Lingua Latina Legenda: an open-source introduction to Latin

Daniel Libatique, Dominic Machado, Neel Smith

September 1, 2022

Contents

1 About this textbook

The current on-line version of this textbook is simultaneously being drafted and used in Latin 101 at the College of the Holy Cross in 2022-2023.

Units presenting basic features of the Latin language are intended to take about 4 weeks of a college course.

The draft of this material that was used in 2021-2022 is included at https://lingualatina.github.io/textbook/2021-2022/.

2 Preliminaries

2.1 Alphabet and pronounciation

Latin is a historical language. Although it has never been lost, and has been used continuously for thousands of years, it has survived as a language we must learn as a second language: for many centuries, there have been no native speakers of Latin. In different parts of the world today, scholars use different conventions for pronouncing Latin. Italians pronounce Latin like Italian, Germans pronounce Latin like German, and the British pronounciation of Latin is hard even to describe.

Americans generally adopt a pronouncation (presented here) that reflects our knowledge of how individual letters and combinations of letter were pronounced, but we should not imagine that we can accurately reproduce the accent of a speaker of classical Latin.

2.2 The classical Latin alphabet: a quick guide

Our alphabet derives directly from the classical Latin alphabet, and has the same letters in the same order, except that classical Latin did not have J, V or W. Instead the letters I and U were used to write both pure vowel sounds and a semi-vowel or consonant. In addition, in the classical period, K, Y and Z were used only to spell words borrowed from Greek.

2.2.1 Consonant sounds

Consonants were mostly pronounced as in modern English, with the following notes:

- C and G are always “hard” (like “cut” and “go”, never like “cease” or “gyrate”).
- S is always unvoiced (like “cease”), never a z-sound (like “ease”)
- when I spelled a consonant sound, it was pronounced like English “y”
- when U spelled a consonant sound, it was pronounced like English “w”
- the double consonant PH came to be pronounced like F

2.2.2 Vowels

The five vowels a, e, i, o and u have "pure" sounds, without any glide, any approximately:

Vowel	English example of sound	Latin word to practice
A	aha	*mater*, "mother"
E	deck	*terra*, "earth"
I	see	*hic*, "he, this person"
O	no	*homo*, "person, human being"
U	do	*factum*, "deed, accomplishment"

Vowels could be long or short; as in a modern language like German, the long version of the vowel was literally held for a longer time than the short version.

Two vowels together could be pronounced as a single *diphthong*: these originally sounded like the two vowels pronounced successively but blending the first into the second.

Try pronouncing the following diphthongs in these Latin words, taken from Hyginus *Fabulae*:

Diphthong	Latin word
ae	*quaero*, "I seek"
au	*autem*, "however"
ei	*Deianira*, a wife of Hercules
eu	*Theseus*, an Athenian hero
oe	*poena*, "penalty, punishment"
ui	*fluit*, "it flows"

2.2.3 Orthography

Like the inscriptions and papyri surviving from the classical period, many Latin manuscripts and printed editions of Latin texts use only I and U. Others use I for both vocalic and consontal sounds, but distinguish U and V. Still others use I, J, U and V. Long and short vowels were not distinguished in writing.

In this text book, when we introduce forms and new vocabulary, we will sometimes include long and short marks on vowels, but when we cite passages of Hyginus, we will normally write vowels without quantity mark,

and will use only I and U (not J and V) .

2.3 Syllables and accent

2.3.1 Syllables and their quantity

Latin words have as many syllables as there are vowels or diphthongs: *Her-cu-les poe-na, quae-ro*.

A syllable is **long** if:

1. it has a long vowel or a diphthong, (e.g., the first syllable of *Rō-ma* is long)
2. *or* a short vowel is followed by a cluster of two consonants, (e.g, the first syllable of *Her-cu-les* is long because the *e* is followed by two consonants, *rc*)
3. *except* that the cluster is **short** if the cluster is *l* or *r* following one of : *b, d, g, p, t, c,* or the combination *ph* (e.g., the first syllable of *pă-tris* is short because the cluster after a short vowel is *t* followed by *r*).

Other syllables with short vowels are **short** (e.g., the second syllable of *Her-cŭ-les* is short).

2.3.2 Accent

Every Latin word with more than one syllable had a stress accent on either the next to last syllable (sometimes called the **penult**), or the one before it (the **antepenult**). The placement of the accent depends on whether the next to last syllable is long or short. If the penult is long, then it is accented; otherwise, the syllable before it is accented. Examples:

- *a-mī-cus*, "friend," has a long penult: pronounce it *amícus*.
- *Her-cŭ-les* has a short penult: pronounce it *Hércules*

If a word has only two syllables, the penult is accented no matter what:

- pronounce *căp-ŭt*, "head" as *cáput*.

3 Inflection of verbs, nouns, pronouns, and adjectives

In Unit 1, we will look at how inflection works in the Latin language. We begin by with the concept of an inflected language and detailing how Latin's use of inflection differs from English' use of it. The key takeaway here will be that while English primarily relies on word order to convey grammatical function, Latin uses word endings to do so.

