Veni, 
Vide, 
Vince!

A new Latin language course
for the adult beginner

Royal Holloway, University of London

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All previous versions should be discarded

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TO THE TEACHER

Previous versions of this material have been used with reasonable success for a number of years in the Beginners’ Latin courses at the University of Newcastle and at Royal Holloway, University of London. The course is principally intended to provide carefully ‘programmed’ explanations of the most important features of Latin accidence, syntax and sentence-construction, with examples from real Latin (based initially on simple inscriptions) and a selection of exercises. It assumes no previous knowledge of grammatical terminology: the most important grammatical terms are explained as they occur. Non-traditional terminology has been introduced only where no satisfactory traditional term exists, e.g. the term ‘topicalisation’ in the context of word order, a feature which has been largely neglected in traditional courses.

It is strongly recommended that every member of the class should be given a complete copy of the course material, for backup and revision purposes. It should, of course, be explained that this is not a substitute for attending classes!

It is essential that every member of the class must possess, and be constantly encouraged to use, a Latin-English dictionary. The course material is designed to be used in conjunction with a dictionary, and is meant to encourage a ‘research mentality’ more suitable for the learner at university, rather than rote learning of vocabulary lists. The use of a Latin dictionary is a trickier process than most people realise. Parsing the word in front of one so as to arrive at the dictionary form, and then selecting the right meaning from those given in what may be a long dictionary entry, is a complex linguistic skill, but it is surely the one that is most necessary of all for those who intend to use their Latin to read and analyse classical texts in the original.

Those who have followed this course at Newcastle and at Royal Holloway are allowed to use dictionaries in the examination, and it is recommended that this should be done whenever an examination based on this course is set.

Exercises are an important part of any language course. Some are included in this material, but it is recommended that the teacher should devise additional exercises of his/her own for illustration, practice and revision. In doing so, care should be taken not to introduce (or, at least, not to introduce without explanation) grammatical features that have not yet been explained at the relevant point in the course. In the later stages of the course it will be possible to use original Latin texts.

No apology whatever is made for sometimes using made-up (often whimsical) examples, or for introducing the occasional post-classical feature. All forms and patterns not found in authentic Latin are, however, rigorously excluded.

Finally, anyone using this course is earnestly exhorted to send me a note of any errors or misprints that may be detected in it, and to make suggestions for more general improvement. I am grateful to Dr. Jaap Wisse and Mrs. Teresa Saunders (Newcastle) and to Nick Lowe and Claudia Stephan (Royal Holloway) for sending me suggestions for corrections and additions.

JGFP
TO THE STUDENT

You may be embarking on a course in Latin for various reasons:

• because you want to read Latin literature in the original, not just in translation;
• because you are interested in ancient or medieval history and wish to use the original sources;
• because you are interested in the language for its own sake, or in linguistics;
• because you are required by the regulations for your degree to take a course in Latin.

If you are doing it for one of the first three reasons, you will probably start with a certain amount of motivation and confidence which will stand you in good stead as you go along. You will probably still find some parts of the learning process difficult or tedious, but these problems can be overcome if you make good use of the course material and, above all, if you are not afraid to ask for help when you have difficulty. Remember that you will gain from the course in proportion to the amount of (properly directed) effort you put into it. The course itself will tell you how to direct your effort.

If you are doing Latin because you have to, you may not feel very confident to begin with. You may never have tackled a foreign language before; or you may have had bad experience of trying to learn Latin or another language. You may not even feel very interested in Latin as a language, and you may be unsure why you are being made to do it. In such circumstances the only reasonable strategy is to give it a try, follow the course for a time and see how it goes. You may find that it comes more easily than you expect, and you may begin to see the point of it more clearly after you have been doing it for a while. One thing only is certain: if you put nothing in, you will get nothing out.

The difficulties students have with Latin are more often problems of confidence and attitude than any other sort. Most English people seem to think they are bad at languages, when of course they are no worse than people of other nationalities. Most people are brought up to believe that Latin is very complicated and difficult, and works in unfathomable ways. Some people find the Roman mentality, as revealed in the language, difficult to come to terms with. It is best to try to face these problems now, at the beginning, and realise that nobody would try to teach you Latin if it were really impossible.

To learn Latin effectively using this course, you need:

• WILLINGNESS TO ACCEPT THE PECULIARITIES OF LATIN. Latin is not much more difficult than any other language, but it is different from English in quite a number of respects. The main difficulty in learning Latin – or any other language – is the difficulty of believing that those strange-looking words actually mean something, or that any language could be so daft as to say things that way. You must try to see the logic of the way Latin works at each stage, and then it will not seem so strange after all. If you understand it thoroughly, you will remember it better as well. One of the main hurdles you will encounter to begin with is the Latin word order, which can be quite different from English. This course is the first one ever to try to explain Latin word order systematically from the earliest stages.

• WILLINGNESS TO LEARN GRAMMATICAL TERMS. In order to talk about the way any language works, we have to use some grammatical terms and concepts. These may not already be familiar to you. If not, then you must be willing to learn them. It is not your fault if you have not been taught them before, but it is your fault if you fail to learn them now that you need them. Every effort has been made to explain the grammatical terms as they are introduced; and the effort you put in to learning them will be well rewarded, not only in the progress you make with Latin but also in terms of your general capacity to think about languages, including your own language. Some people tend to see
grammatical terminology as a barrier between themselves and the language they are trying to learn. In fact, properly used, it is a short cut to better understanding. Those who neglect grammar, though this may seem to be the easier option to begin with, will find that they soon reach a point at which learning the language itself becomes very much more difficult, if not impossible.

It is self-deception to suppose that one can learn Latin just by ‘picking it up’. This could only work if one lived in a Latin-speaking environment, and even then it would need to be backed up by formal study.

- WILLINGNESS TO DEVELOP AN EYE FOR DETAIL. The effective reading of Latin depends above all on the accurate recognition of words and their endings. If at any stage you think to yourself ‘That’s O.K., I’ve got a rough idea of how it works and the details can take care of themselves’, you have a recipe for disaster. A single letter can make all the difference to the meaning. Reading words aloud will help you to remember them accurately, so be sure to learn the pronunciation thoroughly.

- WILLINGNESS TO WORK THINGS OUT PATIENTLY. At the beginning you will often have to puzzle out Latin sentences word by word. Do not expect to start reading fluently after a few weeks. It takes years to develop full fluency in reading any foreign language. Make sure you understand each point before you go on to the next one; and revise constantly.

One particular problem concerns those words in Latin that are spelt alike but mean different things. Words like this occur in all languages (English not least) and are always a problem for the learner. They will not cause excessive difficulty if you treat them with care; but jumping to conclusions can be fatal to your attempts to understand a Latin sentence. So take it slowly to begin with! This course pays particular attention to these ambiguities and the strategies you can use for resolving them.

Many Latin words look like English ones and are often actually the originals from which the English words are derived. But the meaning is not always the same. This is because the meanings of words change over time. A single word in Latin could often acquire a range of meanings, of which one only survived into English; for example, consisto survived as ‘to consist’ and as ‘to be consistent’, and it can mean either of these things in Latin in certain contexts, but the most common meaning in Latin is ‘to stop’ or ‘to stand still’. The consequence of this is that you have to use the dictionary even if the Latin word looks familiar. Connections with English words may sometimes be helpful in remembering the meaning of Latin words, but sometimes the meaning has changed so much and in such a complicated way that remembering the English derivative only makes things more difficult. There is no substitute for paying attention to each word, in context, as you meet it.

- WILLINGNESS TO ASK QUESTIONS. Make full use of your teacher or anyone else who is helping you to learn Latin. Pester him or her until you have understood each point thoroughly! Some of the questions you might ask are anticipated for you in this course. You will find the authoritative voice of the Textbook interrupted from time to time by a question in italics. If you think the questions are silly, you can always ask more sensible ones of your own.

Most important of all, you need:

- A LATIN DICTIONARY, the bigger the better. In this course you will be encouraged to use the dictionary from an early stage, in preference to learning long vocabulary lists. You will need to learn how to use the dictionary; it isn’t entirely as simple as it may seem. This is the first course ever to attempt to teach this technique explicitly. You will be allowed to use the dictionary in any test or examination.
In order to learn Latin, you do not need:

- **THE BRAINS OF A LINGUISTIC GENIUS.** Any normal human being is theoretically capable of mastering any human language. Even the stupidest Romans managed to speak Latin.

- **AN EXCEPTIONAL MEMORY.** Everyone forgets things when learning a language. When you have seen a word or a grammatical feature six times, you will remember it. If you see it less than six times while you are following this course, the chances are that you will not need to remember it. The emphasis throughout this course is on understanding of principles and on learning how to look things up, not on memory.

Finally, as Virgil put it:

**tu ne cede malis, sed contra audentior ito!**

Do not give in to setbacks, but instead go forward more boldly!
PART I: UNITS 1-8

UNIT 1

How to pronounce Latin

1.1 Introduction; the Latin alphabet

Why is it important to learn to pronounce Latin in a particular way?

1.1.1 The first thing any learner of Latin needs to do is to learn to read Latin words aloud and recognise them when heard. This is still true, even though Latin is nowadays primarily a written language. There are a number of reasons:

- If you are learning Latin in a class, you cannot avoid it. The teacher will be constantly mentioning Latin words. You will soon get into difficulties if you can’t tell what Latin word he or she is saying. Also, you may be asked questions to which the answer will be a Latin word. You need to pronounce it clearly enough that the teacher, and other members of the class, know whether you have got it right. You must not be afraid of making mistakes – everyone makes mistakes, especially when learning a language.

- It is much easier to tell words apart if you yourself have learned to pronounce them correctly. One of the chief problems in learning Latin (as in some other languages, including English!) is learning to distinguish between words that look and sound very similar, but have different meanings.

  example
  
  audio I hear (cf. English ‘audio’)
  and
  audeo I dare.

  note In Latin, au is pronounced like English ‘ow’.

  If you pronounce both of these as though they were spelt ‘audio’, you will have difficulty in distinguishing them when you hear them (or even when you see them on paper).

  example
  
  iacet is lying down (gravestones often say hic iacet ‘here lies’)
  and
  iacit throws.

  note i before another vowel is pronounced like ‘y’; e is always like k.

- Reading aloud helps you to remember things.

- Most Latin literature was written to be read aloud, and you lose a large part of the effect if you miss the sound. For this reason we should try to pronounce Latin approximately as it was pronounced by the writers we are studying.

- Consistency in pronunciation is more important than perfect accuracy; what matters is that those learning Latin should understand each other. Speaking Latin comes later …
How do we know how Latin was pronounced?

1.1.2 During its long history Latin has been pronounced in various ways. Most of those who study Latin in the world today use some version of what is called the ‘Revised Pronunciation’, which was an attempt made at the beginning of the twentieth century to reconstruct the likely pronunciation of Latin in the time of the great classical authors, in the first centuries B.C. and A.D. The pronunciation recommended here is based on this.

There is a variety of evidence for the details of classical Latin pronunciation; if you want to know more, read W.S.Allen’s book *Vox Latina*.

THE ALPHABET

1.1.3 Modern English is written in the same alphabet as Latin, except that English has one extra letter (W) which is never used in Latin. An English speaker is therefore at an immediate advantage, in that he or she knows the shapes of the Latin letters and some of their sounds. There are, however, some letters whose sounds in Latin are quite different from their sounds in English. This section on pronunciation will concentrate on these.

Where no specific instruction is given, the normal English pronunciation of the letter is to be used. The letters b d f h k l m n p qu s t x are pronounced in Latin just as they are in English.

Why are some of the letters pronounced differently in Latin and English?
Because the Latin sounds are the original ones, and the sounds have changed in English over time.

1.1.4 Latin pronunciation is very simple compared with English. Most letters have only one possible sound (none has more than three) and most sounds can only be spelt in one way. This is because the Latin spelling system was actually designed for classical Latin, while our modern English spelling is the result of unsystematic development over centuries and often reflects old pronunciations that are no longer used. Those who are used to English spelling may not realise quite how complicated it is, but if you are in any doubt about this think of the different sounds of the letter a in the words rat rate read rather raw road rare ravine or the different sounds of ough in rough cough thought though plough.

VOWELS, CONSONANTS AND SYLLABLES

1.1.5 Five letters of our alphabet represent VOWELS, i.e. sounds which may be pronounced on their own: these are a e i o u.

All the other letters represent CONSONANTS (except that y may sometimes be a vowel, as in type, and sometimes a consonant, as in yellow).

The same is true of the alphabet as used for Latin, except that in Latin, y is always a vowel, never a consonant; and i and u can function as either vowels or consonants.

*note* The word *vowel* comes, through French, from Latin *vocalis* meaning ‘to do with the voice’. A vowel is pronounced using the voice alone.

The word *consonant* comes from the Latin *consonans* meaning ‘sounding together’.

A consonant can only be sounded together with a vowel. (Actually this is not quite true; s and r can be sounded on their own without a vowel, but only as ‘noises’, not as part of a word.)
1.1.6 A SYLLABLE consists of a vowel on its own or combined with one or more consonants. Every word consists of one or more syllables. Normally in Latin a syllable begins with a single consonant:

- **vocalis** would be divided as *vo-ca-lis*
- **consonans** would be divided as *con-so-nans*

If a vowel begins a word, naturally it begins a syllable:

- **amo** ‘I love’ would be divided as *a-mo*

And if two vowels come next to each other in the middle of a word, without running together to form a diphthong, the syllable division comes between them:

- **medium** ‘middle’ divided **me-di-um**

But some combinations of vowels, such as **au**, form a single syllable each:

- **audio** ‘I hear’ divide **au-di-o**

See further below, 1.2.7.

*note* The word **syllable** comes from Greek **syllabe** meaning ‘taking together’, i.e. the vowel taken together with the consonants that go with it.

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1.2 Pronunciation: Vowels

THE LATIN VOWELS: A PRELIMINARY PROBLEM

1.2.1 The most important difference between Latin and English pronunciation is in the sounds of the **vowels**. The vowels in Latin have what are sometimes called their ‘Continental’ sounds as opposed to their English ones. That means that in saying the five vowels in sequence, one says something like *ah eh ee oh oo* rather than *ay ee eye oh you* as in English.

This immediately creates a risk of confusion. How are we to refer to the vowel letters and the vowel sounds when naming them aloud? If I use the approximated Latin pronunciation *eh* for the letter **e**, for example, you might think I was talking about the letter **a**; and if I say *ee*, how do you know whether I mean the English letter **e** or the sound of the Latin letter **i**?

Every group of learners needs to agree on its own system here, and stick to it. One might decide to outlaw English pronunciations altogether and name the letters in Latin, so that *eh* means **e** and *ee* means **i**. Or one could try for a compromise with these rules: (a) always specify whether what you are talking about is a letter or a sound; (b) name the letters in English, but refer to the Latin sounds as they actually were. So **a**, the letter, is letter *ay*, but the Latin sound **a** is *sound ah*.

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LONG AND SHORT VOWELS

1.2.2 In Latin each vowel has **two** possible sounds: a **long** sound and a **short** sound.

*note* The long sounds of the vowels should take about twice as long to pronounce as the short sounds.

The long vowels are pronounced approximately as follows:
• a as English AH
• e as English EH (or AY)
• i as English EE
• o as English OH
• u as English OO.

The actual sounds are similar to those found in many modern European languages. The EH and OH sounds, in particular, are only approximations; the versions of these sounds heard in many parts of Scotland, Wales and Northern England are nearer to the Latin sounds than those of Standard Southern English.

1.2.3 The short vowels are pronounced pretty much as in English:

• a as in PAT (particularly as pronounced in Northern England)
• e as in PET
• i as in PIT
• o as in POT
• u as in PUT.

N.B. The Latin short u should never be pronounced as in Southern English cup, but always as in put, or as oo in look.

Odd instructions are sometimes given for pronouncing the short vowels, e.g. that short a should sound like English u in cup. This results from an effort to avoid the sound heard in old-fashioned upper-class English, in which bad sounded almost exactly like the name Baird, and hat like het. But nowadays most Standard English speakers (especially younger ones) pronounce the short a in a way that will do very well for Latin.

1.2.4 In grammar books and dictionaries, and on other occasions when it is necessary to mark the length, long vowels are marked with a straight line:

á é í ó ü

Short vowels are either left unmarked, or marked with a curved line (like a U):

ä è í ö û

note The Romans themselves often used a sign called an apex, a stroke above the letter, to mark long vowels, like this: Ā Ė Ī Ō Ú. But in modern script this could easily be confused with the acute accent used to mark stress.

The length of vowels is not normally indicated in writing in Latin, and the learner needs to get used to this from the beginning. Accordingly, in this course, the length of vowels is not usually marked.

1.2.5 The difference between long and short vowels can be important in Latin. Latin has a considerable number of pairs of words which are spelt the same, but which have different meanings according to whether a vowel is long or short.
example
levis. Without the vowel marking, you would not know whether this was *levis* with a long e, which means ‘smooth’, or *levis* with a short e, which means ‘light’ (in weight). In the spoken language of classical times, the two words would have been quite distinct in pronunciation. The difference would be just as noticeable as that between *pen* and *pain* in English, or between *Kelly* and *ceilidh*.

*But I thought you said the length of vowels wasn’t normally marked.*

Quite right; it isn’t.

*So how do you tell which it is, if you come across it in a text?*

You have to work it out from the context. You choose the meaning that makes more sense. Think of some pairs of words in English which are spelt the same but pronounced differently, e.g. *bow* (= reverential bend forwards) and *bow* (= knot with two or more loops). Read the following sentence and realise how *little* you have to think about which word is meant: ‘As the musician made his bow, his bow tie fell off’.

In a verse text, there is also the metre (rhythm) to help you: classical Latin metres depend on the distinction between long and short syllables which, in turn, depends partly on that between long and short vowels. But you won’t need to cope with this for some time yet.

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**Interlude: Latin in English — the Latin we use every day**

A surprising number of words have been borrowed from Latin into English with the spelling completely unchanged. Here are some examples:

*circus consul exterior extra gladiator inferior interior maximum medium minimum minister minus modicum opera penis plus radius super superior tandem tenet tiro tuba tuber tutor uvula vacuum video virus vomit vacuum*

It can be fascinating to find out how the meanings of these changed from the original Latin: e.g. *uvula* originally meant a ‘little bunch of grapes’ but now refers to the fold of flesh, approximately that shape, that hangs down at the back of the mouth.

Many familiar phrases and abbreviations used in English are also pure Latin, for example *a.m.* = ante meridiem = before midday; *p.m.* = post meridiem = after midday; *e.g.* = exempli gratia = for example; *i.e.* = id est = that is; *post mortem* = after death; *in flagrante delicto* = red-handed lit. ‘in burning crime’.

---

**Practice**

Practise saying these words with the correct Latin vowel sounds:

Short vowels only:

*radius tandem medium senior interior modicum super tenet minimum minus opera vomit vacuum tuba minister*

Mixture of short and long (the long vowels are marked; others are short; pay particular attention to the vowel markings):

*videō ûvula vírus tûber senàtor gladiàtor pēnis tîrō tûtor plūs*
**note** Your teacher may pronounce v as either English v or English w; it does not matter which you use, since both will be understood (see below).

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**VOWELS PLUS R**

1.2.6 Now look more closely at the words **super senior senator tutor tuber**. Unless you are Scottish, you probably did not pronounce the r at the end of those words and you may not have made much of a distinction between the sound of er and that of or. In Latin, final r should always be given its full consonantal value and the vowel before it should be given its full sound as well – but if it is a short vowel, as it usually is in the last syllable of a word, it should not be lengthened before the r. This is difficult for most English speakers but it is worth taking a little time to master it.

**ar** should sound like the first syllable of English *arrow*

**er** should sound like the first syllable of English *errand*

**ir** (less common than the others) should sound like the first syllable of English *irrelevant*

**or** should sound like the first syllable of English *orifice*

**ur** should sound like the vowel of put followed by an r; there is no equivalent in Southern English pronunciation; Northerners may have this sound in e.g. *Durham* or *curry*, although even they will probably have difficulty in making the sound at the end of a word.

Now try **super tuber tutor senior senator** again. There should now be no possibility of confusing **tuber** with **tuba**. The last syllables should now sound (and also, the u of tuber is long, as in English rude, whereas that in tuba is short, as in English put).

**note** It is particularly useful to be able to pronounce **ur** at the end of a word, because this is a very common ending in Latin. It is used to form what is called the passive of verbs. To put it concisely by means of an example, necat means ‘kills’; necatur means ‘is killed’. Those two letters, then, can make a considerable difference to the meaning.

---

**Practice**

(i) Pronounce the following examples:

**vir** man, i.e. adult male person (cf. English *virile*).

**note** There is a different word for ‘human being’, which theoretically includes male and female and all ages: *homo*. Even with *homo*, however, it is usually assumed that an adult male is meant unless the context indicates otherwise.

*Isn’t that a bit sexist?*

Yes. I’m afraid the Romans were.

**murmur** not exactly a murmur, more like a rumble or growl; try to make it sound like one when you pronounce the -ur.

**exemplar** exemplar, model for imitation.

(ii) Vowels plus r in the middle of words should also, ideally, be given their full value. Try the following:

**ver-figo** (stress is on the long i! Pronounce as verr-TEE-go)

**vertex**

**versatile** (stress is on the long a! Pronounce as verr-SAHL-ti-leh)
DIPHTHONGS

1.2.7 A diphthong is a sound consisting of two vowels run together in the same syllable.

Note The word comes from Greek di- ‘two’ + phthongos ‘vocal utterance’. Try to spell and pronounce this word correctly; in correct modern English it is not *DIP-THONG but DIPH-THONG.

There are three important diphthongs in Latin:

- ae sounding like ‘eye’ or ‘I’
- au sounding like ‘ow!’
- oe sounding like ‘oi’

Practice

Pronounce the following names:

Aemilius
Paestum
Athenae Athens
Lacedaemon Sparta
Claudius
Mons Graupius
Phoenicia
Boeotia

and the word audio I hear.

THE LETTER Y

1.2.8 The letter y in Latin is a vowel (never a consonant as in English ‘yellow’). It occurs almost exclusively in words derived from Greek. The original Greek pronunciation was like French u or German ü, i.e. ee pronounced between pursed lips. Later, the pronunciation became similar to that of the vowel i. For practical purposes you may pronounce it as Latin i. Examples:

Lydia
Phrygia
Libya
Nympha a nymph

1.2.9 Here are two features of Classical Latin pronunciation which you need not worry about to begin with, but which are included here for completeness.

(a) FINAL VOWEL + M
In classical Latin pronunciation, the letter m at the end of a word was not fully pronounced, but merely indicated a nasal pronunciation of the preceding vowel, as in French an, en, on. Thus medium minimum modicum tandem would have been pronounced with nasalised vowels. Most people nowadays do not try to reproduce this feature of authentic classical pronunciation, and in fact you might not be understood if you were to try to.

(b) ELISION

When a word ending in a vowel was placed before another vowel at the beginning of the next word, the final syllable was ‘elided’ in pronunciation. This applied whether the vowel was short, long or nasalised (i.e. vowel + m). So e.g. Britannia omnis (the whole of Britain) would be pronounced something like Britanni’ omnis; magnum opus (great work) would be pronounced something like magn’ opus. Only something like it, however; it is likely that at least a trace of the elided sound remained in pronunciation.

Elision is never indicated in writing in Latin. We know that correct elision was essential for an authentic Roman accent, but most classicists make no attempt to elide final vowels when reading Latin aloud, and this complication is best ignored by the learner; it becomes important only when one begins to deal with Latin verse.

1.3 Pronunciation (continued): Consonants

C and G

1.3.1 Latin c is always hard like k. In classical Latin, c was never pronounced like s or English ch in cheap, though these sounds are to be found in later pronunciations of Latin when c comes before e or i.

examples
- Iacit sounds like ‘yackit’
- Circus sounds like ‘keerkoos’.

Latin ch- is pronounced roughly like k, or the ch in English character (never as English ch in cheap), but ideally with a strong puff of breath on the h. It is found only in Greek borrowings and in a very few Latin words such as pulcher handsome, beautiful, fine.

note The ch in some English words derived from Latin is not classical but medieval in origin; ‘sepulchre’ derives from Latin sepulcrum burial-place, ‘lachrymose’ from lacrimosus tearful.

1.3.2 Latin g is always hard as in ‘gas’, never as in ‘Germany’ (where it sounds like English ‘j’).

examples
- Germania Germany
- Genuinus genuine
  both with hard ‘g’.

Practice

Read aloud in Latin pronunciation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Caesar</th>
<th>Censor</th>
<th>Circus</th>
<th>December</th>
<th>Forceps</th>
<th>Pisces</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Recipe</td>
<td>Specimen</td>
<td>Cancer</td>
<td>Genius</td>
<td></td>
<td>Gemini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vagina</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
1.3.3 In the combinations **ci**, **si** and **ti** the two letters are pronounced separately, not as English *sh*.

   **examples**  
   *Asia* sounds like ‘Ass-i-a’  
   *natio* ‘nation’ sounds like ‘nah-tee-oh’

**Practice**

Read aloud in Latin pronunciation:

   **Persia**  
   **ratio**  
   **rationale**  
   **species**  
   **prima facie**  
   **pronuntiatio** pronunciation

Note that the first Latin *ti* in *pronuntiatio* appears as *ci* in the English derivative; this reflects the medieval sound-change whereby *ti* and *ci* were both pronounced like *tsi*.

   **patientia** patience
   - *tia* appears in English as *-ce*, because of French influence. Many words (not all, however) ending in *-ance* or *-ence* in English derive from Latin words in *-antia* or *-entia*.

You need a good deal of *patientia* to acquire a correct *pronuntiatio*, but it is well worth it *est operae pretium* lit. ‘(it) is the value/price of the effort’.

---

**SEMIVOWELS**

1.3.4 There are two so-called semivowels in most languages:

- one with the sound of English *y* in ‘yellow’, and
- one with the sound of English *w* in ‘water’.

**Why are they called semivowels?**

If you pronounce the *y* in *yellow* and think about what you are doing, you will find that the tongue is approximately in the same position that it would be in for the vowel *ee*. The *w* in *water* bears the same relation to the vowel *oo*. So they are (so to speak) halfway between vowels and consonants.

**So is a semivowel a vowel or a consonant?**

It is a consonant. It does not form a syllable on its own, but needs a vowel to come after it.

The two semivowels in Latin are called consonant-*i* and consonant-*u*.

---

**CONSONANT-I**

1.3.5 In classical Latin, the sound of *y* in *yellow* was represented by the same letter as the vowel *i*.

   **examples**  
   *iam* pronounced *yam*  
   *iacio* pronounced *yakio*  
   *Iulius* pronounced *Yoolioos*
How do you tell whether ‘i’ in Latin is a vowel or a consonant?

It is normally a consonant, with the sound of English ‘y’, if it occurs:

- at the beginning of a word and followed by another vowel, as in the examples above,
  or
- in the middle of a word between two vowels, as in e.g. the name Pompeius. In such cases it was pronounced double, and could be so written: Pompeius.

  *note* some Greek words are exceptions, such as Ionia.

Otherwise it is normally a vowel.

1.3.6 In later times, it was felt desirable to have a separate letter for the y-sound, and the letter j was invented for this purpose. In origin this was just an i extended below the line of writing. In some languages j is still pronounced as y (e.g. German), while in others it has come to be pronounced in different ways. A written J in English often corresponds to an i in Latin:

- *Iulius Caesar* Julius Caesar
- *Iesus Christus* Jesus Christ
- *Iohannes* John
- *maior* major
- *adiacens* adjacent

**CONSONANT-U**

1.3.7 The semivowel sound w was denoted by the same letter as the vowel u. The original shape of this letter, used for both the vowel and the semivowel, was V, and you will still see V used instead of U in capital letters in Latin (as in the motto often seen on US stamps and coins, E PLVRIBVS VNVM i.e. e pluribus unum ‘one [made] out of many’). Later, the shape u was used for the vowel and v for the semivowel, and in the meantime (probably during the early centuries AD) the semivowel changed its sound so as to be more like the English v-sound. For clarity, we shall distinguish between u and v in this course; but you will eventually have to get used to texts in which only u (or, in capitals, V) is used.

So:

- *virus* or *uirus*, in capitals VIRVS: pronounced veerus or weerus
- *vir* or *uir*, in capitals VIR: pronounced virr or wirr (irr as in irrelevant)

**Interlude: Names of the letters; counting in Latin**

Now you can say the Latin alphabet (abecedarium or elementa; the latter from L-M-N; consider how our word element relates to this):
And you can practise counting in Latin. Here are the numbers from 1 to 10:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roman</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>unus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>II</td>
<td>duo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III</td>
<td>tres</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IIII</td>
<td>quattuor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>V</td>
<td>quinque</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VI</td>
<td>sex</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VII</td>
<td>septem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>VIII</td>
<td>octo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IX</td>
<td>novem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>X</td>
<td>decem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Cf. (1) unique, union, united ... (2) duo, duet, duplicate, double ... (3) trio, treble, trinity ... etc. etc., and of course the numbers in French, Italian, Spanish and the other Romance languages.

11 to 20:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Roman</th>
<th>Latin</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>XI</td>
<td>undecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XII</td>
<td>duodecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIII</td>
<td>tredecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIV</td>
<td>quattuordecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XV</td>
<td>quindecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVI</td>
<td>sedecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVII</td>
<td>septendecim</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XVIII</td>
<td>duodeviginti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XIX</td>
<td>undeviginti</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>XX</td>
<td>viginti</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that 18 and 19 are expressed as 20 minus 2, 20 minus 1 (de = away from).

---

### 1.4 Word stress

1.4.1 It is important for a correct Latin pronunciation to stress words on the proper syllable, just as in English. The rules for stress in Latin are quite simple:

- Every word of two syllables is stressed on the first syllable.

- In words of more than two syllables:

  
  \[ \diamond \]  the last syllable but one (penultimate) is stressed if it is a long syllable (see next section).
◊ if the last syllable but one is a short syllable, the syllable before it (antepenultimate, third from the end, last but two) is stressed.

1.4.2 A long syllable is a syllable containing:

◊ a long vowel
◊ a diphthong
or
◊ any vowel followed by more than one consonant.

A short syllable is a syllable containing a short vowel followed by no more than one consonant.

1.4.3 So how does this work in practice? The following procedure will enable you to stress any word on the correct syllable:

1. How many syllables are there in the word?
   • One: stress it
   • Two: stress the first syllable
   • Three: go to section 2.

So: tenet virus minus tuba tuber all stressed on the first syllable.

2. Look at the last syllable but one. Is its vowel followed by two or more consonants?
   • Yes: stress it
   • No: go to section 3.

So: September November December referendum Augustus all stressed on last syllable but one.

*note:* some combinations of consonants, of which the most common are tr dr br, do not always count as two consonants for this purpose; so e.g. vértebra rather than vertébra.

3. Is the vowel of the last syllable but one long, short or a diphthong?
   • Long or diphthong: stress it
   • Short: stress the syllable before.

So: October senátor vertígo vagina províso stressed on last syllable but one
radius minimum médium vácuum uvula fórmula versátile stressed on last syllable but two.

1.4.4 To determine the length of vowels (and hence the correct pronunciation) from the position of the stress, if the word has three syllables or more:

1. Is the last syllable but one stressed?
   • No: its vowel must be short.
   • Yes: go to section 2.
So: rádīus mínimum médium vácuum uvula fórmula versátile have short vowel in last syllable but one.

2. Is the vowel of the last syllable but one followed by two or more consonants?
   • No: the vowel must be a long vowel or diphthong. So: October senátor vertígo vagina províso have long vowels in last syllable but one.
Yes: you cannot tell the length of the vowel, unless it is a diphthong. This is what is called a ‘hidden
quantity’. In e.g. September November December referendum Augustus you can’t tell the length of the
vowel in the last syllable but one; in fact it is short in all these cases, but there are words in which it is long,
such as actus act, properly pronounced ‘ahktus’. The pronunciation of the English derivative is no guide.
English people, even classicists, often get hidden quantities wrong, and it does not matter greatly.

Isn’t all this a bit complicated? Do we really need it?

When you have understood it, it will turn out to be simpler than you think. Just listen to the
way your teacher pronounces the words and see how the rules work in practice. As a matter
of fact, lots of people, even some professional classicists, go through life stressing Latin
terms wrongly. But if you want to do it the right way, this is the way to do it.

Practice

Read aloud the following words in Latin with correct stress (relevant quantities are marked):

addenda dictător aquārium bācillus vertīgo currīcūlum dētritus ēditōr ēdūcātor

Another Interlude: Anglicised forms of Latin names

Many Roman names appear unchanged in English, e.g. Romulus, Lucretia, Scipio, Cicero, Augustus, Julia, Antoninus Pius, Agrippa, Caligula. However, some have developed
Anglicised forms, especially names of authors. Often these arrived in English through a
twofold process: first the names were transmitted from late Latin into old French, and then
they came into English after the Norman Conquest. When dealing with Latin texts, we have
to learn to recognise them in their original forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English form</th>
<th>Original Latin form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Virgil</td>
<td>Vergilius (more authentic than Virgilius)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Horace</td>
<td>Horatius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Livy</td>
<td>Livius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Terence</td>
<td>Terentius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Juvenal</td>
<td>Iuvenalis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Martial</td>
<td>Martialis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pliny</td>
<td>Plinius</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vespasian</td>
<td>Vespasianus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Quite a few common English given names are Roman in origin, e.g. Mark (Marcus),
Ant(h)ony (Antonius) and its abbreviation Tony, Emily (Aemilia), Celia (Cælia).
Revision of pronunciation

Read aloud:

i. Names of months. These are as in English, except that the endings are different in some cases.

Januarius Februarius Martius Aprilis Maius Iunius
Iulius or Quintilis
Augustus or Sextilis
September October November December

   note The Roman year originally started in March; hence Quintilis was the fifth month, and so on until December.

ii. Signs of the Zodiac (Greek zodiakos ‘made up of animals’):

Aries Taurus Gemini Cancer Leo Virgo Libra
Scorpio (or Scorpius) Sagittarius Capricornus Aquarius Pisces

   note These are all ordinary Latin words for the animals, persons or objects they represent, with the exception of capricornus which occurs only as the name of the constellation.

iii. Roman gods and goddesses:

Iuppiter Iuno Diana Minerva Venus Mars Neptunus Mercurius Saturnus Vulcanus
Apollo

   note Some of these have slightly different forms in English, often without the ending: Jupiter Juno Neptune Mercury Saturn Vulcan. The five planets known in ancient times are called after five of these gods and goddesses; the others, discovered much more recently, are Uranus named after the Greek sky-god, Neptune, and Pluto, one of the names of the Greek god of the underworld (whom the Romans called either Orcus or Dis Pater – Dis means ‘wealthy’ in Latin and Pluto means ‘god of wealth’ in Greek). Apollo is associated with the Sun, Diana with the Moon. It is now easy to see why a hypothetical or fictional planet was called Vulcan.

iv. The first sixteen Roman emperors:

Augustus, Tiberius, Gaius (known as Caligula), Claudius, Nero
Galba, Otho, Vitellius
Vespasianus, Titus, Domitianus
Nerva, Traianus, Hadrianus, Antoninus Pius, Marcus Aurelius

v. The Lord’s Prayer in Latin (with word-for-word interlinear ‘translation’):

Pater noster, qui es in caelis,
Father our, who are in heavens,
sanctificetur nomen tuum,
may-(it)-be-sanctified name your,
veniat regnum tuum,
may-(it)-come kingdom your,
fiat voluntas tua, sicut in caelo, et in terra.
may-(it)-be-done will your, just-as in heaven, also in earth.
Panem nostrum cotidianum da nobis hodie,
Bread our daily give to-us today,
et dimitte nobis debita nostra,
and let-off for-us debts our,
sic ut et nos dimittimus debitoribus nostris.
just-as also we let-off for-debtors our.
Et ne nos inducas in tentationem,
And not us lead-in into temptation,
sed libera nos a malo.
but free us from evil.

(a) Read the Latin text aloud.

(b) Notice the ways in which the word order differs from ordinary English. Can you formulate a rule about the usual position of the Latin words for ‘our’ and ‘your’ (the so-called possessives) with respect to the words they go with? (Do not worry at the moment about the different endings – noster/nostra/nostrum/nostris and tuum/tua. All will become clear as we go on.)

(c) Some of the words in the Lord’s Prayer would appear in different forms in a Latin dictionary; e.g. caelis would appear as caelum, panem as panis (the reasons will become apparent very soon). Find the following words in a Latin dictionary:

- pater caelum nomen regnum voluntas terra panis debitum tentatio or temptatio

(both spellings possible)

There should be no surprises in the meanings you find, but sometimes alternative meanings may be given.

(d) What English words can you think of that derive from the above words?

END OF UNIT 1
UNIT 2

Some examples of real Latin

2.1 Latin inscriptions; grammar of simple sentences

2.1.1 Classical Latin – the language of the Romans from the beginnings to the fifth century AD – survives by two main routes:

(a) Classical literature survives in manuscript copies, which are the sources used by modern editors. Few of these manuscripts date from the classical period, and even when they do, they are usually much later than the texts they contain; so for example the earliest extant complete copy of Virgil’s Aeneid (published soon after Virgil’s death in 19 BC) dates from the fourth century AD. Most manuscripts of classical authors date from the ninth century AD (the Carolingian period) or later.

(b) Actual remains of Latin from the classical period consist of monumental inscriptions (official or not) on stone and metal, graffiti (such as those of Pompeii), papyri from Roman Egypt, wooden tablets containing the remains of Roman letters or official documents (as at Vindolanda near Hadrian’s Wall, or at Pompeii), religious dedications and curses written on various objects (e.g. the collections of lead curse tablets from various locations in the Roman empire including the temple of Sulis Minerva at Bath), and so on.

The study of inscriptions is a complex specialism in itself, and this is not a course in Roman Epigraphy; but inscriptional material is a good place to begin the study of Latin, because inscriptions are often linguistically quite simple. The inscriptions used in this Unit are taken from L. Keppie, Understanding Roman Inscriptions (London 1991, reissued 2001) which will tell you more about their context.

2.1.2 Take for example the following, which is the inscription over the entrance to the Pantheon in Rome:

M. AGRIPPA COS. TERTIUM FECIT

Like most Latin inscriptions, this contains abbreviations, M. for Marcus and cos. for consul. If written out in full it would look like this:

MARCUS AGRIPPA CONSUL TERTIUM FECIT.

Practice Read this aloud in correct Latin pronunciation.

Even without knowing any Latin, you can probably work out that the first three words mean ‘Marcus Agrippa, consul’. What then about tertium and fecit? You may be able to guess that tertium has something to do with the number three (cf. English ‘tertiary’) and in fact it means ‘for the third time’: Agrippa was consul for the third time when the original building (not the one we now have but its predecessor) was erected.

Now for fecit. So far the inscription has specified who built the temple; but we need a word for ‘built’ or ‘constructed’ to complete the sense, and this is it. In fact, fecit means ‘made’.

Note Unlike its English equivalent it does not imply that Agrippa actually built the thing with his own hands. But often in this position one would find the abbreviation f.c. which stands for faciendum curavit ‘arranged for it to be made’.

So the inscription means ‘Marcus Agrippa, consul for the third time, made’??
Yes.

*Isn’t there something a bit odd about that? Made what?*

The answer is something like ‘made this building’. Latin tends not to express things which are obvious from the context, the ‘context’ in this case being the building that carries the inscription.

VERBS, NOUNS, SUBJECTS, AND OBJECTS

2.1.3 Let us now take the opportunity for a little grammar, as applied to this inscription:

- Words which denote actions are called VERBS (derived from the Latin word *verbum* which means simply a ‘word’; the application of this term to a specific kind of word is the result of a mistranslation from the Greek technical term *rhema*). Every complete sentence must contain a verb, either expressed or understood. In this inscription, the verb is *fecit*, ‘made’.

  *Note:* A verb in Latin is usually a single word, but it is common for English verbs to be made up of more than one word, e.g. ‘she *goes* away’. These are called ‘phrasal verbs’. The Latin for ‘goes away’ is a single word – *abit*, made up of *ab-* ‘from, away’ and *it* ‘goes’. Many English verbs also involve an ‘auxiliary verb’ (to be or to have) plus another word, e.g. ‘I *have arrived*’, ‘anticies are sold here’. Again, Latin typically uses a single word for these combinations: *adveni* I have arrived, *venduntur* are sold. More about those later on.

- Words denoting persons or things are called NOUNS. The word derives ultimately from Latin *nomen* a name, and in this inscription one of the nouns actually is a name, *Marcus Agrippa*. The word *consul*, which refers to Agrippa, is also a noun. Nouns that are names of *types* of person or thing (like ‘man’, woman’, ‘consul’, ‘dog’, ‘book’) are called ‘common nouns’. Nouns that uniquely name one person, place, thing or group (like ‘Marcus Agrippa’, ‘Cleopatra’, ‘London’, ‘the Eiffel Tower’, ‘the Romans’) are called ‘proper nouns’ or ‘proper names’ and are written in English, and in modern Latin conventions, with a capital letter. There are also ‘abstract nouns’ which denote ideas such as ‘beauty’ or ‘anger’.

- The word or phrase which denotes the person or thing who performs the action is called the SUBJECT of the verb. In this sentence, the subject is *Marcus Agrippa*.

- The person or thing affected by the action – in this case the building – is called the OBJECT of the verb. When you wanted to know what Agrippa claimed to have made, in grammatical terms you wanted to know the *object* of the verb *fecit*. In this sentence the object is not expressed, but understood from the context. It could have been expressed e.g. by the phrase *hoc templum* this temple.

  *Note* A verb like *fecit* ‘made’ which calls for an object is called ‘transitive’. A verb like ‘walks’ or ‘sleeps’ which does not have an object is called ‘intransitive’. (Some verbs can be either, according to the context, but most are fundamentally one or the other. Take the imaginary verb ‘I snozzle’. If you can ask sensibly ‘who or what do you snozzle?’ then the verb is transitive. If you can’t, then it is intransitive.)

Practice

(i) Identify the subjects, verbs and objects in the following English sentences:
The dog bit the man.
The man bit the dog.
I love you.
I teach Latin.
You teach me.
She teaches him Latin.
Can you see me?
Give the book to me.
Give me the book.
Peas I like, but beans I can’t stand.
This I can understand well, but the other thing I can’t make head or tail of.

(ii) The normal word order in English is subject first, then verb, then object. With reference to the above examples and any others you can think of, see if you can work out when and why English sentences depart from that rule.

*note* You will find this very useful later when you come to deal with word order in Latin.

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### 2.2 How nouns change their endings in Latin: Cases

2.2.1 One of the most important features of Latin grammar is that the endings of nouns change according to the function of the noun in the sentence – subject, object, or whatever.

In English we are quite used to the endings of words changing, but basically we have only four different forms for nouns:

- the basic form such as *man, dog*. This denotes one person or thing and is called ‘singular’.
- the plural form which denotes more than one person or thing, e.g. *men, dogs*. This is most often formed by adding –*s*, but sometimes in other ways (such as changing the vowel from ‘man’ to ‘men’).
- the possessive form, which denotes that the person or thing referred to is the owner of something; this is formed in the singular by adding –*’s*, e.g. *man’s, dog’s*.
- the possessive plural, e.g. *men’s, dogs*.

The difference between singular and plural is called, not surprisingly, a difference of NUMBER.

The difference between the basic form and the possessive is called a difference of CASE. A noun with the possessive ending –*’s* is said to be ‘in the possessive case’. Latin has not only a case to denote possession, but also different cases for the subject and object of verbs, and for other purposes as well.

*note* This has little to do with other meanings of the word ‘case’, but is a translation from the Greek *ptosis* which means ‘falling’ (Latin *casus* ‘falling’). The ordinary, dictionary form of a noun was envisaged as standing upright, and other cases such as the possessive were thought of as slanting or falling away from it. Strange, but apparently true.

2.2.2 Latin has far more changes of ending than English. For example, you may remember from Unit 1 how the word *noster* ‘our’ kept changing its form in the Lord’s Prayer. It did so for good grammatical reasons, and from now on these changes of ending will become increasingly important. You were allowed to ignore them in Unit 1, but not any more!
As we just saw, English nouns generally have four separate forms (at least in writing). Most Latin nouns have about nine separate forms (some have one or two more, some fewer). Latin nouns change their endings to mark both number (singular or plural) and case. Six cases (plus occasionally a seventh) are recognised in Latin; we shall learn what they are in due course.

That gives a theoretical maximum of fourteen forms …?

True, but there is no Latin noun that has all fourteen. For example, the elusive seventh case (the so-called Locative) is found chiefly in place-names; but place-names almost never have both singular and plural forms. They are either singular, like Rome or London, or plural, like Athens or Pompeii.

How about London, England and London, Ontario? Can’t you say there are two Londons?

Not in Latin. You would have to say ‘two cities called by the name London’. The Romans were sometimes relentlessly logical …

And what did you mean by saying that Athens is plural?

The –s is a plural ending. The ancient Athenians themselves called it Athenai which is plural in Greek, and the Romans took over the name as Athenae, also plural.
(However, Modern Greek has changed this, rather more logically, to a singular form Athena.)

Furthermore, most Latin nouns have pairs of cases which share the same form. For example, the form Agrippae means, according to context, either ‘of Agrippa’ or ‘to Agrippa’. These are different cases, but there is no difference in the form. You will shortly find out how to interpret these potentially ambiguous forms.

In traditional Latin courses, one was made to learn a lot of tables of endings, with only the sketchiest explanation of what the different endings actually meant when you found them in texts. It is better (especially for those past the age of 15 or so, when the capacity for rote learning starts to decline) to build up knowledge and understanding step by step, gradatim et pedetemptim ‘step by step and trying with the feet’, as the Romans would say. Let us look first at some simple examples.

Example of the Genitive Case

2.2.3 A bath at Pompeii carries an inscription which begins:

THERMAE M. CRASSI

Thermae means ‘(hot) baths’ (a Greek word in origin; cf. ‘thermometer’). The man who owned this particular bathing establishment was called Marcus Crassus. But his name appears in the inscription as M(arci) Crassi.

This is the form used for what is called the GENITIVE. The genitive case is used where, in English, we would use the word ‘of’. So Thermae M. Crassi means ‘the baths of Marcus Crassus’. The genitive form of Crassus is Crassi.

The genitive is a bit like the English possessive ending in ‘s. The possessive in English, however, can only come before the noun it describes: we say ‘John’s book’, not ‘book John’s’. But the Latin genitive usually comes after the noun it describes; ‘John’s book’ would be liber Johannis. Sometimes, however, for emphasis, it can come before: M. Crassi thermae would mean Crassus’s baths as opposed to someone else’s.

And now here is a nice, simple, straightforward rule of Latin grammar:
**Rule:** In general, if a Latin name ends in –us, its genitive will end in –i.

**Practice** (a) Form the genitive of these emperors:
Augustus, Titus, Traianus, Hadrianus, Antoninus Pius, Verus, Commodus, Marcus Aurelius, Constantinus.

(b) The title page of volumes in the Oxford Classical Texts series is always in Latin and has the author’s name in the genitive followed by the name of the work or a general heading like carmina ‘poems’, opera omnia ‘complete works’, epistulae ‘letters’. In the OUP catalogue or by referring to the books themselves, find the Latin for:
Catullus’ poems, Ovid’s Amores, Pliny’s Letters, Homer’s works, Livy’s Ab Urbe Condita.

**note** When there is an unstressed i before the genitive ending, as is the case with the many Roman names ending in –ius, the resulting double i usually contracts into a single i: so the genitives of Lucius, Gaius, Publius, Cornelius, Tullius, Iulius (=Julius) are Luci, Gai, Publi, Corneli, Tulli, Iuli (=Juli).

**note** Like most rules this doesn’t work for every instance. There are names ending in -us which form their genitive a different way. For example, the genitive of Venus (the goddess or the planet) is – for reasons that will become clear later on – not *Veni* but Veneris. But let us for the moment keep things simple!

---

**Example of the Dative Case**

2.2.4 The base of the column of Antoninus Pius in Rome (the column itself no longer exists) reads as follows:

DIVO ANTONINO AUG. PIO ANTONINUS AUGUSTUS ET VERUS AUGUSTUS FILII

Antoninus Augustus (i.e. Marcus Aurelius Antoninus) and Verus Augustus (Lucius Verus) are the two co-emperors, both sons (filii) of the deceased and now deified (divo) emperor Antoninus Pius. Their names end (like those others we have seen) in -us. But what has happened to the name of their father? We know that his name was Antoninus Pius. Here, however, he appears as Antonino Pio. What is going on?

The answer is that the name is in a different case, called the DATIVE. The dative is used in Latin where, in English, we would use the words ‘to’ or ‘for’. Antonino Pio means ‘to Antoninus Pius’ or ‘for Antoninus Pius’. The dative form of Antoninus is Antonino; the dative of Pius is Pio.

The whole inscription therefore means ‘To the deified Antoninus Augustus Pius, Antoninus Augustus and Verus Augustus, sons’.

**note** Again you will notice that Latin inscriptions pare everything down to the essentials. We would say ‘his sons’, but to a Roman it is obvious that they are his, and no word for ‘his’ is necessary here. To bring out the full sense we would have to insert something like ‘dedicated this column’, but again this was obvious from the fact that the column stood above the inscription. A Roman reader would not need to be told what it was that the two emperors did for their father; this could nevertheless have been expressed, if preferred, in the words hanc columnam dedicaverunt ‘dedicated this column’.

**Rule:** In general, Roman names ending in –us form their Dative case in –o. So:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Dative</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Marcus</td>
<td>dative</td>
<td>Marco ‘to/for Marcus’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Publius</td>
<td>dative</td>
<td>Publio ‘to/for Publius’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Augustus dative Augusto ‘to/for Augustus’

and so on.

*note* If you know Spanish or Italian, you will have noticed that the names that end in –us in Latin all end in –o in the modern languages. This is because of sound changes that happened in late Latin and has nothing directly to do with the Latin dative case.

2.2.5 Let us now set this out more formally:

- Most Roman proper names of males end in –US. This is the form by which we in English refer to the people concerned and it is the form found in a dictionary. It is the form used for the subject of a verb, as in *Antoninus fecit* ‘Antoninus made’. Words in this form are said to be in the NOMINATIVE case, which means the ‘naming’ case – the case we use when just naming the individual concerned.

- Male names which end in –US have a GENITIVE form which ends in –I (long i). For example, the genitive of *Antoninus* would be *Antonini*. This would mean ‘of Antoninus’.

- These names also have a DATIVE form which ends in –O (long o). The dative of *Antoninus* is *Antonino*, meaning ‘to Antoninus’.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Ending</th>
<th>Meaning or function</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>-US</td>
<td>dictionary form; subject of verb</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>-I</td>
<td>‘of’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>-O</td>
<td>‘to’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These are three of the six (or seven) different ‘cases’ of the Latin noun; we shall leave the others until a bit later.

*Exercise*

Look at the following inscriptions or extracts from inscriptions, identify the case of the underlined words, and explain why they are in that form (the meaning of the inscription is given).

**Imp. Caes. Traiani Hadriani Augusti leg. II Aug. A. Platorio Nepote leg. pr. pr.**
The Emperor Caesar Trajan Hadrian Augustus’s [i.e. Hadrian’s] second legion, called Augusta, under the command of Aulus Platorius Nepos, pro-praetorian legate, [built this wall].

**Senatus populusque Romanus divo Tito divi Vespasiani filio Vespasiano Augusto**
The Senate and People of Rome [erected this, i.e. the Arch of Titus] to the deified Titus Vespasianus Augustus, son of the deified Vespasian.

**Augusto sacrum A. A. Lucii A. filii Men. Proculus et Iulianus p.s.**
Aulus Lucius Proculus and Aulus Lucius Iulianus, sons of Aulus Lucius [lit. Aulus and Aulus, Luciuses, sons of Aulus, Proculus and Iulianus] of the tribe Menenia, at their own expense, [built this] shrine to Augustus.

**Deo invicto L. Antonius Proculus praef. coh. I. Bat. … v.s.l.m.**
Lucius Antonius Proculus, prefect of the first cohort of Batavians, paid his vow willingly and deservedly to the Unconquered God [from a temple of Mithras on Hadrian’s Wall]

Revision

You need to be quite clear on what is meant by the following technical terms:

Noun  
Verb  
Subject  
Object  
Singular  
Plural  
Case  
Nominative  
Genitive  
Dative

If you are at all unclear about any of these, go back over this section.

2.3 Classifying Latin nouns

THE FIVE DECLENSIONS

2.3.1 We now have to introduce a further complexity. Not all Latin nouns form their cases in the same way; just as, for example, not all English nouns form their plural in the same way (e.g. book – books; bus – buses; ox – oxen; goose – geese). There are, in fact, five main patterns, which are called DECLENSIONS (‘declension’ is also the name for the process of ‘declining’ nouns, i.e. changing the endings of nouns to form the cases – Dative, Genitive and the rest – and to form plurals). In grammar books, nouns are grouped according to the declension they follow and so the declension can easily be identified. Not so in dictionaries, however; when you look up a noun in a dictionary, you also need to use the information provided by the dictionary to work out which declension the noun belongs to (and to check that you have got the right noun).

One of the most reliable ways of identifying the declension of a noun is by looking at the form of the Genitive Singular. There are precisely five ways of forming the Genitive Singular of a Latin noun* and they correspond precisely to the five declensions. So, if I have told you the declension of a noun (numbered from one to five) you can predict its Genitive; and if I have told you the Genitive, you can predict its declension. Or will be able to, once you have looked at this table:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Declension</th>
<th>Genitive Singular ends in</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>First</td>
<td>–ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Second</td>
<td>–i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Third</td>
<td>–is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fourth</td>
<td>–ūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fifth</td>
<td>–ei</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*N.B. This does not include words borrowed from Greek, which sometimes show different forms. We shall protect you from these for the moment!

For the moment, we can postpone the Fourth and Fifth Declensions. Concentrate on familiarising yourself with the Genitive forms in the first three declensions, as in the following examples:
• ‘First Declension’. Nominative ends in –a; Genitive ends in –ae
e.g. Agrippa Agrippa; Agrippae Agrippa’s; of Agrippa.

• ‘Second Declension’. Nominative ends in –us; Genitive ends in –i.
e.g. Antoninus Antoninus; Antonini Antoninus’s; of Antoninus.

• ‘Third Declension’. Nominative has no particular ending; Genitive ends in –is.
e.g. consul consul; consulis consul’s; of the consul.

It is particularly important to remember the Genitive forms and their use as a key to identifying the declension. The reason is that many dictionaries use the Genitive ending in this way. You will find dictionary entries looking like this:

mensa, -ae a table
gladius, -i a sword
mulier, -is a woman.

The headword is the Nominative form. It is then followed by the ending (just the ending!) of the Genitive Singular. From the Genitive Singular you can predict the declension to which the noun belongs, and hence (as we shall see in due course) the rest of the case endings.

Not all dictionaries are clear on how to form the actual Genitive using the ending they provide. This is because they assume that you know! In fact, when you have become familiar with the five declensions, you will know. For the moment, note that in the first and second declensions the Genitive ending is substituted for the ending of the Nominative: so nominative mens-a ‘table’, genitive mens-ae ‘table’s’ / ‘of a table’. Nominative gladi-us ‘sword’, genitive gladi-i ‘sword’s’ / ‘of a sword’.

In the Third Declension nouns we have so far met, the Genitive ending is added on to the Nominative form: nominative mulier ‘woman’; genitive mulier-is ‘woman’s’ / ‘of a woman’. (But other Third Declension nouns follow different patterns, as we shall soon see. Don’t worry about this for now.)

2.3.2 The Dative endings of the first three declensions are as follows:

• First Declension: Dative ends in –ae (identical with the Genitive)
Agrippae can mean either ‘of Agrippa’ or ‘to Agrippa’.

• Second declension: Dative ends in –o.
Antonino ‘to Antoninus’

• Third declension: Dative ends in –i.
consuli ‘to the consul’.

2.3.3 There are two potential problems here.

(a) How can you tell whether ‘Agrippae’ is genitive or dative?

You can only tell by looking at the rest of the sentence.
• If a sentence reads ‘this is Agrippae book’, it will mean ‘this is Agrippa’s book’.
• If it reads ‘I gave it Agrippae’, it means ‘I gave it to Agrippa’.
There is rarely any real ambiguity.

(b) It looks as though –i can be either a genitive or a dative ending. How do I tell which it is?
Here not only the context will help you, but also any information you have about the declension the word belongs to.

- If the word is second declension, and its nominative ends in -us, then the form ending in -i will be the genitive.
- If the word is third declension, then the form ending in -i will be the dative. The genitive would end in -is.

**How do you tell what declension a word belongs to, if you come across it in the genitive or dative?**

If you don’t know the word already, try to find it in the dictionary. When you have found it, the dictionary will give you the Nominative form first, followed by either a number denoting the declension, or the ending of the genitive singular, from which you can tell the declension, or both.

**Example 1** You find Caesari in an inscription and want to know whether this means ‘of Caesar’ or ‘to Caesar’. Look up Caesar in the dictionary (assuming that it lists proper names): you will find something along the lines of Caesar, -is (3) Caesar. You know from both the -is and the (3) that the name is third declension; so you can deduce that Caesari is dative and means ‘to Caesar’. All third declension nouns have dative ending -i; and if you find that ending on a third-declension noun, you can be sure that it is a dative ending.

**Example 2** You find Taenari in an ode of Horace. Genitive or dative? Try the dictionary, where you will find the nominative Taenarus. So it is second declension, and the form with -i must be genitive. It means ‘of Taenarus’ (Taenarus is a cave in the neighbourhood of Sparta which was supposed to be an entrance to the underworld).

---

**Exercise**

Using the dictionary, say whether the following noun forms are nominative, genitive or dative. Say which declension each belongs to. If the form is genitive or dative, give the nominative form as found in the dictionary. If two cases are possible, give both. Give the meaning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Caesaris</th>
<th>mulieri</th>
<th>Augusto</th>
<th>Cerberus</th>
<th>agricolae</th>
<th>animali</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>puella</td>
<td>canis</td>
<td>Scipio</td>
<td>consulis</td>
<td>Hadriani</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*note 1* Not everything ending in -o is dative: -o is also a possible 3rd-declension nominative ending.

*note 2* There is no word in Latin corresponding to ‘a’ or ‘the’, so you often have to put these in when translating, according to the context. Where there is no context, you can choose randomly!

---

**Revision**

Learn these patterns:

**First Declension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>puella</th>
<th>girl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>puellae</td>
<td>of a girl; girl’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>puellae</td>
<td>to a girl</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Second Declension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>servus</td>
<td>slave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>servi</td>
<td>of a slave; slave’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>servo</td>
<td>to a slave</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third Declension

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>consul</td>
<td>consul</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>consulis</td>
<td>of a consul; consul’s</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>consuli</td>
<td>to a consul</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercise

In the following sentences, every word but one is in English. Identify the case of the Latin word and give the meaning of the whole sentence.

**Consul** made a speech in the Senate.
The speech **Augusti** was badly received.
The senators resolved not to erect a monument **Lucullo**.
I read **Caesari** account of the Gallic war.
The war was very useful **Caesari** but not for the Gauls.
**Puellae** I gave a toy elephant.
**Puellae** toy elephant fell down the drain.
**Antonio** Cleopatra sent a letter.
The letter **Cleopatrae** arrived very late.
The reply **Antoni** took even longer.

END OF UNIT 2
UNIT 3

3.1 The verb ‘to be’ in Latin

3.1.1 The moment for introductions is probably long past, but if we wanted to, we might do it like this:

**Quis es?** Who are you?
**Ego sum ...** I am ... 
**Hic est ...** This is ... (referring to a man).
**Haec est ...** This is ... (referring to a woman).

*note* Question-words in Latin mostly begin with *qu-* , like *wh-* in English:

- *quis?* who?
- *quid?* what?

**Practice**

Ask your neighbour’s name in Latin (**quis es?**); the neighbour to respond (**ego sum ...** ).

Then introduce the neighbour on the right to the neighbour on the left (or vice versa) using **Hic est ...** or **Haec est ...** as appropriate.

*note* You may wish to use the Latin forms of names, e.g.

- **Iohannes** John
- **Petrus** Peter
- **Carolus** Charles
- **Marcus** Mark
- **Maria** Mary
- **Iohanna** Jane
- **Iulia** Julia
- **Elisabetha** Elizabeth

Your teacher may be persuaded to provide a complete set of Latin names for use in class ...

N.B. If you use Latin names for addressing people, you will need to use the Vocative forms for the second declension: **-us** changes to **-e** (**Petre, Carole**), and **-ius** to **-i**.

The Vocative is a form used for addressing people: **Marce, veni! Marcus, come (here)!** contrasted with **Marcus venit** Marcus is coming. The only Latin nouns that have a special form for the Vocative, however, are those of the second declension ending in **-us** (or **-ius**). In other native Latin nouns, the Vocative is identical with the Nominative and can therefore be ignored. Names of Greek origin often have a separate form for the Vocative, e.g. **Aenea Aeneas**!

3.1.2 The above examples contain forms of the Latin word ‘to be’ corresponding to English ‘am’, ‘are’, ‘is’. The forms are as follows and should be learnt immediately:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>sum</strong></td>
<td>I am</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>es</strong></td>
<td>you are (one person)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>est</strong></td>
<td>he/she/it is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>sumus</strong></td>
<td>we are</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>estis</strong></td>
<td>you are (more than one person)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>sunt</strong></td>
<td>they are</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PERSONAL PRONOUNS

3.1.3 What has happened to the words for ‘I’, ‘you’, etc.?

They are not always expressed in Latin. The form of the word for ‘be’ is enough to show who is referred to, as in the kind of English used on telegrams or postcards where space is at a premium (e.g. ‘Am enjoying holiday, was glad to hear you are well, will be home Thursday, please feed cat’).

Technically Latin is what is called a ‘pro-drop’ language: it likes to drop these words (the PRONouns) when it can.

However, these words – called the ‘personal pronouns’ – may be expressed for clarity or emphasis. They are as follows:

**ego** I
**tu** you
**is** he, **ea** she, **id** it

**nos** we
**vos** you
**ei** they (men), **eae** they (women), **ea** they (things)

*note* We distinguish between genders only in the singular (he, she, it); Latin does so in the plural (they) as well.

Here are the personal pronouns combined with the verb ‘to be’:

**ego sum** I am
**tu es** you are
**is est** he is; **ea est** she is; **id est** it is (or: that is)

**nos sumus** we are
**vos estis** you are
**ei sunt** they are (masc.); **eae sunt** they are (fem.); **ea sunt** they are (neut.)

*note* **id est** often used to introduce an explanation or definition; sometimes written as one word: **idest** ‘that is’. (Now you know what *i.e.* stands for!)

3.1.4 Now all we need is a few nouns, and we can make up a number of sentences.

**Quis es?** Who are you?
**Professor sum** I am the professor
**Magister es** You are the teacher (male)
**Magistra sum** I am the teacher (female)
**Discipulus sum** I am a student (male)
**Discipula es** You are a student (female)
**Cicero orator est** (or: **Orator est Cicero**) Cicero is an orator
**Quid est nomen tuum?** What is your name?
**Nomen meum est** … My name is …

3.1.5 Adding nouns in the Genitive, we can increase our range further:

**Consulis est** It is the consul’s (it belongs to the consul)
**Puellae est** It is the girl’s (it belongs to the girl)
**Philosophi est** It is the philosopher’s (it belongs to the philosopher)
Note how important it is to look at the ending – otherwise how would you distinguish **consul est** ‘it is the consul’ from **consulis est** ‘it is the consul’s’? Here English behaves exactly like Latin, so it is a good example to start with.

3.1.6 At this point, too, we begin to see something of the flexibility of Latin word order. For ‘I am X’, Latin can say any of the following:

- **X sum**
- **Sum X**
- **Ego sum X**
- **Ego X sum**.

The differences are largely concerned with emphasis. Basically the rule is that the word that comes immediately before the verb ‘to be’ is the most emphatic; if the verb ‘to be’ is the first word in the sentence then it is itself emphasised.

3.1.7 As noted in passing already, Latin does not use a word corresponding to ‘the’ or ‘a’.

**Examples**

- **ego sum professor** means either ‘I am the professor’ or ‘I am a professor’, according to context.
- **discipulus sum** means ‘I am a student’ or (if there is only one student present) ‘I am the student’.

### Exercise

Translate into English using the dictionary where necessary:

- **Imperator sum.**
- **Caesar imperator est.**
- **Exercitus Caesaris est.**
- **Philosophus est Socrates.**
- **Tu es Petrus.**
- **Quis est advena?**
- **Quis es, advena?**
- **Ego sum Ulixes.**
- **Quis est Ulixes?**
- **Ulixes est rex Ithacae, maritus Penelopae, pater Telemachi.**
- **Ergo tu es Odysseus!**

3.2 The plural of nouns: how to talk about more than one person or thing

3.2.1 The **PLURAL** is the form denoting more than one; in English it is usually formed by adding **–s**. The following are the most common plural forms in Latin (in the nominative case):

- First declension:  
  - **discipula** a student (female)  
  - **discipulae** students (female)
• Second declension:

  discipulus a student (male)
  discipuli students (male)

• Third declension:

  professor a professor
  professores professors

  note The plural of the third declension is almost like English (cf. bus, buses). Those of the first and second declensions may well be familiar to you in technical or scientific contexts. Perhaps you have come across, for example, the following:

  larva larvae    pupa pupae    alga algae
  radius radii    genius genii   locus loci   focus foci

 3.2.2 Now we can combine the plural of nouns with the plural forms of the verb ‘to be’:

  Qui estis? Nos sumus discipuli  Who are you? We are students.
  Ei sunt professores  They are professors.

 3.2.3 Latin is pedantic in distinguishing between singular ‘you’ and plural ‘you’, and between singular ‘who’ and plural ‘who’, whereas in English we use the same word for singular and plural (though we do distinguish between ‘who is?’ and ‘who are?’):

  tu es   you are (one person)
  vos estis you are (more than one person)

  quis es?  who are you? (one person)
  qui estis? who are you? (more than one person)

  quis est? who is he/she? who is it?
  qui sunt? who are they?

 3.2.4 If you recall the Genitive forms from Unit 2, you will see that there is a potential ambiguity in the first and second declensions between the genitive singular and the nominative plural.

  note This is not too different from English, where the plural and the possessive often sound the same and differ in writing only by the presence or absence of an apostrophe: ‘dogs’ (plural) versus ‘dog’s’ (possessive singular).

Again, the context will resolve it. It is particularly important to keep an eye on the form of the verb. If there is a nominative plural in the sentence, the verb has to be plural in order to link up with it. If the verb is singular, there cannot be a nominative plural and your form in –i or –ae has to be genitive or dative.
Practice

Translate:
hi homines (these men) philosophi sunt
pallium (the cloak) philosophi est
pera (the handbag) puellae est
in atrio (in the courtyard) puellae sunt

GENITIVE AND DATIVE PLURAL

3.2.5 Latin also has special endings for the Genitive and Dative Plural. These are as follows:

- First declension
  - Genitive puellarum of the girls
  - Dative puellís to the girls

- Second declension
  - Genitive servorum of the slaves
  - Dative servís to the slaves

- Third declension
  - Genitive consulum of the consuls
  - Dative consulibus to the consuls.

*note* The i in the genitive and dative plural of the first and second declensions is long. This contrasts with the short i of the genitive singular of the third declension, and of the nominative singular of some 3rd-decl. nouns which end in -is like canis dog. But since long vowels are not normally marked in writing, you have to get used to distinguishing dative plurals from forms of other nouns ending in -is. If the dictionary form ends in -us or -a, the form in -is will be the dative plural. If the dictionary form ends in -is, the form in -is is either the nominative or the genitive singular.

Exercise

Explain the case and number of the underlined words in the following inscriptions or extracts from inscriptions. Use the dictionary where necessary.

Aulus Cluentius Habitus praef. coh. I Batavorum
Aulus Cluentius Habitus, prefect of the first cohort of Batavians

Imp. Caesar divi Nervae filius Nerva Traianus Aug. fecit
Emperor Caesar Nerva Traianus Augustus [i.e. Trajan], son of the deified Nerva, built this

Divo Antonino Aug. Pio Antoninus Augustus et Verus Augustus filii
To the deified Antoninus Augustus Pius, Antoninus Augustus and Verus Augustus, his sons
Caeciliae Q. Cretici f. Metellae Crassi
To Caecilia Metella, daughter of Quintus Creticus, (wife) of Crassus

Fidei virtutique devotissimorum militum dominorum nostrorum Arcadi Honori et Theodosi perennium Augustorum
To the loyalty and courage of the most devoted soldiers of our lords Arcadius, Honorius and Theodosius, perpetually august.

3.3 ‘This’ and ‘that’ and other things; gender of nouns; neuter plural

3.3.1 We have already mentioned Quid? what?

Quid est hoc? What is this?

The Latin for ‘this’ varies for gender, just like ‘he, she, it’. We saw at the beginning of this Unit:

- hic this (referring to a man)
- haec this (referring to a woman)

and we now add:

- hoc this (referring to a thing).

3.3.2 The plural forms are:

- hi these (men)
- hae these (women)
- haec these (things).

*note* Do not be put off by the fact that the word for ‘this woman’ is the same as that for ‘these things’. The context will always distinguish them. Haec sunt these things are; haec est this woman is.

3.3.3 Many things that we would class as inanimate objects, and refer to as ‘it’, take the ‘he’ or ‘she’ forms in Latin. Cf. the English way of referring to a ship or other vehicle as ‘she’.

- Words that take the ‘he’ form are called MASCULINE NOUNS.
- Words that take the ‘she’ form are called FEMININE NOUNS.
- Words that take the ‘it’ form are called NEUTER NOUNS.

All Latin nouns are classified in this way according to their grammatical GENDER.

*Examples of masculine nouns denoting inanimate objects:*
- (hic) gladius (this) sword (cf. ‘gladiator’)
- (hic) liber (this) book (cf. ‘library’)
- (hic) adventus (this) arrival (cf. ‘advent’)

*Examples of feminine nouns denoting inanimate objects:*
- (haec) libra (this) pair of scales (cf. the sign of the Zodiac); pound (weight or money)
(haec) radix (this) root (cf. ‘radical’)
(haec) regio (this) region

Examples of neuter nouns:
(hoc) vinum (this) wine
(hoc) opus (this) work, task (as in ‘magnum opus’ and musical opus numbers)
(hoc) mare (this) sea (cf. ‘maritime’)

There is no particular reason why swords, books and arrivals should be masculine, or why scales, roots or regions should be feminine, or why wine, work and the sea should be neuter.

The gender of words denoting living creatures generally follows the natural gender (males are masculine, females feminine), the assignment of gender to words of other kinds is arbitrary, at least in terms of the meaning of the words.

It often varies from one language to another: thus in Latin, sol the sun is masculine and luna the moon is feminine; in German, however, die Sonne the sun is feminine, and der Mond the moon is masculine. Of course these facts can have effects beyond themselves: the Graeco-Roman mythology of Apollo the sun-god and Diana the moon-goddess was evidently invented by people in whose language the sun was masculine and the moon feminine.

In Latin, however, there is often a connection between the gender of a word and its form, or, more specifically, its declension. For example, first-declension nouns ending in –a are usually feminine, like regina queen, libra scales, cauda tail, toga a toga. But there are numerous exceptions: quite a few nouns denoting male persons end in -a but are still masculine (e.g. Agrippa Agrippa, agricola farmer). The relationship between declension and gender is not entirely simple, and the details are best left until later.

3.3.4 When answering the question ‘what is this’, the word for ‘this’ in the answer will vary according to the gender of the noun, and whether it is singular or plural.

Hic est liber This is a book
Haec est toga This is a toga
Hoc est animal This is an animal (the word animal is neuter though it denotes – indeed means – a living creature!)

And in the plural:

Hi sunt libri These are books
Hae sunt togae These are togas
Haec sunt animalia These are animals.

When the Sibyl tells Aeneas how difficult it is to get back from the Underworld, she says: hoc opus, hic labor est ‘this is the task, this is the labour’.

NEUTER NOUNS: FORMATION OF PLURAL

3.3.5 The plural of neuter nouns always ends in –a. You are probably familiar with some such plurals in English, though you may not have realised it before now, e.g.:

medium media (as in ‘the mass media’)
maximum maxima
addendum addenda
agendum agenda
erratum errata
genus genera
Many neuter nouns belong to the Second Declension and end in –um. To form the plural, subtract the –um and add –a:

- **ovum** egg, **ova** eggs

There are several common patterns in the Third Declension:

- **-us**, plural –era e.g. **opus** work, **opera** works
- **-e**, plural –ia e.g. **mare** sea, **maria** seas
- **-al**, plural –alia e.g. **animal** animal, **animalia** animals
- **-en**, plural –ina e.g. **nomen** name, **nomina** names.

3.3.6 Just for completeness at the moment, let us add the genitive and dative of neuter nouns. In fact there is not much new to learn here. Neuter nouns always follow the same pattern in the Genitive and Dative as the other nouns of their declension; so that once you have identified what declension they belong to, everything else follows.

Example of a neuter noun in the Second Declension:

- **ovum** egg
  - genitive singular **ovi**, dative singular **ovo**
  - genitive plural **ovorum**, dative plural **ovis**

In the Third Declension, the genitive and dative endings are added to the ‘stem’ of the noun, which you can obtain by cutting off the –a or –ia of the plural:

- **opus** work, task; plural **oper-a**
  - genitive singular **oper-is**, dative singular **oper-i**
  - genitive plural **oper-um**, dative plural **oper-ibus**

- **animal** animal; plural **animal-ia**
  - genitive singular **animal-is**, dative singular **animal-i**
  - genitive plural **animal-ium**, dative singular **animal-ibus**

  **note** When the nominative plural ends in –ia, the genitive plural ends in –ium.

Exercise

(i) Choose the correct form for ‘this is/these are’ with the following nouns:

- **gladiator** a gladiator
- **gladiatores** gladiators
- **mus** a mouse (masc.)
- **cubile** a bed
- **canis** a dog (masc.)
- **errata** mistakes
- **ovis** a sheep (fem.)
- **oves** sheep (plural)
- **ovum** an egg
- **cubilia** beds
- **libri** books
- **librae** pairs of scales
- **mater** a mother
sorores sisters

*note* You need to choose:
(a) a word for ‘this’ – **hic haec hoc hi** or **hae**
and
(b) a word for ‘is’ or ‘are’ – either **est** or **sunt**.

(ii) Translate, using the vocabulary list provided below:

**Hic est consul.**
**Hoc opus est consulis.**
**Haec est regina Britanniae.**
**Haec serva est reginae.**
**Haec est causa belli.**
**Hi sunt philosophi.**
**Liber est philosophi.**
**Libra est philosophi.**
**Libra est signum astrologorum.**

- **astrologus** astrolger
- **bellum** war
- **Britannia** Britain
- **causa** cause, reason
- **consul** consul
- **liber** book
- **libra** scales
- **opus** task
- **philosophus** philosopher
- **regina** queen
- **serva** slave (female)
- **signum** sign, constellation

END OF UNIT 3
UNIT 4

4.1 Commands

4.1.1 VENI – VIDE – VINCE the title of this course, is based on Caesar’s famous comment after the battle of Zela, ‘Veni, vidi, vici’ ‘I came, I saw, I won’. It means ‘Come – See – Win!’

These are examples of VERBS – ‘doing words’, words that express action.

*note* To test whether a word is a verb, put ‘I want to’ in front of it. I want to come – I want to see – I want to win. If it makes sense like that, the word is a verb. If it doesn’t, it is some other class of word. (‘I want to sheep’? no: ‘sheep’ is a noun. ‘I want to purple’? no: ‘purple’ is an adjective.) ‘To be’ is also a verb even though it conveys the idea of being, not doing.

4.1.2 The verbs VENI – VIDE – VINCE are in the form called the Imperative, used for giving commands (the word ‘imperative’ comes from *impero*, the Latin for ‘command’). The Imperative is a good place to start from when looking at Latin verbs, because it is generally one of the shortest and simplest forms, and you can make a sentence with it on its own.

**Veni!** Come here!
**I!** Go on! (yes, just ‘i!’)
**Abi!** Go away! (or: Get away with you!)
**Exi!** Go out!
**Redi!** Come back!
**Intra!** Come in!
**Conside!** Sit down!
**Surge!** Stand up!
**Sta!** Stand!
**Bibe!** Drink!
**Vide!** See!
**Ambula!** Walk!
**Curre!** Run!
**Cave!** Look out!
**Adiuva!** Help!!!!

In these verb forms, **a** and **e** in the last syllable but one are always long and always stressed. **i** in the last syllable but one can be long or short, depending on which verb it is.

**Practice**
Issue and carry out commands using the above words.

PLURAL IMPERATIVES

4.1.3 There is, as you may by now expect, a different form if you are addressing more than one person (the PLURAL form of the Imperative). The plural imperatives corresponding to the above are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vénite</th>
<th>Íte</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Intrae</td>
<td>Consēdite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vidēte</td>
<td>Ambulāte</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abīte</th>
<th>Exīte</th>
<th>Redīte</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Surgīte</td>
<td>Stāte</td>
<td>Bibīte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Currīte</td>
<td>Cavēte</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Remember to stress the long vowels in the last syllable but one, and not to stress the short ones in that position!

In these verb forms, **a** and **e** in the last syllable but one are always long and always stressed. **i** in the last syllable but one can be long or short, depending on which verb it is.

**Practice**
From the above examples, deduce the rule for deriving the plural imperative from the singular. [Answer on next page]
4.1.4 The Latin words for ‘hello’ and ‘goodbye’ are also imperatives:

Salve! Hello! (if addressing one person)
Salvete! (if addressing more than one person)

Vale! Goodbye! (if addressing one person)
Valete! (if addressing more than one)

They both originally meant something like ‘be well’ or ‘be healthy’. Cf. older English ‘hail!’ which meant ‘be healthy’ (the same word as ‘whole’; cf. ‘hale and hearty’).
(Note you know why a ‘valediction’ is so called.)

**Answer**

The rule is as follows:

If the singular imperative ends in a long vowel (-a –e –i) add –te
If the singular imperative ends in short –e, change the ending to –ite.

4.1.5 You will remember that nouns are classified in ‘declensions’. Verbs are classified in CONJUGATIONS, and the process of changing the ending of a verb to produce the different forms is called ‘conjugating’ the verb. There are four conjugations, characterised by the vowels to be found in the endings. You can always tell the conjugation of a verb from its Imperative:

- Verbs whose imperative ends in -ā -āte belong to the ‘First Conjugation’.
- Verbs whose imperative ends in -ē -ēte belong to the ‘Second Conjugation’.
- Verbs whose imperative ends in -ē -īte belong to the ‘Third Conjugation’.
- Verbs whose imperative ends in - i -īte belong to the ‘Fourth Conjugation’.

What does ‘conjugation’ mean?
It means joining. Presumably the early grammarians thought of joining the ending to the root of the verb (the root being the part that does not change when the ending changes). Biologists use the word to refer to another kind of joining (the joining of male and female cells in reproduction) and the word ‘conjugal’, to do with marriage, comes from the same root.

**REGULAR AND IRREGULAR VERBS**

4.1.6 A few (often very common) verbs do not belong to any of the four patterns; these are classified as ‘irregular’. The verb ‘to be’, which we have met, is one of these. Its imperative is either es! or esto!, plural este!.

Those which do follow one or other of the four patterns are called ‘regular’.

