

LEARNING MADE EASY



2nd Edition

Latin

for
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Learn Latin grammar
and vocabulary

Practice reading, translating,
and composing Latin

Recognize commonly
confused Latin words

Clifford A. Hull, MAs, MLS
Linguae Latinae Magister

Steven R. Perkins, MA
Linguae Latinae Magister



Latin

2nd Edition

**by Clifford A. Hull, MAs, MLS
Steven R. Perkins, MA**

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dummies®**
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Introduction

Julius Caesar once wrote that all of Gaul was divided into three parts, but when it comes to Latin, you can really find only two groups: those who have some knowledge of the language and those who don't. Whichever group you fall into, this is the book for you. You might want to get a better handle on this language for so many reasons. Perhaps you remember a few Latin words from when you were in school and want to dust off the cobwebs and refresh the knowledge you once had. Then again, you may just want to find out what all the fuss is about and discover for yourself why so many people still read, write, and even speak a language that has been popular for more than 2,000 years.

Sure, you have to know a few rules and master a few tricks, but after you do, Latin is actually pretty easy to figure out, and you're going to have fun doing it! Latin was the language of the Romans, the movers and shakers of the ancient world. These are the folks who built a republic and then an empire that stood for hundreds of years, created (and destroyed) Caesars, and produced the Colosseum, the Pantheon, and Hadrian's Wall. They can also take credit for one of the most lasting man-made concoctions of all time: concrete.

As if that wasn't enough, Latin continues to influence the world through the many languages, such as French, Italian, and Spanish, that come from it. And Latin has had much influence on English, too, given that more than half of all English words are derived from Latin words. (In fact, you use Latin words without even knowing it.) One of the best-kept secrets about Latin is that not only does figuring out Latin help you understand Latin, but it also helps you understand English, too.

Not too shabby for what some people call a dead language!

About This Book

What's great about this book is that it leads you step by step to understand how Latin works. With more than a century of combined teaching experience, we (the authors) give you the information that you need without distracting you with things that you don't. Oh, we offer up plenty of fun facts along the way, but we

also give you a lot of practice exercises to help you become comfortable with your new favorite language.

Each chapter is divided into sections, and each section contains information about some part of understanding Latin, such as

- » How to decline Latin nouns and adjectives and how to conjugate Latin verbs
- » How to translate a sentence so that it makes sense in English
- » How Latin continues to influence English
- » All sorts of interesting tidbits about Roman culture

Conventions Used in This Book

To make this book easy for you to navigate, we set up a few conventions:

- » Latin terms are set in **boldface** to make them stand out, and their English translations are in *italics*.
- » Verb *conjugations* (lists that show you the forms of a verb) appear in two-column tables. The first column contains the singular forms in this order: the *I* form, the *you* (singular) form, and the *he/she/it* form. The second column lists the plural forms: the *we* form, the *you* (plural) form, and the *they* form. Here's an example, using the verb **amo, amare, amavi, amatus** (*to love*):

Singular	Plural
amo	amamus
amas	amatis
amat	amant

Language learning is a peculiar beast, so this book includes a few elements that other *For Dummies* books don't include:

- » **Talkin' the Talk dialogues:** One of the best (and most fun) ways to really understand a language is to see it in action. The dialogues under the heading "Talkin' the Talk" show you a conversation in Latin, as well as the English translation.
- » **Words to Know lists:** You do have to memorize key words and phrases when you get familiar with a language, so we collect important words within the

chapters (or sections) and place them in these lists. Some things to keep in mind about these lists are

- The function of Latin nouns depends on their declension (the term for the grammatical groupings into which Latin nouns are divided and their gender). The nouns in these lists include the first two dictionary forms (which tell you the noun's declension) and the gender. Here's an example: **coquus, coqui**, m: *cook*.

For more on gender, see Chapter 2.

- Because Latin adjectives have to match the nouns that they modify in case, number, and gender, adjective entries show the masculine, feminine, and neuter forms: **frigidus, frigida, frigidum**: *cold*.
- The translation of a verb depends on its conjugation, so the Words to Know lists include the four dictionary forms of the verb. For example: **paro, parare, paravi, paratus**: *to prepare*.

» **Fun & Games activities:** On top of all these other language-specific sections, we provide fun activities to reinforce what each chapter shows you about Latin. These word games give you a fun way to gauge your progress.

Foolish Assumptions

In writing this book, we made a few assumptions about you:

- » You know no Latin — or if you took Latin a long time ago, you may not remember much of it.
- » You don't want to be intimidated or made to feel foolish while you try something new.
- » You want to have fun and learn Latin (or refresh your knowledge of it) at the same time.

How This Book Is Organized

To help you find the information that you want more easily, this book is organized into five parts, each covering a particular topic. Each part contains several chapters relating to that part.

Part 1: Getting Started with Latin

This part gives you the basics that you need to know if you want to understand Latin — how to deal with an inflected language (which Latin is), handling verb conjugations, and figuring out the basic rules of Latin grammar. To boost your confidence, we also introduce you to some Latin that you probably already know.

Part 2: Latin in Action

The Roman world was a fascinating one. In this part, we give you all sorts of info about Roman life and the language that the Romans used relating to those areas. In Part 2, you can find information on the Roman family, the mighty Roman army, Roman entertainment, and more.

Part 3: Latin in the Modern World

Many professions still use Latin today. Obviously, the legal and medical professions use Latin heavily, but many Christian churches also use Latin, as well as sciences such as botany and zoology. Because you run into Latin in so many places, this part gives you the terms that you're most likely to hear. With all these words at your disposal, you can actually translate Latin, so this part also gives you the lowdown on how to make sense of what you read or hear.

Part 4: The Part of Tens

Perfect for the person who wants useful info in digestible chunks, the Part of Tens gives you lists that you might find helpful. In this part, you can find lists of ten (or so) Latin words that give people the most trouble as well as ten “false friends” that could potentially steer you wrong.

Part 5: Appendices

This part of the book includes important information that you can use for reference. We include noun tables, verb tables, and a mini-dictionary so that you can easily look up words that you just can't seem to remember. If you want to grade yourself on the Fun & Games activities, we give you the answer keys, too.

Icons Used in This Book

To help you find information you're interested in or to highlight information that's particularly helpful, we use the following icons:



TIP

This icon points out advice, suggestions, and pointers that you can find helpful in your Latin adventure.



REMEMBER

This icon appears next to important information that will help you understand key aspects of grammar and Roman culture.



TECHNICAL
STUFF

This icon appears beside information that you may find interesting but that you can skip without impairing your understanding of the topic.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

Latin, like any language, is full of quirks and exceptions that you need to know to translate the language accurately. This icon draws your attention to fuller discussions about grammar rules that can help you understand why Latin is the way that it is.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

This icon highlights cultural tidbits and information relating to Latin and the ancient Romans. Search for this icon if you want to know more about the culture from which the Latin language came.

Beyond the Book

In addition to what you're reading right now, this book comes with a free, access-anywhere Cheat Sheet containing helpful tips and techniques (as well as some handy tables) for understanding Latin. To get this Cheat Sheet, simply go to www.dummies.com, type **Latin For Dummies Cheat Sheet** in the search box, and click the Search button. Then select the Cheat Sheet from the drop-down list of results that appears to open the Cheat Sheet in all its glory.

Where to Go from Here

This book is organized to help you get familiar with one of the most beautiful, longest lasting, and most influential languages in the world. If you want to review a particular point, jump straight to that chapter and dig in. If you have the desire to build your knowledge from the ground up, then start at the beginning. The French theologian and poet Alain de Lille once wrote, “**Mille viae ducunt homines per saecula Romam.**” (“A thousand roads lead people forever to Rome.”) Whatever your need, we hope this book offers you a pleasant path on your journey to this wonderful language.

1

Getting Started with Latin

IN THIS PART . . .

See the links between Latin and English

Master the basics of Latin grammar

Pose questions

Say "Hello" — and "Goodbye"

- » Keeping Latin alive
- » Recognizing Latin derivatives and loanwords
- » Finding out about the Latin alphabet
- » Pronouncing Latin in a couple of ways

Chapter **1**

You Already Know a Little Latin

Take one look at Latin, and you might say, “That’s Greek to me!” You hear stories of demanding schoolmasters and are plagued by images of endless hours of memorization dancing through your head. After all, Latin is not the language of intellectual lightweights. It’s the language of Julius Caesar, Mark Antony, Vergil, Ovid, and St. Augustine. Intellectuals such as Thomas Jefferson and W.E.B. Du Bois, used it. And Leonardo da Vinci used Latin in his notes, even going so far as to write the words backwards so ordinary folks couldn’t read them. And in the movie *Tombstone*, Doc Holliday recognizes that his rival is an educated man just because he quotes the language of the Caesars.

“**Noli timere!**” the Romans would say. “*Have no fear!*” What do you think the children, gladiators, and working-class folks were speaking in those days? They used Latin, and so can you. In fact, you probably already know some Latin. This chapter takes a look at these familiar words and phrases. So relax, and enjoy this little jaunt back to the golden age of Rome.

Latin: Not as Dead as You May Have Hoped

An old rhyme about Latin goes like this: “Latin is a dead, dead language, as dead as it can be. It killed the ancient Romans, and now it’s killin’ me!” Well, Latin may have seemed deadly to the student who first penned those lines, but the rumors of Latin’s demise have been greatly exaggerated.

Latin was originally the language of a small group of people living in central Italy around the eighth century BCE. Eventually, those people — the citizens of a town called Rome — spread their culture and influence across the Mediterranean world, making Latin the common language for many nations in antiquity.

Wars, intrigue, and general decline led to the fall of the mighty Roman Empire in 476 CE, but Latin did not die with the last Roman emperor. People continued to write, read, and speak Latin for years. Although its use eventually began to dwindle, university scholars still used it until just about 300 years ago. Latin is dead today only in the sense that no group of people has it as their native language. In other words, no one learns Latin as a first language. Latin continues to influence the world, however, through the many languages derived from it, as well as through the wealth of culture, art, and literature rooted in, as Edgar Allan Poe put it, “the grandeur that was Rome.”

Familiarity Breeds Comfort: Latin You Already Know

Have you ever sent someone a *memento*? Have you watched a *video*? Listened to an *audio* cassette? If you understand the italicized words in the preceding sentences, then you’re already using Latin. **Memento** is the Latin word for *remember*, **video** is the Latin word for *see*, and **audio** is the word for *hear*. Are you a *homo sapiens*? Not only are you a member of the human race, but the Latin says that you’re a wise person, as well. Do you watch sporting events in a *coliseum*? Then you’re tipping the hat to ancient Rome’s most famous gladiatorial arena — the Colosseum.

Some Latin expressions are so much a part of the English-speaking world that you know what they mean, even when changed. “Veni! Vidi! Visa!” for example, has become a popular slogan that even non-Latinists recognize as “I came! I saw! I shopped!”

English uses many Latin words without any change in spelling or any significant change in meaning. You can read more about these words in Chapter 17, but here are a few to get you started:

- » **senator** (*senator*)
- » **gladiator** (*gladiator*)
- » **consul** (*consul*)

Many other Latin words involve the change of only a few letters:

- » **copiosus** (*copious*)
- » **defendo** (*defend*)
- » **signum** (*sign*)

The following sections take a look at some Latin derivatives and loanwords, proving why Latin is anything but a dead language.

English in a toga: Latin derivatives

Do you recognize this famous quotation?

I **pledge allegiance** to the flag of the **United States** of **America**, and to the **republic** for which it **stands, one nation**, under God, **indivisible**, with **liberty** and **justice** for all.

That, of course, is the U.S. Pledge of Allegiance.

Or how about this?

Four score and seven years ago our fathers brought forth on this **continent**, a new **nation, conceived** in **Liberty**, and **dedicated** to the **proposition** that all men are **created equal**.

Many of you know that as the opening of President Lincoln's *Gettysburg Address*.

Guess what? If you can read those sentences, then in a way, you have been reading Latin. All the highlighted words are *Latin derivatives* — that is, English words that look like Latin words and have similar meanings.

Many people study Latin because of the influence of Latin on the English vocabulary. More than half of English is derived from Latin, after all. Table 1-1 lists just a few Latin words and the cornucopia (that's **cornu** [*horn*] and **copia** [*supply*]) of English words they provide.

TABLE 1-1

Latin Words and Their Derivatives

Latin	Definition	Derivatives
aequus	<i>level, fair</i>	equinox, equal, equivocate, iniquity
augere	<i>to increase</i>	augment, auction, author
bene	<i>well</i>	beneficiary, benediction, benign, benevolent
capere	<i>to seize</i>	precept, capture, captious
dicere	<i>to say</i>	diction, indict, edict, dictate
ducere	<i>to lead</i>	ductile, induction, reduce, education
magnus	<i>large</i>	magnify, magnitude, magnate, magnanimous
pater	<i>father</i>	patrimony, patristics, patronize, patrician
rogare	<i>to ask</i>	interrogate, arrogance, prerogative, surrogate
scribere	<i>to write</i>	inscribe, prescription, nondescript, describe
tenere	<i>to hold</i>	tentative, tentacle, attention
videre	<i>to see</i>	visual, vision, visor, provide, advise, envy

Many derivatives come from various parts of Latin words.

One word worthy of note is the Latin verb meaning *to bear* or *to carry*. The full dictionary entry for this word is **fero, ferre, tuli, latus**. From this word, English gets “fertile” and “collateral.”

The fact that derivatives pick and choose from Latin words also accounts for some of the changes in spelling among related words. The full dictionary entry of the Latin verb meaning *to stick* or *to cling* is **haereo, haerere, haesi, haesus**. From the parts with *r* come words such as “adhere” and “cohere,” but from the parts with *s* you find “adhesion” and “cohesion.” You can see more about verbs and their dictionary forms in Chapter 2.

You can also find certain patterns in how a word changes from Latin to English. Many Latin words for intangible virtues or qualities end in **-as**. These words appear as English words that end in **-ty**:

Latin Word	English Word
gravitas	<i>gravity</i>
humilitas	<i>humility</i>
pietas	<i>piety</i>
dignitas	<i>dignity</i>
paupertas	<i>poverty</i>



CULTURAL
WISDOM

The Romans made a distinction in types of poverty. They referred to simple *lack of wealth or meager resources* as **paupertas**, but used **egestas** for *absolute destitution*. Here's another interesting tidbit regarding how Latin elements continue to appear: Many Roman army camps, or **castra** eventually turned into towns. Their military origin is preserved in such town names as Lancaster, Manchester, Worcester, and Chester.

In the debit column: Latin loanwords

Derivatives retain their Latin origins in subtle, altered forms. Loanwords wear a gleaming toga and let everyone know that they're Latin words and won't change for anyone. Many areas of study, such as law, medicine, the church, and science, have specialized vocabularies made up of a large percentage of loanwords from Latin. You can explore these areas in more detail in Chapters 11 through 14.

Loanwords are Latin words that have entered the English language with no change in spelling, although sometimes there may be a slight difference in the words' meanings. Table 1-2 lists several common loanwords, together with their original Latin meanings and the current English definitions.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

When a Roman ran for office, he wore a special toga that had been whitened to reflect the sun. Called a **toga candida**, this garment let everyone know who the candidates were. In the days before paid political commercials and televised debates, you had to do something to get yourself noticed!

TABLE 1-2

Latin Loanwords

Latin	Latin Meaning	English Meaning
agenda	things to be done	list of things to be done
agent	they will do	person/thing that does something
data	given	information used to make a decision
genius	spirit	person of above-average ability
habitat	s/he lives	place where a plant or animal typically lives
interim	meanwhile	intervening period of time
memento	remember!	gift of remembrance
propaganda	things to be spread	spread of ideas to help or harm
scribe	write!	person who writes for others
tenet	s/he holds	belief held by a particular group
video	I see	a visual recording
virile	masculine	having the nature of a male

A GUESSING GAME

Cover up the last column and see if you can guess the meaning of the Latin verbs that the following English words are derived from:

Derivative	Latin Verb	Latin Definition
amateur	amare	<i>to love</i>
sedentary	sedere	<i>to sit</i>
navigate	navigare	<i>to sail</i>
vivacious	vivere	<i>to live</i>
exclaim	clamare	<i>to shout</i>

From A to Z: The Latin Alphabet

One feature makes Latin easier to understand than some other languages: the alphabet. Latin has no strange characters and no funny accent marks. If you know the English alphabet, then you already know the Latin alphabet and then some. Present-day readers can also remember a couple of tricks to help them decipher Latin:

» **Latin uses the same letters as English with a few exceptions:**

- Latin never uses the letter *W*.
- Few Latin words use *K*; they use *C* instead.
- Latin used *I* and *V* as both consonants and vowels until much later, when someone had the bright idea to bend the *I* into a *J* and round the *V* into a *U*.

» **Everything ran together.** That's right. No spaces, no punctuation.

Here's an example of what that would have looked like:

INTHEEARLYSTAGESOFHELANGUAGEYOUCANSEETHATLATIN
WASWRITTENONLYINMAJUSCULEORCAPITALLETTERSANDWIT
HOUTANYPUNCTUATIONTHEREWASNOMORESPACEBETWEENW
ORDSTHANTHEREWASBETWEENLETTERSAPPARENTLYTHEROM
ANSHADNODIFFICULTYWITHTHISSYSTEMBECAUSETHEYCARRI
EDLATINTOTHEENDSOFTHEIRWORLD

Here it is again with spacing and punctuation:

In the early stages of the language, you can see that Latin was written only in *majuscule*, or capital, letters and without any punctuation. There was no more space between words than there was between letters. Apparently, the Romans had no difficulty with this system because they carried Latin to the ends of their world.

Fortunately, most Latin texts today include modern conventions, such as punctuation and capitalization. Most texts also make a distinction between *V* and *U*, but many still keep *I* as both consonant and vowel.

SOUNDIN' LIKE A ROMAN: PRONUNCIATION

You may hear that Latin is not a spoken language, and it's true that no one learns Latin as a native language anymore. In its heyday, however, everyone in the civilized world — that is, the part of the world the Romans considered civilized because they'd conquered it — spoke Latin. In fact, more people spoke Latin than read or wrote it because most folks were illiterate. An education was available only to families who could afford it.

CAN I HAVE A TRANSCRIBER AND A TRANSLATOR, PLEASE?

The earliest editions of a Roman manuscript were often made centuries after the original. These copies, handwritten mostly by monks, not only preserved the texts but also contributed to their legibility because the monks added features, such as punctuation and lowercase letters. Not all the changes in calligraphy, however, made the Latin text easier to read. In the 13th through 15th centuries, the monks used a script in which the quill strokes were the same width as the space between letters. Too many similar letters next to each other often produced a “picket fence” look, like this:

¶t̄imin̄inum̄n̄ivium̄min̄im̄un̄ium̄n̄im̄ium̄
vin̄im̄un̄im̄in̄um̄im̄min̄ūiv̄iv̄im̄in̄im̄um̄vol̄unt̄

m̄imī n̄um̄inum̄ n̄iv̄ium̄ m̄in̄imī m̄un̄ium̄ n̄im̄ium̄ v̄inī m̄un̄im̄inum̄ im̄min̄uī v̄iuv̄
m̄in̄im̄um̄ vol̄unt̄

Translated, this sentence says, “The tiny mimes of the snow spirits in no way wish, while they are alive, the tremendous task of [serving] the wine of the defenses to be diminished.”

Well, I guess that one, even translated, isn’t that much easier to understand. But you get the point.

Fortunately, later Latin grammarians who taught the increasing number of **barbari** (*foreigners*) how to speak the language of the new world power left some pronunciation clues. Latin literature itself also offers hints about pronunciation. In one of his poems, for example, the poet Catullus (84–54 BCE) pokes fun at someone for the way he pronounces certain words. Arrius, the object of the poet’s wit, over-aspirates some of his words. That is to say, he puts the “h” sound in front of vowels, perhaps to sound more Greek and, therefore, more refined. Understanding that Catullus is making fun of Arrius, you can reason backward to see that such pronunciation wasn’t common — or at least not acceptable — among Romans of that time.

Combining these clues with knowledge of how languages form and change over the years (called *historical linguistics*), scholars have more or less established an agreed-upon pronunciation, which is often referred to as the *Classical pronunciation*. Another system for pronouncing Latin comes from a later period of the language and is sometimes called the *Ecclesiastical pronunciation* (also called “*Church pronunciation*”) because of its use in the Latin Mass and church hymns.



If you deal mostly with secular texts before the second century CE, then you need to focus on the Classical pronunciation. If your primary interest is in Latin related to the church or in secular writings from the second century onward, then you should know the Ecclesiastical pronunciation.

Classical pronunciation

The big advantage for those who want to learn how to pronounce Latin is that it doesn't have any silent letters. You hear every letter in a Latin word. Pronunciation becomes a simple matter of knowing the sounds of vowels (see Tables 1-3 and 1-4) and consonants (see Table 1-5).

TABLE 1-3

Vowel Sounds

Long Vowel	Pronunciation	Short Vowel	Pronunciation
a	ah (f <u>a</u> ther)	a	uh (ide <u>a</u>)
e	ay (m <u>a</u> te)	e	eh (be <u>d</u>)
i	ee (se <u>e</u> d)	i	ih (p <u>i</u> t)
o	o (n <u>o</u> te)	o	oh (p <u>o</u> t)
u	oo (m <u>oo</u> n)	u	u (p <u>u</u> t)
y	uw/umlaut (German <u>ü</u> ber)	y	uw/umlaut (German H <u>ü</u> tte)

A few vowel combinations, called *diphthongs*, are so common that their sounds have merged into one. Table 1-4 shows how they sound.

TABLE 1-4

Diphthong Sounds in Classical Latin

Diphthong	Pronunciation	As In English
ae	igh	fi<u>gh</u>t
au	ow	h<u>ow</u>
ei	ey	th<u>ey</u>
eu	eyoo	th<u>ey</u> too
oe	oi	to<u>il</u>
ui	uey	chewy

Most Latin consonants have the same sounds as in English, with the exceptions listed in Table 1-5.

TABLE 1-5

Consonant Sounds in Classical Latin

Latin Consonant	Pronunciation
c	k (ca n; never as in “cereal”)
g	g (g ood; never as in “genuine”)
j	y (y outh)
r	r (always trilled)
s	s (s oft; never as in “fans”)
v	w (w oman)
x	ks (wa x ; never as in “xenophobic”)
z	dz (ad ze)
bs	ps (lap se)
bt	pt (except pt)
ch	kh (ch aos; never as in “cheer”)
gn	ngn (han gn ail)
ph	p-h (top ph heavy)
th	t (t ourist)
ti	ti (pat io ; never as in “nation”)

Talkin' the Talk



A Roman senator talks with his father.

Senator: **Pater, cur dignitatem in viris Romanis non video?**

Father, why do I not see dignity among the Roman men?

Pater: **Cur me rogas?**

Why are you asking me?

Senator: **Quod magna de dignitate scribis et dicis.**

Because you write and speak great things about dignity.

Pater: **Fama in magnis, dignitas autem in humilitate habitat.**

Fame lives in great things, but dignity lives in humility.



REMEMBER

Remember that in ancient times, the letter *I* was used as a consonant instead of the letter *J*. Many modern editions of Latin texts retain this spelling.

Ecclesiastical pronunciation

Later Latin pronunciation is similar to the Classical pronunciation. In fact, you pronounce the vowels the same way. (Refer to Table 1-3 for the Classical pronunciation of vowels.) The only differences occur in diphthongs, which we discuss in the preceding section, and consonants. (See Table 1-6 for the Ecclesiastical diphthongs and Table 1-7 for the Ecclesiastical consonants.)

TABLE 1-6

Diphthong Sounds in Ecclesiastical Latin

Diphthong	Pronunciation	As in English
ae	ay	<u>mate</u>
au	ow	<u>how</u>
ei	ey	<u>they</u>
eu	eyoo	<u>they too</u>
oe	ay	<u>mate</u>
ui	uey	<u>chewy</u>

The sounds of consonants in Ecclesiastical pronunciation are mostly the same as in Classical pronunciation (refer to Table 1-5). A few sounds soften somewhat, though, in the later Latin pronunciation, and there is a different pronunciation for the consonant combinations *cc*, *gg*, and *sc*.

TABLE 1-7

Consonant Sounds in Ecclesiastical Latin

Latin Consonant	Pronunciation
c	ch (ch oose before <i>e, i, ae, or oe</i> ; otherwise <i>k</i> as in c an)
g	g (g enuine before <i>e</i> or <i>i</i> ; otherwise <i>g</i> as in “ g ood”)
j	y (y outh)
r	r (always trilled)
s	s (s oft; never as in fan s)
v	v (v ine)
x	ks (wax; in words beginning with ex- and followed by a vowel, <i>h</i> , or <i>s</i> , then <i>gz</i> as in ex haust)
z	dz (adze)
bs	bs (obs ess; if occurring as the last two letters, then as in ob serve)
bt	bt (ob tain)
cc	tch (catch before <i>e</i> or <i>i</i> ; otherwise as <i>kk</i> in book kk eeper)
ch	kh (ch aos; never as in cheer)
gg	dj (adj ourn before <i>e</i> or <i>i</i> , otherwise <i>gg</i> as in leg g uard)
gn	ny (can yon)
ph	ph (tele ph one)
sc	sh (sh irt before <i>e</i> or <i>i</i>)
th	t (t ourist)
ti	tsee (as in t set se fly)

Don't stress out: Accenting syllables

You need to know one more thing before launching out into the world of spoken Latin: accenting. Accenting, or placing the proper stress on a Latin word, is as simple as one, two, three — literally. The first syllable of a two-syllable word is accented. For two syllable words, accent the next to last syllable. For words with at least three syllables, always try to put the accent on the third to the last syllable. If the second to the last syllable is long, however, put the accent there.

How do you know if the second to last syllable is long? Again, it's as easy as one, two, three. A syllable is long if

- » **The vowel is long.** For example, **videre** (*to see*).
- » **Two consonants follow the vowel.** For example, **perditum** (*ruined*).
- » **The vowel sound is a diphthong.** For example, **inaures** (*earrings*).

ULTIMATELY CONFUSING? NOT REALLY

In Latin, the last three syllables have names that you may hear or see in other Latin books: *antepenultimate*, *penultimate*, and *ultimate*. They sound a little confusing, but you can look at this as an opportunity to practice your understanding of derivatives.

If *ante* means *before*, *paene* means *almost*, and *ultimus* means *last*, then you can pretty easily figure out what these words actually mean:

Antepenultimate means “almost before the last” or “third from last.”

Penultimate means “before the last.”

Ultimate means “last.”

In modern English, you say “last,” “next to last,” and “the syllable next to the next to last syllable, which I don’t know why I have to identify anyway.”

IN THIS CHAPTER

- » Understanding what word order can (and can't) tell you
- » Playing around with nouns
- » Working with verb tenses
- » Putting it all together with conjunctions

Chapter 2

The Nitty Gritty: Basic Latin Grammar

The Monty Python comedy *The Life of Brian* has a scene that's famous among Latin enthusiasts everywhere. A Judean rebel paints graffiti on a wall, in Latin, telling the Romans to go home. Instead of apprehending the rebel, a grammatically nitpicking centurion approaches and reads the graffiti aloud — “**Romanus eunt domus**” — and asks if the rebel really intended to paint, “*Roman they go the house.*” The centurion makes the rebel repaint the grammatically correct version of the slogan — “**Ite domum, Romani**” — a hundred times to make sure he gets it right.

Latin is more than just knowing some vocabulary and, believe it or not, grammar is your friend here. In fact, Latin is such an expressive language that you can convey an entire thought with one word. This chapter introduces you to the basics — nouns and verbs, plus a few other items along the way.

Bending the Rules: All about an Inflected Language

Consider the following English sentences:

Dog bites man.

Man bites dog.

This is the way the English language works: You know what is happening to whom because of the word order. Generally, in simple English sentences, the subject appears first, the verb next, and the direct object (whatever receives the action) last. That being the case, you know that in the first sentence the dog (the subject) is doing the biting and the man (the direct object) is the one being bitten. In the second sentence, it's the other way around: The man is biting the dog. What you may not know is that not all languages use a word's place in the sentence to convey meaning. Some languages, like Latin, use word endings to tell you how a word functions in the sentence. The words themselves can be in just about any order.

What if I say that adding an asterisk (*) to a word makes it the subject and adding a percent sign (%) makes it the direct object? Now consider these sentences:

Dog* bites man%.

Man% bites dog*.

Although the word order is different, these two sentences say the same thing. Latin nouns, of course, don't use percent signs or asterisks. The *suffix* (a group of letters added to the end of the base of a word) determines which word is the subject and which word is the direct object. These different suffixes indicate the different *cases* (noun functions in a sentence).



REMEMBER

English gets most of its meaning from the order of words in a sentence, but languages such as Latin get most of their meaning from the suffixes of words. Such languages are called *inflected languages* because the basic words are changed to show such things as who is doing or who is receiving the action, or even when the action takes place. English still retains some of this inflection, but it is mostly seen in pronouns. The word “he” indicates the subject form, “him” indicates the object form (which is also the form used after prepositions), and “his” indicates possession.

Latin Nouns (Or Why You Should Love Your English Teacher)

To understand Latin, you have to understand how Latin nouns work:

- » **Latin nouns have gender.** That is, they're categorized as masculine, feminine, or neuter. We talk about gender in the following section.
- » **Latin nouns have seven basic cases that determine what function the noun serves in the sentence.** The word's suffix can clue you in to the noun's case. (You can find out more in the section "Casing a Latin noun," later in this chapter.)
- » **Latin has five *declensions* (noun groups that use the same suffix for each case).** Like cases, declensions help you accurately translate Latin sentences. (For more on declension, see the section "Declining a Latin noun," later in this chapter.)

Now don't you wish you'd appreciated your English teachers just a bit more? The only thing *they* made you learn about nouns was that they're persons, places, or things.

Talking about the birds and the bees: Gender

A distinction exists between biological and grammatical gender. Most people understand the biological sense but the grammatical sense is a little shaky. Simply put, grammatical gender further distinguishes Latin nouns as masculine, feminine, or neuter through the use of a suffix. You don't really need to know why this is so; you just need to understand how it works.

Words that have a biological gender have a corresponding grammatical gender. The Latin word for *girl* is grammatically feminine, and the word for *boy* is grammatically masculine. It's easy enough to get the right grammatical gender when who or what the word refers to has a biological gender. But some things — such as *table*, *house*, or *truth* — don't have a biological gender; they still have a grammatical gender, though. The Latin word for *ship*, for example, is feminine; the Latin word for *food* is masculine; the word for *river* is neuter.



TIP

Checking a Latin dictionary is an easy way to verify a noun's gender. Noun entries give the abbreviations *m*, *f*, or *n* to tell you if a noun is masculine, feminine, or neuter. (This last gender, neuter, may look like an English word, but it's actually the Latin word **neuter**, which means "neither.")

Grammatical gender plays its most important role when talking about *adjectives* (words that describe nouns) because the gender of the adjective and the noun it goes with have to be the same; otherwise, the sentence won't make much sense. You can investigate adjectives in Chapter 4, but here's a quick example. The phrase *good girl* in Latin is **puella bona**. **Bona** (*good*) is the feminine adjective form, which is appropriate to modify **puella**, the Latin word for *girl*, which is grammatically feminine. If you use **bonus**, which is the masculine form, you get something that doesn't sound quite right. It would be like saying, "See that girl? He's a good person."



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

Some languages indicate gender through the use of articles. Latin, however, is not one of them. In fact, during the Classical period, Latin had no articles (words such as *a*, *an*, and *the*, for example). Whether a person was referring to *a* dog (meaning any dog), for example, or *the* dog (a specific dog) was left entirely to interpretation and context clues. Eventually, forms of the demonstrative pronouns (see Chapter 7) came to fill the function of articles.

Casing a Latin noun

Nouns can perform as subjects, direct objects, indirect objects, and so on, within a sentence. Language students often use the word *case* to refer to the particular use of a noun in a sentence. English, for example, has three basic cases: subject, object, and possession. As explained in the section "Bending the Rules: All about an Inflected Language," earlier in this chapter, a word's placement within a sentence often determines an English noun's case.

Latin, on the other hand, has *seven* noun cases. A noun can have a wider range of uses just by changing its suffix. Here are the most commonly used cases:



REMEMBER

- » **Nominative:** The subject. (The cook burned the cookies.)
Latin doesn't really have articles (such as *a*, *an*, and *the*). When you translate a sentence from Latin to English, you have to add those words yourself.
- » **Genitive:** Usually indicates possession. (The shepherd's dog ran after the sheep.)
- » **Dative:** The *indirect object*, the person or thing to whom you give, show, or tell something. (The commissioner gave the man a medal for bravery.)
- » **Accusative:** Usually indicates the direct object, that is, the object of a transitive verb. (Brutus stabbed Caesar.)
- » **Ablative:** Expresses how, when, where, or why. (The general was informed with a message. The athlete ran with great speed.)

- » **Vocative:** the vocative case is the form used to indicate the person or thing who is being addressed or called. (And you, *Brutus?*)
- » **Locative:** You use this case to express “the place where” when you are using the names of towns, cities, and small islands, as well as the words **domus** (*home*) and **rus** (*countryside*). You can read more about this case Chapter 3.



REMEMBER

Unlike English, where a noun’s placement indicates its use, Latin nouns use suffixes instead. The following sections tell you more about suffixes and how they’re used.

Declining a Latin noun

They say that old Latin teachers never die — they just decline. Whether this is true of teachers, declining and declension are facts of life that all Latin nouns must face. A *declension* is a group of nouns that form their cases the same way — that is, they use the same suffixes. To *decline* a noun means to list all possible case forms for that noun.

Latin has five declensions, and this chapter looks at the first two. (See Chapters 4 and 7 for the other three declensions.)

1st-declension nouns

The first noun group that uses the same suffixes to form case is, not surprisingly, called the *1st declension*. All the nouns in the 1st declension use the endings shown in Table 2-1 to indicate case in a sentence. These nouns are either masculine or feminine; the 1st declension has no neuter nouns. You may be thinking, “How will I know what form a noun is if it has an ending that can be used for different cases?” Simple! You can always use context clues to help. We talk about issues of translation like that in Chapter 15.

TABLE 2-1

1st-Declension Case Endings

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-a	-ae
Genitive	-ae	-arum
Dative	-ae	-is
Accusative	-am	-as
Ablative	-a	-is
Vocative	-a	-ae

Table 2-2 shows the full declension of the noun **puella**, which means *girl*.

TABLE 2-2:

Declining a 1st-Declension Noun

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	puella	puellae
Genitive	puellae	puellarum
Dative	puellae	puellis
Accusative	puellam	puellas
Ablative	puella	puellis
Vocative	puella	puellae

Here's an example with the words **terra** (*land*), **agricola** (*farmer*), and **puella** (*girl*):

Terram agricolarum puella amat.

Using the case endings to put the nouns in the right position, you can translate this sentence: *The girl loves the land of the farmers*. Here's how:

- » **Terra** (*land*) ends in **-am**, so its case is accusative. In other words, it's the direct object.
- » **Agricola** (*farmer*) ends in **-arum**, the plural genitive, which shows possession. Because it's genitive, stick the words *of the* in front of the noun: *of the farmers*.
- » **Puella** (*girl*) ends in **-a**, which is the singular nominative case. That makes **puella** the subject.
- » **Amat** (*love*) is the verb. It can mean "s/he loves," but in this sentence, it is clearly referring to the girl. (For verb conjugations, see the section "Lights! Camera! Action! — Introducing Verbs," later in this chapter.)

Put it all together, and you have: *Land of the farmers girl loves*. Okay; that doesn't read like an English sentence. So put the words in the order they would be in an English sentence — subject, verb, and direct object — then throw in a couple articles for good measure, and *now* you get: *The girl loves the land of the farmers*. Voila!

2nd-declension nouns

“**Flamma fumo est proxima.**” According to the Roman playwright Plautus, “*Flame is closest to smoke.*” In English, you say, “Where there’s smoke, there must be fire.” And if you have one noun declension, you must have more.

2nd-declension nouns are a bit more expressive than 1st-declension nouns because they have two separate sets of endings for masculine and neuter genders. The 2nd declension has several feminine nouns, and these have the same endings as masculine nouns (see Table 2-3). The only way to tell for sure the gender of a Latin noun is to look it up in a Latin dictionary.

TABLE 2-3

2nd-Declension Masculine/Feminine Case Endings

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-us (occasionally -r)	-i
Genitive	-i	-orum
Dative	-o	-is
Accusative	-um	-os
Ablative	-o	-is
Vocative	-e/-i/-r	-i

Note: Some 2nd-declension nouns use **-r** for the nominative singular form. Two examples of 2nd-declension masculine nouns are **amicus** (the word for *friend*) and **ager** (the word for *field*).

Also note that the vocative singulars of 2nd-declension nouns ending in **-r** look exactly the same as the nominative singulars. For example, the Latin word for *boy* is **puer**. So if you addressed a boy in Latin, you’d say, “**Puer.**”

However, for words ending in **-us** in the nominative singular, change the **-us** ending to **-e**: If you addressed Brutus, you would change his name Brutus to **Brute**.

Words ending in **-ius** in the nominative singular have the **-us** ending of the nominative removed to form the vocative singular. So, if you wanted to address your son, which in Latin is **filius**, you would say, “**Fili.**”

Table 2-4 shows the full declension of the masculine nouns **amicus** (*friend*) and **ager** (*field*).

TABLE 2-4

Declining 2nd-Declension Masculine Nouns

Case	Singular	Plural	Singular	Plural
Nominative	amicus	amici	ager	agri
Genitive	amici	amicorum	agri	agrorum
Dative	amico	amicis	agro	agris
Accusative	amicum	amicos	agrum	agros
Ablative	amico	amicis	agro	agris
Vocative	amice	amici	ager	agri

2nd-declension neuter nouns have endings similar to those of the masculine/feminine genders. In fact, because they're so much alike, they can be grouped together in this declension. Pay particular attention to where the suffixes are different (shown in boldface in Table 2-5).

TABLE 2-5

2nd-Declension Neuter Case Endings

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-um	-a
Genitive	-i	-orum
Dative	-o	-is
Accusative	-um	-a
Ablative	-o	-is
Vocative	-um	-a



CULTURAL
WISDOM

OUCH! THAT HAD TO HURT

As a multicultural society, Rome imported many religious practices from other places. By the third century BCE, the cult of Cybele, a Phrygian mother-goddess, had come to Italy. The cult of the **Magna Mater**, or *Great Mother*, included castrated temple attendants, the first of whom was a man named Attis. In his poem "Carmen 63," the poet Catullus details how Attis performed this surgery on himself. Interestingly, Catullus then uses feminine adjectives for Attis throughout the rest of the poem.

Table 2-6 shows the decline of **saxum**, a 2nd-declension neuter noun that means *rock*.

TABLE 2-6

Declining a 2nd-Declension Neuter Noun

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	saxum	saxa
Genitive	saxi	saxorum
Dative	saxo	saxis
Accusative	saxum	saxa
Ablative	saxo	saxis
Vocative	saxum	saxa

You can see that the only place where neuter nouns are different is in the nominative singular and nominative and accusative plural forms, which have the endings **-um** and **-a** for a neuter noun. These differences present an interesting situation: The suffix **-a** can also be a singular ending in 1st declension. Look at the following sentence:

Portat saxa puella in aqua.

Portare means *to carry*, a **saxum** is a *rock*, **puella** means *girl*, and **aqua** is *water*. But if you know the definitions, you're only halfway to understanding the sentence. The preceding Latin sentence means one of the following translations (but which one?):

- The girl in the water carries rocks.
- The girls in the water carry rocks.
- The girl in the water carries a rock.
- The girls in the water carry a rock.
- The girl on the rocks carries water.
- The girls on the rocks carry water.
- The girl on the rock carries water.
- The girls on the rock carry water.



TIP

Remember that word order in Latin plays less of a role in determining meaning than it does in English. The only way to know for certain is to know to what declension each of the nouns belongs, and you can get this information by checking a Latin dictionary. Along with the definition and gender, each noun's dictionary entry gives the nominative and genitive singular forms. You can spot a 1st-declension noun because it has a genitive singular ending in **-ae**, and a 2nd-declension noun has a genitive singular ending in **-i**. The dictionary entries for the nouns in the preceding Latin sentence look like this:

saxum, saxi, n (*rock*)

puella, puellae, f (*girl*)

aqua, aquae, f (*water*)

This information shows you that **saxum** is a 2nd-declension word and both **puella** and **aqua** are 1st declension because of the genitive singular endings (**saxi**, **puellae**, and **aquae**). Knowing the words' declensions, you can figure out that the correct translation of the sentence is actually: *The girl in the water carries rocks.*



GRAMMATICALLY SPEAKING

Some 2nd-declension masculine nouns have **-ius** for a nominative singular ending, and some neuter nouns have **-ium**. These nouns used a single **-i** for the genitive singular ending until the Age of Augustus, which began in the first century BCE. After that time, the genitive singular for these nouns became **-ii**. Most dictionaries retain the older spelling that uses a single **-i**, and we use that form throughout this book.



REMEMBER

You can always determine the declension and gender of a noun just by checking its dictionary entry.

Talkin' the Talk



A **mater** (*mother*) and a **coquus** (*cook*) discuss dinner preparations.

Coquus: **Cibum et aquam ad triclinium portabo.**

I shall carry the food and water to the dining room.

Mater: **Cultellos et mappas in mensa quoque pone.**

Put the knives and napkins on the table, too.

Coquus: **Cibus et aqua nunc sunt in triclinio.**

The food and water are now in the dining room.

Mater: **Cur non cultelli et mappae sunt in mensa? Erat iussum meum.**

Why are the knives and napkins not on the table? That was my order.

Coquus: **Defessus eram et non memini.**

I was tired, and I did not remember.