We will then move to examine the various different substantives – noun, pronoun, and adjective – and how they are inflected in Latin. In spite of their different usages, all these substantive forms have three characteristics – case, number, and grammatical gender – and these characteristics signal the substantive's role in a sentence. Consequently, we will learn how to recognize, form, analyze, and translate substantives and substantive phrases based on these characteristics. To accomplish this task, we will become familiar with the way that dictionary entries for substantives work and especially how these entries help us to understand the rules for the inflection of the particular substantive, something that is often referred to as a noun's declension.

We will build on our discussion of substantive inflection by looking at verbal inflection. We will learn about the five characteristics of verbs – person, number, tense, voice, and mood – and how these characteristics create meaning in a Latin sentence. As we did with substantives, we will learn how to recognize, form, analyze, and translate verbs based on these characteristics. Once again, we will spend time learning about dictionary entries for verbs and how the information contained therein can help us to better understand a specific verbal form. We will also learn some of the rules for verbal inflection, i.e. conjugation.

The last part of this unit will look at how Latin puts together these inflected forms at the sentence level. We will learn about different types of sentence structures found in Latin, the particular collocations of verbal and substantive forms that they use, and the way that we translate these forms.

3.1 Objectives

By the end of Unit 1, you will be able to:

- Explain the basic principles of inflection in the Latin language as well as how it differs from English
- Articulate the different features of substantives (nouns, adjectives, and pronouns) and the information that these features provide

- Recognize and produce substantive inflection patterns and analyze their grammatical function in sentences Articulate the different features of verbal forms and the information that they provide
- Recognize and produce some basic verbal inflection patterns and analyze their grammatical function in sentences
- Explain how different grammatical features of language shape the way we understand the world around us

3.2 Latin: an inflected language

3.2.1 Inflection

One of the most striking differences between Latin and English is how Latin changes the form of words to indicate their function in a sentence, where English uses word order. We call this systematic change in forms **inflection**.

English has only limited grammatical inflection today, but most English nouns have different forms indicating whether they are singular or plural: "dog" means only one, but "dogs" means more than one. Adding an -s to a noun is a regular pattern in English. We could say that -s is the regular inflectional ending to indicate the grammatical property of *number* for a noun.

> **Aside**: English is related to Latin as part of the larger IndoEuropean family of languages, and in earlier phases of its history had a much fuller system of inflection, comparable to Latin.

In the present tense, English verbs in the *third person singular* (he, she, it) also change form to indicate number: "she says" but "they say." We use singular verb forms only with singular subjects, and plural verb forms with plural subjects: "The dogs run," but "The dog runs."

Some English nouns change their form in less predictable ways: "mouse" is a singular noun, and "mice" is plural. Native speakers learn this without thinking about it; people who learn English as a second language have to memorize this as an exception to the regular pattern of adding -s to form plurals.

A few English nouns do not change their form to indicate number. "Moose" could refer to one or more of the largest mammal in the deer family. (And "deer" poses the same problem: one or more?) A native speaker of English can say, "The moose walks," and "The moose walk." The verb makes it clear that in the first sentence, "moose" is singular, but plural in the the second sentence.

3.2.2 Function and form

Like English, Latin uses inflection to show the number of nouns and verbs, but Latin's system of inflection far more extensive than English.

English, for example, follows a strict word order to indicate subject, verb and direct object of a sentence. "Dog bites man" is an everyday sentence: the subject is "Dog," and the direct object is "man." "Man bites dog" is a headline: the man is now doing the biting, and dog is the recipient of the action.

Latin most frequently (but not always) places the verb at the end of a sentence. You could equally comfortably have a three-word sentence in the order Object-Subject-Verb, or Subject-Object-Verb, because the inflected form of the subject and the object will show clearly what role each word plays.

> **Aside** You will probably never find the order English requires: Subject-Verb-Object! When we read Latin, and we practice our skills with Latin composition, we'll want to consider what nuance or emphasis is expressed through different choices of Latin's more flexible word order.

See the following introduction to inflection from Dominic Machado for Latin examples drawn from Hyginus' *Fabulae* of how Latin inflection can work>

3.3 Verbal units

When people listen to their native language, we don't simply hear a stream of sound: we intuitively cluster meaningful units together. When we learn to read, we similarly learn how to recognize clusters of letters and words, to "chunk" the text into meaningful units.

As you learn how to read Latin, we will emphasize this crucial skill. Rather than simply analyzing one word at a time reading left to right, you will learn how to see sentences and whole paragraphs as compositions of smaller pieces, each with a recognizable structure and meaning.

We will use the term **verbal unit** to refer to the most important underlying structure in Greek. A **verb** is a word that expresses an action or a state of being. (As [Schoolhouse Rock put it decades ago, "Verb: that's what happening](https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=IrfZCvTe-Ko).") A verbal unit combines some form of a verb with a subject to express a complete idea.

Compared to English, Latin has an rich system of verb forms to create different kinds of verbal units. We will see, forexample, how Latin can use participles to form verbal units quite different from anything in English.

