
Lingua Latina Legenda: an open-source introduction to Latin

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July 13, 2022

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140.1.2 <i>ille, illa, illud</i> - that, those	364
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140.2.1 <i>ipse, ipsa, ipsum</i> - the very ____, ____self	365
140.3 Personal	365
140.3.1 <i>is, ea, id</i> - he, she, it, they (3rd person)	365
140.3.2 <i>ego</i> - I, me, we, us (1st person)	366
140.3.3 <i>tū</i> - you, you all (2nd person)	366
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1 Textbook and course resources

- grammatical presentation
- vocabulary lists
- selected text passages
- exercises
- reference and review

2 Ca. 90 vocabulary items to learn first

2.1 Uninflected words

2.1.1 Prepositions

1. ab (ls.n4)
2. ad (ls.n665)
3. cum (ls.n11872)
4. ex (ls.n16519)
5. in (ls.n22111)
6. inter1 (ls.n24154)
7. pro1 (ls.n38383)
8. propter (ls.n38952)

2.1.2 Conjunctions

1. autem (ls.n4633)
2. et (ls.n16278)
3. itaque (ls.n25104)
4. quod1 (ls.n40262)
5. quoniam (ls.n40279)
6. si (ls.n44096)
7. sive (ls.n44517)

2.1.3 Adverbs

1. non (ls.n31151)
2. postea (ls.n37196)
3. tunc (ls.n49420)
4. unde (ls.n49762)

2.2 Pronouns

1. idem (ls.n21343)
2. is (ls.n25029)
3. hic (ls.n20640)
4. ille (ls.n21494)
5. sui (ls.n46498)

2.3 Verbs

1. adduco (ls.n743)
2. appello2 (ls.n3134)
3. audio (ls.n4453)
4. concumbo (ls.n9942)
5. contendo (ls.n10770)
6. converto (ls.n11004)
7. cresco (ls.n11570)
8. dico2 (ls.n13804)
9. do (ls.n14599)
 - reddo
10. duco (ls.n14847)
 - adduco
11. eo1 (ls.n15868)
 - transeo
12. fero (ls.n17964)
 - affero
13. habeo (ls.n20077)
14. immolo (ls.n21752)
15. interficio (ls.n24257)

16. mitto (ls.n29328)
 - ammitto
 - emitto
17. morior (ls.n29707)
18. neco (ls.n30624)
19. nolo (ls.n31124)
20. nomino (ls.n31146)
21. occido1 (ls.n32088)
22. pereo (ls.n34869)
23. peto (ls.n35822)
24. rego (ls.n40913)
25. servo (ls.n43947)
26. soleo (ls.n44608)
27. sum1 (ls.n46529)
28. venio (ls.n50442)
29. volo1 (ls.n51298)

2.4 Nouns

1. aper1 (ls.n2976)
2. arma (ls.n3665)
3. avis (ls.n4714)
4. canis1 (ls.n6506)
5. caput (ls.n6724)
6. conjugium (ls.n10349)
7. deus (ls.n13573)
8. dies (ls.n13847)
9. draco1 (ls.n14774a)
10. equus (ls.n16074)
11. filius (ls.n18185)
12. filia (ls.n18173)
13. flumen (ls.n18442)

14. fulmen (ls.n18993)
15. homo (ls.n20866)
16. hospes (ls.n20998)
17. infans (ls.n23109)
18. insula1 (ls.n24040)
19. mons (ls.n29604)
20. mors (ls.n29724)
21. nomen (ls.n31131)
22. nympa (ls.n31537)
23. pars (ls.n33930)
24. pater (ls.n34096)
25. pellis (ls.n34447)
26. rex1 (ls.n41625)
27. sagitta (ls.n42264)
28. taurus1 (ls.n47579)
29. terra (ls.n47897)
30. uxor (ls.n50039)

2.5 Adjectives

1. ipse (ls.n24872)
2. magnus1 (ls.n27649)
3. inferus (ls.n23173)
4. omnis (ls.n32583)
5. sacer (ls.n42157)
6. suus (ls.n47174)
7. tantus (ls.n47473)
8. unus (ls.n49871)

3 Glossing vocabulary

The following files highlight vocabulary not included in the list of first 90 vocabulary items to learn:

- chapter 30
- chapter 31
- chapter 32
- chapter 33
- chapter 34
- chapter 35
- chapter 36

4 Grammatical presentation

5 Nouns, Adjectives, and Pronouns

1. TOC {;toc}
-

6 Nouns

Latin nouns have three characteristics: **grammatical gender**, **number**, and **case**.

Grammatical gender is not related to biological gender (though at times they can align), but it is a classification system that allows us to determine what form the modifying adjective should take (more on this below). Nouns can be one of three genders: **masculine**, **feminine**, or **neuter**. A noun's gender cannot be changed.

Number tells us whether the noun in question is **singular** or **plural**. Consequently, it also plays a role in determining the form the modifying adjective may take (more on this below). When nouns function as the subject of the sentence, number also helps us to determine the proper verb form to use (subject-verb agreement). This works exactly like English. For example, you wouldn't say "the boys walks to school"; rather, the plural subject "boys" must have a plural verb to agree with it: "the boys walk to school."

Case indicates the function of a noun in the sentence. Because Latin is an inflected language, it does not rely on word order to indicate how a word functions in a sentence. Rather, the endings of the noun will change to reflect what it is doing in the sentence - whether it is a subject or direct object or the object of preposition etc. Again, it will also provide information about the form that the modifying adjective must take (more on this below). Nouns can be one of six cases: **nominative**, **genitive**, **dative**, **accusative**, **ablative**, or **vocative**.

To summarize, nouns have:

- Grammatical Gender
 - Feminine
 - Masculine
 - Neuter
- Number
 - Singular
 - Plural
- Case

- Nominative
- Genitive
- *Dative*
- *Accusative*
- *Ablative*
- *Vocative*

How can we determine what characteristics that a noun “in the wild” has? We need to consult what we call the **dictionary entry** (that is, how the noun will appear in a dictionary). Below we have the dictionary entry for *mater*:

mater, matris, f. - mother

Working from left to right:

mater indicates what the **nominative singular** form of the word is.

matris indicates the **genitive singular** form of the word. This form tells us two important pieces of information. First, it provides the **stem** (*matr*) that is used to create all cases and numbers of the noun in question except for the nominative singular. Second, the ending, in this example *-is*, tells us the pattern (often referred to as a **declension**) that the noun will follow in creating different cases and numbers (more below).

Next, we have grammatical **gender**, signified here by the “f”, that tells us that *mater* is feminine. As mentioned above, this is an immutable characteristic.

The last part of the dictionary entry is simply the definition.

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7 Declensions

As I alluded to above, Latin is an inflected language and relies on word endings to reveal how a word functions within the sentence. The way that Latin nouns or adjectives change their endings to reflect their function in a sentence is what we call a **declension**. There are three major declensions (as well as two minor ones) that we will become familiar with.

The declension to which a noun belongs can be easily determined by consulting the genitive singular form in the dictionary entry:

- If the genitive singular entry ends in **-ae**, then the noun belongs to what we call the **first declension** (e.g., *filia, filiae*, f. - daughter). The paradigm chart for first declension nouns can be found [here](#).
- If the genitive singular entry ends in **-ī**, then the noun belongs to what we call the **second declension** (e.g., *filius, filiī*, m. - son). NOTE: The *nominative* singular forms of second declension masculine nouns can end either in **-us** (e.g., *filius*) or **-r** (e.g., *puer, ager*), while the nominative singular forms of second declension *neuter* nouns usually end in **-um**. Nevertheless, the genitive singulars of all of these nouns ends in **-ī**, so they all belong to the second declension! Here are the paradigm charts for second declension masculine nouns and second declension neuter nouns.
- If the genitive singular entry ends in **-is**, then the noun belongs to what we call the **third declension** (e.g. *pater, patris*, m. - father). Here are the paradigm charts for third declension masculine/feminine nouns and third declension neuter nouns.

7.1 Third Declension i-stems

There is a special subset of third declension nouns known as **i-stems**. These nouns include an **-i-** in certain case/number endings:

- **masculine, feminine**, and **neuter i-stems** have the ending **-ium** in the genitive plural, rather than the expected **-um**.

- **neuter i-stems** alone also use **-ī** as the ablative singular ending (rather than the expected -e) and **-ia** as the nominative and accusative plural ending (rather than the expected -a).

We can identify an i-stem based on the nominative and genitive forms in the noun's dictionary entry according to the following rules:

7.1.1 Masculine and Feminine i-stems

1. **parisyllabic**: the nominative ends in **-is** or **-ēs**, and the nominative and the genitive have the same number of syllables (pari- = "equal"). Some examples of parisyllabic i-stems include:
 - hostis, hostis, m. - enemy (gen. pl. = **hostium**)
 - nāvis, nāvis, f. - ship (gen. pl. = **nāvium**)
2. **monosyllabic and double consonant**: the nominative ends in **-s** or **-x**, and the **noun stem** ends in **two consonants**. Often, the nominative is a single syllable. Some examples include:
 - ars, **artis**, f. - art, skill (gen. pl. = **artium**)
 - nox, **noctis**, f. - night (gen. pl. = **noctium**)
 - urbs, **urbis**, f. - city (gen. pl. = **urbium**)

Note that the only difference in declension between these masculine and feminine i-stems versus regular masculine and feminine third declension nouns is the extra -i- in the genitive plural ending. Otherwise, declension is completely regular. Here are the paradigm charts for masculine and feminine i-stems.

7.1.2 Neuter i-stems

3. **-al, -ar, -e**: the nominative ends in **-al, -ar, or -e**. Examples include:
 - animal, animālis, n. - animal (abl. sg. = animālī; nom. and acc. pl. = animālīa; gen. pl. = animālīum)
 - mare, maris, n. - sea (abl. sg. = marī; nom. and acc. pl. = marīa; gen. pl. = marīum)

Note that only **neuter** i-stems use an -i- in the abl. sg. and nom. and acc. pl. forms (and they use it in the gen. pl., a trait shared with masculine and feminine i-stems). Masculine and feminine i-stems use the -i- only in the gen. pl.

Here are the paradigm charts for neuter i-stems.

7.2 Case usages - Nominative and Genitive

For the current module, we will focus only on two of the six cases: the **nominative** and the **genitive**. The **nominative** case is used to signal that a noun is the subject of a sentence or is equivalent to the subject of the sentence. For an example of the latter, we can think of the Latin sentence: *mater est femina* (“the mother is a woman”). Both *mater* and *femina* are in the nominative. *Mater* is the subject of the verb *est* and so is in the nominative case. *Femina* is also in the nominative case because it is equivalent with the subject *mater* in this sentence. This usage, which occurs with a linking verb (e.g. “is” in English, “*est*” in Latin), is called the **predicate nominative**.

Nouns in the **genitive** case are used to modify another noun and will usually appear next to that noun. Like adjectives, they provide further information about that noun. The genitive is almost always translated with “of” plus the word in the genitive. Examples of the usage of the genitive include:

filius patris (the son of the father) *nullus familiae* (none of the family)

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8 Adjectives

Adjectives modify (i.e., tell us more about) nouns. In Latin, adjectives must agree with nouns in **number**, **case**, and **gender**. Thus, a feminine nominative singular noun must be modified by the feminine nominative singular form of the adjective, while a masculine nominative singular noun is modified by a masculine nominative singular adjective. For instance:

- *magnus puer* (“great boy”; masculine singular nominative)
- *magna puella* (“great girl”; feminine singular nominative)
- *magnī puerī* (“great boys”; masculine plural nominative)
- *magnae puellae* (“great girls”; feminine plural nominative)

Because adjectives need to match nouns in form, they also decline in gender, case, and number. Most adjectives fall into one of two major categories: **1st/2nd declension** and **3rd declension**. The former, 1st/2nd declension, includes **2-1-2 adjectives**. The latter, 3rd declension, is split into three smaller categories: **three termination**, **two termination**, and **one termination**. All four of these categories (2-1-2, 3-, 2-, 1-termination) are described below.

Note that although an adjective must match its noun in gender, case, and number, it does not necessarily have to match in declension; for example, a 3rd declension adjective can modify a 1st or 2nd declension noun:

- *sapiens puer* (“wise boy”; masculine singular nominative. *sapiens* = 3rd declension, 1 termination; *puer* = 2nd declension masculine)
- *sapiens puella* (“wise girl”; feminine singular nominative. *puella* = 1st declension feminine)

Just like nouns, the dictionary entries for adjectives tells us what declension(s) they belong to and, thus, how to form them. Dictionary entries for adjectives come in four major types, with some special rules and irregulars to consider:

8.1 2-1-2 adjectives

Examples:

- *magnus, magna, magnum* - great

- *bonus, bona, bonum* - good
- *pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum* - beautiful, handsome

The 2-1-2 adjective can be recognized from endings of all three entries (-*us*, -*a*, -*um* or -*r*, -*a*, -*um*). The three forms listed tells us the nominative singular form for all three genders - masculine, feminine, and neuter (from left to right).

The declension of these adjectives is relatively simple. To get the adjective's stem, you take the -*a* off the feminine singular form (the second part of the dictionary entry) and then add the appropriate endings onto it. If you need a masculine form, then you decline the adjective like a 2nd declension masculine noun (e.g., *maritus*). If you need a feminine form, you decline it like a 1st declension feminine noun (e.g., *puella*). If you need a neuter form, you decline it like a 2nd declension neuter noun (e.g., *exemplum*).

Note that getting the adjective's stem from the *feminine* form is very important, since spelling can change from the masculine to the feminine form. For example, note the 2-1-2 adjective *pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum*, "handsome, beautiful." If you were to base your declensions on the masculine form, there would be an extra -e- in your forms that shouldn't be there. The proper stem is *pulchr* (*pulchra* minus -*a* = *pulchr*).

The full declension chart for 2-1-2 adjectives can be found [here](#).

8.2 2-1-2: -īus adjectives

There is a special subset of 2-1-2 adjectives known as **-īus adjectives**, so called because although they are 2-1-2 adjectives, their genitive singular forms across all three genders end in -*īus*, rather than the -*ī* or -*ae* familiar from regular 2-1-2 adjectives. Also, their dative singular forms across all three genders end in -*ī*, rather than the expected -*ō* or -*ae*. Nine adjectives fall into this pattern, and two of them are in your vocabulary for this module: *nullus, nulla, nullum*, "no, none", and *uter, utra, utrum*, "both, whichever (of two)." So, take a look at the following examples:

- *pater nullius familiae*, "father of no family"
- *parentēs utrīus filiī*, "parents of whichever son"

The full declension chart for -*īus* adjectives can be found [here](#).

8.3 Three termination adjectives

ācer, ācris, ācre - sharp, harsh

Three termination adjectives are so called for the three different parts of the dictionary entry, but they do not follow the *-us, -a, -um* or *-r, -a, -um* pattern that we saw in 2-1-2 adjectives. The dictionary entry for three termination adjectives similarly tells us the nominative singular forms for each gender: *ācer* is the masculine nominative singular form; *ācris* is the feminine nominative singular form; *ācre* is the neuter nominative singular form.

To decline a three termination adjective beyond the nominative case, begin the same way as with a 2-1-2 adjective: go to the second part of the dictionary entry, the feminine nominative singular form, and get the adjective's stem by chopping off the final *-is*. Then, add the endings that you need.

Generally, these adjectives decline like third declension i-stem nouns in the masculine, feminine, and neuter with a few small differences.

The genitive plural for all third declension adjectives ends in *-ium* instead of *-um* and the nominative plural for neuter third declension adjectives ends in *-ia* instead of *-a* (NB: the ablative singular for all third declension adjectives ends with *-ī* instead of *-e*, but we don't have to worry about that for now).

The full declension chart for three termination adjectives can be found [here](#).

8.4 Two termination adjectives

fortis, forte - strong

Two termination adjectives can be recognized by the fact that their dictionary entry consists of two adjectival forms that end in *-is* and *-e*, respectively. In two termination adjectives, the first form (i.e. *fortis*) tells us the masculine AND feminine nominative singular form and the second form (i.e. *forte*) is the neuter nominative singular form.

Like three termination adjectives, two termination adjectives generally decline like third declension nouns except in the genitive plural for all genders and neuter nominative plural (as well as the ablative singular).

The declension of two termination adjectives is exactly the same as for three termination adjectives, except that the masculine and feminine nominative singular forms are the same. For reference, here is the paradigm chart for two termination adjectives.

8.5 One termination adjectives

ferox, ferocis - ferocious

One termination adjectives can be recognized by the *-is* ending in the second part of the dictionary entry. In the dictionary entry for one termination adjectives, the first form (i.e. *ferox*) signifies the

nominative singular for all three genders (hence the name “one termination”), and the second form (i.e. *ferocis*) signifies the genitive singular for all three genders. Like three and two termination adjectives, one termination adjectives generally decline like third declension nouns except in the genitive plural for all genders and neuter nominative plural (as well as the ablative singular).

The full declension chart for one termination adjectives can be found [here](#).

8.6 Irregulars

Beyond these four major categories, there are few common adjectival forms that are declined irregularly. These include demonstrative adjectives/pronouns like *hic*, *haec*, *hoc* and *ille*, *illa*, *illud* and the intensive/intensifying adjective/pronoun *ipse*, *ipsa*, *ipsum* (click for grammatical descriptions of the demonstrative and the intensive). You must become familiar with how they decline so that you can recognize them easily when you are reading a Latin text, so please refer to the paradigm charts linked to each irregular adjective in this paragraph for further clarification.

9 Substantives

One final note on adjectives. At times, they can be used effectively as nouns, which we refer to as **substantival** use of the adjective. You will recognize the substantival use of an adjective by the fact that there will be no noun with which it agrees. To fill out the meaning, we simply add “man/men”, “woman/women”, “person/people”, or “thing/things” to the meaning of the adjective depending on the gender and number. So while *bonus* can mean “good man”, *bonae* can mean “good women.”

Note that for plural groups of mixed gender, Latin defaults to the masculine. So, *bonī* can mean either “good men”, if we know for a fact that only male-identified figures are in the group, or “good people”, if the group is of mixed gender.

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10 Pronouns

Sometimes, Latin uses pronouns to stand in for nouns.

The noun to which a pronoun refers is called the pronoun's **antecedent**. The pronoun used in place of the noun must have the same **gender** and **number** as the antecedent. This works the same in Latin as in English. Think, for example, about the following pronoun substitutions:

- The boy throws the ball. **He** throws the ball.
- We listened to the teacher. We listened to **her**.
- The students took the exam. **They** took the exam.

“He”, “her”, and “they” exhibit the same **gender** and **number** of their antecedents (“the boy”, “the teacher”, and “the students” respectively).

The same rules apply in Latin. For example, you would use *ea* (feminine nominative singular of *is, ea, id* – see below) to substitute for *mater* (feminine nominative singular) and *is* (masculine nominative singular of *is, ea, id* – see below) to substitute for *pater* (masculine nominative singular).

This also applies for nouns that are not typically biologically gendered. For the Latin word for table (*mensa*), you would use *ea* as the pronoun because the noun is feminine (although we might think it's neuter because it's a table). Remember that a noun's gender is a static fact that you have to memorize with the dictionary entry.

The declension for the pronoun is tricky, so be sure to consult the paradigm charts linked under specific pronouns below so you are able to recognize their forms.

10.1 *is, ea, id*

The most common Latin pronoun is *is, ea, id* (“he”, “she”, “it”, “they”). It is technically a **personal pronoun**, but for now it suffices to know that it means “he”, “she”, “it”, or “they” or their appropriate objective forms (i.e., “him”, “her”, “it”, “them”).

The dictionary entry for *is, ea, id* represents the nominative singular forms for all three genders (once again, masculine, feminine, and neuter from left to right), so it works similarly to an adjective.

The declension chart for *is, ea, id* can be found [here](#).

10.2 Demonstratives

There are irregular pronouns called **demonstratives** that serve to point out something that is nearby or far away from the speaker (from the Latin *demonstrāre*, “to point out”). Note that these pronouns can stand on their own, or they can also function as adjectives that modify an explicit noun. If a pronoun, we can sometimes treat it like a substantive adjective and supply a word like “man/men”, “woman/women”, “person/people”, or “thing/things”, depending on the gender and number of the pronoun, if our translation calls for it.

The demonstrative *hic, haec, hoc*, “this, these”, points out something that is close to the speaker.

- *hic puer*, “this boy”
- *haec puellae*, “these girls”
- *hoc animāl*, “this animal”
- *hic* (masculine nominative singular), “this man”
- *hī* (masculine nominative plural), “these men” or “these people”

And here is the paradigm chart for *hic*.

The demonstrative *ille, illa, illud*, “that, those”, points out something that is far away from the speaker.

- *illī puerī*, “those boys”
- *illa puella*, “that girl”
- *illud animāl*, “that animal”
- *illae* (feminine nominative plural), “those women”
- *illa*, “that woman” (if feminine nominative singular) or “those things” (if neuter nominative plural)

And here is the paradigm chart for *ille*.

The demonstratives can also be used in conjunction to indicate “the former ... the latter” with *ille* first and *hic* second:

- *illud verbum ... hoc verbum* = “the former word ... the latter word”

Think about why this makes sense! *ille* points to something that is far away, so in this use, it points to the item in a series that is farther away, i.e., “the former”, as opposed to “the latter”, which is closer.

10.3 Intensives

Another kind of pronoun (that can either stand on its own as a pronoun or function as an adjective that modifies an explicit noun) is the **intensive** or **intensifying** pronoun, *ipse, ipsa, ipsum*, that draws special attention to the word being modified or the pronoun itself. It can be translated as “the [noun] him/her/itself/themselves”, “the very [noun]”, or “[noun] in and of itself.” Take a look at the following examples:

- *ipse puer*, “the boy himself” or “the very boy”
- *ipsa puella*, “the girl herself” or “the very girl”
- *ipsa animālia*, “the animals themselves” or “the very animals”

If you use the translation “the very [noun]”, be careful not to confuse this adjective with the common adverb “very”, as in “They are very happy.” We will learn how to indicate an adjectival degree like “very happy” later.

11 Verbs

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12 Verbs

Latin verbs have five characteristics: **person**, **number**, **tense**, **voice**, and **mood**.

Person tells us the relationship between the speaker of the sentence and the subject of the sentence. Latin, like English, has three different persons - first person, second person, and third person. **First person** (I/we) means that the speaker of the sentence is also the subject/one of the subjects of the sentence. **Second person** (you/you all) means that the speaker of the sentence is in direct conversation with the subject(s) of the sentence. **Third person** (he/she/it/stated subject) means that the speaker of the sentence is referring to a subject outside of the current conversation.

Number tells us how many subjects we have. Just like Latin nouns, Latin verbs can be **singular** (the subject refers only to one person or thing) or **plural** (the subject refers to multiple persons or things). Number plays a key role in Latin sentence construction - subjects and verbs must match in number, just as in English. A singular subject requires a singular verb; a plural subject requires a plural verb (see more below).

Tense tells us the temporal relationship between the action that occurs in the sentence and the speaker's statement. For example, in the English sentence, "Lisa did her homework", the past tense verb "did" tells us that Lisa has completed her homework at the time when the sentence was uttered. On the other hand, "Lisa is doing her homework", the present tense verb "is doing" tells us that Lisa is in the process of completing her homework while the speaker is talking. There are six different tenses in Latin: **present**, **imperfect**, **future**, **perfect**, **pluperfect**, and **future perfect**.

Voice tells us whether the subject of the sentence is doing the action of the sentence or being acted upon. There are two voices in Latin: active and passive. An **active** verb indicates that the subject performs the central action of the sentence. For example, in the sentence, "the dog catches the ball", the dog (our subject) is performing the act of catching. A **passive** verb indicates that the subject is being acted upon. To follow up on the example above, in the sentence "the ball is caught by the dog", the ball (our subject) is not performing an action; rather, it is simply being caught by the dog.

Mood tells us how the speaker of the sentence feels about the content of the sentence. Mood can indicate if a sentence's content is simply a statement of fact, an expression of a wish or possibility, an order, etc. There are three Latin moods: **indicative**, **imperative**, and **subjunctive**. While we will go into more detail on this later, for now, we can think of the **indicative** mood as indicating that the

speaker is stating the content of the sentence as a fact; the **imperative** mood as indicating that the speaker is making an order; the **subjunctive** mood as indicating some level of uncertainty.

To summarize, verbs have:

- Person
 - First
 - Second
 - Third
 - Number
 - Singular
 - Plural
 - Tense
 - Present
 - Imperfect
 - Future
 - Perfect
 - Pluperfect
 - Future Perfect
 - Voice
 - Active
 - Passive
 - Mood
 - Indicative
 - Imperative
 - Subjunctive
-

12.1 Dictionary Entry

Like we did with nouns, we will first need to consult the **dictionary entry** to determine the verb form. Below we have the dictionary entry for *videō*:

videō, vidēre, vīdī, vīsus - to see

The first four words in the entry are referred to as **principal parts**. Principal parts give you the information necessary to recognize and produce any form of the verb. If we move from left to right:

Our **first principal part**, *videō*, indicates what the **1st person singular present active indicative** form of the word is. In this case, it translates to “I see.”

Vidēre, the **second principal part**, indicates the **present active infinitive** form of the word and translates to “to see.” This form provides two important pieces of information. First, it provides the **stem** (*vidē*) that is used to create all of the present, imperfect, future forms of the verb (known as the **present system**). Second, in combination with the first principal part, it tells us the pattern (often referred to as a **conjugation**) that the verb will follow in creating different forms (more below in Conjugations).

Our **third principal part**, *vīdī*, indicates the **1st person singular perfect active indicative** form, which translates in our example to “I saw”. The third principal part provides the stem (*vīd*) that is used to create all of the active forms of perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect verbs (known as the **perfect active system**).

Vīsus, the **perfect passive participle**, is the **fourth principal part** and means “having been seen.” The fourth principal part is used to produce all the passive forms of perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect verbs (known as the **perfect passive system**).

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12.2 Conjugations

The five different characteristics discussed above are reflected in the endings of a verb form. Like nouns, there are patterns in the way that verbs change their endings which we call **conjugations**.

There are four major conjugations (as well as one sub-conjugation) that we will become familiar with.

The conjugation to which a verb belongs can be easily determined by consulting the first and second principal parts in a dictionary entry:

- If the second principal part ends with **-āre**, then the verb belongs to the **first conjugation** (e.g. *amō, amāre, amāvī, amātus* - to love).
- If the second principal part ends with **-ēre** (note the long mark over the second-to-last e) and the first principal part ends with **-eō**, then the verb belongs to the **second conjugation** (e.g. *videō, vidēre, vīdī, vīsus* - to see).

- If the second principal part ends with **-ere** (note that there is no long mark over the second-to-last e) and the first principal part ends with **-ō** and no other proceeding vowel, then the verb belongs to the **third conjugation** (e.g. *dūcō, dūcere, dūxī, ductus* - to lead).
 - If the second principal ends with **-ere** (note there is no long mark over the second-to-last e) and the first principal part ends with **-iō**, then the verb belongs to the **third-io conjugation** (e.g. *capiō, capere, cēpī, captus* - to take).
 - If the second principal part ends with **-ire** and the first principal part ends with **-iō**, then the verb belongs to the **fourth conjugation** (e.g. *audiō, audire, audīvī, auditus* - to hear).
-

12.3 Translating Verbs

When translating Latin verbs into English, you must convey all five characteristics in your translation. For example, consider the form *monēbātur*, which is the third singular imperfect passive indicative of *moneō* (“to warn”). We would translate this form as: he/she/it (3rd person singular) was (imperfect) being (passive) warned (the indicative requires no additional translation here).

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13 The Present Tense

13.1 Conceptual Overview

The **present tense** indicates that the action of a verb is happening at the same time as the speaker's utterance. For example, in the sentence "I write about the present tense", the verb "write" indicates that the process of writing is currently happening. The present tense can also show an action in progress through the use of a form of the verb "to be" and the addition of -ing to the verb; for example, "we are learning about Latin." The verb "are learning" indicates that learning is in the process of happening!

Here are some more English examples of the present tense, with the Latin equivalent of the verb in parentheses:

- She is coming (*venit*) from the market.
- An exam is being given (*datur*) by the teacher.
- He writes (*scribit*) a letter.
- We are looking for (*petimus*) our friends.

So, the present can be translated in various ways: in the third person singular active voice, as a simple present like "he gives", a present progressive like "he is giving", or an emphatic present like "he does give"; in the third person singular passive voice, "he is (being) given."

13.2 All Conjugations

This is a broad overview of the formation of the present tense across all conjugations. If you prefer a more structured and compartmentalized approach to the differences between the conjugations, see the sections below on the 1st and 2nd conjugations and 3rd, 4th, and 3rd -iō conjugations.

This chart overviews the present tense in the active and passive voice across all conjugations. Note the patterns, both within individual conjugations and across conjugations: for example, what vowels precede the personal endings of -ō, -s, -t, -mus, -tis, -nt or -r, -ris, -tur, -mur, -minī, -ntur in a given conjugation? Focus for now, though, on the bolded 3rd person forms.

Active

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amō	moneō	regō	cupiō	audiō
2nd sg.	amās	monēs	regis	cupis	audīs
3rd sg.	amat	monet	regit	cupit	audit
1st pl.	amāmus	monēmus	regimus	cupimus	audīmus
2nd pl.	amātis	monētis	regitis	cupitis	audītis
3rd pl.	amant	monent	regunt	cupiunt	audiunt

Passive

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amor	moneor	regor	cupior	audior
2nd sg.	amāris	monēris	regiris	cuperis	audīris
3rd sg.	amātur	monētur	regitur	cupitur	audītur
1st pl.	amāmur	monēmur	regimur	cupimur	audīmur
2nd pl.	amāminī	monēminī	regiminī	cupiminī	audīminī
3rd pl.	amantur	monentur	reguntur	cupiuntur	audiuntur

13.3 1st and 2nd Conjugations

This is a specific overview of the formation of the present tense in the 1st and 2nd conjugations. For a broader overview of the present tense across all conjugations, see the section above on the present tense across all conjugations.

If you need the first person singular present active indicative form of the verb, you automatically have it from the **first principal part** of the dictionary entry. For example, with the verb *amō*, *amāre*, *amāvī*, *amātus*, “to love”, the first principal part, *amō*, is your first person present active indicative form, which means “I love.”

To form the present indicative in the other persons and numbers in the **1st and 2nd conjugation**, we begin by finding the verb’s present stem. To find it, you go to the **second principal part** of the verb’s dictionary entry and then chop off the final *-re*. For example, with the same example verb, we would

go to the second principal part, *amāre*, and chop off the final *-re*, which leaves us with the present stem: *amā*. The second conjugation works the same way: for example, with the verb *moneō*, *monēre*, *monuī*, *monitus*, “to warn, advise”, the present stem would be *monē*.

From there, you add your personal endings, which are shown below (focus on the **bolded** third person forms for the first part of this semester):

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	(-ō)	-mus
2nd	-s	-tis
3rd	-t	-nt

So, for example, the 3rd person plural present active indicative form of *amō* is *amant*, “they love.” The 2nd person singular present active indicative form of *moneō* is *monēs*, “you warn.”

For the **passive** forms, you would tack on the **passive** personal endings onto your present stem (for the 1st person singular, you would tack the ending directly onto the active form):

Passive

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-r	-mur
2nd	-ris	-mini
3rd	-tur	-ntur

So, for example, the 1st person singular present passive indicative of *amō* is *amor*, “I am (being) loved.” The third person singular present passive indicative of *moneō* is *monētur*, “he/she/it is (being) warned.”

13.4 3rd, 4th, and 3rd -iō Conjugations

This is a specific overview of the formation of the present tense in the 3rd, 4th, and 3rd -iō conjugations. For a broader overview of the present tense across all conjugations, see the section above on the present tense across all conjugations.

In the 3rd, 4th, and 3rd -iō conjugations in the present indicative, there are a number of vowel changes at the end of the present stem from person to person and number to number before we apply the active and passive endings listed in the charts above. You must be aware of these vowel shifts to conjugate a verb correctly.

13.4.1 3rd Conjugation

Let's conjugate the third conjugation verb *regō, regere, rēxī, rectus*, "to rule", in the **present active indicative** as an example. As above, we can get the 1st person singular form from the first principal part of the verb: *regō*, "I rule." For the remaining forms, if we follow the procedure from above, we go to *regere* and chop off the *-re*, and then we have the present stem *rege*. The *-e* at the end of the present stem becomes an *-i* in all forms except the **3rd pl**, in which it becomes a *-u*. Then we add our personal endings (*-s, -t, -mus, -tis, -nt*).

So, the **present active indicative** of *regō* looks like this (focus on the **bolded** 3rd person forms):

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	regō	regimus
2nd	regis	regitis
3rd	regit	regunt

The **present passive indicative** of the third conjugation swaps out the active personal endings for passive ones (*-r, -ris, -tur, -mur, -mini, -ntur*). The vowel shifts are identical to those in the active with one exception: the **2nd sg.** retains the *-e*, rather than changing to an *-i*. Take a look at this chart (and again, focus on the bolded forms):

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	regor	regimur
2nd	regeris	regimini
3rd	regitur	reguntur

13.4.2 4th Conjugation

The **fourth conjugation** follows the pattern of **1st** and **2nd conjugation verbs** (go to the infinitive, chop off the *-re*, add your endings) with one crucial exception: the **3rd pl.** form shifts the vowel at the end of the stem from *-i* to *-iu*. So, let's take the sample verb *audiō, audīre, audīvī, audītus*, "to hear." The present stem is *audī*.

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	audiō	audīmus
2nd	audīs	audītis
3rd	audit	audiunt

Passive

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	audior	audīmur
2nd	audīris	audīminī
3rd	audītur	audiuntur

13.4.3 3rd -iō Conjugation

The **third -iō conjugation** is a mixture of 3rd and 4th conjugation forms; such verbs as *capiō, capere, cēpī, captus*, "to seize, capture", follow 3rd conjugation patterns in most forms but 4th conjugation patterns in the **3rd pl.**

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	capiō	capimus
2nd	capis	capitis
3rd	capit	capiunt

Passive

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	capior	capimur
2nd	caperis	capimini
3rd	capitur	capiuntur

Note that often, one letter can make the difference, so it is imperative that you recognize what conjugation a verb belongs to in order to conjugate it correctly!

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14 The Imperfect Tense

14.1 Conceptual Overview

The **imperfect tense** is one of three different past tenses (along with the perfect and pluperfect) used in Latin. In its usage in the indicative mood, the imperfect is different from the other two tenses because it connotes an ongoing, continuous, habitual, or attempted action in the past (it never refers to a completed action).

For instance, for the active form of the English verb “to make”, we can translate the Latin imperfect as “was/were making” (the most common translation of the imperfect), “used to make”, “kept on making”, or “began to make.” Similarly, for the passive form of the English verb “to make” (i.e. “to be made”), we can translate the Latin imperfect as “was/were being made”, “used to be made”, “kept being made”, or “began to be made.”

Below are some English examples where we would use the Latin imperfect (note the *-ba* infix in all the Latin form - this is the telltale sign that a verb is in the imperfect):

- When I went to the store, she was doing (*faciēbat*) her homework.
- They used to give (*dabant*) the football players free pizza on Friday.
- Although the teacher told them to stop working, the students kept writing (*scribēbant*) their exams.
- Katie was being asked (*petēbātur*) to play Beyonce.

14.2 Formation

To form the imperfect indicative (NB: this is the same for both active and passive), we start by finding the verb’s present stem. To determine the present stem, we take the second principal part (the present active infinitive) and chop off the final *-re*.

For instance, in the case of the verb, *videō*, its second principal part is *vidēre* and taking off the *-re* gives us a present stem of *vidē*.

For verbs that belong to the first and second conjugation, we do not need to modify the present stem and can simply add *-ba* to the stem to make the imperfect stem. In the case of *vidēō*:

vidēre -> *vidē* (present stem) -> *vidē-ba* (imperfect stem)

For verbs that belong to the third and fourth we have to make some changes to the present stem before adding *-ba*:

- In the third conjugation, the *e* of the present stem becomes *ē*.
- In the fourth conjugation, the *i* of the present stem becomes *iē*.
 - In the case of third -io verbs, the *e* of the present stem becomes *iē* as well.

Thus, **audīre*** -> *audī* (present stem) -> *audiē* -> *audiē-ba* (imperfect stem)

To this stem, we add the endings for the relevant person and number, and voice, as shown below:

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-m	-mus
2nd	-s	-tis
3rd	-t	-nt

Passive (NB: To move from active to passive in the imperfect, all we have to do is change personal endings.)

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-r	-mur
2nd	-ris	-mini
3rd	-tur	-ntur

So if we wanted to form the 3rd person plural imperfect passive indicative of *vidēō*:

vidēre -> *vidē* (present stem) -> *vidē-ba* (imperfect stem) -> *vidē-ba-ntur*

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15 The Future Tense

15.1 Conceptual Overview

The **future tense** indicates that the action of a verb has yet to take place, but it's certain that it will happen. In English, the future tense shows up with the auxiliary verbs “will” or “shall”. Take a look at some examples in English, with the Latin equivalent of the verb in parentheses:

- She will do (*faciet*) her homework tonight.
- They shall give (*dabunt*) free pizza to the students next week.
- The teacher will write (*scribet*) the exam tomorrow.
- The songs shall be sung (*canentur*) by the choir next weekend.

So, the future tense can be translated with the auxiliary verbs “will” or “shall”: for example, “he will write” or “it will be written.”

15.2 1st and 2nd Conjugations

Like the present tense, the future tense has different rules for formation depending on the conjugation of the verb in question. The 1st and 2nd conjugation operate on the same rules: you get the present stem (by going to the 2nd principal part and chopping off the *-re*), and then you add the same set of endings:

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-bō	-bimus
2nd	-bis	-bitis
3rd	-bit	-bunt

Passive (note the vowel shift in the 2nd singular)

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-bor	-bimur
2nd	-beris	-biminī
3rd	-bitur	-buntur

Note that these endings are composed of the letter *-b*, a vowel (*ō*, *i*, or *u*), and the personal endings that are familiar from the present tense (*-ō*, *-s*, *-t*, *-mus*, *-tis*, *-nt* for active; *-r*, *-ris*, *-tur*, *-mur*, *-minī*, *-ntur* for passive).

