

Glossary of Terms for the Study of Latin



- A -

Ablative

One of the six recognized cases in Latin. The ablative case signifies that a noun is either the object of a preposition that takes the ablative case, or is being used in one of several adverbial usages, which students of Latin must simply learn: cause, description, degree of difference, manner, means, personal agent, respect, separation, time. Ablative Absolute

This is a construction that uses a participle. It consists of a noun or pronoun in the ablative case with a participle agreeing with it. That explains why it's called *ablative*. It's called *absolute* because none of the words is tied directly into the grammar of the main clause of the sentence. In English, we have something we call a nominative absolute. Like this: *The door being open, all the flies were coming in.* Here's a simple one in Latin: **His verbs ab oratore dictis, omnes se contulerunt**, *with these words having been said by the orator, everyone departed.*

Ablative of Cause

An example may be more useful than a definition that merely rephrases the name. **In hac urbe, multi cupiditate pecuniae novas res petebant**, *in this city, many were anxious for revolution because of the desire of money.*

Ablative of Description

We sometimes see the ablative case used to describe something. Like, **Hoc erat monstrum magnâ magnitudine**, *it was a monster in (or of) huge size.*

Ablative of Degree of Difference

Here's another instance of a use of the ablative case which is nearly perfectly explained by its name. There are two ways to show comparison between two things in Latin. One is with the adverb **quam**, and another is to put the thing something is being compared to in the ablative case. So for the sentence *This city is bigger than that city*, Latin could write either **Haec urbs maior est quam illa urbs**, or **Haec urbs maior est illâ urbe**. Latin can also put a word into the ablative case to specify by how much something possess a quality. Like this: **paulô post**, *after by a little.*

Ablative of Manner

If Latin wants to indicate the way in which an action is performed, it can use either an adverb, or a word in the ablative case with the preposition **cum**. The preposition is somewhat optional in this construction, however. When the word isn't modified by an adjective, **cum** is always used. But if it is modified, the **cum** is optional. Study these examples: **Caesar Galliam cum virtute vicit**, *Caesar conquered Gaul with courage (or courageously)*; **Caesar Galliam magnâ cum virtute vicit** or **Caesar Galliam magnâ virtute vicit**, *Caesar conquered Gaul with great courage.*

Ablative of Means

The means by which an action is accomplished is indicated by the ablative case: **Caesar omnem Galliam exercitu vicit**, *Caesar conquered all of Gaul with his army.*

Ablative of Personal Agent

The person who performs the action of a passive verb is expressed with **ab + ablative**: **Rex ab amicis necatus est**, *the king was killed by his friends*. Please note that this construction is used *only* if the agent is a person. Otherwise, the ablative of means is used: **Rex hoc gladio necatus est**, *the king was killed by (or with) this sword.*

Ablative of Respect

Latin can put a noun into the ablative case to indicate in what respect a statement is true, or to specify something about another noun. **Caesar virtute praeerat**, *Caesar excelled in virtue*. **Rex quidam, Cepheus nomine, hoc regnum illo tempore obtinebat**, *a king, Cepheus by name, held the kingdom at that time*.

Ablative of Separation

Usually Latin expresses motion away from something with one of the prepositions ab, ex, de plus the ablative case. But if the idea of separation is strongly implied in the verb itself, then Latin can, and typically does, omit the preposition. This is called the ablative of separation. **Caesar nos timore liberavit**, *Caesar freed us from fear*.

Ablative of Time

A word denoting a unit of time can be put into the ablative case to indicate the time at which, or within which, a certain act takes place. Like this: **Caesar paucis horis ad urbem pervenit**, *Caesar arrived at the city within a few hours*; or **Caesar diē eādem ad urbem pervenit**, *Caesar arrived at the city on the same day*.

Absolute (in Degrees of Adjectives)

The comparative and superlative forms of adjectives and adverbs can be used without direct reference to anything else. We call this the absolute use and find different ways to translate it. For the comparative, we'd say *rather* instead of *more*. For the superlative, we'd say *very*, instead of *most*. For example, if the adjective **fortior** being used absolutely, you'll translate it as *rather brave*, instead of *braver*. **Fortissimus** used absolutely would be *very brave*, instead of *most brave*.

Accusative

One of the six cases in Latin. Nouns in the accusative case will be the direct object of a preposition, the direct object of a verb, or the subject of an infinitive in indirect statement. Another specialized use is the Accusative of Duration of Time.

Accusative of Duration of Time

One of the time expressions in Latin. It indicates the length of time over which a certain action took, is taking, or will take place. **Multos annos Caesar in Galliā erat**, *Caesar was in Gaul for many years*.

Active

See Voice.

Adjective

A word that qualifies a noun is an adjective. Its etymology--*thrown* (iacio) and *near* (ad)--isn't a particularly useful guide to its meaning, other than indicating that adjectives are typically near the nouns they qualify. *Blue skies*, *tall building*. Adjectives can be in the positive, comparative, or superlative degrees.