Mater: **Tu es coquus meus, et ego iussa coquo do!**

You are my cook, and I give the cook the orders!

Coquus: **Mox ero coquus in Elysio.**

Soon I shall be a cook in Elysium.

.....



The ancient Romans didn't believe good people went up to heaven and bad people went down to hell after death. Instead, many believed that everyone went **apud inferos** (*to the underworld*). Once there, however, souls of the wicked received torturous punishments in a region called **Tartarus**, while good souls enjoyed eternal happiness in **Elysium**.

WORDS TO KNOW

agricola, agricolae, m	farmer
amicus, amici, m	friend
aqua, aquae, f	water
cibus, cibi, m	food
puella, puellae, f	girl
regina, reginae, f	queen
saxum, saxi, n	rock
servus, servi, m	slave
terra, terrae, f	land
triclinium, triclini, n	dining room

Lights! Camera! Action! Introducing Verbs

Nouns may describe persons, places, things, or ideas, but without verbs, a sentence goes nowhere. A similarity exists between the organization of Latin nouns and verbs that helps to keep everything straight. For example, nouns are grouped into declensions, and verbs are grouped into conjugations. Nouns use case endings to show how they function in a sentence, and verbs use personal endings to show who is doing the action. By looking at a noun suffix, you can quickly tell whether a word is singular or plural, and you can get the same information, along with the tense, from a verb suffix. To paraphrase the poet Ovid, “**Ille dies nefastus erit, per quem verba silentur,**” meaning, “*It will be an unfortunate day when the verbs are silent.*”

Joining the ranks of verb conjugation

The word *conjugation* is a derivative of the Latin **coniungere**, which means *to join together*. Just as a declension groups nouns that form their cases the same way, a conjugation groups verbs that form their *tenses* the same way — by using certain endings. In this section, you can find out how to spot the conjugation of any regular verb, as well as how to recognize who is doing the action and when.



REMEMBER

The dictionary entry for a Latin verb has four principal parts, just as English verbs do. An English verb might look like this:

(to) sing	singing	sang	sung
infinitive	present participle	past tense	past participle

Latin verbs are presented much the same way. A typical verb might be:

amo (I love)	amare (to love)	amavi (I loved)	amatus (loved)
present tense	infinitive	past tense	past participle

Regular Latin verbs belong to one of five conjugations. The key to recognizing what conjugation a verb belongs to is to look at the verb’s infinitive. Table 2-7 serves as a quick reference.

TABLE 2-7

The Infinitive Forms

Infinitive Suffix	Conjugation	Example	English Translation
-are	1st	amare	<i>to love</i>
-ere	2nd	tenere	<i>to hold</i>
-ere	3rd	ponere	<i>to put</i>
-ire	4th	audire	<i>to hear</i>
-ere	3rd-io	capere	<i>to seize</i>

You may notice that 2nd, 3rd, and 3rd-io conjugations seem to have the same infinitive ending, **-ere**. But you can identify some differences:

- » If you check the pronunciation of the examples, you see that the 2nd conjugation involves a long **-e**, pronounced “ay,” and the 3rd conjugation uses a short **-e**, pronounced “eh.”
- » The 1st principal part of the 2nd conjugation ends in **-eo**.
- » The 3rd conjugation ends in a consonant preceding the **-o**.
- » The 3rd-io conjugation has a 1st principal part ending in **-io** and the infinitive ending in **-ere**, which sets it apart from both the 3rd and 4th conjugations.

As an extra help in identifying which is which, 2nd-conjugation verbs end with **-eo** in their 1st principal part. So the full dictionary entry for a 2nd-conjugation verb might look like

Teneo, tenere, tenui, tentus: *to hold*

For a 3rd-conjugation verb, it would look like

Pono, ponere, posui, positus: *to put*

A sort of hybrid conjugation, called *3rd-io*, is a cross between the 3rd and 4th conjugations. Basically, it has the short **-ere** ending on the infinitive, just like the 3rd conjugation, but it has an **-io** on the 1st principal part in the same way that 4th-conjugation verbs do. For example:

Facio, facere, feci, factus: *to make*

See Table 2-9 to compare an example of a 3rd-io verb with examples of the other conjugations.

When you can recognize a verb’s conjugation, you can handle the vast majority of Latin verbs. You can read about a few of the *irregular verbs* — meaning verbs that don’t fit any of the regular conjugations — in Chapters 3 and 5.

Taking it personally — personal endings



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

A child on her way to school calls back over her shoulder to her parents, “Love you!” But what does she really mean? “We love you,” making reference to herself and the stuffed animal she’s carrying for show-n-tell? Perhaps she intends, “They love you,” indicating the other children on the bus. Of course, she is most likely trying to say, “I love you.” But in English, you can’t know for certain without context clues or the addition of a pronoun. In short, English requires at least two words to express an action and who is performing it.

Latin is more compact. Recognizing a particular verb suffix, you can tell exactly who is doing the action in a sentence. In fact, you can have a complete sentence with just one word. Take a look:

Canto. (*I am singing.*)

Because these suffixes show who performs the action, they’re called *personal endings*, and for the active voice in the majority of tenses, they look like what you see in Table 2-8. (You can read about active and passive voice in Chapter 9.)

TABLE 2-8

Personal Endings

Singular Ending	Meaning	Plural Ending	Meaning
-o (-m)	I	-mus	we
-s	you	-tis	You (plural)
-t	he, she, it	-nt	they

You can see that two 1st-person endings, -o and -m, are possible. Which one you use depends on the tense, and you can find out more about tenses in the following section. But with either ending, notice that a simple suffix identifies the subject of the verb. This nonsense sentence illustrates how you can understand Latin verbs fairly simply:

Cibum **tis et aquam ****nt, sed vinum ****mus.**

Even though the symbols in the preceding sentence aren't real verb roots, you can still tell who's doing the action. For example, *you (plural)* are doing something to the **cibum** (*food*) because the suffix of the verb is **-tis**. *They* are doing the action to the **aquam** (*water*) because of the **-nt** ending of the verb, and **-mus** says that *we* are performing some action on the **vinum** (*wine*). Now look at the same basic sentence with actual verbs:

Cibum portatis et aquam gustant, sed vinum amamus.

You carry the food and they taste the water, but we love the wine.



TIP

Texts written in Latin use 3rd-person verb forms more than any other form, which makes sense when you consider that literature frequently tells the story of something or someone other than the writer.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

The same rules for subject-verb agreement apply in English as in Latin. That is, a singular subject requires a singular verb, and a plural subject requires a plural verb. You would not say, “The horses is fast,” but rather, “the horses are fast.” If the verb ends in **-t**, look for a nominative-singular noun for the subject. If the verb ends in **-nt**, then look for a nominative plural. Of course, if the subject is unexpressed, you still know that **-t** can indicate *he, she, or it*, and **-nt** indicates *they*.

Relax! It's just the verbs that are tense

Latin verbs convey plenty of information in just one word. Not only do these verbs describe the action of a sentence and tell you who's doing that action, but they also show the time when that action occurs — all with a simple system of suffixes.

When you dive into Latin verb tenses, you can see that Latin is very precise in how it communicates time. Latin has six basic tenses, and you can discover three of them in the following sections. For the remaining three tenses, head to Chapter 4.

No time like the present

The personal endings shown in Table 2-8 show how the present tense is formed for each conjugation.

Latin present tense generally has the same meaning as the English present tense. For example, **amant** can mean “they love,” “they do love,” or “they are loving.” This is one instance in which English is more obvious in its meaning than Latin. Consider the following sentence:

Cantas, sed laboro.

TABLE 2-9

Present-Tense Verb Forms

1st Conjugation	Singular	Plural
	amo	amamus
	amas	amatis
	amat	amant
2nd Conjugation	Singular	Plural
	tengo	tenemus
	tenes	tenetis
	tenet	tenent
3rd Conjugation	Singular	Plural
	pono	ponimus
	ponis	ponitis
	ponit	ponunt
4th Conjugation	Singular	Plural
	audio	audimus
	audis	auditis
	audit	audiunt
3rd-io Conjugation	Singular	Plural
	capio	capimus
	capis	capitis
	capit	capiunt

Here are some possible translations:

You are singing, but I am working.

You sing, but I work.

You do sing, but I work.

You sing, but I do work.

Clearly, each of these renderings has a different connotation, yet each is a grammatically correct translation. To determine the best rendering for a Latin present-tense phrase or sentence, you need to use other context clues in the surrounding text.

Verbs don't worry if they're imperfect

No, you didn't buy a defective book, nor have you come to the part of the book that we just couldn't get right. The imperfect tense refers to past action that a) was continued for a period of time, b) was never completed, or c) was still happening at the time of the main verb in the sentence. A simple English sentence can help this concept make sense:

The bell was ringing when the teacher called my name.

This sentence describes two past actions, the ringing of a bell and the calling of a person's name. The name calling happened only once, but the bell rang for some length of time. There is no indication in this particular sentence that the bell stopped ringing, and the writer could hear the sound of the bell ringing when the main action, the teacher calling the writer's name, took place.

As with the present tense (which you can read about in the preceding section), the same basic personal endings from Table 2-9 help form the imperfect tense. They unite with the letters **ba** to form this instantly recognizable tense.

Table 2-10 shows examples from only 1st and 2nd conjugations.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

The imperfect tense uses the **-m** suffix for 1st-person singular, rather than the **-o** ending used in the present tense. An easy way to remember the forms of the imperfect tense is to ask yourself the following question: How does a sheep go? Answer: baaaa. How does the imperfect sheep go? Answer: **-ba!**

You can render the imperfect tense into English in a number of ways. Some of the more common ways are with the words *was*, *were*, *used to*, and *kept on*. Sometimes the simple English past is the only translation that sounds correct. See the following examples to start putting it all together:

Dicebas et audiebamus, sed nunc dicimus et discedis.

You were speaking and we were listening, but now we are speaking and you are leaving.

... et vario noctem sermone trahebat infelix Dido longumque bibebat amorem. (Vergil, *Aeneid*, Book I, lines 748–749)

... unlucky Dido was dragging out the night in varied conversation and continually drank long draughts of love.

Telling the future

Simply put, the future tense describes action that has not yet happened but will happen sometime in the future.

TABLE 2-10

Imperfect-Tense Verb Forms

1st Conjugation	Singular	Plural
	amab <u>a</u> m	amab <u>a</u> mus
	amab <u>a</u> s	amab <u>a</u> tis
	amab <u>a</u> t	amab <u>a</u> nt
2nd Conjugation	Singular	Plural
	teneb <u>a</u> m	teneb <u>a</u> mus
	teneb <u>a</u> s	teneb <u>a</u> tis
	teneb <u>a</u> t	teneb <u>a</u> nt
3rd Conjugation	Singular	Plural
	poneb <u>a</u> m	poneb <u>a</u> mus
	poneb <u>a</u> s	poneb <u>a</u> tis
	poneb <u>a</u> t	poneb <u>a</u> nt
4th Conjugation	Singular	Plural
	audieb <u>a</u> m	audieb <u>a</u> mus
	audieb <u>a</u> s	audieb <u>a</u> tis
	audieb <u>a</u> t	audieb <u>a</u> nt
3rd-io Conjugation	Singular	Plural
	capieb <u>a</u> m	capieb <u>a</u> mus
	capieb <u>a</u> s	capieb <u>a</u> tis
	capieb <u>a</u> t	capieb <u>a</u> nt

For 1st- and 2nd-conjugation verbs, the future tense is similar to the imperfect. Like the imperfect tense, the future tense uses the personal endings listed in Table 2-8, but in combination with the letters **b**, **bi**, or **bu**. See Table 2-11.

3rd-, 3rd-io-, and 4th-conjugation verbs work a little differently than the 1st and 2nd conjugations. The future tense for these conjugations uses the vowels **a** and **e**, as shown in Table 2-12.

TABLE 2-11

Future-Tense Verb Forms: 1st and 2nd Conjugations

1st Conjugation	Singular	Plural
	amabo	amabimus
	amabis	amabitis
	amabit	amabunt
<i>2nd Conjugation</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
	tenebo	tenebimus
	tenebis	tenebitis
	tenebit	tenebunt

TABLE 2-12

Future-Tense Verb Forms: 3rd, 3rd-io, and 4th Conjugations

3rd Conjugation	Singular	Plural
	ponam	ponemus
	pones	ponetis
	ponet	ponent
<i>4th Conjugation</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
	audiam	audiemus
	audies	audietis
	audiet	audient
<i>3rd-io Conjugation</i>	<i>Singular</i>	<i>Plural</i>
	capiam	capiemus
	capies	capietis
	capiet	capient



TIP

Here's another little Latin student rhyme that can help you remember the future tense (and you thought great Latin poetry died with Vergil!):

bo, bi, bu for one and two (as in 1st and 2nd conjugations)

a and **e** for four and three (as in the 3rd, 4th, and 3rd-io conjugations)



REMEMBER

When dealing with the future tense, you definitely need to know how to recognize different verb conjugations. Remember that you can always determine a verb's conjugation from its infinitive — the 2nd principal part of the verb.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

In this chapter, one Latin suffix appears twice with two completely different meanings. The ending **-am** can indicate an accusative-case noun in the 1st declension, or it can signal a 1st-person-singular-future-tense verb from the 3rd, 4th, or 3rd-io conjugations. The following sentence illustrates this peculiarity:

Puellam audiam.

I will hear the girl.

Of course, most nouns and verbs are easy to distinguish from each other because of their meanings. When in doubt, check your Latin dictionary.

Talkin' the Talk



Catullus and his friend Fabullus discuss their dinner plans. (Watch for different verb tenses in this dialogue.)

Catullus: Fabulle, ad cenam apud me advenies?

Fabullus, will you come to my house for dinner?

Fabullus: Apud Horatium cenare in animo habebam.

I was planning to dine with Horatius.

Catullus: Sed coqui mei cibum optimum parabunt.

But my cooks will prepare the best food.

Fabullus: Adveniam, et vinum feram.

I will come, and I will bring the wine.

Catullus: Bene! Cibum quoque feres?

Good! Will you bring the food, too?

Fabullus: Cur? Me invitabas?!

Why? You were inviting me!

Catullus: Sed coqui non parant quod non habeo.

But the cooks do not prepare what I do not have.

WORDS TO KNOW

amo, amare, amavi, amatus	to love
audio, audire, audivi, auditus	to hear
canto, cantare, cantavi, cantatus	to sing
capio, capere, cepi, captus	to take
dico, dicere, dixi, dictus	to speak, say
habeo, habere, habui, habitus	to have
invenio, invenire, inveni, inventus	to find
oro, orare, oravi, oratus	to pray
paro, parare, paravi, paratus	to prepare
pono, ponere, posui, positus	to put
teneo, tenere, tenui, tentus	to hold
traho, trahere, traxi, tractus	to drag

Making Connections through Conjunctions

Conjunctions join things together. But unlike the word *conjunction* itself, which has an easily recognized Latin root — **coniungere** (*to join together*) — actual Latin conjunctions have no recognizable English derivatives. These little words are important, but they just have to be memorized. Sorry, no rhymes for these! Some of the conjunctions that you’re most likely to encounter are

» **et, atque, -que** (*and*)

The suffix **-que** is used on the second of the two words being joined, as shown in the following sentence:

- **Cornelia et Flavia aquam harenamque amat.**
- *Cornelia and Flavia love the water and sand.*

» **etiam, quoque** (*also*)

- . . . **multa quoque et bello passus dum conderet urbem** (Vergil, *Aeneid*, Book I, line 5)
- . . . *and having endured many things also in war until he could establish his city*

» **aut** (*or*)

When this word appears twice, it often means *either . . . or*:

- **Aut viam inveniam aut faciam.**
- *I shall either find a way or make one.*

» **sed, autem, verum** (*but*)

- **Sed non videmus manticae quod in tergo est.** (Catullus, "Carmina," XXII, line 21.)
- *But we do not see the burden which is on our own back.*

» **tamen** (*however*)

- **Discipuli tamen multa de Romanis discunt.**
- *The students, however, are learning many things about the Romans.*

» **nam, enim** (*for*)

- **Nam illa nimis antiqua praetereo.** (Cicero, *In Catilinam I*)
- *For I pass over those things that are too old.*

» **ergo, igitur, itaque** (*therefore*)

- **Cogito ergo sum.**
- *I think, therefore I am.*

FUN & GAMES

Draw a line to match the Latin noun with the proper case.

- | | | |
|---|----------|---------------------------|
| 1 | saxa | possession, plural |
| 2 | regina | indirect object, singular |
| 3 | amicorum | direct object plural |
| 4 | servo | subject singular |

Which of the English words marked *a* through *f* would you use to translate each of the Latin verbs listed?

- | | | | |
|---|-----------|-------------|---------------------|
| 5 | audimus | a. s/he is | d. they were |
| 6 | habebant | b. they are | e. you (pl.) were |
| 7 | parabitis | c. s/he was | f. you (sing.) were |
| 8 | capies | | |

See if you can figure out what these sentences mean. (**Note:** All the words appear in some form in this chapter.)

- 10** **Agricolae saxa inveniunt.**
11 **Servi et puellae reginam audiebant.**
12 **In triclinio cibum paramus.**

See Appendix C for the answers.

- » Greeting and addressing people
- » Using the Latin verb *esse* (to be)
- » Asking basic questions.
- » Counting from one to one hundred

Chapter 3

Salve! (Hello!): Greetings and Introductions

Every language has phrases that you use to greet someone, start a conversation, acknowledge someone's presence, and so on. Some greetings are more formal, some less formal. What greeting you use depends on the situation you're in. In American English, "How do you do?" is appropriate for some situations; "Whassup?" or "Hi!" is appropriate for others. The same is true for Latin. Although greeting the emperor may require that you simply stand in your toga and snap a salute, you need to know a bit more for day-to-day interactions. From gladiators in the arena to citizens on the street, ancient Romans greeted each other in different ways.

So, what do you do after the introductions? You talk about anything you want: politics, philosophy, your nosy neighbor, the fresh fish in the market, or whatever. If you're new to the language, however, you may want to stick with the basics: being able to identify yourself, tell where you come from, and ask a few questions. To that end, this chapter explores some of the more common salutations, farewells, and ways to carry on simple conversations in the ancient Eternal City.

Hello, Goodbye: Roman Salutations and Farewells

The ancient Romans considered anyone who didn't speak their language a **barbarus** (*barbarian*), that is, someone who needed to learn Latin as soon as possible. The Romans (and Ancient Greeks) referred to anyone speaking another language other than Latin or Greek as speaking “bar, bar, bar, bar,” therefore a barbarian. One of the quickest ways to reveal yourself as a **barbarus** was to flub the Roman greetings. Fortunately, they're not hard to remember:

- » **Salve** (*be well*): A phrase the Romans used it to greet someone or to take leave of them.
- » **Salvete** (*be well*): You use this form when you're speaking to two or more people at the same time.
- » **Civis** (*citizen*): When you address a fellow Roman citizen whose name you don't know, you can use this word, calling him a citizen. Using **civis** is similar to addressing an American as “guy” or “buddy.”
- » **Nos morituri te salutamus** (*We who are about to die salute you*): Don't use this greeting unless you're a gladiator about to fight and aware of your own mortality. Address it to the emperor or the sponsor of the games.

The Roman goodbyes are similar to the hellos in that the form you use depends on how many people you're addressing:

- » **Vale** (*be well*): Like **salve**, **vale** means, “Be well,” but you use it only when you're parting company with someone. The **valedictorian** is the person, usually with the highest GPA, who delivers the farewell speech at a commencement or graduation ceremony.
- » **Valete** (*be well*): Like **salvete**, you use this form only when you're speaking to several people.
- » **Pax tecum** (*peace be with you*): Said to one person.
- » **Pax vobiscum** (*peace be with you*): Use this phrase to wish peace to several people.

The boys 'n the 'hood: Addressing males

Freeborn–male citizens typically had three names:

- » **Praenomen:** First name
- » **Nomen:** Family name
- » **Cognomen:** An extra name that denotes such things as a distinguishing physical feature (the name **Rufus**, for example, means *red-haired*), place of origin, or occupation.

AND YOU THOUGHT AUSTIN WAS A POPULAR NAME

Praenomina (*first names*) for males were relatively few in number and usually abbreviated to a letter or two. Some of the more common names were

- M. (Marcus)
- T. (Titus)
- P. (Publius)
- Q. (Quintus)
- C. (Gaius; the older form was Caius)
- Cn. (Gnaeus; the older form was Cnaeus)

Take Julius Caesar, for example. His full name was Gaius Julius Caesar. His wife may have called him by his **praenomen**, Gaius, and his friends would have called him either by his **praenomen** or his **nomen**, Julius. Only in formal situations would people have addressed him with all three names, including his **cognomen**, Caesar — which means *hairy*, by the way, which is so ironic since Julius Caesar was balding.

In the ancient world, slave names showed who owned them, as well as something about their background. Slaves usually took the **praenomen** and **nomen** of their master and kept their original name or a title of origin as a **cognomen**. Publius Terentius Afer, a slave from Africa, became a famous Roman playwright (known to the modern world as Terence) whose works were admired and imitated by the likes of Montaigne and Moliere. He was adopted by Terentius Lucullus, a Roman senator.

When addressing a male with a name or title ending in **-us**, you need to use a special form of the name called the *vocative case*. Related to the verb **vocare** (*to call*), the vocative case indicates whom you're addressing:

- » If the name ends in **-us**, use **-e** for the singular and **-i** for plural.
- » If the name ends in **-ius**, use **-i** for both singular and plural.

Say, for example, that you're addressing Marcus. Following this rule, you'd call him **Marce**. If you're addressing Antonius, you'd call him **Antoni**. If you're addressing an **amicus** (*friend*), you'd use **amice**. When you're talking to more than one friend, you'd say **amici**. When addressing a single **filius** (*son*), it would be **fili**, but when addressing more than one son, you use **fili**.

Olivia, where are you?: Addressing females

Women didn't have to worry about as many names as men did. Instead, they took on a feminine form of their father's **nomen** (*first name*). Caesar's wife **Calpurnia**, for example, was named after her father, **Calpurnius**; Cicero's daughter was **Tullia** (the feminine form of **Tullius**, Cicero's **nomen**).

After the first daughter (who got the father's name), the girls that came later often had names that indicated their place in the family, such as **Secunda** (*second*), **Tertia** (*third*), and so on.

This naming convention made addressing women a fairly simple matter. To address a woman more formally, you simply noted whose daughter she was. If some confusion resulted about which Tullia you meant, you just repeated that you were asking for **Tullia Marci filia**, or *Tullia, daughter of Marcus*.

Do It – Now!!!!

When telling someone to do something, the verb form that is used is called the *imperative*, one of the three moods in Latin. (The other two are the indicative and the subjunctive.) You use the imperative form to convey direct commands. This verb form is often used with the vocative case (see the section "The boys 'n the 'hood: Addressing males," earlier in this chapter). The subject of imperative commands is an implied "you," either singular or plural.

Marce, huc veni! (*Marcus, come here!*)

Milites, huc venite! (*Soldiers, come here!*)

To form the imperative singular of most verbs, all you have to do is to take the present infinitive (also known as the 2nd principal part) and chop off the **-re** ending. Table 3-1 gives some examples.

TABLE 3-1

Forming Singular Imperatives.”

Conjugation	Verb	Imperative singular	English
1st	amo, amare (to love)	ama/re: ama!	<i>love!</i>
2nd	teneo, tenere (to hold)	tene/re: tene!	<i>hold!</i>
3rd	mitto, mittere (to send)	mitte/re: mitte!	<i>send!</i>
4th	audio, audire (to hear)	audi/re: audi!	<i>hear!</i>
3rd-io	capio, capere (to catch)	cape/re: cape!	<i>catch!</i>

Latin, like many other languages, has numerous exceptions to rules. It also has exceptions when it comes to the imperative singular. The following list gives you several of these exceptions:

» **sum, esse** (to be): To form the imperative singular, take the present infinitive and chop off the **-se** ending: **esse** becomes **es!** (*be!*).

So, telling Marcus to (finally) be happy would be

Marce, es laetus! (*Marcus, be happy!*)

(Note that **esse** takes the nominative case.)

» **fero, ferre** (to bring, carry): To form the imperative singular, take the present infinitive and chop off the **-re** ending: **ferre** becomes **fer!** (*bring!*).

So, you would tell your son to fetch the dog by saying

Fili, fer canem! (*Son, bring the dog!*)

To form the imperative singular of the following three verbs, take the present infinitive (the 2nd principal part) and chop off the **-ere** ending:

» **dico, dicere** (to speak, say): **dicere** becomes **dic!** (*speak!*).

So, if you want to tell that lying so-and-so Gaius to finally be honest, you'd say

Gai, dic verum! (*Gaius, speak the truth!*)

» **duco, ducere** (to lead): **ducere** becomes **duc!** (lead!).

So, you would tell your favorite centurion to command his troops by saying

Centurio, duc milites! (Centurion, lead the soldiers!)

» **facio, facere** (to do): **facere** becomes **fac!** (do!).

So, if you have to tell Victoria to do something (maintain the Vestal sacred fire, for example), you'd say

Victoria, fac id! (Victoria, do it!)

Fortunately, the imperative plural is much easier! To form the imperative plural, simply take the 3rd-person singular of the verb in the present indicative tense and add an **-e** to it. (You don't even have to worry about the exceptions mentioned earlier in this section for imperative singular.) Table 3-2 gives some examples.

TABLE 3-2

Forming Plural Imperatives

Verb	3rd-person singular, present indicative active form	Imperative Plural
amo, amare (to love)	amat (s/he loves)	amate! (love!)
teneo, tenere (to hold)	tenet (s/he holds)	tenete! (hold!)
mitto, mittere (to send)	mittit (s/he sends)	mittite! (send!)
audio, audire (to hear)	audit (s/he hears)	audite! (hear!)
capio, capere (to catch)	capit (s/he catches)	capite! (catch!)
sum, esse (to be)	est (s/he is)	este! (be!)
fero, ferre (to bring)	fert (s/he brings)	ferte! (bring!)
dico, dicere (to speak)	dicit (s/he speaks)	dicite! (speak!)
duco, ducere (to lead)	ducit (s/he leads)	ducite! (lead!)
facio, facere (to do, make)	facit (s/he does)	facite! (make!)

The imperatives of the irregular verb **eo, ire, ivi/ii, itus** (to go) are **i!** (singular) and **ite!** (plural). So the shortest sentence in Latin would be when you order another person to go: “**I!**”

When you want to order someone *not* to do something, simply use **noli** for the singular and **nolite** for the plural, followed by a present infinitive (the 2nd principal part):

» **Puer, noli dormire!**

Boy, don't sleep!

» **Puellae, nolite in fluvio natare!**

Girls, don't swim in the river!

Being There: Esse (To Be)

You may bluff your way into a senator's house with a well-placed “**Salve!**” (“*Hello!*”), but that won't get you far beyond the **ianitor** (*doorkeeper*). To keep from being labeled a **barbarus** (*barbarian*), you need to say a little about yourself, and this requires using the verb **esse** (*to be*).

Like the English verb “to be,” **esse** is an *irregular verb*, which means that **esse** doesn't follow the tense pattern that most Latin verbs follow. (See Chapter 2 for more about Latin's regular verbs.) Therefore, the best way to remember the conjugation of **esse** is to memorize its basic forms.

This table shows the present tense of the verb **esse**:

Singular	Plural
sum	sumus
es	estis
est	sunt

Here's the imperfect tense of **esse**:

Singular	Plural
eram	eramus
eras	eratis
erat	erant

Finally, here's the future tense of **esse**:

Singular	Plural
ero	erimus
eris	eritis
erit	erunt



Latin has three distinct past-tense forms. The imperfect tense shows ongoing action in the past and is distinct from the perfect tense, which shows completed action and is more akin to the simple past tense used in English. Think of the imperfect tense as a video recording and the perfect tense as a still photograph. Both indicate past action, and although the perfect tense indicates an instant in the past, the imperfect tense indicates an extended action in the past. Then there is the pluperfect, which shows completed action before another past action. It is best translated “had.”

Chapter 4 introduces the past tenses perfect and pluperfect.

Here are a few examples to help you put it all together:

» **Est in Africa Hipponensis colonia mari próxima.**

There is in Africa the colony of Hippo very close to the sea. (Pliny the Younger, Epistulae IX.33)

» **Tantae molis erat Romanam condere gentem.**

It was such a great task to found the Roman race. (Vergil, Aeneid, Book I, line 33)

» **Utque est nomen erit.**

As the name is, it will be. (Vergil, Aeneid, Book XII, line 835)

If you know **esse** and its various forms and you understand place names (which we talk about in the following section), you can communicate who you are and where you're from.

Saying Where You're From

The Roman Empire was a multicultural society, as Table 3-3 shows. It spanned millions of square miles, going through Europe (including the British Isles), across Asia, and deep into Africa. At its peak, it claimed a population of more than 50 million people.

TABLE 3-3

A Few Cities and Countries in the Roman Empire

Location in the Roman Empire	Modern Name
Aegyptus	Egypt
Britannia	Britain
Carthago	Carthage
Corinthus	Corinth
Gades	Cadiz
Germania	Germany
Graecia	Greece
Massilia	Marseille
Patavium	Padua
Roma	Rome

To indicate nationality, you can say, “**Sum a Britannia**,” which means “*I am from Britain.*” Or you might say, “**Sum Massilia**,” to convey, “*I am from Marseille.*” You can also turn these place names into adjectives (saying, “**Sum Romanus**” to let people know “*I am Roman*,” for example), as the following section discusses.

Identifying Yourself

Perhaps the Emperor Augustus can tell from the way you wear your toga that you’re not a native of Rome. Naturally, he wants to know if you’re a friend or a foe, so he asks where you call home. If you know the verb of being (**esse**; *to be*) and you know your birthplace (refer to the preceding section), then you can communicate exactly who you are.

Actually, describing yourself involves your gender. You can read about grammatical gender in Chapter 2, but here we’re talking about biology. If you go to the bathroom marked **VIRI** (*MEN*), then you need to use an adjective ending in **-us** or **-i** to indicate the male gender. If you use the one labeled **FEMINAE** (*WOMEN*), you need adjectives that end in **-a** or **-ae** to indicate female gender.



REMEMBER

In English, when you say, “I am Roman,” you’re not specifying gender; you’re merely specifying nationality. In Latin, however, Roman men and women indicated their gender in the adjectives they used to describe themselves. Using certain suffixes in the adjective itself indicates gender. (See Table 3-4.)

TABLE 3-4

Showing Gender in Adjectives

Gender	Number	Ending	Examples
Masculine	Singular	-us	Romanus (<i>Roman</i>), Graecus (<i>Greek</i>), Aegyptus (<i>Egyptian</i>)
Masculine	Plural	-i	Romani (<i>Roman</i>), Graeci (<i>Greek</i>), Aegypti (<i>Egyptian</i>)
Feminine	Singular	-a	Romana (<i>Roman</i>), Graeca (<i>Greek</i>), Aegypta (<i>Egyptian</i>)
Feminine	Plural	-ae	Romanae (<i>Roman</i>), Graecae (<i>Greek</i>), Aegyptae (<i>Egyptian</i>)

Here are a few examples:

- » A Roman man would say, "**Sum Romanus**," which means, "*I am Roman.*" A Roman woman, however, would say, "**Sum Romana**" to convey the same idea.
- » A group of men from Greece would say, "**Sumus Graeci**," meaning, "*We are Greek.*" Their wives or daughters would say, "**Sumus Graecae.**"
- » If you want to identify your sister-in-law as Egyptian, you say, "**Est Aegypta**," meaning "*She is Egyptian.*" To identify your brother's male friends as German, you say, "**Sunt Germani.**" ("*They are German.*")



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

With few exceptions, cities and countries are grammatically feminine. Entire groups of people are grammatically masculine. Ninety-nine Roman women and one Roman man would still be called **Romani**, the masculine form, not **Romana**, the feminine form.

Talkin' the Talk



Marcus is a young man visiting Rome for the first time from one of the provinces. Julia is the daughter of a Roman senator.

Marcus: **Salve!**

Hello!

Julia: **Salve! Esne civis?**

Hello! Are you a citizen?

Marcus: **Sum civis.**

I am a citizen.

Julia: **Num es Romanus? Ubi habitas?**
You are not Roman, are you? Where do you live?

Marcus: **Habito in Gallia. Cur?**
I live in France. Why?

Julia: **Es puer Gallus, sum puella Romana. Vale!**
You are a French boy, I am Roman girl. Goodbye!

Marcus: **Vale.**
Goodbye.

.....

Asking Questions

In Latin, you can indicate that you’re asking a question in a couple of ways:

- » Use an actual interrogative word, such as **cur** (*why*) or **quo** (*where*).
- » Attach the suffix **-ne** to the first word of a sentence.

So if you’re curious, you like asking the question “Why?” a lot!

Using **-ne**

Asking a question can be as simple as attaching the suffix **-ne** to the first word of the sentence. Because the Romans didn’t use marks of punctuation, this suffix is a clue that says, “Make your voice go up at the end because this is going to be a question.”

A basic question might be

Esne civis? (*Are you a citizen?*)

In this question, the suffix **-ne** is attached to the “be” verb **es** (*you are*). Refer to the section “Being There: Esse (To Be),” earlier in this chapter, for the conjugation of Latin verb **esse** (*to be*).

Here's a possible answer:

Non sum, sed ero. (*I am not, but I shall be.*)

Common question words

Here are some of the most commonly used interrogative words:

- » **Ubi** (*where?* or *when?*): Use **ubi** to ask the location of a person or thing or to ask when something happened. Context usually helps you figure out which meaning is being used.
 - **Ubi es et ubi eris in Graecia?**
 - *Where are you and when will you be in Greece?*
- » **Quo?** (*where?*): Use **quo** to ask where someone is going.
 - **Quo vadis?**
 - *Where are you going?*
 - The Bible has it that St. Peter said this to Jesus when he saw Jesus in a vision (John 13:36), and this expression became the title of a popular novel and movie.
- » **Cur?** (*why?*): Use **cur** to ask the reason for an action.
 - **Cur eras in Gallia?**
 - *Why were you in France?*
- » **Quomodo?** (*how?*): Use **quomodo** to ask in what manner something is done.
 - **Quomodo aquam portabis?**
 - *How will you carry the water?*
- » **Quid?** (*what?*): Use **quid** when asking about a thing.
 - **Quid est?**
 - *What is it?*
- » **Quis?** (*who?*): Use **quis** when asking about a person.
 - **Quis est?**
 - *Who is it?*



Keep in mind the two words that tell what kind of answer a person expects to receive. **Num** expects the answer *no*, and **nonne** expects the answer *yes*. A disbelieving citizen might ask

» **Num Hannibal non est ad portas?**

Surely Hannibal is not at the gates, is he?

A more hopeful question is

» **Nonne Scipio barbarum superabit?**

Scipio will defeat the foreigner, won't he?

WORDS TO KNOW

civis, civis, m/f	citizen
puella, puellae, f	girl
puer, pueri, m	boy
habito, habitare, habitavi, habitatus	to live
salve	hello
vale	goodbye
saluto, salutare, salutavi, salutatus	to greet
vir, viri, m	man
femina, feminae, f	woman
ubi	where/when
cur	why

The Preposition Proposition

Using prepositions can show the relationship of one object to another. Unlike Latin nouns, Latin prepositions are not declined, so in this way, they're more like English. (See Chapter 2 for more information about declensions and noun cases.)

To express motion away from an object, general location, or accompaniment, use these prepositions with an ablative-case noun, which ends in **-a**, **-is**, or **-o**:

- » **ab** (*away from*)
- » **ex** (*out of*)
- » **de** (*down from*)
- » **in** (*in, on*)
- » **cum** (*with*)

See the following brief example:

Cum amico in silva ambulo.

I am walking with my friend in the forest.



Like the use of *a* or *an* before words beginning with consonants or vowels in English, Latin makes a similar distinction with prepositions. Use **a** and **e** before words beginning with consonants, but **ab** and **ex** before vowels.

If you want to express a spatial relationship or motion toward an object, use the following prepositions and a noun in the accusative case, which ends in **-am**, **-as**, **-um**, **-os**, or **-a**:

- » **in** (*into*)
- » **ad** (*to, toward*)
- » **circum** (*around*)
- » **supra** (*above*)

By putting all this preposition information together, you can understand a sentence like this:

Ex silva ad villam festinabo et cum amico in cameram ambulabo.

I will hurry out of the forest toward the house and will walk into the room with my friend.

City names work a little differently when it comes to prepositions. To express the place where something happened, the Romans used the locative case. This case is used with the names of towns, cities, small islands, and the words **domus** and **rus**.

To show that you are in a particular city, use the forms in Table 3-5.

TABLE 3-5

Forms of the Locative Case.

Declension	Singular	Plural
1st	<p>Roma, Romae (f) (<i>Rome</i>)</p> <p>Romae (<i>in Rome</i>)</p> <p>(The locative case in the 1st declension singular looks exactly like the genitive singular.)</p>	<p>Athenae, Athenarum (f, pl) (<i>Athens</i>)</p> <p>Athenis (<i>in Athens</i>)</p> <p>(The locative case in the 1st declension plural looks exactly like the dative plural.)</p>
2nd	<p>Thapsus, Thapsi (m) (<i>Thapsus</i>)</p> <p>Thapsi (<i>in Thapsus</i>)</p> <p>(The locative case in the 2nd declension singular looks exactly like the genitive singular.)</p>	<p>Puteoli, Puteolorum (m, pl) (<i>Puteoli</i>)</p> <p>Puteolis (<i>in Puteoli</i>)</p> <p>(The locative case in the 2nd declension plural looks exactly like the dative plural.)</p>
3rd	<p>Carthago, Carthaginis (f) (<i>Carthage</i>)</p> <p>Carthagine (<i>in Carthage</i>)</p> <p>The Locative case in the 3rd declension singular looks exactly like the ablative singular.)</p>	<p>Gades, Gadium (f, pl) (<i>Cadiz</i>)</p> <p>Gadibus (<i>in Cadiz</i>)</p> <p>(The Locative case in the 3rd declension plural looks exactly like the dative plural.)</p>

When expressing motion toward a particular city, use the accusative forms and don't use a preposition. When expressing motion away, use the ablative case, and again, no preposition. Consider this example:

Syracusis Brundisium navigabo, sed Romae habito.

I will sail from Syracuse to Brundisium, but I live in Rome.

Mater rure discedet et domum veniet.

Mother will depart from the countryside and come home.

Playing the Numbers

The ancient Romans were practical people, and although they left the more theoretical mathematics to the Greeks, they did use a numbering system that allowed them to keep track of everything from the slope of an aqueduct to the amount of taxes to be rendered unto Caesar. You can find the words they used to refer to numbers in many English derivatives used today. As for Roman numerals, you can't read the copyright of a movie or television show without knowing them.

Counting it down: Cardinal numbers

In Latin, the first three cardinal numbers (one, two, and three) have multiple forms. What form of the number you use depends on the gender of the noun that accompanies it. A masculine noun takes a masculine cardinal number; a feminine noun takes a feminine cardinal number. Table 3-6 shows the forms of the Roman numbers one through three.

TABLE 3-6

Cardinal Numbers One, Two, and Three

	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
One	unus	una	unum
Two	duo	duae	duo
Three	tres	tres	tria

The word for *thousand* also has multiple forms, which, unlike the preceding, have nothing to do with gender. Instead, these forms (singular and plural) indicate how many thousands you're talking about:

- » **Mille:** Indicates one thousand
- » **Milia:** Indicates more than a single thousand

All the other number words use just one form, as shown in Table 3-7. (If you're a Latin teacher — or trying to butter up a Latin teacher — you would say these numbers are *indeclinable*.)

TABLE 3-7

Cardinal Numbers Four through Ten

Latin Number	English Number
quattuor	four
quinque	five
sex	six
septem	seven
octo	eight
novem	nine
decem	ten

The teen numbers are mostly combinations with **-decim: undecim** (*eleven*), **duodecim** (*twelve*), **et cetera** (*and the rest*). Interestingly, the word for eighteen is **duodeviginti** (*two down from twenty*), and the word for nineteen is **undeviginti** (*one down from twenty*).

The remaining numbers up to one hundred use compounds with the suffix **-ginta**. *Thirty-six* would be **triginta sex**, for example; *forty-nine* would be **quadraginta novem**.

After **centum** (*one hundred*), the numbers use compounds with the suffix **-centi**. To express the year BCE in which Rome was built, for example, you say, **“Septingenti quinquaginta tres”** (*seven hundred fifty-three*).



CULTURAL
WISDOM

The old saying “Rome was not built in a day” is true. Originally a small village of thatched huts along the Tiber River in central Italy, Rome grew over hundreds of years to become the Eternal City. Tradition has it, however, that the founding date of Rome was April 21, 753 BCE.

Putting things in order: Ordinal numbers

The ordinal numbers are all adjectives (meaning you use them to describe nouns.) Table 3-8 lists the Latin ordinals and their declensions.

TABLE 3-8

Latin Ordinal Numbers

Ordinal	Masculine	Feminine	Neuter
First	primus	prima	primum
Second	secundus	secunda	secundum
Third	tertius	tertia	tertium
Fourth	quartus	quarta	quartum
Fifth	quintus	quinta	quintum
Sixth	sextus	sexta	sextum
Seventh	septimus	septima	septimum
Eighth	octavus	octava	octavum
Ninth	nonus	nona	nonum
Tenth	decimus	decima	decimum



REMEMBER

Many of the ordinal numbers (shown in Table 3-8) are similar to the cardinal numbers (shown in Tables 3-6 and 3-7), but an important difference exists: Whereas only the first three cardinal numbers have different forms for gender, **all** the ordinal numbers use different forms. So make sure that the gender of the ordinal number you use matches the gender of the noun it describes.

