

L A T I N

— YEAR ONE —



FIRST EDITION

CHRIST THE KING BOOKS

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Chapter One: Introduction

Why Study Latin?

Welcome, dear student, to the study of Latin! In this book you will find a series of stepping-stones to lead you into the ancient realm of the Roman language.

You may have heard that Latin is hard; I shall not deny that it is. But familiarity with Latin is a real achievement, one in which you can rightfully take pride.

I am aware that not all of my readers may feel the same way about Latin. Some of you may be quite convinced that Latin is pure gold, and are eager to get started on it. Some of you, however, may still be wondering what there is, really, about Latin that makes it worthwhile. Why not German or Spanish? Why not French, *la langue de l'amour* (“the language of love”)?



Ancient Roman road between Antioch and Chalcis

Bernard Gagnon [CC BY-SA

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Latin helps one to understand the many languages which are based upon it!

Most linguists agree that there are a total of 47 different languages in existence today which are based heavily upon Latin. The five most prominent of those are Spanish, Portuguese, French, Italian and Romanian. Your grasp of English and of European Romance languages, such as French and Spanish, will increase, because these languages are founded upon Latin. They borrow from both its words and its grammatical structure.

In every area of study, it is most profitable to spend time on the elements of that study, since they are what make up everything else. In practicing the piano, for example, scales and chords are some of the best things to practice; your musical skill will increase much faster than if you only practiced finished pieces. That is why it is helpful to study Latin: it is an element of many modern languages.

How Latin helps us to enlarge and understand our English vocabulary

We speak, write, and even think with words. A large vocabulary is critical. It is almost always the case that the clearest thinkers have a large vocabulary upon which they draw. Studying Latin will definitely enlarge your English vocabulary, and to better understand even the words you already know!

First, notice that there are countless examples of English words which are derived from Latin either as words directly brought in (such as *agenda*, *alumni*, *curriculum*) or words brought in with some slight modifications, such as *deity* (which comes from the Latin word *Deus*, meaning *God*) or *agriculture* which derives from the Latin word *ager* (field).

Besides entire words, however, there are *many* important prefixes (beginnings of words), roots (parts of words in the middle), and suffixes (word endings) commonly used in English but which come from Latin.¹ Here are just a few of each, but there are hundreds that could be given:

- prefixes: *non-* (gives us words like nonsense), *re-* (gives us repeat, rewrite, recycle), *sub-* (subway, substandard). There
- roots: *-duc-* (gives us induce, produce, reduce), *-struct-* (giving construct, destruction)
- suffixes: *-able* (giving loveable, amiable), *-fer* (transfer, conifer, aquifer)

There are many words across the various sciences, as well as law, logic, and medicine that are heavily Latin-based. The lesson here: your English vocabulary will greatly improve by learning the Latin roots of our language. The Church and society need learned Catholics, from the humblest jobs, all the way to doctors, researchers, lawyers, priests, bishops, and beyond!

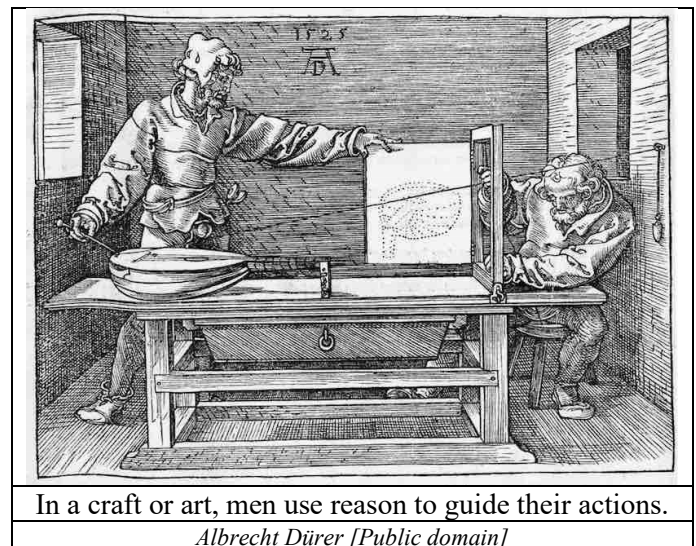
Studying Latin helps one understand the liberal art of grammar

Another practical advantage is a greater understanding of grammar. What do I mean by *grammar*? Well, grammar is an art, but what is an art? St Thomas Aquinas taught that **art** is any activity where human beings use their reason to direct their actions toward some purpose. For example, it is not everyone that can convert a pile of logs into a fine dinner-table and a matching chair set. Only the trained hand can do this, supplied with the proper materials and equipment. What enables someone to perform this task well? What separates the competent table-maker from the incompetent one? Primarily, it is what we call the “**art** of carpentry”. By means of this art the carpenter knows the form of table he is aiming at, and he knows what means to employ to reach that goal. His trained hands follow obediently the dictates of his mind.

Grammar is also an art; it is one of the seven famous “liberal arts”, and it is the one which helps us to write and speak well in whatever language we care to use. Without it we would speak and write jumbled sentences with the wrong words or with words in the wrong form. What carpentry does with wood, grammar does with words.

There are countless beautiful works written in Latin

We have been dwelling so far on how Latin helps you to learn other things; but why search abroad for what you can find at home? After all, great men like Caesar, Cicero, and Vergil were perfectly content to use Latin all their lives without any thought of learning other languages by it. They recognized in Latin a finely-tuned and beautiful instrument of thought. And during the course of their lives they enriched Latin further with a treasury of thoughtful and well-written works, a treasury only fully open to you once you have mastered the intricacies of their native language. These works have been admired and imitated without ceasing since they first were written. That is why, in addition to



¹ There are also many that come from Greek.

being advantageous for other studies, Latin is also worthwhile in itself, because of its own excellence and the excellence of the literature to which it gave birth.

The most important reason to learn Latin

There is one more reason for studying Latin, and it is in truth the most powerful. The Holy Roman Catholic Church that Christ founded upon earth has taken Latin for her own instrument. Everything from the words of the Holy Mass to the pronouncements of the Popes is rendered in Latin. This lends a permanence and universality to these texts, and so it is little wonder that this ancient language, once spoken by the inhabitants of classical Rome, is now a prized possession of our Holy Mother, the Catholic Church. Knowing Latin will open to you a treasure-chest of ecclesial texts in which you will find an abundance of knowledge and spiritual delight.

Perhaps the greatest reward of learning Latin is that one will be able to read, in their original language, the theological works of St. Thomas Aquinas, the Church's master theologian. These works are so wonderful that it is hard to find words to praise them highly enough! For example, Pope St. Pius X said, "In just one year, a man can derive more profit from the works of St. Thomas Aquinas than from a lifetime studying the works of others."² Be encouraged: St. Thomas' Latin style is fairly easy too! (Some authors use very flowery, poetic, and difficult Latin.) In fact, in the more advance phases of this Latin course, you will be treated to some short excerpts from St. Thomas' works.

Method of Study

Very well. If Latin is all we have said it is, it would be a shame not to study it. But how are we to go about doing so? Books abound on the subject. It turns out that there are several widely-used methods of studying a language.

The “immersion” method

Some people advocate learning a language through *immersion*. In this method, you are “thrown into” the foreign language, and must struggle through understanding the words by clues such as pictures (if reading) or hand motions (if listening), or other techniques. This is, in fact, similar to the way we all naturally learned English beginning from our earliest years – we watched people around us and learned. Although this method has the great advantage of letting one begin reading and speaking the language much more quickly than the method we are about to describe, the immersion method has the distinct disadvantage of not forming the student's mind in a speculative sort of way; that is, the student does not experience the advantages which we will now discuss.

