LINGVA LATINA

A Companion to Familia Romana

SECOND EDITION

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

Jeanne Marie Neumann



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Davidson College

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Dedication

Jon et Conor, filiis iucundissimis medullitusque amatis.

A Focus book

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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

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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

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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.

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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

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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 twenty-three letters; it lacks the English *w*; *y* and *z* were Greek imports, as were *ch*, *ph*, *th*.

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

      ▶ short: a as the first a in "aha": amat
      ⊳ long: ā as in "father": ālā, pānis
  e
      ⊳ short: e as in "let": et, bene
      ⊳ long: ē as in "prey": mē
• i
      \triangleright short: i as in "fit": in, nimis<sup>1</sup>
      ▶ long: ī as ee in "feet": hīc, līberī
O
      ▶ short: o as in "hot": post, modo
      ▶ long: ō as in bone: pōnō
      ⊳ short: u as in "full": num, sumus
      ▶ long: \bar{u} as in "fool": \bar{u}na, t\bar{u}
• y (represents the Greek upsilon)
      ⊳ short: y as French u in "lune": Syria
      ⊳ long: ȳ as French u in "pur": Lȳdia
```

^{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.

- 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. <u>Sound</u>: 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 yowel, the consonant sound "w."

Consonants

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

- b as in English: bibit, ab
- *bs* and *bt* as *ps* and *pt*: *absunt*, *obtulit*, *urbs*
- *c* is always hard as in "cat" (= *k*, without aspiration): *canis*, *centum*, *circus*, *nec*
 - \triangleright *ch*, 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
- gn 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: *mē*, *domus*, *tam*
 - ▶ In the unstressed endings -am, -em, -um, it tended to disappear.
- *n* as in English: *nōn*, *ūnus*; 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
- *ph* as English *p* with aspiration: *amphitheātrum* (see above under *ch*)
- qu as English qu in "quick": quis, aqua, equus
- r rolled or trilled: rēs, ōra, arbor, cūr
- s as in English "gas" (never voiced as in "has"): sē, rōsa, is
- t as in English (without aspiration): tē, 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*: *vōs*, *vīvus*
- x as in English (= ks): 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*, *qu*, *z*
- Like English + variations (see above): bs, bt, gn
- 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, non, sunt
 - ii. Rō ma, Nī lus, quo que
 - iii.Flu vi us, op pi dum, īn su la
 - iv. Brun di si um, Hi spā ni a³
- b. Note that in the examples above:
 - i. A consonant goes with the following vowel: Rō ma
 - ii. Two consonants are divided: op pi dum

^{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.

- c. Some consonants stay together:
 - ~ ch, ph, th, qu
 - ~ *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:

Rốma in Itália est. Itália in Európā est. Græcia in Európā est. Itália et Græcia in Európā sunt. Hispānia et Itália et Græcia in Európā 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:
 - ▶ Speak slowly and say what you see.
 - ▶ Doubled consonants (two consonants in a row) are both pronounced.
 - ▶ 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]:

- 1. qualifies a noun
- 2. sometimes stands on its own as a substantive
- 3. has (like nouns) gender, number, and case
- 4. has (unlike nouns) all three genders (can stand in agreement with any noun)
- 5. 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 Latīna:

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)<sup>4</sup>
               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)<sup>5</sup>
               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]:
```

qualifies a
 a. verb
 b. adjective

c. another adverb

^{4.} The present shows continuing action in the present (I am walking), simple present (I walk), emphatic present (I do walk).

^{5.} 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
Interjection: An exclamation for emphasis [Cap. XXII]:
```

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:

Exemplum Latīnum: heus!

<u>Rōma</u> in Italiā est.

<u>Iūlia</u> 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 Italiā 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 <u>īnsula</u> 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 <u>videt</u> Quīntum [Cap. III].

Mārcus puellam <u>pulsat</u> [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 non 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 <u>fīliō suō</u> magnum mālum dat [Cap. VII]. Dominus <u>servīs</u> māla et pira dat [Cap. VII].

Notā Bene: 6 Some verbs which are transitive in English are intransitive in Latin.

^{6.} Notā Bene means "note well" or "take note—this is important!"

I. Imperium Romanum

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: mīlle
- 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 *Eurōpā* 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., -a, -ā)

Did you also notice the slight difference between *Italia* and *Italia*, and what little word produces the long -ā? 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 $n\bar{o}n$)

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 $Eur\bar{o}p\bar{a}$ $n\bar{o}n$ est, Aegyptus in $\bar{A}fric\bar{a}$ est (l.5). There can be no doubt about the meaning of $n\bar{o}n$ (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 Asiā est* (l.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 *Est<u>ne</u> Gallia* in *Eurōpā?* 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 Galliā nōn 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 <u>Ubi</u> est Rōma? the word ubi is intelligible only when you get the answer: Rōma est <u>in Italiā</u>.

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*, *īnsula*, and *oppidum*, turn back to the picture heading the chapter.

Nouns: Singular/Plural

Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

Antonyms [↔]

As you read on, you will see that *Nīlus* is referred to not only as *fluvius*, but also as *fluvius <u>magnus</u>*, unlike *Tiberis*, which is described as *fluvius <u>parvus</u>*. In the same way, *Sicilia* is referred to as *īnsula <u>magna</u>* as opposed to *Melita* (the modern Malta), which is called *īnsula <u>parva</u>*. In the margin, *magnus* and *parvus* are represented as <u>opposites</u> (sign [↔], "the opposite of"); this will help you to understand the meaning of the words, but note that the endings change: *fluvius magnus*, but *fluviī 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 *fluviī magnī*, *īnsulae magnae*, and *oppida magna*.

Adjectives and Substantives

A word that shows this variation between the endings -us, -a, -um in the singular and -ī, -ae, -a in the plural is called an adjective (Latin adjectīvum, "added word") because it is added to a noun (substantive), which it qualifies. Other nouns occurring in this chapter are:

> prōvincia imperium vocābulum numerus

Adjectives occurring in this chapter are:

magnus, -a, -um Rōmānus, -a, -um parvus, -a, -um Latīnus, -a, -um Graecus, -a, -um prīmus, -a, -um

Plural adjectives found in this chapter are:

paucī, -ae, -a multī, -ae, -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 <u>Num</u> Crēta oppidum est? (1.49) must, of course, be answered in the negative: Crēta oppidum non 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 <u>īnsula</u>* est, makes the meaning of the question quite plain.

Compare:

Is Crete a town? (I really don't know, *Estne Crēta oppidum?*

so I'm asking.)

Crete isn't a town, is it? (I suspect Crete *Num Crēta oppidum est?*

is not a town and expect you to answer

"no.")

Remember the other interrogatives in this chapter:

Quid est Crēta? What is Crete? *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 $-\bar{o}$:

in imperi \underline{o} Rōmān \underline{o} (1.58) in capitul \underline{o} prīm \underline{o} (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)

Mīlle

Mīlle, the word for "a thousand," is an indeclinable adjective; indeclinable means its endings never change. So:

mīlle numerī mīlle vocābula mīlle 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 (*mīlle*)

Studia Romana

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 BC), then a republic run by the aristocracy (510–27 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 (*īnsula*), 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 (cornū 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. 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 ātrium, 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
capitulum, -ī chapter
exemplum, -ī example, model
fluvius, -ī river
grammatica, -ae grammar

^{1.} Frontinus (first century BC) 1.4: Nunc autem in urbem īnfluunt 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.

imperium, -ī	command, empire
īnsula, -ae	island
littera, -ae	letter
numerus, -ī	number
ōceanus, -ī	ocean
oppidum, -ī	town
pēnsum, -ī	task
prōvincia, -ae	province
syllaba, -ae	syllable
vocābulum, -ī	word
Verba (Verbs)	
est	he/she/it is
sunt	they are
Adiectīva (Adjectives)	
Graecus, -a, -um	Greek
Latīnus, -a, -um	Latin
magnus, -a, -um	big, large, great
multī, -ae, -a (pl.)	many, a great many
parvus, -a, -um	little, small
paucī, -ae, -a (pl.)	few, a few
plūrālis (numerus)	plural (plūrālis and singulāris are
	adjectives of the 3rd declension; you
	will learn about these in Cap. XII)
prīmus, -a, -um	first
Rōmānus, -a, -um	Roman, of Rome
secundus, -a, -um	second, favorable
singulāris (numerus)	singular
tertius, -a, -um	third
Numerī (Numbers)	
ūnus	one, only
duo	two
trēs	three
sex	six
mīlle	one thousand
Adverbia (Adverbs)	
nōn	not
Praepositiones (Prepositions)	
in (<i>prp.</i> + <i>abl.</i>)	in, on, at
(prp. + acc.)	into, to, against
Coniunctiones (Conjunctions)	
et	and, also
sed	but
quoque	also, too
1 1	•

Vocābula Interrogātīva (Interrogative words)

-ne? enclitic added to the emphatic word at

the beginning of a question the answer to which may be either "yes" or "no." It 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 Romana

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 Ouīntus

and -a of female persons:

Aemili<u>a</u> Syr<u>a</u> Iūli<u>a</u> Dēli<u>a</u>

This principle also applies to nouns that denote persons. Nouns referring to males generally end in -us:

fīlius servus dominus

A smaller number of masculine nouns end in -r instead of -us:

vir puer

Nouns denoting females end mostly in -a:

fēmina domina puella ancilla fīlia

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, *servī* 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: -ī (m./n.) and -ae (f.)

Iūlius est pater Mārcī et Quīntī et Iūliae.

Titulus capitulī 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. (l.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. -ī -ae

pl. -ōrum -ārum
```

In addition to the category of gender, nouns fall into categories according to their endings. These categories are called declensions ($d\bar{e}cl\bar{i}n\bar{a}ti\bar{o}n\bar{e}s$), 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: Coniunctiones

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

Instead of *et*, you often find the conjunction *-que* attached after the second word. *-que* is called an enclitic because it "leans on" (from the Greek ἐγκλίνω) 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":

```
D\bar{e}lia\ M\bar{e}dus\underline{que} = D\bar{e}lia\ \underline{et}\ M\bar{e}dus. (1.9) f\bar{i}li\bar{i}\ f\bar{i}liae\underline{que} = f\bar{i}li\bar{i}\ \underline{et}\ f\bar{i}liae. (1.22)
```

Conjunctions

```
sed ...-que = et...
```

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 qu\bar{i})Quae est Iūlia?feminine quae (plural quae)
```

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"):

<u>Cuius</u> servus est Dāvus? Dāvus servus Iūli<u>ī</u> est. (1.35)

```
m. f. n.
nom. quis? quae? quid?
gen. cuius?
```

Quot

Most words in Latin change endings; for example, *fīlius* (one son) and *fīliī* (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:

```
<u>Quot</u> līberī sunt in familiā? In familiā Iūliī sunt <u>trēs</u> līberī.
```

```
Quot filii et quot filiae? Duo filii et una filia.
```

```
Quot servī...?...centum servī. (ll.37-39)
```

```
quot? 1, 2, 3...
```

Numerī

Like $m\bar{\imath}lle$ (Cap. I) and most numerals, centum (100, l.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 ($\bar{u}nus$), two (duo), and three ($tr\bar{e}s$), however, do decline, they change endings:

- ūnus has the familiar endings -us, -a, -um
- the feminine of *duo* is *duae* (*duae fīliae*) and the neuter *duo*
- the neuter of *trēs* is *tr<u>ia</u> (<i>tria oppida*); *trēs* refers to both masculine and feminine nouns.

```
m. f. n.
ūnus ūna ūnum
duo duae duo
trēs trēs tria
```

^{1.} Latin, in fact, tended to use *quis* for both masculine and feminine nominative singular.

Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

Genitive (continued)

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

```
Numerus līber<u>ōrum</u> est trēs. (ll.43-44)
```

Numerus serv<u>orum</u> est centum. (l.43)

As *centum* must be said to be a *magnus numerus*, the following sentences are easily understood:

Numerus servõrum est magnus.

In familiā magnus numerus servorum est.

It appears that *magnus numerus servõrum* is equivalent to *multī servī*. In the same way, *parvus numerus līberõrum* has the same meaning as *paucī līberī*. You will also find the expressions *magnus numerus oppidōrum* and *fluviōrum* meaning *multa oppida* and *multī fluviī*.

```
magnus numerus...ōrum = multī...ī/multa...a
magnus numerus...ārum = multae...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:

```
<u>Cēterī</u> fluviī Āfricae parvī sunt. (l.59)
```

The adjective *cēterī*, -ae, -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 prīmum, secundum, tertium, cētera. (l.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 et Iūlia
- 2. no conjunction used at all: Mārcus, Quīntus, Iūlia

- 3. -que added to the last item: *Mārcus*, *Quīntus Iūliaque* That is:
 - 1. a et b et c
 - 2. a, b, c
 - 3. *a*, *b*, *c*-que

Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

Adjectives: Possessive

The conversation at the end of the chapter (ll.65–79) shows that instead of the genitive, the adjectives *meus*, -*a*, -*um* and *tuus*, -*a*, -*um* 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*" (l.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). 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*:

^{2.} Vocative, Cap. IV.

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 Romāna

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 virīlis* (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 *māterfamilias* 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

^{3.} Ab urbe condită, 1.57. Lücrētiam...nocte sērā dēditam lānae inter lūcūbrantēs ancillās in mediō aedium sedentem inveniunt.

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 *māterfamilias*, "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 virīlis*, 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
                                           mistress
                                           domestic staff, family
  familia, -ae
  fēmina, -ae
                                           woman
                                           daughter
  fīlia, -ae
  pāgina, -ae
                                           page
  puella, -ae
                                           girl
2nd declension
  dominus, -ī
                                           master
  fēminīnum, -ī (genus)
                                           feminine
  fīlius, -ī
                                           son
  genetīvus, -ī (cāsus)
                                           genitive
  liber, -brī
                                           book
  līberī, -ōrum
                                           children
  masculīnum, -ī (genus)
                                           masculine
  neutrum (genus)
                                           neuter
  puer, -erī
                                           boy
  servus, -ī
                                           slave, servant
  titulus, -ī
                                           title
  vir, -ī
                                           man, husband
3rd declension (you will learn more about these nouns in Cap. IX)
  māter (f.)
                                           mother
  pater (m.)
                                           father
```

Adiectīva

1st/2nd declension (-us, -a, -um)

antīquus, -a, -um old, ancient, former

centum (invariable) a hundred

cēterī, -ae, -a (*pl.*) the other(s), the rest

duo, duae, duotwomeus, -a, -ummy, minenovus, -a, -umnewtuus, -a, -umyour, yours

3rd declension (you will learn more about these adjectives in Cap. XII)

trēs, tria three

Prōnōmina

quis? quae? quid?who, whatquī? (m. pl.)what, whichcuius? (gen. sing.)whose

Adverbia

quot? (indecl.) how many, (as many) as

Coniunctiones

-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

-at	cantat, pulsat, plōrat
-et	rīdet, videt, respondet
-it	venit, audit, dormit

Like nouns, verbs are grouped into categories, called conjugations ($coniug\bar{a}ti\bar{o}n\bar{e}s$); verbs in the 1st conjugation have stems ending in $-\bar{a}$, in the 2nd in $-\bar{e}$, in the 4th in $-\bar{t}$. 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 -it and others ending in a consonant.

Nouns: Subject/Object

The first of the two words in the sentence $I\bar{u}lia$ cantat denotes the person who performs the action. Other sentences of the same kind are:

```
Iūlia plōrat. (l.9)Aemilia venit. (l.21)Mārcus rīdet. (l.10)Pater dormit. (l.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* (l.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. (l.14)
Quīntus Mārcum pulsat. (l.13) Iūlia Aemiliam vocat. (l.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: $I\bar{u}li\underline{a}$ is changed to $I\bar{u}li\underline{a}\underline{m}$ when we are told that Marcus hits her, just as $M\bar{a}rc\underline{u}\underline{s}$ becomes $M\bar{a}rc\underline{u}\underline{m}$ when he is the victim. In similar circumstances, $puell\underline{a}$ changes to $puell\underline{a}\underline{m}$, and puer to $puer\underline{u}\underline{m}$, and qualifying adjectives get the same ending:

```
Mārcus parv<u>am</u> puell<u>am</u> pulsat. (1.59)
Iūlius puer<u>um</u> improb<u>um</u> verberat. (1.64)
```

```
subject object verb
Mārc<u>us</u> Iūli<u>am</u> pulsat
```

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

Both the nominative (subject) and the accusative (object) are called *cases*: $c\bar{a}sus\ n\bar{o}min\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}vus$ and $c\bar{a}sus\ acc\bar{u}s\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}vus$.

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). (l.9)
```

Mārcus nōn videt Quīntum (transitive). (l.11)

In the following sentence, the first verb (*pulsat*) is transitive and the second (*ridet*) intransitive:

Mārcus puellam pulsat—et rīdet! (l.12)

Notā 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 <u>eam</u> pulsat. (ll.27–28)
```

Cūr Iūlius Quīntum nōn audit? Iūlius <u>eum</u> nōn audit, quia dormit. (ll.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 <u>mē</u> vocat?"

Quīntus: "Iūlia <u>tē</u> 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 <u>venit</u>?" (ll.35–36)
```

Similarly:

```
Iūlius eum nōn audit, quia dormit. (1.43)
```

"Cūr māter Mārcum verberat?" "Mārcum <u>verberat</u>, quia puer improbus est." (ll.58–59)

Adverbs: Interrogatives cūr and quia

The interrogative adverb $c\bar{u}r$ ("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"):

```
<u>Cūr</u> Iūlia plōrat? Iūlia plōrat, <u>quia</u> Mārcus eam pulsat. (ll.26–28) 
<u>Cūr</u> Mārcus Iūliam pulsat? <u>Quia</u> Iūlia cantat. (ll.30–31) 
question: cūr...? 
answer: ...quia...
```

Conjunctions: Negative

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

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

Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

Pronouns: Relative and Interrogative

In the sentence $Puer \underline{qu\bar{i}}$ parvam puellam pulsat improbus est (l.63), $qu\bar{i}$ 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, $qu\bar{i}$ 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. (ll.75-76)

Puella quam Mārcus pulsat est Iūlia. (ll.72–73)

The examples show that $qu\bar{i}$ 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? (l.69)

In the feminine, the two pronouns are identical:

<u>Quae</u> est puella <u>quae</u>

Who (interrogative) is the girl who

(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

plōrat?

• (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.* (l.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.

^{1.} See the explanation (p. xv) of when—and why—sentences will be translated.

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 qui...

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)quī, quaewho (interrogative pronoun, plural)quiabecause (conjunction)quothow 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 $(-\bar{a}, -\bar{e}, -\bar{i}, -\bar{i}, \text{ or consonant})$ 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 Romāna

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 (*armārium*) 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*, λυχνοῦχος).

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 ā 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* (ll.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
                                             mommy
    persona, -ae
                                             character, person
    scaena, -ae
                                             scene, stage
  2nd
    accūsātīvus, -ī (cāsus)
                                             accusative
    nominatīvus, -ī (casus)
                                            nominative
                                             word, verb
    verbum, -ī
Verba
  -at (1)
    cantat
                                             sing
    interrogat
                                            ask, question
    plorat
                                            cry
                                             strike, hit, knock (at)
    pulsat
    verberat
                                             beat, flog
    vocat
                                             call, invite
  -et (2)
    respondet
                                             answer
    rīdet
                                             laugh, make fun of
    videt
                                             see
  -it (4)
    audit
                                            hear, listen
    dormit
                                             sleep
    venit
                                             come
Adiectīva
  1st/2nd (-us, -a, -um)
                                            bad, wicked
    improbus, -a, -um
    īrātus, -a, -um
                                             angry
    laetus, -a, -um
                                             glad, happy
    probus, -a, -um
                                             good, honest, proper
```

Prōnōmina

eamhereumhimmēme

quae (f.)who, which, she whoquam (acc. sing. f.)whom, which, she whomquem (acc. sing. m.)whom, which, he whomquī (m.)who, which, he who

tē you

Adverbia

cūr? why?

iam now, already

hīc here

Coniūnctiones

neque and not, but not, nor, neither

quia because

Alia (Cētera)

ō! oh!

IV. Dominus et Servī

Rēs Grammaticae Novae

- 1. Verbs
 - a. Conjugations: conjugātionēs
 - 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 course—and 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 $-\bar{a}$: $voc\bar{a}$ -, $cant\bar{a}$ -, $puls\bar{a}$ -.

2nd conjugation: ē-verbs, with stems ending in -ē: tacē-, vidē-, habē-.

3rd conjugation: consonant-verbs, with stems ending in a consonant: $p\bar{o}n$ -, $s\bar{u}m$ -, $disc\bar{e}d$ -.

4th conjugation: *ī*-verbs, with stems ending in -*ī*: ven<u>ī</u>-, aud<u>ī</u>-, dorm<u>ī</u>-.

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: $voc\underline{a}|t$, $vid\underline{e}|t$, $ven\underline{i}|t$
- in the consonant-verbs a short -*i* is inserted before the -*t*: $p\bar{o}n|\underline{i}t$, $s\bar{u}m|\underline{i}t$, $disc\bar{e}d|\underline{i}t$.

Conjugations

```
ar{a}-stems vocar{a}-ar{e}-stems vidar{e}-consonant-stems par{o}n-ar{i}-stems venar{i}-
```

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 Imperatīvus

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 <u>vocā!</u> (l.24) <u>Tacē</u>, serve! (l.37)

<u>Venī</u>! (l.27) Sacculum tuum in mēnsā <u>pōne</u>! (l.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 t	he, she, it sees
<i>pōn</i> <i>e</i> : 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 \underline{eius} (: $I\bar{u}li\bar{l}$) est pecūnia. (1.1)

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

The adjectives *meus*, -a, -um (my), tuus, -a, -um (yours) and suus, -a, -um (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 <u>suum</u> in mēnsā pōnit.

Iam sacculus eius in mēnsā est.

In the first sentence—*Dāvus 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 *pecūniam*, 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: *Iūlius 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 <u>tuus</u>? Where is your bag? (1.58)
Ecce sacculus <u>meus</u>. Here is my bag. (1.59)
Sūme sacculum <u>tuum</u>. Take your bag. (1.73)

Dāvus sacculum <u>eius</u> sūmit. 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! (l.60)

Mater! Mārcus Quīntum pulsat. (ll.16–17)

Fū, puer! (l.45)

St, puerī! (l.39)

Pater! Pa-ter! (l.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 2nd declension nominative ends in *-us*, the vocative ends in *-e*. Medus calls Davus, crying, "*Dāve*!" (l.25), and when Davus greets his master, he says, "*Salvē*, *domine*!" and Julius answers, "*Salvē*, *serve*!" (ll.34–35).

```
\begin{array}{cccc} D\bar{a}v\underline{u}\underline{s} \text{ (nom.)} & \rightarrow & D\bar{a}v\underline{e} \text{ (voc.)} \\ domin\underline{u}\underline{s} \text{ (nom.)} & \rightarrow & domin\underline{e} \text{ (voc.)} \\ serv\underline{u}\underline{s} \text{ (nom.)} & \rightarrow & serv\underline{e} \text{ (voc.)} \end{array}
```

Numbers (numerī): 1-10

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

ūnus: I
 duo: II
 sex: VI
 septem: VII
 trēs: III
 quattuor: IV
 quātuor: IV
 decem: X

Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

Pronouns: Nominative

In the second of the two clauses, *Mēdus discēdit*, *quia* <u>is</u> <u>pecūniam dominī</u> <u>habet</u> (ll.76–77), the nominative <u>Mēdus</u> 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, l.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 <u>he</u> Mēdus discēdit, quia <u>is</u> pecūniam has the master's money. *Mēdus discēdit, quia <u>is</u> pecūniam 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. <u>Is</u> nōn habet pecūniam meam. (ll.81–82) Mēdus nōn venit, quia <u>is</u> habet pecūniam tuam. (ll.92–93) Iūlius īrātus est—<u>is</u> nōn rīdet! (l.94)

Recēnsiō: Grammatical Terms

Stem: the form of the verb without its endings

Conjugation: one of the four groups of verbs: *Conjugātiō*

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: *Imperatīvus*

Nominative: the case of the subject: *Nominātīvus* **Accusative:** the case of the direct object: *Accūsātīvus*

Genitive: the case of possession: Genetīvus

Vocative: the case of calling, or address: Vocātīvus

Studia Romana

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 familiaris (or plural: lares familiares) 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 lares and the dominus. The lares belonged to and protected the place, and thus united all who lived in that place. In addition to the *lares* for the homestead (the *lares familiares*), there were also *lares* for the crossroads in the neighborhood (the gods of the crossroads, honored at the festival of the *Compitālia*) and of the town in general (lares pūblicī)—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 *pecūlium*, 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 Dāvus, 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, ōrnātrīx. 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 nomenclator, 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
                                             table
    pecūnia, -ae
                                             money
  2nd
    baculum, -ī
                                             stick
    indicātīvus, -ī (modus)
                                             indicative
    imperātīvus, -ī (modus)
                                             imperative
    nummus, -ī
                                             coin
    sacculus, -ī
                                             purse
    vocātīvus, -ī (cāsus)
                                             vocative
Verba
  -ā (1)
    accūsat
                                             accuse
    imperat (+ dat.)
                                             command, order, rule
    numerat
                                             count
    salūtat
                                             greet
  -\bar{e}(2)
    habet
                                             have, hold, consider
    pāret (+ dat.)
                                             obev
                                             be silent
    tacet
```

consonant (3) discēdit go away, depart place, put, lay down pōnit take sūmit irregular abest be absent adest be present Adiectīva 1st/2nd (-us, -a, -um) bonus, -a, -um good decem ten novem nine nūllus, -a, -um no, none octō eight four quattuor five quinque septem seven his, her, their (own) suus, -a, -um vacuus, -a, -um empty Prōnōmina his (gen. sing. of is, ea, id) eius is, ea, id he, she, it, that who, which, that quī, quae, quod Adverbia rūrsus again, back tantum so much, only Alia salvē hello, good morning (sing.)

V. Villa 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 $-\bar{o}s$ and $-\bar{a}s$. The plural $f\bar{\imath}li\bar{\imath}\underline{i}$ becomes $f\bar{\imath}li\bar{o}\underline{s}$ when it is the object of the verb: $I\bar{u}lius\ du\bar{o}\underline{s}\ f\bar{\imath}li\bar{o}\underline{s}\ habet$; similarly, $f\bar{\imath}li\underline{a}\underline{e}$ changes to $f\bar{\imath}li\bar{o}\underline{s}$. E.g.:

```
is multōs servōs habet (l.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, l.25)

Vīlla duo ōstia et multās fenestrās habet. (accusative, l.26) **accusative** sing. and pl.

m. f. n. sing.
$$-um$$
 $-am$ $-um$ 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 <u>in</u> Itali<u>ā</u> est. (Cap. I, l.1)
```

Germānia <u>in</u> imperi<u>o</u> Rōmān<u>o</u> nōn est. (Cap. I, ll.58–59)

Quot servī sunt <u>in</u> famili<u>ā</u> tu<u>ā</u>? (Cap. II, l.74)

$$\underline{In}$$
 sacculo meo (Cap. IV, l.15)

In this chapter, you learn more prepositions. Like *in*, the prepositions *ab*, *cum*, *ex*, and *sine* cause the following nouns to take the ending $-\bar{o}$ (m./n.) or $-\bar{a}$ (f.) and in the plural $-\bar{i}s$:

```
in ātriōcum līberīsex hortōsine rosīsab Aemiliā
```

The forms in $-\bar{o}$, $-\bar{a}$, and $-\bar{i}s$ are called ablative (Latin $c\bar{a}sus$ $abl\bar{a}t\bar{i}vus$).

```
ab, cum, ex, in, sine + -\bar{o}, -\bar{a}, -\bar{i}s ablative m./n. f. sing. -\bar{o} -\bar{a} pl. -\bar{i}s -\bar{i}s
```

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 non est femina <u>pulchra</u>, neque <u>pulcher</u> est nasus eius. (l.17) cum rosīs <u>pulchrīs</u> (l.61)
Rosae <u>pulchrae</u> sunt. (l.63)
```

Notā Bene: pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum, like liber, librī, has an e only in the nominative singular. Like nouns ending in -er, the stem of an adjective ending in -er 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 $i\bar{i}$ (= $e\bar{i}$), eae, ea.

sing.	m.	f.	n.
nom.	is	ea	id
acc.	eum	eam	id
gen.	eius	eius	eius
abl.	eō	еā	еō
pl.	m.	f.	n.
pl. nom.	m. iī, eī	f. eae	n. ea
•			
nom.	iī, eī	eae	ea

Notā Bene:

- In the accusative and ablative, pronoun *is, ea, id* shows the same endings as the noun it represents; remembering the accusatives $e\underline{u}\underline{m}$ and $e\underline{a}\underline{m}$, you will identify forms like $e\underline{\bar{o}}$, $e\underline{\bar{a}}$ (abl. sing.), $e\underline{\bar{o}}\underline{s}$, $e\underline{\bar{a}}\underline{s}$ (acc. pl.) and $i\underline{\bar{i}}\underline{s}$ (= $e\underline{\bar{i}}\underline{s}$, abl. pl.).
- The genitive plural is *e<u>orum</u>*, *e<u>arum</u>* (thus, for *dominus serv<u>orum</u>*, you find *dominus e<u>orum</u>*).
- The genitive singular has a special form *eius*, which is the same for all three genders: you have already had *sacculus <u>eius</u>* (: *Iūliī*), now you find *nāsus <u>eius</u>* (: *Syr<u>ae</u>*). (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 *su<u>nt</u>):*

Mārcus et Quīntus Iūliam vocant.

Puerī rīdent.

Multī servī in ūnō cubiculō dorm<u>iunt</u>. (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 -*nt*: Puerī discēdunt. (ll.75–76)
- Even in 4th conjugation verbs ($\bar{\imath}$) -*u* is inserted before -*nt*: *Puerī veni<u>u</u>nt*.

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 vocā<u>te</u>! (l.51)
Audī<u>te</u>! (l.67)
Tacē<u>te</u>, puerī! (l.72)
```

Notā Bene: As in the indicative, in the imperative plural of the consonant-verbs (3rd conjugation), a short vowel is inserted before the ending:

• -i- before the imperative ending -te Discēdite, puerī! (cf. l.73)

Imperative and Indicative

```
pl.
               sing
1. ā
                       vocā|te
         imp. vocā
         ind.
              voca|t voca|nt
2.\bar{e}
         imp. vidē
                       vidē|te
         ind. vide|t vide|nt
3. con.
         imp. pon e pon ite
         ind. pon|it pon|unt
         imp. audī
4.\bar{i}
                       audī|te
               audi|t audi|unt
         ind.
```

Verbs

rīdet/rīdent

Julia's remark, "puerī <u>mē</u> rīdent" (l.70), shows that rīdet, which is usually an intransitive verb, can take an object in the sense "laugh at": Puerī Iūliam rīdent.

rīdet alonePuerī 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 <u>in magnā</u> <u>vīllā</u> habitat. (l.1)
  Vīlla Iūliī <u>in magnō hortō</u> est. (l.12)
  In hortīs sunt rosae et līlia. (l.13)
ex
  Discēdite ex peristylō. (1.73)
  Puerī aquam sūmunt <u>ex impluviō</u>. (l.83)
ab
  Puerī Iūliam audiunt, neque iī <u>ab Aemiliā</u> discēdunt. (l.56)
  Iūlia plōrat et cum ūnā rosā <u>ab</u> <u>iīs</u> discēdit. (1.71)
cum
  Iūlius in vīllā suā habitat <u>cum magnā familiā</u>. (l.9)
  Pater et māter habitant <u>cum Mārcō et Quīntō et Iūliā</u>. (ll.9–10)
  In Italiā sunt multae vīllae <u>cum magnīs hortīs</u>. (ll.12–13)
sine
  Aemilia <u>sine virō suō Iūliō</u> in vīllā est. (ll.44–45)
  In oppidō Tūsculō est <u>sine Aemīliā</u>. (ll.45–46)
  Puella <u>sine rosīs</u> pulchra nōn est. (ll.63–64)
```

Studia Romāna

In this chapter, you learn the features of a Roman country house, called a *vīlla*. 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 *ātrium*. The *ātrium* usually had an opening in the roof called a *compluvium*, through which rainwater could fall into the *impluvium*—a small pool—below. The *ātrium* 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 *ālae*, 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 *tablīnum*, or record-room, of the house (the word *tablīnum* 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 *tablīnum* had a large opening onto the *peristylum* and/or *hortus*.

Just as the word *peristylum* 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 *ātrium* 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 (*culīna*, Cap. XXX)? Originally, cooking was done in the *ātrium* 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* (l.26). Our evidence for windows is slight, but Pliny the Younger (*Gāius Plīnius 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 *vīlla*. 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	water
fenestra, -ae	window
rosa, -ae	rose
vīlla, -ae	country house, villa
2nd	
ablātīvus, -ī (cāsus)	ablative
ātrium, -ī	main room, hall
cubiculum, -ī	bedroom
hortus, -ī	garden
impluvium, -ī	water basin in the atrium
	for collecting rainwater
līlium, -ī	lily
nāsus, -ī	nose
ōstium, -ī	door, entrance
perist y lum, -i	peristyle
Verba	
-ā (1)	
amat/amant	love
dēlectat/dēlectant	delight, please
habitat/habitant	dwell, live
consonant (3)	
agit/agunt	drive, do, perform
carpit/carpunt	gather, pick, crop
Adiectīva	
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)	
foedus, -a, -um	ugly, hideous
pulcher, -chra, -chrum	beautiful, fine
sōlus, -a, -um	alone, lonely
Prōnōmina	
is, ea, id	he, she, it
Adverbia	1 .
etiam	also, even, yet
Praepositiones	
$\mathbf{ab} \; (prp. + abl.)$	from, by
$\mathbf{cum}\ (prp. + abl.)$	with
ex(prp. + abl.)	out of, by
sine $(prp. + abl.)$	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:
 - 1. Preposition ab/\bar{a} + Ablative
 - 2. Ablative of Agent and Means/Instrument
 - b. Constructions of Place
- 3. 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 $d\bar{e}$ 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 BC–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 vīll <u>am</u>	to the country house (l.19)
ante	ante lectīc <u>am</u>	in front of the litter chair (l.33)
apud	$apud e\underline{um} = cum e\bar{o}^1$	with him (l.37)
circum	Circum Rōm <u>am</u> est mūrus	Around Rome is an ancient
	antīquus.	wall. (ll.14–15)
inter	inter Rōm <u>am</u> et Capu <u>am</u>	between Rome and Capua
		(11.3-4)
per	per port <u>am</u>	through the gate (l.76)
post	post lectīc <u>am</u>	behind the litter chair (l.33)
prope	prope Rōm <u>am</u>	near Rome (l.8)

Prepositions ad and ab/\bar{a} (continued)

Ad indicates motion to a place—it is the opposite of *ab* (followed by the <u>ab</u>lative), which indicates motion away **from** a place.

The corresponding interrogative adverbs are *quō* and *unde*:

<u>Quō</u> it Iūlius? <u>Ad</u> vīll<u>am</u> it. <u>Unde</u> venit? <u>Ab</u> oppid<u>ō</u>.

^{1.} Apud most closely resembles French *chez*; it means in the presence of, at, near, as well as with.

```
qu\bar{o}? ad + acc. unde? ab + abl.
```

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

```
\frac{\bar{a}}{\bar{a}} \frac{v\bar{\imath}ll\bar{a}}{a\bar{b} \ amin\bar{o}}

\frac{ab}{a} \frac{ancill\bar{a}}{ab} \frac{a}{oppid\bar{o}}

ab + \text{vowel and } h

\bar{a}/ab + \text{cons. (except } h-)
```

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 Julius goes from the town to his country house. (l.20)

Dominus et servī ab The master and slaves are going from oppidō ad vīllam eunt.

Quō it Iūlius? (l.35)

Ad vīllam it. (l.35)

Iūlius et Cornēlius ad vīllās suās eunt. (l.57)

Correlatives: Tam/Quam

Quam is an interrogative adverb:

Quam longa est via

Quam longa est via How long is the via Flaminia? Flāminia? (ll.11–12)

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":

```
Flāminia?

Via Latīna nōn <u>tam</u> longa The Via Latina is not as long as the est <u>quam</u> via Appia. Via Appia. (ll.10–11)

Tiberis fluvius nōn <u>tam</u> longus est <u>quam</u> fluvius Padus. (l.13)
```

Circum oppidum Tūsculum mūrus nōn <u>tam</u> longus est <u>quam</u> circum Rōmam. (ll.16–17)

Saccī quōs Syrus et Lēander portant magnī sunt, sed saccus quem Syrus portat nōn <u>tam</u> magnus est <u>quam</u> 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 $R\bar{o}m\bar{a}$ —Brundisium (from Rome to Brundisium), or, if going in the opposite direction, $Brundisi\bar{o}$ — $R\bar{o}mam$ (from Brundisium to Rome).

The **accusative** shows the place toward which one moves:

```
Rōmam it. He is going to Rome. (l.50) Cornēlius nōn Rōmam, sed Tūsculum it. (ll.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** (<u>ablatīvus</u> means "taking away"):

```
Tūsculō venit. He is coming from Tusculum. (l.49) Is nōn Tūsculō, sed Rōmā venit. (ll.53–54)
```

Otherwise, prepositions are used:

Iūlius ab oppidō ad vīllam suam it. (1.20)

Dominus et servī ab oppidō ad vīllam eunt. (ll.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:

```
<u>in</u> Itali<u>ā</u>
<u>in</u> oppid<u>ō</u>
<u>in</u> hort<u>ō</u>
```

The following examples show, however, that *in* is no more used with names of towns than *ad* and *ab*:

```
Cornēlius Tūscul<u>ī</u> habitat. (l.59)
Mēdus Rōm<u>ae</u> est. (l.47)
```

Instead of "in," the name takes the ending $-\bar{\imath}$ or -ae according to whether the nominative ends in -um/-us or -a. This form is called locative (Latin $loc\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}vus$, from locus, "place"):

Ubi habitat Cornēlius? Is Tūsculī 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 -ī, -ae

quō? Tūscul<u>um</u> Rōm<u>am</u> unde? Tūscul<u>ō</u> Rōm<u>ā</u> ubi? Tūscul<u>ī</u> Rōm<u>ae</u>

Verbs: Passive Voice (vox 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. (l.62)

Saccus ā Syrō portātur.

Saccī ā Syrō portantur.

Puerī ā puellā videntur.

Active Voice:

- Subject does the acting
- endings -t, -nt

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, l.29) → Parva puella ā puerō pulsātur.
- 2nd conjugation Quīntus Mārcum videt (Cap. II, l.11) → Mārcus ā Quīntō vidētur.

• 3rd conjugation

Dāvus sacculum in mēnsā pōnit (Cap. IV, l.61) → Sacculus ā Dāvō in mēnsā pōnitur.

• 4th conjugation

Puerī Iūliam audiunt (Cap. V, l.56) → Iūlia ā puerīs audītur.

	active	passive
1.	voca t	vocā tur
	voca nt	voca ntur
2.	vide t	vidē tur
	vide nt	vide ntur
3.	pōn it	pōn itur
	pōn unt	pōn untur
4.	audi t	audī tur
	audi unt	audi untur

Ablative Case (Agent and Means/Instrument)

Consider the following sentence:

Mārcus Iūliam pulsat. Marcus hits Julia. If we make that sentence passive, we get:

Iūlia pulsātur ā 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 ab or \bar{a} (\bar{a} $M\bar{a}rc\bar{o}$). 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. (l.62)Saccī quī ā Syrō et Lēandrō portantur magnī sunt.The bags which are being carried by Syrus and Leander are big. (ll.65–66)

Dominus ā serv
ō malō timētur. (ll.73–74)

Verba Mēdī ā 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 ab/\bar{a} . The simple ablative here indicates means or cause. This construction, called the **ablative of means** (also **ablative of instrument**—Latin $abl\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}vus\;\bar{\imath}nstr\bar{\imath}ment\bar{\imath}$) is very common both in passive and active sentences: e.g.,

Cornēlius equo vehitur. Cornelius is being transported by

a horse. (or, more idiomatically, "he is riding a horse") (ll.68–69)

Iūlius lectīc<u>ā</u> vehitur. Julius is being carried in a litter

chair. (1.69)

Lydia verb<u>īs</u> Mēdī dēlectātur. Lydia is delighted by Medus's

words. (1.91)

Dominus servum bacul<u>ō</u> verberat.

Servī saccōs umer<u>īs</u> portant.

Mēdus vi<u>ā</u> Latīn<u>ā</u> 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
                                             litter, sedan
    lectīca, -ae
    porta, -ae
                                             gate
    via, -ae
                                             road, way, street
  2nd
    āctīvum, -ī (verbum)
                                             active
    amīcus, -ī
                                             friend
    eguus, -ī
                                             horse
    inimīcus, -ī
                                             (personal) enemy
    locātīvus (cāsus)
                                             locative
    mūrus, -ī
                                             wall
    passīvum (verbum)
                                             passive
    saccus, -ī
                                             sack
    umerus, -ī
                                             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
  -\bar{e}(2)
    timet, timent
                                             fear, be afraid (of)
```

consonant (3)	
vehit, vehunt	carry, convey, ride, sail, travel
Irregular	
it/eunt	go
Adjectīva	
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)	
duodecim	twelve
fessus, -a, -um	tired, weary
longus, -a, -um	long
malus, -a, -um	bad, wicked, evil
	bud, wieked, evii
Adverbia	
ante	in front of, before
autem	but, however
itaque	therefore
nam	for
procul	far (often combines with preposition ab)
quam	how, as, than
tam	so, as
Praepositiones	
$\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ (prp. + abl.)	from, of, since, by
ad (<i>prp.</i> + <i>acc.</i>)	to, toward, by, at, till
ante (<i>prp.</i> + <i>acc.</i>)	in front of, before
apud (<i>prp.</i> + <i>acc.</i>)	beside, near, by
circum (<i>prp.</i> + <i>acc.</i>)	around
inter $(prp. + acc.)$	between, among, during
per (<i>prp.</i> + <i>acc.</i>)	through, by, during
post (prp. + acc.)	behind, after, later
procul ab (+ abl.)	far from
prope (<i>prp.</i> + <i>acc.</i>)	near, nearly
Vocābula Interrogātīva	
quam?	how?
quō?	where (to)?
unde?	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 nonne
- 5. Point of Style: et...et/neque...neque/non solum...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 $Puella \underline{se}$ in speculo videt et \underline{se} interrogat (ll.8–9) show that the pronoun se (acc.) is used when referring to the subject in the same sentence; se is called the reflexive pronoun (English "himself/herself/themselves"). Reflexive means it "bends back" toward the subject.

Puella <u>sē</u> in speculō videt et <u>sē</u> interrogat.

The girl sees herself in the mirror and asks herself. (ll.8–9)

Puella <u>Syram</u> in speculō videt et <u>eam</u> interrogat.

The girl sees Syra in the mirror and asks her (Syra).

Iūlia Syram post sē in speculō videt, i.e. post Iūliam. (l.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

 $S\bar{e}$ is a pronoun and takes the place of a noun that refers back to the (3rd person) subject of the sentence.

 $I\bar{u}lia$ Syram post sē in speculō videt. (l.15) = $I\bar{u}lia$ Syram post $I\bar{u}liam$ in speculō videt.

Suus, *-a*, *-um* 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 vīll<u>ā</u> est. Iūlius in vīll<u>am</u> intrat.

In the first sentence, *in* takes the ablative $(v\bar{\imath}ll\bar{a})$, as we have seen often; in the second, it is followed by the accusative $(v\bar{\imath}llam)$. The examples show that *in* takes the accusative when there is motion into a place. Therefore we read:

```
Syra in cubicul<u>um</u> intrat. (l.14) "Venī in hort<u>um</u>, Iūlia!" (l.17)
```

Place where:

```
ubi? in + ablative <u>in vīllā</u>, in hortō, in cubiculō
```

Place to which:

```
quō? in + accusative 
in vīllam, in hortum, in cubiculum
```

Interrogative num and nonne

A question introduced with *num* calls for a negative answer; therefore, Julia asks, "<u>Num</u> nāsus meus foedus est?" (l.20). The num shows she wants a "no!" answer. The opposite effect is obtained by nōnne: when Syra asks, "<u>Nōnne</u> fōrmōsus est nāsus meus?" (l.26), she certainly expects the answer to be "yes." Nevertheless, Julia says, "<u>Immō</u> foedus est!" The word *immō* serves to stress a denial (English "no," "on the contrary").

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

Verbs: Imperative of the Verb esse

The imperative of *est* is *es!* (i.e., the stem without an ending; plural *este!*):

```
"Tergē oculōs! <u>Es</u> laeta!" (1.23)
Este bonī (be good!)
```

Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

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

The example $I\bar{u}lia\ \bar{e}\ cubicul\bar{o}\ \underline{ex}it$ shows the shorter form \bar{e} of the preposition ex. The same rule applies to the use of ex and \bar{e} as to ab and \bar{a} :

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

Examples with ex and \bar{e} :

- $\underline{\bar{e}}/\underline{ex} \ \underline{v}\bar{\imath}ll\bar{a}$ (before a consonant, use either \bar{e} or ex)
- <u>ex ātriō</u> (before a vowel, use only *ex*)
- <u>ex h</u>ortō (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 $-\bar{o}$ ($M\bar{a}rc\bar{o}$, $Qu\bar{i}nt\bar{o}$, $Syr\bar{o}$, $L\bar{e}andr\bar{o}$) or in -ae (Aemiliae, $I\bar{u}liae$, Syrae, $D\bar{e}liae$). This form, ending in $-\bar{o}$ in the masculine (and neuter) and in -ae in the feminine, is called dative (Latin $dat\bar{i}vus$, from dat, "gives"):

Iūlius Syrō et Lēandrō māla dat.

In the plural, the dative ends in -is like the ablative:

Iūlius serv<u>īs</u> māla dat.

Iūlius ancill<u>īs</u> māla dat.

dative	m./n.	f.
sing.	-ō	-ae
pl.	$-\bar{\iota}s$	-īs

Summary of 1st and 2nd Declension Endings

	m. sing.	m. pl.	f. sing.	f. pl.	n. sing.	n. pl.
nom.	-us	-ī	-a	-ae	-um	-a
acc.	-um	-ŌS	-am	-ās	-um	-a
gen.	$-\bar{\imath}$	-ōrum	-ae	-ārum	$-\bar{l}$	-ōrum
	$-\bar{o}$	$-\bar{\imath}s$	-ae	$-\bar{\imath}s$	-ō	$-\bar{\imath}s$
abl.	$-\bar{o}$	-īs	-ā	-15	$-\bar{o}$	-15
voc.	-e					

II. is, ea, id

The dative of the pronoun *is*, *ea*, *id* is *eī* in the singular:

Iūlius eī (: Quīnto/Iūliae) mālum dat.

In the plural, the dative of the pronoun *is*, *ea*, *id* is *iīs* (or *eīs*):

Iūlius <u>iīs</u> (: serv<u>īs</u>/ancill<u>īs</u>) māla dat.

The forms are the same for all three genders.

Summary of is, ea, id and Reflexive Pronoun sē

	sing.		pl.		reflexive		
	m.	f.	n.	m.	f.	n.	pronoun
nom.	i s	e a	i d	$i \bar{\imath}$	e ae	e a	
acc.	e um	eam	i d	e ōs	e ās	e a	sē
gen.	elius	elius	e ius	e ōrum	e ārum	e ōrum	(Cap. X)
dat.	$e \bar{\imath}$	$e \bar{\imath}$	$e \bar{\imath}$	$i \bar{\imath}s$	$i \bar{\imath}s$	$i \bar{\imath}s$	sibi
abl.	e ō	eļā	e ō	i īs	i īs	ilīs	sē

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*, *fīlūī!*" (l.31)

sing.
$$salv\bar{e}!$$
 pl. $salv\bar{e}|te!$

Demonstrative Pronouns: hic, haec, hoc

Referring to things close to him, Julius says, e.g., <u>hic</u> saccus (l.43) and <u>hoc</u> mālum (ll.90–91), and Julia says <u>haec</u> rosa of the flower that she is holding (l.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 māl<u>ōrum</u> est. (ll.43–44)

Oculī Iūliae plēnī sunt lacrim<u>ārum</u>. (l.79)

plēnus + gen.
```

Verbs: Compound Verbs

Compound verbs often have prepositions as their first element, like <u>ad</u>-est and <u>ab</u>-est. In this chapter, you find <u>in</u>-est, <u>ad</u>-venit, <u>ad</u>-it, <u>ex</u>-it, and in the next, <u>ab</u>-it. Often, the same preposition is put before a noun in the same sentence:

```
Quid <u>in</u>est <u>in</u> saccīs? (1.39)
Iūlius <u>ad</u> vīllam <u>ad</u>venit. (1.30)
Iūlia <u>ē</u> cubiculō <u>ex</u>it. (ll.82–83)
```

compounds with prepositions:

```
ad-, ab-, ex-, 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.101–104):

```
<u>Cui</u> Iūlius mālum dat? (l.101)
Puer/puella <u>cui</u> Iūlius mālum dat est fīlius/fīlia eius. (ll.101–102)
```

The genitive of the interrogative and relative will be met in Cap. VIII.

Point of Style: et...et/neque....neque/non solum...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 *non solum...sed etiam*:

<u>nōn sōlum</u> māla, <u>sed etiam</u> pira. (l.56) English "not only…but also"

et...et neque...neque nōn sōlum...sed etiam

Recēnsiō: Interrogative Words

Ouis? Ouid? Who? What?

Ubi? Where? <u>In</u> what place?

Quot? How many? Cūr? Why?

Unde? Whence? From what place? Quō? Where? To what place?

-ne? Asks a question with no expectations.

Nonne? Expects a "yes" answer. Num? Expects a "no" answer.

