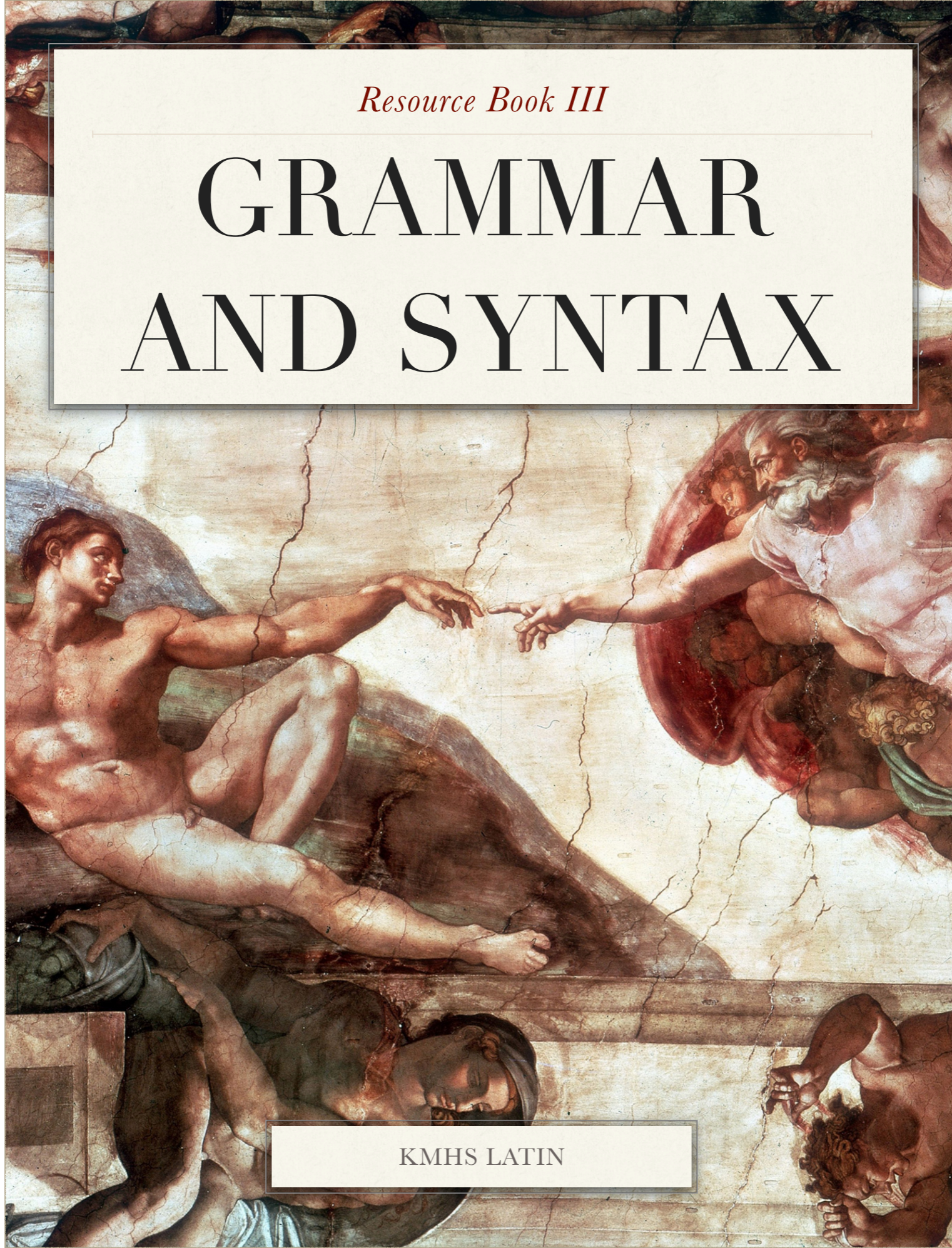# GRAMMAR AND SYNTAX

KMHS LATIN

THE NOMINATIVE CASE

—◆—

Subject Nominative

The nominative case is used for the subject of a sentence. The subject is the focus of the sentence. In most sentences, the subject is the person or thing doing the action of the verb. The subject is often, but not always, the first word in the sentence.

Examples:

Puellae pilam iaciunt.

The girls *throw the ball.*

Lupus in silvā cēlābat.

The wolf *was hiding in the woods.*

Raedārius raedam necessaryglegenter agit.

The coachman *drives the carriage carelessly.*

In the passive voice, the subject receives the action of the verb.

Example:

Pila ā puellīs iaciētur.