The most important verbal unit in Latin, however, is the **finite verb.** Every sentence has at least one verbal unit expressed with a finite verb plus a subject, even if these are only implied. Subjects and verbs can be implied in English, too: if someone asks you "Coffee or tea?" they are implying "Would you like coffee or tea?" a sentence with a subject ("you") and verb ("would like").

We have borrowed our own word "verb" from Latin grammarians. They referred to verbs with the term *verbum*, an everyday word that could mean a "sentence," "expression," or evern "conversation." *verbum* is a complete idea. Even if you leave out every other word of a sentence, the finite verb constitutes a complete statement.

3.4 Finite verbs

Finite verb forms have five properties: **person**, **number**, **tense**, **mood**, and **voice**. To properly identify a finite verb form, you must identify all five properties. Latin finite verb forms contain all of this information in the verb form itself. In English, we often need other words to convey some of this information, such as subject pronouns to convey the person and number, and auxiliary (or "helping") verbs to express tense, mood, and voice.

3.4.1 Person

A verb's person expresses the subject of the verb in relation to the "speaker" of the sentence.

1. The first person (*I* or *we* in English) subject includes the speaker.
2. The second person (*you* in English) subject is the addressee(s) of the speaker.
3. The third person (*he, she, it, they* in English) subject is a person or thing separate from the speaker and addressee.

3.4.2 Number

Number combines with person in describing the subject of verb. It indicates when the subject is **singular** or **plural**. In English, for example, the first person singular is *I* while first person plural is *we*.

3.4.3 Tense

The **tense** of a finite verb describes the time of the action. Latin has six tenses: three of them refer to present or future time, name the **present**, **future**, and **future perfect** tenses. Three other tenses refer to past time: the **imperfect**, **perfect** and **pluperfect** tenses.

3.4.4 Mood

The mood of a verb indicates the function of the expression and the nature of the action in the speaker's conception. "Mood" and "mode" come from the same root in English: the "mood" of a verb is the "mode" in which the verb is operating.

Latin has moods:

1. the **indicative**, used to express a statement or question of a factual nature (in the eyes of the speaker) in the past, present, or future.
2. the **imperative**, used to give a command

3. the **subjunctive** mood has many uses in subordinate clauses, and is also used to express potential or possible action.

3.4.5 Voice

Voice expresses the relationship between the action of the verb and the subject. Like English, Latin has two voices: **active**, in which the subject is performing the action of the verb ("I love"), and **passive**, in which the subject is receiving the action of the verb ("I am loved").

3.5 Principal parts of verbs

All verb forms in these many combinations of person, number, tense, mood and voice (as well as forms we will learn later, such as infinitives and participles), are formed using the verb's **principal parts**.

English verbs have a system of principal parts, too, although native speakers may not think about them that way. In English, the principal parts can include the present tense, the past tense, and the past participle: for example, play, played, played; swim, swam, swum; go, went, gone; do, did, done.

Latin verbs have four principal parts (although for some verbs not all parts may exist). In a glossary or a lexicon, Latin verbs are listed according to the first principal part, and so if you are looking a verb up you will need to be able to move from a verb form made from any principal part to its first principal part in order to find it in the lexicon.

3.6 Forms of prinicipal parts

Two of the principal parts, the first and third, are finite verbs in a first person singular form ("I") of the indicative mood. We'll use them to find the stems we can modify with endings to create finite verb forms. The other two are forms of the verb we'll learn to use in following chapters.

1. The **first principal part** is the first person singular in the *present* active indicative (or the present passive indicative if active forms do not exist). Drop the
2. The **second principal** is an *infinitive*. (We'll begin learning about uses of the infinitive in units 2 and 3.) You'll look at the second principal part to find what set of endings to use with a stem.
3. The **third principal part** is the first person singular in the *perfect* active indicative. If the verb has no active forms, it has no third principal part.
4. The **fourth principal part** is a *participle*. We'll learn in this unit how to use it create perfect passive forms.

3.6.1 Verb conjugations

Latin verbs are organized into four **conjugations**, a grouping where they share common endings. To find what conjugation a verb belongs to, look at the second principal part. In regular verbs, it will have one of four possible endings corresponding to the four conjugations.

- āre : first conjugation
- ēre : second conjugation
- ĕre: third conjugation
- īre: fourth conjugation

3.6.2 Examples of principal parts

Principal parts are listed in order, 1-4. Memorize these the principal parts of these twelve common verbs that you will see repeatedly in reading Hyginus.

- amō, amāre, amāvī, amātus - to love
- audiō, audīre, audīvī, audītus - to hear
- capiō, capĕre, cēpī, captus - to take, seize
- dō, dāre, dedī, datus - to give
- dūcō, dūcĕre, dūxī, ductus - to lead
- faciō, facĕre, fēcī, factus - to make, do
- fugiō, fugĕre, fūgī, fugitus - to flee
- habeō, habēre, habuī, habitus - to have
- interficiō, interficĕre, interfēcī, interfectus - to kill
- mittō, mittĕre, mīsī, missus - to send
- veniō, venīre, vēnī, ventus - to come
- videō, vidēre, vīdī, visus - to see;

3.6.3 Looking for patterns

As you learn principal parts, you should practice noticing patterns and then using those patterns to help you recognize, retrieve, use, and even take an educated guess at, a principal part.