Studia Romāna

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 $(d\bar{o}s)$, 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 (*Plīnius 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, -ī (cāsus)
                                           dative
  mālum, -ī
                                           apple
  oculus, -ī
                                           eye
  ōsculum, -ī
                                           kiss
                                           doorkeeper
  ōstiārius, -ī
  pirum, -ī
                                           pear
  speculum, -ī
                                           mirror
```

Verba	
-ā (1)	
dat, dant	give
exspectat, exspectant	wait (for), expect
lacrimat	cry
-ē (2)	
tenet, tenent	hold, keep (back)
terget, tergent	wipe
consonant (3)	
claudit, claudunt	shut, close
currit, currunt	run
vertit, vertunt	turn
-ī (4)	
advenit, adveniunt	arrive
aperit, aperiunt	open, disclose
Irregular	
adit, adeunt	go to, approach
exit, exeunt	go out
inest, insunt	be in
Adiectīva	
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)	
fōrmōsus, -a, -um	beautiful
plēnus, -a, -um (+ gen./abl.)	full (of)
Prōnōmina	
hic, haec, hoc	this
sē, sibi	himself, herself
Adverbia	
immō	no, on the contrary
illīc	there ¹
nōn sōlumsed etiam	not onlybut also
Coniūnctiones	·
etet	bothand
nequeneque	neithernor
	neithernor
Praepositiones	
$\mathbf{\tilde{e}}$ (prp. + abl.)	out of, from, of, since
Vocābula Interrogātīva	

nōnne?

not?

^{1.} Accent on the ultima: $ill\bar{\iota}c$; originally the word was $ill\bar{\iota}ce$, with accent on the long penult; when the e dropped, the accent was retained.

VIII. Taberna Romāna

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 īnstrūmentī)

(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 ($Qu\bar{i} = Is qu\bar{i}$)

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

<u>Quī</u> tabernam habet, tabernārius est = is quī... Whoever has a shop is a shopkeeper. (ll.3–4)

<u>Quī</u> magnam pecūniam habent \bar{o} rnāmenta emunt = \bar{I} i 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 quī magnam pecūniam habet. (l.35)

When the relative pronoun is used without an antecedent, a demonstrative pronoun may be understood, that is, $qu\bar{i}$ can equal is $qu\bar{i}$.

Demonstrative Pronouns

The demonstrative pronoun hic, haec, hoc points to something that is near the speaker (compare the adverb $h\bar{\iota}c$, "here") and represents the English "this." In the first reading, we meet only the feminine singular, nominative, accusative/ablative:

haec taberna? (l.2) in hāc viā (l.11) ad hanc tabernam (l.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 ōrnāmentīsWomen are delighted bydēlectantur.adornments. (ll.12–13)

Gemm<u>īs</u> et margarīt<u>īs</u>
They are adorned by jewels and pearls and rings. (l.24)

Lydia tabernam Albīnī Lydia points to the store of digitō mōnstrat. Albinus with her finger. (l.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?what/which slave?quae ancilla?what/which slave-woman?quod oppidum?what/which town?Quī vir et quae fēmina? (1.26)Quod ōrnāmentum? (11.30-31)

Notā 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 m./n. singular interrogative <u>pronoun</u> nominative m./n. singular interrogative <u>adjective</u>

Recēnsiō: Interrogative Pronoun vs. Interrogative Adjective

Quis clāmat?Who is shouting? (pronoun)Quī puer clāmat?What boy is shouting? (adjective)Quae ornāmentum accipit?Who receives the jewelry?

(pronoun)

Quae fēmina ōrnāmentum accipit? What woman receives the

jewelry? (adjective)

Quid vēndit tabernārius? What does the shopkeeper sell?

(pronoun)

Quod ōrnāmentum vēndit What piece of jewelry does the

tabernārius? shopkeeper sell? (adjective)

Notā Bene:

- You will sometimes find *quis* (i.e., the form of the interrogative pronoun) used instead of *quī* (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 $(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{i},)$ or a consonant. The final group of verbs has a stem ending in a short i 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; accip<u>iunt</u>
Stem: <i>aspici-; aspicit; aspic<u>iunt</u>
```

The short i 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:

```
accip<u>e</u>! accip<u>ite</u>! aspic<u>ite</u>!
```

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 ānulī (1.53)
      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 (l.41) illum (ānulum) (l.76) illa ōrnāmenta (l.42) illīus ānulī (l.75) ille ānulus (l.70)
```

Like *hic*, *haec*, *hoc* and *ille*, -a, -ud, most pronouns have the endings $-\overline{\imath}us$ in the genitive and $-\overline{\imath}$ in the dative in all three genders (but the i is short or consonantal in $e\underline{\imath}us$, $cu\underline{\imath}us$, $hu\underline{\imath}us$, cui, $hu\underline{\imath}us$).

The neuter ending -ud in illud is also found in alius, -a, -ud (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 (l.75). As adjectives, they agree with the nouns they modify; as correlatives, they respond to one another:

Digitus quārtus nōn tantus est quantus digitus medius.

the middle finger. (ll.126–128)

Pretium illīus ānulī tantum est quantum huius.

The price of that ring is <u>as great</u> as that of this one. (1.75)

The fourth finger is not as big as

Tantus and quantus can also be used alone:

Tanta gemma sõla octōgintā

Such a large gem alone costs 80

sēstertiīs constat.

sesterces. (ll.64-65)

Quantum est pretium illīus

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

Quam

Quam is also used in exclamations and means "how":

"Ō, <u>quam</u> pulchra sunt illa ōrnāmenta!" Oh, how beautiful those 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 Iūliī!

Ablative of Price (ablātīvus pretiī)

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

Hic ānulus centum numm<u>īs</u> This ring costs 100 coins. (l.59) constat.

Albīnus...Mēdō ānulum vēndit sēsterti<u>īs</u> nōnāgintā. (ll.116–117)

Dative (continued)

In the last example, $M\bar{e}d\bar{o}$ is **dative** with $v\bar{e}ndit$. The dative now occurs also with *ostendit* (ll.46, 52, 58, 83) and $m\bar{o}nstrat$ (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 Lydiae margarītās ostendit.

Albinus shows Lydia the pearls. (ll.46-47)

Shows what? pearls, accusative direct object Shows to whom? Lydia, dative indirect object

Albīnus iīs trēs ānulōs ostendit.

Albinus shows them three rings. (1.52)

Shows what? three rings, accusative direct object

Shows to whom? them, dative indirect object

Lydia, quae Romae habitat, Medo viam monstrat.

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 parvumSuch a big gem does not suitānulum nōn convenit.such a small ring. (l.81)

Hic ānulus ad digitum tuum This ring does not fit your

nōn convenit. 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 (ad + 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)
illī tabernāriī (1.100)
illae viae (1.102)
in illīs tabernīs (11.103–104)
haec ōrnāmenta (1.105)
hōs ānulōs (1.105)
hās gemmās (1.105)
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 $h\bar{\iota}$ *hae*, $h\bar{o}s$ $h\bar{a}s$, $h\bar{o}rum$ $h\bar{a}rum$, $h\bar{\iota}s$, 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, -ud 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 örnāmenta 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? (11.103-104)

Recēnsiō: Pronouns

Personal: takes the place of a noun

is, ea, id

	sing.			pl.		
	m.	f.	n.	m.	f.	n.
nom.	i s	e a	i d	$i \bar{\imath}$	e ae	e a
acc.	e um	e am	i d	e ōs	e ās	e a
gen.	e ius	e ius	e ius	e ōrum	e ārum	e ōrum
dat.	$e \bar{i}$	$e \bar{\imath}$	$e \bar{\imath}$	$i \bar{\imath}s$	$i \bar{\imath}s$	i īs
abl.	e ō	$e \bar{a}$	$e \bar{o}$	$i \bar{\imath}s$	i īs	i īs

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

Hic, haec, hoc

		sing.	f.		pl.		
[1]		m.	f.	n.	m.	f.	n.
	nom.	hic	Наес	hoc	hī	hae hās hārum hīs	haec
	acc.	hunc	Hanc	hoc	hōs	hās	haec
	gen.	huius	huius	huius	hōrum	hārum	hōrum
	dat.	huic	Huic	huic	hīs	hīs	hīs
	abl.	hōc	Hāc	hōc	hīs	hīs	hīs

Ille, illa, illud

[2]	nom.	ill e	ill a	ill ud	ill ī	ill ae	ill a
	acc.	ill um	ill am	ill ud	ill ōs	ill ās	ill a
	gen.	ill īus	ill īus	ill īus	ill ōrum	ill ārum	ill ōrum
	dat.	ill	ill	ill	ill īs	ill īs	ill īs
	abl.	ill ō	ill ā	ill ō	ill īs	ill īs	ill īs

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

Quis, quid

	sing.			pl.		
	m.	f.	n.	m.	f.	n.
nom.	quis/quī	quae	quid/quod	quī	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.	f.	n.	m.	f.	n.
nom.	quī	quae	quod	quī	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 Romana

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 *īnsulae*). 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 ($d\bar{o}lia$, $\bar{o}rum$). Behind the counter, there are often built-in shelves. We find a variety of names for food shops: $thermop\bar{o}lium$ (a Greek word, "cook shop," found in the comic writer Plautus), taberna, $pop\bar{i}na$, $caup\bar{o}na$ (which

was an inn that offered food). There were also a lot of bakeries (*pistrīnae*), 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
                                             precious stone, jewel
    gemma, -ae
                                             string, line
    līnea, -ae
                                             pearl
    margarīta, -ae
    taberna, -ae
                                             shop, stall
  2nd
    ānulus, -ī
                                             ring
    collum, -ī
                                             neck
    digitus, -ī
                                             finger
    örnāmentum, -ī
                                             ornament, piece of jewelry
    pretium, -ī
                                             price, value
    sēstertius, -ī
                                             sesterce (coin)
    tabernārius, -ī
                                             shopkeeper
    prōnōmen, prōnōminis (n.)
                                             pronoun
Verba
  -ā (1)
                                             shout
    clāmat, clāmant
    constat, constant
                                             cost, stand firm
                                             point out, show
    mönstrat, mönstrant
                                             equip, adorn
    ornat, ornant
  consonant (3)
    consistit, consistunt
                                             stop, halt
    emit, emunt
                                             buy
    ostendit, ostendunt
                                             show
    vēndit, vēndunt
                                             sell
  ĭ-stem (3)
    aspicit, aspiciunt
                                             look at, look
    accipit, accipiunt
                                             receive
```

Coniunctiones aut

-ī (4) convenit, conveniunt come together, meet, suit Irregular abit, abeunt go away Adiectīva 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) another, other alius, alia, aliud gemmātus, -a, -um set with a jewel medius, -a, -um mid, middle pecūniōsus, -a, -um wealthy how large, (as large) as quantus, -a, -um quārtus, -a, -um fourth so big, so great tantus, -a, -um Numerī (indeclinable unless otherwise noted) nōnāgintā ninety octōgintā eighty vīgintī twenty Prōnōmina ille, illa, illud that, the one, he Adverbia nimis too, too much satis 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 *-us*, *-a*, and *-um*. 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 *serv<u>us</u>* 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 *īnsula* (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
 ovis pānis
 canis collis
- or end in -ēs nūb<u>ēs</u>
- or end in just -s

 mons

 dens
 - ▶ 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 *mons* and *dens* ends in -t (mont|is, dent|is)
 - **o** When -s is added to a stem ending in -t, the -t drops and the vowel lengthens ($mon\underline{t}|s$ and $den\underline{t}|s \rightarrow m\bar{o}ns$, $d\bar{e}ns$)

We can see from the example of *mons* and *dens* that the nominative of a 3rd 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:
 - -ēs 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	-ēs
acc.	-em	-ēs
gen.	-is	-(i)um
dat.	-ī	-ibus
abl.	-e.	-ibus

Notā 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 **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:
 - ▷ nūbēs, nūbis (gen.pl: nūbium)
 - ▷ ovis, ovis (gen.pl.: ovium)
 - *canis*, *canis* is an exception to this rule; the gen.pl. is *canum*

some m./f. nouns in -s

- nouns in -ns:

 - *▶* dēns, dentis (gen.pl.: dentium)

Examples of all these endings are shown with the nouns *ovis* and $p\bar{a}stor$ (ll.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 fess<u>us</u>ovis alb<u>a</u>parv<u>us</u> collismagn<u>a</u> vallismagn<u>us</u> mōnsmult<u>ae</u> 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 $Ov\bar{e}s$ herbam \underline{edunt} (l.8) is a consonant-verb, as shown by the plural ending -unt, but the singular is irregular: $P\bar{a}stor$ $p\bar{a}nem$ $\underline{\bar{e}st}$ (edit also appears, but is more rare). The macron (long mark) over the " \bar{e} " in $\bar{e}st$ will distinguish "he/she eats" from est "he/she is."

sing. *ēst* pl. *edunt*

Dūc/dūcite

Also note the short imperative $d\bar{u}c!$ of the consonant-verb $d\bar{u}cit$, $d\bar{u}cunt$. The original form, $d\bar{u}ce$, is found in early poets.

imp. $d\bar{u}c! d\bar{u}c|ite!$

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	-Ī	-is
Dative	-ae	-ō	-ī
Ablative	-ā	-ō	-е
Pl.	1st	2nd m. n.	3rd m./f.
Nominative	-ae	-ī - a	-ēs
Accusative	-ās	-ōs -a	-ēs
Genitive	-ārum	-ōrum	-(i)um
Dative	-18	-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	
etet	bothand	aut	or
-que	and (enclitic)	quod	because
neque	and not, but not	quia	because
nequeneque	neithernor		

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"):

<u>Dum</u> 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

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

Oculī lupī in umbrā lūcent ut gemmae et dentēs ut margarītae (1.72–73)

Ipse, ipsa, ipsum

nom. ipsle

insla

The demonstrative pronoun *ipse* is used for emphasis like English "himself/herself/itself": *Ubi est lupus <u>ipse</u>*? (ll.54–55). It is declined like *ille* apart from the neuter sing. in -um (not -ud): *ipse*, -a, -um.

ips um ips lī

inslae

insla

110111.	$p_{3 c}$	$ips_{ u }$	ipsjain	ipspi	ipspic	$ips_{ u}$
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 ō	ips ā	ips ō	ips īs	ips īs	ips īs
Ubi est lupus ipse?			Where is the wolf itself (or "himself")?			
Ovis vestīgia lupī in terrā videt,			The sheep sees the tracks of			
neque lupum ipsum videt.			the wolf in the earth, but she			
				does not se	e the wolf	itself.
Ubi est ovis ipsa?			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 *ad* and *in* enter into compounds with *currit* and *pōnit*, they change to *ac*- 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 Romana

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 inaequālī 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 *Parīlia* on April 21, a festival dedicated to *Pales*, the god who watched over shepherds. The *Parīlia* is revered for another reason: on that festival day, Romulus, a shepherd himself, dug the *pōmērium*, 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
                                             wood, forest
    silva, -ae
                                             earth, ground, country
    terra, -ae
                                             shade, shadow
    umbra, -ae
  2nd
    caelum, -ī
                                             sky, heaven
    campus, -ī
                                             plain
    cibus, -ī
                                             food
    lupus, -ī
                                             wolf
    modus, -ī
                                             manner, way
    rīvus, -ī
                                             brook
    vestīgium, -ī
                                             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.)	hill declension tooth mountain cloud sheep bread, loaf shepherd sun fear valley			
Verba				
-ā (1)				
bālat, -ant	bleat			
dēclīnat, -ant	decline, inflect			
errat, -ant	wander, stray			
lātrat, -ant	bark			
ululat, -ant	howl			
-ē (2)	1.			
iacet, -ent	lie			
lūcet, -ent	shine			
Consonant/ĭ (3)				
accurrit, -unt	come running			
bibit, -unt	drink			
dūcit, -unt impōnit, -unt	guide, lead, draw, trace place (in/on), put			
petit, -unt	make for, aim at, attack, seek, ask for,			
petit, -unt	request			
quaerit, -unt	look for, seek, ask (for)			
relinquit, -unt	leave			
-ī (4)				
reperit, -iunt	find			
Irregular				
ēst, edunt	eat			
Adiectīva				
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)				
niger, -gra, -grum	black			
albus, -a, -um	white			
Numerī (indeclinable unless otherwise note ūndēcentum	ninety-nine			
	mice, mic			
Prōnōmina ipse, ipsa, ipsum	myself, yourself, etc; the very, the actual			

Adverbia

procul far (from), far away

Praepositiones

sub (*prp.* + *abl.*/*acc.*) under, at the foot of, near above

suprā (*prp.* + *acc.*)

Coniunctiones

while, as long as dum ut

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 $le\bar{o}$, an -n is dropped: gen. $le\bar{o}\underline{n}|is$.
- In *homō*, this is combined with a vowel change: gen. *hom<u>in</u>*|*is*.
- The -s ending produces the spelling -x for -cs in $v\bar{o}x$: gen. $v\bar{o}\underline{c}|is$.
- The -s ending also produces the loss of d in pēs (note also the short vowel of the stem): gen. ped|is.

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 vōc|is 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:

```
<u>Cum</u> 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 <u>cum</u> magn<u>ā</u> famili<u>ā</u>. (Cap. V, l.9)
Aemilia <u>cum</u> Mārc<u>ō</u>, Quīnt<u>ō</u> Iūli<u>ā</u>que in peristylō est. (Cap. V, l.47)
Etiam līnea <u>cum</u> margarīt<u>īs</u> ōrnāmentum est. (Cap. VIII, ll.8–9)
<u>Cum</u> homō ambulat, pedēs moventur. (Cap. X, l.15)
<u>Cum</u> piscis natat, cauda movētur. (Cap. X, ll.15–16)
```

Quod

You have learned *quod* as the neuter singular of both the relative pronoun $qu\bar{i}$, 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. (ll.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 <u>ōstium</u>, <u>quod</u> ab ōstiāriō aperītur. (Cap. VII, l.33)
Lydia ōrnāmentum pulchrum in collō habet. <u>Quod ōrnāmentum</u>?
(Cap. VIII, ll.30–31)
<u>Ōrnāmentum quod</u> Lydia habet est līnea margarītārum. (Cap. VIII, ll.31–32)
```

Hominēs volāre non possunt, <u>quod</u> ālās non habent. (Cap. X, ll.23–25) Neque avēs neque nīdī avium ab aquilā reperīrī possunt, <u>quod</u> rāmīs et foliīs occultantur. (Cap. X, ll.89–91)

Potest/possunt

The verb *potest*, which first appears in the sentence *Canis volāre nōn <u>potest</u>* (l.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 po<u>s</u>-sunt* (l.23). More examples:

```
Pāstor duōs pedēs habet, itaque pāstor ambulāre potest. (ll.22–23)
Homō sub aquā spīrāre nōn potest. (ll.47–48)
Nēmō enim sine cibō vīvere potest. (ll.59–69)
Hominēs deōs neque vidēre neque audīre possunt. (ll.38–39)
Piscēs numerārī nōn possunt. (l.45)
Avēs canere possunt, piscēs nōn possunt: piscēs vōcēs nōn habent. (ll.85–86)
sing. pot-est
pl. pos-sunt
```

Infinitive Active

Volā<u>re</u> and *ambulā<u>re</u>* are the first examples of the basic verb form that is called the **infinitive** (Latin *īnfīnītīvus*); the infinitive in English is expressed by "to" with the verb. The Latin infinitive active ends in *-re*. In \bar{a} -, \bar{e} -, and $\bar{\imath}$ -verbs (1st, 2nd, and 4th conjugations), this ending is added directly to the stem:

```
volā|re: to fly
vidē|re: to see
audī|re: to hear
```

In consonant-verbs of the 3rd conjugation, a short *e* is inserted before the ending:

```
p\bar{o}n|\underline{e}re: to put s\bar{u}m|\underline{e}re: 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. $-\bar{a}re$; 2. $-\bar{e}re$; 3. $-\bar{e}re$; 4. $-\bar{i}re$. Third conjugation verbs (-ee) 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 *-se* became *-re* after a vowel (e.g., $am\bar{a}\underline{r}e < am\bar{a}|\underline{s}e$). The ending *-se* was kept only in the following infinitives, because it was added directly to the stems *es*- and *ed*:

```
esse (est sunt)

\bar{e}sse (\bar{e}st edunt, with assimilation ds > ss)

posse (potest possunt, Cap. XI)
```

Examples:

```
Quī spīrat mortuus <u>esse</u> nōn potest. (ll.108–109)
Mārcus et Iūlia Quīntum vīvum <u>esse</u> vident. (l.122)
<u>Ēsse</u> quoque hominī necesse est. (l.59)
...nēmō enim gemmās <u>ēsse</u> potest. (l.64)
Gemmae edī nōn possunt. (l.64) (Notā Bene: The passive infinitive edī of ēsse is explained in the next section)
```

Infinitive -se:

```
es|se
ēs|se (< ed|se); passive edī
pos/se (<pot|se)
```

Infinitive Passive

The sentence *Hominēs deōs vidē<u>re</u> nōn possunt* becomes in the passive: $De\bar{\imath}$ *ab hominibus vidē<u>rī</u> nōn possunt. Vidē<u>rī</u> (to <u>be</u> seen) is the passive infinitive corresponding to the active vid\bar{e}\underline{re} (to see). In the passive, \bar{a}-, \bar{e}-, and \bar{\imath}-verbs have the ending -r\bar{\imath} in the infinitive, e.g.:*

```
numerā|r\bar{i}| (l.45)
vidē|r\bar{i}| (l.39)
audī|r\bar{i}| (l.39)
```

```
Consonant-verbs have only -\bar{i}, e.g.:
```

em|<u>ī</u>: Sine pecūniā cibus em<u>ī</u> non potest. (1.62)

Infinitive

```
activepassive\bar{a}re \rightarrow \bar{a}r\bar{\imath}: voc\bar{a}|revoc\bar{a}|r\bar{\imath}\bar{e}re \rightarrow \bar{e}r\bar{\imath}: vid\bar{e}|revid\bar{e}|r\bar{\imath}\check{e}re \rightarrow \bar{\imath}: p\bar{o}n|erep\bar{o}n|\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}re \rightarrow \bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}: aud\bar{\imath}|reaud\bar{\imath}|r\bar{\imath}
```

More examples:

```
Aemilia fīlium suum ā Iūliō <u>portārī</u> videt. (l.126)
Sed Mārcus eum spīrāre nōn videt, neque enim anima <u>vidērī</u> potest.
(ll.109–110)
Deī ab hominibus neque <u>vidērī</u> neque <u>audīrī</u> possunt. (ll.38–39)
Gemmae edī nōn possunt. (l.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 homin<u>ī</u>. (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:

```
flūmin<u>a</u>
mari<u>a</u>
animāli<u>a</u>
```

Nēmō

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

Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

Vult/volunt, *audet/audent* + infinitive

In addition to *potest/possunt* and *necesse est*, an infinitive also occurs after:

vult voluntthe irregular verb that denotes willaudet audenta verb that denotes courage

Examples:

```
Iūlia cum puerīs lūd<u>ere vult</u>, neque iī cum puellā lūd<u>ere volunt</u>. (ll.74–76)

Canis avem...cap<u>ere vult</u>, neque <u>potest</u>. (ll.83–84)

Quī volāre vult neque potest, ad terram cadit! (ll.129–130)

Fēminae quae pecūniam fac<u>ere volunt</u> ōrnāmenta sua vēndunt. (ll.67–68)

Avēs can<u>ere</u> nōn <u>audent</u>. (l.88)

Mārcus ipse in arborem ascend<u>ere</u> nōn <u>audet</u>! (ll.96–97)
```

Notā 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 (l.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 Quīntum 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 fīli<u>um</u> su<u>um</u> ā Iūliō portā<u>rī</u> videt (l.126):

Aemilia sees (that) her son is being carried by Julius. Aemilia sees her son being carried by Julius.

Aemilia Quīntum ā Iūliō in lectō pōnī aspicit (l.131):

Aemilia sees (that) Quintus is being put onto the bed by Julius. Aemilia sees Quintus being put onto the bed by Julius.

Notā 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 (Ablātīvus Modī)

Besides **means** and **cause**, the simple ablative can also denote **manner** (*ablātīvus modī*), e.g.:

```
magn<u>ā</u> vōc<u>e</u> clāmat (l.112)
"leō" dēclīnātur h<u>ō</u>c mod<u>ō</u>... (l.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. *Aliī 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 (ll.59–60)

Studia Romana

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* (τὰ κυνηγετικά) a didactic poem (see below) on hunting dogs, only a small portion of which (540 lines of dacytlic hexameter) survives.

Varrō (116–27 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, Cavē 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'." 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 (*piscīnae*) 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

^{1.} Satyricōn 72: "...nōn longē ab ōstiāriī cellā canis ingēns, catēnā vīnctus, in pariete erat pictus superque quadrāta litterā scrīptum 'cave canem'."

sometimes associated with particular divinities: the eagle (aquila) was a symbol of $I\bar{u}ppiter$ and the peacock ($p\bar{a}v\bar{o}$) of his wife $I\bar{u}n\bar{o}$ (you will learn more of $I\bar{u}ppiter$ and $I\bar{u}n\bar{o}$ later). The swan ($c\bar{v}cn\bar{e}us$) was the bird of $Apoll\bar{o}$, god of light, learning and literature. Apollo's sister, the huntress $Di\bar{a}na$, 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 ($d\bar{e}\ R\bar{e}rum\ N\bar{a}t\bar{u}r\bar{a}$); Vergil wrote an epic in four books on farming ($Ge\bar{o}rgica$).

Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

Nōmina

```
1st
  āla, -ae
                                             wing
  anima, -ae
                                             breath, life, soul
  aquila, -ae
                                             eagle
  bēstia, -ae
                                            beast, animal
  cauda, -ae
                                             tail
  fera, -ae
                                             wild animal
  pila, -ae
                                             ball
2nd
  asinus, -ī
                                             ass, donkey
                                             god (pl. deī/diī/dī, voc. deus)
  deus, -ī
  folium, -ī
                                            leaf
  īnfīnītīvus (modus)
                                            infinitive
  lectus, -ī
                                            bed, couch
  nīdus, -ī
                                             nest
  nūntius, -ī
                                             message, messenger
  ōvum, -ī
                                             hat with a brim
  petasus, -ī
```

pullus, -ī	young (of an animal)
rāmus, -ī	branch, bough
3rd	branch, bough
āēr, āeris (m.)	air
animal, animālis (n.)	animal, living being
avis, avis (f.)	bird
flūmen, flūminis (n.)	river
homō, hominis (m.)	human being, person
leō, leōnis (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)	arvina.
natat, natāre occultat, occultāre	swim hide
spīrat, spīrāre	breathe
volat, volāre	fly
	11 y
-ēre (2) audet, audēre	dare, venture
movet, movēre	move, stir
sustinet, sustinēre	support, sustain, endure
-ěre (3)	support, sustain, endure
ascendit, ascendere	climb, go up, mount
cadit, cadere	fall
canit, canere	sing (of), crow, play
lūdit, lūdere	play
vīvit, vīvere	live, be alive
i-stem	nve, se unve
capit, capere	take, catch, capture
facit, facere	make, do, cause
parit, parere	give birth to, lay
Irregular	8
necesse est	it is necessary
potest, possunt, posse	be able
vult, volunt	want, be willing
	. 0
Adiectīva	
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)	thick for
crassus, -a, -um	thick, fat wild
ferus, -a, -um	
mortuus, -a, -um	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

Coniūnctiones

cumwhenenimforquodbecause

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 $fl\bar{u}men$, -in|is:

ōs, ōr is	cor, cord is
crū <u>s</u> , crū <u>r</u> is	iec <u>u</u> r, iec <u>o</u> r is
corpu <u>s</u> , corpo <u>r</u> is	caput, capit is
pectu <u>s</u> , pecto <u>r</u> 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
- *viscer* | *a*, -*um* is only used in the plural

3rd Declension *i*-Stem Nouns

In Cap. X, we met the 3rd declension neuter nouns $mar|e\ mar|is$ and $animal\ -\bar{a}l|is$. 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.
- $-\bar{i}$ 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.	mar e	mar ia	animal	animāl ia
acc.	mar e	mar ia	animal	animāl ia
gen.	mar is	mar ium¹	animāl is	animāl ium
dat.	mar ī	mar ibus	animāl ī	animāl ibus
abl.	mar ī	mar ibus	animāl ī	animāl ibus

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

sing.	1st	2nd m. n.	3rd consonant m./f. n.	3rd <i>i</i> -stem m./f. n.
nom.	-a	-us -um	-s,	-s, -e,- al, -ar
	-am	-um	-em ²	-em -e, -al, -ar
gen. dat.	-ae	-1	-is	-is
dat.	-ae	-ō	-ī	-ī
abl.	-ā	-ō	-e	-e -ī

^{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.

Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

Indirect Statement (Accusative and Infinitive Construction)

In sentences like *Iūlius puerum* <u>videt</u> and *Iūlius puerum* <u>audit</u>, 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 puer<u>um</u> vocā<u>re</u> audit. Iūlius puer<u>um</u> perterritum <u>esse</u> videt.

Such a construction is called an **accusative and infinitive construction** ($acc\bar{u}s\bar{a}t\bar{t}vus\ cum\ \bar{i}nf\bar{i}n\bar{t}\bar{t}v\bar{o}$); 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 puer<u>um</u> dorm<u>īre</u> videt. (l.59)
 Cor eius palpit<u>āre</u> sentit. (l.112)
- verbs of speaking (e.g., dīcere) and thinking (e.g., putāre)
 Medicus 'puerum dormīre' dīcit. (ll.63–64)
 Syra eum mortuum esse putat. (l.108)
- iubēre

Dominus 'serv<u>um</u> ven<u>īre'</u> iubet. Medicus Quīnt<u>um</u> 'ōs aper<u>īre</u> atque lingu<u>am</u> ostend<u>ere'</u> iubet. (ll.69–70)

- gaudēre (and with other verbs expressing mood)
 Syra Quīnt<u>um</u> vīv<u>ere</u> gaudet (= Syra gaudet quod Quīntus vīvit)
 (1.118)
- necesse est (and other impersonal expressions)
 Necesse est puer<u>um</u> dorm<u>īre</u>. (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 'puer<u>um</u> dorm<u>īre</u>' 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 Ouintus:

```
Syra e<u>um</u> mortu<u>um</u> esse putat. (l.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 *ac* is often found (see Cap. XII, l.59):

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

In the following sentences, *ac* could be substituted for *atque*:

```
Quīntus oculōs claudit atque dormit. (l.41)
Medicus ad lectum adit atque puerum aspicit. (ll.56–57)
```

But in this sentence, *ac* could not be substituted because *horret* begins with *h*:

```
Quīntus sanguinem dē 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)

$D\bar{e}$ + ablative

Like ab, the preposition $d\bar{e}$ expresses motion "from" (mostly "down from") and takes the ablative:

```
d\bar{e} arbor<u>e</u> (ll.53–54) d\bar{e} bracchi<u>o</u> (l.99)
```

Ablative of Respect

The ablative in *pede aeger* (l.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 non putat medic<u>um</u> puerum aegrum sānāre <u>posse</u>. (ll.134–135)

Possessive Adjectives

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

Iam fīlius noster nōn modo pede, sed etiam bracchiō aeger est. (ll.131–132)

Ille medicus crassus fīlium 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 Romana

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

putat, putāre sānat, sānāre spectat, spectāre stat, stāre -ēre (2)	think, suppose heal, cure watch, look at stand
dēterget, dētergēre dolet, dolēre gaudet, gaudēre horret, horrēre iubet, iubēre sedet, sedēre -ĕre (3)	wipe off hurt, feel pain, grieve be glad, be pleased bristle, shudder (at) order, tell sit
appōnit, appōnere arcessit, arcessere dīcit, dīcere fluit, fluere tangit, tangere -īre (4)	place (on), serve send for, fetch say, call, speak flow touch
revenit, revenīre sentit, sentīre Irregular potest, posse	come back feel, sense, think be able
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	sick, ill human our, ours red healthy, well stupid, foolish
Adverbia bene male modo	well badly, ill only, just
Praepositiōnēs dē (prp. + abl.) infrā (prp. + acc.) super (prp. + acc.)	(down) from, of, about below on (top of), above
Coniûnctionēs atque/ac nec	and, as, than and/but not, nor, not

XII. Mīles Romānus

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 *mīles*, whose stem ends in -t: gen. *mīlit*|is (so also pedes -it|is and eques -it|is).

Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

Dative of Possession

In the sentence $M\bar{a}rc\bar{o}$ $\bar{u}na$ soror est (1.6), $M\bar{a}rc\bar{o}$ 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.

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 patr<u>ī</u>? <u>Eī</u> nōmen est Iūlius. (ll.9–10)
Aemili<u>ae</u> est ūnus frāter, <u>cui</u> "Aemilius" nōmen est. (l.17)
Vir<u>ō</u> Rōmān<u>ō</u> tria nōmina sunt. (ll.10–11)
Fīli<u>īs</u> 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 consonant-stem. The endings -t and -tur are also added directly to the stem:

```
Infinitive:
     fer re
Singular:
     fer|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 <u>fert</u>. (ll.33–34)
      Aemilius pīlum tantum <u>fert</u>. (1.42)
      Gladius eius brevis et levis est—brevior et levior quam is quī ab
         equite fertur. (ll.56–57)
      Gladiī...ā Germānīs <u>feruntur</u>. (ll.57–58)
      Hispānī et Gallī...et alia arma et arcūs sagittāsque <u>ferunt</u>. (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. dūc|ite!)

dīc! of dīcere (pl. dīc|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 - um, follow the 1st and 2nd declensions: the 1st in the feminine $(alb|\underline{a})$ and the 2nd in the masculine and neuter $(alb|\underline{us}, alb|\underline{um})$. A few 1st/2nd declension adjectives, like niger - gr|a - gr|um, have -er, not -us, in the nom. sing. m. (cf. nouns like $liber - br|\bar{i}$, $culter - tr|\bar{i}$). 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:

• -i (not -e) in the ablative singular

	sing.	pl.
	m./f.	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.

^{1.} When these imperatives are found in compound verbs e.g., $abd\bar{u}c$ ("lead away!") the accent remains on the ultima, a verbal reminiscence of the form was $abd\bar{u}ce$.

	sing.	pl.
	n.	n.
nom.	brev e	brev ia
acc.	brev e	brev ia
gen.	brev is	brev ium
dat.	brev ī	brev ibus
abl.	brev ī	brev ibus

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

Examples:

Itaque trīstis est Aemilia. (l.20)

Cūr tam brev<u>is</u> est gladi<u>us</u>? Quod gladi<u>us</u> brev<u>is</u> nōn tam grav<u>is</u> est quam gladi<u>us</u> long<u>us</u>. (ll.50–53)

Pīl<u>um</u> nostr<u>um</u> brev<u>e</u> et lev<u>e</u> est. (l.134)

Mīlitēs Rōmānī fortēs sunt. (ll.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.	-us	manus	-ūs	manūs
acc.	-um	manum	-ūs	manūs
gen.	-ūs	manūs	-uum	manuum
dat.	-uī	manuī	-ibus	manibus
abl.	-ū	manū	-ibus	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 $p\bar{a}r\bar{e}re$ (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 *ducī* are datives:

```
Dux exercit<u>uī</u> imperat. (l.82)
Exercitus duc<u>ī</u> su<u>ō</u> pāret. (l.82)
nec Rōmānīs pārent. (ll.75–76)
Hispānī et Gallī iam exercitibus nostrīs pārent. (ll.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 $(e\bar{\imath})$ to help you remember that they do not take an accusative direct object, e.g.:

```
imperāre eī
pārēre eī
```

Adjectives: Comparison

A comparison like *Via Latīna nōn tam longa est quam via Appia* can also be expressed *Via Appia longior est quam via Latīna. Longior* is a **comparative adjective** (Latin *comparātīvus*, 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 (pīlum longius)
- declines like 3rd declension consonant-stem nouns:

```
    ⊳ gen. -iōr|is; plural - iōr|um
    ⊳ nom./acc. pl. -iōr|ēs (m./f.) and -iōr|a (n.)
    ⊳ abl. sing. -e -iōr|e
```

^{2.} The comparative means "too" when there is no comparison expressed or implied.

	sing.	pl.	sing.	pl.
	m./f.	m./f.	n.	n.
nom.	brevior	brevior ēs	brevius	brevior a
acc.	breviōr em	breviōr ēs	brevius	breviōr a
gen.	breviōr is	breviōr um	breviōr is	breviōr um
dat.	breviōr ī	breviōr ibus	breviōr ī	breviōr ibus
abl.	breviōr e	breviōr ibus	breviōr e	breviōr ibus

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 gladi<u>ī</u> quī ā Germānīs feruntur long<u>iōrēs</u> et grav<u>iōrēs</u> sunt quam Rōmānōrum ac pīl<u>a</u> eōrum long<u>iōra</u> et grav<u>iōra</u> 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 (-ius)	-iōrēs (-iōra)
acc.	-iōrem (-ius)	-iōrēs (-iōra)
gen.	-iōris	-iōrum
dat.	-iōrī	-iōribus
abl.	-iōre	-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 servõrum 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 imperi Rōmānī, ut membrum pars corpor est. (ll.64–65)

Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

Verbs: 3rd Conjugation Vowel Stems

Besides consonant-stems (like $p\bar{o}n|ere$, $s\bar{u}m|ere$, $d\bar{i}c|ere$), 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 consonant-stems, 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:

```
cap<u>i</u>|unt
iac<u>i</u>|unt
fug<u>i</u>|unt
```

Notā Bene: Instead of the characteristic *i*, you will find *e*:

- before *r*, e.g., in the infinitive: $cap\underline{e}|re$, $iac\underline{e}|re$, $fug\underline{e}|re$, stem $cap\underline{i}$ -, $iac\underline{i}$ -, $fug\underline{i}$ -
- 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 <u>sunt</u> (l.94) in castr<u>īs</u> (l.97) vāllum castr<u>ōrum</u> (l.101)
```

Notā Bene: Plūrāle tantum nouns take plural verbs.

Mīlle/mīlia

The common Roman linear measures were:

- *pēs*, "foot" (29.6 cm or 11.65 inches)
- $passus = 5 ped\bar{e}s$ (1.48 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, mīlle is an **indeclinable adjective**; the plural is expressed by the **noun** *mīlia -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. (11.96-97)
```

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

```
1.000 = m\bar{\imath}lle + noun
```

For numbers between 1,000 and 2,000, use mille and an ordinal between 1–999: e.g., mīlle et ūnum (1,001), mīlle 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 <u>duōs pedēs</u> longus est. Aemilius in castrīs habitat <u>mīlle passūs</u> ā fīne imperiī.

The sword is two feet long. (1.49) Aemilius lives in a camp one mile from the boundary of the empire. (1.93)

Prope <u>decem pedēs</u> altum est, et duo mīlia passuum longum. two miles long. (ll.102–103)

It is almost ten feet high and

Recēnsiō: 3rd Declension Ablative Singular in -ī and -e

Ends in -e

• consonant-stem nouns of all genders:

pāstor (m.) abl.: pāstōre vōx (f.) abl.: vōce nōmen (n.) abl.: nōmine

• masculine and feminine *i*-stem nouns:

mōns (m.) abl.: monte nūbēs (f.) abl.: nūbe

 comparative adjectives of all genders brevior, brevius (from brevis, breve): abl.: breviore longior, longius (from longus, longa, longum), abl.: longiōre

Ends in $-\bar{i}$

• neuter *i-stem* nouns mare (n.), abl.: marī positive adjectives of all genders brevis, breve, abl.: brevī gravis, grave, abl.: gravī

Studia Romana

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 mātertera (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 Nomina: Praenomen, Nomen, Cognomen

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 praenomen, and a surname, the cognomen, which is common to a branch of the family. The cognomen is often descriptive of the founder of the family, e.g., Longus, Pulcher, Crassus; Paulus means "small" and Balbus "stammering." Sometimes, the cognomen 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 -anus 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 (prīma, 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 *prīncipia* 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
                                              ditch, trench
    hasta, -ae
                                              lance
    patria, -ae
                                              native country/town
    sagitta, -ae
                                              arrow
    adiectīvum (nomen)
                                              adjective
                                              (maternal) uncle
    avunculus, -ī
    arma, -\bar{\mathbf{o}}rum (n. pl.)
                                              arms
    bellum, -ī
                                              war
    castra, -ōrum (n. pl.)
                                              camp
    comparātīvus, -ī (gradus)
                                              comparative
    gladius, -ī
                                              sword
    pīlum, -ī
                                              spear, javelin
    pugnus, -ī
                                              fist
    scūtum, -ī
                                              shield
    vāllum, -ī
                                              rampart
  3rd
    cognōmen, -inis (n.)
                                              surname
    dux, ducis (m.)
                                              leader, chief, general
    eques, equitis (m.)
                                              horseman
    frāter, frātris (m.)
                                              brother
    fīnis, fīnis (m.)
                                              boundary, limit, end
    hostis, hostis (m.)
                                              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.)	side, flank soldier thousand name part, direction footsoldier first name sister
4th	1
arcus, arcūs	bow cavalry
equitātus, equitātūs exercitus, exercitūs	army
impetus, impetūs	attack, charge
metus, metūs	fear
passus, passūs	pace
versus, versūs	line, verse
Verba	
-āre (1)	
pugnat, pugnāre	fight
mīlitat, mīlitāre	serve as a soldier
expugnat, expugnāre	conquer
oppugnat, oppugnāre	attack
-ere (3)	
incolit, incolere	inhabit
dīvidit, dīvidere	divide
metuit, metuere	fear
dēfendit, dēfendere	defend
i-stem	
iacit, iacere	throw, hurl
fugit, fugere	run away, flee
Irregular	
fert, ferre	carry, bring, bear
Adiectīva	
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)	
altus, -a, -um	high, tall, deep
armātus, -a, -um	armed
barbarus, -a, -um	foreign, barbarian
lātus, -a, -um	wide
vester, -tra, -trum	your, yours
3rd	1 .
brevis, -e	short
fortis, -e	strong, brave
gravis, -e	heavy, severe, grave

levis, -e light, slight

trīstis, -e sad

Praepositiones

contrā (prp. + acc.) against

Coniūnctiones

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, octō, novem, decem. The fifth month in the old calendar was called Quīntīlis (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 Sextīlis (from sextus), was given the name of the Roman emperor Augustus.

Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

Fifth Declension Nouns

The noun $di\underline{e}s$, gen. $di\underline{e}i$, here represents the **5th declension** (Latin $d\bar{e}cl\bar{i}n\bar{a}ti\bar{o}$ $qu\bar{i}nta$). 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 $-i\bar{e}s$ 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: - $\underline{e}m$
 - ▶ in the genitive and dative singular when a consonant precedes (e.g., $r\bar{e}s$, $re\bar{i}$): $-\underline{e}\bar{i}$
- 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 ēs	di ēs
acc.	di em	di ēs
gen.	di ēī	di ērum
dat.	di ēī	di ēbus
abl.	di ē	di ēbus

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., \bar{a}l\underline{a}, gen. sing. -ae 2nd declension: o-stems, e.g., equus, \bar{o}vum
```

• the "u" in the ending of these nouns was originally an "o"

```
equus < equ|os| \bar{o}vum < \bar{o}v|om, gen. sing. -\bar{i} (<-oi)
```

3rd declension: consonant-stems and i-stems, e.g., sol, ovis, gen. sing. -is

4th declension: u-stems, e.g., $lac\underline{u}|s$, gen. sing. $-\bar{u}s$ **5th declension**: \bar{e} -stems, e.g., $di\underline{\bar{e}}|s$, $r\underline{\bar{e}}|s$, gen. sing. $-\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$, $-\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$

Māne

The neuter noun *māne* is indeclinable; it is also used as an adverb (Cap. XIV, l.155)

```
Prīma pars diēī est māne, pars postrēma vesper. (ll.35–36)
Nox est tempus ā vesperō ad māne. (l.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 1st/2nd declension (e.g., *Iānuārius*, -a, -um).
- 3rd declension

Aprīlis

- ▶ Genitive masculine singular in -is
- ▶ Ablative in -ī: (mense) Aprīlī September, Octōber, November, December
- ▶ Nominative masculine singular: -ber
- ▶ Genitive masculine singular: -br|is: Septembris, Decembris, etc.
- ▶ Ablative in -ī: (mēnse) Septembrī, Octōbri, etc.

Expressions of Time

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

 $m\bar{e}ns\underline{e}$ Decembr \bar{i} in the month of December $ill\underline{\bar{o}}$ tempor \underline{e} at that time

 $h\bar{o}r\bar{a} pr\bar{i}m\bar{a}$ at the first hour

```
Tempore antīquō Mārtius mēnsis prīmus erat. (ll.17–19)
Nocte sōl nōn lūcet. (l.46)
Vēre campī novā herbā operiuntur. (l.92)
"Quandō sōl altissimus est?" "Hōrā sextā vel merīdiē." (ll.107–108)
```

Time **how long** (duration) is expressed by the accusative:

```
centum annōs vīvere (ll.10-11)
```

Numerals

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

ūn us, -a, -um	sex
du 0, -ae, -0	septem
tr ēs, -ia	octō
quattuor	novem
quīnque	decem

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

```
      prīm|us, -a, -um
      septim|us, -a, -um

      secund|us, -a, -um
      octāv|us, -a, -um

      terti|us, -a, -um
      nōn|us, -a, -um

      quārt|us, -a, -um
      decim|us, -a, -um

      sext|us, -a, -um
      duodecim|us, -a, -um
```

The ordinals are also combined with *pars* to form **fractions**:

½:tertia pars½:quārta pars½:quīnta pars (etc.)

Notā Bene: ½: <u>dīmidia</u> pars.

Verbs: Preterite (Imperfect) Tense

The preterite comes from a compound of *praeter* ("beyond," Cap. XIV) and the verb $\bar{\imath}re$ (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:

```
<u>Tunc</u> (= illō tempore) Mārtius mēnsis prīmus <u>erat</u>.

<u>Nunc</u> (= hōc tempore) Mārtius mēnsis tertius <u>est</u>.
```

^{1.} You learned the verb "it," "he/she goes," in Cap. VI, l.20: Iūlius ab oppidō ad vīllam suam it.

Erat, erant is called the **imperfect tense**, or <u>preterite</u>, 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 brev<u>is</u> est. Februārius brev<u>ior</u> est quam Iānuārius. Februārius mēnsis annī brevissimus est.

Brevis breve (**positive degree**)

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

```
-us, -a, -um (e.g., longus, -a, -um)
-is, -e (e.g., brevis, -e)
(other endings will be learned later)
```

Brevior brevius (comparative degree of brevis)

- compares February with January
- ends in:

```
-ior, -ius (e.g., longior, longius, brevior, brevius)
```

Brev<u>issimus</u> -issimu, -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*:

<u>Quam</u> (= how) <u>longus</u> (positive degree) est mēnsis November? November trīgintā diēs longus est. December ūnum et trīgintā diēs habet.

Iānuārius <u>tam</u> longus est <u>quam</u> (= as...as) December, sed Februārius <u>brevior</u> (comparative degree) est: duodētrīgintā aut ūndētrīgintā diēs tantum habet.

Februārius <u>brevior</u> (comparative degree) est <u>quam</u> (= than) cēterī ūndecim mēnsēs: is mēnsis annī <u>brevissimus</u> (superlative degree) est.

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 <u>vel</u> trecentōs sexāgintā quīnque diēs (l.7) centum annī <u>vel</u> saeculum (l.9) hōra sexta vel merīdiēs (l.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 <u>aut</u> 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

īdūs 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):

īdūs was the 15th

nonae 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, $\bar{i}d\bar{u}s$, and $n\bar{o}nae$) the names of the months are added as adjectives. Thus:

January 1st kalend<u>ae</u> Iānuāri<u>ae</u> January 5th nōn<u>ae</u> Iānuāri<u>ae</u> January 13th id<u>ūs</u> Iānuāri<u>ae</u>

Ablative of Time When

Dates are given in the *ablātīvus temporis*, e.g.:

kalend<u>īs</u> Iānuāri<u>īs</u> on January 1st īd<u>ibus</u> Mārti<u>īs</u> on March 15th

Giving the Date in Latin

Other dates were indicated by stating the number of days before the following *kalendae*, *nōnae*, or *īdūs*. 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 kalendās Māiās

but the Romans put the ante first with all the following words in the accusative:

```
ante di<u>em</u> ūndecim<u>um</u> kalend<u>ās</u> Māi<u>ās</u> 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 *dīcitur* with an infinitive and the nominative case:

```
Lūna 'nova' esse dīcitur. (1.52, "is said to be...")
```

Compare the same thought using the active verb ($d\bar{\imath}cunt$) with the accusative and infinitive construction you learned in Cap. XI:

```
(Hominēs) lūnam 'novam' esse dīcunt.
```

When used with a predicate nominative, $d\bar{\imath}citur$ is closer in meaning to "is called."

```
Diēs prīmus mēnsis Iānuāriī <u>dīcitur</u> 'kalendae Iānuāriae.' (ll.56–57)
Item 'īdūs Februāriae' dīcitur diēs tertius decimus mēnsis Februāriī.
(ll.64–65)
```

Diēs octāvus ante kalendās Iānuāriās, quī <u>dīcitur</u> 'ante diem octāvum kalendās Iānuāriās,' est diēs annī brevissimus. (ll.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. (l.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 <u>in caelō</u> est. (l.35)

 <u>In Germāniā</u> hiemēs frīgidiōrēs sunt quam <u>in Italiā</u>. (ll.95–96)
- Time: When? During what time?
 <u>Aestāte</u> diēs longī sunt, sōl lūcet, āēr calidus est. (1.87)
 <u>Hōc</u> annī <u>tempore</u> diēs nōn tam calidī sunt quam aestāte et noctēs frīgidiōrēs sunt. (ll.120–121)

The accusative represents movement through a block of space or time.

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

 Gladius <u>duōs pedēs</u> longus est. (Cap. XII, l.49)

 vāllum castrōrum...prope <u>decem pedēs</u> altum est, et <u>duo mīlia</u>

 <u>passuum</u> longum. (Cap. XII, ll.101–103)
- Time: How long?
 November <u>trīgintā diēs</u> longus est. (ll.25-26)
 Mārtius <u>ūnum et trīgintā diēs</u> 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 Romana

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 1st 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 phenomenon—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*. 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 Italia 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
                                              form, shape, figure
    hōra, -ae
    kalendae, -ārum (pl.)
                                              the 1st of the month
    lūna, -ae
                                              moon
    nonae, -arum (pl.)
                                              5th/7th of the month
    stēlla, -ae
  2nd
    aequinoctium, -ī
                                              equinox
    annus, -ī
                                              year
    autumnus, -ī
                                              autumn
    initium, -ī
                                              beginning
    saeculum, -ī
                                              century
    superlātīvus, -ī (gradus)
                                              superlative
    vesper, vesperī
                                              evening
  3rd
    aestās, aestātis (f.)
                                              summer
    hiems, hiemis (f.)
                                              winter
    imber, imbris (m.)
                                              rain, shower
    l\bar{u}x, l\bar{u}cis(f.)
                                              light, daylight
    mēnsis, mēnsis (m.)
                                              month
    nix, nivis (f.)
                                              snow
    nox, noctis (f.)
                                              night
    tempus, temporis (n.)
                                              time
    urbs, urbis (f.)
                                              city
    vēr, vēris (n.)
                                              spring
  4th
    īdūs, īduum (f. pl.)
                                              13th/15th of the month
    lacus, -ūs
                                              lake
  5th
    diēs, -ēī (m.)
                                              day, date
    faciēs, -ēī
                                              face
    glacies, -eī
                                              ice
    merīdiēs, -ēī (m.)
                                              midday, noon, south
    indēclīnābilis
                                              indeclinable
    māne
                                              morning
```

```
Verba
  -āre (1)
                                             illustrate, make clear
    illūstrat, illūstrāre
    nōminat, nōmināre
                                             name, call
-ere (3)
  i-stem
    incipit, incipere
                                             begin
  -īre (4)
    operit, operire
                                             cover
  Irregular
    erat, erant
                                             was, were
    vult, velle
                                             want, be willing
Adiectīva
  1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
    aequus, -a, -um
                                             equal, calm
                                             warm, hot, f. hot water3
    calidus, -a, -um
                                             bright, clear, loud
    clārus, -a, -um
                                             tenth
    decimus, -a, -um
                                            half
    dīmidius, -a, -um
    duodecimus, -a, -um
                                            twelfth
    exiguus, -a, -um
                                             small, scanty
                                             cold, chilly, cool
    frīgidus, -a, -um
                                             ninth
    nōnus, -a, -um
                                             dark
    obscūrus, -a, -um
    octāvus, -a, -um
                                            eighth
                                             last
    postrēmus, -a, -um
                                             fifth
    quintus, -a, -um
                                            seventh
    septimus, -a, -um
                                            sixth
    sextus, -a, -um
    tōtus, -a, -um
                                             the whole of, all
                                             eleventh
    ūndecimus, -a, -um
  3rd
    indēclīnābilis, -e
                                             indeclinable
Numerī (indeclinable unless otherwise noted)
                                             two hundred
    ducentī, -ae, -a
    sexāgintā
                                             sixty
                                             three hundred
    trecentī, -ae, -a
    trīgintā
                                             thirty
    ūndecim
                                             eleven
Adverbia
                                             likewise, also
    item
    māne
                                             in the morning
```

^{3.} When *calida* (f.) is used as a noun, it means *calida aqua* = hot water.

nuncnowquandōwhen, astuncthen

Coniunctiones

igitur therefore, then, so

vel 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)?neuterneither (of the two)alterthe other (of the two)uterqueeach (of the two)

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

Uter puer, Mārcusne an(the conjunction an, not aut, is putQuīntus?between the two in question)

The answer may be:

- 1. neuter, -tra, -trum ("neither"), e.g., neuter puer, nec Mārcus nec Quīntus.
- 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 dol<u>et</u>. (ll.3–4) nec caput nec pēs dol<u>et</u>. (l.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.* (l.91)
- if the subjects are **things**, the verb agrees with the nearest subject, as in:

```
pēs et caput eī dolet. (ll.3-4, 64)
```

Dative of Interest/Reference

In the last example ($p\bar{e}s$ et caput $e\bar{i}$ dolet), the dative $e\bar{i}$ denotes the person concerned, benefited, or harmed. This use of the dative is called the **dative of interest** or reference ($dat\bar{i}vus$ $\underline{commod\bar{i}}$), e.g.:

```
Bracchium quoque dolet Quīntō. (l.4)
Multīs barbarīs magna pars corporis nūda est. (ll.76–77)
```

Duo, duae, duo

The ablative of duo, duae, duo is:

- masculine and neuter duōbus
 ē duōbus puerīs (ll.11-12)
 in duōbus cubiculīs
- feminine du<u>ābus</u> ē duābus fenestrīs (l.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 with the window open (l.15) dormit.

Is fenestrā clausā dormit.

Quīntus, quī oculīs apertīs iacet.

with the window shut (l.18) with his eyes open (ll.21–22)
```

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 $-(\bar{e})ns$:

```
puer dormiēns = puer quī dormit (ll.22-23)
puer vigilāns = puer quī vigilat (l.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|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 ā fīliō intrante salūtantur.* (1.91)
- has an **ablative singular** in $-\bar{i}$ only when used only as an adjective, with no verbal force:

ibi nocte silentī Ariadnam He left Ariadne sleeping there during the silent night. (Cap. XXV, ll.99–100)

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

Participle

sing.	m./f.	n.
nom.	-ns	-ns
acc.	-ntem	-ns
gen.	-ntis	
dat.	-ntī	
abl.	-nte/-ntī	
pl.		
nom./acc.	-ntēs	-ntia
gen.	-ntium	
dat./abl.	-ntibus	

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 <u>mihi</u> aquam!" (1.43)
"<u>Mihi</u> quoque caput dolet!" (1.65)
"<u>Tibi</u> 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
tē-cum
sē-cum
```

For example:

```
Dāvus eum <u>sēcum</u> venīre iubet: "Venī <u>mēcum</u>!" (ll.86–87)
"Mēdus <u>tēcum</u> īre nōn potest." (l.117)
"Alterum <u>tēcum</u> fer!" (l.108)
"Cūr ille servus <u>mēcum</u> venīre nōn potest ut solet?" (l.120)
"...stilum rēgulamque <u>sēcum</u> ferēns ē vīllā abit." (ll.127–128)
acc. mē tē
```

```
acc. me te
dat. mihi tibi
abl. mē tē
```

Inquit

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

```
"Hōra prīma est," <u>inquit</u> Dāvus, "Surge ē lectō!" (l.40)
Servus Mārcō aquam affert et "Ecce aqua," <u>inquit.</u> (l.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 $omn\bar{e}s$ ("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 ↔ nūllus
omnēs ↔ nēmō
omnia ↔ 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*" (l.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 Romana

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 "*Cucurrū!*" *Cucucurrū!*" (l.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 *ēlūcūbrāre* for working by lamplight. (Of course, 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 paedagōgī. 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 custos incorruptissimus omnīs/circum doctorēs 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 ambulā*!"(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
                                            writing tablet
  tabula, -ae
  toga, -ae
                                            toga
  tunica, -ae
                                            tunic
2nd
  calceus, -ī
                                            shoe
  gallus, -ī
                                            cock, rooster
  participium, -ī
                                            participle
  stilus, -ī
                                            stylus
  vestīmentum, -ī
                                            garment, clothing
3rd
  parentēs, -um (m. pl.)
                                            parents
5th
  rēs, reī (f.)
                                            thing, matter, affair
Indeclinable
  nihil (n.)
                                            nothing
```

```
Verba
  -āre (1)
                                              lie (in bed)
    cubat, cubāre
                                              be awake
    vigilat, vigilāre
    excitat, excitāre
                                              wake up, arouse
                                              wash, bathe
    lavat, lavāre
  -ēre (2)
    valet, valēre
                                              be strong, be well
    solet, solēre
                                              be accustomed
                                              be cold
    frīget, frīgēre
  -ere (3)
    surgit, surgere
                                              rise, get up
                                              dip, plunge, sink
    mergit, mergere
                                              demand, call for
    poscit, poscere
    induit, induere
                                              put on (clothes)
    gerit, gerere
                                              carry, wear, carry on, do
  -īre (4)
    vestit, vestīre
                                              dress
  Irregular
    affert, afferre
                                              bring (to, forward)
                                              (he/she) says/said
    inquit, inquiunt
Adiectīva
  1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
    apertus, -a, -um
                                              open
    clausus, -a, -um
                                              closed, shut
    sordidus, -a, -um
                                              dirty, mean, base
    pūrus, -a, -um
                                              clean, pure
    nūdus, -a, -um
                                              naked
    togātus, -a, -um
                                              wearing the toga
                                              right, f. the right (hand)1
    dexter, -tra, -trum
                                              left, f. the left (hand)
    sinister, -tra, -trum
                                              neither
    neuter, -tra, -trum
                                              one, the other, second
    alter, -era, -erum
                                              which (of the two)?
    uter, -tra, -trum?
    uterque, utraque, utrumque
                                              each of the two
  3rd
    omnis, -e
                                              all, every
Prōnōmina
    mihi
                                              me, myself (dat.)
    tibi
                                              you, yourself (dat.)
    mēcum
                                              with me
```

^{1.} When dextra (f.) is used as a noun, it means $dextra\ manus$ = right hand; the noun sinistra means left hand.

tēcum with you

sēcum with himself/herself

Adverbia

prīmum first

nihil/nīl² nothing, not at all

quōmodo how hodiē today

adhūcso far, till now, stilldeinde/deinafterward, then

Praepositiones

praeter (*prp.* + *acc.*) past, besides, except

Coniūnctiones

an or (mostly with **ūter**: **ūter**...an)

Alia

valē, valēte farewell, goodbye

^{2.} *Nihil* acts as an adverb as well as a noun (contracted form is $n\bar{\imath}l$). As a noun, it has two forms, the indeclinable nihil above and the 2nd declension neuter nihilum, $-\bar{\imath}$.

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, *lūdus*, 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 *lūdus* was run as a private enterprise by a *lūdī magister*, who 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 plāgae 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 *paedagōgī*: it is the job of the *paedagōgus* to monitor the behavior of his charge. He complains that the *paedagōgī* don't do their jobs of making the boys behave and then the boys are punished for not behaving (*Īnstitūtiō 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 non habet, "<u>Ego</u> librum non habe<u>o</u>."

Magister: "Quid? Sext<u>us</u> librum suum habe<u>t</u>, <u>tū</u> librum tuum nōn habē<u>s</u>?" Cūr librum nōn habē<u>s</u>?"

Titus: "Librum non habeo, quod Marcus meum librum habet."

It appears from this that in the singular:

- the 1st person of the verb ends in $-\bar{o}$ (habe $|\bar{o}$)
- the 2nd in -s ($hab\bar{e}|s$)
- 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:

```
ego1st pers. sing.n\bar{o}s1st pers. pl.t\bar{u}2nd pers. sing.v\bar{o}s2nd pers. pl.
```

But these pronouns are only used when the subject is emphasized, for example (ll.24–26):

Sextus: "Num <u>ego</u> discipulus improbus sum?"

Magister: "Immō <u>tū</u> 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 (ll.38–39):

```
Magister: "Cūr librum nōn habē<u>s</u>?"
Titus: "Librum nōn habe<u>ō</u>."
```

Exclamation: Accusative and Vocative

Diodorus expresses his frustration with the students in two different ways:

```
"Ō, discipul<u>ōs</u> improb<u>ōs</u>...!" (l.23)
"Ō improb<u>ī</u> discipul<u>ī</u>!" (ll.101–102)
```

The first example $(\bar{O}, discipul\bar{o}\underline{s} \ improb\bar{o}\underline{s})$ is in the accusative, the second $(\bar{O} \ improb\bar{\iota} \ discipul\bar{\iota}!)$ 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." (ll.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): "<u>Vōs</u> iānuam nōn pulsā<u>tis</u> cum ad lūdum venī<u>tis</u>, nec magistrum salūtā<u>tis</u> cum eum vidē<u>tis</u>. Audī<u>tis</u>ne id quod dīcō?"

Tum Sextus et Titus: "Id quod dīcis," inquiunt, "vērum nōn est: <u>nōs</u> iānuam pulsā<u>mus</u> cum ad lūdum venī<u>mus</u>, et magistrum salūtā<u>mus</u> cum eum vidē<u>mus</u>. Nōnne vērum dīc<u>imus</u>, magister?"

It appears from this that in the plural:

- the 1st person ends in -mus (pulsā|mus, vidē|mus, venī|mus)
- the 2nd in -tis (pulsā|tis, vidē|tis, dīc|itis venī|tis)
- the 3rd, as you know, in -nt (pulsa|nt, vide|nt, dīc|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:

 $n\bar{o}s$ 1st pers. pl. $v\bar{o}s$ 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 <u>nōs</u> verberās, magister?" "Vōs verberō."

	sing.	pl.	sing.	pl.
nom.	ego	nōs	tū	vōs
acc.	тē	nōs	tē	vōs

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.	ego	nōs	tū	vōs
acc.	тē	nōs	tē	vōs
gen.				
dat.	mihi	nōbīs	tibi	vōbīs
abl.	тē	nōbīs	tē	vōbīs

Overview of Present Active Endings

1st -ō, -mus 2nd -s, -tis 3rd -t, -nt

Notā Bene:

- before $-\bar{o}$:
 - $ightharpoonup \bar{a}$ combines with $-\bar{o}$: $puls|\bar{o}$ (stem $puls\bar{a}$)
 - $ightharpoonup \bar{e}$ and \bar{i} shorten: $hab\underline{e}|\bar{o}$, $ven\underline{i}|\bar{o}$ (stems $hab\underline{\bar{e}}$ -, $ven\underline{\bar{i}}$ -)
- in 3rd conjugation consonant-stems:
 - ▶ a short *i* is inserted before:
 - -s: $d\bar{\imath}c|\underline{\imath}s$ (stem $d\bar{\imath}c$ -)
 - -mus: dīc imus
 - -tis: dīc|<u>i</u>tis
 - *-t*: *dīc*|*<u>i</u>t*
 - \triangleright before *nt* we find a short *u*:
 - -nt: dīc <u>u</u>nt

- in 3rd conjugation *i*-stems, a short *i* appears before the endings:
 - $\triangleright \bar{o}$: $faci|\bar{o}$ (stem faci-)
 - ⊳ -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 ō	habe ō	dīc ō	faci ō	veni ō
2	pulsā s	habē s	dīc is	faci s	venī s
3	pulsa t	habe t	dīc it	faci t	veni t
pl. 1	pulsā mus	habē mus	dīc imus	faci mus	venī mus
2	pulsā tis	habē tis	dīc itis	faci tis	venī tis
3	pulsa nt	habe nt	dīc unt	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 <u>sē</u>cum venīre iubet: "Venī <u>mē</u>cum!": Davus orders him (Marcus) to come with him (Davus): "Come with me!" (Cap. XIV, 1.87)

Quīntus: "(Ego) aeger <u>sum</u>" is reported by Marcus: Quīntus dīcit "<u>sē</u> aegrum <u>esse</u>." Quintus says that <u>he</u> is sick. (l.82)

Mārcus: "Ego eius librum habeō" becomes Mārcus dīcit "<u>sē</u> 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 "<u>sē</u> nōn dormīre; <u>sē</u> vigilāre et omnia verba eius audīre."

Esse (continued)

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

sumus estis sunt

Example:

"Ubi estis, pueri?" "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. 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 "*pot*" of the verb:

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

In the singular, *posse* runs:

pos-<u>sum</u> pot-<u>es</u> pot-<u>est</u>

Examples (ll.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-<u>sumus</u> pot-<u>estis</u> pos-<u>sunt</u>

^{1.} Convenire can also be used personally, i.e., with a subject other than "it."

Examples (ll.124–127):

Magister: "Quid non considitis?" Discipuli: "Non considimus, quod sedere non 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 3rd person singular. It is often, like *convenit*, combined with a dative: *mihi licet* ("It is permitted to/for me," therefore "I may").

- In lectulo dormire licet, hic in lūdo non licet dormire!
- 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 discipul 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 pronouns	possessive adjectives	personal pronouns	possessive adjectives
nom.	ego	meus, mea, meum	nōs	noster, nostra, nostrum
acc.	тē		nōs	
dat.	mihi			
abl.	mē			
nom.	tū	tuus, tua, tuum	vōs	vester, vestra, vestrum
acc.	tē		vōs	
dat.	tibi			
abl.	tē			

Studia Romana

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 ῥητορικός in the first century BC); Quintilian's first century AD *Īnstitūtiō Ōrātōria* follows in the tradition of Cato (whose *vir bonus dīcendī perītus* 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 *Mārtiālis*, 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 doctrīnae 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 virīlis*, 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

^{2.} Martial 2.90: Quintiliāne, vagae moderātor summe iuventae/Glōria Rōmānae, Quintiliāne, togae...

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
                                              door
    iānua, -ae
                                              stool, chair
    sella, -ae
    virga, -ae
                                              rod
    discipulus, -ī
                                              pupil, disciple
    domī
                                              at home (locative)
    lūdus, -ī
                                              play, game, school
    magister, magistrī
                                              schoolmaster, teacher
    tergum, -ī
                                             back
    lectulus, -ī
                                             bed
Verba
  -āre (1)
    exclāmō, exclāmāre
                                             cry out, exclaim
                                              read aloud
    recitō, recitāre
  -ēre (2)
    licet, licēre (+ dat.)
                                             it is allowed, one may
  -ere (3)^3
    consido, considere
                                              sit down
    dēsinō, dēsinere
                                              finish, stop, end
    reddō, reddere
                                              give back, give
  -īre (4)
    pūniō, pūnīre
                                              punish
  Irregular
    redeō, redīre
                                              go back, return
    sum, esse
                                              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) bad, wicked, evil malus, -a, -um stern, severe sevērus, -a, -um tacitus, -a, -um silent true, *n*. truth vērus, -a, -um Adiectīva Comparātiva (3rd) lower, inferior inferior, -ius posterior, -ius back, hind, later prior, -ius first, former, front Prōnōmina ego I, myself you, yourself tū we, us, ourselves nōs you, yourselves vōs Adverbia nōndum not yet statim at once tum then Coniūnctiones before antequam but at sī if if not, except, but nisi vērum but Vocābula Interrogātīva quid? why?

XVI. Tempestās

Rēs Grammaticae Novae

- 1. Verbs
 - a. Deponent Verbs (verba deponentia)
 - b. Irregular Verbs
 - i. īre
 - 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 Plow-Oxen," 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** *i*-stems because they have -*i* throughout, for example, the noun *puppis*, -*is* (f.), which has:

- -*im* in the accusative (instead of -*em*)
- -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. (ll.7–8)

1st Declension Masculine Nouns

1st declension nouns (in -a, -ae) 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"):
 - Destia sita est eō locō quō Tiberis in mare īnferum īnfluit. (ll.15-16)
 eō locō = in eō locō (location)
- without a preposition to denote motion "from":
 - *Mēdus surgere cōnātur, nec vērō sē locō movēre potest.* (ll.140−141) *loc<u>ō</u> movēre* (ablative of separation)

Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

Deponent Verbs (verba dēpōnentia)

In Section I, we met $opper\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}$ (= $exspect\bar{a}\underline{re}$) a passive form with active meaning: $necesse\ est\ ventum\ opper\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}\ (1.29)$

Many of the new words in this chapter are **deponent verbs** (*verba dēpōnentia*). These verbs have no active forms, hence, *verba dēpōnentia*: verbs that "put aside" their passive meanings² (Latin *dēpōnere*, "put aside").

^{1.} Except for the participle in -ns, and one other form you will learn later in Cap. XXIV.

^{2.} As the first-century AD grammarian $Qu\bar{i}ntus$ Remmius $Palaem\bar{o}n$ wrote, " $D\bar{e}p\bar{o}nentia$ sunt, quod $d\bar{e}p\bar{o}nant$ $passivit\bar{a}tem$ et $s\bar{u}mant$ $activit\bar{a}tem$."

The infinitive ends in $-r\bar{\iota}$, $-\bar{\iota}$

```
-ārī:
                         attempt, try
  cōnārī
                         comfort
  cōnsōlārī
  laetārī
                         be happy
-ērī:
                         look
  intuērī
  verērī
                         fear
-ī:
  complectī
                         embrace
  ēgredī
                         go out
  lābī
                         slip
  loquī
                         speak
  proficīscī
                         set out
                         follow
  sequī
-\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}:
                         wait for
  opperīrī
  orīrī
                         rise
```

From the following examples, you can see verbs that have **passive** forms but **active** meanings:

```
laetārī = gaudēre
verērī = timēre
ēgredī = exīre
nauta Neptūnum verē<u>tur</u> = nauta Neptūnum time<u>t</u>
ventō secundō nāvēs ē portū ēgredi<u>untur</u> = exe<u>unt</u>
```

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:

```
mar\bar{t} turbid\bar{o} = dum mare turbidum est (1.36)
vent\bar{o} secund\bar{o} = 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 *ablātīvus absolūtus*, "set free," therefore independent). It represents the <u>circumstances</u> 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 ēgredi<u>untur</u>. (ll.38-39)
```

The ablative *vento* secundo tells us <u>under what circumstances</u> the ships put out ("with a fair wind," "when the wind is favorable").

Nautae nec mar \underline{i} turbid \underline{o} nec mar \underline{i} tranquill \underline{o} nāvigāre volunt. (ll.36–37)

The sailors are unwilling to sail "when the sea is rough," "when the sea is calm."

 $pl\bar{e}n\bar{l}s$ $v\bar{e}l\bar{l}s$...vehuntur. (ll.39–40)

They travel "with full sails."

pedibus nūdīs (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 ē portū ēgreditur multīs hominībus spectantībus. (ll.64–65); "when the sun is rising," "at sunrise" ... "while many people are looking on"

Past participle:

fenestrā apertā dormīre (Cap. XIV, l.15): to sleep "with the window open" (cf. *fenestrā clausā*, Cap. XIV, l.15)

Even two nouns can form an ablative absolute:

Sōle duce nāvem gubernō (l.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.

īre

In the verb $\bar{i}re$ (and its compounds), the 1st person $\underline{e}\bar{o}$ and 3rd person $\underline{e}unt$ are irregular, e.g.:

in patriam nostram īmus (l.89) "Nōnne gaudēs," inquit, "mea Lydia, quod nōs simul in patriam nostram redīmus?" (ll.79–81)

īre

	sing.	pl.
1st	eō	īmus
2nd	īs	ītis
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 *mīlia*:

```
In flūminibus et in maribus magnus <u>numerus</u> pisc<u>ium</u> est. (Cap. X, 11.41-42)
```

Ergō mīlle passūs sunt quīnque <u>mīlia</u> ped<u>um</u>. (Cap. XII, ll.96–97) In castrīs Aemiliī sex <u>mīlia</u> mīlit<u>um</u> 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, <u>quōrum</u> alterum "mare Superum" appellātur; quōrum (= ē quibus: "of which one...the other") cf. nēmō <u>eōrum</u> (= ex iīs, Cap. XVII, l.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 aqu<u>ae</u> (ll.9, 117)
paulum cib<u>ī</u> nec multum pecūni<u>ae</u> (ll.61–62)
paulum tempor<u>is</u> (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 <u>paulō</u> levior fit, simul vērō flūctūs <u>multō</u> altiōrēs fīunt (ll.123–124): "a little," "a lot"
```

The same forms are used with *ante* and *post* (as adverbs) to state the time difference:

```
paul\bar{o} ante (l.148)
paul\bar{o} post (l.91)
cf. the ablative in ann\bar{o} post (Cap. XIX, l.83)
decem ann\bar{i}s ante (Cap. XIX, l.123)
```

Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

Fierī

The infinitive $fi|\underline{er\bar{t}}$ (3rd person fi|t $f\bar{t}|unt$) 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. (l.124)
```

Points of Style: Word Order

In Cap. XIII, we met the demonstrative *is*, *ea*, *id* being used as an adjective with a dependent genitive:

```
Is mēnsis annī brevissimus est. (l.30)
Is diēs annī prīmus est atque initium annī novī. (ll.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 caelī unde sōl oritur dīcitur oriēns. (l.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:

Merīdiēs dīcitur ea caelī pars ubi sol merīdiē vidētur. (1.48)

Studia Romāna

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 ($\bar{O}d\bar{e}s$ 1.3.9–12: $ill\bar{i}$ $r\bar{o}bur$ et aes $tr\bar{i}plex/circ\bar{a}$ pectus erat, $qu\bar{i}$ fragilem $truc\bar{i}/conm\bar{i}sit$ $pelag\bar{o}$ $ratem/pr\bar{i}mus$).