The ball *will be thrown by the girls.*

Not every sentence in Latin will have a stated subject. Since the person and number of the subject can be determined from the ending on the verb, a personal pronoun is not always necessary for the subject.

Examples:

Herī sub arbore legēbam.

*Yesterday **I** was reading under the tree.*

Crās ad Forum ambulābimus.

*Tomorrow **we** will walk to the Forum.*

Predicate Nominative

A predicate nominative is a word in a sentence that is linked to the subject. It can be a noun or an adjective. When it is an adjective, it is often referred to as a predicate adjective. These two words are always joined by a linking verb, most commonly the verb "to be."

Examples:

Puella est **Cornelia**.

*The girl is **Cornelia**.*

Cornelia est **laeta**.

*Cornelia is **happy**.*

Cicerō **ōrātor praeclārissimus** factus est.

*Cicero became **a most famous orator**.*

THE GENITIVE CASE

Genitive of Possession

The genitive of possession is the most common use of the genitive. It is used to show possession or ownership of someone or something. In English, possession is identified in the following two ways:

A word that comes after "of"

A word that contains " 's "   after it

In Latin the genitive case is used instead of either an apostrophe or a preposition, although either one of these is an acceptable translation for a genitive of possession. Usually the genitive of possession comes after the noun that it owns.

Examples

Marcus rotās **raedae** videt.

*Marcus sees the wheels **of the carriage.***

*Marcus sees the **carriage's** wheels.*

Servī clāmōrem **vīlicī** audiunt.

*The slaves hear the shout **of the overseer**.*

*The slaves fear the **overseer's** shout.*

Servus rāmīs **arborum** ascendit.

*The slave climbs the branches **of the trees**.*

*The slave climbs the **tree's** branches.*

Partitive Genitive

The word in the genitive case is used here to distinguish the whole of something in relation to a part that is being considered. When translated into English, the word "of" may be used or it may be implied.

Examples:

Servius aliquid **litterārum** legēbat.

*Servius was reading some **(of the) letters**.*

Lucius nihil **perīculī** conspicit.

*Lucius catches sight of no **danger** (nothing **of danger**).*

Princeps satis **mīlitum** nōn videt.

*The emperor did not see enough **(of the) soldiers**.*

Subjective and Objective Genitive

Both the subjective and objective genitives are used with a noun that implies an action of some time.

Subjective Genitive

When the noun in the genitive case can be seen to be the subject of the action implied in the noun, it is said to be a subjective genitive.

Examples:

Senātōrēs adventum **Tiberiī** vident.

*The senators see the arrival **of Tiberius.***

Cursus **lupōrum** Antoniam terret.

*The running **of the wolves** frightens Antonia.*

Orātor dē odiō **Caesaris** in Pompēium in Senātū dīcēbat.

*The orator was speaking of the hatred **of Caesar** against Pompey in the Senate.*

Objective Genitive

When the noun in the genitive case receives the action implied in a verbal noun, it is considered an objective genitive. Sometimes the English preposition "for" may be used in translation.

Examples:

Servī magnum amōrem **cibī** habent.

*The slaves have a great love **of food**.*

Mīlitēs fortēs metum **mortis** nōn habuērunt.

*The brave soldiers did not have a fear **of death**.*

Propter cupiditātem **aurī**, praedōnēs civēs arripiunt.

*Because of their greed **for gold**, the soldiers seize citizens.*

Genitive of Description

Also known as the genitive of characteristic, the genitive of description is a noun in the genitive case modified by an adjective that describes another noun.

Examples:

> Scīmus eum esse virum **magnae probitātis**.
>
> *We know that he is a man **of great honesty**.*

> Livia, fēmina **magnae sapientiae**, erat uxor Augustī.
>
> *Livia, a woman **of great wisdom,** was the wife of Augustus.*

> Puer fortis murum **decem pedum** ascednere potuit.
>
> *The brave boy was able to climb a wall **of ten feet**.*

THE DATIVE CASE

Dative Indirect Object

The person indirectly affected by the action of a verb of giving, showing, or telling is called the indirect object. It may be translated with the prepositions, "to" or "for."

Examples:

Māter pecūniam **mercātōrī** dāre nōn vult.

*The mother does not want to give money **to the merchant**.*

*The mother does not want to give **the merchant** money.*

Puella pictūram suō **frātrī** dēmonstrābit.

*The girl will show the picture **to her brother**.*

*The girl will show **her brother** the picture.*

Pater longam fābulam **līberīs** narrāvit.