*note* ‘regular’ comes from Latin regula a rule; it implies that they follow a rule, whereas irregular ones don’t.
4.2 Objects of verbs: the accusative case

4.2.1 Now for some more verbs, still in the Imperative:

Scribe! Write!
Elue! Rub out! (lit. wash out) or Erade! Erase!
Pinge! Draw a picture of …!
Tolle! Pick up!
Cape! Take!
Lege! Read!

*note* All of these, as it happens, belong to the Third Conjugation.

4.2.2 And here are a few common ones which do not quite fit into the ordinary patterns:

Da! Give! pl. date
   This verb belongs basically to the First Conjugation but the a of date is short, not long.

Dic! Say! / Speak! / Tell! pl. dicite

Duc! Bring! (a person) (=Lead!) pl. ducite

Fac! Do! / Make! pl. facite
   These three verbs belong to the Third Conjugation in all respects, other than the absence of final -e in the singular imperative.

Fer! Bring! (a thing) (=Carry!) pl. ferfe
   This verb has no final -e in the singular and no -i- in the plural either.

4.2.3 There is something you may have noticed about the meaning of all the above verbs. They don’t make a great deal of sense on their own. Before one can act on them, one has to know what it is that one is being required to bring, take away, write, etc. In grammatical terms, they need an OBJECT: they are TRANSITIVE verbs.

THE ACCUSATIVE

4.2.4 There is a special case-form used to mark the object of a verb in Latin. It is called the ACCUSATIVE.

*note* There is no very sensible reason for this name: you just have to remember it. It is true that if you accuse someone, he or she is the object of your accusation and would therefore appear in Latin in the Accusative – but this is not necessarily very helpful.

We have accusative forms in English, but only in the pronouns. *I, he, she, we, they* are Nominative, used for the subject. *Me, him, her, us, them* are Accusative, used for the object.

*Examples*
I/he/she/we/they went to London – subject.
The car hit me/him/her/us/them – object.

*note* The forms ‘me’, ‘him’ etc. are used in other contexts as well in English, where Latin would use a different case; ‘It’s me’, or ‘I got a letter from him’. Don’t let these distract you for the moment.
In Latin, all masculine and feminine nouns have a special form for the Accusative. For example, the word **professor** has accusative **professorem**. This change can make all the difference to the meaning:

- **Audi professor!** Listen, professor! (No comma needed in Latin)
- **Audi professorem** Listen to the professor

### ENDING OF THE ACCUSATIVE

4.2.5 The Accusative (singular) of masculine and feminine nouns is formed with the ending **-m**. The vowel before the **m** varies according to the declension:

- In the First Declension the accusative ending is **–am**
  
  *example puella* girl: accusative **puellam**.

- In the Second Declension the accusative ending is **–um**
  
  *example servus* slave: accusative **servum**.

- In the Third Declension the accusative ending is **–em**.
  
  *example consul* consul: accusative **consulem**.

### NEUTER NOUNS

4.2.6 In neuter nouns (nouns of the neuter gender, neither masculine nor feminine), there is no special form for the Accusative. It is always the same as the Nominative. So we may well find **vinum** wine, **opus** work/job, **cubile** bed, used as the object of a verb.

*note* Second-declension neuter nouns end in **–um** (which looks like an Accusative ending) in both Nominative and Accusative; so don’t forget that they can be Nominative as well as Accusative.

*Examples*

- **Bibe vinum!** Drink the wine!
- **Confice opus!** Finish the job!
- **Aufer cubile!** Take the bed away!

### 4.3 Looking up nouns in the dictionary

4.3.1 The form found in the dictionary, as already noticed, is the Nominative. If you wish to look up a noun that you have found in the Accusative, or in one of the other cases, you have first to find the corresponding Nominative form.

Traditional Latin courses concentrate on learning to form the other cases from the Nominative. However, it is equally if not more important to be able to work back to the Nominative from the other cases, so that you can look up words in the dictionary with the minimum of trouble.

4.3.2 Let us look again at the Accusative endings of the three declensions and see how to find the corresponding Nominative, i.e. the dictionary form. The First and Second Declensions are quite easy.
• First Declension: Accusative in –am.

The Nominative always ends in –a. Just cut off the m and you have the dictionary form.

Examples  vide reginam! see the queen!
           => look up regina
           indue togam! put on the toga!
           => look up toga.

• Second Declension: Accusative in –um.

The Nominative usually ends in –us. Just cut off the m and substitute s.

Examples  saluta discipulum! greet the student!
           => look up discipulus
           fer gladium! bring the sword!
           => look up gladius.

Exceptions
• Nouns of the Second Declension whose Accusative ends in consonant+rum have their Nominative form in –er (this is because, in very early Latin, a sound-change happened which turned –rus into –ers and then, later, into –er):

    lege librum! read the book! => look up liber
    audi magistrum! listen to the teacher! => look up magister

• The two nouns vir man and puer boy do not have an ending in the nominative; accusative virum and puerum.

    cape puerum! catch the boy! => dictionary form puer
    vide virum! see the man! => dictionary form vir.

• Neuter nouns of the Second Declension have nominative also in –um.

    bibe vinum! drink the wine! => look up vinum.

Practice

Find the Nominative form corresponding to the following Accusatives:

reginam gladium togam servum bellum magistrum magistram

If (which would never happen) you found tyrannosaurum in a Latin text, what would you look up?

4.3.3 Now for the Third Declension.

• Nouns of the Third Declension form the accusative in –em.

The simplest pattern is as follows:

professor a professor; audi professorem! listen to the professor!
consul a consul; elige consulem! elect the consul!
Getting from **professorem** to **professor**, or from **consulem** to **consul**, is easy matter; you just cut off the **–em** and you are left with the nominative or dictionary form. This pattern is however more or less confined to nouns that end in **–l** and **–r**; others are more complicated.

4.3.4 Here are some slightly less straightforward ones:

- **leo** lion; **vide leonem!** look at the lion!
- **rex** king; **occide regem!** kill the king!
- **canis** dog; **cave canem!** beware of the dog!

When you cut off the **–em** of the accusative of a noun like this, what you are left with is what is called the STEM of the noun. This gives **leon-**, **reg-**, **can-**. All the cases apart from the Nominative are also formed from this stem: e.g. genitive singular **reg-is**, dative **reg-i**, nominative plural **reg-es**. The Genitive Singular is the form you will find quoted immediately after the Nominative in the dictionary, but any of the other cases would have done equally well – once you know one of them, you simply remove the case-ending to get the stem and you can substitute any of the other case-endings.

But getting from the stem (or one of the cases formed from it) to the Nominative, and vice-versa, is not always so easy. We shall go into this question in more detail in a later unit. For the moment, just learn the following two patterns:

- An accusative ending in **–onem** comes from a nominative ending in **–o**

  **Examples**  
  *leo* lion, acc. **leonem**; *natio* nation, acc. **nationem**

- An accusative ending in **–inem** comes from a nominative ending in **–o**

  **Examples**  
  *homo* man, acc. **hominem**; *virgo* girl, acc. **virginem**

**Practice**

Find the nominative of:

- **rationem** reason, method, way  
- **turbinem** whirlwind  
- Carthaginem Carthage  
- Scipionem Scipio  
- Ciceronem Cicero

Using the dictionary where necessary, find the accusative of:

- **homo** man  
- **virgo** girl  
- **margo** border, margin  
- **cardo** hinge  
- **portio** portion  
- **nebulo** fool, blockhead

Note how English etymology can help in the choice between **–inem** and **–onem**: hominid

virgin margin cardinal portion.
4.4 Accusative plural

4.4.1 There is also a different form for the Accusative Plural (referring to more than one person or thing):

- In the First Declension the ending is –as (vs. Nominative Plural –ae):
  
  * vide reginas! see the queens!

- In the Second Declension it is –os (vs. Nominative Plural –i):
  
  * saluta discipulos! greet the students!

- In the Third Declension it is –es, the same as the Nominative Plural:
  
  * audi professores! listen to the professors!

  note In some Third Declension nouns there is an alternative Accusative form ending in -is, but we won’t bother about that now.

All these endings consist of a long vowel plus s. They are not difficult to recognise, because they look so much like English plurals (or Spanish ones, of which they are in fact the origin).

Practice

Find the Nominative Singular of the following:

insulas gladios togas virgines nebulones servos agricolas dominos navigationes

Practice (Unit 4 as a whole)

One member of class to issue a command such as the following; another to respond by carrying out the action. (See below for vocabulary.)


Vocabulary for this exercise (to add to the list of verbs at the beginning of the unit)

hic here (= in this place)

huc here (= to this place)

illic there (= in that place)

illuc there (= to that place)

liber book

littera letter

verbum word

mihi to me, for me (dative of ego): da mihi librum give me the book

librum tuum your book (acc.)
nomen tuum your name
in tabula albata on the whiteboard (the Romans actually did use whiteboards!)
in tabula nigra on the blackboard (the Romans didn’t use blackboards but this phrase will have to do)
equus horse
porcus pig
aqua water
vinum wine
poculum cup
vicinus neighbour
condiscipulus fellow-student

Exercise

Translate into English, using the dictionary to look up any unfamiliar nouns, and the list below to look up the verbs, all of which are in the Imperative form (but may be either singular or plural). For vocabulary and notes see below.

Hic est professor. Audi professorem!
Hic est leon. Cave leonem!
Haec est regina. Vide reginam!
Hoc est erratum. Corrige erratum!
Hic est liber. Lege librum!
Hoc est nomen tuum. Dic mihi nomen tuum!
Haec est sententia Latina. Lege sententiam Latinam!
Hi sunt gladiatores. Aspice gladiatores!
Haec sunt verba Latina. Pronuntiate verba Latina!
Hae sunt puellae. Salutate puellas!
Hi sunt discipuli. Doce discipulos!

audi, -ite hear, listen to
cave, -ete beware of
vide, -ete see, look at
corrige, -ite correct
lege, -ite read
dic, dicite say, tell; dic mihi tell me (say to me)
aspice, -ite watch
plaude, -ite applaud
pronuntia, -ate pronounce
saluta, -ate greet
doce, -ete teach

note Adjectives (describing words) in Latin generally come after the noun they go with, as in French and several other modern languages. Hence nomen tuum your name, sententia Latina a Latin sentence, verba Latina Latin words. More about adjectives later.

note Remember that haec can be either singular (feminine) ‘this’, or plural (neuter) ‘these’. You tell which it is from the form of the verb. Haec est means ‘this is’ (feminine); haec sunt means ‘these are’ (neuter). If anything comes after haec est it will be a feminine singular noun and you will find it in the dictionary in that form. If anything comes after haec sunt it will be a neuter plural noun and you will have to find the singular form in the dictionary. You will not find verba in the dictionary; but you will find verbum, which is the singular.

END OF UNIT 4
UNIT 5

5.1 How verbs work – the basics

5.1.1 In English, verbs change their form according to (a) who the subject is, and (b) the time at which the action, etc., happens. You say I walk but he walks or the cat walks. You say I walk if you walk now or habitually, but I walked if you walked at some time in the past. English gets by with relatively few verb forms; Latin has many more, and – as with the nouns – we need to build up our knowledge of them step by step. First, we need some basic concepts and terminology.

5.1.2 Person, Number, Tense, Mood, Voice

Verbs can undergo what is called a change of PERSON when the subject changes. There are three Persons: the First Person (when the subject is I or we), the Second Person (when the subject is you), and the Third Person (when the subject is he, she, it, they, or a noun). Verbs in the Third Person in English, when the subject is singular and the action takes place in present time, take the ending -s: he walks, Cicero speaks, snow falls.

Each of the three Persons can be singular or plural: for example, I am is first person singular, we are is first person plural. Change from singular to plural or vice versa is called a change of NUMBER (obvious when you think about it).

The change that takes place when a different time is referred to is called a change of TENSE. Examples of tenses in English are the Present (I walk), the Past (you killed) and Future (we shall be sick). ‘Tense’ has nothing to do with being worried; it comes from the Latin tempus ‘time’ (while the other ‘tense’ comes from tensus ‘strained’).

The MOOD of a verb indicates whether is is being used to make a statement (Indicative mood) or to issue a command (Imperative mood) or to express a wish (Subjunctive mood). Come here! is Imperative. I come here every Thursday is Indicative. The Subjunctive comes later on. ‘Mood’ derives from Latin modus ‘way’, ‘manner’, as does the ordinary English word ‘mood’ meaning state of mind.

Finally, the VOICE of the verb indicates whether the subject is acting or is acted upon. In what is called the Active voice, the subject does the acting. All simple, one-word verbs in English are Active: walk, sleep, kill etc. Passive verbs in English are formed with the verb ‘to be’ (or sometimes the verb ‘to get’) and the form of the verb which ends (usually) in -ed, called the past participle: the pig is killed, I am surprised, the task gets done. Not all verbs can be made Passive. As a general rule, only ‘transitive’ verbs (those whose active forms take an object) can have Passive forms. A few verbs are much more common in the passive than in the active (and may not have active forms at all), e.g. ‘I am gobsmacked’ (when did you last gobsmack someone?).

- Learn tempus and modus – two very common Latin words.

WHAT ARE YOU DOING?

5.1.3 Quid facis? What are you (singular) doing?

Ambulo I am walking
Curro I am running
Lego I am reading
Scribo I am writing
Bibo I am drinking
Hoc facio This is what I am doing (lit. This I am doing)
Nihil facio I am doing nothing
You have so far seen some verbs in the Imperative form, e.g. ambula! walk! bibe! drink. We now come to the forms of verbs used for making statements and asking questions, i.e. the Indicative. You will notice that all the verbs given in the above list end in -o. This is the ending for the first person singular, i.e. the ‘I’ form, in the present tense of the indicative mood.

5.1.4 The present tense in Latin does not correspond precisely to the present tense in English, though there is a large overlap in meaning. In fact, it has at least three possible meanings:

• an action or state that is going on at the time of speaking, corresponding to the English present continuous, the ‘I am … -ing’ form.
  Examples
  bibo I am drinking
  sto I am standing

• a habitual or repeated action, corresponding to the English simple present.
  Examples
  vinum bibo I drink wine
  cotidie lego I read every day.

• The present tense is also freely used, just as in English, as a tense of narration.
  Example
  Brutus Caesarem interficit Brutus kills Caesar.

  note Usually in English this way of telling a story has a colloquial or dialectal flavour: ‘An’ ‘e comes up to me an’ ‘e punches me in the face, an’ I says to ’im, I says …’. In Latin it is used in more literary contexts as well, and is called the Historic Present. It is quite useful for our purposes because it means we can tell a story in the Present tense throughout, without having to bother at this stage with the different (and complicated) forms of the verb in the Past tense.

LOOKING UP VERBS IN THE DICTIONARY

5.1.5 The first person singular of the present indicative is an important form of the verb in Latin because it is the form given in the dictionary. In order to look up a verb in the dictionary, therefore, you need to be able to derive this form from whatever form is in front of you. As an example of this, let us take the Imperative forms that we have already seen, and set out the rules for getting to the first person singular or dictionary form.

FIRST CONJUGATION

The Imperative ends in -a (singular), -ate (plural).
Remove the imperative ending and add -o.
  Example
  ambula! walk! => look up ambulo

SECOND CONJUGATION

The Imperative ends in long -e (singular), -ete (plural).
Remove the imperative ending and replace with -eo (the e becomes short because of the Latin rule that a vowel before another vowel is short; the stress will therefore still be on the syllable before).
  Example
  vide! see! => look up video (Now you know why a video is so called.)
THIRD CONJUGATION

There are two kinds of verbs in the third conjugation. We shall call them third (a) and third (b). The former are in the majority, but the latter group contains some of the commonest verbs in Latin.

3rd (a) Replace the Imperative endings –e –ite by –o.
Example
curre! run! => look up curro

3rd (b) Replace the Imperative endings –e –ite by –io.
Example
cape! take! => look up capio.

FOURTH CONJUGATION

Replace the Imperative endings –i –ite by –io.
Example
audi! hear! => look up audio.

Practice

Now look up ambulo video curro capio and audio in the dictionary, just to check that it works.

This may seem a roundabout way of doing things. But all we have done in this section is to spell out in detail what you actually have to do when you encounter any unfamiliar verb form and look it up in the dictionary. Whatever way you do it, you need somehow to trace the form you have in front of you to its First Person Singular.

STEMS AND ENDINGS

5.1.6 It is convenient to distinguish, in general, between the STEM or ROOT* of a verb – the main part of the word, which doesn’t change from one form to another – and the ENDING, which changes in order to denote the different persons, tenses and moods. Basically the stem answers the question ‘which verb?’ and the ending answers the question ‘who is doing it and when?’ The ending can also be analysed further, into a vowel which varies according to the conjugation or type of verb, and a personal ending. Take an example:

amamus ‘we love’ = am- (stem = ‘love’)
+ -a- (vowel of first conjugation)
+ -mus (ending = ‘we’).

It is very important to learn the endings! You may think to begin with that you can rely on verb tables (especially if your dictionary has them as an appendix at the end) but it doesn’t really work – there is no substitute for knowing the endings by heart. If you don’t know them properly, you will either mix them up and get them wrong, or else have to spend a large amount of time trying to trace them.

How should one set about learning them? Some people find it easier just to learn the endings by heart; others prefer to learn the complete set of forms for some common verb. However you choose to do it, you need to be able to recognise the endings attached to any verb, whether you know the verb or not. Again take the imaginary English example, ‘to snozzle’. We have no idea what snozzling amounts to; but we do know that when we see the words ‘he snozzled’, the action of snozzling took place in the past. We know this because of the ending
–ed. If you were trying to read a passage of English, you would be in poor shape if you didn’t know what the ending -ed meant, or (say) the -s used to form plurals.

Similarly in Latin, if you see a word *plixamus you know that it means ‘we <do something>’ whatever the imaginary verb might mean, because you know that the ending ‘-mus’ means ‘we’; and you know that if there were such a verb, the form you would look up in the dictionary would be *plixo.

*There is a technical difference between a ‘stem’ and a ‘root’ which need not bother us at the moment.

COMPLETE CONJUGATION OF AN A-COLOURED (FIRST CONJUGATION) VERB

5.1.7 Let us now look at the complete conjugation of a verb in the Present tense (first conjugation), plus the Imperative for consolidation. We start with an example from the first (A-coloured) conjugation:

ambulo I walk
ambulas you (singular) walk ambula! walk!
ambulat he/she/it walks

ambulamus we walk
ambulatis you (plural) walk ambulate! walk!
ambulant they walk.

The stem, which stays the same in all the persons, is ambul-. The endings, which change from one person to another, are –o –as –at –amus –atis –ant, and imperative –a and –ate.

The vowel –a- occurs in all the endings except the first person singular. The first conjugation can be called the A-conjugation. It may be useful to think of the conjugations as different ‘colours’ of verb; verbs of the first conjugation are ‘A-coloured’, while those of the second are E-coloured and those of the fourth are I-coloured.

*More technically, the vowel a is part of the stem; the stem of ambulo is in fact ambula- and this contracts together with the ending –o to give ambulo. But for practical purposes it is easier to regard the stem as just being the bit that stays the same in all the persons.

Practice

1. Go through the complete conjugation (i.e. all the personal forms: three persons, singular and plural) of the present indicative of the following verbs:

pugno I fight
laudo I praise
impero I give orders
poto I drink

2. Find the first person singular from the following forms:

rogamus putas potent parat cantas dormitat agitatis explicamus

Now look up these verbs in the dictionary and give the meanings of the above forms.
3. Referring to sections 1 and 2 of this exercise, give the Latin for: you (singular) ask; I sing; we explain (unfold); they give orders; he fights; you (plural) drink.

5.2 Verbs of other ‘colours’

5.2.1 Now here are the patterns for the second, third and fourth conjugations:

Second Conjugation (E-coloured):
- video  I see
- vides
- videt
- videmus
- videtis
- vident

Third Conjugation (a):
- curro  I run
- curris
- currit
- currimus
- curritis
- currunt

Third Conjugation (b):
- facio  I make, do
- facis
- facit
- facimus
- facitis
- faciunt

Fourth Conjugation (I-coloured):
- audio  I hear
- audis
- audit
- audimus
- auditis
- audient

*note* The endings of the third (b) and fourth conjugations are spelt the same: the difference is that the i is short in facis facimus facitis, long in audis audimus auditis (note also the different position of the stress: the long i in audimus auditis is stressed, the short one in facimus facitis is unstressed.

5.2.2 You will see that these are all variations on one basic pattern:

- -O
- -S
- -T
- -MUS
- -TIS
- -NT.
These are the basic personal endings, and you will get quite a long way if you can just recognize these. The vowel before them varies according to the conjugation or ‘colour’ of the verb.

Now you may be tempted, because of this, to think that the vowel doesn’t matter very much. But you would, unfortunately, be wrong. There are some pairs or even triplets of verbs that look very similar, but differ in the vowel-colouring, and therefore belong to different conjugations and mean different things. The most notorious examples are perhaps these:

**iacio** (3rd conjugation) I throw  *iacis iacit iacimus iacitis iaciunt*
**iaceo** (2nd conjugation) I lie down  *iaces iacet iacemus iacetis iacent*

**mano** (1st conjugation) I drip, seep, flow  *manas manat manamus manatis manant*
**maneo** (2nd conjugation) I wait, stay  *manes manet manemus manetis manent*

**paro** (1st conjugation) I prepare  *paras parat paramus paratis parant*
**pario** (3rd conjugation) I give birth; I obtain  *paris parit parimus paritis pariunt*

And to complicate matters further there is also  *päreo* (2nd conjugation) I appear, come when called, obey,  *pares paret paremus paretis parent*. This is distinguished also by its long *a*.

Not all Latin verbs are as tricky as these, of course; but if you see a verb beginning with *par-* or *iac-* or *man-* , then be on your guard, and look at the vowel colouring of the ending before you jump to any conclusions!

*note* Later on, also, we shall find that the vowel is important in determining the mood of the verb – whether it is indicative (stating a fact) or subjunctive (expressing a wish or possibility). For the moment, just remember to pay close attention to the vowels!

5.2.3 To keep things simple, for the rest of this Unit all you need to keep in mind is the **THIRD PERSON SINGULAR**, i.e. the form used when the subject is ‘he’, ‘she’, ‘it’ or a singular noun or pronoun. This is by far the commonest form you will encounter in Latin texts.

Just to remind you of the endings:

in the First Conjugation (A-colour) it ends in *–at*; dictionary form ends in *–o*

in the Second Conjugation (E-colour) it ends in *–et*; dictionary form in *–eo*

in the Third and Fourth Conjugations it ends in *–it*. The dictionary form may then be one of two possibilities:

- it may end in *–o* (Third, group A)
- or
- in *–io* (Third, group B, or Fourth).

You can’t tell which until you have found the verb.

NOTE. While we’re on the subject of dictionaries, you should be aware that just as there are two ways of identifying the declension of nouns (by number, and by he form of the Genitive Singular) so there are two different ways of identifying the conjugation of verbs. Some dictionaries follow the headword with a number, denoting the conjugation, as follows:

**amo** (1)  I love.
duco (3) I lead.

This means that the verb amo is First Conjugation and therefore has third singular amat; whereas duco is Third Conjugation and has third singular ducit. So far so good …

But some dictionaries do it another way:

amo –are I love
duco –ere I lead.

The endings –are and -ere belong to the form called Infinitive, which corresponds to our ‘to love’, ‘to lead’. The full Infinitive forms are amare and ducere. We shall learn a great deal more about the Infinitive in Unit 15. For now, if you have a dictionary that works this way, use the following table to identify the conjugation of your chosen verb:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dictionary form (1st person)</th>
<th>Conjugation</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Third person singular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-o</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>-are</td>
<td>-at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-eo</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>-ere</td>
<td>-et</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-o</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-ëre</td>
<td>-it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-io</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>-ire</td>
<td>-it</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-io</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>-ire</td>
<td>-it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Confusing? Yes, to start with. But note that the Infinitive ending uniquely identifies the conjugation, and vice-versa. In time, you will have seen the different ‘colours’ of verbs in action so often that it will become second nature to distinguish them, in the same way as speakers of English know that some verbs form their past tense with -ed and others change the vowel (sing, sang).

---

**Practice**

Using the dictionary where necessary, find (a) the first person singular, and (b) the meaning, of the following 3rd person singular verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Currit</th>
<th>dormit</th>
<th>ambulat</th>
<th>sedet</th>
<th>scribit</th>
<th>timet</th>
<th>punit</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Munit</td>
<td>monet</td>
<td>manet</td>
<td>vocat</td>
<td>vitat</td>
<td>vivit</td>
<td>nocet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Necat</td>
<td>negat</td>
<td>eliget</td>
<td>elicit</td>
<td>educit</td>
<td>educat</td>
<td>adiuvat</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

You will see that some of these are very easy to confuse with one another. Be warned! A difference of one letter can make a lot of difference to the meaning.

Most of the above verbs have English derivatives; when you have found the meaning, try to think of as many of these as possible.

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5.3 Subject and verb; simple sentences

5.3.1 If you put a noun in the nominative together with a verb in the third person singular, you get a simple sentence:

**Caesar ambulat** Caesar walks
**Cicero currit** Cicero runs
**Poeta scribit** The poet writes
**Leo dormit** The lion sleeps

The order of the words in the above sentences is as in English, with the subject first. But in Latin you can have the verb first, followed by the subject. It makes no difference to the basic
meaning of the sentence; the only difference is that if the verb comes first, it is given more prominence. *Ambulat Caesar* might therefore, for example, mean ‘Caesar is walking (as opposed to running or sitting).

### NEGATIVES

5.3.2 *Caesar currit* Caesar is running; Caesar runs
*Caesar non currit* Caesar is not running; Caesar does not run

*Currit Caesar* Caesar is *running*; Caesar runs
*Non currit Caesar* Caesar is *not* running; Caesar does *not* run

The word *non*, placed immediately before the verb, makes it NEGATIVE (and so negates the whole sentence). It is equivalent to English *not*, as far as its meaning goes, but it follows quite a different rule of word order. English *not* either comes after a verb, as in ‘is not’, ‘does not’, or else occurs in combination with the auxiliary verb *do, does*, as in ‘Caesar does not run’. Latin *non* ALWAYS comes before the verb it negates.

5.3.3 *Non* can also be used to negate a *single word or phrase* within a sentence; so, for instance, it may appear before a noun:

*Non Angli, sed Angeli* Not Englishmen, but angels.
*Cicero venit, non Caesar* Cicero is coming, not Caesar.

Or before one of two verbs:
*Leo iacet, non sedet* The lion is lying down, not sitting.

Observe the difference between *Cicero non venit* or *Non venit Cicero* Cicero is not coming, and *Non Cicero venit* (It is) not Cicero (who is) coming.

It might be said that *non* is a short-range missile: it extends its negativity mainly over the word that comes immediately after it.

### CONJUNCTIONS: AND and BUT

5.3.4 There are several words for ‘and’ in Latin. The commonest is *et*:
*Caesar et Cicero* Caesar and Cicero
*Cicero surgit et exit* Cicero gets up and goes out

*Ac* and *atque* are also words for ‘and’. The choice between *et, ac* and *atque* depended largely on euphony (i.e. what sounded best to the Roman ear). At the moment you do not need to worry about the grounds on which the choice was made.

Yet another way of expressing the meaning ‘and’ is to add the syllable *-que* to the second of the two words:
*Caesar Cicero-que* Caesar and Cicero
*Cicero surgit exit-que* Cicero gets up and goes out

No hyphen is normally used; the *-que* is simply added on to the end of the word:
*Caesar Ciceroque*
*Surgit exitque*

5.3.5 The commonest word for ‘but’ is *sed*:
Non Caesar sed Cicero Not Caesar but Cicero
Sed Cicero non venit But Cicero is not coming

Now what about this:
Non Cicero venit, sed Caesar lit. Not Cicero comes, but Caesar.

That isn’t English.
No, indeed it isn’t. What you have here is a literal, unidiomatic translation. The meaning is:
‘It is not Cicero who comes, but Caesar’; you have to change the shape of the sentence in order to express the meaning in good English. This sort of thing happens very often in translating from any language into another. It is often helpful in the first instance to produce an absolutely literal translation, which mirrors the structure of the Latin though it may not be idiomatic in English. When you have done this, you then need to decide what the meaning really is, and try to express that in English. This is usually by far the more difficult part of the process.

Non iacet leo, sed currit Not lies-down the lion, but runs ... The lion is not lying down, but running. (In stage-Irish: ‘Tis not lying down the lion is, but running’.)

In idiomatic English, the ‘but’ which we have used to translate sed is often left out; so we have:
Non iacet leo, sed currit The lion isn’t lying down, he’s running.

ASYNDETON (i.e. OMISSION OF CONJUNCTIONS)

5.3.6 The omission of a conjunction (and or but) where one might expect to find one is called asyndeton (Greek a- not syn- together deo to bind: not binding together). There is no great need at this stage to remember the term, but the thing should certainly be noticed and remembered. There are two kinds:

- **Omission of ‘and’ in lists** In English, lists of three or more items generally have and between the last two, as in bacon, egg, sausage and mushrooms. In Latin it is usual in such a case to have no conjunctions at all (and often no commas either!). Advenit, intrat, considit or Advenit intrat considit He arrives, comes in and sits down. An and between the last two would imply that they are more closely connected to each other than to previous items. Advenit, intrat et considit He arrives; then he comes in and sits down.

- **Omission of ‘and’ or ‘but’ in contrasts** Latin often contrasts two statements by putting them in parallel with no conjunction (no and or but). Cicero ambulat, Caesar currit Cicero is walking, (but) Caesar is running. Sometimes an additional effect is achieved by reversing the order in one half of the sentence: Ambulat Cicero, Caesar currit (... stage Irish again) ‘Tis walking Cicero is; but as for Caesar, he’s running. This A-B-B-A order is called chiasmus (after the Greek letter chi, which looks like our X).

5.4 Questions

5.4.1 One of the commonest ways of turning a statement into a yes/no question is to add -ne to the most important word in the sentence (usually the first). This may be either the subject or the verb, according to what you are asking. So:

Curritne Caesar? Is Caesar running? (or is he walking?)
Caesarne currit? Is Caesar running? (or is it somebody else?)
Like -que, -ne is added to the end of the word, without a hyphen.

*note* There is a third, less common, suffixed particle of this sort: -ve meaning ‘or’, e.g. Caesar Pompeiusve Caesar or Pompey. ‘Particle’ is the rather vague general term for the little words that are the nuts and bolts of language, like and, or, if, although, therefore. Some particles are conjunctions, i.e. words that serve to join other words or sentences to each other, e.g. and, or. The Latin particle -ne is an interrogative particle, i.e. a particle that turns a statement into a question. There is no exact, single-word equivalent of -ne in English. Where Latin uses -ne, English inverts the word-order or uses some other device for indicating that the sentence is a question.

5.4.2 There is also a word num that turns a statement into a question. It usually goes at the beginning of the sentence, before the most emphatic word.

**Num currit Caesar?** Is Caesar running? or, Does Caesar run?
**Num Caesar currit?** Is it Caesar who is running?

Num often conveys a nuance of incredulity: num currit? is he really running? he’s not running, is he?

**NEGATIVE QUESTIONS**

5.4.3 The interrogative -ne can be added to the non of a negative sentence to produce a negative question.

**Nonne currit Caesar?** Isn’t Caesar running? Doesn’t Caesar run?
**Caesar nonne currit?** Isn’t Caesar running?
**Nonne Caesar currit?** Isn’t it Caesar who is running?

**ANSWERING QUESTIONS**

5.4.4 Latin (like many other languages, e.g. Welsh and Chinese) does not have an exact single equivalent of our word ‘yes’. The answer to a question depends on the way the question is phrased.

A very common type involves repeating the verb. So the answer to Curritne Caesar? would probably be Currit vero of course he is running, or Currit quidem well yes he is running (but ...). Or you could just say Currit he is running.

You could alternatively say, e.g., Sane indeed, or Certe certainly, or Profecto of course, or *Ita est* (or just *Ita*) that is so, or *Etiam* even so. You will get used to this variety as time goes on.

The answer to Caesarne currit? Is it Caesar who is running? would most likely be *Ille vero* Yes, it’s him, or *Non ille, sed ...* It’s not him, it’s ...

Negative answers are a bit easier. The word *non* can function on its own as the equivalent of our ‘no’. Curritne Caesar? - *Non*. But it is also common in negative answers to repeat the verb, e.g. Curritne Caesar? - *Non currit*.

---

**Exercise**

Using the dictionary where necessary, translate:
Advenit Cicero, intrat recumbitque.
Nunc Cicero iacet domi.
Hodie Caesar domum non venit.
Non sedet mulier sed stat.
Non senator sed mulier venit.
Sero domum venit consul.
Surgitne orator? Surgit vero.
Oratorne surgit? Ille vero.
Nonne Cicero advenit? Non ille, sed Caesar.
Consistitne homo? Non consistit, sed currit.
Mulierne intrat? Non mulier, sed virgo intrat.
Num intrat mulier? Non intrat, sed fugit.
Nonne advenit Caesar? Non, sed manet domi.
Leo sedet foris; itaque homo intus manet et timet.
Leo non intro venit, sed manet foris.

domi at home
domum home
sero late*
intus inside*
intro inside

Note
*sēro late, not to be confused with the verb sēro I sow.
*intus refers to position inside; intro to motion from outside to inside.
domi refers to position at home; domum refers to motion towards home.

END OF UNIT 5
UNIT 6

6.1 Subject, verb, object; word order

6.1.1 The object of a verb, as we have already seen, goes in the Accusative form:

Vide Caesarem! See Caesar!
Cicero videt Caesarem Cicero sees Caesar.

In this example the words are given in the English order, which is also a possible order in Latin. But in Latin we might just as well find:

- Cicero Caesarem videt
- Caesarem Cicero videt
- Caesarem videt Cicero
- Videt Caesarem Cicero
- Videt Cicero Caesarem

The choice between these would depend on the context and emphasis. They all mean basically ‘Cicero sees Caesar’, but the emphasis varies according to which word is put first; see below.

If you want to say ‘Caesar sees Cicero’, you have to put Caesar in the nominative and Cicero in the accusative:

- Caesar Ciceronem videt
- Caesar videt Ciceronem
- Ciceronem videt Caesar
- Ciceronem Caesar videt
- Videt Caesar Ciceronem
- Videt Ciceronem Caesar.

You will see from this that you cannot rely on the word order to tell you which is subject and which is object! Only the endings will tell you.

6.1.2 How then is one to cope with a sentence of this kind in Latin? There are basically two ways of doing it:

- The analytical method. In this method you first look through the sentence in order to find the verb, then you find a word in the Nominative that is likely to be the subject, then you find an object in the Accusative, and finally you fill in the rest of the sentence.

Example
Consulem servus mane excitat

Verb: excitat ‘wakes up’
Subject: servus ‘slave’
Object: consulem ‘consul’
Other words: mane ‘early in the morning’
=> ‘The slave wakes up the consul early in the morning’.
• The word-by-word method. In this method you take the words in the order in which they come, noting down all the grammatical information you can at each stage. Take the same sentence as an example:

   Consulem ‘consul’, accusative, so object of the verb.
   servus ‘slave’, nominative, so subject of the verb.
   mane ‘early in the morning’
   excitat ‘wakes up’, verb
   => ‘The slave wakes up the consul early in the morning’.

Use whichever method works for you, or a combination of both. But whatever method of analysis you choose, remember that you must pay close attention to the endings!

There is one further step, which is to try to reflect in your translation the emphasis conveyed by the Latin word order: see next section.

6.1.3 The usual English order is subject-verb-object as in ‘Caesar sees the consul’. The most usual Latin order, when no particular emphasis is intended, is subject-object-verb.

   Examples
   Caesar consulem videt Caesar sees the consul
   Mulier senatorem audit The woman hears the senator
   Senator Caesarem occidit The senator kills Caesar
   Homo leonem non disturbat The man does not disturb the lion.

If the object, the verb or some other word is placed first, it is emphasised. This is called by linguists ‘fronting’.

   Examples
   Consulem videt Caesar Caesar sees the consul (not someone else).
   Videt consulem Caesar Caesar sees the consul (but does not hear him).
   Consulis servus ostium pulsat The consul’s slave (not someone else’s) knocks at the door.
   Mane ostium pulsat consulis servus. The consul’s slave knocks at the door early in the morning (not at any other time).

Practice
The following sentences have translations provided. Mark in the translation the word which is emphasised by the Latin word order:

Imperatorem plebs amat. The plebs (common people) love the emperor.
Non amant imperatorem senatores. The senators do not love the emperor.
Regina Britanniam regit. A/the queen rules Britain.
Britanniam regit regina. A/the queen rules Britain.
Videmus reginam Britanniae. We see the queen of Britain.
Britanniae reginam videmus. We see the queen of Britain.

DEALING WITH MISSING SUBJECTS

6.1.4 If no subject is expressed for a third-person verb, the subject is assumed to be ‘he’, ‘she’ or ‘it’ according to the context:
Ambulat he/she/it is walking
Videt Ciceronem or Ciceronem videt he/she/it sees Cicero

You must not be tempted to think that Ciceronem is the subject if it comes first! It is in the Accusative and therefore must be the object. Distinguish therefore between the following pairs of sentences:

- Cicero videt Cicero sees
- Ciceronem videt he/she/it sees Cicero
- Caesar audit Caesar hears
- Caesarem audit he/she/it hears Caesar.

DEALING WITH NEUTER NOUNS

6.1.5 Focus on the fact that in neuter nouns, there is no distinction in form between the nominative and the accusative. How do we tell whether a neuter noun is subject or object? The answer is that it is usually clear from the context – from the meaning of the words themselves or from the other words in the sentence.

Examples
vinum bibit: it is clear that vinum must be the object – it must mean ‘he/she/it drinks wine’ rather than ‘the wine drinks’, which is nonsense. Normally, only animate beings can drink, and the verb ‘drink’ makes one expect a liquid to be the object.

Caesar bellum conficit: we know that Caesar is the subject, because the name is in the nominative. So it must mean ‘Caesar finishes the war’. Caesarem bellum conficit would mean ‘the war finishes [off] Caesar’. (This would of course be untrue, but still linguistically correct!).

6.2 More details about third-declension nouns

6.2.1 It is time to be a little more specific about third-declension nouns. You are already familiar with most of the third-declension case endings, which are the same for all the nouns of this declension (disregarding a few minor variations):

- accusative singular -em (for masculine and feminine nouns only)
- genitive singular -is
- dative singular -i
- nominative plural -es (masculine and feminine) or –a / -ia (neuter)
- accusative plural: the same as the nominative plural
- genitive plural: -um or –ium
- dative plural: -ibus

The endings are all added to what is called the STEM of the noun. This is the part that doesn’t change between the different cases. Take the following example:

accusative leonem
genitive leonis
dative leoni
nominative and accusative plural leones

The common element is leon-. This is the stem.
6.2.2 The tricky part is finding the Nominative Singular when you know the stem, or vice-versa. Here there are several different patterns, which we shall get acquainted with gradually. Here are four of the most common ones. The nominative singular (dictionary form) is given in the first column; the second column give the stem; and the accusative singular is given in the third column as an example of one of the case-forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>consul</td>
<td>consul-</td>
<td>consulem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Caesar</td>
<td>Caesar-</td>
<td>Caesarem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mulier</td>
<td>mulier-</td>
<td>mulierem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>orator</td>
<td>orator-</td>
<td>oratorem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>senator</td>
<td>senator-</td>
<td>senatorem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Stem = nominative:

  - Stem adds n:
    - Cicero: Ciceron- Ciceronem ‘Cicero’
    - leo: leon- leonem ‘lion’

- Change of vowel and addition of n:
  - homo: homin- hominem ‘man’
  - virgo: virgin- virginem ‘girl’

- Nominative ends in is which has to be removed to get the stem:
  - canis: can- canem ‘dog’

**Practice**

Turn the above nouns into (a) the genitive singular; (b) the nominative plural.

---

**DICTIONARIES AGAIN**

6.2.3 Dictionaries usually give the genitive singular of nouns after the nominative. Where the genitive singular ends in –is, it means that we are dealing with a third-declension noun. To find the stem of the noun, remove the –is; any of the other case-endings can then be substituted.

- **Example**
  - Dictionary gives: leo, leonis ‘lion’
  - To find the stem, remove the –is of the genitive: leon-
  - You can then form the other cases by substituting the correct ending: accusative leonem, nominative plural leones, etc.

Some dictionaries present the information in abbreviated form. For example, the *Pocket Oxford Latin Dictionary* gives ‘leo, onis m. lion’. Don’t be confused by this. It is just short for ‘leo, genitive leonis’. You will find it less confusing as you become more familiar with the patterns.

The ideal way of doing it would be just to give the stem after the nominative, thus: leo leon-. This is the method followed in the vocabulary list provided with this course.

6.2.4 It is as well to be sure of the patterns in 6.2.2, since so many words in Latin follow them:
Many words ending in **-tor** or **-sor**, denoting *agents* (i.e. people who do things), follow the pattern of **orator**. For example:

- **amator** lover
- **gladiator** gladiator
- **defensor** defender
- **auditor** listener, member of audience
- **victor** winner
- **messor** harvester

A number of abstract nouns ending in **-or** also follow this pattern:

- **amor** love
- **calor** heat (cf. Calor Gas)
- **ardor** heat, passion, ardour
- **candor** whiteness, honesty (candour)

*note* English often has **-our** (**-or** in American spelling) corresponding to Latin **-or**.

A large number of nouns ending in **-io**, **-tio**, **-sio** follow the pattern of **leo** and **Cicero**. Many of them have English equivalents ending in **-ion**, **-tion**, **-sion** (note that the **n** of the stem reappears in the English derivative):

- **ambitio** ambition
- **traditio** tradition
- **ratio** reason, method, proportion
- **statio** station, post
- **defensio** defence
- **petitio** petition, candidature
- **portio** portion
- **legio** legion
- **centurio** centurion

Words ending in **-do** and **-go** normally follow the pattern of **homo**, **virgo**:

- **Carthago** Carthage, acc. *Carthaginem*
- **vertigo** vertigo, dizziness
- **cupido** desire
- **margo** border, margin

and abstract nouns in **-tudo**:

- **magnitudo** size, magnitude
- **beatitudo** happiness (beatitude)

Note also:

- **caro** flesh, meat, whose stem was presumably originally *carin-* but has been shortened to **carn-**, hence accusative **carnem** (cf. carnivore, chili con carne); and **nemo neminem** nobody, originally a compound of negative **ne + homo**.

*Practice*

Form the accusatives of the nouns in the above list.
Exercise (a)

i. Turn the following accusative nouns into the nominative, and find out their meaning from the dictionary:

solem
vigilem
assensionem
proditionem
procuratorem
coniurationem
turbinem
testudinem
accusatorem
libidinem
conditorem
scriptorem
pugilem

ii. Note down any English derivatives of the above words that you can think of. (There may not be one in every case).

Exercise (b)

This exercise will concentrate on nominatives and accusatives only: We shall rejoin the genitive and dative in a later Unit …

i. Translate into English, using the dictionary when necessary:

Homo canem ducit.
Hominem canis ducit quia homo non videt. quia because
Hominem non videt canis.
Canem videt homo.
Mulier consulem videt.
Consul mulierem non audit.
Consulem mulier non audit.
Senatorem Caesar audit.
Amator virginem spectat et audit.
Occidit Caesarem senator.
Gladiatorem spectat virgo; gladiator leonem occidit.
Leo hominem mordet sed leonem homo non mordet. mordet bites
Virginem amator spectat; virgo amatorem pulsat.
Auditne leonem Caesar?
Leonem mulier spectat?
Non leonem spectat mulier, sed amatorem.

ii. Fill in the gaps in the following sentences:

Caesar ... audit Caesar hears the senator
Canem ... occidit The lover kills the dog
... virgo videt? Does the girl see the man?
Non hominem, sed ... videt virgo. The girl sees not a man, but a woman.
... amator decipit. The lover deceives the girl.
6.3 How two nouns can refer to the same thing (apposition)

6.3.1 All the examples so far have contained one word for the subject and one word for the object. However, it is possible for the subject, object or another element in the sentence to be a phrase consisting of more than one word. An example of a subject consisting of two words might be Cicero consul Cicero the consul. Because both words refer to the same person (viz. Cicero) and he is the subject, they both go in the nominative. The word consul tells you something more about Cicero and is said technically to be in apposition to the name. Remember M. Agrippa consul on the Pantheon inscription – an example of the same thing.

6.3.2 Nouns in apposition are always in the same case as each other. If 'Cicero the consul' were the object, both words would go in the accusative – Ciceronem consulem.

Example
Contrast:
Cicero consul Caesarem videt Cicero the consul (subject) sees Caesar
Ciceronem consulem Caesar videt Caesar sees Cicero the consul (object).

6.3.3 An alternative translation of Cicero consul or Ciceronem consulem, according to the context, might be ‘Cicero as consul’. Cicero consul hominem occidit Cicero as consul kills the man. Latin does not need a word to express the meaning of ‘as’ in sentences of this sort. This is not because there isn’t a Latin word for ‘as’. There is: ut. But if ut were used here, the sentence would have a different meaning. Cicero ut consul would mean ‘Cicero as you would expect from a consul’, ‘Cicero as his position as consul demanded’. The meaning of ‘Cicero as consul’, that is to say, ‘Cicero when he was consul’, ‘Cicero in his capacity as consul’, is most conveniently expressed in Latin by simply putting consul in apposition to Cicero.

6.3.4 Nouns in apposition do not always have to be next to each other. The fact that they are in the same case is enough to tell you that they refer to the same person or thing (subject or object of the verb). Their position in the sentence varies according to logic and emphasis. One might, for example, find a sentence like Cicero senatorem consul laudat Cicero, as consul, praises the senator. In this sentence, consul laudat ‘praises in his capacity as consul’ is seen as going closely together logically. The use of this freedom to vary the word order would be seen even more clearly in a sentence like Cicero Catilinam privatus defendit, consul occidit Cicero as a private citizen defends Catiline, but, as consul, kills him.

Exercise

Translate:

Caesar consulem spectat.
Caesarem consul spectat.
Caesar consul spectat.
Caesarem consulem spectat.
Cicero oratorem audit.
Cicero orator consulem videt.
Caesarem dictatorem Cicero orator laudat.
Caesar Ciceronem oratorem dictator audit.
6.3.5 There is no limit to the number of nouns that can be put in apposition to each other. The inscriptions are full of examples of lists of titles in apposition to a name. In the first inscription below, the names and titles are all in the Nominative. In the second, they are all in the Dative (look at the endings and see). No matter how many there are, they still all have to be in the same case.

**Examples**

*L. Cornelius Cn. f. Scipio aedilis consul censor*
Lucius Cornelius Scipio, son of Gnaeus, aedile, consul, censor

To the Emperor Caesar Lucius Septimius Severus Pius Pertinax Augustus, son of Marcus, father of his country, conqueror of Parthia Arabica and Parthia Adiabene, pontifex maximus, in the eleventh year of his tribunician power, eleven times Imperator, three times consul, proconsul …

END OF UNIT 6
UNIT 7

7.1 Nuts and bolts (a): pronouns

7.1.1 It is time some more of the ‘little words’ had a look in. We shall deal first with some pronouns. First let us get clear the meaning of this term.

A pronoun is defined as a word which stands instead of [Latin pro] a noun or noun-phrase. This is best illustrated by considering different types of circumstances in which you might use a pronoun:

- **Personal pronouns** If John Smith is talking about John Smith, he does not typically keep saying ‘John Smith is / thinks / has done / will do...’. He says ‘I am / think / have done / will do’. You stands instead of the person addressed. Other personal pronouns are he, him, she, it, we, us, they, them. In Latin, we have already encountered ego I, tu you, nos we, and so on.

- **Demonstrative pronouns** are used to refer to something that is indicated by the context or the speaker. The demonstrative pronouns in English are this, that, these, those. In Latin we have already seen hic this, with its various alternative forms for the different genders and numbers.

  *Note* These same words can be used either on their own or together with nouns. In the latter usage (e.g. that man, those women) they are more accurately referred to as demonstrative adjectives. The Latin demonstratives, like the English ones, can be used either as pronouns or as adjectives: hic homo this man.

- **Interrogative pronouns** prompt for a noun or noun-equivalent as the answer to a question. The word who? is used for persons, and what? for things. The Latin interrogative pronouns are quis? who?; quid? what?

- **Relative pronouns** join sentences together by referring back to a noun already mentioned. The relative pronouns in English are who (with its variant whom), which and that.

  *Note* In English, who and which can also be interrogative, while that can also be demonstrative. What category they belong to depends on the context.

Notice how the relative pronoun substitutes for the noun in the following examples.

  Mrs. Thatcher, who was Prime Minister, came from Lincolnshire (rather than Mrs. Thatcher was Prime Minister. Mrs. Thatcher came from Lincolnshire.)

  I should be grateful if you would return the book which I lent you six months ago (rather than I should be grateful if you would return the book. I lent you the book six months ago.)

  The man that lives in the house next door is a noted eccentric (rather than The man is a noted eccentric. The man lives in the house next door.)

The Latin relative pronoun – which we shall deal with in detail later – is qui who, which, that. Note that, as in English, the relative is very like the interrogative.

These examples do not exhaust the category of pronouns but should be enough to show what they are.
NOMINATIVE AND ACCUSATIVE OF PRONOUNS

7.1.2 It is relatively easy to distinguish between nominative and accusative where pronouns are concerned, because English too makes a distinction between nominative and accusative here; e.g. *I* is nominative; *me* is (almost always) accusative.

**Practice**

Say which of the following English pronouns are in the nominative (i.e. function as subject of a verb), which are in the accusative (i.e. function as object), and which can function as either subject or object:
*I* me you he she her him it *we they us who whom what them himself herself themselves

7.1.3 Here is a list of the Latin pronouns we have already seen, with their accusative forms (as usual, neuters are the same in both cases):

*Interrogative pronoun:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

*Personal pronouns, singular:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>ego</em></td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>tu</em></td>
<td>you (sing.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>is</em></td>
<td>he</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ea</em></td>
<td>she</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>id</em></td>
<td>it nom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>me</em></td>
<td>me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>te</em></td>
<td>you acc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>eum</em></td>
<td>him</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>eam</em></td>
<td>her</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>id</em></td>
<td>it acc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Personal pronouns, plural:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>nos</em></td>
<td>we nom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>vos</em></td>
<td>you (pl.) nom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ei</em></td>
<td>they (masc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ea</em></td>
<td>they (fem.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ea</em></td>
<td>they (neuter)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>nos</em></td>
<td>us acc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>vos</em></td>
<td>you (pl.) acc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>eos</em></td>
<td>them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>eas</em></td>
<td>them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>ea</em></td>
<td>them</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Demonstrative pronoun:*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>hic</em></td>
<td>this (masc.) nom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>haec</em></td>
<td>this (fem.) nom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>hoc</em></td>
<td>this (neut.) nom.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>hi</em></td>
<td>these (masc.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>hae</em></td>
<td>these (fem.)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>haec</em></td>
<td>these (neuter)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>hunc</em></td>
<td>this acc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>hanc</em></td>
<td>this acc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>hoc</em></td>
<td>this acc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>hos</em></td>
<td>these acc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>has</em></td>
<td>these acc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>haec</em></td>
<td>these acc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
PRONOUNS MEANING ‘THAT’

7.1.4 Here are two other useful demonstrative (pointing) pronouns:

**iste ista istud** ‘that’ acc. **istem istam istud**

**ille illa illud** ‘that’ acc. **illum illam illud**

These both mean ‘that’, as opposed to **hic** ‘this’: the difference is that **iste** refers to what is nearer, **ille** to what is further away.

Archaic English, and some English dialects, had/have a similar distinction: ‘that’ for what is nearer, ‘yon’ or ‘yonder’ for what is further away. So do many other languages (e.g. Ancient Greek, Welsh, Zulu).

The masculine forms **ille** and **iste** are often best translated as ‘he’ (rather than ‘that man’); the feminine forms **illa** and **ista** as ‘she’ (rather than ‘that woman’). They are, however, more emphatic than **is** / **ea**. They are not necessarily rude or dismissive in the way that ‘that man’ can be in English (although **iste** sometimes tends that way).

PRONOUNS WITH NOMINATIVE AND ACCUSATIVE THE SAME

7.1.5 **Nos** and **vos**, and the neuters **quid id hoc istud illud**, can be either nominative or accusative; you tell which they are by the context.

- **Quid dicit Cicero?** What does Cicero say? (**dicit** says).
  - Cicero is nominative; therefore **quid** must be the object.

- **Quid commovet Ciceronem?** What worries Cicero? (**commovet** worries)
  - Ciceronem is accusative; therefore **quid** must be the subject.

- **Nos manemus** We are waiting. The verb is first person plural, so **nos** is the subject.

- **Nos manetis** You are waiting for us. The verb is second person plural, so **nos** must be the object.

Observe that in this instance, English can make a case distinction which Latin cannot make, between ‘we’ and ‘us’.

HIMSELF HERSELF ITSELF

7.1.6 There are two different pronouns in Latin for ‘him/her/itself’:

- **se** himself, herself, itself, themselves **acc.** is the so-called reflexive pronoun. It is used as object of a sentence, when the subject is doing something to him/her/itself. **Ille se lavat** he washes himself.

  The pronoun **se** takes the same form regardless of whether it refers to a man, woman, thing, or several men, women or things. Again, it is the context which decides. **Cicero se accusat** Cicero accuses **himself**; but **mulier se accusat** the woman accuses **herself**.

- **ipse ipsa ipsum**, acc. **ipsam ipsum** is the so-called intensive pronoun. It is used (among other things) to reinforce the subject of a verb:
  - **ipse dicit** He says (so) **himself**
  - **ipsa epistulam scribit** she writes the letter **herself**.
The two can be combined:

*se ipse occidit* he himself kills himself.

This sounds odd in English but is normal in Latin.

Learning to use these pronouns correctly can be a tricky business; but it is not so difficult to recognise them, which is all that is required now. We shall come back to the details later.

---

**WORD ORDER WITH PRONOUNS**

7.1.7 *Quis, quem, quid* ‘who?’ ‘whom?’ ‘what?’ generally (though not invariably) come *first* in the sentence.

Other pronouns, if they are emphasised, come first in the sentence; but if they are not emphasised, they usually come *second*.

*Isn’t that a rather odd rule – that a pronoun comes second in the sentence?*

Well, yes, I suppose so; but it is the general rule. Other languages such as Greek have it too. It really means that the pronoun comes as it were in the ‘shadow’ of the first emphatic word in the sentence, irrespective of the part that word plays in the sentence.

- Normal order, with no special emphasis on the pronoun *te*:
  
  **Quis te amat?** Who loves you? (amat loves)
  
  **Caesar te amat** Caesar loves you (‘you’ not particularly emphasised)

- Order with emphasised pronoun first:
  
  **Quem amat Caesar?** Whom does Caesar love?
  
  **Te amat Caesar** Caesar loves *you*; it is you that Caesar loves.

---

**Exercise**

Translate:

*Leo me videt.*

*Consul nos audit.*

*Ille Caesarem occidit.*

*Virgo illum amat.*

*Ille eam non amat.*

*Spectat eum Cicero.*

*Quid dicit consul?*

*Quis consulem occidit?*

*Quid occidit consulem?*

*Id me disturbat.*

*Quem videt Cicero?*

*Te videt.*

*Orator se ipse defendit.*

*Non audit vos senator.*

*Ille me non amat.*

*Amatne te homo?*

*Mene ille amat?*

*Non me sed te amat consul.*

*Se ipse amat Cicero magis quam me. magis quam* more than
7.2 Nuts and bolts (b): prepositions

7.2.1 Prepositions are words like ‘in’, ‘from’, ‘before’, ‘because of’, etc. They are placed before nouns (which accounts for their name, from praeponere ‘placed before’).

7.2.2 Prepositions in Latin fall into two groups according to the case of the noun which comes after them. They are said to ‘take’ or ‘govern’ the case. Many take the Accusative, e.g.:

ad to, towards, at, for: ad Caesarem epistulam mitto I send a letter to Caesar
ad finem contendunt they march towards the boundary
ad portam sedet he sits at the gate
ad cenam piscem emo I buy fish for dinner

propter because of: propter bellum because of the war
prope near: prope Romam near Rome.

7.2.3 Here is a list of these, for reference. No need to learn them at the moment (you can always use the dictionary); but many of them will be familiar from English derivatives:

ante before (cf. ‘ante-room’; not to be confused with the English prefix ‘anti’)
apud at, at the house of
ad to, towards
adversus facing, against (cf. ‘adverse’)
circum round (cf. ‘circumference’)
circa about, around
citra this side of, or cis (Cisalpine Gaul is the part of Gaul on this – the Roman – side of the Alps)
contra against (cf. ‘contradiction’), contrary to
inter between (cf. ‘inter-war period’), among (cf. ‘international’): inter amicos among friends; inter nos between us; inter Romam et Capuam between Rome and Capua
extra outside (cf. ‘extra’), beyond
infra below (cf. ‘infra-red’)
intra within
iuxta next to (cf. ‘juxtaposition’)
ob because of
post after, behind (cf. ‘post-war’)
praeter past, besides
prope near
propter because of
per through
secundum following, according to
supra above
ultra beyond (cf. ‘ultramodern’)
trans across (cf. ‘transit’)

Exercise
Translate the following phrases using the above list:

Trans fluvium
Ante bellum
Ultra expectationem
Propter amorem
Contra opinionem
Circa annum 1984
Adversus hostem
Apud Ciceronem
Prope portam
Nemo praeter te
Post hoc ergo propter hoc

Citra Alpes
Infra lineam
Secundum T. Livium
Extra dubitationem
Per ardua ad astra (ardua
lit. steep things, hence
difficulties; cf. ‘arduous’


7.2.4 A minority of prepositions – but some of them are very common – take a different case, the Ablative, which we must now learn. (The Ablative has a variety of other uses, but we shall concentrate on this one for the time being.)

7.3 The Ablative Case

7.3.1 The Ablative Singular is formed with the following endings, added to the stem of the noun. (To get the stem, start from the Accusative and remove the Accusative ending.)

First declension: -ā

Second declension: -ō

Third declension: -ē

In the first declension, the Ablative is spelled the same as the Nominative; but the –a of the nominative is short, that of the ablative is long.

In the second declension, the Ablative ending is the same as that of the Dative. We shall see more clearly how to distinguish them later on.

So the ablative singular of mensa table is mensā (with long a); that of murus wall is muro; that of vinum wine is vino; that of Caesar is Caesare.

ABLATIVE PLURAL

7.3.2 The Ablative Plural is always exactly the same as the Dative Plural. It is formed in the First and Second declensions with the ending –īs; in the Third Declension with the ending –ibus.

mensa, Ablative Plural mensis
murus, Ablative Plural muris
leo, Ablative Plural leonibus

PREPOSITIONS WITH THE ABLATIVE

7.3.3 The following prepositions take the Ablative:

a, ab from, away from

A mensa abscedit He goes away from the table
Ab ovo usque ad māla From the egg to the apples, i.e. through all the courses of a Roman dinner. (mālum apple, contrast mālum a bad thing)

Note As we shall find out in Unit 9, a / ab can also mean ‘by’, as in ‘this book was written by me’. Compare these two sentences and see how close the meanings are: ‘no sound was made by the baby’; ‘there was no sound from the baby’.

dē from, down from, about

De caelo descendit He descends from heaven
De Cicerone dicit He speaks about Cicero
**e, ex** from, out of

*Ex libris* ... From the books belonging to ...

*E cubiculo exit* He comes out of the bedroom

**cum** together with

*Cum Caesare cen* I have dinner with Caesar

**sine** without

*Sine te tristis sum* Without you I am sad

**pro** for

*Pro patri* For the fatherland

*Pro bono publico* For the public good

---

**IN OR INTO?**

7.3.4 The preposition **in** can take either the Accusative or the Ablative and the meaning is different according to the case used. With the Accusative it means ‘into’ or ‘against’; with the Ablative it means ‘in’.

*In hortum venit* He comes into the garden

*In periculum incurrit* He runs into danger

*In hostes telum emittit* He throws a spear against the enemy

*In vino veritas* In wine (is) truth

*In horto bibimus* We drink in the garden

*In Caesare est spes nostra* Our hope is in Caesar

You need to be very careful of this.

---

7.3.5 A similar distinction is observed with **super** and **sub**:

**super lunam** over the moon (motion)

**super luna** above the moon (position); also = ‘on the subject of’

**sub murum** under the wall (motion, e.g. through a tunnel); also = ‘up to’

**sub muro** under the wall (position)

---

**WHERE, HERE, THERE**

7.3.6 Note the following (and compare the demonstrative pronouns mentioned earlier):

**ubi?** where

**ibi** there (in the place mentioned)

**illic** there (over there, or the further away of two places mentioned)

**istic** there (by you)

**hic** here [note long i! contrast *hic* this]

---

*Exercise*

Translate, using the dictionary where necessary:

*Ubi habitatis?*
Habitamus hic in Britannia.
Vos autem in Italia habitatis.
Hic prope nos habitat.
Ego habito prope Londinium.

Ducite me in hortum.
In horto sede et vinum bibo.
In hortum ambulo; deinde in horto ambulo.
Sol in horto lucet, sed sol in horto non est: in caelo sol est, et in hortum lux solis venit.

Funde vinum in pocium.
Vinum est in poculo.
Vinum ex poculo in terram cadit. Vinum amittimus. Heu!

Quid facitis cum isto libro?
Liber est de lingua Latina: linguam Latinam discimus.
Nunc discimus de praepositionibus. Praepositiones sunt cum accusativo aut cum ablative. Amatisne praepositiones? Non amamus, sed illae nos occidunt!

END OF UNIT 7
UNIT 8

8.1 Revision of noun endings

8.1.1 It is now time to draw together everything we have so far learnt about the declension of nouns. We have introduced the five main cases, which are as follows:

- Nominative (dictionary form) used for the subject of a verb;
- Accusative, used for the object of a verb and with prepositions;
- Genitive, meaning ‘of’;
- Dative, meaning ‘to’ or ‘for’;
- Ablative, used with prepositions.

We have seen how nouns change their endings to form these cases in both the singular (referring to one person or thing) and the plural (referring to more than one). We have noticed how nouns can be analysed into a ‘stem’ (which does not change) and an ‘ending’ which changes from one case to another. We have had some practice in identifying case-forms in context and tracing them back to the nominative form in order to find them in the dictionary. We have also seen how nouns are grouped in ‘declensions’ – categories of nouns that form their cases according to similar patterns. We have met three of these so far, the First, Second and Third Declensions. Each of these has its characteristic set of endings.

It is very important that you should be familiar with the above concepts, and that you should now become thoroughly familiar with the different sets of endings, so that you can identify any case-form, trace it back to the nominative singular and find it in a dictionary. You should therefore now learn the following tables.

8.1.2 Tables of the first three declensions

Note: in these tables a hyphen is used to separate the stem from the ending, as in e.g. accusative consul-em.

First Declension

Mostly feminine: puell-a ‘girl’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>puell-a</td>
<td>puell-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>puell-am</td>
<td>puell-as</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>puell-ae</td>
<td>puell-arum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>puell-ae</td>
<td>puell-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>puell-a</td>
<td>puell-is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Second Declension

Mostly masculine: **serv-us** ‘slave’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>serv-us</td>
<td>serv-i</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>serv-um</td>
<td>serv-os</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>serv-i</td>
<td>serv-orum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>serv-o</td>
<td>serv-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>serv-o</td>
<td>serv-is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Variants:**

(a) *nouns ending in* –*ius*

*e.g.* filius ‘son’: gen. sing. filii or fili (nom. pl. always filii)

(b) *nouns ending in* –*er*

*e.g.* liber ‘book’, stem libr-

(c) *vir* stem vir-, *puer* stem puer- .

Neuter: **ov-um** ‘egg’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>ov-um</td>
<td>ov-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>ov-um</td>
<td>ov-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>ov-i</td>
<td>ov-orum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>ov-o</td>
<td>ov-is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>ov-o</td>
<td>ov-is</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Third Declension

Masculine or feminine: **consul** ‘consul’ stem consul-

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>consul</td>
<td>consul-es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>consul-em</td>
<td>consul-es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>consul-is</td>
<td>consul-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>consul-i</td>
<td>consul-ibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>consul-e</td>
<td>consul-ibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Variants: different kinds of stems**

*leo* ‘lion’ stem leon-

*virgo* ‘girl’ stem virgin-

*can-is* ‘dog’ stem can-
Neuter: **nomen** ‘name’ stem **nomin-**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>nomen</td>
<td>nomin-a</td>
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<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
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<td>nomin-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>nomin-is</td>
<td>nomin-um</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>nomin-i</td>
<td>nomin-ibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>nomin-e</td>
<td>nomin-ibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Variants**

(a) different kinds of stems

**opus** ‘work, task’ stem **oper-**

(b) stems ending in **-i**. The **-i** is either lost in the Nominative Singular (as in **animal**) or appears as **–e** (as in **cubile**).

**animal** ‘animal’ stem **animal-i-**
- ablative singular **animal-i** (not **–e**!)
- nominative plural **animal-i-a**
- genitive plural **animal-i-um**

**cubil-e** ‘bed’ stem **cubil-i-**
- ablative singular **cubil-i**
- nominative plural **cubil-i-a**
- genitive plural **cubil-i-um**

**Practice**
Using the dictionary where necessary, identify the case and number of the following nouns, and give the nominative singular and the meaning. Where two or more analyses are possible, give all the possibilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>operibus</td>
<td>nominative</td>
<td>dominos</td>
<td>rationes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>animalis</td>
<td>genitive</td>
<td>cubilium</td>
<td>bellis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>marginis</td>
<td>ablative</td>
<td>librorum</td>
<td>maria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>signa</td>
<td>nominative</td>
<td>libra</td>
<td>reginis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>genitive</td>
<td>consulum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### SOLVING AMBIGUITIES

8.1.3 We have already seen that some of the case-forms are identical and can only be distinguished by the context. Here is a list of those encountered so far:

First Declension: **-ae** genitive and dative singular, and nominative plural.

- **puellae bibunt** The girls are drinking
- **puellae vinum hoc est** This is the girl’s wine
- **puellae vinum do** I give wine to the girl

- **a** with short **a** nominative singular, with long **a** ablative singular.

- **puella scribit** the girl is writing
- **a puella epistula venit** a letter comes from the girl
Second Declension: -i genitive singular and nominative plural

- servi ministrant vinum the slaves serve wine
- servi vinum hoc est this is the slave’s wine

-o dative or ablative singular

- servo vinum do I give wine to the slave
- a servo vinum accipio I accept wine from the slave.

All declensions: dative and ablative plural the same

- pueris fabulam narramus We tell the story to the boys
- a pueris pecuniam accipimus We receive money from the boys

- consulibus victoriam nuntiamus We announce the victory to the consuls
- a consulibus nuntium accipimus We receive a message from the consuls

8.1.4 Remember also that you sometimes have to know what declension a word belongs to before you can tell what case you have in front of you.

- -i in the Second Declension means genitive singular or nominative plural (servi)
- -i in the Third Declension means dative singular (consuli).

- servi veniunt The slaves are coming
- servi pallium habeo I have the slave’s cloak

- but

- consulī epistulam do I give the letter to the consul.

- is with short i is genitive singular of the Third Declension;
- is with long i is dative or ablative plural of the First and Second Declensions.

- servis epistulam do I give the letter to the slaves
- a servis epistulam accipio I take/receive the letter from the slaves

- but

- consulis epistulam accipio I receive the consul’s letter.

- -a is nominative singular or (with long a) ablative singular of First Declension;
- -a in the Second and Third Declensions is neuter plural nominative or accusative:

- regina vinum bibit the queen drinks wine

- but

- caupo vina optima vendit the innkeeper sells excellent wines.
Exercise

*Translate using the dictionary where necessary:*

Haec est regina.
Hic est reginae servus.
Haec est reginae serva.
Haec sunt reginae verba.
Reginae verba in libro scribo.
Servus librum reginae dat.
A regina librum accipio.

Servi dominum protegunt.
Servos domini protegunt.
Domini vinum servus portat.
Domino vinum servus dat.
Dominus vinum servi portat.
Domini vinum servi portant.
Dominis servi vinum adferunt.
A dominis servi vinum accipiunt.

Cicero consul est.
Ciceronem consulem video.
Pompeius dubitat; itaque Ciceronem consulit.
Consuli epistulam mittit.
Consul epistulam legit.
A consule epistula venit.
Consulis epistula quaestionem solvit.

8.2 Building the first and second persons of verbs into the picture

8.2.1 Until now (apart from a brief encounter with the Imperative near the beginning) we have largely concentrated on verbs in the third person. The great majority of verbs in most Latin texts are likely to be third-person, and they are easily recognisable: the third person singular ends in *–t* and the plural in *–nt*, and very few other words have those endings, so you can be pretty sure when you have found a third-person verb.

However, the first and second persons of verbs (*ending in *–o –s –mus –tis*) are not so distinctive, and it is sometimes necessary to look carefully at the context in order to decide whether the word in front of one is a verb or a noun. All languages have problems of this sort, including English. Take the word ‘bear’. Is it a verb, meaning ‘put up with, endure’, or is it a noun, meaning ‘large brown furry animal’? You don’t know until you have seen the context. ‘The bear can’t bear to be in the zoo’. Now there is no problem!

8.2.2 Here are some examples of possible ambiguities:

- *-o* dative and ablative singular second declension, or first person singular of verbs. As a noun, *servo* means ‘to the slave’; but there is also a verb *servo* which means ‘I keep, I preserve’.

  * librum servo do* I give the book to the slave
  * librum servo* I keep the book.

  * librum servo servo* would mean ‘I keep the book for the slave’ – if anyone ever said it!
-e ablative singular third declension, or imperative of verbs in the third conjugation. consule is the ablative of the noun consul, but also the imperative of consulo I consult.

- is 3rd declension nominative or genitive ending, or 2nd person singular of verbs in the third conjugation. canis means ‘dog’ but is also the second person singular of cano I sing.

In all these instances, there are enough unambiguous words in the rest of the sentence to solve the problem without great difficulty, once you are aware that there are two possibilities. The cardinal rule in dealing with things like this is: if the word you have found in the dictionary doesn’t seem to make sense, KEEP LOOKING!

NOUNS IN APPOSITION TO A SUBJECT UNDERSTOOD FROM THE VERB FORM

8.2.3 Look back at 6.3 for an explanation of ‘apposition’.

You can have a noun (in the Nominative) in apposition to a first-person subject, whether or not ego is expressed. So you can have Ego Caesar venio or just Caesar venio I, Caesar, am coming. When ego is omitted, it can initially be confusing; it reminds you that you must look at the ending of the verb.

Example
consul hoc dico I, the consul, say this, or: I say this as consul.
(NOT ‘the consul says this’: that would be consul hoc dicit).

So also with the other persons:
Venis in Africam imperator You come to Africa as commander
Catilinam consul occidit can mean ‘he, as consul, kills Catiline’ as well as ‘the consul kills Catiline’, it depends whether ‘he’ has been previously mentioned.
Britanni reginam amamus We Britons love the Queen.
Cur professorem discipuli timetis? Why do you, as students, fear the professor?

Exercise
Translate:
Imperator audit.
Imperatorrem audio.
Imperator audio.
Audisne imperator?
Audisne imperatorem?
Imperatorem audient.
Imperatores audient.
Cur me canis vexat?
Cur me canis vexas?
Nos canes non vexamus.
Nos canes non vexatis.
Nos canes non vexant.
8.3 Declining pronouns

8.3.1 We now have to learn to recognise the Genitive, Dative and Ablative of pronouns.

Let us start with the genitive:

**cuius?** whose? (genitive of *quis*)

cius his, her(s), its; of him/her/it (genitive of *is ea id*)
huius this man’s / woman’s; of this man/woman (genitive of *hic*)
isti, illi, isti that man’s / woman’s; of that man/woman (genitives of *iste, ille*)

ipsius of …. him/her/itself e.g. **ipsius Ciceronis** of Cicero himself.

*Note* Pronouns have a peculiar ending in the Genitive Singular: **-ius**. It does not change for the gender of the possessor; **eius** means ‘his’, ‘hers’ or ‘its’ according to the context.

8.3.2 The genitive plural is just like that of the nouns, and **does** change for gender. The masculine forms are like the Second Declension; the feminine forms are like the First Declension.

eorum their(s), of them (masculine or neuter) **earum** their(s), of them (feminine)
horum these men’s, of these men; **harum** these women’s, of these women
isterum, illorum those men’s, of those men
istarum, illarum those women’s, of those women
ipsorum, ipsarum of … themselves.

It is odd that the gender of the possessor suddenly becomes important in the plural, when it made no difference in the singular, while with us it is the reverse: ‘his’ is different from ‘hers’, while in the plural we use the same form ‘theirs’.

*So how did the Romans manage? How do you say ‘his and hers’ in Latin?*

You would have to specify the names, or use the words **vir** man and **mulier** woman.

*Note* We shall come to the Latin for ‘mine’, ‘ours’, ‘yours’ later on.

**DATIVE OF PRONOUNS**

8.3.3 The dative singular forms of pronouns all end in **–i** (like the Third Declension), the plurals in **–is** (like the Second Declension):

cui? to/for whom?

mibi to/for me; nobis to/for us
tibi to/for you (sing.); vobis to/for you (plural)
ei, illi,isti to/for him/her/it; eis, illis, istis to/for them

sibi to/for himself/herself/itself/theirseves e.g. **sibi hoc emit** he buys this for himself
ipsi to/for …. him/her/itself e.g. **ipsi Ciceroni** to Cicero himself
ipsis to/for … themselves e.g. **ipsis mulieribus** to the women themselves
Example
The poet Catullus started his collection of poems with a dedication:

*Cui dono lepidum novum libellum ...?*
To whom do I present my neat little book? ...

*CorNELI, tIbI.*
To you, Cornelius.
(=Cornelius Nepos, the biographer.)

Note The datives *ei isti illi ipsi* have the same form as the nominative plural masculine, and these forms must be told apart by the context: *dico ei* I say to him, *ei dicunt* they say. Sometimes a distinction in spelling is made between *ei* dative (to him/her/it) and *ii* nominative plural masculine (they); but not always.

---

8.3.4 When translating datives with verbs like ‘give’, ‘tell’, etc., remember that we do not always have to use the word ‘to’ in English in these contexts.

*Da mihi librum* Give me the book (= give the book to me).
*NarrA ei fabulam* Tell him the story (= tell the story to him).

---

ABLATIVE OF PRONOUNS

8.3.5 The ablative of the 1st and 2nd person and reflexive pronouns is as follows (with preposition *a* as example):

*a me* from me
*a te* from you
*a se* from himself/herself/itself/themselves

*a nobis* from us
*a vobis* from you (plural)

The ablative of other pronouns follows the pattern of the second declension in the masculine, and the first declension in the feminine:

*a quo?* from whom? *a qua?* from whom? (referring to a woman)

*ab eo/isto/illo* from him/it
*ab ea/illa/ista* from her
*a Cicero ipso* from Cicero himself; *a Cleopatra ipsa* from C. herself

*ab eis/istis/illis* from them (no distinction of gender)
*ab his* from these men/women/things
*a Romanis ipsis* from the Romans themselves.

8.3.6 Note the following idioms where the preposition used may be different from the one used in English:

*quaero ab* or *ex* I ask for sth. from someone
*dissentio ab* I disagree with
Exercise

Translate using the dictionary where necessary:

Cuius est hoc?
Cuius est liber? Ciceronis est.
Cui librum do? Caesari.
Librum Catullo do.
Librum Catulli tibi do.
Tu mihi das librum Ciceronis.
Librum eius habeo, sed non lego.
A quo librum accipis? A Cicerone ipso.
Ego vobis fabulam narro. Vos nobis plausum datis.
A me responsum quaeritis. Ego autem responsum non haveo: ab isto quaerite.
Cur piscem emistis? Nobis ipsis.
Philosophi hoc dicunt, ego autem ab eis dissentio.

8.3.7 SUMMARY OF DECLENSION OF PRONOUNS

EGO, NOS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>ego ‘I’</td>
<td>nos ‘we’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>me ‘me’</td>
<td>nos ‘us’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>mihi ‘to me’</td>
<td>nobis ‘to us’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>me</td>
<td>nobis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TU, VOS

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>tu ‘you’</td>
<td>vos ‘you’ (plural)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>te</td>
<td>vos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>tibi ‘to you’</td>
<td>vobis ‘to you’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>te</td>
<td>vobis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

SE ‘himself, herself, itself, themselves’ (no nominative)

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
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<tr>
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</table>

Note The Genitive of the above pronouns will be dealt with later.

IS, EA, ID

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>Plural</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>is ‘he’</td>
<td>ei ‘they’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>eum ‘him’</td>
<td>eos ‘them’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>eius ‘his’</td>
<td>eorum ‘their(s)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ei ‘to him’</td>
<td>eis ‘to them’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>aflatrive</td>
<td>eis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ea ‘she’</td>
<td>eae ‘they’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>eam ‘her’</td>
<td>eas ‘them’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>eius ‘her(s)’</td>
<td>earum ‘their(s)’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ei ‘to her’</td>
<td>eis ‘to them’</td>
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<td></td>
<td>aflatrive</td>
<td>eis</td>
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<tr>
<td>Case</td>
<td>Neuter Nominative</td>
<td>Accusative</td>
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<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-------------------</td>
<td>------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>id ‘it’</td>
<td>ea ‘they’, ‘those things’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>id</td>
<td>ea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>eius ‘its’</td>
<td>eorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>ei ‘to it’</td>
<td>eis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>eo</td>
<td>eis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### HIC, HAEC, HOC ‘this man, woman, thing’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>hic</td>
<td>hi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>hunc</td>
<td>hos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>huius</td>
<td>horum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>huic</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>hoc</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>haec</td>
<td>hae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>hanc</td>
<td>has</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>huius</td>
<td>harum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>huic</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>hac</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuter</td>
<td>hoc</td>
<td>haec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>hoc</td>
<td>haec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>huius</td>
<td>horum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>huic</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>hoc</td>
<td>his</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### ILLE, ILLA, ILLUD ‘that man, woman, thing’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Masculine</td>
<td>ille</td>
<td>illi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>illum</td>
<td>illos</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>illius</td>
<td>illorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>illi</td>
<td>illis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>illo</td>
<td>illis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feminine</td>
<td>illa</td>
<td>illae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>illam</td>
<td>illas</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>illius</td>
<td>illarum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>illi</td>
<td>illis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>illä</td>
<td>illis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuter</td>
<td>illud</td>
<td>illa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>illud</td>
<td>illa</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>illius</td>
<td>illorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>illi</td>
<td>illis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>illo</td>
<td>illis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note:**

- **Iste, ista, istud** follows the same pattern.
- **Ipse** follows the same pattern except that the neuter nom./acc. sing. is ipsum.
Animate Nominative quis? ‘who?’
Accusative quem? ‘whom?’
Genitive cuius? ‘whose?’
Dative cui? ‘to whom?’
Ablative quo?

Neuter Nominative quid? ‘what?’
Accusative quid? ‘what?’

The above tables should be learned. Pronouns are so common that it is well worth the effort of learning them.

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**REVISION**

Before attempting the following ‘mock’ test paper, read through Units 1-8 again. If anything is unclear, make a note of it and ask the teacher.

Then look once more at the verb tables in Unit 5 and at the noun and pronoun tables in Unit 8. You should aim to be familiar with all the patterns, so that you can recognise any person of the verb and any case of a noun in the first three declensions, and trace it back to the dictionary form.

