## LINGVA LATINA

A Companion to
Familia Romana

SECOND EDITION
Based on Hans Ørberg's Latine Disco, with Vocabulary and Grammar

Jeanne Marie Neumann

## LINGVA LATINA

# A Companion to 

## Familia Romana

Second Edition
Based on Hans Ørberg's Latine Disco, with Vocabulary and Grammar

## LINGVA LATINA

# A Companion to 

# Familia Romana 

## Second Edition

based on Hans Ørberg's Latine Disco, with Vocabulary and Grammar

Jeanne Marie Neumann<br>Davidson College

## Dedication

Jon et Conor, filiis iucundissimis medullitusque amatis.

## A Focus book

## focus an imprint of <br> Hackett Publishing Company

Copyright © 2016 by Hackett Publishing Company, Inc.
All rights reserved
Printed in the United States of America

## 19181716 <br> 1234567

For further information, please address
Hackett Publishing Company, Inc.
P.O. Box 44937

Indianapolis, Indiana 46244-0937
www.hackettpublishing.com
Cover design by Brian Rak
Interior design by Elizabeth L. Wilson
Composition by Integrated Composition Systems, Inc.
Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data
Names: Neumann, Jeanne Marie, author. | Oerberg, Hans H. (Hans Henning), 1920-2010. Latine disco. | Oerberg, Hans H. (Hans Henning), 1920-2010.
Lingua Latina per se illustrata. Pars I, Familia Romana.
Title: Lingua latina : a companion to Familia romana : based on Hans Oerberg's
Latine disco, with vocabulary and grammar / Jeanne Marie Neumann.
Description: Second edition. | Indianapolis ; Cambridge : Hackett Publishing
Company, Inc., 2016. |"A Focus book."
Identifiers: LCCN 2016002499 | ISBN 9781585108091 (pbk.)
Subjects: LCSH: Latin language-Grammar. | Latin language-Textbooks.
Classification: LCC PA2087.5 .N48 2016 | DDC 478.2421-dc23
LC record available at http://lccn.loc.gov/2016002499
Adobe PDF ebook ISBN: 978-1-58510-832-9

## Contents

Preface ..... vii
For the Instructor ..... xi
Familia Romana: Suggestions for the Classroom ..... xi
Lingua Latina as a Two-Semester Course ..... xi
To the Student ..... xv
I. Imperium Rōmānum ..... 1
II. Familia Rōmāna ..... 9
III. Puer Improbus ..... 18
IV. Dominus et Servī ..... 27
V. Villa et Hortus ..... 35
VI. Via Latīna ..... 42
VII. Puella et Rosa ..... 50
VIII. Taberna Rōmāna ..... 58
IX. Pāstor et Ovēs ..... 69
X. Bēstiae et Hominēs ..... 78
XI. Corpus Hūmānum ..... 89
XII. Mīles Rōmānus ..... 96
XIII. Annus et Mēnsēs ..... 108
XIV. Novus Diēs ..... 120
XV. Magister et Discipulī ..... 128
XVI. Tempestās ..... 138
XVII. Numerī Difficiles ..... 147
XVIII. Litterae Latīnae ..... 155
XIX. Marītus et Uxor ..... 165
XX. Parentēs ..... 175
XXI. Pugna Discipulōrum ..... 183
XXII. Cave Canem ..... 195
XXIII. Epistula Magistrī ..... 206
XXIV. Puer Aegrōtus ..... 217
XXV. Thēseus et Mīnōtaurus ..... 227
XXVI. Daedalus et Icarus ..... 237
XXVII. Rēs Rūsticae ..... 246
XXVIII. Pericula Maris ..... 258
XXIX. Nāvigāre Necesse Est ..... 268
XXX. Convīvium ..... 279
XXXI. Inter Pōcula ..... 288
XXXII. Classis Rōmāna ..... 296
XXXIII. Exercitus Rōmānus ..... 307
XXXIV. De Arte Poēticā ..... 320
XXXV. Ars Grammatica ..... 330
Grammatica Latina ..... 333
Vocabulary by Chapter ..... 369
Latin-English Vocabulary ..... 383
Grammatical Terms ..... 398
Index ..... 400

## Preface

Ørberg's Lingua Latina Per Se Illustrata series, conceived as a completely acquisition-based approach to learning Latin, offers an unparalleled resource for Latin learning, enabling the motivated student to acquire skill in reading Latin by reading Latin. Lingua Latina guides readers through an expanding world of Latin syntax while they enjoy a delightful story of a Roman family of the early imperial period. The reading mirrors "real" Latin in the way it unfolds the periodic structure and idiomatic features of the language, introducing early critical features: students meet the relative pronoun in Cap. 3, the passive voice in Cap. 6; by the time they get the full verbal paradigm of the present tense in Caps. 15-17, they have mastered the concept and workings of active and passive voice. Length of readings, number of vocabulary words and complexity of sentence structure increase as the chapters build on each other, all in support of a narrative that engages students from middle school through college (and beyond).

Lingua Latina Per Se Illustrata offers a smooth and efficient path to acquisition of the language and immerses the student from the first in a true experience of Latin. Instead of reading discrete, even random, sentences chosen to illustrate the grammatical principles under consideration, Lingua Latina offers considerable practice in both grammar and a rich vocabulary in an engaging context of well-written Latin. The impetus of this book, therefore, arose not from any flaw in Ørberg's method, but rather from the differing needs of students and classrooms.

Different students learn differently; learning environments also differ: Alii aliis viis Romam perveniunt. At my own institution, students signing up for Latin commit to a two-term introductory experience, followed by a term of reading ancient texts. Reading Familia Romana in a two-semester course in introductory Latin, meeting three times a week for two 13- or 14-week semesters, becomes a Herculean task. Lingua Latina, however, and its results proved too good to abandon. There seems to me no better guide than Lingua Latina for students who want to learn Latin through Latin. Students clamored for us to keep the text, but make it suit their needs. We use the Companion to strike a balance between a purely inductive method and the study of gram-
matical rules and paradigms. But it can also serve as an ancillary guide for the natural (inductive) method of language acquisition. Lingua Latina can be used to teach students Latin as early as age eight, yet the story engages adult readers as well. Although introductory language courses at the college level do not always have the same luxury of gradual acquisition, the Ørberg text can be highly effective for university students. This book, therefore, is designed for different audiences: university students, instructors of home-scholars, and independent learners whose learning style appreciates such a guide: it is for all students of Ørberg's Lingua Latina Per Se Illustrata (LLPSI) who want a touchstone to assess their understanding of the text and the language.

Home-schooling parents and instructors of students learning outside of the traditional classroom, especially those with little or no Latin training, can use this book as a companion to Lingua Latina for their own preparation. The instructor will be the best judge of where and when it is a useful guide. For the most part, students should gradually learn the whole of Latin grammar by working out grammatical rules from their own observation as they begin to read actual Latin in the text, while their instructors can feel more confident in their grasp of the material and can use the added examples from Familia Romana to review and reinforce concepts or answer questions their charges present. The goal is to confirm the Latin and the structures that are learned in the inductive method, facilitating the process of language acquisition.

As is clear from the very useful listserve for LLPSI (https://groups.google .com/forum/\#!forum/llpsi), instructors at elementary and high schools lead their charges through the text at the pace appropriate to their students and the learning environment. Explanations of morphology and syntax appear according to their introduction in the course of the chapter: Section I, II, or III, making the Companion practical regardless of the pace of an individual course.

How does this book fit into the Lingua Latīna series? What does it replace? This book replaces the Latine Disco, the Grammatica Latina, and the Latin-English Vocabulary. It does not replace the Exercitia.

What are the primary features of this book? The book provides a running grammatical commentary on the narrative of Lingua Latina. It differs from the Latine Disco in scope and aim. Latine Disco provides clear and concise information that students need in order to acquire an understanding of Latin at their own pace. This book builds from Ørberg's original Latine Disco; the presentation and formatting have been altered and more explication and examples are offered. To the degree possible, the commentary corresponds to the reading sections within each chapter, enabling students to view just the grammar for each section. Important and challenging structures are illustrated with several examples from the story. As the grammatical concepts build, they are collected and reviewed in periodic recensiones, facilitating an overview of the language and enabling students to know where to look for the places in
the story where, e.g., they learned about accusative and infinitive construction. Beginning with Res Grammaticae Novae, a synopsis, in categories, of the material covered in the chapter, further facilitates an overview. The end of each chapter presents vocabulary divided by parts of speech; a full vocabulary can be found at the back of the book. In addition, vocabulary review is enhanced by an appendix listing the vocabulary according to chapter but without meanings; students can quiz themselves on their grasp of vocabulary outside the context of the story. Since Ørberg's own mastery of the language shows through in his ability to write lucid, idiomatic Latin, student attention, where appropriate, is directed to points of style that highlight the way the language works syntactically or idiomatically. Finally, this edition includes a grammatical index.

## Changes to the Second Edition

In addition to some revisions to the text, this edition includes a section on cultural context tied to the narrative content of the chapter.

Jeanne M. Neumann
Davidson College

## Acknowledgments

Editio Princeps:
Amicis qui me librum hunc scribentem adiuverunt maximas gratias et ago et habeo, praecipue Jarrett Welsh, Keyne Cheshire, Megan Drinkwater, Michael Johnson, Kevin Muse, Gina Soter. Discipulis apud Collegium Davidsoniense linguam Latinam discentibus gratias quoque ago, praecipue William E. Begley et India Watkins. Nam illi et menda typographica notaverunt et consilium quo liber melior et clarior fieret praebuerunt.

Editio Altera:
In hac editione paranda multi et collegae et discipuli mihi adiumento erant. Multum Jarret Welsh, Keyne Cheshire, William Begley, India Watkins, Darian Totten debeo. Patrick Owen menda typographica benigne notavit et locos minus perspicuos monstravit.

## For the Instructor

Teaching Latin via the method Winston Churchill was subjected to (My Early Life: 1874-1904, p. 10-11) is pretty easy. Take this paradigm. Memorize it. Spit it back. Repeat. Teaching via LLPSI offers more of a challenge and infinitely more rewards for the instructor and (more importantly) for the students. The instructor's approach to LLPSI will vary according to the age of the students and, critically, the amount of time that one can devote to the project. At the college level (for the approach at Davidson, see below), the pace is brisk, the course an invigorating challenge. But Familia Romana does not have to be digested in a two-term course and taking more time allows the instructor to engage in more activities with the text.

No matter the time frame, the active use of Latin with students lies at the foundation of the successful implementation of LLPSI. Using Latin actively in the classroom can be a challenging experience for those of us who have learned Latin as a passive language. Before guiding others through the text, the instructor can learn a great deal about talking about Latin in Latin by becoming familiar with the Grammatica Latina sections at the end of each chapter and by studying the selections from Dōnātus's Ars Minor in the final chapter of Familia Romana.

## Familia Romana: Suggestions for the Classroom

1. Read Latin aloud.
2. Use questions (in Latin, in English) to determine if students are understanding the text.
3. Encourage students to respond in Latin to questions: Pensum C.

## Lingua Latina as a Two-Semester Course

What follows is a brief explanation of how we have adapted Familia Romana to our introductory sequence at Davidson College. The constraints of two semesters propel the course forward quickly, with usually two class days devoted to each chapter. This pace makes "catch-up" cramming difficult, if not impos-
sible. Therefore, the relative weight of each facet of evaluation reflects the philosophy of the course:

## DAILY USE OF A LANGUAGE IS THE ONLY WAY TO MASTERY.

Daily work carries the greatest weight in the course (i.e., quizzes, homework, tests, and class preparation and participation), while the final exam accounts for a much smaller portion of the grade. Students should expect to spend one hour each day working on Latin skills: that means seven hours a week of work outside of class. We encourage students to break up this work into small, frequent encounters with the Latin throughout their day: 20 minutes three times a day is far more effective than an hour once a day.

The pace of the course and presentation of the material both complicate and energize the instructor's presentation. The text can be used as a basis for asking questions in Latin. When students answer in Latin, they strengthen their grasp of the vocabulary and the syntax, and their ability to stay in the target language. Longer, more difficult sentences can be paraphrased in Latin to facilitate understanding or broken down into smaller components. While the bulk of our classes are conducted in English, moving back and forth frequently between the two languages will help the students' Latin get strong enough to read the ever lengthening stories and ever more complex sentences.

There follow two different sets of instructions for a course that aims to read Familia Romana in two terms of three meetings a week. These are offered as examples of the approaches of two instructors at Davidson and represent the general guidelines offered to students. The approaches are quite different: the first has the students read the chapter before any instruction, either verbal or from the Companion, while the second introduces all major grammatical concepts before the students read the text.

There are many roads to Rome and other ways of using the Companion as a pedagogical aid. We offer our experience as examples. The Lingua Latina pages at Hackett Publishing provide a wealth of further materials, including flash cards and audio files. Instructors will find a large circle of support and ideas at the Google Groups (https://groups.google.com/forum/\#!forum/llpsi).

## One Approach

Assignment for Day One (the first of two class days spent on a given chapter):

- Study the marginalia in Familia Romana (marginalia: the material written in the margins of the Lingua Latina text).
- Read the entire chapter in Latin; each chapter is divided into three sections, marked by Roman numerals in the inside margins of the text. In Cap. II, for example, Section II begins with the words, "Estne Medus filius Iulii?" (p. 14). Each new section practices a different grammatical principle.
- Try not to translate each sentence into English but to understand the sentences in Latin (a challenge which grows easier with time). If you find a sentence hard, re-read it. Mark it with a pencil check mark in the margin and return to it after reading the whole assignment (and after you have had a break).
- Study the Grammatica Latina at the end of each chapter in Familia Romana. Pay attention to the phrasing of the grammatical explanations: this section of the book will teach you how to talk about Latin grammar in Latin.
- Only then, after reading the chapter, the marginalia, and the Grammatica Latina, review the pages in the Companion.
- If you cannot grasp the meaning of a vocabulary word from context, look it up in the Latin-English vocabulary at the end of the chapter or the back of this book. Vocabulary words recur frequently. If you need to look up a word more than once, or find the next day you cannot remember what it means, memorize the word by making a flash card. Carry the flash cards around with you and review frequently. (There are also web-based flash card systems you can use.) DO NOT WRITE ENGLISH IN YOUR BOOK! Your eye will go to the familiar language, inhibiting your ability to read the Latin.
- Complete homework as assigned.

After the second day:

- Re-read the entire chapter, paying close attention to the forms and grammatical principles, and making sure you have a firm understanding of both the grammar and meaning of the chapter. At this reading, it should be much easier not to translate in your head from Latin to English.
- Review the marginalia and the vocabulary. In the margins of each chapter of Familia Romana is a list of new vocabulary. Make sure you understand those words out of context. If you don't remember, find the word in the text before looking it up.
- Complete homework as assigned.
- Look ahead briefly to discover the emphasis of the next chapter.


## A Second Approach

Day 1:

- Introduce the chapter (vocabulary and all major grammatical concepts) before students see anything.
- Homework: read Companion and Familia Romana narrative; study for quiz.

Day 2:

- Quiz on new vocabulary.
- Questions about the reading? (Have them marked by line number with notes.)
- Warm-up with Pensum A.
- "Conversational" Latin: Ask questions about the reading and their lives. Have students illustrate a scene or act it out. Have them pantomime verbs. Follow with other activities in Latin.
- Homework: carefully chosen Exercitia.

Both approaches are intense, but students enjoy and profit from the course.

## To the Student

You will learn far more Latin more quickly, and in a more interesting way, if you first work with the book and the readings and the (very important) marginalia (that is, the words and images in the columns next to the reading), then refer to this book to help you organize what it is you have encountered. By this method, the book helps you confirm what you have already learned.

The value of the marginalia and the images in the Familia Romana text cannot be overemphasized! The marginalia mark out new things you will learn, and help you to understand the Latin quickly and visually. The illustrations will be valuable clues to what the Latin itself is saying.

Try not to translate into English as you read. Instead, keep images in your mind and work as much as you can in Latin. Only by increasing your stamina for reading and thinking within the Latin language will you gain proficiency in understanding. Do not write English in your book! Do not write out translations of the text as you read: make yourself confront the text anew each time you read it. Only then will you become familiar with the language.

A note on translations: You will find that translations accompany only a few of the illustrative sentences in this book. These translations demonstrate how a particular construction works in the English language in order to help you understand how Latin works, not to encourage translation into English. Remember, the goal is Latin!

The more actively you engage, the more you will learn. Quiz yourself by going back into earlier chapters and randomly picking a word. Do you know what that word means without reading it in context? If not, reread the surrounding sentences and see whether context prods your memory. If not, look the word up. Do you recognize its case (if appropriate)? Could you reconstruct the nominative from that case? If the word is a verb, recount to yourself all you know about it (the amount you will know will depend on how far into the course you have proceeded). Try to write short synopses of the reading in Latin. Read out loud. Send a classmate a text or email in Latin! The more you engage different senses, the faster you will learn and the more you will retain.

## Before you start

## Orthography

Latin was written (orthography) as it sounded. Therefore, the spelling of Latin changed with natural variations of pronunciation that occurred over time and place. So, for example, Cicero would have written equos for "the horse," while Caesar Augustus would have written ecus; we find this same word in our Latin texts as equus because editors of Latin texts generally adopt the spelling of the first century AD, when variations in orthography had leveled out. We still find variation in the treatment of the semi-vowels $u / v$ and $i / j$, however (on these semi-vowels, see below under pronunciation).

## Latin Pronunciation

Latin was spoken through many countries over many hundreds of years. When you think how much pronunciation varies in different regions of our own country during our own time, the very thought of how to "correctly" pronounce Latin becomes daunting. We actually know quite a bit about how upper-class educated Romans living in Rome during a relatively short time span spoke Latin because Roman writers themselves have given us various hints. This pronunciation is called the "Restored Pronunciation." Even though the Restored Pronunciation may be the way Horace recited his Odes, for example, or Vergil his Aeneid, we should not feel constrained to try to duplicate it. In our own language, English, we don't feel we need to research how Shakespeare might have spoken in order to read Hamlet. Elizabethan actors might be amazed at our renditions, but we aren't talking to them. Our goal is to be faithful to the principles of the language and to be understood by others. But-you may object that we can't really appreciate the beauty of a Latin poem unless we hear it as the Romans did. If that were true, we would need more than sounds to appreciate Latin literature-we would need the full spectrum of cultural values that comprise aesthetic appreciation.

The other traditional method of pronunciation is called the "Ecclesiastical Pronunciation." If you listen to Latin liturgical hymns, you will hear the subtle differences: caelum (sky, heaven), for example, is pronounced "kai-lum" in the restored pronunciation but "che-lum" in the ecclesiastical pronunciation. Ecclesiastical Latin retains the mellifluous beauty of Italian. An audio recording of Caps. I-XXXI of Familia Romana is available from Hackett Publishing Co. in the Restored Pronunciation; an audio recording of the whole of Familia Romana is available from the same publisher in Ecclesiastical Pronunciation.

So, how to pronounce Latin? If we are faithful to a few principles, we can read with confidence and feeling, and understand and be understood by others. In order to utter Latin well, we must understand the quantities of vowels and syllables, know where to put the accent and how to enunciate. Thus, while the guide below will suggest pronunciations that mirror some of the things we
know about ancient pronunciation, if you pay attention to quantities, accent, and enunciation, you will be understood whether you pronounce $c$ hard (i.e., like " $k$ ") as the Romans did or soft, as Ecclesiastical Latin.

But first, let's look at the alphabet.

## The Alphabet

The Latin alphabet can be most simply divided into vowels and consonants. That broad division has subdivisions as well. The Latin alphabet has twentythree letters; it lacks the English $w ; y$ and $z$ were Greek imports, as were $c h, p h, t h$.

## Vowels

- Latin has both single vowels and diphthongs (two vowels that form one sound).
- Vowels can be either "long" or "short." A long vowel is pronounced for twice the length of time. Compare the "a" in "father" and the first vowel in "aha." We hold the "a" sound twice as long in "father." Long vowels in this book are marked by a bar over the vowel called a "macron" (i.e., $\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{i}, \bar{o}, \bar{u}$ ). The Latin vowels are:
- a
$\triangleright$ short: $a$ as the first $a$ in " $a$ ha": amat
$\triangleright$ long: $\bar{a}$ as in "father": āl $\bar{a}, p \bar{a} n i s$
- e
$\triangleright$ short: $e$ as in "let": et, bene
$\triangleright$ long: $\bar{e}$ as in "prey": $m \bar{e}$
- i
$\triangleright$ short: $i$ as in "fit": in, nimis ${ }^{1}$
$\triangleright$ long: $\bar{i}$ as ee in "feet": hīc, līberī
- $o$
$\triangleright$ short: $o$ as in "hot": post, modo
$\triangleright$ long: $\bar{o}$ as in bone: $p \bar{n} n \bar{o}$
- u
$\triangleright$ short: $u$ as in "full": num, sumus
$\triangleright$ long: $\bar{u}$ as in "fool": $\bar{u} n a, t \bar{u}$
- y (represents the Greek upsilon)
- short: y as French u in "lune": Syria
$\triangleright$ long: $\bar{y}$ as French $u$ in "pur": Ly $\overline{d i a}$

[^0]- Diphthongs, being two vowels together, take twice as long to pronounce as single short vowels and so are considered long. They are:
- ae as ie in "die": Graecia, laetus, paene
- oe as oi in "boil": foedus, poena
- au as ou in "loud": aut, nauta
- eu as $e+u$ combined into one syllable (ĕhoo): Eurōpa, heu, heus, neu, seu. (But the endings -us, -um, -unt form separate syllables after $e$ : de|us, me|us, e|um, e|unt, aure|us.)
- ui in cui, huic, cuius, huius as $u+i$ combined into one syllable


## Semi-vowels (glides)

Latin has two letters called "glides," which represent either a vowel or a consonant sound depending on the letters around them. These letters are represented in our book as $i$ and $u / v$ :

- $i$ : The father of our family is Iulius, the same as the English Julius. The " $j$ " and " $i$ " of his name represent the same letter in Latin, which was always represented by $i$ by the Romans. Sound: Before a consonant, $i$ represents the vowel sound " $i$ " and before a vowel, the consonant sound " $y$."
- $u / v$ : The word for slave shows you the other glide in Latin. The word for slave is servus, in the plural, it's servi. The $v$ and $u$ are actually the same letter and work the same way as " i " and " j ." In some Latin texts, you will find servus written as seruus; this text distinguishes $u$ and $v$. Sound: Before a consonant, $u$ represents the vowel sound "u" and before a vowel, the consonant sound "w."


## Consonants

Most consonants are the same as, or very similar to, English.

- $b$ as in English: bibit, $a b$
- $b s$ and $b t$ as $p s$ and pt: absunt, obtulit, urbs
- $c$ is always hard as in "cat" (= $k$, without aspiration): canis, centum, circus, nec $\triangleright c h$, as $k$ with aspiration: pulcher
- $d$ as in English: dē, dedit, ad
- $f$ as in English: forum, flūmen
- $g$ as in English: "get" (never as in "gem"): gallus, gemma, agit
- $g n$ as ngn in "willingness": signum, pugna, magnus
- $h$ as in English (tending to disappear): hīc, homō, nihil
- l as in English: lūna, gladius, male, vel
- $m$ as in English: $m \bar{e}$, domus, tam
$\triangleright$ In the unstressed endings -am, -em, -um, it tended to disappear.
- $n$ as in English: nōn, $\bar{u} n u s$; before $c, g, q$ as in "ink": incola, longus, quīnque
- Before $s$, it tended to disappear: mēnsa, īnsula
- $p$ as in English (without aspiration): pēs, populus, prope
- $p h$ as English $p$ with aspiration: amphitheātrum (see above under $c h$ )
- qu as English qu in "quick": quis, aqua, equus
- $r$ rolled or trilled: rēs, $\bar{o} r a$, arbor, cūr
- $s$ as in English "gas" (never voiced as in "has"): sē, rōsa, is
- $t$ as in English (without aspiration): $t \bar{e}$, ita, et
- $t$ is always hard (not like $t$ in nation)
- th as English $t$ with aspiration: amphitheātrum (see above under ch)
- $v$ as English $w: ~ v o \bar{s}, v \bar{\imath} v u s$
- $x$ as in English (= $k s$ ): ex, saxum
- $z$ as English $z$ in "zone": zōna

Thus, very generally, the sound of Latin consonants can be compared to those of English:

- Like English: $d, f, l, m$, and $n$ (initial and medial) ${ }^{2}, p, q u, z$
- Like English + variations (see above): $b s, b t, g n$
- Always a hard sound: $c, g, s, t, x$
- Softer than English: $h$, final $m$, $n$
- Different: $r$ (trilled) $v$ (like $w$ )

Now we return to our guidelines for pronunciation of quantities, accentuation, and enunciation. In Cap. XVIII, your text gives you an excellent lesson in the concepts below, in Latin.

1. Syllables:
a. A word has as many syllables as it has vowels and/or diphthongs:
i. Est, nōn, sunt
ii. Rō ma, Nī lus, quo que
iii. Flu vi us, op pi dum, ìn su la
iv. Brun di si um, Hi spā ni a ${ }^{3}$
b. Note that in the examples above:
i. A consonant goes with the following vowel: Rō ma
ii. Two consonants are divided: op pidum

[^1]c. Some consonants stay together:
~ ch, ph, th, qu
$\sim l$ or $r$ preceded by $b, d, g, p, t, c$, and $f$
2. Vowel quantity:
a. A long vowel takes twice the time to pronounce as a short vowel.
3. Syllable quantity:
a. A syllable is either:
i. open (ends in a vowel)
ii. closed (ends in a consonant)
b. Long/Heavy syllables:
i. Closed syllables
ii. Open syllables with long vowel/diphthong
c. Short/Light syllables:
i. Open syllables with a short vowel

## 4. Accent:

a. The last three syllables of a Latin word determine accent.
b. These syllables are called:
i. ultima (for syllaba ultima: the last syllable)
ii. penult (for syllaba paene ultima: almost the last syllable)
iii.antepenult (for ante paene ultimam syllabam: "before the almost the last")
c. The accent, or stress, of a Latin word depends on the length of the second to last, or penultimate, syllable.
d. The penult (penultimate) syllable is accented when long/heavy (closed or has long vowel or diphthong).
e. Otherwise, the accent moves to the antepenult.
f. Examples:

Rṓma in Itáliā est. Itália in Eurốpā est. Grécia in Eurṓpā est. Itália et Grécíia in Eurốpā sunt. Hispā́nia et Itália et Grćcia in Eurṓpā sunt.
5. Enunciation: this last principle sounds easy, but most people who feel nervous about saying a word correctly try to say it as fast as possible. Some tips:
$\triangleright$ Speak slowly and say what you see.
$\triangleright$ Doubled consonants (two consonants in a row) are both pronounced.
$\triangleright$ Long vowels take twice the time to pronounce as short vowels.

## Parts of Speech with Examples

[The chapter in brackets gives the first introduction of the part of speech.]
Noun (substantive) [Cap. I]:

1. names a person, place or thing
2. properties:
a. gender: masculine, feminine, or neuter (neither masculine or feminine)
b. number: singular or plural
c. case: different endings depending on the role of the word in the sentence
Exempla Latīna:
Rōma
fluvius
oppidum
Adjective [Cap. 1]:
3. qualifies a noun
4. sometimes stands on its own as a substantive
5. has (like nouns) gender, number, and case
6. has (unlike nouns) all three genders (can stand in agreement with any noun)
7. matches (agrees) with its noun in gender, number, and case

Exempla Latīna:
magnus (fluvius)
parva (īnsula)
parvum (oppidum)
Pronoun [Cap. II]:

1. points to, or stands for, a noun without naming it, e.g., "he," "whom," "they"
2. has (like nouns) gender, number, and case

Exempla Latina:
quis cuius
quae quid
Verb [Cap. I]:

1. shows action, state of being
2. properties:
a. person: 1st (I/we), 2nd (you), 3rd (he, she, it/they)
b. number: singular, plural
c. tense: time frame of the verb:
i. present (continuing action in the present) ${ }^{4}$
ii. imperfect (continuing action in the past)
iii. future (projected action)
iv. perfect (completed action)
v. pluperfect (action completed before another completed action)
vi. future perfect (action to be completed before a projected action)
d. voice:
i. active (subject is the agent of the verb)
ii. passive (subject is the recipient of the action of the verb)
e. mood: expresses the speaker's attitude to the verb
i. indicative (states a fact, asks a question)
ii. infinitive (the unbounded, "to" form of the verb) ${ }^{5}$
iii. imperative (gives a command)
iv. subjunctive (various uses)

## Exempla Latīna:

est, sunt
pulsat [Cap. III]
cantat [Cap. III]
Participle [Cap. XIV]:

1. is a verbal adjective: it shares qualities of verbs and adjectives
2. like a verb, a participle has
a. tense (present, past, future)
b. voice (active, passive)
3. like an adjective, a participle has
a. gender
b. number
c. case

Exempla Latīna:
dormiēns (puer)
canentem (gallum)
stantem (servum)
Adverb [Cap. I]:

1. qualifies a
a. verb
b. adjective
c. another adverb
2. The present shows continuing action in the present (I am walking), simple present (I walk), emphatic present (I do walk).
3. The infinitive, like the supine (not included here), is a verbal noun.

Exempla Latīna:
bene
nōn
ubi (interrogative adverb)
num (interrogative adverb)
Preposition [Cap. I]:

1. determines the relationship between two nouns

Exempla Latīna:
in (Italiā)
sine (rōsīs) [Cap. V]
cum (Aemiliā) [Cap. V]
Conjunction [Cap. I]:

1. joins words, phrases, or clauses

Exempla Latīna:
sed
et
Interjection: An exclamation for emphasis [Cap. XXII]:
Exemplum Latīnum:
heus!

## Syntactic Terms

[Examples are underlined]
Subject: the focus of the sentence. To find the subject, ask "who" with the verb.
Julia is singing. Who is singing? Julia (subject)
Exempla Latīna:
Rōma in Italiā est.
Iūlia cantat [Cap. III].
Predicate: the verb and its modifier(s). To find the verb in a sentence, look for the word that denotes an action or state of being.

- Rōma in Italia est: est is the verb/predicate (state of being)
- Iūlia cantat: cantat is the action (action)

Predicate nominative: a noun used with a copulative (linking) verb to restate the subject.

- Corsica insula est.
- Tūsculum oppidum Rōmānum est.

Predicate adjective: an adjective used with a copulative (linking) verb to qualify the subject.

- Fluvius magnus est.
- Oppidum parvum est.

Transitive verb: a verb which is completed by a direct object.

## Exempla Latīna:

Mārcus nōn videt Quīntum [Cap. III].
Mārcus puellam pulsat [Cap. III].
Intransitive verb: a verb that is not completed by a direct object (which is in the accusative case) or that stands alone (e.g., "I stand," "I sit"). In both examples below, the dative case completes the verb, which is intransitive.

Exempla Latīna:
Pater dormit [Cap. III].
Pater venit [Cap. III].
Direct object: a word in the accusative case that receives the action of the verb.
Exempla Latīna:
Mārcus nōn videt Quīntum [Cap. III].
Mārcus puellam pulsat [Cap. III].
Indirect object: a word in the dative case that tells "to or for whom" the action of the verb is performed.

Exempla Latīna:
Pater fīliō suō magnum mālum dat [Cap. VII].
Dominus servīs māla et pira dat [Cap. VII].
Notā Bene: ${ }^{6}$ Some verbs which are transitive in English are intransitive in Latin.

[^2]
## I. Imperium Rōmānum

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Getting Started: The Roman Empire
2. Using This Book
a. Pay Attention to Endings
b. Be Aware of Latin's Flexible Word Order
c. Concentrate on Meaning and Context
d. Be Patient: Keep Reading
e. Answers Often Explain Questions
f. Look to Context for Word Meaning
3. Morphology
a. Nouns: Singular/Plural
b. Antonyms
c. Adjectives and Substantives
d. Interrogatives: num, quid
e. Numbers: mille
4. Points of Style: Latin Concision

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Getting Started: The Roman Empire

In the first chapter, we take you 2,000 years back into the past, to the time when the Roman Empire was at the height of its power, extending from the Atlantic Ocean to the Caspian Sea and from Scotland to the Sahara. We give you a few geographical facts as background for the sketches from life in ancient Rome that follow.

On the map of the Roman Empire facing the first page of the text, you will find all the geographical names occurring in the chapter. After locating the names Rōma, Italia, Eurōpa, Graecia, etc., you will understand what is said about the situation of the city of Rōma in the first sentence: Rōma in Italiā est, and about Italia and Graecia in the next two: Italia in Eurōpā est. Graecia in Eurōpa est. This is said once more in a single sentence: Italia et Graecia in Eurōpā sunt. The meaning of et should be quite clear, but can you tell why it
is now sunt instead of est? If not, look in the margin and read the next two sentences as well. Have you discovered when to use est and when sunt? If so, you have learned the first rule of grammar: a singular subject is joined with a singular verb and a plural subject with a plural verb.

If you read Lingua Latina, heeding the following suggestions, you'll learn Latin well and easily.

## 1. Pay Attention to Endings (e.g., $-\mathbf{a},-\overline{\mathbf{a}}$ )

Did you also notice the slight difference between Italia and Italiā, and what little word produces the long - $\bar{a}$ ? This difference is pointed out and explained in the first marginal note:

> Italia
> in Italiā

## 2. Be Aware of Latin's Flexible Word Order (e.g., est, sunt)

Another thing worth noticing: here est and sunt come at the end of the sentence, but you will see that it is not always so; Rōma est in Italiā is also correct. The word order is less rigid in Latin than in English.

## 3. Concentrate on Meaning and Context (e.g., the negation nōn)

Is it really possible, you may ask, to understand everything by just reading the text? It certainly is, provided that you concentrate on the meaning and content of what you are reading. It is sufficient to know where Aegyptus is, to understand the statements Aegyptus in Eurōpā nōn est, Aegyptus in Āfricā est (1.5). There can be no doubt about the meaning of nōn (a so-called negation).

## 4. Be Patient: Keep Reading (e.g., quoque and sed)

Often a sentence is understood only when seen together with other sentences. In the sentence Hispānia quoque in Eurōpā est (ll.2-3), you will not understand quoque until you read in context: Italia et Graecia in Eurōpā sunt. Hispānia quoque in Eurōpā est. (The two preceding sentences might have been Italia in Eurōpā est or Graecia quoque in Eurōpā est.) If you are still in doubt, just go on reading till the word recurs: Syria nōn est in Eurōpā, sed in Asiā. Arabia quoque in Asiä est (1.7). Now you will certainly understand quoque-and in the meantime, you have learned the word sed almost without noticing it.

## 5. Answers Often Explain Questions (e.g., -ne...? and ubi...?)

In the next paragraph, a number of questions are asked, and each question is followed by an answer. It is often necessary to read the answer before you can
be quite sure of the meaning of the question. The first question is Estne Gallia in Eurōp $\bar{a}$ ? The particle -ne attached to est marks the sentence as a question (our question mark [?] was unknown to the ancient Romans). The answer is Gallia in Eurōpā est. The next question, Estne Rōma in Galliā? is answered in the negative: Rōma in Gallia n̄̄̄n est. (Latin has no single word for "yes" or "no." The sentence-or part of it-must be repeated with or without nōn.)

In the question Ubi est Rōma? the word $u b i$ is intelligible only when you get the answer: Rōma est in Italiā.

## 6. Look to Context for Word Meaning

After the short survey of the location of the principal Roman provinces, you are told about various localities: Rhēnus and Nīlus, Corsica and Sardinia, Tūsculum and Brundisium. You will find these names on the map, and the text will tell you what they represent. If you are still in doubt about the meaning of the words fluvius, insula, and oppidum, turn back to the picture heading the chapter.

## Nouns: Singular/Plural

Note that these words occur in two different forms: Nilus alone is called fluvius, but Nīlus and Rhēnus together are called fluvī̄. In similar circumstances, you will notice the use of the forms insula and insulae, as well as oppidum and oppida. In the section Grammatica Latina in Lingua Latina you will learn that the forms fluvius, ìnsula, and oppidum are called singulāris, while fluvī̄, insulae, and oppida are called plūrālis-in English singular and plural.

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Antonyms [ $\leftrightarrow$ ]

As you read on, you will see that Nilus is referred to not only as fluvius, but also as fluvius magnus, unlike Tiberis, which is described as fluvius parvus. In the same way, Sicilia is referred to as insula magna as opposed to Melita (the modern Malta), which is called insula parva. In the margin, magnus and par$v u s$ are represented as opposites (sign [ $\leftrightarrow$ ], "the opposite of"); this will help you to understand the meaning of the words, but note that the endings change: fluvius magnus, but fluvī̄ magnī. A further example: Brundisium is called oppidum magnum and Tūsculum, oppidum parvum, and when the same words occur in the plural, they are called fluvī̀ magnī, insulae magnae, and oppida magna.

## Adjectives and Substantives

A word that shows this variation between the endings -us, $-a,-u m$ in the singular and $-\bar{i},-a e,-a$ in the plural is called an adjective (Latin adiectīvum, "added word") because it is added to a noun (substantive), which it qualifies. Other nouns occurring in this chapter are:

| prōvincia | littera |
| :--- | :--- |
| imperium |  |
| numerus |  |$\quad$ vocābulum

Adjectives occurring in this chapter are:

| magnus, $-a,-u m$ | Rōmānus, $-a,-u m$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| parvus, $-a,-u m$ | Latīnus, $-a,-u m$ |
| Graecus, $-a,-u m$ | prīmus, $-a,-u m$ |

Plural adjectives found in this chapter are:

$$
\text { multī, -ae, -a paucī, }-a e,-a
$$

Note: The endings of the adjectives depend on the nouns that they qualify; so it is prōvincia magna but imperium magnum.

## More Interrogatives: num, quid

The question Num Crēta oppidum est? (1.49) must, of course, be answered in the negative: Crēta oppidum nōn est. Num is an interrogative (i.e., asking) particle, like -ne, but a question beginning with num implies a negative answer. The next question is Quid est Crēta? Here, again, only the answer, Crēta īnsula est, makes the meaning of the question quite plain.

Compare:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Estne Crēta oppidum? } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { Is Crete a town? (I really don't know, } \\
\text { so I'm asking.) }
\end{array} \\
\text { Num Crēta oppidum est? } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { Crete isn't a town, is it? (I suspect Crete } \\
\text { is not a town and expect you to answer } \\
\text { "no.") }
\end{array}
\end{array}
$$

Remember the other interrogatives in this chapter:

| Quid est Crēta? | What is Crete? |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\underline{\text { Ubi est Crēta? }}$ | Where is Crete? |

## More about Endings

We have seen that, after in, the final vowel is $-\bar{a}$ and not $-a$. Remember that the macron over the $\bar{a}$ means the vowel is long (see pronunciation guide). We now see that in also makes -um change to -ō:
in imperiō Rōmānō (1.58) in capitulō primoo (1.73)
in vocābulō (1.72)
You will learn more about these forms in $-\bar{a}$ and $-\bar{o}$ in Cap. V.

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Mille

Mîlle, the word for "a thousand," is an indeclinable adjective; indeclinable means its endings never change. So:
mille numerī mīlle vocābula mîlle litterae

## Points of Style: Latin Concision

Latin is a concise language. It can often express in a few words what requires several words in other languages. One of the reasons is that Latin has fewer particles (small, uninflected words) than most modern languages; Latin also has nothing corresponding to the English articles "a" and "the," as in "a river," "the river," etc.

## Recēnsiō (Review)

Remember:

1. Pay attention to endings.
2. Be aware of Latin's flexible word order.
3. Concentrate on meaning and context.
4. Be patient: keep reading.
5. Answers often explain questions.
6. Look to context for word meaning.

Important terms:

- Enclitic: word that is appended to another word (-ne, -que)
- Particle: small uninflected word
- Indeclinable: word whose endings do not change (mille)


## Studia Rōmāna

The map in the beginning of this chapter shows the Roman Empire (Imperium Rōmānum) at its height in the second century AD, the time in which our narrative takes place. This is the time of the Pax Rōmāna, the Roman peace (which lasted from the end of the first century BC through the second century AD , from the time of the emperor Augustus through Marcus Aurelius). Rome had begun almost a millennium before our story, in 753 BC, as a hamlet on the hills around the swamp that would eventually become the Roman Forum. It began as a tiny kingdom ( $753-510 \mathrm{BC}$ ), then a republic run by the aristocracy ( $510-27 \mathrm{BC}$ ), and finally an empire which lasted in the west until the fifth century AD and in the east-in Constantinople-until the fifteenth century.

In addition to learning the words for town (oppidum) and island (insula), you learn the word for river (fluvius) and the names of a few (Nīlus, Rhēnus, Dānuvius, Tiberis). Rivers are very important-for drinking water, for agriculture, for travel, for transport of goods, and as territorial boundaries. So important were rivers that river gods are often shown holding a cornucopia (corn $\bar{u}$ cōpiae, the horn of plenty), emphasizing their gift to agricultural fertility. Latin poets sometimes identify a group living in an area with the river that supplies them water: "the chilly brook Digentia that the folk of Mandela drink" (Quintus Horātius Flaccus, 65-8 BC, Epist. 1.18.105); "those who drink the Tiber and the Fabaris" (Vergil, 70-19 BC, Aen. 7.715). The Romans helped along natural resources with the building of aqueducts. Appius Claudius Crassus directed that the first one, the Aqua Appia, be built in the fourth century BC (he is also to be credited with the construction of the Via Appia, the major roadway that led from Rome; see Cap. VI). By the time of our narrative, there were ten. ${ }^{1}$ Aqueducts fed fountains throughout a town lucky enough to be connected to an aqueduct. The structure of the house (see Cap. V) helped with water collection: rain water could come in through an opening in the roof of the àtrium, fall into a pool and be collected in a cistern for later use.

The image of the tablet inscribed with numerals (numerī) and letters (litterae) that heads Section III in your text represents an important vehicle for writing. It is called a tabella (Cap. XXI) and consists of a wooden board with a raised border, with wax (cēra) in the middle. The pointed stick you see to the right of the tabella is called a stilus. It had a pointed end (for writing on the wax) and a broad, tapered surface on the other with which one could smooth out the wax (hence erasing the writing). There were different varieties of these tablets, including ones small enough to be held in the hand (called pugillārēs from pugnus, "fist"). In the margins on page 107 (Cap. XIV), you can see a tablet that folded and tied closed (just like pugillārēs), as well as a stilus and a rēgula (ruler). In Cap. II, there is a picture of an ancient book (liber antīquus) in the form of a scroll, as well as a pāgina, a written page (and the page itself!). You will learn more about writing in Cap. XVIII.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

Nōmina (Nouns) ${ }^{2}$<br>capitulum, $-\overline{1}$<br>exemplum, $-\overline{\mathbf{1}}$<br>fluvius, $-\overline{1}$<br>grammatica, -ae

chapter<br>example, model<br>river<br>grammar

[^3]imperium, $-\overline{1}$
insula, -ae
littera, -ae
numerus, -ī
ōceanus, - $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$
oppidum, $-\overline{1}$
pēnsum, -ī
prōvincia, -ae
syllaba, -ae
vocābulum, -ī
Verba (Verbs)
est
sunt
Adiectīva (Adjectives)
Graecus, -a, -um
Latīnus, -a, -um
magnus, -a, -um
multī, -ae, -a (pl.)
parvus, -a, -um
paucī, -ae, -a (pl.)
plūrālis (numerus)
prīmus, -a, -um
Rōmānus, -a, -um
secundus, -a, -um
singulāris (numerus)
tertius, -a, -um
Numerī (Numbers)
ūnus
duo
trēs
sex
mīlle
Adverbia (Adverbs)
nōn
Praepositiōnēs (Prepositions)

| in $(p r p .+a b l)$. | in, on, at |
| ---: | :--- |
| $(p r p .+a c c)$. | into, to, against |

Coniūnctiōnēs (Conjunctions)
et
sed
quoque
not
command, empire
island
letter
number
ocean
town
task
province
syllable
word
he/she/it is
they are

Greek
Latin
big, large, great
many, a great many
little, small
few, a few
plural (plūrālis and singulāris are
adjectives of the 3rd declension; you
will learn about these in Cap. XII)
first
Roman, of Rome
second, favorable
singular
third
one, only
two
three
six
one thousand
in, on, at
into, to, against
and, also
but
also, too

## Vocābula Interrogātīva (Interrogative words)

| -ne? | enclitic added to the emphatic word at <br> the beginning of a question the answer <br>  <br>  <br> to which may be either "yes" or "no." It <br> can be used in both direct and indirect |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | questions (Cap. XIX). |
| num? | if, whether; expects a "no" answer |
| quid? $n$. (see quis) | what, anything; adv. why |
| ubi? interrog. adv. | where |

## II. Familia Rōmāna

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Gender: Masculine, Feminine, Neuter
2. Nouns:
a. Ending in -us
b. Ending in $-a$
c. Ending in-um
d. Ending in -er
e. Genitive
3. Adjectives:
a. cēterī, ae, a
b. Possessive
c. Numbers
4. Pronouns: quis, quae, quid
5. Adverbs: Interrogative quot
6. Conjunctions
7. Ecce
8. Points of Style: Enumerations

## The Roman Family

We now introduce you to the people whose daily lives we will follow in the rest of the text. The picture shows them dressed in their best clothes, except for the four who are relegated to the margin-clearly, they are not on the same level as the rest of the family. Be sure to remember their names, for you will soon become so well acquainted with these persons that you will almost feel like a friend visiting a real Roman family 2,000 years ago. And the remarkable thing about it is that you can understand their language! You will find more about the Roman family in the Studia Rōmāna section at the end of the chapter.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Gender: Masculine, Feminine, Neuter

Note that the names of these people end in either -us (masculine) or -a (feminine); none of them end in -um (neuter). You will see that the ending -us is characteristic of male persons:

Iūlius
Dāvus
Mārcus
Mēdus
Quintus
and $-a$ of female persons:

| Aemiliă | Syra |
| :--- | :--- |
| Iūliä | Dēlia |

This principle also applies to nouns that denote persons. Nouns referring to males generally end in -us:
filius servus
dominus
A smaller number of masculine nouns end in $-r$ instead of -us:
vir puer
Nouns denoting females end mostly in $-a$ :
fèmina domina
puella ancilla
filia
No persons are denoted by words ending in -um.
Latin groups nouns by gender, not "sex." The word gender comes from the Latin genus, which means group or category. The three genders, or categories, are:
neuter (Latin neutrum, "neither," i.e., neither masculine nor feminine)
oppidum imperium
vocābulum
masculine (Latin masculīnum, from mas, "male")
fluvius titulus
numerus liber
feminine (Latin fēminīnum, from fēmina)
īnsula prōvincia
littera familia

## Genders (in Latin)

masculine (m.): -us, -er, -ir
feminine (f.): $-a$
neuter (n.): -um

## Nouns: Genitive Case (cāsus genetīvus)

The word familia refers to the whole household, including all the slaves, servi and ancillae, who belong to the head of the family as his property. Iūlius is the father, pater, of Mārcus, Quīntus, and Iūlia, and the master, dominus, of Mēdus, Dāvus, Syra, Dēlia, etc. To express these relationships, we need the genitive (Latin genetīvus), a form of the noun ending in:

> Singular: - $\bar{\imath}(\mathrm{m} . / \mathrm{n}$.$) and -ae (f.)$
> Iūlius est pater Mārcī et Quīntī et Iūliae.
> Titulus capitul̄̄ secundī est "Familia Rōmāna." (ll.87-88)

Plural: -ōrum (m./n.) and -ārum (f.)
Iūlius est dominus multōrum servōrum et multārum ancillārum.
In Graeciā et in Italiā magnus numerus oppidōrum est. (1.56)
To express the idea of the genitive, English uses the word "of" or an apostrophe: māter Iūliae = "Julia's mother" or "the mother of Julia."

```
genitive: "of," "-'s"
    m./n. f.
    sing. -i -ae
    pl. -ōrum -ārum
```

In addition to the category of gender, nouns fall into categories according to their endings. These categories are called declensions (dēclīnātiōnēs), according to the ending of the genitive. Nouns whose genitive ends in -ae belong to the 1st declension; those whose genitive ends in $-\bar{i}$ belong to the 2nd declension.

## Conjunctions: Coniūnctiōnēs

Particles like et and sed are called conjunctions (Latin coniūnctiōnēs, from con-iungere, "join together") because they join words and sentences.

Instead of $e t$, you often find the conjunction -que attached after the second word. -que is called an enclitic because it "leans on" (from the Greek $\varepsilon \gamma \kappa \lambda i v \omega$ ) the word in front of it and cannot stand on its own. The mark "-" in front of it signals an enclitic. Both et and -que mean "and":

Dēlia Mēdusque $=$ Dēlia et Mēdus. (1.9)
fīlī̄ fïliaeque $=$ fìlī et filliae. (1.22)

## Conjunctions

sed
$\ldots$..que $=e t \ldots$

## Interrogatives: Quis, Quae, Quid

Among the new words in Cap. II are the interrogative words quis and quae, which are used to ask questions about persons (English "who"):

Quis est Mārcus? masculine quis (plural quī)
Quae est Iūlia? feminine quae (plural quae) ${ }^{1}$
In Cap. I, you met the neuter interrogative quid (English "what"):
Quid est Creta? neuter singular.
The genitive of the interrogative for all genders is cuius (English "whose"):
Cuius servus est Dāvus? Dāvus servus Iūliz̄ est. (1.35)

|  | m. | f. | n. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | quis? | quae? | quid? |
| gen. | cuius? |  |  |

## Quot

Most words in Latin change endings; for example, filius (one son) and filiī (more than one son). Some words, however, never change form. They are called indeclinable: they always look the same. Quot ("how many") is an indeclinable interrogative adverb that asks questions about number:

Quot līberı̄ sunt in familiā? In familiā Iūlī̄ sunt trēs līberī.
Quot fīliī et quot filiae? Duo fîlī̄ et ūna fīlia.
Quot servī...?...centum servī. (ll.37-39)
quot? 1, 2, 3...

## Numerī

Like mille (Cap. I) and most numerals, centum ( $100,1.39$ ) is invariable: it does not change its ending (or "decline," the usual term for a change of a noun or adjective's ending). The numbers one ( $\overline{u n u s}$ ), two (duo), and three (trēs), however, do decline, they change endings:

- unnus has the familiar endings -us, $-a,-u m$
- the feminine of duo is duae (duae filiae) and the neuter duo
- the neuter of trēs is tria (tria oppida); trēs refers to both masculine and feminine nouns.

| m. | f. | n. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\bar{u} n u s$ | $\bar{u} n a$ | $\bar{u} n u m$ |
| duo | duae | duo |
| trēs | trēs | tria |

[^4]
## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Genitive (continued)

The number can also be indicated by the noun numerus combined with the genitive plural:

Numerus līberōrum est trēs. (11.43-44)
Numerus servōrum est centum. (1.43)
As centum must be said to be a magnus numerus, the following sentences are easily understood:

Numerus servōrum est magnus.
In familiā magnus numerus servōrum est.
It appears that magnus numerus servōrum is equivalent to multī servī. In the same way, parvus numerus līberōrum has the same meaning as paucī līberī. You will also find the expressions magnus numerus oppidōrum and fluviōrum meaning multa oppida and multī fluvī̄.
magnus numerus...ōrum $=$ multī...i/multa $\ldots a$
magnus numerus...ārum = multae $\ldots$..ae

## Adjective: Cēterī, -ae, -a

The Romans knew only the northern part of the continent of Africa, where there is only one big river, the Nile:

In Āfricā ūnus fluvius magnus est: Nīlus. (1.58)
It goes on:
Cēterī fluvī̄ Āfricae parvī sunt. (1.59)
The adjective cēterī, $-a e,-a$, "the others," recurs several times; thus, the enumeration of the first three of the thirty-five capitula is concluded with cētera:

In Linguā Latinā sunt multae pāginae et multa capitula: capitulum prìmum, secundum, tertium, cētera. (1.86)

The sentence might have read et cētera, the Latin expression which gives us the abbreviation "etc."
cēterī, -ae, -a

## Points of Style: Enumerations

The following rules apply to enumerations in Latin:

1. et put between all items: Mārcus et Quīntus êt Iūlia
2. no conjunction used at all: Mārcus, Quīntus, Iūlia
3. -que added to the last item: Mārcus, Quīntus Iūliaque That is:
4. a et betc
5. $a, b, c$
6. $a, b, c$-que

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Adjectives: Possessive

The conversation at the end of the chapter (1l.65-79) shows that instead of the genitive, the adjectives meus, $-a,-u m$ and tuus, $-a,-u m$ are used to refer to what belongs to the person speaking or the person spoken to (like English "my" and "your").

The adjective always has the same gender (m., f., or n.), number (sing. or pl.), and case (e.g., nominative, genitive) as the noun it modifies. So, Julius says, "Dēlia est ancilla mea" (1.71). Mea is an adjective agreeing with ancilla, so it is feminine nominative singular.

```
meus, -a, -um
tuus, -a, -um
```


## Ecce

On page 16, you come across the word ecce (illustrated with an arrow in the margin). It is used when you point to or call attention to something; in this case, it is pointing to the two books.

## Nouns Ending in -er: puer, puerī, liber, librī

Notice the form of an ancient book: a scroll with the text written in columns. The Latin word for such a scroll is liber. Liber, like puer (also in this chapter), ends in -er instead of in -us. Notice that some nouns (like puer) keep an $e$ throughout, while others (like liber) have $e$ only in the nominative (and vocative, the form used when directly addressing someone). ${ }^{2}$ The plural of liber is librī, while the plural of puer is puerī. These nouns are always masculine.

Notā Bene: Look to the genitive to determine what happens to the $e$ :

| puer, puerī | (there will be an $e$ throughout) |
| :---: | :---: |
| liber, librī | (the $e$ is found only in the nominative) |
| nominative | genitive |
| liber | librī |
| puer | puerī |

[^5]
## Recēnsiō: Grammatical Terms

Decline: Nouns, adjectives, and pronouns change endings, depending on their use in the sentence; that is, they are said to decline.
Declensions: Nouns, adjectives, and pronouns are grouped according to their characteristic vowel into families, called declensions. The vowel -a characterizes the first declension (e.g., puella, domina), while -o/u marks the second declension (e.g., servus, imperium).
Enclitic: An enclitic is a word that cannot stand on its own; it attaches itself to the word it follows.
Gender: Nouns, adjectives, and pronouns fall into three categories called genders: masculine, feminine, and neuter.
Indeclinable: A word is called indeclinable if it never changes endings.

## Studia Rōmāna

One of the first things you will notice about the pictures of the Roman family is their clothing. Clothing was an important marker of status in the ancient world. The basic unit of clothing for everyone was the tunic (tunica, Cap. XIV). The tunic was worn in various lengths and was usually belted at the waist. For men, it reached the knees or mid-calf. Soldiers wore them above the knee. Julius is shown wearing a toga (Cap. XIV) over his tunic. The toga was made of white wool and was expensive. It was a highly symbolic garment for special occasions that marked a man as a Roman citizen. A man who was running for office would send his toga to the cleaner to have it whitened. A shining white toga is called toga candida, and a man running for office was a candidātus: our "candidate." The right arm is left unencumbered, but the left arm is impeded by the way the toga is worn (which you can see clearly in the image of Cornelius in the margin on p . 15).

Both Marcus and Quintus wear a toga with a purple stripe (the toga praetexta, or bordered toga), the normal ceremonial dress of free-born male children (and also of magistrates!) until around the age of fifteen or sixteen, when they assumed the toga virilis (the toga of manhood, from vir) like their father. Young girls also wore the toga praetexta when they were dressed formally, although Julia is shown here with a plain toga over her long tunic.

Over her tunic, Aemilia wears the palla, a long, wide, and cloak-like garment. The tunic of both girls and adult women reached to the foot. Over her tunic but under the palla, Aemilia is probably wearing a stola, a long, sleeveless garment that signifies her status as a mātrōna, a married woman.

Clothing was made of wool at home by the mäterfamilias and her ancillae. In Livy, (59 BC-AD 17) we find Lucretia, a paragon of Roman womanhood, in the atrium spinning wool with her ancillae by lamplight). ${ }^{3}$ Suetonius's (c. AD 75-160) biography of the emperor Augustus tells us that the women in

[^6]his household learned to spin and weave, despite the family's great wealth and power (Aug. 64). The republican period epitaph of a woman named Claudia records, among her accomplishments as the mäterfamilias, "She looked after the house; she did the wool-working" (domum servāvit. Lānam fēcit).

Children also wore protective amulets around their necks. Boys wore the bulla (which was round) and girls the lūnula ("little moon" and moon shaped). When boys assumed the toga virilis, they dedicated the bulla to the household gods known as the Larēs. Before their marriage, girls also dedicated the toga praetexta, their toys, and the lūnula to the Larēs. The Larēs represented the spirits of deified dead ancestors; you will learn more about them in Cap. IV.

Footwear included soleae (sandals) and calceī (shoes); soleae covered only part of the foot, and were worn indoors and at meals, while the calceus (Cap. XIV, p. 106) covered the whole foot and was a sturdier shoe.

We see the slaves, both men and women, wearing short, belted tunics.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

## Nōmina

1st declension
ancilla, -ae female slave, servant
domina, -ae
familia, -ae
fēmina, -ae
fïlia, -ae
pāgina, -ae
puella, -ae
2nd declension
dominus, -ī
fēminīnum, -ī (genus)
fïlius, - $\mathbf{1}$
genetīvus, $-\bar{i}$ (cāsus)
liber, -brī
līberī̀, -ōrum
masculīnum, $-\bar{i}$ (genus)
neutrum (genus)
puer, -erī
servus, -ī
titulus, $-\overline{1}$
vir, - $\mathbf{1}$
mistress
domestic staff, family
woman
daughter
page
girl
master
feminine
son
genitive
book
children
masculine
neuter
boy
slave, servant
title
man, husband
3rd declension (you will learn more about these nouns in Cap. IX)

```
māter (f.)
pater (m.)
```

mother
father

## Adiectīva

1st/2nd declension (-us, -a, -um)
antīquus, -a, -um old, ancient, former
centum (invariable)
cēterī, -ae, -a ( $p l$.)
a hundred
duo, duae, duo
meus, -a, -um
the other(s), the rest
novus, -a, -um
my, mine
tuus, -a, -um
new
your, yours
3rd declension (you will learn more about these adjectives in Cap. XII)
trēs, tria
three
Prōnōmina
quis? quae? quid?
quī? (m. pl.)
cuius? (gen. sing.)
who, what
what, which
whose
Adverbia
quot? (indecl.)
how many, (as many) as
Coniūnctiōnēs
-que
and enclitic added to the second word of a pair of words in order to link them together

## III. Puer Improbus

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. The Latin Verb
b. Transitive/Intransitive
c. Implied Subject
2. Nouns Subject/Object
3. Pronouns
a. Personal Pronouns: Accusative Case
b. Relative and Interrogative Pronouns
4. Adverbs: Interrogatives cūr, quia
5. Conjunctions: Negatives
6. Points of Style: Writing Relative Sentences

## Sibling Quarrel

Now that you have been introduced to the family, you are going to watch some of their doings. We begin with the children-they are portrayed here as being much the same in ancient times as they are today. So, we are not surprised to learn that Julius and Aemilia's children cannot always get on together. Here, little Julia is the first to suffer, because her singing annoys her big brother. Peace is not restored until Mother and Father step in.

The chapter is divided up into three scenes (scaena prīma, secunda, tertia).

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## The Latin Verb

Several of the new words in this chapter are verbs. A verb (Latin verbum) is a word that expresses an action or a state: that someone does something or that something exists or takes place. The first Latin verb you come across is cantat in the opening sentence: Iūlia cantat. Other verbs are pulsat, plōrat, rīdet, videt, vocat, venit, etc. They all end in -t-like est, which is also a verb-and mostly come at the end of the sentence.

## Verbs

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text {-at } & \text { cantat, pulsat, plōrat } \\
\text {-et } & \text { rīdet, videt, respondet } \\
\text {-it } & \text { venit, audit, dormit }
\end{array}
$$

Like nouns, verbs are grouped into categories, called conjugations (coniugātiōnēs); verbs in the 1st conjugation have stems ending in $-\bar{a}$, in the 2nd in $-\bar{e}$, in the 4th in $-\bar{i}$. In Cap. IV you will learn some verbs from the 3rd conjugation, which also have a 3rd person singular ending in -it; in that conjugation, some verbs have a stem ending in $-\check{\imath}$ and others ending in a consonant.

## Nouns: Subject/Object

The first of the two words in the sentence Iulia cantat denotes the person who performs the action. Other sentences of the same kind are:

Iūlia plōrat. (1.9) Aemilia venit. (1.21)
Mārcus rīdet. (1.10) Pater dormit. (1.37)
But it is not always as simple as this. Take, for instance, the sentence that is illustrated by the little drawing in the margin: Mārcus Iūliam pulsat (1.8). Here, we are told not only who performs the action, but also at whom the action is aimed. The same pattern is seen in the following sentences, also illustrated by pictures:

Quīntus Mārcum videt. (l.11) Mārcus Quīntum pulsat. (1.14)
Quīntus Mārcum pulsat. (1.13) Iūlia Aemiliam vocat. (1.19)
Subject: The person who performs the action is called the subject of the verb.
The subject has the ending -us, $-a$ (or -um for neuter nouns); these forms are called nominative (Latin nōminātīvus).
Object: The person toward whom (or the object toward which) the action is directed, the object, takes the ending -um or -am. The forms -um and -am are called accusative (Latin accūsātīvus).
In other words: $I \bar{u} l i \underline{i}$ is changed to $I \bar{u} l i a m$ when we are told that Marcus hits her, just as Mārcus becomes Mārcum when he is the victim. In similar circumstances, puella changes to puellam, and puer to puerum, and qualifying adjectives get the same ending:

Mārcus parvam puellam pulsat. (1.59)
Iūlius puerum improbum verberat. (1.64)

| subject | object | verb |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Mārcus | Iūliam | pulsat |

```
    m. f.
nominative: -us -a
accusative: -um -am
```

Both the nominative (subject) and the accusative (object) are called cases: cāsus nōminātīvus and cāsus accūsātīvus.

## Verbs: Transitive/Intransitive

Verbs like pulsat, videt, vocat, which can be used with an object in the accusative, are called transitive. Verbs without an object-e.g., plōrat, dormit-are intransitive verbs.

Iūlia plōrat (intransitive: no object) et Aemiliam vocat (transitive:
accusative object). (1.9)
Mārcus nōn videt Quīntum (transitive). (1.11)
In the following sentence, the first verb (pulsat) is transitive and the second (ridet) intransitive:

Mārcus puellam pulsat-et rīdet! (1.12)
Not $\bar{a}$ Bene: You need to pay attention to whether a word is transitive in Latin—which will not always be the same as its English equivalent!

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Personal Pronouns: Accusative Case

Instead of accusative nouns in -am and -um, you sometimes find the words eam and eum, e.g.:

Iūlia plōrat quia Mārcus eam pulsat. (ll.27-28)
Cūr Iūlius Quīntum nōn audit? Iūlius eum nōn audit, quia dormit. (11.42-43)

On page 20, you will notice the marginal note "eam: Iūliam" means that here, eam stands for Iūliam.

A word of this kind, which takes the place of a name or noun, is called a pronoun (Latin prōnōmen, from prō "instead of" and nōmen "name" or "noun").

Corresponding to eum (him) and eam (her), the pronoun $m \bar{e}$ is used when a person is speaking about himself or herself, and $t \bar{e}$ is used about the person spoken to (in English, "me" and "you"):

Aemilia: "Quis me vocat?"
Quīntus: "Ī̄lia tē vocat." (ll.24-25)
m. f.
acc. eum eam
mē
tē

## Implied Subject

In English, we use the pronouns "he" and "she": Where is Julius? Why doesn't he come? But in Latin, these pronouns are not needed. When the context shows who the subject is, it need not be repeated (or replaced by a pronoun):
"Ubi est Iūlius? Cūr nōn venit?" (ll.35-36)
Similarly:
Iūlius eum nōn audit, quia dormit. (1.43)
"Cūr māter Mārcum verberat?" "Mārcum verberat, quia puer improbus est." (11.58-59)

## Adverbs: Interrogatives cūr and quia

The interrogative adverb cūr ("why?") is used to ask about the cause (Latin causa). A question introduced by $c \bar{u} r$ calls for an answer with the causal conjunction quia ("because"):

Cūr Iūlia plōrat? Iūlia plōrat, quia Mārcus eam pulsat. (11.26-28)
Cūr Mārcus Iūliam pulsat? Quia Iūlia cantat. (1l.30-31)
question: $c \bar{u} r . . . ?$
answer: ...quia...

## Conjunctions: Negative

The conjunctions et and sed are not usually combined with a negation; instead of et nōn and sed nōn, the conjunction neque (ne-que) is used, i.e., -que attached to the original negation $n \bar{e}(=n \bar{n} n)$ :

Iūlius dormit neque Quintum audit. In English, "and not"
Iūlius venit, neque Aemilia eum videt. In English, "but not"
ne-que $=$ et nōn (sed nōn)

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Pronouns: Relative and Interrogative

In the sentence Puer quīparvam puellam pulsat improbus est (1.63), quī refers to puer and is called a relative pronoun. The relative pronoun connects ("relates") a subordinate clause to a main clause. The relative pronoun refers to a word in the main clause called an antecedent. The pronoun will agree with its antecedent in gender and number, but its case will be determined by the subordinate clause. In the preceding example, $q u \bar{u}$ is masculine singular to agree with its antecedent puer and nominative because it is the subject of pulsat in its own clause.

More examples:
Puer quī rīdet est Mārcus. (1.70)
Puella quae plōrat est Jūlia. (1.71)
As a relative pronoun quem is used in the masculine and quam in the feminine when it represents the verb's object in its own clause:

Puer quem Aemilia verberat est Mārcus. (1l.75-76)
Puella quam Mārcus pulsat est Iūlia. (ll.72-73)
The examples show that quī and quem (m.) refer to a masculine noun, and quae and quam (f.) to a feminine noun.

In Cap. IV (1.75) you will meet quod, which refers to a neuter noun:
baculum, quod in mēnsā est
At the end of the chapter (p.23), you find sentences with both the interrogative and the relative pronoun, e.g.: ${ }^{1}$

Quis est puer quī rīdet? Who (interrogative) is the boy who (relative) is laughing? (1.69)

In the feminine, the two pronouns are identical:
Quae est puella quae $\quad$ Who (interrogative) is the girl who plōrat? (relative) is crying? (1.70)
The interrogative pronoun quis is quem in the accusative:
Quem vocat Quīntus? Quīntus Iūlium vocat. (1.77)

## Points of Style: Writing Relative Sentences

Consider these sentences

- (from Cap. II) Iūlius est vir Rōmānus. Iūlius est pater Mārcī. These two independent sentences have equal value. Their common lexical link is Iūlius. Substituting the relative for one Iūlius, we can make two different complex sentences:

Iūlius, quī est vir Rōmānus, est pater Mārcī.
Iūlius, quī est pater Mārcī, est vir Rōmānus.
In the first sentence, Julius's being a Roman man is made subordinate to his being the father of Marcus, while in the second, his being Marcus's father is the subordinate, or dependent, idea.

- (from Cap. III) Iūlius eum audit. Iam nōn dormit pater. (1.48)

Pater, quī eum audit, iam nōn dormit. Father, who hears him, is no longer sleeping.
Iūlius, quī iam nōn dormit, eum audit. Julius, who is no longer sleeping, hears him.

[^7]Since pater and Iūlius both refer to the same person, we can substitute a relative pronoun for one of the occurrences. The meaning of the sentence changes a bit, depending on how the clauses are combined. The first one suggests (as did the original two independent clauses) that Julius is no longer sleeping because he hears Marcus wailing and that wakes him up. The second implies that he hears Marcus because he is no longer sleeping.
relative pronoun: connects a clause
puer quī...
puella quae...

|  | m. | f. | n. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | qui | quae | quod |
| acc. | quem | quam | quod |

interrogative pronoun: asks a question
nom. quis
acc. quem

## Recēnsiō: Qu-words

quis? quae? quid? who, what? (interrogative pronoun)
quì, quae who (interrogative pronoun, plural)
quia because (conjunction)
quot how many? (interrogative adverb)

## New Grammatical Terms

Case: The ending of a noun or adjective changes depending on the word's function; each of these alterations is called a "case" (Latin cāsus).
Subject: The person (or thing) that performs the action of the verb is called the subject, represented in Latin by the nominative case.
Object: The person (or thing) that completes the meaning of the verb is called the direct object, represented in Latin by the accusative case.
Conjugation: The ending of a verb's stem ( $-\bar{a},-\bar{e},-\bar{i},-\bar{i}$, or consonant) determines the group (conjugation) to which it belongs.
Transitive: A verb is transitive if an accusative direct object completes its meaning.
Intransitive: A verb is intransitive if its meaning is complete without an accusative direct object.
Implied Subject: If the subject is not directly stated, but needs to be supplied from the ending of the verb, it is called an implied subject.
Pronoun: A pronoun takes the place of a noun.
Lexical Entry: The way a word is presented in a lexicon (dictionary), for
example mamma, -ae, f. The vocabulary entry for verbs and some other words will change in the first part of this book as you learn more morphology (forms of words). For now, verbs are listed as 3rd person singular. Cap. X adds the present infinitive. The actual lexical entry for verbs begins with the 1st person singular, which you will first meet in Cap. XV.

## Studia Rōmāna

In the second scene, we see Julius sleeping on a lectus, a Roman bed. While it looks pretty uncomfortable, such sleeping couches were common in the ancient world (other images on pp. 74, 78, 187). By our standards, Roman furniture could be sparse. The three most common pieces were the table (mēnsa), chair (sella), and couch (lectus). Storage places in the form of cupboards (armärium) and chests (arca) were also important. Containers for books (scrolls) went by various names: the capsa (also in diminutive form: capsula) was a cylinder that can often be seen at the foot of a statue of one who wants to mark himself as learned. The scrīnium was a portable chest for holding books and papers. The cista (also in diminutive form: cistula) was a woven basket used for holding various things, including books; a particular usage for the cista was to hold the sacred implements at a religious festival. Oil lamps (lucernae) were ubiquitous. They could be carried in the hand and placed on a lamp-stand (lychnūchus, $\lambda \cup \chi$ ทoũ $\chi \circ \varsigma)$.

Furniture-especially tables, of which the Romans were particularly fond-could be a sign of wealth. The beginning of Cap. IV (p. 26) shows Julius sitting at a table that rests on ornately carved legs. Pliny the Elder (first century AD) writes about the Roman mania for tables (mēnsārum insānia) made of citrus (cedar) wood (arbor cītrī, Historia Nātūrālis, 13.29); elsewhere, he writes of table legs being made of ivory (12.3). You will see at the end of our story that Julius can afford to adorn his dining room with expensive linens for the dining couches (Cap. XXX). Romans sometimes brought their own napkin (mappa) or hand towel (mantēle) to dinner parties. Catullus (first century BC) complained in the first century BC that someone stole a napkin from him while dining out, which was both expensive and a gift from a friend (Poem 12). The complaint continues to the time period of our narrative. Martial (first century AD) writes about a recent diner, "No one had brought his napkin (mappa) since thefts were feared: Hermogenes stole the cloth (mantēle) from the table" (Book 12.28: attulerat mappam nēmō, dum fūrta timentur: / mantēle à mēnsā surpuit Hermogenes).

Julius sits on a low stool (p. 22: scamnum), but the Romans had a variety of chairs (sellae)—including the high-backed chairs that we see in Cap. XIV (p. 110).

In the third scene, as father punishes his son, the sound is represented by tuxtax $(11.64,65)$, a word meant to imitate the sound of being beaten. Corporal punishment for children was common. Some other colorful Latin expressions:

- bombax: an exclamation of surprise
- babae: an exclamation of joy and amazement

In the next chapter, you'll meet some other Latin exclamations:

- $f \bar{u}$ : an exclamation of dislike or aversion
- st: "shhhhh..."


## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        mamma,-ae
        persōna,-ae
        scaena,-ae
2nd
        accūsātīvus, -ī (cāsus)
        nōminātīvus, -ī (cāsus)
        verbum, -i
Verba
    -at (1)
        cantat
        interrogat
        plōrat
        pulsat
        verberat
        vocat
    -et (2)
        respondet
        rīdet
        videt
    -it (4)
        audit
        dormit
        venit
Adiectiva
    1st/2nd (-us, -a, -um)
    improbus, -a, -um
    irrātus, -a, -um
    laetus,-a,-um
    probus, -a, -um
```

mommy
character, person
scene, stage
accusative
nominative
word, verb
sing
ask, question
cry
strike, hit, knock (at)
beat, flog
call, invite
answer
laugh, make fun of
see
hear, listen
sleep
come
bad, wicked
angry
glad, happy
good, honest, proper
Prōnōmina
eam her
eum him
mè me
quae ( $f$.)
quam (acc. sing. f.)
quem (acc. sing. m.)
quī ( $m$.)
tē
Adverbia
cūr?
iam
hīc
Coniūnctiōnēs
neque
quia
Alia (Cētera)
$\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ !
oh!

## IV. Dominus et Servī

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Conjugations: coniugātiōnēs
b. Mood:
i. modus indicātīvus
ii. modus imperātīvus
2. Nouns: Vocative Case: cāsus vocātīvus
3. Adjectives
a. Numbers: numerī
b. Possessives: eius/suus, meus/tuus
4. Pronouns: Nominative, Genitive Case

We now leave the children for a while and turn to the grown-ups. There is a worried look on Julius's face; it turns out that a sum of money is missing. Who is the thief? The problem is not solved until the end of the chapter, of courseand by then, the culprit has already decamped! Later (in Caps. VI and VIII), you will find out where he is hiding and what he does with the money. But right now, you must set to work to discover who the thief is.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Verbs: Conjugations

The stem of a Latin verb ends in one of the long vowels $-\bar{a},-\bar{e},-\bar{i}$, or in a consonant. The verbs are therefore divided into four classes, called conjugations (coniugātiōnēs):

1st conjugation: $\bar{a}$-verbs, with stems ending in $-\bar{a}:$ vocā- - cant $\underline{\bar{a}}-$-, puls $\underline{\bar{a}}-$.

3rd conjugation: consonant-verbs, with stems ending in a consonant: pōn-, sūm-, discē $\underline{d}-$.
4th conjugation: $\bar{i}$-verbs, with stems ending in $-\bar{i}$ : venī- -, audī- -, dormī-.

To these stems the different verbal endings are added (a vertical stroke [|] is here used to mark the division between stem and ending).

When $-t$ is added:

- the last vowel of the stem becomes short: vocal $\mid$, vide $\mid t$, veniㅢ $\mid t$
- in the consonant-verbs a short $-i$ - is inserted before the $-t: p \bar{n} n \mid \underline{i} t$, sūm|īt, discēd|īt.


## Conjugations

| $\bar{a}$-stems |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\bar{e}$-stems |  |
| consonant-stems pōn- |  |
| $\bar{i}$-stems | veni |

This verbal form is called the indicative (Latin indicātīvus, "stating," "indicating"). The indicative makes a statement or asks a question.

## Verbs: Moods: Modī

So far all of our reading has consisted of sentences that make statements or ask questions. In this chapter, you learn how to give commands. These different forms of the verb are called moods (modus). As you saw in the previous section, statements and questions fall into the category of the indicative mood (modus indicātīvus). Commands in Latin are expressed by the imperative mood (modus imperātīvus).

## Imperative: Modus Imperātīvus

The form of the verb used to give orders is called the imperative (Latin imperātīvus, from imperat, "he, she, it orders"). When giving an order to one person, the Latin imperative consists of the shortest form of the verb called the stem, without any ending, e.g., vocā! tacē! venī!, or a short $-e$ is added when the stem ends in a consonant, as in pōne! (the stem is pōn-). Examples:

Dāvum vocā! (1.24) Tacē, serve! (1.37)
Venī! (1.27)
Sacculum tuum in mēnsā pōne! (1.60)

## Imperative

vocā! vidē! venī! pōne!

In the following examples, the first verb is an imperative (gives an order), the second, indicative (makes a statement or asks a question).

| vocā: call! | voca\|t | he, she, it calls |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| vidē: see! | vide $\mid t$ | he, she, it sees |
| pōn\|e: put! | pōn\|it | he, she, it puts |
| audī: listen! | audi\|t | he, she, it listens |

## Pronouns: Genitive (cāsus genetīvus)

The genitive of is (which you will learn in Section II) is eius (cf. English "his, her"):

In sacculō eius (: Iūlī̄) est pecūnia. (1.1)

## Possessives: meus, -a, -um/tuus, -a, -um

The adjectives meus, $-a$, -um (my), tuus, $-a,-u m$ (yours) and suus, $-a,-u m$ (his own, her own, its own) are called possessive adjectives. The possessive adjective serves to replace the genitive (for all three genders: masculine, feminine, and neuter).

## Possessives: eius/suus

English has one set of possessives for the 3rd person: his, her, its. Latin has two:
the genitive pronoun eius
the possessive adjective suus, $-a$, -um
Compare the following two sentences:
Dāvus sacculum eius sūmit. Davus takes his (someone else's) bag.
Dāvus sacculum suum sūmit. Davus takes his own bag. (1.74)
Both eius and suus, -a, -um mean his, her, its, but they are not interchangeable. To understand the difference, compare the two examples (ll.61-62):

Dāvus sacculum suum in mēnsā pōnit.
Iam sacculus eius in mēnsā est.
In the first sentence-D̄̄vus sacculum suum in mēnsā pōnit-the subject is Davus and the money also belongs to Davus; therefore "his" (or "his own") is expressed by the adjective suum. When the "his" (or "hers" or "its") refers back to the subject of the sentence, Latin uses the possessive adjective suus, -a, -um. In English, the word "own" is sometimes added to make the meaning plain: "his/her own."

In the second sentence-Iam sacculus eius in mēnsā est-the subject is sacculus, and "his" is expressed by the genitive of the pronoun: eius.

Look at another example:
Iūlius pecūniam suam sūmit. Julius takes his (own) money.

Note that "his own" is feminine, because it modifies pecunniam, even though it is translated "his" and refers to Julius. An adjective always has the same gender, number, and case as the noun it modifies.

In other words, when:

- referring to something that belongs to the grammatical subject of the sentence, the adjective suus, $-a$, -um is used: Iulius servum suum vocat.
- referring to something that does not belong to the grammatical subject of the clause, the pronoun eius is used: Servus eius abest.


## Recēnsiō: Possessive Adjectives and Possessive Pronouns

Compare the following examples:

Ubi est sacculus tuus?
Ecce sacculus meus.
Sūme sacculum tuит.
Dāvus sacculum eius sūmit.

Where is your bag? (1.58)
Here is my bag. (1.59)
Take your bag. (1.73)
Davus takes his (someone else's) bag.

Dāvus sacculum suum sūmit. Davus takes his own bag. (1.74)

## Nouns: Vocative in -e

When one person uses another's name as a form of address, he or she uses the vocative case, the case of "calling" (Latin vocātīvus, from vocat). We have already seen the characters in our story addressing each other in Cap. III:

Mamma! (1.60)
Mater! Mārcus Quīntum pulsat. (ll.16-17)
Fū, puer! (1.45)
St, puerī! (1.39)
Pater! Pa-ter! (1.41)
In each of these cases, the vocative has the same form as the nominative.
In the vocative of the 2nd declension, however, nouns that end in -us have a different form. When a 2 nd declension nominative ends in -us, the vocative ends in -e. Medus calls Davus, crying, "Dāve!" (1.25), and when Davus greets his master, he says, "Salvē, domine!" and Julius answers, "Salvē, serve!" (ll.34-35).

| Dāvus (nom.) | $\rightarrow$ | Dāve (voc.) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| dominus (nom.) | $\rightarrow$ | domine (voc.) |
| servus (nom.) | $\rightarrow$ | serve (voc.) |

## Numbers (numerī): 1-10

Of the following cardinal numbers, only one, two, and three decline (see Cap. II); the rest are indeclinable adjectives:

1. ūnus: I
2. sex: VI
3. duo: II
4. septem: VII
5. trēs: III
6. octō: VIII
7. quattuor: IV
8. novem: IX
9. quīnque: V
10. decem: X

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Pronouns: Nominative

In the second of the two clauses, Mēdus discēdit, quia is pecūniam dominī habet (ll.76-77), the nominative Mēdus is replaced by the pronoun is, which is the nominative corresponding to the accusative eum (English "he" and "him"). In English, the pronoun is always used. In Latin, the nominative of this pronoun:

- is used only when it carries a certain emphasis (here, Medus is contrasted with Davus)
- is omitted when the subject is not emphasized ("implied subject,"

Cap. II)
Mēdus nōn respondet, quia abest (next section, 1.85).
In English, we must mark emphasis by inflection (voice) or underlining (for example) the stressed word:

Medus does not answer Mēdus nōn respondet, quia abest. because he is not there.
Medus leaves because he Mēdus discēdit, quia is pecūniam has the master's money. dominī habet.

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

The final reading in this chapter offers further practice of the material introduced in the first two readings. Notice in particular the emphasis of is:

Dāvus bonus servus est. Í nōn habet pecūniam meam. (ll.81-82)
Mēdus nōn venit, quia is habet pecūniam tuam. (11.92-93)
Iūlius īrātus est-is nōn rīdet! (1.94)

## Recēnsiō: Grammatical Terms

Stem: the form of the verb without its endings
Conjugation: one of the four groups of verbs: Coniugātiō
Mood: the name given to the category of expression of the verb (e.g., makes a statement; gives an order): Modus

Indicative: the mood of the verb that asks a question or makes a statement: Indicātīvus
Imperative: the mood of the verb that gives an order: Imperātīvus
Nominative: the case of the subject: Nōminātīvus
Accusative: the case of the direct object: Accūsātīvus
Genitive: the case of possession: Genetīvus
Vocative: the case of calling, or address: Vocātīvus

## Studia Rōmāna

The familia consists of the master (dominus), his wife (domina), their children (līberī, the "free people"), and the slaves (servī and ancillae). The familia had a shared religious cult: the lar familiāris (or plural: larēs familiārēs) whose shrine was called a larārium (located usually in the ātrium, but sometimes also found in the kitchen or peristyle-an inner courtyard lined with rows of columns). Larēs are depicted as male dancers, mid-dance (as can be seen from their billowing tunics), carrying a drinking horn or a bowl. They often flank an image of a man with his toga over his head (the garb of someone acting in a priestly function and preparing to perform a sacrifice); this image represents the genius (spirit) of the dominus of the home. There is also often a snake depicted below the larēs and the dominus. The larēs belonged to and protected the place, and thus united all who lived in that place. In addition to the larēs for the homestead (the larēs familiārēs), there were also larēs for the crossroads in the neighborhood (the gods of the crossroads, honored at the festival of the Compitälia) and of the town in general (larēs pu$u l i c \bar{i})$-that is, of nearly every place that was marked as a specific location (as are the home, the crossroads, etc.).

The other important domestic gods were Vesta (the goddess of the hearth) and the Penātēs. The Penātēs were also guardians of the household, with dominion over the household goods, including food. Unlike the Larēs, they were associated with the paterfamiliās instead of the whole familia.

Slavery was an accepted fact of life in the ancient world. As Rome expanded from a series of huts on the Palatine Hill to a massive empire through warfare, prisoners of war became slaves. The children of those slaves (called vernae) increased the number. The master had complete control of his slaves' lives. Marriage between slaves was not recognized under Roman law, but they could be given permission to enter into a contubernium. Their children belonged to the master and were called vernae (home-bred slaves). When a master manumitted ("sent from his hand"; freed) a slave, that slave became a freedman, or lībertus/līberta. Although no longer part of the familia, the lībertus now belongs among his former master's dependents or clients (clientēs) and still has obligations to his former master. A slave could earn a small amount of money, a pecullium, for his services; he might eventually save enough to buy his freedom.

The slaves in our story have names that suggest their origin. Syra might have come from Asia Minor (Syria and the area around Assyria). Varrō (firstcentury BC polymath, in dē Linguā Latīnā, 8.21) tells us that masters often choose the names of their new slaves either from the name of the person who sold the slave or the region in which the slave was purchased (or he might give the new slave whatever name appealed to him). Dēlia is a Greek name (was she bought at Delos, a center of slave trade?), as is D $\bar{a} v u s$, whose name was popular in Roman comedy. In Cap. XVI, you will learn that Medus is also Greek. There were different types of slaves; the slaves in our story are house-slaves, but Julius owns other slaves who worked in the fields and the mines. There were highly educated slaves who could teach children (and their masters), and act as secretaries and scribes. There were skilled chefs (who were highly prized-and very expensive). One of Aemilia's ancillae would have acted as her hairdresser, $\bar{o} r n a \overline{t r} \bar{i} x$. There were pedisequī and pedisequae, slaves who were in constant attendance on their masters (the name means someone who follows one's footsteps). A Roman involved in public affairs would have walked through the forum with his nōmenclātor, a slave whose job it was to tell his master the names of those they encountered in Rome.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        mēnsa,-ae
        pecūnia,-ae money
    2nd
        baculum, -
        indicātīvus, -ī (modus)
        imperātīvus, -i (modus)
        nummus, -i
        sacculus, -\overline{1}
        vocātīvus, -ī (cāsus)
Verba
    -ā (1)
        accūsat
        imperat (+dat.)
        numerat
        salūtat
    -ē (2)
        habet
        pāret (+ dat.)
        tacet
```

table
money
stick
indicative
imperative
coin
purse
vocative
Verba
-ā (1) accūsat imperat (+ dat.) numerat salūtat - $\overline{\mathrm{e}}$ (2) habet tacet
accuse
command, order, rule
count
greet
have, hold, consider
obey
be silent
consonant (3)

| discēdit | go away, depart |
| :---: | :--- |
| pōnit |  |
| sūmit | place, put, lay down |
| irregular | take |
| abest <br> adest | be absent |
|  | be present |

Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us, -a, -um)
bonus, -a, -um good
decem
novem
nūllus, -a, -um
octō
quattuor
quīnque
septem
suus, -a, -um
vacuus, -a, -um
Prōnōmina
eius
is, ea, id
quī, quae, quod
Adverbia
rūrsus
tantum
Alia
salvē hello, good morning (sing.)

## V. Vīlla et Hortus

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Indicative and Imperative Plural
b. rīdet/rīdent
c. agit/agunt
2. Nouns
a. Accusative Case (plural)
b. Case Uses: Prepositions with the Ablative
3. Adjectives in -er
4. Pronouns: is, ea, id
5. Prepositions

## The Roman Villa

We have made the acquaintance of what is evidently a prosperous Roman family, to judge from the splendid villa in which they live. The plan on page 33 and the pictures of various parts of the house will give you an impression of the layout of this typical Roman villa. Characteristic features are the atrium, with its opening in the roof and pool for rainwater, and the peristyle, the inner courtyard lined with rows of columns.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Accusative Case (Plural)

In Cap. III, you learned the accusative singular in -um and -am; we now learn the accusative plural ending in -ōs and -ās. The plural fîlizī becomes f $\bar{i} l i \underline{o} s$ when it is the object of the verb: Iūlius duōs filiōs habet; similarly, filiqe changes to filiuās. E.g.:
is multōs servōs habet (1.6)
ea multās ancillās habet (ll.7-8)

The accusative of masculine and feminine nouns always ends:

- in $-m$ in the singular and
- in $-s$ in the plural

Neuter nouns have the same ending in the accusative as in the nominative (sing. -um, pl. -a):

In vīllā sunt duo ōstia. (nominative, 1.25)
Vīlla duo ōstia et multās fenestrās habet. (accusative, 1.26)
accusative sing. and pl.

|  | m. | f. | n. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sing. | $-u m$ | $-a m$ | $-u m$ |
| pl. | $-\bar{o} s$ | $-\bar{a} s$ | $-a$ |

## Prepositions with the Ablative Case

Prepositions (Latin praepositiōnēs, "placed in front") link a noun (or pronoun) to another word in the sentence. A preposition takes an object (either in the ablative, as here, or in the accusative); the preposition plus its object is called a prepositional phrase.

Since the first chapter, you have been using the preposition in:
Rōma in Italiā est. (Cap. I, l.1)
Germānia in imperiō Rōmānō nōn est. (Cap. I, ll.58-59)
Quot serv̄̄ sunt in familiā tuä? (Cap. II, l.74)
In sacculō meō (Cap. IV, l.15)
In this chapter, you learn more prepositions. Like in, the prepositions $a b$, cum, ex, and sine cause the following nouns to take the ending $-\bar{o}(\mathrm{~m} . / \mathrm{n}$.) or $-\bar{a}$ (f.) and in the plural -īs:

| in àtriō | cum līberīs |
| :---: | :---: |
| ex hortō | sine rosis |
| $\underline{a b}$ Aemiliā |  |

The forms in $-\bar{o},-\bar{a}$, and $-\bar{i} s$ are called ablative (Latin cāsus ablātīvus).

$$
\begin{array}{lll}
\text { ab, cum, ex, in, sine }+-\bar{o},-\bar{a},-\bar{\imath} s \\
\text { ablative } & \text { m./n. } & \text { f. } \\
\text { sing. } & -\bar{o} & -\bar{a} \\
\text { pl. } & -\bar{\imath} s & -\bar{\imath} s
\end{array}
$$

## Adjectives in -er

You learned in Cap. II that not all masculine nouns end in -us; some, like puer and liber, end in -er. Not all adjectives end in -us, -a, -um. Some, like pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum, end in -er:

Syra nōn est fēmina pulchra, neque pulcher est nāsus eius. (1.17)
cum rosīs pulchrīs (1.61)
Rosae pulchrae sunt. (1.63)
Notā Bene: pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum, like liber, librī, has an $e$ only in the nominative singular. Like nouns ending in $-e r$, the stem of an adjective ending in $-e r$ can be determined from the genitive singular; the feminine singular will also tell you if the adjective keeps the $e$ : pulchra.

## Pronoun is, ea, id

New forms of the pronoun is (masculine) are now introduced: feminine ea, neuter id; plural $i \bar{\imath}(=e \bar{\imath})$, eae, ea.

| sing. | m. | f. | n. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| m | is | ea | id |
|  | eum | eam | id |
| n. | eius | eius | eius |
| l. | $e \overline{0}$ | $e \bar{a}$ | $e \bar{o}$ |
| pl. | m. | f. | n. |
| nom. | $i \bar{\imath}, e \bar{l}$ | eae | ea |
| acc. | $e o ̄ s$ | $e \bar{a} s$ | ea |
| n. | eōrum | eārum | eōrum |
| l. | eīs/ī̄s | eīs/ī̀s | eīs/ī̀s |

Notā Bene:

- In the accusative and ablative, pronoun is, ea, id shows the same endings as the noun it represents; remembering the accusatives eum and eam, you will identify forms like eō e e $\underline{\bar{a}}$ (abl. sing.), e $\underline{\bar{\sigma} s}$, $e \underline{\bar{a}} \underline{s}(\mathrm{acc} . \mathrm{pl}$.$) and i \underline{i} \underline{s}(=e \underline{i} \underline{s}$, abl. pl.).
- The genitive plural is eōrum, eārum (thus, for dominus servōrum, you find dominus eōrum).
- The genitive singular has a special form eius, which is the same for all three genders: you have already had sacculus eius (: Iūlī̄), now you find nāsus eius (: Syrae). (These genitives correspond to the English possessive pronouns "his/her/its/their").


## Verbs: Indicative Plural

Lastly, you learn the 3rd person plural form of verbs:
Indicative: when the subject is in the plural (e.g., puerī), or is more than one person (e.g., Mārcus et Quīntus), the verb ends in -nt (cf. est and sunt):

Mārcus et Quīntus Iūliam vocant.
Puerī rīdent.
Multī servī in ūnō cubiculō dormiunt. (1.40)
Notā Bene: In the consonant-verbs (3rd conjugation), a short vowel is inserted before the plural endings of the indicative:

- $-u$ - before the indicative ending $-n t$ :

Puerī discēdunt. (ll.75-76)

- Even in 4th conjugation verbs $(\bar{i})-u$ - is inserted before -nt:

Puerī veniunt.

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Verbs: Imperative Plural

Imperative: when two or more people are ordered to do something, the plural form of the imperative ending in -te is used:

Mārce et Quīnte! Iūliam vocāte! (1.51)
Audīte! (1.67)
Tacēte, puerī! (1.72)
Notā Bene: As in the indicative, in the imperative plural of the consonantverbs (3rd conjugation), a short vowel is inserted before the ending:

- -i- before the imperative ending -te

Discēdite, puerī! (cf. l.73)

## Imperative and Indicative

$\left.\begin{array}{llll} & & \text { sing } & \text { pl. } \\ 1 . \bar{a} & \begin{array}{l}\text { imp. } \\ \text { ind. }\end{array} & \begin{array}{l}\text { voca } \bar{a} \\ \text { vocalt }\end{array} & \text { vocā|te } \\ \text { voca|nt }\end{array}\right\}$

## Verbs <br> rīdet/rīdent

Julia's remark, "puerī me rēdent" (1.70), shows that rīdet, which is usually an intransitive verb, can take an object in the sense "laugh at": Puerī Iüliam rīdent.

| rīdet alone | Puerī rīdent. | The boys are laughing. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| rīdet + acc. | Puerī me rīdent. | The boys are laughing at me. |

## agit/agunt

The consonant-verb agit, agunt denotes action in general: Quid agit Mārcus? Quid agunt puerī? (English "do"). The imperative of this verb is often put before another imperative to emphasize the command, somewhat like our English "Come on!" or "Get going!" e.g., Age! venī, serve! Agite! venīte, servī!
age! agite! + imp.

## Recēnsiō: Prepositions with the Ablative

in
Iūlius in magnā villā habitat. (1.1)
Vìlla Iūlī in magnō hortō est. (1.12)
In hortīs sunt rosae et līlia. (l.13)
ex
Discēdite ex peristȳ̄̄ō. (1.73)
Puerī aquam sūmunt ex impluviō. (1.83)
$a b$
Puerī Iūliam audiunt, neque ī̄ ab Aemiliā discēdunt. (1.56)
Iūlia plōrat et cum ūnā rosāab $\underline{\underline{i} \underline{i ̄} s}$ discēdit. (1.71)

## cum

Iūlius in vīllā suā habitat cum magnā familiā. (1.9)
Pater et māter habitant cum Mārcō et Quīntō et Iūliā. (ll.9-10)
In Italiā sunt multae villae cum magnīs hortīs. (ll.12-13)
sine
Aemilia sine virō suō Iūliō in vīllā est. (1l.44-45)
In oppidō Tūsculō est sine Aemīliā. (ll.45-46)
Puella sine rosīs pulchra nōn est. (ll.63-64)

## Studia Rōmāna

In this chapter, you learn the features of a Roman country house, called a villa. You will notice on the diagram on page 33 how many of the rooms are called cubicula, or bedchambers. Archaeologists assign the word "cubiculum" to small
rooms in general. We often are not sure what the rooms were used for; therefore, every room you see marked as a cubiculum is not necessarily a bedroom.

The entranceway to a Roman house was called the vestibulum. The visitor would pass through this area into the ätrium. The ätrium usually had an opening in the roof called a compluvium, through which rainwater could fall into the impluvium-a small pool-below. The àtrium is the most public space in the house and it was here that visitors would be welcomed. Tall doors often flanked the room, two on each side, enclosing small rooms and the third set (in the photograph on p. 33, this third set has curtains rather than doors) leading to the älae, or "wings" (the same word is used for birds' wings, as you will learn in Cap. X); these are open alcoves. At the far end of the ātrium, opposite the entrance and across the impluvium, is the tablinum, or record-room, of the house (the word tablinum is related to tabula, the word you met in Cap. I that can mean both "writings" as well as "writing tablet"). In some houses-as it appears from the illustration in your book-the tablinum had a large opening onto the peristȳlum and/or hortus.

Just as the word peristȳlum comes from Greek (meaning "surrounded by columns"), the peristyle was a Greek architectural feature before it was a Roman one. Originally, the Roman house consisted of the ätrium and the rooms surrounding it with the garden (hortus) in back. The covered walkway created by the colonnade in the peristyle provided shade. At the far end of the peristyle in the diagram, you can see a dining room, called trīclīnium in Latin. You will read about the trīclīnium and dinner parties in Caps. XXX-XXXI.

Where was the kitchen (culina, Cap. XXX)? Originally, cooking was done in the àtrium with portable braziers. Not every house seems to have had a permanent kitchen. But where we do find kitchens, they are off the peristyle and are simple affairs.

Your text tells you that Vīlla duo ōstia et multās fenestrās habet (1.26). Our evidence for windows is slight, but Pliny the Younger (Gāius Plinius Caecilius Secundus), a Roman who lived a little before our narrative (around AD 62-113), includes several mentions of windows in his description of his seaside villa. While Roman houses in towns had either a private façade broken only by the door or an attached shop front (as you will see in Cap. VIII), they did not have windows looking out onto the street. It is most likely that windows were more common in the private parts of houses and when they provided a view. Rooms often had their own internal "view" in the guise of elaborate wall paintings. These ranged from original artworks by skilled craftsmen to less expensive scenes produced by workshops. Mosaics often covered the floor; these, like wall paintings, also ranged from the simple to the exquisite, like the Alexander mosaic in the House of the Faun in Pompeii.

There are other words for "house" besides villa. A casa is a small country cottage; a house is also called a domus (Cap. XIX) or, as a building, aedificium (Cap. XXV).