For most other ordinal numbers, use the suffix **-esimus**. For example, a famous murder happened in the **septingentesimus decimus** (*seven hundred tenth*) year after the founding of Rome. That was the year that Julius Caesar met his untimely death at the hands of his colleagues in the Roman Senate, more familiar to modern folks as the year 44 BCE. (So much for getting yourself named dictator for life; the assassins decided to shorten the term of office.)

The “I’s” have it: Roman numerals

Roman numerals are simply a combination of capitalized letters. After you know the letters and the basic rules for addition and subtraction, you’re ready to go. Check out these must-know numerals:

- » I: 1
- » V: 5
- » X: 10
- » L: 50
- » C: 100
- » D: 500
- » M: 1,000

When two numerals stand next to each other, subtract the smaller if it’s on the left, but add the smaller if it’s on the right. The first Roman emperor, Augustus, lived from LXIII BCE to XIV CE (that is, from 63 BCE to 14 BCE).

$$50 (L) + 10 (X) + 3 (III) = 63$$

$$10 (X) + 4 (IV) = 14$$

Talkin' the Talk



In this scene, Publius and his wife Pompeia are talking about the wine business.

Pompeia: Publi, quot amphoras vini e Foro portabas?

Publius, how many jars of wine were you carrying from the Forum?

Publius: Duas amphoras porto, Pompeia, sed tres portabam.

I am carrying two jars, Pompeia, but I was carrying three.

Pompeia: Ubi est amphora tertia?

Where is the third jar?

Publius: Est in stomacho!

It is in my stomach!

FUN & GAMES

Can you identify the modern names for the following ancient locations?

- 1 Londinium _____
- 2 Hispania _____
- 3 Gallia _____
- 4 Helvetia _____

Can you complete each sentence with the correct form of **esse**?

- 5 Romani ____ (*are*) in Italia.
- 6 Ubi ____ (*will you be?*)
- 7 Quot pueri et puella ____ (*were*) in Foro?
- 8 ____ (*I am*) Graecus, sed ____ (*you are*) Aegypti.

See Appendix C for the answers.

2

Latin in Action

IN THIS PART . . .

Talk about the (Roman) family

Discuss food favorites of the Romans

Work with irregular verbs and pronouns

Join the Roman Legion

Investigate the Latin classics

- » Introducing the family
- » Making sure your adjectives agree with your nouns
- » Traveling into the past and future with perfect verb tenses

Chapter 4

The Roman Family and Social Structure

From the modern world all the way back through history to antiquity, family relationships have had deep and abiding ties. When Julius Caesar was conquering the Gauls, he took special pleasure in defeating one tribe just because their people had killed his father-in-law's grandfather.

In fact, ancient family relationships were as complex as many today. Few people outside the upper class, business class, or military traveled very much, so most people remained in contact with a wide range of family members. A large vocabulary was needed to describe these varied relationships.

Keeping It All in the Family

Although the word **familia** (f), the Latin word for *family*, is a 1st-declension noun, many of the words for particular family members are from the 3rd declension. The following list gives you some things you need to know about the 3rd declension:

- » The 3rd declension contains nouns of all three genders: masculine, feminine, and neuter. (Head to Chapter 2 if you need a fast and easy explanation of grammatical gender.)

- » Masculine and feminine nouns of the 3rd declension use the same set of endings as shown in Table 4-1. (Again, if you need a quick explanation of what declensions are and how they work, Chapter 2's the place to go.)
- » The neuter nouns use different endings (refer to Table 4-1).

Here are a couple more things to know about the case endings for 3rd-declension nouns:

- » The nominative singular of 3rd-declension masculine and feminine nouns can have a variety of forms, including **-l**, **-n**, **-o**, **-r**, **-s**, and **-x**. (See Chapter 2 for an explanation of Latin noun cases.) Table 4-2 shows the complete declension of the masculine noun **dux** (*general*). Table 4-3 has the declension of the feminine noun **avis** (*bird*).
- » The neuter suffixes are much like the masculine/feminine endings, and the nominative singular has no set form.

To figure out the correct nominative singular form, you have to look the word up in a Latin dictionary. The nominative singular is the first form shown in the dictionary entry.

- » Here's one important difference between neuter and masculine/feminine endings: Whatever the nominative singular, neuter form turns out to be, the accusative singular form is the same. Table 4-4 shows the declension of the neuter word for time, which is **tempus, temporis** (n).



REMEMBER

TABLE 4-1

3rd-Declension Case Endings

Case	Masculine/ Feminine Singular	Masculine/ Feminine Plural	Neuter Singular	Neuter Plural
Nominative	*	-es	*	-a/-ia
Genitive	-is	-um	-is	-um/-ium
Dative	-i	-ibus	-i	-ibus
Accusative	-em	-es	*	-a/-ia
Ablative	-e	-ibus	-e/-i	-ibus
Vocative	*	-es	*	-a/-ia

TABLE 4-2

Declining *Dux (General)*, a 3rd-Declension Masculine Noun

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	dux	duces
Genitive	ducis	ducum
Dative	duci	ducibus
Accusative	ducem	duces
Ablative	duce	ducibus
Vocative	dux	duces

TABLE 4-3

Declining *Avis (Bird)*, a 3rd-Declension Feminine Noun

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	avis	aves
Genitive	avis	avium
Dative	avi	avibus
Accusative	avem	aves
Ablative	ave	avibus
Vocative	avis	aves

TABLE 4-4

Declining *Tempus (Time)*, a 3rd-Declension Neuter Noun

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	tempus	tempora
Genitive	temporis	temporum
Dative	tempori	temporibus
Accusative	tempus	tempora
Ablative	tempore	temporibus
Vocative	tempus	tempora

Familiarizing yourself with the familia

Several of the words used to identify family members just happen to be 3rd-declension nouns, such as

- » **pater, patris**, m (*father*)
- » **mater, matris**, f (*mother*)
- » **frater, fratris**, m (*brother*)
- » **soror, sororis**, f (*sister*)
- » **infans, infantis**, m/f (*baby*)
- » **nepos, nepotis**, m (*grandson*)
- » **neptis, neptis**, f (*granddaughter*)
- » **uxor, uxoris**, f (*wife*)
- » **coniunx, coniugis**, m (*husband*)

KEEP A LATIN DICTIONARY ON HAND

If you check its Latin dictionary entry, you can always determine the nominative singular form of a noun. The first form in the dictionary is the nominative singular. The second form is the genitive singular. The letter that follows the words indicates gender. The Latin dictionary entry for the noun for *father* looks like this:

pater, patris, m (*father*)

From this entry, you know that **pater** is the nominative singular form, **patris** is the genitive singular form, and the noun is masculine.

Another little trick: If you know the genitive singular case ending, you can also determine what declension the noun belongs to (information that you need to know if you want to decline nouns properly):

- 1st declension: **-ae**
- 2nd declension: **-i**
- 3rd declension: **-is**

Looking at the genitive singular of **pater** — **patris** — you can tell that it's a 3rd-declension noun. (Alternatively, of course, you can just memorize what nouns belong to what declension.)

Here are a couple more folks in the family (these aren't 3rd-declension nouns):

» **filia, filiae**, f (*daughter*)

» **filius, filii**, m (*son*)

Of course, a Roman family consists of more than just mom, dad, and a couple of kids. The following list gives you a few people outside of the nuclear family. (If you've read any Roman history, or watched *I, Claudius* or *Gladiator*, you know that non-nuclear families can be equally explosive.) Again, several of the words in this list aren't 3rd-declension nouns:

» **avia, aviae**, f (*grandmother*)

» **avus, avi**, m (*grandfather*)

» **amita, amitae**, f (*paternal aunt*)

» **patruus, patru**, m (*paternal uncle*)

» **matertera, materterae**, f (*maternal aunt*)

» **avunculus, avunculi**, m (*maternal uncle*)

» **patruelis, patruelis**, m (*paternal cousin*)

Talkin' the Talk



A father (**pater**) and mother (**mater**) are discussing their family.

Pater: Nepos noster uxorem cupit.

Our grandson wishes for a wife.

Mater: Pater filio puellam aptam inveniet.

His father will find his son a suitable girl.

Pater: Erat difficile fratri meo ubi coniugem filiae suae petebat.

It was difficult for my brother when he was seeking a husband for his daughter.

Mater: Sed fratris tui filia est non pulchra!

But your brother's daughter is not pretty!

Pater: Difficultas non erat in puellae pulchritudine.

The difficulty was not in the girl's beauty.

Mater: Erantne in urbe non viri?

Were there no men in the city?

Pater: Erant multi viri in urbe, sed in fratris sacco non multa pecunia.

There were many men in the city, but in my brother's money pouch, there was not much money.



WORDS TO KNOW

avia, aviae, f	grandmother
avus, avi, m	grandfather
filia, filiae, f	daughter
filius, fili, m	son
frater, fratris, m	brother
mater, matris, f	mother
pater, patris, m	father
soror, sororis, m	sister

DIAL C FOR MURDER

The verb **caedo, caedere, cecidi, caesus** means *to kill*, and from it, English derives many nouns with the suffix *-cide*. Another 3rd-declension noun is **homo, hominis** (m), meaning *man* or *human*. Combine these two words, and you get the technical term for murder, *homicide*. This is a rather general word, however, and other terms are derived from some of the family words in the preceding list to describe particular acts of murder. For example, *patricide* is killing one's father, and *fratricide* means to kill one's brother. As for *matricide*, every Latin student knows that's not harming your mattress, but rather killing your mother. Of course, the police aren't likely to arrest you for murdering your bed, anyway!

Gushy stuff: Love and marriage

The ancient Romans had many laws and customs concerning marriage, just as most cultures do today. For example, in ancient Rome, the bride's father gave a **dos** (f: *dowry*) to the groom — one of the more well-known customs. In the case of **repudium** (n: *divorce*), a husband often had to return the **dos**. Some other terms associated with ancient marriage practices include

- » **sponsalia** (n): The official engagement ceremony
- » **flammeum** (f): The bride's flame-colored veil
- » **ubi tu Gaius, ego Gaia**: An expression of the bride's submission to her husband. Using the names Gaius and Gaia like John Doe and Jane Doe, it literally means, *Where you, Gaius [are], I, Gaia [am]*.
- » **deductio** (f): Escorted procession to the groom's house
- » **epithalamium** (n): Wedding song sung outside the groom's house
- » **nova nupta**: Bride (literally, *new married woman*)
- » **novus maritus**: Groom (literally, *new husband*)



Juno was the Roman deity responsible for marriages. For this reason, June was the most popular month for Roman weddings. Hymen was the Greek god of marriage ceremonies and is invoked by Catullus in poem 62.

Throwing on Meaning with Adjectives

In both Latin and English, adjectives are those words that describe nouns. More literally, they throw more information at a noun. The word *adjective* is derived from the Latin **ad** (*toward*) + **ictus** (*thrown*), meaning *thrown toward*. Adjectives answer questions, such as which, what kind of, and how many.

Take the adjective *nice*. Now, we could wish each other a nice day, we could enjoy a nice movie, and afterward we could meet our nice friends in a nice restaurant. Sounds nice, doesn't it? No matter what word *nice* modifies, it never changes its spelling — in English, that is. Latin is different.

Because Latin is an inflected language, adjectives take on different forms to match the nouns they modify. In fact, adjectives must agree with nouns in three ways: gender, case, and number. For more information on gender and case, take a look at Chapter 2. As for the term *number*, don't worry, this isn't math class; this grammatical term relates to whether a word is singular or plural.

Understanding 1st- and 2nd-declension adjectives

Like nouns, adjectives are grouped into declensions. One class of adjectives is the 1st-and-2nd-declension type. The three forms that a dictionary shows for a Latin adjective represent the nominative singular form for the masculine, feminine, and neuter genders. A good example is the Latin word for *good*, which in a Latin dictionary looks like this:

bonus, bona, bonum (*good*)

Adjectives of this type have a masculine form, (**bonus**), a feminine form (**bona**), and a neuter form (**bonum**). Adjectives aren't necessarily gender fluid when it comes to grammar, but they do have to be flexible enough in their forms to modify any noun. For example, a *good daughter* in Latin is **filia bona**, and a *good son* is **filius bonus**.



REMEMBER

If you know that the gender, case, and number of adjectives and nouns must match each other, then you can figure out what would otherwise be some complicated sentences. Take a look at the following:

Discipulos malos poeta timet.

So, does this sentence mean *The poet fears the bad students* or *The bad poet fears the students*? To find out, you have to determine which noun — **discipulos** (*students*) or **poeta** (*poet*) — the adjective **malos** (*bad*) is describing.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

BONA DEA, MAMA MIA!

During the time of the Roman Republic (509–27 BCE), the wife of the chief magistrate always hosted an all-female festival in honor of the **Bona Dea**, the *Good Goddess*. In 62 BCE, this honor fell to Pompeia, the wife of Julius Caesar. A well-known man-about-town named Clodius, however, was apparently having an affair with one of the female guests. To be with her, Clodius dressed as a woman and crashed the party. The orator Cicero found out about it (one wonders how) and blabbed to everyone. Just in case his wife happened to be the target of those affections, Caesar divorced Pompeia shortly after the festival.

You know that the poet is doing the action because the **-a** suffix is nominative singular, which makes *poet* (**poeta**) the subject. You also know that the *students* (**discipulos**) are receiving the action because the **-os** ending indicates accusative plural, making that noun the direct object. (Refer to Chapter 2 if this discussion of cases doesn't make sense to you.)

But what do you do with the adjective? **Malos** — a form of the word **malus, mala, malum**, meaning *bad* — sits right in the middle of the two nouns. Because Latin word order is less important for understanding meaning than in English, where the adjective is in the sentence doesn't tell you what noun it modifies. So you have to look at its gender, case, and number.

As it turns out, **malos** is in the masculine gender, the accusative case, and the plural number, just like **discipulos**. Therefore, the sentence reads in English, *The poet fears the bad students*.

Now, you may be thinking to yourself, “Hallelujah! I just have to look for endings that look the same to figure out which word an adjective modifies.” (**Malos** and **discipulos** both end in **-os**, after all.) Wrong. The words don't have to look the same; they have to have the same gender, case, and number. Sometimes they look the same; sometimes they don't. Take a look at the following example:

Puella matrem bonam amat.

The girl loves the good mother.

How do you know **bonam** modifies **matrem** (*mother*) and not **puella** (*girl*)? Although **bonam** and **matrem** don't look alike, they share the same gender, case, and number. The adjective **bonam** is the feminine accusative singular of the adjective **bonus, bona, bonum** (*good*). **Matrem** is the feminine accusative singular of the 3rd-declension noun **mater, matris, f** (*mother*).

While you try to figure out adjectives, keep in mind which gender uses which declension endings:

» **Masculine and neuter:** 2nd declension

» **Feminine:** 1st declension

To see 1st- and 2nd-declension endings, head to Chapter 2.



REMEMBER

Adjectives don't have to look like the nouns they modify. Clearly **matrem** and **bonam** have two different suffixes. What counts in this case is that both words are feminine accusative singular. Beauty is in the eye of the beholder, the old saying goes; and in the eyes of Latin grammar, these two words match up beautifully.



To understand Latin, you don't have to place as much significance on word order as you do for English. However, Latin does tend to fall into certain patterns. For example, nouns tend to precede the adjectives that modify them.

Look over this helpful list of 1st- and 2nd-declension adjectives to get yourself started:

- » **bonus, bona, bonum** (*good*)
- » **gratus, grata, gratum** (*pleasing*)
- » **longus, longa, longum** (*long*)
- » **magnus, magna, magnum** (*large*)
- » **malus, mala, malum** (*bad*)
- » **multus, multa, multum** (*much, many*)
- » **novus, nova, novum** (*new*)
- » **parvus, parva, parvum** (*small*)
- » **pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum** (*beautiful, handsome*)

Using 3rd-declension adjectives

In the same way that you can always recognize 1st- and 2nd-declension adjectives by Latin dictionary forms that end in **-us**, **-a** and **-um** (discussed in the preceding section), you can spot 3rd-declension adjectives by a Latin dictionary form ending in **-is**. Keep in mind, though, that the **-is** ending doesn't always appear on the form you might expect. As long as the ending appears on some form of the word, though, you've got yourself a 3rd-declension adjective. Take a gander at these examples:

- » **acer, acris, acre** (*sharp*): Adjectives such as **acer** have three nominative singular forms — masculine, feminine, and neuter — just as 1st- and 2nd-declension adjectives do. Notice that the telltale **-is** suffix is on the feminine form.
- » **fortis, forte** (*brave*): Adjectives such as **fortis** have only two forms because the nominative singular masculine and feminine forms are exactly the same, so most Latin dictionaries list them as just one form. Here the **-is** ending is on the first — masculine/feminine — form. The second word is the nominative-singular-neuter form.
- » **atrox, atrocis** (*fierce*): Occasionally, adjectives have only two dictionary forms, with the **-is** suffix on the second word. When the **-is** is on the second of the

two dictionary entries, it means that the nominative-singular-masculine, nominative-singular-feminine, and nominative-singular-neuter forms are exactly the same. The second entry is actually the genitive singular for all genders.

The suffixes for 3rd-declension adjectives are similar to regular 3rd-declension noun endings (refer Table 4-1) with just a few exceptions. Table 4-5 shows all possible 3rd-declension adjective suffixes.

TABLE 4-5

3rd-Declension Adjective Endings

Case	Masculine/ Feminine Singular	Masculine/ Feminine Plural	Neuter Singular	Neuter Plural
Nominative	*	-es	-e	-ia
Genitive	-is	-ium	-is	-ium
Dative	-i	-ibus	-i	-ibus
Accusative	-em	-es	-e	-ia
Abblative	-i	-ibus	-i	-ibus



One 3rd-declension adjective is **familiaris, familiare**, which means *belonging to a family*. English gets the derivative *familiar* from this adjective, and in Roman times, it came to be associated with a family's household slaves or with close friends of a family.

Talkin' the Talk



In this scene, Titus and Quinta are talking about new additions to their families.

Quinta: **Familiam felicem habemus. Familia nostra infantes novos hodie accipiet.**

We have a happy family. Our family will welcome new babies today.

Titus: **Suntne filii aut filiae?**

Are they sons or daughters?

Quinta: **Patruus et amita mea filios geminos habebunt. Sunt patruelles parvi mei.**

My uncle and aunt on my father's side will have twins. They are my little cousins.

Titus: **Avus et avia mea quoque hominem parvum accipiet.**

My grandfather and grandmother will also welcome a little person.

Quinta: **Materteram novam habebis?**

Will you have a new aunt?

Titus: **Minime. Avunculus meus e bello venit.**

No. My uncle is coming from the war.

Quinta: **Avum ingentem habes, sed filius avi tui est parvulus. Est vere "avunculus."**

You have a big grandfather, but your grandfather's son is quite small. He is truly your "little grandfather."



WORDS TO KNOW

bonus, bona, bonum	good
gratus, grata, gratum	pleasing
magnus, magna, magnum	large
malus, mala, malum	bad
multus, multa, multum	much, many
novus, nova, novum	new
fortis, forte	brave
atrox, atrocis	fierce

Perfecting the Past and the Future

In Chapter 2, you can read about three basic verb tenses: the present, the future, and a past tense (the tense called the imperfect). The following sections show you the remaining three tenses in Latin: two more past tenses and another future called the future perfect. Another future? And it's perfect? You probably never thought grammar could sound so hopeful!

Attaining perfection: Perfect tense

In Latin, the imperfect tense (see Chapter 2) shows incomplete action in the past. The perfect tense, on the other hand, shows completed past action. The difference between imperfect and perfect tenses is like the difference between a videotape and photograph. They both show actions that happened in the past, but the video shows ongoing activity, whereas the photo is a complete picture of what happened.

The perfect-tense endings are the same for all Latin verbs, as you can see in Table 4-6.

TABLE 4-6

Perfect-Tense Personal Endings

Singular Ending	Meaning	Plural Ending	Meaning
-i	<i>I</i>	-imus	<i>we</i>
-isti	<i>you</i>	-istis	<i>you (plural)</i>
-it	<i>he, she, it</i>	-erunt	<i>they</i>

No matter what conjugation a verb belongs to (again, see Chapter 2 for details on verb conjugation), you go to the third form in the Latin dictionary entry to find the *stem* — that truncated part of the verb to which you add your verb endings — for perfect tense. Take the verb for *to take*, whose principal parts are

capio, capere, cepi, captus

IS THIS WHAT THE AFTERLIFE IS ALL ABOUT?

In 63 BCE, the chief Roman magistrate Cicero put five citizens to death for their involvement in a conspiracy to overthrow the government. After they were strangled in the Tullianum, a dismal, subterranean execution chamber, Cicero proclaimed to the waiting crowd, “**Vixerunt!**” The 3rd-conjugation verb **vivo, vivere, vixi, victus** means *to live*, so his pronouncement in the perfect tense let everyone know, *The conspirators have lived!* By stating that the action of their lives has been completed, Cicero was politely saying, “They’re dead!”

And speaking of the dead, the ancient Romans had interesting customs about honoring the dearly departed. One custom involved making a wax mask, an **imago** (f), of the deceased person. These masks were kept in the atrium of the house to remind you of your ancestors. The masks were then removed and carried in the funeral procession of the next family member to pass away, symbolizing the spirits of the ancestors who would welcome this new spirit to the underworld.

In the perfect tense, the conjugation of this word looks like this:

Singular	Plural
cepi (<i>I took, I have taken</i>)	cepimus (<i>we took, we have taken</i>)
cepisti (<i>you took, you have taken</i>)	cepistis (<i>you pl. took, you pl. have taken</i>)
cepit (<i>he/she/it took, he/she/it has taken</i>)	ceperunt (<i>they took, they have taken</i>)

You can render the Latin perfect tense into English in several ways. You can use the helping words *has* and *have* — I have taken, you have taken, it has taken, and so on — or you can use the simple English past tense — he took, they took, and so on. Notice in this following example how the imperfect tense differs from the perfect:

Aratrum trahebam ubi vocavisti.

I was dragging the plough when you called.

Going beyond perfect: Pluperfect tense

Imagine a scene that goes like this: After the general had shouted, the soldiers fought. Can you see the action in your mind? Good. You have a scene completely

set in the past, and you have two separate actions, shouting and fighting. Which happened first? The shouting, obviously, and that's what the pluperfect tense is all about — no, not the shouting part, but the happening-first part.



The name of this tense provides the clue to its meaning. The participle **perfectus** means completed, and since **plus** means more, the pluperfect tense is literally more than completed. It indicates an action that takes place more in the past than, or prior to, another past action.

Like the perfect tense, the pluperfect tense uses the same set of personal endings for all verbs, regardless of their conjugations. (See Table 4-7.)

TABLE 4-7

Pluperfect-Tense Personal Endings

Singular Ending	Meaning	Plural Ending	Meaning
-eram	<i>I</i>	-eramus	<i>we</i>
-eras	<i>you</i>	-eratis	<i>you</i>
-erat	<i>he, she, it</i>	-erant	<i>they</i>

Pluperfect forms use the third word in the Latin dictionary entry to form the stem. Consider the verb *to give*, whose principal parts are as follows:

do, dare, dedi, datus

Here's how you conjugate this word in the pluperfect tense:

Singular	Plural
dederam (<i>I had given</i>)	dederamus (<i>we had given</i>)
dederas (<i>you had given</i>)	dederatis (<i>you pl. had given</i>)
dederat (<i>he/she/it had given</i>)	dederant (<i>they had given</i>)

Use the helping word *had* to render the pluperfect tense into English (*I had given, you had given, they had given, and so on*). Watch the change of tenses carefully in this sentence:

Post Cicero Clodium domo Caesaris expulerat, Clodius Ciceronem ex urbe expulit.

After Cicero had driven Clodius from Caesar's house, Clodius drove Cicero from the city.

A CLASS ACTION

Clodius was angry at Cicero for telling everyone that Clodius had dressed as a woman to crash the party of Caesar's wife. (Can you blame him?) When Cicero later executed several conspirators, he failed to give them a trial first, and Clodius found his revenge. Clodius was a patrician (of the highest social class), but he changed his status to plebeian so that he could get elected as a tribune and pass a bill calling for Cicero's exile. (See Chapter 9 for more on Roman government.)

This was a significant act for Clodius because social class meant everything in those days. Roman citizens fell into one of two basic classes: the patricians, who could trace their ancestry to the **patres** (m; *fathers*), founders of Rome, and the plebeians. One subdivision of the plebeians was the equestrian class composed of wealthy business people. The equestrians were originally those rich enough to afford their own *horse* — **equus** (m) — when fighting in the army.

Finishing someday: Future perfect tense

The last tense to talk about in Latin is the future perfect. This tense describes action to be completed in the future. It's different from the simple future tense in that the future tense only makes a prediction about an action. Future perfect makes a statement about an action's fulfillment. For example, I can predict that you'll like this book. But I can be a bit more bold and say, "When you finish this book, you'll have learned plenty about Latin." (At least, that's what we hope will happen!)

One reason that the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect tenses are often presented together is that they all use the third dictionary word to form the stem. Take a look at the future perfect endings in Table 4-8.

TABLE 4-8

Future Perfect Tense Personal Endings

Singular Ending	Meaning	Plural Ending	Meaning
-ero	<i>I</i>	-erimus	<i>we</i>
-eris	<i>you</i>	-eritis	<i>you</i>
-erit	<i>he, she, it</i>	-erint	<i>they</i>

A sample verb in the future perfect tense is the verb meaning *to conquer*:

vinco, vincere, vici, victus

Here's how you conjugate this verb:

Singular	Plural
vicero (<i>I shall have conquered</i>)	vicerimus (<i>we shall have conquered</i>)
viceris (<i>you will have conquered</i>)	viceritis (<i>you pl. will have conquered</i>)
vicerit (<i>he/she/it will have conquered</i>)	vicerint (<i>they will have conquered</i>)

The helping words for future perfect in English are *will have*, as in *they will have conquered*.

Talkin' the Talk



A Roman **frater** (m; *brother*) and **soror** (f; *sister*) discuss an upcoming journey. Notice how verb tense changes in this conversation.

Frater: **Cupiebasne ad villam aviae iter longum facere?**

Were you wanting to make the long journey to grandmother's house?

Soror: **Illic proximo anno navigavi quod neptes omnes invitaverat.**

I sailed there last year because she had invited all her granddaughters.

Frater: **Habesne in animo redire?**

Are you planning to return? (Literally: Do you have it in mind to return?)

Soror: **Redibo ubi officia mea hic confecero.**

I will return when I will have completed my chores here.

WORDS TO KNOW

iter, itineris, n	journey
imago, imaginis, f	wax mask
omnis, omne	all
do, dare, dedi, datus	to give
facio, facere, feci, factus	to make
vinco, vincere, vici, victus	to conquer

FUN & GAMES

Play the dating game! Who is most likely to be married to each of the people listed?

1 avus

- a. filia b. avia c. matertera d. neptis

2 matertera

- a. avunculus b. frater c. pater d. nepos

3 pater

- a. neptis b. filia c. mater d. matertera

4 uxor

- a. patruelis b. pater c. patruus d. coniunx

See Appendix C for the answers.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- » Exploring typical Roman foods
- » Dining like a Roman
- » Handling irregular verbs
- » Figuring out whether you want to be or to eat
- » Going back to the future
- » Weighing your Roman housing options

Chapter 5

Food and Housing in Roman Life

People often associate Italy with the finer things in life, such as high fashion, cultural treasures, and of course, Latin! Another association people make with Italy is food. You can find some of the best food in the world in tiny villages and major metropolitan locations throughout the Italian peninsula. On the other hand, not all Italian food is gourmet. On a student tour of Rome, Pompeii, and Florence, the chaperoning adults, expecting to enjoy five-star quality food, were disappointed. Because it was a student tour, dinner often meant a pizza stand outside the Colosseum. Hey, you get what you pay for!

You would find a similar food situation in the ancient world. You could enjoy rare delicacies, such as turbot fit for an emperor, or seek the strongest fish sauce you could find to cover up the taste of bad meat. Perhaps you might enjoy the finest dinner, complete with a drinking party at the end, or grab a bite at a fast-food stand in the Forum. Then, as now, quite a variety of foods was available, along with different ways to eat.

Living to Eat and Eating to Live

The Roman grammarian Quintilian wrote:

Non ut edam vivo, sed ut vivam edo. (*Institutio Oratoria*, Book IX, Chapter 4, Section 85)

I do not live to eat, but I eat to live.

This is a great idea, but despite the Romans' expressed desire to keep things simple and frugal, luxury in food ended up right alongside the humble. In the following sections, you can find out all about food **ab ovo usque ad mala**, as the Romans used to say — *from the egg to the apples*.

Living by bread alone

Vergil, the great Latin poet, told of Rome's beginnings in his epic poem the *Aeneid*: Aeneas, the Trojan hero who had fled Troy in flames, and his soldiers relaxed around the cook fires and stretched out in the grass after dinner one night:

Implentur veteris Bacchi pinquisque ferinae. (*Aeneid*, Book I, Line 215)

They are filled with old wine and rich venison.

Sounds like a carnivore's dream, doesn't it? Don't let this picture mislead you. Expensive wine and rich meat didn't form the basis of the ancient Roman diet. In fact, the cornerstone of the Roman diet was grain. From fodder for animals, to porridge, to cakes and breads, the grain stalk was literally the staff of life for the ancient Romans. Some of the basic words associated with this most basic of foods are

- » **far, farris**, n (*wheat*)
- » **farina, farinae**, f (*ground wheat*)
- » **puls, pultis**, f (*wheat porridge*)
- » **hordeum, hordei**, n (*barley*)
- » **frumentum, frumenti**, n (*grain*)
- » **placenta, placenta**e, f (*cake*)
- » **panis, panis**, m (*bread*)
- » **mola, mola**e, f (*sacrificial grain*)



Although **mola** had only ritual uses, **puls** was fit for both humans and sacrificial chickens. And just to show how essential grain was to the Roman diet, the word **frumentum**, the generic word for *grain*, became synonymous with food itself.

Feeding veggies to an empire

For ordinary people, vegetables were the most common type of food, along with grain-based products. Certain vegetables that the modern world takes for granted, however, were unknown to the Romans. Among these **holera incognita** (*unknown veggies*) were the potato and the tomato.

Still, if **Petrus Cuniculus** (*Peter Rabbit*), were to wear a toga, these would be some of his favorite foods:

- » **holus, holeris**, n (*vegetable*)
- » **caepa, caepae**, f (*onion*)
- » **beta, betae**, f (*beet*)
- » **radix, radicis**, f (*radish*)
- » **alium, ali**, n (*garlic*)
- » **phaselus, phaseli**, m (*bean*)
- » **cicer, ciceris**, n (*chickpea*)



CULTURAL
WISDOM

In English slang, a “peach” refers to an attractive woman. Some Latin vegetables also have unlikely double meanings. For example, the poet Catullus wrote about a boat called a **phaselus** (*bean*), presumably because it was bean-shaped. And who was the greatest orator in first-century Rome? It was Mr. *Chickpea* himself, Marcus Tullius **Cicero**.

Going whole hog with meat

On a trip to Italy, some tourists entered a restaurant and proceeded to order what they thought was a complete meal. One tourist ordered soup and pizza, another ordered salad and pasta. A few minutes later, the waiter returned to convey the chef’s confusion. Because all those items were considered appetizers and no one had ordered any meat, the chef didn’t know what to fix first!

Although the ancient Romans didn’t consider meat to be the essential meal item that Italians do today, they still had quite a variety to choose from. One advantage to the lack of modern refrigeration meant that if you were going to eat meat, you were going to eat it fresh. (After all, the best that you could do to preserve food was to salt it, put it in a clay jar, and let it sit in a cool stream or, if you were lucky, pack it in some snow.) Here are some of the more common items in the meat group:

- » **pullus, pulli**, m (*chicken*)
- » **ovum, ovi**, n (*egg*)
- » **vitulina, vitulinae**, f (*veal*)
- » **piscis, piscis**, m (*fish*)
- » **mullus, mulli**, m (*mullet*)
- » **ostrea, ostreae**, f (*oyster*)

The Romans referred to *wild game* in general as **fera, ferae** (f) when it was still alive, but as **caro, carnis** (f) when it was on the dinner table. Likewise, as long as a pig could say, “Oink!” it was known as **porcus, porci** (m), but when it turned into dinner, it became **porcina, porcinae** (f). The porpoise, which is a bottom-feeder in the sea, derives its name from **porcus** (*pig*) and **piscis** (*fish*). And the porcupine gets its name from **porcus** and **spina** (*thorn*).

Romans who had a few more **denarii** (a unit of money) in their pockets might spring for some of these fancier food items:

- » **phasiana, phasianae**, f (*pheasant*)
- » **perdix, perdicis**, m/f (*partridge*)
- » **coturnix, coturnicis**, f (*quail*)
- » **pavo, pavonis**, m (*peacock*)
- » **grus, gruis**, m/f (*crane*)



Here's another Roman delicacy: stuffed *dormouse*, or **glis, gliris** (m). Yes, dormouse. As in rodent.

Having your fruit and eating it, too!

Fruits played a major role in the eating habits of the Romans. They enjoyed native Italian fruits, such as figs and grapes, as well as fruit from other regions of their world, which they began growing in Italy. The following list gives you a taste for some of the more common Roman fruits:

- » **figus, fici**, f (*fig*)
- » **uva, uvae**, f (*grape*)
- » **morum, mori**, n (*mulberry*)
- » **pirum, piri**, n (*pear*)
- » **palmula, palmulae**, f (*date*)
- » **cerasus, cerasi**, f (*cherry*)
- » **malum, mali**, n (*apple*)
- » **malum Persicum, mali Persici**, n (*peach*; literally, *Persian apple*)

Please pass the ketchup!

The ancient Romans loved to doctor the taste of food with little extras. For example, **garum**, **gari** (n) was a fermented fish sauce that could be put on just about anything. Simply let your fish sit in a stone pot for several months until it starts to liquefy, and then you have some good **garum**. Be sure to specify if you want it extra chunky!

Then, as now, salt was an important condiment for flavoring and preserving. For the Romans, **sal**, **salis** (m; *salt*) had more than just culinary uses. This word doubled for *wit*, without which you couldn't have a good conversation. The poet Catullus invited his friend Fabullus to dinner, but only on the condition that Fabullus bring all the food and **sal**. Don't you think Fabullus used some "salty" language to talk about such a cheap friend?

Not only did the Romans like to spice it up a little, but they also liked it sweet — and by "it," I mean everything. They even liked to sweeten their wine! Of course, no little pink or blue packets of sweetener sat on the table. Instead, they used **mel**, **mellis** (n; *honey*) to sweeten the deal.

Potent potables

You're sitting at a Roman senator's dinner table, and the host has just asked your opinion on the emperor's new tax plan. Suddenly a piece of **pavo cum garo** — that's *peacock with fish sauce* to you and me — gets stuck in your throat. What do you do? Looks like it's time for a drink!

AAWWW — YOU'RE MY LITTLE HONEYBEE

Do you know anyone named Melissa? Is she as sweet as her name implies? This English name is actually a Latin spelling of a Greek word that means *honeybee*. For that matter, you probably know some other commonly used Latin names. The name Gregory, for example, suggests someone who likes to be around herds (whether of animals or people is up to the individual). And Amanda? This Latin name literally means, *she who must be loved*.

Chances are, you would reach for a glass of **vinum, vini** (n), which is to say, a glass of *wine*. To drink **lac, lactis** (n; *milk*) was to engage in low-class, almost barbaric behavior. Of course, you could always have *water*, or **aqua, aquae** (f), if the wine ran out.

But what kind of wine? Wine aficionados today have hundreds of options to choose from, and although you couldn't find quite so varied a wine list in ancient times, you still had several options. You would have access to both Greek and Italian wines. Here are a few more potable options:

- » **mustum, musti** (n): Young, unfermented wine.
- » **merum, meri** (n): if you wanted to become inebriated in a hurry, turn to straight wine — that is, wine that hadn't been cut with water. (Most Romans usually drank wine mixed with water.)

You could also choose from the expensive wines, which were known by the regions that produced them. Among some of the most noted were:

- » **Setinum**: Wine from the town of Setia
- » **Caecubum**: Wine that came from the Caecuban region south of Rome
- » **Falernum**: Wine from the region of northern Campania

The following table shows the present-tense conjugation of the Latin word meaning *to drink*.

Singular	Plural
bibo (<i>I drink</i>)	bibimus (<i>we drink</i>)
bibis (<i>you drink</i>)	bibitis (<i>you all drink</i>)
bibit (<i>he/she/it drinks</i>)	bibunt (<i>they drink</i>)



Through the literary device known as *metonymy*, a particular word or name comes to stand for another item. As the Roman god of wine, Bacchus came to be synonymous with wine itself.

Talkin' the Talk



A **pistor** (*baker*) helps a **puella** (*girl*) make a purchase for her mother.

Puella: **Mater mea me panem emere cupit.**

My mother wants me to buy some bread.

Pistor: **Quot homines cenabunt?**

How many people will be having dinner?

Puella: **Familia mea epulas magnas donat. Viginti homines aderunt.**

My father is giving a great banquet. Twenty people will be there.

Pistor: **Tibi panem et placentas cum melle vendam.**

I shall sell you bread and cakes with honey.

Puella: **Bene. Tum vinum emam. Ubi Romani cenant, semper bibunt.**

Good. Then I shall buy some wine. When Romans dine, they always drink.

WORDS TO KNOW

puella, puella, f	girl
mater, matris, f	mother
pater, patris, m	father
bibo, bibere, bibi, bibitus	to drink
ceno, cenare, cenavi, cenatus	to dine
emo, emere, emi, emptus	to buy

Dining Practices

With all those temptingly delectable items, like stuffed *dormouse* (**glis, gliris** [m]) and liquefied fish (which we talk about in the section “Living to Eat and Eating to Live,” earlier in this chapter), you’d think that the Romans would have spent every waking hour stuffing themselves. But, of course, they didn’t.

In the following sections, you can find out about Roman eating habits, including a good place to stop off for a drink the next time you travel back to the era of the Caesars.

Three squares a day

Like many folks in the western world today, the Romans ate three meals a day: breakfast, lunch, and dinner. The following table shows you the future-tense conjugation of the Latin word meaning *to dine*.

Singular	Plural
cenabo (<i>I will dine</i>)	cenabimus (<i>we will dine</i>)
cenabis (<i>you will dine</i>)	cenabitis (<i>you all will dine</i>)
cenabit (<i>he/she/it will dine</i>)	cenabunt (<i>they will dine</i>)

The breakfast of (Roman) champions

If the Roman day began at all with food, it was usually a light meal called a **ientaculum**, **ientaculi** (n; *breakfast*). This meal usually consisted of no more than bread with **fructus**, **fructus** (m; *fruit*) and **caseus**, **casei** (m; *cheese*).

The Latin lunch

Around midday, it was time for **prandium**, **prandi** (n), or *lunch*. Like breakfast, lunch was a light meal. A lunch menu would include such foods as eggs, fish, vegetables, and wine.

Feasting off the fercula at dinner

Evening saw the main meal of the day, called **cena**, **cenae** (f; *dinner*). A formal **cena** was comprised of three parts, beginning with **gustatio**, **gustationis** (f; *appetizer*). For this first course, the Romans enjoyed **ovum**, **ovi** (n; *eggs*), **piscis**, **piscis** (m; *fish*) and **acetaria**, **acetariorum** (n; *salad*) and they usually drank wine mixed with honey, a beverage known as **mulsum**, **mulsi** (n).

Following the **gustatio** was the main course itself. A **ferculum**, **ferculi** (n) was a *dinner tray*, and the **main course** could involve as many as seven separate **fercula**, each carrying a specific food item. The **caput cenae**, or *main dish* (literally, *head of the dinner*), was often a whole roasted animal of some sort.

Secundae mensae (*second tables*) signaled the beginning of dessert. At this point, slaves brought in new **fercula** (*trays*) loaded with various **fructus** (*fruits*).

Some elaborate **cenae** involved one more event after the **secundae mensae**. This was the *drinking party* — the **comissatio**, **comissationis** (f). Unlike a college fraternity party, the object wasn't necessarily to become as inebriated as possible in the shortest amount of time. After a roll of the dice, a **magister** or **magistra bibendi** (*master of the drinking*) was chosen. By appointing a certain ratio of water to wine to be mixed in the cups, this person then decided the strength of the wine that everyone would drink.



A counterpart to the Latin **comissatio** was the Greek **symposium**. The **symposium**, too, was a drinking party, but it often turned into a philosophical discussion.

Minding your manners around the mensa

Just like people today, the Romans ate some of their meals at home and ate others out.

Dining at home

Where in the home you ate depended on the occasion. If you were eating with the family, you would most likely take your meals in the **atrium**, **atrii** (n) — the *entry hall* of the house. You can compare ancient Romans eating in the atrium to eating in a breakfast nook in many homes today.

For more formal occasions, however, the slaves arranged **lecti** (*couches*) in the *dining room*, called the **triclinium**, **triclinii** (n). The Latin word **triclinium** comes from the fact that three people reclined on each couch, and there were usually three couches around each **mensa**, **mensae** (f; *table*). Slaves then brought dishes to and from the **culina**, **culinae** (f; *kitchen*), where everything was prepared.



Only the men reclined at a formal Roman dinner. The women sat in chairs or ate in a separate room altogether.

Eating out

For the Roman on the go, other dining options were available. Excavations at the site of Pompeii, the city buried by the eruption of Mount Vesuvius in 79 BCE, for example, have turned up fast-food restaurants, including petrified food remains! The **thermopolium**, **thermopolii** (n; *hot food stand*) involved large circular containers set into a marble counter, like a modern buffet, from which you could order what you wanted.

Those who traveled a lot could go to the **taberna, tabernae** (f). Although the English derivative of this word is “tavern,” the **taberna** was more than a watering hole. It offered food and drinks, as well as a place to spend the night.