Here again are the essentials:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb endings, present indicative:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>–o I –s you –t he/she/it –mus we –tis you (pl.) -nt they</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative: singular –a/e/i plural –te.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun endings:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st decl. -a -am -ae -ae -a -ae -as -arum -is -is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd decl. -us -um -i -o -o -i -os -orum -is -is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neuter -um neuter pl. –a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd decl. -- -em -is -i -e -es -es -um -ibus -ibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neuter -- neuter pl. –a/-ia</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When you have worked through the ‘mock’ test paper, you will be in a position to attempt a real test on Units 1-8.
Using the dictionary where necessary, translate into English as many of the following as you can; you are not expected to finish. If you cannot do one of them, pass on to the next one. There is not necessarily a logical connection between one sentence and the next, though there may be. Marks to be awarded for each sentence are shown in brackets. Answers are available in the interactive Moodle version.

**Running total**

1. Quis es? (2) 
2. Quis est? (2) 
3. Ego sum Aeneas. (3) 
4. Illa est Dido. (3) 
5. Dido est regina Carthaginis. (3) 
6. Aeneas a Troia venit. (3) 
7. Aeneas Carthaginem deserit. (3) 
8. Dido se ipsa occidit. (3) 
9. Tum Aeneas in Italiam procedit. (4) 
10. Romulus et Remus fratres sunt. (3) 
11. Romulus in collem Palatinum ascendit, Remus in Aventinum. (5) 
12. Remus sex vultures videt, Romulus duodecim. (5) 
13. Remus murum Romuli transilit. (4) 
14. Ob hanc causam Remum fratrem occidit Romulus. (5) 
15. Tum Romulus Romam condit. (4) 
16. Haec est ovis. (3) 
17. Hoc est ovum. (3) 
18. Hic est Ovidius; is est poeta. (5) 
19. Haec est avis. (3) 
20. Hic est avus; haec est avia. (5) 
21. Avus mihi consilium dat. (4) 
24. Num Ovidium poetam legitis? (4) 
25. Legimus vero, et multum amamus. (5) 
26. Poetae novem Musas colunt. (4) 
27. A Musis inspirationem capiunt. (4) 
28. Oves pascit Hesiodus in collibus. (5) 
29. Illic Musae eum visitant. (4) 
30. Tune etiam carmina componis? (4) 
31. Non ego, sed illud poetis relinquo. (5) 
32. Ego oves in agro pasco. (4) 
33. Avis volat; nec ovis nec avus volat. (5) 
34. Ab avis consilium accipimus, non ab avibus. (5) 
35. Imperator ovem sacrificat, ovationem accipit. (5) 
36. Hanc exercitationem prope conficimus. (4) 
37. Haec exercitatio nos conficit. (4) 
38. Nugae! Exercitationes Latinae vos delectant. (4)
PART II: UNITS 9-16

UNIT 9

9.1 Help – I’ve been robbed! The Passive Voice

9.1.1 The Passive is the form of the verb used to say that the subject is having something done to him/her/it. Examples in English are: ‘I’ve been robbed!’, ‘Watches are repaired here’, ‘You are advised not to smoke’, ‘That simply is not done’, ‘We are being watched’, ‘Be warned!’ ‘I am told that you will be here next week’. The Passive is particularly useful when you don’t want to specify precisely who is doing the action (‘Mistakes were made’; ‘Measures were taken to quell the unrest’) but you can always specify this by adding an extra phrase involving the word ‘by’, e.g. ‘I’ve been robbed by the professor’ or ‘Watches are repaired here by trained personnel’.

The Latin verbs we have seen so far are all Active, i.e. they say that the subject is doing something. Now we shall deal with the corresponding Passive forms. The Latin Passive differs from the English one (so far as the present tense goes) in that the ‘passiveness’ of the verb is expressed in the verb ending, not by adding extra words. This makes it all the more important to look at the endings before deciding what a particular verb form means. For example, *occido*, the Active form, means ‘I am killing (someone)’, as you already know; but *occidor*, the Passive form of the same verb, means ‘I am being killed’. That r at the end makes all the difference.

People who have learned Latin the old way may be surprised when you show them this course, and will probably exclaim, ‘What! Have you got on to the Passive already?’ In this course the Passive is deliberately introduced early. If anything, the Passive is more common in Latin than it is in English, and it is one of the basic building blocks of the language. One cannot go far in a Latin text without meeting a verb in the passive. It is very important to learn to distinguish active from passive, and – as with recognising individual people who look like each other – it is much easier to do this once one has seen both of them together.

*Note* The names come from Latin *activus*, from *ago* I do, act; *passivus* from *patior* I suffer, undergo, endure.

For the moment, we shall concentrate on the present tense of the Passive, which is formed on the same basic principle as the Active, i.e. by adding endings to a stem, but with a different set of personal endings. To make things easier still to begin with, we shall start by confining ourselves to the third-person forms: those forms that are used when the subject is ‘he’, ‘she’, ‘it’, ‘they’, or a noun.

9.1.2 Here is an example of the Passive in an inscription from Palermo, Sicily. This is a bilingual inscription in Greek and Latin. The Greek reads as follows in literal translation:

‘Monuments (stelai) are sculpted and inscribed here for sacred temples as well as public works’.

Note the passives ‘are sculpted and inscribed’.

Evidently this inscription advertised the services of a stonemason adept in both languages.

The Latin reads:

TITVLI HEIC ORDINANTUR ET SCVLPVNTVR AIDIBUS SACREIS CVM OPERVM PVBLICORVM.
The inscription dates probably from the first century B.C. and contains some (by classical standards) old-fashioned spellings: heic for hic ‘here’, aedibus for aedibus ‘for temples’, sacreis for sacris dative plural of sacer ‘sacred’. It also contains a grammatical error due to interference from the writer’s native Greek. The preposition cum ‘together with’, ‘as well as’, takes the Ablative, as you already know from Unit 7. But there was no Ablative case in Greek, and the writer has substituted the Genitive operum publicorum. Corrected and modernised, then, the inscription would read as follows:

Tituli hic ordinantur et sculpuntur aedibus sacris cum operibus publicis.
lit. Inscriptions here are arranged and are cut for temples sacred together with works public i.e. Inscriptions for temples and public buildings arranged and cut here.

9.1.3 Let us now concentrate on the two verbal forms ordinantur and sculpuntur. These are Passive forms, meaning ‘are arranged’ (put in order) and ‘are cut’ (cut in stone, sculpted) respectively. The subject is tituli, ‘inscriptions’; so these are the third person plural forms.

The dictionary forms of the verbs ‘to arrange’ and ‘to cut in stone’ are ordino (1st conjugation) and sculpo (3rd conjugation). The third person plural of the active would be: ordinant ‘they arrange’ and sculpunt ‘they cut in stone’.

To get the passive form of a third-person verb in Latin, you take the corresponding active form and add the two letters –ur:

ordinant they arrange     ordinantur they are arranged

sculpunt they cut in stone    sculpuntur they are cut in stone.

9.1.4 Let us look at some more examples of how this works in practice:

First conjugation:

Homo pulsat the man hits
Homines pulsant the men hit

Homo pulsatur the man is hit
Homines pulsantur the men are hit

Second conjugation:

Canis mordet the dog bites
Canes mordent the dogs bite

Canis mordetur the dog is bitten
Canes mordentur the dogs are bitten

Third conjugation:

Mulier decipit the woman deceives
Mulieres decipiunt the women deceive

Mulier decipitur the woman is deceived
Mulieres decipiuntur the women are deceived

Fourth conjugation:

Consul audit the consul hears
Consules audiunt the consuls hear

Consul auditur the consul is heard
Consules audiuntur the consuls are heard

Note The endings -ātur -ētur -ītur in the first, second and fourth conjugations have long (and therefore stressed) vowels in the last syllable but one. But the i in the ending –ītur in the third conjugation is short, and so a form like decipitur is stressed on the third syllable from the end, i.e. on the stem.
LOOKING UP PASSIVE VERBS IN THE DICTIONARY

9.1.5 You know that verbs are listed in the dictionary under their first person singular form. Now that we have introduced the Passive, we must expand on this slightly and note that the dictionary form is in fact the first person singular active form. If the verb you want to look up is in the Passive, you will need to turn it back into the active before you can look it up.

Suppose you find the form audiuntur. You know immediately that it is Passive, because it ends in -ur. If you remove that ending, you get audiunt which is the corresponding Active form, third person plural. From there you can get back to the dictionary form which is audio ‘I hear’.

Then, to find the meaning of the form in front of you, you have to feed in the information contained in the ending:

audi- ‘hear’ + -unt- third person plural + -ur passive

= ‘they are being heard’.

Note One word of caution: when dealing with third-person singular passive forms such as amatur or conditur, do not be tempted to confuse them with nouns ending in -tor such as amator lover, or conditor founder. These will often be the nearest dictionary entry to a passive verb; but they are NOT the same! To avoid confusion on this kind of thing, cultivate a distinct pronunciation of the ending -ur (it should rhyme with the Scottish pronunciation of ‘poor’, with a clearly rolled r). Amatur must be looked up under amo; conditur under condo.

9.1.6 An exception to the usual pattern of meaning is videt: videtur. Videtur does not usually mean, as you might expect, ‘is seen’; it means ‘seems’ or ‘appears’. If you want to say ‘is seen’ you have to use another verb, e.g. conspicit ‘catches sight of’: conspicitur; cernit ‘perceives, picks out’: cernitur.

Videtur mihi means ‘it seems to me’ which is virtually equivalent to ‘I think’.

Hoc mihi videtur ‘That’s what I think’.

Videtur also means ‘it seems right’:

Fac illud, si tibi videtur ‘Do that, if it seems right to you’.

Practice

Give the passive forms corresponding to the following active forms, and give the meaning:

amant they love
regit he/she/it rules	
timet he/she/it fears
puniunt they punish
aedificat he/she/it builds

Trace the following passive forms back to the dictionary form (i.e. the first person singular active, ending in -o) and give the meaning:

pulsatur delectantur monetur eliguntur munitur eliciuntur spectantur fatigatur deligitur capitur diligitur timentur
FURTHER CLARIFICATION …

9.1.7 Learners of Latin often get confused about passives, and the reason for this is clear: at the beginning, it is drummed into their heads that the doer of the action is the subject and goes in the nominative; the sufferer of the action is the object and goes into the accusative. This is true of Active verbs, which are the only verbs anyone ever meets at the very beginning of a Latin course. But then the learner encounters Passives and all this seems to be thrown up in the air. Suddenly it is the sufferer of the action who is the subject and must go into the nominative. What on earth can be going on?

This is not a confusion about Latin. It applies equally well to English, where we also have an active-passive distinction. The point is that there are two different distinctions:

- the distinction between the AGENT (doer) and the PATIENT (sufferer)
- the distinction between the SUBJECT of the verb and the OBJECT.

The same fact can be stated both in the active and in the passive. In the active, the subject is the agent (doer of the action) and the object is the patient (sufferer). In the passive, however, the subject is the patient (sufferer). In the passive the agent need not be specified, which makes passives especially useful either when the identity of the agent is not known, or when it is desired to avoid the question of who did it.

Examples

Active: **Pulso hominem** I hit the man.
   I = agent = subject; the man = patient = object.

Passive: **Pulsatur homo** The man is hit.
   The man = patient = subject; agent not specified.

Similarly:

- **Audis consulem** You hear the consul
- **Auditur consul** The consul is heard

- **Decipit mulierem amator** The lover deceives the woman
- **Decipitur mulier** The woman is deceived

- **Canem leones mordent** The lions bite the dog
- **Canis mordetur** The dog is bitten

Exercise

i. Read the following sentences containing an Active verb together with their translations; then translate the sentences containing a Passive verb. Do this exercise once with the Active sentences visible. Then cover them up, and try the Passives again.

For example:
- **Conspicio leonem**, I catch sight of the lion.
- **Leo conspicitur**, the lion is caught sight of.

- **Amamus professorem**, we love the professor
- **Scribis nomen**, you write the name
Ille canes occidit, that man kills dogs
Illi leonem in arenam ducunt, they lead the lion into the arena
Vos libros legitis, you are reading the books
Servum punio, I punish the slave
Romulus Romam condit, Romulus founds Rome (condo I found)
Coquus carnem condit, the cook seasons the meat (condio I season)
Servi dominos excitant, the slaves wake their masters
Quem decipis? Who are you deceiving?

Now translate:
Professor amatūr Scrititur nomen
Canes occiduntur Leo in arenam ducitur
Libri leguntur Punitur servus
Roma conditur Caro conditur
Domini excitantur Quis decipitur?

Translate:
In arena gladiatores pugnant, et bestiae occiduntur.
Hic gladiator bene pugnat et vincit. Ille male pugnat et vincitur.
In arena etiam homines bestiis obiciuntur et cum eis pugnant.
Interdum bene pugnant et liberantur, sed saepe occiduntur.
Si servus a domino fugit, fugitivus vocatur.
Dominus servum verberat; servus a domino fugit, sed mox capitur.
Si fugitivus capitur, punitur. Fugitivi saepe ad bestias dantur.

9.2 By whom was it done? Agents

9.2.1 Often you want to say that something is done by someone. The person by whom an action is done, as we have just seen, is called the agent. If the action is expressed by a passive verb, the agent does not need to be specified. But the identity of the agent can also be made explicit; and when this is done, we use a phrase involving the preposition by. ‘The man was bitten’. Fair enough; but by whom or what was the man bitten? Answer: he was bitten by the dog. The dog was the agent.

Note The word ‘agent’ comes from Latin ago ‘I do’ or ‘I act’, and it literally means ‘doer’. The modern meaning comes from the legal use of the word to refer to a person who acts on someone else’s behalf.

9.2.2 The agent is expressed in Latin by the preposition a or ab. You have already met this in the meaning ‘from’. We now have to cope with the fact that it can mean ‘by’ as well: the correct English equivalent must be chosen according to the context. This ambiguity is not usually troublesome; in the vast majority of cases only one of the two meanings will make good sense in English.

Learners of English doubtless encounter precisely the same kind of difficulty when they deal with our preposition ‘by’, which can mean ‘near’ as well as ‘through the agency of’. ‘He was killed by the robber’ – agent. ‘He was killed by the corner of the street’ – equals ‘near’. In fact, many languages express the notion of agency by means of a preposition that also means something else, e.g. German durch = ‘through’, Italian da = ‘from’, Ancient Greek hypo = ‘under’.

9.2.3 You will remember that a/ab requires the Ablative case after it:
a domino from the master, or by the master
a consule from the consul, or by the consul
ab imperatore from the commander, or by the commander.
a servis from the slaves, or by the slaves.

9.2.4 The form normally used before a consonant is a.
The form ab is used before vowels, but is sometimes found before consonants as well: either
a domino or ab domino is correct.

There is also a special form abs which is used almost exclusively before te ‘you’ – though a

teq is equally common.

9.2.5 Here are some examples of sentences involving passive verbs, with the agent expressed
by a(b) with the ablative:

Orator a Caesare auditur The orator is heard by Caesar.
Caesar a senatore occiditur Caesar is killed by a senator.
Homo a muliere pulsatur The man is hit by the woman.
Illud ab oratore dicitur That is said by the orator.
Leo ab homine conspicitur The lion is seen by the man.

The order preposition + noun is invariable. Otherwise, the word order can often be varied for
emphasis. Other possible patterns are:

Orator auditur a Caesare The orator is heard by Caesar.
A senatore Caesar occiditur It is by a senator that Caesar is killed.
Mordetur homo a cane The man is bitten by the dog.

How do you tell whether a(b) means ‘from’ or ‘by’?

If the verb is active, or if the noun after a(b) denotes a thing or a place, then the meaning
must be ‘from’.

Examples:
Accipio epistulam a Caesare I receive a letter from Caesar.
Mittitur epistula a Palatio A letter is sent from the Palace.

If the verb is passive, and the noun after a(b) denotes a living being, then the meaning will
usually be ‘by’, as in the examples above, but occasionally there is a choice:

Epistula mittitur a Caesare A letter is sent by Caesar
or A letter is sent from Caesar.

Latin speakers might have had difficulty in seeing the distinction that English makes here
between ‘by’ and ‘from’: it is in any case Caesar who is the source of the letter.

ABLATIVE OF PRONOUNS

9.2.6 Pronouns very often figure as agents with a(b), and at this stage it is a good idea to
revise the ablative forms of those pronouns we have already seen, combined with this
preposition:

Interrogative:
a quo? by whom?

Personal:
a me by me
a te by you alternative form: abs te
ab eo by him
ab ea by her

a nobis by us
a vobis by you (addressing several people)
ab eis by them

Demonstrative:
ab hoc by this man
ab isto by that man (nearer)
ab illo by that man (further away)

ab hac by this woman
ab ista by that woman
ab illa by that woman

ab his by these men/women
ab istis by those men/women
ab illis by those men/women

Reflexive:
a se (ipso) by him(self)

Note a se ipso means ‘by his own agency’; ‘by himself’ in the sense of ‘on his own’ is per se, a phrase which has been adopted into learned English: ‘That is per se improbable’, i.e. ‘that is unlikely in itself, apart from other considerations’.

9.2.7 While we are on the ablative of pronouns, let us take note that the preposition cum ‘with’ is suffixed to the pronouns me te se nobis vobis, and sometimes also to quo. So:

mecum with me
tecum with you
nobiscum with us
vobiscum with you

quocum? with whom?

secum with himself/herself, or (more idiomatically in English) with him/her, as in ‘he brings Caesar with him’, Caesarem secum adducit.

Exercise

Translate:
Homo a me conspicitur.
A vobis occiditur Caesar.
Non mordet homo canem, sed mordetur ab illo.
Poeta Lesbiam amat sed ab illa non amatur.
A quo auditur orator? A Caesare.
Illud a te dicitur, sed quid dicitur a Caesare?
Ad Caesarem ducitur senator.
Nuntius a Caesare venit.
Nuntii a Caesare mittuntur.
Nuntius a populo auditur.
Ab illis contemnitur, sed ab his placide excipitur.
Cicero ad me venit: epistulam secum habet.  
Epistula ab Attico scribitur.  
Epistulam ab Attico accipit Cicero.

9.3 Compound verbs

9.3.1 Let us now consider another topic connected with verbs (we shall return to Passives in unit 12). English, like many other languages, is very fond of combining verbs with prepositions. Normally we put the preposition after the verb, as in ‘to come in’, ‘to give up’, ‘to put up with’, and so on. However, in some circumstances – for instance, in the present participle (ending in ‘-ing’) – the preposition gets stuck onto the beginning of the verb, as in ‘incoming’ or ‘outgoing’ from ‘to come in’ or ‘to go out’. We are all familiar with ‘ingrowing’ toenails, ‘forthcoming’ events (or in bureaucratic jargon ‘upcoming’), and so on. Latin does this all the time. A compound verb in Latin is made up of a verb with a preposition added on to the beginning of it, as a prefix.

Compound verbs are very common in Latin. We have seen some of them already; now is the time to be a bit more systematic about them.

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root verb</th>
<th>duco</th>
<th>I lead</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compounds:</td>
<td>abduco</td>
<td>I lead away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>deduco</td>
<td>I lead down</td>
<td>de+duco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>induco</td>
<td>I lead in</td>
<td>in+duco</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root verb</th>
<th>voco</th>
<th>I call</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Compounds:</td>
<td>avoco</td>
<td>I call away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>evoco</td>
<td>I call out</td>
<td>e(x)+voco</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>convoco</td>
<td>I call together</td>
<td>con+voco (con = cum)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

9.3.2 The relationship between the meaning of a compound and that of its root verb is not always as straightforward as in the above examples. For example, invoco does not mean ‘call in’, as one might expect, but ‘call on’ (a god), i.e. ‘invoke’. The only way to be sure of the meaning of a compound is to use the dictionary. However, it helps to be able to analyse compounds into their component parts, and we shall spend a little time on developing this skill. English derivatives can also help.

9.3.3 Some prepositions have meanings that are slightly different from their normal ones when used as prefixes.

For example, ad- often means ‘in addition’:

do give: addo ‘give in addition’ (cf. Eng. ‘add’)  
sumo take: adsumo ‘take in addition’

Ob- tends to mean ‘in the way’ (cf. Eng. ‘obstacle’, ‘obstruct’):

venio come: obvenio come in someone’s way, come to meet  
est is: obest is in the way, is an obstacle

Per ‘through’ often implies succeeding in doing something or doing it thoroughly:

persuadeo persuade, convince (suadeo try to persuade)  
perficio (per+facio) finish doing something, achieve

Sub- (lit. ‘under-’) implies a lesser degree of something:

rideo laugh: subrideo lit. ‘under-laugh’, i.e. ‘smile’ (cf. French sourire)
9.3.4 Apart from the prepositions, there is also the prefix re- ‘back’ (cf. the word retro ‘backwards’), which appears occasionally as red-, especially before vowels.

Examples

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin Verb</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>revoco</td>
<td>I call back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>renuntio</td>
<td>I report back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>redeo</td>
<td>I go back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reddo</td>
<td>I give back</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note re- does not mean ‘again’, as the English prefix re- often does (redo, remake etc.). It always means ‘back’.

9.3.5 The opposite of a compound verb is a ‘simple’ verb (i.e. a verb which consists only of a verbal root without a preposition). Some Latin verbal roots do not occur as simple verbs but only in compounds. For example, defendo means ‘defend’ and is a compound of the preposition de- with the root -fend-; but there is no simple verb *fendo.

Others in this category are compounds of the roots spec- (spic-) ‘look’, and lic- ‘attract’:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin Verb</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aspicio</td>
<td>look at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>respicio</td>
<td>look back</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suspicio</td>
<td>look upwards (from below) – If you are suspicious of someone, that is the way you look at them!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>elicio</td>
<td>draw out, elicit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>illicio</td>
<td>entice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pellicio</td>
<td>(per+licio) seduce</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FUSING AT THE JOINT: ASSIMILATION

9.3.6 In compound verbs, the preposition and the verbal root often tend to ‘fuse at the joint’ (as far as the sounds are concerned). A change takes place in the last letter of the preposition, to make it easier to pronounce together with the initial sound of the verbal root. When the two sounds end up the same, the change is called assimilation: e.g. ad ‘to’ + porto ‘carry’ = apporto ‘bring’. Sometimes other changes happen: for example, the root verb fero also means ‘carry’. For ‘carry away’, therefore, you might expect *abfero. But in fact ab+fero gives aufero. Some compound verbs occur in two equally permissible forms, one with assimilation and one without, e.g. affirmat (assimilated) or adfirmat (unassimilated) ‘he affirms’, from ad- and -firmat. Note that the English derivative usually comes from the assimilated form.

9.3.7 Here, for reference, is a table of the most important changes:
First letter of root verb: | a- | ad- | con- (prefixed form of cum) | ex- | in- | ob- | per- | sub-
---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---
    | b- | comb- | eb- | imb- | occ- | succ- | susc-
    | c- | absc- | acc- | | | | |
    | d- | | ed- | | | | |
    | f- | aff- | eff- | off- | suf- | | |
    | g- | agg- | eg- | | | | |
    | l- | all- | coll- | el- | ill- | | |
    | m- | am- | comm- | em- | imm- | om- | summ- | |
    | n- | ann- | con- | | | | |
    | p- | app- | comp- | | | imp- | opp- | supp-
    | q- | | | | | | |
    | r- | arr- | | | | | |
    | s- | ass- | | | | | |
    | t- | abst- | | | | | |
    | | | | | | | |

**Examples**

| ab+condo = abscondo | hide away |
| ab+mitto = amitto | lose |
| ad+cedo = accedo | approach |
| ad+fero = affero | bring |
| con+lino = collino | smear |
| ex+mitto = emitto | send out |
| sub+censeo = suscenseo | find fault, be annoyed |

Boxes left blank in the above table indicate that no change takes place (or else no such compounds exist).

**VOWEL WEAKENING**

9.3.8 Furthermore, the formation of a compound sometimes results in a change in the vowel of the verbal root. This is called *vowel weakening*, and happened because in archaic Latin the preposition was stressed more than the verb, so that the vowel of the verb root came to be pronounced less distinctly. The rules are as follows:

**Short a or e changes to i**

- capio take
- teneo hold
- re+capio recipio take back
- con+teneo contineo hold in, contain

**Short a before two consonants changes to e**

- partio divide
- in+partio impertio give a share of, impart

**Short a before l + consonant changes to u**

- salto jump, dance
- ex-salto exsulto jump about, jump for joy, exult

**ae changes to long i**

- quaero search
- ex+quaero exquiro search out
au changes to long u (occasionally appears as o)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>claudio close</th>
<th>in+claudio includo</th>
<th>plaudo applaud</th>
<th>ex+plaudo explodo</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

You don’t have to learn these rules by heart, but if you do know them, you will find it a lot easier to ‘see through’ unfamiliar compounds.

**Practice**

Analyse the following compound verbs into (1) prefix and (2) root verb. Use the dictionary to find their meaning, and note any English derivatives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>retineo</th>
<th>prohibeo</th>
<th>admitto</th>
<th>amitto</th>
<th>egero</th>
<th>requiro</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>conecto</td>
<td>pellicio</td>
<td>sustineo</td>
<td>suppono</td>
<td>obstruo</td>
<td>attineo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>illustro</td>
<td>edo</td>
<td>corripio</td>
<td>aufugio</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**COMPOUNDS OF THE VERB ‘TO BE’**

9.3.9 It is worth noting, finally, that the Latin verb ‘to be’ has a number of compounds. In the dictionary you will, of course, find them under their first-person singular forms, e.g. ad-sum ‘I am here’, but here we list some of them in their third-person forms which you are more likely to encounter in reality. Mostly they are variations on the basic idea of ‘presence’ or ‘absence’.

- ab-est isn’t there, is absent (cf. absens absent) look up absum
- ad-est is there (but praesens present) look up adsum
- in-est is inside, is present in look up insum
- ob-est is in the way, is a nuisance look up obsum
- prod-est is useful, beneficial, profitable look up prosum
- de-est is lacking, falls short look up desum
- super-est is left over, survives look up supersum
- prae-est is in charge look up praeum
- inter-est is involved, makes a difference (yes, this is the origin of our word ‘interest’) look up intersum

Most of these need a dative to complete their meaning:

- adsum amicis I am there for my friends
- hoc mihi prodest this is beneficial for me
- tibi illud obest that is a nuisance for you
- deest illis animus courage is lacking for them, i.e. they are short of courage.
- non interfuit solum coniurationi, sed praeuit he was not only involved in (lit. for) the conspiracy, he was its leader.

END OF UNIT 9
UNIT 10

10.1 Noun-phrases

10.1.1 A phrase containing more than one word may perform the same grammatical function as a noun. Such a phrase is called a NOUN-PHRASE. Examples of noun-phrases might be:

- This pig.
- This black cat.
- Good ideas.
- All the spotted piglets.
- How many spotted piglets …?

All the elements of a noun-phrase refer to the same thing or idea. Thus in ‘this black cat’, the words ‘this’, ‘black’ and ‘cat’ all refer to the same cat. It’s this cat; it’s a black cat; and, of course, it’s a cat. Usually, English constructs noun-phrases just by putting all the words next to one another without changing them. Sometimes, however, we have to select the appropriate form of a word from several possible ones.

For example, with the demonstrative pronoun this, there are two possible forms: a singular form, this, and a plural form, these. Whether this or these is selected depends on whether the noun is singular or plural.

With a singular noun, e.g. cat, we use this: this cat.
With a plural noun, e.g. cats, we use these: these cats.

We cannot say this cats or these cat. In grammar we say that the pronoun this or these must AGREE with the noun it goes with, i.e. take the appropriate form according to whether it is a singular or plural noun. This agrees with cat; these agrees with cats. These would disagree with cat because the one word is marked out by its form as plural, while the other is singular; hence they could not possibly refer to the same thing, because the same thing cannot be plural and singular at the same time.

Why does the language make us do this? The answer is to do with ensuring that we are absolutely clear what we are referring to. By marking a single phrase twice, with a plural form of the demonstrative pronoun these and a plural noun cats, we make doubly sure that our listener or reader knows that several cats are being referred to. The fact that several words in a sentence – noun, pronoun, adjective or whatever – agree in their grammatical form (e.g. are all singular or all plural) makes it clear that they all refer to the same thing, and hence are grammatically part of the same phrase.

10.1.2 A noun-phrase may contain a number of different elements: e.g. the noun itself (e.g. pig), adjectives, i.e. describing words (e.g. spotted), demonstratives, i.e. specifying words (e.g. this). A complete noun-phrase made up of these three elements would be this spotted pig.

The essential point to remember, as far as Latin is concerned, is that all adjectives or pronouns which go with a noun (i.e. belong to the same noun-phrase) must be in the same GENDER, CASE and NUMBER as the noun. Whereas in English there is practically only one kind of agreement (singular or plural pronouns going with singular or plural nouns), agreement is evidently a more complex business in Latin. In Latin a pronoun or adjective that goes with a noun (i.e. is meant to refer to the same thing as the noun) must agree with it in form in ALL THREE of these ways. For example, if the noun is feminine, a pronoun or adjective going with it must also select a feminine form; if the noun is in the accusative the pronoun or adjective must also be in the accusative; and – of course, it should now go without
saying – if the noun is plural, a pronoun or adjective that goes with it will also be plural, just as in English.

So, if the noun phrase is built around the noun ‘pig’, which is masculine in Latin (porcus), the word for ‘this’ must also be in its masculine singular form (hic) and the adjective for ‘spotted’ must also be in its masculine singular form (varius): **hic varius porcus**. Then, after the gender and number have been sorted out, the whole phrase, i.e. every declinable word in it, must go in the appropriate case for its function in the sentence.

(Some words are not declinable, i.e. do not change for case: the most important of these are the numerals greater than 3. ‘Four pigs’ as subject is **quattuor porci**; as object, **quattuor porcos**. No problem here: it’s just like English.)

10.1.3 Here are examples of this in all the cases:

Nominative singular:

**Hic varius porcus in horto est** This spotted pig is in the garden.

If the spotted pig is the object of a verb, the whole phrase must go in the accusative:

**hunc varium porcum video** I see this spotted pig.

If it is the possessor of something, e.g. a twisted tail, the whole phrase must be in the genitive:

**huius varii porci cauda contorta est** this spotted pig’s tail is twisted.

If it is the indirect object the whole phrase must go in the dative:

**huic vario porco cenam do** I give dinner to this spotted pig.

If it is in the ablative, e.g. after a preposition, the whole phrase must be ablative:

**de hoc vario porco fabulam narro** I tell a story about this spotted pig.

In the plural it will go through a similar set of transformations:

**hi varii porci in horto sunt** these spotted pigs are in the garden

**hos varios porcos video** I see these spotted pigs

**horum variorum porcorum caudae contortae sunt** these spotted pigs’ tails are twisted

**his variis porcis cenam do** I give dinner to these spotted pigs

**de his variis porcis fabulam narro** I tell a story about these spotted pigs.

10.1.4 With a feminine noun, the pronoun **hic** would take its feminine form **haec**, and the adjective **varius** would become **varia**:

**haec varia porca** this spotted sow

acc. **hanc variam porcam**

gen. **huius variae porcae**

dat. **huic variae porce**

abl. **hac variā porcā**

Plural:

nom. **hae variae porcae**

acc. **has varias porcas**

gen. **harum variarum porcarum**

dat., abl. **his variis porcis**
10.1.5 And with a neuter noun, the word for ‘this’ becomes **hoc** and the word for ‘spotted’ becomes **varium**:

```
hoc varium pallium this spotted cloak, nom. or acc.
```

gen.
```
huius varii pallii
```
dat.
```
huic vario pallio
```
abl.
```
hoc vario pallio
```

**Plural:**
nom., acc.
```
haec varia pallia
```
gen.
```
horum variorum palliorum
```
dat., abl.
```
his variis palliis.
```

---

10.2 How shall I describe it …? Latin adjectives

10.2.1 Adjectives are words that describe nouns, e.g. ‘good’, ‘bad’, ‘big’, ‘small’, ‘red’, ‘international’. We had one example above (**varius**); here are some other common ones:

```
bonus good (now you know why a bonus is so called)
malus bad
magnus great, large
multus much; multi many
parvus small
calidus hot
frigidus cold
longus long
latus wide
angustus narrow
altus high, tall, deep
sanus sane, healthy; insanus insane
```

The dictionary form (the form given in the above list) is the masculine singular nominative form, i.e. the form that would be used together with a masculine noun in the nominative singular (subject of a sentence). The above adjectives, and many others, are classified as second-declension adjectives, because their masculine (and neuter) forms decline exactly like nouns of the second declension (you will have noticed that they all end in **-us** in the dictionary form). There are also third-declension adjectives; we shall leave those until a bit later.

In order to look up an adjective in the dictionary, you need to work back from whatever form is in front of you (in any of five or six cases, three genders, and singular or plural) to the dictionary form, i.e. the masculine singular nominative. In adjectives of this class the dictionary form always ends in **-us**.

---

10.2.2 Since adjectives change their form according to the gender of the noun they go with, it helps to identify the gender of the noun first, if you can.

If the noun is masculine, the adjective with it will also be in the masculine, so it’s just a matter of finding which of the second-declension case-forms you have in front of you (**-us** **-um** -i -o; **-i** -os -orum -is).

If the noun is feminine, the ending of the adjective will be selected from the first-declension case forms (**-a** **-am** **-ae** -a; **-ae** -as **-arum** -is). The nominative singular of the feminine of the adjective will be **-a**; this then has to be replaced by **-us** in order to get the dictionary form.
If the noun is neuter, the ending of the adjective will be selected from the second-declension neuter forms, which are the same as the masculine except that the nominative singular is -um and the nominative and accusative plural are both -a. A neuter plural noun of whatever declension will also end in -a so you have two chances to recognise what is going on in a neuter plural noun phrase.

**Examples:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>murus longus</td>
<td>look up longus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insula bella</td>
<td>look up bellus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bellum horridum</td>
<td>look up horridus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Accusative:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>murum altum</td>
<td>look up altus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insulam magnam</td>
<td>look up magnus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Genitive:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>muri antiqui</td>
<td>look up antiquus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>insulae Britannicae</td>
<td>look up Britannicus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vini boni</td>
<td>look up bonus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Nominative Plural:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gladii obtusi</td>
<td>look up obtusus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reginae magnae</td>
<td>look up magnus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verba acuta</td>
<td>look up acutus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10.2.3 In the above examples the noun and adjective rhyme, because they happen to belong to the same declension. But this is not always true, as the noun may belong to a different declension from the adjective. Here is an example of a second-declension adjective with three third-declension nouns, one of each gender:

**Examples:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>leo magnus</td>
<td>look up magnus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>portio magna</td>
<td>look up magnus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>opus magnum</td>
<td>look up magnus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The adjective has the same three forms magnus, magna, magnum, as it had before (adjectives don’t change their declension, whatever type of noun they go with!). Leo is masculine, so the adjective is in its masculine form magnus. Portio is feminine, so the adjective is in its feminine form magna. Opus is neuter, so the adjective is in its neuter form magnum. But in all of these instances the form you find in the dictionary is magnus.

10.2.4 Here is an example of the complete declension of a masculine third-declension noun with a second-declension adjective:

**Examples:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professor insanus</td>
<td>look up insanus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Nominaive:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professor insanus</td>
<td>look up insanum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Accusative:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professorem insanum</td>
<td>look up insanum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Genitive:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professoris insani</td>
<td>look up insani</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Dative:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professori insano</td>
<td>look up insano</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Ablative:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professore insano</td>
<td>look up insano</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professores insani</td>
<td>look up insani</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professores insanos</td>
<td>look up insanos</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professorum insanorum</td>
<td>look up insanorum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professoribus insanis</td>
<td>look up insanis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
<th>Look up</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>professoribus insanis</td>
<td>look up insanis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
**Practice**  
Identify the case of each of the following phrases (if more than one is possible, give both) and find the dictionary form of each word.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>phrase</th>
<th>dictionary form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>portio magna</td>
<td>leonem magnum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vini boni</td>
<td>viri boni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>homine ignavo</td>
<td>oratoris bono</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puellae pulchrae</td>
<td>temporis longi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>locum angustum</td>
<td>reginam augustam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperatores magni</td>
<td>imperatoris magni</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consulum bonorum</td>
<td>consiliorum bonorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>servis fidis</td>
<td>leonibus feris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>feriis aestivis</td>
<td>canis ferus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**WORD ORDER WITH ADJECTIVES**

10.2.5 The order of adjectives and nouns is flexible in Latin. Hence the endings are a great advantage, as they show you which adjective goes with which noun: this is illustrated in the practice exercise below. In general, adjectives tend to go after the noun, as in the examples given immediately above. But if they are emphasised, they are placed before the noun:

- **vinum album** white wine (‘white’ not particularly emphasised)
  but
- **album vinum, non rubrum** white wine, not red

The emphatic position before the noun is often used:

- for adjectives in which there is an element of judgement or evaluation,  
  e.g. **bonus vir** a good man;

- for adjectives relating to quantities or numbers, e.g. **multi homines** many people.

**Practice**

Memorise the meaning of the adjectives **bonus** good; **longus** long; **magnus** large or great; **altus** high.

In this exercise the only forms to appear will be **nominative and accusative singular** of the three genders; hence only **six** possible forms of each adjective, at the most, need be considered at this stage.

Now translate the following sentences:

- Servus bonus vinum portat.
- Servus bonum vinum potat.
- Orator magnum orationem scribit.
- Orator magnus orationem legit.
- Orationem magnum orator componit.
- Poeta longum carmen recitat.
- Collem altum homo ascendit.
- Collem altus homo descendit.
- Homo magnus consulem salutat.
- Scriptorem magnum imperator laudat.
If you get 10 out of 10 on this exercise, you have got the basic idea. If not, read through the last few pages again until you have got the hang of it!

Now look through the same set of 10 sentences and say in each case whether or not the adjective is emphasised. If it comes before the noun, it is emphasised; if afterwards, not.

### POSSESSIVES

10.2.6 Among the most useful adjectives are the POSSESSIVE adjectives.

- **meus** my, mine
- **tuus** your, yours (speaking to one person)
- **suus** his, her, its, their (own)

- **noster** our, ours
- **vester** your, yours (speaking to more than one person)

---

_Didn’t you mention another word for ‘his, her, its’?_

Yes: **eius** (genitive of *is ea id*). There is a difference, which may be illustrated by the following pair of sentences:

- _suam togam sumit_ he puts on his (own) toga
- _eius togam sumit_ he puts on his (i.e. someone else’s) toga.

---

10.2.7 Possessives are ordinary second-declension adjectives, and agree in gender with the thing possessed (n.b. NOT with the gender of the possessor!)

- **gladius meus** my sword
- **puella mea** my girl
- **nomen meum** my name

**Noster** and **vester** do not end in -**us**, but in spite of that they take normal second-declension adjective endings in every case other than the nominative singular; the endings are added to the stems _nostr-_ and _vestr_-.

- acc. _amicum nostrum_
- gen. _amici nostri_

**etc.**

The feminine forms are **nostra** and **vestra**; the neuter, **nostrum** and **vestrum**.

---

10.2.8 Possessives follow the usual rule of order: they go after the noun, except when emphasised.

- **vir meus** my husband
- **uxor mea** my wife
- **pallium meum** my cloak,
  - but **meum pallium** my cloak (not someone else’s).
10.3 More about demonstratives; word order again

10.3.1 The pronouns *hic* ille and *iste* can be used in two ways.

(a) On their own, corresponding to English *this, that, these, those*. In this usage they *substitute* for nouns.

(b) Together with a noun, corresponding to English *this (man, woman, thing), that ...*, *these ..., those ...*, as in *this man, that lion, these places, those women*. The pronoun, as already seen above, must agree with the noun – i.e. must go in the same gender, number and case as the noun.

10.3.2 The pronoun provides a useful way of distinguishing between different cases, where the noun would have the same form:

- **The genitive and dative singular and nominative plural of the first declension:**
  - *huius togae* of this toga; *huic togae* to this toga; *hae togae* these togas

- **The genitive singular and nominative plural of the second declension:**
  - *huius servi* of this slave; *hi servi* these slaves

- **The dative and ablative singular of the second declension:**
  - *huic servo* to this slave; *ab hoc servo* from this slave

- **The nominative and accusative plural in the third declension:**
  - Nominative *hi leones, hae mulieres* but accusative *hos leones, has mulieres*.

WORD ORDER WITH DEMONSTRATIVES

10.3.3 In English we say *this lion, that place*, not *lion this, place that*. In Latin, however, both orders are possible. Although it is more common to have the demonstrative before the noun, it is not unusual to find orders like *leo hic* this lion, *locus iste* that place, *nomen hoc* this name. This occurs when the noun is relatively emphatic compared with the pronoun.

This happens particularly if you are calling someone names: ‘that blockhead over there’ would almost certainly be (e.g.) *nebulo ille* rather than *ille nebulo*.

SEPARATION OF PRONOUN AND NOUN

10.3.4 Now for the tricky bit!

A pronoun which is strongly emphasised may be *separated* from the noun it agrees with. Between them one may find the verb, or some other part of the sentence. This is what is called ‘hyperbaton’ (Greek for ‘stepping over’). It is so common in Latin that you must get used to it as soon as possible.

- **Hic advenit leo** this lion is arriving, versus **hic leo advenit**
- **Hanc amas mulierem** you love *this woman*, versus **hanc mulierem amas**
- **Hoc cadit in bello** he falls in *this war*, versus **in hoc bello cadit**
- **Istum occidit senatorem** he kills *that senator*, versus **istum senatorem occidit**

10.3.5 And what happens if you want to turn these sentences into questions? Well, of course you add *-ne* to the pronoun at the beginning.
When -ne is added to a form of hic ending in -c, it develops an extra i, like this:


**Examples**

Illamne amas mulierem? Is it *that* woman you love?
Huncine librum legis? Is it *this* book you’re reading?

10.3.6 Prepositions are very often placed between the emphasised demonstrative and the noun:

hunc ad locum towards *this* place
illo in bello in *that* war

10.3.7 As we have seen, possessives like *meus* ‘my’, and possessive genitives like *Ciceronis* ‘Cicero’s’, usually come after the noun: *liber meus* my book, *oratio Ciceronis* Cicero’s speech. But when there is also a demonstrative, they tend to come between the demonstrative and the noun. This may need some adjustment in English translation:

hic meus liber lit. ‘this my book’, acceptable in archaic or legal English (e.g. ‘I appoint X as executor of this my will’) but not in modern style; we have to say ‘this book of mine’.

haec Ciceronis oratio lit. ‘this Cicero’s speech’ (not acceptable in any English); we have to say ‘this speech of Cicero’ or ‘this speech of Cicero’s’.

**Haec Ciceronis oratio multam vituperationem in Antonium continet** This speech of Cicero’s contains a lot of criticism against Antony.

**Exercise**

Rearrange the following sentences so as to place *maximum* emphasis on the pronoun, and give the meaning. There may be more than one way of doing it.

Hic servus a domino plurimum cibum accipit This slave gets most food from the master
Leo ab hoc servo plurimum cibum accipit The lion gets most food from this slave
Servi isti dominum non amant Those slaves don’t like their master
Puellae non amant istum poetam The girls don’t like that poet
Senatores audiunt oratorem illum The senators hear that orator
Imperatorem illi senatores audiunt Those senators hear the commander.
Poetae bono hoc praemium idoneum est This prize is suitable for the good poet.
10.4 Topicalisation and contrast

10.4.1 Consider the sentence: *Cicero filium et filiam habet. Filiam Cicero diligat, filium non tantum diligit.* Cicero has a son and a daughter. The daughter Cicero loves, the son he does not love so much.

In the second sentence, the words *filium* and *filiam* are placed at the beginning of their respective parts of the sentence. This is another variation on the rule that words go at the beginning for emphasis. These words are placed at the beginning because they contrast with each other. The daughter, *filiam*, is the object of the first verb *diligat*; then our attention shifts to the son, *filium*. The shift of attention is called a change of *topicalisation*: the daughter is the topic of the first half of the sentence, the son is the topic of the second. Both in Latin and in English, topicalised words are often placed first in the sentence; but Latin does this even more than English, particularly when there is a contrast between two topics. When this happens, there is often no need for any word like ‘and’ or ‘but’ or ‘however’; the word order does it all.

*Cicero orationem habet, Caesar audit* Cicero is making a speech, [and] Caesar is listening or:

*Orationem habet Cicero, audit Caesar* The speech is being made by Cicero, the listening is being done by Caesar.

This example is over-translated to show how the word order works.

In the above examples, the order is the same in the two halves of the sentence. As suggested above, there is another variation, called ‘chiasmus’, in which the order in the second half is reversed.

*Cicero orationem habet: audit Caesar* Cicero is making a speech; the listening is being done by Caesar.

---

**AUTEM**

10.4.2 The word *autem*, which (in default of a better equivalent) we have to translate as ‘on the other hand’, often points to a change of topicalisation:

*Cicero orationem habet: Caesar autem audit* Cicero is making a speech; Caesar on the other hand is listening.

Often a good way of translating *autem* is ‘as for’, though it involves recasting the sentence in English:

Cicero is making a speech; as for Caesar, he’s listening.

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10.5 Particles and conjunctions

10.5.1 *Autem* (just discussed) belongs to the class of words called particles, which are optional additions as far as the grammatical structure of a sentence is concerned, but serve to show the logical connection with the context. Within that group, it belongs to a special category called *postpositive* particles, which can never normally begin a sentence but usually come second, after the first emphatic word. You will often find a particle of this kind between words which go together grammatically: *liber autem meus* as for my book, *hunc autem poetam* as for this poet [acc.]. However, prepositions don’t count for this purpose; so if a sentence begins with a preposition and a noun, the particle will usually go after the noun; e.g. *a Cicerone autem laudem accipit* from Cicero, on the other hand, he gets praise. You may
remember that unemphatic pronouns are also placed second: particles take precedence over them, so e.g. ille autem me amat he, on the other hand, loves me.

Other such particles in Latin are:

- **tamen** nevertheless, however, still
- **igitur** therefore (n.b. do not start thinking that *igitur* is a verb in the passive!)
- **enim** for, because
- **quidem** indeed

*Examples:*

**Cicero orationem habet; Caesar tamen non audit** Cicero is making a speech; however Caesar is not listening

**Leonem timet servus; abit igitur** The slave fears the lion; therefore he goes away

**Abit servus; leonem enim timet** The slave goes away; for he fears the lion

**Leonem quidem timet, sed manet** He fears the lion indeed, but he stays

These particles will often come to your rescue when you are trying to see your way through a Latin sentence; so it is as well to learn them thoroughly now.

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**PAIRS OF CONJUNCTIONS**

10.5.2 Conjunctions (words like *and, or, etc.*) in Latin have a habit of hunting in pairs. You will need to know the following:

- **et** and; **et ... et** both... and
- **nec** or **neque** nor; **nec ... nec** or **neque ... neque** neither...nor.
- **aut** or; **aut ... aut** either...or
- **vel** or; **vel ... vel** either...or

If you see one of these conjunctions, you have to decide whether it is functioning on its own or as the first element of a pair; the translation will be different in either case.

**Aut** and **vel** both mean ‘or’, but **aut** is stronger, and tends to be used in cases where the alternatives are mutually exclusive, or where there is no possibility other than those mentioned; **vel** means something like ‘or if you prefer’, offering a weaker alternative.

*Examples:*

**Caesar et Pompeius** Caesar and Pompey

**Et Caesar et Pompeius** Both Caesar and Pompey

**Et videt et audit** He both sees and hears

**Et Caesar orationem habet, et Pompeius audit** Both Caesar is making a speech, and Pompey is listening: it is the case both that C. is making a speech and that P. is listening.

**Caesar aut Pompeius** Caesar or Pompey

**Aut Caesar aut Pompeius** Either Caesar or Pompey

**Aut amat aut non amat** Either he loves or he doesn’t love

**Aut ego insanus sum, aut Caesar vincit** Either I am mad, or Caesar is winning.
10.5.3 The particle *etiam* has two common meanings.

When it goes closely with a word after it, it means ‘even’; when it goes closely with a word before it, it means ‘also’, ‘too’.

- **Ille etiam** he also, he too
- **Etiam ille** even he

*Quoque* always goes closely with the word before and means ‘also’ or ‘too’:

- **Ille quoque** he also, he too.

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**ALTERNATIVE QUESTIONS**

10.5.4 *An* means ‘or’ in questions which ask you to decide between two alternatives:

- **Amat an non amat?** Does he love or does he not love?

The first alternative may be preceded by *utrum*, which originally meant ‘which?’:

- **Utrum venit an non venit?** Is he coming or not?
  - or just
  - **Utrum venit annon?** (*annon* = *an*+*non*)
- **Utrum ambulat an currit?** Is he walking or running?

Observe the difference between:

- **Caesar an Pompeius venit?** Is it Caesar or is it Pompey who is coming? (it must be only one of the two, but which is it?)
- **Num Caesar aut Pompeius venit?** Is either Caesar or Pompey coming? (is it the case that either of them is coming?)

In English, owing to the fact that our *or* can mean both *aut* and *an*, we can make jokes like the following:

*Hostess*: Would you like tea or coffee? (meaning *an*)
*Guest*: Yes, I would like tea or coffee. (meaning *aut*)

This would be impossible in Latin.
Exercises

A. Translate in such a way as to reflect the emphasis conveyed by the word order:

Meum librum habeo, tuum non habeo.
Meus liber bonus est, tuus malus.
Album an rubrum vinum potas?
Ego album vinum poto, ille autem rubrum.
Amicae nostrae vinum rubrum amant. (2 possible meanings)
Num vos nostrum vinum amatis?
Amicas nostras amamus, amitas non amamus.
Nostros amicos vinum rubrum delectat.
Da mihi rubri vini poculum, non albi.
Hoc amamus vinum, illud non amamus.
Utrum hoc an illud vinum amatis?
Non hoc, sed illud amamus vinum.

B. Translate:

Cuius est hic liber? Meus est.
Librum meum mecum porto.
Aut album aut rubrum vinum potamus.
Illi vero et album et rubrum potant.
Poeta amicam suam amat.
Poeta carmina sua magis amat.
Sua carmina et suam amicam poeta amat.
Poeta amicae suae multa carmina scribit.
Suae amicae carmina componit poeta, non meae.
Illius carmina me delectant, tua non delectant.
Poetam sua carmina delectant, mea.
Ab amicis meis carmina non componuntur sed orationes scribuntur.
A bonis poetis multum vinum consumitur.
Ab his scribuntur carmina poetis.
Ab aquae potoribus bona carmina non scribuntur.
Mala autem carmina a nobis non audiuntur.

END OF UNIT 10
UNIT 11

11.1 More about adjectives

ADJECTIVES USED AS NOUN-EQUIVALENTS

11.1.1 Some adjectives can double as nouns. In English we can do this with adjectives denoting nationality or allegiance, e.g. a Roman, a Christian. This is often done in Latin as well: *homo Romanus* or just *Romanus* a Roman; *mulier Romana* or just *Romana* a Roman woman (note how the ending shows you the gender, so that no noun is actually necessary); *Christianus* a Christian.

We can also do this in the plural by prefixing the definite article: the poor, the good. Similarly Latin has, e.g., *boni* ‘good men’. Latin can also do this in the *neuter* plural, as English cannot: *bona* good things (or ‘goods’); *mala* bad things, evils; *magna* great things.

In English we can say ‘many people believe’ or just ‘many believe’. In Latin, similarly, one can say either *multi homines credunt* or just *multi credunt*. *Multae* would mean ‘many women’; *multa* would mean ‘many things’.

It is also very common to find the *possessive* adjectives used as nouns. *Mei* means ‘my people’, so (in a private context) ‘my family’, or in a military context ‘my men’. Similarly *tui, sui, nostri, vestri*.

> Mei te salutant: *my people* send you their regards.
> Imperator suos laudat: the commander praises *his men*.

‘A GOOD ONE, ‘NEW ONES’, etc.

11.1.2 *Ego antiquos poetas amo, tu novos* I love old poets, you (love) new *ones*. Both Latin and English avoid repeating the same noun with two successive adjectives. But whereas English often marks the omission of the noun by substituting the word *one* or *ones*, Latin merely omits the noun. The ending of the adjective is enough to show its gender and number, and its function in the sentence. In translation, therefore, you will often have to insert the word ‘one’ or ‘ones’ (depending whether the adjective is singular or plural). There is no Latin word to correspond to our ‘one’ or ‘ones’.

NEGATION OF ADJECTIVES: *HAUD*

11.1.3 The word *non* can be used to negate adjectives, e.g. *non multi* not many, *non bonus* not good.

But there is also another negative word *haud* which occurs frequently in this context: *haud multi* not many, *haud bonus* not good.

*Haud* doesn’t look much like a negative, but it is one (if you know Greek it may remind you a little of the Greek *ōb*). It is occasionally found also with verbs, e.g. *haud dubito* I don’t doubt.

The standard grammars are unhelpful on the difference between *non* and *haud*. The best I can do is to say (a) that *non* is very much commoner, and becomes more so as the language develops over time; (b) that *non* often carries a sense that there will be a following ‘but …’, whereas *haud* does not; so *haud* can be more final and peremptory than *non*. Hence e.g.
Pope Gregory is supposed to have said *non Angli sed angeli* ‘not English, but angels’; whereas *haud Angli* would mean ‘not English, whatever else they are’.

MORE ABOUT WORD ORDER WITH ADJECTIVES

11.1.4 We have already seen how adjectives can come either before or after the noun. If they come first, they are emphasised: *vinum album* white wine, but *album vinum* white wine.

Still more emphasis can be placed on an adjective if it is separated from its noun. We have already seen how this can happen with the demonstrative pronouns *hic*, *ille* etc. Here are some examples of how it can happen with adjectives as well:

*Bonum consulem habemus* We have a good consul
*Bonum habemus consulem* We have a good consul.

*Magnum opus ab illo conficitur* A great task is being accomplished by him
*Magnum ab illo conficitur opus* A great task is being accomplished by him.

*Nova ratio ab hoc philosopho proponitur* A new method is being proposed by this philosopher
*Nova ab hoc philosopho ratio proponitur* A new method is being proposed by this philosopher.

11.1.5 It should now be even clearer how vital it is to look at the endings of adjectives. It is not uncommon for an adjective separated from its noun to come next to another noun that it does not agree with. You must at all costs resist the temptation to take it together with that noun!

*Example:*

*Longum philosophus librum scribit* NOT ‘the long philosopher writes a book’ (???)
*BUT ‘the philosopher writes a long book’.

*Longum* is accusative and goes with *librum; philosophus* is nominative.

Exercise

Translate:

*Altos habet Roma muros.*
*Cicero longas habet orationes.*
*Multi in hac terra inveniuntur lupi.*
*Per portam intrat angustam.*
*Via lata ad forum ducit.*
*Angusta ad gloriam via ducit.*
*Antiquos ego scriptores semper lego.*
*Sed tu poetas amas novos.*
*Novus consul librum legit.*
*Novum consul librum legit.*
*Romam boni regunt consules.*
*Mali autem consules Romam non protegunt.*
*Bonu consules a populo amantur, mali non.*
*Bonu saepe consules eliguntur, interdum mali.*

(N.B. *habet orationem* = makes a speech)
Boni interdum consules eliguntur, saepe non mali.
Tu autem bonos laudas, malos vitas.
Puellam bonus poeta amat.
A bona poeta puella amatur.
A bono poeta puella amatur.
Bona a poeta amatur puella.

11.2 How do you do it? Instrumental Ablative; Adverbs

11.2.1 Question ‘How do you milk a porcupine?’
   Answer ‘Very carefully.’

   This is a joke because of the two different meanings of ‘how’. The person asking the
   question presumably meant ‘by what means do you milk a porcupine?’. The answerer
   deliberately misunderstands the question to mean ‘in what manner do you milk a porcupine?’.

   The Latin for ‘how’ is Quomodo? As in English, this can be a question about the means by
   which an action is performed, or about the manner in which it is performed.

   • ‘How do you kill a crocodile?’ Quomodo crocodilum occidis?
   • ‘How is he taking the news?’ Quomodo nuntium fert?

11.2.2 The answer to the first kind of question may well be what is called an Instrumental
   Ablative. This is a noun in the ablative, without a preposition, meaning ‘with’ or ‘by (means
   of)’.

   So how do you kill a crocodile?

   • with a sword, gladio (Ablative of gladius)
   • with poison, veneno (Ablative of venenum)
   • with poisoned arrows, venenatis sagittis (Ablative Plural of venenata, poisoned, sagitta,
     arrow)
   • by trickery, dolo (Ablative of dolus).

11.2.3 Here are some more examples of Instrumental Ablatives in context:

   I write with a pen, pennā scribo.
   He shoots the deer with an arrow, cervum sagittā transfigit.
   Romans preserve their empire by (force of) arms, Romani imperium armis servant.

   The English word ‘via’ (as in ‘London to Reading via Richmond’) is the Instrumental Ablative of via ‘way’,
   meaning ‘by way of’.

   Practice

   Translate:

   Dido gladio se occidit.
   Oculis videmus, auribus audimus, lingua gustamus.
   Digito aquam tempto.
   Poeta lyram digitis tangit.
   Non oratione longa, sed uno verbo sententiam significat.
ADVERBS

11.2.4 The answer to the second kind of question will be an Adverb. Adverbs are so called because they are added to a verb in order to describe the way in which the action is performed – well, badly, quickly, slowly, quietly or whatever.

The great majority of adverbs are derived from adjectives. In English, an adjective is usually turned into an adverb by adding the ending –ly, which was originally the same as the word ‘like’. In Latin, similarly, one can change an adjective into an adverb by changing the ending, often to -e.

So how does he take the news?

• well: bene (adverb corresponding to bonus good)
• badly: male (adverb corresponding to malus bad)
• ill: aegre (aeger ill, sick)
• calmly: placide (placidus calm, placid)
• agitatedly: agitate (agitatus agitated)

FORMATION OF ADVERBS

11.2.5 Latin dictionaries quite often list adverbs separately from the adjectives they derive from, so it would be possible to trust to luck and the dictionary on this point. However, it is useful to have an idea of the general principles of how adverbs are formed, so that you have a chance of recognising that a word is an adverb before you look it up. Additionally, some adverbs can easily be mistaken for other words (and vice versa), and it is advisable to be on one’s guard against confusion.

General rule:
Most second-declension adjectives, if they have a corresponding adverb, form it by means of the ending ō (long):

longus long: longe far, by a long way
latus wide: late widely
largus generous: large generously
altus deep: alte deeply
etc.

Note also: Latinus Latin; adverb Latine in Latin (lit. ‘Latinly’)

11.2.6 Two very common adverbs, which do not quite follow the usual pattern, should be remembered:

• bene [both e’s short] well: cf. bonus good.
• male badly [short e]: cf. malus bad.

Note The phrases bene dico, male dico, bene facio, male facio have special meanings:

bene dico bless, or one word benedico
male dico curse, or one word maledico
bene facio benefit
male facio harm
The person or thing blessed, cursed, benefited or harmed usually goes in the dative:

Benedic nobis, Deus Bless us, O God.

ADVERBS ENDING IN -O

11.2.7 A few adverbs end in -o just like the Ablative. Probably they were originally Ablatives, and have become ‘fossilised’ as adverbs; but one has to be careful to make sure to distinguish them from the Ablative of the corresponding adjective. If there is a noun in the Ablative (and in the right gender and number) in the sentence, they are probably Ablative. If not, then they are probably adverbs.

- tuto safely (tutus safe)
- certo certainly (certus certain): certe is also correct
- cito soon, quickly (citus swift)
- sero late (serus late)
- raro rarely (rarus rare)
- secreto secretly, in secret (secretus secret)
- merito deservedly (meritus deserved)

Example of how to distinguish:
- tuto in loco in a safe place, versus tuto safely.
- consilio secreto by means of a secret plan/consultation, versus secreto secretly.

Some of these words are especially confusing, because there are also 1st person singular verbs that look like them.

- tuto can be a verb meaning ‘I keep safe’
- certo can mean ‘I compete’
- cito can mean ‘I whip up’ (e.g. a horse)
- sēro looks like sēro I sow.

The only way to tell is to look at the context to see which makes sense. If there is another verb in the sentence, the word in question will probably be the adverb. If not, then it will be the verb.

Examples:

Cum amicis certo I compete with [my] friends
Certo scio I know for certain

Equos cito I whip up [my] horses
Cito domum venio I soon reach home.
Si equos cito, cito domum advenio If I whip up my horses, I soon reach home.

Sero domum venio I come home late
Sero semen in agro I sow the seed in the field
Si sero sero, sero meto If I sow late, I harvest late

ANOTHER USE FOR ADVERBS

11.2.8 Adverbs in English can also be used to describe adjectives, as in ‘excessively hot’, ‘strangely quiet’, ‘unusually complicated’.

So they can in Latin:

- bene canus well (and truly) grey-haired
- splendide mendax gloriously mendacious.
11.2.9 Note the following adverbs that can be used together with adjectives:

valde very, jolly, really (colloquial style; short for valide which means ‘strongly’)
admodum very (polite style; lit. ‘to a degree’); also with verbs
sane to be sure, certainly, very
magis more
minus less
nimis, nimium too (nimis altus too high)
parum not ... enough, not very (parum doctus not learned enough, not very learned)
satis enough, sufficiently, fairly
vix hardly, scarcely
omnino absolutely, altogether
haudquaquam not in the least, not at all

Note also:
quam how + adjective (quam multi? how many? quam bonus? how good?)
tam so + adjective (tam bonus so good)
non tam or non ita not so + adjective.

11.3 Word order involving the verb ‘to be’: subject and complement

11.3.1 In English we say e.g. I am a Roman, he is tired, you are here, Cicero is dead. These sentences all have a subject (I, he, you, Cicero), and a verb (the verb ‘to be’). But what do we call the word that comes after the verb ‘to be’? You may be tempted to think that it is an object; but it isn’t. It is called a complement. The word comes from Latin compleo I fill, complete; the complement completes the meaning of the verb.

In a sentence consisting of subject, verb and object, the subject acts on the object in some way. In a sentence consisting of subject, verb and complement, the subject does not act on the complement, but is identified with the complement (e.g. ‘I am Aeneas’), or stated to be a member or sub-class of the class to which the complement refers (e.g. ‘he is one of the prophets’, ‘pigs are animals’), or to have a quality or to be in a situation described by the complement (e.g. ‘The bottle is green’; ‘The kingdom of Heaven is at hand’). The complement may be a noun, or an adjective, or a noun-phrase, or an expression of place or situation, etc.

Complements are found not only with the verb ‘to be’, but also with verbs like ‘to become’, ‘to be made’, ‘to be called’, ‘to be named’.

Examples:

**Ego sum Cicero** I am Cicero
**Ego consul fio** I become consul
**Cicero consul creatur** Cicero is made consul
**Amicus meus Sextus vocatur** My friend is called Sextus
**Octavius Caesar nominatur Augustus** Octavius Caesar is named Augustus

In Latin, the general rule is that the complement agrees with the subject. Since the subject of a personal verb is always in the Nominative, the complement will therefore be in the Nominative as well.
11.3.2 In Latin, the verb ‘to be’ is usually placed after its complement, unless it is emphasised. So:

- **Orator est** He is an orator
- **Bonus est** He is good
- **Bonum est** It is good
- **Romanus sum** I am a Roman
- **Fessa es** You (feminine) are tired
- **Fessi sumus** We are tired
- **Philosophi estis** You are philosophers
- **Mortui sunt** They are dead

But alternatively, with emphasised verb:

- **Est bonus** he is good
- **Sum Romanus** I am a Roman

11.3.3 The negative non is normally placed just before the verb ‘to be’:

- **Romanus non sum** I am not a Roman
- **Philosophi non sunt** They are not philosophers
- **Non es philosophus** you’re not a philosopher

But it may be placed before the complement where there is a contrast of the kind ‘not A, but B’ or ‘A, not B’:

- **Non Angli sunt, sed angeli** They are not English, but angels
- **Lupus est, non homo** It is a wolf, not a man

11.3.4 Either the subject or the complement may be a noun-phrase consisting of an adjective plus a noun. In this case, the verb ‘to be’ may come between the adjective and the noun:

- **Orator sum bonus** I am a good orator
- **Boni estis Christiani** You are good Christians

11.3.5 The verb ‘to be’ may appear at the beginning of the sentence under the following circumstances:

(a) When it is emphasised (affirmatively or negatively):

- **Est vero ille optimus orator** That man really is an excellent orator!
- **Non sumus fessi** We are not tired!

(b) **Est** or **sunt** at the beginning of a sentence (and sometimes in other positions, when context allows) can also mean ‘there is, there are’.

- **Est locus ...** There is a place ...
- **Est apud Romanos bonus orator: is vocatur Cicero** There is among the Romans a good orator; he is called Cicero
- **Sunt in hoc loco dracones** There are dragons in this place
11.4 Expressions of place

11.4.1 Here is a fuller list of words denoting place:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AT</th>
<th>TO</th>
<th>FROM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>the place mentioned</td>
<td>ibi there</td>
<td>eo to there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>this place (where I am)</td>
<td>hic here</td>
<td>huc to here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that place (where you are)</td>
<td>istic there</td>
<td>istuc, istic to there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>that place (over there)</td>
<td>illic there</td>
<td>illoc to there</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>everywhere</td>
<td>ubique everywhere</td>
<td>undique from all directions</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nowhere</td>
<td>nusquam nowhere</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11.4.2 Take note also of the following:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>AT</th>
<th>TO</th>
<th>FROM</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>home</td>
<td>domi</td>
<td>domum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rome</td>
<td>Romae</td>
<td>Romam</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

No prepositions are needed with these. The Romans said ‘going Rome’ just as we say ‘going home’, using the accusative. The form that looks like the genitive (actually in origin a different case, called the ‘locative’) means ‘at’; and the ablative means ‘from’.

Exercise (i)

Translate, using the dictionary where necessary:

Ubi es? In via sum.
Unde venis? Domo venio.
Quo vadis? Romam.
Quid ibi facis? Negotium meum facio.
Quid est negotium tuum?
Tace! Meum enim est negotium, non tuum.
Quomodo autem ad forum pervenis? Equo illuc pervenio.
Quomodo domum venis? Raeda domum venio.
Quid postea facis? Nimis multa quaeris: magnus es nebulo!

Cicero est in curia.
Sunt illic multi senatores.
In curia Cicero orationem in Catilinam habet.
Oratio non nimis longa est, sed luculenta.
Catilina statim e curia evadit.
Primum domum vadit; deinde ad amicos in Etruriam procedit.
Cicero oratione sua Catilinam eicit.
Exercise (ii)

N.B. deus ‘god’ in Classical Latin has nom. pl. di, dat. & abl. pl. dis, rather than dei and deis.

De religione nunc dicimus.
Romani multos deos et deas colunt.
Romae ubique templa sunt.
Di Romanorum in templis habitant.
Romani deorum iram timent, auxilium sperant.
Itaque multa sacrificia dis faciunt.

Haec philosophi Epicurei dicunt:
Non sunt di in hoc mundo.
Multi sunt mundi diversi.
Inter mundos sunt spatiata.
Haec spatia ‘intemunda’ nominantur.
His in spatiiis di habitant.
Di vitam omnino tranquillam agunt.
De nobis di nihil curant.
Auxilium nobis di non ferunt, neque iram in nos habent.

Haec autem Stoici dicunt philosophi:
Unus est deus, et unus mundus.
In hoc mundo terra media est.
Deus ubique est in mundo.
Deus mundum regit, sicut animus hominis corpus regit.
Vita hominum a fato regitur.

Utrum tu Stoicorum an Epicureorum doctrinam probas?
Quid credis? Estne unus deus an multi?
In mundone sunt di, an extra mundum?
An nusquam omnino sunt?
Utrum de vita hominum curant di an non?
Fatone vitae hominum reguntur?
An liberum arbitrium de nostris actionibus habemus?
Quid denique censes? Nihil certo scio.
Tu autem, quia nescis, certe bonus es philosophus!

11.5 Consolidation: pronouns and place/time words (pronominal adverbs)

11.5.1 We have now met quite a number of ‘little words’ along the lines of ‘this’, ‘that’, ‘what’, ‘when’, ‘where’ and so on. Many of these figure among the most commonly occurring words in Latin. It may be that at this stage they appear quite confusing and hard to remember or recognise. You may perhaps have felt reasonably confident about the demonstratives hic and ille when they were the only forms you had to cope with; and, at a later stage, you may not have had too much trouble in recognising their feminine and neuter forms and perhaps some of their case-forms (accusative, genitive, and so on). But now that we have introduced a whole set of other words derived from the same stems, i.e. the words which refer to place and time, it may all be getting uncomfortably complex.

Before going further, perhaps we should reflect for a moment on the ease with which you distinguish the corresponding words in English. There is no less difference, in fact, between any given pair of words of this type in Latin – say ille ‘that (man)’ and illic ‘there’ – than there is between the corresponding English words ‘that’ and ‘there’. But do you have any difficulty in distinguishing between ‘that’ and ‘there’ in English? If you are a native English
speaker, of course you don’t. You should aim to reach the point at which you are no more confused between ille and illic in Latin than you would be between ‘that’ and ‘there’ in English.

11.5.2 There are two points that make the Latin words more difficult to tell apart than the English ones:

- One is that a few pairs of words are spelt the same, but can have different meanings. For example, eo can be either the ablative of is, or it can mean ‘to that place’. Here one just has to remember that both meanings are possible, and rely on the context to tell which it is when the word actually occurs. Admittedly this doesn’t happen much in English. But, in all conscience, the majority of confusions made by Latin learners are not of this kind. They are between words which are, in fact, recognisably different. (Note that while hic ‘this’ and hic ‘here’ are spelt the same, they have different vowel lengths, so that the difference between them is just as great as between ‘ship’ and ‘sheep’ in English.)

- The other is that Latin makes more distinctions than current spoken English. For example, we say ‘there’ for both ‘at that place’ (illic) and ‘to that place’ (illuc), and we have no current single word for ‘from there’ (illinc). But Latin has different, single words for all of these. Older English did, in fact, have separate words for these concepts: in Shakespeare’s time one did not say ‘go there’; one said ‘stay there’, but ‘go thither’. For ‘from here’ our ancestors said ‘hence’, and for ‘from there’ they said ‘thence’. So older English was in this respect more like Latin than modern spoken English, and this fact is reflected in old-fashioned Latin grammar books, which will happily tell you that the English for, say, illuc is ‘thither’. Modern English speakers still know these words, because they have survived in fossilised expressions such as ‘running hither and thither’, or ‘hence’ in the metaphorical sense of ‘for these reasons’ (Latin ergo rather than hinc); and of course these words are likely to be well known to anyone who reads Shakespeare or other older English authors. But they don’t form part of our ordinary usage nowadays; and if one uses them in translating from Latin, as e.g. many Loeb translators have done, one risks making the Latin authors seem much more distant than they actually are and sometimes rather comic (besides making it impossible to tell when the Latin authors themselves are deliberately writing in an old-fashioned Latin style). For this reason, they are excluded from the list that follows.

11.5.3 We need to aim, then, to know these words. But there is more than one way of ‘knowing’ them.

- Traditionally they are presented in tables, with different rows and columns for cases, genders and numbers, and so on. It is possible to learn these tables off by heart, and if you have been following this course conscientiously it may well be that you have already done this. However, knowing the tables does not necessarily mean that you can instantly recognise any given form in context. You may, in fact, have to recite the whole table before you can see where it comes, and then work out the meaning from the place in the table. This is a laborious method.

- A second way is to analyse the forms each time you encounter them. Many of the forms (though not all) yield to analysis in this way; e.g. you can tell that illas means ‘those women’, in the accusative, because you know the basic stem ill- ‘that, those’ and the feminine accusative plural ending –as. You would do well to be able to recognise the stems:
• **h-** this
• **e-** or **i-** the one just mentioned, he, she, it, etc.

• **ist-** that one near you
• **ill-** that
• **ips-** -self

• **qu-** or **cu-** or **u-** which, etc.
• **m-** me

• **t-** you (but note also **tum, tunc** then)
• **s-** him, her, it (-self); his (own) (but note **sic** so)

(n.b. **contrast** the verb endings –s you, –t he/she/it:  
- te lavas you wash yourself
- se lava he washes himself)

• **no-** we, us
• **vo-** you (plural)

It is also a good idea to recognise the meanings of some of the basic endings and suffixes: 
not just the case endings (remember in particular the neuter singular **-ud**, the genitive **-ius** 
and the dative **-i**) but also the suffixes **-ic** for rest at a place, **-inc** for motion from a place, 
and **-o** or **-uc** for motion to a place.

• Ideally, however, you should be aiming to create a direct association in your mind 
  between each individual form and its meaning. I suspect that the only way to do this is to 
  arrange in alphabetical order all the forms we have met so far, grouping related words by 
  their first few letters (e.g. all those beginning **illa-** are forms of the feminine of **ille**). At 
  first you can use the alphabetical list for reference; then you can gradually learn it, a few 
  words at a time. Greater confidence will come from practice in recognising the words in 
  context.

11.5.4 So here they all are (all the ones we have met already plus a few other important ones):

**CU-**
cui? to/for whom?
cuius? whose
cur? why?

**EA-**
ea (long a) her (abl.); that (woman) (just mentioned) (abl.)
ea she; that (woman) (just mentioned); those (things) (just mentioned)
eaet they; those (women) (just mentioned)
eam her; that (woman) (just mentioned) (acc.)
earum their; of them; of those (women) (just mentioned)
eas them; those (women) (just mentioned)

**EGO**
egeo I. Distinguish from eo see below in this list; **ergo** so then, therefore

**EI-**
ei to/for him/her/it; to/for that (man/woman/thing) (just mentioned); (= **i**i) they; those (men) 
  (just mentioned)
eis to/for them; them (abl.); to/for those (just mentioned); those (abl.) (just mentioned)
ieius his / her(s) / its; of that (man/woman/thing) (just mentioned)
EO-
eo him / it (abl.); that (man / thing) (just mentioned) (abl.); to there; ) eo I go
corum their; of them; of those (men/things) (just mentioned)
eos them; those (men) (just mentioned)

EU-
eum him; that (man) (just mentioned) (acc.)

HA-
hae these (women)
haec this (woman); these (things)
hanc this (woman) (acc.)
harum of these (women)
has these (women) (acc.)

HI-
hic this (man)
hic (long i) here
hinc from here
his to/for these; these (abl.)

HO-
hoc this (man/thing) (abl.)
hoc this (thing) (nom. or acc.)
hodie today
horum of these, these men’s
hos these (men) (acc.)

HU-
huc to here
huic to this (man/woman/thing)
huius of this, this man’s, this woman’s, this thing’s
hunc this (man) (acc.)

I-
ibi there
id it; that (thing) (just mentioned) (nom. or acc.)
ii = ei nom. pl. masc.: they; those (men) (just mentioned)
iiis = eis

ILLA-
illa (long a) that (woman) (abl.)
illa that (woman); those (things)
ilae those (women)
ilam that (woman) (acc.)
ilarum of those (women)
ilas those (women) (acc.)

ILLE
ille that (man)

ILLI-
illi to/for that (man/woman/thing); those (men)
illic there (at that place)
illicic from there
illis to/for those; those (abl.)
illius of that, that man’s, that woman’s, that thing’s

ILLO-
illo that (man/thing) (abl.)
illoc = illuc
illorum of those (men/things)
illos those (men) (acc.)

ILLU-
illoc to there
illud that (thing) (nom. or acc.)
illum that (man) (acc.) (don’t start looking at illumino in the dictionary!)

INDE
inde from there

IPSA-
ipsa (long a) herself (abl.)
ipsa (she) herself; (the things) themselves
ipsae (the women) themselves
ipsam (her) herself
ipsarum of (them / the women) themselves
ipsas (they / the women) themselves

IPSE
ipse (he) himself

IPSI-
ipsi to … him-/her-/itself; (they / the men) themselves
ipsis to/for … themselves; (them) themselves (abl.)
ipsius of … him-/her-/itself

IPSO-
ipso himself/itself (abl.)
ipsorum of … themselves
ipsos (they / the men) themselves

IPSU-
ipsum (him) himself; (the thing) itself

IS
is he; that (man) (just mentioned)

ISTA-
ista (long a) that (woman) (near you) (abl.)
ista that (woman) (near you); those (things) (near you)
istae those (women) (near you)
istam that (woman) (near you) (acc.)
istarum of those (women) (by you)
istas those (women) (near you) (acc.)

ISTE
iste that (man) (near you)

ISTI-
isti to that (man/woman/thing) (near you); those (men) (near you)
istic there (near you)
istinc from there (near you)
istis to/for those (men/women/things); those (abl.)
istius of that (man/woman/thing) (near you)

ISTO-
isto that (man/thing) (near you) (abl.)
istoc = istuc
istorum of those (men/things) (by you)

ISTU-
istuc to there (near you)
istud that (thing) (near you) (nom. or acc.)
istum that (man) (near you) (acc.)

ITA
ita so, thus, in that way
itaque and so

M-
me me (acc. or abl.)
meus, mea, meum my/mine
mihi to/for me

NO-
nobis, to/for us; us (abl.) (don’t start looking at nobilis in the dictionary!)
nos, we, us (non not
noster, nostra, nostrum our(s)

QUA-
qua? whom? which? (feminine, abl.); which way?
quae? which (woman/women)?
quam? who? (feminine, acc.); whom?
quando? when?
quarum? whose? of which (women)?
quas? who? (feminine plural); whom? which women?

QUE-
quem? who? (acc.); whom?

QUI-
qui? who? (plural); which (man)?
quibus? to/for whom? (plural); whom? which? (abl. plural)
quid? what?
quis? who?
quisque each one, everyone

QUO-
quo? whom? which? (abl.); where to?
quod? which (thing)?
quomodo? how?
quoque also
quorum? whose? of which (men/things)?
quos? who? (masc. plural); whom? which men?

S-
se him-/her-/itself, themselves (acc. or abl.)
sibi to/for him-/her-/itself, to/for themselves
suus, sua, suum his/her/its/their (own)
sic so, thus, in this way )( si if
T-
te you (acc. or abl.)
tibi to/for you
tu you
tum then
tunc then
tuus, tua, tuum your(s)
U-
ubi? where
ubique everywhere
unde? where from?
undique from all directions
ut, as
uter? which (of the two)?
uterque, utraque, utrumque both
utrum? which is it – A or B?
V-
vester, vestra, vestrum your(s)
vobis, to/for you; you (abl.)
vos, you (pl.)
Exercise

Translate:


*You scratch my back, & I’ll scratch yours; lit. hand washes hand; one hand washes the other.

END OF UNIT 11
UNIT 12

12.1 Personal endings of the passive

12.1.1 In Unit 9 we introduced the third-person endings of the passive (singular -tur, plural -ntur). Now we must build in the first and second persons.

These personal endings are as follows:

First person singular: -OR ‘I’
Second person singular: -RIS ‘you’ addressing one person.

First person plural: -MUR ‘we’
Second person plural: -MINI ‘you’ addressing more than one person.

The first-person endings are reasonably logical; -or is just the first-person active ending -o plus the r which is the sign of the passive; and -mur in the first person plural is just the active ending -mus with the passive r substituted for the final s. The second-person endings, however, need to be learnt; there is nothing intuitive about -ris and, especially, -mini.

12.1.2 Here then is the full conjugation of an a-coloured verb in the passive:

Verb pulso I hit

pulsor I am hit
pulsaris you are hit
pulsatur he/she/it is hit

pulsamur we are hit
pulsamini you are hit
pulsantur they are hit.

