (*uix* and *aegrē*), with questions expecting the answer no (*num...?*) and after *quam* (= than))

- Latin uses *nec quisquam* and not *et nēmō*.

**ūllus**

any (adjective corresponding to *quisquam* though stronger in meaning)

**quīūīs, quaeuīs, quoduīs** (adjective) or **quīduīs** (pronoun)

any(body) (you like), any(thing) (you like)

**quīlibet, quaelibet, quodlibet** (adjective) or **quīdlibet** (pronoun)

any(body) (you like), any(thing) (you like)

**quis, quid**

anyone (after *sī, nisi, num, nē, quō, quantō*)

**quī, qua or quae, quod**

any . . . (adjective of *quis*)

### Every, each

1. **quisque, quaeque**
   every one, each one

**quidque**

each one, each thing
**Note:**

quisque is used especially with superlatives, ordinal numbers, and with sē and suus, e.g.:
sapientissimus quisque
All the wisest men
septimus quisque
Every seventh man
sē quisque adiuuet
Let each man help himself.

--

**Note:**

Though two sons are referred to, the singular is used here, because uterque means ‘each one of two’.

---

2. -que added to question words (see p. 92) gives these words the meaning ‘every’:

ubīque everywhere
undique from everywhere
*but*
uter迹que from both sides

---

**Ever**

1 -cumque added to relatives = ever

quiēcumque, quaecumque, quodcumque whoever, whatever of whatever sort
qualísicumque wherever
ubicumque to wherever
quōcumque whenever, however often
quotiēnscumque
2. Note:

quisquis  whoever  (both are used only in the nominative and ablative singular)
quidquid  whatever
quotquot  however many  (indeclinable adjective)
quōquō  to wherever
sīcubi  if anywhere
nēcubi  lest anywhere

| Practice sentences |

Translate into English or Latin as appropriate:

1. disertōs cognōuī nōnnūllōs, ēloquentem nēminem.
2. quīdam dē plēbē prōdiit ad ōrātiōnem habendam.
3. si quis ita fecerit, poenās dabit.
4. haec āiō nec quisquam negat.
5. bonī sunt nescioquō modō amābiliōrēs quam scelestī.
6. Both sisters love the same boy (use uterque).
7. Sometimes she comes to Rome; but soon she will stay here for some time.
8. The general ordered every tenth man to be killed.
9. Wherever you go to, you will not avoid some bore (molestus) or other.
10. If any senator complains, I shall think about the matter again.
Words easily confused

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Words easily confused</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>adeō, adīre, adīi, adītum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adeō</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aestās, aestātis, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aestus, aestūs, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aetās, aetātis, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audeō, audēre, ausus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audīō, audīre (4)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aura, aurae, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>auris, auris, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aurum, aurī, n.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cadō, cadere, cecidī, cāsum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>occidō, occidere, occidī, occūsum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caedō, caedere, cecidī, caesum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>occidō, occidere, occidī, occūsum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>calidus, calida, calidum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>callidus, callida, callidum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>campus, campī, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>castra, castrōrum, n.pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>careō (2) + abl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>carō, carnis, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cārus, cāra, cārum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnsistō, cōnsistere, cōnstitī, cōnstitum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cōnstituō, cōnstituere, cōnstituī, cōnstitūtum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eques, equitis, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>equus, equī, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fretum, fretī, n.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frētus, frēta, frētum + abl.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

I go to, approach
to such an extent, so very
summer
heat, tide, passion
age
I dare
I hear
wind, breeze
ear
gold
I fall, befall; I am killed
I fall down; I die
I cut, kill
I kill
hot
expert, wily
plain
camp
I am without, lack
flesh, meat
dear
I stop, stand
I decide, place in position
horsemann
horse
strait, sea
relying on
Note:
This ditty is sung in The Turn of the Screw, the opera by Benjamin Britten and Myfanwy Piper. According to Piper, Britten himself supplied this 'from an old-fashioned Latin grammar that an aunt of mine produced'.

Malo: I would rather be
Malo: in an apple-tree
Malo: than a naughty boy
Malo: in adversity.
manē!
māne
maneō, manere, mānsī, mānsum
mānēs, mānium, m.pl.
manus, manūs, f.

morior, morī, mortuus sum
moror, morāri, morātus sum

opera, operae, f.
ops, opis, f.
opēs, opum, f. pl.
opus, operis, n.
cf. onus, oneris, n.
opus est mihi (tibi, etc.) + abl.

ōra, ōrae, f.
ōrō (1)
ōs, ēris, n.
os, ossis, n.

pāreō, parēre, pārui + dat.
pariō, parere, peperī, partum
parō, parāre, parāui, parātum
pereō, perīre, perīi/perīiūi, perītum

pecus, pecoris, n.
pecus, pecudis, f.

porta, portae, f.
portō, portāre, portāui, portātum
portus, portūs, m.

quaerō, quaerere, quaesīūi, quaesītum
queror, querī, questus sum

quīdam, quaedam, quoddam
quidem

ratis, ratis, f.
reor, rēri, ratus sum
reus, reī, m.

reddō, reddere, reddidī, redditum
redeō, redīre, redīi, reditum

rēgālis, rēgālis, rēgāle
rēgia, rēgiae, f.
| Some miscellaneous points |

1. A famous, crisp comment by Julius Caesar proves a good way of remembering three common perfects:
   
   uēnī, uīdī, uīcī
   
   I came, I saw, I conquered

2. If you know sum, you also know quite a lot of possum (I am able, can). possum is the syllable pos- or pot- + sum. pos- is used when the part of
sum begins with a consonant, pot- is used when the part of sum begins with a vowel, e.g.:

pos-sum, pot-es, pot-est, pos-sumus, pot-estis, pos-sunt.

But note potuī, potuerō, and potueram (from pot(f)uī, etc.).

3. post is usually a preposition, i.e. it is usually followed by a noun or pronoun: post merīdiem = after midday (but note the adverbial use tribus post annīs = three years later); posteā is an adverb: posteā montem ascendī = afterwards I climbed the mountain); postquam is a conjunction: domum reuēnī postquam meōs amīcōs uīsī = I came back home after I had visited my friends.

In the same way ante is usually a preposition (though, like post, it can double as an adverb), antea is an adverb, and antequam is a conjunction.

4. ut + the subjunctive. When ut is followed by the subjunctive, it is almost certain to be introducing one of only three constructions: purpose, result, and indirect command.

5. ut + the indicative is likely to mean ‘as’ or ‘when’.

For English into Latin

1. It is hardly ever correct to translate the word ‘tell’ by the Latin dīcō, which means ‘I say’.

I tell you a story.

Here narrō (1) (I relate) is appropriate:

fābulam tibi narrō.

I tell you about the message.

Here (aliquem) certōrem faciō (I inform) is appropriate:

dē nūntiō tē certōrem faciō.

I tell you to do this.

Here a word for ‘command’ or ‘order’ is appropriate.

iubeō tē hoc facere.

imperō tībi ut hoc faciās.

2. Of the Latin words for ‘I leave’, relinquō is the only one followed by an accusative.

I left the city can be translated urbem relinquī.

Otherwise, ā, ab, ē, or ex with the ablative will be used:

ab urbe exīi–ex urbe discessī.
Appendices
The adjectives referring to the Roman months (mēnsis, mēnsis, m. month) are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Romano</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Januārius</td>
<td>January</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Februārius</td>
<td>February</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martius</td>
<td>March</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aprilis</td>
<td>April</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Māius</td>
<td>May</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lūnius</td>
<td>June</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iūlius (Quīnctīl-is, -e)</td>
<td>July (named after Julius Caesar)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Augustus (Sextīl-is, -e)</td>
<td>August (named after Augustus, the first Roman emperor)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>September</td>
<td>September</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Octōber</td>
<td>October</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Novēmer</td>
<td>November</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>December</td>
<td>December</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The words ending in -us decline like bonus, -a, -um; those ending in -er decline like ācer, ācris, ācre.

The Roman year originally began on 1 March. Hence the fact that September, October, November, and December mean the 7th, 8th, 9th, and 10th month respectively. The original names for July and August meant the 5th and 6th.

Julius Caesar’s reform of 46 BC in effect invented the modern year. He at last established the figure of 365 days, missing only a quarter day per year—hence the leap-year.

The three key Roman days of the month were:

- **Kalendae, Kalendārum, f.pl.** Kalends or 1st
- **Nōnae, Nōnārum, f.pl.** Nones or 5th
- **Īdūs, Īduum, f.pl.** Ides or 13th

**Note:**
In March, July, October, May, Nones is the 7th, Ides the 15th day.

*Nōnae* is simply the ‘9th’ day before the Ides.
The rules

1. If the date falls on one of these days, the ablative is used:
   Īdibus Martīīs
   on the Ides of March, 15 March

2. If the date falls on the day before one of these days, prīdiē + accusative is used:
   prīdiē Īdūs Martīās
   on the day before the Ides of March, i.e. on 14 March

3. All other dates are counted back from the next key date (Kalends, Nones, or Ides). The counting is done inclusively, i.e. including both the key date and the date referred to.
   The expression ante diem + the appropriate ordinal number (i.e. prīmus, secundus, tertius, quārtus, etc.) agreeing with diem (i.e. in the accusative masculine singular) and the accusative of the key date with the adjective indicating the month agreeing with it (i.e. in the accusative feminine plural):
   ante diem tertium Nōnās Iānuāriās
   three days before the Nones of January.
   In our calendar, the Nones of January are the 5th. Count 3 days back from 5 January (including that date) and it transpires that the Roman date referred to is 3 January.
   The Roman date is frequently abbreviated to, for example, a.d. iii Nōn. Iān.