The poet Catullus wrote a poem addressed to and attacking a **salax taberna** — a *salacious tavern*. The **taberna** incurred the wrath of his poison pen because it had become the hangout of Clodia Metella, the woman who dumped him.

This table shows the present-tense conjugation of the Latin word for *to buy*.

Singular	Plural
emo (<i>I buy</i>)	emimus (<i>we buy</i>)
emis (<i>you buy</i>)	emitis (<i>you all buy</i>)
emit (<i>he/she/it buys</i>)	emunt (<i>they buy</i>)

Weapons of attack, or fun with forks

The preceding sections cover the basics of the Roman diet and dining habits; this section covers utensils. The word “utensil” itself comes from the Latin adjective **utensilis**, meaning *useful*, and what could be more useful for cutting up a tender **perdix** (*partridge*) than a nice, sharp **cultellus** (*knife*)? The following words show you how to attack any Roman meal:

- » **cultellus, cultelli**, m (*knife*)
- » **furcilla, furcillae**, f (*fork*)
- » **cocleare, coclearis**, n (*spoon*)
- » **patella, patellae**, f (*plate*)
- » **cratera, craterae**, f (*bowl*)
- » **poculum, poculi**, n (*cup*)
- » **urna, urnae**, f (*water jar*)
- » **amphora, amphorae**, f (*wine jar*)
- » **linteum, lintei**, n (*napkin*)



Apparently, napkins were a big deal in the ancient world, at least to some people. As is evident in his poem 12, the poet Catullus got so worked up when Asinius stole his linen napkins that Catullus threatened him if he didn’t return them. The threat? Catullus would write 300 lines of mean poetry about Asinius.

To Be or To Eat: That's the Real Question

Shakespeare may concern himself with philosophical questions debating the nature of existence, but Latin students are a bit more practical. When a Roman says, **Morum esse cupio**, you need to know whether he means, *I want to eat a mulberry* or *I want to be a mulberry*. It turns out that the verb **esse** means both *to eat* and *to be*. The only difference is in pronunciation. If you want to eat a mulberry, you pronounce the verb “ays–seh.” If you want to be a mulberry, call a psychiatrist. While the receptionist puts you on hold, pronounce the verb “ehs–seh.”

The verb **esse** in all its forms (**sum, esse, fui, futurus**) is the Latin verb “to be,” and, just as in English, it’s irregular because it does not follow the normal verb–tense patterns. (To read more about this verb, see Chapter 3.) Because Latin writers use this verb so commonly, it has many compounds. The most common compound is **possum, posse, potui**, which means *to be able*. It’s irregular in the present, imperfect, and future tenses only. In forms of the base word **sum** that start with **s**, the equivalent forms of **possum** use **ss**. And where forms of **sum** begin with **e**, forms of **possum** use **te**. The following table shows the present tense of **possum** to give you an idea of how this verb works.

Singular	Plural
possum (<i>I am able</i>)	possumus (<i>we are able</i>)
potes (<i>you are able</i>)	potestis (<i>you all are able</i>)
potest (<i>he/she/it is able</i>)	possunt (<i>they are able</i>)

Latin has many irregular verbs. You can tell that some verbs are irregular by looking at the dictionary entries, and others show irregularity in their actual tenses. The following sections list some common verbs that are irregular in their principal parts (some don’t have the usual **–re** on the infinitive, for example, and others lack a fourth dictionary form) and in the present tense (the only tense in which the verbs in the following sections are irregular).



REMEMBER

For all tenses other than present, the verbs in the following sections function as third–conjugation verbs. For more on verb conjugation, see Chapter 2.

Volo (to want)

Volo, velle, volui means *to want*. The following table shows this verb’s conjugation in the present tense.

Singular	Plural
volo (<i>I want</i>)	volumus (<i>we want</i>)
vis (<i>you want</i>)	vultis (<i>you all want</i>)
vult (<i>he/she/it wants</i>)	volunt (<i>they want</i>)

Nolo (not to wish)

Nolo, nolle, nolui means *not to want*. The following table shows the present-tense conjugation of this verb.

Singular	Plural
nolo (<i>I don't want</i>)	nolumus (<i>we don't want</i>)
non vis (<i>you don't want</i>)	non vultis (<i>you all don't want</i>)
non vult (<i>he/she/it doesn't want</i>)	nolunt (<i>they don't want</i>)

Malo (to prefer)

Malo, malle, malui means *to prefer*. The following table gives you the present-tense conjugation of this verb.

Singular	Plural
malo (<i>I prefer</i>)	malumus (<i>we prefer</i>)
mavis (<i>you prefer</i>)	mavultis (<i>you all prefer</i>)
mavult (<i>he/she/it prefers</i>)	malunt (<i>they prefer</i>)



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

In addition to **malo**, Latin has five other look-alike words: **malum, mali** (n), which means *apple*; **malus, mali** (m), a *bad person*; **malus, mali** (m), the *mast* of a ship; **malus, mali** (f), an *apple tree*; and the adjective **malus, mala, malum**, meaning *bad*. (For more on **malus** as an adjective, see Chapter 4.)

Fero (to bring or carry)

Fero, ferre, tuli, latus means *to bring* or *to carry*. This table shows you the conjugation of this verb in the present tense.

Singular	Plural
fero (<i>I bring/carry</i>)	ferimus (<i>we bring/carry</i>)

Singular	Plural
fers (<i>you bring/carry</i>)	fertis (<i>you all bring/carry</i>)
fert (<i>he/she/it brings/carries</i>)	ferunt (<i>they bring/carry</i>)

Eo (to go)

Eo, ire, ii/ivi, iturus means *to go*. The following table shows the present-tense conjugation.

Singular	Plural
eo (<i>I go</i>)	imus (<i>we go</i>)
is (<i>you go</i>)	itis (<i>you all go</i>)
it (<i>he/she/it goes</i>)	eunt (<i>they go</i>)

Talkin' the Talk



A **coquus** (*cook*) and his **dominus** (*master*) talk about dinner plans. (As you read this, remember that the Latin word **sal** can mean both *salt* and *wit*.)

Dominus: **Te parare cenam optimam volo, quod senatores eunt.**

I want you to prepare an excellent meal because the senators are coming.

Coquus: **Cibumne aut calidum aut frigidum senator mavult?**

Does a senator prefer hot or cold food?

Dominus: **Sum senator, ita respondere possum. Cibum cum sale malumus.**

I am a senator, so I am able to answer. We prefer food with salt.

Coquus: **Tum in taberna, non in villa tua cenare debetis.**

Then you ought to dine in a tavern, not in your house.

Dominus: **Nonne ferre salem ad cenam potes?**

Are you not able to bring salt to the food?

Coquus: **Ad cibum salem ferre possum sed non ad sermonem.**

I can bring salt to the food but not to the conversation.

WORDS TO KNOW

coquus, coqui, m	cook
cibus, cibi, m	food
sermo, sermonis, m	conversation
calidus, calida, calidum	hot
frigidus, frigida, frigidum	cold

Welcome Home!

For the Romans, the focus of their life was, quite literally, at home. The word **focus, foci** (m) meant *hearth*. And as the source for warmth and cooking, it was not only the physical but also the emotional center of the home. But just like with food, housing posed several options. The rich had certain dwellings available to them, and the poor had access to others; you could find some dwellings inside the city and some in the country.

Living downtown

Ancient Rome offered two basic urban housing choices — the **insula** and the **domus**:

- » **insula**: An *apartment building* was an **insula, insulae** (f), which also meant *island*. When you consider that an apartment building is just an island of people in the middle of the city, then this name makes sense. Though originally only for those who couldn't afford single-family homes, **insulae** eventually became home to wealthy members of society, too.
- » **domus**: For those who could afford it, the **domus, domus** (f; *house*) was the dwelling of choice. The **domus** was more elaborate than the **insula**, but you couldn't tell it from the outside. *Buildings* (**aedificia**) had plain exteriors, with all the decoration reserved for those who lived inside. Here are some of the important features of a **domus**:
 - **atrium, atri**, n (*entry hall*)
 - **cubiculum, cubiculi**, n (*bedroom*)
 - **compluvium, compluvi**, n (*rectangular roof opening*; placed to let in rain and light). The basic Roman house was built around the atrium and the hole in the roof was to let smoke from the fireplace escape, but it also left

the atrium exposed to rain. Rainwater was then collected in the impluvium for household chores, like washing the floors or watering house plants.

- **impluvium, impluvi**, n (*pool of rainwater*; below the **compluvium**)
- **peristylum, peristyli**, n (*columned courtyard*)
- **hortus, horti**, m (*garden*)

Venturing out to your villa

Those who wanted to escape the hustle and bustle of the city had several housing options in the country. A wealthy gentleman farmer lived in a **villa, villae** (f; *farmhouse*). This was the main dwelling for the family that owned a **fundus, fundi** (m; *farm*). Its general floor plan was similar to that of a **domus**. Those who didn't have such means lived in a simple **casa, casae** (f; *hut*).



When traveling a long distance, ancient Romans customarily stayed with a **hospes** — a *guest-friend*. Formal ties of *hospitality* — **hospitium** — were often established between families and lasted down through the generations. If, however, you had no such friends in the area, you could find a **taberna** (*tavern*) in which to spend the night.

I'M PAYING HOW MUCH FOR THIS DUMP?

In the modern world of luxury hotels, apartments, and condominiums, the higher in elevation the room, the higher the price. Just the opposite was true, however, in ancient Rome. It was the wealthy who occupied the lowest floors of the **insulae**, while those of less means rented the upper levels. Why? Most of the buildings in ancient Rome were made of wood until the Emperor Nero improved standards in building materials. Fire was always a threat, and the only real protection was to have a quick exit — out the front door.

Sanitation departments didn't exist in those days, so where did tenants living on the upper stories of their apartment buildings throw their garbage? Out the window, of course! The poet Juvenal comments on the danger of just walking near such buildings, when pots fly from such a height out the windows that they crack the pavement below. And who picked up the garbage? Nobody. In Pompeii, for example, the streets sloped and led to the sea, suggesting that garbage was simply washed into the ocean. Rome had the Cloaca Maxima, originally an open sewer that was later enclosed.

FUN & GAMES

Can you come up with a menu for all three meals of the day? Write the following foods underneath the meal in which they would most likely be eaten. You may use some words more than once.

pullus, vinum, caseus, piscis, fructus, ova, holera, mulsum, mala, panis

lentaculum

prandium

cena

See Appendix C for the answers.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- » Talking about Roman expressions of time, dates, and holidays
- » Placing things in time and space with ablatives
- » Using the subjunctive in subordinate clauses
- » Getting to know the ancient gods and goddesses

Chapter 6

The Roman Calendar

Eastern standard time, daylight saving time, and Greenwich mean time — sometimes it seems that the modern world has a tough enough time trying to figure out the right time. But consider the year 46 BCE. In that year, the Romans figured time was so out of whack that the calendar was three months ahead of the seasons. Your day planner may have said that the time had come to break out a lightweight tunic, but the weather outside said to bundle up in your woolen toga. Julius Caesar as **pontifex maximus** (*chief priest of all sacred things*) created a 445-day year to make things right again, thus making that year **ultimus annus confusionis** (*the last year of confusion*) according to the third century BCE writer Censorinus.

But why was a priest responsible for fixing the calendar? For the Romans, the reckoning of time was linked to the gods, goddesses, and religious ceremonies. In this chapter, you can find out about some of the major and not-so-major Roman deities, their festivals, and how to tell time ancient-Roman style. You can also discover some of the most important grammatical features of the language — clauses (yes, clauses) — as well as something called the subjunctive mood.

Planning Ahead with the Roman Calendar

For most of the modern world, Vergil's statement rings true:

Tempus inreparabile fugit. (Vergil, *Georgics*, Book III, Line 284)

Time unrecoverable flees.

Despite this Roman poet's foresight into our agenda-filled lives, the Romans themselves were a bit more grounded. They didn't just mark the passage of time; they also marked the relationship of days to each other and to key events in their lives. Here are some basic words to get you started in understanding Roman time:

- » **tempus, temporis**, n (*time*)
- » **hora, horae**, f (*hour*)
- » **dies, diei**, m/f (*day*)
- » **mensis, mensis**, m (*month*)
- » **annus, anni**, m (*year*)

Biding the hours and days

The Romans didn't regularly use the week as a unit of time, and the minute was referred to simply as **punctum temporis** (*a point of time*). The day, however, was one of the most important time units, and each 24-hour period had numerous divisions. Dawn was known as **prima luce** (*first light*). From there, you simply reckoned time as **prima hora** (*first hour*), **secunda hora** (*second hour*), and so on. The hours of the night were more broadly divided into four *watches* — **vigiliae**.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

When referring to a general, nonspecific day, the Romans used **dies** in the masculine gender. When the Romans meant a particular or appointed day, they used the feminine version. For example, the feminine **die** is used in the following sentence:

Die constituta, reus ad iudicium venit.

On the established day, the defendant came to the trial.

Naming months

In addition to hours and days (see the preceding section), the month was another main unit of time. And originally, the year contained ten of them. The months

usually had names that either represented a particular deity honored in that month or indicated the order in which that month fell during the year. The original Roman year looked like this:

- » **Martius** (*March*): A festival in March honored the god Mars, who was the father of Rome's founder, Romulus. This was the first month of the Roman year.
- » **Aprilis** (*April*): The word **Aprilis** is derived from the verb **aperire**, which means *to open*, because April is the month when flowers open in Italy.
- » **Maius** (*May*): May 1 and 15 were sacred to Maia, an earth goddess who was also the mother of the god Mercury.
- » **Iunius** (*June*): This month honored Juno, the queen of the gods.
- » **Quintilis** (*Fifth Month*): This month gained the name *July* — **Iulius** — in later years to honor Julius Caesar. It was also earlier referred to as **Quintilis**.
- » **Sextilis** (*Sixth Month*): In the same way that **Quintilis** was renamed to **Iulius**, this month was renamed **Augustus** in honor of Caesar's nephew and adopted son, the Emperor Augustus, whose name is preserved in the English month of August.
- » **September** (*Seventh Month*)
- » **October** (*Eighth Month*)
- » **November** (*Ninth Month*)
- » **December** (*Tenth Month*)

The Romans eventually added two more months to the beginning of the year, **Ianuarius** (*January*) to honor **Ianus**, the two-faced god of beginnings, and **Februarius** (*February*), in which certain *purification rites*, **februa**, were held.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

Nowadays, we think of month names as nouns. In Latin, however, the grammatical form of the month names is a masculine adjective that modifies the implied word for *month*, **mensis**. **Maius**, for example, is actually **Maius mensis**, *the month May*.

Flying by with the years

Figuring out the year in which an event took place is easier than figuring out the day — sort of, anyway. Over many centuries, the Romans used several systems for calculating a particular year. One early method was to note who the consuls or chief magistrates were for that year. (For more on consuls and Roman government, see Chapter 9.)

For example, the first Roman emperor, Gaius Julius Caesar Octavianus Augustus, was born **a.d. IX Kal. Oct. cos. Tullio et Antonio**. Without the abbreviations, this says he came into the world **ante diem IX Kalendas Octobres consulibus Tullio et Antonio**, which means *nine days before the Kalends of October when Tullius and Antonius were consuls*. Of course, you know precisely when that was, right? An obvious flaw in this system was that if you wanted to date anything in the past, you needed to memorize a list of Roman government officials who changed every year.

A better system used the date when Rome was founded (traditionally believed to be April 21, 753 BCE) and calculated how many years a particular year was from that date. The abbreviation used in this system was AUC, which stood for **ab urbe condita** (*from the founding of the city*). In this system, the bouncing baby emperor was born **anno ab urbe condita sexcentesimo nonagesimo** (*the 691st year from the founding of the city*).

Eventually, in the sixth century CE, Dionysus Exiguus introduced a system of dates reckoned by the abbreviations BC (before Christ) and AD (**Anno Domini**; *year of the Lord*, referring to the birth of Jesus Christ). Dates are now commonly written as BCE (before the Common Era) and CE (the Common Era).



TIP

You can easily convert the old AUC system into the modern dating system (BCE/CE). Because the date for the founding of Rome is April 21, 753 BCE, 1 AUC is the same as 753 BCE. To determine a BCE date when you have an AUC date, simply subtract the AUC date from the number 754 (753 BCE + 1 AUC). If you want to find a CE date based on an AUC date, add the two numbers together. To calculate a BCE date from an AUC date, subtract the BCE from 754. To find the AUC date that equals a CE date, just add 753 to the modern year.

WHO'S IN CHARGE AROUND HERE?

In 59 BCE (or 695 AUC), the consuls of Rome were Gaius Julius Caesar and Marcus Calpurnius Bibulus. Because Bibulus was by far the weaker of the two co-magistrates of the city, the people jokingly referred to that year not as “the consulship of Julius and Calpurnius,” but as “the consulship of Julius and Caesar.”

And speaking of alternative year references, consider this: In Rome's Mamertine Prison — a dreary, cavernous holding cell that numbers among its famous inmates the apostles St. Peter and St. Paul — you can find a Latin plaque that gives some of the prison's history. The modern year in which the plaque was dedicated, 1667, is listed as MDCLXVII **ab orbis redemptione** (*from the redemption of the world*).

Playing the dating game

You probably think that you simply use the Roman numbers (see Chapter 3) to figure a date. November 27, for example, would simply be **dies vicesimus et septimus Novembri** — literally, *the twenty-seventh day of November* — right? Wrong. The following sections go into Romans' crazy calendars.

Fixed days: Kalends, Nones, and Ides

The Romans did not view time as an endless succession of days to be numbered one after the other. Instead, they calculated how far away a given day was from one of three fixed days in each month. Those fixed days were

- » **Kalendae** (*Kalends*): The **Kalendae** fell on the first day of each month, and this word seems to be etymologically related to the Greek word **kaleo**, meaning *to call out*.
- » **Nonae** (*Nones*): The word **Nonae** is a form of the ordinal number for *ninth*. In the calendar, it signifies the ninth day before the Ides.
- » **Idus** (*Ides*): This word indicates the thirteenth day of most months, but it falls on the fifteenth day in March, May, July, and October. (Thus, the Nones would be the fifth day of most months but the seventh day in March, May, July, and October.)



TIP

Here's a little rhyme to help you remember the change of date for the Ides (and therefore, for the Nones):

In March, July, October, May

The Ides fall on the fifteenth day.

So how does knowing the three fixed days of every month help you remember when the rent is due? Well, as long as you're not expecting this book to help you balance your budget, read on.

Figuring out a date

The Romans reckoned a date by figuring out how many days it was before the next Kalends, Nones, or Ides, and they counted inclusively. Thus, November 27 would actually have been five days before the first — the Kalends — of December (the 27, 28, 29, 30, and 1 equal five days) and would have been written like this:

a. d. V Kal. Dec.

This abbreviation stands for **ante diem V Kalendas Decembres** (*five days before the Kalends of December*).

The day before one of the fixed days was simply **pridie** (*the day before*). Thus, historians who wrote about the nightmares that Caesar's wife had the day before his assassination would note that they occurred **prid. Id. Mart.**, which is to say, **pridie Idus Martias** (*the day before the Ides of March*).

Having a Roman holiday

In both the ancient AUC dating system and the modern BC/AD dating system, religion has played a major role. In fact, so many holidays honored both major and minor deities that the poet Ovid began an epic poem called *Fasti* (*Calendar*) just to describe the days of the Roman year. By dealing so closely with the important days, traditions, and celebrations of Roman life, this poem was Ovid's most patriotic. Unfortunately, he stopped halfway through, in the month of June, because he was exiled for not being a good Roman.

Take a look at some of the more common and most interesting of the ancient Roman holidays:

- » **Lupercalia:** February 15. This was a fertility festival in honor of the god Faunus. Young men would run around naked and strike women with strips of goat skins to increase the women's fertility.
- » **Parentalia:** February 13 through 21. This holiday honored dead family members. The Romans took a week for private family celebrations, ending with one day of public ceremony.
- » **Saturnalia:** December 17. A harvest festival to honor the god Saturn. The Saturnalia allowed slaves one day of freedom and involved the exchange of gifts and festive clothing.
- » **Vestalia:** June 9. The time to honor Vesta, the goddess of the hearth. The attendants in her temple were young women known as Vestal Virgins.
- » **Megalesia:** April 4 through 10. During this holiday, Romans celebrated the goddess Cybele, also known as **Magna Mater** (*Great Mother*). In keeping with celibate temple attendants, such as the Vestal Virgins, the attendants of Cybele were castrated males.

Oh, That Able Ablative!

Ablatives are to Latin grammar what black holes are to space: They suck in all matter and energy. Well, sort of. Actually, the *ablative case* is the case for all sorts of time- and space-related uses. In other words, this case shows the following:

- » **Time:** The time *when* something happens or the time frame *within which* it happens.
- » **Place:** The place *where* or the place *from which* an action occurs.
- » **Means:** *How* something is done; it references the tool or item with which something is done. (Also called the ablative of means.)
- » **Manner:** The *way in which* something is done (with joy, with eagerness, with sadness, and so on; also called the ablative of manner).
- » **Absolute:** A basic adverbial clause that can show the time, circumstance, or cause of an event.

To really get moving with ablatives, check out the following sections. (And for a basic rundown of what noun cases are, see Chapter 2.)



TIP

If you're pretty comfortable with English grammar, you can think of ablatives like Latin's version of English adverbial clauses and phrases. They perform practically the same function.

What time is it?

The ablative case can show the point of time *when* something happens or the time frame *within which* it happens. Although several ablative uses require a preposition, these time expressions don't. Consider these sentences:

Illo die ad urbem advenimus.

On that day, we arrived at the city.

Hostes vincemus diebus tribus.

We will conquer the enemy within three days.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

Another space-time expression involves the accusative case and shows the *extent* of time or space in which something occurs. For example:

Menses duos et milia passuum innumerabilia altum navigaverunt.

For two months and countless miles, they sailed the deep.

Quo vadis? (Where are you going?)

You can use the ablative case to show the place *where* or place *from which* an action occurs. Unlike the time ablatives (discussed in the preceding section), these ablatives *do* require prepositions. (For more on prepositions, take a look at Chapter 3.) The basic prepositions that you use for these ablatives are

» **in** (*in, on*)

» **sub** (*under*)

» **a, ab** (*from, away from*)

Note: Use **a** before consonants and **ab** before vowels.

» **e, ex** (*from, out of*)

Note: Use **e** before consonants and **ex** before vowels.

» **de** (*down from*)

The following sentence covers just about everything:

Sciurus in ramo sub umbra ab ave cucurrit et e fronde de arbore cecidit.

The squirrel on the branch under the shade ran away from the bird and fell out of the foliage down from the tree.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

The adverb **quo** is an interrogative word that asks *where?* in the sense of *to what place?* In general, however, when you want to show the place *to which* something is going, use the accusative case and a preposition such as **in** (*into*) or **ad** (*to, toward*):

Avis ad nidum volabat.

A bird was flying toward the nest.

Everything but the kitchen sink

The ablative case has many uses, and if you want to go beyond what we offer in this chapter, you can explore some of them in Chapters 8 and 9. You need to know three other main uses, however, which we talk about the following sections. After you understand the primary functions of the ablative case, you can sail through a vast array of classic Latin literature.

HOLLYWOOD TOGA PARTY

Quo Vadis (literally, *Where Are You Going?*) was one of a long list of Hollywood movies set in ancient Roman times. Here are a few more:

- *Julius Caesar*: The film version of William Shakespeare's play.
- *Cleopatra*: The first flick ever in which an actor (leading lady Elizabeth Taylor) was paid a cool million dollars.
- *Ben Hur*: Features a must-see chariot race which features the famous actor Charlton Heston.
- *Spartacus*: Showcases Kirk Douglas as the gladiator who led a rebellion against Rome.
- *Gladiator*: Showcases Russell Crowe as a gladiator who led a rebellion against Rome. (Sensing a theme here?)
- *A Funny Thing Happened on the Way to the Forum*: If you want a laugh, watch this hilarious film adaptation of an ancient comedic play by the Roman writer Plautus.
- *Monty Python's The Life of Brian*: This spoof of ancient history includes a famous scene in which a Roman centurion corrects the grammar of a guy who is painting graffiti on walls to say, "Romans, go home!"
- *The Eagle*: Features Channing Tatum and Jamie Bell in an attempt to recover a golden eagle for the Roman army stolen by British tribes.

Ablative of means

The ablative of means doesn't require a preposition. It simply involves a word in the ablative case that shows how something was done. For example:

Deos deasque et carminibus et ludis honorabamus.

We were honoring the gods and goddesses with both songs and games.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

The Romans had many ways of worshiping their gods, including games that involved athletics and dancing. The **Ludi Megalenses** (*Great Games*), for example, were held in April to honor the fertility goddess Cybele, also known as **Magna Mater** (*the Great Mother*).

Ablative of manner

Similar to the ablative of means (discussed in the preceding section), the ablative of manner shows the way in which something was done. It always involves abstract nouns, such as *virtue*, *love*, *anger*, and so on.

If no adjective is used, you must use the preposition **cum**, which means *with*:

Templum cum reverentia intravi.

I entered the temple with reverence.

When adjectives are part of the phrase, then **cum** is optional:

Pontifex magna cum cura victimam obtulit.

The priest offered the sacrifice with great care.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

Latin usually pulls one word of a prepositional phrase out in front of the preposition itself. For example, if you graduate from college the highest in your class, you're honored **summa cum laude**. Even though the preposition is in the middle, this phrase still means *with highest praise*.

Ablative absolute

English teachers always frown upon using dangling participial phrases. If you never understood what a dangling participle is, don't worry. Latin uses them all the time with the ablative absolute construction, and no Latin teachers disapprove. Basically, you take a couple of words in the ablative case (without a preposition) and stick them somewhere in a sentence. This clause is grammatically freed from the rest of the sentence, so they just sort of dangle there. The clause name, *absolute*, comes from **ab** (*from*) and **solutus** (*freed*). Take a look:

Caesare pontifice maximo, Romani fastos novos obtinuerunt.

With Caesar as chief priest, the Romans obtained a new calendar.

You can usually get a rough idea of what an ablative absolute means when you translate using the word *with*. To smooth things out, however, try something like *when* or *because*. Of course, the clause *because Caesar was chief priest* is different from the clause *when Caesar was chief priest*, but that just shows how every translation is in some ways an interpretation.

Talkin' the Talk



Gaius and Flavia are having a conversation about an upcoming holiday. (Watch for the different ablative uses in their chat.)

Gaius: **Feriis proximis, in calamitate sum.**

With the holidays so close, I'm in trouble.

Flavia: **Sed hodie est ante diem III Nonas Decembres! Tibi multum temporis est ante Saturnalia.**

But today is the third day before the Nones of December! You still have a lot of time before Saturnalia.

Gaius: **Mihi adiuvabis dono pro me emendo?**

Will you help me by buying a gift for me?

Flavia: **Tibi cum gaudio adiuvabo, sed non donum emam.**

I will help you with joy, but I will not buy a gift.

Gaius: **Hoc anno gaudium pro dono amicis dare non possum.**

This year, I cannot give my friends joy in place of a gift.

Flavia: **Cur non?**

Why not?

Gaius: **Quod sedecim diebus tardissimus ero cum dono Saturnale e consulibus Murena et Silano.**

Because within 16 days, I will be quite late with a Saturnalia gift from the consulship of Murena and Silanus.

Flavia: **Sed erat proximus annus!**

But that was last year!

Gaius: **Accurate!**

Exactly!

WORDS TO KNOW

adiuvo, adiuvere, adiuvī, adiutus	to help
donum, doni, n	gift
feriae, feriarum, f. pl	holiday
gaudium, gaudii, n	joy
obfero, obferre, obtuli, oblatu	to offer
templum, templi, n	temple

Expressing Subjunctive Moodiness

Subjunctive mood is a distinction for verbs in both English and Latin. In English, the subjunctive often sounds like a plural verb form used with a singular subject. For example, “If I were in Rome, I would see the statues,” is the correct way to express that thought, even though “was” may sound better to you. In this example, “were” is in the subjunctive mood.

We know what you’re thinking: You should have paid better attention in high school English class. (Well, you probably should have, but that’s beside the point.) Although English uses subjunctive mood less and less these days, subjunctive mood is a huge factor in Latin.

Latin has six basic verb tenses, which you can read more about in Chapters 2 and 4. The forms in those chapters are in the *indicative mood*, which means they’re used to indicate things. Verbs in the indicative form are the most common because they’re used for basic storytelling. The subjunctive forms are a little different. The following list tells what you need to know:

- » The subjunctive mood contains only four tenses: present, imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect. (The indicative mood has six: those four, and also future and future perfect.)
- » For the most part, you find subjunctive forms in subordinate clauses. Subjunctive, subordinate — get it?
- » Most of the time, subjunctive verb forms mean exactly the same thing as their indicative counterparts do. So, for example, perfect subjunctive translates just like perfect indicative.

What’s the point in having two verb forms that say the same thing, you ask? Well, subjunctive forms carry a sense of not being completed or of depending

on another action. They also give you a good clue that the word is in a subordinate clause.

- » In Latin, the subjunctive mood can be used to describe actions that are vague (“I may go to the theatre,” for example, or “Let us drink wine”), actions that are contrary to fact (“If I were in Rome, I would see the statues,” for example), or simply to point out that the verb is in a subordinate clause (“So that we may praise Caesar” or “When it is raining,” for example).

Understanding the present subjunctive

You can easily recognize the subjunctive mood. All you have to do is pay attention to the conjugation of a verb (for more on conjugations, see Chapter 2) and what vowel comes before the ending.

1st-conjugation verbs use “e”

Here’s an example of a present-tense subjunctive form for a 1st-conjugation verb, using the verb **laudo**, **laudare**, **laudavi**, **laudatus**, which means *to praise*.

Singular	Plural
laudem	laudemus
laudes	laudetis
laundet	laudent



REMEMBER

The present indicative for 1st-conjugation verbs uses **a** instead of **e**.

2nd-conjugation verbs use “ea”

The following example of a present-tense subjunctive form for a 2nd-conjugation verb uses the verb **exerceo**, **exercere**, **exercui**, **exercitus**, which means *to train*.

Singular	Plural
exerceam	exerceamus
exerceas	exerceatis
exerceat	exerceant



REMEMBER

The present indicative for 2nd-conjugation verbs uses only **e** instead of **ea**.

3rd-conjugation verbs use “a”

The following example of a 3rd-conjugation verb’s present-tense subjunctive form shows the verb **cano**, **canere**, **cecini**, **cantus**, which means *to sing*.

Singular	Plural
canam	canamus
canas	canatis
canat	canant



REMEMBER

The present indicative for 3rd-conjugation verbs uses **i** or **u** instead of **a**.

3rd-io- and 4th-conjugation verbs use “ia”

The following example of a present-tense subjunctive form for a 3rd-io-conjugation verb uses the verb **accipio**, **accipere**, **accepi**, **acceptus**, which means *to receive*.

Singular	Plural
accipiam	accipiamus
accipias	accipiatis
accipiat	accipiant



REMEMBER

The present indicative for 3rd-io- and 4th-conjugation verbs uses **i** and **u** instead of **ia**.

Although, most of the time, you can translate the subjunctive forms just like you do the indicative forms, you can also render the present subjunctive with the helping words *may* or *let*. To wish someone a long life, for example, you’d say something like this:

Serus in caelum redeas. (Horace, *Satires*, Book 1, Satire 2, Line 45.)

May you return late to heaven.



TIP

Here’s a little something to help you remember the present-tense subjunctive forms: **shE rEAdS A dIArY**. This mnemonic device shows the present subjunctive vowels in order by conjugation.

Understanding the perfect and not-so-perfect subjunctive tenses

With the subjunctive tenses — the imperfect, the perfect, and the pluperfect — not only can you easily recognize them, but you also don't have to worry about paying attention to the verb's conjugation. (For the basics about these tenses, see Chapter 4.) The following sections list the clues that you can use to spot subjunctive forms; and these clues apply even to irregular verbs.

Imperfect-subjunctive tense

The imperfect tense almost always has the letters **re** somewhere in the word. Basically, you take the infinitive (the second dictionary form) and add the personal endings. (See Chapter 2 for a table of the personal endings.) When you translate, use helping words such as *was* and *were*, as well as English past tense. Take a look at the following example of the imperfect subjunctive, using the verb **colo, colere, colui, cultus**, which means *to worship*.

Singular	Plural
colerem	coleremus
coleres	coleretis
coleret	colerent

Perfect subjunctive tense

When it comes to the perfect subjunctive tense, it is easy to confuse it with the future perfect indicative because both tenses have similar endings, but you can usually figure things out through context clues in the story. If most of the other verbs are past tense, then a verb with **eri** in it is probably perfect subjunctive. Perfect subjunctive tense uses the 3rd principal part for its stem, and the letters **eri** always appear before the personal endings. To translate these forms, use *has*, *have*, or English past tense. See the following example that uses the verb **salio, salire, salui, saltus**, which means *to dance*.

Singular	Plural
saluerim	saluerimus
salueris	salueritis
saluerit	saluerint



A group of dancing priests took their name, **Salii**, from the verb meaning *to dance*. Dressed in military garb, they performed elaborate dances at festivals marking the beginning and ending of the war season in March and October.

Pluperfect subjunctive tense

The last subjunctive tense is the pluperfect, which is also easy to recognize. If you find the letters **ss** attached to the 3rd principal part of a verb, you have a pluperfect subjunctive. Translate these tenses just like the pluperfect indicative with the helping word *had*. Here's a quick example, using the verb **sero**, **serere**, **sevi**, **satus**, which means *to plant*.

Singular	Plural
sevissem	sevissemus
sevisses	sevissetis
sevisset	sevissent

Pleading Insanity: The Insanity Clause

Most of the time, you find subjunctive verbs in *subordinate clauses*. Basically, a subordinate clause is a part of a sentence that can't stand alone. It has a subject and a verb, but it doesn't express a complete thought. Check out these examples:

- » When you go to the store
- » Because the dog ran away
- » Who ran away with the spoon

Subordinate clauses describe actions, people, and/or things. In this way, English subordinate clauses function as adverbs (showing when, where, why, how, and the reason), or they modify nouns, describing who or which. Latin, on the other hand, has many different types of subordinate clauses. The following sections describe the most common types.

Purpose clause

The purpose clause is one of the most common and easily recognized. It uses the introductory words **ut** (*so that*) or **ne** (*nay; so that . . . not*). The purpose clauses use

only the present or imperfect subjunctive, which are translated *may* and *might*, respectively.

Romam navigavi ut statuas viderem.

I sailed to Rome so that I might see the statues.

Result clause

The result clause begins with **ut** (*that*) or **ut non** (*that . . . not*). Because this clause looks a lot like the purpose clause (discussed in the preceding section), the Romans kindly threw some clue words in front of the result clause. Common signal words are **ita** (*so*), **sic** (*so*), **tam** (*so*), **tot** (*so many*), and **tantus** (*so great*).

Pompeius est tam fortis miles ut amici eum “Magnum” vocent.

Pompey is such a brave soldier that his friends call him “The Great.”

Characteristic clause

The characteristic clause begins with a form of the relative pronoun **qui** (*who*) and describes a type of person without necessarily saying anything factual. For example

Est vir qui docere amet.

He is the sort of man who likes to teach.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

If you want to talk about a particular man who likes to teach, then you need to use a regular indicative verb in a simple relative clause. Here’s an example:

Est vir qui docere amat.

He is a man who likes to teach.

Clauses for indirect questions

Indirect questions are common and easy to recognize in Latin. Begin with a questioning verb, add some interrogative word, end with a subjunctive verb, and you have an indirect question. (For more on interrogative words, see Chapter 3.)

Rogavit in quot bellis dux pugnasset.

She asked in how many wars the general had fought.

Introducing clauses with cum

The word **cum**, when used with a subjunctive verb, can introduce one of three different types of clauses. The translation of **cum** depends on the type of clause:

- » **Circumstantial:** In a clause that describes the circumstance of an event, **cum** is translated “when.” (“When it is raining, I like to stay indoors,” for example.)
- » **Causal:** In a clause that describes the cause of an event, **cum** is translated “because.” (“Because I am hungry, I will eat a snack,” for example.)
- » **Concessive:** In a sentence that expresses two ideas, one of which may not seem obvious given the other, **cum** is translated “although.” (“Although you are my enemy, I still respect you,” for example.)

Context clues in the sentence or story can usually help you decide which translation to use. Consider the following, which shows a concessive clause:

Cum alium ames, te amo.

Although you love another, I love you.

Talkin’ the Talk



A **Romanus** (*Roman*) talks with a visiting **Aegyptius** (*Egyptian*) about the temple of Janus, which was open only during war.

Aegyptius: **Templa visitare amo. Estne templum Iani apertum aut clausum?**

I love to visit the temples. Is the temple of Janus open or closed?

Romanus: **Cum bellum non geramus, est clausum.**

Because we are not waging war, it is closed.

Aegyptius: **Ianumne Romani honorant ut bellum gerant?**

Do the Romans honor Janus so that they may wage war?

Romanus: **Minime, sed Ianus est tam potens ut nobis victoriam ferat.**

No, but Janus is so powerful that he brings us victory.

Aegyptius: **Gratia pacis, Ianus est deus qui non laborando optime laboret.**

For the sake of peace, Janus is the sort of god who works best by not working.

WORDS TO KNOW

alius, alia, aliud	other, another
aperio, aperire, aperui, apertus	to open
caelum, caeli, n	heaven, sky
claudio, claudere, clausi, clausus	to close
doceo, docere, docui, doctus	to teach
dux, ducis, m	general, leader
laboro, laborare, laboravi, laboratus	to work

He Seems Like a God! Roman Deities

The poet Catullus once wrote

Ille mi par esse deo videtur. (Catullus, *Carmen* 51, Line 1)

He seems like a god to me.

Turns out that Catullus loved a woman from afar; his verse refers to her husband. Apparently, Catullus felt that just being next to this woman made a man appear as a god. Catullus went on to curse her with some of the most vicious poetry ever, but such are the side effects of Cupid's arrows.

Whether using the concept of deity as literary metaphor or truly believing in humanlike gods and goddesses, religion played a major role in the lives of the ancient Romans. Some, such as Julius Caesar's co-consul Bibulus, were so superstitious that they refused to leave the house without checking the omens. Even those who only paid lip service to the state religions often sought out one of the many philosophies of the time to give life meaning.

The big twelve

Many people know the major Greek and Roman gods and goddesses, who make their way into everything from classic English poetry to Saturday morning television cartoons. If you study mythology a bit, you can see that, although the Greek

and Roman deities had many similarities, they weren't simply the same beings with different names. Table 6-1 lists the twelve major ancient Greco-Roman deities, shows their areas of influence, and explains what symbols commonly represent them.

TABLE 6-1

Greco-Roman Gods and Goddesses

Greek	Roman	Area of Influence	Symbol
Zeus	Jupiter	sky	lightning bolt
Hera	Juno	marriage	peacock
Poseidon	Neptune	sea	trident
Hades	Pluto	underworld	bident
Aphrodite	Venus	love	sea foam
Athena	Minerva	wisdom	owl
Apollo	Apollo	sun, music	lyre
Demeter	Ceres	grain	stalks of wheat
Hephaestus	Vulcan	fire	anvil
Ares	Mars	war	weaponry
Artemis	Diana	hunt	moon
Hermes	Mercury	messengers	winged sandals, caduceus

Housecleaning with the gods

The Roman gods and goddesses were arranged in a sort of hierarchy. The gods of the household fell somewhere below the major twelve gods, described in the preceding section. Household gods were divided into two sets:

- » **Lares:** The spirits of a family's deceased ancestors
- » **Penates:** The guardian spirits of a family's food pantry

DO YOUR FRIENDS CALL YOU “JUPEY”?

Some of the Roman gods acquired last names, which were really titles associated with a particular function. For example, one temple was devoted to Jupiter **Stator** (*One Who Stops*), referring to when Jupiter stopped the Romans from running away during battle. Another temple for Jupiter included the surname **Optimus et Maximus** (*Best and Greatest*).

Another temple was dedicated to Juno **Moneta** (*One Who Warns*). Juno received this name when her sacred geese began honking and alerted the guards that the city was under attack in 390 BCE by the Gauls. Eventually, her temple turned into the Roman mint. No surprise, then, that the English word *money* comes from the name **Moneta**.

The Romans worshiped these gods in a private chapel in the house, called a **lararium**. Families often kept small figurines to represent their **lares** and **penates**.

On a more personal level, each male was supposedly born with a **genius** (*guardian spirit*). Although all men had a **genius**, only the spirit of the **paterfamilias** (*head of the family*) received honor in the **lararium**. The female counterpart to the **genius** was a spirit named for the queen of the gods, **Iuno**.

Oh, and the god of mildew? That was **Robigus**, whose festival was on April 25.

Knocking on wood: Superstitions

The Romans were not only *polytheistic* (believing in many gods), but they were *pantheistic*, as well, which means they believed a divine spirit existed in just about everything. In fact, the practice of knocking on wood for good luck hearkens back to the Roman belief of divine spirits dwelling in trees. Here are just a few examples to show how widespread the Roman divinities roamed:

- » **Aeolus**: God of wind
- » **Egeria**: Goddess of fountains and childbirth
- » **Fornax**: Goddess of ovens
- » **Pales**: Goddess of herds and shepherds
- » **Picus**: God of woodlands

POLYTHEISTIC EPICUREANS OR GOOD OL' STOIC MONOTHEISTS?

Despite how much of a role the gods and goddesses seemed to play in everyday life, many Romans did not truly believe in these gods. Historian Edward Gibbon noted in his history *The Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire*, "The various modes of worship, which prevailed in the Roman World, were all considered by the people as equally true; by the philosopher, as equally false; and by the magistrate, as equally useful."