The grammatical method

For good reasons, many people prefer a more structured approach than the immersion method. Generally, this is called the *grammatical* (or *classroom*) method, and it is the method we will be using in this book. In this method, the various parts of the language are systematically divided and studied, one at a time, seeing carefully how each works together. This method has the advantage of allowing the mind to learn and appreciate the art of grammar itself, rather than to simply be able to speak and write the language without ever having really “thought about it”. There is a reason that from about the year 1000 until about 1900 – almost all good schools taught the seven classical

² Pope St. Pius X, *Doctoris Angelici*, 1914

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Do exercises for Lesson 2

Lesson 3 Cases, Inflection, Bases, Stems

The Four Cases in English

Before we discuss the English cases, let us review some basics of grammar: The **subject** of a sentence is the thing talked about in the sentence. The **predicate** of a sentence is that which is said about the subject. (The verb *predicate* simply means to “say something about”.) In the sentence, “The big man ate the whole cake,” the subject is *man*, and the predicate *ate cake*; the complete subject is *the big man* while the complete predicate is *ate the whole cake*.

Since sentences can contain multiple clauses, we can, by extension, say the subject of a *clause* is the thing talked about in the *clause*, and likewise with a predicate. For example, the following is a compound sentence since it has two independent clauses, each having its own subject and predicate (the subjects of each are in bold):

The museum **director** showed us an original painting from Fra Angelico, and **we tourists** marveled at its beauty.

Thus, keep in mind two of the most fundamental rules in grammar: **A sentence is a predication about a subject**; and further: **A sentence is composed of a subject (the thing talked about), and a predicate (that which is said about that subject)**. Further, the most important part of the predicate is the verb.

With that quick review, let us move on. **English has four cases: the nominative, the possessive, the objective, and the vocative**. These are simply four names we assign to the various functions of nouns and pronouns that our minds distinguish in English grammar.

English case #1: The nominative case

A noun or pronoun is in the nominative case whenever it functions as (a) the subject of a sentence or (b) as a predicate nominative.

- a) **Subject of a sentence:** In the sentences “John threw the ball” and “He threw the ball”, *John* and *he* are the respective subjects because they are, in each case, what is talked about. Thus, we say that *John* and *he* are “in the nominative case”, since they each function as the subject of the verb *threw*.
- b) **Predicate nominative:** In each of the sentences, “John was king” and “She is Mary”, we have very simple verbs (which are variations of the infinitive verb *to be*) doing one of the simplest things a verb can possibly do. They merely link the subject to a new name in the predicate. Thus, *John* is simply renamed/linked to *king*, and *She* to *Mary*. But the Latin word for *name* is *nomen*. Thus, *king* and *Mary* are each said to be predicate *nominatives* and thus considered to be “in the nominative case”.

English case #2: The possessive case

For example, consider this sentence:

Christ’s humanity truly suffered in His Sacred Passion, even though He is God.

What is the subject of this sentence? To answer this, we ask, what is being talked about? Some students would answer *Christ*, but this is incorrect. For in this sentence, putting it extremely simply, we are saying that *humanity*

suffered. *Humanity* is being talked about, is the subject, and is in the nominative case. What then, is the function of the word *Christ's*?

This word tells us whose humanity suffered – it says something further about (or, as some would say, it modifies) the subject, indicating that the humanity belongs to Christ. Since the word *Christ's* indicates possession of something, the word is said to be “in the possessive case”. In English the possessive case (genitive case) is represented by adding 's to the end of a word. (For the possessive of plural nouns, we usually add a ' character after the s, like this: “The Johnsons’ house is beautiful!”)

Note that pronouns can also “do the owning.” In the above sentence, one could substitute *His* for *Christ's* and all the same would follow; *his* would then be in the possessive case.

In general, the relation between what is owned and what “does the owning” can sometimes confuse young students. **Save yourself future trouble in Latin by getting this straight now.** Here is an exercise to help: find all the words in the possessive case as well as those in the nominative case:

Example sentence	Nouns / Pronouns in the possessive case	Nouns / Pronouns in the nominative case
St. Thomas Aquinas is the Church's greatest Doctor.	- <i>Church's</i> : the Church “owns” the Doctor (the Doctor belongs to the Church)	- <i>St. Thomas Aquinas</i> (subject of the sentence) - <i>Doctor</i> (predicate nominative)
The child's disrespectful attitude invited punishment.	- <i>child's</i> : the attitude “belongs to” the child	- attitude (subject of the sentence)
Robert's wife asked him to clean her mess in the kitchen.	- <i>Robert's</i> : the wife “belongs to” Robert - <i>her</i> : mess “belongs to” her	- wife (subject of the sentence)
The orchestra's excessive volume prevented Thomas from enjoying the actors' words.	- <i>orchestra's</i> : the orchestra “owns” the volume - <i>actors'</i> : the actors “own” the words (the words belong to the actors)	- <i>volume</i> (subject of the sentence)

A technical distinction

We are tempted to consider the following as also examples of the possessive case: *the brightness of the sun*; *the ravishing beauty of nature*. But *of* is a preposition in English, and so when used, technically, we have a preposition with its object – a prepositional phrase. The case here is thus the *objective* case (which is discussed below).

Summary of the possessive case

In summary then: **A noun or pronoun is in the possessive case whenever something else belongs to, or is associated with, that noun or pronoun. In English, it is recognized by use of the apostrophe.**

English case #3: The objective case

Whenever a noun or pronoun is used as an object, it is in the objective case. There are three kinds of objects in English: the noun/pronoun may be (1) a direct object, (2) an indirect object, or (3) an object of a preposition.

Direct and indirect objects

Let us analyze this sentence, which shows the first two types:

The king gave the corrupt **people** the **gifts** they demanded.

Here, *king* is in the nominative (it is the subject); *gifts* is the direct object (it is the object of the verb *gave*); *people* is the indirect object (the people receive the direct object, the *gifts*).

Objects of a preposition

We mentioned earlier that English has about 150 prepositions. Prepositions are never used by themselves – they always require a noun or pronoun as its object. That object always is considered in the objective case. In the following example, *flowers* is the object of the preposition *with*, and thus *flowers* is in the objective case:

The energetic girl made a delicious cake decorated **with flowers**.

English case #4: The vocative case

This is the least used case. It is used for a noun that identifies a person (animal, object, etc.) being addressed. For example, in these sentences, *Jane* and *Mr. Smith* are in the vocative case:

Jane, we are so proud of you!
Your house is on fire, Mr. Smith!

The Six Cases in Latin

Latin sentences, just like those of English, are divided into a *subject* and a *predicate*. Consider the sentence, *Honor alit artes*, which means, *Honor nourishes the arts*. In this sentence, *honor* is the subject and *alit artes* is the predicate.

A comparison of cases in Latin vs. English

Very carefully study this chart and the bullets after it. This chart is a beginning point for your study of Latin grammar. It gives a rough overview of the Latin cases, although there are many exceptions that we will learn as we go.

English Case	Latin Case	Notes	
Nominative	Nominative	No difference – used for the subject and a predicate nominative	
Possessive	Genitive	The function is the same, but the name is different; though Latin’s genitive includes “of the (noun)”	
Objective	Dative	Often used in Latin to show an indirect object	<i>Whereas English covers all objects with the same case, Latin has a different case for the various types of objects.</i>
	Accusative	Often used in Latin to show a direct object	
	Ablative	Used in Latin for many purposes, but one of which is often for the object of prepositions .	
Vocative	Vocative	No difference – same function.	