So, for example, the 1st person singular future active indicative of *amō*, *amāre*, *amāvī*, *amātus** is *amābō*, “I will love.” The third person singular future passive indicative of *moneō*, *monēre*, *monuī*, *monitus* is *monēbitur*, “he/she/it will be warned.”

15.3 3rd, 4th, and 3rd -iō Conjugations

The formation of the future tense in the 3rd, 4th, and 3rd -iō conjugations follow different rules. As in the present tense, these conjugations use vowel shifts to indicate the future tense.

A quick mnemonic that can help you remember the differences in 1st/2nd conjugations and 3rd/4th/3rd iō conjugations in the future tense is:

-bō, -bi, bu in 1 and 2; a and e in 4 and 3

The *-bō*, *-bi*, *-bu* part summarizes the future endings in the 1st and 2nd conjugation. Let’s see what the “a and e in 4 and 3” part means.

15.3.1 3rd Conjugation

To form the future tense of third conjugation verbs, you first find the present stem (which, again, means that you go to the 2nd principal part and chop off the *-re*). For example, the present stem of *regō*, *regere*, *rēxī*, *rectus*, “to rule”, is *rege*.

In the future tense, that final *-e* either remains an *-e* or lengthens to a long *-ē* in all persons and numbers except **1st sg.**, in which it shifts to an *-a*. Then, you tack on the personal ending that you need (using an *-m* rather than *-ō* for the 1st sg. active).

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	regam	regēmus
2nd	regēs	regētis
3rd	reget	regent

Passive

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	regar	regēmur
2nd	regēris	regēminī
3rd	regētur	regentur

Note how similar these forms look to their present tense equivalents; often, one letter makes all the difference. For example:

- regit, “she rules” (present tense)
- reget, “she will rule” (future tense)
- regeris, “you are ruled” (present tense, short -e)
- regēris, “you will be ruled” (future tense, long -e)

Make sure to be careful about how the form is spelled!

15.3.2 4th and 3rd -iō Conjugations

In the 4th conjugation, the future tense retains the *-i* in the stem before adding the appropriate *-a* or *-e* and the personal endings. Let’s take *audiō*, *audīre*, *audīvī*, *audītus*, “to hear”, as an example:

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	audiam	audiēmus
2nd	audiēs	audiētis
3rd	audiet	audient

Passive

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	audiar	audiēmur
2nd	audiēris	audiēminī
3rd	audiētur	audientur

The third -iō conjugation, like the fourth conjugation, uses -i- as a stem vowel before adding the appropriate -a or -e and personal endings. So, with *capiō, capere, cēpī, captus*, “to take, seize”, we chop the -re off *capere* (= *cape*) and then change the final -e to -i (= *capi*) before adding the endings:

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	capiam	capiēmus
2nd	capiēs	capiētis
3rd	capiet	cipient

Passive

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	capiar	capiēmur
2nd	capiēris	capiēminī
3rd	capiētur	cipientur

Again, one letter makes the difference between present and future. For example:

- **audit**, “she hears” (present tense)
- **audiet**, “she will hear” (future tense)
- **capimus**, “we take” (present tense)
- **capiēmus**, “we will take” (future tense)
- **audiuntur**, “they are heard” (present tense)
- **audientur**, “they will be heard” (future tense)

Analyze the word carefully in terms of spelling to determine what tense it is!

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16 The Perfect Tense

16.1 Conceptual Overview

The **perfect tense** is one of three different past tenses (along with the imperfect and pluperfect) used in Latin. In its usage in the indicative mood, the perfect refers to a singular action that has been completed in the past.

For instance, for the active form of the English verb “to make”, we can translate the Latin perfect as “has/have made”, “did make”, or simply “made.” Similarly, for the passive form of the English verb “to make” (i.e. “to be made”), we can translate the Latin perfect as “has/have been made” or simply “was/were made.”

Below are some English examples where we would use the Latin perfect:

- She has done (*fēcit*) her homework.
- They gave (*dedērunt*) the football players free pizza on Friday.
- The students did write (*scrīpsērunt*) their exams.
- Katie has been asked (*petīta est*) to play Beyonce.

16.2 Perfect Active

Unlike the imperfect, the **perfect active** and **perfect passive** are formed differently. However, in the indicative mood, both are relatively easy to create and recognize.

To form the **perfect active indicative**, we need to find the perfect active stem. To do this, we simply take the 3rd principal part and take away the final *-ī*.

For instance in the verb *videō*, the third principal part is *vīdī* and, thus, our perfect active stem is *vīd*.

Once we have the perfect active stem, forming the perfect active indicative is simple, we just add the personal endings for the perfect to the stem:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-ī	-īmus
2nd	-istī	-istis
3rd	-it	-ērunt/-ēre

NB: There are two endings that can be used for the 3rd personal plural of the perfect active indicative.

So if we wanted to form the 3rd person singular perfect active indicative of *videō*:

vīdī -> *vīd* (perfect active stem) -> (add personal ending) *vīdit*

16.3 Perfect Passive

To form the **perfect passive indicative**, we need to find the perfect passive stem. To do this, we simply take the adjectival form of 4th principal part (the reason we need the adjectival form is because the verb must agree with its subject in number and gender).

For instance in the verb *videō*, the fourth principal part is *vīsus* and thus our perfect passive stem is *vīsus*, *vīsa*, *vīsum*.

To make the perfect passive indicative, we take the perfect passive stem and add the present indicative form of “to be” (*sum*, *esse*, *fui*, *futūrus*) that matches the person and number of the verb. In the case of *videō*, it looks like this:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	<i>vīsus/vīsa/vīsum</i> * <i>sum</i>	<i>vīsi/vīsae/vīsa</i> <i>sumus</i>
2nd	<i>vīsus/vīsa/vīsum</i> <i>es</i>	<i>vīsi/vīsae/vīsa</i> <i>estis</i>
3rd	<i>vīsus/vīsa/vīsum</i> <i>est</i>	<i>vīsi/vīsae/vīsa</i> <i>sunt</i>

NB: Look at how the adjectival form changes as we go from singular to plural. Why does it happen?

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17 The Pluperfect Tense

17.1 Conceptual Overview

The **pluperfect tense** indicates an action that occurred *prior* to an action in the past. So, we usually translate the pluperfect with the auxiliary verb “**had**”.

- *frātrēs vīdī. eī ex urbe vēnerant.* I saw the brothers. They **had come** out of the city.
- *mea uxor laeta erat. carmen eī cecineram.* My wife was happy. I **had sung** a song for her.

Note the difference between the translation of the **perfect** and the translation of the **pluperfect**. The perfect tense uses “has” or “have”; the pluperfect tense uses “had”. This difference in translation indicates two different time periods, so it’s important to be accurate!

17.2 Pluperfect Active

To form the **pluperfect active indicative**, we begin by taking the perfect stem (the third principal part minus the final -ī) and add the pluperfect active endings. They look *exactly* like the imperfect forms of *sum, esse*:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-eram	-erāmus
2nd	-erās	-erātis
3rd	-erat	-erant

So, if we wanted to form the 3rd person singular pluperfect active indicative of *videō*:

vīdī -> *vīd* (perfect active stem) -> (add personal ending) *vīderat*, “he/she/it had seen”

17.3 Pluperfect Passive

We form the **pluperfect passive indicative** in a manner very similar to that of the perfect passive indicative. We use the 4th principal part as a 2-1-2 adjective that matches the subject in gender, case, and number, and then we conjugate a form of *sum*, *esse* in the appropriate person and number; in this case, with the pluperfect passive, we will use the **imperfect** forms of *sum*.

For instance, for the verb *videō*:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	<i>vīsus/vīsa/vīsum eram</i>	<i>vīsī/vīsae/vīsa erāmus</i>
2nd	<i>vīsus/vīsa/vīsum erās</i>	<i>vīsī/vīsae/vīsa erātis</i>
3rd	<i>vīsus/vīsa/vīsum erat</i>	<i>vīsī/vīsae/vīsa erant</i>

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18 The Future Perfect Tense

18.1 Conceptual Overview

The **future perfect tense** indicates an action that occurs in the future but *before* an action further in the future. Take a look at this example in English:

- We **will have arrived** before you will wake up. (*The action of our arriving occurs BEFORE the action of your waking up.*)

So, we usually translate the pluperfect with the auxiliary verbs “**will have**”. The “will” part conveys the future part of the tense; the “have” part conveys the perfect part of the tense.

18.2 Future Perfect Active

To form the **future perfect active indicative**, we begin by taking the perfect stem (the third principal part minus the final -ī) and add the future perfect active endings. They look almost exactly like the future forms of *sum*, *esse* EXCEPT for the 3rd plural:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-erō	-erimus
2nd	-eris	-eritis
3rd	-erit	-erint

So, if we wanted to form the 3rd person plural future perfect active indicative of *regō*:

rexī -> *rex* (perfect active stem) -> (add personal ending) *rexerint*, “they will have ruled”

18.3 Future Perfect Passive

We form the **future perfect passive indicative** in a manner very similar to that of the perfect passive indicative. We use the 4th principal part as a 2-1-2 adjective that matches the subject in gender, case, and number, and then we conjugate a form of *sum*, *esse* in the appropriate person and number; in this case, with the future perfect passive, we will use the **future** forms of *sum*. (Note that we use the normal 3rd pl. form, *erunt*, rather than the -i- present in the future perfect active ending.)

For instance, for the verb *moneō*:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	monitus/monita/monitum erō	monitī/monitae/monita erimus
2nd	monitus/monita/monitum eris	monitī/monitae/monita eritis
3rd	monitus/monita/monitum erit	monitī/monitae/monita erunt

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19 Sentence Structures

Translating Latin sentences becomes much easier if you can recognize certain structural patterns that tell us what to expect in a sentence. Key to identifying what structural pattern a sentence follows is the **main verb**. The type of verb that appears in the sentence tells us what other grammatical items we need to fill out the rest of the sentence.

Below you will find a discussion of several very common sentence structures as well as guidelines for how to distinguish them by looking at the verb.

19.1 Intransitive Sentences

Intransitive sentences feature a subject and an **intransitive verb**. An intransitive verb is a verb that expresses an action or state of being, but does not act directly upon an object: for example, sneezing, dancing, running, raining, etc. As a result, an intransitive verb (and, thus, an intransitive sentence) does not take a direct object (on which, see Transitive Sentences below).

Below are some examples of intransitive sentences in Latin and English:

- Puella cucurrit. (“The girl ran.”)
- Timent. (“They are frightened.”)

NB: It might be tempting to think that a sentence like “The girl ran three miles” has a direct object. However, “three miles” is the shortened form of “for three miles”, an adverbial phrase that describes the word “ran.” We’ll learn more about phrases that express concepts of space and time in Module 3.

To summarize, intransitive sentences must have a:

- Subject
- Intransitive active verb

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19.2 Transitive Sentences

Transitive sentences require a **direct object**, in addition to a subject and verb, to complete the meaning of the sentence.

For example, let's consider the verb *facere* ("to make" in English). If I were to say *agricola fēcit* - "the farmer made", the sentence would feel incomplete. You would be thinking, "What is he making? Pizza? Cake? A fence?"

Thus, we need to add a **direct object** to tell us what the farmer was making. In English, we would indicate this by putting what the farmer made immediately after the verb (e.g., "the farmer made pizza"). However, because Latin is an *inflected* language whose word order is highly variable, we can't do this. Rather, Latin indicates that a noun is functioning as a direct object by putting it in the **accusative case**. Thus, the Latin version of the sentence looks like this:

Agricola **pizzam** fēcit.

Head to the noun paradigm charts and adjective paradigm charts to familiarize yourself with the **accusative** endings in the singular and plural of each declension and adjective grouping.

Below are some further examples of transitive sentences with accusative direct objects:

- Pater **filiam** amāvit ("The father loved his daughter.")
- Filii **matrēs** amant. ("The sons love their mother.")
- **Agricolam** uxor iuvābat. ("The wife was helping the farmer.")
- Fortis vir **magnum monstrum** et **terribilem serpentem** pugnābat. ("The brave man is fighting the great monster and the terrible serpent.")

Sometimes, you will want to specify the recipient of the action of the verb. For instance, in the sentence "the farmer gave the girl a pizza", the girl receives the pizza that the farmer gives. Pizza is still the **direct object** - the farmer is giving the pizza (not the girl). In this sentence, the word "girl" is an **indirect object**, the recipient of the action done by the main verb. In Latin, we signal the **indirect object** by using the **dative case**, which we usually translate as "to/for X". So in Latin "the farmer gave the girl a pizza" looks like this:

- Agricola pizzam **puellae** dedit.

Literally, the sentence is "The farmer gave a pizza **to the girl**."

Head to the noun paradigm charts and adjective paradigm charts to familiarize yourself with the **dative** endings in the singular and plural of each declension and adjective grouping.

To summarize, transitive sentences must have a:

- Subject

- Active verb
- Direct object in the accusative

And sometimes have an:

- Indirect object in the dative
-

19.3 Passive Sentences

Passive sentences feature a subject and, unsurprisingly, a **passive** verb. Because the subject of a passive verb is being acted upon, passive sentences do not feature a direct object. Below are some examples of simple passive sentences:

- Puella visa est. (“The girl was seen.”)
- Virī captī sunt. (“The men were captured.”)

Sometimes, passive sentences feature a construction known as the **ablative of agent** which tells us who performed the action of the main verb (since the subject is *receiving* the action of the verb, rather than performing it). We can recognize the **ablative of agent** by the preposition *ā/ab* followed by a noun in the **ablative case**. Below are the examples from above with an ablative of agent:

- Puella **ab matre** visa est. (“The girl was seen by her mother.”)
- Virī **ā fēminīs** captī sunt. (“The men were captured by the women.”)

Head to the noun paradigm charts and adjective paradigm charts to familiarize yourself with the **ablative** endings in the singular and plural of each declension and adjective grouping.

Passive sentences can also feature an **indirect object** in the **dative case** as well. For example, we might see a sentence like the following:

- Pizza **puellae** data est. (“The pizza was given to the girl.”)

To summarize, passive sentences must have a:

- Subject
- Passive verb

And sometimes have an:

- An ablative of agent
 - Indirect object in the dative
-

19.4 Linking Sentences

Linking sentences, which we have already met, require a subject, **linking verb**, and **predicate nominative** which matches the subject in **number** and **case** and, in the case of adjectives as predicate nominatives, **gender**. The most common linking verb in English and Latin is “to be” (*sum, esse, fui, futurus*), though there are other linking verbs we will see throughout the semester. Below are some examples of linking sentences:

- Vir pater est. (“The man is a father.”)
- Puerī magnī et fortēs sunt. (“The boys are strong and brave.”)

In each of the sentences above, note which nominatives are the subjects (*vir, puerī*) and which nominatives are the predicate nominatives (*pater, magnī [et] fortēs*).

To summarize, linking sentences must have a:

- Subject
- Linking verb
- Predicate nominative

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19.5 Tips for Determining Sentence Structure

The most important thing to do when determining sentence structure is to look at the **main verb**. If the verb is passive, we know that the sentence structure is going to be **passive**; if the verb is a linking verb (i.e. a form of *sum*), then we know the sentence structure is going to be **linking**. It is more difficult to differentiate between transitive and intransitive verbs. While some Latin verbs are used only transitively (verbs like “to carry”) and or only intransitively (verbs like “to rain”), a large number of verbs can be used both transitively or intransitively. In these cases, you will want to see if there is a direct object in the accusative case (transitive) or not (intransitive).

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20 Prepositional Phrases

In Latin, **prepositions** (like “in”, “into”, “with”, “to”, English) are indeclinable words followed by a noun in the ablative or accusative (called the **object of the preposition**). This unit consisting of preposition and the object of the preposition is called a **prepositional phrase**.

We saw an example of this in the previous module with the **ablative of agent**. With a passive verb, you can use the preposition *ā/ab* with a word in the ablative case to indicate who performed the action of the verb. For example:

puer ā puellā amatus est. The boy was loved **by the girl**.

The prepositional phrase is *ā puellā*, composed of the preposition *ā* and the object of the preposition *puellā*.

Prepositional phrases add more information about the main action of the sentence by answering questions like where, why, which, and how:

- Puellam **in urbe** vīdit. (“She saw the girl in the city.”) (**Where** did she see the girl? In the city.)
 - **Ob ignem** fugiēbat. (“He was fleeing because of the fire.”) (**Why** was he fleeing? Because of the fire.)
 - Hercules monstra **sub ponte** necāvit. (“Hercules killed the monsters under the bridge.”) (**Which** monsters did Hercules kill? The ones under the bridge. OR **Where** did Hercules kill the monsters? Under the bridge.)
-

21 Expressions of Place

Latin uses the accusative and ablative case, frequently with prepositions, to express ideas related to space and place.

Below are the different expressions of place used in Latin:

1. Accusative of place to which or motion toward (*ad*, *trāns*, or *in* + accusative):

- Currēbat **ad** pātrēm. (“She was running towards her father.”)
- Vēnit **in** urbem. (“He came into the city.”)

The accusative of **place to which** or **motion toward** is almost always used with a verb that indicates physical motion; for example, *venīre*, “to come” or *currere*, “to run.”

NB: In the case of cities, small towns, and the words *domus* (“home”) and *rūs* (“countryside”), Latin uses the accusative without a preposition. No need to worry about this now, but just something to keep in mind.

2. Ablative of place where (*in* or *prō* + ablative):

- Hercules **in** rēgnō Theseī vīxit. (“Hercules lived **in the kingdom** of Theseus.”)
- Milītēs **prō** castris pugnābant. (“The soldiers were fighting **in front of the camps**.”)

NB: In the case of cities, small towns, and the words *domus* (“home”) and *rūs* (“countryside”), Latin uses the **locative case** without a preposition. No need to worry about this now, but just something to keep in mind.

3. Ablative of place from which or motion from (*ā/ab* or *ē/ex* + ablative):

- Puella **ab** urbe fugiēbat. (“The girl was fleeing **from the city**.”)
- Nāvis **ex** portō nāvigāvit. (“The ship sailed **out of the port**.”)

The ablative of **place from which** or **motion from** is almost always used with a verb that indicates physical motion; for example, *fugere*, “to flee” or *navigāre*, “to sail.”

4. Accusative of extent of space (no preposition):

- Puer **quīnque pedes** altus est. (“The boy is **five feet** tall.”)

22 Expressions of Time

The accusative and ablative cases (without prepositions) can also be used to express ideas related to time. You can often spot these uses if the accusative or ablative in question is a word that relates to time: for example,

- *annus, ī, m.*, “year”
- *mensis, -is, m.*, “month”
- *nox, noctis, f.*, “night”
- *lux, lucis, f.*, “light” (as in daylight)
- *hora, -ae, f.*, “hour”

In each of the time expressions below, note that in translation, we have to insert prepositions to make the translation make sense. They are not explicitly in the Latin as they were in expressions of place, so we have to identify the specific time expression to translate it correctly.

Below are the ways that Latin expresses ideas of time:

1. **Accusative of extent/length of time** (no preposition) (“for _____”):
 - **Quattuor annōs** in illā urbe labōrāvīt. (“They worked **for four years** in that city”).
 - **Quīnque mēnsēs** prō templō vīxērunt. (“They lived in front of the temple **for five months**.”).
2. **Ablative of time when** (no preposition) (“in/at/on _____”):
 - **Illā nocte** puella ab agrīs cucurrit. (“**On that night**, the girl ran from the fields.”)
 - Nāvis **primā lūce** ex insulā nāvigāvit. (“The ship sailed away from the island **at first light**.”)
3. **Ablative of time within which** (no preposition) (“within/in _____”):
 - **Primō annō** regnī Carthāginem vīcit. (“**In the first year** of his reign, he conquered Carthage”).
 - **Quīnque horīs** ad urbem vērunt. (“**Within five hours**, they arrived at the city.”)

The **ablative of time within which** species a *range* of time within which something happened, while the **ablative of time when** pinpoints an exact time at which the verb happened. There can be some slippage between the two depending on how you interpret the time expression. For example, in the sentence:

Illā nocte puella ab agrīs cucurrit.

used above as an example of an ablative of time when, we might also interpret *illā nocte* as an ablative of time within which, yielding the translation:

“Within that night, the girl ran away from the fields.”

23 Verbal Nouns and Adjectives

1. TOC {;toc}
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24 Infinitives

The **infinitive** is a verbal noun that is not limited by a specific person or number (*in*, “not”; *-finitive*, from *finīre*, “to put a limit or boundary on”). You’ve already seen many infinitives as part of verbal dictionary entries: remember that the **second principal part** is the **present active infinitive**, often translated with the preposition “to” and the verb’s meaning.

Infinitives do not have a person, number, or mood, but they do have **tense** and **voice**. There are six types of infinitives; you need only worry about the four discussed below for now. The two that we will learn about in the second semester are the future active infinitive and the future passive infinitive.

24.1 Present Active Infinitive

As stated above, you get the present active infinitive directly from the second principal part of the verb’s dictionary entry. For example, in the verb *moneō*, *monēre*, *monuī*, *monitus*, “to warn”, the present active infinitive is *monēre*, and it can be translated as “to warn.”

24.2 Present Passive Infinitive

The **present passive infinitive** is similarly translated with the preposition “to”, but the action of the verb is passive, rather than active. So, the passive form of the example above is “to be warned.”

To form the present passive infinitive in **1st**, **2nd**, and **4th** conjugation verbs, you take the present active infinitive and replace the final *-e* with an *-ī*. So, for example:

- *amāre*, “to love” → *amārī*, “to be loved”
- *timēre*, “to fear” → *timērī*, “to be feared”
- *audire*, “to hear” → *audīrī*, “to be heard”

To form the present passive infinitive in the **3rd** and **3rd -iō** conjugations, you must replace the entire *-ere* ending of the present active infinitive with the *-ī*.

- *regere*, “to rule” → *regī*, “to be ruled”
 - *capere*, “to take” → *capī*, “to be taken”
-

24.3 Perfect Active Infinitive

The **perfect active infinitive**, as the name suggests, indicates an action that occurred in the past. The English translation uses “to” and auxiliary verbs like “have” to get across the past-ness of the action: for example, “to have loved.”

To form the **perfect active infinitive**, you go to the **perfect stem** (which, as a reminder, is found by going to the **third principal part** of a dictionary entry and chopping off the *-ī*) and then add the ending *-isse*. This is the rule across all conjugations.

- *amāvī*, “I loved” → *amāvisse*, “to have loved”
 - *timuī*, “I feared” → *timuisse*, “to have feared”
 - *rēxī*, “I ruled” → *rēxisse*, “to have ruled”
 - *cēpī*, “I took” → *cēpisse*, “to have taken”
 - *audīvī*, “I heard” → *audīvisse*, “to have heard”
-

24.4 Perfect Passive Infinitive

The **perfect passive infinitive**, as the name suggests, indicates a *passive* action that occurred in the past. The translation adds “been” to convey the passiveness of the verbal unit: for example, “to have been loved.”

The formation of the **perfect passive infinitive** works similarly to the formation of the perfect passive indicative. You take the **fourth principal part** of the dictionary entry (the perfect passive participle) in the appropriate gender, case, and number and pair it with the present infinitive of the verb “to be,” *esse*. Take a look at these examples:

- *amātus esse*, “to have been loved”
- *monitus esse*, “to have been warned”

- *rectus esse*, “to have been ruled”
- *captus esse*, “to have been taken”
- *auditus esse*, “to have been heard”

Note that in these examples, I used only the masculine nominative singular forms, but the perfect passive participle as part of the perfect passive infinitive can change its gender, case, and number to match the noun that it is properly describing. For example, if it were feminine nouns being heard, like *vocēs*, “voices”, then the proper form of the infinitive would be *audītae esse*.

We’ll learn more about how to use the perfect passive infinitive later on. It suffices for now to know how to form it and that it exists.

24.5 Uses of the Infinitive

There are various ways in which we can use the infinitive, a verbal noun, in Latin. We’ll discuss two now.

1. As a noun (**subjective**)

Because the infinitive is a verbal *noun*, it can stand as the **subject** of a sentence. When used in this way, the infinitive is a **neuter nominative singular** noun, and it most often shows up in linking sentence types or with impersonal verbs.

- *errāre est humanum*. “To err is human.” OR “It is human to err.”

Note that the predicate nominative adjective *humanum* is **neuter nominative singular** because it’s modifying *errāre* via the linking verb *est*.

The subjective infinitive, though used as a noun, still retains its verbal qualities in that it can be qualified by direct objects or prepositional phrases. Here are some examples:

- *cēnam parāre est prudēns*. “To prepare the dinner is wise.” OR “It is wise to prepare the dinner.”
- *sedēre prō igne iūvat*. “To sit in front of the fire is pleasing.” OR “It is pleasing to sit in front of the fire.”

2. Complementary

The infinitive can also be used to *complete* the meaning of a main verb. For example, with the verb *possum*, *posse*, *potuī*, “to be able to, can”, it would be odd to have simply a conjugated form of that verb without anything to complete its meaning:

- *potest*. “She can.” She can what?!

This is where the **complementary infinitive** can help; it completes the sense begun by a main verb. And like the subjective infinitive, it can take its own direct objects or prepositional phrases.

- *canere potest*. “She can sing.” OR “She is able to sing.”
- *vidēre eōs poterāmus*. “We were able to see them.”

1. TOC {:toc}

25 Gerunds

Like the infinitive, **gerunds** are neuter singular verbal nouns. However, while the infinitive can be the nominative subject or accusative direct object, the gerund fills all the other syntactic roles of the verbal noun. It appears in the genitive, dative, and ablative cases and in the accusative only as the object of a preposition and it is usually translated into English by adding -ing to the verb.

The gerund is formed using the second principal part. In the case of the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd conjugations, we take the present stem (the infinitive minus *-re*) and add *-nd* to form the gerund stem:

- amō, amāre, amāvī, amātus → amā- → ama-nd-

We, then, add the appropriate 2nd declension neuter singular case endings to form the gerund:

Case	Singular
Nominative	–
Genitive	ama-nd-ī
Dative	ama-nd-ō
Accusative	ama-nd-um
Ablative	ama-nd-ō

In the case of the 3rd -io and 4th conjugations, we take the present stem (the infinitive minus *-re*), chop off the trailing vowel (either *-e* for 3rd -io or *-i* for 4th), and add *-iend* to form the gerund stem:

- capiō, capere, cēpī, captus → cape- minus e → cap- → cap-iend-

We, then, add the appropriate 2nd declension neuter singular case endings to form the gerund:

Case	Singular
Nominative	–
Genitive	cap-iend-ī

Case	Singular
Dative	cap-iend-ō
Accusative	cap-iend-um
Ablative	cap-iend-ō

Below are some examples of how gerunds work in Latin sentence:

- Ars **legendī** est bona animō. (“The art **of reading** is good for the soul.”)
- Rex **currendō** fūgit. (“The king fled **by (means of) running**.”)
 - Note that **currendō** is in the ablative case, and its use is as an **ablative of means**. The **ablative of means** (sometimes “ablative of instrument”) is an ablative used without a preposition to indicate with what or by means of what the action of the verb was completed, and it is usually translated with “by”, “by means of”, or “with”.
- **Ad scribendum** vēnit. (“He came **for the purpose of writing**.”)
 - *ad* + the accusative gerund and *causā / gratiā* + the genitive gerund are frequently used to express purpose. Note that *causā/gratiā* is **post-positive**, which means it follows the word that it governs. So, we can rewrite the sentence as: **scribendī causā** vēnit.

26 GRGs (Gerund-Replacing Gerundives)

What if, in the example, *ars legendī est bona animō* mentioned above, we wanted to specify that it is the “art of reading **books**” that is good for the soul?

The simplest solution would seem to be adding a direct object after the gerund:

- Ars **legendī librōs** est bona animō (“The art **of reading books** is good for the soul.”)

However, for some reason, Latin does not like using this construction and instead prefers to use a **gerundive** phrase instead. A gerundive is a verbal *adjective* that looks very much like a gerund (both can be identified easily by the **-nd** infix). It has the same stem as a gerund, but it can appear in any case, number, and gender and is declined as a 2-1-2 adjective:

- amō, amāre, amāvī, amātus → amā- → ama-nd- → **amandus, amanda, amandum**

In a gerundive phrase, the gerundive agrees with the noun that would have been the direct object in **number** and **gender** BUT takes its **case** from its role in the sentence. In the example above, *ars legendī librōs* would be expressed as follows using a gerundive phrase:

- Ars **legendōrum librōrum** (explanatory genitive with ars, masculine and plural from librōs) = the art of reading books

The gerundive phrase is usually called a **gerund-replacing gerundive (GRG for short)**. When translating GRGs, the gerundive is translated just like a gerund and the noun that agrees with it as its a direct object. Below are a few examples:

- Terit tempus **scribendis epistulis**. (“He wastes time **by writing letters**.”)
- Consilium **urbis capiendae** (“A plan **for taking the city**.”)
- Veniunt **ad pācem petendam**. (“They come **for the purpose of seeking peace**.”)

27 Other Uses of Gerundives

In addition to functioning like gerunds, gerundives have two other important usages. They can function as **adjectives** modifying a noun and as part of a verbal construction known as the **passive periphrastic**.

27.1 Gerundive as Verbal Adjective

Like all other adjectives, the gerundive will usually be paired with a noun. However, unlike most adjectives, the gerundive has two additional characteristics due to its verbal nature: **voice** and **tense**. The gerundive is always **passive** and forward-looking (the reason for this is that gerundive is technically the future passive participle – more on that in the second semester). Consequently, we translate the gerundive “to be [verb]ed”, which often carries a sense of necessity or obligation. Consider the following examples:

- Carmen **audiendum** (“a song to be heard”)
- Urbs **videnda** (“a city to be seen”)
- Puella librum **legendum** scripsit. (“The girl wrote a book to be read (i.e. a book that ought to/must be read)”)

When used as an adjective, the gerundive usually appears in either the nominative case (modifying a subject) or in the accusative case (modifying a direct object). The reason for this is to avoid any possible ambiguity with the GRG. The GRG like the gerund appears only in the genitive, dative, and ablative cases and in the accusative as the object of a preposition.

Keep in mind that this use of the gerundive is relatively rare compared to GRGs and the passive periphrastic.

27.2 Passive Periphrastic

The use of the gerundive in the passive periphrastic construction is an extension of its use as a verbal adjective. As we saw above, the gerundive is passive and forward looking by nature. In the passive

periphrastic, the gerundive is combined with a form of *sum* to express (forward-looking and passive) verbal obligation and necessity. Take for instance, the following examples:

- Rēgēs **pūniendī sunt**. (“The kings must be punished.”)
- Regina **amanda est**. (“The queen must be loved”)

In these sentences, note how the form of the gerundive matches in gender, number, and case with the subject.

27.2.1 Dative of Agent

With the passive periphrastic, you can use an optional **dative of agent** to indicate who should or must perform the action of the verb. The agent goes into the dative case without any prepositions or other qualifications. For example:

- rēgēs **cīvibus** pūniendī sunt. The kings must be punished **by the citizens**.
- rēgīna **maritō** amanda est. The queen must be loved **by her husband**.

Note that you will only ever use the **dative of agent** with a **passive periphrastic** construction. Any *regular* passive constructions will use the familiar **ablative of agent** (*ā/ab* plus the ablative). So:

- rēgēs **cīvibus** pūniendī sunt. The kings must be punished **by the citizens (dat. of agent)**. BUT:
- rēgēs **ā cīvibus** punītī sunt. The kings were punished **by the citizens (abl. of agent)**.

1. TOC {;toc}

28 Questions

Questions are sentences that are worded so as to elicit a response or answer. Take a look at these examples in English:

- What time is it?
- Where are you going?
- Did you see them?
- Which city will he rule?

These questions are **direct questions** because the speaker is posing the question. Next semester, we'll learn about indirect questions, where the speaker is reporting a question asked by someone else.

In Latin, there are a number of ways to indicate that a sentence is a question.

28.1 Question Mark

As in English, we can indicate a question in Latin by ending the sentence with a **question mark** as opposed to a period or other terminal punctuation. When the question mark is present, we need to be careful to translate the sentence appropriately!

- *ex urbe vēnērunt.* They came out of the city.
 - *ex urbe vēnērunt?* Did they come out of the city?
-

28.2 Enclitic -ne

Such punctuation marks did not exist for the Romans, however. So, to indicate that a sentence is a question, the speaker would attach a syllable, *-ne*, to the end of the first word of the sentence, which will often be the verb or the word that the question concerns. This syllable itself is *untranslated*, but it turns the whole sentence into a question:

- *vēnēruntne ex urbe?* Did they come out of the city?
- *regetne quattuor annōs?* Will he rule for four years?

Make sure to look for this -ne enclitic in questions; it is NOT an inflected ending, so you must separate it from the word that it's attached to in order to parse correctly.

vēnēruntne = *vēnērunt* (3rd pl. perfect active indicative) + -ne

28.3 Question Words

As in English, there are certain words that explicitly signal a question: for example, “where” and “why”. A few of these words are listed in your Module 5 vocabulary.

- *cūr laetī erant?* Why were they happy?
 - *ubī ducēs erunt?* Where will the leaders be?
 - *unde puerī currunt?* From where are the boys running?
-

28.4 Interrogative Pronoun

A specific type of word that can signal a question is the **interrogative pronoun**. This pronoun **stands alone** in its sentence to ask the question “who?” “whom?” “which?” or “what?”. This pronoun declines and can function as any of the case uses we’ve learned about so far. Take a look at the following examples:

- *Quis sub arbōre sedet?* Who is sitting under the tree?
- *Quem vīdistī?* Whom did you see?
- *Quid dīcit?* What is she saying?
- *Ā quō urbs regētur?* By whom will the city be ruled?
- *Cui pater carmen dat?* To whom is the father giving the poem?
- *Cuius māter est?* Of whom is she the mother? OR Whose mother is she?

The declension chart for the **interrogative pronoun** can be found [here](#).

Note that this pronoun is **irregular**, so you must memorize its forms.

Note also that in the singular, the masculine and feminine are identical, while the neuter differs in the nominative and accusative forms. In the plural, there are distinct forms for all three genders in the nominative, genitive, and accusative, but the dative and ablative plurals are all the same.

28.5 Interrogative Adjective

While the interrogative pronoun stands alone in a question, the **interrogative adjective** explicitly modifies a noun within the question, asking the question “which?” or “what?”. As an adjective, it matches its noun in gender, case, and number. Take a look at these reframings of the example sentences above with interrogative *adjectives*, as opposed to interrogative pronouns:

- *Quī puer sub arbōre sedet?* Which boy is sitting under the tree?
- *Quam fēminam vīdistī?* Which woman did you see?
- *Quod verbum dīcit?* What word is she saying?
- *Ā quō duce urbs regētur?* By which leader will the city be ruled?
- *Cui filiō pater carmen dat?* To which son is the father giving the poem?
- *Cuius puellae māter est?* Of which girl is she the mother?

The declension chart for the **interrogative adjective** can be found [here](#). Note that its forms are exactly identical to those of the interrogative pronoun in the plural, and mostly identical in the singular except for the nominatives, the neuter accusative, and the feminine accusative and ablative.

29 Deliberative Subjunctive

So far we have dealt with questions that have a definitive answer and can be restated as a declarative sentence that is factual in content (e.g. Did they come out of the city? Yes, they did come out of the city). However, this is not the only way that we can ask questions. Take, for instance, the examples:

- *Should* they come out of the city?
- *Should* they have come out of the city?

Here the answer is a matter of opinion, rather than fact. The speaker is thinking about and deliberating on the action in the question. The question may even be rhetorical in nature.

In Latin, we indicate such a question by changing the **mood** of our main verb. Instead of using the indicative, we use the **subjunctive**. We use the **present subjunctive active** or **passive** for deliberative questions in the present tense and the **imperfect subjunctive active** or **passive** for deliberative questions in the past tense:

- *Veniant* (present subjunctive) ex urbe? ("Should they come out of the city?")
- *Venirent* (imperfect subjunctive) ex urbe? ("Should they have come out of the city?")
- *Quis sedeat* (present subjunctive) in monte? (Who should sit on the mountain?)
- *Quis sederet* (imperfect subjunctive) in monte? (Who should have sat on the mountain?)

We refer to this use of the subjunctive as the **deliberative subjunctive**.

NB: There is no standard translation for the subjunctive - its translation is determined by usage.

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30 Indirect Statement

In English, there are two ways to report what someone says. We can report it **directly** by using quotations or we can report it **indirectly** by paraphrasing it. Consider the following examples:

- Direct Statement: The students said: “We like Latin.”
- Indirect Statement: The students said **that** they like Latin.
- Direct Statement: She said: “Pizza is the best food.”
- Indirect Statement: She said **that** pizza is the best food.

How do we differentiate between what someone actually said and a paraphrase of what they said in Latin? The answer is that we change the form that we use for the subject and main verb of the statement. When we replicate what was actually said, we follow the nominative subject and finite verb pattern that we have already met this semester:

- Dixit: “pater amavit filias.”
- He said: “The father loved his daughters.”

To indicate that we are paraphrasing what the speaker said, we use the **accusative** to represent the **subject** of the indirect statement and an **infinitive** as the **verbal action** of the indirect statement.

- Dixit patrem amāre filiās.
- He said **that** the father loved his daughters.

Thus, we can recognize **indirect statement** by the use of an **accusative subject** and an **infinitive** following the sentence’s main verb. (Be sure to review infinitive formation.)