Basically, Romans always participated in the public festivals, but privately, they might have followed any of a variety of philosophical outlooks on life. Among the most common were

Epicureanism: According to this belief, the main goal of life was pleasure of the soul. Though originally calling for a lack of disturbance for the soul, Epicureanism came to mean indulgence in just about everything.

Stoicism: The Stoics believed that virtue was based on knowledge and, therefore, the only good was to live in harmony with reason. Stoics often didn't appear to get too bent out of shape, whether through excessive joy or excessive sadness.

Mithraism: This belief was popular among the Roman military. These men (no women were allowed into the cult) followed an ancient Iranian god of light and truth (Mithras) and passed through several grades of initiation, beginning with **Corax** (*raven*) and ending with **Pater** (*father*). Little else is known about this philosophy.

Platonism: Named for one of the most famous Greek philosophers, Plato, this belief centered on the notion that everything you see is just a copy of the perfect form, which exists someplace else.

FUN & GAMES

See if you can figure out the following dates, using the ancient AUC method.

- 1 June 8, 1991
- 2 January 17, 1878
- 3 December 2, 72 BCE

If you were in ancient Rome, to which god would you make sacrifice to solve the following problems?

- | | | |
|---|-------------------------|------------|
| 1 | relationship trouble | a. Mercury |
| 2 | bread won't rise | b. Robigus |
| 3 | e-mail isn't working | c. Venus |
| 4 | gym socks are mildewing | d. Fornax |

See Appendix C for the answers.

- » Organizing for war like an ancient Roman
- » Working with 4th- and 5th-declension nouns
- » Using pronouns of all types

Chapter 7

The Roman Army

One of the most enduring images of ancient Rome is that of the red-crested soldier with metal plates encasing his torso, sword at his side, spear in his hand. The ancient Roman military has fascinated historians and military enthusiasts down through the centuries. And why not? The march of their hob-nailed boots brought conquest to countless nations from Britain to Egypt, from Spain to the Black Sea. Much of Western culture, based in large part on the culture of the Romans, exists primarily because it followed the dust of Rome's legions.

This chapter takes you inside the once mighty army of the Roman Empire to see some of its people, structures, and practices. We introduce you to 1st, 2nd, and 3rd declension nouns in Chapters 2 and 4, but in this chapter, you can get familiar with the 4th- and 5th-declension Latin nouns, not to mention all the pronouns. So snap a salute and say “**Ave, dux!**” — “*Hail, general!*”

You're in the Army Now

In his epic poem the *Aeneid*, the great Latin poet Vergil told of Aeneas, the Trojan hero, and Rome's beginnings. When Aeneas visited his father in the Underworld, the old man gave Aeneas a glimpse of the future and his famous descendants, who would become the renowned leaders of the Roman Empire. Then he added this admonition:

Tu regere imperio populos, Romane, memento

hae tibi erunt artes, pacisque imponere morem,

parcere subiectis et debellare superbos. (Vergil, *Aeneid*, Book VI, Lines 851–853)

Roman, remember, with power to rule over nations is your fate — These will

be your private arts — and to place on them habits of good will,

Sparing the vanquished and casting down arrogant souls while you wage war.

Rome didn't impose peace and civilization through haphazard fighting. Roman conquests came as a result of a professional, well-organized, and highly trained military force. For starters, you may want to take a look at the organizational structure of these famous warriors.

Exercising the right to fight

The Latin word for *army* is **exercitus**, **exercitus** (m), but this word is a derivative of the verb **exercere**, meaning *to train or exercise*. As you can see in the following sections, the two main divisions of this highly trained and skilled army were made up of the **pedes**, **peditis** (m; *foot soldier, infantryman*) and the **eques**, **equitis** (m; *horse soldier, cavalryman*).

Organizing a Roman legion

The strength of the Roman infantry rested with a unit called the **legio** (*legion*). An army could be made up of several **legiones**, which gave the Romans an advantage. Giving a commander a much greater range of strategies, a legion contained several smaller units that could be broken off and sent in different directions.

When battling a barbarian army that fought as one massed horde, the legion's structure proved deadly. Although a full **legio** supposedly contained 6,000 **milites** (*soldiers*), it often carried much smaller numbers. The legions in Julius Caesar's army, for example, numbered approximately 3,600 men each. The following list shows the divisions and enrollments for a legion at full strength.

- » **legio, legionis**, f (*legion*): 6,000 **milites**
- » **cohors, cohortis**, f (*cohort*): 600 **milites**
- » **manipulus, manipuli**, m (*maniple*): 200 **milites**
- » **centuria, centuriae**, f (*century*): 100 **milites**

THEY WORK HARD FOR THEIR MONEY

In ancient Rome, before a system of money was invented, soldiers were initially paid in salt. They could use their salt as barter and exchange it for meat and other goods that they wanted. The Latin word for *salt* is **sal**, and from this early custom of paying soldiers with lumps of salt comes our modern word *salary*.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

Over time, the words **legio** in Latin and *legion* in English have come to indicate a large number of anything. According to the *Vulgate Bible (Biblia Vulgata)*, when Jesus asked a possessed man what his name was, the man replied,

Legio mihi nomen est, quia multi sumus. (*Biblia Vulgata*, Marcum 5:9)

My name is Legion, because we are many.

Calling out the cavalry

In addition to well-trained foot soldiers, the Romans also had a highly effective **equitatus, equitatus** (m; *cavalry*). The Roman cavalry was made up of the following divisions:

» **ala, alae**, f (*wing*): 300 to 400 **equites**

The term **ala** (“wing”) for the main unit of the cavalry shows its place in battle. The cavalry usually formed on the right and left wings of the main body of infantry.

» **turma, turmae**, f (*squadron*): 30 to 40 **equites**

» **decuria, decuriae**, f (*division*): 10 **equites**



CULTURAL
WISDOM

Originally, the term **equites** was used solely to describe cavalymen in the army. However, because only the rich could afford their own horses, **equites** eventually came to apply to the wealthy business class of Rome as a whole.

Fighting alongside foreigners

In addition to the two main divisions of the **exercitus** (*army*) — the foot soldiers and the cavalry — Roman armies used a number of other types of fighters. Many of these were foreigners whom the Romans employed because of their skill with a certain type of weaponry. The Romans didn’t put their main trust in these fighters, though, because they saw the foreigners’ tactics as somehow un-Roman. (Hey, whatever gets the job done.) Noncombatants also performed other functions

that were useful to the operation of an army camp. Here are some common non-combatants who worked in a Roman army camp:

- » **calo, calonis**, m (*aide-de-camp*)
- » **sagittarius, sagittarii**, m (*archer*)
- » **speculator, speculatoris**, m (*spy*)
- » **explorator, exploratoris**, m (*scout*)
- » **funditor, funditoris**, m (*slinger*)
- » **mulio, muliones**, m (*mule driver*)
- » **mercator, mercatoris**, m (*trader*)
- » **faber, fabri**, m (*engineer*)

Saluting men of rank

In describing Queen Dido's heroic rescue of her people from tyranny in his epic poem the *Aeneid*, Vergil says of her,

Dux femina facti. (Vergil, *Aeneid*, Book I, Line 364)

The leader of this act was a woman.

Not even the skillfully trained Roman army could function without leaders, including the one best known in modern times, the **centurion**. The following list shows the basic chain of command from highest to lowest rank in the **exercitus**:

TAKE THIS!

Sometimes archaeologists make interesting discoveries. Take, for example, the skull of a Roman enemy that had indentations across the forehead. The clue to deciphering these marks was found on a small stone, the kind of stone that a **funditor** (*slinger*) would use. In raised letters on the stone were the words **CAPE HOC**, which in Latin means *Take this!*

Other products of the Roman army didn't have to await excavation to come to modern attention. The **fabri** (*engineers*) built much of the Roman road system that extended throughout the Empire, which you can still see today. In fact, the Romans surfaced enough roads to encircle the entire globe twice.

- » **imperator, imperatoris**, m (*general of an army after his first victory*)
- » **dux, ducis**, m (*general of an army*)
- » **legatus, legati**, m (*commander of a legion*)
- » **centurio, centurionis**, m (*commander of a century*)
 - A **century** was a military unit of 100 soldiers.
- » **miles, militis**, m (*soldier*)

The Roman army did have two other easily distinguished and important positions: the **signifer, signiferi** (m; *standard bearer for the maniple*) and the **aquilifer, aquiliferi** (m; *the standard bearer for the legion*). Each man carried into battle a tall pole that displayed symbols to identify his maniple or legion. A soldier could always tell whether it was a **signifer** or an **aquilifer** marching ahead of him by what that person was carrying:

- » The standard that the **signifer** carried bore the image of a hand, which was appropriate if you consider that **manus, manus** (f; *hand*) is the root of the word **manipulus**, the Latin word for *maniple*.
- » A golden eagle stood on the top of the standard that an **aquilifer** carried. The word for *eagle* is **aquila, aquilae** (f).



With the use of standard bearers, the commanders could easily change troop movement. If you were the general, you would simply tell one of your standard bearers to go to a different part of the battle, and his men would follow him. For this reason, soldiers knew to protect their standard bearer at all costs, and a story about the **aquilifer** in Julius Caesar's famed 10th Legion bears this out. The Roman troops had sailed to Britain, but they were too scared to disembark because the water was so deep. The **aquilifer** shouted, "Jump down, soldiers, unless you want to surrender this eagle to the enemy! At least I will have done my duty for the republic and my general!" After saying that, he jumped from the ship and waded toward the shore. The soldiers of the 10th Legion weren't about to let anything happen to their **aquilifer**, so they quickly followed, and when the other troops saw them acting so boldly, they disembarked, as well.

The tools of the trade: Arma and tela

Vergil opens his war epic the *Aeneid* with the words

Arma virumque cano. (Vergil, *Aeneid*, Book I, Line 1)

I sing of arms and a man.

And when it comes to battle, you really can't have one without the other. Caesar is famous for observing that all of Gaul was divided into three parts, and the same can be said of the Roman army. Its successes over most of the known world stemmed from the superior training, organization, and weaponry of the Roman army. The following list gives you a rundown of the weapons that the Romans used:

- » **arma, armorum**, n (*weapons*, including armor)
- » **telum, teli**, n (*weapon*)
- » **pilum, pili**, n (*spear*)
- » **hasta, hastae**, f (*javelin* — smaller and lighter than the **pilum**)
- » **gladius, gladii**, m (*sword*)
- » **pugio, pugionis**, m (*dagger*)
- » **scutum, scuti**, n (*shield*)
- » **galea, galeae**, f (*helmet*)
- » **lorica, loricae**, f (*breastplate*)
- » **tunica, tunicae**, f (*tunic*)
- » **caligae, caligarum**, f (*boots*)



CULTURAL
WISDOM

Whether you were right-handed or left-handed, all Roman soldiers wielded their swords in their right hands. But on which side you wore your sword depended on your rank. Only those with the rank of centurion or higher carried their blade on the left. For the rank-and-file soldier, the **gladius** hung at his right side.

DROP AND GIVE ME 20!

Discipline in the Roman army was notoriously strict. When Caesar's Uncle Marius made reforms requiring the soldiers to carry their own equipment, which weighed around 70 pounds, the soldiers earned the nickname Marius's Mules. If an individual soldier got out of line, his **centurio** quickly disciplined him. You could identify the **centurio** by the vine staff that he carried to deliver quick punishments.

A more serious punishment was **decimatio** (*decimation*), the execution of every tenth man in the legion. A legion earned this punishment for a major military offense, such as when a legion deserted a battle.

Most pieces of weaponry had both an offensive and defensive function. For example, a **pilum** was a heavy-shafted spear with a narrow neck made of lead. When the spear pierced an enemy's shield (or an enemy himself), the weight of the shaft bent the lead neck, making it useless to throw back at the Romans. The **scutum** was rimmed in bronze and bore a large, bronze hemisphere called an **umbo** (*boss*) in the middle. Besides protecting nearly the whole body of a soldier, the **scutum** could be rammed into an enemy's stomach, slammed down on his foot, or thrust upward to crush his jaw. Several soldiers could also band together, holding their **scuta** above them and to their sides, making an impenetrable shell called a **testudo**, which was perfect for advancing on a heavily defended, walled city.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

The third emperor of Rome was a man named Gaius Julius Caesar Germanicus. As a little boy, he used to hang around the army camp of his father, the general Germanicus. The boy wore a small army uniform complete with imitations of his daddy's big **caligae** (*boots*). The soldiers thought it was cute and gave him the nickname *Little Boots*. That's how one of the most cruel and perverse emperors of Rome came to be known as **Caligula**.

4th- and 5th-Declension Nouns

The word for *army* is **exercitus, exercitus** (m), which at first glance may look like a 2nd-declension noun, but it isn't. (Chapters 2 and 4 tell you all about the 1st through 3rd declensions.) Because you use the genitive singular (the second dictionary form) of a noun to discover its declension, you know that **exercitus** isn't a 2nd-declension noun. The genitive singular ending of a 2nd-declension noun is **-i**. The genitive singular for *army*, **exercitus**, obviously ends with **-us**. So welcome to the world of 4th- and 5th-declension nouns, the last two noun declensions in Latin.

Understanding 4th-declension nouns

Like 2nd- and 3rd-declension nouns (discussed in Chapters 2 and 4, respectively), nouns in the 4th declension use one set of endings for the masculine and feminine genders and another set for the neuter. (Don't understand grammatical gender? Head to Chapter 2 for a quick explanation.) Table 7-1 shows the endings for 4th-declension masculine and feminine nouns.

A good example of a 4th-declension masculine noun is **exercitus, exercitus** (m; *army*), the word that seems to be marching through this chapter. You can tell that **exercitus** is a 4th-declension noun because of the genitive singular form ending in **-us**. Using **exercitus** as an example, Table 7-2 shows you how to decline 4th-declension masculine (and feminine) nouns.

TABLE 7-1**4th-Declension Masculine/Feminine Endings**

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-us	-us
Genitive	-us	-uum
Dative	-ui	-ibus
Accusative	-um	-us
Ablative	-u	-ibus
Vocative	-us	-us

TABLE 7-2**Declining a 4th-Declension Masculine Noun**

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	exercitus	exercitus
Genitive	exercitus	exercituum
Dative	exercitui	exercitibus
Accusative	exercitum	exercitus
Ablative	exercitu	exercitibus
Vocative	exercitus	exercitus

The neuter endings in the 4th declension are similar to the masculine/feminine endings. Table 7-3 lists them.

TABLE 7-3**4th-Declension Neuter Endings**

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-u	-ua
Genitive	-us	-uum
Dative	-u	-ibus
Accusative	-u	-ua
Ablative	-u	-ibus
Vocative	-u	-ua

A word that can call your attention to 4th-declension neuter nouns is **cornu, cornus** (n), which means *horn*. A **cornicen** (*horn-blower*) would sound a horn to draw an army to attention. Using **cornu** as an example, Table 7-4 shows you how to decline a 4th-declension neuter noun.

TABLE 7-4

Declining a 4th-Declension Neuter Noun

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	cornu	cornua
Genitive	cornus	cornuum
Dative	cornu	cornibus
Accusative	cornu	cornua
Ablative	cornu	cornu
Vocative	cornu	cornua

Clearly, the main vowel in the 4th declension is **-u**; with neuter nouns, the **-u** is actually used in five separate cases. To tell which case is being used in a particular sentence, use context clues. Take a look at this example:

Ut milites convenirent, cornicen cornu inflavit.

So that the soldiers might assemble, the horn-blower sounded the horn.

JUST TELL ME WHERE TO STAND

The typical arrangement for a Roman line of battle was actually the **triplex acies** (*triple battle line*). As the name implies, three lines of soldiers stretched across the field of combat, one in front of the other. The more inexperienced soldiers formed the front line, the main corps of the army stood in the middle, and the veterans — **triarii** (*third liners*) held the back. To say that a matter had gone **ad triarios** (*to the third liners*) became proverbial for a critical situation.

The other common arrangement for soldiers was the **agmen, agminis** (n), which was the column formation used for marching.

Understanding 5th-declension nouns

Like in the 1st declension (which we talk about in Chapter 2), no 5th-declension nouns have a neuter gender, and masculine and feminine nouns share the same set of endings (shown in Table 7-5).

TABLE 7-5

5th-Declension Masculine/Feminine Endings

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	-es	-es
Genitive	-ei	-erum
Dative	-ei	-ebus
Accusative	-em	-es
Ablative	-e	-ebus
Vocative	-es	-es

A typical field of battle saw the Roman army drawn up in a long *battle line* called **acies, aciei** (f). The genitive singular ending of **-ei** shows this word to be a 5th-declension noun. Table 7-6 shows how to decline a 5th-declension noun, using **acies, aciei** as an example.

TABLE 7-6

Declining a 5th-Declension Noun

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	acies	acies
Genitive	aciei	acierum
Dative	aciei	aciebus
Accusative	aciem	acies
Ablative	acie	aciebus
Vocative	acies	acies

Proceeding with Pronouns

Pronouns are those little words in English and Latin that stand in the place of and rename nouns. Although they're often tiny words, pronouns are some of the most important words in the language, and the following sections introduce you to the most common ones.

I, I, I! — using personal pronouns

The personal pronouns in Latin are the words for *I*, *you*, *we*, and *us*. Tables 7-7 and 7-8 list them. (For those of you who may not remember what *person* means in the context of pronouns, 1st-person pronouns are *I* and *me* for the singular and *we* and *us* for the plural. The 2nd-person pronoun is *you*, which can be singular or plural.)

TABLE 7-7

1st-Person Pronouns

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	ego	nos
Genitive	mei	nostrum
Dative	mihi	nobis
Accusative	me	nos
Ablative	me	nobis

TABLE 7-8

2nd-Person Pronouns

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	tu	vos
Genitive	tui	vestrum
Dative	tibi	vobis
Accusative	te	vos
Ablative	te	vobis



REMEMBER

If you're wondering where the 3rd-person pronoun is, Latin doesn't have one. Instead, it uses the demonstrative pronoun **is**, **ea**, **id**, which you can read about in the following section.

The personal endings of Latin verbs show who is doing the action, so you may think Latin has no need for separate personal pronouns. Having these words in your vocabulary, however, allows you to put more emphasis on a verb. It's like shouting, only silently and on paper. This example can help you sort it out:

Pacem amo, sed bellum amas.

Ego pacem amo, sed tu bellum amas.

Although both sentences look the same in translation — *I like peace, but you like war* — the first sentence simply notes a difference of opinion. The second sentence makes the contrast between the two people more noticeable by adding **ego** (*I*) and **tu** (*you*), emphasizing that, of the two of us, I am the one who likes peace, but you are the one who likes war.

This or that? Demonstrative pronouns

Demonstrative pronouns are pronouns that *demonstrate* (point out) a particular thing. Instead of identifying *a* table, for example, you identify *this* table. In addition to *this*, the other demonstrative pronouns in English are *these*, *that*, and *those*. (Just in case high school English let you down, remember that *this* and *that* refer to singular nouns, and *these* and *those* refer to plural nouns.)

In Latin, these pronouns look like adjectives because they show gender: masculine, feminine, and neuter. What gender they use depends on the noun they point to. A masculine noun, for example, takes a masculine pronoun. In this way, Latin can say with specificity something like, *this boy*, *this girl*, or *this rock*. Tables 7-9 and 7-10 show how the demonstrative pronouns appear in the various genders.

TABLE 7-9

Hic, Haec, Hoc — This and These

Case	Singular (m, f, n)	Plural (m, f, n)
Nominative	hic, haec, hoc	hi, hae, haec
Genitive	huius, huius, huius	horum, harum, horum
Dative	huic, huic, huic	his, his, his
Accusative	hunc, hanc, hoc	hos, has, haec
Ablative	hoc, hac, hoc	his, his, his

TABLE 7-10

Ille, Illa, Illud — That and Those

Case	Singular (m, f, n)	Plural (m, f, n)
Nominative	ille, illa, illud	illi, illae, illa
Genitive	illius, illius, illius	illorum, illarum, illorum
Dative	illi, illi, illi	illis, illis, illis
Accusative	illum, illam, illud	illos, illas, illa
Ablative	illo, illa, illo	illis, illis, illis

Latin usually uses forms of **hic** (*this*) for nouns that are closer to the speaker, and **ille** (*that*) for nouns that are farther away. Because these words have gender, they can also mean *he, she, it, and they* when they stand alone and don't modify any particular noun. Consider this example:

Milites in castris parant. Hi tela acuunt, illi cibum parant, et hic litteras scribit.

The soldiers are getting ready in the camp. These sharpen their weapons, those prepare food, and he is writing a letter.

From the use of the pronouns, you can tell that the soldiers sharpening weapons and the one guy writing a letter are closer to the speaker than those who are getting food ready.

One other demonstrative pronoun, **is** (see Table 7-11), can have all the meanings of **hic** and **ille**: *this, these, that, those, he, she, it, and they*. Because it's not as strong a demonstrative, this word can also be a 3rd-person personal pronoun. Here's a good way to keep it all straight. **Hi pueri** are *these boys right here*, **illi pueri** are *those boys over there* at the end of the corridor, and **ei pueri** are *the boys we saw playing truant*.

TABLE 7-11

Is, Ea, Id — This, These, That, and Those

Case	Singular (m, f, n)	Plural (m, f, n)
Nominative	is, ea, id	ei, eae, ea
Genitive	eius, eius, eius	eorum, earum, eorum
Dative	ei, ei, ei	eis, eis, eis
Accusative	eum, eam, id	eos, eas, ea
Ablative	eo, ea, eo	eis, eis, eis

Who's who? Relative pronouns

In English, the relative pronouns are *who*, *whom*, *whose*, *which*, and *that*. Table 7-12 shows you the Latin versions.

TABLE 7-12

Relative Pronouns

Case	Singular (m, f, n)	Plural (m, f, n)
Nominative	qui, quae, quod	qui, quae, quae
Genitive	cuius, cuius, cuius	quorum, quarum, quorum
Dative	cui, cui, cui	quibus, quibus, quibus
Accusative	quem, quam, quod	quos, quas, quae
Ablative	quo, qua, quo	quibus, quibus, quibus



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

The word *who* refers only to people and can only be the subject of a clause. In other words, you can use it to translate any nominative case form. *Whom* also indicates people only, but it's an object form in English; thus, you can use it to translate any case but nominative. *Whose* shows possession for people or things, and therefore you can use it to translate only Latin pronouns in the genitive case. Traditionally, *which* referred only to things and *that* to people or things, but this distinction has almost disappeared from English. No matter how you slice it, though, you can use both of these words as translation for any of the five Latin cases.

A relative pronoun takes its gender (masculine/feminine/neuter) and number (singular/plural) from its antecedent (the noun it renames) but gets its case (nominative, genitive, and so on) from how it's used in its own clause. Consider the following sentence:

The general whom we loved earned the title "Imperator."

The word *whom* renames *general*, so in Latin you need a masculine singular pronoun because *general* is masculine and singular. In the clause *whom we loved*, the word *whom* functions as a direct object, so it must be in the accusative case, even though the word it renames (*general*) is in the nominative case as the subject of the sentence. The complete Latin sentence looks like this:

Dux quem amavimus nomen "impatorem" meruit.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

The word *antecedent* is itself a derivative from the Latin words **ante** (*before*) and **cedere** (*to go*). In English grammar, the *antecedent* is the word that goes before a pronoun.

Talkin' the Talk



A **mater** (*mother*) and her **filius** (*son*) discuss the Roman general Pompey. (Notice the different pronouns used in this conversation.)

Mater: **Fili, mihi librum fer.**

Son, bring me the book.

Filius: **Cupisne hunc librum de Caesare?**

Do you want this book about Caesar?

Mater: **Minime. Illum in mensa legebam.**

No. I was reading that one on the table.

Filius: **Magister meus de Pompeio docuit, qui erat dux magnus.**

My teacher taught about Pompey, who was a great general.

Mater: **Sine dubio. Et tu es eius consanguineus.**

Without a doubt. And you are his relative.

Filius: **Fortasse ego exercitum ducam.**

Perhaps I shall lead an army.

Mater: **Fortasse, sed primum mihi illum librum fer!**

Perhaps, but first bring me that book!

WORDS TO KNOW

dubium, dubii, n	doubt
fortasse	perhaps
lego, legere, legi, lectus	to read
liber, libri, m	book
magister, magistri, m	teacher
mensa, mensae, f	table
mereo, merere, merui, meritus	to earn
nomen, nominis, n	name
scribo, scribere, scripsi, scriptus	to write

FUN & GAMES

If you're a soldier, you need to know who to gripe to when things go wrong. Pick the person most likely to solve your problem in the following situations:

- 1 A horse did its business right outside your tent.
A. eques B. dux C. funditor D. cornicen

- 2 You need an arrow to go hunt your dinner.
A. explorator B. imperator C. sagittarius D. miles

- 3 You had trouble seeing the eagle standard during the battle.
A. centurio B. aquilifer C. signifer D. faber

- 4 You want secret information about the king in the town you just sacked.
A. legatus B. triarius C. mercator D. speculator

See Appendix C for the answers.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- » Understanding the games that Romans played
- » Finding the good, the better, and the best
- » Appreciating Roman drama (and comedy)

Chapter 8

Roman Entertainment and Sports

For some people, entertainment means going to a movie, taking in a play, or enjoying a concert. Others prefer something a bit more high-energy, such as watching sports or writing a Latin book. Most cultures across the world and throughout history have had various forms of entertainment. The flourishing of arts and athletics is a sign of civilization. After all, having time to engage in these pastimes means that your culture has tamed the elements, and you don't have to spend all your time finding food (or running from something that wants to eat you).

A great example of this is how the epic poet Vergil describes what his main character Aeneas sees as he observes the building of the city of Carthage. In Book 1 of the *Aeneid*, the main character, Aeneas, stands on a hill overlooking the city. Vergil paints a word picture of what Aeneas sees in the sequence of how an ancient city would have developed. First, he notices the building of walls and roads. Next, he sees the building of harbors for travel and trade, and finally, his eyes come to rest on the building of a theater.

As one of the first great multicultural societies, the Roman Empire understood something about entertainment. From cathartic tragedies to bawdy comedies to the sands of the arena, the Romans knew how to put on a good show.

Let the Games Begin!

Juvenal was a first century CE Roman satirist who enjoyed poking fun at his own society. He observed that his countrymen had become content with two things: **panem et circenses** (Juvenal, *Saturae*, Book X, Line 78; *bread and circuses*). By Juvenal's day, athletic contests had become a favorite means of escape from the realities of life, but in the beginning, they had another purpose.

Sacred games

Organized athletic competitions had their origins in funerals, particularly of those who died in battle. These competitions were a way to honor the dead with activities taken from the lives they had just left. Many of the contests involved skills necessary in war. For example, in Book 5 of the *Aeneid*, the hero Aeneas holds funeral games that include a boat race, a footrace, javelin throwing, and boxing. Glory itself was the main prize in such games, and the visible award was a simple **palma** (*palm wreath*).

These **ludi** (*games*) became a part of various religious celebrations and connected to different holidays; eventually, the Romans celebrated more than 40 varieties of games throughout the year.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

Athletic competition for its own sake was more of a Greek concept than a Roman one. Although the Romans occasionally engaged in Olympic-style contests, the concept of fun for fun's sake — at least in sporting events — never really caught on with most Romans. For athletic entertainment, the gladiatorial shows were by far the most popular. (We dive into all things gladiator in the following section.)

Not for the squeamish: Gladiatorial games

The word **gladiator** literally means *one who uses a sword*. **Gladius**, **gladii** (m) is the word for *sword*. But Roman gladiators were much more than just sword fighters, and gladiatorial games were much more than just two men fighting to the death.

One on one

Of course, the sport did include that whole fighting-to-the-death thing, so perhaps that's the place to begin. A **gladiator** was a trained killer. Whether a prisoner of war, a condemned criminal, a slave, or a freeman who had sworn the **auctoramentum gladiatorium** (*gladiator's oath*), these men were sent to training schools run by a **lanista** (*trainer*). In these schools, they received instruction in how to fight with a variety of weapons.

Knowing how to kill was important, but they also had to know how to put on a good show. Fighting in the **amphitheatrum** (*amphitheater*), which was almost identical in construction to the modern stadium, they had to put on a killing display for as many as 50,000 people.

The following list shows some of the basic types of gladiators and what distinguished one from another:

- » **murmillo, murmillonis**, m: Heavily armored with an oblong shield, a short sword, and a full-face protection, these warriors could also be recognized by a crest on their helmets in the shape of a fish.
- » **retiarius, retiarium**, m: The **retiarius** had minimal armor and fought with a **fuscina** (*trident*) and **rete** (*net*).
- » **Thrax, Thracis**, m: You could spot a **Thrax** (*Thracian*) from his small, round shield and curved scimitar. These weapons were also symbols of his homeland, Thrace.
- » **Samnis, Samnitis**, m: Like the **murmillo**, the **Samnis** (*Samnite*) was a heavily armored warrior, fighting with a short sword and helmet with a visor. His name indicated he was from Samnium, a region in central Italy.

Unlike modern boxing, where opponents of similar weights fight each other, gladiatorial contests often featured mismatched pairs. A lightly armed **retiarius**, for example, might go up against a heavily armed **murmillo**. Part of the excitement came from seeing whether speed or brute strength would win the day.

The Noah's Ark of entertainment

In addition to men fighting each other, the Romans also liked to watch a **venatio** — a *staged hunt*. Although people might think of martyrs being fed to the lions (which did in fact occur), a proper **venatio** involved **bestiarii** (*beast hunters*) tracking and killing wild animals in the arena.

THUMBS UP OR DOWN?

If you've seen enough "sword and sandal" movies, you know that a winning gladiator didn't immediately kill the defeated opponent. He waited for a signal from the emperor, who based his decision on the will of the crowd. If the crowd liked the fallen gladiator, they might cheer for him to be spared so they could see him fight another day.

So, what was the signal? According to Hollywood and modern convention, thumbs up indicated life, and thumbs down meant death. The phrase used in Latin is **pollice verso**, which literally means *with thumb turned*. No one knows which direction was really used to indicate life or death. Many think that thumbs up or pointing toward the heart meant death, and thumbs down (pointing toward the sand) meant to throw the weapon away and let your opponent live.

Imitation hunting areas were set up to add realism, and part of the thrill was in seeing exotic animals. (Zoos hadn't been invented yet.) These hunts became so popular that when the Flavian Amphitheatre (better known as the Colosseum) was dedicated in 80 CE under the Emperor Titus Flavius Vespasianus, 9,000 animals, both tame and wild, were slaughtered.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

The Flavian Amphitheater became known as the Colosseum because of its proximity to a giant statue of the Emperor Nero called **Colossus** (*giant statue*), which was itself named for one of the so-called Seven Wonders of the Ancient World, the Colossus at Rhodes. In the Colosseum, the Romans also held *mock naval battles* called **naumachiae**. The entire floor was flooded, and gladiators fought it out from ships that sailed around the arena. Julius Caesar first gave such a display to the Romans, but that was in 46 BCE, nearly 90 years before the Colosseum was completed. For his **naumachiae**, he used an artificial lake just outside the city.

Free at last

In the modern world, a popular athlete signs a contract for millions of dollars. In ancient Rome, the superstar gladiator simply survived. And if you lived through enough contests, you could win your freedom. A gladiator's symbol of freedom was a wooden sword, the **rudis**, which meant that he no longer had to fight. Knowing how to do little else, however, some returned to the training schools as **lanistae**, and others became bodyguards for the rich and famous.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

The government provided the gladiatorial games, but up-and-coming politicians would sometimes add their own money to make the games even more spectacular. They did this to plant themselves firmly in the minds of voters.

I THOUGHT THIS WAS PG-13

The bloodlust inherent in the gladiatorial games was unavoidable. Although the crowd may have rewarded a good fight by allowing the loser to live, the whole object of this sport was death. In fact, any modern sports facility called an arena takes its name from the Latin **arena, arenae** (f), the word for *sand*, which covered the floor where gladiators fought; its purpose wasn't to cushion the falls; it was to soak up the blood. In an effort to make gladiatorial games a bit more family-friendly, women and children had to sit in the highest seats so that they would be farther away from the actual killing.

And if you think modern soccer matches can get out of hand, consider this: In 59 CE, the citizens of Nuceria went to the games at Pompeii. Violence got so out of hand among the spectators that the Emperor Nero, himself no candidate for a Nobel Peace Prize, banned games in Pompeii for ten years.

Round and round we go: Chariot racing

The Roman chariot race, another ancient form of athletic entertainment, has been immortalized in such films as *Ben-Hur*. **Circenses**, which is the Latin term for these races, took place on an oval track called a **circus**, with the Circus Maximus in Rome being the largest racetrack, holding around 250,000 spectators. A **spina** (*spine*) ran down the middle, and a typical race consisted of anywhere from 4 to 12 chariots running for seven laps, which were marked by turning a series of egg and dolphin emblems on a pole.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

The egg symbol was sacred to the mythological twins Castor and Pollux (who were supposedly placed in the heavens as the constellation Gemini by Zeus), and the dolphin was connected with Neptune. The Romans associated all three of them with horses.

The **factiones** (*teams*) raced under different colors, and people were fiercely loyal to their favorites. Betting was a major part of this sport, and one way to show your dislike of the emperor was to bet against his favorite color. Originally, chariot races had two **factiones**, the **russae** (*reds*) and the **albae** (*whites*). Over time, the **prasinae** (*greens*) and the **venetae** (*blues*) joined the field, and for a brief period, the **purpureae** (*purples*) and the **auratae** (*golds*) participated.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

TAKIN' A BATH

Believe it or not, going to the **thermae** (*public baths*) was another form of entertainment. Bathing may sound like a chore to you, but in ancient Rome, it was quite a treat. The **thermae** were like modern day athletic clubs. You could go to work out, talk business or politics, or even read. The **thermae**, built by the Emperor Caracalla (212–217 CE), had a Greek library on one end and a Latin library on the other. The baths were one place where upper- and lower-classes mingled because the price for admittance was pretty cheap: just a **quadrans**, which equaled a fourth of an **as** (the **as** being just an ounce of bronze).

Typical **thermae** had an **apodyterium** (*changing room*), **palaestra** (*exercise ground*), and then a series of rooms for cleaning, steaming, and cooling down: the **tepidarium** (*warm room*), the **caldarium** (*hot room*), and the **frigidarium** (*cold room*).

Because the cheap price of admittance to the baths was well known, this could turn into a cheap insult, as well. In his speech **Pro Caelio** (*In Defense of Caelius*), Cicero takes a jab at one of his political rivals, Clodius, by insulting his sister Clodia. He refers to her as **mulier potens quadrantaria** (*a powerful woman for a quadrans*), simultaneously acknowledging her patrician status and her reputation as someone whose affections could be had inexpensively.

Talkin' the Talk



Titus and Marcus are sitting in the **thermae** (*public baths*), discussing their further entertainment options.

Titus: **Gladiator Eudamus in amphitheatro pugnabit. Eumne vides?**

The gladiator Eudamus will fight in the amphitheater. Do you want to see him?

Marcus: **Eudamus est murmillio optimus, sed retiarios malo.**

Eudamus is the best murmillio, but I prefer retiarii.

Titus: **Tum circenses spectemus. Venetae equos celerrimos habent.**

Then let's watch the chariot races. The blues have the fastest horses.

Marcus: **Venetas non amo, et ubi circenses spectavi, lutum me semper spargebat.**

I do not like the blues, and whenever I have watched chariot races, mud always splattered me.

Titus: **Tum quid agere vis?**

Then what do you want to do?

Marcus: **In bibliothecam Graecam intrantes amicos nostros vidi. Libros legamus!**

I saw our friends entering the Greek library. Let's read some books!

.....



Spartacus is the most famous gladiator from the ancient world because he led a nearly successful rebellion of slaves against the Romans. Although his story was famous enough to make it into a movie (see Chapter 6), most gladiators remain unknown to us. Eudamus (mentioned in the section “Talkin’ the Talk,” in this chapter) was a real gladiator. You can find him mentioned in an account by Asconius of a murder that took place on the Appian Way. Two men passed each other, each with their entourage that included bodyguards. Eudamus and another ex-gladiator named Birria, acting as bodyguards for one of the men, started a skirmish with those in the other group. Before long, weapons were drawn, and the tribune Publius Clodius Pulcher lay dead in the street.

WORDS TO KNOW

amphitheatrum, amphitheatri, n	amphitheater
arena, arenae, f	sand, arena
circus, circi, m	race course
gladiator, gladiatoris, m	gladiator
gladius, gladii, m	sword
intro, intrare, intravi, intratus	to enter
panis, panis, m	bread
pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum	beautiful, handsome
spargo, spargere, sparsi	to sprinkle
sparsus	splatter
verto, vertere, verti, versus	to turn

Good, Better, Best: Never Let It Rest!

“Good, better, best — never let it rest ’til your good is better, and your better, best!” This children’s rhyme teaches the correct forms of these adjectives. What this little ditty is really getting at is something called the comparison of adjectives. The simplest form of an adjective is one that has been *placed* (**positus**) next to a word to give the most basic information about that word. This form is the *positive degree*. Words such as good, bad, pretty, ugly, and sesquipedalian are all positive-degree adjectives. (To read more about adjectives, check out Chapter 4.) To indicate something is better (or best), worse (or worst), prettier (or prettiest), and so on, you use the comparative and superlative degrees (explained in the following sections).

Comparative-degree adjectives (-er)

Pretend that you’re sitting with your friend in the Colosseum and you see a gladiator. “So what?” says your friend. “There are plenty of gladiators.” Not to be put off, you add a positive-degree adjective, and say that you see a *tall* gladiator. But this doesn’t really help your friend identify which gladiator has caught your eye, so you try again. “I see a gladiator taller than you.” Because your friend is a six footer, this is useful information. You made a comparison using a *comparative-degree* adjective.

In English, comparative adjectives usually end in **-er** or use an adverb, such as *more*. In Latin, comparative-degree adjectives have **ior** somewhere in the word or have **-ius** on the end. Here are a couple of other things you need to know about comparative-degree adjectives in Latin. They always use

» 3rd-declension endings

See Chapter 4 for a chart of these endings by themselves.

» One set of suffixes for masculine and feminine forms and another set of endings for neuter

For a rather lofty example, consider the positive-degree adjective **altus**, **alta**, **altum** (*tall*). Tables 8-1 and 8-2 show its comparative forms.

Usually, when you compare two nouns, you want to finish the comparison with an expression that uses the word *than*. Someone is faster, prettier, or smarter *than* someone else. In Latin, you have two ways to express this comparison. You can use the word **quam** (*than*, when it follows a comparative adjective), or you can put the noun with which you’re making the comparison in the ablative case without inserting **quam**. In a use known as the *ablative of comparison*, you simply translate an ablative that follows a comparative adjective with the word *than*. Take a look at these examples:

TABLE 8-1

Masculine/Feminine Comparative-Degree Adjectives

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	altior	altiores
Genitive	altioris	altiorum
Dative	altiori	altioribus
Accusative	altiorem	altiores
Ablative	altiore	altioribus

TABLE 8-2

Neuter Comparative-Degree Adjectives

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	altius	altiora
Genitive	altioris	altiorum
Dative	altiori	altioribus
Accusative	altius	altiora
Ablative	altiore	altioribus

Hic auriga est celerior quam ille.

Hic auriga est celerior illo.

Both of these sentences say the same thing: *This charioteer is faster than that one.*



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

One other use of the ablative case, called *the ablative of degree of difference*, often goes with a comparative-degree adjective. To emphasize how different the items being compared are, just throw in a quantity word, such as *much*, *little*, and so on, in the ablative case:

Pugil est multo fortior solus quam cum adversario.

The boxer is much braver alone than with an opponent.

Superlative-degree adjectives (-est)

The comparative-degree adjective, explained in the preceding section, relates one noun to another, giving more information than a simple positive-degree adjective (which we talk about in the section “Good, Better, Best: Never Let It Rest!” earlier in this chapter). If you want to identify something without a shade of doubt,

however, you need the superlative degree. In English, these forms use the suffix *-est* or get help from the word *most*, and they describe a unique noun. To say that someone is the tallest athlete is technically to say that no taller athlete exists anywhere in the world.

Superlative-degree adjectives are easy to recognize in Latin. They all have a double consonant in the middle. Here are other things to know about superlative-degree adjectives:

- » Most adjectives use the suffix **-issimus**. The superlative of **altus**, for example, is **altissimus** (*tallest*).
- » Adjectives that have **-er** for their masculine form use **-rimus** for the superlative. The superlative of **celer** (*fast*) is **celerrimus** (*fastest*).
- » A few adjectives with **-lis** on the masculine form use **-limus** in the superlative degree. For example, the word for *easy*, **facilis**, has **facillimus** (*easiest*) for its superlative form.

All superlative-degree adjectives use 1st-declension endings for the feminine gender and 2nd-declension endings for the masculine and neuter. To review those endings, head to Chapter 2.



The word **quam** also makes its way into phrases with superlative-degree adjectives. A phrase made up of **quam** plus a superlative translates to *as (whatever) as possible*.

Quam ferocissimus leo bestiarium oppugnavit.

As fierce a lion as possible attacked the beast-fighter.

Irregular comparisons

Children and people learning English as a second language often make the mistake of sticking *-er* or *-est* on every adjective when they want to show degree. The comparison forms of *good*, for example, end up being *gooder* and *goodest*, instead of *better* and *best*. Of course, this is just one of the many places where English doesn't follow its own rules; it has irregular forms instead.

Turns out that Latin has irregular comparative and superlative forms, too. Table 8-3 shows the three degrees for several important adjectives. (Just like Latin dictionaries do, this table shows the abbreviated feminine and neuter forms for the positive and superlative degrees. The first of the two comparative forms listed is the masculine/feminine form, and the other is the neuter.) This chart can be a big help, unless you really want to sound like a barbarian by saying **bonior** to mean *better*.