- The most noticeable difference between the two languages is that Latin has six cases⁵ and English only four.

⁵ Some grammarians distinguish a seventh case in Latin called the *locative*, but that is beyond the scope of this book.

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In Latin sentences, the verb (in this case, *portat*) is often, though not always, placed at the end of the sentence. The sentence would, however, have the same meaning if the verb were moved: *Filia portat aquam ad familiam*.

Filiam aqua ad familiam portat.

The water carries the daughter to the family.

Notice that even though this sentence uses the same root words as the previous, its meaning is quite different. This is because the cases of the words have changed, which changes the role of those words in the sentence. In the first sentence, *filia* was in the nominative case (*-a* ending), making it the subject, while in the second sentence, *filiam* is in the accusative case (*-am* ending), indicating it is the Direct Object.

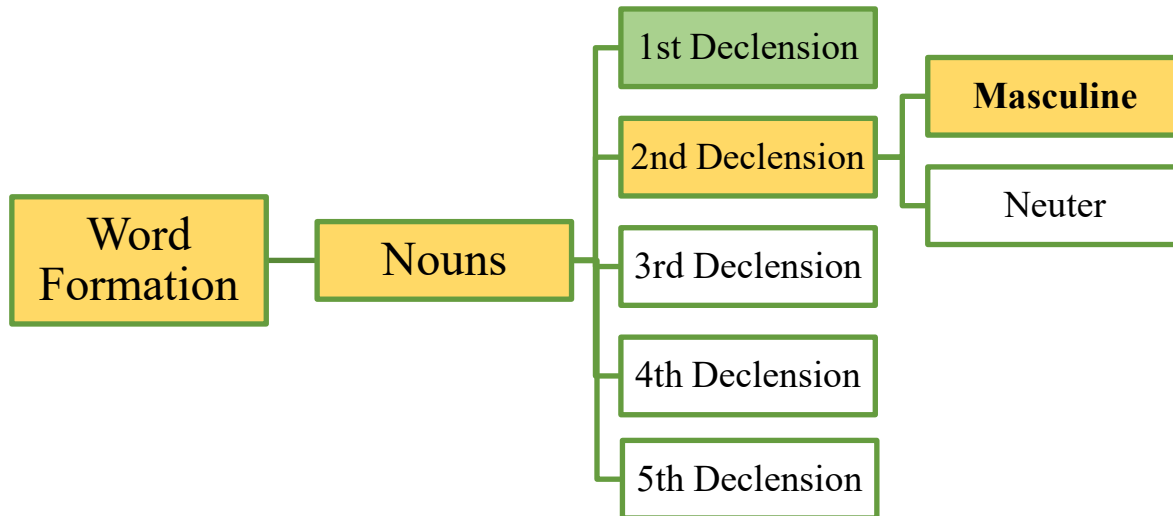
Agricola felix est propter copiam.

The farmer is happy on account of the abundance.

Here we have another example of the preposition *propter* taking a noun which must be in the accusative.

Do exercises for Lesson 5

Lesson 6 Nouns of the 2nd Declension: the o-Base



Up to this point, we have only studied the First Declension, the *a*-base declension. Recall also that almost all First Declension nouns are feminine. We move on now to the Second Declension – the *o*-base Declension. Concerning gender, notice in the chart above that the Second Declension has both masculine and neuter nouns, but no feminine nouns.⁹ In this lesson we will cover only the masculine and in the next, neuter nouns. Thus, all the nouns in the vocabulary table below are masculine.

VOCABULARY	
Theme: <i>People and relations</i>	
amicus amici, m.	friend {amicable}
barbarus, barbari, m.	barbarian
equus, equi, m.	horse {equestrian}
deus, dei, m.	god {deity} – note this may refer to false “gods” and thus is only capitalized for the True God.
dominus, domini, m.	lord, master {dominate}
filius, filii, m.	son {filial}
gladius, gladii, m.	sword {gladiator}
populus, populi, m.	people, populace
servus, servi, m.	servant, slave
portant	they carry (do carry)

⁹ There are extremely rare exceptions; a few Second Declension nouns are feminine.
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sunt

they are; there are

The **stem** of a Second Declension noun is the genitive form without the *-i*. For example, the stem of *servus*, *servi* is *serv*. Remember: for all Latin nouns, the stem is the word without the genitive ending.

Declining a Second Declension Masculine Noun

The declension for *servus*, *servi* is the following:

Number	Case	Declension of servus, servi	English Equivalent	Ending
Singular.				
	Nom.	serv-us	“the servant”	-us
	Gen.	serv-i	“of the servant “	-i
	Dat.	serv-o	“to/for the servant”	-o
	Acc.	serv-um	“the servant”	-um
	Abl.	serv-o	“ in / by / at / with the servant”	-o
Plural.				
	Nom.	serv-i	“the servants”	-i
	Gen.	serv-orum	“of the servants”	-orum
	Dat.	serv-is	“to/for the servant”	-is
	Acc.	serv-os	“the servant”	-os
	Abl.	serv-is	“ in / by / at / with the servants”	-is

Critical: Notice that multiple sets of case endings are the same!

Just as with the First Declension, there were multiple sets of similar endings, so it is here in the Second. But the sets of same endings are not the same sets as in the First Declension:

- The genitive singular and nominative plural are both **i**
- The dative and ablative singular are **o**.
- The dative and ablative plural are **is**.

We ask the same question as we did for the First Declension: If many of the endings for the various cases are the same, how do we Latin speakers distinguish the meaning? For example, if we see the word *servis* by itself, we would indeed be unsure of its meaning. Does it mean *to / for the servants* or *in / by / at / with the servants*? Likewise, *servi* by itself could indicate *of the servant* or *the servants* (nominative). The answer to this question is the same answer we gave earlier: we are able to determine the meaning of the word by its context in the sentence.

Note: All five declensions have this same issue: there are multiple sets of similar endings. We will not bore you by continuing to point this out in future lessons, for the answer to this issue is always the same.

Second declension nouns are masculine or neuter

2nd Declension Nouns whose genitive ends in **-us** are masculine.

2nd Declension Nouns whose genitive ends in **-um** are neuter.

The only exceptions to this are certain words like the names of trees; the word *cedrus, cedri, f, cedar* for example, is a Second Declension feminine noun. But such exceptions are very rare.

Second declension: the o-base; STEM = remove the -i from the genitive

The stem of any second declension noun is the genitive form without the *i*. For example, the stem of *dominus, domini* is *domin-*, and the stem of *equus, equi* is *equ-*.

We call this the *o*-base declension because it is the only declension that has several endings beginning with *o* – in particular, the dative and ablative, as you will see in the table below. Words whose nominative and genitive singular end in *-us/um* and *-i* are members of the *o*-base declension.¹⁰ In order to be sure that you are dealing with a word of the Second Declension, you need to observe the genitive singular ending, which is always an *-i*.

