

# *Primum Agmen I*



View of Mt. Vesuvius from the ruins of Pompeii

## **Summer Review Fourth Grade 2022**

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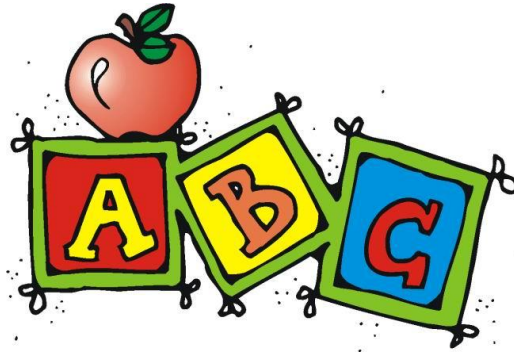
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### *Carmen Abecedarium*

(sung to the tune of “This Old Man”)

A = ah

O = oh

B = bay

P = pay

C = cay

Q = koo

D = day

R = er

E = eh

S = es

F = ef

T = tay

G = gay

U = oo

H = ha

X = eex

I = ee

Y = upsilon

K = kah

Z = zeta

L = el

Nunc carmen factum'st!

M = em

(Now the song is done!)

N = en

## Roman Alphabet and Latin Pronunciation

As you saw in the *Carmen Abecedarium*, English uses the same letters that were utilized by the Romans – with some minor differences. We are going to take a moment now to hear how the Romans would have pronounced these letters, beginning with the consonants.

### Consonants

For the most part, Latin consonants make the same sounds they do in English. There are some variations in sounds, though, especially when it comes to **digraphs** – two letters joined together to make a different sound – which we will examine here, as well.

Letter	Pronunciation	English Example	Latin Example
<b>B</b>	<i>b / p</i> before “t” or “s”	<b>barber</b> / <b>apt</b> -or- <b>Epsom</b>	<i>barba</i> – “beard” <i>urbs</i> – “city”
<b>C</b>	<i>k</i> (always a hard “k”)	<b>cake</b>	<i>caecus</i> – “blind”
<b>D</b>	<i>d</i>	<b>dad</b>	<i>domus</i> – “home”
<b>F</b>	<i>f</i>	<b>fifty</b>	<i>falsus</i> – “false”
<b>G</b>	<i>g</i> (always hard) / <i>ngn</i> before “n”	<b>gag</b> / <b>hangnail</b>	<i>gēns</i> – “clan” <i>magnus</i> – “large”
<b>H</b>	<i>h</i> (considered silent by some Romans)	<b>hangnail (honor)</b>	<i>humus</i> – “ground” <i>honor</i> – “honor”
<b>K</b>	<i>k</i> (rarely seen in Latin)	<b>kiwi</b>	<i>Kalendae</i> – “first day of the month”
<b>L</b>	<i>l</i>	<b>lab</b>	<i>lacrima</i> – “tear”
<b>M</b>	<i>m</i>	<b>monument</b>	<i>memoria</i> – “memory”
<b>N</b>	<i>n</i>	<b>nun</b>	<i>nōn</i> – “not”
<b>P</b>	<i>p</i>	<b>pop</b>	<i>populus</i> – “people”
<b>Q(u)</b>	<i>kw</i>	<b>queen</b>	<i>quattuor</i> – “four”
<b>R</b>	<i>r</i> (with a slight trill)	<i>gracias</i> (Spanish)	<i>rēgīna</i> – “queen”
<b>S</b>	<i>s</i> ( <b>Never</b> like the “z” sound in “season”)	<b>lesson</b>	<i>satis</i> – “enough”
<b>T</b>	<i>t</i>	<b>tattle</b>	<i>terra</i> – “earth”
<b>X</b>	<i>ks</i>	<b>taxi</b>	<i>saxum</i> – “stone”
<b>Z</b>	<i>z</i> (rarely seen in Latin)	<b>zone</b>	<i>zōna</i> – “zone”

<b>Ch</b>	emphatic <i>k</i> ( <b>Never</b> like “ <b>church</b> ” or “ <b>machine</b> ”)	mechanical!	<b>chorus</b> – “chorus/choir”
<b>Ph</b>	emphatic <i>p</i> ( <b>Never</b> like “f” sound in “ <b>emphatic</b> ”)	pop!	<b>philosophia</b> – “ <i>philosophy</i> ”
<b>Th</b>	emphatic <i>t</i> ( <b>Never</b> like “ <b>this</b> ”)	terrible!	<b>thema</b> – “theme”

## Vowels

Latin vowel sounds are the ones that really differ from English pronunciation. Like English, though, Latin has short and long vowels; however, it is much easier to tell which ones are which in Latin because long vowels will have a **macron**, or a dash above a vowel to indicate that it is long. Latin vowels are also similar to English in that short and long vowels have different pronunciations. Therefore, we will look at both short and long vowels individually. Also, “y” (borrowed from Greek, hence the name “upsilon”) is **always** a vowel in Latin.

Letter	Pronunciation	English Example	Latin Example
<b>a</b>	<i>a</i> ; Close to the schwa (ə) ( <b>Never</b> like “hat”)	electrical	<b>anima</b> – “breath/spirit”
<b>ā</b>	<i>ah</i>	father	<b>āter</b> – “black”
<b>e</b>	<i>eh</i>	wet	<b>ego</b> – “I”
<b>ē</b>	<i>ay</i>	fiancé	<b>ērēctus</b> – “upright”
<b>i</b>	<i>ih</i>	rip	<b>inimīcus</b> – “enemy”
<b>ī</b>	<i>ee</i>	machine	<b>Ītalia</b> – “Italy”
<b>o</b>	<i>o</i>	mop	<b>oculus</b> – “eye”
<b>ō</b>	<i>oh</i>	wrote	<b>ōtium</b> – “leisure”
<b>u</b>	<i>uh</i>	put	<b>unda</b> – “wave”
<b>ū</b>	<i>oo</i>	due	<b>ūnus</b> – “one”
<b>y</b>	<i>eoo</i>	<b>une</b> (French)	<b>Styx</b> – “Styx”

## Diphthongs

**Diphthongs** are special digraphs made from two vowels. When the two vowels are put together, their sounds change from what they might sound like when seen separately. English uses many of the same diphthongs, but the pronunciations are quite different in many cases.

Diphthong	Pronunciation	English Example	Latin Example
<b>ae</b>	<i>igh</i>	fright	<i>aestās</i> – “summer”
<b>au</b>	<i>ow</i>	cow	<i>aurum</i> – “gold”
<b>ei</b>	<i>ay</i>	way	<i>ei</i> – “Ah!”
<b>eu</b>	<i>ehoo</i>	ew! (Draw out the sounds slightly as you would if something were really gross.)	<i>Euphrātēs</i> – “Euphrates”
<b>oe</b>	<i>oy</i>	boy	<i>oeconomia</i> – “economy”
<b>ui</b>	<i>uhwih</i>	<i>cuisine</i> (French)	<i>cui</i> – “to whom”

### And sometimes “i”...

You are of course familiar with “i” and “u” as vowels, and we have already seen how to pronounce them when both long and short. However, “i” and “u” in Latin are sometimes also used as consonants.

You probably noticed that there are a few letters missing from the *Carmen Abecedarium* compared to what we have in English. That is because letters like “j” and “v” are actually just “i” and “u” behaving as consonants rather than vowels, so the Romans did not feel the need to distinguish them. In later periods of Latin development, people began to differentiate between when these letters were acting as consonants or vowels, and “j” became the consonantal “i,” while “v” became the consonantal “u.”

When pronouncing consonantal “i” the sound is that of consonantal “y” in English: for instance, in the word “yes.” A consonantal “u” will often actually appear in some texts as a “v,” but it should be pronounced as a “w” (as in “wet”) rather than a “v” in English. By now, you are probably wondering, though, how the letter “w” even came to be. Well, if we look at the spelling of *vultus*, for example, and remove the distinction between “v” and “u” as the Romans would have, we can see that *uultus* does in fact begin with a “double-u.”

## **Grammatica I.i** **Parts of Speech I** **Nouns and Pronouns**

### **\*Objectives\***

- **Define a part of speech.**
- **Identify nouns and pronouns.**
- **List the genders of Latin nouns.**
- **Recognize Latin subject pronouns.**

It is important that we are familiar with a few terms and ideas in English before we ever start working with Latin. One of the most important terms for us to be able to define is a **part of speech**, which is a group of words categorized by certain functions. In other words, parts of speech are types of words that we can identify by what jobs they do in a sentence, and one of the most fundamental of these types is what we call a “noun.”

### **Nouns**

Nouns are so important and plentiful because they give names to everything around us – whether seen or unseen. A **noun** is the part of speech that identifies a person, place, thing, or idea.

In English, we often divide nouns into “common” or “proper” depending on if we are talking about a general someone, somewhere, or something (e.g. general, city, or building) or a specific someone, somewhere, or something (e.g. Caesar, Rome, or Colosseum). We can usually tell the difference between common and proper nouns in English by capitalizing proper nouns where common nouns remain uncapitalized.

In Latin, there is often no real differentiation between common and proper nouns by means of capitalization; however, we will see what we would consider proper Latin nouns capitalized in our exercises. There is another way of categorizing Latin nouns, though, that we do not usually experience in English.

### ***Genders of Latin Nouns***

Even without thinking about it, you have probably associated certain things with boys and certain things with girls. While this sort of cultural association of nouns with one gender or another is common, English actually contains relatively few truly gendered terms. *All* Latin nouns on the other hand are assigned a gender.



Sometimes, the genders of nouns are linked to some cultural connection between nouns and men or women. Very often, though, Latin nouns are assigned a gender purely out of grammatical necessity; in other words, all nouns in Latin simply have to have one.

In fact, there are three possible genders for Latin nouns with which you should start becoming familiar now:

**i) feminine (f.)**

**ii) masculine (m.)**

**iii) neuter (n.)**

Latin nouns also possess attributes known as “case” and “number,” but we will discuss those another time.

## Pronouns

As their name suggests, **pronouns** are the part of speech that stands in the place of (*prō* = “for, instead of”) a noun. There are several different types of pronouns that we will encounter. For now, though, we will focus on subject pronouns, which are pronouns capable of being a verb’s subject.

In Latin, these pronouns also have a gender assigned to them, but it depends on the pronoun’s **antecedent**, or the noun that appears before a pronoun (*ante* = “before” + *cēdere* = “to go”) for which the pronoun substitutes. For instance, in the sentences “Livia loves toast. She eats it every morning.,” “Livia” is the antecedent of “she” and “toast” is the antecedent of “it.”

We see in the previous examples too that pronouns are some of the few gendered words (i.e. “she” = feminine; “it” = neuter) that we have in English – a fact reflected in the gendered pronouns we also find in Latin in the following chart.

	<b>Singular</b>	<b>Plural</b>
<i>First Person</i>	<b>ego</b> = I	<b>nōs</b> = we
<i>Second Person</i>	<b>tū</b> = you	<b>vōs</b> = you (all)
<i>Third Person</i>	<b>is</b> = he <b>ea</b> = she <b>id</b> = it	<b>eī</b> = they (masculine) <b>eae</b> = they (feminine) <b>ea</b> = they (neuter)

## **Grammatica I.ii**

### **Parts of Speech II**

#### **Verbs**

#### **\*Objectives\***

- **Identify verbs.**
- **Recognize verbal properties.**

We learned in our last lesson that a **part of speech** is a group of words categorized by certain functions. In order to tell what nouns or pronouns are doing or even who or what they are, we must rely on another such group of words: verbs.

At its core, a **verb** is the part of speech that identifies an action or a state of being, and this part of speech is essential to understanding how nouns and pronouns interact with one another. In fact, verbs are so important in relating these other two parts of speech to each other that many of the specific functions performed by nouns or pronouns are also linked to their relationships with verbs. We will discuss these functions in more depth a bit later, though.

For now, let's think about what verbs are and how we can identify them. We have several different types of verbs in English, including action, linking, and helping (auxiliary) verbs. Action verbs are probably the easiest to recognize since they identify things that we can do, such as "run," "think," "work," "dream," or "talk." Meanwhile, linking verbs like "feel," "look," or "seem" do not represent any sort of activity but rather *link* two parts of a sentence together. There is also a special group within linking verbs known as *being verbs* – verbs like "become," "am," "is," "are," "was," or "were" – that link things by simply describing their states of being.

Being verbs are sometimes also classified as helping or auxiliary verbs along with verbs such as "will," "do," "have," "would," "may," or "might." These verbs get their name from the fact that they *help* another verb operate in a particular tense, voice, or mood. Latin verbs rely on their stems and endings to give us information about these types of verbal properties, though, so we really will not find helping verbs in Latin.

#### **Properties of Verbs**

Verbs are actually a quite complex part of speech, consisting of five different verbal properties that work together to give us very precise information on the

verb's action or state of being. We will take a brief look now at these properties and will examine them more closely later as we learn how to conjugate Latin verbs.

**Person** – a verb's person tells us who is involved in its action or state of being, whether that be the speaker (First Person), the person being addressed (Second Person), or someone being spoken about (Third Person).

**Number** – the number of a verb lets us know how many people are involved. The number can be either singular for one person or plural for more than one.

**Tense** – a verb tense explains when the verb's action or state of being takes place.

**Voice** – the voice of a verb gives information about the subject's agency in the verb's action. If the subject is the one doing the action, we say the voice is active; whereas, if the subject is having the action performed on it, we say the voice is passive.

**Mood** – the mood of a verb is perhaps one of the most difficult properties to pin down, especially for English speakers. This property tells us that the verb is giving a command (imperative), relaying factual information (indicative), or dealing with unreal or hypothetical situations (subjunctive).

## *Grammatica I.iii* **Parts of Speech III** **Adjectives and Adverbs**

### **\*Objectives\***

- **Define and identify adjectives and adverbs.**

As we become more comfortable with differentiating one **part of speech**, or group of words categorized by certain functions, from another, we have come to a discussion on two of these groups that act as modifiers for other parts of speech. Although this concept might sound complicated, we can simply think of modifiers as words that describe or otherwise give us more information about other words. In this lesson, we will focus on two important groups of modifiers known as adjectives and adverbs.

### **Adjectives**

On the most basic level, an **adjective** belongs to the part of speech that modifies nouns and pronouns. What exactly do we mean by “modify” in this situation, though? Adjectives give us all sorts of information about the nouns and pronouns they modify – from how many there are (one, fifteen, many, numerous, few) to what color they are (green, purple, beige, turquoise), to whose they are (my, your, our, their), to any number of other characteristics (good, bad, tall, old, hazy, bright, sad, Roman, classical). In short, then, an adjective modifies a noun or pronoun by simply giving us more detailed information about it.

Latin adjectives provide us with the same sorts of information, but there is another important factor to remember when working with them. Though mentioned only briefly, you might recall that Latin nouns and pronouns have three attributes: gender, number, and case. The adjectives that modify them must also have the same gender, number, and case. This means, then, that we will decline (use different endings for different forms) adjectives in the same way and sometimes even using the same endings as we do the nouns they modify. We will begin learning to decline Latin adjectives once we have mastered declining Latin nouns.

### **Adverbs**

As adjectives give us more information about nouns and pronouns, an **adverb** is the part of speech used to modify verbs, adjectives, or other adverbs. The types of information adverbs provide us about the words they modify varies greatly as they

do with adjectives. For instance, adverbs might tell us how or in what way something happens (forcefully, quickly, well), when or how often something happens (now, tomorrow, already, often, daily, never), where something happens (here, there, everywhere), or give us details on how much or the extent (almost, just, too, entirely, quite, rather).

Although there are many that do not appear this way (e.g. well, quite, there), we can often identify adverbs in English as words ending in *-ly* (e.g. quietly, skillfully, eloquently). Similarly, Latin adverbs can often be found with endings like *-ē*, *-e*, *-em*, or *-im*; however, these are not the only endings we might find for them. Unlike other parts of speech, though, Latin adverbs actually undergo relatively little inflection, meaning there are not too many different forms of Latin adverbs. What's more, you will not even have to worry about these different forms of Latin adverbs until much later in your Latin education.

## Grammatica I.iv

### Parts of Speech IV

#### Prepositions

#### **\*Objectives\***

- **Identify prepositions and their objects.**
- **Recognize prepositional phrases as modifiers.**

Although there are a couple others that we will see along the way, the last **part of speech**, or group of words categorized by certain functions, that we will discuss for now is prepositions. A **preposition** is the part of speech that demonstrates relationships between its object and other words in a sentence. The **object of the preposition**, then, is the noun or pronoun directly governed by a preposition. Together, a preposition and its object form a **prepositional phrase**. Below, you will find a list of very common English prepositions, the Latin counterparts to which you will begin seeing a bit later.

#### Some Common Prepositions

about	among	between	for	on	toward
above	around	beyond	from	onto	under
across	at	by	in	over	upon
after	before	down	into	through	with
against	below	during	of	to	without

Because prepositions like those we just saw offer us information on time, location, direction, origin/ownership, or a myriad other details, we can think of entire prepositional phrases as modifiers of nouns, pronouns, or verbs. Therefore, we can see them work in much the same way as adjectives (adjectival) and adverbs (adverbial). Pay close attention to the example sentences below to see how the underlined prepositional phrases modify the words in bold.

The **clock** on the shelf struck one. (Adjectival [*location*] modifying “clock”)

**She** is from the Czech Republic. (Adjectival [*origin*] modifying “she”)

The man **ran** toward the crowd. (Adverbial [*direction*] modifying “ran”)

*A Note on Latin Prepositions*

Unlike most other parts of speech, Latin prepositions experience no inflection at all, meaning their forms will not change. The object (noun or pronoun) of a Latin preposition, however, does change and must be inflected properly according to the preposition of which it is the object. We will soon learn about this concept in an upcoming lesson.

## **Grammatica II.i**

### **Noun Functions I**

#### **Subject Noun and Predicate Nominative**

##### **\*Objectives\***

- **Identify subject nouns and predicate nominatives in English.**
- **Associate predicate nominatives with the appearance of a being verb.**

Now that we have become familiar with the primary **parts of speech** – groups of words categorized by certain functions – that we will need for the moment, we can look more closely at what some of those functions are. We know that **nouns identify people, places, things, or ideas**, but how can we tell exactly what these people, places, things, or ideas might be doing in a sentence? Since this part of speech occupies such a large percentage of any language’s dictionary (There are lots of people, places, things, and ideas to give names to.), it should make sense that a noun can perform a large variety of functions beyond simple identification. In this and the next few lessons, we will be delving more deeply into the various roles nouns can play in a sentence. Before we get started with that, though, we cannot forget that any of the functions we explore that are performed by nouns can also be performed by pronouns since pronouns simply take the place of their noun counterparts.

### **Subject Nouns**

Perhaps one of the most important and certainly one of the most prevalent functions a noun can perform is that of the **subject noun**, or the noun most directly involved in a verb’s action or state of being. For an active verb, this means the subject noun is the one doing the action; whereas, for a passive verb, the subject is having the action performed on it. In the sentences below, we can see that the subject noun of an active verb answers the question “Who?” or “What is doing the

action?” while the subject noun of a passive verb answers the question “To whom?” or “To what is the action being done?”.

### **Active Verb**

Caesar *marched* for Rome. **Who marched? = *Caesar***

### **Passive Verb**

Caesar *was assassinated*. **To whom was the assassination done? = *Caesar***

In English, the subject noun falls at the beginning of the sentence. While subject nouns also tend to appear at the beginning of Latin sentences, Latin also allows for a bit of flexibility in the ordering of the words in its sentences – a concept that will be very important to remember in our upcoming lessons on Latin noun cases.