Despite its dangers, sea travel was efficient and lucrative. Ships carrying a wide variety of merchandise could be found at Ostia (*Portus Ōstiēnsis*), 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 naufragiī*) 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, *dē Officiīs*, 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
        sailor

        nauta, -ae (m.)
        sailor

        ora, -ae
        border, coast

        2nd
        "the deep": the open sea

        locus, -ī
        place
```

^{3.} Quaerit, sī in marī iactūra facienda sit, equīnē pretiōsī potius iactūram faciat an servulī vīlis. Hīc aliō rēs familiāris, aliō dūcit hūmānitās.

multum, -ī paulum, -ī vēlum, -ī ventus, -ī 3rd	a lot, a good deal of a little (also, <i>adv.</i>) sail wind
fulgur, fulguris (n.) gubernātor, gubernātoris (m.) merx, mercis (f.) nāvis, nāvis (f.) occidēns, occidentis (m.) oriēns, orientis (m.) puppis, puppis (f.) septentriōnēs, septentriōnum (m. pl.) tempestās, tempestātis (f.)	flash of lightning steersman commodity, pl. goods ship west east stern, poop deck north storm
4th flūctus, -ūs (m.) portus, -ūs (m.) tonitrus, -ūs (m.)	wave harbor thunder
Verba -āre (1) appellō, appellāre cōnātur, cōnārī cōnsōlātur, cōnsōlārī flō, flāre gubernō, gubernāre iactō, iactāre invocō, invocāre laetātur, laetārī nāvigō, nāvigāre servō, servāre turbō, turbāre -ēre (2) impleō, implēre intuētur, intuērī	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
verētur, verērī -ere (3) cernō, cernere cōnscendō, cōnscendere īnfluō, īnfluere occidō, occidere complectitur, complectī ēgreditur, ēgredī 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

-īre (4) hauriō, haurīre draw (water), bail opperītur, opperīrī wait (for), await oritur, orīrī rise, appear Irregular interest, interesse be between fit, fierī be done, become, happen Adiectīva 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) āter, -tra, -trum black, dark contrārius, -a, -um opposite, contrary īnferus, -a, -um lower seaside, coastal maritimus, -a, -um clear, cloudless serēnus, -a, -um situated situs, -a, -um superus, -a, -um upper tranquillus, -a, -um calm, still turbidus, -a, -um agitated, stormy dēponēns (gen. deponentis) deponent (verb) Coniūnctiones or, or if sīve Praepositiones propter (prp. + acc.) because of Adverbia again, a second time iterum a little, little paulum besides praetereā always semper simul at the same time hardly vix really, however, but vērō

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 (HS¹) = 4 assēs: brass
dēnārius = 4 sēstertiī: silver
aureus = 25 dēnāriī: 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 each (of two) quisque each

^{1.} The abbreviation HS represents IIS, or 2 (II) and a half ($s\bar{e}mis$); originally the $s\bar{e}stertius$ was valued at $2\frac{1}{2}$ assēs.

Double Accusative

Note the **two accusatives** with *docēre*, one for the **person(s)** ($puer\underline{os}$), the other for the **thing** ($numer\underline{os}$) taught:

Magister pueros numeros docet. (ll.1–2)

Cardinal Numbers

In Cap. IV, you learned to count to ten:

ūnus, 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 *vīgintī*, and 100 *centum*, they all end in *-gintā*:

10 decem60 sexāgintā20 vīgintī70 septuāgintā30 trīgintā80 octōgintā40 quadrāgintā90 nōnāgintā50 quīnquāgintā100 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 ūnus 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 ūn-dē-vīgintī ("one-from-twenty")
```

In the same way, 28 is $duo-d\bar{e}$ - $tr\bar{i}gint\bar{a}$ and 29 $\bar{u}n$ - $d\bar{e}$ - $tr\bar{i}gint\bar{a}$. 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 $\bar{u}n|us$, -a, -um, du|o, -ae, -o and $tr|\bar{e}s$, tr|ia decline (and those cardinals that end in them: e.g., $\bar{u}na$ et $v\bar{t}gint\bar{t}$ $n\bar{a}v\bar{e}s$: 21 ships). You have already met most forms of these numbers (the genitives, $\bar{u}n|\bar{t}us$, $du|\bar{o}rum$, - $\bar{a}rum$, - $\bar{o}rum$ and tr|ium, will be introduced in Cap. XIX).

	m.	f.	n.	m.	f.	n.	m./f.	n.
nom.	ūn us	ūn a	ūn um	du o	du ae	du o	tr ēs	tr ia
acc.	ūn um	ūn am	ūn um	du ōs	du ās	du o	tr ēs	tr ia
gen.				du ōrum	du ārum	du ōrum		
dat.	ūn ī	ūn ī	ūn ī	du ōbus	du ābus	du ōbus	tr ibus	tr ibus
abl.	ūn ō	ūn ā	ūn ō	du ōbus	du ābus	du ōbus	tr ibus	tr ibus

Multiples of 100 (*centum*) end in -*centī* (200, 300, 600) or -*gentī* (400, 500, 700, 800, 900) and are declined like adjectives of the 1st/2nd declension:

200 du-cent ī, -ae, -a	$600 \ ses-cent \bar{\imath}, -ae, -a$
300 tre-cent $ \bar{\imath}$, -ae, -a	700 septin-gent ī, -ae, -a
400 quadrin-gent $ \bar{\imath}, -ae, -a $	800 octin-gent $ \bar{\imath}$, -ae, -a
500 quīn -gent ī, -ae, -a	900 nōn-gent ī, -ae, -a

Ordinal Numbers

In Cap. XIII, you learned the ordinal numbers 1st through 12th:

prīm us, -a, -um	septim us, -a, -um
secund us, -a, -um	octāv us, -a, -um
terti us, -a, -um	nōn us, -a, -um
quārt us, -a, -um	decim us, -a, -um
quīnt us, -a, -um	ūndecim us, -a, -um
sext us, -a, -um	duodecim us, -a, -um

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 $-\bar{e}sim|us$, -a, -um:

```
20th vīcēsimus, -a, -um
30th trīcēsimus, -a, -um
200th ducentēsimus, -a, -um
40th quadrāgēsimus, -a, -um
30th trecentēsimus
30th trecentēsimus
1,000th mīllēsimus
```

Notā Bene:

• Cardinals end in:

```
11–17 -decim
30–90 -gintā
200, 300, 600 -cent|ī
400, 500, 700, 800, 900 -gent|ī
```

• 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 1st and 2nd persons, singular and plural. The following sentences show examples of the passive voice (ll.63–81):

• 1st person:

singular: Cūr ego semper ā tē reprehend<u>or</u>, numquam laud<u>or</u>? plural: Nōs quoque saepe interrogā<u>mur</u>, nec vērō prāvē

Nōs quoque saepe interrogā<u>mur</u>, nec vērō prāvē respondēmus. Itaque nōs ā magistrō laudā<u>mur</u>, nōn

reprehendimur.

• 2nd person:

singular: Tū ā mē nōn laudā<u>ris</u>, quia numquam rēctē

respondēs. Semper prāvē respondēs, ergō

reprehenderis!

plural: Et cūr vos semper laudāminī? Quia id quod vos

interrog<u>āminī</u> facile est—ego quoque ad id rēctē respondēre possum. Vōs numquam reprehend<u>iminī</u>!

• 3rd person:

singular: Mārcus semper ā magistrō reprehend<u>itur</u>, numquam

laudā<u>tur</u>.

plural: Sextus et Titus ā magistrō semper laudantur,

numquam reprehenduntur.

Forming the Passive Voice

personal endings

sing. pl.

1. -r -mur

2. -ris -minī

3. -tur -ntur

- 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	-īre
1st	laud or	vere or	reprehend or	largi or
2nd	laudā ris	verē ris	reprehend eris	largī ris
3rd	laudā tur	verē tur	reprehend itur	largī tur
pl.				
1st:	laudā mur	verē mur	reprehend imur	largī mur
2nd:	laudā minī	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. (ll.110–111)
Nōn oportet respondēre antequam interrogāris. (ll.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 $d\bar{a}! d\bar{a}|s$ and $d\bar{a}|ns$ (before ns, all vowels are lengthened).

Studia Romāna

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 (*dē Fīnibus* 1.5: in summō apud illōs honōre geōmētria fuit, itaque nihil mathēmaticīs illustrius; at nos metiendi ratiocinandique ūtilitate huius artis terminavimus modum).

Our monetary system is fiduciary (from *fidēs*, *fidēī*, "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
  2nd
                                            denarius (silver coin)
    dēnārius, -ī
    responsum, -ī
                                            answer
  3rd
    as, assis (m.)
                                            as (copper coin)
Verba
  -āre (1)
    cōgitō, cōgitāre
                                            think
                                            calculate, reckon
    computō, computāre
    dēmonstro, demonstrare
                                            point out, show
    interpello, interpellare
                                            interrupt
    laudō, laudāre
                                            praise
```

āma (2)	
-ēre (2) doceō, docēre	teach, instruct
oportet, oportēre	it is right, one should
-ere (3)	1
discō, discere	learn take out
prōmō, prōmere	******
repōnō, repōnere	put back
reprehendō, reprehendere	blame, censure
tollō, tollere	raise, lift, pick up, remove, take away
-īre (4)	
largior, largīrī	give generously
nesciō, nescīre	not know
partior, partīrī	share, divide
sciō, scīre	know
Adiectīva	
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)	
centēsimus, -a, -um	hundredth
certus, -a, -um	certain, sure
doctus, -a, -um	learned, skilled
incertus, -a, -um	uncertain
indoctus, -a, -um	ignorant
industrius, -a, -um	industrious
largus, -a, -um	generous
piger, pigra, pigrum	lazy
prāvus, -a, -um	faulty, wrong
rēctus, -a, -um	straight, correct
3rd	
absēns (gen. absentis)	absent
difficilis, -e (sup. difficillimus)	difficult, hard
facilis, -e (sup. facillimus)	easy
prūdēns, prūdentis	prudent, clever
Numerī	
trēdecim	thirteen
quattuordecim	fourteen
quīndecim	fifteen
sēdecim	sixteen
septendecim	seventeen
duodēvīgintī	eighteen
ūndēvīgintī	nineteen
quadrāgintā	forty
quīnquāgintā	fifty
septuāgintā	seventy
quadringentī, -ae, -a	four hundred
quīngentī, -ae, -a	five hundred
sescentī, -ae, -a	six hundred

septingentī, -ae, -aseven hundredoctingentī, -ae, -aeight hundrednōngentī, -ae, -anine hundred

Prōnōmina

quisque, quaeque, quodque each

Adverbia

aequē equally numquam never postrēmō finally prāvē wrongly quārē why rēctē correctly often saepe tot so many

ūsque up (to), all the time

Coniūnctiones

quamquam although

XVIII. Litterae Latīnae

Rēs Grammaticae Novae

- 1. Verbs: facere/fierī
- 2. Adjectives
 - a. Superlatives (continued)
 - b. frequēns
 - c. facilis
- 3. Pronouns
 - a. īdem, 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 ($\bar{I}nstit\bar{u}ti\bar{o}$ $\bar{O}r\bar{a}t\bar{o}ria$ 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.} Syllabīs nūllum compendium est: perdiscendae omnēs nec, ut fit plērumque, difficillima quaeque eārum differenda ut in nōminibus scrībendīs dēprehendantur.

Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

Īdem, eadem, idem

The demonstrative pronoun *īdem*, *eadem*, *idem* ("the same," cf. "<u>iden</u>tical") 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

	sing.			pl.		
	m.	f.	n.	m.	f.	n.
acc. gen. dat.	īdem eundem eiusdem eīdem eōdem	eandem eiusdem eīdem	idem eiusdem eīdem	iīdem eōsdem eōrundem iīsdem iīsdem	eāsdem eārundem iīsdem	eōrundem iīsdem

Examples:

Numerus syllabārum et vōcālium <u>īdem</u> est. (l.21) in <u>eādem</u> syllabā (l.26)

Vocābulum prīmum utrīusque sententiae <u>idem</u> est, sed <u>hoc idem</u> <u>vocābulum</u> duās rēs variās significat. (ll.32–33)

Item varia vocābula <u>eandem rem</u> vel <u>eundem hominem</u> significāre possunt. (ll.33–35)

Discipulī <u>eandem sententiam</u> non <u>eodem modo</u>, sed variīs 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	quīque	quaeque	quaeque
acc.	quemque	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

^{2.} The m changes to n by assimilation—see Cap. X—n being a dental consonant like d, cf. $septe\underline{n}decim$ and $septe\underline{n}tri\bar{o}n\bar{e}s$.

Examples:

<u>Quisque</u> discipulus in tabulā suā scrībit eās sententiās quās magister eī dictat. (ll.49–50)

<u>Quisque</u> puer stilum et rēgulam prōmit et dūcit līneam rēctam in tabulā suā. (ll.55–56)

Discipulus <u>quamque</u> litteram <u>cuiusque</u> vocābulī sīc legit. (ll.41–42) Ita <u>quodque</u> vocābulum <u>cuiusque</u> sententiae ā discipulō legitur. (ll.43–44)

Quaeque syllaba vōcālem habet. (1.20)

Facere/fierī

The verb *facere* has no passive form. Instead, *fierī* functions as the passive of *facere*:

```
Võcālis syllabam <u>facit</u>; sine võcālī syllaba <u>fierī</u> nõn potest. (l.25)
Cum syllabae iunguntur, vocābula <u>fīunt</u>. (l.29)
Cum vocābula coniunguntur, sententiae <u>fīunt</u>. (ll.29–30)
```

```
active facere: facit, faciunt passive fierī: fit, fīunt
```

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 (l.128):

```
Titus sīc incipit, "Magister! Mārcus bis..."—<u>cum</u> 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: *K littera*, *quae* <u>frequēns</u> est in linguā Graecā, littera Latīna rārissima est. (ll.14–15) id vocābulum est <u>frequentissimum</u>. (l.101) Y et z igitur litterae rārae sunt in linguā Latīnā, in linguā Graecā <u>frequentēs</u>. (ll.13–14)

Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

Points of Style: Idiom suum cuique

Suus, -a, -um cuique is an idiom:

Magister <u>suam cuique</u> The teacher gives each student back

discipulō tabulam reddit. his own tablet. (ll.67-68)

suum cuique 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| (l.102). Only a very few adjectives form their superlatives like *facilis*:

facilis, -e: facillimus, -a, -um
difficilis, -e: difficillimus, -a, -um
gracilis, -e: gracillimus, -a, -um
humilis, -e: humillimus, -a, -um
similis, -e: simillimus, -a, -um
dissimilis, -e: dissimillimus, -a, -um
dissimilar, different

Adverbs

Remember:

- Adjectives qualify nouns.
 - ▶ The adjective answers the question: *quālis*?
 - o In the sentence, *Puer stultus est, stultus* is an adjective qualifying the noun *puer* (*Quālis est puer?*).
- Adverbs (Latin *adverbium*, from *ad verbum*) qualify verbs, adjectives, and other adverbs.

^{3.} That is, the genitive singular minus the ending.

- ▶ The adverb answers the question: *quōmodo?*
 - o In the sentence, *Puer stulte agit*, the word *stulte* 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 fort<u>is</u> est quī fort<u>iter</u> 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:

Certē pulcherrimae suntSextus's letters are certainly verylitterae Sextī.beautiful. (1.73)Litterae vestrae aequē foedae
sunt.Your letters are equally ugly.(1.78)

Adjectives of the 1st/2nd declension form adverbs ending in $-\bar{e}$:

```
stult|us -a -um → stultē
rēct|us -a -um → rēctē
pulcher -chr|a -chr|um → pulchrē
```

3rd declension adjectives form adverbs in -iter, e.g.:4

```
fort|is -e \rightarrow fortiter

brev|is -e \rightarrow breviter

turp|is -e \rightarrow turpiter
```

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:

```
pulchr<u>ius</u> fort<u>ius</u> rēct<u>ius</u>
```

^{4.} If the base of an adjectives ends in *nt*, its adverb ends in *nter*, e.g., *frequents*, *frequenter*.

Comparative Degree:

"Tū, Tite, neque pulchr<u>ius</u> neque foed<u>ius</u> scrībis quam Mārcus.": "neither more beautifully nor more unattractively" (ll.79–80)
"At certē rēct<u>ius</u> scrībō quam Mārcus.": "more correctly" (l.81)

Superlative Degree

The **superlative of the adverb** ending in $-issim\underline{\bar{e}}$ ($-errim\underline{\bar{e}}$) is formed from the superlative of the adjective:

pulch<u>errimē</u> fort<u>issimē</u> rēct<u>issimē</u> Superlative Degree:

"Comparā tē cum Sextō, quī rēct<u>issimē</u> et pulch<u>errimē</u> scrībit.": "most correctly," "most beautifully" (ll.85–86)

When the superlative occurs without the idea of comparison, it can be translated "very":

Latīnē pulch<u>errimē</u> recitās! You read Latin aloud very beautifully!

Recēnsiō: Comparison of Adjectives and Adverbs

Adjectives

Positive Degree	Comparative Degree	Superlative Degree
rārus, rāra, rārum	rārior, rārius	rārissimus, -a, -um
mollis, molle	mollior, mollius	mollissimus, -a, -um
pulcher, pulchra,	pulchrior, pulchrius	pulcherrimus, -a, -um
pulchrum facilis, facile	facilior, facilius	facillimus, -a, -um
frequēns	frequentior, frequentius	frequentissimus, -a, -um

Adverbs

Positive Degree	Comparative Degree	Superlative Degree
rārō	rārius	rārissimē
molliter	mollius	mollissimē
pulchrē	pulchrius	pulcherrimē
facile*	facilius	facillimē
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:

```
qu\bar{i}nqu\underline{i}es = 5 \times sex\underline{i}es = 6 \times sept\underline{i}es = 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 *quot*<u>i</u><u>e</u>s and *tot*<u>i</u><u>e</u>s:

Mārcus deciēs H scribit: H H 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 Romāna

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 *papyrus*, 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: ἀναγνώστης). 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 Iūvenālis), 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

```
non est leve tot puerorum
observare manus oculosque in fine trementis.
'haec' inquit 'cūra; sed cum se verterit annus,
accipe, victorī populus 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
```

^{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."

māteria, -ae	material
sententia, -ae	opinion, sentence
2nd	-
adverbium, -ī	adverb
calamus, -ī	reed, reed pen
erus, -ī	master
ferrum, -ī	iron, sword
mendum, -ī	mistake
papyrus, -ī	papyrus (paper)
zephÿrus, -ī	west wind
3rd	
apis, apis (f.)	bee
cōnsonāns, cōnsonantis (f.)	consonant
mercēs, mercēdis (f.)	hire, pay, wages
vōcālis, vōcālis (f.)	vowel
Verba	
comparō, comparāre	liken, compare; prepare, get ready
dictō, dictāre	dictate
signō, signāre	mark, inscribe, indicate, notice, seal
significō, significāre	indicate, show, mean
-ēre (2)	
dēleō, dēlēre	blot out, efface, destroy
-ere (3)	
addō, addere	add, join
animadvertō, animadvertere	notice ⁷
coniungō, coniungere	connect, unite
corrigō, corrigere	correct
efficiō, efficere	bring about
imprimō, imprimere	seal, emboss
intellegō, intellegere	understand
iungō, iungere	join
legō, legere	pick, read
premō, premere	press
scrībō, scrībere	write
-īre (4)	1 1 1 6 11
exaudiō, exaudīre	hear plainly or favorably
Irregular	
dēsum, deesse	fall short, be lacking
supersum, superesse	be over and above, remain, survive
Adiectīva	
1st/2nd	
dūrus, -a, -um	hard
impiger, -gra, -grum	active, energetic

^{7.} From *animum adverte*: "turn your mind toward."

rārus, -a, -um rare

varius, -a, -um manifold, various

3rd

frequents (gen. frequentis) crowded, numerous, frequent

mollis, molle sof

quālis? quāle? (interrogative and relative) of

what sort?

tālis, tāleof such a sortturpis, turpeugly, foul

Prōnōmina

idem, eadem, idem the same (adj./pronoun)

quisque, quaeque, quodque each

Adverbia

sīc so, thus

itaso, in such a wayquotiësas many timestotiësso many times

semel once
bis twice
ter three times
quater four times
quīnquiēs five times
sexiēs six times
deciēs 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 $I\bar{u}ppiter\ Iov|is$; 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., $I\bar{u}ppiter^1$ with Zeus, his wife $I\bar{u}n\bar{o}$ with $H\bar{e}ra$, Venus with $Aphrod\bar{t}t\bar{e}$, the goddess of love; $Aphrod\bar{t}t\bar{e}$'s son $Er\bar{o}s$ became $Cup\bar{t}d\bar{o}$ ("desire").

Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

Irregular Adjectives

Iūppiter 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 (ll.13-16):
```

Nēmō deōrum <u>pēior</u> marītus est quam Iūppiter, neque ūlla dea <u>pēior</u> uxor est quam Venus.

Inter omnēs deōs deāsque Iūppiter <u>pessimus</u> marītus est ac Venus <u>pessima</u> uxor.

```
bonus (11.25-30):
```

Certē Iūlius marītus <u>melior</u> quam Iūppiter est!

Certē Aemilia uxor <u>melior</u> est quam Venus!

Aemila Iūlium "virum <u>optimum</u>" appellat.

Item Iūlius uxōrem suam "<u>optimam</u> omnium fēminārum" vocat.

```
magnus and parvus (ll.35–37):
```

Quīntus <u>māior</u> est quam Iūlia et <u>minor</u> quam Mārcus. <u>Māximus</u> līberōrum est Mārcus, <u>minima</u> est Iūlia.

```
multī (11.52, 54):
```

Rōmae <u>plūrēs</u> hominēs habitant quam in ūllā aliā urbe imperiī Rōmānī. Urbs Rōma <u>plūrimōs</u> hominēs et <u>plūrimās</u> domōs habet.

bonus, -a, -um	melior, melius	optimus, -a, -um
malus, -a, -um	pēior, pēius	pessimus, -a, -um
magnus, -a, -um	māior, māius	māximus, -a, -um
parvus, -a, -um	minor, minus	minimus, -a, -um
multī, -ae, -a	plūres, plūra	plūrimī, -ae, -a

^{1.} Also spelled Jupiter.

Superlative + Partitive Genitive; Superlative Absolute

The superlative is often linked with a partitive genitive:

```
optimam omn<u>ium</u> fēmin<u>ārum</u> (l.30)
pulcherrima omn<u>ium</u> de<u>ārum</u> (l.21)
```

Without such a genitive, the superlative often denotes a **very** high degree (**absolute superlative**):

```
"mea optima uxor" (l.90): "my excellent wife" vir pessimus (l.110)
"mī optime vir" (l.94)
Tunc miserrima eram (l.107)
virgō pauperrima (l.128)
```

Archaic Genitive

The ending $-\bar{a}s$ in $m\bar{a}ter\ famili\bar{a}s$ and $pater\ famili\bar{a}s$ (ll.17, 38) is an old genitive ending of the 1st declension (= -ae).

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 <u>trium</u> līberōrum: <u>duōrum</u> fīliōrum et <u>ūnīus</u> fīliae. (ll.31–32)

The complete paradigms for these three are:

	m.	f.	n.	m.	f.	n.	m./f.	n.
			ūn um		du ae	du o	tr ēs	tr ia
			ūn um		du ās		tr ēs	tr ia
gen.	ūn īus	ūn īus	ūn īus	du ōrum	du ārum	du ōrum	tr ium	tr ium
dat.	ūn ī	ūn ī	ūn ī	du ōbus	du ābus	du ōbus	tr ibus	tr ibus
abl.	ūn ō	ūn ā	ūn ō	du ōbus	du ābus	du ōbus	tr ibus	tr ibus

You have met the variation of declension shown in *ūnus* before, in *ille* (gen. *illīus*, dat. *illī*), *hic* (gen. *huius*, dat. *huic*, from *hui-ce*).

Nūllus/ūllus/tōtus/sōlus

 $\bar{U}nus$, -a, -um is one of a small group of pronouns and adjectives whose genitive singulars end in - $\bar{\iota}us$ and dative singulars in $\bar{\iota}$. You meet some more of these in this chapter:

nūllus, -a, -um	none, not any
ūllus, -a, -um	any (always with a negative)
tōtus, -a, -um	the whole of, all
sōlus, -a, -um	alone, only

All of these adjectives have a genitive -ius and dative -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. (l.14)
- Iūlius...uxōrem suam neque ūllam aliam fēminam amat. (ll.24-25)
- Aemilia...marītum suum neque ūllum alium virum amat. (ll.26–27)

So, we find *ūllus* 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 ann<u>ōrum</u>. (ll.33–34)
Adulēscēns vīgintī du<u>ōrum</u> ann<u>ōrum</u> 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 ama<u>t</u>. (loves, is loving, does love)
Tunc Iūlius Aemiliam amā<u>bat</u>. (loved, was loving, used to love)
```

The form $am\bar{a}|bat$ is the **past tense** or **preterite** (Latin *tempus praeteritum*) of the verb $am\bar{a}|re$, as distinct from ama|t, which is the **present tense** (Latin *tempus praesēns*). The preterite or past tense occurring in this chapter is called the **imperfect** (Latin *praeteritum <u>imperfectum</u>*, "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 habitā<u>bant</u>: used to live; were living Iūlius cotīdiē epistulās ad Aemiliam scrīb<u>ēbat</u>: used to write (l.76) Iūlius male dormi<u>ēbat</u>: was sleeping (l.69) Tunc ego tē amā<u>bam</u>, tū mē nōn amā<u>bās</u>. (l.98) Neque epistulās, quās cotīdiē tibi scrīb<u>ēbam</u>, leg<u>ēbās</u>. (ll.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, -mus (1st pers.), -s, -tis (2nd pers.), and -t, -nt (3rd pers.).

In Section II of your reading, you will find that the passive is formed the same way, with the passive endings: -r, -mur (1st pers.), -ris, -minī (2nd pers.), and -tur, -ntur (3rd pers.).

Notā Bene: The 1st person ends in -*m* and -*r* (not - \bar{o} and -*or*) and that \bar{a} is shortened before -*m*, -*r*, -*t*, -*nt*, and -*ntur* ($am\bar{a}|b\underline{a}|m$, $am\bar{a}|b\underline{a}|r$, etc.).

1st Conjugation ($\bar{a}re$): stem + $b\bar{a}$ + personal endings:

Iūlius ambulat → *Iūlius ambulābat*

Signa stant → Signa stābant

2nd Conjugation ($\bar{e}re$): stem + $b\bar{a}$ + personal endings:

Tēctum columnīs altīs sustinētur → tēctum columnīs altīs sustinēhātur.

Habēsne librum tuum? → *Habēbāsne librum tuum?*

3rd and 4th Conjugation ($ere/\bar{t}re$): stem + $\bar{e}b\bar{a}$ + personal endings:

Consonant-stem:

Iūlius flōrēs ad Aemiliam mittit → Iūlius flōrēs ad Aemiliam mittēbat.

Cotīdiē epistulās scrībimus → Cotīdiē epistulās scrībēbāmus.

Vowel-stem:

Aemilia florēs ā Iūlio accipit \rightarrow Aemilia florēs ā Iūlio accipiēbat. Nihil facio \rightarrow Nihil faciebam.

4th Conjugation:

Dormītisne? → *Dormiēbātisne?*

Saepe Rōmānī conveniunt → Saepe Rōmānī conveniēbant.

Imperfect: stem vowel (1st conj. $-\bar{a}$ otherwise $-\bar{e}$)

	active	passive
sing.	$1(\bar{a} \bar{e})ba m$	$1(\bar{a} \bar{e})ba r$
	$2(\bar{a} \bar{e})b\bar{a} s$	2. $-(\bar{a} \bar{e})b\bar{a} ris$
	$3(\bar{a} \bar{e})ba t$	3. $-(\bar{a} \bar{e})b\bar{a} tur$
pl.	1. $-(\bar{a} \bar{e})b\bar{a} mus$	$1(\bar{a} \bar{e})b\bar{a} mur$
	2. $-(\bar{a} \bar{e})b\bar{a} tis$	2. $-(\bar{a} \bar{e})b\bar{a} min\bar{\imath}$
	3. $-(\bar{a} \bar{e})ba nt$	3. $-(\bar{a} \bar{e})ba ntur$

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, er\bar{a}|mus
2nd er\bar{a}|s, er\bar{a}|tis
3rd era|t, era|nt
```

Compounds of esse, e.g., ab-esse, including posse, show the same forms:

```
ab-era|m, ab-er\bar{a}|s, etc. pot-era|m, pot-er\bar{a}|s, etc.
```

Domus

The noun *domus*, $-\bar{u}s$ is a 4th declension <u>feminine</u> noun, but it has some 2nd declension endings (underlined in the paradigm below):

nom.	domus	domūs
acc.	domum	dom <u>ōs</u>
gen.	domūs	dom <u>ōrum</u> (or dom <u>uum</u>)
dat.	domuī	domibus
abl.	dom <u>ō</u>	domibus

The form *domī*, "at home," in Cap. XV (*Is domī est apud mātrem suam*, l.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 -is 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:

```
dīves (dīvitior, dīvitissimus: rich)
pauper (pauperior, pauperrimus: poor)
```

Examples:

Iūlius dīves 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., *doming*. When Aemilia addresses her husband by name, she uses the vocative $I\bar{u}l\bar{l}_{1}$. " \bar{O} , $I\bar{u}l\bar{l}_{2}$!" and she adds, " $m\bar{l}$ optime vir!" (ll.93–94). The vocative of personal names in *-ius* ends in $-\bar{l}$ (a contraction of *-ie*):

 $I\bar{u}lius \rightarrow I\bar{u}l\bar{l}$ $Corn\bar{e}lius \rightarrow Corn\bar{e}l\bar{l}$ $L\bar{u}cius \rightarrow L\bar{u}c\bar{l}$

The vocative of *meus* is $m\underline{i}$ and of $f\overline{i}lius$ is $f\overline{i}l\underline{i}$:

Ō, mī fīlī! (Cap. XXI, l.30) mī optime vir (l.94)

Ablative of Respect

In Cap. XI, you encountered the **ablative of respect** (l.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 <u>amōre meō</u> dignus erās*: worthy of my love (ll.111–112)

Points of Style: Idioms

Compare:

I. Apposition

in urbe Rōmā: 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

<u>Ut</u> tunc tē amābam, <u>ita</u> <u>As</u> I loved you then, <u>so</u> even

etiam nunc tē amō. now I love you.

<u>Ita est ut dīcis.</u> 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 non opus est me plus dicere = non necesse est me plus dicere

Studia Romāna

Both Aemilia and Julius describe themselves as miser (Ergō lūlius miser erat et nocte male dormiebat ... 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 iūnctio2 dextrārum, joining of right hands). There were different ways to be married in Rome. To be married cum manū (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 fīliae). If a woman were married sine manū ("without the hand"), she remained under her father's jurisdiction even though married. Aemilia's marriage to Julius would most likely have been sine manū; 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 ēducātiō.3

The perisyle of the villa, adorned with statuary, demonstrates the wealth and culture of the *dominus*. $Cup\bar{\imath}d\bar{o}$ Amor is the Latin translation of the Greek personification of love $Er\bar{o}s$ ("Epwc); 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 hearth-fire, 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.

 $J\bar{u}n\bar{o}$ 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.

Jūppiter, as a sky god, regulated the weather; once he became associated

^{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.

with the Greek Zeus, he became the most powerful of all gods, hence *Jūppiter Optimus Māximus*: Juppiter the Best and Greatest. At Rome, Juppiter had a temple called the *Capitōlium* on a hill overlooking the Roman Forum (l.50); hence the hill is called the *Mōns Capitōlīnus*. *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
                                              goddess
    dea, -ae
    mātrōna, -ae
                                              married woman
  2nd
    donum, -ī
                                              gift
    forum, -ī
                                              forum
    marītus, -ī
                                              husband
    praeteritum, -ī (tempus)
                                              past (tense)
    signum, -ī
                                              statue, sign
    tēctum, -ī
                                              roof
    templum, -ī
                                              temple
  3rd
    adulēscēns, adulēscentis (m.)
                                              young person
    amor, amōris (m.)
                                              love
    coniūnx, coniugis (m./f.)
                                              spouse
    flös, flöris (m.)
                                              flower
    praesēns, entis (tempus)
                                              present tense
    pulchritūdō, pulchritūdinis (f.)
                                              beauty
    uxor, uxōris (f.)
                                              wife
    virgō, virginis (f.)
                                              unmarried girl
    domus, -\bar{\mathbf{u}}\mathbf{s} ( f.)
                                              house
Verba
  -āre (1)
    ösculor, ösculārī
                                              kiss
  -ēre (2)
    augeō, augēre
                                              increase
    possideō, possidēre
                                              possess
```

```
-ere (3)
                                             diminish
    minuō, minuere
    mittō, mittere
                                             send
                                             send again, send back
    remittō, remittere
  -īre (4)
    conveniō, convenīre
                                             come together, fit together; fit
  Irregular
    opus esse (+ inf. or abl.)
                                             to need
Adiectīva
  1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
                                             blessed, fortunate
    beātus, -a, -um
                                             worthy of
    dignus, -a, -um (+ abl.)
    magnificus, -a, -um
                                             magnificent
                                             wretched
    miser, misera, miserum
  3rd
    dīves (gen. dīvitis)
                                             rich
    gracilis, -e
                                             slender
    pauper (gen. pauperis)
                                             poor
  Irregular
    melior, melius
                                             better
    pēior, pēius
                                             worse
    māior, māius
                                             larger, greater
    minor, minus
                                             smaller
    plūres, plūra
                                             more
    optimus, -a, -um
                                             best
    pessimus, -a, -um
                                             worst
    māximus, -a, -um
                                             largest, greatest
                                             smallest
    minimus, -a, -um
                                             most, a great many
    plūrimī, -ae, -a
Prōnōmina
                                             any (usually only with negation)
    ūllus, -a, -um
                                             vocative of meus
    mī
Adverbia
    cotīdiē
                                             daily
    minus
                                             less
    pl\bar{u}s (adv. + n. noun)
                                             more
    tamen (adv. + conj.)
                                             nevertheless
Praepositiones
    erg\bar{a} (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} : $am\bar{a}|b|\bar{o}$, $hab\bar{e}|b|\bar{o}$
 - b. 3rd plural in u: $am\bar{a}|b\underline{u}|nt$, $am\bar{a}|b\underline{u}|ntur$
 - c. 2nd singular **passive** in *e*: *amā*|*be*|*ris*
 - d. Otherwise in i: $am\bar{a}|b\underline{i}|s$, $am\bar{a}|b\underline{i}|t$, $am\bar{a}|b\underline{i}|mus$

Notā Bene: Remember the sequence $-b\bar{o}$, -bi, -bu (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 -ē-

 $d\bar{\imath}c|\bar{e}|s$, $capi|\bar{e}|s$, $audi|\bar{e}|s$ $d\bar{\imath}c|\bar{e}|ris$, $capi|\bar{e}|ris$, $audi|\bar{e}|ris$

c. But -ē- is **shortened** to -e- before -t, -nt, -ntur:

 $dic|\underline{e}|t$ $dic|\underline{e}|nt$ $dic|\underline{e}|ntur$

future

1st and 2r	nd conjuga	tion			
active	passive	active	passive	active	passive
$1b \bar{o}$	-b or	1. cūrābō	cūrābor	1. dēbēbō	dēbēbor
2b is	-b eris	2. cūrābis	cūrāberis	2. dēbēbis	dēbēberis
3 <i>b</i> <i>it</i>	-b itur	3. cūrābit	cūrābitur	3. dēbēbit	dēbēbitur
1b imus	-b imur	1. cūrābimus	cūrābimur	1. dēbēbimus	dēbēbimur
2b itis	-b iminī	2. cūrābitis	cūrābiminī	2. dēbēbitis	dēbēbiminī
3b <i>unt</i>	-b untur	3. cūrābunt	cūrābuntur	3. dēbēbunt	dēbēbuntur
3rd and 4	th conjuga	tion			
active	passive	active	passive	active	passive
1a m	-a r	1. alam	alar	1. exaudiam	exaudiar
$2\bar{e} s$	$-\bar{e} ris$	2. alēs	alēris	2. exaudiēs	exaudiēris
3e t	-ē tur	3. alet	alētur	3. exaudiet	exaudiētur
1ē mus	-ē mur	1. alēmus	alēmur	1. exaudiēmus	exaudiēmur
2ē tis	-ē minī	2. alētis	alēminī	2. exaudiētis	exaudiēminī
3e nt	-e ntur	3. alent	alentur	3. exaudient	exaudiēntur

Esse: future

sing. pl.

- 1. erō erimus
- 2. eris eritis
- 3. erit erunt

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Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

Minus/magis

Note irregular adverbs *minus* (less) and *magis* (more), often paired with *quam* (than):

Num parvulam fīliam <u>minus</u> amābis <u>quam</u> fīlium? (ll.57–58) Nēminem <u>magis</u> amābō <u>quam</u> parvulam fīliam. (l.59) Iam fīliōs tuōs <u>magis</u> amās <u>quam</u> tuam Iūliam fīliolam. (l.61–62)

Velle/nōlle

You already know the 3rd person present of the irregular verb *velle*: *vult*, *volunt*. The 1st and 2nd persons are: *volō*, *volumus* and *vīs*, *vultis*, respectively. The negation $n\bar{o}n$ is not placed before the forms $vol\bar{o}$, *volumus*, *volunt*, and *velle*; instead, we find the forms $n\bar{o}l\bar{o}$, $n\bar{o}lumus$, $n\bar{o}lunt$, and $n\bar{o}lle$, which are contracted from $n\bar{e} + vol\bar{o}$, etc.:

Ego alteram fīliam habēre <u>volō</u>, plūrēs quam duōs fīliōs <u>nolō</u>!: want...do not want (ll.54–55)

Cūr tū fīlium habēre vīs, Iūlī? (1.56)

Vōs virī fīliōs modo habēre vultis. (ll.63-64)

Nōs virī etiam fīliās habēre volumus. (ll.72–73)

Iūlia dīcit "sē patre suō carēre nōlle." (ll.140-141)

present of velle		nōlle		
sing.	pl.	sing.	pl.	
1. volō	volumus	nōlō	nōlumus	
2. <i>vīs</i>	vultis	nōn vīs	nōn vultis	
3. vult	volunt	nōn vult	nōlunt	

The **imperative** $n\bar{o}l\bar{i}$, $n\bar{o}l\bar{i}te$ 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. (11.160–161)
```

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* ($dom\underline{um}$ and $dom\underline{\bar{o}}$) are used without a preposition to express motion to or from one's home, e.g.:

```
dom\underline{um} revertentur (ll.123–124)

dom\underline{\bar{o}} abīre (l.137)
```

The form *dom<u>ī</u>* is locative ("at home") e.g.:

```
dom<u>ī</u> manēre (l.127)
```

Notā Bene:

```
domumacc.: "to home"domōabl.: "from home"domīloc.: "at home"
```

Ablative of Separation

The ablative expressing "place from which" in $dom\underline{o}$ and $T\bar{u}scul\underline{o}$ is the **ablative of separation**; the verb $car\bar{e}re$ ("be without," "lack") is completed by an ablative of separation (and not an accusative), e.g.:

```
Īnfāns neque <u>somnō</u> neque <u>cibō carēre</u> potest.: somn<u>ō</u>...cib<u>ō</u> carēre = sine + abl.: sine somn<u>ō</u> et cib<u>ō</u> esse (ll.5–6)
Iūlia dīcit "sē <u>patre suō carēre</u> nōlle." (l.141)
```

Personal Pronouns nos/vos (continued)

The personal pronouns $n\bar{o}s$ and $v\bar{o}s$ become $n\bar{o}b\bar{i}s$ and $v\bar{o}b\bar{i}s$ in the ablative and dative:

```
Necesse est mihi crās rūrsus ā vōbīs discēdere. (ll.129–130)
Nōlī ā nōbīs discēdere! (l.136)
```

You will see the dative (also $n\bar{o}b\bar{i}s$ and $v\bar{o}b\bar{i}s$) in the reading in the next chapter:

```
Prīmum magister nōbīs aliquid recitāvit. (Cap. XXI, l.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.	ego	nōs	tū	vōs
acc.	ego mē	nōs	$tar{e}$	vōs
dat.	mihi	nōbīs	tibi	vōbīs
abl.	тē	nōbīs	tē	vōbīs

Recēnsiō

1. Expressions of comparison

...nōn minus...quam no less than

nec plūs nec minus quam no more or less than is necessary

opus est

magis quam more than

2. $n\bar{o}n$ tantum...sed etiam = $n\bar{o}n$ s $\bar{o}lum$...sed etiam

3. "Emotion" adverbs: minimē, profectō

4. Expressions of time:

Eō ipsō tempore at that very time Eō tempore at that time

Tempore praeterit \bar{o} in the past; at a past timeTempore fut $\bar{u}r\bar{o}$ in the future; at a future time

Tōtam noctemfor the whole nightTertiō quōque diē¹every third day

CotīdiēdailyHerīyesterdayHodiētodayCrāstomorrow

Decem annīs post 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 Romana

While Aemilia insists she will nurse her own baby, many babies born to wealthier women were nursed by $n\bar{u}tr\bar{\iota}c\bar{e}s$, 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,

^{1.} $Qu\bar{o}que$ (from quisque), not $qu\check{o}que$ (conjunction: also, too).

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: $I\bar{u}n\bar{o}$ and $Di\bar{a}na$. Also venerated were the ancient Italic deities of childbirth, $L\bar{u}c\bar{i}na$ and the *Carmentēs*. (Lucina is often melded with Juno: $I\bar{u}n\bar{o}$ $L\bar{u}c\bar{i}na$.²) After eight days (for a girl) or nine (for a boy) the family celebrates a $I\bar{u}strati\bar{o}$, 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 Līvius* (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 adulthood such 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 ornamenta esse matronis 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." 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 fīliōs nōn tam in gremiō ēducātōs quam in sermōne mātris, Brutus, 211). Cornelia was so revered as an image of ideal motherhood that a statue of her was set up in the Forum.

^{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 ē scholā redīrent līberī, et "haec," inquit, "ōrnāmenta sunt mea."

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Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
  1st
    cūnae, -ārum
                                             crib
    fīliola, -ae
                                             diminuitive of fīlia
  2nd
    colloquium, -ī
                                             conversation
    domō (abl.)
                                             from home
    fīliolus, -ī
                                             diminuitive of filius
    officium, -ī
                                             duty
    silentium, -ī
                                             silence
    somnus, -ī
                                             sleep
  3rd
    īnfāns, īnfantis (m./f.)
                                             baby
                                             milk
    lac, lactis (n.)
    mulier, mulieris (f.)
                                             woman, wife
    nūtrīx, nūtrīcis (f.)
                                             (wet) nurse
    sermō, sermōnis (m.)
                                             conversation
    gradus, -ūs (m.)
                                             step
Verba
  -āre (1)
    cūrō, cūrāre
                                             care for
    for, fārī
                                             speak
    postulō, postulāre
                                             demand
  -ēre (2)
    careō, carēre (+abl.)
                                             lack
    dēbeō, dēbēre
                                             owe, ought
                                             be fitting, proper
    decet, decēre (impersonal)
    maneō, manēre
                                             remain
    sileō, silēre
                                             be silent
  -ere (3)
    advehō, advehere
                                             carry to
    alō, alere
                                             nourish, raise
    colloquor, colloqui
                                             converse
    dīligō, dīligere
                                             love, cherish
    occurrō, occurrere
                                             run up
    pergō, pergere
                                             continue
                                             turn back
    revertor, revertī
  -īre (4)
    vāgiō, vāgīre
                                             wail (of babies)
  Irregular
    nōlō, nōlle
                                             be unwilling, not want
    volō, velle
                                             wish, want
```

Adiectīva

1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)

aliēnus, -a, -um belonging to another

futures, -a, -umfuturenecessārius, -a, -umnecessaryparvulus, -a, -umsmallpraeteritus, -a, -umpast

ūmidus, -a, -um humid, wet

Adverbia

crās tomorrow magis more

minimē not at all; very little

mox soon, next surely; for a fact

rārō rarely

Praepositiones

ad...versus (prp. + acc.)towardadversus (prp. + acc.)toward $\bar{\mathbf{u}}n\bar{\mathbf{a}}$ cum (prp. + acc.)together with

Coniūnctiones

sīve...sīve whether...or

XXI. Pugna Discipulorum

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 ambulā<u>vit</u>.

Marcus walked/has walked through the rain. (ll.7–8)

This tense is called the **perfect**, in Latin *tempus praeteritum <u>perfectum</u>*, "past completed," as distinct from the **imperfect** tense or *praeteritum <u>imperfectum</u>*, "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:

Iūlia cantābat. TumJulia was singing. Then Marcus hitMārcus eam pulsāvit!her!

The perfect can also denote the present result of a past action ("the present perfect"), e.g.:

Iam Iūlia plōrat, quiaJulia is crying, because MarcusMārcus eam pulsāvit.has hit her.

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:

Puerī per imbrem ambulāv<u>ērunt</u>. (ll.7–8) Mārcus et Titus Sextum pulsāv<u>ērunt</u>. (ll.13–14) Sordidus est quod humī iacu<u>it</u>. (ll.19–20) Et Mārcus et Sextus humī iacu<u>ērun</u>t. (ll.21–22) Titus vērō Mārcum vocāre audīv<u>it</u>. (ll.22–23) nec vērō parentēs eum audīv<u>ērunt</u>. (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 ā 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.:

Mārc<u>us</u> ā Sextō pulsāt<u>us</u> est. (l.11) Sext<u>us</u>...pulsāt<u>us</u> est. (ll.14–15)

```
Iūli<u>a</u> ā Mārcō pulsāt<u>a</u> est.
Puer<u>ī</u> laudāt<u>ī</u> sunt.
Litter<u>ae</u> ā Sextō scrīpt<u>ae</u> 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	pulsā-	pulsāv-
2nd	iacē-	iacu-
4th	audī-	audīv-
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-: pulsā<u>v</u>-
audī-: audī<u>v</u>-
```

- 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): $iac\bar{e}$ -: iacu-
- 3rd conjugation verbs (with present stems ending in a consonant) show a variety of perfect stem changes, e.g.:
 - by adding s to the present stem, which can change the way the stem looks:

```
In scrib:: scrips- voiced b changes to voiceless p In dic:: dix- only the spelling changes (x = cs)
```

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 $dom\bar{\imath}$, "at home," in Cap. XV (l.81) and in the last chapter. In this chapter, we meet the locative $hum\bar{\imath}$, "on the ground." In Cap. XXVII, you will meet $r\bar{u}r\bar{\imath}$, "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 <u>domī</u> est apud mātrem suam. (Cap. XV, l.81) Sordidus est quod <u>humī</u> iacuit. (ll.19–20) <u>In urbe</u> lūlius semper in negōtiō est, sed <u>rūrī</u> in ōtiō cōgitat dē negōtiīs 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 pulsāv<u>ī</u>! (1.40) Tūne sōlus Sextum pulsāv<u>istī</u>? (1.41) Ego et Titus eum pulsāv<u>imus</u>. (1.42) Vōs duo ūnum pulsāv<u>istis</u>? (1.43)

Summary of Endings for the Perfect Active:

	sing.	pl.
1.	-ī	-imus
2.	-istī	-istis
3.	-it	-ērunt

Neuters of the 4th Declension

The two nouns $corn\underline{\bar{u}}$, $-\bar{u}s$ and $gen\underline{\bar{u}}$, $-\bar{u}s$ are among the rare **4th declension neuters**:

	sing.	pl.	sing.	pl.
nom.	cornū	cornua	genū	genua
acc.	cornū	cornua	genū	genua
gen.	cornūs	cornuum	genūs	genuum
dat.	cornū	cornibus	genū	genibus
abl.	cornū	cornibus	genū	genibus

 $^{1. \}quad \text{In Cap. XXV, you will learn that this rule applies not only to cities and towns, but to small islands as well.} \\$

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.

<u>Aliquis</u> pedibus sordidīs in solō mundō ambulāvit. (ll.65–66) Prīmum magister nōbīs <u>aliquid</u> recitāvit. (ll.91–92)

Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

Esse (continued)

The verb *esse* has a separate perfect stem *fu-*:

```
fu|\bar{\imath} fu|imus
```

Notā 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 <u>fuistī</u>? (ll.82–83) Profectō bonus puer <u>fuī</u>. (l.84) Mārcus dīcit, sē bonum puerum <u>fuisse</u>. (l.85) Malī discipulī <u>fuistis</u>! (ll.104–105) Certē malī discipulī <u>fuimus</u>. (l.106)

Perfect Infinitive Active

In Cap. XI, you learned the accusative and infinitive construction using the present infinitive, e.g.:

Medicus "puerum dormīre" dīcit = "Puer," medicus inquit, "dormit."

 $Dorm\bar{\imath}|re$ is called the **present infinitive** (Latin $\bar{\imath}nf\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}vus$ praesentis) and corresponds to the present tense dormi|t. Compare lines 96–97 in this chapter:

```
Iūlius: "Mārcus dormīvit!"
Iūlius "Mārcum dormīv<u>isse</u>" dīcit.
```

 $Dorm\bar{\imath}v|it$ is the perfect tense and the corresponding infinitive $dorm\bar{\imath}v|isse$ is called the **perfect infinitive** (Latin $\bar{\imath}nf\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}vus$ $perfect\bar{\imath}$); it represents completed action and is formed by the addition of -isse to the perfect stem, e.g.:

- intrāv|isse: Iūlius "Mārcum intrāv<u>isse</u>" dīcit. (1.73)
- iacu|isse: Non dīcit, "eum humī iacu<u>isse</u>." (ll.73-74)
- fu|isse: Mārcus dīcit, "sē bonum puerum fu<u>isse</u>." (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.

pulsāre	pulsāvisse
iacēre	iacuisse
scrībere	scrīpsisse
audīre	audīvisse
esse	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 ā magistrō laudā<u>tum esse</u>" dīcit.
Aemilia litter<u>ās</u> ā Mārcō scrīpt<u>ās esse</u> crēdit. (ll.121–122)
Intellegēbam <u>tē</u> nōn cornibus, sed pugnīs pulsāt<u>um</u> esse. (ll.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.:

 $mult\underline{a}$ a great deal, many things (l.90) $omn\underline{ia}$ everything, all things (l.95) $h\underline{aec}$ these things (l.123) $et c\overline{e}tera$ 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:

<u>Mihi</u> crēde! (l.119) Mārc<u>ō</u> nōn crēdit. (l.140) Cūr nōn crēdis fīli<u>ō</u> tu<u>ō</u>? (l.146)

Summary of Perfect

Perfect Active

pei	rsonal endir	ngs	1st	: pulsā-	pulsāv-
	sing.	pl.		sing.	pl.
1.	$-\bar{\imath}$	-imus	1.	pulsāv -ī	pulsāv -imus
2.	-istī	-istis	2.	pulsāv -istī	pulsāv -istis
3.	-it	-ērunt	3.	pulsāv -it	pulsāv -ērunt
2no	d: habē-	habu-	3rc	l: scrīb-	scrīps
	sing.	pl.		sing.	pl.
1.	habu -ī	habu -imus	1.	scrīps -ī	scrīps -imus
2.	habu -istī	habu -istis	2.	scrīps -istī	scrīps -istis
3.	habu -it	habu -ērunt	3.	scrīps -it	scrīps -ērunt
4th	4th: audī- audīv-		Ess	se: fu-	
	sing.	pl.		sing.	pl.
1.	audīv -ī	audīv -imus	1.	fu -ī	fu -imus
2.	audīv -istī	audīv -istis	2.	fu -istī	fu -istis
3.	audīv -it	audīv -ērunt	3.	fu -it	fu -ērunt

Perfect Passive

personal endings			
sing.	pl.		
1. $-t us$, $-a sum$	-t i, -ae sumus		
2t us, -a es	-t i, -ae estis		
3. $-t us$, $-a$, $-um$ est	-t i, -ae, -a sunt		
1st:		2nd:	
1. pulsāt us, -a	sum	1. habit us, -a	sum
2. pulsāt us, -a	es	2. habit us, -a	es
3. pulsāt us, -a, -um	est	3. habit us, -a, -um	est
1. pulsāt ī, -ae	sumus	1. habit ī, -ae	sumus
2. pulsāt ī, -ae	estis	2. habit ī, -ae	estis
3. pulsāt ī, -ae, -a	sunt	3. $habit \bar{i}$, -ae, -a	sunt
3rd: scrīb-	scrīpt	4th: audī-	audī-
1. scrīpt us, -a	sum	1. audīt us, -a	sum
2. scrīpt us, -a	es	2. audīt us, -a	es
3. scrīpt us, -a, -um	est	3. audīt us, -a, -um	est
1. $script \bar{\imath}, -ae $	sumus	1. audīt ī, -ae	sumus
2. $script \bar{i}, -ae $	estis	2. audīt ī, -ae	estis

Varieties of the Perfect Stem

3. $script||\bar{i}, -ae, -a|$

- 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-= dux-)
- root perfect (see also Cap. XXIII):
 - ▶ the vowel of the root is lengthened; sometimes the vowel changes $(fac \rightarrow f\bar{e}c)$

3. $aud\bar{\imath}t|\bar{\imath}$, -ae, -a

sunt

- ▶ the root is "reduplicated" by repeating the initial consonant of the verb, followed by a vowel (see also Cap. XXIII)
 - o usually e: fallere → fefellisse

sunt

- o sometimes the root vowel: e.g., mordere, momordisse (Cap. XXII)
- Sometimes, perfect and present stem appear identical: ostendere → ostendisse
- Some verbs have a perfect stem that cannot be easily understood just by the rules above:
 - ▶ verbs formed from a lost or imaginary stem ($petere \rightarrow pet\bar{t}v\bar{t}$, as if from $pet\bar{t}re$)
 - > verbs that have features peculiar to the present stem

- o e.g., *scindere* → *scidisse* has a "nasal infix"² only in the present system
- o inchoative verbs³ with -scō lose the -scō in the perfect system (cognōscere → cognōvisse)
- Note on *emere* and compounds (Cap. XVIII):
 - ▶ 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)
 - *⊳ sūmere* is a compound of *emere*

Studia Romana

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 paedagōgī as chaperones, part of whose job was to ensure safe (and streetbrawling-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 ātria (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." Horace (Satires 2.3.247-48) talks about building houses (aedificāre casās: "sand-castles"?), hitching mice to small carts (plostello adiungere mūrīs), riding a stick-horse (equitare 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 tālī 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 *lātrunculorum* (*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 scriptōrum, a kind of backgammon) played with calculi, or small stones, as game pieces.

Although the Latin word is unattested, Roman children surely played hide-and-go-seek (Greek children called it ἀποδιδρασκίνδα). Ball games ($p\bar{\imath}lae$) were popular with adults as well as children. The game $trig\bar{o}n$ (τρίγων, triangle, also called $p\bar{\imath}la$ $trig\bar{o}n\bar{a}lis$: a kind of handball played by three people

^{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 gyro vacua ātria circum/intentī lūdō exercent.

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*, σφαῖρα). 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 fides, (Cap. XXXI). In a useful, if false, etymology, Cicero identifies fides with fierī (Cap. XVI): "Fides" enim nomen 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 de Officies, 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

```
1stcausa, -aecause, reasonpugna, -aefighttabella, -aewriting tablet2ndgroundhumus, -ī (f.)groundhumī (loc.)on the groundimperfectum, -īimperfect (tense)
```

^{5.} Interdum nūgāris rūre paternō:/partītur lintrēs exercitus, Actia pugna/tē duce per puerōs hostīlī mōre refertur;/adversārius est frāter, lacus Hadria, dōnec/alterutrum vēlōx Victōria fronde corōnet.