The Second Declension-MASCULINE “chant”

Study the following chart:

Number	Case	Case ending
Singular.		
	Nom.	-us
	Gen.	-i
	Dat.	-o
	Acc.	-um
	Abl.	-o
Plural.		
	Nom.	-i
	Gen.	-orum
	Dat.	-is
	Acc.	-os
	Stem +	-is

Now repeat to yourself ALOUD at least twice the Second Declension MASCULINE endings “chant”. So, you should hear yourself saying this (phonetically): “oos, ee, oh, oom, oh / ee, o-room, ees, os, ees”

¹⁰ The other endings used to have the letter *o* as well, but certain changes in pronunciation took place over time that obscured the *o* from the other cases. For example, *Deus* used to be *Deos*, but over time the *o* changed into a *u*.

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Summary of all Second Declension Noun Types

Although the Second Declension includes only masculine and neuter nouns,¹⁷ yet there are three (well five!) rules. The neuter nouns are well-behaved – they always end in **-um** but some masculine nouns are troublemakers. Let us summarize the rules for all Second Declension noun types:

1. The nominative singular ending of the **neuter** nouns is **-um** (e.g., *bellum, belli, n, war*)
2. The nominative singular ending of the **masculine** nouns is **-us** for the most part... (e.g., *populus, populi, m, war*)
3. ...but a small subgroup of troublemaker masculine nouns is called the *r-stem group*, whose nominative singular, instead of ending in **-us**, ends in **-er** (e.g., *liber, libri, m, book*). And further, and among the nouns of this r-stem subgroup:
 - ...the stem of some is simply the nominative singular (e.g., *puer, pueri, m, boy*; and the stem is *puer*)
 - ...but for others, in order to get the stem, we must remove the *e* from **-er** (e.g., *ager, agri, m, field*: the stem is *agr*)

Those are, admittedly, many rules. But learning them now will help you to avoid much future confusion.

An Interesting Similarity Between the Declensions

Let us compare the masculine Second Declension endings with those we learned for the First Declension. You may have noticed a number of similarities among the two sets of endings. Seeing them side-by-side can help:

Number	Case	1 st Declension Endings	2 nd Declension Endings (Masc.)
Singular.			
	Nom.	-a	-us
	Gen.	-ae	-i
	Dat.	-ae	-o
	Acc.	-am	-um
	Abl.	-a	-o
Plural.			
	Nom.	-ae	-i
	Gen.	-arum	-orum
	Dat.	-is	-is
	Acc.	-as	-os
	Abl.	-is	-is

Notice that first for both declensions, the accusatives end in the same letter: singular **-m**, and plural **-s**; and second for both declensions, the dative and ablative Plural are the same and the same as each other: **-is**. Further, in the

¹⁷ Again, there are very few exceptions of feminine nouns.

ablative Singular, in both declensions, the ending is just the base-vowel: **-a** for the 1st Declension, and **-o** for the 2nd. This is a feature we will see in more or less all the declensions.

People who have carefully thought about such similarities have discovered that, deep down, the case endings for these two (and in fact, all five declensions) are really the same. They only change accordingly as they are applied to different vowel bases: in the First Declension, **a**, and in the Second Declension, **o**. That is why, for example, the First Declension accusative plural is **-as** and the 2nd Declension accusative plural is **-os**. If you pay close attention while learning the rest of the declensions, you can see how each of them uses the same, familiar case endings in a new way. This logical regularity is a beautiful feature of the Latin language.



Viri in agro Men in the field
Relief in Trier [Public Domain]

Apposition

In English and Latin, sometimes in speech we have a need to “rename” or further describe a noun. Consider these examples:

Mr. Jenkins, **the barber**, took a long vacation this month.
Although it took all his moral strength, the man saluted the king, **a tyrant**.

In such situations, we “position a noun next to” another noun, and this is called **apposition**, and the noun which is so positioned is called an **appositive**. Appositives can be used anywhere nouns can be – as subjects, objects, or complements. **Appositives always agree in case with the noun they appose**, but need not necessarily agree in gender and number.

Filius meus, **Ioannes**, adest!¹⁸ (both nouns are nominative)
My son, John, is here!

Magistro **donum** dedit, **librum**. (both nouns are accusative)
He gave his teacher a gift, a book.

¹⁸ *adest* = “ad” + “est” = “He / she / it is present”

Declension Review

1st Decl.		2nd Decl. (masc.)		2nd Decl. (r-stem)		2nd Decl. (neuter)	
Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
-a	-ae	-us	-i	-	-i	-um	-a
-ae	-arum	-i	-orum	-i	-orum	-i	-orum
-ae	-is	-o	-is	-o	-is	-o	-is
-am	-as	-um	-os	-um	-os	-um	-a
-a	-is	-o	-is	-o	-is	-o	-is

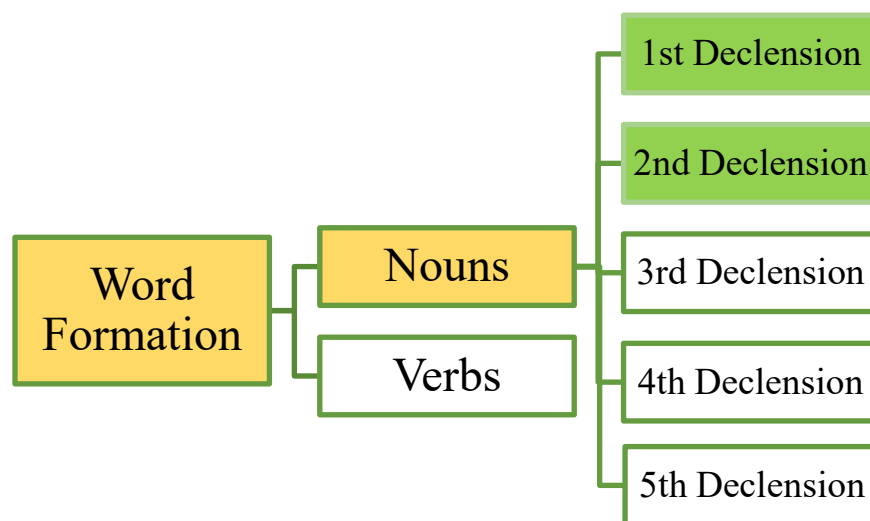
Do exercises for Lesson 9

Lesson 10 Review I

If we do not stop every so often to reflect upon what we have learned, we stand in danger of forgetting it. And since what we will learn next often depends on what we have learned before, this leads to a most unfortunate situation.

That is why we have periodically included **Review Lessons** in this book. In each of them you will find a short summary of concepts, which aims to both refresh your memory of those concepts and to help you to see how they all fit together into a cohesive whole.

Let us Review the Lessons We Have Covered



Introduction

In the introductory material, we learned many reasons that a study of Latin is immensely useful. There are many practical benefits, but there are also these: the enjoyment of the beauty of Latin itself, the ability to read classic works written in Latin, and finally, to enjoy the language of the Catholic Church.

Lesson One

In Lesson One, we concentrated on Latin pronunciation. Proper pronunciation is essential for making a language your own. Let us review the pronunciation of a few of our new words. (The syllable that receives the emphasis is capitalized.)

ecclesia	<i>eh-KLAY-see-ah</i>
cena	<i>CHAY-nah</i>
felix	<i>FAY-leeks</i>

Lesson Two

To understand a language one must be able to read and understand words written in that language. We learned that just like English, Latin has parts of speech, although Latin has eight and English nine. We decided to begin our study of Latin with nouns.

We learned that there are three main properties of Latin nouns: gender, number, and case. We spoke briefly of each. Of these properties, case is by far the most difficult. In all languages, words perform different roles or jobs

in the sentence. In Latin, case is the term we use to express this grammatical reality concerning the job or role that nouns and pronouns are fulfilling in a sentence.