*The father told a long story **to the children**.*

*The father told **the children** a long story.*

Dative of Reference

The person to whose advantage or disadvantage an action is performed is called the dative of reference. It may be translated with the preposition "for" or no preposition.

Examples:

Māter cibum **familiae** coquit.

*The mother is cooking dinner **for the family.***

*The mother is cooking **the family** dinner.*

Iānitor iānuam hospitibus aperuit.

*The doorkeeper opened the door for **the guests**.*

Ancilla villam **dominae** purgāvit.

*The slave woman cleaned the country house **for the mistress.***

Dative with Intransitive Verbs

Some particular verbs take a dative indirect object in Latin rather than an accusative direct object as they do in English. Many of these verbs take the dative because they are considered to affect the object only indirectly. Some examples are:

noceō, nocēre — *to harm, to be harmful to*

faveō, favēre — *to favor, to be favorable to*

confidō, confidere — *to trust, to give trust to*

While many of these verbs appear to be transitive in their English translation, to the Romans they were considered intransitive, and they must be treated as such. It is important to memorize the vocabulary entries for these verbs and pay attention to special notes, such as that they require a dative object.

Examples:

Dominus **scelestō vilicō** nōn confidit.

*The master does not trust **the wicked overseer**.*

Praedōnēs **bonīs civibus** saepe nocent.

*Robbers often hurt **good citizens**.*

Magister **miserō discipulō** nōn crēdidit.

*The teacher did not believe **the wretched pupil**.*

Dative with Impersonal Verbs

Certain impersonal verbs are followed by the dative of the person or persons involved.

Examples:

Nōn licet **līberīs** vigilāre ad mediam noctem.

*It is not be allowed **for the children** to stay awake until midnight.*

The children *may not stay awake until midnight.*

Necesse est **servīs** labōrāre in agrīs.

*It is necessary **for the slaves** to work in the fields.*

Dative of the Possessor

The dative case is used with the verb "to be" to show possession. The possessor is put into the dative and the thing possessed is the subject of the verb "sum" and so put into the nominative.

Example:

Canis magnus **parvō puerō** fuit.

The small boy *has a big dog.*

Mīrus liber **mercātōrī** est.

The merchant *has an amazing book.*

Molesta vox īrātae mātrī erat.

The angry mother *has an annoying voice.*

———— ◆ ————

Dative of Agent with the Passive Periphrastic

When using the passive periphrastic, the dative case is used for agency rather than the ablative. It is used for both people and things, and not preposition is required.

Examples:

Hoc **mihi** faciendum erat.

*This had to be done **by me**.*

__I__ had to do this.

Liber puerō legendus est.

*The book must be read **by the boy**.*

***The boy** has to read the book.*

Fābula mīlitī narranda est.

*The story must be told **by the soldier**.*

***The soldier** has to tell the story.*

THE ACCUSATIVE CASE

—◆—

Accusative Direct Object

The direct object of an active verb is the person or thing that receives the action of the verb.

Examples:

Puellae **pilam** iaciunt.

*The girls throw **the ball**.*

Insulam videō.

*I see **the island**.*

Quis **speculum** habet?

*Who has **the mirror**?*

———

Accusative Object of a Preposition

The accusative case is used after certain prepositions such as apud, per, ad, prope, trans, circum, etc. Many of these prepositions have to do with motion toward something or proximity.

Examples:

Trans **rīvum** natāmus.

*We swim across **the stream**.*

Mīlitās ad **pontem** current.

*The soldiers will run to **the bridge**.*

Omnēs prope **arborem** sedētis.

*You all sit near **the tree.***

Subject Accusative

In an indirect statement, the subject of the infinitive is always accusative. It is the object of the main verb of the sentence.

Examples:

Pater putāvit **fīlium** dormīre.

*The father thought that **the son** was sleeping.*

Patrēs semper crēdunt **suōs līberōs** dormīre.

*The parents always think that **their children** are sleeping.*

Puella dīcit **sē** librum lectūram esse.

*The girl says that **she** will read the book.*

Accusative of Motion Toward

The accusative case is used when the subject is approaching or moving toward someone or something. In many cases this requires the use of a preposition in Latin, but when the object of the English preposition is the name of a city, town, small island, or the Latin words domus or rus, the preposition is omitted, but the object is still in the accusative case.

Examples:

Puella **domum** ambulat.

*The girl walks **home**.*

Līberī ad **villam** currunt.

*The children run toward **the country house**.*

Canis in **piscīnam** salit.

*The dog jumps into **the fishpond**.*

Accusative of Duration of Time

The accusative case is used to show the length of time that an action takes. There is no preposition used with this accusative.