## **Predicate Nominatives**

Sometimes, we simply want to offer more details on who or what a subject noun might be. When this happens, we employ what is called a “**predicate nominative**,” or a noun used to provide more information on a subject noun. You could probably guess that a *predicate* nominative falls in the predicate of a sentence, typically where the verb is a being or other linking verb like those in the following sentences.

### **Being Verb**

Octavian *was* the first emperor of Rome.

### **Linking Verb**

He *remained* emperor for the rest of his life.

We will almost exclusively find predicate nominatives used with being verbs for our purposes even though they can be found with other linking verbs in Latin, as well. We will also continue to call them predicate nominatives in later lessons although they are also often referred to as “subject complements” since they serve to complete the information on our subjects. Again, calling these “predicate nominatives” will become even more helpful when we soon begin discussing Latin noun cases.



## **Grammatica II.ii** **Noun Functions II** **Direct Objects and Indirect Objects**

### **\*Objective\***

- **Differentiate between direct and indirect objects.**

We recently learned that nouns are used as subjects (subject noun) or subject complements (predicate nominative), so now we will begin looking at this part of speech “objectively” – that is, how nouns function as various types of objects.

### **Direct Objects**

Some of the simplest sentences we see in either English or Latin consist of a subject noun, a verb, and a **direct object**: the noun most directly affected by a verb’s action. In such sentences, the verb in question is known as a “**verb transitive**,” meaning it is a verb that takes a direct object. In fact, verbs transitive not only are capable of taking a direct object but often require one in order to complete the thought behind the verb. Take for example the following sentence.

Caesar *led* his army from Gaul.

Technically, we could have a sentence consisting of the subject and verb “Caesar led;” however, the verb transitive “led” begs the question “What did Caesar lead?” to finish its thought. The answer to that very question “Whom?” or “What did Caesar lead?” becomes an extremely important one because that answer will always be the direct object of any verb transitive. In this case, the answer to the question “What did Caesar lead?” is “army,” making it the direct object of the verb transitive “led.”

### **Indirect Objects**

If a verb’s direct object is the noun most directly affected by that verb, it then stands to reason that an **indirect object** is the noun indirectly affected by a verb’s action. Of course, that probably seems obvious and might not really answer the question of what an indirect object is, so let’s think of it another way.

Though not exclusively, indirect objects very often appear with verbs of giving or making; therefore, we can think of the indirect object as the noun that is receiving or benefiting from the direct object as we can see in the examples below.

#### **Verb of Giving**

IO DO

Gnaeus *gave* Aemelia a **rose**.

**Verb of Making**

IO DO

The soldier *made* his comrade a **crutch** from a tree branch.

We can see in these sentences that the indirect objects (“Aemelia” and “comrade”) are receiving or benefiting from the direct objects (“rose” and “crutch”). We can think of indirect objects, then, as answering the question “To/for whom/what?”. For example, “Aemilia” would be the answer to the question “To whom did Gnaeus give the rose?”, and “comrade” would be the answer to the question “For whom did the soldier make a crutch?”.

## **Grammatica II.iii** **Noun Functions III** **Object of the Preposition**

### **\*Objectives\***

- **Identify prepositions and their objects.**
- **Recognize prepositions and their objects as prepositional phrases.**

Having learned about direct and indirect objects, we can now turn our attention to another objective noun function: the object of the preposition. We have already discussed much of this information in our previous lesson on prepositions as a part of speech, but let's refresh our memories.

We discovered that a **preposition** is the part of speech that demonstrates relationships between its object and other words in a sentence and that a **prepositional phrase** consists of a preposition and its object. We also saw that the noun directly governed by a preposition is described as the **object of the preposition**; however, how do we know which noun is being governed by the preposition?

One way to look for an object of the preposition is simply to look after the preposition itself. Since the word "preposition" comes from the Latin words (*prae + prositus*) meaning "placed before," it should make sense that prepositions should be found before their objects. This is especially true in English sentences and is also often the case in Latin sentences, although Latin does permit some variation here.

Another way to locate the object of a preposition is to ask the questions "Whom/What/Where/When?" is most influenced by the preposition. Take for instance the prepositional phrases we see below.

**P      OP**

Propertius wrote a poem about Cynthia.

**P      OP**

The book on the table belongs to me.

**P      OP**

We are heading to Greece today.

## P OP

The citizens will not leave the city after sunset.

To find the object of the preposition in each sentence, we need only pose the questions we mentioned earlier in the context of each preposition. We can see, then, that “Cynthia” is the object of the preposition “about” because she answers the question “*About* whom?”, that the object of the preposition “on” is “table” because it answers the question “*On* what?”, that “Greece” is the object of the preposition “to” because it answers the question “*To* where?”, and that the object of the preposition “after” is “sunset” because it answers the question “*After* when?”.

## Grammatica III.i

### Case Usages I

### Nominative and Genitive

#### \*Objectives\*

- Define syntax.
- Identify basic uses for the nominative and genitive cases.

### Syntax

All of the work we have done in learning about parts of speech and noun functions has been leading up to a discussion on what we call “syntax.” This can sometimes be a difficult concept to pin down – especially from one language to another – but we can give a good general definition of **syntax** as the rules surrounding how words relate to one another. Knowing the different parts of speech and functions of nouns is an important part of syntax, then, because they tell us how words interact with each other.

In English, our syntax is also highly dependent on **word order**, or the sequence followed by words in a sentence. In fact, it is English word order that often tells us what words – particularly nouns – are doing in a sentence. The sentence map below is a very basic example of what English word order looks like, and in it we can see how specific noun functions (subject noun, direct object, etc.) must follow a specific sequence.

**Subject Noun – (Adverb) Verb – Indirect Object – (Adjective) Direct Object**

While there is some flexibility, modifiers like adjectives and adverbs tend to come before the words they modify. English verbs and nouns grouped by certain functions, however, usually follow this basic word order fairly rigidly, so we can often identify the syntax of a noun in an English sentence simply by its location in it.

There is also a general pattern to the order of words in a Latin sentence, which we can see here.

### **Subject Noun – Direct Object (Adjective) – Indirect Object – (Adverb) Verb**

However, Latin word order is much more fluid than that in English because Latin is what we call an “inflected language,” meaning its words undergo several types of changes to their forms depending on what they are doing in a sentence. Latin syntax, then, depends much more on these inflections than on word order.

## **Latin Noun Cases**

We mentioned in an earlier lesson that Latin nouns possess three characteristics: gender (feminine, masculine, or neuter), number (singular or plural), and case. It is the last characteristic, the noun’s case, that accounts for most of a Latin noun’s inflection, or changes to its form. These cases are a crucial part of Latin syntax because a noun’s case tells us what its function is in a sentence and therefore its relationship to other words in that sentence. We will soon learn how to form Latin nouns in all the major cases; for now, though, let’s begin our exploration of the usages of Latin noun cases with the nominative and genitive cases.

### **Nominative Case – Subject Noun and Predicate Nominative**

As we saw in the Latin sentence map, a subject noun tends to come first in a Latin sentence as it does in an English one. This is not always true, though, so the best way we can tell that a Latin noun is the subject is by identifying its form as that of the nominative case.

Predicate nominatives also appear in Latin when used with a being verb to provide more details on the subject. Given the name of this noun function, we should easily remember that the nominative case is also used for predicate nominatives.

**SN – Nominative**

Caesar is a general.

**PN – Nominative**

## Genitive Case – Possessive Noun Adjective

Demonstrating ownership or possession is commonly done in English by using an apostrophe + “s” (’s) with singular nouns or “s” + an apostrophe (s’) with plural nouns. Even though they are formed from nouns, these word forms like “boy’s” or “girls” are technically adjectives since they modify other nouns by telling us to whom or to what something belongs. These forms are known as **possessive noun adjectives** – adjectival forms of nouns used to show possession – and we will label them with “PNA.”

In Latin, possessive noun adjectives are formed with the genitive case. We can think of the genitive-case endings for Latin nouns that we will soon learn, then, as taking the place of the apostrophe + “s” or “s” + apostrophe forms. We will also frequently find these genitive possessive noun adjective forms translated into English using the preposition “of.”

**PNA – Genitive**

**PNA – Genitive**

The army’s tents were burned by the soldiers’ torches.

**PNA w/ Preposition “of” – Genitive**

The walls of the temple are ancient.

## Grammatica III.ii

### Case Usages II

#### Accusative and Dative

#### Direct and Indirect Objects

#### **\*Objective\***

- **Identify some basic uses for the accusative and dative cases.**

Now that we have begun to understand that a noun’s function is part of its **syntax**, or how it relates to other words in a sentence, we can delve a little deeper into what that looks like for Latin nouns. We noted in our last lesson that Latin sentences do often follow a certain word order, which we can review below.

#### **Subject Noun – Direct Object (Adjective) – Indirect Object – (Adverb) Verb**

Notice how in the sentence map that direct and indirect objects have their own special places due to their important relationships with all the other words in the

sentence. Nevertheless, these objects will not always fall in exactly the same place in every Latin sentence. This is allowed because of the inflection of Latin nouns in different cases; therefore, it is imperative that we learn which Latin noun cases are used for these integral objects.

### **Accusative Case – Direct Object**

Each Latin noun case has a variety of syntactical relationships that it demonstrates. However, the most basic and perhaps most frequently seen relationship that the accusative case demonstrates is that of the direct object. As we soon start to memorize Latin noun endings, then, we should also start to associate those used for the accusative case with a direct object. If we are still having trouble finding a direct object in a sentence, though, we can still always look for the answer to the question “Whom/What?” is being directly affected by the verb’s action. For instance, “What is the poet telling?” in the sentence below? She is telling a story, making “story” our direct object.

#### **DO – Accusative**

The poet is telling a story.

### **Dative Case – Indirect Object**

A good way to remember the use of the dative case with indirect objects actually comes from its name. The term “dative” is derived from the Latin verb *dare*, meaning “to give.” When we first discussed indirect objects as a noun function, we discovered that indirect objects are frequently found with verbs of giving, thus the connection between the *dative* case and its usage with indirect objects. Despite this connection, though, there are many other types of verbs that will also take an indirect object.

Again, we will soon be able to begin associating dative-case endings with indirect objects, but we can also still look for an answer to the question “To/for whom/what?” to find the indirect object if we are ever unsure. Take for example the following sentence in which we see that the answer to the question “To whom is the poet telling a story?” is “audience,” which would make it our indirect object.

#### **IO – Dative**

The poet is telling the audience a story.

**Grammatica III.iii**  
**Case Usages III**  
**Accusative and Ablative**  
**Object of the Preposition**

**\*Objectives\***

- **Associate placement of Latin prepositional phrases with adjectival or adverbial uses.**
- **Identify a basic usage of the accusative and ablative cases.**
- **Associate accusative or ablative objects of prepositions with dynamic or static states, respectively.**

We have seen that a noun's function is part of its **syntax**, or how it relates to other words in a sentence; however, being an object of the preposition is just one relationship between a noun and a preposition. We have also discovered that entire prepositional phrases have syntactical relationships all their own as they interact with different parts of speech.

**Placement of Latin Prepositional Phrases**

**Subject Noun – Direct Object (Adjective) – Indirect Object – (Adverb) Verb**

This generic sentence map for the layout of Latin sentences should be becoming quite familiar at this point. A couple of points that might have been overlooked, though, are the placements of adjectives and adverbs. We see that an adjective modifying the direct object in a Latin sentence tends to follow it, as we discussed with the usage of the genitive case as a possessive noun adjective; whereas, an adverb modifying a Latin verb tends to precede it. Of course, an adjective can modify any noun in a sentence – not just the direct object – but it nevertheless tends to follow any noun it modifies in Latin.

These general placements of adjectives and adverbs in relation to the words they modify also usually extends to prepositional phrases and how they are used. That is, if a prepositional phrase is being used adjectivally (i.e. modifying a noun or pronoun), it will tend to follow the word it modifies. Likewise, an adverbial prepositional phrase (i.e. modifying a verb, adjective, or adverb) will tend to come before the word it modifies.



## **Accusative and Ablative Cases – Object of the Preposition**

We learned in our last lesson that the accusative case is used for direct objects, but we will very frequently see it used as the object of the preposition, as well. The ablative case is also used as the object of the preposition. Why are both these cases used for the same syntactical relationship? This is because the majority of Latin prepositions use either one case or the other for their objects, and which case is used is often a function of dynamic versus static states.

### **Accusative Case – Dynamic States**

One way that we can think of Latin prepositions that take the accusative case for their objects is that they express states that are *dynamic*. In other words, these prepositions often describe movement or change of some sort – whether literal or figurative. Examples of such prepositions might include “to,” “toward,” “into,” “onto,” “around,” “through,” “across,” or “over.” The Latin version of each of these prepositions will take the accusative case for its object.

### **Ablative Case – Static States**

Conversely, Latin prepositions that take the ablative case for their objects frequently express states that are *static*, or conditions that are unchanging or stationary. Latin versions of the prepositions “in,” “on,” “above,” “below,” “with,” or “without” are all examples of those that would use the ablative case for their objects to express such a condition. Of course, these generalizations of the uses of the accusative and ablative cases will always have exceptions, but they are nonetheless good rules of thumb to remember when we inspect Latin prepositions more closely.

## Grammatica IV.i First Declension Nouns

### \*Objectives\*

- **Define a declension.**
- **Memorize endings for First Declension nouns.**
- **Associate the First Declension with its genitive singular ending.**

We have discussed in previous lessons how the different Latin noun cases are used to fulfill various noun functions. But how can we tell when a Latin noun is in a particular case? Luckily, Latin nouns have sets of endings – one to four letters at the end of the word – that help us identify their case and number. A group of nouns that shares such a set of endings is known as a **declension**.

### First Declension Noun Endings

The first set of endings that we will be memorizing naturally belongs to nouns of the First Declension. We can remember that this group of nouns is the *First* Declension by considering that the letter “a” is the first letter of the alphabet and that this letter appears in most of the endings for First Declension as we can see here.

Case	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>-a</b>	<b>-ae</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>-ae</b>	<b>-ārum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>-ae</b>	<b>-īs</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>-am</b>	<b>-ās</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>-ā</b>	<b>-īs</b>

As you review this chart, you will notice that these endings for First Declension nouns are preceded by a dash (-). You will find this again and again as you study

Latin and learn various sets of endings for nouns and verbs. The dashes simply indicate that there is part of the word that comes before the ending in the same way we talk about suffixes (e.g. “-ly,” “-ty,” “-ness”) for English words.

### **Identifying Declensions – Genitive Singular**

We have already mentioned that we can often identify a First Declension noun by letter “a” that crops up in so many of the declension’s endings. However, there is an even more surefire way to tell to which declension a noun belongs.

Whether in your vocabulary lists or in a Latin dictionary, noun entries will typically provide two forms of the noun: nominative singular first and genitive singular second. It is the genitive singular form of a noun that we should always use to help us identify a noun’s declension and thereby the endings and stem used to decline it – a process we will learn in our next lesson.

For now, consider the two Latin nouns *puella* (“girl”) and *poēma* (“poem”). Both these nouns appear at first glance to belong to the First Declension since both their nominative singular forms end with a short “a.” When we inspect the genitive singular forms (*puellae* and *poēmatis*), though, we find that they do not belong to the same declension at all. The *-ae* ending found in the genitive singular form of *puella* places it in First Declension; where, the *-is* genitive singular ending places *poēma* in the Third Declension. Familiarizing ourselves with the genitive singular endings for each declension, then, will be an important step in recognizing nouns that belong to each.

## **Grammatica IV.ii**

### **First Declension Nouns**

### **Declining Nouns**

#### **\*Objective\***

- **Define and practice the process of declension.**

In our last lesson, we learned about nouns of the First Declension and the endings they share that make them part of a “declension.” We will see now that the term “**declension**” can also be used to refer to the process of applying endings to a noun to render a particular case and number. As a verb, we will say that we are going to “decline” a noun in a given number and case.

#### **How to Decline a Latin Noun**

Although there are five different declensions of Latin nouns with different endings, the procedure we follow to decline a Latin noun will be the same regardless of the declension to which it belongs.

We mentioned in the last lesson that it was important to be able to identify a noun’s genitive singular form and to associate its genitive singular ending with its declension. Knowing this information will also be imperative to declining a noun properly, as we can see in the procedure outlined below.

- 1. Identify the noun’s genitive singular form.**
- 2. Remove the genitive singular ending to find the noun’s stem.**
- 3. Add endings from the noun’s declension to decline it in a certain case and number.**

Let’s run through an example as we decline the First Declension noun *puella*, *puellae* in all its forms. First, we must identify the noun’s genitive singular form, which we have already discussed as being the second form of the noun listed in any vocabulary list or dictionary entry (*puellae*). Next, we will remove the genitive singular ending – *-ae* for First Declension – from the genitive singular form to provide us with the noun’s **stem**, or form of a word without any identifying endings but to which endings can be added (*puell-*). Lastly, we will add any of the endings for First Declension nouns that we might need to finish declining our noun in a particular case and number, which you can find performed fully for *puella* in the following chart.

<b>Noun Stem [<i>puell-</i>] + First Declension Endings (in parentheses)</b>		
<b>Case</b>	<b>Singular</b>	<b>Plural</b>
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>(-a) <i>puella</i></b>	<b>(-ae) <i>puellae</i></b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>(-ae) <i>puellae</i></b>	<b>(-ārum) <i>puellārum</i></b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>(-ae) <i>puellae</i></b>	<b>(-īs) <i>puellīs</i></b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>(-am) <i>puellam</i></b>	<b>(-ās) <i>puellās</i></b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>(-ā) <i>puellā</i></b>	<b>(-īs) <i>puellīs</i></b>

### ***Nōtā Bene***

You may be tempted to use any of these forms of *puella* to find the noun's stem since the appropriate stem can be found by removing the ending from any one of these forms. However, as you learn future declensions, this will not be the case, so it is always best to stick to the same declension procedure that we have discussed involving the noun's genitive singular form and the declension's genitive singular ending.

## *Grammatica IV.iii* **First Declension Nouns** **Gender**

### **\*Objective\***

- **Discuss gender of Latin nouns, particularly those of the First Declension.**

It has been mentioned before that all Latin nouns possess three characteristics: gender, number, and case. We have already explored number (singular or plural) and to some degree the Latin noun cases and how they inform us of a noun's function in a sentence. Now it is time to talk more about the genders of Latin nouns.

Nouns in most other modern languages (e.g. Spanish, German, Russian) are assigned a gender; however, truly gendered terms in English are much less common. We have some gendered distinctions, such as “actor” and “actress,” but even those are beginning to fall out of use. For this reason, dealing with nouns that have genders assigned to them might seem especially foreign to native Anglophones (speakers of English), but it is a concept with which we will become very familiar in Latin.

### **Genders of Latin Nouns**

In English, a noun's having or not having a gender really has no effect on it or the words around it. However, we will see later that, in Latin and many other languages, the gender of a noun also affects the forms of the adjectives used to modify it. We can see this from time to time in English words that have been borrowed from other languages, such as the French loanword “blond” for males and “blonde” for females. Even these different forms, though, are often disused in English, with people using one form or the other exclusively to refer to both males and females. When we begin to learn about Latin adjectives, though, knowing the genders of the nouns they modify will be extremely important.