Adverb

A word that qualifies a verb or an adjective is an adverb. A common formation of adverbs in English is an *-ly* suffix added to an adjective. *True = truly; helpful = helpfully*. In Latin, adjectives become adverbs by adding suffixes to the adjective in the positive, comparative, or superlative degrees.

Agreement

This word, and the verb *agree*, refers to grammatical correlation of related words. That is, in many constructions, the properties of one word has to be reflected in another word. For example, adjectives have to *agree* with the nouns they're modifying by taking on the number, gender, and case of the nouns: **Video equum celerem**, *I see the swift horse*. A verb has to *agree* with its subject in person and number: **Haec puellae ad urbem pervenerunt**, *these girls arrived at the city*. A pronoun has to agree with its antecedent in number and gender: **Haec urbs, quam Caesar cepit, parva erat**, *this city, which Caesar captured, was small*. The personal ending on a verb has to agree with the number and person of the subject: **Haec pullae vos vident**.

Antecedent

From the Latin words **cedo** meaning *to come* and **ante** meaning *before*. An antecedent is a word or idea to which a pronoun is referring. For example: *Betty is a friend of mine. We all like her.* In the second sentence, the word *her* is referring you to *Betty*, which came in the first sentence. Hence we can say that *Betty* is the antecedent of *her*.

Apposition

From **ad**, *near* and **positus**, *placed*. It describes the construction in which one noun is placed next to another so as to modify it. *George, a friend of mine, is going to meet us at the theater.* *Friend* is in apposition to (or with) *George*. In Latin, the word in apposition will take on the same case as the word it's next to: **Videsne Brutum, amicum Caesaris**, *do you see Brutus, the friend of Caesar?*

Auxiliary Verb

In English, our verbs get helped along by all kinds of little words that change the verb's tense, mood and voice. These are called *auxiliary* or *helping* verbs. Like this *he will be seen*. Latin doesn't do this. All its helpers are attached to the end of the verb. The English example in Latin is **videbitur**, where **vide-** is the verb, and **bi** and **tur** are helpers.

- B -

- C -

Case

A grammatical role or function a noun, adjective, or pronoun (or any word acting as a noun, adjective or pronoun) plays in a sentence. Latin and Greek indicate such roles principally by adding endings to the word, called *case endings* (duh!). By contrast, English indicates different case principally by position, though there still exist some case endings: e.g., *Jerry's friend*. Latin recognizes as many as seven such cases: Nominative, Genitive, Dative, Accusative, Ablative, Vocative, Locative.

Clause

This is basically a subject and a verb and whatever other helpful words that are related to them. You might think of a clause as a thought, like *this tree is tall*. That's a clause. Now a sentence can be made up of just one clause, like the example I just gave you. Or it can be made of several clauses. See the related topics Simple Sentence, Compound Sentence, Complex Sentence, Independent (or Main) Clause, Subordinate Clause, Coordinating Conjunction, Subordinating Conjunction.

Complex Sentence

A sentence with one or more subordinate clauses.

Compound Sentence

This is a sentence composed of more than one clause and whose clauses are given equal importance. *The tree is tall and it's green*. This could also be written in a way that abbreviates the second clause: *The tree is tall and green*. Clauses in compound sentences are linked together by what's called *coordinating conjunctions*, such as *and*, *but*, *or*, *nor*, because they *coordinate* instead of *subordinate* clauses.

Conditional Sentence

A complex sentence consisting of a subordinate clause in which a condition is stated that affects the realization of the main clause. The subordinate clause is called the *protasis* (PHAH dah sis) and often contains the conjunction *if* or *when*, and the main clause is called the *apodosis* (ah PAH dah sis). Conditional sentences are classifiable into two large categories depending on the nature of the condition stated in the protasis: Open or Simple Conditions, Unreal Conditions.

Copulative Verb

See Linking Verb.

Cum Clause

A subordinate clause introduced by the conjunction **cum** can take a verb in the subjunctive mood: **Cum haec intellegent, irā commoti sunt**, *since they understood this, they were enraged*.

- D -

Dative

One of the cases in Latin. Words in the dative case can often be translated into English with the prepositions *to* or *for*.

Dative After a Compound Verb

You're going to see the dative case after compound verbs (a verb that's formed from a stem verb and a prefix attached). For example, **occuro** comes from preposition **ob** plus the verb **curro**, *to run*. We have **curro**, which means *to run*, turning into *to run up to* with the addition of the prefix **ob**. Hence it will be followed by the dative case.

Dative of Possession

The verb *sum* is often coupled with a dative case to show possession. So we have, **Filii duo ei erant**, *there were to him two sons*, or *he had two sons*; **Nomen mihi est Exiliens**, *my name is Skippy*.

Dative of Purpose

A common idiomatic use of the dative is to indicate the purpose of something: **Hunc librum dono misi**, *I sent this book as a gift*; **Haec pecuniam tibi auxilio erit**, *this money will be as a help to you (will be helpful to you)*. This last construction is an example of what's often called the *double dative*.