Lesson Three

In this lesson, we continued with our study of the concept of case. We learned that there are four cases in English, while there are six in Latin. The reason for this difference is that Latin has more specific cases for unique kinds of objects, while English lumps all objects into one case.

Further, we learned about the very helpful symbolism of inflection in Latin, which is the system of varying word endings to express many different grammatical realities. Most parts of speech in Latin are inflected – not just nouns. But, since we are currently studying nouns, we want to understand especially that inflections in Latin nouns serve to express the difference in the three properties we identified earlier, namely, gender, number, and case. Thus, while case is a logical concept – something the mind grasps, but inflection is something the eye actually sees or the ear hears – specialized word endings to express grammatical realities.

We also learned that Latin groups its nouns into five groups called declensions. A declension is the particular system of case endings, both singular and plural, which are added to a noun with a particular stem. We learned that the stem of the noun represents the root meaning of the word, while the added inflection indicates gender, number, and case. Finally, we learned that to decline a noun means to give to a noun all its possible valid word endings.

Lesson Four

In this lesson, we learned about the first of the five declensions. The First Declension, we learned, has endings characterized by the letter *a*. Most of the nouns in this declension are feminine, and that the stem of any First Declension noun is the genitive form without the *ae*.

We memorized the (phonetic) chant for First Declension endings: “ah, ay, ay, ahm, ah; ay, ah-room, ees, ahss, ees”.

We recall that, whatever declension a noun is in, we can find its stem by looking at the genitive singular form and then removing the ending, which in the First Declension is *a* and in the Second Declension is *i*. It is onto this bare stem that we add all the inflections. For example: What is the stem of *aqua*, *aquae* (f.)? We remove the *-ae* from the genitive form *aquae* and this leave *aqu*. To get a different case, we just add the appropriate ending: *aqu-a*, *aqu-ae*, *aqu-ae*, and so on.

Lesson Five

In this lesson, we studied the nominative and accusative cases in Latin. We learned that a noun is considered to be in the nominative case whenever it serves as the subject of the sentence, or as a predicate nominative. When a noun is the direct object of the verb, that noun is considered to be in the accusative case.

Lesson Six

We moved on next to the Second Declension. This declension has many *o* and *u* endings and thus is known as the *o-base* declension. Almost all nouns in the Second Declension are either masculine or neuter. In this lesson however, we limited ourselves to masculine nouns.

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Overview of the Five Declensions

Nouns in Latin belong to one of five **declensions**, which are systems of different case-endings which also share many other characteristics. We will now review the five declensions, including their case-endings, genders, and other properties.

Vowel Bases

Each declension is assigned a **vowel** which occurs frequently within its forms:

Declension	Base
1 st	<i>a</i> -bases
2 nd	<i>o</i> -bases
3 rd	<i>i</i> -bases and super <i>i</i> -bases
4 th	<i>u</i> -bases
5 th	<i>e</i> -bases

Recognizing the Five Declensions

The declension to which a noun belongs can be determined by the **genitive singular form**:

Declension	Nominative Singular	Genitive Singular
1 st	-a	-ae
2 nd	-us/-r/-um	-i
3 rd	-	-is
4 th	-us	-us
5 th	-es	-ei

Genders in Each Declension

There are very useful patterns in the genders belonging to each declension:

Declension	Common Gender	Exceptions
1 st	Feminine	There are some <u>masculine</u> first declension nouns (these are usually professions like <i>poeta</i> , <i>nauta</i> , etc.).
2 nd	Masculine (-us/-r) Neuter (-um)	There are some <u>feminine</u> second declension nouns (these are usually trees, but these don't need to be learned right now).
3 rd	All genders	Reference the patterns given in the lessons on the third declension. There are numerous exceptions to these patterns.
4 th	Masculine	There are a few <u>feminine</u> and <u>neuter</u> fourth declension nouns. <i>Manus</i> and <i>domus</i> are <u>feminine</u> .
5 th	Feminine	Only <i>dies</i> and its various forms are <u>masculine</u> .

Case Endings

The following case-endings for each declension must be memorized:

		First	Second	Third (i-base)	Third (super i-base)	Fourth (M/F)	Fifth
<i>Singular</i>	Nom.	-a	-us/-r (M) -um (N)	-	-	-us	-ēs
	Gen.	-ae	-ī	-is	-is	-ūs	-ēi
	Dat.	-ae	-ō	-ī	-ī	-ūi	-ēi
	Acc.	-am	-um (M/N)	-em	-em	-um	-em
	Abl.	-ā	-ō	-e	-e (M/F) -ī (N)	-ū	-ē
<i>Plural</i>	Nom.	-ae	-ī (M) -a (N)	-ēs (M/F) -a (N)	-ēs (M/F) -ia (N)	-ūs	-ēs
	Gen.	-ārum	-ōrum	-um	-ium	-uum	-ērum
	Dat.	-īs	-īs	-ibus	-ibus	-ibus	-ēbus
	Acc.	-ās	-ōs (M) -a (N)	-ēs (M/F) -a (N)	-ēs (M/F) -ia (M/F)	-ūs	-ēs
	Abl.	-īs	-īs	-ibus	-ibus	-ibus	-ēbus

Master Vocabulary Review of the Lessons Covered So Far

The following is a list of all the vocabulary presented thus far:

First Declension Nouns

agricola, ae, m.	farmer	porta, ae, f.	gate
aqua, ae, f.	water	puella, ae, f.	girl
cena, ae, f.	dinner	rosa, ae, f.	rose
copia, ae, f.	abundance	silva, ae, f.	forest
ecclesia, ecclesiae, f.	church; assembly	stella, ae, f.	star
familia, ae, f.	family	terra, ae, f.	earth, land
filia, filiae, f.	daughter	villa, ae, m.	country house
nauta, ae, m.	sailor	vita, vitae, f.	life
poeta, ae, m.	poet		

Second Declension Nouns

amicus, i, m.	friend	liber, libri, m.	book
ager, agri, m.	field	ludus, i, m.	school; game
barbarus, i, m.	barbarian	magister, magistri, m.	teacher
bellum, belli, n.	war	officium, i, m.	service; office (duty)
campus, i, m.	field	populus, i, m.	people, populace

caelum, i, n. (plural: caeli, caelorum, m.)²³	the heavens (heaven)	principium, i, n.	beginning, principle
deus, i, m.	God	puer, pueri, m.	boy
dimidium, i, n.	half	servus, i, m.	servant, slave
dominus, i, m.	lord, master	studium, i, m.	exertion; devotion, study
equus, i, m.	horse	tectum, i, m.	roof; building
filius, i, m.	son	verbum, i, n.	word
gladius, i, m.	sword	vinum, i, n.	wine
imperium, imperii, n	authority, command, empire	vir, viri, m.	man
lectus, i, m.	bed, couch		

Third Declension Nouns (Masculine and Feminine)

aestas, aestatis, f.	summer	lex, legis, f.	law
canis, canis, m./f.	dog	libertas, libertatis, f.	liberty
caritas, caritatis, f.	love, charity	miles, militis, m.	soldier
civitas, civitatis, f.	state	mulier, mulieris, f.	woman
flos, floris, m.	flower	princeps, principis, m.	leader, chief, prince
hiems, hiemis, f.	winter	rex, regis, m.	king