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        aqua,-ae
        fenestra,-ae
        rosa,-ae
        vīlla,-ae
    2nd
        ablātīvus, -ī (cāsus)
        ātrium, -i
        cubiculum, -i
        hortus, -i
        impluvium, -i
        līlium, -i
        nāsus, -i
        ōstium, -\overline{1}
        peristy`lum, -i
Verba
    -ā (1)
        amat/amant
        dēlectat/dēlectant
        habitat/habitant
consonant (3)
    agit/agunt
    carpit/carpunt
Adiectīva
    1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
        foedus, -a, -um
        pulcher, -chra, -chrum
        sōlus, -a, -um
Prōnōmina
    is, ea, id
Adverbia
        etiam
Praepositiōnēs
            ab (prp.+abl.)
            cum (prp. +abl.)
            ex (prp. +abl.)
            sine (prp. + abl.)
```

water
window
rose
country house, villa
ablative
main room, hall
bedroom
garden
water basin in the atrium
for collecting rainwater
lily
nose
door, entrance
peristyle
love
delight, please
dwell, live
drive, do, perform
gather, pick, crop
ugly, hideous
beautiful, fine
alone, lonely
he, she, it
also, even, yet
from, by
with
out of, by
without

## VI. Via Latīna

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. it/eunt
b. Passive Voice
2. Nouns
a. Case Uses
i. Accusative: Prepositions with the Accusative Case
ii. Ablative:
3. Preposition $a b / \bar{a}+$ Ablative
4. Ablative of Agent and Means/Instrument
b. Constructions of Place
5. Correlatives: tam/quam

## Roman Roads

Road communications were highly developed in the ancient Roman world. The different parts of the Roman Empire were connected by an excellent network of highways. These roads were primarily military, although they were also important to the economy. Not surprisingly, the Romans constructed a good number of roads in Italy during the time of their expansion from the fourth century BC onward. Vitruvius, an engineer and architect who lived at the time of the emperor Augustus, wrote a book called de Architectūrā; he tells us about the careful construction of roads: how the ground is prepared and graded so that water drains properly, the levels beginning with the earth and ending with large paving stones. Wheel-ruts are still visible on many streets in Pompeii.

On the map on page 40 of Lingua Latīna, you see the most important Roman roads in Italy, among them the famous Via Appia, running southward from Rome and continuing all the way to Brundisium. The Via Appia is the oldest paved Roman road; it was built at the end of the fourth century BC from Rome to Capua (see the map). By the middle of the third century BC, it reached all the way to the coastal town of Brundisium.

Running almost parallel to the Via Appia is the Via Latina, built in the third century BC, which passes the town of Tusculum mentioned in the first chapter. Julius's villa stands in the neighborhood of this town, so that anyone going from there to Rome must follow the Via Latina. Therefore, it is not surprising to find Medus walking along this road. You will soon discover what it is that attracts him to the city.

Tusculum lies about 15 miles southeast of Rome, as you can see on the map. Its location-in the countryside but still an easy journey to Rome-made it an attractive place for prominent Romans to have villas. The Greek geographer Strabo ( $62 \mathrm{BC}-\mathrm{AD} 24$ ) tells us that Tusculum can be seen from Rome. In the first century BC, Cicero had a home here, about which he speaks often and fondly in his letters, and where he wrote some of his philosophical works, including Tūsculānae Disputātiōnēs, or "The Discussions at Tusculum." Julius's estate, as you will learn in Cap. XXVII, lies to the southwest of Tusculum near Lake Albanus, an area that was as fertile as it was lovely (amoenus).

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Prepositions with the Accusative Case

In Cap. V, you met some common prepositions that take the ablative (see Recēnsiō at the end of Cap. V). Most other prepositions take the accusative, e.g.:

| ad | ad villam | to the country house (1.19) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ante | ante lectīcam | in front of the litter chair (1.33) |
| apud | apud eum $=$ cum eō ${ }^{1}$ | with him (1.37) |
| circum | Circum Rōmam est mūrus antīquus. | Around Rome is an ancient wall. (ll.14-15) |
| inter | inter Rōmam et Capuam | between Rome and Capua (11.3-4) |
| per | per portam | through the gate (1.76) |
| post | post lectīcam | behind the litter chair (1.33) |
| prope | prope Rōmam | near Rome (1.8) |

## Prepositions $a d$ and $a b / \bar{a}$ (continued)

Ad indicates motion to a place-it is the opposite of $a b$ (followed by the ablative), which indicates motion away from a place.

The corresponding interrogative adverbs are quō and unde:
Quō it Iūlius? $\underline{A d}$ villam it.
Unde venit? Ab oppidō.

[^8]\[

$$
\begin{array}{lr}
q u \bar{o} ? & a d+\mathrm{acc.} . \\
\text { unde? } & a b+\mathrm{abl} .
\end{array}
$$
\]

Instead of $a b$, we often find the shortened form $\bar{a}$ before a consonant, but never before a vowel or $h$-:

$$
\begin{array}{cc}
\underline{\bar{a}} \underline{v} \bar{l} l l \bar{a} & \underline{a b} \underline{a} n c i l l \bar{a} \\
\underline{a} \underline{d} o m i n o \bar{o} & \underline{a b} \underline{o} p p i d \bar{o} \\
a b+\text { vowel and } h- & \\
\bar{a} / a b+\text { cons. }(\text { except } h-) &
\end{array}
$$

## Verbs: it/eunt

The verb "to go" belongs to the 4th conjugation, but is irregular, as you can see from the difference between audiunt (they hear) and eunt (they go). An irregular verb is one whose endings don't follow the standard pattern of the four conjugations; the verb "is" (est/sunt) is also irregular.

| Iūlius ab oppidō ad vīllam <br> suam it. | Julius goes from the town to his <br> country house. (1.20) |
| :--- | :--- |
| Dominus et servī ab | The master and slaves are going from |
| oppidō ad vīllam eunt. | the town to the country house. (ll.20-21) |

Quō it Iūlius? (l.35)
Ad villam it. (l.35)
Iūlius et Cornēlius ad vīllās suās eunt. (l.57)

## Correlatives: Tam/Quam

Quam is an interrogative adverb:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \text { Quam longa est via } \quad \underline{\text { How long is the via Flaminia? }} \begin{array}{l}
\text { Flāminia? }
\end{array} \text { ll1-12) }
\end{align*}
$$

Tam answers the question posed in quam; together, they are called correlatives. Correlatives are adverbs or adjectives (Cap. VIII) that respond to each other. As you will see in Cap. VII, in Latin, pairs of correlatives often resemble tam/quam in that one starts with " t " and the other with "qu," and the rest of the word is the same. Tam...quam is best translated into English as "as...as":

## Quam longa est via

Flāminia?
Via Latina nōn tam longa The Via Latina is not as long as the est quam via Appia. Via Appia. (ll.10-11)
Tiberis fluvius nōn tam longus est quam fluvius Padus. (l.13)
Circum oppidum Tūsculum mūrus nōn tam longus est quam circum Rōmam. (ll.16-17)

Saccī quōs Syrus et Lēander portant magnī sunt, sed saccus quem Syrus portat nōn tam magnus est quam saccus Lēandri. (ll.27-29)

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Nouns: Constructions of Place with Names of Cities and Towns

## I. Accusative (place to which) and Ablative (place from which or separation)

Motion to or from a town mentioned by name is expressed by the name of the town in the accusative or ablative, respectively, without a preposition. In Latin, therefore, we speak of traveling Rōmā-Brundisium (from Rome to Brundisium), or, if going in the opposite direction, Brundisiō-Rōmam (from Brundisium to Rome).

The accusative shows the place toward which one moves:
Rōmamit.
He is going to Rome. (1.50)
Cornēlius nōn Rōmam, sed Tūsculum it. (1l.54-55)
It is the fundamental function of the ablative (with or without a preposition) to denote "place from which." In this function, it is called ablative of separation (ablātīvus means "taking away"):

Tūsculō venit. He is coming from Tusculum. (1.49)
Is nōn Tūsculō, sed Rōmā venit. (ll.53-54)
Otherwise, prepositions are used:
Iūlius ab oppidō ad villam suam it. (1.20)
Dominus et servī ab oppidō ad vīllam eunt. (1l.20-21)

## II. Locative Case (place in which)

To indicate where something or somebody is, the preposition in followed by the ablative is most often used:
in Italiā
in oppido
in hortō
The following examples show, however, that in is no more used with names of towns than $a d$ and $a b$ :

Cornēlius Tūsculī habitat. (1.59)
Mēdus Rōmae est. (1.47)
Instead of "in," the name takes the ending $-\bar{i}$ or -ae according to whether the nominative ends in $-u m /-u s$ or $-a$. This form is called locative (Latin locātīvus, from locus, "place"):

Ubi habitat Cornēlius? Is Tūscul̄̀ habitat.
Rōmam it, quia Lydia Rōmae habitat.

Where does Cornelius live? He lives in Tusculum. (ll.58-59)
He is going to Rome because Lydia lives in Rome. (ll.77-78)

Locative - $\overline{\text { In }}$, $-a e$
quō? Tūsculum Rōmam
unde? Tūsculō Rōmā
ubi? Tūsculī Rōmae

## Verbs: Passive Voice (vōx passīva)

All the verbs you have been using so far are in the active voice (the subject does the acting), e.g.:

Dāvus et Ursus portant Iūlium.
Syrus saccum portat. (1.25)
We can express the same idea differently using the passive voice (the subject receives the action):

Iūlius ab Ursō et Dāvō portātur. (1.62)
Saccus à Syrō portātur.
Saccī à Syrō portantur.
Puerī à puellà videntur.
Active Voice:

- Subject does the acting
- endings $-t$, $-n t$

Passive Voice:

- Subject acted upon
- endings -tur, -ntur
- The person or thing performing the action goes into the ablative (see next section)
In addition to the examples in the text and Grammatica Latina in Lingua Latīna, consider the following sentences from earlier chapters changed into the passive:
- 1st conjugation Puer parvam puellam pulsat (Cap. II, 1.29) $\rightarrow$ Parva puella ā puerō pulsātur.
- 2nd conjugation

Quīntus Mārcum videt (Cap. II, l.11) $\rightarrow$ Mārcus ā Quīntō vidētur.

- 3rd conjugation

Dāvus sacculum in mēnsā pōnit (Cap. IV, 1.61) $\rightarrow$ Sacculus ā Dāvō in mēnsā pōnitur.

- 4th conjugation

Puerī Iūliam audiunt (Cap. V, 1.56) $\rightarrow$ Iūlia ā puerīs audītur.

|  | active | passive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | vocalt | vocā\|tur |
|  | vocalnt | vocalntur |
| 2. | vide $\mid$ t | vidè\|tur |
|  | vide\|nt | vide\|ntur |
| 3. | pōn\|it | pōn\|itur |
|  | pōn\|unt | pōn\|untur |
| 4. | audi\|t | audì\|tur |
|  | audi\|unt | audi\|unt |

## Ablative Case (Agent and Means/Instrument)

Consider the following sentence:
Mārcus Iūliam pulsat. Marcus hits Julia.
If we make that sentence passive, we get:
Iūliá pulsātur $\underline{a}$ Mārcō. Julia is hit by Marcus.
In the second sentence, Marcus is no longer the grammatical subject, but he is still the actor, or agent, of the verb. In the passive voice, the name of the person by whom the action is performed, the agent, is in the ablative preceded by $a b$ or $\bar{a}$ ( $\underline{\bar{a}}$ Mārcō ). This construction is called the ablative of personal agent, that is, when the agent is a person, not a thing or an animal:

Iūlius ab Ursō et Dāvō portātur. Julius is (being) carried by Ursus and Davus. (1.62)
Saccī quī à Syrō et Lēandrō The bags which are being carried portantur magnī sunt. by Syrus and Leander are big. (11.65-66)

Dominus ā servō malō timētur. (ll.73-74)
Verba Mēdī à Lydiā laetā audiuntur. (1.95)
When the action is performed by something other than a person-an animal or an inanimate object-the source of the action is expressed by the simple ablative without the preposition $a b / \bar{a}$. The simple ablative here indicates means or cause. This construction, called the ablative of means (also ablative of instrument-Latin ablātīvus instrūmentī) is very common both in passive and active sentences: e.g.,

Cornēlius equō vehitur. Cornelius is being transported by a horse. (or, more idiomatically, "he is riding a horse") (11.68-69)
Iūlius lectīcō vehitur. Julius is being carried in a litter chair. (1.69)
Lȳdia verbīs Mēdī dēlectātur. Lydia is delighted by Medus's words. (1.91)
Dominus servum baculō verberat.
Servī saccōs umerīs portant.
Mēdus viā Latīnā Rōmam ambulat.
Sometimes, the agent/means is left unexpressed, e.g.:
Dominī vehuntur.
Masters are carried (or "travel"). (1.70)
In the sentence Mēdus Lydiam amat et ab eā amātur (ll.78-79), both active and passive are used.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        amīca,-ae female friend
        lectīca,-ae litter, sedan
        porta,-ae
        via, -ae
    2nd
        āctīvum, -ī (verbum) active
        amīcus,-\overline{1}}\mathrm{ friend
        equus, -\overline{1}}\mathrm{ horse
        inimícus, -i
        locātīvus (cāsus)
        mūrus, -i
        passīvum (verbum)
        saccus,-i
        umerus,-\overline{1}}\mathrm{ shoulder
    3rd (you will learn about this family of nouns later)
        praepositiō (f.) preposition
Verba
    -ā (1)
        ambulat, ambulant walk
        intrat, intrant enter
        portat, portant carry
    -è (2)
        timet, timent fear, be afraid (of)
```

consonant (3)
vehit, vehunt
Irregular it/eunt

Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) duodecim
fessus, -a, -um
longus, -a, -um
malus, -a, -um
Adverbia
ante
autem
itaque
nam
procul
quam
tam
Praepositiōnēs
$\overline{\mathbf{a}}(p r p .+a b l$.
ad (prp. $+a c c$.
ante (prp. + acc.)
apud (prp. + acc.)
circum (prp. + acc.)
inter (prp. + acc.)
per (prp. + acc.)
post (prp. + acc.)
procul ab (+abl.)
prope (prp. + acc.)
Vocābula Interrogātīva
quam?
quō?
unde?
carry, convey, ride, sail, travel
go
twelve
tired, weary
long
bad, wicked, evil
in front of, before
but, however
therefore
for
far (often combines with preposition $\mathbf{a b}$ )
how, as, than
so, as
from, of, since, by
to, toward, by, at, till
in front of, before
beside, near, by
around
between, among, during
through, by, during
behind, after, later
far from
near, nearly
how?
where (to)?
from where? whence?

## VII. Puella et Rosa

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Imperative of esse
b. salvē/salvēte
c. Compound Verbs
2. Nouns: Case Uses
a. Accusative Case: Prepositions
b. Genitive with plēnus
c. Dative Case
i. Dative Case is, ea, id
ii. Dative Case: Interrogative and Relative Pronoun
iii. Dative with Compound Verbs
d. Ablative: Preposition ex/ $\bar{e}+$ the Ablative Case
3. Pronouns
a. Reflexive Pronoun
b. Demonstrative Pronouns: hic, haec, hoc
4. Adverbs: Interrogative num and nōnne
5. Point of Style: et...et/neque...neque/nōn sōlum...sed etiam

## Julius Returns, with Gifts

Syra comforts a weeping Julia, who is concerned about the appearance of her nose. When Julius comes back from town, he usually brings something with him for the family, so in this chapter, you find out what is in the two sacks that Syrus and Leander have been carrying.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Reflexive Pronoun

The examples Puella sē in speculō videt et sē interrogat (ll.8-9) show that the pronoun $s \bar{e}$ (acc.) is used when referring to the subject in the same sentence; $s \bar{e}$ is called the reflexive pronoun (English "himself/herself/themselves"). Reflexive means it "bends back" toward the subject.

Puella sē in speculō videt et sē interrogat.
The girl sees herself in the mirror and asks herself. (ll.8-9)
Puella Syram in speculō videt et eam interrogat.
The girl sees Syra in the mirror and asks her (Syra).
Iūlia Syram post sē in speculō videt, i.e. post Iūliam. (1.15)

## When to use what:

When the pronoun refers back to the subject of the sentence:

- use the reflexive $s \bar{e}$ (acc.): himself/herself/themselves

When the pronoun refers to a person or thing other than the subject of the sentence:

- use the personal pronoun eum/eam/eōs/eās: him/her/them


## Recēnsiō: sē vs. suus, -a, -um

Se is a pronoun and takes the place of a noun that refers back to the (3rd person) subject of the sentence.

Iūlia Syram post sē in speculō videt. (1.15) = Iūlia Syram post Iūliam in speculō videt.

Suus, $-a,-u m$ is a possessive adjective and modifies a noun that belongs to the (3rd person) subject of the sentence.

Aemilia virum suum amat. (1.4) = Aemilia virum Aemiliae amat.

## Accusative Case: Prepositions

Compare the sentences:
Iūlius in vīllä est.
Iūlius in villam intrat.
In the first sentence, in takes the ablative ( $v \bar{i} l l \underline{\underline{a}}$ ), as we have seen often; in the second, it is followed by the accusative (villam). The examples show that in takes the accusative when there is motion into a place. Therefore we read:

Syra in cubiculum intrat. (1.14)
"Venī in hortum, Iūlia!" (1.17)
Place where:
ubi? in + ablative
in vīllā, in hortō, in cubiculō
Place to which:
$q u \bar{o}$ ? in + accusative
in villam, in hortum, in cubiculum

## Interrogative num and nōnne

A question introduced with num calls for a negative answer; therefore, Julia asks, "Num nāsus meus foedus est?" (1.20). The num shows she wants a "no!" answer. The opposite effect is obtained by nōnne: when Syra asks, "Nōnne fōrmōsus est nāsus meus?" (1.26), she certainly expects the answer to be "yes." Nevertheless, Julia says, "Immō foedus est!" The word immō serves to stress a denial (English "no," "on the contrary").

```
question:
nōnne...est?
num...est? ...nōn est
expected answer:
...est
```


## Verbs: Imperative of the Verb esse

The imperative of est is es! (i.e., the stem without an ending; plural este!):
"Tergē oculōs! Es laeta!" (1.23)
Este bonī (be good!)

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Preposition Ex/ $\bar{e}+$ the Ablative Case

The example Iūlia $\underline{e}$ cubiculō exit shows the shorter form $\bar{e}$ of the preposition $e x$. The same rule applies to the use of $e x$ and $\bar{e}$ as to $a b$ and $\bar{a}$ :

- before vowels and $h$-, only ex and $a b$ are used
- $\bar{e}$ and $\bar{a}$ are only used before consonants, never before vowels or $h$ -
- ex and $a b$ can also be used before consonants

Examples with ex and $\bar{e}$ :

- èlex vīllā (before a consonant, use either $\bar{e}$ or $e x$ )
- ex $\underline{a} t r i \bar{o}$ (before a vowel, use only ex)
- ex hortō (before an "h," use only ex)


## Dative Case (cāsus datīvus)

## I. Nouns

When we are told that Julius gives something to a member of the family, the name of this person ends in -ō (Mārcō, Qū̄ntō, Syrō, Lēandrō$)$ or in -ae (Aemiliae, Iūliae, Syrae, Dēliae). This form, ending in -ō in the masculine (and neuter) and in -ae in the feminine, is called dative (Latin datīvus, from dat, "gives"):

Iūlius Syrō et Lēandrō māla dat.

In the plural, the dative ends in - $\bar{i} s$ like the ablative:
Iūlius servīs māla dat.
Iūlius ancillī̄s māla dat.

| dative | $\mathrm{m} . / \mathrm{n}$. | f. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sing. | $-\bar{o}$ | $-a e$ |
| pl. | $-\bar{l} s$ | $-\bar{s} s$ |

## Summary of 1st and 2nd Declension Endings

|  | m. sing. | m. pl. | f. sing. | f. pl. | n. sing. | n. pl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nom. | -us | $-\bar{\imath}$ | -a | -ae | -um | -a |
| acc. | -um | -ōs | -am | -ās | -um | -a |
| gen. | -ī | -ōrum | -ae | -ārum | -ī | -ōrum |
| dat. | -ō | -is | -ae | -is | -ō | -is |
| abl. | -ō | -is | $-\bar{a}$ | -is | -ō | -ı̄s |
| voc. | -e |  |  |  |  |  |

## II. is, ea, id

The dative of the pronoun is, ea, id is $e \bar{\imath}$ in the singular:
Iūlius $\underline{e \bar{u}}$ (: Quīntō/Iūliąe) mālum dat.
In the plural, the dative of the pronoun is, ea, id is $i \bar{\imath} s$ (or $e \bar{s} s$ ):

The forms are the same for all three genders.
Summary of is, ea, id and Reflexive Pronoun sē

|  | sing. <br> m. | f. | n. | pl.m. | reflexive |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  |  |  |  | f. | n . | pronoun |
| nom. | $i \mid s$ | $e \mid a$ | i\|d | $i \mid \bar{i}$ | e\|ae | e ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |
| acc. | e\|um | elam | i\|d | $e \mid \bar{o} s$ | $e \mid \bar{a} s$ | e\|a | $s \bar{e}$ |
| gen. | elius | elius | e\|ius | e\|ōrum | e\|ārum | e\|ōrum | (Cap. X) |
| dat. | $e \mid \bar{\imath}$ | $e \mid i ̄$ | $e e_{i}$ | $i \mid \bar{i} s$ | $i \mid \bar{\imath}$ s | $i \mid i \bar{s}$ | sibi |
| abl. | $e \mid \bar{o}$ | $e \mid \bar{a}$ | $e \mid \bar{o}$ | $i \mid i \bar{s}$ | $i \mid \bar{i} s$ | $i \mid i \bar{s}$ | $s \bar{e}$ |

## Salvē/Salvēte

The greeting Salvē! expresses a wish for good health. It was understood as an imperative, so it has a plural form in -te: "Salvēte, filiī!" (1.31)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { sing. } & \text { salvē! } \\
\text { pl. } & \text { salvē|te! }
\end{array}
$$

## Demonstrative Pronouns: hic, haec, hoc

Referring to things close to him, Julius says, e.g., hic saccus (1.43) and hoc mālum (11.90-91), and Julia says haec rosa of the flower that she is holding (1.85). The demonstrative (or pointing) pronoun hic, haec, hoc (English "this") is treated in Cap. VIII.

## Plēnus + the Genitive Case

Note the genitive after plēnus ("full of..."):
Hic saccus plēnus mālōrum est. (11.43-44)
Ocul̄̀ Iūliae plēn̄̄ sunt lacrimārum. (1.79)
plēnus + gen.

## Verbs: Compound Verbs

Compound verbs often have prepositions as their first element, like ad-est and $\underline{a b}$-est. In this chapter, you find in-est, $\underline{a d}$-venit, $\underline{a d}-i t, \underline{e x}-i t$, and in the next, $\underline{a b}-i t$. Often, the same preposition is put before a noun in the same sentence:

Quid inest in saccīs? (1.39)
Iūlius ad villam advenit. (1.30)
Iūlia ē cubiculō exit. (ll.82-83)
compounds with prepositions:
$a d-, a b-, e x-$, in-

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Dative Case (continued): Interrogative and Relative Pronoun

The dative (sing.) of the interrogative and relative pronoun is cui (see ll.101104):

Cui Iūlius mālum dat? (l.101)
Puer/puella cui Iūlius mālum dat est fïlius/fîlia eius. (ll.101-102) The genitive of the interrogative and relative will be met in Cap. VIII.

Point of Style: et...et/neque....neque/nōn sōlum...sed etiam
Note the repetition of the conjunctions et and neque (ll.50, 57):
et Mārcus et Quīntus māla habent. English "both...and"
Servī neque māla neque pira habent. English "neither...nor"

Instead of et...et, we often find nōn sōlum...sed etiam:
nōn sōlum māla, sed etiam pira. (1.56) English "not only...but also"
et...et
neque...neque
nōn sōlum...sed etiam

## Recēnsiō: Interrogative Words

| Quis? Quid? | Who? What? |
| :--- | :--- |
| Ubi? | Where? In what place? |
| Quot? | How many? |
| Cūr? | Why? |
| Unde? | Whence? From what place? |
| Quō? | Where? To what place? |
| -ne? | Asks a question with no expectations. |
| Nōnne? | Expects a "yes" answer. |
| Num? | Expects a "no" answer. |

## Studia Rōmāna

While her brothers attend school (Caps. XIV, XV, XVII, XVIII), Julia remains at home; she is too young for school. Not all girls were educated outside the home, but there is evidence that some girls were-even in the early years of Rome's history (Livy, 3.44).

The amount of education girls received varied greatly. For some girls, education consisted of learning the domestic duties involved in managing a household. Others were clearly well educated and even wrote poetry. Although we have poems remaining only from two women poets (both named Sulpicia), the poets Propertius, Tibullus, and Catullus (all first century BC) refer to women in their poetry as docta (learned), a word that suggests they wrote verse. A famous portrait from Pompeii shows a young woman holding a stylus and a tabula, pondering her next words. Clearly her family wanted to publicize her education.

Young girls from prominent families participated in festivals, particularly in the chorus (Catullus 34, "Hymn to Diana"; Horace, Carmen Saeculāre). There were priesthoods open to women, most exalted of which were the six Vestal Virgins; a daughter of a patrician father could become one of the two young girls (aged six to ten) who became apprentices to the service of Vesta. Just as Vesta protected the home (see Cap. IV) she was also the guardian of Rome's sacred fire.

Her parents' aspirations for Julia are to be a wife and mother. The age of marriage varied, and while some girls were married very young, not all were. A law that Roman girls could not be married before the age of twelve tells us
just how young! A girl required a dowry (dōs), money that a family gave to her husband or his family when they were married. If the couple were divorced or if the wife died, the dowry had to be returned.

Girls were expected to be chaste and mōrigera (compliant to her father and later to her husband). The Younger Pliny (Plinius Secundus, first century AD) gives us a portrait of ideal young womanhood in a letter he wrote about the death of the young daughter of a friend (Epist.5.16). She was only thirteen and about to be married. Pliny praises her effusively as a bright young woman, an eager reader with a joyful and lovable personality. She combined the virtues of all ages in one: the wisdom of an old woman (anīlis prūdentia), the seriousness of character of a married woman (gravitās mātrōnālis), the charm of a young girl and virginal modesty (suāvitās puellāris cum virginālī verēcundiā). She bore her illness with restraint (temperantia), patient endurance (patientia), and self-possession (cōnstantia).

Pliny's letter is not an isolated example. When his daughter Tullia died in childbirth, Cicero was distraught and wrote many letters trying to come to terms with his feelings. During the time of our narrative, letters between the emperor Marcus Aurelius (AD 121-180) and his friend Mārcus Cornēlius Frontō (c. AD 95-c. 166) contain many references to their love of their children, girls as well as boys. We know from inscriptions (particularly epitaphs), from images on tomb markers as well as from literary representations, that girls were much loved.

Salutations and valedictions in Latin: in this chapter, you learned to say "hello" to one person (salvē) and to more than one (salvēte). Romans even today say, "Salve!" as an informal greeting. You can also say, Quid novī est? or just Quid novī?, which means, "What's new?" When leaving, you can say, Valē or Valēte ("Be well! Fare well!," Cap. XIV).

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
    lacrima,-ae tear
2nd
    datīvus, -\overline{1}}\mathrm{ (cāsus) dative
    mālum, -\overline{\mathbf{1}}
    oculus, -\overline{1}}\mathrm{ eye
    ōsculum,-\overline{1}}\mathrm{ kiss
    ōstiārius, -\overline{1}}\mathrm{ doorkeeper
    pirum, -\overline{1}
    speculum, -\overline{1}
pear
mirror
```

```
Verba
    -ā (1)
        dat, dant
        exspectat, exspectant
        lacrimat
    -ē (2)
        tenet, tenent
        terget, tergent
    consonant (3)
        claudit, claudunt
        currit, currunt
        vertit, vertunt
    -ī (4)
        advenit, adveniunt
        aperit, aperiunt
    Irregular
        adit, adeunt
        exit, exeunt
        inest, insunt
Adiectīva
    1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
        fōrmōsus, -a,-um
        plēnus, -a, -um (+ gen./abl.)
        beautiful
    full (of)
Prōnōmina
    hic, haec, hoc
    this
    sē, sibi
Adverbia
        immō
        illīc
        nōn sōlum...sed etiam
Coniūnctiōnēs
    et...et
    neque...neque
Praepositiōnēs
    \overline{\mathbf{e}}}(prp.+abl.) out of, from, of, since
Vocābula Interrogātīva
        nōnne?
not?
```

[^9]
## VIII. Taberna Rōmāna

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. 3rd Conjugation "i-stems"
2. Nouns
a. Case Uses
i. Ablative of Price (ablātīvus pretiī)
ii. Ablative of Means/Instrument (ablātīvus insstrūmentī) (continued)
iii. Dative (continued): Indirect Object
3. Adjectives
a. Interrogative Adjective
b. Pronoun vs. Interrogative Adjective
c. Correlatives: tantus/quantus
4. Pronouns
a. Relative Pronoun without an Antecedent
b. Demonstratives hic, haec, hoc/ille, illa, illud
5. Adverbs
a. quam
6. Points of Style: convenit

## Daily Life: Shopping

In the ancient world, people did their shopping over open counters lining the streets. Passers-by could simply stand on the pavement in front of a shop and buy what they wanted. We can be sure that the shopkeepers gave their customers every encouragement.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Pronouns

In this chapter, we pay particular attention to some important pronouns:

- the interrogative pronoun: quis, quae, quid (introduced in Cap. II)
- the relative pronoun: quī, quae, quod (introduced in Cap. III)
- the demonstrative pronouns
is, ea, id (introduced in Cap. III)
hic, haec, hoc (introduced in Cap. VII)
ille, illa, illud


## Relative Pronoun without an Antecedent ( $Q u \bar{i}=I s q u \bar{i})$

Instead of saying "he who, etc." or "whoever," Latin sometimes has just "who," e.g.:

Quī tabernam habet, tabernārius est $=$ is quī...
Whoever has a shop is a shopkeeper. (ll.3-4)
Quī magnam pecūniam habent ōrnāmenta emunt = Iī quī...
Those who have a lot of money buy jewelry. (ll.16-17)
Quae nūllam aut parvam pecūniam habent ōrnāmenta aspiciunt tantum, nōn emunt. (ll.14-15)

Pecūniōsus est qū̄ magnam pecūniam habet. (1.35)
When the relative pronoun is used without an antecedent, a demonstrative pronoun may be understood, that is, quī can equal is quì.

## Demonstrative Pronouns

The demonstrative pronoun hic, haec, hoc points to something that is near the speaker (compare the adverb hic, "here") and represents the English "this." In the first reading, we meet only the feminine singular, nominative, accusative/ ablative:
haec taberna? (1.2)
in hāc viā (l.11)
ad hanc tabernam (1.16)

## Ablative of Means/Instrument (ablātīvus instrūmentī) (continued)

You learned the ablative of means or instrument in Cap. VI (in conjunction with the passive voice). Here are more examples of the ablative of instrument (without prepositions):

Fēminae ōrnāmentīs dēlectantur.

Gemmīㅢ et margaritīis ānulīsque ōrnantur.
Lydia tabernam Albīn̄̄ digitō mōnstrat.

Women are delighted by adornments. (ll.12-13)
They are adorned by jewels and pearls and rings. (1.24)
Lydia points to the store of Albinus with her finger. (1.43)

## Interrogative Adjective

In Cap. II, you learned the interrogative pronoun, which asks the question "who, what?" The interrogative adjective is used before nouns:
quī servus?
quae ancilla?
quod oppidum?
Quī vir et quae fēmina? (1.26)
Quod ōrnāmentum? (11.30-31)
what/which slave?
what/which slave-woman?
what/which town?

Not $\bar{a}$ Bene: The interrogative pronoun looks the same as the interrogative adjective (and relative pronoun) except in the nominative masculine and neuter singular:
quis, quid nominative $\mathrm{m} . / \mathrm{n}$. singular interrogative pronoun $q u \bar{i}, q u o d \quad$ nominative $\mathrm{m} . / \mathrm{n}$. singular interrogative adjective

## Recēnsiō: Interrogative Pronoun vs. Interrogative Adjective

Quis clāmat?
Qū̄ puer clāmat?
Quae ōrnāmentum accipit?
Quae fēmina ōrnāmentum accipit?
Quid $v \bar{e} n d i t ~ t a b e r n a ̄ r i u s ? ~$
Quod ōrnāmentum vēndit tabernārius?

Who is shouting? (pronoun)
What boy is shouting? (adjective)
Who receives the jewelry? (pronoun)
What woman receives the jewelry? (adjective)
What does the shopkeeper sell? (pronoun)
What piece of jewelry does the shopkeeper sell? (adjective)

## Notā Bene:

- You will sometimes find quis (i.e., the form of the interrogative pronoun) used instead of $q u \bar{\imath}$ (the form of the interrogative adjective) before a noun (especially a name) in questions of identity: Quis servus? Mēdus.
- While we here use quae for the nominative feminine singular of the interrogative pronoun, when you read ancient authors, you will usually find quis used for both masculine and feminine.


## 3rd Conjugation "i-stems"

So far you have learned verbs with stems ending in a long vowel ( $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \overline{\mathrm{e}}, \overline{\mathrm{i}}$, ) or a consonant. The final group of verbs has a stem ending in a short $\mathfrak{1}$ and is
grouped with the 3rd conjugation. In this chapter, we see the verbs accipit and aspicit, which have plural forms in -iunt:

Stem: accipi-; accipit; accipiunt
Stem: aspici-; aspicit; aspiciunt
The short 1 appears only before an ending beginning with a vowel, such as -unt: accipiunt, aspiciunt; otherwise, these verbs behave like consonant-verbs and are regarded as belonging to the 3rd conjugation.

The imperatives of "i-stems" (introduced in Section II of Lingua Latina) in -e, -ite are just like consonant stems:
accipe! accipite!
aspice! aspicite!
You will learn more about i-stem verbs in Cap. XII. When you have learned all the forms of the verb, it will be easy to distinguish the consonant and i-stems of the 3rd conjugation. Until then, they will be listed separately in the vocabulary.

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Demonstrative Pronouns

In this reading, we meet more forms of hic, haec, hoc:

| hae margarītae (1.49) | hic ānulus (1.69) |
| :--- | :--- |
| hī ānul̄̄ (l.53) | hunc ānulum (1.76) |
| in hīs ānulīs (1.55) | huius (ānulī) (1.75) |

We are also introduced to the demonstrative ille, illa, illud, which refers to something that is further away from the speaker and is represented by the English "that":
illam tabernam (1.41) illum (ānulum) (1.76)
illa ōrnāmenta (1.42) illīus ānulī (1.75)
ille ānulus (1.70)
Like hic, haec, hoc and ille, $-a,-u d$, most pronouns have the endings $-i \bar{u} s$ in the genitive and $-\bar{i}$ in the dative in all three genders (but the $i$ is short or consonantal in eíus, cuíus, huíus, cui, huicc).

The neuter ending -ud in illud is also found in alius, $-a,-\underline{u d}(1.33)$ and is like the -od in quod.

See the paradigms for hic haec hoc, ille illa illud, and is ea id in the recēnsiō at the end of the chapter.

## Correlatives: tantus/quantus

In Cap. VI, you learned the correlatives tam...quam (as...as). When talking about size, the adjectives tantus and quantus are used (instead of tam magnus and quam magnus). So, tantus...quantus stands for tam magnus quam. Tantus...quantus ("as big as") are correlative adjectives, as tam...quam are correlative adverbs (1.75). As adjectives, they agree with the nouns they modify; as correlatives, they respond to one another:

Digitus quārtus nōn tantus est The fourth finger is not as big as quantus digitus medius.
Pretium illīus ānulī tantum est quantum huius. the middle finger. (ll.126-128) The price of that ring is as great as that of this one. (1.75)
Tantus and quantus can also be used alone:
Tanta gemma sōla octōgintā Such a large gem alone costs 80
sēstertī̄s cōnstat.
Quantum est pretium illius ānulī?
sesterces. (ll.64-65)

How much is the price of that ring? (ll.72-73)

Remember, you have already learned (in Cap. IV) tantum as an adverb meaning "only."

Quae nūllam aut parvam Those (women) who have no or pecūniam habent ōrnāmenta little money only look at jewelry, aspiciunt tantum, nōn emunt. they don't buy. (ll.14-19)

## Quam

Quam is also used in exclamations and means "how":
"Ō, quam pulchra sunt illa Oh, how beautiful those
ōrnāmenta!"
ornaments are! (ll.41-42)

## Recēnsiō: Quam

- relative pronoun: feminine accusative singular Puella quam Aemilia videt est Iūlia.
- interrogative pronoun: feminine accusative singular Quam videt Aemilia?
- interrogative adjective: feminine accusative singular Quam puellam videt Aemilia?
- adverb correlating with tam (= as)

Estne via Latīna tam longa quam Via Aurelia?

- adverb in questions and exclamations (= how) Quam pulchra est vīlla Iūlī̄!


## Ablative of Price (ablātīvus pretī)

With the verbs emit, vēndit, and cōnstat (verbs of buying and selling, etc.), the price is in the ablative, called ablātīvus pretī̄ ("ablative of price"). Examples:

Hic ānulus centum nummins This ring costs 100 coins. (1.59) cōnstat.


## Dative (continued)

In the last example, Mēdō is dative with vēndit. The dative now occurs also with ostendit (ll.46, 52, 58, 83) and mōnstrat (l.130). Being transitive, these verbs have an object in the accusative, which is often called the direct object to distinguish it from the dative, which is called the indirect object. Examples:

Albīnus Lȳdiae margarītās ostendit.
Albinus shows Lydia the pearls. (ll.46-47)

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Shows what? } & \text { pearls, accusative direct object } \\
\text { Shows to whom? } & \text { Lydia, dative indirect object }
\end{array}
$$

Albīnus ī̄s trēs ānulōs ostendit.
Albinus shows them three rings. (1.52)
Shows what? three rings, accusative direct object
Shows to whom? them, dative indirect object
Lỳdia, quae Rōmae habitat, Mēdō viam mōnstrat.
Lydia, who lives in Rome, points out the road to Medus. (ll.129-130)
Shows what? road, accusative direct object
Shows to whom? Medus, dative indirect object

## Points of Style: Convenit

Latin is not English. While we all know this, it presents one of the biggest obstacles to understanding the language, especially if you try to put a Latin thought into English! The use of convenit in the following examples illustrates important principles to bear in mind. Consider the following two sentences:

Tanta gemma ad tam parvum Such a big gem does not suit ānulum nōn convenit.
Hic ānulus ad digitum tuum nōn convenit. such a small ring. (l.81) This ring does not fit your finger. (l.121)

Note that:

1. The syntax of the two languages works differently. In English, both "suit" and "fit" are transitive verbs and take a direct object. In Latin, convenit is intransitive and (here) is followed by ad + the accusative.
2. The same word often needs to be translated by different English words in different contexts. The concept, if kept in Latin, is perfectly clear: one thing does not "come together well" (convenit) with something else ( $a d+$ accusative). In English, however, we say, "a gem does not suit a ring" rather than "does not come together with." In the second sentence, however, we are more likely to use "fit" for convenit.
You will find that you can often understand the Latin more fluently if you don't translate, but understand the concept behind the vocabulary and apply that concept to its context. When moving between the two languages, remember to be flexible in your vocabulary and to let go of the expectation that other languages "should" act like English.

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Demonstrative Pronouns

In the final reading, we continue to see more forms of the demonstratives hic and ille:

| huic tabernāriō (1.97) | haec ōrnāmenta (1.105) |
| :--- | :--- |
| illī tabernārī̄ (l.100) | hōs ānulōs (1.105) |
| illae viae (l.102) | hās gemmās (l.105) |
| in illīs tabernīs (ll.103-104) | hōrum ōrnāmentōrum (1.107) |

Notā Bene: As you can see, with a few exceptions, their declension is already familiar to you. The stem of hic, haec, hoc is just $h$-, cf. the plural hī hae, $h \bar{s} s h \bar{a} s, h \bar{o} r u m ~ h a ̄ r u m, ~ h \bar{\imath} s$, but in the singular (and in n. pl. nom./acc.), a $-c$ is added. Again, full paradigms are below in the recensiō and in the Grammatica Latina in Lingua Latina.

In the Grammatica Latina, you will find that not only ille, $-a$, $-u d$ but also is, ea, id are used as adjectives. Is, ea, id can be used as a weaker form of hic (English "this") or ille (English "that"):
is servus ea ancilla id ōrnāmentum

## Pronouns Multiplied (examples)

Note the use of both the interrogative and relative pronouns in the same sentence in the following examples:

Quae sunt illae viae in quibus Which (interrogative) are those illae tabernae sunt? roads in which (relative) there are those shops? (ll.102-104)
Et quae sunt illa ōrnāmenta quae in illīs tabernīs parvō pretiō emuntur?

And which (interrogative) are those jewels which (relative) are sold for such a small price in those shops? (ll.103-104)

## Recēnsiō: Pronouns

Personal: takes the place of a noun

$$
i s, e a, i d
$$

|  | sing. <br> m. | pl. |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | f. | n. | m. | f. | n. |
| nom. | $i \mid s$ | $e \mid a$ | i\|d | $i \mid i \bar{i}$ | e\|ae | $e \mid a$ |
| acc. | e\|um | elam | i\|d | $e \mid \bar{s} s$ | $e \mid \bar{a} s$ | e\|a |
| gen. | elius | elius | e\|ius | e\|ōrum | e\|ārum | e\|ōrum |
| dat. | $e e^{i}$ | e\|ī | $e e^{i}$ | $i \mid i \bar{s}$ | $i \mid \bar{i} s$ | i\|īs |
| abl. | $e \mid \bar{o}$ | $e \mid \bar{a}$ | $e \mid \bar{o}$ | $i \mid \overline{i s}$ | $i \mid \bar{i} s$ | $i \mid \bar{i} s$ |

Demonstrative: points out as closer (hic, haec, hoc) or further away (ille, illa, illud)

Hic, haec, hoc

|  | sing. <br> m. | f. | n. | $\begin{aligned} & \text { pl. } \\ & \text { m. } \end{aligned}$ | f. | n. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nom. | hic | Haec | hoc | $h \bar{\imath}$ | hae | haec |
| acc. | hunc | Hanc | hoc | hōs | $h a ̄ s$ | haec |
| gen. | huius | huius | huius | hōrum | hārum | hōrum |
| dat. | huic | Huic | huic | his | hīs | hīs |
| abl. | hōc | Hāc | $h o ̄ c$ | $h \bar{s} s$ | $h \bar{s}$ | $h \bar{s} s$ |

Ille, illa, illud

| nom. | ill\|e | ill $\mid a$ | ill\|ud | ill\| $\overline{1}$ | ill\|ae | ill\|a |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ac | ill\|um | ill\|am | ill\|ud | ill\|ōs | ill\| $\bar{a} s$ | ill\|a |
| gen. | ill\|īus | ill\|ìus | ill\|īus | ill\|ōrum | ill\|ārum | ill\|ōrum |
| dat. |  | ill ${ }_{i}$ ī | ill ${ }_{i}$ | illlīs | illlìs | illlìs |
| abl. | ill\|ō | ill\| $\bar{a}$ | $i l l \mid \bar{o}$ | ill\|is | ${ }_{\text {ill }}$ İs | ill\|is |

Interrogative: Asks a question (quis/quid: interrogative pronoun; qui/quod: interrogative adjective; all other forms the same)

Quis, quid

|  | sing. <br> m. | f. | n. | pl. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| m. | f. | n. |  |  |  |  |
| nom. | quis/quī | quae | quid/quod | qū̄ | quae | quae |
| acc. | quem | quam | quid/quod | quōs | quās | quae |
| gen. | cuius | cuius | cuius | quōrum | quārum | quōrum |
| dat. | cui | cui | cui | quibus | quibus | quibus |
| abl. | quō | quā | quō | quibus | quibus | quibus |

Relative: Connects a dependent clause to a sentence
Qui, quae, quod

|  | sing. | pl. |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | m. | $\mathrm{f}$. | n. | m. | f. | n. |
| nom. | quī | quae | quod | qū̄ | quae | quae |
| acc. | quem | quam | quod | quōs | quās | quae |
| gen. | cuius | cuius | cuius | quōrum | quārum | quōrum |
| dat. | cui | cui | cui | quibus | quibus | quibus |
| abl. | quō | quā | quō | quibus | quibus | quibus |

## Studia Rōmāna

The pictures of Lydia and Medus shopping reproduce a storefront scene commonly found at Pompeii, Herculaneum, and Ostia, our best sources of town architecture. Pompeii and nearby Herculaneum, at the foot of Mt. Vesuvius (and near to Puteoli on the map on p .40 ), were destroyed by the volcanic eruption of 79 AD. Because they were buried for centuries by volcanic ash (Pompeii) and lava (Herculaneum), much remains that gives us a great deal of information about Roman towns in the first century AD. There are also extensive remains from Ostia, the port of Rome (map, p. 40), which was at its peak at the time of our narrative. Many shops such as the one seen in the drawings on pages 54 and 55 are found there. Shops can often be found flanking the entranceways to Roman townhouses and apartment blocks (called insulae). The shopkeeper and his family lived above the shop in the small quarters on the second floor.

Some shops sold prepared food and drinks over counters accessible both from the street and from the inside (which often had eating areas as well). The counters can be equipped with large built-in jars for storing foodstuffs or jars of wine (dōlia, ōrum). Behind the counter, there are often built-in shelves. We find a variety of names for food shops: thermopōlium (a Greek word, "cook shop," found in the comic writer Plautus), taberna, popinna, caupōna (which
was an inn that offered food). There were also a lot of bakeries (pistrinae), often where they not only baked bread, but milled flour as well. Just as at a home, painted larāria adorn many walls.

We also see the couple walking on a kind of sidewalk, called crepīdinēs after crepida (from the Greek word for a sandal, the same as the Latin solea). These raised projections helped keep pedestrians away from the traffic (and filth!) of the streets. Another boon to pedestrians were raised stepping-stones that made a kind of ancient crosswalk. In this way, pedestrians were protected from the water that overflowed from the many fountains that provided water to the citizens (only the wealthy had running water in their homes), as well as from the refuse of daily life that found its way into the gutters.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        gemma,-ae precious stone, jewel
        līnea, -ae
        margarīta, -ae
        taberna,-ae
    2nd
        ānulus, -i
        collum, -\overline{1}
        digitus, -i
        ōrnāmentum, -\overline{1}
        pretium, -\overline{1}
        sēstertius, -i
        tabernārius, -\overline{1}
    3rd
        prōnōmen, prōnōminis (n.)
Verba
    -ā(1)
        clāmat, clāmant
        cōnstat, cōnstant
        mōnstrat, mōnstrant
        ornat, ornant
    consonant (3)
        cōnsistit, cōnsistunt
        emit, emunt
        ostendit, ostendunt
        vēndit, vēndunt
    1̌-stem (3)
        aspicit, aspiciunt
        accipit, accipiunt
        string, line
        pearl
        shop, stall
    ring
    neck
    finger
    ornament, piece of jewelry
    price, value
    sesterce (coin)
    shopkeeper
pronoun
shout
cost, stand firm
point out, show
equip, adorn
stop, halt
buy
show
sell
look at, look
receive
```

```
-i (4)
    convenit, conveniunt come together, meet, suit
Irregular
    abit, abeunt go away
Adiectīva
    1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
    alius, alia, aliud another, other
    gemmātus, -a, -um set with a jewel
    medius, -a, -um mid, middle
    pecūniōsus,-a,-um wealthy
    quantus, -a, -um how large, (as large) as
    quārtus,-a, -um
    tantus,-a,-um
fourth
so big, so great
Numerī (indeclinable unless otherwise noted)
```

nōnāgintā
octōgintā
vīgintī
Prōnōmina
ille, illa, illud
Adverbia
nimis
satis
Coniūnctiōnēs
aut
ninety
eighty
twenty
that, the one, he
too, too much
enough

```
or
```


## IX. Pāstor et Ovēs

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. ēst/edunt
b. dūc/dūcite
c. Assimilation
2. Nouns: 3rd Declension (Consonant and $i$-Stem)
a. Declensions
b. Gender
c. 3rd Declension
d. Case Uses
i. Prepositions suprā and sub
3. Pronouns: ipse, ipsa, ipsum
4. Conjunction: dum

## The Italian Landscape

We leave the family at the villa for a while and join a shepherd and his dog guarding sheep.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

Third Declension Nouns
By studying the landscape above the chapter, you will learn a great many new Latin nouns. In the words campus, herba, rīvus, umbra, silva, and caelum, you see the familiar endings $-u s,-a$, and $-u m$. The remaining words, collis, pāstor, canis, mōns, sōl, etc., have quite different endings, not only in the nominative, but also in the other cases.

Words declined (i.e., inflected) in this way are said to belong to the 3rd declension (Latin dēclīnātiō tertia), whereas the 1st declension (dēclīnātiō prīma) comprises words in -a (like fēmina), and the 2nd declension (dēclīnātiō secunda) words in -us and -um (like servus and oppidum).

In the Grammatica Latina section of Lingua Latina, you will find examples of these three declensions. Take advantage of this opportunity to review the case-forms of insula (1st declension) and servus and verbum (2nd declension), and then study the new 3rd declension (examples: pāstor and ovis).

The nominative singular of 3rd declension nouns varies. In this chapter, you meet 3rd declension nouns whose nominative singular have either:

- no ending
pāstor
sōl
arbor
- or end in -is
ovís pānig
canis collis
- or end in -ēs $n u ̄ b \underline{e} s$
- or end in just -s mōns dē $n \mathrm{~s}$
$\triangleright$ This final -s causes changes in the stem, which can be seen in the genitive singular, e.g.:
o When the stem (genitive singular) of mōns and dēns ends in - $t$ (mont $\mid$ is, dent $\mid$ is)
o When $-s$ is added to a stem ending in $-t$, the $-t$ drops and the vowel lengthens (mont $\mid s$ and dent $\mid s \rightarrow$ mōns, dēns)
We can see from the example of mōns and dēns that the nominative of a 3 rd declension word might look quite different from the rest of the cases. The endings of the other cases, however, are regular:
- in the singular they have the following endings:
-em in the accusative
-is in the genitive
$-\bar{i}$ in the dative
$-e$ in the ablative
- in the plural they have the following endings:
$-\bar{e} s$ in the nominative and accusative
-um or -ium in the genitive
-ibus in the dative and ablative
Or, schematically:
sing. pl.
nom. -/-(e/i)s -ès
acc. -em -ēs
gen. -is -(i)um
dat. -ì -ibus
abl. -e -ibus

Not $\bar{a}$ Bene: There are two possible endings to the genitive plural (-um and-ium) because there are two different kinds of 3rd declension nouns: consonant-stems (ending in -um in the genitive plural) and $\mathbf{i}$-stems (ending in -ium in the genitive plural). The two types differ only in the genitive plural.

Consonant-Stems

- nouns with no ending in the nominative, e.g., pāstor, have -um in the genitive plural (and others to be learned later)
I-Stems
- m./f. nouns of two syllables ending in -is, -es:
$\triangleright$ nūbēs, nūbis (gen.pl: nūbium)
$\triangleright$ ovis, ovis (gen.pl.: ovium)
$\triangleright$ canis, canis is an exception to this rule; the gen.pl. is canum
some m./f. nouns in -s
- nouns in -ns:
$\triangleright$ mōns, montis (gen.pl.: montium)
$\triangleright$ dēns, dentis (gen.pl.: dentium)
Examples of all these endings are shown with the nouns ovis and pāstor (11.3-7, 11-18).


## Gender

The 3rd declension nouns in this chapter are masculine or feminine, but since the endings are the same for the two genders, you cannot determine the gender of such nouns until they are combined with adjectives of the 1st and 2nd declensions (like magnus, $-a,-$ um) or until they appear with pronouns (e.g., hic pāstor). By looking at the noun/adjective combinations below, you can determine the gender of each noun:

| pāstor fessus | ovis alba |
| :--- | :--- |
| parvus collis | magna vallis |
| magnus mōns | multae arborēs |

From the above, you can see that pāstor, collis, and mōns are masculine and that ovis, vallis, and arbor are feminine.

## Ēst/edunt

The verb in the sentence Oves herbam edunt (1.8) is a consonant-verb, as shown by the plural ending -unt, but the singular is irregular: Pāstor pānem ēst (edit also appears, but is more rare). The macron (long mark) over the " $\bar{e}$ " in $\bar{e} s t$ will distinguish "he/she eats" from est "he/she is."

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { sing. } & \bar{e} s t \\
\text { pl. } & \text { edunt }
\end{array}
$$

## Dūc/dūcite

Also note the short imperative $d \bar{u} c!$ of the consonant-verb $d \bar{u} c i t, d \bar{u} c u n t$. The original form, $d \bar{u} c e$, is found in early poets.
imp. dūc! dūc|ite!

## Suprā/sub

New prepositions are suprā, which takes the accusative, and sub, which takes the ablative (when motion is implied, sub takes the accusative).

| suprā + acc. | above |
| :--- | :--- |
| sub + abl. (acc.) | below |

Sōl in caelō est suprā campum. (1.25)
Caelum est suprā terram. (1.26)
Sub arbore autem umbra est. (1.30)
Sub arboribus sōl nōn lūcet. (1.52)

## Summary of Declension Endings: 1st, 2nd, 3rd

| Sing. | 1st | 2nd m. \|| n . | 3rd m./f. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nominative | -a | -us \|| -um | -s, ---- |
| Accusative | -am | -um | -em |
| Genitive | -ae | -1̄ | -is |
| Dative | -ae | -ō | -ī |
| Ablative | -ā | -ō | -e |
| Pl. | 1st | 2nd m. \|| n . | 3rd m./f. |
| Nominative | -ae | -i \||- a | -ēs |
| Accusative | -ās | -ōs \|| -a | -ēs |
| Genitive | -ārum | -ōrum | -(i) um |
| Dative | -īs | -īs | -ibus |
| Ablative | -īs | -īs | -ibus |

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Dum

So far, the conjunctions you have met join two things-either words, phrases, or independent clauses (a set of words with a subject and a verb that makes complete sense by itself):

| et and | sed | but |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| et...et | both...and | aut | or |
| -que | and (enclitic) | quod | because |
| neque | and not, but not | quia | because |
| neque...neque | neither...nor |  |  |

We will now meet a different kind of conjunction. A temporal conjunction joins two clauses: a main clause and a subordinate clause that explains the time relationship between the ideas in the two clauses. The temporal conjunction dum expresses simultaneousness, that is, that the actions in the two clauses happen at the same time (English "while"):

Dum pāstor in herbā dormit, ovis nigra abit. (1.39)
Dum ("while") shows that the action in the main clause ("the black sheep goes away") is happening at the same time (simultaneously) as the action in the subordinate clause ("the shepherd sleeps in the grass").

## Ut

$U t$ is both an adverb and, as you will learn later, a conjunction. As an adverb, it often represents the English "as":

Ocul̄̄ lupī in umbrā lūcent ut gemmae et dentēs ut margarìtae (1.72-73)

## Ipse, ipsa, ipsum

The demonstrative pronoun ipse is used for emphasis like English "himself/ herself/itself": Ubi est lupus ipse? (11.54-55). It is declined like ille apart from the neuter sing. in -um (not -ud): ipse, $-a$, -um.
nom. ips|e ips|a ips|um ips|ī ips|ae ips|a
acc. ips|um ips|am ips|um ips|ōs ips|ās ips|a
gen. ips|īus ips|īus ips|īus ips|ōrum ips|ārum ips|ōrum
dat. ips|ī ips|ī ips|ī ips|īs ips|īs ips|īs
abl. ips| $\bar{o} \quad i p s|\bar{a} \quad i p s| \bar{o} \quad i p s|\bar{\imath} s \quad i p s| \bar{i} s \quad i p s \mid \bar{i} s$
Ubi est lupus ipse? Where is the wolf itself (or "himself")?
Ovis vestīgia lupī in terrā videt, neque lupum ipsum videt.

Ubi est ovis ipsa?

The sheep sees the tracks of the wolf in the earth, but she does not see the wolf itself. Where is the sheep herself (or "itself")?

## Assimilation

The meaning of verbs can be modified or clarified when they are augmented by prefixes. The final consonant of the prefix sometimes undergoes a sound change because of the initial consonant of the simple verb with which it is joined. So, for example, when $a d$ and in enter into compounds with currit and pōnit, they change to $a c$ - and im-: ac-currit, im-pōnit. Such a change, which
makes one consonant more similar to another ( $m$ is a labial consonant like $p$ ), is called assimilation (from Latin similis, "similar," "like").

## Recēnsiō: Grammatical Terms

Case (cāsus): The various forms a noun/adjective/pronoun takes depending on its function in a sentence are called cases. The cases are nominative, accusative, genitive, dative, ablative, and vocative.
Declension (dēclīnātiō): a family of nouns/adjectives is called a declension. You have learned the first three of five declensions of nouns.
Decline (dēclīnāre): When we recite the paradigm of a noun, adjective, or pronoun by giving each of the cases, we are said to decline the word.
Temporal conjunction (coniūnctiō temporālis): a temporal conjunction joins two clauses in a sentence by showing the time relation between them, that is, whether the action in one clause happens before, after, or at the same time as the other.
Independent clause: A group of words with a subject (expressed or implied) and verb expressing a complete thought is called an independent clause ("The shepherd sleeps").
Dependent clause: A group of words with a subject (expressed or implied) and verb that does not express a complete thought is called a dependent clause ("While the shepherd sleeps...").
Assimilation: When a prefix is added to a verb, the initial consonant of the verb may cause the final consonant of the prefix to adapt in sound to its neighbor; that is to say, it undergoes assimilation.

## Studia Rōmāna

Shepherds were an important part of the Roman agricultural economy and their lives played a role in ancient literary imagination. The belief that being a shepherd entails vigilance but not a lot of physical labor, and that the life of a shepherd was both simple and lovely, led to an idealized portrait in Greek literature, emulated by Vergil's Eclogues in the first century BC, in which shepherds sang songs and played music on rustic reed pipes. Ovid strikes a similar theme (Remedia Amōris, 181-182):

Pāstor inaequāl̄̄ modulātur harundine carmen nec dēsunt comitēs, sēdulus turba, canēs.
"The shepherd plays his song on a pipe with reeds of varying lengths, nor does he lack his dogs for companions, that diligent pack."
Both shepherds in the countryside and folks in the city celebrated the Parilia on April 21, a festival dedicated to Pales, the god who watched over shepherds. The Parilia is revered for another reason: on that festival day, Romulus, a shepherd himself, dug the pōmérium, the ditch that marked the
boundaries of Rome and which kept the countryside free from the encroachment of houses. So, Romans considered the Parilia Rome's birthday.

Rome's founding myth owes a good deal to shepherds. The legend begins and ends with brothers. The first two are Numitor and Amulius; the elder, Numitor, inherited a kingdom, but was usurped by his younger brother. Amulius also made Numitor's daughter, Rhea Silva, a priestess of the goddess Vesta (a Vestal Virgin), which meant she could not marry (and thus bear legitimate heirs to the throne). The god Mars fathered twin boys with Rhea Silva. Her uncle Amulius ordered them drowned in the Tiber. Since the river was rising and flooding (as it did often in antiquity), the servant left them in a basket by the bank. They were found by a she-wolf (lupa) who nursed them and kept them alive. Faustulus, the chief herdsman of the king's flocks, subsequently found and adopted them. The boys, Romulus and Remus, grew to be shepherds like their adoptive father; they also became young men worthy of their kingly grandfather. They reclaimed the kingdom and returned it to Numitor and then went off to found their own city. To determine who would be king, they consulted the flight of birds-called taking the auspices (auspicium), a word that comes from the combined roots of "bird" (avis) and "watch" (*spec-), but the practice in Roman culture also covers determining the will of the gods from the weather, from sacred chickens, from four-footed animals, and from unnatural occurrences. (When something happens that suggests the success of a project or event, we still call it auspicious.) Quarreling over the interpretation of the auspices, Romulus killed Remus and became the first king of Rome.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

| Nōmina |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1st |  |
| herba, -ae | grass, herb |
| silva, -ae | wood, forest |
| terra, -ae | earth, ground, country |
| umbra, -ae | shade, shadow |
| 2nd |  |
| caelum, - $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | sky, heaven |
| campus, - | plain |
| cibus, $-\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | food |
| lupus, $-\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | wolf |
| modus, $-\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | manner, way |
| rīvus, $-\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | brook |
| vestīgium, - | footprint, trace |
| 3rd |  |
| arbor, arboris $(f)$. | tree |
| canis, canis $(m . / f)$. | dog |
| clāmor, clāmōris $(m)$. | shout, shouting |

```
collis, collis (m.)
dēclīnātiō, dēclīnātiōnis (f.)
dēns, dentis ( \(m\).)
mōns, montis (m.)
nūbēs, nūbis ( \(f\).)
ovis, ovis ( \(f\).)
pānis, pānis (m.)
pāstor, pāstōris (m.)
sōl, sōlis (m.)
timor, timōris (m.)
vallis, vallis \((f\).
```

Verba
-ā (1)
bālat, -ant
dēclīnat, -ant
errat, -ant
lātrat, -ant
ululat, -ant
-ē (2)
iacet, -ent
lūcet, -ent
Consonant/ĭ (3)
accurrit, -unt
bibit, -unt
dūcit, -unt
impōnit, -unt
petit, -unt
quaerit, -unt
relinquit, -unt
-ī (4)
reperit, -iunt
Irregular
ēst, edunt eat

Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
niger, -gra, -grum
black
albus, -a,-um
white

Numerī (indeclinable unless otherwise noted)
ūndēcentum
ninety-nine
Prōnōmina
ipse, ipsa, ipsum myself, yourself, etc; the very, the actual

Adverbia
procul far (from), far away
Praepositiōnēs
sub (prp. + abl./acc.)
suprā (prp. $+a c c$. )
Coniūnctiōnēs
dum
ut
under, at the foot of, near above
while, as long as
like, as

## X. Bēstiae et Hominēs

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Infinitive Active
b. Infinitive Active in -se
c. Infinitive Passive
d. Verbs and Expressions that take an Infinitive
i. potest/possunt
ii. necesse est
iii. vult/volunt, audet/audent
e. Accusative and Infinitive Construction
2. Nouns
a. 3rd Declension Masculine and Feminine
b. 3rd Declension Neuter
c. nēmō
d. Case Uses
i. Dative of Interest
ii. Ablative of Manner (ablātīvus modī)
3. Conjunctions
a. cum
b. quod
4. Points of Style
a. alius...alius
b. active and passive

## The Story

After reading about the physical characteristics of animals, humans, and gods, we rejoin Marcus, Quintus, and Julia in the garden.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## 3rd Declension Masculine and Feminine

In this chapter, several new 3rd declension nouns are introduced.

- Some of them have peculiar forms in the nominative singular: in leō, an $-n$ is dropped: gen. le $\bar{n} \mid$ is.
- In homō, this is combined with a vowel change: gen. homin $\mid$ is.
- The $-s$ ending produces the spelling $-x$ for $-c s$ in $v o \bar{x}$ : gen. $v \bar{o} c \mid i s$.
- The -s ending also produces the loss of $d$ in $p \bar{e} s$ (note also the short vowel of the stem): gen. ped $\mid i s$.
From now on, the nominative and genitive of new nouns will be found in the margins of your Lingua Latina text, as well as in the vocabulary list at the end of each chapter in this book:
leō leōn|is m. lion vōx vōclis f. voice
homō homin|is m . person pēs ped|is m . foot
This way of listing a noun (nominative, genitive, gender, meaning) is called the lexical entry, since that is the way the word will be listed in a lexicon (dictionary).


## Conjunctions

## Cum

You have already learned the preposition cum, which takes the ablative and means "with." Cum is also a temporal conjunction (referring to time) meaning when:

Cum avis volat, ālae moventur. When a bird flies, (its) wings move (are being moved). (l.15)
It is easy to distinguish between cum preposition and cum conjunction. Look at the following sentences:

Iūlius in vīllā suā habitat cum magnā familiā. (Cap. V, 1.9)
Aemilia cum Mārcō, Quīntō Iūliāque in peristȳlō est. (Cap. V, l.47)
Etiam līnea cum margarīt̄̄̄ ōrnāmentum est. (Cap. VIII, ll.8-9)
Cum homō ambulat, pedēs moventur. (Cap. X, 1.15)
Cum piscis natat, cauda movētur. (Cap. X, 1l.15-16)

## Quod

You have learned quod as the neuter singular of both the relative pronoun $q u \bar{u}$, quae, quod and the interrogative adjective. Quod is also a causal conjunction with the same meaning as quia (because):

Hominēs ambulāre possunt, quod pedēs habent. (11.23-24)
means the same as:
Hominēs ambulāre possunt, quia pedēs habent.
It is easy to distinguish between quod pronoun, quod interrogative adjective, and quod conjunction. Look at the following sentences:

Iūlius ambulat ad ōstium, quod ab ōstiāriō aperītur. (Cap. VII, 1.33)
Lȳdia ōrnāmentum pulchrum in collō habet. Quod ōrnāmentum? (Cap. VIII, ll.30-31)
Ōrnāmentum quod Lydia habet est līnea margarītārum. (Cap. VIII, 11.31-32)

Hominēs volāre nōn possunt, quod ālās nōn habent. (Cap. X, 11.23-25)
Neque avēs neque nīdī avium ab aquilā reperīrī possunt, quod rāmīs et folī̄s occultantur. (Cap. X, 11.89-91)

## Potest/possunt

The verb potest, which first appears in the sentence Canis volāre nōn potest (1.21), denotes ability (English "is able to," "can"). It is a compound with est: pot-est; the first element pot- (meaning "able") is changed before $s$ by assimilation to pos-: Hominēs ambulāre pos-sunt (1.23). More examples:

Pāstor duōs pedēs habet, itaque pāstor ambulāre potest. (11.22-23)
Homō sub aquà spīrāre nōn potest. (11.47-48)
Nēmō enim sine cibō vīvere potest. (11.59-69)
Hominēs deōs neque vidère neque audīre possunt. (ll.38-39)
Piscēs numerārī nōn possunt. (1.45)
Avēs canere possunt, piscēs nōn possunt: piscēs vōcēs nōn habent.
(11.85-86)
sing. pot-est
pl. pos-sunt

## Infinitive Active

Volāre and ambulāre are the first examples of the basic verb form that is called the infinitive (Latin infinnit̀ $\bar{v} u s$ ); the infinitive in English is expressed by "to" with the verb. The Latin infinitive active ends in -re. In $\bar{a}-, \bar{e}-$, and $\bar{i}$-verbs (1st, 2 nd , and 4 th conjugations), this ending is added directly to the stem:
volä|re: to fly
vidè|re: to see
audī|re: to hear
In consonant-verbs of the 3rd conjugation, a short $e$ is inserted before the ending:
pōn|ere: to put
sūm|ere: to take
The infinitive of i-stem verbs of the 3rd conjugation is indistinguishable from that of consonant stems:
accip|ere: to receive
fac|ere: to do, make
From now on, the infinitive will be the form of new verbs shown in the margin of Lingua Latina and in the vocabulary of this book, so that you can always tell to which of the four conjugations the verb belongs: 1. -āre; 2. -ēre; 3. -ĕre; 4. -īre. Third conjugation verbs (-ĕre) are separated into consonant and $i$-stem in the vocabulary of this book but not in the margins of Lingua Latina.

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Infinitive Active in -se

The infinitive ending -ere developed from an earlier ending (-se). That earlier intervocalic $-s-$, i.e., an $-s$ - between vowels, was changed to $-r$-, so $-s e$ became $-r e$ after a vowel (e.g., amāre < amā|se). The ending -se was kept only in the following infinitives, because it was added directly to the stems es- and ed:

```
esse (est sunt)
esse (ēst edunt, with assimilation ds > ss)
posse (potest possunt, Cap. XI)
```

Examples:
Quī spīrat mortuus esse nōn potest. (ll.108-109)
Mārcus et Iūlia Qū̄ntum vīvum esse vident. (l.122)
Ēsse quoque hominī necesse est. (1.59)
...nēmō enim gemmās ēsse potest. (1.64)
Gemmae edī nōn possunt. (1.64) (Notā Bene: The passive infinitive $e d \bar{\imath}$ of $\bar{e} s s e$ is explained in the next section)

Infinitive -se:
es|se
$\bar{e} s \mid s e(<e d \mid s e)$; passive edī
pos/se (<pot|se)

## Infinitive Passive

The sentence Hominēs deōs vidēre nōn possunt becomes in the passive: Dē̄ ab hominibus vidērī̄ nōn possunt. Vidēr̄̄̄ (to be seen) is the passive infinitive corresponding to the active vidēre (to see). In the passive, $\bar{a}-, \bar{e}$-, and $\bar{i}$-verbs have the ending $-r \bar{\imath}$ in the infinitive, e.g.:
numerā|rī (l.45)
vidē $\mid \underline{r \underline{1}}$ (1.39)
audī|rī (l.39)

Consonant-verbs have only $-\bar{i}$, e.g.:
em|ī: Sine pecūniā cibus emī nōn potest. (1.62)
Infinitive

| tive | passive |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\bar{a} r e \rightarrow \bar{a} r \bar{r}:$ vocà $\mid r e$ | vocā\|rī |
| $\bar{e} r e \rightarrow \bar{e} r i \bar{l}$ : vidè $\mid$ re | vidè \|rī |
| ĕre $\rightarrow \bar{i}$ : pōn\|ere | pōn\|ī |
| $\stackrel{\text { ire }}{ } \rightarrow$ ìrī: $a u d \bar{i} \mid r e$ | $a u d \bar{l} \mid r i$ |

More examples:
Aemilia fīlium suum à Iūliō portār̄̄̄ videt. (1.126)
Sed Mārcus eum spīrāre nōn videt, neque enim anima vidēr̄̄ potest. (ll.109-110)
Deī ab hominibus neque vidēr̄̄̄ neque audīrī possunt. (11.38-39)
Gemmae edī nōn possunt. (1.64)

## Necesse est + the Infinitive and Dative of Interest

We have seen that the infinitive occurs as the object of:
Potest possunt
It occurs after other verbs and expressions as well, for example, in this section of the reading, necesse est. Necesse est is an impersonal expression, that is, one without a subject ("it is necessary"):

Necesse est cibum habēre. (1.60)
The person for whom it is necessary to do something is in the dative (dative of interest):

Spīrāre necesse est hominī. (1.58)

## 3rd Declension Neuter Nouns

You also meet the first neuter nouns of the 3rd declension. The declension of these nouns will be taken up in the next chapter, but for now, here are the nominative and accusative. Remember, the nominative and accusative of neuter nouns (and adjectives) are always the same:
flūmen
mare
animal

Like all neuter nouns, in the nominative and accusative plural, these nouns end in - $a$ :

flūmina<br>maria<br>animālia

## Nēmō

Homō combined with the negation $n \bar{e}$ forms the pronoun ne$m \bar{o}(<n \bar{e}+$ homō, "nobody").

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

Vult/volunt, audet/audent + infinitive
In addition to potest/possunt and necesse est, an infinitive also occurs after:
vult volunt the irregular verb that denotes will audet audent a verb that denotes courage
Examples:
Iūlia cum puerīs lūdere vult, neque ī̄ cum puellā lūdere volunt. (ll.7476)

Canis avem...capere vult, neque potest. (ll.83-84)
Quī volāre vult neque potest, ad terram cadit! (ll.129-130)
Fēminae quae pecūniam facere volunt ōrnāmenta sua vēndunt. (ll.6768)

Avēs canere nōn audent. (1.88)
Mārcus ipse in arborem ascendere nōn audet! (11.96-97)
Not $\bar{a}$ Bene: The form vult (he/she wants) lacks a thematic vowel; the verb is irregular.

## Accusative and Infinitive Construction

The object of verbs of perception, like vidēre and audīre, can be combined with an infinitive to express what someone is seen or heard to be doing (active infinitive), or what is being done to someone (passive infinitive). There are several ways of rendering the accusative and infinitive construction in English:

Puerī puellam canere vident (1.80):
The boys see (that) the girl is singing.
The boys see the girl sing/that the girl sings.
The boys see (that) the girl does sing.
Mārcus Quintum ad terram cadere videt (l.104):

Marcus sees (that) Quintus is falling to the ground.
Marcus sees Quintus fall to the ground/that Quintus falls to the ground.
Marcus sees (that) Quintus does fall to the ground.
Aemilia fīlium suum à Iūliō portār̄̄ videt (l.126):
Aemilia sees (that) her son is being carried by Julius.
Aemilia sees her son being carried by Julius.
Aemilia Quīntum à Iūliō in lectō pōnı̄ aspicit (1.131):
Aemilia sees (that) Quintus is being put onto the bed by Julius.
Aemilia sees Quintus being put onto the bed by Julius.
Not $\bar{a}$ Bene: The word "that" is optional in English translation and is supplied; there is no Latin equivalent to "that" in any of the sentences above.

## Ablative of Manner (Ablāt̄̄̄us Modī)

Besides means and cause, the simple ablative can also denote manner (ablātīvus modī), e.g.:
magnㅡㅜ vōce clāmat (1.112)
"leō" dēclīnātur hōc modō... (1.169)

## Points of Style

1. Alius...alius: In line 9, we read, "Aliae bēstiae sunt avēs, aliae piscēs."

Repeating a form of alius, alia, aliud signals the idiom that represents the English "some...others." So:
a. Aliae bēstiae sunt avēs, aliae piscēs: some creatures are birds, others fish.
b. Alius librīs dēlectātur, alius ōrnāmentīs: one person is delighted by books, another by jewelry.
c. Alī̄ alia dīcunt: Different people say different things. Or: Some say one thing, others say another.
2. Cauda movet/movētur: Another example of how Latin differs from English can be seen in this chapter. In lines 16-17, we find "Cum piscis natat, cauda movētur" (when a fish swims, its tail moves). In line 79, we see "Canis pilam capit et caudam movet" (the dog catches the ball and wags its tail). In English, the first use is intransitive, the second transitive. Latin, however, expresses the same idea using the passive and active voices, respectively.
3. enim: as your marginalia tell you, enim is a combination of is and nam;
it is postpositive, which means it never comes as the first word in its clause:

- ...is enim nūntius deōrum est (1.30)
- ...nēmō enim sine cībō vīvere potest (11.59-60)


## Studia Rōmāna

Dogs were valued as guardians of flock (as we saw in the previous chapter) and home, as pets and as hunters. Dogs were important for hunting, a sport Romans loved-there were even hunts (vēnātiōnēs) staged in the Circus Maximus and the Amphitheātrum Flāviānum (also called the Colosseum, as it was built next to a colossal statue of the first-century AD emperor Nero). Romans saw the hunt as a way for men to display their manliness. Horace called it the "customary work for Roman men, useful for reputation, life and limbs" (Epist. 1.18.49-50: Rōmānīs sollemne virīs opus, ūtile fāmae/vītaeque et membrīs). Grattius, a contemporary of Ovid (first century BC-first century AD), wrote the Cynēgetica ( $\tau \grave{\alpha} \kappa v \vee \eta \gamma \varepsilon \tau \iota \kappa \alpha ́) ~ a ~ d i d a c t i c ~ p o e m ~(s e e ~ b e l o w) ~ o n ~ h u n t i n g ~ d o g s, ~$ only a small portion of which ( 540 lines of dacytlic hexameter) survives.
$\operatorname{Varrō}(116-27 \mathrm{BC})$ in his book about the Latin language (dē Linguā Latīnā) says that dogs were called canēs because they sing (canere) when guarding at night and when hunting. In Cap. XXII, Cave Canem (Beware of the Dog), the opening illustration shows a mosiac flooring in the vestibulum depicting a guard dog. In that chapter, we will also meet one of the family's dogs: canis catēnārius (the guard dog, who was bound with a chain). Such dogs were also used in wall paintings-in Petrōnius's Satyricōn (first century AD), the arriving guests find "not far from the room of the doorkeeper, a huge dog bound with a chain had been painted on the wall and above it was written in capital letters, 'Beware of the dog'."1 But dogs were also pets: in this chapter, we see Julia playing with her pet dog (l.77). Cicero relates a story of a father going home to find his youngest daughter in tears over the death of her puppy (dē Dīvīnātiōne, 1.102). Especially favored by Greeks and Romans alike was a small terrier similar to the Maltese, called Melitaeus (from the island Melita, modern Malta).

Wealthy Romans enjoyed fishponds (piscinae) on their estates-both for fresh and salt-water fish, and fish were sometimes tamed and trained to eat from their master's hand (Cicero, ad Att. 2.1). There was even a word for someone whose hobby was fish ponds: piscīnārius!

Romans were also partial to pet birds and sometimes had private aviaries (aviāria). The first-century BC poet Catullus (poems 2, 3) writes about his girlfriend's grief over her dead sparrow (passer, quoted in Cap. XXXIV). Ovid (Amōrēs 2.6) writes about his girlfriend's dead parrot (psittacus). Birds are

[^10]sometimes associated with particular divinities: the eagle (aquila) was a symbol of I $\bar{u} p p i t e r$ and the peacock ( $p \bar{a} v \bar{o}$ ) of his wife I $\bar{u} n \bar{o}$ (you will learn more of Iuppiter and Iūnō later). The swan (cȳcnēus) was the bird of Apollō, god of light, learning and literature. Apollo's sister, the huntress Diāna, is accompanied by her hunting dogs (although she, too, is associated with birds). And Venus, the goddess of love, rides in a chariot drawn by white doves.

In this chapter, you are also introduced to two Roman divinities: Mercurius, the messenger of the gods, whose winged cap and sandals might be familiar to you from florist advertisements, which display Mercury in flight carrying flowers (rushing for speedy delivery). Mercury carried a herald's staff, the cadūceum. In addition to being the deus mercātōrum, Mercury was the god of thieves, of eloquence and of prosperity. He led the souls of the dead to the underworld. Just as Mercury is associated with the Greek god Hermes, Neptune, an ancient Italian god, later became associated with Poseidon, the Greek god of the sea, and thus of journeys on water. There was a festival to Neptune on July 23 called the Neptūnālia.

## * Didactic Poetry

Didactic poetry is a genre that aims to teach the reader. In the first century BC, Lucretius wrote an epic in six books on Epicurean philosophy (dē Rērum Nātūrā); Vergil wrote an epic in four books on farming (Geōrgica).

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
            āla,-ae
            anima,-ae
            aquila,-ae
            bēstia,-ae
            cauda,-ae
            fera,-ae
            pila,-ae
2nd
            asinus, -\overline{1}
            deus, -i
            folium, -\overline{1}
            inffīnītīvus (modus)
            lectus, -\overline{1}
            nīdus, -i
            nūntius, -\overline{1}
            ōvum, -i
            petasus,-i
```

```
                                    wing
                                    breath, life, soul
                                    eagle
                                    beast, animal
                                    tail
                                    wild animal
                                    ball
                                    ass, donkey
                                    god (pl. deī/diī/dī, voc. deus)
                                    leaf
                                    infinitive
                                    bed, couch
                                    nest
                                    message, messenger
                                    egg
                                    hat with a brim
```

| pullus, - $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ <br> rāmus, $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | young (of an animal) <br> branch, bough |
| :--- | :--- |
| 3rd |  |
| āēr, āeris $(m)$. | air |
| animal, animālis $(n)$. | animal, living being |
| avis, avis $(f)$. | bird |
| flūmen, flūminis $(n)$. | river |
| homō, hominis $(m)$. | human being, person |
| lē̄, lē̄nis $(m)$. | lion |
| mare, maris $(n)$. | sea |
| mercātor, mercātōris $(m)$. | merchant |
| pēs, pedis $(m)$. | foot |
| piscis, piscis $(m)$. | fish |
| pulmō, pulmōnis $(m)$. | lung |
| vōx, vōcis $(f)$. | voice |

Verba
-āre (1)
natat, natāre swim
occultat, occultāre hide
spīrat, spīrāre breathe
volat, volāre
fly
-ēre (2)
audet, audēre
movet, movēre
sustinet, sustinēre
-ěre (3)
ascendit, ascendere
cadit, cadere
canit, canere
lūdit, lūdere
vīvit, vīvere
i-stem
capit, capere
facit, facere
parit, parere
Irregular
necesse est
potest, possunt, posse
vult, volunt
dare, venture
move, stir
support, sustain, endure
climb, go up, mount
fall
sing (of), crow, play
play
live, be alive
take, catch, capture
make, do, cause
give birth to, lay
it is necessary
be able
want, be willing
Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
crassus, -a, -um
ferus, -a, -um
mortuus, -a, -um
thick, fat
wild
dead
perterritus, -a, -um
terrified
vīvus, -a, -um
living, alive
3rd (you will learn about these in Cap. XII)
tenuis, -e
thin
Prōnōmina
nēmō no one
Adverbia
ergō
therefore, so
Coniūnctiōnēs
cum when
enim for
quod
because

## XI. Corpus Hūmānum

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Infinitive in Indirect Statement
b. Posse
2. Nouns
a. 3rd Declension Neuter
i. Neuter $i$-stem nouns
b. Case Uses
i. Accusative in Indirect Statement
ii. Ablative of Respect
iii. Preposition: $d \bar{e}+$ ablative
3. Possessive Adjectives
4. Conjunctions atque/neque (ac/nec)

## Roman Medicine

The art of healing was naturally far more primitive in the ancient world than it is today, although not all the doctors of antiquity were so incompetent as the zealous physician who treats poor Quintus. Blood-letting was used then as a kind of panacea.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Third Declension Neuter Nouns

Among the names of parts of the body, there are a number of neuter nouns of the 3rd declension. Like all neuters, these nouns have:

- the same form in the nominative and accusative
- the plural nominative/accusative ending in -a

In the other cases, they have the well-known endings of the 3rd declension. These nouns are all consonant-stems, like flumen, -in|is:

| $\bar{o} \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{o} \underline{r} \mid$ is | cor, cord\|is |
| :---: | :---: |
| crūs, crūrlis | iecur, iecor $\mid$ is |
| corpus, corporlis | caput, capit\|is |
| pectus, pector $\mid$ is | viscer\|a, -um |

Notā Bene:

- a final $-s$ is changed into $r$ when endings are added ( $-s$ between two vowels turns to $-r$ )
- $u$ can become $o$ in the stem, as in corpus, pectus, and iecur
- caput, capit|is and cor, cord|is are irregular
- viscerla, -um is only used in the plural


## 3rd Declension $i$-Stem Nouns

In Cap. X, we met the 3rd declension neuter nouns mar|e marlis and animal -àl is. There are not many of these nouns; they differ from neuter consonant stems in that they have:

- -ia in the nom./acc. pl.
- -ium in the gen. pl.
- -ī in the abl. sing.

The complete declension patterns (or paradigms) are shown below and on page 83 of Lingua Latina.

|  | sing. | pl. | sing. | pl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nom. | marle | marlia | animal | animāl\|ia |
| acc. | marle | marlia | animal | animāllia |
| gen. | marlis | mar\|ium ${ }^{1}$ | animãl ${ }_{\text {is }}$ | animāllium |
| dat. | mar ${ }^{\text {in }}$ | mar\|ibus | animāllī | animàllibus |
| abl. | mar ${ }^{\bar{i}}$ | mar\|ibus | animāllī | animàllibus |

## Summary of Declension Endings: 1st, 2nd, 3rd

| sing. | 1st | 2nd m. \|| n . | 3rd consonant m./f. \\| n. | $3 \mathrm{rd} i$-stem m./f. \|| n . |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nom. | -a | -us \|| -um | -s, ---- | -s, --- \|| -e,- al, -ar |
| acc. | -am | -um | -em \|| ----2 | -em \|| -e, -al, -ar |
| gen. | -ae | -1̄ | -is | -is |
| dat. | -ae | -ō | -1 | -ī |
| abl. | -ā | -0̄ | -e | -e \|| -ī |

[^11]| nom. | -ae | -i \|| -a | -ēs \|| -a | -a \|| -ia |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| acc. | -ās | -ōs \|| -a | -ēs \|| -a | -a \|| -ia |
| gen. | -ārum | -ōrum | -um | -ium |
| dat. | -1s | -1s | -ibus | -ibus |
| abl . | -1̄S | -1]S | -ibus | -ibus |

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Indirect Statement (Accusative and Infinitive Construction)

In sentences like Iūlius puerum videt and Iūlius puerum audit, we have seen that an infinitive may be added to the accusative puerum to describe what the boy is doing or what is happening to him, e.g.:

Iūlius puerum vocāre audit.
Iūlius puerum perterritum esse videt.
Such a construction is called an accusative and infinitive construction (accūsātīvus cum infinī̀tīvō); in these constructions, the accusative is logically the subject of the infinitive ("subject accusative"). You will find this construction with:

- verbs of perception (e.g., vidēre, audīre, and sentīre)

Medicus puerum dormīre videt. (1.59)
Cor eius palpitāre sentit. (1.112)

- verbs of speaking (e.g., dīcere) and thinking (e.g., putāre)

Medicus 'puerum dormīre' dīcit. (ll.63-64)
Syra eum mortuum esse putat. (1.108)

- iubēre

Dominus 'servum venīre' iubet.
Medicus Quīntum ‘ōs aperīre atque linguam ostendere' iubet. (ll.69-70)

- gaudère (and with other verbs expressing mood)

Syra Quīntum vīvere gaudet (= Syra gaudet quod Quīntus vīvit) (1.118)

- necesse est (and other impersonal expressions)

Necesse est puerum dormīre. (1.128)
The accusative and infinitive construction reports a person's words or thoughts as an indirect statement, e.g.:

- Direct statement: "Puer dormit."
- Indirect statement: Medicus 'puerum dormīre' dīcit.

In your text, single quotation marks are used to mark indirect speech but
not reported thoughts or perceptions, e.g., when Syra sees the unconscious Quintus:

Syra eum mortuum esse putat. (1.108)
In English, indirect statement is generally expressed by a clause beginning with "that": "says/thinks/believes that..."

## Conjunctions

## Atque/ac

The conjunction atque has the same function as et and -que; the shortened form $a c$ is often found (see Cap. XII, 1.59):

- before consonants
- but not before vowels or $h$ -

In the following sentences, ac could be substituted for atque:
Quīntus oculōs claudit atque dormit. (1.41)
Medicus ad lectum adit atque puerum aspicit. (1l.56-57)
But in this sentence, ac could not be substituted because horret begins with $h$ :

Quīntus sanguinem dè bracchiō fluere sentit atque horret.
(ll.100-101)

## Neque/nec

Nec, the shortened form of neque, is used before consonants as well as vowels:
Itaque pedem aegrum habet nec ambulāre potest. (1.54)
Dē + ablative
Like $a b$, the preposition $d \bar{e}$ expresses motion "from" (mostly "down from") and takes the ablative:
dē arbore (ll.53-54) dè bracchiō (1.99)

## Ablative of Respect

The ablative in pede aeger (1.55) specifies the application of the term aeger. It is called ablative of respect, as it answers the question "in what respect?"

Nec modo pede, sed etiam capite aeger est. (1.55)
Quintus is sick "in his foot" and "in his head."

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Posse

We saw in Cap. X that the infinitive of est, sunt is esse; similarly, the infinitive of potest, which is formed from pot- + est, sunt is posse (pot + esse):

Aemilia nōn putat medicum puerum aegrum sānāre posse. (ll.134135)

## Possessive Adjectives

In Cap. II, you learned the possessive adjectives meus, $-a,-u m$ and tuus, $-a$, -um, and in Cap. IV, the reflexive possessive suus, $-a,-u m$. Here, we see the plural possessive adjectives noster, -tra, -trum (English "our"):

Iam fillius noster nōn modo pede, sed etiam bracchiō aeger est. (ll.131-132)
Ille medicus crassus fïlium nostrum sānāre nōn potest. (ll.133-134)
In Cap. XII, you will find several examples of the possessive adjectives noster, -tra, -trum ("our") and vester, -tra, -trum ("your").

## Studia Rōmāna

The ancient world offered a variety of approaches to medicine-some rooted in tradition, some in religious practice, some in inquiry into the nature of the body and the power of nature to cure the body. During the time of our narrative (second century AD), Rome boasted several medical schools. The hospitals that had originated with the military had spread to the cities. Doctors had a variety of ways of treating patients: rest, diet, herbs, surgery, and, as in our chapter, bloodletting. The purpose of bloodletting was to help the body come into its natural harmony. At this time lived the philosopher and medical scholar Galēnus (Galen), who was born in Pergamon (on the west coast of what is now Turkey) and later traveled to and lived in Rome; famous in his lifetime, Galen's work remained highly influential for centuries.

Many of the doctors practicing in Italy were Greeks (both slave and free). They brought with them a developed theoretical approach to medicine. Some of them, such as Antōnius Mūsa, the physician of the emperor Augustus, became famous and wealthy. But, as a culture closely in tune with agriculture, Romans often looked to the plant world for cures.

Cato's treatise on farming (dē Agrī Cultūrā, second century BC) and the Elder Pliny's (Gāius Plīnius Secundus, first century AD) Natural History (Nātūrālis Historia), for example, are full of home remedies based on plants and on charms. Cato's dē Agri Cultūrā, for example, promotes cabbage pre-
pared in a variety of ways as a purgative (a treatment of which Romans were particularly fond), as a remedy for aching joints, as a poultice for an open sore, as a preventative of hangover from too much wine. Pliny the Elder's (first century AD) Natural History devotes several books to remedies found in nature.

Worship of the god of healing, Aesculapius (Greek spelling: Asclepius), the son of Apollo, continued well into the Roman Empire at his many sanctuaries and shrines. Archaeologists have found many medical instruments and votive tablets offering gratitude for specific cures.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

| Nōmina |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1st |  |
| gena, -ae | cheek |
| lingua, -ae | tongue, language vein |
| 2nd |  |
| bracchium, -1 | arm |
| capillus, -ī | hair |
| cerebrum, -ī | brain |
| culter, cultrī | knife |
| labrum, -ī | lip |
| medicus, -1 | doctor |
| membrum, -ī | limb |
| pōculum, -ī | cup |
| 3rd |  |
| auris, auris (f.) | ear |
| caput, capitis (n.) | head |
| color, colōris (m.) | color |
| cor, cordis ( $n$.) | heart |
| corpus, corporis ( $n$.) | body |
| crūs, crūris ( $n$.) | leg |
| frōns, frontis ( $f$.) | forehead |
| iecur, iecoris (n.) | liver |
| $\overline{\text { oss, ōris ( } n \text {.) }}$ | mouth |
| pectus, pectoris ( $n$.) | chest |
| sanguis, sanguinis (m.) | blood |
| venter, ventris (m.) | stomach |
| viscera, viscerum (n.pl.) | internal organs |
| 4th (introduced in the next chapter) manus (f.) | hand |
| Verba |  |
| -āre (1) |  |
| aegrōtat, aegrōtāre | be ill |
| palpitat, palpitāre | beat, throb |


| putat, putāre | think, suppose |
| :--- | :--- |
| sānat, sānāre | heal, cure |
| spectat, spectāre | watch, look at |
| stat, stāre | stand |
| -ēre (2) |  |
| dēterget, dētergēre | wipe off |
| dolet, dolēre | hurt, feel pain, grieve |
| gaudet, gaudēre | be glad, be pleased |
| horret, horrēre | bristle, shudder (at) |
| iubet, iubēre | order, tell |
| sedet, sedēre | sit |
| -ěre (3) | place (on), serve |
| appōnit, appōnere | send for, fetch |
| arcessit, arcessere | say, call, speak |
| dīcit, dīcere | flow |
| fluit, fluere | touch |
| tangit, tangere |  |
| -īre (4) | come back |
| revenit, revenīre | feel, sense, think |
| sentit, sentīre |  |
| Irregular | be able |
| potest, posse |  |

Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
aeger, -gra, -grum
hūmānus, -a, -um
noster, nostra, nostrum
ruber, rubra, rubrum
sānus, -a, -um
stultus, -a, -um
Adverbia
bene
well
male
modo
Praepositiōnēs
dē (prp. $+a b l$.
īnfrā (prp. $+a c c$.
super (prp. + acc.)
badly, ill
only, just

Coniūnctiōnēs
atque/ac
sick, ill
human
our, ours
red
healthy, well
stupid, foolish
nec
(down) from, of, about
below
on (top of), above
and, as, than
and/but not, nor, not

## XII. Mīles Rōmānus

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. ferre
b. Irregular Imperatives
c. 3rd Conjugation Vowel Stems
2. Nouns
a. 4th Declension
b. plūrāle tantum
c. Case Uses
i. Dative of Possession
ii. Dative with Intransitive Verbs
iii. Partitive Genitive
iv. Accusative of Extent of Space
3. Adjectives
a. 3rd Declension Adjectives
b. Comparison of Adjectives
4. Mīlle/Mīlia

## The Roman Army

The military played an important part in the Roman world. Above this chapter, you find a picture of a mīles Rōmānus. The word "military" is derived from mìles, whose stem ends in -t: gen. mīlit $\mid$ is (so also pedes -it|is and eques -it $\mid$ is).

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Dative of Possession

In the sentence Mārcō ūna soror est (1.6), Mārcō is dative. This dative of possession with esse is used to express to whom something belongs. These two sentences are different ways of expressing the same thing:

Mārcus ūnam sorōrem Marcus has one sister.
habet.

Mārcō ūna soror est. Marcus has one sister, or, literally: there is to Marcus one sister.
In the second sentence, ūna soror is nominative, and the dative Mārcō tells us "to whom" or "for whom" there is a sister. In English, we would still say, "Marcus has one sister." Here are more examples:

Quod nōmen est patrị̂? Ēī nōmen est Iūlius. (ll.9-10)
Aemiliae est ūnus frāter, cui "Aemilius" nōmen est. (1.17)
Virō Rōmānō tria nōmina sunt. (ll.10-11)
Fīlī̄̄̄ nōmina sunt "Mārcus Iūlius Balbus" et "Quīntus Iūlius Balbus."
(ll.12-13)

## Irregular Verb: Ferre

In the verb fer|re, the infinitive ending -re is added directly to the conso-nant-stem. The endings $-t$ and $-t u r$ are also added directly to the stem:

Infinitive:
fer|re
Singular:
fer $\mid t$
fer|tur
Plural:
fer|unt
fer|untur
The imperative has no -e:
fer!
fer|te!
E.g.:

Mīles est vir quī scūtum et gladium et pīlum fert. (1l.33-34)
Aemilius pilum tantum fert. (1.42)
Gladius eius brevis et levis est-brevior et levior quam is quī ab equite fertur. (ll.56-57)
Gladī̄...à Germān̄̄s feruntur. (1l.57-58)
Hispānı̄ et Gallī...et alia arma et arcūs sagittāsque ferunt. (ll.90-91)

## Irregular Imperatives

Like fer!, a few other verbs lost the original "e" ending of the infinitive and are monosyllables: ${ }^{1}$

```
es! of esse (pl. es|te!)
dūc! of dūcere (pl. dūclite!)
dìc! of dìcere (pl. dicc\ite!)
fac! of facere (pl. faci|te!-facere is an i-stem: faci|unt)
```


## 3rd Declension Adjectives

All the adjectives learned so far, e.g., alb|us $-a-u m$, follow the 1 st and 2 nd declensions: the 1st in the feminine (alb|a) and the 2 nd in the masculine and neuter (alb|us, alb|um). A few 1st/2nd declension adjectives, like niger -gr|a $-g r \mid u m$, have -er, not -us, in the nom. sing. m. (cf. nouns like liber -br $\mid \bar{i}$, culter $-\operatorname{tr} \mid \bar{i})$. Thus:

```
aeger, aegra, aegrum noster, nostra, nostrum
pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum vester,vestra,vestrum
ruber, rubra, rubrum
```

There are also adjectives of the 3rd declension, one of which (tenuis) you met in Cap. X. Some others are:

| brevis, breve | trīstis, trīste |
| :--- | :--- |
| gravis, grave | fortis, forte |
| levis, leve |  |

In the masculine and feminine, these adjectives are: i-stems, that is, they decline like ovis, except:

- $-\bar{i}$ (not $-e$ ) in the ablative singular

|  | sing. <br> m./f. | pl. <br> m./f. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | brev\|is | brev\|ēs |
| acc. | brev\|em | brev\|ēs |
| gen. | brev\|is | brev\|ium |
| dat. | brev\|ī | brev\|ibus |
| abl. | brev\|ī | brev\|ibus |

In the neuter, they are declined like mare:

- $-e$ in the nom./acc. sing.
- $-\bar{i}$ in the abl. sing.
- -ia in the nom./acc. pl.
- -ium in the gen. pl.

[^12]|  | sing. <br> n. | pl. <br> n. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | brev\|e | brev\|ia |
| acc. | brev\|e | brev\|ia |
| gen. | brev\|is | brev\|ium |
| dat. | brev\| $\bar{i}$ | brev\|ibus |
| abl. | brev $\mid \bar{i}$ | brev\|ibus |

So in the nominative singular, we have gladius brevis, hasta brevis, and pïlum breve.

Examples:
Itaque trīstis est Aemilia. (1.20)
Cūr tam brevis est gladius? Quod gladius brevis nōn tam gravis est quam gladius longus. (ll.50-53)
Pīlum nostrum breve et leve est. (1.134)
Mīlitēs Rōmānī fortēs sunt. (1l.118-119)
Pīla eōrum brevia et levia sunt, nōn longa et gravia ut Germānōrum. (ll.136-137)

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Nouns: 4th Declension

The noun exercitus here represents the 4th declension (dēclīnātiō quārta). All the forms are shown in lines $80-89$. This declension does not comprise nearly so many words as the first three.

In the singular:

- the accusative has -um
- the genitive $-\bar{u} s$
- the dative $-u \bar{\imath}$
- the ablative $-\bar{u}$

In the plural:

- the nominative and accusative end in $-\bar{u} s$
- the genitive in -uum
- the dative and ablative in -ibus

|  | sing. |  | pl. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | $-u s$ | manus | $-\bar{u} s$ | man $\bar{u} s$ |
| acc. | $-u m$ | manum | $-\bar{u} s$ | manūs |
| gen. | $-\bar{u} s$ | man $\bar{u} s$ | $-u u m$ | manuum |
| dat. | $-u \bar{\imath}$ | manu $\bar{\imath}$ | $-i b u s$ | manibus |
| abl. | $-\bar{u}$ | man $\bar{u}$ | $-i b u s$ | manibus |

Fourth declension nouns are regularly masculine, e.g.:
arcus metus
equitātus passus
exercitus versus
impetus
manus is feminine (duae manūs)

## Dative with Intransitive Verbs

Intransitive verbs are those that are not completed by an accusative direct object. The verbs imperāre and pārēre (first introduced in Cap. IV) are intransitive and take the dative (persons whom you command and whom you obey are in the dative). In the following sentences, exercituī and $d u c \bar{\imath}$ are datives:

Dux exercitū̄ imperat. (1.82)
Exercitus ducī suō pāret. (1.82)
nec Rōmānīs pārent. (ll.75-76)
Hispānī et Gallī iam exercitibus nostrīs pārent. (11.88-89)
Notā Bene: Verbs that are transitive in English are not always transitive in Latin. It can be helpful to memorize intransitive verbs with a dative pronoun $(e \bar{l})$ to help you remember that they do not take an accusative direct object, e.g.:
imperāre è
pārēre è

## Adjectives: Comparison

A comparison like Via Latiña nōn tam longa est quam via Appia can also be expressed Via Appia longior est quam via Latīna. Longior is a comparative adjective (Latin comparāt̄̄vus, from comparāre, "compare") and quam here means "than" (as opposed to "as" in tam...quam "as...as," which you learned in Cap. VI). ${ }^{2}$

The comparative:

- ends in -ior in the masculine and feminine (gladius/hasta longior)
- ends in -ius in the neuter (pïlum longius)
- declines like 3rd declension consonant-stem nouns:
$\triangleright$ gen. -iōr $\mid i s$; plural - $i \bar{o} r \mid u m$
$\triangleright$ nom./acc. pl. -iōr $\mid \bar{e} s$ (m./f.) and $-i \bar{o} r \mid a$ (n.)
$\triangleright$ abl. sing. -e -iōr|e

[^13]|  | sing. | pl. | sing. | pl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | m./f. | m./f. | n. | n. |
| nom. | brevior | brevior\|ès | brevius | brevior\|a |
| acc. | breviōrlem | breviōr\|ès | brevius | breviōr\|a |
| n. | breviōr\|is | breviōr\|um | breviōr\|is | breviōr\|um |
| dat. | breviōr\|ī | breviorlibus | breviōr\|ī | breviōr\|ibus |
| abl. | breviōr\|e | breviōr\|ibus | breviōrle | breviöribus |

Examples:
Gladius equitis longior et gravior est quam peditis. (ll.53-54)
The sword of the cavalryman is longer and heavier than that [i.e., the sword] of the foot-soldier.
Gladius peditis brevis et levis est-brevior et levior quam is quī ab equite fertur. (ll.56-57)
Etiam gladiū quī ā Germānīs feruntur longiōrēs et graviōrēs sunt quam Rōmānōrum ac pīlá eōrum longiōra et graviōra quam nostra sunt. (ll.57-59)

Comparative (neuter forms, where different from masculine and feminine, are in parentheses)

|  | sing. m./f. (n.) | pl. m./f. (n.) |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | -ior $(-i u s)$ | $-i \bar{o} r \bar{e} s(-i \bar{o} r a)$ |
| acc. | $-i o \bar{r} r e m(-i u s)$ | $-i \bar{o} r \bar{r} s(-i \bar{o} r a)$ |
| gen. | $-i o ̄ r i s$ | -iōrum |
| dat. | $-i \bar{o} r \bar{\imath}$ | -iōribus |
| abl. | $-i \bar{o} r e$ | -iōribus |

## Genitive Case: Partitive

So far you have encountered the following uses of the genitive case:

- possession (Cap. II) Iūlius dominus Mēdī est.
- with numerus (Cap. II) Numerus servōrum est centum.
- with plēnus (Cap. VII) Hic saccus plēnus mālōrum est.

In this chapter, we see the genitive expressing the whole of which a part (pars part|is f.) is taken. It is called partitive genitive:

Prōvincia est pars imperī̄ Rōmān̄̄, ut membrum pars corporis est. (11.64-65)

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Verbs: 3rd Conjugation Vowel Stems

Besides consonant-stems (like pōn|ere, sūm|ere, dīc|ere), the 3rd conjugation includes some verbs whose stems end in short $u$ or $i$.
$U$-Stems: The inflection of $u$-stems does not differ from that of consonantstems, e.g.:
flu|ere: fluit, fluunt
metu|ere: metuit, metuunt
$I$-Stems: I-stems, too, largely agree with consonant-stems, but they are characterized by having $i$ before vowel endings, e.g., -unt. In Cap. VIII, you saw the i-stems accipiunt and aspiciunt. In this chapter, we also see:

> capi|unt
> iaci|unt
> fugi|unt

Not $\bar{a}$ Bene: Instead of the characteristic $i$, you will find $e$ :

- before $r$, e.g., in the infinitive: cape|re, iace|re, fuge|re, stem capị-, iaci--, fugī-
- and in final position: cape! iace! fuge! (imperative)


## Plūrāle Tantum

Here, you read about the equipment of a Roman soldier and the layout of a Roman army camp: castra. This noun is neuter plural, called plūrāle tantum ("plural only," cf. "barracks," "entrails," "arms"). Other plūrāle tantum nouns:
līberī, -ōrum arma, -ōrum
viscera, -um
Accordingly, though only one camp is meant, you read:
castra sunt (1.94) in castrīs (1.97)
vāllum castrōrum (1.101)
Notā Bene: Plūrāle tantum nouns take plural verbs.

## Mîlle/mîlia

The common Roman linear measures were:

- pēs, "foot" ( 29.6 cm or 11.65 inches)
- passus $=5$ pedēs $(1.48 \mathrm{~m}$ or 4.85 feet $)$

In Cap. I, you learned mīlle (one thousand). Mīlle passūs (4th decl.), or " 1,000 paces," that is, " 5,000 feet," equals a "Roman mile" of 1.48 km , a little
less than an English mile ("mile" is derived from mīlia). In the singular, mîlle is an indeclinable adjective; the plural is expressed by the noun milia-ium n., e.g., duo mīlia $(2,000)$ which is followed by a partitive genitive:
mīlle passūs (adjective agrees with passūs)
duo mīlia passuum (noun + genitive)
sex mīlia mīlitum
Ūnus passus est quīnque pedēs, ergō mīlle passūs sunt quīnque mīlia pedum. (ll.96-97)

Long distances were given in mïlia passuum ("Roman miles").

$$
1,000=\text { mïlle }+ \text { noun }
$$

For numbers between 1,000 and 2,000 , use mille and an ordinal between 1-999: e.g., mīlle et ūnum (1,001), mîlle ducentī (1,200). Above 2,000, use mīlia + partitive genitive.

## Accusative of Extent of Space

The accusative without a preposition is used to indicate extent ("how long?" "how high?"), e.g.:

Gladius duōs pedēs longus est. The sword is two feet long. (1.49)
Aemilius in castrīs habitat Aemilius lives in a camp one mïlle passūs à fine imperī̄. mile from the boundary of the empire. (1.93)
Prope decem pedēs altum est, It is almost ten feet high and et duo mīlia passuum longum. two miles long. (ll.102-103)

## Recēnsiō: 3rd Declension Ablative Singular in $-\bar{\imath}$ and $-e$

Ends in $-e$

- consonant-stem nouns of all genders:
pāstor (m.) abl.: pāstōre
$v o ̄ x$ (f.) abl.: vōce
nōmen (n.) abl.: nōmine
- masculine and feminine $i$-stem nouns:
mōns (m.) abl.: monte
$n u ̄ b \bar{e} s$ (f.) abl.: nūbe
- comparative adjectives of all genders
brevior, brevius (from brevis, breve): abl.: breviōre
longior, longius (from longus, longa, longum), abl.: longiōre
Ends in $-\bar{\imath}$
- neuter $i$-stem nouns
mare (n.), abl.: marī
- positive adjectives of all genders brevis, breve, abl.: brevī
gravis, grave, abl.: gravī


## Studia Rōmāna

Avunculus vs. Patruus: We call the brothers of our mother and father "uncle," but the Romans had different names for the mother's brother (avunculus) and the father's brother (pātruus). Our English word "avuncular" reflects an ancient distinction: to be avuncular is to behave in a kind and generous way toward a young person or someone with less power. The pātruus was associated with severity (Cicero's description was pertrīstis, "very stern"). There doesn't seem to be the same association with the amita (the father's sister) and the mätertera (the mother's sister). The name for grandmother (avia) and grandfather (avus) was the same for the parents of both one's mother and father.

## Tria Nōmina: Praenōmen, Nōmen, Cognōmen

Roman men often had three names, called the tria nōmina. Iūlius is a nōmen, or family name: male members of this family are called Iūlius and female members Iūlia. Besides the family name ending in -ius, Roman men have a first or personal name, the praenōmen, and a surname, the cognōmen, which is common to a branch of the family. The cognōmen is often descriptive of the founder of the family, e.g., Longus, Pulcher, Crassus; Paulus means "small" and Balbus "stammering." Sometimes, the cognōmen is added to a particular person's name as an honorific or particular marker, for example, Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō, the victorious general of the Second Punic War, received the honorific Africānus and was then known as Scīpiō Africānus. Cicero's good friend Titus Pompōnius Atticus received his cognōmen as a result of his long residence in Athens. Sons adopted into other families would add their father's name, with the suffix -ānus to their new family name. For example, Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō, who did not have a son, adopted one of the sons of Lūcius Aemilius Paulus; that son's name became Pūblius Cornēlius Scīpiō Aemiliānus. Families with more than one daughter distinguished them with māior ("older," Cap. XIX) or minor ("younger," Cap. XIX), by numbers (prima, secunda, tertia), or by diminutives (just as sacculus, Cap. IV, is the diminutive of saccus, Cap. VI) like Līvilla, "little Līvia."

The number of praenomina is quite small. Including the list in the margin of page 86 in Lingua Latina, the following names were in common use:

| A. | Aulus | Mam. | Māmercus |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| C. | Gāius | N. | Numerius |
| Cn. | Gnaeus | P. | Pūblius |
| D. | Decimus | Q. | Quīntus |


| K. | Kaesō | Ser. | Servius |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| L. | Lūcius | Sp. | Spurius |
| M. | Mārcus | T. | Titus |
| M. | Mānius | Ti., | Tib. |
| Tiberius |  |  |  |

Why are Gāius and Gnaeus abbreviated with a C and why does Kaesō begin with K instead of C ? These spellings reflect an early period of the Latin alphabet, when the " $g$ " sound was represented by " $c$ " and " $k$ " had not yet been replaced by "c."

## The Roman Soldier

As you can see from the illustration on page 89, the castra Rōmāna was a model of organization. It had two main roads connecting four gates; the via praetōria led from the main gate to the principia, an open space in the camp in front of the general's quarters (praetōrium); the via prīncipālis ran in front of the principia to the other gates. At the end of Cap. XXXIII, you will find more information on the Roman soldier.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        fossa,-ae
        hasta,-ae
        patria,-ae
        sagitta,-ae
    2nd
        adiectīvum (nomen)
        avunculus, -\overline{1}
        arma, -ōrum (n.pl.)
        bellum, -i
        castra, -ōrum (n. pl.)
        comparātīvus, -ī (gradus)
        gladius, -i
        pīlum, -i
        pugnus, -i
        scūtum, -ī
        vāllum, -i
    3rd
        cognōmen, -inis (n.)
        dux, ducis (m.)
        eques, equitis (m.)
        frāter, frātris (m.)
        fīnis, fīnis (m.)
        hostis, hostis (m.)
        ditch, trench
        lance
        native country/town
        arrow
        adjective
        (maternal) uncle
        arms
        war
        camp
        comparative
        sword
        spear, javelin
        fist
        shield
        rampart
        surname
        leader, chief, general
        horseman
        brother
        boundary, limit, end
    enemy
```

```
    lātus, lāteris (n.)
    mīles, mīlitis (m.)
    mīlia, mīlium (n.)
    nōmen, nōminis (n.)
    pars, partis (f.)
    pedes, peditis (m.)
    praenōmen, praenōminis (n.)
    soror, sorōris (f.)
4th
    arcus, arcūs
    equitātus, equitātūs
    exercitus, exercitūs
    impetus, impetūs
    metus, metūs
    passus, passūs
    versus, versūs
```

Verba
-āre (1)
pugnat, pugnāre
mīlitat, mīlitāre
expugnat, expugnāre
oppugnat, oppugnāre
-ere (3)
incolit, incolere
dīvidit, dīvidere
metuit, metuere
dēfendit, dēfendere
i-stem
iacit, iacere
fugit, fugere
Irregular
fert, ferre
Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
altus, -a, -um
armātus, -a, -um
barbarus, -a, -um
lātus, -a, -um
vester, -tra, -trum
3rd
brevis, -e
fortis, -e
gravis, -e

Verba
-āre (1)
pugnat, pugnāre
mīlitat, mīlitāre
expugnat, expugnāre
oppugnat, oppugnāre
-ere (3)
incolit, incolere
dīvidit, dīvidere
metuit, metuere
dēfendit, dēfendere
i-stem
iacit, iacere
fugit, fugere
Irregular
fert, ferre
Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
altus, -a, -um
armātus, -a, -um
barbarus, -a, -um
lātus, -a, -um
vester, -tra, -trum
3rd
brevis, -e
fortis, -e
gravis, -e
side, flank
soldier
thousand
name
part, direction
footsoldier
first name
sister
bow
cavalry
army
attack, charge
fear
pace
line, verse
fight
serve as a soldier
conquer
attack
inhabit
divide
fear
defend
throw, hurl
run away, flee
carry, bring, bear
high, tall, deep
armed
foreign, barbarian
wide
your, yours
short
strong, brave
heavy, severe, grave
levis, -e
trīstis, -e
light, slight
sad

Praepositiōnēs
contrā (prp. + acc.) against

## Coniūnctiōnēs

ac
and, as, than

## XIII. Annus et Mēnsēs

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Preterite (Imperfect) Tense
b. dīcitur + Nominative Infinitive
c. Infinitive velle
2. Nouns
a. Case Uses
i. Ablative of Time When
ii. Accusative of Duration of Time
b. 5th Declension
c. māne (noun/adverb)
3. Adjectives
a. Names of the Months
b. Comparison of Adjectives
i. Positive
ii. Comparative
iii. Superlative
c. Numerals
i. Cardinals
ii. Ordinals
iii. Fractions
4. Conjunction: vel

## Roman Calendar

Today we still use a version of the Roman calendar as it was reformed by Iūlius Caesar in 46 BC with twelve months and 365 days ( 366 in leap years). Before this reform, only four months-March, May, July, and October-had 31 days, while February had 28 and the other months only 29. This made a total of 355 days. It was therefore necessary at intervals to put in an extra month. The Julian calendar was revised under Pope Gregory XIII in 1582 (creating the Gregorian calendar).