Dative with Special Verbs

This isn't really a grammatical category like the others; it's just a list of verbs in Latin that take the dative case which we English speakers strongly expect an accusative. That is, the Latin verbs are intransitive, whereas the English verbs are transitive. Here are some: **placeo**, *please*; **displiceo**, *displease*; **servio**, *serve*; **confido**, *trust*; **ignosco**, *forgive*; **credo**, *believe*; **resisto**, *resist*; **studeo**, *study*; **impero**, *command*; **noceo**, *harm*; **pareo**, *obey*; **persuadeo**, *persuade*; **faveo**, *favor*; **parco**, *spare*.

Declension

A pattern of case endings. There are five declensions in Latin.

Defective Verb

Some Latin verbs don't have all four principal parts. Like our verb *can* in English, which has no future, future perfect, pluperfect, or present perfect. The dictionary will list these verbs as best it can. Have a look at a couple of defective Latin verbs: **coepi, coepisse, ceptus**. This verb doesn't have a present system, so the dictionary just starts with the perfect tense (which is really its third principal part if it had the first two), then the perfect infinitive, followed by the perfect passive participle. Another common occurrence is that a verb will lack the perfect passive participle. When this is the case, dictionaries will either put a blank when it would be, or will stick in the future active participle: **fugio, -ere, fugi, -----, or fugio, -ere, fugi, fugiturus**.

Demonstrative

A word that points to something: *this, that, these, those*, etc. Demonstratives can be used either as adjectives or as pronouns; that's why they're more properly called just *demonstratives*, and not *demonstrative pronouns*, or *demonstrative adjectives*. Adjective: *That car is blue*; Pronoun: *I don't like that*. The main demonstratives in Latin are *ille, hic, iste*.

Deponent

A word describing the phenomenon of a verb setting aside some or nearly all of its active forms and translating the remaining passive forms as if they were active. For example, the form **miratur** is morphologically passive, but because it comes from a deponent verb, it is translated as if it were active: *he is wondering*. Verbs that are deponent are so indicated by passive forms in the dictionary entry where a non-deponent verb would have active forms. The verb above would be listed: **miror, -ari, miratus sum**. One feature of deponent verbs that beginning students must bear in mind is that their perfect participles are

nearly always translated as if they were in the present tense. Hence, **Caesar ad Galliam profectus copias magnas coegit**, *Caesar, setting out for Gaul, collected together a huge force*

- E -

- F -

Finite Verb

I don't know whether anyone else uses this term, but I use it to refer to a verb that has person (of which you can say first, second or third person). It helps distinguish them from forms that don't have person: infinitives, participles, and gerunds. So we say, *In the sentence Caesar urbem capere non poterat, the verb poterat is the finite verb.*

Future Active Participle

A participle formed from the fourth principal part of the verb + **ûr** + the first and second declension adjectival endings **-us, -a, -um**. It's hard to translate into English literally, but the formulas *about to* or *going to* can be used as stand-in's until the construction can be studied and a more felicitous translation found: **laudaturus**, *about to praise*. A note: the future active participle is one of the rare active forms in deponent verbs.

Future Passive Participle

A participle formed from the first principal part of the verb + **nd** + the first and second declension adjectival endings **-us, -a, -um**. It's hard to translate into English literally, but the formulas *about to be* or *going to be* can be used as stand-in's until the construction can be studied and a more felicitous translation found: **laudandus**, *about to be praised*. A very common use of the future passive participle is in construction is known as the passive periphrastic.

- G -

Genitive

One of the six cases in Latin. In addition to a few specialized uses which have to be studied separately, the genitive case very often shows possession, and therefore can be translated with our preposition *of* or the ending *'s*.

Genitive of Description

The name practically tells you everything about this construction. The genitive case can be used like an adjective: **equus magnae celeritatis**, *horse of great speed*.

Genitive of the Whole

Also called the Partitive Genitive. Words that denote a part of something--words like *much, many, some, a few, a part*--can be followed by a dependent genitive, which names the whole of which it is a part. Latin is more fond of this construction than English, so sometimes we have to change things to get passable English. For example, **multi amicorum meorum in ea urbe habitant** doesn't need any help: *many of my friends live in that city*. But **Caesar multum pecuniae non habuit** does: *Caesar didn't have much money (not much of money)*.

Genitive (Subjective and Objective)

Let's look at two different expressions with possessives in English: (1) *the cat's meow*, (2), *the song's performance*. Grammatically, the words *cat's* and *song's* are both in the possessive (aka genitive) case, but there's a different kind of relationship each has to the nouns they're governing. In *cat's meow*, the word *meow* expresses a kind of action, and the *cat* is seen as performing the action. In *the song's performance*, the word *performance* is also a kind of action, but here the *song* is seen as receiving the action of *performance*. So, in *cat's meow*, the word *cat* is genitive, but it's also the subject of the action implied in *meow*: a cat meows. And in *the song's performance*, the word *song* is the genitive, but it's also the object of the action implied in *performance*: a song is performed. So--we're almost done--we call *the cat's meow* an example of a *subjective genitive*, and we call *the song's performance* an example of an *objective genitive*. Brilliant, eh? In Latin, **adventus Caesaris**, *the arrival of Caesar* is a subjective genitive, and **timor**

periculi, *the fear of danger* is an objective genitive. Are you wondering why you need to know this to study Latin? Good question. Sometimes the difference between a subjective and objective genitive will be important in Latin. For example, if you want to say *my fear* in Latin, you've got to say *the fear of me*, right? And that can be either the fear that I have, or the fear that I inspire in others. The first one, because it's a subjective genitive, would be **meus timor**, where **meus** is from the possessive adjective **meus, -a, -um**. The second, because it's an objective genitive, would be **timor mei**, where **mei** is the genitive of the 1st person singular pronoun.