Third Declension Nouns (Neuter)

corpus, corporis n.	body	pectus, pectoris n.	breast, chest, heart
caput, capitis n.	head	flumen, fluminis n.	river
opus, operis, n.	work; need	tempus, temporis n.	time
onus, oneris, n.	burden	genus, generis n.	family; race; genus

Third Declension Nouns (Super i-Bases)

animal, animalis, n.	animal, living thing	mare, maris, n.	sea
avis, avis, f.	bird	mors, mortis, f.	death
civis, civis, m./f.	citizen	nox, noctis, f.	night
collis, collis, m.	hill	pars, partis, f.	part
gens, gentis, f.	tribe, nation	sedes, sedis, f.	seat; residence
ignis, ignis, m.	fire	urbs, urbis, f.	city

Fourth Declension Nouns

casus, casus m.	fall, chance; case	metus, metus m.	fear
domus, domus f.	house, home	motus, motus m.	motion

²³ Note: *caelum* is an unusual word in that it is neuter in the singular but masculine in the plural: hence the plural nominative form is *caeli*. You can tell this if you have ever heard the phrase *ad caelos* (“to heaven”). As for the meaning: usually, *caelum* in the singular means “the heavens” (i.e., the skies), while *caeli* in the plural means “heaven” in a Christian sense (i.e., where God dwells).

fructus, fructus m.	fruit; enjoyment	portus, portus m.	port, harbor
impetus, impetus m.	attack	sensus, sensus m.	sense, feeling
lacus, lacus m.	lake	spiritus, spiritus m.	breath, spirit, ghost, life
manus, manus f.	hand; gang (of men)	vultus, vultus m.	face, countenance

Fifth Declension Nouns

acies, aciei, f.	edge, point; battle line (of an army)	species, ei, f.	appearance, shape, species
dies, diei, m.	day, daylight	spes, spei, f.	hope
fides, fidei, f.	faith, faithfulness	res, rei, f.	thing, affair, reality

Verbs

You will not study verbs until the Second Year of this series. But verbs, of course, are needed to form sentences, and so it is important you memorize the few forms we have given thus far.

amat	he, she, it loves	amant	they love
est	he, she, it is	sunt	they are
erat	he, she, it was	erant	they were
dat	he, she, it gives (does give)	dant	they give (do give)
facit	he, she, it makes	faciunt	they make
habet	he, she, it has (does have)	habent	they have (do have)
portat	he, she, it carries, bears	portant	they carry (do carry)
regit	he, she, it rules	regunt	they rule
relinquit	he, she, it leaves behind, abandons	relinquunt	they leave behind, abandon
videt	he, she, it sees (does see)	vident	they see (do see)

A Refresher on Pronunciation

Keep in mind that **reading aloud** is important for learning Latin. As a reminder, below is a word from each declension you've learned, in the nominative singular and the genitive plural, with a pronunciation guide (the **stressed** syllable is capitalized):

femina: *FEH-mee-nah*
 feminarum: *feh-mee-NAH-room*
 domus: *DOH-moos*
 domorum: *doh-MOH-room*
 civis: *CHEE-vees*
 civium: *CHEE-vee-oom*
 manus: *MAH-noos*
 manuum: *MAH-noo-oom*
 acies: *AH-chee-es*
 acierum: *ah-chee-EH-room*

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simply use the plural masculine: “The sailors are brave but we fight *them*.” → “Nautae fortes sunt sed *eos* pugnamus.”³³ We, of course, choose the accusative plural masculine pronoun since sailors are men.³⁴

But what about the case when the antecedent is of a mixed gender, such as a group of men and women, a group of boys and girls, a group of masculine-gendered objects and something else? The rules are these:

- If the group is of mixed gender, it is considered masculine. This is the case even with a group of 20 women and just one man: they should be referred to with the masculine gender.³⁵ Consider the sentence, “The Blessed Virgin Mary and St. Joseph could not find lodging in Bethlehem; nobody wanted *them* there.” Since the subject is both masculine and feminine, it becomes “Beata Virgo Maria et Sanctus Ioseph non potuerunt³⁶ invenire³⁷ diversorium³⁸ in Bethleem; nullus³⁹ enim voluit⁴⁰ *eos*.” (Notice: not *eas* or *ea*)
- If the group is mixed with masculine and neuter, again, the masculine pronoun should be used.
- If the group is mixed with feminine and neuter, the pronoun should be feminine.

Here is another way to see the rules, including those concerning living versus non-living things:

- Mixed gender groups of living things should be masculine.
- Mixed gender groups of non-living things should be neuter.
- Mixed gender groups of living and non-living things should be masculine or feminine (but sometime neuter).
- Two or more nouns modified by a single adjective should agree with the gender of the nouns themselves (applying the rules above), or will be the gender of the closest noun.

Examples to Study

Study the examples below. We have provided more than usual because of this lesson’s complicated subject matter, and we have given them in order of increasing difficulty.

Is est magister.
He is a teacher.

We will start very simply. The first thing to do is always to find the verb: *est*, “is.” Two things are being linked together, then, which must be *is* (“he” or “it”) and *magister* (“teacher”). They are both in the nominative case because of the linking verb, as was discussed above. Since we saying that something or someone is a teacher, it only makes sense that we choose the English “he” as the correct meaning of *is*. Instead of saying “It is a teacher,” we want to translate this as “**He** is a teacher.”

³³ **pugnamus**: “we fight”

³⁴ In spite of how the feminists would like the world to be.

³⁵ Concerning the the grammatical rules which give deference to men (the natural leaders, as per God’s plan), let the feminists rage. Their tantrums merely show their satanic-inspired hatred for God’s order, even though some of these historical grammatical rules may not even be related to Biblical history!

³⁶ **potuerunt**: they could

³⁷ **invenire**: (infinitive) find / to find

³⁸ **diversorium**: lodging / hotel / inn

³⁹ **nullus**: no man / nobody

⁴⁰ **voluit**: wanted

Is est flos.
It is a flower.

This is another simple example, but notice the difference in translation! This example is here to demonstrate the concepts discussed above about translating the 3rd person personal pronoun. We again have a simple case of two nouns or pronouns, *is* (“he” or “it”) and *flos* (“flower”) being linked together by the verb *est*, “is”. But, even though we translated *is* as “he” in the last example, that would be an incorrect choice here. The reason is that the antecedent of *is* in this example is *flos*, which explains why we must use the masculine singular form of the pronoun. However, in English, “flower” does not have a grammatical gender. Therefore, we will choose the English pronoun “it” to translate *is* in Latin: “It is a flower.” Notice, too, that the pronoun in this example is superfluous – you could understand the sentence without it. **Latin actually prefers to NOT use the nominative forms of the 3rd person personal pronoun**, but we included it here to demonstrate the translation of gender using this pronoun.

Pater et **ejus** filia equum vident.
The father and his daughter see the horse.

Now we move on to a slightly different type of sentence. Find the verb first: *vident*. We know this verb must have a plural subject (because we memorized its meaning as “they see”). Next, as always, we must find the subjects. These are *pater* (father) and *filia* (daughter), which are both in the nominative case. Now we identify the direct object, which is *equum* (horse).

Taking into account just these words, our sentence is “The father and daughter see the horse,” which admittedly sounds just fine. But there is some extra information in the Latin: the word *ejus* before *filia*. In this case, it is actually very important that the word *ejus* comes before *filia*. We know that the word *ejus* will translate to mean “his”, “her”, or “its”, which means that *ejus filia* will mean either “his daughter”, “her daughter” or “its daughter.” How do we decide? Identify the antecedent! In this case, there are only two options: *pater* (father) or *equum* (horse). Choosing father as the antecedent, we would translate the sentence as “The father and his daughter see the horse.” Choosing horse as the antecedent, we would translate it as “The father and its [the horse’s] daughter see the horse.” One of these, namely father, makes much, much more sense as the antecedent. In reading and translating Latin, we will very often say that you must taken into the context or look for **context clues**, and this is **exactly** what this means.