```
perfectum, -ī (tempus)
                                             perfect (tense)
    porcus, -ī
    solum, -ī
                                             soil, ground, floor
  3rd
    bos, bovis (m./f.)
                                             ox
                                             gore, blood
    cruor, cruoris (m.)
    sordēs, sordis (f.)
                                             dirt
       often pl. sordes, -ium
    vestis, vestis (f.)
                                             clothes, cloth
  4th
    cornū, cornūs (n.)
                                             horn
                                             knee
    genū, genūs (n.)
Verba
  -āre (1)
    (dubitō) dubitāre, dubitāvisse,
                                             doubt
       dubitātum
    (excūsō) excūsāre, excūsāvisse,
                                             excuse
       excūsātum
    (mūtō) mūtāre, mūtāvisse, mūtātum
                                             change, exchange
    (nārrō) nārrāre, nārrāvisse,
                                             relate, tell
       nārrātum
  -ere (3)
    (cognōscō) cognōscere, -nōvisse,
                                             get to know, recognize
       -nitum
    (conspicio) conspicere, conspexisse,
                                             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
                                             be
    (āiō) ais, ait, āiunt
                                             say
Adiectīva
  1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
    angustus, -a, -um
                                             narrow
    candidus, -a, -um
                                             white, bright
    falsus, -a, -um
                                             false
    indignus, -a, -um (+ abl. of respect)
                                             unworthy, shameful
    mundus, -a, -um
                                             clean, neat
    validus, -a, -um
                                             strong
```

Prōnōmina

aliquis, aliquid someone, something

Adverbia

interim meanwhile

Coniūnctiones

postquam after, since

Alia

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 *Cavē 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-: salūtā<u>t</u>-
audī-: audī<u>t</u>-
dīc-: dict-
```

• When phonetics dictate, we find *s* instead of *t*:

ightharpoonup dt/tt
ightharpoonup s (usually ss after a short vowel and s after a long vowel) claudere ightharpoonup claudere
ightharpoonup clausum

• 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.: $scr\bar{t}b$: $scr\bar{t}p\underline{t}$ - (*p* is voiceless like *t*)

```
claud-: clau\underline{s}- (dt > tt > ss > s)
```

Supine

The supine (Latin *supīnum*) is a verbal noun used only in the accusative (in *-um*) and the ablative (in $-\bar{u}$).

Accusative (-um)

In this chapter the letter carrier (*tabellārius*) tries to assure the *ōstiārius* with the words:

```
Ego non venio villam oppugnā<u>tum</u> sīcut hostis, nec pecūniam postulā<u>tum</u> venio (ll.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:

salūtā <u>tum</u> venīre	to come to greet (in order to greet,
	with the purpose of greeting) (l.49)
dormī <u>tum</u> īre	to go to sleep (in order to sleep, with
	the purpose of sleeping) (l.50)
ambulā <u>tum</u> exīre	to go out to walk (in order to walk,
	with the purpose of walking) (l.51)
lavā <u>tum</u> īre	to go to wash (in order to wash, with
	the purpose of washing) (l.52)

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 $dict\bar{u}$ and $aud\bar{t}t\bar{u}$ are examples of the **ablative supine**:

Nōmen meum nōn est facile dic \underline{tu} . (1.43) = Nōn est facile meum nōmen dīcere.

Võx tua difficilis est audī<u>tū</u>. (1.46) = Difficile est võcem tuam audīre. Id facilius est dictū quam factū. <math>(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 1st/2nd declension adjective (like *bonus*, *bona*, *bonum*). It will agree with the word it modifies in gender, number, and case.

Discipul<u>ī</u>, ā magistrō monit<u>ī</u>, silent.

The students, warned by the teacher, 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.

Discipul<u>ī</u> ā magistrō monit<u>ī</u> 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 <u>sē</u> monit<u>ōs</u> esse.

The boys knew they had been 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.:
 <u>e</u>mere, <u>ē</u>misse, <u>ē</u>mptum
 venīre, vēnisse
- loss of *n* and *m*, e.g.: sci<u>n</u>dere, scidisse, scissum ru<u>m</u>pere, 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: $[\sim]$ 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, ēmisse, ēmptum (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 $s\bar{\imath}$, nisi (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 (l.7) "if anyone"

Num quis hīc est? (ll.27–28) i.e., not "who," but whether "anyone" is there.

Num quid tēcum fers? (ll.104–105) i.e., not "what," but "anything" or "something."

If you find mnemonics useful, a good one for this rule is: "after $s\bar{t}$, nisi, num, and $n\bar{e}$, all the alis go away." Compare these examples:

Aliquis intrāre vult. Someone wants to enter.

Sī quis intrāre vult.If someone wants to enter.Num quis intrāre vult?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, -ud (declined like *ille*, -a, -ud) refers to something connected with the person addressed (2nd person): Tlepolemus says *iste* canis about the doorkeeper's dog (l.86, "that dog of yours") and talking about Tlepolemus's cloak, the doorkeeper says *istud* pallium (l.103).

iste	ista	istud	istī	istae	ista
istum	istam	istud	istōs	istās	ista
istīus	istīus	istīus	istōrum	istārum	istōrum
istī	istī	istī	istīs	istīs	istīs
istō	istā	istō	istīs	istīs	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 \underline{me} , $ipse \rightarrow there$ by \underline{you} and $ille \rightarrow there$ by \underline{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. (l.23)
Cane vīnctō, tabellārius intrat. (l.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 vīnctō is the ablative absolute with the perfect participle, which expresses what has been done (= postquam canis vīnctus 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:

Iānitōr <u>e</u> dormi <u>ente</u> , canis vigilāns iānuam cūstōdit.	While the doorkeeper sleeps/is sleeping, the watchful dog guards the door.
Iānitōr <u>e</u> dormi <u>ente</u> , canis vigilāns iānuam cūstōdiebat.	While the doorkeeper slept/was sleeping, the watchful dog was guarding the door.
Can <u>e</u> vīnc <u>tō</u> , tabellārius intrat. Can <u>e</u> vīnc <u>tō</u> , tabellārius	When the dog is tied up, the letter carrier enters. When the dog had been tied up,
intrāvit.	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 (ll.56–57)

"Manē forīs!" inquit iānitor. (1.68)

• forās: place to which (cf. hūc, illūc)

Prius vincī canem et sine mē intrāre! Nōlī iterum mē <u>forās</u> in imbrem pellere! (l.115)

"Non ego," inquit, "sed hic canis tē <u>forās</u> pepulit." (ll.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	ferēbās	ferēs
fert	ferēbat	feret
ferimus	ferēbāmus	ferēmus
fertis	ferēbātis	ferētis
ferunt	ferēbant	ferent

Studia Romana

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 fidēlior comes*, *quis custos incorruptior*, *quis excubitor inuenīrī potest uigilantior*, *quis denique ultor aut uindex constantior*? $d\bar{e} R\bar{e} Rustic\bar{a}$, 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), eīque 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 letter-carrier; 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 letters—generally on foot. Cicero had slaves who seemed reserved expressly for sending letters (*domesticii tabellāriī*, *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
                                             chain
    catēna, -ae
  2nd
                                             gold
    aurum, -ī
    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 -ēre (2) beware (caveō) cavēre, cāvisse, cautum (dērīdeō) dērīdēre, dērīsisse, laugh at dērīsum (moneō) monēre, monuisse, advise, warn monitum (mordeō) mordēre, momordisse, bite morsum (removeō) removēre, removisse, remove remōtum hold on to (retineō) retinēre, retinuisse, 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 (procedo) procedere, processisse, 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 allow (solvō) solvere, solvisse, solūtum loose (also pay) (tremō) tremere, tremuisse tremble -īre (4) (cūstōdiō) cūstōdīre, cūstōdīvisse, guard cūstōdītum (saliō) salīre, saluisse leap (vinciō) vincīre, vīnxisse, vīnctum bind

Irregular	
(ferō) ferre, tulisse, lātum	carry, bear
Adiectīva	
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)	
aureus, -a , -um	golden
ferreus, -a, -um	iron
ligneus, -a, -um	wooden
3rd	
ferōx (ferōcis)	fierce, ferocious
Prōnōmina	
iste, ista, istud	that one (of yours)
quis, quid	shortened from aliquis, aliquid
Adverbia	
anteā	before
forās	outside (toward)
forīs	outside (place where)
nūper	recently
posteā	after
prius	before
quīn	why not? in fact
scīlicet	naturally, of course
sīcut	just as
tandem	finally
Praepositiones	
extrā (prp. + acc.)	outside
intrā (prp. + acc.)	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 <u>tremēns</u> patrem <u>legentem</u> spectat. (ll.34–36)
- Perfect participle: vidēsne nōmen "Sextī" litterīs plānīs in parte superiōre <u>īnscrīptum</u>? (ll.63-64)
- Present infinitive active: *Nōlō hās litterās <u>legere</u>*. (l.15)

- Present infinitive passive: *Tūne putās tē hīs litterīs <u>laudārī</u>, Mārce?* (ll.49–50)
- Perfect infinitive active: *Magister plānīs verbīs scrībit*, "tē discipulum improbissimum <u>fuisse</u> ac foedē et prāvē <u>scrīpsisse!</u>" (ll.60–61)
- Perfect infinitive passive: *Tantum sciō epistulam Tūsculō <u>missam</u> et ā tabellāriō ad tē lātam esse*. (ll.8–9)

Ferre

The principal parts of the irregular verb *ferre <u>tul</u>isse <u>lāt</u>um* come from different stems and must be memorized. Examples:

Ecce epistula quam illinc ad tē <u>tulit</u>. (ll.3–4) Tantum sciō epistulam Tūsculō missam et ā tabellāriō ad tē <u>lātam esse</u>. (ll.8–9)

Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

Pudēre (Impersonal)

When Marcus has been caught cheating, his father says, "Nonne <u>tē pudet</u> 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.: <u>mē</u> pudet "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 verbs¹ that take:

- The accusative of person concerned and either of the following:
 - ▶ genitive of person/thing affected
 - ▶ infinitive that completes the thought

examples:

Pudet mē pigritiae meae. I'm embarrassed about my laziness. Pudet mē hoc dīcere. I'm ashamed to say this.

^{1.} The other verbs are *piget* (it causes revulsion or displeasure), *paenitet* (it causes regret), *miseret* (it causes pity) and *taedet* (it causes boredom).

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." (l.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 periphrasis²) 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 futūrī) 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 ≈ūr|us, -a, -um 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

will fight

pāritūrus est he about to obey, intending to obey, he will

obev

dormītūra est she is about to sleep, intending to sleep, she

will sleep

scrīptūrī sumus we are about to write, intending to write,

we will write

The future participle of *esse* is $fut\bar{u}r|us$, a form you know already from the expression $tempus\ fut\bar{u}rum$. All of these forms can be seen in context in Marcus's plea to his parents (ll.84–87):

Certē malus puer fuī, sed posthāc bonus puer <u>futūrus sum</u>: semper vōbīs <u>pāritūrus sum</u>, numquam <u>pugnātūrus sum</u> in viā nec umquam in lūdō dormītūrus sum.

^{2.} A grammatical periphrasis uses two words to express a relationship instead of a simple inflected form

Future Active Infinitive

The **future** active **infinitive** ($\bar{i}nf\bar{i}n\bar{i}t\bar{i}vus$ $fut\bar{u}r\bar{i}$) is composed of the future active participle and *esse*. In the following sentence, $scr\bar{i}pt\bar{u}rum$ *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." (l.125)
Iūlius dīcit, "sē epistulam scrīp<u>tūrum esse.</u>" (ll.125–126)
```

Other examples are:

futūrum esse paritūrum 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 f<u>utūrum esse</u>, semper sē parentibus <u>pāritūrum esse</u> nec umquam in viā <u>pugnātūrum</u> nec in lūdō <u>dormītūrum esse</u>"—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 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 $(\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath})$. This form never changes: it is always the supine $+\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}$. For example:

Aemilia Mārcum ā Iūliō Aemilia thinks Marcus will be verberātum <u>īrī</u> putat. beaten by Julius. (ll.114–115)

Ego eum nec mūtātum esse nec posthāc mūtātum īrī 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 *īs*?" (ll.113–114).

In the accusative and infinitive construction, her misgivings could be expressed by changing the direct *verberātum īs* 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 ā patre verberā<u>tum īrī</u> putat. (ll.114–115)

Notā Bene: The supine does not change, regardless of the subject:

Dīc eī, "respōnsum meum crās ā Mārcō trādi<u>tum īrī</u>." (ll.132–133) Dīc eī, "epistulam meam crās ā Mārcō trādi<u>tum īrī</u>."

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*)
 - > agrees with the word it modifies in gender, number, and case
- combined with a verb, creates a periphrasis of the future

 - ▶ agrees with its subject
- combined with esse, creates the **future infinitive active**
 - ▶ neuter singular of the future active participle + the present infinitive of *esse*
 - ▶ in indirect statement, the participle must agree with its subject

The **future passive infinitive**:

- consists of the accusative of the supine and īrī
- 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	-āre	-ārī
	-ēre	-ērī
	-ere	$-\bar{i}$
	-īre	-īrī
Past	Perfect stem + isse	Perfect passive participle + esse
Future	Supine stem + <i>ūrum esse</i>	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 <i>notā bene</i> , note 1 below	-tus, -ta, -tum
		See <i>notā bene</i> , note 2 below
Future	Supine stem $+$ - $\bar{u}rus$, - $\bar{u}ra$,	
	-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, -um, which comes from *claudtus*, -a, -um

Eō, īre

The present participle of $\bar{\imath}re$ looks regular enough: $i|\bar{e}ns$, but the declension is irregular: acc. $\underline{eunt}|em$, gen. $\underline{eunt}|is$, etc. So also compounds, e.g., $red-\bar{\imath}re$, part. $red-\bar{\imath}ens$, -eunt|is. Examples in ll.106–107.

Present Participle

sing.	m./f.	n.
nom.	iēns	iēns
acc.	euntem	iēns
gen.	euntis	euntis
dat.	euntī	euntī
abl.	eunte/ī	eunte/ī
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: $am\bar{a}visse/habuisse$), or s (e.g., $d\bar{i}cere$, $d\bar{i}xisse < d\bar{i}csisse$), 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, fūgisse
- vowel change facere, fecisse

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: $dare \underline{de}disse$. $Tr\bar{a}$ -dere (= $tr\bar{a}ns + dare$) and per-dere (= per + dare) are compounds of dare, which explains the perfect $tr\bar{a}$ - $\underline{di}disse$ and per- $\underline{di}disse$.

```
perdere, perdidī, perditum
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):

```
(afferō < ad + ferō) afferre, attulisse, allātum (dēbeō) dēbēre, dēbuisse, dēbitum (dūcō) dūcere, dūxisse, ductum (faciō) facere, fēcisse, factum (ferō) ferre, tulisse, lātum (fugiō) fugere, fūgisse (inclūdō < in + claudō) inclūdere, inclūsisse, inclūsum (legō) legere, lēgisse, lēctum (mereō) merēre, meruisse, meritum (mittō) mittere, mīsisse, missum (ostendō) ostendere, ostendisse (perdō) perdere, perdidisse, perditum (trādō) trādere, trādidisse, trāditum
```

Recēnsiō: Impersonal Verbs

decetit is fittinglicetit is permittednecesse estit is necessary

oportet it is right (morally right)

opus est it is needed

Studia Romāna

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: *Diodorus lūliō salūtem dīcit*. 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):

- $s\bar{i}$ valēs, bene est, ego vale \bar{o} = s.v.b.e.e.v.
- $s\bar{i}$ 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" (philosophārī: to apply oneself to philosophy).

Diodorus's closing, *Scrībēbam Tusculī kalendīs lūniīs*, 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."

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: *Occupātiōnum 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 Quīntum 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 (*temperātō*—this time, he bothered to check the point of the pen!), and the papyrus had been smoothed with a file made of a tooth (*chartā dentātā*):

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 alicuī. 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* (παλίμψηστος); 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

^{3.} Mõs 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 tē scrībenda, ἀλληγορίαις obscūrābō.

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 tē meās epistulās dēlēre ut repōnās tuās. An hoc significās, nihil fierī, frīgēre⁵ tē, nē chartam quidem tibi suppeditāre?

Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
  1st
    litterae, -ārum
                                            a letter = epistula
  2nd
    factum, -ī
                                            deed
    promissum, -ī
                                            promise
    signum, -ī
                                            sign, statue
  3rd
    clāvis, clāvis (f.)
                                            kev
    comes, comitis (m./f.)
                                            companion
    laus, laudis (f.)
                                            praise
                                            (good) shame
    pudor, pudōris (m.)
    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,
                                            contain
       contentum
    (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
```

^{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."

-ere (3) (āvertō) āvertere turn aside or away (dīmittō) dīmittere, dīmīsisse, send in different directions dīmissum (inclūdō) inclūdere, inclūsisse, shut in inclūsum (īnscrībō) īnscrībere, īnscrīpsisse, inscribe inscriptum (perdō) perdere, perdidisse, lose perditum (promitto) promittere, promisisse, promise prōmissum salūtem dīcere say hi (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 pale plānus, -a, -um level, clear superior, superius higher Prōnōmina what in the world? quidnam? quisnam? who in the world? Adverbia antehāc before this fortasse perhaps herī yesterday from here hinc illinc from there posthāc after this umquam ever (always in neg. context) Praepositiones on account of **ob** (*prp.* + *acc.*)

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., *fort<u>iter</u>*) and in $-\bar{e}$ (e.g., *stult* \bar{e}). Note the **adverbs** ending in $-\bar{o}$:

```
subit\underline{o} (l.12) r\bar{a}r\underline{o}

cert\underline{o} (l.59) pr\bar{t}m\underline{o} (l.100, "at first")<sup>1</sup>

postr\bar{e}m\underline{o} (l.78)
```

^{1.} Cf. prīmum, l.68, adv. "first."

Reflexive Pronoun

Of the **reflexive pronoun**, the form $s\bar{e}$ is accusative and ablative, the **dative** is sibi (cf. tibi, mihi):

• Syra: "Doletne <u>tibi</u> pēs adhūc?"

• Puer "pedem sibi dolēre" ait: "Valdē mihi dolet pēs." (ll.23-24)

acc. sē

gen. See Cap. XXIX

dat. sibi abl. sē

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 pigr<u>ior</u> est <u>quam</u> Quīntus. Pēs dexter multō <u>māior</u> est <u>quam</u> pēs laevus! (l.6) Pulchr<u>ius</u> scrīpserātis et recitāverātis <u>quam</u> Mārcus. (ll.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 <u>only</u> when the first member of the comparison is in the nominative or the accusative case, e.g.:

Mārcus pigr<u>ior</u> est Quīnt<u>ō</u>.

Nunc pēs dexter <u>māior</u> est ped<u>e</u> laev<u>ō</u>. (1.30)

Cēterum in hāc rē is nōn <u>pēior</u> fuerat cēter<u>īs</u>. (1.77)

Is canis lup<u>ō</u> ferōc<u>ior</u> est! (1.90)

Melior sum frātr<u>e</u> me<u>ō</u>! (l.108)

Ego Mārcum bene nōvī, nec putō eum vōbīs stultiorem

esse. (ll.115-116)

At certē pigr<u>ior</u> est nōb<u>īs</u>! (l.117)

Deponent Verbs (continued from Cap. XVI)

You learned the present tense of deponents in Cap. XVI. Deponent verbs like $c\bar{o}n\bar{a}r\bar{i}$ and $ment\bar{i}r\bar{i}$ 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: tergī dolōrēs <u>passus est</u>. (1.47)
loquī: locūtus: saepe dē eā <u>locūtus est</u>. (1.60)
verērī: veritus: Tabellārius canem <u>veritus est</u>. (1.88)
fatērī: fassus: Mārcus "sē mentītum esse" <u>fassus est</u>. (1.101, note the
perfect infinitive: mentī<u>tum esse</u>)
```

Compare the present and the perfect tense:

Quīntus surgere cōnātur.Quintus tries to rise.Quīntus surgere cōnātus est.Quintus has tried to rise.

Mārcus 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:

```
Cōnsōlā<u>re</u> mē, Syra! (l.40)
loque<u>re</u> mēcum! (l.41)
immō laetāre (l.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 <u>had</u> taken place (ll.65–67):

```
Mārcus non modo ūmidus erat quod per imbrem ambulā<u>verat</u>, sed etiam sordidus atque cruentus, quod humī iac<u>uerat</u> et ā Sextō pulsā<u>tus erat</u>. Puerī enim in viā pugnā<u>verant</u>.
```

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 $-er\bar{a}$ - (shortened -era-) between the perfect stem and the personal endings:

```
1st person \sim era|m, \sim er\bar{a}|mus
2nd \sim er\bar{a}|s, \sim er\bar{a}|tis
3rd \sim era|t, \sim era|nt
```

```
ambul\bar{a} +v+era+m: I had walked (etc.)iac +u+era+m: I had lain (etc.)ambul\bar{a} +v+era+siac +u+era+sambul\bar{a} +v+era+tiac +u+era+tambul\bar{a} +v+era+tisiac +u+era+tisambul\bar{a} +v+era+ntiac +u+era+nt
```

In the **passive** the pluperfect is composed of the perfect participle and the imperfect of *esse* (*eram*, *erās*, *erat*, etc.), e.g.:

```
Mārcus ā Sextō pulsā<u>tus erat</u>. = 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, $fu|er\bar{a}|s$, fu|era|t, etc.).

Nöscere

The perfect *nōvisse* of *nōscere* ("get to know") has present force: "be acquainted with," "know," e.g.:

```
Quōmodo Mēdus puellam Rōmānam <u>nōscere</u> potuit? (ll.57–58)
Nesciō quōmodo, sed certō sciō eum aliquam fēminam <u>nōvisse</u>. (ll.59–60)
Canis tē <u>nōvit</u>, ignōrat illum. (l.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) loquī, 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 Quīntō loquitur,

"Sed tū quid agis? Doletne
tibi pēs adhūc?"

How are you? Does your foot
still hurt? (ll.22–23)

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? (l.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:

person first, second, third number singular, plural

tense present, future, imperfect, perfect, pluperfect voice active (subject acts); passive (subject acted upon) indicative (*Fact*: asks question; makes statements), imperative (*Order*: gives an order; commands)

Outside the finite² 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.
Ā Iūliō signum frangitur.
Iūlius signum franget.
Ā Iūliō signum frangētur.
Iūlius signum frangēbat.
Ā Iūliō signum frangēbātur.
Iūlius signum frāgetur.
Iūlius signum frēget.
Ā Iūliō signum frāctum est.
Iūlius signum frēgerat.
Ā Iūliō signum frāctum erat.

II. Latīnē loquī cōnor.

Latīnē loquī cōnābar.

Latīnē loquī cōnābor. Latīnē loquī cōnātus/a sum. Julius is breaking the seal.

The seal is being broken by Julius.

Julius will break the seal.

The seal will be broken by Julius. Julius was breaking the seal.

The seal was being broken by Julius. Julius broke/has broken the seal.

The seal has been broken by Julius.

Julius had broken the seal.

The seal had been broken by Julius.

I am trying to speak Latin, I do try,

Itry

I was trying to speak Latin, I used to

try, I tried

I will try to speak Latin.

I have tried to speak Latin, I tried to

speak Latin, I did try

^{2.} Finite: that is, verbs which have a personal ending limiting their meaning.

Latīnē loquī cōnātus/a eram, sed nōn potuī.

I had tried to speak Latin, but I could not.

Participle

I. frangēns, frangentis breaking frāctūrus, -a, -um about to break frāctus, -a, -um having been broken

II. cōnāns, cōnantis trying cōnātūrus, -a, -um about to try

cōnātus, -a, -um having tried (notice active meaning!)

Infinitive

I. frangereto break $frang\bar{\imath}$ to be broken

 $fr\bar{a}ct\bar{u}rum\ esse$ to be about to break $fr\bar{a}ctum\ \bar{r}\bar{i}$ to be about to be broken

frēgisseto have brokenfrāctum esseto have been broken

II. cōnārī to try

cōnātūrum esseto be about to trycōnātum esseto have tried

Infinitive in indirect statement

I. Present

Videō puerōs signum frangere. I see that the boys are breaking the

seal.

Videō signum ā 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 ā puerīs I see that the seal will be broken

frāctum īrī. by the boys.

Videō puerōs signum frēgisse. I see that the boys broke/have broken

the seal.

Videō signum ā puerīs I see that the seal has been broken

frāctum esse. by the boys.

II. Past

Vīdī puerōs signum frangere. I saw that the boys were breaking the

seal.

Vīdī signum ā puerīs frangī. I saw that the seal was being broken

by the boys.

Vīdī puerōs signum I saw that the boys would break

frāctūrōs esse. the seal.

Vīdī signum ā puerīs I saw that the seal would be broken

frāctum īrī. by the boys.

Vīdī puerōs signum frēgisse. I saw that the boys had broken the

seal.

Vīdī signum ā puerīs I saw that the seal had been broken

frāctum esse. by the boys.

Studia Romāna

While Syra and Quīntus are discussing the day's drama around Marcus, other slaves are in the kitchen (*culīna*) 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 *culīna*. People living in apartment blocks (*īnsulae*) 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 ientācula³), 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 non avidē, 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 (dē Medicīnā), 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

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 culīnāria. 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 liquamen, 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.)
                                             pluperfect (tense)
    sonus, ī (m.)
                                             sound
  3rd
    dolor, doloris (m.)
                                             pain, grief
    latus, lateris (n.)
                                             side
    os, ossis (n.)
                                             bone
  4th
                                             noise, din
    strepitus, -ūs (m.)
    tumultus, -ūs (m.)
                                             uproar
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
                                            suffer, permit, allow
    (percutiō) percutere, percussisse,
                                            strike, hit
       percussum
    (recumbō) recumbere, recubuisse
                                            lie down, lie back
Adiectīva
  1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
    aegrōtus, -a, -um
                                            sick
    cruentus, -a, -um
                                            bloody, gory
                                            left
    laevus, -a, -um
                                            sudden
    subitus, -a, -um
  3rd
    impār (gen. imparis)
                                            unequal
    pār (gen. paris)
                                            equal
Coniūnctiones
    etsī
                                            even if, although
Adverbia
    aliter
                                            otherwise
    certō4
                                            for certain
                                            besides, however
    cēterum
    continuō
                                            immediately
    dēnuō
                                            anew, again
                                            within
    intus
                                            at first
    prīmō
    subitō
                                            suddenly
    valdē
                                            strongly, very (much)
Praepositiones
    iūxtā (prp. + acc.)
                                            next to, beside
```

^{4.} Cf: certē: certainly, at any rate.

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. quī = et 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:

```
ubi?

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. (ll.30–31)

quō?

hūc: Auxiliō huius fīlī hūc ad mē redībis (ll.73–74)

illūc: hūc et illūc currēns (l.110)
```

Notā Bene: Illinc and $ill\bar{u}c$, like $ill\bar{\iota}c$, are pronounced with the accent on the ultima.

Velle + Accusative and Infinitive

```
Like iub\bar{e}re, the verb velle can take the accusative + infinitive construction: \underline{T\bar{e}}\ h\bar{\iota}c\ man\bar{e}re\ vol\bar{o} 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 <u>pede</u>, sed etiam <u>capite</u> <u>aeger</u> est. (Cap. XI, l.55)
Tū sōlus <u>amōre meō</u> dignus erās. (Cap. XIX, l.111)
Vōx tua difficilis est <u>audītū</u>. (Cap. XXII, ll.45–46)
```

Similarly, a new name can be presented with the ablative *nōmine* ("by name," abl. of respect), e.g.:

```
mōnstrum terribile, <u>nōmine</u> Mīnōtaurus (ll.25–26)
parva īnsula <u>nōmine</u> 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 ($qu\bar{o}$, to where), and locative (ubi, where) without prepositions. This rule applies also to the names of small islands, of which Naxos (Naxus) is an example:

```
acc. Nax\underline{um} = ad \bar{i}nsulam Naxum (1.99)
abl. Nax\bar{o} = ab/ex \bar{i}nsul\bar{a} Nax\bar{o} (1.100)
loc. N\bar{a}x\bar{i} = in \bar{i}nsul\bar{a} Nax\bar{o} (1.132)
```

Large islands (like Crete), however, still require prepositions.

```
Naxō in Crētām
ē Crētā Athēnās
```

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 *Athēnae* and *Delphī*:

```
nom. Athēnae, Delphī
acc. Athēnās, Delphōs
abl. Athēnīs, Delphīs
```

The accusative and ablative, as you know, serve to express motion to and from the town: *Athēnās*, "to Athens," *Athēnīs*, "from Athens."

But the **locative** of plural town names has the same form as the ablative, so that *Athēnīs* can also mean "from Athens" or "in Athens" (e.g., the equivalent of *in urbe Athēnīs*):

```
Thēseus Athēnīs vīvēbat. (ll.51-52)
```

Context will tell you when to interpret as locative (place where) or ablative (place from which).

Ablative of Manner (Ablātīvus Modī)

The ablative can express the way or manner in which an action is done, as you see in lines 142–143:

```
Quī multōs annōs Athēnās <u>magnā cum glōriā</u> rēxit. ("with great glory")
```

We saw this construction much earlier but without a preposition:

```
Vocābulum "īnsula" dēclinātur <u>hōc modō</u>. ("in this way") (Cap. IX, l.90)
```

Mārcus perterritus ad vīllam currit et <u>magnā vōce</u> clāmat. ("with a great voice," "loudly") (Cap. X, ll.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 *amāre* are generally used with an object in the accusative, e.g.:

```
mort<u>em</u> timēre
patri<u>am</u> 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).

```
timor mortis fear of death (1.77)
amor patriae love of country (1.86)
```

Such a genitive is called an **objective genitive**. Other examples are:

```
timor mõnstr<u>õrum</u> (ll.21–22): timor < timēre expugnātiō urb<u>is</u> (ll.45–46): expugnātiō < expugnāre cupiditās pecūni<u>ae</u> (ll.122–123): cupiditās < cupere cupidus aur<u>ī</u> atque sanguin<u>is</u> (ll.44–47) = quī cupit aurum atque sanguinem patri<u>ae</u> amāns (l.51) = quī patri<u>am</u> 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, ll.69-70)
```

A passive infinitive expresses what is to be done to a person, like $d\bar{u}c\bar{i}$ in:

 $[R\bar{e}x]$ eum $(\bar{a}$ mīlitibus) in labyrinthum dūc \bar{i} iussit: "ordered him to be taken into the labyrinth" (l.59)

Perfect Participle of Deponents

You know (Cap. XIV) that present participles can have an object:

```
Dāvus cubiculum intrāns (l.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 <u>locūta</u> Ariadna... ("having said/after saying this...") (l.74) Thēseus fīlum Ariadnae <u>secūtus</u>... ("having followed...") (ll.84–85) Aegeus <u>arbitrātus</u>... ("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

$Qu\bar{\imath} = et is$

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 ā Daedalō, virō Athēniēnsī, aedificātus erat. Quī iam antequam ex urbe Athēnīs in Crētam vēnit, complūrēs rēs mīrābilēs fēcerat. (l.34)

Mīnōs autem fīliam 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. (ll.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.:

```
Intuē<u>re</u> pedēs meōs, Syra! (ll.28–29)
loque<u>re</u> mēcum! (l.41)
immō laetā<u>re</u>. (l.44)
```

In this chapter, Theseus says to Ariadne (singular imperative):

Opperī<u>re</u> mē! (1.75) Et tū sequ<u>ere</u> mē! Proficīsc<u>ere</u> mēcum Athēnās! (11.95–96)

To his countrymen, Theseus uses the <u>plural imperative</u> (ll.92–93):

Laetā<u>minī</u>, cīvēs meī! Intuē<u>minī</u> gladium meum cruentum! Sequi<u>minī</u> mē ad portum!

Oblīvīscī with Genitive/Accusative

The verb *oblīvīscī* can be completed both by an accusative direct object and by the genitive. *Oblīvīscī* can take an accusative when the object is a thing:

```
Quis tam facile <u>prōmissum</u> oblīvīscitur quam vir quī fēminam amāvit? (ll.119–120)
```

Redeō ad nārrātiōnem fābulae, <u>quam</u> prope oblīta sum. (ll.129–130)

When $oblīv\bar{\imath}sc\bar{\imath}$ means "disregard," "don't be mindful \underline{of} ," it takes a genitive:

```
oblīvīscere ill<u>īus</u> vir<u>ī</u>! (l.126)
Non facile est <u>amoris</u> <u>antīquī</u> oblīvīscī. (l.128)
```

Nāvigandum, fugiendum

The forms *nāvigandum* and *fugiendum* (ll.94, 97) will be taken up in Cap. XXVI.

Recēnsiō: Adverbs of Place

ubi?	in what place?	quō?	to what place?
ibi	in that place, there	(eō: t	o that place: Cap. XXVIII)
illīc	in that place	illūc	to that place1
hīc	in this place	hūc	to this place
unde? (inde: from th	from what place? nat place: Cap. XXIX)		
illinc	from that place		
hinc	from this place		
hūc atque illū	here and there	(to th	is place and to that)

here and there (on this side and that)

More adverbs

hīc atque illīc

brevī (brevī tempore)	in a short time
quotannīs	every year
ūnā cum + abl.	together with

Studia Romana

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 fābulam dē puerō quī cupīvit regere equōs quī currum Sōlis per caelum trahunt? ll.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, quī Hectorem, ducem Trōiānum, interfēcit atque corpus eius mortuum post

^{1.} Like *illīc*, *illūc* is accented on the ultima (i.e., originally *illūce*).

^{2.} Epist. 2.1.156: Graecia capta ferum victorem cepit et artīs/intulit agrestī Latio.

currum suum trāxit circum moenia urbis Trōiae? ll.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 fābulam dē Rōmulō, quī prīma moenia Rōmāna aedificāvit... ll.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.<sup>3</sup>
```

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, -ī building
agnus, -ī lamb
auxilium, -ī help, aid
```

^{3.} $L\bar{e}$ thaeus, -a, -um: belonging to L \bar{e} the, the river from which the dead drink and thereby forget the past; abrumpere = ab + rumpere (Cap. XXII); $vinculum = cat\bar{e}nam$ (Cap. XXII).

```
fīlum, -ī
                                            thread
  labyrinthus, -ī
                                            labyrinth
  mönstrum, -ī
                                            monster
  saxum, -ī
                                            rock
                                           bull
  taurus, -ī
3rd
  cīvis, cīvis (m./f.)
                                            citizen
  cupiditās, cupiditātis (f.)
                                            desire
  expugnātiō, expugnātiōnis (f.)
                                            conquest
  lītus, lītoris (n.)
                                            shore
  moenia, moenium (n. pl.)
                                            walls
  mors, mortis (f.)
                                            death
  nārrātiō, nārrātiōnis (f.)
                                            story
  nex, necis (f.)
                                            death
  rēx, rēgis (m.)
                                           king
4th
  conspectus, -ūs (m.)
                                            sight, view
  currus, -ūs (m.)
                                            chariot
  exitus, -ūs (m.)
                                            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)
  (constituo) constituere, constituisse,
                                          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, prōspectum	look out, look ahead
(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, -a, -um	savage
timidus, -a, -um	timid
3rd	
complūrēs, -e	very many
humilis, -e	low
mīrābilis, -e	wonderful, marvelous
terribilis, -e	terrible
Adverbia	
brevī	in a short time
forte	by chance
hūc	to this place
ibi	there, in that place
illūc	to that place
ōlim	once, long ago
quotannīs	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 īnfimus
- 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. (l.97) The words *nāvigandum* and *fugiendum* are gerunds. The **gerund**:

- is characterized by -nd- added to the present stem
 - ▶ before consonant- and \bar{i} -stems (3rd and 4th conjugations), a short e is inserted before -nd-:

ad vīv|<u>e</u>nd|um ad audi|<u>e</u>nd|um

- corresponds to English verbal nouns in "-ing"
- exists only in the singular oblique cases (acc., gen., dat., abl.) of the noun:
 - □ accusative ends in -ndum (pugna|nd|um)
 - ▶ the genitive in $-nd\bar{\iota}$ (pugna|nd| $\bar{\iota}$)
 - ▶ the dative and ablative in $-nd\bar{o}$ (pugna|nd| \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 *Lēctiō Prīma*:

• The **accusative** is only found after *ad* and expresses **purpose**, e.g.:

Hodiē plūs temporis <u>ad</u> nārra<u>ndum</u> nōn habeō.
Haud longum tempus nōbīs reliquum est <u>ad</u> vīve<u>ndum</u>.
ūna via nōbīs patet <u>ad</u> fugie<u>ndum</u>.

I do not have more time today for recounting (stories). (ll.10–11) There is not much time left to us for living. (l.28) one road lies open to us for fleeing. (l.36)

- The **genitive** occurs:
 - ▶ with nouns, e.g.:

fīnem nārra<u>ndī</u> facere (= fīnem nārrātiōnis f.) cōnsilium fugi<u>endī</u> (= cōnsilium fugae) Haud difficilis est ars vola<u>ndī</u>.

Tempus dormiendī est.

to make an end of telling (l.13)

a plan for escaping (ll.55–56)

The art of flying is hardly difficult. (1.72)

It is time for sleeping. (ll.122–123) (= tempus est dormīre)

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 (l.43)

 \triangleright *causā* + a preceding genitive of the gerund denotes cause or purpose:

Nōn sōlum dēlecta<u>ndī</u> causā, vērum etiam mone<u>ndī</u> causā, nārrātur fābula. Not only for the sake of delighting, but even for the sake of warning, is the story being told. (ll.134–135)

• The **ablative** of the gerund is found after *in* and $d\bar{e}$:

 $\underline{in} \ vola\underline{ndo}$ in flying (l.80) $\underline{de} \ ama\underline{ndo}$ about loving (l.154)

▶ or alone as the ablative of means or cause:

Puerī scrībere discunt Boys learn to write by writing.

scrīb<u>endō</u>.

Fessus sum ambulandō. I am tired out by walking.

(l.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
līber, 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|is, celer|e
ācer, ācr|is, ācr|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*, $\bar{a}cris$).

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 -ns and -x, like prūdēns and audāx (gen. prūdent|is, audāc|is) have the same form in the nominative masculine, feminine, and neuter:

vir/fēmina/cōnsilium prūdēns vir/fēmina/cōnsilium audāx

b. Two nominative forms: adjectives ending in -is, -e, like *brevis*, *breve* or *gravis*, *grave*, have one form for the masculine and feminine, and one for the neuter:

vir/fēmina gravis; cōnsilium grave hōra/mēnsis 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 non* and *sed non*). Similarly, in Cap. XIX, we found *neque \bar{u}llus* for "and no one," **not** "*et nullus*." 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* (l.26, "and no one"), *nec quidquam* (Cap. XXVII, l.106, "and nothing");
 - ▶ *Quidquam* is changed by assimilation to *quicquam*
- Similarly, *et* is avoided before *numquam* by using *neque umquam* (Cap. XXIII, l.26, "and never").

Summary

and not/but not	neque/nec
and no one	neque/nec ūllus
and no one	neque/nec quisquam
and nothing	neque/nec quicquam
and never	neque umquam

āēr

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. $\bar{a}er|\underline{a}$ (l.22 = $\bar{a}er|em$).

nom.	āēr
acc.	āer <u>a</u>
gen.	āer is

Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

Irregular Superlatives summus and infimus

- *summus* (1.79) comes from *super*(*us*), *-era*, *-erum* (comparative *superior*)
- *īnfimus* (l.77) comes from *īnfer(us)*, -*era*, -*erum* (comparative *īnferior*)

Future Imperative

Instead of the short imperative *es! es*|*te!* of *esse*, the longer form in $-t\bar{o}$, $-t\bar{o}te$ is often preferred: $es|t\bar{o}!$ $es|t\bar{o}te!$

```
Cautus estō, mī fīlī! (l.81; cf. l.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 <u>videntur.</u> (ll.92–94)
```

In this function, a dative is often added, e.g.:

```
Mēlos īnsula non tam parva est quam <u>tibi vidētur</u>. (ll.94–95, = quam tū putās; cf. ll.96–97, 125); puer <u>sibi</u> 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:

```
<u>Daedalus</u> in labyrinthō <u>inclūsus</u> errābat. (l.19)

Nēmō <u>nōs volantēs</u> persequī poterit. (l.42)

Tum puerum <u>ōsculātus</u>, "Parātī sumus ad volandum," inquit. (ll.75–76)

Haec verba <u>locūtus</u> Daedalus cum fīliō sūrsum ē labyrinthō ēvolāvit. (ll.83–84)

Aliquī pāstor, quī forte <u>suspiciēns</u> eōs tamquam magnās <u>avēs volantē</u>s vīdit. (ll.85–86)

novā lībertāte dēlectātī (l.89)
```

```
Īcarus <u>dēspiciēns</u> multitūdinem īnsulārum mīrātus est. (ll.90–91) dēspiciēbat <u>mīrāns</u> (l.106)

<u>Sōlem</u> in caelō serēnō <u>lūcentem</u> suspexit. (ll.107–108)

<u>Puer territus</u>, lacertōs nūdōs <u>quatiēns</u>, in mare cecidit. (ll.115–116) lībertātem <u>quaerēns</u> mortem invēnit. (l.122) quī currum patris regere <u>cōnātus</u> item dē summō caelō cecidit (ll.127–128)

<u>Hīs verbīs puerō monitō</u> (l.141)

Neque Quīntus <u>eam abeuntem</u> revocat. (l.142)
```

Studia Romāna

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 fābulam 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); patī, 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 = dēponere: put down, set aside.

Notes

Expertus: understand est

 $Nil\ ardu\bar{\imath}$: cf Cap. XVI: Partitive genitive with paulum, multum; $n\bar{\imath}l = nihil\ I\bar{\imath}uppiter$, 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 Officiīs* 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
                                              flight, a running away
    fuga, -ae
    nātūra, -ae
                                              nature
                                              peninsula
    paenīnsula, -ae
                                              feather, wing
    penna, -ae
  2nd
    consilium, -ī
                                              plan
    gerundium, -ī
                                              gerund
    lacertus, -ī
                                              arm
  3rd
    ars, artis (f.)
                                              art, skill
    carcer, carceris (m.)
                                              prison
    ignis, ignis (m.)
                                              fire
    lībertās, lībertātis (f.)
                                              freedom
    multitūdō, multitūdinis (f.)
                                              large number, multitude
    opus, operis (n.)
                                              work
    orbis, orbis (f.)
                                              circle, orbit
    cāsus, -ūs (m.)
                                              fall, event, (grammatical) case
```

```
Verba
  -āre (1)
    (aberrō) aberrāre, aberrāvisse,
                                            wander away, stray
       aberrātum
    (ēvolō) ēvolāre, ēvolāvisse, ēvolātum
                                            fly away
                                            think out, devise
    (excōgitō) excōgitāre, excōgitāvisse,
       excōgitātum
    (imitor) imitārī, imitātum
                                            imitate
    (iuvō) iuvāre, iūvisse
                                            help, delight
    (levō) levāre, levāvisse, levātum
                                            lift, raise
    (revocō) revocāre, revocāvisse,
                                            call back
       revocātum
  -ēre (2)
    (videor) vidērī, vīsum
                                            be seen, seem
  -ere (3)
    (accidō) accidere, accīdisse
                                            happen, occur
    (consumo) consumere,
                                            consume, spend
       consumpsisse, consumptum
                                            follow, overtake
    (consequor) consequi, consecutum
                                            make, accomplish
    (conficio) conficere, confecisse,
       confectum
    (dēspiciō) dēspicere, dēspexisse,
                                            look down (at)
       dēspectum
    (effugiō) effugere, effūgisse
                                            escape
    (fīgō) fīgere, fīxisse, fīxum
                                            fix, fasten
    (perficiō) perficere, perfēcisse,
                                            complete, accomplish
       perfectum
                                            follow, pursue
    (persequor) persequi, persecutum
    (quatiō) quatere
                                            shake
    (suspiciō) suspicere, suspexisse,
                                            look up (at)
       suspectum
    (ūrō) ūrere, ussisse, ustum
                                            burn
  -ire (4)
    (inveniō) invenīre, invēnisse,
                                            come upon, find
       inventum
    (molliō) mollīre, mollīvisse,
                                            make soft, soften
       mollitum
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
```

interested in

studiōsus, -a, -um (+ gen.)

summus, -a, -umhighesttemerārius, -a, -umreckless

3rd

audāx (gen. audācis)boldceler, celeris, celereswiftingēns (gen. ingentis)huge, vast

Prōnōmina

quisquam, quidquam anyone, anything

Adverbia

deorsumdownhaudnot, so

haudnot, scarcelypaenenearly, almostquidemindeed

quoniam since sūrsum up

tamquam as, like, as though

vērum but

Coniūnctiones

sīn but if

Praepositiones

 $tr\bar{a}ns (prp. + acc.)$ 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
 - 1. prae
 - 2. prō
 - 3. abs
 - b. Accusative: Preposition circā
 - c. Locative: Summary
- 3. Adverb: parum
- 4. Conjunctions
 - a. ut
 - b. quam + the Superlative
- 5. 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, *colōnī*. 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 (*īnstrūmentum*) (ll.18–20):

Frūmentum falc<u>e</u> metitur.

Quō īnstrūmentō serit agricola?

The verb $\bar{u}t\bar{\iota}$ ("use") takes the ablative of instrument, not the accusative (ll.20–22):

Quī serit nūllō instrūmentō ūtitur praeter manum.

Quī arat arātrō ūtitur.

Quī metit falce ūtitur.

Quī serit manū suā ūtitur.

In addition to "use," ūtī 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 $loc\bar{\imath}$ of locus, you often find the neuter form $loc\underline{a}$, $-\bar{o}rum$ (l.30), which is usual in the concrete sense (places, localities); $loc\bar{\imath}$ is used for passages in books, topics, and points of argument.

Italia est terra fertilis, sed multa <u>loca</u> Italiae nōn arantur. (ll.30–31) *Theophrastus cum tractat <u>locōs</u> ab Aristotele ante tractātōs...*; "when Theophrastus treats subjects previously treated by Aristotle..."¹

Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

Summary: Locative

	sing.	pl.	Examples
1st	-ae	-īs	Rōmae, Athēnīs
2nd	$-\bar{\imath}$	-īs	Tūsculī, humī
3rd	-ī/-ĕ		rūrī, Karthāgine
			domī

^{1.} Cicero, de Finibus 1.2.6.

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*)— $tace|\underline{t}$ and $audi|\underline{t}$ —to tell us what the slave actually does. The second sentence uses the **subjunctive mood** (Latin *modus coniūnctīvus*)— $tace|\underline{at}$ and $audi|\underline{at}$ —to express what the master wants his slave to do. $Tace\underline{at}$ and $audi\underline{at}$ are the **present subjunctive** (Latin coniūnctīvus praesentis) of $tac\bar{e}re$ and $aud\bar{i}re$.

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 imperātīvus*) 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.
 - ▶ 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)
```

▶ 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|m -a|r -\bar{a}|s -\bar{a}|ris
```

 $^{2. \}quad \text{In Cap. XXIX you will learn about questions in the subjunctive (deliberative questions)}.$

```
      -a|t
      -ā|tur

      -ā|mus
      -ā|mur

      -ā|tis
      -ā|minī

      -a|nt
      -a|ntur
```

• 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|m
      -e|r

      -ē|s
      -ē|ris

      -e|t
      -ē|tur

      -ē|mus
      -ē|mur

      -ē|tis
      -ē|minī

      -e|nt
      -e|ntur
```

→ 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 1st 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*):

imperāre ōrāre postulāre monēre

These *verba postulandī*—verbs that order, ask, warn, etc.—are often followed by object clauses introduced by ut, or, if they are negative (see Section III), by $n\bar{e}$ (or ut $n\bar{e}$); 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 <u>imperat ut</u> mercēdem solv<u>at</u>.

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. (ll.81–82)

Vos moneo ut industrie in vīneīs laborētis. (l.126)

Complements in Verba Postulandī

Notice that the person commanded in each of the three sentences is expressed in a different case:

```
Iūlius <u>colōnō</u> imperat ut mercēdem solvat. (ll.81–82)
Colōnus <u>eum</u> ōrat ut patientiam habeat. (ll.92–93)
Num uxor <u>abs tē</u> postulat ut tū prō mātre īnfantēs cūrēs? (ll.100–101)
```

The case of the person ordered depends on the verb used.

```
Dative (intransitive verbs):

imperāre eī ut

persuādēre eī ut

Ab + 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:

```
Võs <u>moneō ut</u> industriē in vīneīs labōr<u>ētis</u>. (ll.125–126)

<u>Iubeō</u> vōs industriē in vīneīs labōr<u>āre</u>.

Medicus Quīntum ōs aper<u>īre</u> atque linguam ostend<u>ere iubet</u>.