Two good examples from your unit 1 vocabulary list are amō and audiō. Regular nouns of the first conjugation will change in exactly the same ways as amō. Drop the *-āre* ending from the second principal part, and you can reliably produce the others by add *-ō* to create the first part, *-āvī* to create the third part and *-ātus* for the fourth part.

Similarly, for regular verbs of the fourth conjugation, drop the *-īre* ending from the second part, and add *-iō* for the first part, *-īvī* for the second part, and *-ītus* for the fourth part.

3.7 The perfect active tense

The form of a finite verb in Latin expresses the subject as well as the verb: it is a complete verbal unit by itself. Example: the form *venit* means "he came, arrived" or "she came, arrived"; the form *venērunt* means "they came, arrived." These are already complete sentences that do not need a separate word for "he," "she" or "they."

3.7.1 The indicative mood and narrating events in the past

As already described above, finite verbs have five properties: person, number, tense, mood, and voice.

The **indicative** is one of the three moods of the Latin verb. It is the mode of verb used for narrating factual events, and for that reason is frequently seen in most texts.

Latin has more than one tense for narrating events in the past, but they differ in **aspect** — that is, how to think of or picture the action the verb is representing.

- the **perfect tense** expresses an action as single and simple, without indication of its completion or continuation
- the **imperfect tense** expresses an action as continuous, started, ongoing, habitual or in any way incomplete

The choice of verb tense, then, involves not only an indication that the events happened in the past, but other information about the event. Do you want to emphasize it as a single incident? Choose the perfect indicative if so. Or do you want to indicate that it happened over a length of time, was repeated or habitual, perhaps was started but not completed? The imperfect indicative will give you the means to add those shades of meaning.

3.7.2 Meaning of the perfect indicative

The perfect indicative represents the action as *single, simple, distinct,* the equivalent of a snapshot of the action. The tense that is the closest to this idea in English is the "simple past," the past tense formed in the active voice by adding *-ed* to the verb stem, or made by changes to the stem, with no other "helping" verbs. Examples of the "simple past" in the active voice: "He walked," "she ran," "they watched," "She taught," "they learned."

To understand a verb form, you must take into account all five properties: person, number, tense, mood and voice. In the active voice, the subject performs the action. In the passive voice, the subject receives the action.

To form finite verbs in the perfect tense and active voice, you will use the *third* principal part. Remember that this part is already an indicative form of the perfect active, namely the first person singular. When you see a vocabulary listing like this:

```
veniō, venīre, vēnī, ventus, "to come"
```

you know that vēnī means “I came.”

3.7.3 Forming and analyzing the perfect active

The general pattern you’ll follow for forming inflected words is:

- find the correct stem
- apply the correct ending

The *stem* dictates what possible tenses and voices can be formed; the *ending* identifies the person, number and mood.

The third principal part is used for all forms of the perfect active. To find its stem, drop the final *-i.* For *venio*, then:

```
(1) veni -> ven-
```

Let’s express “They arrived,” a complete sentence in the indicative mood. We to add the ending that expresses the third plural of the indicative, which is *-ērunt*

```
(2) ven + ērunt -> venērunt
```

Voilà! You’ve just expressed the English idea “They arrived.” with the complete Latin sentence *venērunt.*

To analyze a Latin verb form, you can mentally reverse the process: if you isolate what ending is used with what stem, you can identify the form. When you see *venērunt* in a text, you can tell yourself that since *-ērunt* is the third plural.

All four conjugations work exactly the same way and use exactly the same endings for the perfect active indicative. Memorize this pair of endings:

Person	Singular	Plural
Third	-it	ērunt

Here is a complete example with translation using the verb *fugiō, fugĕre, fūgī, fugitus* - “to flee.”

Person	Singular	Plural
Third	fug**it**, "he, she fled"	fug**ērunt**, "they fled"

3.8 The perfect passive

- a compound formation
- use present tense of *sum*: memorize *est*, *sunt*
- use 4th principal part, adjective. Will look more at adjectives in this chapter, but note:
  - gender, number in a subject form (nominative case)
  - **agreement** among 4th part, *sum* and expressed or implied subject
- memorize endings:

Gender	Singular	Plural
Masculine	-us	-i
Feminine	-a	-ae
Neuter	-um	-a

Examples from Hyginus

3.9 The imperfect indicative

The imperfect indicative is another way of narrating factual events in the past. As we have seen, the perfect views an action as a single action completed in the past. The imperfect, by contrast, expresses an action that is incomplete, repeated, continuous or ongoing, habitual, or in some other way *not* viewed as single and complete. To express similar ideas, English uses additional "helping" verbs: "she was going," "he started to go," "they used to go."