Equus patrem et **ejus** filiam portat.
The horse carries the father and his daughter.

This sentence involves the exact same nouns as the preceding example, but in different cases. Here, *equus* is the subject of the verb *portat* (“The horse carries...”), and the direct objects are *patrem* and *filiam* (...the father and daughter.) In this case, you must do the same investigation to uncover the antecedent of *ejus*, and you will find that it is once again the noun “father.” Thus, we have “The horse carries the father and **his** daughter.” This example is included for you to notice that, regardless of the case of *filia* between the two examples (one was nominative, and the other accusative), **the meaning of *ejus* did not change at all. 3rd person personal pronouns must always take their meaning in English from the antecedent.**

Eorum domum facit.
He makes their house.

This example presents an interesting situation. The verb is *facit*, but who or what is the subject? There isn’t any noun or pronoun in the nominative case, is there? There is only *domum* in the accusative, and *eorum* in the genitive. This is exactly the case you must make use of an **implied pronoun**. Because no subject has been given to us, we must choose one. If you have no context to decide, you can technically choose any pronoun, he, she, or it. However,

you should always default to the masculine “he” in these cases. You’ll then notice that *eorum* is missing an antecedent. Well, it shouldn’t be a surprise that the antecedent is implied. Here, though, it makes no difference: regardless of the gender, *eorum* will always translate to “their” in English. Certainly, the antecedent could be anything – a family, a group of students, someone’s pet dogs – **but you don’t need this information to translate the sentence properly.**

Rex habet milites, sed non dat **eis** gladios.
*The king has soldiers, but he does not give **them** swords.*

Here is much more complicated sentence. For this, you should break down the sentence into to parts: what comes before and after the comma, since these are both separate clauses. Then, follow the process you have been for all the other examples with **each part individually**: identify the verb, then the subject, and then direct objects and indirect objects. The verb in the second half (*dat*) takes its subject in the first half (*rex*). Once you begin finishing this process, you will come upon the word *eis* and will have to decide how to translate it. It is in the **dative case**, which for us means it will be the **indirect object** of the verb *dat*. Because of this, its meaning in English must be “to them,” regardless of who or what the antecedent is. But, we still must identify the antecedent for the sentence to actually make sense. This should be fairly straightforward, if you consider the context. The king has soldiers, and soldiers normally have swords or weapons. However, for whatever reason, but the king isn’t giving **them**, the soldiers, any swords. There’s nothing else in the sentence that could make sense as the antecedent of *eis*.

Fidem amant **eamque** non relinquunt.
They love the faith and do not abandon **it**.

Finally, we come to our most complicated sentences. Find the verb: *relinquunt* (they abandon), which needs a plural subject. Do we have any nominative plural nouns or pronouns? No. Therefore, the subject is implied, and we can default to “they.” Now, find the direct objects: *fidem* and *eam*. Remember that the “que” after *eam* is a conjunction meaning “and.” The pronoun itself shouldn’t be too difficult to deal with in this example, now that we’ve recognized it. The only thing that could reasonably be the antecedent in this example is *fidem*, since they are both feminine and singular, so this will be our choice. Since “faith” in English is genderless, we translate it using the neuter pronoun “it.”

Do exercises for Lesson 21

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ecclesia, ecclesiae, f.	church; assembly	stella, ae, f.	star
familia, ae, f.	family	terra, ae, f.	earth, land
filia, filiae, f.	daughter	villa, ae, m.	country house
nauta, ae, m.	sailor	vita, vitae, f.	life
poeta, ae, m.	poet		

Second Declension Nouns

amicus, i, m.	friend	liber, libri, m.	book
ager, agri, m.	field	ludus, i, m.	school; game
barbarus, i, m.	barbarian	magister, magistri, m.	teacher
bellum, belli, n.	war	officium, i, m.	service; office (duty)
campus, i, m.	field	populus, i, m.	people, populace
caelum, i, n. (plural: caeli, caelorum, m.)⁴³	the heavens (heaven)	principium, i, n.	beginning, principle
deus, i, m.	God	puer, pueri, m.	boy
dimidium, i, n.	half	servus, i, m.	servant, slave
dominus, i, m.	lord, master	studium, i, m.	exertion; devotion, study
equus, i, m.	horse	tectum, i, m.	roof; building
filius, i, m.	son	verbum, i, n.	word
gladius, i, m.	sword	vinum, i, n.	wine
imperium, imperii, n.	authority, command, empire	vir, viri, m.	man
lectus, i, m.	bed, couch		

Third Declension Nouns (Masculine and Feminine)

aestas, aestatis, f.	summer	lex, legis, f.	law
canis, canis, m./f.	dog	libertas, libertatis, f.	liberty
caritas, caritatis, f.	love, charity	miles, militis, m.	soldier
civitas, civitatis, f.	state	mulier, mulieris, f.	woman
flos, floris, m.	flower	princeps, principis, m.	leader, chief, prince
hiems, hiemis, f.	winter	rex, regis, m.	king

Third Declension Nouns (Neuter)

corpus, corporis n.	body	pectus, pectoris n.	breast, chest, heart
caput, capitis n.	head	flumen, fluminis n.	river

⁴³ Note: *caelum* is an unusual word in that it is neuter in the singular but masculine in the plural: hence the plural nominative form is *caeli*. You can tell this if you have ever heard the phrase *ad caelos* (“to heaven”). As for the meaning: usually, *caelum* in the singular means “the heavens” (i.e., the skies), while *caeli* in the plural means “heaven” in a Christian sense (i.e., where God dwells).

opus, operis, n.	work; need	tempus, temporis n.	time
onus, oneris, n.	burden	genus, generis n.	family; race; genus

Third Declension Nouns (Super i-Bases)

animal, animalis, n.	animal, living thing	mare, maris, n.	sea
avis, avis, f.	bird	mors, mortis, f.	death
civis, civis, m./f.	citizen	nox, noctis, f.	night
collis, collis, m.	hill	pars, partis, f.	part
gens, gentis, f.	tribe, nation	sedes, sedis, f.	seat; residence
ignis, ignis, m.	fire	urbs, urbis, f.	city

Fourth Declension Nouns

casus, casus m.	fall, chance; case	metus, metus m.	fear
domus, domus f.	house, home	motus, motus m.	motion
fructus, fructus m.	fruit; enjoyment	portus, portus m.	port, harbor
impetus, impetus m.	attack	sensus, sensus m.	sense, feeling
lacus, lacus m.	lake	spiritus, spiritus m.	breath, spirit, ghost, life
manus, manus f.	hand; gang (of men)	vultus, vultus m.	face, countenance

Fifth Declension Nouns

acies, aciei, f.	edge, point; battle line (of an army)	species, ei, f.	appearance, shape, species
dies, diei, m.	day, daylight	spes, spei, f.	hope
fides, fidei, f.	faith, faithfulness	res, rei, f.	thing, affair, reality

Verbs

amat	he, she, it loves	amant	they love
est	he, she, it is	sunt	they are
erat	he, she, it was	erant	they were
dat	he, she, it gives (does give)	dant	they give (do give)
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habet	he, she, it has (does have)	habent	they have (do have)
portat	he, she, it carries, bears	portant	they carry (do carry)
regit	he, she, it rules	regunt	they rule
relinquit	he, she, it leaves behind, abandons	relinquunt	they leave behind, abandon
videt	he, she, it sees (does see)	vident	they see (do see)

Congratulations on completing Nouns, Pronouns, and your review! Let's move on to Adjectives!