As you learn from the reading, in the oldest Roman calendar, March was the first month of the year and December the last. The calendar was agricultural and seems to have skipped the winter months. One of the early kings of Rome, Numa, is credited with adding January and February to make twelve months of the year. This explains the names September, Octōber, November, and December, which are clearly formed from the numerals septem, octo , novem, decem. The fifth month in the old calendar was called Quintīlis (from quīntus), but after the death of Iūlius Caesar, it was renamed Iūlius in memory of him. In the year 8 BC the following month, which until then had been called Sextilis (from sextus), was given the name of the Roman emperor Augustus.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Fifth Declension Nouns

The noun diēs, gen. diē̄̄, here represents the 5th declension (Latin dēclīnātiō quinta). Only a few nouns belong to the 5th declension. The complete paradigm is shown below and on page 101 in Lingua Latina.

- 5th declension nouns have stems in $\bar{e}$, which is kept before all endings, except for those noted below. Most 5th declension nouns have -iēs in the nominative, like:
diēs
merīdiēs
faciēs
glaciēs
- A few have a consonant before -ēs, e.g., the common word rēs, gen. reī ("thing," "matter"), which turns up in the next chapter.
- The long $\bar{e}$ of the 5th declension is shortened only:
$\triangleright$ before the ending of the accusative singular: - $\underline{e} m$
$\triangleright$ in the genitive and dative singular when a consonant precedes (e.g., $r e \bar{s}, r e \bar{l}):-\underline{e} \bar{\imath}$
- The nouns of this declension are feminine except for diēs (and merī-diēs), which is masculine. (In special senses and in late Latin, diēs is feminine.)

|  | sing. | pl. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | di $\mid \bar{e} s$ | di $\mid \bar{e} s$ |
| acc. | di\|em | di $\mid \bar{e} s$ |
| gen. | di\|ē | di $\mid \bar{e} r u m ~$ |
| dat. | di $\mid \bar{e} \bar{\imath}$ | di $\mid \bar{e} b u s$ |
| abl. | di $i \bar{e}$ | di $\mid \bar{e} b u s$ |

## Recēnsiō: Declensions

You have now learned all five declensions. The classification is based on the (original) final stem-vowel:

1st declension: $a$-stems, e.g., āla, gen. sing. -ae
2nd declension: o-stems, e.g., equus, $\bar{o} v u m$

- the " u " in the ending of these nouns was originally an " o "
equus < equ|os
$\bar{o} v u m<\bar{o} v \mid \underline{o} m$, gen. sing. $-\bar{\imath}(<-o i)$
3rd declension: consonant-stems and $i$-stems, e.g., sōl, ovi|s, gen. sing. -is 4th declension: $u$-stems, e.g., lacu|s, gen. sing. $-\bar{u} s$
5th declension: $\bar{e}$-stems, e.g., diē $\mid s$, $r \underline{e} \mid s$, gen. sing. $-\bar{e} \bar{\imath}$, $-e \bar{\imath}$


## Māne

The neuter noun māne is indeclinable; it is also used as an adverb (Cap. XIV, 1.155)

Prīma pars diēī est māne, pars postrēma vesper. (11.35-36)
Nox est tempus à vesperō ad māne. (1.37)

## Calendar: Names of the Months

The names of the months are adjectives: mēnsis Iānuārius, etc., but they are often used alone without mēnsis and come to be felt as masculine nouns (with mēnsis understood).

- Most of the months belong to the 1 st/2nd declension (e.g., Iānuārius, $-a$, -um).
- 3rd declension

Aprīlis
$\triangleright$ Genitive masculine singular in -is
$\triangleright$ Ablative in $-\bar{i}:$ (mense) Aprīl$\overline{\underline{ }}$
September, Octōber, November, December
$\triangleright$ Nominative masculine singular: -ber
$\triangleright$ Genitive masculine singular: -briis: Septembris, Decembris, etc.
$\triangleright$ Ablative in -i: (mēnse) Septembrī, Octōbri, etc.

## Expressions of Time

To express time when the ablative (ablātīvus temporis) without a preposition is used:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { mēnse Decembr르 } & \text { in the month of December } \\
\text { illō} \text { tempore } & \text { at that time } \\
\text { hōrāprī} \overline{\bar{a}} & \text { at the first hour }
\end{array}
$$

Tempore antīqū̄ Mārtius mēnsis prīmus erat. (ll.17-19)
Nocte sōl nōn lūcet. (1.46)
Vēre campī novā herbà operiuntur. (1.92)
"Quandō sōl altissimus est?" "Hōrā sextā vel merīdiè." (ll.107-108)
Time how long (duration) is expressed by the accusative:
centum annōg vīvere (ll.10-11)

## Numerals

Of the Latin numerals, you already know the cardinals 1-10:

| $\bar{u} n \mid u s,-a,-u m$ | sex |
| :--- | :--- |
| du\| $0,-a e,-o$ | septem |
| tr\|ēs, -ia | octō |
| quattuor | novem |
| quīnque | decem |

and the ordinals 1 st-4th. In numbering the months, the first twelve ordinals are needed:

| prim\|us, -a, -um | septim\|us, -a, -um |
| :---: | :---: |
| secund\|us, -a, -um | octāv\|us, -a, -um |
| terti\|us, $-a,-u m$ | nōn\|us, -a, -um |
| quārt\|us, -a, -um | decim\|us, -a, -um |
| quint\|us, -a, -um | ūndecim\|us, -a, -um |
| sext\|us, -a, -um | duodecim\|us, -a, -um |

The ordinals are also combined with pars to form fractions:

| $1 / 3:$ | tertia pars |
| :--- | :--- |
| $1 / 4:$ | quārta pars |
| $1 / 5:$ | quīnta pars (etc.) |

Notā Bene: $1 / 2:$ dimidia pars.

## Verbs: Preterite (Imperfect) Tense

The preterite comes from a compound of praeter ("beyond," Cap. XIV) and the verb ìre (Cap. XVI) ${ }^{1}$ and refers to "what has gone past," or the past tense. The forms erat, erant are used instead of est, sunt when the past is concerned. Compare the sentences:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\underline{\text { Tunc }}(=\text { illō tempore }) & \text { Mārtius mēnsis primus erat. } \\
\underline{\text { Nunc }}(=\text { hōc tempore }) & \text { Mārtius mēnsis tertius est. }
\end{array}
$$

[^14]Erat, erant is called the imperfect tense, or preterite, while est, sunt is the present tense ("tense" comes from Latin tempus and refers to the relative time of the verb). The past tense of other verbs comes later (Cap. XIX).

## Comparison of Adjectives

Consider the following examples:
Februārius brevis est.
Februārius brevior est quam Iānuārius.
Februārius mēnsis annī brevissimus est.

## Brevis breve (positive degree)

- simply describes or limits the noun "February"
- ends in:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& -u s,-a,-u m \text { (e.g., longus, }-a,-u m \text { ) } \\
& -i s,-e(\text { e.g., brevis, }-e) \\
& \text { (other endings will be learned later) }
\end{aligned}
$$

Brevior brevius (comparative degree of brevis)

- compares February with January
- ends in: -ior, -ius (e.g., longior, longius, brevior, brevius)
Brevissimus -issima, -issimum (superlative degree, Latin superlātīvus, of brevis):
- compares February with all the other months of the year
- ends in: -issimus, $-a$, -um (e.g., longissimus, $-a$, -um, brevissimus, $-a$, -um)


## Quam

Lines 25-30 illustrate the three degrees as well as different uses of quam:
Quam (= how) longus (positive degree) est mēnsis November?
November trīgintā diēs longus est. December ūnum et trīgintā diēs habet.
Iānuārius tam longus est quam (= as...as) December, sed Februārius $\underline{\text { brevior (comparative degree) est: duodētrīgintā aut ūndētrīgintā diēs }}$ tantum habet.
Februārius brevior (comparative degree) est quam (= than) cēterī $\bar{u} n d e c i m ~ m e \bar{e} n s e \bar{s}: ~ i s ~ m e ̄ n s i s ~ a n n i ̄ ~ b r e v i s s i m u s ~(s u p e r l a t i v e ~ d e g r e e) ~ e s t . ~$

## Vel

The conjunction vel was originally the imperative of velle; it implies a free choice between two expressions or possibilities. In each of the following, either expression will do:
duodecim mēnsēs vel trecentōs sexāgintā quīnque diēs (1.7)
centum annī vel saeculum (1.9)
hōra sexta vel merīdiēs (1.43)
Vel is distinct from aut, which is put between mutually exclusive alternatives. February can have either 28 or 29 days:

Februārius brevior est: duodētrīgintā aut ūndētrīgintā diēs. (1.28)

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Roman Calendar: Divisons of the Month

Three days in each month had special names; they are all feminine plurals:
kalendae the 1st
ìdūs the 13th (īdūs-uum 4th decl.)
nōnae the 5th (the 9th day before īdūs: inclusive reckoning)

In March, May, July, and October (the four months that originally had 31 days): $\bar{i} d \bar{u} s$ was the 15th nōnae was consequently the 7th

The following mnemonic may help:
In March, July, October, May
The IDES fall on the fifteenth day, The NONES the seventh; all besides Have two days less for Nones and Ides.
To these names (kalendae, $\bar{\imath} d \bar{u} s$, and nōnae) the names of the months are added as adjectives. Thus:

January 1st kalendae Iānuāriae
January 5th nōnae Iānuāriae
January 13th ìdūs Iānuāriae

## Ablative of Time When

Dates are given in the ablātīvus temporis, e.g.:
kalendīㅢㅗ Iānuārī̄
īdibus Mārtī̄̄ $\quad$ on March 15th

## Giving the Date in Latin

Other dates were indicated by stating the number of days before the following kalendae, nōnae, or $\bar{\imath} d \bar{u} s$. The Romans counted inclusively; that is, they counted the beginning and ending day, e.g., since April 21st (Rome's birthday) is the 11th day before kalendae Māiae (inclusive reckoning), it should therefore be: diēs ūndecimus ante kalend $\underline{a} s$ Māiās
but the Romans put the ante first with all the following words in the accusative:
ante diem ūndecimum kalend $\underline{a} s$ Māiās
usually shortened a. d. XI kal. Māi.
Using the table on page 312 of Lingua Latina, you can easily figure out the date.

## Dīcitur + Nominative and Infinitive

Note the passive dìcitur with an infinitive and the nominative case:
Lūna 'nová esse dīcitur. (1.52, "is said to be...")
Compare the same thought using the active verb (dīcunt) with the accusative and infinitive construction you learned in Cap. XI:
(Hominēs) lūnam 'novam' esse dīcunt.
When used with a predicate nominative, dīcitur is closer in meaning to "is called."

Diēs prīmus mēnsis Iānuārī̄ dī̀citur 'kalendae Iānuāriae.' (ll.56-57)
Item ‘īdūs Februāriae’ dīcitur diēs tertius decimus mēnsis Februārī̄. (11.64-65)

Diēs octāvus ante kalendās Iānuāriās, qū̄ dīcitur 'ante diem octāvum kalendās Iānuāriās,' est diēs annī brevissimus. (1l.72-74)

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

Velle
The infinitive of vult, volunt has the irregular form velle, as appears from the acc. + inf. in:

Aemilia puerum dormīre velle putat. (1.140)

## Recēnsiō: Expressions of Time and Space: Ablative and Accusative

The ablative represents a point in space or time:

- Space: Where?

Diēs est dum sōl in caelō est. (1.35)
In Germāniā hiemēs frīgidiōrēs sunt quam in Italiā. (ll.95-96)

- Time: When? During what time?

Aestāte diēs longī sunt, sōl lūcet, āēr calidus est. (1.87)
Hōc annī tempore diēs nōn tam calidī sunt quam aestāte et noctēs frīgidiōrēs sunt. (1l.120-121)
The accusative represents movement through a block of space or time.

- Space: How long? How high? How deep?

Gladius duōs pedēs longus est. (Cap. XII, 1.49)
vāllum castrōrum...prope decem pedēs altum est, et duo mīlia passuum longum. (Cap. XII, ll.101-103)

- Time: How long?

November trīgintā diēs longus est. (ll.25-26)
Mārtius ūnum et trīgintā diēs longus est. (ll.30-31)
In both cases, the accusative expresses movement through space/time from point A to point B, unlike the ablative, which expresses a specific point in space/time.

## Studia Rōmāna

The Julian calendar was all our Julius and his family had ever known. Julius Caesar revised the Roman calendar so that it followed the natural year more closely. Revised very slightly in 1582 by Pope Gregory XIII, the Julian calendar (now called the Gregorian calendar) is still the calendar we use today.

The ancients had long known the length of the solar year, but calendars did not strictly follow the natural year until Julius Caesar, in 45 BC, made his reforms law. Before the Julian calendar, the Romans had to periodically insert days into the year in order to "catch up" to the solar calendar. These intercalendary days (or months!) could be a nuisance. Cicero, while governing the province of Cilicia and eager to return to the political scene at Rome, begs his friends to vote against inserting more days into his term of office.

The Romans had two ways of referring to years. Rome was ruled by kings from the founding of the city in 753 BC up to 510 BC , when it became a republic. One way of marking the years was to refer to the number of years from the founding of the city (in Latin: ab urbe conditā, abbreviated AUC). More commonly, the years were named by the two leaders of the republic, the cōnsulēs (after 510 BC ); their names appear in the ablative (in a construction you will learn in Caps. XIV and XVI). In the year 70 BC, for example, Gnaius Pompēius (Pompey the Great) and Mārcus Crassus were consuls, and the year was marked: Cn. Pompēiō M. Crassō cōnsulibus, "when Gnaeus Pompey and

Marcus Crassus were the consuls." It was not until 153 BC, however, that January 1 st became the start of the consular year (that is, the date when the consuls took office). Our strict notions of time and dates are a relatively recent phe-nomenon-the marking of precise time was not as important to the Romans.

The illustration at the beginning of the chapter gives you the twelve astrological signs familiar to us today-and familiar to the Greeks and Romans 2,000 years ago. Astrology was adopted by the Greeks from the Babylonians and the Egyptians in the third century BC and from the Greeks was taken up by the Romans. Cicero translated from Greek to Latin a poem about celestial phenomena by Aratus, in which he tells us that the Greeks call the swath of sky divided into the twelve familiar divisions Zōdiacus and the Romans the orbis signifer. ${ }^{2}$ The emperor Augustus is said to have had his horoscope (hōroscopus) published as a sign of his destined power. In the first century AD, Manilius wrote Astronomica, a long poem in Latin about astrology, and in the second century, the Egyptian polymath Ptolemy and the lesser-known Vettius Valēns wrote books on astrology.

In the illustration on p . 96 , you can see a sundial (hōrologium), an ancient clock. The sundial has twelve divisions, not twenty-four, because it works only during the day. At night, the movement of the heavenly bodies could be consulted and, for use inside, the ancients could use a water clock, in which water poured into a vessel from one on a higher level. Since the days are longer or shorter depending on the time of the year, time in antiquity was flexible. The first hour began with sunrise. You might also have noticed the absence of a word for our "week." The concept of the week, found in the East (where it was important for astrology), seems to have shown up in Rome under the emperor Augustus, but it did not come into common use until the third century AD, after the time of our narrative. The word for it is septimāna (Latin) and hebdomas (from the Greek). The Romans had other ways of marking the progression of the months. In addition to the Kalends (Kalendae), Ides (Īdūs) and Nones (Nōnae), every ninth day was a market day, called Nūndinae (<novem+dies). The chart on page 312 of your text lays out the Roman calendar.

In this chapter, you also meet two gods of the Roman state: Iānus and Mārs. Roman religion existed on several levels: the state, the neighborhood, the family, and the individual. It is also a mixture of native Italian elements and imports from Greece and elsewhere. Janus is a native Italic deity depicted with two heads facing in different directions. The name Iānus means passageway (and in Cap. XV you will learn the word iānua, which, like ōstium, means "door"). Janus is the god of passageways and thus is associated with beginnings (making January an appropriate name for the first month of the year). The doors of the temple of Janus in the Forum were closed in times of peace and open in times of war. Mars, the god of war, is associated with the Greek god
2. Zōdiacum hunc Graecī vocitant, nostrīque Latīnī orbem signiferum perhibēbunt nōmine vērō.
of war Ares. As in the illustration in the margin of your text, Mars is shown in battle array. After Iuppiter, Mars is the chief god of the Romans. The Romans credited Mars with fathering Romulus, the founder of Rome, and his brother Remus.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        fōrma,-ae
        hōra,-ae
        kalendae, -ārum (pl.)
        lūna,-ae
        nōnae, -ārum (pl.)
        stēlla,-ae
    2nd
        aequinoctium, -i
        annus, -\overline{1}
        autumnus, -\overline{1}
        initium, -i
        saeculum, -i
        superlātīvus, -i}\mathrm{ (gradus)
        vesper, vesperī
    3rd
        aestās, aestātis (f.)
        hiems, hiemis (f.)
        imber, imbris (m.)
        lūx, lūcis (f.)
        mēnsis, mēnsis (m.)
        nix, nivis (f.)
        nox, noctis (f.)
        tempus, temporis (n.)
        urbs, urbis (f.)
        vēr, vēris (n.)
    4th
        ìdūs, īduum (f.pl.)
        lacus, -ūs
    5th
        diēs, -ēī (m.)
        faciēs, -ēī
        glaciēs, -ēi
        merīdiēs, -ēī (m.)
        indēclīnābilis
        māne
```

form, shape, figure
hour
the 1st of the month
moon
5th/7th of the month
star
equinox
year
autumn
beginning
century
superlative
evening
summer
winter
rain, shower
light, daylight
month
snow
night
time
city
spring

13th/15th of the month
lake
day, date
face
ice
midday, noon, south
indeclinable
morning

```
Verba
    -āre (1)
        illūstrat, illūstrāre
        nōminat, nōmināre
-ere (3)
    i-stem
        incipit, incipere begin
    -īre (4)
        operit, operīre cover
    Irregular
        erat, erant was, were
        vult, velle want, be willing
Adiectīva
    1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
        aequus, -a, -um
        calidus, -a, -um
        clārus,-a, -um
        decimus, -a, -um
        dīmidius, -a, -um
        duodecimus, -a, -um
        exiguus, -a, -um
        frīgidus,-a, -um
        nōnus, -a, -um
        obscūrus, -a, -um
        octāvus, -a, -um
        postrēmus, -a,-um
        quīntus, -a, -um
        septimus, -a, -um
        sextus, -a, -um
        tōtus, -a,-um
        ūndecimus, -a,-um
    3rd
    indēclīnābilis,-e indeclinable
    equal, calm
    warm, hot, f. hot water }\mp@subsup{}{}{3
    bright, clear, loud
    tenth
    half
    twelfth
    small, scanty
    cold, chilly, cool
    ninth
    dark
    eighth
    last
    fifth
    seventh
    sixth
    the whole of, all
    eleventh
Numerī (indeclinable unless otherwise noted)
    ducentī,-ae, -a
    sexāgintā
    trecentī,-ae, -a
    trīgintā
    ūndecim
Adverbia
    item likewise, also
    māne in the morning
```

3. When calida (f.) is used as a noun, it means calida aqua $=$ hot water.

| nunc | now |
| :--- | :--- |
| quandō | when, as |
| tunc | then |

Coniūnctiōnēs
igitur
vel
therefore, then, so
or

## XIV. Novus Diēs

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs:
a. inquit, inquiunt
b. Agreement of subject/verb
2. Nouns: Case Uses
a. Dative of Interest (datīvus commodī)
b. Ablative of Attendant Circumstances
3. Present Participles (participium praesēns)
4. Adjectives
a. omnis-e
b. Numbers duo, duae, duo (ablative)
c. uter, neuter, alter, uterque
5. Pronouns: mihi, mē, tibi, tē (dative/ablative)
6. Points of Style: sē habēre

## The New Day

At dawn, Marcus is roused from his morning slumbers by Davus, who also sees to it that he washes properly before putting on his tunica and toga, the clothes that were the mark of freeborn Roman men and boys.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Uter, neuter, alter, uterque

Among the new words in this chapter is a group of words that is used only when two persons or things are concerned; they can be used as adjectives or pronouns:

| uter? | which (of the two)? |
| :--- | :--- |
| neuter | neither (of the two) |
| alter | the other (of the two) |
| uterque | each (of the two) |

Uter，utra，utrum is the interrogative used when there are only two alter－ natives（＂which of the two？＂），e．g．：

Uter puer，Mārcusne an（the conjunction an，not aut，is put Quintus？ between the two in question）
The answer may be：
1．neuter，－tra，－trum（＂neither＂），e．g．，neuter puer，nec Mārcus nec Quintus．
2．alter，－era，－erum（＂one＂／＂the other＂），e．g．，alter puer，aut M．aut Q．
3．uter－，utra－，utrum－que（＂each of the two＂），e．g．，uterque puer，et M． et Q ．

## Uterque

Where English prefers＂both＂followed by the plural（＂both boys＂），Latin has the singular uterque：

Uterque puer cubat in cubiculō parvō，neuter in cubiculō magnō．（ll．8－9）
Uterque puer quiētus est，neuter puer sē movet．（ll．10－11）
Uterque is singular and followed by a singular verb．

## Subject－Verb Agreement

In Cap．I，you learned that a singular subject is joined with a singular verb and in Cap．V，that plural subjects are joined with a plural verb．In this chapter，we see an exception to that rule：the verb is in the singular if there are two subjects separated by neque．．．neque，aut．．．aut，or et．．．et，as in：
et caput et pēs eī dolet．（11．3－4）
nec caput nec pēs dolet．（1．66）
The general rule is that two or more subjects：
－take a verb in the plural if they denote persons，as in：Parentēs ā fīliō intrante salūtantur．（1．91）
－if the subjects are things，the verb agrees with the nearest subject， as in： pēs et caput ē̄ dolet． ．（ll．3－4，64）

## Dative of Interest／Reference

In the last example（ $p \bar{e} s$ et caput $e \bar{\imath}$ dolet），the dative $e \bar{\imath}$ denotes the person concerned，benefited，or harmed．This use of the dative is called the dative of interest or reference（datīvus commodī），e．g．：

Bracchium quoque dolet Quintō．（1．4）
Multī⿱龴⿵⺆⿻二丨䒑 barbarīs magna pars corporis nūda est．（ll．76－77）

## Duo, duae, duo

The ablative of duo, duae, duo is:

- masculine and neuter duōbus $\bar{e}$ duōbus puerīs (1l.11-12) in duōbus cubiculīs
- feminine duābus
$\bar{e} d u a ̄ b u s ~ f e n e s t r i ̄ s ~(1.16) ~$


## Ablative of Attendant Circumstances

A noun and an adjective in the ablative can show the conditions surrounding the verb, as in:

Mārcus fenestrā apertā dormit.
Is fenestrā clausā dormit. with the window shut (1.18)
Quīntus, quī oculīs apertīs with his eyes open (ll.21-22) iacet.
with the window open (1.15)

Notice that the noun comes first; this is the case unless the adjective is being emphasized.

## Present Participle (Participium Praesēns)

On page 104, a new form of the verb is introduced, the participle (Latin participium) ending in -( $\bar{e}) n s$ :
puer dormiēns = puer quī dormit (11.22-23)
puer vigilāns = puer quī vigilat (1.23)
The participle, being part verb and part adjective, was called participium (< pars partis "part" + capere "take" = share, participate). The participle shares in two parts of speech, the adjective and the verb. The participle:

- is a 3rd declension adjective with the same ending in the nōminative singular of all genders.
vigilāns, gen. -ant $\mid$ is
dormiēns, gen. -ent|is
- keeps verbal functions, e.g.,
it may take an object in the accusative:
Dāvus cubiculum intrāns interrogat... (1.25)
- has an ablative singular in $-e$ when it has verbal force, e.g.:

Parentēs à fïliō intrante salūtantur. (1.91)

- has an ablative singular in -ī only when used only as an adjective, with no verbal force:

| ibi nocte silentī Ariadnam | He left Ariadne sleeping there <br> during the silent night. (Cap. XXV, |
| :--- | :--- |
| dormientem relīquit. | $11.99-100$ ) |

Silentī is the ablative of the present participle of silerre. Here, it is being used only as an adjective describing the night and has no verbal force.

## Participle

| sing. | m./f. | n. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | $-n s$ | $-n s$ |
| acc. | $-n t e m$ | $-n s$ |
| gen. | $-n t i s$ |  |
| dat. | $-n t \bar{\imath}$ |  |
| abl. | $-n t e l-n t \bar{i}$ |  |
| pl. |  |  |
| nom./acc. | $-n t \bar{e} s$ | $-n t i a$ |
| gen. | -ntium |  |
| dat./abl. | $-n t i b u s$ |  |

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Personal Pronouns: Dative and Ablative

Mihi and tibi are the datives corresponding to the accusatives $m \bar{e}$ and $t \bar{e}$ :
"Affer mihi aquam!" (1.43)
"Mihi quoque caput dolet!" (1.65)
"Tibi nec caput nec pēs dolet!" (1.66)
The ablative of these pronouns is identical with the accusative: $m \bar{e}$, $t \bar{e}$. When used as the object of the preposition cum, the preposition is suffixed:

```
mē-cum
tè-cum
se\overline{e-cum}
```

For example:
Dāvus eum sēcum venīre iubet: "Venī mēcum!" (11.86-87)
"Mēdus tēcum ìre nōn potest." (1.117)
"Alterum tēcum fer!" (1.108)
"Cūr ille servus mēcum venīre nōn potest ut solet?" (1.120)
"...stilum rēgulamque sēcum ferēns è villā abit." (1l.127-128)
acc. $m \bar{e} t \bar{e}$
dat. mihi tibi
abl. $m \bar{e} t \bar{e}$

## Inquit

The verb inquit, "(he/she) says," is inserted after one or more words of direct speech:

> "Hōra prīma est," inquit Dāvus, "Surge ē lectō!" (1.40)
> Servus Mārcō aquam affert et "Ecce aqua," inquit. (1.44)

It is a defective verb: only inquit, inquiunt and a few other forms of the indicative occur. Neither inquit nor inquiunt is used to begin accusative + infinitive constructions.

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Omnis, -e

The opposite of nūllus is omnis, $-e$ ("every," "all"), which more often appears in the plural omnēs, -ia (see lines 115 and 119).

Used without a noun, the plural omnēs ("everybody") is the opposite of $n \bar{e} m \bar{o}$ ("nobody"), and the neuter plural omnia ("everything") is the opposite of nihil ("nothing").

```
omnis }\leftrightarrow\mathrm{ nūllus
omnēs }\leftrightarrow nēmo
omnia }\leftrightarrow\mathrm{ nihil
```


## Points of Style: sē habēre

Davus asks Quintus, Quōmodo sē habet pēs tuus hodiē? (ll.25-26) ("How is your foot today?"). Quintus answers, "Pēs male sē habet" (1.27). Sē habēre + adverb = to be (in a certain state) and is a regular way of asking how, as we say in English, "someone is doing."

## Studia Rōmāna

In Cap. III, you learned tuxtax (ll.64, 65), a word meant to represent the sound of being beaten. The sound of the rooster crowing is "Сисиrrū! Сисисиrrū!" (1.19); the verb cūcūrīre means "to crow." You read about the ancient approach to time at the end of Cap. XIII. Romans tended to wake and sleep with the rhythms of the sun and noted exceptions. As a marker of his leisurely life, Horace boasts that he likes to sleep in until the fourth hour after sunrise (Satire 1.6.122); work done after dark, and hence by lamplight, is called lūcūbrātiō, and Cicero coined the verb $\bar{e} l \bar{u} c u ̄ b r a ̄ r e ~ f o r ~ w o r k i n g ~ b y ~ l a m p l i g h t . ~(O f ~ c o u r s e, ~$ Roman lamps are ubiquitous archaeological finds, so clearly, people didn't go to bed as soon as the sun set or always wait for the sun to rise to start their day.)

Davus is in charge of getting the boys off to school and it was Medus's job (before he ran away) to take them to school. It seems these two slaves shared the post of paedagōgus, the slave who minded the children at home and watched over them as they went to school. Paedagōgus is a Greek word adopted by the Romans; the Latin word custos is sometimes found. Quintilian, who wrote a book on the education of the orator (İnstitūtiō Ōrātōria) in the century before our narrative (c. AD 35-100), stresses that a paedagōgus should be well educated and should speak both Latin and Greek well. That way, the children will not develop bad habits of speech at home. The paedagogus helped with the children's education, supervised homework and monitored their behavior. He was held responsible for their well-being. Quintilian blames bad behavior on lazy paedagōgì. Cicero, in a letter to his friend Atticus (Ad Att. 12.33), worries about the health of Atticus's daughter, Attica; were not her paedagogus beyond reproach, Cicero writes, he would be inclined to blame him for Attica's ill health. Horace's father acted as his son's paedagogus, not trusting the job to a slave: ipse mihi custōs incorruptissimus omnīs/circum doctōrēs aderat (Sat. 1.6.81-82: "My father himself, most blameless guardian, was at my side around all my teachers").

When Marcus goes off to school, his father tells him, "Valē! Bene ambulà!"(l.130). This expression of farewell goes all the way back at least to the comic playwright Plautus in the second century BC.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

| Nōmina |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1st |  |
| rēgula, -ae | ruler |
| tabula, -ae | writing tablet |
| toga, -ae | toga |
| tunica, -ae | tunic |
| 2nd |  |
| calceus, -ī | shoe |
| gallus, -ī | cock, rooster |
| participium, -i | participle |
| stilus, -ī | stylus |
| vestìmentum, -1 | garment, clothing |
| 3rd |  |
| parentēs, -um (m. pl.) | parents |
| 5th |  |
| rēs, reī (f.) | thing, matter, affair |
| Indeclinable |  |
| nihil ( $n$. ) | nothing |

```
Verba
    -āre (1)
        cubat, cubāre
        vigilat, vigilāre
        excitat, excitāre
        lavat, lavāre
    -ēre (2)
        valet, valēre be strong, be well
        solet, solēre
        frīget, frīgēre
    -ere (3)
        surgit, surgere
        mergit, mergere
        poscit, poscere
        induit, induere
        gerit, gerere
    -ire (4)
        vestit, vestīre
Irregular
        affert, afferre
        inquit, inquiunt
Adiectīva
    1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
        apertus,-a, -um
        clausus, -a, -um
        sordidus, -a, -um
        pūrus, -a, -um
        nūdus, -a, -um
        togātus, -a, -um
        dexter, -tra,-trum
        sinister,-tra, -trum
        neuter, -tra,-trum
        alter, -era, -erum
        uter, -tra, -trum?
        uterque, utraque, utrumque
3rd
    omnis, -e
Prōnōmina
        mihi
    me, myself (dat.)
tibi
mēcum
    lie (in bed)
    be awake
    wake up, arouse
    wash, bathe
    be accustomed
    be cold
    rise, get up
    dip, plunge, sink
    demand, call for
    put on (clothes)
    carry, wear, carry on, do
    dress
    bring (to, forward)
    (he/she) says/said
        open
all, every
you, yourself (dat.)
with me
```

[^15]tēcum
sēcum
Adverbia
prīmum
nihil/nī1 ${ }^{2}$
quōmodo
hodiē
adhūc
deinde/dein
Praepositiōnēs
praeter (prp. + acc.)
Coniūnctiōnēs
an
Alia
valē, valēte
or (mostly with ūter: ūter...an)
with you
with himself/herself
first
nothing, not at all how
today
so far, till now, still
afterward, then
past, besides, except
farewell, goodbye

[^16]
## XV. Magister et Discipulī

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Personal Endings: 1st and 2nd Person
b. esse
c. posse
d. Impersonal Verbs
i. convenit
ii. licet
2. Nouns: Case Uses
a. Accusative of Exclamation
3. Pronouns
a. Personal Pronouns
b. Pronouns vs. Possessive Adjectives
c. Reflexives in Indirect Statement

## Going to School in Ancient Rome

The illustration at the start of the chapter is a drawing of an ancient relief sculpture of a schoolroom. Rome had no public school system. Parents who could afford it sent their young children to an elementary school, $\bar{u} d u s$, or had them educated at home by a tutor, often a slave. Quintilian (see notes at end of Cap. XIV) writes about the advantages and disadvantages of each, but sees the natural competition and sociability of the schoolroom as a productive atmosphere for learning. The $l \bar{u} d u s$ was run as a private enterprise by a $l \bar{u} d \bar{\imath} ~ m a g i s t e r, ~ w h o ~$ taught the children reading, writing and arithmetic.

We now follow Marcus to school. His teacher tries his best to maintain discipline, but he has some difficulty in keeping these boys in hand. His recourse to corporal punishment seems to have been a familiar feature of the schoolroom: the first-century BC poet Horace called his teacher Orbillius "plāgōsus" (full of plaggae or blows) and other writers as well testify to the severity of the schoolroom. Quintilian disapproves of corporal punishment and blames the
laxity of contemporary paedagoggi: it is the job of the paedagōgus to monitor the behavior of his charge. He complains that the paedagōgi don't do their jobs of making the boys behave and then the boys are punished for not behaving (İnstitūtiō Ōrātōria I.3).

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Personal Endings: 1st and 2nd Person Singular

From the conversation between the teacher and his pupils, you learn that the verbs have different endings as one speaks about oneself (1st person), addresses another person (2nd person), or speaks about someone else (3rd person).

The dialogue in lines 35-40 illustrates the 1st, 2nd, and 3rd singular endings:
Titus, quī librum nōn habet, "Ego librum nōn habeō."
Magister: "Quid? Sextus librum suum habet, tū librum tuum nōn habēs? Cūr librum nōn habēs?""
Titus: "Librum nōn habeō, quod Mārcus meum librum habet.,"
It appears from this that in the singular:

- the 1 st person of the verb ends in $-\bar{o}(h a b e \mid \bar{o})$
- the 2nd in -s (habē|s)
- the 3rd, as you know, in - $t$ (habe|t)


## Personal Pronouns

The verbs in the above examples are preceded by personal pronouns in the nominative:

$$
\begin{array}{lllll}
\text { ego } & \text { 1st pers. sing. } & n \bar{o} s & \text { 1st pers. pl. } \\
t \bar{u} & \text { 2nd pers. sing. } & v \bar{o} s & \text { 2nd pers. pl. }
\end{array}
$$

But these pronouns are only used when the subject is emphasized, for example (11.24-26):

Sextus: "Num ego discipulus improbus sum?"
Magister: "Immō tū probus es discipulus, Sexte, at Mārcus et Quīntus et Titus improbī sunt!"

Normally, the personal ending is sufficient to show which person is meant, as in these examples (11.38-39):

Magister: "Cūr librum nōn habēs?"
Titus: "Librum nōn habeō."

## Exclamation: Accusative and Vocative

Diodorus expresses his frustration with the students in two different ways:
"Ō, discipulōs improbōs...!" (1.23)
"Ō improbī discipulī̀!" (ll.101-102)
The first example ( $\bar{O}$, discipulōs improbōs) is in the accusative, the second (O improbī discipulī!!) in the vocative. (As you learned in Cap. IV, the vocative plural has the same form as the nominative plural.) What's the difference? The vocative is used to address those present, while the accusative (called the accusative of exclamation) exclaims about more than to the students.

## Esse

The verb esse is irregular; in the singular, it runs:
sum
es
est
Example:
"Cūr tū sōlus es, Sexte?" "Ego sōlus sum." (11.20-21)

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Personal Endings: 1st and 2nd Person Plural

The dialogue in lines 51-57 illustrates the 1st and 2nd plural endings:
Mārcus (ad Sextum et Titum): "Vōs iānuam nōn pulsātis cum ad lūdum venīti̧, nec magistrum salūtātis cum eum vidētis. Audīțisne id quod dīcō?"
Tum Sextus et Titus: "Id quod dīcis," inquiunt, "Vērum nōn est: $\underline{n \bar{o} s}$ iānuam pulsāmus cum ad lūdum venīmus, et magistrum salūtāmus cum eum vidèmus. Nōnne vērum dīcimus, magister?"

It appears from this that in the plural:

- the 1st person ends in -mus (pulsä|mus, vidē $|m u s, v e n i ̄| m u s)$
- the 2nd in -tis (pulsā|tis, vidē|tis, dīc|itis venī|tis)
- the 3rd, as you know, in -nt (pulsa|nt, vide|nt, dic|unt veni|unt)

The examples in the section Grammatica Latina in Lingua Latina show how these personal endings are added to the various stems in the present tense. The way vocabulary is listed at the end of the chapter will also change. From now on, the 1st person singular, not the 3rd, will be given for each verb.

## Personal Pronouns (continued)

The plural of the personal pronouns in the nominative:
$n o ̄ s$
$v o ̄ s$

1st pers. pl.
2nd pers. pl.

The accusative of ego and $t \bar{u}$ is $m \bar{e}$ and $t \bar{e}$, but $n \bar{o} s$ and $v \bar{o} s$ are the same in the accusative (ll.119-120):
"Quid nōs verberās, magister?"
"Vōs verberō."

|  | sing. | pl. | sing. | pl. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | $e g o$ | $n \bar{o} s$ | $t \bar{u}$ | $v \bar{o} s$ |
| acc. | $m \bar{e}$ | $n o \bar{s}$ | $t \bar{e}$ | $v \bar{o} s$ |

You will learn the forms of the genitive in Cap. XXIX. For now, add the nominative and accusative to the forms you have already learned:

|  | sing. | pl. | sing. | pl. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | $e g o$ | $n o \bar{s}$ | $t \bar{u}$ | $v \bar{o} s$ |
| acc. | $m \bar{e}$ | $n o \bar{s}$ | $t \bar{e}$ | $v \bar{o} s$ |
| gen. |  |  |  |  |
| dat. | $m i h i$ | $n o \bar{b} \bar{\imath} s$ | $t i b i$ | $v \bar{o} b \bar{s} s$ |
| abl. | $m \bar{e}$ | $n o \bar{b} \bar{s} s$ | $t \bar{e}$ | $v o \bar{b} \bar{s} s$ |

## Overview of Present Active Endings

| 1st | $-\bar{o},-m u s$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2nd | $-s,-t i s$ |
| 3rd | $-t,-n t$ |

Notā Bene:

- before $-\bar{o}$ :
$\triangleright \bar{a}$ combines with $-\bar{o}: p u l s \mid \bar{o}$ (stem pulsㅢ̄)
$\triangleright \bar{e}$ and $\bar{i}$ shorten: habee $\mid \bar{o}, v e n i \underline{i} \bar{o}$ (stems habēe-, venī-)
- in 3rd conjugation consonant-stems:
$\triangleright$ a short $i$ is inserted before:
$-s: d \bar{c} c \mid \underline{i} s(s t e m ~ d \bar{d} c-$ )
-mus: dīc|imus
-tis: dīc|itis
$-t$ : dicc|īt
$\triangleright$ before $n t$ we find a short $u$ : -nt: dīc|ūnt
- in 3rd conjugation $i$-stems, a short $i$ appears before the endings:
$\triangleright \bar{o}:$ faci| $\mid \bar{o}($ stem faci-)
$\triangleright$-unt: faci|unt
- Other verbs of this kind that you have met are accipere, aspicere, capere, fugere, iacere, incipere, and parere.

|  | 1st | 2nd | 3rd cons. | 3rd i-stem | 4th |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sing. 1 | puls $\bar{o}^{\circ}$ | habe ${ }_{\text {ó }}$ | dīc\|ō | faci\|ō | veni\|ō |
| 2 | pulsā\|s | habē\|s | dic is $^{\text {s }}$ | faci\|s | venī\|s |
| 3 | pulsa\|t | habe\|t | dīc\|it | faci\|t | veni\|t |
| pl. 1 | pulsā\|mus | habē\|mus | dīclimus | faci\|mus | venī\|mus |
| 2 | pulsā\|tis | habē\|tis | dīc\|itis | faci\|tis | venī\|tis |
| 3 | pulsa\|nt | habe\|nt | dìclunt | faci\|unt | veni\|unt |

## The Reflexive in Indirect Speech

Much of the time, changing direct speech to indirect speech is pretty straightforward. When someone reports his or her own words in the accusative and infinitive construction (indirect speech), the subject accusative is the reflexive $s \bar{e}$. This is best learned by studying several examples. We have already read an example in Cap. XIV:

Dāvus...eum sēcum venīre iubet: "Venī mēcum!": Davus orders him (Marcus) to come with him (Davus): "Come with me!" (Cap. XIV, 1.87)

Quīntus: "(Ego) aeger sum" is reported by Marcus: Quīntus dīcit "sē aegrum esse." Quintus says that he is sick. (1.82)
Mārcus: "Ego eius librum habeō" becomes Mārcus dīcit "sē eius librum habēre."
Mārcus: "Ego," inquit, "nōn dormiō" becomes Mārcus dīcit "sē nōn dormīre."
Sextus et Titus: "Neque nōs dormīmus," inquiunt. "Vigilāmus et omnia verba tua audīmus" becomes Sextus et Titus dīcunt "sē nōn dormīre; s̄e vigilāre et omnia verba eius audīre."

## Esse (continued)

The verb esse is irregular; in the plural, it runs:

Example:
"Ubi estis, puerī?" "In lūdō sumus." (ll.113-114)
Esse

|  | sing. | pl. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1st | sum | sumus |
| 2nd | es | estis |
| 3rd | est | sunt |

## Convenit

We first met convenit in Cap. VIII (see Points of Style in that chapter). Convenit comes from convenīre and is here used impersonally, i.e., in the 3rd person singular. ${ }^{1}$ The impersonal convenit often has an infinitive subject and a dative of reference:

Tergum dolet Mārcō, neque ille lacrimat, nam lacrimāre puerō Rōmānō nōn convenit. (ll.62-64)

## Posse

Compounds of esse show the same irregular forms. As you learned in Cap. X, the " $p o t$ " of the verb:

- remains before the vowel "e" in potes, potest
- becomes "pos" before " $s$ " in possum

In the singular, posse runs:
pos-sum
pot- $\underline{e s}$
pot-est
Examples (11.72-73):
Mārcus: "Non cōnsīdō, quod sedēre nōn possum."
Diodōrus: "Cūr sedēre nōn potes?"

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Posse (continued)

In the plural, posse runs:
pos-sumus
pot-estis
pos-sunt

1. Convenīre can also be used personally, i.e., with a subject other than "it."

Examples (1l.124-127):
Magister: "Quid nōn cōnsīditis?" Discipulī: "Nōn cōnsīdimus, quod sedère nōn possumus."
Diodōrus: "Quid? Sedēre nōn potestis?... Nec enim stantēs dormīre potestis!"

## Licet

The verb licet ("it is allowed," "one may") is also (like convenit) impersonal, i.e., only found in the 3 rd person singular. It is often, like convenit, combined with a dative: mihi licet ("It is permitted to/for me," therefore "I may").

- In lectulō dormīre licet, hīc in lūdō nōn licet dormīre!
- cf. necesse est (Cap. X: "it is necessary"), which, in addition to the accusative and infinitive, also takes the dative and infinitive. In addition to:
Necesse est tē pūnīre. (1.59-60)
We might say:
Necesse est discipulīs aperīre librōs (it is necessary for the students to open [their] books).


## Recēnsiō: Pronouns vs. Possessive Adjectives

In this chapter, you learned more forms of the personal pronoun. In Caps. II, IV, V, and XI, you learned the possessive adjective. Review the following forms:

|  | personal <br> pronouns | possessive adjectives | personal <br> pronouns | possessive adjectives |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nom. | ego | meus, mea, теит | $n \bar{s} s$ | noster, nostra, nostrum |
| acc. | $m \bar{e}$ |  | nōs |  |
| dat. | mihi |  |  |  |
| abl. | $m \bar{e}$ |  |  |  |
| nom. | $t \bar{u}$ | tuus, tua, tuит | $v \bar{s} s$ | vester, <br> vestra, vestrum |
| acc. | $t \bar{e}$ |  | $v \bar{s} s$ |  |
| dat. | tibi |  |  |  |
| abl. | $t \bar{e}$ |  |  |  |

## Studia Rōmāna

After studying with a lūdī magister (also called a litterātus), boys would go to a grammaticus to learn Greek and Latin literature, especially poetry. Students should also learn music and astronomy and philosophy, according to Quintilian (Īnstitūtiō Ōrātōria, I.4). The grammaticus might also teach rhetoric (the stages of education are not nearly as rigidly defined as ours), the art of public speaking, but this third stage of education was the province of the rhētor.

As the sons of a wealthy Roman, Marcus and Quintus would receive a highly literary and rhetorical education, that is, training in the art of speaking. Cato (second century BC) defined the ideal Roman as vir bonus dīcendī perītus, a good man skilled in speaking, and this ideal persisted. Cicero wrote several works on oratory (oratory, from ōrātio, is the equivalent Latin word for rhetoric, from the Greek $\rho \eta$ торıкós in the first century BC ); Quintilian's first century AD Īnstitūtiō Ōrātōria follows in the tradition of Cato (whose vir bonus dīcendī perìtus he quotes) and Cicero (who receives lavish praise) of preparing a man for an active and honorable life in the state. (His contemporary, the poet Mārtiälis, praised Quintilian as the "consummate guide for directionless youth, the glory of the Roman toga." ${ }^{2}$ )

A rhetorical education encompassed training in literature, philosophy and history, as well as language. It was, in other words, an education in the liberal arts (artēs or doctrinnae līberālēs). Cicero (dē Ōrātōre, 3.127) enumerated these liberal studies as geometry (geōmētrīa), music (mūsica), knowledge of literature, both prose and poetry (litterae et poetae), science (dē rērum natūrā), ethics (dē hominum mōribus), and statesmanship (dē rēbus pūblicīs). Educated people could expect other educated people to have studied the same works of literature. Before the imperial period, young men often went to Greece to study with philosophers. By the time of our narrative, however, the emperors had set up professorships of Greek and Latin at Rome, and there were many Greek philosophers teaching in Rome.

Education was not the province only of the family and paid (or slave) teachers. Mentoring the young was part of Roman culture: young men associated with established ones. Cicero writes about sitting and listening to accomplished orators and jurists when he was young, especially Cotta and Hortensius (e.g., Brūtus 189). When he had gained a place for himself among Roman statesmen, he mentored younger Romans. In his defense of the young Caelius Rufus, Cicero tells us that as soon as Caelius assumed the toga virilis, his father brought him to Cicero and Marcus Crassus to continue his education (prō Caeliō, 9). At that time, Caelius was surely also training with a teacher. In the second century AD, Pliny the Younger tells us much in his letters about his efforts to ensure the continuing education of young men. And Marcus Aurelius

[^17]was finished with his formal schooling, was married, with children and was emperor-still, he happily received and wrote letters to Marcus Cornelius Fronto, who had been his teacher of Latin rhetoric. Their correspondence is a testimony to Marcus's continuing education and the importance of the social network.

A good deal of the teaching, both formal and informal, promoted imitation. If you want to be a good orator, read good oratory and listen to good orators and practice. If you want to be a good person, evaluate the examples (exempla) of Roman history. Even in the second century BC, Fronto refers to examples from early Roman history (and can assume that Marcus knows just what he is talking about). The mōs māiōrum, "the way our ancestors did things," was kept alive though stories of the past and through the tutelage of family, teachers, and other Romans.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

Nōmina
1st
iānua, -ae
sella, -ae
virga, -ae
2nd
discipulus, $-\overline{1}$
domī
lūdus, -ī
magister, magistrī
tergum, - $\overline{1}$
lectulus, - $\overline{1}$
Verba
-āre (1) exclāmō, exclāmāre recitō, recitāre
-ēre (2)
licet, licēre (+ dat.)
-ere (3) ${ }^{3}$
cōnsīdō, cōnsīdere
dēsinō, dēsinere
reddō, reddere
-īre (4)
pūniō, pūnīre
Irregular redeō, redīre sum, esse
door
stool, chair
rod
pupil, disciple
at home (locative)
play, game, school
schoolmaster, teacher
back
bed
cry out, exclaim
read aloud
it is allowed, one may
sit down
finish, stop, end
give back, give
punish
go back, return
be
3. The first principal part will show you whether a 3rd conjugation verb is a consonant or $i$-stem; they will, therefore, no longer be separated out.
Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
malus, -a, -um bad, wicked, evil
sevērus, -a, -um
tacitus, -a, -um
vērus, -a, -um
Adiectīva Comparātiva (3rd)
inferior, -ius
posterior, -ius
prior, -ius
Prōnōmina
ego
tū
nōs
vōs
Adverbia
nōndum not yet
statim
tum
at once
then
Coniūnctiōnēs
antequam
before
at
but
sī
nisi
vērum
I, myself
you, yourself
we, us, ourselves
you, yourselves
if
if not, except, but
but
Vocābula Interrogātīva quid?
why?

## XVI. Tempestās

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Deponent Verbs (verba dēpōnentia)
b. Irregular Verbs
i. ìre
ii. fierī
2. Nouns
a. Pure $i$-Stems
b. 1st Declension Masculine Nouns
c. Case Uses
i. Partitive Genitive
ii. Ablative of Degree of Difference
iii. Ablative with locus
3. Participles: Ablative Absolute (ablātīvus absolūtus)
4. Points of Style: Word Order

## Ancient Navigation

When sailing on the high seas, the Roman sailor had to set his course by the sun in the daytime and by the stars at night. So east and west are named in Latin after the rising and the setting sun, oriēns and occidēns, and the word for "midday," merīdiēs, also means "south," while the word for "north" is the name of the constellation Septentriōnēs (septem triōnēs), "The Seven PlowOxen," i.e., "the Great Bear." The location of the port cities in lines 12-19 can been seen on the map on page 40 . Medus approaches a captain and arranges to travel on a merchant ship, as there was no equivalent of the modern passenger ship, although larger ships would have room for more passengers. He and Lydia would have had to bring their own food and sleep on deck.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Pure i-Stems

There is a small group of 3rd declension nouns that are called pure $\boldsymbol{i}$-stems because they have $-i$ throughout, for example, the noun puppis, $-i s(\mathrm{f}$.$) , which$ has:

- -im in the accusative (instead of -em)
- $-\bar{i}$ in the ablative singular (instead of $-e$ )

Very few $i$-stems are declined in this way, e.g., the river name Tiberis, -is (m.):

Urbs Rōma nōn ad mare, sed ad Tiberim flūmen sita est. (1l.7-8)

## 1st Declension Masculine Nouns

1 st declension nouns (in $-a,-a e$ ) are feminine, except for a few which denote male persons and are therefore masculine, e.g., nauta: nauta Rōmānus.

## Locus

The ablative of locus may be used

- without in to denote location ("where"):
$\triangleright$ Ōstia sita est eō locō quō Tiberis in mare innferum inffluit. (ll.15-16) e $\underline{o}$ locō $=$ in eō locō (location)
- without a preposition to denote motion "from":
$\triangleright$ Mēdus surgere cōnātur, nec vērō sē locō movēre potest. (1l.140-141) locō movēre (ablative of separation)


## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Deponent Verbs (verba dēpōnentia)

In Section I, we met opperīī̀ (= exspectāre) a passive form with active meaning: necesse est ventum opperīrī (1.29)
Many of the new words in this chapter are deponent verbs (verba dēpōnentia). These verbs have no active forms, ${ }^{1}$ hence, verba dēpōnentia: verbs that "put aside" their passive meanings ${ }^{2}$ (Latin dēpōnere, "put aside").

[^18]The infinitive ends in $-r \bar{r},-\bar{\imath}$

| -ārī: |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| cōnārī | attempt, try |
| cōnsōlārī | comfort |
| laetārı̄ | be happy |
| -èrī: |  |
|  | look |
| verērī | fear |
| $-\bar{i}$ : |  |
| complectī | embrace |
| ègredī | go out |
| $l a ̄ b \bar{\imath}$ | slip |
| loqū̄ | speak |
| proficīscī | set out |
| sequì | follow |
| -irio: |  |
| opperìi | wait for |
| orīrī | rise |

From the following examples, you can see verbs that have passive forms but active meanings:
laetār $\bar{\imath}=$ gaudēre
verēr $\bar{\imath}=$ timēre
$\bar{e} g r e d \bar{\imath}=$ exìre
nauta Neptūnum verētur = nauta Neptūnum timet
ventō secundō nāvēs è portū ègrediuntur $=$ exeunt

## Participles: Ablative Absolute (ablātīvus absolūtus)

In Cap. XIV, we learned about the ablative of attendant circumstances, which was illustrated in that chapter by
fenestrā apertā
fenestrā clausā
In this chapter, we learn more about this construction. In the marginalia of Section I, you read that:
marㅡㅡㄴ turbid $\underline{\bar{o}}=$ dum mare turbidum est (1.36)
ventō secundō $=$ dum ventus secundus est (1.38)

These are more examples of the ablative used as an adverbial phrase. Such an adverbial phrase, grammatically independent of the rest of the sentence, is called an ablative absolute (Latin ablāt̄̄vus absolūtus, "set free," therefore independent). It represents the circumstances occurring around an action. In each of the following, the ablative gives further information about the verb. We find the ablative absolute with adjectives:

Ventō secundō nāvēs ē portū ēgrediuntur. (11.38-39)
The ablative ventō secund $\underline{\bar{o}}$ tells us under what circumstances the ships put out ("with a fair wind," "when the wind is favorable").
Nautae nec marī turbidō nec marī tranquillō nāvigāre volunt.
(11.36-37)

The sailors are unwilling to sail "when the sea is rough," "when the sea is calm."
plēnīs vēlīs...vehuntur. (ll.39-40)
They travel "with full sails."
pedibus nūdīㄷ (Cap. XIV, 1.85)
stands "with bare feet"
The ablative absolute is common with a participle, either present or past:
Present participle:
Sōle oriente nāvis è portū ēgreditur multīs hominibus spectantibus. (ll.64-65); "when the sun is rising," "at sunrise" ... "while many people are looking on"
Past participle:
fenestrㅢㅡ apert믈 dormīre (Cap. XIV, 1.15): to sleep "with the window open" (cf. fenestrā clausā, Cap. XIV, 1.15)
Even two nouns can form an ablative absolute:
Sōle duce nāvem gubernō (1.94); "the sun being my guide," "with the sun as a guide"
The ablative absolute may often be translated with an English temporal clause (when, while), as in the sentences above. It can also show cause (why the verb happens) and even concession (although the verb happens). If you need to translate an ablative absolute into English, it helps to start with "with" and then think about what the relationship of the ablative absolute means to the rest of the sentence.
ire
In the verb ire (and its compounds), the 1st person é $\bar{o}$ and 3rd person eunt are irregular, e.g.:
in patriam nostram ìmus (1.89)
"Nōnne gaudēs," inquit, "mea Lydia, quod nōs simul in patriam nostram redimus?" (ll.79-81)
īre

|  | sing. | pl. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1st | $e \bar{o}$ | $\overline{\text { imus }}$ |
| 2nd | $\overline{\text { ss }}$ | $\overline{\text { itis }}$ |
| 3rd | it | eunt |

## Partitive Genitive

Since Cap. II, you have been seeing the noun numerus followed by the genitive; in Cap. XII, you learned about the genitive with mîlia:

In flūminibus et in maribus magnus numerus piscium est. (Cap. X , 11.41-42)

Ergō mīlle passūs sunt quīnque mīlia pedum. (Cap. XII, 11.96-97)
In castrīs Aemilī̄ sex mīlia mīlitum habitant. (Cap. XII, ll.97-98)
These genitives give the whole of which the noun is a part; they are called partitive genitives (or genitives of the whole). This chapter begins with the partitive genitive of the relative pronoun:

Italia inter duo maria interest, quōrum alterum "mare Superum" appellātur; quōrum (= è quibus: "of which one...the other") cf. nēmō eōrum (= ex ī̄s, Cap. XVII, 1.12).
Quantity terms like multum and paulum are often followed by a partitive genitive to express "that of which" there is a large or small quantity, e.g.:
paulum/multum aquae $(11.9,117)$
paulum cibī nec multum pecūniae (ll.61-62)
paulum temporis (l.108 margin)

## Ablative of Degree of Difference

The ablative of multum and paulum serves to strengthen or weaken a comparative; this is called the ablative of degree of difference:

Nāvis paulō levior fit, simul vērō flūctūs multō altiōrēs fīunt (ll.123124): "a little," "a lot"

The same forms are used with ante and post (as adverbs) to state the time difference:
paulō ante (1.148)
paulō post (1.91)
cf. the ablative in annō post (Cap. XIX, 1.83)
decem annīs ante (Cap. XIX, l.123)

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Fierī

The infinitive $f i \mid$ erī ( 3 rd person $f i\left|t f_{i}\right| u n t$ ) is also irregular. This verb functions as the passive of facere (see Cap. XVIII); in connection with an adjective, it comes to mean "become":

Mare tranquillum fit. (ll.97-98)
Flūctūs multō altiōrēs fīunt. (1.124)

## Points of Style: Word Order

In Cap. XIII, we met the demonstrative is, $e a$, $i d$ being used as an adjective with a dependent genitive:

Is mēnsis annī brevissimus est. (1.30)
Is diēs annī prīmus est atque initium annī novī. (1l.58-59)
In both of these examples, we see that the demonstrative generally precedes the noun. In this chapter, we see a similar example:

Ea pars cael̄̄ unde sōl oritur dīcitur oriēns. (1.45)
In all these examples, the genitive follows the noun. Another very common word order is for the genitive to come between the qualifier and its noun, as in the following example:

Merī̀diēs dīcitur ea caelī pars ubi sōl merīdiē vidētur. (1.48)

## Studia Rōmāna

The dangers of sea travel are widely attested in Roman literature. The gubernātor (whence we get the name governor and government, those who guide the ship of state) calls upon Neptūnus, the god of the sea, about whom you learned in Cap. X. Sailors also called on the twin heroes Castor and Pollūx (the Dioscūrī, or "sons of Zeus") who are associated with the phenomenon we call St. Elmo's Fire, electric currents around the masts of ships during thunderstorms that appear to be balls of heavenly fire.

Both the Greeks and Romans are fond of cursing the first person who put
to sea in a boat. The poet Horace wrote a poem begging Castor and Pollux to take care of his good friend, the poet Vergil, who was about to set out to Greece. He says the man who first entrusted a raft to the sea was a hard man whose heart was surrounded three times with bronze (Ōdēs 1.3.9-12: illī rōbur et aes trīplex/circā pectus erat, quī fragilem trucī/conmīsit pelagō ratem/prīmus).

Despite its dangers, sea travel was efficient and lucrative. Ships carrying a wide variety of merchandise could be found at Ostia (Portus Ostiēnsis), the port whence Medus and Lydia depart. Still visible among the remains at Ostia is the Square of the Corporations (called, in Italian, Piazzale delle Corporazioni). This porticus contains many small rooms with mosaic floors that proclaim a variety of trades and guilds (collēgia). Among those represented are traders in leather, rope, wood, and several of grain, but many more goods came and left through Ostia. A large number of warehouses (horrea) for storing grain attest to the importance of feeding a large population.

At line 119, the gubernātor tells his crew, "Iacite mercēs!" This iactūra, or throwing overboard of the ship's cargo (i.e., jetsam) and thus making the boat less heavy, must have been the ruin of many a small merchant. Shipwreck, naufragium, was such a common problem that a law (iūs naufragī̀) regulated against the appropriation of the discarded cargo (flotsam). Philosophers explored as an ethical problem the decision of what to throw overboard. Which is sacrificed? The expensive racehorse or the cheap slave? Human feeling argues for the latter, preservation of wealth for the former (Cicero, dé Officī̄s, 3.89). ${ }^{3}$

Horace refers to both iactūra and to the saving power of Castor and Pollux in another ode; because he has no attachment to wealth, he has no need to grovel to the gods to save his goods when seas grow stormy. Castor and Pollux will carry him safely in his tiny boat: "It's not my style, if the mast should wail in a hurricane from the south, to run to wretched prayers and bind myself with vows lest my Cyprian and Tyrian goods add wealth to the greedy sea; at such a time, with the help of my two-oared skiff, Pollux and his twin brother will carry me safely on the breeze through the Aegean storm." (Odes 3.29.57-64)

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        nauta, -ae(m.)
        òra,-ae
    2nd
        altum, -i
        locus, -i
```

sailor
border, coast
"the deep": the open sea
place

[^19]| multum, $-\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | a lot, a good deal of |
| :--- | :--- |
| paulum, $-\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | a little (also, adv.) |
| vēlum, $-\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | sail |
| ventus, $-\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | wind |
| 3rd |  |
| fulgur, fulguris $(n)$. | flash of lightning |
| gubernātor, gubernātōris $(m)$. | steersman |
| merx, mercis $(f)$. | commodity, pl. goods |
| nāvis, nāvis $(f)$. | ship |
| occidēns, occidentis $(m)$. | west |
| oriēns, orientis $(m)$. | east |
| puppis, puppis $(f)$. | stern, poop deck |
| septentriōnēs, septentriōnum $(m . p l)$. | north |
| tempestās, tempestātis $(f)$. | storm |
| 4th |  |
| flūctus, $-\overline{\mathbf{u}} \mathbf{s}(m)$. | wave |
| portus, $-\bar{u} s(m)$. | harbor |
| tonitrus, $-\bar{u} s(m)$. | thunder |

Verba
-āre (1)
appellō, appellāre
call, address
attempt, try
comfort, console
blow
steer, govern
throw, toss about
call upon, invoke
rejoice, be glad
sail
preserve, save
stir up, agitate
fill, complete
look at, watch
fear
-ere (3)
cernō, cernere
cōnscendō, cōnscendere
īnfluō, īnfluere
occidō, occidere
complectitur, complectī
ègreditur, ègredī
lābitur, lābī
loquitur, loquī
proficīscitur, proficīscī
sequitur, sequī
discern, perceive
mount, board
flow into
fall, sink, set
embrace
go out
slip, drop, fall
speak, talk
set out, depart
follow

```
-i`re (4)
    hauriō, haurīre
    opperītur, opperīrī
    oritur, orīrī
Irregular
    interest, interesse
    fit, fierī
```

Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
āter, -tra, -trum
contrārius, -a, -um
inferus, -a, -um
maritimus, -a, -um
serēnus, -a, -um
situs, -a, -um
superus, $-\mathrm{a},-\mathrm{um}$
tranquillus, -a, -um
turbidus, -a, -um
dēpōnēns (gen. depōnentis)
Coniūnctiōnēs
sīve
Praepositiōnēs
propter (prp. + acc.)
Adverbia
iterum
paulum
praetereā
semper
simul
vix
vērō
draw (water), bail
wait (for), await
rise, appear
be between
be done, become, happen
black, dark
opposite, contrary
lower
seaside, coastal
clear, cloudless
situated
upper
calm, still
agitated, stormy
deponent (verb)
or, or if
because of
again, a second time
a little, little
besides
always
at the same time
hardly
really, however, but

## XVII. Numerī Difficilēs

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Passive Voice
b. oportēre (impersonal)
c. dare
2. Nouns: Case Uses
a. Double Accusative
3. Adjectives: Numbers
a. Cardinals
b. Inflection
c. Ordinals
4. Pronouns: quisque
5. Adverbs

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Roman Coins

To teach his pupils arithmetic, the teacher has recourse to coins. The current Roman coins were:

> as (assis m.$)$ copper
> sēstertius $\left(\mathrm{HS}^{1}\right)=4$ assēs: brass
> dēnārius $=4$ sēstertī̄: silver
> aureus $=25$ dēnārī̄: gold (Cap. XXII, l.108)

## Quisque, quaeque, quodque

Only the first part (quis) of the pronoun quisque (each) declines; you will meet the feminine (quaeque) and neuter (quodque) in Cap. XVIII. Compare:

| uterque <br> quisque | each (of two) |
| :--- | :--- |

[^20]
## Double Accusative

Note the two accusatives with docēre, one for the person(s) (puerōs), the other for the thing (numerōs) taught:

Magister puerōg numerōō docet. (ll.1-2)

## Cardinal Numbers

In Cap. IV, you learned to count to ten:

| $\bar{u} n u s$, a, um | sex |
| :--- | :--- |
| duo, duae, duo | septem |
| trēs, tria | octō |
| quattuor | novem |
| quīnque | decem |

To be able to count up to a hundred, you must learn the multiples of ten. With the exception of 10 decem, 20 v $\bar{q} g i n t \bar{\imath}$, and 100 centum, they all end in -gintā:

| 10 decem | 60 sexāgintā |
| :---: | :---: |
| 20 vīgintī | 70 septuāgintà |
| 30 trīgintā | 80 octōgintā |
| 40 quadrāgintā | 90 nōnāgintā |
| 50 quīnquāgintà | 100 centum |

The numbers in between are formed by combining multiples of ten and smaller numbers with or without et, e.g.:

21 vīgintī ūnus or $\bar{u} n u s$ et vīgintī
22 vīgintī duo or duo et vīgintī
The cardinals 11-17 end in-decim, a weakened form of decem:
11 ūn-decim 15 quīn-decim
12 duo-decim 16 sē-decim
13 trē-decim 17 septen-decim
14 quattuor-decim
but 18 and 19 show the pattern numbers will follow:
18 duo-dē-vīgintī ("two-from-twenty")
$19 \bar{u} n$-dē-vīgint $\bar{\imath}$ ("one-from-twenty")
In the same way, 28 is duo-dēe-trīgintā and $29 \bar{u} n$-dēe-trīgintā. Thus, the last two numbers before each multiple of ten are expressed by subtracting two and one, respectively, from the multiple of ten in question.

## Inflection of Numbers

Like quot, the interrogative that asks the number ("how many?"), and tot, the demonstrative that refers to the number ("so many"), most Latin cardinals are indeclinable.

Of the cardinals $1-100$, only $\bar{u} n|u s,-a,-u m, d u| o,-a e,-o$ and $\operatorname{tr}|\bar{e} s, \operatorname{tr|}| i a$ decline (and those cardinals that end in them: e.g., ūna et vīgintī nāvēs: 21 ships). You have already met most forms of these numbers (the genitives, $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{\imath} u s$, du|ōrum, -ārum, -ōrum and tr|ium, will be introduced in Cap. XIX).

|  | m . | f. | n. | m . | f. | n. | m./f. | n. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nom. | ūn\|us | $\bar{u} n \mid a$ | йn\|um | du\|o | du\|ae | du\|o | tr\|ès | $t r \mid i a$ |
| ac | ӣn\|um | $\bar{u} n \mid a m$ | $\bar{u} n \mid u m$ | $d u \mid \bar{s}$ | $d u \mid \bar{a} s$ | du\|o | $t r \mid e \bar{s}$ | tr\|ia |
| gen. |  |  |  | du\|ōrum | du\|ārum | du\|ōrum |  |  |
| dat. | $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{\imath}$ | $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{i}$ | $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{i}$ | du\|ōbus | du\|ābus | du\|ōbus | trlibus | trlibus |
| abl. | $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{o}$ | $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{a}$ | $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{o}$ | dulōbus | du\|ābus | dulōbus | trlibus | trlibus |

Multiples of 100 (centum) end in $-\operatorname{cent} \bar{\imath}(200,300,600)$ or $-\operatorname{gent} \bar{\imath}(400,500,700$, $800,900)$ and are declined like adjectives of the 1 st/2nd declension:

| 200 du-cent $\mid \bar{i},-a e,-a$ | 600 ses-cent $\mid \bar{i},-a e,-a$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 300 tre-cent $\mid \bar{i},-a e,-a$ | 700 septin-gent $\mid \bar{i},-a e,-a$ |
| 400 quadrin-gent $\mid \bar{i},-a e,-a$ | 800 octin-gent $\mid \bar{i},-a e,-a$ |
| 500 quīn -gent $\mid \bar{i},-a e,-a$ | 900 nōn-gent $\mid \bar{i},-a e,-a$ |

## Ordinal Numbers

In Cap. XIII, you learned the ordinal numbers 1st through 12th:

| prīm\|us, $-a,-u m$ | septim\|us, $-a,-u m$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| secund\|us, $-a,-u m$ | octāv\|us, $-a,-u m$ |
| terti\|us, $-a,-u m$ | nōn\|us, $-a,-u m$ |
| quārt $\mid u s,-a,-u m$ | decim\|us, $-a,-u m$ |
| quīnt $\mid u s,-a,-u m$ | ündecim\|us, $-a,-u m$ |
| sext\|us, $-a,-u m$ | duodecim\|us, $-a,-u m$ |

The ordinals are adjectives of the 1st/2nd declension; for the multiples of 10 , 20-90, and of 100, 100-1,000, they are formed with the suffix -ésim|us, $-a,-u m$ :

| 20th vīcēsimus, -a, -um | 100th centēsimus, $-a,-u m$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| 30th trīcēsimus, $-a$, -um | 200th ducentēsimus, $-a,-u m$ |
| 40th quadrāgēsimus, -a, -um | 300th trecentēsimus |
| 50th quīnquāgēsimus, etc. | 1,000th mîllēsimus |

Notā Bene:

- Cardinals end in:

11-17 -decim
30-90 -gint $\bar{a}$
200, 300, 600 -cent $\mid \bar{\imath}$
400, 500, 700, 800, 900 -gent $\mid \bar{\imath}$

- Ordinals end in:

20th-90th, 100th-1,000th -ēsim|us
A summary is given on page 308 in Lingua Latina.

## Adverbs

The forms rēctē, prāvē, stultē, and aequē are formed from the adjectives rēctus, prāvus, stultus, and aequus; this formation will be dealt with in the next chapter.

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## The Passive Voice

You have been using the passive voice in the 3rd person singular and plural since Cap. VI. Now we see the remaining endings, the 1 st and 2 nd persons, singular and plural. The following sentences show examples of the passive voice (11.63-81):

- 1st person:
singular: $\quad$ Cūr ego semper à tè reprehendor, numquam laudor?
plural: Nōs quoque saepe interrogāmur, nec vērō prāvē respondēmus. Itaque nōs à magistrō laudāmur, nōn reprehendimur.
- 2nd person:
singular: Tū à mè nōn laudāris, quia numquam rēctē respondēs. Semper prāvē respondēs, ergō reprehenderis!
plural: Et cūr vōs semper laudāminī? Quia id quod vōs interrogāmin̄̄ facile est-ego quoque ad id rēctē respondēre possum. Vōs numquam reprehendiminī!
- 3rd person:
singular: Mārcus semper à magistrō reprehenditur, numquam laudātur.
plural: Sextus et Titus à magistrō semper laudantur, numquam reprehenduntur.


## Forming the Passive Voice

- personal endings

|  | sing. | pl. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. | $-r$ | - mur |
| 2. | -ris | - minī |
| 3. | -tur | $-n t u r$ |

- The 1st, 2nd, and 4th conjugations: add the endings to the stem with the same vowels as in the active.
- The 3rd conjugation (including 3rd $i$-stems): the vowels are the same as in the active, except in the 2nd person singular, where the short $i$ becomes $e$ before $r$ (e.g., reprehenderis: you are being censured; caperis: you are being taken).
- Remember that deponent verbs (Cap. XVI) use these endings as well, as in largior and vereor in the paradigms that follow.

| sing. | -āre | -ēre | -ere | -ire |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1st | laud\|or | vere\|or | reprehend\|or | largi\|or |
| 2nd | laudà\|ris | verē\|ris | reprehend\|eris | $\operatorname{larg} \overline{\mathrm{i}}$ ris |
| 3rd | laudā\|tur | verē\|tur | reprehend\|itur | $\operatorname{largī} \mid$ tur |
| pl. |  |  |  |  |
| 1st: | laudā\|mur | verē\|mur | reprehend\|imur | $\operatorname{largī\|mur~}$ |
| 2nd: | laudā\|minı̄ | verē\|minī | reprehend\|iminī | largī\|mini |
| 3rd: | lauda\|ntur | vere\|ntur | reprehend\|untur | largi\|untur |

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Oportēre (Impersonal)

The verb oportēre occurs only in the 3rd person singular, like licet and convenit (Cap. XV):

Prīmum cōgitāre oportet. (1l.110-111)
Nōn oportet respondēre antequam interrogāris. (1l.115-116)

## Dare

The stem of the verb da|re ends in a short $a$ : da|mus, da|tis, da|tur, da|te! etc., except in $d \bar{a}!d \bar{a} \mid s$ and $d \bar{a} \mid n s$ (before $n s$, all vowels are lengthened).

## Studia Rōmāna

When Diodorus puts his students through their mathematical paces, he makes them apply their skills to money. Horace gives us an example of such interrogation: "Roman boys learn through lengthy calculations to divide a copper coin (as, assis, m.) into a hundred parts."... "if a 12th part is taken from $5 / 12$, what remains?" ... "a third." "Excellent! You'll be able to safeguard your finances!" (Ars Poētica 325-29). The as could be divided into 12 parts, which were represented by names, not by fractions as we do. The Latin word for $1 / 12$ is uncia, whence comes our word ounce. Twelve unciae, or ounces, made up the Latin pound (lībra). In Cicero's opinion, the goal of mathematics began and ended with its practical value. He had little interest in the theoretical mathematics of the Greeks, among whom geometry held the highest honor and nothing was more respectable than mathematics. The Romans, on the other hand, have set the limit to this art at the expedience of measuring and calculating (de Finibus 1.5: in summō apud illōs honōre geōmētria fuit, itaque nihil mathēmaticīs illustrius; at nōs mētiendī ratiōcinandīque ūtilitāte huius artis termināvimus modum).

Our monetary system is fiduciary (from fidēs, fidḕ, "belief, trust," Cap. XXXI) - that is, the value of the paper bills or metal coins we use in buying and selling does not equal the face value (it costs as much to produce a $\$ 100$ bill as a $\$ 5$ bill), but we all agree that a $\$ 100$ bill buys 20 times as much as a $\$ 5$ bill. During the Roman Empire, the state determined the value of coins, but that value reflected the worth of the metal used in producing the coin. The various metals used during the period of our text show this relative value: copper (the as) is worth less than brass (sēstertius), which in turn is less than silver (dēnārius) and gold (aureus). Adulteration and devaluation of currency was a problem-by the end of the second century AD (the time of our narrative), the silver dēnārius was only about 50 percent silver, and the rest was bronze. As you can see from the image in the margins on page 129 , the border of the image embossed on the surface of the coin did not reach to the edge; sometimes, people trimmed off the extra metal before spending the coin.

The study of coins is called numismatics; the images on coins provide a wealth of information. The front of a coin is called the obverse and the back the reverse. Imperial coins often show the head of the emperor (or a member of his family) on the obverse and a significant image on the reverse. For example, Mārcus Decimus Brūtus, one of the men who assassinated Julius Caesar on the Ides of March in 44 BC , issued a denarius with his image on the obverse and, on the reverse, a pilleus (cap that indicated freedom) flanked by two daggers. In the second century AD, Hadrian (emperor 117-138) issued a gold aureus with his head on the obverse and the inscription Hadriānus Augustus; on the reverse is embossed Romulus and Remus nursing at the wolf with the inscription COS (= consul) and the number four: consul for the fourth time. The reverse of a coin issued by Marcus Aurelius has a reverse with the inscription PIETAS AUG (= pietās Augusta) showing implements symbolic of sacrifice and priestly office.

## Vocabula Disposita/Ordinata

| Nōmina <br> 2nd <br> dēnārius, $-\overline{1}$ <br> respōnsum, $-\overline{1}$ | denarius (silver coin) |
| :--- | :--- |
| 3rd | answer |
| as, assis $(m)$. | as (copper coin) |
| Verba |  |
| -āre (1) |  |
| cōgitō, cōgitāre | think |
| computō, computāre | calculate, reckon |
| dēōnstrō, dēmōnstrāre | point out, show |
| interpellō, interpellāre | interrupt |
| laudō, laudāre | praise |

```
-ēre (2)
    doceō, docēre teach, instruct
    oportet, oportēre it is right, one should
    -ere (3)
        discō, discere
    prōmō, prōmere
    repōnō, repōnere
    reprehendō, reprehendere
    tollō, tollere
-īre (4)
    largior, largīrī
    nesciō, nescīre
    partior, partīrī
    sciō, scīre
Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
    centēsimus, -a, -um
    certus, -a, -um
    doctus, -a, -um
    incertus, -a, -um
    indoctus, -a, -um
    industrius, -a,-um
    largus,-a, -um
    piger, pigra, pigrum
    prāvus, -a, -um
    rēctus,-a,-um
3rd
    absēns (gen. absentis)
    difficilis, -e (sup. difficillimus)
    facilis, -e (sup. facillimus)
    prūdēns, prūdentis
Numerī
    trēdecim
    quattuordecim
    quīndecim
    sēdecim
    septendecim
    duodēvīgintī
    ūndēvīgintī
    quadrāgintā
    quīnquāgintā
    septuāgintā
    quadringentī, -ae, -a
    quīngentī, -ae,-a
    sescentī,-ae, -a
    learn
    take out
    put back
    blame, censure
    raise, lift, pick up, remove, take away
give generously
not know
share, divide
know
hundredth
certain, sure
learned, skilled
uncertain
ignorant
industrious
generous
lazy
faulty, wrong
straight, correct
absent
difficult, hard
easy
prudent, clever
thirteen
fourteen
fifteen
sixteen
seventeen
eighteen
nineteen
forty
fifty
seventy
four hundred
five hundred
six hundred
```

```
    septingentī, -ae,-a
    octingentī, -ae, -a
    nōngentī, -ae, -a
```

Prōnōmina
quisque, quaeque, quodque
Adverbia
aequē
numquam
postrēmō
prāvē
quārē
rēctē
saepe
tot
ūsque
Coniūnctiōnēs
quamquam
seven hundred
eight hundred
nine hundred
each
equally
never
finally
wrongly
why
correctly
often
so many
up (to), all the time
although

## XVIII. Litterae Latīnae

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs: facere/fierī
2. Adjectives
a. Superlatives (continued)
b. frequēns
c. facilis
3. Pronouns
a. ìdem, eadem, idem
b. quisque, quaeque, quodque
4. Adverbs
a. Positive, Comparative, Superlative Degrees
b. Numerical Adverbs
5. Conjunction: cum
6. Points of Style: idiom suum cuique

## Pronunciation

In the Classical period, Latin spelling gave a fairly reliable representation of the pronunciation. In some cases, however, letters continued to be written where they were no longer pronounced in colloquial Latin, e.g., $h-,-m$ in the unstressed endings -am, -em, -um, and $n$ before $s$. An indication of this is the occurrence of "misspellings" in ancient inscriptions written by people without literary education, e.g., ora for horam, septe for septem, and meses for menses. In his short exercise, Marcus makes several errors of this kind. Quintilian recognized the difficulty Marcus has encountered (İnstitūtiō Ōrātōria I.1.30): "There is no shortcut to learning the syllables; all must be thoroughly learned and the hardest ones must not-as people often do-be put off." ${ }^{1}$

[^21]
## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## İdem, eadem, idem

The demonstrative pronoun idem, eadem, idem ("the same," cf. "identical") is a compound, the first element of which is the pronoun is, ea, id; the addition of the suffix -dem causes the following changes:

- is-dem to īdem
- eum-dem, eam-dem to eundem, eandem. ${ }^{2}$

|  | $\begin{aligned} & \text { sing. } \\ & \text { m. } \end{aligned}$ | f. | n. | $\left\lvert\, \begin{aligned} & \mathrm{pl} . \\ & \mathrm{m} . \end{aligned}\right.$ | f. | n. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| acc. <br> gen. <br> dat. <br> abl. | ìdem eundem eiusdem eīdem eōdem | eadem eandem eiusdem eìdem eādem | idem <br> idem <br> eiusdem <br> eīdem <br> eōdem | ī̄dem eōsdem eōrundem ī̄sdem ī̄sdem | eaedem eāsdem eārundem ī̄sdem ī̄sdem | eadem <br> eadem <br> eōrundem <br> ī̄sdem <br> ī̄sdem |

Examples:
Numerus syllabārum et vōcālium īdem est. (1.21) in eādem syllabā (1.26)
Vocābulum prīmum utrīusque sententiae idem est, sed hoc idem vocābulum duās rēs variās significat. (ll.32-33)
Item varia vocābula eandem rem vel eundem hominem significāre possunt. (ll.33-35)
Discipul̄̀ eandem sententiam nōn eōdem modō, sed varī̄s modīs scrībunt. (ll.56-58)

## Quisque, quaeque, quodque

The pronoun quis-que, quae-que, quod-que ("each") is declined like the interrogative adjective with the addition of -que.

|  | sing. |  |  | pl. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | m. | f. | n. | m. | f. | n. |
| nom. | quisque | quaeque | quodque | qū̄que | quaeque | quaeque |
| acc. | queтqque | quamque | quodque | quōsque | quāsque | quaeque |
| gen. |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| cuiusque | cuiusque | cuiusque | quōrumque | quārumque | quōrumque |  |
| dat. |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| cuique | cuique | cuique | quibusque | quibusque | quibusque |  |
| abl. | quōque | quāque | quōque | quibusque | quibusque | quibusque |

[^22]Examples:
Quisque discipulus in tabulā suā scrībit eās sententiās quās magister ē̄ dictat. (11.49-50)
Quisque puer stilum et rēgulam prōmit et dūcit līneam rēctam in tabulā suā. (ll.55-56)
Discipulus quamque litteram cuiusque vocābulī sīc legit. (1l.41-42)
Ita quodque vocābulum cuiusque sententiae à discipulō legitur. (ll.4344)

Quaeque syllaba vōcālem habet. (1.20)

## Facerelfierī

The verb facere has no passive form. Instead, fieri functions as the passive of facere:

Vōcālis syllabam facit; sine vōcāl̄̄ syllaba fierī nōn potest. (1.25)
Cum syllabae iunguntur, vocābula fîunt. (1.29)
Cum vocābula coniunguntur, sententiae fīunt. (1l.29-30)
active facere: facit, faciunt
passive fierī: fit, fìunt
Notā Bene: Compounds of facere ending in -ficere, e.g., ef-ficere, can be used in the passive:
stilus ex ferrō efficitur (= fit)

## Conjunction Cum

The conjunction cum may serve to introduce a sudden occurrence, as in this example (1.128):

Titus sīc incipit, "Magister! Mārcus bis..."-cum Mārcus stilum in partem corporis eius mollissimam premit! (English "when...," "and then...")

## Frequēns

The adjective frequēns follows the pattern of present participles (Cap. XIV); that is, it has the same nominative in all three genders in the positive degree: к littera, quae frequēns est in linguā Graecā, littera Latīna rārissima est. (11.14-15)
id vocābulum est frequentissimum. (1.101)
Y et $Z$ igitur litterae rārae sunt in linguā Latīnā, in lingūa Graecā frequentēs. (1l.13-14)

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Points of Style: Idiom suum cuique

Suus, $-a$, -um cuique is an idiom:
Magister suam cuique The teacher gives each student back
discipulō tabulam reddit.
suum cuique his own tablet. (ll.67-68) to each his (her) own: proverbial (even in English!)

## Superlatives of Adjectives in -er

Adjectives in -er, e.g., pulcher and piger, form superlatives by adding -errim|us, $-a$, -um (instead of -issim|us) to the nominative masculine singular (instead of the adjective base). ${ }^{3}$ In this chapter, you find pulcherrim|us and pigerrim|us, in the next miserrim|us and pauperrim|us from miser and pauper.
adj. -er, sup. -errim|us

## Facilis, -e

The superlative of facilis is facillim|us (1.102). Only a very few adjectives form their superlatives like facilis:
facilis, -e: facillimus, -a, -um
difficilis, -e: difficillimus, $-a$, -um (Cap. XVII)
gracilis, -e: gracillimus, $-a$, -um slender (Cap. XIX)
humilis, -e: humillimus, $-a$, -um low (Cap. XXV)
similis, -e: simillimus, $-a$, -um similar (Cap. XXXV)
dissimilis, $-e$ : dissimillimus, $-a$, -um dissimilar, different

## Adverbs

Remember:

- Adjectives qualify nouns.
$\triangleright$ The adjective answers the question: quālis?
o In the sentence, Puer stultus est, stultus is an adjective qualifying the noun puer (Quälis est puer?).
- Adverbs (Latin adverbium, from ad verbum) qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

[^23]$\triangleright$ The adverb answers the question: quōmodo?

- In the sentence, Puer stultē agit, the word stulté belongs to the verb agit, which it modifies (Quōmodo agit puer?).

In Cap. XVII, we saw the adverbs rēctē, prāvē, stultē, and aequē from the adjectives rēctus, prāvus, stultus, and aequus. Similarly, in the sentence, mīles fortis est quī fortiter pugnat, fortis is an adjective (qualifying mīles) and fortiter an adverb (modifying pugnat).

## Positive Degree

Just as there are three degrees of adjectives, there are three of adverbs: positive (e.g., fast), comparative (e.g., faster), and superlative (e.g., fastest). Positive degree:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Certē pulcherrimae sunt } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { Sextus's letters are certainly very } \\
\text { beautiful. (1.73) }
\end{array} \\
\text { litterae Sextī. } & \text { Your letters are equally ugly. } \\
\text { Litterae vestrae aequē foedae } \\
\text { sunt. } & (1.78) \tag{1.78}
\end{array}
$$

Adjectives of the 1st/2nd declension form adverbs ending in $-\bar{e}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { stult } \mid u s-a-u m \rightarrow \text { stulttē } \\
& \text { rēct|us -a -um } \rightarrow \text { rēcté } \\
& \text { pulcher }- \text { chr }|a-c h r| u m \rightarrow \text { pulchre } \underline{e}
\end{aligned}
$$

3rd declension adjectives form adverbs in -iter, e.g.: ${ }^{4}$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { fort } \mid \text { is }-e \rightarrow \text { fortiter } \\
& \text { brev } \mid \text { is }-e \rightarrow \text { breviter } \\
& \text { turp } \mid \text { is }-e \rightarrow \text { turpiter }
\end{aligned}
$$

Notā Bene: Bene and male are irregular formations from bonus and malus, whose forms you will learn in Cap. XIX.

## Comparative Degree

The comparative of the adverb ends in -ius. Note that the form of the comparative adverb is the same as the neuter of the comparative of the adjective:
pulchrius fortius rēctius

[^24]Comparative Degree:
"Tū, Tite, neque pulchrius neque foedius scrībis quam Mārcus.": "neither more beautifully nor more unattractively" (ll.79-80)
"At certē rēctius scrībō quam Mārcus.": "more correctly" (1.81)

## Superlative Degree

The superlative of the adverb ending in -issime $\overline{\bar{e}}$ (-errime $\overline{\bar{e}})$ is formed from the superlative of the adjective:
pulcherrimē fortissimē rēctissimē
Superlative Degree:
"Comparā tē cum Sextō, qū̄ rēctissimē et pulcherrimē scrībit.": "most correctly," "most beautifully" (ll.85-86)

When the superlative occurs without the idea of comparison, it can be translated "very":

Latīn̄ pulcherrimē recitās! You read Latin aloud very beautifully!

## Recēnsiō: Comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs

## Adjectives

Positive Degree Comparative Degree Superlative Degree
rārus, rāra, rārum mollis, molle pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum
facilis, facile
frequēns
rārior, rārius
mollior, mollius mollissimus, $-a$, -um pulchrior, pulchrius pulcherrimus, $-a,-$ um facilior, facilius facillimus, -a, -um frequentior, frequentius frequentissimus, $-a,-u m$

## Adverbs

| Positive Degree | Comparative Degree | Superlative Degree |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| rārō | rārius | rārissimē |
| molliter | mollius | mollissime $\bar{e}$ |
| pulchrē | pulchrius | pulcherrime |
| facile | facilius | facillime |
| frequenter | frequentius | frequentissimē |

*more rare: faciliter

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Numerical Adverbs

Numerical adverbs are formed with the suffix -iēs (or -iēns) and denote how many times an action occurs:
quinqquiēs $=5 \times$
sexiēs $=6 \times$
septiēs $=7 \times$, etc.
Only the first four have special forms:

| semel: once | ter: three times |
| :--- | :--- |
| bis: twice | quater: four times |

From quot and tot are formed quotiēs and totiēs:
Mārcus deciēs H scribit: H H H H H H H H H H (l.119)
Quotiēs Mārcus V scribit? Quater tantum V scrībit. (ll.122-123)
Quotiēs? Semel. (ll.133-134)
Mārcus ter rēctē et bis prāvē scrībit. (ll.125-126)

## Studia Rōmāna

You have already learned (Cap. I) about the wax tablets and the stylus used for scratching letters into the wax. In the house of Caecilius Iucundus in Pompeii, 154 such wax tablets were found that recorded business transactions. In addition to wax tablets, Romans wrote on pap $\bar{y} r u s$, a plant that came originally from Egypt whose leaves were glued together, and smoothed out and on parchment (membrāna, ae), animal skins dried, stretched and polished. Quintilian (I.O. 10.3.31) encourages his orators to write on wax tablets since they erase easily. Parchment is easier to read (as the letters are inked, not scratched) but slow, since the pen has to be so frequently re-inked. Into the ink (ātrāmentum) was dipped a reed pen, a calamus (as you can see in the margins on p. 141 and on the bottom of p. 142). By the sixth century AD, the penna (quill-pen, from the word for feather) had come into use-a technology that stayed the same until the nineteenth century.

Marcus wrongfully boasts that he doesn't need to learn how to write because he dictates to Zeno, a slave who knows both Latin and Greek (et Latīnē et Graecē scit, l.159). Writing was a valuable skill and could offer a good profession. Scrībae (literate professionals) assisted magistrates at various levels. The best post was scrība quaestōrius, a post that the poet Horace held, as did at least one of his young friends to whom he wrote a verse letter (Epistles 1.8). The young man, Celsus Albinovanus, was abroad with Caesar Augustus's stepson Tiberius as companion (comes) and scribe (scrība), a post that Horace suggests
might have gone to his head ("we'll treat you accordingly as you treat your good fortune!"5).

Marcus implies he doesn't really even need to learn to read, since Zeno reads aloud to him (l.160). A slave whose function it is to read aloud (especially at dinner for entertainment) is called an anagnōstēs (from Greek: $\dot{\alpha} v a \gamma \nu \omega ́ \sigma \tau \eta \varsigma)$. Zeno seems to be more of a general secretary than just a slave who can read aloud: a librārius (there were female librāriae as well) or āmanuēnsis. As such, he would have been a valued (and valuable) addition to the household. Cicero depended on and became so close to his secretary Tiro that he manumitted him. Tiro remained a part of the household; after Cicero's death, Tiro collected and published his patron's letters, some of his speeches, and a collection of his jokes (which collection does not, unfortunately, survive).

Diodorus complains in his letter that he has not yet been paid for the month. His complaint, "Mercēs numquam mihi trāditur ad diem," was common among teachers at all levels. Lucian, a Greek who also lived in the second century AD, also wrote about the financial plight of teachers. His dē Mercēde Conductīs ("On Those Hired for Pay"), for example, bemoans the impoverished plight of teachers who attach themselves to wealthy Roman houses as a live-in scholar. Juvenal (Decimus Iūnius İ̄venālis), a satiric poet who wrote around the time of our narrative, writes at length about the travails of intellectuals, including teachers of rhetoric and of lūdī magistrī (Satire 7). Juvenal uses the imagery of the racecourse; although he trains many future jockeys, he will be paid less than the purse for one race: ${ }^{6}$
nōn est leve tot puerōrum
observāre manūs oculōsque in fine trementīs.
'haec' inquit 'cūra; sed cum se verterit annus,
accipe, victōrī pōpulus quod postulat, aurum.'
Quintilian stresses the importance of a good working relationship between the paterfamiliās and the lūdī magister. As we shall see, the relationship between Julius and Diodorus is far from amiable and cooperative.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

| Nōmina |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1st |  |
| cēra, -ae | wax |
| charta, -ae | paper |
| epistula, -ae | a letter |

[^25]```
    māteria,-ae
    sententia,-ae
2nd
    adverbium, -i
    calamus, -\overline{1}
    erus, -ī
    ferrum, -i
    mendum, -i
    papȳrus, -\overline{1}
    zephȳrus, -i
3rd
    apis, apis (f.)
    cōnsonāns, cōnsonantis (f.)
    mercēs, mercēdis (f.)
    vōcālis, vōcālis (f.)
```

Verba
comparō, comparāre
dictō, dictāre
signō, signāre
significō, significāre
-ēre (2)
dēleō, dēlēre
-ere (3)
addō, addere
animadvertō, animadvertere
coniungō, coniungere
corrigō, corrigere
efficiō, efficere
imprimō, imprimere
intellegō, intellegere
iungō, iungere
legō, legere
premō, premere
scrībō, scrībere
-īre (4)
exaudiō, exaudīre
Irregular
dēsum, deesse
supersum, superesse
Adiectīva
1st/2nd
dūrus, -a, -um
impiger, -gra, -grum

Adiectīva
1st/2nd
dūrus, -a, -um
impiger, -gra, -grum
material
opinion, sentence
adverb
reed, reed pen
master
iron, sword
mistake
papyrus (paper)
west wind
bee
consonant
hire, pay, wages
vowel
liken, compare; prepare, get ready
dictate
mark, inscribe, indicate, notice, seal
indicate, show, mean
blot out, efface, destroy
add, join
notice ${ }^{7}$
connect, unite
correct
bring about
seal, emboss
understand
join
pick, read
press
write
hear plainly or favorably
fall short, be lacking
be over and above, remain, survive
hard
active, energetic
7. From animum adverte: "turn your mind toward."