Examples:

Puerī **decem hōrās** dormient.

*The boys will sleep **for ten hours**.*

Tōtum diem per Forum amblāvī.

*I walked through the Forum **for the whole day**.*

Servus in agrīs **octō annōs** labōrābat.

*The slave was working in the fields **for eight years**.*

THE ABLATIVE CASE

———— ◆ ————

Ablative Object of a Preposition

The ablative is often used as the object of certain prepositions. Many of these prepositions have to do with motion away from or separation from something or location. It is important to always memorize which case follows a particular preposition.

Examples:

Pater ē **Cūriā** ambulat.

*Father walks out of **the Curia**.*

Ōrātor dē **lēgibus novīs** dīcēbat.

*The orator was speaking about **the new laws**.*

Līberī in **villā** manēre nolunt.

The children do not wish to remain in the villa.

———

Ablative of Manner

The ablative of manner shows the way in which an action is done. In some ways it is very similar to using an adverb. Sometimes this ablative will be introduced by the preposition cum, but not always. Often cum is used when the noun is modified by an adjective, and in these cases if often comes between the noun and adjective.

Examples:

Dominus servum **īrā** verberat.

*The master beats the slave **with anger**.*

Puella **magnō cum gaudiō** cantat.

*The girl sings **with great joy.***

Poēta **arte** scrībit.

*The poet writes **with skill**.*

Ablative of Instrument/Means

There are two different ways to use the ablative of instrument/means. With either an active or a passive verb it is shows the physical utensil used to complete the action of the verb. The ablative of instrument/means never uses a preposition.

Examples:

Mīles hostem **gladiō** necāvit.

*The soldier killed the enemy **with a sword**.*

Servus ignavus ā dominus **baculō** verberātus est.

*The lazy slave was beaten by the master **with a stick**.*

Cicerō Catilīnam **multīs ōrātiōnibus** damnāvit.

*Cicero condemned Catiline **with many speeche**s.*

The ablative of instrument/means can also be used with teh passive voice to show the physical object, emotion, or idea that does the action of a passive verb to the subject. Again, no preposition is used.

Examples:

Quod princeps **īrā** commovēbatur, omnēs hostēs necāvit.

*Because the emperor was being moved **by anger**, he killed all the enemies.*

Ille homō **lapide ingentī** oppressus est.

*That man was crushed **by a huge stone**.*

Senātor scelestus **cupiditāte** certē dēlēbitur.

*The wicked senator will certainly be destroyed **by greed.***

—❦—

Ablative of Time When

The ablative of time when shows when an action takes place. This use of the ablative does not include a preposition in Latin.

Examples:

Primā luce ad oppidum hostium discedēmus.

At dawn we will depart for the enemies' town.

Tertiō diē pater meus ab urbe redīvit.

On the third day my father returned from the city.

Familia in villā rūsticā **aestate** habitat.

The family lives in the villa in the summer.

There is a specific type of ablative of time when called the ablative of time within which. This gives a range of time during which the action may take place. Again, no Latin preposition is used.

Examples:

Paucīs hōrīs senātōrēs ē Cūriā exībunt.

Within a few hours the senators will exit from the Senate House.

Omnēs hostēs in hāc provinciā **tres annīs** vincentur.

All the enemies in this province with be conquered within three years.

Compluribus diēbus princeps epistulās ad amicōs suōs mittit.

Within a few days the emperor sends letters to his friends.

Ablative of Location

The ablative of location shows were the action of the verb takes place. It uses prepositions such as "in" or "sub." If the location is the name of a city, town, small island, or the words domus or rus, the locative case is used in place of the ablative of location.

Examples:

Amīcō meō in **Forō** herī occurrī.

*I met my friend yesterday in **the Forum**.*

Puellae sub **arbore** sedēre et legere amant.

*The girls love to sit and read under **the tree**.*

Multa vehicula in **Viā Appiā** vīdimus.

*We saw many vehicles on **the Appian Way**.*

Ablative of Place from Which

The ablative of place from which is used to show from where something is coming. Unless the place is the name of a city, town, small island, or the word domus or rus, a preposition is used. Common preposition used with this ablative are "a,ab," "ē, ex," and "de."

Examples:

Civēs ab **aedificiō ardente** currēbant.

*The citizens were running from **the burning building**.*

Multī incolae ē **provinciā** fugere volebant.

*Many inhabitants were wishing to flee from **the province**.*

Puer fortis dē **tectō** villae dēsiluit.