Gerund

A verbal noun. That is, a verb treated as if it were a noun. In English, there are two forms for gerunds. We can use the infinitive, as in *To know me is to love me*, and the stem + -ing, as in *Seeing is believing*. Latin uses the infinitive for the nominative case, and the first principal part + *nd* + 2nd declension, neuter endings for the other cases. The gerund is considered to be neuter in gender.

Gerundive

A gerundive is an adjective. That's how you can keep it distinct from a gerund (above) which is a verbal noun. The gerundive is morphologically the future passive participle of the verb: the first principal part + **nd** + **-us, -a, -um**. One common use is the future passive periphrastic. Another is with the proposition **ad** to show purpose. An example of the latter is **Ad urbes conservandas omnia paravit**, *he did everything to save the cities*.

- H -

Historical Present

Very often a story will refer to a past event in the present tense. This is to give the event some vividness that a past tense would lack. We do this in English frequently, when we say *So I sezs to him, I sezs . . .* instead of *So I said to him, I said . . .* Or, as has become common in football commentary during replay, *If he catches it, it's a touchdown*.

Hortatory or Jussive Subjunctive

One use of the subjunctive mood is to give a command, or inducement to do something in the first or third persons. (A command in the second person is usually given in the imperative mood.) Examples, **Veniant**, *let them come*; **fugiamus**, *let's run away*.

- I -

Independent (or Main) Clause

This is clause in the sentence that conveys the principal idea. If you can take a clause as is out of a sentence, and make a whole sentence out of it without changing anything, then you what you have is an Independent (or Main) Clause. For example: *George, who is a friend of mine, is on his way here*. This is a complex sentence because it has a subordinate clause in it. The main clause is *George . . . is on his way here*. This can stand alone as a sentence, but the subordinate clause *who is my friend* can't.

Indirect Command

One of kind of noun clause is the indirect command. It's exactly what it sounds like, an original command that reported as the object of a verb. In English, an indirect command is verb often expressed by nothing more than an infinitive. Direct: *Get lost*. Indirect: *I'm telling you to get lost*. Latin expresses its indirect commands in a subordinate clause introduced by **ut**, for a positive command, or by **ne**, for a negative command. The verb is subjunctive. Like so: **Caesar eis persuasit ut sibi pecuniam traderent**, *Caesar persuaded them to give him the money*.

Indirect Question

A question that is reported as the object of another verb. In English, we have *Where are you?* as a direct question. In this sentence, *I wonder where you are*, the question is dependent on the main verb *wonder*. Hence we call the second instance of the question *indirect*. In Latin, the main verb of an indirect question is in the subjunctive mood: Direct: **Quid mihi placet** *what do I like?* Indirect: **Scis quid mihi placeat**, *you know what I like*.

Indirect Statement

A question that is reported as the object of another verb. Like this: The direct statement, *Caesar is coming*, become indirect as the object of a verb like *I think* or *say* or *hear* or *believe*. Any kind of a verb that connotes a mental or sensate activity. So in English, we could say *I think that Caesar is coming*, or we could omit the conjunction *that* and just say *I think Caesar is coming*. Very little is changed in the original direct statement when it becomes indirect. In Latin, by contrast, the subject nominative of the original statement becomes accusative, and the original main finite verb becomes an infinitive. So, keeping with the same example, *Caesar venit* becomes *Puto Caesarem venire*. For this reason, an indirect statement is sometimes referred to as an example of an accusative-infinitive construction. Note that there is no Latin word for our English *that*.

Infinitive

One of the verb forms that doesn't have person. This one is often translated with our English thingie *to* plus the meaning of the verb, but not always: **Haec urbs capi non poterat**, *this city was not able to be destroyed* or *could not be destroyed*.

Interrogative

It means *asking a question*. You'll hear this in expressions like *interrogative pronoun* and *interrogative adjective*. The former means a pronoun that asks a question, like **quid**, *what?* or **quis**, *who?* The latter means an adjective that asks a question, like **qui homines**, *which men?* or **quae femina**, *which woman*.

Intransitive

When the energy depicted in a verb doesn't affect anything but the subject itself--that is, when the verb has no direct object--we say that the verb is intransitive. That's because there's no *transition* of energy from a subject to an object. In English, *sneeze* is intransitive, but *push* is not. We say *push*--as in *they're pushing the envelope*--is a transitive verb. Beginning students of Latin experience some difficulty grasping this concept because most verbs in English can be used transitively or intransitively depending on the context. For example, we can say *The bird is flying*, (intransitive), but we can also say *I'm flying a kite* (transitive). Latin verb typically don't have this kind of dual possibility. They're either transitive or intransitive.