```
    rārus, -a, -um
    varius, -a, -um
3rd
frequēns (gen. frequentis)
    mollis, molle
    quālis? quāle?
tālis, tāle
turpis, turpe
Prōnōmina
ìdem, eadem, idem
quisque, quaeque, quodque
Adverbia
sīc
ita
quotiēs
totiēs
semel
bis
ter
quater
quīnquiēs
sexiēs
deciēs
rare
the same (adj./pronoun)
each
so, thus
so, in such a way
as many times
so many times
once
twice
three times
four times
five times
six times
ten times
```


## XIX. Marītus et Uxor

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Imperfect of all Conjugations: Active and Passive
b. Imperfect of esse
2. Nouns
a. domus
b. Case Uses
i. Genitive of Quality/Description
ii. Vocatives for Nouns in -ius
iii. Archaic Genitive
3. Adjectives
a. Irregular Adjectives
b. Superlative Adjectives
i. Absolute
ii. with Partitive Genitive
c. nūllus/ūllus/tōtus/sōlus
d. Numerals: Genitive of ūnus, duo, trēs
e. 3rd Declension Adjectives of One Termination
f. dignus (Ablative of Respect)
4. Points of Style: Idioms

## Julius and Aemilia

Undisturbed by their noisy children, Julius and Aemilia are walking up and down in the beautiful peristyle, which is adorned with statues of gods and goddesses. Romans could take the choice of sculptural decoration very seriously. Letters written by Cicero in the first century BC demonstrate both his zeal to acquire appropriate ornamentation for his several country estates and his annoyance when his agents picked out statues that didn't project the right image: "Really, why a statue of Mars for me, a proponent of peace?" (Epistulae ad Familiārēs, VII.23: Martis vērō signum quō mihi pācis auctōrī?). Great numbers of statues were imported from Greece; Cicero thanks his friend Atticus for sending a number of statues (which he has not yet even seen, since they
were delivered to one of his estates) and details his plans for distributing them among his villae (Epistulae ad Atticum, I.4).

Among the names of the gods, notice the name of the supreme god Iuppiter $I o v \mid i s$; the stem is Iov- (meaning "sky"), and the long nominative form is due to the addition of pater weakened to -piter. The Roman gods were identified with the Greek, e.g., Iūppiter ${ }^{1}$ with Zeus, his wife Iūnō with Hēra, Venus with Aphrodītē, the goddess of love; Aphrodītē’s son Erōs became Cupīdō ("desire").

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Irregular Adjectives

Iuppiter has the honorific titles Optimus Māximus, which are the superlatives of bonus and magnus. The comparison of these adjectives and their opposites malus and parvus is quite irregular. So is the comparison of multī: comp. plūrēs, sup. plūrimī. Look at these examples:
malus (11.13-16):
Nēmō deōrum pēior marītus est quam Iūppiter, neque ūlla dea pēior uxor est quam Venus.
Inter omnēs deōs deāsque Iūppiter pessimus marītus est ac Venus pessima uxor.
bonus (ll.25-30):
Certē Iūlius marītus melior quam Iūppiter est!
Certē Aemilia uxor melior est quam Venus!
Aemila Iūlium "virum optimum" appellat.
Item Iūlius uxōrem suam "optimam omnium fēminārum" vocat.
magnus and parvus (11.35-37):
Quīntus māior est quam Iūlia et minor quam Mārcus.
Māximus līberōrum est Mārcus, minima est Iūlia.
multī (ll.52, 54):
Rōmae plūrēs hominēs habitant quam in ūllā aliā urbe imperī̀ Rōmān̄̄. Urbs Rōma plūrimōs hominēs et plūrimās domōs habet.

| bonus, $-a,-u m$ | melior, melius | optimus, $-a,-u m$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| malus, $-a,-u m$ | pēior, pēius | pessimus, $-a,-u m$ |
| magnus, $-a,-u m$ | māior, māius | māximus, $-a,-u m$ |
| parvus, $-a,-u m$ | minor, minus | minimus, $-a,-u m$ |
| mulț̄, $-a e,-a$ | plūres, plūra | plūrimī̀, $-a e,-a$ |

[^26]
## Superlative + Partitive Genitive; Superlative Absolute

The superlative is often linked with a partitive genitive:
optimam omnium fēminārum (1.30)
pulcherrima oтnium deārum (1.21)
Without such a genitive, the superlative often denotes a very high degree (absolute superlative):
"mea optima uxor" (1.90): "my excellent wife"
vir pessimus (1.110)
"mī optime vir" (1.94)
Tunc miserrima eram (1.107)
virgō pauperrima (l.128)

## Archaic Genitive

The ending - $\bar{s} s$ in māter familiās and pater familiās $(11.17,38)$ is an old genitive ending of the 1st declension ( $=-a e$ ).

## Numerals: ūnus, duo, trēs

You have met the other forms of the first three numbers before; in this chapter, you meet the genitive:

Iūlius et Aemilia sunt parentēs trium līberōrum: duōrum fīliōrum et ūnīus fīliae. (11.31-32)
The complete paradigms for these three are:

|  | m . | f. | n . | m. | f. | n . | m./f. | n. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nom. | $\bar{u} n \mid u s$ | $\bar{u} n a$ | $\bar{u} n \mid u m$ | dulo | dulae | du\|o | $\operatorname{tr\|} \bar{e} s$ | tr\|ia |
| acc. | ӣn\|um | $\bar{u} n \mid a m$ | ӣn\|um | $d u \mid \bar{o} s$ | $d u \mid \bar{a} s$ | du\|o | tr\|ès | $t r \mid i a$ |
| gen. | ūn\|īus | ūn\|īus | $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{i} u s$ | du\|ōrum | du\|ārum | du\|ōrum | tr\|ium | trium |
| dat. | $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{i}$ | $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{i}$ | $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{i}$ | dulōbus | dulābus | du\|ōbus | tribus | trlibus |
| abl. | $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{o}$ | $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{a}$ | $\bar{u} n \mid \bar{o}$ | dulōbus | dulābus | du\|ōbus | tr\|ibus | tr\|ibus |

You have met the variation of declension shown in $\bar{u} n u s$ before, in ille (gen. illīus, dat. ill̄̄), hic (gen. huius, dat. huic, from hui-ce).

## Nūllus/ūllus/tōtus/sōlus

$\bar{U} n u s,-a,-u m$ is one of a small group of pronouns and adjectives whose genitive singulars end in -ius and dative singulars in $\bar{i}$. You meet some more of these in this chapter:

| nūllus, $-a,-u m$ | none, not any |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\bar{u} l l u s,-a,-u m$ | any (always with a negative) |
| tōtus, $-a,-u m$ | the whole of, all |
| sōlus, $-a,-u m$ | alone, only |

All of these adjectives have a genitive $-\bar{i} u s$ and dative $-\bar{i}$ in the singular.
As you know (Cap. III), et is not placed before nōn; nor is it placed before nūllus: instead of et nūllus, we find neque ūllus:

- neque ūlla dea pēior uxor est quam Venus. (1.14)
- Iūlius...uxōrem suam neque ūllam aliam fēminam amat. (ll.24-25)
- Aemilia...marītum suum neque ūllum alium virum amat. (11.26-27)

So, we find $\bar{u} l l u s$ only with a negative.

## Genitive of Quality/Description

A noun + adjective in the genitive can be used to describe a quality (genetīvus quālitātis or genitive of description). For example:

Mārcus octō annōs habet; Quīntus est puer septem annōrum. (ll.33-34)
Adulēscēns vīgintī duōrum annōrum erat. (ll.39-40)

## Imperfect of All Conjugations: Active and Passive

The last example (Adulēscēns vīgintī duōrum annōrum erat) has erat, not est, because this was ten years ago (he is no longer adulēscēns). Est describes the present, erat the past. Compare the two sentences:

Nunc Iūlius Aemiliam amatِ. (loves, is loving, does love)
Tunc Iūlius Aemiliam amābat. (loved, was loving, used to love)
The form amalbat is the past tense or preterite (Latin tempus praeteritum) of the verb $a m \bar{a} \mid r e$, as distinct from $a m a \mid t$, which is the present tense (Latin tempus praesenss). The preterite or past tense occurring in this chapter is called the imperfect (Latin praeteritum imperfectum, "incompleted past"). The imperfect denotes a past state of things or an action going on (not completed) or repeated in the past. In each of the following examples, the action goes on over a period of time:
ūlius et Aemilia Rōmae habitābant: used to live; were living
Iūlius cotīdiē epistulās ad Aemiliam scrībē̄bat: used to write (1.76)
Iūlius male dormiēbat: was sleeping (1.69)
Tunc ego tē amābam, tū mé nōn amābās. (1.98)
Neque epistulās, quās cotīdiē tibi scrī̄ē̄bam, legēbās. (1l.101-102)
The imperfect is formed by inserting $-b \bar{a}-$ (1st and 2nd conjugations) or - $\bar{e} b \bar{a}-$ (3rd and 4th conjugations) between the stem and the person endings: in the active $-m$, $-m u s$ (1st pers.), $-s$, -tis (2nd pers.), and $-t$, $-n t$ (3rd pers.).

In Section II of your reading, you will find that the passive is formed the same way, with the passive endings: $-r$, $-\operatorname{mur}$ (1st pers.), $-r i s,-m i n i \bar{\imath}$ (2nd pers.), and -tur, -ntur (3rd pers.).

Not $\bar{a}$ Bene: The 1st person ends in $-m$ and $-r$ (not $-\bar{o}$ and $-o r$ ) and that $\bar{a}$ is shortened before $-m,-r,-t,-n t$, and $-n t u r(a m \bar{a}|b a| m, a m \bar{a}|b \underline{a}| r$, etc.).

1st Conjugation ( $\bar{a} r e$ ): stem $+b \bar{a}+$ personal endings:
Iūlius ambulat $\rightarrow$ Iūlius ambulābat
Signa stant $\rightarrow$ Signa stābant
2nd Conjugation ( $\bar{e} r e$ ): stem $+b \bar{a}+$ personal endings:
Tēctum columnīs altīs sustinētur $\rightarrow$ tēctum columnīs altīs sustinēbātur.
Habēsne librum tuum? $\rightarrow$ Habēbāsne librum tuum?
3rd and 4th Conjugation (ere/īre): stem $+\bar{e} b \bar{a}+$ personal endings:
Consonant-stem:
Iūlius flōrēs ad Aemiliam mittit $\rightarrow$ Iūlius flōrēs ad Aemiliam mittēbat.
Cotīdiē epistulās scrībimus $\rightarrow$ Cotīdiē epistulās scrībēbāmus.
Vowel-stem:
Aemilia flōrēs à Iūliō accipit $\rightarrow$ Aemilia flōrēs à Iūliō accipiēbat.
Nihil faciō $\rightarrow$ Nihil faciēbam.
4th Conjugation:
Dormītisne? $\rightarrow$ Dormiēbātisne?
Saepe Rōmānī conveniunt $\rightarrow$ Saepe Rōmānī conveniēbant.
Imperfect: stem vowel (1st conj. - $\bar{a}$ otherwise $-\bar{e}$ )
active
sing. 1. $-(\bar{a} \| \bar{e}) b a \mid m$ 2. $-(\bar{a} \mid \bar{e}) b \bar{a} \mid s \quad$ 2. $-(\bar{a}| | \bar{e}) b \bar{a} \mid r i s$ 3. $-(\bar{a} \| \mid \bar{e}) b a \mid t$
3. $-(\bar{a}| | \bar{e}) b \bar{a} \mid t u r$
pl.
2. $-(\bar{a} \| \bar{e}) b \bar{a} \mid t i s \quad$ 2. $-(\bar{a} \| \bar{e}) b \bar{a} \mid \min \bar{\imath}$
3. $-(\bar{a} \| \bar{e}) b a \mid n t \quad$ 3. $-(\bar{a} \| \bar{e}) b a \mid n t u r$

## Imperfect of esse

You have already met the 3rd person of the imperfect of the irregular verb esse: era|t, era|nt (Cap. XIII). Now you learn the 1st and 2nd persons:

| 1st | era\|m, erā|mus |
| :--- | :--- |
| 2nd | erā̈s, erā\|tis |
| 3rd | era $\mid t$, era $\mid n t$ |

Compounds of esse, e.g., ab-esse, including posse, show the same forms:
$a b$-era|m, $a b$-erā|s, etc.
pot-era|m, pot-erā $\mid$ s, etc.

## Domus

The noun domus, $-\bar{u} s$ is a 4th declension feminine noun, but it has some 2nd declension endings (underlined in the paradigm below):

| nom. | domus | domūs |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| acc. | domum | domōs |
| gen. | dom $\bar{u} s$ | domōrum (or domuиm $)$ |
| dat. | domu $\overline{\bar{c}}$ | domibus |
| abl. | dom $\bar{o}$ | domibus |

The form domī, "at home," in Cap. XV (Is domī est apud mātrem suam, 1.81) is locative; for this form, as well as the accusative domum and ablative domō used as adverbs without a preposition, see the next chapter.

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## 3rd Declension Adjectives of One Termination

You have already learned (Cap. XII) 3rd declension adjectives that end in -is, $-e$ in the nominative, where $-i s$ is the masculine and feminine ending and $-e$ is the neuter ending, e.g.:
brevis, breve
fortis, forte
And in the last chapter, you learned frequēns, an adjective with the same ending in the nominative masculine, feminine, and neuter. Other 3rd declension adjectives as well have the same ending in the nominative singular masculine, feminine, and neuter. Such adjectives vary from brevis, breve in the nominative only. Two such adjectives are:
dìves (dīvitior, dìvitissimus: rich)
pauper (pauperior, pauperrimus: poor)
Examples:
Iūlius dìves erat, nōn pauper.
Aemilia pauper erat, nōn dīves.

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Vocative for Nouns in -ius

In Cap. IV, you learned that 2nd declension words in -us have a special form used when addressing a person, the vocative, ending in -e, e.g., domine. When Aemilia addresses her husband by name, she uses the vocative $I \bar{u} l \underline{i}, ~ " O \bar{O}, ~ I \bar{u} \bar{u} \underline{\imath}$ !" and she adds, "m̄̄ optime vir!" (ll.93-94). The vocative of personal names in -ius ends in - $\bar{i}$ (a contraction of -ie):

Iūlius $\rightarrow$ Iūlī
Cornēlius $\rightarrow$ Cornēlī
Lūcius $\rightarrow$ Lūcī
The vocative of meus is $m \underline{\underline{1}}$ and of filius is filiz$:$
$\bar{O}, m \underline{\underline{1}} f \hat{i} \bar{l} \underline{l}!($ Cap. XXI, 1.30)
mī optime vir (1.94)

## Ablative of Respect

In Cap. XI, you encountered the ablative of respect ( 1.55 pede aeger). Dignus, $-a$, -um also takes an ablative of respect:

Ille vir pessimus tē dignus nōn erat!: not worthy of you (l.110)
Tu sōlus amōre meō dignus erās: worthy of my love (ll.111-112)

## Points of Style: Idioms

Compare:
I. Apposition
in urbe Rōm $\bar{a}$ : in the city of Rome (Rōma in apposition to urbs) Rōmae: at/in Rome (locative)
II. Ante/Post
ante decem annōs: ante the preposition + the accusative decem annīs ante: ante as adverb + ablative of degree of difference similarly: paulō ante, etc.
III. Ita...ut/ut...ita

Ut tunc tē amābam, ita etiam nunc tē amō.

Ita est ut dīcis.

As I loved you then, so even now I love you.

It is just as you say.
IV. Quam relative pronoun: feminine accusative singular (Cap. III) interrogative adjective: feminine accusative singular (Cap. III) correlative: tam...quam: as...as (Cap. VI)
adverb: how (Cap. VIII)
in comparisons: than (Cap. XII)
V. Opus est
= necesse est; oportet
nōn opus est mē plūs dīcere $=n \bar{n} n$ necesse est $m \bar{e} p l \bar{u} s$ dīcere

## Studia Rōmāna

Both Aemilia and Julius describe themselves as miser (Ergō lūlius miser erat et nocte male dormiēbat ... Itaque ea quoque misera erat, 1.69 and 1.73). In Latin love poetry, miser is the standard word to describe someone suffering in love. In the image on page 148, we see Julius and Aemilia with their right hands joined-the iconography in art for the bond between husband and wife (the $i \bar{u} n c t i \bar{o}^{2}$ dextrārum, joining of right hands). There were different ways to be married in Rome. To be married cum man̄ (literally: "with the hand") meant that a woman passed from the jurisdiction of her father's household to that of her husband (or of her husband's father, if he were still alive and the paterfamilias). Instead of being her father's daughter, she became as if the daughter of her new family (in locō filiae). If a woman were married sine man̄ ("without the hand"), she remained under her father's jurisdiction even though married. Aemilia's marriage to Julius would most likely have been sine man $\bar{u}$; manus marriage became a rarity by our time period. The goal of marriage was the birth and rearing of children; mātrimōnium...hinc līberōrum prōcreātiō hinc $\bar{e} d u c a ̄ t i o ̄ .{ }^{3}$

The perisyle of the villa, adorned with statuary, demonstrates the wealth and culture of the dominus. Cupīdō Amor is the Latin translation of the Greek personification of love Erōs ("Ep $\omega \varsigma$ ); in Roman culture, he is primarily a literary and artistic motif (hence the statue of Cupid in the peristyle). Venus, however, is a different story. She is not only the wife of Vulcan and mother of Cupid, the paramour of Mars and the goddess of love and beauty, but she is a powerful goddess as well. She is Venus Genetrix, goddess of fertility and the ancestral goddess of the Romans (because she was the mother of Aeneas). There were several temples and festivals dedicated to Venus at Rome.

Venus's husband, Vulcānus (also Volcānus) is an ancient Roman god of devastating fire (as opposed to Vesta, the goddess of the life-sustaining hearthfire, whose priestesses-the Vestals-guarded the state-protecting shrine of Vesta in the Roman Forum). Vulcan became associated with the Greek god Hephaistus (and Vesta with the Greek Hestia); he is the god of forge, depicted as burly and lame, and a bit of a trickster.
$J u ̄ n o ̄$ who, like Venus, was an ancient Italic goddess, was Juppiter's wife and, appropriately, the goddess of marriage. Her husband, Juppiter, was (as your text tells you) a terrible husband prone to falling in love with other women. This kind of immorality among the gods was one of the reasons the Greek philosopher Plato wanted to exclude them from the ideal state.

Jüppiter, as a sky god, regulated the weather; once he became associated

[^27]with the Greek Zeus, he became the most powerful of all gods, hence Juppiter Optimus Māximus: Juppiter the Best and Greatest. At Rome, Juppiter had a temple called the Capitōlium on a hill overlooking the Roman Forum (1.50); hence the hill is called the Mōns Capitōl̄̀nus. Minerva and Iūnō also had shrines in the Capitolium. Minerva was an Italic goddess of crafts, who became associated with the Greek Pallas Athena, the daughter of Zeus, also goddess of crafts (and war and wisdom!). Towns often imitated Rome by building their own Capitōlium, with the same triad of Juppiter, Juno, and Minerva.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

| Nōmina |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1st |  |
| columna, -ae | column |
| dea,-ae | goddess |
| mātrōna, -ae | married woman |
| 2nd |  |
| dōnum, -ī | gift |
| forum, -ī | forum |
| marītus, -ī | husband |
| praeteritum, -ī (tempus) | past (tense) |
| signum, -1 | statue, sign |
| tēctum, -ī | roof |
| templum, -ī | temple |
| 3rd |  |
| adulēscēns, adulēscentis ( $m$.) | young person |
| amor, amōris (m.) | love |
| coniūnx, coniugis (m./f.) | spouse |
| flōs, flōris (m.) | flower |
| praesēns, entis (tempus) | present tense |
| pulchritūdō, pulchritūdinis ( $f$.) | beauty |
| uxor, uxōris ( $f$.) | wife |
| virgō, virginis ( $f$.) | unmarried girl |
| 4th |  |
| domus, - $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ s $(f$. | house |
| Verba |  |
| -āre (1) |  |
| ōsculor, ōsculārī | kiss |
| -ēre (2) |  |
| augeō, augēre | increase |
| possideō, possidēre | possess |

```
-ere (3)
    mittō, mittere
    remittō, remittere
-īre (4)
        conveniō, convenīre
Irregular
    opus esse (+ inf. or abl.)
```

    minuō, minuere diminish
    Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
beātus, -a, -um
dignus, $-\mathbf{a},-\mathbf{u m}(+a b l$.)
magnificus, -a, -um
miser, misera, miserum
3rd
dīves (gen. dīvitis)
gracilis, -e
pauper (gen. pauperis)
Irregular
melior, melius
pēior, pēius
māior, māius
minor, minus
plūres, plūra
optimus, -a, -um
pessimus, -a, -um
māximus, -a, -um
minimus, -a, -um
plūrimī, -ae, -a
Prōnōmina
ūllus, -a, -um
mī
Adverbia
cotīdiē
daily
minus
plūs (adv. + n. noun $)$
tamen ( $a d v .+$ conj.)
Praepositiōnēs
ergā (prp. + acc.) toward

## XX. Parentēs

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Future Tense: All Conjugations, Active and Passive, and esse
b. velle/nōlle
2. Nouns
a. domus (continued)
b. carēre + Ablative of Separation
3. Pronouns: Personal Pronouns: 1st and 2nd Person, Plural: Dative and Ablative
4. Adverbs: minus/magis

## Julius and Aemilia Look to the Future

A happy event is in store for our Roman family. This gives the parents occasion for thoughts about the future, which in turn gives you a chance to get acquainted with the future tense (Latin tempus futūrum) of Latin verbs.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Future Tense

The future is formed by the insertion between the stem and personal ending of:
(1)-b- in the 1st and 2nd conjugations, with the following vowel variations:
a. 1st person singular in $\bar{o}: a m \bar{a}|b| \bar{o}$, habe $|b| \bar{o}$
b. 3rd plural in $u$ : $a m \bar{a}|b \underline{u}| n t$, $a m \bar{a}|b \underline{u}| n t u r$
c. 2nd singular passive in $e$ : $a m \bar{a}|b \underline{e}| r i s$
d. Otherwise in $i: a m \bar{a}|b \underline{i}| s, a m \bar{a}|b \bar{i}| t$, $a m \bar{a}|b \underline{i}| m u s$

Not $\bar{a}$ Bene: Remember the sequence $-b \bar{o},-b i,-b u$ (plus the change of $i$ to $e$ before $r$ ).
(2) In the 3rd and 4th conjugations, the sign of the future is:
a. 1st pers. sing. $-a-+$ active ending $m$ as in the imperfect, e.g.:
dīc|a|m, capi|a|m, audi|a|m
dīc|a|r, capi|a|r, audi|a|r
b. Otherwise $-\bar{e}-$
$\operatorname{di} c|\bar{e}| s, c a p i|\bar{e}| s$, audi $|\bar{e}| s$
dīc|ē|ris, capi|ēे|ris, audi|ēे|ris
c. But $-\bar{e}-$ is shortened to $-e$ - before $-t$, $-n t$, -ntur:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& d \bar{c} c|e| t \\
& d \bar{c} c|\underline{e}| n t \\
& d \bar{i} c|e| n t u r
\end{aligned}
$$

## future

| 1st and 2nd conjugation |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| active passive | active | passive | active | passive |
| 1. -b\| $\bar{o} \quad-b \mid o r$ | 1. cūrābō | cūrābor | 1. dēbēbō | dēbēbor |
| 2. -b\|is -b|eris | 2. cūrābis | cūrāberis | 2. dēbēbis | dēbēberis |
| 3. -b\|it -b|itur | 3. cūrābit | cūrābitur | 3. dēbēbit | dēbēbitur |
| 1. -b\|imus -b|imur | 1. cūrābimus | cūrābimur | 1. dēbēbimus | dēbēbimur |
| 2. -b\|itis -b|iminī | 2. cūrābitis | cūrābiminī | 2. dēbēbitis | dēbēbiminī |
| 3. -b\|unt -b|untur | 3. cūrābunt | cūrābuntur | 3. dēbēbunt | dēbēbuntur |
| 3rd and 4th conjugation |  |  |  |  |
| active passive | active | passive | active | passive |
| 1. -a\|m -a|r | 1. alam | alar | 1. exaudiam | exaudiar |
| 2. $-\bar{e}\|s \quad-\bar{e}\| r i s$ | 2. alēs | alēris | 2. exaudiēs | exaudiēris |
| 3. -e\|t -è |tur | 3. alet | alētur | 3. exaudiet | exaudiētur |
| 1. -ē\|mus -è |mur | 1. alēmus | alēmur | 1. exaudiēmus | exaudiēmur |
| 2. -è \|tis -è|minı̄ | 2. alētis | alēminı̄ | 2. exaudiētis | exaudiēminī |
| 3. -e\|nt -e|ntur | 3. alent | alentur | 3. exaudient | exaudiēntur |

## Esse: future

sing. pl.

1. erō erimus
2. eris eritis
3. erit erunt

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Minus/magis

Note irregular adverbs minus (less) and magis (more), often paired with quam (than):

Num parvulam filiam minus amābis quam filium? (ll.57-58)
Nēminem magis amābō quam parvulam filiam. (1.59)
Iam fïliōs tuōs magis amās quam tuam Iūliam fīliolam. (1.61-62)

## Velle/nōlle

You already know the 3rd person present of the irregular verb velle: vult, vol$u n t$. The 1st and 2nd persons are: volō, volumus and $v \bar{\imath} s, v u l t i s$, respectively. The negation nōn is not placed before the forms volō, volumus, volunt, and velle; instead, we find the forms nōlō, nōlumus, nōlunt, and nōlle, which are contracted from $n \bar{e}+v o l o ̄$, etc.:

Ego alteram fīliam habēre volō, plūrēs quam duōs fīliōs n̄ōlō!: want...do not want (1l.54-55)
Cūr tū fīlium habēre vīs, Iūlī? (1.56)
Vōs virī fîliōs modo habēre vultis. (11.63-64)
Nōs virī etiam filiās habēre volumus. (ll.72-73)
Iūlia dīcit "sē patre suō carēre nōlle." (ll.140-141)
present of velle nölle sing. pl. sing. pl.

1. volō volumus nōlō nōlumus
2. vīs vultis nōn vīs nōn vultis
3. vult volunt nōn vult nōlunt

The imperative nōl̄, nōlite is used with an infinitive to express a prohibition ("don't...!"), e.g.:

Nōlī abīre! (1.69)
Nōlī dīcere "tatam" et "mammam." (1.157)
Nōlīte mē "Iūliolam" vocāre! Id nōmen mē nōn decet. (ll.160-161)

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Domus (continued)

In Cap. VI, you learned that names of cities and towns express place with the accusative (to which), ablative (from which), and locative (at which). Domus
follows the same rule: the accusative and ablative of domus (domum and domō ) are used without a preposition to express motion to or from one's home, e.g.:
domum revertentur (1l.123-124) domō abīre (1.137)

The form domī is locative ("at home") e.g.:
domī manēre (l.127)
Notā Bene:

| domum | acc.: "to home" |
| :--- | :--- |
| dom $\bar{o}$ | abl.: "from home" |
| domi | loc.: "at home" |

## Ablative of Separation

The ablative expressing "place from which" in domōo and Tūsculōo is the ablative of separation; the verb carēre ("be without," "lack") is completed by an ablative of separation (and not an accusative), e.g.:

Īnfāns neque somnō neque cibō carēre potest.: somnō...cibō carēre $=$ sine + abl.: sine somnō et cibō esse (1l.5-6)
Iūlia dīcit "sē patre suō carēre nōlle." (1.141)

## Personal Pronouns nōs/vōs (continued)

The personal pronouns $n \bar{o} s$ and $v \bar{o} s$ become nōb$\overline{\bar{c}} s$ and $v \bar{o} b \bar{v} s$ in the ablative and dative:

Necesse est mihi crās rūrsus ā vōbīs discēdere. (ll.129-130)
Nōlī à nōbīs discēdere! (1.136)
You will see the dative (also $n \bar{o} b \bar{c} s$ and $v \bar{o} b \bar{i} s$ ) in the reading in the next chapter:

Prīmum magister nōbīs aliquid recitāvit. (Cap. XXI, 1.91)
Tabellam vōbīs ostendam. (Cap. XXI, l.109)
You will learn the genitive of the personal pronouns in Cap. XXIX.

## Recēnsiō: personal pronouns

|  | 1st sing. | 1st pl. | 2nd sing. | 2nd pl. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | $e g o$ | $n \bar{o} s$ | $t \bar{u}$ | $v \bar{s} s$ |
| acc. | $m \bar{e}$ | $n o \bar{s}$ | $t \bar{e}$ | $v \bar{o} s$ |
| dat. | $m i h i$ | $n o \bar{b} \bar{\imath} s$ | $t i b i$ | $v \bar{o} b \bar{\imath} s$ |
| abl. | $m \bar{e}$ | $n o \bar{o} b \bar{i} s$ | $t \bar{e}$ | $v o \bar{b} \bar{c} s$ |

## Recēnsiō

1. Expressions of comparison
...nōn minus...quam
nec plūs nec minus quam opus est
magis quam more than
2. nōn tantum...sed etiam $=$ nōn sōlum...sed etiam
3. "Emotion" adverbs: minimē, profectō
4. Expressions of time:

Eō ipsō tempore
Eō tempore
Tempore praeteritō
Tempore futūrō
Tōtam noctem
Tertiō quōque diē ${ }^{1}$
Cotīdiē
Herī
Hodiē
Crās
Decem annīs post
at that very time
at that time
in the past; at a past time
in the future; at a future time
for the whole night
every third day
daily
yesterday
today
tomorrow
afterward by ten years; ten years later = post decem annos: after ten years (the first is an ablative of degree of difference and post is an adverb, the second a preposition + the accusative)

## Summary of esse

| Present | Future | Imperfect |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sum | erō | eram |
| es | eris | erās |
| est | erit | erat |
| sumus | erimus | erāmus |
| estis | eritis | erātis |
| sunt | erunt | erant |

## Studia Rōmāna

While Aemilia insists she will nurse her own baby, many babies born to wealthier women were nursed by nūtrīcess, who might be slaves or free women. Like our understanding of education, much of our knowledge of early childhood comes from treatises about raising and educating children. The nurse,

[^28]according to Quintilian, must speak Latin well and be of the highest character (ante omnia nē sit vitiōsus sermō nūtrīcibus: Īnstitūtiō Ōrātōria, I.1). Cicero had said the same, claiming a speaker who was not particularly well educated had gained his eloquence from being raised in a home where language mattered (Brūtus, 211). After all, the child will learn to speak by listening to the surrounding adults.

But before the baby can be raised, it must be born and acknowledged. After the birth, fires are lit in the house and a couch laden with food for the gods is set in the atrium (such a gift-laden couch for the gods is called a lectisternium). The day will be celebrated annually, as we do. The gods who were invoked during the birth will be thanked: $I \bar{u} n \bar{n}$ and Diāna. Also venerated were the ancient Italic deities of childbirth, Lūcīna and the Carmentēs. (Lucina is often melded with Juno: Iūnō Lūcīna. ${ }^{2}$ ) After eight days (for a girl) or nine (for a boy) the family celebrates a lūstrātiō, or purification, and officially welcomes the child to the family.

Roman writers often emphasize the importance of the mother's role in the raising of children, pointing to famous Roman mothers who greatly influenced their sons. Titus Livius (2.40) gives us one such formidable mother of the fifth century BC. When Marcius Coriolanus was preparing to wage war against Rome, his own city, the women of Rome marched out to the camp to plead with their rebellious sons. Livy recounts Coriolanus's mother Veturia giving a scathing reprimand to her son, thereby stopping the war.

Perhaps the most famous Roman mother of the republican period was Cornēlia, the mother of the Gracchi, statesmen renowned for their oratorical skills. Cornelia, who lived in the second century BC, was the daughter of Publius Cornelius Scipio Aemilianus (about whom you will learn more in the second book in this series, Rōma Aeterna) and the wife of Tiberius Semprōnius Gracchus. Cornēlia bore twelve children, but nine died before adulthoodsuch infant mortality was not unusual. A story related by Valerius Maximus, a writer of the first century AD who compiled historical anecdotes, pays tribute to her character as a mother. To illustrate maxima ōrnāmenta esse mātrōnīs līberōs, Valerius tells this story: When a woman from Campania was visiting at the home of Cornelia and showing off her very beautiful jewelry, Cornelia drew out the conversation until her children came home from school and then said, "These are my jewels." ${ }^{3}$ Cicero praised the eloquence of her letters (which he had read) by saying, "It appears her sons were raised not as much on the lap of their mother as in conversing with her" (appāret filiōs nōn tam in gremiō
 image of ideal motherhood that a statue of her was set up in the Forum.

[^29]
## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        cūnae, -ārum
        fīliola, -ae
    2nd
        colloquium, -\overline{1}
        domō (abl.)
        filliolus, -i
        officium, -\overline{1}
        silentium, -\overline{1}
        somnus, -\overline{1}
    3rd
        infāns, īnfantis (m.lf.)
        lac, lactis (n.)
        mulier, mulieris (f.)
        nūtrīx, nütrīcis (f.)
        sermō, sermōnis (m.)
    4th
        gradus, -ūs (m.)
Verba
-āre (1)
        cūrō, cūrāre
        for, fārī
        postulō, postulāre
-ēre (2)
        careō, carēre (+abl.)
        dēbeō, dēbēre
        decet, decēre (impersonal)
        maneō, manēre
        sileō, silēre
-ere (3)
        advehō, advehere
        alō, alere
        colloquor, colloquī
        dīligō, dīligere
        occurrō, occurrere
        pergō, pergere
        revertor, revertī
-ire (4)
        vāgiō, vāgīre
Irregular
    nōlō, nōlle
    volō, velle
```

crib
diminuitive of fillia
conversation
from home
diminuitive of fīlius
duty
silence
sleep
baby
milk
woman, wife
(wet) nurse
conversation
step
care for
speak
demand
lack
owe, ought
be fitting, proper
remain
be silent
carry to
nourish, raise
converse
love, cherish
run up
continue
turn back
wail (of babies)
be unwilling, not want
wish, want

```
Adiectīva
    1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
    aliēnus,-a,-um
    futūrus, -a, -um
    necessārius, -a, -um
    parvulus, -a, -um
    praeteritus, -a,-um
    ūmidus, -a, -um
```

Adverbia
crās
magis
minimē
mox
profectō
rārō
Praepositiōnēs
ad...versus (prp. $+a c c$. )
adversus (prp. + acc.)
ūnā cum (prp. $+a c c$. )
Coniūnctiōnēs
sīve...sīve whether...or
belonging to another
future
necessary
small
past
humid, wet
tomorrow
more
not at all; very little
soon, next
surely; for a fact
rarely
toward
toward
together with
whether...or

## XXI. Pugna Discipulōrum

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Perfect System
i. Indicative, Active and Passive
ii. Infinitive
b. Perfect Passive Participle
c. Varieties of the Perfect Stem
d. crēdere + Dative Case
2. Nouns:
a. Locative: humī
b. Neuters of the 4th Declension
3. Pronouns: aliquis, aliquid
4. Adjectives:
a. Substantive Adjectives
b. Perfect Participles as Adjectives

## Marcus Gets into a Fight

The chapter opens with Marcus coming home from school. He seems to be in a bad way: he is wet and dirty, and his nose is bleeding. Whatever can have happened on his way home? This is what you find out reading the chapter. You are reading Marcus's version of the story, and whether it is true or not, you can learn from it the verb forms that are used when you talk about an event that has already taken place.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Perfect System

We find a new form of the verb ambulāre-ambulāvit-in the explanation given for Marcus's wet clothes:

Mārcus per imbrem ambulāvit. through the rain. (ll.7-8)

This tense is called the perfect, in Latin tempus praeteritum perfectum, "past completed," as distinct from the imperfect tense or praeteritum imperfectum, "past not completed" (Cap. XIX).

The difference is that the imperfect, as we know, describes a state of affairs or an ongoing or repeated (habitual) action in the past, while the perfect tense tells about what once happened and is now finished. Compare the two preterites in the sentences:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Iūlia cantābat. Tum } & \text { Julia was singing. Then Marcus hit } \\
\text { Mārcus eam pulsāvit! } & \text { her! }
\end{array}
$$

The perfect can also denote the present result of a past action ("the present perfect"), e.g.:
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Iam Iūlia plōrat, quia } & \text { Julia is crying, because Marcus } \\ \text { Mārcus eam pulsā̄vit. } & \underline{\text { has hit her. }}\end{array}$
Context will tell you which sense of the perfect is more appropriate.
The tenses you have thus far learned (present, imperfect, future) have been formed from the present stem. The perfect is formed by adding endings (often called "secondary" endings) to the perfect stem. In the first section, we find the secondary endings for the 3rd person: -it and -ērunt.

Examples:
Puerīper imbrem ambulāvērunt. (11.7-8)
Mārcus et Titus Sextum pulsāvērunt. (ll.13-14)
Sordidus est quod humī iacuit. (ll.19-20)
Et Mārcus et Sextus humī iacuērunt. (ll.21-22)
Titus vērō Mārcum vocāre audīvit. (ll.22-23)
nec vērō parentēs eum audīvērunt. (ll.25-26)

## Perfect Passive

The present stem has been the basis for the active and passive voice in all tenses you have learned so far (that is, the present, future, and imperfect tenses), e.g.:

> Sextus Mārcum pulsat/pulsābit/pulsābat.
> Mārcus à Sextō pulsātur/pulsābitur/pulsābātur.

The active and passive of the perfect tense, however, are based on different stems. The passive voice is formed from the perfect passive participle in combination with the present of esse (sum, es, est, etc.). Since the participle is a verbal adjective, the ending of the participle agrees with the subject in gender, number, and case, e.g.:

Mārcus à Sextō pulsātus est. (1.11)
Sextus...pulsātus est. (ll.14-15)

Iūliáa à Mārcō pulsāta est.
Puerî laudātī sunt.
Litterae à Sextō scrīptae sunt.

## The Perfect Stem: Active Voice

The personal endings of the perfect active are added to the perfect stem, which is the familiar present stem expanded or changed. Compare the following examples:

|  | Present Stem | Perfect Stem |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1st | puls $\overline{-}-$ | puls $\bar{\imath} \gamma-$ |
| 2nd | iacce- | iacu- |
| 4th | aud $\bar{c}-$ | aud $\bar{\imath} v-$ |
| 3rd | dīc- | dīx- |
| 3rd | scrīb- | scrīps- |

As you can see, consonant-stems undergo even greater changes in the perfect tense. The varieties of the perfect stem may seem confusing at first, but the stem, in fact, can undergo a limited number of changes. For example:

- 1st and 4th conjugation verbs (present stems ending in $\bar{a}$ or $\bar{i}$ )
regularly form the perfect stem by the addition of $v$, e.g.:
pulsā-: pulsāv-
audī-: audīv-
- 2nd conjugation verbs (stems in $-\bar{e}$ ) frequently drop the $\bar{e}$ from the stem and add $v$ (which becomes $u$ when not following a vowel): iacē-: iacu-
- 3rd conjugation verbs (with present stems ending in a consonant) show a variety of perfect stem changes, e.g.:
$\triangleright$ by adding $s$ to the present stem, which can change the way the stem looks:

$$
\text { In scrīb-: scrīps- voiced } b \text { changes to voiceless } p
$$

In dīc-: di $\bar{x} \underline{\text { - only }}$ the spelling changes $(x=c s)$
You will learn more about the formation of the perfect passive stem, usually called the supine stem, in the next chapter.

## Locative: humī, rurī

You have met the locative form domī, "at home," in Cap. XV (1.81) and in the last chapter. In this chapter, we meet the locative humī, "on the ground." In Cap. XXVII, you will meet $r \bar{u} r \bar{\eta}$, "in the country(side)." These three nouns
are used in the locative (in addition to the names of cities and towns, as you learned in Cap. VI). ${ }^{1}$

Is domī est apud mātrem suam. (Cap. XV, 1.81)
Sordidus est quod humī iacuit. (1l.19-20)
In urbe lūlius semper in negōtiō est, sed rūrū in ōtiō cōgitat dē negōtiūs urbānīs. (Cap. XXVII, ll.65-67)

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Perfect Active System (continued)

The perfect active endings for the

- 1st person are $-\bar{i}$ (sing.) and -imus (pl.)
- 2nd person are -istī (sing.) and -istis (pl.)

Examples:
Ego illum pulsāvị! (1.40)
Tūne sōlus Sextum pulsāvistī? (1.41)
Ego et Titus eum pulsāvimus. (1.42)
Vōs duo ūnum pulsāvistis? (1.43)
Summary of Endings for the Perfect Active:

|  | sing. | pl. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. | $-\bar{\imath}$ | -imus |
| 2. | $-i s t \bar{\imath}$ | -istis |
| 3. | -it | $-\bar{e} r u n t$ |

## Neuters of the 4th Declension

The two nouns corn $\underline{\bar{u}},-\bar{u} s$ and $\operatorname{gen} \underline{\bar{u}},-\bar{u} s$ are among the rare 4th declension neuters:

|  | sing. | pl. | sing. | pl. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | $\operatorname{corn} \bar{u}$ | cornua | gen $\bar{u}$ | genua |
| acc. | corn $\bar{u}$ | cornua | gen $\bar{u}$ | genua |
| gen. | corn $\bar{s} s$ | cornuum | gen $\bar{u} s$ | genuum |
| dat. | corn $\bar{u}$ | cornibus | gen $\bar{u}$ | genibus |
| abl. | corn $\bar{u}$ | cornibus | gen $\bar{u}$ | genibus |

[^30]
## Aliquis, aliquid

Aliquis, aliquid is an indefinite pronoun, which refers to an undetermined person or thing (English "someone," "something"). It declines just like quis, quid with ali- added.

Aliquis pedibus sordid̄̄s in solō mundō ambulāvit. (ll.65-66)
Prīmum magister nōbīs aliquid recitāvit. (1l.91-92)

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Esse (continued)

The verb esse has a separate perfect stem $f u$-:
fu|ī fulimus
Not $\bar{a}$ Bene: In the perfect, esse is completely regular (in fact, all Latin verbs are regular in the perfect system).

Examples:
In lūdōne quoque bonus puer fuistī? (11.82-83)
Profectō bonus puer fū̄. (1.84)
Mārcus dīcit, sē bonum puerum fuisse. (1.85)
Malī discipulī fuistis! (ll.104-105)
Certē malī discipulī fuimus. (1.106)

## Perfect Infinitive Active

In Cap. XI, you learned the accusative and infinitive construction using the present infinitive, e.g.:

Medicus "pиerum dormīre" dīcit = "Puer," medicus inquit, "dormit."
Dormī|re is called the present infinitive (Latin īnfinitīvus praesentis) and corresponds to the present tense dormi|t. Compare lines 96-97 in this chapter:

Iūlius: "Mārcus dormīvit!"
Iūlius "Mārcum dormīvisse" dīcit.
Dorm $\bar{\imath} v \mid i t$ is the perfect tense and the corresponding infinitive dorm $\bar{\imath} v \mid$ isse is called the perfect infinitive (Latin infinītīvus perfectī); it represents completed action and is formed by the addition of -isse to the perfect stem, e.g.:

- intrāv|isse: Iūlius "Mārcum intrāvisse" dīcit. (1.73)
- iacu|isse: Nōn dīcit, "eum humī iacuisse." (ll.73-74)
- fu|isse: Mārcus dīcit, "sē bonum puerum fuisse." (1.85)

The present infinitive represents an action happening at the same time as the main verb, while the perfect infinitive represents an action happening before the main verb.

```
present infinitive: -re perfect infinitive: -isse
```

pulsāre
iacēre
scrībere
audīre
esse
pulsāvisse
iacuisse
scrīpsisse audīvisse fuisse

## Perfect Infinitive Passive

As you have learned (above), the perfect passive indicative is formed from the perfect passive participle and the indicative of esse. Similarly, the perfect infinitive passive is formed from the perfect passive participle with the infinitive esse:

| laudātum esse | to have been praised |
| :--- | :--- |
| scrīptum esse | to have been written |
| audītum esse | to have been heard |

In the accusative + infinitive construction, the participle agrees with the subject accusative, e.g:

Mārcus "sē à magistrō laudātum esse" dīcit.
Aemilia litterās à Mārcō scrīptās esse crēdit. (ll.121-122)
Intellegēbam tē nōn cornibus, sed pugnīs pulsātum esse. (11.35-36)
Notā Bene:

- Perfect Infinitive Passive: neuter of the perfect passive participle + esse laudāt|um esse
- Accusative + Infinitive Construction: participle agrees with the subject

Iūliam laudātam esse
Mārcum et Quīntum laudātōs esse

## Perfect Passive Participle as an Adjective

The perfect participle is also used as an attributive adjective; it is passive in meaning, as opposed to the present participle in -ns, which is active:

> puer laudātus = puer quī laudātus est.
> puer laudāns = puer quī laudat.

## Adjectives as Substantives

The neuter plural of adjectives and pronouns is often used as a noun (substantively) in a general sense, e.g.:

| multa | a great deal, many things (1.90) |
| :--- | :--- |
| omnia | everything, all things (1.95) |
| haec | these things (1.123) |
| et cétera | and all the rest |

## Crēdere

With the intransitive verb crēdere, the person whom you trust or whose words you believe is put in the dative:

Mihi crēde! (1.119)
Mārcō nōn crēdit. (1.140)
Cūr nōn crēdis fīliō tuō? (1.146)

## Summary of Perfect

## Perfect Active



## Perfect Passive

| personal endings sing. <br> 1. -t\|us, - a sum <br> 2. $-t \mid u s,-a$ es <br> 3. $-t \mid u s,-a$, -um est | pl. <br> - $t \mid$, -ae sumus <br> $-t \mid i$, -ae estis <br> $-t \mid i,-a e,-a$ sunt |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1st: <br> 1. pulsāt $\mid u s,-a$ <br> 2. pulsāt\|us, -a <br> 3. pulsāt\|us, $-a$, -um <br> 1. pulsāt $\mid \bar{i},-a e$ <br> 2. pulsāt $\mid \bar{i},-a e$ <br> 3. pulsāt $\mid \bar{i},-a e,-a$ | sum <br> es <br> est <br> sumus <br> estis <br> sunt | 2nd: <br> 1. habit\|us, -a <br> 2. habit\|us, $-a$ <br> 3. habit\|us, $-a,-u m$ <br> 1. habit $\mid \bar{i},-a e$ <br> 2. habit $\mid \bar{i}$, $-a e$ <br> 3. habit $\mid \bar{i},-a e,-a$ | sum <br> es <br> est <br> sumus estis <br> sunt |
| 3rd: scrīb- <br> 1. scrīpt\|us, -a <br> 2. $s c r i ̄ p t \mid u s,-a$ <br> 3. scrīpt\|us, -a, -um <br> 1. scrīpt\||ì,-ae <br> 2. $\operatorname{scrīpt} \\| \bar{i},-a e$ <br> 3. scrīpt\\|ì, $-a e,-a$ | scrīpt <br> sum <br> es <br> est <br> sumus <br> estis <br> sunt | 4th: audī- <br> 1. audit $\mid u s,-a$ <br> 2. audit $\mid u s,-a$ <br> 3. audit $\mid u s,-a,-u m$ <br> 1. audìt $\mid \bar{i}$, $-a e$ <br> 2. audit $\mid \bar{i},-a e$ <br> 3. audit $\mid \bar{i},-a e,-a$ | audī- <br> sum <br> es <br> est <br> sumus <br> estis <br> sunt |

## Varieties of the Perfect Stem

- suffix $v / u$ added to verb stem (ama-v-) or to the root (hab-u-)
- suffix $s$ added to the root; $s$ often changes the stem ( $d \bar{u} c-s-=d u x-)$
- root perfect (see also Cap. XXIII):
$\triangleright$ the vowel of the root is lengthened; sometimes the vowel changes $(f a c \rightarrow f \bar{e} c)$
$\triangleright$ the root is "reduplicated" by repeating the initial consonant of the verb, followed by a vowel (see also Cap. XXIII)
o usually e: fallere $\rightarrow$ fefellisse
o sometimes the root vowel: e.g., mordère, momordisse (Cap. XXII)
o Sometimes, perfect and present stem appear identical: ostendere $\rightarrow$ ostendisse
- Some verbs have a perfect stem that cannot be easily understood just by the rules above:
$\triangleright$ verbs formed from a lost or imaginary stem (petere $\rightarrow$ petī $\bar{v} \overline{\text {, as }}$ if from petīre)
$\triangleright$ verbs that have features peculiar to the present stem
o e.g., scindere $\rightarrow$ scidisse has a "nasal infix" ${ }^{" 2}$ only in the present system
- inchoative verbs ${ }^{3}$ with -scō lose the -scō in the perfect system (cognōscere $\rightarrow$ cognōvisse)
- Note on emere and compounds (Cap. XVIII):
$\triangleright$ emere and its compounds have a euphonic $p$ before the perfect
participle (try saying emtum and you'll find that the $p$ in emptum
is a very natural development from that combination)
$\triangleright$ sumere is a compound of emere


## Studia Rōmāna

Marcus and Sextus should not have been fighting-they should also not have been walking home on their own, but would have been accompanied by their paedagōḡ is chaperones, part of whose job was to ensure safe (and street-brawling-free!) travel between home and school. Children enjoyed many games while not in school. From infancy, there were toys: rattles for babies (crepundia), pull-toys for toddlers and small children, and dolls (pūpae) for girls. In a famous simile, Vergil describes boys intently spinning tops through empty ätria (see Cap. V for the ātrium): "as sometimes, a top flying under the force of the hurled lash, a top which boys, intent on their game, send round in a circle through the empty atrium." ${ }^{4}$ Horace (Satires 2.3.247-48) talks about building houses (aedificāre casās: "sand-castles"?), hitching mice to small carts (plostellō adiungere mūrīs), riding a stick-horse (equitāre in harundine), playing a game called pār impār ("odds and evens"), in which one player holds a number of small things-coins, nuts, etc.-in his hand and the other player has to guess whether it is an odd or even number. A player could also use small bones (knucklebones, astragalī Greek or tāl̄̄ Latin) for pār impār as well as for other dice games (a version of our "jacks," for example). Reversible game boards (tabulae lūsōriae) have been found with a board for lūdus lātrunculōrum (lātrunculus means "robber" but also "pawn"-this seems to be a sort of chess game) on one side and on the other, duodecim scrīpta (or lūdus duodecim scrīptōrum, a kind of backgammon) played with calculī, or small stones, as game pieces.

Although the Latin word is unattested, Roman children surely played hide-and-go-seek (Greek children called it à $\pi o \delta \iota \delta \rho \alpha \sigma \kappa i ́ v \delta \alpha)$. Ball games (pïlae) were popular with adults as well as children. The game trigōn ( $\tau \rho i \not \gamma \omega v$, triangle, also called pīla trigōnālis: a kind of handball played by three people

[^31]standing in a triangle shape) was very popular and often played in the baths. Pliny's villa at Laurentium included a ball court in the baths to accommodate players (called a sphaeristērium after the Greek word for ball, sphaera, $\sigma \varphi \alpha i ̃ \rho \alpha$ ). Horace (Satires 1.6.126) says he played trigōn on the Campus Martius, a popular venue for games (as well as for military exercises). Playing at war seems to have been popular as well. In a letter (Epistles 1.18.60-64), Horace advises his ambitious young addressee, Lollius, not to turn up his nose at the enthusiasms of his influential friends (like hunting, a popular sport) so that he can write poetry instead. Lollius himself has played at mock battles on his father's estate, reenacting the (naval) Battle of Actium ( 31 BC ), apparently on a lake with small boats, with slaves as soldiers. ${ }^{5}$

It will come as no surprise to learn that Roman society placed a very high value on good faith (bona fidēs, (Cap. XXXI). In a useful, if false, etymology, Cicero identifies fidēs with fierı̄ (Cap. XVI): "Fidēs" enim nōmen ipsum mihi vidētur habēre cum fit quod dīcitur (dē Rē Pūblicā 4.7). Julius and Aemilia should not have to be wary of their son's sincerity. Marcus violates the foundations of propriety when he lies to his parents. In dē Officiīs, a book on proper values or duties addressed to his son Marcus (who was studying philosophy in Athens), that continued to be widely read until relatively recently, Cicero examines honorable conduct (honestum, Book I), advantageous behavior (ūtile, Book II), and the conflict between the two (Book III). Beyond all the quarels of philosophers, he says, the old, simple proverb holds true: a good person is one with whom you can in tenebrīs micāre. Micāre is to flash up a number of fingers while another person simultaneously guesses the number; like "rock, paper, scissors," it is both a game and a way of making a decision. A character in the Satyricon, Petronius's first-century AD comic novel, includes the same proverb as proof of solid character: someone "upright, dependable, a friend to a friend, a guy with whom you could flash fingers in the dark" (rēctus...certus, amīcus amīcō, cum quō audacter possēs [= you could] in tenebrīs micāre, 44.8).

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

| Nōmina |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| 1st |  |
| causa, -ae | cause, reason |
| pugna, -ae | fight |
| tabella, -ae | writing tablet |
| 2nd |  |
| humus, -i $(f)$. | ground |
| humī $(l o c)$. | on the ground |
| imperfectum, $-\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | imperfect (tense) |

[^32]perfectum, -ī (tempus)
porcus, -ī
solum, - $\overline{\mathbf{1}}$
3rd
bōs, bovis (m./f.)
cruor, cruōris (m.)
sordēs, sordis ( $f$.)
often pl. sordēs, -ium
vestis, vestis (f.)
4th
cornū, cornūs (n.)
genū, genūs (n.)
Verba
-āre (1)
(dubitō) dubitāre, dubitāvisse, doubt dubitātum
(excūsō) excūsāre, excūsāvisse, excuse excūsātum
(mūtō) mūtāre, mūtāvisse, mūtātum
(nārrō) nārrāre, nārrāvisse, nārrātum
-ere (3)
(cognōscō) cognōscere, -nōvisse, get to know, recognize -nitum
(cōnspiciō) cōnspicere, cōnspexisse, catch sight of, see cōnspectum
(crēdō) crēdere, -didisse, believe, trust, entrust -ditum (intr. + dat.)
(fallō) fallere, fefellisse, falsum deceive
(vincō) vincere, vīcisse, victum defeat, overcome, win
-īre (4)
(mentior) mentīrī, mentītum lie
Irregular
(sum) esse, fuisse
(āiō) ais, ait, āiunt
Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
angustus, $-\mathrm{a},-\mathrm{um}$
candidus, -a , -um
falsus, $-\mathrm{a},-\mathrm{um}$
indignus, -a, -um (+ abl. of respect)
mundus, -a, -um
validus, -a, -um
perfect (tense)
pig
soil, ground, floor
ox
gore, blood
dirt
clothes, cloth
horn
knee
change, exchange
relate, tell
be
say
narrow
white, bright
false
unworthy, shameful
clean, neat
strong

## Prōnōmina

aliquis, aliquid
Adverbia
interim
Coniūnctiōnēs
postquam
Alia
humī on the ground (locative)
ain' = ais ne?
someone, something
meanwhile
after, since
you don't say? really?

## XXII. Cavē Canem

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Supine: Accusative and Ablative
b. The Three Verbal Stems, or Principal Parts
c. Relative Time of Infinitives
d. ferre
2. Participles: Ablative Absolute
a. Relative Time of Participles
3. Pronouns
a. quis quid (from aliquis, aliquid)
b. iste, ista, istud
4. Adverbs: forās, forīs

## Cavē Canem

The picture over the chapter represents an ancient mosaic found inside the front door of a house in Pompēiī. The picture and the warning inscription Cave canem! are evidence of the way the Romans tried to safeguard their houses against intruders. Every house was guarded by a doorkeeper (ōstiārius or iānitor), who often had a watchdog to help him. So, it is not easy for a stranger to be admitted to Julius's villa. First, he must wake the doorkeeper and then he has to convince him that his intentions are not hostile.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## The Three Verbal Stems, or Principal Parts

From the three verbal stems are derived all forms of the verb:
the present stem
the perfect stem
the supine stem

Knowing the three forms in which these stems are contained will enable you to conjugate (i.e., inflect) any Latin verb. These crucial forms are called the Principal Parts, given here as the three infinitives:

1. The present infinitive active, e.g., scrīb|ere
2. The perfect infinitive active, e.g., scrīps|isse
3. The perfect infinitive passive, e.g., scrīpt|um esse

## The Supine Stem

The stem we use to form the perfect passive system and the supine (below) is usually called the supine stem. From this stem we also form the perfect passive participle as well as and the future active participle, as you learn in the next chapter (Cap. XXIII).

The supine stem is regularly (but not always) formed:

- by the addition of $t$ to the present stem, e.g.:
salūtā-: salūtāt̄-
audī-: audīt-
dīc-: dict-
- When phonetics dictate, we find $s$ instead of $t$ :
$\triangleright d t / t t \rightarrow s$ (usually $s s$ after a short vowel and $s$ after a long vowel)
claudere $\rightarrow$ clausum

$$
\begin{gathered}
\triangleright g t \rightarrow c t \\
\text { augēre } \rightarrow \text { auctum }
\end{gathered}
$$

- In $\bar{e}$-stems $\bar{e}$ is changed to $i$, e.g.:
terrē-: territ-
- There are several other irregularities, especially in 3rd conjugation verbs, where the addition of $t$ may cause changes by assimilation, e.g.: scrīb-: scrīpt- ( $p$ is voiceless like $t$ )
claud-: claus- $(d t>t t>s s>s)$


## Supine

The supine (Latin supinum) is a verbal noun used only in the accusative (in $-u m$ ) and the ablative (in $-\bar{u}$ ).
Accusative (-um)
In this chapter the letter carrier (tabellārius) tries to assure the ōstiārius with the words:

Ego nōn veniō vīllam oppugnātum sīcut hostis, nec pecūniam postulātum veniō (1l.33-34).

Oppugnātum and postulātum are examples of the accusative supine. In the accusative, the supine:

- ends in -tum
- is found with verbs of motion, e.g., īre and venīre
- expresses purpose

Other examples of the accusative supine in this chapter are:

| salūtātum venīre | to come to greet (in order to greet, <br> with the purpose of greeting) (1.49) <br> to go to sleep (in order to sleep, with <br> the purpose of sleeping) (1.50) |
| :--- | :--- |
| dormītum īre | to go out to walk (in order to walk, <br> with the purpose of walking) (1.51) <br> to go to wash (in order to wash, with <br> the purpose of washing) (1.52) |
| lavātum īre |  |

Ablative ( $-\bar{u}$ )
In addition to the accusative expressing purpose with verbs of motion, the supine is found in the ablative. The ablative supine is a rare form used to modify certain adjectives, particularly facilis and difficilis. The ablative shows the respect in which the adjectives apply (cf. the ablative of respect in Caps. XI and XIX).

The following forms $\operatorname{dict} \bar{u}$ and $a u d \bar{i} t \bar{u}$ are examples of the ablative supine:
Nōmen meum nōn est facile dictū. (1.43) = Nōn est facile meum nōmen dīcere.
Vōx tua difficilis est audītū. (1.46) = Difficile est vōcem tuam audīre. Id facilius est dictū quam factū. (1.81) = Facilius est dīcere quam facere.

## The Supine Versus the Perfect Passive Participle

The supine:

- exists in two unchanging forms: the accusative and the ablative
- will always end in -um (accusative) or $-\bar{u}$ (ablative)


## The perfect passive participle:

- by itself acts as an adjective
- creates the passive voice of the past tense when combined with a finite form of esse
- creates the perfect infinitive passive when combined with the infinitive esse
As an adjective, the participle exhibits all the forms of a $1 \mathrm{st} / 2 \mathrm{nd}$ declension adjective (like bonus, bona, bonum). It will agree with the word it modifies in gender, number, and case.

Discipulī, à magistrō The students, warned by the teacher, monit̄̄, silent. are being quiet.
The perfect passive participle combined with the present tense of esse (sum, es, etc.) forms the perfect passive tense; the participle will agree with its subject.

Discipulī̄ ā magistrō monitī The students were warned by the sunt et silent. teacher and are being quiet.
The simple perfect infinitive passive (to have been + perfect passive) consists of the neuter singular of the perfect passive participle + the present infinitive of esse.
monitum esse to have been warned
In indirect statement, the perfect infinitive passive must agree with its subject.

Puerī sciēbant sē monitō̄s The boys knew they had been esse. warned.

## The Three Verbal Stems in the Vocabulary

1. The margins of Familia Romana and the vocabulary at the back of this book give three verbal stems, or principal parts, as they are commonly called:
o present infinitive active
o perfect infinitive active
o supine (accusative)
2. At the end of each chapter in this book, however, four principal parts will be listed in the vocabulary:
o 1st person singular present indicative active
o present infinitive active
o perfect infinitive active
o supine (accusative)
Notā Bene:

- The perfect infinitive passive will be listed without esse.
- The perfect infinitive passive will be missing if the verb has no passive, e.g.: posse potuisse.
- The deponent verbs show the passive present and perfect infinitives, e.g.: loquī locūtum esse.

The forms show various stem mutations, e.g.:

- vowel lengthening, e.g.:
émere, $\underline{\underline{e}} m i s s e, \underline{\bar{e}}$ mptum
venīre, vēnisse
- loss of $n$ and $m$, e.g.:
scindere, scidisse, scissum
rumpere, rūpisse, ruptum
- reduplication (doubling) of syllables in the perfect, e.g.:
pellere, pepulisse, pulsum
- occasionally an unchanged perfect stem, e.g.:
solvere, solvisse, solūtum
To learn such stem varieties, a new exercise is now introduced in PĒNSVM A in Lingua Latina, where the missing perfect and supine stems are to be inserted in the verbs listed. Symbols used: [ ] for perfect stem and [ $\approx$ ] for supine stem.

The principal parts (from the margins) to be learned in this chapter follow (the 1st person singular present active indicative is given in parentheses):

```
(aperiō) aperīre, aperuisse, apertum
(claudō) claudere, clausisse, clausum
(dīcō) dīcere, dīxisse, dictum
(emō) emere, èmisse, èmptum
(pellō) pellere, pepulisse, pulsum
(possum) posse, potuisse
(scindō) scindere, scidisse, scissum
(solvō) solvere, solvisse, solūtum
(sūmō) sūmere, sumpsisse, sumptum
(terreō) terrēre, terruisse, territum
(veniō) venīre, vēnisse
(vinciō) vincīre, vīnxisse, vīnctum
```


## Quis, Quid from Aliquis, Aliquid (after sī, num, nisi, nē)

After $s \bar{l}, n i s i$ (Cap. XV), num, and $n \bar{e}$, the indefinite pronoun aliquis, aliquid (someone, something) is shortened to quis quid. In the following examples, the pronouns quis, quid are not interrogative, but indefinite (= aliquis):

Sī quis vīllam intrāre vult (1.7)
Num quis hīc est? (ll.27-28)

Num quid tēcum fers? (1l.104-105) i.e., not "what," but "anything" or "something."

If you find mnemonics useful, a good one for this rule is: "after $s \bar{l}, n i s i$, $n u m$, and $n \bar{e}$, all the alis go away." Compare these examples:

Aliquis intrāre vult. Someone wants to enter.

Sī quis intrāre vult.
Num quis intrāre vult?

If someone wants to enter.
Surely no one wants to enter?

## Recēnsiō: Declension of Quis, Quid

| quis | quid | quī | quae | quae |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| quem | quōs | quās | quae | quae |
| cuius | cuius | quōrum | quārum | quōrum |
| cui | cui | quibus | quibus | quibus |
| quō | quō | quibus | quibus | quibus |

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Iste, ista, istud

The demonstrative pronoun iste, $-a,-u d$ (declined like ille, $-a,-u d$ ) refers to something connected with the person addressed (2nd person): Tlepolemus says iste canis about the doorkeeper's dog (1.86, "that dog of yours") and talking about Tlepolemus's cloak, the doorkeeper says $\underline{\text { istud pallium (1.103). }}$

| iste | ista | istud | ist $\bar{\imath}$ | istae | ista |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| istum | istam | istud | istōs | istā̄ | ista |
| istīus | istīus | istīus | istōrum | istārum | istōrum |
| ist $\bar{\imath}$ | ist $\bar{\imath}$ | ist $\bar{\imath}$ | ist $\bar{s} s$ | istīs | istīs |
| istō | ist $\bar{a}$ | isto | istīs | ist $\bar{\imath} s$ | istīs |

## Recēnsiō

Review the following pronouns/demonstrative adjectives

| hic, haec, hoc | this one (over here by me) |
| :--- | :--- |
| iste, ista, istud | that one (over there by you) |
| ille, illa, illud | that one (over there by him) |
| is, ea, id | he, she, it/this/that |
| ipse, ipsa, ipsum | himself, herself, itself |

Because of relative nearness of the demonstratives to the speaker (i.e., hic $\rightarrow$ her by me, $i p s e \rightarrow$ there by you and ille $\rightarrow$ there by him), they are sometimes called demonstratives of the 1st (hic, haec, hoc), 2nd (ipse, ipsa, ipsum) and 3rd (ille, illa, illud) persons.

## Ablative Absolute (continued from Cap. XVII)

Compare the following sentences:
Iānitōre dormiente, canis vigilāns iānuam cūstōdit. (1.23)
Cane vinnctō, tabellārius intrat. (1.119)

Iānitōre dormiente is the ablative absolute with the present participle, which expresses what is happening now, i.e., at the same time (= dum iānitor dormit..., "while...").
Cane vinctō is the ablative absolute with the perfect participle, which expresses what has been done (= postquam canis vinctus est..., "after...").

## Relative Time of Participles and Infinitives

The tense of the participle is relative to the main verb:

- present participle is happening at the same time as the main verb
- perfect participle happened before the main verb

The English rendering in the sentences below demonstrates the time relationship of the main verb and the participle:

Iānitōre dormiente, canis While the doorkeeper sleeps/is vigilāns iānuam cūstōdit. sleeping, the watchful dog guards the door.
Iānitōre dormiente, canis While the doorkeeper slept/was vigilāns iānuam cūstōdiebat. sleeping, the watchful dog was guarding the door.
Cane vinctṑ, tabellārius When the dog is tied up, the intrat.
Cane vinctō, tabellārius intrāvit. letter carrier enters.
When the dog had been tied up, the letter carrier entered.
The same time relation holds between main verbs and infinitives:

- present infinitive/participle means "same time as main verb"
- perfect infinitive/participle means "time before the main verb"


## Adverbs forās, forīs

In this section, we meet two new adverbs which both mean "outside":

- forīs: place where (cf. ibi, hīc, illīc)

Tandem iānitor forēs aperit et Tlēpolemum forīs in imbre stantem videt (11.56-57)
"Manē forīs!" inquit iānitor. (1.68)

- forās: place to which (cf. $h \bar{u} c$, illūc)

Prius vincī canem et sine mē intrāre! Nōl̄̄ iterum mē forās in imbrem pellere! (1.115)
"Non ego," inquit, "sed hic canis tē forās pepulit." (11.116-117)

## Recēnsiō: Ferre

In this chapter we meet the full conjugation of the irregular verb ferre (ll.105ff.). As you can see from the paradigm below, only the present tense of ferre is irregular: it lacks a vowel before the personal ending in the 2nd and 3rd persons singular (fers, fert), and in the 2nd person plural (fertis). In the other tenses, it is completely regular:

| Present | Imperfect | Future |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| ferō | ferēbam | feram |
| fers | ferēb̄̄s | ferēs |
| fert | ferēbat | feret |
| ferimus | ferēbāmus | ferēmus |
| fertis | ferēbātis | ferētis |
| ferunt | ferēbant | ferent |

## Studia Rōmāna

The letter carrier (tabellārius) is (justifiably!) afraid of the watchdog. In his treatise on agriculture, Columella (first century AD) praises the virtues of the watchdog. What servant is more loving of his master? What companion is more loyal? What guard is more incorruptible? What more wakeful sentinel can be found? What, in short, avenger or defender is more steadfast? (quis famulus amantior dominī, quis fidèlior comes, quis custos incorruptior, quis excubitor inuenīrī potest uigilantior, quis denique ultor aut uindex constantior? dè Rē Rusticā, 7.12).

The privacy of the home is guarded not only by the dog, but also by the slaves, including the iānitor and the ōstiārius. In Book 3 of dē Ōrātōre, Cicero tells a funny story about the poet Ennius visiting Scipio Nasica (second century BC): When Nasica arrived at the house of the poet Ennius and asked to see Ennius, a female slave answered that Ennius was not at home. He had the feeling that she had spoken on her master's orders and that Ennius was within. After a few days, Ennius went to see Nasica and asked for him at the door; Nasica cried, "I'm not here!" Ennius then said, "Really? Do I not recognize your voice?" At this, Nasica replied, "You are an impudent man! When I asked after you, I believed your slave woman when she claimed that you were not at home. You do not believe me in person?" For the most part, this is a story you can read! The parts you can't are translated in parentheses. Cicero is talking about jokes where someone seems to not know what he knows-like that one of Nasica (ut illud Nāsīcae)

Ut illud Nāsīcae, quī cum ad poētam Ennium vēnisset (when he had come), eìque ab ostiō quaerentī Ennium ancilla dīxisset (the female slave had said) domī nōn esse. Nāsīca sēnsit illam dominī iussū dīxisse et illum intus esse; paucīs post diēbus cum ad Nāsīcam vēnisset (when
he had come), Ennius et eum ad iānuam quaereret (and was asking for), exclāmat Nāsīca domī non esse. Tum Ennius, "Quid? Ego nōn cognoscō vōcem," inquit "tuam?" Hic Nāsīca, "Homō es impudēns: ego cum tē quaererem (when I asked for you) ancillae tuae crēdidī tē domī nōn esse, tū mihi nōn crēdis ipsī?"
Without a post office—never mind a telephone or email—how did the Romans send messages to each other? They often called upon a traveler (particularly if known to them) to take a message. Cicero writes to his friend Marcus Marcellus that he was sending a second letter so soon after a first because there was a carrier at hand and he couldn't pass up the opportunity (Ad Fam. 4.9.1). In a letter to his friend Atticus, he alludes to the difficulties of the job of lettercarrier; Atticus's freedman Philogenes had just made a long and rather unsafe journey to bring Cicero a letter (Ad Att. 5.20.8: perlonga et nōn satis tūta via). Friends, freedmen, slaves: all were pressed into service of carrying lettersgenerally on foot. Cicero had slaves who seemed reserved expressly for sending letters (domesticii tabellārī̄, Ad Fam. 2.7.3).

Augustus established what would become the cursus pūblicus: a conveyance of official messages from the emperor, magistrates, or the military. Its original purpose was military: to speed communication between Rome and the provinces; "first he set up regular stations of young men (later, carriages) at short distances along the military roads" (Suetonius, Augustus. 49.3: iuvenēs prīmō modicīs intervallīs per mīlitārīs viās, dehinc vehicula disposuit).

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

| Nōmina |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1st catēna,-ae | chain |
| 2nd |  |
| aurum, -ī | gold |
| faber, fabrī | craftsman |
| lignum, -ī | wood |
| pallium, -ī | cloak |
| tabellārius, -ī | letter carrier |
| supīnum, -ī | supine (grammar) |
| 3rd |  |
| cardō, cardinis (m.) | hinge |
| foris, foris ( $f$.) | folding door |
| iānitor, iānitōris (m.) | door keeper $=$ ōstiārius |
| imāgō, imāginis ( $f$.) | picture, image |
| līmen, līminis (n.) | threshold |

```
Verba
-āre (1)
    (arbitror) arbitrārī, arbitrātum think, judge
    (rogitō) rogitāre, rogitāvisse, keep asking
        rogitātum
-ère (2)
    (caveō) cavēre, cāvisse, cautum beware
    (dērīdeō) dērīdēre, dērīsisse, laugh at
        dērīsum
    (moneō) monēre, monuisse, advise, warn
        monitum
    (mordeō) mordēre, momordisse, bite
        morsum
    (removeō) removēre, remōvisse, remove
        remōtum
    (retineō) retinēre, retinuisse, hold on to
        retentum
    (terreō) terrēre, terruisse, territum frighten
-ere (3)
    (accēdō) accēdere, accessisse, approach
        accessum
    (admittō) admittere, admīsisse, let in
        admissum
    (cēdō) cēdere, cēssisse, yield
        cessum (intr. + dat.)
    (fremō) fremere, fremuisse, growl
        fremitum
    (pellō) pellere, pepulisse, pulsum strike, drive out
    (prehendō) prehendere, prendisse, grab hold of
        prēnsum
    (prōcēdō) prōcēdere, prōcessisse, move forward
        processum
    (recēdō) recēdere, recessisse, withdraw
        recessum
    (resistō) resistere, restitisse resist
        (intr. + dat.)
    (rumpō) rumpere, rūpisse, ruptum break
    (scindō) scindere, scidisse, scissum rip, tear
    (sinō) sinere, sīvisse, situm
    (solvō) solvere, solvisse, solūtum
    (tremō) tremere, tremuisse
-ire (4)
    (cūstōdiō) cūstōdīre, cūstōdīvisse, guard
        cūstōdītum
    (saliō) salīre, saluisse leap
    (vinciō) vincīre, vīnxisse, vīnctum bind
```

Irregular
(ferō) ferre, tulisse, lātum
Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) aureus, -a, -um ferreus, -a, -um ligneus, -a, -um
3rd
ferōx (ferōcis)
Prōnōmina
iste, ista, istud
quis, quid
Adverbia
anteā
forās
foris
nūper
posteā
prius
quīn
scīlicet
sīcut
tandem
Praepositiōnēs
extrā (prp. + acc.)
intrā (prp. + acc.)
carry, bear
golden
iron
wooden
fierce, ferocious
that one (of yours)
shortened from aliquis, aliquid
before
outside (toward)
outside (place where)
recently
after
before
why not? in fact
naturally, of course
just as
finally
outside
inside, within

## XXIII. Epistula Magistrī

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Participles
i. Future Participle
ii. Eō, īre: Present Participle and Summary
b. Infinitives
i. Future Active Infinitive
ii. Future Passive Infinitive
c. pudēre (impersonal)
d. Perfect Stem, Continued (ferre, root perfects, reduplicated)
e. Principal Parts

## Julius Responds to Diodorus's Letter

At the end of Cap. XVIII, an angry Diodorus (the schoolmaster) wrote a letter to Marcus's father. In this chapter, you find out what is in that letter. The reproduction heading the chapter shows the kind of handwriting the ancient Romans used. Compare this with the text on page 180 of Lingua Latina, and you will have no difficulty in deciphering the script.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Recēnsiō: Participles (Sections I and II)

The first two readings in this chapter offer a good review of the participles and infinitives you have learned thus far:

- Present participle in an ablative absolute: Tacente Mārcō... (1.55)
- Present participle: Interim Mārcus pallidus et tremēns patrem legentem spectat. (1l.34-36)
- Perfect participle: vidēsne nōmen "Sextī" litterīs plānīs in parte superiōre inscrīptum? (ll.63-64)
- Present infinitive active: Nōlō hās litterās legere. (1.15)
- Present infinitive passive: Tūne putās tē hīs litterīs laudārī̀, Mārce? (11.49-50)
- Perfect infinitive active: Magister plānīs verbīs scrībit, "tē discipulum improbissimum fuisse ac foedē et prāvē scrīpsisse!" (ll.60-61)
- Perfect infinitive passive: Tantum sciō epistulam Tūsculō missam et ā tabellāriō ad tē lātam esse. (ll.8-9)


## Ferre

The principal parts of the irregular verb ferre tulisse lātum come from different stems and must be memorized. Examples:

Ecce epistula quam illinc ad tē tulit. (1l.3-4)
Tantum sciō epistulam Tūsculō missam et ā tabellāriō ad tē lātam esse. (ll.8-9)

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Pudēre (Impersonal)

When Marcus has been caught cheating, his father says, "Nōnne tē pudet hoc fēcisse?" (1.79)

The impersonal verb pudet:

- tells that a feeling of shame affects someone
- the person affected is in the accusative, e.g.: mēpudet "I feel ashamed"
- the cause of the feeling of shame can be expressed by an infinitive, as above (1.79), or by a genitive, e.g.:
Puerum pudet factī suī. (1.82)
Pudēre (it causes shame) is one of a few impersonal verbs ${ }^{1}$ that take:
- The accusative of person concerned and either of the following:
$\triangleright$ genitive of person/thing affected
$\triangleright$ infinitive that completes the thought
examples:
Pudet mē pigritiae meae. I'm embarrassed about my laziness.
Pudet mè hoc dīcere. I'm ashamed to say this.

[^33]
## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## The Future Participle

Julius has to answer the letter. So, after putting Marcus in his place, he says, "Iam epistulam scrīptūrus sum." (1.125) He could have said, "Iam epistulam scrībam," using the ordinary future tense of scrībere (scrībam), for scrīptūrus sum is merely an extended form (or periphrasis ${ }^{2}$ ) of the future, which serves to express what someone intends to do or is on the point of doing; it is composed of the present of esse and scrīptūrus, which is the future participle (Latin participium futūr $\bar{\imath}$ ) of scrībere.

The difference between the simple future and the periphrasis of the future participle with a form of esse is one of tone. The simple future means the speaker intends to do something at some point in the future (which point can be made more by use of an adverb or time expression), while the future participle plus esse suggests that the subject is on the point of acting.

The future participle:

- is formed by adding $\approx \bar{u} r \mid u s,-a$, $-u m$ to the participle/supine stem, e.g.: pugnāt|ūr|us from pugnāre pārit|ūr|us from pārēre dormīt|ūr|us from dormīre
- as an adjective means "about to X," "intending to X"
- as an adjective agrees with its noun in gender, number, and case
- combined with esse has a verbal force pointing to the immediate future
examples:

| pugnātūrus est | he is about to fight, intending to fight, he <br> will fight |
| :--- | :--- |
| pāritūrus est | he about to obey, intending to obey, he will <br> obey |
| dormītūra est | she is about to sleep, intending to sleep, she <br> will sleep |
| scrīptūrī sumus | we are about to write, intending to write, <br> we will write |

The future participle of esse is futu$r \mid u s$, a form you know already from the expression tempus futūrum. All of these forms can be seen in context in Marcus's plea to his parents (1l.84-87):

Certē malus puer fū̄, sed posthāc bonus puer futūrus sum: semper vōbīs pāritūrus sum, numquam pugnātūrus sum in viā nec umquam in lūdō dormītūrus sum.

[^34]
## Future Active Infinitive

The future active infinitive (infinnitivus futūrī) is composed of the future active participle and esse. In the following sentence, scrīptūrum esse is a future infinitive. Compare Julius's direct remark that he is about to write a letter with the reported statement:
"Epistulam scrīptūrus sum." (1.125)
Iūlius dīcit, "sē epistulam scrīptūrum esse." (ll.125-126)
Other examples are:

| futūrum esse | pugnātūrum esse |
| :--- | :--- |
| pāritūrum esse | dormītūrum esse |

These infinitives are all used in the report of Marcus's promises: (ll.89-93)
Mārcus "sē malum puerum fuisse" fatētur ac simul prōmittit "sē posthāc bonum puerum futūrum esse, semper sē parentibus pāritūrum esse nec umquam in viā pugnātūrum nec in lūdō dormìtūrum esse"-id quod saepe antehāc prōmīsit!
The future active infinitive (summary):

- is comprised of the future active participle and the infinitive of the verb to be (esse)
- when used as a simple infinitive, the participle is neuter and singular: dormītūrum esse to be about to sleep ductūrum esse to be about to lead
- when used in indirect statement, the participle agrees with its subject:
Puerī dīcunt sē dormītūrōs esse. The boys say that they are about to go to sleep.
Puellae dīcunt sē dormītūrās esse. The girls say that they are about to go to sleep.


## Future Passive Infinitive

The future passive infinitive is comprised of the supine and the present passive infinitive to the verb to go ( $\bar{r} \bar{r} \bar{l}$ ). This form never changes: it is always the supine $+\bar{i} r \bar{i}$. For example:

Aemilia Mārcum à Iūliō Aemilia thinks Marcus will be verberātum īr $\bar{\imath}$ putat. beaten by Julius. (1l.114-115)

Ego eum nec mūtātum esse nec posthāc mūtātum ìrī crēdō. (will be changed) (ll.118-119)
The supine, you will remember from the previous chapter (XXII), expresses purpose. When Julius gets up to go, Aemilia suspects mischief and
(using the supine with īre to express purpose) asks, "Mārcumne verberātum is?" (ll.113-114).

In the accusative and infinitive construction, her misgivings could be expressed by changing the direct verberātum is to the active infinitive and the supine:

Aemilia Iūlium Mārcum verberātum īre putat.
In practice, however, to avoid the ambiguity of two accusatives the passive form is preferred, hence:

Aemilia Mārcum $\bar{a}$ patre verberātum ìrī putat. (ll.114-115)
Not $\bar{a} B e n e:$ The supine does not change, regardless of the subject:
Dīc eī, "respōnsum meum crās ā Mārcō trāditum īrī." (1l.132-133)
Dīc eī, "epistulam meam crās à Mārcō trāditum îrî̀."

## Summary: Future Participles and Infinitives

The future active participle:

- can be used just as an adjective
- exhibits all the forms of a 1st/2nd declension adjective (like bonus, bona, bonum)
$\triangleright$ agrees with the word it modifies in gender, number, and case
- combined with a verb, creates a periphrasis of the future
$\triangleright$ can be used instead of the future tense
$\triangleright$ agrees with its subject
- combined with esse, creates the future infinitive active
$\triangleright$ neuter singular of the future active participle + the present infinitive of esse
$\triangleright$ in indirect statement, the participle must agree with its subject


## The future passive infinitive:

- consists of the accusative of the supine and $\bar{r} \bar{\imath}$
- never changes in form
- is relatively rare in Latin


## Recēnsiō: Summary of Infinitives and Participles

Now you have all the infinitives:

- present active and passive
- perfect active and passive
- future active and passive

You also have almost all the participles:

- present active (there is no present passive)
- perfect passive
- perfect active (deponent verbs only: passive forms but active meaning)
- future active
- the gerundive (Cap. XXXIII) is sometimes called the future passive participle
Again, the tense, or time, of infinitives and participles is purely relative: it does not show absolute time. It is relative to the tense of the main verb:
- The present infinitive/participle shows time simultaneous with the main verb.
- The perfect infinitive/participle shows time prior to the main verb.
- The future infinitive/participle shows time subsequent to the main verb.


## Summary: Infinitives

|  | Active | Passive |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Present | $-\bar{a} r e$ | $-\bar{a} r \bar{\imath}$ |
|  | $-\bar{e} r e$ | $-\bar{e} r \bar{\imath}$ |
|  | - ere | $-\bar{\imath}$ |
|  | $-\bar{i} r e$ | $-\bar{i} r \bar{\imath}$ |
| Past | Perfect stem + isse | Perfect passive participle + esse |
| Future | Supine stem $+\bar{u} r u m$ esse | Supine $+\bar{i} r \bar{i}$ |

## Summary: Participles

For contrast, here is a summary of participles.

|  | Active | Passive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Present | -āns |  |
|  | -ēns |  |
|  | -ēns/iēns |  |
|  | -iēns |  |
| Past | See notā bene, note 1 below | -tus, -ta, -tum |
|  |  | See notā bene, note 2 below |
| Future | Supine stem $+-\bar{u} r u s,-\bar{u} r a$, -ūrum |  |

Notā Bene:

1. The perfect participle of Latin deponents can be used as the equivalent of the missing perfect active participle, e.g., locūtus: "having spoken."
2. The -tus, -ta, -tum of the perfect passive participle can undergo changes in verbs that end in certain consonants. For example, the verb claudere has clausus, $-a,-u m$, which comes from claudtus, $-a$, -um

## Eō, īre

The present participle of $\bar{i} r e ~ l o o k s ~ r e g u l a r ~ e n o u g h: ~ i \mid e \overline{e n s, ~ b u t ~ t h e ~ d e c l e n s i o n ~ i s ~}$ irregular: acc. $\underline{\text { euut }} \mid$ em, gen. $\underline{\text { eunt }} \mid$ is, etc. So also compounds, e.g., red-īre, part. red-iēns, -eunt|is. Examples in ll.106-107.

## Present Participle

| sing. | m./f. | n. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | iēns | iēns |
| acc. | euntem | iēns |
| gen. | euntis | euntis |
| dat. | eunt $\bar{\imath}$ | eunt $\bar{\imath}$ |
| abl. | eunte $/ \bar{\imath}$ | eunte $\bar{\imath}$ |


| pl. | m./f. | n. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nom. | euntēs | euntia |
| acc. | euntēs | euntia |
| gen. | euntium | euntium |
| dat. | euntibus | euntibus |
| abl. | euntibus | euntibus |

## Recēnsiō: Forms of the Perfect Stem

In Cap. XXI, you learned that in addition to adding $u / v$ to the stem (with or without the stem vowel: amāvisse/habuisse), or s(e.g., dīcere, dīxisse < dīcsisse), perfects are formed from the root of the verb or from the reduplicated root.

Root Perfects: A "root perfect" is a verb that forms the perfect tense by adding the endings directly to the root of the verb without the addition of any intervening tense sign (e.g., $v$ or $s$ ). Root perfects can show:

- vowel lengthening
legere, lēgisse, lēctum
fugere, fügisse
- vowel change
facere, fḗcisse
Reduplicated Perfects: A perfect stem is called reduplicated when it repeats the initial consonant of the verb, as in the verb dare. Dare is an unusual looking verb because the stem is basically $d$. In the perfect tense, the stem repeats
the $d$, separated from the original $d$ of the root by another vowel $(d+e+d)$ and adds the endings: dare dedisse. Trā-dere (= trāns + dare) and per-dere (= per + dare $)$ are compounds of dare, which explains the perfect trā-didisse and per-didisse.

perdere, perdidī, perditum<br>trādere, trādidī, trāditum

## Principal Parts

The principal parts (from the margins) to be learned in this chapter are (the 1st person singular present active indicative is given in parentheses):

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { (afferō < ad + ferō) afferre, attulisse, allātum } \\
& \text { (dēbē̄) dēbēre, dēbuisse, dēbitum } \\
& \text { (dūcō) dūcere, dūxisse, ductum } \\
& \text { (faciō) facere, fēcisse, factum } \\
& \text { (ferō) ferre, tulisse, lātum } \\
& \text { (fugī̄) fugere, fūgisse } \\
& \text { (inclūd̄}<\text { in }^{\text {+ claudō) inclūdere, inclūsisse, inclūsum }} \\
& \text { (legō) legere, lēgisse, lēctum } \\
& \text { (mereō) merēre, meruisse, meritum } \\
& \text { (mittō) mittere, mīsisse, missum } \\
& \text { (ostendō) ostendere, ostendisse } \\
& \text { (perd̄̄) perdere, perdidisse, perditum } \\
& \text { (trādō) trādere, trādidisse, trāditum }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Recēnsiō: Impersonal Verbs

| decet | it is fitting |
| :--- | :--- |
| licet | it is permitted |
| necesse est | it is necessary |
| oportet | it is right (morally right) |
| opus est | it is needed |

## Studia Rōmāna

We begin letters with Dear X and end with "sincerely," "love" or some similar signal that closes our letters. Roman letter writers followed a pattern similar to that of Diodorus in his letter to Julius: Diodōrus lūliō salūtem dī̀it. The name of the writer comes first in the nominative followed by the name of the recipient in the dative and a greeting. Other greetings (sometimes abbreviated):

- sī valēs, bene est, ego valeō = s.v.b.e.e.v.
- $s \bar{l}$ valēs, bene est $=$ s.v.b.e.

The younger Seneca ( 55 BC-AD 39), in a letter (14) to his young friend Lucilius, wrote, "Our ancestors had a custom, preserved up to my time, to add these words to the beginning of a letter: 'sī valēs bene est, ego valeō,' We say-correctly-'si philosophāris, bene est.' For this is precisely what it means to be well" ${ }^{3}$ (philosophārī: to apply oneself to philosophy).

Diodorus's closing, Scrībēbam Tusculī kalendīs lūnī̄s, demonstrates another common letter convention, giving the place and date of composition. Diodorus uses the imperfect because he is writing from the perspective of the reader. This is called the epistolary imperfect.

When Julius is handed the letter, he immediately recognizes Diodorus's seal (obsignāre: seal a letter). Both tablets and papyrus scolls could be sealed; the seal not only identified the sender, but kept the letter private. During the tumultuous late republic, Cicero joked in a letter that he was afraid to write of political matters lest the papyrus itself betray him (Ad Att. 2.20): "I will write to you briefly about affairs of state; for at this point, I'm anxious that the very paper I write on might betray us. And so, in the future, if I have more that I must write about, I will conceal it with allegories." ${ }^{4}$

Cicero often wrote his letters to his friends himself, without the services of his secretary. On one occasion, he explained to Atticus that the different handwriting was a clear sign of how busy he was: he had his librārius write the letter while he dictated (Ad Att. 4.16: Oссирātiōnum meārum vel hoc signum erit quod epistula librārī manū est). On another occasion, he reveals the mystery of the nearly illegible handwriting in a letter he had written to his brother Quintus (Ad Quintum Fratrem, 2.15): "No, I wasn't busy, upset or angry—just careless. It's my habit to assume that whatever pen I pick up is a good one." He opens the letter with a nice representation of what one did to prepare to write a letter. His reed pen (calamō) and ink (ātrāmentō) were prepared (temperātōthis time, he bothered to check the point of the pen!), and the papyrus had been smoothed with a file made of a tooth (chartā dentāt $\bar{a}$ ):

> Calamō et ātrāmentō temperātō, chartā etiam dentātā rēs agētur. Scrībis enim tē meās litterās superiōrēs vix legere potuisse. In quō nihil eōrum, mī frāter, fuit quae putās. Neque enim occupātus eram neque perturbātus nec īrātus alicū̄. Sed hoc faciō semper ut, quīcumque calamus in mānūs meās vēnerit, eō sīc ūtar tamquam bonō.

Papyrus was expensive and was often reused by whiting over the old writing and beginning anew. Such reused papyri are called palimpsestī ( $\pi \alpha \lambda i ́ \mu \psi \eta \sigma \tau o \varsigma)$; the practice continued and several ancient texts have come to light underneath later writings. Cicero chides his friend Trebatius (Ad Fam. 7.18), "I commend

[^35]your frugality in using a palimpsest-but it really makes me wonder what was on that paper (chartula) that you preferred to erase rather than not write this letter (literally: these things) to me, unless it was one of your legal briefs. I surely don't think you erase my letters so you can replace them with yours! Perhaps you mean 'nothing is happening, I have no clients; I haven't even any paper!'"

Nam quod in palimpsestō, laudō equidem parsimōniam, sed mīror quid in illā chartulā fuerit quod dēlēre mālueris quam haec nōn scrībere, nisi fortē tuās formulās; nōn enim putō tè meās epistulās dēlēre ut repōnās tuās. An hoc significās, nihil fierī, frīgēre ${ }^{5}$ tē, nē chartam quidem tibi suppeditāre?

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

| Nōmina |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1st |  |
| litterae, -ārum | a letter = epistula |
| 2nd |  |
| factum, -ī | deed |
| prōmissum, -ī | promise |
| signum, -ī | sign, statue |
| 3rd |  |
| clāvis, clāvis (f.) | key |
| comes, comitis (m./f.) | companion |
| laus, laudis ( $f$.) | praise |
| pudor, pudōris (m.) | (good) shame |
| verbera, um (n.pl.) | a lashing |
| 4th |  |
| vultus, vultūs (m.) | face, facial expression |
| Verba |  |
| -āre (1) |  |
| (comitor) comitārī, comitātum | accompany |
| (negō) negāre, negāvisse, negātum | deny, say...not |
| -ēre (2) |  |
| (contineō) continēre, continuisse, contentum | contain |
| (dēbeō) dēbēre, dēbuisse, dēbitum | owe, ought |
| (fateor) fatērī, fassum | acknowledge |
| (mereō) merēre, meruisse, meritum | earn, deserve |
| (palleō) pallēre | be pale |
| (pudet) pudēre, puduit | feel shame (impersonal) |
| (rubeō) rubēre | be red |

[^36]```
-ere (3)
    (āvertō) āvertere turn aside or away
    (dīmittō) dīmittere, dīmīsisse, send in different directions
        dìmissum
    (inclūdō) inclūdere, inclūsisse, shut in
        inclūsum
    (īnscrībö) īnscrībere, īnscrīpsisse, inscribe
        inscrīptum
    (perdō) perdere, perdidisse, lose
        perditum
    (prōmittō) prōmittere, prōmīsisse, promise
        prōmissum
    salūtem dīcere
    (solvō) solvere, solvisse, solūtum loose, pay
    (trādō) trādere, trādidisse, trāditum hand over or down
Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
    integer, -ra, -rum whole, undamaged
    pallidus, -a, -um
    plānus, -a, -um
    superior, superius
    pale
    level, clear
    higher
Prōnōmina
    quidnam? what in the world?
    quisnam? who in the world?
Adverbia
    antehāc
    fortasse
    herī
    hinc
    illinc
    posthāc
    umquam
Praepositiōnēs
    ob (prp.+acc.) on account of
```


## XXIV. Puer Aegrōtus

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Pluperfect Tense: Active and Passive
b. Deponent Verbs: Perfect Tense
c. nōscere
d. Principal Parts
2. Adjectives
a. Comparisons
i. Conjunction quam
ii. Ablative of Comparison
3. Pronouns: Reflexive Pronoun
4. Adverbs: Adverbs in $\bar{o}$
5. Points of Style
a. quid agis?
b. posse
c. Hyperbaton

## Quintus Hears about His Brother's Troubles

From his sickbed Quintus calls Syra and asks her to tell him what has been going on while he has been lying alone and feeling left out of things. Syra readily gives him all the details of Marcus's return home and what had gone before.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Adverbs

In Cap. XVIII you learned about adverbs ending in -ter (e.g., fortiter) and in $-\bar{e}$ (e.g., stultēe). Note the adverbs ending in -ō:
subitō (1.12)
certō (1.59)
postrēmō (1.78)
rārㅡㅡ
prīmō (1.100, "at first") ${ }^{1}$

[^37]
## Reflexive Pronoun

Of the reflexive pronoun, the form se is accusative and ablative, the dative is sibi (cf. tibi, mihi):

- Syra: "Doletne tibi pēs adhūc?"
- Puer "pedem sibi dolēre" ait: "Valdē mihi dolet pēs." (ll.23-24)
acc. $s \bar{e}$
gen. See Cap. XXIX
dat. sibi
abl. se


## Comparisons

There are two ways of expressing comparison between two things:

1. The conjunction quam ("than") is used after the comparative (adjective or adverb). Comparisons in any case can be made with quam, "than;" the second member of the comparison will go into the same case as the first, e.g.:

Mārcus pigrior est quam Quintus.
Pēs dexter multō māior est quam pēs laevus! (1.6) Pulchrius scrīpserātis et recitāverātis quam Mārcus. (11.113-114)
2. Instead of using quam, it is possible to put the second term in the ablative. This construction, the ablative of comparison, is used only when the first member of the comparison is in the nominative or the accusative case, e.g.:

Mārcus pigrior est Quintō.
Nunc pēs dexter māior est pede laevō. (1.30)
Cēterum in hāc rè is nōn pēior fuerat cēterīs. (1.77)
Is canis lupō ferōcior est! (1.90)
Melior sum frātre meō! (1.108)
Ego Mārcum bene nōvī, nec putō eum vōbīs stultiōrem esse. (11.115-116)
At certē pigrior est nōbīs! (1.117)

## Deponent Verbs (continued from Cap. XVI)

You learned the present tense of deponents in Cap. XVI. Deponent verbs like cōnārī and mentī̀ī are always passive in form, except for the present and future participles:

| cōnāns, mentiēns | trying, lying |
| :--- | :--- |
| cōnātūrus, mentītūrus | about to try, about to lie |

Just as the present tense has the form of the present passive, the perfect tense has the form of the perfect passive. It is formed by the perfect participle and esse. Some examples of perfect participles of deponent verbs:
patī: passus: terḡ̄ dolōrēs passus est. (1.47)
loquī: locūtus: saepe dè eā locūtus est. (1.60)
verērī: veritus: Tabellārius canem veritus est. (1.88)
fatērī: fassus: Mārcus "sē mentītum esse" fassus est. (1.101, note the perfect infinitive: mentītum esse)

Compare the present and the perfect tense:
Quīntus surgere cōnātur. Quintus tries to rise.
Quīntus surgere cōnātus est. Quintus has tried to rise.
Märcus mentītur. Marcus is lying.
Mārcus mentītus est. Marcus has lied.
The imperative of deponent verbs ending in -re is treated in the next chapter, but note the following examples of the imperative:

Cōnsōlāre mē, Syra! (1.40)
loquere те̄сит! (1.41)
immō laetāre (1.44)

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## The Pluperfect Tense

Through Syra's report to Quintus, you learn the tense called pluperfect (Latin tempus plūsquamperfectum). It is used to express that an action comes before some point in the past, i.e., that something had taken place (ll.65-67):

Mārcus nōn modo ūmidus erat quod per imbrem ambulāverat, sed etiam sordidus atque cruentus, quod humī iacuerat et à Sextō pulsātus erat. Puerī enim in viā pugnāverant.
The pluperfects explain why Marcus was (erat) wet and dirty: he had (previously) walked, had lain, had been hit, had fought (ambulāv|erat iacu|erat, pulsāt|us erat, and pugnāv|erant).

In the active, the pluperfect is formed by the insertion of -erā- (shortened -era-) between the perfect stem and the personal endings:

1st person $\sim e r a|m, \sim e r a ̄| m u s$
2nd $\quad \sim e r a ̄|s, \sim e r a ̄| t i s$
3rd $\sim$ eralt, $\sim$ eralnt

```
ambulā \(+v+e r a+m\) : I had walked (etc.) \(\quad i a c+u+e r a+m\) : I had lain (etc.)
ambulā \(+v+\) erā \(+s \quad i a c+u+e r a \bar{a}+s\)
ambulā \(+v+e r a+t \quad\) iac \(+u+e r a+t\)
ambulā \(+v+e r a ̄+m u s \quad i a c+u+e r a ̄+m u s\)
ambulā \(+v+e r a ̄+t i s \quad i a c+u+e r a ̄+t i s\)
ambulā \(+v+e r a+n t \quad\) iac \(+u+e r a+n t\)
```

In the passive the pluperfect is composed of the perfect participle and the imperfect of esse (eram, erās, erat, etc.), e.g.:

Mārcus à Sextō pulsātus erat. $=$ Sextus Mārcum pulsāverat.
pulsātus, $-a$, -eram: I had been hit (etc.)
pulsātus, -a, -erās
pulsātus, -a, -erat
pulsātī, -ae, -erāmus
pulsātī, -ae, -erātis
pulsātī, -ae, -erant
$\rightarrow$ In the Grammatica Latina-both of Lingua Latina and at the end of this book-you find examples of all the pluperfect forms of the four conjugations and of esse (fu|era|m, fu|erā|s, fu|era|t, etc.).

## Nōscere

The perfect nōvisse of nōscere ("get to know") has present force: "be acquainted with," "know," e.g.:

Quōmodo Mēdus puellam Rōmānam nōscere potuit? (ll.57-58)
Nesciō quōmodo, sed certō sciō eum aliquam fēminam nōvisse. (ll.5960)

Canis tē nōvit, ignōrat illum. (1.94)

## Principal Parts

The principal parts (from the margins) to be learned in this chapter are (the 1st person singular present active indicative is given in brackets):
(cadō) cadere, cecidisse, cāsum
(cognōscō) cognōscere, cognōvisse, cognitum
(cōnor) cōnārī, cōnātum
(dō) dare, dedisse, datum
(eō) īre, īvisse (or iisse), itum
(fateor) fatērī, fassum
(frangō) frangere, frēgisse, frāctum
(lavō) lavāre, lāvisse, lautum (or lavātum)
(loquor) loqū̄, locūtum
(lūdō) lūdere, lūsisse
(mentior) mentīrī, mentītum
(mordeō) mordēre, momordisse, morsum
(nōscō) nōscere, nōvisse, nōtum
(percutiō) percutere, percussisse, percussum
(reprehendō) reprehendere, reprehendisse, reprehēnsum
(vereor) verērī, veritum
(videō) vidēre, vīdisse, vīsum
(volō) velle, voluisse

## Points of Style

## Quid agis

Quid agis? = Quōmodo tē habēs?
Syra Quintō loquitur, How are you? Does your foot
"Sed tū quid agis? Doletne tibi pēs adhūc?"

## Posse

Syra's remonstration to Quintus illustrates the idiomatic use of posse:
Mīror tē crūs nōn frēgisse. Facile ōs frangere potuistī. (ll.32-33)
English would have used the perfect of "break" in both clauses: "I'm amazed that you did not break your leg. You could easily have broken a bone." In English, in other words, we would use a subjunctive (could/might have broken). Posse, however, works differently. To express what could have happened in the past, but didn't, Latin uses a past indicative tense of the verb posse with a present infinitive.

## Hyperbaton

When Quintus hears Syra's narration of what Marcus had done, the word order of his question reflects what is uppermost in his mind-his mother's reaction:

Māter quid dīxit? (1.71)
Marcus throws emphasis on the word māter by putting it first. Making the word order reflect the emphasis of thought is called hyperbaton and is an important feature of Latin style.

## Recēnsiō: The Verbal System (thus far)

Verbs have:

| tense | present, future, imperfect, perfect, pluperfect |
| :--- | :--- |
| voice | active (subject acts); passive (subject acted upon) |
| finite mood | indicative (Fact: asks question; makes statements), |
|  | imperative (Order: gives an order; commands) |

Outside the finite ${ }^{2}$ verbal system, you have thus far learned the following verbal forms:
infinitive
supine
participle

## Tense

Tense shows two things:
duration in time (going on or completed)
position in time (past, present, future)
Present tense: what is in progress right now
Future: what will be in progress in the future
Imperfect: what was in progress in the past
Perfect: shows completion in the present (i.e., in relation to present time, the action is completed.
Pluperfect: shows completion in the past (i.e., the action was completed in relation to another completed action)
Examples:
Indicative

| I. Iūlius signum frangit. | Julius is breaking the seal. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\overline{\text { A Iūliō signum frangitur. }}$ | The seal is being broken by Julius. |
| Iūlius signum franget. | Julius will break the seal. |
| $\bar{A}$ Iūliō signum frangētur. | The seal will be broken by Julius. |
| Iūlius signum frangēbat. | Julius was breaking the seal. |
| $\bar{A}$ Iūliō signum frangēbātur. | The seal was being broken by Julius. |
| Iūlius signum frēgit. | Julius broke/has broken the seal. |
| $\overline{\text { A Iūliō signum frāctum est. }}$ | The seal has been broken by Julius. |
| Iūlius signum frēgerat. | Julius had broken the seal. |
| $\overline{\text { A Iūliō signum frāctum erat. }}$ | The seal had been broken by Julius. |
| II. Latīnē loquī cōnor. | I am trying to speak Latin, I do try, |
|  | I try |
| Latīnē loquī cōnābar. | I was trying to speak Latin, I used to |
|  | try, I tried |
| Latīnē loquī cōnābor. | I will try to speak Latin. |
| Latīnē loquī cōnātus/a sum. | I have tried to speak Latin, I tried to |
|  | speak Latin, I did try |

[^38]$\begin{array}{ll}\text { Latīnē loquī cōnātus/a eram, } & \text { I had tried to speak Latin, but } \\ \text { sed nōn potū̄. } & \text { I could not. }\end{array}$
Participle
I. frangēns, frangentis
frāctūrus, $-a$, -um
frāctus, $-a$, -um
II. cōnāns, cōnantis
cōnātūrus, -a, -um
cōnātus, $-a$, -um
Infinitive
I. frangere
frangī
frāctūrum esse
frāctum ìrī
frēgisse
frāctum esse
II. cōnār $\bar{\imath}$
cōnātūrum esse cōnātum esse
breaking about to break
having been broken
trying
about to try
having tried (notice active meaning!)
to break
to be broken
to be about to break
to be about to be broken
to have broken
to have been broken
to try
to be about to try to have tried

Infinitive in indirect statement

## I. Present

Videō puerōs signum frangere. I see that the boys are breaking the seal.
Videō signum $\bar{a}$ puerīs frangī. I see that the seal is being broken by the boys.
Videō puerōs signum I see that the boys will break the seal. frāctūrōs esse.
Videō signum à puerīs frāctum ìrī.

I see that the seal will be broken by the boys.
Videō puerōs signum frēgisse. I see that the boys broke/have broken the seal.
Videō signum à puerīs frāctum esse. I see that the seal has been broken by the boys.
II. Past

Vīdī puerōs signum frangere. I saw that the boys were breaking the seal.
Vìdī signum $\bar{a}$ puerīs frangī. I saw that the seal was being broken by the boys.

| Vìdī puerōs signum frāctūrōs esse. | I saw that the boys would break the seal. |
| :---: | :---: |
| Vìdī signum à puerīs fräctum īrī. | I saw that the seal would be broken by the boys. |
| Vìdī puerōs signum frēgisse. | I saw that the boys had broken the seal. |
| Vìdī signum à puerīs frāctum esse. | I saw that the seal had been broken by the boys. |

## Studia Rōmāna

While Syra and Quīntus are discussing the day's drama around Marcus, other slaves are in the kitchen (culina) preparing for the dinner party you will read about toward the end of the narrative. What people would have eaten varied a lot, depending on where they lived (city? country?), their socioeconomic status, and other factors. Certain festivals and celebrations included special foods. Birthdays, for example, needed a cake (lībum) to offer to the gods in thanksgiving. Wealthy people living in a port city would have a wide variety of choices of foods imported from abroad as well as elsewhere in Italy and their homes would include a culina. People living in apartment blocks (insulae) might have a portable brazier (grill) but not a kitchen.

Breakfast was a very light meal and seems to have been optional. The breaking of the night fast was often the prandium, a simple meal taken late morning or noontime. That breakfast (ientāculum) was originally called prandicula, or little prandium (prandicula antīquī dīcēbant, quae nunc ientācula ${ }^{3}$ ), suggests the prandium was often the first meal of the day. The poet Horace ( $65-8$ BC), writing about his moderate (and therefore virtuous) habits, claims he rises late and, after a variety of activities, has his first (around midday) meal: "After eating sparingly-as much as keeps me from enduring the day on an empty stomach, I relax at home" (prānsus nōn avidè, quantum interpellet inānī/ventre diem dūrāre, domesticus ōtior, Sat. 1.6.127-28). That's fine for Horace, but Martial tells us that early-rising schoolboys grabbed something on their way: "Get up! The baker is already selling breakfast to boys/and the crested birds of daylight are everywhere singing" (Surgite: iam vendit puerīs ientācula pistor/ Cristātaeque sonant undique lūcis avēs, 14.223). These meals were simple and probably consisted of bread and vegetables. (The number of bakeries-with and without milling equipment-in Pompeii shows the importance of bread.) A. Cornelius Celsus (first century AD), who wrote an encyclopedia of medicine ( $\bar{e} \bar{e}$ Medicinna ), sensibly remarks that food intake depends on one's age, activity, and the time of year. He suggests one meal a day in winter (if one must
3. Fēstus.
eat prandium, skip the meat and wine!) and in summer, one should include the prandium (Aestāte vērō et potiōne et cibō saepius corpus eget; ideō prandēre quoque commodum est, I.3).

The main meal of the day was called the cēna. Generally, the Romans talk about three courses to the cēna: gustātiō (appetizer), cēna (the main course), secunda mēnsa (dessert). Again, the poet Horace claims that, at the end of the day, "I go home back home to a bowl of leaks and chickpeas and flatbread" (inde domum mē ad porrī et ciceris referō laganīque catīnum, Sat. 1.6.114-115). At the other end of the spectrum are the satiric meals, such as a dinner at Trimalchio's house (in Petronius's first-century AD Satyricon), which consisted of an absurd number, amount, and variety of foodstuffs. The Romans seem to have eaten a good deal of pork. Fish was a prized delicacy (the fish swimming in the fishponds mentioned in Cap. XI were dinner as well as pets). Two poems of Horace satirizing effete and pretentious "foodies" (Satires 2.4 and 2.8) and the survival of a Roman cookery book named after the first-century AD gourmand Apicius (but actually written in the fourth century AD ) are some of the many testimonies to the Roman infatuation with ars culinnäria. A staple of Roman cookery was garum, a sauce produced by fermenting fish with salt out in the sun for several months. Garum is also called liquāmen, a word which means a liquid mixture, but comes to be synonymous with the famous (and lucrative) sauce. Aulus Umbricius Scaurus made so much money producing and selling his garum that he put a mosaic depicting a jar of his fish sauce in the atrium of his house. Garum, like wine, came in various qualities and was traded all over the Mediterranean. From time to time, the Romans-mostly in vain-enacted sumptuary laws that tried to curtail extravagance in general and at meals in particular.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    2nd
        plūsquam perfectum, -i (n.)
        sonus, i्i (m.)
    3rd
        dolor, dolōris (m.)
        latus, lateris (n.)
        os, ossis (n.)
    4th
        strepitus, -ūs (m.)
        tumultus, -ūs (m.)
Verba
    -āre (1)
        (ignōrō) ignōrāre, ignōrāvisse, not to know, be ignorant of
            ignōrātum
        (mīror) mīrārī, mīrātum wonder at
```

```
-ēre (2)
    (fleō) flēre, flēvisse, flētum weep
    -ere (3)
    (convertō) convertere, convertisse, turn
        conversum
    (cupiō) cupere, cupīvisse, cupitum want, desire
    (frangō) frangere, frēgisse, frāctum break
    (nōscō) nōscere, nōvisse, nōtum get to know; pf.: know
    (patior) patī, passum
    (percutiō) percutere, percussisse
        percussum
    (recumbō) recumbere, recubuisse lie down, lie back
Adiectīva
    1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
        aegrōtus, -a, -um
        sick
        cruentus, -a, -um bloody, gory
        laevus, -a, -um
    subitus, -a, -um
3rd
    impār (gen. imparis)
    pār (gen. paris)
Coniūnctiōnēs
    etsī even if, although
Adverbia
    aliter otherwise
    certō}\mp@subsup{}{}{4}\mathrm{ (for certain
    cēterum besides, however
    continuō immediately
    dēnuō anew, again
    intus within
    prīmō at first
    subitō suddenly
    valdē strongly, very (much)
Praepositiōnēs
    iūxtā (prp.+acc.) next to, beside
```

[^39]
## XXV. Thēseus et Mīnōtaurus

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Imperative of Deponent Verbs
b. Accusative and Infinitive
i. velle
ii. iubēre (continued)
2. Participle Perfect (deponents)
3. Nouns: Case Use
a. Locative
i. small islands
ii. plural nouns
b. Ablative of Respect
c. Ablative of Manner
d. Objective Genitive
e. oblīvīscī with Genitive/Accusative
4. Adverbs: Adverbs of Place
5. Points of Style
a. $q u \bar{i}=e t$ is
b. bene/male velle

## Greek Mythology: Theseus and the Minotaur

In this and the next chapter, we will leave the family and read some well-known Greek myths. These thrilling stories have fascinated not only the Romans, but also readers through the ages, and many poets and artists have drawn inspiration from the narrative art of the Greeks.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Adverbs of Place

In this chapter, we add to your store of adverbs signaling place that respond to the questions:
$u b i$ ?
hīc (Cap. III) ibi: Ibi nāvis mea parāta est. (1.93-94)
illīc (Cap. VII)
Notā Bene: The accent on illīc is on the ultima (illíc): see Cap. VII.
unde?
hinc (Cap. XXIII)
illinc (Cap. XXIII): Nēmō quī tāle aedificium semel intrāvit rūrsus illinc exīre potest. (11.30-31)
$q u \bar{?}$ ?
hūc: Auxiliō huius fīlī hūc ad mē redībis (ll.73-74)
illūc: hūc et illūc currēns (1.110)
Notā Bene: Illinc and illūc, like illīc, are pronounced with the accent on the ultima.