*The brave boy jumped down from **the roof** of the villa.*

Ablative of Price

The ablative of price shows how much something cost. It is used with verbs of buying, selling, or trading.

Examples:

Bovem meum **decem denariīs** vendidī.

*I sold my cow for **ten denarii (silver coins)***.

Puer duōs glirēs **quinque sesterstiīs** emet.

The boy will buy two dormice for five sesterces.

Ablative of Cause

The ablative of cause shows a reason why the action of the verb takes place. It does not use a preposition and does not include a verbal action.

Examples:

Īrā rēgis multī incolae ē prōvinciā fugere volēbant.

***Because of the wrath** of the king many inhabitants were wishing to flee from the province.*

Non licet līberīs forās īre **imbre**.

***Because of the rain** the children may not go outside.*

Cupiditāte suō ille homō dēlētus est.

***Because of his own greed** that man was destroyed.*

Ablative of Personal Agent

The ablative of personal agent is used with passive verbs to show the person who is responsible for doing the action of the verb to the subject. It is always used with the Latin preposition "a, ab" translated here as "by."

Examples:

Servī ignavī ā **vilicō dūrō** saepe verberābantur.

*The lazy slaves were often beaten by **the harsh overseeer**.*

Omnēs civēs ā **Caligulā** terrentur.

All the citizens are terrified by **Caligula**.

Ego ab **amīcō tuō** ē perīculō servātus sum.

*I was saved from danger by **your friend**.*

Ablative Absolute

An ablative absolute is a phrase, usually containing a participle, that is distinct from the rest of the sentence. In most examples it contains a noun and a participle and is set off from the rest of the sentence by commas. It can be used to show the circumstances under which the action of the main verb took place. Like all participial phrases, it may translated literally using an English participle or using a subordinate clause.

Examples:

Cicerone ē Forō discessūrō, omnēs cives clamābant.

With Cicero about to leave the Forum, *all the citizens were shouting.*

Because Cicero was about to leave the Forum, *all the citizens were shouting.*

Līberī, **mātre dormiente**, in culinā ludēbant.

The children, **with the mother sleeping,** *were playing in he kitchen.*

The children, **when the mother was sleeping**, *were playing in the kitchen.*

Hostibus necatīs, urbs est salva.

With the enemies having been killed, *the city is safe.*

Because the enemies have been killed, *the city is safe.*

Sometimes an ablative absolute is used without a participle, instead using two nouns or a noun and an adjective. In this case, the present participle of the verb to be, which does not exist in Latin, is implied, and should be used in translation. Often this is done as a way of setting up a historical context for the statement.

Example:

Cicerone consule, Catilina rem publicam dēlēre temptāvit.

***With Cicero as consul**, Catiline tried to destroy the republic.*

***When Cicero was consul**, Catiline tried to destroy the republic.*

THE VOCATIVE CASE

—◆—

The Vocative Case

The vocative case is used for the addressee, or the person to whom the statement or question is directed.

Examples:

Marce, cur librum tuum non legistī?

Marcus, why have you not read your book?

Sexte, statim ex arbore descende!

Sextus, come down from the tree immediately!

Tacēte, **ancillae**, quod dominus nunc dormit.

*Be quiet, **slave women**, because the master is now sleeping.*

THE LOCATIVE CASE

The Locative Case

The locative case is used with the names of cities, towns, small islands, and the words domus and rūs.

Singular Nouns - First and Second Declension

For place names that are singular and first or second declension, the locative case is identical to the genitive case.

Examples:

Rōma, Rōmae: Romae, *at Rome, in Rome*

Delos, Delī: Delī, *at Delos, on Delos*

domus, domī: domī, *at home*

Ephesus, Ephesī: Ephesī, *at Ephesus*

Singular Nouns - Third Declenion

The locative case of third declension nouns is identical to either the dative or ablative case.

Examples:

rūs, rūris: rurī, *in the countryside*

Carthāgō, Carthġinis: Carthāginī, *at Carthage*

-or-

Carthāgine, *at Carthage*

Plural Nouns

The locative case for plural nouns is identical to the ablative plural.

Examples:

Athēnae, Athēnārum: Athēnīs, *at Athens*

Philippī, Philippōrum: Philippīs, *at Philippi*

Motion Toward and Away From

It is important to remember that those same nouns that take the locative case (cities, towns, small island, domus, and rus) are also the place names that do not use prepositions for the accusative of motion toward and ablative of motion away from.

Examples:

Mīlitēs **Rōmam** veniēbant.