While the main verb in these constructions is often a verb of speaking (e.g. *dicō, dicere, dixī, dictus*, “to say, speak”), indirect statements in Latin can also be introduced by what is known as a **verb of the head**, a verb for any action you can do with your head (e.g., speaking, thinking, learning, perceiving, believing, seeing, agreeing).

Here are some examples of indirect statements with different examples of verbs of the head (bolded):

- **Credēbat** patrem amāre filiās. (“**He was believing** that the father loved his daughters.”)
- **Vīdit** patrem amāre filiās. (“**He saw** that the father loved his daughters.”)

- **Didicit** patrem amāre filiās. (“**He learned** that the father loved his daughters.”)
- **Cognovit** patrem amāre filiās. (“**He knew** that the father loved his daughters.”)

In all of these sentences, notice that we have an accusative direct object in addition to the accusative subject and infinitive as the verb. Because we can’t necessarily use Latin word order to determine meaning, you may have to use context clues to determine which accusative is the subject and which accusative is the direct object.

For example, in the last sentence (*cognovit patrem amāre filiās*), if the context calls for it, it would be just as correct to translate the sentence as “He knew that **the daughters** loved **their father**.”

31 Time in Indirect statement

Time in indirect statement is relative to the main verb. What that means is that the tense of the infinitive tells us when the action of the indirect statement happened *in relation to* the time of the main verb. For instance, the use of a **present infinitive** tells us that the action of the infinitive of the indirect statement happens *at the same time* as the action of the main verb (e.g., thinking/speaking/seeing). So, that means that if, for example, the main verb is in a past tense, then the action of the present infinitive should be translated in the past tense too, despite the fact that it's a "present" infinitive. Note the following examples:

- *Credit patrem amāre filiās.* ("He *believes* that the father *loves* his daughter.")
- *Credidit patrem amāre filiās.* ("He *believed* that the father *loved* his daughters.")
- *Credit filiās amāri ab patre.* ("He *believes* that the daughters *are loved* by their father.")
- *Credidit filiās amāri ab patre.* ("He *believed* that the daughters *were loved* by their father.")

The **perfect infinitive** is used to indicate that the action of the infinitive happened *before* the action of the main verb:

- *Credit patrem amāvisse filiās.* ("He *believes* that the father *loved* his daughter.")
- *Credidit patrem amāvisse filiās.* ("He *believed* that the father *had loved* his daughters.")
 - Note that the translation "had loved" is technically the **pluperfect tense**, which indicates an action that happened *before* an action in the past.
- *Credit filiās amātās esse ab patre.* ("He *believes* that the daughters *were loved* by their father.")
- *Credidit filiās amātās esse ab patre.* ("He *believed* that the daughters *had been loved* by their father.")
 - Note again that "had been loved" is in the pluperfect tense to indicate an action that took place *before* a past tense action.

The **future infinitive** (no need to worry too much about this for now) is used to indicate that the action of the indirect statement infinitive happened *after* the action of the main verb:

- *Credit patrem amāturum esse filiās.* ("He *believes* that the father *will love* his daughters.")

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32 Subjunctive Mood - General Overview

The subjunctive is the verbal mood of possibility, doubt, hypothetical or ideal situations, or unreal actions. It can be used either in independent clauses or subordinate clauses. We will learn about one *independent* use (deliberative subjunctive) and one *dependent* use (temporal clauses) this semester.

The subjunctive exists only in four tenses: present, imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect. The future and future perfect do not have subjunctive forms because they express actual situations or real facts.

33 Present Subjunctive

To form the subjunctive in the present tense, we begin as usual by finding the **present stem** (by going to the 2nd principal part and chopping off the final -re). Then, depending on the **conjugation** to which the verb belongs, the vowel at the end of the present stem will undergo a shift:

- 1st conjugation: **ā** > **ē**
- 2nd conjugation: **ē** > **eā**
- 3rd conjugation: **e** > **ā**
- 3rd -iō conjugation: **e** > **iā**
- 4th conjugation: **ī** > **iā**

This pattern can be memorized using the mnemonic: sh**E** w**EA**rs **A** d**IA**mond t**IA**ra.

Then, we attach the appropriate personal endings to reflect person, number, and voice: -m, -s, -t, -mus, -tis, -nt for the active; -r, -ris, -tur, -mur, -minī, -ntur for the passive.

Take a look at the following transformations from indicative to subjunctive:

- amat > amet
 - monent > moneant
 - regitur > regātur
 - capiuntur > capiantur
 - audit > audiat
-

34 Imperfect Subjunctive

To form the imperfect subjunctive, we will take the **entire** 2nd principal part and then simply add our active or passive personal endings directly onto it. The final -e lengthens to ē except before -m, -t, -nt, -r, and -ntur.

Take a look at the following examples of the imperfect subjunctive in the 3rd singular active and passive (respectively):

- amō, amāre, amāvī, amātus > amāret, amārētur
 - moneō, monēre, monuī, monitus > monēret, monērētur
 - regō, regere, rexī, rectus > regeret, regerētur
 - capiō, capere, cēpī, captus > caperet, caperētur
 - audiō, audīre, audīvī, audītus > audīret, audīrētur
-

35 Perfect Active Subjunctive

To form the perfect subjunctive, we will use the **perfect stem**, which can be found by going to the 3rd principal part and chopping off the final -ī. Then, we will attach the following endings:

	Singular	Plural
1st	-erim	-erīmus
2nd	-erīs	-erītis
3rd	-erit	-erint

These endings are composed of the syllable cluster -erī- with the active personal endings.

Take a look at the following transformations from perfect indicative to perfect subjunctive:

- amāvit > amāverit
- monuērunt > monuerint
- rexēre > rexerint
- cēpit > cēperit
- audīvērunt > audīverint

36 Pluperfect Active Subjunctive

To form the pluperfect subjunctive, we will use the **perfect stem**, which can be found by going to the 3rd principal part and chopping off the final -ī. Then, we will attach the following endings:

	Singular	Plural
1st	-issem	-issēmus
2nd	-issēs	-issētis
3rd	-isset	-issent

These endings are composed of the syllable cluster -issē- with the active personal endings.

Take a look at the following transformations from pluperfect indicative to pluperfect subjunctive:

- amāverat > amāvisset
- monuerant > monuissent
- rexerant > rexissent
- cēperat > cēpisset
- audīverant > audīvisset

37 Perfect and Pluperfect Passive Subjunctive

The perfect and pluperfect passive subjunctive, like their indicative counterparts, are **compound tenses**. We will observe the same rules for the formation of the perfect and pluperfect passive (i.e., use a form of the 4th principal part that matches the subject in gender, case, and number plus the present tense of *sum, esse* for perfect and the imperfect tense of *sum, esse* for pluperfect), but rather than using the *indicative* forms of *sum, esse*, we will use the *subjunctive* forms.

Take a look at the following transformations from the perfect passive indicative to the perfect passive subjunctive:

- amātus est > amātus sit
- monitae sunt > monitae sint
- rectum est > rectum sit
- captī sunt > captī sint
- audīta sunt > audīta sint

Now, take a look at the following transformations from the pluperfect passive indicative to the pluperfect passive subjunctive:

- amātus erat > amātus esset
- monitae erant > monitae essent
- rectum erat > rectum esset
- captī erant > captī essent
- audīta erant > audīta essent

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38 Dependent Clauses

Thus far we have dealt with sentences that consist solely of **independent clauses** (i.e., a clause [a phrase consisting of a subject and verb] that can stand on its own as a separate sentence). Now we will turn our attention to sentences that contain both independent and **dependent clauses** - phrases consisting of a subject and verb that cannot stand on their own as a sentence. Dependent clauses always begin with a word (adverb, conjunction, or pronoun) which indicates that they are subordinate to and dependent on another clause in the sentence. Below are some examples of dependent clauses in English (bolded):

- **When I was in college,** I majored in Biology.
- She was a student **who excels in Latin and Math.**
- **Although the teacher was funny,** the students never laughed at his jokes.

These dependent clauses cannot stand on their own; if I were to say “When I was in college”, you’d be left wondering what happened at that time.

As we can see here, the dependent clauses add important information about the circumstances under which the action of the independent clause took place.

39 Temporal Clauses

Dependent clauses can be classified by the type of information that they add about the independent clause. Dependent clauses that tell us **when** something occurred is called a **temporal clause**.

In Latin, temporal clauses are introduced by a **temporal conjunction**. For example:

- *cum*, “when”
- *postquam*, “after”
- *antequam*, “before”
- *priusquam*, “before”

After the temporal conjunction come a subject and verb. The verb can be either in the indicative or the subjunctive in mood. If the verb is indicative the clause exactly defines the time when the action of the main clause happened (e.g., “When the clock struck 6, I ate dinner”), but if the verb is subjunctive, it tells us the circumstances around when the action of the main clause happened (e.g. “When I was taking the test, I was working very hard.” Here, “when I was taking the test” doesn’t tell us an exact time, but it describes the circumstance, what was happening, when I was working very hard). Below are some examples of sentence with temporal clauses.

- **Cum Hercules infans erat**, duōs serpentēs necāvit. (“When Hercules was an infant, he killed two serpents.”)
 - **Dum urbem caperent**, militēs celebrābant. (“While they were taking the city, the soldiers were celebrating.”)
-

40 Subjunctive Verbs and the Sequence of Tenses

Whenever a subjunctive verb is used in a dependent clause of any kind, its tense is determined by 1) the tense of the main verb in the dependent clause and 2) the temporal relationship of the dependent clause to the independent clause (just like the tense of an infinitive in indirect statement). The rules that govern these criteria are referred to as the **sequence of tenses**.

If the verb in the **main clause** expresses **present or future time** (i.e., it is in the present, future, future perfect, or *rarely* the perfect tense), then we are in what is called **primary sequence**. In primary sequence, the verb of the dependent clause will be:

- **present subjunctive**, if it expresses an action that is happening at *the same time as or after* the action of the independent clause, or
- **perfect subjunctive**, if it expresses an action happened *prior to* the action of the independent clause.

Below are some examples of the use of primary sequence in temporal clauses (the perfect subjunctive is very rare in these instances):

- *Priusquam femina dōnum eī det, ex urbe curret.* (Before the woman gives him a gift, he will run out of the city.) (Giving a gift would happen after the running.)
- *Dum dux dicat, militēs exspectant.* (Until the leader speaks, the soldiers wait.) (Speaking would happen after the waiting.)

If the verb in the **main clause** expresses **past time** (i.e., it is in the imperfect, perfect, or pluperfect tense), then we are in what is called **secondary sequence**. In secondary sequence, the verb of the dependent clause will be:

- **imperfect subjunctive**, if it expresses an action that is happening at *the same time as or after* the action of the independent clause, or
- **pluperfect subjunctive**, if it expresses an action happened *prior to* the action of the independent clause.

Below are some examples of the use of secondary sequence in temporal clauses:

- **Cum militēs Troiam oppugnarent**, feminae urbem defendērunt. (**When the soldiers were attacking Troy**, the women defended the city.) (Attacking is happening at the same time as defending.)
- **Cum militēs Troiam oppugnavissent**, feminae urbem defendērunt. (After the soldiers had attacked Troy, the women defended the city.) (Attacking happened before defending.)

Main Verb Tense	Sequence	Subjunctive Verb Tense
pres., fut., fut. pf., (perf.)	Primary	Present (same time as/after main verb) Perfect (before main verb)
impf., pf., plupf.	Secondary	Imperfect (same time as/after main verb) Pluperfect (before main verb)

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41 Personal Pronouns

The **personal pronouns** are used to indicate the subject of a sentence. We've dealt with this concept extensively as we learned how to conjugate verbs, and we've been using the personal pronouns in English translations of verbs. For example, as we translate *amāmus* as "**we** love", "**we**" serves as a personal pronoun. These pronouns can also occur in other cases: for example, as an accusative direct object: "He loves **us**."

The personal pronouns are primarily used in the oblique cases (genitive, dative, accusative, and ablative). We can explicitly state a nominative personal pronoun in Latin, but because the person and number of the **verb** indicates the subject, we normally only use an explicit personal pronoun in the nominative for the purposes of **emphasis** or **differentiation from another subject**.

There are three personal pronouns, each corresponding to the **person** of a verb (1st, 2nd, and 3rd person). Each of these pronouns can be **singular** (I, me, you, he/she/it, him/her/it) or **plural** (we, us, you all, they, them).

The 1st person personal pronoun is *ego* (singular), *nōs* (plural). The 2nd person personal pronoun is *tū* (singular), *vōs* (plural). The 3rd person personal pronoun is *is*, *ea*, *id*, which we've seen and used many times at this point.

The declension charts for these personal pronouns can be found [here](#).

Take a look at the following examples of the personal pronouns in context:

- *ducēs nōs regēbant*. The leaders were ruling **us**.
 - *tibi carmina canam*. I will sing songs **to you**.
 - *ab eīs urbs vidēbitur*. The city will be seen by **them**.
-

42 Reflexive Pronouns

When a pronoun in a non-nominative case refers back to the subject of the sentence, we call this a reflexive pronoun (from the Latin verb *reflectere* “to turn back”). In English, reflexive are usually translated as with the suffix -selves:

- I love *myself*.
- You teach *yourself* Latin.
- I gave a present to *myself*.
- They helped *themselves*.

For first and second person pronouns in Latin, the form of the reflexive pronoun is the *same* as the personal pronoun. You can find the charts for 1st and 2nd person reflexive pronouns here. Below are some examples:

- *mē* amō. (“I love *myself*.”)
- *tē* amās. (“You love *yourself*.”)
- *vōbīs* donum datis. (“You all are giving a gift *to yourselves”.)
- *nōs* iuvāmus. (“We help ourselves.”)

Note how the **person of the verb** and the **person of the pronoun** match, which makes the pronoun a reflexive rather than just a personal pronoun. For example:

- *mē* amō. I love *myself*. (1st person verb, 1st person pronoun = reflexive)
- *mē* amās. You love *me*. (2nd person verb, 1st person pronoun = personal)

Things get a little trickier in the case of the third person pronoun. While there is no ambiguity in first and second pronouns (that is, “I”/“me” and “you” are always self-explanatory), there can be ambiguity in the third person pronoun (there are lots of possible hims and hers). As a result, Latin, like English, differentiates between the regular pronoun (*is*, *ea*, *id*) and the reflexive (*suī* = genitive, *sibi* = dative, *sē* = accusative, *sē* = ablative). Here is the third person reflexive pronoun in paradigm form, and here are some examples of the differences between using *is*, *ea*, *id* and *suī*, *sibi*, *sē*, *sē*:

- Amat eam. (“She loves her.”)
- Amat sē. (“She loves herself.”)
- Donum eī dat. (“He gives a gift to him” (i.e., a person other than himself))

- Donum sibi dat. (“He gives a gift to himself.”)

Note the differences here. When you use *is*, *ea*, *id*, you are referring to someone *other than* the subject. So, in “*amat eam*”, the subject “she” is not the same person as the direct object “her.” By using the reflexive in the second sentence, though, you make it clear that the direct object “herself” *is the same person as* the subject “she.”

Interestingly, the same forms are used for both the **singular** and **plural** 3rd person reflexive pronoun. This is because all reflexives refer back to their subject, and thus, there is no ambiguity between singular and plural.

- Amat sē. (“She loves herself.”)
 - Amant sē. (“They love themselves.”)
-

43 Deponent Verbs

Deponent verbs are verbs that are **passive in form, but active in meaning**. That means that although we will conjugate the verb only in the passive voice, when we translate it, we will translate it **actively**. As such, deponents can act like intransitive or transitive verbs, the latter in the sense that they can take an accusative direct object. For example:

- *ducem sequimur*. We are following the leader.

You can tell what verbs are deponent based on their **dictionary entry**. Deponent verbs will have only **three** principal parts; these will correspond to the first three principal parts of a regular verb, except that the forms will be passive. Take a look at this sample 1st conjugation deponent verb:

- hortor, hortārī, hortātus sum - to exhort

hortor, although 1st singular present *passive* indicative in form, is translated actively as “I exhort.” *hortārī*, although a present *passive* infinitive in form, is translated actively as “to exhort.” *hortātus sum*, although 1st singular perfect *passive* indicative in form, is translated actively as “I exhorted” or “I have exhorted.”

We must be able to identify deponent verbs from regular verbs because the difference in translation is vast! Take a look at the following examples of deponent verbs used in context:

- *montem magnum mirābantur*. They were marveling at the large mountain.
- *ignem ferōcem verēmur*. We fear the fierce fire.
- *nauta ā navī proficiscitur*. The sailor departs from the ship.

43.1 Deponent Conjugation and Special Forms

Despite the different dictionary entry format, deponent verbs are still classified into conjugations like regular verbs based on the vowel in the second principal part and the ending of the first principal part. Note, for example, that:

- hortor, hortārī, hortātus sum, “to exhort, encourage”

is 1st conjugation based on the *-ā* in the infinitive, but

- proficiscor, proficiscī, profectus sum, “to depart”

is 3rd conjugation. *-ī* is the present passive infinitive ending for 3rd conjugation verbs (as opposed to *-ārī* for 1st conjugation, *-ērī* for 2nd conjugation, or *-īrī* for 4th conjugation), and because there is no *-io-* in the first principal part, it’s a pure 3rd conjugation verb. Compare that against:

- morior, morī, mortuus sum, “to die”

Here we have another *-ī* ending on the infinitive, but the first principal part ends in *-ior*. Thus, it is a 3rd *-io* verb.

Once you have determined the conjugation of the deponent verb and its present stem, then you can conjugate it according to the passive voice rules of regular verbs. So, while the present tense of 1st conjugation *hortor* looks like this:

	Singular	Plural
1st	hortor	hortāmur
2nd	hortāris	hortāminī
3rd	hortātur	hortantur

the present tense of 3rd *-io* conjugation *morior* looks like this:

	Singular	Plural
1st	morior	morimur
2nd	moreris	moriminī
3rd	moritur	moriantur

43.2 Imperfect Subjunctive of Deponents

If you want to form the **imperfect subjunctive of a deponent verb**, you must perform an extra step. Remember that the regular imperfect subjunctive simply adds personal endings onto the end of the second principal part (which ends in *-re*). The infinitive of a deponent, however, **must be changed into**

a dummy active form before adding the personal endings to form the imperfect subjunctive.

For example, the deponent verb *vereor, verēri, veritus sum*, “to fear”, is 2nd conjugation. Before we conjugate it into the imperfect subjunctive, we have to take its infinitive and change it into what its active counterpart would look like:

verēri → *verēre*

verēre is not a valid form in Latin! It is simply an intermediate step that we have to take before we add the personal endings:

	Singular	Plural
1st	verērer	verērēmur
2nd	verērēris	verērēminī
3rd	verērētur	verērentur

The same goes for 3rd and 3rd -io verbs.

morī → *morere*

	Singular	Plural
1st	morerer	morerēmur
2nd	morerēris	morerēminī
3rd	morerētur	morerentur

43.3 Semi-Deponents

There are also verbs that are classified as **semi-deponent verbs**, meaning that they are **regular in the present system** but **deponent in the perfect system**. For example,

- *gaudeō, gaudēre, gavisus sum*, “to rejoice”

Note how the first two principal parts look like parts of a regular dictionary entry for a 2nd conjugation verb, but then the third principal part gives what looks like a perfect passive form. The conjugation

of the present, imperfect, and future tenses of semi-deponents is completely regular, while the conjugation of the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect tenses is **passive in form but active in meaning**. Thus:

- gavisī sunt. They rejoiced. (not “they were rejoiced”)
-

44 Irregular Verbs

There are a number of **irregular verbs** in Latin, in the sense that their conjugation patterns often do not follow the normal rules or regular patterns that we've been learning for 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 3rd -iō, and 4th conjugation verbs. We've encountered two irregular verbs so far (*sum* and *possum*); here, we introduce 5 more.

- eō, īre, īvī/īī, ītus - to go
- ferō, ferre, tūlī, lātus - to bear, carry
- volō, velle, voluī - to want, wish
- nōlō, nolle, noluī - not to want
- mālō, malle, maluī - to prefer

The conjugation patterns for these five verbs can be found here.

Some general comments on memorizing the forms:

- The perfect system tenses (perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect) and the imperfect subjunctive of these verbs are mostly formed completely regularly.
 - The exceptions are the **2nd person singular and plural perfect active indicative** of eō, which smushes the expected two i's formed by the stem + ending (iistī, iistis) into a single i, resulting in the forms *īstī* and *īstis*. A similar smushing occurs for all forms of the **pluperfect active subjunctive** of eō: *īssem*, *īssēs*, *īssēt*...; and the perfect active infinitive (*īsse*).
- The present tense of each of these verbs is the most irregular and requires the most attention.
- The only verb in this list that has a passive voice is *ferō*; its present passive conjugation is particularly irregular.
- The imperfect is formed relatively regularly, except on unexpected stems. For example, the imperfect stem for *volō* is *volē*, to which you attach the *-ba* infix and the personal endings.
- The future of eō uses 1st/2nd conjugation future endings (-bō, -bis, -bit, -bimus, -bitis, -bunt) on the stem *ī*.
- The future of *ferō*, *volō*, *nōlō*, and *mālō* use 3rd/4th/3rd -iō future endings (-am, -ēs, -et, -ēmus, -ētis, -ent) on irregular stems (*ferre* > *fer-*; *velle* > *vol-*; *nōlle* > *nōl-*; *malle* > *mal-*).

- *eō* and *ferō* conjugate in the present subjunctive like 3rd conjugation verbs (with the vowel *ā* and the personal endings) on the stems *e* and *fer* respectively. (e.g., *eam*, *eās*, *eat...* and *feram*, *ferās*, *ferat...*).
- *volō*, *nōlō*, and *mālō* conjugate in the present subjunctive on irregular stems (*velle* > *vel-*; *nolle* > *nol-*; *malle* > *mal-*) with the unusual vowel *-ī* plus the personal endings. (e.g., *velim*, *velīs*, *velit...*; *nōlim*, *nōlīs*, *nolit...*; *mālim*, *mālīs*, *mālit...*).

45 Participles

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46 Participles - Overview

Participles are **verbal adjectives**. That means that they are built off Latin verb forms but modify nouns. Take a look at some examples of participles in English:

- The **laughing** boy appreciated the joke.
- We sang the **praised** song.
- The dog, **about to jump**, was growling.

These participles modify nouns because they tell us what that noun is doing (“laughing”) or about to do (“about to jump”) or what has been done (“praised”) to that noun. So, participles in Latin will look like Latin adjectives, either a 2-1-2 or a one-termination, and either agree with an explicit noun in the sentence or be used as a substantive.

Participles, because they are derived from verbs, can also function like verbs by taking direct objects, ablatives of agent, prepositional phrases, indirect statements, etc., depending on the type of verb in question.

- The song, **having been sung** *by the choir*, was beautiful.
 - The cow, **about to jump** *over the moon*, did not run away with the spoon.
 - We saw the girl **plucking** *flowers in the meadow*.
-

47 Types of Participles

Participles in Latin have a **tense** (present, perfect, or future) and a **voice** (active or passive). Participles do not have a person, number, or mood, and there are no imperfect, pluperfect, or future perfect participles. Of the existing tenses and voices, there are only **four** combinations for participles in Latin, two of which you've already met!

- present active
- perfect passive
- future active
- future passive

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48 Present Active Participle

The **present active participle** is often translated as the “-ing” form of the verb; for example, “singing”, “laughing”, “praising”, “hearing.”

This is easy to confuse, however, with the **gerund**, a verbal *noun* that also ends in -ing. It is important to keep in mind the difference between a participle and a gerund: the participle is a verbal *adjective* that usually modifies a noun, and the gerund is itself a verbal *noun*. If you need to determine whether an -ing form in English is a participle or a gerund, try to add the words “the act of” before the -ing form. If the sentence still makes sense, the -ing form is a gerund; if not, it’s a participle. For example:

- We cheered him up by **singing**.
 - We cheered him up by *the act of singing*. = gerund
- The **singing** girl was very loud.
 - The *the act of singing* girl was very loud. = participle

It is easy to tell the two apart in Latin, however, because they are formed differently. In order to form the **present active participle**, we use the **second principal part**.

- If a 1st, 2nd, or 3rd conj. verb, chop off the -re, and then add the endings **-ns, -ntis** to form a **one-termination** adjective.
- If a 3rd -iō or 4th conj. verb, chop off the -re, change the vowel to **-ie**, and then add your **-ns, -ntis**.

For example:

- laudāre > laudāns, laudantis, “praising”
- monēre > monēns, monentis, “warning”
- regere > regēns, regentis, “ruling”
- capere > capiēns, capientis, “seizing”
- audire > audiēns, audientis, “listening, hearing”

In all conjugations, the vowel before the **-ns** of the nominative singular will always be long; the vowel before the **-nt** of the oblique cases will always be short.

So, take a look at some examples of the present active participle in context.

- *puella, carmina multa canēns, cēnam parāvit.* (cēna, -ae, f. - dinner) The girl, singing many songs, prepared dinner.
- *milēs ā duce urbem regente* interfectus est.* The soldier was killed by the leader ruling the city.

* Note that the **ablative singular of the present active participle** can end **either in -ī** (the usual ending for one-termination adjectives) **or in -e**. -ī is the ending when the participle is used as a simple adjective (e.g., *ab regentī rege*, “by the ruling king”). -e is used when the participle takes a prepositional phrase or object, as above (*urbem regente*), or is used in an ablative absolute (on which see below).

Note that **there is no present passive participle**.

Note also that the literal “-ing” translation of a present active participle can sound stilted and awkward. There are better and preferable ways to translate a participle; see the section on translating participles within this module.

48.1 Present Active Participle of Deponents

We form the present active participle of a **deponent verb** similarly.

- If a 1st or 2nd conj. verb, follow the appropriate rules from above (swapping in -rī for -re in the instructions).
- If a 3rd conj. verb, replace the final -ī of the infinitive with -e- before adding -ns, -ntis.
- If a 3rd -iō conj. verb, replace the final -ī of the infinitive with -ie- before adding the -ns, -ntis.
- If a 4th conj. verb, replace the -īrī of the infinitive with -ie- before adding the -ns, -ntis.

Note that this is one of three exceptions to the rule that deponents are **passive in form but active in meaning**. In this case, the present active participle of a deponent verb is **both active in form AND active in meaning**. We’ll learn about the other two exceptions below.

- hortārī > hortāns, hortantis, “exhorting”
- verērī > verēns, verentis, “fearing”
- loquī > loquēns, loquentis, “speaking, saying”
- morī > moriēns, morientis, “dying”
- orīrī (“to rise”) > oriēns, orientis, “rising”

Here are some examples of the present active participle of deponents in action:

- *dux, milītēs hortāns, profectus est.* The leader, exhorting the soldiers, set out.

- *mīlitem morientem ferēbāmus*. We were carrying the dying soldier.

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49 Perfect Passive Participle

The **perfect passive participle**, or PPP for short, is already familiar to you from the dictionary entries of verbs: the PPP is the **4th principal part** and it functions as a 2-1-2 adjective.

When translated literally, the PPP means “**(having been) [verb]ed.**” For example, **amatus puer** = “the boy, having been loved” or “the loved boy.” This, however, sounds like stilted translation-ese rather than actual English, so there are a number of ways to make the translation of the PPP – and participles in general – more idiomatic in English. See the section within this module on translating participles.

Check out these examples of the PPP in context. Remember that as a *verbal adjective*, the participle can govern appropriate constructions. In this case, with a perfect *passive* participle, we can use elements like ablatives of agent to indicate who performed the action of the passive participle.

- *urbs, ā rege horribilī recta, cum mortuus est laeta fuit.* - The city, having been ruled by the horrible king, was happy when he died.
- *frātrēs ā patre eōrum missōs vīdimus.* - We saw the brothers, having been sent by their father.

Note that **there is no perfect active participle**, BUT there is a special consideration with deponent verbs. The PPP of a **deponent verb** (found in its third principal part), like other forms of the deponent verb, is **passive in form but active in meaning**. So, we translate the PPP of a deponent verb as “**having (blank)ed**”. For example:

- *puer, verba illa locutus, discessit.* - The boy, having spoken those words, departed.

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50 Future Active Participle

The **future active participle** indicates that the noun being described is **about to** or **going to** do something. As such, we can translate the future active participle “**about to (verb)**” or “**going to (verb)**”.

Counterintuitively, we form the **future active participle** off the **perfect passive participle**. We take off the -us, and then add the endings **-ūrus, -ūra, -ūrum** to form a new 2-1-2 adjective. Note that the difference between the future active participle and the perfect passive participle is very slight: the syllable **-ūr** is the only difference.

- *vir consilium familiae suae datūrus domum venit.* - The man, about to give advice to his family, is coming home.
- *sororem librum meum captūram moneō.* - I am warning my sister, about to take my book.

Such translations of the future active participle, however, sound stilted and should generally be avoided in favor of more idiomatic constructions; see the section on translating participles within this module. The future active participle in particular can also be used to express purpose; see the appropriate section within the expressions of purpose module.

50.1 Future Active Infinitive

This new form also helps us form the 5th out of our 6 **infinitives**. We learned last semester about four:

- present active infinitive (laudāre, “to praise”)
- present passive infinitive (laudārī, “to be praised”)
- perfect active infinitive (laudāvisse, “to have praised”)
- perfect passive infinitive (laudātus... esse, “to have been praised”)

The 5th infinitive to add to this list is the **future active infinitive**, translated as “**to be about to (verb)**.” We form it by pairing the **future active participle** with the infinitive **esse**:

- laudātūrus... esse, “to be about to praise”

Note that as with the perfect passive infinitive, the participle has to change its ending to match whatever noun it describes. This is particularly important in constructions like indirect statements:

- *videō cīvēs regem laudātūrōs esse*. I see that the citizens are going to praise the king. BUT:
 - *videō matrem filium laudātūram esse*. I see that the mother is going to praise her son.
-

50.2 Future Active Participle and Infinitive of Deponents

As with the present active participle of deponent verbs, the **future active participle** of a deponent verb will break the deponent rule by being both **active in form AND active in meaning**. We will form it the same way: take the PPP from the third principal part, chop off the -us, and add -ūrus, -ūra, -ūrum. Then, it will be translated similarly. For example:

- hortātūrus, -a, -um, “about to exhort”
- veritūrus, -a, -um, “about to fear”

Accordingly, the third and final form that breaks the deponent rule will be the **future active infinitive**, formed as it is off the future active participle:

- hortātūrus... esse, “to be about to exhort”
- veritūrus... esse, “to be about to fear”

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51 Future Passive Participle

The **future passive participle** is actually a form that you are already familiar with: the **gerundive**. Remember that we learned that the gerundive is an adjective that is **passive**. Now we're filling out that picture: specifically, the gerundive is the future passive participle that, when used literally, is translated as “**(about/going) to be [verb]ed**”. We referenced this last semester when we described using the gerundive as a verbal adjective.

This particular participle is not very often used as a straightforward adjective with the meaning described above. The future passive participle is most often used as a gerundive in, e.g., a GRG construction or a passive periphrastic, as we learned last semester.

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52 Relative Tense and Translating Participles

The tense of a participle is **relative to the tense of the main verb** of the sentence to which it belongs. In this sense, the tense of a participle functions like the tense of an infinitive; neither is **absolute**, but it depends on the tense of the main verb.

- A **present** participle indicates an action that happens **at the same time as** the action of the main verb.
- A **perfect** participle indicates an action that is **completed by** or **done prior to** the time of the action of the main verb.
- A **future** participle indicates an action that **has yet to happen** when the action of the main verb is occurring.

This relativity of tense is important to keep in mind when translating participles in more creative ways than “-ing”, “having been (blank)ed”, and “about/going to (blank).” Take a look at this sentence that includes two participles:

The song, having been sung, is being memorized by the students, going to learn.

Try saying this previous sentence out loud and notice how stilted it sounds. We have two participles, respectively a perfect passive and a future active, but their literal translations make the sentence choppy and disjointed.

When it comes to translating participles, it is not technically incorrect to translate literally, but you are strongly encouraged to translate more creatively in one of the other ways about to be described, keeping in mind the idea that participle tense is relative; you must reflect the relationship of time accurately in your translation.

52.1 1. literal

When in doubt, fall back on the “-ing”, “having been (blank)ed”, or “about/going to (blank)” translation – not ideal, but not necessarily wrong.

- *carmen cantum pulchrum erat*. The song, having been sung, was beautiful.
-

52.2 2. relative clause

We will learn about relative clauses later, but as a quick primer, relative clauses are dependent clauses introduced by “who,” “which,” or “that” that modify a noun in the sentence. For example, “We do not believe the boy **who cried wolf**.” The phrase “who cried wolf” tells us more information about the boy: which boy? The one who cried wolf.

Because a participle is a verbal adjective that modifies a noun, we can use a relative clause to convey the verbal action, as long as we reflect the correct relationship of time. For example, take the sample sentence from #1 above:

- *carmen cantum pulchrum erat*. The song, **having been sung**, was beautiful.

The participle *cantum* is **perfect tense**, so that indicates an action that is **completed** by the time the main verb *erat* occurs. *erat* is imperfect, a past tense.

- *carmen cantum pulchrum erat*. The song, **which had been sung**, was beautiful.

The action of the song being sung happened before the action of the main verb “was”. Note what happens to the translation, however, when I change the tense of the main verb:

- *carmen cantum pulchrum est*. The song, **which was sung**, is beautiful.

I changed *erat* to *est*, the present tense; as a result, it suffices to translate *cantum* as a simple past tense, because that action is completed by the time the action of the main verb “is” occurs.

Some more examples from other parts of this module, re-translated with a relative clause:

- *milēs ā duce urbem regentī interfectus est*. - The soldier was killed by the leader **who was ruling** the city. (ruling happens at the same time as being killed, in the past)
 - *frātrēs ā patre eōrum missōs vīdimus*. - We saw the brothers, **who had been sent** by their father. (being sent happens before the action of seeing)
 - *vir consilium familiae suae datūrus domum venit*. - The man **who will / is going to give** advice to his family is coming home. (giving advice will happen after the action of coming home)
-

52.3 3. subordinate clause

We can also translate the participle using a dependent clause introduced by an appropriate subordinating conjunction. Depending on the context of the sentence and how the participle works into that content, we can use various types of conjunctions. For example, if a **present** participle indicates a temporal relationship, we can use “while”; if a **perfect** participle indicates a temporal relationship, we can use the conjunction “after.” For either, we can also use “when.” If the participle describes why the action of the main verb happened, we can use “because.” The future active participle is usually better translated with a relative clause or with a sense of purpose; we’ll learn about the latter later (but take a look at the example below).

- *milēs ā duce urbem regentī interfectus est.* - The soldier was killed by the leader **when he was ruling** the city.
- *milēs ā duce urbem regentī interfectus est.* - The soldier was killed by the leader **while he was ruling** the city.
- *frātrēs ā patre eōrum missōs vīdimus.* - We saw the brothers **after they had been sent** by their father.
- *vir consilium familiae suae datūrus domum venit.* - The man is coming home **in order to give** advice to his family.

Depending on the context, you might be able to use other subordinating conjunctions in translation, like “since” for participles that straddle the line between explaining time and cause of the main verb; “because” if the participle explains for what reason the action of the main verb happened (see the section on causal clauses); or “although” if the participial action introduces an obstacle to the completion of the main verb (see the section on concessive clauses).

- *urbs, ā rege horribilī recta, cum mortuus est laeta fuit.* - The city, **because it had been ruled** by the horrible king, was happy when he died.

In general, it is preferable to try one of these more creative translations of the participle than to use the default translation. The goal is to create a translation that flows smoothly in English; the default translations tend to break that flow up!

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53 Ablative Absolute

The **ablative absolute** is a special construction that uses a participle and a noun, pronoun, or substantive adjective both in the **ablative case** to indicate the **circumstances** (e.g., time, condition, or reason) under which the action of the main verb is happening. The construction is so called because neither the participle nor its noun, pronoun, or substantive adjective depend grammatically or syntactically on any part of the main sentence: the construction is *absolutus*, “disconnected” (literally, “freed from”), from the main part of the sentence.

Note this distinction: if you want to use a participle to modify a subject, direct object, indirect object, etc., you simply use the participle in the appropriate gender, case, and number to modify the noun in question. The **ablative absolute** is used when you want to describe a circumstance that involves an entity that does not belong directly to the core of the sentence. That means that you can remove the ablative absolute from the sentence without affecting the meaning or grammatical coherence of the sentence.

The ablative absolute is most often used with the **present active** or **perfect passive participle**. The literal translation of the former is “with the (noun) (verb)ing”; the literal translation of the latter is “with the (noun) having been (verb)ed” (though as with regular participial constructions, the literal translation should almost never be the final step).

- *mīlite flūmen aspiciente** *hostēs castra cēpērunt*. **With the soldier watching the river**, the enemies seized the camp.
- *eī epistulam mittēmus verbīs eius lectīs*. We will send him a letter **with his words having been read**.

* Remember that the ablative singular of the present active participle will end in -e as opposed to the expected -ī when the participle takes an object or prepositional phrase or is used, as here, in an ablative absolute.

53.1 Translating the Ablative Absolute

As with the translations of straightforward participles, however, such literal translations of the ablative absolute are stilted almost to the point of incomprehensibility, so we should feel empowered to be

more creative with our translations.

Take a look at this Latin example and its literal translation:

- *rēgīna victīs hostibus ab aciē mīlitēs suōs dūxit.*
 - The queen led her soldiers away from the battle line **with the enemies having been conquered.**

Because the ablative absolute indicates the circumstances under which the action of the main verb occurs, we can translate the ablative absolute as a dependent clause introduced by an appropriate subordinating conjunction like “because,” “since,” “although,” “when,” “while” (only with present participles), or “after” (only with perfect participles). Note all the different ways in which we can translate the examples above.