12.1.3 And here are the other conjugations:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Second Conjugation</th>
<th>Third Conjugation A</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>timeor I am feared</td>
<td>ducor I am led</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>timeris you are feared</td>
<td>duceris you are led</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>timetur he is feared</td>
<td>ducitur he is led</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>timemur we are feared</td>
<td>ducimur we are led</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>timemini you are feared</td>
<td>duciminii you are led</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>timentur they are feared</td>
<td>ducuntur they are led</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Third Conjugation B</th>
<th>Fourth Conjugation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capior I am taken, caught</td>
<td>audior I am heard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caperis you are taken</td>
<td>audirisi you are heard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capitur he is taken</td>
<td>auditur he is heard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capimur we are taken</td>
<td>audimur we are heard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capimini you are taken</td>
<td>audimini you are heard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capituntur they are taken</td>
<td>audiuntur they are heard</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Practice

Give the dictionary form and (using the dictionary) the meaning of the following:

punimini  ducimur  paratur  amor  videris  conspicior
abstrahimur  distineor  deciperis  prohibentur  inveniuntur  exercucior
explicatur  deterremini  abstergitur  detinemur  noscuntur  vetamur
vocaris  advocamini  audior  paramur  quaeritur  corrigeris

12.1.4 Beware of possible confusion between the first person passive ending -or and the common noun ending -or (in abstract nouns like amor love, and in agent nouns like defensor defender).

Distinguish e.g. between defensor ‘a defender’ and defender ‘I am defended’, and

and use the context to tell the difference between amor ‘love’ and amor I am loved:

A populo amor I am loved by the people
Meus amor in populum magnus est My love for the people is great.

12.2 Deponent verbs

12.2.1 Take these two English phrases:

a well-thumbed book
and
a well-read professor.

A well-thumbed book is a book that has been well thumbed. But did you read the professor in order to make him or her well read?

No, of course not. ‘Well-read’ means that the person referred to has done a lot of reading. The participle ‘read’ in this context, though in other contexts one would think of it as passive (as in ‘the book is widely read’), actually has an active meaning.

Let us try another example. Last weekend I went to a party and at the end of it, I was drunk. To be precise, I was poured out from a bottle into several glasses and my friends drank me … Well no: ‘I was drunk’ means I had rather too much to drink and was now the worse for it. ‘Drunk’ again has an active meaning; whereas in ‘the wine was all drunk’ the meaning is passive.

Latin has a good number of verbs with passive-looking forms, but with active meaning. They can be very confusing to start with, but one gets used to them, just as one gets used in English to being drunk at parties and meeting well-read professors. This group of verbs has a technical name – DEPONENT verbs. They can belong to any conjugation, and they behave exactly like normal active verbs in that they can take objects in the accusative, and so on. The only thing they all have in common is precisely this – that they have a passive form, but an active meaning. For this reason some people call them ‘cross-dressing’ verbs: they have an active meaning but dress like passives.

Examples:

hortor I encourage, exhort
conor I try
sequor I follow
utor I use
loquor I speak
moror I delay
morior I die

Depono means ‘lay aside’; they were thought of as laying aside their expected active forms.

12.2.2 Deponents are conjugated exactly like passives; so there is nothing new to learn as far as the forms are concerned. However, just to make it absolutely clear, here are examples from all the conjugations. (Most deponents refer to actions that can only be done by people, so we shall usually translate the 3rd person singular as ‘he/she’ rather than ‘it’.)

First Conjugation (A-coloured)

conor I try, make an effort
conaris you try
conatur he/she tries
conamur we try
conamini you try
conantur they try

Second Conjugation (E-coloured)

vereor I fear
vereris you fear
veretur he/she fears
veremur we fear
veremini you fear
verentur they fear

Third Conjugation (A)

sequor I follow
sequeris you follow
sequitur he/she/it follows
sequimur we follow
sequimini you follow
sequuntur they follow

Third Conjugation (B)

patior I suffer (= either ‘undergo’ something disagreeable, or ‘allow’)
pateris you suffer
patitur he/she suffers
patimur we suffer
patimini you suffer
patiuntur they suffer

Fourth Conjugation

potior I gain possession (followed by genitive ‘of’); older English ‘I am possessed of’
potiris you gain possession
potitur he/she gains possession
potimur we gain possession
potimini you gain possession
potiuntur they gain possession
12.2.3 Deponent verbs are listed in the dictionary under their own first person singular. This provides you with a good way of distinguishing between deponents (which look like passives) and genuine passives. If the form in front of you is passive, it will need to be traced back to the first person singular of the *active*.

*Examples:*

**Passives of active verbs:**
- *amatur* ‘he/she/it is loved’: find under *amo*
- *punitur* ‘he/she is punished’: find under *puno*

**Deponents:**
- *conatur* ‘he/she tries’: find under *conor*
- *sequitur* ‘he/she/it follows’: find under *sequor*.

To begin with, let us practise with some third-person singular forms (the commonest ones that you will encounter), with a mixture of actives, passives and deponents. This is to a large extent an exercise in distinguishing between similar-looking verbs.

**Practice (i)**

Turn into the dictionary form and give the meaning:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>putatur</th>
<th>potitur</th>
<th>patet</th>
<th>patitur</th>
<th>orat</th>
<th>oritur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ordinat</td>
<td>ordinatur</td>
<td>exoratur</td>
<td>exhortatur</td>
<td>secat</td>
<td>sequitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aperit</td>
<td>operit</td>
<td>aperitur</td>
<td>operitur</td>
<td>operitur</td>
<td>opperitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>experitur</td>
<td>quaequitur</td>
<td>queritur</td>
<td>queritur</td>
<td>conquiritur</td>
<td>conquiritur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conatur</td>
<td>concitur</td>
<td>concitatur</td>
<td>opinatur</td>
<td>obtinetur</td>
<td>obtinetur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Practice (ii)**

Now let us build in the other persons. Turn the following into the dictionary form and give the meaning:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mentimur</th>
<th>metimur</th>
<th>mittuntur</th>
<th>mittantur</th>
<th>emittuntur</th>
<th>immittimur</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sentiuntur</td>
<td>asentiuntur</td>
<td>nasceris</td>
<td>exciperis</td>
<td>experiris</td>
<td>reperiantur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imperit</td>
<td>operit</td>
<td>aperitur</td>
<td>operitur</td>
<td>operatur</td>
<td>operatur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>secantur</td>
<td>assequimur</td>
<td>potiuntur</td>
<td>potiuntur</td>
<td>agnoscitur</td>
<td>agnoscitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>profitemini</td>
<td>assequimur</td>
<td>proficiscimini</td>
<td>proficiscimini</td>
<td>poscit</td>
<td>praedantur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>produntur</td>
<td>proficiscimini</td>
<td>proficiscimini</td>
<td>proficiscimini</td>
<td>proficiscimini</td>
<td>proficiscimini</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12.2.4 Deponent verbs, (if the meaning allows it, i.e. if they are transitive) can take an object in the accusative, just like active verbs:

- *Cicero consulem hortatur* Cicero encourages the consul
- *Homo leonem veretur* The man fears the lion.
- *Ego Demosthenem imitor* I imitate Demosthenes

12.2.5 *Utor* and one or two others take an Ablative, not an Accusative; e.g. *utitur gladio* he uses a sword (not *gladium*). It may be a sort of Instrumental Ablative: ‘he uses a sword’ = ‘he does it with a sword’, but this kind of explanation is only any use if it helps you to remember it. Things of this sort are just a matter of idiom; they can’t always be explained logically.
12.2.6 If *hortor* means ‘encourage’, how do you say ‘he is encouraged’ in Latin?

Since *hortor* is a deponent verb, its passive forms are already commandeered for the active meaning. If a passive meaning is required, some other phrasing has to be used. For example, one could not say ‘The consul is encouraged by Cicero’, but one could say *Consul hortationem accipit a Cicerone* The consul receives encouragement from Cicero.

---

**Exercise**

(i) Deponent verbs only.

 Translate:

*Hortatur populum orator.*
Ego vos hortor.
Vos me hortamini.
Potionem cum amica partitur.
Partimur pecuniam inter nos.
Non veretur accusatorem Cicero.
Sed accusator Ciceronis defensionem veretur.
Moratur nobiscum consul.
Nos consulem moramur.
Is in bello mortitur.
Si moraris, moreris.
Nos mane proficiscimur.
Latine loqueris? Ego vero Latine loquor.

(ii) Passives and deponents:

*Romani Graece non loquuntur; ergo barbari a Graecis vocantur.*
Ego a vobis non decipior; itaque vos non sequor.
Tu a nobis timeris; nos a te non timemur.
Te imperatorem verentur, sed non amant.
Bellum geritur a Caesare contra Pompeium: hic cum illo de imperio luctatur.
Utrum vos Pompeium an Caesarem sequimini?
Ego a vobis valde amor, sed nunc proficiscor: vester amor me moratur.

---

12.2.7 Here for reference is a list of the most common deponent verbs. It is a good idea to look through these, so that you will be more likely to recognise them in context and not be confused by their passive form.

Beware in particular of the following:

- *queror* complain, protest, *versus* *quaero* search for, ask
- *nitor* lean on, make an effort, *versus* *niteo* gleam, and the noun *nitor* polished appearance
- *labor* slide, slip, glide, *versus* *labo* totter, *laboro* work, be in trouble, and the noun *labor* labour, work, trouble
- *minor* threaten, *versus* *minor* less
- *metior* measure, *versus* *meto* harvest
- *venor* hunt, *versus* *venio* come, *veneror* venerate, etc.

The most common, which you certainly should aim to learn, are *underlined* and in larger type.
First Conjugation

admiror admire, be amazed at
adulor adulate
arbitror be of opinion that ..., think
auguror predict
comitor accompany
commentor rehearse
conor try
conspicor catch sight of = conspicio
contemplor view, contemplate
cunctor hesitate, delay
fabricor fabricate, manufacture
for speak (largely poetic word)
hortor exhort, encourage
insector pursue
interpretor interpret
lector wrestle, struggle (cum with)
meditor think through in advance
minor threaten
miror admire, wonder at
moror delay; also ‘mind’ as in nil moror I don’t mind
opinor expect, be of opinion
philosophor philosophise
populor n.b. = depopulate
recordor remember
sciscitor enquire, ask questions
scrutor search
tumultuor make trouble
vagor wander
venor hunt
veneror venerate

Second Conjugation

confiteor confess
fateor admit (that something is the case)
intueor watch, look at
merior earn, deserve
miseror have pity
polliceor promise
reor think, believe
tueor guard
vereor fear

Third Conjugation

abutor use up, take advantage of
adipiscor get, achieve
amplector embrace
comminiscor invent, trump up
complector embrace
expergiscor wake up
fungor perform (a duty; takes ablative e.g. officio one’s duty)
fruor benefit from, enjoy (takes ablative, e.g. voluptatibus pleasures)
irascor be angry
labor glide, slide, slip
loquor talk
nanciscor find, get
nascor be born
nitor lean on, make an effort
obliviscor forget (takes genitive, ‘be forgetful of’)
paciscor stipulate a condition, make an agreement
proficiscor start on a journey
queror protest, complain
sequor follow
ulciscor avenge, take vengeance, exact punishment
utor use (takes ablative e.g. his verbis utor I use these words), associate with (a person)
vehor ride, really passive of veho carry
vescor feed (on = ablative)

Third Conjugation B

aggredior attack, take on (a task)
ingredior enter upon, step forward
morior die
pater suffer = (a) undergo (b) allow
perpetior endure
progredior proceed, progress

Fourth Conjugation

assentior agree (with = dative)
comperior find out
experior try out, find out by experiment, experience
largior give out generously
mentior tell a lie
metior measure
opperior lie in wait for
ordior begin (originally meant positioning the warp on a loom)
orior arise, originate do not confuse ordior and orior
partior share out, partition
potior get possession of
sortior draw as one’s lot.
12.3 MOCK TEST ON UNITS 1-12

Using the dictionary where necessary, translate as many as you can of the following sentences into English:

1. Graeci Troiam capiunt. (3)
2. Capitur Troia a Graecis. (3)
3. Aeneas Troiam relinquit, et in Africam venit. (5)
4. Ibi Dido regnat. (3)
5. Dido regina novam urbem aedificat. (5)
6. Nova urbs Carthago vocatur. (4)
7. Socii Aeneae ad reginam procedunt, et ab ea benigne excipiuntur. (7)
8. Tum ipse Aeneas advenit, et a regina circum urbem ducitur. (8)
9. Multa sunt in illa urbe templarum, multa pulchra aedificationum. (8)
10. Haec aedifica Aeneas miratur; sunt enim nova et magnifica. (8)
12. ‘Ego autem,’ inquit, ‘per orbem terrarum adhuc erro; urbem meam nondum condoo’. (10)
13. Tum Aeneas a regina vocatur ad cenam. (5)
14. Ad sedem altam deducitur prope reginam. (6)
15. Vinum a convivis bibitur, carmina a cantore canuntur. (6)
16. Deinde ab ipso Aeneas casus Troiae reginae narratur. (7)
17. Aeneae fortitudo regina admiratur. (4)
18. Aeneas nimis diu in urbe Carthagin moratur propter amorem reginae. (9)
19. Tandem mittitur ad eum deum Mercurius. (5)
21. ‘Non iam moror’ inquit Aeneas; nam deum veretur. (8)
22. Convocat Aeneas socios suos, et hortatur. (6)
23. Inde secreto ad naves suas prograduntur. (5)
24. Dido interea sola relinquitur, et se ipsa gladio occidit. (8)

Notes:

(1) Declension of Aeneas

Nominative: Aeneas
Accusative: Aeneam or Aenean (the latter is the Greek form)
Genitive: Aeneae
Dative: Aeneae
Ablative: Aeneā

(2) inquit = (he/she/it) says, an irregular verb; find in dictionary under inquam.
12.4 Consolidation: a step-by-step guide to translating ANY simple Latin sentence

If you got 100+ marks on the above mock test, you can skip the next section; clearly you have got the hang of most of what we have done so far. But if you are having difficulty, the next section is designed to help you.

If you are having problems, the reason may well be that you are not approaching the task methodically enough. Here you will find a procedure which may seem slow and laborious, but which is bound to lead you to the right meaning if you follow it step by step. The golden rule is: never try to guess! Work it out! Do not just look up all the words in the dictionary and then try to fit them into some sort of sense by guesswork – that is worse than useless. Do not try to ‘see through’ a sentence and hope some sense will emerge – that is equivalent to trying to run before you can walk. Do not sit looking at a sentence and say to yourself ‘Help! I’ve no idea what this means’. Instead, follow this procedure. As you progress, you will get better acquainted with the grammar and vocabulary and you will not need to go through all these steps every time.

1. Identify the verb. If it’s the verb sum es est sumus estis sunt, you will recognise it anyway. Otherwise, it will have either an active ending –o –s –t –mus –tis –nt or a passive or deponent ending –or –ris –tur –mur –mini –ntur, or it may be an imperative -a -e -i in the singular, depending on the conjugation or ‘colour’ of the verb; -te in the plural. The verb which you have found will be the only verb in the sentence, unless there are two linked with an ‘and’ or similar.

Occasionally there may be more than one word that looks as though it might be a verb. There are nouns ending in –o and –or, adjectives ending in –ris, adjectives ending in –mus, plural nouns and adjectives ending in –as and –es, and nouns or adjectives ending in –is. But the majority of verb forms in Latin texts are THIRD PERSON and will end in -t -tur -nt or -ntur. These should not be easy to mistake for anything else.

2. Note down which of the above endings the verb has, and identify the person (1st, 2nd or 3rd) and number (singular or plural). Write 1st, 2nd or 3rd and Sing. or Pl. by the ending.

3. Note down whether the ending is active, or passive/deponent. Write Act. or Pass./Dep. by the ending. If the ending is passive/deponent, don’t jump to conclusions about whether it is passive or deponent, unless you know the verb already.

4. Convert the verb into the first person singular (dictionary form). If the ending is active, the first person singular will end in –o. If the ending is passive/deponent, the dictionary form will end in –o if it’s an ordinary verb in the passive, and in –or if it’s deponent. Note down the dictionary form, or the nearest approximation to it you can achieve.

5. Look up the verb in the dictionary. This will tell you (a) the possible meanings, (b) whether it is an ordinary verb (ending in –o) or a deponent verb (ending in –or). Note down this information.

6. If it is a deponent verb you may be able to bypass the dictionary by finding it in the list of common deponents (above, 12.2.7). If a verb with a passive-looking ending is not there, it is probably an ordinary verb in the passive. It is worth while to learn the commonest deponents.

7. From the meanings given, you should be able to tell whether it is the kind of verb that has an object (transitive) or not (intransitive). Some dictionaries obligingly tell you this as well (v.t. = verb, transitive; v.i. = verb, intransitive). Note down whether to expect an object in the accusative. For example, sequor (deponent) means ‘I follow’ Often we expect to be told who or what you are following; it is often used as a transitive verb. So you should be ready for an object in the accusative; in this case write down ‘+ OBJ.’ On the other hand, some verbs can be used both transitively and intransitively (like ‘follow’); the only guide in the end is whether there actually is an accusative in the sentence.
8. Do not close the dictionary until you have got all the information so far mentioned.

9. Now you are ready to start on the rest of the sentence. If the verb was third person, look for a subject in the nominative. This will be expressed by a noun or pronoun unless there is a ‘he’ ‘she’ ‘it’ or ‘they’ carried over from the preceding context. If the verb is singular, ending in –t or –tur, the subject will be singular. If the verb is plural, ending in –nt or –ntur, the subject will be plural and will therefore have a plural ending –i –ae –es or –a. There are only four possible nominative plural noun endings known to you at the moment (actually there is one other but we won’t bother with that now). Write ‘NOM.?’ or ‘SUBJ.?’ by any word that looks as though it is, or could be, in the nominative.

10. If you decided (7 above) that the verb was transitive, look for an object in the accusative. This may be singular or plural (the form of the verb won’t tell you this, of course). Accusative singular endings are –am –um –em but there are also neuter nouns with other endings (–us –men –e –al etc.); accusative plural endings are –as –os –es or –a. Write ‘ACC.?’ or ‘OBJ.?’ by any word that looks as though it is, or could be, in the accusative.

11. When looking for a subject or object, remember that nouns aren’t always on their own but are often accompanied by pronouns or adjectives agreeing with them. You need to look for whole noun-phrases. Remember that everything belonging to the same noun-phrase must be in the same case.

12. If the verb is passive, be on the lookout for an agent expressed by a or ab with the ablative. Write ‘BY’ over the a or ab and AGENT over the noun. Remember the method for distinguishing ‘by’ from ‘from’. A(b) can only mean ‘by’ when the noun denotes a person and the verb is in the passive.

13. If the verb is ‘to be’ or one or two others like ‘to be called, ‘to become’, and so on, there will not be an object but there will be a complement in the Nominative. There may therefore be two Nominatives – subject and complement. You can only determine which is which by referring to the context. Dido regina vocatur can mean ‘the queen is called Dido’ or ‘Dido is called queen’ depending on which situation we have in mind.

14. You are almost ready to translate the sentence. But before you do so, look hard at the little words – conjunctions, prepositions, particles. If an accusative is preceded by a preposition like ad towards, it won’t be the object. Bracket off any phrases consisting of noun + preposition; they can be put back in later. Look out for pairs of nouns in the same case, or verbs in the same person and number, joined by et and, aut or vel or, or by pairs of these words – et ... et both ... and, aut ... aut either ... or, nec ... nec neither ... nor. Underline these ‘signposting’ words – they are very helpful in seeing your way round a sentence.

15. Now write down the meanings of the words you recognise.

16. Look up any unfamiliar words in the dictionary.

17. Now translate the sentence!


Consolidation exercise on units 1-12

Translate, using the dictionary where necessary:

1. Hadrianus murum aedificat.
2. Hadriani murus mirus est.
3. Aedificatur murus ab Hadriano.
4. Imperator bonus murum aedificat, malus neglegit.
5. Bonum imperator murum aedificat.

8. Hunc murum multi etiam nunc mirantur.
10. Hadrianum muri aedificatores verentur.

11. Quaero amicum meum, sed non invenio.
12. Queror quia amicum non invenio.
13. Hortus bellus est.
15. In horto bellos amicos invenio.

16. In bello hortor amicos.
17. Scipio domi moratur.
18. Scipio domum progreditur.
19. Scipio non in bello, sed domi moritur.
20. Scipionis domum miramur.

22. Scipionis domus ab illis quaeritur.
23. Poenam patiuntur quia sero adveniunt.
24. Servi de poena merito queruntur.
25. Servi de poena merita non queruntur.

26. Servi ad poenam exquiruntur.
27. Servi portam petunt.
28. Servis porta patet.
29. Patet amicis porta, latronibus clauditur.
30. Cena a servis paratur.

31. Cenam cum amicis partiuntur.
32. Post cenam carmen cantatur.
33. Cenae reliquiae a cane reciproiuntur.
34. Cantori dico: ‘Bene canis’.

36. Si canis canit, verberatur.
37. Aegyptii canem ut deum venerantur.
38. Cum canibus Dido et Aeneas venantur.
39. Tempestas exoritur, et illi ad speluncam deveniunt.
40. Hoc Vergilius non dicit, sed paene certe ibi venerem exercent.

END OF UNIT 12
13.1 Untranslatable Latin

13.1.1 Up to this point, we have been concentrating very much on the mechanics of Latin sentences and have not paid much attention to the difficulties of representing the meanings of Latin words in English. We have tended to make the common-sense assumption that every Latin word has an English equivalent. Leo, after all, can hardly be translated any other way than ‘lion’; and the same goes for many other words for well-known objects, living beings, ideas, or actions. You may have had a little trouble with some of the verbs, which have quite a number of alternative meanings (e.g. gero carry, wear, wield, keep something going, etc., or consisto stand still, stop, consist, be consistent) but these multiple meanings don’t really present too much of a problem if one has a context to guide one; after all we have words in English as well that can mean quite a lot of different things (try e.g. ‘bow’ as in bows and arrows, or tying a bow, or a bow window, or Bow bells, or, with different pronunciation, making one’s bow).

There is, however, an entirely different kind of problem that one encounters when dealing with a foreign language: the fact that some words in the foreign language express concepts that can’t be precisely expressed by an equivalent word in English. This is one of the reasons why translations, however good they may be, are only an imperfect substitute for the original text; and this is one of the many reasons why it is better to learn Latin and read the original texts for oneself.

13.1.2 Take, for example, the Latin word virtus. It looks like the English word ‘virtue’, and if a one-word equivalent has to be found, we often choose our word ‘virtue’ to fill that role. But in some ways ‘virtue’ is a very misleading translation.

Etymologically, virtus means ‘manliness’; it is derived from the word vir, which means a ‘man’ in the sense of an adult male person (not just a member of the human race, which is homo). Often it is used in military contexts and refers to the particular virtue of a soldier, i.e. bravery in war. Hence generations of schoolboys in the past have been taught to translate virtus as ‘courage’.

But this isn’t quite right either; because virtus is often used in other contexts as well, and must have a much more general meaning. One reads of the virtus not only of soldiers but of citizens; not only of men but of women; not only of human beings but of horses, or, for that matter, of trees or soil. ‘Courage’ will just about do as long as we are dealing with human beings or even animals; but when we get to trees it becomes clear that something is wrong with the equivalence. Trees certainly can’t display ‘courage’ in the usual meaning of that word. On further investigation one will find that the virtus of a tree is the capacity to survive, grow, and produce high-quality fruit. The virtus of a farm is the quality of its soil; and so on. So it turns out that virtus is something like ‘quality’. This accounts for its use both in regard to bravery in soldiers (because high-quality soldiers are brave) and in regard to growth potential in trees (because that is what constitutes high quality in trees).

But there is a further step to be taken. There are often several different ‘qualities’ that the same person or thing can have. For example, the same person can be brave but not reliable or generous, or generous but not brave. Hence one can distinguish different kinds of virtus or, to use the proper plural form, different virtutes. Philosophers like making distinctions, and the Roman philosophers (such as Cicero and Seneca) took over a whole list of virtutes from the Greeks – courage, wisdom, fairness, generosity, self-control, and so on. Each of these is a kind of virtus and none is more entitled to be called virtus than any other.
But then again, philosophers like to generalise, and so they tended also to use the word *virtus* in a general way to denote the quality or set of qualities necessary to be regarded as a high-quality human being. Hence *virtus* comes to mean the complete combination of moral, intellectual and practical qualities needed for this. Later still, the emphasis tended to be shifted away from the intellectual and practical towards the exclusively moral, and that is how our word ‘virtue’ comes to be equivalent to moral goodness.

None of this could be found out just from reading Latin texts in translation; and equally complex stories could be told about other value-laden words in Latin such as (to give just a few examples) *humanitas* humaneness, civilisation; *natura* nature; *civitas* citizenship; *amicitia* friendship; *pietas* loyalty or devotion. Latin had two different words for ‘law’, *ius* and *lex*. What is the difference? Crudely one can say that *lex* is a definite rule or statute, while *ius* is the body of law governing a particular area of life; *lex* defines what actions are legal and illegal, while *ius* confers rights and obligations. But one can only answer this question properly by looking at the words in the different contexts in which they occur in actual Latin texts: the study of language shades into the study of the mindset of a whole culture. In this particular case, also, since Roman legal thinking shaped the legal systems of much of Western Europe, knowledge of the Latin terms and concepts is fundamental to a full understanding of those systems as well. Without understanding *lex* and *ius* we cannot understand French *loi* and *droit*, or German *Gesetz* and *Recht*.

We have come a long way from the Third Declension. But in order to recognise these words properly we have to know how to decline them as well; so let us now return from our digression and look at the practicalities.

### 13.2 More third-declension nouns

13.2.1 **Virtus**, plural *virtutes*, belongs to a common category of third-declension nouns which we must now add to our armoury. They follow exactly the same pattern as the third-declension nouns we have seen until now, with the exception of the way the nominative singular is derived from the stem.

To illustrate this, let us look at the complete declension of *virtus*:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nominative</td>
<td>virtus</td>
<td>virtutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accusative</td>
<td>virtutem</td>
<td>virtutes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>genitive</td>
<td>virtutis</td>
<td>virtutum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dative</td>
<td>virtuti</td>
<td>virtutibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ablative</td>
<td>virtute</td>
<td>virtutibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Examples*

- *admiron eius virtutem* I admire his virtue
- *virtutis praemium est gloria* the reward of virtue is glory
- *virtuti nihil anteponimus* There is nothing we prefer to virtue
- *virtute imperium augemus* We increase our empire by virtue
- *quattuor virtutes distinguit Plato: iustitiam, sapientiam, temperantiam, fortitudinem* Plato distinguished four virtues, justice, wisdom, self-control and courage
- *virtutum maxima est sapientia* wisdom is the greatest of the virtues

13.2.2 As you can see from the above table, all the forms except the nominative singular (dictionary form) contain the stem *virtut-*. If you remove the case-ending you will get to the stem. But how does one then get from the stem back to the dictionary form, *virtus*?
The answer is that, in this category of nouns, the dictionary form (nominative singular) also has an ending: -s. (We have already seen plenty of nouns with this ending in the nom. sing., but in all the examples we have seen so far, the -s is preceded by a vowel, as in e.g. domini-s or cani-s.) The nominative singular from the stem virtut- must originally have been *virtuts. But ts was an impossible combination in Latin, and so it changed to s: hence the actual form virtus.

**General rule:**

If the stem of a 3rd-declension noun ends in any of the following consonants: b c d g m p t, the nominative singular (dictionary form) is formed by adding s.

When we introduce nouns of this kind, we give first the dictionary form (nominative singular), and then the stem followed by a hyphen, to show that the endings need to be added to that stem.

**Examples:**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>urbs urb-</th>
<th>urbs urb-</th>
<th>urbs urb-</th>
<th>urbs urb-</th>
<th>urbs urb-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>city</td>
<td>urbe</td>
<td>urbs</td>
<td>urbis</td>
<td>urbi</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>stirps stirp-</th>
<th>stirps stirp-</th>
<th>stirps stirp-</th>
<th>stirps stirp-</th>
<th>stirps stirp-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>stem, lineage</td>
<td>stirpem</td>
<td>stirpis</td>
<td>stirpis</td>
<td>stirpis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>hiems hiem-</th>
<th>hiems hiem-</th>
<th>hiems hiem-</th>
<th>hiems hiem-</th>
<th>hiems hiem-</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>winter</td>
<td>hiemem</td>
<td>hiemis</td>
<td>hiemis</td>
<td>hiemis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13.2.3 When the stem ends in c, g, d or t, the following rules have to be followed to get the form of the nominative singular:

- c + s | => x
- g + s | => x
- ct + s | => x
- t + s | => s
- d + s | => d

**Examples**

- dux duc- leader (acc. ducem, gen. ducis, etc.)
- rex reg- king
- nox noct- night
- pars part- part
- paren paren- parent
- pes ped- foot

Note that the English derivatives usually come from the stem rather than the nominative singular (dictionary form): ducal regal nocturnal part parent pedal.

13.2.4 Many Latin words follow these patterns, and in particular many abstract nouns, derived from nouns or adjectives. These end in –tas or –tus in the Nominative, and their stems end in –tat or –tut- respectively. The suffix -tas is the origin of our English suffix –ty.

- civitas civitat- citizenship, community of citizens, from civis citizen
- bonitas bonitat- goodness, from bonus good
novitas novitatis- newness, from novus new
antiquitas antiquitatis- antiquity, from antiquus old
vanitas vanitatis- vanity, from vanus empty, vain, boastful
necessitas necessitatatis- necessity, from necesse or necessarius necessary
varietas varietatis- variety, from varius various, changing, particoloured
pietas pietatis- loyalty, devotion, piety, from pius loyal, devoted, pious

virtus virtutis- virtue, manliness, from vir man
iuventus iuventutis- youth, from juvenis young (man)
senectus senectutis- old age, from senex old (man)
servitus servitutis- slavery, from servus slave

Practice

Identify (a) the case, and (b) the stem of the following nouns, and find the dictionary form and the meaning:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Dictionary Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ducem</td>
<td>abl</td>
<td>-em</td>
<td>decaem</td>
<td>leader</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pede</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-edi</td>
<td>pedis</td>
<td>foot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dentibus</td>
<td>dat</td>
<td>-ibus</td>
<td>dentibus</td>
<td>teeth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>honestate</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-at</td>
<td>honestatis</td>
<td>honest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fronti</td>
<td>nom</td>
<td>-ini</td>
<td>frontis</td>
<td>front</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>regi</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-i</td>
<td>regis</td>
<td>king</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pecudes</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-edes</td>
<td>pecudis</td>
<td>cattle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>legis</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-is</td>
<td>legis</td>
<td>law</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>urbis</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-is</td>
<td>urbis</td>
<td>city</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nocte</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-et</td>
<td>noctis</td>
<td>night</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hiemem</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-em</td>
<td>hiemem</td>
<td>winter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>montes</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-es</td>
<td>montes</td>
<td>mountains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>grypes</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-pes</td>
<td>gryps</td>
<td>griffin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Phryges</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-ges</td>
<td>Phryges</td>
<td>Phrygian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parentum</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-at</td>
<td>parentatis</td>
<td>parent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pacem</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-em</td>
<td>pacem</td>
<td>peace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voluntatem</td>
<td>gen</td>
<td>-at</td>
<td>voluntatium</td>
<td>service</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Exercise

Translate:

Boni homines in iuventute pietatem in parentes demonstrant.

Laudem et gloriam habent in senectute propter virtutem suam.

In pace vivunt Romani non solum propter virtutem suam, sed etiam quia bonos habent custodes.

Multi homines voluptatem sequuntur magis quam virtutem.

Multa vitia in hanc civitatem nunc irreput propter nimiam adfectionem voluptatum.

Libertatem servituti anteponimus, virtutem desidiae.

In lingua Latina multae sunt difficultates, sed nos eas cito vincimus.

13.2.5 A number of nouns of this type have their Genitive Plural ending in -ium rather than -um. One group of these consists of nouns whose stem consists of a single syllable ending in two consonants.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Genitive Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>montium</td>
<td>of mountains</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>partium</td>
<td>of parts</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>urbium</td>
<td>of cities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>noctium</td>
<td>of nights</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With the suffix -tas -tat- there is a choice: e.g. civitatum or civitatium.
This rule also applies to most nouns with nominative singular in -is, e.g. *civis* citizen, gen. pl. *civium*; and to neuters like *animal* and *cubile*.

13.2.6 Also in this category may be included nouns whose stem originally ended in *s*.

In this group, the *s* remained in the nominative singular (dictionary form), but changed to *r* in the other cases. So effectively the pattern is: nominative singular in -*s*, stem in -*r*-.

*Examples*

- *flos* flor-* flower*
- *mos mor-* custom, habit, way of doing things; plural *mores* manners, morals
- *mus mur-* mouse (n.b. avoid confusion with *murus* wall!)
- *glis glir-* dormouse
- *honos honor-* honour

Compare also the neuters which we have already encountered:

- *opus oper-* work, task
- *genus gener-* kind, family
- *tempus tempor-* time
- *corpus corpor-* body

And here we should also mention two other common words:

- **vetus** veter-* old, cf. *veteran*. Vetus is an adjective but doesn’t change for gender, except that the neuter plural is *vetera* rather than *veteres*. So: *vetus pictura* an old picture, *veteres arbores* old trees, *vetus opus* an old piece of work, *vetera tempora* old times.

- **plus** plur-* more. This word functions in the singular as a noun: *plus facio* I do more, *plus videt* he sees more. It is the origin of our word ‘plus’ (+). It often has a genitive after it, as in English ‘more of …’, but Latin uses a genitive even in phrases like *plus vini* more wine (lit. ‘more of wine’). The plural *plures* is an adjective meaning ‘more’ (in number) or ‘several’: *plures homines* more men or several men. *E pluribus unum*, a US motto, means ‘one [made or formed] out of many’.

All this means that when you find a noun with stem -*r*-, you cannot always be sure to begin with whether its nominative should end in -*r* (like *mulier mulier-*) or in -*s* (like *flos flor-*). You just have to try both.

As a matter of fact, the Romans don’t seem always to have been too sure either. There are a number of words with an *r* in the stem, where there are two possible nominative singular forms: ending in -*s* (the older form, retained in formal style) or ending in -*r* (the newer form).

*Examples*

- *honos* or *honor* honour; stem *honor-*
- *arbos* or *arbor* tree; stem *arbor-*
- *colos* or *color* colour; stem *color-*

**Practice**

Find the dictionary form of the following (if there is more than one possibility, give both):

- *florum* *honore* *arbores* *muribus* *muris* *temporum*
- *genera* *mulieris* *tempori* *mores* *glirium* *amore*
- *colorem* *veteres* *plurium* *lateribus*
13.3 Judges and soldiers: Vowel Weakening in the Third Declension

13.3.1 Some very common nouns of the type just mentioned change an unstressed short e in the nominative into an i in the other cases, by the process of vowel weakening (described in unit 9):

*Examples:*
- miles milit- soldier
- iudex iudic- judge, juryman
- princeps princip- chief, leader

Cf. the English derivatives *military, judicial, principal.*

But if the i of the stem is long, the nominative will also have an i, as in *radix radic-* root, and in the agent-noun suffix -trix which is the feminine equivalent of -tor:

- victrix victric- feminine of *victor* victor (as in the legion called *Victrix*)
- adiutrix adiutric- feminine of *adiutor* helper
- educatrix educatric- feminine of *educator* educator, foster-parent

This suffix occurs in legal English in words like *testatrix, administratrix.*

Note also *nutrix nutric-* nurse, short for *nutritrix* feminine of *nutritor* nourisher.

13.3.2 The *genitive plural* of *iudex* and *princeps* ends in -um (*iudicum, principum*). This would call for no special comment were it not for the fact that the words *iudicium* and *principium* also exist.

Distinguish between:
- *principum*, gen. pl. of *princeps* ‘of chiefs’,
  and
- *principium* beginning (neuter, 2nd declension)
  - *iudicum* of judges
    and
  - *iudicium* judgement, lawcourt

Also between:
- *regum* of kings
  and
- *regium* royal (neuter of *regius*, 2nd decl. adjective)

**Exercise**

Translate:

*Scipio milites ducit.*
*Scipio milites adloquitur.*
*Scipio militibus imperat.*
*Scipio militum animos confirmat.*

*Principes de bello consultant.*
*Principium Iliadis est ira Achillis.*
*Principum animos confirmat Nestor.*
Marcus Caelius in iudicium vocatur.
Cicero in iudicio amicum suum Caelium defendit.
Cicero iudices adloquitur.
Ciceronis oratio iudicum animos titillat.
Caelius iudicum sententiis liberatur.

13.3.3 Here we may as well mention a few oddities in the Third Declension, where the relationship between the stem and the nominative singular is not predictable by any of the general rules.

Iuppiter Iov- Jupiter
bos bov- ox (gen. pl. boun, dat. abl. pl. bobus or bubus)
senex sen- old man
supellex supellectil- furniture, equipment

Neuters:
iter itiner- journey
iecur iecinor- liver
femur femin- or femor- thigh.

13.4 Third declension adjectives

13.4.1 Many adjectives belong to the 3rd declension, and most of these end in -is, with neuter ending in -e.

There is no separate form for the feminine; the same form is used for masculine and feminine. This form is declined like a 3rd-declension noun in -is, with genitive plural in -ium, except for the ablative singular which ends in -i, not -e.

The neuter is declined like a neuter noun in –e such as mare or cubile.

Example: salutaris healthy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine/Feminine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>salutaris</td>
<td>salutare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>salutarem</td>
<td>salutare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>salutaris</td>
<td>salutaris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>salutari</td>
<td>salutari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
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<td>salutar</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Plural</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>salutares</td>
<td>salutaria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>salutares</td>
<td>salutaria</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>salutarium</td>
<td>salutarium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat., Abl.</td>
<td>salutaribus</td>
<td>salutaribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note 1* There is also an alternative form of the accusative plural, which ends in –is (with long –i). This is technically more correct for Classical Latin than the form in –es, but it is exceptionally confusing, and not all editors use it. We shall largely disregard it in this course.

*Note 2* A few 3rd-decl. adjectives, of which the most common are vetus veter- ‘old’, dives divit- ‘rich’, and pauper pauper- ‘poor’, follow the other 3rd-decl. pattern with ablative singular -e, nominative plural neuter -a, and genitive plural -um. These present no real difficulty as they follow a pattern that is familiar to you from the 3rd-declension nouns.
13.4.2 Many common adjectives belong to this type. Some of them (in large type below) are VERY common and should be learnt immediately:

- **omnis** all
- **facilis** easy
- **difficilis** difficult
- **brevis** short
- **levis** light
- **gravis** heavy
- **fortis** strong, brave
- **similis** similar
- **dissimilis** different

- **lēvis** smooth
- **dulcis** sweet (sugary)
- **suavis** sweet (pleasant)
- **nobilis** noble
- **humilis** low
- **viridis** green
- **tristis** sad, grim

and lots of adjectives ending in **-alis, -aris, -ilis, -bris, -bilis, and -ensis**, such as:

- **vitalis** vital, belonging to life (*vita*), vital
- **socialis** belonging to an ally or associate (*socius*), social
- **hostilis** belonging to an enemy (*hostis*), hostile
- **virilis** belonging to a man (*vir*), virile
- **juvenilis** or **juvenalis** belonging to a young person (*iuvenis*), juvenile
- **puerilis** belonging to a boy (*puer*), puerile

- **familiaris** belonging to a family (*familia*), friendly, familiar

- **muliebris** womanly, belonging to a woman (*mulier*)
- **funebris** funereal, belonging to a funeral (*funus funer-*
- **lugubris** mournful, lugubrious (*lugeo* to mourn)

- **horribilis** horrible (*horreo* to shudder [at])
- **terribilis** terrible (*terreo* to frighten)
- **amabilis** lovable (*amo* to love)

- **Carthaginiensis** Carthaginian
- **Londiniensis** belonging to or coming from London
- **castrensis** military, belonging to the camp (*castra*)

Many of these adjectives are easy to remember because of their English derivatives.

The names of many Roman festivals are the neuter plural of adjectives in **-alis**, derived from the names of gods, e.g. **Saturnalia, Bacchanalia, Floralia**.

Note also: **qualis?** what kind of a … ? what (is it) like?

- **talis** such a …, a … like this
Practice

Identify the case of the following noun+adjective phrases and find the dictionary forms of each word.

omnes homines
gravi incommodo
breves epistulæ
reginae Carthaginiensi
sermone castrensi
bella terribilia
anguem viridem
fortium militum
civis spectabilis
dulcibus osculis
triste ministerium
annis innumerabilibus

What is the difference between:
femina nobilis,feminae nobilis,feminae nobili
femina nobili,feminae nobilis,feminae nobilis
feminae nobili,feminae nobilis,feminas nobiles?

Exercise

Using the dictionary, find the meaning of the following phrases:

Annus mirabilis
Annus horribilis
Lar familiaris
Ars longa, vita brevis
Fortuna fortes adiuvat
Si longus, levis; si gravis, brevis (said of pain)

13.5 Present Participles and similar things

13.5.1 A Participle is a kind of adjective formed from a verb. It is so called because it ‘participates’ in the characteristics both of a verb and of an adjective. The Present Participle corresponds to our participle ending in -ing, as in ‘boiling water’.

13.5.2 In Latin, Present Participles have nominative singular in -ns, stem in -nt-, and belong to the Third Declension. They can be formed from either Active or Deponent verbs. If the verb is First Conjugation (A-coloured), the participle ends in -ans; in other verbs it ends in -ens.

Examples:

amans loving: pater amans a loving father
fervens boiling: aqua fervens boiling water
loquens speaking: horologium loquens a speaking clock
veniens coming: saeculum veniens the coming age

13.5.3 The declension of Present Participles contains no novelties, but for clarity here is an example:
Singular | Plural
---|---
nom. amans | amantes
acc. amantem | amantes (or amantis)
gen. amantis | amantum or amantium
dat. amanti | amantibus
abl. amanti or amante | amantibus

Neuter
nom./acc. amans | amantia

The form of the Ablative Singular depends on context; at the moment just be prepared for both forms, ending in -i and in -e.

13.5.4 Some Present Participles have cut adrift from the verbs they originally came from, and will be found in the dictionary in their own right as adjectives, e.g. eloquens eloquent (from eloquor).

Others have become nouns: amans a lover, parens a parent (originally from pario).

There are also some ordinary adjectives of this form, which are not related to any verb, such as ingens huge. They always have ablative singular in –i.

Note also:
praesens praesent- present
absens absent- absent
decens decent- decent, fitting, suitable.

We have a lot of adjectives (and some nouns) in English ending in -ent, like dependent, ebullient, patient, impatient, patent, imminent, apparent, fervent. These usually come from Latin present participles: dependens ebulliens patiens patens imminens apparens fervens which in turn come from verbs: dependeo ebullio patior pateo immineo ferveo.

Exercise

Translate:

Aquam ferventem in poculo porto.
Da mihi poculum aquae ferventis.
Puerum dormientem excito.
Hostes Caesarem venientem vident.
Parentibus nostris honorem damus.
Video hominem librum scribentem.
Ciceronem dicentem audimus.
Oratio eius decens est.
Ex praesentibus bonis voluptatem capimus, mala iminentia timemus.
Scribit Ovidius in primo libro Amorum (1.9): ‘Militat omnis amans, et habet sua castra Cupido.’ In illo carmine multas similitudines monstrat inter militem et amantem.

13.6 A glimpse of the Gerundive

13.6.1 There is another kind of adjective deriving from verbs, which is quite easy to confuse with the Present Participle, and so we mention it here as well. It is called the Gerundive. This kind of adjective belongs to the Second declension, and ends in -ndus (-andus for the First Conjugation, -endus for the rest). Its meaning is similar to English adjectives in -able or -ible (and Latin ones in -bilis), but whereas those imply possibility, the Gerundive implies obligation or necessity.
13.6.2 Here are some examples, which will be more familiar than you expect:

**horrendus** that ought to be shuddered at, horrendous  
**reverendus** that ought to be revered, reverend  
**dividendum** (neuter) a thing that ought to be divided, a dividend  
**agenda** (neuter plural) things that ought to be done  
**addenda** things that ought to be added  
**corrigenda** things that ought to be corrected  
**amandus** that ought to be loved, lovable (try the Feminine)  
**mirandus** that ought to be wondered at, amazing (try the Feminine)

These come from the verbs **horreo** **revereor** **divido** **ago** **addo** **corrigo** **amo** **miror**.

Remember the basic rule:  
- **NT** - doing (cf. Eng. agent, reverent)  
- **ND** - ought to be done (cf. Eng. agenda, reverend)

END OF UNIT 13
UNIT 14

14.1. Expressing wishes, etc.: the Subjunctive

14.1.1 At the coronation of Queen Elizabeth II in 1953, her entrance into Westminster Abbey was greeted by the choir of Westminster School singing in what language? Latin, of course (only 1500 years after the collapse of the Western Roman empire). The words were VIVAT ELIZABETHA REGINA – lit. ‘May Queen Elizabeth live.’

Now look carefully at the following two short sentences:

Vivit regina

Vivat regina

The only difference is in the ending of the verb; indeed only one letter has changed. What has happened? Has the verb vivo suddenly changed from the third conjugation to the first?

No. Vivo is still third conjugation; but there is a difference of meaning.

• The sentence with vivit is an ordinary statement. There, the verb is in the third person singular form (present tense) with which you are already familiar: vivo ‘I live’ is 3rd conjugation, so the third person ends in -it.

• The sentence with vivat is a wish. This verb also is third person singular, but in a form which we have not previously encountered, called the Subjunctive.

14.1.2 The forms you know already, which are used for making statements, are called Indicative. The full grammatical specification of the form vivit is: third person singular present indicative active. Vivat is the third person singular present subjunctive active.

The difference between indicative and subjunctive is called a difference of mood. This has little to do with the modern English use of the word ‘mood’ but comes from Latin modus a way, manner or mode.

14.1.3 The distinction between indicative and subjunctive is conveyed by a change of vowel in the verb ending.

• In the First Conjugation (A-coloured), the Subjunctive is formed by changing the usual a to an e:

   rogat he asks versus roget let him ask.

• In the other conjugations, the Subjunctive has the vowel a:

   manet he stays versus maneat let him stay.
   vivit he lives versus vivat let him live, may he live
   audit he hears versus audiat let him hear.
14.1.4 Now this can be quite confusing. If you find a verb ending in –at, it may theoretically be one of two things:

- an A-coloured (First Conjugation) verb in the Indicative,
  or
- a verb of one of the other conjugations in the Subjunctive.

*Example*

amat he/she/it loves (First Conjugation): Indicative expressing a fact,
but
dicat let him/her/it say (Third Conjugation): Subjunctive expressing a wish.

If you come across a verb ending in –et, it may be:

- an A-coloured (First Conjugation) verb in the Subjunctive;
  or
- an E-coloured (Second Conjugation) verb in the Indicative.

*Example*

amet let him/her/it love (First Conjugation): Subjunctive expressing a wish
but
manet he/she/it stays/waits (Second Conjugation): Indicative expressing fact.

It follows from this that before you can tell whether a verb ending in –at or –et is indicative or subjunctive, you have to know what conjugation it belongs to.

14.1.5 How then do you find this out?

- When learning verbs as items of vocabulary, be sure to take note of what conjugation they belong to. In the next sub-section you will find a list of common A-coloured and E-coloured verbs. Learn these gradually, a few at a time.

- If you come across a verb you don’t know, use the dictionary to find out which conjugation it belongs to, by means of the following procedure:

  **Verbs ending in –et**

  If the verb form in front of you ends in –et, you can tell which conjugation it is from the dictionary form.

  If a verb xxx+et is first conjugation, the dictionary form will be xxx+o. In that case, the form ending in -et will be subjunctive.

    e.g. roget: dictionary form rogo (3 sing. rogat);
    so roget subjunctive ‘let him ask’.
If \(xxx+et\) is second conjugation, the dictionary form will be \(xxx+eo\). In that case, the form ending in -et will be indicative.

  e.g. \textit{manet}: dictionary form \textit{maneo} (3 sing. \textit{manet});
  so \textit{manet} indicative ‘he waits’.

\textbf{Verbs ending in –at}

If it ends in –eat it is almost certainly second conjugation, subjunctive.
  e.g. \textit{maneat} subjunctive of \textit{maneo} stay/wait: ‘let him stay’.

If it ends in –iat it is almost certainly third conjugation (group B) or fourth conjugation, subjunctive.
  e.g. \textit{capiat} subjunctive of \textit{capio} take: ‘let him take’.
  \textit{audiat} subjunctive of \textit{audio} hear: ‘let him hear’.

Note There are a few exceptions; e.g. \textit{creat} and \textit{cruciat} are first conjugation and therefore indicative.

If it ends in –at (preceded by anything other than \(e\) or \(i\)), the dictionary form will end in -o. You then have to look further in the dictionary to find out whether it is first conjugation (A-coloured) or third (colourless). Some dictionaries show this by means of a number in brackets, 1 or 3 as the case may be. Others show it by giving the ending of the Infinitive (see next Unit): if this ends in –are the verb is A-coloured (first conjugation); if it ends in –ere the verb is third conjugation (colourless).

If the verb is A-coloured, the form ending in -at is indicative. If the verb is colourless, the form ending in -at is subjunctive.

  • So: for \textit{rogat} look up \textit{rogo}: it will say either \textit{rogo (1)} or \textit{rogo –are}, either of which tells you that the verb is first conjugation (A-coloured). In that case the form ending in –at will be indicative: \textit{rogat} ‘he asks’. The subjunctive would be \textit{roget}.
  
  • For \textit{regat} look up \textit{rego}. It will say either \textit{rego (3)} or \textit{rego –ere}, either of which tells you that the verb is third conjugation (colourless). In that case the form ending in –at will be subjunctive: \textit{regat} ‘let him rule’. The indicative would be \textit{regit}.

\textit{Note} A form ending in –it will always be indicative, provided the verb is not irregular.

\textbf{AMBIGUITIES}

14.1.6 One or two forms can be analysed in two possible ways:

\textit{manet} can be the indicative of \textit{maneo} ‘stay’, or the subjunctive of \textit{mano} ‘drip’.

\textit{paret} can be the indicative of \textit{pareo} ‘obey’ or the subjunctive of \textit{paro} ‘prepare’.

\textit{putet} can be the indicative of \textit{puteo} ‘stink’ or the subjunctive of \textit{puto} ‘think’.

\textit{Note} In all these cases there is also a difference in vowel length in the root:

  \textit{manet} with short \(a\) he stays; \textit{manet} with long \(a\) let it drip.
  \textit{paret} with short \(a\) let him prepare; \textit{paret} with long \(a\) he obeys.
  \textit{putet} with short \(u\) let him think; \textit{putet} with long \(u\) it stinks.
Practice

Identify the dictionary form and the conjugation, say whether the form given is indicative or subjunctive, and give the meaning.

dicat
dicit
amat
amet
ducat
dicit
moneat
manet
emanet
teneat
terreit
terat
laudat
amet
ducat
cupiat
manet
manet
manet
pariet
puniat
servat
servet
servet
moneat
pareat
pareat
pareat
videat
venit
veniat
sciat
laudat
manet
manet
manet
aueat
aueat
aueat
aueat
auhoa
auhoa
auhoa
auhoa

Exercise

Translate the following sentences appropriately as statements or wishes. Refer to the list of verbs below.

Deus te conservat.
Veniat regnum tuum.
Manet regnum tuum in aeternum.
Regnet Deus in aeternum.
Laudat bonus vir Dominum.
Dicat populus laudes tuas.
Moneat bonus pater filium suum.

conservo (1) preserve venio (4) come
maneo (2) stay, wait, remain, last regno (1) reign
laudo (1) praise dico (3) say, speak
moneo (2) advise

Then turn each sentence into the other mood (Indicative into Subjunctive and v/v) and give the meaning of the new sentence.

14.2 List of common verbs in the first and second conjugations (for practice in distinguishing Indicative and Subjunctive)

14.2.1 The above should have convinced you that it does matter, after all, what conjugation a verb belongs to! The whole business becomes a lot easier once you can recognise a good proportion of the verbs that you encounter in Latin sentences, and know what conjugation they belong to without having to search in the dictionary. Of course there will always be some that you don’t know and have to look up; hence it is important to understand the dictionary procedure as well. Furthermore, even when you do think you know a word, it is as well to check in the dictionary, because (a) you may have chosen the wrong member of a pair of similar-looking verbs; (b) the meaning in context may not be the one you have learned.

Here then is a list of common verbs belonging to the first and second conjugations, which are those where confusion between indicative and subjunctive is most likely to arise. Many of the verbs listed below will already be to some extent familiar to you; this is an opportunity to consolidate. Get used to the look of the 3rd singular indicative and subjunctive forms as well as the dictionary forms. In each list the first few of these are given; the rest follow exactly the same pattern and it is good practice to fill them in by analogy.
14.2.2 Common verbs of the first conjugation (A-coloured)

First, two one-syllable verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dictionary form (1 sing.)</th>
<th>3rd sing. indicative</th>
<th>3rd sing. subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>do give</td>
<td>dat</td>
<td>det</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sto stand</td>
<td>stat</td>
<td>stet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Now you know what *stet* means as a proof correction – ‘let it stand’.)

| ambulo walk               | ambulat              | ambulet               |
| amo love                  | amat                 | amet                  |
| canto sing                | cantat               | cantet                |
| cito spur on; summon; cite| citat                | citet                 |
| clamo shout               | clamat               | clamat                |
| cogito think (about)      | etc. – same pattern throughout |
| erro wander, go astray, be wrong |                       |                       |
| gusto taste               |                       |                       |
| impero give orders        |                       |                       |
| laboro work, be in trouble, bother |                     |                       |
| laudo praise              |                       |                       |
| lavo wash                 |                       |                       |
| neco kill                 |                       |                       |
| porto carry               |                       |                       |
| probo try, prove, approve |                       |                       |
| pugno fight               |                       |                       |
| rogo ask                  |                       |                       |
| salto dance               |                       |                       |
| seco cut                  |                       |                       |
| specto watch, look at     |                       |                       |
| spero hope                |                       |                       |
| spiro breathe             |                       |                       |
| tempo or tento try (out)  |                       |                       |
| veto forbid               |                       |                       |
| voco call                 |                       |                       |

Notice the following, where there is a danger of confusion; )( means ‘distinguish from’:

| aro plough                | arat                  | aret                  |
| )( areo be dry            | arat                 | areat                 |
| fugo chase away           | fugat                 | fuget                 |
| )( fugio flee             | fugit                 | fugiat                |
| iuvo help                 | iuvat                 | iuvet                 |
| )( iudo command           | iubet                 | iubeat                |
| mano drip, seep           | manat                 | manet                 |
| )( manco stay             | manet                 | maneat                |
| paro prepare              | parat                 | paret                 |
| )( pareo appear           | paret                 | pareat                |
| )( pario give birth       | parit                 | pariat                |
| puto think (that …)       | putat                 | putet                 |
| )( puteo be rotten, stink | putet                 | puteat                |
| servo keep, preserve, save| servat                | servet                |
| )( servio serve           | servit                | serviat               |
| volo fly                  | volat                 | volet                 |
Remember: If a verb ends in –AT and is NOT first conjugation, then it is SUBJUNCTIVE.

14.2.3 Common verbs of the second conjugation (E-coloured)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>1st Person Singular</th>
<th>2nd Person Singular</th>
<th>3rd Person Singular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ardeo</td>
<td>burn (be hot)</td>
<td>ardet</td>
<td>ardeat</td>
<td>ardeat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>augeo</td>
<td>increase</td>
<td>auget</td>
<td>augeat</td>
<td>augeat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caleo</td>
<td>be hot</td>
<td>calet</td>
<td>caleat</td>
<td>caleat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doceo</td>
<td>teach</td>
<td>docet</td>
<td>doceat</td>
<td>doceat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fleo</td>
<td>weep</td>
<td>flet</td>
<td>fleat</td>
<td>fleat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frigeo</td>
<td>be cold, ‘fall flat’</td>
<td>etc.</td>
<td>same pattern throughout</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gaudeo</td>
<td>be glad</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iubeo</td>
<td>tell (someone to do something), command</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moneo</td>
<td>warn</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moveo</td>
<td>move</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oleo</td>
<td>smell (of)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>placeo</td>
<td>please</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prohibeo</td>
<td>forbid</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>respondeo</td>
<td>answer</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rideo</td>
<td>laugh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sedeo</td>
<td>sit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sileo</td>
<td>be silent</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>spondeo</td>
<td>promise</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>suadeo</td>
<td>persuade</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>taceo</td>
<td>say nothing</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>timeo</td>
<td>fear</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>video</td>
<td>see</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Confusable verbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>1st Person Singular</th>
<th>2nd Person Singular</th>
<th>3rd Person Singular</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>audeo</td>
<td>dare</td>
<td>audet</td>
<td>audeat</td>
<td>audeat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audio</td>
<td>hear</td>
<td>audit</td>
<td>audiat</td>
<td>audiat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iaceo</td>
<td>lie</td>
<td>iacet</td>
<td>iaceat</td>
<td>iaceat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iacio</td>
<td>throw</td>
<td>iacit</td>
<td>iaciat</td>
<td>iaciat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iubeo</td>
<td>command</td>
<td>iubet</td>
<td>iubeat</td>
<td>iubeat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iuvo</td>
<td>help</td>
<td>iuvat</td>
<td>iuvet</td>
<td>iuvet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maneo</td>
<td>stay</td>
<td>manet</td>
<td>maneat</td>
<td>maneat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mano</td>
<td>drip</td>
<td>manat</td>
<td>manet</td>
<td>manet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pareo</td>
<td>obey, appear</td>
<td>paret</td>
<td>pareat</td>
<td>pareat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paro</td>
<td>prepare</td>
<td>parat</td>
<td>paret</td>
<td>paret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pario</td>
<td>give birth, produce</td>
<td>parit</td>
<td>pariat</td>
<td>pariat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puto</td>
<td>be rotten, stink</td>
<td>putet</td>
<td>puteat</td>
<td>puteat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>puto</td>
<td>think (that …)</td>
<td>putat</td>
<td>putet</td>
<td>putet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
14.3 Subjunctive: the other persons; passives & deponents.

14.3.1 Once you have got the basic principle about the vowels, as outlined above, nothing else about the Subjunctive is very difficult. In this section we shall look at the way the characteristic vowel of the subjunctive combines with the personal endings. There is one entirely new personal ending to deal with: the First Person Singular.

FIRST PERSON SINGULAR (active voice)

14.3.2 The First Person Singular of the subjunctive always ends in -m (in contrast to the -o of the indicative). Combined with the characteristic vowels, the endings are -em in the First Conjugation, and -am in the others.

Examples

First Conjugation:
rogem let me ask (vs. rogo I ask).

Other conjugations:
maneam let me stay (vs. maneo I stay)
dicam let me say (vs. dico I say)
audiam let me hear (vs. audio I hear).

Examples in context:
Flumina amem silvasque
(Virgil, Georgics 2.486) Let me love rivers and forests

Aures vestras permulceam
(Apuleius, Golden Ass 1.1) Let me caress your ears (i.e. with storytelling)

14.3.3 The introduction of this ending now creates a further complication: it is the same as the accusative ending of nouns in the first declension (-am) or third declension (-em) as the case may be. When you find an unknown word with one of these endings, therefore, you have to be careful to work out by using the dictionary or from the context whether you are dealing with a noun or a verb. Just occasionally one encounters forms that can be analysed either as the first person singular of a verb in the subjunctive, or as the accusative of a noun or adjective. Such things can be horribly confusing, but forewarned is forearmed. The only ones you are likely to meet for the moment are:

veniam subjunctive of venio: ‘let me come’
or accusative of venia permission, pardon

scribam subjunctive of scribo ‘let me write’
or accusative of scriba scribe, secretary

vivam subjunctive of vivo ‘let me live’
or accusative feminine singular of vivus alive

laudem subjunctive of laudo ‘let me praise’
or accusative of laus praise.

Of course, confusion is also possible between words that are not spelt the same! For example, you may well need to distinguish between the following:
and many others of the same kind.

THE OTHER PERSONS

14.3.4 The other personal endings are exactly the same as for the Indicative:

- S
- T
- MUS
- TIS
- NT.

When combined with the characteristic vowel of the subjunctive, these therefore become:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>First Conjugation</th>
<th>Other verbs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2 sing. ‘you’</td>
<td>-es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 sing. ‘he/she/it’</td>
<td>-et</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 pl. ‘we’</td>
<td>-emus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 pl. ‘you’</td>
<td>-etis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 pl. ‘they’</td>
<td>-ent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14.3.5 The Second Person Singular ends in –s; the subjunctive endings are therefore -es for the First Conjugation, and –as for the rest.

Beware, this time, of confusion with the accusative plural of nouns: e.g. laudes 2nd singular subjunctive of laudo, ‘may you praise’, or accusative plural of laus, ‘praises’.

14.3.6 Here now is the complete set of forms of the Subjunctive in each conjugation, compared in each case with the Indicative:

First Conjugation:

Subjunctive
laudem laudes laudet laudemus laudetis laudent

equivalent to Indicative
laudo laudas laudat laudamus laudatis laudent
Second Conjugation:

Subjunctive
moneam moneas moneat moneamus moneatis moneant

versus Indicative
moneo mones monet monemus monetis monent

Third Conjugation:

Subjunctive
dicam dicas dicat dicamus dicatis dicant

versus Indicative
dico dicis dicit dicimus dicitis dicunt

Third Conjugation (Group B):

Subjunctive
faciam facias faciat faciamus faciatis faciant

versus Indicative:
facio facis facit facimus facitis faciunt

Fourth Conjugation:

Subjunctive
audiam audias audiat audiamus audiatis audiant

versus Indicative:
audio audis audit audimus audiitis audiunt

Note The Second, Third (b) and Fourth Conjugations keep their usual vowels e and i before the subjunctive endings. The pairs of vowels ea and ia are characteristic of the Subjunctive of these conjugations and usually make it quite easy to recognise, even in a verb you don’t know.

Examples

Videamus Let us see.

Gaudeas May you rejoice / be happy.

Audiant omnes Let everyone listen.

Vivamus, mea Lesbia, atque amemus (Catullus 5) Let us live [i.e. enjoy life], my Lesbia, and let us love.

PASSIVE AND DEPONENT

14.3.7 The Passive and Deponent endings are made up from the usual personal endings preceded by the characteristic vowels of the Subjunctive. Note that the First Person Singular has -er or -ar, as contrasted with the -or of the Indicative.
1st conjugation:

Other verbs:

Examples

Sanctificetur nomen tuum (lit. May your name be sanctified)
Hallowed be thy name.
vs. indicative sanctificatur.

Detur venia iuventuti (lit. Let pardon be given to youth)
Let us forgive young men their mistakes.
vs. indicative datur

Deponent:

Moriamur
Let us die.
vs. indicative morimur.

Progrediantur omnes fortiter
Let everyone go forward bravely
vs. indicative progresdiuntur.

14.4 Using the Subjunctive

NEGATION OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

14.4.1 Negative wishes are expressed by the word nê (long e) plus the appropriate form of the Subjunctive. Contrast non, used with the Indicative.

Examples

Ne veniat Let him not come.
Ne occidatur Let him not be killed.
Ne moriamur Let us not die.
Haec ne dicantur Let these things not be said.
Ne vos morer Let me not delay you (Don’t let me hold you up).
14.4.2 Ne together with the second person of the Subjunctive is used for negative commands or recommendations.

**Hoc ne dicas** Don’t say that

**Ne obliviscaris** Don’t forget

*Note (a)* Negative commands of this kind tend to have a general or proverbial feel about them. Specific commands are expressed in a different way (see Unit 16).

*Note (b)* In poetry, ne is also found with the Imperative: ne crede do not believe it; 
equo ne credite, Teucrī do not believe in the horse, Trojans.

---

**FIRST PERSON OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE IN QUESTIONS**

14.4.3 The First Person of the Subjunctive is used in questions asking for help or advice as to what to do (called ‘deliberative’ questions):

**Quid faciam?** What am I to do?

**Veniam an non veniam?** Shall I come or shall I not come?

**Eloquar an sileam?** Shall I speak or be silent?

**Veniamus an non?** Are we to come or not?

---

**SUBJUNCTIVE OF THE VERB ‘TO BE’**

14.4.4 The verb ‘to be’ has a Subjunctive that does not fall into any of the regular patterns and has to be learnt separately. It is formed on the stem si- with the usual personal endings of the Subjunctive:

- **sim** let me be (vs. indicative sum)
- **sis** may you be
- **sit** let him/her/it be / may he/she/it be
- **simus** let us be (vs. indicative sumus)
- **sitis** may you (pl.) be
- **sint** let them be / may they be (vs. indicative sunt)

*Note (a)* Beware of mistaking sitis for the noun sitis thirst.

*Note (b)* There are alternative, old-fashioned forms siem, sies etc. found in earlier Latin texts and in Roman legal and religious language.

---

**Examples in context**

- **Ne sim tibi inimicus** Let me not be an enemy to you
- **Ne sis molestus** Don’t be a nuisance
- **Sitis felices** May you be happy

**Sit Latium, sint Albani per saecula reges,**
**sit Romana potens Itala virtute propago**
*(Virgil, Aeneid 12.826-7)*

Let there be Latium; let there be Alban kings through the ages;
Let the Roman stock be powerful through Italian virtue.
The compounds of *sum* work the same way, e.g.

**absum** I am absent: Subjunctive **absim** let me be absent.

**Absit omen!** lit. Let the omen be absent! (used to express a wish that an apparently prophetic or ominous occurrence should prove not to be so).

**Adsint omnes** Let everyone be present.

---

‘**UTINAM’**

14.4.5 Wishes are often introduced by the particle **utinam** ‘if only …’. This word is related to **ut** ‘how’, ‘as’, and may originally have meant ‘how might it happen that…?’.

**Utinam videat** If only he would see

**Utinam ne occidatur** If only he could not be killed

---

**CONCESSIONS**

14.4.6 The Subjunctive in the meaning ‘let it be …’ is used to concede that something may be true or that something may happen. It is often accompanied in this usage by e.g. **sane** of course, or **licet** lit. it is allowed. In English, we might add ‘suppose’, ‘granted’, ‘I admit’, ‘as far as I’m concerned’, or ‘for all I care’.

**Sit illud verum** Suppose that’s true …

**Credas licet** You may believe it as far as I’m concerned

**Amet sane, modo ne molestus sit** Let him fall in love, of course, only don’t let him be a nuisance

---

**Exercise**

You can now read the Lord’s Prayer in Latin:

**Pater noster, qui es in caelis, sanctificetur nomen tuum; veniat regnum tuum; fiat voluntas tua, sicut in caelo, et in terra. Panem nostrum cotidianum da nobis hodie, et dimittte nobis debita nostra, sicut et nos dimittimus debitoribus nostris. Et ne nos inducas in tentationem, sed libera nos a malo.**

*Notes*

**qui** who

**fiat** from **fio** which means ‘become’, ‘be made’, or ‘be done’. It is used as a passive of **facio** do/make, which has no passive in use. It follows the pattern of the fourth conjugation, but lacks some of the expected forms (e.g. no 1st person plural).

**et in terra** also on earth: this usage of **et** belongs to later Latin; Classical Latin would say **etiam**.

And here is a well-known Christmas carol in its original Latin version. Notice the subjunctives: **adoremus** and **cantet**.
Adeste fideles  
Laeti, triumphantes;  
Venite, venite in Bethlehem.  
Natum videte  
Regem angelorum.  
Venite adoremus x 3  
Dominum.  

Deum de deo,  
Lumen de lumine,  
Parturit mater virgo.  
Deum verum,  
Genitum, non factum.  
Venite adoremus x 3  
Dominum.  

Cantet nunc hymnos  
Chorus angelorum;  
Cantet nunc aula cælestium.  
Gloria  
In excelsis Deo.  
Venite adoremus x 3  
Dominum.  

Notes

adeste plural imperative of adsum  
natum acc. of natus born  
genitum acc. of genitus begotten  
factum acc. of factus made, created  

END OF UNIT 14
UNIT 15

15.1 Principal Parts of Verbs; Infinitives.

15.1.1 Traditionally any inflected form of a verb is called a ‘part’ of the verb.

What are called the Principal Parts of a verb are those from which, if you know the rules of the conjugation, you can deduce all the other parts of that verb. The dictionary entry for a Latin verb generally lists the Principal Parts.

Example:

amo, -are, amavi, amatum.

In English every verb has three Principal Parts: the present tense, e.g. write; the past tense, e.g. wrote; and the past participle, e.g. written.

Latin works more or less the same way, except that Latin verbs have four Principal Parts:

- The FIRST principal part (amo) is the First Person Singular of the Present Tense, the form under which the verb is listed in the dictionary. This corresponds in meaning to I love, I go, I kill, I write, etc.

- The SECOND principal part (amare) is what is called the Present Infinitive. This form corresponds in meaning to the English to love, to go, to kill, to write. We shall look at the Infinitive in more detail below in this Unit. In dictionary entries, amo, -are is short for amo, amare.

- The THIRD principal part of active verbs (amavi) is the First Person Singular of the Perfect (or Past) Tense. This form corresponds roughly in meaning to the English I loved, I went, I killed, I wrote. For more about the Perfect see Unit 18.

- The FOURTH principal part of active verbs, and the third principal part of deponents, is the Past Participle (amatum). This corresponds to the English past participle, loved, gone, killed, written. For more about the Past Participle see Unit 19.

THE INFINITIVE

15.1.2 The infinitive of active verbs ends in -re. The vowel before the ending depends, as usual, on the conjugation.

- First Conjugation: ending -are.
  
  Examples: amo I love, amare to love.
  pulso I hit, pulsare to hit.

- Second Conjugation: ending -ere (with long e).
  
  Examples: teneo I hold, tenere to hold.
  timeo I fear, timere to fear.

- Third Conjugation (both groups): ending -ere (with short e).
  
  Group A: dico I say, dicere to say.
  duco I lead, ducere to lead.
  ago I drive, do, agere to drive, to do.
Group B:  
capio I take, capere to take.  
facio I do, make, facere to do, make.  

- Fourth Conjugation: ending -ire.  

Examples:    
audio I hear, audire to hear.  
punio I punish, punire to punish.

15.1.3 For dictionary purposes, if you find an Infinitive, you need to turn it into the first person singular before you can look the word up. The dictionary entry will then tell you whether you have got the right verb, since the form (or at least the ending) of the infinitive will be given as the second principal part.

The rules for getting to the first person singular are as follows:

For -are substitute -o  
For -ire substitute –io

For -ere (you won’t necessarily know the length of the e) you must try -eo, -o and –io: there is no way of predicting in advance which it will be.

Practice

Turn the following infinitives into the First Person Singular (using the dictionary to check that you have the right form) and find the meaning in the dictionary if you do not already know it:

vincire vincere  
manare tenere  
dare edere  
audere sapere

putare putere  
emere agere  
dedere condere  
saepire perdere

monere munire manere  
facere capere carpere  
condire prodere audire  
proedere terrere timere

15.1.4 Be careful to distinguish infinitives from:

(a) ablatives of the Third Declension such as genere opere onere muliere. There are no real ambiguities here, but if you don’t know a word or have forgotten it, it is easy to be pushed in the wrong direction; how often have we seen people trying to find a verb *geno with an infinitive genere? (Also adverbs such as temere at random.)

(b) neuter adjectives of the Third Declension ending in -are (masculine in -aris). There can be a real problem here; salutare can be either the infinitive of saluto or the neuter of salutaris!

Salutare amicos bonum est To greet one’s friends is good  
Salutare est multis amicos habere It is salutary to have many friends

Practice

Find the meaning of the following words. Some are infinitives, others not!

tenere onerare  
temere opere  
genere operire  
gignere peragere  
tempore peregre  
familiare
PASSIVE AND DEPONENT INFINITIVE

15.1.5 Now for the passives and deponents. The First, Second and Fourth conjugations (A-coloured, E-coloured and I-coloured) are easy: the passive has -ri instead of the active -re.

- First Conjugation: ending –ari
  
  Passive:
  amor  I am loved: amari to be loved
  pulsor I am hit: pulsari to be hit

  Deponent:
  hortor I exhort: hortari to exhort
  philosophor I philosophise: philosophari to philosophise

- Second Conjugation: ending –eri
  
  Passive:
  moneor I am warned: moneri to be warned
  teneor I am held: teneri to be held

  Deponent:
  vereor I fear: vereri to fear
  medeor I heal: mederi to heal

- Fourth Conjugation: ending –iri
  
  Passive:
  audior I am heard: audiri to be heard
  punior I am punished: puniri to be punished

  Deponent:
  potior I gain possession: potiri to gain possession
  partior I share: partiri to share

THIRD CONJUGATION

15.1.6 In the Third Conjugation the passive and deponent infinitive is formed with the ending -i. Just -i; nothing more. No r in sight. This applies to both Group A and Group B.

Group A

  Passive:
  dici to be said (dico)
  duci to be led (duco)
  regi to be ruled (rego)

  Deponent:
  uti to use (utor)
  frui to enjoy (fruor)
  labi to slip, slide (labor)
  niti to lean, strive (nitor)
Group B

Passive:
- capi to be taken (capio)
- decipi to be deceived (decipio)
- rapi to be seized (rapio)

Deponent:
- pati to suffer (pator)

The problem with these infinitives is that they do not look much like the infinitives of other verbs. Worse still, there are other kinds of word with which they can easily be confused: for example, the nominative plural or genitive singular of the second declension, or the dative singular of the third declension.

There are in fact relatively few instances where a genuine ambiguity is possible. One such is regi which can be (with long e) the dative of rex king, or (with short e) the passive infinitive of rego I rule. Another is duci which, with long u, is the passive infinitive of duco I lead; with short u, it is the dative of dux leader, general.

Isn’t there a misprint in that paragraph? Shouldn’t ‘long’ and ‘short’ be the other way round?

No! Unfortunately there is no set pattern. The e in rex is long; the u in dux is short. The e in rego is short; the u in duco is long.

Regi (vel duci) fabulam narro I tell the story to the king (or to the general)
Regi (vel duci) a sapiendoribus bonum est It is good to be ruled (or led) by wiser people

Practice

(i) Find the dictionary form of the following infinitives:
dici duci niti pati vincr uti regi capi caedi rapi sequi

(ii) Use the dictionary to find the meaning of the following. Some are infinitives, others not! If there is more than one possibility, give all the possibilities.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>loqui</th>
<th>coqui</th>
<th>voci</th>
<th>vocari</th>
<th>domini</th>
<th>tradi</th>
<th>dominari</th>
<th>homini</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>oneri</td>
<td>videri</td>
<td>onerari</td>
<td>operi</td>
<td>oriri</td>
<td>frui</td>
<td>metui</td>
<td>tangi</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>legi</td>
<td>eligi</td>
<td>iudici</td>
<td>trahi</td>
<td>uri</td>
<td>muri</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

INFINITIVE OF THE VERB ‘TO BE’

15.1.7 The infinitive of the verb ‘to be’ is esse. This is very common and should be learnt.
- Esse quam videri (the motto of RHUL) to be rather than to seem
- Esse est percipi (Berkeley’s philosophical principle) to be is to be perceived

So also its compounds:
- abesse to be absent
- adesse to be present
- deesse to be lacking, to fail
- interesse to be involved; to make a difference etc.

Note There is also another, much less commonly found infinitive esse (with long e) which is the infinitive of edo I eat.
15.2 Use of the infinitive

15.2.1 The infinitive is used more or less whenever we use our infinitive with ‘to’. It can be the subject of a sentence, especially one containing the verb ‘to be’:

- **errare humanum est** To err is human.
- **bonum est vinum bibere** It is good to drink wine.

15.2.2 The infinitive is used with verbs such as:

- **audeo** I dare to …
- **valeo** I am strong enough to …
- **soleo** I am accustomed to …
- **debeo** I am obliged to …
- **videor** I seem to … (passive of **video** but with altered meaning)
- **iubeo** I tell someone to …
- **veto** I forbid someone to …
- **vereor** I am afraid to …
- **licet** it is allowed to …
- **iuvat** it is pleasant to … (from **iuvo** help, with altered meaning)
- **decet** it is fitting, decent, glorious to …

*Examples in context:*

- **audeo pugnare** I dare to fight
- **valeo facere** I am strong enough to do
- **soleo hortari** I am accustomed to encourage (or: I usually encourage)
- **debeo rogare** I am obliged to ask (or: I have to ask, I ought to ask, I must ask)
- **videor insanus esse** I seem to be mad.
- **iubeo te adesse** I tell you to be there
- **veto te hoc dicere** I forbid you to say this
- **vereor procedere in publicum** I am afraid to go out in public
- **licet consulere?** is it allowed to consult you? may I consult you?
- **iuvat in silvis ambulare** it is pleasant to walk in the woods
- **decet pro patria mori** it is glorious to die for one’s country

Note the more idiomatic English equivalents: **soleo facere** I usually do, **debeo facere** I must do, **licet facere** I am allowed to / can / may do.

15.2.3 The word order may be varied:

pugnare audeo, facere valeo, hortari soleo, rogare debeo, insanus esse videor, adesse te iubeo, te hoc dicere veto, procedere in publicum vereor, consulere licet, ambulare in silvis iuvat, pro patria mori decet.

As usual, it is a question of emphasis. The word which comes first carries the greater emphasis (or is topicalised)
Exercise

Translate:

VENARI LAVARI
LUDERE BIBERE
HOC EST VIVERE

(Inscription on a board for the Roman game *ludus duodecim scriptorum*, a kind of backgammon: each of three lines contains 12 letters marking the squares)

**Quisquis amat, valeat; pereat qui nescit amare;**

**Bis tantum pereat quisquis amare vetat.**

(Corrected version of a graffito on a wall at Pompeii. *quisquis* = whoever, *qui* = who; *bis tantum* = twice as much. The original, in atrocious spelling which perhaps reflects some features of spoken dialect, reads *quisquis ama valia peria qui nosci amare / bis tanti peria quisquis amare vota.*)

### 15.3 Three irregular verbs: FIO  EO  FERO

15.3.1 The verb *facio*, infin. *facere* to do, make, is exceptional in not having a Passive form. The meaning ‘to be done or made’ is expressed by a different verb, which is *active* in form. This is *fio*, which also means ‘to become’ and ‘to happen’. Generally it belongs to the Fourth Conjugation (though it lacks some forms that one would expect it to have; there is no form for ‘we’ or ‘you’ plural):

- **fio** I become, am made
- **fis** you become, are made
- **fit** he, she, it becomes, is made; it is done; it happens
- **fiunt** they become, are made, are done, happen.

Subjunctive *fiam –as –at –amus –atis –ant* let me become, etc.

*Examples:*

- **Puto deus fio** I think I’m becoming a god (the emperor Vespasian’s last words)
- **Fis anus** You’re becoming an old woman
- **Quid fit?** What’s happening? / How are things?
- **Arma hic fiunt** Weapons are made here

- **Fiat!** OK (lit. let it happen)
- **Fiat lux** Let there be light

  **Fiat iustitia, ruat caelum** Let justice be done even supposing the sky falls

- **Fiat voluntas tua** Thy will be done

15.3.2 *How do you say ‘we become’ or ‘we are made’ or ‘you become’ (in the plural) or ‘you are made’?*

Good question! I think you would have to use a different verb, e.g. *efficimur, efficimini* we/you are made (passive of *efficio -ere*).

It is worth noting, by the way, that *facio* in compounds turns into -ficio, and that its compounds are fully conjugated in the passive; e.g. *adficio* (ad+facio) or *afficio* I affect, passive *afficior* I am affected (not *affio!*)
15.3.3 **Fio** has an irregular, passive-looking infinitive:

    fieri to become, to be made, to be done, to happen.