We listed briefly before the three genders for Latin nouns: feminine, masculine, and neuter. We will see the gender of any Latin noun notated in our vocabulary lists and in many dictionary entries with the letters “**f**” for **feminine**, “**m**” for **masculine**, and “**n**” for **neuter**. There is, however, a fourth notation you will see occasionally – “**c**” for **common**. We do not see this last notation very frequently since it is used only for terms that could be either masculine or feminine depending on to whom it refers. Take for instance the Latin word *convīva* meaning “guest.” Since a guest can be either a male or a female, *convīva* is listed as “common,” with

either the masculine or feminine gender assigned to it once we know to whom the term is referring.

## Gender in First Declension

As we begin to familiarize ourselves with the concept of gendered nouns, it will be helpful to start with understanding that **most nouns of the First Declension are feminine**. It makes sense, then, that many of the First Declension nouns we are encountering refer to female individuals (e.g. “girl,” “woman,” “daughter”). The Romans also often categorized many place names and abstract concepts as feminine, so we will also find a good number of these nouns in the First Declension (e.g. “Rome,” “justice”).

## Grammatica IV.iv

### First Declension Nouns First Declension Masculine

#### \*Objective\*

- **Discuss gender of Latin nouns, particularly masculine nouns of the First Declension.**

In our last lesson, we talked about how all Latin nouns are assigned one of three genders: feminine, masculine, or neuter. We also mentioned that most nouns of the First Declension are feminine. The emphasis here is that *most* First Declension nouns are feminine – certainly not all.

### First Declension Masculine Nouns

We have seen that the Romans assigned the feminine gender to nouns that name abstract concepts, places, and of course female individuals, as well as that many such nouns belong to the First Declension. There are instances, though, when First Declension nouns identify an occupation in which Roman women did not or were not permitted to take part. Nouns like *agricola* (“farmer”), *athlēta* (“athlete”), and *nauta* (“sailor”), then, that described jobs associated with men were accordingly assigned the masculine gender.

### Gender Associations

Going forward, we should not always assume that the gender of a Latin noun has anything to do with an association with men or with women. There are of course

times at which this is true, but all Latin nouns must be assigned a gender as a grammatical necessity. The gender of a noun determines the form of an adjective used to modify it, so the noun must be categorized under one gender or another – sometimes with no connection to an association with males or females.

## **Grammatica V.i**

### **Latin Verbs Verbal Properties**

#### **\*Objectives\***

- **List and define properties of Latin verbs.**

We have already learned a good deal about Latin nouns and their inflection into different forms. Just as these nouns are inflected, so too are Latin verbs highly inflected to give us a wide variety of information. In fact, you could say that Latin verbs provide us even more information than Latin nouns. This is because Latin nouns possess only three attributes: gender, number, and case; whereas, Latin verbs have five. We have mentioned these verbal attributes in a previous lesson, but we will review them here as we begin to dig deeper into the world of Latin verbs.

#### **Verbal Attributes**

The three characteristics of a Latin noun – particularly its case – tell us a great deal about what a noun is doing in a sentence. It is up to the following five attributes of verbs, then, to provide us with the details on who, how many, when, and in what ways these nouns are involved in the action or state of being contained in the sentence.

**Person** – references the participant in an action or state of being.

**Number** – accounts for one or multiple participants.

**Tense** – identifies the time at which an action or state of being takes place. The tenses of Latin verbs are also associated with what we call “aspect,” the idea of the action being complete or incomplete, which we will discuss more thoroughly later.

**Voice** – describes the agency of the participants in a verb’s action.



**Mood** – informs on the mode of discourse. That is, if the verb is giving a command, discussing a hypothetical situation, or simply being informative.

The combinations of these attributes working together offer us so much information that it can seem a little overwhelming at times. Therefore, we will be focused on just a few of them for now and will explore each in more depth as it becomes necessary.

### **Principal Parts of Latin Verbs**

To account for the great number of changes to the forms of Latin verbs it takes to express all the various combinations of the five verbal attributes, most verbs in Latin have four principal parts. This concept might sound a little foreign at first, but English verbs also possess principal parts, as we can see with the following examples.

<u>Infinitive/Present</u>	<u>Past</u>	<u>Past Participle</u>
(to) show	showed	shown
(to) do	did	done
(to) drink	drank	drunk
(to) lie	laid	lain
(to) lay	laid	laid

These principal parts of English verbs help us know what forms to begin using when we want to talk about that verb in a particular combination of person, number, tense, voice, and mood, and the principal parts of Latin verbs work in the same way.

<u>First Principal Part</u>	<u>Second Principal Part</u>	<u>Third Principal Part</u>	<u>Fourth Principal Part</u>
amō	amāre	amāvī	amātus

We will begin discussing these principal parts in more depth in our next lesson; however, for now, you can start to see how the variety of principal parts can facilitate the inflection of Latin verbs into their various forms.

## **Grammatica V.ii**

### **Latin Verbs**

### **Principal Parts**

### **Perfect System**

#### **\*Objectives\***

- **Define aspect.**
- **Define participle.**
- **Identify principal parts of Latin verbs used for the perfect system.**

We mentioned in our last lesson that most Latin verbs have four principal parts. We can think of these four as being divided into two groups: one for the present system, and one for the perfect system. Although we will not be working with Latin verbs in the perfect system for some time, we will begin our discussion here with what a system of verbs is and what information it gives us.

### **Perfect System**

The systems of Latin verbs are associated with the concept of a verb's **aspect**, or the distinction between complete or incomplete actions or states of being. The two systems of Latin verbs have three tenses each belonging to them, and each tense connects the system's aspect with a particular point in time. For example, the perfect system describes actions that are completed (*perfectus* = "completed," "done"). The three tenses of the perfect system, then, tell us at what time the action is completed –

**Perfect Tense** = completed action in the present: *has done (today)*

**Pluperfect Tense** = completed action in the past: *had done (yesterday)*

**Future Perfect Tense** = completed action in the future: *will have done (tomorrow)*

The principal parts we talked about last time are used to inflect verbs in these different tenses. Even though we will not be working with verbs in the perfect system for a while, let's take a look at the two principal parts used for this system.

### Third Principal Part – 1<sup>st</sup> Person Singular Perfect Active

First Principal Part    Second Principal Part    Third Principal Part    Fourth Principal Part

amō                      amāre                      amāvī                      amātus

Although it contains the verb ending (-ī) that forms a Latin verb in this very particular combination of verbal attributes, the Third Principal Part is also used to find the verb stem used to inflect a Latin verb in the active voice for perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect tenses. If we wanted to say “you have loved,” “we had loved,” or “they will have loved,” then, we would need to use the Third Principal Part (*amāvī*) for that purpose. Since we will not be forming verbs in the perfect system for a while, we will not be seeing the Third Principal Part very often.

### Fourth Principal Part – Perfect Passive Participle

First Principal Part    Second Principal Part    Third Principal Part    Fourth Principal Part

amō                      amāre                      amāvī                      amātus

When we want to begin forming a Latin verb in the passive voice of the perfect system, we use the Fourth Principal Part. This principal part enables us to say things like “he has been loved,” “I had been loved,” or “you will have been loved,” which are all expressions of the passive voice in the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect tenses.

Aside from helping us inflect the verb, the Fourth Principal Part is also a verbal adjective known as a **participle** and can be used like any other Latin adjective. If you wanted to describe your grandmother as “(be)loved,” for instance, you could use the perfect passive participle (*amātus*) to identify her as *avia amāta*. We will be seeing these participles again once we begin learning more about Latin adjectives.

## Grammatica V.iii

### Latin Verbs Principal Parts Present System

#### \*Objectives\*

- **Define conjugation.**
- **Identify principal parts of Latin verbs used for the present system.**

We will not encounter the last two principal parts of Latin verbs too frequently as we begin working with verbs and their inflection. The first two, however, will be crucial as we learn the process of **conjugation**, or the inflection of verbs into various forms depending on the required attributes. We will begin learning how to conjugate Latin verbs in the present system, which requires the use of the first two principal parts.

#### Present System

We learned last time that the systems of Latin verbs are associated with the distinction between complete or incomplete actions or states of being known as “aspect.” We also learned that the three tenses belonging to each system connect that system’s aspect with a particular point in time. In the present system, the aspect is that of incomplete action, which we can think of in a few ways: 1) *ongoing* – action currently in the process of being done, 2) *habitual* – action performed on a regular basis, or 3) *forthcoming* – action yet to be started or finished. Connecting the incomplete aspect of the present system (*praesēns* = “at hand,” “currently involved”) to specific points in time are these three tenses –

**Present Tense** = incomplete action in the present: *does / is doing*

**Imperfect Tense** = incomplete action in the past: *was doing / used to do*

**Future Tense** = incomplete action in the future: *will do / am going to do*

As we begin learning how to conjugate Latin verbs in the tenses of the present system, we will become intimately familiar with the first two principal parts. In fact, since the present system is the only system with which we will be dealing for a while, the first two principal parts of our verbs are the only ones that will be listed

in your vocabulary lists. However, you can always find the remaining principal parts displayed in the *Glossa* provided to you.

## First Principal Part – 1<sup>st</sup> Person Singular Present Active

First Principal Part    Second Principal Part    Third Principal Part    Fourth Principal Part

amō                      amāre                      amāvī                      amātus

Like the Third Principal Part, the First Principal Part gives us a very specific combination of verbal attributes. Unlike the Third Principal Part, though, the First is *not* used as directly in a verb's conjugation. Instead, the First Principal Part primarily helps us distinguish between different groups of verbs – an idea that will come into play a bit later.

## Second Principal Part – Present Active Infinitive

First Principal Part    Second Principal Part    Third Principal Part    Fourth Principal Part

amō                      amāre                      amāvī                      amātus

The Second Principal Part will prove to be the most crucial as we learn to conjugate Latin verbs – particularly the first two groups of verbs that we will encounter. All three tenses of the present system and both active and passive voices will use this principal part directly as part of their conjugation. This principal part is also known as an “infinitive,” an important part of any verb that we will begin exploring more deeply in our upcoming lessons.

## Grammatica V.iv

### Latin Verbs

#### Infinitives

##### \*Objectives\*

- **Define an infinitive.**
- **Identify English infinitives.**

While we were exploring the four principal parts of Latin verbs, we came across the present active infinitive (Second Principal Part). An **infinitive** is an important part of any verb and represents an unconjugated verb form that does not yet have a clear subject. In contrast to an “*infinitive*,” a **finite verb** is one that expresses a clear subject along with other verbal attributes. Although we will often use infinitives to help us conjugate verbs into various forms with different expressions of the verbal attributes we have discussed, infinitives also possess some important characteristics of their own. For now, let’s begin by learning how to identify infinitives in English.

#### English Infinitives

As we began delving into the world of verbs, we saw that English verbs also possess principal parts. The first principal part of an English verb is its present active infinitive as the second is for Latin verbs.

##### Present Active Infinitive

##### Past

##### Past Participle

(to) **show**

showed

shown

(to) **do**

did

done

(to) **drink**

drank

drunk

(to) **lie**

laid

lain

(to) **lay**

laid

laid

You can see in the examples we encountered in a previous lesson that the verb forms in bold (i.e. “show,” “do,” “drink,” “lie,” “lay”) are without any subjects. Adding a subject such as “Romans” to any of these would make them finite verbs: “Romans show,” “Romans do,” “Romans drink,” “Romans lie,” “Romans lay.” The word “to” in parentheses that appears beside these infinitives, then, represents not a subject of the verb but a functional word typically added with English infinitives to create infinitive phrases: “to show,” “to do,” “to drink,” etc. When we translate Latin infinitives into English, we will usually do so by talking about them in infinitive phrases like these, as you find with the verbs in our vocabulary lists.

## **Grammatica V.v** **Latin Verbs** **Second Principal Part**

### **\*Objective\***

- **Identify Latin present active infinitives.**

Now that we have experience with finding English infinitives, we can begin learning how to recognize Latin present active infinitives when we encounter them. For English verbs, this infinitive is typically their first principal part; however, we discovered while exploring the other principal parts of Latin verbs that their present active infinitives are found as the Second Principal Part.

Perhaps the easiest way to recognize these infinitives for Latin verbs is by looking for the last two letters. No matter what group a Latin verb might belong to, the Second Principal Part of regular verbs will end with the final two letters *-re*. We can think of this *-re* ending for Latin present active infinitives as taking place of the function word “to” in English infinitive phrases. This will help us understand why we translate them the way we do in our vocabulary lists, as well as help distinguish them from nouns (e.g. *amāre* “to love” [verb] vs. *amor* “love” [noun]).

The Second Principal Part will become crucial as we discover how to conjugate our first two groups of Latin verbs. For now, though, we need only focus on identifying these present active infinitives.

## Grammatica V.vi

### Latin Verbs

### Infinitives as Nouns

#### **\*Objectives\***

- **Define a verbal noun.**
- **Recognize infinitives as subject nouns, predicate nominatives, and direct objects.**

We have learned that infinitives are important verb forms on their own and that they will play an important role in conjugating verbs into various finite forms. However, infinitives also serve an important function as **verbal nouns**, or verb forms acting as nouns. Since an infinitive can behave as a noun, this means it can perform some of the same functions as any other noun.

#### **Infinitive Noun Functions**

Although they can be used as verbal nouns, infinitives do not perform all of the same functions that other nouns do. Infinitives in both English and Latin do perform some very important noun functions, though – subject noun, predicate nominative, and direct object.

#### **Subject Noun and Predicate Nominative**

English and Latin infinitives can be used as the subject noun of another verb or as a predicate nominative. This verb is usually a form of the being or another linking verb and is used with the infinitive as its subject or predicate nominative to describe general information about an action.

**To err** *is* human.

**To love** children *means to teach* them.

Like any other Latin noun, an infinitive must be assigned a case. Assigning a case to an infinitive, however, will not change its form as it does with other nouns; rather, we will simply recognize an infinitive as being in a particular case. Since the infinitives above are acting as subject nouns or a predicate nominative, for instance, we would classify their Latin counterparts as being in the nominative case because this case is used for subject nouns and predicate nominatives.



## **Direct Object**

Infinitives as verbal nouns also frequently appear as direct objects of other verbs, as we can see in the following examples.

We don't *like to run*.

The students *love to read* books.

Here, the finite verbs “like” and “love” have the infinitives “run” and “read” as their direct objects. We can tell these infinitives are direct objects because they answer the same question (“What?” is affected by the main verb) as other direct objects. We can also see that, since they are *verbal* nouns and therefore still verbs themselves, infinitives can also have their own direct objects: “To love *children...*” or “to read *books.*”

We saw with their functions as subject nouns or predicate nominatives that Latin infinitives must also be assigned a case when acting as nouns. When they are behaving as direct objects, then, Latin infinitives will be considered accusative since this is the case typically used for direct objects.

## **Gender of Latin Infinitives**

Just as infinitives as verbal nouns must be assigned a case like other Latin nouns, they will also possess a gender like all other Latin nouns. Latin infinitives are always considered neuter in gender when acting as verbal nouns, so we will eventually see that any adjectives modifying these verbal nouns must also be neuter.

## ***Grammatica VI.i***

### **Verbal Properties I: Person and Number**

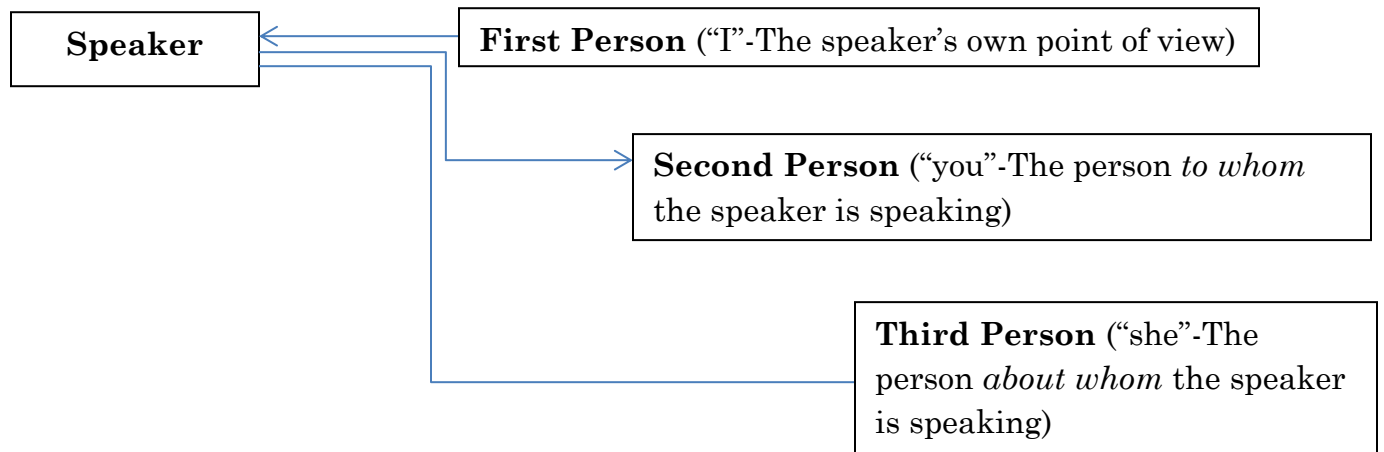
#### **\*Objectives\***

- **Explain the verbal properties of person and number.**
- **Recognize the person and number of English verbs.**

Before we ever actually begin to conjugate Latin verbs, we need to make sure that we have a good understanding of the various properties of verbs that affect how they are conjugated. There are five individual properties of a verb that give us all the information about the verb's action that we need. For now, though, we will only focus on two of them: person and number.

#### **Person**

The **person** of a verb tells us who is performing the action in relation to the speaker. The numbers (First, Second, or Third) assigned to the different persons relate to the "closeness" of those persons to the speaker. Use the illustration below to help you understand the concept of the different verbal persons.



Examining the illustration above, we can see that First Person has to be the "closest" to the speaker because it represents the speaker's own point of view. Second Person is the next closest to the speaker since it represents someone in conversation with the speaker. The furthest person from the speaker is Third Person since this person is the one whom the speaker is talking about but who is not involved in the conversation.

## Number

As with nouns, a verb's **number** (singular or plural) simply tells us how many individuals are involved in the verb's action. Together, a Latin verb's person and number inform us who the verb's subject is. If we refer to our *Cantus* (provided below for you) from this week, we can see how combining a verb's person and number leads us to subject pronouns we can use for each of the six possible combinations.

	Singular	Plural
<i>First Person</i>	First Person Singular = <i>I</i>	First Person Plural = <i>we</i>
<i>Second Person</i>	Second Person Singular = <i>you</i>	Second Person Plural = <i>you (all)</i>
<i>Third Person</i>	Third Person Singular = <i>he/she/it</i>	Third Person Plural = <i>they</i>

## Grammatica VI.ii Verbal Properties II Tense

### \*Objectives\*

- Describe the tense of a verb.
- Recognize English verbs in present tense.

As we discussed in our last lesson, there are various properties of verbs that provide us with a wide array of information. We learned about person and number, which tell us who is performing a verb's action. Now, we are going to learn about **tense**, which informs us when the action of a verb takes place. In other words, **tense = time**.

For now, we are going to focus on **present tense**. This tense tells us that a verb's action is taking place here and now. However, we will be working with two other tenses this year, as well – imperfect and future. You can probably guess that the future tense will be working with actions at a later time; whereas, the imperfect

tense deals with actions in the past. We will of course delve deeper into these tenses when the time comes.

The combination of the three verbal properties we have learned about so far – person, number, and tense – tells us who and how many are involved in a verb’s action and when it takes place. When we talk about verbs in the present tense in English, there are usually a couple different ways that we do that. The simplest way involves simply saying “I **do**” or “he/she/it **does**” something in the present time. Perhaps an even easier method to recognize as present tense, though, is found in what we call the “present progressive,” meaning the action is currently in progress of being done, which we can indicate by saying “I **am doing**.” Knowing how we talk about actions in the present tense will come in handy when we begin discussing how to translate Latin present-tense verbs into English.