- *rēgīna victīs hostibus ab aciē mīlitēs suōs dūxit.*
 - The queen led her soldiers away from the battle line **when the enemies had been conquered.**
 - The queen led her soldiers away from the battle line **after the enemies had been conquered.**
 - The queen led her soldiers away from the battle line **because the enemies had been conquered.**
 - The queen led her soldiers away from the battle line **since the enemies had been conquered.**

Ablative absolute with a present participle:

- *mīlite flūmen aspiciente hostēs castra cēpērunt.*
 - **While the soldier was watching the river,** the enemies seized the camp.
 - **Because the soldier was watching the river,** the enemies seized the camp.

Ablative absolute with a perfect participle:

- *eī epistulam mittēmus verbīs eius lectīs.*
 - We will send him a letter **after his words are read.**
 - We will send him a letter **after we read his words.***

* Note that I use the context of the sentence to infer that “we” is the agent of the verbal action in *lectīs* (there is no, e.g., ablative of agent within this particular ablative absolute), and I flip the voice of the passive *lectīs* into an active translation. These modifications help create a smoother and more

idiomatic, if not exactly literal, translation that still gets the same idea across. Smooth and idiomatic is preferable to literal as long as the correct idea and relationship of time is being conveyed.

You can and should use the context of the sentence to render a translation that is smooth and idiomatic. Try to steer clear of the literal translations of ablative absolutes whenever possible, or at least use a literal translation only as a starting point before you work it into a more idiomatic version.

53.2 A Note about *sum*

Note that the verb **sum, esse, fui, futurus**, “to be”, has only one participle: the future active **futurus** (as we can see from the -urus ending). Because it does not have a present active participle or a perfect passive participle, when we construct an ablative absolute that needs a form of “to be”, we have to supply the verb in our minds and construct the ablative absolute with only the ablative noun/pronoun/substantive adjective and its subject complement / predicate “nominative” in the ablative case:

- *matre laetā familia ad mare ibit.* **Because the mother is happy**, the family will go to the sea.
- *duce eō urbs incolumis erat.* **While he was leader**, the city was safe.

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54 Relative Clauses

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55 Relative Clauses - Overview

Relative clauses are dependent clauses that tell us more about an **antecedent**, which is often a noun or pronoun. Such clauses function adjectivally; they modify the antecedent. Take a look at the following examples:

- The students **who studied for the exam** did well.
- The girl **whom I love** does not love me back.
- The teacher **whose students did well on the exam** was proud.
- I want the chair **which is not broken**.
- The ship **that we can see** does not look seaworthy.

Note that each relative clause is introduced by the word **who** (or its related words, like **whom** or **whose**), **which**, or **that**. Each relative clause describes an **antecedent**: which students? The ones who studied for the exam. Which girl? The one whom I love.

56 Identifying Relative Clause Boundaries

In Latin, relative clauses are introduced by the **relative pronoun**, *quī, quae, quod* (“who, which, that”). This should hopefully be familiar to you from last semester – it’s the exact same entry as for the **interrogative adjective**. Last semester, we learned that forms of *quī, quae, quod*, when used as an interrogative adjective, modify an explicit noun in the sentence and ask a question: *quī puer?* Which boy? *quae puella?* Which girl?

Here, *quī, quae, quod* as a **relative pronoun** stands on its own and introduces a dependent clause that contains its own verb and whatever else the verb governs (objects, subjects, prepositional phrases, etc.).

Note also some special translations. The **genitive** of the relative pronoun usually indicates possession, so we can translate it as “**whose**”. Also, when a relative pronoun refers to a person, translations of oblique cases that indicate objective status, like an accusative direct object or dative indirect object, will often use the form “**whom**”, since that is the objective form of the relative pronoun in English (“who” is a subject!).

Take a look at the following examples, with the relative clause, introduced by the relative pronoun, in bold. Keep in mind that we will discuss specific rules regarding the relative pronoun in other sections of this module.

- vīdimus virōs **quī ā nāvibus veniēbant**. We saw the men **who were coming from the ships**.
- exempla **quae magister mihi dedit** cognoscō. I recognize the examples **that the teacher gave to me**. (magister, magistrī, m. - teacher)
- rex fēminae **ā quā doctus erat** crēdidit. The king trusted the woman **by whom he had been taught**.

Again, the relative clause is a **dependent, subordinate clause**. It usually begins at the **relative pronoun** or the preposition that governs it (e.g., *ā* of *ā quā* in the third example), and it usually (though not always) ends at the first conjugated verb or comma that follows the relative pronoun. It is extremely important to sequester the relative clause and understand what belongs to it sense- and grammar-wise so that you translate what belongs to the relative clause within the clause, without letting the main sentence creep in or vice versa.

In the sentence:

- exempla **quae magister mihi dedit** cognoscō. I recognize the examples **that the teacher gave to me.**

note that the core of the sentence is **exempla cognoscō**, “I recognize the examples.” We can extract the relative clause without affecting the coherence of the main sentence. The relative clause simply serves to tell us more information about its antecedent. Which examples do I recognize? The ones that the teacher gave to me.

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57 Gender, Number, and Case of Relative Pronouns

This is the most important rule when it comes to using relative pronouns in Latin: **the relative pronoun takes its gender and number from its antecedent, but it takes its case from its use within the relative clause.** As an illustration, take a look at this sentence again:

- vīdimus virōs **quī ā nāvibus veniēbant**. We saw the men **who were coming from the ships**.

According to our chart, the relative pronoun **quī** can be either masculine nominative singular or masculine nominative plural. Either way, it has to be the subject of its clause (because nominative), and the clause contains the plural verb **veniēbant**; therefore, **quī** must be **masculine nominative plural**. Within the relative clause “...who were coming from the ships”, “who” / **quī**, our relative pronoun, serves as the subject of “were coming” / **veniēbant**, so it makes sense that that pronoun is nominative. The pronoun takes its case from its function within its clause. To put it differently:

The relative takes its CASE from its PLACE in its own SPACE.

Notice, however, that the antecedent of **quī** is **virōs**, which is **masculine accusative plural**. **quī** takes its **gender and number** (masculine and plural) but **NOT its case** from **virōs**. **quī** serves as the subject of the relative clause, but its antecedent **virōs** serves as the direct object of the main clause. Relative pronoun and antecedent share gender and number but not necessarily case.

Another example to illustrate this idea:

- rex fēminae **ā quā doctus erat** crēdidit. The king trusted the woman **by whom he had been taught**.

Our relative pronoun **quā** can be parsed in only one way: feminine ablative singular. It is ablative because it is being used in an ablative of agent construction within the relative clause: **ā quā doctus erat**, “...**by whom** he had been taught.” Its gender and number, feminine and singular, come from its antecedent, **fēminae**, which is being used as a dative object of **crēdidit** in the main clause. Again, the relative pronoun takes its **gender and number** from its antecedent, but its **case** from its use within the relative clause.

How, then, can we identify the antecedent of a relative pronoun?

58 Locating the Antecedent

The relative clause will often be located close to its antecedent, but sometimes it is not. For example, I could easily rewrite the sentence above as:

- rex fēminae crēdidit ā **quā doctus erat**.

When it isn't immediately clear what the antecedent of a relative pronoun is, you must use the **gender and number** of the relative pronoun to try to figure it out. **quā** is feminine singular, so we're looking for some noun, pronoun, or substantive adjective in the main clause that is feminine singular. The two nouns are **rex** and **fēminae**; of these two, the only possible choice is **fēminae** (as **rex** has to be masculine).

Even though the relative clause may be separated from its antecedent in Latin, in English, it makes more idiomatic sense to translate the relative clause immediately after its antecedent. For example, in the following Latin sentence:

- puer carmina cecinit quem docueram.

the relative clause **quem docueram** modifies the noun **puer**; antecedent and clause are separated by **carmina cecinit**. However, if we postpone the translation of the relative clause until the end, it sounds strange and, indeed, even confusing: "The boy sang songs **whom I had taught**." Because English relies on word order to make sense, we need to put the relative clause right after its antecedent: "The boy **whom I had taught** sang songs."

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59 Connecting Relative

If a relative pronoun comes at the very beginning of a sentence, it is often being used as a **connecting relative**, an odd combination of a coordinating conjunction and a pronoun. Depending on the gender and number of the relative pronoun, it can be used to refer to an entity in the previous sentence or the whole idea encapsulated in the previous sentence, and it can sometimes be prefaced by “and”, such that:

- **quī** = **et is** (masculine nominative singular)
- **quem** = **et eum** (masculine accusative singular)
- **quae** = **et ea** (feminine nominative singular OR neuter nominative/accusative plural) or **et eae** (feminine nominative plural)
- **quod** = **et id** (neuter nominative/accusative singular)

etc.

Take a look at the following examples:

- frātrēs patrem suum vidēre voluērunt; **quem** cum vidēre possent, laetī erant.
 - The brothers wanted to see their father. **(And)** when they were able to see **him**, they were happy.
- dux interfectus est. **quod** cum mīlitēs vīdissent, fūgērunt.
 - The leader was killed. **(And)** when the soldiers had seen **this**, they fled.

Note that in the second example, the connecting relative **quod** (= **et id**) refers to the entire thought contained in the previous sentence, rather than to any specific neuter noun.

This **connecting relative** often, though not always, is used in a **cum** clause, and the **cum** is often postponed until after the connecting relative, as in the examples above. Note that the verbs in these examples are subjunctive because they are used in a **cum** clause to express the circumstances of the main verb; they are not subjunctive because of the relative pronoun. This is an important distinction to make once we consider in what circumstances a relative clause WOULD use a subjunctive verb, as in a relative clause of characteristic.

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60 Relative Clauses of Characteristic

Most of the relative clauses that we've seen use indicative verbs because the clause is describing a **definite, factual** antecedent. However, we can also use a **subjunctive verb** in the relative clause when the antecedent is **general, indefinite, interrogative, or negative**. This use of a relative clause with a subjunctive verb is called a **relative clause of characteristic**, because it defines a quality or characteristic of an antecedent that itself is general, indefinite, etc.

In translation, we can sometimes use the auxiliary verb “would” to render the subjunctive, and the antecedent can sometimes be prefaced by “the sort of” or “the kind of”. We also often have to supply words in our translation based on, e.g., the gender and number of pronouns or nouns to help the translation make sense.

Take a look at the following examples:

- **quis est cui credāmus?** Who is there whom we would trust?
- **eī nōn sunt quī hoc faciant.** They are not the kind of people who would do this.
- **is erat quī veritātem dīceret.** He was the sort of guy who would speak the truth. (veritās, veritātis, f. - truth)
- **nēmō est quī hostem petere possit.** There is no one who can attack the enemy. (nēmō, neminis - nobody, no one)

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61 Expressions of Purpose

In English, an expression of purpose tells us what is intended by a particular course of action. It answers the question, “with what intent” or “with what purpose” was the action of the main verb completed. Below are some basic examples and variations of expression of purpose (the expression of purpose is bolded):

- He got up at 9 AM **to get to class on time**.
- He got up at 9 AM **so that he could get to class on time**.
- He got up at 9 AM **so as to get to class on time**.
- He got up at 9 AM **to not be late to class**.

There are two things worth noting about expressions of purpose. First, they are dependent on a main verbal construction. For example, “so that he could get to class on time” is not a grammatically correct sentence in and of itself; it needs the main clause “he got up at 9 AM” in order to make sense. Second, the verbal action contained in the expression of purpose always happens after the verbal construction on which they are dependent. In other words, they have a sense of futurity to them.

As you will see below, Latin has a number of ways to express purpose. Almost all of them can be translated in any of the ways expressed above or described in the purpose clause section.

61.1 Purpose Clause

The most common way to express purpose in Latin is through a purpose clause. Purpose clauses are dependent clauses (i.e., they generally follow an independent clause) that have three key features:

- A subordinating conjunction (**ut** for a positive purpose clause or **ne** for a negative purpose clause)
- A subject (stated or implied)
- A verb in the **present** or **imperfect subjunctive**, depending on the **sequence of tenses**

How do we translate a sentence containing a purpose clause? Take the following example:

- *Ad agrōs militēs venērunt ut urbem peterent.*

First, we break the sentence into dependent (bolded) and independent (italicized) clauses. In the case of a sentence containing a purpose clause, we can recognize the dependent clause rather easily as it begins with **ut** or **ne**.

- *Ad agrōs militēs venērunt* **ut urbem peterent**.

We then translate the independent clause:

- The soldiers came to the fields **ut urbem peterent**.

After that, we select the appropriate translation for the purpose clause based on the nature of its subject. If the subject of the purpose clause is the same as the subject of the independent clause, we can simply translate the **ut** plus the verb as “to *verb*” or “in order to *verb*” (in case of **ne**, “to *not verb*”). In the case of the sentence above, this is the case and we can translate it as follows:

- The soldiers came to the fields to attack the city.
- The soldiers came to the fields in order to attack the city.

If the subject of the purpose clause is **different** from that of the main clause, we translate **ut** plus the verb as “so that [subject] could *verb*.” We can see this in the example below:

- *Ad agrōs militēs venērunt ut urbem dux peteret.*
- The soldiers came to the fields so that the leader could attack the city.

61.2 Relative Clause of Purpose

A variation on the standard purpose clause is known as the relative clause of purpose. In a relative clause of purpose, the **ut** or **nē** is replaced by a **relative pronoun** (i.e., *quī, quae, quod*) or **relative adverb** (i.e., *ubi, unde*). We can differentiate a relative clause of purpose from a regular relative clause by the use of the subjunctive:

- *Ad agrōs militēs venērunt qui urbem peterent.*
- The soldiers came to the fields to attack the city.
- The soldiers, who were to attack the city, came to the fields.

The **relative clause of purpose** differs from the **relative clause of characteristic** in that the latter tells us more about a general, indefinite, interrogative, or negative antecedent, while the former answers the question “for what purpose” or “with what intent” was the action of the main verb completed.

61.3 Gerund or GRG with Prepositions

Last semester, we learned about how gerunds or gerund-replacing gerundives / GRGs can be used to express purpose. Gerunds and GRGs can be used as the object of the prepositions **ad** (with the accusative) and **causā/gratiā** (post-positive with the genitive) to form an expression of purpose.

Thus, our example sentence can be written in the following ways as well:

- Ad agrōs militēs venērunt **ad petendam urbem**. (The soldiers came to the fields **for the purpose of attacking the city/to attack the city**.)
- Ad agrōs militēs venērunt **petendae urbis causā**. (The soldiers came to the fields **for the sake of attacking the city/to attack the city**.)

Remember that GRGs take their case from their function in the sentence (here, depending on whether *ad* or *causā/gratiā* is used), but their gender and number come from their object.

61.4 Future Active Participle

As we noted a few weeks ago, participles or verbal adjectives play a large number of roles in Latin. For the **future active participle**, one of these roles is as a way to express purpose. The **future active participle** naturally indicates future intent (“about to [verb]”). When translating the future active participle as an expression of purpose, it is important to remember that participles modify nouns and, thus, it will be the noun modified by the participle that will be acting with a particular purpose in mind. If the future active participle is used to express purpose, we can use words that indicate that function in our translation: for example, “intending to [verb]” rather than simply “about to [verb].”

To follow up on our example again:

- Ad agrōs militēs **petitūrī urbem** venērunt. (The soldiers, **intending to attack the city**, came to the field.)
-

61.5 Supine

The last and least common way to express purpose in Latin is by using the **supine**. The supine is a weird verbal noun whose origin is not very well understood. However, it is very closely related to the fourth principal part and exists in only two cases: the **accusative** and the **ablative**.

We form the supine by dropping the -us from the fourth principal part and adding a **-um** for the accusative supine and a **-ū** for the ablative supine. So, **amātus** becomes **amātum** in the accusative and **amātū** in the ablative.

The accusative supine is used with **only a verb of motion** to express purpose. Here is our example sentence using the supine:

- Ad agrōs militēs **petitum urbem** venērunt. (The soldiers came to the fields to attack the city.)

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62 Expressions of Result

In English, an expression of result tells us the result of the action of the main verb. Below are some basic examples and variations of expressions of result (the expression of result is bolded):

- She was **so** smart **that even her teachers were awed by her intelligence**.
- He worked **so** hard **that he never slept**.
- She helped them with their homework **in such a way that they got a good grade in the course**.

Notice that the first two examples include the signal adverb “**so**”. Words like “so”, “so much”, “such”, and “such great” often indicate the presence of a result clause in a sentence.

63 Result Clauses

The most common way to express result in Latin is through a **result clause**. Result clauses are dependent clauses (i.e., they generally follow an main clause) that have three key features:

- A subordinating conjunction (**ut** for a positive result clause, but **ut nōn** for a negative result clause)
 - Note that this differs from a negative purpose clause, which is introduced with **nē**.
- A subject (stated or implied)
- A verb in the **present** or **imperfect subjunctive**, depending on the **sequence of tenses**

In addition to these three key features, a result clause will be sometimes be preceded by a main clause that features an adjective or adverb of degree such as *tam* (“so”); *tantus*, -a, -um (“such great, so much”); *tālis*, -e (“such”); *ita* (“so”); *sic* (“thus”); or *adeō* (“to such an extent”).

How do we translate a sentence containing a result clause? Take the following example:

- *Tantā irā conclamavērunt ut nēmo responderet.*

First, we break the sentence into dependent (bolded) and independent (italicized) clauses. In the case of a sentence containing a result clause, we can recognize the dependent clause rather easily as it begins with **ut** or **ut nōn**.

- *Tantā irā conclamavērunt* **ut nēmo responderet**.

We then translate the independent clause (notice the use of **tantā** in the independent clause):

- They shouted with **such great** anger **ut nēmo responderet**.

After that, we translate the result clause starting with the conjunction: **ut** plus the verb becomes “that [subject] *verb[ed]*”, while **ut nōn** plus the verb becomes “that [subject] did/does/will not [verb]”. The tense of the verb in the result clause translation depends on whether you’re in primary or secondary sequence. Take a look at the example from above:

- *Tantā irā conclamavērunt* **ut nēmo responderet**.
- They shouted with such great anger that no one responded.

In primary sequence, the sentence and translation might look something like this:

- *Tantā irā conclamant ut nēmō respondeat.* They are shouting with such anger that no one responds.

Take a look at some more examples of result clauses:

- *verentur adeō ut dormīre nōn possint.* They are afraid **to such an extent that they are not able to sleep.**
- *mīles tantam virtūtem habuit ut sōlus profiscerētur.* The soldier had **such great** courage **that he set out alone.**
- *regīna ita ācris erat ut nēmō eam pugnāre vellet.* The queen was **so** fierce **that no one wanted to fight her.**

64 Causal and Concessive Clauses

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65 Causal Clauses

Causal clauses are dependent clauses that explain **why** or **for what reason** the action of the main clause happens. There are a number of conjunctions that can introduce causal clauses (*quod*, *quia*, *quoniam*, *cum*). These clauses can take either the indicative or the subjunctive, depending on the conjunction in question.

Quod and **quia** can be used with the indicative or the subjunctive. When used with the indicative, *quod* and *quia* indicate that the stated cause is true in the eyes of the sentence's writer or speaker. They use the subjunctive to indicate that the stated cause is true in the eyes of someone who is *not* the writer or speaker.

- *pācem nolō quod difficilis est.* (I do not want peace because (to my mind) it is difficult.)
- *pācem noluit quod difficilis esset.* (He does not want peace because (to his mind) it is difficult.)

NB: **quod** as a causal conjunction meaning “because” can be differentiated from the relative pronoun quite easily. If there is no neuter singular antecedent, then **quod** cannot be a pronoun.

Quoniam is used almost solely with the indicative to introduce a cause that is true in the eyes of the writer or speaker.

- *Quoniam puellam amat, mittere eum ad bellum nolo.* (Because he loves the girl, I do not wish to send him to war.)

Cum clauses that feature a subjunctive verb can indicate cause. In these cases, we translate *cum* as “because.”

- *Cum puellam amaret, fortiter pugnavit.* (Because he loved the girl, he fought bravely.)

Note that in the sentence above, it would not make any sense if you translate it as “when.” The context makes it clear that the *cum* clause answers the question “why” or “for what reason did he fight bravely?” rather than the question “when did he fight bravely?”

If there is a causal clause in indirect statement, the causal clause will always have a subjunctive verb. Can you think of reason why this might be the case based on the details explained above?

Also, as noted in the section on participle translation, participles can also be translated causally.

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66 Concessive Clauses

Concessive clauses are dependent clauses that indicate that the action of the main clause happens *despite* circumstances in the dependent clause that appear to hinder it. There are a number of words that can introduce concessive clauses (*quamvis*, *licet*, *quamquam*, *cum*), which usually are translated as “although”, “even though”, or “though.” Additionally, there are certain adverbs that can appear in the main clause, such as **tamen** (“nevertheless”), that indicate that the main clause’s action is at odds with the circumstances of the dependent clause. These clauses can take either the indicative or the subjunctive, depending on the conjunction used.

Quamquam always takes the indicative and introduces an admitted fact.

- *Quamquam senex nōn fortis erat, tamen magnā sapientiā regnāvit.* (Although the old man was not strong, he nevertheless ruled with great wisdom.)

Quamvis (literally, “as much as you wish”) always takes the subjunctive.

- *Quamvis lingua Latina difficilis esset, tamen eam facile didicit.* (Although the Latin language was difficult, she nevertheless learned it easily.)

Licet (literally, “it is allowed/granted”) is a conjunction that is used with the present or perfect subjunctive only. This is because of a weird shift from a verb in primary sequence towards the conjunction that can introduce a concessive clause.

- *Licet omnēs horribilēs mē petiverint, Roma valet.* (Although all the horrible people attacked me, Rome remains strong.)

Cum clauses that feature a subjunctive verb can indicate concession. In these cases, we translate *cum* as “although”, “even though”, or “though”, as we would with *quamquam*, *quamvis*, or *licet*.

- *Cum puerum amaret, tamen ex urbe abiit.* (Although he loved the girl, he nevertheless left the city.)

Note in the sentence above, it would not make any sense if you translate it anything other than “although.” *cum* at this point can indicate concession, cause, or time, so you have to use the context of the sentence to figure out which is the best translation. You must ask what question the *cum* clause is answering with relation to the main clause:

- does it express *when* the main verb happened? (temporal, “when”, “after”, “while”)
- does it express *why* or *for what reason* the main verb happened? (causal, “because”)
- does it express *what obstacles* might get in the way of completing the action of the main verb? (concessive, “although”)

More to the point, the main clause in the sentence above contains a dead giveaway for a concessive clause: the adverb *tamen*, “nevertheless.” Because of that adverb, other translations don’t make as much sense: “when he loved the girl, he nevertheless left the city” or “because he loved the girl, he nevertheless left the city.” The action of loving is an obstacle to leaving the city, so a concessive translation makes the most sense.

Once again, if there is a concessive clause in indirect statement, the concessive clause will always have a subjunctive verb.

67 Proviso and Fear Clauses

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68 Proviso Clauses

If the action of the independent clause happens only under the particular circumstances described by the dependent clause, the dependent clause is referred to a **proviso clause**. There are a number of words that can introduce clauses of proviso (*dum, dummodo, modo*), which usually are translated as “if only”, “only”, “so/as long as”, or “provided that.” The clause of proviso always features a subjunctive verb in either the present or imperfect subjunctive, depending on the **sequence of tenses**. Clauses of proviso are negated by adding *nē* into the clause.

Below are some examples of proviso clauses (subjunctive verbs in the proviso clauses are bolded):

- *Dum **metuant**, oderint.* (So long as they are scared, let them be hateful)
- *Magnō timore mē liberabis, dummodo inter me atque te murus **intersit**.* (You will free me from great fear, provided that there is a wall between me and you).
- *Erimus felices, modo nē **discedas**.* (We will be happy, provided that you do not leave.)

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69 Fear Clauses

If the subject of an independent is/was fearful that some type of verbal action is/was going to occur, in Latin the action that they are afraid of is expressed as a dependent clause. The dependent clause is usually referred to as a **fear clause**.

A fear clause always depends on a main clause that contains a **verb of fearing** (e.g., *timeō*, *vereor*, *metuō*, *terreor*) and is introduced either by **ne** for a **positive** fear clause and **ut** for a **negative** fear clause. Note that this is the opposite of what we might expect based on purpose or result clauses: **nē** indicates that it is feared that the fear clause WILL happen, while **ut** indicates that it is feared that the fear clause WILL NOT happen.

Fear clauses always feature a subjunctive verb in the present or imperfect tense, depending on the **sequence of tenses**.

When translating a fear clause, we translate **nē** as “that” or **ut** as “that...not”. If the verb in the clause is in the present subjunctive, we translate it as “*would verb*.” If the verb is in the imperfect subjunctive, we render it as “*verbed*.” Below are some examples:

- *Hostēs metuunt ne dux captus fugiat.* (“The enemies fear that the leader who was captured would escape.”)
- *Timuit ut uxor amaret.* (“He was afraid that his wife did not love him.”)

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70 Indirect Questions

As we discussed last semester when we learned about indirect statements, there are two ways to report what someone says. We can report it directly by using quotations or we can report it indirectly by paraphrasing it. When we paraphrase a declarative sentence, we use an accusative and infinitive structure to report the substance of the indirect statement.

Things get more complicated when we want to indirectly report a **question**. In this module, we will examine how Latin signals that it is paraphrasing a question, a grammatical construction known as **indirect question**.

Indirect questions consist of four key features:

- A verb of the head (i.e., speaking, thinking, learning, perceiving, believing, seeing, agreeing, doubting) that sets up the indirect question
- An interrogative pronoun (*quis/quid*), interrogative adjective (*qui, quae, quod*), or interrogative adverb (*cur, ubi, utrum*)
- A subject, either explicitly stated (including with an interrogative pronoun or interrogative adjective/noun combination) or implicit in the verb
- A verb in the subjunctive in accordance with sequence of tenses with one key exception (to be discussed below)

Take, for instance, the following sentence:

- He asked what the gods had said.

This is an **indirect question** composed of each of the elements listed above. The verb of the head, “he asked”, sets up the indirect question, while “what the gods had said” explains the content of what he asked. The *direct* version of the question might be something like “What had the gods said?” However, the *indirect question* format shuffles the word order around: “He asked *what the gods had said*.”

In Latin, the sentence will look like this:

- *Inquisivit quid dei dixissent.*

Here **inquisivit** is the verb of the head introducing the indirect question that follows. **Quid** is the interrogative word (here, a neuter accusative singular direct object) and **dei** is the subject of **dixissent**,

the verb in the subjunctive. Note how indirect questions do not typically end with a question mark. The main clause is simply a statement and the indirect question depends on the main clause; the main clause is not a question in and of itself.

When translating an indirect question, the only tricky thing is the subjunctive verb. Since the subjunctive mood is the marker of the fact that the question is indirect, we translate the subjunctive verb as an indicative verb, paying close attention to the sequence of tenses. In this case, we see that *dixissent* is in the pluperfect subjunctive, in order to illustrate that the verb's action (saying) happened prior to a past action (asking, *inquisivit* in the perfect tense). Thus we translate the above sentence as follows:

- He asked what the gods had said.

Below are some more examples of indirect questions:

- *Hōc dubium est uter nostrum sit inverteundior.* (It is doubtful which one of us is more immodest.)
- *Quam sīs audāx omnēs intellegere possunt.* (Everyone can understand how brave you are.)
- *Dum deliberat secum quidnam fecisset, intervenit Iovis.* (While she was thinking about what she had done with him, Jupiter intervened.)

70.1 Future Periphrastic

To avoid the ambiguity regarding contemporaneous (present) and subsequent time (future) that exists in indirect statements, indirect questions use a **future periphrastic** construction to express future time. The future periphrastic consists of the **future active participle** of the verb and **the present or imperfect subjunctive of *sum*** (depending on sequence of tenses). This distinction can be seen below:

Primary sequence:

- Dico te quid **faciam**. (I am telling you what I am doing.) (present tense = dependent verb and main verb happening *at the same time*)
- Dico te quid **facturus sim**. (I am telling you what I will do.) (future periphrastic = dependent verb will happen *after* main verb)
- Dico te quid **fēcerim**. (I am telling you what I did.) (perfect tense = dependent verb happened *before* main verb)

Secondary sequence:

- Dicebam te quid **facerem**. (I was telling you what I was doing.) (imperfect tense = dependent verb and main verb happening *at the same time*)

- Dicebam te quid **facturus essem**. (I was telling you what I **would do**.) (future periphrastic = dependent verb would happen *after* main verb)
- Dicebam te quid **fēcissem**. (I was telling you what I had done.) (pluperfect tense = dependent verb happened *before* main verb)

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71 Independent Uses of the Subjunctive

Last semester, we learned that the subjunctive mood can be used either in **independent** clauses or **dependent** clauses. While the latter follows the sequence of tenses and wholly depends on a main clause for context, the former uses subjunctives in standalone sentences. The one independent use of the subjunctive that we learned about last semester was the **deliberative subjunctive**, which we use to indicate a deliberation about a question. For example, *quid dīcam?* “What should I say?”

To this, we will add two more independent uses of the subjunctive: the **optative** and the **potential**. (The remaining three independent uses of the subjunctive [jussive, hortatory, negative prohibition] are all covered in the module on orders.)

72 Optative

The **optative subjunctive** expresses a **wish**. This wish could express something that the speaker hopes will happen in the future or something that the speaker wishes happened in the past (but didn't).

Optative subjunctives are often introduced by an adverb like **utinam** ("if only," "would that", "I wish that"). Optatives are negated by **utinam nē** or simply **nē** ("if only ... not", "would that ... not", "I wish that ... not").

Wishes for a future action are indicated with the **present subjunctive** and are translated with the auxiliary verb "would [verb]":

- **utinam dicat!** If only he would speak!
- **utinam nē mē videant!** If only they would not see me!

Wishes for a present action that is not coming to fruition are indicated with the **imperfect subjunctive** and are translated with the auxiliary verb: "were [verb]ing":

- **utinam venīret!** If only he were coming!
- **nē hostēs fortēs essent!** If only the enemies weren't strong!

Wishes for a past action that did not come to fruition are indicated with the **pluperfect subjunctive** and are translated with the auxiliary verb "had [verb]ed":

- **utinam domum vēnissēmus!** If only we had gone home!
 - **utinam nē id vīdisset!** If only he hadn't seen it!
-

73 Potential

The **potential subjunctive** indicates something that **may, might, could, or would** happen, either in the future or the past, but it's uncertain whether it will or did happen. If it were certain, then we could use the indicative mood. The subjunctive in this case adds that note of possibility or doubt.

To indicate a potential action in the future, Latin uses the **present subjunctive** or, rarely, the **perfect subjunctive**:

- **eōs videāmus.** We may see them.
- **eōs viderīmus.** We may see them.
- **ea veniat.** She might come.
- **avēs canant.** The birds may sing.

To indicate a potential action in the past, Latin uses the **imperfect subjunctive**. Note that although the translation sounds like a perfect tense, the Latin uses the imperfect:

- **eōs vidērēmus.** We may have seen them.

Potential subjunctives are negated with **nōn**:

- **eam nōn audiant.** They may not hear her.

Sometimes, there will be signal words like **forsitan** ("perhaps") or **fortasse** ("perhaps", usually with indicative but sometimes with subjunctive) to indicate the presence of a potential subjunctive:

- **forsitan bona dīcat.** Perhaps he may say good things.
- **fortasse laetī essent.** Perhaps they might have been happy.

Often, the potential is used with verbs like ****volō*, nōlō, mālō, and possum****:

- **mālim hoc facere.** I would prefer to do this.
- **velim tē vidēre!** I would like to see you!

74 Orders

There are a number of ways in which one can issue an order in Latin. An order commands someone to do something.

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75 Imperative Mood

The imperative is the third of three **moods** in Latin. We've had extensive practice with the primary two: the **indicative mood**, which is used for factual situations; and the **subjunctive mood**, which is used for non-factual situations (doubt, possibility, wish, etc.).

This third mood, the **imperative mood**, exists mostly in the 2nd person and issues an order from the speaker to the addressee. For example:

- **audī!** Listen! (to a singular addressee) (2nd sg. pres. imperative act.)
- **audīte!** Listen! (to a group of people) (2nd pl. pres. imperative act.)

The verbal action is a command being issued to the listener. The singular imperative commands a single addressee to do something; the plural imperative commands a group of addressees to do something.

To form the imperative of **1st, 2nd, and 4th conjugation verbs**:

- in the singular, simply chop the -re off the infinitive.
 - amāre - **amā!** “Love!”
 - sedēre - **sedē!** “Sit!”
 - audīre - **audī!** “Listen!”
- in the plural, add **-te** to the singular imperative form.
 - **amāte!** “Love!” (to a plural group)
 - **sedēte!** “Sit!”
 - **audīte!** “Listen!”

To form the imperative of **3rd and 3rd -iō conjugation verbs**:

- in the singular, chop the -re off the infinitive, as in the other conjugations:
 - regere - **rege!** “Rule!”
 - capere - **cape!** “Take!”
- but in the plural, change the stem vowel to **-i** before adding the **-te**:

- **regite!** “Rule!” (to a plural group)
- **capite!** “Take!”

Take a look at the following examples.

- **epistulam scribe!** Write the letter!
 - **verba eius audite!** Listen to his words!
 - **dā mihi basia mille!** Give a thousand kisses to me! (Catullus 5.7)
-

75.1 Irregular Imperatives

There are four verbs that have irregularly-formed singular imperatives:

- dīcere - **dīc!** “Speak!”
- dūcere - **dūc!** “Lead!”
- facere - **fac!** “Do! / Make!”
- ferre - **fer!** “Bring!”

Their plurals follow normal third and third -iō conjugation patterns, except for **ferre**:

- dīcere - **dīcite!** “Speak!”
- dūcere - **dūcite!** “Lead!”
- facere - **facite!** “Do! / Make!”
- ferre - **ferite!** “Bring!”

The imperative of the verb **eō, īre, īī/īvī, ītus** (“to go”) is formed as follows:

- singular: **ī!** “Go!”
 - plural: **īte!** “Go!”
-

75.2 Negative Imperatives

To negate an imperative, we will not use the expected **nōn** or **nē**, but rather, we will use a specific syntactic construction. To form a negative imperative, we use the imperative forms of **nōlō, nōlle, nōluī** with a **complementary infinitive**. The singular imperative of **nōlō** is **nōlī**; the plural imperative of **nōlō** is **nōlīte**.

- **nōlī timēre!** Don't be afraid!
- **nōlīte id aspicere.** Don't look at it!

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76 Negative Prohibition

In the last unit on negating imperatives, we learned that we can use the imperative of **nōlō**, **nōlle**, **nōluī** (**nōli!** and **nōlite!** for singular and plural respectively) with a complementary infinitive to issue a command that someone *not* do something.

Another way to express a negative command in the 2nd or 3rd person is to use a **perfect subjunctive** in an independent clause introduced by **nē**. We call this construction **negative prohibition**.

- **nē timuerīs!** Don't be afraid!
- **nē id aspexerītis!** Don't look at it!

The negative imperative, however, is more common.

76.1 Jussive Subjunctive

Like negative prohibition, the **jussive subjunctive** is an **independent** use of the subjunctive (meaning it stands on its own in a clause and does not rely on a main clause) that expresses a command in the **third person**. Note the difference between the jussive subjunctive and the imperative: the latter gives an order directly to a listener (second person), while the jussive subjunctive gives an order to a *third* person entity (a “he,” “she,” “it,” or “they”).

Take a look at the following examples:

- **bona verba dīcat.** Let him say good words.
- **hanc linguam discant.** Let them learn this language.
- **ā marī veniat.** Let her come from the sea.

Jussives are negated with **nē**:

- **nē nōs videant.** Let them not see us.
 - **nē id faciat.** Let him not do it.
-

76.2 Hortatory Subjunctive

Like negative prohibition and the jussive subjunctive, the **hortatory subjunctive** is an **independent** use of the subjunctive that expresses a command in the **first** person. Note the difference between the hortatory subjunctive and the jussive: the latter gives an order to a **third** person entity, while the hortatory subjunctive gives an order to a **first** person entity, often in the plural (“we” or “us”). For this reason, a nickname for the hortatory subjunctive is the “salad subjunctive” (“let us leave” = “lettuce leave”).

- **eāmus et ludum aspiciāmus.** Let us go and watch the game.
- **cēnam cum familiā nostrā habeāmus.** Let us have dinner with our family.
- **pulchrum carmen eōrum audiāmus.** Let us listen to their beautiful song.

Like the jussive, the hortatory is negated with **nē**:

- **nē canāmus.** Let us not sing.
- **nē eōs interficiāmus.** Let us not kill them.

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77 Indirect Command

All the methods of forming orders in the last units (imperative, negative imperative, negative prohibition, jussive, hortatory) are **independent clauses** and express a command directly to the person being ordered, whether 1st, 2nd, or 3rd person.

To express a command indirectly, or to filter it through a head verb of ordering (e.g., “He orders that...”, “She commands that...”), we use a complex sentence structure called an **indirect command**. An indirect command utilizes:

1. a main verb of commanding, requesting, encouraging, advising, etc. (e.g., **imperō, hortor, moneō, rogō**),
 2. the conjunction **ut** for a positive command or **nē** for a negative command,
 3. and a clause with a **subjunctive** verb that follows the **sequence of tenses**.
- **imperō ut verba mea audiant.** I command that they listen to my words.
 - **monuit nē miles in urbem iret.** He advised that the soldier not go into the city.

Indirect commands often attract the person being commanded into the main clause as the **object of the main verb**. In such cases, we can translate the person commanded as the object of the main verb and the substance of the command as an infinitive. Take a look at the following examples:

- **hortātus est eam ut ad regem iret.** He encouraged her to go to the king.
- **rogāvit mē nē nōmen illud diceret.** She asked me not to say that name.

Note that it is easy to mix up indirect commands with purpose clauses because of the conjunctions used (**ut, nē**). The key differences are in the action of the main verb and the question answered by the clause. If the main verb expresses some sort of **command or request** and the **ut** or **nē** clause explains what that command or request was, you are likely dealing with an indirect command. On the other hand, if the **ut/nē** clause answers the question “why”, “for what purpose”, or “with what intent”, it is probably a purpose clause. Take a look at the following comparison:

- **ea imperāvit eī ut carmen audiret.** She ordered him to listen to the song. (What did she order? That he listen to the song.)
- **is vēnit ut carmen audiret.** He came to listen to the song. (**For what purpose** did he come? To listen to the song.)