Note also the compounds of **fieri**, e.g.:

    patefieri to become obvious, to be made public
    calefieri to become hot

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**THE VERB ‘TO GO’**

15.3.4 The Latin verb for ‘to go’, **eo**, also resembles a Fourth Conjugation verb, but differs from the normal pattern in one respect: whenever there are two vowels together, the first one becomes **e** rather than the expected **i**:

    eo I go
    is you go
    it he, she, it goes
    imus we go
    itis you go
    eunt they go

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>i! go!</td>
<td>ite!</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjunctive</td>
<td>eam eas eae eae eas eant let me go, etc.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
<td>ire to go.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Present Participle</td>
<td>iens eunt- going (i.e. iens in nominative, but other cases euntem etc.; this is tricky to remember and best ignored for the moment.)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

15.3.5 **How do you tell is ‘you go’ from is ‘he, that man’?**

Good question! **Is** ‘you go’ has a long vowel, while **is** ‘he’ has a short vowel; but that would not help you in a normal text. In fact, however, **is** ‘you go’, uncompounded, is pretty rare. Ten to one, if you see **is** in a text, it is the pronoun.

There are other problems of ambiguity with this verb as well. What about **eo**? You already know **eo** ablative of **is**, and **eo** which means ‘to that place’. Theoretically you could say **eo eo** meaning ‘I am going there’! But in fact you don’t; you would say **illuc eo**. And then there is **imus**. That means ‘we are going’, but it is also an adjective meaning ‘lowest’. How can we cope with such confusion? The answer is that in practice, confusion would not arise, because there is no context in which ‘we are going’ and ‘lowest’ would make equally good sense. You have to look at the rest of the sentence. A Latin speaker, of course, would do it instinctively. In speaking English, you have no difficulty in distinguishing between words that sound the same, e.g. **meat** and **meet**. The first and second persons of the subjunctive look like the accusative singular and plural forms of **ea** ‘she’. **Illuc eam** let me go there; **amo eam** I love her. **Illuc eas** may you go there; **amo eas** I love them.

Having said all this, I should point out that as time went on, Latin speakers did use the forms of **eo** less and less, and tended to replace them with the more substantial-sounding verb **vado**. Hence in Italian the normal word for ‘I go’ is **vado**; in French, **je vais**. When St. Peter, on the
way out of Rome, saw a vision of Jesus, he asked him (according to the story) not Quo is? but Quo vadis? Where are you going?

15.3.6 Note the compounds of eo (conjugated exactly like it):

- abeo go away
- adeo approach, arrive at
- exeo go out (hence exit, exeunt omnes)
- ineo go in
  - obeo do the rounds; ‘pass on’ (i.e. die; hence obituary)
- pereo perish, be done for
- subeo go up to, approach, creep up on.

THE VERB ‘FERO’

15.3.7 The third peculiar verb we shall deal with in this unit is fero carry, bear, bring. It is basically third-conjugation, but with some peculiarities. It goes like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I</th>
<th>fero</th>
<th>fers</th>
<th>fert</th>
<th>ferimus</th>
<th>fertis</th>
<th>ferunt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3s</td>
<td>I carry</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3p</td>
<td>fers</td>
<td>fert</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3p</td>
<td>fertis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3p</td>
<td>ferunt</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Imperative</td>
<td>fer! bring!</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plural</td>
<td>ferte!</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Subjunctive</td>
<td>feram –as –at –amus –atis –ant</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Infinitive</td>
<td>ferre.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The difference between fero and other third-conjugation verbs is the dropping of the stem vowel in fers fert fertis fer ferte ferre. Its compounds go the same way, e.g. aufero carry away, aufers aufert auferimus aufertis auferunt, etc. So does its passive: feror I am carried, [ferris, not common,] fertur ferimur ferimini feruntur, infinitive ferri.

15.3.8 Fero is not to be confused with the regular fourth conjugation verb ferio, infin. ferire, to hit, beat, strike, which goes ferio feris ferit ferimus feritis feriunt; imperative feri ferite; subjunctive feriam etc.

Ferire quam ferre lit. to strike rather than to put up with things. An exhortation to get one’s blow in first.

END OF UNIT 15
UNIT 16

16.1 Possum, volo, nolo, malo

16.1.1 Four very common irregular verbs, used often with the infinitive, are:

- **possum** I am able …, I can …
- **volo** I want
- **nolo** I don’t want (short for **non volo**)
- **malo** I want X more than Y; I prefer.

16.1.2 **Possum** is a compound of **sum**. It was originally **potis sum** ‘I am + able’; **potis** is an old word for ‘able’ or ‘powerful’. The neuter of **potis** was **pote** which is found occasionally in the sense of ‘possible’.

It goes like this:

- **possum** I am able
- **potes** you are able
- **potest** he, she, it is able
- **possuumus** we are able
- **potestis** you are able
- **possunt** they are able.

Infinitive: **posse** to be able.

16.1.3 Be careful to distinguish the forms of **possum** from other similar-looking words e.g. **potestas potestat-** power, **poto** I drink, **potior** I gain possession.

16.1.4 **Volo**, I want, is conjugated oddly, like this:

- **volo** I want
- **vis** you want
- **vult** or **volt** he, she, it wants
- **volumus** we want
- **vultis** or **voltis** you want
- **volunt** they want.

Infinitive: **velle** to want.

16.1.5 Use the context to distinguish **vis** you want from the noun **vis** strength.

- **Vis adhibetur** Force is applied
- **Vis Romam ire** You want to go to Rome

Distinguish between **volo** I want and **volo –are** (1st conjugation) I fly.

- **Aves volant; homines volunt volare** Birds fly; men want to fly
16.1.6 ‘Do you want?’ is (naturally) visne?, but this can be shortened to vin’? Similarly scin’ for scisne do you know?

16.1.7 Nolo, I don’t want to …, is a compound of non + volo I want. (Non volo would mean ‘I don’t fly’!)

The only parts of nolo you have to be able to recognise for the moment are:

- nolo I don’t want
- nolumus we don’t want
- nolunt they don’t want.

Infinitive: nolle not to want, to be unwilling.

and the imperative noli (see next paragraph).

Otherwise we just have non vis, non vult, non vultis.

16.1.8 Nolo has an imperative noli, pl. nolite, which is used like our ‘don’t’.

Example: Noli id facere lit. Don’t want to do it!, i.e. Don’t do it!

This is the regular way of issuing a specific prohibition or negative command in Latin.

16.1.9 Malo, I want (something) more, a compound of magis more + volo, conjugates like this:

- malo
- mavis
- mavult
- malumus
- mavultis
- malunt

Infinitive malle to prefer.

The a is long in all these forms.

Examples:
- malo hoc quam illud I want this more than that; I prefer this to that.
- malo tacere quam dicere I want to keep quiet more than to speak; I prefer to say nothing rather than to speak.

16.1.10 Use the context to distinguish between malo I prefer, and malo dat./abl.of malus bad (with short a).

- malo bonos legere scriptores I prefer to read good writers
- a malo scriptore by a bad writer
16.1.11 Now you can read the following exchange of verses between the Emperor Hadrian and his friend Florus:

**FLORUS:**
Ego nolo Caesar esse,
ambulare per Britannos,
Scythicas pati pruinas.

**HADRIAN:**
Ego nolo Florus esse,
ambulare per tabernas,
latitare per popinas,
culices pati rotundos.

---

**Exercise**

Potes audire oratorem? Illum audire non possum; non satis clare loquitur.
Nolo ire ad convivium tuum: solus potare possum, et id quidem malo facere.
Noli ire ad illud convivium; nam mali homines ibi sunt.
Malo ad tuum quam ad illius convivium ire.
Poetae, nisi potant, carmina componere non possunt.
Lucius dicit: ‘Volo avis fieri; aves enim possunt volare, et ego volare volo.’ Non autem
avis, sed asinus fit.
Asini vero non volant; volare nec possunt nec volunt.
Daedalus bene volare potest; sed Icarus nimirum alte volat et e caelo cadit.
Audiri in hac turba magister non potest.
Audire in hac turba magistrum non potes.
Malo a bono magistro doceri quam a malo.
Magister mavult bonos discipulos habere quam malos.
Si pugnas, aut vincere potes aut vinci.
Potestis etiam ab hoste doceri, sed mavultis ab amico consilium accipere.
Romani hostem vincunt, captivos vinciunt.
Captivi autem et vinci et vinciri nolunt, sed nihil facere possunt.
Non vult populus ab istis regi, sed se ipse regere vult.
Non vult populus regi consilium suum patefacere; nam regem expellere vult.
Non vis mecum studere quia ignavus es.
Non vis sed consilium apud hunc populum valet.
Hi volunt multum discere; illi ludere malunt neque de doctrina curant.

---

16.2 Use of the infinitive (continued)

16.2.1 The Infinitive of a transitive verb can take an object in the Accusative, just as any other verb can; we have already seen examples of this in the above exercise and it is unlikely that they worried you.

- puellam amare or amare puellam to love a girl
- Vergilium legere or legere Vergilium to read Virgil
- Ciceronem audire or audire Ciceronem to listen to (hear) Cicero.

Hence e.g. *volo audire Ciceronem* I want to hear Cicero;
*malo Vergilium legere quam Ciceronem* I prefer to read Virgil rather than Cicero.

or with extra emphasis on Vergilium:
Vergilium legere malo quam Ciceronem, Vergilium malo legere quam Ciceronem, Vergilium malo quam Ciceronem legere (all possible orders).

16.2.2 The verbs volo nolo malo can also take an object of their own in the accusative. Hence we get phrases like:

volo te ire I want you to go
nolo illum decipi I don’t want him to be deceived.

Note also:
iubeo te ire I tell you to go
veto te loqui I forbid you to speak
cogit eum respondere he forces him to answer

16.2.3 The two types of accusative can be combined in the same sentence:

Volo te Ciceronem audire I want you to hear Cicero.
Malo illam Vergilium legere I prefer her to read Virgil.
Iubeo te cenam parare I order you to prepare dinner
Veto vos illum oratorem audire I forbid you to hear that orator

It may look as though word-order is the best guide to what goes with what. But in fact a Roman would probably not have too many qualms about saying Iubeo cenam te parare I order you to prepare dinner. It is in fact the context that determines the meaning, not the word-order in itself. When there could be a real ambiguity, it is possible to avoid the problem by using the passive:

Volo Carthaginienses a Romanis vinci I want the Carthaginians to be beaten by the Romans

The double accusative Volo Carthaginienses Romanos vincere could have been ambiguous; it might have meant ‘I want the Romans to beat the Carthaginians’ or the other way round.

16.2.4 Suppose now that you were to take the sentence Volo te ire I want you to go, and analyse it a different way.

We just said that te was the object of volo; and so indeed it is, looked at from one point of view. But from another it is not quite so straightforward. It is not as if the speaker had said simply ‘I want you’. In fact, ‘I want you to go’ might imply the very reverse; that the speaker doesn’t want the addressee! What, then, does the speaker actually want? What he wishes is for the addressee to go. He wants not the addressee himself, but an action to be performed by the addressee (the action of going).

Let us then analyse the sentence in this alternative, more logical way. Instead of ‘I want you + to go’, it now becomes ‘I want + you to go’. Or in Latin, not Volo te + ire, but Volo + te ire.

The word te is now seen as closely connected with ire. In fact, the words te ire function together as a noun-phrase which is the object of volo.

The noun-phrase te ire can now be analysed further into its component parts te + ire. In what relation does the word te stand to the infinitive ire? Logically, it seems, it is the subject; you are the person who is to perform the action of going. However, the word te is still in the accusative, because of its original (now half-forgotten) function as object of volo.
This, then, is what is called an ACCUSATIVE AND INFINITIVE construction, i.e. a noun-phrase consisting of an infinitive with its ‘subject’ in the accusative.

16.2.5 In English, we can say ‘I want you to go’, ‘I consider him to be a fool’, ‘I know Caesar to be standing for the consulship’, using the Accusative and Infinitive. So in Latin: *Volo te ire; Arbitror eum stultum esse; Scio Caesarem consulatum petere*. The last two could also be expressed as: ‘I consider that he is a fool’; ‘I know that Caesar is standing for the consulship’.

In Latin, this construction is used after a much wider range of verbs than in English, including all verbs of saying and thinking:

* Dicit me insanum esse He says me to be mad, i.e. he says that I am mad
  * Puto te scire I think you to know, i.e. I think you know

In these cases the accusative and infinitive is clearly impossible in English. The Latin accusative and infinitive must be translated into English by a clause beginning with ‘that …’.

(There is also a Latin word for ‘that’ – *quod* – but in classical times it belonged to colloquial speech, and does not become common after verbs of saying, knowing etc. until the later Empire: it is common in the Vulgate version of the Bible.)

This use of the Accusative and Infinitive is extremely common in Latin. It is not hard to grasp provided you follow the sequence of steps given above, and you will soon get so used to seeing it that you will probably not give it a second thought. But if you feel at all doubtful about it at this point, go over the last section again. It will be worth it.

16.2.6 Note that when the Accusative and Infinitive contains the verb ‘to be’, the complement goes in the Accusative as well as the subject.

* Dico te stultum esse I say that you are a fool
  * Dicis eam bellissimam esse You say that she is very beautiful.

16.2.7 In English we can also use an infinitive with a passive verb of saying, thinking etc. ‘he is said to have escaped’, ‘that is thought to be true’. Exactly the same thing happens in Latin with verbs like the following: *dicitur* is said (*dicuntur* are said), *putatur* is thought.

* Dicitur imperator adesse The commander is said to be here
  * Putatur optimus esse He is thought to be the best

Note also the idiomatic use of *ferunt* ‘they say’ (lit. ‘they carry [the story]’), *fertur* it is said, *feruntur* they are said ….

* Hic feruntur omnes insani esse Here they are all said to be mad.

**Exercise**

Translate:

* Volo te haec intellegere.
* Puto te haec omnia bene intellegere.
* Credo illam non solum pulchram, sed etiam sapientem esse.
* Tu non putas me scire, sed tamen scio.
* Scio vos multum tempus consumere in studiis Latinis.
Video te esse occupatum, neque tempus habere ad studia Latina.
Malo illos Latine discere quam vinum bibere.
Tu dicis orationes Ciceronis esse insulsas, sed ego eas valde admiror.
Noli putare me non videre: nam optime video.
Servus nuntiat Caesarem advenire.

16.3 REVISION: Basic Latin Verbs

You should aim to be able to recognise any form of the following twenty-five basic Latin verbs. Revise this list until you know it perfectly, and practise writing out the conjugations (present indicative, present subjunctive, imperative and infinitive).

Irregular verbs

sum I am
   Present indicative: sum es est sumus estis sunt
   Present subjunctive: sim sis sit simus sitis sint
   Imperative: es or esto; plural este
   Infinitive esse

possum I can (covered in this Unit)

volo I want; nolo I don’t want; malo I prefer (all covered in this Unit)

eo I go (covered in Unit 15)
fi o I become (covered in Unit 15)
fero I carry (covered in Unit 15)

Verbs of the first conjugation

do I give
sto I stand
puto I think

Verbs of the second conjugation

habeo I have
teneo I hold
debeo I owe, ought to …
soleo I am accustomed to … , usually do
iubeo I tell (someone) to …

Verbs of the third conjugation

ago I do; push; drive
I do; carry; wear; wield
I say
I believe

Verbs of the third conjugation (Group B)

I take
I do; make
I throw

Verbs of the fourth conjugation

I know
I come

16.4 Mock test on Units 1-16

N.B. Before doing this test, revise units 11-14!

1. Caesar in Galliam procedit. (4)
2. Caesar magnum ducit exercitum. (4)
3. Romani cogitant: ‘Vincat Caesar Gallos!’ (5)
4. Galli autem cogitant, ‘Ne a Caesare vincamur!’ (7)
5. Gallia post quattuor annos pacatur. (5)
6. Pervenit Caesar ad ultimum litus Galliae. (5)
7. Deinde in Britanniam navigat. (4)
8. Britanniam explorare vult. (3)
9. Ex Britannia Gallis auxilia subministrantur. (5)
10. Insula Britannia adhuc incognita est. (5)
11. Caesar in Gallia omnes mercatores ad se vocat, … (8)
12. … et iubet eos dicere de Britannia, (6)
13. … sed nihil de Britannia discere potest. (6)
14. Itaque ipse cum navibus Britanniam adire constituit. (6)
15. Est cum Caesare frater Ciceronis. (5)
16. Ciceronis frater Quintus nominatur. (4)
17. Quintus ad Marcum fratrem epistulas scribit. (6)
18. Quintus in Britannia nihil praeclarum invent. (6)
19. Itaque cito Romam revertitur. (4)
20. Interea Romae Marcus Caelius in iudicium vocatur. (6)
21. Caelium oppugnat femina nobilis, nomine Clodia. (6)
22. Multi dicunt Clodium esse ‘Lesbiam’ Catulli. (6)
23. Catullus se dicit Lesbiam amare. (5)
24. Catullus vult a Lesbia amari. (5)
25. Catullus scribit Lesbiae: ‘Vivamus, mea Lesbia, atque amemus’. (8)
26. Amor saepe dulcis, interdum amarus est. (6)
27. Tune a Lesbia amari, Catulle? (5)
28. Ego vero Lesbiam amo, sed, credo, ab ea non multum amor. (10)
29. Ergo te a Lesbia amari non credis. (7)
30. Ego me nunc ab illa amari non credo. (8)

END OF UNIT 16
PART III: UNITS 17-22

UNIT 17

17.1 Word recognition exercise

Let us begin with a backward glance. In the drive to master the complexities of the noun- and verb-endings (which will continue during the next few Units) it is very easy to neglect the ‘little words’ – pronouns, prepositions, conjunctions, and so on. In the following exercise is a list of 50 short Latin words, most of which you have already seen. See how highly you score on it (a) without the dictionary, (b) with the dictionary.

Exercise

Give the meaning of the following words. If the word is an inflected form, say what form it is, and give the dictionary form as well.

<p>| | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. a</td>
<td>11. da</td>
<td>21. num</td>
<td>31. cur</td>
<td>41. suis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. e</td>
<td>12. de</td>
<td>22. sum</td>
<td>32. cui</td>
<td>42. nunc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. i</td>
<td>13. di</td>
<td>23. suum</td>
<td>33. cuius</td>
<td>43. tunc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. ab</td>
<td>14. do</td>
<td>24. tum</td>
<td>34. tui</td>
<td>44. hunc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. ad</td>
<td>15. me</td>
<td>25. id</td>
<td>35. vir</td>
<td>45. huc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. ac</td>
<td>16. se</td>
<td>26. in</td>
<td>36. vis</td>
<td>46. hic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. at</td>
<td>17. sed</td>
<td>27. is</td>
<td>37. vos</td>
<td>47. hoc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. et</td>
<td>18. te</td>
<td>28. si</td>
<td>38. eos</td>
<td>48. nec</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. it</td>
<td>19. cum</td>
<td>29. sit</td>
<td>39. scis</td>
<td>49. ne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. ut</td>
<td>20. dum</td>
<td>30. es</td>
<td>40. sis</td>
<td>50. nam</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

17.2 Big, bigger, biggest: Comparison of adjectives

17.2.1 The Latin suffix -ior corresponds exactly to the English suffix -er, added to adjectives to form what is called the Comparative, i.e. a form of the adjective which denotes a greater degree of the quality concerned. The ordinary, dictionary form of the adjective is called the Positive form.

e.g.:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Positive</th>
<th>Comparative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>longus</td>
<td>longior</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>brevis</td>
<td>brevior</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The same suffix is added to all adjectives regardless of what declension they belong to. The -ior suffix is added to the stem of the adjective. So, if you find a comparative adjective ending in -ior, you must first cut off the -ior to find the stem, and then find an adjective in the dictionary that has that stem:

- gravior: find adjective with stem grav-; you will find gravis ‘heavy, serious’; so gravior means ‘heavier’, ‘more serious’.
- propinquior: find adjective with stem propinqu-; you will find propinquus ‘near’, ‘closely related’; so propinquior means ‘nearer’, ‘more closely related’.
- providentior: find adjective with stem provident-; you will find providens ‘provident’, so providentior means ‘more provident’.

If the comparative ends in -rior, the positive will pretty certainly end in -er:

- pulchrior: dictionary form pulcher (2nd decl.) ‘handsome’; so pulchrior handsomer
- acrior: dictionary form acer (3rd declension) ‘keen, sharp, fierce’; so acrior keener, sharper, fiercer.
Note
English is on the whole reluctant to add the comparative and superlative endings to adjectives of more than one or two syllables; we do not say *beautifuller* but rather *more beautiful*. Latin does not usually have the same reservations; a polysyllabic adjective like *litigiosus* ‘fond of lawsuits’ can happily form a comparative *litigiosior* ‘fonder of lawsuits, more litigious’.

There are, however, some adjectives to which the normal comparative suffix cannot be applied. For example, the adjective *pius* ‘pious, dutiful’ cannot form a comparative *piior*, which the Romans, perhaps rightly, considered impossible to pronounce. Instead they said *magis pius* ‘more pious’.

17.2.2 Comparative adjectives belong to the Third Declension. In the masculine and feminine they decline exactly like nouns ending in -or, e.g. *orator*, so there is nothing new to learn here. There is no separate form for the feminine.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>longior</td>
<td>longiores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>longiorem</td>
<td>longiores</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>longioris</td>
<td>longiorum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>longiori</td>
<td>longioribus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>longiore</td>
<td>longioribus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note* In the phrases *a priori, a posteriori, a fortiori* we find an alternative, post-classical ablative form. The abl. sing. always ends in -e in classical Latin.

17.2.3 Comparatives have a neuter form which ends in -ius. So ‘a longer road’ is *via longior*; but ‘a longer job’ is *opus longius*. Note that the -us ending is like that of neuter third-declension nouns like *opus tempus corpus* etc.

Neuter singular nom. and acc.  *longius*

Neuter plural nom. and acc.  *longiora*

The rest of the neuter cases are the same as the masculine/feminine forms.

THE SUPERLATIVE

17.2.4 The Latin suffix –issimus corresponds to our –est. It forms what is called the Superlative, i.e. the form of the adjective used to denote the greatest degree of the quality concerned.

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>longus</em></td>
<td><em>longissimus</em></td>
<td>longest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>brevis</em></td>
<td><em>brevissimus</em></td>
<td>shortest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All superlatives belong to the Second Declension and decline exactly like other adjectives ending in -us, e.g. *bonus*; so e.g. *longissimus* has feminine *longissima*, neuter *longissimum*, and a whole repertoire of declined forms.

*Note* The superlative ending is sometimes spelt -issumus; this spelling counts as slightly old-fashioned in Classical Latin.
‘ABSOLUTE’ MEANING OF COMPARATIVE & SUPERLATIVE

17.2.5 Senectus est natura loquacior, says Cicero: old age is naturally more talkative. More talkative than what? we may ask. In Latin, the comparative is often used without a point of comparison specified; and the meaning is something like ‘more talkative than average’, ‘on the talkative side’, ‘rather talkative’. This is called the ‘absolute’ use of the comparative.

So: haec epistula longior est this letter is longer, or this letter is rather long.

We can talk in English about e.g. ‘Cicero’s longer letters’, ‘the better golfers among us’, which comes near to this meaning.

17.2.6 The Latin superlative very often means not e.g. ‘longest’ but rather ‘very long’ (this is called the ‘absolute superlative’). The meaning can only be determined by looking at the context. For example,

longissimus omnium the longest of all;
but
via longissima a very long road.

The latter, ‘absolute’ meaning is, if anything, more common, and should be assumed unless there is something in the context to show that e.g. ‘longest’ is meant. To express the meaning ‘longest’ more clearly, Roman authors frequently say ‘nothing is longer than this’ rather than ‘this is the longest’; because Hoc longissimum est would be taken to mean ‘This is very long’.

IRREGULARLY FORMED COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

17.2.7 The pattern longus – longior – longissimus (long – longer – longest) is regular and works for most Latin adjectives. But many languages have a few irregular comparatives and superlatives, like English good – better – best or bad – worse – worst; and Latin is no exception. However, the Latin ones have the advantage of being easy to remember, because many of them have come over almost unchanged into English. Before we look at them, let us consider some of their English derivatives:

‘plus’ means more
‘minus’ means less
‘major’ means comparatively large or important
‘minor’ means comparatively small or unimportant
‘maximum’ means most
‘minimum’ means least
‘optimum’ means best.

You will also recognise the root of English words such as ameliorate = improve, make better; pejorative = making it sound worse; pessimist one who always believes the worst.

Now here they are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>English</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bonus</td>
<td>good</td>
<td>melior</td>
<td>better</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>malus</td>
<td>bad</td>
<td>peior</td>
<td>worse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>magnus</td>
<td>large, big, great</td>
<td>maior</td>
<td>greater</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parvus</td>
<td>small</td>
<td>minor</td>
<td>smaller</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multi</td>
<td>many</td>
<td>plurues</td>
<td>more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>multum</td>
<td>a lot</td>
<td>plus</td>
<td>more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paulum</td>
<td>little</td>
<td>minus</td>
<td>less</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>optimus</td>
<td>best</td>
<td>pessimus</td>
<td>worst</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maximus</td>
<td>greatest</td>
<td>minimum</td>
<td>smallest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>plurimum</td>
<td>most</td>
<td>plurimi</td>
<td>most</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>minimum</td>
<td>least</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are also some minor irregularities in the Superlative of adjectives ending in –er and -ilis: e.g. pulcher ‘fine, beautiful’ forms pulcherrimus; acer ‘keen, sharp, fierce’ forms acerrimus; similis ‘similar’ forms simillimus. (But many other adjectives in –ilis are regular: nobilis ‘noble’, superlative nobilissimus). Note also veterrimus ‘oldest’ from vetus veterr-‘old’.

Superlatives are particularly common, as one might expect, in inscriptions put up in honour of the emperors, and the later one goes, the more they accumulate! Here are a few examples. Cover up the translations to begin with and find the meaning of the underlined words in the following extracts. Don’t worry if the rest of the text contains forms that we haven’t yet covered; just concentrate on the comparatives and superlatives.


To the Emperor Caesar, son of the divine Nerva, the divine Trajan, Optimus Augustus, conqueror of Germany, Dacia and Parthia, supreme pontiff, in his 21st year of tribunician power, thirteen times Imperator, six times consul, father of his country, best and greatest leader, saviour of the human race, the community of the Aratispitans decreed (this monument). (Inscription from Spain)


To the Emperor Caesar, son of the divine Nerva, Nerva Traianus Optimus Augustus Germanicus Dacicus, supreme pontiff, in the 19th year of tribunician power, nine times Imperator, six times consul, father of his country, most provident leader, the senate and people of Rome (put up this monument) because he made access to Italy safer for those sailing, also with the addition of this harbour from his private funds.


To the Emperor Caesar Lucius Septimius Severus Pius Pertinax Augustus Arabicus Adiabenicus Parthicus, greatest, bravest and most fortunate, supreme pontiff, in the 12th year of tribunician power, 11 times Imperator, three times consul, father of his country, and the Emperor Caesar M. Aurelius Antoninus Pius Felix Augustus, in the seventh year of tribunician power, three times consul, father of his country, proconsul, bravest and most fortunate leader, and Julia mother of the Augusti and of the army and of the senate and of the fatherland and of the Emperor Caesar M. Aurelius Antoninus Pius Felix Augustus, greatest conqueror of Parthia, greatest conqueror of Britain, the bankers and cattle-dealers of this place (set up this monument).

To Publius Septimus Geta, son of Lucius, father of the emperor Severus Augustus, most dutiful son, greatest leader, grandfather of the most sacred emperor Antoninus Augustus, bravest and most indulgent leader, the community of the four colonies of Cirta (set up this monument) by decree of the town council with public funds.

17.3 Words for ‘than’, ‘as’, etc.

‘THAN’

17.3.1 You will want to know how we say ‘bigger than ...’. There is a word for ‘than’ in Latin, which is quam. So ‘greater than Caesar’ is maior quam Caesar. Simple!

17.3.2 There is another equally common way of expressing comparison, which involves the use of the Ablative Case, without a preposition, either before or after the comparative adjective. This is called the Ablative of Comparison. So the meaning ‘greater than Caesar’ could be expressed as Caesare maior or maior Caesare.

HOW MUCH LONGER?

17.3.3 There is another kind of Ablative that one often finds with Comparatives: the Ablative of the Measure of Difference. Literally it means ‘by’ a certain amount; so ‘longer by one foot’ is uno pede longior.

Where we say ‘much longer’, Latin says ‘bigger by much’ – multo longior. ‘A little longer’ is paulo longior – longer by a little. ‘How much longer?’ is quanto longior? longer by how much? ‘So much longer’ is tanto longior.

17.3.4 You can have both an ablative meaning ‘than’ and an ablative of measure of difference with the same comparative. This might be expected to cause confusion, but in fact usually doesn’t, because the meanings of the words make it clear which is which. Caesare multo sapientior has to mean ‘much wiser than Caesar’. If there were any possibility of doubt about the meaning, quam would be used for ‘than’.

ALL THE BETTER …

17.3.5 Latin also uses an ablative of measure of difference to express this meaning: eo felicior or tanto felicior lit. ‘by that (amount) happier’, i.e. ‘that much happier’, ‘all the happier’. Eo is ablative of id it, that; tanto of tantum so much.

Eo felicior sum quod tu ades I am all the happier because you are here.

Note also phrases like quo maius, eo melius or quanto maius, tanto melius lit. by which (amount) bigger, by that (amount) better: ‘the bigger the better’.
17.3.6 The phrase tam … quam corresponds to our ‘as … as’: tam sapiens quam Caesar as wise as Caesar.

Note the difference between:

Haec epistula tam longa est quam illa This letter is as long as that one
Haec epistula longior est quam illa This letter is longer than that one

The word quam is used both for ‘as’ and for ‘than’: you tell which it is by looking at the adjective that comes before it. If the adjective is in its ordinary (positive) form and preceded by tam, the whole phrase means ‘as … as’. If the adjective is in the comparative form, quam means ‘than’.

QUAM + SUPERLATIVE

17.3.7 We can say ‘as great as possible’ or ‘the greatest possible’: it makes little difference to the meaning. For this, Latin has a special idiom: quam maximus. Originally this was quam maximus potest (with the verb potest meaning ‘can’ or ‘is possible’), but the potest was regularly left out, leaving quam plus superlative.

SUMMARY OF THE MEANINGS OF QUAM

17.3.8 So altogether quam can mean three things:

(a) after a positive adjective with tam, it means ‘as’;
(b) after a comparative, it means ‘than’;
(c) before a superlative, it means ‘as … as possible’.

There is no risk of confusion, provided one looks at the form of the adjective and the word order.

Exercise

Translate:

Brevem epistulam scribit Caesar.
Cicero autem longiorem epistulam scribit.
Mea autem epistula longissima earum epistularum est.
Cicero longissimas epistulas scribere solet.
Etiam Plinii epistulae sunt longiores; sed non sunt tam longae quam Ciceronis.
Haec epistula longior est quam illa.
Haec epistula tam longa est quam illa.
Haec epistula illa longior est.
Haec epistula illa longior est.
Scribe ad me, quaeso, epistulam quam longissimam.

Nemo est Socrate sapientior.
Oraculum Apollinis iudicat Socratem esse sapientissimum omnium hominum.
Sapientius est tacere quam eloqui.
17.4 More about Adverbs

ADVERBS FROM THIRD-DECLENSION ADJECTIVES

17.4.1 Many third-declension adjectives form adverbs with the suffix -ter e.g. fortiter bravely, strongly, firmly breviter shortly, suaviter pleasantly, gently. (Do not confuse this -ter ending of adverbs with the -tur of the passive!)

- Si peccas, pecca fortiter If you sin, sin strongly
- Breviter Troiae casum narrat He narrates the fall of Troy briefly
- Fortiter in re, suaviter in modo Bravely in action, gently in manner

Other adjectives do not have a special ending for the adverb but use the neuter singular form ending in -e as an adverb, e.g. dulce sweetly, facile easily.

- Dulce ridentem, dulce loquentem Sweetly laughing, sweetly talking
- Facile princeps Easily the first

Note Latin often uses, instead of an adverb, a phrase in the instrumental ablative. Instead of triste sadly, you get tristi voce with sad voice, or tristi aspectu with sad look, or tristi animo with sad mind. This is particularly true of Latin poetry, which has a tendency to avoid adverbs (and sometimes can’t use them because they won’t fit into the metre); so instead of velociter or celeriter ‘quickly’ you find in poetry veloci pede or celeri pede ‘with swift foot’.

ADVERBS FROM COMPARATIVES AND SUPERLATIVES

17.4.2 Adverbs can also be formed from comparatives and superlatives. The adverb from the comparative is the same as the neuter singular of the comparative, e.g. dulcius more sweetly, longius further.

- Nemo id melius facit Nobody does it better
- Ille velocius currit He runs faster
- Citius, altius, fortius Faster, higher, stronger

Note also the adverb magis ‘more’, ‘to a greater extent’, ‘rather’, used with verbs and adjectives:

- Magis gaudeo I rejoice more
- Magis optandum More desirable

17.4.3 The adverb from the superlative causes no problems: it ends in -e, like other adverbs from second-declension adjectives: e.g. suavissime very pleasantly.

- Ut vales? Optime How are you? Very well.

17.5 Comparatives/superlatives without a corresponding positive adjective

17.5.1 There is a group of comparatives in Latin that do not have a corresponding positive. Most of these are familiar in English and have approximately the same meanings in Latin:

- interior inner, interior
- exterior outer, exterior
- superior upper, superior, but also earlier (superior nox last night)
- inferior lower, inferior, later
prior prior, earlier, former
posterior posterior, later, latter
ulterior further on, ulterior
propior nearer
potior stronger, better entitled, more desirable, more important

17.5.2 Except for iunior and senior, these all have corresponding superlatives, as follows:

- intimus innermost
- extremus outermost, furthest, last, extreme
- supremus supreme, last, or summus uppermost, topmost, highest, final, best
- infimus lowest, worst, or imus lowest
- primus first
- postremus last, hindmost
- ultimus furthest away, last
- proximus nearest, next
- potissimus strongest, best entitled, most desirable, most important

The meanings of some of these, especially summus, vary considerably according to context, and to start with you will need to check each time in the dictionary that you have not missed one of the possible meanings. They do not always mean quite the same as their English derivatives. Here are some examples of idiomatic usages:

- ex intima parte Italiæ from the innermost parts of Italy
- Oceanus fluvius est extremus omnium
  The stream of Ocean is the outermost of all
- supremum tempus Troiae the final crisis of Troy (lit. the last time)
- summum imperium the highest command
- summus imperator a commander of the highest ability
- summam manum picturae impono I put the finishing touches to the picture (lit. the last hand; manus is feminine though it ends in –us)
- ex infimis ordinibus from the lowest ranks
- ultima Thule furthest Thule (identified with Iceland)
- postremo in the last place, finally, after all
- id potissimum est that is the most important thing

Note also novissimus which does indeed mean ‘newest’, ‘latest’, but also ‘last’, ‘final’. Novissimum agmen in the army is the back row, i.e. the one that passed you most recently as it went past.

17.5.3 Among the comparatives we should also classify senior elder, senior, and iunior junior, younger, from senex and iuvenis. They have no corresponding superlatives. Differences of age are very frequently expressed by maior, maximus, minor and minimus, often qualified by the word natu ‘by birth’. An elder brother is frater maior or frater maior natu; the youngest son is filius natu minimus.

17.5.4 Note in particular the following peculiar use of the superlatives:

- in summo monte lit. in the highest mountain: at the top of the mountain
- ab extrema Italia lit. from furthest Italy; from the ends of Italy
- ab imo corde lit. from the lowest heart: from the bottom of my heart.
The word *medius* (middle) works in the same way: *in medio campo* lit. in the middle field: in the middle of the field; *in medias res* (into the middle of things: said of a narrative that plunges straight into the middle of the action, like Homer’s *Iliad*).

*How do you say ‘the highest mountain’, then?*

*Altissimus mons.*

*And ‘the middle field’, i.e. the middle one of three?*

*Medius de tribus campis* or *campus qui* (which) *medius est.*

17.5.5 Note the frequently occurring adverbs from *potior* and *potissimus*, viz. *potius* and *potissimum*. *Potius* means ‘rather’; and *potissimum* means ‘most of all’ or ‘particularly’ or ‘in particular’. Examples:

- *Illud potius faciamus* Let us, rather, do that
- *Moriamur potius quam vincamur* Let us die rather than be beaten
- *Illud potissimum me conturbat* That worries me most of all
- *Quid potissimum cogitas?* What in particular do you have in mind?

17.5.6 You will find all the words mentioned in this section listed separately in the dictionary, so in practice they should not cause any great problem. If in doubt about the meaning, look them up.

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**END OF UNIT 17**
UNIT 18

18.1 The Past (Perfect) Tense

18.1.1 It is about time we learned some tenses other than the Present. In order to read any kind of narrative in Latin, we shall need above all to know the past tense. English verbs, also, have a past tense with a different form from the present, e.g. *I wrote* from *to write; I saw* from *to see.* The Latin past tense, also (more commonly) called the Perfect Tense, can mean not only e.g. *I wrote, I saw* but also *I have written, I have seen.* There is no way of making the distinction between those two meanings in Latin merely by the form of the verb, though there are ways in which it can be conveyed by the context. For instance, using the example *scripsi* I wrote/have written, you could say *heri scripsi* I wrote yesterday, or *iam scripsi* I have already written. The words ‘yesterday’ or ‘already’ make it clear which is meant.

In fact, it is surprising how few well-known languages have a distinction precisely like that between *I wrote* and *I have written* in English. In ordinary spoken French, for example, *j’ai écrit* corresponds to both.

ENDINGS OF THE PERFECT

18.1.2 The Perfect Tense is very simple in one way: it has only one set of endings for all verbs, regular and irregular, no matter what the conjugation. As already noted, it ends in *-i* in the First Person Singular. The endings of the six persons are as follows:

- **I**
- **ISTI**
- **IT**
- **IMUS**
- **ISTIS**
- **ERUNT**

You will notice that the endings are rather like those of the Present, but not quite. (Note in particular the *-st-* in the second person endings *-isti* and *-istis.*) You should learn these six endings just as thoroughly as you have already (let us hope) learnt those of the Present.

18.1.3 There are in fact two alternative endings for the Third Person Plural: *-erunt* and *-ere.* In both endings, the *e* before the *r* is long. The former is used in ordinary prose and in colloquial Latin. The latter is used in poetry and in high-flown or archaic prose. The former is not too difficult, since it ends in *-nt* like other 3rd-person plural endings, but the latter can easily be mistaken for an Infinitive. We shall not see it much in this course, but you will have to remind yourself of it when you start to read Latin literature.

18.1.4 Here is an example of the conjugation of the Perfect Tense:

**scribo** I write, infinitive **scribere** (3rd conjugation, Group A)

First person of perfect tense (third principal part): **scripsi**

Perfect Tense:

- **scripsi** I wrote, I have written
- **scripsisti** you wrote, you have written
- **scripsit** he/she/it wrote, has written
- **scripsimus** we wrote, we have written
- **scripsistis** you wrote, you have written
- **scripserunt** they wrote, they have written (or **scripsere**).
This example should be learnt.

Practice

(a) Give the six persons of the following Perfects (ignoring the alternative 3rd plural form):

veni I came, vidi I saw, potui I could, fui I was, amavi I loved, audivi I heard.

(b) Put into the first person singular Perfect:

voluisti you wanted, vicit he won/conquered, cognovimus we learned (got to know a fact), didicistis you learned (acquired skill or knowledge), habuerunt they had/held.

18.2 The Perfect Stem

18.2.1 As far as its personal endings are concerned, as we have seen, the Perfect is very simple. But there is a catch. The method of forming the Perfect Stem, to which those endings are added, varies a great deal from one verb to another, and it can sometimes be troublesome to recognise what verb a given Perfect comes from. We English speakers can hardly complain at this, since we have a few hundred irregular past tenses of our own (write/wrote, hang/hung, swim/swam, do/did, see/saw, go/went, is/was, say/said, ...). You will see in the example given above that the endings are added, not to the present stem scrib-, but to a different stemписать-. This is the perfect stem of scribo. Other verbs form their Perfect Stems in different ways: amo has perfect amavi; habeo has perfect habui; capio has perfect cepi.

18.2.2 Before we tackle the variety of Perfect Stems, we need first to look at the question of how to recognise that the form in front of one is in fact a Perfect.

• If a verb ends in -isti, -istis or -erunt, you can tell it is Perfect straight away. Just take the ending off, and you have arrived at the Perfect stem.

• But if a verb ends in -it or -imus, it is only by looking at the stem that you can tell whether it is present or perfect. In the case of scribo, the 3rd person present form is scribit, but the perfect is scripsit. The first person plural present is scribimus we write; the perfect is scripsimus we wrote.

• The same applies to the distinction between the -i of the first person singular perfect and the -i of the present infinitive passive of third-conjugation verbs: scribi to be written (-i added to present stem); scripsi I wrote (-i added to perfect stem).

The difference between the Present and Perfect Stem is also the clue to telling the difference between a third person plural with the alternative ending -ere, and an infinitive. An -ere added to a perfect stem is a third-person plural ending. An -ere added to a present stem is an infinitive ending. So scribere to write; scripsere they wrote.

So it is important to be able to recognise a Perfect Stem when you see one. Besides, as you know, verbs are listed in the dictionary under the First Person Singular of the Present. Perfect-tense forms are not listed separately in the dictionary, but only as the third principal part of verbs. Accordingly, it is easy to use the dictionary to check that you have got the right verb; but it is not so easy to find it in the first place.
18.2.3 So what do you do if the verb in front of you is, or might be, in the Perfect?

The traditional method of dealing with the problem was simply to memorise the principal parts of every verb. This entails a large investment of effort in tedious rote-learning, and some of the information so memorised is of use only to those who wish to write Latin correctly (and not necessarily even to them – many lists of principal parts contain a few fictitious forms that are never actually found in Latin texts). A different, more analytical approach is recommended here.

18.2.4 Our attack on the Perfect is a three-pronged one:

- **PRONG 1.** Certain regular patterns recur in the formation of the Perfect. These should be learnt, with examples, so that when similar examples occur you can make an informed guess as to what the Present Tense may be.

- **PRONG 2.** The Perfect of certain very common verbs should be committed to memory now.

- **PRONG 3.** Any other Perfect Tense should be looked up in the reverse index of perfect tenses which is provided for you as an appendix to this Unit. This will direct you to the first person singular present, which may then be looked up in the dictionary.

In the end you will get used to the behaviour of most common verbs and you will no longer need to rely on the reverse index. You should aim to reach this level of competence eventually, since you may well find yourself in a situation (e.g. an exam) where you no longer have access to the reverse index. It is therefore a good plan, whenever you meet a new verb that does not fall into one of the regular patterns, to note down its principal parts as well as its meaning. (It can even help to invent spoof principal parts to sharpen your sense of linguistic analogy … what would the perfect tense of *tesco or *quango be? But you may feel that the real ones are quite enough to cope with.) Anyway, here goes:

### 18.3 PRONG 1. RECURRENT PATTERNS IN THE FORMATION OF THE PERFECT TENSE

18.3.1 The easiest verbs to deal with are those in the First and Fourth Conjugations. The vast majority of these form their Perfect Stem with the sound \( v \).

**First Conjugation**\( \) pulso I hit, infin. pulsare, perfect PULSAVI

Perfect:

- pulsavi
- pulsavisti
- pulsavit
- pulsavimus
- pulsavistis
- pulsaverunt or pulsavere

So also: amo amavi, laudo laudavi, etc.
Fourth Conjugation audio I hear, infin. audire, perfect AUDIVI

Perfect:

- audivi
- audivisti
- audivit
- audivimus
- audivistis
- audiverunt or audivere

So also: punio punivi, etc.

Note A slight complication is introduced here by the existence of contracted forms. The sound v (originally pronounced w) was prone to drop out between vowels, and two vowels left side by side tended to coalesce. So beside the full forms given above, we quite often find alternative forms as follows:

-asti for –avisti -arunt for –averunt
-ii for –ivi -isti for –ivisti
-istis for –ivistis -ierunt for –iverunt

Of the possible contracted forms, these are the ones most often found in written Latin. Contracted forms of the other persons are very rare in writing, although they must have been current in speech, as is shown by derivatives in Italian and other modern languages: note for example how the Italian past tense conjugates:

Verb comprare ‘I buy’ (from Latin comparo ‘obtain’):
comprai comprasti comprò (-avit > -aut > -ò)
comprammo compraste comprarono

There are also a few perfects in –evi and –ovi which also show contracted forms like those of the –avi perfects:

delevi I destroyed (deleo), delesti delestis delevent

cognovi I learned (cognosco), cognosti cognostis cognorunt.

18.3.2 The Second and Third Conjugations are less predictable in the formation of the Perfect. There are in fact seven common patterns. These can be summarised very briefly and this summary, silly though it may seem, should be learnt:

Many add S, some add U or V,
Some lose N, some lose SC;
Some change the vowel, like ‘eat’ and ‘ate’,
Some stutter (or reduplicate);
A few, with stems in -D- or -T-,
Don’t change at all, but just add –i.

18.3.3 MANY ADD S

Perfect Stem formed by adding the sound s, e.g. scribo scripsi write

The s sound is added directly on to the last consonant of the verb root, according to the following rules (similar, but not identical, to those we have already seen in the Nominative of the Third Declension):
Perfect Stem formed as in the first and fourth conjugations, by adding the sound \textit{u} or \textit{v} (remember that \textit{v} was originally pronounced as \textit{w} in Latin). This method of forming the Perfect is common in the Second Conjugation. Usually the e of the present is lost, in which case the Perfect ending is \textit{–ui}; but occasionally it is retained, in which case the ending of the Perfect is \textit{-evi}.

So: \textit{teneo tenui, moneo monui, habeo habui, deleo delevi}

18.3.5 \textit{SOME CHANGE THE VOWEL}

In a number of verbs the Perfect Stem is formed with lengthening or change of vowel. This sort of formation is familiar in English (\textit{I write - I wrote}). There are only a few in Latin, but they are very common and must be learnt. The most important of them are:

\begin{itemize}
\item \textit{venio veni} come, \textit{video vidi} see (both with lengthened vowel in the perfect)
\item \textit{facio feci} do, make; \textit{capio cepi} take; \textit{iacio ieci} throw; \textit{ago egi} drive, do (all with \textit{a} in the present, long \textit{e} in the perfect).
\end{itemize}

The origin of \textit{ieci cepi feci} may be as follows. \textit{Iacio} would have reduplicated (see next paragraph) to *\textit{ieiaci}. But this would then have contracted to \textit{ieci}. So on the analogy of this, it was felt that changing a short \textit{a} to a long \textit{e} was a good way to make a verb past. Hence \textit{capio cepi, facio fecl}.

18.3.6 \textit{SOME REDUPLICATE}

In some verbs the Perfect Stem is formed by adding what is called a reduplication at the beginning of the word. A reduplication is a doubling of the first syllable of the verb: the effect is in fact just as though the verb were pronounced with a slight stutter.

\begin{itemize}
\item \textit{mordeo momordi} bite
\item \textit{curro cucurri} run
\item \textit{spondeo spopondi} promise
\item \textit{tendo tetendi} stretch out, make an effort, intend.
\end{itemize}

There are relatively few of these in Latin, but since they involve a change at the \textit{beginning} of the verb, they make for particular difficulty when using the dictionary. On the other hand it is quite easy to recognise a reduplication once you know what to look for.

Reduplication in Latin is a historical survival. Once it was a regular way of forming the Perfect Tense, and still is in classical Greek. We have only one reduplicated form left in English: ‘did’, the past tense of ‘do’.
The following verbs also have reduplicated perfects (there are some rather tricky vowel changes here as well):

- *cecedi* I fell (*cado*) and *cecedi* I chopped, beat (*caedo*)
- *didici* I learnt (*disco*)
- *pepuli* I drove (*pello*)
- *fefelli* I deceived, eluded (*fallo*)
- *tetigi* I touched (*tango*)
- *peperi* I produced, gave birth (*pario*)
- *peperci* I spared (*parco*)

*Note* Compounds of these verbs normally lose the reduplication in the perfect. So *accurro* run up (i.e. towards something) forms perfect *accurri*; *respondeo* answer, a compound of *spondeo*, forms perfect *respondi*; *attendo* attend, a compound of *tendo*, forms perfect *attendi*; *decido* fall down, compound of *cado*, forms perfect *decidi*. So these verbs tend to look as though they fall into the seventh and last category, those which do not change their stems at all. Note also the following compounds with the prefix *re-*, where the doubled consonant is a remnant of a reduplication: *repperi* I found (*reperio* = *re*+*pario*); *rettuli* I took back, referred, reported (*refero*). (The perfect *tuli* was originally *tetuli*.)

Do ‘give’ has reduplicated perfect *dedi* (learn this one!) and its compounds (which are Third Conjugation, and some of which probably come from a different root *de*- put) keep the reduplication:

- *abdo* abdere *abdidi* hide (put away)
- *addo* addere *addidi* add (give in addition)
- *condo* condere *condidi* found, establish, store away
- *edo* edere *edidi* give out, publish (cf. English *edit*)
- *perdo* perdere *perdidi* lose, destroy
- *vendo* vendere *vendidi* sell

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### 18.3.7 SOME LOSE N

The *n* is lost from the *middle* of the verb. This *n*-sound is called the Nasal Infix and is found in the Present Tense of some verbs. It is *not* part of the root of the verb, but was originally specific to the Present. The omission of this *n* is often combined with one or even two of the other methods for forming the Perfect. So: *pungo* prick, root *pug-*, Perfect *pupugi* (reduplicated); *frango* break, root *frag-*, Perfect *fregi* (with change of vowel); *tango* touch, root *tag-*, Perfect *tetigi* (reduplication and change of vowel). You will see that there is not much hope of finding *tango* when faced with *tetigi*, unless you know what to look for!

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### 18.3.8 SOME LOSE SC

The suffix *-sc-* is another sign of the Present Tense that tends to be dropped in the Perfect, and it often conveys the meaning of *becoming*, e.g. *incalesco* to become hot, i.e. heat up, *adolesco* to become adult, i.e. grow up. The Perfect usually ends in *-vi* or *-ui*.

- *creso* grow, Perfect *crevi*
- *incalesco* heat up, Perfect *icalui*
- *adolesco* grow up, Perfect *adolevi*
- *nosco* get to know, Perfect *novi*
- *obdormisco* fall asleep, Perfect *obdormivi*
18.3.9 **SOME DON'T CHANGE AT ALL**

Lastly, a few verbs (usually with stems ending in –d- or –t-) form the Perfect from exactly the same stem as the Present, e.g. *defendo* *defendi* defend, *descendo* *descendi* descend, *verto* *verti* turn. These naturally present no problem to the dictionary user; but sometimes you have to be careful to distinguish Present from Perfect by means of the context.

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18.4 PRONG 2. COMMON VERBS THAT NEED TO BE LEARNT.

18.4.1 Two very common verbs form the Perfect from an altogether different stem from the Present; cf. English *go, went; be, was*. These need to be learnt as if they were entirely new words.

- **fui** I was (Present: *sum* I am)
- **tuli** I brought, bore (put up with), carried (Present *fero* I bring, bear, carry).

These two must be learnt immediately and must not be forgotten!

18.4.2 In addition to these, you ought to learn the following twenty-one perfect forms. If you learn four or five each day you will know them in a week:

- **MONDAY:**
  - *ii* or *ivi* I went (*eo*)
  - *dedi* I gave (*do*)
  - *steti* I stood (*sto*)
  - *posui* I put (*pono*)

- **TUESDAY:**
  - *volui* I wanted (*volo*)
  - *nolui* I didn’t want, I refused (*nolo*)
  - *malui* I preferred (*malo*)
  - *potui* I could (*possum*)

- **WEDNESDAY:**
  - *feci* I did, made (*facio*)
  - *cepi* I took (*capio*)
  - *ieci* I threw (*iacio*) contrast *iacui* I lay (*iaceo*)
  - *fregi* I broke (*frango*)

- **THURSDAY:**
  - *vixi* I lived (*vivo*)
  - *surrexi* I got up (*surgo*; originally *sub+rego*, hence perfect *sub+rexi*)
  - *quaesivi* I asked, looked for (*quaero*)
  - *petivi* I asked for, made for (*peto*)

- **FRIDAY:**
  - *reliqui* I left (*relinquo*)
  - *iussi* I ordered (*iubeo*)
  - *veni* I came (*venio*)
  - *vidi* I saw (*video*)
  - and one extra for good measure (with apologies to C. Julius Caesar):
  - *vici* I won (*vinco*)

Contrast **vici** I won with **vinxi** I tied, bound (*vincio*).
18.5 PRONG 3. REVERSE INDEX OF PERFECT TENSES

See the Appendix to this Unit.

18.6 Some oddities connected with the Perfect tense

18.6.1 Three common Latin verbs are Perfect in form but have a meaning which is equivalent to an English present:

**memini** I have called to mind, i.e. I remember
**odi** I have had a bellyful of, i.e. I hate
**novi** I have got to know (Present *nosco*), i.e. I know.

Note the common contracted forms of *novi*:

- *nosti* you know
- *nostis* you know (pl.)
- *norunt* they know

18.6.2 *Coepi* ‘I began’ has no corresponding present: *incipio* is used.

18.6.3 *Potui facere* means ‘I could have done’ (not ‘I could do’). *Debui facere* means ‘I ought to have done’ (not ‘I had to do’).

18.7 The Perfect Infinitive

18.7.1 From the Perfect Stem is also formed the Perfect Infinitive, which is the equivalent of our *to have done*, etc. The ending is always the same: *-ISSE*. So *amavisse* to have loved, *tenuisse* to have held, *vixisse* to have lived, *cepisse* to have taken, *audivisse* to have heard.

One might say:

*Melius est amavisse et perdidisse quam numquam omnino amavisse* It is better to have loved and lost than never to have loved at all.

18.7.2 Contracted forms of the Perfect Infinitive are common:

- *-avisse > -asse*
- *-evisse > -esse*
- *-ivisse > -isse* or *-isse*
- *-ovisse > -osse*

So: *amasse* to have loved, *audisse* to have heard, *nosse* to have got to know, i.e. to be acquainted with.

18.7.3 The Perfect Infinitive is very common in the Accusative and Infinitive construction. Where we say ‘I think he did it’, or ‘I say that he did it’, Latin says ‘I think him to have done it’, ‘I say him to have done it’:

*dico eum id fecisse* I say him to have done it: I say that he did it.
puto te librum iam legisse I think you already to have read the book: I think you have already read the book.

18.7.4 And here are some examples with the verb of saying, thinking etc. in the past tense:

cognovi te venire I learnt you to be coming (Present Infinitive): I learnt that you were coming
dixit Caesarem in Galliam contendisse he said Caesar to have made his way to Gaul (Perfect Infinitive): he said that Caesar had made his way to Gaul.

In English translation, we have to remember to alter the tense of the English verb: a present infinitive needs in this case to be translated as ‘that … was doing’; a perfect infinitive as ‘that … had done’.

Practice

(i) Using the dictionary and the reverse index of perfect tenses, find out whether each of the following forms is present or perfect, and give the meaning. In some cases either may be possible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Infinitive</th>
<th>Perfect Infinitive</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tangit</td>
<td>tetigit</td>
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<td>mulget</td>
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(ii) Using the dictionary and the reverse index, find out whether each of the following forms is 1st person singular perfect or present infinitive passive (or whether it could be either), and give the meaning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Infinitive</th>
<th>Perfect Infinitive</th>
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<td>mulget</td>
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Exercise

Translate the following sentences adapted from Augustus’ Res Gestae, using the dictionary and the reverse index:

Quinquies triumphavi.
Populus me appellavit vicies et semel imperatorem.
Laurum deposui in Capitolio.
Quinquagenis et quinquiennes decrevit senatus supplicationem.
Consul fui terdecies, cum haec scripsi.
Dictaturam non recepi.
Consulatum quoque annum et perpetuum non recepi.
Pontifex maximus et augur fui.
Senatum ter legi.
Vota pro valetudine mea suscipi senatus voluit.
Ex eis votis aliquoties fecerunt ludos consules.
Universi cives unanimitur pro valetudine mea supplicaverunt.
Nomen meum senatus inclusit in Saliare carmen.
Filios meos Gaium et Lucium Caesares senatus populusque Romanus consules designavit.
Note 1 The forms ending in -ies or -iens (either form is permissible) are what are called ‘numeral adverbs’ denoting numbers of times: quinquies five times, vicies et semel 21 times, terdecies 13 times.

Note 2 The verb lego has a special meaning when applied to the Senate: it means ‘revise the membership list’.

END OF UNIT 18
APPENDIX TO UNIT 18

REVERSE INDEX OF PERFECT TENSES

Note: Verbs of the first and fourth conjugations that form their perfect regularly in -avi or -ivi are generally omitted, unless there is a possibility of confusion. Some verbs not commonly found in the perfect are omitted, even though they may have a perfect tense recorded in dictionaries.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>verb</th>
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aperui aperio
apparui appareo (adp-)
apposui appono (adp-)
appuli appello (appellere)
(adp-)
appendi ... link
together
consevi consero sow
consonui consono
conspersi conspergo
conspexi conspicio
constiti consisto, consto
concidi concido
(con+caedo)
conciivi concio, concio
concinnui concino
conclusi concludo
concoxi concocoqu
concrepu concrepo
concrevi concrescen
concupibui concupiscono
concurri concurro
concussi concutio
condidi condo
condidici condisco
conduxi conduceo
conrexui conrecto
confecti conficio
confinxi confingo
confixi configo
confilxi configo
confuxi confluo
confodii confodio
confremui confremo
confregi confingro
confricula confico
confudi confundo
confugii confugio
congemui congemio
congressi congero
congrui congruo
conici conicio
coniuksi coniungo
conivi coniveo
conixi coniveo
conl- coll-
con- comp-
conquievi conqueisco
conquisivi conquiuro
conr- cor-
consaepsii consaepio
conscendei consendeo
consciei conscindo
conscii consciscio
conscii consciscio
conscivi conscivo
conscivi conscivo
conscisi consciso
consecuvi conseco
consedi consideo
consensi consentio
consenui consenesco
conserui consero link
together
consevi consero sow
consouxi consono
conspersi conspergo
conspexi conspicio
constiti consisto, consto
constitui constituo
cstravi consterno
constrixi constringo
construxi construo
consuefeci consuefacio
consuevi consueco
consui consuo
consului consulo
consumpsi consumo
consurrexi consurgero
contabui contabesco
contempsi contemno
contendi contendo
contexti contego
contexui contexo
conticui conticesco
contigi contingo
continui contineo
contorsci contorquco
contraxi contrablo
contremui contremisco
contribui contribuo
contrivi contrero
contudi contundo
contuli confero
convalui convalesco
convali convello
conveni convenio
converri converro
converti converto
convexi conveho
convici convinco
convixi convivo
convolvi convolvo
convomui convomo
cooperui cooperio
corexi coregno
corripui corripio
corrosi corrodo
corruui corruo
corrupui corrumpo
cossi coquo
crebrui crebresco
credidi credo
crepui crepo

crevi cerno - form rare outside compounds
crevi cresco
cubui cubo
cucurri curro
cupii cupio
cupivi cupio
deboi debeo
decepi decipio
decessi decedo
decidi decido (de+cado)
decidi decido (de+caedo)
decoxi decoquo
decreui decoerno
decreui decresco
decubui decumbo
decuit decet impersonal
decurri decurro
decussi decution

dedecuit dedecet impersonal
dedi do
dedidi dedo
dedidici dedisco
deduxi deduco
defeci deficio
defendi defendo
deferbi deferveo
defervi deferveo
defixi defigo

defli defleo
deflexi deflecto
deflorui defloresco
defluxi deflueo
defricui defricto
defui desum
degi dego
defeci deficio
defegi defegio
defeli defelo
defliqui delinquo
defliti delitescere
defusi deludo
demersi demergo
demessui demetio
demniui deminuo
demisi demittrio
demovio demoveo
dempsi demo
demulusi demulceo
denupsi denubo
depavi depascio
dependi dependo
deperdidi deperto
deperii depereo
depinxi depingo
depoposci deposco
deposui depono
deprehendi deprehendo (deprendi, deprendo)
depressi deprimio
deprompsi depromo
depuli depello
dereliqui derelinguo
derexi dirigo (dirigo)
deripui deripio
derisi derideo
desaevii desaevio
descendi descendo
descivi descisco
descripsi describo
desecui deseco
desedi desideo
desedi desido
deserui desero
dessi desino
desilui desilio
despeci despicio
despondi despondeo
destertui [invented word]
desterti desisto

destiti desisto

destitui destituo
destrinxi destringo
destructui destruo
desuevi desuesco
detersi detergeo
deterrui deterreo
detexi detego
detexui detexo
detiniui detineo
detondi detondeo
detoniui detono
detorsi detorqueo
detraxi detraho
detrivi detero
detrusui detrudo
detuli defero
deuuii deuro
devexi deveho
develle develle

deveni devenio
deveriti devertio
devici devinco
devinxi devincio
devolvi devolvo
devovi devoveo
diduxi diduco
diffidi diffindo
diffuxi diffluo
diffi diffindo
diffusi diffugo
digessi digero
dilunxi diungo (disiungo, disungo)
dilexi diligo
dilui diluo
diluxi diluceo, dilucesco
dimisi dimitto
dimovi dimoveo
dinovi dinosco
direxi dirigo (more correctly dirego)
diremi dirimo
diripui diripio
dirui diruo
dirupi dirumpo
discerspi discerpo
intexui intexo
intonui intono
intorsi intortueo
intremui intremisico
introduxi introducru
introii introico
intuui intumesco
ininsi inurgeo
intusi inuro
inavi invado
invalu invalesco
inveni invenio
inveri inverto
inveteravi inveterasico
invexi invehio
invidi invideo
invisi inviso
involvi involvo
irrepsi irrepo (inr-)
irrissi irrideo (inr-)
irrrui irruo (inr-)
iussi iudeo
iuui iudo
ivi eo
labefeci labefacio
lacessivi lacesso
laesi laedio
lambi lambo
languui languesco,
langugeo
latui lateo
lavi lavo
legavi lego -are delegate,
becueth
legi lego -ere pick,
gather, choose; read
levavi levo
levi lino
libuit libet impersonal
licui liceo be sold for a
certain price
licuit licet it is allowed
(impersonal)
linxi lingo
liquefeci liquefacio
liqui linquo
liqui (or licui) liqueesco
lubuit = libuit
lu lu
lusi ludo
luxi lucesco, luceo
luxi lugeo
madui madeo, madesco
maledixi maledico
malefeci malefacio
malui malo
manavi mano
mandi mando
mansie maneo
mansuevi mansuesco
maturavi maturo
maturui maturesco
memini no present tense
I remember
mersi mero
merui mereo
messui meto
metei meteo
micui mico
minui mino
minki mingo
miscui misceo
misi mitto
molui molo
momordi mordeo
monui moneo
movi moveo
mulsi mulceo
mulsi mulgeo
navi no
neglexi neglego
nequivi negueo
nescivi nescio
nescii nescio
nevi neo
nexi necto
nexui necto
ninxi ninxit ningle, ninge
impericual
nitiui niteo, nitesco
nociui noceo
nului nolio
novi nosco
nupsi nubo
obe- occ-
obdidi obdo
obdormivi obdormisco
obduxi obduco
obfui obsum
obf- off-
obsaesi obhaero
obiecii obicio
obii oboe
oblevi oblinio
obluitui oblitesco
obmutui obmutesco
obrepsi obrepo
obrigui obringesco
obruui obruo
obsaepsi obsaepio
obsedi obsideo, obsido
obsevi obsero
obsolevi obsolesco
obstipui = obstupui
obstitui obstito, obsto
obstrepsi obstrepeo
obstrinxi obstringio
obstruxi obstruo
obstupefeci obstupefacio
obstupui obstupesco
obsurdui obsurdesco
obtendi obendo
obtessi obteto
obtextu obtexto
obticii obticesco
obtigi obtingo
obtiniu obtineo
obtornui obtornesco
obtrorui obtorqueo
obtrivi obtero
obtrusi obtrudo
obtudi obtundo
obtuli offero
obveni obvenio
obverti obverto
obvolvi obvolvo
ocallui ocallesco
ocepeo occipio
occidi occido (ob+caedo)
occidi occido (ob+caedo)
occlusi ocludo
occului occumbo
occului occulo
occurri occurro
odi no present tense I
hate
offeci officio
offendi offendo
offudi offundo
olfeci olfacio
omisi omitto
operui operio
opportuit oportet
impericual
oppetii oppeto
opplevi oppleo
opposui oppono
oppressi opprimo
ostendi ostendo
paenitet paenitet
impericual
pallui pallesco, palleo
pandi pando
panxi pango
paravi paro
parui pareo
patfepeci patfeacio
patui pateo, patesco
pavi pasco
pavi paveo, pavesco
pellexi pellicio
pependi pendeo
pependi pendo
peperi pario
peperi parco
pepigi pango
pepuli pello
percallui percallesco
percallui percallesco
percensui percenseo
percepi percipio
percivi percio, percieo
percolui percolo
percoxi percoquo
percrebru
percrebrescere
perculi percello
percurri percurro
percussi percutio
peredid perdo
peredidici perdisco
perdocui perdoceo
perdomui perdomo
perduxi perduco
peredi peredo
perregi perago
peremi perimo
perfeci perficio
perfixi perfigo
perfluxi perfloo
perfodi perfordo
perfregi perfringo
perfricui perfrico
perfrixi perfrigesco
perfudi perfundo
perfugi perfugio
perhibui perhibeo
perhorruui perhorresco
perii pereo
perlegi perlego
perlui perluo
perluxi perluceo (pell-)
permanavi permano
permansi permaneo
permaturui
permaturesco
permiscui permisceo
permisi permitto
permovi permoveo
permulsui permulceo
pernotui pernotesco
pernovi pernosco
perpendi perpendo
perplacui perplaceo
perpuli perpello
perquisivi perquiro
perrepsi perrepolo
perrexi pergol
perrupi perrupmo
persci perscido
perscipsi perscrito
persueci perseco
persedi persido
persolvi persolvo
personui personeo
perspexi perspicio
persstiti persisto, persto
perstravi persterno
perstrinxı perstringo
persusai persuadeo
pertsendi pertsendo
perrerrui perrerreo
perrersi perrtergo
perrtinui perrtineo
perrtxai perrtrabo
perrtuui pertundo
pertsui perfero
perruxi perungo
perrusi peruro
pervasi pervado
pervelli pervellol
perveni pervenieo
perverti perverto
pervexi perveho
pervici pervinco
pervidi pervideo
pervigui vervigeo
pervolui pervolovo
pervolvi pervolvo
petii petivi peto
pexi pecto
piguit piget impersonal
pinsi pinso
pinxi pingo
placavi placo
placui placeo
planxi plango
plausi plaudo
plicavi, plicui plico
pluit pluit impersonal
pollui more likely to be
from polluo than polleo
polluxi polluceo
poposci posco
porrexi porrigo, porgo
possedi possideo
posui pono
potui possum
posthabui posthabeo
postposui postpono
praebui praebeo
praecavi praecaveo
praecipi praecipio
praecessi praecedo
praecidi praecido
praecinxı praecingo
praecinui praecino
praeciusi praecuido
praecurri praecurro
praedixı praedico
praefeci praeficio
praefixo praefigo
praefregi praefringo
praefuı praesum
praefulsı praefulgeo
praefulsı praefulcio
praeii praeo
praegi praelego
praexui praexuceo
praeisi praemitto
praemonui praemoneo
praeposui papeono
praerugui praerigesco
praeripui praeripio
praerupi praerumpo
praescivi praescisco
praescipsi praescrito
praesedi praesideo
praesensi praesenio
praestiti praesto
praestrinxı praestringo
praestruixı praestruo
praesumpsı praesumo
praetendi praetendo
praeterii praetereo
praetermisı praetermitto
praetervexı praetervelho
praetexui praetexo
praetuli praefero
praevalui praevalco
praevensi praevenio
praevidi praevideo
prandı prandeo
prehendı prehendo
prendı = prehendi
pressi premo
processi procedo
procıdi procido
procubui procumbo
procudi procudo
procuirı procuro
prodegi prodigo
prodıı prodino
prodictı prodico
produxı produco
profeci proficio
profuxı profloo
profudi profundo
profugi profugio
profui prosum
progenui prosigno
suasi suadeo
sub- succ-
subdidi subdo
subduxi subduco
subegi subigo
sub- suff-
sub- sugg-
subieci subicio
subii subeo
submisi submitto
submovi submoveo
sub- supp-
sub- see also surr-
subscripsi subscribo
substitui substituo
subtraxi subtraho
subveni subvenio
subverti subverto
For other words beginning sub- see the corresponding simple verb
successi succedo
succendi succendo
succinxi succingo
succubui succumbo
succurri succurro
succussi succutio
suevi suesco
suffici sufficio
suffici suffigo
suffudi suffundo
suffugi suffugio
suffulsi suffulcio
suggesti suggesto
sui suo
summ- subm-
sumpsu sumo
superfui supersum
For other words beginning super- see the corresponding simple verb
suppetii, suppetivi suppeto
supplevi suppleo
supposui suppono
suppressi supprimo
surrexi surgo
surripiui surripio
suscepi suscipio
suspexi suspicio
sustinui sustineo
sustuli suffero, but often corresponds in meaning to tollo
suxi sugo
streamer tabesco
tacui taco
taeduit taedet impersonal
tempsi temno
tenuavi tenuo
tenui teneo
tepefeci tepafacio
tepui tepesco
terrui terreo
tersi terreo, tergo
tetendi tendo
tetigi tango
texi tego
texui texo
timui timero
tinxi tingo
tonui tino
torpu torpeo, torpesco
torrui torreo
torsi torqueo
totondi tondeo
tradidi trado
traduxi traduco
traieci traicio
transisi tramitio
(transmisi, transmitto)
transegi transigo
transili transeo
transilui transilio
transstuli transfiero
For other words beginning trans- see the corresponding simple verb
traxi traho
tremui tremo, tremisco
trivi tero
trusi trudo
tuli fero
tumui tumo, tumesco
tursi turgeo
tutuli tundo
uxi ungo, unguo
ursi urgeo, urgueo
ussi uro
valui valeo
vanui vanesco
velli vello
vendidi vendo
veni venio
venii, venivi veneo
venumdedi venumdo (= vendo)
verri verro
verti verto
vetui voto
vexi vego
vici vinco
vidi video
vigui vigeo
vinxi vincio
visi viso
vixi vivo, vivesco
volui volo (velle)
volvi volvo
vorti = verti
vovio voveo
UNIT 19

19.1 The Past Participle Passive

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Past participle</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>scribo</td>
<td>scriptus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amo</td>
<td>amatus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moneo</td>
<td>monitus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audio</td>
<td>auditus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>includo</td>
<td>inclusus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
General rules:

The Latin past participle passive corresponds in meaning to the English past participle ending in –ed or –en, e.g. ‘loved’, ‘written’.

All Latin past participles are adjectives of the Second Declension, ending in –us in the masculine singular and declining exactly like magnus.

All Latin past participles end in either –tus or –sus. The details of the way in which the past participle is formed vary from one type of verb to another (we shall look at these in more detail in a moment).

The past participle is given in grammars and dictionaries as the fourth principal part of verbs (for the ‘principal parts’ see the beginning of Unit 15). If given in full, the principal parts of scribo (for example) would be scribo (dictionary form, ‘I write’), scribere (infinitive, ‘to write’), scripsi (perfect tense, ‘I wrote’), and – fourth and last – scriptus (past participle, ‘written’).

Note For reasons which need not detain us at the moment, the fourth principal part is conventionally given with the ending –um rather than –us: scribo, scribere, scripsi, scriptum. If the fourth principal part is given as scriptum, the past participle in its masculine singular form will be scriptus.

19.1.3 What is the difference between this ‘past participle’ and the Passive forms that we have learnt already?

The difference is one of time.

- The Past Participle always refers to an action that has already been completed: Parthi occisi sunt the Parthians are killed, i.e. they have finished being killed and are now dead.
- The present tense of the Passive refers to an action that is still going on: Parthi occiduntur the Parthians are in the process of being killed.

Note Strictly, the uses of the present passive can be subdivided into three: (a) continuous ‘the Parthians are now in the process of being killed’; (b) habitual ‘the Parthians are normally killed when the Romans get their hands on them,’ (c) narrative ‘and the next thing that happens is that the Parthians are killed’ (this usage is called the Historic Present).

DECLENSION OF THE PAST PARTICIPLE

19.1.4 The past participle declines like an adjective of the Second Declension, and of course has to agree in gender and number with the noun it describes.

A lion that has been killed is leo occisus
a letter that has been written is epistula scripta
a job that has been finished is opus confectum
lions that have been killed are leones occisi
and so on.

It also varies for case, again as one would expect:
the written report narratio scripta
I read the written report narrationem scriptam legi
the length of the written report narrationis scriptae longitudo
I learned this from the written report ex narratione scripta hoc didici.

The pattern is exactly the same as with an ordinary adjective.
Here then (it contains no surprises if you know your second-declension adjectives) is a table of the declension of *scriptus* ‘written’:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular nom.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scriptus</td>
<td>scriptum</td>
<td>scripta</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>scriptum</td>
<td>scriptum</td>
<td>scriptam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>scripti</td>
<td>scripti</td>
<td>scriptae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>scripto</td>
<td>scripto</td>
<td>scriptae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>scripto</td>
<td>scripto</td>
<td>scripta</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Plural nom.</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scripti</td>
<td>scripta</td>
<td>scriptae</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>scriptos</td>
<td>scripta</td>
<td>scriptae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>scriptorum</td>
<td>scriptorum</td>
<td>scriptarum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>scriptis</td>
<td>scriptis</td>
<td>scriptis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>scriptis</td>
<td>scriptis</td>
<td>scriptis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**FINDING PARTICIPLES IN THE DICTIONARY**

19.1.5 No great difficulty here, you may say. However, it is as well to bear in mind that if you find a declined form of a past participle, you have to go through two stages before you can look it up in the dictionary.

- First, you have to convert it to the Nominative Singular Masculine form of the participle, ending in *-tus* (or *-sus*); but you will not find this listed separately in the dictionary.

- You then have to find the First Person Singular of the verb from which the participle comes.

What you will often find in the dictionary is a word or words derived from the past participle. For example, you won’t find *scriptus* as a past participle, but you will find a noun *scriptum* something written, a writing, a script, and this will suggest the general area of meaning that you want. If you have a dictionary that is big enough to give derivations of words, you will find the root verb *scribo* in brackets after any such derived word.

**PAST PARTICIPLE OF DEPONENT VERBS**

19.1.6 The past participle of deponent verbs regularly has an active meaning, in line with the normal habits of deponents (passive form, active meaning):

- *sequor* I follow: past participle *secutus* having followed
- *progredior* I advance: past participle *progressus* having advanced
- *conor* I try: past participle *conatus* having tried.

The past participle is given as the third principal part of deponents, after the first person singular (dictionary form) and the infinitive. So: *sequor* I follow, *sequi* to follow, *secutus* having followed (past participle).
19.2 Formation of the past participle

A great source of help when learning Latin past participles is to be found in the English derivatives, very many of which come from the past participle rather than the dictionary form of the verb.

19.2.1 Verbs of the first and fourth conjugations form their Past Participles in the following ways:

(a) First Conjugation: past participle normally ends in -atus.

amo, amare, amavi: past participle amatus cf. amatory, amateur
pulso, pulsare, pulsavi: past participle pulsatus cf. pulsate

(b) Fourth Conjugation: past participle normally ends in -itus (with long i).

audio, audire, audivi: past participle auditus cf. audition, auditory
punio, punire, punivi: past participle punitus cf. punitive

Practice

(a) epistula scripta means ‘a written letter’ or ‘a letter that has been written’. On the same pattern, translate:

servus punitus
oratio audita
mulier amata
nasus pulsatus
templum dedicatum

(b) Examples with an additional phrase modifying the participle:

carmina non prius audita
mulier amata quantum nulla alia amatur
templum Apollini dedicatum
populus in uno loco congregatus
civitas mea opera (abl.: by my effort) sustentata et conservata

19.2.2 Second and Third Conjugation verbs are rather less predictable. The following are the commonest patterns:

- Past participle ending in -itus (with short i). Many Second Conjugation verbs follow this pattern; also compounds of do:

habeo, habere, habui: past participle habitus had, held, cf. habit
moneo, monere, monui: past participle monitus warned, cf. admonition

reddo, reddere, redidi: past participle redditus given back;
similarly: (perdo) perditus destroyed cf. perdition
(prodo) proditus betrayed.

A few Second Conjugation verbs have perfect in –evi and past participle in -etus:
deleo delevi deletus destroy (cf. delete), impleo implevi impletus fill, defleo deflevi defletus weep for someone, lament.
A few Third Conjugation verbs have perfect in –ivi and past participle in -itus: peto petivi petitus ask for (cf. petition), make for, attack, quaero (earlier form quaesoo) quaesivi quaesitus ask a question, look for; lacesso lascessivi lascessitus provoke.

- **Past Participle** formed by adding -tus straight on to the root. Most Third Conjugation verbs follow this pattern (and a few Second and Fourth). This sometimes causes a change in the last sound of the root:

  - b+tus = -ptus: (scribo) scriptus written cf. script
  - g+tus = -ctus: (rego) rectus ruled cf. the adjective rectus straight, correct (facio) factus done cf. fact (augeo) auctus increased cf. augment, auction (in an auction, prices are increased by competitive bidding)
  - ng+tus = -nctus: (ungo) unctus greased cf. uction
  - qu+tus = -ctus: (coquo) coctus cooked cf. concoction
  - m+tus = -mptus: (emo) emptus bought Occasionally written without the p: emtus.

So, if (for example) you find a Past Participle ending in –ctus, there are several possibilities for what the parent verb might look like. The root may end in c, g or qu; and the first person singular ending may be –o, –io or –eo. If you don’t know the verb already, you need to try out all the possibilities until you find something plausible.

Verbs ending in –uo usually form their past participle in -utus e.g. minutus diminished, from minuo (cf. minute).

**Practice**

(a) Using the patterns given above, trace the following Past Participles to their parent verbs. They are all common verbs which it is as well to know.

  - captus iactus dictus ductus depmtus iunctus lectus monitus prohibitus neglectus cinctus tectus doctus intellectus sumptus arcessitus additus actus raptus apertus repertus

(b) Using the dictionary, find out what else lectus, tectum, sumptus can mean.

**LOSS OF NASAL INFIX**

19.2.3 Some verbs with a ‘Nasal Infix’ (m or n) in the present tense lose it in the Past Participle (we have already seen this happen in the formation of the Perfect):

  - (tango) tactus touched cf. tactile
  - (fingo) fictus moulded, invented cf. fiction
  - (rumpo) ruptus broken cf. rupture
  - (vinco) victus beaten, conquered cf. victory
  - (pingo) pictus painted cf. picture, depiction
  - (relinquo) relictus left cf. relinquish, relict
  - (frango) fractus broken cf. fracture

*Note* Distinguish victus from another word victus (with long i) meaning ‘livelihood’, connected with vivo; and distinguish victus from vinctus tied (vincio as opposed to vinco).
You need to take special note of these, because the disappearing n makes them difficult to find in the dictionary. While we are on these verbs let us remind ourselves of their Perfects:

- tango tetigi tactus
- fingo finxi fictus
- rumpo rupi ruptus
- vinco vici victus
- pingo pinxi pictus
- relinquo reliqui relictus
- frango fregi fractus

There is not much rhyme or reason here, unfortunately. Fingo and pingo keep the n in the perfect (formed with an S-sound) but not in the past participle; the others lose it in both the perfect and the past participle, but tetigi reduplicates, while rupi vici reliqui lengthen the vowel (which becomes short again in the past participle), and fregi changes it from a to e (like ieci cepi etc.).