4. For dates after the Ides, the counting has to be done from the Kalends of the next month. Inclusive counting will lead to the inclusion of both the key date and the last day of the month in which the date actually falls. Thus: a.d. vii Kal. Apr. is a date in March. In the number 7 there are included both 1 April (the Kalends) and 31 March. Counting back we thus arrive at 26 March as the modern equivalent.
   If you are converting an English date into Latin, the easiest way to proceed is to add two to the number of the days in the English month (i.e. for 26 March, add 2 to 31 = 33 and subtract the modern date (33–26 = 7). Thus we arrive at vii. And the Roman date is a.d. vii Kal. Apr.
   What is your birthday in Latin?
The sestertius (m.) was the unit in which Roman money was usually counted. It was a silver coin worth 2½ asses (m., singular ās, assis). That is how it got its name: half a third, semis-tertius, i.e. 2½. The denarius (m.), also a silver coin, was worth four sesterii (sesterces in English). The aureus, a gold coin first minted by Julius Caesar, was originally worth 25 denarii, but later its value declined. Coins below the value of the sestertius were made of copper.

Sums up to 2,000 sesterces were given as one would expect: the cardinal number with the plural of sestertius: trecentī sēstertī = three hundred sesterces.

For sums from 2,000 to 1,000,000 sesterces, the word sestertia (n.pl.) was used to mean ‘a thousand sesterces’ with distributive numerals (1–10: singulī, -ae, -a; bīnī; ternī; quaternī; quīnī; sēnī; septēnī; octōnī, nouēnī, dēnī): terna sēstertia = three thousand sesterces.

For sums of 1,000,000 and above, the word sestertium (gen. plur.) was used with adverbial numbers (semel, bis, ter, etc.). Sestertium has the meaning ‘a hundred thousand sesterces’. Thus undecīē sēstertium = 1,100,000 sesterces.

| Abbreviations |

The word sestertius is abbreviated to HS (the H is made up of II joined together, while the S stands for semis (half), i.e. 2½ (asses)).

The word sestertia is abbreviated to HS. A line is placed above the numeral: HS XIV = 14,000 sesterces.

Sestertium is abbreviated to HS with a line over the letters as well as the numeral: HS [XIV] = 1,400,000 sesterces. This can also be written HS [XIV].
Roman weights and measures

| Weights |

The libra (f.) or ās (m.), three quarters of a modern pound or 327 grams, was divided into 12 unciae (an uncia was 27.3 grams, almost exactly the same weight as a modern ounce). The other units were a sextāns (a sixth of the libra, 54.6 grams), quadrāns or terūncius (a quarter, 81.8 grams), triēns (109 grams—a quarter of a modern pound), quīncūnx (136 grams), sēmis (164 grams), septūnx (191 grams), bēs (218 grams—half a modern pound), dōdṛāns (245 grams), dēxtāns (273 grams), and deūnx (300 grams).

| Lengths |

The pēs (m.) was very slightly less than a modern foot (30 cm, 0.971 feet). A passus (m.) was 5 Roman feet (1.48 metres, 4.85 feet). The mile (mīle passūs) consisted of 1,000 Roman feet (1480 metres, 1.48 kilometres—4850 feet, 9/10 of a modern mile).

A iūgerum (n.) was a measure of land 240 × 120 Roman feet, 5/6 of an English acre (1.544 hectares).
Distinguished Romans had at least three names: the praenomen, the individual name; the nomen, the name of the gens (the clan); and the cognomen, the name of the family within the gens. Thus Gaius Iulius Caesar is Gaius of the gens Iulia and the Caesar family.

All Roman citizens had a praenomen and the name of their gens.

The most common praenomina were abbreviated as follows:

A. Aulus
C. Caius or Gaius
Cn. Gnaeus
D. Decimus
L. Licius
M. Marcus
M'. Manius
P. Publius
Q. Quintus
S. (Sex.) Sextus
Ser. Seruius
Sp. Spurius
T. Titus
Ti. (Tib.) Tiberius

--- 1. The early Latin alphabet had no separate sign for 'g'.

Note:
The Latin for 'Tom, Dick and Harry' is Gaiusque Luciusque.
Some Literary Terms

**alliteration** the recurrence of the same consonant (cf. assonance), especially at the beginning of words or syllables—ēripite hanc pestem perni-ciemque mihi (snatch away this plague and destruction from me)—Catullus, 76.20. The use of alliteration imparts emphasis, and the effect this creates depends on the meaning of the words emphasized.

**anacoluthon** a sentence which lacks grammatical sequence, i.e. in which one construction stops and another starts before the former is completed—mē, mē, adsum quī fēcī, in mē convīerte ferrum (me, me, I am here, the man who did the deed, turn your swords on me)—Virgil, *Aeneid*, 9.427.

**anaphora** the repetition of a word or phrase in several successive clauses—nihil uērī, nihil sāncīī, nūllus deum metus, nūllum iūs iūrandum, nūlla rēligiō (no truth, no sanctity, no fear of the gods, no standing by oaths, no religion)—Livy, 21.4.9.

**antithesis** the contrasting of ideas emphasized by the arrangement of words—ōdī et amō (I hate and I love)—Catullus, 85.1.

**aposiopesis** a device in which the speaker breaks off before completing the sentence—Neptune breaks off his threats to the winds and calms the sea: quōs ego . . . sed mōtōs praestat compōnere fluctūs ((you winds) which I . . . But calming the disturbed waves takes precedence)—Virgil, *Aeneid*, 1.135.

**apostrophe** the writer ‘turns away from’ his narrative (told in the third person) to address one of his characters. Thus at *Aeneid*, 4.408–12, Virgil addresses first Dido and then the god Amor (Love).

**assonance** the occurrence of similar vowel sounds in words close to each other (cf. alliteration)—lītus ut longē resonante Eōā tunditur undā (where the beach is pounded by the far-echoing Eastern wave)—Catullus, 11.3–4.

**asyndeton** the omission of conjunctions (such as ‘and’ or ‘but’) where these would usually occur—clāmor, lapidēs, fustēs, gladiī (shouting, stones, clubs, swords)—Cicero, *ad Atticum*, 4.3.3.

**bathos** the juxtaposition of the intense or important and the trivial—parturi-unt montēs; nāscētur rīdicularus mūs (the mountains are in labour, and there will be born a comical mouse)—Horace, *Ars Poetica*, 139.
chiasmus  a pair of balanced phrases where the order of the second reverses that of the first—haec queritur, stupet haec (this woman complains, this one gapes)—Ovid, *Ars Amatoria*, 1.124.

closure  the sense of completion or resolution at the conclusion of a literary work or part of a literary work. Often these conclusions deny us this sense of completion, as at the end of Virgil’s *Aeneid* when the pious hero’s frenzied brutality is seen by many as a violation of the civilized values which the poem has established.

deixis  (*adjective deictic*) the use of words or expressions to point to some feature of a situation. Pronouns (e.g. ego, tū (I, you), etc.) and words of place (hic, illīc (here, there), etc.) and time (iam, tum (now, then), etc.) tell us such things about a situation as who is involved in it, and where or when it takes place.

ellipsis  the shortening of a sentence or phrase by the omission of words which can be understood—quid plūra? (why (should I say) more?)—Cicero, *Philippic*, 8.5.1.

enallage and hypallage  (in practice these terms cannot be distinguished) the use of the transferred epithet, i.e. transferring an adjective from the word to which it properly applies to another word in the same phrase—Latōnae tacitum pertempant gaudia pectus (joy thrills the silent heart of Latona)—Virgil, *Aeneid*, 1.502. It is Latona who is silent, not her heart (which cannot speak). An example of double enallage is ibant obscurī sōlā sub nocte (they went dark beneath the lonely night) Virgil, *Aeneid*, 6.268. R.G. Austin comments: ‘Virgil’s arrangement brings out, with great impact on the reader, the dim groping figures in a terrifying loneliness of night.’

enjambement  running a sentence over the end of a line of verse and then ending it after the first word of the new line, lending emphasis to that word—sōla domō maeret uacuā strātíisque relictīs/incubat (she grieves alone in her house and on the couch he has left she lies down)—Virgil, *Aeneid*, 4.82–3.

epanalepsis  the repetition of a word after a number of other words—mē patrīs āuectam, perfide, ab ārīs, perfide . . . ? (you traitor, (did you) take me away from my ancestral altars, you traitor . . . ?)—Catullus, 64, 132–3.

euphemism  the substitution of a mild or roundabout expression for one considered improper or too harsh or blunt—anagnōstēs noster dēcesserat (my reading-slave had departed (this life), i.e. died)—Cicero, *ad Atticum*, 1.12.4.
hendiadys  a single idea expressed through two nouns—paterīs libāmus et auro (literally, we pour from bowls and gold, but meaning we pour from golden bowls)—Virgil, *Georgics*, 2.192.

hyperbaton  the arbitrary dislocation of normal word order, by way of displacing one part of one clause into another—tussim,/nōn immerentī quam mihi meus uenter,/dum sumptuōsās appetō, dedit, cēnās (a cough which—serves me right!—my stomach, while I hankered after lavish dinners, gave me)—Catullus, 44.7–9. It is impossible to reproduce in English the violence done here to a natural Latin word order.

hyperbole  the use of exaggerated terms, not to be taken literally—virginitās mīlle petīta procīs (virginity sought by a thousand suitors, i.e. a large number of suitors)—Ovid, *Heroides*, 16.104.

hysteron proteron  the reversal of the normal (temporal) order of events—at *Aeneid*, 4.154–5, Virgil writes that the animals career over the plains and leave the mountains. Obviously they leave the mountains before they career over the plains. By his order Virgil lays emphasis on what he describes first, which seems to him the more important action. Ovid uses rēdit itque (he returns and he goes) (e.g. at *Metamorphoses*, 2.509) to mean 'he goes and returns'. This reflects the fact that the Latin sentence, unlike the English, is arranged in a circle.