## Velle + Accusative and Infinitive

Like iubēre, the verb velle can take the accusative + infinitive construction:
$\underline{\text { Tē }}$ hīc manēre volō
Quam fābulam $\underline{m e}$ é tibi nārrāre viss?
want you to... (ll.2-3)
do you want me to...
(ll.2-4)

## Ablative of Respect (continued from Cap. XI)

You have learned (Caps. XI, XIX, XXII) that the ablative case is used to show the respect in which something is true:

Nec modo pede, sed etiam capite aeger est. (Cap. XI, 1.55)
Tū sōlus amōre meō dignus erās. (Cap. XIX, 1.111)
Vōx tua difficilis est audītū. (Cap. XXII, 11.45-46)
Similarly, a new name can be presented with the ablative nōmine ("by name," abl. of respect), e.g.:
mōnstrum terribile, nōmine Mīnōtaurus (ll.25-26)
parva īnsula nōmine Naxus

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Locative (continued)

## Small islands:

You have learned (Caps. VI, XIX) that for the names of cities and towns, and the nouns domus, rus, and humus, place where, place to which, and place from
which are expressed by the plain ablative（unde，from where），accusative（quō， to where），and locative（ $u b i$ ，where）without prepositions．This rule applies also to the names of small islands，of which Naxos（Naxus）is an example：
acc． $\operatorname{Naxum}=$ ad insulam $\operatorname{Naxum}(1.99)$
abl．Naxō＝ablex īnsulā Naxō（1．100）
loc．Nāxī $=$ in īnsulā Naxō（1．132）
Large islands（like Crete），however，still require prepositions．
Naxō in Crētām
$\bar{e} C r e ̄ t a ̄ ~ A t h e ̄ n a ̄ s$

## Plural nouns

In Cap．VI，you learned about constructions of place with the names of cities and towns．The place－names mentioned in the story can be found on the map of Greece．

Among the names of towns，note the plural forms Athenae and Delphī：
nom．Athēnae，Delphī
acc．Athēnās，Delphōs
abl．Athēnīs，Delphī⿱龴⿵⺆⿻二丨匕s
The accusative and ablative，as you know，serve to express motion to and from the town：Athēnās，＂to Athens，＂Athēn̄ㅡ，＂from Athens．＂

But the locative of plural town names has the same form as the ablative，so that Athēnis can also mean＂from Athens＂or＂in Athens＂（e．g．，the equivalent of in urbe Athēniss）：

Thēseus Athēnīs vīvēbat．（11．51－52）
Context will tell you when to interpret as locative（place where）or ablative （place from which）．

## Ablative of Manner（Ablāt̄̄̄us Modī）

The ablative can express the way or manner in which an action is done，as you see in lines 142－143：

Qū̀ multōs annōs Athēnās magnā cum glōriā rēxit．（＂with great glory＂）
We saw this construction much earlier but without a preposition：
Vocābulum＂insula＂dēclinātur hōc modō．（＂in this way＂） （Cap．IX，1．90）

Mārcus perterritus ad vīllam currit et magnā vōce clāmat．（＂with a great voice，＂＂loudly＂）（Cap．X，11．111－112）

Notā Bene: The preposition cum in the ablātīvus modī is optional if the noun is modified by an adjective (magnā cum glōriā, magnā vōce, hōc modō). If there is no adjective, cum must be used (e.g., cum glōriā).

## Objective/Subjective Genitive

Transitive verbs like timēre and amare are generally used with an object in the accusative, e.g.:
mortem timēre
patriam amāre
Nouns and adjectives (including participles used as adjectives) that are derived from verbs, e.g., timor (from timēre) and amor (from amāre), can be combined with a genitive to denote what is the object of that verb (e.g., fear or love of something/someone).

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { timor mortis } & \text { fear of death (1.77) } \\
\text { amor patriae } & \text { love of country }(1.86)
\end{array}
$$

Such a genitive is called an objective genitive. Other examples are:
timor mōnstrōrum (11.21-22): timor < timēre
expugnātiō urbị (1l.45-46): expugnātiō < expugnāre
cupiditās pecūniae (ll.122-123): cupiditās < cupere
cupidus aurī atque sanguinị $(11.44-47)=q u \bar{\imath}$ cupit aurum atque
sanguinem
patriae amāns (1.51) $=q u \bar{u}$ patriam amat

## Iubēre + Accusative and Infinitive (continued)

You have seen several examples of the accusative and infinitive with the verb iubēre.

An active infinitive expresses what a person is to do:
Medicus Quīntum linguam ostendere iubet. (Cap. XI, 11.69-70)
A passive infinitive expresses what is to be done to a person, like dūc̄ in:
[Rēx] eum ( $\bar{a}$ mìlitibus) in labyrinthum dūc̄ㅡ iussit: "ordered him to be taken into the labyrinth" (1.59)

## Perfect Participle of Deponents

You know (Cap. XIV) that present participles can have an object:
Dāvus cubiculum intrāns (1.25)
Mārcus oculōs aperiēns (ll.37-38)

In the same way, the perfect participle of deponent verbs (being active in meaning) can be used with the subject of the sentence to express what a person has/had done or did:
haec locūta Ariadna... ("having said/after saying this...") (l.74)
Thēseus fïlum Ariadnae secūtus... ("having followed...") (ll.84-85)
Aegeus arbitrātus... ("who believed...") (ll.137-138)

## Compare

An ablative absolute with a perfect passive participle:
Hīs dictīs, Ariadna Thēseō fīlum longum dedit: (literally) "these things having been said, Ariadna..."

A nominative feminine singular perfect participle of a deponent verb, which is active in meaning:
haec locūta, Ariadna Thēseō fīlum longum dedit: "Ariadna, having spoken these things..."

## Points of Style

$Q u \bar{\imath}=e t$ is
A relative pronoun at the beginning of a sentence functions as a demonstrative pronoun referring to a word in the preceding sentence. That is, the relative can be a transitional, connecting word, e.g.:

Thēseus Athēnīs vīvēbat. Quī (= "and he") nūper Athēnās vēnerat. (ll.51-52)
Labyrinthus à Daedalō, virō Athēniēnsī, aedificātus erat. Qū̄ iam antequam ex urbe Athēnīs in Crētam vēnit, complūrēs rēs mīrābilēs fēcerat. (1.34)
Mīnōs autem fïliam virginem habēbat, cui nōmen erat Ariadna. Quae ("and she") cum prīmum Thēseum cōnspexit, eum amāre coepit cōnstituitque eum servāre. (ll.60-62)
Thēseus rēx Athēniēnsium factus est. Quī multōs annōs Athēnās magnā cum glōriā rēxit. (ll.141-143)

## Bene/male velle

The idiomatic expressions bene velle ("to wish someone well") and male velle ("to wish someone ill") take a dative of person. From the participle (bene volēns and male volēns) come the English words "benevolent" and "malevolent." Example:

Rēx enim Athēniēnsibus male volēbat. (1l.48-49)

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Imperative of Deponent Verbs

The imperative of deponent verbs ends in:

- -re in the singular (cons.-stems -ere)
- -minī in the plural (cons.-stems -iminī)

Notā Bene:

- The plural imperative of deponents looks identical to the 2nd plural indicative: sequiminī
- The singular imperative of deponents looks like a present active infinitive: sequere
You have already seen examples of the singular imperative of deponents (ending in -re) in Cap. XXIV, e.g.:

Intuēre pedēs meōs, Syra! (11.28-29)
loquere тессит! (1.41)
immō laetāre. (1.44)
In this chapter, Theseus says to Ariadne (singular imperative):
Opperīre mē! (1.75) Et tū sequere mē! Proficīscere mēcum Athēnās! (11.95-96)

To his countrymen, Theseus uses the plural imperative (ll.92-93):
Laetāminī, cīvēs meī!
Intuēmin̄̄ gladium meum cruentum!
Sequiminī mé ad portum!

## Oblīvīscī with Genitive/Accusative

The verb oblīvīscī can be completed both by an accusative direct object and by the genitive. Oblīviscī can take an accusative when the object is a thing:

Quis tam facile prōmissum oblīvīscitur quam vir quī fēminam amāvit? (ll.119-120)
Redeō ad nārrātiōnem fābulae, quam prope oblīta sum. (ll.129-130)
When oblīviscci means "disregard," "don't be mindful of," it takes a genitive:
oblīvīscere illīus virị! (l.126)
Nōn facile est amōris antīquī oblīvīscī. (1.128)

## Nāvigandum, fugiendum

The forms nāvigandum and fugiendum (ll.94, 97) will be taken up in Cap. XXVI.

## Recēnsiō: Adverbs of Place

| $u b i$ ? | in what place? | quō? to what place? |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ibi | in that place, there | (eō: to that place: Cap. XXVIII) |
| illīc | in that place | illūc to that place ${ }^{1}$ |
| $h \bar{c}$ | in this place | $h \bar{u} c$ to this place |
|  |  |  |
| (inde: from that place: Cap. XXIX) |  |  |
| illinc | from that place |  |
| hinc | from this place |  |
| hūc atque illūc | c here and ther | o this place and to that) |
| hīc atque illīc | here and ther | (on this side and that) |

## More adverbs

| brevī (brevī tempore) | in a short time |
| :--- | :--- |
| quotannīs | every year |
| $\bar{u} n \bar{a} c u m+a b l$. | together with |

## Studia Rōmāna

Syra alludes to several famous Greek myths before settling on the story of Theseus and the Minotaur. Greek literature and stories became an integral part of Roman culture (as Horace wrote, "After Greece was captured, she captivated her uncultivated conqueror and brought culture to unsophisticated Latium"2). Greek exempla are often put in service of illustrating Roman moral precepts (although Syra uses the narrative of Theseus and Ariadne as a "misery loves company" solace for her own disappointment in love).

The boy who wanted to drive the chariot of the sun god (an fäbulam dē puerō quī cupīvit regere equōs quī currum Sōlis per caelum trahunt? 11.6-7) was Phaëthōn, the son of Helios, the god who drove the chariot of the sun through the sky each day (about whom you will learn more in the next chapter). She next refers to Homer's Iliad, the story of the Trojan war and the most famous Greek epic in antiquity. (An cupis audīre fābulam dē Achille, duce Graecōrum, qū̄ Hectorem, ducem Trōiānum, interfēecit atque corpus eius mortuum post

[^40]currum suum trāxit circum moenia urbis Trōiae? 11.8-11). "Achilles, the best of the Greeks, killed Hector, the best of the Trojans, and then dragged his body around the walls of Troy." Finally she asks Quintus if he wants to hear about Romulus, a story you read about in the notes to Cap. IX (an fäbulam dē Rōmulō, quī prīma moenia Rōmāna aedificāvit... 11.11-13).

The two great heroes of the Greek mainland were Herakles (Latin: Hercules) in the south among the Dorians in the Peloponnese and Theseus among the Athenians in Attica. Inspired by the renown of Herakles's prowess, Theseus looked for his own adventures. Although the twelve labors of Herakles are more famous, Theseus also performed several labors-seven before the defeat of the Minotaur. Afterward, he continued his adventures, many of them with his best friend Pirithous. Their last undertaking together was a journey to the underworld to capture Persephone, where they were trapped. Herakles saved Theseus, but Pirithous remained in Hades. Near the end of the first century BC, the poet Horace used the image of Theseus's inability to free his friend from Hades as a marker of the finality of death (IV.7.27-28):
nec Lēthaea valet Thēseus abrumpere cārō
vincula Pīrithoo. ${ }^{3}$
The prolific Greek writer Plurarch (first-second century AD) wrote parallel biographies of famous Greeks and Romans. His life of Theseus, as founder of Athens, is paired with that of Romulus, as founder of Rome. The Greek playwright Euripides (fifth century BC) wrote a play about Theseus and his son Hippolytus, and Theseus makes frequent appearances in Greek vase painting. Ovid (43 BC-AD 17/18) includes Theseus in several poems (the Hērōidēs, the Ars Amātōria, the Metamorphōsēs).

There are always variations on myths. In one of the variations of the Theseus and Ariadna myth, Ariadna is rescued and marries Dionysius (Roman: Bacchus), the god of wine.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        fābula,-ae story
        glōria,-ae glory
        mora,-ae delay
    2nd
        aedificium, -\overline{\mathbf{1}}}\mathrm{ building
        agnus,-\overline{i}}\mathrm{ lamb
        auxilium, -\overline{1}}\mathrm{ help, aid
```

[^41]```
        fīlum, -i
        labyrinthus, -i
        mōnstrum, -ī
        saxum, -i
        taurus, -\overline{1}
3rd
    cīvis, cīvis (m./f.)
    cupiditās, cupiditātis (f.)
    expugnātiō, expugnātiōnis (f.)
    lītus, lītoris (n.)
    moenia, moenium (n. pl.)
    mors, mortis (f.)
    nārrātiō, nārrātiōnis (f.)
    nex, necis (f.)
    rēx, rēgis (m.)
4th
    cōnspectus, -ūs (m.)
    currus, -ūs (m.)
    exitus, -ūs (m.)
```

thread
labyrinth
monster
rock
bull
citizen
desire
conquest
shore
walls
death
story
death
king
sight, view
chariot
way out, end

Verba

Notā Bene: Not all verbs have all principal parts (e.g., maerēre and patēre exist only in the present system).

```
-āre (1)
    (aedificō) aedificāre, aedificāvisse, build
        aedificātum
    (necō) necāre, necāvisse, necātum kill
    (vorō) vorāre, vorāvisse, vorātum devour
-ēre (2)
    (maereō) maerēre grieve
    (pateō) patēre (intr.) lie open
    (polliceor) pollicērī, pollicitum promise
-ere (3)
    (cōnstituō) cōnstituere, cōnstituisse, decide, fix
        cōnstitūtum
    (dēscendō) dēscendere, dēscendisse, descend
        dēscēnsum
    (dēserō) dēserere, dēseruisse, leave, desert
        dēsertum
    (incipiō) incipere, coepisse, coeptum begin
    (interficiō) interficere, interfēcisse, kill
        interfectum
    (oblīviscor) oblīvīscī, oblītum forget
    (occīdō) occīdere, occīdisse, occīsum kill
```

```
(prōspiciō) prōspicere, prōspexisse, look out, look ahead prōspectum
(regō) regere, rēxisse, rēctum rule
(trahō) trahere, trāxisse, tractum drag
```

Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
cupidus, -a, -um desirous
parātus, -a, -um ready
saevus, $-\mathrm{a},-\mathrm{um}$ savage
timidus, -a, -um timid
3rd
complūrēs, -e
very many
humilis, -e
mīrābilis, -e
low
terribilis, -e
wonderful, marvelous terrible

Adverbia
brevī in a short time
forte
hūc
ibi
illūc
ōlim
quotannīs
by chance
to this place
there, in that place
to that place
once, long ago
every year

## XXVI. Daedalus et Īcarus

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Future Imperative (esse)
b. vidērī
2. Verbal Noun: Gerund (gerundium)
3. Adjectives
a. Adjectives in -er
b. Irregular Superlatives summus and infimus
4. Pronoun
a. quisquam
b. Summary of Negative Expressions
5. Points of Style: Participles

## Daedalus and Icarus

The story of the boy Icarus, who soared up to the scorching sun only to be plunged into the sea as the sun melted the wax that fastened his wings, has always been admired as an image of the penalty for arrogance and rashness. Syra, too, uses the story to warn Quintus to be careful.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Gerund

The gerund is a verbal noun that corresponds to English verbal nouns in "-ing." It is 2nd declension, singular neuter. You have already met the gerund in Cap. XXV:

Ibi nāvis mea parāta est ad nāvigandum. (ll.93-94)
Parāta sum ad fugiendum. (1.97)

The words nāvigandum and fugiendum are gerunds. The gerund:

- is characterized by -nd-added to the present stem
$\triangleright$ before consonant- and $\bar{i}$-stems (3rd and 4th conjugations), a short $e$ is inserted before -nd-:
ad $v \bar{\imath} v|\underline{e} n d| u m$
ad audi|end|um
- corresponds to English verbal nouns in "-ing"
- exists only in the singular oblique cases (acc., gen., dat., abl.) of the noun:
$\triangleright$ accusative ends in -ndum (pugna|nd|um)
$\triangleright$ the genitive in -ndī̀ (pugna|nd|ī)
$\triangleright$ the dative and ablative in -ndō (pugna|nd $\mid \bar{o}$ )
The infinitive supplies the missing nominative of the verbal noun.


## Uses of the Gerund

In this chapter, you find several examples of the gerund in the different cases (except the dative, which is rarely used). The following examples come from the whole chapter, not just Léctiō Prīma:

- The accusative is only found after $a d$ and expresses purpose, e.g.:

Hodiē plūs temporis ad I do not have more time today nārrandum nōn habeō. for recounting (stories). (ll.10-11)
Haud longum tempus nōbis There is not much time left to us reliquum est ad vīvendum. ūna via nōbīs patet ad fugiendum. for living. (1.28) one road lies open to us for fleeing. (1.36)

- The genitive occurs:
$\triangleright$ with nouns, e.g.:
fìnem nārrandī facere to make an end of telling (l.13)
(= fīnem nārrātiōnis f.)
cōnsilium fugiendī
a plan for escaping (1l.55-56)
(= cōnsilium fugae)
Haud difficilis est ars The art of flying is hardly difficult. volandī. (l.72)

Tempus dormiendī est. It is time for sleeping. (ll.122-123) (= tempus est dormīre)
$\triangleright$ or as an objective genitive with the adjectives cupidus and studiōsus:
cupidus audiendī studiōsus desirous of hearing (ll.17-18, volandī cf. l.108) eager for flying (1.43)
$\triangleright c a u s \bar{a}+$ a preceding genitive of the gerund denotes cause or purpose:
Nōn sōlum dèlectandī Not only for the sake of delighting, caus $\bar{a}, ~ v e \overline{r u m}$ etiam but even for the sake of warning, monendī causā, nārrātur fābula. is the story being told. (ll.134-135) ative of the gerund is found after in and $d \bar{e}$ :
dē amandō about loving (l.154)
$\triangleright$ or alone as the ablative of means or cause:
Puerī scrībere discunt Boys learn to write by writing. scrībendō.
Fessus sum ambulandō. I am tired out by walking.
(1.24; cf. ll.129-130)

## Adjectives in -er

Adjectives that have -er in the m. nom. sing. are found among 1st/2nd declension adjectives (as you learned in Cap. V):

```
niger, gr |a, gr|um
miser, er |a, er|um
līer, er \a, er|um
```

As well as among 3rd declension adjectives (as you learned in Cap. XIII):
September, (gen.) Septembris
Octōber, (gen.) Octōbris
November, (gen.) Novembris
December, (gen.) Decembris
The following are examples of 3rd declension adjectives in -er that have three endings in the nominative (-er, (e)ris, (e)re):
celer, celer $\mid$ is, celer $\mid e$
$\bar{a} c e r, \bar{a} c r|i s, \bar{a} c r| e$
Notā Bene: Look to the feminine and neuter nominative singulars to see whether an adjective in -er has the $e$ (like celer, celeris) or lacks it (like ācer, $\bar{a} c r i s)$.

Adjectives in-er have-errimus in the superlative, e.g., celerrimus, ācerrimus.

## Summary of 3rd Declension Adjective forms

Third declension adjectives exhibit three different nominative groups:
a. One nominative form: adjectives ending in $-n s$ and $-x$, like $p r u \bar{u} \bar{e} \underline{n} s$ and aud $\bar{a} \underline{x}$ (gen. $\operatorname{pr} \bar{u} d e n t \mid i s$, aud $\bar{a} c \mid i s$ ) have the same form in the nominative masculine, feminine, and neuter:

> vir/fēmina/cōnsilium prūdēns
> virlfēmina/cōnsilium audāx
b. Two nominative forms: adjectives ending in $-i s,-e$, like brevis, breve or gravis, grave, have one form for the masculine and feminine, and one for the neuter:
virlfèmina gravis; cōnsilium grave
hōralmēnsis brevis; tempus breve
c. Three nominative forms: adjectives ending in -er (see above) have a different nominative ending for masculine, feminine, and neuter:

Vir ācer; fēmina ācris; cōnsilium ācre

## Negative Expressions

In Cap. III, you learned that Latin uses the conjunction neque to express "and not, but not" (instead of et nōn and sed nōn). Similarly, in Cap. XIX, we found neque ūllus for "and no one," not "et nūllus." This chapter adds two more such negations:

- The pronoun quis-quam, quid-quam ("anyone," "anything") is likewise used in a negative context. Latin does not express "and no one" and "and nothing" by et nēmō, et nihil, but by neque quisquam (1.26, "and no one"), nee quidquam (Cap. XXVII, 1.106, "and nothing");
$\triangleright$ Quidquam is changed by assimilation to quicquam
- Similarly, et is avoided before numquam by using neque umquam (Cap. XXIII, 1.26, "and never").


## Summary

| and not/but not | neque/nec |
| :--- | :--- |
| and no one | neque/nec ūlus |
| and no one | neque/nec quisquam |
| and nothing | neque/nec quicquam |
| and never | neque umquam |

## $\bar{a} \bar{e} r$

The 3rd declension masculine noun $\bar{a} \bar{e} r$ is borrowed from the Greek and keeps its Greek ending $-a$ in the acc. sing. $\bar{a} e r \mid \underline{a}(1.22=\bar{a} e r \mid e m)$.

| nom. | $\overline{\operatorname{e}} \bar{e} r$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| acc. | $\bar{a} e r \mid \underline{a}$ |
| gen. | $\bar{a} e r \mid i s$ |

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Irregular Superlatives summus and infimus

- summus (1.79) comes from $\operatorname{super}(u s)$, -era, -erum (comparative superior)
- infimus (1.77) comes from infer(us), -era, -erum (comparative inferior)


## Future Imperative

Instead of the short imperative es! es|te! of esse, the longer form in -tō, -tōte is often preferred: es|tō! es|tōte!

Cautus estō, mī fìlī! (1.81; cf. 1.138)
In other verbs, this so-called future imperative is not very common (it will be treated in Cap. XXXIII).

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Vidērī

Vidērī, the passive of vidēre, is used (with nom. + inf.) in the sense of "seem (to be)," e.g.:
insulae haud parvae sunt, quamquam parvae esse videntur. (11.92-94)

In this function, a dative is often added, e.g.:
Mēlos insula nōn tam parva est quam tibi vidētur. (ll.94-95, = quam tū putās; cf. 11.96-97, 125); puer sibi vidētur volāre (ll.143-145, = sē volāre putat).

## Points of Style: Participles

This chapter offers many examples of how participles contribute to the strongly verbal nature of Latin:

Daedalus in labyrinthō inclūsus errābat. (1.19)
Nēmō nōs volantēs persequī poterit. (1.42)
Tum puerum ōsculātus, "Parātī sumus ad volandum," inquit. (11.75-76)

Haec verba locūtus Daedalus cum fīliō sūrsum ē labyrinthō ēvolāvit. (11.83-84)

Aliquī pāstor, quī forte suspiciēns eōs tamquam magnās avēs volantēs vīdit. (11.85-86)
novā lībertāte dēlectātū (1.89)

İcarus dēspiciēns multitūdinem īnsulārum mīrātus est. (ll.90-91) dēspiciēbat mīrāns (l.106)
Sōlem in caelō serēnō lūcentem suspexit. (ll.107-108)
Puer territus, lacertōs nūdōs quatiēns, in mare cecidit. (ll.115-116)
lībertātem quaerēns mortem invēnit. (l.122)
quī currum patris regere cōnātus item dē summō caelō cecidit (ll.127-128)
Hīs verbīs puerō monitō (1.141)
Neque Quīntus eam abeuntem revocat. (1.142)

## Studia Rōmāna

The fall of Icarus was a very popular motif in ancient literature, and enjoyed a long afterlife in art and literature. The most famous representation is perhaps Pieter Brueghel the Elder's (sixteenth century) painting, The Fall of Icarus. Ovid tells the story of Daedalus and Icarus at length in the Metamorphōsēs (Book 8), but the stories about Daedalus go all the way back to Homer's Iliad.

At the close of the narrative, Syra follows Roman practice by drawing a moral lesson for Quintus: ecce omnem fäbulam habēs dē puerō temerāriō quī lībertātem quaerēns mortem invēnit (ll.121-122). Daedalus, along with Hercules, also figures as an example of human arrogance in one of Horace's Odes (1.3.34-40)
expertus vacuum Daedalus āera
pinnīs nōn hominī datīs;
perrūpit Acheronta Herculeus labor.
nīl mortālibus arduī est:
caelum ipsum petimus stultitiā neque
per nostrum patimur scelus
īrācunda Iovem ponere fulmina.

## Vocabulary

āēr, Cap. X; vacuus, Cap. IV; pinna = penna; perrumpere $<$ per + rumpere (Cap. XXII); Acheron, Acherontis, m.: a river in the underworld; Acheronta is accusative; Herculeus, -a, -um: of Hercules; labor, -ōris, m.: labor, work (Cap. XXVII); mortālis, -e: mortal (Cap. XXVIII); arduus, -a, -um: difficult (Cap. XXXIII); stultitia, -ae < stultus, -a, -um (Cap. XI); pat̄̄, passum: Cap. XXIV; scelus, sceleris, n.: crime, wickedness (Cap. XXXI); īrācundus, -a, -um $=$ prone to anger (cf. irātus, Cap. III); fulmen, fulminis, n.: lightning bolt (cf. Cap. XVI fulgur: flash of lightning); ponere = dèponere: put down, set aside.

## Notes

Expertus: understand est

Nil arduī: cf Cap. XVI: Partitive genitive with paulum, multum; nīl = nihil
Iūppiter, king of the gods, is declined as follows
Iūppiter
Iovem
Iovis
Iovi
Iove
Quintus says the story of Icarus delights him more than the one about the son of the sun god (ll.125-129 and 25.6-7). He refers to Phaëthōn, the son of Helios (the sun god) and a mortal woman, Clymenē. Helios promised to give Phaethon whatever he wanted. Phaethon wanted, as it were, the keys to the chariot of the sun, even though driving the four horses across the sky was far beyond his strength and experience. When the boy began driving erratically, bringing the sun now too close to, now too far from the earth, Juppiter had no choice but to strike the boy from the sky. Cicero (dē Officī̄s 3.94) uses the story of Phaethon as an example of promises that should not be kept because they are harmful to the recipient. He ends with quantō melius fuerat in hōc promissum patris nōn esse servātum: "how much better it would have been in this case had the promise of the father not been kept!"

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        fuga,-ae flight, a running away
        nātūra, -ae
        paenīnsula,-ae
        penna,-ae
    2nd
        cōnsilium, -\overline{1}
        gerundium, -\overline{1}
        lacertus, -\overline{1}
    3rd
        ars, artis (f.)
        carcer, carceris (m.)
        ignis, ignis (m.)
        lībertās, lībertātis (f.)
        multitūdō, multitūdinis (f.)
        opus, operis (n.)
        orbis, orbis (f.)
    4th
        cāsus, -\overline{üs (m.)}
```

flight, a running away
nature
peninsula
feather, wing
plan
gerund
arm
art, skill
prison
fire
freedom
large number, multitude
work
circle, orbit
fall, event, (grammatical) case

| Verba |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| -āre (1) |  |
| (aberrō) aberrāre, aberrāvisse, aberrātum | wander away, stray |
| (ēvolō) ēvolāre, ēvolāvisse, ēvolātum | fly away |
| (excōgitō) excōgitāre, excōgitāvisse, excōgitātum | think out, devise |
| (imitor) imitārī, imitātum | imitate |
| (iuvō) iuvāre, iūvisse | help, delight |
| (levō) levāre, levāvisse, levātum | lift, raise |
| (revocō) revocāre, revocāvisse, revocātum | call back |
| -ēre (2) |  |
| (videor) vidērī, vīsum | be seen, seem |
| -ere (3) |  |
| (accidō) accidere, accīdisse | happen, occur |
| (cōnsūmō) cōnsūmere, cōnsūmpsisse, cōnsūmptum | consume, spend |
| (cōnsequor) cōnsequī, cōnsecūtum | follow, overtake |
| (cōnficiō) cōnficere, cōnfēcisse, confectum | make, accomplish |
| (dēspiciō) dēspicere, dēspexisse, dēspectum | look down (at) |
| (effugiō) effugere, effūgisse | escape |
| (fīgō) fīgere, fīxisse, fīxum | fix, fasten |
| (perficiō) perficere, perfēcisse, perfectum | complete, accomplish |
| (persequor) persequī, persecūtum | follow, pursue |
| (quatiō) quatere | shake |
| (suspiciō) suspicere, suspexisse, suspectum | look up (at) |
| (ūrō) ūrere, ussisse, ustum | burn |
| -ire (4) |  |
| (inveniō) invenīre, invēnisse, inventum | come upon, find |
| (molliō) mollīre, mollīvisse, mollītum | make soft, soften |
| Adiectīva |  |
| 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) |  |
| cautus, -a, -um | cautious |
| īnfimus, -a, -um | lowest |
| līber, lībera, līberum | free |
| propinquus, -a, -um | near, close |
| reliquus, -a, -um | remaining, left |
| studiōsus, -a, -um (+ gen.) | interested in |

summus, -a, -um
temerārius, -a, -um
3rd
audāx (gen. audācis)
celer, celeris, celere
ingēns (gen. ingentis)
Prōnōmina
quisquam, quidquam
Adverbia
deorsum
haud
paene
quidem
quoniam
sūrsum
tamquam vērum

Coniūnctiōnēs
sīn
but if
Praepositiōnēs
trāns (prp. + acc.) across

## XXVII. Rēs Rūsticae

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Moods in Latin
b. Subjunctive Mood
i. Present Subjunctive: Active/Passive
ii. Verbs of Demanding and Effecting: verba postulandī et cūrandī
iii. Present Subjunctive of Irregular esse
c. Translating the Subjunctive
2. Nouns: Case Uses
a. Ablative
i. Ablative of Instrument
ii. Ablative of Separation
iii. Prepositions with Ablative
3. prae
4. $p r o ̄$
5. $a b s$
b. Accusative: Preposition circā
c. Locative: Summary
6. Adverb: parum
7. Conjunctions
a. $u t$
b. quam + the Superlative
8. Alia
a. nē...quidem: not...even
b. locus, locī/loca

## Julius's Estate

Julius is the owner of a large estate in the Alban Hills, Mōns Albānus, near Tusculum and the Alban Lake, Lacus Albānus. The running of the farm is left to tenant farmers, colōn $\overline{1}$. Julius follows their work with great interest when he is in residence in his Alban villa. A typical wealthy Roman, he divides his time
between Rome and his country estate. Here we meet him walking in his fields and vineyards, questioning his men about the quality of the crops.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Ablative of Instrument (Ablātīvus Īnstrūmentī) (continued)

The ablative of instrument (Caps. VI and VIII) appears in the discussion of the use of the farmers' tools (instrūmentum) (ll.18-20):

Frūmentum falce metitur.
Quō īnstrūmentō serit agricola?
The verb $\bar{u} t \bar{\imath}$ ("use") takes the ablative of instrument, not the accusative (11.20-22):

Qū̄ serit nūllō instrūmentō ūtitur praeter manum.
Quī arat arātrō ūtitur.
Qū̄ metit falce ūtitur.
Qū̄ serit manū suā ūtitur.
In addition to "use," ūt̄̄ also means "enjoy," "treat," etc.:
Amīcīs meīs bene ūtor. I treat my friends well.
Vīnō numquam ūtor. I never use (drink, enjoy) wine.

## Locus, plural: locī/loca

Instead of the regular plural locī of locus, you often find the neuter form loca, -ōrum (1.30), which is usual in the concrete sense (places, localities); locī is used for passages in books, topics, and points of argument.

Italia est terra fertilis, sed multa loca Italiae nōn arantur. (ll.30-31)
Theophrastus cum tractat locōs ab Aristotele ante tractātōs...; "when
Theophrastus treats subjects previously treated by Aristotle..." ${ }^{1}$

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Summary: Locative

|  | sing. | pl. | Examples |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1st | -ae | -is | Rōmae, Athēnīs |
| 2nd | -ī | -is | Tūsculī, humī |
| 3rd | $-\bar{i} /-\check{e}$ |  | rūrī, Karthägine domī |

[^42]
## Subjunctive Mood

In addition to many new words, you learn important new verb forms in this chapter. Compare the sentences:

Servus tacet et audit.
Dominus imperat ut servus taceat et audiat.
The first sentence uses the indicative mood (Latin modus indicātīvus)tace $\mid \underline{t}$ and audi $\mid \underline{t}$-to tell us what the slave actually does. The second sentence uses the subjunctive mood (Latin modus coniūnctīvus)—tace $\mid \underline{a t}$ and audi $\mid$ atto express what the master wants his slave to do. Taceat and audiat are the present subjunctive (Latin coniūnctīvus praesentis) of tacēre and audīre.

## Moods (Modī) in Latin

Remember, language is an attempt to express thought. So, the mood used in a sentence reflects the way the speaker conceives that thought.

- The indicative (modus indicātīvus) makes a statement or asks a question. ${ }^{2}$ The attitude of the speaker is a simple "fact" or "question."
- The imperative (modus imperāt̄̄vus) gives a direct command.
- The subjunctive (modus coniūnctīvus) has various functions, such as expressing the will (volitive) or wish (optative) of the speaker. The subjunctive is used in dependent (subordinate) and independent clauses.
$\triangleright$ Common subjunctive uses in dependent clauses:
indirect commands (Cap. XXVII)
noun clauses (substantive clauses) (Cap. XXVII)
final (purpose) clauses (Cap. XXVIII)
consecutive (result) clauses (Cap. XXVIII)
cum temporal, cum causal, cum concessive (Cap. XXIX)
$\triangleright$ Common subjunctive uses in independent clauses:
deliberative questions (Cap. XXIX)
wishes (Cap. XXXII)


## Present Subjunctive

Forms of present subjunctive:

- 2nd, 3rd, and 4th conjugations insert $-\bar{a} / a$ between the present stem and the personal endings:

| active | passive |
| :--- | :--- |
| $-a \mid m$ | $-a \mid r$ |
| $-\bar{a} \mid s$ | $-\bar{a} \mid r i s$ |

[^43]| $-a \mid t$ | $-\bar{a} \mid t u r$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $-\bar{a} \mid m u s$ | $-\bar{a} \mid$ mur |
| $-\bar{a} \mid t i s$ | $-\bar{a} \mid$ mini $\bar{\imath}$ |
| $-a \mid n t$ | $-a \mid n t u r$ |

- 1st conjugation verbs, whose stems, as you know, end in $-\bar{a}-$, have $-\bar{e} /$ $e$ - before the personal endings in the present subjunctive:

| $-e \mid m$ | $-e \mid r$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $-\bar{e} \mid s$ | $-\bar{e} \mid r i s$ |
| $-e \mid t$ | $-\bar{e} \mid t u r$ |
| $-\bar{e} \mid m u s$ | $-\bar{e} \mid m u r$ |
| $-\bar{e} \mid t i s$ | $-\bar{e} \mid m i n \bar{\imath}$ |
| $-e \mid n t$ | $-e \mid n t u r$ |

$\rightarrow$ In the section Grammatica Latina of Lingua Latina and at the back of this book, you will find examples of verbs with all these endings.

Breviter: The present subjunctive is formed with an $e$ in 1 st conjugation verbs, and an $a$ in the other conjugations.

Translating the Subjunctive: The best way to read Latin is not to translate, but to understand in Latin. That requires knowing how your own language works as well as Latin! Then you can say to yourself, How does this work in my language? That may mean there are several ways to translate any given construction. The English translations below aim at showing the variety of interpretations possible. Some may seem rather literal and strained, others too free.

## Verba postulandī

While the indicative is used to express that something does actually happen, the subjunctive expresses a desire or effort that something shall happen. Such an indirect command can be introduced by verbs that express an order (verba postulandī):

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { imperāre } & \text { ōrāre } \\
\text { postulāre } & \text { monēre }
\end{array}
$$

These verba postulandi-verbs that order, ask, warn, etc.-are often followed by object clauses introduced by $u t$, or, if they are negative (see Section III), by $n \bar{e}$ (or $u t n \bar{e}$ ); the verb will be in the subjunctive. Examples can be found in the account of Julius's dealings with his men, e.g.:

Iūlius colōnō imperat ut mercēdem solvat.

Julius orders the farmer to pay his fee/gives an order to the farmer that he pay/commands the farmer in order that he pay. (11.81-82)

## Complements in Verba Postulandī

Notice that the person commanded in each of the three sentences is expressed in a different case:

Iūlius colōnō imperat ut mercēdem solvat. (11.81-82)
Colōnus eum ōrat ut patientiam habeat. (1l.92-93)
Num uxor abs tē postulat ut tū prō mātre infantēs cūrēs? (ll.100-101)
The case of the person ordered depends on the verb used.
Dative (intransitive verbs):
imperāre eī ut
persuādēre eī ut
$A b+$ ablative (the following verbs suggest "seek from"):
quaerere ab eō ut
petere ab eō ut postulāre ab eō ut

Accusative (transitive verbs):
rogāre eum ut
ōrāre eum ut
monēre eum ut

Notā Bene: Iubēre (order) does not regularly take an indirect command, but the accusative and infinitive construction. Compare:

Vōs moneō ut industriē in vīneīs labōrētis. (ll.125-126)
Iubeō vōs industriē in vīneīs labōrāre.
Medicus Quītum ōs aperīre atque linguam ostendere iubet. (Cap. XI, 11.69-70)
Medicus Quīntō imperat ut ōs aperiat atque linguam ostendat.

## Ut

Most Latin ut-clauses with the subjunctive correspond to English "that"-clauses.
Remember: ut is also a comparative conjunction, meaning "like" or "as," and is followed:

- by the indicative:
ut tempestās mare tranquillum turbāvit, ita (as...thus)... (ll.8-9)
ut spērō (1.149)
Cūr ille servus mēcum venīre nōn potest ut solet? (Cap. XIV, l.120)
- by a noun adjective:

Oculī lupī in umbrā lūcent ut gemmae et dentēs ut margarītae.
(Cap. IX, 11.72-73)

Puer quiētus super lectum iacet ut mortuus. (Cap. XI, ll.103-104)
Gallia autem prōvincia Rōmāna est, ut Hispānia, Syria, Aegyptus.
(Cap. XII, 11.63-64)
ut saxa...vorāginēs...praedōnēs (Cap. XXVIII, 11.131-132)

## Nē...quidem

The negation $n \bar{e}$ is also used in n $\bar{e} . .$. quidem ("not even"):
Nè in Campāniā quidem plūrēs vìllae sunt. (1.55)
$N \bar{e}$ assem quidem habeō. (1.86)
Nē verbum quidem dīc!

## Prae, prō, abs

The prepositions prae and prō take the ablative; the basic meaning of both is "before," from which other meanings are derived (prae ll.63, 83; prō 1l.71, 72):

Arātor duōs validōs bovēs quī arātrum trahunt prae sē agit. (ll.13-14) Quamquam nūllō modō labōrem agricolārum sordidum indignumve esse exīstimat, tamen sē prae agricolīs beātum esse cēnset. (ll.61-63)
Colōnus pallidus prae metū loquī nōn potest. (1.83)
Colōnus est agricola quī nōn suōs, sed aliēnōs agrōs prō dominō absentī colit. (ll.71-72)
Mercēdem dominō solvit prōfrūgibus agrōrum. (1.72)
$A b s$ for $a b$ is found only before $t \bar{e}: a b s t \bar{e}$ :
Cūr nōndum solvistī mercēdem quam ter quaterve iam abs tē poposcī.

$$
(11.79-80=\bar{a} t \bar{e})
$$

## Ablative of Separation

Note the ablative of separation (without $a b$ ) with:
pellere: ut tē agrīs meīs pellant. (1.89)
prohibēre: Nōl̄̄ mē officiō meō prohibēre! (ll.173-174)

## Parum

The adverb parum often means not "a little" but "too little," as in the following examples:

Parum temporis habeō ad opus rūsticum. (ll.98-99)
Imber brevis quem hodiē habuimus frūmentō prōfuit quidem, sed parum fuit. (ll.130-131)

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Verba cūrandī

Verba cūrandī (verbs that show an effort to get something done) can be used to give commands as well:

| cūrāre: | cūrāut | facere: | fac ut |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| labōrā̄re: | labōrāut | cavēre: | cavē $n \bar{e}$ |
| efficere: | effice ut |  |  |

Verba cūrandī are not always in the imperative, however, but are often followed by object clauses, ${ }^{3}$ e.g.:

Calor sōlis nōn ipse per sē efficit The heat of the sun does not ut vinum bonum sit.

Faciam ut tergum eī doleat. itself through its own agency bring it about that/effect that/accomplish that the wine is good/does not make the wine good. (ll.124-125) I will make his back hurt (literally: I will bring it about that the back to him hurts). (1.153)

Like verba postulandī, verba cūrandī are often followed by object clauses introduced by $u t$, or, if they are negative, by $n \bar{e}$ (or $u t n \bar{e}$ ) and the subjunctive.

Prīmum cūrā ut uxor et līberī valeant, tum vērō labōrā ut pecūniam solvās.

First of all take care that/ make sure that (your) wife and children be well/are well, then surely work to pay the money/work so that you can pay the money. (ll.111-113)

Fac ut ovēs ex agrīs agantur! (ll.175-176)
Officium tuum est cūrāre ne oves aberrent nēve à lupō rapiantur. (ll.161-162)

As appears from the last example, the second of two negative clauses is introduced by $n \bar{e}-v e$, i.e., $n \bar{e}$ with the attached conjunction $-v e$, which has the same value as vel.

Summary:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
u t+\text { subjunctive } & \text { command, ask that something happen } \\
n \bar{e} / u t n \bar{e}+\text { subjunctive } & \begin{array}{l}
\text { command, ask that something not } \\
\text { happen }
\end{array}
\end{array}
$$

[^44]
## Subjunctive of esse

In lines 151-152, we find an example of the irregular present subjunctive of esse:
Ego vērō cūrābō nē ille pāstor neglegēns sit nēve dormiat!
Here are the other forms:

| sim | sīmus |
| :--- | :--- |
| $s \bar{s} s$ | sītis |
| sit | sint |

## Quam + the superlative

Quam + superlative (with or without posse) denotes the highest possible degree:
Pāstor quam celerrimē potest ad ovēs suās currit. as quickly as possible (ll.177-178)

## Studia Rōmāna

We read about Julius's villa in Cap. V and now learn that around the hortus lie the fields that support the farm. Iullius has no doubt inherited the many villas and the house in Rome that had belonged to his father (Pater lūlī̄...magnam pecūniam habēbat multāsque villās magnificās possidēbat praeter domum Rōmānam, Caps. XIX, XXX). It was not unusual for wealthy Romans to own more than one estate (Cicero had several), as agriculture was the noble profession and capital rooted in land was the mark of a gentleman. This attitude persists through Roman history. In the second century BC, Cato had written in his treatise $d \bar{e} R \bar{e} R \bar{u} s t i c \bar{c}$, , "Our ancestors, when they praised a man as being good, were praising him on these merits: a good farmer and good husbandman" (Māiōrēs nostrī... virum bonum quom (= cum) laudābant, ita laudābant, bonum agricolam bonumque colōnum). In the first century BC, Cicero, in his book On Duties (dē Officiīs), writes, "Of all the pursuits, from which something is acquired, nothing is better than farming, nothing richer, nothing sweeter, nothing worthier of a free man" (Omnium autem rērum, ex quibus aliquid adquīrītur, nihil est agrī cultūrā melius, nihil ūberius, nihil dulcius, nihil homine lïberō dignius). Columella (first century AD) still sees agriculture as the only way of making a living worthy of a freeborn man. ${ }^{4}$

Vergil wrote a four-book didactic epic (see Cap. X) on farming, called the Geōrgica (Гع $\omega \rho \not \uparrow \kappa \alpha$, Concerning Farming) after his bucolic poems (see Cap. IX) and before his more famous Aenēis (Aeneid). In the beginning of Book II, he praises the life of farmers, beginning with (II.458-460):

[^45]> Ō fortūnātōs nimium, sua sī bona nōrint, agricolās! quibus ipsa procul discordibus armīs fundit humō facilem uictum iustissima tellūs.

## Vocabulary

nimium $=$ nimis
nōrint $=$ noverint (condition about which you will learn in Rōma
Aeterna): "if they would come to know their good fortune"
discors (genitive: discordis): discordant, harsh
fundere: pour, pour out
victus, $\bar{u} s$ : sustenance, nourishment (do not confuse with victum from vincere)
Of course, the situation was not so idyllic for the colōn $\overline{\bar{n}}$, as we see in this chapter. A colōnus is a tenant farmer who signs a lease with the landowner (Julius). Sometimes, the tenant farmers paid the owner for the right to farm; sometimes, they remunerated the owner by giving him part of the produce. Colōn $\bar{\imath}$, as the one in our chapter, can wind up in debt to the farmer and be driven from the farm.

This chapter highlights three important aspects of Roman culture: officium (duty, responsibility: from opus + facere: a labor or duty which one performs), ōtium (leisure time, freedom from responsibility), and negōtium (literally: the lack of ōtium; business, employment). We have already seen the idea of officium in Cap. XX, when Aemilia declares of her coming baby, (1.83-84): "Māter ipsa eum cūrāre et alere dēbet—hoc est mātris officium!" Julius's inspection of his estate is part of what he sees as his officium (Cap. XX, 1.96-97: Meum officium est pecūniam facere ac magnam familiam alere).

A Roman active in city life (as Julius is with his frequent trips to Rome, Cap. XX) would see his praedium not only as the backbone of his finances, but also as an opportunity for ōtium, away from the pressures of city life. At his estate, a paterfamilās has the ōtium after lunch to nap, take a stroll, and bathe (prīmum quiēscit, tum ambulat, dēnique lavātur, ll.1-2). But he also must check his farm. In this he also follows Cato's advice: When the master has come to the villa, when he has greeted the household god, let him take a tour of the farm on the same day, if he can; if not the same day, then the day after. ${ }^{5}$ His farm would have been managed by a combination of slaves and tenant farmers, freemen who pay Julius rent (ll.70-73). Julius behaves himself exactly as Columella teaches: he is stern but not unreasonable with his farmhands (although we might consider beating the shepherd less than reasonable).

[^46]Cato's advice to greet the household god (larem familiārem salūtāre) refers to the protective spirit who guarded the place. You read about the lar familiäris in the notes to Cap. IV.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

Nōmina
1st
agricola, -ae (m.)
cōpia, -ae
cūra, -ae
lāna, -ae
patientia, -ae
ūva, -ae
vīnea, -ae
2nd
ager, agrī
arātrum, -ī
colōnus, -ī
coniūnctīvus
frūmentum, -ī
instrūmentum, $-\overline{1}$
negōtium, -ī
ōtium, -ī
pābulum, $-\overline{1}$
praedium, $-\overline{1}$
vīnum, -ī
3rd
calor, calōris (m.)
falx, falcis ( $f$.)
frīgus, frīgoris (n.)
frūgēs, frūgum (f. pl.)
grex, gregis (m.)
labor, labōris (m.)
pecus, pecoris (n.)
precēs, precum (f. pl.)
regiō, regiōnis (f.)
rūs, rūris (n.)
sēmen, sēminis ( $n$.)
vītis, vītis ( $f$.)
Verba
-āre (1)
(arō) arāre, arāvisse, arātum
(rigō) rigāre, rigāvisse, rigātum
(labōrō) labōrāre, labōrāvisse, labōrātum
farmer
abundance
care, concern
wool
patience
grape
vineyard
field
plow
(tenant) farmer
subjunctive
grain
tool, instrument
business
leisure
fodder
estate
wine
heat
sickle
chill, cold
crops
herd
labor, toil
livestock, cattle
prayers
region
countryside
seed
vine
plow
water
work, toil
(exīstimō) exīstimāre, exīstimāvisse, exīstimātum
(ōrō) ōrāre, ōrāvisse, ōrātum
-ēre (2)
(cēnseō) cēnsēre, cēnsuisse, cēnsum think
(noceō) nocēre, nocuisse (intr. + dat.) harm
(prohibeō) prohibēre, prohibuisse, keep off, prevent prohibitum
-ere (3)
(cingō) cingere, cīnxīsse, cīnctum
(colō) colere, coluisse, cultum
(crēscō) crēscere, crēvisse
(invehō) invehere, invēxisse, invectum
(metō) metere, messuisse, messum
(neglegō) neglegere, neglēxisse, neglēctum
(pāscō) pāscere, pāvisse, pāstum
(prōiciō) prōicere, prōiēcisse, prōiectum
(quiescō) quiescere, quiēvisse
(rapiō) rapere, rapuisse, raptum
(serō) serere, sēvisse, satum
(spargō) spargere, sparsisse, sparsum
(ūtor) $\overline{\mathbf{u}} \mathrm{t} \mathbf{1}, \overline{\text { üsum }}$ ( $+a b l$.)
Irregular
(prōsum) prōdesse, prōfuisse (+dat.) to be profitable, of advantage
Adiectīva

```
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
    amoenus, -a, -um pleasant (of places)
    gravidus,-a,-um heavy, weighty, pregnant
    immātūrus, -a, -um
    inhūmānus, -a, -um
    mātūrus, -a,-um
    rūsticus, -a, -um
    siccus,-a,-um
    suburbānus, -a, -um
    trīcēsimus,-a,-um
    urbānus, -a, -um
3rd
    fertilis,-e
    neglegēns (gen. neglegentis)
    patiēns (gen. patientis)
    rudis,-e
```

think
beg, pray
bind round, surround
cultivate
grow
import
reap, harvest
neglect
to pasture
throw forward
rest
tear away, carry off
sow
sprinkle
use

## Irregular

nēquam/nēquior, nēquius/
nēquissimus, -a, -um
Prōnōmina
quīdam, quaedam, quoddam a certain
Adverbia
circā
dēnique
parum
prae
tantum
Coniūnctiōnēs
nē
-ve
Praepositiōnēs
$\mathbf{a b s}=\overline{\mathbf{a}}, \mathbf{a b}$ (before $\mathbf{t e})$
circā (prp. $+a c c$.) around
prae ( $p r p .+a b l$. )
prō (prp. $+a b l$.
worthless
around
finally
little, too little, also indecl. noun
before
only, so much, also indecl. noun
negative conjunction
or (=vel)
before, in front of, in comparison with before, in front of, on behalf of

## XXVIII. Perīcula Maris

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Imperfect Subjunctive: Active and Passive
b. Tense in the Subjunctive
c. Uses of the Subjunctive
i. Purpose (Final) Clauses
ii. Result (Consecutive) Clauses
d. Indirect Statement vs. verba postulandī
e. velle, nōlle, mālle
f. ìre (Present Subjunctive)
2. Pronoun: Reflexive (continued)

## Medus and Lydia at Sea

In this chapter and the next, you hear more about Medus and Lydia. When the violent storm dies down, their ship sails on over the open sea. Lydia shows Medus the little book that she has brought with her and reads aloud from it, and in this way, you become acquainted with the oldest Latin translation of the New Testament, used by St. Jerome in the fourth century in his Latin version of the Bible (the so-called Vulgate, Vulgāta, the "popular" version).

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Imperfect Subjunctive

When Lydia explains the power of Jesus Christ to Medus, she uses verba cūrandī:

Quī medicus verbīs sōl̄̄s potest facere ut hominēs caecī videant, surdī audiant, mūtī loquantur, claudī ambulent? (11.30-32)
Compare what happens to the verb in the subjunctive clause when the main verb is in the past:

In Iūdaeā Iēsūs nōn sōlum faciēbat ut caecī vidērent, surd̄̄ audīrent, mūt̄̄ loquerentur, vērum etiam verbīs efficiēbat ut mortū̄ surgerent et ambulārent. (ll.34-37)
When the main verb refers to the past, the tense of the subjunctive changes as well. Just as the present subjunctive tells us the verb is incomplete in present time, the imperfect subjunctive tells us the verb is incomplete in past time (see below, Sequence of Tense).

## Forming the Imperfect Subjunctive

The imperfect subjunctive is formed by inserting -rē- (in consonant-stems -erē) between the present stem and the personal endings. The imperfect subjunctive thus looks exactly like the present infinitive plus personal endings.

1 st, 2 nd, and 4 th conjugations insert -rē-/-re between the present stem and the personal endings, e.g.: ${ }^{1}$

| ambulā\|re|m | vidē\|re|m | audì $\|r e\| m$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ambulä\|rē|s | vidè\|rē|s | audī $\mid r e \overline{\mid c}$ |
| ambulä\|re|t | vidè $\mid$ e $\mid t$ | audì\|re|t |
| ambulā\|rē|mus | vidè $\|r \bar{e}\| m u s$ | audì $\mid$ ēe $\mid m u s$ |
| ambulā\|rē|tis | vidē\|rē|tis | audī\|rè $t$ tis |
| ambulā\|re|nt | vidē\|re|nt | audì $\|r e\| n t$ |

3rd conjugation inserts -erē-/-ere between the present stem and the personal endings:

| surg\|ere|m | faclerelm |
| :---: | :---: |
| surg\|erē|s | fac\|erè|s |
| surg\|ere|t | fac\|ere|t |
| surg\|erè|mus | fac\|erē|mus |
| surg\|erē|tis | fac\|erē|tis |
| surg\|ere|nt | fac\|ere|nt |

## Summary of Imperfect Subjunctive Endings

active

| sing. | 1st | $-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{i}) r e \mid m$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 2nd | $-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{i}) r \bar{e} \mid s$ |
|  | 3rd | $-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{i}) r e \mid t$ |
| pl. | 1st | $-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{i}) r \bar{e} \mid m u s$ |
|  | 2nd | $-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{i}) r \bar{e} \mid t i s$ |
|  | 3rd | $-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{i}) r e \mid n t$ |

[^47]passive

| sing. | 1st | $-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{\imath}) r e \mid r$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | 2nd | $-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{l}) r \bar{e} \mid r i s$ |
|  | 3rd | $-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{\imath}) r \bar{e} \mid t u r$ |
| pl.1st | $-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{c}) r \bar{e} \mid$ mur |  |
|  | 2nd | $-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{l}) r \bar{e} \mid$ min $\bar{u}$ |
|  | 3rd | $-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{\imath}) r e \mid n t u r$ |

esse: present and imperfect subjunctive

| sing. | present | imperfect |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1st | sim | esse\|m |
| 2nd | sīs | essē\|s |
| 3rd | sit | esse\|t |
| pl. |  |  |
| 1st | sīmus | essē\|mus |
| 2nd | sītis | essē\|tis |
| 3rd | sint | esse\|nt |

$\rightarrow$ Examples of all the forms of the four conjugations, active and passive, and of esse are found in the section Grammatica Latina of Lingua Latina and at the back of this book.

## Tense in the Subjunctive

Just as with infinitives and participles, time (tense) in the subjunctive is not about absolute time as much as relation. The present and imperfect subjunctives in dependent clauses represent incomplete action relative to the main verb.

If the main verb:

- is present or future, use the present subjunctive to indicate incomplete action
- refers to the past (perfect, imperfect, or pluperfect), the imperfect subjunctive indicates incomplete action ${ }^{2}$
Compare the sentences:
Magister mé monet (/monēbit) ut taceam et audiam.
Magister mē monēbat (/monuit/monuerat) ut tacērem et audīrem.

[^48]
## Sequence of Tense

| Main Verb | Subordinate Verb |  |
| :---: | :--- | :--- |
|  | Incomplete Action | Completed Action |
| present future | present subjunctive | (Cap. XXXII) |
| past tense | imperfect subjunctive | (Cap. XXXIII) |

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Uses of the Subjunctive: Result

The subjunctive, introduced by $u t$, is used in clauses that tell the consequence of the main clause. These are called result clauses. The main clause that introduces the result clause usually contains a word (note below tam, ita) that signals the result. Result clauses are also called consecutive clauses (cōnsecūtīvus, $-a$, $-u m<\operatorname{co} n s e q u \bar{i})$ as they show what naturally follows from the idea in the main clause.

Result clauses (show tendency or effect):

Num quis tam stultus est $\underline{\text { ut }}$ ista vēra esse crēdat?

Nam trēs dī̄, Neptūnus, Iūppiter, Plūtō, mundum ūniversum ita inter sē dìvīsērunt ut Iūppiter rēx caelī esset.
$u t . . . c r e \overline{d a t}$ tells the consequence of anyone being so stupid: For who is so stupid that he would believe these things are true? (ll.90-91)
For three gods, Neptune, Juppiter, Pluto, divided the whole world among themselves in such a way that Juppiter was king of the sky. (ll.85-87)

There are more examples in Cap. XXIX.

## Reflexive $s \bar{e}$ (continued)

In $u t / n \bar{e}$-clauses expressing an indirect command, the reflexive pronouns $s \bar{e}$, sibi, suus refer to the subject of the main verb, i.e., the person ordering, requesting, etc. Compare:

Dāvus eum sécum venīre iubet.: i.e., eī imperat ut sēcum (cum Dāvō) veniat (Cap. XIV, 1.86-87)
Pāstor dominum ōrat nē sē verberet.: i.e., nē pastōrem verberet (Cap. XXVII, 1l.158-159)
Mēdus eam rogat ut aliquid sibi legat.: i.e., ut Mēdō legat (1l.56-57)
[Iaīrus] Iēsum rogāvit ut fìliam suam mortuam suscitāret. (1.65-66)

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Uses of the Subjunctive: Purpose (Final)

The subjunctive, introduced by $u t$, is used in clauses that tell the end or goal of the main clause. These are called purpose, or final (finälis), clauses.

Purpose clauses (show intention):
Praedōnēs nāvēs persequuntur, Pirates follow the ships in ut mercēs et pecūniam rapiant order to (or just "to") seize nautāsque occīdant. and kill. (11.132-134)
Petrus ambulābat super aquam, ut venīret ad Iēsum. (1l.102-103) $\bar{e}$ villā fūḡ̄, ut verbera vītārem atque ut amīcam meam vidērem ac semper cum eà essem. (1l.162-163)

## Indirect Statement versus Verba Postulandī (Indirect Commands)

Note the difference between:

- verba dīcendī et sentiendī, which are combined with the acc. + inf.
- verba postulandī, which take an ut-clause in the subjunctive.

Some verbs can have both functions, e.g., persuādēre in these two examples:
Mihi nēmō persuādēbit hominem super mare ambulāre posse.:
no one will persuade/convince me that... (ll.110-111)
Mēdus mihi persuāsit ut sēcum venīrem.: Medus persuaded me to... (ll.174-175)

In both senses, persuādēre takes the dative (intransitive, like oboedīre, impendēre, servīre, prōdesse, and nocēre).

## İre: Present Subjunctive

In ll.145-146 we meet the present subjunctive of īre:
cūrābō ut salvī in Graeciam eāmus,
İre:
IndicativeSubjunctive

| eō | eam |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\bar{\imath} s$ | eās |
| it | eat |
| $\overline{\text { inmus }}$ | eāmus |
| $\overline{\text { intis }}$ | eātis |
| eunt | eant |

## Velle, nōlle, mālle

In addition to velle (Caps. X, XIII), nōlle (= nōn velle, Cap. XX), this chapter presents mälle (magis velle), to "want more," or "prefer." Mälle is often followed by quam:

Ego Rōmae vīvere mālō quam in Graeciā. (ll.150-151)
Nōs cīvēs Rōmānī morī mālumus quam servīre! (ll.154-155)

| Volō, velle, voluisse to be willing, want |  | Nōlō, nōlle, nōluisse to be unwilling, not want |  | Mālō, mālle, māluisse to prefer |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| volō <br> $v i \bar{s}$ <br> vult | volumus vultis volunt | nōlō <br> nōn vīs <br> nōn vult | nōlumus nōn vultis nōlunt | mālō $m \bar{a} v \bar{\imath} s$ māvult | mālumus <br> māvultis <br> mālunt |

## Recēnsiō: Subordinate Subjunctive Clauses

Verba postulandī et cūrandī $+u t / n \bar{e}$ subjunctive:
Qū̄ medicus verbīs sōl̄̄s potest facere ut hominēs caecī videant, surdī audiant, mūtī loquantur, claudī ambulent? (11.30-32)
In Iūdaeā Iēsūs nōn sōlum faciēbat ut caecī vidērent, surdī audīrent, mūtī loquerentur, vērum etiam verbīs efficiēbat ut mortuī surgerent et ambulārent. (11.34-37)
Ille cūrāvit ut nōs è tempestāte servārēmur n̄̄ve mergerēmur-vel potius nōs ipsī quī mercēs éiēcimus. (ll.127-129)
Cūrābō ut omnia perīcula vìtēmus ac salvī in Graeciam eāmus. (ll.145146)
"Legam tibi," inquit, "dē virō claudō cuì Iēsūs imperāvit ut surgeret et tolleret lectum suum et domum ambulāret." (11.58-60)
Modo dīxist̄̄, "Chrīstum etiam mortū̄s imperāvisse ut surgerent et ambulārent." (11.61-62)
In Italiā dominō sevērō serviēbam quī à mē postulābat ut opus sordidum facerem nec mihi pecūlium dabat. (ll.158-160)
Sī quid prāvē fēceram, dominus imperābat ut ego ab alī̄s servīs tenērer et verberārer. (1l.160-161)
Multīs prōmissīs $\underline{\text { ē }}$ persuāsī ut mēcum ex Italiā proficīscerētur, Ly dia enim Rōmae vīvere māvult quam in Graeciā. (ll.163-165)
Certē nōn laetō animō Rōmā profecta sum, et difficile fuit mihi persuādère ut amīcās meās Rōmānās dēsererem. (ll.172-174)
Num dominus ille sevērus, quī tibi imperābat ut opus sordidum facerēs, tantum pecūlium tibi dabat prō opere sordidō? (11.181-183)

Reflexive $s \bar{e}$, sibi, suus in indirect command:
Mēdus, quī legere nōn didicit, Lydiae librum reddit eamque rogat ut aliquid sibi legat. (11.56-57)
Audī igitur quod scrīptum est dē Iaīrō, prīncipe quōdam Iūdaeōrum, quī Iēsum rogāvit ut fīliam suam mortuam suscitāret. (1l.64-66)
Nec prōmissīs sōlīs Mēdus mihi persuāsit ut sēcum venīrem, sed etiam dōnō pulcherrimō. (1l.174-175)

Purpose/final clause: $u t / n \bar{e}+$ subjunctive (fiñālis $-e<f \bar{n} n i s$, "end," "purpose"):
Praedōnēs maritimī quī nāvēs persequuntur, ut mercēs et pecūniam rapiant nautāsque occīdant. (ll.132-134)
Ōstiā igitur hanc nāvem cōnscendimus, ut in Graeciam nāvigārēmus. (ll.165-167)
Sed herī è vīllā fūgī, ut verbera vītārem, atque ut amīcam meam vidērem ac semper cum eà essem. (11.161-163)

Result/consecutive clause: $u t+$ subjunctive:
Tanta ūnīus dē̄ potestās nōn est. Nam trēs diū, Neptūnus, Iūppiter, Plūtō, mundum ūniversum ita inter sē dīvīsērunt, $\underline{u t}$ Iūppiter rēx caelī esset, rēx maris esset Neptūnus, Plūtō autem rēgnāret apud İnferōs, ubi animae mortuōrum velut umbrae versārī dīcuntur. (ll.85-89)

Num quis tam stultus est ut ista vēra esse crēdat? (ll.90-91)
Num tū tam stultus es ut haec crēdās? (ll.109-110)

## Compare

Indirect statement: verba dìcendī et sentiend $\bar{\imath} \rightarrow$ accusative + infinitive:
Mihi nēmō persuādēbit hominem super mare ambulāre posse! (ll.110-111)
Nōnne id tibi persuāsit eum habēre potestātem maris et ventōrum? (ll.115-116)

## Studia Rōmāna

The strait (between Sicily and mainland Italy) through which Medus and Lydia are traveling was notoriously dangerous and considered the location of the infamous Scylla and Charybdis: dextrum Scylla latus, laeuum implācāta Charybdis/obsidet (Vergil, Aeneid 3.420-21). Charybdis was a fierce whirlpool, personified as female that sucked down ships in its vortex. Scylla occupied the
rocks opposite Charybdis; she is variously described, but she often appears as a woman from the waist up, a pack of dogs that grab and devour sailors from the waist down. Ovid gives a sympathetic version of the myth in the Metamorphoses (Books 13-14): Scylla was a beautiful young girl turned into a monster by the witch Circe, jealous of her beauty and angry because the handsome Glaucus loved Scylla instead of her.

Medus, living as a house slave in Tusculum, would have been less likely to meet Christians than Lydia, who lived in Rome, where there were growing numbers of Christians. We can learn more about early Christians from inscriptions and archaeology than from Latin authors. By the time of our narrative, there were several texts available to Christians like Lydia, in Koine Greek (which, due to its simplicity, both she and Medus could read) as well as Latin translations (the earliest of which to survive is from the fourth century AD). Matthew was written around AD 70, and by the middle of the second century, all four Gospels had been written, along with the Acts of the Apostles and the letters of Paul. From these texts, from inscriptions, and from the (somewhat later) catacombs and their wall painting, we can get some idea about a growing Christian church.

Around this time, Quīntus Septimius Flōrens Tertulliānus was born in Carthage in Roman Africa. The first Christian author in Latin, Tertullian came from the educated classes and brought considerable rhetorical skill to his writings. At the turn of the century we have also the narrative of Perpetua and Felicity, two young Christian martyrs at Carthage, put to death in the persecutions of the early third century.

Our story presents us with a credible scenario: the presumably uneducated gubernātor holds firm to traditional stories of the realms of Juppiter, Neptune, and Pluto. Medus, although he has never heard of Jesus Christ, is very interested to hear about a new god who might offer him something, and Lydia is a young Christian eager to share her faith. By the time of our story, the Christians had suffered sporadic persecution, most horribly under Nero, who used Christians as a scapegoat, blaming them for the great fire in Rome in AD 64, but also under Domitian (AD 81-96). From the reign of the emperor Trajan (AD 98-117), we have a commercium epistulārum between Trajan and Pliny. Pliny did not understand Christian insistence on an allegiance to a god that would not allow them to demonstrate loyalty to the state gods, and especially to the emperor (a loyalty demonstrated by offering a sacrifice of wine and incense, in violation of Christian principles). It is clear from these letters that Christians were suspect as disloyal to the empire and they were at risk of being informed upon by others.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        fāma,-ae
        nāvicula,-ae
        turba, -ae
        vigilia,-ae
    2nd
        animus, -1
        dictum, -\overline{1}
        fretum, -\overline{1}
        libellus, -\overline{1}
        mundus, -i
        pecūlium, -ī
        perīculum, -i
    3rd
        phantasma, phantasmatis (n.)
        potestās, potestātis (f.)
        praedō, praedōnis (m.)
        prīnceps, prīncipis (m.)
        tībīcen, tībicinis (m.)
        tranquillitās, tranquillitātis (f.)
        vorāgō, vorāginis (f.)
Verba
-āre (1)
    (adōrō) adōrāre, adōrāvisse, adore, worship
        adōrātum
    (admīror) admīrārī, admīrātum wonder at
    (cessō) cessāre, cessāvisse, cessātum
    (memorō) memorāre, memorāvisse,
        memorātum
    (rēgnō) rēgnāre, rēgnāvisse,
        rēgnātum
    (rogō) rogāre, rogāvisse, rogātum
    (salvō) salvāre, salvāvisse, salvātum
    (spērō) spērāre, spērāvisse, spērātum
    (suscitō) suscitāre, suscitāvisse,
        suscitātum
    (tumultuor) tumultuārī,
        tumultuātum
    (versor) versārī, versātum
    (vītō) vītāre, vītāvisse, vītātum
-ēre (2)
    (habeor) habērī, habitum be held, be considered
```

(impendeō) impendēre, impendisse (intr. + dat.)
(persuādeō) persuādēre, persuāsisse (intr. + dat.)
-ere (3)
(apprehendō) apprehendere, seize apprehendisse, apprehēnsum
(disiungō) disiungere, disiūnxisse, disiūnctum
(ēiciō) ēicere, ēiēcisse, ēiectum
(ēvolvō) ēvolvere, ēvolvisse, ēvolūtum
(extendō) extendere, extendisse, extentum
(morior) morī, mortuum die
(nāscor) nāscī, nātum be born
-īre (4)
(oboediō) oboedīre, -īvisse/ obey
iisse (+ dat.)
(pereō) perīre, periisse
(perveniō) pervenīre, pervēnisse
(serviō) servīre, -īvisse/iisse, -itum (+ dat.)
Irregular
(mālō) mālle, māluisse
Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
attentus, -a, -um attentive
caecus, -a, -um blind
claudus, -a, -um lame
mūtus, -a, -um mute
perīculōsus, -a, -um dangerous
quadrāgēsimus, -a, -um 40th
salvus, -a, -um safe
surdus, $-\mathrm{a},-\mathrm{um}$ deaf
tūtus, -a, -um safe
unniversus, -a, -um the whole of, entire

## 3rd

cōnstāns (gen. cōnstantis) steady, firm
immortālis, -e immortal
mortālis, -e mortal
Adverbia
potius
utrum whether
Coniūnctiōnēs
velut
threaten
persuade, convince
unyoke, separate
throw out, eject
unroll
extend
perish
arrive
be a slave to, serve
prefer
rather
as, as if

## XXIX. Nāvigāre Necesse Est

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Uses of the Subjunctive
i. Deliberative Questions
ii. Indirect Questions
b. Cum Clauses
i. Cum Temporal (Indicative)
ii. Cum Temporal and Causal (Subjunctive)
c. Compound Verbs
2. Nouns: Case Uses
a. Genitive of Value
b. Genitive of the Charge
c. Partitive Genitive: Nostrum and Vestrum
3. Pronouns: Personal (continued)

## "What Shall I Do?"

The Roman merchant, who is ruined because his goods had to be thrown overboard during the storm to keep the ship afloat, cannot fully share the joy of the others at being saved.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Deliberative Questions

In his distress, the merchant exclaims, "Heu, me miserum!" (acc. in exclamation, Cap. XV) and asks in despair (ll.22-23):

Quid faciam? What am I to do? What can I do?
Quid spērem? What am I to hope for? What can I hope for?
In this kind of deliberative question, when you ask irresolutely what to do, the verb is usually in the subjunctive. Deliberative questions expect to get a directive as an answer, either in the form of the imperative or the subjunctive,
or no answer at all (that is, they are questions asked in desperation with no hope of an answer).

Further Examples:
Quōmodo uxōrem et līberōs alam? (1.23)
Gubernātor perterritus exclāmat, "Ō dì bonī! Quid faciāmus?" (ll.198199)

Sed quōmodo vīvāmus sine pecūniā? Quōmodo cibum et vestem emam infantibus meīs? (ll.51-52)
Quid ergō faciam? Ipse dē nāve saliam, an in eādem nāve maneam vōbīscum? (ll.56-57)

## Genitive of Value

In order to indicate how much you value something, genitives like magn $\overline{\mathcal{L}}$, parvī, plūris, minōris are used with verbs that evaluate (e.g., aestimāre or facere in the same sense). Examples:

Mercātōrēs mercēs suās magnī aestimant, vītam nautārum parvī aestimant! (ll.6-7)
Nōnne līberōs plūris aestimās quam mercēs istās? (ll.26-27)

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Clauses with the Subordinate Conjunction cum

You first learned the conjunction cum in Cap. X. Depending on the force of the conjunction, cum is used with a verb either in the indicative (as you have met many times) or the subjunctive.

After cum, the verb is in the indicative: ${ }^{1}$

- in temporal clauses, meaning "when." We met this use of cum in Cap. X:

Cum avis volat, ālae moventur. (Cap. X, l.15)
Cum syllabae iunguntur, vocābula fìunt. (Cap. XVIII, 1.29)
Cum vocābula coniunguntur, sententiae fīunt. (Cap. XVIII, 11.29-30)

- in clauses describing something that happens usually or repeatedly, ${ }^{2}$ e.g.:

Semper gaudeō cum dē līberīs meīs cōgitō. (1.47)
Tū numquam mē salūtābās, cum mē vidēbās. (Cap. XIX, ll.99-100)

[^49]After cum, the verb is in the subjunctive:

- when cum means "since," "because," or "as," the subjunctive can be present tense (with a present main verb) or imperfect (with a past tense main verb):
Gubernātor, cum omnēs attentōs videat, hanc fäbulam nārrat. (ll.7677)

Cum iam vītam dēspērāret, id ūnum ōrāvit. (11.88-89)
Ānulum abiēcit, cum sēsē nimis fē̄̄̄cem esse cēnsēret. (ll.156-157)
Polycratēs, cum ānulum suum recognōsceret, māximā laetitiā affectus est. (ll.171-172)

- when the cum refers to the past and means "when," its verb is mostly in the imperfect subjunctive, e.g.:
Cum Arīōn ex Italiā in Graeciam nāvigāret magnāsque dīvitiās sēcum habēret... (ll.78-80)
Cum haec falsa nārrārent, Arīōn repente appāruit. (11.110-111)


## Indirect Questions

When questions are reported, that is, they are indirect, the verb goes into the subjunctive. Compare Lydia's (direct) question with her reminder (indirect) of that question in this chapter:

| "Nōnne tua erat ista pecūnia?" | "Wasn't that your money?" |
| :--- | :--- |
|  | (Cap. XXVIII, l.187) |
| "Modo tē interrogāvī tuane | "I just asked you if that was |
| esset pecūnia." | your money." (ll.127-128) |

As the object of the verb interrogāre, the verb in an indirect question goes into the subjunctive. Similarly, Num haec fäbula vēra est? after dubitāre becomes:
dubitō num haec fābula vēra sit. (11.116-117)
Notā Bene: You will find dubitāre with an more frequently than with num, as you can see in this sentence from the Younger Pliny (Gāius Plīnius Secundus):

Quibus ex causīs, ut suprā scrīpsī, dubitō an īdem nunc tibi quod tunc mihi suādeam.

Consider the implied levels of questions in (ll.105-106):
"Ubi est Arōōn et quid facit?" (direct question)
Scitisne ubi sit Arīon et quid faciat? (indirect question)
Rēx eōs interrogat "num sciant ubi sit Arīōn et quid faciat?" (indirect, present main verb)
Rēx eōs interrogāvit "num scīrent ubi esset Ariōn et quid faceret?"
(indirect, past main verb)

Not $\bar{a}$ Bene: Sometimes the reported question is deliberative (see above); context will make this clear:

Vir ita perturbātus est ut sē interroget, utrum in mare saliat an in nāve remaneat. (ll.57-59) = a result clause introducing an indirect deliberative question; what he originally asked himself was: "Should I leap into the sea or remain on the boat," and this becomes: "The man is so distressed that he asks himself whether he should leap into the sea or remain on the boat."
Mēdus rubēns nescit quid respondeat. (Cap. XXVIII, l.184): "Medus, blushing, does not know what he should respond." Medus originally asks himself, "what should I respond?"

## More Result Clauses

We met consecutive clauses (clauses of result) in the last chapter. Here are further examples from this chapter:

Vir ita perturbātus est ut sē interroget... (1l.57-58)
Arōōn tam pulchrē fidibus canēbat ut alter Orpheus appellārētur. (11.66-67)

An tam ignārus es ut etiam Orpheus tibi ignōtus sit? (ll.67-68)
Is fidicen nōbilissimus fuit quī tam pulchrē canēbat ut bēstiae ferae, nātūram suam oblītae, accēderent. (11.70-72)
Nautae precibus eius ita permōtī sunt ut manūs quidem ab eō abstinērent. (11.86-87)
Tanta erat potestās eius, tanta glōria tantaeque dīvitiae, ut nōn sōlum alī̄ tyrannī, sed etiam dī immortālēs è ī invidērent. (ll.158-160)
Piscem cēpit quī tam fōrmōsus erat ut piscātor eum nōn vēnderet. (ll.167-168)

## Words that signal result clauses

| tantus, -a, -um | so great | adjective of magnitude, quantity |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| talis, tale | of such a sort | adjective of quality |
| eius modī | of such a sort | descriptive genitive |
| totso many | adjective of quantity |  |
| siccin this way | adverb |  |
| itaso, in such a | way | adverb |
| adeō | for far, to such an extent | adverb |
| tam | so | adverb: only with adjs. |

Under Grammatica Latina, examples are shown of typical $u t$ - and $n \bar{e}$-clauses.

## Summary: Purpose and Result

- Purpose clauses show the goal of the main verb (in order to); result clauses describe the consequence of the modified (tam, tantus, ita) word.
- Purpose clauses are negated by $n \bar{e}$; result clauses are negated by $u t$ plus a negative.
that...not
that...no one
that...nothing
that...never

| Negative Purpose | Negative Result |
| :---: | :--- |
| né | ut..nōn |
| né quis | ut..nēmō |
| ne quid | ut...nihil |
| né umquam | ut...numquam |

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Genitive of the Charge

With accūsāre, the charge is in the genitive:
Lydia pergit eum fūrtī accūsāre.: accuses him of theft (1.137)

## Partitive Genitive (continued)

A partitive genitive may qualify a pronoun, e.g.:
aliquid pecūlī̄ (1.135)
nihil mal̄ (l.157)
quid nov $\bar{\imath}$ ? (Cap. XXXI, 11.2-3)
The partitive genitive of nōs, vōs is nostrum, vestrum:
nēmō nostrum/vestrum (ll.39, 42-43)

## Personal Pronouns (continued from Cap. XX)

There are two forms for the genitive plural of the personal pronouns. The forms $m e \bar{\imath}$, tu $\bar{\imath}, n o s t r \bar{i}, ~ v e s t r \bar{i}$, and $s u \bar{\imath}$ (used for singular and plural) are generally used as objective genitives, e.g.:

| amor me $\bar{i}$ | love of me (as opposed to amor meus: my love) |
| :--- | :--- |
| timor vestr $\bar{i}$ | fear of you (as opposed to timor vester: your fear) |

The forms nostrum and vestrum, as you learned in the previous section, are partitive. It is helpful to distinguish the two by memorizing a phrase. A good one is the partitive phrase Cicero often uses when addressing his audience: quis vestrum? (who of you?)

## Recēnsiō: Personal Pronouns

|  | 1st sing. | 1st pl. | 2nd sing. | 2nd pl. | Reflexive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nom. | ego | $n \bar{s}$ | $t \bar{u}$ | $v o ̄ s$ |  |
| acc. | $m \bar{e}$ | $n \bar{s}$ | $t \bar{e}$ | $v o ̄ s$ | $s \bar{e}$ |
| gen. | meī | nostrī/nostrum | $t u \bar{l}$ | vestrī/vestrum | suī |
| dat. | mihi | nōbīs | tibi | vōbis | sibi |
| abl. | $m \bar{e}$ | $n o ̄ b \bar{c} s$ | tè | $v o \bar{b} \bar{c}_{s}$ | $s \bar{e}$ |

## Compound Verbs

Many verbs are formed with prefixes, mostly prepositions. Examples in this chapter:

| dē-terrēre | per-movēre |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\bar{a}$-mittere | sub-īre |
| in-vidēre | ex-pōnere |
| per-mittere | re-dūcere (re-means "back" or "again") |

Prefixes cause a short $a$ or $e$ in the verbal stem to be changed to $i$. Thus from:

| facere is formed | af-, cōn-, ef-, per-ficere |
| :---: | :---: |
| capere | ac-, in-, re-cipere |
| rapere | $\bar{e}$-, sur-ripere |
| salīre | dè-silīre |
| fatēer | cōn-filtērī |
| tenēre | abs-, con-, re-tinēre |
| premere | im-primere |

Similarly, in compounds, iacere becomes -iicere, but the spelling ii is avoided by writing -icere, e.g.:
$a b-, a d-, \bar{e}-$, prō-ícere

## Recēnsiō: Indicative/Subjunctive

## Indicative

Ut Orpheus cantū suō ferās ad sē alliciēbat, ita ${ }^{3}$ tunc Arīōn canendō piscēs allēxit ad nāvem. (ll.93-95)
Subitō mercātor è dìvitissimō pauperrimus factus est. (ll.17-18)
Ita spērābat sē magnum lucrum factūrum esse. (1.15)
Laetitia vestra mē nōn afficit. (1.45)
Nec quisquam nostrum trīstitià tuā afficitur. (ll.46-47)
Quisnam est Arīōn? Nē nōmen quidem mihi nōtum est. (ll.63-64)
3. For ut...ita, see Cap. XIX.

Mercātōrēs mercēs suās magnī aestimant, vītam nautārum parvī aestimant! (ll.6-7)
Nōnne līberōs plūris aestimās quam mercēs istās? (11.26-27)
Sī fūrtum fēcī, tuà causā id fecī. (l.139)
Nāvis autem vēlīs sōlīs nōn tam vēlōciter vehitur quam ante tempestātem, nam vēla ventō rapidō scissa sunt. (ll.191-193)
"Per deōs immortālēs!" inquit gubernātor, cum prīmum nāvem appropinquantem prōspexit. "Illa nāvis vēlōx nōs persequitur." (ll.187-189)

## Subjunctive

Purpose (final clauses)
Is laetus Ōstiā profectus est cum mercibus pretiōsīs quās omnī pecūnī̄ suā in Italià èmerat eō cōnsiliō ut eās māiōre pretiō in Graeciā vēnderet. (ll.12-15)
Eō enim cōnsiliō nummōs surripuī ut dōnum pretiōsum tibi emerem. (ll.139-141)
Rēctē dīcis: meae mercēs ēiectae sunt, ut nāvis tua salva esset! (11.34-35)

Mercēs iēcimus ut nōs omnēs salvī essēmus. (11.36-37)
Orpheus etiam ad Īnferōs dēscendit ut uxōrem suam mortuam inde redūceret.... Sed perge nārrāre dē Arīone. (1l.73-75)

## Verba Postulandī

Nōl̄̄ tū mé cōnsōlārī qū̄ ipse imperāvistī ut mercēs meae iacerentur! (ll.30-32)
Quid iuvat deōs precārī ut rēs āmissae tibi reddantur? Frūstrā hoc precāris. (1l.54-55)
Sed tamen imperā̄ērunt ut statim in mare dēsil̄̄ret! (ll.87-88)
At nōlīte mē monēre ut laetus sim, postquam omnia mihi ēripuistis! (11.43-45)

Hāc fäbulā monēmur ut semper bonō animō sīmus nēve umquam dè salūte dēspērēmus. Dum anima est, spēs est. (ll.122-124)
Ille vērō, cōnsiliō eōrum cognitō, pecūniam cēteraque sua nautīs dedit, hoc sōlum ōrāns ut sibi ipsī parcerent. (11.81-83)
Itaque gubernātor imperat ut nāvis rēmīs agātur. (1.193)

## Studia Rōmāna

Travel was extensive in the period of our narrative and travel narratives were a growing genre. The Greek historian Arrian of Nicomedia (on the west coast of Turkey near Istanbul) wrote Periplūs Pontī Euxīn̄̄, a Latin translation of
 Black Sea. Arrian, while governor of the province of Cappadocia, addressed his narrative to the emperor Hadrian (emperor AD 117-138). A contemporary of Arrian, the Greek Pausanias, wrote a guide in ten volumes detailing what he saw and heard on his travels through Greece. Pausanias remains a valuable reference for Roman Greece in the second century AD.

In both this and the previous chapter, the helmsman expresses his fear of pirates. Piracy had been one of the many dangers of sea travel during the republican period (and thus Pompey the Great was given extraordinary military powers to rid the seas of pirates in 67 BC , about which you will read in Cap. XXXII). During the empire, attacks by pirates would be countered by the Roman navy, and sea travel was a good deal safer (although not completely safe). Although large-scale piracy had ceased to exist, it lived on in the popular imagination. More dangerous was the sea itself and shipwreck was not unknown. The iactūra of goods was a common practice when shipwreck threatened: the chance of staying afloat was increased by lightening the load. This real danger posed grounds for the following ethical discussion reported in Cicero's de Officī̄s (Cicero is reporting a discussion led by Hecaton, a prominent Stoic philosopher from Rhodes of the first century BC): Question: "If one is forced to make a iactūra at sea, which should one throw overboard? An expensive horse or a cheap slave?" Response: financial considerations lead in one direction, humane sensibility in the opposite. "What if a foolish man has grabbed a board floating from the shipwreck-will the philosopher grab it away if he can?" No, because it would be wrong. "What about the owner of the ship? Will he grab the plank-it belongs to him." Not at all, not any more than he would toss a passenger overboard because the boat was his. Until they arrive at the ship's destination, the boat belongs not to the owner, but to the passengers (3.23.89-90).

In this chapter, you also read two well-known Greek stories: about the poet Arion and the tyrant Polycrates. The fifth century Greek historian Herodotus writes about both. The famous seventh-century BC Greek lyre-player Arion (Herodotus 1.23-24) was sailing from southern Italy back to Corinth in Greece when he was thrown overboard and rescued by a dolphin. Herodotus (3.40-43) also records the story of Polycrates (the tyrant of Samos in the sixth century BC) who, on the advice of his friend Amasis, the king of Egypt, threw away his signet ring, a valuable emerald set in gold. This last story reflects a common theme that the gods are displeased by too much good fortune; by throwing away the ring, Polycrates hopes to restore the balance of human fortune. That he is unsuccessful signals the magnitude of his ultimate downfall (Polycrates was eventually killed in a way Herodotus finds too horrible to reveal, and when dead, his corpse was crucified for all to see). Pliny the Elder in his Natural History (37.2) claims that the gem in Polycrates' ring was on display, set in a golden horn, in the temple of Concord, given to the temple as a gift from Augustus' wife Livia.

The gubernātor's words (124-124) "Dum anima est, spēs est" echo Cicero (Ad Atticum 9.10) ut aegrōtō, dum anima est, spēs esse dīcitur.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

| Nōmina |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| 1st |  |
| dīvitiae, -ārum | riches |
| fortūna, -ae | fortune |
| iactūra, -ae | throwing away, loss |
| invidia, -ae | envy, ill will |
| laetitia, -ae | happiness |
| trīstitia, -ae | sadness |
| vīta, -ae | life |
| 2nd |  |
| beneficium, -1 | good deed |
| delphīnus, -ī | dolphin |
| dorsum, -1 | back |
| fundus, -ī | bottom |
| fūrtum, -ī | theft |
| lucrum, -ī | profit |
| maleficium, $-\overline{\mathbf{1}}$ | evil deed |
| rēmus, -ī | oar |
| tyrannus, -ī | tyrant |
| 3rd |  |
| carmen, carminis (n.) | song, poem |
| fêlīcitās, fēlīcitātis ( $f$.) | happiness |
| fidēs, fidium ( $f . p l$. ) | lyre |
| fidicen, fidicinis (f.) | lyre-player |
| fūr, fūris (m.) | thief |
| nāvigātiō, nāvigātiōnis (f.) | sailing |
| piscātor, piscātōris (m.) | fisherman |
| salūs, salūtis ( $f$.) | safety |
| 4th |  |
| cantus, - - ${ }_{\text {s }}$ (m.) | song |
| 5th |  |
| spēs, -eī $(f .)^{4}$ | hope |
| Verba |  |
| -āre (1) |  |
| (aestimō) aestimāre, -āvisse, -ātum | value, estimate |
| (appropinquō) appropinquāre, <br> -āvisse (intr. + dat.) | approach |
| (dēspērō) dēspērāre, -āvisse, -ātum | lose hope |

Nōmina
1st
dīvitiae, -ārum
fortūna, -ae
iactūra, -ae
invidia, -ae
laetitia, -ae
trīstitia, -ae
vīta, -ae
beneficium, -ī
delphīnus, -ī
dorsum, - $-\mathbf{1}$
fundus, - $\overline{1}$
fūrtum, - $\overline{1}$
lucrum, - $\overline{1}$
maleficium, $-\overline{\mathbf{1}}$
rēmus, -ī
tyrannus, -ī
3rd
carmen, carminis (n.)
fēlīcitās, fêlīcitātis $(f)$
fidēs, fidium ( $f . p l$.)
fidicen, fidicinis $(f$.
fūr, fūris ( $m$.)
nāvigātiō, nāvigātiōnis ( $f$.)
piscātor, piscātōris (m.)
salūs, salūtis ( $f$.)
cantus, - $\overline{\mathbf{u} s}$ ( $m$.)
spēs, -eī $(f .)^{4}$
value, estimate
approach
lose hope

[^50]

| Irregular (subeō) subīre, subiisse | undergo |
| :---: | :---: |
| Adiectīva |  |
| 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) <br> celsus, -a, -um <br> ignārus, -a, -um <br> ignōtus, -a, -um <br> maestus, -a, -um <br> mīrus, -a, -um <br> nōtus, -a, -um <br> pretiōsus, -a, -um <br> rapidus, -a, -um | tall, high ignorant, unaware unknown sad surprising, strange known precious rapid |
| 3rd <br> fallāx (gen. fallācis) fēlīx (gen. fēlīcis) nōbilis, -e vēlōx (gen. vēlōcis) | false, deceitful lucky, fortunate well-known, famous swift |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text { Prōnōmina } \\ & \text { nōnnūllī̀, -ae, -a } \\ & \text { sēsē } \end{aligned}$ | several <br> intensive form of sē |
| Adverbia <br> frūstrā <br> inde <br> nōnnumquam <br> prōtinus <br> quasi repente | in vain <br> from there <br> often <br> immediately, at once <br> as if <br> suddenly |

## XXX. Convīvium

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Uses of the Subjunctive
i. Hortatory Subjunctive
b. Future Perfect Indicative Tense
c. miscēre/aspergere
d. fruī
2. Nouns
a. sitis (Pure $i$-Stem)
b. $v a \bar{s}$
3. Adjectives
a. Distributive Numbers
4. Adverbs from 3rd Declension Adjectives (continued)

## Convīvium (Dinner Party)

In this and the following chapter, you read about a dinner party at the home of Julius and Aemilia. The guests are good friends of the family. The dinner begins at the early (to us) hour of four o'clock in the afternoon (hōra decima), a normal time for the principal meal of the Romans. We hear about the arrangement of a typical Roman dining-room, the triclinium, where the guests reclined on couches. Such a dining-room was not designed for large parties, as not more than three guests could lie on each of the three couches grouped around the little table.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Fruor, fruī

Like $\bar{u} t \bar{\imath}, \bar{u} s u m$ esse (Cap. XXIII) the deponent verb frū̄ ("delight in," "enjoy") takes the ablative:

Ego numquam īnstrūmentō rūsticō ūsus sum. (1.38)
ōtiō fruor (1.23)

Orontēs...vītū rūsticā nōn fruitur (1.35)
cotīdiè bonō vīnō fruor (1.59)

## Adverbs from 3rd Declension Adjectives (continued)

3rd declension adjectives in -ns form adverbs in -nter, e.g.:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { cōnstāns -ant } \mid \text { is } \rightarrow \text { cōnstanter (contraction of cōnstantiter) } \\
& \text { prūdēns -ent } \mid \text { is } \rightarrow \text { prūdenter } \\
& \text { dīligēns -ent } \mid \text { is } \rightarrow \text { dīligenter } \\
& \text { patiēns -entis } \rightarrow \text { patienter }
\end{aligned}
$$

Examples:
dīligenter cūrō ut colōnī agrōs meōs bene colant. (11.33-34)
Prūdenter facis. (1.35)
Patienter exspectā, dum servī lectōs sternunt. (1.82; cf. Cap.
XXXIII, 1.120)

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Distributive Numbers

When using repetitive numbers to say, for example, how many guests are reclining on each couch, we might say in English, "three to a couch," or "three each/apiece," or "in threes." Latin does not use the usual numerals $\bar{u} n u s, d u o$, trees, but the numbers singulī, bīn̄̄, tern $\bar{i}$ :

In singulīs lectīs aut singulī aut Dinner guests usually recline bīnī aut ternī convīvae accubāre solent. on individual couches in ones or twos or threes. (ll.74-75)
These distributive numerals:

- are adjectives of the 1 st/2nd declension
- all end in - $\underline{i} \mid \bar{i}-a e-a$, except singul|i$-a e-a$
- are used when the same number is used repetitively, that is, applies to more than one person or thing, e.g.:
bis bina ( $2 \times 2$ ) sunt quattuor
bis terna $(2 \times 3)$ sunt sex
In vocābulīs "mea" et "tua" sunt ternae litterae et bīnae syllabae.


## Future Perfect Indicative

To indicate that an action will not be completed until some point in the future, the future perfect is used (Latin futūrum perfectum), e.g.:

## Cēnābimus cum prīmum cocus cēnam parāverit et servī triclīnium ōrnāverint. (ll.83-84)

Although all three acts will happen in the future, the future perfect shows that the cooking and dining room preparation will be finished before the guests will eat.

Cum prīmum meum vīnum pōtāveritis, Falernun pōtābitis! (ll.145-146)

The guests will drink the Falernum wine as soon as they will have drunk the wine from Julius's vineyard. Both will happen in the future, but the action in the future perfect tense will be completed before the action in the future tense takes place.

To form the future perfect:

- Active: to the perfect stem add the following endings:

| 1st | $\sim e r \mid \bar{o}$ | $\sim$ eri $\mid m u s$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2nd | $\sim$ eri | $\sim$ eri $\mid t i s$ |
| 3rd | $\sim e r i \mid t$ | $\sim e r i \mid n t$ |

- Passive: the perfect participle and the future of esse (erō, eris, erit, etc.), e.g.:

Brevī cēna parāta et triclīnium ōrnātum erit. (ll.84-85; cf. 1.14)
This tense is especially common in conditional clauses (beginning with $s \bar{\imath}$ ) in cases where some future action must be completed before something else can take place, e.g.:

Discipulus laudābitur, sī magistrō pāruerit.
Further examples of this use will be found in the section Grammatica Latina.

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Independent Subjunctive: Hortatory

When at last the servant announces that dinner is ready, Julius says:
Triclīnium intrēmus! Let us enter the dining room!
(11.86-87)

At table he raises his glass with the words:
Ergō bibāmus! Therefore, let us drink! (1.120)
The forms intrēmus and bibāmus are the present subjunctive (1st pers. pl.) of inträre and bibere; accordingly, they denote an action that is intended or encouraged, in this case an exhortation ("let's..."). In the next chapter, you will find further examples of this hortatory subjunctive (Latin hortārī, "exhort").

## Sitis/vās

Sitis, -is f . is a pure $i$-stem (see Cap. XVI):
acc. $\quad$-im (sitim patī, 1.55)
abl. $\quad-\bar{i} \quad$ (sitī perīre, 1.57)
$V \bar{a} s, v \bar{a} s \mid i s \mathrm{n}$. follows the 3rd declension in the singular but the 2nd declension in the plural: $v \bar{a} s \mid a$, $-\bar{o} r u m$ (1.93: ex vāsicis aureīs).