Do exercises for Lesson 23

Chapter Four: Adjectives

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Number	Case	Adjective: ulla, ulli	Modified noun: nox, nocti	English equivalent
Singular.				
	Nom.	ali-a	nox	“another night”
	Gen.	al(i)- ius ⁶⁴	noct- is	“of another night”
	Dat.	ali- i	noct- i	“to/for another night”
	Acc.	ali-am	noct-em	“another night”
	Abl.	ali-a	noct-e	“in/on another night”
Plural.				
	Nom.	ali-ae	noct-es	“other nights”
	Gen.	ali-arum	noct-ium	“of other nights”
	Dat.	ali-is	noct-ibus	“to/for other nights”
	Acc.	ali-as	noct-es	“other nights”
	Abl.	ali-is	noct-ibus	“in/on other nights”

Ea **toti** familiae cenam facit.
*She makes dinner **for** the **whole** family.*

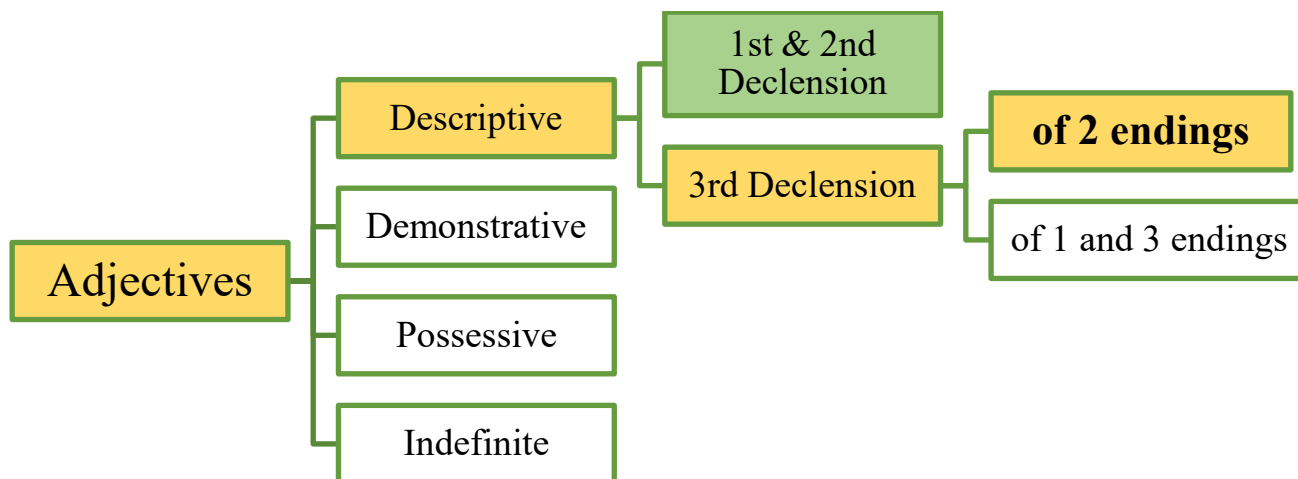
Servi **alii** familiae felices sunt.
*The servants of the **other** family are happy.*

Congratulations! You have now completed your study of all three subgroups of the Latin descriptive adjectives of the 1st and 2nd declension. Let us move on to the other major group of Latin descriptive adjectives – those of the 3rd declension.

Do exercises for Lesson 27

⁶⁴ The *i* of the stem drops out when the ending *ius* is added, giving us *alius* rather than *aliius*, which would be clumsy with two *i*'s.

Lesson 28 Introduction to Third Declension Adjectives; Third Declension Adjectives of Two Endings



VOCABULARY

Theme: *Human qualities*

dulcis, e	sweet { <i>dulcet</i> }
fidelis, e	faithful
fortis, e	strong, brave { <i>fortitude</i> }
gravis, e	heavy, severe, sad { <i>grave</i> }
humilis, e	humble
nobilis, e	noble, distinguished
omnis, e	all { <i>omnipotent</i> }

Reminder: The reasoning behind the names “1st –and-- 2nd” and “3rd” Declension Adjectives

Before we plunge into this new category of Latin descriptive adjectives, let us do a quick look back. We have now learned Latin adjectives of the 1st and 2nd declension. But again, what is the reasoning behind that name, “1st AND 2nd declension” adjectives? Recall the reasoning: All Latin adjectives need to agree with their nouns in **what**, **what**, and **what**?⁶⁵ Now, if a Latin adjective were limited to endings of the 1st declension (whose nouns are

⁶⁵ If these three things do not immediately come to mind, you are not ready for this lesson! Go back and review your previous lessons, especially the one on Introduction to Latin Adjectives.

feminine), how could it modify nouns which are masculine or neuter? Similarly, if a Latin adjective were limited to endings of the 2nd declension (whose nouns are masculine or neuter), how could it modify nouns which are feminine? Thus, the endings from both adjective groups had to be brought together, allowing “Adjectives of the 1st AND 2nd declension.”

Is there a similar need to join adjectives of the 3rd declension with some other declension, yielding names such as “Adjectives of the 3rd, 4th, and 5th declensions”? **Fortunately there is no need!** Since 3rd declension noun endings already include endings for all three genders, we simply have, “Latin Adjectives of the 3rd declension.”

That said, it turns out that there are **three different types** of adjectives in the 3rd (or i-base) declension, based on what is actually a rather trivial difference.

Third Declension Adjectives of One, Two, and Three Endings

The three types of 3rd Declension adjectives are differentiated by the **number of endings they possess in the nominative singular**.

How can they have different numbers of endings? They can have different numbers of endings because of how they are used with the three genders of nouns. That is, some adjectives use different endings for masculine, feminine, and neuter, and some do not. The three subtypes of 3rd Declension Adjectives are these:

Third Declension subgroup	Definition	Example Adjective
Adjectives of One Ending	Adjectives that use the same ending for all three genders in the nominative singular	<i>potens</i> powerful
Adjectives of Two Endings	Adjectives that use the same ending for two genders (masculine and feminine) but a different ending for the third (neuter) in the nominative singular	<i>gravis, e</i> heavy
Adjectives of Three Endings	Adjectives that use a different ending for each gender in the nominative singular	<i>acer, acris, acre</i> sharp

The second in the above list is an example of a common pattern in Latin: masculine and feminine are grouped together, with neuter being in a group by itself. In many areas of Latin, neuter nouns have special features that the other two genders do not share. For example, neuter nouns have the same ending for the nominative and accusative, while masculine and feminine nouns usually have different endings for these two cases.

Although the adjectives with just one ending are easiest, we shall begin our study with **Adjectives of Two Endings**, since they are the most common type of the three. In fact, the vocabulary list for this lesson are all adjectives of this type; re-read that list and you will see two types of endings for each. Let us begin our study!

Third Declension Adjectives of Two Endings

Memorize the declension below of our example adjective: *gravis, e*, meaning “heavy”. Remember, it is the endings for the **NOMINATIVE SINGULAR** that determine which subtype a third declension adjective belongs to:

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