Imperfect Subjunctive

First principal + re + primary personal endings: **laudaret**.

- J -

- K -

- L -

Labial

Referring to any sound made with the lips: the *p* and the *b*.

Linking Verb

Also called a copulative verb. (Don't look up *copulative verb*. You'll be sent right back here.) Verbs that link the subject directly to something in the predicate that modifies it are called linking verbs. When this happens, the thing out in the predicate is in the nominative case and is therefore called a predicate nominative. **Caesar videtur esse bonus dux**, *Caesar seems to be a good leader*.

Litotes

Pronounced *lie TOE tee-z*, this construction a way to affirm a positive by denying the negative. In English, we can say *not bad*, when we mean *good*; *not far* when we mean *nearby*.

Locative Case

One of the six cases in Latin. This case is pretty rare, and it looks like other, more popular cases. It's the case a word is in when it's showing location (hence the name *locative*). You'll see only certain words in the locative case--obviously only words that connote place. Like **humi** (from **humus**), *on the ground*. Also the names of cities and small islands are used in the locative case to show place where, instead of what we'd expect: the preposition **in** plus the ablative case. See Place Constructions.

- M -

Morphology

This is a bombastic term I use sometimes in weak moments when I get writer's block. It basically means *form*, and I'll use it to refer to the grammar of a word that contained in its form. So I'll say, *the morphology of this word is passive, but we have to translate it as if it's active*. Translation: *if we look at the way the word is spelled, we see that it has a passive form, but we have to translate it as if it's active*.

- N -

Nominative

One of the six recognized cases in Latin. It's the form of the word that's used in referring to the word in class. For example, if the teacher asks *What's the Latin word for 'tree,'* the student should answer '**arbor**,' which is the nominative case of the word. A word in the nominative is often the subject of a verb, but not always. A word in the nominative can be found in the predicate of the sentence, if it is referring to the subject. This use of the nominative is called the predicate nominative.

Noun

A word signifying a thing, place, idea, or an action that is being conceived of as an idea; *tree, city, truth*. See also Noun Clause.

Noun Clause

A clause that functions as a noun in a sentence by being the subject or object of a verb. Sometimes called an object clause. **Dixit Caesarem ad urbem venturum esse**. You'll often see noun clauses as the object of verbs of fearing: **Vereor ne pecuniam omnem amittam**, *I'm afraid that I'll lose my money*. Another common use of a noun clause is as a noun clause of fact: **Accidit ut Caesar in urbe esset**, *it happened that Caesar was in the city*.

- O -

Optative Subjunctive

This, somewhat rare, subjunctive is limited to certain stock invocations of something wished for. It's nearly always introduced by an adverb, like this: **Utinam veniat!** *would that he would come* or *golly, I wish he'd come*.

- P -

Participle

An adjective derived from a verb. In the expression *the singing nun*, *singing* is derived from the verb *to sing*, and here it's agreeing with *nun*. Participles preserve tense and voice from their verbal heritage. In the example above, the participle is present and active, since *singing* is something the nun does (active) and this quality is seen as an ongoing, continuous state (present). A verb can have as many as four participles: the future active and passive, the present active, and the perfect passive. Since they are adjectives, it follows that they will have to agree in number, gender, and case with the nouns they're modifying. Accordingly, participles will have to decline according to declensional patterns.

Partitive Genitive

See Genitive of the Whole.

Passive

See Voice

Passive Periphrastic

This is a very common construction using the gerundive of the verb linked to the subject through a conjugated form of the verb **sum**. It's called *periphrastic* because it contains the additional sense of obligation or necessity that has to be paraphrased in the English translation. Like this: **Haec urbs conservanda est**, *this city is to be (ought to be, should be, must be, has to be) saved*.

Perfect Active System of Tenses

Verb tenses in Latin divided into three different systems, depending on which principal part of the verb they use in their formation. The perfect system active of tenses consists of the perfect, future perfect, and pluperfect in the active voice, and they are all formed from the third principal part of the verb.

Perfect Passive System of Tenses

Verb tenses in Latin divided into three different systems, depending on which principal part of the verb they use in their formation. The perfect passive system of tenses consists of the perfect, future perfect, and pluperfect in the passive voice, and they are all formed using the fourth principal part of the verb linked to the subject with a conjugated form the verb **sum**.

Perfect Subjunctive

Active: third principal part + **eri** + active primary personal endings. Passive: fourth principal part and the present subjunctive of **sum**: **laudaverit; laudatus sit**.

Person

In the patois of grammar, this means the position a being has relative to the speaker of a sentence. What? Like this: If a reference is being made to the speaker or to a group of people to speaker is identified with, we call that the first person. If a reference is being made to the speaker's direct audience, we call that second person. And if a reference is being made to the thing that the speaker is speaking about (and if it's not his audience), then we call that the third person. And there you have it. *Have I* (first person) *explained it* (third person) *clearly enough to you* (second person)?