## **Grammatica VII.i** **First Conjugation Verbs**

### **\*Objective\***

- **Recognize First Conjugation nouns by their principal parts.**

Just as we categorize different groups of Latin nouns into declensions, we also organize Latin verbs into **conjugations**, or groups of verbs that share certain characteristics when being conjugated. We saw with “declension” that the term can refer both to the groups of nouns, as well as to the process of creating the various forms of a noun. Likewise, “conjugation” might refer to the group to which a verb belongs or to the process of creating the various forms of a verb – a process that we will investigate soon.

### **Recognizing First Conjugation Verbs**

For now, let’s talk about how we can recognize a First Conjugation verb when we see it. We can identify verbs of the First Conjugation as the group of verbs (“conjugation”) that have a long *a* (*ā*) as part of their infinitives and therefore part of their stems, which we will see later. For instance, verbs such as *amō*, *amāre*; *nārrō*, *nārrāre*; and *spectō*, *spectāre* are all First Conjugation verbs because they have *ā* in their infinitives (*amāre*, *nārrāre*, *spectāre*).

Using a verb’s present active infinitive (Second Principal Part) is the easiest and most surefire way to identify it as First Conjugation or any other; however, there are some other significant signposts found among verbs of this conjugation. For instance, most First Conjugation verbs have Third Principal parts ending in *-āvī* like *amāvī*, *nārrāvī*, or *spectāvī*. Nevertheless, there are exceptions such as *dedī*, the Third Principal Part of the First Conjugation verb *dō*, *dare* (“I give, to give”).

Verbs of the First Conjugation also tend to have very similar Fourth Principal parts, with the majority of them ending in *-ātus*. Take for example *amātus*, *nārrātus*, *spectātus*, or even *dātus* (from *dare*).

## **Grammatica VII.ii** **First Conjugation Verbs** **Conjugating in Present Tense**

### **\*Objectives\***

- **Define the process of conjugation.**
- **Recognize information conveyed by personal endings.**
- **Conjugate First Conjugation verbs in present tense.**

We recently talked about how the term “**conjugation**” can refer both to the group of verbs that are conjugated similarly, as well as to the process of producing different forms of a verb to reflect certain verbal properties. In this lesson, we will focus on just that process as it applies to First Conjugation verbs in the present tense.

### **Conjugation**

As was mentioned above, “conjugation” is a process by which we produce various forms of a verb to reflect verbal properties such as person, number, and tense. English verbs themselves do not undergo many changes in this process. Instead, we tend to “conjugate” verbs in English by adding pronouns or helping verbs to reflect things like person, number, and tense. For instance, we may produce the Second Person singular present progressive form of “to walk” by adding the pronoun “you” and the helping verb “are” to the present participial form “walking” to give us “you are walking.”

In Latin, though, we have a library of different verb endings that can and often do take the place of all the extra words found in English verb conjugation. A good place to start with these endings is to understand just why we might refer to them as “personal” endings.

### **Personal Endings – Present Tense**

The variety of verb endings we use to conjugate Latin verbs are often called “personal” endings because they provide us first and foremost with the information of who is involved in the verb’s action. In other words, even though subject pronouns certainly exist in Latin, there are quite frequently left out because the endings tell us exactly who is involved in the verb’s action without having to use a pronoun at all! This is particularly true for First and Second Person as we can see in the chart below that lists the personal endings used to conjugate First Conjugation verbs in the present tense.

	Singular	Plural
<i>First Person</i>	<b>-ō</b> = <i>I</i>	<b>-mus</b> = <i>we</i>
<i>Second Person</i>	<b>-s</b> = <i>you</i>	<b>-tis</b> = <i>you (all)</i>
<i>Third Person</i>	<b>-t</b> = <i>he/she/it</i>	<b>-nt</b> = <i>they</i>

We can tell as we examine this chart that we are able to identify the subject of a Latin verb as “I,” “you,” “we,” or “you (all)” very easily without ever having to use a Latin pronoun at all. Nevertheless, verbs in Third Person will typically require a subject noun or pronoun to clarify exactly who or what is involved in their actions, but we can always use the English pronouns “he/she/it” or “they” as placeholders until the proper subject is identified.

### First Conjugation Verbs – Present Tense

Now that we have encountered the personal endings used to conjugate First Conjugation verbs in the present tense, we can focus on how they are employed in the process of conjugation. You will find below a basic procedure for conjugating First Conjugation verbs in the present tense that we will actually follow again and again in other tenses and for other conjugations of verbs, as well.

**I) Identify the verb’s infinitive.**

**II) Find the stem of the verb by removing the final *-re* from the infinitive.**

**III) Add personal endings according to the person and number of the verb’s subject.**

There is one more step that we have to remember when conjugating First Conjugation verbs in the present tense, though. Since the *ā* in a First Conjugation verb’s stem shortens before the personal endings *-ō*, *-t*, and *-nt*, the sound of the *-ō* found in First Person singular overpowers the sound of the now short *a*, causing the *a* at the end of the stem to fall out entirely. This means that we end up with *amō* or *nārrō* instead of *amaō* or *nārraō*. The rest of the personal endings, however, are simply added directly to the verb stems without any other changes, as we can see in the following table where we have fully conjugated *amō*, *amāre* in the present tense.

	Singular	Plural
<i>First Person</i>	<b>amō</b>	<b>amāmus</b>
<i>Second Person</i>	<b>amās</b>	<b>amātis</b>
<i>Third Person</i>	<b>amat</b>	<b>amant</b>

**Grammatica VII.iii**  
**First Conjugation Verbs**  
**Translating in Present Tense**

**\*Objectives\***

- **Define the process of translation.**
- **Recall methods of discussing present-tense verbs in English.**
- **Translate First Conjugation verbs in present tense.**

Now that we have learned how to conjugate First Conjugation verbs in the present tense, we can discuss how we translate these forms.

**Translation**

Where “conjugation” describes the process of producing different verb forms and “declension” refers to the process of producing different noun forms, “**translation**” describes the process of converting information from one language to another. That is to say that the conjugated and declined forms of Latin verbs and nouns can be converted to English in order for us to understand an author’s message.

Although we have very specific English definitions listed for Latin terms in our vocabulary lists, the truth of the matter is that there are dictionaries full of different meanings for the same Latin word. Many of these meanings depend greatly on the Roman author who is using the word, the period during which the piece was written, and a plethora of other contextual information. Knowing the context will be imperative to producing an accurate English translation, and thoroughly reading our English translations will be necessary to make sure what we are saying makes sense. Beyond conveying the factual information contained in the words, however, translating from Latin or any other language is largely an artform, so you should expect your translation of a sentence to look somewhat

different from someone else's just as you would expect your sculpture of an owl to look different from another person's interpretation while still depicting the same creature.

### Translating Present Tense

Luckily for us, we can rely on the personal endings of Latin verbs to take much of the extra searching or guesswork out of translating them – particularly when it comes to their subjects. We can find those endings for First Conjugation verbs in present tense listed here again for our convenience and review.

	Singular	Plural
<i>First Person</i>	<b>-ō = I</b>	<b>-mus = we</b>
<i>Second Person</i>	<b>-S = you</b>	<b>-tis = you (all)</b>
<i>Third Person</i>	<b>-t = he/she/it</b>	<b>-nt = they</b>

Also fortuitous for us is the fact that we have recently discussed how we talk about English verbs in the present tense. We identified that we typically talk about present-tense action in one of two ways: 1) simply – “I do” or 2) progressively – “I am doing.”

We will apply these same principles to translating Latin present-tense verbs. Take for instance the conjugated form *cēlāmus*. We can tell by the personal ending *-mus* that the verb is First Person plural, and therefore its subject is “we.” We can also see that the verb's action takes place in the present. Combining this information with the definition of *cēlāre* meaning “to hide,” we can then determine that we should translate *cēlāmus* as either “we hide” or “we are hiding.” This same process can be applied to any present-tense First Conjugation verb, as we can see in the table below that displays the conjugated forms of *spectāre* (“to watch”) in the present tense and the methods of translating them.



	Singular	Plural
<i>First Person</i>	<b>spectō =</b> <i>I watch</i> <i>I am watching</i>	<b>spectāmus =</b> <i>we watch</i> <i>we are watching</i>
<i>Second Person</i>	<b>spectās =</b> <i>you watch</i> <i>you are watching</i>	<b>spectātis =</b> <i>you (all) watch</i> <i>you (all) are watching</i>
<i>Third Person</i>	<b>spectat =</b> <i>he/she/it watches</i> <i>he/she/it is watching</i>	<b>spectant =</b> <i>they watch</i> <i>they are watching</i>

## Grammatica VIII.i

### Transitive and Intransitive Verbs

#### \*Objectives\*

- **Define a direct object.**
- **Distinguish between transitive and intransitive verbs.**

While it is not one of the five verbal properties we have mentioned before, being able to determine the relationships between verbs and nouns other than their subjects is still important. One of the most important relationships between verbs and non-subject nouns is one we have mentioned before – the **direct object**, or a noun that is directly affected by the action of a verb. A verb that can take or even often requires a direct object to complete its meaning is known as a verb transitive. A **verb intransitive**, on the other hand, is an action verb that cannot have a direct object.

One of the easiest ways to tell the difference between these two types of verbs is to ask the questions “Whom?” or “What?” in relation to the verb’s action as we have seen previously when discussing direct objects. For example, if we were to say “Vergil tells stories,” we could ask the question “What does Vergil tell?” The answer to that question would be “stories,” making “stories” the direct object of “tells” and making “tells” a verb transitive. Also, consider finding only the words “Vergil tells.” We would obviously end up asking the same question we did before regarding what it is that Vergil tells, meaning that not only does “tells” take a direct object, but it really needs one to complete its meaning.

Verbs intransitive not only do not require a direct object to complete their meaning, but they also cannot have one in the first place. Take for instance the verbs “fall” or “shine.” I cannot “fall” something or someone, and the sun does not “shine” photons on us. The relationships between verbs intransitive and other nouns, then, is usually expressed through various phrases, such as prepositional phrases: “I fell **on the ground.**”

Some verbs can be both transitive and intransitive depending on the context in which we find them. Take for instance “read” and “write.” We could say “Cicero reads and writes speeches,” where “speeches” is the direct object of the verbs transitive “reads” and “writes.” We might also find these verbs in a context such as “Some Romans did not know how to read or write” in which “read” and “write” are intransitive and do not require a direct object for us to understand what is meant by them.

## **Grammatica VIII.ii**

### **Transitive Verbs II: Nominative and Accusative Cases**

#### **\*Objectives\***

- **Associate nominative and accusative cases with subject nouns and direct objects, respectively.**
- **Highlight nominative and accusative endings of First Declension nouns.**

When we last talked about transitive verbs, we identified a **verb transitive** as one that can take or often even requires a direct object to complete its meaning. Saying that a verb is “transitive” really gives us some important information about the relationships between such a verb and nouns. Whether transitive or intransitive, conjugated verbs will need subjects, and subjects are typically indicated by pronouns (e.g. “I,” “you,” “it”) or nouns (e.g. “Caesar,” “the sailors”).

Another crucial relationship between nouns and verbs exists between a verb transitive and its **direct object**, or a noun that is directly affected by the action of a verb. In English, there is no difference in the form of a noun when it is a subject noun or a direct object. For instance, “cow” remains the same whether it is the direct object (“The farmer is milking the cow.” – D.O. of “milking”) or the subject of a verb (“The cow kicked the farmer.” – S.N. of “kicked”).

When we look at pronouns in English, though, we can find different forms depending on what their job in the sentence is. Take for example the sentences “I

am milking the cow.” and “The cow kicked **me**.” Both “I” and “me” refer to the same person; the difference between the two lies in what the individual is doing in the sentence. With “I,” this pronoun is the subject of the verb “milking;” whereas, “me” represents the direct object of the verb “kicked.”

### **Subject Noun – Nominative Case**

This difference between the forms “I” and “me” illustrates an important point that we find with nouns (or pronouns) in Latin: there are different forms for different cases to demonstrate the noun’s job in the sentence. Perhaps the most vital, or certainly the most often seen, job of nouns in the nominative case is as the subject of a verb. The nominative case form of a noun, then, is like the “I” form, and its **syntax** or function in a clause will most likely be a subject noun.

### **Direct Object – Accusative Case**

The accusative case can be used for a number of different reasons, but the reason we are most likely to find a noun in an accusative-case form is if that noun is the direct object of a verb. Accusative forms are then akin to the “me” form of the pronoun we saw earlier since they are also used in similar ways in Latin.

### **Nominative and Accusative Forms for First Declension**

For nouns of the First Declension (the only declension of Latin nouns we have worked with so far), the endings we will use are **-a** for nominative singular and **-ae** for nominative plural, along with **-am** for accusative singular and **-ās** for accusative plural. Just to refresh our memories, let’s go ahead and take a look at these endings in relation to all of the other endings we use for First Declension nouns in the different cases.

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	<b>-a</b>	<b>-ae</b>
Genitive	-ae	-ārum
Dative	-ae	-īs
Accusative	<b>-am</b>	<b>-ās</b>
Ablative	-ā	-īs

Regardless of whether a verb is transitive or intransitive, its subject will always be in the nominative case. The English sentence “The (female) students are working,” then, could be translated into Latin as *discipulae labōrant*, where the subject noun *discipulae* is in the nominative plural (*discipulae*) even though the verb (*labōrant*) is intransitive.

Similarly, the Latin sentence *fēmina puellās vocat* contains a verb transitive (*vocat*); nevertheless, its subject noun (*fēmina*) is still in the nominative case. Since *vocat* is a verb transitive, though, it also has a direct object in the accusative case (*puellās*). If we examine the word order of this Latin sentence, we notice that it does

not follow typical word order that we find in English. This is the reason we use different cases for Latin nouns: no matter where they might appear in a sentence, the cases in which they appear will always be able to tell us what they are doing.

## Grammatica IX.i Second Conjugation Verbs Recognition

### \*Objective\*

- **Distinguish verbs of the Second Conjugation from those of the First Conjugation.**

We learned with First Conjugation verbs that a **conjugation** is a group of verbs that share characteristics of conjugating them in their different forms. It is now time for us to learn about a new group of verbs with shared characteristics known as Second Conjugation.

While working with First Conjugation verbs, we discovered that we can recognize them by the characteristic long “a” (*ā*) that we find in their infinitives and stems (e.g. *amāre* / *amā-*, *spectāre* / *spectā-*, *nārrāre* / *nārrā-*). We can also identify Second Conjugation verbs by their infinitives and stems; only, instead of a long *a*, Second Conjugation verbs have a long “e” (*ē*) as in the infinitives *habēre*, *manēre*, and *vidēre*. While this is an important characteristic of this group of verbs, there is another important aspect about conjugating them that helps distinguish them from First Conjugation verbs.

We will discuss conjugating Second Conjugation verbs further in our next lessons, but there is one aspect of conjugating these verbs and how it affects their First Principal Parts that is imperative to their identification. When adding the personal ending *-ō* to the stems of First Conjugation verbs like *amō*, *amāre*, we found that the *a* in the stem drops out, giving us forms such as *amō*, *spectō*, or *nārrō*. However, the sound of the *e* found in the stem of Second Conjugation verbs is distinct enough from the *-ō* ending that we do not have to lose the *e* in our First Person singular forms, which gives us First Principal Parts like *habēō*, *manēō*, and *videō*.

## Grammatica IX.ii Second Conjugation Present-Tense Endings

### \*Objectives\*

- **Recall present-tense endings used for First Conjugation verbs and apply them to verbs of the Second Conjugation.**

While working with First Conjugation verbs, we learned that Latin verbs use sets of personal endings to tell us who the subject of a verb is and what tense the verb is. Luckily for us, the set of present-tense personal endings we memorized for First Conjugation verbs is the same set of endings we will use for conjugating Second Conjugation verbs in the present tense, so let's remind ourselves of those endings with the chart below.

	Singular	Plural
<i>First Person</i>	<b>-ō = I</b>	<b>-mus = we</b>
<i>Second Person</i>	<b>-s = you</b>	<b>-tis = you (all)</b>
<i>Third Person</i>	<b>-t = he/she/it</b>	<b>-nt = they</b>

Now that we have worked on recalling our present-tense endings, we will be ready to use them in our next lesson when we discuss conjugating Second Conjugation verbs in the present tense.

## **Grammatica IX.iii** **Second Conjugation** **Conjugating in Present Tense**

### \*Objectives\*

- **Identify stems of Second Conjugation verbs.**
- **Conjugate Second Conjugation verbs in the present tense.**

Although we are dealing with a new group of verbs, verbs of the Second Conjugation are **conjugated**, or inflected according to their subject and tense, in much the same way we conjugate verbs of the First Conjugation. In our last lesson, we reminded ourselves of the endings we use for present tense for both First and Second Conjugations. Thankfully, we also employ the same process for conjugating Second Conjugation verbs in the present tense that we used for verbs of the First Conjugation.

### **Conjugating Second Conjugation Verbs in Present Tense**

Aside from keeping the characteristic “e” in all of their forms, we conjugate Second Conjugation verbs in the present tense using the same steps we followed to conjugate verbs of the First Conjugation. Below, we will list those steps and utilize them to see how we conjugate the Second Conjugation verb *videō, vidēre* in the present tense.

- 1) **Identify the verb’s infinitive. (*vidēre*)**
- 2) **Remove the final *-re* from the infinitive to find the verb’s stem. (*vidē-*)**
- 3) **Add personal endings to the stem to conjugate the verb according to the desired person and number.**

	Singular	Plural
<i>First Person</i>	<b>videō</b>	<b>vidēmus</b>
<i>Second Person</i>	<b>vidēs</b>	<b>vidētis</b>
<i>Third Person</i>	<b>videt</b>	<b>vident</b>

## **Grammatica IX.iv** **Second Conjugation** **Translating in Present Tense**

### \*Objectives\*

- **Recall methods for translating in the present tense.**
- **Translate Second Conjugation verbs in the present tense.**

Not only do we use the same methods of conjugating Second Conjugation verbs in the present tense that we used for First Conjugation verbs, but we also use the same methods of translating them in the present tense.

We know that the personal endings let us know who the subject of a verb is, but they also alert us to the tense. Therefore, not only does the *-s* personal ending let us know the subject of the verb is “you”, but it tells us that the tense of the verb is present, as well.

We have two options when translating a Latin verb in present tense. We can use what is known as the “simple present,” which is essentially just the primary definition of the verb. For instance, if *vidēre* means “to see,” the simple present translation of the verb would be “see” or “sees,” depending on the subject.

Another way we can translate a Latin verb in the present tense is by using what we call the “present progressive” form of the verb, which means it is presently in progress of happening. The formula for the present progressive form of a verb involves using the English being verb and the “-ing” form of the verb. Translating *vidēre* in the present progressive form, then, would give us “am/are/is seeing.”

	Singular	Plural
<i>First Person</i>	<b>videō</b> = <i>I see</i> <i>/ am seeing</i>	<b>vidēmus</b> = <i>we</i> <i>see / are seeing</i>
<i>Second Person</i>	<b>vidēs</b> = <i>you</i> <i>see / are seeing</i>	<b>vidētis</b> = <i>you</i> <i>(all) see / are seeing</i>
<i>Third Person</i>	<b>videt</b> = <i>he / she / it sees /</i> <i>is seeing</i>	<b>vident</b> = <i>they</i> <i>see / are seeing</i>



## **Grammatica X.i** **Second Declension Nouns** **Recognition**

### \*Objective\*

- **Distinguish nouns of the Second Declension from those of the First Declension.**

As we saw with First Declension nouns, a **declension** is a group of nouns that share the same endings used to decline them. Now that we are learning a new declension, it will be important for us to tell the different groups of nouns apart.