For example, Hyginus describes the Cyclops by saying "he had one eye." In English, we can use the simple past tense "had" to express this, but Latin makes clear that this was not a single, one-time action. It was almost a state of being: the Cyclops *always* had one eye, so Hyginus uses the imperfect in the phrase

```
unum oculum habebat.
```

habebat is the third singular of the imperfect indicative active. Let's look at how it's formed.

3.9.1 Formation of the imperfect tense

You form both the active and passive voice of the imperfect tense from the *second* principal part. As with the perfect active, you find the stem, and add the appropriate ending for the person, number and voice that you want.

> - stem: drop -re of second part
> - endings same for all conjugations.

The complete process to form the imperfect tense then looks like:

- (1) start by dropping *-re* from the second part:

> habēre -> habē-

- (2) Add the appropriate ending. For this chapter, you should memorize the third person* endings for singular and plural (listed here).

> habē- + -bat -> habebat

Person and Number	Active ending	Passive ending
third singular	-bat	-batur
third plural	-bant	-bantur

The passive voice works in exactly the same way. Hyginus tells us that one of the Argonauts was Lynceus, who had a kind of night vision superpower: he could see in the dark because "he was not hindered by any darkeness." Hyginus uses the verb *inhibebatur* in the imperfect to express the continuous, repeated event: Lynceus was *never* bothered by darkness. The verb *inhibeo*, "to restrain, prevent" is a compound of *habeo* with the following principal parts:

`inhibeo, inhibēre, inhibui, inhibitus`

(1) Find the stem by dropping *-re* from the second principal part:

> inhibēre -> inhibē-

(2) Add the right ending. Here, we want the third singular ending for the passive voice:

> inhibē- + -batur -> inhibebatur

3.10 Nouns

A **noun** names a person, animal, place, or thing (whether that "thing" is concrete or abstract). Our term again comes from Latin grammarians: "noun" comes from Latin *nomen*, which generically just means "name."

In a clause or sentence, nouns can fulfill various functions. A noun might be the subject of the verb: the person, place, or thing doing the action the verb represents. A noun might be the object of the the verb, the recipient of the verb's action, or the indirect (or secondary) object of that action. A noun might further describe another noun, or be paired with a preposition to act adjectivally or adverbially. It may decribe the means by which the action of the verb happens. Or it might name the addressee of the sentence.

In Latin, the function of the noun is represented by its **case**, and the case is indicated by the ending attached to the noun's stem. We have already seen that endings provide a great deal of information in a verb form, and the same is true for nouns. Identifying the case of a noun is key to understanding how it is functioning in that particular sentence.

3.10.1 Overview of nouns

All Latin nouns have three properties: **gender**, **case**, and **number**.

Every noun belongs to one of three grammatical **genders**. Although the grammatical genders are named **masculine**, **feminine**, and **neuter**, these are arbitrary linguistic categories, not biological gender. (You can learn more how ancient Latin grammarians thought about biological and grammatical gender in this unit's section on "Latin in Action.") There is no particular reason that the noun for "river", *flumen*, is neuter, but the noun for "island", *insula*, is feminine.

Case indicates the function of a noun in a sentence. Cases are expressed and identified by endings. There are six cases: **nominative**, **genitive**, **dative**, **accusative**, **ablative** and **vocative**. In this module we will look at some of the most important functions indicated by the nominative, genitive, dative, accusative and ablative cases.

Noun forms have the same two **numbers** as verb forms: singular, and plural.

3.10.1.1 Dictionary entry of nouns

The dictionary entry of a noun concisely encodes all the information you need to know in order to produce or recognize all of its cases and numbers. The first part tells you its nominative singular form, the second part is its genitive singular form, and the third crucial detail is its gender(s), usually abbreviat m, f or n.

3.10.1.1.1 Examples of dictionary entries The following vocabulary entries are included in the required vocabulary list for this module. Let's unpack their information more fully:

- *flumen, fluminis* n., "river"
- *insula, insulae* f., "island"

The first noun has the meaning "river." Its nominative singular form is flumen; the genitive singular form is fluminis; all of its forms are neuter.

The second noun has the meaning "island." Its nominative singular form is insula; the genitive singular form is insulae; all of its forms are feminine.

You'll also see this entry:

- *cănis, cănis* m. or f., "dog"

The listing "m. or f." means that the noun can be *either* grammatically mascuine *or* grammatically feminine.

3.10.1.2 Declension

We use the term **declension** to refer to a group of nouns that share the same set of endings. In the first half of this course, we will focus on three frequent declensions of nouns that make up the overwhelming majority of noun forms you will see in reading Latin. Scholars of Latin creatively refer to as the **first, second and third declensions**. You can recognize the declension of a noun by looking at the ending of its genitive singular:

- *-ae*: first declension
- *-i*: second declension
- *-is*: third declension

3.11 The genitive case

The **genitive case** is used to relate one noun to another. (In fact, this is a characteristic feature of *all* the languages in the Indo-European family that includes Latin.) While you may often find that nouns in the genitive case are translated with the English preposition "of," it is important to understand the range of underlying ideas expressed by the genitive in Latin.

3.11.1 Some general uses of the genitive

The complicated story of Procris and her husband Cephalus illustrates some common uses of the genitive case.