(Cap. XI, ll.69–70)

Medicus Quīntō <u>imperat</u> ut ōs aper<u>iat</u> atque linguam ostend<u>at</u>.
```

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:
 <u>ut</u> tempestās mare tranquillum turbā<u>vit</u>, <u>ita</u> (as...thus)... (ll.8–9)
 ut spēr<u>ō</u> (l.149)
 Cūr ille servus mēcum venīre nōn potest <u>ut</u> solet? (Cap. XIV, l.120)
- by a noun adjective:
 Oculī lupī in umbrā lūcent <u>ut gemmae et dentēs ut margarītae</u>.
 (Cap. IX, ll.72–73)

Puer quiētus super lectum iacet <u>ut</u> mortuus. (Cap. XI, ll.103–104) Gallia autem prōvincia Rōmāna est, <u>ut</u> Hispānia, Syria, Aegyptus. (Cap. XII, ll.63–64) <u>ut</u> saxa...vorāginēs...praedōnēs (Cap. XXVIII, ll.131–132)

Nē...quidem

The negation $n\bar{e}$ is also used in $n\bar{e}$...quidem ("not even"):

Nē in Campāniā quidem plūrēs vīllae sunt. (l.55) Nē assem quidem habeō. (l.86) Nē verbum quidem dīc!

Prae, prō, abs

The prepositions prae and $pr\bar{o}$ take the ablative; the basic meaning of both is "before," from which other meanings are derived (prae ll.63, 83; $pr\bar{o}$ ll.71, 72):

Arātor duōs validōs bovēs quī arātrum trahunt <u>prae sē</u> agit. (ll.13–14) Quamquam nūllō modō labōrem agricolārum sordidum indignumve esse exīstimat, tamen sē <u>prae agricolīs</u> beātum esse cēnset. (ll.61–63) Colōnus pallidus <u>prae metū</u> loquī nōn potest. (l.83) Colōnus est agricola quī nōn suōs, sed aliēnōs agrōs <u>prō dominō absentī</u> colit. (ll.71–72) Mercēdem dominō solvit <u>prō frūgibus</u> agrōrum. (l.72)

Abs for *ab* is found only before *tē*: *abs tē*:

Cūr nōndum solvistī mercēdem quam ter quaterve iam <u>abs tē</u> poposcī. $(11.79-80 = \bar{a}\ t\bar{e})$.

Ablative of Separation

Note the ablative of separation (without *ab*) with:

```
<u>pellere</u>: ut tē agr<u>īs</u> me<u>īs</u> pellant. (l.89)
<u>prohibēre</u>: Nōlī mē offici<u>ō</u> me<u>ō</u> prohibēre! (ll.173–174)
```

Parum

The adverb *parum* often means not "a little" but "too little," as in the following examples:

<u>Parum</u> temporis habeō ad opus rūsticum. (ll.98–99) Imber brevis quem hodiē habuimus frūmentō prōfuit quidem, sed <u>parum</u> 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: cūrā ut facere: fac ut labōrāre: labōrā ut cavēre: cavē nē 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 itself through its own agency

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)

Faciam ut tergum eī doleat. 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 ut, or, if they are negative, by $n\bar{e}$ (or ut $n\bar{e}$) and the subjunctive.

Prīmum <u>cūrā ut</u> uxor et līberī val<u>eant</u>, tum vērō <u>labōrā ut</u> pecūniam solv<u>ās</u>.

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)

<u>Fac ut</u> ovēs ex agrīs ag<u>antur</u>! (ll.175–176) Officium tuum est <u>cūrāre</u> <u>nē</u> ovēs aberr<u>ent</u> <u>nē</u>ve ā lupō rapi<u>antur</u>. (ll.161–162)

As appears from the last example, the second of two negative clauses is introduced by $n\bar{e}$ -ve, i.e., $n\bar{e}$ with the attached conjunction -ve, which has the same value as vel.

Summary:

ut + subjunctive command, ask that something happen command, ask that something not happen

^{3.} An "object clause" is a dependent clause that functions as the object of the verb.

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 <u>sit</u> nēve dormiat!

Here are the other forms:

sim	sīmus
sīs	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 Romāna

We read about Julius's villa in Cap. V and now learn that around the hortus lie the fields that support the farm. Iūlius has no doubt inherited the many villas and the house in Rome that had belonged to his father (Pater lūliī...magnam pecūniam habēbat multāsque vīllās 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 dē Rē Rūsticā, "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 colonum). 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 līberō 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* (Γεωργικά, *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):

^{4. 1.10:} superest...genus līberāle et ingenuun reī familiāris augendae, quod ex agricolātiōne contingit.

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, ūs: sustenance, nourishment (do not confuse with victum from vincere)

Of course, the situation was not so idyllic for the coloni, as we see in this chapter. A colonus 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. Coloni, 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, (l.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, l.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).

^{5. 2.1:} Paterfamiliās ubi ad vīllam vēnit, ubi lārem familiārem salūtāvit, fundum eōdem diē, sī potest, circumeat; sī nōn eōdem diē, at postrīdiē.

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 familiāris* in the notes to Cap. IV.

Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
  1st
    agricola, -ae (m.)
                                              farmer
                                              abundance
    copia, -ae
    cūra, -ae
                                              care, concern
    lāna, -ae
                                              wool
    patientia, -ae
                                              patience
    ūva, -ae
                                              grape
    vīnea, -ae
                                              vineyard
  2nd
                                              field
    ager, agrī
    arātrum, -ī
                                              plow
    colonus, -ī
                                              (tenant) farmer
    coniūnctīvus
                                              subjunctive
    frūmentum, -ī
                                             grain
                                              tool, instrument
    īnstrūmentum, -ī
                                              business
    negōtium, -ī
    ōtium, -ī
                                             leisure
    pābulum, -ī
                                              fodder
    praedium, -ī
                                              estate
    vīnum, -ī
                                              wine
  3rd
    calor, caloris (m.)
                                             heat
    falx, falcis (f.)
                                             sickle
                                              chill, cold
    frīgus, frīgoris (n.)
    frūgēs, frūgum (f. pl.)
                                              crops
                                             herd
    grex, gregis (m.)
    labor, labōris (m.)
                                             labor, toil
    pecus, pecoris (n.)
                                             livestock, cattle
    precēs, precum (f. pl.)
                                              prayers
    regiō, regiōnis (f.)
                                             region
                                              countryside
    rūs, rūris (n.)
    sēmen, sēminis (n.)
                                              seed
    vītis, vītis (f.)
                                              vine
Verba
  -āre (1)
    (arō) arāre, arāvisse, arātum
                                              plow
    (rigō) rigāre, rigāvisse, rigātum
                                              water
    (laboro) laborare, laboravisse,
                                             work, toil
       laborātum
```

(exīstimō) exīstimāre,	think
exīstimāvisse, exīstimātum	
(ōrō) ōrāre, ōrāvisse, ōrātum	beg, pray
-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	bind round, surround
(colō) colere, coluisse, cultum	cultivate
(crēscō) crēscere, crēvisse	grow
(invehō) invehere, invēxisse,	import
invectum	1
(metō) metere, messuisse, messum	reap, harvest
(neglegō) neglegere, neglēxisse,	neglect
neglēctum	C
(pāscō) pāscere, pāvisse, pāstum	to pasture
(prōiciō) prōicere, prōiēcisse,	throw forward
prōiectum	
(quiescō) quiescere, quiēvisse	rest
(rapiō) rapere, rapuisse, raptum	tear away, carry off
(serō) serere, sēvisse, satum	sow
(spargō) spargere, sparsisse, sparsum	sprinkle
(ūtor) ūtī, ūsum (+abl.)	use
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	not ripe
inhūmānus, -a, -um	inhumane
mātūrus, -a, -um	ripe, early
rūsticus, -a, -um	of the country, rustic
siccus, -a, -um	dry
suburbānus, -a, -um	near the city
trīcēsimus, -a, -um	30th
urbānus, -a, -um	of the city, sophisticated
3rd	, 1
fertilis, -e	fertile
neglegēns (gen. neglegentis)	careless
patiens (gen. patientis)	enduring, patient
rudis, -e	rough
	-

Irregular

nēquam/nēquior, nēquius/ nēquissimus, -a, -um worthless

Prōnōmina

quīdam, quaedam, quoddam

a certain

Adverbia

circā around dēnique finally

parum little, too little, also indecl. noun

prae before

tantum only, so much, also indecl. noun

Coniunctiones

nē negative conjunction

-**ve** or (=*vel*)

Praepositiones

 $abs = \bar{a}$, ab (before te)

circā (prp. + acc.) around

prae (*prp.* + *abl.*) before, in front of, in comparison with

 \mathbf{pro} (prp. + abl.) 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, nölle, mälle
 - f. *īre* (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 sōlīs potest <u>facere ut hominēs caecī videant</u>, surdī <u>audiant</u>, mūtī <u>loquantur</u>, claudī <u>ambulent</u>? (ll.30–32)

Compare what happens to the verb in the subjunctive clause when the main verb is in the past:

In Iūdaeā Iēsūs non solum <u>faciēbat ut</u> caecī <u>vidērent</u>, surdī <u>audīrent</u>, mūtī <u>loquerentur</u>, vērum etiam verbīs <u>efficiēbat</u> ut mortuī <u>surgerent</u> 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 $-r\bar{e}$ - (in consonant-stems $-er\bar{e}$) between the present stem and the personal endings. The imperfect subjunctive thus looks exactly like the present infinitive plus personal endings.

1st, 2nd, and 4th conjugations insert $-r\bar{e}$ -/-re between the present stem and the personal endings, e.g.:¹

ambulā re m	vidē re m	audī re m
ambulā rē s	vidē rē s	audī rē s
ambulā re t	vidē re t	audī re t
ambulā rē mus	vidē rē mus	audī rē mus
ambulā rē tis	vidē rē tis	audī rē tis
ambulā re nt	vidē re nt	audī re nt

3rd conjugation inserts $-er\bar{e}$ -/-ere between the present stem and the personal endings:

```
surg|ere|mfac|ere|msurg|erē|sfac|erē|ssurg|ere|tfac|ere|tsurg|erē|musfac|erē|mussurg|erē|tisfac|erē|tissurg|ere|ntfac|ere|nt
```

Summary of Imperfect Subjunctive Endings

^{1.} Remember: short e before -m, -t, -nt, -r, -ntur.

passive		
sing.	1st	$-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{\imath}) re r$
_	2nd	$-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{\imath}) r\bar{e} ris$
	3rd	$-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{\imath}) r\bar{e} tur$
pl. 1st	-(ā, ē,	e, ī) rē mur
	2nd	$-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{\imath}) r\bar{e} min\bar{\imath}$
	3rd	$-(\bar{a}, \bar{e}, e, \bar{\imath})$ re ntur

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

→ 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 action²

Compare the sentences:

Magister mē mone<u>t</u> (/monē<u>bit</u>) ut tace<u>am</u> et audi<u>am</u>. Magister mē monē<u>bat</u> (/mon<u>uit</u>/mon<u>uerat</u>) <u>ut</u> tacē<u>rem</u> et audī<u>rem</u>.

^{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, l.31–32: nisi tam fortiter <u>pugnāvit</u> ut spectātōrēs eum vīvere <u>velint</u>.

Sequence of Tense

Main Verb	Subordinate	Verb
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Incomplete Action Completed Action present subjunctive (Cap. XXXII) present future imperfect subjunctive (Cap. XXXIII)

Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

past tense

Uses of the Subjunctive: Result

The subjunctive, introduced by *ut*, 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, $-um < c\bar{o}nsequ\bar{i}$) as they show what naturally follows from the idea in the main clause.

Result clauses (show tendency or effect):

Num quis <u>tam</u> stultus est <u>ut</u>	<i>utcrēdat</i> tells the consequence
ista vēra esse crēd <u>at</u> ?	of anyone being so stupid: For

who is so stupid that he would believe these things are true?

(11.90 - 91)

Nam trēs diī, Neptūnus, For three gods, Neptune, Iūppiter, Plūtō, mundum Juppiter, Pluto, divided the ūniversum ita inter sē whole world among themselves dīvīsērunt <u>ut</u> Iūppiter rēx in such a way that Juppiter was caelī esset. king of the sky. (ll.85–87)

There are more examples in Cap. XXIX.

Reflexive *sē* (continued)

In ut/nē-clauses expressing an indirect command, the reflexive pronouns sē, sibi, suus refer to the subject of the main verb, i.e., the person ordering, requesting, etc. Compare:

Dāvus eum <u>sē</u>cum venīre iubet.: i.e., eī imperat ut <u>sē</u>cum (cum Dāvō) veniat (Cap. XIV, 1.86–87)

Pāstor dominum ōrat nē <u>sē</u> verberet.: i.e., nē pastōrem verberet (Cap. XXVII, ll.158-159)

Mēdus eam rogat ut aliquid sibi legat: i.e., *ut Mēdō legat* (ll.56–57) [Iaīrus] Iēsum rogāvit ut fīliam <u>suam</u> mortuam suscitāret. (l.65–66)

Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

Uses of the Subjunctive: Purpose (Final)

The subjunctive, introduced by *ut*, is used in clauses that tell the end or goal of the main clause. These are called purpose, or final (*fīnālis*), clauses.

Purpose clauses (show intention):

Praedōnēs nāvēs persequuntur,Pirates follow the ships inut mercēs et pecūniam rapiantorder to (or just "to") seizenautāsque occīdant.and kill. (ll.132–134)

Petrus ambulābat super aquam, <u>ut</u> venī<u>ret</u> ad Iēsum. (ll.102–103) ē vīllā fūgī, <u>ut</u> verbera vītā<u>rem</u> atque <u>ut</u> amīcam meam vidē<u>rem</u> ac semper cum eā <u>essem</u>. (ll.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 homin<u>em</u> super mare ambulāre <u>posse</u>.: no one will persuade/convince me <u>that</u>... (ll.110–111)

Mēdus mihi persuāsit <u>ut</u> sēcum venī<u>rem</u>.: Medus persuaded me <u>to</u>... (ll.174–175)
```

In both senses, *persuādēre* takes the dative (intransitive, like *oboedīre*, *impendēre*, *servīre*, *prōdesse*, and *nocēre*).

Īre: Present Subjunctive

In ll.145–146 we meet the present subjunctive of *īre*:

cūrābō ut salvī in Graeciam eāmus,

Īre:

Indicative Subjunctive

eō	eam		
īs	eās		
it	eat		
īmus	eāmus		
ītis	eātis		
eunt	eant		

Velle, nölle, mälle

In addition to *velle* (Caps. X, XIII), *nōlle* (= *nōn velle*, Cap. XX), this chapter presents *mālle* (*magis velle*), to "want more," or "prefer." *Mālle* 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	e, voluisse	Nōlō, nōlle, nōluisse		Mālō, mālle, māluisse	
to be willi	ng, want	to be unwilling, not want		to prefer	
volō	volumus	nōlō	nōlumus	mālō	mālumus
vīs vult	vultis volunt	nōn vīs nōn vult	nōn vultis nōlunt	māvīs māvult	māvultis mālunt

Recēnsiō: Subordinate Subjunctive Clauses

Verba postulandī et cūrandī + $ut/n\bar{e}$ subjunctive:

- Quī medicus verbīs sōlīs <u>potest facere ut</u> hominēs caecī videant, surdī audiant, mūtī loquantur, claudī ambulent? (ll.30–32)
- In Iūdaeā Iēsūs nōn sōlum <u>faciēbat ut</u> caecī vidērent, surdī audīrent, mūtī loquerentur, vērum etiam verbīs efficiēbat ut mortuī surgerent et ambulārent. (ll.34–37)
- Ille <u>cūrāvit ut</u> nōs ē tempestāte servārēmur nēve mergerēmur—vel potius nōs ipsī quī mercēs ēiēcimus. (ll.127–129)
- <u>Cūrābō</u> <u>ut</u> omnia perīcula vītēmus ac salvī in Graeciam eāmus. (ll.145–146)
- "Legam tibi," inquit, "dē virō claudō <u>cui</u> Iēsūs <u>imperāvit</u> <u>ut</u> surgeret et tolleret lectum suum et domum ambulāret." (ll.58–60)
- Modo dīxistī, "Chrīstum etiam <u>mortuīs imperāvisse ut</u> surgerent et ambulārent." (ll.61–62)
- In Italiā dominō sevērō serviēbam quī <u>ā mē postulābat ut</u> opus sordidum facerem nec mihi pecūlium dabat. (ll.158–160)
- Sī quid prāvē fēceram, dominus <u>imperābat ut</u> ego ab aliīs servīs tenērer et verberārer. (ll.160–161)
- Multīs prōmissīs <u>eī persuāsī ut</u> mēcum ex Italiā proficīscerētur, Lydia enim Rōmae vīvere māvult quam in Graeciā. (ll.163–165)
- Certē non laeto animo Romā profecta sum, et difficile fuit <u>mihi</u> <u>persuādēre</u> <u>ut</u> amīcās meās Romānās dēsererem. (ll.172–174)
- Num dominus ille sevērus, quī <u>tibi imperābat ut</u> opus sordidum facerēs, tantum pecūlium tibi dabat prō opere sordidō? (ll.181–183)

Reflexive sē, sibi, suus in indirect command:

Mēdus, quī legere nōn didicit, Lydiae librum reddit <u>eam</u>que <u>rogat</u> <u>ut</u> aliquid <u>sibi</u> legat. (ll.56–57)

Audī igitur quod scrīptum est dē Iaīrō, prīncipe quōdam Iūdaeōrum, quī <u>Iēsum rogāvit ut</u> fīliam <u>suam</u> mortuam suscitāret. (ll.64–66)

Nec prōmissīs sōlīs Mēdus <u>mihi persuāsit ut sēcum</u> venīrem, sed etiam dōnō pulcherrimō. (ll.174–175)

Purpose/final clause: $ut/n\bar{e}$ + subjunctive (finalis - e < finis, "end," "purpose"):

Praedōnēs maritimī quī nāvēs persequuntur, <u>ut</u> mercēs et pecūniam rapiant nautāsque occīdant. (ll.132–134)

Ōstiā igitur hanc nāvem cōnscendimus, <u>ut</u> in Graeciam nāvigārēmus. (ll.165–167)

Sed herī ē vīllā fūgī, <u>ut</u> verbera vītārem, atque <u>ut</u> amīcam meam vidērem ac semper cum eā essem. (ll.161–163)

Result/consecutive clause: *ut* + subjunctive:

Tanta ūnīus deī potestās nōn est. Nam trēs diī, Neptūnus, Iūppiter, Plūtō, mundum ūniversum <u>ita</u> inter sē dīvīsērunt, <u>ut</u> Iūppiter rēx caelī esset, rēx maris esset Neptūnus, Plūtō autem rēgnāret apud Īnferōs, ubi animae mortuōrum velut umbrae versārī dīcuntur. (ll.85–89)

Num quis <u>tam</u> stultus est <u>ut</u> ista vēra esse crēdat? (ll.90–91) Num tū <u>tam</u> stultus es <u>ut</u> haec crēdās? (ll.109–110)

Compare

Indirect statement: *verba dīcendī et sentiendī* \rightarrow accusative + infinitive:

Mihi nēmō persuādēbit hominem super mare ambulāre posse! (ll.110–111)

Nonne id tibi persuāsit eum habēre potestātem maris et ventorum? (ll.115–116)

Studia Romāna

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
                                            report, reputation
    nāvicula, -ae
                                            small boat
    turba, -ae
                                            crowd
    vigilia, -ae
                                            night watch
  2nd
    animus, -ī
                                            mind, emotion, courage
    dictum, -ī
                                            saying
    fretum, -ī
                                            strait, channel
    libellus, -ī
                                            small book
    mundus, -ī
                                            world
    pecūlium, -ī
                                            money (given to slaves), "slave stipend"
    periculum, -i
                                            risk, danger
    phantasma, phantasmatis (n.)
                                            ghost, apparition
    potestās, potestātis (f.)
                                            power, ability
    praedō, praedōnis (m.)
                                            robber, pirate
                                            chief, leader, head man
    prīnceps, prīncipis (m.)
    tībīcen, tībicinis (m.)
                                            flute player
    tranquillitās, tranquillitātis (f.)
                                            tranquility
    vorāgō, vorāginis (f.)
                                            abyss, whirlpool
Verba
  -āre (1)
    (adorō) adorāre, adorāvisse,
                                            adore, worship
       adörātum
    (admīror) admīrārī, admīrātum
                                            wonder at
    (cessō) cessāre, cessāvisse, cessātum
                                            cease, stop
    (memorō) memorāre, memorāvisse,
                                            relate, recall
       memorātum
    (rēgnō) rēgnāre, rēgnāvisse,
                                            rule
       rēgnātum
    (rogō) rogāre, rogāvisse, rogātum
                                            ask
    (salvō) salvāre, salvāvisse, salvātum
                                            make safe
    (spērō) spērāre, spērāvisse, spērātum
                                            hope for
    (suscitō) suscitāre, suscitāvisse,
                                            wake up, rouse
       suscitātum
    (tumultuor) tumultuārī,
                                            make an uproar
       tumultuātum
    (versor) versārī, versātum
                                            move about, be present
    (vītō) vītāre, vītāvisse, vītātum
                                            avoid
  -ēre (2)
    (habeor) habērī, habitum
                                            be held, be considered
```

(impendeō) impendēre,	threaten
impendisse (intr. + dat.) (persuādeō) persuādēre,	persuade, convince
persuāsisse (intr. + dat.)	persuade, convince
-ere (3)	
(apprehendō) apprehendere,	seize
apprehendisse, apprehēnsum	
(disiungō) disiungere, disiūnxisse,	unyoke, separate
disiūnctum	.1
(ēiciō) ēicere, ēiēcisse, ēiectum	throw out, eject
(ēvolvō) ēvolvere, ēvolvisse, ēvolūtum (extendō) extendere, extendisse,	extend
extentum	extend
(morior) morī, mortuum	die
(nāscor) nāscī, nātum	be born
-īre (4)	
(oboediō) oboedīre, -īvisse/	obey
iisse (+ dat.)	•
(pereō) perīre, periisse	perish
(perveniō) pervenīre, pervēnisse	arrive
(serviō) servīre, -īvisse/iisse,	be a slave to, serve
- ītum (+ <i>dat.</i>)	
Irregular	C
(mālō) mālle, māluisse	prefer
Adiectīva	
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)	
attentus, -a, -um	attentive
caecus, -a, -um	blind
claudus, -a, -um	lame mute
mūtus, -a, -um perīculōsus, -a, -um	dangerous
quadrāgēsimus, -a, -um	40th
salvus, -a, -um	safe
surdus, -a, -um	deaf
tūtus, -a, -um	safe
ūniversus, -a, -um	the whole of, entire
3rd	
constans (gen. constantis)	steady, firm
immortālis, -e	immortal
mortālis, -e	mortal
Adverbia	
potius	rather
utrum	whether
Coniūnctiōnēs	
velut	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, \underline{me} miser \underline{um} !" (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 dī bonī! Quid <u>faciāmus</u>?" (ll.198–199)

Sed quōmodo <u>vīvāmus</u> sine pecūniā? Quōmodo cibum et vestem <u>emam</u> īnfantibus meīs? (ll.51–52)

Quid ergō <u>faciam</u>? Ipse dē nāve <u>saliam</u>, an in eādem nāve <u>maneam</u> vōbīscum? (ll.56–57)

Genitive of Value

In order to indicate how much you value something, genitives like *magnī*, *parvī*, *plūris*, *minōris* are used with verbs that evaluate (e.g., *aestimāre* or *facere* in the same sense). Examples:

```
Mercātōrēs mercēs suās \underline{magn\bar{\imath}} aestimant, vītam nautārum \underline{parv\bar{\imath}} aestimant! (ll.6–7)
```

Nonne līberos <u>plūris</u> 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 fīunt. (Cap. XVIII, l.29)
Cum vocābula coniunguntur, sententiae fīunt. (Cap. XVIII,
ll.29–30)
```

• in clauses describing something that happens usually or repeatedly,² e.g.:

```
Semper gaudeō <u>cum</u> dē līberīs meīs cōgit<u>ō</u>. (l.47)
Tū numquam mē salūtābās, <u>cum</u> mē vidē<u>bās</u>. (Cap. XIX, ll.99–100)
```

^{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").

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 <u>videat</u>, hanc fābulam nārrat. (ll.76–77)

Cum iam vītam dēspērā<u>ret</u>, id ūnum ōrāvit. (ll.88-89)

Ānulum abiēcit, <u>cum</u> sēsē nimis fēlīcem esse cēns<u>ēret</u>. (ll.156–157)

Polycratēs, <u>cum</u> ānulum suum recognōsc<u>eret</u>, 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.:

<u>Cum</u> Arīōn ex Italiā in Graeciam nāvigā<u>ret</u> magnāsque dīvitiās sēcum habē<u>ret</u>... (ll.78–80)

<u>Cum</u> haec falsa nārrā<u>rent</u>, Arīōn repente appāruit. (ll.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 <u>erat</u> ista pecūnia?"

"Wasn't that your money?"

(Cap. XXVIII, l.187)

"Modo tē interrogāvī tuane
"I just asked you if that was 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 fābula vēra est?* after *dubitāre* becomes:

dubitō num haec fābula vēra <u>sit</u>. (ll.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, <u>dubitō</u> <u>an</u> īdem nunc tibi quod tunc mihi suādeam.

Consider the implied levels of questions in (ll.105–106):

"Ubi <u>est</u> Arīōn et quid <u>facit</u>?" (direct question)

Scī<u>tisne</u> ubi <u>sit</u> Arīōn et quid <u>faciat</u>? (indirect question)

Rēx eōs interrogat "num sciant ubi sit Arīōn et quid faciat?" (indirect, present main verb)

Rēx eōs interrogāvit "num scī<u>rent</u> ubi <u>esset</u> Arīōn et quid face<u>ret</u>?" (indirect, past main verb)

Notā 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 responde<u>at</u>. (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 <u>ita</u> perturbātus est <u>ut</u> sē interroget... (ll.57–58)

Arīōn tam pulchrē fidibus canēbat ut alter Orpheus appellārētur. (ll.66–67)

An <u>tam</u> ignārus es <u>ut</u> etiam Orpheus tibi ignōtus <u>sit</u>? (ll.67–68)

Is fidicen nōbilissimus fuit quī <u>tam</u> pulchrē <u>canēbat</u> <u>ut</u> bēstiae ferae, nātūram suam oblītae, <u>accēderent</u>. (ll.70–72)

Nautae precibus eius <u>ita permōtī sunt</u> <u>ut</u> manūs quidem ab eō abstinērent. (ll.86–87)

<u>Tanta</u> erat potestās eius, tanta glōria tantaeque dīvitiae, <u>ut</u> nōn sōlum aliī tyrannī, sed etiam dī immortālēs eī <u>invidērent</u>. (ll.158–160)

Piscem cēpit quī <u>tam</u> fōrmōsus erat <u>ut</u> piscātor eum nōn <u>vēnderet</u>. (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	1 0
<i>sīc</i> in this way	adverb	
itaso, in such a	ı way	adverb
adeō	for far, to such an extent	adverb
tam	SO	adverb: only with adjs.
		and other advs.

Under Grammatica Latina, examples are shown of typical ut- 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 ut plus a negative.

	Negative Purpose	Negative Result
thatnot	nē	utnōn
thatno one	nē quis	ut…nēmō
thatnothing	nē quid	ut…nihil
thatnever	nē umquam	utnumquam

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 (l.137)

Partitive Genitive (continued)

A partitive genitive may qualify a pronoun, e.g.:

```
aliquid pecūliī (l.135)
nihil malī (l.157)
quid novī? (Cap. XXXI, ll.2–3)
```

The partitive genitive of *nōs*, *vōs* is *nostrum*, *vestrum*:

nēmō <u>nostrum/vestrum</u> (ll.39, 42–43)

Personal Pronouns (continued from Cap. XX)

There are two forms for the genitive plural of the personal pronouns. The forms $me\bar{\imath}$, $tu\bar{\imath}$, $nostr\bar{\imath}$, $vestr\bar{\imath}$, and $su\bar{\imath}$ (used for singular and plural) are generally used as **objective genitives**, e.g.:

```
amor meī love of me (as opposed to amor meus: my love)timor vestrī 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?)

	1st sing.	1st pl.	2nd sing.	2nd pl.	Reflexive
nom.	ego	nōs	tū	vōs	
acc.	тē	nōs	tē	vōs	sē
gen.	meī	nostrī/nostrum	tuī	vestrī/vestrum	suī
gen. dat.	mihi	nōbīs	tibi	vōbīs	sibi
abl.	тē	nōbīs	tē	vōbīs	sē

Compound Verbs

Many verbs are formed with **prefixes**, mostly prepositions. Examples in this chapter:

dē-terrēre	per-movēre
ā-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:

<i>facere</i> is formed	af-, cōn-, ef-, per-f <u>i</u> cere
c <u>a</u> pere	ac-, in-, re-c <u>i</u> pere
r <u>a</u> pere	ē-, sur-r <u>i</u> pere
s <u>a</u> līre	dē-s <u>i</u> līre
f <u>a</u> tērī	cōn-f <u>i</u> tērī
t <u>e</u> nēre	abs-, con-, re-t <u>i</u> nēre
premere	im-primere

Similarly, in compounds, *iacere* becomes *-iicere*, but the spelling *ii* is avoided by writing *-icere*, e.g.:

Recēnsiō: Indicative/Subjunctive

Indicative

Ut Orpheus cantū suō ferās ad sē alliciēbat, ita³ tunc Arīōn canendō piscēs allēxit ad nāvem. (ll.93–95)

Subitō mercātor ē dīvitissimō 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 trīstitiā 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)

Nonne līberos plūris aestimās quam mercēs istās? (ll.26-27)

Sī fūrtum fēcī, tuā 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 pecūniā suā in Italiā ēmerat 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! (ll.34–35)

Mercēs iēcimus ut nōs omnēs salvī essēmus. (ll.36–37)

Orpheus etiam ad Īnferōs dēscendit ut uxōrem suam mortuam inde redūceret.... Sed perge nārrāre dē Arīone. (ll.73–75)

Verba Postulandī

Nolī tū mē consolārī quī ipse imperāvistī ut mercēs meae iacerentur! (ll.30-32)

Quid iuvat deōs precārī ut rēs āmissae tibi reddantur? Frūstrā hoc precāris. (ll.54–55)

Sed tamen imperāvērunt ut statim in mare dēsilīret! (ll.87–88) At nōlīte mē monēre ut laetus sim, postquam omnia mihi ēripuistis! (ll.43–45)

Hāc fābulā monēmur ut semper bonō animō sīmus nēve umquam dē 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. (ll.81–83)

Itaque gubernātor imperat ut nāvis rēmīs agātur. (l.193)

Studia Romana

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 Euxīnī*, a Latin translation of

Περίπλους τοῦ Εὐξείνου Πόντου, a travel narrative about sailing around the 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 dē Officiīs (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
                                              fortune
    fortūna, -ae
    iactūra, -ae
                                              throwing away, loss
    invidia, -ae
                                              envy, ill will
    laetitia, -ae
                                              happiness
                                              sadness
    trīstitia, -ae
    vīta, -ae
                                              life
  2nd
    beneficium, -ī
                                              good deed
    delphīnus, -ī
                                              dolphin
    dorsum, -ī
                                              back
    fundus, -ī
                                              bottom
    fūrtum, -ī
                                              theft
    lucrum, -ī
                                              profit
    maleficium, -ī
                                              evil deed
    rēmus, -ī
                                              oar
    tyrannus, -ī
                                              tyrant
  3rd
    carmen, carminis (n.)
                                              song, poem
    fēlīcitās, fēlīcitātis (f.)
                                              happiness
    fidēs, fidium (f. pl.)
                                              lyre
    fidicen, fidicinis (f.)
                                              lyre-player
    fūr, fūris (m.)
                                              thief
    nāvigātiō, nāvigātiōnis (f.)
                                              sailing
                                              fisherman
    piscātor, piscātōris (m.)
    salūs, salūtis (f.)
                                              safety
  4th
    cantus, -ūs (m.)
                                              song
  5th
    spēs, -eī (f.)^4
                                              hope
Verba
  -āre (1)
    (aestimō) aestimāre, -āvisse, -ātum
                                              value, estimate
    (appropinquō) appropinquāre,
                                              approach
       -\bar{a}visse (intr. + dat.)
    (dēspērō) dēspērāre, -āvisse, -ātum
                                              lose hope
```

^{4.} Like $r\bar{e}s$ (Cap. XIV), $sp\bar{e}s$ has a short \check{e} in the genitive and dative singular (see Cap. XIII for the rules): $sp\bar{e}s$, $sp\check{e}\bar{i}$.

give, present with
disturb
pray, beg
cut
keep off
-
appear
confess
deter
envy, grudge
7,88
move deeply
remain
be aghast
advise
udvisc
throw away
add
affect, stir
attract lose
pull off
snatch away, deprive
put out, expose
spare
allow, permit
complain
complain
recognize
lead back
lead back
ataa1
steal
:
jump down
finish

Irregular (subeō) subīre, subiisse	undergo
Adiectīva	
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)	
celsus, -a, -um	tall, high
ignārus, -a, -um	ignorant, unaware
ignōtus, -a, -um	unknown
maestus, -a, -um	sad
mīrus, -a, -um	surprising, strange
nōtus, -a, -um	known
pretiōsus, -a, -um	precious
rapidus, -a, -um	rapid
3rd	
fallāx (gen. fallācis)	false, deceitful
fēlīx (gen. fēlīcis)	lucky, fortunate
nōbilis, -e	well-known, famous
vēlōx (gen. vēlōcis)	swift
Prōnōmina	
nōnnūllī, -ae, -a	several
sēsē	intensive form of sē
Adverbia	
frūstrā	in vain
inde	from there
nōnnumquam	often
prōtinus	immediately, at once
quasi	as if
repente	suddenly
1	,

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. vās
- 3. Adjectives
 - a. Distributive Numbers
- 4. Adverbs from 3rd Declension Adjectives (continued)

Convivium (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 *triclīnium*, 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 *ūtī*, *ūsum esse* (Cap. XXIII) the deponent verb *fruī* ("delight in," "enjoy") takes the ablative:

Ego numquam \bar{i} nstr \bar{u} ment \bar{o} \bar{v} ustic \bar{o} \bar{u} sus sum. (1.38) \bar{o} ti \bar{o} fruor (1.23)

Orontēs...vītā rūsticā nōn fruitur (1.35) cotīdiē bonō vīnō fruor (1.59)

Adverbs from 3rd Declension Adjectives (continued)

3rd declension adjectives in -ns form adverbs in -nter, e.g.:

```
constans -ant|is \rightarrow constanter (contraction of constantiter) prūdēns -ent|is \rightarrow prūdenter dīligēns -ent|is \rightarrow dīligenter patiens -entis \rightarrow patienter
```

Examples:

```
dīlige<u>nter</u> cūrō ut colōnī agrōs meōs bene colant. (ll.33–34)
Prūde<u>nter</u> facis. (l.35)
Patie<u>nter</u> exspectā, dum servī lectōs sternunt. (l.82; cf. Cap. XXXIII, l.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 $\bar{u}nus$, duo, $tr\bar{e}s$, but the numbers $singul\bar{t}$, $b\bar{t}n\bar{t}$, $tern\bar{t}$:

In <u>singulīs</u> lectīs aut <u>singulī</u> aut <u>bīnī</u> aut <u>ternī</u> convīvae accubāre solent.

Dinner guests usually recline on individual couches in ones or twos or threes. (ll.74–75)

These distributive numerals:

- are adjectives of the 1st/2nd declension
- all end in $-\underline{n}|\bar{i}$ -ae -a, except $singul|\bar{i}$ -ae -a
- are used when the same number is used repetitively, that is, applies to more than one person or thing, e.g.:

```
bis \underline{b\bar{i}na} (2×2) sunt quattuor
bis \underline{terna} (2×3) sunt sex
In vocābulīs "mea" et "tua" sunt \underline{ternae} litterae et \underline{b\bar{i}nae} 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 parā<u>verit</u> 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 pōtā<u>veritis</u>, 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 er|\bar{o} \sim eri|mus
2nd \sim eri|s \sim eri|tis
3rd \sim eri|t \sim eri|nt
```

• Passive: the perfect participle and the future of *esse* (*erō*, *eris*, *erit*, etc.), e.g.:

Brevī cēna parā<u>ta</u> et triclīnium ōrnā<u>tum erit</u>. (ll.84–85; cf. l.14)

This tense is especially common in conditional clauses (beginning with $s\bar{i}$) 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 intr<u>ēmus!</u> Let us enter the dining room! (ll.86–87)

At table he raises his glass with the words:

Ergō bibāmus! Therefore, let us drink! (l.120)

The forms *intrēmus* and *bibāmus* are the present subjunctive (1st pers. pl.) of *intrāre* 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. -im (sitim patī, l.55)

abl. -\bar{i} (sit\bar{i} per\bar{i}re, l.57)
```

 $V\bar{a}s$, $v\bar{a}s|is$ n. follows the 3rd declension in the singular but the 2nd declension in the plural: $v\bar{a}s|a$, $-\bar{o}rum$ (l.93: $ex\ v\bar{a}s\bar{i}s$ $aure\bar{i}s$).

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 aspergeresprinkle food with salt (l.111)sālem carnī aspergeresprinkle 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. (ll.143–144)

Cum iterative: Indicative

Nec vērō omnēs mercātōrēs domī remanent, cum mercēs eōrum nāvibus vehuntur. (Cap. XXIX, ll.8–9)

Cum igitur paucissimī sunt convīvae, nōn pauciōrēs sunt quam trēs, cum plūrimī, nōn plūrēs quam novem—nam ter ternī sunt novem. (ll.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. (ll.40–42)
- "Haec carō valdē mihi placet," inquit Fabia cum prīmum carnem gustāvit. (ll.106–107)
- Cum prīmum meum vīnum pōtāveritis, Falernum pōtābitis! (ll.145–146)

Cum circumstantial: Subjunctive

Cum Arīōn, nōbilissimus suī temporis fidicen, ex Italiā in Graeciam nāvigāret magnāsque dīvitiās sēcum habēret, nautae pauperēs, quī hominī dīvitī invidēbant, eum necāre cōnstituērunt. (Cap. XXIX, ll.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, ll.106–109)

Cum causal: Subjunctive

- Gubernātor, cum omnēs attentōs videat, hanc fābulam nārrat. (Cap. XXIX, ll.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, ll.187–188)
- Ānulum abiēcit, cum sēsē nimis fēlīcem 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 sitī moriēbātur, cum cibus quoque et pōtiō, simul atque ā rēge tācta erat, aurum fieret. (Cap. XXXI, ll.38–42)
- Opus non est vetus exemplum Graecum afferre, cum complūres fābulae nārrentur puerīs quī ita servātī sunt. (Cap. XXXI, ll.154–156)

Studia Romāna

Julius joins his guests after bathing: $Tum\ l\bar{u}lius\ lautus\ et\ nov\bar{a}\ veste\ ind\bar{u}tus\ intrat\ (l.15).\ Lautus, -a, -um$ is a perfect passive participle from $lav\bar{a}re$, to wash, bathe (the verb has three variations of the participle; in Cap. XXII, you met $lav\bar{a}tum$, the participle you would expect from $lav\bar{a}re^1$). Lautus is rarely used to

^{1.} The third variation on the participle's form is *lōtum*.

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 *lavātrīna*, 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 *apodȳtērium*; from there, one 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 īmus, 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 īmō), and the guest of honor would sit on the lowest position (to the far left of the couch) on the lectus medius (called īmus in mediō)—that is, next to the host.

The *cēna* (lines 100–103) consists of the three courses described in Cap. XXIV, beginning with eggs for the appetizer (*gustātiō*), moving on to fish

^{2.} In the singular, baths are neuter (baleum); in the plural, usually feminine (balneae), although the neuter plural is also found.

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.185–186: *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* (l.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
                                              dinner
    cēna, -ae
    convīva, -ae (m./f.)
                                              dinner guest
                                              kitchen
    culīna, -ae
  2nd
    argentum, -ī
                                              silver
    balneum, -ī
                                              bath
    bonum, -ī
                                              blessing, a good
    cocus, -ī
                                              cook
                                              dinner party
    convīvium, -ī
                                              unmixed wine
    merum, -ī
    minister, -rī
                                              attendant (cf. magister)
    triclīnium, -ī
                                              dining room
  3rd
    carō, carnis (f.)
                                              meat
    famēs, famis (f.)
                                              hunger
    genus, generis (n.)
                                              kind, sort
    holus, holeris (n.)
                                              vegetable
    hospes, hospitis (m./f.)
                                              guest, stranger
    iter, itineris (n.)
                                              journey, trip
    mel, mellis (n.)
                                              honey
    nux, nucis (f.)
                                              nut
    sāl, salis (n.)
                                              salt
    sitis, sitis (f.; acc. sitim)
                                              thirst
    vās, vāsis (n.) (pl. vāsa, -ōrum)
                                              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,
                                            fill up
       -plētum
    (misceō) miscere, miscuisse, mixtum mix
    (placeō) placēre, placuisse,
                                            please
       placitum (intr. + dat.)
    (salvēre iubeō)
                                            greet
                                            recline at the table
    (accumbō) accumbere, accubuisse
    (aspergō) aspergere, aspersisse,
                                            sprinkle/strew on
       aspersum
    (contrahō) contrahere, -trāxisse,
                                            contract
       -tractum
    (coquō) coquere, coxisse, coctum
                                            cook
    (ēligō) ēligere, ēlēgisse, ēlectum
                                            pick out, choose
    (fruor) fruī, fructum (+ abl.)
                                            enjoy
    (fundō) fundere, fūdisse, fūsum
                                            pour
    (recipiō) recipere, recēpisse,
                                            receive
       receptum
    (requiēscō) requiēscere
    (sternō) sternere, strāvisse, strātum
                                            spread, strew
    (vīsō) vīsere
                                            go to see, visit
  -ire (4)
    (exhauriō) exhaurīre, exhausisse,
                                            drain, drink up
       exhaustum
  Irregular
    (praesum) praeesse, praefuisse
                                            be in charge over
       (intr. + dat.)
    (perferō) perferre, pertulisse,
                                            carry through
       perlātum
    (profero) proferre, protulisse,
                                            bring forward
       prölätum
```

Adiectīva	
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)	
acerbus, -a, -um	bitter
acūtus, -a, -um	sharp
argenteus, -a, -um	made of silver
bīnī, -ae, -a	two at a time
calidus, -a, -um	hot
glōriōsus, -a, -um	full of glory
īmus, -a, -um	bottom of
inexspectātus, -a, -um	unexpected
iūcundus, -a, -um	pleasant, agreeable
lībertīnus, -a, -um	freed
medius, -a, -um	middle of
merus, -a, -um	unmixed, pure
molestus, -a, -um	annoying
singulī, -ae, -a	one at a time
tardus, -a, -um	late, tardy
ternī, -ae, -a	three at a time
3rd	
dīligēns (gen. dīligentis)	careful, accurate
dulcis, -e	sweet
Adverbia	
dēmum	finally
diū	for a long time
equidem	indeed
paulisper	for a short time
prīdem	some time ago, previously
sānē	certainly, truly
Praepositiones	
circiter (prp. + acc.)	around, near (adv. approximately)

XXXI. Inter Pocula

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. Whoever breathes is alive.

(Cap. X, ll.48-49)

Quod Mārcus dīcit vērum What (or whatever) Marcus

non est. 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! (l.196)
Dabō tibi quidquid optāveris. (l.29)
```

Qui<u>d</u>quid is often changed to qui<u>c</u>quid 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 <u>scrībet</u> dē rēbus urbānīs, nisi prius ipse epistulam <u>scrīpseris</u>. (ll.7–8)
```

"<u>Dabō</u> tibi," inquit, "quidquid <u>optāveris</u>." Statim Midās. "Ergō dā mihi," inquit, "potestātem quidquid <u>tetigerō</u> in aurum mūtandī." (ll.29–31)

Profectō eum <u>verberābō</u> atque omnibus modīs <u>cruciābō</u>, sī eum <u>invēnerō</u> priusquam Italiam <u>relīquerit</u>. Nisi pecūniam mihi <u>reddiderit</u>, in cruce <u>fīgētur</u>! (ll.63–66)

Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

Ōdisse

The defective verb $\bar{o}d\underline{i}sse$ ("to hate") has no present stem, but the perfect has present force: $\bar{o}d\bar{\iota}$ ("I hate") is the opposite of $am\bar{\varrho}$; $\bar{o}disse$ and its opposite, $am\bar{a}re$, are contrasted in $Serv\bar{\iota}$ dominum $cl\bar{e}mentem$ $am\underline{ant}$, $sev\bar{e}rum$ $\bar{o}d\underline{e}runt$ (ll.93–94).

Cf. $n\bar{o}visse$ (Cap. XXIV), perfect of $n\bar{o}scere$ ("get to know"), meaning "know": $n\bar{o}v\bar{i}$, "I know."

Cōram/Super

The preposition *cōram* ("in the presence of," "before") takes the ablative:

```
c\bar{o}ram\ exercit\bar{u}\ (1.122)
```

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 (l.147)
super fēminā falsā et īnfidā (l.200)
```

^{1.} The future perfect is here used with a present tense main verb as $potest\bar{a}tem\ m\bar{u}tand\bar{\imath}=poter\bar{o}\ m\bar{u}t\bar{a}re.$

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 1st/2nd declension (ama|nd|us, -a, -um < amāre)
- is passive in meaning
- expresses what a person or thing is fit for (*fēminae 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 lauda<u>ndus</u> (< laudāre) worthy of praise, a praise-

worthy or hardworking pupil

liber legendus (< *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 īnfantem exposuit ipse neca<u>ndus est</u>! (ll.132–133): "should/must be killed"

Ille servus nōn pūni<u>endus</u>, sed potius lauda<u>ndus fuit</u>. (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 ab + 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! We must drink!

Tacendum est! It is necessary to be quiet! (1.178)

Dormiendum omnibus est! Everyone must sleep!

Remember:

- Gerund: active noun used only in the accusative, genitive, dative, and ablative of the neuter singular.
- Gerund<u>ive</u>: pass<u>ive</u> adject<u>ive</u> with all forms of 1st/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)

Vīvat fortissimus quisque! Vīvant omnēs fēminae amandae! (ll.172–173)

"Quisquis amat vale<u>at!</u> Per<u>eat</u> quī nescit amāre! Bis tantō per<u>eat</u> quisquis amāre vetat!" (ll.196–197, per-<u>eat</u> is the present subjunctive of per-<u>īre</u>)

• **Hortatory** (see Cap. XXX): an expression of encouragement or exhortation in the 1st person plural ("let us")

Gaude<u>āmus</u> atque am<u>ēmus</u>! Let us re

Let us rejoice and let us love! (1.173)

Vīv<u>āmus</u> omnēs et bib<u>āmus</u>. (ll.183–184) Pōcula funditus exhauri<u>āmus</u>. (l.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, pōculumWhoever loves women, lettollat 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

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! (l.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 semi-deponent verb *audēre*, for example, has an active form in the present (*audeō*, *audēre*), but its form is passive in the perfect: *ausum esse* (to have dared):

Ille iuvenis fēminam illam pulcherrimam abdūcere <u>ausus est</u>. (ll.168–169)

Perterritus Quīntus cultrum medicī sentit in bracchiō, nec oculōs aperīre <u>audet</u>. (Cap. XI, ll.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 love-sick 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 Romāna

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 (*ēxpōnere*) 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

^{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.

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 *Fābulae*, a simplistic compendium of Greek mythology probably from the second century AD.⁴ Also thought to be from the second century AD is the *Bibliothēkē* (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 seventh–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, dē Rosciō Amerīnō, 70.5: [Solōn] cum interrogārētur cūr nūllum supplicium cōnstituisset in eum quī 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). 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
  iniūria, -ae
                                          injury, injustice
  memoria, -ae
                                          memory
                                          trifles
  nūgae, -ārum
  parricīda, -ae (m./f.)
                                          murderer of a near relative or head
                                          of state
  poena, -ae
                                          punishment
  praemium, -ī
                                          reward
  supplicium, -ī
                                          punishment
```

^{4.} The story of Midas is Hyginus 191 and of Paris, 91.

^{5.} Justinian's Digest 48.9: Poena parricīdiī mõre maiōrum haec īnstitūta est, ut parricīda uirgīs sanguineīs uerberātus deinde culleō īnsuātur cum cane, gallō gallīnāceō et uīperā et sīmiā: deinde in mare profundum culleus iactātur.

```
3rd
    crux, crucis (f.)
                                              cross
    iūs, iūris (n.)
                                              law, right; also gravy, soup
    iuvenis, iuvenis (m./f.)
                                              young person (not an i-stem)
    lēx, lēgis (f.)
                                              law, motion, bill
    mōs, mōris (m.)
                                              custom, habit; pl. 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-stem)
  5th
    fidēs, -eī6
                                              loyalty, good faith
Verba
  -āre (1)
    (cruciō) cruciāre, cruciāvisse,
                                              torture
       cruciātum
                                              train, educate, rear
    (ēducō) ēducāre, ēducāvisse,
       ēducātum
    (fābulor) fābulārī, fābulātum
                                              chat, tell a story
    (interpellō) interpellāre,
                                              interrupt, break in
       interpellävisse, interpellätum
                                              choose, wish for
    (optō) optāre, optāvisse, optātum
    (vetō) vetāre, vetuisse, vetitum
                                              forbid
  -ēre (2)
                                             lie hidden, lurk
    (lateō) latēre, latuisse
  -ere (3)
    (abdūcō) abdūcere, abdūxisse,
                                             lead away, carry off
       abductum
    (aufugiō) aufugere, aufūgisse
                                              run away, escape
    (confido) confidere,
                                              trust
       confisum (+ dat.)
    (fīdō) fīdere, fīsum (+ dat.)
                                              trust, rely on
    (ignōscō) ignōscere, ignōvisse,
                                              forgive
       ignōtum (+ dat.)
    (ōdī) ōdisse, ōsum
                                              hate
                                              draw back, withdraw
    (retrahō) retrahere, retrāxisse,
       retractum
    (statuō) statuere, statuisse, statūtum
                                             fix, determine
  Irregular
    (auferō) auferre, abstulisse, ablātum
                                             carry off
```

^{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*, *fideī*.

```
Adiectīva
  1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)
    asinīnus, -a, -um
                                            asinine
                                            greedy
    avārus, -a, -um
    ēbrius, -a, -um
                                            drunk
                                            loyal, faithful
    fīdus, -a, -um
                                            fugitive
    fugitīvus, -a, -um
    īnfīdus, -a, -um
                                            treacherous
    iniūstus, -a, -um
                                            unjust
    invalidus, -a, -um
                                            weak
    iūstus, -a, -um
                                            just
    nimius, -a, -um
                                            too big
                                            ninetieth
    nōnāgēsimus, -a, -um
                                            wicked
    scelestus, -a, -um
  3rd
    clēmēns (gen. clēmentis)
                                            merciful
    crūdēlis, -e
                                            cruel
    dēbilis, -e
                                            weak
    impatiens (gen. impatientis)
                                            impatient
    īnfēlīx (gen. īnfēlīcis)
                                            unlucky
    praesēns (gen. praesentis)
                                            present
    sapiēns (gen. sapientis)
                                            wise
    vetus (gen. veteris)
                                            old
Prōnōmina
    quisquis, quidquid
                                            whoever, whatever, each, all
Adverbia
    aliquantum (adv.)
                                            to some extent
    funditus
                                            utterly (from the root)
    ideō
                                            for that reason
                                            for in fact (strong nam)
    namque
                                            too much
    nimium/nimis (adv.)
                                            before, sooner, rather
    priusquam
                                            so much as, as much as
    quantum (as adv.)
    quamobrem
                                            why? therefore
Praepositiones
    c\bar{o}ram (prp. + abl.)
                                            in the presence of, face to face (with)
                                            (also adv.)
    super(prp. + abl.)
                                            over (also adv.)
```

XXXII. Classis Romāna

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 *ut*-clause with the subjunctive telling what happens; the *ut*-clause is the subject of *fit*:

Rārō <u>fit ut</u> nāvis praedōnum in marī internō appār<u>eat</u>. (ll.42-43)

Ablative

of Description

A noun + adjective in the ablative can be used to describe a quality (*ablātīvus quālitātis* or **ablative of description**):

```
tantā audāciā sunt (l.49)
bonō animō esse (Cap. XXIX, ll.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:

```
servitūt<u>e</u> līberābantur (l.6)
Quid opus est arm<u>īs</u>? (l.78)
...seu pecūni<u>ā</u> seu ali<u>ā</u> r<u>ē</u> mihi opus erit. (l.118)
Quid verb<u>īs</u> opus est? (l.195)
```

Vīs

The noun *vīs* ("strength," "force," "violence") has only three forms in the singular:

```
nom. vīs acc. vim (l.13) abl. vī (l.77)
```

The plural vīrēs, vīrium means physical strength:

Nautae omnibus vīribus rēmigant. (l.53, ll.65-66)

Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

Verbs of Remembering and Forgetting

In Cap. XXV, you learned *oblīvīscī* can take a genitive as object:

```
Non facile est <u>amoris</u> <u>antīquī</u> oblīvīscī. (Cap. XXV, l.128)
Numquam <u>beneficiī</u> oblītus sum. (l.26)
```

Its opposites, *reminīscī* and *meminisse*, meaning "to remember," also can take a genitive as an object:

```
Nec vērō quidquam difficilius esse vidētur quam benefici<u>ōrum</u> meminisse. (ll.125–126)
<u>Eius</u> tempor<u>is</u> reminīscor. (ll.155–156)
```

Like *oblīvīscī*, 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 \bar{o} disse (Cap. XXXI), has no present stem: the perfect form $memin\bar{i}$ ("I remember") is the opposite of $obl\bar{i}tus\ sum$ ("I have forgotten").

Velle

The present subjunctive of *velle*:

Indicative		Subjunc	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.	~eri m
2nd	~eri s
3rd	\sim eri $ t$
1st pl.	~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 $\sim er\bar{o}$).

^{1.} First seen in Cap. XXIX: $Modo\ t\bar{e}\ interrog\bar{a}v\bar{\imath}\ tuane\ \underline{esset}\ pec\bar{u}nia\ (ll.127–128)$ and $dubit\bar{o}\ num\ haec\ f\bar{a}bula\ v\bar{e}ra\ \underline{sit}\ (ll.116–117).$

In the **passive**, the perfect subjunctive is composed of the perfect participle and the present subjunctive of *esse* (*sim*, *sīs*, *sit*, etc.):

Iūlius dubitat num Mārcus ā magistrō laudā<u>tus sit</u> (= 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	ferar
	ferās	ferāris
	ferat	ferātur
	ferāmus	ferāmur
	ferātis	ferāmini
	ferant	ferantur
Imperfect	ferrem	ferrer
	ferrēs	ferrēris
	ferret	ferrētur
	ferrēmus	ferrēmur
	ferrētis	ferrēmini
	ferrent	ferrentur
Perfect	tulerim	lātus, -a sim
	tuleris	lātus, -a sīs
	tulerit	lātus, -a, -um sit
	tulerimus	lātī, -ae sīmus
	tuleritis	lātī, -ae sītis
	tulerint	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

Incomplete Action Completed Action

present future present subjunctive perfect subjunctive past tense imperfect subjunctive (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 (l.84)

Nesciō quī poēta ista scrīpserit. (l.106)

Mīror unde pecūniam sūmpseris ut aliōs redimerēs. (ll.132–133)

Ego mīror cūr id mihi nōn nārrāveris. (l.134)

Sed nesciō cūr hoc vōbīs nārrāverim. (ll.154–155)

Scīsne quantum pīrātae ā Iūliō Caesare captō postulāverint? (ll.168–169)

Mīlitēs ignōrant quī homō sīs et quid anteā fēceris. (ll.215–216)

Iamne oblītus es quid modo dīxeris? (l.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. (l.137)

Sēstertius

After *mīlia*, the partitive genitive plural of *sēstertius* has the shorter ending *-um* in instead of *-ōrum*:

decem mīlia sēsterti<u>um</u> (ll.91, cf. l.170)

Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)

Perfect Subjunctive in Prohibitions (Negative Command)

With $n\bar{e}$, the 2nd person of this tense expresses a prohibition:

Nē tim<u>ueris!</u> Nē tim<u>ueritis!</u> (ll.215, 199 = nōlī/nōlīte timēre!)

Nē dēspērāveris! (l.162)

Nē eum abiēceris! (1.182)

Nē oblīta sīs mē servum fugitīvum esse. (ll.211-212)

^{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*).

Remember: As you learned in Cap. XX, prohibitions can also be expressed with $n\bar{o}l\bar{i}/n\bar{o}l\bar{i}te$ 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 patriamMay I sometime see myvideam!country as a free man! (l.157)Utinam ille ānulus vītam tuamMay that ring save your life!servet!(ll.182–182)

Utinam salvī in Graeciam perveni<u>ant</u>! (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 nē pīrātae mē occīdant! (ll.179–180)

Clauses Expressing Fear

An expression of fear that something may happen implies a wish that it may <u>not</u> happen; this is why the construction with verbs expressing fear, *timēre*, *metuere*, and *verērī* might seem counterintuitive:

• A fear that something <u>will</u> happen is expressed by $n\bar{e}$ + subjunctive, e.g.:

Timeō <u>nē</u> pīrātae mē occīd<u>ant</u>. I fear

I fear the pirates may kill me.

• A fear that something <u>will not</u> happen is expressed with *ut* + subjunctive, e.g.:

Timeō <u>ut</u> ille ven<u>iat</u>.

I fear he may not come.

If you separate the two clauses, you can see how the sentences work:

Timeō (I am afraid) <u>nē</u> pīrātae mē occīd<u>ant</u> (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, severalquandō?when?ali-quandō: at some timeor other, once

quantum? how much? ali-quantum: a certain

amount

quis? quid? who? what? ali-quis, ali-quid: someone,

something

Recall, however, that *quis*, *quid* is used (without *ali-*) as an indefinite pronoun after $s\bar{i}$, $nis\bar{i}$, num, and $n\bar{e}$ (Cap. XXII):

Nihil cuiquam nārrāvī dē eā rē, <u>nē quis</u> mē glōriōsum exīstimāret. (ll.135–136)

Vērum hōc ānulō <u>sī quis</u> servārī potest, nōn ego, sed amīca mea servanda est. (ll.180–181)

Recēnsiō: "Qu" words

aliquī, aliqua, aliquod some (indefinite adj.)

aliquis, aliquid someone, something (indefinite

pronoun)

quī, quae, quod who, which, he who (relative pronoun)

quī, quae, quod (...?) what, which (interrogative adj.)

quia because (conjunction)

quid what, anything (*n*. of **quis**, below)

quid (...?) why (adv.)

quīdam, quadam, quoddam a certain, some (*indefinite pronoun*)

quidem indeed, certainly (adv.)

nē...quidem not even (*adv.*)

quidnī (...?) why not (*interrogative adv.*)

quisquis, quidquid/quicquid whatever, anything that (indefinite

pronoun)

quis, quae, quid (...?)who, what (interrogative pronoun)quis, quid (si/num/ne...)anyone, anything (= aliquis)quisnam, quidnam (...?)whoever?/whatever? (strengthened)

interrogative)

quisquam, quidquam anyone, anything (indefinite pronoun)

quisque, quaeque, quodqueeach (distributive pronoun)quisquis, quidquidwhoever/whatever, anyone who/anything who (generalizing relative)

pronoun)

quō where (to) (adv.)

quodbecause, that (= quia) (conjunction)quodwhat, which, that which (n. of relative)

quī above)

quōmodo how (adv.)

quoniam as, since (conjunction) **quoque** also, too (adv.)

quot (...?) how many (interrogative and relative

adj.)

Studia Romāna

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 *Arīminum* 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 mē 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 (*fugitīvāriī*) 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, *Dig*est 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 mē studiō ut in hāc rē etiam ēlabōrēs (= labōrēs): Dionysius, servus meus, quī meam bibliothēcen³ 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 aliī Narōnae (at Narona) vīdērunt, sed cum sē ā 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 mē ā tē 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
                                               friendship
    audācia, -ae
                                               boldness
                                               favor, gratitude, thanks (pl.)
    grātia, -ae
    incola, -ae (m./f.)
                                               inhabitant
                                               lack
    inopia, -ae
    pīrāta, -ae (m.)
                                               pirate
    poēta, -ae (m.)
                                               poet
    victōria, -ae
                                               victory
  2nd
    amphitheatrum, -ī
                                               amphitheater
    populus, -ī
                                               the people (not a person)
    talentum, -ī
                                               a talent (sum of money)
  3rd
    classis, classis (f.)
                                               fleet
                                               agreement, contract, condition
    condiciō, condicōnis (f.)
    gēns, gentis (f.)
                                               tribe, nation
    servitūs, servitūtis (f.)
                                               slavery
    victor, victōris (m.)
                                               victor
    vīrēs, vīrium (f. pl.)
                                               strength
    vīs ( f.)
                                               force, power
    voluntās, voluntātis (f.)
                                               will, desire, good will
```

^{3.} Bibliothēcen: Greek βιβλιοθήκη, Latin bibliothēcam.