Before we delve into the full set of endings used to decline Second Declension nouns, we will first focus on the genitive singular. As we learn more declensions, the genitive singular endings and forms will always be the best way to distinguish nouns of one declension from those of another.

For First Declension, the genitive singular ending is *-ae*, so we can identify a noun as belonging to the First Declension if its genitive singular form (second in the dictionary entry) ends in *-ae* like *terra, terrae*. Similarly, we can recognize a Second Declension noun by its genitive singular ending *-ī*, as we see with *deus, deī*. We will come to find that there are actually three different endings that are used for Second Declension nouns in the nominative singular; nevertheless, the genitive singular form with its *-ī* ending will always help us identify a noun as Second Declension.

## **Grammatica X.ii** **Second Declension *-us, -ī*** **Endings**

### \*Objectives\*

- **Memorize endings for Second Declension *-us, -ī* nouns.**
- **Compare and contrast endings of the First and Second Declensions.**

Now that we have learned how to tell First and Second Declension nouns apart using their genitive singular endings, we can focus on learning the rest of the endings for Second Declension *-us, -ī* nouns. We call these nouns this because their nominative singular forms end in *-us*, and their genitive singular forms, of course,

end in  $\bar{i}$ . Most nouns of this type are one particular gender, but we will discuss gender in Second Declension a bit later.

For now, we will focus on memorizing the new set of endings for Second Declension below while also comparing those endings to those used with First Declension.

Case	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	-us	$\bar{i}$
<i>Genitive</i>	$\bar{i}$	-orum
<i>Dative</i>	$\bar{o}$	$\bar{i}s$
<i>Accusative</i>	-um	$\bar{o}s$
<i>Ablative</i>	$\bar{o}$	$\bar{i}s$

### Comparing First and Second Declensions

When we examine the endings used for First Declension and those used for Second Declension alongside one another, we discover that there are several ways in which they are alike. On the most basic level, both declensions have **thematic vowels**, or vowels that are characteristically found as part of a noun's or verb's inflection. The thematic vowel for First Declension is clearly "a" since it occurs in almost every ending for this declension; whereas, "o" and "i" are characteristically seen in the endings for Second Declension.

Another important similarity between First and Second Declension is that genitive singular and nominative plural forms will be the same because they share the same endings (i.e. *-ae* for First Declension, and  $\bar{i}$  for Second Declension).

Having an *m* as the final letter for accusative singular endings is a commonality found not just between First and Second Declensions, but one we will continue to find in other declensions, as well. The accusative plural endings for First and Second Declensions are also very much alike, with the only difference being  $\bar{a}$  for First Declension ( $\bar{a}s$ ) and  $\bar{o}$  for Second Declension ( $\bar{o}s$ ). Similarly, the  $\bar{a}$  found in the

genitive plural ending for First Declension (*-ārum*) is simply replaced by *ō* in the genitive plural of Second Declension nouns.

The greatest likeness found between the endings of First Declension and those of Second Declension, though, is clearly seen in those used for dative and ablative plural. The endings used for dative and ablative plural forms of First Declension nouns are *exactly the same* as those used for the same forms of Second Declension nouns. Use the chart below to help you keep track of these comparisons between the two declensions, as well as to refresh your memory of what First Declension endings look like.

	First Declension	Second Declension	First Declension	Second Declension
Case	Singular		Plural	
<i>Nominative</i>	-a	-us	-ae	-ī
<i>Genitive</i>	-ae	-ī	<b><u>-ārum</u></b>	<b><u>-ōrum</u></b>
<i>Dative</i>	-ae	-ō	<b><u>-īs</u></b>	<b><u>-īs</u></b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b><u>-am</u></b>	<b><u>-um</u></b>	<b><u>-ās</u></b>	<b><u>-ōs</u></b>
<i>Ablative</i>	-ā	-ō	<b><u>-īs</u></b>	<b><u>-īs</u></b>

## Grammatica X.iii

### Second Declension *-us, -ī*

#### Declining

#### \*Objective\*

- **Decline Second Declension *-us, -ī* nouns.**

Despite any similarities we might have noticed between First and Second Declensions, they are nonetheless two different groups of nouns. Thankfully, though, we still follow the same rules to decline Second Declension *-us, -ī* nouns as we do for First Declension. Here are the steps for declining a Latin noun (of any declension):

**1) Locate the noun's genitive singular form.**

(This will be the second of the two forms given in any vocabulary or dictionary entry.)

**2) Remove the genitive singular ending from the genitive singular form to find the noun's stem.**

**3) Add endings to the stem to decline the noun in a given case and number.**

Let's follow these steps with the Second Declension *-us, -ī* noun *deus, deī* to get in a little practice.

**1) *deus, deī*: Genitive singular form = *deī***

**2) Second Declension genitive singular ending = *-ī***

**Stem for *deus, deī* = *de-***

**3) Add Second Declension endings to stem:**

Case	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	<u>de</u> <b>us</b>	<u>de</u> <b>ī</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<u>de</u> <b>ī</b>	<u>de</u> <b>ōrum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<u>de</u> <b>ō</b>	<u>de</u> <b>īs</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<u>de</u> <b>um</b>	<u>de</u> <b>ōs</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<u>de</u> <b>ō</b>	<u>de</u> <b>īs</b>

## **Grammatica X.iv** **Second Declension -us, -ī** **Gender**

### **\*Objective\***

- **Recognize most Second Declension -us, -ī nouns as masculine.**
- **Identify exceptions that are feminine in gender.**

Just as *most* First Declension nouns are feminine, *most* Second Declension nouns are either masculine or neuter. We will learn about Second Declension neuter nouns later, but let's focus on Second Declension -us, -ī nouns. We often refer to this collection of Second Declension nouns ending with -us in the nominative singular as "Second Declension masculine" nouns because *most* of this type happen to be masculine in gender.

However, as we found with First Declension (e.g. *agricola, agricolae*), there are always exceptions, and we can find several examples in *Vocābula Supplēmentālia I* of nouns that follow the -us, -ī pattern that are actually feminine rather than masculine. Regardless of any differences in gender, though, these nouns will not use any different endings or procedures to decline them.

### **Second Declension Feminine Nouns**

#### **“Ground” and “Home”**

Some very important nouns are great examples of Second Declension -us, -ī nouns that are actually feminine rather than masculine. The first is the noun *humus*, which refers to the ground. Much like *terra*, this noun can also be used to mean “land,” “soil,” or even “country.”

*Domus*, the Latin term meaning “home,” is another frequently used word that is feminine instead of masculine. This term, however, also has forms that belong to Fourth Declension, but you will see those much later.

#### **Trees**

Many Latin tree names belong to the Second Declension and follow the -us, -ī rules for declension (e.g. *citrus* or *ulmus*). However, these tree names are all feminine rather than masculine. We will later see that many of the fruits of these trees are Second Declension neuter.

## Countries, Cities, and Islands

We learned when working with First Declension that most place names are feminine in gender, and this concept still applies when those place names belong to the Second Declension like *Aegyptus*, *Conrinthus*, or *Cyprus*.

## Grammatica XI.i Second Declension *-er* Nouns Recognition

### \*Objective\*

- **Recognize Second Declension nouns ending in *-er* in the nominative singular.**

As we have begun learning about nouns of the Second Declension, we have reviewed the concept that a **declension** is a group of nouns that share the same endings used to decline them. While working with First Declension, we never saw an example of a noun that used any different endings from any other First Declension noun, though some occasionally do (e.g., *filiābus* = dative and ablative plural [usually *filiīs*] of *filia*). In fact, as we learn more Latin declensions, we will see that it is actually quite commonplace for nouns of the same declension to have slight variations in their endings.

Our first experience with this occurrence comes in the form of what we call “Second Declension *-er* nouns” – masculine nouns of the Second Declension that end in *-er* in their nominative singular forms as opposed to *-us*. Despite this difference in their nominative singular endings, though, *-er* nouns are just as much a part of the Second Declension as any other noun of the same declension.

When we first started talking about Second Declension nouns, we said that the most surefire way to tell a noun of one declension apart from another is by looking at its genitive singular ending. For example, regardless of its sometimes strange dative and ablative plural endings, *filia* is still a part of the First Declension because its genitive singular form ends in *-ae* (*filiae*) like all other First Declension nouns. Likewise, nouns like *puer*, *puerī* and *ager*, *agrī* are just as much a part of the Second Declension as *deus*, *deī* or *ulmus*, *ulmī* because they all share the same genitive singular ending: *-ī*.

## **Grammatica XI.ii** **Second Declension -er Nouns** **Declining**

### \*Objectives\*

- **Recall endings used to decline Second Declension masculine nouns.**
- **Associate English derivatives with the stems of Second Declension -er nouns.**
- **Decline Second Declension -er nouns.**

Since -er nouns are also masculine and part of the Second Declension, they will use most of the same endings as Second Declension -us nouns to decline. Actually, they use **all** the same endings except for the nominative singular, which we can see in the chart below.

<b>Case</b>	<b>Singular</b>	<b>Plural</b>
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>-er</b>	<b>-ī</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>-ī</b>	<b>-ōrum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-īs</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>-um</b>	<b>-ōs</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-īs</b>

### **Second Declension -er Stems**

Whether a noun belongs to First Declension, Second Declension -us, Second Declension -er, or any other group of Latin nouns, we will always follow the same steps to find its stem, which we will reiterate here.

- 1) **Locate the noun's genitive singular form.**
- 2) **Remove the genitive singular ending from the genitive singular form to find the noun's stem.**
- 3) **Add endings to the stem to decline the noun in a given case and number.**

Following this procedure precisely will provide you with the right stem every time, helping us avoid a question that often comes up with Second Declension *-er* nouns – Does the noun keep the “e” that appears before the “r,” or does it drop it?

Of course, using a noun's genitive singular form to find its stem will help eliminate this question. The noun *puer*, *puerī* will obviously keep the “e” in all declined forms because the “e” is present in its genitive singular form (*puerī*) and therefore in its stem. On the other hand, *ager*, *agrī* will lose the “e” in all forms except the nominative singular seeing as how it is missing from the genitive singular form (*agrī*) and its stem.

We can also use a neat trick utilizing English derivatives to help us anticipate whether an *-er* noun drops its “e” or keeps it in all forms. If an English word derived from a Second Declension *-er* noun features an “e” where we would expect to see it in its stem, the “e” will appear in all forms of that Latin noun. Take for example “puerile” and “agriculture.” The English term “puerile,” meaning “boyish” or “childish” has an “e” between the “u” and “r,” which indicates all forms of *puer* will contain that “e.” Conversely, “agriculture” does not feature an “e” between the “g” and “r,” meaning *ager* will drop the “e” in all forms except the nominative singular.

## **Grammatica XI.iii**

### **Second Declension *-er* Nouns**

*vir*

#### **\*Objectives\***

- **Recognize *vir* as belonging to the Second Declension.**
- **Decline *vir*.**

At first glance, it might appear as though the noun *vir*, *virī* (“man”) is rather different from other Latin nouns we have seen thus far. However, our first clue that this noun does in fact belong to the Second Declension is its tell-tale Second Declension genitive singular ending, *-ī*.

We know, then, that *vir* belongs to the Second Declension, but what do we do with it in terms of declining? Although it has an “i” where we might expect to find



an “e,” *vir* is declined like *-er* nouns of the Second Declension. Of course, we find its stem as we would for any other Latin noun, which tells us that we will see that “i” we mentioned earlier in all its forms. We can even use the same trick employing English derivatives to predict if a Latin *-er* noun will retain its “e;” only, the rule with *vir* applies to the “i” (e.g., “virile” [“being manly”] or “virility” [“manliness”]). Given that we can apply everything else we have learned about *-er* nouns to working with *vir*, it stands to reason that we would decline this noun just as we would any other Second Declension *-er* noun.

## **Grammatica XII.i** **Second Declension Neuter Nouns** **Recognition**

### \*Objective\*

- **Recognize neuter nouns of the Second Declension.**

We are familiar at this point with the idea that a **declension** is a group of nouns that share the same endings used to decline them. We have also now witnessed with Second Declension *-us* and *-er* nouns that some groups of nouns can differ in an ending or two while still belonging to the same declension.

This brings us to yet another group of Second Declension nouns – Second Declension neuters. As with Second Declension *-us* or *-er* nouns, we can readily tell Second Declension neuter nouns apart from other nouns of the same declension due to their nominative singular forms. We can recognize a Second Declension neuter noun immediately when we notice that its nominative singular form ends in *-um* (e.g., *bellum*, *bellū*). Nevertheless, these neuter nouns still obviously belong to the Second Declension, which we can tell yet again by their genitive singular ending, *-ī* (e.g., *bellum*, *bellī*).

We will see in our next lesson, though, that the endings used for Second Declension neuters differ even further from other types of nouns of the same declension when we learn about some plural endings that will appear again and again as you continue to learn Latin.

## *Grammatica XII.ii* **Second Declension Neuter Nouns** **Endings**

### \*Objective\*

- **Memorize endings used to decline Second Declension neuter nouns.**

We learned in our last lesson that there are neuter nouns that belong to the Second Declension even though their nominative singular endings are different from other Second Declension nouns we have seen. However, unlike Second Declension *-us* or *-er* nouns, Second Declension neuters differ from other nouns of the same declension in more endings than just the nominative singular. Take a look at the chart below and take note of the Second Declension neuter endings in bold that are different from the endings used for other Second Declension nouns.

<b>Case</b>	<b>Singular</b>	<b>Plural</b>
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>-um</b>	<b>-a</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	-ī	-ōrum
<i>Dative</i>	-ō	-īs
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>-um</b>	<b>-a</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	-ō	-īs

You will notice after examining this chart that Second Declension neuter nouns have not only a unique nominative singular ending but also nominative and accusative plural endings. In fact, if we are not careful, we could mistake a nominative or accusative plural Second Declension neuter noun for a First Declension noun in the nominative singular. To help us not make this mistake, though, we can always rely on our knowledge of our vocabulary, as well as on the context of any sentence in which we might find a Second Declension neuter noun.

## Neuter Endings – Second Declension and Beyond

We just mentioned that the nominative and accusative plural endings of Second Declension neuters could be mistaken for the nominative singular ending of First Declension. As you learn more declensions, however, you will come to find that this short “a” appears again and again in the nominative and accusative plural endings of neuter nouns, so you will become more comfortable with associating this ending with neuter nouns as well as nouns of the First Declension.

You might have been wondering by now, too, why the nominative and accusative endings – singular *and* plural – are the same for Second Declension neuters. This is due to another fact that will also follow you throughout your Latin education and that you will see in our next lesson even more clearly – ***all neuter nouns have nominative and accusative forms that are the same.*** Since the accusative singular ending for Second Declension is *-um*, this is why Second Declension neuter nouns have a different nominative singular ending from other nouns of the same declension.

### **Grammatica XII.iii**

## **Second Declension Neuter Nouns Declining**

### **\*Objective\***

- **Decline Second Declension neuter nouns.**

Although the endings we use to decline Second Declension neuter nouns differ in more ways than one from the endings we use for other Second Declension nouns, the process we use to decline Second Declension neuters is no different from that used with any other noun. Let’s review that process here; then, we will see it used with a Second Declension neuter noun.

- 1) Locate the noun’s genitive singular form.**
- 2) Remove the genitive singular ending from the genitive singular form to find the noun’s stem.**
- 3) Add endings to the stem to decline the noun in a given case and number.**

Using the procedures outlined above and the endings we learned in our last lesson, let’s decline the Second Declension neuter noun *bellum, bellī*.

- 1) Locate the noun's genitive singular form: (*bellī*)
- 2) Remove the genitive singular ending from the genitive singular form to find the noun's stem: (*bell-*)
- 3) Add endings to the stem to decline the noun in a given case and number.

Case	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	bellum	bella
<i>Genitive</i>	bellī	bellōrum
<i>Dative</i>	bellō	bellīs
<i>Accusative</i>	bellum	bella
<i>Ablative</i>	bellō	bellīs

With our Second Declension neuter noun fully declined here, you can see how neuter nouns feature the same nominative and accusative forms – a fact that will continue to work for us as we learn more declension later.

## *Grammatica XIII.i* **First and Second Declension Adjectives** **Recognition**

### \*Objectives\*

- **Recognize First and Second Declension adjectives.**
- **Recall the function of adjectives as a part of speech.**

While practicing with the new terms in *Vocābula XI*, you probably noticed that there are three different forms provided as the dictionary entry for each. Seeing these three forms should immediately tell us that we are looking at an adjective – specifically one of the First and Second Declensions.

We will talk more about why this is in another lesson but suffice it to say for now that First and Second Declension adjectives have three forms because each is representative of the nominative singular form of each gender: masculine, feminine, and neuter. Sometimes, you will find these three forms completely spelled out, as in *bonus, bona, bonum*. However, you will quite often find in many dictionaries or other resources that these forms of First and Second Declension adjectives are abbreviated, with just the feminine and neuter nominative singular endings provided after the full masculine nominative singular form (e.g., **bonus, -a, -um**).

This concept makes it rather easy to identify First and Second Declension adjectives in dictionaries, but how can we recognize a Latin adjective when it appears in a sentence? To answer this question, let's recall what this part of speech does and how that might affect where we find it.

We spent time early on learning about the different parts of speech and what their functions are. An adjective you probably recall is a word that modifies or gives us more information about a noun or pronoun. Unlike in English, where adjectives usually precede the nouns they modify (e.g., “a **good** story”), Latin adjectives tend to follow the nouns they modify (e.g., *fābula **bona***). Therefore, if we are looking specifically for an adjective in a Latin sentence, we should generally look after a noun for a descriptive word that agrees with it in gender, number, and case – a concept we will discuss in our next lesson.

## *Grammatica XIII.ii*

### First and Second Declension Adjectives

#### Endings

#### \*Objectives\*

- Describe a Latin adjective's relationship to the noun it modifies.
- Memorize endings used to decline First and Second Declension adjectives.

Like nouns, Latin adjectives are also declined into different forms, and we will discuss this actual process in our next lesson. Latin nouns, though, are automatically assigned a gender, so we do not have to account for a noun's gender and only have to worry about achieving the appropriate case and number. However, the gender of a Latin adjective can change and must be the same as the noun it modifies, which is why we have noticed that there are three initial forms of First and Second Declension adjectives – one for each gender.

This is not the only relationship between Latin adjectives and their nouns that we have to remember. In fact, not only do Latin adjectives have to share the gender of their nouns but they must also match the nouns in number and case.

To achieve this perfect match, we have a set of endings that is used for First and Second Declension adjectives that should actually already be familiar to you. We call these adjectives "First and Second Declension adjectives" because they borrow endings used by First and Second Declension nouns, which have been provided here for us to review.

Case	Singular			Plural		
	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>-a</b>	<b>-us/-er</b>	<b>-um</b>	<b>-ae</b>	<b>-ī</b>	<b>-a</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>-ae</b>	<b>-ī</b>	<b>-ī</b>	<b>-ārum</b>	<b>-ōrum</b>	<b>-ōrum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>-ae</b>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-īs</b>	<b>-īs</b>	<b>-īs</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>-am</b>	<b>-um</b>	<b>-um</b>	<b>-ās</b>	<b>-ōs</b>	<b>-a</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>-ā</b>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-īs</b>	<b>-īs</b>	<b>-īs</b>

You can see here that the endings are grouped by gender in much the same way they were when we learned about First and Second Declension nouns. Since most First Declension nouns are feminine, a feminine adjective will use the same endings. Likewise, masculine adjectives will borrow endings from Second

Declension *-us* or *-er* nouns because most of these nouns are masculine, and neuter adjectives will use the same endings as Second Declension neuter nouns.