PAST PARTICIPLES IN –SUS

19.2.4 In verbs where the –tus is added straight on to the root, if the root ends in t or d, the past participle will end not in -TUS but in -SUS (or -ssus or -xus). This is because of an old Latin sound-change whereby t+t or d+t changed to s or ss.

**Third conjugation:**

- (mitto) missus sent cf. mission
  compounds e.g. (admitto) admissus let in cf. admit / admission

- (flecto) flexus bent (ct + t > cs, written x) cf. flex
  compounds e.g. (reflecto) reflexus bend back cf. reflect / reflex

- (clau.do) clausus closed
  compounds e.g. (includo) inclusus shut in, cf. include/inclusion

- (caedo) caesus beaten, chopped
  compounds e.g. (occido) occisus killed

- (divido) divisus divided cf. divide/division
- (incendo) incensus set fire to, cf. incendiary, incensed
- (prehendo) prehensus grasped cf. prehensile
- (verto) versus turned cf. reverse

**Second conjugation:**

- (video) visus seen cf. vision
- (mordeo) morsus bitten cf. remorse
- (inrideo, irrideo) irrisus laughed at (compound of rideo, which being intransitive does not have a past participle of its own); (derideo) derisus cf. deride, derision
Third conjugation (B):

(fodio) fossus dug (cf. fossil)
(quatio) quassus shaken; compound (percutio) percussus struck cf. percussion.

The following verbs also lose n:

(findo) fissus split cf. fission; (scindo) scissus cut, torn cf. scissors
(fundo) fusus poured cf. fusion

Some other (mostly 3rd-conjugation) verbs form their past participle with the ending -sus in imitation of the above, though their roots do not end in t or d:

(figo) fixus fixed; NB distinguish between figo and fingo, fiction vs. fix
(mergo) mersus submerged, drowned
(spargo) sparsus scattered cf. sparse
(fallo) falsus deceived, mistaken cf. false
(pello) pulsus driven away (note change of vowel: not *pelsus)
and its compounds (expello) expulsus etc. (hence expel / expulsion)
similarly (avello) avulsus tear away, and other compounds of vello ‘pluck’ cf. convulsion
lit. ‘tearing up’

(premo) pressus pressed cf. press impress depress etc.

2nd conjugation:

(iubeo) iussus commanded, ordered.

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FERO TULI LATUS

19.2.5 The most irregular past participle in Latin is that of fero to carry, bear, which is (of all things) latus.

Note In prehistoric Latin this was tlatus and is related to the perfect tuli.

There is also an adjective latus meaning ‘wide’ which is identically spelt though unrelated, as well as a noun latus (with short a), neuter 3rd decl., meaning ‘side, flank’ (cf. lateral). This creates wide possibilities of confusion on all sides, as you may imagine. Perhaps for this reason, the participle latus occurs relatively infrequently, but it is important to know it because of the very common compounds of fero:

adfero attuli allatus bring
refero rettuli relatus refer, relate
infero intuli illatus bring in
and so on.

Sustuli sublatus are used as perfect tense and past participle meaning ‘lift’, ‘raise’, or ‘remove’. (They are not used as the perfect tense and past participle of suffero!) The present tense used for the meaning ‘lift’ or ‘remove’ is (in form) the original present tense of tuli, namely tollo tollere.

Note also the phrase legem ferre to pass a law: a law that has been passed is lex lata, the passing of a law is legis latio, hence ‘legislation’.

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CHANGE OF VOWEL IN COMPOUNDS

19.2.6 Notice these patterns in compound verbs. In some, the i of the present (from original a or e in the simple verb) corresponds to e in the past participle:

(performio) perfectus finished (facio factus) cf. perfect
(concipio) conceptus conceived (capio captus) cf. concept (something conceived in the mind)
(retineo) retentus held back, retained (teneo) cf. retention
(conspicio) conspectus seen cf. conspectus. (There is no simple verb with root spec- but there are a number of other compounds: respicio aspicio etc., and there is also specto 1st conjugation ‘to watch’ cf. spectator, spectacle.)
(redimo) redemptus bought back (emo emptus) cf. redemption
(eligo) electus chosen (lego lectus) cf. election
(conicio) coniectus thrown (iacio iactus) a conjecture is a guess that one ‘throws’ into the debate.

In compounds of habeo both the present tense and the past participle have i: e.g. (prohibeo) prohibitus forbidden (habeo habitus) cf. prohibit

In a few compound verbs the past participle reverts to the vowel of the simple verb:
(contingo) contactus touched (tango tactus) cf. contact
(exigo) exactus demanded, exacted (ago actus) cf. exact
This is because the a in tactus and actus is long, and thus escaped the sound-change that affected the short vowels in compounds.

LIST OF IRREGULAR PAST PARTICIPLES

19.2.7 Here, for reference, is a list of other past participles that do not quite fit any of the above-mentioned patterns. Priority should be given to learning those marked with an asterisk.

adiuvo (1) adiutus helped cf. adjutant
*cognosco cognitus known, learnt (irregular compound of nosco notus) cf. recognition
colo cultus cultivated
decerno decretus decreed (n.b. perfects ending in –crevi and past participles ending in –cretus can be, in principle, either from compounds of cerno or of cresco: use the dictionary carefully in any individual case.)
distinguo distinctus distinguished cf. distinct; cf. also extinctus extinct, from exstinguo to extinguish.
farcio (4) fartus stuffed. The French for ‘stuffed’ is farci and an old English word for stuffing, ‘forcemeat’, is derived from this. Compound refertus ‘stuffed full’; note change of vowel.
fulcio (4) fultus supported cf. fulcrum
*gero gestus carried out, done cf. gesture
*signo (give birth to) genitus born cf. progenitive
haurio (4) haustus drained cf. exhaust
lavo lautus or lotus washed cf. lotion. Lautus can also mean, metaphorically, ‘posh’ or ‘elegant’.
lino litus greased
misceo mixtus mixed
*moveo motus moved cf. motion, emotion
*nosco notus known cf. notion (but not ‘note’ which comes from nōta)
pasco pastus fed cf. pasture
*pono positus placed, put cf. position, positive
sepelio (4) sepultus buried cf. sepulchre
*sero satus sown. Connected also with semen seed. Compounds e.g. insitus inborn: note change of vowel.
*solvo solutus released cf. solution
sperno spretus despised
sterno stratus lay flat, cf. stratum a layer; also street, a road ‘laid flat’.
struo structus built cf. structure
tero tritus rubbed, ground down, well-worn cf. trite
torreo tortus twisted cf. contorted
torreo tostus burnt, scorched, singed cf. toast
*traho tractus dragged, cf. traction, tractor, tract
uro ustus burnt; compound comburo combustus burnt up cf. combustion
veho vectus carried cf. vehicle, vector, convection
volvo volutus rolled cf. evolution involution devolution

The above sections should enable you to trace any common Past Participle to its parent verb. Even with only the dictionary to help you, the task is not as difficult as with the Perfect, because there are no reduplications and far fewer vowel changes. But make sure to check, when you have found a plausible verb, that it does actually form its past participle in that way.

END OF UNIT 19
UNIT 20

20.1 The Perfect Passive

20.1.1 The Past Participle, whose formation we studied in Unit 19, is the key to the Perfect Passive.

If you say *epistula scribitur*, in the Present Tense, it means that the letter is being written now or that a letter is habitually written. But if you say *epistula scripta est*, it means ‘the letter is written’ in the sense that it has been written and is now there in front of you, *written*. The participle *scripta* there really means ‘in a state of having been written’; *scripta est* means not so much ‘is written’ as ‘*has been* written’.

Similarly:

- *ianua clausa est* the door is shut, i.e. has been shut
- *causa dicta est* the case is now stated, i.e. has been stated
- *Gallia divisa est* Gaul is divided, i.e. Gaul has been divided
- *missus est servus* the slave has been sent
- *nomen dictum est* the name has been spoken.

Examples of the other persons:

- *fatigatus sum* I am tired, i.e. I have undergone a process of becoming tired.
- *confecti sumus* we are finished, i.e. we have been finished off by something.
- *proditi estis* you are betrayed, i.e. you have been betrayed.

20.1.2 The participle + ‘to be’ is often used simply to narrate an event in the past. Just as the Perfect Tense in the Active can mean either ‘I did’ or ‘I have done’, so the past participle + ‘to be’ can mean either ‘it has been done’ or ‘it was done’.

*Missus est servus a Caesare* A slave was sent by Caesar
*Caesar occisus est a Bruto* Caesar was killed by Brutus
*Proditi sumus a amicis* We were betrayed by our friends.

In fact, the past participle plus ‘to be’ functions as the Perfect Tense of the Passive.

**DO NOT BE TEMPTED TO TRANSLATE IT BY AN ENGLISH PRESENT TENSE**, even though the verb ‘to be’ is in the present. This takes some getting used to. But you will get used to it eventually.

20.1.3 Old-fashioned grammars give the conjugation of the Perfect Passive in full, as follows (using *amo* as an example):

- *amatus sum* I have been loved, I was loved
- *amatus es* you have been loved, you were loved
- *amatus est* he has been loved, he was loved
- *amati sumus* we have been loved, we were loved
- *amati estis* you have been loved, you were loved
- *amati sunt* they have been loved, they were loved.

This mode of presentation disguises two important points:
First, the participle is an adjective and agrees in gender, as well as number, with the subject of the sentence. The forms given in the table are the masculine ones; but a woman would say amata sum I was loved. A group of women would say amatae sumus.

If the subject is neuter, the participle has to go in the neuter form: bellum confectum est the war is (has been) finished, haec animalia numquam visa sunt these animals have never been seen.

20.1.4 Second, the word order is not invariable. It is true that participle + sum (etc.) is the commonest order, but other orders are found more often than one might think. Again, it is best to think of the participle as an ordinary adjective: sentences involving participles are subject to the same variations of word order as those involving adjectives.

For example, it is very common for the verb ‘to be’ to come near the beginning of the sentence and for the participle to be placed at or near the end, as in the following examples:

A Bruto est Caesar occisus It was by Brutus that Caesar was killed
Non sum ab amico proditus I was not betrayed by my friend
Magna est a Romanis parta victoria A great victory was gained by the Romans
(idiom: victoriam pario I gain a victory)
Sunt vero multi leones in hac silva reperti Many lions were indeed found in that forest.
Haec sunt ab illo dicta These things were said by him

Or, if the participle is emphasised or topicalised, it can go at the beginning:

Occisus a Bruto Caesar est Caesar was killed by Brutus
Victus in hoc certamine sum I was defeated in this contest.

Exercise

Translate:

Epistula a Cicerone scripta est.
Epistulam scriptam mihi monstravit.
Dictata epistula a Cicerone est, scripta autem a servo eius.
Summa cum cura est ab eo epistula scripta.
Romulus et Remus a silvestri belua nutriti sunt.
Condita est urbs Roma a Romulo.
Cena a coquo bene condita est.
Frater Remus a Romulo occisus est.
Aedificatum est templum in Capitolio.
Postquam fratrem occidit, rex factus est Romulus.
Post mortem Romuli electus est rex e Sabinis Numa Pompilius.
Leges a Numa latae sunt de religione.
Diu leges Numae observatae sunt a Romanis.
Sed postea leges neglectae sunt.
Di neglecti multa mala Italiae tulerunt.
L. Tarquinius Superbus ex rege in tyrannum conversus est.
A cognato eius, Sexto Tarquinio, rapta est Lucretia Collatini uxor.
Tum rex Tarquinius ex urbe Roma expulsus est.
Postquam reges expulsi sunt, creati sunt consules duo.
Num fatigati estis? Minime. Hae exercitatione sumus admodum delectati.
20.2 Perfect tense of deponents

20.2.1 The perfect tense of deponent verbs is, as regards its form, exactly like the perfect passive of active verbs. It is formed with the past participle and the present tense of the verb ‘to be’. Here are six examples, one in each of the six persons. Note the variations for gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
<th>Perfect Tense</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
<th>Past Participle</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>hortor</td>
<td>encourage, exhort</td>
<td>hortatus sum</td>
<td>I encouraged or I have encouraged cf. exhortation</td>
<td>hortata sum (woman speaking)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>confiteor</td>
<td>confess</td>
<td>confessus es</td>
<td>you confessed or you have confessed cf. confess</td>
<td>confessa es (speaking to a woman)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>utor</td>
<td>use</td>
<td>usus est</td>
<td>he used or he has used cf. use</td>
<td>usa est she used or she has used</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>patior</td>
<td>suffer, endure, allow</td>
<td>passi sumus</td>
<td>we suffered or we have suffered cf. passion, passive</td>
<td>passae sumus we suffered (women speaking)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>assentior</td>
<td>agree (assent)</td>
<td>assensi estis</td>
<td>you agreed or you have agreed</td>
<td>assensae estis (speaking to a group of women)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>morior</td>
<td>die</td>
<td>mortui sunt</td>
<td>they died or they have died or they are dead cf. mortuary</td>
<td>mortuae sunt (if women)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20.2.2 Some other common deponents with their past participles:

- adipiscor: obtain, acquire adeptus cf. adept
- expergiscor: wake up experrectus
- fateor: admit fassus (confiteor is a compound of this).
- irascor: get angry iratus cf. irate
- labor: glide, slip lapsus cf. lapse
- loquor: speak locutus cf. locution, interlocutor
- nanciscor: obtain, find nactus
- nascor: be born natus cf. native, nativity, nation
- nitor: make an effort, lean nisus or nixus; compound enitor make a great effort; give birth enixus
- obliviscor: forget oblitus cf. oblivion
- ordior: begin orsus cf. exordium
- orior: arise ortus (Distinguish carefully between orsus and ortus!)
- proficiscor: start out profectus
- progredior: advance progressus cf. progress; likewise other compounds of gradior (not commonly found as a simple verb), aggradior aggressus, ingredior ingressus, etc.
- quero: complain, protest questus: cf. querulous; DO NOT CONFUSE WITH quaero I look for or ask for, past participle quaeetus (cf. exquisite; request is confusing as it comes from quaero), or with the noun quaestus profit.
- reor: think ratus
- sequor: follow secutus cf. sequence; from its compounds, prosecute (prosecutus), execute (executus)
- ulciscor: avenge, punish ultus

Some of these are pretty irregular. A number have English derivatives, which makes them reasonably easy to learn. As for the remainder, try the following pseudo-English narrative:

After my experrection this morning, I profected towards the station. I nixed very hard to arrive in time, but I failed to nact my usual train, and so arrived late for work. My boss not only quested, but ulted my lack of punctuality by making me work through the lunch hour. Silly? OK, but if it works …
DEPONENTS WITH ACCUSATIVE OBJECT

20.2.3 Remember that deponents, being active in meaning, often have an object in the accusative; this applies of course to their past participles and perfect tenses as well.

Caesar suos hortatus est Caesar encouraged his men (*hortor*)
Cicero senatores allocutus est Cicero addressed the senators (*ad+loquor*)
Romani multa mala passi sunt The Romans suffered many bad things (*patior*)

DEPONENTS WITH ABLATIVE OBJECT

20.2.4 A small number of deponents however take an ablative instead of an accusative object. This is awkward and just has to be remembered. The verbs concerned are:

utor uti usus use
fruor frui (perfect hardly used at all, though there is a noun *fructus*) benefit from
fungor fungi functus perform (cf. function), do [a job] (used with *officium* or *munus* job, service, function)
potior potiri potitus gain possession of.

Usus est hoc gladio Caesar Caesar used this sword.
Potitus est tota Gallia He gained possession of the whole of Gaul.
Officio bene fungitur He does his job well.
Hoc privilegio fruimur We benefit from this privilege.

SEMI-DEPONENTS

20.2.5 Four verbs have active endings in the present, but behave like deponents in the perfect. They have a past participle with active meaning (and no form corresponding to the perfect active of other verbs), and combine it with the verb ‘to be’ to form their perfect tense. These are called ‘semi-deponents’. They are as follows:

gaudeo rejoice, be glad, past participle *gavisus*
soleo be accustomed, p.p. *solitus*
audeo dare, p.p. *ausus*
confido trust, have confidence, p.p. *confitus*

Examples of their use:

Gavisus est Cynthia Cynthia was glad
Hoc solitum est fieri This was accustomed to be done, i.e. This was usually done
Non sum ausus respondere I did not dare to answer

A number of other verbs have past participles which have an active meaning, but which are used as ordinary adjectives:

cautus cautious (from caveo)
promptus prompt (from *promo* bring out, get ready)
adultus adult (from *adolesco* grow up)
obsoletus obsolete (from *obsolesco* go out of use).
20.3 Derivatives from the past participle

20.3.1 The Past Participle is the key to a large number of derived words. These belong to several classes, some of which you have already met.

20.3.2 Agent nouns in -or, corresponding to English nouns in -er, are formed from many verbs by substituting -or for the -us ending of the past participle. (Declension like orator.)

- amator lover
- adiutor helper
- victor victor

20.3.3 Abstract nouns in -io, corresponding to English nouns in -tion or -sion, denoting a process or activity. (Declension like leo.) Substitute -io for the -us of the past participle.

- accusatio accusation
- hortatio encouragement, exhortation
- confessio confession
- passio suffering (passion) from patior passus
- actio action, from ago egi actus
- visio vision, from video vidi visus

20.3.4 The future participle, meaning ‘about to do’, always active in meaning, is formed by substituting -urus for the -us of the past participle. (Second declension adjective.)

- amaturus about to love
- facturus about to do, make
- auditurus about to hear
- progressurus about to advance
- visurus about to see

Many verbs which have no past participle in common use, nevertheless have a future participle. Among these are:

- futurus about to be (cf. fui; hence ‘future’).
- venturus about to come (venio)
- iturus about to go (eo)
- cessurus about to give in (cedo)
- mansurus about to stay (maneo)
- arsurus about to go up in flames (ardeo)
- haesurus about to stick (haereo)
- victurus about to live (vivo; has a long i; with short i it means ‘about to conquer’ from vinco)
- casurus about to fall (cado)
- descensurus about to come down (descendo)

20.3.5 Abstract nouns in –us. These belong to a new declension which we shall deal with shortly (the Fourth Declension), but it is worth noting their existence now, e.g.:

- exercitus an army (i.e. a body of men under discipline) from exerceo
- sensus sense
- visus sight
- tactus touch
- auditus hearing
- adventus arrival, advent
Translate:

Cicero adeptus est consulatum.
Orator apud populum locutus est.
Exercitus sum in lingua Latina a magistro.
Caesar in Galliam profectus est.
Victa est a Caesare Gallia.
Romani ob eam victoriam laeti sunt.
Galli de Caesare questi non sunt.
A Bruto et Cassio occisus est Caesar.
Ultus est Caesarem Octavianus.
Tunc Octavianus factus est princeps.
Octavianus a populo Romano Augustus nominatus est.
Sub Augusto natus est Iesus Christus.
Multi secuti sunt Iesum Christum.
Illi sunt Christiani nominati.
Fides Christianorum his verbis expressa est:

   Credo in Deum, Patrem omnipotentem, creatorem caeli et terrae, et in Iesum Christum filium eunim, Dominum nostrum; qui conceptus est de Spiritu sancto, natus ex Maria Virgine, passus sub Pontio Pilato, crucifixus, mortuus et sepultus; descendit ad inferos; tertia die resurrexit a mortuis; ascendit ad caelos; inde venturus est iudicare vivos et mortuos. Credo in Spiritum sanctum, sanctam ecclesiam catholicam, sanctorum communionem, remissionem peccatorum, carnis resurrectionem, vitam aeternam.

A few features of the Latin text of the Apostles’ Creed are post-classical: credo in ‘I believe in’, tertia die ‘on the third day’ (in Classical Latin dies ‘day’ is normally masculine, so it would be tertio die); a mortuis ‘from the dead’, the masculine plural caeli ‘the heavens’ (caelum is neuter in Classical Latin), venio iudicare ‘I come to judge’ (Classical Latin would say venio ad iudicandum), and ecclesia ‘church’, from the Greek for ‘assembly’ (as in the Athenian Assembly). Crucifixus = cruci + fixus lit. ‘fixed to a cross’ hence crucified; catholicus Greek for ‘universal’ (hence ‘catholic’).

END OF UNIT 20
21.1 Nouns again: revision of first three declensions

21.1.1 The next two units will finish off all we need to know about Latin nouns. First, a look back at the first three declensions.

21.1.2 First and Second Declensions

The following table is reproduced from the beginning of Unit 8.

First Declension

Masculine or feminine (mostly feminine): **puell-a** ‘girl’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td><strong>puell-ā</strong></td>
<td><strong>puell-ae</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td><strong>puell-am</strong></td>
<td><strong>puell-as</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td><strong>puell-ae</strong></td>
<td><strong>puell-arum</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td><strong>puell-ae</strong></td>
<td><strong>puell-is</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td><strong>puell-a</strong></td>
<td><strong>puell-is</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Second Declension

Masc. or fem. (mostly masculine): **serv-us** ‘slave’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td><strong>serv-ūs</strong></td>
<td><strong>serv-i</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td><strong>serv-um</strong></td>
<td><strong>serv-os</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td><strong>serv-i</strong></td>
<td><strong>serv-orum</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td><strong>serv-o</strong></td>
<td><strong>serv-is</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td><strong>serv-o</strong></td>
<td><strong>serv-is</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Variants:**

(a) nouns ending in –ius

e.g. *filius* ‘son’: gen. sing. *filī* or *fili* (nom. pl. always *filii*)

(b) nouns ending in –er

e.g. *liber* ‘book’, stem *libr-*

(c) *vir* stem *vir-*, *puer* stem *puer-*. 

Neuter: **ov-um** ‘egg’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td><strong>ov-um</strong></td>
<td><strong>ov-a</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td><strong>ov-um</strong></td>
<td><strong>ov-a</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td><strong>ov-i</strong></td>
<td><strong>ov-orum</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td><strong>ov-o</strong></td>
<td><strong>ov-is</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td><strong>ov-o</strong></td>
<td><strong>ov-is</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

21.1.3 A couple of extra details to add to the above:

**dea**bus and **filiabus** are the dat./abl.plural of **dea** goddess and **filia** daughter, as opposed to the masculine forms **dis** and **filiis**.

**deum** and **virum** are found as old-fashioned or poetic alternatives to **deorum** and **virorum** as genitive plural of **deus** god, and **vir** man – confusing because they look like accusatives.

**vulgus** ‘crowd’ is neuter, with accusative also **vulgus**; otherwise regular 2nd decl. (singular only).
21.1.4 Revision of Third Declension

(1) The case endings (added to the *stem*; the endings are common to all third-declension nouns):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine or feminine</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>see below</td>
<td>-es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>-em</td>
<td>-es</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neuter</td>
<td>see below</td>
<td>-a (or -ia)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All

| Genitive | -is         | -um (or –ium) |
| Dative   | -i          | -ibus       |
| Ablative | -e          | -ibus       |

21.1.5 Third-declension nouns can be divided into the following categories:

Group 1. Stems ending in l, n, or r.

- Nominative singular same as stem. *Examples* consul *consul*- consul; *mulier* *mulier*- woman; splen splen- spleen
- Nominative singular same as stem but with different vowel length. *Examples* senator senator- senator; calor calor- heat
- Nominative singular in –o, stem –on-. *Examples* leo *leon*- lion, *ratio* *ration*- method, Cicero Ciceron- Cicero, many abstract nouns in –tio or -sio
- Nominative singular in –o, stem –in-. *Examples* homo *homin*- man, virgin virgín- girl, Carthago Carthagin- Carthage, multitudo multitudin- multitude
- Neuter nouns, nom. sing. –men, stem –min-. *Examples* nomen nomin- name, crimen crimin- accusation, crime

Group 2. Stems ending in b c d g m p t

- Nom. sing. ending in an s sound, which combines with last sound of stem.

*Examples* pax pac- peace
- rex reg- king
- virtus virtut- virtue
- pes ped- foot
- hiems hiem- winter

urbs urb- city
- nox noct- night
- pars part- part
- mons mont- mountain

*N.B.* In this category the genitive plural ending is usually –um (regum pedum virtutum) if the stem ends in a single consonant, but –ium (urbium noctium partium montium) if the stem ends in two consonants.
• Same pattern with additional change of vowel:

*Examples*

- iudex iudic- judge
- miles milit- soldier
- princeps princip- chief

**Group 3.** Nominative in –s, stem in r

*Examples*

- Masc/fem: flos flor- flower, arbos arbor- tree
- Neuter: tempus tempor- time, corpus corpor- body
- genus gener- kind, opus oper- work, onus oner- load

**Group 4 (so-called ‘i-stems’)**

- Masc/fem: nominative ending –is; gen. pl. ending mostly –ium
  (but canis dog has canum)

*Examples*

- canis dog, avis bird, ovis sheep, piscis fish, finis boundary, end

This group also has an alternative accusative plural ending in –is (long i).

- Neuter: nominative ending –e or nothing;
  nom. and acc. pl –iā, gen. pl. -ium.

*Examples*

- animal animal, mare sea, cubile bed.

---

21.2 The fourth and fifth declensions

21.2.1 Most of the Fourth Declension consists of masculine nouns, usually derived from verbs, ending in -tus or -sus, and denoting an activity. These have already been noticed at the end of the last unit. In the nominative and accusative singular they look just like past participles; but they are declined differently in the other cases and in the plural. The main feature of this declension is the persistence of the vowel u throughout all the cases except the dative and ablative plural.

Example: cursus running, race, course (from curro).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nominative</td>
<td>cursus</td>
<td>cursūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accusative</td>
<td>cursum</td>
<td>cursūs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Genitive</td>
<td>cursūs</td>
<td>cursoom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>cursui</td>
<td>cursibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>cursu</td>
<td>cursibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The genitive singular and the nominative and accusative plural have a LONG U in the ending. When the quantities of vowels are not marked, they are spelt exactly the same as the nominative singular, and the context (and especially any accompanying words that agree with the noun) must be used to distinguish between them: e.g. hic cursus this race, huius cursus of this race, hi cursus these races, hos cursus these races (acc.).
21.2.2 Some (not many) other nouns belong to the Fourth Declension. Some are masculine, others feminine. Examples:

- *gradus* (masculine) step
- *impetus* (masculine) attack
- *manus* (feminine) hand
- *nurus* (feminine) daughter-in-law

Words for official positions or groups of people (masculine):

- *magistratus* magistrate, magistracy
- *consulatus* consulship
- *senatus* senate

Words for trees (always feminine, perhaps because *arbor* tree is itself feminine):

- *pinus* pine
- *quercus* oak

21.2.3 A few fourth-declension nouns have dative and ablative plural ending in -ubus instead of –ibus:

- *arcus* bow, arch
- *tribus* tribe
- *lacus* lake

dat./abl. plural *arcubus* tribubus lacubus.

21.2.4 There are a few neuter nouns in the fourth declension. The only forms you are at all likely to find are the following:

- *cornu* horn; nom. acc. pl. cornua; abl. pl. cornibus
- *gelu* ice
- *veru* spit (for roasting).

DOMUS ‘house’, ‘home’

21.2.5 The word *domus* ‘house’ or ‘home’ is familiar to you already, but now we need to look at its complete declension. It has a peculiar mixture of second-declension and fourth-declension forms, as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>singular</th>
<th>nom.</th>
<th>domus</th>
<th>plural</th>
<th>nom.</th>
<th>domūs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>domum</td>
<td></td>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>domos</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>domūs</td>
<td></td>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>domorum or domuum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>domui</td>
<td></td>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>domibus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>domo</td>
<td></td>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>domibus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note also the form *domi* ‘at home’ (called the ‘locative’).

You do not have to remember the details of this peculiar declension (unless you want to write Latin correctly). All you have to remember is that you should expect either second-declension or fourth-declension endings.

*Domus* is feminine, so that e.g. ‘a big house’ is *magna domus.*
THE FIFTH DECLENSION: RES

21.2.6 There is one more declension in Latin, containing a small number of very common nouns. The commonest of all is res f. thing, which we shall use as our example:

Singular

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>res</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>rem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>rei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(pronounced as two syllables to rhyme with payee)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>rei</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>re</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Plural

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>res</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>res</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>rerum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat.</td>
<td>rebus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>rebus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

For the way to translate idioms involving res, see below.

21.2.7 Also in this declension are the following common words, which should be learnt as items of vocabulary:

- **spes** f. hope
- **fides** f. faith, trust.
- **facies** f. face, appearance
- **species** f. appearance, kind
- **dies** usually m., day, date.
- **meridies** m., midday or south (cf. French midi, Italian mezzogiorno which have the same two meanings)
  - a.m. means ante meridiem before midday
  - p.m. means post meridiem after midday.

*Note* Dies was originally masculine – it was actually a form of the name of the sky-god Jupiter. In most contexts in Classical Latin it is still masculine, but for some unclear reason it is treated as feminine when it means the date fixed for an event, especially a battle or a trial (note the phrase *diem dicere* to fix the day for a trial). In later Latin, it is more commonly feminine, probably on the analogy of the other fifth-declension nouns.

A few other words belong to the Fifth Declension, mostly abstract nouns in –ies which often have alternative forms belonging to other declensions: **materies** or **materia** building material, timber, **colluvies** or **colluvio** dirt, dregs, **diluvies** or **diluvium** flood, **intemperies** or **intemperiae** bad weather or folly, madness, intemperance.

The only Fifth Declension words that have commonly used plural forms are res and dies.
21.2.8 Alongside the Fifth Declension we should also mention a relatively uncommon type of Third Declension noun that also ends in –es. Apart from the nom. sing. its forms are exactly like those of Third Declension nouns in –is.

Example: nubes cloud

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>nubes</td>
<td>nubes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>nubem</td>
<td>nubes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>nubis</td>
<td>nubium</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>nubi</td>
<td>nubibus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>nube</td>
<td>nubibus</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Similarly declined are: clades defeat, disaster, strages destruction, moles mass (massive object), fames hunger, rupes crag. Also Greek names like Achilles and Ulixes (Ulysses, Odysseus), though they sometimes have genitive Achilli, Ulixi or Achillei, Ulixei.

21.2.9 A few nouns have alternative forms:

- feles or felis 3rd decl., cat
- vulpes or vulpis 3rd decl., fox

plebes or plebs 3rd OR 5th decl., the plebs, the ‘commons’.

21.2.10 A few third-declension nouns in –is have acc. sing. –im, abl. sing –i:

- sitis thirst, acc. sitim, abl. siti
- tussis cough, acc. tussim, abl. tussi
- Tiberis the river Tiber, acc. Tiberim, abl. Tiberi
  (alternative form Thybris)

- turris tower has alternative forms for the acc.: turrem or turrim.

Practice

Say what case the following nouns are in, and whether they are singular or plural. If more than one analysis is possible, give all the possibilities. Note that the length of vowels is not marked!

(a) Fourth declension only

gradum senatui
graduum manu
cursus socrum
magistratibus quercus
consulatu

(b) Fifth declension only

spem fidei meridiem rebus dierum facies specie res dies

(c) All the declensions (some adjectives also included). Use the dictionary freely.

dominum noctium rerum tenui diri
hominum cladium militum vacuum iudici
domini somnium militarium quercuum re
domini omnium miliarium nominii
donomin pricipium pricipium
noctium regum gradui vacui
rerum militium miliarium gladii
tenui vacuum quercuum nomini
diri iudici re
diri iudici re

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21.3 Multipurpose words

21.3.1 Most if not all languages have a number of extremely common words of relatively elastic meaning, which turn up in a variety of different contexts and idioms. This is a good opportunity to look at some of these in Latin. The most spectacular multipurpose word of all is res, ‘thing’. We shall also look here at two others, ratio and modus.

21.3.2 RES

Res corresponds in meaning to a large number of English abstract words, such as matter affair issue event occurrence business goods property thing fact reality topic material. The most appropriate one must be chosen according to the context. Res is the origin of our words real and reality. Why do official letters often begin with re?

A number of idiomatic phrases involve res:

- res agere to do business
- rem quaerere to make money
- res familiaris (family) property
- rem gerere to carry something out, put it into action (esp. a military campaign)
- bene rem gerere to do well, be successful
- res gestae ‘things done’, exploits, achievements
- re vera in actual fact
- re ipsa (also old-fashioned form reapese) in actual fact
- abi in malam rem! get lost! go to hell!
- res divina(e) religious ritual(s)
- res est mihi cum … I am dealing with …
- ad rem relevant
- nihil ad rem irrelevant, nothing to do with the case
- res novae a revolution (in politics)
- qua re? (often written as one word quare?) why? for what reason?

21.3.3 Note also particularly res publica, lit. public business, which means ‘the State’, ‘the (Roman) Republic’, or ‘a state’. Both the noun res and the adjective publica are declined. Quite often the phrase is found printed as a single word, i.e. as respublica, acc. rempublicam, abl. republica, plural respublicae, -as.

21.3.4 RATIO

Ratio ration- (3rd declension feminine), like res, was originally an abstract noun from reor I think. It means concretely an ‘account’ or ‘reckoning’, and in the abstract a ‘way’ or ‘method’ of doing something; hence it may mean in different contexts a transaction, a calculation, a proportion, a process of reasoning, an argument, a reason for doing something, or the mind’s powers of reasoning. From it we get our English words reason, ration and ratio.

Look at the way the word is used in different contexts:

- rationes computare to work out one’s accounts
- rationem habeo cum illo I have a (bank) account with him, or I have dealings with him
- debitis huius rei rationem habere you ought to take account of this matter, take it into consideration
- habeo rationem valetudinis I pay attention to my health
nova ratio in philosophia a new method in philosophy
nulla ratione eum oppugnavisti you attacked him with no reason
orator hac ratione usus est the orator used this argument
ratio homines a beluis distinguit reasoning distinguishes humans from animals

21.3.5 MODUS

Modus (2nd decl.) in one of its meanings is synonymous with ratio, a ‘way’ of doing something (cf. English mode). Its original meaning was ‘measure’ (cf. modius a measure of corn, a bushel) and from there it came to mean allotment, size, quantity, the right amount, moderation, term, limit, end; ‘measure’ in music, hence metre, rhythm, tune; way, means, manner, method, mode, kind, sort; also ‘mood’ in grammar (indicative or subjunctive, etc.).

modus agri an allotment of land
extra modum beyond measure
modum luctui imponere to impose a limit to mourning
sit modus exsilio let there be an end to my exile
disce modos huius carminis learn the tune of this song
omnibus modis in all ways
miro modo in a strange way
quo modo? (also one word: quomodo?) in what way? how?
huius modi (also one word: huiusmodi) of this kind
modus indicativus the indicative mood
ratione et modo rationally, systematically

21.3.6 The ablative of modus is, as you would expect, modo; but this also developed a life of its own as an adverb. Modo often corresponds to the English word ‘just’:

just = just now modo dixi I just said
also repeated: modo modo ‘only just recently’
nonne videtur tibi Nero modo modo fuisse? Doesn’t Nero seem to you to have been (alive) only just recently?

just = only veni modo huc just come here!
non modo stultus sed (etiam) scelestus not just foolish, but (also) wicked

From the meaning ‘just now’ it came to mean simply ‘now’ in phrases like modo hoc. modo illud now this, now that; modo huc, modo illuc now this way, now that way; and in late Latin the adjective modernus ‘modern’ was formed from it.

Tricky, but keep an eye on the context in each case and the meaning should become clear, just as it does with ‘just’ in English.

21.4 Sorting out nouns and adjectives ending in –ER, etc.

21.4.1 There are a number of nouns and adjectives ending in -er in Latin, some of which you have already met. Some of them belong to the second declension, others to the third. The difficulty with them is that in some of them, the e is part of the stem, while in others the e occurs only in the nominative and is dropped in the other cases. Do not worry about learning every detail: it is enough to recognise the patterns.
21.4.2 Nouns

- Second-declension, dropping e:
  
  magister master, stem magistr-, acc. magistrum  
  liber book, stem libr-, acc. librum

- Second-declension, keeping e:
  
  puer boy, stem puer-, acc. puerum. This is by far the most common noun in this category, but note also the similar behaviour of socer father-in-law, gener son-in-law, and compounds in –fer and –ger (which may be either nouns or adjectives).

- Third declension, dropping e:
  
  pater father, stem patr-, acc. patrem  
  mater mother, stem matr-, acc. matrem.

- Third declension, keeping e:
  
  mulier woman, stem mulier-, acc. mulierem.  
  ver spring (neuter), stem ver-. Distinguish from verus (2nd decl. adj.) true.

21.4.3 Adjectives

- Second-declension adjective, dropping e:
  
  pulcher handsome, stem pulchr-  
  fem. pulchra, neut. pulchrum

  and the Possessives:  
  
  noster our(s), stem nostr-  
  fem. nostra, neut. nostrum  
  vester your(s), stem vestr-  
  fem. vestra, neut. vestrum

- Second-declension adjective, keeping e:
  
  liber free, stem liber-  
  fem. libera, neut. liberum  
  tener tender, young, stem tener-  
  fem. tenera, neut. tenerum

  (Not to be confused with tenuis ‘thin’, and the verb teneo tenere to hold.)

- Third-declension adjective, dropping e. These third-declension adjectives uniquely have different forms for masculine and feminine. Whereas the nom. sing. feminine ends in –ris (and hence the declension in the feminine is entirely regular, like tristis), the masculine ends in –er, and this of course is the form under which you will find them in the dictionary.

  acer keen, sharp, stem acr-  
  fem. nominative acri, neuter acre  
  pedester pedestrian, stem pedestr-  
  fem. pedestris, neut. pedestre

  similarly: equester equestrian, volucr winged (volucres as a feminine plural noun means ‘birds’)
Third-declension adjective, keeping e:

celer swift, stem celer- fem. celeris, neuter celere

VETUS

21.4.4 In this connection we should also remind ourselves of the third-declension adjective vetus ‘old’. Its stem is veter- (and hence it looks like an adjective of one of the above categories) but the nominative singular is vetus. It has no separate forms for feminine and neuter, except neuter plural vetera.

MEN AND STRENGTH, FREE MEN AND WOMEN, CHILDREN, BACCHUS, BOOKS, SCALES AND POUNDS

21.4.5 Two of the most common sources of confusion in Latin are the stems VIR- and LIB(E)R-. Attend carefully:

- ‘A man’ (male person) or ‘husband’ is:
  vir virum viri viro viro pl. viri viros virorum (or virum) viris.
The first i is always short.

- ‘Force’ or ‘strength’ is an irregular third-declension noun: vis vim vi (no gen. or dat. sing.); vires vires virium viribus.
The first i is always long.

- ‘Poison’ (virus) is virus (long i). This word is neuter and the form virus serves for either nominative or accusative. Other forms are seldom found.

21.4.6 ‘Free’ is a second declension adjective that keeps e throughout:

liber libera liberum
liberum liberam liberum
liberi liberae liberi
libero liberae libero
libero libera libero

plural: liber liberae libera
liberos liberas libera
liberorum liberarum liberorum
liberis liberis liberis

The first i is always long.

‘Children’, i.e. free members of the family as opposed to slaves, are liberi liberos liberorum liberis (identical with the masculine plural of liber free). If you needed to say ‘free men’ you would add homines.

Liber (with a capital L), or Liber Pater, is the god of wine (= Greek Bacchus or Dionysus), who frees you from your daily cares. He is declined identically with the masculine singular of liber free.

‘A pair of scales’ or ‘a pound’ is libra (or Libra the constellation). The i is long, but there is never an e: libram librae libra librae libras librarum libris.
‘A book’ is **liber**. The *i* is always *short*, and the *e* is dropped in all cases except the nominative singular: **librum** **libri** **libro** **libro**; **libri** **libros** **librorum** **libris**.

Children, God of Wine, or Free
lengthen I and keep the E.
In one book an E you’ll find,
Yet it drops it when declined.
First-declension without E,
Scales or pounds it has to be.

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**Exercise**

Translate:

Hic vir optimus est.
Hoc viro nemo melior poeta est.
Huius mulieris vir poeta est.
Hi viri magnas vires habent.
Hic viribus pugnat, ille consilio.
Horum virorum alter plus virium habet, alter doctior est.

Cogita te virum esse et fortiter rem gere!
Habesne remedium contra virus illius serpentinis?

Liberi parentes honorare debent, parentes liberos educare.
Liberi homines sumus; numquam volumus servire.
Si patres sunt liberi, pueri quoque liberi sunt.
Liberi tui libros legere debent.
Pro hoc libro quinque libras dedi.
Professor mortuus testamento reliquit liberis suis decem milia librarum, et collegio suo decem milia librorum.

Liberi a pulchris matribus pulchriores nascuntur.
Liberum Patrem colere debemus, quia vinum amamus.
In Zodiaco Libra post Virginem venit, Virgo post Leonem.

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END OF UNIT 21
UNIT 22

22.1 Cases in context: (1) the Ablative

22.1.1 So far you have met the following meanings of the Ablative:

(a) After one of the following prepositions:
   - a/ab from, away from;
     *with persons, expressing the agent of a passive verb*: by
   - de from, down from, about (a subject)
   - e/ex out of
   - cum with
   - sine without
   - pro instead of, on behalf of, in front of, in proportion to
   - prae in front of, compared with
   - super above; covering (a subject)
   - sub under
   - in in

(b) Instrumental Ablative ‘with’, ‘by means of’
   e.g. *gladio occisus est* – he was killed with a sword

A variant of the Instrumental Ablative is the ‘ablative of measure of difference’:
   e.g. *multo maior* much bigger, lit. bigger by much
   *duobus pedibus longior* longer by two feet; two feet longer.

(c) Comparative Ablative ‘than’
   e.g. *Caesare clarior* more famous than Caesar

22.1.2 However, the above is only a taste of the variety of uses of the Ablative in Latin. It has to be translated into English by means of different prepositions according to the context. Look at the following examples:

**BY:***

*His rebus commotus est* He was worried/excited *by* these things
*Virtute victimus, non calliditate* We won *by* bravery, not *by* cunning
*Recta via Romam processimus* We proceeded to Rome *by* the direct route
*Muro dividuntur Romani a barbaris* The Romans are divided *from* the barbarians *by* a wall

**WITH:***

*Praemio honoratus est* He was honoured *with* a prize/reward
*Gladio occisus est* He was killed *with* a sword
*Summa contentione certaverunt* The competed *with* the greatest of effort
*Vertuntur celeritate mirabili* They turn *with* remarkable speed
*Operto capite omnes stant* They all stand *with* head covered
*Homo promissa barba* A man *with* a long beard

(‘With’ can correspond to the Latin ‘instrumental ablative’ meaning ‘by means of’, as in ‘with a sword’; or it can correspond to the Latin ‘descriptive ablative’ which describes a characteristic: ‘with a long beard’.)
AT:
Meo periculo hoc ago I do this at my own risk

UNDER:
Specie honoris Roma emissus est He was sent away from Rome under the guise of an honour (you could also say sub specie)

ON:
Equo vecta est She rode on a horse
Patimur eum abire hac condicione We let him go away on this condition

IN:
Animo perturbatus est He was disturbed in his mind
Cursu vicit He won in the race by running
Mea sententia optimus est In my opinion he is the best
Rure quinque dies mansit He stayed five days in the country
Non loco sed tempore erravi I made a mistake not in the place, but in the time (I was wrong not about the place, but about the time)
Facie pulchra est She is beautiful in appearance

FROM:
Consulatu se abdicavit He resigned from the consulship
Senatu motus est He was removed from the senate
Cura liberi sumus We are free from of worry

OF:
Oculis privatus est He was deprived of (the sight of) his eyes
Onere levatus est He was relieved of the burden
Morbo periti He died of from a disease
Dignus honore est He is worthy of honour

22.1.3 This variety may seem bewildering; but it is possible to make more logical sense of it when we realise that the Ablative is an amalgam of three originally different cases:

- the True Ablative meaning ‘from’ or denoting separation, deprivation, etc.; also used for ‘than’ in comparisons, and sometimes to express the notion of cause.

- the Instrumental meaning ‘with’ or ‘by means of’; also used for measure of difference.

- the Locative (from Latin locus place) meaning ‘at’ or ‘in’ denoting position in place or time; also used with prepositions.

Some related languages have preserved some or all of these cases separately: for example, Russian still has an Instrumental and a Locative (the latter used with prepositions). Sanskrit, the classical language of India, has all three. For example, the Sanskrit noun pat meaning ‘foot’ has ablative padah, instrumental padā and locative padi. But the ancestors of all these merged in Latin into the one ablative form pede, meaning ‘by a foot’, ‘with a foot’, ‘from a foot’ or ‘in a foot’ according to context.

Latin does in fact preserve a few old Locative forms, mostly in place names. You have even met one or two of them: Romae at/in Rome, domi at home. When they are different from the Ablative in form, they generally resemble the Genitive. The Ablative of the same words tends to be reserved for the meaning ‘from’ (Roma from Rome; domo from home).
The Ablative used to mean ‘by means of’ is called the ‘Instrumental Ablative’; the Ablative used to denote position is called the ‘Local Ablative’. ‘Local’ here means that it refers to a place (locus).

22.1.4 The trick of seeing one’s way through the Latin Ablative is to work out from the context which of the various English prepositions is appropriate. Usually only one of the theoretically possible meanings makes sense in any given context. See how it works:

- pede deprivatus deprived with a foot? by a foot? in a foot? no – of a foot (true ablative)
- pede pulsavit fores he kicked the door in a foot? by a foot? from a foot? no – with his foot (instrumental ablative)
- pede doleo I have a pain by a foot? from a foot? with a foot? no – in my foot (local ablative)
- haec trabs pede longior est quam illa this plank is longer than that one with a foot? in a foot? from a foot? no – by a foot. (measure of difference).

In time, you will get used to the various kinds of phrase in which Ablatives occur, and you will be able to select the right English translation by relying on the context. Pay particular attention to the meaning of the verb – whether it denotes an action that needs an instrument to perform it, or whether it denotes separation or deprivation, etc.

**Exercise**

Translate:

Iter Romam facio pedibus, non equo.
Quis tua sententia optimus est gladiator?
Hic ferro pugnat, ille tridente.
Hostes montem occupaverunt: deinde loco cesserunt.
Hostes metu se receperunt.
Omni spe privati sunt.
Dixit nuntius, ‘Pugna magna victi sumus’.

**22.2 Expressions of time and place**

22.2.1 The Local Ablative is used to denote a definite point of time or space. English uses different prepositions (e.g. *at* for hours of the day, *on* for days and dates, *in* for places, or no preposition at all as in phrases like ‘this year’, ‘that day’).

- illo die (on) that day
- Idibus Martii on the Ides of March
- hoc anno this year
- isto loco in that place
- eo tempore at that time
- meridie at midday
- quinta hora at the fifth hour (11 a.m.)

22.2.2 If the phrase denotes a period of time, then the Ablative will mean ‘in’ the period:
his paucis diebus consul factus est he was made consul in the last few days
triduo iuris consultum se fecit he made himself a legal expert in three days
mense Augusto in the month of August

22.2.3 A length of time or distance is expressed by the Accusative without a preposition:
totum diem (for) the whole day
decem milia progressi sunt they advanced ten miles
tres pedes longum est it is three feet long
quattuor horas for four hours
novem dies for nine days
viginti annos for twenty years
vixit annos LXXV he (she) lived 75 years
triduum for a period of three days

22.2.4 Observe the distinction between Ablative and Accusative in the following examples:

uno die mille hominum amisimus on one day we lost 1,000 men
unum diem tantum Romae fuimus we were only at Rome for one day
(note tantum ‘that much’ and no more, i.e. ‘only’)

quinque noctes domus mea oppugnata est my house was besieged for five nights
(continuously)
quinque nocitibus domus mea oppugnata est my house was besieged on five (separate) nights

triduum mansit he stayed (for) three days
triduo linguam Latinam didicit he learnt Latin in three days

However, it has to be said that the Romans were not very systematic about observing these distinctions, useful as they were. In later Latin one often finds the ‘wrong’ case used; e.g. quinque diebus might be used to mean ‘for five days’.

22.3 Cases in context (2): the Genitive

OBJECTIVE GENITIVE

22.3.1 The genitive is used to correspond to our ‘of’ in phrases like amor libertatis love of liberty, odium tyranni hatred of a tyrant, memoria rerum gestarum memory of things achieved. This use of the genitive is called an objective genitive, because, if you were to turn the noun ‘memory’ or ‘love’ (etc.) into a verb ‘to remember’, ‘to love’, the pronoun in the genitive would become the object of the verb.

22.3.2 The personal pronouns have special genitive forms for use as objective genitives:

mei of me
tui of you
sui of himself, of herself, of itself, of themselves
nostri of us
vestri of you.

as in: memoria mei memory of me
amor tui love of you
nimis amans sui too fond of himself

It will be noticed that these forms are identical with the genitives of the possessive adjectives. Distinguish:

- amor nostri love of us
- amor nostri oppidi love of our town.

22.3.3 The objective genitive is used, just as in English, with:

(a) nouns such as amor love, memoria memory
(b) adjectives such as amans loving, fond, memor mindful. Also some where English would use a different construction, e.g. cupidus eager (we would say ‘eager for’).

22.3.4 Latin also often uses an objective genitive with the verbs memini I remember (more accurately: I am mindful of), and obliviscor -i oblitus I forget (more accurately: I am forgetful of).

- meminit amici sui he remembers his friend
- oblivus est officii sui he forgot his duty.

Memini is peculiar in that it has the form of a perfect tense, but its meaning is like a Present. Presumably it originally meant something like ‘I have brought to mind’. (Another such verb is odi I hate, which is actually connected with the root of odor smell, odour, and must have meant ‘I have had a noseful’).

PARTITIVE GENITIVE

22.3.5 The partitive genitive is the genitive used in phrases like a glass of wine, many of us, one of the crowd. It implies a part taken from a larger whole, a member of a class, or a portion of some substance. The genitive is used in this way in Latin, just as we say ‘of’ in English.

- poculum vini a glass of wine
- multi Romanorum many of the Romans

22.3.6 The personal pronouns nos and vos have a special form of the genitive plural for use only as a partitive genitive. The forms are nostrum and vestrum, ‘of us’ and ‘of you’.

- unus nostrum one of us
- complures vestrum many of you
- quis nostrum? which of us?

DESCRIPTIVE GENITIVE AND DESCRIPTIVE ABLATIVE

22.3.7 We say ‘a man of great courage’, ‘a woman with red hair’. Latin uses both the Genitive and Ablative for phrases of this kind:

- vir magnae fortitudinis a man of great courage
- femina rufis capillis a woman with red hair.

Exercise
Translate:
Da mihi maius poculum vini.
Multi Romanorum Graece loquuntur.
Unus nostrum insanus est.
Amor sapientiae philosophia vocatur.
Quis vestrum hoc fecit?
Vivatis felices et nostri memores.
Harum sententiarum una vera esse potest, omnes verae esse non possunt.

22.4 Cases in context (3): the Dative

22.4.1 There are some idiomatic uses of the Dative with particular verbs. Usually the Dative meaning can be teased out by means of a literal translation, but idiomatic English tends to conceal it. The verbs concerned are listed below. You should take note of them, so that you are not puzzled when you find the Dative used with them. In due course you will get so used to them that you will automatically expect a Dative when you see one of them.

22.4.2 The following verbs may take an accusative (of the thing) together with a dative (of the person):

- **suadeo** conventionally translated ‘I persuade’, because ‘persuade’ is derived from it; but ‘commend’ would be much better. In English we say *I persuade you of this*; Latin says *suadeo hoc tibi* I commend this to you. The accusative refers to the thing commended, the dative to the person to whom it is commended.

  *Note* The word is etymologically connected with *suavis* sweet, pleasant; it originally meant ‘make something pleasant to someone’.

- **persuadeo** I convince, i.e. succeed in persuading (the per- means ‘through to the end’ and imports the notion of success; this is weakened in the English derivative persuade). Same construction as suadeo: again English says ‘I convince you of this’, Latin says persuadeo hoc tibi.

- **credo** originally ‘I entrust’. One entrusts something to someone: *tibi pecuniam credidit* he entrusted the money to you; he trusted you with the money; he lent you the money (cf. credit).

  Just as in English ‘I trust him’ can mean ‘I believe what he says’, so credo in Latin is often equivalent to ‘believe’. In this sense, again, it takes an accusative of the thing believed, and a dative of the person whose word is trusted. *Hoc credo* I believe this; *tibi credo* I believe you.

  *Note* also the non-classical Christian construction *credo in Deum* I believe in God.

- **impero** I give orders to someone. Used with accusative of the thing ordered: *Hoc tibi impero* I give this order to you; *frumentum agricolis imperavit* he ordered corn from the farmers. Impero with the dative alone means ‘to command’, or ‘to be in command of’: *dux legioni imperat* the general commands the legion, is in command of the legion. (Hence the derivatives imperium command, power, authority, sphere of command, empire; imperator commander, emperor.)

- **ignosco** I ignore an offence, hence ‘excuse’, ‘forgive’, ‘pardon’. We forgive someone for something; Latin says ‘forgive the offence for someone’, so ignosco tibi hunc errorem I forgive this mistake for you, i.e. I forgive you for this mistake. With the dative alone: ignosco tibi I forgive you; ignosce mihi! pardon me!

- **permitto** I allow something to someone. *Hoc tibi permitto* I allow this to you.
22.4.3 The following verbs cannot take an accusative object and are used with the dative only.

confido I have confidence in (give my trust to someone).

irascor I get angry with someone (display my anger to him).

noceo I harm someone (do an injury to him)

parco I spare someone or something (abstain from doing harm to). Parco auditoribus I spare my listeners; captivis pepercit he spared the prisoners; parcit viribus suis he spares his strength.

servio I serve someone (am a servant to him).

studeo I show enthusiasm for someone or something. Hence studeo tibi I am a fan of yours, I support you; studeo linguae Latinae I show enthusiasm for Latin, i.e. study it, am a student of it. (As we all know, the distinguishing mark of studentes, students, is enthusiasm for the subject).

pareo I obey someone. Pareo originally meant ‘appear’, as its compounds appareo and compareo still do; pareo tibi meant ‘I come to you when called’, but in practice it always means ‘I obey you’. Synonyms oboedio, obtempero (also with dative).

Note Distinguish carefully between the three similar verbs pareo parere I obey (appear), paro parare I prepare, pario parere I produce, give birth to, cause. It is worth writing out the conjugation of these in full to see how the forms differ. The fact that pareo takes the dative is also valuable in distinguishing it from the others, which take an accusative object (although they too can take, in addition, a dative meaning ‘for’). Parere imperio to obey orders, but parere mala rei publicae to cause troubles for the state.

placeo I please someone (am pleasing to someone). The converse of ‘to please’ is ‘to like’, so Hoc mihi placet This pleases me = I like this. Placet orator populo the orator goes down well with the public; the public likes the orator.

Note This use of ‘to please’ remained constant in the Romance languages. The French for ‘I like this wine’ is normally NOT j’aime ce vin, but ce vin me plaît – hoc vinum mihi placet. And in Italian, mi piace questo vino.

faveo I favour someone (show favour to someone). Di mihi favent the gods favour me. Often used of political or sporting support. Prasinis faveo I support the Greens (a team in chariot racing: prasinus literally = ‘leek-coloured’ in Greek).

indulgeo I indulge someone (show indulgence to someone). Pater indulget filio the father indulges the son.

nubo I (a woman) get married to someone (a man). Nubo -ere originally meant ‘veil the head’ and referred to the marriage ceremony (nuptiae nuptials). A different verb is used of the man: duco (uxorem) I take, lit. lead, a wife (i.e. lead in the wedding ceremony). To say nubit of a man is a joke implying that he will be henpecked.
entrusted’ (not ‘to be trusted’); **imperari** means ‘to be ordered’ (e.g. of supplies; not ‘to be commanded to do something); **ignosci** is used of the offence which is forgiven, not of the person; and so on.

*How then do you say ‘to be trusted’ and so on?*
Well, there is a way, but it is best left until a little later.

22.4.5 Take note also of the following third-person verbs which are used with a Dative, and of their idiomatic English equivalents:

- **licet** it is allowed
- **libet** it takes one’s fancy
- **placet** it pleases, it is settled (cf. **placeo** above)

**licet mihi dicere** it is allowed for me to say; I am allowed to say. I can say.
**libet mihi deambulare** it takes my fancy to go for a walk; I choose/like to go for a walk.
**placet mihi captivos occidere** it is settled for me to kill the prisoners: I have decided to kill the prisoners

**DATIVE WITH THE VERB ‘TO BE’**

22.4.6 The Dative is often found with the verb ‘to be’ in phrases like this:

**hoc voluptati est** this is a pleasure, lit. this is for a pleasure
**illud incommodo fuit** that was an inconvenience, lit. that was for an inconvenience.  
**illa clades exitio fuit** that defeat was a disaster, lit. that defeat was for a disaster.

Latin just happens to prefer to say it that way. Probably the original meaning of the dative in this construction was something like ‘conducive to’ pleasure or inconvenience, etc. Technically this is called the ‘Predicative Dative’.

22.4.7 Phrases of this kind easily combine with a second Dative to show for whom the event in question was a pleasure, an inconvenience, a disaster etc.:

**hoc mihi voluptati est** this is a pleasure for me
**illud nobis incommodo fuit** that was an inconvenience for us
**illa clades exitio fuit Carthaginiensibus** that defeat was a disaster for the Carthaginians.

Some call this type of construction the ‘Double Dative’ construction.

**Exercise**

Translate:

*Legi parere debent omnes cives.*
*Orator novam legem populo suadet.*
*Parce mihi, precor!*  
*Nimium vinum multis hominibus nocet.*
*Omnes studemus linguae Latinae.*
*Ignosce mihi stultitiam meam.*
*Creditisne illi oratori? Minime.*
*Caesar imperat militibus, uxor Caesari.*
Reading exercise

The following passage is taken (slightly adapted) from the *History of the Fall of Troy* narrated by ‘Dares Phrygius’, who is supposed to have been a soldier in the Trojan war and a companion of the Trojan hero Antenor. The text is a late Roman adaptation of a Greek text of uncertain date and authorship. Here ‘Dares’ describes the appearance and character of the Trojan heroes and heroines, with some unexpected details (e.g. did you know that Helen had a spot between her eyebrows?).

Use the dictionary freely, and look out for some of the uses of the cases described in this Unit.

Dares audivit a Troianis de Castore et Polluce. Fuerunt autem alter alteri similis, capillo flavo, oculis magnis, facie pura, bene figurati, corpore deducto.

*Note* alter … alter the one … the other

Vidit autem ipse Dares Helenam, similem illis: formosam, animi simplicis, blandam, cruribus optimis, notam inter duo supercilia habentem, ore pusillo.

*Note* All the characters from now on appear in the accusative, as they are all parallel to Helenam and treated as objects of *vidit*.


*Note* Alexander also called Paris Parid- (3rd decl.).

Aeneam rufum, quadratum, facundum, affabilem, fortem cum consilio, pium, venustum, oculis hilaribus et nigris; Antenorem longum, gracilem, velocibus membris, versutum, cautum.

Hecubam magnam, aquilino corpore, pulchram, mente virili, piam, iustam. Andromacham oculis claris, candidam, longam, formosam, modestam, sapientem, pudicam, blandam. Cassandram mediocri statura, ore rotundo, rufam, oculis micantibus, futurorum praesciam. Polyxenam candidam, altam, formosam, collo longo, oculis venustis, capillis flavīs et longīs, compositam membris, digitīs prolixīs, cruribus rectis, pedibus optimīs, forma sua omnes superantem, animo simplici, largam, dapsilem.
Mock test on Units 1-22

1. Graeci Troiam oppugnant. (3) 3
2. Graeci Troiam diu oppugnaverunt. (4) 7
3. Graeci post decem annos vicerunt, et Troiani victi sunt. (9) 16
4. Achilles fortissimus fuit Graecorum, Ulixes callidissimus. (6) 22
5. Primum Ulixes noluit pugnare, sed maluit in Ithaca manere. (9) 31
6. Sed postremo calliditas Ulixis magis profuit quam fortitudo Achillis. (9) 40
7. Ulixes equum ligneum construxit. (4) 44
8. Equum ab Ulixe constructum Troiani mirati sunt. (7) 51
9. Celati sunt in equo milites armati. (6) 57
10. Deductus est equus in urbem a Troianis. (7) 64
11. Fuit sacerdos in urbe Troia, nomine Laocoon. (7) 71
12. Is Trojanos de periculo admonere conatus est. (7) 78
13. Dixit Trojanis: ‘O cives, num insani estis?’ (7) 85
14. ‘Aut Graeci hoc ligno inclusi sunt, aut haec in nostros muros machina fabricata est.’ (14) 99
15. Tum hastam in latus equi lignei contorsit. (7) 106
16. Stetit hasta tremens, et cavernae intus insonuerunt. (7) 113
17. Duo angues a Iunone missi sacerdotem petunt. (7) 120
18. Troiani dicunt eum poenam expendisse, quia equum ligneum laesit. (9) 129
19. Nox venit; patefactus est equus; Ulixes aliique duces se ex equo promunt, demissis funibus lapst. (17) 146
20. Invadunt urbem, caeduntur vigiles, et per portas apertas socios accipient. (10) 156
21. Haec vero historia equi lignei multo accuratius a Vergilio nostro quam ab Homero enarratur. (14) 170

END OF UNIT 22
### PART IV: UNITS 23-30

#### UNIT 23

23.1 Verbs: revision of forms learned so far

23.1.1 The Latin verb as we have encountered it so far may be set out like this. Here we use the 1st-conjugation verb *celo*, to hide, conceal (i.e. to hide something) as an example, partly just as a change from *amo* or *pulso*, and partly because it is one of those English verbs that make a distinction between the Past tense *hid* and the Past Participle *hidden*. In this table a hyphen is used to mark off the endings from the stem, as in *cela-s*: present stem *cela-* plus 2nd person ending *–s*.

The following forms are based on the Present Stem *cela-*:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Indicative Active</th>
<th>Present Indicative Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>celo</em> I hide; I am hiding (<em>cela-o</em>)</td>
<td><em>celor</em> I am being hidden, I am (habitually) hidden (<em>cela-or</em>)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>cela-s</em> you hide; you are hiding</td>
<td><em>cela-ris</em> you are being hidden, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>cela-t</em> he/she/it hides; he/she/it is hiding</td>
<td><em>cela-tur</em> he/she/it is being hidden, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>cela-mus</em> we hide; we are hiding</td>
<td><em>cela-mur</em> we are being hidden, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>cela-tis</em> you hide; you are hiding</td>
<td><em>cela-mini</em> you are being hidden, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>cela-nt</em> they hide; they are hiding</td>
<td><em>cela-ntur</em> they are being hidden, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imperative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>cela!</em> hide! (addressing one person)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>cela-te!</em> hide! (addressing more than one)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Infinitive Active</th>
<th>Present Infinitive Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>cela-re</em> to hide</td>
<td><em>cela-ri</em> to be hidden</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Participle Active</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>cela-ns cela-nt-</em> hiding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Gerundive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>cela-ndus</em> needing to be hidden</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following forms are based on the Present Stem with change of stem vowel, *cele-*:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Subjunctive Active</th>
<th>Present Subjunctive Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>cele-m</em> may I hide</td>
<td><em>cele-r</em> may I be hidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>cele-s</em> may you hide</td>
<td><em>cele-ris</em> may you be hidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>cele-t</em> may he/she/it hide</td>
<td><em>cele-tur</em> may he/she/it be hidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>cele-mus</em> may we hide</td>
<td><em>cele-mur</em> may we be hidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>cele-tis</em> may you hide</td>
<td><em>cele-mini</em> may you be hidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>cele-nt</em> may they hide</td>
<td><em>cele-ntur</em> may they be hidden</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The following forms are based on the Perfect Stem **celav-** or on the Past Participle:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Perfect Indicative Active</strong></th>
<th><strong>Perfect Indicative Passive</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>celav-i</strong> I hid; I have hidden</td>
<td><strong>celatus sum, celata sum</strong> I was hidden, I have been hidden, I am (in a state of being) hidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>celav-isti</strong> you hid; you have hidden</td>
<td><strong>celatus es, celata es</strong> you were hidden, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>celav-it</strong> he/she/it hid; he/she/it has hidden</td>
<td><strong>celatum est</strong> it was hidden, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>celav-imus</strong> we hid; we have hidden</td>
<td><strong>celatia sumus, celatae sumus</strong> we were hidden, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>celav-istentis</strong> you hid; you have hidden</td>
<td><strong>celatia estis, celatae estis</strong> you were hidden, etc.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>celav-erunt</strong> they hid; they have hidden</td>
<td><strong>celatia sunt, celatae sunt, celata sunt</strong> they were hidden, etc.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Perfect Infinitive Active</strong></th>
<th><strong>Perfect Infinitive Passive</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>celav-isce</strong> to have hidden</td>
<td><strong>celatus esse</strong> to have been hidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>fem. <strong>celata esse</strong>, neut. <strong>celatum esse</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Past Participle Passive</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>cela-tus</strong> 2nd decl., (that has been) hidden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fem. <strong>celata</strong>, neut. <strong>celatum</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

A similar table could be constructed for verbs of the other conjugations; you may find it a useful revision exercise to do this.

---

23.1.2 The basic building blocks of the Latin verb system should by now be absolutely firm in your mind. They are as follows:

- The **personal endings of the Active**: -o or -m,-s,-t,-mus,-tis,-nt
- The **personal endings of the Passive**: -or or -r,-ris,-tur,-mur,-mini,-ntur
- The **present stem**, which in the 1st, 2nd and 4th conjugations ends in a characteristic ‘colouring’ vowel:
  - 1st conjugation -a- **celo**, Present Stem **cela-**
  - 2nd conjugation -e- **moneo**, Present Stem **mone-**
  - 3rd conjugation A: no vowel **scribo**, Present Stem **scrib-**
  - 3rd conjugation B: -i- **facio**, Present Stem **faci-**
  - 4th conjugation: -i- **audio**, Present Stem **audi-**
• The **perfect stem**, found by removing the ending –i from the 1st person singular of the perfect tense, which is the third principal part of the verb given in dictionaries (see Unit 18).

  • *celo*, 1st singular perfect *celavi*, Perfect Stem *celav-*
  • *moneo*, 1st singular perfect *monui*, Perfect Stem *monu-*
  • *scribo*, 1st singular perfect *scripsi*, Perfect Stem *scrips-*
  • *facio*, 1st singular perfect *feci*, Perfect Stem *fec-*
  • *audio*, 1st singular perfect *audivi*, Perfect Stem *audiv-*.

If you are still uncertain about any of the above, revise Units 5, 9 and 18 again!

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### 23.2 Filling in the other tenses

23.2.1 The Latin verb has several other tenses apart from those we have so far looked at, but as long as you keep the above principles in mind, it will be a relatively simple matter to acquire a working knowledge of them. All the other tenses are formed either from the Present Stem or from the Perfect Stem; and **all** of them use the basic set of personal endings with which we are already familiar (active: -o/-m, -s, -t, -mus, -tis, -nt; passive/deponent: -r, -ris, -tur, -mur, -mini, -ntur). They are distinguished from the tenses we know already, and from one another, by an element called a **tense-marker** which is inserted between the stem and the personal ending.

For example, the Latin for ‘I was dancing’ is *saltabam*. This can be broken down into: *salta-* Present Stem of *salto*; *-ba-* tense-marker; *-m* 1st person singular ending. This is an example of what is called the Imperfect Tense, the tense used for an uncompleted action (**imperfectus** unfinished) in the past, as opposed to the Perfect, which refers to a completed action.

23.2.2 For reference, here is a list of the remaining inflected tenses of the Latin verb, which we shall be looking at in more detail in the next few Units, together with their tense-markers. Examples are taken from *celo* I hide.

1. The Imperfect
   Example: *celabam*
   Meaning: ‘I was hiding’ or ‘I used to hide’
   Formed from Present Stem
   Tense-marker: *-ba-* (1st and 2nd conjugations) or *-eba-* (3rd and 4th), plus personal endings *-m* - *s* - *t* - *mus* - *tis* - *nt*

2. The Future
   Example: *celabo*
   Meaning: ‘I shall hide’
   Formed from Present Stem
   Tense-marker: *-b-* + 3rd conjugation endings *-o* - *is* - *it* - *imus* - *itis* - *unt*
   (This is the way the Future is formed in the 1st and 2nd conjugations; for the 3rd and 4th conjugations, and more details on the Future in general, see Unit 25.)

3. The Pluperfect
   Example: *celaveram*
   Meaning: ‘I had hidden’
   Formed from Perfect Stem
   Tense-marker: *-era-* plus personal endings *-m* - *s* - *t* - *mus* - *tis* - *nt*
4. The Future Perfect
Example: *celavero*
Meaning: ‘I’ll have hidden’
Formed from Perfect Stem
Tense-marker: -er- + 3rd conjugation endings (except for third person plural) -o -is -it
-imus -itis -int

5. The Imperfect Subjunctive
Example: *celarem*
Meaning e.g. ‘I would be hiding’
Formed from Present Stem
Tense-marker: -re- plus personal endings -m -s -t -mus -tis -nt

6. The Pluperfect Subjunctive
Example: *celavissem*
Meaning e.g. ‘I would have hidden’
Formed from Perfect Stem
Tense-marker: -isse- plus personal endings -m -s -t -mus -tis -nt

7. The Perfect Subjunctive
Example: *celaverim*
Meaning e.g. ‘I would hide’
Formed from Perfect Stem
Tense-marker: -eri- plus personal endings -m -s -t -mus -tis -nt.

Note The above three tenses of the Subjunctive have a range of possible meanings, of which only one is given above; see later units for more details.

23.2.3 You will see that in all the above tenses, Latin uses a single word where English uses several. But the principle by which the meaning is conveyed is virtually the same in both languages. The only difference is that while English expresses the elements of the meaning in the order person – tense – verb, like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Tense</th>
<th>Verb</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>was</td>
<td>hiding</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Latin expresses them in the reverse order and sticks all the elements together to make one word:

Verb Tense Person
*cela-* -ba- -m.

Once you get used to analysing them in this way, the Latin tenses should hold no terrors for you.

In this Unit, we shall deal with the two remaining past tenses of the Indicative: the Imperfect and the Pluperfect (1 and 3 in the above list).
23.3 The Imperfect

23.3.1 The Imperfect corresponds to English ‘I was doing’ or ‘I used to do’. It refers to a continuous or habitual action or state in the past.

The Imperfect, both Active and Passive, is formed from the same stem as the Present.

The tense-marker is -BA-. 

In the first conjugation, the tense-marker -BA- is preceded by a long a: celabam. In the other conjugations, it is preceded by a long e:

- moneo
- scribo
- audio

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present Stem</th>
<th>-m</th>
<th>-s</th>
<th>-t</th>
<th>-mus</th>
<th>-tis</th>
<th>-nt</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>moneo</td>
<td>monebam</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scribo</td>
<td>scribebam</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audio</td>
<td>audiebam</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This e may be called a ‘linking vowel’ since it comes between the present stem and the tense-marker.

The personal endings in the active are -m -s -t -mus -tis -nt
The personal endings in the passive are -r -ris -tur -mur -mini -ntur.

23.3.2 Let us see how this works out in practice.

First Conjugation

Present Stem cela-
Tense-marker -ba-
Personal endings -m etc.

=> Imperfect Active:  celabam I was hiding
                        celabas you were hiding
                        celabat (he/she/it) was hiding
                        celabamus we were hiding
                        celabatis you were hiding
                        celabant (they) were hiding

Imperfect Passive:  celabar I was being hidden
                        celabar is you were being hidden
                        celabatur (he/she/it) was being hidden
                        celabamur we were being hidden
                        celabamini you were being hidden
                        celabantur (they) were being hidden

Examples in context

Celabam thesaurusum I was hiding the treasure
Sententiam tuam celabas You were hiding your opinion
Fur se post ianuam celabat The thief was hiding himself behind the door
Celabatur id omne a me All this was being hidden from me
23.3.3 Second Conjugation Example: teneo I hold

Present Stem tene-
Tense-marker -ba-
Personal endings as above

Imperfect Active: tenebamus tenebas tenebat tenebati tenebant
Imperfect Passive: tenebar tenebaris tenebatur tenebamus tenebantur

23.3.4 Third Conjugation A Example: duco I lead

Present Stem: duc-
Linking vowel -e-
Tense-marker: -ba-
Personal endings as above

Imperfect Active: duciebam duciebas duciebat duciebamus duciebatis duciebant
Imperfect Passive: duciebar duciebaris duciebatur duciebamur duciebantur

Third Conjugation B Example: capio I take, catch, capture

Present Stem: capi-
Linking vowel -e-
Tense-marker: -ba-
Personal endings as above

Imperfect Active: capiebam capiebas capiebat capiebamus capiebatis capiebant
Imperfect Passive: capiebar capiebaris capiebatur capiebantur

Fourth Conjugation Example: audio I hear

Present Stem: audi-
Linking vowel -e-
Tense-marker: -ba-
Personal endings as above

Imperfect Active: audiebam audiebas audiebat audiebamus audiebatis audiebant
Imperfect Passive: audiebar audiebaris audiebatur audiebamur audiebantur

Notice in the Third (B) and Fourth conjugations the sequence of vowels –IE- throughout.

Note The Imperfect of the Fourth Conjugation, in older Latin and in poetry, sometimes ends in -ibam -ibas -ibat rather than -iebam -iebas -iebat.

23.3.5 There are only two exceptions to the rule that the Imperfect is formed with the tense-marker -BA-. These are our old friends (well, they should be old friends by now) sum and possum, which insist on RA instead:

Imperfect of sum:

<p>| | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eram</td>
<td>I was</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eras</td>
<td>you were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erat</td>
<td>he, she, it was</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eramus</td>
<td>we were</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eratis</td>
<td>you were</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
erant  they were

*Note* The same pattern holds for compounds of *sum*:

**adsum** I am there, I am present

aderam
aderas
aderat
aderamus
aderatis
aderant

(similarly *ineram*, *aberam*, etc.)

23.3.6 The difference between *eram* and the Perfect *fui*, which also means ‘was, were’, can be illustrated thus:

*Consul eram cum hoc accidit*  I was consul when this happened  
*Consul fui abhinc decem annis, sed numquam postea*  I was consul 10 years ago, but never after that

The Imperfect emphasises that the state of affairs in question was still continuing when something else happened. The Perfect emphasises that it *no longer continues now*.

Both forms are equally common and should be kept firmly in the mind.

23.3.7 The Imperfect of *possus* (itself originally a compound of *sum*) is simply the imperfect of *sum*, *eram eras erat* etc., with *pot-* added at the beginning:

**poteram**  I could, I was able  
**poteras**  
**poterat**  
**poteramus**  
**poteratis**  
**poterant**

*Note* In the spoken language, it seems, even these imperfects ultimately gave way to the general trend and acquired a *b*, which (e.g.) appears in modern Italian as *v*: *eravamo* we were, *poteva* he could, etc. But in the classical language they remain resolutely exceptional, and some effort must be devoted to remembering them.

23.3.8 There are no surprises among the other irregular verbs. Guess which verbs the following forms come from:

**ibam**  
**ferebam**  
**volebam**  
**nolebam**  
**malebam**  
**fiebam**
Practice

(a) Give the meaning of the following Imperfects, using the dictionary where necessary. Remember that verbs with passive form may be deponent.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>videbat</td>
<td>had to see</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adibant</td>
<td>had to keep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>laudabamini</td>
<td>had to praise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiebatis</td>
<td>had to hear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retinebar</td>
<td>had to hold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tuebatur</td>
<td>had to kill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prohibebam</td>
<td>had to prevent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adibant</td>
<td>had to keep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiebatis</td>
<td>had to hear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retinebar</td>
<td>had to hold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tuebatur</td>
<td>had to kill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prohibebam</td>
<td>had to prevent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiebatis</td>
<td>had to hear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retinebar</td>
<td>had to hold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tuebatur</td>
<td>had to kill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prohibebam</td>
<td>had to prevent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adibant</td>
<td>had to keep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiebatis</td>
<td>had to hear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retinebar</td>
<td>had to hold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tuebatur</td>
<td>had to kill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prohibebam</td>
<td>had to prevent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audiebatis</td>
<td>had to hear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>retinebar</td>
<td>had to hold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tuebatur</td>
<td>had to kill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prohibebam</td>
<td>had to prevent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) Give the meaning of the following forms, many but not all of which are verbs in the Imperfect:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>verebamur</td>
<td>had to strike</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capiebatis</td>
<td>had to write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pariebant</td>
<td>had to ridge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delebant</td>
<td>had to clot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scribamus</td>
<td>had to write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scribamus</td>
<td>had to write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potamus</td>
<td>had to forge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibam</td>
<td>had to drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>delebant</td>
<td>had to clot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scribamus</td>
<td>had to write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>scribamus</td>
<td>had to write</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>potamus</td>
<td>had to forge</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibam</td>
<td>had to drink</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

23.4 ‘Spring had already arrived …’ The Pluperfect

23.4.1 The Pluperfect Active of all active verbs is formed from the Perfect Stem, with the tense-marker -ERA- plus the same personal endings as for the Imperfect.

The endings of the Pluperfect are therefore:

1 sing. 2 sing. 3 sing. 1 plur. 2 plur. 3 plur.
-ERA- -ERA-S -ERA-T -ERA-MUS -ERA-TIS -ERA-N

So, e.g., ‘I had hidden’ is celav-era-m celaveram
‘you had seen’ is vid-era-s videras
‘we had taken’ is cep-era-mus ceperamus
‘they had warned’ is monu-era-nt monuerant
‘you (pl.) had not wanted’ is nolu-era-tis nolueratis

and so on – the same principle for any verb you care to mention. This tense is among the easiest to recognise.

23.4.2 To analyse a Pluperfect form: take off the tense-marker plus personal ending; this will give you the Perfect Stem. Then substitute the First Person Perfect ending -i to give the third principal part of the verb, which you can then trace back to the dictionary form using the principles set out in Unit 18.

Example: prostraveramus

Step 1: recognise that this is a Pluperfect from the tense-marker -era-.
Step 2: take off the ending to give the perfect stem prostrav-.
Step 3: add i to give prostravi.
Step 4: use reverse index to find dictionary form prosterno.
Step 5: look up prosterno in the dictionary to get the basic meaning of the verb ‘fling headlong, lay out flat’ (and check that its third principal part is prostravi)
Step 6: add to the basic meaning of the verb the meaning of the tense-marker ‘had’ and the personal ending ‘we’ to give the meaning of the whole form: ‘we had flung headlong’.

23.4.3 In the first and fourth conjugations, contracted forms of the Pluperfect are often found, in which -aver- contracts to -ar- and -iver- contracts to -ier- throughout the tense. So we
have laudaram for laudaveram and audierat for audiverat. In eo ire and its compounds, the forms without v are the most common: ieram ieras ierat etc.

So also noveram ‘I had got to know, I knew’ (equivalent in meaning to an Imperfect) contracts to noram noras norat noramus noratis norant; deleveram to deleram, etc.

Norat Fabricius Curium Fabricius knew Curius

---

**Practice**

Trace the following Pluperfect forms to their parent verb and give the meaning. N.B. some of them are contracted.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>viderat</th>
<th>audieram</th>
<th>adieram</th>
<th>scripseram</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>potuerat</td>
<td>potaverant</td>
<td>potarat</td>
<td>petiverat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volueramus</td>
<td>volveramus</td>
<td>deserueramus</td>
<td>disserueramus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ierat</td>
<td>fuerat</td>
<td>fugerat</td>
<td>abiverant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adiuveramus</td>
<td>audiverat</td>
<td>laudarant</td>
<td>deleveras</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tuleratis</td>
<td>toleraveratis</td>
<td>noramus</td>
<td>cognoveratis</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

---

**PLUPERFECT PASSIVE AND DEPONENT**

23.4.4 The Pluperfect Passive and Deponent is simply the Past Participle plus the Imperfect of sum (i.e. eram eras erat eramus eratis erant). The Imperfect of sum has its usual meaning of ‘I was’, ‘you were’, etc.; and the participle, as in the Perfect Passive, means ‘in a state of having been seen/killed/done etc.’. As in the Perfect Passive, the participle has to take the appropriate form for the gender and number of the subject.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>visus eram</th>
<th>occisa erat</th>
<th>decepti eramus</th>
<th>omnia haec facta erant</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I had been seen</td>
<td>she had been killed</td>
<td>we had been deceived</td>
<td>all these things had been done</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Iam occisus erat Caesar cum advenit Cicero Caesar had already been killed when Cicero arrived.