- *Possession*: Diana gave to Procris a hunting dog, and Hyginus refers to the *potentia canis*. *potentia* is a nominative noun, "power, strength;" *canis* is genitive singular, "dog." Here, the genitive expresses *possession*: the dog possessed strength or power. In these instances, we might translate the genitive into English with the preposition "of" or with the possessive marker "'s," "the dog's strength," or "the strength of the dog."
- *Subjective genitive* or *objective genitive*: Cephalus admired the dog greatly, and Hyginus refers to the *amor canis*. *amor, amoris* f. means "love, admiration". There is always an ambiguity when the noun expressing a verbal idea is modified by a second noun in the genitive case, just as there is in an English phrase like "love of God." Does that mean that God loves someone? If so, we would say it is a **subjective genitive**, since we are intepreting the meaning of the phrase "of God" as the equivalent of the subject of a verb "to love." But it could equally mean the love that someone feels for God. We would call that an **objective genitive**, since we are interpreting "of God" as the equivalent of a direct object in a phrase like "they love God." In this passage of Hyginus, the context makes it clear that he is referring to Cephalus' love for or admiration of the hunting dog, not the dog's love for Cephalus, but grammaticaly the *amor canis* is identical to what a pet owner could say to refer to their faithful dog's love.

Hyginus' story of Erechtheus' four daughters illutrates another common use of the genitive to refer to a group or "whole," when the noun it modifies names part of the whole or one among the group.

- *Partitive genitive* or *genitive of the whole*: Erechtheus' daughters took an oath that if *one of them* died, the others would commit suicide. Hyginus expresses this with the phrase *una eārum*. As we'll see in this chapter, *eārum* is the feminine genitive plural form of a pronoun meaning "them"; *una* is a nominative form meaning "one woman."

3.12 The nominative case

The **nominative case** is a naming case. Its most frequent function is to indicate the **subject** of a finite verb.

The subject of a verb will match the person and number of the verb form: a *singular* noun in the nominative case will have a third person *singular* verb form, and a nominative *plural* noun acting as the subject will match a third person *plural* verb. We use the term **agreement** to refer to this matching of grammatical properties.

Consider these examples. In his account of Theseus' adventures, Hyginus says that Theseus came to Crete:

```
Theseus uenit
```

The dictionary form for Theseus' name in Latin is "*Theseus, Thesei*, m," so *Theseus* is nominative, singular, and masculine. *uenit*, "he came," is perfect, active and indicative; since it is in the third person singular, it *agrees* with the subject Theseus.

In the story of the seven heroes who fought against Thebes, Hyginus says, “The seven leaders were going there” (in order to fight),

```
Septem ductores ibant
```

ductor, ductōris, m., means “leader, commander. The form *ductores* is masculine, nominative and plural. (We’ll see the plural forms of the nominative case below.) *ibant* is in from the irregular verb *eō*,”to go.” It is imperfect indicative active. Even in the irregular form, you can recognize that the ending is third person plural, so it agrees with the plural subject *ductores*.

3.13 Nouns in the nominative and genitive

Creating noun forms is similar to creating finite verb forms: (1) you find the stem from the dictionary entry, and (2) add the proper ending. For finite verbs, you had to choose the appropriate principal part of the verb to find its stem. For nouns, you use the genitive singular form (the second word in a dictionary entry), and drop the genitive ending.

3.13.1 TBA: add tables of ending, and worked examples from vocab list

3.14 Adjectives in the nominative and genitive

- introduce adjectives as part of speech
- introduce noun-adjective agreement
- introduce formation of adjectives, and forms of the nominative and genitive

3.15 Demonstrative pronouns in the nominative and genitive

- introduce demonstratives as example or pronouns (new part of speech)
- introduce pronominal use
- introduce formation of adjectives, and forms of the nominative and genitive
- introduce adjectival use

3.16 The personal agent of passive verbs

- introduce the **ablative** case
- forms in 3 declensions of nouns, in adjectives, and in the demonstrative

3.16.1 Means or instrument with active and passive verbs

- pure ablative

3.17 Direct and indirect objects

In addition to functioning as the **subject** of a verb, nouns can act as the **direct object** of the verb, or as the **indirect object** of the verb. In order for a verb to take an object, it must be a **transitive** verb, a verb that expresses an action that acts upon a recipient.

3.17.1 Direct object: function of the accusative case

The noun that receives the action of a verb in the active or middle voice is called the *direct object*. In Latin, the **accusative** case is the normal way to express this role in a clause: the accusative case is enough to show that the verb's action is done to it.

> Hercules killed *the eagle* (that was torturing Prometheus).

The eagle is what is being killed, so in Latin it goes into the accusative case: *aquilam* Hercules interfecit

3.17.2 Indirect object: function of the dative case

Some verbs may express actions that also involve a secondary recipient, a person or thing that is affected by or benefits from the action: that noun is acting as the **indirect object.**

One verb that makes it easy to see the role of the indirect object, in both English and Latin, is the verb "to give." (Latin grammarians in antiquity thought so, too: we have borrowed our term from the Latin *dativus casus*, "the case connected with giving.") In English, we can express the indirect object either by word order or with a preposition such as "to."