## **Grammatica XIII.iii** **First and Second Declension Adjectives** **Declining**

### **\*Objective\***

- **Decline First and Second Declension adjectives.**

Now that we have learned about the endings used to decline First and Second Declension adjectives, we can see how we use them to decline our adjectives into the forms that match their nouns in gender, number, and case. In this lesson, we will highlight the specifics of each step then follow those steps to decline an adjective.

### **I) Identify the adjective's feminine nominative singular form.**

Just as we must identify a noun's genitive singular form in order to ensure we get the correct noun stem, we must begin with an adjective's feminine nominative singular form. First and Second Declension adjectives are also similar to nouns in that the target form is the second we see in the term's dictionary entry (e.g., *miser*, *misera*, *miserum*).

As we also learned with nouns, it is important to start with the correct form because stems do not always look exactly like the first form we see in a term's dictionary entry. This was particularly true with Second Declension *-er* nouns since the stems of some of these nouns kept the "e" in all forms while it disappeared from others. You can see in *Vocābula XI* that we also have *-er* adjectives, the masculine nominative singular forms of which end in *-er*. Like their noun counterparts, some of these adjectives will have forms that keep the "e" in all forms where some others will lose the "e" in all forms except for the masculine nominative singular. If we examine the examples *miser*, *misera*, *miserum* and *piger*, *pigra*, *pigrum* closely, we can see that we can tell which adjectives keep or lose their "e" by looking to the feminine nominative singular form (i.e., *misera* [keeps the "e"] or *pigra* [loses the "e"]).

### **II) Remove the feminine nominative singular ending to find the adjective's stem.**

Once we have identified the adjective's feminine nominative singular form, we then remove the feminine nominative singular ending. For First and Second Declension adjectives, this ending will be the short "a" (-a).

### III) Add the appropriate ending(s) for the necessary gender, number, and case.

Now that we have formed the adjective's stem, we can add the endings to complete our declining process. Just keep in mind that selecting the appropriate ending for a Latin adjective entails identifying the correct ending not only for the necessary case and number but also for the necessary gender to match the noun the adjective is modifying.

Having outlined and explained the steps in declining a First and Second Declension adjective, let's practice this process with the adjective *pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum* to modify a masculine noun.

- I) Identify the adjective's feminine nominative singular form. (*pulchra*)
- II) Remove the feminine nominative singular ending to find the adjective's stem. (*pulchr-*)
- III) Add the appropriate ending(s) for the necessary gender, number, and case. (Second Declension masculine endings)

Case	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>pulcher</b>	<b>pulchrī</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>pulchra</b>	<b>pulchrōrum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>pulchrō</b>	<b>pulchrīs</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>pulchrum</b>	<b>pulchrōs</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>pulchrō</b>	<b>pulchrīs</b>



## Grammatica XIII.iv

### First and Second Declension Adjectives

#### Mixed Noun-Adjective Pairs

#### \*Objective\*

- Decline mixed First and Second Declension noun-adjective pairs.

You probably realized while practicing with declining First and Second Declension adjectives in our last lesson that the endings used to decline these adjectives will often be the same used to decline the First or Second Declension nouns they modify. There are some instances, though, when the endings of nouns and adjectives will not be the same. This is because gender is the most restrictive property in identifying the correct endings to use for an adjective and some nouns are not always the gender we expect them to be.

Take for instance the First Declension noun *agricola*, *agricolae*. Although most First Declension nouns are feminine, *agricola* and some others are actually masculine in gender. This means that, while *agricola* will have to use the endings that all First Declension nouns must use, we would have to use Second Declension masculine endings for the adjective *piger*, *pigra*, *pigrum* to modify it. This results in a mixed-declension noun-adjective pair which will use two different sets of endings, as we can see below.

Case	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>agricol<u>a</u> pig<u>e</u>r</b>	<b>agricol<u>ae</u> pigr<u>i</u></b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>agricol<u>ae</u> pigr<u>i</u></b>	<b>agricol<u>arum</u> pigr<u>orum</u></b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>agricol<u>ae</u> pigr<u>o</u></b>	<b>agricol<u>is</u> pigr<u>is</u></b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>agricol<u>am</u> pigr<u>um</u></b>	<b>agricol<u>as</u> pigr<u>os</u></b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>agricol<u>a</u> pigr<u>o</u></b>	<b>agricol<u>is</u> pigr<u>is</u></b>

Similarly, most Second Declension *-us* nouns are masculine, but *ulmus*, *ulmī* and other such tree names are feminine, meaning the adjective *pulcher*, *pulchra*, *pulchrum* would have to use First Declension feminine endings while *ulmus* will still use the Second Declension *-us* endings we would expect. This gives us the mixed-declension pair that we find here.

Case	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>ul<u>m</u>s pulch<u>r</u>a</b>	<b>ulm<u>ī</u> pulchr<u>ae</u></b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>ulm<u>ī</u> pulchr<u>ae</u></b>	<b>ulm<u>ō</u>rum pulchr<u>ā</u>rum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>ulm<u>ō</u> pulchr<u>ae</u></b>	<b>ulm<u>īs</u> pulchr<u>īs</u></b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>ulm<u>um</u> pulchr<u>am</u></b>	<b>ulm<u>ō</u>s pulchr<u>ās</u></b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>ulm<u>ō</u> pulchr<u>ā</u></b>	<b>ulm<u>īs</u> pulchr<u>īs</u></b>

## Appendix I Syntax

Case	Syntax
<i>Nominative</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Subject Noun (SN)</li> <li>• Predicate Nouns &amp; Adjectives (Predicate Nominatives)</li> </ul>
<i>Genitive</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Possessive Noun Adjective (PNA)</li> </ul>
<i>Dative</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Indirect Object (IO)</li> </ul>
<i>Accusative</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Direct Object (DO)</li> <li>• Object of Preposition (OP)</li> </ul>
<i>Ablative</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Object of Preposition (OP)</li> </ul>

## Appendix II Noun Tables

### First Declension

#### First Declension Endings

	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>-a</b>	<b>-ae</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>-ae</b>	<b>-ārum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>-ae</b>	<b>-īs</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>-am</b>	<b>-ās</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>-ā</b>	<b>-īs</b>

#### *terra, terrae* (f.) – earth

	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	<u>terra</u>	<u>terrae</u>
<i>Genitive</i>	<u>terrae</u>	<u>terrārum</u>
<i>Dative</i>	<u>terrae</u>	<u>terrīs</u>
<i>Accusative</i>	<u>terram</u>	<u>terrās</u>
<i>Ablative</i>	<u>terrā</u>	<u>terrīs</u>

### Second Declension

#### Second Declension Masculine Endings

	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>-us</b>	<b>-ī</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>-ī</b>	<b>-ōrum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-īs</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>-um</b>	<b>-ōs</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-īs</b>

#### *deus, deī* (m.) – god

	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	<u>deus</u>	<u>deī</u>
<i>Genitive</i>	<u>deī</u>	<u>deōrum</u>
<i>Dative</i>	<u>deō</u>	<u>deīs</u>
<i>Accusative</i>	<u>deum</u>	<u>deōs</u>
<i>Ablative</i>	<u>deō</u>	<u>deīs</u>

## Second Declension Masculine -er Nouns

*puer, puerī* (m.) – boy (Keeps “e”)

	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>puer</b>	<b>puerī</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>puerī</b>	<b>puerōrum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>puerō</b>	<b>puerīs</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>puerum</b>	<b>puerōs</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>puerō</b>	<b>puerīs</b>

*liber, librī* (m.) – book (Drops “e”)

	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>liber</b>	<b>librī</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>librī</b>	<b>librōrum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>librō</b>	<b>librīs</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>librum</b>	<b>librōs</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>librō</b>	<b>librīs</b>

## Second Declension Neuter

Second Declension Neuter Endings

	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>-um</b>	<b>-a</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>-ī</b>	<b>-ōrum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-īs</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>-um</b>	<b>-a</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-īs</b>

*bellum, bellī* (n.) – war

	Singular	Plural
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>bellum</b>	<b>bella</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>bellī</b>	<b>bellōrum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>bellō</b>	<b>bellīs</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>bellum</b>	<b>bella</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>bellō</b>	<b>bellīs</b>

## Appendix III Adjective Tables

### First and Second Declension Adjectives

#### First and Second Declension Adjective Endings

	Singular			Plural		
	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>-us/-er</b>	<b>-a</b>	<b>-um</b>	<b>-ī</b>	<b>-ae</b>	<b>-a</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>-ī</b>	<b>-ae</b>	<b>-ī</b>	<b>-ōrum</b>	<b>-ārum</b>	<b>-ōrum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-ae</b>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-īs</b>	<b>-īs</b>	<b>-īs</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>-um</b>	<b>-am</b>	<b>-um</b>	<b>-ōs</b>	<b>-ās</b>	<b>-a</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-ā</b>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-īs</b>	<b>-īs</b>	<b>-īs</b>

**meus, mea, meum – my/mine**

	Singular			Plural		
	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>me<u>us</u></b>	<b>me<u>a</u></b>	<b>me<u>um</u></b>	<b>me<u>i</u></b>	<b>me<u>ae</u></b>	<b>me<u>a</u></b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>me<u>i</u></b>	<b>me<u>ae</u></b>	<b>me<u>i</u></b>	<b>me<u>o</u>rum</b>	<b>me<u>a</u>rum</b>	<b>me<u>o</u>rum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>me<u>o</u></b>	<b>me<u>ae</u></b>	<b>me<u>o</u></b>	<b>me<u>i</u>s</b>	<b>me<u>i</u>s</b>	<b>me<u>i</u>s</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>me<u>um</u></b>	<b>me<u>am</u></b>	<b>me<u>um</u></b>	<b>me<u>o</u>s</b>	<b>me<u>a</u>s</b>	<b>me<u>a</u></b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>me<u>o</u></b>	<b>me<u>a</u></b>	<b>me<u>o</u></b>	<b>me<u>i</u>s</b>	<b>me<u>i</u>s</b>	<b>me<u>i</u>s</b>

**liber, libera, liberum – free (Keeps “e”)**

	Singular			Plural		
	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>ra</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>rum</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>i</u></b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>rae</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>ra</b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>i</u></b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>rae</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>i</u></b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>o</u>rum</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>a</u>rum</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>o</u>rum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>o</u></b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>rae</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>o</u></b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>i</u>s</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>i</u>s</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>i</u>s</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>lib<u>e</u>rum</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>ram</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>rum</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>o</u>s</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>a</u>s</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>ra</b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>o</u></b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>a</u></b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>o</u></b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>i</u>s</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>i</u>s</b>	<b>lib<u>e</u>r<u>i</u>s</b>

**noster, nostra, nostrum – our/ours (Drops “e”)**

	Singular			Plural		
	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>	<i>Masculine</i>	<i>Feminine</i>	<i>Neuter</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	<b>nostr<u>e</u>r</b>	<b>nostr<u>a</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>um</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>i</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>ae</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>a</u></b>
<i>Genitive</i>	<b>nostr<u>i</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>ae</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>i</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>o</u>rum</b>	<b>nostr<u>a</u>rum</b>	<b>nostr<u>o</u>rum</b>
<i>Dative</i>	<b>nostr<u>o</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>ae</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>o</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>i</u>s</b>	<b>nostr<u>i</u>s</b>	<b>nostr<u>i</u>s</b>
<i>Accusative</i>	<b>nostr<u>um</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>am</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>um</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>o</u>s</b>	<b>nostr<u>a</u>s</b>	<b>nostr<u>a</u></b>
<i>Ablative</i>	<b>nostr<u>o</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>a</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>o</u></b>	<b>nostr<u>i</u>s</b>	<b>nostr<u>i</u>s</b>	<b>nostr<u>i</u>s</b>

## Appendix IV Verb Tables

### First Conjugation

#### Present Active Endings

	Singular	Plural
<i>First Person</i>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-mus</b>
<i>Second Person</i>	<b>-s</b>	<b>-tis</b>
<i>Third Person</i>	<b>-t</b>	<b>-nt</b>

#### *laudāre* – to praise

	Singular	Plural
<i>First Person</i>	laud <u>ō</u>	laud <u>āmus</u>
<i>Second Person</i>	laud <u>ās</u>	laud <u>ātis</u>
<i>Third Person</i>	laud <u>at</u>	laud <u>ant</u>

### Second Conjugation

#### Present Active Endings

	Singular	Plural
<i>First Person</i>	<b>-ō</b>	<b>-mus</b>
<i>Second Person</i>	<b>-s</b>	<b>-tis</b>
<i>Third Person</i>	<b>-t</b>	<b>-nt</b>

#### *vidēre* – to see

	Singular	Plural
<i>First Person</i>	vide <u>ō</u>	vid <u>ēmus</u>
<i>Second Person</i>	vid <u>ēs</u>	vid <u>ētis</u>
<i>Third Person</i>	vid <u>et</u>	vid <u>ent</u>