irony  the expression of one's meaning by using words of the opposite meaning in order to make one's remarks forceful—perhaps Catullus' high praise of Cicero—he calls him the most eloquent of Romans, past, present and future (49.1–3)—falls into this category.

juxtaposition  the placing of words next to each other for effect (cf. oxymoron)—illum absēns absentem audit (she hears him when he is not here when she is away from him)—Virgil, *Aeneid*, 4.83.

liminality  the use of location, especially involving passing through doors or gates, to make a symbolic point—Dido and Aeneas set out from the palace in the civilized orderly city and go into the wild woods where a fearsome storm rages and chaos erupts (Virgil, *Aeneid*, 4.135–72).

litotes  the use of understatement, involving a negative, to emphasize one's meaning (the opposite of hyperbole)—fōrmāque nōn tacītī funeris intus erat (and inside there was the appearance of a not-quiet, i.e. noisy funeral)—Ovid, *Tristia*, 1.3.22.

metaphor  the application of a word or phrase to something it does not apply to literally, indicating a comparison—tuō lepōre incēnṣus (set on fire by your charm)—Catullus, 50.7–8. The poet has not been literally set on fire.
metonymy  a form of expression by which a person or thing takes his, her, or its name from something which they are associated with—Ovid uses the word ‘forum’ to refer to the law courts located there; *cēdant arma togae* (literally, let arms give way to the toga) means ‘let war give way to peace’ (Cicero, *Poems*, fragment 11); the name Mars, the god of war, can be used simply to mean ‘war’, just as that of Ceres, the goddess of fertility, can be used to mean ‘bread’ or ‘food’ (as at Virgil, *Aeneid*, 1.177, where it is applied to waterlogged grain).

onomatopoeia  words or combinations of words, the sound of which suggests their sense—*tintinnant aurēs* (my ears ring)—Catullus, 51.11. A famous example is *at tūba terribilī sonītū taratantara dixit* (but the trumpet said ‘taratantara’ with a fearful sound) Ennius, *Annals*, 140.

oxymoron  the juxtaposition (see entry) of two words of contradictory meaning to emphasize the contradiction—*concordia discors* (a discordant harmony)—Lucan, *Bellum Ciuile*, 1.98.

paradox  a statement which apparently contradicts itself but in fact makes a meaningful point—a Scottish chieftain denounces Roman imperialism: *ubi sōlītūdinem faciunt pācem appel·lant* (where they make a desert, they call it peace)—Tacitus, *Agricola*, 30.6.

paronomasia  a punning play on words—*Libycīs teris ōtia terrīs* (you waste time in the Libyan lands)—Virgil, *Aeneid*, 4.271.

parse  to describe a word grammatically—e.g. *amās* is the second person singular of the present indicative active of *amō*, a first conjugation verb meaning ‘I love’.

periphrasis  a circumlocutory way of saying things—Ovid tells us that his brother was four times three (*tribus . . . quater*) months older than himself, i.e. one year older—*Tristia*, 4.10.10. In fact this periphrasis is necessary in a dactylic line: *duodecim* (twelve) won’t scan.

personification  the representation of an idea or thing as having human characteristics—as in Catullus, 4, where a yacht speaks.

pleonasm  the use of unnecessary words—*sīc ōre locūtā est* (thus she spoke from her mouth)—Virgil, *Aeneid*, 1.614.

polyptoton  the repetition of a word in a different form/case—*uxor amāns flentem flēns ācrius ipsa tenēbat* (my loving wife, weeping more bitterly herself, embraced me as I wept)—Ovid, *Tristia*, 1.3.17.

simile  a figure of speech in which one thing is compared explicitly to another—see Virgil, where, in one of many similes, the Carthaginians are
likened to bees (Aeneid, 1.430-5). The simile is a notable feature of
epic—hence ‘epic simile’.

**syllepsis**  an expression in which the same verb is used in two different
senses, literal and metaphorical (contrast zeugma)—fugam Dīdō sociōsque
parābat (Dido prepared flight and companions)—the word ‘prepared’
means something different with each of its objects—Virgil, Aeneid, 1.360.
This is Ovid’s favourite literary device. See e.g. dēpositō pariter cum ueste
tīmōre (my fear put aside together with my dress)—Heroides, 18.55.

**synecdoche**  a form of expression is which the part in used to imply the
whole—Dido uses the word ‘keels’ (carīnae) to refer to whole ships—Virgil,
Aeneid, 4.658.

**tautology**  repeating the same thing in different ways—sōla domō . . . uacuā
(alone in (her) empty house)—Virgil, Aeneid, 4.82.

**tricolon**  the use of three parallel clauses, phrases, or words—rētia rara,
plagae, lātō uēnābula ferrō (wide-meshed nets, trap-nets, broad-bladed
hunting-spears)—Virgil, Aeneid, 4. 131.

**tricolon auctum** or **crescendo**  the use of three parallel clauses or phrases
which build to a climax, the last element usually being the longest—sed
rēgīna tamen, sed opācī maxima mundī, / sed tamen īnfernī pollēns mātrōna
tyrannī (but still (she was) a queen, the great queen of the world of shad-
ows, still the mighty consort of the king of the underworld)—Ovid, Meta-
morphoses, 5.507–8.

**zeugma**  a figure of speech in which a verb or adjective is applied to two
nouns, though it is literally applicable to only one of them, e.g. ‘with tear-
ful eyes and mind’ (contrast syllepsis). longa tibi exsilīa et uastum marīs
aequor arandum (a long exile and a vast expanse of sea must be ploughed
by you)—Virgil, Aeneid, 2.780. The metaphor of ploughing is appropriate
to the idea of effortfully crossing the sea, but the notion of exile cries out
for a different word, and some violence is done to the language. Formally,
it is incorrect writing.
- This vocabulary covers Latin examples and practice sentences.
- Nouns are given with their genitive singular and gender, adjectives in their masculine, feminine and neuter forms in the nominative singular, and verbs with their principal parts or conjugation.
- 1st conjugation words follow the pattern of *amō, amāre, amāui, amātum*.
- 2nd conjugation words follow the pattern of *moneō, monēre, monuī, monitum*.
- 4th conjugation words follow the pattern of *audiō, audīre, audīui, audītum*.

**ā or ab + abl.**

- *abeō, abire, abiī or abīui, abītum*
- *abripiō, abripere, abripuī, abreptum*
- *absum, abesse, āfuī*
- *accēdō, accēdere, accessī, accessum*
- *accidit, accidere, accidit ut + subj.*
- *accipiō, accipere, accēpī, acceptum*
- *accūsō (1)*
- *ācer, ācris, ācre (adverb ācriter)*
- *acīēs, aciēī, f.*
- *ad + acc.*
- *adeō*
- *adeō, adīre, adīī or adīiuiī, adītum*
- *adiuuō, adiuuāre, adiuuī, adiuūtum*
- *admittō, admirtere, admīsī, admīssum*
- *admoneō (2)*
- *adsum, adesse, adfuī*
- *adueniō, aduenīre, aduēnī, aduentum*
- *aduentus, aduentūs, m.*
- *aduersāriōs, aduersāriī, m.*
- *aedificō (1)*
- *aeger, aegra, aegrum*
- *ager, agrī, m.*
- *agō, agere, ēgī, ēctum*

by, from

- I go away
- I steal, snatch away
- I am absent, I am distant
- I approach, go to
- it happens that
- I receive, hear
- I accuse
- keen, furious
- battle formation, army
- to
to such an extent
- I go to
- I help
- I commit, grant
- I advise, warn
- I am present
- I arrive
- arrival
- opponent, enemy
- I build
- sick
- field
- I do, drive
aio
aliqui, aliquae, aliquod
aliquis, aliquis, aliquid
amabilis, amabilis, amabile
amator, amatoris, m.
ambō, ambae, ambō
ambulō (1)
amīca, amīcae, f.
amicus, amīcī, m.
āmittō, āmittere, āmīsī, āmissum
amō (1)
amīmus, animī, m.
nannus, annī, m.
ant + acc.
antēa
antequam
ānxius, ānxia, ānxium
appropinquō (1) + dat.
 arbitror, arbitrāri, arbitrātus sum
argentum, argentī, n.
arma, armōrum, n.pl.
ars, artis, f.
arstrum, astrī, n.
Athēnae, Athēnārum, f.pl.
auctor, auctōris, m. or f.
auctōritās, auctōritātis, f.
audiō (4)
autem (2nd word)
auxiliium, auxiliī, n.
bellum, bellī, n.
bēstia, bēstiae, f.
bonus, bona, bonum
Britannī, Britannōrum, m.pl.
Britannia, Britanniae, f.
Brundisium, Brundisiī, n.
Caesar, Caesars
campus, campī, m.
canis, canis, m. or f.
captīus, captīuī, m.