> "Hercules gave him (Philoctetes) his divien arrows." or "Hercules gave his divine arrows to him."

In both sentences "arrows" is the direct object of the verb "gave": the gifts are what is being directly affected by the action of the verb. The indirect object in both sentences is "him" (Philoctetes): as the recipient of the gifts, the action of giving affected Philoctetes in a secondary or indirect way. English expresses that by putting the indirect object before the direct object in the sentence, or with the preposition "to."

Can you think of other verbs in English that frequently have both a direct and an indirect object expressed with this syntax?

In Latin, the indirect object is expressed with the dative case. Word order can be used for other kinds of emphasis.

> Hercules suas sagittas diuinas *ei* donauit

3.18 Prepositions

3.19 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.

3.19.1 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

3.19.2 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 **fīliam** amāvit ("The father loved his daughter.")
- Fīliī **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

3.19.3 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

3.19.4 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

3.19.5 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).

4 Richer sentences

In Unit 1, we learned how verbs and nouns conjugate and decline to create meaning and structure in Latin sentences. In Unit 2, we will continue to practice these skills in the context of more complicated syntax, with a particular focus on the different ways that Latin expresses time and place.

We will begin by learning about prepositional phrases and how they can add meaning to Latin verbal expressions. We will build directly on this by looking how Latin uses these and other constructions to express place and time

We will then move on to look at how we can convey different time relations through verbal tense. We will learn about the present and the future tense. After learning these tenses, we will have gained experience working with all four principal parts of a Latin verb!

4.1 Unit Objectives

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Identify expressions of time using the accusative and ablative case
- Identify all persons of the present, future, imperfect, and perfect indicative in both active and passive voices
- Use principal parts to form present, future, imperfect and perfect forms of verbs
- Read more complex Latin sentences

5 Subordination

In Units 1 and 2, we learned how verbs and nouns conjugate and decline to create meaning and structure in Latin sentences, as well as how to express ideas like time and place using prepositional phrases. In Unit 3, we will build on this foundation and begin to read more complex sentences.

We will begin this unit with a consideration of subordination in Latin. We will learn about dependent clauses, focusing in particular on temporal clauses. In our discussion of dependent clauses, we will meet the subjunctive mood for the first time and learn how to form its imperfect and pluperfect tense. In doing so, we will begin to discuss what the subjunctive mood signifies in Latin, a conversation that we will continue for much of the next two semesters.

We will then move on to consider the place of the infinitive in Latin syntax. We will learn the present and perfect forms of the infinitive and discuss three usages of the infinitive: 1) as the subject of a Latin sentence; 2) as a word that complete the meaning of certain verbs; 3) as the main verb in an indirect statement (paraphrases but not quotations of what someone else has said).

5.1 Unit Objectives

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

- Explain the difference between a dependent and independent clauses
- Identify temporal clauses
- Recognize and form the imperfect and pluperfect tenses of the subjunctive
- Recognize and form different tenses of *possum*
- Recognize and form different tense-voice combinations of the infinitive
- Identify different uses of the infinitive
- Recognize and formulate an indirect statement in Latin

6 Further subordination

In Unit 1 and 2, we learned how verbs and nouns conjugate and decline to create meaning and structure in Latin sentences, as well as how to express ideas like time and place using prepositional phrases and we built on this foundation and begin to read more complex sentences (cum clauses and indirect statements) in Unit 3. Unit 4 will introduce you to some new verbal forms that appear commonly in the Latin language.

We will start by learning the conjugation of several very common irregular verbs including sum, possum, volo, nolo, eo, and fero. This will not only help us to recognize these verbs when they show up in Latin texts, but also provide an opportunity to review the fundamentals of verb formation. We will also learn about deponent and semi-deponent verbs, a special class of verbs that are passive in form but active in meaning. In addition to learning these new forms, we will also learn two more tenses of the subjunctive, the present and perfect.

We will make use of these verbal forms as continue to practice translating complex sentences. We will continue to focus on translating indirect statements as well as temporal clauses with and without the subjunctive.

6.1 Unit Objectives

By the end of this unit, you will be able to:

Recognize and form a number of very common irregular verbs (sum, possum, volo, nolo, eo, and fero) Recognize and form deponent and semi-deponent verbs Recognize and form the present and perfect tenses of the subjunctive Recognize and translate temporal clauses Recognize and translate indirect statements

7 Some less freqent forms

We will begin unit 5 by going over the declension of nouns and adjectives from the first three declensions as well as the pronouns that we learned last semester. We will then move on to a full scale review of the Latin verbal forms that we met last semester. As we review these forms, we will also practice and review different grammatical structures that we saw last semester.

In addition to a review of old forms, we will meet some new ones to fill out our knowledge of Latin morphology. In terms of substantive forms, we will learn the fourth and fifth declension, two relatively obscure declensions that have some important members. We will also learn some verbal forms as well, including the first and second-person and the pluperfect indicative.