The first sentence contains an **indirect command** because the main verb indicates an action of commanding and the clause expresses the substance of that command (that he listen to the song). The second sentence, on the other hand, contains a **purpose clause** because the **ut** clause answers the question “why” or “for what purpose” did he come (in order to listen to the song). Here are some more comparisons:

- **monuimus eōs nē in urbem venīrent.** We advised them not to come into the city.
- **pontem perdidimus nē in urbem venīrent.** We destroyed the bridge so that they not come into the city.
- **rex nōs hortātur ut pecūniam eī dēmus.** The king encourages us to give money to him.
- **puer canere incipit ut pecūniam eī dēmus.** The boy begins to sing so that we might give money to him.

We now know three “indirect” constructions, and it is important to keep their formations and translations distinct in your head:

- **indirect statement:** head verb + accusative and infinitive, indirectly reports what someone said
- **indirect question:** head verb + question word + subjunctive clause, indirectly reports what someone asked
- **indirect command:** verb of commanding or requesting + **ut/nē** + subjunctive clause, indirectly reports what someone commanded

78 Conditions

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79 Conditions - Overview

Conditional clauses are dependent clauses that indicate what happens **if** something else occurs. We might also refer to them as “conditions” or “conditionals”.

Conditions are composed of two clauses:

- a dependent **protasis** (the “if” clause)
- the main **apodosis** (the “then” clause)

For example:

If we study for the exam, we will get good grades.

“If we study for the exam” is the **protasis**, while “we will get good grades” is the **apodosis**. The apodosis explains what happens as a result of the condition in the protasis being met.

Protases are usually introduced by the subordinating conjunction **sī**, “if”, or **nīsī**, “if ... not” or “unless”.

79.1 Conditions Chart

The following chart indicates the six types of conditions that they are in Latin. This is meant as a summary and a convenient study aid that collects all the possibilities in one place.

The remaining sections of this module will explain each condition in detail and the guidelines for the formation and translation of each. Click on the appropriate links for details on indicative conditions, subjunctive conditions, or mixed conditions.

Conjunction	Protasis	Apodosis	Condition Type	Translation
sī/nīsī	past indicative	past indicative	past simple	translate normally

Conjunction	Protasis	Apodosis	Condition Type	Translation
sī/nisī	present indicative	present indicative	present simple	translate normally
sī/nisī	future or future perfect indicative	future or future perfect indicative	future more vivid / future simple	translate normally; optionally, translate protasis as present tense
sī/nisī	pluperfect subjunctive	pluperfect subjunctive	past contrary-to-fact	“had / would have”
sī/nisī	imperfect subjunctive	imperfect subjunctive	present contrary-to-fact	“were / would”
sī/nisī	present (or perfect) subjunctive	present subjunctive	future less vivid	“should / would”

For the remaining units in this module, we will use the same sentence to illustrate how each of the different conditions works:

“If he does it, he is wise.”

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80 Indicative Conditions

Conditions that use the indicative mood in both clauses express general truths; for that reason, they are often called **general conditions**. We can always translate an indicative verb at face value depending on its tense: for example, if you see an imperfect tense indicative verb, translate it as a straightforward imperfect. There will also be further options for translation when it comes to the future more vivid.

There are three specific types of conditions that use the indicative in both clauses:

80.1 Past Simple

A **past simple** condition uses **past tenses in the indicative** in both the protasis and apodosis and explains a general truth about an action in the past. The use of the indicative indicates that the speaker is reasonably certain that the actions in question were actually performed.

- *sī id fēcit, sapiēns erat.* If he did it, he was wise.
 - *sī id faciēbat, sapiēns erat.* If he was doing it, he was wise.
 - *sī id fēcerat, sapiēns erat.* If he had done it, he was wise.
-

80.2 Present Simple

A **present simple** condition uses the **present tense in the indicative** in both clauses to explain a general truth in the present. The use of the indicative indicates that the speaker is reasonably certain that the actions in question are actually happening.

- *sī id facit, sapiēns est.* If he does / is doing it, he is wise.

80.3 Future More Vivid / Future Simple

The **future more vivid** or **future simple** condition uses either the **future** or the **future perfect** tense in both clauses to indicate a general truth in the future. The use of the indicative indicates that the speaker is reasonably certain that the actions in question will actually happen; there is no doubt.

- *sī id faciet, sapiēns erit.* If he will do it, he will be wise.
- *sī id fēcerit, sapiēns erit.* If he will have done it, he will be wise.

Note that with the **future more vivid**, you have the option of translating the verb in the protasis, whether it's future or future perfect, as a **present** tense:

- *sī id faciet, sapiēns erit.* If he does (literally “will do”) this, he will be wise.
- *sī id fēcerit, sapiēns erit.* If he does (literally “will have done”) this, he will be wise.

In this case, using a present tense to translate the apodosis contributes to the generalizing quality of the condition; it also sounds better in English, especially if the verb in your protasis is in the future perfect, the translation of which usually sounds stilted and odd in modern English.

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81 Subjunctive Conditions

Two conditions that use the subjunctive indicate actions that would have happened upon the enactment of some condition; however, that condition was not met, so the entire condition is just a thought experiment that is contrary to what factually happened or is happening. A third condition that uses the subjunctive indicates an action that may occur in the future contingent upon the completion of a condition, but it's uncertain whether it will happen.

81.1 Past Contrary-to-Fact

A **past contrary-to-fact** (or **past contrafactual**) condition indicates what **would have** happened **if** something **had** happened. Both clauses will use the **pluperfect subjunctive**.

The protasis will translate the pluperfect subjunctive straightforwardly: “had [verb]ed”.

The apodosis will translate the pluperfect subjunctive with the auxiliaries “would have [verb]ed.”

- *sī id fēcisset, sapiēns fuisset*. If he had done it, he would have been wise.

Note that the subjunctive mood indicates the irreality of this condition. If he had done it, he would have been wise: but he didn't do it, and therefore he wasn't. The condition is **contrary to fact** because it didn't happen.

81.2 Present Contrary-to-Fact

A **present contrary-to-fact** (or **present contrafactual**) condition indicates what **would** happen **if** something **were** happening. Both clauses will use the **imperfect subjunctive**.

The protasis will translate the imperfect subjunctive with the auxiliary “were [verb]ing.”

The apodosis will translate the imperfect subjunctive with the auxiliary “would [verb].”

- *sī id faceret, sapiēns esset*. If he were doing it, he would be wise.

The same contrary-to-fact-ness applies to this condition, but in present time. If he *were* doing it, he would be wise – but he isn’t doing it, and so he’s not.

81.3 Future Less Vivid

The **future less vivid** condition indicates an action that **would** happen in the future, if another action **should** happen first. Both clauses will use the **present subjunctive**.

The protasis will translate the present subjunctive with the auxiliary “should [verb].”

The apodosis will translate the present subjunctive with the auxiliary “would [verb].”

- *sī id faciat, sapiēns sit*. If he should do it, he would be wise.

Note that the translation of the apodosis is the same as the apodosis of a present contrary-to-fact; the difference lies in the time when the action of the protasis would be completed: in the present for a present contrary-to-fact; in the future for a future less vivid.

Rarely, you may see a perfect subjunctive instead of a present subjunctive in the protasis:

- *sī id fēcerit, sapiēns sit*. If he should do it, he would be wise.

Be careful not to mix up the **future less vivid**, a subjunctive condition that uses the present subjunctive, with the **future more vivid**, an indicative condition that uses the future or future perfect indicative. The **future more vivid** is “more vivid” because of the indicative mood, indicating that it’s likely to happen; the **future less vivid** is “less vivid” because the subjunctive mood introduces a note of doubt.

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82 Mixed Conditions

A condition may be composed of different types of protases and apodoses or, sometimes, even entire other grammatical constructions like hortatory subjunctives or imperatives. In such cases, analyze each half of the condition on its own terms and translate accordingly before putting the two halves together. For example:

- *sī haec verba dīxisset, laetus essem.*

The protasis of this mixed condition uses a pluperfect subjunctive verb: that makes it the protasis of a past contrary-to-fact, translated as “had [verb]ed.”

- If he had said these words, *laetus essem*.

The apodosis, on the other hand, uses an *imperfect* subjunctive verb: that makes it the apodosis of a present contrary-to-fact, translated as “would [verb].” When we put the two halves together, we come up with the following translation:

- If he had said these words, I would be happy.

You can also use other grammatical structures in place of an apodosis, such as a command:

- *sī hoc dīcat, domum eāmus.* If he should say this, let us go home. (hortatory subjunctive)
 - Note that because *eāmus* is present subjunctive, we can also interpret this as a straightforward future less vivid condition: “If he should say this, we would go home.” Context is key when you’re making this determination.
- *sī legēs mutāre velīs, epistolam scrībe!* If you should want to change the laws, write a letter! (imperative mood verb)

Note also that ablative absolutes can also be translated as conditionals, if such a translation makes sense in the context of the narrative:

- *hostibus ā militibus nostrīs victīs, incolumēs fuissēmus.* If the enemies had been conquered by our soldiers, we would have been safe. (ablative absolute replacing the protasis of a past contrary-to-fact)

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83 Adjective and Adverb Degrees

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84 Adjective and Adverb Degrees - Overview

As we've discussed since the beginning of last semester, all adjectives have three aspects: **gender**, **case**, and **number**. To these three, we will now add a fourth: **degree**. The **degree** of the adjective indicates how much of that adjectival quality the noun described possesses, especially in relation to other nouns that also possess that quality. There are **three** degrees of adjectives:

- **positive**: the base level of an adjective
- **comparative**: a degree that indicates that the noun described possesses *more* of the adjectival quality than others. Often translated as “-er” or “more [adjective]”, and sometimes “rather [adjective]” or “too [adjective].”
- **superlative**: a degree that indicates that the noun described possesses the *most* of the adjectival quality of all nouns that possess it. Often translated as “-est” or “most [adjective]” and sometimes “very [adjective].”

Most of the adjectives with which you've interacted so far are in the **positive** degree. Now, we will learn how to form the comparative and superlative degrees and also take into account irregular formations.

We will also learn how to form adverbs from adjectival stems in the same three degrees: positive, comparative, and superlative.

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85 Comparative Degree

The comparative degree indicates that the noun describes has **more** of the quality than another noun. As such, we can usually translate the comparative as the “-er” or “more” form of the adjective. Occasionally, we can also translate it as “rather [adjective]” or “too [adjective].”

To form the comparative degree of an adjective, get its stem according to the rules of its adjective type and add the endings **-ior** (M/F) and **-ius** (N) for the nominative forms. The oblique cases will then be based on the stem **-ior**. Confusingly, each of these forms declines like a third declension **noun** rather than an adjective. Take a look at the declension chart below:

- **pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum** - handsome, beautiful (stem = pulchr-) > **pulchrior, pulchrius** - “more handsome, more beautiful”

Singular

Case	M./F.	Neuter
Nominative	pulchrior	pulchrius
Genitive	pulchrior is	pulchrior is
Dative	pulchrior ī	pulchrior ī
Accusative	pulchrior em	pulchrius
Ablative	pulchrior e	pulchrior e

Plural

Case	M./F.	Neuter
Nominative	pulchrior ēs	pulchrior a
Genitive	pulchrior um	pulchrior um
Dative	pulchrior ibus	pulchrior ibus
Accusative	pulchrior ēs	pulchrior a

Case	M./F.	Neuter
Ablative	pulchrior ibus	pulchrior ibus

Note the forms that decline like third declension nouns rather than adjectives: we might expect, for example, an ending of **-ia** in the neuter nominative and accusative plural, but that is not the case (the ending is simply **-a**). Like any other adjective, however, comparatives must agree with the noun that they describe in gender, case, and number:

- **mīlītēs fortiōrēs erant.** The soldiers were braver.
- **scīmus matrem nostram sapientiōrem nōbīs esse.** We know that our mother is wiser than us. (see below for “than us”)
- **iter longius erit.** The journey will be rather long.

85.1 Comparison with *quam* and Ablative of Comparison

The comparative degree compares how much of an adjectival quality one noun possesses over another. For example, in the following English sentence:

- This boy is more handsome than that boy.

we are comparing how handsome “this boy” to how handsome “that boy” is, and we are saying that this boy is more handsome **than** that boy. Note my use of the word “than” here – this word indicates a comparison between two nouns. In Latin, we can use the word **quam** to indicate “than”, and the two nouns being compared must be in the same case:

- **hic puer pulchrior est quam ille puer.** This boy is more handsome *than that boy*.
- **mīles fortior erat quam rex ipse.** The soldier was braver *than the king himself*.
- **dīcit magistrum sapientiōrem esse quam discipulum.** He says that the teacher is wiser *than the student*.

When the noun described by the comparative adjective is in the nominative or accusative, we can put the noun being compared against it into the **ablative** case and omit the **quam** entirely. We will thus supply “than” in our translation, since it’s built into the ablative. This construction is called the **ablative of comparison**. Here are the sentences from above using the ablative of comparison rather than **quam**:

- **hic puer pulchrior est *puerō***. This boy is more handsome *than that boy*.
- **mīles fortior erat rege *ipsō***. The soldier is braver *than the king himself*.
- **dīcit magistrum sapientiore esse *discipulō***. He says that the teacher is wiser *than the student*.

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86 Superlative Degree

The superlative degree of an adjective indicates that the noun described has the **most** of the adjectival quality of anyone that possesses that quality. So, we can usually translate it as the “-est” or “most” form of the adjective. Occasionally, we can translate the superlative as “very [adjective].”

To form the superlative degree of an adjective, add the endings **-issimus, -issima, -issimum** to the stem and decline it as a regular 2-1-2 adjective:

- longus, -a, -um, “long” > longior, longius, “longer” > **longissimus, -a, -um**, “longest”
- sapiēns, sapientis, “wise” > sapientior, sapientius, “wiser” > **sapientissimus, -a, -um**, “wisest”
- fortis, -e, “brave, strong” > fortior, fortius, “braver, stronger” > **fortissimus, -a, -um**, “bravest, strongest”

Again, like any other adjective, a superlative adjective must agree with its noun in gender, case, and number:

- **hostēs ā fortissimīs mīlitibus victī sunt.** The enemies were defeated by the bravest soldiers.
- **dixit illās sapientissimās esse.** He said that those women were the wisest.
- **iter longissimum erat.** The journey was very long.

86.1 Superlative with *quam*

We can also use **quam** with a superlative to indicate “as [adjective] as possible”:

- **hic vir quam sapientissimus est.** This man is *as wise as possible*.
- **dixit hostem quam ferocissimum esse.** He said that the enemy was *as fierce as possible*.

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87 Irregular Comparative and Superlative Adjectives

There are a number of adjective classes that form their comparative and superlative degrees irregularly.

87.1 Superlatives for -er and -lis Adjectives

If the masculine nominative singular positive form of an adjective ends in -er (e.g., **pulcher**, pulchra, pulchrum; **acer**, acris, acre) or in -lis (e.g., **facilis**, -e, “easy”; **similis**, -e, “similar”), the superlative is not formed regularly.

For -er adjectives, you must take the entire masculine nominative singular positive form, duplicate the final consonant, and then add the endings **-imus**, **-ima**, **-imum**. For example:

- pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum, “beautiful, handsome” > pulchrior, pulchrius, “more beautiful, more handsome” > pulcher + r + imus = **pulcherrimus**, **-a**, **-um**, “most beautiful, most handsome”
- acer, acris, acre, “sharp” > acrior, acrius, “more sharp” > acer + r + imus = **acerrimus**, **-a**, **-um**, “most sharp”

pulcherrimum virum in urbe vīdimus. We saw the most handsome man in the city. **petitī sunt ab acerrimīs militibus.** They were attacked by the fiercest soldiers.

For -lis adjectives, you must take the *stem* of the adjective, duplicate the final -l, and then add **-imus**, **-ima**, **-imum**. For example:

- facilis, -e, “easy” > faciliior, facilius, “easier” > facil + l + imus = **facillimus**, **-a**, **-um**, “easiest”
- similis, -e, “similar” > similior, similius, “more similar” > simil + l + imus = **simillimus**, **-a**, **-um**, “most similar”

puerī facillima carmina canēbant. The boys were singing the easiest songs. **amīcus meus similis mihi est.** My friend is very similar to me.

87.2 Irregular Comparatives and Superlatives

Some adjectives have completely irregular changes from the positive to the comparative to the superlative degree and simply must be memorized. Here is a chart of irregular comparatives and superlatives and some notes on specific forms.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
bonus, -a, -um, “good”	melior, melius, “better”	optimus, -a, -um, “best”
magnus, -a, -um, “big”	maior, maius, “bigger”	maximus, -a, -um, “biggest”
malus, -a, -um, “bad”	pēior, pēius, “worse”	pessimus, -a, -um, “worst”
multus, -a, -um, “much; many”	*plūs, plūris, “more”	plūrimus, -a, -um, “most”
parvus, -a, -um, “small”	minor, minus, “smaller”	minimus, -a, -um, “smallest, least”
** (none)	prior, prius, “former, previous”	p̄rimus, -a, -um, “first”
superus, -a, -um, “upper”	superior, superius, “higher”	summus, -a, -um, “highest, furthest; top of”; suprēmus, -a, -um, “highest, last”

* **plūs, plūris** is an odd form that acts like a **third declension neuter noun in the singular** but an **irregular third declension adjective in the plural**.

Singular

Case	Neuter
Nominative	plūs
Genitive	plūris
Dative	(no dative form)
Accusative	plūs

Case	Neuter
Ablative	plūre

Because the singular acts as a noun, it cannot modify another noun. As a result, this noun often takes a construction called the **partitive genitive**, a genitive noun that indicates what there is more of. For example:

- **plūs pecūniae habēmus.** We have more money. (literally, “We have more of money.”)

Plural

Case	M./F.	Neuter
Nominative	plūrēs	plūra
Genitive	plūrium	plūrium
Dative	plūribus	plūribus
Accusative	plūrēs	plūra
Ablative	plūribus	plūribus

Note that the plural forms are adjectives that must agree with a noun in gender, case, and number (e.g., **plūrēs militēs**, “more soldiers”; **plūrium carminum**, “of more songs”), but the neuter nominative and accusative plural do not have the expected -ia ending; instead, the ending is simply -a.

** **prior** and **prīmus** do not have a positive degree, since their very definitions (“previous” and “first” respectively) necessarily are comparative and superlative in nature; something cannot be “previous” without being “previous” to something else.

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88 Adverb Degrees - Overview

Adverbs are words that modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. We've seen many examples of adverbs throughout this course, including ones like *nōn* and *tamen*. Such adverbs are indeclinable and have only positive degrees.

Other types of adverbs can be formed from adjectives in English by adding -ly to an adjective, indicating that a verbal action is being completed in an [adjective] manner. For example:

- He walked *quickly*. (i.e., in a quick manner)
- They sang *beautifully*. (i.e., in a beautiful manner)

Such adverbs, like adjectives, have a degree: positive, comparative, or superlative. The same relationships apply: positive is the base degree of an adverb, comparative corresponds to “more”, and superlative corresponds to “most.” For example:

- He sang **beautifully**. (positive)
- She sang **more beautifully**. (comparative)
- But they sang **most beautifully**. (superlative)

For these adverbs, we can use the adjectives from which they are derived to create adverbs in each of the three degrees.

88.1 Positive Adverbs

To form the positive degree of an adverb from an adjective:

- if a 2-1-2, add **-ē** to the stem:
 - pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum, “beautiful” > **pulchrē**, “beautifully”
 - laetus, -a, -um, “happy” > **laetē**, “happily”
- if a third declension adjective, add **-iter** to the stem, unless the stem ends in **-nt**, in which case add only **-er**:

- ferox, ferocis, “fierce” > **ferociter**, “fiercely”
- acer, acris, acre, “sharp” > **acriter**, “sharply”
- sapiēns, sapientis, “wise” > **sapienter**, “wisely”

magister discipulōs sapienter docuit. The teacher taught the students wisely. **familia laetē cēnam parāvit.** The family happily prepared dinner.

Note also that the **neuter nom./acc. sg.** form of an adjective can often be used as an adverb:

- **is illa carmina facile didicit.** He learned those songs **easily**.
 - **tē multum amō.** I love you **much**.
-

88.2 Comparative Adverbs

The comparative degree of an adjective-derived adverb almost always exactly corresponds to the neuter nom./acc. sg. comparative form of the adjective:

- **pulchrius**, “more beautifully”
- **laetius**, “more happily”
- **ferocius**, “more fiercely”
- **acrius**, “more sharply”
- **sapientius**, “more wisely”

militēs nostrī ferocius quam illī pugnāvērunt. Our soldiers fought more fiercely than those (soldiers). **ea carmina pulchrius quam is canit.** She is singing the songs more beautifully than he (is).

88.3 Superlative Adverbs

The superlative degree of an adjective-derived adverb is formed by adding **-ē** to the superlative adjective stem:

- **pulcherrimē**, “most beautifully”
- **laetissimē**, “most happily”
- **ferocissimē**, “most fiercely”
- **acerrimē**, “most sharply”

- **sapientissimē**, “most wisely”

sapientissimē dīxit. He spoke very wisely. **virī ferocissimē clamāvērunt.** The men shouted most fiercely.

Note that comparative and superlative adverbs can also be used with **quam** to indicate “than” or “as [adverb] as possible” respectively, similar to its use with comparative and superlative adjectives. The ablative of comparison is not usually used with comparative adverbs.

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89 Irregular Adverbs

While many adverbs formed from irregular adjectives follow the same rules of formation described in the previous unit, some forms, including positive degree forms, are irregular. Check out the following chart, with irregular or unexpected forms in bold.

Positive	Comparative	Superlative
bene , “well”	melius, “better”	optimē, “best”
multum , “much”	plūs, “more” (quantity)	plūrimum , “most, very much”
magnopere , “greatly”	magis , “more” (quality)	maximē, “most, especially”
parum , “little, not very much”	minus, “less” (quality)	minimē, “least”
(none)	prius, “before, earlier”	prīmō , “first (in time), at first”; primum , “first (in a series), in the first place”
diū , “for a long time”	diūtius , “longer”	diūtissimē , “longest, very long”

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91 Vocabulary lists

The lists linked below give dictionary forms and very brief definitions for ca. 250 of the most frequently occurring words in Hyginus' *Fabulae*. You can find very full entries with examples of usage in the searchable online version of Lewis and Short's *Latin Dictionary* (from Furman University).

These 250 terms represent roughly 2/3 of all the words in Hyginus' text!

The vocabulary lists use j and v for consonantal sounds, i and u for vocalic sounds. This is the same spelling convention that you will find in the Lewis-Short Dictionary. Remember that we often use texts with different spelling conventions (e.g., *i* for both consonantal and vocalic sounds), so that to find a vocabulary entry for a form like *iussit* (third singular perfect active indicative), you would look under j to find *jubeo*, *jubēre*, *jussi*, *jussus*.

92 Prepositions in Hyginus, *Fabulae*

- *ab* or *a* + *abl*: away from
- *ad* + *acc*: towards
- *apud* + *acc*: at, with, by, near
- *cum* + *abl*: with
- *de* + *abl*: from, down from
- *ex* + *abl*: out of
- *in* + *abl*: in
- *in* + *acc*: into
- *inter* + *acc*: between, among
- *ob* + *acc*: on account of
- *per* + *acc*: through
- *post* + *acc*: after
- *pro* + *abl*: in front of, on behalf of
- *propter* + *acc*: on account of
- *super* + *acc*: above, on top of

93 Pronouns in Hyginus, *Fabulae*

- ego: *personal pronoun*, I
- hic, haec, hoc: *demonstrative pronoun*, this one
- ille, illa, illud: *demonstrative pronoun*, that one
- ipse: *intensifying pronoun*, **he** (himself), **she** herself
- is, ea, id: *demonstrative pronoun*, he, she, it
- qui, quae, quod: *relative pronoun*, who, which
- quis, quid: *interrogative pronoun*, who, what
- quisque: *indefinite pronoun*, whoever
- sui: *reflexive pronoun* himself, herself

94 Most frequent verbs in Hyginus, *Fabulae*

- accipio, accipĕre, accepi, acceptus: *to receive, to perceive*
- adduco, adducĕre, adduxi, adductus: *to lead or conduct*
- aio (*irregular, exists only in a few forms*): *to say, assert*
- amitto, amittĕre, amisi, amissus: *to dismiss, send away, to lose*
- amo, amare, amavi, amatus: *to love*
- appello, appellare, appelavi, appellatus: *to address, name*
- audio, audire, audivi, auditus: *to hear*
- cano, canĕre, cecini, cantus: *to sing*
- capio, capĕre, cepi, captus: *to seize*
- coepio, coepĕre, coepi, coeptus: *to begin*
- cognosco, cognoscĕre, cognovi, cognitus: *to know, become acquainted with*
- commuto, commutare, commutavi, commutatus: *to change, interchange*
- comprimo, comprimĕre, compressi, compressus: *to squeeze together, to repress*
- concumbo, concumbĕre, concubui, concubitus: *to sleep with*
- conicio (*or coicio, or conjicio*), conijcĕre, conjeci, conjectus: *to cast, to connect, to discuss*
- constituo, constituĕre, constitui, constitutus: *to establish, prepare*
- consumo, consumĕre, consumpsi, consumptus: *to devour*
- contendo, contendĕre, contendi, contentus: *to extend, to exert, to strive with*
- converto, convertĕre, converti, conversus: *to turn, alter*
- cresco, crescĕre, crevi, cretus: *to be born, appear*
- dedo, dedĕre, dedidi, deditus: *to give away, give up, surrender*
- defero, deferre, detuli, delatus: *to carry away, convey*
- dico, dicĕre, dixi, dictus: *to say*
- do, dare, dedi, datus: *to give*
- duco, ducĕre, duxi, ductus: *to lead*
- eo, ire, ii or ivi, -: *to go*
- exeo, exire, exivi or exii, exitus: *to go out*
- expono, exponĕre, exposui, expositus: *to set forth, expose*
- facio, facĕre, feci, factus: *to make*
- fero, ferre, tuli, latus: *to bear, carry*

- fio, fiēri, -, factus: *to become, be produced*
- habeo, habēre, habui, habitus: *to have*
- immolo, immolare, immolavi, immolatus: *to sacrifice*
- impono, imponēre, imposui, impositus: *to set upon or over*
- intereo, interire, interii or iterivi, iteritus: *to perish, be ruined*
- interficio, interficēre, interfeci, interfectus: *destroy, kill*
- invenio, invenire, inveni, inventus: *to discover, find out*
- irascor, irasci, -, iratus: *to be angry, enraged*
- jubeo, jubēre, jussi, jussus: *to order, prescribe*
- jungo, jungēre, junxi, junctus: *to connect, join together*
- libero, liberare, liberavi, liberatus: *to free*
- libet, libēre, libuit, libitus (*impersonal*): *to be pleasing or agreeable*
- loco, locare, locavi, locatus: *to place, arrange*
- mitto, mittēre, misi, missus: *to send*
- moneo, monēre, monui, monitus: *to warn*
- morior, mori, -, mortuus: *to die*
- nascor, nasci, -, natus: *to be born*
- neco, necare, necavi, necatus: *to slay*
- nego, negare, negavi, negatus: *to say no, refuse*
- nitor, niti, -, nisus or nixus: *to lean on, to strive for*
- nolo, nolle, nolui, -: *to wish...not, to be unwilling*
- nomino, nominare, nominavi, nominatus: *to name, call by name*
- obicio or objicio, obicēre, objeci, objectus: *to throw before, oppose*
- occido, occidēre, occidi, occisus: *strike down, slay*
- ostendo, ostendēre, ostendi, ostensus: *to show, expose*
- pareo, parēre, parui, paritus: *to be present, to wait on*
- pario, parēre, peperit, paritus: *to bear, give birth to*
- percutio, percutēre, percuti, percussus: *to strike, thrust or pierce through*
- perduco, perducēre, perduxit, perductus: *to guide, lead through*
- pereor, perire, perivi or perii, peritus: *to pass away, vanish*
- persequor, persequi, -, persecutus: *to follow, chase, pursue*
- pervenio, pervenire, perveni, perventus: *to come to, arrive at*
- peto, petēre, petivi or petii, petitus: *to attack, demand, seek*
- polliceor, pollicēri, -, pollicitus: *to promise*
- pono, ponēre, posui, positus: *to place*
- possum, posse, potui, -: *to be able*
- praecipito, praecipitare, praecipitavi, praecipitatus: *to cast down, to press, hasten*
- procreo, procreare, procreavi, procreatus: *to bring forth, beget*

- proficio, proficere, profeci, profectus: *to advance, make progress, obtain*
- proficiscor, proficisci, -, profectus: *to set out, depart*
- profugio, profugere, profugi, -: *to flee, escape*
- quaero, quaerere, quaesivi, quaesitus: *to seek for, acquire*
- rapio, rapere, rapui, raptus: *to seize and carry off*
- recipio, recipere, recepi, receptus: *regain, recover*
- redeo, redire, redivi or redii, reditus: *to go or come back, return*
- refero, referre, rettuli or retuli, relatus: *to return, restore*
- regno, regnare, regnavi, regnatus: *to rule*
- respondeo, respondere, respondi, responsus: *to answer, reply*
- rogo, rogare, rogavi, rogatus: *to ask*
- sacro, sacrare, sacravi, sacratus: *to consecrate, dedicate*
- sepelio, sepelire, sepelivi or sepelii, sepultus: *to bury*
- servo, servare, servavi, servatus: *to save, preserve*
- soleo, solere, solui, solitus: *to be accustomed*
- sum, esse, fui, futurus: *to be*
- tollo, tollere, sustuli, sublatum: *to raise up, elevate*
- trado, tradere, tradidi, traditus: *to hand over, deliver, surrender*
- venio, venire, veni, ventus: *to come*
- video, videre, vidi, visus: *to see*
- vinco, vincere, vici, victum: *to defeat, conquer*
- vivo, vivere, vixi, victus: *to live, be alive*
- voco, vocare, vocavi, vocatus: *to call together, summon*
- volo, velle, volui, -: *to wish, want*

1. TOC {toc}

95 Verbs

Latin verbs have five characteristics: **person**, **number**, **tense**, **voice**, and **mood**.

Person tells us the relationship between the speaker of the sentence and the subject of the sentence. Latin, like English, has three different persons - first person, second person, and third person. **First person** (I/we) means that the speaker of the sentence is also the subject/one of the subjects of the sentence. **Second person** (you/you all) means that the speaker of the sentence is in direct conversation with the subject(s) of the sentence. **Third person** (he/she/it/stated subject) means that the speaker of the sentence is referring to a subject outside of the current conversation.

Number tells us how many subjects we have. Just like Latin nouns, Latin verbs can be **singular** (the subject refers only to one person or thing) or **plural** (the subject refers to multiple persons or things). Number plays a key role in Latin sentence construction - subjects and verbs must match in number, just as in English. A singular subject requires a singular verb; a plural subject requires a plural verb (see more below).

Tense tells us the temporal relationship between the action that occurs in the sentence and the speaker's statement. For example, in the English sentence, "Lisa did her homework", the past tense verb "did" tells us that Lisa has completed her homework at the time when the sentence was uttered. On the other hand, "Lisa is doing her homework", the present tense verb "is doing" tells us that Lisa is in the process of completing her homework while the speaker is talking. There are six different tenses in Latin: **present**, **imperfect**, **future**, **perfect**, **pluperfect**, and **future perfect**.

Voice tells us whether the subject of the sentence is doing the action of the sentence or being acted upon. There are two voices in Latin: active and passive. An **active** verb indicates that the subject performs the central action of the sentence. For example, in the sentence, "the dog catches the ball", the dog (our subject) is performing the act of catching. A **passive** verb indicates that the subject is being acted upon. To follow up on the example above, in the sentence "the ball is caught by the dog", the ball (our subject) is not performing an action; rather, it is simply being caught by the dog.

Mood tells us how the speaker of the sentence feels about the content of the sentence. Mood can indicate if a sentence's content is simply a statement of fact, an expression of a wish or possibility, an order, etc. There are three Latin moods: **indicative**, **imperative**, and **subjunctive**. While we will go into more detail on this later, for now, we can think of the **indicative** mood as indicating that the

speaker is stating the content of the sentence as a fact; the **imperative** mood as indicating that the speaker is making an order; the **subjunctive** mood as indicating some level of uncertainty.

To summarize, verbs have:

- Person
 - First
 - Second
 - Third
 - Number
 - Singular
 - Plural
 - Tense
 - Present
 - Imperfect
 - Future
 - Perfect
 - Pluperfect
 - Future Perfect
 - Voice
 - Active
 - Passive
 - Mood
 - Indicative
 - Imperative
 - Subjunctive
-

95.1 Dictionary Entry

Like we did with nouns, we will first need to consult the **dictionary entry** to determine the verb form. Below we have the dictionary entry for *videō*:

videō, vidēre, vīdī, vīsus - to see

The first four words in the entry are referred to as **principal parts**. Principal parts give you the information necessary to recognize and produce any form of the verb. If we move from left to right:

Our **first principal part**, *videō*, indicates what the **1st person singular present active indicative** form of the word is. In this case, it translates to “I see.”

Vidēre, the **second principal part**, indicates the **present active infinitive** form of the word and translates to “to see.” This form provides two important pieces of information. First, it provides the **stem** (*vidē*) that is used to create all of the present, imperfect, future forms of the verb (known as the **present system**). Second, in combination with the first principal part, it tells us the pattern (often referred to as a **conjugation**) that the verb will follow in creating different forms (more below in Conjugations).

Our **third principal part**, *vīdī*, indicates the **1st person singular perfect active indicative** form, which translates in our example to “I saw”. The third principal part provides the stem (*vīd*) that is used to create all of the active forms of perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect verbs (known as the **perfect active system**).

Vīsus, the **perfect passive participle**, is the **fourth principal part** and means “having been seen.” The fourth principal part is used to produce all the passive forms of perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect verbs (known as the **perfect passive system**).

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95.2 Conjugations

The five different characteristics discussed above are reflected in the endings of a verb form. Like nouns, there are patterns in the way that verbs change their endings which we call **conjugations**.

There are four major conjugations (as well as one sub-conjugation) that we will become familiar with.

The conjugation to which a verb belongs can be easily determined by consulting the first and second principal parts in a dictionary entry:

- If the second principal part ends with **-āre**, then the verb belongs to the **first conjugation** (e.g. *amō, amāre, amāvī, amātus* - to love).
- If the second principal part ends with **-ēre** (note the long mark over the second-to-last e) and the first principal part ends with **-eō**, then the verb belongs to the **second conjugation** (e.g. *videō, vidēre, vīdī, vīsus* - to see).

- If the second principal part ends with **-ere** (note that there is no long mark over the second-to-last e) and the first principal part ends with **-ō** and no other proceeding vowel, then the verb belongs to the **third conjugation** (e.g. *dūcō, dūcere, dūxī, ductus* - to lead).
 - If the second principal ends with **-ere** (note there is no long mark over the second-to-last e) and the first principal part ends with **-iō**, then the verb belongs to the **third-io conjugation** (e.g. *capiō, capere, cēpī, captus* - to take).
 - If the second principal part ends with **-ire** and the first principal part ends with **-iō**, then the verb belongs to the **fourth conjugation** (e.g. *audiō, audire, audīvī, auditus* - to hear).
-

95.3 Translating Verbs

When translating Latin verbs into English, you must convey all five characteristics in your translation. For example, consider the form *monēbātur*, which is the third singular imperfect passive indicative of *moneō* (“to warn”). We would translate this form as: he/she/it (3rd person singular) was (imperfect) being (passive) warned (the indicative requires no additional translation here).

1. TOC {:toc}
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96 The Present Tense

96.1 Conceptual Overview

The **present tense** indicates that the action of a verb is happening at the same time as the speaker's utterance. For example, in the sentence "I write about the present tense", the verb "write" indicates that the process of writing is currently happening. The present tense can also show an action in progress through the use of a form of the verb "to be" and the addition of -ing to the verb; for example, "we are learning about Latin." The verb "are learning" indicates that learning is in the process of happening!

Here are some more English examples of the present tense, with the Latin equivalent of the verb in parentheses:

- She is coming (*venit*) from the market.
- An exam is being given (*datur*) by the teacher.
- He writes (*scribit*) a letter.
- We are looking for (*petimus*) our friends.

So, the present can be translated in various ways: in the third person singular active voice, as a simple present like "he gives", a present progressive like "he is giving", or an emphatic present like "he does give"; in the third person singular passive voice, "he is (being) given."

96.2 All Conjugations

This is a broad overview of the formation of the present tense across all conjugations. If you prefer a more structured and compartmentalized approach to the differences between the conjugations, see the sections below on the 1st and 2nd conjugations and 3rd, 4th, and 3rd -iō conjugations.

This chart overviews the present tense in the active and passive voice across all conjugations. Note the patterns, both within individual conjugations and across conjugations: for example, what vowels precede the personal endings of -ō, -s, -t, -mus, -tis, -nt or -r, -ris, -tur, -mur, -minī, -ntur in a given conjugation? Focus for now, though, on the bolded 3rd person forms.