4th	
cursus, -ūs (m.)	running, forward movement; course
Verba	,
-āre (1)	
(adiuvō) adiuvāre, adiūvisse, adiūtum	help
(armō) armāre, armāvisse, armātum	arm
(minor) minārī, minātum	threaten
(rēmigō) rēmigāre, rēmigāvisse,	row back
rēmigātum	Tow buck
(repugnō) repugnāre, repugnāvisse	fight back (mostly intr.)
-ēre (2)	ingine owen (incomy vivivi)
(dissuādeō) dissuādēre, dissuāsisse	dissuade
(tueor) tueri, tuitum and tutum	see, watch, protect
-ere (3)	oce, waters, protect
(contemnō) contemnere,	think little of, scorn
contempsisse, contemptum	tilling fittle of, seein
(dēsistō) dēsistere, dēstitisse	leave off, cease
(ēducō) ēdūcere, ēdūxisse, ēductum	lead out
(flectō) flectere, flexisse, flectum	bend
(meminī) meminisse (+ gen. or acc.)	keep in mind, remember
(praepōnō) praepōnere,	put (acc.) before (dat.), in charge of
praeposuisse, praepositum	T () (),
(percurrō) percurrisse, percursum	run through
(redimō) redimere, redēmisse,	buy back
redēmptum	,
(reminīscor) reminīscī	call to mind, recollect
(+ gen. or acc.)	
(submergō) submergere, -mersisse,	sink, submerge
-mersum	
Irregular	
(offerō) offerre, obtulisse, oblātum	offer, present
(praeferō) praeferre, praetulisse,	prefer
praelātum	
(referō) referre, rettulisse, relātum	bring back, return
Adiectīva	
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)	
adversus, -a, -um	opposed, adverse
cārus, -a, -um	dear
cūnctus, -a, -um	all
ēgregius, -a, -um	outstanding
grātus, -a, -um	grateful, pleasing
īnfēstus, -a, -um	dangerous
internus, -a, -um	internal, domestic
mercātōrius, -a, -um	mercantile

mūtuus, -a, -umon loannūbilus, -a, -umcloudyproximus, -a, -umclosestsuperbus, -a, -umlofty, arrogant

3rd

commūnis, -eshared, commoninermis, -e(in + arm) unarmed

vīlis, -e cheap

Adverbia

aliquandō some time or other, finally

aliquot some, several

donec until etiamnunc even now interea meanwhile

ubīqueanywhere, everywhereutinamif that, only that, would that

Coniūnctiones

neu or not, and not (nēve...nēve)

seu or if, or (sive...sive)

XXXIII. Exercitus Romanus

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 $d\bar{e}n\bar{i}$, -ae, -a (1.2)
- 4 quaternī, -ae, -a (1.3)
- 5 quīnī, -ae, -a (1.3)
- 6 *sēnī*, -ae, -a (1.3)

Nouns that occur only in the plural, i.e., *pluralia tantum*, use distributive numbers, e.g.:

 $\underline{b\bar{i}na}$ castra two camps $\underline{b\bar{i}nae}$ litterae (= duae epistulae)

When distributive numbers are used with nouns that are *plūrālia tantum*, $\bar{u}n\bar{i}$, -ae, -a and $tr\bar{i}n\bar{i}$, -ae, -a are used instead of *singulī*, -ae, -a and $tern\bar{i}$, -ae, -a, e.g.:

<u>ũnae</u> litterae (= ũna epistula) <u>trīnae</u> litterae (= trēs epistulae)

Quaeris ā mē cūr tibi <u>ūnās</u> tantum <u>litterās</u> scrīpserim, cum interim <u>trīnās quaternā</u>sve litterās ā tē accēperim. (ll.90–92)

Velle, nölle, mälle (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		ubjunctive
			Present		Imperfect
volō	volumus	velim	velīmus	vellem	vellēmus
vīs	vultis	velīs	velītis	vellēs	vellētis
vult	volunt	velit	velint	vellet	vellent
nōlō	nōlumus	nōlim	nōlīmus	nōllem	nōllēmus
nōn vīs	nōn vultis	nōlīs	nōlītis	nōllēs	nōllētis
nōn vult	nōlunt	nōlit	nōlint	nōllet	nōllent
mālō	mālumus	mālim	mālīmus	māllem	māllēmus
māvīs	māvultis	mālīs	mālītis	māllēs	māllētis
māvult	mālunt	mālit	mālint	māllet	māllent

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 <u>essem!</u> (l.67)
Utinam hic amnis Tiberis esset et haec castra essent Rōma! (ll.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 <u>essem</u> ālāsque habē<u>rem</u>, in Italiam volā<u>rem</u>!

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 nos hīc <u>essēmus</u> fīnēsque imperiī <u>dēfenderēmus</u>, hostēs celeriter Dānuvium et Alpēs <u>trānsīrent</u> atque ūsque in Italiam <u>pervenīrent</u>, nec vos in Latio tūtī <u>essētis</u>. (ll.82–85)

Sī mihi tantum <u>esset</u> ōtiī quantum est tibi, in epistulīs scrībendīs nōn minus dīligēns <u>essem</u> 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 sõlem propius aspiciendī cupidus sõlis propius aspiciendī (Cap. XXVI, l.108)
cupidus patri<u>am</u> vidend<u>ī</u> cupidus patri<u>ae</u> vidend<u>ae</u> (l.80)
fessus longās fābulās audiendō fessus long<u>īs</u> fābul<u>īs</u> audiend<u>īs</u> (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 scrībend<u>ō</u>: "in writing"

ad dēfendend<u>um</u> ad persequend<u>um</u> Gerundive/noun phrase ad epistulam scrībendam: "for writing a letter" (ll.97–98) in epistul<u>īs</u> scrībend<u>īs</u>: "in writing letters" (ll.94–95) ad castr<u>a</u> dēfendend<u>a</u> (l.116) ad e<u>ōs</u> persequend<u>ōs</u> (= ut eōs persequerentur) (l.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 *pugnāre* is used impersonally in the following examples:

 \bar{a} $R\bar{o}m\bar{a}n\bar{i}s$ fortissimē pugnātum est = $R\bar{o}m\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ fortissimē pugnāvērunt. Mediā nocte in castra nūntiātum est... (l.105)

Cum complūrēs hōrās ita fortissimē ā nostrīs, ab hostibus constanter ac non 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. $\sim isse | m$ 2nd $\sim iss\bar{e} | s$ 3rd $\sim isse | t$ 1st pl. $\sim iss\bar{e} | mus$ 2nd $\sim iss\bar{e} | tis$ 3rd $\sim isse | nt$

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 cēp<u>issent</u> et vāllum ascend<u>issent</u> (= postquam...
 cēpērunt/ascendērunt), prīmō mīrābantur quamobrem mediā nocte ē somnō excitā<u>tī essent</u>... (ll.109-111)

Cum complūrēs hōrās ita fortissimē ā nostrīs...pugnā<u>tum esset</u>. (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.112–113)

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 audīv<u>issem</u>! 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 intellēx<u>issem</u>, certē patrem audīv<u>issem</u> nec bellum profec<u>tus essem</u>.

Malus amīcus fuissem, nisi lacrimās effūdissem super corpus amīcī mortuī, 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

"may he be coming (presently)"

utinam venīret "would that he were coming"

(but he is not)

utinam vēnisset "would that he had come"

(but he did not)

Ablative of Respect (continued)

The **ablative of respect** (which answers the question "in what respect?") was introduced in Cap. XI (*pede aeger*, l.55), Cap. XIX (*amōre dignus*, ll.111–112), and again in Cap. XXV (*nōmine Mīnōtaurus*, l.26). In the expression *hostēs numerō superiorēs* (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 $-t\bar{o}$ (sing.), $-t\bar{o}te$ (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
 - *> -tō* (sing.), *-tōte* (pl.)
 - ▷ nārrā|tō -tōte
- Consonant Stems
 - itō -itōte
 - ⊳ scrīb|<u>i</u>tō -<u>i</u>tōte
- Irregular
 - *⊳* es|tō, es|tōte from esse
 - *⊳ fer*|*tō*, *fer*|*tōte* from *ferre*

Recēnsiō

I. Summary of Conditions

With the indicative

• Present Indicative:

Sī iam hoc intellegi<u>s</u>, certē patrem audīs.

If you already understand this, you are certainly listening to your father. (cf. ll.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.

Nonne 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, ll.63–65)

• Past Indicative:

Sī iam tum hoc intellēxistī, certē patrem audīvistī.

If you already at that time understood this, you certainly listened to your father.

Sī quid prāvē feceram, dominus imperābat ut ego ab aliīs servīs tenērer et verberārer. (cf. Cap. XXVIII, ll.160–161)

With the subjunctive

• Present Subjunctive (ideal: "should...would"):1

Sī hoc intellegās, certē patrem audiās.

If you should understand this, you would certainly listen to

your father.

Sī quid prāvē faciam, dominus imperet ut ego ab aliīs servīs tenear et erherer.

If I should do something wrong,

my master would order...

• <u>Imperfect Subjunctive</u> (present unreal: "were...would"):

Sī iam hoc intellegerēs, certē patrem audīres.

If you already understood this (but you clearly don't), you certainly would be listening to your father (but you aren't).

• <u>Pluperfect Subjunctive</u> (past unreal):

Sī iam tum hoc intellēxissēs, certē patrem audīvissēs.

If you had already then 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

^{1.} Notā Bene: There are no examples of this type of condition in your text.

Result

▶ incomplete action: present or imperfect subjunctive

Optative

- ▶ present subjunctive for a future wish or a present wish (when the outcome is uncertain)
- ▶ imperfect subjunctive for a wish unfulfilled in the present
- > pluperfect subjunctive for a wish unfulfilled in the past

Indirect command

▶ incomplete action: present or imperfect subjunctive

Indirect question

- ▶ main verb refers to present or future:
 - present subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses incomplete action
 - o perfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses completed action
- ▶ main verb refers to past:
 - o imperfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses incomplete
 - pluperfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses completed action
- Negative fear (i.e., fear that something will not happen/has not happened)
 - ▶ main verb refers to present or future:
 - present subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses incomplete action
 - o perfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses completed action
 - ▶ main verb refers to past:
 - imperfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses incomplete action
 - pluperfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses completed action

Utinam

• Wish (see optative subjunctive)

Nē

- Negative Purpose
 - ▶ incomplete action: present or imperfect subjunctive
- Optative (Negative)
 - ▶ present subjunctive for a future wish
 - ▶ imperfect subjunctive for a wish unfulfilled in the present
 - ▶ pluperfect subjunctive for a wish unfulfilled in the past

- Hortatory (Negative)
 - ▶ present subjunctive
- Indirect command (Negative)
 - ▶ incomplete action: present or imperfect subjunctive
- Prohibition
 - ▶ perfect subjunctive
- Affirmative fear ($n\bar{e}$ or $n\bar{e}$ $n\bar{o}n$) (i.e., fear that something will happen/has happened
 - ▶ main verb refers to present or future:
 - present subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses incomplete action
 - o perfect subjunctive if subordinate verb expresses completed action
 - ▶ main verb refers to past:
 - 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
 - ▶ incomplete action: present or imperfect subjunctive

Cum

- Circumstances: subjunctive
- Causal: subjunctive
- (+ ablative: preposition)
- (Pinpointing the time: indicative)
- (Repeated action: "whenever": indicative [usually])

Studia Romāna

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 (*dē Aquaeductū 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 equīs 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 (legio, legionis, 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
    gaudium, -ī
                                             joy
    lēgātus, -ī
                                             envoy, delegate
    legionārius, -ī
                                             legionary
    proelium, -ī
                                             battle
    stipendium, -ī
                                             salary
    studium, -ī
                                             interest, study
  3rd
    aetās, aetātis (f.)
                                             age
    agmen, agminis (n.)
                                             army on the march, file
    amnis, amnis (m.)
                                             river
    caedēs, caedis (f.)
                                             slaughter
    cohors, cohortis (f.)
                                             cohort
    ēnsis, ēnsis (m.)
                                             sword
    imperātor, imperātōris (m.)
                                             general, emperor
    legiō, -ōnis (f.)
                                             legion
    ōrdō, ōrdinis (f.)
                                             order
    pāx, pācis (f.)
                                             peace
    ratis, ratis (f.)
                                             raft
    valētūdō, valētūdinis (f.)
                                             health
    virtūs, virtūtis (f.)
                                             virtue
    vulnus, vulneris (n.)
                                             wound
  5th
    aciēs, -ēī
                                             line of battle
Verba
    (circumdo) circumdare,
                                             surround
       circumdedisse, circumdatum
    (commemorō) commemorāre,
                                             mention
       -āvisse, -ātum
```

(convocō) convocāre, -āvisse, -ātum (cōpulō) cōpulāre, -āvisse, -ātum (dēsīderō) dēsīderāre, -āvisse, -ātum (fatīgō) fatīgāre, -āvisse, -ātum (hortor) hortārī, hortātum (praestō) praestāre, praestitisse	call together join, connect long for, miss tire out, weary encourage, urge furnish, fulfill
(properō) properāre, -āvisse, -ātum (vulnerō) vulnerāre, -āvisse, -ātum	hasten, hurry wound
-ēre (2)	
(studeō) studēre, studuisse (+ dat.)	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	run out, rush out
or excurrisse, excursum (īnstruō) īnstruere, īnstrūxisse,	draw up, arrange
īnstrūctum	C 1 1
(prōcurrō) prōcurrere, prōcucurrisse	run forward, charge
or procurrisse, procursum	
(prōgredior) prōgredī, prōgressum	go forward, advance
-īre (4)	fautifix
(mūniō) mūnīre, mūnīvisse, mūnītum	fortify
Irregular	- futurum acca
Irregular fore	= futurum esse
Irregular fore (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse,	= futurum esse transfer, transport
Irregular fore (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse, trānslātum	transfer, transport
Irregular fore (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse, trānslātum (trānseō) trānsīre, trānsīvisse	
Irregular fore (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse, trānslātum (trānseō) trānsīre, trānsīvisse Adiectīva	transfer, transport
Irregular fore (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse, trānslātum (trānseō) trānsīre, trānsīvisse Adiectīva 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)	transfer, transport cross, pass
Irregular fore (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse, trānslātum (trānseō) trānsīre, trānsīvisse Adiectīva 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) arduus, -a, -um	transfer, transport cross, pass steep
Irregular fore (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse, trānslātum (trānseō) trānsīre, trānsīvisse Adiectīva 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) arduus, -a, -um dēnī, -ae, -a	transfer, transport cross, pass steep ten at a time
Irregular fore (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse, trānslātum (trānseō) trānsīre, trānsīvisse Adiectīva 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) arduus, -a, -um dēnī, -ae, -a dīrus, -a, -um	transfer, transport cross, pass steep ten at a time dreadful
Irregular fore (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse, trānslātum (trānseō) trānsīre, trānsīvisse Adiectīva 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) arduus, -a, -um dēnī, -ae, -a dīrus, -a, -um horrendus, -a, -um	transfer, transport cross, pass steep ten at a time dreadful dreadful
Irregular fore (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse, trānslātum (trānseō) trānsīre, trānsīvisse Adiectīva 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) arduus, -a, -um dēnī, -ae, -a dīrus, -a, -um horrendus, -a, -um idōneus, -a, -um	transfer, transport cross, pass steep ten at a time dreadful dreadful suitable
Irregular fore (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse, trānslātum (trānseō) trānsīre, trānsīvisse Adiectīva 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) arduus, -a, -um dēnī, -ae, -a dīrus, -a, -um horrendus, -a, -um idōneus, -a, -um	transfer, transport cross, pass steep ten at a time dreadful dreadful suitable leisured, idle
Irregular fore (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse, trānslātum (trānseō) trānsīre, trānsīvisse Adiectīva 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) arduus, -a, -um dēnī, -ae, -a dīrus, -a, -um horrendus, -a, -um idōneus, -a, -um otiōsus, -a, -um posterus, -a, -um	transfer, transport cross, pass steep ten at a time dreadful dreadful suitable leisured, idle next, following
Irregular fore (trānsferō) trānsferre, trānstulisse, trānslātum (trānseō) trānsīre, trānsīvisse Adiectīva 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) arduus, -a, -um dēnī, -ae, -a dīrus, -a, -um horrendus, -a, -um idōneus, -a, -um	transfer, transport cross, pass steep ten at a time dreadful dreadful suitable leisured, idle

quaternī, -ae, -a	four at a time
quīnī, -ae, -a	five at a time
rīdiculus, -a, -um	laughable, funny
sēnī, -ae, -a	six at a time
trīnī, -ae, -a	three at a time
ūnī, -ae, -a	one at a time
3rd	
citerior, citerius	nearer
incolumis, -e	unharmed, safe
mīlitāris, -e	military
ulterior, ulterius	farther, more distant
Prōnōmina	
plērīque, plēraeque, plēraque	most
Adverbia	
diūtius	longer (comp. of diū)
etenim	and indeed, for
ferē	about, almost
praecipuē	especially
prīdiē	the day before
quamdiū	how long, as long as
tamdiū	so long, as long
Praepositiōnēs	
$citr\bar{a}^2$ (prp. + acc.)	on this side
secundum³ (prp. + acc.)	along
ultrā (prp. + acc.)	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 Mārtiālis*, 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

^{1.} Divisions between epigrams are marked in the text by a dash (—).

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* (l.57), *nōbilium equōrum* (l.62), *amor quem facis* (l.65), *meae puellae dīxī* (l.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 (ae, oe, au, eu, ui), 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 [U].

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-ti-s0-est—whereas the syllable tis is long in satis $n\bar{o}n$ est: sa-tis- $n\bar{o}$ -n0-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 ē-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 [— ∪]
- the **iamb** (Latin *iambus*), one short and one long $[\cup -]$
- the **dactyl** (Latin *dactylus*), one long and two short syllables $[-\cup\cup]$
- 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:

$$- UU | - UU | - UU | - UU | - *$$

Pentameter: The hexameter often alternates with the slightly shorter **pentameter**, which can be divided into two halves of 2½ feet, each conforming to the beginning of the hexameter (but there are no spondees in the second half):

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:

$$---UU-U-U-*$$

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: $\bar{u}num$ 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 1st person plural (nōs, nōbīs, 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 (11.163, 166).

$In + accusative \rightarrow against$

Martial, who himself writes poems \underline{in} $\underline{inim\bar{\iota}cos}$, says about the poet Cinna: $\underline{versiculos}$ \underline{in} \underline{me} $\underline{narratur}$ $\underline{scr\bar{\iota}bere}$ \underline{Cinna} (l.172). Here \underline{in} + accusative has "hostile" meaning (= \underline{contra} , \underline{cf} . the phrase $\underline{impetum}$ \underline{facere} \underline{in} \underline{hostes}).

Nominative and Infinitive with Passive Verbs

The passive $n\bar{a}rr\bar{a}tur$, like $d\bar{i}citur$ (Cap. XIII, l.52), is combined with the nom. + inf.: $Cinn\underline{a}$ $scr\bar{i}b\underline{e}r\underline{e}$ $n\bar{a}rr\bar{a}t\underline{u}r/d\bar{i}c\underline{i}t\underline{u}r$ = $Cinn\underline{a}m$ $scr\bar{i}b\underline{e}r\underline{e}$ $n\bar{a}rra\underline{n}t/d\bar{i}c\underline{u}nt$.

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:

```
prōd-esse de-esse ("fail")
prae-esse ad-esse ("stand by," "help")
```

In this chapter, you find further examples:

```
favēre (l.40)
nūbere (l.126)
plaudere (l.217)
```

The impersonal verb *libet*—like *licet*—is usually combined with a dative:

```
mihi libet (l.35, "it pleases me," "I feel like," "I want") cf. mihi licet, "I may," "I am allowed"
```

Contractions

- A double i (ii, $i\bar{i}$) is apt to be contracted into one long \bar{i} , as you have seen in the form $d\bar{i}$ for $di\bar{i}$.
- When *h* disappears in *mihi* and *nihil*, we get the contracted forms *mī* and *nīl* (e.g., ll.118, 174).
- You also find sapīstī for sapiistī (l.190)—the latter form being a contraction of sapīvistī; the final v of the perfect stem tends to disappear, so that:

```
-īvisse becomes -iisse/-īsse
```

-āvisse becomes -āsse

-āvistī becomes -āstī (Cap. XXVIII, l.106)

nōvisse becomes nōsse

nōverat becomes nōrat

This last form, the pluperfect of *noscere*, comes to mean "knew," e.g.:

Ovidius ingenium mulierum tam bene <u>nōverat</u> quam ipsae mulierēs. (ll.54–55)

suamque <u>nōrat</u> ipsam (: dominam) tam bene quam puella mātrem (ll.93–94)

Points of Style

The idiom for "marry" is gendered in Latin, as is clear from the chapter:

```
Catullus Lesbiam <u>uxōrem dūcere</u> cupiēbat, nec vērō illa Catullō <u>nūpsit</u>, etsī affīrmābat 'sē nūllī aliī virō <u>nūbere</u> mālle (l.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 ll.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 Romāna

Scrībimus indoctī doctīque poēmata 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 ($P\bar{u}blius\ Terentius\ \bar{A}fer$), 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 $c\bar{o}dex$ 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 $apophor\bar{e}ta$ (ἀποφόρητα), or "take away presents," Martial himself describes several of such small codices. Here's one (14.186) that claims to contain all of Vergil ($P\bar{u}blius\ Vergilius\ Mar\bar{o}$, hence, $Mar\bar{o}nem$) on its parchment (membrana):

Quam brevis inmensum cēpit membrāna Marōnem! Ipsīus vultūs prīma tabella gerit.

Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
  1st
    arānea, -ae
                                              spider, cobweb
    aurīga, -ae (m.)
                                              charioteer, driver
    comoedia, -ae
                                              comedy
    dēliciae, -ārum (f. pl.)
                                              delight, pet
    lucerna, -ae
                                              lamp
    nota, -ae
                                              mark, sign
    opera, -ae
                                              effort, pains
    palma, -ae
                                              palm
                                              darkness
    tenebrae, -ārum (f. pl.)
  2nd
    bāsium, -ī
                                              kiss
    cachinnus, -ī
                                              laugh, guffaw
    circus, -ī
                                              circle, orbit, Circus Maximus
    fātum, -ī
    gremium, -ī
                                              lap
    ingenium, -ī
                                              nature, character
    lūdus, -ī
                                              play, game, school
    ocellus, -ī
                                              (little) eye
    odium, -ī
                                              hatred
    prīncipium, -ī
                                              beginning
    scalpellum, -ī
                                              scalpel, surgical knife
    theātrum, -ī
                                              theatre
  3rd
    certāmen, certāminis (n.)
                                              contest, fight
    gladiātor, -tōris (m.)
                                              gladiator
                                              mind
    mēns, mentis (f.)
    opēs, opum (f. pl.)
                                              wealth
    passer, passeris (m.)
                                              sparrow
    ratiō, rationis (f.)
                                              reason
    rēte, rētis (n.)
                                              net
```

spectātor, spectātōris (m.)	spectator
testis, -is $(m.)$	witness
4th	
anus, -ūs (f.)	old woman
rīsus, -ūs $(m.)$	laughter, laugh
sinus -ūs (m.)	fold (of toga)
Indeclinable	
nīl	nothing (= nihil)
Grammatica	
dactylus, -ī	dactyl
dipthongus, -ī	dipthong
epigramma, epigrammatis (n.)	epigram
hendecasyllabus, -ī	"eleven-syllable verse"
hexameter, hexametrī	having six metrical feet
iambus, -ī	iamb
pentameter, pentametrī	having five metrical feet
spondēus, -ī	spondee
trochaeus, -ī	trochee
versiculus, -ī	a little line of verse (<i>diminuitive</i>
	of versus , - ūs)
Verba	
-āre (1)	
(affirmō) affirmāre, affirmāvisse, affirmātum	assert, affirm
(certō) certāre, certāvisse, certātum	contend, fight
(conturbō) conturbāre,	mix up, confound
conturbāvisse, conturbātum	1,
(dēvorō) dēvorāre, dēvorāvisse,	swallow up, devour
dēvorātum	1
(excruciō) excruciāre, excruciāvisse, excruciātum	torture, torment
(implicō) implicāre, implicuisse, implicitum	enfold
(ōscitō) ōscitāre, ōscitāvisse, ōscitātum	gape, yawn
(pīpiō) pīpiāre, pīpiāvisse, pīpiātum	chirp
-ēre (2) (faveō) favēre, fāvisse	favor support (1 dat)
	favor, support (+ dat.)
(libet) libēre	it pleases (+ <i>dat</i> .)
(lūgeō) lūgēre, lūxisse	mourn
-ere (3)	1. 1
(accendō) accendere, accendisse,	light, enflame
accēnsum	hwaals thawayahler amit alil-
(ēlīdō) ēlīdere, ēlīsisse, ēlīsum (ērubēscō) ērubēscere, ērubuisse	break thoroughly, omit, elide blush

(laedō) laedere, laesisse, laesum (nūbō) nūbere, nūpsisse (+ dat.) (plaudō) plaudere, plausisse, plausum (+ dat.) (requīrō) requīrere, requīsīvisse, requīsitum (sapiō) sapere, sapīvisse -īre (4) (circumsiliō) circumsilīre, circumsiluisse (prōsiliō) prōsilīre, prōsiluisse	injure, hurt marry clap, applaud seek, ask be wise, have sense hop about spring forth
Adiectīva	
1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um)	
bellus, -a, -um	lovely, pretty
dubius, -a, -um	undecided, doubtful twin
geminus, -a, -um 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
Coniunctiones	
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 substantīve" 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) fēminīnum (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, īnfāns, testis, bōs, canis).

The hexameter quoted by Donatus (l.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 ($Aen\bar{e}\bar{a}s$) during his flight from Troy ($Tr\bar{o}ia$). Driven by a storm to Africa, he is received in Carthage ($Carth\bar{a}g\bar{o}$) by Queen $D\bar{\iota}d\bar{o}$, who questions him about the fate of the other Trojans, King Priam (Priamus) and his son Hector.

Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

```
Nōmina
  1st
    īra, -ae
                                             anger
                                             a muse (one of the nine daughters
    mūsa, -ae
                                             of Memory)
  2nd
    scamnum, -ī
                                             stool
  3rd
                                             wonder, admiration
    admīrātiō, admīrātiōnis (f.)
    ōrātiō, ōrātiōnis (f.)
                                             speech
    sacerdōs, sacerdōtis (m./f.)
                                             priest, priestess
  4th
    affectus, -ūs (m.)
                                             mood, feeling
Grammatica
                                             common noun
    appellātīvum, -ī (nōmen)
    cāsus, -ūs (m.)
                                             fall, case
    causālis (coniūnctiō) (f.)
                                             causal conjunction
    comparātiō, comparātiōnis (f.)
                                             a comparison
    coniugātiō, coniugātiōnis (f.)
                                             conjugation
    coniūnctiō, coniūnctiōnis (f.)
                                             conjunction
    copulativa (coniunctio) (f.)
                                             copulative conjunction
    disiūnctīva (coniūnctiō) (f.)
                                             disjunctive conjunction
    explētīva (coniūnctiō) (f.)
                                             exclamatory conjunction
    interiectiō, interiectiōnis (f.)
                                             interjection
    optātīvus (modus)
                                             optative (wishing) mood
                                             positive degree1
    positīvus (gradus)
    proprium, -ī (nōmen)
                                             proper noun
    quālitās, quālitātis (f.)
                                             quality
    quantitās, quantitātis (f.)
                                             quantity
                                             conjunction showing the train
    rationalis (coniunctio) (f.)
                                             of thought
    significātiō, significātiōnis (f.)
                                             meaning, sense
```

^{1.} Of an adjective or adverb.

speciēs, -ēī appearance, aspect, sort synönymum, -ī synonym Verba -āre (1) (explānō) explānāre, -āvisse, -ātum make intelligible, explain (luctor) luctārī, luctātum wrestle (ōrdinō) ōrdināre, -āvisse, -ātum put in order -ere (3) bind, tie (adnectō) adnectere, -nexuisse, (dēmō) dēmere, dēmpsisse, dēmptum take away (īnflectō) īnflectere, -flexisse, -xum bend, curve, inflect2 mentionem facere mention Adiectīva 1st/2nd (-us/er, -a, -um) inconditus, -a, -um unpolished, rough 3rd similis, -e similar Adverbia dumtaxat only, just forsitan maybe, perhaps proptereā therefore quāpropter why quidnī why not sīquidem seeing that, since tantundem just as much Praepositiones adversus/-um (prp. +acc.) toward, against on this side of cis (prp. +acc.) Interiectiones attat exclamation of joy, pain, wonder, fright exclamation of joy, pleased surprise; eia also "come on," "hurry up" presents something important and/or ēn unexpected exclamation of joy euax exclamation of wonder and joy papae

 $^{2. \}quad \text{Inflect: To form the pattern of a word, decline a noun or conjugate a verb.} \\$

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. tū, nōs, is, hic, ille, quis, quī, nēmō, 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, ab, ad, post, inter, sine, de, etc.
- Interjection, e.g. ō, 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. (ā) *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*, *-ī*, *-am*, *-ae*, *-ō*, *-ēs*, *-ibus*.

In the examples in this book the stem is separated from the ending with a thin vertical stroke []], e.g. serv|us, $serv|\bar{\iota}$.

parts of speech:
nouns (substantives)
adjectives
pronouns
verbs
adverbs
conjunctions
prepositions
interjections

numerals

particles

genders: masc., m.

fem., f.

numbers: sing. pl. cases: nom.

acc. gen. dat. abl. voc.

stems: serv-, ancill-, oppid-, etc.

endings: -ī, -am, -ae, etc.

declension (decl.) 1st decl.: gen. -ae 2nd decl.: gen. -ī 3rd decl.: gen. -is 4th decl.: gen. -ūs 5th decl.: gen. -ēī/-eī

```
-a -ae
-am -ās
-ae -ārum
-ae -īs
-ā -īs
```

```
-us/- -ī

-um -ōs

-ī -ōrum

-ō -īs

-ō -īs

-e
```

Declensions

There are five declensions:

1st declension: gen. sing. -ae, e.g. īnsul|a -ae.

2nd declension: gen. sing. -ī, e.g. serv|us -ī, oppid|um -ī.

3rd declension: gen. sing. -is, e.g. sōl sōl|is, urb|s -is.

4th declension: gen. sing. -ūs, e.g. man us -ūs.

5th declension: gen. sing. $-\bar{e}\bar{\imath}/-e\bar{\imath}$, e.g. $di|\bar{e}s -\bar{e}\bar{\imath}$, $r|\bar{e}s -e\bar{\imath}$.

First Declension

Genitive: sing. -ae, pl. -ārum.

Example: *īnsul*|a -ae f.

	sing.		pl.	
nom.	īnsul		īnsul	
acc.	īnsul		īnsul	
gen. dat.	īnsul	ae	īnsul	ārum
	īnsul		īnsul	īs
abl.	īnsul	ā	īnsul	īs

Masculine (male persons): *nauta*, *agricola*, *aurīga*, *pīrāta*, *poēta*, etc.

Second Declension

Genitive: sing. -ī, pl. -ōrum.

1. Masculine.

Examples: $equ|us - \bar{i}$, liber libr $|\bar{i}$, puer puer $|\bar{i}$.

	sing.	pl.	sing.	pl.	sing.	pl.
nom.	equ us	equ ī	liber	libr ī	puer	puer ī
acc.	equ um		libr um	libr ōs	puer um	puer ōs
gen.	equ ī	equ ōrum	libr ī	libr ōrum	puer ī	puer ōrum
dat.	equ ō	equ īs	libr ō	libr īs	puer ō	puer īs
abl.	equ ō	equ īs	libr ō	libr īs	puer ō	puer īs
voc.	eque		·	·		

A few are feminine, e.g. $hum|us - \bar{i}$, $papyr|us - \bar{i}$, $Aegypt|us - \bar{i}$, $Rhod|us - \bar{i}$.

Nom. sing. -ius, voc. -ī: Iūlius, Iūlī! fīlius, fīlī!

2. Neuter.

Example: $verb|um - \bar{\iota}$.

	sing.		pl.	
nom.			verb	
acc.			verb	
gen.	verb	ī	verb	ōrum
dat.	verb		verb	
abl.	verb	Ιō	verb	īs

Third Declension

Genitive: sing. -is, pl. -um/-ium.

- [A] Genitive plural: -um.
- 1. Masculine and feminine.

Examples: sōl sōl is m., leō leōn is m., vōx vōc is f.

	sing.	pl.	sing.	pl.	sing.	pl.
nom.		sōl ēs	leō .	leōn ēs		vōc ēs
acc.	sōl em	sōl ēs	leōn em	leōn ēs	vōc em	vōc ēs
gen.	sōl is	sōl um		leōn um	vōc is	vōc um
dat.		sōl ibus		leōn ibus		vōc ibus
abl.	sōl e	sōl ibus	leōn e	leōn ibus	vōc e	vōc ibus

- [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 flōr|is m.
- [4] Nom. -ō, gen. -in|is: virgō -in|is f., homō -in|is m.
- [5] Nom. -x, gen. -g|is: lex leg|is f., rex reg|is m.
- [6] Nom. -ex, gen. -ic|is: index -ic|is m.
- [7] Nom. -s, gen. -t|is: aetās -āt|is f., mīles -it|is m.
- [8] Nom. -s, gen. -d|is: laus laud|is f., pēs ped|is m.
- [9] Irregular nouns: *sanguis -in*|*is* m.; *coniūnx -iug*|*is* m./f.; *senex sen*|*is* m.; *bōs bov*|*is* m./f., pl. *bov*|*ēs boum*, dat./abl. *bōbus/būbus*.

2. Neuter

Examples: $\bar{o}s \ \bar{o}r|is$, $corpus \ corpor|is$, $opus \ -er|is$, $n\bar{o}men \ n\bar{o}min|is$.

	sing.	pl.	sing.	pl.
nom.	ōs	ōr a	corpus	corpor
acc.	ōs .	ōr a	corpus	corpor
gen.	ōr is	ōr um	corpor is	corpor um
dat.	ōr ī	ōr ibus	corpor ī	corpor ibus
abl.	ōr e	ōr ibus	corpor e	corpor ibus
nom.	opus	oper a	nōmen	nōmin a
acc.	opus	oper a	nōmen	nōmin a
gen.	oper is	oper um	nōmin is	nōmin um
dat.	oper ī	oper ibus	nōmin ī	nōmin ibus
abl.	oper e	oper ibus	nōmin e	nōmin ibus

Irregular nouns: cor cord|is; caput capit|is; lac lact|is; os oss|is (gen. pl. -ium); mel mell|is; iter itiner|is; vās vās|is, pl. vās|a -ōrum (2nd decl.); thema -at|is.

-/-s -ēs -em -ēs -is -um -ī -ibus -e -ibus

-er-r|is

-or -or is

 $-\bar{o}s$ $-\bar{o}r|is$

-ō -in|is -x -g|is

-ex -ic|is-s -t|is

-s -d|is

-ī -ibus -e -ibus

-а -а

-ma -mat|is

[B] Genitive plural: -ium.1. Masculine and feminine.

Examples: $n\bar{a}v|is$ -is f., urb|s -is f., $m\bar{o}ns$ mont|is m.

```
sing.
                       sing.
                                       sing.
                                                 mont|ēs
nom. nāv is
      nāv em nāv ēs
                       urb|em urb|ēs
                                       mont em mont ēs
gen.
dat.
     nāv is
                              urb|ium mont|is mont|ium
             nāv|ium urb|is
      nāv ī
              nāv ibus urb ī
                              urb|ibus mont|ī
                                                mont|ibus
abl.
      nāv e
             nāv ibus urb e
                              urb|ibus mont|e
                                                mont|ibus
```

- [1] Nom. -is, acc. -im (pl. -īs), abl. -ī: pupp|is -is f., Tiber|is -is m.
- [2] Nom. -ēs, gen. -is: $n\bar{u}b|\bar{e}s$ -is f.
- [3] Nom. -x, gen. -c|is: falx falc|is f.
- [4] Irregular nouns: nox noct|is f.; nix niv|is f.; carō carn|is f.; as ass|is m.; vīs, acc. vim, abl. vī, pl. vīr|ēs -ium f.
- 2. Neuter

Examples: mar | e -is, animal -āl | is.

	sing.			sing.	pl.
nom.	mar	e ma	ır ia		animāl ia
acc.	mar		ır ia		animāl ia
	mar		ır ium		animāl ium
dat.	mar		ır ibus		animāl ibus
abl.	mar	ī mo	ır ibus	animāl ī	animāl ibus

Fourth Declension

Genitive: sing. -ūs, pl. -uum.

Examples: $port|us - \bar{u}s$ m., $corn|\bar{u} - \bar{u}s$ n.

	sing.		pl		sing.		pl.	
nom.	port	us	port	ūs	corn	ū	corn	иа
acc.	port	ит	port	ūs	corn	ū	corn	иа
gen.	port				corn	ūs		иит
dat.	port			ibus	corn		corn	
abl.	port	ū	port	ibus	corn	ū	corn	ibus

dom us -ūs f., abl. -ō, pl. dom us -ōrum (-uum), acc. -ōs.

Fifth Declension

Genitive: sing. -ēī/-eī, pl. -ērum.

Examples: di|ēs -ēī m. (f.), rēs reī f.

nom.	di ēs	di ēs	rēs	rēs
acc.	di em	di ēs	rem	rēs
gen. dat.	di ēī	di ērum	reī	rērum
	di ēī	di ēbus	reī	rēbus
abl.	di ē	di ēbus	rē	rēbus

-(i)s -ēs -em -ēs -is -ium -ī -ibus -e -ibus -is, acc. -im, abl. -ī -ēs -is -x -c|is

-e/-	-ia
-e/-	-ia
-is	-ium
$-\bar{i}$	-ibus
$-\bar{i}$	-ibus

-us	-ūs	$-\bar{u}$	-ua
-um	-ūs	$-\bar{u}$	-ua
$-\bar{u}s$	-uum	$-\bar{u}s$	-uum
-uī	-ibus	$-\bar{u}$	-ibus
$-\bar{u}$	-ibus	-ū	-ibus

-ēs	-ēs
-em	-ēs
-ēī/-eī	-ērum
-ēī/-eī	-ēbus
-ē	-ēbus

ADJECTIVES

First and Second Declensions

[A] Genitive singular -ī -ae -ī.

Example: bon us -a -um.

```
pl.
      sing.
      masc.
               fem.
                                   masc.
                                             fem.
                        neut.
nom. bon us bon a
                       bon|um
                                   bon ī
                                             bon ae
                                                        bonla
                                                                    -us
                                                                           -a
                                                                                 -um
                                             bon ās
acc. bon um bon am bon um
                                   bon |ōs
                                                        bona
                                                                    -um
                                                                           -am
                                                                                 -um
                                   bon ōrum bon ārum bon ōrum
bon īs bon īs bon īs
gen.
dat.
               bon ae bon ī
      bon ī
                                                                    -ī
                                                                                 -ī
               bon ae bon ō
bon ā bon ō
      bon |ō
                                                                    -ō
                                                                           -ae
                                                                                 -ō
                                   bon īs
                                             bon īs
      bon |ō
                                                                    -ō
                                                        bon is
                                                                           -ā
                                                                                 -ō
abl.
voc. bon e
Examples: niger -gr|a -gr|um, līber -er|a -er|um.
                                                                    -ōs
                                                                           -ās
                                                                    -ōrum -ārum -ōrum
sing. masc.
               fem.
                        neut.
                                   masc.
                                                        neut.
               nigr|a nigr|um līber
                                                                    -īs
                                                                          -īs
                                                                                 -īs
                                             līber a
                                                        līber um
nom. niger
acc. nigr um nigr am nigr um līber um līber am līber um
                                                                    -īs
                                                                          -īs
                                                                                 -īs
                                                                          -(e)r|a -(e)r|um
etc. (as above, but voc. = nom. -er)
```

[B] Genitive singular -*īus*.

Example: *sōl*|*us -a -um*, gen. *-īus*, dat. *-ī*.

		masc.	tem.	neut.				
sing.	nom.	sōl us			pl. (as $bon \bar{\imath}$ -ae -a)	-us	-a	-um
Ü	acc.	sōl um		sōl um		-um	-am	-um
	gen.	sōl īus	sōl īus	sōl īus		-īus	-īus	-īus
	dat.	sōl ī	sōl ī	sōl ī		-Ī	$-\bar{\imath}$	-ī
	abl.	sõllõ	sõllā	sõllõ		-ō	-ā	-ō

Third Declension

[A] Genitive plural -*ium* (abl. sing. - \bar{i}). Example: *brev*|*is* -*e*.

	sing.		pl.		
	masc./fem.	neut.	masc./fem.		
nom.	brev is	brev e	brev ēs	brev ia	
acc.	brev em	brev e	brev ēs	brev ia	
gen. dat.	brev is	brev is	brev ium	brev ium	
	brev ī	brev ī	brev ibus	brev ibus	
abl.	brev ī	brev ī	brev ibus	brev ibus	

Examples: ācer ācr is ācr e, celer -er is -er e.

sing.	masc. fem.	neut.	masc. fem.	
nom.	ācer ācr is	ācr e	celer celer is	celer e
acc.	ācr em '	ācr e	celer em '	celer e

etc. (as above) etc. (as above)

Examples: $f\bar{e}l\bar{i}x$, gen. $-\bar{i}c|is$; $ing\bar{e}ns$, gen. -ent|is (-x < -c|s, -ns < -nt|s)

		masc./fem.		masc./fem.	neut.
sing.	nom.	fēlīx	fēlīx		ingēns
U	acc.	fēlīc em	fēlīx	ingent em	ingēns
	gen.	felīc is	fēlīx fēlīc is	ingent is	ingent is
	-				

etc. (as above) etc. (as above)

-ibus -ibus -ibus -ibus

−ī −ī

-em -is

-is

-em -is -is -i
-ī -ī -e -e
-ēs -a
-ium -ium
-ibus -ibus
-ibus -ibus

degrees: positive (pos.) comparative (comp.) superlative (sup.)

-us -a -um/-(i)s (-e) -ior -ius -iōr|is -issim|us -a -um

-er -il|is -(e)rior -ilior -errim|us -illim|us [B] Genitive plural -um (abl. sing. -e).

Examples: *prior prius*, gen. *priōr is*; *vetus*, gen. *veter is*.

		masc./fem	. neut.	masc./fem.	neut.
sing.	nom.		prius	vetus	vetus
	acc.	priōr em	prius	veter em	vetus
	gen.	priōr is	priōr is	veter is	veter is
	dat.	priōr ī	priōr ī	veter ī	veter ī
	abl.	priōr e	priōr e	veter e	veter e
pl.	nom.	priōr ēs	priōr a	veter ēs	veter a
	acc.	priōr ēs	priōr a	veter ēs	veter a
	gen.	priōr um	priōr um	veter um	veter um
	dat.	priōr ibus	priōr ibus	veter ibus	veter ibus
	abl.	priōr ibus	priōr ibus	veter ibus	veter ibus

So pauper (m./f.), gen. -er|is; dīves, 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 brev | is - e $f \bar{e} l \bar{l} \bar{x} - \bar{i} c | is$ $comp. long | ior - ius - i \bar{o} r | is$ $brev | ior - ius - i \bar{o} r | is$ $f \bar{e} l \bar{l} c | ior - ius - i \bar{o} r | is$ sup. long | issim | us - a - um brev | issim | us - a - um $f \bar{e} l \bar{l} c | issim | us - a - um$

[B] Superlative -rim us, -lim us.

pos. piger -gr|a -gr|um celer -er|is -er|e facil|is -e comp. pigr|ior -ius -iōr|is celer|ior -ius -iōr|is facil|ior -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 -ior is	optim us -a -um
mal us -a -um	pēior -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 -ī	plūs plūr is	plūrim\um -ī
mult ī -ae -a	plūr ēs -a -ium	plūrim ī -ae -a
	īnferior -ius -iōr is	īnfim us/īm us -a -um
(suprā) super us	sŭperior -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 ˈ	prīm us -a -um
(post)	posterior -ius -iōr is	postrēm us -a -um
(prope)	propior -ius -iōr is	proxim us -a -um
vetus -er is	vetustior -ius -iōr is	veterrim us -a -um
•	•	·

ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Adjectives of the 1st/2nd declension form adverbs in $-\bar{e}$, e.g. $r\bar{e}ct|us > r\bar{e}ct|\underline{\bar{e}}$.

Adjectives of the 3rd declension form adverbs in *-iter*, e.g. *fort*|*is* > *fort*|*iter*.

The comparative of the adverbs ends in *-ius* (= neuter of the adjective), e.g. $r\bar{e}ct|\underline{ius}$, the superlative ends in *-issimē* (*-imē*), e.g. $r\bar{e}ct|\underline{issim\bar{e}}$.

Adjecti	ve	Adverb		
declens		positive	comparative	superlative
1st/2nd	rēct us -a -um	rēctē	rēctius	rēctissimē
	pulcher -chr a -um	pulchrē	pulchrius	pulcherrimē
	miser -er a -er um	miserē	miserius	miserrimē
3rd	fort is -e	fortiter	fortius	fortissimē
	ācer ācr is ācr e	ācriter	ācrius	ācerrimē
	celer -er is -er e	celeriter	celerius	celerrimē
	fēlīx	fēlīciter	fēlīcius	fēlīcissimē

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, valdē < valid|us, facile < facil|is, difficulter < difficil|is, audācter < audāx.

ā

-iter

-ius -issimē

-nter (< -ntiter)

-ō

NUMERALS

_				
Roman	Arabic	Cardinal numbers	Ordinal numbers	Distributive numbers
I	1	ūn us -a -um	prīm us -a -um	$singul \bar{i}$ -ae -a $(\bar{u}n \bar{i})$
II	2	du o -ae -o	secund us	$b\bar{i}n \bar{i}$
III	3	tr ēs -ia	terti us	tern ī (tṛīn ī)
IV	4	quattuor	quārt us	quatern ī
V	5	quīnque	quīnt us	quīn ī
VI	6	sex	sext us	sēn ī
VII	7	septem	septim us	septēn ī
VIII	8	octō	octāv us	octōn į
IX	9	novem	nōn uş	novēn ī
X	10	decem	decim us	dēn ī
XI	11	ūn-decim	ūn-decim us	ūn-dēn ī
XII	12	duo-decim	duo-decim us	duo-dēn ī
XIII	13	trē-decim	terti us decim us	tern ī dēn ī
XIV	14	quattuor-decim	quārt us decim us	quatern īˈdēn ī
XV	15	quīn-decim	quīnt us decim us	quīn ī den ī
XVI	16	sē-decim	sext us decim us	sēn ī'dēn ī'
XVII	17	septen-decim	septim us decim us	septēn ī dēn ī
XVIII	18	duo-dē-vīgintī	duo-de-vīcēsim us	duo-dė-vīcen ī
XIX	19	ūn-dē-vīgintī	ūn-dē-vīcēsim us	ūn-dē-vīcēn īˈ
XX	20	vīgintī ⁸	vīcēsim us	vīcēn ī
XXI	21	vīgintī ūn us	vīcēsim us prīm us	vīcēn ī singul ī
		/ūn us et vīgintī	/ūn us et vīcēsim us	/singul ī et vīcēn ī
XXX	30	trīgintā	trīcēsim us	trīcēn ī
XL	40	quadrāgintā	quadrāgēsim us	quadrāgēn ī
L	50	quīnquāgintā	quīnquāgēsim us	quīnquāgēn ī
LX	60	sexāgintā	sexāgēsim us	sexāgēn i
LXX	70	septuāgintā	septuāgēsim us	septuāgēn ī
LXXX	80	octōgintā	octōgēsim us	octōgēn ī
XC	90	nōnāgintā	nōnāgēsim us	nōnāgēn ī
C	100	centum	centēsim us	centēn ī
CC	200	ducent ī -ae -a	ducentēsim us	ducēn ī
CCC	300	trecent ī	trecentēsim us	trecēn ī
CCCC	400	quadringent ī	quadringentēsim us	quadringēn ī
D	500	quīngent ī	quīngentēsim us	quingēn ī
DC	600	sescent ī	sescentēsim us	sescēn ī
DCC	700	septingenț ī	septingentēsim us	septingēn ī
DCCC	800	octingent i	octingentēsim us	octingēn ī
DCCCC	900	nōngent ī	nōngentēsim us	nōngēn ī
M	1000	mīlle	mīllēsim us	singula mīlia
MM	2000	duo mīlia	bis mīllēsim us	bīna mīlia
	•	uno IIIII	ois minesimpos	oma muu

- [1] $\bar{u}n|us a um$ is declined like $s\bar{o}l|us$: gen. $-\bar{\iota}us$, dat. $-\bar{\iota}$.
- [2] du|o -ae -o and $tr|\bar{e}s$ -ia:

	masc.	fem.	neut.	masc./fen	n.neut.
nom.	du o	du ae	du o	tr ēs	tr ia
acc.	du ōs/o	du ās	du o	tr ēs	tr ia
gen. dat.		du ārum		tr ium	tr ium
	du ōbus	du ābus	du ōbus	tr ibus	tr ibus
abl.	du lōbus	dulābus	du lōbus	trlibus	tr ibus

[3] *mīl|ia -ium* (n. pl.) is declined like *mar|ia* (3rd decl.).

Numeral adverbs

1× semel	6× sexiēs	11× ūndeciēs	40× quadrāgiēs	90× nōnāgiēs
2×bis	7× septiēs	12× duodeciēs	50× quīnquāgiēs	100× centiēs
3× ter	8× octiēs	13× ter deciēs	60× sexāgiēs	200× ducentiēs
4× quater	9× noviēs	20× vīciēs	70× septuāgiēs	300× trecentiēs
5× quīnquiēs	10× deciēs	30× trīciēs	80× octōgiēs	1000× mīliēs

PRONOUNS

Personal Pronouns

	1st person		2nd pers	on
	sing.	pl.	sing.	pl. <i>vōs</i>
nom.	ego	nōs	tū -	vōs
acc.	mē	nōs	tē	vōs
gen. dat.	meī	nostrī/nostrum		vestrī/vestrum
	mihi	nōbīs	tibi	vōbīs
abl.	тē	nōbīs	tē	vōbīs

• 3rd person and demonstrative pronoun

	sing.			pl.			reflexive
	masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.	pronoun
nom.	i s	e a	i d	$i \bar{\imath}$	e ae	e a	-
acc.	e um	e am	i d	e ōs	e ās	e a	sē
gen.	e ius	e ius	elius	e ōrum	e ārum	e ōrum	
dat.	$e \bar{i}$	$e \bar{i}$	$e \bar{i}$	i īs	i īs	i īs	sibi
abl.	e ō	e ā	e ō	i īs	i īs	i īs	sē

Possessive Pronouns

me|us, voc. sing. mī.

Demonstrative Pronouns

sing.	fam	neut	pl.	fam	neut.
					haec
hunc	hanc	hoc	hōs	hās	haec
huius	huius	huius	hōrum	hārum	hōrum
huic	huic	huic	hīs	hīs	hīs
hōc	hāc	hōc	hīs	hīs	hīs
ill e	ill a	ill ud	ill\ī	ill ae	ill a
ill um	ill am	ill ud	ill ōs	ill ās	ill a
ill īus	ill īus	ill īus	ill ōrum	ill ārum	ill ōrum
ill ī	ill ī	ill\ī	ill īs	ill īs	ill īs
ill ō	ill ā	ill ō	ill īs	ill īs	ill īs
	masc. hic hunc huius huic hōc ill e ill um ill īus	masc. fem. hic haec hunc hanc huius huius huic huic hõc hāc ill e ill a ill um ill am ill īus ill īus	masc. fem. neut. hic haec hoc hunc hanc hoc huius huius huius huic huic hoc illle ill a ill ud ill īus ill īus ill īus	masc. fem. neut. masc. hic haec hoc hī hunc hanc hoc hōs huius huius huius hōrum huic huic huic hīs hōc hāc hōc hīs ill e ill a ill ud ill ī ill um ill am ill ud ill ōs ill ī ill ī ill ī ill ī	masc. fem. neut. masc. fem. hic haec hoc hī hae hunc hanc hoc hōs hās huius huius hūrum hārum huic huic huic hūc hōs hīs hīs hōc hāc hōc hōc hīs hīs ille ille ille ille ille ille ille ill

- [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] \bar{i} -dem ea-dem idem (< is ea id + -dem):

	sing.			pl.		
	masc.					neut.
nom.	īdem	eadem	idem	iīdeṃ	eaedem	eadem
acc.	eundem	eandem	idem	eōsdem	eāsdem	eadem
gen.	eiusdem	eiusdem	eiusdem	eōrundem	eārundem	eōrundem
dat.	eīdem	eīdem	eīdem	iīsdem	iīsdem	iīsdem
abl.	eōdem	eādem	eōdem	iīsdem	iīsdem	iīsdem

objective gen.: nostrī, vestrīi

partitive gen.: nostrum, vestrum $m\bar{\imath} = mihi$

nom. pl. $e|\bar{i} = i|\bar{i}$ $s\bar{e}s\bar{e} = s\bar{e}$ $e|\bar{i}s = i|\bar{i}s$

eius, eōrum, eārum (gen. of is ea id)

īdem < is-dem -n-dem < -m-dem nom. pl. eīdem = iīdem eīsdem = iīsdem

Interrogative Pronouns

[1] quis quae quid (subst.); quī/quis... quae... quod... (adj.).

	sing.			pl.		
	masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.
nom.	quis/quī	quae	quid/quod	quī	quae	quae
acc.	quem	quam	quid/quod	quōs	quās	quae
gen.	cuius	cuius	cuius -		quārum	
dat.	сиі	сиі	сиі			quibus
abl.	quō	quā	quō	quibus	quibus	quibus

[2] $uter\ utr|a\ utr|um$, gen. $utr|\bar{\imath}us$, dat. $utr|\bar{\imath}$ (like $s\bar{o}l|us$, but nom. m. sing. uter).

Relative Pronoun

[1] quī quae quod

	sing.			pl.	pl.			
	masc.	fem.	neut.	masc.	fem.	neut.		
nom.	quī	quae	quod	quī	quae	quae		
acc.	quem	quam	quod	quōs	quās	quae		
gen.	cuius	cuius	cuius	quōrum	quārum	quōrum		
dat.	cui	cui	сиі	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] $\bar{u}ll|us$ -a -um and $n\bar{u}ll|us$ -a -um are declined like $s\bar{o}l|us$.

[4] *neuter -tr*|*a -tr*|*um* and *uter-que utr*|*a-que utr*|*um-que* are declined like *uter*: gen. *neutr*|*īus*, *utr*|*īus-que*.

[5] alter -er | a -er | um, gen. -er | $\bar{\iota}us$, dat. -er | $\bar{\iota}$.

[6] ali|us -a -ud, dat. ali|ī (gen. alter|īus).

The following pronouns are declined like *quis/quī*:

[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. que<u>n</u>-dam, f. qua<u>n</u>-dam, gen. pl. m./n. quōru<u>n</u>-dam, f. quāru<u>n</u>-dam.

[10] quis-que quae-que quid-que/quod-que.

[11] $qu\bar{i}$ - quae- quid-/quod- $v\bar{i}s$ = $qu\bar{i}$ - quae- quid-/quod-libet.

 $n\bar{e}m\bar{o} < ne- + hom\bar{o}$

 $n\bar{\imath}l = nihil$

neuter < ne- + uter

n. pl. (ali-)qua

-n-dam < -m-dam

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. $c\bar{o}n\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$, $loqu\bar{\imath}$, are called **deponent** verbs.

The moods of the verb are: infinitive, e.g. *amāre*, imperative, e.g. *amā*, 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. *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. *amō*, 2nd 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, verērī.
- [3] 3rd conjugation: inf. -ere, -ī e.g. legere, ūtī.
- [4] 4th conjugation: inf. -*īre*, -*īrī* e.g. aud*īre*, part*īrī*.

Stem

Verbal stems:

The **present stem**, e.g. amā-, monē-, leg-, audī-.

The perfect stem, e.g. amāv-, monu-, lēg-, audīv-.

The **supine stem**, e.g. *amāt-*, *monit-*, *lēct-*, *audīt-*.

Personal endings

[1]	Active		Passiv	e
	sing.		sing.	
pers. 1	-m/-ō	-mus	-r/-or	-mur
pers. 2		-tis	-ris	-minī
pers. 3	-t	-nt	-tur	-ntur

[2] Endings of the perfect indicative active:

```
sing. pl.
pers. 1 \sim \bar{i} \sim imus
pers. 2 \sim ist\bar{i} \sim istis
pers. 3 \sim it \sim \bar{e}runt (\sim \bar{e}re)
```

voice: act. pass.

mood: inf. ind. imp. subj.

tense: pres. perf. imperf.

3

pluperf.

fut. fut. perf.

number: sing. pl.

person: 1

conjugations:

[1] -āre/-ārī

[2] -ēre/-ērī

[3] -ere/-ī

[4] -īre/-īrī

verbal stems:

present stem [-]

perfect stem $[\sim]$

after a consonant:

-ō -imus -or

-unt

-eris

-itur

-iminī

-untur

-is -itis

-it

supine stem [≈]

~eri|mus

~eri|tis

~eri|nt

Conjugation

[A] Active Infinitive present [1, 2, 4][3] [1] amā|re [2] *monē*|*re* [3] leg|ere [4] audī|re perfect -ere -re monu isse lēg isse audīv|isse āmāv isse future ~isse amāt|ūr|um esse monit|ūr|um esse lēct|ūr|um esse audīt|ūr|um esse ≈ūr|us -a -um esse **Indicative** present [1, 2, 4][3] -ō $-\bar{o}$ sing. 1 $am|\bar{o}$ mone | ō leg|ō audilō -is -smonēs audī|s 2 amā|s legis audi|t -t-it3 ama|t leg it mone t _imus pl. 1 amā|mus leg imus -musmonē|mus audī mus -tis-itis leg itis 2 amā tis monē|tis audī itis -(u)nt-unt 3 ama nt mone nt leg unt audi unt [1, 2][3, 4]imperfect audi ēba m audi ēbā s audi ēba t -ba|m-ēba|m sing. 1 amā|ba|m monē|ba|m leg|ēba|m $-b\bar{a}|s$ −ēbā|s leg|ēbā|s 2 amā|bā|s monē|bā|s leg eba t -ba|t−ēba|t 3 amā ba t monē|ba|t leg ēbā mus leg ēbā tis -ēbā|mus -bā|mus pl. 1 amā|bā|mus monē|bā|mus audi|ēbā|mus -ēbā|tis -hāltis 2 amā bā tis monē|bā|tis audi|ēbā|tis -ba|nt-ēba|nt 3 amā|ba|nt monē|ba|nt leg|ēba|nt audi|ēba|nt [3, 4][1, 2]future $-b|\bar{o}$ -a|msing. 1 $am\bar{a}|b|\bar{o}$ $mon\bar{e}|b|\bar{o}$ leg|a|m audi|a|m -b|is $-\bar{e}|s$ 2 amā|b|is monē|b|is leg |ē|s audi |ē|s 3 amā b it pl. 1 amā b imus 2 amā b itis leg e t leg ē mus leg ē tis -b|it-e|tmonē|b|it audi|e|t -b|imus monē|b|imus audi | ē | mus −ē|mus monē b itis -b|itisaudi e tis $-\bar{e}|tis$ monē|b|unt leg|e|nt -b|unt-e|nt3 amā|b|unt audi|e|nt perfect $\sim \bar{i}$ sing. 1 amāv|ī monu | ī lēg ī audīv ī ~istī lēg istī 2 amāv istī monu istī audīv istī ~it pl. 1 amāv it 2 amāv imus 2 amāv istis monu it lēg it audīv it ~imus monu imus monu istis lēg imus audīv imus ~istis audīv istis lēg istis lēg ērunt ~ērunt 3 amāv ērunt monu ērunt audīv ērunt pluperfect ~era|m sing. 1 amāv|era|m monu|era|m lēg|era|m audīv|era|m ~erā|s monu|erā|s 2 amāv|erā|s lēg erā s audīv erā s ~era|t 3 amāv|era|t monu|era|t lēg era t audīv era t ~erā|mus pl. 1 amāv erā mus monu|erā|mus lēg erā mus audīv erā mus ~erā|tis 2 amāv erā tis 3 amāv era nt lēg erā tis lēg era nt audīv erā tis audīv era nt monu|erā|tis ~era|nt monu|era|nt future perfect sing. 1 amāv|er|ō ~er|ō monu|er|ō lēg|er|ō audīv|er|ō lēg|eri|s ~eri|s 2 amāv|eri|s monu eri s audīv|eri|s $\sim eri|t$ 3 amāv|eri|t monu|eri|t lēg|eri|t audīv|eri|t

pl. 1 amāv|eri|mus

2 amāv|eri|tis

3 amāv|eri|nt

lēg eri mus

lēg eri tis lēg eri nt

monu|eri|mus

monu|eri|tis

monu|eri|nt

audīv eri mus

audīv eri tis

audīv|eri|nt

Subjunctive					
present sing.1 am e m 2 am ē s 3 am e t pl.1 am ē mus 2 am ē tis 3 am e nt imperfect	mone a m mone ā s mone a t mone ā mus mone ā tis mone a nt	leg a m leg ā s leg a t leg ā mus leg ā tis leg a nt	audi a m audi ā s audi a t audi ā mus audi ā tis audi a nt	[1] (-)e m (-)ē s (-)e t (-)ē mus (-)ē tis (-)e nt [1, 2, 4]	[2, 3, 4] -a m -ā s -a t -ā mus -ā tis -a nt [3]
sing.1 amā re m 2 amā rē s 3 amā re t pl.1 amā rē m 2 amā rē tis 3 amā re nt perfect		leg ere m leg ere s leg ere t leg ere mus leg ere tis leg ere tis	audī re m audī rē s audī re t s audī rē mus audī re nt	-re m -rē s -re t -rē mus -rē tis -re nt	-ere m -erē s -ere t -erē mus -erē tis -ere nt
sing.1 amāv eril 2 amāv eril 3 amāv eril pl.1 amāv eril 2 amāv eril 3 amāv eril pluperfect	monu eri s monu eri t nus monu eri mu is monu eri tis	lēg eri m lēg eri s lēg eri t s lēg eri mus lēg eri tis lēg eri nt	audīv eri m audīv eri s audīv eri t audīv eri mus audīv eri tis audīv eri nt	≈eri m ≈eri s ≈eri t ≈eri mus ≈eri tis ≈eri nt	
sing.1 amāv isse 2 amāv issē 3 amāv isse	s monu issē s t monu issē t mus monu issē m tis monu issē tis	lēg issē tis	audīv isse m audīv issē s audīv isse t s audīv issē mus audīv issē tis audīv isse nt	≈isse m ≈issē s ≈isse t ≈issē mus ≈issē tis ≈isse nt	
Imperative present sing. amā pl. amā te future	monē monē te	leg e leg ite	audī audī te	[1, 2, 4] - -te	[3] -e -ite
sing. amā tō pl. amā tōte	monē tō monē tōte	leg itō leg itōte	audī tō audī tōte	−tō −tōte	−itō −itōte
Participle present amā ns -an	t is monē ns -ent i	sleg ēns -ent is	audi ēns -ent is	[1, 2] -ns -nt is	[3, 4] -ēns -ent is
future amāt ūr us -a -um	monit ūr us -a -um	lēct ūr us -a -um	audīt ūr us -a -um	≈ūr us -a -	
Supine I amāt um II amāt ū	monit um monit ū	lēct um lēct ū	audīt um audīt ū	≈um ≈ū	
Gerund acc. ama nd um gen. ama nd ī abl. ama nd ō	mone nd um mone nd ī mone nd ō	leg end um leg end ī leg end ō	audi end um audi end ī audi end ō	[1, 2] -nd um -nd ī -nd ō	[3, 4] -end um -end ī -end ō

		[B] Pas	ssive			
		Infiniti	ive			
[1, 2, 4]	[3]	present				
$-r\bar{i}$	$-\bar{t}$	perfect	[1] amā rī	[2] monē rī	[3] <i>leg</i> <i>ī</i>	[4] audī rī
≈us -a -um	esse		amāt um esse	monit um esse	lēct um esse	audīt um esse
≈um īrī		future	amāt um īrī	monit um īrī	lēct um īrī	audīt um īrī
[1, 2, 4]	[3]	Indicat	tive			
-or	-or	present	t .		_	
-ris	-eris	sing. 1	am or	mone or	leg or	audi or
-tur	-itur		amā ris	monē ris	leg eris	audī ris
-mur	-imur		amā tur	monē tur	leg itur	audī tur
-minī	-iminī	I I -	amā mur_	monē mur_	leg imur_	audī mur_
−(u)ntur	-untur	_	amā minī	monē minī	leg iminī	audī minī
[1, 2]	[3, 4]		ama ntur	mone ntur	leg untur	audi untur
-ba r	$-\bar{e}ba r$	imperf		-11 1	1 -1	1.1-1
-bā ris	−ēbā ris		amā ba r	monē ba r	leg ēba r	audi ēba r
−bā tur	-ēbā tur		amā bā ris	monē bā ris	leg ēbā ris	audi ēbā ris
−bā mur	−ēbā mur		amā bā tur	monē bā tur	leg ēbā tur	audi ēbā tur
-bā minī	−ēbā minī		amā bā mur	monē bā mur	leg ēbā mur	audi ēbā mur audi ēbā minī
-ba ntur	−ēba ntur	_	amā bā minī	monē bā minī	leg ēbā minī leg ēba ntur	audi eba ntur
[1, 2]	[3, 4]	future	amā ba ntur	monē ba ntur	iegjeoujniui	auaijevajniai
-b or	-a r		amā b or	monē b or	leg a r	audi a r
-b eris	−ē ris		amā b eris	monē b eris	leg ē ris	audi ē ris
-b itur	$-\bar{e} tur$		amā b itur	monē b itur	leg e tur	audi e tur
-b imur	-ē mur	4 .	amā b imur	monē b imur	leg e mur	audi ē mur
−b iminī	-ē minī	I I -	amā b iminī	monē b iminī	leg e minī	audi ē minī
-b untur	-e ntur		amā b untur	monē b untur	leg e ntur	audi e ntur
≈us -a (-un	a)	perfect			1.01-1	
~us -u (-un	1)	•	amāt us	monit us	lēct us	audīt us
es		sing. 1	sum	sum	sum	sum
est			es	es	es	es
≈ī -ae (-a)		3	est	est	est	est
sumus		1	amāt ī	monit ī	lēct ī	audīt ī
estis			umus	sumus	sumus	sumus
sunt			estis	estis	estis	estis
			sunt	sunt	sunt	sunt
≈us -a (-un	1)	pluperi		an omitle:	1āctlasc	andītlas
eram		oina 1	amāt us	monit us	lēct us	audīt us
erās		sing. 1		eram erās	eram	eram
erat		_	erās erat	eras erat	erās erat	erās erat
≈ī -ae (-a)		3	amāt ī	monit ī	lēct ī	audīt ī
erāmus		nl 1	erāmus	erāmus	erāmus	erāmus
erātis		1 1	erātis	erātis	erātis	erātis
erant			erant	erant	erant	erant
			V. V. 1 1 1 1			C

future perfect amāt us	monit us	lēct us	audīt us	≈us -a (-um)
sing.1 erō	erō	erō	erō	≈us -a (-um) erō
2 eris	eris	eris	eris	eris
3 <i>erit</i>	erit	erit	erit	erit
amāt ī pl.1 erimus	monit ī erimus	lēct ī erimus	audīt ī erimus	≈ī -ae (-a) erimus
2 eritis	eritis	eritis	eritis	eritis
3 erunt	erunt	erunt	erunt	erunt
Subjunctive				
Present	سام المسمية	laalalu	مرانا والم	[1] [2, 3, 4]
sing.1 am e r 2 am ē ris	mone a r mone ā ris	leg a r leg ā ris	audi a r audi ā ris	(-)e r -a r
3 am e tur		leg a tur	audi a tur	(−)ē ris −ā ris (−)ē tur −ā tur
pl.1 am ē mu		leg ā mur	audi ā mur	(-)ē mur -ā mur
^ 2 am ē min	ıī mone ā minī	leg ā minī	audi ā minī	(–)ē minī –ā minī
3 am e ntu	r mone a ntur	leg a ntur	audi a ntur	(-)e ntur -a ntur
Impertect sing.1 amā re r	monē re r	lealerelr	audī re r	[1, 2, 4] [3]
2 amā rē ri		leg ere r leg erē ris	audī rē ris	-re r -ere r -rē ris -erē ris
3 amā rē ti		leg erē tur	audī rē tur	-rē tur -erē tur
pl.1 amā rē n	ıur monē rē mur	leg erē mur	audī rē mur	-rē mur -erē mur
	iinī monē rē minī		audī rē minī	-rē minī -erē minī
3 amā re n Perfect	tur monē re ntur	leg ere ntur	audī re ntur	-re ntur -ere ntur
amāt us	monit us	lēct us	audīt us	≈us -a (-um)
sing.1 sim	sim	sim	sim	sim
$2 s\bar{i}s$	SĪS	sīs	sīs	sīs
3 sit	sit	sit	sit	sit
amāt ī	monit ī	lēct ī	audīt ī	≈ī -ae (-a)
pl.1 sīmus	sīmus sītis	sīmus sītis	sīmus sītis	sīmus sītis
2 sītis 3 sint	sint	sint	sint	sint
Pluperfect	31111	31111	31111	
amāt us	monit us	lēct us	audīt us	≈us -a (-um)
sing.1 essem	essem	essem	essem	essem
2 essēs	essēs	essēs	essēs	essēs
3 esset	esset monitl ī	esset lēct ī	esset	esset ≈ī -ae (-a)
amāt ī pl.1 essēmus	monit ī essēmus	essēmus	audīt ī essēmus	essēmus
2 essētis	essētis	essētis	essētis	essētis
3 essent	essent	essent	essent	essent
D 41 1				
Participle Perfect				
amāt us	monit us	lēct us	audīt us	≈us -a -um
-a -um	-a -um	-a -um	-a -um	
	VF VF111			
Gerundive		1 4		[1, 2] [3, 4]
ama nd ı	1 1	leg end us	audi end us	-nd us -a -end us -a
-a -um	-a -um	-a -um	-a -um	-um -um
				l

$\begin{bmatrix} 1, 2, 4 \end{bmatrix} \qquad \begin{bmatrix} 3 \end{bmatrix} \\ -r\bar{\iota} \qquad -\bar{\iota} \\ \approx us - a - um \ esse \\ \approx \bar{u}r | us - a - um \ esse$

3rd pers. sing.
≈(i)tur
≈(ē)bā|tur
-b|itur -ē|tur
≈us -a -um est
≈us -a -um erat
≈us -a -um erit

(-)ē|tur -ā|tur ≈(e)rē|tur ≈us -a -um sit ≈us -a -um esset

 $\begin{array}{lll} [1,2,4] & [3] \\ -re & -ere \\ -min\bar{\imath} & -imin\bar{\imath} \\ [1,2] & [3,4] \\ -ns & -\bar{e}ns \\ \approx us -a -um \\ \approx \bar{u}r|us -a -um \\ -um & -\bar{u} \end{array}$

[1, 2] [3, 4] -nd|um -end|um

-nd|us -a -end|us -a -um -um

i > e before r

cape|re < *capi|re capī < *capi|ī patī < *pati|ī

cape|ris < *capi|ris pate|ris < *pati|ris

Deponent verbs

Infinitive

pres. perf. fut.	cōnā rī cōnāt um esse cōnāt ūr um esse	verē rī verit um esse verit ūr um	ūt ī ūs um esse ūs ūr um	partī rī partīt um esse partīt ūr um esse
Indicati		esse	esse	C33C
pres. imperf. fut. perf. pluperf.	cōnā tur cōnā bā tur cōnā b itur cōnāt us est cōnāt us erat cōnāt us erit	verēļtur verēļbāļtur verēļbļitur veritļus est veritļus erat veritļus erit	ūt itur ūt ēbā tur ūt ē tur ūs us est ūs us erat ūs us erit	partī tur parti ēbā tur parti ē tur partīt us est partīt us erat partīt us erit
Subjunc	tive			
imperf.	cōn ē tur cōnā rē tur cōnāt us sit cōnāt us esset	vere ā tur verē rē tur verit us sit verit us esset	ūt ā tur ūt erē tur ūs us sit ūs us esset	parti ā tur partī rē tur partīt us sit partīt us esset
Imperat	ive			
sing. pl.	cōnā re cōnā minī	verē re verē minī	ūt ere ūt iminī	partī re partī minī
Particip	le			
pres. perf. fut.	cōnā ns cōnāt us cōnāt ūr us	verē ns verit us verit ūr us	ūt ēns ūs us ūs ūr us	parti ēns partīt us partīt ūr us
Supine	cōnāt um -ū	verit um -ū	ūs um -ū	partīt um -ū
Gerund				
	cōna nd um	vere nd um	ūt end um	parti end um
Gerundi				
	cōna nd us	vere nd us	ūt end us	parti end us

Third conjugation: present stem -i

Examples: capere, patī (present stem: capi-, pati-)

Infinitive	act.	pass.	dep.
present	cape re	cap ī	pat ī
Indicative			
present			
sing. 1	capi ō	capilor	patilor
2	capi s	cape ris	pate ris
3	capi t	capi tur	pati tur
pl. 1	capi mus	capi mur	pati mur
2 3	capi tis	capi minī	pati minī
3	capi unt	capi untur	pati untur
imperfect			
sing. 1	capi ēba m	capi ēba r	pati ēba r
2	capi ēbā s	capi ēbā ris	pati ēbā ris
3	capi ēba t	capi ēbā tur	pati ēbā tur
pl. 1	capi ēbā mus	capi ēbā mur	pati ēbā mur
2 3	capi ēbā tis	capi ēbā minī	pati ēbā minī
3	capi ēba nt	capi ēba ntur	pati ēba ntur

				1
future sing. 1 2 3 pl. 1 2 3 Subjunctiv	capi a m capi ē s capi e t capi ē mus capi ē tis capi e nt	capi a r capi ē ris capi ē tur capi ē mur capi ē minī capi e ntur	pati a r pati ē ris pati ē tur pati ē mur pati ē minī pati e ntur	
présent sing. 1 2 3 pl. 1 2 3	capi a m capi ā s capi a t capi ā mus capi ā tis capi a nt	capi a r capi ā ris capi ā tur capi ā mur capi ā minī capi a ntur	pati a r pati ā ris pati ā tur pati ā mur pati ā minī pati a ntur	
imperfect sing. 1 2 3 pl. 1 2 3	cape re m cape re s cape re t cape re mus cape re tis cape re nt	cape re r cape rē ris cape rē tur cape rē mur cape rē minī cape re ntur	pate re r pate rē ris pate rē tur pate rē mur pate rē minī pate re ntur	cape rem < *capi rem
sing. pl. Participle present Gerund Gerundive	cape capi te capi ēns-ent is capi end um	capi end us	pate re pati minī pati ēns -ent is pati end um pati end us	cape < *capi
1. Infinitiv Indicative pres. in s um er es er es t er s umus er es tis er s unt er 2. Infinitiv	r verbs I: prese e es se (stem es- nperf. fut. a m er o a s er is a t er it a mus er imus a tis er itis a nt er unt e posse	ser-, s-) Subjunctive pres. imperf. si m es se m s ī s se se t s ī tis es se tis s i m es se nt	ēs es tō es te es tōte us	er- ante vöcālem in composite verbs: ab- ad- de- in- inter- prae- prōd- super-esse prōd-est prō-sunt prōd-e prō-s de-est dē-sunt in-est in-sunt
Indicative pres. pos-sum pot-es pot-est pos-sumus pot-estis pos-sunt	pot-eram pot-erās pot-erat pot-erāmus pot-erātis	fut. pres. pot-erō pos-si pot-erit pos-si pot-erimus pos-si pot-eritis pos-si pot-erunt pos-si	īs possēs it posset īmus possēmus ītis possētis	pot-e pos-s

nõlle < ne- + velle mälle < magis + velle

3. Infinitive velle, nõlle, mālle

Indicative māl|ō māvīs pres. vol|ō nōl|ō nō'n vīs vīs vul|tnōn vult māvult vol[umus nōl|umus māl|umus vul|tis nōn vultis māvultis vol[unt nōl|unt māl unt nōl ēba m vol|ēba|m māl ēba m imperf. māl ēbā|s māl a|m māl ē|s nōl|ēbā|s vol ēbā s vol|a|m vol|ē|s nōl a m nōl ē s fut. Subjunctive pres. vel|i|m $n\bar{o}l|i|m$ māl|i|m vellim
velli s
velli t
velli tmus
velli tis
velli nt
velle m
velle s nōl|ī|s $m\bar{a}l|\bar{i}|s$ $n\bar{o}l|i|t$ $m\bar{a}l|i|t$ nol | i | mus nol | i | tis nol | i | nt nolle | m māl ī mus māl ī tis māl i nt mālle m imperf. nōllēs māllē|s velle|t nōlle|t mālle|t vellē mus vellē tis nōllē mus nōllē tis māllē|mus māllē tis velle nt nōlle|nt mālle|nt Participle vol|ēns nōl|ēns pres. Imperative sing. nōl|ī pl. nōl|īte

 $n\bar{o}l|\bar{i}-\bar{i}te+\inf$.

passive (impersonal) i|rī i|tur i|bā|tur i|b|itur e|ā|tur i|rē|tur gerundive: e|und|um (est)

4. Infinitive $\bar{\imath}|re$

Indica	itive		Subjunc		Impera	tive
pres.	imperf.	fut.	pres.	imperf.	pres.	fut.
elō	ī ba m	$\bar{\imath} b \bar{o}$	e a m	ī re m	ī	ī tō
$\bar{\imath} s$	īlbāls	ī b is	elāls	īļrēļs	īlte	ī tōte
$i \mid t$	ībalt	$\bar{i} b it$	elalt	īlrelt	Particii	oium
īmus	ī bā mus	ī b imus	e ā mus	ī rē mus	i ēns e i	unt is
īltis	ī bā tis	ī b itis	e ā tis	ī rē tis	Gerund	
e unt	ī ba nt	$\bar{\imath} b unt$	e a nt	ī re nt	e und u	ım

5. Infinitive filerī

Indicat				Subjunctive
pres.	imperf.	fut.	pres.	imperf.
fī ō	fī ēba m	fī a m	fī a m	fi ere m
fīs	fī ēbā s	fī[ē[s	fī[ā]s	fi erē s
fi t	fī ēba t	fi e t	fī a t	fi ere t
filmus	fī ēbā mus	fī ē mus	fī ā mus	fi erē mus
filtis	fī ēbā tis	fī ē tis	fī ā tis	filerēltis
filunt	fī ēba nt	fī e nt	fī a nt	fi ere nt

6. Infinitive: active fer|re, passive $fer|r\bar{i}$

Indicative

```
pass.
fer|ēba|r
                    pass.
                                          act.
       fer|ō
                                 imperf. fer|ēba|m
                    fer|or
pres.
                    fer ris
       fers
                                          fer|ēbā|s
                                                       fer|ēbā|ris
       fer|t
                    fer|tur
                                          fer|a|m
       fer imus
                    fer|imur
                                 fut.
       fer|tis
                    fer iminī
                                          fer ē|s
                                                       fer|ē|ris
       fer unt
                                          fer|e|t
                    fer untur
Subjunctive
       fer a m
                                 imperf. fer re m
fer rē s
preś.
       fer a s
                    fer|ā|ris
                                                       fer|rē|ris
       fer|a|t
                    fer|ā|tur
                                          fer|re|t
                                                        fer|rē|tur
                                                       fer rē mur
       fer|ā|mus
                    fer|ā|mur
                                          fer|rē|mus
       fer|ā|tis
                    fer|ā|minī
                                          fer|rē|tis
                                                       fer|rē|minī
                    fer|a|ntur
                                          fer re nt
       fer|a|nt
                                                       fer|re|ntur
                       Participle
                                     Gerund
                                                     Gerundive
Imperative
      fer fer te
                       fer ēns
                                     fer end um
                                                     fer|end|us
pres.
       fer tō -tōte
```

7. Infinitive: act. $\bar{e}s|se$, pass. $ed|\bar{i}$

```
Indicative
                                               Subjunctive
                                              pres.
ed|i|m (-a|m)
ed|ī|s (-ā|s)
ed|i|t (-a|t)
pres.
ed|ō
              imperf.
                                fut.
                                                                         imperf.
                               ed|a|m
ed|e|s
                                                                         ēs|se|m
             ed ēba m
ed ēbā s
                                                                         ēs sē s
ēs
                               ed e t
ed ē mus
ed ē tis
             ed ēba t
ēs t
                                                                         ēs se t
                                               ed ī mus (-ā|mus)
ed ī tis (-ā|tis)
             ed ēbā mus
                                                                         ēs sē mus
ed imus
             ed|ēbā|tis
                                                                         ēs sē tis
ēs tis
             ed ēba nt
                               ed e nt
                                               ed|i|nt (-a|nt)
ed|unt
                                                                         ēs se nt
```

Imperative Participle Gerund Gerundive pres. $\bar{e}s$ $\bar{e}s$ |te $ed|\bar{e}ns$ ed|end|um ed|end|us fut. $\bar{e}s|t\bar{o}-t\bar{o}te$

8. Infinitive *da|re*

Present stem da- (short a): da|re, da|mus, da|ba|m, $da|b|\bar{o}$, da|re|m, etc., except $d\bar{a}$ (imp.), $d\bar{a}|s$ (ind. pres. 2 sing.), $d\bar{a}|ns$ (pres. part.).

Defective verbs

9. ait

Indicative

```
pres. \vec{a}i \mid \vec{o} -- imperf. \vec{a}i \mid \vec{e}ba \mid m \vec{a}i \mid \vec{e}b\vec{a} \mid mus \vec{a}i \mid \vec{e}b\vec{a} \mid t \vec{a}i \mid \vec{e}b\vec{a} \mid t \vec{a}i \mid \vec{e}ba \mid t \vec{a}i \mid \vec{e}ba \mid t
```

10. inquit

Indicative