*The soldiers were coming **to Rome**.*

Rusticī **rūre** discēdent.

*The peasants will leave **the countryside**.*

Līberī **domum** currunt.

*The children run **home**.*

INDIRECT STATEMENT

Indirect Statements

An indirect statement is a noun clause that reports the statement of another speaker. The original statement becomes the direct object of a verb of saying, feeling, perceiving, seeing, or thinking, i.e. a "head" verb.

There are four elements to an indirect statement:

1.   the main subject (in the nominative case)

2.   the main verb (head verb)

3.   the subject of the indirect statement in the accusative case, called a subject accusative

4.   the verb of the indirect statement, for which an infinitive is used

Example:

> Ego putō Vergilium esse poētam optimum.
>
> I think that Vergil is the best poet.

1. Ego = main subject

2. putō = head verb

3. Vergilium = subject accusative

4. esse = infinitive

The tense of the infinitive form depends on that of the main verb and the relationship between two actions. The three tenses of the infinitive are used to show actions that have taken place before, after or at the same time as the main or head verb.

> present infinitive = simultaneous to head verb
>
> perfect infinitive = happened prior to head verb
>
> future infinitive = will happen subsequent to head verb

Examples:

With Present or Future Head Verb

Puella dīcit puerum librum legere.

The girl says that the boy is reading the book.

Puella dīcit puerum librum lēgisse.

The girl says that the boy read the book.

Puella dīcit puerum librum lectūram esse.

The girl says that the boy will read the book.

With Past Head Verb

Puella dīxit puerum librum legere.

The girl said that the boy read the book.

Puella dīxit puerum librum lēgisse.

The girl said that the boy had read the book.

Puella dīxit puerum librum lectūram esse.

The girl said that the boy would read the book.

Indirect Statements Using Reflexive Pronouns

When the subject of the head verb and the subject accusative are the same person, a reflexive pronoun is used.

Examples:

Puella dīcit sē librum legere.

The girl says that she herself is reading the book.

Puella dīcit eam librum legere.

The girl says that she (another girl) is reading the book.

THE PERIPHRASTIC

———— ◆ ————

The Active Periphrastic

The active periphrastic is a combination of the future active participle and a form of sum. In the indicative it can show an action that is expected to happen in the immediate future, or that is on the verge of happening. In the subjunctive it can be used in a subordinate clause to emphasize the future nature of a subjunctive verb in the sequence of tenses.

Examples:

Quod lapidēs **casurī sunt**, hominēs hūc illūc currunt.

*Because the stones **are about to fall**, the people are running this way and that.*

Civēs nesciunt quid Caligula factūrus sit.

*The citizens do not know what Calilgula **is about to do**.*

*The citizens do not know what Caligula **will do**.*

Nos metuēbamus ne Caligula nōs necātūrus esset.

*We were afraid that Caligula **was about to kill** us.*

*We were afraid that Caligula **would kill** us.*

The Passive Periphrastic

In Latin necessity or obligation is expressed in the passive voice using the passive periphrastic. The passive periphrastic is created using the gerundive, or future passive participle. There is no literal English equivalent for the gerundive, and as such it is usually translated with a non-literal translation.

The Passive Periphrastic is usually translated with the helping verbs "must, has to, should, needs to."It is composed of the gerundive and the appropriate form of "sum."

Examples:

Carthāgo **dēlenda est.**

*Carthage **must be destroyed**.*

Ianua **claudenda erat** nocte.

*The door **should have been closed** at night.*

Gladius mīlitis **stringendus est.**

*The soldier's sword **has to be drawn**.*

The agent or doer of the passive periphrastic is expressed using the dative case rather than the ablative. No preposition is used.

Examples:

Lupus **puellae fortī** repellendus est.

*The wolf must be driven off **by the brave girl**.*

Rōma **mīlitibus optimīs** dēfendenda erat.

*Rome should have been defended **by the best soldier**s.*

The passive periphrastic may be translated into English using the passive voice, but it may also be translated more comfortably using the active voice.

Examples:

Lupus puellae fortī **repellendus est**.

*The brave girl **had to drive off** the wolf.*

Rōma mīlitibus optimīs **dēfendenda erat**.

*The best soldiers **should have defended** Rome.*

USES OF THE SUBJUNCTIVE

Indirect Question

When a question is incorporated into another statement it becomes a subordinate clause called an indirect question, and the subjunctive mood is used for all the verbs within it. It can be distinguished from an indirect statement because it uses a subordinate verb rather than an infinitive and because it begins with a question word of some sort (who, what, where, when, why, how).