Active

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amō	moneō	regō	cupiō	audiō
2nd sg.	amās	monēs	regis	cupis	audīs
3rd sg.	amat	monet	regit	cupit	audit
1st pl.	amāmus	monēmus	regimus	cupimus	audīmus
2nd pl.	amātis	monētis	regitis	cupitis	audītis
3rd pl.	amant	monent	regunt	cupiunt	audiunt

Passive

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amor	moneor	regor	cupior	audior
2nd sg.	amāris	monēris	regiris	cuperis	audīris
3rd sg.	amātur	monētur	regitur	cupitur	audītur
1st pl.	amāmur	monēmur	regimur	cupimur	audīmur
2nd pl.	amāminī	monēminī	regiminī	cupiminī	audīminī
3rd pl.	amantur	monentur	reguntur	cupiuntur	audiuntur

96.3 1st and 2nd Conjugations

This is a specific overview of the formation of the present tense in the 1st and 2nd conjugations. For a broader overview of the present tense across all conjugations, see the section above on the present tense across all conjugations.

If you need the first person singular present active indicative form of the verb, you automatically have it from the **first principal part** of the dictionary entry. For example, with the verb *amō*, *amāre*, *amāvī*, *amātus*, “to love”, the first principal part, *amō*, is your first person present active indicative form, which means “I love.”

To form the present indicative in the other persons and numbers in the **1st and 2nd conjugation**, we begin by finding the verb’s present stem. To find it, you go to the **second principal part** of the verb’s dictionary entry and then chop off the final *-re*. For example, with the same example verb, we would

go to the second principal part, *amāre*, and chop off the final *-re*, which leaves us with the present stem: *amā*. The second conjugation works the same way: for example, with the verb *moneō*, *monēre*, *monuī*, *monitus*, “to warn, advise”, the present stem would be *monē*.

From there, you add your personal endings, which are shown below (focus on the **bolded** third person forms for the first part of this semester):

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	(-ō)	-mus
2nd	-s	-tis
3rd	-t	-nt

So, for example, the 3rd person plural present active indicative form of *amō* is *amant*, “they love.” The 2nd person singular present active indicative form of *moneō* is *monēs*, “you warn.”

For the **passive** forms, you would tack on the **passive** personal endings onto your present stem (for the 1st person singular, you would tack the ending directly onto the active form):

Passive

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-r	-mur
2nd	-ris	-mini
3rd	-tur	-ntur

So, for example, the 1st person singular present passive indicative of *amō* is *amor*, “I am (being) loved.” The third person singular present passive indicative of *moneō* is *monētur*, “he/she/it is (being) warned.”

96.4 3rd, 4th, and 3rd -iō Conjugations

This is a specific overview of the formation of the present tense in the 3rd, 4th, and 3rd -iō conjugations. For a broader overview of the present tense across all conjugations, see the section above on the present tense across all conjugations.

In the 3rd, 4th, and 3rd -iō conjugations in the present indicative, there are a number of vowel changes at the end of the present stem from person to person and number to number before we apply the active and passive endings listed in the charts above. You must be aware of these vowel shifts to conjugate a verb correctly.

96.4.1 3rd Conjugation

Let's conjugate the third conjugation verb *regō, regere, rēxī, rectus*, "to rule", in the **present active indicative** as an example. As above, we can get the 1st person singular form from the first principal part of the verb: *regō*, "I rule." For the remaining forms, if we follow the procedure from above, we go to *regere* and chop off the *-re*, and then we have the present stem *rege*. The *-e* at the end of the present stem becomes an *-i* in all forms except the **3rd pl**, in which it becomes a *-u*. Then we add our personal endings (*-s, -t, -mus, -tis, -nt*).

So, the **present active indicative** of *regō* looks like this (focus on the **bolded** 3rd person forms):

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	regō	regimus
2nd	regis	regitis
3rd	regit	regunt

The **present passive indicative** of the third conjugation swaps out the active personal endings for passive ones (*-r, -ris, -tur, -mur, -mini, -ntur*). The vowel shifts are identical to those in the active with one exception: the **2nd sg.** retains the *-e*, rather than changing to an *-i*. Take a look at this chart (and again, focus on the bolded forms):

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	regor	regimur
2nd	regeris	regimini
3rd	regitur	reguntur

96.4.2 4th Conjugation

The **fourth conjugation** follows the pattern of **1st** and **2nd conjugation verbs** (go to the infinitive, chop off the *-re*, add your endings) with one crucial exception: the **3rd pl.** form shifts the vowel at the end of the stem from *-i* to *-iu*. So, let's take the sample verb *audiō, audīre, audīvī, audītus*, "to hear." The present stem is *audī*.

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	audiō	audīmus
2nd	audīs	audītis
3rd	audit	audiunt

Passive

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	audior	audīmur
2nd	audīris	audīmini
3rd	audītur	audiuntur

96.4.3 3rd -iō Conjugation

The **third -iō conjugation** is a mixture of 3rd and 4th conjugation forms; such verbs as *capiō, capere, cēpī, captus*, "to seize, capture", follow 3rd conjugation patterns in most forms but 4th conjugation patterns in the **3rd pl.**

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	capiō	capimus
2nd	capis	capitis
3rd	capit	capiunt

Passive

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	capior	capimur
2nd	caperis	capimini
3rd	capitur	capiuntur

Note that often, one letter can make the difference, so it is imperative that you recognize what conjugation a verb belongs to in order to conjugate it correctly!

1. TOC {toc}

97 The Imperfect Tense

97.1 Conceptual Overview

The **imperfect tense** is one of three different past tenses (along with the perfect and pluperfect) used in Latin. In its usage in the indicative mood, the imperfect is different from the other two tenses because it connotes an ongoing, continuous, habitual, or attempted action in the past (it never refers to a completed action).

For instance, for the active form of the English verb “to make”, we can translate the Latin imperfect as “was/were making” (the most common translation of the imperfect), “used to make”, “kept on making”, or “began to make.” Similarly, for the passive form of the English verb “to make” (i.e. “to be made”), we can translate the Latin imperfect as “was/were being made”, “used to be made”, “kept being made”, or “began to be made.”

Below are some English examples where we would use the Latin imperfect (note the *-ba* infix in all the Latin form - this is the telltale sign that a verb is in the imperfect):

- When I went to the store, she was doing (*faciēbat*) her homework.
- They used to give (*dabant*) the football players free pizza on Friday.
- Although the teacher told them to stop working, the students kept writing (*scribēbant*) their exams.
- Katie was being asked (*petēbātur*) to play Beyonce.

97.2 Formation

To form the imperfect indicative (NB: this is the same for both active and passive), we start by finding the verb’s present stem. To determine the present stem, we take the second principal part (the present active infinitive) and chop off the final *-re*.

For instance, in the case of the verb, *videō*, its second principal part is *vidēre* and taking off the *-re* gives us a present stem of *vidē*.

For verbs that belong to the first and second conjugation, we do not need to modify the present stem and can simply add *-ba* to the stem to make the imperfect stem. In the case of *vidēō*:

vidēre -> *vidē* (present stem) -> *vidē-ba* (imperfect stem)

For verbs that belong to the third and fourth we have to make some changes to the present stem before adding *-ba*:

- In the third conjugation, the *e* of the present stem becomes *ē*.
- In the fourth conjugation, the *i* of the present stem becomes *iē*.
 - In the case of third -io verbs, the *e* of the present stem becomes *iē* as well.

Thus, **audīre*** -> *audī* (present stem) -> *audiē* -> *audiē-ba* (imperfect stem)

To this stem, we add the endings for the relevant person and number, and voice, as shown below:

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-m	-mus
2nd	-s	-tis
3rd	-t	-nt

Passive (NB: To move from active to passive in the imperfect, all we have to do is change personal endings.)

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-r	-mur
2nd	-ris	-mini
3rd	-tur	-ntur

So if we wanted to form the 3rd person plural imperfect passive indicative of *vidēō*:

vidēre -> *vidē* (present stem) -> *vidē-ba* (imperfect stem) -> *vidē-ba-ntur*

1. TOC {;toc}

98 The Future Tense

98.1 Conceptual Overview

The **future tense** indicates that the action of a verb has yet to take place, but it's certain that it will happen. In English, the future tense shows up with the auxiliary verbs “will” or “shall”. Take a look at some examples in English, with the Latin equivalent of the verb in parentheses:

- She will do (*faciet*) her homework tonight.
- They shall give (*dabunt*) free pizza to the students next week.
- The teacher will write (*scribet*) the exam tomorrow.
- The songs shall be sung (*canentur*) by the choir next weekend.

So, the future tense can be translated with the auxiliary verbs “will” or “shall”: for example, “he will write” or “it will be written.”

98.2 1st and 2nd Conjugations

Like the present tense, the future tense has different rules for formation depending on the conjugation of the verb in question. The 1st and 2nd conjugation operate on the same rules: you get the present stem (by going to the 2nd principal part and chopping off the *-re*), and then you add the same set of endings:

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-bō	-bimus
2nd	-bis	-bitis
3rd	-bit	-bunt

Passive (note the vowel shift in the 2nd singular)

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-bor	-bimur
2nd	-beris	-biminī
3rd	-bitur	-buntur

Note that these endings are composed of the letter *-b*, a vowel (*ō*, *i*, or *u*), and the personal endings that are familiar from the present tense (*-ō*, *-s*, *-t*, *-mus*, *-tis*, *-nt* for active; *-r*, *-ris*, *-tur*, *-mur*, *-minī*, *-ntur* for passive).

So, for example, the 1st person singular future active indicative of *amō*, *amāre*, *amāvī*, *amātus** is *amābō*, “I will love.” The third person singular future passive indicative of *moneō*, *monēre*, *monuī*, *monitus* is *monēbitur*, “he/she/it will be warned.”

98.3 3rd, 4th, and 3rd -iō Conjugations

The formation of the future tense in the 3rd, 4th, and 3rd -iō conjugations follow different rules. As in the present tense, these conjugations use vowel shifts to indicate the future tense.

A quick mnemonic that can help you remember the differences in 1st/2nd conjugations and 3rd/4th/3rd iō conjugations in the future tense is:

-bō, -bi, bu in 1 and 2; a and e in 4 and 3

The *-bō*, *-bi*, *-bu* part summarizes the future endings in the 1st and 2nd conjugation. Let’s see what the “a and e in 4 and 3” part means.

98.3.1 3rd Conjugation

To form the future tense of third conjugation verbs, you first find the present stem (which, again, means that you go to the 2nd principal part and chop off the *-re*). For example, the present stem of *regō*, *regere*, *rēxī*, *rectus*, “to rule”, is *rege*.

In the future tense, that final *-e* either remains an *-e* or lengthens to a long *-ē* in all persons and numbers except **1st sg.**, in which it shifts to an *-a*. Then, you tack on the personal ending that you need (using an *-m* rather than *-ō* for the 1st sg. active).

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	regam	regēmus
2nd	regēs	regētis
3rd	reget	regent

Passive

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	regar	regēmur
2nd	regēris	regēminī
3rd	regētur	regentur

Note how similar these forms look to their present tense equivalents; often, one letter makes all the difference. For example:

- **regit**, “she rules” (present tense)
- **reget**, “she will rule” (future tense)
- **regeris**, “you are ruled” (present tense, short -e)
- **regēris**, “you will be ruled” (future tense, long -e)

Make sure to be careful about how the form is spelled!

98.3.2 4th and 3rd -iō Conjugations

In the 4th conjugation, the future tense retains the *-i* in the stem before adding the appropriate *-a* or *-e* and the personal endings. Let’s take *audiō*, *audīre*, *audīvī*, *audītus*, “to hear”, as an example:

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	audiam	audiēmus
2nd	audiēs	audiētis
3rd	audiet	audient

Passive

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	audiar	audiēmur
2nd	audiēris	audiēminī
3rd	audiētur	audientur

The third -iō conjugation, like the fourth conjugation, uses -i- as a stem vowel before adding the appropriate -a or -e and personal endings. So, with *capiō, capere, cēpī, captus*, “to take, seize”, we chop the -re off *capere* (= *cape*) and then change the final -e to -i (= *capi*) before adding the endings:

Active

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	capiam	capiēmus
2nd	capiēs	capiētis
3rd	capiet	cipient

Passive

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	capiar	capiēmur
2nd	capiēris	capiēminī
3rd	capiētur	cipientur

Again, one letter makes the difference between present and future. For example:

- **audit**, “she hears” (present tense)
- **audiet**, “she will hear” (future tense)
- **capimus**, “we take” (present tense)
- **capiēmus**, “we will take” (future tense)
- **audiuntur**, “they are heard” (present tense)
- **audientur**, “they will be heard” (future tense)

Analyze the word carefully in terms of spelling to determine what tense it is!

1. TOC {:toc}
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99 The Perfect Tense

99.1 Conceptual Overview

The **perfect tense** is one of three different past tenses (along with the imperfect and pluperfect) used in Latin. In its usage in the indicative mood, the perfect refers to a singular action that has been completed in the past.

For instance, for the active form of the English verb “to make”, we can translate the Latin perfect as “has/have made”, “did make”, or simply “made.” Similarly, for the passive form of the English verb “to make” (i.e. “to be made”), we can translate the Latin perfect as “has/have been made” or simply “was/were made.”

Below are some English examples where we would use the Latin perfect:

- She has done (*fēcit*) her homework.
- They gave (*dedērunt*) the football players free pizza on Friday.
- The students did write (*scrīpsērunt*) their exams.
- Katie has been asked (*petīta est*) to play Beyonce.

99.2 Perfect Active

Unlike the imperfect, the **perfect active** and **perfect passive** are formed differently. However, in the indicative mood, both are relatively easy to create and recognize.

To form the **perfect active indicative**, we need to find the perfect active stem. To do this, we simply take the 3rd principal part and take away the final *-ī*.

For instance in the verb *videō*, the third principal part is *vīdī* and, thus, our perfect active stem is *vīd*.

Once we have the perfect active stem, forming the perfect active indicative is simple, we just add the personal endings for the perfect to the stem:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-ī	-īmus
2nd	-istī	-istis
3rd	-it	-ērunt/-ēre

NB: There are two endings that can be used for the 3rd personal plural of the perfect active indicative.

So if we wanted to form the 3rd person singular perfect active indicative of *videō*:

vīdī -> *vīd* (perfect active stem) -> (add personal ending) *vīdit*

99.3 Perfect Passive

To form the **perfect passive indicative**, we need to find the perfect passive stem. To do this, we simply take the adjectival form of 4th principal part (the reason we need the adjectival form is because the verb must agree with its subject in number and gender).

For instance in the verb *videō*, the fourth principal part is *vīsus* and thus our perfect passive stem is *vīsus*, *vīsa*, *vīsum*.

To make the perfect passive indicative, we take the perfect passive stem and add the present indicative form of “to be” (*sum*, *esse*, *fui*, *futūrus*) that matches the person and number of the verb. In the case of *videō*, it looks like this:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	<i>vīsus/vīsa/vīsum</i> * <i>sum</i>	<i>vīsi/vīsae/vīsa</i> <i>sumus</i>
2nd	<i>vīsus/vīsa/vīsum</i> <i>es</i>	<i>vīsi/vīsae/vīsa</i> <i>estis</i>
3rd	<i>vīsus/vīsa/vīsum</i> <i>est</i>	<i>vīsi/vīsae/vīsa</i> <i>sunt</i>

NB: Look at how the adjectival form changes as we go from singular to plural. Why does it happen?

1. TOC {;toc}

100 The Pluperfect Tense

100.1 Conceptual Overview

The **pluperfect tense** indicates an action that occurred *prior* to an action in the past. So, we usually translate the pluperfect with the auxiliary verb “**had**”.

- *frātrēs vīdī. eī ex urbe vēnerant.* I saw the brothers. They **had come** out of the city.
- *mea uxor laeta erat. carmen eī cecineram.* My wife was happy. I **had sung** a song for her.

Note the difference between the translation of the **perfect** and the translation of the **pluperfect**. The perfect tense uses “has” or “have”; the pluperfect tense uses “had”. This difference in translation indicates two different time periods, so it’s important to be accurate!

100.2 Pluperfect Active

To form the **pluperfect active indicative**, we begin by taking the perfect stem (the third principal part minus the final -ī) and add the pluperfect active endings. They look *exactly* like the imperfect forms of *sum, esse*:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-eram	-erāmus
2nd	-erās	-erātis
3rd	-erat	-erant

So, if we wanted to form the 3rd person singular pluperfect active indicative of *videō*:

vīdī -> *vīd* (perfect active stem) -> (add personal ending) *vīderat*, “he/she/it had seen”

100.3 Pluperfect Passive

We form the **pluperfect passive indicative** in a manner very similar to that of the perfect passive indicative. We use the 4th principal part as a 2-1-2 adjective that matches the subject in gender, case, and number, and then we conjugate a form of *sum, esse* in the appropriate person and number; in this case, with the pluperfect passive, we will use the **imperfect** forms of *sum*.

For instance, for the verb *videō*:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	<i>vīsus/vīsa/vīsum eram</i>	<i>vīsī/vīsae/vīsa erāmus</i>
2nd	<i>vīsus/vīsa/vīsum erās</i>	<i>vīsī/vīsae/vīsa erātis</i>
3rd	<i>vīsus/vīsa/vīsum erat</i>	<i>vīsī/vīsae/vīsa erant</i>

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101 The Future Perfect Tense

101.1 Conceptual Overview

The **future perfect tense** indicates an action that occurs in the future but *before* an action further in the future. Take a look at this example in English:

- We **will have arrived** before you will wake up. (*The action of our arriving occurs BEFORE the action of your waking up.*)

So, we usually translate the pluperfect with the auxiliary verbs “**will have**”. The “will” part conveys the future part of the tense; the “have” part conveys the perfect part of the tense.

101.2 Future Perfect Active

To form the **future perfect active indicative**, we begin by taking the perfect stem (the third principal part minus the final -ī) and add the future perfect active endings. They look almost exactly like the future forms of *sum*, *esse* EXCEPT for the 3rd plural:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	-erō	-erimus
2nd	-eris	-eritis
3rd	-erit	-erint

So, if we wanted to form the 3rd person plural future perfect active indicative of *regō*:

rexī -> *rex* (perfect active stem) -> (add personal ending) *rexerint*, “they will have ruled”

101.3 Future Perfect Passive

We form the **future perfect passive indicative** in a manner very similar to that of the perfect passive indicative. We use the 4th principal part as a 2-1-2 adjective that matches the subject in gender, case, and number, and then we conjugate a form of *sum*, *esse* in the appropriate person and number; in this case, with the future perfect passive, we will use the **future** forms of *sum*. (Note that we use the normal 3rd pl. form, *erunt*, rather than the -i- present in the future perfect active ending.)

For instance, for the verb *moneō*:

Person	Singular	Plural
1st	monitus/monita/monitum erō	monitī/monitae/monita erimus
2nd	monitus/monita/monitum eris	monitī/monitae/monita eritis
3rd	monitus/monita/monitum erit	monitī/monitae/monita erunt

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1. TOC {toc}

102 Sentence Structures

Translating Latin sentences becomes much easier if you can recognize certain structural patterns that tell us what to expect in a sentence. Key to identifying what structural pattern a sentence follows is the **main verb**. The type of verb that appears in the sentence tells us what other grammatical items we need to fill out the rest of the sentence.

Below you will find a discussion of several very common sentence structures as well as guidelines for how to distinguish them by looking at the verb.

102.1 Intransitive Sentences

Intransitive sentences feature a subject and an **intransitive verb**. An intransitive verb is a verb that expresses an action or state of being, but does not act directly upon an object: for example, sneezing, dancing, running, raining, etc. As a result, an intransitive verb (and, thus, an intransitive sentence) does not take a direct object (on which, see Transitive Sentences below).

Below are some examples of intransitive sentences in Latin and English:

- Puella cucurrit. (“The girl ran.”)
- Timent. (“They are frightened.”)

NB: It might be tempting to think that a sentence like “The girl ran three miles” has a direct object. However, “three miles” is the shortened form of “for three miles”, an adverbial phrase that describes the word “ran.” We’ll learn more about phrases that express concepts of space and time in Module 3.

To summarize, intransitive sentences must have a:

- Subject
- Intransitive active verb

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102.2 Transitive Sentences

Transitive sentences require a **direct object**, in addition to a subject and verb, to complete the meaning of the sentence.

For example, let's consider the verb *facere* ("to make" in English). If I were to say *agricola fēcit* - "the farmer made", the sentence would feel incomplete. You would be thinking, "What is he making? Pizza? Cake? A fence?"

Thus, we need to add a **direct object** to tell us what the farmer was making. In English, we would indicate this by putting what the farmer made immediately after the verb (e.g., "the farmer made pizza"). However, because Latin is an *inflected* language whose word order is highly variable, we can't do this. Rather, Latin indicates that a noun is functioning as a direct object by putting it in the **accusative case**. Thus, the Latin version of the sentence looks like this:

Agricola **pizzam** fēcit.

Head to the noun paradigm charts and adjective paradigm charts to familiarize yourself with the **accusative** endings in the singular and plural of each declension and adjective grouping.

Below are some further examples of transitive sentences with accusative direct objects:

- Pater **filiam** amāvit ("The father loved his daughter.")
- Filii **matrēs** amant. ("The sons love their mother.")
- **Agricolam** uxor iuvābat. ("The wife was helping the farmer.")
- Fortis vir **magnum monstrum** et **terribilem serpentem** pugnābat. ("The brave man is fighting the great monster and the terrible serpent.")

Sometimes, you will want to specify the recipient of the action of the verb. For instance, in the sentence "the farmer gave the girl a pizza", the girl receives the pizza that the farmer gives. Pizza is still the **direct object** - the farmer is giving the pizza (not the girl). In this sentence, the word "girl" is an **indirect object**, the recipient of the action done by the main verb. In Latin, we signal the **indirect object** by using the **dative case**, which we usually translate as "to/for X". So in Latin "the farmer gave the girl a pizza" looks like this:

- Agricola pizzam **puellae** dedit.

Literally, the sentence is "The farmer gave a pizza **to the girl**."

Head to the noun paradigm charts and adjective paradigm charts to familiarize yourself with the **dative** endings in the singular and plural of each declension and adjective grouping.

To summarize, transitive sentences must have a:

- Subject

- Active verb
- Direct object in the accusative

And sometimes have an:

- Indirect object in the dative
-

102.3 Passive Sentences

Passive sentences feature a subject and, unsurprisingly, a **passive** verb. Because the subject of a passive verb is being acted upon, passive sentences do not feature a direct object. Below are some examples of simple passive sentences:

- Puella visa est. (“The girl was seen.”)
- Virī captī sunt. (“The men were captured.”)

Sometimes, passive sentences feature a construction known as the **ablative of agent** which tells us who performed the action of the main verb (since the subject is *receiving* the action of the verb, rather than performing it). We can recognize the **ablative of agent** by the preposition *ā/ab* followed by a noun in the **ablative case**. Below are the examples from above with an ablative of agent:

- Puella **ab matre** visa est. (“The girl was seen by her mother.”)
- Virī **ā fēminīs** captī sunt. (“The men were captured by the women.”)

Head to the noun paradigm charts and adjective paradigm charts to familiarize yourself with the **ablative** endings in the singular and plural of each declension and adjective grouping.

Passive sentences can also feature an **indirect object** in the **dative case** as well. For example, we might see a sentence like the following:

- Pizza **puellae** data est. (“The pizza was given to the girl.”)

To summarize, passive sentences must have a:

- Subject
- Passive verb

And sometimes have an:

- An ablative of agent
 - Indirect object in the dative
-

102.4 Linking Sentences

Linking sentences, which we have already met, require a subject, **linking verb**, and **predicate nominative** which matches the subject in **number** and **case** and, in the case of adjectives as predicate nominatives, **gender**. The most common linking verb in English and Latin is “to be” (*sum, esse, fui, futurus*), though there are other linking verbs we will see throughout the semester. Below are some examples of linking sentences:

- Vir pater est. (“The man is a father.”)
- Puerī magnī et fortēs sunt. (“The boys are strong and brave.”)

In each of the sentences above, note which nominatives are the subjects (*vir, puerī*) and which nominatives are the predicate nominatives (*pater, magnī [et] fortēs*).

To summarize, linking sentences must have a:

- Subject
- Linking verb
- Predicate nominative

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102.5 Tips for Determining Sentence Structure

The most important thing to do when determining sentence structure is to look at the **main verb**. If the verb is passive, we know that the sentence structure is going to be **passive**; if the verb is a linking verb (i.e. a form of *sum*), then we know the sentence structure is going to be **linking**. It is more difficult to differentiate between transitive and intransitive verbs. While some Latin verbs are used only transitively (verbs like “to carry”) and or only intransitively (verbs like “to rain”), a large number of verbs can be used both transitively or intransitively. In these cases, you will want to see if there is a direct object in the accusative case (transitive) or not (intransitive).

103 Most frequent nouns in Hyginus, *Fabulae*

- amor, amoris *m*: love
- annus, anni *m*: year
- aper, apri *m*: wild boar
- aqua, aquae *f*: water
- arbor, arboris *f*: tree
- arma, armorum *n* (*pl* only): arms, weapons
- aurum, auri *n*: gold
- avis, avis *f*: bird
- beneficium, beneficii *n*: s
- canis, canis *m* or *f*: dog
- caput, capitis *n*: head
- conjugium, conjugii *n*: marriage
- conjunx, conjugis *m* or *f*: husband, wife
- corpus, corporis *n*: body
- deus, dei *m*: god
- dies, diei *m*: day
- draco, draconis *m*: serpent, dragon
- dux, ducis *m*: leader
- equus, equi *m*: horse
- femina, feminae *f*: woman
- fides, fidei *f*: faith, trustworthiness
- filia, filiae *f*: daughter
- filius, filii *m*: son
- flumen, fluminis *n*: river
- forma, formae *f*: shape, appearance
- frater, fratris *m*: brother
- fulmen, fulminis *n*: lightning
- gladius, gladii *m*: sword
- homo, hominis *m*: human being
- hospes, hospitis *m*: host, guest

- hospitium, hospitii *n*: *hospitality*
- infans, infantis *m* or *f*: *infant, small child*
- insula, insulae *f*: *island*
- liber, liberi *m*: *child*
- locus, loci *m*: *place*
- ludus, ludi *m*: *play, game*
- mare, maris *n*: *sea*
- mater, matris *f*: *mother*
- mons, montis *m*: *mountain*
- mors, mortis *f*: *death*
- munus, muneris *n*: *work, service, job*
- murus, muri *m*: *city wall*
- navis, navis *f*: *ship*
- nomen, nominis *n*: *name*
- nox, noctis *f*: *night*
- numerus, numeri *m*: *number*
- nutrix, nutricis *f*: *nurse*
- nympa, nympae *f*: *nymph*
- oppidum, oppidi *n*: *town*
- parens, parentis *m*: *parent*
- pars, partis *f*: *part, portion*
- pastor, pastoris *m*: *shepherd*
- pater, patris *m*: *father*
- patria, patriae *f*: *home country*
- pecus, pecoris *n*: *cattle, herd*
- pellis, pellis *f*: *skin, hide*
- pes, pedis *m*: *foot*
- procus, proci *m*: *suitor*
- puer, pueri *m*: *boy*
- regnum, regni *n*: *kingdom*
- res, rei *f*: *thing, matter, affair*
- rex, regis *m*: *king*
- sacerdos, sacerdotis *m* or *f*: *priest, priestess*
- sagitta, sagitta *f*: *arrow*
- sepultura, sepulturae *f*: *burial*
- signum, signi *n*: *sign, token*
- sol, solis *m*: *sun*
- soror, sororis *f*: *sister*

- sors, sortis *f*: *lot, fate*
- stadium, stadii *n*: *stadium*
- taurus, tauri *m*: *bull*
- templum, templi *n*: *temple*
- tempus, temporis *n*: *time*
- terra, terrae *f*: *land, earth*
- uxor, uxoris *f*: *wife*
- vestis, vestis *f*: *clothing*
- vir, viri *m*: *man*
- virgo, virginis *f*: *young woman*
- voluntas, voluntatis *f*: *wish, will*

104 Most frequent adjectives in Hyginus, *Fabulae*

- alius, alia, aliud: *another*
- alter, altera, alterum: *other (of two)*
- ceterus, cetera, ceterum: *the other, the remainder*
- duo, duae, duo (**irregular**): *two*
- idem, eadem, idem: *the same*
- inferus, infera, inferum: *lower*
- liber, libera, liberum: *free*
- magnus, magna, magnum: *great, large*
- mortalis, mortale: *mortal, subject to death*
- multus, multa, multum: *much (sg.), many (pl.)*
- omnis, omnis: *each (sg.), all (pl.)*
- primus, prima, primum: *first*
- regius, regia, regium: *royal, kingly*
- sacer, sacra, sacrum: *holy, sacred*
- septem (*indeclinable*): *seven*
- socius, socia, socium: *allied*
- suus, sua, suum: ******reflexive possessive adjective, *his own, her own*
- tantus, tanta, tantum: *so great*
- unus, una, unum: *a single*

105 Most frequent adverbs in Hyginus, *Fabulae*

- ibi: *there*
- inde: *from there*
- ita: *so*
- item: *likewise, also*
- non: *not*
- postea: *later*
- tunc: *then*

106 Most frequent conjunctions in Hyginus, *Fabulae*

- *atque or ac*: and, and besides, and even
- *autem*: however, nonetheless
- *cum*: when
- *dum*: while
- *et*: and
- *itaque*: and so, accordingly
- *nam*: for
- *neque or nec*: not, and not, also not
- *ne*: *conjunction introducing several kinds of negative clauses*
- *postquam*: after
- *quia*: since
- *quod*: because
- *quoniam*: since
- *sed*: but
- *sive*: or
- *si*: if
- *ubi*: where, when
- *unde*: from where
- *ut*: *conjunction introducing several kinds of subordinate clauses*

107 Exercises

108 Module 1 - Nouns, Adjectives, Pronouns

109 Reading dictionary entries for nouns

Based on the dictionary entry, what declension does each of the following nouns belong to? (To see the correct answer, check Show answer below.)

110 Nominative and genitive forms

Translate the following phrases or sentences into English. Consult your vocabulary for words with which you are unfamiliar and your noun declension charts, pronoun declension charts and adjective declension charts for this module if needed.

Make sure you are translating the correct **case** and **number** for each word. Also, make sure that you are translating adjectives with the words that they modify! (How can you tell? What aspects does an adjective have to match its noun in?)

111 Reading dictionary entries for adjectives

What type of adjective is each of the following?

112 Pronouns - nominative and genitive

Substitute each of the following words with a form of *is*, *ea*, *id* that matches it in **gender**, **case**, and **number**. Each word is either in the nominative or genitive case. Make sure to consult the declension chart of *is*, *ea*, *id*, the general noun declension charts, and your Module 1 vocabulary for help.

113 Module 2 - Verbs

113.1 Conjugation Identification

What conjugation does each of the following verbs belong to?

1. *faciō, facere, fēcī, factus* - to make, do [Click here to toggle the answer](#): 3rd -iō
2. *moneō, monēre, monuī, monitus* - to warn, advise [Click here to toggle the answer](#): 2nd
3. *bibō, bibere, bibī, bibitus* - to drink [Click here to toggle the answer](#): 3rd
4. *iuvō, iuvāre, iūvī, iūtus* - to help [Click here to toggle the answer](#): 1st
5. *veniō, venīre, vēnī, ventus* - to come [Click here to toggle the answer](#): 4th

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113.2 Verb Translation

Translate the following verb forms, given their person, number, tense, voice, and mood.

1. *factum est* - 3rd person singular, perfect, passive, indicative [Click here to toggle the answer](#): it has been done/made
2. *monēt* - 3rd person singular, present, active, indicative [Click here to toggle the answer](#): he warns/advises
3. *bibēbant* - 3rd person plural, imperfect, active, indicative [Click here to toggle the answer](#): they were drinking
4. *iuvātur* - 3rd person singular, present, passive, indicative [Click here to toggle the answer](#): he/she/it is helped

5. *vēnērunt* - 3rd person plural, perfect, active, indicative Click here to toggle the answer: they have come/they came

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113.3 Present Tense

From the dictionary entry, conjugate the verb in the 3rd person plural present indicative active and passive, and then translate the new form.

1. *mittō, mittere, mīsī, missus* - to send Click here to toggle the answer: *mittunt*, “they send” or “they are sending” or “they do send”; *mittuntur*, “they are (being) sent”
2. *videō, vidēre, vīdī, visus* - to see; (passive) to seem Click here to toggle the answer: *vident*, “they see” or “they are seeing” or “they do see”; *videntur*, “they are (being) seen” or “they seem”
3. *dō, dare, dedī, datus* - to give Click here to toggle the answer: *dant*, “they give” or “they are giving” or “they do give”; *dantur*, “they are (being) given”
4. *capiō, capere, cēpī, captus* - to take, seize Click here to toggle the answer: *capiunt*, “they take” or “they are taking” or “they do take”; *capiuntur*, “they are (being) taken”
5. *audiō, audire, audīvī, audītus* - to hear Click here to toggle the answer: *audiunt*, “they hear” or “they are hearing” or “they do hear”; *audiuntur*, “they are (being) heard”

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113.4 Imperfect Tense

Find the present stem and form the 3rd person singular imperfect active and passive for the following verbs.

1. *mittō, mittere, mīsī, missus* - to send Click here to toggle the answer: *mittēbat*, “he/she/it was sending”; *mittēbātur*, “he/she/it was being sent”
2. *videō, vidēre, vīdī, visus* - to see; (passive) to seem Click here to toggle the answer: *vidēbat*, “he/she/it was seeing”; *vidēbātur*, “he/she/it was being seen” or “he/she/it was seeming”

3. *dō, dare, dedī, datus* - to give Click here to toggle the answer: *dābat*, “he/she/it was giving”; *dābātur*, “he/she/it was being given”
4. *capiō, capere, cēpī, captus* - to take, seize Click here to toggle the answer: *capiēbat*, “he/she/it was taking”; *capiēbātur*, “he/she/it was being taken”
5. *audiō, audire, audīvī, audītus* - to hear Click here to toggle the answer: *audiēbat*, “he/she/it was hearing”; *audiēbātur*, “he/she/it was being heard”

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113.5 Future Tense

Form the 3rd person singular future active and passive for the following verbs, and then translate each form.

1. *mittō, mittere, mīsī, missus* - to send Click here to toggle the answer: *mittet*, “he/she/it will send”; *mittētur*, “he/she/it will be sent”
2. *videō, vidēre, vīdī, visus* - to see; (passive) to seem Click here to toggle the answer: *vidēbit*, “he/she/it will see”; *vidēbitur*, “he/she/it will be seen” or “he/she/it will seem”
3. *dō, dare, dedī, datus* - to give Click here to toggle the answer: *dābit*, “he/she/it will give”; *dābitur*, “he/she/it will be given”
4. *capiō, capere, cēpī, captus* - to take, seize Click here to toggle the answer: *capiet*, “he/she/it will take”; *capiētur*, “he/she/it will be taken”
5. *audiō, audire, audīvī, audītus* - to hear Click here to toggle the answer: *audiet*, “he/she/it will hear”; *audiētur*, “he/she/it will be heard”

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113.6 Perfect Active

Form the 3rd person singular perfect active for the following verbs and translate the new form.

1. *mittō, mittere, mīsī, missus* - to send Click here to toggle the answer: *mīsī*, “he/she/it sent” or “he/she/it has sent” or “he/she/it did send”
 2. *videō, vidēre, vīdī, visus* - to see; (passive) to seem Click here to toggle the answer: *vīdī*, “he/she/it saw” or “he/she/it has seen” or “he/she/it did see”
 3. *dō, dare, dedī, datus* - to give Click here to toggle the answer: *dedī*, “he/she/it gave” or “he/she/it has given” or “he/she/it did give”
 4. *capiō, capere, cēpī, captus* - to take, seize Click here to toggle the answer: *cēpī*, “he/she/it took” or “he/she/it has taken” or “he/she/it did take”
 5. *audiō, audīre, audīvī, audītus* - to hear Click here to toggle the answer: *audīvī*, “he/she/it heard” or “he/she/it has heard” or “he/she/it did hear”
-

113.7 Perfect Passive

Form the 3rd person plural perfect passive for the following verbs and translate the new form.

1. *mittō, mittere, mīsī, missus* - to send Click here to toggle the answer: *missī, missae, missa sunt*, “they were sent” or “they have been sent”
2. *videō, vidēre, vīdī, visus* - to see; (passive) to seem Click here to toggle the answer: *visī, visae, visa sunt*, “they were seen” or “they have been seen” OR “they seemed” or “they have seemed”
3. *dō, dare, dedī, datus* - to give Click here to toggle the answer: *datī, datae, data sunt*, “they were given” or “they have been given”
4. *capiō, capere, cēpī, captus* - to take, seize Click here to toggle the answer: *captī, captae, capta sunt*, “they were taken” or “they have been taken”
5. *audiō, audīre, audīvī, audītus* - to hear Click here to toggle the answer: *audītī, audītae, audīta sunt*, “they were heard” or “they have been heard”

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113.8 Accusative and Dative

The following noun-adjective pairs are all in the nominative case and either singular or plural. Change each pairing into the accusative and dative while maintaining the same number using the noun paradigm charts and adjective paradigm charts.

1. *urbs prīma* Click here to toggle the answer: accusative: *urbem prīmam*; dative: *urbī prīmae*
2. *fortis dux* Click here to toggle the answer: accusative: *fortem ducem*; dative: *fortī ducī*
3. *exempla omnia* Click here to toggle the answer: accusative: *exempla omnia*; dative: *exemplīs omnibus*
4. *sapiēns vir* Click here to toggle the answer: accusative: *sapientem virum*; dative: *sapientī virō*

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113.9 Ablative

The following noun-adjective pairs are all in the nominative case and either singular or plural. Change each pairing into the ablative while maintaining the same number using the noun paradigm charts and adjective paradigm charts.

1. *urbēs prīmae* Click here to toggle the answer: *urbibus prīmīs*
2. *fortēs ducēs* Click here to toggle the answer: *fortibus ducibus*
3. *exemplum omne* Click here to toggle the answer: *exemplō omnī*
4. *sapiēntēs virī* Click here to toggle the answer: *sapiēntibus virīs*

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113.10 Sentence Structures

Determine the sentence structure of the following sentences; identify any *nouns* in the accusative, dative, or ablative cases; and translate the sentence.