I say
some, any
someone, something
likeable
lover
both
I walk
girlfriend
friend
I lose, dismiss
I love
mind, character
year
before
before
before
anxious
approach
I think, observe
silver, money
arms
art
star
Athens
maker, author, finder,
instigator
authority
I hear, listen
but, however, moreover
help
war
beast, wild beast
good
the Britons
Britain
Brundisium

Caesar
plain
dog
prisoner, captive
caput, capitis, n.
careō (2) + abl.
carmen, carminis, n.
cauēō, cauēre, caūē, cautum

causa, causae, f.
celer, celeris, celere (adverb celeriter)
cēlō (1)
cēna, cēnae, f.
certē
certiōrem faciō, facere, fēcī, factum
(see pp. 84 & 141)
cīuis, cīuis, m. or f.
clārus, clāra, clārum

claudō, claudere, clausī, clausum
cognōscō, cognōscere, cognōuī, cognitum
collis, collis, m.
colō, colere, coluī, cultum
commūniō (4)
concīdō, concidere, concidī
cōnficiō, cōnfacere, cōnfēcī, cōnfictum
cōnfiteor, cōnfitērī, cōnfessus sum
congregō (1)
cōnscedō, cōnscedere, cōnscedī, cōnsēnsum
cōnservō (1)
cōnsilium, cōnsilī, n.
cōnsisto, cōnsistere, cōnstitī, cōnstitum
cōnspiciō, cōnspicere, cōnspexī, cōnspectum
cōnstituō, cōnstituere, cōnstituī, cōnstitūtum
cōnsul, cōnsulis, m.
cōnsulō, cōnsulere, cōnsulūī, cōnsultum + dat.
contemnō, contemnere, contempsī, contemptum
contentus, contenta, contentum
cōntiō, cōntiōnis, f.
coquus, coqui, m.
cottīdiē
crēdō, crēdere, crēdidī, crēditum + dat.
cubō, cubāre, cubuī, cubitum
culpō (1)
cum

head, life
I am without, want, lack
song, poem
I am on my guard
(against), beware
cause
fast, swift
I hide
dinner, meal
certainly
I inform
citizen
clear, bright, famous,
illustrious
I shut
I get to know
hill
I revere, cultivate, inhabit
I fortify
I fall, am killed
I complete, finish off
I confess, reveal
I gather together
I get on, embark on, mount
I preserve, maintain
advice, plan
I stand, halt, stop
I catch sight of, notice
I decide, appoint
consul
I consult the interests of ...
I scorn
content
speech, assembly, meeting
cook
every day
I believe, trust
I lie down, sleep
blame
when, since, although
cum + abl.
cünctor, cünctāřī, cünctātus sum
cüría, cüriae, f.
cūrō (1)
currō, currere, cucurrī, cursum
currus, currūs, m.
damnō (1)
dē + abl.
dēbellō (1)
dēbeō (2)
dēfendō, dēfendere, dēfendī, dēfēnsum
dēfessus, dēfessa, dēfessum
dēlectō (1)
dēleō, dēlere, dēlēui, dēlētum
dēterreō (2)
deus, deī, m.
dīcō, dīcere, dixī, dictum
dictātor, dictātōris, m.
dictum, dictī, n.
diēs, diēi, m.
dignitās, dignitātis, f.
dignus, digna, dignum
diligēns, diligēns, diligēns (adverb diligenter)
diligō, diligere, dīlexī, dīlectum
dīmittō, dīmittere, dīmisī, dīmissum
discēdō, discēdere, discessī, discessum
disertus, diserta, disertum
discipulus, discipulī, m.
distō, distāre
dīū
do, dare, dedī, datum
doceō, docēre, docuī, doctum
doleō (2)
dolor, dolōris, m.
dolus, dolī, m.
domus, domī or domūs, f.
dōnō (1)
dōnum, dōnī, n.
dormiō (4)
dubitō (1)
dubius, dubia, dubium

with
I delay
senate house
I take care of, worry about
I run
chariot
I condemn
about, concerning
I conquer, subdue
I ought, owe
I defend
exhausted
I delight
I destroy
I deter, discourage
god
I say
dictator
word, saying
day
dignity, honour
worthy
diligent, hard, careful
I hold dear, esteem highly
I send away, dismiss
I depart
skilled in speaking
pupil, student
I am distant
for a long time
I give
I teach
I grieve (at), I am in pain
suffering, pain
trick, trickery, treachery
house, home
I present
gift
I sleep
I doubt, hesitate
doubtful
dulcis, dulcis, dulce
dum
dux, ducis, m. or f.
ē or ex
edō, ēsse, ēdī, ēsum
effugiō, effugere, effūgī
ego
ēgredior, ēgredī, ēgressus sum
ēiciō, ēicere, ēīēcī, ēiectum
ēloquēns, ēloquēns, ēloquēns (gen. ēloquentis)
emō, emere, ēmī, ēemptum
eō
ēō, īre, īī or īīī, itum
epistula, epistulae, f.
equitātus, equitātūs, m.
errō (1)
ērumpo, ērumpere, ērūpī, ēruptum
ēsuriō (4)
et
etiam
etsī
ēuertō, ēuertere, ēuertī, ēuersum
excēdō, excēdere, excessī, excessum
excipiō, excipere, excēpī, exceptum
exeō, exīre, exīī or exīūī, exitum
exercitus, exercitūs, m.
expellō, expellere, expulī, expulsūm
expers, expers, expers (gen. expertīs) + gen.
explōrātor, explōrātōrīs, m.
exspectō (1)
facilis, facilis, facile
faciō, facere, fēcī, factum
factum, factī, n.
fācundus, fācunda, fācundum
faueō, fauēre, fāuī, fautum + dat.
fēlēs, fēlis, f.
fēmina, fēminae, f.
ferē
ferō, ferre, tulī, lātum

sweet, pleasant, delightful
while, until, provided that
leader, guide, general
out of, from
I eat
I flee from, escape
I
I go out, depart
I throw out
eloquent, articulate
I buy
to that place
I go
letter
cavalry
I wander, make a mistake,
err
I break out, burst out,
break out of
I am hungry
and, also, even
even, also
although, even if
I turn upside down, ruin
I go out
I receive, sustain
I go out
army
I drive out
without, lacking in
scout, spy
I wait
easy
I do, make
deed
eloquent
I favour
cat
woman
almost, generally speaking
I carry, bring, endure
fessus, fessa, fessum
fidēlis, fidēlis, fidēle
filia, filiae, f.
filius, filii, m.
fiō, fieri, factus sum
flūmen, flūminis, n.
focus, foci, m.
fōns, fontis, m.
forte
forum, fori, n.
frāter, frātris, m.
frequenter
fruor, fruí, fructus or fruitus sum + abl.
fugiō, fugere, fūgē
für, füris, m. or f.

gaudeō, gaudēre, gāuisus sum
gemma, gemmae, f.
genus, generis, n.
gerō, gerere, gessī, gestum
gladius, gladī, m.
Graecia, Graeciae, f.
grammatica, grammaticae, f.
grātia, grātiae, f.
grauis, grauis, graue
gubernāculum, gubernāculi, n.

habeō (2)
habitō (1)
haud
Heluētīi, Heluētōrum, m.pl.
herba, herbae, f.
hec, haec, hoc
Hispānia, Hispāniae, f.
Homērus, Homērī, m.
homō, hominis, m.
hōra, hōrae, f.
hortor (1)
hostēs, hostium, m.pl.
hostis, hostis, m. or f.
hūc

tired
faithful
daughter
son
I happen, become
river
hearth
spring, fountain, source
by chance
strong, brave
forum, market, city centre
brother
often, frequently
I enjoy
I flee (from), I run away (from)
thief
I rejoice, am glad
jewel
race, birth
I carry on, deal with, wage
sword
Greece
grammar
gratitude, good will, thanks, favour
heavy, serious, grievous
the steering-oar, management
I have; I consider; I deliver
I live (in), inhabit
not
the Helvetii (the Swiss)
grass
this
Spain
Homer
man, human being
hour
I encourage
the enemy
enemy
over here, to here, hither
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
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<th>English</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>iam</td>
<td>now, already</td>
<td>iānua,</td>
<td>door</td>
<td>igiōrum</td>
<td>for this reason</td>
<td>ignāus</td>
<td>for this reason</td>
<td>ignōscō</td>
<td>idle, cowardly</td>
<td>ignosco</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>ignōtum</td>
<td>the well-known</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>idcirco</td>
<td>for this reason</td>
<td>ignīus,</td>
<td>therefore</td>
<td>ignōscere</td>
<td>ignotum + dat.</td>
<td>ignōsum</td>
<td>therefore</td>
<td>ignōscī</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>ignōsum</td>
<td>idle, cowardly</td>
<td>ignōtūm</td>
<td>therefore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>igitur</td>
<td>therefore</td>
<td>ignānae</td>
<td>therefore</td>
<td>ignōscī</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>ignōsum</td>
<td>therefore</td>
<td>ignōtūr</td>
<td>the well-known</td>
<td>ignōtum</td>
<td>idle, cowardly</td>
<td>ignōtum</td>
<td>therefore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ignārus</td>
<td>ignorant (of)</td>
<td>ignāna,</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>ignorant</td>
<td>idle, cowardly</td>
<td>ignārum</td>
<td>ignorant (of)</td>
<td>ignorant</td>
<td>idle, cowardly</td>
<td>ignārum</td>
<td>ignorant (of)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ignānum</td>
<td>idle, cowardly</td>
<td>ignāna,</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>idle,</td>
<td>cowardly</td>
<td>ignānum</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>cowardly</td>
<td>idle, cowardly</td>
<td>ignānum</td>
<td>ignorant (of)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>ignōscī</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>ignōscere</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>idle, cowardly</td>
<td>ignōtum</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>idle, cowardly</td>
<td>ignōtum</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>ignōtī</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>ignōtī</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>idle, cowardly</td>
<td>ignōtum</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td>idle, cowardly</td>
<td>ignōtum</td>
<td>I forgive</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Additional Latin Terms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Term</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ille</td>
<td>I, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ille</td>
<td>I, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>illud</td>
<td>I, it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperātor, imperātōris</td>
<td>m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperō</td>
<td>I order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impetus, impetūs</td>
<td>attack</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>in</td>
<td>to, into</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incendō, incendere, incendī</td>
<td>I set fire to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>incipīō, incipere, incēpī, incipitum</td>
<td>undertaking, beginning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>indignus, indigna, indignum</td>
<td>I begin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ineō, inīre, inī or inīū</td>
<td>I go into</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ingredior, ingredi, ingressus sum</td>
<td>I go into</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inceptum, inceptī</td>
<td>I begin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inceptum, inceptī</td>
<td>undertaking, beginning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intellectum</td>
<td>I understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interest</td>
<td>I understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>interlīcto, interlīcere, interlīcī</td>
<td>I kill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intrō</td>
<td>I enter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inueniō, inuenīre, inuēnī, inuentum</td>
<td>I find</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inuētus, inuēta, inuētum</td>
<td>unwilling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ipsē, ipsa, ipsum</td>
<td>himself, herself, itself</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>irrātus, irāta, irrātum</td>
<td>angry</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>is, ea, id</td>
<td>he, she, it, this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iste, ista, istud</td>
<td>that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ita</td>
<td>in such a way, like this</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iter, itineris, n.</td>
<td>journey, travel</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iubeō, iubēre, iussī, iussum</td>
<td>I order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iūcundus, iūcunda, iūcundum</td>
<td>pleasant, agreeable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iūrō</td>
<td>I swear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iūstus, iūsta, iūstum</td>
<td>just</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
iuxta + acc.