Personal Pronoun

These are pronouns which also convey grammatical person: 1st: **ego, nos, etc.**; 2nd, **tu, vos, etc.**; 3rd. **is, ea, id, etc.**

Place Constructions

In expressions of place where, to which, and from which, when you have the names of cities and towns or with the word **domus**, Latin doesn't use the prepositions we'd expect. Place where is the locative case. Place to which is simply the accusative case of the name without the preposition **ad**. Place from which is the ablative case without the prepositions **ex, de, ab**, etc. Place where: **Hercules Thebis** (*locative habitabat, Hercules lived in or at Thebes*). Place to which: **Hercules Thebas rediit**, *Hercules returned to Thebes*. Place from which: **Hercules Thebis veniebat**, *Hercules was coming from Thebes*. (Note that in these examples, the word for Thebes is plural because the noun in Latin is grammatically plural--**Thebae, -arum**--even though there's only one Thebes.)

Pluperfect Subjunctive

Active: third principal part + **is** + active primary personal endings. Passive: fourth principal part and the imperfect subjunctive of **sum**: **laudavisset; laudatus esset**.

Predicate

The part of the sentence left over after you take the subject out. That is, the subject of a sentence is what you're talking about. The predicate is what you're saying about it. For example, in this sentence the subject group is underlined, and the predicate is in blue: *The tree that's on the hill* *is a real monster*.

Predicate Nominative

When you have something in predicate that's directly referring to the subject, it'll be in the nominative case. That's what we mean by a predicate nominative. Here's one: **Haec filia Claudia appellabatur**, *this girl was named Claudia*. Do you see? **Claudia** is tied to the subject by the linking verb **appellabatur**.

Preposition

A word. Usually a little word. Its job is to link a word to the sentence often by showing how the word is physically related to what's happening. Some examples in English will help: *George is walking toward the city*; *Betty is with her friend Martha*. You may think of prepositions as duct tape. They bind things together in all kinds of different ways. When you learn a preposition in Latin, you're going to have to take note of the case it takes its objects in. The dictionary will tell you in this way: **de** + *abl.* Do you see? This means that **de** is a preposition and that it takes its objects in the ablative case. Some prepositions take the ablative case, others take the accusative. There are even some that can take either. In these instances, the meaning of the preposition changes slightly. For example **in** + *abl.* means *in*, as in place where. But **in** + *acc.* means *into*, as in motion into. By the way, they're called prepositions because most often they're placed (**positum**) before (**pre**) the word they're governing. Though sometimes they come after. One maddening thing about prepositions in general is that often Latin cases have meanings that we have to translate into English by using one of our prepositions, even though there's no preposition in the Latin. For example, the genitive of the word for *girl* in Latin is **puellae**. We'll have to translate this as *of the girl*.

Present Active Participle

A participle formed from the first principal part of the verb, with the third declension adjectival ending **-ns, -ntis**. It shows time contemporaneous with that of the main verb.

Principal Parts

The building blocks of verbs. They are the stems or roots of all the tenses of a verb. Typically a verb will have four principal parts, unless it's a defective or deponent verb. The first principal part is the stem for the present system of tenses active and passive, the second principal is there to give you more information about the first principal part (namely to identify the stem vowel and hence its conjugation), the third principal part is the stem of the perfect system active, and the fourth principal part is use as the participle in the perfect system passive.

Present Subjunctive

1st conjugation verbs: replace the thematic vowel **â** with **ê**. 2nd, 3rd and 4th conjugation verbs: first principal part + **â** + primary personal endings: **laudet < laudo; moneat < moneo; ducat < duco; capiat < capio; veniat < venio**.

Primary Sequence

This is one of the categories of the rules of the Sequence of Tenses. If the main verb of a sentence is in a primary tense (present, future, or a perfect that can be translated into English with the auxiliary *have*), then any subordinate subjunctives in the sentence must be in one of these three tenses: present, to show time contemporaneous with or subsequent to that of the main verb, perfect, to show time prior to that of the main verb, or a periphrastic future (the future active participle plus the present subjunctive of the verb **sum**) to show time subsequent.

Pronoun

A word that stands in for (**pro**) a noun. Like this: *Everybody knows Betty. She's very popular*.

Proper Noun

I'm not sure what this means. I think it means a personal name. Like *Bob*. The word *proper* probably comes from the French *propre* which means *one's own*. Not all boys can be called *Bob*. Only those boys whose *propre* -- that is, own -- name is *Bob* can be called *Bob*.

Proviso Clause

The conjunctions **dum, modo, and dummodo**, when they mean *provided that* or *if only*, take the subjunctive mood: **Urbs salva erit, dum tu exeas, the city will be safe provided that you leave**.

Purpose Clause

A subordinate clause that indicate the purpose for which the action of the main clause is undertaken is called a purpose, or final, clause: **Haec dixit, ut (ne) veritatem sciretis, he said these things so that you would (not) know the truth**.