TABLE 8-3

Irregular Comparison of Adjectives

Positive Degree (m, f, n)	Comparative Degree (m/f, n)	Superlative Degree (m, f, n)
bonus, -a, -um (<i>good</i>)	melior, melius (<i>better</i>)	optimus, -a, -um (<i>best</i>)
malus, -a, -um (<i>bad</i>)	peior, peius (<i>worse</i>)	pessimus, -a, -um (<i>worst</i>)
superus, -a, -um (<i>high</i>)	superior, superius (<i>higher</i>)	summus, -a, -um (<i>highest</i>)
inferus, -a, -um (<i>low</i>)	inferior, inferius (<i>lower</i>)	imus, -a, -um (<i>lowest</i>)
magnus, -a, -um (<i>big</i>)	maior, maius (<i>bigger</i>)	maximus, -a, -um (<i>biggest</i>)
parvus, -a, -um (<i>small</i>)	minor, minus (<i>smaller</i>)	minimus, -a, -um (<i>smallest</i>)

Standing Room Only: Roman Plays

The Romans enjoyed plays, or **ludi scaenici** (*theatrical games*). Like with the athletic games (see the section “Let the Games Begin!” earlier in this chapter), these plays were usually performed in connection with a religious celebration. Unlike modern movies, which you can see at any time of the day or night, Roman plays happened much less often, partly because of their association with particular sacred celebrations and partly because of the elements. Most plays were performed in open-air buildings or auditoriums that were fitted out with temporary wooden stages. Without sound or lighting equipment, the cast needed Mother Nature’s cooperation. In fact, by the end of the first century BCE, Romans could enjoy a drama on only 55 days — little more than 15 percent of the year.

Long before the days of special effects, Roman drama relied primarily on the script and the actors’ performances to deliver the message. Here’s how they did it:

- » **The props:** The basic set in a Roman **theatrum** (*theater*) was a backdrop depicting a house with three doors. These doors represented various entrances to one house or to neighboring homes, but the majority of the play was acted out in front of this simple set. An exit off stage to the right indicated the direction to a town or market, and an exit left suggested the way to a harbor or the countryside.
- » **The actors:** Like Greek actors, the Romans wore **personae** (*masks*) when performing. Similar to the established appearance of one of the Three Stooges or either Laurel or Hardy, these masks helped audiences identify the stock characters in a Roman comedy. Comic actors also wore a **soccus** (*low-cut shoe*) to distinguish themselves from the tragic actors, who wore a **cothurnus** (*high boot*, also called a *buskin*).



CULTURAL
WISDOM

Except for **mimi** (*farces*, explained in the section “Laughing ‘til it hurts,” later in this chapter), which predated Roman comic plays, actors in ancient Rome were men. Unlike today’s big stars, who enjoy all sorts of perks and pleasures, actors back then were slaves or freedmen considered too low class even to vote. (For more information on **mimi**, see the section “Laughing ‘til it hurts.”)

A tragic story

In his *De Natura Deorum* (*About the Nature of the Gods*), Cicero quoted the tragedian Seneca’s alliteration-filled line

maior mihi moles, maius miscendumst malum (Book III, Chapter 26, Line 38)

I must stir up greater trouble, an even greater evil.

Sounds pretty ominous. (Can you spot the comparative-degree adjectives? If you can’t — or don’t know what comparative-degree adjectives are — head to the “Good, Better, Best: Never Let It Rest!” section, earlier in this chapter.)

Tragedy, as Cicero’s quotation shows, is drama on the dark side. On the really, really dark side. But if you want plenty of tragedy, you have to go to the Greeks, who wrote a whole slew of plays in which parents killed children (*Medea* by Euripides, for example); children killed parents (*Oedipus Rex* by Sophocles), and general mayhem and revenge plots abounded (*Antigone* by Sophocles and *Agamemnon* by Aeschylus).

Although the Romans had tragic playwrights, such as Livius Andronicus, who first adapted Greek tragedies for a Latin-speaking audience in 240 BCE, they just never really became popular. In fact, only a few Roman tragedians from the third century BCE are even known. No great Roman tragedian really took the stage until Seneca did in the reign of Nero during the first century CE, and several of his plays were retellings of the classical Greek tragedies, such as *Medea* and *Agamemnon*, for example.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

THAT’S GRATITUDE FOR YOU

In addition to writing Roman tragedies, Lucius Annaeus Seneca was a Stoic philosopher who served as a tutor to the infamous Emperor Nero. Despite Seneca’s best advice, Nero ended up murdering his relatives and allowing (or causing) half of Rome to burn. Seneca died of what at that time was practically considered a natural cause: suicide at the order of the emperor. **Vita artem imitatur!** (*Life imitates art!*)

According to Suetonius, author of *De vita Caesarum* (known in English as *The Lives of the Twelve Caesars*), the emperor himself was quite fond of performing. Nero would order that no one leave his performances, which — unfortunately for the audience — were so long that pregnant women gave birth and some men faked death just for an excuse to escape.

Laughing 'til it hurts

The Roman poet and satirist Horace once quipped

Quid rides? Mutato nomine fabula de te narratur. (Horace, *Satires*, Book I, Chapter 1, Lines 69–70)

What are you laughing at? With the name changed, the story is told about you.

True enough — and a good warning, perhaps — but that didn't stop the Romans from enjoying comedy, especially when the laughter came at someone else's expense.

In the second and third centuries BCE, comic playwrights Plautus and Terence set the stage for humor with their lively reworking of Greek originals. Although Terence won greater critical acclaim for his work (the intellectual elite liked him), most Romans preferred Plautus. Why? Because they wanted crude jokes and puns, and Plautus's plays obliged.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

Perhaps the Romans preferred broader, crude humor because they were used to a type of performance called **mimus** (*mime*). Unlike the white-faced, silent performers called mimes today, **mimi** in ancient Rome meant both short, off-color comic sketches performed by both men and women and the actors who performed in them. They featured, as did the plays of Plautus, stock characters in routine situations: husband and cheating wife, rich father and playboy son, and (a crowd-pleasing favorite) the tricky slave who manages to save the day by outwitting everyone.

Twenty-one plays from Plautus survive in one form or another today. Only six of Terence's survive.

Talkin' the Talk



A **femina** (*woman*) and **vir** (*man*) talk about going to the theater.

Vir: **Plautus comoediam iocosissimam scripsit.**

Plautus has written the funniest comedy.

Femina: **Estne iocosior illa Terenti?**

Is it funnier than that of Terence?

Vir: **Plautus est multo melior quam Terentius.**

Plautus is much better than Terence.

Femina: **Sed ioci eius sunt tam humiles, et servus dolosus semper vincit.**

But his jokes are so low class, and the tricky slave always wins.

Vir: **Et iuvenis puellam pulcherrimam semper invenit, sic ego te inveni.**

And the young man always finds the most beautiful girl, just as I found you.

Femina **(discedens) Tu es mendax peior, mi amice, et Plauto et Terentio!**

(departing) You are a worse liar, my friend, than both Plautus and Terence!

WORDS TO KNOW

celer, celeris, celere	fast
fabula, fabulae, f	story
facilis, facile	easy
ludus, ludi, m	game, play
oppugno, oppugnare, oppugnavi, oppugnatus	to attack
persona, personae, f	dramatic mask

FUN & GAMES

Can you complete each of these Latin sentences to show where you would go for each activity?

- 1 **Ludos gladiatorios _____ spectamus.**
A. **in theatro** B. **in amphitheatro** C. **in socco** D. **in circo**
- 2 **Factio russa equos celeriores habet quam prasina _____.**
A. **in Colosseo** B. **in arena** C. **in circo** D. **in ludo**
- 3 **Quadrantem habeo. Cupisne ire _____?**
A. **ad thermas** B. **ad theatrum** C. **ad lanistam** D. **ad circenses**

Draw a line connecting the correct adjective with the English sentence whose italicized word best defines it.

- | | | |
|---|---|----------------------|
| 4 | That gladiator is <i>taller</i> than the other one. | A. maior |
| 5 | He has the <i>biggest</i> shield in the world! | B. facillimus |
| 6 | Latin is <i>easier</i> than any other language. | C. altissimus |
| 7 | One chariot is <i>bigger</i> than the other. | D. facilior |
| 8 | This is the <i>tallest</i> arch I have ever seen. | E. altior |
| 9 | The <i>easiest</i> game is the one you're prepared for. | F. maximus |

See Appendix C for the answers.

- » Going from a kingdom to an empire
- » Dealing with verbs that don't act like verbs
- » Staying passive (in voice, anyway)

Chapter 9

Roman Government

Pax Romana (*The Roman Peace*): Although the world's deadliest army advanced this ideal, governments throughout the world have maintained the same ideal ever since. Many people think of emperors when they think of ancient Rome, and the Eternal City certainly had them during part of its history. But Rome's government and Roman politics were more varied than that. Rome enjoyed a democratic form of rule called a republic, which had written laws and elected officials. Many countries today base their governments on the model of the Roman Republic. Rome ruled its physical world for more than 1,200 years, but nearly three millennia after Romulus first founded the little city on the Tiber River (as the Roman legend goes), Rome's influence continues to spread across the globe.

This chapter introduces you to all three periods of ancient Roman history: the kingdom, the republic, and the empire. Along the way, you can find out about some of the most famous and influential Roman leaders, whose names have become synonymous with power and influence. You can also get a look at an important verb form called passive voice, as well as participles and gerunds.

Ruling the World

When the ancient Romans wanted to refer to the world, they said **orbis terrarum**, which literally means *circle of lands*. (Yes, the ancients knew the world was round long before Christopher Columbus went off on his adventures.) But the real world for the Romans was the Mediterranean world. Imagine a map. In your mind, draw

a line from England to Babylon (the ancient city located in the middle of Iraq), then draw another line from southern Spain to the Caspian Sea, and you have an idea of what the world really meant for the Romans. And right there almost in the middle of the X was Rome itself. Of course, even a mighty empire has to start somewhere.

HOMETOWN BOYS

Tullus Hostilius waged a battle in which the Romans conquered the hometown of Romulus and Remus, Alba Longa. In that battle, a set of triplet brothers known as the Horatii fought in the Roman army, and a set of triplets called the Curiatii fought in the Alban army. The leaders from each side agreed that the two sets of triplets would fight each other. The outcome of the battle between the brothers would determine the outcome of the war.

In the fight, five of the six brothers ended up dead. The last man standing was from the Horatii, and so Rome gained control of its parent city. This story became the subject of a famous painting by 18th-century French artist Jacques-Louis David (shown in the figure). In the painting, the three Horatii are taking an oath to fight to the death to protect Rome.



King for a day: The kingdom

According to the Roman historian Livy, Rome began when two brothers, Romulus and Remus, set out with some people from the Italian town of Alba Longa to build a new city. In the case of brothers, power usually went to the eldest, but because Romulus and Remus were twins, they couldn't figure out who should be king. So, they decided to watch the birds for a sign from the gods. Almost immediately, Remus saw six vultures. Shortly after, Romulus saw twelve. Again, the quandary: Who should rule? The brother who saw the birds first or the one who saw more?

Apparently, Romulus thought the king should be the one who saw more birds, and so he started to build his new city. Remus, annoyed when he saw the defensive wall of his brother's city going up, began to tease Romulus by jumping back and forth over the wall. Romulus, not getting the joke, drew his sword and killed his brother, effectively settling the dispute.

For almost 250 years, seven men with the title of **rex** (*king*) ruled the small community on the banks of the Tiber River in central Italy, watching it grow in size and influence. Here they are, with a little something to distinguish each one:

- » **Romulus:** The first king of Rome, Romulus was the one who brought women into the new city. He invited neighboring communities to a festival, where, at an arranged signal, each Roman man kidnapped a girl. By the time the neighboring men came back to fight, the women begged their fathers and brothers not to attack the Romans, with whom they had already married and had children.
- » **Numa Pompilius:** The second king of Rome, Numa was known for establishing early Roman laws and religious practices. He created the office of the Vestal Virgins, for example. Chosen when they were between 6 and 10 years old, these girls kept the fire burning in the temple of Vesta, the goddess of hearth and home, and served for 30 years. A Vestal who didn't remain chaste (virginal) was buried alive.
- » **Tullus Hostilius:** Much more aggressive than Numa, this third Roman king waged many wars and added plenty of land to Roman territory.
- » **Ancus Marcius:** The fourth king of Rome was the grandson of Numa Pompilius, and like his grandfather, he revived Roman interest in religious practices. One of his most memorable accomplishments was building one of the first bridges over the Tiber River, the **Pons Sublicius** — literally, *the bridge made of wooden piles*.
- » **Tarquinius Priscus:** The fifth Roman king is known for building the Circus Maximus, the great chariot-racing course. The sons of Ancus Marcius, the previous king, considered Tarquinius Priscus an outsider and resented his taking the throne after their father, so they murdered the king.

- » **Servius Tullius:** The sixth king of Rome was a rags-to-riches story. (See the sidebar “Behind every great man,” in this chapter, for details.) When the sons of Ancus Marcius murdered Tarquinius, Servius became king. He organized the citizens into groups (called **centuries**) based on wealth so that everyone would know how much they should contribute in times of war.
- » **Tarquinius Superbus:** Helped by his wife, Tullia (daughter to King Servius), Tarquinius Superbus became Rome’s seventh and last king by arranging the king’s murder. (That’s how he earned the nickname **Superbus**, which means *proud or arrogant*.)



You may be thinking that the son of a king would be the next on the throne, but in ancient Rome this was not always the case. It was not a matter of hereditary succession but rather acclamation by the people. As you can see from the way some of the Roman kings took power, however, family bloodlines were important — important enough so that blood was often shed to keep a family in power.

BEHIND EVERY GREAT MAN

A couple of women figure prominently in the lives of at least three of Rome’s kings: **Tanaquil**, the wife of Rome’s fifth king (Tarquinius Priscus), and **Tullia**, daughter of Rome’s sixth king (Servius Tullius) and wife of its seventh (Tarquinius Superbus).

Tanaquil and Tarquinius Priscus had left their home in Etruria partly because he wanted to live a better life and partly because she didn’t want to be married to a loser of a husband. On the way to Rome, an eagle swooped down, plucked Tarquinius’ hat from his head, and set it back down again. Tanaquil, very superstitious, interpreted this as a sign that her husband would be crowned king of Rome. Sure enough, that’s what happened.

Tanaquil — with her tendency to see signs — also saw great things in Servius Tullius. He grew up as a slave in her household. According to Livy, one night, Servius’s head caught fire, but he didn’t get burned. Tanaquil interpreted this to mean that the gods favored Servius. So, she ordered that he grow up with the best of everything, including a royal education and the king’s own daughter for his wife.

Tarquinius Superbus, who was Tanaquil’s and Tarquinius Priscus’s son, married Tullia, the daughter of King Servius Tullius. Tullia’s ambition was even worse than Tanaquil’s. She conspired with her husband to overthrow her own father. At a Senate meeting, the young Tarquinius picked up the elderly Servius Tullius and threw him into the street. As the old man staggered back to his palace, his daughter’s assassins did him in.



TIP

FROM RHYMES TO REASON

Having trouble keeping the stories straight? Can't remember which king did what? The following verses can help you.

For the Romulus versus Remus story:

Did Remus murder Romulus or was the killing in reverse?
To help remember who slew whom, just memorize this little verse:
'Twas Romulus killed Remus, and lent his name to a tiny dream
That grew to rule the western world, and thus we study Rome, not Reme.

For remembering which king did what:

Now Romulus was Rome's first king, he was the start of everything.
Numa Pompilius beat the odds by sacrificing to the gods.
Tullus Hostilius was third, who made men cringe with just a word.
The fourth was Ancus Marcius, who bridged the Tiber first for us.
The fifth was Tarquin, surnamed *First*, whose wife's ambition was the worst.
Servius Tullius followed these, dividing Rome into centuries.
Tarquin the Proud ended the race of kings by leaving in disgrace.

By the people, for the people: The Republic

King Tarquinius Superbus' son, **Sextus Tarquinius**, brought the kingdom to an end through disgrace. According to Livy, Sextus raped a noble woman named Lucretia, who in turn told her husband about the offense. She then took her own life rather than live with the shame of what had happened. Seeing this as one more in a list of intolerable acts by oppressive rulers, the Romans decided to run the royal family out of town. In place of the kings, they elected their own rulers, and in 509 BCE, Rome became a **res publica**, which literally means *a public state*. The modern world knows this era of history as the Republic.

During the Roman Republic, the Romans began writing down their laws, and the concept of **lex, legis** (f; *codified law*) came into practice. After the abuses of the kings, the people wanted to know what the actual laws were and what rights they actually had.



The foundation of law for the Romans was **fas** (*the will of the gods*). This word comes from the verb **fari**, meaning *to speak*. In other words, what the gods spoke was law. At a different level was the concept of **ius, iuris** (n), which indicated *personal rights* or *justice*. In fact, if you remember that the letters *i* and *j* in Latin are basically the same letter, you can see in this word such derivatives as *justice* and *jury*.

Early on in this new era of government, the Romans went to Athens, famous for its democracy, to get a copy of the laws that the Greeks had written down. Then the Romans appointed the **decemviri** (*board of ten men*) to draft a set of laws for Rome that they inscribed on 12 sheets of bronze and displayed in the **forum** (*marketplace*). Published in the years 451 to 450 BCE, the **XII Tabulae** (*12 Tables*) formed the foundation of Roman law and government. Under these laws, the Republic flourished for hundreds of years.

To be elected to lead the people was quite an honor, and the system of public offices was known as the **cursus honorum** (*course of honors*). The following list shows the main offices of the **cursus honorum** in the order in which you had to be elected:

- » **quaestor, quaestoris**, m (*quaestor*): Rome's financial officers. When elected **quaestor**, a person automatically became a **senator, senatoris** (m; *senator*). The **quaestor** was something like a treasurer.
- » **praetor, praetoris**, m (*praetor*): Oversaw aspects of Roman justice, could command an army, and were in charge of the city when the consuls were away. The simplest equivalent in the modern world would be a judge. A **praetor** could also command an army, giving whole new meaning to the phrase "judge, jury, and executioner."
- » **consul, consulis**, m (*consul*): The chief magistrates of the city. They led all civil matters, presided over the Senate, and regularly commanded armies. A counterpart in the United States of America would be the President, who is also commander in chief of the armed forces.
- » **ensor, censoris**, m (*censor*): Oversaw the census of the Roman citizens every five years. He also reviewed the list of senators and could remove anyone from office who had acted illegally or against Roman morality. Modern censors keep themselves busy with song lyrics and television shows.

While the preceding list gives you the main positions in the Roman Republic government, many other opportunities for government service existed. The following were also important leadership positions:

- » **tribunus, tribuni**, m (*tribune*): This office was open only to *plebeians* (the lower class of Roman citizens). The **tribunus** enjoyed the power of veto over other magistrates, which was the forerunner to the system of checks and balances seen in the legislative, judicial, and executive branches of modern governments, such as in the U.S. and the U.K.

» **aedilis, aedilis**, m (*aedile*): In charge of public works, such as temple repair, and the maintenance of aqueducts and roads. They also became responsible for public games, and from this responsibility, ambitious politicians often launched their careers. The more spectacular the games that you put on, the more people would remember you when you ran for other offices.

Rendering unto Caesar: The Empire

In the last century BCE, the Roman Republic began to show signs of stress. Wars and rumors of wars abounded. Shortly after defeating his own countryman and former son-in-law Pompey the Great in a civil war, Gaius Iulius Caesar managed to get himself appointed dictator for life (which, from that point, proved to be short). Six months later, revolutionaries who wanted a return to the values of the Roman Republic assassinated Iulius Caesar, and he fell at the foot of the statue of his former foe, Pompey.

Two great personalities arose during this confused period, **Marcus Antonius** (known in modern English as Mark Antony), who had served in Caesar's army, and **Gaius Iulius Caesar Octavianus** (known as Octavian), the nephew and adopted son of the murdered dictator. Together, these two men avenged Iulius Caesar's death by waging war on the conspirators, but they were not destined for a long association.

In 31 BCE, Antony and Octavian squared off against each other in a naval battle in Greece. Octavian was the victor. For all practical purposes, the 32-year-old Octavian was in charge of Rome. Four years later, the senate voted Octavian numerous honors, including the title of **Augustus** (*Revered One*). History knows this Augustus as the first emperor of Rome.

Following Augustus, a series of men led the Roman Empire, calling themselves **princeps** (*first citizen*). At times, the distinction between a **princeps** and a **rex** (*king*) seemed negligible, although the Romans continued to abhor the title of king. Many of the colorful personalities from ancient history come from this period, including the emperor Caligula, who made his horse a senator, and Commodus, who thought of himself as the incarnation of Hercules and decided to compete as a gladiator (but his own advisors assassinated him before he got the chance).

ROMAN ADVENTURE STORIES

Some of the best Roman adventure stories come from the early days of the Republic. The historian Livy records how the Tarquinius family tried to regain the throne by allying themselves with another local king. Out of this war came famous Roman heroes, such as Horatius Cocles and Mucius Scaevola. Horatius and two of his friends kept the entire enemy army at bay while the Romans chopped down the Pons Sublicius, the wooden bridge over the Tiber, to keep the enemy out of the city. In 1842, Thomas Babington Macaulay published his famous poem “Horatius,” which recounts this story with stirring lines like the following:

Then out spoke brave Horatius, the Captain of the Gate:
“To every man upon this earth, death cometh soon or late;
And how can man die better than facing fearful odds,
For the ashes of his fathers, and the temples of his Gods,
Hew down the bridge, Sir Consul, with all the speed ye may!
I, with two more to help me, will hold the foe in play.
In yon strait path, a thousand may well be stopped by three:
Now, who will stand on either hand and keep the bridge with me?”

With similar heroism, Mucius attempted to assassinate the foreign king but was caught and ordered to tell the details of his conspiracy. To show that they could not even torture the information out of him, Mucius thrust his right hand into the fire and burned it off, hence his nickname **scaevola** — *lefty*.

Getting Out of the Verbal Trap

Verbals are verb forms that function as another part of speech. So, when are verbs not verbs? When they’re parading around as adjectives or nouns, that’s when.

Here’s an example that may make this concept clearer. Consider the word *train* in these sentences:

- » We *train* for the Olympics. (A verb, conveying action.)
- » We went to *training* camp. (Adjective, describing the noun *camp*.)
- » We saw a *trained* bear. (Adjective, describing the noun *bear*.)
- » *Training* for a marathon is hard work. (A noun and the subject of the sentence.)

Verbal is a generic term that describes verbs that don't behave like verbs. You have two types of verbals:

» **Participles:** When a verb functions as an adjective, it's a *participle* — easy to remember if you just keep in mind that a participle is *part* verb and *part* adjective. In English, words such as *running*, *copied*, and *taught* are participles. Because they're part verb, they can be used to describe some action, but because they're part adjectives, they can be used to modify nouns (as in "the *running* athlete," "a *copied* poem," and "the *taught* lesson.")

Although Latin has six verb tenses (for a refresher on what those tenses look like, check out Chapters 2, 4, and 6), it only has three participle tenses: present, perfect, and future.

» **Gerunds:** When a verbal functions as a noun, it's called a gerund. A gerund is part verb and part noun. In English, gerunds usually end in **-ing**, which means that you may get them confused with present participles, which also end in **-ing**. But how the word is used in a sentence clearly lets you know whether it's functioning as a participle (adjective) or gerund (noun).

Consider the sentence, "The running girl enjoys running." The first use of *running* is as a present participle because it describes the girl. The second use of *running* is as a gerund because it's a direct object that shows what the girl enjoys.

The following sections explain how you can identify and decline participles and gerunds in Latin.

Presenting present participles

The present participle in Latin is easy to recognize. Just as the suffix **-ing** identifies the present participle in English (*running*, *jumping*, *singing*, and so on), in Latin, the letters **-ns** and **-nt** identify the present participle:

- » The **-ns** suffix appears on the nominative singular form of the participle.
- » The letters **nt** appear in the middle of all the other forms.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

The word *present* itself comes from the present participle **praesens**, **praesentis**, which means *being here*. The *nt* in the English derivative is a direct holdover from the Latin.

Take a look at the present participles from the verb **censeo**, **censere**, **censui**, **census** (*to vote*) in Tables 9-1 and 9-2. Present participles use the same set of endings for the masculine and feminine genders and a separate set for the neuters.

TABLE 9-1

Declining a Masculine/Feminine Present Participle

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	censens	censentes
Genitive	censentis	censentium
Dative	censenti	censentibus
Accusative	censentem	censentes
Ablative	censente/censenti	censentibus
Vocative	censens	censentes

Take a look at the following example showing the present participle, **censentes** (voting):

Consul ad Curiam senatores censentes convocavit.

The consul has called the voting senators to the Senate House.

TABLE 9-2

Declining a Neuter Present Participle

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	censens	censentia
Genitive	censentis	censentium
Dative	censenti	censentibus
Accusative	censens	censentia
Ablative	censente/censenti	censentibus
Vocative	censens	censentia



REMEMBER

The word *present* has the letters **nt** in it, as do most of the present participle forms in Latin. The only form that does not use **nt** is the nominative singular, which ends in **-ns** (nominative singular, ns — get it?).



GRAMMATICALLY SPEAKING

The ablative singular of the present participle appears in Tables 9-1 and 9-2 with two different forms, one ending in **-e** and one ending in **-i**. If the present participle is used in a truly participial way — meaning with its full force as both a verb and an adjective — it uses the form ending in **-e**. An example would be **puero**

praesente (*with the boy being present or in the boy's presence*). If the present participle really just works as an adjective, then it uses the **-i** ending for the ablative singular. An example of that would be **tempore praesenti** (*at the present time*).

Looking back with perfect participles

You already know the perfect participle. Don't think so? It's just the fourth dictionary form of a verb. Consider the verb **rego, regere, rexi, rectus** (*to rule*). In truth, that last dictionary form is the perfect participle, whose complete forms are **rectus, recta, rectum** (*ruled*). Table 9-3 shows you how to decline this verb form. The same is true in English. For the verb *sing, singing, sang, sung*, the perfect participle is *sung*. Most of the time, though, English uses the suffix **-ed** for this participle, like in the word *ruled*. The Latin forms of the perfect participle use 1st-declension endings for the feminine gender and 2nd-declension endings for masculine and neuter.

TABLE 9-3

Declining a Perfect Participle

Case	Singular (m, f, n)	Plural (m, f, n)
Nominative	rectus, recta, rectum	recti, rectae, recta
Genitive	recti, rectae, recti	rectorum, rectorum, rectorum
Dative	recto, rectae, recto	rectis, rectis, rectis
Accusative	rectum, rectam, rectum	rectos, rectas, recta
Ablative	recto, recta, recto	rectis, rectis, rectis

Notice the difference between the present and perfect participles in this sentence:

Cives recti a regibus magistratus censentes iuste agere cupiverunt.

The citizens ruled by kings wanted the voting magistrates to act justly.

In the preceding sentence, **recti** (*ruled*) is the perfect participle describing **cives** (*citizens*), and **censentes** (*voting*) is the present participle describing **magistratus** (*magistrates*).



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

Participles, especially the perfect participles, often sound best in English as clauses (structures that have subjects and verbs). For example, you can translate the phrase **cives recti** as *the citizens who had been ruled* rather than *ruled citizens*.

Voicing concerns about participles

Voice is a grammatical term applied to verbs, and it tells whether a verb or a verbal is active or passive. You can read all about passive-voice verbs in the section “Passive (Aggressive) Voice,” later in this chapter, but we give you some info about active and passive voice in general here.

Why do you need to know active and passive voice? In Latin, present participles are active voice, and perfect participles are passive voice. The future participles, however, can be active or passive.

Simply put, active voice means that the subject of the verb or the noun modified by the participle is doing the action. Take a look at this sentence:

The running girl finished the race.

In this sentence, the word *running* is a present active participle because the girl (whom *running* describes) is the one doing the action.

In passive voice, just the opposite is true. With a passive verb or participle, the subject or modified noun receives the action, like in the following sentence:

The injured king was murdered in the street.

In that sentence, *injured* is a perfect passive participle because the king received the action (in this case, a violent one).

Future active participle

The future active participle looks like the perfect participle with the letters **-ur** inserted before the ending. (See the section “Looking back with perfect participles,” earlier in this chapter, for information on what perfect participles look like.) Like the perfect participle, this verbal uses 1st-declension endings for the feminine gender and 2nd-declension endings for masculine and neuter (see Table 9-4).



REMEMBER

The perfect participle is the same as the fourth dictionary form of a verb. Also, the word *future* has the letters **-ur** in the middle, as do the future active participles in Latin. On top of that, *future* comes from the future participle of **sum** (*to be*) and literally means *that which is about to be*.

This example uses the future active participle **recturi** (*rule*):

Aquila in capite viri Romam recturi petasum deposuit.

An eagle placed a hat on the head of the man about to rule Rome.

TABLE 9-4

Declining a Future Active Participle

Case	Singular (m, f, n)	Plural (m, f, n)
Nominative	recturus, rectura, recturum	recturi, recturae, rectura
Genitive	recturi, recturae, recturi	recturorum, recturarum, recturorum
Dative	recturo, recturae, recturo	recturis, recturis, recturis
Accusative	recturum, recturam, recturum	recturos, recturas, rectura
Ablative	recturo, rectura, recturo	recturis, recturis, recturis
Vocative	recture, rectura, recturum	recturi, recturae, rectura

You can translate the future active participle into English as *about to (whatever)*. Still, a clause sometimes sounds better. You can also translate the phrase **virī Romam recturi** as *of the man who was about to rule Rome*.

Future passive participle: The gerundive

The future passive participle looks different from the future active. In fact, it's so different that it gets its own special grammatical name, the *gerundive*. The gerundive does share with its future active relative the presence of identifying letters somewhere in the word. In the case of a gerundive, the letters are **-nd**. Another shared trait among the gerundive, future active, and perfect participles is the use of 1st- and 2nd-declension endings for the three genders.

Table 9-5 shows the gerundive forms for **porto, portare, portavi, portatus** (*to carry*).

TABLE 9-5

Declining a Gerundive

Case	Singular (m, f, n)	Plural (m, f, n)
Nominative	portandus, portanda, portandum	portandi, portandae, portanda
Genitive	portandi, portandae, portandi	portandorum, portandarum, portandorum
Dative	portando, portandae, portando	portandis, portandis, portandis
Accusative	portandum, portandam, portandum	portandos, portandas, portanda
Ablative	portando, portanda, portando	portandis, portandis, portandis



TIP

To help you recognize gerundives, remember that the word *gerundive* has the letters **nd** in the middle, just like the Latin forms themselves.

The following sentence illustrates the difference between the future active and gerundive participles in the following sentence:

Miles nuntium portandum ad regem portaturus in flumen cecidit.

The soldier about to carry the message to be carried to the king fell into the river.

A basic way to translate the gerundive is *to be (whatever)*, but this translation often results in awkward English, as illustrated in the English translation in the preceding example. Because the gerundive carries a sense of obligation or necessity, you can usually render it with a clause that uses the words *must, ought, had, or should*. Using clauses for both participles in the preceding example, you get

The soldier *who was about to carry* the message *that had to be carried* to the king fell into the river.

The first clause is a translation of the future active participle. The second clause is a translation of the gerundive.

Passive periphrastic

Because the gerundive (discussed in the preceding section) implies obligation or necessity, you can use it in a special construction called the passive periphrastic. Don't let the word *periphrastic* scare you. It just means using a roundabout way of saying something. Basically, the passive periphrastic is a gerundive plus some form of the linking verb **sum, esse, fui, futurus** (*to be*). Take a look at this example:

Aqua portanda est.

The water must be carried.

Just as when you translate a gerundive by itself, you can use the helping words *must, ought, had, or should* to produce a smoother reading.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

To show who must do the action with a passive periphrastic, Latin uses the dative case in a function called *dative of agent*. Putting an agent — **tibi** (*by you*) — with the preceding example, you get

Aqua tibi portanda est.

The water must be carried by you.

Running with gerunds

A gerund is a verbal that functions as a noun in the sentence. Here's what you need to know about Latin gerunds:

- » Latin gerunds can appear in the genitive, dative, accusative, and ablative cases.
- » Latin gerunds don't have a nominative, or subject, case, meaning they can't be subjects in sentences. Latin makes up for this limitation by using the present infinitive, which is the second dictionary entry for verbs. Thus you have this famous expression:
 - **Errare est humanum.**
- » Literally, this expression means *To err is human*. But a gerund translation using an **-ing** form works just as well: *Erring is human*.
- » Latin gerunds have one form for both singular and plural.
- » The gerund (like the gerundive — see the section "Future passive participle: The gerundive," earlier in this chapter) uses the letters **nd** somewhere in its forms.
- » As a noun, the gerund is always 2nd-declension neuter in form.

Table 9-6 shows the gerund forms of the verb **erro**, **errare**, **erravi**, **erratus** (*to wander* or *to make a mistake*).

TABLE 9-6

Declining a Gerund

Case	Singular and Plural (n)
Nominative	****
Genitive	errandi
Dative	errando
Accusative	errandum
Ablative	errando



REMEMBER

Latin gerunds don't have a nominative case per se. Instead, they use the present infinitive, which is the second dictionary entry for verbs.

Consider this example:

Aeneas errandum non amavit et Venerem matrem consuluit.

Aeneas did not like wandering and consulted Venus, his mother.



TIP

If you find the terms *gerund* and *gerundive* confusing, you can always tell which is which by remembering that the gerundive is a future passive participle or verbal adjective. Thus, the gerundive is an adjective. So, if the word that looks like a gerund or a gerundive is modifying something (acting as an adjective), then it's a gerundive. If the word doesn't modify anything, it's a gerund.

You can also use the gerund (and the gerundive, for that matter) for purpose construction. To express purpose, you can use the purpose clause (which we talk about in Chapter 6). Of course, who wants to say something the same way every time? The Romans liked variety, and the following constructions provide different ways to express purpose in Latin:

» **Genitive of purpose:** This construction involves the words **gratia** or **causa** (both of which can mean *for the sake of*) and a genitive-case gerund or gerundive:

- **Princeps gratia belli prohibendi laboravit.**
- *The emperor worked for the sake of stopping war.*

» **Dative of purpose:** For this construction, you just need a dative-case gerund or gerundive, which you can translate simply as *to (whatever)*:

- **Princeps bello prohibendo laboravit.**
- *The emperor worked to stop war.*

» **Accusative of purpose:** To identify this construction, look for the preposition **ad** (meaning *for the purpose of*) and an accusative gerund or gerundive:

- **Princeps ad bellum prohibendum laboravit.**
- *The emperor worked for the purpose of stopping war.*

You can translate any purpose construction quite simply with the word *to*. Thus, all three of the preceding examples can mean *The emperor worked to stop war*.

Whether an author uses a gerund or gerundive depends on whether they need to modify a noun. Consider this pair of sentences:

Nero ad cantandum advenit.

Nero came to sing.

Nero ad carmina cantanda advenit.

Nero came to sing songs.

The first sentence uses a gerund. The gerundive in the second sentence modifies the word **carmina** (songs), thus you get the translation, *Nero came to sing songs.*

Talkin' the Talk



A **patricius** (*patrician*) and a **plebeius** (*plebeian*) discuss the upcoming election.

Plebeius: **Romani bellum gesturi magistratus fortes cupiunt.**

Romans about to wage war desire strong magistrates.

Patricius: **Sic, et praetor ab hominibus laudatus, consulatum peto.**

Yes, and as a praetor praised by the people, I am seeking the consulship.

Plebeius: **Amici tui sed non omnes te laudant.**

Your friends praise you, but not everyone does.

Patricius: **Romani viros pugnantes amant, et ego multis in proeliis pugnavi.**

The Romans love fighting men, and I have fought in many battles.

Plebeius: **Virum qui vincit amant, et proelia tua sunt cum uxore, non hostibus.**

They love the man who wins, and your battles are with your wife, not the enemy.

Patricius: **Me insultando tuo vexas.**

You annoy me with your taunting.

Plebeius: **Tribunus sum, et te vetando peius vexabo.**

I am a tribune, and I shall annoy you worse by vetoing.

WORDS TO KNOW

cado, cadere, cecidi, casurus	to fall
laudo, laudare, laudavi, laudatus	to praise
nuntius, nuntii, m	messenger
proelium, proelii, n	battle
rex, regis, m	king
verbum, verbi, n	word

Passive (Aggressive) Voice

English teachers often caution against using the passive voice, but it plays a regular part in Latin literature. With an active-voice verb, the subject does the action; with a passive-voice verb, the subject receives the action. Take a look at these two sentences:

Romulus ruled Rome.

Rome was ruled by Romulus.

The first sentence is active. Romulus, the subject, is doing the action (ruling Rome). In the second sentence, the subject, Rome, receives the action.

Latin authors use passive voice to convey specific connotations. The two preceding sample sentences say essentially the same thing, but each has a different focus. The first sentence puts the emphasis on Romulus and his activity of ruling. It carries the sense of, “Romulus and no one else (especially not Remus) ruled Rome.” The second sentence conveys the same basic information, but the focus is on the city itself. The connotation in the second sentence might be that despite Romulus belonging to the royal family from Alba Longa, Rome was there to be ruled, and Romulus was there so he did.

Present, imperfect, and future passive

For the present, imperfect, and future indicative tenses in Latin, as well as the present and imperfect subjunctive, the passive voice personal endings are all the same. (To review the active-voice endings, head over to Chapter 2.) Table 9-7 shows what you need to know.

TABLE 9-7

Passive-Voice Personal Endings

Singular Ending	Meaning	Plural Ending	Meaning
-r	<i>I</i>	-mur	<i>we</i>
-ris	<i>you</i>	-mini	<i>you</i>
-tur	<i>he, she, it</i>	-ntur	<i>they</i>

The same rules apply across the board when you want to recognize the different tenses for the various verb conjugations: Basically, you have to pay attention to the verb's ending. (If you need a refresher on all that, head to Chapter 2.) The following sentences can help make sense of figuring out a verb's tense:

Roma, quae a consulibus regitur et semper sapientia regetur, a regibus regebatur.

Rome, which is ruled by consuls and will always be ruled by wisdom, was ruled by kings.

Four of the six passive-voice endings in Table 9-7 use the letter **-r**, which gives you a good clue to recognizing the passive-voice forms for these tenses.



GRAMMATICALLY
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The dative of agent often goes with the passive periphrastic (refer to the section “Passive periphrastic,” earlier in this chapter) to show who is actually doing the action. With regular passive-voice verbs, you need the *ablative of agent*, which uses both

- » The preposition **a** (before consonants) or the preposition **ab** (before vowels)
- » A noun in the ablative case

In the preceding example, **a consulibus** and **a regibus** are both ablatives of agent. The noun in an ablative of agent construction is always a living being, such as *consuls* and *kings*. Because *wisdom* isn't a person, the word **sapientia** doesn't need a preposition. It functions in this example as an ablative of means. (For more on the different ablative uses, see Chapter 6.)

Perfect, pluperfect, future perfect passive

English uses compound verbs all the time. In the sentence “Rome was being ruled by Romulus,” the verb is actually three separate words: *was being ruled*. Latin concocts compound verbs for the passive voice of the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect tenses. For all three of these tenses, you start off with the perfect

participle, followed by a form of the verb **sum, esse, fui, futurus** (*to be*). Because these are the only compound forms in the whole Latin language, you can always easily recognize them.

Tables 9–8 through 9–10 show the perfect, pluperfect, and future perfect passive forms for the verb **rego, regere, rexi, rectus** (*to rule*).

TABLE 9-8

Perfect Passive Indicative

Singular (m, f, n)	Plural (m, f, n)
rectus, -a, -um sum	recti, -ae, -a sumus
rectus, -a, -um es	recti, -ae, -a estis
rectus, -a, -um est	recti, -ae, -a sunt



The perfect participle functions as an adjective, so it can have all three gender endings. For example, *He has been ruled* would be **Rectus est**, *She has been ruled* would be **Recta est**, and *It has been ruled* would be **Rectum est**. The perfect participle part of these compound verbs must always match the subject in case, number, and gender.

TABLE 9-9

Pluperfect Passive Indicative

Singular (m, f, n)	Plural (m, f, n)
rectus, -a, -um eram	recti, -ae, -a eramus
rectus, -a, -um eras	recti, -ae, -a eratis
rectus, -a, -um erat	recti, -ae, -a erant

TABLE 9-10

Future Perfect Passive Indicative

Singular (m, f, n)	Plural (m, f, n)
rectus, -a, -um ero	recti, -ae, -a erimus
rectus, -a, -um eris	recti, -ae, -a eritis
rectus, -a, -um erit	recti, -ae, -a erunt

The following monster sentence brings together all three of these passive tenses. Perhaps it describes villagers relaying water buckets to help put out a fire:

Aqua, quae a puellis portata erat, a pueris portata est et paucis horis ab omnibus portata erit.

The water, which had been carried by the girls, has been carried by the boys and within a few hours will have been carried by everyone.



REMEMBER

Latin has only four subjunctive tenses. (Chapter 6 tells you all about the subjunctive mood.) Present and imperfect subjunctive use the same passive endings as the present and imperfect indicative forms. Perfect and pluperfect subjunctive passive have similar endings to their indicative counterparts because perfect and pluperfect tenses are both compounds in the passive voice. But they do look a little different, as Tables 9-11 and 9-12 show.