7.1 Objectives

By the end of Unit 5, you will be able to:

- Recognize and produce all substantive inflection patterns and analyze their grammatical function in sentences
- Recognize and produce (almost) all verbal inflection patterns and analyze their grammatical function in sentences
- Feel confident about the different grammatical structures that we met last semester

8 Relative clauses, participles, and gerunds

In Unit 1, we spent some time reviewing key concepts from last semester. In Unit 2, we will learn about different ways in which nouns, adjectives, and pronouns can be used to add further color to a Latin sentence.

We will begin by learning about relative clauses, a type of dependent clause that provides further information about a previous noun. We will then move on to learn about participles, a type of verbal adjective, that provides more information about the actions and behaviors of a noun within a sentence. We will conclude by looking at gerunds (verbal nouns) and gerundives (verbal adjectives) and the different constructions that they belong to.

Objectives

By the end of Unit 2, you will be able to:

Recognize relative clauses and analyze their grammatical function in sentences Recognize participles and understand how they add complexity to sentences Recognize gerunds and gerundives and identify the way that they are being used in sentences

9 Dependent clauses with the subjunctive

TBA

9.1 Practice exercises: unit 1

9.2 Principal parts

1. How many principal parts does a regular Latin verb have?
2. Which principal parts are finite verb forms? What person and number is used for these principal parts?
3. The verb *interficiō* "to kill" is actually a compound of the verb *faciō*. (Compare the way English can create phrasal verbs: "do away with" someone does not mean the same thing as "do" something!) Compare the principal parts of *faciō* and *interficiō*. Which parts are identical to prefixing *inter* to a form of *facio*? What changes in the other forms?

Memorize the principal parts of the verbs in the vocabulary list for unit 1, then answer the following questions.

- name two verbs belonging to the fourth conjugation. How regular are their principal parts?
- compare the principal parts of the verbs capiō "to seize" and facio "to do, make". How are the changes in their principal parts similar?

10 Vocabulary lists

The lists linked below give dictionary forms and very brief definitions for ca. 250 of the most frequently occuring 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 vocbulary entry for a form like iussit (third singular perfect active indicative), you would look under j to find jubeo, jubēre, jussi, jussus.

11 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

12 Pronouns in Hyginus, *Fabulae*

- ego: *personal pronoun*, I
- hic, haec, hoc: *demonstrative pronoun*, this one
- ille, illa, illud: *demonstrative pronoun*, that one
- ipse: *intensifyiing 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

13 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), conjicĕre, 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, fiĕri, -, factus: *to become, be produced*
- habeo, habēre, habui, habitus: *to have*
- immolo, immolare, immolavi, immolatus: *to sacrifice*
- impono, imponĕre, imposui, impositus: *to set upon or over*
- intereo, interire, interii *or* iterivi, iteritus: *to perish, be ruined*
- interficio, interficĕre, 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, jungĕre, 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, mittĕre, misi, missus: *to send*
- moneo, monēre, monui, monitus: *to war*
- 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, obicĕre, objeci, objectus: *to throw before, oppose*
- occido, occidĕre, occidi, occisus: *strike down, slay*
- ostendo, ostendĕre, ostendi, ostensus: *to show, expose*
- pareo, parēre, parui, paritus: *to be present, to wait on*
- pario, parĕre, peperi, paritus: *to bear, give birth to*
- percutio, percutĕre, percussi, percussus: *to strike, thrust or pierce through*
- perduco, perducĕre, perduxi, perductus: *to guide, lead through*
- pereo, 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, petĕre, petivi *or* petii, petitus: *to attack, demand, seek*
- polliceor, pollicēri, -, pollicitus: *to promise*
- pono, ponĕre, 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, proficĕre, profeci, profectus: *to advance, make progress, obtain*
- proficiscor, proficisci, -, profectus: *to set out, depart*
- profugio, profugĕre, profugi, -: *to flee, escape*
- quaero, quaerĕre, quaesivi, quaesitus: *to seek for, acquire*
- rapio, rapĕre, rapui, raptus: *to seize and carry off*
- recipio, recipĕre, 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, respondēre, 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, solēre, solui, solitus: *to be accustomed*
- sum, esse, fui, futurus: *to be*
- tollo, tollĕre, sustuli, sublatus: *to raise up, elevate*
- trado, tradĕre, tradidi, traditus: *to hand over, deliver, surrender*
- venio, venire, veni ventus: *to come*
- video, vidēre, vidi, visus: *to see*
- vinco, vincĕre, vici, victum: *to defeat, conquer*
- vivo, vivĕre, vixi, victus: *to live, be alive*
- voco, vocare, vocavi, vocatus: *to call together, summon*
- volo, velle, volui, -: *to wish, want*

14 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*
- nympha, nymphae *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*

15 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*

16 Most frequent adverbs in Hyginus, *Fabulae*

- ibi: *there*
- inde: *from there*
- ita: *so*
- item: *likewise, also*
- non: *not*
- postea: *later*
- tunc: *then*

17 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 introducting several kinds of subordinate clauses*