labor, labōris, m.
labōro (1)
lacus, lacūs, m.
laedō, laedere, laesī, laesum
laetus, laeta, laetum
lapis, lapidīs, m.
lātus, lāta, lātum
laudō (1)
lautus, lauta, lautum
lēgātus, lēgātī, m.
lēgō, legere, lēgī, lēctum
lentus, lenta, lentum
leō, leōnis, m.
lēx, légis, f.
lībenter
līber, lībera, līberum
līber, lībri, m.
līberī, līberōrum, m.pl.
līberō (1)
licet (see p. 128)
licet mihi, licēre mihi, licuit mihi,
licitum est mihi (see p. 104)
Ligus, Liguris, m.
litterae, litterārum, f.pl.
locus, locī, m.
loquor, loquī, locūtus sum
lūdō, lūdere, lūsī, lūsum
lūx, lūcis, f.
magnopere
magnus, magna, magnum
māiestās, māiestātis, f.
malus, mala, malum
manēō, manēre, mānsī, mānsum
mare, maris, n.
marītus, marītī, m.
maximus, maxima, maximum
mē
melior, melior, melius
meminī, meminisse

near
labour, toil, hardship
I work
lake
I hurt
happy
stone
wide, broad
I praise
fashionable, clean
legate, ambassador, commander
I gather, read
slow
lion
law
gladly, willingly
free
book
children
I free
it is allowed, even though
I am allowed
a Ligurian (from Cisalpine Gaul)
literature, a letter
place
I speak, talk, say
I play, trick
light
greatly
great, big
majesty, treason
bad, evil
I stay, wait, wait for
sea
husband
very great, greatest, very big
me, acc. of ego
better
I remember
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>memoria, memoriae, f.</td>
<td>memory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mendāx, mendāx, mendāx (gen. mendācis)</td>
<td>lying, false</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mēnsa, mēnsae, f.</td>
<td>table</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mereor, merērī, meritus sum</td>
<td>deserve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>merīdiē</td>
<td>at midday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metuō, metuere, metuī, metūtum</td>
<td>I am afraid (of), I fear (to)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>meus, mea, meum</td>
<td>my</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīles, mīlitis, m.</td>
<td>soldier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīlle passūs, mīlle passuum, m.pl.</td>
<td>a mile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mīlia passuum, n.pl.</td>
<td>miles</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minimum</td>
<td>very little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minimus, minima, minimum</td>
<td>very small, very little, least</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minor, minārī, minātus sum</td>
<td>I threaten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miser, misera, miserum</td>
<td>unhappy, wretched</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>miseret (mē) (see p. 105)</td>
<td>I am sorry for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mittō, mittere, mītī, missum</td>
<td>way, manner, limit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>modus, moādī, m.</td>
<td>city walls</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moenia, moenium, n.pl.</td>
<td>annoying, boring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>molestus, molesta, molestum</td>
<td>importance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mōmentum, mōmentī, n.</td>
<td>I advise, I warn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moneō (2)</td>
<td>I die</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>morior, morī, mortuus sum</td>
<td>death</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mōrīs, mortis, f.</td>
<td>custom, civilization</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mōreō, mouēre, mōui, mōtum</td>
<td>I move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mox</td>
<td>soon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multō</td>
<td>much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multum</td>
<td>much</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mūrus, mūrī, m.</td>
<td>wall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mūs, mūris, m.</td>
<td>mouse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nārrō (1)</td>
<td>I tell, narrate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nāscor, nāscī, nātus sum</td>
<td>I am born</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nātālis, nātālis, m.</td>
<td>birthday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nāuigō (1)</td>
<td>I sail</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nāuis, nāuis, f.</td>
<td>ship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nauta, nautae, m.</td>
<td>sailor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nec</td>
<td>and ... not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nec/neque</td>
<td>and not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>necō (1)</td>
<td>I kill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>negō (1)</td>
<td>I say ... not, deny, refuse, say no</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
nēmō, nēminis, m. or f. no one, nobody
neque iam and no longer
neque/nec and not
nesciō (4) I do not know
nescioquō modō in some way
neu/nēue and don’t, and not
nēue/nej and don’t, and not
nihil, n. nothing
nihilum, nihilī, n. nothing
ningit, ninge, nīnxit it snows
nisi unless, if not
nōlō, nōlle, nōluī I am unwilling, refuse
nōn not
nōn iam no longer
nōn modo ... sed etiam not only ... but also
nōn quō/nōn quod not because
nōndum not yet
nōnnullī, nōnnullōrum, m.pl. some (people)
nōnus, nōna, nōnum ninth
nōs we
nostī, nostrōrum, m.pl. our men
nox, noctis, f. night
nullus, nulla, nūllum not any, no
numquam never
nunc now
nūntīō (1) I announce
nūntius, nūntiī, m. news, messenger

ob + acc. on account of
obdūrō (1) I persist, endure
oblīuīscor, oblīuīscē, oblītus sum + gen. I forget
obses, obsidis, m. or f. hostage
obsideō, obsidēre, obsēdī, obsessum I besiege, picket
obstō, obstāre, obstitī, obstātum + dat. stand in the way (of)
obuīam + dat. to meet
occāsūs, occāsūs, m. setting
occidō, occidere, occidī, occāsum I set, fall down, die
occīdō, occīdere, occīdī, occīsum I kill
ōdī, ōdisse I hate
offendō, offendere, offendī, offēnsum I offend, displease
omnis, omnis, omne every, all
opertet, oportère, oportuit

it is my duty, it is necessary
town
I attack
the best, very good
speech
speaker, orator
rank
I beg, pray to
leisure, ease

I am sorry for, I repent
I open, spread out, reveal
equal, fair
prepared
I spare, pardon
parent
I obey
I prepare
father
fatherland
few
poor
peace
money
I push, strike, defeat
I endure, undergo, carry through
danger
skilled (in), expert (in)

I persuade
I arrive
foot
I seek, look, ask for
piety, dutifulness, love
I please
common people
very many
more

I pay the penalty

 oppidum, oppidī, n.
 oppugnō (1)
 optimus, optima, optimum
ōrātiō, ōrātiōnis, f.
ōrātor, ōrātōris, m.
ōrdō, ōrdinis, m.
ōrō (1)
ōtium, ōtiī, n.

paenitet mē (see p. 105)
pandō, pandere, pandī, pānsum or passum
pār, pār, pār (gen. paris)
parātus, parāta, parātum
parcō, parcere, pepercī + dat.
parēns, parentis, m. or f.
pāreō, pāreīre, pāruī + dat.
parō (1)
pater, patris, m.
patria, patriae, f.
paucī, paucae, paucā
pauper, pauper, pauper (gen. pauperis)
pāx, pācis, f.
pecūnia, pecūniae, f.
pellō, pellere, pepulī, pulsum
perferō, perferre, pertulī, perlātum

perīculum, perīculī, n.
perītus, perīta, perītum
persuādeo, persuādēre, persuāsī,
persuāsīum + dat.
perueniō, peruenīre, peruēnī, peruentum
pēs, pedis, m.
peto, petere, petīūī, petītum
pietās, pietātis, f.
placeō (2) + dat.
plēbēs, plēbis, f.
plūrimī, plūrimae, plūrima
plūs, plūris, n.
opernam persoluo, persoluere, persolūi,
persolūtum
poenas (poenam) dō, dare, dedī, datum
poēta, poētae, m.
pōns, pontis, m.
porta, portae, f.
poscō, poscere, pospōscī
possum, posse, potuī
post + acc.
postquam
postrīdiē
praeda, praedae, f.
praedīcō, praedīcere, praedīxi, praedictum
praesidium, praesidīi, n.
praeter modum
pretīōsus, pretīōsa, pretīōsum
pretium, pretīi, n.
prīmā lūce
prīmus, prīma, prīmum
prīnceps, prīncipis, m.
prīsquam
prō + abl.
probitās, probitātis, f.
procāx, procāx, procāx (gen. procācis)
prōcēdo, prōcēdere, prōcessī, prōcessum
procul
prōdeo, prōdiēre, prōdiī, prōditum
prōdō, prōdere, prōdidī, prōditum
prōficiō, prōficere, prōfēcī, prōfectum
proficiēscor, proficiēscī, profectus sum
prōgredior, prōgredī, prōgressus sum
prohibeo (2)
prōmittō, prōmittere, prōmisī, prōmissum
prope + acc.
properō (1)
propior, propior, propius (gen. propriōris)
proximus, proxima, proximum
pudet mē, pudēre, puduit (see p. 105)
pudīcus, pudīca, pudīcum
puella, puellae, f.
puer, puerī, m.
pugnō (1)
I pay the penalty
poet
bridge
gate
I ask for, demand
I am able, I can
after
after
on the next day
booty
I declare, announce
help, protection, garrison
exceptionally
valuable
price, value
at first light, at dawn
first
chief man, emperor
before
on behalf of
honesty
pushing, impudent
I go forward, make
progress
far away
I come forward
I betray, hand down
I make progress
I set out
I advance, go forward
I prevent
I promise, send out
near
I hurry
nearer
nearest, next, proceeding
I am ashamed
chaste, virtuous
girl
boy
I fight
pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum
putō (1)

quaerō, quaerere, quaesīūī, quaesītum
quālis, quālis, quāle
quam
quamquam
quamūũís
quantum
quantus, quanta, quantum

quattuor
-que
qui, quae, quod
quīa
quīdam, quaedam, quōddam
quiēscō, quiēscere, quiēuī, quiētum
quīnque
quis? quis? quid?
quisquam, quaequam, quicquam
quō

quod
quot

rapiō, rapere, rapuī, raptum
ratīō, ratīōnis, f.
recitō (1)
redeō, redīre, redīī or reduiūī, redītum
reficiō, reficere, refēcī, refectum
rēgīna, rēgīnae, f.
regō, regere, rēxī, rēctum
relinquō, relinquere, reliquī, reliuctum
reliquus, reliqua, reliquum
remittō, remittere, remīsī, remissum
reor, rērī, ratus sum
repente
repetō, repetere, repetīī or repetīuī, repetītum
rēs, reī, f.
rēs pūblica, reī pūblicae, f.
resistō, resistere, restitī + dat.