# Glossa Latīna

## Part of Speech Key

**Adj.** = Adjective  
**Adv.** = Adverb  
**C** = Conjunction  
**I** = Interjection

**N** = Noun  
**Prep.** = Preposition  
**Pro.** = Pronoun  
**V** = Verb

## Gender Key

**m.** = masculine  
**n.** = neuter

**f.** = feminine  
**c.** = common (masculine or  
feminine – assume  
masculine in absence of  
context)

## A

**ā/ab** *Prep.* – *with Ablative:* (away) from; by

**abdūcō, abdūcere, abdūxī, abductus** *V* – I lead away, to lead away, I led away, led away

**absum, abesse, āfuī, āfutūrus** *V* – I am absent, to be absent, I was absent, about to be absent

**acatus, acatī** *N* (f.) – boat

**accipiō, accipere, accēpī, acceptus** *V* – I accept, to accept, I accepted, accepted

**ācer, ācris, ācre** *Adj.* – sharp

**āctum, āctī** *N* (n.) – act, exploits (plural)

**ad** *Prep.* – *with Accusative:* to, toward, at

**adiciō, adicere, adiēcī, adiectus** *V* – I add, to add, I added, added

**adsum, adesse, adfuī, adfutūrus** *V* – I am present, to be present, I was present, about to be present

**adulēscētia, adulēscētiaē** *N* (f.) – youth

**adveniō, advenīre, advēnī, adventum** *V* – I arrive, to arrive, I arrived, there was an arrival (impersonal)

**aeger, aegra, aegrum** *Adj.* – sick, unsound

**aenigma, aenigmatis** *N (n.)* – riddle

**aequus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – equal, fair

**aestās, aestātis** *N (f.)* – summer

**aetās, aetātis** *N (f.)* – lifetime, age

**ager, agrī** *N (m.)* – field

**agmen, agminis** *N (n.)* – troop (group of soldiers)

**agō, agere, ēgī, āctus** *V* – I do, to do, I did, done

**agricola, agricolae** *N (m.)* – farmer

**āit, āiunt** *Defective Verb* – it says, they say; it claims, they claim

**alnus, alnī** *N (f.)* – alder tree

**alō, alere, aluī, altus** *V* – I nourish, to nourish, I nourished, nourished

**altar, altāris** *N (n.)* – altar

**altus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – high, tall, deep (sea); nourished

**amātus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – beloved

**ambulō, ambulāre, ambulāvī, ambulātus** *V* – I walk, to walk, I walked, walked

**amīca, amīcae** *N (f.)* – friend (female)

**amīcitia, amīcitiae** *N (f.)* – friendship

**amīcus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – friendly

**amīcus, amīcī** *N (m.)* – friend (male)

**āmittō, āmittere, āmīsī, āmissus** *V* – I send away, to send away, I sent away, sent away



**amō, amāre, amāvī, amātus** *V* – I love, to love, I loved, loved

**amor, amoris** *N* (m.) – love

**anca, ancae** *N* (c.) – goose

**animal, animālis** *N* (n.) – animal

**ante** *Prep.* – *with Accusative*: before

**antīquus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – old, ancient

**aqua, aquae** *N* (f.) – water

**arānea, arāneae** *N* (f.) – spider

**arbiter, arbitrī** *N* (m.) – judge, witness, arbiter

**arbor, arboris** *N* (f.) – tree

**arma, armōrum** *N* (n. pl.) – arms, weapons

**armiger, armigerī** *N* (m.) – squire

**argūmentum, argūmentī** *N* (n.) – argument; evidence

**arō, arāre, arāvī, arātus** *V* – I till, to till, I tilled, tilled

**ars, artis** *N* (f.) – art, skill

**arx, arcis** *N* (f.) – citadel, stronghold

**asinus, asinī** *N* (m.) – donkey

**asper, aspera, asperum** *Adj.* – harsh, bitter

**astrum, astrī** *N* (n.) – star

**āter, ātra, ātrum** *Adj.* – dark, gloomy

**athlēta, athlētae** *N* (m.) – athlete

**audāx** (Genitive Singular = **audācis**) *Adj.* – bold, daring, audacious

**audeō, audēre, ausus sum** *V* – I dare, to dare, I dared

**audiō, audīre, audīvī, audītus** *V* – I hear, to hear, I heard, heard

**aura, aurae** *N* (f.) – breeze

**aurīga, aurīgae** *N* (m.) – charioteer

**aut** *C* – or; **aut...aut** = either...or

**autem** *C* – however, on the other hand

**avārus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – greedy

**avia, aviae** *N* (f.) – grandmother

## **B**

**beātus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – fortunate, blessed

**bellum, bellī** *N* (n.) – war; **bellum gerere** – to wage war

**bene** *Adv.* – well

**bonus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – good

**brevis, breve** *Adj.* – short, brief

## **C**

**cadō, cadere, cecidī, cāsum** *V* – I fall, to fall, I fell, there was a falling (impersonal)

**caelum, caelī** *N* (n.) – sky

**caementa, caementōrum** *N* (n. pl.) – rubble

**calefaciō, calefacere, calefēcī, calefactus** *V* – I warm, to warm, I warmed, warmed

**canis, canis** *N* (c.) – dog

**canō, canere, cecinī, cantus** *V* – I sing, to sing, I sang, sung

**cantō, cantāre, cantāvī, cantātus** *V* – I sing, to sing, I sang, sung

**caper, caprī** *N* (m.) – he-goat

**capio, capere, cēpī, captus** *V* – I capture, to capture, I captured, captured

**capra, caprae** *N* (f.) – she-goat

**carcer, carceris** *N* (m.) – prison

**careō, carēre, caruī, caritus** *V* – I lack, to lack, I lacked, lacked

**carmen, carminis** *N* (n.) – song, poem

**cārus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – dear

**casa, casae** *N* (f.) – hut, cabin

**cassus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – deprived (of), devoid (of)

**castra, castrōrum** *N* (n. pl.) – camp (military)

**causa, causae** *N* (f.) – cause, reason

**caveō, cavēre, cāvī, cautus** *V* – I avoid, to avoid, I avoided, avoided

**cēdrus, cēdrī** *N* (f.) – cedar tree

**celer, celeris, celere** *Adj.* – fast

**celeritās, celeritātis** *N* (f.) – speed

**celeriter** *Adv.* – quickly

**cēlō, cēlāre, cēlāvī, cēlātus** *V* – I hide, to hide, I hid, hidden

**cēna, cēnae** *N* (f.) – dinner

**cerasus, cerasī** *N* (f.) – cherry tree

**cernō, cernere, crēvī, crētus** *V* – I decide, to decide, I decided, decided

**certāmen, certāminis** *N* (n.) – contest; **certāmen instituere** – to arrange a contest

**certus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – certain, reliable

**cervus, cervī** *N* (m.) – deer

**cessō, cessāre, cessāvī, cessātus** *V* – I stop, to stop, I stopped, stopped

**ceterus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – the other (singular), the rest (plural)

**cibus, cibī** *N* (m.) – food

**cinis, cineris** *N* (m.) – ash, ember

**circum** *Prep.* – with *Accusative*: around

**cito** *Adv.* – quickly

**citrus, citrī** *N* (f.) – lemon tree

**cīvilitās, cīvilitātis** *N* (f.) – courtesy

**cīvis, cīvis** *N* (c.) – citizen

**clādēs, clādis** *N* (f.) – disaster, ruin

**clāmō, clāmāre, clāmāvī, clāmātus** *V* – I shout, to shout, I shouted, shouted

**clārō, clārāre, clārāvī, clārātus** *V* – I light up, to light up, I lit up, lit up

**clārus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – clear, famous

**clepta, cleptae** *N* (m.) – thief

**coepī, coepisse** *V* – I began, to have begun

**cōgitō, cōgitāre, cōgitāvī, cōgitātus** *V* – I think, to think, I thought, thought

**cognōscō, cognōscere, cognōvī, cognitus** *V* – I recognize, to recognize, I recognized, recognized

**cohors, cohortis** *N* (f.) – cohort (1/10 of a legion)

**collēga, collēgae** *N* (m.) – colleague

**colō, colere, coluī, cultus** *V* – I cultivate, to cultivate, I cultivated, cultivated

**color, colōris** *N* (m.) – color

**comedō, comedere, comēdī, comēsus** *V* – I eat, to eat, I ate, eaten

**comperiō, comperīre, comperī, compertus** *V* – I discover, to discover, I discovered, discovered

**concors (Genitive Singular = concordis)** *Adj.* – peaceful, harmonious

**condō, condere, condidī, conditus** *V* – I found (establish), to found, I founded, founded

**cōnsilium, cōnsiliū** *N* (n.) – advice

**cōnsul, cōsulis** *N* (m.) – consul

**contentus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – content, satisfied

**contineō, continēre, continuī, contentus** *V* – I hold, to hold, I held, held

**contrā** *Prep.* – with *Accusative*: against

**convīva, convīvae** *N* (c.) – guest

**cōpiae, cōpiārum** *N* (f. pl.) – supplies; forces

**coquō, coquere, coxī, coctus** *V* – I cook, to cook, I cooked, cooked

**coquus, coqui** *N* (m.) – cook

**cor, cordis** *N* (n.) – heart

**corōna, corōnae** *N* (f.) – crown

**corpus, corporis** *N* (n.) – body

**crās** *Adv.* – tomorrow

**crēdō, crēdere, crēdidī, crēditus** *V (+ dative)* – I trust, to trust, I trusted, trusted; I believe, to believe, I believed, believed

**creō, creāre, creāvī, creātus** *V* – I create, to create, I created, created

**cremō, cremāre, cremāvī, cremātus** *V* – I burn, to burn, I burned, burnt

**crīmen, crīminis** *N (n.)* – crime

**culpa, culpae** *N (f.)* – fault

**culter, cultrī** *N (m.)* – knife

**cultus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – groomed, elegant; cultivated

**cum** *Prep.* – *with Ablative*: with

**cūra, cūrae** *N (f.)* – care, concern

**cūrō, cūrāre, cūrāvī, cūrātus** *V* – I care for, to care for, I cared for, cared for

**custōdiō, custōdīre, custōdīvī, custōditus** *V* – I guard, to guard, I guarded, guarded

**custōs, custōdis** *N (c.)* – guard

## D

**dē** *Prep.* – *with Ablative*: on, about, concerning; down from

**dea, deae** *N (f.)* – goddess

**dēbeō, dēbere, dēbuī, dēbitus** *V* – I owe, to owe, I owed, owed; I should

**dēdicō, dēdicāre, dēdicāvī, dēdicātus** *V* – I dedicate, to dedicate, I dedicated, dedicated

**dēfendō, dēfendere, dēfendī, dēfēnsus** *V* – I defend, to defend, I defended, defended

**deinde** *Adv.* – afterward

**dēmōnstrō, dēmōnstrāre, dēmōnstrāvī, dēmōnstrātus** *V* – I show, to show, I showed, shown

**dēspiciō, dēspicere, dēspexī, dēspectus** *V* – I despise, to despise, I despised, despised

**dēsum, dēesse, dēfuī, dēfutūrus** *V* – I fail, to fail, I failed, about to fail (*with Dative of person disappointed or in + Ablative*)

**deus, deī** *N* (m.) – god

**dexter, dextra, dextrum** *Adj.* – right

**dīcō, dīcere, dīxī, dīctus** *V* – I say, to say, I said, said

**dictō, dictāre, dictāvī, dictātus** *V* – I dictate, to dictate, I dictated, dictated

**difficilis, difficile** *Adj.* – difficult

**discipula, discipulae** *N* (f.) – student (female)

**discipulus, discipulī** *N* (m.) – student (male)

**discō, discere, didicī** *V* – I learn, to learn, I learned

**diū** *Adv.* – for a long time, all day

**dīvitiae, dīvitiārum** *N* (f. pl.) – riches, wealth

**doceō, docēre, docuī, doctus** *V* – I teach, to teach, I taught, taught

**doctus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – learned, clever; taught

**dō, dare, dedī, datus** *V* – I give, to give, I gave, given

**doleō, dolēre, doluī, dolitus** *V* – I grieve, to grieve, I grieved, grieved

**dolor, dolōris** *N* (m.) – pain

**dolus, dolī** *N* (m.) – trickery

**dominus, dominī** *N* (m.) – master

**domus, domī** *N* (f.) – home

**dōnō, dōnāre, dōnāvī, dōnātus** *V* – I bestow, to bestow, I bestowed, bestowed

**dōnum, dōnī** *N* (n.) – gift

**dormiō, dormīre, dormīvī, dormītus** *V* – I sleep, to sleep, I slept, asleep

**drāma, drāmatī** *N* (n.) – play

**dūcō, dūcere, dūxī, ductus** *V* – I lead, to lead, I led, led

**dulcis, dulce** *Adj.* – sweet, pleasant

**dum** *C* – while (at the same time as); *Adv.* – yet

**dūrus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – tough, hardened, durable

**dux, ducis** *N* (c.) – general, leader

## **E**

**ē/ex** *Prep.* – with *Ablative*: from, out of

**ebur, eboris** *N* (n.) – ivory

**ēducō, ēducāre, ēducāvī, ēducātus** *V* – I educate, to educate, I educated, educated

**efflōrēscō, efflōrēscere, efflōruī** *V* – I bloom, to bloom, I bloomed

**effugiō, effugere, effūgī, effugitūrus** *V* – I escape, to escape, I escaped, about to escape

**ego** *Pro.* – I

**enim** *C* – in fact, indeed; truly, really

**epistula, epistulae** *N* (f.) – letter (written communication)

**eques, equitis** *N* (m.) – knight

**equus, equī** *N* (m.) – horse



**et** *C* – and; **et...et** – both...and; *Adv.* – too, also, as well, even

**excellētia, excellētiaē** *N* (f.) – excellence

**excitō, excitāre, excitāvī, excitātus** *V* – I wake, to wake, I woke, woken

**exemplar, exemplāris** *N* (n.) – model

**exemplum, exemplī** *N* (n.) – example

**exerceō, exercēre, exercuī, exercitus** *V* – I train, to train, I trained, trained

**expōnō, expōnere, exposuī, expositus** *V* – I display, to display, I displayed, displayed

**exsilium, exsilī** *N* (n.) – exile, banishment

**extrā** *Prep.* – *with Accusative*: outside of, beyond

## F

**faber, fabrī** *N* (m.) – smith

**fabricō, fabricāre, fabricāvī, fabricātus** *V* – I build, to build, I built, built; I forge, to forge, I forged, forged