- Q -

Question

You really don't know what a question is? Okay, here goes. It's a sentence that seeks information. In English, we can make questions by using interrogatives or auxiliary verbs or sometimes both: *What is wrong with you?*, *Are you coming?* *Whom do you see?* Since Latin doesn't have auxiliaries like us, it mostly used interrogatives. **Quid novi? Venisne? Quem vides?**

Quin Clause

This is always hard for beginning, and even intermediate students, to grasp. The conjunction **quin** means *but that*, and since no one goes around saying *but that* anymore, it's not a terribly helpful definition. **Quin** is often used to link a negated main clause, usually expressing a doubt, with a subordinate clause. The verb in the subordinate clause is subjunctive. Like so: **Non dubium quin Caesar fortis sit**, *there is no doubt that Caesar is brave*.

- R -

Relative Clause

A subordinate clause introduced by a relative pronoun. Relative clauses modify something, called the antecedent, in the main clause of the sentence in the way an adjective would. Hence a relative clause is sometimes referred to as an *adjective clause*. **Puellam vidi, quae ad urbem nostram pervenit**, *I saw the girl who had arrived at our city*.

Relative Clause of Characteristic

When a relative clause is modifying an antecedent that is indefinite, or when the relative clause is stating something hypothetical or conditional about its antecedent, its verb is in the subjunctive: **Nemo est qui haec faciat**, *there is no one who would do these things*.

Relative Clause of Purpose

A common use of the relative clause is to show purpose. In this usage, the verb is in the subjunctive mood, and the best way to translate it into English is with an infinitive: **Legatos Caesar misit, qui haec nuntiarent**, *Caesar sent messengers who would announce these things* or better *to announce these things*.

Result Clause

A subordinate clause that indicate the result of something expressed in the main clause is called a result, or consecutive, clause: **Tantâ cum celeritate cucurrit, ut amicum sequeretur**, *he ran with such great speed that he caught up with his friend*. **Tantâ cum celeritate cucurrit, ut nemo eum sequeretur**, *he ran with such great speed that no one caught up with him*.

Resumptive Relative

The Latin relative pronoun often stands at the beginning of a sentence and refers to something in the preceding sentence, or it may refer to the whole sentence as its antecedent. We call this use of the relative pronoun the *resumptive relative* because it *resumes* the line of thought from the last sentence. Did you get that, Larry? *resumes, resumptive?* You can translate it either as it is, which drives English purists out of their minds, or you can replace the relative with its equivalent of the demonstrative. Example: **Quae cum dixisset . . .**, *when he had said which things, or when he had said these things (haec)*.

- S -

Secondary Sequence

This is one of the categories of the rules of the Sequence of Tenses. If the main verb of a sentence is in a secondary tense (perfect, future perfect, or a pluperfect), then any subordinate subjunctives in the sentence must be in one of these three tenses: imperfect, to show time contemporaneous with or subsequent to that of the main verb, pluperfect, to show time prior to that of the main verb, or a periphrastic future (the future active participle plus the imperfect subjunctive of the verb **sum**) to show time subsequent.

Sequence of Tenses

The dirty little secret about the subjunctive mood is that it doesn't allow verbs to show absolute tense. Instead, verbs in the subjunctive mood indicate only aspect of action: whether the action is conceived of as a progressive act, or whether it is conceived as a complete act. That may seem like nothing but cheap metaphysics, but it has some real consequences in Latin grammar. Verbs in subordinate clauses that require the subjunctive mood show action *relative* to the time of the main verb; they'll show time before it, after it, or contemporaneous with it. See Primary and Secondary Sequence.

Simple or Open Conditions

When there is no expression of doubt implied as to the fulfillment of a condition stated in the protasis of a conditional statement, we call the condition simple or open. The mood of the verbs in such protases is always indicative, and the mood of the verb in the apodosis is also most often indicative, although it's not always necessary. One further thing, a future simple or open condition often goes by the special name *future more vivid*.

Simple Sentence

This is a sentence consisting of only one clause. *The river is wide* is a simple sentence. See Clause for more stuff.

Subject

Sentences can be thought of as a subject (what you're talking about) and a predicate (what you're saying about it). Usually the subject will be the thing performing the action of the finite verb, or will be receiving the action of the verb if the verb is passive. In the sentence *George talks too much*, *George* is the subject of the sentence, and the subject of the finite verb *talks*. In Latin, the subject of a verb will be in the nominative case.

Subjunctive Mood

One of the ways a Latin verb may appear is the subjunctive mood or mode. The word *subjunctive* gives some indication as to the use of the subjunctive mood: **sub**, *under*, and *junctive* from the Latin verb **iungo**, which means *join*. The subjunctive mood is called the *under joined* mood, because most of its uses are in subordinate clauses. The hard thing for us to get used to is that the subjunctive mood doesn't really mean anything in itself. The subjunctive mood is simply feature of Latin syntax for which we have to find English equivalents. This means that to become comfortable with this mood, we have to learn (1) to recognize the form when we see it, and (2) to study the different constructions in which it appears in Latin. Learning the forms is a matter of elementary grammar. Learning the constructions is harder, and that takes lots of reading experience. The main uses of the subjunctive in Latin are:

Anticipatory Clause Clause of Fear Conditional Sentence
Cum Clause Hortatory or Jussive Indirect Question
Optative Proviso Clause Purpose Clause
Quin Clause Result Clause Relative Clause of Characteristic

Related to these constructions are the rules known as the Sequence of Tenses. Good luck!