beautiful
I punish
I think
I search for, I seek for
of what kind
than
although
however, although
as much as
as great as, as much as,
how great
four
and
who, which
because
a, a certain
I rest
five
who? what?
any, any one, any thing
to which place, in order
that
because
how many
I seize, snatch, plunder
reason
I recite
I return
I repair, rebuild, restore
queen
I rule
I leave
remaining
I send back
I think
suddenly
I get back, demand back
thing, the state
state, republic
I resist
respirō (1)
I breathe again
respondeō, respondēre, respondī, respōnsum
I reply
restituō, restituere, restitūi, restitūtum
I rebuild, restore
retineō, retinēre, retinuī, retentum
I keep, maintain, hold back
reueniō, reuenīre, reuēnī, reuentum
I come back, return
rēx, rēgis, m.
king
rīdeo, rīdere, rīsī, rīsum
Rōma, Rōmae, f.
Rome
Rōmānus, Rōmāna, Rōmānum
Roman
rosa, rosae, f.
rose
rūs, rūris, n.
country
saltō (1)
I dance
salūs, salūtis, f.
safety, health, greetings
salūtō (1)
I greet
sapiēns, sapiēns, sapiēns (gen. sapientis)
wise
sapientia, sapientiae, f.
wisdom
scelestus, scelestā, scelestum
wicked, criminal
scelus, sceleris, n.
crime
sciō (4)
I know
scribō, scribere, scripsī, scriptum
I write
sē (see p. 26)
himself, herself, itself
secundus, secunda, secundum
second, following, favourable
sed
but
sedeō, sedēre, sēdī, sessum
I sit
semper
always
senātus, senātūs, m.
senate
sententia, sententiae, f.
opinion, judgement, vote, subject
septem
seven
septimus, septima, septimum
seventh
sequor, sequī, secūtus sum
I follow, make for
too late
serpēns, serpentis, f.
serpent, snake
seruō (1)
I save, preserve, look after
late
slave
seruus, sēra, sērum
six
sex
sexaginta
si
si non
sic
sicarius, sicarii, m.
Sicilia, Siciliae, f.
simul atque/ac
sine + abl.
sobrius, sobria, sobrium
sol, solis, m.
solis occassus
soleo, solere, solitus sum + inf.
solum
somnium, somnii, n.
soror, sororis, f.
sors, sortis, f.
speciies, speciei, f.
spelunca, speluncae, f.
spero (l)
spes, spei, f.
sto, stare, steti, statum

studeo, studere, studui + dat.
studium, studii, n.
stultus, stulta, stultum
subeo, subire, subii or subiu, subitum
succurrre, succurrere, succurrrei, succurrsum + dat.
sum, esse, fu
supero (1)
suus, sua, suum

taceo (2)
talis, talis, tale
tam	
tamen (2nd word)
tamquam
tantus, tanta, tantum
tempestaes, tempestatis, f.
tempus, temporis, n.

teneō, tenēre, tenuī, tentum

terreō (2)

tertius, tertia, tertium
	timeō, timēre, timuī
tot
	tōtus, tōta, tōtum
	trādō, trādere, trādidī, trāditum

trahō, trahere, trāxī, tractum

tränsēō, trānsīre, trānsīi or trānsīūi, trānsītum

tredescim

très, trēs, tria

trīstis, trīstis, trīste

trucidō (1)
tū

tum
tumultus, tumultūs, m.
tūtus, tūta, tūtum
tuus, tua, tuum

ualdē

uastō (1)

ubi

uehemēns, uehemēns, uehemēns
(gen. uehementis) (adverb uehementer)

uelut sī

uendō, uendere, uendidī, uenditum

ueniō, ueniēre, uēni, uentum

uēr, uēris, n.

uerbum, uerbī, n.

uereor, uerēri, ueritus sum

uertō, uertere, uertī, uersum

uester, uestra, uestrum

ueto, uetāre, uetūi, uetitum

uiātor, uiātōris, m.

uideō, uidēre, uīdī, uīsum

uidētur

uīgintī

uīlla, uīllae, f.

uincō, uincere, uīcī, uictum

-time
-hold
-I terrify
-third
-I fear, I am afraid (of)
-so many
-all, the whole of, entire
-I hand over, surrender
-I draw, drag
-I cross, go through
-thirteen
-three
-sad
-I slaughter
-you (singular)
-then
-uproar, disturbance, riot
-safe
-your (singular)
-to a high degree, very
-much, very
-I plunder, ravage, lay waste
-when, where

-vigorous, passionate
-as if
-I sell
-I come
-spring
-word
-I am afraid (of)
-I turn
-your (plural)
-I order ... not, I forbid
-traveller
-I see
-it seems a good idea
-twenty
-villa, country estate
-I conquer
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>uīnum, uīnī, n.</td>
<td>wine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uir, uīrī, m.</td>
<td>man, husband</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uīrtūs, uīrtūtīs, f.</td>
<td>virtue, courage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uīs, f.</td>
<td>power, efficacy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uīsō, uīsere, uīsī, uīsum</td>
<td>I go to see, visit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uītō (1)</td>
<td>I avoid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uītuperō (1)</td>
<td>I criticize, find fault with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uīuō, uīuere, uīxī, uīctum</td>
<td>I live</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uīx</td>
<td>scarcely</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūllus, ūlla, ūllum</td>
<td>any</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>undique</td>
<td>from every direction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūnus, ūna, ūnum</td>
<td>one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uolō, uelle, uoluī</td>
<td>I wish, want, am willing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>urbānus, urbāna, urbānum</td>
<td>belonging to the city, polished</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>urbs, urbis, f.</td>
<td>city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uterque, utraque, utrumque</td>
<td>each of the two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūtī = ut (but see ūtor)</td>
<td>use</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ūtor, ūtī, ūsus sum + abl.</td>
<td>(whether) ... or</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>utrum ... an</td>
<td>(whether) ... or not</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>utrum ... annōn/necne</td>
<td>wound</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uūlnus, uūlnerīs, n.</td>
<td>wife</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uxor, uxorīs, f.</td>
<td>Zeno</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Macra (long markings) have not been given in this vocabulary. They are a guide to pronunciation, not part of the Latin words, and they should not be written.