Although the subjunctive is used here, the verbs in an indirect question are usually translated as though they were indicative.

Examples:

Cornelius puellās rogabat cūr lacrimārent.

Cornelius was asking the girls why they were crying.

Davus scīre poscēbat ubi īrent.

Davus was demanding to know where they were going.

Aurelia nescit unde ambulemus.

Aurelia does not know from where we are walking.

Dominus scit quōmodo servī fugere temptātūrī sint.

The master knows how the slaves will try to flee.

Cum Clause

The Latin word cum can be used as a preposition or as a conjunction. When it is used as a conjunction, it has a variety of meanings. Depending on the meaning, the verbs in the subordinate clause may be in either the indicative or subjunctive moods.

CUM CLAUSES USING THE INDICATIVE

Temporal Clauses

Here the conjunction cum is translated into English meaning when, but indicates a precise moment in time when the main clause takes place.

Examples:

Cum Caesare in Cūriam intrāvit, ā Brutō percussus est.

When Caesar entered the Senate House, he was struck by Brutus.

Lacrimāvī cum illum spectāculum miserum vīdī.

I cried when I saw that wretched sight.

CUM CLAUSES USING THE SUBJUNCTIVE

Causal Clauses

Here the conjunction cum is translated into English meaning since or because. A cum causal clause provides a reason for the action that occurs in the main clause.

Examples:

Gaius, cum celerrimē currerent, iam defessus est.

Gaius, since he was running very quickly, is now tired.

Iulia, cum lupum timēret, ē silvā cucurrit.

Julia, because she was fearing the wolf, ran out of the woods.

Servī, cum cessārent, timābant īram dominī.

The slaves, since they were doing nothing, were fearing the anger of master.

Circumstantial Clauses

Here the conjunction cum is translated into English meaning when. A cum circumstantial clause describes the conditions that precede or accompany the main clause, but not the specific time when the action took place.

Examples:

Cum vīlicus per viam curreret, servī strenuē laborāvērunt.

When Davus was running through the road, the slaves worked strenuously.

Cum servī laborārent, dominus laetus erat.

When the slaves were working, the master was happy.

Cum puellae in villam ambulārent, māter īrata erat.

When the girls were walking into the country house, the mother was angry.

Concessive Clauses

Here the conjunction cum is translated into English meaning although. A cum concessive clause shows an action that is contrary to the expectation of the main clause.

Examples:

Aurelius, cum mīles fortis esset, in proeliō necātus est.

Aurelia, although he was a brave soldier, was killed in battle.

Cum Caesar esset similis rēgī, multī cīvēs eum amābant.

Although Caesar was similar to a king, many citizens loved him.

Augustus Horātium nōn occidit cum ille prō Brutō pugnāvisset.

Augustus did not kill Horace although that man had fought on behalf of Brutus.

Result Clause

A result clause is a subordinate clause that shows the result, either actual or likely, of a main clause. The subjunctive is used for verbs in the subordinate clause, and result clauses follow the rules of sequence of tenses. The result clause is introduced by the conjunction ut. Often there is also a "trigger" word in the main clause that indicates the need for a result clause. Some possible "trigger" words include:

adeo, *to such an extent, in such a way*

ita, *thus, in such a way*

sīc, *thus, in such a way*

talis, -is, -e, *such*

tam, *so*

tantum, (adv.), *so much*

tantus, -a, -um, *such a great*

tot, *so many*

Examples:

Mīlitēs sunt tam fortēs **ut urbem servāret**.
*The soldiers are so brave **(with the result) that they save the city**.*

Flavia virum suum ita vocāvit **ut ille fiēret īratus**.
*Flavia called her husband in such a way **that he became angry**.*

Aedificium est tam altum **ut sōl vidēre nōn possit**.
*The building is so tall **that the sun is not able to be seen**.*

Indirect Command

Like indirect statements and indirect questions, and indirect command is a command or request that is reported within another sentence. In this particular subordinate clause, the subject of the main clause tells the direct object of the main verb to do (or not to do) something. A positive command begins with ut; a negative command begins with ne. The main verb will always be a very of asking, begging, persuading, or urging. Note that while in Latin a subjunctive verb is used with a subordinate clause, in English an indirect command is usually translated using an infinitive phrase.

Examples:

Domina imperāvit servīs **ut strenuē laborārent.**

*The mistress ordered the slaves **to work hard**.*

Magistrī discipūlōs monuērunt **ne loquerentur.**

*The teachers warned the students **not to talk**.*

Dum servī sub arbore sē celant, aliī aliīs praecipiunt **ne audiantur.**

*While the slaves are hiding under a tree, some order the others **not to be heard**.*

Note that the Latin verb iubeō, iubēre does not introduce an indirect statement. This verb behaves more like English and is followed by an infinitive.