## Miscēre/aspergere

Wine was not often drunk undiluted (merum); it was customary to mix (miscēre) one's wine with water. The verb miscēre (to mix) can be completed by an accusative and ablative or dative and accusative. The Latin expression is either:
accusative and ablative vīnum aquā (cum aquā) miscēre mix wine with water (l.115)
dative and accusative mel vīnō miscēre mix honey (in)to wine (l.132)
Aspergere (to sprinkle) follows the same pattern:
cibum sāle aspergere
sālem carnī aspergere
sprinkle food with salt (1.111)
sprinkle salt (on)to meat
(1.109-110)

## Recēnsiō: Cum

## Cum referring to the future: Indicative

Cēnābimus cum prīmum cocus cēnam parāverit et servī triclīnium ōrnāverint. (ll.82-84)
Tum dēmum hoc vīnum cum illō comparāre poterimus, cum utrumque gustāverimus. (1l.143-144)

## Cum iterative: Indicative

Nec vērō omnēs mercātōrēs domī remanent, cum mercēs eōrum nāvibus vehuntur. (Cap. XXIX, 11.8-9)
Cum igitur paucissimī sunt convīvae, nōn pauciōrēs sunt quam trēs, cum plūrimī, nōn plūrēs quam novem-nam ter ternī sunt novem. (11.75-78)

## Cum strict temporal: Indicative

> "Per deōs immortālēs!" inquit gubernātor, cum prīmum nāvem appropinquantem prōspexit. (Cap. XXIX, ll.187-188)
> Octō diēs iam sunt cum Rōmae nōn fuī. (Cap. XXXI, l.3)

Sex hōrae iam sunt cum cibum nōn sūmpsī. Venter mihi contrahitur propter famem. (11.40-42)
"Haec carō valdē mihi placet," inquit Fabia cum prīmum carnem gustāvit. (ll.106-107)
Cum prīmum теиm vīnum pōtāveritis, Falernum pōtābitis! (ll.145146)

## Cum circumstantial: Subjunctive

Cum Arīōn, nōbilissimus sū̄ temporis fidicen, ex Italiā in Graeciam nāvigāret magnāsque dīvitiās sēcum habēret, nautae pauperēs, qū̄ hominī dìvitī invidēbant, eum necāre cōnstituērunt. (Cap. XXIX, 11.78-81)

Respondērunt "hominem, cum inde abīrent, in terrā Italiā fuisse eumque illīc bene vīvere, aurēs animōsque hominum cantū suō dēlectāre atque magnum lucrum facere." (Cap. XXIX, 11.106-109)

## Cum causal: Subjunctive

Gubernātor, cum omnēs attentōs videat, hanc fäbulam nārrat. (Cap. XXIX, 11.76-77)
Ibi homō territus, cum iam vītam dēspērāret, id ūnum ōrāvit ut sibi licēret vestem ōrnātam induere et fidēs capere et ante mortem carmen canere. (Cap. XXIX, 11.187-188)
Ānulum abiēcit, cum sēsē nimis fēl̄̄cem esse cēnsēret. (Cap. XXIX, ll.156-157)
Polycratēs, cum ānulum suum recognōsceret, māximā laetitiā affectus est. (Cap. XXIX, ll.171-172)
Midās enim, quamquam terram, lignum, ferrum manū tangendō in aurum mūtāre poterat, fame et sit̄̄ moriēbātur, cum cibus quoque et pōtiō, simul atque à rēge tācta erat, aurum fieret. (Cap. XXXI, 11.38-42)

Opus nōn est vetus exemplum Graecum afferre, cum complūres fäbulae nārrentur puerīs quī ita servātī sunt. (Cap. XXXI, ll.154-156)

## Studia Rōmāna

Julius joins his guests after bathing: Tum lūlius lautus et novā veste indūtus intrat (l.15). Lautus, $-a,-u m$ is a perfect passive participle from lavāre, to wash, bathe (the verb has three variations of the participle; in Cap. XXII, you met lavātum, the participle you would expect from lavāre ${ }^{1}$ ). Lautus is rarely used to

[^51]mean simply "having been washed, i.e., clean." Rather, it suggests the impression one gives who has the leisure and resources to bathe: "elegant, refined."

Introduced from Greece via Greek Southern Italy, baths were an important feature of Roman life. Private baths in the home are called balneum, ${ }^{2}$ (in the republican period, they were also called lavātrina, shortened to lātrīna). There were also public baths (mostly privately owned) called balneae and, in the imperial period, enormous public baths called thermae. The Augustan period architect Vitruvius tells us the various rooms for a bath, although archaeological remains show a great deal of variation: the hot room (caldārium, also spelled calidārium), the warm room (tepidārium), the sweating room (sūdātōrium, lacōnicum), a room with a cold bath (frīgidārium), as well as a changing room (apodȳtērium). The natural starting place is the apody$t e \overline{r i u m ; ~ f r o m ~ t h e r e, ~ o n e ~}$ visited rooms of increasing warmth and finished in the frīgidārium. While baths were ideally placed in a part of the house that would receive the most warmth, they were also kept warm by the use of hypocausts (hypocaustum): flooring raised on short brick pillars through which the heat of an external furnace could flow.

Julius entertains his friend Cornelius (familiar to you from Cap. VI) and his wife Fabia, along with Orontes and his wife Paula. Orontes, a freedman (lībertīnus), is reminiscent of the freedmen at Trimalchio's dinner party in the first century AD novel written by Petronius, Satyricon, and of various Greek freedmen in the satires of Juvenal (first-second century AD). Orontes exhibits the stereotypes of literature and illustrates Roman ambivalence toward the Greeks.

The triclinium consists of three couches that can hold three diners each. The diners would recline facing a central communal table. Wealthy houses might have more than one triclinium. Generally, the way the mosaic floors and (often elaborate) wall paintings are arranged identifies a room as a triclinium and shows where the couches and table were set up. Of the three couches shown in the photo at the beginning of the chapter, the slave is kneeling on what is called the lectus imus, or lowest couch (the order of the couches is shown in the illustration in the margin). This is usually the couch where the host sits, although in our chapter, Julius and Aemilia are sitting on the middle couch, the lectus medius, usually reserved for the guest of honor. The host would sit in the highest position (always on the right side of the couch as you face it) on the lectus īmus (called summus in ímō), and the guest of honor would sit on the lowest position (to the far left of the couch) on the lectus medius (called ìmus in mediō)-that is, next to the host.

The cenna (lines 100-103) consists of the three courses described in Cap. XXIV, beginning with eggs for the appetizer (gustātiō), moving on to fish

[^52]and pork for the cēna proper, and ending with nuts and fruit for the secundae mēnsae. The poet Horace describes a full dinner as ab ōvō ad māla (Sat. 1.3.6)—so Julius's dinner is typical (as you will see in the next chapter, ll.185186: Nōnne tē pudet ita ab ōvō ūsque ad māla fābulārī?). Wine was an important component of the cēna and indeed of Roman culture. There were inexpensive everyday wines and aged, expensive wines that Pliny in his Historia Nātūrālis calls vīnum nōbile. Pliny would agree with Julius that Falernum... vīnum Italiae optimum habētur (1.123). Pliny writes, Nec ūllī nunc vīnō māior auctōritās; sōlō vīnōrum flamma accenditur (14.8.62) "no wine today has a greater reputation; a flame can be kindled from it alone." That is, Falernian wine was the only one with a high enough alcohol content to be flammable. The next best wines, according to Pliny, come from the area around Julius's farm, the Alban region close to Rome. Cornelius (ll.126-127) is clearly being polite in preferring Julius's Alban wine to Falernum.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        cēna, -ae dinner
        convīva, -ae (m./f.) dinner guest
        culīna, -ae
    2nd
        argentum, -\overline{1}
        balneum, -\overline{1}
        bonum, -\overline{1}
        cocus, -i
        convīvium, -i
        merum, -i
        minister, -rī
        triclīnium, -i
3rd
    carō, carnis (f.)
    famēs, famis (f.)
    genus, generis (n.)
    holus, holeris (n.)
    hospes, hospitis (m./f.)
    iter, itineris (n.)
    mel, mellis (n.)
    nux, nucis (f.)
    sāl, salis (n.)
    sitis, sitis (f.; acc. sitim)
    vās, vāsis (n.) (pl. vāsa, -ōrum)
kitchen
silver
bath
blessing, a good
cook
dinner party
unmixed wine
attendant (cf. magister)
dining room
meat
hunger
kind, sort
vegetable
guest, stranger
journey, trip
honey
nut
salt
thirst
container
```

| Verba |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| -āre (1) |  |
| (accubō) accubāre | recline at the table |
| (apportō) apportāre, -āvisse, -ātum | carry to |
| (cēnō) cēnāre, -āvisse, -ātum | dine |
| (exōrnō) exōrnāre, -āvisse, -ātum | decorate |
| (gustō) gustāre, -āvisse, -ātum | taste |
| (līberō) līberāre, -āvisse, -ātum | set free |
| (nūntiō) nūntiāre, -āvisse, -ātum | announce |
| (parō) parāre, -āvisse, -ātum | get, prepare |
| (pōtō) pōtāre, -āvisse, -ātum | drink |
| (or pōtum) |  |
| -ēre (2) |  |
| (compleō) complēre, -plēvisse, -plētum | fill up |
| (misceō) miscēre, miscuisse, mixtum | mix |
| (placeō) placēre, placuisse, placitum (intr. + dat.) | please |
| (salvēre iubeō) | greet |
| -ere (3) |  |
| (accumbō) accumbere, accubuisse | recline at the table |
| (aspergō) aspergere, aspersisse, aspersum | sprinkle/strew on |
| (contrahō) contrahere, -trāxisse, -tractum | contract |
| (coquō) coquere, coxisse, coctum | cook |
| (ēligō) ēligere, èlēgisse, ēlectum | pick out, choose |
| (fruor) fruī, fructum (+abl.) | enjoy |
| (fundō) fundere, fūdisse, fūsum | pour |
| (recipiō) recipere, recēpisse, receptum | receive |
| (requiēscō) requiēscere | rest |
| (sternō) sternere, strāvisse, strātum | spread, strew |
| (vīsō) vīsere | go to see, visit |
| -īre (4) |  |
| (exhauriō) exhaurīre, exhausisse, exhaustum | drain, drink up |
| Irregular |  |
| (praesum) praeesse, praefuisse (intr. + dat.) | be in charge over |
| (perferō) perferre, pertulisse, perlātum | carry through |
| (prōferō) prōferre, prōtulisse, prōlātum | bring forward |

Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
acerbus, -a, -um
acūtus, -a, -um
argenteus, -a, -um
bīnī, -ae, -a
calidus, -a, -um
glōriōsus, -a, -um
imus, -a, -um
inexspectātus, -a, -um
iūcundus, -a, -um
lībertīnus, -a, -um
medius, -a, -um
merus, -a, -um
molestus, -a, -um
singulī, -ae, -a
tardus, -a, -um
ternī, -ae, -a
3rd
dīligēns (gen. dīligentis)
dulcis, -e
Adverbia
dēmum
diū
equidem
paulisper
prīdem
sānē
Praepositiōnēs
circiter (prp. $+a c c$. )
bitter
sharp
made of silver
two at a time
hot
full of glory
bottom of
unexpected
pleasant, agreeable
freed
middle of
unmixed, pure
annoying
one at a time
late, tardy
three at a time
careful, accurate
sweet
finally
for a long time
indeed
for a short time
some time ago, previously
certainly, truly
around, near (adv. approximately)

## XXXI. Inter Pōcula

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Uses of the Subjunctive
i. Optative Subjunctive
ii. Hortatory Subjunctive (continued)
iii. Jussive Subjunctive
b. ōdisse
c. Semi-deponents
2. Nouns: Case uses
a. Dative of Agent
b. Ablative with the Preposition cōram
c. Ablative with the Preposition super
3. Adjectives
a. Verbal Adjective: Gerundive (gerundīvum)
b. Passive Periphrastic
4. Pronouns: Indefinite Relative Pronouns

## An Enthusiastic Dinner Conversation

As the wine flows, the conversation among the guests proceeds more freely. The room echoes with discussions, stories, and the latest gossip.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Indefinite Relative Pronouns

We have seen relative pronouns without an antecedent express the idea of "whoever" and "whatever" (where one might have expected is quī..., id quod), e.g.:

Quī spīrat vīvus est.
Quod Mārcus dīcit vērum nōn est.

Whoever breathes is alive.
(Cap. X, 11.48-49)
What (or whatever) Marcus
says is not true. (Cap. XV, 1.58-59)

The same idea is expressed by the indefinite relative pronouns quis-quis and quid-quid ("whoever" and "whatever"), e.g.:

Quisquis amat valeat! (1.196)
Dabō tibi quidquid optāveris. (1.29)
Quidquid is often changed to quicquid by assimilation.

## Future Perfect Tense (continued)

This chapter offers many more examples of the future perfect tense, used to express an action that must be completed before another future action:

Nēmō tibi quidquam scrībet dè rēbus urbānīs, nisi prius ipse epistulam scrīpseris. (ll.7-8)
"Dabō tibi," inquit, "quidquid optāveris." Statim Midās. "Ergō dā mihi," inquit, "potestātem quidquid tetigerō in aurum mūtandī."1 (11.29-31)
Profectō eum verberābō atque omnibus modīs cruciābō, sī eum invēnerō priusquam Italiam relīquerit. Nisi pecūniam mihi reddiderit, in cruce fìgētur! (11.63-66)

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## $\bar{O} d i s s e$

The defective verb ōdisse ("to hate") has no present stem, but the perfect has present force: ōdī ("I hate") is the opposite of amō; ōdisse and its opposite, amāre, are contrasted in Servī dominum clēmentem amant, sevērum ōdērunt (ll.93-94).

Cf. nōvisse (Cap. XXIV), perfect of nōscere ("get to know"), meaning "know": nōv̄̃, "I know."

## Cōram/Super

The preposition cōram ("in the presence of," "before") takes the ablative:
cōram exercitū (l.122)
Super usually takes the accusative ("above"); but when used instead of $d \bar{e}$ in the sense "about," "concerning," super takes the ablative:
super Chrīstiānīs (1.147)
super fēminā falsā et ìnfidā (1.200)

[^53]
## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Gerundive

In Cap. XXVI, you learned about the gerund (Latin gerundium), a verbal noun with forms in the accusative, genitive, dative, and ablative of the neuter singular; it is active in meaning. The gerundive (Latin gerundīvum) is a verbal adjective. Orontes's "Vīvant omnēs fēminae amandae!" (ll.172-173) offers an example of the gerundive, which:

- is formed like the gerund by adding -nd- or -end- to the present stem
- is an adjective of the $1 \mathrm{st} / 2$ nd declension (ama|nd|us, $-a$, -um< amāre)
- is passive in meaning
- expresses what a person or thing is fit for (fèminae amandae, above) or what is to be done to a person or thing
The gerundive can be used as an adjective or with the verb esse to express obligation.
- As an adjective:
fēmina amanda worthy of being loved; a lovely, charming, or lovable woman
discipulus laudandus
liber legendus
(< laudāre) worthy of praise, a praiseworthy or hardworking pupil
(<legere) worthy of being read, a good book, a must-read
- Most frequently, the gerundive is used with some form of the verb esse to express what must or should happen. This construction is called the passive periphrastic:
Pater quī infantem exposuit ipse necandus est! (ll.132-133): "should/ must be killed"
Ille servus nōn pūniendus, sed potius laudandus fuit. (ll.161-162): "should not have been punished, but rather praised"
Nunc merum bibendum est! (l.177): "must be drunk"
The gerundive is a passive form; agent (the person by whom the action is to be performed) is expressed by the dative (not $a b+$ ablative):

Quidquid dominus imperāvit servō faciendum est. (ll.159-160): "must be done"
The passive periphrastic can be used without a subject:

Bibendum nōbīs est!
Tacendum est!
Dormiendum omnibus est!

We must drink!
It is necessary to be quiet! (1.178)
Everyone must sleep!

Remember:

- Gerund: active noun used only in the accusative, genitive, dative, and ablative of the neuter singular.
- Gerundive: passive adjective with all forms of 1 st/2nd declension; expressing what is suitable/necessary and takes a dative of agent.


## Optative, Hortatory, Jussive Subjunctives Compared

Orontes, who has had quite a bit to drink, illustrates three related uses of the subjunctive: optative, hortatory, and jussive. All three are expressions of the will of the speaker.

- Optative: an expression of wish (may he/she/they) (more in Cap. XXXII)
Vīval fortissimus quisque! Vīvant omnēs fēminae amandae! (11.172-173)
"Quisquis amat valeat! Pereat quī nescit amāre! Bis tantō pereat quisquis amāre vetat!" (ll.196-197, per-eat is the present subjunctive of per-ïre)
- Hortatory (see Cap. XXX): an expression of encouragement or exhortation in the 1st person plural ("let us")

Gaudeāmus atque amèmus! Let us rejoice and let us love! (1.173)
Vīvāmus omnēs et bibāmus. (ll.183-184)
Pōcula funditus exhauriāmus. (1.184)
Redeāmus ad meum Mēdum Let's get back to my slave servum. Medus.

- Jussive: a command expressed in the 3rd person ("let him/her, let them")
Quisquis fēminās amat, pōculum Whoever loves women, let tollat et bibat mēcum! him lift up his cup and drink with me! (ll.176-177)
The optative subjunctive expresses a wish, hortatory an exhortation, jussive a command. For all three, the negative is $n \bar{e}$ :

| Nē pereat! | May he not perish! |
| :--- | :--- |
| Nē pōcula funditus exhauriāmus! | Let us not drain our glasses <br> dry! |
| Nē bibat! | Let him not drink! |

## Quisque + Superlative

When quisque and the superlative are used together, the phrase means "all the X." Cicero spoke of optimus quisque, "all the best men." Orontes cries:

Vīvat fortissimus quisque!

May all the bravest men live! (1.172: i.e., "everyone according as he is the bravest," "all the bravest men")

## Semi-Deponents

There are a very few verbs in Latin that are called semi-deponent. The semideponent verb audēre, for example, has an active form in the present (aude $\bar{o}$, audère), but its form is passive in the perfect: ausum esse (to have dared):

Ille iuvenis fēminam illam pulcherrimam abdūcere ausus est. (ll.168-169)
Perterritus Quīntus cultrum medicī sentit in bracchiō, nec oculōs aperīre audet. (Cap. XI, 11.97-98)
Conversely, usually revertī is deponent in the present tense (revertor revertī), but has active forms in the perfect: revertisse; thus revertitur (she returns) but revertit (she returned). ${ }^{2}$

## Graffiti

The inscription on page 259 is a graffito (Italian for "a scratching") that a lovesick youth has scratched on a wall in Pompeii. It will help you to decipher the characters when you know that the inscription contains the two verses quoted by Orontes (ll.196-197; only the first syllable is missing).

## Studia Rōmāna

Roman attitude toward their slaves varied considerably. Were Seneca the Younger (first century AD) at Julius's dinner, he would have argued with his host's view of slaves. Seneca would remind Julius of what he had written to his young friend Lucilius (letter 47): that anyone can become enslaved (through war, kidnapping, etc.) and that he should treat his slaves in a mild and friendly manner. Slaves treated badly will fear and hate their masters. Aemilia reminds Julius of the proverb "Dominō sevērō tot esse hostēs quot servōs." This proverb comes from Seneca's letter: Eiusdem arrogantiae prōverbium iactātur, totidem hostēs esse quot servōs: nōn habēmus illōs hostēs sed facimus (47.5). ${ }^{3}$

The mention of crucifixion gives Aemilia the chance to voice her outrage at parents who expose ( $\overline{e x p o} \bar{n}^{2} r e$ ) their infants. It was the right of the paterfamilias to decide whether to raise a child or expose it. Although child exposure is a popular theme in literature (particularly the Greek novel), it's not at all

[^54]clear how often it happened in real life. There is literary evidence that seriously deformed babies were at greater risk of exposure. But it is clear that, outside of myths like Romulus and Remus, children were not left out in the expectation that they would be eaten by wild beasts, but rather were left in places where they were likely to be picked up and raised by others.

Orontes continues his boorish ignorance, but his tone-deaf responses to the conversation give us the opportunity to explore more myths. There were many sources for and variations of Greek myth, but as it happens, both of the myths that Orontes brings up can be found in Hyginus's Fäbulae, a simplistic compendium of Greek mythology probably from the second century AD. ${ }^{4}$ Also thought to be from the second century AD is the Bibliothēke (or Library) of Apollodorus, another compendium of Greek myth. The existence of many handbooks of, in addition to innumerable literary allusions to, Greek myth attests to the vitality of myth in the ancient world.

Cornelius refers to a historical figure of near-mythical status: Solon, Athenian lawgiver and one of the seven sages (wise men) of Greece, lived in the sev-enth-sixth century BC. When asked why there was no law against parricides, he responded that he was of the opinion that no one would ever commit the crime (Cicero, dè Rosciō Amerīnō, 70.5: [Solōn] cum interrogārētur cūr nūllum supplicium cōnstituisset in eum qū̄ parentem necāsset, respondit sē id nēminem factūrum putāsse). The Romans, however, did have a law against parricide and (at least during the republic) a gruesome punishment for it: the culprit was tied up in a sack with a dog, a cock, a viper, and an ape (Justinian, Digest 48.9). ${ }^{5}$ By the time of our narrative, the emperor Hadrian had decreed if the sea were not available, the murderer would be thrown to beasts.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        parricīda, -ae (m./f.)
        poena,-ae
    2nd
        praemium, -\overline{1}
        supplicium, -i
```

        iniūria, -ae injury, injustice
        memoria, -ae memory
        nūgae, -ārum trifles
        murderer of a near relative or head
        of state
        punishment
        reward
                                punishment
    [^55]3rd

| crux, crucis $(f)$. | cross |
| :--- | :--- |
| iūs, iūris $(n)$. | law, right; also gravy, soup |
| iuvenis, iuvenis $(m . l f)$. | young person (not an i-stem) |
| lēx, lēgis $(f)$. | law, motion, bill |
| mōs, mōris $(m)$. | custom, habit; $p l$. behavior, morals |
| mūnus, mūneris $(n)$. | service, duty, gift |
| pōtiō, pōtiōnis $(f)$. | drink |
| rūmor, rūmōris $(m)$. | rumor |
| scelus, sceleris $(n)$. | crime, wickedness |
| senex, senis $(m)$. | old man (not an $i$ i-stem $)$ |
| 5th |  |
| fidēs, -eī ${ }^{6}$ | loyalty, good faith |

Verba
-āre (1)
(cruciō) cruciāre, cruciāvisse, torture cruciātum
(ēducō) ēducāre, ēducāvisse,
train, educate, rear ēducātum
(fābulor) fābulārī, fābulātum
chat, tell a story
(interpellō) interpellāre,
interrupt, break in interpellāvisse, interpellātum
(optō) optāre, optāvisse, optātum
(vetō) vetāre, vetuisse, vetitum
choose, wish for forbid
-ēre (2)
(lateō) latēre, latuisse
lie hidden, lurk
-ere (3)
(abdūcō) abdūcere, abdūxisse, lead away, carry off abductum
(aufugiō) aufugere, aufūgisse run away, escape
(cōnfīdō) cōnfīdere, cōnfīsum (+ dat.)
(fīdō) fīdere, fīsum (+ dat.)
(ignōscō) ignōscere, ignōvisse,
trust, rely on
ignōtum (+dat.)
(ōdī) ōdisse, ōsum
(retrahō) retrahere, retrāxisse, draw back, withdraw retractum
(statuō) statuere, statuisse, statūtum fix, determine
Irregular
(auferō) auferre, abstulisse, ablātum carry off

[^56]```
Adiectīva
    1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
        asinīnus, -a, -um
        avārus, -a, -um
        èbrius, -a, -um
        fìdus, -a, -um
        fugitīvus, -a, -um
        infídus, -a, -um
        iniūstus, -a, -um
        invalidus, -a, -um
        iūstus, -a, -um
        nimius, -a, -um
        nōnāgēsimus, -a, -um
        scelestus, -a, -um
    3rd
        clēmēns (gen. clēmentis)
    crūdēlis, -e
    dēbilis,-e
    impatiēns (gen. impatientis)
    infëlīx (gen. īnfëlicis)
    praesēns (gen. praesentis)
    sapiēns (gen. sapientis)
    vetus (gen. veteris)
Prōnōmina
    quisquis, quidquid
Adverbia
    aliquantum (adv.)
    funditus
    ideō
    namque
    nimium/nimis (adv.)
    priusquam
    quantum (as adv.)
    quamobrem
Praepositiōnēs
    cōram (prp. + abl.)
    super (prp. + abl.)
    asinine
    greedy
    drunk
    loyal, faithful
    fugitive
    treacherous
    unjust
    weak
    just
    too big
    ninetieth
    wicked
    merciful
    cruel
    weak
    impatient
    unlucky
    present
    wise
    old
    whoever, whatever, each, all
to some extent
utterly (from the root)
for that reason
for in fact (strong nam)
too much
before, sooner, rather
so much as, as much as
why? therefore
in the presence of, face to face (with)
(also adv.)
over (also adv.)
```


## XXXII. Classis Rōmāna

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Perfect Subjunctive: Active and Passive
i. Perfect Subjunctive in Indirect Questions
ii. Prohibitions: Perfect Subjunctive in Negative Commands
b. Uses of the Subjunctive
i. Optative Subjunctive (Continued)
ii. Fear Clauses
iii. Noun Clauses: fit/accidit ut + Subjunctive
c. Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting
d. velle: Present Subjunctive
2. Nouns: Cases Uses
a. Ablative of Description
b. Ablative of Separation
c. vīs/vīrēs
d. Partitive Genitive: sēstertius
3. Pronouns: aliquis/aliquid

## Medus and Lydia at Sea

The fear of pirates gives rise to a long discussion on board the ship. Medus tells the story of the circumstances in which he was sent to prison and sold as a slave. This story mollifies Lydia, so when finally the danger is over, the two are once more on the best of terms.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Subjunctive with Noun Clauses

You have already seen clauses acting as the objects of verbs (Cap. XXVIII). A clause can also act as the subject of a verb. The impersonal expressions fit and accidit may be followed by an $u t$-clause with the subjunctive telling what happens; the $u t$-clause is the subject of fit:

Rārō fit ut nāvis praedōnum in marī internō appāreat. (ll.42-43)

## Ablative <br> of Description

A noun + adjective in the ablative can be used to describe a quality (ablāt̄̄vus quālitātis or ablative of description):
tant $\underline{a}$ audāciā sunt (1.49)
bonō animō esse (Cap. XXIX, 11.122-123)
(cf. genitive of description, Cap. XIX)
of Separation
We saw the ablative of separation with carēre in Cap. XX, and with pellere and prohibēre in Cap. XXVII. With līberāre and with opus esse as well we find the ablative of separation without a preposition:
servitūte līberābantur (1.6)
Quid opus est armīs? (1.78)
...seu ресӣniä seu aliä rē mihi opus erit. (1.118)
Quid verbīs opus est? (l.195)

## Vīs

The noun $v \overline{i s}$ ("strength," "force," "violence") has only three forms in the singular:
nom. $v \bar{l} s$
acc. $\operatorname{vim}(1.13)$
abl. $v \bar{l}(1.77)$
The plural vīrēs, vīrium means physical strength:
Nautae omnibus vīribus rēmigant. (1.53, 11.65-66)

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting

In Cap. XXV, you learned oblī $\bar{v} s c \bar{c}$ can take a genitive as object:
Nōn facile est amōris antīquī oblīvīscī. (Cap. XXV, 1.128)
Numquam beneficī̄ oblìtus sum. (1.26)
Its opposites, reminīscī and meminisse, meaning "to remember," also can take a genitive as an object:

Nec vērō quidquam difficilius esse vidētur quam beneficiōrum meminisse. (1l.125-126)
Eius temporis reminīscor. (ll.155-156)
Like oblīviscī, both reminīscī and meminisse can also take accusative objects:
Duōs versūs reminīscor ē carmine. (ll.101-102)
Tūne nōmen eius meministī? (ll.106-107)
Reminīscī and meminisse will take an accusative when they mean "remember" in the literal sense of "retain in memory" but the genitive when they mean "be mindful of," just as oblīvīscī takes the accusative when "forget" means "remove from memory" (mostly used of things) and the genitive when it means "disregard."

Note: meminisse is a defective verb which, like ōdisse (Cap. XXXI), has no present stem: the perfect form memin̄ ("I remember") is the opposite of oblītus sum ("I have forgotten").

## Velle

The present subjunctive of velle:

| Indicative |  | Subjunctive |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| volō | volumus | velim | velīmus |
| vīs | vultis | velīs | velītis |
| vult | volunt | velit | velint |

## Perfect Subjunctive

During the discussion, the merchant quotes two verses without giving the poet's name. The helmsman does not ask a direct question: "Quī poēta ista scrīpsit?" with the verb in the indicative, but uses an indirect question with the subjunctive: "Nesciō quī poēta ista scrīpserit" (l.106). Scrīps|erit is the perfect subjunctive (Latin coniūnctīvus perfectī) of scrībere.

This tense is formed in the active by inserting -eri- between the perfect stem and the personal endings:

| 1st sing. | $\sim$ eril $m$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 2nd | $\sim$ eri\|s |
| 3 rd | $\sim$ eri\|t |
| 1st pl. | $\sim$ eri\|mus |
| 2nd | ~eri\|tis |
| 3rd | ~eri\|nt |

Notā Bene: The perfect subjunctive looks like the future perfect indicative except for the 1st person singular $\sim$ erim (where the future perfect has $\sim$ erō).

[^57]In the passive, the perfect subjunctive is composed of the perfect participle and the present subjunctive of esse (sim, siss, sit, etc.):

Iūlius dubitat num Mārcus à magistrō laudātus sit (= num magister Mārcum laudāverit).

## Perfect Subjunctive

| active | perfect stem + eri + endings |
| :--- | :--- |
| passive | participle stem + present subjunctive of esse |

## Recēnsiō: Ferre

For review, compare the present, imperfect, and perfect subjunctives of ferō, ferre, tulisse, lātum:

| Tense | Active | Passive |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Present | feram <br> ferās <br> ferat <br> ferāmus <br> ferātis <br> ferant | ferar <br> ferāris <br> ferātur <br> ferāmur <br> ferāmini <br> ferantur |
| Imperfect | ferrem <br> ferrēs <br> ferret <br> ferrēmus <br> ferrētis <br> ferrent | ferrer ferrēris ferrētur ferrēmur ferrēmini ferrentur |
| Perfect | tulerim <br> tuleris <br> tulerit <br> tulerimus <br> tuleritis <br> tulerint | lātus, - a sim <br> lātus, - a sīs <br> lātus, -a, -um sit <br> lāt̄̄, -ae sīmus <br> lātī, -ae sìtis <br> lātī, -ae, -um sint |

## Perfect Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses

You have learned (Cap. XXVIII) that the present and imperfect subjunctives represent incomplete action in subjunctive subordinate clauses. The present subjunctive is used with a present or future tense main verb and the imperfect with a past tense main verb.

The perfect subjunctive represents completed action in a subjunctive subordinate clause when the main verb is present or future.

## Sequence of Tense

| Main Verb | Subordinate Verb <br> Incomplete Action | Completed Action <br> present future <br> past tense |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| present subjunctive | imperfect subjunctive |  |
| imbjunctive | (Cap. XXXIII) |  |

## Perfect Subjunctive in Indirect Questions

The perfect subjunctive is used in indirect questions concerning completed actions, when the main verb is in the present, present perfect, or future tense, as in the above examples (scrīpserit, laudātus sit, laudāverit) and the following:

Haud sciō an ego ita dīxerim. I might say that. ${ }^{2}$ (1.84)
Nesciō qū̄ poēta ista scrīpserit. (1.106)
Mīror unde pecūniam sūmpseris ut aliōs redimerēs. (ll.132-133)
Ego mīror cūr id mihi nōn nārrāveris. (1.134)
Sed nesciō cūr hoc vōbīs nārrāverim. (ll.154-155)
Scīsne quantum pīrātae à Iūliō Caesare captō postulāverint? (ll.168-169)
Mīlitēs ignōrant quī homō sīs et quid anteā fēceris. (11.215-216)
Iamne oblītus es quid modo dīxeris? (1.82): Here oblītus es is followed by a perfect subjunctive because it represents the present perfect, where the mental focus is the present result of a past action (Cap. XXI).
Nārrābō vōbīs breviter quōmodo amīcum ē servitūte redēmerim atque ipse ob eam grātiam servus factus sim. (1.137)

## Sēstertius

After millia, the partitive genitive plural of sēstertius has the shorter ending -um in instead of -ōrum:
decem mīlia sēstertium (ll.91, cf. 1.170)

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Perfect Subjunctive in Prohibitions (Negative Command)

With $n \bar{e}$, the 2 nd person of this tense expresses a prohibition:
Nē timueris! Nē timueritis! (ll.215, 199 = nōl̄̄/nōl̄̄te timēre!)
Nē dēspērāveris! (1.162)
Né eum abiēceris! (1.182)
Nē oblīta sīs mè servum fugitīvum esse. (11.211-212)

[^58]Remember: As you learned in Cap. XX, prohibitions can also be expressed with nōlī/nōlīte and the infinitive.

## Optative Subjunctive (continued)

In Cap. XXXI, we saw that the subjunctive can express a wish (optative subjunctive). Wishes are often introduced by the adverb utinam, e.g.:

Utinam aliquandō līber patriam
videam!
Utinam ille ānulus vītam tuam servet!

May I sometime see my
country as a free man! (l.157)
May that ring save your life!
(ll.182-182)

Utinam salvī in Graeciam perveniant! (1.223)
Utinam can be left untranslated in English ("may I see my country") or be translated by "I wish that" or similar.

The optative subjunctive to express a wish that something not happen uses $n \bar{e}$ to negate the clause, e.g.:

Utinam n̄ē pīrātae mē occīdant! (11.179-180)

## Clauses Expressing Fear

An expression of fear that something may happen implies a wish that it may not happen; this is why the construction with verbs expressing fear, timére, metuere, and verērī might seem counterintuitive:

- A fear that something will happen is expressed by $n \bar{e}+$ subjunctive, e.g.:

Timeō nē pīrātae mé occīdant. I fear the pirates may kill me.

- A fear that something will not happen is expressed with $u t+$ subjunctive, e.g.:

Timeō ut ille veniat. I fear he may not come.
If you separate the two clauses, you can see how the sentences work:
Timeō (I am afraid) nē pīrātae mé occīdant (may the pirates not kill me!) becomes: I fear that the pirates may kill me.
Timeō (I am afraid) ut ille veniat (may he come!) becomes: I fear he may not come.

## The Prefix ali-

The prefix ali- serves to make interrogative words indefinite:
quot? how many? ali-quot: some, several
quandō? when? ali-quandō: at some time or other, once
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { quantum? } & \text { how much? } & \begin{array}{l}\text { ali-quantum: a certain } \\ \text { amount }\end{array} \\ \text { quis? quid? } \quad \text { who? what? } & \begin{array}{l}\text { ali-quis, ali-quid: someone, } \\ \text { something }\end{array}\end{array}$
Recall, however, that quis, quid is used (without ali-) as an indefinite pronoun after $s \bar{i}, n i s \bar{\imath}, n u m$, and $n \bar{e}$ (Cap. XXII):

Nihil cuiquam nārrāvī dē eā rē, nē quis mē glōriōsum exīstimāret. (ll.135-136)
Vērum hōc ānulō sī quis servārī potest, nōn ego, sed amīca mea servanda est. (ll.180-181)

## Recēnsiō: "Qu" words

aliquī, aliqua, aliquod
aliquis, aliquid
quī, quae, quod
quī, quae, quod (...?)
quia
quid
quid (...?)
quīdam, quadam, quoddam
quidem
nē...quidem
quidnī (...?)
quisquis, quidquid/quicquid
quis, quae, quid (...?)
quis, quid (si/num/ne...)
quisnam, quidnam (...?)
quisquam, quidquam
quisque, quaeque, quodque
quisquis, quidquid
quō
quod
quod
quōmodo
quoniam
quoque
quot (...?)
some (indefinite adj.)
someone, something (indefinite pronoun)
who, which, he who (relative pronoun)
what, which (interrogative adj.)
because (conjunction)
what, anything ( $n$. of quis, below)
why ( $a d v$.)
a certain, some (indefinite pronoun)
indeed, certainly ( $a d v$. )
not even ( $a d v$.)
why not (interrogative adv.)
whatever, anything that (indefinite pronoun)
who, what (interrogative pronoun)
anyone, anything (= aliquis)
whoever?/whatever? (strengthened interrogative)
anyone, anything (indefinite pronoun)
each (distributive pronoun)
whoever/whatever, anyone who/
anything who (generalizing relative
pronoun)
where (to) ( $a d v$. .)
because, that (= quia) (conjunction)
what, which, that which ( $n$. of relative quī above)
how ( $a d v$.)
as, since (conjunction)
also, too ( $a d v$.)
how many (interrogative and relative adj.)

## Studia Rōmāna

The story of Caesar and the pirates (ll.6-9), related more fully by the gubernātor (ll.166-177) is told by Plutarch (first-second century), in his biography of Caesar. Piracy (robbery on the sea) was an inveterate problem. According to Thucydides (fifth-century BC Athenian historian), King Minos of Crete (Cap. XXV, l.44) was the first person to establish a navy; he then established colonies around the island, gained control of the waters, and stopped piracy. Rome did not become powerful at sea until the Punic Wars (third century BC). As mentioned briefly in the notes to Cap. XXIX, the Roman navy had made great strides toward policing the seas and keeping them safe from pirates: Pompey in 67 BC (ll.16-41) was granted special military power (māius imperium) to combat the pirates. Augustus set up permanent naval stations at Mīsēnum and Ravenna (Mīsēnum is on the point west of Puteolī on the map on p. 40 of your text; Ravenna is just north of Ariminum on the same map). Under the empire, control of the coastline around the Mediterranean facilitated safe seas.

Medus, as a runaway slave, a fugitīvus, has a lot to worry about. Should he be caught, it would be up to Julius to decide what to do with him-he could indeed, as he had threatened, have him crucified or, as Medus worries, thrown to beasts. We know both from what the Romans wrote and from artifacts that slaves ran away with some frequency. Archaeologists have found shackles, chains, and slave collars that mark the wearer as a slave, with inscriptions with variations of "hold on to me" (tenē mē...tenē mé quia fugiō et revocā mē in...)-the same kind of collars that Romans put on their dogs. Instructions are often included for returning the slave. A runaway slave was a thief (he did not belong to himself but to his master). Someone who finds a runaway slave and does not return him is also a thief and a criminal. During the empire, the Romans employed slave catchers (fugitīvārī̄) to help them retrieve their property. During the republic, slave-owners had to rely on their network of friends.

We have a commercium epistulārum (a correspondence of letters) between Cicero and his friends about a runaway slave named Dionysius (an anagnostēs: a slave who read aloud to the master and his guests, so educated with a good voice and therefore expensive, cf. Cap. XVIII). Cicero writes to his friend Publius Sulpicius Rufus, proconsul in Illyria, for help in recovering his Dionysius, who was in charge of Cicero's (very valuable) library; he stole many valuable books and, knowing he would not get away with it, ran away. Spotted in Illyria by several of Cicero's friends, Dionysius claimed he had been set free by Cicero. (For a fugitīvus to claim to be līber, according to Justinian's Digest of Roman Law, was an even more serious offense, Digest 11.4.2.). Cicero pleads with Sulpicius to do all he can to have Dionysius returned-a small matter, he says, but his grief at losing the books is great (Ad Fam. 13.77). At this point, you can read most of it as well! What you can't yet read is translated in parentheses:

Praetereā ā tē petō in māiōrem modum prō nostrā amicitiā et prō tuō perpetuō (everlasting) in mè studiō ut in hāc rē etiam ēlabōrēs (= labōrēs): Dionȳsius, servus meus, quī meam bibliothēcen ${ }^{3}$ multōrum nummōrum tractāvit (= cūrāvit), cum multōs librōs surripuisset (had stolen) nec sē impūnē (without punishment) lāturum putāret, aufūgit. Is est in prōvinciā tuā. Eum et M. Bolānus, familiāris (friend) meus, et multī alī̄ Narōnae (at Narona) vīdērunt, sed cum sē à mē manū missum esse dīceret, crēdidērunt. Hunc tū sī mihi rēstituendum (will be restored) cūrāris (you will take care that), nōn possum dīcere quam mihi grātum futūrum sit. Rēs ipsa parva sed animī meī dolor magnus est. Ubi sit et quid fierī possit Bolānus te docēbit. Ego, sī hominem per tē reciperārō (will have regained), summō mè à tè beneficiō affectum arbitrābor.

From these letters, it is clear that not all slaves wore identifying marks and that some were so integral a part of their master's homes that visitors to those homes would recognize them elsewhere, so a runaway ran great risks.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        amīcitia,-ae
    audācia,-ae
    grātia, -ae
    incola, -ae(m./f.)
    inopia,-ae
    pīrāta, -ae (m.)
    poēta, -ae (m.)
    victōria,-ae
2nd
    amphitheātrum, -\overline{1}
    populus, -i
    talentum, -\overline{1}
3rd
    classis, classis (f.)
    condiciō, condicōnis (f.)
    gēns, gentis (f.)
    servitūs, servitūtis (f.)
    victor, victōris (m.)
    vīrēs, vīrium (f.pl.)
    vīs (f.)
    voluntās, voluntātis (f.)
    friendship
    boldness
    favor, gratitude, thanks (pl.)
    inhabitant
    lack
    pirate
    poet
    victory
    amphitheater
    the people (not a person)
    a talent (sum of money)
    fleet
    agreement, contract, condition
    tribe, nation
    slavery
    victor
    strength
    force, power
    will, desire, good will
```

3. Bibliothēcen: Greek $\beta \stackrel{\beta}{ } \lambda_{\iota}$ Ө $\dot{q} \kappa \eta$, Latin bibliothēcam.

4th
cursus, -ūs (m.) running, forward movement; course
Verba -āre (1)
(adiuvō) adiuvāre, adiūvisse, help adiūtum
(armō) armāre, armāvisse, armātum arm
(minor) minārī, minātum threaten
(rēmigō) rēmigāre, rēmigāvisse, row back rēmigātum
(repugnō) repugnāre, repugnāvisse -ēre (2)
(dissuādeō) dissuādēre, dissuāsisse
(tueor) tuērī, tuitum and tūtum -ere (3)
(contemnō) contemnere, contēmpsisse, contēmptum
(dēsistō) dēsistere, dēstitisse
(ēducō) ēdūcere, ēdūxisse, ēductum
(flectō) flectere, flexisse, flectum
(meminī) meminisse (+ gen. or acc.)
(praepōnō) praepōnere, praeposuisse, praepositum
(percurrō) percurrisse, percursum
(redimō) redimere, redēmisse, redēmptum
(reminīscor) reminīscī (+ gen. or acc.)
(submergō) submergere, -mersisse, sink, submerge -mersum
Irregular
(offerō) offerre, obtulisse, oblātum
(praeferō) praeferre, praetulisse, praelātum
(referō) referre, rettulisse, relātum
Adiectīva
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
adversus, -a, -um
cārus, -a, -um
cūnctus, -a, -um
ēgregius, -a, -um
grātus, -a, -um
infēstus, -a, -um
internus, -a, -um
mercātōrius, -a,-um
fight back (mostly intr.)
dissuade
see, watch, protect
think little of, scorn
leave off, cease
lead out
bend
keep in mind, remember
put (acc.) before (dat.), in charge of
run through
buy back
call to mind, recollect
offer, present
prefer
bring back, return
opposed, adverse
dear
all
outstanding
grateful, pleasing
dangerous
internal, domestic
mercantile
mūtuus, -a, -um
nūbilus, -a, -um
proximus, -a, -um
superbus, -a, -um
3rd
commūnis, -e
inermis, -e
vīlis, -e
Adverbia
aliquandō
aliquot
dōnec
etiamnunc
intereā
ubīque
utinam
Coniūnctiōnēs
neu
seu
on loan
cloudy
closest
lofty, arrogant
shared, common
(in + arm) unarmed
cheap
some time or other, finally
some, several
until
even now
meanwhile
anywhere, everywhere
if that, only that, would that
or not, and not (nēve...nēve)
or if, or (sive...sive)

## XXXIII. Exercitus Rōmānus

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Pluperfect Subjunctive
b. Uses of the Subjunctive
i. Pluperfect Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses
ii. Optative Subjunctive: Unfulfilled Wishes
iii. Contrafactual Conditions
c. Passive of Intransitive Verbs
d. Future Imperative
e. velle: Imperfect Subjunctive
2. Nouns: Case Uses
a. Ablative of Respect (continued)
3. Adjectives
a. Gerundive Attraction
b. Distributive Numerals (continued)

## Aemilia Writes to Her Brother

The chapter consists mainly of a letter to Aemilia from her brother, who is in Germania on military service. From this letter, you learn more military terms.

## Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

## Distributive Numerals (continued)

In Cap. XXX, you learned that distributive numbers are those used repetitively (e.g., in multiplication or groups of certain numbers). Here are more distributive numerals:

```
10 dēn\overline{\imath},-ae,-a (1.2)
4 quaternī, -ae, -a (1.3)
5 quīn\overline{\imath},-ae, -a (l.3)
6 sēn\overline{l},-ae,-a (l.3)
```

Nouns that occur only in the plural, i.e., pluralia tantum, use distributive numbers, e.g.:

| bina castra | two camps |
| :--- | :--- |
| binae litterae | (= duae epistulae) |

When distributive numbers are used with nouns that are plūrālia tantum, $\bar{u} n \bar{\imath},-a e,-a$ and $\operatorname{tri} n \bar{\imath},-a e,-a$ are used instead of singuli$,-a e,-a$ and tern $\bar{\imath},-a e$, $-a$, e.g.:
ünae litterae $\quad(=\bar{u} n a$ epistula)
trīnae litterae (= trēs epistulae)
Quaeris à mē cūr tibi ūnās tantum litterās scrīpserim, cum interim trīnās quaternāsve litterās à tē accēperim. (ll.90-92)

## Velle, nōlle, mālle (continued)

The imperfect subjunctive of mālle and nōlle follows the (perfectly regular) pattern of velle (margin, p.274). Review the forms of the present indicative and present and imperfect subjunctive:

| Indicative |  | Subjunctive Present |  | Subjunctive Imperfect |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| volō | volumus | velim | velìmus | vellem | vellēmus |
| $v \bar{s}$ | vultis | velīs | velìtis | vellès | vellētis |
| vult | volunt | velit | velint | vellet | vellent |
| nōlō | nōlumus | nōlim | nōlīmus | nōllem | nōllèmus |
| nōn vis | nōn vultis | nōlīs | nōlītis | nōllès | nōllētis |
| nōn vult | nōlunt | nōlit | nōlint | nōllet | nōllent |
| mālō | mālumus | mālim | mālìmus | māllem | màllèmus |
| $m \bar{a} v \bar{l} s$ | māvultis | mālīs | mālītis | māllès | māllētis |
| māvult | mālunt | mālit | mālint | mället | mällent |

## Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

## Optative Subjunctive: Wishes Unfulfilled in the Present

In Cap. XXXI, you learned that the present subjunctive (with or without utinam) expresses a wish for the future. When we express a wish for the present, it has to be one that isn't true for the present (e.g., "I wish I weren't in class right now!"). There are various names for such wishes (which are optative subjunctive): unfulfilled, unrealistic, and contrafactual (contrary to fact). The verb is in the imperfect subjunctive, e.g., Aemilius's unreal (contrafactual) wishes:

Utinam ego Rōmae essem! (1.67)
Utinam hic amnis Tiberis esset et haec castra essent Rōma! (11.70-71)
Aemilius is not, in fact, in Rome; the river is not the Tiber and the camp is not Rome. The verb is not in the present, but in the imperfect subjunctive.

## Conditions in the Subjunctive: Present Unreal (Contrafactual)

Just as wishes can be unfulfilled (contrafactual), so too can conditions. The following sentences express a condition that can never be realized; here, too, the imperfect subjunctive is used to express unreality:

Sī Mercurius essem ālāsque
habērem, in Italiam volārem!
If I were Mercury and had wings, I would fly into Italy (but I'm not Mercury and I don't have wings). (ll.73-75)
Nisi nōs hīc essēmus fīnēsque imperī̄ dēfenderēmus, hostēs celeriter Dānuvium et Alpēs trānsīrent atque ūsque in Italiam pervenīrent, nec vōs in Latiō tūtī essētis. (ll.82-85)
Sī mihi tantum esset ōtī̀ quantum est tibi, in epistulīs scrībendīs nōn minus dīligēns essem quam tū. (ll.93-95)

## Gerundive Attraction

A gerund is a verbal noun with an active sense and thus can take an accusative direct object. But in practice, the gerund is usually not found with a direct object. Instead, most writers preferred to substitute a phrase consisting of a noun and the gerundive; the meaning is the same in each case. Some examples:
cupidus sōlem propius aspiciend̄̄ cupidus sōlis propius aspiciend̄̄
(Cap. XXVI, l.108)
cupidus patriam videndī cupidus patriae videndae (1.80)
fessus longās fābulās audiendō fessus longīs fābulīs audiendīs (Cap. XXVI, l.123)

Compare: when adding an object to a gerund prepositional phrase, Latin writers consistently use a gerundive/noun combination (not the gerund plus object), e.g.:

Gerund prepositional phrase
ad scrībendum: "for writing"
in scrībendō: "in writing"
ad dēfendendum
ad persequendum

Gerundive/noun phrase ad epistulam scrībendam: "for writing a letter" (ll.97-98) in epistulīs scrībendīs: "in writing letters" (ll.94-95) ad castra dēfendendㅁ (1.116) ad eōs persequendōos ( $=$ ut eōs persequerentur) (1.132)

## Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

## Passive of Intransitive Verbs

Intransitive verbs, you have learned, do not take an accusative direct object. Intransitive verbs can still be used in the passive, but only if they are used impersonally (that is, in the 3rd person with no subject: "it"). The intransitive verb pugnäre is used impersonally in the following examples:
à Rōmānīs fortissimè pugnātum est = Rōmān̄̄ fortissimē pugnāvērunt.
Mediā nocte in castra nūntiātum est... (l.105)

Cum complūrēs hōrās ita fortissimè $\bar{a}$ nostrīs, ab hostibus cōnstanter ac nōn timidē pugnātum esset.
literally: "when there had been fighting by our men...by the enemy," but more idiomatically, "when our men and the enemy had fought..." (ll.119-121)

## Pluperfect Subjunctive

The last remaining tense of the Latin subjunctive is the pluperfect (Latin coniūnctīvus plūsquamperfectī). It is formed in the active by inserting -issē(shortened -isse-) between the perfect stem and the personal endings. In other words, just as the imperfect subjunctive can be formed by adding the personal endings to the present infinitive, the pluperfect subjunctive can be formed by adding the personal endings to the perfect infinitive:

| 1st sing. | $\sim i s s e \mid m$ |
| :---: | :---: |
| 2nd | $\sim i s s e \overline{\mid c}$ |
| 3rd | $\sim i s s e \mid t$ |
| 1st pl. | $\sim i s s e \bar{e} \mid m u s$ |
| 2nd | $\sim i s s e \bar{e}$ tis |
| 3rd | $\sim i s s e \mid n t$ |

The pluperfect subjunctive passive is composed of the perfect participle and the imperfect subjunctive of esse (essem, essēs, esset, etc.).

## Pluperfect Subjunctive in Subordinate Clauses

Just as the perfect subjunctive signifies completed action in a subordinate clause after a present or future tense verb, the pluperfect subjunctive signifies completed action after a past tense main verb.

## Sequence of Tense

| Main Verb | Subordinate Verb |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Incomplete Action | Completed Action |  |
| present future | present subjunctive | perfect subjunctive |
| past tense | imperfect subjunctive | pluperfect subjunctive |

The pluperfect subjunctive occurs in subordinate clauses such as:

- cum-clauses (where cum + pluperf. subj. = postquam + perf. ind.)

Quī cum arma cēpissent et vāllum ascendissent (= postquam... cēpērunt/ascendērunt), prīmō mīrābantur quamobrem mediā nocte $\bar{e}$ somnō excitāt̄̄ essent... (ll.109-111)
Cum complūrēs hōrās ita fortissimē ā nostrīs...pugnātum esset. (ll.119-121)

- indirect questions concerning completed action in the past, i.e., with the main verb in the preterite (imperfect, perfect, or pluperfect).
Ego quoque dubitāre coeperam num nūntius vērum dīxisset. (ll.112113)


## Optative Subjunctive: Wishes Unfulfilled in the Past

Just as the imperfect subjunctive expresses a wish that is not coming true in the present, the pluperfect subjunctive expresses a wish that didn't come true in the past, as in Aemilius's final remarks:

Utinam patrem audīvissem! If only I had listened to my father (but I didn't)! (l.166)

## Conditions in the Subjunctive: Past Unreal (Contrafactual)

The imperfect subjunctive expresses a condition unfulfilled in the present, while the pluperfect subjunctive expresses a condition unfulfilled in the past, e.g.:

Sī iam tum hoc intellēxissem,
certē patrem audīvissem nec
bellum profectus essem.
Malus amīcus fuissem, nisi lacrimās effūdissem super corpus amīcī mortū̄, cum
ille sanguinem suum prō mē effūdisset.

If I had understood...I would have listened and I would not have set out. (ll.181-182) I would have been a bad friend, had I not shed tears, since he would have shed.... (ll.163-165)

More examples can be found in Grammatica Latina.
Thus, the imperfect subjunctive expresses a wish/condition that is not true in the present. The pluperfect subjunctive expresses a wish/condition that was not true in the past:

| utinam veniat | "may he come" (in the future) or <br>  <br> utinam venīret |
| :--- | :--- |
| "may he be coming (presently)" |  |

## Ablative of Respect (continued)

The ablative of respect (which answers the question "in what respect?") was introduced in Cap. XI (pede aeger, 1.55), Cap. XIX (amōre dignus, ll.111-112), and again in Cap. XXV (nōmine Mīnōtaurus, 1.26). In the expression hostēs numerō superiōrēs (l.144), numerō shows in what way the enemy are superior: "in number," "numerically."

## Future Imperative

Aemilius ends his letter with some requests (ll.187-189). Here he uses what is often called the future imperative. While all imperatives refer to the future, forms in -tō (sing.), -tōte (pl.) do not imply "immediately." They are often, therefore, used in legal language.

To form the future imperative, the following endings are added to the present stem:

- Vowel Stems
$\triangleright-t o ̄$ (sing.), -tōte (pl.)
$\triangleright$ nārrā|tō -tōte
- Consonant Stems
$\triangleright \underline{i} t o ̄-\underline{i} t o ̄ t e$
$\triangleright ~ s c r i ̄ b \mid i \underline{i} o ̄-\underline{i} t o ̄ t e$
- Irregular
$\triangleright$ es $\mid t \overline{0}$, es $\mid t \bar{t} t e$ from esse



## Recēnsiō

## I. Summary of Conditions

With the indicative

- Present Indicative:

Sì iam hoc intellegis, certē If you already understand this, patrem audīs. you are certainly listening to your father. (cf. 1l.181-182)
Sī aeger est, in lūdum īre nōn potest. (cf. Cap. XV, l.83)

- Future or Future Perfect Indicative:

Sī hoc intellēxeris, certē patrem audiēs.

If you will have understood this, you will certainly listen to your father.

Nōnne laetus eris, sī fīliolam habēbis? (cf. Cap. XX, ll.153-154)
Profectō eum verberābō atque omnibus modīs cruciābō, sī eum invēnerō priusquam Italiam relīquerit. (Cap. XXXI, 11.63-65)

- Past Indicative:

Sī iam tum hoc intellēxistī, If you already at that time certē patrem audīvistī. understood this, you certainly listened to your father.

Sī quid prāvē feceram, dominus imperābat ut ego ab alī̄s servīs tenērer et verberārer. (cf. Cap. XXVIII, ll.160-161)

## With the subjunctive

- Present Subjunctive (ideal: "should...would"): ${ }^{1}$

Sī hoc intellegās, certè patrem audiās.

Sī quid prāvē faciam, dominus imperet ut ego ab alī̄s servīs tenear et erberer.

- Imperfect Subjunctive (present unreal: "were...would"): Sì iam hoc intellegerēs, certē If you already understood this patrem audīres.

If you should understand this, you would certainly listen to your father.
If I should do something wrong, my master would order... (but you clearly don't), you certainly would be listening to your father (but you aren't).

- Pluperfect Subjunctive (past unreal):

Sī iam tum hoc intelléxissēs, If you had already then certē patrem audīvissēs. understood this (but you clearly didn't), you certainly would have listened to your father (but you didn't).

## II. Some Subjunctive Signals

Ut

- Purpose
- incomplete action: present or imperfect subjunctive

[^59]- Result
$\triangleright$ incomplete action: present or imperfect subjunctive
- Optative
$\triangleright$ present subjunctive for a future wish or a present wish (when the outcome is uncertain)
$\triangleright$ imperfect subjunctive for a wish unfulfilled in the present
$\triangleright$ pluperfect subjunctive for a wish unfulfilled in the past
- Indirect command
$\triangleright$ incomplete action: present or imperfect subjunctive
- Indirect question
$\triangleright$ main verb refers to present or future:
o present subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses incomplete action
o perfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses completed action
$\triangleright$ main verb refers to past:
o imperfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses incomplete action
o pluperfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses completed action
- Negative fear (i.e., fear that something will not happen/has not happened)
$\triangleright$ main verb refers to present or future:
o present subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses incomplete action
o perfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses completed action
$\triangleright$ main verb refers to past:
o imperfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses incomplete action
o pluperfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses completed action


## Utinam

- Wish (see optative subjunctive)
$N \bar{e}$
- Negative Purpose
$\triangleright$ incomplete action: present or imperfect subjunctive
- Optative (Negative)
$\triangleright$ present subjunctive for a future wish
$\triangleright$ imperfect subjunctive for a wish unfulfilled in the present
$\triangleright$ pluperfect subjunctive for a wish unfulfilled in the past
- Hortatory (Negative)
$\triangleright$ present subjunctive
- Indirect command (Negative)
$\triangleright$ incomplete action: present or imperfect subjunctive
- Prohibition
$\triangleright$ perfect subjunctive
- Affirmative fear ( $n \bar{e}$ or $n \bar{e} n \bar{o} n$ ) (i.e., fear that something will happen/ has happened
$\triangleright$ main verb refers to present or future:
o present subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses incomplete action
o perfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses completed action
$\triangleright$ main verb refers to past:
o imperfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses incomplete action
o pluperfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses completed action
Nē...nōn
- Fear (see above, Affirmative fear)

Ut...nōn

- Negative Result
$\triangleright$ incomplete action: present or imperfect subjunctive


## Cum

- Circumstances: subjunctive
- Causal: subjunctive
- (+ ablative: preposition)
- (Pinpointing the time: indicative)
- (Repeated action: "whenever": indicative [usually])


## Studia Rōmāna

It's not clear exactly what aspect of litterae Aemilius's father pursued and had in mind for his son. We learned in Cap. XXIX that Aemilius's family was poor. Generally, a career in literature was beyond the reach of people of lower socioeconomic status. Even writers like Juvenal and Martial who complain constantly of their poverty were poor only in relation to the wealthy elite. He might have been a scrība and as such, one of the appāritōrēs (free-born attendants to Roman magistrates). Such scrībae were public officials; they earned a salary and were part of a collēgium, or society, of men who performed the same role. They mixed with more powerful people who could assist their upward mobility.

They were also part of the larger world of letters: the poet Horace (first century BC) was a scrība quaestōrius. There is a good amount of evidence, literary and inscriptional, to show the potential for this kind of studium litterārum.

One Roman senator who combined the life of a statesman, studium litterārum and the military was Sextus Iūlius Frontīnus, who lived in the first century AD. His most famous work is his treatise on aqueducts (d $\bar{e}$ Aquaeduct $\bar{u}$ Urbis Rōmae) but he also wrote two works that would have been read by Aemilius's commanders, if not Aemilius himself. Dē Rē Mīlitārī, a treatise on military theory, has not survived, but we do have the Stratēgmata, a collection of useful examples of stratagems as a continuation of his work on military theory. One section offers examples of clever ways generals (both Greek and Roman) have roused dispirited soldiers. The republican general Aulus Postumius, for example, while fighting against the Latins, told his exhausted troops that two men on horseback were the Dioscuri (Cap. XVI); at the sight of the "gods," his soldiers revived:

> Aulus Postumius proeliō quō cum Latīnīs conflīxit, oblātā speciē duōrum in eqū̄s iuvenum animōs suōrum ērexit, Pollūcem et Castōrem adesse dīcens, ac sīc proelium rēstituit.

By Aemilius's time as a soldier, the Roman army had undergone great changes. In the first century BC, the general Marius began the practice of having soldiers carry all of their weapons and equipment, instead of having baggage mules (thereby greatly speeding up the military march). These soldiers got the nickname "Marius's mules." The very efficient practice persisted. The army comprised volunteer soldiers who served for twenty-five years. During this time, they were not allowed to marry (although some had unofficial wives and children). The soldiers' physical training was extensive and difficult. They had to be able to march fast carrying heavy loads, to move in formation, and to wield weapons skillfully. They built the roads they would march on into new territory; at the end of a long day of marching, they built overnight camps, pitched their tents, cooked their meals, and had to be ready to start all over again the next day. Aemilia's brother was part of a legion (lēgio, legiōnis, f.), which consisted of ten cohorts (cohors, cohortis, f.), which in turn consisted of six companies, called centuries (centuria, -ae, f.) of about eighty men. Centuries were led by centurions (centuriōnēs). Aemilius was a pedes (foot soldier), but he could in time have been promoted to an eques (cavalryman), which would have meant a new round of training. The constant trouble with the Germans meant a large number of soldiers were needed in Germany.

The emperor Augustus turned the Roman army into a standing, professional force that policed the boundaries of the Roman world. Inscriptional evidence tells us that Augustus's system stayed remarkably stable for hundreds of years. Soldiers were Roman citizens; auxiliary troops were not. The stīpendium (whence our word "stipend") referred both to a term of military service and
the recompense earned from that service (stīpendia merēre means both "to serve in the military" and "to earn a wage for serving in the military").

Most of what we know about soldiers on the Roman frontiers comes from inscriptions and archaeology. A recent discovery of a number of letters, written on very thin, folded wooden tablets, has been found at Vindolanda, a fort along Hadrian's Wall in Northern England. The discovery of these tablets has revised our view of letter writing, adding thin, wooden tablets inscribed with ink to papyrus and wooden tablets covered with wax and inscribed with a stylus. http://vindolanda.csad.ox.ac.uk/

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        rīpa,-ae riverbank
    2nd
        gaudium, -\overline{1}
        joy
        lēgātus, -i
        legiōnārius, -ī
        proelium, -i
        stipendium, -\overline{1}
        studium, -\overline{1}
    3rd
        aetās, aetātis (f.)
        agmen, agminis (n.)
        amnis, amnis (m.)
        caedēs, caedis (f.)
        cohors, cohortis (f.)
        ènsis, ènsis (m.)
        imperātor, imperātōris (m.)
        legiō, -ōnis (f.)
        ōrdō, ördinis (f.)
        pāx, pācis (f.)
        ratis, ratis (f.)
        valētūdō, valētūdinis (f.)
        virtūs, virtūtis (f.)
        vulnus, vulneris (n.)
    5th
        aciēs, -èī
Verba
    -āre (1)
        (circumdō) circumdare, surround
        circumdedisse, circumdatum
        (commemorō) commemorāre,
        -āvisse, -ātum
```

| (convocō) convocāre, -āvisse, -ātum (cōpulō) cōpulāre, -āvisse, -ātum | call together join, connect |
| :---: | :---: |
| (dēsīderō) dēsīderāre, -āvisse, -ātum | long for, miss |
| (fatīgō) fatīgāre, -āvisse, -ātum | tire out, weary |
| (hortor) hortārī, hortātum | encourage, urge |
| (praestō) praestāre, praestitisse | furnish, fulfill |
| (properō) properāre, -āvisse, -ātum | hasten, hurry |
| (vulnerō) vulnerāre, -āvisse, -ātum | wound |
| $\begin{aligned} & \text {-ēre (2) } \\ & \text { (studeō) studēre, studuisse (+ dat.) } \end{aligned}$ | devote oneself to |
| -ere (3) |  |
| (adiungō) adiungere, adiūnxisse, adiūnctum | add to, join |
| (caedō) caedere, cecīdisse, caesum | beat, fell, kill |
| (cōgō) cōgere, coēgisse, coāctum | compel, force |
| (effundō) effundere, effūdisse, effūsum | pour out |
| (ērumpō) ērumpere, ērūpisse, ēruptum | break out |
| (excurrō) excurrere, excucurrisse or excurrisse, excursum | run out, rush out |
| (īnstruō) īnstruere, īnstrūxisse, instrūctum | draw up, arrange |
| (prōcurrō) prōcurrere, prōcucurrisse or procurrisse, prōcursum (prōgredior) prōgredī, prōgressum | run forward, charge go forward, advance |
| -īre (4) |  |
| (mūniō) mūnīre, mūnīvisse, mūnītum | fortify |
| Irregular |  |
| fore | = futurum esse |
| (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse, trānslātum | transfer, transport |
| (trānseō) trānsīre, trānsīvisse | cross, pass |
| diectīva |  |
| 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) |  |
| arduus, -a, -um | steep |
| dēnī, -ae, -a | ten at a time |
| dīrus, -a, -um | dreadful |
| horrendus, -a, -um | dreadful |
| idōneus, -a, -um | suitable |
| ōtiōsus, -a, -um | leisured, idle |
| posterus, -a, -um | next, following |
| prīvātus, -a, -um | private |
| pūblicus, -a, -um | public |

```
quaternī, -ae, -a
quīnī, -ae, -a
rīdiculus, -a, -um
sēnī, -ae, -a
trīnī,-ae,-a
ūnī,-ae,-a
3rd
citerior, citerius
incolumis, -e
mīlitāris, -e
ulterior, ulterius
```

Prōnōmina
plērīque, plēraeque, plēraque most
Adverbia
diūtius longer (comp. of diū)
etenim and indeed, for
ferē about, almost
praecipuē
prīdiē
quamdiū
tamdiū
Praepositiōnēs
citrā² ${ }^{2}$ (prp. + acc. $)$
secundum ${ }^{3}$ (prp. + acc.)
ultrā (prp. + acc.)
four at a time
five at a time
laughable, funny
six at a time
three at a time
one at a time
nearer
unharmed, safe
military
farther, more distant
most
longer (comp. of diū)
and indeed, for
about, almost
especially
the day before
how long, as long as
so long, as long
on this side
along
on that (the far) side
2. Although not used so in this book, citrā can also be used as an adverb.
3. Although not used so in this book, secundum can also be used as an adverb.

## XXXIV. Dē Arte Poēticā

## Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Verbs
a. Intransitive Verbs
b. Contraction
2. Nouns
a. "Poetic Plural"
b. Case use: in + Accusative
3. Meter
a. Syllables
i. Quantity
ii. Division
b. Metric Feet
i. Hexameter
ii. Pentameter
iii. Elegiac Couplet
iv. Hendecasyllables
4. Points of Style: Idiom for "to marry"

## Latin Poetry

By now you have advanced so far that you can begin to read Latin poetry. In this chapter, you find poems by Catullus (Gāius Valerius Catullus, c. 86-54 BC), Ovid (Pūblius Ovidius Nāsō, 43 BC-AD 17), and Martial (Mārcus Valerius Mārtiälis, c. AD 40-104). At the party, Cornelius starts by quoting a line from Ovid's Ars Amātōria, which encourages Julius and Cornelius to quote passages from a collection of love poems, Amōrēs, by the same poet. Julius goes on to read aloud some short poems by Catullus and a selection of Martial's witty and satirical epigrams (epigrammata). These epigrams are short poems in elegaic couplets (see below). ${ }^{1}$

[^60]
## Reading Poetry

When you first start reading poetry in Latin, you may, temporarily, have to disregard the verse form and concentrate on the content. Poetry's freer word order, in which word groups are often separated can present an obstacle to understanding until you grow accustomed to it. The inflectional endings will show you what words belong together; in some cases, you will find marginal notes to help you, e.g., ut ipsae spectentur (1.57), nōbilium equōrum (1.62), amor quem facis (1.65), meae puellae dīx̄̄ (1.71). Some supplementary (implied) words are given in italics. However, the important thing is to visualize the situation and enter into the poet's ideas. The comments the guests have made on the poems will be useful for this purpose.

## Meter

As you grow accustomed to reading verse, you will be better able to understand the meaning and content of the poems as you read. It is also important for you to study the structure of the verses, that is, the meter, which is intrinsic to the poetry. Meter is explained in the Grammatica Latina section. The following is a summary of the rules:

Syllabic Quantity: The decisive factor in Latin verse structure is the length or quantity of the syllables. Syllables ending in a short vowel ( $a, e, i, o, u, y$ ) are short and are to be pronounced twice as quickly as long syllables, i.e., syllables ending in a long vowel ( $\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{i}, \bar{o}, \bar{u}, \bar{y}$ ), a diphthong ( $a e, o e, a u, e u, u i$ ), or a consonant. In other words: a syllable is short if it ends in a short vowel; all other syllables are long. A long syllable is marked [-] and a short syllable [ $\cup$ ].

Syllabic Division: For the division into syllables, each verse (versus, "line") is treated like one long word:

- A consonant at the end of a word is linked with a vowel (or h-) at the beginning of the next. In a word like satis, therefore, the last syllable is short if the next word begins with a vowel or $h$-, e.g., in the combination satis est, where $-s$ is linked with the following $e$ in est: sa-tㅎ-s ${ }^{\cap}$ est-whereas the syllable tis is long in satis nōn est: sa-tis-nō-n ${ }^{\text {est. }}$
- A vowel (and -am, -em, -im, -um) at the end of a word is dropped before a vowel (or h-) beginning the next word, e.g., atque oculōs: atqu'oculōs; modo hūc: mod'hūc; passerem abstulistis: passer'abstulistis (in est and es, the $e$ drops, e.g., sōla est: sōla'st; vērum est: vērum'st; bella es: bella's). This is called elision: the vowel is said to be elided (Latin $\bar{e}$-līdere, "strike out," "squeeze out").

Metric Feet: Each verse can be divided into a certain number of feet (Latin pedēs) composed of two or three syllables. The commonest feet are:

- the trochee (Latin trochaeus), consisting of one long and one short syllable [ $-\cup$ ]
- the iamb (Latin iambus), one short and one long [ $\cup-$ ]
- the dactyl (Latin dactylus), one long and two short syllables [- UU]
- The two short syllables of the dactyl are often replaced by one long syllable, making a foot consisting of two long syllables [- -], which is called a spondee (Latin spondēus).

Hexameter: The favorite verse with Latin poets is the hexameter, which consists of six feet, the first four of which are dactyls or spondees-the 5th, however, is almost always a dactyl, and the 6th a spondee (or trochee). The last syllable "counts" as long, regardless of its actual length, which is indicated below by an asterisk (*) in the final position:

$$
-\underline{U U}|-\underline{U U}|-\underline{U U}|-\underline{U U}|-\cup \cup \mid-^{*}
$$

Pentameter: The hexameter often alternates with the slightly shorter pentameter, which can be divided into two halves of $21 / 2$ feet, each conforming to the beginning of the hexameter (but there are no spondees in the second half):

$$
-\underline{\cup U}|-\underline{U U}|-||-\cup \cup|-\cup \cup|-
$$

Elegiac Couplet: The pentameter never stands alone, but always comes after a hexameter (in the text the pentameters are indented). Such a couplet, consisting of a hexameter and a pentameter, is called an elegiac couplet because it was used in elegies, i.e., poems expressing personal sentiments, mainly love poems.

Hendecasyllables: Catullus frequently uses the hendecasyllable (Latin versus hendecasyllabus, "eleven-syllable verse"), which consists of these eleven syllables:

$$
---\cup \cup-\cup-\cup-^{*}
$$

It can be divided into a spondee, a dactyl, two trochees, and a spondee (or trochee). (Occasionally the first syllable is short.)

## Reading Verse Aloud

Latin verse rhythm is marked by the regular alternation of long and short syllables. Just as a long vowel takes twice the time to pronounce as a short vowel (cf. English "ăha!" versus "fāther"), a long syllable is equivalent to two short syllables. As you read Latin verse aloud, the quantity of the syllables is important. But! If you read the Latin naturally (as you have been doing throughout the book, aided by the text's marking of long vowels with macrons), the rhythm of
the verse will emerge. Latin poetry was meant to be heard-so practice reading it aloud. After enumerating the various demands of reading poetry, Quintilian (I.O. 1.8) gives this advice for successfully reading verse: $\bar{u} n u m$ est igitur quod in hāc parte praecipiam, ut omnia ista facere possit: intellegat ("There is, therefore, one thing that I would advise on this topic, so that he can do all those things: let him understand [what he reads]").

## Plural for Singular

The Roman poets sometimes use the plural ("poetic plural") instead of the singular, especially forms in $-a$ from neuters in -um, when they are in need of short syllables, e.g., mea colla ( 1.75 for meum collum) and post fāta ( 1.180 for post fātum). Like other authors, a Roman poet may also use the 1 st person plural ( $n \bar{o} s, n \bar{b} b \bar{s}$, noster) about himself. You see this when Catullus calls his friend venuste noster (1.152) and when Martial, in his epigram on the response of the public to his books, calls them libellōs nostrōs and concludes with the words nunc nōbīs carmina nostra placent (ll.163, 166).

## In + accusative $\rightarrow$ against

Martial, who himself writes poems in inimīcōs, says about the poet Cinna: versiculōs in mē nārrātur scrībere Cinna (1.172). Here in + accusative has "hostile" meaning ( $=$ contrā, cf. the phrase impetum facere in hostēs).

## Nominative and Infinitive with Passive Verbs

The passive nārrātur, like dīcitur (Cap. XIII, 1.52), is combined with the nom. + inf.: Cinnal scrībere nārrātur/dīcitur = Cinnam scrībere nārrant/dīcunt.

## Intransitive Verbs

Besides imperāre and pārēre, you have met many other verbs that take the dative:

| crēdere | appropinquāre |
| :--- | :--- |
| nocēre | placēre |
| oboedīre | (cōn)fīdere |
| impendēre | ignōscere |
| servīre | resistere |
| (per)suādēre | minārī |
| invidēre | studēre |
| parcere |  |

Several compounds with -esse also take a dative:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { prōd-esse } & \text { de-esse ("fail") } \\
\text { prae-esse } & \text { ad-esse ("stand by," "help") }
\end{array}
$$

In this chapter, you find further examples:
favēre (1.40)
nūbere (1.126)
plaudere (1.217)
The impersonal verb libet-like licet-is usually combined with a dative:
mihi libet (1.35, "it pleases me," "I feel like," "I want")
cf. mihi licet, "I may," "I am allowed"

## Contractions

- A double $i(i i, i \bar{i})$ is apt to be contracted into one long $\bar{i}$, as you have seen in the form $d \bar{\imath}$ for $d i \bar{\imath}$.
- When $h$ disappears in mihi and nihil, we get the contracted forms $m \bar{\imath}$ and $n \bar{l} l$ (e.g., ll.118, 174).
- You also find sapīistī for sapiistī (1.190)—the latter form being a contraction of sapivistī; the final $v$ of the perfect stem tends to disappear, so that:
-īisse becomes -iissel-īsse
- $\bar{a} v i s s e$ becomes -āsse
-āvistī becomes -āstī (Cap. XXVIII, 1.106)
nōvisse becomes nōsse
nōverat becomes nōrat
This last form, the pluperfect of nōscere, comes to mean "knew," e.g.:
Ovidius ingenium mulierum tam bene nōverat quam ipsae mulierēs. (11.54-55)
suamque nōrat ipsam (: dominam) tam bene quam puella mātrem (11.93-94)


## Points of Style

The idiom for "marry" is gendered in Latin, as is clear from the chapter:
Catullus Lesbiam uxōrem dūcere cupiēbat, nec vērō illa Catullō nūpsit, etsī affìrmābat 'sē nūllī alī̀ virō nūbere mālle (1.125-127)

A man "leads a woman (home)" into marriage (in mātrimōnium dūcere), whereas a woman "covers herself" (i.e., veils herself) for her husband (nūbere). In post-classical prose, nūbere can also be used for a man. But in classical Latin,
the distinction allows Martial to make the following disparaging joke (in addition to those you read at 11.190-191 and 192-193):

Uxōrem quārē locūplētem dūcere nōlim, Quaeritis? Uxōrī nūbere nōlo meae.
Inferior mātrōna suō sit, Prisce, marītō:
Nōn aliter fīunt fēmina virque pārēs.

## VIII. 12

(locūples, -ētis = dīves, -itis)

## Studia Rōmāna

Scrībimus indoctī doctīque poèmata passim: Everyone is writing poetry, both hacks and laureates; so says Horace in his verse letter to Augustus (Epist. 2.1.117), written at the close of the first century. The Romans came late to poetry. Livius Andronicus, a Greek slave, gets the credit for first translating Homer into Latin in the middle of the third century (c. 240 BC ). He needed texts with which to teach his Roman students, but the Romans had no poetry. Livius adapted Greek plays to Latin, both tragedies (tragoediae) and comedies in Greek dress (fābulae palliātae). The Romans harbored some ambivalence toward Greeks and Greek culture (an ambivalence that persisted, as the comment about Orontes "sed is Graecus est atque lībertīnus" (30.117) shows). But just as Greek myths captivated the Roman imagination (Cap. XXV), so too did Greek literature, art, and philosophy work its way into Roman culture. Many Romans were bilingual in Greek and Latin. For some, bilingual meant knowing as much Greek as they needed to do business (or to live as a soldier abroad in Greek-speaking lands). The well educated might be truly bilingual.

The Romans translated, they adapted, they imitated. Ennius, in the late third or early second century BC, translated the fourth-century BC Greek writer Euhemerus into Latin. Plautus, in the second century BC, adapted Greek comedies for a Roman audience; he jokes that his play, The Twin Menaechmi, imitates Greek-not the highbrow Greek comedy of Athens, but the farcical Greek comedies of Sicily (Menaechmi, 11-12):

Atque adeō hoc argūmentum graecissat, tamen nōn atticissat, verum sicilicissitat.

Graecissat and atticissat were colloquial speech. Sicilicissitat appears only here; it is a punch line. In Plautus's plays, we find the exuberance of one culture joyfully playing with the literature of another. Romans quickly became more refined and subtle in their interpretation of Greek literature. Plautus's younger contemporary Terence (Pūblius Terentius Āfer), a freed slave from North Africa, wrote a smooth and polished Latin, and defended his way of adapting Greek plays in argumentative prologues. By the time of the late re-
public, Roman writers had learned to look to Greek models as inspiration for a literature that was new, learned, and Roman. The influence of Greek eloquence inspired the Romans to look at Latin with an eye to taking their language to a new level. In the first century BC, Julius Caesar wrote a book on linguistic analogy; Cicero wrote extensively on orators and oratory; Mārcus Terentius Varrō wrote a book on the Latin language. It seemed everyone wrote poetry-just not everyone wrote it well (see the Horace quotation above).

The poets in our chapter cover a long time-span. Aemilia likes Plautus, who would, by the second century AD, be one of the ancients, having lived over three centuries prior to our narrative. Catullus wrote in the middle of the first century BC. A contemporary of Cicero (who also wrote poetry), Catullus greatly admired the poets of Hellenistic Greece (that is, Greece during and after Alexander the Great), as well as the-by his time-ancient Greek poets. Catullus and the other "New Poets" favored closely worked, allusive poetry. The citation of poets at the dinner begins with Ovid, one of the greatest poetic geniuses of the Roman world. Ovid was a much younger and greatly admiring contemporary of Vergil and Horace; he heard Horace read his poetry aloud, but only saw Vergil (Tristia 4.10.49-51: et tenuit nostrās numerōsus Horātius aurēs/dum ferit Ausonia carmina cultā lyrā./Vergilium vīdī tantum). Martial, the final and most quoted poet in the chapter, lived in the first century AD and is the closest to the time of our narrative.

The poets of the late republic and early empire remained unsurpassed in the power and virtuosity of their poetry. By the time of our narrative Vergil and Horace were studied in school as classic texts. The poetry of the first century AD boasted, in addition to Martial and Juvenal, the great epic poet Lucan, who wrote an epic in ten books about the great civil war between Julius Caesar and Pompey the Great. Martial died c. AD 104 and Juvenal c. AD 130; after them, almost no Latin verse from our time period (second century AD) has been preserved. Studium litterārum, however, was by no means finished. Educated Roman amateurs were still writing verse and holding recitations, either at private parties or at larger readings in auditōria. Pliny the Younger (AD 61-113) tells us much about these reading in his letters.

Our friends at the dinner party read the poetry of others, but we know people composed extemporaneous verse at dinner parties. Catullus tells us of playing a game of one-up-manship with his friend Licinius Calvus (another renowned poet of the time whose work-with the exception of a few lines-is unfortunately lost). They took turns writing lines of verse (Catullus 50). The Younger Pliny sends his friend a collection of verse in the hendecasyllabic meter (a favorite of Catullus) that he wrote "while riding in a carriage, while in the bath, while eating dinner, delightfully passing my leisure time" (Epist. 4.14: Accipiēs cum hāc epistulā hendecasyllabōs nostrōs, quibus nōs in vehiculō in balineō inter cānam oblectāmus ōtium temporis).

Cornelius claims he carries a copy of the poet Martial around with him at all times. By the time of our narrative, books in cōdex form (that is, resembling more closely our own books) had become common. In a volume of poetry containing epigrams attached to party favors, known as apophorēta ( ${ }^{\alpha} \pi \sigma \varphi о ́ \rho \eta \tau \alpha$ ), or "take away presents," Martial himself describes several of such small codices. Here's one (14.186) that claims to contain all of Vergil (Pūblius Vergilius Marō, hence, Marōnem) on its parchment (membrana):

Quam brevis inmensum cēpit membrāna Marōnem! Ipsīus vultūs prīma tabella gerit.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
1st
    arānea, -ae
    aurīga,-ae (m.)
    cōmoedia,-ae
    dēliciae, -ārum (f.pl.)
    lucerna,-ae
    nota,-ae
    opera, -ae
    palma,-ae
    tenebrae, -ārum (f.pl.)
2nd
    bāsium, -ī
    cachinnus, -\overline{1}
    circus, -i
    fǎtum,-ī
    gremium, -i
    ingenium, -1
    lūdus, -ī
    ocellus, -\overline{1}
    odium, -\overline{1}
    prīncipium, -i
    scalpellum, -\overline{1}
    theātrum, -i
3rd
    certāmen, certāminis (n.)
    gladiātor, -tōris (m.)
    mēns, mentis (f.)
    opēs, opum (f.pl.)
    passer, passeris (m.)
    ratiō, ratiōnis (f.)
    rēte, rētis (n.)
```

spider, cobweb
charioteer, driver
comedy
delight, pet
lamp
mark, sign
effort, pains
palm
darkness
kiss
laugh, guffaw
circle, orbit, Circus Maximus
fate
lap
nature, character
play, game, school
(little) eye
hatred
beginning
scalpel, surgical knife
theatre
contest, fight
gladiator
mind
wealth
sparrow
reason
net

```
    spectātor, spectātōris (m.)
    testis, -is (m.)
4th
    anus, -ūs (f.)
    rīsus, -ūs (m.)
    sinus -ūs (m.)
Indeclinable
    nīl
Grammatica
    dactylus, -i
    dipthongus, -i
    epigramma, epigrammatis (n.)
    hendecasyllabus, -i
    hexameter, hexametrī
    iambus, -i
    pentameter, pentametrī
    spondēus, -i
    trochaeus, -\overline{1}
    versiculus, -\overline{1}
Verba
-āre (1)
    (affirmō) affirmāre, affirmāvisse,
        affirmātum
    (certō) certāre, certāvisse, certātum
    (conturbō) conturbāre,
        conturbāvisse, conturbātum
    (dēvorō) dēvorāre, dēvorāvisse,
        dēvorātum
    (excruciō) excruciāre, excruciāvisse, torture, torment
        excruciātum
    (implicō) implicāre, implicuisse,
        implicitum
    (ōscitō) ōscitāre, ōscitāvisse, gape, yawn
        ōscitātum
    (pīpiō) pīpiāre, pīpiāvisse, pīpiātum chirp
-ēre (2)
    (faveō) favēre, fāvisse
    (libet) libēre
    (lūgeō) lūgēre, lūxisse
    -ere (3)
    (accendō) accendere, accendisse, light, enflame
        accēnsum
        (ēlīdō) èlīdere, èlīsisse, èlīsum
        (ērubēscō) ērubēscere, ērubuisse
    break thoroughly, omit, elide
    blush
```

| (laedō) laedere, laesisse, laesum (nūbō) nūbere, nūpsisse (+ dat.) | injure, hurt marry |
| :---: | :---: |
| (plaudō) plaudere, plausisse, plausum (+ dat.) | clap, applaud |
| (requīrō) requīrere, requīsīvisse, requīsitum | seek, ask |
| (sapiō) sapere, sapīvisse | be wise, have sense |
| -ire (4) |  |
| (circumsiliō) circumsilīre, circumsiluisse | hop about |
| (prōsiliō) prōsilīre, prōsiluisse | spring forth |
| Adiectīva |  |
| 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) |  |
| bellus, -a, -um | lovely, pretty |
| dubius, -a, -um | undecided, doubtful |
| geminus, -a, -um | twin |
| gladiātōrius, -a, -um | gladiatorial |
| iocōsus, -a, -um | humorous, funny |
| mellītus, -a, -um | sweet |
| misellus, -a, -um | poor, wretched |
| niveus, -a, -um | snow white |
| perpetuus, -a, -um | continuous, permanent |
| poēticus, -a, -um | poetical |
| scaenicus, -a, -um | theatrical |
| sērius, -a, -um | serious |
| tenebricōsus, -a, -um | dark |
| turgid(ul)us, -a, -um | swollen |
| ultimus, -a, -um | most distant, last |
| venustus, -a, -um | charming |
| 3rd |  |
| ācer, -cris, -cre | keen, active, fierce |
| circēnsis, -e | of the circus |
| Adverbia |  |
| dein | afterward, then |
| interdum | now and then |
| libenter | with pleasure, gladly |
| plērumque | mostly |
| Coniūnctiōnēs |  |
| dummodo | provided that, if only |

## XXXV. Ars Grammatica

Now that you have worked your way through all the declensions and conjugations of the Latin language, it is time to pause and take a comprehensive look at the grammatical system. To give you an opportunity to do this, we present, in a slightly abbreviated form, a Latin grammar, the Ars Grammatica Minor, written by the Roman grammarian Dōnātus, c. AD 350. This grammar is based on the works of earlier grammarians, rearranged in the form of question and answer, so it gives us an idea of the teaching methods used in antiquity-and much later, for the "Donat" was a favorite schoolbook in Europe throughout the Middle Ages. Now it is up to you to show that you have learned enough to answer the questions on grammar put to schoolchildren in the Roman Empire. Apart from omissions, marked [...], the text of Donatus is unaltered (in the examples on p. 303 of Lingua Latina, some infrequent words have been replaced by others).

The Latin grammatical terms are still in use. However, the part of speech (pars ōrātiōnis) that the Roman grammarians called nōmina is now divided into nouns (or substantives) and adjectives. The term nōmen adiectīvum dates from antiquity, but it was not till medieval times that the term nōmen substantīvum was coined (in English "noun substantive" as opposed to "noun adjective"). As a matter of fact, several of the Latin grammatical terms are adjectives that are generally used "substantively" with a noun understood, e.g.:

- (cāsus) nōminātīvus
- (numerus) plūrālis
- (modus) imperātīvus
- (gradus) comparātīvus
- (genus) fèminīnum (masculīnum, neutrum, commūne)

Genus is "gender" in English; Donatus counts four genders because he uses the term genus commune about words that may be both masculine and fem-
inine, e.g., sacerdōs -ōtis, "priest/priestess" (other examples are cīvis, incola, īnfäns, testis, bōs, canis).

The hexameter quoted by Donatus (1.212) to illustrate the use of super with the ablative is taken from the end of the first book of the Aeneid, the famous poem in which Vergil recounts the adventures of the Trojan hero Aeneas (Aenēās) during his flight from Troy (Trōia). Driven by a storm to Africa, he is received in Carthage (Carthāgō) by Queen Dī̀̄̄, who questions him about the fate of the other Trojans, King Priam (Priamus) and his son Hector.

## Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
    1st
        ira,-ae
        mūsa,-ae
    2nd
        scamnum, -i
    3rd
        admīrātiō, admīrātiōnis (f.)
        ōrātiō, ōrātiōnis (f.)
        sacerdōs, sacerdōtis (m./f.)
    4th
        affectus, -ūs (m.)
Grammatica
        appellātīvum, -ī (nōmen)
        cāsus, -üs (m.)
        causālis (coniūnctiō) (f.)
        comparātiō, comparātiōnis (f.)
        coniugātiō, coniugātiōnis (f.)
        coniūnctiō, coniūnctiōnis (f.)
        cōpulātīva (coniūnctiō) (f.)
        disiūnctīva (coniūnctiō) (f.)
        explētīva (coniūnctiō) (f.)
        interiectiō, interiectiōnis (f.)
        optātīvus (modus)
        positīvus (gradus)
        proprium, -\overline{1}}\mathrm{ (nōmen)
        quālitās, quālitātis (f.)
        quantitās, quantitātis (f.)
        ratiōnālis (coniūnctiō) (f.)
        significātiō, significātiōnis (f.)
```

anger
a muse (one of the nine daughters of Memory)
stool
wonder, admiration speech priest, priestess
mood, feeling
common noun
fall, case
causal conjunction
a comparison
conjugation
conjunction
copulative conjunction
disjunctive conjunction
exclamatory conjunction
interjection
optative (wishing) mood
positive degree ${ }^{1}$
proper noun
quality
quantity
conjunction showing the train
of thought
meaning, sense

1. Of an adjective or adverb.
speciēs, -ē̄̄ appearance, aspect, sort
synōnymum, -ī
synonym
Verba
-āre (1)
(explānō) explānāre, -āvisse, -ātum make intelligible, explain
(luctor) luctārī, luctātum
wrestle
(ōrdinō) ōrdināre, -āvisse, -ātum -ere (3)
(adnectō) adnectere, -nexuisse, bind, tie -nexum
(dēmō) dēmere, dēmpsisse, dēmptum (īnflectō) īnflectere, -flexisse, -xum mentiōnem facere bend, curve, inflect ${ }^{2}$ mention

## Adiectīva

1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
inconditus, -a, -um unpolished, rough
3rd
similis, -e
similar
Adverbia
dumtaxat only, just
forsitan
proptereā
quāpropter
quidnī
sīquidem
tantundem
maybe, perhaps
therefore
why
why not
seeing that, since
just as much
Praepositiōnēs
adversus/-um (prp. +acc.) toward, against
cis (prp. +acc.)
Interiectiōnēs
attat exclamation of joy, pain, wonder, fright
eia
èn
exclamation of joy, pleased surprise;
also "come on," "hurry up"
presents something important and/or unexpected
euax
papae
exclamation of joy
exclamation of wonder and joy

[^61]
## Grammatica Latina

## The Parts of Speech

The parts of speech, or word classes, are:

- Noun (or substantive), e.g. Mārcus, Rōma, puer, oppidum leō, aqua, color, pugna, mors, etc.
- Adjective, e.g. Rōmānus, bonus, pulcher, brevis, etc.
- Pronoun, e.g. $t \bar{u}, n \bar{o} s, i s, ~ h i c, ~ i l l e, ~ q u i s, ~ q u i ̄, ~ n e \bar{e} m \bar{o}$, etc.
- Verb, e.g. amāre, habēre, venīre, emere, īre, esse, etc.
- Adverb, e.g. bene, rēctē, fortiter, ita, nōn, hīc, etc.
- Conjunction, e.g. et, neque, sed, aut, quia, dum, sī, ut, etc.
- Preposition, e.g. in, $a b, a d$, post, inter, sine, dē, etc.
- Interjection, e.g. $\bar{o}$, ei, heu, heus, ecce, etc.
- Numerals are nouns and adjectives which denote numbers, e.g. trēs, tertius, ternī.
- Adverbs, conjunctions, prepositions and interjections are indeclinable words, so-called particles.


## NOUNS

## Gender, number, case

There are three genders: masculine, e.g. servus, feminine, e.g. ancilla, and neuter, e.g. oppidum.

There are two numbers: singular, e.g. servus, and plural, e.g. servī. Nouns which have no singular are called plūrālia tantum.
There are six cases: nominative, e.g. servus, accusative, e.g. servum, genitive, e.g. servī, dative, e.g. servō, ablative, e.g. ( $\bar{a}$ ) servō, and vocative, e.g. serve.

## Stem and ending

The stem is the main part of a word, e.g. serv-, ancill-, oppid-, magn-, brev-, to which various inflectional endings are added, e.g. -um, $-\bar{i},-a m,-a e,-\bar{o},-\bar{e} s,-i b u s$.
In the examples in this book the stem is separated from the ending with a thin vertical stroke [|], e.g. serv|us, serv|i.
parts of speech:
nouns(substantives)
adjectives
pronouns
verbs
adverbs
conjunctions
prepositions
interjections
numerals
particles
genders: masc., m.
fem., f.
neut., n .
numbers: sing. pl.
cases: nom.
acc.
gen.
dat.
abl.
voc.
stems: serv-, ancill-, oppid-, etc.
endings: $-\bar{\imath},-a m,-a e$, etc.
declension (decl.) 1 st decl.: gen. -ae 2nd decl.: gen. $-\bar{\imath}$ 3rd decl.: gen. -is 4th decl.: gen. $-\bar{u} s$ 5th decl.: gen. $-\bar{e} \bar{\imath} /-e \bar{i}$

## Declensions

There are five declensions:
1st declension: gen. sing. -ae, e.g. ìnsul|a-ae.
2nd declension: gen. sing. $-\bar{i}$, e.g. $\operatorname{serv} \mid u s-\bar{i}$, oppid $\mid u m-\bar{i}$.
3rd declension: gen. sing. -is, e.g. sōl sōl $|i s, u r b| s-i s$.
4th declension: gen. sing. $-\bar{u}$ s, e.g. man $\mid u s-\bar{u} s$.
5th declension: gen. sing. $-\bar{e} \bar{l} /-e \bar{l}$, e.g. $d i|\bar{e} s-\bar{e} \bar{l}, r| \bar{e} s-e \bar{l}$.

## First Declension

Genitive: sing. -ae, pl. -ārum.
Example: insul|a-ae f.
sing
nom. ìnsul|a $\overline{\text { ins }}$.
acc. insulam insulā̀s
gen. īnsulae īnsul ārum
dat. insul ae insul ìs
abl. īnsul|à īnsul|īs
Masculine (male persons): nauta, agricola, aurīga, pīrāta, poēta, etc.

## Second Declension

Genitive: sing. - $\bar{i}$, pl. -ōrum.

1. Masculine.

Examples: equ|us - $\bar{i}$, liber libr $\mid \bar{i}$, puer puer $\mid \bar{i}$.
sing. pl. sing. pl. sing. pl. nom. equius equī liber librī̀ puer puer $\bar{i}^{\bar{\imath}}$ acc. equlum equōs librum librōs puerlum puerōs


 voc. equle

A few are feminine, e.g. hum|us $-\bar{i}, \operatorname{papyr} \mid u s-\bar{i}$, Aegypt $\mid u s-\bar{i}$, Rhod|us -ì.
Nom. sing. -ius, voc. -ī: Iūlius, Iūlì! filius, filì!
2. Neuter.

Example: verb|um -i.
sing. pl.
nom. verb|um verb|a
acc. verbum verba
gen. verb $\bar{i}$ verb $\overline{\text { örum }}$
dat. verb $\bar{o}$ verb $\overline{\text { is }}$
abl. verb|ō verb|īs

## Third Declension

Genitive: sing. -is, pl. -um/-ium.
[A] Genitive plural: -um.

1. Masculine and feminine.

Examples: sōl sōllis m., leō leōn|is m., vōx vōc|is f.

|  | sing. | pl . | sing. | pl. | sing. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nom. | sōl | soll ēs |  | leōn ${ }_{\text {les }}$ | $v \bar{x}$ | $v o ̄ c l e ̀ s$ |
| acc. | sölem | sōl ès | leōn\em | leōn $\$ ès & vōclem & $v o ̄ c c e ̀ s$ |  |  |
| gen. | sōl is | sōlum | leön is | leōn ит | $v o ̄ c$ is | vōc um |
| dat. | $s o ̄ l i$ | sōl libus | leōn ī | leōn ibus | vōc $\bar{i}$ | vōc ibus |
| abl. | sōle | sōlibus | leōne | leōn ibus $^{\text {den }}$ | vōcle | vōclibus |

[1] Nom. -er, gen. -r|is: pater patr|is m., māter mātr|is f.
[2] Nom. or, gen. -ōr|is: pāstor -ōr|is m.
[3] Nom. -ōs, gen. -ōr|is: flōs flör|is m.
[4] Nom. -ō, gen. -in|is: virgō-in $\mid$ is f., homō-in $\mid$ is m.
[5] Nom. $-x$, gen. $-g|i s: l \bar{e} x ~ l e \bar{e} g| i s f ., r e \bar{x} r e \bar{g} \mid i s \mathrm{~m}$.
[6] Nom. -ex, gen. -ic|is: index -ic|is m.
[7] Nom. $-s$, gen. $-t \mid i$ s: aetās $-\bar{a} t \mid i s ~ f .$, mīles $-i t \mid$ is m .
[8] Nom. -s, gen. -d| is: laus laud|is f., pēs ped|is m.
[9] Irregular nouns: sanguis -in $\mid$ is m.; coniūnx-iug $\mid$ is m./f.; senex sen $\mid$ is m.; bōs bov|is m./f., pl. bov|ēs boum, dat./abl. bōbus/būbus.
2. Neuter

Examples: $\bar{o} s \bar{o} r \mid i s$, corpus corpor $\mid i s$, opus -er $\mid i s$, nōmen nōmin|is.

|  | sing. | pl. | sing. | pl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nom. | $\bar{o} s$ | or ${ }^{\text {a }}$ a | corpus | corporla |
| acc. | $\bar{o} s$ | $\bar{o} r a$ | corpus | corpora |
| gen. | $\overline{o r} r$ is | ōrum | corporlis | corpor um |
| dat. | $\bar{o} r$ ī | or r ibus | corpor ${ }^{\text {i }}$ | corportibus |
| abl. | $\bar{o} r \mid e$ | $\overline{o r}$ ¢ibus | corporle | corporribus |
| m | opus | operla | nömen | nōminla |
| acc. | opus | oper a | nōmen | nōmin ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| n. | operlis | oper um | nōminl is | nōmin um |
| da | oper ${ }^{\text {i }}$ | oper ibus | nōmin $\overline{\text { ì }}$ | nōmin ibus |
| abl. | operle | oper ibus | nōminle | nōminlibus |

Irregular nouns: cor cord|is; caput capit|is; lac lact|is; os oss $\mid$ is (gen. pl. -ium); mel mell|is; iter itiner $\mid$ is; vās vās $|i s, ~ p l . ~ v a ̄ s| a$ -ōrum (2nd decl.); thema -at|is.

| $-(i) s$ | $-\bar{e} s$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $-e m$ | $-\bar{e} s$ |
| $-i s$ | $-i u m$ |
| $-\bar{i}$ | $-i b u s$ |
| $-e$ | $-i b u s$ |
| $-i s$, acc. | $-i m$, abl. $-\bar{\imath}$ |
| $-\bar{e} s-i s$ |  |
| $-x-c \mid i s$ |  |


| $-e /-$ | $-i a$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $-e /-$ | $-i a$ |
| $-i s$ | $-i u m$ |
| $-\bar{\imath}$ | $-i b u s$ |
| $-\bar{i}$ | $-i b u s$ |


| $-u s$ | $-\bar{u} s$ | $-\bar{u}$ | $-u a$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $-u m$ | $-\bar{u} s$ | $-\bar{u}$ | $-u a$ |
| $-\bar{u} s$ | $-u u m$ | $-\bar{u} s$ | $-u u m$ |
| $-u \bar{u}$ | $-i b u s$ | $-\bar{u}$ | $-i b u s$ |
| $-\bar{u}$ | $-i b u s$ | $-\bar{u}$ | $-i b u s$ |

[B] Genitive plural: -ium.

1. Masculine and feminine.

Examples: $n \bar{a} v|i s-i s f ., u r b| s-i s f ., m o ̄ n s ~ m o n t \mid i s ~ m . ~$
 acc. nāv em nāvès urblem urblès montlem montèes gen. nāv is nāv ium urb is urb ium mont is mont ium dat. n $\bar{a} v \bar{i}$ nāvibus urb $\bar{i}{ }_{\bar{l}}$ urb ibus mont $\bar{i}$ mont ibus abl. nāv|e nāv|ibus urb|e urb|ibus mont|e mont|ibus
[1] Nom. -is, acc. -im (pl. -is), abl. -i: pupp|is -is f., Tiber $\mid$ is -is m.
[2] Nom. -ēs, gen. -is: nūb|ēs -is f.
[3] Nom. $-x$, gen. $-c \mid i s:$ falx falc| is f.
[4] Irregular nouns: nox noct $\mid$ is f.; nix niv|is f.; carō carn|is f.; as ass $\mid$ is m .; vīs, acc. $v i m$, abl. $v \bar{i}, \mathrm{pl} . v \bar{i} \mid \bar{e} s-i u m \mathrm{f}$.

## 2. Neuter

Examples: mar|e -is, animal-ālis.

|  | sing. | pl. | sing | pl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| m. | marle | marlia | animal | animālia |
| acc. | are | maria | animal | animāl ia |
| n. | mar is | marium | animàl is | animàl ium |
| at. | mar ${ }^{\text {i }}$ | mar ibus | animàlì | animāl ibus |
| b. | mar $\bar{i}$ | marlibus | animàl $\bar{i}$ | animālibus |

## Fourth Declension

Genitive: sing. - $\bar{s}$ s, pl. -uum.

Examples: port|us - $\bar{u} s \mathrm{~m}$., corn| $\bar{u}-\bar{u} s \mathrm{n}$. $\begin{array}{lll}\text { nom. port } \mid u s & \text { port } \mid \bar{u} s & \text { corn } \\ \text { acc. } & \bar{u} & \text { corn|ua } \\ \text { corn } \\ \text { corn }\end{array}$ | acc. | port $u m$ | port |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| gens. | corn | $\bar{u}$ | corn | ua |
| corn | port uum | corn | cornum |  |


dom|us -ūs f., abl. -ō, pl. dom|ūs -ōrum (-uum), acc. -ōs.

## Fifth Declension

Genitive: sing. $-\bar{e} /-e \bar{\imath}$, pl. $-\bar{e} r u m$.
Examples: $d i \mid \bar{e} s-\bar{e} \bar{\imath} \mathrm{~m}$. (f.), rēs reī f.

| nom. dilēs | diless | $r e \bar{s}$ | rēs |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| acc. diem | di ${ }^{\text {ès }}$ | rem | rēs |
| gen. diè̄̀̄ | dieèrum | reī | rērum |
| dat. diḕ̄̀ | di ēeus | reī | rēbus |
| abl. dieè | di ${ }^{\text {ēbus }}$ | $r e \bar{e}$ | rēbus |

## ADJECTIVES

## First and Second Declensions

[A] Genitive singular - $\bar{i}-a e-\bar{i}$.
Example: bon|us -a -um.
sing. pl. masc. fem. neut. masc. fem. neut. nom. bon|us bonia bon|um bon| $\bar{i}$ bonlae bon|a acc. bon um bon am bon um bon $\overline{\mathrm{o} s}$ bon ās bon a gen. bon $\bar{\imath}$ bonae bon $\bar{\imath}$ bon ōrumbonā̄rumbonō̄rum
 voc. bon|e Examples: niger -gr|a-gr|um, līber -er|a -er|um. sing. masc. fem. neut. masc. fem. neut. nom. niger nigr|a nigrlum līber līber|a līber|um acc. nigr|um nigr|am nigr|um līber|um līber|am līber|um etc. (as above, but voc. $=$ nom. $-e r$ )
[B] Genitive singular -īus.
Example: sōl|us -a -um, gen. -īus, dat. -i.

| sing. | nom. | masc. <br> sōlus | fem. <br> sōlla | neut. <br> sōlum | pl. (as bon\|ī-ae-a) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | acc. | sōl um | sōl am | sōl um |  |
|  | gen. | sōl $\overline{\text { ins }}$ | sōl i̇us | sōl ìus |  |
|  | dat. | sōl | sōl | sōl $\overline{\text { i }}$ |  |
|  | abl. | sōloo | sōla $\bar{a}$ | sōloò |  |

## Third Declension

[A] Genitive plural -ium (abl. sing. -ī).
Example: brev|is -e.
sing. masc./fem.
nom. brevis
acc. brevem
gen. brev is brev is
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { dat. } & \text { brev } & \text { brev } \\ \text { abl. } & \text { brev } & \bar{i} \\ \bar{i} & \text { brev }\end{array} \bar{i}$

## pl.

 masc./fem. neut. brevī̄s brevia brevés brevia brevium breviium brevibus brevibus brevibus brevibusExamples: ācer ācr|is ācr|e, celer-er|is -er|e. sing. masc. fem. neut. nom. ācer ācr|is ācrle acc. ācr|em äcrle masc. fem. $\begin{aligned} & \text { neut. } \\ & \text { celer celer } \mid \text { is } \\ & \text { celer } \mid \text { em }\end{aligned}$
$\begin{aligned} & \text { celer } \\ & \text { celer }\end{aligned}$ e etc. (as above) etc. (as above)
Examples: fèlīx, gen. -ic $\mid i s$; ingēns, gen. -ent $\mid i s(-\mathrm{x}<-\mathrm{c} \mid \mathrm{s},-\mathrm{ns}$ $<-n t \mid s)$
masc./fem. neut.
sing. nom. fêlix
acc. fêliclem fèlix
felix gen. felīc|is fēlīclis
masc./fem. neut. ingēns ingēns ingentlem ingēns ingent is ingent|is

| $-u s$ | $-a$ | $-u m$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $-u m$ | $-a m$ | $-u m$ |
| $-\bar{\imath}$ | $-a e$ | $-\bar{l}$ |
| $-\bar{o}$ | $-a e$ | $-\bar{o}$ |
| $-\bar{o}$ | $-\bar{a}$ | $-\bar{o}$ |
| $-\bar{\imath}$ | $-a e$ | $-a$ |
| $-\bar{o} s$ | $-\bar{a} s$ | $-a$ |
| $-\bar{o} r u m$ | $-\bar{a} r u m$ | $-\bar{o} r u m$ |
| $-\bar{\imath} s$ | $-\bar{l} s$ | $-\bar{l} s$ |
| $-\bar{i} s$ | $-\bar{\imath} s$ | $-\bar{l} s$ |
| $-e r$ | $-(e) r \mid a$ | $-(e) r \mid u m$ |


| $-u s$ | $-a$ | $-u m$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $-u m$ | $-a m$ | $-u m$ |
| $-\bar{i} u s$ | $-\bar{\imath} u s$ | $-\bar{\imath} u s$ |
| $-\bar{\imath}$ | $-\bar{\imath}$ | $-\bar{\imath}$ |
| $-\bar{o}$ | $-\bar{a}$ | $-\bar{o}$ |


| $-i s$ | $-e$ | $-\bar{e} s$ | $-i a$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $-e m$ | $-e$ | $-\bar{s} s$ | $-i a$ |
| $-i s$ | $-i s$ | $-i u m$ | $-i u m$ |
| $-\bar{i}$ | $-\bar{i}$ | $-i b u s$ | $-i b u s$ |
| $-\bar{i}$ | $-\bar{i}$ | $-i b u s$ | $-i b u s$ |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |
| -er-(e)r\|is |  |  |  |
| -(e)r\|em | $-(e) r \mid e$ |  |  |
|  |  | $-(e) r \mid e$ |  |


| $-s$ | $-s$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $-e m$ | $-s$ |
| $-i s$ | $-i s$ | etc. (as above) etc. (as above)


| $-e m$ | - |
| :--- | :--- |
| $-i s$ | $-i s$ |
| $-\bar{i}$ | $-\bar{i}$ |
| $-e$ | $-e$ |
| $-\bar{e} s$ | $-a$ |
| $-\bar{e} s$ | $-a$ |
| $-i u m$ | $-i u m$ |
| $-i b u s$ | $-i b u s$ |
| $-i b u s$ | $-i b u s$ |

degrees:
positive (pos.)
comparative (comp.)
superlative (sup.)
$-u s-a-u m /-(i) s(-e)$
-ior-ius -iōr $\mid$ is
-issim|us-a-um
$\begin{array}{ll}\text {-er } & \text {-illis } \\ \text {-(e)rior } & \text {-ilior } \\ \text {-errim|us } & \text {-illim|us }\end{array}$
[B] Genitive plural -um (abl. sing. ee).
Examples: prior prius, gen. priör $\mid$ is; vetus, gen. veter $\mid$ is.
masc./fem. neut.
sing. nom. prior prius acc. priōrlem prius
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { gen. } & \text { priōr } & \text { is } & \text { priō } \\ \text { dat. } & \text { prios } \\ \text { is } \\ \bar{i} & \text { priōr } \\ \bar{i}\end{array}$
abl. priōr e priōre
pl.

| nom. | priōr | $\bar{e} s$ | priōr | a |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| acc. | priōr | $\bar{e} s$ | priōr | a |
| gen. | priōr | um | priōr | um |
| dat. | priōr | ibus | priōr | ibus |
| abl. | priōr | ibus | priōr | ibus |

So pauper (m./f.), gen. -er|is; dìves, gen. dīvit|is.

## Comparison

There are three degrees: positive, e.g. longus, comparative, e.g. longior, and superlative, e.g. longissimus.

The comparative ends in -ior and is declined like prior. The superlative ends in -issim|us (-im|us) and is declined like bon|us.
[A] Superlative -issim|us.
pos. long|us-a-um brevis-e. fëlīx -īc|is comp. long ior-ius-iōr|is brev ior-ius-iōr|is fē̄̄̄c|ior-ius-iōr|is sup. long issim|us-a-um brev|issim|us-a-um fēlīc|issim|us -a-um
[B] Superlative -rim|us, -lim|us.
pos. piger-gr|a-gr|um celer-er $\mid$ is-er $\mid$ e facillis-e comp. pigr|ior-ius-iōr|is celerlior-ius-iōrlis facillior-ius-iōr|is sup. piger|rim|us-a-um celer|rim|us-a-um facil|lim|us-a-um
[C] Irregular comparison

| positive | comparative | superlative |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| bon\|us -a -um | melior -ius -iōr\|is | optim\|us -a -um |
| mal\|us -a-um | peior-ius -iōr\|is | pessim\|us -a-um |
| magn\|us -a-um | māior -ius -iōr\|is | māxim\|us -a-um |
| parv\|us-a-um | minor minus -ōr\|is | minim\|us -a-um |
| mult\|um -i | plūsplüris | plūrim um -ī |
| mult $\bar{i}-a e-a$ | plūr\|ēs -a-ium | plūrim\|ī-ae-a |
| (ìnfrā) ìnferlus | inferior -ius -iōr\|is | infim\|us/ìm|us -a-um |
| (suprā) super\|us | superior -ius -iōr\|is | suprēm\|us/summ|us -a-um |
| (intrā) | interior -ius -iōr\|is | intim\|us-a-um |
| (extrā) | exterior -ius -iōr\|is | extrēm\|us -a-um |
| (citrā) | citerior-ius -iōr\|is | citim\|us -a -um |
| (ultrā) | ulterior -ius -iōr\|is | ultim\|us -a-um |
| (prae) | prior-ius -iōr\|is | prim\|us-a -um |
| (post) | posterior -ius -iōr\|is | postrèm\|us -a-um |
| (prope) | propior-ius -iōrlis | proxim\|us -a-um |
| vetus -er is | vetustior-ius -iōr\|is | veterrim $u s$ - a-um |

## ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Adjectīves of the 1st/2nd declension form adverbs in -ē, e.g. $r e \bar{c} t|u s>r e \bar{c} c t| \bar{e}$.
Adjectives of the 3rd declension form adverbs in -iter, e.g. fort $\mid$ is $>$ fort $\mid$ iter.
The comparative of the adverbs ends in -ius (= neuter of the adjective), e.g. rēct tius, the superlative ends in -issime $(-i m \bar{e})$, e.g. rēct $\mid$ issimē.

| Adjective | Adverb |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| declension | positive | comparative | superlative |
| 1st/2nd rēct\|us | rētè | rēctius | rēctissimē |
| pulcher -chrla-um | pulchrē | pulchrius | ulcherrim |
| miser -er\|a-er|um | miserē | miserius | miserrime |
| 3rd fortis -e | fortiter | fortius | fortissime |
| àcer ācr is à | ācriter | àcrius | cerrime |
| celer-er\|is-erle | celeriter | celerius | clerrimē |
| fèlīx | fêlīiter | fêlīcius | fêlīcissimè |

Nom. sing. -ns, adverb -nter: prūdēns -ent|is, adv. prūdenter.
Some adjectives of the 1st/2nd declension form adverbs in -ō, e.g. certō, falsō, necessāriō, rārō, subitō, tūtō, prīmō, postrēmō (adjectives: cert|us, fals|us, necessāri|us, etc.).
Irregular adverbs: bene < bon|us, male < mal|us, valde $<$ valid|us, facile < facil|is, difficulter < difficillis, audācter < audāx.
$-\bar{e}$
-iter
-ius
-issime

| Roman | Arabic |
| :--- | :--- |
| I | 1 |
| II | 2 |
| III | 3 |
| IV | 4 |
| V | 5 |
| VI | 6 |
| VII | 7 |
| VIII | 8 |
| IX | 9 |
| X | 10 |
| XI | 11 |
| XII | 12 |
| XIII | 13 |
| XIV | 14 |
| XV | 15 |
| XVI | 16 |
| XVII | 17 |
| XVIII | 18 |
| XIX | 19 |
| XX | 20 |
| XXI | 21 |
| XXX | 30 |
| XL | 40 |
| L | 50 |
| LX | 60 |
| LXX | 70 |
| LXXX | 80 |
| XC | 90 |
| C | 100 |
| CC | 200 |
| CCC | 300 |
| CCCC | 400 |
| D | 500 |
| DC | 600 |
| DCC | 700 |
| DCCC | 800 |
| DCCCC | 900 |
| M | 1000 |
| MM | 2000 |
|  |  |

## NUMERALS

| Cardinal numbers | Ordinal numbers | Distributive numbers |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\bar{u} n \mid u s-a-u m$ | prim\|us -a -um | singul\| $\bar{\imath}-a e-a(\bar{u} n \mid \bar{l})$ |
| du\|o-ae -o | secund\|us | bīn ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| $t r \mid \overline{e s}$-ia | terti\|us | tern\|ī (trīn|ī) |
| quattuor | quārt\|us | quatern\|ī |
| quīnque | quint us | quīn\|ī |
| sex | sext\|us | sēn\|ī |
| septem | septim\|us | septēn\|ī |
| octō | octāv\|us | octōn\|ī |
| novem | nōn\|us | novēnli |
| decem | decim\|us | dēn\|ī |
| ùn-decim | un-decim\|us | ūn-dèn\|ī |
| duo-decim | duo-decim\|us | duo-dèn\|ī |
| trē-decim | terti\|us decim|us | tern\|ī dēn|ī |
| quattuor-decim | quärt\|us decim|us | quatern\|ì dēn|ì |
| quīn-decim | quīnt us decim us | quīn\|ī dēn|ī |
| sē-decim | sext\|us decim|us | sēn\|ì dēnlì |
| septen-decim | septim\|us decim|us | septēn\|ī dēn|ī |
| duo-dè-vīgintī | duo-dè-vīcesim\|us | duo-dè-vìcēn\|ī |
| $\bar{u} n-d \bar{e}-v i \bar{g} i n t \bar{\imath}$ | $\bar{u} n-$ dee-vīcēsim\|us | $\bar{u} n-d \bar{e}-v \bar{c} c \bar{e} n \mid \bar{i}$ |
| vīgintī | vīcēsim\|us | $v \bar{c} c e ̄ n \mid \bar{i}$ |
| vīgintì ūn\|us | vīcēsim\|us prìm|us | vīcēn $\bar{\imath}$ singul $\bar{\imath}$ |
| /ūn\|us et vīgintī | /ūn\|us et vīcēsim|us | /singul\|ì et vīcēn|ī |
| trīgintā | trīcēsim\|us | trīcēn\|ì |
| quadrāgintā | quadrāgēsim\|us | quadrāgēn\|ī |
| quīnquăgintā | quīnquàgēsim\|us | quīnquàgèn\|ī |
| sexāginta | sexāgèsim\|us | sexāgèn\|ī |
| septuăgintà | septuāgēsim\|us | septuāgēn\|ī |
| octōgintā | octōgēsim\|us | octōgēn\|ī |
| nōnägintā | nōnàgēsim\|us | nōnägēn\|ì |
| centum | centēsim\|us | centēn\|ī |
| ducent ${ }^{\text {i }}$-ae -a | ducentēsim\|us | ducēn\|ī |
| trecent $\bar{\imath}$ | trecentēsim\|us | trecēn $\bar{i}$ |
| quadringent ${ }^{\text {i }}$ | quadringentēsim\|us | quadringēn\|ī |
| quingent ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | quingentēsim\|us | quīngēn\|̄̄ |
| sescent\|ī | sescentēsim\|us | sescēn\|ī |
| septingent ${ }^{\text {i }}$ | septingentēsim\|us | septingēn\|ī |
| octingent ${ }^{i}$ | octingentēsim\|us | octingēn\| $\bar{l}$ |
| nōngent ${ }^{\text {i }}$ | nōngentēsim\|us | nōngèn\|ı̄ |
| mille | millēsim\|us | singula mīlia |
| duo mîlia | bis millēsim\|us | bina mīlia |

[1] $\bar{u} n \mid u s-a-u m$ is declined like sōl|us: gen. $-\bar{i} u s$, dat. $-\bar{\imath}$.
[2] $d u \mid o-a e-o$ and $\operatorname{tr} \mid \bar{e} s-i a$ :

|  | masc. | fem. | neut. | masc./fem.neut. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nom. | dulo | du\|ae | $d u \mid o$ | trless | tria |
| acc. | du $\bar{s} / 0$ | $d u \bar{a} s$ | $d u \mathrm{o}$ | tr ēs | tria |
| . | du ōrum | du $\overline{\text { a rum }}$ | du ōrum | trium | trium |
| dat. | du $\bar{o}$ bus | du $\bar{a} b u s$ | du ōbus | tr ibus | tr ibus |
| abl. | $d u \bar{o} b u s$ | du $\bar{a} b u s$ | du ōbus | tribus | tribus |

[3] millia-ium (n. pl.) is declined like mar|ia (3rd decl.).
Numeral adverbs

| $1 \times$ semel | $6 \times$ sexiēs | $11 \times$ ūndeciēs | $40 \times$ quadrāgiēs | $90 \times$ nōnāgiēs |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $2 \times$ bis | $7 \times$ septiēs | $12 \times$ duodeciēs | $50 \times$ quīnquāgiēs | $100 \times$ centiēs |
| $3 \times$ ter | $8 \times$ octiēs | $13 \times$ ter deciēs | $60 \times$ sexāgiēs | $200 \times$ ducentiēs |
| $4 \times$ quater | $9 \times$ noviēs | $20 \times$ vīciēs | $70 \times$ septuāgiēs | $300 \times$ trecentiēs |
| $5 \times$ quīnquiēs | $10 \times$ deciēs | $30 \times$ trīciēs | $80 \times$ octōgiēs | $1000 \times$ mīliēs |

## PRONOUNS

## Personal Pronouns

|  | 1st person |  | 2nd person |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | sing. | pl. | sing. | pl. |
| nom. | ego | nōs | $t \bar{u}$ | $v o ̄ s$ |
| acc. | $m \bar{e}$ | $n \bar{s} s$ | tè | $v \bar{s}$ |
| gen. | meī | nostrī/nostrum | $t u \bar{l}$ | vestrī/vestrum |
| dat. | mihi | nōbīs | tibi | $v o ̄ b \bar{s}$ s |
| abl. | $m \bar{e}$ | nōbīs | $t \bar{e}$ | $v o ̄ b i s$ |

- 3rd person and demonstrative pronoun
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { sing. } & \text { pl. } & & \text { reflexive } \\ \text { masc. fem. neut. } & \text { masc. fem. neut. } \\ \text { pronoun }\end{array}$ nom. $i|s \quad e| a$ n acc. $\begin{array}{lllll}\text { gen. } & \text { e ium } & \text { e } & \text { am } & i \mid d\end{array}$

dat. $\quad e |$| $\bar{i}$ | $e$ | $e \bar{i}$ | $e$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| elius |  |  |  |
| $i$ |  |  |  |

abl. e| $\quad$ ō $\quad e|\bar{a} \quad e| \bar{o}$ | masc. | fem. | neut. | pronoun |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $i \mid \bar{l}$ | $e \mid a e$ | $e \mid a$ |  |
| $e \mid \bar{o} s$ | $e \mid \bar{a} s$ | $e$ | $a$ |



## Possessive Pronouns

$\begin{array}{lll}\text { 1st pers. } & \text { me|us }-a-u m & \text { noster }-t r|a-t r| u m \\ \text { 2nd pers. } & \text { tu|us }-a-u m & \text { vester }-\operatorname{tr}|a-t r| u m\end{array}$
pl.

3rd pers. su|us-a-um (reflexive)
$m e \mid u s, v o c$. sing. $m \bar{u}$.

## Demonstrative Pronouns

| [1] | sing. |  |  | pl. |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | masc. | fem. | neut. | masc. | fem. | neut. |
| nom. | hic | haec | hoc |  | hae | haec |
| acc. | hunc | hanc | hoc | hōs | hās | haec |
| gen. | huius | huius | huius | hōrum | hārum | hōrum |
| dat. | huic | huic | huic | his | his | his |
| abl. | hōc | hāc | $h \bar{o} \mathrm{c}$ | his | his | his |
| [2] nom. | illle | illla | illlud | illlī | illlae | illla |
| acc. | ill um | ill am | ill ud | ill ${ }^{\text {oss }}$ | ill ${ }^{\text {ans }}$ | ill a |
| gen. | ill īus | ill itus | ill īus | ill örum | ill ärum | ill $\overline{\text { örum }}$ |
| dat. | illl $\grave{\imath}$ | illl $\bar{\imath}$ | illl $\bar{\imath}$ | ill ${ }^{\text {ins }}$ | ill ${ }^{\text {ins }}$ | ill ${ }^{\text {ins }}$ |
| abl. | illlō | ill ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | ill ${ }_{\text {ob }}$ | ill\|is | ill is | ill\|is |

[3] ist|e-a-ud is declined like ill|e-a-ud.
[4] ips|e-a-um is declined like ill|e except neut. sing. ips|um.
[5] is ea id, demonstrative and personal: see above.
[6] ī-dem ea-dem idem (< is ea id +-dem):
sing.
masc. fem. neut. nom.īdem eaderm idem acc. eundem eandem idem gen. eiusdem eiusdem eiusdem dat. eìdem eìdem eidem abl. eōdem eādem eōdem
pl.
masc. fem. neut. ī̄dem eaedem eadem eōsdem eāsdem eadem eōrundem eārundem eōrundem iīsdem ī̄sdem ī̄sdem ī̄̄dem ī̄sdem ī̄sdem
objective gen.:
nostrī, vestrīi
partitive gen.:
nostrum, vestrum
$m \bar{i}=m i h i$
nom. pl. $\left.e\right|^{\bar{\imath}}=i \mid \bar{i}$
$s \bar{e} s \bar{e}=s \bar{e}$
$e|\bar{i} s=i| \bar{i} s$
eius, eōrum, eārum (gen. of is ea id)
nēmō <ne- + homō $n \bar{l}=n i h i l$
neuter $<$ ne- + uter n. pl. (ali-)qua
-n-dam $<-m$-dam

## Interrogative Pronouns

[1] quis quae quid (subst.); quī/quis... quae... quod... (adj.).
sing
masc. fem. neut.
nom.
acc. quem quam quid/quod
gen. cuius cuius cuius
$\begin{array}{llll}\text { dat. } & \text { cui } & \text { cui } & \text { cui } \\ \text { abl. } & \text { quō } & \text { quā } & q u \bar{o}\end{array}$
pl.
masc. fem. neut. quī quae quae quōs quās quae quōrum quārum quōrum quibus quibus quibus quibus quibus quibus
[2] uter utr|a utr|um, gen. utr|īus, dat. utr|ī (like sōl|us, but nom. m. sing. uter).

Relative Pronoun
[1] quī quae quod

|  | sing. |  |  | pl. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| masc. | fem. | neut. | masc. | fem. | neut. |  |
| nom. | qū | quae | quod | qū̄ | quae | quae |
| acc. | quem | quam | quod | quōs | quās | quae |
| gen. | cuius | cuius | cuius | quōrum | quārum | qū̄rum |
| dat. | cui | cui | cui | quibus | quibus | quibus |
| abl. | quō | quā | quō | quibus | quibus | quibus |

[2] quī- quae- quod-cumque (indefinite relative) = quis-quis quid-quid/quic-quid (indecl. subst.).
Indefinite Pronouns
[1] nēmō, acc. nēmin|em, dat. nēmin|ī.
[2] nihil, neuter (indecl.).
[3] $\bar{u} l l \mid u s-a-u m$ and $n \bar{u} l l \mid u s-a-u m$ are declined like sōl|us.
[4] neuter-tr| $\mid$-tr|um and uter-que utr|a-que utr|um-que are declined like uter: gen. neutr|īus, utr|īus-que.
[5] alter -er $\mid a$-er $\mid u m$, gen. $-e r \mid \bar{\imath} u s$, dat. $-e r \mid \bar{i}$.
[6] ali|us $-a-u d$, dat. ali $i \bar{i}$ (gen. alter $\mid \bar{u} u s)$.
The following pronouns are declined like quis/qui:
[7] ali-quis/-quī -qua -quid/-quod and (sī, nisi, nē, num) quis/quī qua quid/quod.
[8] quis-quam quid-quam/quic-quam.
[9] quī-dam quae-dam quid-dam/quod-dam, acc. sing. m.
quen-dam, f. quan-dam, gen. pl. m./n. quōrun-dam, f.
quārun-dam.
[10] quis-que quae-que quid-que/quod-que.
[11] quī- quae- quid-/quod-vīs = quī- quae- quid-/quod-libet.

## VERBS

## Voice and Mood

The voice of the verb is either active, e.g. amat, or passive, e.g. amātur. Verbs which have no active voice (except participles and gerund), e.g. cōnārī, loquī, are called deponent verbs.
The moods of the verb are: infinitive, e.g. amāre, imperative, e.g. $a m \bar{a}$, indicative, e.g. amat, and subjunctive, e.g. amet.

## Tense, Number, Person

The tenses of the verb are: present, e.g. amat, future, e.g. amābit, imperfect, e.g. amābat, perfect, e.g. amāvit, pluperfect, e.g. amāverat, and future perfect, e.g. amāverit.
The numbers of the verb are: singular, e.g. amat, and plural, e.g. amant.

The persons of the verb are: 1st person, e.g. $a m \bar{o}, 2$ nd person, e.g. amās, and 3rd person, e.g. amat. Verbs which have no 1st and 2nd persons, e.g. licēre and pudēre, are called impersonal.

## Conjugations

There are four conjugations:
[1] 1st conjugation: inf. -āre, -ārī e.g. amāre, cōnārī.
[2] 2nd conjugation: inf. -ēre, -ērī e.g. monēre, verēr̄̄.
[3] 3rd conjugation: inf. -ere, -ī e.g. legere, ūtī.
[4] 4th conjugation: inf. -ìre, -ìrī e.g. audīre, partīrī.

## Stem

Verbal stems:
The present stem, e.g. amā-, mon $\bar{e}-$, leg-, aud $\overline{-}-$.
The perfect stem, e.g. $a m \bar{a} v$-, monu-, lē ${ }^{-}$, aud $\bar{\imath} v$-.
The supine stem, e.g. amāt-, monit-, lēct-, audīt-.
Personal endings

| $[1]$ | Active |  |  | Passive |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
|  | sing. | pl. | sing. | pl. |  |
| pers. 1 | $-m \overline{-} \bar{o}$ | - -mus | $-r /-$ or | - -mur |  |
| pers. 2 | $-s$ | $-t i s$ | $-r i s$ | - minin |  |
| pers. 3 | $-t$ | $-n t$ | $-t u r$ | $-n t u r$ |  |

[2] Endings of the perfect indicative active:

|  | sing. | pl. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pers. 1 | $\sim \bar{l}$ | $\sim$ imus |
| pers. 2 | $\sim i s t \overline{ }$ | $\sim$ istis |
| pers. 3 | $\sim$ it | $\sim \bar{e} r u n t$ ( $\sim \bar{e} r e)$ |

voice: act.
pass.
mood: inf. ind.
imp. subj.
tense: pres. perf.
imperf.
pluperf. fut. fut. perf.
number: sing.
pl.
person: 1
2
3
conjugations:
[1]-āre/-ārī
[2] - ère/-èr $\bar{\imath}$
[3]-ere $/-\bar{\imath}$
[4] $-\bar{i} r e /-\bar{i} r \bar{\imath}$
verbal stems:
present stem [-]
perfect stem [~]
supine stem [ $\approx]$

[^62]| $[1,2,4]$ | $[3]$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $-r e$ | - ere |
| ~isse |  |
| $\approx \bar{u} r \mid u s-a-u m e s s e$ |  |


| [1, 2, 4] | [3] |
| :---: | :---: |
| -ō | -ō |
| -s | -is |
| -t | -it |
| -mus | -imus |
| -tis | -itis |
| -(u)nt | -unt |
| [1, 2] | [3, 4] |
| -ba\|m | -ēba\|m |
| $-b \bar{a} \mid s$ | -ēbä\|s |
| -ba\|t | -ēba\|t |
| -bā\|mus | -ēbā\|mus |
| -bā\|tis | -ēbā\|tis |
| -ba\|nt | -èba\|nt |
| [1, 2] | [3, 4] |
| $-b \mid \bar{o}$ | -a\|m |
| -b\|is | $-\bar{e} \mid s$ |
| -b\|it | -e\|t |
| -b\|imus | - $\bar{e} \mid m u s$ |
| -b\|itis | -ē\|tis |
| -b\|unt | -e\|nt |
| $\sim \bar{i}$ |  |
| $\sim i s t \bar{l}$ |  |
| $\sim$ it |  |
| $\sim$ imus |  |
| $\sim$ istis |  |
| $\sim \bar{e} r u n t$ |  |
| $\sim$ eralm |  |
| $\sim e r a ̄ \mid s$ |  |
| $\sim$ eralt |  |
| $\sim e r a ̄ \mid m u s$ |  |
| $\sim$ erā\|tis |  |
| $\sim e r a \mid n t$ |  |
| $\sim e r \mid o ̄$ |  |
| $\sim e r i \mid s$ |  |
| $\sim e r i \mid t$ |  |
| $\sim$ eri\|mus |  |
| ~eri\|tis |  |
| ~eri\|nt |  |

## Conjugation

## [A] Active

Infinitive
present


## Indicative

## present

| sing. $1 \mathrm{am} \mid \bar{o}$ | mone ${ }^{\text {o }}$ | $\operatorname{leg} \bar{o}^{\circ}$ | audi ${ }^{\text {o}}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2 amā ${ }^{\text {a }}$ | monē $s$ | leg is | audī $s$ |
| 3 amast | mone $t$ | leg it | audi $t$ |
| pl. 1 amā mus | monè mus | leg imus | audī mus |
| 2 amä tis | monētis | leg itis | audī itis |
| 3 ama nt | mone $n$ t | leg\|unt | audi\|unt |
| imperfect |  |  |  |
| sing. 1 amā] ${ }^{\text {a }}$ a m | monēlba\|m | leg\|ēbalm | audil ${ }^{\text {ebja }}$ \|m |
|  | monè bā $s$ | leg èbà s | audi ${ }^{\text {audi }}$ èab |
| ${ }^{3} 1$ amà ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ba ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | monè $\bar{e}$ ba ${ }_{\text {and }}$ t | leg èba t | audi éba |
| pl. 1 | bà mu | legegè ēan mus | audi èbà m |
| 3 a amäl ba $n t$ | monē\|balnt | leg\|èbalnt | audi ēbal nt |
| future <br> sing. 1 |  |  |  |
| 2 amà $b$ is | mone ${ }^{\text {b }}$ b is | $\left.\left.\operatorname{leg}\right\|_{e}\right\|_{s}$ | audi ${ }_{\text {el }} \mid$ S |
| 3 amāb it | mone ${ }^{\text {b }}$ bit | leg elt | audi) et |
| pl. 1 amā ${ }^{\text {b imus }}$ | monè ${ }^{\text {b imus }}$ | lege èmus | audi è mus |
| 2 amāblitis | monēb bitis | legeètis | audile ${ }^{\text {e }}$ ¢is |
| 3 amā\|b|unt | monèb\|unt | $\operatorname{leg}\|e\| n t$ | audie ${ }^{\text {nt }}$ |
| sing. 1 amāv $\bar{i}$ | monulī | $l \bar{e} g$ I $\bar{i}$ | audì |
| 2 amāv istī | monu istī | legg istī | audìv istī |
| 3 amàv it | опи it | lèg it | audiv it |
| pl. 1 amāvimus | u imus | leg imus | audīv imus |
| 2 amāvistis | топи istis | leg istis | audiv vistis |
| 3 amāv $\overline{\text { errunt }}$ | moпи èrunt | leggèrunt | audīv $\bar{e} r u n t$ |
| pluperfect ${ }^{\text {a }}$ |  |  |  |
| sing. 1 amāv eralm | monu eralm | leg \|era m | audīveralm |
| 2 amāverā ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | monu erā s | lège eràs | audīv erā s |
| 3 amāveralt | monu erast | leg eraj | audī eral |
| pl. 11 amāv erā mus | топи erā mus | leğ erātmus | audivv erā m |
| 2 amāverātis | топи erātis | lèg erätis | audīverātis |
| 3 amāv\|era|nt | топи eralnt | legg\|era|nt | audìvera\|nt |
| ture perfect |  |  |  |
| sing. 1 amāv $\operatorname{er\|ō}$ | monulerlō | léglerlō | audīverlō |
| 2 amāverils | топи erils | lègerils | audīv erils |
| 3 amāv eri ${ }^{\text {c }}$ | monu eri ${ }_{\text {t }}$ | leg erit | audiv erit |
| pl. 1 amāv eri mus | топи eri mus | lèg erimu | audiv eri mus |
| 2 amār erijtis | топи eri tis | lèg erijtis | audīv eri tis |
| 3 amāv\|eri|nt | топи eri\|nt | leggerint | audiv \|eri|nt |

## Subjunctive



future perfect

| future perfect |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| sing 1 amāt $\dagger$ er | monitus | ${ }_{\text {lēct }}^{\text {erob }}$ Us | ${ }_{\text {audì }}$ eros | $\approx u s-a(-u m$ |  |
| sing. 1 erō |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2 eris | eris | eris | eris | eris |  |
| 3 erit | erit | erit | erit | erit |  |
| amāt $\bar{i}$ | monit $\bar{i}^{\square}$ | $l e \overline{c t} \mid \bar{i}$ | audìt $\mid \bar{i}$ | $\sim i-a e(-a)$ |  |
| pl. 1 erimus | erimus | erimus | erimus | erimus |  |
| 2 eritis | eritis | eritis | eritis | eritis |  |
| 3 erunt | erunt | erunt | erunt | erunt |  |
| Subjunctive |  |  |  |  |  |
| Present |  |  |  | [1] | $[2,3,4]$ |
| sing. 1 am $\|e\| r$ | mone ${ }^{\text {a }}$, ${ }^{\text {r }}$ | $\operatorname{leg}\|a\| r{ }^{\text {r }}$ | audi $\mid$ a ${ }^{\text {r }}$. | (-)e\|r | -a\|r |
| 2 am è ris | mone ${ }_{\text {a }}$ ris | $\operatorname{leg}$ är ris | audi ${ }_{\text {a }}$ ris | (-)èris | -ä\|ris |
| 3 am è ${ }^{\text {en }}$ tur | mone ä tur | $l e g ~ \underline{a b ~}{ }_{\text {lur }}$ | audi ${ }_{\text {a }}^{\text {a }}$ tur | (-)ètur | -ätur |
| pl. 1 ame ${ }^{\text {ej mur }}$ | mone ${ }_{\text {a }}$ mur | leg àmur | audi ä mur | (-)è\|mur | -ä\|mur |
| 2 am è $\operatorname{mini}$ | mone ${ }^{\text {a mini }}$ | $\operatorname{leg}$ àmin̄̄ | audi $\bar{a} \min { }^{\text {a }}$ | (-)èlmini | -ä\|minī |
| 3 amelntur | mone alntur | leg\|a|ntur | audi $a_{\text {a }}^{\text {ntur }}$ | (-)elintur | -a\|ntur |
| Imperfect ${ }_{\text {a }}{ }_{[1,2,4]}^{[3]}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | leg \|ere ${ }^{\text {r }}$ |  | -relr | -erelr |
| 2 amā rē ris | monè ree reis | leg ereêris | audī $r e \bar{e} r$ ris | -rêris | -erêlris |
| 3 amà ree tur | monérétur | legereètur | audî rêtur | -rètur | -ereltur |
|  | monè rè mur | leg erè mur | audi ree mur | -rē\|mur | -ere\|mur |
| 2 amàr rē mini | monēr rēminī | leg erē\|minī | audī $r$ rē minī | -rèmmini | -erē\|mini |
| 3 amā re\|ntur | monē\|re|ntur | leg\|ere|ntur | audī re\|ntur | -relntur | -ere\|ntur |
| Perfect |  |  |  |  |  |
| sing. 1 sim | sim | sim | sim | sim |  |
| 2 sis | sis | $s i \bar{s}$ | sis | sis |  |
| 3 sit | sit | sit |  | sit |  |
| ${ }^{\text {amāt }} \bar{i}$ | monit $\bar{i}$ | $l \bar{e} c t \mid \bar{i}$ | audìt ${ }^{i}$ | $\approx i-a e(-a)$ |  |
| pl. 1 sïmus | simus | simus | sìmus | simus |  |
| 2 sitis | sitis | sitis | sitis | sitis |  |
| 3 sint | sint | sint | sint | sint |  |
| Pluperfect |  |  |  |  |  |
| - amāt\|us | monit\|us | lēet\|us | audit \|us | $\approx u s-a(-u m$ |  |
| sing. 1 essem | essem | essem | essem | essem |  |
| 2 essēs | essēs | essēs | essēs | essess |  |
| 3 esset | esset | esset | esset | esset |  |
| amāt $\bar{i}^{\text {a }}$ | monit ${ }^{i}$ | lēct $\bar{i}$ | audit $\mid \bar{i}$ | $\approx i$-ae (-a) |  |
| pl. 1 essēmus | essēmus | essemus | essēmus | essèm |  |
| 2 essētis | essētis | essētis | essētis | esseetis |  |
| 3 essent | essent | essent | essent | essent |  |
| $\underset{\text { Perfect }}{\text { Participle }}$ |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |
| amāt\|us | monit\|us | lēet\|us | audit $\mid$ us | $\approx \sim s-a-u m$ |  |
| -a-um | -a-um | -a-um | -a-um |  |  |
| Gerundive ama\|nd|us | $\begin{aligned} & \text { mone }\|n d\| u s \\ & -a-u m \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { leg\|end\|us } \\ & -a-u m \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \text { audi\|end\|us } \\ & -a-u m \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} {[1,2]} \\ -n d \mid u s-a \\ -u m \end{gathered}$ | $\underset{- \text { end\|us }-a}{[3,4]}$ |



nölle $<$ ne- + velle
mälle $<$ magis + velle
$n o ̄ l \mid \bar{i}-\bar{i} t e+i n f$.
passive (impersonal) ${ }_{i} \mid r \bar{\imath}$
${ }_{\bar{i}} \mathbf{i} t u r \bar{i}|b \bar{a}| t u r$ ī $|b| i t u r$
e|ā|tur ī|rē|tur
gerundive:
e|und|um (est)
3. Infinitive velle, nōlle, mālle

Indicative

| pres. | vollō | nōl ${ }^{\text {o }}$ | $m a \bar{l} \mid \underline{o}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | $v \bar{l} s$ | nōn vis | $m \bar{a} v \bar{l} s$ |
|  | vul\|t | nōn vult | māvult |
|  | vollumus | nōl\|umus | māl\|umus |
|  | vulltis | nōn vultis | māvultis |
|  | volunt | nōlunt | mālunt |
| imperf. | vol è balm | $n \bar{l} l$ èba $m$ | $m a \bar{l}$ èba\|m |
|  | vol èbals | $n o ̄ l l e e ̀ b a ̄ s ~$ |  |
| fut. | vol ${ }_{\text {a }} \mathrm{l}^{\text {a }}$ m |  | $m \overline{a b l}\|a\| m$ |
|  | vol\|ē|s | $n o ̄ l\|e \bar{e}\| s$ | $m a ̀ l\|e ̄\| s$ |
| Subjunctive |  |  |  |
| pres. | vell im $m$ | nōlilm | māl $i \mid m$ |
|  | vel il $s$ |  | màl $\bar{l}$ il $s$ |
|  | vel it $t$ | $n \bar{l} \mathrm{l}$ i $i$ | $m a \bar{l}$ i it |
|  | vel ì mus | nōl ì mus | $m a ̄ l i ̄ ̀ m u s$ |
|  | vellī tis | nōl î tis | māl $\bar{i}$ tis |
|  | velli\|nt | $n \bar{l} l i l n t$ | māllint |
| imperf. | velle $m$ | nölle ${ }^{\text {a }}$ m | mālle ${ }^{\text {a }}$ - m |
|  | vellē ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | nōllē s | mälle ${ }^{\text {a }}$ S |
|  | velle t | nōlle $t$ | mālle $t$ |
|  | vellē mus | nōllē mus | māllē mus |
|  | vellētis | nōllè tis | māllè tis |
|  | velle\|nt | nōlle\|nt | mālle\|nt |
| Participle pres. <br> vollēns <br> nōllēns |  |  |  |
| Imperative |  |  |  |
| sing. |  | nōl ${ }^{\text {l }}$ |  |
| pl. |  | nōl l te |  |

## 4. Infinitive $\bar{i} \mid r e$

Indicative Subjunctive Imperative

| pres. | imperf. | fut. | pres. | imperf. | pres. fut. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| e $\mid \bar{o}$ | i balm | ${ }^{1}\|b\|{ }_{0}$ | e $\|a\| m$ | i re \|m | $\bar{i} \mid t o \bar{o}$ |
| ${ }^{i} \mid$ | $\bar{i} b \bar{a}$ S | $\bar{i} b$ is | $e \bar{a} s$ | ${ }^{1} \mid r e \bar{e} s$ | ìle il tōte |
| $i t$ | $\bar{i}$ ba t | $\overline{\text { i }}$ b it | e a $t$ | i ret $t$ | Participium |
| i mus | $\bar{i}$ bab mus | i b imus | e àmus | ī rē mus | i\|ēns e|unt|is |
| ${ }^{\text {i }}$ - tis | $\bar{i}$ i bab tis | $\bar{i} b$ itis | $e$ a tis | $\overline{\text { ì rē }}$ tis | Gerundium |
| e\|unt | i balnt | ${ }_{i} \mid$ b unt | e\|a|nt | $\overline{\text { i }}$ re\|nt | e\|und|um |

## 5. Infinitive $f i \mid e r \bar{\imath}$

Indicative Subjunctive

| pres. | imperf. | fut | pres. | imperf. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| ${ }_{f i}{ }^{\prime} \bar{O}$ | fîlebalm | filalm | $f_{i}\|a\| m$ | filerelm |
| fî $s$ | $f_{i} \bar{e} e \bar{b} b \bar{a}$ | $f_{i l}$ el $\bar{e} \mid s$ | $f_{i \bar{l}} \bar{a} \mid s$ | $\mathrm{fil}_{\text {l erē }}$ |
| fit | $f_{i} \bar{e} e \bar{e} a l$ | fîle $t$ | $f_{i}$ a ${ }^{\text {l }}$ | filere $t$ |
| fî mus | fîèbā mus | fîēmus | fì $\bar{a}$ mus | fierēmus |
| fī tis | fī] $\bar{e} b \bar{l}$ a $t$ s | $\mathrm{f}_{\bar{i}} \overline{\mathrm{l}}$ elt tis | $\mathrm{fi}_{\bar{i}} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$ 位s | $\mathrm{fi}_{\text {ferè tis }}$ |
| fī unt | $f_{\text {fil }} \bar{e}$ èba\|nt | fîle\|nt | $\mathrm{fi}_{\bar{i}} \mathrm{a} \mid n t$ | filerent |

6. Infinitive: active $f e r \mid r e$, passive $f e r \mid r \bar{i}$

Indicative

7. Infinitive: act. $\bar{e} s \mid s e$, pass. $e d \mid \bar{i}$

| Indicati |  |  | Subjunctiver |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| pres. | imperf. | fut. | pres. | imperf. |
| ed ${ }^{\text {ob }}$ | ed ${ }^{\text {eleba }}$ \|m | ed \|a|m | ed $\mid$ im $(-a \mid m$ | $\overline{e s} s$ se $\mid m$ |
| $\bar{e} s$ |  |  |  | $\overline{e s} s s \bar{e} s$ |
| $\overline{e s} \mid t$ | ed edeba $t$ | ed ed ${ }^{\text {t }}$ | ed it $t(-a \mid t)$ | $\overline{e s} s$ se $\quad t$ |
| ed\|imus | ed è èà mus | ed è mus | ed ì mus (-ä\|mus) | éss sē |
| esstis | ed ēbā tis | ed è tis | ed $\bar{i}$ tis ( $(-\bar{a} \mid$ tis $)$ | ès sē tis |
| ed\|unt | edlèba\|nt | ed\|ent | ed $\|i\| n t(-a \mid n t)$ | $\overline{e s}\|s e\| n t$ |
| Imperati pres. | $s \mid t e$ | Participle ed\|ēns | Gerund ed\|end|um | undive d\|us |

fut. $\overline{e s} \mid t o ̄$-tōte

## 8. Infinitive da|re

Present stem da- (short $a$ ): da|re, da|mus, da|ba|m, da|b|ō, $d a|r e| m$, etc., except $d \bar{a}$ (imp.), $d \bar{a} \mid s(i n d . p r e s .2$ sing.), $d \bar{a} \mid n s$ (pres. part.).
Defective verbs
9. ait

Indicative


## 10. inquit

Indicative

pres. | inquam |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| inquis | -- | fut. -- |
| inquit | inquiunt | inquiēs |
|  | inquiet |  | inquin

pass. ind. pres. 3rd pers.


| Third conjugation |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 39. leg\|ere | lēglisse | lēet\|um |  |
| 40. è-lig\|ere | -lēg\|isse | -lēct\|um |  |
| 41. em\|ere | $\bar{e} m \mid$ isse | èmpt\|um |  |
| 42. red-im\|ere | -ēm\|isse | -èmpt\|um |  |
| 43. cōn-sìd\|ere | -sēd\|isse |  |  |
| 44. $\overline{e s} \mid$ se ed $\mid \bar{o}$ | $\bar{e} d \mid$ isse | $\overline{e s} \mid u m$ |  |
| 45. ag\|ere | $\overline{e g} \mid$ isse | $\bar{a} c t \mid u m$ |  |
| 46. cōg\|ere | co-èglisse | co-āct\|um |  |
| 47. cap\|ere -iō | cēplisse | capt\|um |  |
| 48. ac-cip\|ere -iō | -cēp\|isse | -cept\|um | re-cipere |
| 49. fac\|ere -iō | féclisse | fact\|um | imp.fac! |
| 50. af-fic\|ere -iō | -féclisse | -fect\|um | cön-ef- inter-per-ficere |
| 51. iac\|ere -iō | $i \bar{e} c \mid i s s e$ | iact\|um |  |
| 52. ab-ic\|ere -iō | -iēclisse | -iect\|um | ad-è-prō-icere |
| 53. fug\|ere -iō | füg\|isse |  | au-effugere |
| 54. vinclere | viclisse | vict\|um |  |
| 55. fund\|ere | füd\|isse | fūs\|um | effundere |
| 56. re-linqu\|ere | -līqu\|isse | -lict\|um |  |
| 57. rumplere | $r u ̄ p \mid i s s e$ | rupt\|um | $\bar{e}$-rumpere |
| 58. frang\|ere | frēg\|isse | fräct\|um |  |
| 59. carplere | carps\|isse | carpt\|um |  |
| 60. dìlere | dīx\|isse | dict\|um | ${ }^{\text {imp. }}$ diç $!$ dūc! |
| 61. dūclere | $d \bar{u} x \mid i s s e$ | duct\|um | ab-è-re-dūcere |
| 62. scrïb\|ere | scrīpslisse | scrīpt $\mid$ um | in-scribere |
| 63. nūb\|ere | $n u \overline{p s}$ \|isse | nupt\|um |  |
| 64. $a$-spic\|ere -iō | -spex\|isse | -spect\|um | cön-dè-prō-re-su- |
| 65. al-lic\|ere-iō | -lēx\|isse | - lect\|um | spicere |
| 66. reg\|ere | rēx\|isse | rēct\|um |  |
| 67. cor-riglere | -rex\|isse | -rēct\|um |  |
| 68. perg\|ere | per-rēx\|isse |  |  |
| 69. surg\|ere | sur-rēx\|isse |  |  |
| 70. dilig\|ere | dìlēx\|isse | dìlēct\|um |  |
| 71. intelleg\|ere | intellexx\|isse | intellēct\|um |  |
| 72. negleg\|ere | neglexxisse | neglēet $\mid$ um |  |
| 73. cing\|ere | cinx\|isse | cinct\|um |  |
| 74. iung\|ere | iūnx\|isse | iūnct\|um | ad-con-dis-iungere |
| 75. coqu\|ere | cox\|isse | coct\|um |  |
| 76. trah\|ere | trāx\|isse | tract\|um | con-dè-re-trahere |
| 77. veh\|ere | vexp\|isse | vect\|um | ad-in-vehere |
| 78. in-stru\|ere | -strūx\|isse | -strūct\|um |  |
| 79. flu\|ere | flūx\|isse |  | in-fluere |
| 80. vīv\|ere | $v \bar{x} \mid$ isse |  | part. fut. vict\|ür $\mid$ us |
| 81. sūm\|ere | sūmps\|isse | sūmpt\|um | cōn-sümere |
| 82. prōm\|ere | prōmps\|isse | prōmpt\|um |  |
| 83. dèm\|ere | dèmps\|isse | dèmpt\|um |  |