Deponents (and semi-deponents):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>progressus eram</th>
<th>conati eratis</th>
<th>ausi eramus</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>I had advanced</td>
<td>you had tried</td>
<td>we had dared</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**USE OF THE PLUPERFECT**

23.4.5 Latin is much more pedantic than English about the use of the Pluperfect. In a sentence such as ‘He did as his commander ordered’, a Roman would be aware of the fact that the order preceded the action, and would say ‘He did as his commander had ordered’: Fecit ut imperator iussrerat. To say ut iussit would have implied ‘at the very moment when the order was given’.

If the main verb of the sentence is Imperfect, referring to a repeated or habitual action or event, any Pluperfect in the sentence will also refer to a repeated action (taking place before the action of the main verb on each relevant occasion). We say ‘whenever he came to Rome
he used to go to the baths’; Latin would say *quotiens* (as often as) *Romam venerat, ad balnea ibat*, ‘whenever he *had* come to Rome he used to go to the baths’. *Quotiens veniebat* would imply ‘whenever he *was on his way to Rome*’.

*Si rosam viderat, incipere ver arbitrabatur* If he saw a rose, he thought spring was beginning (lit. *If ever he had caught sight of* a rose, he used to think spring was beginning) – this is Cicero’s comment on Verres who was somewhat nocturnal in his habits, and only knew it was spring because garlands of roses appeared at his parties.

---

**Reading exercise**

You can now make an attempt, with the help of your trusty dictionary and the notes below, to translate Catullus’ famous poem on the death of Lesbia’s sparrow:

```
Lugete, o Veneres Cupidinesque,
et quantum est hominum venustiorum!
Passer mortuus est meae puellae,
passer, deliciae meae puellae,
quem plus illa oculis suis amabat;
nam mellitus erat, suamque norat
ipsam, tam bene quam puella matrem,
lec se a gremio illius movebat,
se circumsiliens modo huc, modo illuc,
ad solam dominam usque pipiabat;
qui nunc iter tenebricosum
illud, unde negant redire quemquam.
At vobis male sit, malae tenebrae
Orci, quae omnia bella devoratis!
Tam bellum mihi passerem abstulistis.
Vae factum male! vae miselle passer!
Tua nunc opera meae puellae
flendo turgiduli rubent ocelli.
```

*Venus* -eris Venus, and *Cupido* -inis Cupid; here thought of as occurring in a plurality of manifestations.

*quantum est hominum venustiorum* lit. however much there is of nicer people, i.e. anyone of the nicer sort (*venustus* is derived from *Venus*)

*quam* whom

*plus oculis suis* more than her own eyes, i.e. very much indeed.

*ipsam* *ipse* or *ipsa* was used to mean ‘master’ or ‘mistress’, cf. Anglo-Irish or Scottish use of ‘Himself’ to mean ‘the master’.

*sese* emphatic form of *se*

*modo huc, modo illuc* now here, now there

*usque* all the time, continually. Often in phrase *usque ad ...* all the way to ... .

*qui* who (referring again to the sparrow).

*quemquam* acc. of *quisquam* anybody

*quaeho* which (referring to the *tenebrae* *Orci* darkness of Hades)

*mihi* lit. for me: ‘taken away for me’ = taken away from me

*vael* alas! (mock-grandiose)

*opera* distinguish *opera* fem. 1st decl. from the plural of *opus*. *Tua opera* is ablative: ‘by your efforts’.

*flendo* with weeping.

Note the endearing *diminutive* forms in these last few lines: *miselle, turgiduli, ocelli.*

END OF UNIT 23
UNIT 24

24.1 Who? which? what?

24.1.1 Near the beginning of the course we encountered the word quis? ‘who?’ and in due course learned its declined forms. Let us remind ourselves of them:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Nominative</th>
<th>Accusative</th>
<th>Genitive</th>
<th>Dative</th>
<th>Ablative</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Neuter</td>
<td>quid? what?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Examples

quis est? who is it?
quid fecisti? what did you do?
 quem vidisti? who did you see?*
cuius est hic liber? whose is this book?
cui pecuniam dedisti? to whom did you give the money?
(who did you give the money to?)
a quo est hic liber scriptus? by whom was this book written?

*Note English grammarians used to insist that the accusative of ‘who?’ was ‘whom?’ – largely because the –m looks like a Latin accusative ending. In normal spoken English, however, the accusative is ‘who?’ ‘Whom?’ is used after prepositions as in ‘to whom?’ ‘by whom?’. Here we follow ordinary usage and say ‘who did you see?’ rather than ‘whom did you see?’.

24.1.2 Besides quis? ‘who’? and quid? ‘what’? there are alternative forms for the nominative masculine and nominative/accusative neuter:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>masculine</th>
<th>neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>qui</td>
<td>quod</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Whereas quis? and quid? are used on their own, qui ...? and quod ...? are used together with nouns. The English equivalent is ‘what …’ or ‘which …’ as in ‘what book is this?’, ‘which man?’

Qui homo? what man? which man?
Quod bellum? what war? which war?

Note In English, ‘which?’ is used when there is a choice from a limited number of possibilities; otherwise ‘what?’ is used. Contrast ‘what book is that?’ (unlimited number of possibilities) with ‘which book of Homer did you read?’ (choice limited to books by Homer). This distinction cannot be expressed exactly in Latin; Latin does however make a distinction between those instances where there are only two possibilities, and those in which there are more. When there are only two possibilities, the word used is uter? which of the two? e.g. Uter consul aderat? Which consul was present? (there are only two consuls at a time); uter nostrum insanus est? which of us is mad? (you or me?). Otherwise qui? is used.
24.1.3 The other case-forms of *quis* given above, *quem cuius cui* and *quo*, can also be used with nouns in the meaning ‘what …?’ or ‘which …?’. Examples:

- *quem virum vidisti?* What/which man did you see?
- *Cuius generis est illud?* Of what kind is that?
- *Cui mulieri argenteum dedisti?* To which woman did you give the money?
- *A quo oppido venisti?* From what town did you come?

When one of the above forms is found on its own, it must be translated ‘who?’ (or ‘whom?’ or ‘whose?’ as the case may be). When it is found together with a noun that agrees with it, it must be translated ‘which (noun)?’ or ‘what (noun)?’.

24.1.4 The *qu-* pronoun also has a whole set of plural forms and a set of feminine forms:

**Masculine and Neuter Plural** (referring to more than one person or thing)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>qui?</td>
<td>who? which? what?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>quos?</td>
<td>who? which? what?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>quorum?</td>
<td>of whom? of which …?</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat., abl.</td>
<td>quibus?</td>
<td>to/by whom? to/by which …?</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Feminine**

**Singular** (referring to a woman)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>quae?</td>
<td>who? (which woman?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>quam?</td>
<td>who? (ditto)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>(a) qua?</td>
<td>(by) whom? (ditto)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Plural** (referring to more than one woman)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Form</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>nom.</td>
<td>quae?</td>
<td>who? (which women?)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>quas?</td>
<td>who? (ditto)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen.</td>
<td>quarum?</td>
<td>of whom? (ditto)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note* The genitive and dative singular, and the dative and ablative plural, do not have separate feminine forms.

The same rule of usage applies as above. When these forms are found on their own, they should be translated ‘who?’ (masculine or feminine) or ‘what?’ neuter. When there is a noun agreeing with them, they should be translated ‘which (noun)?’ or ‘what (noun)?’

**Examples**

- *Qui sunt illi?* Who are they?
- *Quos vidisti?* Who (pl.) did you see?
- *A qua est hic puér nutritus?* By whom (fem.) was this boy nursed?
- *Qui libri sunt illi?* What/which books are those?
- *Quos viros elegisti?* What/which men did you choose?
- *Quam mulierem in matrimonium ducis?* What/which woman are you marrying?
24.2 Another use of ‘who’ and ‘which’: relative pronouns

24.2.1 ‘Who’ and ‘which’ in English have another use in English apart from their use in questions. They are used also as relative pronouns, as in a sentence like ‘people who live here’, ‘those things which are relevant to the question’. English also has a third relative pronoun, ‘that’, as in ‘the books that were popular at the time’. Furthermore, in English we sometimes leave out the relative pronoun altogether, using what linguists call a ‘zero’ form of the relative pronoun: ‘the things he said’ = ‘the things that he said’ or ‘the things which he said’.

24.2.2 Latin behaves almost exactly like English in this respect. It uses the qu- pronoun, meaning ‘who’ or ‘which’, as a relative pronoun as well as in questions. Examples:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>homines qui hic habitant</td>
<td>people who live here</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>res quae ad quaestionem pertinent</td>
<td>things which pertain to the question</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>libri qui tum vigeabant</td>
<td>books which were popular at that time</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bellum quod eo anno gestum est</td>
<td>the war which was fought in that year</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The masculine, feminine or neuter forms, and the singular or plural forms, are used corresponding to the gender and number of the person or thing referred to. Thus:

- **homo qui** the man who (masculine)
- **mulier quae** the woman who (feminine)
- **bellum quod** the war which (neuter)

- **homines qui** the men who (masculine plural)
- **mulieres quae** the women who (feminine plural)
- **bella quae** the wars which (neuter plural).

The distinction of gender is just like the difference in English between ‘who’ for people and ‘which’ for things – only there are three different forms qui quae quod to choose from rather than two. Qui is masculine singular or plural. Quae is feminine singular, or feminine or neuter plural. Quod is neuter singular only.

24.2.3 The Latin relative pronoun also has a complete set of case-forms.

Easiest to deal with are the Genitive and Dative.

**Cuius** is the genitive singular and means ‘of whom’ or ‘of which’ or ‘whose’. It does not vary for gender.

**Homo cuius vocem audivi** the man whose voice I heard
**Tempus cuius memoria dulcis est** The time, the memory of which is pleasant

The equivalent plural forms are **quorum** (masculine or neuter) and **quarum** (feminine). Thus:

- **hominum quorum pauci adhuc vivunt** People of whom few are still alive
- **mulierum quarum nomina nescio** Women whose names I don’t know

You have to choose on grounds of context between the English equivalents ‘whose’, ‘of whom’ and ‘of which’.
24.2.4 *Cui* is the dative singular and means ‘to whom’. Again, it does not vary for gender.

**Homo cui pecuniam dedi**  
The man *to whom* I gave the money  
(alternative English version: the man *I gave the money to*)

**Tyrannus cui servimus**  
The tyrant *to whom* we are enslaved

The plural is *quibus* (the same for all genders):

**Homines quibus congiarium datum est**  
The men *to whom* the handout was given

24.2.5 The ablative is *quo* for masculine and neuter singular, *qua* for feminine singular, and *quibus* for all genders in the plural. Examples of its use:

**Philosophus a quo haec dicta sunt**  
The philosopher *by whom* these things were said

**Mulier qua nemo pulchrior est**  
The woman *than whom* nobody is more beautiful

**Verba quibus usus est orator**  
The words *of which* the orator made use

Just as the Ablative of nouns has to be translated as ‘by’, ‘with’, ‘from’, ‘in’, ‘on’, ‘than’ etc. etc. according to context (see Unit 22), so the ablative of the relative pronoun will have to be translated as ‘by whom/which’, ‘with whom/which’, ‘from whom/which’, etc.

24.2.6 Finally, the Accusative is used when the pronoun functions as the object of a verb.

Its forms are  
**quem** (masc. sing.)  
**quam** (fem. sing.)  
**quod** (neut. sing.)  
**quos** (masc. pl.)  
**quas** (fem. pl.)  
**quae** (neut. pl.)

You will see that the accusative relative pronoun has six different forms, one for each gender, singular and plural!

Examples of its use:

- **homo quem vidi**  
  the man whom I saw; the man I saw

- **mulier quam amo**  
  the woman whom I love; the woman I love

- **bellum quod gessimus**  
  the war which we fought; the war we fought

- **hominis quos vidi**  
  the men whom I saw; the men I saw

- **mulieres quas salutavi**  
  the women whom I greeted; the women I greeted

- **verba quae dixisti**  
  the words which you spoke; the words you spoke.

*Note* that English very often omits the accusative relative pronoun altogether; it can never be omitted in Latin

Note the difference between nominative and accusative in the following:

- **homo qui vidit**  
  the man who saw

- **homo quem vidit**  
  the man (whom, that) he saw
24.2.7 Here then is the full set of forms for the relative pronoun in Latin. Feminine and neuter forms are given only where they are different from the masculine.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Singular</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nom.</td>
<td>qui</td>
<td>quod</td>
<td>quae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc.</td>
<td>quem</td>
<td>quod</td>
<td>quam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gen.</td>
<td>cuius</td>
<td>cui</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dat.</td>
<td>quodd</td>
<td>quae</td>
<td>qua</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl.</td>
<td>qui</td>
<td>quae</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| **Plural** |           |       |          |
| Nom.   | qui       | quae  | quae     |
| Acc.   | quos      | quae  | quas     |
| Gen.   | quorums   | quae  | quarum   |
| Dat./Abl. | quibus   |       |          |

We have in fact already come across some of the above forms before in their use as relative pronouns. Remember the sparrow poem from the last Unit? The sparrow is dead *quem* she loved more than her own eyes: ‘whom/which she loved … ’; *qui* is now going along the murky road from where nobody returns: ‘who is now going … ’; the dark shades of Hell *quae* devour all pretty things: ‘which devour … ’.

---

**Practice**

All the phrases below are of the form ‘the X who/which/that … ’.

Give the meaning of:
*homo qui libros vendit*
*mulier quam amo*
*liber quem scripsit Homerus*
*mulier cui pecuniam dedi*
*vir cuius nasus fractus est*
*gladius quem manu teneo*
*vir qui consul est*
*bellum quod gerimus*
*leo qui in arena pugnat*
*lupa quae Romulum et Remum nutrivit*
*leones quos video*
*vir qui Caesarem occiderunt*
*pecunia quam tibi do*
*philosophus cuius libros lego*
*poeta cuius nomen numquam audivi*
*amicus cui confido*
*amica a qua desertus sum*
*gladius quo occisus est Caesar*
24.3 More about relatives

CORRELATION

24.3.1 The relative pronoun is often linked to a form of *is* he, she, it. Phrases like ‘he who’ and ‘she who’ are pretty archaic in English, and ‘it that’ is not English at all. Hence we need to translate *is qui* as ‘the man who/that’, *ea quae* as ‘the woman who/that’, and *id quod* as ‘the thing which/that’, or more conveniently just ‘what’.

*Examples*

*Is qui hoc fecit* The man who did this  
*Is quem vidi* The man that I saw  
*Ea quam amo* The woman that I love  
*Id quod cogito* The thing which I am thinking about; What I am thinking about

*Note* Compare French *ce qui / ce que*.

24.3.2 Word order is variable in sentences of this kind. The *is* and the *qui* don’t always have to come together. Often the *is* comes at the beginning and the relative clause is left until the end:

*Id me commovet quod tu dixisti* lit. That worries me which you said. In idiomatic English we have to turn it round and say: *What worries me is* what you said.

*Eos occidit quos imperator iusserat* lit. Those he killed whom the general had ordered; i.e. he killed those that the general ordered him to kill; the ones he killed were those the general ordered him to kill.

There is also another possible pattern, where the relative clause comes first, and is picked up by a demonstrative immediately afterwards:

*Quod tu dixisti, id me commovet* As for what you said, it is *that* which worries me.  
*Qui milites bene pugnaverunt, ei laudati sunt* lit. Which soldiers fought well, those were praised; i.e. Those soldiers who fought well were praised.

USE OF RELATIVES WITH FIRST AND SECOND PERSON VERBS

24.3.3 If a relative pronoun is linked to a first-person or second-person personal pronoun, i.e. *I, you, we, me, us*, the relative clause itself must have a first- or second-person verb as the case may be. In this respect, formally correct English tends to follow the Latin rule, while colloquial English may not. In everyday conversation we may well say ‘It’s me that’s doing it’ but if we wanted to be very formal we would say *It is I who am doing it*. Even then, however, we should not be going quite as far as Latin, which insists on *It am I who am doing it*: *Ego sum qui id facio*.

*Nos qui in periculo sumus adiuvare debetis* You ought to help us who are in danger  
*Pater noster qui es in caelis* Our father who art in heaven
Vos qui rem publicam salvam vultis, venite mecum! You who want the republic to be safe, come with me!

24.4 IDEM ‘the same’

24.4.1 The pronoun idem means ‘the same (man, woman, thing)’. It is declined as though it were is with the letters dem tacked on to the end, but the addition of -dem sometimes causes sound-changes: the final s of is (but not of the other case-forms) is lost, the d of id is lost, and final m changes to n before the d. The masc. plural is generally idem (with long i) rather than eidem; it is never spelt *iidem.

Here is the declension in full:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masc.</th>
<th>Fem.</th>
<th>Neuter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Singular nom.</td>
<td>idem</td>
<td>eadem</td>
<td>idem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>eundem</td>
<td>eandem</td>
<td>idem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen. all genders</td>
<td>eiusdem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat. all genders</td>
<td>eidem</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl.</td>
<td>eidem</td>
<td>eadem</td>
<td>eodem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Plural nom.</td>
<td>idem</td>
<td>eaedem</td>
<td>eadem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>acc.</td>
<td>eosdem</td>
<td>easdem</td>
<td>eadem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen. dat.abl. all genders</td>
<td>eorundem</td>
<td>eorundem</td>
<td>eorundem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

24.4.2 In English we say ‘the same as’. In Latin one says either idem qui the same man who ... , or idem ac (idem atque) lit. the same man and ...

Eosdem libros ego legi quos ille legit I have read the same books as (which) he has read
Idem sentio quod ille sentit I think the same as he thinks

or

Eosdem libros ego legi atque ille legit I have read the same books as he has read (I and he have read the same books).
Idem sentio atque ille I think the same as he does (I and he think the same thing)
The freedom of word order discussed above applies also here:

Quos libros ego probavi, eosdem tu probavisti As for the books I approved of, you approved of the same ones: You approved of the same books as I did.

If you need to move on quickly, you can now go straight to the Exercise at the end of this Unit.

24.5 Yet another use of the QU- pronoun: ‘If any …’

24.5.1 Si quis means ‘if anyone’; si quid means ‘if anything’; si cui means ‘if to anyone’, i.e. ‘if there is anyone to whom …’, and so on. This is what is called the indefinite use of the QU-pronoun.

Si quis nescit amare, discat a me If anyone doesn’t know how to love, let him learn from me
Si quid habes dicere, nunc responde If you have anything to say, answer now
Si cuius dentes excussi sunt If anyone’s teeth have been knocked out …
24.5.2 The indefinite use of *quis* etc. is commonest with *si* but is found also in other contexts; examples:

**Num quid vis?** Do you want anything?  
(num quid often written as one word numquid)

**Ne quis senato fir novo curiam ostendat** Let nobody (let not anybody) point out the senate house to a new senator (a graffito seen after Caesar had enrolled a large number of provincials in the Senate)

**Quanto quis clarior est ...** The more famous anyone is ...

24.5.3 In the indefinite use, the choice of forms follows the principle in 24.1.2, i.e. *quis* and *quid* are used on their own, meaning ‘anyone’ and ‘anything’ respectively, while *qui* and *quod* are used with nouns and mean ‘any’:

- *si qui hostis venit* is any enemy is coming  
- *si quod officium habes* if you have any obligation

24.5.4 In the feminine singular and neuter plural, besides *quae*, there is a special alternative form *qua* for the indefinite use only:

- *si qua manent sceleris vestigia nostri* if any traces of our sin remain

24.5.5 Other words for ‘someone’, ‘something’, ‘anyone’, ‘anything’. They are all compounds of *quis* or *qui*.

- *aliquis* someone, anyone; *aliquid* something, anything  
- *quidam* someone (in particular); *quiddam* or *quoddam* something (in particular)  
- *nescioquis* someone or other (lit. I don’t know who); *nescioquid* something or other  
- *quivis* anyone you like; *quidvis* or *quodvis* anything you like  
- *quilibet* anyone you choose; *quidlibet* or *quodlibet* anything you choose  
- *ecquis?* is there anyone who...?

In all of these the *quis* or *qui* declines as normal, regardless of whether it comes first or second; so ‘of someone’ is *alicuius*, ‘of anyone you like’ is *cuiusvis*; and so on.

24.6 Any wine left? Anything new?

24.6.1 Neuter QU- pronouns are used with nouns and adjectives as in English phrases like ‘some wine’, ‘any food’, ‘something good’, ‘anything bad’, ‘is there anything left?’, ‘what’s new?’. The peculiarity of Latin is that the noun or adjective goes into the Genitive. This is a kind of Partitive Genitive (see Unit 22); literally one would have to translate it as e.g. ‘anything of wine?’

- *Aliquid vini* some wine  
- *Si quid cibi habes* If you have any food  
- *Aliquid boni* Something good  
- *Nescioquid mali* Some bad thing or other  
- *Num quid reliqui est?* Is there anything left?  
- *Quid novi?* What’s new?
24.6.2 The same applies to the words **plus** ‘more’ and **minus** ‘less’:

- **Plus cibi** more food (lit. more of food)
- **Minus voluptatis** less pleasure
- **Plus in ea oratione dignitatis quam fidei erat** In that speech there was more dignity than credibility.

Note how, in the last example, **plus** is separated from the genitive. Such separations are not unusual:

**Quid est in his rebus cunctationi loci?** What place is there for hesitation in these matters?

### 24.7 Ambiguities involving forms of QUI

24.7.1 Note the following words which are identical with forms of **quis/qui** but have other meanings.

**QUO**
- quo to where? *relative:* to the place where ...
- quo in *non quo* … not that, not because.

**QUA**
- qua by what route? by what method? *relative:* by the route that ..., etc.

**QUAM**
- quam ‘how’ *with adjectives,* e.g. **quam bonus**? how good? **quam fortis ille est!** how brave he is!
- quam ‘as’: **tam pulcher est ille quam tu** he is just as handsome as you
- quam ‘than’ *after comparatives:* **pulchrior est ille quam tu** he is handsomer than you
- quam *with superlatives* short for **quam ... potest: quam celerrime = quam potest celerrime** as quickly as possible.

**QUID?**
- quid? why? for what reason? (generally belongs to high style; ordinary Latin says *cur?* or *quare?*)

**QUOD**
- quod because (= **quia**); that..., the fact that ..., as for the fact that...
  - Note also **quod si** which unexpectedly means ‘but if’.

The above may seem excessively confusing. But it’s not much worse than all the different uses of ‘what’ and ‘that’ in English, as in **what is it?** **what a good idea!** **what for?** *that’s what I said, that is mine,* **that dog,** the one *that I have in mind,* I said that it was raining, *in order that ...*, so *that ...*, so *big that ...*, I told him *that that was my name.* Gradually you will get used to these Latin words and the different contexts in which they occur.
**Exercise**

on Units 23 and 24 (Imperfects, Pluperfects and Relatives)

Translate:

Catilina contra rem publicam coniurabat.
Catilina, qui coniurationem duxit, nobili genere natus erat.
Catilina amicos suos, qui cum eo erant, appellabat et hortabatur.
Magna praemia eis, qui eum sequebantur, promittebat.
Deinde omnes, qui maximae audaciae erant, in unum convocat.
Gaium Manlium, qui exercitum ducebat, in Etruriam misit.
Interea Romae multa simul moliebatur: consulibus insidias tendebat, incendia parabat, opportuna loca armatis hominibus obsidebat.
Cicero, qui consul tum erat, tandem coniurationem patefecit.
Orationem habuit in senatu, qua Catilinam eicit.
Orationem hanc, quam postea edidit, etiam nunc legere possumus.
Deinde socios Catilinae in carcerem, qui erat sub Capitolio, deduxit.
Catilina, ex copiis quas ipse adduxerat et Manlius habuerat, duas legiones instituit.
Antonius, cui Cicero exercitum dederat, mox advenit.
Catilina, cuius exercitus montibus et copiis hostium clausus erat, proelium committere constituit.
Catilina in proelio cecidit; Antonius, qui vicerat, Romam rediit.

END OF UNIT 24
UNIT 25

25.1 What will be, will be … The Future Tense

25.1.1 Look at the following extracts from Jupiter’s speech to Venus in *Aeneid* I, where he prophesies the foundation of Rome; and pay particular attention to the underlined verb-forms. The extracts are set out clause by clause, rather than line by line, to make them easier to follow.

First the destiny of Aeneas himself is foretold:

Bellum ingens *geret* Italia,
populosque feroces *contundet*,
moresque viris et moenia *ponet*.

*He will fight a great war in Italy,*
*and he will beat down the fierce peoples,*
*and he will establish order and defences for their men.*

Then Jupiter turns to Aeneas’ son Ascanius:

At puer Ascanius …
… *regnum ab sede Lavini transferet,*
et Longam multa vi *muniet* Albam.

*But the boy Ascanius …*
… *will transplant the kingdom from the site of Lavinium,*
*and will fortify Alba Longa with great strength.*

Finally Rome itself will be founded:

Romulus *excipiet* gentem,
et Mavortia *condet* moenia,
Romanosque suo de nomine *dicet*.

*Romulus will receive (command of) the nation,*
*and will found the city walls of Mars (i.e. of Rome),*
*and will call the Romans after his own name.*

All the verbs in the above extracts refer to events which still lie in the future at the time when the statement is made. They are in the **Future Tense**, which corresponds to our formation with ‘shall’ or ‘will’.

25.1.2 You will have noticed that all the verbs in the above passages end in –*ET*. This ending (in the 3rd person singular) is the sign of the Future Tense in the Third and Fourth Conjugations, to which all those verbs happen to belong; and is therefore the most common Future ending. Some irregular verbs also have it (*volo* and its compounds, and *fero, fio*). Observe:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Future Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gero (3) wage (war)</td>
<td>geret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>contudo (3) beat down</td>
<td>contundet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pono (3) place, lay down, establish</td>
<td>ponet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>transfero (3 irreg.) transfer</td>
<td>transferet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>munio (4) fortify</td>
<td>muniet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>excipio (3 B) receive</td>
<td>excipiet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>condo (3) found</td>
<td>condet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dico (3) say</td>
<td>dicet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volo (irregular) want</td>
<td>volet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fero (irregular) carry, bring, bear</td>
<td>feret</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fio (irregular) happen, become, be done</td>
<td>fiet</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
25.1.3 Now recall what you already know about the behaviour of verbs in these conjugations – again we shall confine ourselves for the moment to the Third Person Singular.

The 3 sing. form of the **Present Indicative** ends in **–IT**

- *bellum gerit* he wages war
- *ponit* he places
- *munit* he fortifies
- *excipit* he receives

The 3 sing. form of the **Subjunctive** ends in **–AT**

- *bellum gerat* may he wage war
- *ponat* may he place
- *muniat* may he fortify
- *excipiat* may he receive

Now we add a third tense, the Future, whose 3 sing. form ends in **–ET**:

- *bellum geret* he **will** wage war
- *ponet* he **will** place
- *muniet* he **will** fortify
- *excipiet* he **will** receive.

In these conjugations, the difference between the three tenses is marked only by the change of vowel in the ending. It is therefore important to look carefully at the vowel before deciding how to translate the verb:

- **Fit** – it happens. **Fiat** – let it happen! **Fiet** – it **will** happen.
- **Facit** – he does it. **Faciat** – let him do it! **Faciet** – he **will** do it.

25.1.4 The same rule goes for the other persons of the verb (all except one: we shall come to this shortly). The endings contain **I** (or, in the 3rd plural, **U**) for the present; **A** for the subjunctive; **E** for the future. The personal endings themselves follow the same pattern throughout.

The same rule also operates in the passive (including, of course, deponents). In the third conjugation, the second person singular of the **present** passive has the vowel **e** as well: you will (or should) remember by now that the 2 sing. present passive/deponent ending in the third conjugation is **–ERIS**. The difference is that in the present the **e** is **short** (and unstressed), while in the future it is **long** (and stressed).
25.1.5 In the Third (B) and Fourth conjugations the stem-vowel I is kept throughout before the Future endings, just as in the Subjunctive:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Present</th>
<th>Subjunctive</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dicis</td>
<td>dicas</td>
<td>dices</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dicimus</td>
<td>dicamus</td>
<td>dicemus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dicitis</td>
<td>dicatis</td>
<td>dicetis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dicunt</td>
<td>dicant</td>
<td>dicent</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Passive (selected forms):

- occidēris you are being killed
- occiditūr he is being killed
- occiduntūr they are being killed

Deponent:

- utēris you use
- utilūr he uses
- utimūr we use
- utimini you use (pl.)
- utuntūr they use

- occidaris may you be killed
- occidatūr let him be killed
- occidentūr they will be killed

- utēris you will use
- utetūr he will use
- utemūr we will use
- utemini you will use
- utentūr they will use

25.1.6 So far it is all as regular as can be, though it can require some mental effort to remember to apply the rule about the vowels. As a matter of fact, distinguishing Future from Subjunctive is one of the areas where even professional translators and commentators slip up from time to time, so it is no matter for shame if you sometimes get it wrong! Often the context will help you to decide whether the verb in front of you is expressing a wish or stating a future fact; there can of course sometimes be a significant difference (e.g. the fact that I wish for my enemy to be killed does not necessarily mean that he will be).

You will notice, however, that there are no First Person Singular forms in the above table. This is because the First Person Singular is an awkward exception to the rule about vowels. For some reason which is lost in the mists of time, Latin speakers seem to have felt no
compelling need to distinguish between Subjunctive and Future in the First Person, and the Subjunctive form ending in –am was used for both. There is no separate Future form.

Note We modern English speakers can’t really complain at this. Originally we had two clearly differentiated forms at our disposal: ‘I shall do’, for the Future, and ‘I will do’, which originally meant ‘I want to do’, i.e. expressing a wish or desire, rather like the Latin Subjunctive. But nowadays we mix them up recklessly, at least in ordinary speech. (Do you feel that there is still a difference between ‘I shall drown’, i.e. it is inevitable, and ‘I will drown’, i.e. I am determined?)

Consequently, only the context can be used to narrow down the meaning of the First Person Singular forms as between Subjunctive and Future, e.g.:

- dicam may I say OR I shall say
- occidam may I kill OR I shall kill
- occidar may I be killed OR I shall be killed
- utar may I use OR I shall use

25.1.7 Hence, when the Future Tense is set out in grammar books it appears with A in the First Person Singular ending, and E in the rest of the personal forms, like this:

### 3rd conjugation A: *duco* I lead

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 sing.</td>
<td>duc-am</td>
<td>duc-ar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 sing.</td>
<td>duc-es</td>
<td>duc-eris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 sing.</td>
<td>duc-et</td>
<td>duc-etur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 pl.</td>
<td>duc-emus</td>
<td>duc-emur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 pl.</td>
<td>duc-etis</td>
<td>duc-eminii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 pl.</td>
<td>duc-ent</td>
<td>duc-entur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3rd conjugation B: *capio* I take, capture

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 sing.</td>
<td>capi-am</td>
<td>capi-ar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 sing.</td>
<td>capi-es</td>
<td>capi-eris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 sing.</td>
<td>capi-et</td>
<td>capi-etur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 pl.</td>
<td>capi-emus</td>
<td>capi-emur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 pl.</td>
<td>capi-etis</td>
<td>capi-eminii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 pl.</td>
<td>capi-ent</td>
<td>capi-entur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 4th conjugation: *audio* I hear

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Active</th>
<th>Passive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 sing.</td>
<td>audi-am</td>
<td>audi-ar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 sing.</td>
<td>audi-es</td>
<td>audi-eris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 sing.</td>
<td>audi-et</td>
<td>audi-etur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 pl.</td>
<td>audi-emus</td>
<td>audi-emur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 pl.</td>
<td>audi-etis</td>
<td>audi-eminii</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 pl.</td>
<td>audi-ent</td>
<td>audi-entur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Practice

(i) Give the meaning of the following Future forms:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>dicet</th>
<th>munient</th>
<th>ducet</th>
<th>crescent</th>
<th>transferemus</th>
<th>vendetis</th>
<th>venietis</th>
<th>rapiet</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

(ii) Give the meaning of the following forms (some are Future, but not all). If there are two possible meanings, give both:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>curret</th>
<th>deducetis</th>
<th>capetis</th>
<th>capetis</th>
<th>claudemus</th>
<th>poteris</th>
<th>pateris</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

25.2 Future of the verb ‘to be’

25.2.1 The future of the verb ‘to be’ is, as usual, peculiar. It is formed with a set of endings which are identical to those of the present tense of the Third Conjugation, added to the stem er- which we have already seen in the Imperfect of ‘to be’. (This er- was originally es-, cf. es-t, es-tis, es-se; but the s changed to r between two vowels.) The forms are as follows:

1 sing. ero I shall be
2 sing. eris you will be
3 sing. erit he/she/it will be
1 pl. erimus we shall be
2 pl. eritis you will be
3 pl. erunt they will be.

25.2.2 You need to be careful to distinguish these forms from those of the Imperfect. Here they are side by side:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imperfect ‘was/were’</th>
<th>Future ‘will be’</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>eram</td>
<td>ero</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eras</td>
<td>eris</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erat</td>
<td>erit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eramus</td>
<td>erimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eratis</td>
<td>eritis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>erant</td>
<td>erunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It is worth getting this pattern firm in the mind. This is not only because the imperfect and future of ‘to be’ are both extremely common and you don’t want to get them mixed up; but also because the same kind of pattern recurs elsewhere in the Latin verb system, as we shall shortly see.

25.2.3 As we have by now come to expect, the conjugation of possum and of compounds of sum follow the pattern of sum. Hence:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pot-er-o, -is, -it, -imus, -itis, -unt</th>
<th>will be able</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ad-er-o, -is, -it, -imus, -itis, -unt</td>
<td>will be present</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>de-er-o, -is, -it, -imus, -itis, -unt</td>
<td>will be lacking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

and similarly for the other compounds.
25.3 Adding in the First and Second Conjugations

25.3.1 The First and Second Conjugations use a completely different tense-marker for the Future: the letter B (already familiar from the Imperfect), followed by the same set of endings that we have just seen used to form the Future of sum, i.e. the present-tense endings of the Third Conjugation. The endings are as follows:

- B-O
- B-IS
- B-IT
- B-IMUS
- B-ITIS
- B-UNT

These are added to the Present Stem. The complete tense therefore looks like this:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Future Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amabo</td>
<td>amabis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amabis</td>
<td>amabit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amabit</td>
<td>amabimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amabimus</td>
<td>amabitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amabitis</td>
<td>amabunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

will love

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Future Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tenebo</td>
<td>tenebis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenebis</td>
<td>tenebit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenebit</td>
<td>tenebimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenebimus</td>
<td>tenebunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

will hold

The passive/deponent follows the same pattern (substituting passive endings):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Future Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amabor</td>
<td>amaberis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amaberis</td>
<td>amabitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amabitur</td>
<td>amabimur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amabimur</td>
<td>amabimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amabimini</td>
<td>amabuntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

will be loved

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Future Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tenebor</td>
<td>teneberis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>teneberis</td>
<td>tenebitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenebitur</td>
<td>tenebimur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenebimur</td>
<td>tenebimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenebimini</td>
<td>tenebuntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

will be held

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Future Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>conabor</td>
<td>conaberis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conaberis</td>
<td>conabitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conabitur</td>
<td>conabimur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conabimur</td>
<td>conabimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>conabimini</td>
<td>conabuntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

will try

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Future Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>verebor</td>
<td>vereberis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vereberis</td>
<td>verebitur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verebitur</td>
<td>verebimur</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verebimur</td>
<td>verebimini</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>verebimini</td>
<td>verebuntur</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

will fear.

25.3.2 Unpredictably, the verb eo ‘to go’ follows the same pattern:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stem</th>
<th>Future Tense</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ibo</td>
<td>ibis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibis</td>
<td>ibit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibit</td>
<td>ibimus</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibimus</td>
<td>ibitis</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ibitis</td>
<td>ibunt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

will go.

Examples

Quocumque nos vocat fortuna, ibimus Wherever Fortune calls us, we shall go.

Medio tutissimus ibis You will go most safely in the middle (i.e. neither too high nor too low)

Note Incidentally, ibis also means an ibis, the Egyptian bird!

25.3.3 Observe – because it makes it that much easier to remember – that the endings of the Future and the Imperfect (active) in these groups of verbs bear the same relation to each other as do those of sum ‘to be’, which we looked at in section 25.2.

Here they are side by side:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Imperfect</th>
<th>Future</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-bam</td>
<td>cf.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-bas</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-bat</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-bamus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-batis</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-bant</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

aram
eras
erat
eramus
eratis
erant

- cf. eram - bis eris - bit erit - bimus erimus - bitis eritis - bunt erunt

terebit he will hold, vs. tenebat he was holding.

25.3.4 And here are the passive endings set out in the same way:
The upshot of the above is that the Future of the first and second conjugations is reasonably easy to recognise, once one has sorted out the difference between the Imperfect endings (which ALWAYS have an A) and the Future endings (which NEVER have an A). It may help you to remember this if you make a mental link between the Imperfect and the word WAS, which contains an A (like all the Imperfect endings), and between the Future and the word WILL, which contains an I (characteristic of four out of the six Future personal endings).

Now comes the catch, which you may well already have anticipated. The First and Second Conjugations also have other tenses (already introduced) whose endings contain a characteristic vowel E, like the Future of other verbs.

In the First Conjugation the **Subjunctive** has E throughout:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
amem \\
ames \\
amet \\
amemus \\
ametis \\
amet
\end{array}
\]

In the Second Conjugation the **Present Indicative** has E throughout:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
moneo \\
mones \\
monet \\
monemus \\
monetis \\
monet
\end{array}
\]

In the Third and Fourth Conjugations the **Future** has E throughout except for the 1 sing.:

\[
\begin{array}{c}
dicam \\
dices \\
dicet \\
dicemus \\
dicetis \\
dicent
\end{array}
\]

The First Person Singular endings are sufficiently different not to cause trouble (**-eo** dictionary form of 2nd conjugation; **-em** subjunctive of 1st conjugation; **-am** future – or subjunctive – of 3rd and 4th conjugations). But the endings of the other persons are identical. Telling these apart can therefore be a tricky business.

There is, however, a failsafe method of doing it, which is **always to use the dictionary to check on the conjugation the verb belongs to** whenever you find a form with E whose meaning isn’t already obvious from the context. You have already used this technique to distinguish between the Indicative and the Subjunctive in the different conjugations (**amat** indicative, but **dicat** subjunctive; **amet** subjunctive, but **monet** indicative, and so on). There is nothing different about using it in this context, except that there are now **three** possibilities to choose from according to which conjugation the verb belongs to.
Practice

(i) Identify the following forms as Present Indicative, Present Subjunctive, or Future Indicative, and give the dictionary form and meaning of the verb from which they come (if there is more than one possibility, give both):

dicet
parem
pariet
puniemur
moretur
morietur
moreris
monemus
audetis
audietis
audieris
gaudent
laudent
des
stent
paremus
putent

(ii) Identify the tense of the following forms, and the verb from which they come:

abimus
bibimus
abibimus
bibatis
abibatis
abivimus
abeamus
abeas
habeas
habebas
habebis
ibis
bibes
bibebatis
aberrabimus

(iii) Give the meaning of:

fert
ferat
ferit
feret
feriat
fiae
fiet
fuit
furit
fungut
fungatur
fungitur
fingut
fingatur
fingit
figat
figat
figet
figet
figet
figet
tulimus
tollimus
tollamus
tollemus
volumus
volamus
volabamus
volabimus
volemus
velamus
valemus
valemus
valeabmus
valeabimus
valebimus
voluimus
valuimus
volaremus

(iv) Give the meaning of:

erratis
errabatis
erretis
eritis
erravistis
eratis
erraratis
terretis
terrebatis
terrebat
terrebat
terrebat
Poterimusne vincere in hoc bello?
Certe poterimus, et quidem vincemus.

25.4 If it rains tomorrow …

25.4.1 In clauses beginning with si ‘if’, the tense of the verb is chosen according to the time actually referred to. The verb of an ‘if’-clause referring to the future must therefore go in the Future tense:

si nunc pluit (Present) if it is raining now

versus

si cras pluet (Future) if it rains tomorrow, lit. if it will rain tomorrow.

This is also the rule in modern languages derived from Latin, e.g. French (s’il pleuvra demain) and Italian. English works differently; we use the Present Continuous (‘it is raining’) to refer to the present, and the Present Simple (‘it rains’) to refer to the future.

25.4.2 Common phrases involving ‘if’ and the Future:

si potero if I can
si licebit if it’s allowed; si per te licebit if it’s OK with you
si fieri poterit if it can happen (if it is possible)
si voles if you want

Faciam si potero I’ll do it if I can
Cras, si licebit, iterum conveniemus We’ll meet again tomorrow, if that’s OK
Si voles, hanc rem pluribus verbis explicabo If you want, I’ll explain this point in more detail (lit. in more words).

Reading exercise

Let us round off this Unit as we began it, with some Virgil. Here is possibly the most famous passage of the Aeneid (6.847-53) where the spirit of Anchises (Aeneas’ father), in the underworld, prophesies the future greatness of Rome:

Excudent alii spirantia mollius aera –
credo equidem – vivos ducent de marmore vultus;
orabunt causas melius, caelique meatus
describent radio et surgentia sidera dicent:
tu regere imperio populos, Romane, memento –
hae tibi erunt artes – pacique imponere morem,
parcere subiectis, et debellare superbos.

Others will beat out more delicately breathing (i.e. lifelike) bronzes – for my part I believe it – they will draw out living faces from the marble; they will plead cases better, and map the movements of the sky with their measuring-rod, and name the rising stars: you, Roman, are to remember to rule the peoples with your imperial power – these will be your arts – and to impose order on peace (i.e. on a pacified world), to spare the defeated, and subdue the proud in war.

Your first task is to identify the future tenses in the above passage and trace them back to their parent verbs.

Then work out how the whole passage fits together. Here are some notes to help you:
spirantia neuter plural present participle ‘breathing’
aes aer- neuter 3rd decl., bronze
equidem originally just ‘indeed’, in Classical Latin normally used with a first person verb to mean ‘for my part’, ‘as far as I’m concerned’
radio Instrumental Ablative of radius measuring-rod
memento imperative (irregular) of memini, perfect-tense verb meaning ‘I remember’; hence our word ‘memento’ (souvenir).

Dictionary work
Use the dictionary to find the appropriate meanings of the following words (the dictionary forms are given here for you):

mollius < mollis
ducent < duco
causas < causa
describent < describo
dicent < dico
morem < mos mor-
subiectis < subiectus < subicio

In vocabulary lists the above words would be likely to appear with the following ‘meanings’:
mollis soft, duco lead, causa cause or reason, describo describe, dico say, mos custom, subicio throw underneath. None of these equivalents are right for this context. To find the real meaning, one has to use (a) the whole range of meanings given in the dictionary – preferably as big a dictionary as possible, with examples quoted in context, and (b) one’s sense of what is needed in the context one is looking at.

END OF UNIT 25
UNIT 26

26.1 Clauses

We have reached the stage at which we have to be more explicit about analysing the structure of sentences. We need to do this in order to understand the next few Units, where the remaining tenses of the verb will be introduced together with some of the ways in which they are used. This will greatly extend your ability to read real Latin texts.

We need first to be clear about the concept of a CLAUSE. A clause is a division of a sentence, but not just any division. To be a clause, a group of words must contain a subject (stated or implied) and a verb. Groups of words that don’t contain both these elements are called ‘phrases’.

Clauses are of two kinds: MAIN CLAUSES and SUBORDINATE (or DEPENDENT) CLAUSES.

Main clauses make sense on their own; every complete sentence contains at least one main clause. The main clause may make up the whole sentence. If a sentence contains more than one clause, there are two possibilities. Either it contains a series of parallel main clauses linked with words like ‘and’ or ‘but’, in which case the clauses are said to be co-ordinated (those words are called ‘co-ordinating conjunctions’); or else it consists of a main clause and one or more subordinate clauses, introduced by words such as ‘if’, ‘when’, ‘that’, ‘because’, ‘although’ (those words are called ‘subordinating conjunctions’). Relative clauses (which we met in unit 24), introduced by a relative pronoun, are a type of subordinate clause.

Subordinate clauses do not make complete sense on their own (unless a main clause is understood from the context). If I came up to you out of the blue and said ‘If you like’ or ‘When you have finished’ or ‘Although you are busy’ and then nothing else, your reaction would no doubt be ‘Well, what?’. You would instinctively expect that I should complete the sense of what I am saying by adding a main clause.

Examples

Sentences consisting of one main clause alone:

- It is raining
- Caesar invaded Britain
- Tomorrow we shall go on holiday

Sentences consisting of two or more co-ordinated main clauses:

- I came in AND shut the door
- He is very clever BUT he doesn’t know Latin

Sentences consisting of a main clause and a subordinate clause:

- IF the sky falls, we shall catch larks
- Come and see me again WHEN you have finished
- He is no good at Latin ALTHOUGH he is good at other things.
- I think this is a good essay BECAUSE it goes straight to the point.

Sentence where a subordinate clause is inserted into the main clause:

- The man WHO came to dinner yesterday is my uncle.
Practice

Underline the subordinate clauses in the following English sentences:

When I came home I was tired.
If I had seen you I would have been glad.
Although I don’t usually like rice pudding I have to admit that this is very nice.
I think we can go because the light is green.
What would you do if I were to resign?
After you have washed up you may go home.
Make a list of all the books which you have read.
I am explaining this so that you can understand it better.
The facts which I told you yesterday are all incorrect.

26.2 The Subjunctive in subordinate clauses

26.2.1 We have dealt so far with just one use of the Subjunctive in Latin: its use to express wishes (Unit 14). When the Subjunctive is used in this way, it forms part of a main clause. However, the Subjunctive is also very often found in subordinate clauses in Latin and we now have to see something of how this works.

Usually the function of the Subjunctive within a subordinate clause is to mark the action of the verb as aimed at or envisaged as a possibility, rather than actually being the case. What is actual is put in the Indicative; what is aimed at or envisaged is put in the Subjunctive.

26.2.2 Here are some simple examples of how this works:

(a) Hic est homo qui vobis rem explicat. This is the man who is explaining the matter to you: Indicative expressing fact.

versus

Hic est homo qui vobis rem explicet. This is the man who is to explain the matter to you: Subjunctive expressing what is envisaged. The explanation is anticipated but has not yet happened.

(b) Caesarem occidere volunt quod regnum appetit. They want to kill Caesar because he is aiming at tyranny: Indicative expressing fact.

versus

Caesarem occidere volunt quod regnum appetat. They want to kill Caesar on the ground that he aims at tyranny: Subjunctive expressing what is envisaged as the reason, an unproved allegation rather than a concrete fact.

(c) Quamquam sapiens est, hanc quaestionem solvere non potest. Although he is wise, he cannot solve this problem: Indicative expressing fact.

versus

Quamvis sit sapiens, tamen hanc quaestionem solvere non potest. However wise he may be, he still cannot solve this problem: Subjunctive expressing what is envisaged, any possible amount of wisdom and not just what he actually has.

These are sometimes quite subtle distinctions. However, the general distinction between Indicative = what actually happens and Subjunctive = what is desired or envisaged is
fundamental. If you bear it in mind in what follows, you will understand things much more easily.

26.2.3 The most important types of Subordinate clauses involving the Subjunctive in Latin are as follows:

(A) Those introduced by the conjunction **UT** ‘that’, ‘so that’, ‘in order that’.
(B) Those introduced by the conjunction **SI** ‘if’ (conditional clauses).
(C) Those introduced by the conjunction **CUM** ‘when’ and others denoting time (temporal clauses).

We shall deal with these in succession in this and the next two Units.

---

**26.3 UT clauses**

26.3.1 The conjunction **ut** originally meant ‘how’. This meaning survives in one or two fossilised phrases such as **Ut vales?** How are you?

26.3.2 In subordinate clauses, **ut** may be followed by either the Indicative or the Subjunctive. With the Indicative, it means ‘as’:

- **Est ut dicis** It is as you say.
- **Factum est ut constituimus** It was done as we decided.
- **Ut seris, sic metes** As you sow, so you shall reap.

In all these clauses, the verb of the subordinate clause refers to a fact.

26.3.3 When followed by the Subjunctive, **ut** means ‘so that’, ‘in order that’, or just ‘that’ expressing a purpose or result.

- **Hoc dico ut intellegas** I am saying this so that you understand.
  Your understanding is aimed at or envisaged as a result of my explanation.
- **Hoc agit ut doleas** He is doing it in order that you feel pain.
  Your pain is aimed at as a result of his actions.
- **Tantum cibi consumis ut pinguis fias** You consume so much food that you will become fat.
  Your becoming fat is envisaged as a result of your eating the food. You might argue here that the fatness may well be a fact; but Latin likes to lay stress on the envisaged causal connection and use the Subjunctive. **Ut fies** with the Future Indicative would have a completely different meaning: ‘as you become fat (in the future)’.

26.3.4 The above clauses are classified as ‘purpose clauses’ and ‘result clauses’ (the difference between them is that a purpose is aimed at, a result is predicted regardless of whether it is aimed at or not). Idiomatic English often expresses these ideas by means of the Infinitive with ‘to’, especially when the subject of the subordinate clause is the same as that of the main clause:

- **Hoc dicit ut populi animum confirmet** He is saying this in order that he may strengthen the morale of the people: more idiomatically, **He is saying this to strengthen the morale of the people.**
You consume enough food that you stay alive: more idiomatically, You consume enough food to stay alive.

26.3.5 While we are on this subject we should also mention the word *ne* which is used to introduce negative purpose clauses. In old-fashioned English this was translated as ‘lest’; there is no convenient one-word modern English equivalent and we have to translate it as something like ‘in order that … not’:

**Evade, ne capiaris** Escape, lest you be captured: Escape in order that you are not captured.

**Hoc dico ne obliviscaris** I am saying this lest you forget: I am saying this so that you don’t forget.

**Multa me impediunt ne hoc faciam** A lot of things are getting in my way, so that I don’t do this (a lot of things are preventing me from doing this).

Here what is aimed at is the **prevention** of the action described by the verb.

26.3.6 *Ut* and its negative equivalent *ne* are used with the Subjunctive in the meaning ‘that’ and ‘that … not’ after verbs implying asking, advising, recommending, giving orders, etc. Evidently the thing asked for, recommended, etc., is aimed at or envisaged, not a fact. These clauses are classified technically as ‘Indirect Commands’.

**Rogo ut mecum venias** I ask that you come with me; I ask you to come with me.

**Suadeo ut haec lex feratur** I recommend that this law be passed

**Moneo ut periculum vitetis** I warn you that you should avoid danger; I warn you to avoid danger

**Imperat dux ut milites progrediantur** The general gives orders that the soldiers should advance

26.4 The Imperfect Subjunctive

26.4.1 In the examples given just above, the verb of asking, commanding, advising or whatever is in the Present Tense, and the verb in the following clause is in the Present Subjunctive.

However, if the verb of asking, commanding, etc., is in a past tense (perfect, imperfect or pluperfect), a different tense is needed in the following clause. This is because of the general rule of Sequence of Tenses, which states that if the main verb of a sentence is in a past tense, all other personal verbs (i.e. verbs with personal endings, also called finite verbs; this does not apply to Infinitives) in clauses depending on it must also be in a past tense. We have this rule in English: e.g. *I say that you are to be punished* but *I said that he was to be punished.*

In Latin, there is a special tense of the Subjunctive used for this purpose, called the **IMPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE**. This tense we must now learn.

26.4.2 The Imperfect Subjunctive is very regular in formation and should be very easy to recognise. It is formed from the Present Stem plus the tense-marker –RE- and the familiar
personal endings –m –s –t –mus –tis –nt (Active); -r –ris –tur –mur –mini -ntur (Passive/Deponent). All verbs form their Imperfect Subjunctive in this way. In effect, the personal endings are added on to a stem which is identical with the Present Infinitive Active.

So:

Infinitive amare:

\[
\text{amare-m amare-s amare-t amare-mus amare-tis amare-nt}
\]

Infinitive monere:

\[
\text{monere-m monere-s monere-t monere-mus monere-tis monere-nt}
\]

Infinitive ducere:

\[
\text{ducere-m –s –t –mus –tis -nt}
\]

Infinitive capere:

\[
\text{capere-m –s –t –mus –tis -nt}
\]

Infinitive audire:

\[
\text{audire-m –s –t –mus –tis -nt}
\]

For the Passive, substitute the Passive endings:

\[
\text{amare-r amare-ris amare-tur amare-mur amare-mini amare-ntur}
\]

\[
\text{monere-r -ris -tur -mur -mini -ntur}
\]

\[
\text{ducere-r –ris –tur –mur –mini -ntur}
\]

\[
\text{capere-r –ris –tur –mur –mini -ntur}
\]

\[
\text{audire-r –ris –tur –mur –mini -ntur}
\]

26.4.3 Only one verb departs slightly from the above pattern: this is fio which has Imperfect Subjunctive fierem –s –t –mus –tis –nt formed on the stem fiere-, whereas the Infinitive is fieri.

The other irregular verbs follow the pattern exactly:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Infinitive</th>
<th>Imperfect Subjunctive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sum</td>
<td>esse</td>
<td>essem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>possum</td>
<td>posse</td>
<td>possem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eo</td>
<td>ire</td>
<td>irem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fero</td>
<td>ferre</td>
<td>ferrem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>volo</td>
<td>velle</td>
<td>vellem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nolo</td>
<td>nolle</td>
<td>nollem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>malo</td>
<td>malle</td>
<td>mallem</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

26.4.4 Deponents of course don’t have a Present Infinitive Active; but they follow exactly the same pattern as the Passives:

(conor) conare-r –ris –tur –mur –mini –ntur
(tueor) tuere-r –ris –tur –mur –mini –ntur
(utor) utere-r –ris –tur –mur –mini –ntur
(patior) patere-r –ris –tur –mur –mini –ntur
Don’t be put off by the large number of \( r \) sounds in some of these forms! They are all perfectly regular and submit to patient analysis, e.g. \textit{terrereris} ‘you might be frightened’: \textit{terre-} 2nd conjugation stem; \textit{-re-} marker of Imperfect Subjunctive; \textit{-ris} 2nd person singular Passive ending.

26.4.5 In the First Conjugation there is a risk of confusion between the Imperfect Subjunctive and some of the contracted perfect-stem forms. Distinguish between:

- \textit{amarent} Imperfect Subjunctive
- \textit{amarunt} contracted from \textit{amaverunt}. Perfect Indicative
- \textit{amarant} contracted from \textit{amaverant} Pluperfect Indicative.

This difficulty should not occur in the other conjugations.

26.5 The Imperfect Subjunctive in context

26.5.1 Here now are some examples of the Imperfect Subjunctive in subordinate clauses after a past-tense main verb:

- \textit{hoc dixi ut intellegeres} I said this so that you would understand
- \textit{hoc dixit ut populi animos confirmaret} he said this so that he might strengthen the morale of the people
- \textit{satis cibi consumpsit ut maneret in vita} he consumed enough food to stay alive
- \textit{rogavi ut mecum veniress} I asked that you should come with me
- \textit{monui ut bellum averteretur} I advised that war should be averted
- \textit{illum hortatus sum ut laboraret} I encouraged him that he should work: I encouraged him to work
- \textit{imperavit Caesar ut frumenta militibus pararentur} Caesar ordered that corn rations should be got ready for the soldiers
- \textit{rogavit ne hic labor sibi imponeretur} he asked that this task should not be imposed on him
- \textit{arcessivimus hominem qui eam rem nobis explicaret} we sent for a man who was to explain the matter to us
- \textit{Caesarem occidere volebant quod regnum appeteret} they wanted to kill Caesar on the ground that he aimed at tyranny.

COUNTERFACTUAL WISHES

26.5.2 We have already seen how the Present Subjunctive can be used to make a wish: \textit{Vivat regina!} Long live the Queen! (The negative, you remember, is expressed by \textit{ne}.) The Present Subjunctive expresses a wish for the \textit{future}: a wish for something that is still possible in theory (whether or not it actually happens in the end).

The Imperfect Subjunctive is used to express a different kind of wish: a wish \textit{that things might be otherwise than they in fact are}. Such a wish is usually introduced by \textit{utinam} or \textit{o si} ‘if only’, or \textit{vellem} (itself Imperfect Subjunctive of \textit{volo}) I wish … .

- \textit{Utinam venieres} I wish you were coming (but you’re not)
- \textit{O si adhuc viveret!} If only he were still alive! (but he is dead)
- \textit{Vellem illa hic adesset} I wish she were here (but she is far away).

These may be called ‘counterfactual’ wishes (against the facts).
Reading exercise

You can now read the Creation story from the Latin Bible. Look out for the subjunctives! (And of course the other tenses).


*Note* vidit Deus lucem quod esset bona ‘God saw the light, that it was good’: the subjunctive *esset* here is used because the goodness of the light is perceived by God, not stated independently as a fact. This construction probably would not have been used by a classical author in this context: one would expect *vidit bonam esse lucem.*


Dixit vero Deus: Congregentur aquae quae sub caelo sunt, in locum unum: et appareat arida. Et factum est ita. Et vocavit Deus aridam Terram, congregationesque aquarum appellavit Maria. Et vidit Deus quod esset bonum.

Et ait: Germinet terra herbam virentem et facientem semen, et lignum pomiferum faciens fructum iuxta genus suum, cujus semen in semet ipso sit super terram. Et factum est ita. ….

Et factum est vespere et mane, dies tertius.


Dixit quoque Deus: Producat terra animam viventem in genere suo, iumenta et reptilia et bestias terrae secundum species suas. Factumque est ita …


Viditque Deus cuncta quae fecerat, et erant valde bona. Et factum est vespere et mane, dies sextus. Igitur perfecti sunt caeli et terra, et omnis ornatus eorum. Complevitque Deus die septimo opus suum quod fecerat; et requievit die septimo ab universo opere quod patrarat. Et benedixit diei septimo et sanctificavit illum, quia in ipso cessaverat ab omni opere suo.

END OF UNIT 26
UNIT 27

27.1 Would if I could … the Subjunctive expressing possibility

27.1.1 So far our experience of the Subjunctive in main clauses has been confined, for simplicity’s sake, to one of its uses: expressing a wish, as in *vivat regina!* may the queen live!, *fiat lux* let there be light, *o si adhuc viveret!* if only he were still alive!

The Subjunctive in main clauses is also used to mark the action of the verb as a possibility, envisaged, but not actually the case. In English we use various words like ‘may’, ‘might’, ‘would’ to express this kind of meaning. In fact, all these words (given the right contexts and style) can express either wishes or possibilities:

**MAY**

*Wish:* May you live for ever!

*versus*

*Possibility:* It may happen – but I doubt if it will

**MIGHT**

*Wish:* I wish she might change her mind! (old-fashioned style)

*versus*

*Possibility:* It might rain tomorrow

**WOULD**

*Wish:* I wish you would say what you think

*versus*

*Possibility:* I would do it if I could.

27.1.2 Exactly the same goes for the Latin subjunctive.

So we have:

*Wish:* *Vivat regina!* May the queen live!

*versus*

*Possibility:* *Fortasse vivat regina* Perhaps the queen may live.

And in the Imperfect Subjunctive:

*Wish:* *Utinam id possem facere* I wish I could do that

*versus*

*Possibility:* *Fortasse id possem facere, si …* Perhaps I would be able to do that, if …

27.1.3 If the sentence containing a subjunctive verb is negative, it immediately becomes much easier to tell the difference between a wish and a possibility, because the negation is expressed differently.

Negative wishes are expressed with *ne*:

*Ne veniat!* Don’t let him come!

*Utinam haec ne fierent* I wish these things didn’t happen

Negative possibilities are expressed with the usual negative, *non*:

*Fortasse non veniat* Perhaps he may not come.

*Non fierent haec, si …* These things would not happen, if …
27.2 Present subjunctive of the verbs SUM, POSSUM, VOLO, NOLO, MALO

27.2.1 You have already met the present subjunctive of the verb ‘to be’. If you don’t remember it, take note of it now!

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{sim} & \\
\text{sis} & \\
\text{sit} & \\
\text{simus} & \\
\text{sitis} & \\
\text{sint} & 
\end{align*}
\]

Unlike the subjunctive of regular verbs, which all end in \textit{–am –as –at} etc. (except in the First Conjugation where the endings are \textit{–em –es –et} etc.), this subjunctive has a characteristic vowel \textit{i}.

\textit{Note} There are alternative, old-fashioned forms \textit{siem sies siet sient}.

27.2.2 \textbf{Possum}, as always, follows the pattern of \textit{sum}:

present subjunctive \textit{possim possis possit possimus possitis possint}.

Compounds of \textit{sum} similarly follow this pattern:

\textit{adsum subjunctive adsim desum subjunctive desim etc.}

27.2.3 \textbf{VOLO ‘I want’} also has a present subjunctive that ends in \textit{–im}. (In archaic Latin, many more verbs had a subjunctive form in \textit{–im}, but these forms were all eventually eliminated in favour of \textit{–am}. \textit{Volo} and its compounds \textit{nolo} and \textit{malo} are the only survivors.)

The subjunctive of \textit{volo} is \textit{velim}. As a matter of fact, \textit{vel-} was the original verb root, which survives also in the infinitive \textit{velle} to want and is related to English ‘will’. The \textit{e} changed to \textit{o} in the present tense because of a tendency to pronounce the \textit{l} in the back of the mouth (as in some dialects of English such as Glasgow or Leeds). In the subjunctive we see the original \textit{e} sound, because the ‘clear’, tip-of-the-tongue \textit{l} was retained before the \textit{i} of the subjunctive ending.

So here are the present subjunctives of \textit{volo nolo malo}. Their personal endings are quite regular, but still they should be learnt carefully:

\[
\begin{array}{lccc}
\text{VOLO} & \text{velim} & \text{NOLO} & \text{nolim} & \text{MALO} & \text{malim} \\
& \text{velis} & & \text{nolis} & & \text{malis} \\
& \text{velit} & & \text{nolit} & & \text{malit} \\
& \text{velimus} & & \text{nolimus} & & \text{malimus} \\
& \text{velitis} & & \text{nolitis} & & \text{malitis} \\
& \text{velint} & & \text{nolint} & & \text{malint} \\
\end{array}
\]
27.2.4 The subjunctives of *possum volo nolo malo* (when they occur in main clauses) are most often used to express possibilities, which is why we have left them until now. Basically *possim* means ‘I could’, *velim* means ‘I’d like’, *nolim* means ‘I wouldn’t like’, and *malim* means ‘I’d prefer’.

**Examples**

*Velim, si possim* I’d like to, if I could

*Id minime velimus* We wouldn’t like that at all

*Velim hoc facere* I’d like to do that

*Forsitan possis mecum venire* Perhaps you could come with me

*Malim* I’d prefer: used by editors of texts to suggest an alternative reading (see the ‘critical apparatus’ at the foot of the page in any Oxford Classical Text edition of a classical author).

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27.3 If-clauses (conditionals)

27.3.1 Look at the following two English sentences:

*If you are well, I am glad.*

*If you were to win the National Lottery, I would be envious.*

In the first sentence, the ‘if’-clause *If you are well* refers to something that is a simple question of fact: whether you are well or not. If you are well, then I shall be glad. If not, not. In this sort of clause, both English and Latin use an indicative: *If you are well; si vales* (*valeo*-ere to be well).

*Si vales bene est: ego quoque valeo* If you are well, it is good; I too am well (Roman formula for starting official letters).

In the second sentence, however, the winning of the National Lottery is envisaged only as a remoter possibility. In that clause, English uses not the simple indicative *win* but a modified form, *were to win*, or more colloquially *won*. Looking across at the second half of the sentence, *I would be envious*, we shall see also that the remote, potential status of this event has been acknowledged by the insertion of the word *would*. In Latin, the ideas of *were to* and *would* are both expressed by the Subjunctive, which again performs its usual function of marking the action as possible or envisaged rather than factual.

So:

*Si vincas, invideam* If you were to win, I would be envious

versus Indicative, either Present:

*Si vincis, invideo* If (ever) you win, I am envious

or Future:

*Si vinces, invidebo* If you win, I shall be envious.
27.3.2 Here are some more examples of ‘ifs’ and ‘woulds’ using the Subjunctive. Technically these are called *conditional sentences* and the if-clause is a *conditional clause*, because it expresses a condition that has to be fulfilled if the main clause is to be true.

- **Veniam, si possim** I would come if I could
- **Faciat si velit; sed non vult** He would do it if he wanted; but he doesn’t want to
- **Si liceat, abeamus** If it were allowed, we would leave
- **Si rex fias, felix sis** If you were to become king, you would be happy (If you became king, you would be happy.)

---

27.3.3 Note that the ‘were to … would’ translation applies only when the verbs of both parts of the sentence are in the subjunctive. Where the if-clause has an indicative, a Subjunctive in the main clause expresses a wish:

- **Veniat si velit** He would come if he wanted to
- **Veniat si vult** Let him come if he wants to.

---

27.3.4 The word *nisi* (sometimes also *ni*) in Latin means ‘if ... not’; it may also, in some contexts, be translated ‘unless’:

- **Nisi venias, tristis sim** I would be sad if you were not to come; or I would be sad unless you came.

---

**IMPERFECT SUBJUNCTIVE IN CONDITIONALS**

27.3.5 The above examples of if-clauses all contained the Present Subjunctive. An if-clause with the Imperfect Subjunctive refers to a state of affairs that does not actually obtain, but the main clause (also in the Imperfect Subjunctive) tells us what would be the case if it did.

- **Si viveret Democritus, rideret** If Democritus were alive now, he would be laughing.
- **Facierem si possem** I would do it if I could (but I can’t)
- **Non facerem etiamsi possem** I would not do it even if I could
- **Nisi Caesar adesset, vinceremur** If Caesar were not here, we would be on the road to defeat.
27.4 The Pluperfect Subjunctive

27.4.1 Whereas the Imperfect Subjunctive (in wishes and conditionals) refers to what *would be happening* now, there is another tense, the Pluperfect Subjunctive, which refers to what *would have happened* in the past.

27.4.2 In the Active, the Pluperfect Subjunctive is formed by adding the personal endings –m –s –t –mus –tis –nt to a stem identical with the Perfect Infinitive:

*e.g.*

*amo*: perfect infinitive *amavisse*

Pluperfect Subjunctive:

*amavissem amavisses amavisset amavissemus amavissetis amaviscent*

*capio*: perfect infinitive *cepisse*

Pluperfect Subjunctive:

*cepissem cepisses cepisset cepissemus cepissetis cepissent*

There are no exceptions to this rule. Consequently, this is one of the easiest tenses of all to recognise. The sequence of letters -ISSE-, added to the Perfect Stem, should shout ‘Pluperfect Subjunctive’ at you whenever you see it.

27.4.3 Contracted forms are found:

- avisse- > -asse-
- ivisse- > -isse-

so *amassem* for *amavissem*; *audissem* for *audivissem*; etc.

27.4.4 There is a minor danger of confusion between the 1st person plural -issemus and the superlative ending of adjectives -issimus.

PASSIVE AND DEPONENT

27.4.5 The Pluperfect Subjunctive Passive and Deponent is formed with the past participle and the Imperfect Subjunctive of *esse*:

*amatus essem* I would have been loved

*Si me hortatus esses, tibi paruissem* If you had encouraged me, I would have obeyed you

*Si adfuisset, omnes gavisi essent* If he had been there, everyone would have been glad.
27.4.6 Wishes:

**O si adfuisset!** If only he had been there!

**Utinam diutius vixisset!** If only he had lived longer!

27.4.7 Conditionals:

**Si diutius vixisset, consul fieri potuit** If he had lived longer, he could have become consul

**Si laborem confecissem, nunc biberem** If I had finished my work, I would now be drinking

**Si Persae apud Marathonem vicissent, Graecia libera non mansisset** If the Persians had won at Marathon, Greece would not have remained free.

In wishes and conditional clauses, the Pluperfect Subjunctive is translated by the English Pluperfect with ‘had’.

27.4.8 There are three sorts of main clause that can follow a conditional clause in the Pluperfect:

(a) ‘could have’ (**potuit** Perfect Indicative),

(b) ‘would now be’ (**nunc esset** Imperfect Subjunctive),

(c) ‘would have’ (**fecisset** Pluperfect Subjunctive).

**Examples**

**Potui laborem conficere nisi ille me interpellavisset** I could have finished my work if that man hadn’t interrupted me

**Si mens non laeva fuisset, Troia nunc staret** If our minds had not been clouded (lit. left-handed), Troy would still be standing.

In Livy 2.40, Coriolanus has gone over to the enemy. His mother comes to plead with him and complains that her son has been the ruin of Rome:

**Ergo ego nisi peperissem, Roma non oppugnaretur; nisi filium haberem, libera in libera patria mortua essem.**

So then, if I had not given birth, Rome would not be being attacked; if I did not have a son, I would have died a free woman in a free country.
27.5 Dealing with continuous Latin prose

27.5.1 So far we have taken our Latin one sentence at a time, and the sentences in the exercises and tests have generally been kept fairly short. But now that we have been introduced to the principles of how clauses work, this immediately increases our capacity for tackling much longer sentences. When one first sees a page of Classical Latin prose, written by an author such as Cicero, Caesar, Livy, or Tacitus, one tends to be daunted by the length of the sentences, although they are not always in reality very much longer than those that are found in formal written English (for example, the one you are now reading).

27.5.2 In order to cope with long sentences, one has to learn the trick of breaking them up into shorter units. Let us first of all practise doing this in English. Take the long sentence you have just read:

“When one first sees a page of Classical Latin prose, written by an author such as Cicero, Caesar, Livy, or Tacitus, one tends to be daunted by the length of the sentences, although they are not always in reality very much longer than those that are found in formal written English (for example, the one you are now reading).”

We can break this up into shorter units of sense, i.e. into separate clauses:

1. When one first sees a page of Classical Latin prose,
2. written by an author such as Cicero, Caesar, Livy, or Tacitus,
3. one tends to be daunted by the length of the sentences,
4. although they are not always in reality very much longer than those
5. that are found in formal written English
6. (for example, the one you are now reading).

The breaks in sense are usually marked by punctuation, e.g. commas, semi-colons, colons or brackets.

27.5.3 Sometimes there is no punctuation to indicate where a clause begins, especially where two clauses are closely connected together. In the above example, clauses (4) and (5) run into one another without a break. But they still count as two separate clauses. How do we know this? Because clause (5) begins with a relative pronoun, ‘that’, and therefore counts as a relative clause. As it’s a defining relative clause (it defines what is meant by ‘those’), it couldn’t be left out without leaving us in doubt as to what was referred to, but in theory one could leave it out and clause 4 would still make complete grammatical sense.

In dealing with long Latin sentences, it is absolutely vital to be able to recognise the beginnings of clauses (even before you have worked out what the sentence means!) so that you can break the sentence up into shorter, more manageable units. This is particularly important because editors of Latin texts are often more sparing with punctuation than they ought to be.

How do we do this?
The answer is that we do it by looking out for the following types of word at the beginning of clauses:

- **CO-ORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS**: e.g. *et* and, *ac* and, *atque* and, *sed* but.

  However, bear in mind that these can also be used to link individual words or phrases as well as clauses, as in ‘bacon *and* eggs’, ‘not Englishmen *but* angels’.

  *Note* Most other co-ordinating conjunctions will be preceded by a comma in Latin, e.g. *nam* for, *at* but, *itaque* and so. There should always be a comma before a clause containing a particle in second place such as *enim* for, *autem* on the other hand, *igitur* therefore, *vero* as a matter of fact.

- **SUBORDINATING CONJUNCTIONS**: e.g. *si* if, *nisi* if not, unless, *cum* when, since (distinguish from *cum* with; for its use see next Unit), *dum* while, *quamquam* although, *quod* because, *quia* because, *ut* as, so that.

- **RELATIVE PRONOUNS** beginning with QU- or CU-: *qui* who, *quae* who (fem.), *quod* which / that, *quem* whom, *quam* whom (fem.), *cuilus* whose, *cui* to whom, *quod* and *qua* ablative (e.g. *a quo* by whom, *in quo* in which, *quo* in the various ablative uses i.e. instrumental ‘with’, comparative ‘than’, measure of difference, point of time); *qui* who (plural), etc.: see Unit 24.

- Other relative words such as *ubi* where, at the point when, *unde* from where, *quo* to the place where, *qualis* such as, of the kind that, *quantus* as big as.

**SIGNPOSTING PAIRS**

27.5.4 The following correlated pairs of words are very useful as ‘signposts’ to show where successive clauses begin:

- *et* ... *et* both ... and
- *non solum* not only ... *sed* (etiam) but (also)
- *non modo* not only ... *sed* (etiam) but (also)
- *alter* ... *alter* the one ... the other
- *alii* ... *alii* some ... others
- *hic* ... *ille* this one ... that one (the former ... the latter; but usually *hic* refers to the last mentioned, and *ille* to the one mentioned before)
- *tum* ... *tum* at one time ... at another time
- *modo* ... *modo* now ... now (as in 'now this, now that')
- *is* ... *qui* that one ... who
- *tum* ... *cum* at that time ... when (can also mean 'both ... and ... at once')
- *ibi* ... *ubi* at that place ... where
- *eo* ... *quo* to that place ... to which
- *inde* ... *unde* from that place ... from which
- *tam* ... *quam* as ... as (*tam sapiens quam Thales* as wise as Thales)
- *ita* ... *ut* in the same way ... as;
- or (if *ut* is followed by the subjunctive) in such a way ... that
- *ideo* ... *ut* with that purpose ... that
- *idcirco* ... *quia* for that reason ... because
- *ob eam causam* ... *quod* for that reason ... because
- *quamquam* ... *tamen* although ... nonetheless
tam diu ... dum for as long ... as
talis ... qualis of that kind ... which
tantus ... quantus so big ... as
talis ... ut of such a kind ... that
tantus ... ut so big ... that

And so on. This phenomenon of ‘correlation’ (of which we have so far only had a brief glimpse) is absolutely basic to developed Latin prose style, and you will find examples on virtually every page of Caesar, Cicero or Livy.

USE OF COMMAS

27.5.5 There are three different kinds of break that may be marked by commas. Commas can be used:

• to mark the break between a main clause and a subordinate clause:
  
  *If it rains COMMA, we shall stay at home.*
  
  *When I have finished reading this COMMA, I shall have a drink.*

• to mark off co-ordinated words, phrases or clauses:
  
  • Words: *Bacon COMMA, eggs COMMA, sausage COMMA, mushrooms COMMA, and tomatoes*
  
  • Phrases: *He came in COMMA, shut the door COMMA, and started to play the piano.*
  
  • Clauses: *If it rains, we shall stay in COMMA, but if the sun comes out, we shall go and catch tadpoles.*

• A pair of commas is used to mark off a parenthetical clause, i.e. one inserted into the middle of another clause to which it is subordinated in meaning:
  
  *Margaret Thatcher COMMA, who was Prime Minister COMMA, came from Lincolnshire.*
  
  *Latin syntax COMMA, although it seems complicated COMMA, is actually quite easy to understand.*

Here brackets could be substituted for the commas with almost the same effect:

*Margaret Thatcher (who was Prime Minister) came from Lincolnshire*

*Latin syntax (although it seems complicated) is actually quite easy to understand.*

Clauses enclosed between commas or brackets can be left out without damaging the sense of the surrounding main clause.
BALANCING CLAUSES

27.5.6 Latin is very fond of balancing two or more parallel (co-ordinated) clauses against each other, with no conjunction at all (the feature technically known as *asnydeton*, Greek for ‘not tying together’). We do this sometimes in English, and in formal writing we normally mark the two clauses off from one another by a strong punctuation mark such as a colon or semi-colon:

*Talent Mr. Micawber has; capital Mr. Micawber has not.*

*This little pig went to market; this little pig stayed at home.*

*We shall fight them in France; we shall fight them on the beaches; we shall never surrender.*

This feature may be used for two purposes:

(a) Contrast, implying a ‘but’. *This* pig went to market; *but this* one stayed at home.

(b) Reinforcement, where all the successive sentences point in the same direction, as in the Churchillian example.

Where two parallel clauses stand in this relationship of balance to each other, one or other of the following features is likely to be found:

(a) Topicalisation, i.e. a dislocation of the normal word order so as to put the contrasting words at the beginning of their respective clauses.

*Peas I like; beans I can’t stand.*

* Talent Mr. Micawber has; capital Mr. Micawber has not.*

(b) Anaphora, i.e. repeated words at the beginning of successive clauses:

*This little pig went to market; this little pig stayed at home.*

(c) Correlated pairs of words as mentioned just above, e.g.:

*this one … that one*
*the former … the latter*
*some … others*
*then … now*
*and so on.*

(d) Ellipsis, i.e. omission of repeated words the second time round.

*This one knows how to do it, that one doesn’t* [i.e. know how to do it]

*I don’t know whether you want to go, but I certainly don’t want to* [i.e. go].
27.5.7 Balancing clauses are treated in Latin in very much the same way as in English, with some minor differences:

(1) Usually (in Latin texts as conventionally printed) they are marked off from each other, not by a strong punctuation mark, but only (as sometimes in English) by a comma:

- **Ille comoedias recitat, hic elegos** That man recites comedies, this one elegies
- **Tum fustibus pugnant, tum ferro** Sometimes they fight with sticks, sometimes with the sword
- **Alterum latus ad meridiem spectat, alterum ad septentriones** One side looks towards the south (lit. midday), the other towards the north (lit. the seven stars, i.e. the constellation of the Plough)
- **Ducunt volentem fata, nolementem trahunt** The fates lead the willing, they drag.
- **Quid utile, quid non** What is useful, what isn’t

Occasionally and confusingly, one finds no punctuation at all:

- **Tum hoc tum illud** Sometimes this, sometimes that.

(2) It is very common in Latin to find these ‘balancing acts’ extended to parts of sentences:

- **Videsne illum capillis rufis, naso longo?** Do you see that man with red hair and a long nose?
  - literally: Do you see that man with hair red, nose long? as we might say in an itemised list: ‘hair: red; nose: long’.

(3) Ellipsis is very freely used in Latin, sometimes where it would sound awkward in English:

- **Ego poetas lego, tu philosophos** I read the poets, you the philosophers
- **Ego Pompeio faveo, tu Caesari** I give my support to Pompey, you to Caesar

What makes this possible and natural in Latin is largely the system of case endings.

END OF UNIT 27
UNIT 28

28.1 CUM ‘when’

28.1.1 The usual Latin word for ‘when’ is cum (alternative spellings quum and quom). In clauses referring to past time, it regularly takes the Subjunctive after it. It is used before the Imperfect Subjunctive to mean ‘when something was happening’, and before the Pluperfect Subjunctive to mean ‘when something had happened’.

Imperfect Subjunctive:

- Cum essem Romae when I was at Rome
- Cum adhuc servirem when I was still serving as a slave
- Cum ad castra appropinquaret when he was approaching the camp

Pluperfect Subjunctive:

- Cum laborem confecissem when I had finished the work
- Cum Hannibal victus esset when Hannibal had been defeated
- Cum illud mihi dixisses when you had said that to me

How can one tell the difference between cum ‘with’ and cum ‘when’?