- **a**
- **about (= concerning)** de + abl.
- **admire** admiror (1)
- **afraid, I am** timeo, timere, timui
- **again** iterum; rursus
- **all** omnis, omnis, omne
- **allowed, I am** mihi licet, licere, licuit, licitum
- **always** semper
- **am** sum, esse, fui
- **an** there is no indefinite article in Latin (see p. 133)
- **and** et, -que
- **and... not** neque or nec; neu or neue
- **angry** iratus, irata, iratum
- **any** ullus, ulla, ullam
- **anywhere** usquam
- **appear** uideor, uideri, uisus sum
- **approach** appropinquo (1) + dat.
- **arrive** aduenio, aduenire, adueni, aduentum
- **as if** quasi
- **ask** rogo (1)
- **at once** statim
- **avoid** uito (1)
- **battle** pugna, pugnae, f.; proelium, proelii, n.
- **beat** caedo, caedere, cecidi, caesum
- **because** quod; quia
- **become** fio, fieri, factus sum
- **bed, I go to** cubitum eo, ire, ii or iui, itum
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>before (conjunction)</td>
<td>antequam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>beg</td>
<td>oro (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>believe</td>
<td>credo, credere, credidi, creditum + dat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>best</td>
<td>optimus, optima, optimum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>book</td>
<td>liber, libri, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>both (= each of the two)</td>
<td>uterque, utraque, utrumque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>boy</td>
<td>puer, pueri, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bring</td>
<td>fero, ferre, tuli, latum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brother</td>
<td>frater, fratris, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>burn (set on fire)</td>
<td>incendo, incendere, incendi, incensum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>but</td>
<td>sed, at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>buy</td>
<td>emo, emere, emi, emptum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>call together</td>
<td>conuoco (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>camp</td>
<td>castra, castrorum, n.pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>can</td>
<td>possum, posse, potui</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capture</td>
<td>capio, capere, cepi, captum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>catch</td>
<td>capio, capere, cepi, captum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>chase</td>
<td>persequor, persequi, persecutus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cheap</td>
<td>uilis, uilis, uile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>children</td>
<td>liberi, liberorum, m.pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>city</td>
<td>urbs, urbis, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>clever</td>
<td>ingeniosus, ingeniosa, ingeniosum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>collapse</td>
<td>concido, concidere, concidi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Colossus</td>
<td>Colossus, Colossi, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>come</td>
<td>uenio, uenire, ueni, uentum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>command, I am in ... of</td>
<td>praesum, praeesse, praefui + dat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>complain</td>
<td>queror, queri, questus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consul</td>
<td>consul, consulis, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>country (= fatherland)</td>
<td>patria, patriae, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cross</td>
<td>transeo, transire, transii or transiui, transitum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dawn, at</td>
<td>prima luce</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>day</td>
<td>dies, diei, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decide</td>
<td>constituo, constituere, constitui, constitutionum; mihi placet, placere, placuit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deed</td>
<td>actum, acti, n.; factum, facti, n.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>depart</td>
<td>egredior, egredi, egressus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deserve, I ... to</td>
<td>dignus (digna, dignum) sum qui + subjunctive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>die</td>
<td>morior, mori, mortuus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>do</td>
<td>facio, facere, feci, factum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>don't</td>
<td>noli, nolite + infinitive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>Latin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eager</td>
<td>cupidus + gen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>early</td>
<td>mane</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>embrace</td>
<td>amplerctor, amplecti, amplexus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emperor</td>
<td>princeps, principis, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>encourage</td>
<td>hortor (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>enemy</td>
<td>hostes, hostium, m.pl.; (personal enemy) inimicus, inimici, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>even</td>
<td>etiam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>evening</td>
<td>uesper, abl. uespere, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ever</td>
<td>umquam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>every day</td>
<td>cotidie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>every (with superlatives)</td>
<td>quisque, quaeque, quidque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>everyone</td>
<td>omnes (= all people)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extremely</td>
<td>ualde</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>face</td>
<td>os, oris, n.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fall down</td>
<td>concido, concidere, concidi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fast</td>
<td>celer, celeris, celere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fatherland</td>
<td>patria, patriae, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fear</td>
<td>metuo, metuere, metui, metutum; timeo, timere, timui; uereor, uereri, ueritus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>field</td>
<td>ager, agrì, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fierce</td>
<td>acer, acris, acre</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>find</td>
<td>inuenio, inuenire, inueni, inuentum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fitting, it is ... for me</td>
<td>me decet, decere, decuit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flee</td>
<td>effugio, effugere, effugi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>foolish</td>
<td>stultus, stulta, stultum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for (= on behalf of)</td>
<td>pro + abl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>for some time</td>
<td>aliquamdiu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forget</td>
<td>obliuiscor, obliuisci, oblitus sum + gen.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>forgive</td>
<td>ignosco, ignoscere, ignoui, ignotum + dat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>found</td>
<td>condò, condere, condidi, conditum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friend</td>
<td>amicus, amici, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>friendly</td>
<td>amicus, amica, amicum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>from</td>
<td>e or ex + abl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>general</td>
<td>imperator, imperatoris, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>girl</td>
<td>puella, puellae, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give</td>
<td>do, dare, dedi, datum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>give back</td>
<td>reddò, reddere, reddidi, redditum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>go</td>
<td>eo, ire, ii or iui, itum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>bonus, bona, bonum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
greatest maximus, maxima, maximum
Greek Graecus, Graeci, m.
greet saluto (1)

*hang* (transitive) suspendo, suspendere, suspendi, suspensum
happy laetus, laeta, laetum
harbour portus, portus, m.

*hard (= industrious)* diligens, diligens, diligens (gen. diligentis)
hate odi, odisse
have in mind in animo habeo (2)
he is
help iuuo, iuuare, iuui, iutum
her own suus, sua, suum
here hic
home domus, domi or domus, f.
Homer Homerus, Homeri, m.
hope spero (1)
horse equus, equi, m.
house domus, domi or domus, f.
how long quamdiu
husband maritus, mariti, m.; uir, uiri, m.

I ego
important, it is ... to mea interest
in in + abl.; (= into) in + acc.
in case ne
in fact re uera
inform te certiorem facio (= I inform you)
into in + acc.
it id
Italy Italia, Italiae, f.

kill occido, occidere, occidi, occisum
king rex, regis, m.
know scio (4)

laugh rideo, ridere, risi, risum
lead duco, ducere, duxi, ductum
learn disco, discere, didici
leave relinquo, relinquere, reliqui, relictum
legate legatus, legati, m.
lend trado, tradere, tradidi, traditum
like amo (1)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>long (= for a long time)</td>
<td>diu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lot, a ... of</td>
<td>multus, multa, multum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>love</td>
<td>amo (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lovingly</td>
<td>amanter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>man</td>
<td>uir, uiri, m.; homo, hominis, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>matter</td>
<td>res, rei, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>midday, at</td>
<td>meridie</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>midnight, at</td>
<td>media nocte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>money</td>
<td>pecunia, pecuniae, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more (= to a greater degree)</td>
<td>magis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>much</td>
<td>molto</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>my</td>
<td>meus, mea, meum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>never</td>
<td>numquam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no longer</td>
<td>non iam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>no-one</td>
<td>nemo, neminis, m. or f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>now</td>
<td>nunc; iam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>obey</td>
<td>pareo (2) + dat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>offend</td>
<td>offendo, offendere, offendi, offensum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>one</td>
<td>unus, una, unum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orator</td>
<td>orator, oratoris, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>order</td>
<td>impero (1) + dat.; iubeo, iubere, iussi, iussum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>people</td>
<td>homines, hominum, m.pl.; populus, populi, m. (= population)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>persuade</td>
<td>persuadeo, persuadere, persuasi, persua- + dat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>picket</td>
<td>obsideo, obsidere, obsedi, obsessum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poem</td>
<td>carmen, carminis, n.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poet</td>
<td>poeta, poetae, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>poetry</td>
<td>carmina, carminum, n.pl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>praise</td>
<td>laudo (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>present</td>
<td>donum, doni, n.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prevent</td>
<td>impedio (4); prohibeo (2)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>promise</td>
<td>promitto, promittere, promisi, promissum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quick</td>
<td>celer, celeris, celere</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reach, I</td>
<td>peruenio, peruenire, perueni, peruentum ad + acc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>read</td>
<td>lego, legere, legi, lectum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>English</td>
<td>Latin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>realize</td>
<td>comprehendo, comprehendere, comprehendi, comprehensum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recital</td>
<td>recitatio, recitationis, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>recite</td>
<td>recito (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>remember</td>
<td>memini, meminisse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rest</td>
<td>quiesco, quiescere, quieui, quietum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>return</td>
<td>redeo, redire, redii orrediui, reditum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rhodes</td>
<td>Rhodus, Rhodi, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rich</td>
<td>diues, diues, diues (gen. diuitis)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roman</td>
<td>Romanus, Romani, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rome</td>
<td>Roma, Romae, f.; (in or at Rome) Romae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>run away</td>
<td>effugio, effugere, effugi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sail</td>
<td>nauigo (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>same</td>
<td>idem, eadem, idem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>save</td>
<td>conseruo (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>say</td>
<td>dico, dicere, dixi, dictum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scout</td>
<td>explorator, exploratoris, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sea</td>
<td>mare, maris, n.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>see</td>
<td>uideo, uidere, uidi, uisum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>self</td>
<td>ipse, ipsa, ipsum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>senate house</td>
<td>curia, curiae, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>senator</td>
<td>senator, senatoris, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>send out</td>
<td>emitto, emittere, emisi, emissum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>serious</td>
<td>grauis, grauis, graue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>set out</td>
<td>proficiscor, proficisci, prefectus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>shame</td>
<td>dedecus, dedecoris, n.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>ea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>show</td>
<td>monstro (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sick</td>
<td>aeger, aegra, aegrum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>since</td>
<td>cum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sister</td>
<td>soror, sororis, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>so</td>
<td>tam (with adjectives and adverbs)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>some(one) or other</td>
<td>nescioquis, nescioquis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sometimes</td>
<td>aliquando</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soon</td>
<td>mox</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spare</td>
<td>parco, parcerere, peperci + dat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>speak</td>
<td>loquor, loqui, locutus sum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>state</td>
<td>res publica, rei publicae, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stay</td>
<td>maneo, manere, mansi, mansum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>still (= nevertheless)</td>
<td>nihilominus; tamen (2nd word)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
street uia, uiæ, f.
stupid stultus, stulta, stultum
talk loquor, loqui, locutus sum
teacher magister, magistri, m.
tell (= narrate) narror (1) see also ‘order’, ‘inform’
tenth decimus, decima, decimum
than quam
thank gratias ago, agere, egi, actum + dat.
that ille, illa, illud
the there is no definite article in Latin
think puto (1)
this hic, haec, hoc
through per + acc.
throw away abicio, abicere, abieci, abiectum
town oppidum, oppidi, n.
trust credo, credere, credidi, creditum + dat.
try conor (1)
two duo, duae, duo
type, I am the ... to is sum qui + subjunctive
unhappy miser, misera, miserum
until dum; donec
unwilling, I am nolo, nolle, nolui
visit uiso, uisere, uisi, uisum
walk ambulo (1)
weather tempestas, tempestatis, f.
well bene
what quid
what? quid?
whenever quotiens
where to? quo?
where ... from? unde?
where ... from unde
where to quo
where? ubi?
wherever ... to quocumque
whether ... or not utrum ... annon or necne (necne in indirect questions)
whether ... or (conditional) seu ... seu ... , siue ... siue ...
while dum
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>who</td>
<td>qui, quae, quod</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who?</td>
<td>quis?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>whole</td>
<td>totus, tota, totum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wise</td>
<td>sapiens, sapiens, sapiens</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>with</td>
<td>cum + abl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>without</td>
<td>sine + abl.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>woman</td>
<td>femina, feminae, f.; mulier, mulieris, f.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>word</td>
<td>uerbum, uerbi, n.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>work</td>
<td>laboro (1)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>write</td>
<td>scribo, scribere, scripsi, scriptum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>year</td>
<td>annus, anni, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (singular)</td>
<td>tu</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>young man</td>
<td>iuuenis, iuuenis, m.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>your (singular)</td>
<td>tuus, tua, tuum</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The Public School Latin Primer by Benjamin Hall Kennedy, the headmaster of Shrewsbury, first appeared in August 1866. The Chairman of the Clarendon Commission, the body which investigated the nine leading English private schools in 1862–3, requested that their headmasters should consider commissioning a standard Latin grammar. (At the time these schools were using four different ones.) His fellow headmasters asked Kennedy, who had already written an Elementary Latin Grammar, to produce the new book.