Subordinating Conjunction

This is a word that joins (*conjunction*) two clauses in a way that attributes a supporting role to the clause it's in. Like this: *After it rained, many mushrooms were found in the forest*. See there. The most important idea is *mushrooms were found in the forest*, the *after* clause tells you a little something more about it. Some other subordinating conjunctions in English are: *although, as if, because, if, when, while*.

Subordinate Clause

This is a clause that's a dependent part of a complex sentence. They are usually introduced by a subordinating conjunction, and can't stand by themselves as a sentence if taken out. For example, *George, who is a friend of mine, is on his way here*. This is a complex sentence because it has a subordinate clause in it. The main clause is *George . . . is on his way here*. This can stand alone as a sentence, but the subordinate clause *who is my friend* can't.

Subordinate Clause in Indirect Statement

Briefly stated, all subordinate clauses within indirect statement have their verbs in the subjunctive mood. The subjunctive observes the sequence of tense that is set, not by the main verb of the indirect statement, but by the main verb of the sentence. Study these examples: **Dixit virum quem vidisses inimicum esse**, *he said that the man whom you saw was an enemy*. **Dicit virum quem videris inimicum esse**, *he says that the man whom you saw is an enemy*. Things get much more interesting when you're talking about conditional sentence that are put into indirect statement. In a conditional sentence the apodosis is the main clause, so that's what becomes accusative-infinitive. The protasis, however, is a subordinate clause, and that always becomes subjunctive in indirect statement, even if it was originally an indicative. Like so. Direct: **si hoc dicit, veritatem scis**; Indirect: **Caesar putat, si hoc dicat, te veritatem scire**. See that?

Now for something really hair-raising. Suppose the original statement had been a present contrary to fact, in which you have an imperfect subjunctive in the protasis and the apodosis, and you want to report it as indirect statement. You'd end up with this: **Caesar putat, si hoc dicat, te veritatem scire**. What? Why not use the imperfect subjunctive in the protasis, you ask? Because it violates the sequence of tense! After a present tense, **putat**, all subsequent subordinate subjunctives will follow the primary sequence of tense, and the imperfect subjunctive isn't allowed. In summary, then, often the original nature of a condition will be masked when it's put into indirect statement. There you go.

- T -

Transitive

If a verb takes a direct object, it's called a transitive verb. This means that there's a movement of energy from a subject, through the verb, and onto an object which it directly affects. That's what the word *transitive* means etymologically: *trans* (*across*) and *it* (from the verb **eo**, *to go*). There's a *transition* of energy. What makes this concept a little difficult to grasp for English speaking students is that English verbs nearly always be used both intransitively and transitively. Consider. You can *run an engine* (transitive) or you can *run in the park* (intransitive). Latin verbs don't usually have this capacity: they're either transitive or intransitive by nature.

- U -

Unreal or Contrary-to-Fact Conditions

When there is doubt expressed as to the fulfillment of a condition stated in the protasis of conditional statement, you have an unreal condition. The mood of the verb in the protasis of unreal conditions is always subjunctive; the verb in the apodosis is also subjunctive. Most of the time, these conditions are best known by names that specify the time of the conditions. A future unreal condition is called a *future less vivid*: **Si hoc dicat, veritatem scias**, *if he were to (or should) say this, you would know the truth*. A present unreal condition is called a *present contrary to fact*: **Si hoc diceret, veritatem scires**, *if he were saying this, you would know the truth*. A past unreal condition is called a *past contrary to fact*: **Si hoc dixisset, veritatem scivisses**, *if he had said this, you would have known the truth*

- V -

Verbs of Fearing

Verbs that indicate fear or some kind of warning are followed by a object or noun clause, which amounts to little more than a subjunctive clause introduced by **ut** or **nē**. What makes the noun clause interesting after a verb of fearing is that the **ut**'s and the **nē**'s are used in a way that completely inverts our English expectations. In English we say *I'm afraid that he'll come*, or *I'm afraid he won't come*. Latin would translate the first **Vereor ne veniat**, and the second **Vereor ut veniat**. (Ite cogitate, go figure!)

Vocative

One of the six cases in Latin. It's the form a word has when it's being directly addressed, as in **Ave, Caesar**, *hail Caesar*. It had nearly disappeared as an identifiable form of the noun by the classical period, being almost always the same as the nominative case of the noun. The only place it differs is in nouns of the second declension whose nominative ends in **-us**: **Et tu, Brute**, *You too, Brutus?*

Voice

A term used to describe the relationship between a subject of a verb and the action of the verb. In Latin, there are two voices that are recognized by the verb form. Either the subject is performing the action (active voice) or receiving the action (passive voice). Active: **Romani Caesarem laudaverunt**, *the Romans praised Caesar*. Passive: **Caesar ab Romanis laudatus est**, *Caesar was praised by the Romans*.

- W -

- X -

- Y -

- Z -

Edited by Bret Mulligan for Wheaton College Latin 101 - from the original by Dale Grote 1999.