**fābula, fābulaē** *N* (f.) – story

**facilis, facile** *Adj.* – easy

**faciō, facere, fēcī, factus** *V* – I make, to make, I made, made; I do, to do, I did, done

**factum, factī** *N* (n.) – deed

**fāgus, fāgī** *N* (f.) – beech tree

**fallō, fallere, fefellī, falsus** *V* – I deceive, to deceive, I deceived, deceived

**falsus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – false; deceived

**famula, famulaē** *N* (f.) – servant (female)

**famulus, famulī** *N* (m.) – servant (male)

**fār, farris** *N* (n.) – meal (flour)

**fēlēs, fēlis** *N* (f.) – cat

**fēlīx** (**Genitive Singular = fēlīcis**) *Adj.* – happy, fortunate

**fēmina, fēminae** *N* (f.) – woman

**fīlia, fīliae** *N* (f.) – daughter

**fīlius, fīliī** *N* (m.) – son

**fīniō, fīnīre, fīnīvī, fīnītus** *V* – I finish, to finish, I finished, finished; **fīnīrī** – to come to end

**fīnis, fīnis** *N* (m.) – end, boundary

**flamma, flammae** *N* (f.) – flame

**flō, flāre, flāvī, flatus** *V* – I blow, to blow, I blew, blown

**flōs, flōris** *N* (m.) – flower

**flūctuō, flūctuāre, flūctuāvī, flūctuātus** *V* – I toss, to toss, I tossed, tossed

**flūmen, flūminis** *N* (n.) – stream, river

**fluō, fluere, fluxī, fluctus (fluxus)** *V* – I flow, to flow, I flowed, (over)flowed

**fodiō, fodere, fōdī, fōssus** *V* – I dig, to dig, I dug, dug

**folium, foliī** *N* (n.) – leaf

**fortis, forte** *Adj.* – strong

**fortitūdō, fortitūdinis** *N* (f.) – strength; bravery; fortitude, resolve

**fortūna, fortūnae** *N* (f.) – fortune, luck

**forum, forī** *N* (n.) – marketplace, public square, forum

**frāter, frātris** *N* (m.) – brother

**fraxinus, fraxinī** *N* (f.) – ash tree

**fugiō, fugere, fūgī, fugitūrus** *V* – I flee, to flee, I fled, about to flee

**fulmen, fulminis** *N* (n.) – lightning bolt

**fundō, fundere, fūdī, fūsus** *V* – I pour, to pour, I poured, poured

## **G**

**gallīna, gallīnae** *N* (f.) – hen

**gallus, gallī** *N* (m.) – rooster

**garrulus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – talkative

**gaudeō, gaudēre, gāvīsus sum** *V* – I rejoice, to rejoice, I rejoiced

**geminī, geminōrum** *N* (m.) – twins

**genetrīx, genetrīcis** *N* (f.) – ancestor, (ancestral) mother

**genus, generis** *N* (n.) – kind, type; lineage

**germāna, germānae** *N* (f.) – sister

**germānus, germānī** *N* (m.) – brother

**gerō, gerere, gessī, gestus** *V* – I wage, to wage, I waged, waged

**gestō, gestāre, gestāvī, gestātus** *V* – I wear, to wear, I wore, worn; I carry, to carry, I carried, carried

**gladius, gladiī** *N* (m.) – sword

**Graecia, Graeciae** *N* (f.) – Greece

**Graecus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – Greek

**grammatista, grammatistae** *N* (m.) – grammarian

**gravis, grave** *Adj.* – heavy; serious, important, grave

## **H**

**haereō, haerēre, haesī, haesus** *V* – I hesitate, to hesitate, I hesitated, stuck

**habeō, habēre, habuī, habitus** *V* – I have, to have, I had, had

**hasta, hastae** *N (f.)* – spear

**herī** *Adv.* – yesterday

**hīc** *Adv.* – here

**hiemō, hiemāre, hiemāvī, hiemātus** *V* – I spend the winter, to spend the winter, I spent the winter, wintered

**historia, historiae** *N (f.)* – history

**hodiē** *Adv.* – today

**homō, hominis** *N (c.)* – human

**honestās, honestātis** *N (f.)* – honor; integrity, honesty

**hōra, hōrae** *N (f.)* – hour

**hortus, hortī** *N (m.)* – garden

**hostis, hostis** *N (m.)* – enemy (of the State); plural = The Enemy

**hūmānus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – human, kind

**humus, humī** *N (f.)* – ground

**hybrida, hybridae** *N (c.)* – hybrid

## **I**

**iaciō, iacere, iēcī, iactus** *V* – I throw, to throw, I threw, thrown

**iam** *Adv.* – already, by now

**igitur** *Adv.* – then, therefore

**ignis, ignis** *N* (m.) – fire

**immortālis, immortalē** *Adj.* – immortal

**imperō, imperāre, imperāvī, imperātus** *V* – I command, to command, I commanded, commanded

**in** *Prep.* – *with Ablative*: in, on / *with Accusative*: into, onto; against

**incipiō, incipere, incēpī, inceptus** *V* – I start, to start, I started, started

**incohō, incohāre, incohāvī, incohātus** *V* – I begin, to begin, I began, begun

**incola, incolae** *N* (c.) – resident

**inde** *Adv.* – thenceforth, from that time on

**ingenium, ingenī** *N* (n.) – character, innate talent

**inimīcus, inimīcī** *N* (m.) – (personal) enemy

**īnstituō, īnstituere, īnstituī, īnstitūtus** *V* – I construct, to construct, I constructed, constructed

**īnstrūmentum, īnstrūmentī** *N* (n.) – instrument, tool, equipment

**īnsula, insulae** *N* (f.) – island

**intellegō, intellegere, intelligē, intelligētus** *V* – I understand, to understand, I understood, understood

**inter** *Prep.* – *with Accusative*: between, among

**intrō, intrāre, intrāvī, intrātus** *V* – I enter, to enter, I entered, entered

**inveniō, invenīre, invēnī, inventus** *V* – I find, to find, I found, found

**irrigō, irrigāre, irrigāvī, irrigātus** *V* – I water, to water, I watered, watered

**Ītalia, Ītaliae** *N* (f.) – Italy

**iter, itineris** *N* (n.) – journey; **iter facere** – to make a journey, to travel

**iterum** *Adv.* – again

**iubeō, iubēre, iussī, iussus** *V* – I order, to order, I ordered, ordered

**iūcundus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – pleasant, agreeable

**iūdex, iūdicis** *N* (m.) – judge

**iūdicium, iūdicī** *N* (n.) – judgment, decision

**iungō, iungere, iunxī, iunctus** *V* – I join, to join, I joined, joined

**iūs, iūris** *N* (n.) – law, justice

**iūstitia, iūstitiae** *N* (f.) – justice

**iuvō, iuvāre, iūvī, iūtus** *V* – I help, to help, I helped, helped

## **K**

**Kalendae, Kalendārum** *N* (f. pl.) – Kalends (first day of the month)

**Karthāgo, Karthāginis** *N* (f.) – Carthage

## **L**

**labōrō, labōrāre, labōrāvī, labōrātus** *V* – I work, to work, I worked, worked

**lac, lactis** *N* (n.) – milk

**Latīnus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – Latin

**latrō, latrāre, latrāvī, latrātus** *V* – I bark, to bark, I barked, barked

**lātus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – wide, broad

**laudō, laudāre, laudāvī, laudātus** *V* – I praise, to praise, I praised, praised

**legō, legere, lēgī, lēctus** *V* – I read, to read, I read, read

**legūmen, legūminis** *N* (n.) – bean

**lēx, lēgis** *N* (f.) – law

**levis, leve** *Adj.* – light

**levō, levāre, levāvī, levātus** *V* – I relieve, to relieve, I relieved, relieved

**liber, librī** *N* (m.) – book

**līber, lībera, līberum** *Adj.* – free

**līberō, līberāre, līberāvī, līberātus** *V* – I free, to free, I freed, freed

**libet** *V* (*impersonal*) – It is pleasant...

**licet** *V* (*impersonal*) – It is permitted...

**liquefaciō, liquefacere, liquefēcī, liquefactus** *V* – I melt, to melt, I melted, melted

**litterae, litterārum** *N* (f. pl.) – literature; **littera, litterae**: letter (alphabet)

**longus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – long

**lūgeō, lūgēre, luxī, luctus** *V* – I mourn, to mourn, I mourned, mourned

**lupa, lupae** *N* (f.) – she-wolf

**lupus, lupī** *N* (m.) – he-wolf

**lūx, lūcis** *N* (f.) – light

## **M**

**magister, magistrī** *N* (m.) – teacher (male)

**magistra, magistrae** *N* (f.) – teacher (female)

**magnus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – large, great

**mālum, māli** *N* (n.) – apple

**malus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – bad, evil

**mālus, māli** *N (f.)* – apple tree

**mandō, mandere, mandī, mansus** *V* – I chew, to chew, I chewed, chewed

**maneō, manēre, mānsī, mansum** *V* – I stay, to stay, I stayed, there was a staying  
(*impersonal*)

**mare, maris** *N (n.)* – sea

**marītus, marītī** *N (m.)* – husband

**māter, mātris** *N (f.)* – mother

**mathēmatica, mathēmaticae** *N (f.)* – mathematics

**medicus, medicī** *N (m.)* – doctor

**mel, mellis** *N (n.)* – honey

**memoria, memoriae** *N (f.)* – memory; **memoriā tenēre** – to remember

**mēnsa, mēnsae** *N (f.)* – table, desk

**meus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – my, mine

**mīles, mīlitis** *N (c.)* – soldier

**miscēō, miscēre, miscuī, mixtus** *V* – I mix, to mix, I mixed, mixed

**miser, misera, miserum** *Adj.* – miserable, wretched

**mittō, mittere, mīsī, missus** *V* – I send, to send, I sent, sent

**mōlēs, mōlis** *N (f.)* – weight, difficulty

**moneō, monēre, monuī, monitus** *V* – I warn, to warn, I warned, warned

**mōns, montis** *N (m.)* – mountain

**mora, morae** *N (f.)* – delay



**mors, mortis** *N* (f.) – death

**mortālis, mortāle** *Adj.* – mortal

**mōs, mōris** *N* (m.) – custom, habit

**moveō, movēre, mōvī, mōtus** *V* – I move, to move, I moved, moved

**mox** *Adv.* – soon

**mulgeō, mulgēre, mūlsī, mulctus** *V* – I milk, to milk, I milked, milked

**multus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – much (singular), many (plural)

**mundus, mundī** *N* (m.) – world

**mūniō, mūnīre, mūnīvī, mūnītus** *V* – I fortify, to fortify, I fortified, fortified

**murmur, murmuris** *N* (n.) – murmur

**mūs, mūris** *N* (c.) – mouse, rat

**mūsica, mūsicae** *N* (f.) – music

**mūtō, mūtāre, mūtāvī, mūtātus** *V* – I change, to change, I changed, changed

## **N**

**nam** *C* – for

**nārrō, nārrāre, nārrāvī, nārrātus** *V* – I tell, to tell, I told, told

**nauta, nautae** *N* (m.) – sailor

**nāvigō, nāvigāre, nāvigāvī, nāvigātus** *V* – I sail, to sail, I sailed, sailed

**nāvis, nāvis** *N* (f.) – ship

**nec/neque** *C* – and not; **nec...nec/neque...neque** – neither...nor

**neglegō, neglegere, neglēgī, neglectus** *V* – I neglect, to neglect, I neglected, neglected

**negō, negāre, negāvī, negātus** *V* – I deny, to deny, I denied, denied

**nepōs, nepōtis** *N* (c.) – grandchild

**nesciō, nescīre, nescīvī, nescītus** *V* – I do not know, not to know, I did not know,  
unknown

**nihil** *N* (n.) – nothing

**nix, nivis** *N* (f.) – snow

**noctū** *Adv.* – during the night

**nōmen, nōminis** *N* (n.) – name; noun

**nōn** *Adv.* – not

**nōndum** *Adv.* – not...yet

**nonne** *Adv.* – Surely...

**nōnnumquam** *Adv.* – sometimes

**nōs** *Pro.* – we

**noster, nostra, nostrum** *Adj.* – our, ours

**novus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – new

**nox, noctis** *N* (f.) – night; **mediā nocte** = “in the dead of night”

**nūllus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – none, no

**num** *Adv.* – Surely...not

**nūmen, nūminis** *N* (n.) – divine presence, providence

**numquam** *Adv.* – never

**nunc** *Adv.* – now

**nuntiō, nuntiāre, nuntiāvī, nuntiātus** *V* – I announce, to announce, I announced, announced

**nūper** *Adv.* – recently

**nūtriō, nūtrīre, nūtrīvī, nūtrītus** *V* – I raise (children), to raise, I raised, raised

**nūtrīx, nūtrīcis** *N* (f.) – nurse

## O

**ob** *Prep.* – *with Accusative*: on account of, because of

**obtineō, obtinēre, obtinuī, obtentus** *V* – I obtain, to obtain, I obtained, obtained

**ōdī, ōdisse** *V* – I hate, to hate

**odium, odiī** *N* (n.) – hatred

**odor, odōris** *N* (m.) – scent, aroma, smell

**odōrifer, odōrifera, odōriferum** *Adj.* – fragrant

**officium, officiī** *N* (n.) – duty

**ōlim** *Adv.* – once (upon a time)

**omnis, omne** *Adj.* – every (singular), all (plural)

**onerō, onerāre, onerāvī, onerātus** *V* – I load, to load, I loaded, loaded

**onus, oneris** *N* (n.) – load, burden

**opprimō, opprimere, oppressī, oppressus** *V* – I oppress, to oppress, I oppressed, oppressed

**oppugnō, oppugnāre, oppugnāvī, oppugnātus** *V* – I attack, to attack, I attacked, attacked

**opus, operis** *N* (n.) – work

**ōra, ōrae** *N* (f.) – bank, shore, coast

**ōrātiō, ōrātiōnis** *N* (f.) – speech; **ōrātiōnem habēre** – to make a speech

**ōrātor, ōrātōris** *N* (m.) – speaker

**ōrātrīx, ōrātrīcis** *N* (f.) – speaker (female), suppliant

**Orcus, Orcī** *N* (m.) – The Underworld

**ōs, ōris** *N* (n.) – mouth

**os, ossis** *N* (n.) – bone

**ovis, ovis** *N* (f.) – sheep

## **P**

**pācifer, pācifera, pāciferum** *Adj.* – peaceful

**pānis, pānis** *N* (m.) – bread

**pap̄yrus, pap̄yrī** *N* (f.) – papyrus, paper

**parātus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – ready; prepared

**parō, parāre, parāvī, parātus** *V* – I prepare, to prepare, I prepared, prepared

**pars, partis** *N* (f.) – part, piece

**parvus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – little, small

**pater, patris** *N* (m.) – father

**patientia, patientiae** *N* (f.) – patience

**patria, patriae** *N* (f.) – fatherland

**paucī, -ae, -a** *Adj.* – few

**paulus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – little, not much

**pecūnia, pecūniae** *N* (f.) – money

**per** *Prep.* – *with Accusative*: through (space), during (time)

**perfuga, perfugae** *N* (m.) – refugee

**perpetuus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – perpetual

**pēs, pedis** *N* (m.) – foot

**piger, pigra, pigrum** *Adj.* – lazy

**pīrāta, pīrātae** *N* (m.) – pirate

**plaudō, plaudere, plausī, plausus** *V* – I applaud, to applaud, I applauded, applauded

**plōrō, plōrāre, plōrāvī, plōrātus** *V* – I weep, to weep, I weep, lamented

**poena, poenae** *N* (f.) – penalty

**Poenī, Poenōrum** *N* (m. pl.) – Carthaginians

**Poenicus, -a, -um / Pūnicus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – Punic, Carthaginian

**poēta, poētae** *N* (m.) – poet

**poētica, poēticae** *N* (f.) – poetry

**pōmum, pōmī** *N* (n.) – fruit

**pōnō, pōnere, posuī, positus** *V* – I place, to place, I placed, placed

**pōns, pontis** *N* (m.) – bridge

**populus, populī** *N* (m.) – people

**pontifex, pontificis** *N* (m.) – high priest

**pōpulus, pōpulī** *N* (f.) – poplar tree

**porcus, porcī** *N* (m.) – pig

**possideō, possidēre, possēdī, possessus** *V* – I possess, to possess, I possessed, possessed

**possum, posse, potuī** *V* – I am able, to be able, I was able

**post** *Prep.* – *with Accusative*: after

**postea** *Adv.* – afterwards

**postmodo** *Adv.* – shortly, presently

**potēns (Genitive Singular = *potentis*)** *Adj.* – powerful

**pōtō, pōtāre, pōtāvī, pōtus** *V* – I drink, to drink, I drank, drunk

**praebeō, praebere, praebuī, praebitus** *V* – I offer, to offer, I offered, offered

**praeclūdō, praeclūdere, praeclūsī, praeclūsus** *V* – I block, to block, I blocked, blocked

**praemium, praemiī** *N* (n.) – reward

**praesum, praesesse, praefuī, praefutūrus** *V* – I preside over, to preside over, I presided over, about to preside over (*with Dative*)

**premō, premere, pressī, pressus** *V* – I press, to press, I pressed, pressed

**prīmus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – first

**prīncipium, prīncipiī** *N* (n.) – beginning

**prīvātus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – private; deprived

**prīvō, prīvāre, prīvāvī, prīvātus** *V* – I deprive, to deprive, I deprived, deprived

**prō** *Prep.* – *with Ablative*: for (the sake of), on behalf of

**problēma, problēmatis** *N* (n.) – problem, puzzle

**probō, probāre, probāvī, probātus** *V* – I recommend, to recommend, I recommended, recommended

**prōdō, prōdere, prōdidī, prōditus** *V* – I produce, to produce, I produced, produced

**prōmittō, prōmittere, prōmīsī, prōmissus** *V* – I promise, to promise, I promised, promised

**prope** *Prep.* – *with Accusative*: near; about, almost (time)

**properō, properāre, properāvī, properātus** *V* – I hurry, to hurry, I hurried, hurried

**prōsum, prōdesse, prōfuī, prōfutūrus** *V* – I benefit, to benefit, I benefited, about to benefit (*with Dative*)

**prōtinus** *Adv.* – shortly

**prūdentia, prūdentiae** *N (f.)* – prudence

**prūnus, prūnī** *N (f.)* – plum tree

**puella, puellae** *N (f.)* – girl

**puer, puerī** *N (m.)* – boy

**pugnō, pugnāre, pugnāvī, pugnātus** *V* – I fight, to fight, I fought, fought

**pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum** *Adj.* – beautiful, handsome

**putō, putāre, putāvī, putātus** *V* – I think (consider), to think, I thought, thought

## Q

**quā** *Adv.* – Where?

**quando** *Adv.* – When?

**quārē** *Adv.* – Why?

**-que** *Enclitic Particle* – and

**quid** *Pro.* – What?

**quis** *Pro.* – Who?

**quō** *Adv.* – Where to?

**quōmodo** *Adv.* – How?

**quoniam** *Adv.* – since, because

**quoque** *Adv.* – also, too

**quot** *Adj. (indeclinable)* – How many?

## R

**rapīō, rapere, rapuī, raptus** *V* – I seize, to seize, I seized, seized

**rārō** *Adv.* – rarely

**ratio, ratiōnis** *N (f.)* – reason, account

**rēgīna, rēgīnae** *N (f.)* – queen

**regō, regere, rēxī, rēctus** *V* – I rule, to rule, I ruled, ruled

**relinquō, relinquere, relīquī, relictus** *V* – I abandon, to abandon, I abandoned, abandoned

**respondeō, respondēre, respondi, respōnsus** *V* – I answer, to answer, I answered, answered

**rēx, rēgis** *N (m.)* – king

**rīdeō, rīdēre, rīsī, rīsus** *V* – I laugh, to laugh, I laughed, mocked; **rīdēre (+ dative)** – to laugh at

**rōbor, rōboris** *N (n.)* – oak, strength

**rogō, rogāre, rogāvī, rogātus** *V* – I ask, to ask, I asked, asked

**Rōma, Rōmae** *N (f.)* – Rome

**Rōmānus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – Roman

**rosa, rosae** *N (f.)* – rose



**rūsticus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – rustic, rural

## S

**saepe** *Adv.* – often

**sagitta, sagittae** *N (f.)* – arrow

**saliō, salīre, saluī, saltus** *V* – I jump, to jump, I jumped, jumped

**salūber, salūbris, salūbre** *Adj.* – healthy

**salūtō, salūtāre, salūtāvī, salūtātus** *V* – I greet, to greet, I greeted, greeted

**salveō, salvēre** *V* – I am well, to be well

**salvus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – safe

**sānus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – healthy, sane

**sapiēns, sapientis** *N (m.)* – wise man, philosopher; *Adj.* – wise

**sapiō, sapere, sapīvī** *V* – I taste, to taste, I tasted; I experience, to experience, I experienced

**satiō, satiāre, satiāvī, satiātus** *V* – I satisfy, to satisfy, I satisfied, satisfied

**sedeō, sedēre, sēdī, sessum** *V* – I sit, to sit, I sat, there was a seating

**scelus, sceleris** *N (n.)* – crime, evil deed

**scientia, scientiae** *N (f.)* – knowledge

**sciō, scīre, scīvī, scītus** *V* – I know, to know, I knew, known

**scrība, scrībae** *N (m.)* – scribe

**scrībō, scrībere, scrīpsī, scrīptus** *V* – I write, to write, I wrote, written

**secundus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – second, next, favorable

**sed** *C* – but

**sedeō, sedēre, sēdī, sēssus** *V* – I sit, to sit, I sat, set

**sedile, sedilis** *N* (n.) – seat

**semper** *Adv.* – always

**senātor, senātōris** *N* (m.) – senator

**senectūs, senectūtis** *N* (f.) – old age

**senex, senis** *N* (m.) – old man; *Adj.* – old, elderly

**sentiō, sentīre, sēnsī, sensus** *V* – I sense, to sense, I sensed, sensed

**serva, servae** *N* (f.) – slave (female)

**serviō, servīre, servīvī, servitus** *V* – I serve, to serve, I served, served

**servitūs, servitūtis** *N* (f.) – slavery, servitude

**servus, servī** *N* (m.) – slave (male)

**sevērus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – severe, serious

**sīc** *Adv.* – thus, so (in this way)

**silva, silvae** *N* (f.) – forest

**sine** *Prep.* – *with Ablative*: without

**sinister, sinistra, sinistrum** *Adj.* – left

**sitis, sitis** *N* (f.) – thirst

**socius, sociī** *N* (m.) – ally, companion (male)

**sōl, sōlis** *N* (m.) – sun; **sōlis ortū** = “at sunrise;” **sōlis occāsū** = “at sunset”

**soleō, solēre, solitus sum** *V* – I am accustomed, to be accustomed, I was accustomed

**solvō, solvere, solvī, solūtus** *V* – I release, to release, I released, released

**solūtus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – released (from), free (from)

**soror, sorōris** *N (f.)* – sister

**spectō, spectāre, spectāvī, spectātus** *V* – I watch, to watch, I watched, watched

**spērō, spērāre, spērāvī, spērātus** *V* – I hope, to hope, I hoped, hoped

**stō, stāre, stetī, status** *V* – I stand, to stand, I stood, stood

**studeō, studēre, studuī** *V (+ dative)* – I study, to study, I studied

**Stygius, -a, -um** *Adj.* – Stygian (relating to the River Styx)

**sub** *Prep.* – *with Ablative*: under, below; *with Accusative*: up to (from below)

**subsum, subesse, subfuī, subfutūrus** *V* – I am near, to be near, I was near, about to be near (*with Dative*)

**subter** *Prep.* – *with Ablative*: underneath, beneath; *with Accusative*: along the underside of

**subterfugiō, subterfugere, subterfūgī** *V* – I evade, to evade, I evaded

**sum, esse, fuī, futūrus** *V* – I am, to be, I was, about to be

**super** *Prep.* – *with Ablative*: at, upon; *with Accusative*: above, over

**supersum, superesse, superfuī, superfutūrus** *V* – I survive, to survive, I survived, about to survive (*with Dative*)

**systema, systematis** *N (n.)* – system

## T

**taceō, tacēre, tacuī, tacitus** *V* – I am silent, to be silent, I was silent, silenced / silent

**tacitus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – silent; secret

**tamen** *C* – nevertheless

**tandem** *Adv.* – at last, finally

**tangō, tangere, tetigī, tactus** *V* – I touch, to touch, I touched, touched

**tata, tata** *N* (m.) – “daddy” (children’s name for their father)

**taxus, taxi** *N* (f.) – yew tree

**tēctum, tēctī** *N* (n.) – roof

**tēctus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – hidden, covered

**tegō, tegere, tēxī, tēctus** *V* – I cover, to cover, I covered, covered

**templum, temple** *N* (n.) – temple

**tempus, temporis** *N* (n.) – time

**tenebrae, tenebrarum** *N* (f. pl.) – darkness, shades

**teneō, tenēre, tenuī** *V* – I hold, to hold, I held

**terra, terrae** *N* (f.) – earth

**terreō, terrēre, terruī, territus** *V* – I frighten, to frighten, I frightened, frightened

**tertius, -a, -um** *Adj.* – third

**theātrum, theātrī** *N* (n.) – theater

**thema, thematis** *N* (n.) – theme

**timor, timōris** *N* (m.) – fear

**trahō, trahere, trāxī, tractus** *V* – I drag, to drag, I dragged, dragged

**trāns** *Prep.* – *with Accusative*: across, over

**trīstis, trīste** *Adj.* – sad

**tū** *Pro.* – you (singular)

**tunc** *Adv.* – then, at that time

**turba, turbae** *N (f.)* – crowd

**turpis, turpe** *Adj.* – shameful

**tuus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – your, yours (singular)

**tyrannus, tyrannī** *N (m.)* – tyrant

## U

**ūllus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – any

**ulmus, ulmī** *N (f.)* – elm tree

**ultimus, -a, um** *Adj.* – last

**umbra, umbrae** *N (f.)* – shadow; ghost

**unda, undae** *N (f.)* – wave

**urbs, urbis** *N (f.)* – city

**uxor, uxōris** *N (f.)* – wife

## V

**vacuus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – empty (of)

**valeō, valēre, valuī, valitus** *V* – I am strong, to be strong, I was strong, powerful

**vallum, vallī** *N (n.)* – wall (of a city), rampart

**vēlum, vēlī** *N (n.)* – sail; **vēla dare** – to set sail

**vēnātor, vēnātōris** *N (m.)* – hunter

**veniō, venire, vēnī, ventum** *V* – I come, to come, I came, it happened (impersonal)

**verberō, verberāre, verberāvī, verberātus** *V* – I beat, to beat, I beat, beaten

**verbum, verbī** *N (n.)* – word

**vēritās, vēritātis** *N* (f.) – truth

**vērnus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – (of) spring

**vertō, vertere, vertī, versus** *V* – I turn, to turn, I turned, turned

**vērus, -a, -um** *Adj.* – true, real

**vesper, vesperī** *N* (m.) – evening, west

**vester, vestra, vestrum** *Adj.* – your (plural)

**via, viae** *N* (f.) – road, street

**videō, vidēre, vīdī, vīsus** *V* – I see, to see, I saw, seemed

**vigilō, vigilāre, vigilāvī, vigilātus** *V* – I watch, to watch, I watched, watched

**vinciō, vincīre, vīnxī, vīnctus** *V* – I bind, to bind, I bound, bound

**vincō, vincere, vīcī, victus** *V* – I conquer, to conquer, I conquered, conquered

**vinculum, vinculī** *N* (n.) – chain

**vir, virī** *N* (m.) – man

**vīsitō, vīsitāre, vīsitāvī, vīsitātus** *V* – I visit, to visit, I visited, visited

**vīta, vītae** *N* (f.) – life

**vīvō, vīvere, vīxī, vīctus** *V* – I live, to live, I lived, lived

**vix** *Adv.* – hardly, barely, scarcely

**vocō, vocāre, vocāvī, vocātus** *V* – I call, to call, I called, called

**volūmen, volūminis** *N* (n.) – scroll, volume

**vōs** *Pro.* – you (plural)

**vōx, vōcis** *N* (f.) – voice

**vulnus, vulneris** *N* (n.) – wound

**vulpēs, vulpis** *N* (f.) – fox

# Glossa Supplēmentālis I

## *Numerī Cardinālēs*

Latin	Roman Numeral	Arabic Numeral
ūnus, -a, -um	I	1
duo, duae, duo	II	2
trēs, tria	III	3
quattuor	IV/IIII	4
quīnque	V	5
sex	VI	6
septem	VII	7
octō	VIII	8
novem	IX/VIIII	9
decem	X	10
ūndecim	XI	11
duodecim	XII	12
tredecim	XIII	13



quattuordecim	XIV/XIIII	14
quīndecim	XV	15
sēdecim	XVI	16
septendecim	XVII	17
duodēvīgintī	XVIII	18
ūndēvīgintī	XIX/XVIII	19
vīgintī	XX	20
ntī ūnus / ūnus et vīgintī	XXI	21
trīgintā	XXX	30
quadrāgintā	XL/XXXX	40
quīnquāgintā	L	50
sexāgintā	LX	60
septuāgintā	LXX	70
octōgintā	LXXX	80
nōnāgintā	XC/LXXXX	90

centum	C	100
centum ūnus	CI	101
ducentī, -ae, -a	CC	200
trecentī, -ae, -a	CCC	300
quadrigentī, -ae, -a	CCCC	400
quīngentī, -ae, -a	D	500
sescentī, -ae, -a	DC	600
septingentī, -ae, -a	DCC	700
octingentī, -ae, -a	DCCC	800
nōngentī	DCCCC	900
mīlle	M	1,000
duo mīlia	MM	2,000
duo mīlia vīgintī	MMXX	2,020
duo mīlia vīgintī ūnus/ duo mīlia ūnus et vīgintī	MMXXI	2,021

## Glossa Supplēmentālis II

### *Numerī Ūrdinālēs*

<b>Latin</b>	<b>English</b>
<b>Adj.</b> prīmus, -a, -um	first
<b>Adj.</b> secundus, -a, -um	second/next
<b>Adj.</b> tertius, -a, -um	third
<b>Adj.</b> quārtus, -a, -um	fourth
<b>Adj.</b> quīntus, -a, -um	fifth
<b>Adj.</b> sextus, -a, -um	sixth
<b>Adj.</b> septimus, -a, -um	seventh
<b>Adj.</b> octāvus, -a, -um	eighth
<b>Adj.</b> nōnus, -a, -um	ninth
<b>Adj.</b> decimus, -a, -um	tenth
<b>Adj.</b> ūndecimus, -a, -um	eleventh
<b>Adj.</b> duodecimus, -a, -um	twelfth