1. *soror mea tristis est*. Click here to toggle the answer: linking; “My sister is sad.”
2. *pulchra carmina audiēbāmus*. Click here to toggle the answer: transitive; *carmina* = accusative; “We were hearing beautiful songs.”
3. *agricolae ā nostrō duce mittuntur*. Click here to toggle the answer: passive; *duce* = ablative; “The farmers are (being) sent by our leader.”
4. *vēnistis!* Click here to toggle the answer: intransitive; “You (all) have come!”
5. *rex filiō suō potestātem dābit*. Click here to toggle the answer: transitive; *filiō* = dative, *potestātem* = accusative; “The king will give power to his own son.”

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114 Module 3 - Expressions of Place and Time

114.1 Expressions of Place

Identify the bolded expression of place and translate the sentence.

1. **Ex magnā urbe** fēminās movēbant. Click here to toggle the answer: place from which; “They were moving the women away from the great city.”
2. Monstra **centum pedes** alta sunt. Click here to toggle the answer: accusative of extent of space; “The monsters are 100 feet tall.”
3. Rex et rēgīna **ad castra** cucurrerunt. Click here to toggle the answer: place to which; “The king and queen ran towards the camps.”
4. Puerī et puellae **in rēgnō** vīxerunt. Click here to toggle the answer: place where; “The boys and girls lived in the kingdom.”

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114.2 Expressions of Time

Identify the bolded expression of time and translate the sentence.

1. **decimā horā** fēminās ex magnā urbe movēbant. Click here to toggle the answer: time when in the ablative; “At the tenth hour, they were moving the women away from the great city.”
2. Puerī et puellae in rēgnō **septem annōs** vīxerunt. Click here to toggle the answer: length of time in the accusative; “The boys and girls lived in the kingdom for seven years.”

3. Rex et rēgīna ad castra **quattuor horīs** vēnērunt. Click here to toggle the answer: time within which; “The king and queen arrived at the camp within four hours.”

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115 Module 4 - Verbal Nouns and Adjectives

115.1 Present Infinitives

If the present infinitive shown is active, change it to passive and then translate the new form. If the present infinitive shown is passive, change it to active and then translate the new form.

1. dūcere Click here to toggle the answer: dūcī, “to be led”
2. movēre Click here to toggle the answer: movērī, “to be moved”
3. punīrī Click here to toggle the answer: punīre, “to punish”
4. appellāre Click here to toggle the answer: appellārī, “to be called”
5. iacī Click here to toggle the answer: iacere, “to throw”

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115.2 Perfect Infinitives

If the perfect infinitive shown is active, change it to passive (using the masculine nominative singular form of the participle) and then translate the new form. If the perfect infinitive shown is passive, change it to active and then translate the new form.

1. aspexisse Click here to toggle the answer: aspectus esse, “to have been looked at”
2. imperātus esse Click here to toggle the answer: imperāvisse, “to have commanded”
3. implētus esse Click here to toggle the answer: implēvisse, “to have filled”
4. dūxisse Click here to toggle the answer: ductus esse, “to have been led”

5. sensus esse Click here to toggle the answer: sensisse, “to have felt”
-

115.3 Infinitive Uses

Identify whether the bolded infinitive is **subjective** or **complementary** and then translate the sentence.

1. **incipere** est difficile. Click here to toggle the answer: subjective, “To begin is difficult.” OR “It is difficult to begin.”
 2. ille **discēdere** poterit. Click here to toggle the answer: complementary, “That man will be able to depart.”
 3. in hortō **sedēre** licet. Click here to toggle the answer: subjective, “To sit in the garden is allowed.” OR “It is allowed to sit in the garden.”
 4. **docēre** carmina possum. Click here to toggle the answer: complementary, “I can teach the songs.” OR “I am able to teach the songs.”
-

115.4 Gerunds

Produce the genitive gerund for the following verb forms.

1. incipiō, incipere, incēpī, inceptum - to begin Click here to toggle the answer: incipiendī
 2. discēdō, discēdere, discessī, discessurus - to leave, depart Click here to toggle the answer: discēdendī
 3. amō, amāre, amāvī, amātus - to love Click here to toggle the answer: amandī
 4. doceō, docēre, docuī, doctus - to teach Click here to toggle the answer: docendī
-

115.5 Gerund-Replacing Gerundives

Translate the following sentence and phrases that contain GRGs.

1. ad **incipiendum iter** Click here to toggle the answer: for the purpose of beginning a journey
 2. ars **scribendorum librorum** Click here to toggle the answer: the art of writing books
 3. **docendis puellis** parat. Click here to toggle the answer: He prepares by teaching girls.
 4. **reginae iuvandae** gratiā Click here to toggle the answer: for the sake of helping the queen
-

115.6 Gerundives

Determine whether the gerundive is being used as a GRG, verbal adjective, or a part of a passive periphrastic.

1. Puella **docenda** est. Click here to toggle the answer: passive periphrastic (“The girl must be taught.”)
 2. Pueri **docendi** in urbe vixerunt. Click here to toggle the answer: verbal adjective (“The boys who are to be taught lived in the city.”)
 3. **reginae docendae** gratiā venit. Click here to toggle the answer: GRG (“She came for the sake of teaching the queen.”)
-

116 Module 5 - Questions

116.1 Enclitic -ne and Question Words

Translate the following questions.

1. *cūr puellae canēbant?* Click here to toggle the answer: Why were the girls singing?
 2. *vocēsne frātrum tuōrum audīvistī?* Click here to toggle the answer: Did you hear the voices of your brothers?
 3. *vīdēruntne caput regis?* Click here to toggle the answer: Did they see the head of the king?
 4. *unde agricola veniet?* Click here to toggle the answer: From where will the farmer come?
-

116.2 Interrogative Pronoun and Adjective

Determine whether each of the following sentences uses an interrogative **pronoun** or an interrogative **adjective**, and then translate.

1. *Quem vīdistī?* Click here to toggle the answer: pronoun - “Whom did you see?”
 2. *ā quō virō hostēs punientur?* Click here to toggle the answer: adjective - “By which man will the enemies be punished?”
 3. *cui militī dux potestatem dedit?* Click here to toggle the answer: adjective - “To which soldier did the leader give power?”
 4. *Quae dixit?* Click here to toggle the answer: pronoun - “What (things) did he say?”
-

117 Module 6 - Indirect Statement

118 Identifying indirect statement

Identify the verb of the head, the accusative subject, and the infinitive main verb in the indirect statement. Then translate the sentence.

1. Feminae vīdērunt puerum ambulāre ad urbem. Click here to toggle the answer: vīdērunt = verb of head; puerum = accusative subject; ambulāre = infinitive main verb; The women saw that the boy walked to the city.
2. Credidit mē in monte sedere. Click here to toggle the answer: credidit = verb of head; mē = accusative subject; sedere = infinitive main verb; He believed that I sat on the mountain.
3. Dicunt tē militēs vincere. Click here to toggle the answer: dixerunt = verb of head; tē = accusative subject; vincere = infinitive main verb; They say that you are defeating the enemy.

119 Infinitive forms

Select a randomly chosen infinitive form, and identify its *tense* and *voice*.

120 Module 8 - Temporal Clauses

121 Identifying temporal clauses

Translate the following sentences. If the dependent clause has a subjunctive verb, explain its tense.

122 Synopses in the third singular passive

Supply finite forms for the requested tense and mood, keeping all forms in the third person passive, assuming a subject with masculine grammatical gender.

123 Synopses in the third singular active

Supply finite forms for the requested tense and mood, keeping all forms in the third person active.

124 Pronouns, Deponents, and Irregular Verbs - Exercises

125 Reflexive pronouns

Identify the pronoun and state whether it is reflexive or personal in the following sentences.

1. Feminae sibi dona dedērunt. Click here to toggle the answer: sibi; reflexive
 2. Feminae eīs dona dedērunt. Click here to toggle the answer: eīs; personal
 3. Virī ab mē cucurrērunt. Click here to toggle the answer: mē; personal
 4. Nōs iuvāmus. Click here to toggle the answer: nōs; reflexive
 5. Virī nōs iuvāre poterant. Click here to toggle the answer: nōs; personal
-

126 Module 10 - Participles

126.1 Participle Identification

Identify the tense and voice of each of the following participles, and translate each literally.

1. *monitōs* Click here to toggle the answer: perfect passive, “having been warned”
2. *moventī* Click here to toggle the answer: present active, “moving”
3. *punītūra* Click here to toggle the answer: future active, “going/about to punish”
4. *ratus* Click here to toggle the answer: perfect passive (deponent), “having thought”
5. *secutūrī* Click here to toggle the answer: future active, “going/about to follow”
6. *facientia* Click here to toggle the answer: present active, “doing, making”

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126.2 Participle Translation: Relative Clause

Translate the following sentences, rendering the participial phrases with a relative clause.

7. *legēs in librō illō scriptās lēgimus.* Click here to toggle the answer: We read the laws which/that had been written in that book.
 8. *vir pacem nuntiāns epistulam accēpit.* Click here to toggle the answer: The man who was announcing the peace received a letter.
 9. *socium mihi locutūrum vitāre nōn potuī.* (*vitāre*, “to avoid”) Click here to toggle the answer: I was not able to avoid the ally who was about to speak to me.
-

126.3 Participle Translation: Subordinate Clause

Translate the sentences that were in the last practice opportunity, this time with a subordinating conjunction of your choice, like “when”, “because”, “since”, “while” (with present participles), “after” (with perfect participles). Each given answer is just one example of a correct answer.

10. legēs in librō illō scriptās lēgimus. Click here to toggle the answer: We read the laws after they had been written in that book.
 11. vir pacem nuntiāns epistulam accēpit. Click here to toggle the answer: The man, while he was announcing the peace, received a letter.
 12. socium mihi locutūrum vitāre nōn potuī. (vitāre, “to avoid”) Click here to toggle the answer: I was not able to avoid the ally since he was about to speak to me.
-

126.4 Ablative Absolute

Identify the ablative absolute and any words (objects, prepositional phrases, etc.) that belong to it; then translate the sentence. The given translation for each question is just one example of a correct answer.

13. pater epistulīs scriptīs frātrēs mīsit. Click here to toggle the answer: epistulīs scriptīs; “The father sent the brothers after the letters had been written.”
 14. duce mīlitēs eius hortante hostēs veniunt. Click here to toggle the answer: duce mīlitēs eius hortante; “While the leader is exhorting his soldiers, the enemies are coming.”
 15. ad nāvem sapientī sociō nostrō ductī sumus. Click here to toggle the answer: sapientī sociō nostrō; “We were led to the ship because our ally was wise.”
-

127 Module 11 - Relative Clauses

127.1 Identifying Relative Clause Boundaries

Identify the relative clause in the following sentences. Do not translate (unless you're feeling adventurous!).

1. monstra nautās quōrum nāvēs vīdimus terruērunt. (terreō, -ēre, -uī, -itus, to terrify, frighten)
Click here to toggle the answer: quōrum nāvēs vīdimus; The monsters terrified the sailors whose ships we saw.
2. urbs quam regēs regunt septem portās habet. (porta, -ae, f. - gate) Click here to toggle the answer: quam regēs regunt; The city which the kings rule has seven gates.
3. mīles ducibus quī ā flūmine veniunt epistulās dābit. Click here to toggle the answer: quī ā flūmine veniunt; The soldier will give the letters to the leaders who are coming from the river.
4. verba quae mihi dicenda sunt dīcō. Click here to toggle the answer: quae mihi dicenda sunt; I am saying the words that must be said by me.

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127.2 Relative Pronouns

In each of the following English sentences, identify the relative clause, and determine what **case and use** the relative pronoun would be in Latin according to its use within the clause. Do not translate into Latin (unless you feel adventurous!).

5. We were attacked by the sailors who had come from the sea. Click here to toggle the answer: who had come from the sea; nominative, subject; ā nautīs quī ā marī vēnerant petitī sumus.

6. The citizens to whom we gave peace nevertheless did not encourage us. (tamen - nevertheless)
Click here to toggle the answer: to whom we gave peace; dative, indirect object; cīvēs quibus pacem dedimus tamen nōs nōn hortātī sunt.
7. He slept near the river from which my family brought the water. (prope + acc. - near) Click here to toggle the answer: from which my family brought the water; ablative of motion from; prope flūmen ā quō familia mea aquam tulit dormīvit.
8. I don't trust the woman whose husband we recognized. Click here to toggle the answer: whose husband we recognized; genitive of possession; fēminae cuius maritum cognōvimus nōn crēdō.

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127.2.1 Identifying Antecedents

In each of the following sentences, parse the relative pronoun, identify and parse its antecedent, and then translate.

9. mīlitēs verba clamāvērunt quae nōs hortāta sunt. (clamō, -āre, -āvī, -ātus - to shout) Click here to toggle the answer: quae - neut. nom. pl.; verba - neut. acc. pl.; The soldiers shouted words which encouraged us.
10. ā frātre sorōrēs creditae sunt quī hanc epistulam scripsit. Click here to toggle the answer: quī - masc. nom. sg.; frātre - masc. abl. sg.; The sisters were believed by the brother who wrote this letter.
11. rēgina regnum rexit in quō nōmina nostra cognoscuntur. Click here to toggle the answer: quō - neut. abl. sg.; regnum - neut. acc. sg.; The queen ruled the kingdom in which our names are known.
12. illī librī hīs puellīs legendī sunt quae discere volunt. Click here to toggle the answer: quae - fem. nom. pl.; puellīs - fem. dat. pl.; Those books must be read by these girls who want to learn.

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127.3 Relative Clause Identification

Identify whether each of the following sentences uses a **relative clause of characteristic**, a **connecting relative**, or a straightforward **relative clause**. Then, translate.

13. haec est quae id putet. Click here to toggle the answer: relative clause of characteristic; This is the kind of woman who would think this.
14. haec est quae id putat. Click here to toggle the answer: relative clause; This is the woman who thinks this.
15. miles pulcher est. quem cum vidēremus, mirābāmur. Click here to toggle the answer: connecting relative; The soldier is handsome. When we saw him, we marveled.
16. miles est quem mirēmur. Click here to toggle the answer: relative clause of characteristic; The soldier is the kind of man whom we would marvel at.

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128 Module 12 - Expressions of Purpose

128.1 Purpose Clauses

Identify the purpose clause in the following sentences from Hyginus and translate.

1. Ubi Python sensit Latonam fortem esse, sequi coepit ut eam interficeret. Click here to toggle the answer: “ut eam interficeret; When Python understood that Lato was strong, he began to follow her in order to kill her.”
 2. Agenor suos filios misit ut sororem reducerent. Click here to toggle the answer: “ut sororem reducerent; Agenor sent his own sons to bring back their sister.”
 3. At filii eius venerunt ut ad Athamentem transirent. Click here to toggle the answer: “ut ad Athamentem transirent; But his brothers came so that they could cross over to Athamas.”
 4. Alcinous inter eos stetit, ne bellarent. Click here to toggle the answer: “ne bellarent; Alcinous stood between them so that they not go to war.”
-

128.2 Expressions of Purpose

Find the phrase that expresses purpose in the sentence and identify the Latin construction. Then, translate.

1. misit Absyrtum filium cum militibus armatis ad eam persequendam. Click here to toggle the answer: “ad eam persequendam; GRG with preposition; He sent Absyrtus, his son, with armed soldiers to attack her.”

2. Diomedes, Thraciae rex, equos quattuor eius miserunt, qui hostes acribus dentibus peterent. Click here to toggle the answer: “qui hostes acribus dentibus peterent; relative clause of purpose; Diomedes, the king of Thraces, sent his four horses to attack the enemies with their sharp teeth.”
 3. Femina, lectura eius carmina, aquam bibit. Click here to toggle the answer: “lectura eius carmina; future active participle; The woman, about/in order to recite her song, drinks water.”
 4. Telegonus, Ulixis et Circes filius, missus a matre est ut patrem quaereret. Click here to toggle the answer: “ut genitorem quaereret; purpose clause; Telegonus, the son of Odysseus and Circe, was sent by his mother to find his father.”
 5. Repetitum eos profectus est. Click here to toggle the answer: “repetitum eos; supine; He set out to find them.”
-

129 Module 13 - Result Clauses

129.1 Result Clauses

Find the result clause and then translate the sentence.

1. Tantis laudibus honorata est ut Apollinem in certamen provocaret. Click here to toggle the answer: “ut Apollinem in certamen provocaret; She was honored with such great praise that she challenged Apollo to a contest.”
 2. Haec tantam vim veneni habuit ut afflatu homines necaret. Click here to toggle the answer: “ut afflatu homines necaret; She had so much strength that she killed men with her breath.”
 3. Flumen ita increvit ut nullus homo id transire posset. Click here to toggle the answer: “ut nullus homo id transire posset; The river grew to such a degree that no man was able to cross it.”
 4. Multa falsa rumor addebat ut paene bellum perfectum esse videretur. Click here to toggle the answer: “ut paene bellum perfectum videretur; Rumor added many false reports such that it seemed that the war was nearly over.”
-

130 Module 14 - Causal and Concessive Clauses

130.1 Causal Clauses

Identify the Latin word that we would translate causally in each sentence. Then translate the sentence.

1. Irata est quia sola ausa fuit Herculis sacrum aedificare. Click here to toggle the answer: “quia; She was angry because she alone dared to build an altar for Hercules.”
 2. Sed quod pecus Solis erat violatum, Iovis navem eius fulmine incendit. Click here to toggle the answer: “quod; But because the cattle of the Sun had been violated, Jupiter burned the ship with his lightning bolt.”
 3. Apollo autem, quod liberaliter ab Adrasto esset acceptus, aprum et leonem ei tradidit. Click here to toggle the answer: “quod; Apollo, however, because, to his mind, he had been received kindly, gave him a boar and lion.”
 4. Longius prosequi veritus, ad Ciceronem pervenit. Click here to toggle the answer: “veritus (the participle is causal); Because he was afraid to follow further, he approached Cicero.”
 5. Cum femina eius maritum amaret, ad castrum, quod tunc in agro erat, pervenit. Click here to toggle the answer: “cum (the quod is a relative pronoun referring to castrum); Because she loved her husband, she arrived at the camp, which was then in the field.”
-

130.2 Concessive Clauses

Find the concessive clause and then translate the sentence.

1. Quamquam Romani fessi erant, tamen hostes oppugnaverunt. Click here to toggle the answer: “quamquam Romani fessi erant; Although the Romans were tired, they nevertheless attacked the enemies.”
 2. Quamvis sit magna exspectatio, eam vinces. Click here to toggle the answer: “quamvis sit magna exspectatio; Although the expectation is great, you will surpass (lit. conquer) it.”
 3. Cum te semper amaverim, hodie meliori amore amo. Click here to toggle the answer: “cum te semper amaverim; Although I have always loved you, today I love you today with a greater love.”
 4. Licet meliora carmina femina scribat, tamen ad ludos vir delectus est. Click here to toggle the answer: “Licet meliora carmina femina scribat; Although the woman writes better poetry, a man was chosen for the games.”
-

131 Module 15 - Proviso and Fear Clauses

131.1 Subordinate Clauses

Identify the type(s) of subordinate clause in the following sentences and, then, translate.

1. Cum Agamemnon et Menelaus, Atrei filii, ad Troiam oppugnandam duces ducerent, in insulam Ithacam ad Ulixem, Laertis filium, venerunt. Click here to toggle the answer: “circumstantial cum clause; When Agamenon and Menelaus were leading the (other) leader to besiege Troy, they came to the island of Ithaca to Ulysses, the son of Laertes.”
 2. Tempestas eos ira Dianae retinebat, quod Agamemnon in venando cervam eius violavit. Click here to toggle the answer: “causal clause (from point of view of author) with quod; A storm was retaining them on account of the wrath of Diana because Agamemnon harmed her deer in a hunt.”
 3. Tunc Clytaemnestra cum Aegistho, filio Thyestis, cepit consilium ut Agamemnonem et Cassandram interficeret. Click here to toggle the answer: “purpose clause with ut; Then Clytaemnestra took up a plan with Aegisthus, the son of Thyestes, to kill Agamenon and Cassandra.”
 4. Dummodo Latinam linguam legat, magna poeta erit. Click here to toggle the answer: “proviso clause with dummodo; Provided that she reads the Latin language, she will be a great poet.”
-

131.2 Subordinate Clauses 2

Identify the type(s) of subordinate clause in the following sentences and, then, translate.

1. Verita est ne discordia ex ea re nasceretur. Click here to toggle the answer: “fear clause introduced by verita est ne; She was fearful that discord would be borne from this circumstance.”

2. Interim Atreus mittit Agamemnonem et Menelaum filios ad quaerendum Thyestem, qui tunc ad Delphos ibant. [Click here to toggle the answer:](#) “relative clause; Meanwhile Atreus sent Agamemnon and Menelaus, his sons, to find Thyestes, who was, then, going to Delphi.”
 3. Minos, cuius filius Androgeus in pugna erat occisus, cum Atheniensibus belligeravit. [Click here to toggle the answer:](#) “relative clause; Minos, whose son Androgeius had been killed in battle, fought with the Athenians.”
 4. Iovis fecit ut septem aetates viveret. [Click here to toggle the answer:](#) “result clause; Jupiter made it so that he lived for seven lifetimes.”
-

132 Module 16 - Indirect Questions

132.1 Indirect Questions

Identify all the constituent parts of the indirect questions in the sentence below and translate.

1. quaerebant ab rege quis donum ei dedisset. Click here to toggle the answer: “quaerebant = verb of the head, quis = interrogative (and subject), dedisset = subjunctive verb; They were asking the king who had given the gift to him.”
 2. dubitabant ubi regina aurum posuisset. Click here to toggle the answer: “dubitabant = verb of the head, ubi = interrogative, regina = subject, posuisset = subjunctive verb; They were unsure when the queen had put the gold.”
 3. Cur Cicero carmina scribere velit exponam. Click here to toggle the answer: “exponam = verb of the head, cur = interrogative, Cicero = subject, velit = subjunctive verb; I will explain why Cicero wants to write poetry.”
-

133 Module 17 - Optative and Potential

133.1 Independent Uses of the Subjunctive

Determine whether the following sentences contain a deliberative, optative, or potential subjunctive, and then translate.

1. *utinam nē vincantur!* Click here to toggle the answer: optative: “If only they wouldn’t be conquered!”
2. *quid facerem?* Click here to toggle the answer: deliberative: “What should I have done?”
3. *mīles domum nōn eat.* Click here to toggle the answer: potential: “The soldier may not go home.”
4. *agricolae omnēs discēdere forsitan incipiant.* Click here to toggle the answer: potential: “Perhaps all the farmers might begin to depart.”
5. *utinam is monstrum interfēcisset!* Click here to toggle the answer: optative: “If only he had killed the monster!”
6. *quid putem?* Click here to toggle the answer: deliberative: “What should I think?”

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134 Module 18 - Orders

134.1 Imperatives and Negative Prohibition

Translate the following sentences.

1. illōs librōs ad mē ferte! Click here to toggle the answer: Bring those books to me!
 2. cum patientiā rege! (patientia, -ae, f. - “patience”) Click here to toggle the answer: Rule with patience!
 3. nolī eōs aspicere! Click here to toggle the answer: Don’t watch them!
 4. meam vocem audī! (vox, vocis, f. - “voice”) Click here to toggle the answer: Hear my voice!
 5. haec nē dīxerīs! Click here to toggle the answer: Don’t say these things!
-

134.2 Jussive and Hortatory Subjunctive

Identify whether the sentence contains a jussive or a hortatory subjunctive, and then translate.

1. ad nōs veniat. Click here to toggle the answer: jussive; “Let him come to us.”
 2. hortēmur milītēs nostrōs. Click here to toggle the answer: hortatory; “Let us encourage our soldiers.”
 3. ā cīvibus omnibus videāmur. Click here to toggle the answer: hortatory; “Let us be seen by all the citizens.”
 4. pulchra carmina canant. Click here to toggle the answer: jussive; “Let them sing beautiful songs.”
-

134.3 Indirect Commands

Translate the following indirect commands.

1. pater mē monēbat ut discederem. [Click here to toggle the answer:](#) My father was advising me to depart.
2. dux eīs imperat nē ab hostibus currant. [Click here to toggle the answer:](#) The leader ordered them not to run away from the enemies.
3. magister discipulōs hortātus est ut cautē legerent. (cautē (adv.) - “carefully”) [Click here to toggle the answer:](#) The teacher encouraged the students to read carefully.

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135 Module 19 - Conditions

135.1 Indicative Conditions

Identify the type of condition contained in each of the following sentences and translate.

1. tē nōn vidēbimus nisi in domō manēbis. Click here to toggle the answer: future more vivid / future simple: “We will not see you unless you (will) remain in the house.” / “We will not see you if you do / will not remain in the house.”
2. sī illud dīxit, mentītus est. (mentior, -īrī, -ītus sum - to lie) Click here to toggle the answer: past simple: “If he said that, he lied.”
3. ea canere vult sī carmina discere potest. Click here to toggle the answer: present simple: “She wants to sing if she can learn the songs.”

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135.2 Subjunctive Conditions

Identify the type of condition in each of the following sentences and translate.

4. nostrī mīlitēs hostem vicissent sī eī acrēs fuissent. Click here to toggle the answer: past contrary-to-fact: “Our soldiers would have defeated the enemy if they had been fierce.”
 5. nostrī mīlitēs hostem vincant sī eī acrēs sint. Click here to toggle the answer: future less vivid: “Our soldiers would conquer the enemy if they should be fierce.”
 6. nostrī mīlitēs hostem vincerent sī eī acrēs essent. Click here to toggle the answer: present contrary-to-fact: “Our soldiers would conquer the enemy if they were fierce.”
-

136 Module 20 - Adjective and Adverb Degrees

136.1 Comparative Adjectives

Form the comparative of the given adjective in the given gender, case, and number.

1. pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum - neuter genitive plural [Click here to toggle the answer: pulchriorum](#)
 2. ferox, ferocis - feminine accusative singular [Click here to toggle the answer: ferociorem](#)
 3. facilis, facile - masculine nominative plural [Click here to toggle the answer: faciliorēs](#)
 4. celer, celeris, celere - neuter accusative plural [Click here to toggle the answer: celeriora](#)
-

136.2 *Quam* and Ablative of Comparison

If a comparison is made with *quam*, rewrite the *quam* phrase as an ablative of comparison, and vice versa. Then translate.

1. hostēs nostrī ferociorēs quam nōs erant. [Click here to toggle the answer: quam nōs > nōbīs](#);
“Our enemies were fiercer than we.”
 2. frātrēs dīcunt matrem nostram sapientiore patre esse. [Click here to toggle the answer: patre > quam patrem](#); “(My) brothers say that our mother is wiser than (our) father.”
 3. mīlitibus victīs, iter longius proeliō fēcimus. (proelium, -ī, n. - “battle”) [Click here to toggle the answer: After the soldiers were defeated, we made a journey longer than the battle.](#)
-

136.3 Superlative Adjectives

Form the superlative of the given adjective in the given gender, case, and number.

1. longus, longa, longum - neuter genitive plural [Click here to toggle the answer](#): longissimōrum
 2. ferox, ferocis - feminine ablative singular [Click here to toggle the answer](#): ferocissimā
 3. fortis, forte - masculine dative plural [Click here to toggle the answer](#): fortissimīs
-

136.4 Irregular Adjectives

Identify the degree of each adjective in the following sentences and translate.

1. mater nostra cēnam maximam quam vīdimus parāvit. [Click here to toggle the answer](#): maximam - superlative; "Our mother prepared the biggest dinner that we have seen."
 2. carmen novum eius pēius priōre est. [Click here to toggle the answer](#): novum - positive; pēius and priōre - comparative; "His new song is worse than the previous one."
 3. puella cui rōsam dedī simillima mihi erat. [Click here to toggle the answer](#): simillima - superlative; "The girl to whom I gave a rose was most similar to me."
-

136.5 Adverb Degree

Identify the degree of each adverb in the following sentences and translate.

1. cum ferōcius pugnārēmus, tamen victī sumus. [Click here to toggle the answer](#): ferōcius - comparative; tamen - positive; "Although we fought more fiercely, nevertheless we were conquered."
2. rex epistulam celerrimē scripsit. [Click here to toggle the answer](#): celerrimē - superlative; "The king wrote the letter very/most quickly."
3. illum magnopere amō. utinam mē amet! [Click here to toggle the answer](#): magnopere - positive; "I love that man greatly. If only he would love me!"

4. carmina haec facile didicistī. Click here to toggle the answer: facile - positive; “You learned these songs easily.”

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138 Nouns - Paradigms

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138.1 First Declension

138.1.1 *puella, puellae, f. - girl*

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	puella	puellae
Genitive	puellae	puellārum
Dative	puellae	puellīs
Accusative	puellam	puellās
Ablative	puellā	puellīs

138.2 Second Declension Masculine

138.2.1 *maritus, maritī, m. - husband*

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	maritus	maritī
Genitive	maritī	maritōrum

Case	Singular	Plural
Dative	marit ō	marit īs
Accusative	marit um	marit ōs
Ablative	marit ō	marit īs

138.2.2 *ager, agrī, m.* - field

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	ager	agr ī
Genitive	agr ī	agr ōrum
Dative	agr ō	agr īs
Accusative	agr um	agr ōs
Ablative	agr ō	agr īs

138.3 Second Declension Neuter

138.3.1 *exemplum, exemplī, n.* - example

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	exempl um	exempl a
Genitive	exempl ī	exempl ōrum
Dative	exempl ō	exempl īs
Accusative	exempl um	exempl a
Ablative	exempl ō	exempl īs

138.4 Third Declension Masculine/Feminine

138.4.1 *mater, matris, f.* - mother

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	māter*	mātrēs
Genitive	mātrīs	mātrum
Dative	mātrī	mātribus
Accusative	mātrēm	mātrēs
Ablative	mātre	mātribus

* Nominative forms of third declension nouns are highly variable; there is no one set or common ending.

138.5 Third Declension Masculine/Feminine i-stem

138.5.1 *urbs, urbis, f.* - city

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	urbs*	urbēs
Genitive	urbis	urbium**
Dative	urbī	urbibus
Accusative	urbem	urbēs
Ablative	urbe	urbibus

* Nominative forms of third declension nouns are highly variable; there is no one set or common ending. ** Note the extra i in the genitive plural ending: *-ium*, rather than simply *-um*.

138.6 Third Declension Neuter

138.6.1 *nōmen, nōminis, n.* - name

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	nōmen [*]	nōmina
Genitive	nōminis	nōminum
Dative	nōminī	nōminibus
Accusative	nōmen ^{**}	nōmina ^{**}
Ablative	nōmine	nōminibus

* Nominative forms of third declension nouns are highly variable; there is no one set or common ending. ** The accusative forms of all **neuter** nouns, adjectives, and pronouns exactly match their nominative counterparts within the same number (e.g., neuter accusative singular = neuter nominative singular).

138.7 Third Declension Neuter i-stem

138.7.1 *mare, maris, n.* - sea

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	mare [*]	maria ^{***}
Genitive	maris	marium ^{***}
Dative	marī	maribus
Accusative	mare ^{**}	maria ^{***}
Ablative	marī ^{***}	maribus

* Nominative forms of third declension nouns are highly variable; there is no one set or common ending. ** The accusative forms of all **neuter** nouns, adjectives, and pronouns exactly match their nominative counterparts within the same number (e.g., neuter accusative singular = neuter nominative singular). *** Note the replacement of the normal ablative singular ending -e with -ī and the extra i in

the endings of the nominative, genitive, and accusative plurals.

138.8 Fourth Declension Masculine/Feminine

138.8.1 *manus, manūs, f.* - hand

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	man us	man ūs
Genitive	man ūs	man uum
Dative	man uī	man ibus
Accusative	man um	man ūs
Ablative	man ū	man ibus

138.9 Fourth Declension Neuter

138.9.1 *genū, genūs, n.* - knee

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	gen ū	gen ua
Genitive	gen ūs	gen uum
Dative	gen ū	gen ibus
Accusative	gen ū	gen ua
Ablative	gen ū	gen ibus

138.10 Fifth Declension Masculine/Feminine

138.10.1 *rēs, reī, f.* - thing, matter, situation, affair

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	rēs	rēs
Genitive	reī	rērum
Dative	reī	rēbus
Accusative	rem	rēs
Ablative	rē	rēbus

138.10.2 *diēs, diēī, m.* - day

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	diēs	diēs
Genitive	diēī	diērum
Dative	diēī	diēbus
Accusative	diem	diēs
Ablative	diē	diēbus

139 Adjectives - Paradigms

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139.1 2-1-2 adjectives

139.1.1 *bonus, bona, bonum* - good

Singular

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	bonus	bona	bonum
Genitive	bonī	bonae	bonī
Dative	bonō	bonae	bonō
Accusative	bonum	bonam	bonum
Ablative	bonō	bonā	bonō

Plural

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	bonī	bonae	bona
Genitive	bonōrum	bonārum	bonōrum
Dative	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs
Accusative	bonōs	bonās	bona
Ablative	bonīs	bonīs	bonīs

139.1.2 *pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum* - beautiful, handsome

Singular

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	pulcher	pulchra	pulchrum
Genitive	pulchrī	pulchrae	pulchrī
Dative	pulchrō	pulchrae	pulchrō
Accusative	pulchrum	pulchram	pulchrum
Ablative	pulchrō	pulchrā	pulchrō

Plural

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	pulchrī	pulchrae	pulchra
Genitive	pulchrōrum	pulchrārum	pulchrōrum
Dative	pulchrīs	pulchrīs	pulchrīs
Accusative	pulchrōs	pulchrās	pulchra
Ablative	pulchrīs	pulchrīs	pulchrīs

139.2 2-1-2 - īus adjectives

139.2.1 *nullus, nulla, nullum* - no, none

Singular

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	nullus*	nulla	nullum**
Genitive	nullīus	nullīus	nullīus

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Dative	nullī	nullī	nullī
Accusative	nullum	nullam	nullum
Ablative	nullō	nullā	nullō

* Some masculine nominative singulars of -īus adjectives end in -r (e.g., *alter*, *altera*, *alterum*). ** Some neuter nominative singulars of -īus adjectives end in -d (e.g., *alius*, *alia*, *aliud*).

Plural

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	nullī	nullae	nulla
Genitive	nullōrum	nullārum	nullōrum
Dative	nullīs	nullīs	nullīs
Accusative	nullōs	nullās	nulla
Ablative	nullīs	nullīs	nullīs

139.3 Three-Termination Adjectives

139.3.1 ācer, ācris, ācre - keen, sharp

Singular

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	ācer	ācris	ācre
Genitive	ācris	ācris	ācris
Dative	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī
Accusative	ācrem	ācrem	ācre
Ablative	ācrī	ācrī	ācrī

Plural

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	ācrēs	ācrēs	ācria
Genitive	ācrium	ācrium	ācrium
Dative	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus
Accusative	ācrēs	ācrēs	ācria
Ablative	ācribus	ācribus	ācribus

139.4 Two-Termination Adjectives**139.4.1 fortis, forte - strong, brave****Singular**

Case	M./F.	Neuter
Nominative	fortis	forte
Genitive	fortis	fortis
Dative	fortī	fortī
Accusative	fortem	forte
Ablative	fortī	fortī

Plural

Case	M./F.	Neuter
Nominative	fortēs	fortia
Genitive	fortium	fortium
Dative	fortibus	fortibus
Accusative	fortēs	fortia

Case	M./F.	Neuter
Ablative	fort ibus	fort ibus

139.5 One-Termination Adjectives

139.5.1 *sapiēns, sapientis* - wise

Singular

Case	M./F.	Neuter
Nominative	sapiēns	sapiēns
Genitive	sapient is	sapient is
Dative	sapient ī	sapient ī
Accusative	sapient em	sapiēns*
Ablative	sapient ī	sapient ī

* The accusative forms of all **neuter** nouns, adjectives, and pronouns exactly match their nominative counterparts within the same number (e.g., neuter accusative singular = neuter nominative singular).

Plural

Case	M./F.	Neuter
Nominative	sapient ēs	sapient ia
Genitive	sapient ium	sapient ium
Dative	sapient ibus	sapient ibus
Accusative	sapient ēs	sapient ia
Ablative	sapient ibus	sapient ibus

139.6 Interrogative

139.6.1 *quī, quae, quod* - which? what?

Singular

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	quī	quae	quod
Genitive	cuius	cuius	cuius
Dative	cui	cui	cui
Accusative	quem	quam	quod
Ablative	quō	quā	quō

Plural

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	quī	quae	quae
Genitive	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
Dative	quibus	quibus	quibus
Accusative	quōs	quās	quae
Ablative	quibus	quibus	quibus

139.7 Declinable Numerals

139.7.1 *ūnus, -a, -um* - one

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	ūnus	ūna	ūnum
Genitive	ūnīus	ūnīus	ūnīus
Dative	ūnī	ūnī	ūnī
Accusative	ūnum	ūnam	ūnum
Ablative	ūnō	ūnā	ūnō

139.7.2 *duo, duae, duo* - two

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	duo	duae	duo
Genitive	duōrum	duārum	duōrum
Dative	duōbus	duābus	duōbus
Accusative	duōs	duās	duo
Ablative	duōbus	duābus	duōbus

139.7.3 *trēs, tria* - three

Case	M./F.	Neuter
Nominative	trēs	tria
Genitive	trium	trium
Dative	tribus	tribus
Accusative	trēs	tria
Ablative	tribus	tribus

140 Pronouns - Paradigms

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140.1 Demonstratives

Note that demonstrative pronouns can also modify nouns and thus serve as demonstrative *adjectives*.