TABLE 9-11

Perfect Passive Subjunctive

Singular (m, f, n)	Plural (m, f, n)
rectus, -a, -um sim	recti, -ae, -a simus
rectus, -a, -um sis	recti, -ae, -a sitis
rectus, -a, -um sit	recti, -ae, -a sint

TABLE 9-12

Pluperfect Passive Subjunctive

Singular (m, f, n)	Plural (m, f, n)
rectus, -a, -um essem	recti, -ae, -a essemus
rectus, -a, -um esses	recti, -ae, -a essetis
rectus, -a, -um esset	recti, -ae, -a essent

Talkin' the Talk



In this imaginary conversation, Julius Caesar advises his adopted son Octavian about the art of ruling.

Caesar: **Roma a viris infirmis diutissime gubernata est.**

Rome has been governed for too long by weak men.

Octavianus: Cui Roma gubernanda est?

By whom should Rome be governed?

Caesar: Viris fortibus, ut urbs ad gloriam reducatur.

By brave men, so that the city may be led back to glory.

Octavianus: Ubi tales viri invenientur?

Where will such men be found?

Caesar: Ubicumque augustus ad iuste agendum non dubitat.

Wherever a venerable man does not hesitate to act justly.



WORDS TO KNOW

dubito, dubitare, dubitavi, dubitatus	to doubt
guberno, gubernare, gubernavi, gubernatus	to govern
omnis, omne	all
pauci, paucae, pauca	few
rego, regere, rexi, rectus	to rule
urbs, urbis, f	city

FUN & GAMES

See whether you know your Roman history! Everyone has a purpose in life, so match the correct ruler or official with the purpose construction that best describes him.

1 ad vetandum

- A. **consul** B. **Romulus** C. **rex** D. **tribunus**

2 gratia deorum laudandorum

- A. **quaestor** B. **Numa Pompilius** C. **princeps** D. **ensor**

3 ad carmina cantanda

- A. **Caesar** B. **aedilis** C. **Nero** D. **senator**

Turn the following sentences from active to passive.

- 1 Romulus Romam regit.**
- 2 Rex exercitum ducebat.**
- 3 Princeps urbem gubernaverat.**

See Appendix C for the answers.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- » Encountering Roman authors and poets
- » Conditioning your conditional sentences
- » Making indirect statements
- » Investigating Roman inscriptions, graffiti, and letters

Chapter **10**

More Lasting Than Bronze: Latin Literature

English author Edward Bulwer-Lytton once wrote that the pen is mightier than the sword, and despite the power of Rome's armies, this statement has proved true for Rome's cultural influence across the world. Roman soldiers in red-crested helmets no longer go forth to conquer new lands. The Colosseum is just a shattered ruin, a tourist attraction where you can pose for a picture. Latin literature, however, continues to be read, explored for new meanings, and tapped for its wealth of style and ideas.

The poet Horace once wrote about his compositions:

Exegi monumentum aere perennius. (Horace, *Carmina*, Book III, Chapter 30, Line 1)

I have created a monument more lasting than bronze.

In this chapter, you can meet some of the famous authors of Roman antiquity, writers whose works have stood the test of time. You can also investigate two

important grammatical constructions, the indirect statement and the conditional sentence. Without these constructions, much of Latin literature would not exist.

The Written Word

In ancient times, as in modern times, literature fell into two camps: poetry (verse) and prose (paragraphs). Between then and now, though, the importance and role of poetry has gone through a major shift. Today, poetry seems confined to literary journals and song lyrics. The primary form of written communication in the modern world, both for instruction and entertainment, is prose. The novel, not the sonnet, reigns supreme.

The situation was reversed, however, in the ancient world. Writers used prose for general communication in history books and speeches, for example. (That's not to say the prose wasn't elegant. The speeches of Cicero, for example, have provided countless generations with models of eloquence.) Other than *Metamorphoses* by Apuleius and *Satyricon* by Petronius, the novel did not play a prominent role in Roman literature. For sheer entertainment, the Romans liked poetry, and Roman poets complied with poems about love and hate, life and death, and all the other themes of human life. Romans wrote their plays (the comedies and the tragedies) in verse, as well as their epics.

Before the days of copyrights

The Latin word for *publish* is **edere**, which literally means *to give forth* and is the root of the English word *edition*. An author published a work by giving a copy to someone, whose slaves made a copy. At that point, the work was out of the author's hands, making any corrections extremely difficult to put into a later edition. For this reason, Horace cautioned poets to keep their work for nine years before considering publication, adding **[N]escit vox missa reverti** (*Ars Poetica*, Line 388) — *The voice sent forth does not know how to return*.

Another way to get books (if you couldn't get personal copies made for you) was to visit the local **librarius** (*bookseller*). You could rummage through the bookseller's boxes or baskets (in those days, books were in the form of scrolls) looking for what you wanted. The **librarii** also had copyists who could produce whatever you wanted (similar to e-publishing and publish-on-demand books today). A famous bookstore in Rome was that of the Sosii brothers.

THE NOVELTY OF LATIN NOVELS

The closest thing to the modern novel appeared twice in Latin literature. In the first century CE, Petronius wrote a work called *Satyricon*, which described the comic misadventures of a trio of young men. Unfortunately, this work hasn't survived intact. The most famous part of what remains describes the dinner party of Trimalchio, a wealthy man with few manners.

The only complete Latin novel to survive was written in the second century CE by Apuleius. Known by two different titles, *Metamorphoses* (*Changes*) or *Asineus Aureus* (*The Golden Ass*), it describes the life of a man who gets turned into a donkey. Many adventures follow, providing the framework to tell the most well-known part of the story, the tale of Cupid and Psyche.

Who's who of Latin authors

The Latin word for *author* — **auctor, auctoris** (m) — literally means *one who brings about increase*. In this section, you can find out about the Roman writers who increased the world of knowledge and art in their own time and for ages to come. The following list introduces you to only a few of Rome's leading literary lights (some you've undoubtedly heard of; some you probably haven't):

- » **Plautus (c. 254–184 BCE):** One of the earliest Latin authors, Plautus wrote plays full of slapstick and crude humor. Folks still perform his plays, which have helped shape other works, such as Shakespeare's *Comedy of Errors* and Stephen Sondheim's (very funny) Broadway musical *A Funny Thing Happened on the Way to the Forum*, later turned into a hit Hollywood film.
- » **Cicero (106–43 BCE):** A statesman and philosopher, Cicero is perhaps best known as the unequalled master of Latin oratory. His philosophical works dealt with topics such as old age, friendship, and the nature of the gods.
- » **Caesar (100–44 BCE):** Yes, the great general was also a great writer. One of his well-known works describes his own war against the Gauls and contains the famous opening line, **Gallia est omnis divisa in partes tres**. (Caesar, *De Bello Gallico*, Book I, Line 1) — *Gaul was, on the whole, divided into three parts*.
- » **Lucretius (98–55 BCE):** Lucretius was a philosophical poet. In his work, he describes the gods and the Underworld, and spends much time discussing atoms, how they combine to produce objects, and the nature of human vision.
- » **Catullus (84–54 BCE):** Catullus was one of a group of innovative poets known as **poetae novi** (*new poets*). He explored more personal themes of love, friendship, death, and betrayal in a variety of poetic meters.

- » **Vergil (70–19 BCE):** English poet Alfred, Lord Tennyson described Vergil as “wielder of the stateliest measure ever molded by the lips of man.” Vergil (also spelled Virgil) was a success in his own day, and his fame has never diminished. His *Aeneid* — a story about the fall of Troy and the adventures of the Trojan hero Aeneas — was the work that earned Vergil his place in literary history. Vergil is also the one who gave us this line about the Trojan Horse: **Quidquid id est, timeo Danaos et dona ferentes.** (*Aeneid*, Book II, Line 48) — *Whatever it is, I fear the Greeks, even bearing gifts.*
- » **Horace (65–8 BCE):** A friend of Vergil, Horace was a prolific writer who composed poetic epistles, satires, and odes. He’s the author of one of the most popular Latin expressions in modern times: **carpe diem** (*seize the day*).
- » **Livy (59 BCE–17 CE):** Livy is the author of the monumental work of Roman history, **Ab Urbe Condita** (*From the Foundation of the City*). This work contained 142 books (35 still exist today) detailing Rome’s history from its founding to the age of Augustus. From the title of his work came the AUC dating system, which you can read more about in Chapter 6.
- » **Ovid (43 BCE–17 CE):** Ovid is best known for his epic poem the **Metamorphoses** (*Changes*), which deals with mythology and themes of shape changing. Many famous stories come from this work, including the tales of Daedalus and Icarus (the father-and-son flying team), Pygmalion (the statue who came to life), and Pyramus and Thisbe (the star-crossed lovers). He wrote other works on love, including **Ars Amatoria** (*The Art of Love*), which gives advice on how men could find, court, and keep a lover. Its companion volume, **Remedia Amoris** (*The Cures for Love*), tells how to get out of a relationship.

Measuring Latin poetry

The Romans enjoyed many styles of poetry, from *elegies* (poems that praised the dead) to *lyric poems* (poems about feelings and emotions) to *epic poems* (really long poems about heroes). Roman poets had a range of poetic meters to choose from, and they tried to make the meter they used match the action or emotion of the poem.

The term *meter* in English poetry generally refers to the pattern of stressed and unstressed syllables. In Latin poetry, *meter* refers to the pattern of long and short vowels. Latin poetry was first and foremost to be heard. It wasn’t enough that a poet tell a good story. The meter of the poetry needed to match the plot line, similar to the soundtrack in a movie or the musical score of a play. Consider the importance of sound in the following line from the *Aeneid* (Book I, Line 53):

THE SCOOP ON DACTYLIC HEXAMETER

The most common meter in English poetry is iambic pentameter (the meter that Shakespeare used). The most common meter in Latin poetry is dactylic hexameter. Although English poetic meter is based on stressed and unstressed syllables, Latin meter relies on long and short syllables.

A hexameter line, as the name suggests, contains six poetic feet. In the case of dactylic hexameter, the basic foot is the *dactyl*, which in Latin is made up of one long and two short syllables. To scan a line of poetry means to identify the various feet, and the symbols for the dactylic foot are **-uu**.

Thus, a dactylic hexameter line looks like this:

-uu | -uu | -uu | -uu | -uu | - -

The reason that the last foot looks different is that the dactylic hexameter line usually ended with two long syllables, the components of a poetic foot called a *spondee*, although the line could end with a stressed syllable followed by an unstressed syllable, which is a *trochee*. And just to make things more interesting, Latin poets could substitute spondees in place of dactyls in any of the first four feet. In fact, the only foot that was almost always a dactyl was the fifth foot.

luctantis ventos tempestatesque sonoras

wrestling winds and thunderous storms

In these lines, the pounding repetition of long syllables creates a sound like that of a brewing storm, which is exactly what the line is describing.

Getting Grammar into Proper Condition

Cicero once said:

[I]acerent in tenebris omnia, nisi litterarum lumen accederet. (Cicero, *Pro Archia*, Line 14)

All things would lie in the shadows, if the light of literature were not falling on them.

The implication of that statement, of course, is that things don't lie in shadows because literature is shining its light. Cicero's statement describes something that is contrary to fact, and the construction that he uses to express this is a *conditional sentence*.

Conditional sentences are *if . . . then* sentences. For example, *if* (or on the condition that) you write a book, *then* the Sosii will publish it. Latin has all kinds of conditions; but four, covered in the following sections, deserve special notice.

Before you launch into the following sections, keep these tips in mind:

- » Latin conditions always involve the word **si** (*if*) or **nisi** (*if . . . not*).
- » The word *then* is never expressed in a Latin condition; it's implied.
- » The *if* part of a condition is the *protasis*, and the *then* part is the *apodosis*.

Future, less vivid

In the *future, less vivid* type of conditional sentence, the verbs in both the protasis and apodosis of the sentence are present subjunctive. You translate this conditional sentence as *should . . . would*. (If you need to review the difference between indicative and subjunctive mood, head over to Chapter 6.)

Consider this example:

Si librum scribas, librarii eum edant.

If you should write a book, the booksellers would sell it.

In this sentence, you have no guarantee that the action will happen. This is a vague, *less vivid* statement about what could happen in the future.

Future, more vivid

In the *future, more vivid* conditional sentence, the verb in the protasis can be in the future tense or the future perfect tense. The verb in the apodosis is in the future indicative. You translate this conditional as *will . . . will have*.

Take a look at this sentence:

Si librum scripseris, librarii eum edent.

If you will write a book, the booksellers will sell it.

This sentence makes a more vivid claim about the future. It states boldly every author's dream, that all you have to do is write the book, and you'll definitely get published.

Present, contrary to fact

In the *present, contrary to fact* conditional sentence, the verbs in both the protasis and apodosis are imperfect subjunctives. You translate these sentences with *were . . . would*.

Si librum scriberes, librarii eum ederent.

If you were writing a book, the booksellers would sell it.

Like the quotation from Cicero in the section “Getting Grammar into Proper Condition,” earlier in this chapter, the preceding example describes something that’s not true. It says that you have the potential to be a best-selling author, but because you’re not actually writing anything at the moment, don’t quit your day job.

Past, contrary to fact

In the *past, contrary to fact* conditional sentence, the verbs in both the protasis and apodosis are pluperfect subjunctive. You translate these sentences by using *had . . . would have*:

Si librum scripsisses, librarii eum edidissent.

If you had written a book, the booksellers would have sold it.

This sentence describes something contrary to fact in a past setting. Obviously, you didn’t write a book, and this sentence teases you with the thought of what might have been.

Telling It Secondhand — Indirect Statements

Using indirect statements, authors can report what someone said or heard without quoting a person directly. In the majority of narratives, indirect statements are more common than direct statements (the kind you’d put quotes around).

Imagine this. Someone tells you, “Bob got fired.” Wanting to show your concern (and some tact), you go up to Bob and say, “Bob, I hear you’re out of work.” In addition to showing Bob that you care, you just used an indirect statement. You know that you’ve got an indirect statement in English if you can put the word *that* into the sentence: “Bob, I hear that you’re out of work.”



REMEMBER

Latin indirect statements involve two basic elements, a noun in the accusative case and an infinitive. You can spot an indirect statement a mile away when you recognize an accusative-case noun and infinitive relatively close to each other in a sentence. For example:

Audio Catullum carmen novum scribere.

I hear Catullus is writing a new poem.

Catullum is accusative, and **scribere** is a present active infinitive, so you've got yourself an indirect statement. Throw in the word *that*, and the translation becomes *I hear that Catullus is writing a new poem*.

Chapter 2 tells you about the accusative case and introduces you to the infinitive.

Understanding Latin infinitives

You need to know a bit more about infinitives than Chapter 2 gives you before you can jump into the deep end with indirect statements.

The second dictionary entry for a Latin verb is an infinitive, but it's not the only one. In fact, most Latin verbs have six infinitive forms:

- » **Present active:** The second dictionary form of the verb and can be translated as *to*.
- » **Present passive:** Looks much like the active form, except that it uses the letter **-i**. Translated *to be*, the suffix you use depends on the conjugation:
 - 1st conjugation: **-ari**
 - 2nd conjugation: **-eri**
 - 3rd and 3rd-io conjugations: **-i**
 - 4th conjugation: **-iri**
- » **Perfect active:** Take the third dictionary entry for a verb, add the suffix **-sse**, and you have the perfect active infinitive. Translate perfect active by using the words *to have*.
- » **Perfect passive:** Uses the perfect passive participle, which is the fourth dictionary form. (For more on participles, see Chapter 9.) Make it a compound form by adding the word **esse**, then translate with *to have been*.
- » **Future active:** This form uses the future active participle. Like the perfect passive, you add the word **esse**. The basic translation is *to be about to*.

» **Future passive:** Use the perfect passive participle with **-um** ending, followed by the word **iri**. The translation is *to be about to be*.

Table 10-1 shows the infinitives for the verb **scribo, scribere, scripsi, scriptus** (*to write*).

TABLE 10-1

Infinitives

	Active	Translation	Passive	Translation
Present	scribere	<i>to write</i>	scribi	<i>to be written</i>
Perfect	scripsisse	<i>to have written</i>	scriptus, -a, -um esse	<i>to have been written</i>
Future	scripturus, -a, -um esse	<i>to be about to write</i>	scriptum iri	<i>to be about to be written</i>

To be about to be written sounds rather silly, doesn't it? The translations in Table 10-1 are the literal renderings for those infinitives. If you ever need to know what an infinitive really means, there you go. Most of the time, infinitives appear in indirect statements, and their translation changes according to the tense of the main verb. The following section explains how to translate infinitives in indirect statements correctly, depending on the tense of the main verbs.

Handling indirect statements

If you use the literal translation of an infinitive when you come up against one in a sentence, you likely end up with something that, although it makes sense, sounds a little odd. So, when you translate infinitives in indirect statements, pay attention to the tense of the main verb. It affects how you actually translate the sentence.

For the translation of infinitives in indirect statements, Table 10-2 puts everything in order.

The next two sentences differ only in the tense of the main verb, but notice how the translations change:

Dicunt Plautum fabulam scribere.

They say that Plautus is writing a play.

Dixerunt Plautum fabulam scribere.

They said that Plautus was writing a play.

The infinitive in both sentences, **scribere**, is present tense. The main verb of the first sentence, **dicunt**, is also present tense, so the sentence reads as a present-tense statement. In the second sentence, the main verb changes to **dixerunt**, which is perfect tense. This verb tense gives the translation of things happening in the past.

TABLE 10-2

Infinitive Translation in Indirect Statement

Tense of Main Verb	Infinitive	Infinitive Translation
Present, Future, Future Perfect	Present	<i>am, is, are</i>
Present, Future, Future Perfect	Perfect	<i>has, have, "past"</i>
Present, Future, Future Perfect	Future	<i>shall, will</i>
Imperfect, Perfect, Pluperfect	Present	<i>has, have, was, were, "past"</i>
Imperfect, Perfect, Pluperfect	Perfect	<i>had</i>
Imperfect, Perfect, Pluperfect	Future	<i>should, would</i>



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

The tense of an infinitive is always relative to the main verb. Present tense infinitives describe action at the same time as the main verb, perfect infinitives show action prior to the main verb, and future infinitives describe action in the future of the main verb.

Talkin' the Talk



Cicero and Vergil discuss Latin literature. (Notice the different conditions and indirect statements used.)

Cicero: **Cogito poetas patriae magis quam aliquem servire.**

I think that poets serve their country more than anyone.

Vergilius: **Ita vero. Nisi poetae facta patrum nostrum conservavissent . . .**

Yes, indeed. Unless poets had preserved the deeds of our fathers . . .

Cicero: **. . . eosdem errores fecissemus.**

. . . we would have made the same mistakes.

Vergilius: **Nisine orator esses, carmina scriberes?**

If you were not an orator, would you write poems?

Cicero: **Scribo, ergo omnes litterae sunt tabula mea.**

I write, therefore all literature is my writing tablet.

.....



Although he excelled at all other genres of writing, Cicero wasn't a great poet. Unfortunately, he never understood this. A line from his poem "**De Consulatu Suo**" ("*On His Own Consulship*"), that received much ridicule was **o fortunatam natam me consule Romam**, which means (and in a form rivalling Cicero's own bad rhyme) *O fortunate the Roman state born in my consulate*. Not only did this poem fail the humility test, but it sounded sour to the Roman ear. Romans didn't like rhymes (which this line is full of) in their poetry.

WORDS TO KNOW

carmen, carminis, n	song, poem
cogito, cogitare, cogitavi, cogitatus	to think
litterae, litterarum, f	literature
lumen, luminis, n	light
tempestas, tempestatis, f	storm
tenebrae, tenebrarum, f	shadows, darkness
vox, vocis, f	voice

Writing for the Rest of Us

Just as not all English writing is of a quality equivalent to Shakespeare, not all Latin writing meets the high mark set by the Ciceros and Vergils of the ancient world. Romans produced other types of writing, as well. Although not of the same literary quality as the works mentioned in the section "The Written Word," earlier in this chapter, these writings give us information about daily life in ancient Rome. Consider this the bumper-sticker-posterboard-greeting-card genre of Latin literature.

Letter writing

Mr. Formal Latin Writer himself, Cicero, is one source for a more mundane type of writing, the personal letter. Fortunately for the modern world, many of Cicero's letters were published after his death, providing a unique window into the daily life of first century BCE Rome. From these letters, you can discover such personal events as his concern for his son's education and his grief over his daughter's death.

You can also find out how to write a letter, Latin style. It turns out that the Romans had abbreviations and set phrases just like people in the modern world do. If you have ever texted, sent emails, or posted on social media, then you know abbreviations play an important role in online communication: for example, LOL for Laugh Out Loud, IMO for In My Opinion, TBH for To Be Honest, TGIF for Thank Goodness It's Friday.

A letter from Cicero to his friend Atticus, for example, might have begun:

Cicero Attico s.p.d. S.v.b.e.v.

Spelled out, this is

Cicero Attico salutem plurimam dicit. Si vales, bene est, valeo.

Cicero sends the heartiest greeting to Atticus. If you are well, it is well, I am well.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

A writer often dictated letters and other works to a secretary. It was Cicero's freedman secretary, Tiro, who is credited with the invention of Latin shorthand.

Another letter writer who earned some fame was Pliny the Younger (not to be confused with his uncle, Pliny the Elder, who wrote about the natural sciences, or Whiny Pliny, Tiny Pliny, and Spiny Pliny, three of the original seven dwarves). Pliny the Younger's letters are famous in the modern world for a couple of reasons:

- » **A volcanic explosion:** He was an eyewitness to the eruption of Mount Vesuvius in 79 CE, which claimed the life of his uncle and buried the city of Pompeii. In a letter to his friend, the historian Tacitus, he describes the destruction, including the cloud from the volcano that looked like an umbrella pine. As a result, a Plinian eruption today is an eruption that causes a pine tree-shaped cloud to form.
- » **What to do with the Christians:** One of his letters provides the earliest Latin evidence of how the Roman government viewed a new religion called Christianity. In a letter to the Emperor Trajan from around 112 CE, Pliny asks for advice on how to deal with these people who refuse to worship the Roman gods.

Etched in stone: Inscriptions

Inscriptions were any type of writing carved into a durable material, such as metal or stone. Scholars have catalogued thousands of inscriptions from all over the Roman Empire, and you can easily decipher many of them on monuments today. Well, *easily* may be a bit of a stretch. The letters are easy to see, but knowing what they mean isn't always so simple. Inscriptions tended to use many abbreviations, like in this example from the Pantheon in Rome:

M AGRIPPA L F COS TERTIUM FECIT

If all the letters were put back in, you'd have this:

Marcus Agrippa Luci filius consul tertium fecit.

Marcus Agrippa, son of Lucius, consul for the third time, made this.

Given the amount of room the inscribers had to work with on most monuments, you can see why the Romans abbreviated. The following are just a few of the abbreviations that you can find in Roman inscriptions:

» **L:** Lucius

» **C:** Gaius

An older form of this name was Caius. Eventually, the name spelling changed, but the abbreviation never did.

» **SEX:** Sextus

» **M:** Marcus

» **COS: Consul** (*chief magistrate*)

» **PONT MAX or PM: Pontifex Maximus** (*chief priest*)

» **IMP: Imperator** (*victorious army general*)

The writing on the wall: Graffiti

Graffiti provides an easily accessible form of Latin writing. A great source for ancient graffiti is the town of Pompeii, which was buried by volcanic eruptions from Mount Vesuvius in 79 CE. The ash and lava that destroyed the city also preserved it for centuries by protecting it from the sun's rays and the ravages of time.

When archeologists excavated the city, they found a wealth of information about daily Roman life. Take a look at a few examples:

Lucius pinxit.

Lucius painted this.

Virgula Tertio suo: Indecens es.

Virgula to her [boyfriend] Tertius: You are a nasty boy.

Oppi, emboliari, fur, furuncule.

Oppius, you're a clown, a thief, and a cheap crook.

With only a brief look at Latin graffiti, you can see that the writer of Ecclesiastes is proved correct once again:

Nihil sub sole novum. (Ecclesiastes 1:9)

There is nothing new under the sun.

FUN & GAMES

The Sosii brothers have just hired you as a copyist for the bookstore in Rome. It's your first day on the job, and in walks a customer who can only describe the types of books she wants but can't remember the authors' names. Can you help her?

(If you need an information sheet, the authors who you're dealing with are Apuleius, Caesar, Lucretius, Ovid, and Vergil.)

- 1 He wrote about shepherds, farming, and a long poem about the Trojan War.
- 2 This poet was famous for writing about philosophy and atoms.
- 3 He was a general, a great speaker, and — oh yeah — he wrote something about a war in Gaul.
- 4 This author wrote about a man turning into a donkey.
- 5 This poet also wrote about shape-changing, but he had plenty of advice on the art of seduction.

See Appendix C for the answers.



Latin in the Modern World

IN THIS PART . . .

Master subordinate clauses

Improve your translation skills

Recognize Latin in medical, ecclesiastical, and scientific terminology

Learn common Latin phrases

- » Solving the mysteries of simple Latin sentences
- » Looking at crime and punishment in ancient Rome
- » Translating legalese by using Latin

Chapter **11**

Keeping It Simple, Silly

In a mystery novel or murder trial, it's all about whodunit, and the same is true when it comes to translating Latin sentences. You need to know who's doing the action, when that action is taking place, and whether anyone or anything else is involved. The rest is just window dressing. Consider this English sentence. "Deep in the dark heart of the jungle where unidentified noises of the night could strike fear in the heart of the boldest explorer, the small team of Latin scholars who had just parachuted from the plane that had been sputtering ever since take-off bravely sought shelter in the hope of making it safely until morning." That sentence has a lot of great details, but when you boil it all down, you have this: "Team sought shelter." That's it. That's the core of the sentence. All of the rest gives you good information, and you can put it back in after you figure out the basic idea. But like any sleuth or trial attorney, you first have to know whodunit.

This chapter helps you understand how to approach simple Latin sentences and how to approach more complex sentences simply. It also introduces you to some legal Latin that could get you out of a jam if the opposing counsel says your behavior fits the **modus operandi** of the crime. You can always get help from an **amicus curiae**, even when you're both just watching your favorite courtroom thriller.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

STOP, THIEF!

If you were caught stealing in ancient Rome, the Latin word for *thief*, **fur**, would be branded on your forehead with a branding iron — a procedure that, in addition to messing up your hair, had to hurt. That practice is the origin of our modern-day expression “to be branded a thief.” The English word *furtive* — to act like a thief — also comes from this word.

Finding the Subject in the Case

As we discuss in Chapter 2, the case of a noun tells you how it functions in the sentence. So you may think that you simply need to spot the nouns in the nominative case to find the subject, and you’re right — sort of. We also talk in Chapter 2 about the fact that verb endings indicate who’s doing the action. So how do you put all that together? Start with the verb. Table 11-1 can help you keep it all straight.

TABLE 11-1

Getting the Subject From Verb Endings

Case	Singular	Translation	Plural	Translation
1st person	-o, -m, -i, -r	<i>I</i>	-mus, -mur	<i>we</i>
2nd person	-s, -isti, -ris	<i>you</i>	-tis, -mini	<i>you all</i>
3rd person	-t, -tur	<i>he, she, it</i>	-nt, -ntur	<i>they</i>

After you figure out the subject by looking at the verb ending, look around for any nominative-case nouns. If you find one, great! You have some more information about the subject. If you don’t see any nominatives, don’t worry. You can still figure out who’s doing the action by looking at the ending of the verb.

Consider this example:

Eramus anxii, sed patronus bonus amicum defendebat.

We were worried, but a good counselor was defending our friend.

PRACTICE MAKES PERFECT

The great Roman orator Cicero perfected his training in law by studying with Apollonius, son of Molon, on the island of Rhodes. Apollonius, who spoke no Latin, made Cicero deliver his speeches in Greek. When Cicero finished his training, his teacher replied that all the glories that had once been the pride of Greece would now be taken to Rome by Cicero.

The first verb is **eramus**. The **–mus** on the end tells you that the subject is *we*. The sentence doesn't contain any nouns that have nominative plural endings to go with this verb. You don't have any information about who *we* are, so just use *we* and move on. The second verb is **defendebat**, which you can see ends with a **–t**. Now, look for a nominative singular noun to go with it. If you don't find one, no worries. You still know that *he*, *she*, or *it* is the subject. In the preceding sentence, however, you do have a nominative singular noun, **patronus**, so use that as your subject.

Now it's time to practice. See if you can translate these sentences, using the mini-dictionary in Appendix B:

Accusatores iudicis iudicium audiverunt.

Captivus militibus tradebatur.

In foro leges novas legemus.

Pecuniam litigatorum accepisti.

Romanus sum, sed in Graecia legem disco.

Look for the answers to these translations at the back of the book.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

LETTING THE PUNISHMENT FIT THE CRIME

Crime in Rome, especially violent crime, increased when the wealthy landowners forced the lower classes off their small farms and into the big city. Slaves brought to Rome as war booty also created mass unemployment among the common people.

The Roman emperors gave **panem et circenses** — *bread and circuses* (meaning food and entertainment) — to keep the common folk distracted, but idleness led to increased crime. Anyone accused of a crime could be brought in front of the **praetor urbanus** (*the city judge*) by their accuser.

(continued)

(continued)

If you committed crimes in ancient Rome, such as false witness, adultery, and counterfeiting, you could be punished by death. If you received the death penalty, the Romans had a number of options to do you in:

- Buried alive
- Thrown from a cliff (in cases of treason)
- Burned
- Forced to fight gladiators to the death in the amphitheater
- Thrown to the lions or other wild animals
- Forced to learn Latin (just kidding)

Less serious crimes were punished in a policy of “an eye for an eye.” If you were fined, you paid the fee to the plaintiff — not the court. Sometimes, though, the court would send you to work in the mines or row in the Roman galleys. (At one point in the movie *Ben-Hur*, Charlton Heston’s character is forced to row alongside other slaves and criminals.)

Filling in the Details

You need to know more than just who did the crime. You also have to determine where it happened and who or what else was involved. All the forms of Latin words besides the nominative singular come into play. If someone owned the knife that was used in the murder, look for a genitive-case noun, which shows possession. If an accomplice was involved in the act, sniff out an ablative case noun nearby, which shows accompaniment. In the following list of Latin sentences, begin by figuring what’s what with the verb and subject, then build your case by filling in the details from the other words. Feel free to use the mini-dictionary in Appendix B for vocabulary help. Hopefully the judge rules in your favor:

1. **Brutus Caesarem interfecit.**
2. **Brutus cum senatoribus multis Caesarem interfecit.**
3. **Brutus cum senatoribus multis Caesarem pugionibus interfecit.**

4. **Postquam senatores Caesarem interfecerant, a curia cucurrerunt.**
5. **Unus senator pugionem Bruti in flumen iecit.**

You can find the answers to the preceding sentence translations in Appendix C.



When members of the upper classes, which included the senatorial class and the equestrian class (also known as the knights), were convicted of a crime, the court generally exiled them for a certain period of time (food and water forbidden within a given distance of Rome) and confiscated their property. If they committed a very serious crime, they often had the opportunity to commit suicide or get out of town. (Remember, having to leave Rome or to give up the benefits of Roman citizenship was a dire punishment because the Romans considered every non-Roman a barbarian and any place other than Rome — or not subject to Roman rule — uncivilized.)

Where Were You on the Night of the 15th?

Any attorney can tell you that you have to establish a timeline of events in a trial. Whether something happened before or after something else can make all the difference in the world. It's too bad Caesar didn't listen to his wife Calpurnia: She warned him before he went to the Senate on the Ides of March that something bad would happen. When he got stabbed by his enemies, he proved her right.

Figuring out the time is just as important when translating Latin. You may want to refresh yourself on verb tenses from Appendix A and keep Appendix B handy for vocabulary. Now, give translating the following sentences a try:

Exercise 11-2

1. **Senatorem in foro audiemus.**
2. **Senatores cum civibus loquebantur.**
3. **Iudicem in basilica videram antequam iudicium nuntiavit.**
4. **Captivum video, sed accusatores vides?**

Of course, you can find the answers to these translations Appendix C.

LOOKING AT THE LAW COURT

The ancient Romans erected elaborate buildings, **basilicae**, right next to the main forum, almost like a modern-day mall. They used these buildings mostly for their law courts, although they did rent out parts of these buildings to money-lenders and other merchants.

These buildings consisted of a central nave with an apse at one or both ends and rows of columns that formed two side aisles. Sound familiar? The faithful built early (and even some modern-day) Christian churches by using these designs.

A *judge*, the **iudex**, sat at the *judge's bench*, called the **tribunal**. In modern English, the word *tribunal* is used to indicate a committee or board appointed to judge some particular case or matter.

The **reus** — the *accused* — appeared before the judge and faced the *prosecutor*, the **accusator**. An **advocatus**, an *advocate* or *defense attorney*, helped the accused. This person didn't offer legal advice as much as suggestions on how the accused could present their case in the most eloquent way. After all, Roman lawyers were trained in the art of speaking, not the law.

In more serious cases, **iudices** assisted the judge. Like today, the jury helped determine the guilt and also recommended a suitable sentence, which the judge could impose.

Listening to Latin Litigation: Words Used in Roman Courts

So, the Romans loved to talk and argue. Laws, rules, and statutes dictated their lives. Therefore, you can find a ton of Latin terms relate to the law and court. The following sections give you terms and phrases that you're likely to encounter while you study Latin. Some of these terms are probably familiar to you because of all the English words that come from them. For example, the English words *jury*, *crime*, *justice*, *verdict*, *jurisprudence*, and *litigant* all come from Latin. (For a list of more Latin words used in English-speaking courts today, head to the "Latin Words Used in English-Language Courts" section, later in this chapter.)

Legal beagles: The cast and crew

Just like today, the Romans had a judge, a jury, a prosecutor, and a defense attorney. Table 11-2 gives you the Roman names of people typically involved in a lawsuit and their English meanings.

TABLE 11-2

Latin Words for Legal Participants

Latin Role	English Equivalent
accusator	<i>prosecutor</i>
advocatus	<i>lawyer</i>
iudex	<i>judge</i>
iudices	<i>jury</i>
magistratus	<i>magistrate</i>
praetor	senior magistrate
reus	<i>the accused</i>
scriba	<i>clerk</i>
testis	<i>witness</i>

Can you describe what you saw?

Was the thief wearing a blue hat and red pants? Did the crime take place in the tall house or in the abandoned building? Descriptions make all the difference in a court case, and those descriptive words, the adjectives, really add flavor to any sentence. Latin adjectives can trick you. Although some adjectives look like the nouns they modify, others don't.

In the same way that a good detective needs to determine whether someone was involved in an incident, you need to figure out which nouns are involved with which adjectives, and you can actually do it easily. Like we discuss in Chapter 4, adjectives and nouns must match — or *agree*, as we say in the grammar world — according to case, number, and gender. For example, if a noun is accusative, singular, and feminine, then any adjective modifying that noun must also be accusative, singular, and feminine. Sometimes the noun and adjective have the

same ending, and sometimes they don't. But they always match in those three ways. Take a look at this example:

Milites Romani in silva magna ambulabant.

The Roman soldiers were walking in the big forest.

The preceding sentence would have made just as much sense if you had said, "The big soldiers were walking in the Roman forest," so how do you know which translation is correct? Both **milites** (*soldiers*) and **Romani** (*Roman*) are nominative, plural, masculine forms. The noun ends in **-es** because it's in the 3rd declension, and the adjective ends in **-i** because it's in the 2nd declension. But they're both the same case, number, and gender. The other noun-adjective pair, **silva magna** (*big forest*), might seem easy because both words look alike. But still check to make sure they're following the rules, too. (Even nouns and adjectives have to obey the law!) Both words are ablative, singular, feminine forms. They look the same because they're both in the 1st declension.

See if you can correctly match the adjectives with their nouns in the following sentences (if you need help with vocabulary, check the mini-dictionary in Appendix B):

Exercise 11-3

1. **Auctores antiqui libros multos scripserunt.**
2. **Feminae iuvenes cum amicis senioribus ambulabant.**
3. **In temporibus antiquis homines multi linguam Latinam legebant et scribebant et dicebant.**
4. **Matres Spartanæ filios suos portantes scuta revenire cupiverunt.**

Check your answers in Appendix C.

CINCINNATUS: DICTATOR FARMER

Romans loved their dictators! Well, at least some of them — take Cincinnatus, for example.

Cincinnatus was a no-nonsense sort of guy who was a farmer (well, okay, a rich farmer). According to legend, when the *Aequi*, another tribe of people in Italy, attacked and routed the Roman army, Cincinnatus was called from his farm and appointed dictator. Anxious to get back to his plowing, Cincinnatus assembled an army, fought and whipped the Aequi, and then gave up his office so that he could return to his fields — all in 15 days.

Latin legal lingo

Table 11-3 lists a number of additional terms that can help you dive into Latin law.

TABLE 11-3

Latin Words Used in Roman Courts

Latin Word	English Translation
crimen	<i>accusation</i>
iudicium	<i>verdict</i>
ius	<i>law, right</i>
iussu	<i>by order of</i>
iustitia	<i>justice</i>
legitimus	<i>lawful</i>
lex	<i>law</i>
lis	<i>lawsuit</i>
litigator	<i>a party in a lawsuit</i>
veritas	<i>the truth</i>

Talkin' the Talk



The **iudex** (*judge*) in a trial asks the **advocatio** (*defense lawyer*) when the next witness is going to show up so that the trial can proceed.

Iudex: **Ubi est testis, advocatio?**
Where is the witness, counsel?

Advocatio: **Venit, venit.**
He's coming, he's coming.

Iudex: **Quando?**
When?

Advocatio: **Nunc! Est quoque testis in alia lite!**
Now! He is also a witness in another lawsuit!

- Iudex:** **Testis in alia lite?**
A witness in another lawsuit?
- Advocatio:** **Ita vero. Est optimus testis. Semper dicit veritatem!**
Yes. He is an excellent witness. He always speaks the truth!
- Iudex:** **Quis est?**
Who is he?
- Advocatio:** **Marcus.**
Marcus.
- Iudex:** **Nonne est frater rei?**
Isn't he the brother of the accused?
- Advocatio:** **Ita vero! Sed ille est optimus testis!**
Yes! But he is a very good witness!
- Iudex:** **Non tempus est. Duc mihi legitimum testem, sine mora!**
There is no time. Bring me a lawful witness without delay!
- Advocatio:** **O me miserum! Omnes mei testes sunt in carcere!**
O dear me! All my witnesses are in prison!
- Iudex:** **Deinde iussu iudicis, haec quaestio est prorogata sine die!**
Then by order of the judge, this trial is postponed indefinitely!
-

WORDS TO KNOW

accusator, accusatoris, m	prosecutor
crimen, criminis, n	accusation
iudex, iudicis, m	judge
iudicium, iudicii, n	verdict
lex, legis, f	law
litigator, litigatoris, m	party in a lawsuit

magistratus, magistratus, m	magistrate
scriba, scribae, m	clerk
veritas, veritatis, f	truth

Summation and Closing Arguments

When Roman writers, such as Cicero and Quintilian, discussed *rhetoric*, or the art of public speaking, they laid out several distinct parts to making a case, and our approach to translation follows a similar pattern. For example, a Roman speech began with the **exordium** (*introduction*) that set out the core information. Finding the subject is the **exordium** of translation. Following the **exordium** of a speech came the **narratio** (*narrative*), which presented the details, similar to figuring out the other noun cases in the sentence you want to translate, along with the verb tense. Cicero and Quintilian said that you should end a good speech with the **peroratio** (*conclusion*), which brings everything together in a summation, like when you finally get that Latin sentence translated to English.

So now, present your **peroratio** by trying your hand at translating the sentences listed below. Use the mini-dictionary in Appendix B for help with vocabulary. Do a good job, and the orators of old will cheer you on with a cry of, “**Bene factum!**” (“*Well done!*”) Use the rhetoric-structure method to translate these Latin sentences into English:

Use the information above to help you translate these Latin sentences.

Exercise 11-4

1. **Discipuli orationes Ciceronis magno cum studio legerunt.**
2. **Orationes Romanae a discipulis in terris omnibus leguntur.**
3. **Sententias Latinas legistis et litteras Romanorum cum facilitate mox legetis.**
4. **Linguam aliam discimus et ergo multum de aliis et de nobis discimus.**
5. **Unus discipulus linguam Latinam discit et aliam docet et multi linguam antiquam magnam intellegent.**

You can find the translations for the preceding sentences in Appendix C.

Latin Words Used in English-Language Courts

English-language legal terms are full of Latin words and phrases. Several of these terms are so common, you use them today without any problem or confusion. Take these words, for example:

- » **alibi** (*elsewhere, at another place*): If someone asks you to provide an alibi for your whereabouts, you know that you need to tell them where you were when a crime occurred to prove that you couldn't have done the awful deed.
- » **alias** (*at another time, otherwise*): In modern English-language usage, *alias* often refers to an alternative name that people generally use to conceal their identity. "John Smith, alias Henry Taylor, alias Clyde the Hustler" means John Smith is otherwise known as Henry Taylor, who is otherwise known as Clyde the Hustler.
- » **per se** (*by itself*): In English-language usage, **per se** can also mean *as such*. This phrase is used casually in English-language conversations: "I didn't call him stupid, **per se**. I simply said he had plenty to learn."
- » **versus** (*turned*): Often abbreviated as *vs.*, the more common English-language meaning is *against* or *in contrast to*. For example, in the case *Roe versus Wade*, privacy in cases of abortion was an issue.

Table 11-4 lists other common Latin words used in English-language courts and legal proceedings.

TABLE 11-4

Common Latin Words Used Today

Latin Word or Phrase	Translation	Modern Usage
affidavit	<i>he pledged</i>	a sworn, written statement
bona fide	<i>(in) good faith</i>	sincere, genuine
habeas corpus	<i>may you have the body</i>	bring a person before a court
per diem	<i>by the day</i>	daily
pro bono	<i>for the good</i>	done for free for the public good
status quo	<i>the existing condition or state of affairs</i>	how things are currently
sub poena	<i>under the penalty</i>	an order commanding a person to appear in court under a penalty for not appearing

The following sections offer more Latin words that courts use today. Like the words in Table 11-4, you may have heard many of these words already; you may even use them without knowing what they really mean. (Don't worry. Many people who use them don't know, either.)