```
in-flectere
ac-dis-prō-re-cēdere
```

$\bar{a}$-ad-d $\bar{\imath}-$ per-prō- remittere
sub-mergere
ap-dē-ex- im-prae-repōnere
in-colere
sur-ripere
re-cumbere

| 84. ger\|ere | gess\|isse | gest\|um |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 85. $\bar{u} r \mid$ ere | uss\|isse | ust $\mid$ um |
| 86. fïglere | fixlisse | fīx\|um |
| 87. flect\|ere | flex\|isse | flex\|um |
| 88. cēd\|ere | cess\|isse | cess\|um |
| 89. claudlere | claus\|isse | claus\|um |
| 90. in-clūdlere | -clūs\|isse | -clūs\|um |
| 91. dìvid\|ere | dīvississe | diviss\|um |
| 92. lūd\|ere | lūs\|isse | lūs\|um |
| 93. laed\|ere | laes\|isse | laes\|um |
| 94. $\bar{e}$-līd\|ere | -līs\|isse | -liss\|um |
| 95. plaud\|ere | plaus\|isse | plaus\|um |
| 96. mitt\|ere | mīs\|isse | miss\|um |
| 97. quat\|ere -iō | -- | quass\|um |
| 98. per-cut\|ere -iō | -cuss\|isse | -cuss\|um |
| 99. merglere | mers\|isse | mers\|um |
| 100. sparg\|ere | spars\|isse | spars\|um |
| 101. a-sperglere | -spers\|isse | -spers\|um |
| 102. prem\|ere | press\|isse | press\|um |
| 103. im-prim\|ere | -press\|isse | -press\|um |
| 104. contemn\|ere | contēmps\|isse | contēmpt\|um |
| 105. stern\|ere | strāv\|isse | strāt\|um |
| 106. cern\|ere | crēv\|isse | crēt\|um |
| 107. ser\|ere | sēv\|isse | sat\|um |
| 108. arcess\|ere | arcessivlisse | arcessit\|um |
| 109. cup\|ere -iō | cupiv\|isse | cupit $\mid$ um |
| 110. sap\|ere -iō | sapi\|isse |  |
| 111. pet\|ere | petīv\|isse | petit\|um |
| 112. quaer\|ere | quaesīv\|isse | quaesit $\mid$ um |
| 113. re-quirlere | -quīsīv\|isse | -quīsìt\|um |
| 114. sin\|ere | sīv\|isse | sit\|um |
| 115. dēsin\|ere | dēsi\|isse | dēsit\|um |
| 116. pōn\|ere | posu\|isse | posit\|um |
| 117. al\|ere | alu\|isse | alt\|um |
| 118. col\|ere | colu\|isse | cult\|um |
| 119. dēser\|ere | dēseru\|isse | dēsert\|um |
| 120. raplere -iō | rapu\|isse | rapt\|um |
| 121. $\bar{e}$-riplere-iō | -ripu\|isse | -rept\|um |
| 122. trem\|ere | tremulisse |  |
| 123. frem\|ere | fremulisse |  |
| 124. ac-cumb\|ere | -cubulisse |  |
| 125. tang\|ere | tetig\|isse | tāct\|um |
| 126. cad\|ere | cecid\|isse |  |
| 127. ac-cid\|ere | -cidlisse |  |
| 128. caed\|ere | cecīd\|isse | caes ${ }^{\text {um }}$ |
| 129. oc-cìd\|ere | -cīd\|isse | -ciss\|um |


| 130. curr\|ere | cucurr\|isse | curs\|um |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 131. ac-curr\|ere | -curr\|isse | -curs\|um | ex-oc-per-prō-currere |
| 132. par\|ere -iō | peperlisse | part\|um |  |
| 133. pell\|ere | pepulisse | puls\|um |  |
| 134. parclere | peperc\|isse |  |  |
| 135. can\|ere | cecin\|isse |  |  |
| 136. fall\|ere | fefell\|isse |  | per-red-trā-dere |
| 137. ad-d\|ere | -did\|isse | -dit\|um |  |
| 138. crēd\|ere | crēdid\|isse | crēdit\|um |  |
| 139. vēnd\|ere | vēndid\|isse |  | dè-re-sistere |
| 140. cōn-sist\|ere | -stit\|isse |  |  |
| 141. scind\|ere | scid\|isse | sciss ${ }^{\text {um }}$ |  |
| 142. bib\|ere | bib\|isse |  |  |
| 143. dēfend\|ere | dēfend\|isse | dēfēèns\|um | ap-re-prehendere |
| 144. prehend\|ere | prehendisse | prehēns\|um | cōn-dè-scendere |
| 145. a-scend\|ere | -scend\|isse | -scēns\|um |  |
| 146. ac-cend\|ere | -cend\|isse | -cēns\|um |  |
| 147. ostend\|ere | ostend\|isse | ostent\|um | $\bar{a}$-con-vertere |
| 148. vert\|ere | vert\|isse | vers\|um |  |
| 149. minu\|ere | minulisse | minūt\|um |  |
| 150. statu\|ere | statu\|isse | statūt\|um |  |
| 151. cōn-stitulere | -stitu\|isse | -stitūt\|um |  |
| 152. indu\|ere | indu\|isse | indūt\|um |  |
| 153. metu\|ere | metu\|isse |  |  |
| 154. solv\|ere | solv\|isse | solūt\|um | $\bar{e}$-volvere |
| 155. volv\|ere | volv\|isse | volūt\|um | re-quiēscere |
| 156. quiēsc\|ere | quiēv\|isse |  |  |
| 157. crēsc\|ere | crēv\|isse |  |  |
| 158. èrubēsc\|ere | èrubulisse |  |  |
| 159. nōsc\|ere | nōv\|isse |  |  |
| 160. ignōsc\|ere | ignōv\|isse | ignōt\|um |  |
| 161. cognōsc\|ere | cognōv\|isse | cognitum |  |
| 162. pāsc\|ere | pāv\|isse | pāstum |  |
| 163. posc\|ere | poposc\|isse |  |  |
| 164. disc\|ere | didiclisse |  |  |
| 165. fer\|re | tul\|isse | lāt\|um |  |
| 166. af-fer\|re | at-tullisse | ad\|lātum |  |
| 167. au-fer\|re | abs-tul\|isse | ab\|lātum |  |
| 168. ef-fer\|re | ex-tullisse | e-lāt\|um |  |
| 169. of-fer\|re | ob-tul\|isse | ob-lāt\|um |  |
| 170. re-fer\|re | rettulisse | re-lāt\|um | per-prae- prō- trāns-ferre |
| 171. toll\|ere | sustul\|isse | sublāt\|um |  |
| 172. in-cip\|ere-iō | coeplisse | coept\|um |  |
| 173. fīd\|ere | fiss\|um esse |  | cōn-fidere |
| 174. revert $\mid \bar{i}$ | revert\|isse | revers\|um |  |
| 175. loqu\|ī | locūt\|um esse |  | col-loquī |


| cōn-per-sequì | 176. sequ\|ī | secūt\|um esse |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 177. quer $\bar{\imath}$ | quest\|um esse |  |
|  | 178. mor $\bar{\imath}$-ior | mortu\|um esse |  |
|  | 179. pat $\mid \overline{\text {-ior }}$ | pass\|um esse |  |
| prō-gredī | 180. $\bar{e}$-gred $\mid \bar{\imath}$-ior | -gress\|um esse |  |
|  | 181. $\bar{u} t \mid \bar{l}$ | $\bar{u} s \mid u m$ esse |  |
|  | 182. complect $\mid \bar{\imath}$ | complex\|um esse |  |
|  | 183. lāb\|ī | lāps\|um esse |  |
|  | 184. nāsc\|ī | nāt\|um esse |  |
|  | 185. proficīsc\|ī | profect\|um esse |  |
|  | 186. oblīvīsc\|ī | oblìt\|um esse |  |
|  | Fourth conjugation |  |  |
|  | 187. aperī\|re | aperulisse | apert\|um |
|  | 188. operī\|re | operu\|isse | opert\|um |
|  | 189. salī\|re | salulisse |  |
| circum-prō-silīre ex-haurīre | 190. dē-sil̄\|re | -silu\|isse |  |
|  | 191. haurī\|re | haus\|isse | haust\|um |
|  | 192. vincî\|re | $v \bar{n} x \mid$ isse | vīnct\|um |
|  | 193. sentì $r e$ | sēns\|isse | sēns\|um |
| ad-con-in-per-re- venīre | 194. venī\|re | $v e \bar{n}$ isse | vent\|um |
|  | 195. reperī\|re | repperlisse | repert\|um |
| ab-ad-ex-per-red-sub-trāns-irre | 196. ì re e $\mid \bar{o}$ | i\|isse | $i t \mid u m$ |
|  | 197. opperī\|rī | oppert\|um esse |  |
| pres. stem orī-/ori- | 198. orī\|rī oril|tur | ort\|um esse |  |
|  | Irregular verbs III |  |  |
|  | pres. inf. |  |  |
|  | 199. vellle vollō |  | volu\|isse |
|  | 200. nōlle |  | nōlu\|isse |
| inter-prae-super-esse | 201. mālle |  | mālu\|isse |
|  | 202. eslse sum |  | fulisse |
| fut. part. futūr ${ }_{\text {us }}$ | 203. posse pos-sum |  | potu\|isse |
| fut. inf. futūrlum esse, fore | 204. ab-esse |  | $\bar{a}$-fulisse |
|  | 205. ad-esse ad-/as-sum |  | af-fu\|isse |
|  | 206. de-esse dē-sum |  | $d \bar{e}-f u \mid$ isse |
|  | 207. prōd-esse prō-sum | prō-fulisse |  |
|  | 208. fi\|erī $f \bar{i} \mid \bar{o}$ |  | fact\|um esse |

## Alphabetical List of Irregular Verbs

(Numbers refer to the lists of irregular verbs by conjugation that begin on page 349.)

## A

abdūcere 61
abesse 204
abicere 52
abïre 196
abstinēre 13
accēdere 88
accendere 146
accidere 127
accipere 48
accubāre 1
accumbere 124
accurrere 131
addere 137
adesse 205
adicere 52
adìre 196
adiungere 74
adiuvāre 5
admittere 96
advehere 77
advenïre 194
afferre 166
afficere 50
agere 45
alere 117
allicere 65
ämittere 96
aperīre 187
appōnere 116
apprehendere 144
arcessere 108
ascendere 145
aspergere 101
aspicere 64
audēre 37
auferre 167
aufugere 53
augēre 24
āvertere 148
B
bibere 142
C
cadere 126
caedere 128
canere 135
capere 47
carpere 59
cavēre 18
cēdere 88
cēnsēre 14
cernere 106
cingere 73
circumdare 9
circumsilìre 190
claudere 89
cögere 46
cognōscere 161
colere 118
colloquī 175
complectī 182
complēre 17
cōnficere 50
cōnfidere 173
cōnfitèrī 35
coniungere 74
cönscendere 145
cōnsequī 176
cōnsīdere 43
cōnsistere 140
cōnspicere 64
cōnstāre 8
cōnstituere 151
cōnsūmere 81
contemnere 104
continēre 13
contrahere 76
convenīre 194
convertere 148
coquere 75
corrigere 67
crēdere 138
crēscere 157
cubāre 1
сиреге 109
currere 130
D
dare 9
dēesse 206
dēfendere 143
dèlēre 15
dēmere 83
dēpōnere 116
dērīdēre 28
dēscendere 145
dēserere 119
dēsilìre 190
dēsinere 115
dēsistere 140
dēspicere 64
dètergēre 30
dëtrahere 76
dīcere 60
dīligere 70
dimittere 96
discēdere 88
discere 164
disiungere 74
dissuādēre 29
dividere 91
docēre 10
dūcere 61
E
èdūcere 61
efferre 168
efficere 50
effugere 53
effundere 55
égredì 180
éicere 52
èlīdere 94
èligere 40
emere 41
ēripere 121
ērubēscere 158
érumpere 57
esse 202
ésse 44
èvolvere 155
excurrere 131
exhaurize 191
exīre 196
explère 17
expōnere 116
F
facere 49
fallere 136
fatērī 34
favēre 19
ferre 165
fidere 173
fierī 208
figere 86
flectere 87
flēre 16
fluere 79
frangere 58
fremere 123
fugere 53
fundere 55
G
gaudēre 38
gerere 84
H
haurīe 191
I
iacere 51
ignōscere 160
implēre 17
implicāre 3
impōnere 116
imprimere 103
incipere 172
inclüdere 90
incolere 118
induere 152
inflectere 87
influere 79
inscrībere 62
instruere 78
intellegere 71
interesse 202
interficere 50
invehere 77
invenire 194
invidēre 23
ìre 196
iubēre 27
iungere 74
iuvāre 5

## L

lābī 183
laedere 93

| lavāre 6 | percurrere 131 | R | solvere 154 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| legere 39 | percutere 98 | rapere 120 | spargere 100 |
| loquī 175 | perdere 137 | recēdere 88 | stāre 7 |
| lūcēre 25 | perferre 165 | recipere 48 | statuere 150 |
| lūdere 92 | perficere 50 | recumbere 124 | sternere 105 |
| lūgēre 26 | pergere 68 | reddere 137 | suādēre 29 |
| M | perīre 196 | redimere 42 | subīre 196 |
| mālle 201 | permittere 96 | redire 196 | submergere 99 |
| manēre 31 | permovēre 20 | redūcere 61 | sūmere 81 |
| mergere 99 | persequī 176 | referre 170 | superesse 202 |
| metuere 153 | persuādēre 29 | regere 66 | surgere 69 |
| minuere 149 | pervenīre 194 | relinquere 56 | surripere 121 |
| miscēre 11 | petere 111 | remanēre 31 | suspicere 64 |
| mittere 96 | plaudere 95 | remittere 96 | sustinēre 13 |
| mordēre 33 | pōnere 116 | removēre 20 | T |
| morī 178 | poscere 163 | reperīre 195 | tangere 125 |
| movēre 20 | posse 203 | repōnere 116 | tenēre 12 |
| N | possidēre 22 | reprehendere 144 | tergēre 30 |
| nāscī 184 | praeesse 202 | requiēscere 156 | tollere 171 |
| neglegere 72 | praeferre 165 | requīrere 113 | trädere 137 |
| nölle 200 | praepōnere 116 | resistere 140 | trahere 76 |
| nōscere 159 | praestāre 8 | respondère 32 | trānsferre 165 |
| nūbere 63 | prehendere 144 | retinēre 13 | trānsīre 196 |
| nûbere 63 | premere 102 | retrahere 76 | tremere 122 |
| 0 | prōcēdere 88 | revenīre 194 |  |
| oblīvīscī 186 | prōcurrere 131 | revertī 174 |  |
| occidere 127 | prōdesse 207 | rīdère 28 | urere 85 |
| occīdere 129 | prōferre 165 | rumpere 57 | ütī 181 |
| occurrere 131 | proficīscī 185 | S | V |
| offerre 169 | prōgredì 180 | salīre 189 | vehere 77 |
| operīre 188 | prōicere 52 | sapere 110 | velle 199 |
| opperīrī 197 | prōmere 82 | scindere 141 | vēndere 139 |
| orīrī 198 | prōmittere 96 | scrībere 62 | venire 194 |
| ostendere 147 | prōsilìre 190 | secāre 4 | vertere 148 |
| P | prōspicere 64 | sedēre 21 | vetāre 2 |
| parcere 134 | Q | sentīre 193 | vidēre 23 |
| parere 132 | quaerere 112 | sequī 176 | vincere 54 |
| pāscere 162 | quatere 97 | serere 107 | vincire 192 |
| patī 179 | querī 177 | sinere 114 | vivere 80 <br> volvere 155 |
| pellere 133 | quiēscere 156 | solēre 36 | volvere 155 |

## Index of Nouns, Adjectives and Verbs

## Nouns

1st Declension
Gen. sing. -ae, pl. -ārum

| Feminine |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| āla | fenestra | littera | puella |
| amīca | fera | lucerna | риgna |
| amīcitia | filia | lūna | rēgula |
| ancilla | förma | татта | ripa |
| anima | fortūna | margarīta | rosa |
| aqua | fossa | māteria | sagitta |
| aquila | fuga | mātrōna | scaena |
| arānea | gemma | memoria | sella |
| audācia | gena | mènsa | sententia |
| bestia | glōria | mora | silva |
| catēna | grammatica | Mūsa | stèlla |
| cauda | grātia | nātūra | syllaba |
| causa | hasta | nāvicula | tabella |
| cēna | herba | nota | tabula |
| cēra | hōra | opera | terra |
| charta | iactūra | ōra | toga |
| columna | iānиа | paenīnsula | tunica |
| cōmoedia | iniūria | pāgina | turba |
| cōpia | inopia | palma | umbra |
| culīna | insula | patientia | $\bar{u} v a$ |
| сӣra | invidia | patria | vēna |
| dea | ìra | ресӣпia | via |
| domina | lacrima | репna | victōria |
| epistula | laetitia | persōna | vigilia |
| fäbula | lāna | pila | villa |
| fäma | lectīca | poena | vinea |
| familia | līnea | porta | virga |
| fēmina | lingua | prōvincia | vīta |
| (pl.) |  |  |  |
| cünae | dīvitiae | nōnae | tenebrae |
| dēliciae | kalendae | nūgae | tībiae |
| Masculine | minine) |  |  |
| agricola | convīva | nauta | poēta |
| aurīga | incola | parricīda | pirāata |

## 2nd Declension

Gen. sing. $-\bar{l}$, pl. $-\bar{o} r u m$

1. Nom. sing. -us (-r)

Masculīne

| agnus | deus | locus | рugnus |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| amīcus | digitus | lūdus | pullus |
| animus | discipulus | lupus | rāmus |
| annus | dominus | maritus | rēmus |
| ānulus | equus | medicus | rīvus |
| asinus | erus | modus | sacculus |
| avunculus | filius | mundus | saccus |
| barbarus | fluvius | mūrus | servus |
| cachinnus | fundus | nāsus | sēstertius |
| calamus | gallus | nìdus | somnus |
| calceus | gladius | numerus | sonus |
| campus | hortus | питтия | stilus |
| capillus | inimìcus | nūntius | tabernārius |
| cibus | labyrinthus | о̄сеапия | taurus |
| circus | lacertus | ocellus | titulus |
| cocus | lectus | oculus | tyrannus |
| colōnus | lēgātus | ōstiārius | umerus |
| delphīnus | libellus | petasus | ventus |
| dènārius | lībertīnus | populus | zephyrus |
| (nom. sing. -er) |  |  |  |
| ager agrī | faber -brī | magister -trī | puer-erī |
| culter -trī | liber -brī | minister -trī | vesper -erī |
| (pl.) |  |  |  |
| līberī |  |  |  |
| Feminine |  |  |  |
| humus | papyrus | Aegyptus | Rhodus |

2. Nom. sing. -um, plur - $a$

Neuter

| aedificium | exemplum | mōnstrum | scamnum |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| aequinoctium | factum | negōtium | scūtum |
| arātrum | fātum | odium | saeculum |
| argentum | ferrum | officium | saxum |
| ätrium | filum | oppidum | scalpellum |
| aurum | folium | ōrnāmentum | signum |
| auxilium | forum | ōsculum | silentium |
| baculum | fretum | ōstium | solum |
| balneum | frūmentum | ōtium | speculum |
| bāsium | fūrtum | о̄vum | stipendium |
| bellum | gaudium | pābulum | studium |
| beneficium | gremium | pallium | supplicium |
| bonum | imperium | ресӣlium | talentum |
| bracchium | impluvium | ре̄пsum | tēctum |
| caelum | ingenium | perīculum | templum |
| capitulum | initium | peristylum | tergum |
| cerebrum | instrūmentum | pilum | theātrum |
| colloquium | labrum | pirum | triclīnium |
| collum | lignum | pōculum | vāllum |
| cōnsilium | līlium | praedium | vēlum |
| convīvium | lucrum | praemium | verbum |
| cubiculum | maleficium | pretium | vestīgium |
| dictum | malum | principium | vestimentum |
| dōnum | mālum | prōmissum | vinum |
| dorsum | mendum | respōnsum | vocābulum |
| (pl.) |  |  |  |
| arma -ōrum | castra -ōrum | loca -ōrum | vāsa -ōrum |

## 3rd Declension

Gen. sing. -is

1. Gen. pl. -um

Masculine
āèr āeris amor -öris arātor -ōris bōs bovis calor -öris carcer -eris cardō-inis clämor -ōris color -öris comes-itis coniūnx-iugis cruor-ōris dolor -öris dux ducis eques -itis fidicen-inis flōs söris fräter - tris für füris (pl.) parentēs-um septentriōnēs-um
Feminine aestās-ātis aetās -ätis arbor-oris condiciō-ōnis crux-ucis cupiditā̄s-ātis expugnātiō-ōnis fêlicitās-ātis hiems -mis imāgō-inis laus laudis legiō-ōnis lèx lēgis lībertās -ātis lūx lūcis
(pl.)
frūgēs-um opēs-u
Neuter (pl. nom. /acc. -a) agmen-inis
caput-itis carmen-inis certāmen-inis cognōmen-inis cor cordis corpus -oris crūs-üris epigramma -atis flumen-inis frī̀us -oris fulgur -uris genus -eris (pl.) verbera -um
mentiō-ōnis ratiō -ōnis nārrātiō-ōnis soror-ōris nūtrīx-īcis uxor-ōris $\bar{o} r a ̄ t i o ̄-o ̄ n i s \quad v i r g o ̄-i n i s$ pāx pācis potestās -ātis pōtiō -ōnis pulchritūdō-inis

| gladiātor -ōris | piscātor -ōris |
| :---: | :---: |
| grex-egis | praedō -ōnis |
| gubernātor -ōris | princeps-ipis |
| homō-inis | pudor-ōris |
| hospes -itis | pulmō-ōnis |
| iānitor -ōris | rēx rēgis |
| imperātor -ōris | rūmor -ōris |
| iuvenis -is | sacerdōs -ōtis |
| labor -ōris | sāl salis |
| leō-ōnis | sanguis -inis |
| mercātor -ōris | senex senis |
| milles-itis | sermō-ōnis |
| mōs mōris | sōl sōlis |
| $\overline{\text { ordō-inis }}$ | spectātor -ōris |
| passer -eris | tībīcen-inis |
| pāstor -ōris | timor -ōris |
| pater-tris | victor -ōris |
| pedes-itis |  |
| pēs pedis |  |

māter-tris quālitās -ātis mercēs-ēdis salūs-ūtis mulier-eris servitūs-ūtis multitūdō-inis significātiō-ōnis nāvigātiō-ōnis tempestās -ātis nex necis tranquillitās -ātis nux nucis valētūdō-inis virtūs -ūtis voluntās -ātis vorāgō-inis vōx vōcis
precēs-um
pectus-oris
pecus -oris phantasma-atis praenōmen-inis rūs rūris scelus -eris sēmen -inis tempus -oris thema-atis vās vāsis vēr vēris vulnus -eris

| 2. Gen. pl. -ium |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Masculine |  |  |
| amnis | hostis | oriēns -entis |
| as assis | ignis | orbis |
| cīvis | imber -bris | pānis |
| collis | infāns -antis | piscis |
| dēns dentis | mēnsis | pōns pontis |
| ènsis | mōns montis | testis |
| finis | occidēns -entis | venter -tris |
| Feminine |  |  |
| apis | famēs-is | ovis |
| ars artis | foris | pars partis |
| auris | frōns-ontis | puppis |
| avis | gēns gentis | ratis |
| caedēs-is | mēns mentis | sitis |
| carō carnis | merx -rcis | urbs -bis |
| classis | mors -rtis | vallis |
| clāvis | nāvis | vestis |
| cohors -rtis | nix nivis | vītis |
| cōnsonāns -antis | nox noctis | vōcālis |
| falx-cis | $n u \bar{e} \bar{s}-i s$ |  |
| (pl. ) |  |  |
| fides -ium | sordēs -ium | vīēs-ium |
| Neuter animal-ālis | mare -is | rēte-is |
| (pl. ) |  |  |
| mīlia-ium | moenia-ium |  |

## 4th Declension

Gen. sing. - $\bar{s}$ s, pl. -uum
Masculine

| affectus | cursus | impetus | sinus |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| arcus | equitātus | lacus | strepitus |
| cantus | exercitus | metus | tonitrus |
| cāsus | exitus | passus | tumultus |
| cōnspectus | flūctus | portus | versus |
| currus | gradus | rīsus | vultus |
| Feminine |  |  |  |
| anus | domus | manus |  |
| (pl. ) |  |  |  |
| $\bar{i} \overline{d u s}-u u m ~$ |  |  |  |
| Neuter |  |  |  |
| cornū | genū |  |  |

## 5th Declension

Gen. sing. $-\bar{e} \bar{l} /-e \bar{\imath}(\mathrm{pl} .-\bar{e} r u m)$
Feminine

| aciēs $-\bar{e} \bar{l}$ | glaciēs $-\bar{c} \bar{\imath}$ | fidēs $-e \bar{\imath}$ | spēs $-e \bar{\imath}$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| faciēs $-\bar{e} \bar{\imath}$ | speciēs $-\bar{e} \bar{\imath}$ | rēs reì |  |

faciēs -ḕ̄ speciēs -è̄ rēs rḕ
Masculine
diēs $-\bar{e} \bar{\imath} \quad$ merīdiēs $-\bar{e} \bar{\imath}$

## Adjectives

## 1st/2nd Declension

| Nom. sing. m. -us, f. -a, n. -um |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| acerbus | ferus | mellìtus | rēctus |
| acūtus | fessus | mercātōrius | reliquus |
| adversus | fidus | merus | rīdiculus |
| aegrōtus | foedus | meus | Rōmānus |
| aequus | fōrmōsus | minimus | rūsticus |
| albus | frīgidus | mīrus | saevus |
| aliēnus | fugitīvus | misellus | salvus |
| altus | futūrus | molestus | sānus |
| amìcus | gemmātus | mortuus | scaenicus |
| amoenus | gladiātōrius | mundus | scelestus |
| angustus | glōriōsus | mūtus | secundus |
| antīquus | grātus | mūtuus | septimus |
| apertus | gravidus | necessārius | serēnus |
| arduus | horrendus | nimius | sērius |
| argenteus | ignārus | niveus | sevērus |
| armātus | ignōtus | nōnus | sextus |
| asinīnus | immātūrus | nōtus | siccus |
| attentus | improbus | novus | situs |
| aureus | ìmus | nūbilus | sordidus |
| avārus | incertus | nūdus | studiōsus |
| barbarus | inconditus | obscūrus | stultus |
| beātus | indignus | octāvus | summus |
| bellus | indoctus | optimus | superbus |
| bonus | industrius | ōtiōsus | superus |
| caecus | inferus | pallidus | surdus |
| calidus | infēstus | parātus | suus |
| candidus | infìdus | parvulus | tacitus |
| cārus | infimus | parvus | tantus |
| cautus | inhūmānus | ресӣniōsus | tardus |
| celsus | inimīcus | perīculōsus | temerārius |
| centēsimus | iniūstus | perpetuus | tenebricōsus |
| certus | internus | perterritus | timidus |
| cēterus | invalidus | pessimus | tertius |
| clārus | iocōsus | plānus | togātus |
| claudus | īrātus | plènus | tranquillus |
| clausus | iūcundus | poēticus | turbidus |
| contrārius | iūstus | postrēmus | turgidus |
| crassus | laetus | praeteritus | tūtus |
| cruentus | laevus | prāvus | tuus |
| cūnctus | largus | pretiossus | ultimus |
| cupidus | Latīnus | prīmus | umidus |
| decimus | lātus | privātus | universus |
| dignus | legiōnārius | propinquus | urbānus |
| dimidius | ligneus | proprius | vacuus |
| dìrus | longus | proximus | validus |
| doctus | maestus | pūblicus | varius |
| dubius | magnificus | pūrus | venustus |
| dūrus | magnus | quantus | vērus |
| èbrius | malus | quārtus | vīvus |
| ègregius | maritimus | quiētus | -issimus |
| exiguus | mātūrus | quīntus | sup. |
| falsus | māximus | rapidus | -ēsimus |
| ferreus | medius | rārus | num. |



## 3rd Declension

Nom. sing. m./f. -is, n. $-e$

| brevis | fertilis | levis | rudis |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| circēnsis | fortis | mīlitāris | similis |
| commū̄nis | gracilis | mīrā̄ilis | tālis |
| crūdēlis | gravis | mollis | tenuis |
| dēbilis | humilis | mortālis | terribilis |
| difficilis | immortālis | nōbilis | trīstis |
| dulcis | incolumis | omnis | turpis |
| facilis | inermis | quālis | vīlis |
| Nom. sing. m./f./n. -ns, gen. - ntis |  |  |  |
| absēns | dēpōnēns | ingēns | prūdēns |
| amāns | dēligēns | neglegēns | sapiēns |
| clēmēns | frequēns | patiēns | -ns part. |
| cōnstāns | impatiēns | praesēns | pres. |

Nom. sing. m./f./n. $-x$, gen. -cis

| audāx | fēlīx | inffēl̄̄x |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| fallāx | ferōx | vēlōx |

Nom. sing. m. -er, f. -(e)ris, n. -(e)re
ācer ācris celer-eris September-bris
Octōber-bris November-bris December-bris

## Verbs

## 1st Conjugation

Inf. pres. act. -āre, pass. -ārī

| aberrāre | dare | iuvāre | properāre |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| accubāre | dēlectāre | labōrāre | pugnāre |
| accūsāre | dèmōnstrāre | lacrimāre | pulsäre |
| adiuvāre | dēsiderāre | lātrāre | putāre |
| adōrāre | dēspèrāre | laudāre | recitāre |
| aedificāre | dèvorāre | lavāre | rēgnäre |
| aegrōtāre | dictāre | levāre | rēmigāre |
| aestimāre | dōnāre | līberāre | repugnāre |
| affirmāre | dubitāre | memorāre | revocāre |
| amāre | èducäre | millitāre | rigāre |
| ambulāre | errāre | mōnstrāre | rogāre |
| appellāre | evvolāre | mūtäre | rogitāre |
| apportāre | excitāre | nārräre | salütāre |
| appropin- | exclāmāre | natāre | salvāre |
| quāre | excōgitāre | nāvigãre | sānāre |
| arāre | excruciäre | necäre | secāre |
| armãre | excūsāre | negäre | servāre |
| bālāre | existimãre | nōmināre | signāre |
| cantäre | exōrnāre | numerāre | significāre |
| cênāre | explānāre | nūntiāre | spectāre |
| certāre | expugnāre | occultāre | spēräre |
| cessāre | exspectāre | oppugnāre | spirāre |
| circumdare | fatīgäre | optāre | stäre |
| clāmäre | flàre | ōrāre | suscitāre |
| cōgitäre | gubernāre | ōrdināre | turbäre |
| commemo- | gustâre | ōrnāre | ululäre |
| rāre | habitāre | osscitâre | verberāre |
| comparāre | iactāre | palpitāre | vetāre |
| computāre | ignōrāre | parāre | vigiläre |
| cōnstäre | illūstrāre | perturbāre | vìtäre |
| conturbāre | imperāre | pīpiàre | vocāre |
| convocāre | implicāre | plōrāre | volāre |
| cōpulāre | interpellāre | portâre | vorāre |
| cruciäre | interrogāre | postulāre | vulnerāre |
| cubāre | intrāre | pōtāre |  |
| cūrāre | invocāre | praestāre |  |
| Deponent verbs |  |  |  |
| admīrārī | färı̄ | luctärī | tumultu |
| arbitrārī | hortārī | minārı̄ | versärī |
| comitārī | fäbulārī | mîāā |  |
| cōnārī | imitârı̄ | ōsculàrī |  |
| cōnsōlārī | laetārī | precārı̄ |  |

2nd Conjugation

| Inf. pres. act. - $\bar{e} r e$, pass. - $-\bar{r} \overline{1}$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| abstinēre | favēre | merēre | retinēre |
| appārēre | flère | miscēre | rīdère |
| audère | frigēre | monēre | rubēre |
| augēre | gaudère | mordère | salvēre |
| carēre | habēre | movēre | sedère |
| cavēre | horrēre | nocēre | silēre |
| cēnsēre | iacēre | oportēre | solēre |
| complēre | impendēre | pallère | studēre |
| continēre | implēre | pārēre | stupēre |
| dèbēre | invidère | patēre | suādēre |
| decēre | iubēre | permovēre | sustinēre |
| dèlēre | latēre | persuādère | tacēre |
| dērīdēre | libēre | placēre | tenēre |
| dētergēre | licēre | possidēre | tergēre |
| dèterrēre | lūcēre | pudēre | terrēre |
| dissuādēre | lūgēre | remanēre | timère |
| docēre | maerēre | removēre | valēre |
| dolēre | manēre | respondēre | vidēre |
| Deponent verbs |  |  |  |
| cōnfitērī | ${ }_{\text {intuèr }}$ İ | verērı̄ |  |
| fatērì | tuērī |  |  |

## 3rd Conjugation

Inf. pres. act. -ere, pass. $-\bar{i}$

1. Ind. pres. pers. 1 sing. $-\bar{o},-o r$

| $a b d u ̄ c e r e ~$ | coquere | inclūdere | quaerere |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| accēdere | corrigere | incolere | quiēscere |
| accendere | crēdere | induere | recēdere |
| accidere | crēscere | inflectere | recognōscere |
| accumbere | currere | influere | recumbere |
| accurrere | dēfendere | inscrībere | reddere |
| addere | dèmere | instruere | redimere |
| adiungere | dēscendere | intellegere | redūcere |
| admittere | desserere | invehere | regere |
| adnectere | dessinere | iungere | relinquere |
| advehere | dēsistere | laedere | remittere |
| agere | dètrahere | legere | repōnere |
| alere | dīcere | lūdere | reprehendere |
| animadvertere | dīligere | mergere | requiēscere |
| àmittere | dimittere | metere | requìrere |
| appōnere | discēdere | metuere | resistere |
| apprehendere | discere | minuere | retrahere |
| arcessere | disiungere | mittere | rumpere |
| ascendere | dīvidere | neglegere | scindere |
| aspergere | dūcere | nōscere | scrībere |
| àvertere | èdūcere | nūbere | serere |
| bibere | effundere | occidere | sinere |
| cadere | èlīdere | occīdere | solvere |
| caedere | èligere | occurrere | spargere |
| canere | emere | ostendere | statuere |
| carpere | èrubēscere | parcere | sternere |
| cēdere | èrumpere | pāscere | submergere |
| cernere | $\bar{e}$ volvere | pellere | sūmere |
| cingere | excurrere | percurrere | surgere |
| claudere | expōnere | perdere | tangere |
| cögere | extendere | pergere | tollere |
| cognōscere | fallere | permittere | trādere |
| colere | fidere | petere | trahere |
| cōnfidere | figere | plaudere | tremere |
| coniungere | flectere | pōnere | ūrere |
| cōnscendere | fluere | poscere | vehere |
| cōnsìdere | frangere | praepōnere | vēndere |
| cōnsistere | fremere | prehendere | vertere |
| cōnstituere | fundere | premere | vincere |
| cōnsūmere | gerere | prōcēdere | vīsere |
| contemnere | ignōscere | prōcurrere | vīvere |
| contrahere | impōnere | prōmere |  |
| convertere | imprimere | prōmittere |  |
| Deponent verbs |  |  |  |
| colloquī | $l a ̄ b \overline{1}$ | persequī | revertī |
| complectī | loquī | proficīscī | sequi |
| cōnsequì | nāscī | querī | ùtī |
| fruì | oblīvīscī | reminisscī |  |


| 2. Ind. pres. pers. 1 sing. -iō, -ior |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| abicere | cōnspicere | iacere | rapere |
| accipere | cupere | incipere | recipere |
| adicere | despicere | interficere | sapere |
| afficere | efficere | parere | surripere |
| allicere | effugere | percutere | suscipere |
| aspicere | èicere | perficere | suspicere |
| aufugere | éripere | prōicere |  |
| capere | facere | prōspicere |  |
| cōnficere | fugere | quatere |  |
| Deponent verbs |  |  |  |
| ègredì | morī | patī | prōgredī |

## 4th Conjugation

Inf. pres. act. -īre, pass. $-\bar{i} r \bar{i}$

| advenīre | exaudīre | oboedīre | scire |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| aperire | exhaurīe | operire | sentīre |
| audire | finiore | pervenire | servire |
| circumsilīre | haurīre | prōsilīre | vāgīre |
| convenire | invenire | pūnīre | venire |
| cūstōdīre | mollīe | reperiore | vestire |
| dēsilīre | mūnīre | revenīre | vincīre |
| dormire | nescire | salīe |  |
| Deponent vebs |  |  |  |
| largìrī partīrī | opperīrī | mentīrī | orīrī |

## Vocabulary by Chapter

| I. Imperium Romanum | sed | coniunctiōnes |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| nōmina | quoque | -que |
| fluvius | adverba | vocābula interrogātīva |
| imperium | nōn | cuius? |
| insula | vocābula interrogātīva | quae? |
| ōceanus | ne? | quī? |
| oppidum | ubi? | quis? |
| prōvincia | num? | quot? |
| verba grammatica | quid? | III. Puer Improbus |
| capitulum | II. Familia Romana | nomina |
| exemplum | Nōmina | mamma |
| grammatica | ancilla | persōna |
| littera | domina | scaena |
| numerus | dominus | verba grammatica |
| singulāris | familia | accūsātīvus |
| pēnsum | fēmina | nōminātīvus |
| plūālis | fīlia | verbum |
| syllaba | filius | adiectīva |
| vocābulum | liber | improbus |
| adiectīva | līberī | īrātus |
| duo | mâter | laetus |
| Graecus | pāgina | probus |
| Latīnus | pater | verba |
| magnus | puella | audit |
| mīlle | puer | cantat |
| multī | servus | dormit |
| parvus | titulus | interrogat |
| paucī | vir | plōrat |
| prīmus | verba grammatica | pulsat |
| Rōmānus | fēminīnum | respondet |
| secundus | genetīvus | rīdet |
| sex | masculīnum | venit |
| tertius | neutrum | verberat |
| trēs | adiectīva | videt |
| unnus | antīquus | vocat |
| verba | centum | pronomina |
| est | cēterī | eam |
| sunt | duae | eum |
| praepositiō | meus | hīc |
| in | novus | mē |
| coniunctiōnes | tria | quae |
| et | tuus | quam |
|  |  |  |


| quem | V. Villa et Hortus | fessus |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| qui | nōmina | longus |
| tē | aqua | malus |
| adverbia | ātrium | verba |
| iam | cubiculum | ambulat |
| vocābula interrogātīva | fenestra | intrat |
| cūr? | hortus | it/eunt |
| coniunctiōnes | impluvium | portat |
| neque | līlium | timet |
| quia | nāsus | vehit |
| alia | ōstium | adverbia |
| ō! | peristȳlum | ante |
| IV Dominus et Servi | rosa | autem |
| nōmina | vîlla | itaque |
| baculum | verba grammatica | nam |
| baculum | ablātīvus | quam |
| mensa | adiectīva | tam |
| nummus | foedus | praepositiōnes |
| pecunnia | pulcher | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ |
| sacculu | sōlus | ad |
| verba grammatica indicātīus | verba | ante |
| vocātīvus | agit | apud |
| adiectīva | amat | circum |
| bonus | carpit | inter |
| decem | dēlectat | per |
| novem | habitat | post |
| novem | pronōmina | procul ab |
| octō | is, ea, id | prope |
| quattuor | adverbium | vocābula interrogātīva |
| quīnque | etiam | unde? |
| septem | praepositiōnes | quō? |
| suus | ab | VII. Puella et Rosa |
| vacuus | ex | nōmina |
| verba | sine | lacrima |
| abest |  | mālum |
| accūsat | VI. Via Latina | oculus |
| adest | nōmina | ōsculum |
| discēdit | amica | ōstiārius |
| habet | amīcus | pirum |
| imperat | equus | speculum |
| numerat | inimīcus | verba grammatica |
| pāret | lectīca | datīvus |
| pōnit | mūrus | adiectīva |
| salūtat | porta | fōrmōsus |
| sūmit | saccus | plēnus |
| tacet | umerus | verba |
| pronōmina | via | adit |
| eius | verba grammatica | advenit |
| is | praepositiō | aperit |
| adverbia | locātīvus | claudit |
| rūrsus | āctīvum | currit |
| tantum | passīvum | dat |
| alia | adiectīva | es |
| salvē | duodecim | exit |


| exspectat | clāmat | dūcit |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| inest | cōnsistit | errat |
| lacrimat | cōnstat | ēst edunt |
| tenet | convenit | iacet |
| terget | emit | impōnit |
| vertit | mōnstrat | lātrat |
| pronōmina | ōrnat | lūcet |
| cui | ostendit | petit |
| eī | vēndit | quaerit |
| haec | pronōmina | relinquit |
| hic | ille | reperit |
| hoc | adverbia | ululat |
| iīs | nimis | pronōmina |
| illīc | satis | ipse |
| sē | coniunctiō | adverbia |
| adverbia | aut | procul |
| immō | IX Pastor et Oves | praepositiō |
| non...sōlum | IX. Pastor et Oves | sub |
| praepositiō | nomina | suprā |
| $\dot{\overline{\mathrm{e}}}$ | arbor | coniūnctiōnēs |
| coniunctiō | campus | dum |
| et...et neque | canis | ut |
| neque...neque <br> alia | cibus | X. Bestiae et Homines |
| nōnne? | clāmor | nōmina |
| nōnne? | collis | āēr |
| VIII. Taberna Romana | dēclīnātiō | āla |
| nōmina | dēns | anima |
| ānulus | herba | animal |
| collum | lupus | aquila |
| digitus | modus | asinus |
| gemma | mōns | avis |
| līnea | nūbēs | bēstia |
| margarīta | ovis | cauda |
| ōrnāmentum | pānis | deus |
| pretium | pāstor | fera |
| prōnōmen | rīvus | flūmen |
| sēstertius | silva | folium |
| taberna | sōl | homo |
| tabernārius | terra | lectus |
| adiectīva | timor | leō |
| alius | umbra | mare |
| gemmātus | vallis | mercātor |
| medius | vestīgium | nīdus |
| nōnāginta | verba grammatica | nūntius |
| octōgintā | dēclīnātiō | ōvum |
| pecūniōsus | adiectīva | pēs |
| quantus | albus | petasus |
| quārtus | niger | pila |
| tantus | ūndēcentum | piscis |
| vīgintī | verba | pullus |
| verba | accurrit | pulmō |
| abit | bālat | rāmus |
| accipit | bibit | vōx |
| aspicit | dēclīnat | verba grammatica |


| infinītīvus | ōs | dux |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| adiectīva | pectus | eques |
| crassus | pōculum | equitātus |
| ferus | sanguis | exercitus |
| mortuus | vēna | finis |
| perterritus | venter | fossa |
| tenuis | viscera | frāter |
| vīvus | adiectīva | gladius |
| verba | aeger | hasta |
| ascendere | hūmānus | hostis |
| audēre | noster | impetus |
| cadere | ruber | lātus |
| canere | sānus | metus |
| capere | stultus | mīles |
| facere | verba | mīlia |
| lūdere | aegrōtāre | nōmen |
| movēre | appōnere | pars |
| natāre | arcessere | passus |
| necesse est | dētergēre | patria |
| occultāre | dīcere | pedes |
| parere | dolēre | pilum |
| potest possunt | fluere | praenōmen |
| spīāre | gaudēre | pugnus |
| sustinēre | horrēre | sagitta |
| vīvere | iubēre | scūtum |
| volāre | palpitāre | soror |
| vult volunt | posse | vāllum |
| pronōmina | putāre | versus |
| nēmō | revenīre | verba grammatica |
| adverbia | sānāre | adiectivum |
| ergō | sedēre | comparātīvus |
| coniunctiōnes | sentīre | adiectīva |
| quod | spectāre | altus |
| cum | stāre | armātus |
| enim | tangere | barbarus |
| XI. Corpus Humanum | adverbia | brevis |
| nō. Corpus Humanum | bene | fortis |
| nomina | male | gravis |
| auris | modo | levis |
| bracchium | praepositiōnes | trīstis |
| capillus | dē | vester |
| caput | īnfrā | verba |
| cerebrum | super | dēfendere |
|  | coniunctiōnes | dīvidere |
| cor | atque | expugnāre |
| corpus | nec | ferre |
| culter | XII. Miles Romanus | fugere |
| frons | Nōmina | incolere |
| gena | arcus | metuere |
| iecur | arma | mīlitāre |
| labrum | avunculus | oppugnāre |
| manus | bellum | pugnāre |
| medicus membrum | castra | coniunctiō |
| membrum | cognómen | ac |


| praepositiō <br> contrā | trecentī trīgintā | induere inquit |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| XIII. Annus et Menses | ūndecim | lavāre |
| XIII. Annus et Menses | ūndecimus | mergere |
| nomuinoctium | verba | poscere |
| aequinoctium | erat, erant | solēre |
| aestās | illūstrāre | surgere |
| annus | incipere | valēre |
| autumnus | nōmināre | vestīre |
| dies | operīre | vigilāre |
| facies | velle | pronōmina |
| forma | adverbia | mēcum |
| glacies | item | mihi |
| hiems | māne | sēcum |
| hora | nunc | tēcum |
| idus | quandō | tibi |
| imber | tunc | adverbia |
| initium | coniunctiōnes | adhūc |
| kalendae | igitur | deinde |
| lucus | vel | hodiē |
| lūna | XIV Novus Dies | nihil (also noun) |
| lux | XIV. Novus Dies | prīmum |
| mēnsis | calceus | quōmodo |
| merīdiēs | gallus | praepositiō |
| nix | nihil (also $a d v$.) | coniunctiō |
| nōnae | parentēs | an |
| nox | rēgula | interrogatīva |
| saeculum | rēs | uter? |
| stēlla | stilus | alia |
| tempus | tabula | valē |
| urbs | toga |  |
| vēr | tunica | XV. Magister et Discipuli |
| vesper | vestīmentum | nōmina |
| verba grammatica | verba grammatica | discipulus |
| indēclīnābilis | participium | domī |
| superlātīvus | adiectiva | iānua |
| adiectīva | alter | lectulus |
| aequus | apertus | lūdus |
| calidus | clausus | magister |
| clārus | dexter | sella |
| decimus | neuter | tergum |
| dimidius | nūdus | virga |
| ducentī | omnis | adiectīva |
| duodecimus | pūrus | inferior |
| exiguus | sinister | malus |
| frīgidus | sordidus | posterior |
| nōnus | togātus | prior |
| obscūrus | uter | sevērus |
| octāvus | uterque | tacitus |
| postrēmus | verba | vērus |
| quīntus | afferre | verba |
| septimus | cubāre | cōnsīdere |
| sexāgintā | excitāre | dēsinere |
| sextus | frīgēre | es |
| tōtus | gerere | estis |


| exclāmāre | superus | difficilis |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| licēre | tranquillus | doctus |
| pūnīre | turbidus | duodēvīgintī |
| recitāre | verba | facilis |
| reddere | appellāre | incertus |
| redīre | cernere | indoctus |
| sum | complectī | industrius |
| sumus | cōnārī | largus |
| prōnomina | cōnscendere | nōngentī |
| ego | cōnsōlārī | octingentī |
| nōs | ègredī | piger |
| tū | fierī fit fiunt | prāvus |
| vōs | flāre | prūdēns |
| adverbia | gubernāre | quadrāgintā |
| quid? | haurīe | quadringentī |
| nōndum | iactāre | quattuordecim |
| statim | implēre | quīndecim |
| tum | influere | quīngentī |
| praepositiō | interesse | quīnquāgintā |
| antequam | intuērī | rēctus |
| coniunctiōnes | invocāre | sēdecim |
| at | lābī | septendecim |
| nisi | laetārī | septingentī |
| sī | loquī | septuāgintā |
| vērum | nāvigāre | sescentī |
|  | occidere | trēdecim |
| XVI. Tempestas | opperīrī | ūndēvīgintī |
| altum | orīrī | verba |
| flūctus | proficīscī | cōgitāre |
| fulgur | sequī | computāre |
| gubernātor | servāre | dēmōnstrāre |
| merx | turbāre | discere |
| nauta | verērī <br> adverbia | docēre interpellāre |
| nāvis | iterum | largīr̄̄ |
| occidēns | paulum | laudāre |
| oriens | praetereā | nescīre |
| portus | semper | oportēre |
| locus | simul | partīrī |
| ora | vērō | prōmere |
| puppis | vix | repōnere |
| septentriones | coniunctiō | reprehendere |
| tempestas | sīve | scīre |
| vēlum | praepositiō | tollere |
| ventus | propter | pronōmina |
| verba grammatica | XVII. Numerī Difficiles | quisque |
| dēpōnēns | nōmina | aequē |
| adiectīva | as | numquam |
| āter | dēnārius | postrēmō |
| contrārius | respōnsum | prāvē |
| īnferus | adiectīva | quārē |
| maritimus | absēns | rēctē |
| serēnus situs | centēsimus | saepe |
| situs | certus | tot |


| ūsque | quisque, quaeque, quodque | augēre |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| coniunctiōnes | adverbia | convenīre |
| quamquam | bis | minuere |
| XVIII. Litterae Latinae | deciēs | mittere |
| nōmina | ita | opus esse |
| nomina | quater | ōsculārī |
| apis | quīnquiēs | possidēre |
| calamus | quotiēs | remittere |
| cera | semel | pronōmina |
| charta | sexiēs | mī |
| epistula | sic | ūllus |
| erus | ter | praepositōnēs |
| ferrum | totiēs | ergā |
| materia | XIX Maritus et Uxor | adverbia |
| mendum | XIX. Maritus et Uxor | cotīdiē |
| merces | nomina | minus |
| papyrus | adulescens | plūs |
| zephyrus | amor | tamen |
| verba grammatica | columna | XX. Parentes |
| cōnsonāns | dea | nōmina |
| sententia | domus | colloquium |
| vōcālis | dōnum | cūnae |
| adiectīva | flōs | domō |
| dūrus | forum | filiola |
| frequēns | marītus | filiolus |
| impiger | mātrōna | gradus |
| mollis | pulchritūdō | īnfāns |
| quālis | signum | lac |
| rārus | tēctum | mulier |
| tālis | templum | nūtrīx |
| turpis | uxor | officium |
| varius | virgō | sermō |
| verba | Verba grammatica | silentium |
| addere | praesēns | somnus |
| animadvertere | praeteritum | verba grammatica |
| comparāre | adiectīva | adiectiva |
| coniungere | beātus | aliēnus |
| corrigere | dignus | futūrus |
| deesse | dīves | necessārius |
| dēlēre | gracilis | parvulus |
| dictāre | magnificus | ūmidus |
| efficere | māior | verba |
| exaudīre | māximus | advehere |
| imprimere | melior | alere |
| intellegere | minimus | carēre |
| iungere | minor | colloquī |
| legere | miser | cūrāre |
| premere | optimus | dēbēre |
| scrībere | pauper | decēre |
| signāre | pēior | dīligere |
| significāre | pessimus | fārī |
| superesse | plūrēs | manēre |
| pronōmina | plūrimī | nōlle |
| ìdem, eadem, idem | verba | occurrere |


| pergere | coniunctiōnes | forīs |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| postulāre | postquam | nuper |
| revertī | XXII. Cave Canem nōmina | posteā |
| silēre |  | prius |
| vāgīre | aurum | quīn |
| adverbia | cardō | scīlicet |
| cras | catēna | sicut |
| mox | faber | tandem |
| rārō | foris | XXIII. Epistula Magistrī |
|  | iānitor | nōmina |
| XXI. Pugna | imāgō | clāvis |
| Discipulorum | lignum | comes |
| nōmina | limen | factum |
| bōs | pallium | laus |
| causa | tabellārius | litterae |
| cornū | verba grammatica | prōmissum |
| cruor | supīnum | pudor |
| genū | adiectiva | signum |
| humī | aureus | verbera |
| humus | ferōx | vultus |
| porcus | ferreus | adiectīva |
| pugna | ligneus | integer |
| solum | verba | pallidus |
| sordēs | accēdere | plānus |
| tabella | admittere | superior |
| vestis | arbitrārī | verba |
| verba grammatica | cavēre | āvertere |
| imperfectum | cēdere | comitārī |
| perfectum | cūstōdīre | continere |
| adiectīva | dērīdēre | dēbēre |
| angustus | fremere monēre | dīmittere |
| candidus | mordēre | inclūdere |
| indignus | pellere | inscrībere |
| mundus | prehendere | merēre |
| validus | prōcēdere | negāre |
| verba | recēdere | pallēre |
| āiō | removēre | perdere |
| cognōscere | resistere | prōmittere |
| cōnspicere | retinēre | pudēre |
| crēdere | rogitāre | rubēre |
| dubitāre | rumpere | salūtem dīcere |
| excūsāre | salīre | solvere |
| fallere | scindere | trādere |
| fuisse | sinere | pronōmina |
| mentīrī | solvere | quidnam? |
| mūtāre | terrēre | quisnam? |
| nārrāre | tremere | adverbia |
| vincere | vincîre | antehāc |
| pronōmina | pronōmina | fortasse |
| aliquid | iste, ista, istud | herī |
| aliquis | adverbia | hinc |
| adverbia | anteā <br> forās | illinc |
| interim | forās | posthāc |


| umquam | currus | carcer |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| praepositiō | exitus | cōnsilium |
| ob | expugnātiō | fuga |
| XXIV. Puer Aegrōtus nōmina dolor latus | fābula | ignis |
|  | filum | lacertus |
|  | glōria | lībertās |
|  | labyrinthus | multitūdō |
|  | lītus | nātūra |
| ossonus | moenia | opus |
|  | mōnstrum | orbis |
| strepitus tumultus | mora | paenīnsula |
| tumultus | mors | penna |
| plūsquam perfectum | nārrātiō | verba grammatica |
|  | nex | cāsus |
| adiectīva | rēx | gerundium |
| aegrōtus | saxum | adiectīva |
| cruentus | taurus | audāx |
| impār | adiectīva | cautus |
| laevus | complūrēs | celer |
| par | cupidus | infimus |
|  | humilis | ingēns |
| verba | mīābilis | līber |
| converterecupere | parātus | propinquus |
|  | saevus | reliquus |
| flēre | terribilis | studiōsus |
| frangere | timidus | summus |
| ignōrāre | verba | temerārius |
| mīrārī | aedificāre | verba |
| nōscerepatī | coepisse | aberrāre |
|  | cōnstituere | accidere |
| percutere | dēscendere | cōnficere |
| recumbere coniunctiōnes | dēserere | cōnsequī |
| etsī | interficere | cōnsūmere |
|  | maerēre | dēspicere |
| praepositiōnes | necāre | effugere |
| adverbia | oblīvīscī | ēvolāre |
| aliter | occīdere | excōgitāre |
| aliter certō | patēre | figere |
| cēterum | pollicērī | imitārī |
|  | prōspicere | invenīe |
| continuōdēnuō | regere | iuvāre |
|  | trahere | levāre |
| intus | vorāre | mollīre |
| prīmō | adverbia | perficere |
| subitō | brevī | persequī |
|  | forte | quatere |
| XXV. Theseus et | hūc | revocāre |
|  | ibi | suspicere |
| - Minotaur | illūc | ūrere |
| aedificium | ōlim | vidērī |
| agnus | quotannīs | pronōmina |
|  | XXVI. Daedalus et | quisquam coniunctiōnes |
| cīvis | Icarus | sin |
| cōnspectuscupiditās | nōmina | praepositiōnes |
|  | ars | trans |


| adverbia | urbānus | turba |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| deorsum | verba | vigilia |
| haud | arāre | vorāgō |
| paene | cēnsēre | adiectīva |
| quidem | cingere | attentus |
| quoniam | colere | caecus |
| sūrsum | crēscere | claudus |
| tamquam | exīstimāre | cōnstāns |
| vērum | invehere | immortālis |
| XXVII Rēs Rūsticae | labōrāre | mortālis |
| XXVIT. Rēs Rūsticae | metere | mūtus |
| nōmina | neglegere | perīculōsus |
| ager | nocēre | quadrāgēsimus |
| agricola | ōrāre | salvus |
| arātrum | pāscere | surdus |
| calor | prōdesse | tūtus |
| colōnus | prohibēre | ūniversus |
| cōpia | prōicere | verba |
| cura | quiēscere | admīrārī |
| frix | rapere | adōrāre |
| frīgus | rigāre | apprehendere |
| fruges | serere | cessāre |
| frūmentum | spargere | disiungere |
| grex | ūtī | ēicere |
| īnstrūmentum | pronōmina | ēvolvere |
| labor | quīdam | extendere |
| negōtium | praepositiōnēs | habērī |
| ōtium | abs | impendēre |
| pābulum | circā | mālle |
| patientia | prae | memorare morī |
| pecus | coniunctiōnēs | nāscī |
| praedium | nē | oboedīre |
| preces | -ve | perīre |
| regiō | adverbia | persuādēre |
| rūs | dēnique | pervenīre |
| sēmen | parum | rēgnāre |
| uva | tantum | rogāre |
| vinea | XXVIII. Pericula Maris | salvāre |
| vītis | nōmina | servīre |
| adiectīva | animus | spērāre |
| amoenus | dictum | tumultuārī |
| fertilis | fāma | versārī |
| gravidus | fretum | vītāre |
| immātūrus | libellus | coniunctiōnēs |
| inhūmānus | mundus | velut |
| mātūrus | nāvicula | adverbia |
| neglegēns | pecūlium | potius |
| nēquam | perīculum | utrum |
| rudis | potestās | XXIX. Nāvigāre |
| rūsticus | praedō | Necesse Est |
| siccus | prīnceps | nōmina |
| suburbānus | tībīcen | beneficium |
| trīcēsimus | tranquillitās |  |


| cantus | expōnere | adiectīva |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| carmen | fiñīre | acerbus |
| delphīnus | invidēre | acūtus |
| dīvitiae | parcere | argenteus |
| dorsum | permittere | bīnī |
| fēlīcitās | permovēre | dīligēns |
| fidēs | perturbāre | dulcis |
| fidicen | precārī | glōriōsus |
| fortūna | querī | ìmus |
| fundus | recognōscere | inexspectātus |
| fūr | redūcere | iūcundus |
| fūrtum | remanēre | merus |
| iactūra | secāre | molestus |
| invidia | stupēre | singulī |
| laetitia | suādēre | tardus |
| lucrum | subīre | ternī |
| maleficium | surripere | verba |
| nāvigātiō | pronōmina | accubāre |
| piscātor | nōnnūllī | accumbere |
| rēmus | sēsē | apportāre |
| salūs | adverbia | aspergere |
| spēs | frūstrā | cēnāre |
| trīstitia | inde | complēre |
| tyrannus | nōnnumquam | contrahere |
| vīta | prōtinus | coquere |
| adiectīva | quasi | ēligere |
| celsus | repente | exhaurīre |
| fallāx |  | exōrnāre |
| fêlīx | XXX. Convivium | fruī |
| ignārus | nōmina | fundere |
| ignōtus | argentum | gustāre |
| maestus | balneum | līberāre |
| mīrus | bonum | miscēre |
| nōbilis | calida | nūntiāre |
| nōtus | carō | parāre |
| pretiōsus | cena | perferre |
| rapidus | cocus | placēre |
| vēlōx | conviva | pōtāre |
| verba | convivium | praeesse |
| abicere | culina | prōferre |
| abstinēre | fames | recipere |
| adicere | genus | requiēscere |
| aestimāre | holus | salvēre iubēre |
| afficere | hospes <br> iter | sternere |
| allicere | lībertīnus | vīsere |
| āmittere | medium | praepositiōnēs |
| appārēre | $\begin{aligned} & \text { md } \\ & \text { mel } \end{aligned}$ | circiter |
| appropinquāre | merum | adverbia |
| confiteri | minister | demum |
| dēspērāre | nux |  |
| dēterrēre | sāl | paulisper |
| dētrahere | sitis | prīdem |
| dōnāre | vās | sānē |
| ēripere |  |  |


| XXXI. Inter Pōcula | statuere | vīlis |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nōmina | vetāre | verba |
| crux | pronōmina | adiuvāre |
| fidēs | quidquid | armāre |
| iniūria | quisquis | contemnere |
| iūs | praepositiōnēs | dēsistere |
| iuvenis | cōram | dissuādēre |
| lēx | super | èdūcere |
| memoria | adverbia | flectere |
| mōs | aliquantum | meminisse |
| mūnus | funditus | minārī |
| nūgae | ideō | offerre |
| parricīda | namque | percurrere |
| poena | nimium/nimis | praeferre |
| pōtiō | priusquam | praepōnere |
| praemium | quamobrem | redimere |
| rūmor | quantum | referre |
| scelus | XXXII. Classis Rōmāna | rēmigāre |
| senex | nōmina | reminīscī |
| supplicium |  | repugnāre |
| adiectīva | amphitheātrum | submergere |
| asinīnus | audācia | tuērī |
| avārus | classis | coniunctiones |
| clemens | condiciō | neu |
| dēbilis | cursus | adverbia |
| èbrius | gēns | aliquandō |
| fidus | grātia | aliquot |
| fugitīvus | incola | dōnec |
| impatiens | inopia | etiamnunc |
| infēlīx | pirata | intereā |
| infìdus | populus | ubīque |
| iniūstus | servitūs | utinam |
| invalidus | talentum | XXXIII. Exercitus |
| nōnāgēsimus | victor | Rōmānus |
| praesēns | victōria | nōmina |
| sapiēns | vīrēs | aciēs |
| scelestus | vis <br> voluntās | aetās |
| vetus | adiectīva | agmen |
| verba | adversus | amnis |
| abdūcere | cārus | caedes |
| aufugere | commūnis | ènsis |
| cōnfidere | cūnctus | gaudium |
| cruciāre | ègregius | imperātor |
| ēducāre | grātus | lēgātus |
| fābulārī | inermis | legiō |
| fidere | infestus | legiōnārius |
| ignōscere | internus mercātōrius | ōrdō |
| interpellāre | mercatorius | pāx |
| latēre | nūbilus | proelium |
| ōdisse | proximus | ratis |
| optāre | superbus | ripa |
| retrahere |  | stipendium |


| studium | adverbia | versiculus |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| valētūdō | diūtius | adiectīva |
| virtūs | etenim | ācer |
| vulnus | ferē | bellus |
| adiectīva | praecipuē | circēnsis |
| arduus | prīdiē | dubius |
| citerior | quamdiū | geminus |
| dēnī | tamdiū | gladiātōrius |
| dīrus | ultrā | iocōsus |
| horrendus |  | mellītus |
| idōneus | XXXIV. De Arte Poēticā | misellus |
| incolumis | nomina | niveus |
| mīlitāris | anus | perpetuus |
| ōtiōsus | arānea | poēticus |
| posterus | auriga | scaenicus |
| prīvātus | bassium | sērius |
| pūblicus | cachinnus | tenebricōsus |
| quaternī | certamen circus | turgidus |
| quīnī | circus | ultimus |
| rīdiculus |  | venustus |
| sēnī | fātum | verba |
| trini | gladiātor | accendere |
| ūnī | gremium | certāre |
| verba | ingenium | circumsilīre |
| adiungere | lucerna | conturbāre |
| caedere | ludus | dēvorāre |
| circumdare | mens | èlīdere |
| cōgere | nil | ērubēscere |
| commemorāre | nota | excruciāre |
| convocāre | ocellus | favēre |
| cōpulāre | odium | implicāre |
| dēsīderāre | opera | laedere |
| effundere | opēs | libenter |
| ērumpere | palma | libēre |
| excurrere | passer | lūgēre |
| fatīgāre | principium | nūbere |
| fore | rēte | ōscitāre |
| hortārī | rīsus | pīpiāre |
| īnstruere | scalpellum | plaudere |
| mūnīre | sinus | prōsilīre |
| praestāre | spectātor | requirere |
| prōgredī | tenebrae | adverbia |
| properāre | testis | dein |
| studēre | verba grammatica | interdum |
| trānsferre | dactylus | plērumque |
| transire | dipthongus | coniunctio |
| pronōmina | epigramma |  |
| plērīque | hendecasyllabus | XXXV. Ars Grammatica |
| praepositiōnēs | hexameter | nōmina |
| citrā | iambus | admīrātiō |
| secundum | pentameter | ${ }^{\text {affectus }}$ |
| ultrā | spondēus | îra |
|  | trochaeus | mūsa |


| ōrātiō | proprium (nōmen) | adverbia |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| sacerdōs | quālitās | dumtaxat |
| scamnum | quantitā̄ | forsitan |
| verba grammatica | ratiōnālis (coniūnctiō) | proptereā |
| appellātīvum (nōmen) | significātiō | quāpropter |
| cāsus | speciēs | quidnī |
| causālis (coniūnctiō) | synōnymum | sīquidem |
| comparātiō | adiectī̄a | tantundem |
| coniugātiō | inconditus | praepositiōnēs |
| coniūnctiō | similis | adversum |
| cōpulātīvus (coniūnctiō) | verba | cis |
| disiūnctīvus (coniūnctiō) | adnectere | interiectiōnēs |
| explētīvus (coniūnctiō) | dēmere | attā |
| inflectere | explānāre | eia |
| interiectiō | luctārī | ēn |
| optātīvus (modus) | mentiōnem facere | euax |
| positīvus (gradus) | ordināre | papae |

# Latin-English Vocabulary 

A
$\bar{a} / \mathbf{a b} / \mathbf{a b s} p r p+a b l$ from, of, since, by
ab-dūcere take away, carry off
ab-errāre wander away, stray
ab-esse ā-fuisse be absent/ away/distant
ab-icere throw away
ab-īre -eō -iisse go away
abs $v$. $\overline{\mathrm{a}} / \mathrm{ab} / \mathrm{abs}$
absēns -entis adi absent
abs-tinēre keep off
ac $v$. atque/ac
ac-cēdere approach, come near
accendere-disse
-ēnsum light, inflame
ac-cidere-disse happen, occur
ac-cipere receive
ac-cubāre recline at table
ac-cumbere -cubuisse lie down at table
ac-currere -rrisse come running
accūsāre accuse
ācer -cris -cre keen, active, fierce
acerbus-a -um sour, bitter
aciēs -ēī $f$ line of battle
acūtus -a -um sharp
ad $p r p+a c c$ to, toward, by, at, till
ad-dere-didisse-ditum add
ad-esse af-fuisse (+dat) be present, stand by
ad-hūc so far, till now, still
ad-icere add
ad-īre -eō-iisse -itum go to, approach
ad-iungere join to, add
ad-iuvāre help
ad-mīrārī admire, wonder at
admīrātiō -ōnis $f$ wonder, admiration
ad-mittere let in, admit
ad-nectere -xuisse
-xum attach, connect
ad-ōrāre worship, adore
adulēscēns -entis $m$ young man
ad-vehere carry, convey (to)
ad-venīre arrive
adversus/-um $p r p$
+acc toward, against
adversus -a -um contrary, unfavorable
aedificāre build aedificium -ī $n$ building
aeger -gra -grum sick, ill aegrōtāre be ill
aegrōtus -a -um sick
aequē equally
aequinoctium $-\overline{1} n$ equinox
aequus -a -um equal, calm āēr-eris $m$ air
aestās -ātis $f$ summer
aestimāre value, estimate
aetās -ātis $f$ age
affectus -ūs $m$ mood, feeling
af-ferre at-tulisse al-lātum bring (to, forward, about)
af-ficere affect, stir
af-fïrmāre assert, affirm
age -ite +imp come on! well, now
ager -grī $m$ field
agere ēgisse āctum drive, do, perform
agmen -inis $n$ army on the march, file
agnus - 1 m lamb
agricola -ae $m$ farmer, peasant
ain' you don't say? really?
āiō ais ait āiunt say
āla -ae $f$ wing
albus -a-um white
alere-uisse altum feed
aliēnus -a -um someone else's
ali-quandō sometimes
ali-quantum a good deal
ali-quī -qua -quod some
ali-quis -quid someone, something
ali-quot indēcl some, several
aliter otherwise
alius -a -ud another, other
aliī...aliī some...others
allicere -iō -ēxisse -ectum attract
alter -era -erum one, the other, second
altum $-\bar{i} n$ the open sea
altus -a -um high, tall, deep
amāns -antis $m$ lover
amāre love
ambulāre walk
amīca -ae $f$ girlfriend amīcitia -ae $f$ friendship
amīcus-ī $m$ friend amīcus -a -um friendly ā-mittere lose amnis -is $m$ river
amoenus -a -um lovely, pleasant
amor -ōris $m$ love
amphitheātrum -ī $n$ amphitheater
an or
ancilla -ae $f$ female slave, servant
angustus -a -um narrow
anima -ae $f$ breath, life, soul anim-ad-vertere notice
animal -ālis $n$ animal, living being
animus $-\overline{1} m$ mind, soul
annus -i $m$ year
ante $p r p+a c c, a d v$ in front of, before
anteā before, formerly
ante-hāc formerly
ante-quam before
antīquus -a -um old, ancient, former
ānulus -ī $m$ ring
anus -ūs $f$ old woman
aperīre-uisse -rtum open, disclose
apertus -a -um open
apis -is $f$ bee
ap-pārēre appear
appellāre call, address
ap-pōnere place (on), serve
ap-portāre bring
ap-prehendere seize
ap-propinquāre (+dat) approach, come near
Aprīlis -is (mēnsis) April
apud $p r p+a c c$ beside, near, by
aqua -ae $f$ water
aquila -ae $f$ eagle
arānea -ae $f$ spider, cobweb
arāre plow
arātor -ōris $m$ plowman
arātrum -ī $n$ plow
arbitrārī think, believe
arbor -oris $f$ tree
arcessere-ivisse-ītum send for, fetch
arcus -ūs $m$ bow
arduus -a -um steep
argenteus -a -um silver, of silver
argentum -ī $n$ silver
arma -ōrum $n p l$ arms
armāre arm, equip
armātus -a -um armed
ars artis $f$ art, skill
as assis $m$ as (copper coin)
a-scendere-disse climb, go up, mount
asinīnus -a -um ass's
asinus $-\overline{1} m$ ass, donkey
a-spergere -sisse -sum sprinkle, scatter (on)
a-spicere look at, look at but
āter -tra -trum black, dark
atque/ac and, as, than
ātrium -ī $n$ main room, hall
attentus-a-um attentive
audācia -ae $f$ boldness, audacity
audāx -ācis adi bold, audacious
audēre ausum esse dare, venture
audīre hear, listen
au-ferre abs-tulisse
ablātum carry off, take away
au-fugere run away, escape
augēre -xisse -ctum increase
Augustus -ī (mēnsis) August
aureus -a -um gold-, $m$ gold piece
aurīga -ae $m$ charioteer, driver
auris -is $f$ ear
aurum -ī $n$ gold
aut or
aut...aut either...or
autem but, however
autumnus $-\overline{1} m$ autumn
auxilium -ī $n$ help, assistance
auxilia -ōrum $n p l$ auxiliary forces
avārus -a -um greedy, avaricious
$\bar{a}$-vertere turn aside, avert
avis -is $f$ bird
avunculus - $\overline{1} m$ (maternal) uncle

## B

baculum -ī $n$ stick
bālāre bleat
balneum -ī $n$ bath, bathroom
barbarus -a -um foreign, barbarian
bāsium -ī $n$ kiss
beātus -a -um happy
bellum -ī $n$ war
bellus -a -um lovely, pretty
bene well
beneficium -ī $n$ benefit, favor
bēstia -ae $f$ beast, animal
bēstiola -ae $f$ small animal, insect
bibere -bisse drink
bīnī -ae -a two (each)
bis twice
bonum -īn good, blessing
bonus -a -um good
bōs bovis $m / f$ ox
bracchium -ī $n$ arm
brevī $a d v$ soon
brevis -e short
C
cachinnus -i $m$ laugh, guffaw
cadere cecidisse fall
caecus -a -um blind
caedere cecīdisse
caesum beat, fell, kill
caedēs -is $f$ killing, slaughter
caelum -ī $n$ sky, heaven
calamus $-\overline{1} m$ reed, pen
calceus $-\overline{1} m$ shoe
calidus -a -um warm, hot, $f$ hot water
calor -ōris $m$ warmth, heat
campus -ī $m$ plain
candidus -a -um white, bright
canere cecinisse sing (of), crow, play
canis -is $m / f \operatorname{dog}$
cantāre sing
cantus -ūs $m$ singing, music
capere -iō cēpisse captum take, catch, capture
capillus - $\overline{1} m$ hair
capitulum -ī $n$ chapter
caput -itis $n$ head, chief, capital
carcer-eris $m$ prison
cardō -inis $m$ door pivot, hinge
carēre $+a b l$ be without, lack
carmen -inis $n$ song, poem
carō carnis $f$ flesh, meat
carpere -psisseptum gather, pick, crop
cārus -a -um dear
castra -ōrum n pl camp
cāsus -ūs $m$ fall, case
catēna -ae $f$ chain
cauda -ae $f$ tail
causa -ae $f$ cause, reason
gen (/meā) +causā for the sake of
cautus -a -um cautious
cavēre cāvisse
cautum beware (of)
cēdere cessisse go, withdraw
celer -eris -ere swift, quick
celsus -a -um tall
cēna-ae $f$ dinner
cēnāre dine, have dinner
cēnsēre-uisse-sum think
centēsimus -a -um hundredth
centum a hundred
cēra -ae $f$ wax
cerebrum -ī $n$ brain
cernere crēvisse discern, perceive
certāmen -inis $n$ contest, fight
certāre contend, fight
certē certainly, at any rate
certō $a d v$ for certain
certus -a -um certain, sure
cessāre leave off, cease
cēterī -ae -a the other(s), the rest
cēterum $a d v$ besides, however
cēterus -a -um remaining
charta -ae $f$ paper
cibus -ī $m$ food
cingere cinxisse
cīnctum surround
-cipere -iō -cēpisse -ceptum
circā $p r p+a c c$ round
circēnsēs -ium $m p l$ games in the circus
circēnsis -e of the circus
circiter about
circum $p r p+a c c$ round
circum-dare surround
circum-silire hop about
circus -i $m$ circle, orbit, circus
cis $p r p+a c c$ on this side of
citerior -ius comp nearer citrā $p r p+a c c$ on this side of
cīvis -is $m / f$ citizen, countryman
clāmāre shout
clāmor -ōris $m$ shout, shouting
clārus -a -um bright, clear, loud
classis -is fleet
claudere -sisse -sum shut, close
claudus -a -um lame
clausus -a -um closed, shut
clāvis -is $f$ key
clēmēns -entis adi mild, lenient
cocus -ī $m$ cook
coep- $v$. incipere
cōgere co-ēgisse -āctum compel, force
cōgitāre think
cognōmen -inis $n$ surname
cognōscere -ōvisse -itum get to know, recognize
cohors -rtis $f$ cohort
colere-uisse
cultum cultivate
collis -is $m$ hill
col-loquī talk, converse colloquium -ī
$n$ conversation
collum -ī $n$ neck
colōnus -ī $m$ (tenant-) farmer
color -ōris $m$ color columna -ae $f$ column
comes-itis $m$ companion
comitārī accompany
com-memorāre mention
commūnis -e common
cōmoedia -ae $f$ comedy
com-parāre compare
com-plectī -exum embrace
com-plēre -ēvisse -ētum fill, complete
com-plūrēs -a several
com-putāre calculate, reckon
cōnārī attempt, try
condiciō-ōnis $f$ condition
cōn-ficere make, accomplish
cōn-fïdere + dat trust
cōn-fitērī -fessum confess
con-iungere join, connect
coniūnx -iugis $m / f$ consort, wife
cōn-scendere-disse mount, board
cōn-sequī follow, overtake
cōn-sīdere -sēdisse sit down
cōnsilium -īn advice, decision, intention, plan
cōn-sistere-stitisse stop, halt
cōn-sōlārī comfort, console
cōnsonāns -antis
$f$ consonant
cōnspectus -ūs $m$ sight, view
cōn-spicere catch sight of, see
cōnstāns -antis adi steady, firm
cōn-stāre-stitisse be fixed, cost
cōnstāre ex consist of
cōn-stituere -uisse -ūtum fix, decide
cōn-sūmere spend, consume
con-temnere-mpsisse -mptum despise, scorn
con-tinēre -uisse -tentum contain
continuō $a d v$ immediately
contrā $p r p+a c c$ against
con-trahere draw together, wrinkle
contrārius -a -um opposite, contrary
con-turbāre mix up, confound
con-venīre come together, meet
convenīre (ad/+dat) fit, be fitting
con-vertere turn
convīva -ae $m / f$ guest
convīvium -ī $n$ dinnerparty
con-vocāre call together
cōpia -ae $f$ abundance, lot
cōpulāre join, connect
coquere-xisse -ctum cook
cor cordis $n$ heart
cōram $p r p+a b l$ in the presence of
cornū -ūs $n$ horn
corpus -oris $n$ body
cor-rigere -rēxisse -rēctum correct
cotīdiē every day
crās tomorrow
crassus -a -um thick, fat
crēdere-didisse

+ dat believe, trust, entrust
crēscere -ēvisse grow
cruciāre torture, torment
crūdēlis -e cruel
cruentus -a -um bloodstained, bloody
cruor -ōris $m$ blood-stained, bloody
crūs -ūris $n$ leg
crux-ucis $f$ cross
cubāre -uisse -itum lie (in bed)
cubiculum -ī $n$ bedroom
culīna -ae $f$ kitchen
culter -tri $m$ knife
cum $p r p+a b l$ with
cum coniūnctiō when, as
cum prīmum +perf as soon as
cūnae -ārum fpl cradle
cūnctus -a -um whole, $p l$ all
cupere-iō-īvisse desire
cupiditās -ātis $f$ desire
cupidus -a -um
(+gen) desirous (of), eager (for)
cūr why
cūra -ae $f$ care, anxiety
cūrāre care for, look after, take care
currere cucurrisse run
currus -ūs $m$ chariot
cursus -ūs $m$ race, journey, course
cūstōdīre guard


## D

dare dedisse datum give
dē $p r p+a b l$ (down) from, of, about
dea -ae $f$ goddess
dēbēre owe, be obliged
dēbilis -e weak
decem ten
December -bris
(mēnsis) December
decēre be fitting, become
deciēs ten times
decimus -a -um tenth
dēclīnāre decline, inflect
de-esse dē-fuisse (+dat) be missing, fail
dē-fendere -disse -ēnsum defend
de-inde/dein afterward, then
dēlectāre delight, please
dēlēre -ēvisse -ētum delete, efface
dēliciae -ārum fpl delight, pet
delphīnus -ī $m$ dolphin
dēmere-mpsisse -mptum remove
dē-mōnstrāre point out, show
dēmum $a d v$ at last, only
dēnārius -ī $m$ denarius (silver coin)
dēnī -ae -a ten (each)
dēnique finally, at last
dēns dentis $m$ tooth
dē-nuō anew, again
deorsum $a d v$ down
dē-rīdēre laugh at, make fun of
dē-scendere -disse go down, descend
dē-serere -uisse -rtum leave, desert
dēsīderāre long for, miss
dē-silīre-uisse jump down
dè-sinere-siisse finish, stop, end
dē-sistere -stitisse leave off, cease
dē-spērāre lose hope, despair (of)
dē-spicere look down (on), despise
dē-tergēre wipe off
dē-terrēre deter
dè-trahere pull off
deus -ī $m, p l$ deī/dī̄/dī god
dē-vorāre swallow up, devour
dexter - tra -trum right, $f$ the right (hand)
dīcere-xisse dictum say, call, speak
dictāre dictate
dictum $-\overline{1} n$ saying, words
diēs -ēī $m(f)$ day, date
dif-ficilis -e, sup-illimus difficult, hard
digitus - $1 m$ finger
dignus -a -um worthy
dīligēns -entis adi careful, diligent
dīligere -ēxisse -ēctum love, be fond of
dīmidius -a -um half
dī-mittere send away, dismiss
dīrus -a -um dreadful
dis-cēdere go away, depart
discere didicisse learn
discipulus -ī $m$ pupil, disciple
dis-iungere separate
dis-suādēre advise not to
diū, comp diūtius long
dīves -itis adi rich, wealthy
dīvidere -īsisse -īsum separate, divide
dīvitiae -ārum fpl riches
docēre-uisse doctum teach, instruct
doctus -a -um learned, skilled
dolēre hurt, feel pain, grieve
dolor -ōris $m$ pain, grief
domī loc at home
domina -ae $f$ mistress
dominus -ī $m$ master
domum $a d v$ home
domus -ūs $f$, $a b l$-ō house, home
dōnāre give, present with
dōnec as long as
dōnum -ī $n$ gift, present
dormīre sleep
dorsum -ī $n$ back
dubitāre doubt
dubius -a -um undecided, doubtful
du-centī -ae -a two hundred
dūcere-xisse ductum guide, lead, draw, trace
uxōrem dūcere marry
dulcis -e sweet
dum while, as long as, till
dum-modo provided that, if only
dumtaxat only, just
duo -ae -o two
duo-decim twelve
duo-decimus -a -um twelfth
duo-dē-trīgintā twentyeight
duo-dē-vīgintī eighteen
dūrus -a -um hard
dux ducis $m$ leader, chief, general

## E

$\overline{\mathbf{e}} v$. ex/ē
èbrius -a -um drunk
ecce see, look, here is
ēducāre bring up
è-dūcere bring out, draw out
ef-ficere make, effect, cause
ef-fugere escape, run away
ef-fundere pour out, shed
ego mē mihi/mī I, me, myself
$\bar{e}$-gredī -ior -gressum go out
ègregius -a -um outstanding, excellent
è-icere throw out
è-līdere -sisse -sum omit, elide
è-ligere -lēgisse -lēctum choose, select
emere ēmisse ēmptum buy
èn look, here is
enim for
ensis -is $m$ sword
eō $a d v$ to that place, there
epigramma -atis $n$ epigram
epistula -ae $f$ letter
eques -itis $m$ horseman
equidem indeed, for my part
equitātus -ūs $m$ cavalry
equus -ī $m$ horse
ergā $p r p+a c c$ toward
ergō therefore, so
$\overline{\mathrm{e}}$-ripere -iō -uisse -reptum snatch away, deprive of
errāre wander, stray
$\bar{e}$-rubēscere -buisse blush
è-rumpere break out
erus $-\overline{1} m$ master
esse sum fuisse futūrum esse/fore be
ēsse edō ēdisse ēsum eat et and, also
et...et both...and
et-enim and indeed, for etiam also, even, yet
etiam atque etiam again and again
etiam-nunc still
et-sī even if, although
ē-volāre fly out
$\overline{\mathrm{e}}$-volvere -visse -lūtum unroll
ex/ē $p r p+a b l$ out of, from, of, since
ex-audīre hear
ex-citāre wake up, arouse
ex-clāmāre cry out, exclaim
ex-cōgitāre think out, devise
ex-cruciāre torture, torment
ex-currere -rrisse -rsum run out, rush out
ex-cūsāre excuse
exemplum -ī $n$ example, model
exercitus -ūs $m$ army
ex-haurīre drain, empty
exiguus -a -um small, scanty
ex-īre -eō -iisse -itum go out
ex-īstimāre consider, think
exitus -ūs $m$ exit, way out, end
ex-ōrnāre adorn, decorate
ex-plānāre explain
ex-pōnere put out/ashore, expose
ex-pugnāre conquer
ex-pugnātiō -ōnis $f$ conquest
ex-spectāre wait (for), expect
ex-tendere -disse -tum stretch out, extend
extrā $p r p+a c c$ outside

## F

faber -brī $m$ artisan, smith
fābula -ae $f$ story, fable, play
fābulārī talk, chat
facere -iō fēcisse
factum make, do, cause
faciēs -ēī $f$ face
facile $a d v$ easily
facilis -e, sup-illimus easy
factum -ī $n$ deed, act
fallāx-ācis adi deceitful
fallere fefellisse falsum deceive
falsus -a -um false
falx -cis $f$ sickle
fāma -ae $f$ rumor, reputation
famēs -is $f$ hunger, famine
familia -ae $f$ domestic staff, family
fārī speak
fatērī fassum admit, confess
fatīgāre tire out, weary
fātum -īn fate, destiny, death
favēre fāvisse +dat favor, support
Februārius -ī (mēnsis) February
fêlīcitās -ātis $f$ good fortune, luck
fēlīx -īcis adi fortunate, lucky
fēmina -ae $f$ woman
fenestra -ae $f$ window
fera -ae $f$ wild animal
ferē about, almost
ferōx -ōcis adi fierce, ferocious
ferre tulisse lātum carry, bring, bear
ferreus -a -um of iron, iron
ferrum -ī $n$ iron, steel
fertilis -e fertile
ferus -a -um wild
fessus -a -um tired, weary
-ficere -iō -fēcisse -fectum
fidere fisum esse + dat trust, rely on
fidēs -eī $f$ trust, faith, loyalty
fidès -ium $f p l$ lyre
fidicen -inis $m$ lyre-player
fìdus -a -um faithful, reliable
fierī factum esse be made, be done, become, happen
figere -xisse -xum fix, fasten
filia -ae $f$ daughter
filiola -ae $f$ little daughter
filiolus - $\overline{1} m$ little son
filius $-\overline{1} m$ son
filum -ī $n$ thread
finīre limit, finish
finis -is $m$ boundary, limit, end
flāre blow
flectere -xisse -xum bend, turn
flēre -ēvisse cry, weep (for)
flōs -ōris $m$ flower
flūctus -ūs $m$ wave
fluere -ūxisse flow
flūmen -inis $n$ river
fluvius -ī $m$ river
foedus -a -um ugly, hideous
folium -ī $n$ leaf
forās $a d v$ out
foris -is $f$ leaf of a door, door
forīs $a d v$ outside, out of doors
fōrma -ae $f$ form, shape, figure
fōrmōsus -a -um beautiful
forsitan perhaps, maybe
fortasse perhaps, maybe
forte $a d v$ by chance
fortis -e strong, brave
fortūna -ae $f$ fortune
forum -ī $n$ square
fossa -ae $f$ ditch, trench
frangere frēgisse frāctum break, shatter
frāter -tris $m$ brother
fremere-uisse growl
frequēns -entis adi numerous, frequent
fretum -ī $n$ strait
frīgēre be cold
frīgidus -a -um cold, chilly, cool
frīgus -oris $n$ cold
frōns -ontis $f$ forehead
frūgēs -um $f p l$ fruit, crops
fruī $+a b l$ enjoy
frūmentum -ī $n$ corn, grain
frūstrā in vain
fuga -ae $f$ flight
fugere -iō fūgisse run away, flee
fugitīvus -a -um runaway
fulgur -uris $n$ flash of lightning
fundere fūdisse
fūsum pour, shed
funditus $a d v$ to the bottom, utterly
fundus - $\overline{1} m$ bottom
fūr -is $m$ thief
fürtum -ī $n$ theft
futūrus -a -um ( $v$. esse)
future
tempus futūrum future

## G

gallus -ī $m$ cock, rooster
gaudēre gavīsum esse be glad, be pleased
gaudium -īn joy, delight
geminus -a -um twin
gemma -ae $f$ precious stone, jewel
gemmātus -a -um set with a jewel
gena -ae $f$ cheek
gēns gentis $f$ nation, people
genū -ūs $n$ knee
genus -eris $n$ kind, sort
gerere gessisse
gestum carry, wear, carry on, do
glaciēs -ēī $f$ ice
gladiātor -ōris $m$ gladiator
gladiātōrius -a -um gladiatorial
gladius - $\overline{1} m$ sword
glōria -ae $f$ glory
glōriōsus -a -um glorious, boastful
gracilis -e slender
gradus -ūs $m$ step, degree
Graecus -a -um Greek
grammatica -ae $f$ grammar
grātia -ae $f$ favor, gratitude
gen (/meā $)+$ grātiā for the sake of
grātiam habēre be grateful
grātiās agere thank
grātus -a -um pleasing, grateful
gravida adif pregnant
gravis -e heavy, severe, grave
gremium -ī $n$ lap
grex -egis $m$ flock, herd, band
gubernāre steer, govern
gubernātor -ōris
$m$ steersman
gustāre taste

## H

habēre have, hold, consider
habitāre dwell, live
hasta -ae $f$ lance
haud not
haurīre -sisse -stum draw (water), bail
herba -ae $f$ grass, herb
herī yesterday
heu o! alas!
heus hey! hello!
hic haec hoc this
hīc here
hiems -mis $f$ winter
hinc from here, hence
hodiē today
holus -eris $n$ vegetable
homō-inis $m$ human being, person
hōra -ae $f$ hour
horrendus -a -um dreadful
horrēre bristle, stand on end, shudder (at)
hortārī encourage, urge
hortus -ī $m$ garden
hospes -itis $m$ guest, guestfriend
hostis -is $m$ enemy
hūc here, to this place
hūmānus -a -um human
humì loc on the ground
humilis -e low
humus -i $f$ ground

## I

iacere -iō iēcisse iactum throw, hurl
iacēre lie
iactāre throw, toss about
iactūra -ae $f$ throwing away, loss
iam now, already
iānitor -ōris $m$ doorkeeper
iānua -ae $f$ door
Iānuārius -ī
(mēnsis) January
ibi there
-icere -iō -iēcisse -iectum
idem eadem idem the same id-eō for that reason idōneus -a -um fit, suitable īdūs -uum fol 13th/15th (of the month)
iecur -oris $n$ liver
igitur therefore, then, so
ignārus -a -um ignorant, unaware
ignis -is $m$ fire
ignōrāre not know
ignōscere -ōvisse + dat forgive
ignōtus -a -um unknown
ille-a -ud that, the one, he
illic there
illinc from there
illūc there, thither
illūstrāre illuminate, make clear
imāgō -inis $f$ picture
imber -bris $m$ rain, shower
imitārī imitate
im-mātūrus -a -um unripe
immō no, on the contrary
im-mortālis -e immortal
im-pār-aris adi unequal
im-patiēns -entis adi impatient
im-pendēre +dat threaten
imperāre + dat command, order, rule
imperātor -ōris $m$ (commanding) general
imperium -ī $n$ command, empire
impetus -ūs $m$ attack, charge
im-piger -gra -grum active, industrious
im-plēre -ēvisse -ētum fill, complete
im-plicāre-uisse-itum enfold
impluvium -ī $n$ water basin
im-pōnere place (in/on), put
im-primere -pressisse -pressum press (into)
im-probus -a -um bad, wicked
ìmus -a -um sup lowest
in $p r p+a b l$ in, on, at
prp + acc into, to, against
in-certus -a -um uncertain
in-cipere -iō coepisse coeptum begin
in-clūdere -sisse -sum shut up
incola -ae $m / f$ inhabitant
in-colere inhabit
incolumis -e unharmed, safe
inconditus -a -um unpolished, rough
inde from there, thence
index -icis $m$ list, catalogue
in-dignus -a -um unworthy, shameful
in-doctus -a -um ignorant
induere -uisse -ūtum put on (clothes)
indūtus $+a b l$ dressed in
industrius -a -um industrious
in-ermis -e unarmed
in-esse be (in)
in-exspectātus -a -um unexpected
infāns -antis $m / f$ little child, baby
inn-fèlīx -īcis adi unlucky, unfortunate
inferior -ius comp lower, inferior
inferus -a -um lower
Īnferī -ōrum $m p l$ the underworld
infēstus -a -um unsafe, infested
in-fìdus -a -um faithless
infimus -a -um sup lowest
in-fluere flow into
īnfrā $p r p+a c c$ below
ingenium - $\overline{1} n$ nature, character
ingēns -entis adi huge, vast
in-hūmānus -a -um inhuman
in-imīcus -ī $m$ (personal) enemy
in-inimícus -a -um unfriendly
initium -ī $n$ beginning
iniūria-ae $f$ injustice, wrong
in-iūstus -a -um unjust, unfair
inopia -ae $f$ lack, scarcity
inquit -iunt (he/she) says/ said
inquam I say
inn-scrībere write on, inscribe
īnscrīptiō -ōnis $f$ inscription
īn-struere -ūxisse -ūctum draw up, arrange
instrūmentum -ī $n$ tool, instrument
insula -ae $f$ island
integer -gra -grum undamaged, intact
intellegere -ēxisse -ēctum understand, realize
inter $p r p+a c c$ between, among, during
inter sē (with) one another
inter-dum now and then
inter-eā meanwhile
inter-esse be between
inter-ficere kill
interim meanwhile
internus -a -um inner, internal
inter-pellāre interrupt
inter-rogāre ask, question
intrā $p r p+a c c$ inside, within
intrāre enter
intuērī look at, watch
intus $a d v$ inside
in-validus -a -um infirm, weak
in-vehere import
in-venīre find
in-vidēre + dat envy, grudge
invidia -ae $f$ envy
in-vocāre call upon, invoke
iocōsus -a -um humorous, funny
ipse -a -um himself
īra -ae $f$ anger
īrātus -a -um angry
īre eō iisse itum go
is ea id he, she, it, that
iste -a -ud this, that (of yours)
ita so, in such a way
ita-que therefore
item likewise, also
iter itineris $n$ journey, march, way
iterum again, a second time
iubēre iussisse
iussum order, tell
iūcundus -a -um pleasant, delightful
Iūlius -ī (mēnsis) July
iungere iūnxisse
iūnctum join, combine
Iūnius -ī (mēnsis) June
iūs iūris $n$ right, justice
iūre justly, rightly
iūstus -a -um just, fair
iuvāre iūvisse iūtum help, delight
iuvenis -is $m$ young man
iūxtā $p r p+a c c$ next to, beside

## K

kalendae -ārum fpl the 1st (of the month)
kalendārium -ī $n$ calendar

## L

lābī lāpsum slip, drop, fall
labor -ōris $m$ work, toil
labōrāre toil, work, take trouble
labrum -ī $n$ lip
labyrinthus -ī $m$ labyrinth
lac lactis $n$ milk
lacertus -ī $m$ (upper) arm
lacrima-ae $f$ tear
lacrimāre shed tears, weep
lacus -ūs $m$ lake
laedere -sisse -sum injure, hurt
laetārī rejoice, be glad
laetitia -ae $f$ joy
laetus -a -um glad, happy
laevus -a -um left
lāna -ae $f$ wool
largīrī give generously
largus -a -um generous
latēre be hidden, hide
Latīnus -a -um Latin
lātrāre bark
latus -eris $n$ side, flank
lātus -a -um broad, wide
laudāre praise
laus laudis $f$ praise
lavāre lāvisse lautum wash, bathe
lectīca -ae $f$ litter, sedan
lectulus -ī $m$ (little) bed
lectus -i $m$ bed, couch
lēgātus -ī $m$ envoy, delegate
legere lēgisse lēctum read
legiō -ōnis $f$ legion
legiōnārius -a -um legionary
leō-ōnis $m$ lion
levāre lift, raise
levis -e light, slight
lēx lēgis $f$ law
libellus -ī $m$ little book
libenter with pleasure, gladly
liber -brī $m$ book
līber -era -erum free
līberāre free, set free
libēre: libet +dat it pleases
līberī -ōrum $m p l$ children
lībertās -ātis $f$ freedom, liberty
lībertīnus -i $m$ freedman
licēre: licet +dat it is allowed, one may
ligneus -a -um wooden
lignum -ī $n$ wood
lìlium -īn lily
limen-inis $n$ threshold
līnea -ae $f$ string, line
lingua -ae $f$ tongue, language
littera -ae $f$ letter
littus -oris $n$ beach, shore
locus -ī $m$ place
loca -ōrum $n$ pl regions, parts
longē far, by far
longus -a -um long
loquī locūtum speak, talk
lūcēre lūxisse shine
lucerna -ae $f$ lamp
lucrum -ī $n$ profit, gain
luctārī wrestle
lūdere -sisse -sum play
lūdus -īm play, game, school
lūgēre-xisse mourn
lūna -ae $f$ moon
lupus -i $m$ wolf
lūx lūcis $f$ light, daylight

## M

maerēre grieve
maestus -a -um sad,
sorrowful
magis more
magister -trī
$m$ schoolmaster, teacher
magnificus -a -um magnificent, splendid
magnus -a -um big, large, great
māior -ius comp bigger, older
Māius - $\overline{1}$ (mēnsis) May
male $a d v$ badly, ill
maleficium -ī $n$ evil deed, crime
mālle māluisse prefer
malum -ī $n$ evil, trouble, harm
mālum -ī $n$ apple
malus -a -um bad, wicked, evil
mamma-ae $f$ mummy
māne indēcl n, $a d v$ morning, in the morning
manēre mānsisse remain, stay
manus - ūs $f$ hand
mare -is $n$ sea
margarīta -ae $f$ pearl
maritimus -a -um sea, coastal
marītus -i $m$ husband
Mārtius -ī (mēnsis) March
māter -tris $f$ mother
māteria -ae $f$ material, substance
mātrōna -ae $f$ married woman
mātūrus -a -um ripe
māximē most, especially
māximus -a -um biggest, greatest, oldest
medicus-1 $m$ physician, doctor
medium -ī $n$ middle, center
medius -a -um mid, middle
mel mellis $n$ honey
melior -ius comp better
mellītus -a -um sweet
membrum -īn limb
meminisse $+g e n /$ acc remember, recollect
memorāre mention
memoria -ae $f$ memory
mendum -ī $n$ mistake, error
mēns mentis $f$ mind
mēnsa -ae $f$ table
mēnsa secunda dessert
mēnsis -is $m$ month
mentiō -ōnis $f$ mention
mentīrī lie
mercātor -ōris $m$ merchant
mercātōrius -a -um merchant-
mercēs -ēdis $f$ wage, fee, rent
merēre earn, deserve
mergere -sisse -sum dip, plunge, sink
merīdiēs -ēī $m$ midday, noon, south
merum -ī $n$ neat wine
merus -a -um pure, neat, undiluted
merx -rcis $f$ commodity, $p l$ goods
metere reap, harvest
metuere -uisse fear
metus -ūs $m$ fear
meus -a -um, voc mī my, mine
mīles -itis $m$ soldier
mīlitāre serve as a soldier
mīlitāris -e military
mille, pl mīlia -ium $n$ thousand
minārī +dat threaten
minimē by no means, not at all
minimus -a -um sup smallest, youngest
minister -trī $m$ servant
minor -us comp smaller, younger
minuere -uisse -ūtum diminish, reduce
minus -ōris $n, a d v$ less
mīrābilis -e marvelous, wonderful
mīrārī wonder (at), be surprised
mīrus -a -um surprising, strange
miscēre-uisse mixtum mix
misellus -a -um poor, wretched
miser -era -erum unhappy, miserable
mittere mīsisse missum send, throw
modo only, just
modo...modo now...now
modus -i $m$ manner, way
nūllō modō by no means
moenia -ium $n p l$ walls
molestus -a -um
troublesome
mollīre make soft, soften
mollis -e soft
monēre remind, advise, warn
mōns montis $m$ mountain
mōnstrāre point out, show mōnstrum -ī $n$ monster
mora -ae $f$ delay
mordēre momordisse -sum bite
morī mortuum die
mors mortis $f$ death
mortālis -e mortal
mortuus -a -um (< morī) dead
mōs mōris $m$ custom, usage
movēre mōvisse mōtum move, stir
mox soon
mulier -eris $f$ woman
multī -ae -a many, a great many
multitūdō -inis $f$ large number, multitude multō + comp much, by far multum -ī $n, a d v$ much mundus -i $m$ world, universe
mundus -a -um clean, neat
mūnīre fortify
mūnus -eris $n$ gift
mūrus $-\overline{1} m$ wall
Mūsa -ae $f$ Muse
mūtāre change, exchange
mūtus -a -um dumb
mūtuus -a -um on loan
mūtuum dare/sūmere lend/ borrow

N
nam for
-nam ...ever?
namque for
nārrāre relate, tell
nārrātiō -ōnis $f$ narrative
nāscī nātum be born
nāsus $-\overline{1} m$ nose
natāre swim
nātūra -ae $f$ nature
nātus -a -um (< nāscī)
born

XX annōs nātus 20 years old
nauta -ae $m$ sailor
nāvicula -ae $f$ boat
nāvigāre sail
nāvigātiō -ōnis $f$ sailing, voyage
nāvis -is $f$ ship
-ne ...? if, whether
nē that not, lest, that
nē...quidem not even
nec $v$. ne-que/nec
necāre kill
necessārius -a -um necessary
necesse est it is necessary
negāre deny, say that...not
neglegēns -entis adi careless
neglegere -ēxisse -ēctum neglect
negōtium -ī $n$ business, activity
nēmō -inem -inī no one, nobody
nēquam adi indēcl, sup nēquissimus worthless, bad
ne-que/nec and/but not, nor, not
n...n. neither...nor
ne-scīre not know
neu $v$. nē-ve/neu
neuter -tra -trum neither
nee-ve/neu and (that) not, nor
nex necis $f$ killing, murder
nīdus - $1 \mathrm{~m} m$ nest
niger -gra -grum black
nihil/nill nothing
nimis too, too much
nimium too much
nimius -a -um too big
nisi if not, except, but
niveus -a -um snow-white
nix nivis $f$ snow
nōbilis -e well known, famous
nocēre + dat harm, hurt
nōlī -ìte +innf don't...!
nōlle nōluisse be unwilling, not want
nōmen -inis $n$ name
nōmināre name, call
nōn not
nōnae -ārum fpl 5th/7th (of the month)
nōnāgēsimus -a -um ninetieth
nōnāgintā ninety
nōn-dum not yet
nōn-gentī -ae -a nine hundred
nōn-ne not?
nōn-nūllī -ae -a some, several
nōn-numquam sometimes
nōnus -a -um ninth
nōs nōbīs we, us, ourselves
nōscere nōvisse get to know, perf know
noster -tra -trum our, ours
nostrum gen of us
nota -ae $f$ mark, sign
nōtus -a -um known
novem nine
November -bris
(mēnsis) November
nōvisse (< nōscere) know
novus -a -um new
nox noctis $f$ night
nūbere -psisse + dat marry
nūbēs -is $f$ cloud
nūbilus -a -um cloudy
nūdus -a -um naked
nūgae -ārum $f p l$ idle talk, rubbish
nūllus -a -um no
num ...? if, whether
numerāre count
numerus - 1 i $m$ number
nummus -i $m$ coin, sesterce
numquam never
nunc now
nūntiāre announce, report
nūntius -i $m$ messenger, message
nūper recently
nūtrīx -īcis $f$ nurse
nux nucis $f$ nut

## 0

$\overline{\mathbf{o}} \mathrm{o}$ !
$\mathbf{o b} p r p+a c c$ on account of
oblīvīscī -lītum +gen/ acc forget
ob-oedīre + dat obey obscūrus -a -um dark
occidēns -entis $m$ west
oc-cidere-disse fall, sink, set
oc-cīdere - disse -sum kill
occultāre hide
oc-currere -rrisse + dat meet
ōceanus -i $m$ ocean
ocellus -ī $m$ (little) eye
octāvus -a -um eighth
octin-gentī -ae -a eight hundred
octō eight
Octōber -bris (mēnsis) October
octōgintā eighty
oculus -ī $m$ eye
ōdisse hate
odium -ī $n$ hatred
of-ferre ob-tulisse oblātum offer
officium -ī $n$ duty, task
ōlim once, long ago
omnis -e all, every
opera -ae $f$ effort, pains
operīre -uisse -ertum cover
opēs -um fpl resources, wealth
oportēre: oportet it is right, you should
opperīrī -ertum wait (for), await
oppidum -ī $n$ town
op-pugnāre attack
optāre wish
optimus -a -um sup best, very good
opus -eris $n$ work
opus est it is needed
öra -ae $f$ border, coast
ōrāre pray, beg
ōrātiō -ōnis $f$ speech
orbis -is $m$ circle, orbit
orbis terrārum the world
ōrdināre arrange, regulate
ōrdō-inis $m$ row, rank, order
oriēns -entis $m$ east
orīrī ortum rise, appear
ōrnāmentum -ī
$n$ ornament, jewel
ōrnāre equip, adorn
os ossis $n$ bone
$\overline{\mathbf{o}}$ ō ōris $n$ mouth
ōscitāre gape, yawn
ōsculārī kiss
ōsculum -ī $n$ kiss
ostendere -disse show
ōstiārius -i $m$ door-keeper, porter
ōstium -ī $n$ door, entrance
ōtiōsus -a -um leisured, idle
ōtium -ī $n$ leisure
ovis -is $f$ sheep
ōvum -īn egg

## P

pābulum -ī $n$ fodder
paene nearly, almost
paen-īnsula -ae $f$ peninsula
pāgina -ae $f$ page
pallēre be pale
pallidus -a -um pale
pallium -īn cloak, mantle
palma -ae $f$ palm
palpitāre beat, throb
pānis -is $m$ bread, loaf
papyrus - $\overline{1} f$ papyrus
pār paris adi equal
parāre prepare, make ready
parātus -a -um ready
parcere pepercisse +dat spare
parentēs -um $m p l$ parents
parere -iō peperisse give birth to, lay
pārēre (+dat) obey
parricīda -ae $m$ parricide
pars -rtis $f$ part, direction
partīrī share, divide
parum too little, not quite
parvulus -a -um little, tiny
parvus -a -um little, small
pāscere pāvisse
pāstum pasture, feed, feast
passer -eris $m$ sparrow
passus -ūs $m$ pace ( 1.48 m )
pāstor -ōris $m$ shepherd
pater -tris $m$ father
patēre be open
patī passum suffer, undergo, bear
patiēns -entis adi patient
patientia -ae $f$ forbearance, patience
patria -ae $f$ native country/ town
paucī-ae-a few, a few
paulisper for a short time
paulō + comp, ante/post a little
paulum a little, little
pauper -eris adi poor
pāx pācis $f$ peace
pectus -oris $n$ breast
pecūlium -ī $n$ money given to slaves
pecūnia -ae $f$ money
pecūniōsus -a -um wealthy
pecus -oris $n$ livestock, sheep, cattle
pedes -itis $m$ foot-soldier
pēior -ius comp worse
pellere pepulisse pulsum push, drive (off)
penna -ae $f$ feather
pēnsum -ī $n$ task
per $p r p+a c c$ through, by, during
per-currere -rrisse -rsum run over, pass over
per-cutere -iō -cussisse -cussum strike, hit
per-dere-didisse-ditum destroy, ruin, waste
per-ferre carry, endure
per-ficere complete, accomplish
pergere -rexi, -rectum proceed, go on
perīculōsus -a -um dangerous, perilous
perīculum -ī $n$ danger, peril
per-īre -eō -iisse perish, be lost
peristylum -ī $n$ peristyle
per-mittere allow, permit
per-movēre move deeply
perpetuus -a -um continuous, permanent
per-sequī follow, pursue
persōna -ae $f$ character, person
per-suādēre-sisse + dat persuade, convince
per-territus -a -um terrified
per-turbāre upset
per-venīre get to, reach
pēs pedis $m$ foot
pessimus -a -um sup worst
petasus - 1 mat
petere -īvisse -ītum make for, aim at, attack, seek, ask for, request
phantasma -atis $n$ ghost, apparition
piger -gra -grum lazy
pila -ae $f$ ball
pīlum -ī $n$ spear, javelin
pīpiāre chirp
pīrāta -ae $m$ pirate
pirum -ī $n$ pear
piscātor -ōris $m$ fisherman
piscis -is $m$ fish
placēre + dat please
plānē plainly, clearly
plānus -a -um plain, clear
plaudere -sisse (+dat) clap, applaud
plēnus -a -um (+gen/abl) full (of)
plērī-que plērae- plēramost, most people
plērumque mostly
plōrāre cry
plūrēs -a comp more
plūrimī -ae -a sup most, a great many
plūs plūris $n, a d v$ more
pōculum -ī $n$ cup, glass
poena -ae $f$ punishment, penalty
poēta -ae $m / f$ poet
poēticus -a -um poetical
pollicērī promise
pōnere posuisse
positum place, put, lay down
populus $-\overline{1} m$ people, nation
porcus -īm pig
porta -ae $f$ gate
portāre carry
portus -ūs $m$ harbor
poscere poposcisse demand, call for
posse potuisse be able
possidēre -sēdisse possess, own
post $p r p+a c c, a d v$ behind, after, later
post-eā afterward, later
posterior -ius comp back-, hind-, later
posterus -a -um next, following
posthāc from now on, hereafter
post-quam after, since
postrēmō $a d v$ finally
postrēmus -a -um sup last
postulāre demand, require pōtāre drink
potestās -ātis $f$ power
pōtiō -ōnis $f$ drinking, drink
potius rather
prae $p r p+a b l$ before, for
praecipuē especially, above all
praedium -ī $n$ estate
praedō -ōnis $m$ robber, pirate
prae-esse $(+d a t)$ be in charge (of)
prae-ferre prefer
praemium -īn reward, prize
prae-nōmen -inis $n$ first name
prae-pōnere + dat put before/in charge of praesēns -entis adi present
prae-stāre-stitisse furnish, fulfill
praeter $p r p+a c c$ past, besides, except
praeter-eā besides
praeteritus -a -um past
prāvus -a -um faulty, wrong
precārī pray
precès -um $f p l$ prayers
prehendere-disse -ēnsum grasp, seize
premere pressisse pressum press
pretiōsus -a -um precious
pretium -ī $n$ price, value
prīdem long ago
prī-diē the day before
prīmō $a d v$ at first
prīmum $a d v$ first
prīmus -a -um first
prīnceps -ipis $m$ chief, leader
prīncipium -ī $n$ beginning
prior -ius first, former, front-
prius $a d v$ before
prius-quam before
prīvātus -a -um private
prō $p r p+a b l$ for, instead of
probus -a -um good, honest, proper
prō-cēdere go forward, advance
procul far (from), far away
prō-currere -rrisse -rsum run forward, charge
prōd-esse prō-fuisse + dat be useful, do good
proelium -i $n$ battle
profectō indeed, certainly
prō-ferre bring forth, produce
proficīscī -fectum set out, depart
prō-gredī -ior -gressum go forward, advance
pro-hibēre keep off, prevent
prō-icere throw (forward)
prōmere -mpsisse -mptum take out
prōmissum -īn promise
prō-mittere promise
prope $p r p+a c c, a d v$ near, nearly
properāre hurry
propinquus -a -um near, close
proprius -a -um own, proper
propter prp +acc because of
propter-eā therefore
prō-silīre -uisse spring forth
prō-spicere look out, look ahead
prōtinus at once
prōvincia -ae $f$ province
proximus -a -um sup nearest
prūdēns -entis adi prudent, clever
pūblicus -a -um public, State-
pudēre: pudet mē (+gen) I am ashamed (of)
pudor -ōris $m$ (sense of) shame
puella -ae $f$ girl
puer -erī $m$ boy
pugna -ae $f$ fight
pugnāre fight
pugnus -i $m$ fist
pulcher -chra -chrum beautiful, fine
pulchritūdō -inis $f$ beauty
pullus -ī $m$ young (of an animal)
pulmō -ōnis $m$ lung
pulsāre strike, hit, knock
(at)
pūnīre punish
puppis -is $f$ stern, poop
pūrus -a -um clean, pure
putāre think, suppose

## Q

quadrāgēsimus -a -um fortieth
quadrāgintā forty
quadrin-gentī -ae -a four hundred
quaerere -sīvisse -sītum
look for, seek, ask (for)
quālis -e what sort of, (such) as
quālitās -ātis $f$ quality
quam how, as, than
quam + sup as...as possible
quam-diū how long, (as long) as
quam-ob-rem why
quamquam although
quandō when, as
quantitās -ātis $f$ quantity, size
quantum -ī $n$ how much, (as much) as
quantus -a -um how large, (as large) as
quā-propter why
quā-rē why
quārtus -a -um fourth
quārta pars fourth, quarter
quasi as, like, as if
quater four times
quatere - iō shake
quaternī -ae -a four (each)
quattuor four
quattuor-decim fourteen
-que and
querī questum complain, grumble
quī quae quod who, which, he who
quī quae quod (...?) what, which
quia because
quid $n$ ( $v$. quis) what, anything
quid $a d v$ why
quī-dam quae- quod- a certain, some
quidem indeed, certainly
nē quidem not even quidnī why not
quid-quam anything
neque/nec quidquam and nothing
quid-quid whatever, anything that
quiēscere -ēvisse rest
quiētus -a -um quiet
quīn why not, do...!
quīn-decim fifteen
quīn-gentī -ae -a five hundred
quīnī -ae -a five (each)
quīnquāgintā fifty
quīnque five
quīnquiēs five times
Quīntīlis -is (mēnsis) July
quīntus -a -um fifth
quis quae quid who, what
quis quid ( $\mathrm{si} / \mathrm{num} /$ nē...) anyone, anything
quis-nam quid-nam who/ what ever?
quis-quam anyone
neque/nec quisquam and no one
quis-que quae- quod- each
quis-quis whoever, anyone who
quō $a d v$ where (to)
quod (= quia) because, that
quod $n$ ( $v$. quī) what, which, that which
quō-modo how
quoniam as, since
quoque also, too
quot indēcl how many, (as many) as
quot-annīs every year
quotiēs how many times

## R

rāmus -ī $m$ branch, bough
rapere - $\mathrm{i} \overline{0}$-uisse -ptum tear away, carry off
rapidus -a -um rushing, rapid
rārō $a d v$ rarely, seldom
rārus -a -um rare
ratiō-ōnis $f$ reason
ratis -is $f$ raft
re-cēdere go back, retire
re-cipere receive, admit
recitāre read aloud
re-cognōscere recognize
rēctus -a -um straight, correct
rēctā (viā) straight
re-cumbere-cubuisse lie down
red-dere-didisse-ditum give back, give
red-imere -ēmisse -ēmptum ransom
red-īre -eō-iisse -itum go back, return
re-dūcere lead back, bring back
re-ferre rettulisse bring back, return
regere rēxisse rēctum direct, guide, govern
regiō -ōnis $f$ region, district
rēgnāre reign, rule
rēgula -ae $f$ ruler
re-linquere -līquisse -lictum leave
reliquus -a -um remaining, left
re-manēre remain, stay behind
rēmigāre row
re-minīscī + gen/ acc recollect
re-mittere send back
re-movēre remove
rēmus -ī $m$ oar
repente suddenly
reperīre repperisse repertum find
re-pōnere put back
re-prehendere blame, censure
re-pugnāre fight back, resist
re-quiēscere rest
re-quīrere -sīvisse -sītum seek, ask
rēs reī $f$ thing, matter, affair
re-sistere -stitisse + dat halt, resist
re-spondēre-disse-sum answer
respōnsum $-\overline{1} n$ answer
rēte -is $n$ net
re-tinēre-uisse -tentum hold back
re-trahere pull back, bring back
re-venīre come back
revertī -tisse -sum return, come back
re-vocāre call back, revoke rēx rēgis $m$ king
rīdēre-sisse-sum laugh, make fun of
rīdiculus -a -um ridiculous rigāre irrigate
rīpa -ae $f$ bank
rīsus -ūs $m$ laughter, laugh
rīvus -ī $m$ brook
rogāre ask, ask for
rogitāre ask (repeatedly)
Rōmānus -a -um Roman
rosa -ae $f$ rose
ruber -bra -brum red
rubēre be red, blush
rudis -e crude, rude
rūmor -ōris $m$ rumor
rumpere rūpisse
ruptum break
rūrī loc in the country
rūrsus again
rūs rūris $n$ the country
rūsticus -a -um rural, rustic, farm-

## S

sacculus $-\overline{1} m$ purse
saccus -ī $m$ sack
sacerdōs -ōtis $m / f$ priest, priestess
saeculum -ī $n$ century
saepe often
saevus -a -um fierce, cruel
sagitta -ae $f$ arrow
sāl salis $m$ salt, wit
salīre-uisse jump
salūs -ūtis $f$ safety, wellbeing
salūtem dīcere + dat greet
salūtāre greet
salvāre save
salvē -ēte hallo, good morning
salvēre iubēre greet
salvus -a -um safe, unharmed
sānāre heal, cure
sānē certainly, quite
sanguis -inis $m$ blood
sānus -a -um healthy, well
sapere -iō-iisse be wise, have sense
sapiēns -entis adi wise
satis enough, rather saxum -ī $n$ rock
scaena -ae $f$ scene, stage
scaenicus -a -um theatrical
scalpellum -ī $n$ scalpel, surgical knife
scamnum -ī $n$ stool
scelestus -a -um criminal, wicked
scelus -eris $n$ crime
scillicet of course
scindere scidisse scissum tear, tear up
scīre know
scrībere -psisse -ptum write
scūtum -ī $n$ shield
sē sibi himself
secāre-uisse-ctum cut
secundum $p r p+a c c$ along
secundus -a -um second, favorable
sed but
sē-decim sixteen
sedēre sēdisse sit
sella -ae $f$ stool, chair
semel once
sēmen -inis $n$ seed
semper always
senex senis $m$ old man
sēnī -ae -a six (each)
sententia -ae $f$ opinion, sentence
sentīre sēnsisse sēnsum feel, sense, think
septem seven
September -bris (mēnsis) September
septen-decim seventeen
septentriōnēs -um $m$ pl north
septimus -a -um seventh
septin-gentī -ae -a seven hundred
septuāgintā seventy
sequī secūtum follow
serēnus -a -um clear, cloudless
serere sēvisse satum sow, plant
sērius -a -um serious
sermō -ōnis $m$ talk, conversation
servāre preserve, save
servīre + dat be a slave, serve
servitūs -ūtis $f$ slavery
servus -ī $m$ slave, servant
ses-centī -ae -a six hundred sēsē himself
sēstertius -ī $m$ sesterce
(coin)
seu $v$. sī-ve/seu
sevērus -a -um stern, severe
sex six
sexāgintā sixty
sexiēs six times
Sextīlis -is (mēnsis) August
sextus -a -um sixth
sī if
sic in this way, so, thus
siccus -a -um dry
sic-ut just as, as
signāre mark, seal
significāre indicate, mean
significātiō -ōnis
$f$ meaning, sense
signum -ī $n$ sign, seal, statue
silentium - $\overline{1} n$ silence
silēre be silent
silva -ae $f$ wood, forest
similis -e similar, like
simul together, at the same time
simul atque + perf as soon as
$\sin$ but if
sine $p r p+a b l$ without
sinere sīvisse situm let, allow
singulī -ae -a one (each), each
sinister -tra -trum left, $f$ the left (hand)
sinus -ūs $m$ fold (of toga)
sī-quidem seeing that, since
sitis -is $f$ thirst
situs -a -um situated
sī-ve/seu or, or if
s. ... s. whether...or
sōl-is $m$ sun
solēre-itum esse be accustomed
solum -ī $n$ soil, ground, floor
sōlum $a d v$ only
sōlus -a -um alone, lonely
solvere -visse
solūtum untie, discharge, pay
nāvem solvere cast off, set sail
somnus $-\overline{1} m$ sleep
sonus -i $m$ sound, noise
sordēs -ium fpl dirt
sordidus -a -um dirty, mean, base
soror -ōris $f$ sister
spargere -sisse -sum scatter
speciēs -ēī $f$ appearance, aspect, sort
spectāre watch, look at
spectātor -ōris $m$ spectator
speculum -ī $n$ mirror
spērāre hope (for)
spēs -eī $f$ hope
-spicere -iō -spexisse -spectum
spīrāre breathe
stāre stetisse stand
statim at once
statuere-uisse -ūtum fix, determine
stêlla -ae $f$ star
sternere strāvisse strātum spread
stilus -ī $m$ stylus
stipendium -ī $n$ soldier's pay, service
strepitus -ūs $m$ noise, din
studēre + dat devote oneself to
studiōsus -a -um (+gen) interested (in)
studium -ī $n$ interest, study
stultus -a -um stupid, foolish
stupēre be aghast
suādēre -sisse +dat advise
sub $p r p+a b l / a c c$ under, near
sub-īre -eō-iisse go under, undergo
subitō $a d v$ suddenly
subitus -a -um sudden
sub-mergere sink
sub-urbānus -a -um near the city
sūmere -mpsisse -mptum take
summus -a -um sup highest, greatest
super $p r p+a c c$ on (top of), above
$p r p+a b l$ on, about
superbus -a -um haughty, proud
super-esse be left, be in excess
superior -ius comp higher, upper, superior
superus -a -um upper
supplicium -ī $n$ (capital) punishment
suprā $p r p+a c c, a d v$ above
surdus -a -um deaf
surgere sur-rēxisse rise, get up
sur-ripere -iō-uisse -reptum steal
sūrsum up, upward
suscitāre wake up, rouse
su-spicere look up (at)
sus-tinēre support, sustain, endure
suus -a -um his/her/their (own)
syllaba -ae $f$ syllable

## T

tabella -ae $f$ writing-tablet
tabellārius -ī $m$ lettercarrier
taberna -ae $f$ shop, stall
tabernārius -ī $m$ shopkeeper
tabula -ae $f$ writing-tablet
tacēre be silent
tacitus -a -um silent
talentum -ī $n$ talent
tālis -e such
tam so, as
tam-diū so long, as long
tamen nevertheless, yet
tam-quam as, like
tandem at length, at last
tangere tetigisse tāctum touch
tantum -ī $n$ so much
alterum tantum twice as much
tantum $a d v$ so much, only
tantun-dem just as much
tantus -a -um so big, so great
tardus -a -um slow, late
tata -ae $m$ daddy
taurus -ī $m$ bull
tēctum -ī $n$ roof
temerārius -a -um reckless
tempestās -ātis $f$ storm
templum -ī $n$ temple
tempus -oris $n$ time
tenebrae -ārum $f$ pl darkness
tenebricōsus -a -um dark
tenēre -uisse -ntum hold, keep (back)
tenuis -e thin
ter three times
tergēre-sisse -sum wipe
tergum -ī $n$ back
ternī -ae -a three (each)
terra -ae $f$ earth, ground, country
terrēre frighten
terribilis -e terrible
tertius -a -um third
testis -is $m / f$ witness
theātrum - $\overline{1} n$ theater
tībiae -ārum $f$ pl flute
tībīcen -inis $m$ flute-player
timēre fear, be afraid (of)
timidus -a -um fearful, timid
timor -ōris $m$ fear
titulus -ī $m$ title
toga -ae $f$ toga
togātus -a -um wearing the toga
tollere sus-tulisse sublātum raise, lift, pick up, remove, take away
tonitrus - $\overline{\text { un }} m$ thunder
tot indēcl so many
totiēs so many times
tōtus -a -um the whole of, all
trā-dere -didisse -ditum hand over, deliver
trahere -āxisse -actum drag, pull
tranquillitās -ātis $f$ calmness
tranquillus -a -um calm, still
trāns prp $+a c c$ across, over
trāns-ferre transfer, transport
trāns-īre -eō -iisse -itum cross, pass
tre-centī -ae -a three hundred
trē-decim thirteen
tremere-uisse tremble
trēs tria three
trīcēsimus -a -um thirtieth
triclīnium -ī $n$ dining-room trīgintā thirty
trīnī -ae -a three trīstis -e sad
trīstitia -ae $f$ sadness
tū tē tibi you, yourself
tuērī tūtum guard, protect
tum then
tumultuārī make an uproar
tumultus -ūs $m$ uproar
tunc then
tunica -ae $f$ tunic
turba -ae $f$ throng, crowd
turbāre stir up, agitate
turbidus -a -um agitated, stormy
turgid(ul)us -a -um swollen
turpis -e ugly, foul
tūtus -a -um safe
tuus -a -um your, yours
tyrannus - $\overline{1} m$ tyrant

## U

ubi where
ubi prīmum +perf as soon as
ubī-que everywhere
ūllus -a -um any
nec/neque ullus and no
ulterior -ius comp farther, more distant
ultimus -a -um sup most distant, last
ultrā $p r p+a c c$ beyond ululāre howl
umbra -a $f$ shade, shadow
umerus - $1 m$ shoulder
ūmidus -a -um wet, moist
umquam ever
nec/neque umquam and never
ūnā $a d v$ together
unde from where
ūn-dē-centum ninety-nine
ūn-decim eleven
ūndecimus -a -um eleventh
ūn-dē-trīgintā twenty-nine
ūn-dē-vīgintī nineteen
ūnī -ae -a one
unniversus -a -um the whole of, entire
ūnus -a -um one, only
urbānus -a -um of the city, urban
urbs -bis $f$ city
ūrere ussisse ustum burn
$\bar{u}$ sque up (to), all the time
ut like, as
ut + coni that, in order that, to
uter utra utrum which (of the two)
uter-que utra- utrum- each of the two, both
ūtī ūsum $+a b l$ use, enjoy
utinam I wish that, if only...!
utrum...an ...or...?
whether...or
ūva -ae $f$ grape
uxor -ōris $f$ wife
V
vacuus -a -um empty
vāgīre wail, squall
valdē strongly, very (much)
valē -ēte farewell, goodbye
valēre be strong, be well
valētūdō -inis $f$ health
validus -a -um strong
vallis -is $f$ valley
vāllum -ī $n$ rampart
varius -a -um varied, different
vās vāsis $n$, $p l$-a -ōrum vessel, bowl
-ve or
vehere vēxisse vectum carry, convey, pass ride, sail, travel
vel or
velle volō voluisse want, be willing
vēlōx -ōcis adi swift, rapid
vēlum -īn sail
vel-ut like, as
vēna -ae $f$ vein
vēn-dere-didisse sell
venīre vēnisse ventum come
venter -tris $m$ belly, stomach
ventus -i $m$ wind
venustus -a -um charming
vēr vēris $n$ spring
verbera -um $n p l$ lashes, flogging
verberāre beat, flog verbum -ī $n$ word, verb
verērī fear
vērō really, however, but neque/nec vērō but not versārī move about, be
present
versiculus -i $m$ short verse versus -ūs $m$ line, verse versus: ad...versus toward vertere -tisse -sum turn vērum but vērus -a -um true, $n$ truth vesper -erī $m$ evening vesperī $a d v$ in the evening vester -tra -trum your, yours
vestīgium -ī $n$ footprint, trace
vestīmentum -ī $n$ garment, clothing
vestīre dress
vestis -is $f$ clothes, cloth vestrum gen of you vetāre forbid vetus -eris adi old via -ae $f$ road, way, street vīcēsimus -a -um twentieth victor -ōris $m$, adi conqueror, victorious
victōria -ae $f$ victory
vidēre vīdisse vīsum see, pass seem
vigilāre be awake
vigilia -ae $f$ night watch (I-IV)
vīgintī twenty
vīlis -e cheap
villa -ae $f$ country house, villa
vincere vīcisse
victum defeat, overcome, win
vincīre -nxisse -nctum tie
vīnea -ae $f$ vinyard
vīnum -ī $n$ wine
vir - $\overline{1} m$ man, husband
vīrēs -ium fpl strength
virga -ae $f$ rod
virgō-inis $f$ maiden, young girl
virtūs -ūtis $f$ valor, courage
vīs, $a c c$ vim, $a b l$ vī force, violence, power
viscera -um $n p l$ internal organs
vīsere -sisse go and see, visit vīta -ae $f$ life vītāre avoid vītis -is $f$ vine vīvere vīxisse live, be alive vīvus -a -um living, alive vix hardly vocābulum -ī $n$ word vōcālis -is $f$ vowel vocāre call, invite volāre fly voluntās -ātisf will vorāgō-inis $f$ abyss, whirlpool
vorāre swallow, devour vōs vōbīs you, yourselves vōx vōcis $f$ voice vulnerāre wound vulnus -eris $n$ wound vultus -ūs $m$ countenance, face

## Z

zephyrus - $\overline{1} m$ west wind

## Grammatical Terms

## LATIN

ablātīvus (cāsus)
accūsātīvus (cāsus)
āctīvum (genus)
adiectīvum (nōmen)
adverbium -ī $n$
appellātīvum (nōmen)
cāsus - $\overline{\text { un }} m$
comparātiō -ōnis $f$
comparātīus (gradus)
coniugātiō -ōnis $f$
coniūnctiō -ōnis $f$
coniūnctīvus (modus)
datīvus (cāsus)
dēclīnātiō -ōnis $f$
dēmōnstrātīvum (prōnōmen)
dēpōnentia (verba)

ABBREVIATIONS ENGLISH

| $a b l$ | ablative |
| :--- | :--- |
| $a c c$ | accusative |
| $\bar{a} c t$ | active |
| $a d i$ | adjective <br> $a d v$ |
|  | adverb <br> appellative <br> case <br> comparison <br> comparative <br> conjugation <br> conjunction |
| $c o m p$ | subjunctive <br> dative <br> declension <br> demonstrative <br> deponent |
| $c o n i$ |  |
| coni |  |
| $d a t$ | $\bar{e} c l$ |

## LATIN

fēminīnum (genus)
futūrum (tempus)
futūrum perfectum (tempus)
genetīvus (cāsus)
genus (nōminis/verbī)
gerundium -ī $n$ gerundīvum -ī $n$
imperātīvus (modus)
imperfectum (tempus praeteritum)
indēclīnābile (vocābulum)
indēfīnītum (prōnōmen)
indicātīvus (modus)
infīnītīvus (modus)
interiectiō -ōnis $f$
interrogātīvum (prōnōmen)
locātīvus (cāsus)
masculīnum (genus)
modus (verbī)
neutrum (genus)
nōminātīvus (cāsus)
optātīvus (modus)
pars ōrātiōnis
participium -ī $n$
passīvum (genus)
perfectum (tempus praeteritum)
persōna -ae $f$
persōnāle (prōnōmen)
plūrālis (numerus)
plūsquamperfectum (tempus praet.)
positīvus (gradus)
possessīvum (prōnōmen)
praepositiō -ōnis $f$
praesēns (tempus)
praeteritum (tempus)
prōnōmen -inis $n$
proprium (nōmen)
relātīvum (prōnōmen)
singulāris (numerus)
superlātīvus (gradus)
supīnum
tempus (verbī)
verbum
vocātīvus (cāsus)

## ABBREVIATIONS ENGLISH

| $f$ f, fèm | feminine |
| :---: | :---: |
| fut | future |
| fut perf | future perfect |
| gen | genitive |
|  | gender/voice |
|  | gerun |
| imp, imper | imperative |
| imperf | imperfect |
| indēcl | indeclinable |
|  | indefinite |
| ind | indicative |
| inf | infinitive |
|  | interjection |
|  | interrogative |
| loc | locative |
| m, masc | masculine |
|  | mode |
| $n$, neutr | neuter |
| nōm | nominative |
|  | optative |
|  | part of speech |
| part | participle |
| pass | passive |
| perf | perfect |
| pers | person |
|  | personal |
| $p l, p l u ̄ r$ | plural |
| plūsqu | pluperfect |
| pos | positive |
|  | possessive |
| prp, praep | preposition |
| praes | present |
| praet | preterite, past tense |
| prōn | pronoun |
|  | proper name |
| rel | relative |
| sg, sing | singular |
| sup | superlative |
|  | supine |
|  | tense |
| $v b$ | verb |
| voc | vocative |

## Index

ablative. See also preposition
of agent, 47
absolute (ablātīvus absolūtus) (see participle)
expressions of time 110, 114, 179
of attendant circumstances, 122, 140
of comparison, 218
of degree of difference, 142, 171
of description, 297
with locus, 163
of manner, 84, 229
of means/instrument, 47, 59, 247
of price (ablāt̄̄vus pretī̄), 63
of respect $92,171,197,228,312$
of separation, $45,139,178,251,297$
of time when (ablät̄̄讠us temporis), 110, 113
review: 3rd declension sing. in $-\bar{\imath}$ and $-e, 103$; expressions of time and space, 114
accusative. See also preposition
acc. and inf. construction, 83,91
double, 113
expressions of time, 111, 114, 179
of exclamation, 130
of extent of space, 130
review: expressions of time and space, 114
adjective
and substantive, 4, 189
2nd declension, 4; in -er, 37, 158
3rd declension: adjectives of two terminations, 98 ; adjectives of one termination, 170; adjectives of
three terminations, 239; summary of 3rd declension forms, 239
as substantive, 4,189
comparison, 100, 112, 160, 166, 218
interrogative (see under interrogative)
irregular, 166
nūllus, ūllus, tōtus, solus, 167
numerical, 148
participle as an adjective: perfect, 188; present, 122
possessive, 29, 51, 93
vs. pronouns, review, 30158
reflexive possessive, 29
review: adjectives and pronouns, 23;
comparison with adverbs, 160
superlative, 112; + partitive genitive,
167; absolute, 167 ; in -er, 158;
irregular, 158; quisque +, 291
uter, neuter, alter, uterque, 120
adverb
comparative degree, 159
correlative, 44
forās, forīs, 201
from 1st/2nd declension adjectives, 150, 159
from 3rd declension adjectives, 159
in $-\bar{o}, 217$
interrogative, $12,21,43$
nihil, 127n2
numerical, 161
of place, 227
minus, magis 177
parum, 251
positive degree, 159
review, 233; comparison with adjectives, 158,160
superlative degree, 160
$\bar{a} \bar{e} r, 240$
antonym, 3
apposition. See points of style: idioms assimilation, 73
cardinal directions, 138. See also locus
cognōmen. See tria nōmina
comparative
of adjectives (Caps. XII, XIII, XXIV)
of adverbs (Cap. XVIII)
summary of adjective comparison, 218
conditions
with indicative, 312
with subjunctive, 309,312
summary, 312
conjunction, $11,21,72,79,92,113,157$, 218, 250, 269
temporal, 73, 79
convenit, 133. See also Points of Style
correlative
tam/quam, 44
tantus/quantus, 62
talis/qualis (Cap. XVIII)
cum. See conjunction; preposition
review, 282
subordinate clauses, 269
dative, 52
of indirect object, xvii, 63
of interest, 82, 121
of possession, 96
with intransitive verbs, xxiv, 100, 189, 250
declension, $11,15,69,72,74,90,99$, 109, 110, 334
decline, 15, 69
deliberative questions, 268
domus, 170, 177
ecce, 14
enclitic, $5,11,15$
esse
perfect stem, 187
subjunctive present, 253
subjunctive imperfect, 263
summary, 179
ēst/edunt, 71
expressions of time and space.
See ablative; accusative
facere/fierī, 143
fear clauses, 301
ferre
imperatives, 98
review, 299
fruī, 279
gender, xxi, 10
genitive, 11
archaic, 167
objective/subjective, 230
of quality/description, 168
of the charge, 272
of value, 269
partitive, 101, 142, 272; with mîlia, 103; with plēnus, 43; with sēstertium, 300; with superlatives, 167
gerund, 237
uses and cases of, 238
gerundive, 290
attraction, 309
glides. See semi-vowels
imperative, xxii, 28, 38
future, 241, 312
of agere, 39
of esse, 52
of salvēre, 53
irregular, 98
implied subject, 21
impersonal verbs. See verbs: impersonal
indeclinable adjective, 5, 31, 103
indefinite pronouns. See pronouns: indefinite
indicative, xxii, 28, 32
indirect commands (verba postulandī), 249
vs. indirect statement, 262
indirect questions, 270,300
indirect statement. See also accusative:
acc. and inf. construction; infinitive:
acc. and inf. construction
vs. verba postulandī, 262
reflexive pronoun in, 132
infinitive, xxii
acc. and inf. construction, 83, 91, 209
construed with: audēre, 83; dīcitur + nom. and inf., 114; iubēre, 91, 230;
necesse est + the inf. and dat. of interest, 67; oportēre, 151; velle, 83, 228
deponent, 140
tenses of:
-future: active, 209; passive, 209; summary, 210
-perfect: active, 187; passive, 188
-present: active, 80; in -se, 81; passive, 81
relative time of, 196, 201
review, 210
inquit, 124
interrogative, $2,4,55$
adjective, 60
adverb, 12, 21, 44
pronoun, 12, 21
review: pronoun vs. adjective, 60
intervocalic-s-, 81
ire, 44, 142
present participle, 212
ita...ut/ut...ita. See Points of Style: idioms
lexical entry, 24, 79
licet, 134
locative, $45,170,178,185,229$
summary 247
locus, 139, 247
mälle, 263, 308. See also velle
māne, 110
meter, 321
hendecasyllables, 322
hexameter, 322
metric feet, 321
pentameter, 322
syllabic division, 321
syllabic quantity, 321
mîlle/mīlia, 102
$\operatorname{mood}(\bmod \bar{\imath}), 28,31,248,343$
-ne. See interrogative
nēmō, 83
neuter, xxi, 10
nōlle, 177, 263, 308. See also velle
nominative
dīcitur + nom. and inf., 114
predicate nom./adj. xxiii
nostrum/nostri vs. vestrum/vestri, 272
noun
1st declension, summary of endings, 53
2nd declension, summary of endings, 53; in -er, 14
3rd declension, 69; ablative in, 103;
$i$-stems, 71, 90; masculine and
feminine, 71,78 ; neuter, 82,89 ;
pure $i$-stems, 139
4th declension, 99
5th declension, 109
vocative, 30; for nouns in -īus, 170
nūllus, 124, 167
num. See interrogative
number
cardinal, 31, 103, 111, 148
distributive, 280, 307
fractions, 111
numerical adverbs, 161
ordinals, 111, 149
orthography, xvi
participle
ablative absolute (ablätīvus absolūtus), 140, 200
future, 208; summary, 210
perfect, 184, 188; as adjective, 146; vs. the supine, 152
present (participium praesēns), 122,
relative time of, 201
review, 206; participles and infinitives, 210, 223
vs. supine, 197
parts of speech, xxi
perfect. See verbs
place constructions, 45, 229
pluperfect. See verbs
points of style
alius...alius, cauda movet/movētur, 84
bene/male velle, 231
concision, 5
convenit, 63
enumerations, 13
et...et/neque....neque/nōn sōlum... sed etiam, 54
hyperbaton, 221
idiom, to marry, 324
idiom suum ciuque, 158
idioms, 171
participles, 241
posse, 221
$q u \bar{\imath}=$ et is, 231
quid agis, 221
relative sentences, 22
$s \bar{e} h a ̄ b \bar{e} r e, 124$
word order, 143
posse, 80, 93, 133, 157, 221
possessive. See adjective; pronoun
praenōmen. See tria nōmina
predicate, xxiii
nom./adj., xxiii
preposition, xxiii
with compound verbs, 273
principal parts, 195
pronoun, xxi, 20
demonstrative, 54; hic, haec, hoc, 54; īdem, eadem, idem, 156; ille, illa, illud, 61; ipse, ipsa, ipsum, 73; is, ea, id, 53; iste, ista, istud, 200; review, 65, 200
indefinite: aliquis, aliquid, 187, 199; quīdam, quaedam, quoddam, 302; quisquis, quidquid, 289; quisquam, quidquam, 240; quisque, quaeque, quodque, 147, 156
indefinite relative, 288
interrogative, 21,
nūllus, ūllus, tōtus, solus, 167
personal: review, 273
possessive: adjective vs. pronoun, 29, 30
reflexive, 50, 218, 261
relative, 21 ; $q u \bar{\imath}=$ is $q u \bar{u}, 59,231$
uter, neuter, alter, uterque, 120
vs. possessive adjectives, review, 134
pronunciation, xvi
pudēre, 207
purpose and result. See subjunctive
qu-words, 302
quam. See points of style: idioms;
correlative
with tam, 44
in exclamations, 62
review, 62, 171
quantus. See correlative
with tantus, 62
quid. See interrogative
quis, quid. See pronoun: indefinite; interrogative
quod. See conjunction; pronoun: relative; interrogative: adjective
reflexive. See pronoun
relative. See pronoun
sentences (see points of style)
relative time of participles and infinitives, 201
Roman calendar (Julian calendar), 108
divisions/names of the months, 113
salvē/salvēte. See Imperative
semi-vowels (glides), viii
sōlus, 167
subject, xviii, 19, 23. See also noun
implied, 21, 23
subjunctive, 248
contrafactual, 309, 311
posse: with indicative, 221 ; with cum , 269, 283
deliberative questions, 268
fear clauses, 301
horatatory, 281, 291
imperfect, 258; esse, 263; velle, nōlle, malle, 308
indirect questions, 270, 300
jussive, 291
optative, 291, 301, 311
pluperfect in subordinate clauses, 239
prohibitions, 300
purpose, 262
result, 261
review, 211
signals of the subjunctive, 313
subordinate clauses, 263, 299, 310;
indicative vs. subjunctive, 273
summary, 272
tenses of:
—perfect, 298
-pluperfect, 310
—present, 248; esse, 253; īre, 203; velle, nōlle, malle, 308
-sequence of tenses, 261, 300, 311
verba postulandī, 249
verba curandī, 252
wishes, 308
superlative, $112,158,160$
absolute, 160, 167
with partitive genitive, 167
with quam, 253
with quisque, 291
supine Stem, 196. See also verbs: supine
tam, 44. See also correlative
tantus, 62. See also correlative
tantum (adv.), 62
totus, 167
time, expressions of, 110
transitive. See verbs
tria nōmina, 104
$u t, 250$
ūllus, 167
ūtor, 247
verbs
compound, 54, 273
deponent (verba dēpōnentia), 139, 218; imperative, 232; perfect participle, 230; semi-deponent, 292
impersonal: convenit, 133; decet, 181; licet, 134; necesse est, 82; oportet, 151; opus est, 171; with ablative, 297
inquit, 124
intransitive, xxvi, 20; sative with, 100; passive of, 310
irregular, 352; alphabetical List, 357; ūtor, 247
of remembering and forgetting, 297; meminisse, 297; oblīvīscī, 232; reminīscī, 297; ōdisse, 223
passive voice, 46, 150; indicative, 219 ; subjunctive, 307
principal parts, or the three verbal stems, 195,
supine, 196; ablative, 197; accusative, 196; vs. the perfect passive participle, 197
tenses of:
-imperfect (preterite), 87, 111; of all conjugations, active \& passive, 168
-future, 175; imperative, 241, 312; infinitive, 209
-future perfect, 280
—perfect (tempus praeteritum perfectum), 141, 143; infinitive active, 145; infinitive passive, 146 ; passive, 142,148 ; reduplicated perfects, 166; root perfects, 166; stem, 143, 150; summary, 189
-pluperfect, 170
-transitive/intransitive, 15; velle, 83, 177, 263; + acc. and inf., 228; bene/male, 231; mälle, 263, 308; nōlle, 177, 263, 308
-subjunctive: present subjunctive, 298; imperfect subjunctive, 308
vel, 113. See also conjunction velle, 177, 263, 308
verba cūrandī, (verbs of effecting), 252
verba postulandi, (indirect commands), 249
complements in, 250
vs. indirect statement, 262
vidērī, 241
vocative, $30,32,130,170,399$

This volume is the completely reset Second Edition of Jeanne Marie Neumann's A College Companion (Focus, 2008).

It offers a running exposition, in English, of the Latin grammar covered in Hans H. Ørberg's Familia Romana, and includes the complete text of the Ørberg ancillaries Grammatica Latina and Latin-English Vocabulary. It also serves as a substitute for Ørberg's Latine Disco, on which it is based. As it includes no exercises, however, it is not a substitute for the Ørberg ancillary Exercitia Latina I.

Though designed especially for those approaching Familia Romana at an accelerated pace, this volume will be useful to anyone seeking an explicit layout of Familia Romana's inductively-presented grammar. In addition to many revisions of the text, the Second Edition also includes new units on cultural context, tied to the narrative content of the chapter.

Jeanne Marie Neumann is Professor of Classics at Davidson College, where she has taught Latin, Greek, and Classical Civilization since 1994, and was awarded the College's most distinguished teaching award in 2005. She has conducted numerous seminars and workshops for Latin teachers at all levels of instruction, and has received national recognition for her educational outreach.


[^0]:    1. The sound as in fit, hit does not occur in the modern Romance languages, suggesting that short $i$ had more of an ee sound, but held for a shorter time.
[^1]:    2. I.e., beginning a word (initial) and in the middle of a word (medial).
    3. If a combination of letters could be used to begin a word (like the sp in hi spa ni a), those letters are kept together and go with the following vowel.
[^2]:    6. Notā Bene means "note well" or "take note-this is important!"
[^3]:    1. Frontinus (first century BC) 1.4: Nunc autem in urbem influunt aqua Appia, Aniō Vetus, Mārcia, Tepula, Iūlia, Virgō, Alsietīna quae eadem vocatur Augusta, Claudia, Aniō Novus. The Aqua Alexandrina was completed in the early third century AD.
    2. Ignore for now the letters that come after each vocabulary entry; they are there for your later reference and their significance will be clear in the next chapter.
[^4]:    1. Latin, in fact, tended to use quis for both masculine and feminine nominative singular.
[^5]:    2. Vocative, Cap. IV.
[^6]:    3. Ab urbe conditā, 1.57. Lūcrētiam...nocte sērā dēditam lānae inter lūcūbrantēs ancillās in mediō aedium sedentem inveniunt.
[^7]:    1. See the explanation (p. xv) of when-and why—sentences will be translated.
[^8]:    1. Apud most closely resembles French chez; it means in the presence of, at, near, as well as with.
[^9]:    1. Accent on the ultima: illīc; originally the word was illīce, with accent on the long penult; when the $e$ dropped, the accent was retained.
[^10]:    1. Satyricōn 72: "..nōn longē ab ōstiārī̄ cellā canis ingēns, catēnā vīnctus, in pariete erat pictus superque quadrāta litterā scrīptum 'cave canem'."
[^11]:    1. The genitive plural occurs only once in extant texts and in the form marum, not marium.
    2. The neuter accusative singular will be the same as the nominative.
[^12]:    1. When these imperatives are found in compound verbs e.g., abdūc ("lead away!") the accent remains on the ultima, a verbal reminiscence of the form was abduce.
[^13]:    2. The comparative means "too" when there is no comparison expressed or implied.
[^14]:    1. You learned the verb "it," "he/she goes," in Cap. VI, 1.20: Iūlius ab oppidō ad villam suam it.
[^15]:    1. When dextra (f.) is used as a noun, it means dextra manus = right hand; the noun sinistra means left hand.
[^16]:    2. Nihil acts as an adverb as well as a noun (contracted form is nill). As a noun, it has two forms, the indeclinable nihil above and the 2 nd declension neuter nihilum, $-\bar{i}$.
[^17]:    2. Martial 2.90: Quīntiliāne, vagae moderātor summe iuventae/Glōria Rōmānae, Quīntiliāne, togae...
[^18]:    1. Except for the participle in $-n s$, and one other form you will learn later in Cap. XXIV.
    2. As the first-century AD grammarian Quīntus Remmius Palaemōn wrote, "Dēpōnentia sunt, quod dēpōnant passīvitātem et sūmant actīvitātem."
[^19]:    3. Quaerit, sī in marī iactūra facienda sit, equīnē pretiōsī potius iactūram faciat an servul̄̄ vīlis. Hīc aliō rēs familiāris, aliō dūcit hūmānitās.
[^20]:    1. The abbreviation HS represents IIS, or 2 (II) and a half (sēmis); originally the sēstertius was valued at $21 / 2$ assēs.
[^21]:    1. Syllabīs nūllum compendium est: perdiscendae omnēs nec, ut fit plērumque, difficillima quaeque eārum differenda ut in nōminibus scrībendīs dēprehendantur.
[^22]:    2. The $m$ changes to $n$ by assimilation-see Cap. X— $n$ being a dental consonant like $d$, cf. septendecim and septentriōnēs.
[^23]:    3. That is, the genitive singular minus the ending.
[^24]:    4. If the base of an adjectives ends in $n t$, its adverb ends in nter, e.g., frequēns, frequenter.
[^25]:    5. ...ut tū fortūnam, sīc nōs tē, Celse, ferēmus.
    6. It's no easy thing to watch the eyes and hands-trembling at the starting block-of so many boys. "This," says he, "is your business; but at the end of a full year, receive one gold piece-the reward the people demand for the victor in but one race."
[^26]:    1. Also spelled Jupiter.
[^27]:    2. Iūnctiō is from iungere, Cap. XVIII.
    3. Justinian, Digest 1.3. The Digest represents the emperor Justinian's (AD 527-565) efforts to bring together all of Roman law in a more accessible way.
[^28]:    1. Quōque (from quisque), not quŏque (conjunction: also, too).
[^29]:    2. Terence Andria 473: Iūna Lūcīna, fer opem, servā mē! cries a woman in childbirth.
    3. Cornēlia Gracchōrum māter, cum Campāna mātrōna apud illam hospita ōrnāmenta sua pulcherrima illīus saeculī ostenderet, trāxit eam sermōne, dōnec è scholā redīrent līberī, et "haec," inquit, "ōrnāmenta sunt mea."
[^30]:    1. In Cap. XXV, you will learn that this rule applies not only to cities and towns, but to small islands as well.
[^31]:    2. The consonants $m$ and $n$ are sounds formed partially through the nose, and are therefore called nasals. Tangere (Cap. XI) shows both the nasal infix and reduplication: tangere $\rightarrow$ tetigisse. Note that the " $n$ " disappears in the perfect and the reduplication te is added to the stem, whose vowel has shortened.
    3. An inchoative verb is one that suggests that action of the verb is beginning or undergoing change.
    4. Aeneid 7.378-380: ceu quondam tortō volitāns sub verbere turbō,/quem puerī magnō in gȳro vacua àtria circum/intentī lūdō exercent.
[^32]:    5. Interdum nūgāris rūre paternō:/partītur lintrēs exercitus, Actia pugnaltē duce per puerōs hostīlī mōre refertur;/adversārius est frāter, lacus Hadria, dōnec/alterutrum vēlōx Victōria fronde corōnet.
[^33]:    1. The other verbs are piget (it causes revulsion or displeasure), paenitet (it causes regret), miseret (it causes pity) and taedet (it causes boredom).
[^34]:    2. A grammatical periphrasis uses two words to express a relationship instead of a simple inflected form.
[^35]:    3. Mōs antiquīs fuit, usque ad meam servātus aetātem, prīmīs epistulae verbīs adicere, "Sī valēs bene est, ego valeō." Rectē nōs dīcimus, "Sī philosophāris, bene est." Valēre enim hoc dēmum est.
    4. Dē rē pūblicā breviter ad tē scrībam; iam enim charta ipsa nē nōs prōdat pertimēscō. Itaque posthāc, sī erunt mihi plūra ad té scrībenda, d̀ $\lambda \lambda \eta \gamma o \rho i \alpha ı \varsigma ~ o b s c u ̄ r a ̄ b o ̄ . ~$
[^36]:    5. Frīgēre (to be cold, like refrigerator) is the opposite of calēre (to be hot, like calorie), not to be confused with algēre (to feel cold, for which we say, "I am cold" when we mean, "I feel cold") and aestuāre (to feel hot). Frīgēre thus means, (as here) "have nothing to do, be disregarded."
[^37]:    1. Cf. prīmum, 1.68 , adv. "first."
[^38]:    2. Finite: that is, verbs which have a personal ending limiting their meaning.
[^39]:    4. Cf: certē: certainly, at any rate.
[^40]:    1. Like illīc, illūc is accented on the ultima (i.e., originally illūce).
    2. Epist. 2.1.156: Graecia capta ferum victōrem cēpit et artīs/intulit āgrestī Latiō.
[^41]:    3. Lēthaeus, $-a$, -um: belonging to Lēthē, the river from which the dead drink and thereby forget the past; abrumpere $=a b+$ rumpere (Cap. XXII); vinculum $=$ catēnam (Cap. XXII).
[^42]:    1. Cicero, de Finibus 1.2.6.
[^43]:    2. In Cap. XXIX you will learn about questions in the subjunctive (deliberative questions).
[^44]:    3. An "object clause" is a dependent clause that functions as the object of the verb.
[^45]:    4. 1.10: superest...genus līberāle et ingenuun rē̄ familiāris augendae, quod ex agricolātiōne contingit.
[^46]:    5. 2.1: Paterfamiliās ubi ad vīllam vēnit, ubi lārem familiārem salūtāvit, fundum eōdem diē, sī potest, circumeat; sī nōn eōdem diē, at postrīdiē.
[^47]:    1. Remember: short $e$ before $-m,-t,-n t,-r,-n t u r$.
[^48]:    2. A perfect tense main verb can be followed by the present subjunctive if the perfect tense represents a present state (e.g., I have arrived=I am here), e.g., Cap. XXXIV, 1.31-32: nisi tam fortiter pugnāvit ut spectātōrēs eum vīvere velint.
[^49]:    1. When the cum-clause follows the main clause and provides the main focus of the sentence, the indicative is used. This construction is called cum inversum. Compare the force of the two English sentences: When I was reading, the phone rang; I was reading when the phone rang. In both sentences, the focus of the sentence is on the phone ringing.
    2. Cum in this function is called "cum" iterātīvum (from iterāre, "repeat").
[^50]:    4. Like rēs (Cap. XIV), spēs has a short ĕ in the genitive and dative singular (see Cap. XIII for the rules): spēs, spē̄̄.
[^51]:    1. The third variation on the participle's form is lotum.
[^52]:    2. In the singular, baths are neuter (baleum); in the plural, usually feminine (balneae), although the neuter plural is also found.
[^53]:    1. The future perfect is here used with a present tense main verb as potestātem mūtand $\bar{\imath}=$ poterō mūtāre.
[^54]:    2. Revertere exists in both active and deponent forms (reverto, revertere, revertī and revertor, revertī, reversus sum); in the present the deponent forms are more common, in the perfect, the active forms.
    3. Of this same haughty attitude, the proverb, "There are as many enemies as slaves," is tossed about: we don't possess them as enemies, but we make them so.
[^55]:    4. The story of Midas is Hyginus 191 and of Paris, 91.
    5. Justinian's Digest 48.9: Poena parricīdiū mōre maiōrum haec institūta est, ut parricīda uirgīs sanguineīs uerberātus deinde culleō ìnsuātur cum cane, gallō gallīnāceō et uīperā et sīmiā: deinde in mare profundum culleus iactātur.
[^56]:    6. Like rēs (Cap. XIV) and spēs (Cap. XXIX), fidēs has a short ĕ in the genitive and dative singular (see Cap. XIII for the rules): fidēs, fide $\bar{i}$.
[^57]:    1. First seen in Cap. XXIX: Modo tē interrogāvī tuane esset pecūnia (ll.127-128) and dubitō num haec fäbula vēra sit (11.116-117).
[^58]:    2. Haud sciō an is an idiom meaning "I think x is probably the case" (the same is true of nesciō an and dubitō an).
[^59]:    1. Notā Bene: There are no examples of this type of condition in your text.
[^60]:    1. Divisions between epigrams are marked in the text by a dash ( - ).
[^61]:    2. Inflect: To form the pattern of a word, decline a noun or conjugate a verb.
[^62]:    after a consonant:
    $\begin{array}{llll}-\bar{o} & \text {-imus } & \text {-or } & -i m u r \\ -i s & -i t i s & -e r i s & -i m i n \bar{\imath}\end{array}$
    -it -unt -itur -untur