140.1.1 *hic, haec, hoc* - this, these

Singular

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	hic	haec	hoc
Genitive	huius	huius	huius
Dative	huic	huic	huic
Accusative	hunc	hanc	hoc
Ablative	hōc	hāc	hōc

Plural

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	hī	hae	haec
Genitive	hōrum	hārum	hōrum

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Dative	hīs	hīs	hīs
Accusative	hōs	hās	haec
Ablative	hīs	hīs	hīs

140.1.2 *ille, illa, illud* - that, those

Singular

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	ille	illa	illud
Genitive	illīus	illīus	illīus
Dative	illī	illī	illī
Accusative	illum	illam	illud
Ablative	illō	illā	illō

Plural

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	illī	illae	illa
Genitive	illōrum	illārum	illōrum
Dative	illīs	illīs	illīs
Accusative	illōs	illās	illa
Ablative	illīs	illīs	illīs

140.2 Intensives

Note that intensive pronouns can also modify nouns and thus serve as intensive *adjectives*.

140.2.1 *ipse, ipsa, ipsum* - the very ____, ____self**Singular**

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	ipse	ipsa	ipsum
Genitive	ipsīus	ipsīus	ipsīus
Dative	ipsī	ipsī	ipsī
Accusative	ipsum	ipsam	ipsum
Ablative	ipsō	ipsā	ipsō

Plural

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	ipsī	ipsae	ipsa
Genitive	ipsōrum	ipsārum	ipsōrum
Dative	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs
Accusative	ipsōs	ipsās	ipsa
Ablative	ipsīs	ipsīs	ipsīs

140.3 Personal**140.3.1 *is, ea, id* - he, she, it, they (3rd person)**

Note that the 3rd person personal pronoun can also modify nouns and thus serve as a demonstrative *adjective*; this demonstrative has a more general force and doesn't indicate distance from the speaker in the way that *hic* or *ille* do.

Singular

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	is	ea	id
Genitive	eius	eius	eius
Dative	eī	eī	eī
Accusative	eum	eam	id
Ablative	eō	eā	eō

Plural

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	eī / īī	eae	ea
Genitive	eōrum	eārum	eōrum
Dative	eīs	eīs	eīs
Accusative	eōs	eās	ea
Ablative	eīs	eīs	eīs

140.3.2 ego - I, me, we, us (1st person)

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	ego	nōs
Genitive	meī	nostrum / nostrī
Dative	mihi	nōbīs
Accusative	mē	nōs
Ablative	mē	nōbīs

140.3.3 tū - you, you all (2nd person)

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	tū	vōs
Genitive	tuī	vestrum / vestrī
Dative	tibi	vōbīs
Accusative	tē	vōs
Ablative	tē	vōbīs

140.4 Reflexive

140.4.1 1st person (myself, ourselves)

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	—	—
Genitive	meī	nostrum / nostrī
Dative	mihi	nōbīs
Accusative	mē	nōs
Ablative	mē	nōbīs

140.4.2 2nd person (yourself, yourselves)

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	—	—
Genitive	tuī	vestrum / vestrī
Dative	tibi	vōbīs
Accusative	tē	vōs
Ablative	tē	vōbīs

140.4.3 3rd person (himself, herself, itself, themselves)

Case	Sing./Pl.
Nominative	—
Genitive	suī
Dative	sibi
Accusative	sē
Ablative	sē

140.5 Interrogative

140.5.1 *quis, quid* - who? which? what?

Singular

Case	M/F	N
Nominative	quis	quid
Genitive	cuius	cuius
Dative	cui	cui
Accusative	quem	quid
Ablative	quō	quō

Plural

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	quī	quae	quae
Genitive	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
Dative	quibus	quibus	quibus

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Accusative	quōs	quās	quae
Ablative	quibus	quibus	quibus

140.6 Relative

140.6.1 *quī, quae, quod* - who, which, that

Singular

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	quī	quae	quod
Genitive	cuius	cuius	cuius
Dative	cui	cui	cui
Accusative	quem	quam	quod
Ablative	quō	quā	quō

Plural

Case	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
Nominative	quī	quae	quae
Genitive	quōrum	quārum	quōrum
Dative	quibus	quibus	quibus
Accusative	quōs	quās	quae
Ablative	quibus	quibus	quibus

141 Regular Verbs - Paradigms

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Paradigm Verbs:

- 1st Conjugation: *amō, amāre, amāvī, amātus* - to love
 - 2nd Conjugation: *moneō, monēre, monuī, monitus* - to warn, advise
 - 3rd Conjugation: *regō, regere, rexī, rectus* - to rule
 - 3rd -iō Conjugation: *capiō, capere, cēpī, captus* - to take, seize
 - 4th Conjugation: *audiō, audire, audīvī, audītus* - to hear
-

141.1 Indicative - Active

141.1.1 Present Active Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	am ō	mone ō	reg ō	capi ō	audi ō
2nd sg.	amā s	monē s	regi s	capi s	audi s
3rd sg.	amat t	monet t	regit t	capit t	audit t
1st pl.	amā mus	monē mus	regi mus	capim us	audi mus
2nd pl.	amā tis	monēt is	regit is	capit is	audi tis
3rd pl.	amant t	monent t	regunt t	capiunt t	audiunt t

141.1.2 Imperfect Active Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amā bam	monē bam	regē bam	capiē bam	audiē bam
2nd sg.	amā bās	monē bās	regē bās	capiē bās	audiē bās
3rd sg.	amā bat	monē bat	regē bat	capiē bat	audiē bat
1st pl.	amā bāmus	monē bāmus	regē bāmus	capiē bāmus	audiē bāmus
2nd pl.	amā bātis	monē bātis	regē bātis	capiē bātis	audiē bātis
3rd pl.	amā bant	monē bant	regē bant	capiē bant	audiē bant

141.1.3 Future Active Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amā bō	monē bō	reg am	capi am	audi am
2nd sg.	amā bis	monē bis	regē s	capiē s	audiē s
3rd sg.	amā bit	monē bit	reget	capiet	audiet
1st pl.	amā bimus	monē bimus	regē mus	capiē mus	audiē mus
2nd pl.	amā bitis	monē bitis	regēt is	capiēt is	audiēt is
3rd pl.	amā bunt	monē bunt	regent	capient	audient

141.1.4 Perfect Active Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amāv ī	monu ī	rex ī	cēp ī	audīv ī
2nd sg.	amāv istī	monu istī	rexi stī	cēpi stī	audīv istī
3rd sg.	amāv it	monu it	rexi t	cēpi t	audīv it
1st pl.	amāv imus	monu imus	rexi mus	cēpi mus	audīv imus
2nd pl.	amāv istis	monu istis	rexi stis	cēpi stis	audīv istis
3rd pl.	amāv ērunt	monu ērunt	rexi ērunt	cēpi ērunt	audīv ērunt

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
3rd pl. alt.	amāv ēre	monu ēre	rex ēre	cēp ēre	audīv ēre

141.1.5 Pluperfect Active Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amāv eram	monu eram	rex eram	cēp eram	audīv eram
2nd sg.	amāv erās	monu erās	rex erās	cēp erās	audīv erās
3rd sg.	amāv erat	monu erat	rex erat	cēp erat	audīv erat
1st pl.	amāv erāmus	monu erāmus	rex erāmus	cēp erāmus	audīv erāmus
2nd pl.	amāv erātis	monu erātis	rex erātis	cēp erātis	audīv erātis
3rd pl.	amāv erant	monu erant	rex erant	cēp erant	audīv erant

141.1.6 Future Perfect Active Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amāv erō	monu erō	rex erō	cēp erō	audīv erō
2nd sg.	amāv eris	monu eris	rex eris	cēp eris	audīv eris
3rd sg.	amāv erit	monu erit	rex erit	cēp erit	audīv erit
1st pl.	amāv erimus	monu erimus	rex erimus	cēp erimus	audīv erimus
2nd pl.	amāv eritis	monu eritis	rex eritis	cēp eritis	audīv eritis
3rd pl.	amāv erint	monu erint	rex erint	cēp erint	audīv erint

141.2 Indicative - Passive

141.2.1 Present Passive Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amor	moneor	regor	capior	audior
2nd sg.	amāris	monēris	regeris	caperis	audīris
3rd sg.	amātur	monētur	regitur	capitur	audītur
1st pl.	amāmur	monēmur	regimur	capimur	audīmur
2nd pl.	amāminī	monēminī	regiminī	capiminī	audīminī
3rd pl.	amantur	monentur	reguntur	capiuntur	audiuntur

141.2.2 Imperfect Passive Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amābar	monēbar	regēbar	capiēbar	audiēbar
2nd sg.	amābāris	monēbāris	regēbāris	capiēbāris	audiēbāris
3rd sg.	amābātur	monēbātur	regēbātur	capiēbātur	audiēbātur
1st pl.	amābāmur	monēbāmur	regēbāmur	capiēbāmur	audiēbāmur
2nd pl.	amābāminī	monēbāminī	regēbāminī	capiēbāminī	audiēbāminī
3rd pl.	amābantur	monēbantur	regēbantur	capiēbantur	audiēbantur

141.2.3 Future Passive Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amābor	monēbor	regar	capiar	audiar
2nd sg.	amāberis	monēberis	regēris	capiēris	audiēris
3rd sg.	amābitur	monēbitur	regētur	capiētur	audiētur
1st pl.	amābimur	monēbimur	regēmur	capiēmur	audiēmur
2nd pl.	amābiminī	monēbiminī	regēminī	capiēminī	audiēminī
3rd pl.	amābuntur	monēbuntur	regentur	capientur	audientur

141.2.4 Perfect Passive Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amātus, -a, -um sum	monitus, -a, -um sum	rectus, -a, -um sum	captus, -a, -um sum	audītus, -a, -um sum
2nd sg.	amātus, -a, -um es	monitus, -a, -um es	rectus, -a, -um es	captus, -a, -um es	audītus, -a, -um es
3rd sg.	amātus, -a, -um est	monitus, -a, -um est	rectus, -a, -um est	captus, -a, -um est	audītus, -a, -um est
1st pl.	amātī, -ae, -a sumus	monitī, -ae, -a sumus	rectī, -ae, -a sumus	captī, -ae, -a sumus	audītī, -ae, -a sumus
2nd pl.	amātī, -ae, -a estis	monitī, -ae, -a estis	rectī, -ae, -a estis	captī, -ae, -a estis	audītī, -ae, -a estis
3rd pl.	amātī, -ae, -a sunt	monitī, -ae, -a sunt	rectī, -ae, -a sunt	captī, -ae, -a sunt	audītī, -ae, -a sunt

141.2.5 Pluperfect Passive Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amātus, -a, -um eram	monitus, -a, -um eram	rectus, -a, -um eram	captus, -a, -um eram	audītus, -a, -um eram
2nd sg.	amātus, -a, -um erās	monitus, -a, -um erās	rectus, -a, -um erās	captus, -a, -um erās	audītus, -a, -um erās
3rd sg.	amātus, -a, -um erat	monitus, -a, -um erat	rectus, -a, -um erat	captus, -a, -um erat	audītus, -a, -um erat
1st pl.	amātī, -ae, -a erāmus	monitī, -ae, -a erāmus	rectī, -ae, -a erāmus	captī, -ae, -a erāmus	audītī, -ae, -a erāmus
2nd pl.	amātī, -ae, -a erātis	monitī, -ae, -a erātis	rectī, -ae, -a erātis	captī, -ae, -a erātis	audītī, -ae, -a erātis
3rd pl.	amātī, -ae, -a erant	monitī, -ae, -a erant	rectī, -ae, -a erant	captī, -ae, -a erant	audītī, -ae, -a erant

141.2.6 Future Perfect Passive Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amātus, -a, -um erō	monitus, -a, -um erō	rectus, -a, -um erō	captus, -a, -um erō	audītus, -a, -um erō
2nd sg.	amātus, -a, -um eris	monitus, -a, -um eris	rectus, -a, -um eris	captus, -a, -um eris	audītus, -a, -um eris
3rd sg.	amātus, -a, -um erit	monitus, -a, -um erit	rectus, -a, -um erit	captus, -a, -um erit	audītus, -a, -um erit
1st pl.	amātī, -ae, -a erimus	monitī, -ae, -a erimus	rectī, -ae, -a erimus	captī, -ae, -a erimus	audītī, -ae, -a erimus
2nd pl.	amātī, -ae, -a eritis	monitī, -ae, -a eritis	rectī, -ae, -a eritis	captī, -ae, -a eritis	audītī, -ae, -a eritis
3rd pl.	amātī, -ae, -a erunt	monitī, -ae, -a erunt	rectī, -ae, -a erunt	captī, -ae, -a erunt	audītī, -ae, -a erunt

141.3 Subjunctive - Active

141.3.1 Present Active Subjunctive

Stem vowel changes are included in the bolded endings.

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	am em	mone eam	reg am	capi am	audi am
2nd sg.	am ēs	mone eās	reg ās	capi ās	audi ās
3rd sg.	am et	mone eat	reg at	capi at	audi at
1st pl.	am ēmus	mone eāmus	reg āmus	capi āmus	audi āmus
2nd pl.	am ētis	mone eātis	reg ātis	capi ātis	audi ātis
3rd pl.	am ent	mone eant	reg ant	capi ant	audi ant

141.3.2 Imperfect Active Subjunctive

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amārem	monērem	regerem	caperem	audīrem
2nd sg.	amārēs	monērēs	regerēs	caperēs	audīrēs
3rd sg.	amāret	monēret	regeret	caperet	audīret
1st pl.	amārēmus	monērēmus	regerēmus	caperēmus	audīrēmus
2nd pl.	amārētis	monērētis	regerētis	caperētis	audīrētis
3rd pl.	amārent	monērent	regerent	caperent	audīrent

141.3.3 Perfect Active Subjunctive

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amāverim	monuerim	rexerim	cēperim	audīverim
2nd sg.	amāverīs	monuerīs	rexerīs	cēperīs	audīverīs
3rd sg.	amāverit	monuerit	rexerit	cēperit	audīverit
1st pl.	amāverīmus	monuerīmus	rexerīmus	cēperīmus	audīverīmus
2nd pl.	amāverītis	monuerītis	rexerītis	cēperītis	audīverītis
3rd pl.	amāverint	monuerint	rexerint	cēperint	audīverint

141.3.4 Pluperfect Active Subjunctive

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amāvissem	monuisssem	rexissem	cēpisssem	audīvissem
2nd sg.	amāvissēs	monuissēs	rexissēs	cēpissēs	audīvissēs
3rd sg.	amāvisset	monuisset	rexisset	cēpisset	audīvisset
1st pl.	amāvissēmus	monuissēmus	rexissēmus	cēpissēmus	audīvissēmus
2nd pl.	amāvissētis	monuissētis	rexissētis	cēpissētis	audīvissētis

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
3rd pl.	amāv issent	monu issent	rex issent	cēp issent	audīv issent

141.4 Subjunctive - Passive

141.4.1 Present Passive Subjunctive

Stem vowel changes are included in the bolded endings.

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amer ar	monear ar	regar ar	capiar ar	audiar ar
2nd sg.	amēris is	moneāris is	regāris is	capiāris is	audiāris is
3rd sg.	amētur ur	moneātur ur	regātur ur	capiātur ur	audiātur ur
1st pl.	amēmur ur	moneāmur ur	regāmur ur	capiāmur ur	audiāmur ur
2nd pl.	amēmini ī	moneāmini ī	regāmini ī	capiāmini ī	audiāmini ī
3rd pl.	amentur ur	moneantur ur	regantur ur	capiantur ur	audiantur ur

141.4.2 Imperfect Passive Subjunctive

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amārer ar	monērer ar	regerer ar	caperer ar	audīrer ar
2nd sg.	amārēris is	monērē*ris is **	regerēris is	caperēris is	audīrēris is
3rd sg.	amārētur ur	monērētur ur	regerētur ur	caperētur ur	audīrētur ur
1st pl.	amārēmur ur	monērēmur ur	regerēmur ur	caperēmur ur	audīrēmur ur
2nd pl.	amārēmini ī	monērēmini ī	regerēmini ī	caperēmini ī	audīrēmini ī
3rd pl.	amārentur ur	monērentur ur	regerentur ur	caperentur ur	audīrentur ur

141.4.3 Perfect Passive Subjunctive

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amātus, -a, -um sim	monitus, -a, -um sim	rectus, -a, -um sim	captus, -a, -um sim	audītus, -a, -um sim
2nd sg.	amātus, -a, -um sīs	monitus, -a, -um sīs	rectus, -a, -um sīs	captus, -a, -um sīs	audītus, -a, -um sīs
3rd sg.	amātus, -a, -um sit	monitus, -a, -um sit	rectus, -a, -um sit	captus, -a, -um sit	audītus, -a, -um sit
1st pl.	amātī, -ae, -a sīmus	monitī, -ae, -a sīmus	rectī, -ae, -a sīmus	captī, -ae, -a sīmus	audītī, -ae, -a sīmus
2nd pl.	amātī, -ae, -a sītis	monitī, -ae, -a sītis	rectī, -ae, -a sītis	captī, -ae, -a sītis	audītī, -ae, -a sītis
3rd pl.	amātī, -ae, -a sint	monitī, -ae, -a sint	rectī, -ae, -a sint	captī, -ae, -a sint	audītī, -ae, -a sint

141.4.4 Pluperfect Passive Subjunctive

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	amātus, -a, -um essem	monitus, -a, -um essem	rectus, -a, -um essem	captus, -a, -um essem	audītus, -a, -um essem
2nd sg.	amātus, -a, -um essēs	monitus, -a, -um essēs	rectus, -a, -um essēs	captus, -a, -um essēs	audītus, -a, -um essēs
3rd sg.	amātus, -a, -um esset	monitus, -a, -um esset	rectus, -a, -um esset	captus, -a, -um esset	audītus, -a, -um esset
1st pl.	amātī, -ae, -a essēmus	monitī, -ae, -a essēmus	rectī, -ae, -a essēmus	captī, -ae, -a essēmus	audītī, -ae, -a essēmus
2nd pl.	amātī, -ae, -a essētis	monitī, -ae, -a essētis	rectī, -ae, -a essētis	captī, -ae, -a essētis	audītī, -ae, -a essētis
3rd pl.	amātī, -ae, -a essent	monitī, -ae, -a essent	rectī, -ae, -a essent	captī, -ae, -a essent	audītī, -ae, -a essent

141.5 Infinitives

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
Pres. Act.	amāre	monēre	regere	capere	audire
Pres. Pass.	amārī	monērī	regī	capī	audīrī
Perf. Act.	amāvisse	monuisse	rexisse	cēpisse	audīvisse
Perf. Pass.	amātus esse	monitus esse	rectus esse	captus esse	audītus esse
Fut. Act.	amātūrus esse	monitūrus esse	rectūrus esse	captūrus esse	audītūrus esse
Fut. Pass.	amātum irī	monitum irī	rectum irī	captum irī	audītum irī

141.6 Gerunds and Gerundives

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
Gerund	amandūm	monendūm	regendūm	capiendūm	audiendūm
Gerundive	amandus, -a, -um	monendus, -a, -um	regendus, -a, -um	capiendus, -a, -um	audiendus, -a, -um

142 Irregular Verbs - Paradigms

- TOC {;toc}

Paradigm Verbs:

- sum, esse, fuī, futūrus - to be
 - eō, īre, īvī/īī, ītus - to go
 - ferō, ferre, tūlī, lātus - to bear, carry
 - volō, velle, voluī - to want, wish
 - nōlō, nolle, noluī - not to want
 - mālō, malle, maluī - to prefer
-

142.1 Indicative - Active

142.1.1 Present Active Indicative

	sum	eō	ferō	volō	nōlō	mālō
1st sg.	sum	eō	ferō	volō	nōlō	mālō
2nd sg.	es	īs	fers	vīs	nōn vīs	māvis
3rd sg.	est	it	fert	vult	nōn vult	māvult
1st pl.	sumus	īmus	ferimus	volumus	nolumus	mālumus
2nd pl.	estis	ītis	fertis	vultis	nōn vultis	māvultis
3rd pl.	sunt	eunt	ferunt	volunt	nōlunt	mālunt

142.1.2 Imperfect Active Indicative

	sum	eō	ferō	volō	nōlō	mālō
1st sg.	eram	ībam	ferēbam	volēbam	nōlēbam	mālēbam
2nd sg.	erās	ībās	ferēbās	volēbās	nōlēbās	mālēbās
3rd sg.	erat	ībat	ferēbat	volēbat	nōlēbat	mālēbat
1st pl.	erāmus	ībāmus	ferēbāmus	volēbāmus	nōlēbāmus	mālēbāmus
2nd pl.	erātis	ībātis	ferēbātis	volēbātis	nōlēbātis	mālēbātis
3rd pl.	erant	ībant	ferēbant	volēbant	nōlēbant	mālēbant

142.1.3 Future Active Indicative

	sum	eō	ferō	volō	nōlō	mālō
1st sg.	erō	ībō	feram	volam	nōlam	mālam
2nd sg.	eris	ībis	ferēs	volēs	nōlēs	mālēs
3rd sg.	erit	ībit	feret	volet	nōlet	mālet
1st pl.	erimus	ībimus	ferēmus	volēmus	nōlēmus	mālēmus
2nd pl.	eritis	ībitis	ferētis	volētis	nōlētis	mālētis
3rd pl.	erunt	ībunt	ferent	volent	nōlent	mālent

142.1.4 Perfect Active Indicative

	sum	eō	ferō	volō	nōlō	mālō
1st sg.	fuī	īvī or īī	tulī	voluī	nōluī	māluī
2nd sg.	fuistī	īstī	tulistī	voluistī	nōluistī	māluistī
3rd sg.	fuit	iit	tulit	voluit	nōluit	māluit
1st pl.	fui mus	iim us	tulim us	voluim us	nōluim us	māluim us
2nd pl.	fui stis	īstis	tulistis	voluistis	nōluistis	māluistis
3rd pl.	fuē runt	iē runt	tulē runt	voluē runt	nōluē runt	māluē runt

	sum	eō	ferō	volō	nōlō	mālō
3rd pl. alt.	fuēre	īere	tulēre	voluēre	nōluēre	māluēre

142.1.5 Pluperfect Active Indicative

	sum	eō	ferō	volō	nōlō	mālō
1st sg.	fueram	ieram	tuleram	volueram	nōlueram	mālueram
2nd sg.	fuerās	ierās	tulerās	voluerās	nōluerās	māluerās
3rd sg.	fuerat	ierat	tulerat	voluerat	nōluerat	māluerat
1st pl.	fuerāmus	ierāmus	tulerāmus	voluerāmus	nōluerāmus	māluerāmus
2nd pl.	fuerātis	ierātis	tulerātis	voluerātis	nōluerātis	māluerātis
3rd pl.	fuerant	ierant	tulerant	voluerant	nōluerant	māluerant

142.1.6 Future Perfect Active Indicative

	sum	eō	ferō	volō	nōlō	mālō
1st sg.	fuerō	ierō	tulerō	voluerō	nōluerō	māluerō
2nd sg.	fueris	ieris	tuleris	volueris	nōlueris	mālueris
3rd sg.	fuerit	ierit	tulerit	voluerit	nōluerit	māluerit
1st pl.	fuerimus	ierimus	tulerimus	voluerimus	nōluerimus	māluerimus
2nd pl.	fueritis	ieritis	tuleritis	volueritis	nōlueritis	mālueritis
3rd pl.	fuerint	ierint	tulerint	voluerint	nōluerint	māluerint

142.2 Indicative - Passive (ferō)

142.2.1 Present Passive Indicative

	Singular	Plural
1st	feror	ferimur
2nd	ferris	feriminī
3rd	fertur	feruntur

142.2.2 Imperfect Passive Indicative

	Singular	Plural
1st	ferēbar	ferēbāmur
2nd	ferēbāris	ferēbāminī
3rd	ferēbātur	ferēbantur

142.2.3 Future Passive Indicative

	Singular	Plural
1st	ferar	ferēmur
2nd	ferēris	ferēminī
3rd	ferētur	ferentur

142.2.4 Perfect Passive Indicative

	Singular	Plural
1st	lātus, -a, -um sum	lātī, -ae, -a sumus
2nd	lātus, -a, -um es	lātī, -ae, -a estis
3rd	lātus, -a, -um est	lātī, -ae, -a sunt

142.2.5 Pluperfect Passive Indicative

	Singular	Plural
1st	lātus, -a, -um eram	lātī, -ae, -a erāmus
2nd	lātus, -a, -um erās	lātī, -ae, -a erātis
3rd	lātus, -a, -um erat	lātī, -ae, -a erant

142.2.6 Future Perfect Passive Indicative

	Singular	Plural
1st	lātus, -a, -um erō	lātī, -ae, -a erimus
2nd	lātus, -a, -um eris	lātī, -ae, -a eritis
3rd	lātus, -a, -um erit	lātī, -ae, -a erunt

142.3 Subjunctive - Active

142.3.1 Present Active Subjunctive

	sum	eō	ferō	volō	nōlō	mālō
1st sg.	sim	eam	feram	velim	nōlim	mālim
2nd sg.	sīs	eās	ferās	velīs	nōlīs	mālīs
3rd sg.	sit	eat	ferat	velit	nōlit	mālit
1st pl.	sīmus	eāmus	ferāmus	velīmus	nōlīmus	mālīmus
2nd pl.	sītis	eātis	ferātis	velītis	nōlītis	mālītis
3rd pl.	sint	eant	ferant	velint	nōlint	mālint

142.3.2 Imperfect Active Subjunctive

	sum	eō	ferō	volō	nōlō	mālō
1st sg.	essem	īrem	ferrem	vellem	nōllem	māllem
2nd sg.	essēs	īrēs	ferrēs	vellēs	nōllēs	māllēs
3rd sg.	esset	īret	ferret	vellet	nōllet	māllet
1st pl.	essēmus	īrēmus	ferrēmus	vellēmus	nōllēmus	māllēmus
2nd pl.	essētis	īrētis	ferrētis	vellētis	nōllētis	māllētis
3rd pl.	essent	īrent	ferrent	vellent	nōllent	māllent

142.3.3 Perfect Active Subjunctive

	sum	eō	ferō	volō	nōlō	mālō
1st sg.	fuerim	ierim	tulerim	voluerim	nōluerim	māluerim
2nd sg.	fuerīs	ierīs	tulerīs	voluerīs	nōluerīs	māluerīs
3rd sg.	fuerit	ierit	tulerit	voluerit	nōluerit	māluerit
1st pl.	fuerīmus	ierīmus	tulerīmus	voluerīmus	nōluerīmus	māluerīmus
2nd pl.	fuerītis	ierītis	tulerītis	voluerītis	nōluerītis	māluerītis
3rd pl.	fuerint	ierint	tulerint	voluerint	nōluerint	māluerint

142.3.4 Pluperfect Active Subjunctive

	sum	eō	ferō	volō	nōlō	mālō
1st sg.	fuissem	īssēm	tulissem	voluissem	nōluissem	māluissem
2nd sg.	fuiſsēs	īssēs	tulissēs	voluissēs	nōluissēs	māluissēs
3rd sg.	fuiſset	īſset	tulisset	voluisset	nōluisset	māluisset
1st pl.	fuiſſēmūs	īſſēmūs	tulissēmūs	voluissēmūs	nōluissēmūs	māluissēmūs
2nd pl.	fuiſsētis	īſsētis	tulissētis	voluissētis	nōluissētis	māluissētis
3rd pl.	fuiſſent	īſſent	tulissent	voluissent	nōluissent	māluissent

142.4 Subjunctive - Passive (ferō)

142.4.1 Present Passive Subjunctive

	Singular	Plural
1st	ferar	ferāmur
2nd	ferāris	ferāminī
3rd	ferātur	ferantur

142.4.2 Imperfect Passive Subjunctive

	Singular	Plural
1st	ferrer	ferrēmur
2nd	ferrēris	ferrēminī
3rd	ferrētur	ferrentur

142.4.3 Perfect Passive Subjunctive

	Singular	Plural
1st	lātus, -a, -um sīm	lātī, -ae, -a sīmus
2nd	lātus, -a, -um sīs	lātī, -ae, -a sītis
3rd	lātus, -a, -um sit	lātī, -ae, -a sint

142.4.4 Pluperfect Passive Subjunctive

	Singular	Plural
1st	lātus, -a, -um essem	lātī, -ae, -a essēmus
2nd	lātus, -a, -um essēs	lātī, -ae, -a essētis
3rd	lātus, -a, -um esset	lātī, -ae, -a essent

142.5 Infinitives

	sum	eō	ferō	volō	nōlō
Pres. Act.	esse	īre	ferre	velle	nolle
Pres. Pass.			ferrī		
Perf. Act.	fuisse	īsse	tulisse	voluisse	nōluisse
Perf. Pass.			lātus esse		
Fut. Act.	futūrus esse / fōre	itūrus esse	lātūrus esse		
Fut. Pass.			lātum īrī		

142.6 Gerunds and Gerundives

	eō	ferō
Gerund	eundum	ferendum
Gerundive	eundus, -a, -um	ferendus, -a, -um

143 Deponent Verbs - Paradigms

- TOC {;toc}

Paradigm Verbs:

- 1st Conjugation: *hortor, hortārī, hortātus sum* - to exhort, encourage
 - 2nd Conjugation: *vereor, verērī, veritus sum* - to fear
 - 3rd Conjugation: *loquor, loquī, locutus sum* - to speak
 - 3rd -iō Conjugation: *morior, morī, mortuus sum* - to die
 - 4th Conjugation: *potior, potīrī, potītus sum* - to gain possession of
-

143.1 Indicative - Passive (Deponent)

143.1.1 Present Passive Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	hortor	vereor	loquor	morior	potior
2nd sg.	hortāris	verēris	loqueris	moreris	potīris
3rd sg.	hortātur	verētur	loquitur	moritur	potītur
1st pl.	hortāmur	verēmur	loquimur	morimur	potīmur
2nd pl.	hortāminī	verēminī	loquiminī	moriminī	potīminī
3rd pl.	hortantur	verentur	loquuntur	moriuntur	potiuntur

143.1.2 Imperfect Passive Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	hortā bar	verē bar	loquē bar	moriē bar	potiē bar
2nd sg.	hortā bāris	verē bāris	loquē bāris	moriē bāris	potiē bāris
3rd sg.	hortā bātur	verē bātur	loquē bātur	moriē bātur	potiē bātur
1st pl.	hortā bāmur	verē bāmur	loquē bāmur	moriē bāmur	potiē bāmur
2nd pl.	hortā bāminī	verē bāminī	loquē bāminī	moriē bāminī	potiē bāminī
3rd pl.	hortā bantur	verē bantur	loquē bantur	moriē bantur	potiē bantur

143.1.3 Future Passive Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	hortā bor	verē bor	loquar	moriar	potiar
2nd sg.	hortā beris	verē beris	loquē ris	moriē ris	potiē ris
3rd sg.	hortā bitur	verē bitur	loquē tur	moriē tur	potiē tur
1st pl.	hortā bimur	verē bimur	loquē mur	moriē mur	potiē mur
2nd pl.	hortā biminī	verē biminī	loquē minī	moriē minī	potiē minī
3rd pl.	hortā buntur	verē buntur	loquē ntur	moriē ntur	potiē ntur

143.1.4 Perfect Passive Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	hortātus, -a, -um sum	veritus, -a, -um sum	locutus, -a, -um sum	mortuus, -a, -um sum	potītus, -a, -um sum
2nd sg.	hortātus, -a, -um es	veritus, -a, -um es	locutus, -a, -um es	mortuus, -a, -um es	potītus, -a, -um es
3rd sg.	hortātus, -a, -um est	veritus, -a, -um est	locutus, -a, -um est	mortuus, -a, -um est	potītus, -a, -um est

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a sumus	veritī, -ae, -a sumus	locutī, -ae, -a sumus	mortuī, -ae, -a sumus	potītī, -ae, -a sumus
2nd pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a estis	veritī, -ae, -a estis	locutī, -ae, -a estis	mortuī, -ae, -a estis	potītī, -ae, -a estis
3rd pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a sunt	veritī, -ae, -a sunt	locutī, -ae, -a sunt	mortuī, -ae, -a sunt	potītī, -ae, -a sunt

143.1.5 Pluperfect Passive Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	hortātus, -a, -um eram	veritus, -a, -um eram	locutus, -a, -um eram	mortuus, -a, -um eram	potītus, -a, -um eram
2nd sg.	hortātus, -a, -um erās	veritus, -a, -um erās	locutus, -a, -um erās	mortuus, -a, -um erās	potītus, -a, -um erās
3rd sg.	hortātus, -a, -um erat	veritus, -a, -um erat	locutus, -a, -um erat	mortuus, -a, -um erat	potītus, -a, -um erat
1st pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a erāmus	veritī, -ae, -a erāmus	locutī, -ae, -a erāmus	mortuī, -ae, -a erāmus	potītī, -ae, -a erāmus
2nd pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a erātis	veritī, -ae, -a erātis	locutī, -ae, -a erātis	mortuī, -ae, -a erātis	potītī, -ae, -a erātis
3rd pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a erant	veritī, -ae, -a erant	locutī, -ae, -a erant	mortuī, -ae, -a erant	potītī, -ae, -a erant

143.1.6 Future Perfect Passive Indicative

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	hortātus, -a, -um erō	veritus, -a, -um erō	locutus, -a, -um erō	mortuus, -a, -um erō	potītus, -a, -um erō
2nd sg.	hortātus, -a, -um eris	veritus, -a, -um eris	locutus, -a, -um eris	mortuus, -a, -um eris	potītus, -a, -um eris

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
3rd sg.	hortātus, -a, -um erit	veritus, -a, -um erit	locutus, -a, -um erit	mortuus, -a, -um erit	potītus, -a, -um erit
1st pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a erimus	veritī, -ae, -a erimus	locutī, -ae, -a erimus	mortuī, -ae, -a erimus	potītī, -ae, -a erimus
2nd pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a eritis	veritī, -ae, -a eritis	locutī, -ae, -a eritis	mortuī, -ae, -a eritis	potītī, -ae, -a eritis
3rd pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a erunt	veritī, -ae, -a erunt	locutī, -ae, -a erunt	mortuī, -ae, -a erunt	potītī, -ae, -a erunt

143.2 Subjunctive - Passive (Deponent)

143.2.1 Present Passive Subjunctive

Stem vowel changes are included in the bolded endings.

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	hort er	ver ear	loqu ar	mori ar	poti ar
2nd sg.	hort ēris	ver eāris	loqu āris	mori iāris	poti iāris
3rd sg.	hort ētur	ver eātur	loqu ātur	mori iātur	poti iātur
1st pl.	hort ēmur	ver eāmur	loqu āmur	mori iāmur	poti iāmur
2nd pl.	hort ēminī	ver eāminī	loqu āminī	mori iāminī	poti iāminī
3rd pl.	hort entur	ver eantur	loqu antur	mori iantur	poti iantur

143.2.2 Imperfect Passive Subjunctive

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	hortārer	verērer	loquerer	morerer	potīrer
2nd sg.	hortārēris	verērēris	loquerēris	morerēris	potirēris
3rd sg.	hortārētur	verērētur	loquerētur	morerētur	potirētur
1st pl.	hortārēmur	verērēmur	loquerēmur	morerēmur	potirēmur
2nd pl.	hortārēminī	verērēminī	loquerēminī	morerēminī	potirēminī
3rd pl.	hortārentur	verērentur	loquerentur	morerentur	potirentur

143.2.3 Perfect Passive Subjunctive

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	hortātus, -a, -um sim	veritus, -a, -um sim	locutus, -a, -um sim	mortuus, -a, -um sim	potītus, -a, -um sim
2nd sg.	hortātus, -a, -um sīs	veritus, -a, -um sīs	locutus, -a, -um sīs	mortuus, -a, -um sīs	potītus, -a, -um sīs
3rd sg.	hortātus, -a, -um sit	veritus, -a, -um sit	locutus, -a, -um sit	mortuus, -a, -um sit	potītus, -a, -um sit
1st pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a sīmus	veritī, -ae, -a sīmus	locutī, -ae, -a sīmus	mortuī, -ae, -a sīmus	potītī, -ae, -a sīmus
2nd pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a sītis	veritī, -ae, -a sītis	locutī, -ae, -a sītis	mortuī, -ae, -a sītis	potītī, -ae, -a sītis
3rd pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a sint	veritī, -ae, -a sint	locutī, -ae, -a sint	mortuī, -ae, -a sint	potītī, -ae, -a sint

143.2.4 Pluperfect Passive Subjunctive

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
1st sg.	hortātus, -a, -um essem	veritus, -a, -um essem	locutus, -a, -um essem	mortuus, -a, -um essem	potītus, -a, -um essem

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
2nd sg.	hortātus, -a, -um essēs	veritus, -a, -um essēs	locutus, -a, -um essēs	mortuus, -a, -um essēs	potītus, -a, -um essēs
3rd sg.	hortātus, -a, -um esset	veritus, -a, -um esset	locutus, -a, -um esset	mortuus, -a, -um esset	potītus, -a, -um esset
1st pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a essēmus	veritī, -ae, -a essēmus	locutī, -ae, -a essēmus	mortuī, -ae, -a essēmus	potītī, -ae, -a essēmus
2nd pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a essētis	veritī, -ae, -a essētis	locutī, -ae, -a essētis	mortuī, -ae, -a essētis	potītī, -ae, -a essētis
3rd pl.	hortātī, -ae, -a essent	veritī, -ae, -a essent	locutī, -ae, -a essent	mortuī, -ae, -a essent	potītī, -ae, -a essent

143.3 Infinitives

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
Pres. Pass.	hortārī	verērī	loquī	morī	potīrī
Perf. Pass.	hortātus esse	veritus esse	locutus esse	mortuus esse	potītus esse
Fut. Act.	hortātūrus esse	veritūrus esse	locutūrus esse	mortuūrus esse	potītūrus esse

143.4 Gerunds and Gerundives

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
Gerund	hort andum	ver endum	loqu endum	mori endum	poti endum

	1st	2nd	3rd	3rd -iō	4th
Gerundive	hort andus , -a, -um	ver endus, -a, -um	loqu endus , -a, -um	mori endus , -a, -um	poti endus, -a, -um