His primer came in for severe criticism, raising a storm of correspondence in The Times. Thirty-six letters on (and somewhat off) the subject appeared there between 29 August and 9 November. The main complaints were that the primer was too difficult for young children, that the terminology was perverse and off-putting (Kennedy’s use of the words ‘trajective’, ‘prolative’ and ‘factitive’ came under particular fire, and none of them is to be found in this grammar), and that the authoritative imposition of a uniform standard would be a serious blow to individual freedom.

A further cause of distress was that he had imported a new order of cases (nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive, dative, ablative). In fact, he was following in the footsteps of other British grammarians, but it was his work that has made this order standard in the UK, and therefore it is he who must take responsibility for the difference in practice in this respect on the two sides of the Atlantic.

Kennedy tinkered with his grammar over the next quarter of a century, for most of which time he was Regius Professor of Greek at Cambridge, and in 1888 his Revised Latin Primer was published. (In point of fact, it was largely ‘ghosted’ by his daughters Marion and Julia.) Apart from minor revisions, it has remained the standard grammar in the UK until the present time.

One feature of the primer which has generally met with approval is the inclusion of the gender rhymes that conclude it. They will not to be every-
body's taste, but they have a certain antiquarian charm, and those who learn them will have few problems with the gender of Latin words! We print them in tribute to a grammarian whose influence on the study of Latin in the UK has been unparalleled.

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1 One of Kennedy's most dangerous critics in The Times correspondence was H. J. Roby, a rival compiler of a Latin grammar. His had been published four years previously. In his first letter to The Times, even Roby, apparently hunting for features in Kennedy's Primer which he could praise, remarked that the 'metrical jingle for the genders is well done, and, as I think, useful'. However, provoked by Kennedy's dismissive riposte, he complained in a second letter of 'the rhyming of long with short syllables in the metrical jingles'.

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In writing this short note, I have been much indebted to two books by Christopher Stray (Grinders and Grammars: A Victorian Controversy (Reading, 1995) and Classics Transformed: Schools, Universities, and Society in England, 1830–1960 (Oxford, 1998)).

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| General Rules |

The Gender of a Latin Noun
by meaning, form, or use is shown.

1. A Man, a name of People and a Wind, River and Mountain, Masculine we find:
   Rōmulus, Hispānī, Zephyrus, Cōcýtus, Olympus.

2. A Woman, Island, Country, Tree, and City, Feminine we see:
   Pēnelopē, Cyprus, Germānia, laurus, Athēnae.

3. To Nouns that cannot be declined
   The Neuter Gender is assigned:
   Examples fās and nefās give
   And the Verb-Noun Infinitive:
   Est summum nefās fallere:
   Deceit is gross impiety.

Common are: sacerdōs, dux, priest (priestess), leader
vātēs, parēns et coniùnx, seer, parent, wife (husband)
cīvis, comes, custōs, vindex, citizen, companion, guard, avenger
adulēscēns, īnfāns, index, iūdēx, testis, artifex 
praesul, exsul, opifex, hērēs, mīles, incola, auctor, augur, advena, hostis, obses, praezes, āles, patruēlis et satelles, mūniceps et interpes, iuvenis et antistes, aurīga, prīnceps: add to these bōs, damma, talpa, serpēns, sūs, camēlus, canis, tigris, perdix, grūs.
youth (maid), infant, informer judge, witness, artist director, exile, worker heir (heiress), soldier, inhabitant author, augur, new-comer enemy, hostage, president, bird cousin, attendant burgess, interpreter young person, overseer charioteer, chief ox (cow), deer, mole, serpent, swine camel, dog, tiger, partridge, crane.

| Special Rules for the Declensions |

| First Declension (-a stems) |

Rule—Feminine in First a, ē, Masculine ās, ēs will be.

Exceptions:
Nouns denoting Males in a are by meaning Māscula:
and Masculine is found to be Hadria, the Adriatic Sea.

| Second Declension (-o Stems) |

Rule—O-nouns in us and er become Masculine, but Neuter um.

Exceptions:
Feminine are found in us, alvus, Arctus, carbasus, colus, humus, pampinus, vannus: also trees, as pirus; with some jewels, as sapphīrus; Neuter pelagus and virus. Vulgus Neuter commonly, rarely Masculine we see.

paunch, Great Bear, linen distaff, ground, vine-leaf winnowing-fan, pear-tree sapphire sea, poison common people
### Third Declension (consonant and i stems)

**Rule 1**—Third-Nouns Masculine prefer endings ō, or, ōs, and er; add to which the ending ēs, if its Cases have increase.

**Exceptions:**

(a) Feminine exceptions show Substantives in dō and gō.
   But ligō, ordeo, praedō, cardō, Masculine, and Common margō.

   spade, order, pirate, hinge

   margin

(b) Abstract Nouns in iō call Fēminīna, one and all:
   Masculine will only be things that you may touch or see,
   (as curculīō, vespertīlīō, pugiō, scīpiō, and papiliō) with the Nouns that number show, such as ternīō, sēniō.

   weevil, bat
dagger, staff, butterfly

(c) Ėchō Feminine we name: carō (carnis) is the same.

   echo

   flesh

(d) Aequor, marmor, cor decline Neuter; arbor Feminine.

   sea, marble, heart
tree

(e) Of the Substantives in ōs, Feminine are cōs and dōs; while, of Latin Nouns, alone Neuter are os (ossis), bone and ōs (ōris), mouth: a few Greek in os are Neuter too.

   whetstone, dowry

   e.g. melos (melody), epos

   (epic poem)

(f) Many Neuters end in er, siler, acer, verber, vēr, tüber, über, and cadāver, piper, iter, and papāver.

   withy, maple, stripe, spring

   hump, udder, carcase

   pepper, journey, poppy

(g) Feminine are compēs, teges, mercēs, merges, quiēs seges, though their Cases have increase: with the Neuters reckon aēs.

   fetter, mat

   fee, sheaf, rest. corn

   copper
Rule 2—Third-Nouns Feminine we class
ending is, x, aus, and ās,
s, to consonant appended,
ēs in flexion unextended.

Exceptions:
(a) Many Nouns in is we find
to the Masculine assigned:
amnis, axis, caulis, collis,
clūnis, crīnis, fascis, follis,
fūstis, ignis, orbis, ēnis,
pānis, piscis, postis, mēnis,
torris, unguis, and canālis,
vectis, vermis, and nātālis,
sanguis, pulvis, cucumis,
lapis, cassēs, Mānēs, glīs.

(b) Chiefly Masculine we find,
sometimes Feminine declined,
callis, sentis, fūnis, finis,
and in poets torquis, cinis.

(c) Masculine are most in ex:
Feminine are forfex, lex,
 nex, supellex: Common, pūmex
 imbrex, obēx, silex, rumex.

(d) Add to Masculines in ix,
 fornix, phoenix, and calix.

(e) Masculine are adamās,
 elephās, mās, gigās, ās:
vas (vadis) Masculine is known,
vās (vāsis) is a Neuter Noun.

(f) Masculine are fōns and mōns,
 chalybs, hydrōps, gryps, and pōns,
rudēns, torrēns, dēns, and cliēns,
 fractions of the ās, as triēns.
 Add to Masculines tridēns,
 oriēns, and occidēns,
 bidēns (fork): but bidēns (sheep),
 with the Feminines we keep.
(g) Masculine are found in ēs verrēs and acīnacēs.

Rule 3—Third-Nouns Neuter end a, e, ar, ur, us, c, l, n, and t.

Exceptions:
(a) Masculine are found in ur furfur, turtur, vultur, fūr.

(b) Feminine in ūs a few keep, as virtūs, the long ū:
    servitūs, iuventūs, salūs,
    senectūs, tellūs, incūs, palūs.

(c) Also pecus (pecudis)
    Feminine in Gender is.

(d) Masculine appear in us lepus (leporis) and mūs.

(e) Masculines in l are mügil,
    cōnsul, sāl, and sōl, with pugil.

(f) Masculine are rēn and splēn,
    pecten, delphīn, attagen.

(g) Feminine are found in ōn
    Gorgōn, sindōn, halcyōn.

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<td>Rule.—Masculines end in us: a few are Neuter nouns, that end in ū.</td>
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Exceptions:
Women and trees are Feminine, with acus, domus, and manus, tribus, Ídūs, porticus.

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<td>Rule—Feminine are Fifth in ēs, Except merīdiēs and diēs</td>
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Exceptions:
Diēs in the Singular
Common we define:
But its Plural cases are always Masculine.

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Ante, apud, ad, adversus, Circum, circā, citrā, cis, Contrā inter, ergā, extrā, Infrā, intrā, iuxtā, ob, Penes, pōne, post, and praeter. |
Prope, propter, per, secundum, Suprā, versus, ultrā, trāns; Add super, subter, sub and in, When ‘motion,’ ‘tis, not ‘state,’ they mean. |

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Ā, ab, absque, cōram, dē, Palam, cum, and ex, and ē, Sine, tenus, prō, and prae. |
Add super, subter, sub and in, When ‘state,’ not ‘motion,’ ‘tis they mean. |
Words given in the **Glossary**, the **Some Tips** section, and the **Appendices** are only included here if they are likely to be consulted by those investigating the main body of the Grammar.

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