```
pres. inquam -- fut. -- inquis -- inquiës inquit inquiunt inquiet
```

pass. ind. pres. 3rd pers. $\bar{e}s|tur\ ed|untur$

ain'? = ais-ne?

11. Verbs without present stem:

memin|isse (imperative: $memen|t\bar{o} - t\bar{o}te$) $\bar{o}d|isse$

Irregular verbs II: perfect and supine stems

First conjugation

38. gaudē|re

11130	conjugation		
	pres. inf.	perf. inf.	perf. part./sup.
1.	cubā re	cubu isse	cubit um
2.	vetā re	vetu isse	vetit um
3.	im-plicā re	-plicu isse	-plicit um
4.		secu isse	sect um
5.	iuvā re	iūv isse	iūt um
6.	lavā re	lāv isse	laut um/lavāt um
7.	stā re	stet isse	
8.	cōn-stā re	-stit isse	
9.	da re	ded isse	dat um
Secon	d conjugation		
10.	docē re	docu isse	doct um
11.	miscē re	miscu isse	mixt um
12.	tenē re	tenu isse	tent um
13.	con-tinē re	-tinu isse	-tent um
14.	cēnsē re	cēnsu isse	cēns um
15.	dēlē re	dēlēv isse	dēlēt um
16.	flē re	flēv isse	flēt um
17.	im-plē re	-plēv isse	-plēt um
18.	cavē re	cāv isse	caut um
19.	favē re	fāv isse	faut um
20.	movē re	mōv isse	mōt um
21.	sedē re	sēd isse	sess um
22.	possidē re	possēd isse	possess um
23.	vidē re	vīd isse	vīs um
24.	augē re	aux isse	auct um
25.	lūcē re	lūx isse	
26.	lūgē re	lūx isse	
27.	iubē re	iuss isse	iuss um
28.	rīdē re	rīs isse	rīs um
29.	suādē re	suās isse	suās um
30.	tergē re	ters isse	ters um
31.	manē re	māns isse	māns um
32.	re-spondē re	-spond isse	-spōns um
33.	mordē re	momord isse	mors um
34.	fatē rī	fass um esse	
35.	cōn-fitē rī	-fess um esse	
36.	solē re	solit um esse	
37.	audē re	aus um esse	
	1-1	- 1	

gavīs um esse

ac-cubāre

ex-plicāre

ad-iuvāre

prae-stāre circum-dare

abs- re- sus-tinēre

com- ex-plēre

per- re-movēre

in-vidēre

dē-rīdēre dis- per-suādēre dē-tergēre re-manēre

Third	conjugation			
39.	leg ere	lēg isse	lēct um	
40.		-lēg isse	-lēct um	
41.	em ere	ēm isse	ēmpt um	
42.	red-im ere	-ēm isse	-ēmpt um	
43.	<u>.</u> .	-sēd isse	1 1	
44.	ēs se ed ō	ēd isse	ēs um	
45.	ag ere	ēg isse	āct um	
46.	cōg ere	co-ēg isse	co-āct um	
47.	- 1	cēp isse	capt um	
	ac-cip ere -iō	-cēp isse	-cept um	re-cipere
	fac ere -iō	fēc isse	fact um	imp. fac!
	· · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · · ·	-fēc isse	-fect um	cōn- ef- inter- per- ficere
51.	iac ere -iō	iēc isse	iact um	cen ey mer per jicere
	ab-ic ere -iō	-iēc isse	-iect um	ad- ē- prō-icere
	fug ere -iō	fūg isse	iceifum	au- ef-fugere
	vinc ere	vīc isse	vict um	uu ej jugere
	fund ere	fūd isse	fūs um	ef-fundere
	re-lingu ere	-līqu isse	-lict um	ej-junuere
57.		rūp isse	rupt um	ē-rumpere
	frang ere	frēg isse	frāct um	е-гитреге
	carp ere	carps isse	carpt um	
60.		dīx isse	dict um	ima dan dan
	dīc ere	•		imp. dīc! dūc!
61.	dūc ere	dūx isse	duct um	ab- ē- re-dūcere
62.	scrīb ere	scrīps isse	scrīpt um	īn-scrībere
63.	nūb ere	nūps isse	nupt um	
64.	1 1	-spex isse	-spect um	cōn- dē- prō- re- su- spicere
65.	al-lic ere -iō	-lēx isse	-lect um	7,,
66.	reg ere	rēx isse	rēct um	
67.	Oi	-rēx isse	-rēct um	
	perg ere	per-rēx isse		
69.	surg ere	sur-rēx isse		
70.	dīlig ere	dīlēx isse	dīlēct um	
71.	intelleg ere	intellēx isse	intellēct um	
72.	negleg ere	neglēx isse	neglēct um	
73.	cing ere	cīnx isse	cīnct um	
74.	iung ere	iūnx isse	iūnct um	ad- con- dis-iungere
75.	1 1	cox isse	coct um	
76.	trah ere	trāx isse	tract um	con- dē- re-trahere
77.	veh ere	vēx isse	vect um	ad- in-vehere
78.	īn-stru ere	-strūx isse	-strūct um	
	flu ere	flūx isse		īn-fluere
80.	vīv ere	vīx isse		part. fut. vīct ūr us
81.	sūm ere	sūmps isse	sūmpt um	cōn-sūmere
82.	prōm ere	prōmps isse	prōmpt um	
83.	dēm ere	dēmps isse	dēmpt um	
				ı

85. ürlere üss isse üst um 86. fig ere fix isse fix um 87. flect ere flex isse fix um 88. cēd ere cess isse cess um 89. claud ere claus isse claus um 90. in-clūd ere claus isse claus um 91. divid ere lūs isse dīvis um 92. lūd ere lūs isse lūs um 93. laed ere laes isse laes um 94. ē-līd ere -līs isse līs um 95. plaud ere plaus isse plaus um 96. mitt ere mīs isse miss um 97. quat ere-iō -cuss isse mers um 98. per-cut ere-iō -cuss isse mers um 100. sparg ere spars isse spars um 101. a-sperg ere -spers isse spars um 102. prem ere press isse press um 103. im-prim ere press isse press um 104. contem ere contēmps isse strāt um 105. stern ere sīrāv isse strāt um 106. cern ere crēv isse strāt um 107. ser ere sēv isse arcessiv isse arcessiv um 109. cup ere-iō cupiv isse cupit um 110. sap ere-iō sapi isse 111. pet ere petīv isse petīt um 112. quaer ere quaesiv isse dēsit um 113. re-quir ere -quīsīv isse sit um 114. sin ere sīv isse sit um 115. dēsin ere alu isse alt 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 dēsir ere dāsit se dēsit um 110. sup-ere-iō -rapu isse rapt um 111. dere alu isse alt um 112. quere ere posu isse posit um 115. dēsin ere dēsi isse dēsit um 116. pōn ere io -ripu isse rapt um 117. al ere alu isse alt um 118. col ere colu isse cult um 119. dēser ere dēserr um 110. car ere-iō -rapu isse rapt um 111. dere ere tremu isse 112. trem ere tremu isse 113. frem ere fremu isse recti isse dēst um 114. sin-ere fremu isse recti isse dēst um 115. dēsin ere dēsi isse dēserr um 116. pōn ere io -ripu isse rapt um 117. al ere alu isse alt um 118. col ere colu isse cult um 119. dēser ere dēserr um 120. rap ere-iō -ripu isse rapt um 121. ē-rip ere-iō -ripu isse rapt um 122. trem ere tremu isse 123. frem ere fremu isse 124. ac-cumb ere -cubu isse 125. tang ere tetig isse dēsc um 126. cae ere cecīd isse caes um 127. ac-cīd ere -cīd isse -cīs um		84.	ger ere	gess isse	gest um
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m-flectere ac-dis-prō-re-cèdere 88. cēd ere cess isse cess um 89. claud ere claus isse claus um 90. in-clūd ere claus isse claus um 90. in-clūd ere dīvīs isse dīvīs um 91. dīvid ere dīvīs isse dīvīs um 92. lūd ere laes isse laes um 94. ē-līd ere -līs isse līs um 95. plaud ere plaus isse plaus 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 mers um 99. merg ere mers isse mers um 101. a-sperg ere spars isse spars 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 arcessit um 108. arcess ere arcessiv isse arcessit um 109. cup ere-iō cupīv isse cupīt um 110. sap ere-iō sapi isse petīt um 111. pet ere petīv isse petīt um 112. quaer ere quaesīv isse alt um 113. re-quīr ere sīv isse sit 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 rept um 110. sur-ripere rept um 111. ē-rip ere-iō rapu isse rapt um 112. trem ere tremu isse re-cumbere re-cumbere re-culd ere cecid isse cues um 121. ē-rip ere-iō rapu isse rapt um 122. trem ere fremu isse re-culd isse re-culd isse re-culd ere cecid isse cues um 127. ac-cid ere cecid isse cues um 128. col ere cecid isse cues um 126. cad ere cecid isse cues um 127. ac-cid ere cecid isse cues um 128. cade ere cecid isse cues um 129. cacid ere cecid isse cues um 120. cacid ere cecid isse cues um 121. ē-rip ere-iō ripu isse re-cult um 122. trem ere fremu isse re-cult um 123. re-quīs ere fremu isse re-cult um 124. ac-cumb ere -cucd isse cues um 125. trem ere fremu isse re-cult um 126. cac ere cecid isse cues um 127. ac-cid ere cecid isse cues um 128. cace ere cecid isse cues um 129. cacid ere cecid isse caes um 129. cacid ere cecid isse cues um 129. cacid ere cecid isse caes um 129. cacid ere cecid isse caes um 129. cacid ere cec			'		
88. cēd ere cess isse cess um	īn-flectere			• •	* '
89. claud ere claus isse claus um 90. in-clid ere divis isse divis um 91. divid ere divis isse divis um 92. lid ere lius isse lius um 93. laed ere laes isse laes um 94. ē-līd ere -līs isse laes 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 russ um 99. merg ere mers isse mers um 100. sparg ere spars isse spars um 101. a-sperg ere -spers isse spars um 102. prem ere press isse press um 103. im-prim ere -press isse press um 104. contemn ere contēmps isse strāt um 105. stern ere strāv isse strāt um 106. cern ere crēv isse sat um 107. ser ere sēv isse sat um 108. arcess ere arcessīv isse arcessīt um 109. cup ere-iō cupīv isse cupīt um 110. sap ere-iō sapi isse 111. pet ere petīv isse petīt um 112. quaer ere qauaesiv isse quaesit um 113. re-quir ere -quīsiv isse sit 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 rapt um 110. rap ere-iō rapu isse rapt um 111. dēser ere dēseru isse dēsert um 112. trem ere tremu isse rapt um 113. re-cumb ere -cubu isse rapt um 114. de-cumb ere -cubu isse tāct um 115. tae ere fremu isse reet um 116. cad ere cecid isse caes um	*		•	•	•
90. in-clūd ere -clūs isse dīvīs um 91. dīvid ere dīvīs isse dīvīs um 92. lūd ere lūs isse lūs um 93. laed ere laes isse laes um 94. ē-līd ere līs isse līs um 95. plaud ere plaus isse plaus 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 quass um 98. per-cut ere-iō quass um 99. merg ere mers isse mers um 100. sparg ere spars isse spars um 101. a-sperg ere -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 sēv isse sat um 107. ser ere sēv isse sat um 109. cup ere-iō cupīv isse cupīt um 109. cup ere-iō cupīv isse cupīt um 110. sap ere-iō sapi isse 111. pet ere petiv isse quaesīt um 112. quaer ere quaesīv isse sit um 113. re-quīr ere -quīsīv isse sit 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 110. rap ere-iō rapu isse rapt um 120. rap ere-iō rapu isse rapt um 121. ē-rip ere-iō rapu isse rapt um 121. ē-rip ere-iō rapu isse rapt um re-culmere termu isse re-cumbere 124. ac-cumb ere -cubu isse tāct um re-culmere termu isse re-cumbere 125. tang ere tertig isse caes um 126. cad ere cecīd isse caes um 128. caed ere cecīd isse caes um 129. caes um 120. caes um cecīd isse caes um 120. caes um cecīd isse caes um cecī					
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93. laed ere laes isse laes um 94. ē-līd ere -līs isse -līs 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 98. per-cut ere -iō -cuss isse -cuss um 99. merg ere mers isse mers um 100. sparg ere spars isse spars um 101. a-sperg ere -spers isse -spers um 102. prem ere press isse -press um 103. im-prim ere -press isse -press um 104. contemn ere contemps isse contempt um 105. stern ere strāv isse strāt um 106. cern ere crēv isse sat um 107. ser ere sēv isse sat um 109. cup ere -iō cupīv isse cupīt um 110. sap ere -iō sapi isse 111. pet ere petīv isse quaesīt um 112. quaer ere quaesīv isse quaesīt um 113. re-quir ere -quisīv isse quaesīt 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 119. dēser ere dēseru isse dēsert um 110. rap ere-iō rapu isse rapt um 111. ē-rip ere-iō rapu isse rapt um 112. re-quere tremu isse 123. frem ere fremu isse 124. ac-cumb ere -cubu isse tāct um 125. tang ere tetig isse tāct um 126. cad ere cecid isse caes um				'	
94. ē-līd ere -līs isse -līs um 95. plaud ere plaus isse plaus um 96. mitt ere mīs isse miss um 97. quat ere-iō					
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. merg ere mers isse mers um 100. sparg ere spars isse spars um 101. a-sperg ere -spers isse -spers um 102. prem ere press isse press um 103. im-prim ere -press isse -press um 104. contemn ere contemps isse contempt um 105. stern ere strāv isse strāt um 106. cern ere strēv isse sat um 107. ser ere sēv isse sat um 108. arcess ere arcessīv isse arcessīt um 109. cup ere -iō cupīv isse cupīt um 110. sap ere petīv isse quaesīt um 111. pet ere petīv isse petīt um 112. quaer ere quaesīv isse sit um 113. re-quir ere -quisīv isse sit 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 120. rap ere -iō -ripu isse rept um 120. rap ere -iō -ripu isse -rept um 121. ē-rip ere -iō -ripu isse -rept um 122. trem ere tremu isse 123. frem ere tremu isse 125. tang ere tetig isse tāct um 126. cad ere cecid isse caes um				•	
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mittere 97. quat ere -iō quass um 98. per-cut ere -iō -cuss isse -cuss um 99. merg ere mers isse mers um 100. sparg ere spars isse spars um 101. a-sperg ere -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 crēt um 106. cern ere crēv isse crēt um 107. ser ere sēv isse sat um 108. arcess ere arcessīv isse arcessīt um 109. cup ere -iō cupīv isse cupīt um 110. sap ere -iō sapi isse 111. pet ere petīv isse petīt um 112. quaer ere quaesīv isse quaesīt um 113. re-quīr ere -quīsīv isse sit 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 119. dēser ere dēseru isse rapt um 110. rap ere -iō rapu isse rapt um 111. ē-rip ere -iō ripu isse rept um 112. trem ere tremu isse 113. frem ere fremu isse 114. ac-cumb ere cubu isse tāct um 115. dēsin ere dēseru isse tāct um 116. pān ere io rapu isse rapt um 117. al ere alu isse dēsert um 118. col ere colu isse cult um 119. dēser ere dēseru isse dēsert um 120. rap ere -iō rapu isse rapt um 121. ē-rip ere -iō -ripu isse rept um 122. trem ere tremu isse 123. frem ere fremu isse 124. ac-cumb ere -cubu isse 125. tang ere tetig isse tāct um 126. cad ere cecīd isse 127. ac-cid ere -cid isse 128. caed ere cecīd isse 128. caed ere cecīd isse	ā- ad- dī- per- prō- re-				- '
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103. im-prim ere					
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$ \begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		111.	pet ere	petīv isse	petīt um
$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		112.	quaer ere	quaesīv isse	quaesīt um
$\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		113.	re-quīr ere	-quīsīv isse	-quīsīt um
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$\begin{array}{c ccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$		115.	dēsin ere	dēsi isse	dēsit um
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$ \begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$	ponere		•	•	
	in-colere	118.			•
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oc-cidere 127. ac-cid ere -cid isse 128. caed ere cecīd isse caes um			01		tāct um
128. caed ere cecīd isse caes um					
	oc-cidere		•	•	ı
129. oc-cid ere -cīd isse -cīs um					
l		129.	oc-c1a ere	-c1a 1sse	-cis um

130.	curr ere	cucurr isse	curs um	
	ac-curr ere	-curr isse	-curs um	ex- oc- per- prō-currere
	par ere -iō	peper isse	part um	
	pell ere	pepul isse	puls um	
	parc ere	peperc isse	1	
	can ere	cecin isse		
	fall ere	fefell isse		per- red- trā-dere
	ad-d ere	-did isse	-dit um	1
	crēd ere	crēdid isse	crēdit um	
	vēnd ere	vēndid isse	,	dē- re-sistere
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141.	scind ere	scidisse	sciss um	
142.	bib ere	bib isse	•	
143.	dēfend ere	dēfend isse	dēfēns um	ap- re-prehendere
144.	prehend ere	prehend isse	prehēns um	cōn- dē-scendere
145.	a-scend ere	-scend isse	-scēns um	
146.	ac-cend ere	-cend isse	-cēns um	
147.	ostend ere	ostend isse	ostent um	ā- con-vertere
148.	vert ere	vert isse	vers um	
149.	minu ere	minu isse	minūt um	
150.	statu ere	statu isse	statūt um	
151.	cōn-stitu ere	-stitu isse	-stitūt um	
	indu ere	indu isse	indūt um	
153.	metu ere	metu isse		
154.		solv isse	solūt um	ē-volvere
155.		volv isse	volūt um	re-quiēscere
	quiēsc ere	quiēv isse		
	crēsc ere	crēv isse		
	ērubēsc ere	ērubu isse		
159.		nōv isse		
	ignōsc ere	ignōv isse	ignōt um	
	cognōsc ere	cognōv isse	cognitum	
	pāsc ere	pāv isse	pāstum	
	posc ere	poposc isse		
	disc ere	didic isse		
	fer re	tul isse	lāt um	
	af-fer re	at-tul isse	ad lātum	
	au-fer re	abs-tul isse	ab lātum	
	ef-fer re	ex-tul isse	ē-lāt um	
	of-fer re	ob-tul isse	ob-lāt um	
	re-fer re	rettul isse	re-lāt um	per- prae- prō- trāns- ferre
	toll ere	sustul isse	sublāt um	
	in-cip ere -iō fīd ere	coep isse	coept um	azu Gdana
	revert ī	fīs um esse revert isse	revers um	cōn-fīdere
	logu ī	locūt um esse	Teversjani	col-loquī
1/5.	~yn r	weni min cooc		55. 10qui

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fut. inf. futūr um esse, fore		ad-esse ad-/as-su	ım	af-fu isse
	206.	de-esse dē-sum		dē-fu isse
		prōd-esse prō-sur fi erī fī ō	npro-fu 1sse	fact um ess
	200.	11/01/1/10		Jule Juli Cost

Alphabetical List of Irregular Verbs

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	*		

Index of Nouns, Adjectives and Verbs

Nouns

1st Declension

Gen. sing. -ae, pl. -ārum

0.111.011.0	, r			
Feminine				
āla	fenestra	littera	puella	
amīca	fera	lucerna	pugna	
amīcitia	fīlia	lūna	rēgula	
ancilla	fōrma	mamma	rīpa	
anima	fortūna	margarīta	rosa	
aqua	fossa	māteria	sagitta	
aquila	fuga	mātrōna	scaena	
arānea	gemma	memoria	sella	
audācia	gena	mēnsa	sententia	
bēstia	glōria	mora	silva	
catēna	grammatica	Mūsa	stēlla	
cauda	grātia	nātūra	syllaba	
causa	hasta	nāvicula	tabella	
cēna	herba	nota	tabula	
cēra	hōra	opera	terra	
charta	iactūra	ōra	toga	
columna	iānua	paenīnsula	tunica	
cōmoedia	iniūria	pāgina	turba	
cōpia	inopia	palma	umbra	
culīna	īnsūla	patientia	ūva	
cūra	invidia	patria	vēna	
dea	īra	ресūпіа	via	
domina	lacrima	penna	victōria	
epistula	laetitia	persōna	vigilia	
fābula	lāna	pila	vīlla	
fāma	lectīca	poena	vīnea	
familia	līnea	porta	virga	
fēmina	lingua	prōvincia	vīta	
(pl.)	· ·	•		
cūnae	dīvitiae	nōnae	tenebrae	
dēliciae	kalendae	nūgae	tībiae	
Masculine (/feminine)				
agricola	convīva	nauta	poēta	
aurīga	incola	parricīda	pīrāta	
~		-	-	

2nd Declension

Gen. sing. -ī, pl. -ōrum 1. Nom. sing. -us(-r)Masculīne

agnus deus locus pugnus amīcus digitus lūdus pullus animus discipulus lupus rāmus annus dominus marītus rēmus ānulus equus medicus rīvus asinus erus modus sacculus avunculus fīlius mundus saccus fluvius barbarus mūrus servus cachinnus fundus nāsus sēstertius calamus gallus nīdus somnus calceus gladius numerus sonus campus hortus nummus stilus capillus inimīcus nūntius tabernārius labyrinthus cibus ōceanus taurus circus lacertus ocellus titulus cocus lectus oculus tyrannus colōnus lēgātus ōstiārius umerus delphīnus libellus petasus ventus dēnārius lībertīnus populus zephyrus

(nom. sing. -er)

faber -brī ager agrī magister -trī puer -erī liber -brī culter -trī minister -trī vesper -erī

(pl.) līberī

Feminine

Rhodus humus papyrus Aegyptus

2. Nom. sing. -um, plur -a

Neuter

aedificium exemplum mōnstrum scamnum aequinoctium factum negōtium scūtum odium fātum saeculum arātrum ferrum officium argentum saxum ātrium fīlum oppidum scalpellum aurum folium ōrnāmentum signum silentium auxilium forum ōsculum baculum fretum ōstium solum balneum frūmentum ōtium speculum bāsium fūrtum ōvum stipendium bellum gaudium pābulum studium beneficium gremium supplicium pallium bonum imperium pecūlium talentum bracchium impluvium pēnsum tēctum ingenium caelum perīculum templum capitulum initium peristylum tergum īnstrūmentum theātrum cerebrum pīlum colloquium labrum pirum triclīnium collum vāllum lignum pōculum cōnsilium līlium praedium vēlum convīvium lucrum verbum praemium cubiculum maleficium pretium vestīgium dictummalum prīncipium vestīmentum dōnum mālum prōmissum vīnum vocābulum dorsum mendum respōnsum (pl.)

arma -ōrum castra -ōrum loca -ōrum vāsa -ōrum

3rd Declension

Gen. sing. -is 1. Gen. pl. -um Masculine

āēr āeris amor -ōris arātor -ōris bōs bovis calor -ōris carcer -eris cardō -inis clāmor -ōris color -ōris comes -itis coniūnx -iugis cruor -ōris dolor -ōris dux ducis eques -itis fidicen -inis flōs -ōris frāter -tris fūr fūris

gladiātor -ōris grex -egis gubernātor -ōris homō -inis hospes -itis iānitor -ōris imperātor -ōris iuvenis -is labor -ōris leō -ōnis mercātor -ōris mīles -itis mōs mōris ōrdō -inis passer -eris pāstor -ōris pater -tris pedes -itis

piscātor -ōris praedō -ōnis prīnceps -ipis pudor -ōris pulmō -ōnis rēx rēgis rūmor -ōris sacerdōs -ōtis sāl salis sanguis -inis senex senis sermō -ōnis sōl sōlis spectātor -ōris tībīcen -inis timor -ōris victor -ōris

(pl.) parentēs -um

septentrionēs -um

pēs pedis

Feminine

aestās -ātis
aetās -ātis
arbor -oris
condiciō -ōnis
crux -ucis
expugnātiō -ōnis
felīcitās -ātis
hiems -mis
imāgō -inis
laus laudis
legiō -ōnis
lēx lēgis
lībertās -ātis

māter -tris
mentiō -ōnis
mercēs -ēdis
mulier -eris
multitūdō -inis
nārrātiō -ōnis
nāvigātiō -ōnis
nex necis
nūtrīx -īcis
nux nucis
orātiō -ōnis
pāx pācis
potestās -ātis
pōtiō -ōnis
pulchritūdō -inis

quālitās -ātis
ratiō -ōnis
salūs -ūtis
servitūs -ūtis
servitūs -ōnis
soror -ōris
tempestās -ātis
tranquillitās -ātis
uxor -ōris
valētūdō -inis
virgō -inis
virtūs -ūtis
voluntās -ātis
vorāgō -inis

(pl.)

frūgēs -um

opēs -um

precēs -um

Neuter (pl. nom. /acc. -a)
agmen -inis holus
caput -itis iecur
carmen -inis iter it.
certāmen -inis iūs iū
cognōmen -inis lac lac
cor cordis latus corpus -oris līmen
crūs -ūris lītus epigramma -atis mel m
flūmen -inis mūnu
frīgus -oris nōme
fulgur -uris opus -

holus -eris iecur -oris iter itineris iūs iūris lac lactis latus -eris līmen -inis lītus -oris mel mellis mūnus -eris nōmen -inis opus -eris ōs ōris

pectus -oris pecus -oris phantasma -atis praenōmen -inis rūs rūris scelus -eris sēmen -inis tempus -oris thema -atis vās vāsis vēr vēris vulnus -eris

(pl.)

verbera -um

genus -eris

viscera -um

2. Gen. pl. -ium Masculine

amnis hostis oriēns -entis as assis ignis orbis imber -bris cīvis pānis īnfāns -antis collis piscis dēns dentis mēnsis pōns pontis mōns montis ēnsis testis occidēns -entis fīnis venter -tris

Feminine

apis famēs -is ovis ars artis foris pars partis auris frōns -ontis puppis gēns gentis ratis avis caedēs -is mēns mentis sitis carō carnis merx -rcis urbs -bis classis mors -rtis vallis clāvis vestis nāvis cohors -rtis vītis nix nivis consonans -antis nox noctis vōcālis nūbēs -is falx -cis

(pl.)

fidēs -ium

sordēs -ium vīrēs -ium

Neuter

animal -ālis mare -is rēte -is

(pl.)

mīlia -ium moenia -ium

4th Declension

Gen. sing. -ūs, pl. -uum

Masculine

affectus impetus sinus cursus strepitus arcus equitātus lacus cantus exercitus metus tonitrus tumultus cāsus exitus passus cōnspectus flūctus portus versus currus gradus rīsus vultus

Feminine

anus domus manus

(pl.) īdūs -uum Neuter

cornū genū

5th Declension

Gen. sing. -ēī/-eī (pl. -ērum)

Feminine

aciēs -ēī glaciēs -ēī fidēs -eī spēs -eī faciēs -ēī speciēs -ēī rēs reī

Masculine

diēs -ēī merīdiēs -ēī

Adjectives

1st/2nd Declension

Nom. sing. m. -us, f. -a, n. -um

acerbus ferus mellītus rēctus acūtus fessus mercātōrius reliquus fīdus rīdiculus adversus merus aegrōtus foedus meus Rōmānus fōrmōsus aequus minimus rūsticus albus frīgidus mīrus saevus fugitīvus aliēnus misellus salvus altus futūrus molestus sānus gemmātus amīcus mortuus scaenicus gladiātōrius mundus scelestus amoenus glōriōsus angustus mūtus secundus antīquus grātus mūtuus septimus gravidus necessārius serēnus apertus horrendus sērius arduus nimius ignārus sevērus argenteus niveus armātus ignōtus nōnus sextus immātūrus nōtus siccus asinīnus improbus novus situs attentus nūbilus sordidus aureus īmus avārus incertus nūdus studiōsus barbarus inconditus obscūrus stultus beātus indignus octāvus summus bellus indoctus optimus superbus bonus industrius ōtiōsus superus īnferus pallidus surdus caecus calidus īnfēstus parātus suus candidus īnfīdus parvulus tacitus cārus īnfimus parvus tantus cautus inhūmānus pecūniōsus tardus perīculōsus temerārius celsus inimīcus tenebricōsus centēsimus iniūstus perpetuus certus internus perterritus timidus invalidus tertius cēterus pessimus plānus clārus togātus iocōsus plēnus tranquillus claudus īrātus clausus iūcundus poēticus turbidus turgidus contrārius iūstus postrēmus tūtus crassus laetus praeteritus prāvus cruentus laevus tuus $c\bar{u}nctus$ largus pretiōsus ultimus Latīnus ūmidus cupidus prīmus decimus lātus prīvātus ūniversus legiōnārius dignus propinquus urbānus dīmidius ligneus proprius vacuus dīrus longus proximus validus doctus maestus pūblicus varius dubius magnificus pūrus venustus dūrus magnus quantus vērus ēbrius malus quārtus vīvus maritimus quiētus ēgregius -issimus mātūrus exiguus quīntus sup. falsus māximus rapidus -ēsimus ferreus medius rārus num.

(pl.)

cēterī paucī singulī ducentī multī plērī-que bīnī trecentī nōnnūllī plūrimī cēt. cēt.

Nom. sing. -er -(e)ra -(e)rum

aeger -gra -grumniger -gra -grumruber -bra -brumāter -tra -trumnoster -tra -trumsinister -tra -trumdexter -tra -trumpiger -gra -grumvester -tra -trumimpiger -gra -grumpulcher -chralīber -era -eruminteger -gra -grum-chrummiser -era -erum

3rd Declension

Nom. sing. m./f. -is, n. -e

fertilis brevis levis rudis circēnsis fortis mīlitāris similis gracilis mīrābilis tālis commūnis gravis crūdēlis mollis tenuis dēbilis humilis mortālis terribilis difficilis immortālis nōbilis trīstis dulcis incolumis turpis omnis vīlis facilis inermis quālis

Nom. sing. m./f./n. -ns, gen. -ntis

absēns dēponēns prūdēns ingēns amāns dīligēns neglegēns sapiēns frequēns clēmēns -ns part. patiēns cōnstāns praesēns impatiēns pres.

Nom. sing. m./f./n. -x, gen. -cis

audāx fēlīx īnfēlīx 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 accubāre dēlectāre accūsāre dēmōnstrāre dēsīderāre adiuvāre adōrāre dēspērāre aedificāre dēvorāre dictāre aegrōtāre aestimāre dōnāre affīrmāre dubitāre amāre ēducāre ambulāre errāre ēvolāre appellāre apportāre excitāre appropinexclāmāre quārē excōgitāre arāre excruciāre armāre excūsāre bālāre exīstimāre exōrnāre cantāre explānāre cēnāre certāre expugnāre exspectāre cessāre fatīgāre circumdare clāmāre flāre gubernāre cōgitāre gustāre commemohabitāre rāre comparāre iactāre ignōrāre illūstrāre computāre cōnstāre conturbāre imperāre implicāre convocāre cōpulāre interpellare cruciāre interrogāre cubāre intrāre invocāre cūrāre

iuvāre labōrāre lacrimāre lātrāre laudāre lavāre levāre līberāre memorāre mīlitāre mönsträre mūtāre nārrāre natāre nāvigāre necāre negāre nōmināre numerāre nūntiāre occultāre oppugnāre optāre ōrāre *ōrdināre* ōrnāre ōscitāre palpitāre parāre perturbāre pīpiāre plōrāre portāre postulāre pōtāre praestāre

properāre pugnāre pulsāre putāre recitāre rēgnāre rēmigāre repugnāre revocāre rigāre rogāre rogitāre salūtāre salvāre sānāre secāre servāre signāre significāre spectāre spērāre spīrāre stāre suscitāre turbāre ululāre verberāre vetāre vigilāre vītāre vocāre volāre vorāre vulnerāre

Deponent verbs

admīrārī fārī arbitrārī hortārī comitārī fābulārī imitārī cōnārī cōnsōlārī laetārī

luctārī minārī mīrārī ōsculārī precārī

tumultuārī versārī

fatērī

2nd Conjugation

Inf. pres. act. -ēre, pass. -ērī abstinēre favēre appārēre flēre audēre frīgēre gaudēre augēre habēre carēre cavēre horrēre cēnsēre iacēre impendēre complēre implēre invidēre continēre dēbēre iubēre decēre dēlēre latēre dērīdēre libēre dētergēre licēre dēterrēre lūcēre dissuādēre lūgēre docēre maerēre dolēre manēre Deponent verbs

merēre retinēre rīdēre miscēre rubēre monēre mordēre salvēre sedēre movēre nocēre silēre oportēre solēre pallēre studēre pārēre stupēre suādēre patēre permovēre sustinēre persuādēre tacēre placēre tenēre possidēre tergēre pudēre terrēre remanēre timēre removēre valēre respondēre vidēre

cōnfitērī intuērī verērī tuērī

3rd Conjugation

Inf. pres. act. -ere, pass. -ī 1. Ind. pres. pers. 1 sing. -ō, -or

abdūcere coquere accēdere corrigere accendere crēdere accidere crēscere currere accumbere dēfendere accurrere addere dēmere dēscendere adiungere admittere dēserere adnectere dēsinere advehere dēsistere dētrahere agere alere dīcere animadvertere dīligere dīmittere āmittere apponere discēdere apprehendere discere arcessere disiungere ascendere dīvidere aspergere dūcere āvertere ēdūcere effundere bibere cadere ēlīdere caedere ēligere canere emere carpere ērubēscere cēdere ērumpere cernere ēvolvere cingere excurrere claudere expōnere cōgere extendere cognōscere fallere colere fīdere confidere fīgere coniungere flectere conscendere fluere cōnsīdere frangere cōnsistere fremere cōnstituere fundere cōnsūmere gerere ignōscere contemnere contrahere impōnere convertereimprimere Deponent verbs

inclūdere incolere induere inflectere īnfluere īnscrībere īnstruere intellegere invehere iungere laedere legere lūdere mergere metere metuere minuere mittere neglegere nōscere nūbere occidere occīdere occurrere ostendere parcere pāscere pellere percurrere perdere pergere permittere petere plaudere pōnere poscere praepōnere prehendere premere prōcēdere prōcurrere prōmere prōmittere

quaerere quiēscere recēdere recognōscere recumbere reddere redimere redūcere regere relinquere remittere repōnere reprehendere requiescere requirere resistere retrahere rumpere scindere scrībere serere sinere solvere spargere statuere sternere submergere sūmere surgere tangere tollere trādere trahere tremere ūrere vehere vēndere vertere vincere vīsere vīvere

colloguī lābī complectī loguī nāscī cōnsequī fruī oblīvīscī persequī proficīscī querī reminīscī

revertī sequī ūtī

_	т 1			1		• -	
2.	Ind.	pres.	pers.	1	sing.	-10,	-10r

abicere	cōnspicere	iacere	rapere
accipere	cupere	incipere	recipere
adicere	dēspicere	interficere	sapere
afficere	efficere	parere	surripere
allicere	effugere	percutere	suscipere
aspicere	ēicere	perficere	suspicere
aufugere	ēripere	prōicere	-
capere	facere	prōspicere	
cōnficere	fugere	quatere	
Deponent ve	rhe		

Deponent verbs

ēgredī	morī	patī	prōgredī

4th Conjugation

Inf. pres. act	īre, passīrī		
advenīre	exaudīre	oboedīre	scīre
aperīre	exhaurīre	operīre	sentīre
audīre	fīnīre	pervenīre	servīre
circumsilīre	haurīre	prōsilīre	vāgīre
convenīre	invenīre	pūnīre	venīre
cūstōdīre	mollīre	reperīre	vestīre
dēsilīre	mūnīre	revenīre	vincīre
dormīre	nescīre	salīre	
Deponent vebs	S		
largīrī	opperīrī	mentīrī	orīrī
partīrī	11		

Vocabulary by Chapter

I. Imperium Romanum sed coniunctiones

Nōmina

nōminaquoquefluviusadverbaimperiumnōn

īnsula vocābula interrogātīva

ōceanus -ne?
oppidum ubi?
prōvincia num?
verba grammatica quid?

capitulum exemplum II. Familia Romana

grammatica ancilla littera domina numerus dominus singulāris familia pēnsum fēmina plūrālis fīlia syllaba fīlius vocābulum liber adiectīva līberī duo mâter Graecus pāgina Latīnus pater magnus puella mīlle puer

servus parvus titulus paucī prīmus verba grammatica Rōmānus fēminīnum secundus genetīvus sex masculīnum tertius neutrum trēs adiectīva ūnus antīquus verba centum est cēterī sunt duae praepositiō meus

novus

tria

tuus

coniunctiones et

multī

-que vocābula interrogātīva

cuius? quae? quī? quis? quot?

III. Puer Improbus

nomina mamma persona scaena

verba grammatica accūsātīvus nōminātīvus verbum adiectīva improbus īrātus laetus probus verba audit cantat dormit interrogat plorat pulsat respondet rīdet venit verberat videt vocat

pronomina eam eum hīc mē quae quam quem qui tē adverbia iam vocābula i

vocābula interrogātīva

cūr?

coniunctiones neque quia alia o!

IV. Dominus et Servi

nōmina baculum mēnsa nummus pecūnia sacculus

verba grammatica indicātīvus vocātīvus adiectīva bonus decem novem nūllus octō quattuor

quattuor quinque septem

suus vacuus verba abest accūsat adest discēdit habet

imperat

numerat pāret pōnit salūtat sūmit tacet **pronōmina**

eius is adverbia rūrsus tantum alia salvē V. Villa et Hortus

nōmina
aqua
ātrium
cubiculum
fenestra
hortus
impluvium
līlium
nāsus
ōstium
peristÿlum
rosa
vīlla
verba grammatica

ablātīvus adiectīva

foedus pulcher

sõlus
verba
agit
amat
carpit
dēlectat
habitat
pronōmina
is, ea, id

adverbium etiam

praepositiones

VI. Via Latina

cum ex sine

nōmina amīca amīcus equus inimīcus

lectīca mūrus porta saccus umerus via

via
verba grammatica
praepositio
locātīvus
āctīvum
passīvum
adiectīva
duodecim

fessus longus malus verba ambulat intrat it/eunt portat timet vehit adverbia ante autem itaque nam

quam tam **praepositiōnes**

ad
ante
apud
circum
inter
per
post
procul ab
prope

vocābula interrogātīva

unde? quō?

VII. Puella et Rosa

nōmina lacrima mālum oculus ōsculum ōstiārius pirum speculum

verba grammatica

datīvus
adiectīva
fōrmōsus
plēnus
verba
adit
advenit
aperit
claudit
currit
dat
es
exit

exspectat clāmat dūcit inest cōnsistit errat lacrimat constat ēst edunt tenet convenit iacet impōnit terget emit vertit monstrat lātrat pronōmina ōrnat lūcet cui ostendit petit quaerit eī vēndit haec pronōmina relinquit ille reperit hic hoc adverbia ululat iīs nimis pronōmina illīc satis ipse coniunctiō adverbia sē adverbia aut procul immō praepositiō IX. Pastor et Oves non...sōlum sub

non...sõlum

praepositiö

arbor

IX. Pastor et Oves
sub
sub
arbor

conti

e arbor coniunctiōnēs coniunctiō dum

āēr

āla

anima

animal

aquila

asinus

bēstia

cauda

deus

fera

flūmen

folium

homo

lectus

mare

nīdus

ōvum

pēs

pila

piscis

pullus

pulmō

rāmus

nūntius

petasus

mercātor

leō

avis

coniunctiō caeium dur et...et campus ut

neque...neque canis
neque...neque cibus X. Bestiae et Homines
nōmina

nōnne? clamor collis
VIII. Taberna Romana dēclīnātiō dēns

ānulus herba collum lupus digitus modus gemma mons līnea nūbēs margarīta ovis ōrnāmentum pānis pretium pāstor prōnōmen rīvus sēstertius silva taberna sõl tabernārius terra

verba

abit

adiectīva timor alius umbra gemmātus vallis medius vestīgium nōnāginta verba grammatica octōgintā dēclīnātiō pecūniōsus adiectīva quantus albus quārtus niger tantus ūndēcentum vīgintī verba

accipit bibit vōx aspicit dēclīnat verba grammatica

accurrit bālat īnfīnītīvus ŌS adiectīva pectus crassus pōculum ferus sanguis vēna mortuus perterritus venter tenuis viscera vīvus adiectīva verba aeger ascendere hūmānus audēre noster cadere ruber canere sānus capere stultus facere verba lūdere aegrōtāre movēre apponere natāre arcessere necesse est dētergēre occultāre dīcere parere dolēre potest possunt fluere gaudēre spīrāre sustinēre horrēre vīvere iubēre volāre palpitāre vult volunt posse pronomina putāre nēmō revenīre adverbia sānāre ergō sedēre coniunctiones sentīre quod spectāre cum stāre

XI. Corpus Humanum

nōmina auris bracchium capillus caput cerebrum color cor

enim

corpus crūs culter

frons gena iecur labrum manus medicus membrum

dux eques equitātus exercitus fīnis fossa frāter gladius hasta hostis impetus lātus metus mīles mīlia nōmen pars passus patria pedes pīlum praenōmen pugnus sagitta scūtum soror vāllum versus

verba grammatica adiectīvum comparātīvus adiectīva altus armātus barbarus tangere adverbia brevis fortis gravis levis modo praepositiones trīstis vester verba super

XII. Miles Romanus Nōmina arcus

arma avunculus bellum castra cognōmen

coniunctiones

bene

male

đē

īnfrā

atque

nec

dēfendere dīvidere expugnāre ferre fugere iacere incolere metuere mīlitāre oppugnāre pugnāre coniunctiō ac

contrā

praepositiō

XIII. Annus et Menses

nōmina
aequinoctium
aestās
annus
autumnus
diēs
faciēs
forma
glaciēs
hiems
hōra
īdūs

imber initium kalendae lacus lūna lūx

māne mēnsis merīdiēs nix nōnae nox saeculum

stēlla tempus urbs vēr vesper

verba grammatica indēclīnābilis superlātīvus adiectīva aequus calidus clārus decimus

decimus
dīmidius
ducentī
duodecimus
exiguus
frīgidus
nōnus
obscūrus
octāvus
postrēmus
quīntus
septimus
sextagintā
sextus
tōtus

trecentī trīgintā ūndecim ūndecimus verba erat, erant illūstrāre incipere nōmināre

operīre
velle
adverbia
item
māne
nunc
quandō
tunc
coniunctiōnes
igitur

vel

XIV. Novus Dies
nōmina
calceus
gallus

nihil (also *adv*.) parentēs rēgula

regula res stilus tabula toga tunica vestīmentum

verba grammatica participium adiectiva alter apertus clausus dexter neuter nūdus omnis pūrus sinister sordidus

neuter
nūdus
omnis
pūrus
sinister
sordidus
togātus
uter
uterque
verba
afferre
cubāre
excitāre
frīgēre
gerere

induere inquit lavāre mergere poscere solēre surgere valēre vestīre vigilāre pronōmina mēcum mihi sēcum tēcum tibi adverbia

hodiē
nihil (also noun)
prīmum
quōmodo
praepositiō
praeter
coniunctiō

adhūc

deinde

interrogatīva

uter? **alia** valē

XV. Magister et Discipuli

nōmina
discipulus
domī
iānua
lectulus
lūdus
magister
sella
tergum
virga
adiectīva
īnferior
malus
posterior
prior
sevērus

malus
posterior
prior
sevērus
tacitus
vērus
verba
cōnsīdere
dēsinere
es
estis

exclāmāre licēre pūnīre recitāre reddere redīre sum sumus prōnomina ego nōs tū vōs adverbia quid? nōndum statim tum praepositiō antequam coniunctiones

at nisi sī vērum

XVI. Tempestas

nōmina altum flūctus fulgur gubernātor merx nauta nāvis occidēns oriēns portus locus ōra puppis septentriones tempestās tonitrus vēlum ventus

verba grammatica dēpōnēns adiectīva āter contrārius īnferus maritimus serēnus

situs

superus tranquillus turbidus verba appellāre cernere complectī cōnārī conscendere consolari ēgredī fierī fit fīunt flāre gubernāre haurīre iactāre implēre īnfluere interesse intuērī invocāre lābī

occidere opperīrī orīrī proficīscī sequī servāre turbāre verērī adverbia iterum paulum praetereā semper simul vērō vix coniunctiō sīve

laetārī

loquī

nāvigāre

praepositiō propter

XVII. Numerī Difficiles nōmina

as
dēnārius
respōnsum
adiectīva
absēns
centēsimus
certus

duodēvīgintī facilis incertus indoctus industrius largus nōngentī octingentī piger prāvus prūdēns quadrāgintā quadringentī quattuordecim quīndecim quīngentī quīnquāgintā rēctus sēdecim septendecim septingentī septuāgintā sescentī trēdecim ūndēvīgintī verba cōgitāre computāre dēmonstrāre discere docēre interpellare largīrī laudāre nescīre oportēre partīrī prōmere reponere reprehendere scīre tollere

difficilis

doctus

pronōmina quisque adverbia aequē numquam postrēmō prāvē quārē rēctē

saepe

tot

ūsque **coniunctiones** quamquam

XVIII. Litterae Latinae

nōmina
apis
calamus
cēra
charta
epistula
erus
ferrum
māteria
mendum

mendum mercēs papyrus zephyrus verba grammatica adverbium

consonans sententia vocalis adiectīva dūrus frequēns impiger mollis quālis rārus tālis turpis varius

verba
addere
animadvertere
comparāre
coniungere
corrigere
deesse
dēlēre
dictāre
efficere
exaudīre
imprimere

legere
premere
scrībere
signāre
significāre
superesse
pronōmina
īdem, eadem, idem

intellegere

iungere

quisque, quaeque, quodque

adverbia bis deciēs ita quater quīnquiēs quotiēs semel sexiēs sīc ter totiēs

XIX. Maritus et Uxor

nōmina adulēscēns amor columna coniūnx dea domus dōnum flōs forum marītus mātrōna pulchritūdō signum tēctum templum uxor virgō

Verba grammatica praesēns praeteritum adiectīva beātus dignus dīves gracilis magnificus māior māximus melior minimus minor miser optimus pauper pēior

pessimus

plūrēs

verba

plūrimī

augēre
convenīre
minuere
mittere
opus esse
ōsculārī
possidēre
remittere
pronōmina
mī
ūllus

praepositōnēs ergā adverbia cotīdiē minus plūs tamen

XX. Parentes nōmina colloquium cūnae domō filiola filiolus gradus īnfāns lac mulier nūtrīx officium sermō silentium somnus

verba grammatica adiectīva aliēnus futūrus necessārius

necessărius parvulus umidus verba advehere alere carêre colloqui cürăre debēre decere diligere fări manere nolle occurrere

pergere coniunctiones forīs postulāre postquam nuper revertī posteā XXII. Cave Canem silēre prius nōmina vāgīre quīn aurum adverbia scīlicet cardō crās sīcut catēna tandem magis faber

imāgō

pronōmina

adverbia

anteā

forās

iste, ista, istud

mox XXIII. Epistula Magistrī foris rārō iānitor

XXI. Pugna

vincere

aliquid

aliquis

adverbia

interim

pronōmina

lignum Discipulorum līmen nōmina pallium bōs tabellārius causa verba grammatica cornū supīnum cruor adiectīva genū aureus ĥumī ferōx humus ferreus porcus ligneus pugna verba solum accēdere sordēs admittere tabella arbitrārī vestis cavēre verba grammatica cēdere imperfectum cūstōdīre perfectum dērīdēre adiectīva fremere angustus monēre candidus mordēre falsus pellere indignus prehendere mundus procedere validus recēdere verba removēre āiō resistere cognöscere retinēre conspicere rogitāre crēdere rumpere dubitāre salīre excūsāre scindere fallere sinere fuisse solvere mentīrī terrēre mūtāre tremere nārrāre vincīre

nōmina clāvis comes factum laus litterae prōmissum pudor signum verbera vultus adiectīva integer pallidus plānus superior verba āvertere comitārī continēre dēbēre dīmittere fatērī inclūdere īnscrībere merēre negāre pallēre perdere prōmittere pudēre rubēre salūtem dīcere solvere trādere pronōmina quidnam? quisnam? adverbia antehāc

fortasse

herī

hinc

illinc

posthāc

umquam praepositiō

XXIV. Puer Aegrōtus

nōmina dolor latus os sonus strepitus tumultus

verba grammatica plūsquam perfectum

adiectīva aegrōtus cruentus impār laevus pār subitus verba convertere cupere flēre frangere ignōrāre mīrārī nōscere patī percutere recumbere coniunctiones

etsī

praepositiones

iūxtā adverbia aliter certō cēterum continuō dēnuō intus prīmō subitō valdē

XXV. Theseus et

Minotaur

nōmina aedificium agnus auxilium cīvis conspectus cupiditās

currus exitus expugnātiō fābula fīlum glōria **l**abyrinthus lītus moenia monstrum mora mors

nārrātiō nex

rēx saxum taurus adiectīva complūrēs cupidus humilis mīrābilis parātus saevus terribilis

timidus

aedificāre

coepisse

verba

constituere dēscendere dēserere interficere maerēre necāre oblīvīscī occīdere patēre pollicērī prospicere regere

trahere vorāre adverbia brevī forte hūc ibi illūc

XXVI. Daedalus et **Icarus**

nōmina ars

quotannīs

ōlim

carcer cōnsilium fuga ignis lacertus lībertās multitūdō nātūra opus orbis paenīnsula penna

verba grammatica

cāsus gerundium adiectīva audāx cautus celer īnfimus ingēns līber propinquus

reliquus studiōsus summus temerārius verba aberrāre accidere conficere cōnsequī consumere dēspicere

effugere ēvolāre excogitare figere imitārī invenīre iuvāre levāre mollīre perficere persequī quatere revocāre

suspicere

ūrere

vidērī pronōmina quisquam coniunctiones

praepositiones

trans

adverbia deorsum haud paene quidem quoniam sūrsum tamquam vērum

XXVII. Rēs Rūsticae

nōmina
ager
agricola
arātrum
calor
colōnus
cōpia
cūra
falx
frīgus
frūgēs
frūmentum
grex
instrūmentum

labor lāna negōtium ōtium pābulum patientia

pecus praedium precēs regiō rūs sēmen ūva

vīnea

vīnum vītis adiectīva amoenus fertilis gravidus immātūrus inhūmānus

mātūrus

neglegēns nēquam patiēns rudis rūsticus siccus suburbānus trīcēsimus urbānus
verba
arāre
cēnsēre
cingere
colere
crēscere
exīstimāre
invehere
labōrāre
metere
neglegere
nocēre
ōrāre

pāscere prodesse prohibēre proicere quiēscere rapere rigāre serere spargere ūtī pronomina

quīdam
praepositiōnēs
abs
circā
prae

prō coniunctiones

nē -ve adverbia dēnique parum tantum

XXVIII. Pericula Maris

nōmina animus dictum fāma fretum libellus mundus nāvicula pecūlium periculum phantasma potestās praedō princeps tībīcen tranquillitās turba
vigilia
vorāgō
adiectīva
attentus
caecus
claudus
cōnstāns
immortālis
mortālis
mūtus
perīculōsus
quadrāgēsimus
salvus

surdus

ūniversus

tūtus

verba

admīrārī adōrāre apprehendere cessāre disiungere ēicere ēvolvere extendere habērī impendēre mālle memorāre morī nāscī oboedīre perīre persuādēre pervenīre rēgnāre rogāre salvāre servīre spērāre suscitāre tumultuārī versārī

vītāre
coniunctionēs
velut
adverbia
potius
utrum

XXIX. Nāvigāre Necesse Est

nōmina beneficium cantus exponere fīnīre carmen delphīnus invidēre dīvitiae parcere dorsum permittere fēlīcitās permovēre fidēs perturbāre fidicen precārī fortūna querī fundus recognöscere fūr redücere fūrtum remanēre iactūra secāre invidia stupēre laetitia suādēre lucrum subīre maleficium surripere nāvigātiō pronōmina piscātor nōnnūllī sēsē rēmus adverbia salūs spēs frūstrā trīstitia inde tyrannus nōnnumquam

celsus repente
fallāx
fēlīx
ignārus
ignōtus
maestus
mīrus
mīrus
spēlitis
calida

prōtinus

quasi

nux

sāl

sitis

vās

triclīnium

vīta

adiectīva

dēspērāre

dēterrēre

dētrahere

dōnāre

ēripere

nōbilis carō nōtus cēna pretiōsus cocus rapidus convīva vēlōx convīvium verba culīna abicere famēs abstinēre genus adicere holus aestimāre hospes afficere iter allicere lībertīnus āmittere medium appārēre mel appropinquāre merum confiteri minister dēsilīre

adiectīva
acerbus
acūtus
argenteus
bīnī
dīligēns
dulcis
glōriōsus
īmus
inexspectātus

iūcundus

molestus

merus

singulī tardus ternī verba accubāre accumbere apportāre aspergere cēnāre complēre contrahere coquere ēligere exhaurīre exōrnāre fruī fundere gustāre līberāre miscēre nūntiāre parāre perferre placēre pōtāre praeesse pröferre recipere requiēscere salvēre iubēre sternere vīsere

praepositiones circiter adverbia dēmum diū equidem paulisper prīdem sānē XXXI. Inter Pōcula nōmina crux fidēs iniūria iūs iuvenis lēx memoria mōs mūnus nūgae parricīda poena pōtiō praemium rūmor scelus senex

supplicium adiectīva asinīnus avārus clēmēns crūdēlis dēbilis ēbrius fīdus fugitīvus impatiēns īnfēlīx īnfīdus iniūstus invalidus iūstus nōnāgēsimus praesēns sapiēns scelestus vetus verba

sapiēns sapiēns scelestus verba abdūcere auferre aufugere confidere cruciāre ēducāre fābulārī fīdere ignoscere interpellāre latēre odisse optāre retrahere statuere vetāre pronomina quidquid quisquis praepositiones cōram super adverbia aliquantum funditus ideō namque nimium/nimis priusquam quamobrem quantum

XXXII. Classis Romana

nōmina amīcitia amphitheatrum audācia classis condiciō cursus gēns grātia incola inopia pīrāta poēta populus servitūs talentum victor victoria

voluntās
adiectīva
adversus
cārus
commūnis
cūnctus
ēgregius
grātus
inermis
īnfēstus
internus
mercātōrius
mūtuus
nūbilus
proximus

superbus

vīrēs

vīs

verba adiuvāre armāre contemnere dēsistere dissuādēre ēdūcere flectere meminisse minārī offerre percurrere praeferre praeponere redimere referre rēmigāre reminīscī repugnāre submergere

vīlis

coniunctiones

tuērī

neu seu adverbia aliquandō aliquot dōnec etiamnunc intereā ubīque utinam

XXXIII. Exercitus Romānus

nōmina aciēs aetās agmen amnis caedēs cohors ēnsis gaudium imperātor lēgātus legiō legionārius ōrdō pāx proelium ratis rīpa stipendium studium valētūdō diūtius virtūs etenim vulnus ferē adiectīva arduus prīdiē citerior dēnī tamdiū dīrus ultrā horrendus idōneus

nōmina incolumis anus mīlitāris arānea ōtiōsus aurīga posterus bāsium prīvātus pūblicus quaternī circus quīnī rīdiculus dēliciae sēnī fātum trīnī ulterior ūnī verba lucerna adiungere lūdus caedere mēns circumdare nīl cōgere nota commemorāre ocellus convocāre odium cōpulāre opera dēsīderāre

fore hortārī īnstruere mūnīre praestāre procurrere prögredī properāre studēre trānsferre

effundere

ērumpere

excurrere

fatīgāre

pronōmina plērīque praepositiones

citrā secundum ultrā

trānsīre

vulnerāre

adverbia praecipuē quamdiū

XXXIV. De Arte Poēticā

cachinnus certāmen cōmoedia gladiātor gremium ingenium opēs palma passer prīncipium ratiō rēte rīsus scalpellum sinus spectator tenebrae testis

verba grammatica dactylus dipthongus

theātrum

epigramma hendecasyllabus hexameter iambus pentameter spondēus trochaeus

adiectīva ācer bellus circēnsis dubius geminus gladiātōrius iocōsus mellītus misellus niveus perpetuus poēticus scaenicus sērius tenebricōsus turgidus ultimus venustus verba accendere affirmāre certāre circumsilīre conturbāre dēvorāre ēlīdere ērubēscere excruciāre favēre implicāre

versiculus

libenter libēre lūgēre nūbere ōscitāre pīpiāre plaudere prōsilīre requirere sapere adverbia dein interdum plērumque coniunctiō dummodo

laedere

XXXV. Ars Grammatica

nōmina admīrātiō affectus īra mūsa

ōrātiō sacerdōs scamnum

verba grammatica appellatīvum (nomen)

cāsus

causālis (coniūnctiō) comparātiō coniugātiō coniūnctiō

copulativus (coniunctio) disiūnctīvus (coniūnctiō) explētīvus (coniūnctiō)

īnflectere interiectiō

optātīvus (modus) positīvus (gradus)

proprium (nōmen)

quālitās quantitās

rationālis (coniunctio)

significātiō speciēs synōnymum adiectīva inconditus similis verba adnectere dēmere explānāre luctārī mentionem facere

ōrdināre

adverbia dumtaxat

forsitan proptereā quāpropter quidnī sīquidem tantundem

praepositionēs adversum

cis

interiectiones

attat eia ēn euax papae

Latin-English Vocabulary

 $\bar{a}/ab/abs\ prp + abl\ from, of,$ since, by ab-dūcere take away, carry **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. ā/ab/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, 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, acerbus -a -um sour, bitter **aciës** - $\bar{e}if$ line of battle acūtus -a -um sharp ad prp + acc 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 **admīrātiō** -ōnis f wonder, admiration ad-mittere let in, admit ad-nectere -xuisse -xum attach, connect ad-ōrāre worship, adore adulēscēns -entis m young ad-vehere carry, convey (to) ad-venīre arrive adversus/-um prp +acc toward, against adversus -a -um contrary, unfavorable aedificāre build aedificium $-\bar{1} n$ building aeger -gra -grum sick, ill aegrōtāre be ill aegrōtus -a -um sick aequē equally aequinoctium $-\bar{1} n$ equinox aequus -a -um equal, calm āēr -eris m air $aest\bar{a}s$ -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-firmare assert, affirm age -ite +imp come on! well, **ager** -grī *m* field agere ēgisse āctum drive, do, perform **agmen** -inis n army on the

march, file

agnus -ī *m* lamb

agricola -ae *m* farmer, peasant ain' you don't say? really? āiō ais ait āiunt say $\bar{\mathbf{a}}\mathbf{l}\mathbf{a}$ -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 indecl 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** $-\bar{1}$ *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 amphitheatrum -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** - \bar{a} lis n animal, living being animus -ī m mind, soul annus -ī m year **ante** prp + acc, adv in front of, before anteā before, formerly ante-hāc formerly ante-quam before antīquus -a -um old, ancient, former **ānulus** -ī *m* ring **anus** - \bar{u} s f old woman aperīre -uisse -rtum open, disclose apertus -a -um open \mathbf{apis} -is f bee ap-pārēre appear appellare call, address ap-ponere place (on), serve ap-portare bring ap-prehendere seize ap-propinquāre (+dat) approach, come Aprīlis -is (mēnsis) April apud prp +acc 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 -īvisse -ītum send for, fetch arcus -ūs m bow arduus -a -um steep argenteus -a -um silver, of silver **argentum** $-\bar{1} n$ silver **arma** -ōrum *n pl* 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 -ī 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** $-\bar{1}$ *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 au-fugere run away, escape augēre -xisse -ctum increase Augustus -ī (mēnsis) August aureus -a -um gold-, m gold aurīga -ae m charioteer, driver **auris** -is f ear aurum -ī n gold aut or aut...aut either...or autem but, however autumnus -ī m autumn **auxilium** $-\bar{1} n$ help, assistance auxilia -ōrum *n pl* auxiliary forces avārus -a -um greedy, avaricious ā-vertere turn aside, avert avis -is f bird avunculus -ī m (maternal) uncle

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 -ī n good, blessing
bonus -a -um good
bōs bovis m/f ox
bracchium -ī n arm
brevī adv soon
brevis -e short

cachinnus -ī 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 -ī m reed, pen calceus -ī 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 dog cantāre sing cantus -ūs m singing, music capere -iō cēpisse captum take, catch, capture capillus -ī m hair **capitulum** -ī *n* chapter **caput** -itis *n* head, chief, capital carcer -eris m prison $card\bar{o}$ -inis m door pivot, hinge carēre +abl 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 $c\bar{e}ra$ -ae f wax **cerebrum** -ī *n* brain cernere crēvisse discern, perceive certāmen -inis n contest, fight certare contend, fight certe certainly, at any rate certō adv for certain certus -a -um certain, sure cessare leave off, cease cēterī -ae -a the other(s), the rest cēterum adv besides, however cēterus -a -um remaining **charta** -ae f paper cibus -ī m food cingere cīnxisse cīnctum surround -cipere -iō -cēpisse -ceptum circā prp +acc round circēnsēs -ium m pl games in the circus circēnsis -e of the circus circiter about **circum** *prp* +*acc* round circum-dare surround circum-silīre hop about circus -ī m circle, orbit, circus cis prp + acc on this side of citerior -ius comp nearer citrā prp +acc 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 f 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 cogere co-egisse -actum compel, force cogitare 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-loqui talk, converse colloquium -ī *n* conversation collum -ī n neck colonus -ī m (tenant-) farmer color -ōris m color **columna** -ae f column comes -itis m companion comitārī accompany com-memorare 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 **condicio** - \bar{o} nis f condition con-ficere make, accomplish con-fidere +dat trust con-fiteri -fessum confess con-iungere join, connect coniūnx -iugis m/f consort, wife

con-scendere -disse mount, board con-sequi follow, overtake con-sidere -sedisse sit down **cōnsilium** $-\bar{1} n$ advice, decision, intention, plan con-sistere -stitisse stop, con-solari comfort, console consonans -antis f consonant conspectus -ūs m sight, view con-spicere catch sight of, constans -antis adi steady, firm con-stare -stitisse be fixed, constare ex consist of con-stituere -uisse -utum fix, decide con-sumere spend, consume con-temnere -mpsisse -mptum despise, scorn con-tinēre -uisse -tentum contain continuō adv immediately contrā prp +acc against con-trahere draw together, wrinkle contrārius -a -um opposite, contrary con-turbāre mix up, confound con-venīre come together, convenire (ad/+dat) fit, be fitting con-vertere turn **convīva** -ae *m/f* guest convīvium -ī n dinnercon-vocāre call together $c\bar{o}pia$ -ae f abundance, lot copulare join, connect coquere -xisse -ctum cook cor cordis n heart $c\bar{o}ram prp + abl$ in the presence of $corn\bar{u}$ - $\bar{u}s$ 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 cruciare 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** prp + abl with cum coniūnctiō when, as cum prīmum +perf as soon **cūnae** -ārum *f pl* cradle cūnctus -a -um whole, pl all cupere -iō -īvisse desire **cupiditās** -ātis f desire cupidus -a -um (+gen) desirous (of), eager (for) cūr why $c\bar{u}ra$ -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 prp +abl (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 delectare delight, please dēlēre -ēvisse -ētum delete, efface **dēliciae** -ārum *f pl* delight, **delphīnus** -ī *m* dolphin dēmere -mpsisse -mptum dē-monstrāre point out, **dēmum** adv 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 adv down dē-rīdēre laugh at, make dē-scendere -disse go down, descend dē-serere -uisse -rtum leave, desert dēsīderāre long for, miss dē-silīre -uisse jump down dē-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 dē-trahere pull off **deus** -ī *m*, *pl* deī/diī/dī god dē-vorāre swallow up, devour **dexter** -tra -trum right, f the right (hand) dīcere -xisse dictum say, call, speak

dictare dictate

dictum $-\bar{1}$ *n* saying, words

 $di\bar{e}s$ - $\bar{e}i$ m (f) day, date

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 *f pl* 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 adv home **domus** -ūs f, abl -ō house, home donare give, present with donec as long as $d\bar{o}$ num -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

dif-ficilis -e, sup -illimus

difficult, hard

digitus -ī m finger

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

ē ν. ex/ē ēbrius -a -um drunk ecce see, look, here is ēducāre bring up ē-dūcere bring out, draw ef-ficere make, effect, cause ef-fugere escape, run away **ef-fundere** pour out, shed ego mē mihi/mī I, me, myself ē-gredī -ior -gressum go ēgregius -a -um outstanding, excellent ē-icere throw out ē-līdere -sisse -sum omit, elide ē-ligere -lēgisse -lēctum choose, select emere ēmisse ēmptum buy **ēn** look, here is enim for ēnsis -is m sword eō adv to that place, there **epigramma** -atis n epigram **epistula** -ae f letter **eques** -itis *m* horseman **equidem** indeed, for my equitātus -ūs m cavalry equus -ī m horse ergā prp +acc toward ergō therefore, so ē-ripere -iō -uisse -reptum snatch away, deprive of errāre wander, stray ē-rubēscere -buisse blush **ē-rumpere** break out erus -ī 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 ē-volvere -visse -lūtum unroll $ex/\bar{e} prp + abl$ out of, from, of, since ex-audīre hear ex-citāre wake up, arouse ex-clāmāre cry out, exclaim ex-cogitare think out, devise ex-cruciare torture, torment ex-currere -rrisse -rsum run out, rush out ex-cūsāre excuse **exemplum** $-\bar{1} n$ example, model exercitus -ūs m army ex-haurire drain, empty exiguus -a -um small, scanty ex-īre -eō -iisse -itum go ex-īstimāre consider, think exitus -ūs m exit, way out, ex-ornare adorn, decorate ex-plānāre explain ex-ponere put out/ashore, expose ex-pugnāre conquer ex-pugnātio -onis f conquest ex-spectare wait (for), expect ex-tendere -disse -tum

F faber -brī m artisan, smith **fābula** -ae f story, fable, play **fābulārī** talk, chat

stretch out, extend

extrā prp +acc outside

facere -iō fēcisse factum make, do, cause **faciēs** -ēī f face **facile** *adv* 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, fārī speak fatērī fassum admit, confess fatīgāre tire out, weary **fātum** - \bar{i} *n* fate, destiny, **favēre** fāvisse +dat favor, support Februārius -ī (mēnsis) February **fēlīcitās** -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 ferox -ocis adi fierce. ferocious ferre tulisse lātum carry, bring, bear **ferreus** -a -um of iron, iron **ferrum** $-\bar{1} n$ 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, lovalty fides -ium f pl lyre **fidicen** -inis *m* lyre-player fīdus -a -um faithful, reliable fierī factum esse be made.

be done, become, happen

figere -xisse -xum fix, fasten **fīlia** -ae *f* daughter **filiola** -ae *f* little daughter **filiolus** -ī *m* little son fīlius -ī m son **filum** $-\bar{1}$ *n* thread finire limit, finish **finis** -is *m* boundary, limit, end flare blow flectere -xisse -xum bend, turn **flēre** -ēvisse cry, weep (for) **flos** -oris *m* flower flūctus -ūs m wave fluere -ūxisse flow $fl\bar{u}men$ -inis n river **fluvius** -ī *m* river foedus -a -um ugly, hideous **folium** $-\bar{1}$ *n* leaf forās adv out **foris** -is *f* leaf of a door, door forīs adv outside, out of doors $f\bar{o}rma$ -ae f form, shape, figure formosus -a -um beautiful forsitan perhaps, maybe fortasse perhaps, maybe **forte** *adv* 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 frequens -entis adi numerous, frequent fretum -ī n strait frīgēre be cold frīgidus -a -um cold, chilly, cool **frīgus** -oris *n* cold $fr\bar{o}ns$ -ontis f forehead **frūgēs** -um f pl fruit, crops **fruī** + abl enjoy frūmentum -ī n corn, grain frūstrā in vain \mathbf{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 adv to the bottom, utterly fundus -ī m bottom fūr -is m thief fūrtum -ī n theft futūrus -a -um (v. esse) future tempus futūrum future

gallus -ī m cock, rooster gaudēre gavīsum esse be glad, be pleased **gaudium** $-\bar{1} n$ joy, delight geminus -a -um twin **gemma** -ae f precious stone, jewel gemmātus -a -um set with a jewel **gena** -ae f cheek $g\bar{e}ns$ gentis f nation, people **genū** -ūs n knee **genus** -eris *n* kind, sort gerere gessisse gestum carry, wear, carry on, do **glaciës** - $\bar{e}if$ ice **gladiātor** -ōris *m* gladiator gladiātorius -a -um gladiatorial gladius -ī 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** *adi f* pregnant gravis -e heavy, severe,

grave

gremium $-\bar{1} n$ lap

grex -egis m flock, herd, band
gubernāre steer, govern
gubernātor -ōris
m steersman
gustāre taste

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 $h\bar{o}ra$ -ae f hour horrendus -a -um dreadful horrere 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 **humī** *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

id-eo for that reason idoneus -a -um fit, suitable $\bar{i}d\bar{u}s$ -uum fpl 13th/15th (of the month) **iecur** -oris n liver igitur therefore, then, so ignārus -a -um ignorant, unaware ignis -is m fire ignorare 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 $im\bar{a}g\bar{o}$ -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-patiens -entis adi impatient **im-pendēre** + dat threaten imperare +dat command, order, rule imperator -oris m (commanding) general **imperium** $-\bar{1} n$ command, empire impetus -ūs m attack, charge im-piger -gra -grum active, industrious im-plēre -ēvisse -ētum fill, complete im-plicare -uisse -itum enfold **impluvium** $-\bar{1} n$ water basin im-ponere place (in/on), put im-primere -pressisse -pressum press (into) im-probus -a -um bad, wicked **īmus** -a -um *sup* lowest in prp + abl in, on, at prp +acc into, to, against in-certus -a -um uncertain

īdem eadem idem the same

in-cipere -iō coepisse coeptum begin in-clūdere -sisse -sum shut **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 +abl dressed in industrius -a -um industrious in-ermis -e unarmed in-esse be (in) in-exspectātus -a -um unexpected **īnfāns** -antis *m/f* little child, baby īn-fēlīx -īcis adi unlucky, unfortunate inferior -ius comp lower, inferior īnferus -a -um lower \bar{I} nfer \bar{i} - \bar{o} rum m pl the underworld īnfēstus -a -um unsafe, infested īn-fīdus -a -um faithless **infimus** -a -um *sup* lowest in-fluere flow into **infra** prp +acc below **ingenium** $-\bar{1} n$ nature, character ingēns -entis adi huge, vast in-hūmānus -a -um inhuman **in-imīcus** -ī *m* (personal) enemy in-inimīcus -a -um unfriendly **initium** $-\bar{1}$ *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 in-scribere write on, inscribe īnscrīptio -onis f inscription īn-struere -ūxisse -ūctum draw up, arrange **instrūmentum** -ī *n* tool, instrument **īnsula** -ae *f* island integer -gra -grum undamaged, intact **intellegere** -ēxisse -ēctum understand, realize **inter** *prp* +*acc* between, among, during inter sē (with) one another inter-dum now and then inter-ea meanwhile inter-esse be between inter-ficere kill interim meanwhile internus -a -um inner, internal inter-pellare interrupt inter-rogāre ask, question intrā prp +acc inside, within intrāre enter intuērī look at, watch **intus** *adv* 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 prp +acc next to, beside

K kalendae -ārum fpl the 1st (of the month) kalendārium -ī n calendar

lābī lāpsum slip, drop, fall **labor** -ōris *m* work, toil laborare 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 latere 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 -ī m bed, couch **lēgātus** -ī *m* envoy, delegate legere lēgisse lēctum read $legi\bar{o}$ - \bar{o} nis f legionlegionarius -a -um legionary $le\bar{o}$ - \bar{o} nis 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 pl* children **lībertās** -ātis *f* freedom, liberty lībertīnus -ī m freedman **licēre:** licet +*dat* it is allowed, one may ligneus -a -um wooden lignum -ī n wood **līlium** $-\bar{1}$ n lily $l\bar{i}men$ -inis n threshold **līnea** -ae f string, line **lingua** -ae f tongue, language **littera** -ae f letter **lītus** -oris *n* beach, shore locus -ī m place loca -ōrum n pl regions, parts longe far, by far longus -a -um long loquī locūtum speak, talk lūcēre lūxisse shine **lucerna** -ae f lamp **lucrum** $-\bar{1} n$ profit, gain luctārī wrestle lūdere -sisse -sum play lūdus -ī m play, game, school lūgēre -xisse mourn **lūna** -ae f moon **lupus** $-\bar{1}$ m wolf

M
maerēre grieve
maestus -a -um sad,
sorrowful
magis more
magister -trī
m schoolmaster, teacher

 $l\bar{u}x$ lūcis f light, daylight

magnificus -a -um magnificent, splendid magnus -a -um big, large, great māior -ius comp bigger, older Māius -ī (mēnsis) May male adv badly, ill **maleficium** $-\bar{1}$ *n* evil deed, crime **mālle** māluisse prefer **malum** $-\bar{1}$ *n* evil, trouble, harm mālum -ī n apple malus -a -um bad, wicked, mamma -ae f mummy māne indēcl n, adv 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 -ī m husband Mārtius -ī (mēnsis) March maximater -tris f mother $m\bar{a}teria$ -ae f material, substance $m\bar{a}tr\bar{o}na$ -ae f married woman mātūrus -a -um ripe **māximē** most, especially māximus -a -um biggest, greatest, oldest medicus -ī m physician, **medium** $-\bar{1}$ *n* middle, center medius -a -um mid, middle **mel** mellis n honey **melior** -ius *comp* better mellītus -a -um sweet **membrum** $-\bar{1} n$ limb meminisse +gen/ acc remember, recollect memorāre mention **memoria** -ae f memory **mendum** $-\bar{1} n$ mistake, $m\bar{e}ns$ mentis f mind $m\bar{e}nsa$ -ae f table

mēnsa secunda dessert

mēnsis -is *m* month **mentio** - \bar{o} nis f mention mentīrī lie mercātor - ōris m merchant mercātōrius -a -um merchantmercēs -ēdis f wage, fee, merēre earn, deserve mergere -sisse -sum dip, plunge, sink merīdiēs -ēī m midday, noon, south **merum** $-\bar{1} n$ neat wine merus -a -um pure, neat, undiluted **merx** -rcis *f* commodity, *pl* 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 **mīlle**, pl mīlia -ium n thousand $min\bar{a}r\bar{i} + dat$ 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*, *adv* 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 -ī m manner, way

nūllō modō by no means **moenia** -ium n pl walls molestus -a -um troublesome mollire make soft, soften mollis -e soft monēre remind, advise, warn **mōns** montis *m* mountain monstrare point out, show monstrum -ī n monster mora -ae f delay mordere momordisse -sum bite morī mortuum die **mors** mortis *f* death mortālis -e mortal mortuus -a -um (< morī) dead mos moris m custom, usage movēre movisse mōtum move, stir mox soon **mulier** -eris *f* woman multī -ae -a many, a great many $\mathbf{multit\bar{u}d\bar{o}}$ -inis f large number, multitude multo +comp much, by far **multum** -ī *n*, *adv* much mundus -ī m world, universe mundus -a -um clean, neat mūnīre fortify mūnus -eris n gift mūrus -ī 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 -ī m nose
natāre swim
nātūra -ae f nature
nātus -a -um (< nāscī)
born

XX annos natus 20 years old **nauta** -ae *m* sailor **nāvicula** -ae f boat nāvigāre sail $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{\bar{a}}\mathbf{v}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{g}\mathbf{\bar{a}}\mathbf{t}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{\bar{o}}$ - $\mathbf{\bar{o}}\mathbf{n}\mathbf{i}\mathbf{s}f$ sailing, voyage $\mathbf{n}\mathbf{\bar{a}vis}$ -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 nēguissimus worthless, ne-que/nec and/but not, nor, not **n...n.** neither...nor ne-scire not know neu ν. nē-ve/neu neuter -tra -trum neither nē-ve/neu and (that) not, nor **nex** necis f killing, murder **nīdus** -ī m nest niger -gra -grum black nihil/nīl nothing nimis too, too much nimium too much nimius -a -um too big nisi if not, except, but niveus -a -um snow-white \mathbf{nix} nivis f snow nōbilis -e well known, famous **nocēre** + dat harm, hurt \mathbf{noli} -ite + inf don't...! **nölle** nöluisse be unwilling, not want $n\bar{o}men$ -inis n name

nominare name, call

non not

nōnae -ārum f pl 5th/7th (of the month) nonagesimus -a -um ninetieth nonaginta ninety **non-dum** not yet non-genti -ae -a nine hundred non-ne not? non-nulli -ae -a some, several non-numquam sometimes nonus -a -um ninth **nōs** nōbīs we, us, ourselves noscere novisse 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 $n\bar{u}b\bar{e}s$ -is f cloud nūbilus -a -um cloudy nūdus -a -um naked $n\bar{u}gae$ -ārum fpl idle talk, rubbish nūllus -a -um no **num** ...? if, whether numerāre count **numerus** -ī *m* number nummus -ī m coin, sesterce numquam never nunc now nūntiāre announce, report nūntius -ī m messenger, message **nuper** recently $n\bar{u}tr\bar{i}x$ -īcis f nurse \mathbf{nux} nucis f nut 0

O
ō o!
ob prp +acc 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 occultare hide oc-currere -rrisse +dat meet ōceanus -ī m ocean ocellus -ī m (little) eye octāvus -a -um eighth octin-gentī -ae -a eight hundred octō eight October -bris (mēnsis) October octoginta eighty oculus -ī m eve ōdisse hate odium -ī n hatred of-ferre ob-tulisse oblātum offer **officium** $-\bar{1}$ *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 oportere: 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 **ōra** -ae f border, coast **ōrāre** pray, beg $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ rāti $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ - $\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ nis f speech orbis -is m circle, orbit orbis terrārum the world **ōrdināre** arrange, regulate $\bar{\mathbf{o}}\mathbf{rd}\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ -inis m row, rank, order oriēns -entis m east orīrī ortum rise, appear örnāmentum -ī n ornament, jewel **ōrnāre** equip, adorn

os ossis *n* bone

ōs ōris *n* mouth

ösculārī kiss

ōscitāre gape, yawn

ōsculum -ī n kiss
ostendere -disse show
ōstiārius -ī m door-keeper, porter
ōstium -ī n door, entrance
ōtiosus -a -um leisured, idle
ōtium -ī n leisure
ovis -is f sheep
ōvum -ī n egg

pābulum -ī n fodder paene nearly, almost paen-īnsula -ae f peninsula $p\bar{a}gina$ -ae f page pallere be pale pallidus -a -um pale pallium -ī n cloak, mantle **palma** -ae f palm palpitāre beat, throb **pānis** -is *m* bread, loaf **papyrus** -if papyrus pār paris adi equal parāre prepare, make ready parātus -a -um ready parcere pepercisse +dat spare parentēs -um m pl 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, passer -eris m sparrow passus - \bar{u} s 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/ paucī -ae -a few, a few paulisper for a short time

paulo +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** -i n task **per** *prp* +*acc* through, by, 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 **persona** -ae f character, person per-suādēre -sisse +dat persuade, convince per-territus -a -um terrified per-turbare upset per-venīre get to, reach **pēs** pedis *m* foot pessimus -a -um sup worst petasus -ī m hat 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 plorare cry plūrēs -a comp more plūrimī -ae -a sup most, a great many **plūs** plūris *n*, *adv* more **pōculum** -ī *n* cup, glass **poena** -ae *f* punishment, penalty **poēta** -ae *m/f* poet poēticus -a -um poetical pollicērī promise ponere posuisse positum place, put, lay down **populus** -ī *m* people, nation porcus -ī m pig **porta** -ae f gate portāre carry **portus** -ūs *m* harbor poscere poposcisse demand, call for **posse** potuisse be able possidēre -sēdisse possess, post prp +acc, adv 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 *adv* finally

postrēmus -a -um *sup* last

postulare demand, require potare drink **potestās** -ātis f power $\mathbf{p\bar{o}ti\bar{o}}$ - \bar{o} nis f drinking, drink **potius** rather **prae** *prp* +*abl* before, for **praecipuē** especially, above **praedium** $-\bar{1} n$ estate **praedo** - \bar{o} nis m robber, pirate **prae-esse** (+dat) be in charge (of) **prae-ferre** prefer **praemium** $-\bar{1} n$ reward, prize **prae-nomen** -inis n first **prae-ponere** + dat put before/in charge of praesēns -entis adi present prae-stāre -stitisse furnish, fulfill praeter prp +acc past, besides, except praeter-eā besides praeteritus -a -um past prāvus -a -um faulty, wrong precārī pray **precēs** -um *f pl* 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** adv at first prīmum adv first **prīmus** -a -um first **prīnceps** -ipis *m* chief, leader **prīncipium** -ī *n* beginning **prior** -ius first, former, frontprius adv before prius-quam before prīvātus -a -um private $pr\bar{o} prp + abl$ 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 prod-esse pro-fuisse +dat be useful, do good **proelium** $-\bar{1} n$ battle **profecto** 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) promere -mpsisse -mptum take out **prōmissum** -ī *n* promise prō-mittere promise **prope** *prp* +*acc*, *adv* near, nearly properāre hurry propinquus -a -um near, close proprius -a -um own, proper **propter** *prp* +*acc* because of propter-ea therefore prō-silīre -uisse spring forth prō-spicere look out, look ahead protinus at once **prōvincia** -ae f province proximus -a -um sup nearest prūdēns -entis adi prudent, clever pūblicus -a -um public, Statepudēre: 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 -ī m fist **pulcher** -chra -chrum beautiful, fine **pulchritūdo** -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

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 quando when, as **quantitās** -ātis f quantity, quantum $-\bar{1} n$ how much, (as much) as quantus -a -um how large, (as large) as quā-propter why quā-rē why quārtus -a -um fourth quarta 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, quī quae quod who, which,

he who

which

quia because

anything

quid adv why

certain, some

quī quae quod (...?) what,

quid n (v. quis) what,

quī-dam quae- quod- a

quidem indeed, certainly

nē quidem not even quidnī why not quid-quam anything neque/nec quidquam and nothing quid-quid whatever, anything that quiëscere - 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 quinque five quīnquiēs five times Quīntīlis -is (mēnsis) July quīntus -a -um fifth quis quae quid who, what quis quid (sī/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** adv where (to) **quod** (= quia) because, that **quod** n (v. qu \bar{i}) 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 -iō -uisse -ptum tear away, carry off rapidus -a -um rushing, rapid rārō adv 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-ducere lead back, bring back re-ferre rettulisse bring back, return regere rēxisse rēctum direct, guide, govern $regi\bar{o}$ -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 reperire repperisse repertum find re-ponere put back re-prehendere blame, censure re-pugnāre fight back, resist re-quiescere rest re-quirere -sivisse -situm seek, ask res rei f thing, matter, affair **re-sistere** -stitisse +dat halt. re-spondēre -disse -sum answer **responsum** $-\bar{1} n$ 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 rogitare 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-

sacculus -ī m purse saccus -ī m sack sacerdos - otis 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

saxum -ī n rock scaena -ae f scene, stage scaenicus -a -um theatrical scalpellum -ī n scalpel, surgical knife **scamnum** $-\bar{1} n$ stool scelestus -a -um criminal, wicked scelus -eris n crime scīlicet 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** *prp* +*acc* along secundus -a -um second, favorable sed but sē-decim sixteen sedēre sēdisse sit **sella** -ae *f* stool, chair semel once $s\bar{e}men$ -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 septentriones -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 **sermo** - \bar{o} nis m talk, conversation servāre preserve, save **servīre** +*dat* be a slave, serve

servitūs -ūtis *f* slavery

satis enough, rather

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 sīc in this way, so, thus siccus -a -um dry sīc-ut just as, as signāre mark, seal significare indicate, mean significātio -onis f meaning, sense **signum** $-\bar{1}$ *n* sign, seal, statue **silentium** $-\bar{1}$ *n* silence silēre be silent **silva** -ae f wood, forest similis -e similar, like **simul** together, at the same simul atque +perf as soon as sīn but if **sine** prp + abl 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 **sõlum** *adv* only solus -a -um alone, lonely solvere -visse solūtum untie, discharge, nāvem solvere cast off, set sail

somnus -ī m sleep sonus -ī m sound, noise **sordēs** -ium *f pl* dirt sordidus -a -um dirty, mean, base **soror** - \bar{o} ris f sister spargere -sisse -sum scatter **speciës** - $\bar{e}if$ appearance, aspect, sort spectare watch, look at **spectātor** -ōris *m* spectator **speculum** $-\bar{1} n$ mirror spērāre hope (for) $sp\bar{e}s$ - $e\bar{i}f$ hope -spicere -iō -spexisse -spectum spīrāre breathe stāre stetisse stand statim at once statuere -uisse -ūtum fix, determine **stēlla** -ae f star sternere strāvisse strātum spread **stilus** -ī *m* stylus **stipendium** $-\bar{1} n$ soldier's pay, service strepitus -ūs m noise, din **studere** + dat devote oneself studiōsus -a -um (+gen) interested (in) **studium** $-\bar{1} n$ interest, study stultus -a -um stupid, foolish **stupēre** be aghast **suādēre** -sisse +dat advise sub prp +abl/acc under, sub-īre -eō -iisse go under, undergo subitō adv suddenly subitus -a -um sudden sub-mergere sink sub-urbānus -a -um near the city sūmere -mpsisse -mptum summus -a -um sup highest, greatest **super** prp + acc on (top of), above prp +abl 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** $-\bar{1} n$ (capital) punishment suprā prp +acc, adv 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

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 $-\bar{1} n$ so much alterum tantum twice as much tantum adv 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** $-\bar{1}$ *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** $-\bar{1} n$ 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** -ūs *m* thunder tot indēcl so many totiēs so many times tōtus -a -um the whole of, trā-dere -didisse -ditum hand over, deliver trahere -āxisse -actum drag, pull **tranquillitās** -ātis fcalmness tranquillus -a -um calm, still trāns prp +acc 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, turgid(ul)us -a -um swollen turpis -e ugly, foul tūtus -a -um safe tuus -a -um your, yours

tyrannus -ī m tyrant U **ubi** where ubi prīmum +perf as soon as **ubī-que** everywhere ūllus -a -um any nec/neque ūllus and no ulterior -ius comp farther, more distant ultimus -a -um sup most distant, last ultrā prp +acc beyond ululāre howl **umbra** -a f shade, shadow **umerus** -ī m shoulder ūmidus -a -um wet, moist umquam ever nec/neque umquam and never ūnā adv 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 ūniversus -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
ūsque 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 +abl use, enjoy
utinam I wish that, if
only...!
utrum...an ...or...?
whether...or
ūva -ae f grape
uxor -ōris f wife

vacuus -a -um empty vāgīre wail, squall valde 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, pl -a -ōrum vessel, bowl -ve or vehere vēxisse vectum carry, convey, pass ride, sail, travel vel or velle volō voluisse want, be willing vēlox -ocis adi swift, rapid **vēlum** $-\bar{1}$ *n* sail vel-ut like, as $v\bar{e}na$ -ae f vein vēn-dere -didisse sell venīre vēnisse ventum **venter** -tris *m* belly, stomach ventus -ī m wind venustus -a -um charming vēr vēris n spring **verbera** -um *n pl* lashes, flogging verberāre beat, flog **verbum** $-\bar{1} n$ word, verb verērī fear

vērō really, however, but neque/nec vērō but not versārī move about, be present **versiculus** -ī 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** *adv* in the evening vester -tra -trum your, yours **vestīgium** -ī *n* footprint, 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 **victoria** -ae f victory vidēre vīdisse vīsum see, pass seem **vigilāre** be awake **vigilia** -ae f night watch (I-IV) vīgintī twenty vīlis -e cheap **vīlla** -ae f country house, vincere vīcisse victum defeat, overcome, vincīre -nxisse -nctum tie **vīnea** -ae f vinyard vīnum -ī n wine vir -ī m man, husband vīrēs -ium f pl strength \mathbf{virga} -ae f rod $\mathbf{virg}\bar{\mathbf{o}}$ -inis f maiden, young girl **virtūs** -ūtis f valor, courage vīs, acc vim, abl vī force, violence, power **viscera** -um n pl internal

ABBREVIATIONS ENGLISH

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 vox vocis f voice vulnerāre wound vulnus -eris n wound **vultus** -ūs *m* countenance, face

Z zephyrus $-\bar{1}$ *m* west wind

Grammatical Terms

LATIN

ablātīvus (cāsus) ablative abl accūsātīvus (cāsus) acc accusative āctīvum (genus) āct active adiectīvum (nōmen) adi adjective adverbium -ī n adv adverb appellative appellātīvum (nōmen) cāsus -ūs m case comparātio - onis fcomparison comparātīvus (gradus) comparative comp

organs

coniugātiō -ōnis f conjugation coniūnctio -onis f coni conjunction coniūnctīvus (modus) subjunctive coni dative datīvus (cāsus) dat dēclīnātiō - \bar{o} nis fdēcl declension dēmonstrātīvum (pronomen) demonstrative dēponentia (verba) dēp deponent

LATIN ABBREVIATIONS ENGLISH

fēminīnum (genus)	f, fēm	feminine
futūrum (tempus)	fut	future
futūrum perfectum (tempus)	fut perf	future perfect
genetīvus (cāsus)	gen	genitive
genus (nōminis/verbī)		gender/voice
gerundium -ī n gerundīvum -ī n		gerund/gerundive
imperātīvus (modus)	imp, imper	imperative
imperfectum (tempus praeteritum)	imperf	imperfect
indēclīnābile (vocābulum)	indēcl	indeclinable
indēfīnītum (prōnōmen)		indefinite
indicātīvus (modus)	ind	indicative
īnfīnītīvus (modus)	īnf	infinitive
interiectiō -ōnis f	,	interjection
interrogātīvum (prōnōmen)		interrogative
locātīvus (cāsus)	loc	locative
masculīnum (genus)	m, masc	masculine
modus (verbī)		mode
neutrum (genus)	n, neutr	neuter
nōminātīvus (cāsus)	nōm	nominative
optātīvus (modus)		optative
pars ōrātiōnis		part of speech
participium -ī n	part	participle
passīvum (genus)	pass	passive
perfectum (tempus praeteritum)	perf	perfect
persōna -ae f	pers	person
personale (pronomen)	•	personal
plūrālis (numerus)	pl, plūr	plural
plūsquamperfectum (tempus praet.)	plūsqu	pluperfect
positīvus (gradus)	pos	positive
possessīvum (pronomen)	_	possessive
praepositiō -ōnis f	prp, praep	preposition
praesēns (tempus)	praes	present
praeteritum (tempus)	praet	preterite, past tense
prōnōmen -inis n	prōn	pronoun
proprium (nōmen)		proper name
relātīvum (prōnōmen)	rel	relative
singulāris (numerus)	sg, sing	singular
superlātīvus (gradus)	sup	superlative
supīnum		supine
tempus (verbī)		tense
verbum	vb	verb
vocātīvus (cāsus)	voc	vocative

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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*.

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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.



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