Cum ‘with’ is always followed by a noun in the Ablative. If there is no Ablative, it must be cum ‘when’.

28.1.2 Why the Subjunctive after cum?

We have seen that the basic distinction between Indicative and Subjunctive in subordinate clauses is that the Indicative marks the action of the verb as a fact, while the Subjunctive marks it as envisaged or contemplated. This can be applied to its uses with cum as well. Cum is used with the indicative either to define an action as simultaneous with that of the main clause, or to mean ‘whenever’. Like this:

(a) Simultaneous: ‘at the moment when’

Cum hoc dico, significo … When I say this, I mean …
Cum Caesar in Galliam venit, Galli in duas factiones divisi erant When Caesar came into Gaul, the Gauls were divided into two factions.
Cum te vidi, gavisus sum When I saw you, I was glad.

(b) Generalising: ‘whenever’

Cum Romam ibat, gaudebat When (i.e. whenever) he went to Rome, he was glad
Cum rosam viderat, incipere ver arbitrabatur When (i.e. whenever) he had seen a rose, he thought spring was beginning.

However, cum with the subjunctive has an extra shade of meaning which is best described like this: it marks the action of the verb as presupposed and not just as taking place. An alternative translation of cum with the subjunctive, which might serve to convey this shade of meaning, would be ‘given that’. We can then distinguish between:

Cum hoc dico, significo … When I say this, I mean …
and
Cum hoc dicam, significo … Given that I’m saying this, I mean …
**Cum Caesar in Galliam venit** At the time when Caesar came into Gaul …
and
**Cum Caesar in Galliam venisset** Given that Caesar had come into Gaul …

---

**Cum te vidi, gavisus sum** When I saw you, I was glad
and
**Cum te viderem, gavisus sum** Given that I was seeing you, I was glad

---

**Cum Romam ibat, gaudebat** Whenever he went to Rome, he was glad
and
**Cum Romam iret, gaudebat** Given that he was going to Rome, he was glad

---

**Cum rosam viderat, incipere ver arbitrabatur** When he had seen a rose, he thought spring was beginning
and
**Cum rosam vidisset, incipere ver arbitrabatur** Given that he had seen a rose, he thought spring was beginning.

Originally, then, the contrast was between a simple fact and a fact envisaged or presupposed. But in the light of the above examples, especially the last two, it is easy to see how this developed into a different contrast: that between a generalising ‘whenever’ (Indicative) and a single event ‘when’ (Subjunctive). Hence, **cum** with a past tense of the Subjunctive is used for ‘when’ clauses referring to a single event in past time, and in due course pretty well lost the nuance of ‘given that’ which it originally had.

---

28.1.3 This nuance tended to be preserved when **cum** was used with the Present Subjunctive. In that case the best translation is usually ‘given that’ or ‘since’, rather than ‘when’

**Cum sis mecum, gaudeo** Since you are with me, I am glad
**Cum hoc dicas, amicum te esse arbitror** Given that you say that, I think you are a friend.

---

28.2 DUM ‘WHILE’, ‘UNTIL’, ‘AS LONG AS’; and ANTEQUAM ‘BEFORE’

28.2.1 The word **dum** is quite tricky. Its meaning varies according to the tense and mood after it, and also according to the context. The main uses are as follows:

(a) with Indicative: ‘while’, ‘as long as’ (simple measurement of duration)

**Dum licet, in rebus iucundis vive beatus**
For as long as it is allowed, live happily in pleasant things.
**Dum spiro, spero** While I breathe, I hope
**Dum potuit, restitit** While he was able to, he resisted.

(b) with Present Subjunctive (negative ne): ‘as long as’ (= ‘provided that’)

**Veniam certe, dum ne sim molestus**
I shall certainly come, as long as I am not a nuisance
**Nil attinet quid facias dum laborem conficias**
It doesn’t matter what you do as long as you finish the work.
(c) with the Historic Present: ‘while’ (specification of a period within which something else happens)

**Dum ludimus, tonat**  lit. While we are playing, it thunders: While we were playing, it thundered.

**Dum cenamus, advenit Caesar**  While we were having dinner, Caesar arrived.

(d) with the Indicative: ‘until’ (simple measurement of a period of time)

**In curia mansit dum senatus dimissus est**  He stayed in the Senate-house until the senate was dismissed

**Restitimus dum capti sumus**  We resisted until we were captured

**Dum redeo, pasce capellas**  Until I get back, feed my goats.

Here there may be an ambiguity as between ‘while’ and ‘until’; there are other, clearer words for ‘until’ that can be used instead – *donec* and *quoad*. But even some varieties of English don’t make a very clear distinction between ‘while’ and ‘until’ in these contexts. Irish speakers of English often say ‘while’ where English people would say ‘until’. And my computer tells me to ‘wait while Microsoft Outlook exits’, rather than ‘wait until Microsoft Outlook exits’. There is not really a great deal of difference.

The word *usque* can be added to make it clearer: *usque dum*, as we say ‘up until’.

(e) with the Present or Imperfect Subjunctive: ‘until’ (after verb of waiting); we might also translate it as ‘(waiting) for something to happen’

**Exspectamus dum venias**  We are waiting until you arrive; we are waiting for you to arrive.

**Exspectavimus dum venires**  We waited until you (should) arrive; We waited for you to arrive.

Note that when the Subjunctive is used in a clause of this kind, it does not imply that the event waited for ever actually happened; again we have the usual distinction between the Indicative expressing a fact, and the Subjunctive expressing something envisaged.

28.2.2 The words *antequam* and *priusquam*, both meaning ‘before’, take either the Indicative or the Subjunctive, with the usual distinction: if the thing happened or is happening now, they have the indicative; if it didn’t or isn’t, but is only envisaged, they take the subjunctive.

**Hoc accidit antequam natus sum**  This happened before I was born (fact)

but

**Cape illum antequam evadat!**  Catch him before he escapes! (escape is envisaged and may be prevented).

28.2.3 The words just mentioned are really compounds of *ante* or *prius* meaning ‘earlier’ and *quam* meaning ‘than’, and in fact the two elements often appear separated:

**Hoc triginta annis ante accidit, quam ego natus sum**  This happened thirty years before I was born; lit. This happened thirty years earlier than I was born.

**Hoc prius constituendum est quam de illa re disputemus**  This must be decided first, before we discuss that issue.
28.3 The Perfect Subjunctive and the Future Perfect Indicative

28.3.1 The Latin verb has two more tenses, the Perfect Subjunctive and the Future Perfect Indicative, which are used like the Present Subjunctive and Future Indicative, except that they refer to an action envisaged as already completed.

28.3.2 In the Active, these two tenses are as like each other as two peas, except in the first person singular. The endings are added to the Perfect Stem.

Perfect Subjunctive endings:

-erim -eris -erit -erimus -eritis -erint

Future Perfect endings:

-ero -eris -erit -erimus -eritis -erint

28.3.3 There was supposed to be a distinction in the second person singular and the first and second persons plural, between forms with long i for the subjunctive, and forms with short i for the future perfect; but this was not always observed in practice and in any case does not appear in the spelling.

28.3.4 So for example:

dixerim is Perfect Subjunctive (for meanings see below)
dixeris, dixerit, dixerimus, dixeritis, dixerint can be either.

dixero is Future Perfect ‘I will have said’

28.3.5 Distinguish these tenses from the Pluperfect, which has an a throughout:

dixeras you had said; dixeris you will have said.

28.3.6 In the first conjugation, contracted forms are found fairly frequently:

amarim/amaro amaris amarit amarimus amaritis amarint.

In the fourth conjugation, the v of the perfect stem is usually left out:

audierim/audiero audieris audierit audierimus audieritis audierint.

28.3.7 In the Passive and Deponent, the Perfect Subjunctive is formed with the past participle plus the present subjunctive of sum: amatus sim, hortatus sim.

The Future Perfect is formed with the past participle and the future indicative of sum: amatus ero, hortatus ero.

It will be seen that, since the future and subjunctive of sum are always different, the distinction between the perfect subjunctive and future perfect causes no problems in the Passive or in deponent verbs.
28.4 Use of the Perfect Subjunctive and Future Perfect

28.4.1 In the main verb of a sentence, the Future Perfect is the equivalent of our ‘shall have done’, ‘will have done’:

**Hoc ante noctem perfecero** I shall have finished this before nightfall.

28.4.2 The Perfect Subjunctive is not used to express positive wishes or commands; but it is commonly used with **ne** to express negative commands. In classical Latin, the Perfect Subjunctive is preferred to the present in such commands, except when they are general or proverbial in nature.

**Ne timueris** Don’t be afraid

**Oblitus ne sis** Don’t forget

28.4.3 The Perfect Subjunctive is used both affirmatively and negatively (with negative **non** or **haud**) to express a possibility, what would or might happen (this is called the *Potential Subjunctive*):

**Fortasse dixerit aliquis** Perhaps someone might say

**Venia tua dixerim** With your permission, I would say

**Haud crediderim** I wouldn’t believe it

**Nemo id melius fecerit** Nobody would do it better

28.4.4 These tenses are used in ‘if’-clauses to refer to an action that must logically be completed before the action of the main clause can take place. The verb of the main clause will be future or subjunctive as the case may be.

**Si cras venerit, gaudebo** If he comes [has come] tomorrow, I shall be pleased [the arrival has to take place before the being pleased can start]

**Si cras venerit, gaudeam** If he came [were to have come] tomorrow, I would be pleased.

The English equivalents are normally:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><em>si fecero</em> fut. perf. = if I do, if I have done</td>
<td>if I were to have done</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><em>si fecerim</em> perf. subj. = if I did, if I were to do, if I had done, if I were to have done</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

28.4.5 The Future Perfect is used in ‘when’ clauses referring to a completed action envisaged in the future:

**Cum advenerit, cenabimus** When he arrives (when he has arrived), we shall have dinner.

**Non abibo donec laborem confecerim** I won’t go away until I have finished the work.

English generally uses either the Present or the Perfect in these contexts.

28.4.6 **Cum** with the Perfect Subjunctive means ‘given that’ or ‘since’, and refers to a fact in the past seen from the point of view of the present:

**Cum Herodotum legeris, historiam Graecorum profecto bene nosti** Since you have read Herodotus, of course you know Greek history well.
28.5 Indirect questions

28.5.1 A ‘direct’ question is like this: *Who are you? What are you doing? Are you going or not?* The corresponding ‘indirect’ questions, depending on a verb of asking, are like this: *I ask you who you are; I ask you what you are doing; I ask you whether you are going or not.* In English the difference between an indirect question and a direct question is shown by the word order: *who you are versus who are you; what you are doing versus what are you doing; and/or by the addition of a conjunction such as ‘whether’: whether you are going or not versus are you going or not?*

---

28.5.2 In Latin, the verb of an Indirect Question (according to classical rules) goes in the Subjunctive:

- *rogo quis sis* I ask who you are (Direct: *quis es?*)
- *rogo quid facias* I ask what you are doing (Direct: *quid facis?*)
- *rogo utrum venias necne* I ask whether you are coming or not (Direct: *utrum venis an non?*)

The reason for this is presumably that the answer to the question is tentatively envisaged rather than known as a fact, rather as we sometimes say ‘I have no idea what that may be’ instead of ‘what that is’. As a matter of fact, in earlier Latin (e.g. Plautus) one sometimes finds the Indicative in indirect questions; the rule that the subjunctive must always be used was not established in usage until the Late Republic.

---

28.5.3 The principle of Sequence of Tenses is followed. After a verb of asking in the present, one gets the Present Subjunctive referring to the present, and the Perfect Subjunctive referring to the past:

- *rogo num hoc faciat* I ask whether he is doing this
- *rogo num hoc fecerit* I ask whether he did this / has done this.

After a verb of asking in the past, one finds Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive:

- *rogavi num hoc faceret* I asked whether he was doing this
- *rogavi num hoc fecisset* I asked whether he had done this.

---

28.5.4 The following conjunctions, like English ‘whether, are used in Latin to introduce indirect yes/no questions:

- **-ne** whether (as in direct questions)
- **num** whether
- **an**: usually with *dubito* (I doubt) I suspect, *haud scio* (I don’t know) I suspect
- **utrum ... an** whether ... or
- **utrum ... necne** whether ... or not (in indirect questions *necne* substitutes for *an non*).

- *Rogo veniatne* I ask whether he is coming
- *Rogo num veniat* I ask whether he is coming
- *Dubito an veniat* I suspect he may be coming (‘I doubt he’s coming’ means this in Scotland, but not in England)
- *Haud scio an non veniat* I suspect he may not be coming
- *Rogo utrum album an atrum vinum potet* I ask whether he drinks white or red (dark) wine
- *Rogo utrum vinum potaverit necne* I ask whether he drank the wine or not.
28.6 ‘That it will happen …’: More about the accusative and infinitive

28.6.1 Where we have no trouble in saying ‘that something will happen’, Latin has to use the Accusative and Infinitive (as always after verbs of saying) and so ends up saying ‘something to be about to happen’: **aliquam rem futuram (esse)**.

The word for ‘about to …’ is the Future Participle, which, as you may perhaps remember, is formed by substituting –urus for the –us of the Past Participle. The Future Participle is always active in meaning.

**Dixit Graecos ad Troiam venturos et post decem annos illam urbem capturos esse** He said that the Greeks would come to Troy and that after ten years they would capture that city.

28.6.2 This construction with the Future Participle usually means ‘that something will happen’, but if there is an ‘if’ in the offing, it can mean ‘that something would happen’:

**scio illum venturum si libeat** I know that he would come if he chose.

The meaning ‘that something would have happened’ is conveyed, when it has to be, by the future participle + fuisse:

**scio illum venturum fuisse si potuisset** I know that he would have come if he had been able to.

28.6.3 ‘Would’ (or ‘was going to’) is also the appropriate translation when the verb of saying, knowing etc. is past:

**sciebam illum venturum** I knew he would come; I knew he was going to come

**dixit se id facturum** he said he would do it

28.6.4 Verbs of promising take this construction:

**promisit se id facturum** he promised he would do it; literally and awkwardly ‘he promised himself about to do it’.

**pollicitus est, si pugnare desisterent, captivos se liberatum** he promised that if they were to stop fighting, he would release the prisoners

N.B. In English we often have an infinitive after a verb of promising, ‘he promised to do it’. This never happens in Latin.
28.7 Revision of tenses

You now know all the tenses of the Latin verb.

Let us summarise them, using the example of *amo*.

The following are formed from the Present Stem:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amo</td>
<td>Present Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ama-s</td>
<td>Infinitive amare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ama-ba-m</td>
<td>Imperfect Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ama-b-o</td>
<td>Future Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ame-m</td>
<td>Present Subjunctive (with changed stem vowel)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ama-re-m</td>
<td>Imperfect Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ama!</td>
<td>Imperative</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Only the tenses formed from the Present Stem have passive equivalents:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amor</td>
<td>Present Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amar-ri</td>
<td>Infinitive amari</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ama-ba-r</td>
<td>Imperfect Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ama-b-or</td>
<td>Future Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ame-r</td>
<td>Present Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ama-re-r</td>
<td>Imperfect Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following are formed from the Perfect Stem:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amav-i</td>
<td>Perfect Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amav-era-m</td>
<td>Infinitive amavisse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amav-er-o</td>
<td>Pluperfect Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amav-er-i-m</td>
<td>Future Perfect Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amav-is-se-m</td>
<td>Perfect Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amav-isse-m</td>
<td>Pluperfect Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The passive equivalents of these tenses are formed with the past participle plus *esse*:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amatus</td>
<td>Present Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amati sumus est</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amatus er-m</td>
<td>Pluperfect Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amatus eri-m</td>
<td>Future Perfect Indicative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amatus simi-sit</td>
<td>Perfect Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>amatus esse-m</td>
<td>Pluperfect Subjunctive</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Present Participle *amans*
Past Participle *amatus*
Future Participle *amaturas*
Gerundive *amandus*
28.8 Use of Tenses in a Nutshell

Here is a brief summary of the tense usages in the types of clause we we have met so far:

MAIN CLAUSES

Facts versus wishes:

**Vivit regina** The queen lives (present)
**Vivet regina** The queen will live (future)
**Vivat regina** May the queen live (present subj.)

**Adest Socrates** Socrates is here (present)
**O si adesset Socrates** If only Socrates were here (imperf. subj.)

**Vidi Socratem** I saw Socrates (perfect)
**O si vidissem Socratem** If only I had seen Socrates (plupf. subj.)

May, might, would:

**Fortasse vivat regina** Perhaps the queen may live (present subj.)
**Fortasse dixerit aliquis ...** Perhaps someone might say ... (perfect subj.)

**Faciam si occasionem habeam** I would do it if I had the chance (present subj.)
**Facerem si possem** I would be doing it if I were able (imperfect subj.)
**Fecissem si potuissem** I would have done it if I had been able (pluperfect subj.)

SUBORDINATE CLAUSES

**UT** = “as”

**Facio ut rogas** I am doing as you ask (present indic.)
**Feci ut rogasti** I did as you asked (perfect indic.)

**UT** Purpose

**Hoc facio ut doleas** I am doing this to annoy you (present subj.)
(lit. in order that you may feel pain)

**Hoc facio ne dubites** I am doing this so that you should not be in doubt

**Hoc feci ut doleres** I did this to annoy you (imperf. subj.)
**Hoc feci ne dubitares** I did this so that you should not be in doubt

**UT** Result

**Tantus erat elephantus ut omnes mirarentur / mirati sint**
The elephant was so big that everyone was amazed
(imperfect or perfect subjunctive)

**Tantus erat elephantus ut per portam ire non posset / potuerit**
The elephant was so big that it could not get through the gate

**UT** Command

**Impero militibus ut pugnent**
I give orders to the soldiers that they should fight (pres. subj.)

**Imperavi militibus ut pugnarent**
I gave orders to the soldiers that they should fight (imperf. subj.)

**NE**

**Interdico ne pugnet**
I issued a prohibition that they should not fight (pres. subj.)

**Interdixi ne pugnarent**
I issued a prohibition that they should not fight (imperf. subj.)

**SI**

**Si vales, bene est** If you are well, it is good (present indicative)

**Si valeas, bene sit** If you were to be well, it would be good (pres. subj.)
Si valeres, bene esset
If you were well, it would be good (imperf. subj.)
Si valuisses, bene fuisset
If you had been well, it would have been good (plupf. subj.)
Si adverteris, bene sit
If you were to have arrived, it would be good (perfect subj.)

**CUM**

**Cum Romae sum, gaudeo**
When(ever) I am at Rome, I am glad (present indic.)

**Cum Romam veni, gaudeo**
When(ever) I have arrived at Rome, I am glad (perfect indic.)

**Cum Romae eram, (tum) gaudebam**
When (all the time that) I was at Rome, (at that time) I was glad (imperf. indic.)

**Cum Romae sim, gaudeo**
Given that I am at Rome (present subj.), I am glad: Since I am at Rome …

**Cum Romae essem, gavisus sum**
Given that I was at Rome (imperf. subj.), I was glad:
When/since I was at Rome …

**Cum Romae fuissem, gavisus sum**
Given that I had been at Rome (plupf. subj.), I was glad:
When/since I had been at Rome …

**DUM**

**Dum spiro, spero** While I breathe, I hope (present indic.: duration)

**Dum ludimus, obrepit senectus**
While we are playing, old age creeps up on us (present indic.: ‘time within which’)

**Exspecto dum venias** I am waiting until you arrive (present subj.)

**Exspectabam dum venires**
I was waiting until you would arrive (imperf. subj.)

---

**Reading exercise**

Here is some more of Dares Phrygius (from sections 15-16), with slight adaptations:


Achilles, cum Delphos venisset, ad oraculum pergit, et ex adyto deus respondet Graecos victuros, decimoque anno Troiam capturos. Achilles res divinas, sicut imperatum est, fecit; et eo tempore venerat Calchas, Thestore natus, divinus. Dona pro Phrygibus a suo populo missus Apollini portabat; simul consuluit de regno rebusque suis. Huic respondet oraculum ut cum Argivorum classe contra Trojanos proficiscatur, eoque sua inteligentia iuvet, neve inde prius discedant quam Troia capta sit.
Postquam in fanum venerunt, inter se Achilles et Calchas responsa contulerunt; gaudentes hospitio, amicitiam confirmant; una Athenas profisciscuntur; perveniunt eo. Achilles eadem in consilio refert; Argivi gaudent; Calchantem secum recipiunt; classem solvunt.

Cum eos ibi tempestates retinerent, Calchas ex augurio respondet, ut revertantur et in Aulidem profisciscantur; profecti perveniunt. Agamemnon Dianam placat, dicitque sociis suis ut classem solvant, ad Troiam iter faciant. Utuntur duce Philocteta, qui cum Argonautis ad Troiam fuerat. Deinde applicant classem ad oppidum quod sub imperio Priami regis erat, et id expugnant, praedaque facta profisciscuntur. Veniunt Tenedum, ubi omnes occidunt. Agamemnon praedam divisit, consilium convocavit.


END OF UNIT 28
UNIT 29

29.1 Reminder: participles and gerundives

29.1.1 Let us remind ourselves what participles and gerundives are. They are both kinds of adjective, derived from verbs. There are three kinds of participle in Latin, plus the gerundive:

- **Present Participle** e.g. *dicens dicent-* saying, in the process of saying.
- **Past Participle** e.g. *dictus* said, having been said, that has been said.
- **Future Participle** e.g. *dicturus* about to say, going to say.
- **Gerundive** e.g. *dicendus* to-be-said, sayable, that should be said.

**Examples**

(a) *Haec dicens exiit* Saying these things he went out.

(b) *Hoc a me dictum est* This was said by me.

(c) *Multa dicturus est de hac re* He is going to say a great deal about this matter.

(d) *Non est istud dicendum* That is not to be said, i.e. that should not be said.

29.1.2 Bear in mind that the Present and Future participles are always active in meaning, and can be formed from deponent verbs as well as from ordinary verbs.

**Ordinary verb:** *dico*

- *dicens* – saying
- *dicturus* – about to say

**Deponent verb:** *hortor*

- *hortans* – encouraging
- *hortaturus* – about to encourage.

The Past participle is passive in meaning; but past participles of deponent verbs are (generally speaking) active: *hortatus* having encouraged, *progressus* having advanced.

The Gerundive is always passive in meaning and can be formed from any verb: *dicendus* to be said, *hortandus* to be encouraged.

29.2 Ab urbe condita: ‘fused’ participles and gerundives

29.2.1 In English we can say things like this:

- *I want this wall painted*
- *I don’t like you doing that*

Purists insist that we should say *your doing that* rather than *you doing that*, but in fact we say the latter all the time.

These are examples of what is called a ‘fused participle’ construction.
‘I want this wall painted’ doesn’t mean ‘I want this wall, when it has been painted’. It means ‘I want this wall to be (or to have been) painted’, ‘I want the painting of this wall to take place’.

‘I don’t like you doing that’ doesn’t mean ‘I don’t like you when you do that’; it means ‘I don’t like the fact that you are doing that’. The noun this wall and the participle painted, or the pronoun you and the participle doing, have in each case become ‘fused’ together to make a phrase whose meaning is different from that of the two words taken separately.

29.2.2 Latin uses a ‘fused’ participle construction particularly with the past participle (not usually with the present or future participles). The most famous example is the phrase ab urbe condita, literally ‘from the city having been founded’, which means ‘from the founding of the city’. Because of this example, the construction is often called the ‘ab urbe condita construction’. Other examples:

Hannibal victus Romanorum animos confirmavit Hannibal having been killed strengthened the morale of the Romans

Anno post Carthaginem deletam vicesimo In the 20th year after Carthage having been destroyed, i.e. in the 20th year after the destruction of Carthage.

29.2.3 The ‘fused’ construction is particularly common with the Gerundive, referring to a prospective action.

Nuntium misit ad Apollinem consulendum He sent a messenger to Apollo to-be-consulted, i.e. to consult Apollo.

In lingua Latina discenda multam curam adhibemus In the Latin language to-be-learnt we are employing much care, i.e. we are taking a great deal of care in learning the Latin language.

Hic munitissimus habendi senatus locus This heavily guarded place of the senate to-be-held, i.e. this heavily guarded place for holding a meeting of the senate.

Hoc utile est ad res agendas This is useful for business to-be-done, i.e. for doing business.

Romans got married liberorum quaerundorum causa because of children to-be-tried-for, i.e. in order to have children.

29.3 Ablative absolutes

29.3.1 You know that the Ablative means, among other things, ‘with’. Note now the following phrases:

- me consule with me as consul
- Romulo rege with Romulus as king
- Teuco duce with Teucer as leader
- te duce, Caesar with you as leader, Caesar

To translate them, we have to insert the word ‘as’.

This kind of phrase is called an Ablative Absolute.

Note An ‘absolute’ construction is so called because it was regarded by the early grammarians as being only loosely connected with the rest of the sentence (absolutus
from absolvo release, loosen). In English we have an Absolute construction in phrases like ‘it being Friday’, ‘there being fifteen members present’, ‘the drink supplies being exhausted, everyone went home’.

29.3.2 In Latin it is very common to find an Ablative Absolute consisting of a noun or pronoun and a participle (either present or past):

- **regnante Romulo** with Romulus reigning: while Romulus was king
- **Caesare adveniente** with Caesar arriving: as Caesar was arriving
- **mortuo Hannibale** with Hannibal dead; after Hannibal was dead
- **capta urbe** with the city captured; after the city was captured

Often in these phrases the ‘with …’ construction seems awkward in English. It can be replaced by a clause beginning with ‘while’ or ‘as’ (for the Present Participle) or ‘after’ (for the Past Participle).

More examples of Ablative Absolutes in context:

- **Illo praetore quid exspectare potes?** With that man as praetor, what can you expect?
- **Scipione duce bellum confectum est** The war was finished with Scipio as leader
- **Cicerone consule hoc factum est** This was done with Cicero as consul (better: when Cicero was consul, in the consulship of Cicero)
- **Hannibale victo Romani laetati sunt** With Hannibal defeated, the Romans rejoiced (better: after the defeat of Hannibal …)
- **Caesare occiso res publica turbata est** With Caesar killed, the republic was thrown into confusion (better: after Caesar was killed…)
- **Victis Gallis Caesar in Britanniam contendit** With the Gauls conquered, Caesar proceeded to Britain (better: after conquering the Gauls…)
- **Praesente Caesare ludi habiti sunt** The games were held with Caesar present
- **Absente me constituerunt bellum gerere** With me absent, they decided to wage war (better: in my absence …)
- **Absolutus est Caelius me defendente** Caelius was acquitted with me defending (him).

Our formula *nem.con.* is short for *nemine contra dicente* with nobody speaking against.

29.3.3 In the Ablative Absolute construction, present participles always take the ending -e: e.g. **regnante Romulo** with Romulus reigning.

This contrasts with the form in –i used when the participle functions as an ordinary adjective (e.g. **ab amanti fratre** by a loving brother).

29.3.4 The word order in Ablative Absolutes varies according to the emphasis: **Gallis victis** or **victis Gallis** after the defeat of the Gauls.

29.3.5 When an Ablative Absolute involves a participle, there may be other words governed by the participle or qualifying it. A present participle may have an object; a past participle may have an agent; either may be qualified by an adverbial phrase. When there are extra words of this sort, the noun (subject of the phrase) usually comes first, then the extra material, and finally the participle.
Caesare dictaturam tenente With Caesar holding the dictatorship
Gallis a Caesare victis With the Gauls defeated by Caesar

Other orders are sometimes found; e.g. (in poetry) tenente Caesare terras ‘with Caesar holding [i.e. ruling] the lands’

Note You may very occasionally come across an Ablative Absolute split by some word that does not go with it, e.g. Victis Caesar Gallis in Britanniam contendit Caesar, with the Gauls defeated, proceeded to Britain.

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29.4 Gerunds

29.4.1 The ‘gerund’ is a verbal noun identical in form with the neuter of the gerundive.

amo gerund amandum
moneo gerund monendum
dico gerund dicendum
audio gerund audiendum
eo gerund eundum

Its equivalent in English is the verbal noun ending in –ing, also called a gerund. This is to be distinguished from the English present participle which is identical with it in form. The difference is that the gerund fulfils the function of a noun, while the present participle is an adjective.

Example of participle: He is cooking dinner. Equivalent of adjective: cf. He is clever.

29.4.2 The Latin gerund is found in different cases: accusative especially after ad ‘for doing’ or ‘to do’, genitive ‘of doing’, ablative ‘by doing’ or ‘in doing’. Examples:

Accusative:
paratus ad audiendum ready for listening; ready to listen

Genitive:
amor discendi love of learning
cupidus discendi desirous of learning; eager to learn

Ablative:
vires acquirit eundo it acquires strength by going (as it goes)
studendo tempus consumere to spend time in studying.

Note The Italian present participle ending in –endo or –ando derives from the ablative of the Latin gerund; hence musical directions like accelerando or crescendo.

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29.5 Supines

29.5.1 Supines (incomprehensibly so called; the term means ‘lying on its back’) are another type of verbal noun. They come in two varieties: accusative and ablative. They are both equivalent in meaning to an English infinitive.
29.5.2 The accusative supine is spelt the same as the neuter of the past participle. It is found together with verbs of motion such as *eo* I go, *venio* I come, *mitto* I send, in contexts such as the following:

- **pransum/cenatum eo**: I go to have lunch/dinner
- **cubitum/sessum/ambulatum eo**: I go to lie down/to sit down/to have a walk
- **milites misit pabulatum/frumentatum/rogatum auxilium**: He sent soldiers to get fodder/to get corn supplies/to ask for help
- **ne populus illuc cacatum currat**: so that people don’t run there to shit

29.5.3 The ablative supine comes from the same stem as the past participle but ends in -u. It is found only in phrases like *mirabile dictu* strange to say, *facile factu* easy to do, *maior/minor natu* lit. greater/lesser by birth, i.e. older/younger.

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**Reading exercise**

**THE ARRIVAL OF THE ANGLO-SAXONS IN ENGLAND**

Here is a piece of Latin narrative prose by Geoffrey of Monmouth, c. A.D. 1100-1154. As it is Medieval Latin, it differs in one or two details from the classical standard, but it should present no particular difficulties. Some notes are provided below to help you.


Vortegirnus autem diverso genere potus inebriatus, intrante Satana in cor eius, puellam amavit, eamque a patre eius postulavit; intraverat autem Satanas in cor eius quia, cum Christianus esset, cum pagana coire desiderabat. Hengistus ilico, ut prudens erat, animi regis comperta levitate, fratrem suum Horsum consuluit ceterosque maiores natu qui secum aderant, quid de regis petitione faceret. Sed omnibus unum consilium fuit, ut puella regi daretur, et ut pro ea ab illo Cantiae provinciam peterent. Nec mora; data fuit puella Vortegirno, et provincia Cantiae Hengisto.
NOTES

The leaders of the Anglo-Saxons were Hengist (Hengistus) and Horsa (Horsus). Both names mean ‘horse’. The king of the Britons was Vortigern (Vortegirnus) whose name is the Celtic for ‘great king’. The toast Was hail! is the origin of our ‘wassail’ and means ‘be healthy’; was is the imperative of ‘to be’ in Anglo-Saxon., and hail is the same as hale in ‘hale and hearty’; cf. also health, whole, wholesome.

applicuerant ‘had landed’; applico means ‘apply’ but can also mean ‘land’ (this meaning is not in POLD). The perfect tense is either applicavi or applicui.

ilico is derived from in loco and means ‘on the spot’, ‘immediately’. It occurs mostly in archaic Latin but is revived by later and medieval writers. For some inexplicable reason it is missing from POLD.

subitum: subitus means ‘sudden’ or ‘unexpected’; here it implies that Hengist’s house has taken a remarkably short time to build.

reflectus from reficio i.e. re-facio lit. ‘remake’, ‘repair’, ‘restore’: it often refers to restoring one’s strength with food, hence the word ‘refectory’ for a dining hall. A classical author would have written reflectus est rather than reflectus fuit.

scyphum: a goblet.

quid puella dixerat a classical writer would have put the verb of the indirect question in the subjunctive quid puella dixisset.

cui lit. ‘to whom’, but we have to say ‘to him’.

de manu ipsius medieval Latin often uses ipse where classical Latin would use is or ille. Translate simply ‘from her hand’. This use of ipse survives in Italian esso ‘he / him’.

qui potat best to translate qui here as ‘whoever’.

ipsum see above on ipsius; Classical Latin would certainly have said eum.

Satana Satan, the Devil, is in Latin Satanas and the other cases follow the pattern of the first declension: Satanam –ae –ae –a.

ut prudens erat: we would say ‘prudent as he was’.

secum with him; this is strictly incorrect by classical rules and ought to have been cum eo.

omnibus … lit. for all of them there was one piece of advice: each of them gave the same advice.

consilium advice, a piece of advice, plan, policy, consultation (related to consulo consult); choose the most appropriate translation to fit the context. It can also have the concrete sense of advisory body or council (the English spelling with c is misleading, as it suggests concilium ‘gathering, get-together, assembly’ rather than consilium).

Nec mora ‘nor (was there any) delay’; translate perhaps ‘no time was lost’.

data fuit Classical Latin would say data est. Note how Medieval Latin is here closer to English, ‘was given’.

END OF UNIT 29
UNIT 30

REVISION EXERCISES

1. Distinguishing actives, passives and deponents. Say whether each of the following verb forms are active, passive, or deponent, and give the meaning.

1. ducimus
2. ducimur
3. sequimur
4. coquit
5. coquitur
6. loquitur
7. vereris
8. amaberis
9. amaveris
10. laborabas
11. terres
12. terreris
13. petunt
14. petuntur
15. oblivsebantur
16. philosophabimini

2. Distinguishing tenses and moods (a). Identify the tense and mood of the following verb forms, and give the meaning.

1. damus
2. ducamus
3. dicebamus
4. adimus
5. adibimus
6. audimur
7. audiebant
8. auderis
9. audierunt
10. audierint
11. dicis
12. dices
13. dicas
14. duceris
15. duxeris
16. diceres

3. Distinguishing tenses and moods (b). Identify the tense and mood of the following verb forms, and give the meaning.

1. terret
2. terreret
3. ferent
4. ferrent
5. laborent
6. audient
7. terantur
8. terreantur
9. laborant
10. audiant
11. volant
12. volent
13. velint
14. vellent
15. velant
16. velent

4. Tracing perfects back to parent verbs. Identify the verb from which the following perfect-stem forms come, and give the meaning of each form.

1. mansit
2. monuit
3. caluerunt
4. creverint
5. iussi
6. amiserant
7. amarit
8. crediderim
9. potueramus
10. potaveramus
11. posuisse
12. abstulerit
13. fuimus
14. effugisset
15. abierat
16. tetigeram

5. Perfect tenses of the passive. Give the meanings of the following phrases.

1. admissi sunt
2. dictum erat
3. vinctus es
4. victus est
5. occisi simus
6. oblitus sum
7. secuti erimus
8. estis perterriti
9. perfecta sunt
10. perfecta esset
11. locutae sumus
12. locati essent
6. Distinguishing nouns from verbs, and subjects from objects. Translate the phrase, and say what case the noun and/or pronoun (if there is one) is in.


7. Cases with verbs. Translate the phrase, and explain the case of the noun or pronoun.

1. Duci paremus. 7. Fortuna favet fortibus.
2. Cenam paramus. 8. Tuo beneficio fruor.
5. Ignosce mihi. 11. Servio divitiis meis.
6. Oblitus es officii tui.

8. Noun-phrases, including those in which the elements are separated. Translate the phrase, identify the noun-phrase, and say what case it is in and why. For example, in the sentence *Illi bono domino paret*, the noun-phrase is *illi bono domino*, and it is in the dative because *pareo* ‘obey’ takes the dative.

1. Domino suo illi parent.
2. A bonis regimur consulibus.
3. Multa accepimus beneficia.
4. Multa nos terrent pericula.
5. In peioribus nunc sumus periculis.
6. Haec celeberrima pugna semper memorabitur.
7. Nulli paremus domino quia liberi sumus.
8. Celeberrimam omnium orationem nunc legi.
10. Britanni non multum a Gallica differunt consuetudine.
11. Omnes vero se Britanni vitro inficiunt.
12. Id caeruleum efficit colorem.

9. Combinations involving verbs like ‘be’, ‘become’, ‘be called’. Give the most sensible translation of the following sentences:

1. Cicero orator est.
2. Hic orator Cicero vocatur.
3. Maximus orator Cicero habetur.
4. Orator consul fit.
5. Consul factus est.
6. Rex Trojanorum Priamus est.
7. Rex Trojanorum Priamus factus est.
8. Rex Trojanorum Priamus exercitum ducit.
9. Priamus a Troianis rex nominatus est.
10. Priamus vocabatur rex Trojanorum.
10. More complex combinations involving adjectives and participles.
   1. Dedit mihi poculum vino plenum.
   2. Epistulam a multis lectam celare non possumus.
   3. Vidi hominem librum scribentem.
   4. Virum omni honore dignum vobis commendamus.
   5. Doctrina est res omni auro pretiosior.
   7. Veni in aulum aureis columnis ornatum.
   8. Romani nostrum securit consilium bellum gesserunt.

   1. Hoc tantum possum dicere.
   2. Haec verba Latina intellegere non possumus.
   3. Volumus a te doceri.
   4. Visne mecum ad ludos ire?
   5. Mavis dormire quam ad ludos ire.
   6. A nullo praecipue doceri malo quam a malo.
   7. Volare vultis sed non potestis.
   8. Non poteramus impetrare quod volebamus.
   9. Facerem hoc si facere possem.
  10. Fecisset si facere voluisset, sed noluit.

   1. Hoc consule quid expectare possumus?
   2. Te duce omnes difficultates vincemus.
   3. Claudio imperante Romani Britanniam invadunt.
   4. Victis tandem hostibus Romani se ad luxum dederunt.
   5. Hoc memini, quod me adulescente factum est.
   6. Domino occiso servi condemnati sunt.

   1. Nonne lingua Latina facilis est?
   2. Num tu linguam Latinam facilem esse putas?
   3. Nescio utrum velit necne.
   4. Nescio quid velit.
   5. Vide quid faciam.
   6. Nolite desperari, quia ad finem celeriter venimus.
   7. Imitamini ergo Socratem, qui senex litteras Graecas didicit.
   8. Vivant omnes linguae Latinae doctores.
   9. O si Romanos Latine loquentes audire possemus!
  10. Rogavit me ut hanc rem sibi exponerem.
Practice passages for translation

1. The birthday invitation from Vindolanda

Claudia Lepidinae suae salutem. III Idus Septembres, soror, ad diem sollemnem natalem meum rogo libenter facias ut venias ad nos, iucundiorem mihi diem interventu tuo factura si venies. Cœlialem tuum saluta. Aelius meus te et filiolus salutant. Sperabo te, soror. Vale, soror, anima mea, ita valeam, carissima, et have.

salutem greeting. It is accusative because a verb such as dicit or mittit is understood.
III Idus Septembres the third day before the Ides of September, i.e. 11 September.
ita valeam lit. ‘so may I be healthy’; in this context we might say ‘believe me’.
have alternative spelling of ave which means ‘hello’ or ‘goodbye’ according to the context.

2. A medieval story of a faithful dog (from Historia Septem Sapientum, slightly adapted)


comes comit- companion; ‘companions of the Emperor’ were officials in the late Roman empire; from their title is derived the modern title of ‘count’.

3. Caesar on the Druids

Sed de his duobus generibus alterum est druidum, alterum equitum. Illi rebus divinis intersunt, sacrificia privata et publica procurant, religions interpretantur. Ad hos Magnus adulescentium numerus disciplinae causa concurririt, magnoque hi sunt apud eos honore. Nam fere de omnibus controversiis publicis privatisque constituunt, et si quod est admissum facinus, si caedes facta, si de hereditate, de finibus controversia est, idem decernunt, praemia poenasque constituunt. Si qui aut privatus aut populus eorum decreto non stetit, sacrificiis interdicit; haec poena apud eos est gravissima. Quibus ita est interdictum, hi numero impiorum ac sceleratorum habentur. Hoc mortuo, aut si qui ex reliquis excellit dignitate succedit, aut si sunt plures pares, suffragio druidum, nonnumquam etiam armis de principatu contendunt.

de his duobus generibus i.e. the two highest classes of Celtic society.
incommodi depends on quid; lit. ‘anything of misfortune’, i.e. any misfortune.
KEY TO REVISION EXERCISES

(Translations given for the subjunctive are necessarily conventional: ‘may’ for the present, ‘might’ for the imperfect, ‘may have’ for the perfect, ‘might have’ for the pluperfect.)

Exercise 1
1. Active; we are leading.
2. Passive; we are being led.
3. Deponent; we are following.
4. Active; he is cooking.
5. Passive; it is being cooked.
6. Deponent; he is speaking.
7. Deponent; you fear.
8. Passive; you will be loved.
9. Active; you will/may have loved.
10. Active; you were working.
11. Active; you frighten.
12. Passive; you are being frightened.
13. Active; they are asking for/making for/attacking.
14. Passive; they are asked for/attacked.
15. Deponent; they were forgetting.
16. Deponent; you will philosophise.

Exercise 2
1. Present indicative; we are giving.
2. Present subjunctive; we may lead.
3. Imperfect indicative; we were saying.
4. Present indicative; we are approaching (ad-eo).
5. Future indicative; we shall approach.
6. Present indicative (passive): we are being heard.
7. Imperfect indicative; they were hearing.
8. Pluperfect indicative; they had heard.
9. Perfect indicative; they heard (alternative forms: audiverunt or audierunt).
10. Future perfect indicative or perfect subjunctive: they will/may have heard.
12. Future indicative: you will say.
13. Present subjunctive: you may say.
14. Present indicative OR future indicative (depending on length of e) (passive): you are being led OR you will be led.
15. Future perfect indicative or perfect subjunctive: they will/may have led.
16. Imperfect subjunctive: you might say.

Exercise 3
1. Present indicative: he frightens.
2. Imperfect subjunctive: he might frighten.
3. Future indicative: they will carry.
4. Imperfect subjunctive: they might carry.
5. Present subjunctive: they may work.
6. Future indicative: they will hear.
7. Present subjunctive (passive): they may be worn down.
8. Present subjunctive: they may be frightened.
9. Present indicative: they are working.
10. Present subjunctive: they may hear.
12. Present subjunctive; they may fly; OR future indicative; they will want.
13. Present subjunctive; they may want.
14. Imperfect subjunctive; they might want.
15. Present indicative; they cover. (velo 1st conj.)
16. Present subjunctive; they may cover.

Exercise 4
1. Maneo; he stayed.
2. Moneo; he advised.
3. Calesco; they grew hot.
4. Cresco; they grew larger. (Theoretically could also be from cerno).
5. Iubeo; I ordered. (Could also be plural of the past participle).
6. Amitto; they had lost.
7. Amo; he will/may have loved (contracted form of amaverit).
8. Credo; I may have believed.
9. Possum; we had been able.
10. Poto; we had drunk.
11. Pono; to have placed.
12. Aufero; he will/may have taken away.
13. Sum; we were.
14. Effugio; they might have escaped.
15. Abeo; he had gone away.
16. Tango; I had touched/reached.

Exercise 5
1. They were admitted.
2. It had been said.
3. You have been bound.
4. He has been defeated.
5. We may have been killed.
6. I have forgotten.
7. We shall have followed.
8. You are terrified.
9. They (neuter) have been finished.
10. It (a feminine object) might have been finished.
11. We (women) have spoken.
12. They (men) might have been located.

Exercise 6
1. I am looking for you. te accusative.
2. You are enquiring. tu nominative.
3. The consul arrives. consul nominative.
4. The consuls see (it). consules nominative.
5. He sees the consuls. consules accusative.
6. You will consult your friends. amicos tuos accusative.
7. You (a woman) are pretty. No noun or pronoun.
8. Wars frighten us. bella nominative.
9. They avert wars. bella accusative.
10. We senators meet together. nos and senatores nominative.
11. We see the senators. nos nominative, senatores accusative.
13. As for Caesar, the leader sees him. Caesarem accusative, dux nominative.
14. He sees Caesar the leader (or: as leader). Caesarem and ducem both accusative.

Exercise 7
1. We obey the leader. duci dative with pareo.
2. We prepare dinner. cenam accusative, object of the verb.
3. We use a sword. gladio ablative with utor.
4. I recognise you. te accusative, object of the verb.
5. Forgive me! mihi dative with ignosco.
6. You have forgotten your duty. officii tui genitive with obliviscor.
7. Fortune favours the brave. fortibus dative with faveo.
8. I enjoy your kindness. tuo beneficio ablative with fruor.
9. He is angry with his slave. servo suo dative with irascor.
10. I keep my wealth. divitias meas accusative, object of the verb.
11. I am a slave to my wealth. divitiis meis dative with servio.

Exercise 8 (words emphasised by the word order are underlined)

1. They obey their master. domino suo dative with pareo.
2. We are ruled by good consuls. bonis consulibus ablative after preposition a.
3. We receive many benefits. multa beneficia accusative, object of verb.
4. Many dangers frighten us. multa pericula nominative, subject.
5. We are now in worse dangers. peioribus periculis ablative after preposition in.
6. This very famous battle will always be commemorated. haec celeberrima pugna nominative, subject.
7. We obey no master because we are free. nulli domino dative with pareo.
8. I have now read the most famous speech of all. celeberrimam omnium orationem accusative, object of verb.
9. I am about to narrate a war which is the most memorable of all. bellum maxime omnium memorabile accusative, object of verb.
10. The Britons do not differ much from the Gaulish custom(s). Gallica consuetudine ablative after preposition a.
11. Furthermore all the Britons dye themselves with woad. omnes Britanni nominative, subject.
12. It makes a blue colour. caeruleum colorem accusative, object of verb.

Exercise 9

1. Cicero is an orator.
2. This orator is called Cicero.
3. Cicero is regarded as the greatest orator.
4. The orator becomes consul.
5. He was made consul.
6. The king of the Trojans is Priam.
7. Priam was made king of the Trojans.
8. Priam, king of the Trojans, leads the army.
9. Priam was named as king by the Trojans.
10. The king of the Trojans was called Priam.

Exercise 10

1. He gave me a cup full of wine.
2. We cannot hide the letter which has been read by many people.
3. I saw the man writing a book.
4. We commend to you a man worthy of every honour.
5. Learning is a thing more precious than any gold.
6. Socrates was judged the wisest of all men.
7. I came into a hall decorated with golden columns.
8. The Romans waged war following our advice. (The three words ending in –um may seem confusing, but this is the only possible translation, and the order is perfectly natural.)

Exercise 11

1. This only I can say.
2. We cannot understand these Latin words.
3. We want to be taught by you.
4. Do you want to come with me to the games?
5. You would rather sleep than go to the games.
6. I prefer to be taught by no master than by a bad one.
7. You want to fly but you can’t.
8. We were not able to obtain what we wanted.
9. I would do this if I were able to do it.
10. He would have done it if he had wanted to, but he did not want to.

Exercise 12
1. With this consul what can we expect?
2. With you as leader we shall overcome all difficulties.
3. With Claudius in command, the Romans invade Britain.
4. The enemies having been finally beaten, the Romans gave themselves over to luxury.
5. I remember this, which was done when I was a young man.
6. After the master was killed, the slaves were condemned.

Exercise 13
1. Isn’t the Latin language easy?
2. Do you really think the Latin language is easy?
3. I don’t know whether he wants to or not.
4. I don’t know what he wants.
5. Look what I am doing.
6. Don’t despair, because we are getting towards the end quickly.
7. So (please) imitate Socrates, who learned Greek literature as an old man.
8. Long live all teachers of the Latin language.
9. If only we could hear the Romans speaking Latin!
10. He asked me to explain this matter to him.

Passages for translation
1. Claudia to her (dear) Lepidina, greeting. On 11 September, sister, I ask you to do me the favour of coming (lit. do willingly that you may come) to us for the celebration of my birthday (lit. my solemn natal day). You will make (lit. being about to make: future participle) the day pleasanter for me by your presence if you will come. My regards to your (husband) Cerialis. My Aelius and my little son greet you. I shall expect you, sister. Keep well, sister; believe me, (you are) my dearest life and soul; and goodbye.

2. There was a certain Companion of the Emperor, who was sitting in his house, and he had a certain little son, and he used to sleep (lie) in his presence, and there was no other in the house apart from him. Caesar then sent and summoned him; and he arose and went to him, and left with the child a dog, a keen-scented hunter; and the dog (lit. which dog) slept next to the boy. And look, a snake appeared and attacked the boy. The dog ran and throttled the snake, and went to meet the master; but the dog’s mouth was full of blood. The Companion, seeing this, was afraid for his son, and drawing his sword killed the dog. And going home he found the boy sleeping, and the snake dead next to him, and he saw that he had killed the dog without cause, and he regretted the deed.

3. (LITERAL TRANSLATION) But of these two kinds one is of the druids, the other of the knights. Those are involved in divine things, arrange private and public sacrifices, interpret religions. To these a great number of young men run together by cause of education, and these are with great honour among them. For more or less about all disputes public and private they decide, and if any crime has been committed, if murder done, if about inheritance, about boundaries there is dispute, the same men decree, they decide awards and penalties. If anyone either private citizen or community has not stood by their decree, they debar from sacrifices; this is the severest penalty among them. Those to whom it has been so debarred, these are held in the number of the impious and criminal, for these all get out of the...
way, they flee approach and conversation, lest they receive anything of misfortune from contagion; nor is right granted to them asking, nor is any honour shared. For all these druids one presides, who has the highest authority among them. With him dead, either if any of the rest excels in suitability, he succeeds, or if there are several equal, by the vote of the druids, sometimes also by arms, they compete for the leadership.

(IDIOMATIC TRANSLATION) Of these two classes one consists of druids, the other of knights. The druids attend religious ceremonies, arrange sacrifices both public and private, and pronounce on questions of religion. A large number of young men flock to them for their education; and they are held in high honour among the people. They decide virtually all disputes whether public or private; if a crime is committed, if there has been a murder, or if there is a quarrel about inheritance or a boundary dispute, it is they who make the decision and who settle any award or penalty. Any individual or community which fails to abide by their decision is debarred from the sacrifices; this is the severest penalty among them. Those who are so debarred are regarded as impious and criminal; everyone avoids them; they will not approach them or talk to them, so as to avoid any misfortune as a result of contact with them. They have no redress for their claims, and they are barred from any office. One of the druids presides over all the rest, and has the highest authority in the community. When he dies, either there is an obvious successor who is more suitable than the rest, or else, if there are several candidates of equal merit, they compete for the leadership in an election among the druids, and sometimes also by armed combat.

END OF UNIT 30

AND

END OF THE BEGINNERS’ COURSE

Audentes Fortuna iuvat
Appendix A: SUMMARY OF GRAMMATICAL TERMS

Ab urbe condita construction: see fused participle

Ablative: case meaning ‘from’, ‘with’, ‘by’ or ‘at’, used with prepositions and in various idiomatic ways

Accusative: case used for the object of a verb, after prepositions, in the accusative-infinitive construction, and in certain other usages

Accusative-infinitive: construction found in English sentences like ‘I want you to go’; used much more widely in Latin, e.g. dico Caesarem venisse ‘I say Caesar to have arrived’ = ‘I say that Caesar has arrived’.

Active: verb meaning that the subject does something

Adjective: describing word

Adverb: word saying how, when, where etc. something is done

Agent: person by whom something is done; expressed by a(b) + ablative in Latin

Agreement: modification of the form of a word to show that it goes with another word, e.g. adjectives agree with nouns by taking the same gender, number and case

Animate: either masculine or feminine

Apposition: nouns are in apposition when both refer to the same thing, e.g. ‘Cicero the orator’.

Assimilation: change of sound to become more like a neighbouring sound; e.g. ad+similatio becomes assimilatio.

Asyndeton: omission of conjunctions.

Case: form taken by a noun, pronoun or noun-phrase to show its function in the sentence

Causal clause: introduced by ‘because’, etc.

Clause: division of a sentence containing a verb of its own. Clauses are either main clauses, which make sense when standing alone, or subordinate (dependent) clauses, which do not.

Comparative clause: introduced by ‘as’, ‘as if’, ‘just as’, etc.

Comparative: form of adjective indicating a greater degree, e.g. ‘larger’, ‘braver’

Comparison of adjectives: modification of suffix to give comparative and superlative

Complement (subject complement): word or phrase denoting who or what the subject is, becomes, etc., e.g. ‘I am a pig’, ‘Cicero was made consul’

Compound verb: verb compounded of a simple verb plus a prepositional prefix, e.g. ‘out-going’.

Conditional clause: if-clause

Conjugation: (a) inflection of verbs for person, number, tense, mood and voice; (b) group of verbs conjugated in similar ways.

Conjunction: word used to join words or sentences, e.g. ‘and’, ‘but’, ‘when’, ‘if’. Conjunctions are either co-ordinating (e.g. ‘and’, ‘but’) or subordinating (e.g. ‘when’). Subordinating conjunctions introduce subordinate clauses.

Consecutive clause: result clause

Contraction: where two sounds merge to make a single sound (sometimes after the loss of another sound that was between them): e.g. delerunt for dele-v-erunt.

Copula: verb ‘to be’.

Dative: case meaning ‘to’ or ‘for’

Declension: (a) method of changing form of nouns etc. to denote case and number; (b) group of nouns etc. inflected in the same or similar ways.

Decline: to inflect for case and number.

Deictic: word such as a demonstrative pronoun used to point out a person or thing

Demonstrative pronouns: this, that

Dependent clause: subordinate clause.
Deponent verb: verb occurring only in passive forms, but with meaning often corresponding
to an active verb in other languages.
Dictionary form: nominative singular for nouns; nominative singular masculine for
adjectives; first person singular present indicative active or deponent for verbs.
Enclitic: word pronounced together with previous word (and in some cases so written), e.g.
the Latin –que meaning ‘and’.
Factive verb: verb denoting coming into a state, being made into something, etc. Factive
verbs have a subject complement to complete their meaning.
Feminine: grammatical gender associated with femaleness
Fifth declension: e-coloured nouns such as res, dies.
Final clause: purpose clause
First conjugation: verbs with a-coloured endings in the present.
First declension: nouns with a-coloured endings.
First person: I, we (form of verb used by speaker referring to self as subject)
Fourth conjugation: i-coloured verbs.
Fourth declension: nouns taking u-coloured endings.
Fused participle: found in English in phrases like ‘you being here is a good thing’ for ‘the
fact that you are here’; Latin does this with the past participle in phrases like ab urbe
condita from the city having been founded, i.e. from the foundation of the city.
Future perfect tense: ‘I’ll have done’
Gender: masculine, feminine or neuter.
Genitive: case meaning ‘of’ or denoting possession
Gerund: noun derived from verb; the English gerund ends in ‘-ing’ as in ‘he made his money
by driving taxis’, ‘digging for gold is exciting’.
Gerundive: Latin adjective derived from verb, denoting that something is to be done;
comparable with some English adjectives in ‘-able’ as in ‘tax is payable’.
Hyperbaton: separation of words that go together grammatically
Imperative: form of verb used for asking or telling people to do things
Imperfect tense: ‘I was doing’ or ‘I used to do’
Indefinite pronoun: some, any
Indicative: form of verb stating fact
Indirect command: clause after a verb of commanding (asking, telling etc.) stating what was
commanded
Indirect object: word or phrase indicating the person to whom something is said or given, e.g.
‘tell me a story’; expressed by the Dative in Latin
Indirect question: clause after a verb of asking which states what was asked
Infinitive: form of verb equivalent to English ‘to do’; found after verbs like ‘want to’, ‘decide
to’, ‘tell someone to’, etc., and in the accusative-infinitive construction
Inflection: change in form of word (in Latin, generally at the end) to denote case and number
in nouns, case, number and gender in adjectives and pronouns, and person, number, tense,
mood and voice in verbs.
Instrumental Ablative: ablative denoting the thing by means of which an action is performed
Intensive pronoun: -self as in I myself, he himself, etc. (Latin ipse)
Interjection: word that has no grammatical relation with other words but merely expresses an
emotion, e.g. ‘oh!’ , ‘ah!’ , ‘damn!’
Interrogative pronoun: questioning pronoun such as who? which? what?
Irregular verb: verb that doesn’t belong to any of the regular conjugations.
Locative: case denoting rest at a place
Main clause: see clause.
Masculine: grammatical gender associated with maleness
Mood: indicative or subjunctive, etc.
Nasal Infix: nasal sound (n or m) inserted into the present stem of verbs, which is often lost in the perfect and/or past participle: e.g. relinquo I leave, perfect reliqui.

Neuter: grammatical gender associated with inanimate objects

Nominative: case used for the subject of a verb or the complement of the verb ‘to be’

Noun: naming word

Noun-phrase: phrase involving a noun and one or more other words that go with it

Number: singular or plural.

Object complement: word or phrase denoting who or what the object is, becomes, etc., e.g. ‘I painted the house green’

Object: word or phrase expressing the person or thing affected by the action of an active verb, e.g. ‘the dog bites the man’

Objective genitive: genitive used as in e.g. ‘love of one’s country’; the country is the object of the love

Participle: adjective derived from verb: present participle e.g. ‘doing’, past participle e.g. ‘done’

Particle: word like ‘therefore’ or ‘however’ used to express logical relationships between sentences, or like ‘even’ used to emphasise individual words or phrases.

Partitive genitive: genitive used to denote the whole of which something is a part

Passive: verb meaning that the subject has something done to him/her/it

Past participle: e.g. ‘done’, ‘written’, ‘eaten’

Perfect: tense denoting completed action, e.g. ‘I have done’

Perfect infinitive: infinitive form meaning ‘to have done’

Personal ending: ending of verb showing whether the subject is first, second or third person, singular or plural

Personal pronoun: I you he she it we you they

Phrase: group of word that go together grammatically but do not form a complete clause.

Pluperfect tense: ‘I had done’

Plural: form denoting more than one individual

Predicate: what is said about the subject

Predicative dative: Latin idiomatic use of dative for the effect to which something conduces, e.g. hoc voluptati est ‘this is a pleasure’ i.e. causes pleasure.

Prefix: added to beginning of word

Preposition: word placed before a noun, pronoun or noun-phrase to denote a variety of relations e.g. of place, such as ‘in’, ‘out of’, ‘from’, ‘over’, ‘under’, ‘with’, ‘without’, etc.

Prepositions in Latin take either the Accusative or the Ablative.

Present participle: e.g. ‘doing’, ‘sleeping’ as in ‘I am doing it’, ‘let sleeping dogs lie’ (not to be confused with ‘doing’ as a noun, e.g. ‘doing this is easy’).

Principal Parts: the four (or fewer) forms of a verb from which all other forms can be deduced

Pronoun: word that stands in for a noun

Purpose clause: clause introduced by ‘in order that’ etc; also called final clause

Reduplication: prefix consisting of a repetition of the first sound or sounds of a verb root, an archaic method of forming the Perfect which persists in a few Latin verbs; e.g. tendo, I stretch or aim, perfect tetendi, I stretched or aimed.

Reflexive pronoun: pronoun referring back to subject of sentence, as in ‘he brought it with him’, ‘I wash myself’. (Latin se is the third person reflexive)

Relative clause: introduced by ‘who’, ‘which’, ‘that’, etc.

Relative pronoun: who, which, that as in ‘the man who killed Caesar’, ‘the things that I like’

Result clause: clause referring to the result of an action or state of affairs, e.g. ‘he sang so loudly that he broke the glass’.

Second conjugation: e-coloured verbs

Second declension: nouns like dominus or bellum; adjectives like magnus.

Second person: you (form of verb referring to person addressed as subject)
Singular: form denoting one individual
Stem: part of a noun or verb that remains the same when the word is inflected; the endings are added to the stem.
Subject complement: see complement.
Subject: word or phrase expressing the person/thing that performs the action of an active verb, or undergoes the action of a passive verb, e.g. ‘the dog bites’, ‘the dog is bitten’
Subjective genitive: genitive used as in e.g. ‘Caesar’s love for me’; Caesar is the one who loves
Subjunctive: form of verb showing that action is not a fact but is desired or envisaged
Subordinate clause: see clause; see also conjunction.
Suffix: added to end of word
Superlative: form of adjective indicating greatest degree, e.g. ‘largest’, ‘bravest’
Temporal clause: clause referring to time, introduced by when, while, before, after etc.
Tense: form of verb showing time action performed (present, past, future, etc.)
Tense marker: element of verb that comes between the verb stem and the personal ending, showing tense.
Third conjugation: verbs like dico (group A) or capio (group B)
Third declension: nouns and adjectives taking the endings –em –is –i –e etc.
Third person: he, she, it, they
Topicalisation: moving word to front of sentence to show that it is the topic being talked about; often achieved in English with the words ‘as for’
Verb: doing word
Vocative: case denoting that the person named is being addressed
Voice: active or passive.
Vowel weakening: when vowels come to be pronounced less distinctly in unstressed syllables. This affected vowels in Latin compound verbs where the stress was originally (though no longer in classical times) on the prefix: e.g. pro+habeo => prohibeo.
Appendix B: A BASIC LATIN WORD LIST

Note: )( means ‘distinguish from’.

25 BASIC LATIN VERBS

Irregular verbs (covered in course):
sum be
possum can
volo want
nolo don’t want
malo prefer
eo go
fero carry, bring, bear
fio become, be made, be done

1st conjugation:
do give
sto stand
puto think (that ...)

2nd conjugation:
habeo have, hold
debio owe, ought
iubeo tell someone to do something
soleo be used to, usually do
teneo hold

3rd conjugation (Group A)
ago do, drive
dico say
gero carry, wear, wield, carry on, do
credo believe

3rd conjugation (Group B)
capio take
facio do, make
iacio throw

4th conjugation
scio know
venio come

Verbs of the first conjugation (A-coloured):
adiuvo help
ambulo walk
amo love
approbo approve
aro plough
canto sing
cito spur on
clamo shout
cogito think (about)
disputo argue
erro wander, go astray, be wrong
excito wake up
fugo chase away )( fugio flee
gusto taste
impero gove orders
iuvo help; iuvat it is pleasant (not ‘it helps’ ))( iubeo command
laboro work, be in trouble, bother
lavo wash
neco kill
paro prepare )( pareo appear, pario give birth

porto carry
probo try, prove, approve
pugno fight
recito recite
rogo ask
salto dance
seco cut
servo keep, preserve, save )( servio serve
simulo pretend
specto watch, look at

spero hope
spiro breathe
tempo or tento try (out)
veto forbid
voco call
volo fly )( volo want

Deponent:
conor try (make effort)
hortor encourage
minor threaten
miror wonder
recordor remember, recall
Verbs of the second conjugation (E-coloured):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>appareo</td>
<td>appear, be obviously</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ardeo</td>
<td>burn (be hot)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>audeo</td>
<td>dare, hear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>augeo</td>
<td>increase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caleo</td>
<td>be hot</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caveo</td>
<td>beware</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>displiceo</td>
<td>displease</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>doceo</td>
<td>teach</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fleo</td>
<td>weep</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>frigeo</td>
<td>be cold, ‘fall flat’</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gaudio</td>
<td>be glad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iaceo</td>
<td>lie, throw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iubo</td>
<td>tell (someone to do something), command</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>maneo</td>
<td>stay</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moneo</td>
<td>warn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>moveo</td>
<td>move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oleo</td>
<td>smell (of)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pareo</td>
<td>appear, obey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>placeo</td>
<td>please</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prohibeo</td>
<td>forbid</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Deponent:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>confiteor</td>
<td>confess</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fateor</td>
<td>admit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intueor</td>
<td>look at</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>polliceor</td>
<td>promise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>reor</td>
<td>think</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tueor</td>
<td>guard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vereor</td>
<td>fear, revere</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Verbs of the third conjugation (Group A):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>abdo</td>
<td>put away, hide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accendo</td>
<td>set light to</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>addo</td>
<td>add</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adimo</td>
<td>take away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>agnosco</td>
<td>recognise, pardon</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bibo</td>
<td>drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kadar</td>
<td>fall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caedo</td>
<td>beat, chop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cano</td>
<td>sing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cedo</td>
<td>give in, give way</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>claudo</td>
<td>close</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cognosco</td>
<td>learn, enquire into</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>colo</td>
<td>cultivate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comburo</td>
<td>burn up</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>concludo</td>
<td>conclude</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>condoo</td>
<td>hide, store, found</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>consuesco</td>
<td>get used to; have affair with</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>credo</td>
<td>believe, trust, entrust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>curro</td>
<td>run</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>decido</td>
<td>(short i) fall down, (decido (long i) decide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>demo</td>
<td>take away</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>desino</td>
<td>stop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>desisto</td>
<td>stop</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dico</td>
<td>say</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>disco</td>
<td>learn</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>duco</td>
<td>lead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>edo</td>
<td>give out</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>eligo</td>
<td>choose, elect</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emo</td>
<td>buy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>extingue</td>
<td>extinguish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>figo</td>
<td>fix</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fingo</td>
<td>mould, invent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>flecto</td>
<td>bend</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fluo</td>
<td>flow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>includo</td>
<td>includo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>intellego</td>
<td>understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lego</td>
<td>read, leave in will, delegate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>linquo</td>
<td>leave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ludo</td>
<td>play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>metuo</td>
<td>fear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mitto</td>
<td>send</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nosco</td>
<td>get to know</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>occido</td>
<td>kill</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pello</td>
<td>drive (away)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perdo</td>
<td>destroy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>perimo</td>
<td>destroy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>permitto</td>
<td>allow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>peto</td>
<td>go for, attack, ask for</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pingo</td>
<td>paint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pono</td>
<td>put, place</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
premo press
procedo go forward, proceed
prodo betray
promitto promise
quaero look for, ask a question
quiesco rest, be quiet
rado scrape
reddo give back
rego rule, control
relinquo leave

scando climb
scindo cut, tear
scribo write
seligo select
sino allow, let
sisto set up
solvo release; pay
stringo draw tight, pass close to, draw (sword)
sumo take
surgo get up

tango touch
ing(u)o tinge, dye, wet
tollo raise, lift, remove
trado hand over
traho drag
uro burn (sth.)
vado go
velho carry (on wheels or horseback)
vendo sell
vero turn

vinco win, defeat
vivo live
volvo roll

Deponent:
enitor make effort, give birth
irascor be angry
loquor speak
nitor lean, make effort
obliviscor forget
sequor follow
utor use

Verbs of the Third Conjugation (Group B):

abripio snatch away
accipio receive
adicio add
conficio finish
conspicio catch sight of
corripio seize
cupio desire
deicio throw down
desipio be silly
despicio look down, despise

efficio make, effect
excipio receive, welcome
exsilio jump out (exsilium exile
fugio flee (fugo chase
incipio begin (coepi began)
inficio dye
inicio throw in
inspicio inspect
interficio kill (do in)
obicio throw in someone’s way, object, accuse

olfacio smell (sniff)
pario give birth to, give rise to (paro prepare, pareo appear
patefacio uncover, make known
percutio hit
perficio finish
quatio shake
rapio seize, snatch, plunder
salio jump
sapiio taste; be sensible

Deponent:
morior die (moror delay
patior suffer, undergo, allow
Verbs of the fourth conjugation (I-coloured):

*advenio* arrive
*aperio* open (something)
*audio* hear ) (*audéo* dare
*devenio* arrive, end up somewhere
*dormio* sleep
*ferio* hit ) (*feró* bring, bear
*invenio* find
*munio* fortify
*nescio* don’t know
*oboedio* obey

*operio* cover ) (*opperior* lie in wait for
*pervenio* arrive (at end of journey)
*punio* punish
*reperio* discover
*sentio* feel, realise
*servio* serve, be a slave

Deponent:

*experior* try out
*opperior* lie in wait for
*potior* gain possession (of)

Irregular verbs:

*edo* (short *e*) eat )(*edo* (long *e*) give out,
*inquam* I say, *inquit* he says/said
*odi* hate (perfect tense form)
*memini* remember (perfect tense form)

Compounds of *sum, eo, fero*:

*absum* be absent
*adsum* be present
*desum* be lacking
*intersum* be involved
*prosum* be useful
*obsum* be a hindrance
*abeo* go away
*adeo* approach
*exeo* go out
*ineo* go in
*obeo* do the rounds; ‘pass on’ (= die)
*pereo* be destroyed, be lost, perish
*subeo* approach, go up to, creep up
*transeo* cross
*adfero* bring
*aufero* take away
*effero* carry away
*infero* bring in

NOUNS (arranged roughly by meaning):

*res* thing (etc.)
*modus* way, measure, limit; *modo* just
*ratio* method, reason, way
*via* way, road
*focus* place
*tempus tempor-* time
*pars part-* part
*corpus corpor-* body
*animus* mind, spirit, courage )(*anima* soul, vital spirit, life
*mens ment-* mind, intellect
*caput capit-* head
*facies* face
*vultus* expression on face
*capilli* hair; *crines* hair
*brachium* arm
*crus crur-* leg
*manus* hand
*pes ped-* foot
*oculus* eye
*auris* ear
*nasus* nose
*os or-* mouth, face )(*os oss-* bone
*dens dent-* tooth
*frons front-* forehead
*labrum* lip; *labium* lip
*collum* front of neck ) (*collis* hill
*cervix* back of neck
*umerus* shoulder
*tergum* back
*pectus pector-* chest
*cor cord-* heart

*lux luc-* light
*ignis* fire
*aqua* water
*aer aer-* air )(*aes aer-* bronze
*sol sun*) (*solus* alone (sole), *solum* soil,
*scolea* sole (shoe, or the fish)
*luna* moon
*stella* star
*caelum* sky, heaven
*terra* earth, land; *tellus* earth, land
*orbis terrarum* world ( *orbis* circle, globe)
*mare sea*) (*mas mar-* male
*flumen* river; *fluvius* river; *amnis* river
*fons font-* fountain, spring, source
*pont* bridge
*collum* hill *) (*collum* neck
*mons mont-* mountain, hill
*rus rur-* countryside
*campus* plain, field
*ager* field (cultivated)
semen seed
frumentum corn
agricola farmer
vallis valley
silva wood, forest
saxum rock
regio region
ora border, region, shore (os or- mouth
litus litor- shore )( littera letter

animal animal; bestia animal
canis dog )( canus white, grey, cano sing
equus horse )( aequus level, equal
felis or feles cat )( felix lucky
lupus wolf
mus mur- mouse )( murus wall
sus pig )( suus his, her, its
bos ox
taurus bull
vaca cow
iuvenca cow, heifer )( iuvenis young man
porcus pig
aper boar )( apis bee
pecus farm animal: individually pecud-, collectively pecor-
ovis sheep
avis bird )( avus grandfather
piscis fish
leo lion

domus house, home )( domo I tame
villa country house, farmhouse, villa
ianua door
porta gate )( portus harbour, port
balneum bath
sedes seat
sella chair
cubile bed
lectus bed, couch, sofa
mensa table
tectum roof
murus wall
paries pariet- wall (of house or room)
fenestra window
aedi|f|icium building
aedes temple; (pl.) house
hortus garden
arb|or tree
flos flor- flower
gramen grass
fructus fruit

liber book )( liber free, libra scales,
pound. Liber god of wine, liberi children
tabula writing tablet
littera letter (of alphabet)
litterae letter (sent by post); epistula letter
stilus stylus, pen
penna pen, quill
charta paper
carmen song, poem
vestimenta clothes
calceus shoe
toga toga
tunica tunic
stola dress (woman’s)
pallium cloak
iter itiner- journey
vehiculum vehicle
rota wheel
currus chariot
navis ship
urbs city
oppidum town
vicus village, region of city
taberna shop
forum market (-place), forum )( fores door, foras outside
turba crowd; disturbance
tumultus riot
cibus food
panis bread
vinum wine
prandium lunch
cena dinner
caro carn- meat, flesh
caseus cheese
lac milk
mel honey
bellum war )( bellus pretty
exercitus army
castra camp
dux general; imperator general
imperium orders; the right to command
legatus legate
legio legion
cohors cohort
acies front line; edge
agmen agmin- marching column
miles milit- soldier
gladius sword
arma (n. pl.) armour
hasta spear; pilum spear )( pila ball, pila
pillar, pilus hair
scutum shield
pax peace
foedus foeder- treaty ) foedus horrible
proelium battle
eques equit- horseman, equestrian
auxilium help
nuntius messenger; news
caedes slaughter
clades defeat, disaster
victoria victory
gloria glory
fama fame, reputation
vulnus vulner- wound ) vultus facial expression

populus the people
plebes or plebs the plebs (plebeians, common people, not patricians)
comitia elections ) comes comit- companion
senatus senate
magistratus magistrate, magistracy

templum temple
deus god
da goddess
luppiter jov- Jupiter
religio religion
divinatio divination, prophecy
fas (religiously) right
nefas (religiously) wrong
iusiurandum oath
sacramentum oath
votum prayer, vow
preces prayers
ara altar ) ars art, aro to plough
sacerdos sacerdot- priest

pecunia money
donum gift
munus gift, service
officium obligation
gratia favour; gratiae thanks; gratis for nothing

aurum gold
argentum silver
aes aer- bronze ) aer air
aes alienum borrowed money, debt
ferrum iron
nummus coin

homo homin- man (human being)
vir man (male person); husband
mas mar- male ) mare sea
maritus husband, bridegroom
uxor wife
coniunx or coniux coniug- spouse

femina lady; female
mulier woman
virgo virgin- girl, virgin
puella girl
puer boy
liberi children (free members of family)
parents parent- parent
servus slave
dominus master, owner

rex king
regina queen
civis citizen
hospes guest
hostis enemy (foreign)
inimicus enemy (personal)
princeps leader
magister master, teacher

pater father
mater mother
filius son
filia daughter
frater brother
soror sister
avus grandfather ) avis bird
avia grandmother
familia family; slaves
gens gent- clan
genus gener- kind, race
natio nation
amicus friend
amica girlfriend ) amita aunt
comes companion
socius companion, ally

lingua tongue; language
sermo language; conversation
verbum word
oratio speech
vox voc- voice
nomen nomin- name
numerus number

lex leg- law
ius iur- law; right
iudex iudic- judge, juryman
iudicium court
consilium plan, advice, advisory body
concilium assembly
crimen charge, accusation
discrimen difference; crisis
scelus sceler- crime
facinus facinor- (bad) deed
factum deed, fact
culpa blame
laus laud- praise
virtus virtut- virtue, good quality
vitium fault
vis vir-force; (pl.) strength (vir man

opus oper- work, job (ops help; (pl.)
resources; opera effort
labor work, toil
otium relaxation, leisure
negotium business
cura worry
mora delay
quies quiet- rest, quiet
ludus game
somnus sleep
somnium dream
amor love
convivium party
salus salut-wellbeing; greetings
ars art-art (of doing sth.), skill, quality of
character
fors chance; forte by chance (fortis
strong, brave
fortuna fortune, luck
fatum fate
ingenium personality, intellect, genius
vita life
mors mort-death

dies day
nox noct-night
mensis month
annus year
hora hour

ver spring (verus true
aestas summer (aetas age, aestus heat or
swell of the sea
hiems winter
vesper evening

ADJECTIVES

acer sharp, keen, acidic
acerbus harsh
acutus sharp, acute
adulescens young (man)
aeger ill
aequus level, equal, fair
albus white; candidus white
alienus someone else’s
altus high; deep
amarus bitter

angustus narrow (augustus augst
antiquus old, former
asper rough
audax bold
bellus pretty
benignus kind (benign)
bonus good
brevis short
caeler blue
calidus hot (callidus clever, cunning
canus dear, expensive
castus ritually pure, chaste
cautus careful
celer quick
clarus brilliant, famous
comis friendly (comes companion, coma
hair
cruelis cruel
curvus curved
defilis weak
dexter right (hand)
difficilis difficult
dignus suitable, worthy
dissimilis or diversus different
dives divit- or dit-rich (Dis Dit- Pluto)
dulcis sweet
durus hard, harsh
delicilis easy
dalsus false
felix fortunate
ferox fierce, wild

ferus wild
fessus tired
flexus bent
fortis strong, brave (forte by chance
frigidus cold
frugi thrifty (doesn’t decline; really a form
of the noun frux fruit, profit)
furius mad
grandis large
gravis heavy
hebes blunt, stupid
humanus human; kind, humane
humilis low
ignavus cowardly, lazy (ignarus ignorant
impiger hard-working
inanis empty
indignus unworthy
iners lazy, stupid
infelix unfortunate
ingsus huge
insanus insane

iratus angry
iuvenis young (man)
laetus glad, happy
latus wide (latus later- (short a) side
lentus slow, slow-moving, pliable
levis (short e) light (levis (long e) smooth
liber free
longus long
magnus great
malus bad

medius middle
mirabilis wonderful
mirus strange
miser poor, wretched, miserable, pitiable
mollis soft
mortuus dead
multus much; multí many
niger black
nobilis noble, famous
notus well-known

novus new
obscurus dark, obscure
par equal, even (numbers); (as noun) a pair
parvus small
pauci few
paulum a little
pauper poor
periculosus dangerous
piger lazy
pinguis fat

pius pious, loyal, dutiful
planus flat
plenus full
praeclarus excellent
pravus wrong
primus first
prior former
prudens wise, learned, prudent
pulcher beautiful, handsome
purus pure, clean

recens recent, fresh
rectus straight, right
ruber red
rufus red (of hair)
sacer sacred, taboo, cursed
saevus cruel, ferocious
sanctus holy
sanus healthy
sapiens wise, sensible
senex sen- old (man)

serus late
severus stern
siccus dry
sinister left (hand)
solitus usual (solitudo solitude, desert
sordidus dirty
spissus thick
stultus stupid, foolish
suus one’s own
tener tender, young

tenus thin
tristis sad, grim
turpis ugly, shameful
tutus safe
umidus wet; uvidus wet; usus wet
utilis useful
vanus empty, vain
vari us various
vastus waste, desert, vast
velox fast-moving

verus true
vetus veter- old
vilis cheap
viridis green
vivus alive
MISCELLANEOUS (adverbs, pronouns etc.)

bene well
male badly

semeper always
saepe often ) saepes fence, hedge
raro rarely
interdum sometimes
paulisper or parumper for a short time
brevi shortly
paulatim little by little
numquam never
nusquam nowhere
mox soon, presently

mane in the morning ) maneo to stay
vesperi in the evening
sero late ) sero to sow
hodie today
heri yesterday
cras tomorrow
postridie the next day

prope near
procul far, at a distance
longe far

idem the same
alter the other
alius another
nemo none
nullus all
omnis all
totus whole
solus only, alone

quis who
qualis what sort of
quando when
ubi where
quantus how big
quot how many
uter which of two
neuter neither

Conversational Latin

salve hello
vale goodbye
ut vales? how are you?
bene, gratias OK thanks
numquid vis? is there anything you want?
(normaly said before taking leave)

ut bene sit tibi (reply to foregoing)
saluta tuos regards to the family
gratias tibi ago thank you
di te ament bless you
quaeso please (form of quaero I ask)
cedo (short e) let’s have … ) cedo (long e) I give way

ecce look! ecce illum there he is
sis please, if you don’t mind (si vis; pl. sultis) ) sis may you be
sodes please (si audes)
visne bibamus? shall we have a drink?

age sane yes, by all means
benigne kind of you, but no thanks
amabo please, I’d be so grateful if …
nil moror I don’t mind

age modo or agedum get on with it
hoc age (pl. hoc agite) pay attention
abi get away with you
hercle by Hercules (a very mild expletive); women say ecstor
di boni! God! dear me! (expressing surprise)

pro Iuppiter! God! (expressing indignation)

quid tibi vis? what do you want? what do you mean?
quid malum hoc est? what the devil is this?

di te perdant damn you
peream si... I’m damned if ...
ohe! stop! that’s enough!