Example:

Māter līberōs cubicula sua purgāre iussit.

Mother ordered the children to clean their rooms.

Purpose Clause

A purpose clause is a subordinate clause that shows the intent of the subject of the main clause. The subjunctive is used in the subordinate clause, and it follows the rules of sequence of tenses. A positive purpose clause begins with the conjunction "ut" and a negative purpose clause begins with the conjunction "ne." There are several ways to translate a purpose clause correctly.

Examples:

Magistram audīmus **ut discāmus**.

*We listen to the teacher **so that we might learn**.*

*We listen to the teacher **(in order) to learn**.*

Ad tabernam ambulābam **ut cibum emerem**.

*I was walking toward the shop **so that I might buy food.***

*I was walking toward the shop **(in order) to buy food.***

Quiētā voce dixit **ne puellās terrēret**.

*He spoke in a quiet voce **so that he would not scare the girls**.*

*He spoke in a quiet voce **in order not to scare the girls.***

*He spoke in a quiet voice **lest he scare the girls.***

Fearing Clause

A subordinate clause which shows what the subject of the main clause fears is called a fearing clause. The subordinate clause uses a subjunctive verb and follows the rules of sequence of tenses. As with many other subordinate clauses, a fearing clause is introduced with either "ut" or "ne." In this particular type of clause, "ne" introduces a positive clause, and "ut" introduces a negative one.

Examples:

Timeō **ut soleās inveniam.**

*I fear **that I may not find my sandals**.*

(The subject here in fact wishes to find the sandals)

Marcus timet **ut Tullia ad villam redeat**.

*Marcus fears **that Tullia may not return to the country house.***

Iulia metuit **ne ancilla ferculum frangat**.

*Julia is afraid t**hat the slave woman will break the dish**.*

*Julia is afraid **that the slave woman may break the dish.***

*Julia is afraid **lest the slave woman break the dish**.*

(The subject here does not want the dish to be broken)

Ut With The Indicative

While the conjunction "ut" often introduces a subordinate clause using a subjunctive verb, in some instances "ut" may introduce a subordinate clause that uses the indicative mood.

Temporal clause

Here "ut" is translated as "as" or "when," indicating the time when the main clause takes place.

Examples:

Vēnī in hortum **ut mea mater discēdēbat**.

*I came into the garden **as my mother was leaving**.*

*I came into the garden **when my mother was leaving**.*

Īvimus ad urbem **ut senātorēs redībant**.

*We went to the city **as the senators were returning**.*

Clausit fenestram **ut pluēbat**.

*He closed the window **as it began to rain***

Causal clause

This type of clause shows a reason why the main action is taking place. I can also be translated with "as" or also "since."

Examples:

Ut nōn agnōvī viātōrem, nōn aperuī ianuam.

As I didn't recognize the traveler, *I didn't open the door.*

Ut nōluit esse molestus, temptāvit adiuvāre.

Since he didn't want to be troublesome, *he tried to help.*

Ut nōn habuit multum pecūniae, ēmit nihil.

As he didn't have much money, *he bought nothing.*

—◆—

Hortatory/Jussive Subjunctives

The present subjunctive is used in the first person plural to express the idea of "let's" in English. It may used to give a command, suggestion, or exhortation.

Examples:

Ōrēmus!   Ōrētis saepe.

Let us pray!   *Pray often.*

Eāmus ad urbem.   Eant ad urbem.

Let's go to the city.   *They should go to the city.*

Audiāmus fābulam.   Omnēs audient fābulam.

Let's listen to the story.   *Let everyone listen to he story.*

Relative Clauses of Characteristic

This type of clause with the subordinate verb in the subjunctive supplies information about what sort of person or thing is indicated by an indefinite antecedent. A regular relative clause describes a specific person or thing and uses an indicative verb, while a relative clause of characteristic describes the general type or sort of person or thing and uses a subjunctive verb.

Examples:

Caupō nōn est **quī illud fēcerit**.

The innkeeper is not one (the kind of person) **who would have done this.**

Nōn laudāmus virum **quī hostēs adiuvet**.

We do not praise a (the sort of) man **who helps the enemy.**

When the main clause implies negation, "quin" introduces the relative clause.

Example:

Nēmō est **quin prō familiā custōdiat**.

There is no one **who would not guard his family.**