Common courtroom Latin

Many of the terms that lawyers and other legal folk use have come down to us in their original Latin forms. Table 11-4 lists some of the more common Latin words that are still in use today. The following list has even more examples:

» **ex officio:** These words would appear in a Latin sentence such as the following:

- **Imperator erat ex officio quoque dux exercitus.**
- *The emperor was, by virtue of his position, also the leader of the army.*

Today, you see or hear this word in a sentence such as this:

- The headmaster of the school is *ex officio* also a member of the school board.

» **persona non grata:** This phrase would appear in a Latin sentence such as the following:

- **Post caedem Caesaris, Brutus erat habitus persona non grata Romae.**
- *After the assassination of Caesar, Brutus was regarded as a person not pleasing in Rome.*

Today, you see or hear this phrase in a sentence like this:

- After his conviction for embezzling funds, John was treated like a *persona non grata* by his former colleagues.

You can hear these words and other words (shown in Table 11-5) in many places — particularly on TV or in the movies. They're common enough that the audience can get the gist of their meaning and still follow the story line, but they're obscure enough to make the actors sound like experts in the law. (In the movie *The Silence of the Lambs*, did you know what Hannibal "The Cannibal" Lecter means when he says to Agent Starling, "Quid pro quo, Clarice. Quid pro quo"? If you look at Table 11-5, you can!)

TABLE 11-5

Latin Words Used in English-Language Courts

Latin Word or Phrase	Translation	Modern Usage
ad hoc	<i>to this</i>	for a specific purpose, case, or situation
corpus delicti	<i>body of the crime</i>	material evidence in a crime
de facto	<i>from the fact</i>	in reality; actually; in effect
de iure	<i>from the law</i>	according to law; by right
ad infinitum	<i>forever</i>	forever
in absentia	<i>in (his/her) absence</i>	in (his/her) absence
in camera	<i>in a room</i>	in private; no spectators allowed
in loco parentis	<i>in the place of a parent</i>	in the place of a parent
ipso facto	<i>by the fact itself</i>	by that very fact
locus delicti	<i>scene of the crime</i>	scene where a crime took place
modus operandi	<i>mode of working</i>	method of operating
nolo contendere	<i>I do not wish to contend</i>	a defendant's plea equivalent to an admission of guilt, with the legal option to deny the charges later
prima facie	<i>at first face</i>	at first sight
pro forma	<i>for the sake of form</i>	done as formality, done for the show
quid pro quo	<i>this for that</i>	something for something; tit for tat; an equal exchange

Talkin' the Talk



Cicero, a lawyer, is quizzing his client Sucus about where Sucus was the night the crime was committed.

Cicero: **Ubi fuisti? Domi?**

Where were you? At home?

Sucus: **Ita vero. Domi**

Yes. At home.

Cicero: **Quid agebas?**
What were you doing?

Sucus: **Me lavabam.**
I was taking a bath.

Cicero: **Numquamne a villa discessisti?**
You never left the house?

Sucus: **Ita! Ivi ad tabernam et emi mihi aliquid pulli.**
Yes! I went to the shop and bought myself some chicken.

Cicero: **Itaque de facto discessisti a villa! Ivistine ad locum delicti?**
And so you actually did leave the house! Did you go to the scene of the crime?

Sucus: **Non. Statim redii domum.**
No. I immediately returned home.

Cicero: **Sed discessisti a villa! Ipso facto tu videris nocens!**
But you left the house! By that very fact, you appear guilty!

Sucus: **Ita vero. Sed nemo vidit me!**
Yes. But nobody saw me!

Cicero: **In tua absentia, quem reliquisti in loco parentis?**
In your absence, whom did you leave in the place of the parent?

Sucus: **Nemo.**
Nobody.

Cicero: **Eheu! Puto te debere implorare: "Nolo contendere"!**
Oh no! I think that you must plead: "Nolo contendere"!

Sucus: **Putasne?**
You think so?

Cicero: **Ita vero. Prima facie tu es innocens. Sed perdemus hanc litem!**
Yes. At first sight, you are innocent. But we are going to lose this case!

.....

WORDS TO KNOW

ad hoc	for a specific purpose, case, or situation
bona fide	(in) good faith
corpus delicti	body of the crime
de facto	in reality; actually
de iure	according to law; by right
ex officio	by virtue of position
habeas corpus	may you have the body
ipso facto	by the fact itself
modus operandi	method of operating
per diem	per day, by the day
persona non grata	person not pleasing
prima facie	at first appearance
pro bono	done for free for the public good
pro forma	for the sake of form
quid pro quo	this for that
sub poena	under the penalty

Less common Latin phrases

If you've read the earlier sections in this chapter, you know that Latin plays a big role in English-language legal mumbo-jumbo. We often refer to the language that lawyers use as *legalese* because it has so many Latin phrases and words that it seems like its own language. Table 11-6 lists a few of the less-common Latin phrases that you probably hear only if you — or someone you know — actually ends up in a court of law.

TABLE 11-6

Other Latin Legal Terms

Latin Word or Phrase	Translation	Modern Usage
a mensa et toro	<i>from table and bed</i>	legal marital separation
casus belli	<i>occasion of war</i>	an event that justifies a war
cui bono	<i>for whom the good</i>	whom does it benefit?
(in) flagrante delicto	<i>while the crime is burning</i>	caught red-handed, in the act
inter alia	<i>among other things</i>	among other things
mutatis mutandis	<i>having changed what must be changed</i>	after making the necessary changes
non compos mentis	<i>not of sound mind</i>	mentally incompetent
obiter dictum	<i>something said in passing</i>	something a judge says in arguing a point that has no bearing on the final decision
onus probandi	<i>burden of proving</i>	burden of proof
pendente lite	<i>while judgment is pending</i>	a case in progress
res ipsa loquitur	<i>the matter itself speaks</i>	it goes without saying
sine qua non	<i>without which not</i>	an indispensable condition; a prerequisite
sine die	<i>without a day</i>	postponed indefinitely
sub judice	<i>under the judge</i>	pending judgment
ultra vires	<i>beyond strength</i>	outside one's jurisdiction

WORDS OF WISDOM

The Romans contributed the following sayings that people still use today:

- **Caveat emptor.** (*Let the buyer beware.*)
- **Dura lex sed lex.** (*The law is hard, but it is the law.*)
- **Errare humanum est.** (*To err is human.*)
- **Carpe diem.** (*Seize the day.*)
- **In vino veritas.** (*In wine there is truth.*)
- **Quis custodes ipsos custodiet.** (*Who will guard the guards themselves?*)

Talkin' the Talk



A **iudex** (*judge*) questions the **reus** (*accused*) about their participation in a theft. The judge is getting tired of their evasive answers and wants to get to the truth.

Iudex: **Vera? Vera! Cupio vera! Dic mihi ab initio ubi fueris et cum quo!**

The truth? The truth! I want the truth! Tell me from the beginning where you were and with whom.

Reus: **Eram, eram . . . domi!**

I was, I was . . . at home!

Iudex: **Cum quo?**

With whom?

Reus: **Cum matre et patre.**

With my mother and father.

Iudex: **Sed vigil dixit mihi se apprehendisse te in flagrante delicto!**

But the officer told me that he caught you red-handed!

Reus: **Nescio.**

I don't know.

Iudex: **Iuvenis, hic veritas est sine qua non.**

Young man, here, truth is an indispensable condition!

Reus: **Scio.**

I know.

Iudex: **Scis? Tu es non compos mentis! Puto te debere pernoctare in carcere!**

You know? You are not of sound mind! I think that you must spend the night in prison!

Reus: **In carcere? O me miserum! Quid faciam?**

In prison? Oh, poor me! What am I to do?

Iudex: **Habuisti onus probandi te innocentem. Concidisti.**

You had the burden of proving yourself innocent. You failed.

Reus: O me miserum. Sum innocens. Crede mihi, si tibi placet!

Oh, poor me. I am innocent. Believe me, please!

Iudex: Custos, inice hunc furciferum in carcerem sub iudice!

Jailer, throw this jailbird into prison pending judgment!



WORDS TO KNOW

ab initio	from the beginning
ad libitum	freely, as desired
casus belli	occasion of war, an event that justifies a war
(in) flagrante delicto	red-handed, in the act
non compos mentis	not of sound mind
onus probandi	burden of proving
sine qua non	an indispensable condition; a prerequisite
sine die	postponed indefinitely
sub iudice	pending judgment

FUN & GAMES

Choose the correct English usage for the following Latin words or phrases.
Write down the appropriate letter in the space provided:

- | | |
|------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| ___1. sine die | A) somewhere else |
| ___2. crimen | B) by virtue of one's position |
| ___3. alibi | C) material evidence in a crime |
| ___4. caveat emptor | D) among others |
| ___5. quid pro quo | E) postponed indefinitely |
| ___6. ex officio | F) at first sight |
| ___7. in camera | G) an accusation |
| ___8. inter alia | H) the existing state or condition |
| ___9. prima facie | I) let the buyer beware |
| ___10. lex | K) tit for tat |
| ___11. corpus delicti | L) a law |
| ___12. status quo | M) in private, without spectators |

See Appendix C for the answers.

- » Going deep into Latin noun declensions
- » Seeing the Latin in medical terms
- » Reading prescriptions

Chapter **12**

The Decline and Fall of Roman Declensions

Even in the ancient world, when your health started to decline, you went to a doctor. But you can find a type of declining that actually makes you better — better at translating Latin, anyway. As we discuss in Chapter 2, *declensions* are groups of Latin nouns that use the same suffix for each case. However, just like in the medical world, where similar symptoms may indicate different illnesses, so in Latin grammar, the same suffixes may indicate different functions. How can you tell what's going on?

This chapter helps you sort it all out. You may even become a specialist in multiple branches of medicine — uh, we mean grammar — by dissecting the basics of Latin verbs, as well. Along the way, you can pick up some actual medical knowledge because Latin was originally the **lingua franca** (*the common language*) that earlier scientists and researchers in the Western world shared. So a large number of medical terms and names for human body parts come from Latin. Folks in the medical profession today still use many of these terms. (And you thought they were talking Greek!) This chapter gives you the information you need to make sense of what your doctor, pharmacist, nurse, case manager, or other healthcare provider is saying when they ask you, “Are you experiencing any symptoms of **angina**?” or “When you **expectorate**, is your **sputum** green in color?” or when they advise, “Stop taking this medication if you experience any vertigo.

A Rose Is a Rose Is a Rose — But Not in Latin

With the exception of pronouns and adding an apostrophe-s to a noun to indicate possession, English nouns don't change their spelling based on how you use them. In the sentences, "I like Latin," "Latin is fun," and "You can do great things with Latin," the word *Latin* appears as three very different components of a sentence, but you always spell it the same. The Romans would have found this universal spelling quite confusing. To them, if you use a word differently, you spell that word differently — which does make some sense, if you think about it. Yet just like the common cold can infect your body, some confusion did infect the Latin language. But if you spot these confusing aspects early, they shouldn't keep you under the weather for long.

Consider the lookalike noun endings in Table 12-1.

TABLE 12-1

Easily Confused Noun Endings

Noun Ending	Case	Number
-a	nominative	singular or plural
	accusative	plural
	ablative	singular
-ae	nominative	plural
	genitive	singular
	dative	singular
-is	genitive	singular
	dative	plural
	ablative	plural
-us	nominative	singular or plural
	genitive	singular
	accusative	plural
-i	genitive	singular
	dative	singular
	nominative	plural

Noun Ending	Case	Number
-um	nominative	singular
	accusative	singular
	genitive	plural
-es	nominative	singular or plural
	accusative	plural
-ibus	dative	plural
	ablative	plural
-u	nominative	singular
	dative	singular
	accusative	singular
	ablative	singular
-ei	dative	singular
	genitive	singular
-ebus	dative	plural
	ablative	plural



REMEMBER

In order to be a good translator, you need to be an even better sleuth. You need to look for clues that Latin provides you. If a Latin word ends in an **-a**, that does not necessarily mean the word is the subject of the sentence (or in the nominative case, as in the 1st declension). It could also be an ablative singular of the 1st declension, or a nominative, accusative, or a vocative plural of either the 2nd, 3rd, or 4th declensions of neuter nouns. Phew! And nouns ending in **-us** are not necessarily from the 2nd declension. They could also be 3rd or 4th declension. So you just need to tread very carefully. (The Latin word for “footprint” is **vestigium**, so to follow in someone’s footprints, is to investigate.)

Sending It Off to the Lab (or the Dictionary)

If you look over Table 12-1, you may be thinking, “If endings can look exactly the same yet indicate something different, how can I ever figure out what is what?” Have no fear! Your handy Latin dictionary comes to the rescue. Think of a Latin

dictionary like the medical lab that can analyze your noun samples for you. In addition to giving you a noun's definition, a dictionary also can tell you the noun's gender and declension. Equipped with that information, you can diagnose any noun. Table 12-2 shows how to tell the different declensions apart.

TABLE 12-2

Identifying Noun Declensions

2nd Dictionary Entry Ending	Declension Number
-ae	1st declension
-i	2nd declension
-is	3rd declension
-us	4th declension
-ei	5th declension

For example, consider the word **cerebri** (*brain*). From Table 12-1, you determine that this noun could be genitive singular, dative singular, or nominative plural in form. If you go to your Latin dictionary, you find that its listing is **cerebrum, cerebri, n.** – *brain*. Because the second entry ends with **-i**, you know that the noun is 2nd declension. And because the dictionary also tells you that this is a neuter noun, **cerebri** can be only one form, genitive singular.

It's very easy to identify the number of the declension. The genitive singular (or the 2nd principal part) of any noun is a very clear indicator of the number of that noun's declension. If the genitive singular ends in **-ae**, it is 1st declension; if it ends in **-i**, it's 2nd; if it ends in **-is**, it is 3rd; if it ends in **-us**, it is 4th; and if it ends in **-ei**, it's 5th. It's as simple as that. Once you have identified the number of the noun's declension, look in the Appendix A to see how nouns of that declension declines. It will be even more helpful if you can manage to memorize them.

Put noun identification into practice by seeing if you can identify the possible case and number for each of the following nouns. You can refer to Table 12-2 and the noun tables in Appendix A, as well as the Words to Know in this section. Match up the noun with its case:

Exercise 12-1

1. capita

- A. nominative singular B. nominative plural C. ablative singular

2. vena

- A. accusative plural B. nominative plural C. nominative singular

3. pedum

- A. genitive plural B. nominative singular C. accusative singular

4. cervicis

- A. dative plural B. genitive singular C. ablative plural

5. nasus

- A. genitive singular B. nominative plural C. nominative singular

You can find the answers to the preceding exercise in Appendix C.

WORDS TO KNOW

atrium, atrii, n	chamber, room
caput, capitis, n	head
cerebrum, cerebri, n	brain
cervix, cervicis, f	neck
cor, cordis, n	heart
manus, manus, f	hand
nasus, nasi, m	nose
oculus, oculi, m	eye
pes, pedis, m	foot
vena, venae, f	vein

ROMANS AND MEDICINE

What the Romans knew about medicine came largely from the Greeks and the writings of **Hippocrates**, a Greek physician who lived in the fifth century BCE. Unlike other doctors of the time, who thought that illness was a punishment handed out by the gods, Hippocrates believed that every disease had a natural cause and could therefore be diagnosed and treated. He drew up a code of behavior for doctors, known as the *Hippocratic oath*. Today, graduating medical students still take the Hippocratic oath.

In ancient Rome, doctors were usually freedmen or slaves, and their training consisted of mostly apprentice work; they trained as doctors by following another doctor on his rounds. Doctors also enjoyed certain privileges: For example, they were exempt from paying taxes. On the whole, though, the Romans didn't think too highly of their doctors. In his *Epigrams*, Roman satirist **Martialis** wrote:

Nuper erat medicus, nunc est vispillo Diaulus:

quod vispillo facit, fecerat et medicus.

Until recently, Diaulus was a doctor; now he is an undertaker:

What he is doing as an undertaker, he also used to do as a doctor.

Of course, this sentiment may not be all that harsh if you consider the life expectancy of the ancient Romans: 25 years for women and 45 years for men.

Getting a Second Opinion through Context

You absolutely must use the Latin dictionary when you need to determine the form of a noun, so you should certainly start there. However, sometimes even the dictionary alone can't help you make a sure diagnosis. For example, even if you know from the dictionary entry that **aqua, aquae, f.** – *water* is a feminine noun in the first declension, you may still find yourself stumped over what to do with a form like **aquae**. It could be genitive singular, dative singular, or nominative plural, so you need some further consultation — specifically, with context. Consider each option to figure out which form makes the most sense. For example, look at this Latin sentence:

Caput puellae est in dolore magno.

You can rule out nominative plural as the form of **puellae** right away because the verb, **est**, is singular. In Latin, like in English, you can't have a plural verb with a singular noun, or vice versa. If **puellae** in the preceding sentence is genitive singular, then you translate the sentence as *The head of the girl is in great pain*. If this **puellae** is dative, however, you would translate *The head to the girl is in great pain*. At this point, hopefully your English sense kicks in and you realize that **puellae** is genitive. (Tell her to take two aspirin and call you in the morning.)

Completing Your Residency

This section gives you some sentences about Romans who have medical complaints. Pay close attention to the forms of the nouns listed in the mini-dictionary in Appendix B and think through each noun's case and number. See if you can translate the following sentences:

Exercise 12-2

1. **Romani aegri medicum bonum paene petebant.**
2. **Venae sanguinem ad cor portant, et spiritus per nasum fluit.**
3. **Cerebra sunt in capitibus et capita sunt in cervicibus, sed pedes corpus sustinent.**
4. **Medicus dolorem pedis, sed amor dolorem cordis paene semper sanat.**

The translations for the preceding Latin sentences are in Appendix C.



REMEMBER

Many Latin names and terms are descriptive, which can help you remember which word refers to what body part. For example, the Latin word **fibula** originally meant *brooch*. A Roman brooch resembled our modern-day diaper pin or safety pin. Together, the tibia and fibula resembled this kind of pin, with the fibula forming the sharp, thinner part of the combination.

Flexing those muscles

The muscles of the human body have, for the most part, Latin names. You've probably heard of bodybuilders working on their abs, their lats, their pecs, or their glutes. But did you know that they're really speaking in abbreviated Latin? (Chances are, they didn't know, either.) Table 12-3 lists the body's major muscles.

TABLE 12-3

Latin Words for Muscles

Latin Word	English Translation	Body Part
biceps	<i>two-headed</i>	two-headed muscle at the front of the upper arm that flexes the forearm
fascia	<i>band</i>	membrane that separates and encircles muscles
gluteus maximus	<i>largest rump</i>	largest muscle of your <i>derrière</i> (that's French for <i>rump</i> , by the way)
latissimus dorsi	<i>widest of the back</i>	one of two muscles running from the vertebral (<i>spinal</i>) column to the <i>humerus</i> (the bone in your upper arm)
obliquus externus abdominis (often shortened to <i>obliques</i>)	<i>external slanting muscles of the abdomen</i>	external muscle of the of the abdomen, situated in a slanting position
pectoralis maior	<i>the greater of the breast</i>	chest muscle that rotates the arm inward
rectus abdominis (often shortened to <i>abs</i>)	<i>upright of the abdomen</i>	muscle that vertically spans the abdomen
triceps	<i>three-headed</i>	three-headed muscle running along the back of the upper arm that extends the forearm

Interior design

Galen of Pergamum (129–216 CE), court physician of Roman Emperor Marcus Aurelius, believed that surgery was an important part of healthcare. He was especially interested in how the human body worked, and to find out, he spent much of his time dissecting plenty of animals — mainly pigs, monkeys, goats, and sheep. From this study, he drew conclusions about the human body — many of them accurate, some of them pretty off the wall.

Nevertheless, his study of the body, as well as his place as one of the preeminent physicians of his time, gave Galen plenty of influence when it came to how doctors in ancient Rome practiced. So, despite the Romans' reliance on incantations, charms, amulets, and the intercession of various gods, they also had a pretty enlightened view of surgery and how it fit into medical theory.

Table 12-4 shows the Latin words used to describe organs, organ systems, and structures found on the inside of the human body. You may be surprised to see how many of them that you already know — and even more surprised to think that doctors in the Bronze and Iron Ages knew about them, too.

TABLE 12-4

Latin Words for Internal Organs

Latin Word	English Translation	Modern Usage
alveolus	<i>small hollow</i>	small air sac, found in the lungs
atrium	<i>chamber, room</i>	one of the two upper chambers of the heart
cerebrum	<i>brain</i>	large, rounded structure of the brain
cervix	<i>neck, neck-shaped structure</i>	narrow outer end of the uterus
fistula	<i>pipe, passage</i>	passage that connects an area of the body to another area (or the body surface), allowing fluid to pass between the two
humor	<i>fluid</i>	any bodily fluid, such as blood, lymph, or bile
lacuna	<i>cavity, space, small hollow, pond</i>	any cavity or space, especially in a bone
macula	<i>spot</i>	small area that looks different from the surrounding tissue
medulla oblongata	<i>oblong-shaped marrow</i>	lowermost portion of the brain
sinus	<i>fold,</i>	any of the various air-filled cavities of the skull
vena	<i>vein</i>	vascular tube found in the body
vena cava	<i>hollow vein</i>	either of two large vascular tubes that empty into the heart

Getting In Shape with Verbs

Think of nouns like organs; they make up the basic stuff of a sentence. But what puts all that stuff into motion? What gives it action and life? In your body, the muscles move things around. And in sentences, that work falls to the verbs. As we discuss in Chapter 3, verbs fit into groups called conjugations, and just like with nouns, you need to know a verb's conjugation to determine its tense (especially when it comes to present and future tenses). Table 12-5 can help you keep it all straight.

The sharp-eyed among you might say, "Hey! How can I tell the difference between 2nd and 3rd conjugation?" The first dictionary entry of 2nd conjugation verbs

ends with **-eo**, unlike the first entry for 3rd and 3rd-io conjugation verbs. Also, the **-ere** at the end of the second dictionary entry of 2nd-conjugation verbs is long, which the dictionary often marks. But the **-ere** of 3rd-conjugation verbs is short.

TABLE 12-5

Identifying Verb Conjugations

2nd Dictionary Entry	Conjugation Number
-are	1st conjugation
-ere	2nd conjugation
-ere	3rd and 3rd-io conjugations
-ire	4th conjugation

So, why does it matter which conjugation a verb belongs to? Actually, most of the time, it doesn't matter at all. In fact, a verb's conjugation makes a difference only when it comes to the present tense and the future tense. Take a look at Tables 12-6 and 12-7 to see how to recognize verb tenses by conjugation.

TABLE 12-6

Identifying Present and Future Tenses

Tense	1st Conjugation	2nd Conjugation	3rd, 3rd-io, and 4th Conjugations
Present	-a-	-e-	-i-, -u-
Future	-bo-, -bi-, -bu-	-bo-, -bi-, -bu-	-a-, -e-

TABLE 12-7

Identifying All Other Tenses

Tense	All Conjugations
Imperfect	-ba-
Perfect	-i-, -isti, -it, -imus, -istis, -erunt
Pluperfect	-era-
Future Perfect	-ero, -eri-

WHAT'S WITH THE SWORD AND THE SNAKES?

Ever wonder why the medical profession has as its symbol a sword with snakes circling around it? Well, first, the sword isn't a sword; it's a magic wand. Second — okay, those are indeed snakes, but they have a good reason to be there. Here's the story.

Apollo was the Roman god of medicine. His son Aesculapius eventually took over the family business and became the chief Roman god of medicine and healing. According to legend, Aesculapius arrived in Rome in the form of a snake and landed on **Insula Tiberina** (*Tiber Island*), where he founded a hospital. (A hospital in Rome still occupies this site today.) So the snakes represent Aesculapius.

The magic wand represents **Mercurius**, better known to us as *Mercury*, the messenger of the gods, who also accompanied the souls of the dead to the Underworld. As such, Mercury could move freely between the living and the dead.

Hence, the symbol of the medical profession: Called a **caduceus**, it's the magic wand of Mercury surrounded by two entwined snakes.

Look up the following verbs in the mini-dictionary in Appendix B and identify their tense:

Exercise 12-3

1. **regebant** _____
2. **dicemus** _____
3. **habueras** _____
4. **cenabo** _____
5. **venisti** _____

You can check your answers in Appendix C.

This Doesn't Seem Right, Doc

Latin has a group of verbs known as deponent verbs. These particular verbs have only passive forms in Latin, but we end up translating them into English as if they're active. That's right. These verbs have no active forms at all in Latin, only

passive, yet they have no passive translations at all in English, only active. (Not sure how active forms differ from passive ones? Check out Chapter 9.)

When it comes to an actual Latin sentence, you can't tell whether a verb is truly passive or a deponent, so you have to visit the Latin dictionary to find out. A deponent verb has three dictionary entries, and the first will end in **-or**.

Consider the following example:

Medicina portabatur a medico qui arbitrabatur de liberis aegris.

The medicine was being carried by the doctor, who was thinking about the sick children.

We can probably agree that **portabatur** and **arbitrabatur** both look passive. (If you don't agree, then flip back to Chapter 9.) However, only one of these verbs is genuinely passive voice; the other is a deponent. A quick trip to the dictionary can clear up the confusion:

porto, portare, portavi, portatus – *to carry*

arbitror, arbitrari, arbitratus sum – *to think*

Because it has three dictionary entries with the first entry ending in **-or**, **arbitrabatur** is the deponent verb.

In English, *was being carried* is passive, and **portabatur** is passive in Latin. Because **arbitrabatur** is a deponent verb, even though it looks passive, it gets the active translation of *was thinking*.

The deponent verb **hortor, hortari, hortatus sum** means *I encourage*. Let's pretend that you didn't recognize it as a deponent verb and wanted to translate it as "I am encouraged." The sentence **milites hortor** will then be hard to translate. You could try it as "The soldiers I am encouraged" or "I am encouraged the soldiers". But wait! Passive verbs cannot take direct objects or accusative nouns. Therefore, this verb must be a deponent verb, because deponent verbs are *passive* in form and *active* in meaning. Therefore, deponent verbs can take direct objects (nouns in the accusative case, in other words). So, the sentence **milites hortor** will best be translated as *I encourage the soldiers!*



REMEMBER

When you see a verb that looks passive but has a noun in the accusative case near it, the chances are that the verb is a deponent verb!

See if you can translate these sentences that have a mix of active voice, passive voice, and deponent verbs (consult the mini-dictionary in Appendix B):

Exercise 12-4

1. **Salus bona cibum bonum sequitur.**
2. **Verba medici te hortabuntur aut te maestum facient?**
3. **In foro videbaris, sed in agro esse pollicitus eras.**

You can check your answers in Appendix C.

Talkin' the Talk



Two students, Aemilia and Clodia, are cramming for final exams. They're quizzing one another about the human heart.

Aemilia: Quid est atrium?

What is the atrium?

Clodia: Atrium est cubiculum quod accipit sanguinem ex venis.

The atrium is a chamber that receives blood from the veins.

Aemilia: Quot atria cor habet?

How many atriums does the heart have?

Clodia: Duo.

Two.

Aemilia: Recte!

Correct!

Clodia: Quot cubicula cor habet?

How many chambers does the heart have?

Aemilia: Quattuor?

Four?

Clodia: Recte! Hoc est tam facile!

Correct! This is so easy!

Aemilia: Mox fiemus medicae!

Soon we shall be doctors!

Understanding Common Medical Terms

So, you finally summon up the courage to go the doctor, but you don't know the meaning of the terms the doctor uses. When the doctor opens their mouth, you probably hear

The tests revealed a slight *gibberish* affecting your *gibberish*.

You probably interpret what you hear as

You have a horrible disease that will probably kill you before you leave the office.

Because most doctors use Latin and most other folks — including you — don't, you face quite a communication gap and probably plenty of unnecessary panic when you go to the doctor's office. Table 12-8 offers a few Latin terms often used in modern medicine so that you can figure out what the heck the doctor is saying and hopefully keep the panic at bay.

TABLE 12-8

Medical Terms

Latin Word	English Translation	Medical Usage
caries	<i>decay</i>	decay of a bone or tooth
cerumen	<i>wax</i>	wax, especially of the ear
decubitus	<i>lying down</i>	bedridden
delirium tremens	<i>trembling insanity</i>	a condition in which an alcoholic experiences hallucinations, confusion, and trembling
fremitus	<i>murmur</i>	vibration that can be felt by placing the hand directly on the body
in situ	<i>in the original place</i>	in the normal place
insomnia	<i>without sleep</i>	inability to sleep properly
in vitro	<i>within the glass</i>	in a test tube
libido	<i>lust</i>	sex drive
lumbago	<i>loin</i>	severe pain in the lower back
nausea	<i>feeling sick</i>	feeling queasy or vomitous
nocturia	<i>night urine</i>	frequent urination at night

Latin Word	English Translation	Medical Usage
ovum	<i>egg</i>	egg
placebo	<i>I shall please</i>	a substance containing no actual medication given to a patient to reinforce their expectation to get better
rubella	<i>little red things</i>	German measles, characterized by a red rash
sputum	<i>spit</i>	saliva and mucus
statim (frequently shortened to <i>stat</i>)	<i>immediately</i>	immediately
tinnitus	<i>ringing</i>	an ear condition in which the patient hears a constant ringing
varicella	<i>speckled</i>	chickenpox
vertigo	<i>turn</i>	any sensation of dizziness

EARLY HOSPITALS

The first hospitals for the poor began in temples. For example, the temple of Aesculapius was on an island in the middle of the Tiber River and initially served as a dumping ground for sick slaves. They were sent to the island so that no one in Rome would have to take care of them. Isolating sick folks was also a good way to keep others from contracting any communicable diseases they suffered from. In time, Aesculapius' temple became one of the first Roman public hospitals.

The size of the Roman Empire increased while its armed might grew. Military hospitals accompanied the armies all over the Roman world and spread their medical knowledge and practices to the locals. Highly organized and effective, these military hospitals treated soldiers wounded in battle. These hospitals could also take care of broken and dislocated bones, as well as perform amputations.

Roman medical personnel administered analgesics, such as opium and alcohol, to patients suffering painful injuries. Archaeologists have found a great deal of surgical equipment — including scissors, tweezers, forceps, scalpels, clamps, and probes — in ancient Pompeii, Ostia, and other parts of the Roman Empire.

Using Latin at the Drugstore

Surely you've noticed the abbreviation *Rx* on your prescriptions? Ever wonder what it means? Actually, *Rx* is the abbreviation for the Latin word **recipe**, which is the imperative singular form of the verb **recipio** (*take*). *Rx* is a direct order — “Take your medicine!” (For more on imperative forms, see Chapter 3.)

Rx isn't the only holdover from Latin that you can find on your prescriptions. Many of the terms and notations for prescriptions also come from Latin. But because the labels on the canisters are so small, the pharmacist uses some abbreviations for the doctor's instructions. Table 12-9 lists the Latin words that you're likely to come across and the abbreviations that go with them.

TABLE 12-9

Common Abbreviations on Prescriptions

Abbreviation	What It Stands For	Meaning
a.c.	ante cibos	<i>before taking food</i>
a.d.	auris dextra	<i>right ear</i>
ad	ad	<i>up to</i>
ad lib.	ad libitum	<i>freely, as desired</i>
agit.	agita	<i>shake</i>
aq.	aqua	<i>water</i>
a.s.	auris sinistra	<i>left ear</i>
b.i.d.	bis in die	<i>twice a day</i>
c.	cum	<i>with</i>
et	et	<i>and</i>
f.	fac	<i>make, prepare</i>
n.p.o.	nihil per os	<i>nothing by mouth</i>
o.d.	oculus dexter	<i>right eye</i>
o.s.	oculus sinister	<i>left eye</i>
p.c.	post cibos	<i>after taking food</i>
p.o.	per os	<i>by mouth</i>
pulv.	pulvis	<i>powder</i>
q.d.	quaque die	<i>every day</i>

Abbreviation	What It Stands For	Meaning
qh	quaque hora	every hour
q.i.d.	quater in die	four times a day
s.	sine	without
s.a.	secundum artem	according to your judgment
s.l	sub lingua	under the tongue
ss.	semis	one half
t.i.d.	ter in die	three times a day
ung.	unguentum	ointment

Talkin' the Talk



Marcus is suffering from a hangover and visits the local **medicus** (*doctor*) in search of a cure.

Medicus: **Ave, Marce! Quid sentis hodie?**

Hi, Mark! How are you today?

Marcus: **O caput meum! Dolet!**

Oh, my head! It hurts!

Medicus: **Cur?**

Why?

Marcus: **Heri bibi nimium. Potesne me adiuvaré?**

Yesterday I drank too much. Can you help me?

Medicus: **Habeo remedium tibi! Recipe hoc medicamentum cum aqua per os ante cenam.**

I have a remedy for you! Take this medicine with water by mouth before dinner.

Marcus: **Sed — sed olet. Vomitabo. Deinde venter mihi quoque dolebit.**

But — but it smells. I'll vomit. Then my stomach will also hurt.

Medicus: **Non possum sanare et caput et ventrem. Recipe hoc et abi!**

I can't heal both your head and stomach. Take this and leave!

Marcus: **O me miserum. Hi medici sunt inutiles.**

Oh, poor me. These doctors are useless.



WORDS TO KNOW

bis in die	twice a day
caries, cariei, f	decay (of a bone or tooth)
in situ	in the normal (or original) place
ovum, ovi, n	egg
per os	by mouth
secundum artem	according to your judgment
semis	one half
statim	at once, immediately
sub lingua	under the tongue
tinnitus	ringing

FUN & GAMES

A. Cut your teeth on the following prescriptions. See if you can decipher the pharmacist's directions, using the information found in this chapter.

1 F. sol. c. 250 ml. AQ et ss. tsp. pulv. Appl. sol. ad a.s. t.i.d.

2 R. 1 capsule c. AQ PO t.i.d. a.c.

B. Identify the following parts of the human body as indicated in the following sketch:



1 caput _____

2 venter _____

3 crus _____

- 4 **bracchium** _____
- 5 **manus** _____
- 6 **digitus** _____
- 7 **oculus** _____
- 8 **pes** _____
- 9 **auris** _____
- 10 **capillus** _____

See Appendix C for the answers.

- » Finding a purpose and getting results
- » Using Latin under certain conditions
- » Praying through several centuries in Latin

Chapter **13**

We All Live In a Yellow Subordinate Clause

In the ancient world, religious practices were often referred to as **mysteries**, a word that comes from a Greek verb meaning *to initiate*. Even that Greek verb was derived from another Greek verb that means *to close* or *to shut*. So, unless you were initiated into the practices of worshiping this or that deity, those practices were closed to you. Parts of this chapter explore Latin's official uses in Christianity, even to this day. We also need to take a look at another mystery that lies underneath the main parts of sentences: subordinate clauses.

In Chapter 6, we discuss certain subordinate clauses, such as the purpose clause and result clause. As part of that discussion, we define a *subordinate clause* as one that can't stand on its own. In other words, a subordinate clause is part of the sentence that exists underneath the main part, just like a submarine sails beneath the surface of the sea. Of course, many treasures exist beneath the oceans, and subordinate clauses likewise add much value to sentences. Let's get you initiated into the mysteries of subordinate clauses with a little practice.

Finding Your Purpose

The ancient Romans were a very practical people. Perhaps that's why they used so many purpose clauses in their writing. They wanted to be clear about why they were doing something. You can review the basics of the purpose clause in Chapter 6, but Latin has several other ways to express purpose. For example, Latin frequently makes use of gerunds and gerundives (see Chapter 9 for a quick review) to suggest the purpose of something. Any gerund or gerundive in the dative case shows purpose, as does a genitive case gerund or gerundive following the words **gratia** or **causa**. Accusative case gerunds and gerundives can also indicate purpose when they follow **ad**. Because these expressions all convey the same idea, you can translate each of the following sentences as *The people came to worship*:

Homines venerunt ut colerent.

Homines venerunt qui colerent.

Homines venerunt gratia colendi.

Homines venerunt colendo.

Homines venerunt ad colendum.

Homines venerunt cultum.

When you translate a purpose clause by using a present subjunctive verb, you can translate with the English word *may*. If the verb in a purpose clause is imperfect subjunctive, you can use *might*. Chapter 6 gives you all the details about this type of purpose-clause translation.

To fulfill your purpose of understanding Latin, try translating these sentences for practice (the mini-dictionary in Appendix B can help you with vocabulary):

Exercise 13-1

1. **Ad Italiam navigaverunt ut fidem communicarent.**
2. **Latinam linguam discimus ne litteris antiquis conturbemur.**
3. **Pontifices magna voce saepe dicunt ad turbas adloquendas.**
4. **Latinam linguamne discis gratia dicendi aut gratia legendi?**
5. **Caesar ad templum ambulavit non colendo sed ut coleretur.**

You can check your answers in Appendix C.

WHAT YEAR IS THIS?

You may have noticed that some writers indicate a year with the abbreviations BC or AD; other writers use the abbreviations BCE or CE instead. You may wonder what the difference is.

Well, in the sixth century AD (or CE), a monk named Brother Dennis came up with the Christian way of writing the date. He calculated when he thought Christ was born and made that the first year AD, which stands for **Anno Domini** — *in the year of the Lord*. (Contrary to what you may have heard, AD does not stand for After Death.) Therefore, the abbreviation BC indicates the years before Christ's birth. (The year zero doesn't exist.) This convention is clearly based on Christian beliefs.

Those who aren't Christian understandably don't want to use this system and have come up with an alternative. Instead of using AD, they use CE, which is an abbreviation for Common Era; instead of BC, they use BCE, which is an abbreviation for — you got it! — Before the Common Era. And so everyone is happy. (Or are they?)



REMEMBER

Ecclesiastical (Church) Latin differs from Classical Latin in pronunciation and sometimes in nuances of meaning. For more information about the differences in pronunciations between these two forms of Latin, head to Chapter 1.

Seeing the Results of All This

You can read about a very common subordinate clause in Chapter 6 — the result clause. The result clause has some similarities with the purpose clause (which we talk about in the preceding section), and you might easily confuse the two. Table 13-1 should help make everything clear.

TABLE 13-1

Distinguishing Between Purpose and Result Clauses

	Purpose Clause	Result Clause
Signal Words In the Main Clause	None	ita (so) tam (so) tot (so many) tantus (so great, so large, such)

(continued)

TABLE 13-1 (continued)

	Purpose Clause	Result Clause
Words to Introduce a Subordinate Clause	ut (<i>so that</i>) ne (<i>so that . . . not</i>)	ut (<i>that</i>) ut . . . non (<i>that . . . not</i>)
Verb in a Subordinate Clause	Present or imperfect subjunctive Translated as <i>may</i> or <i>might</i> .	Any subjunctive Translated indicatively

See if you can figure out whether each of the following sentences contains a purpose or result clause:

Exercise 13-2

1. **Romani tot deos colebant ut mirarentur Christianos qui unum deum coluerunt.**
2. **Romulus templum pulchrum aedificavit ut cives Iovi sacrificium facerent.**
3. **Tanta est statua Minervae ut satis laudari non possit.**
4. **Princeps iussa fecit ne alii dei colerentur.**

Check your answers in Appendix C.

THE VULGATE: A BIBLE FOR THE COMMON FOLK

Saint Jerome, also known as Eusebius Hieronymus, was trained in classical Latin. The writings and style of Cicero, the great Roman orator, deeply impressed Saint Jerome. At the end of the fourth century CE, St. Jerome translated the Bible from Hebrew into Latin. (That particular translation is now known as the Vulgate.) The Roman Catholic Church uses this Bible, in a revised form.

The word *Vulgate* comes from the Latin **vulgus**, which means *the common people*. The English word *vulgar* comes from this word, and it means something associated with the common people. Therefore, this version of the Bible was called the Vulgate because it was written in a language that the common folk could easily understand.

ANYONE GAME?

Dominoes, the game played throughout the world today, can be traced back to China and, some claim, to ancient Greece and Rome. *Dominoes* are small tiles traditionally carved from ivory or bone that have small, round pips of inset ebony. You can play many different games by using these tiles. Here are a couple of theories about how the tiles were named:

- At one time, people called a Catholic priest a **Benedicamus Domino**, Latin for *Let us praise the Lord*, something the priest often said during Mass. **Benedicamus Domino** was soon shortened to **domino** and later became the French word for a Catholic priest's winter hood, which was black on the outside and white on the inside. The tiles were called dominoes because they were also black and white.
- Another version of the origin of dominoes says that monks, a long time ago, when throwing dice while playing a game that used dominoes, would utter the sentence **Benedicamus Domino** for good luck and that the name of the game was later shortened to **domino**.

We'll probably never know which of these tales gives us the actual origin of the word. But it sure makes for a couple of good stories!

I'll Help You on One Condition

Latin may have become the official language of the Roman Catholic Church, which emphasizes the love of God, but it was also the language of the ancient Romans, who believed their gods were a bit more businesslike. In the Roman epic poem by Vergil, the *Aeneid*, Juno worries in Book I that no one will put sacrifices on her altars if she cannot prove herself capable of using her supposed powers. There were certain conditions that had to be met, both by the Romans and the gods they worshiped, which means this is a good time to review grammatical conditions as well. For a quick review of the four basic conditions in Latin, head over to Chapter 10. When you think you have a good handle on conditions, try some translation with these sentences (be sure to consult the mini-dictionary in Appendix B for help, and you can always check your translations at the end of the book).

Exercise 13-3

1. **Si dei frumentum in agro meo auxerint frumentum honori eorum sacrificabo.**
2. **Nisi ante proelium sacrifices, dei non hostes vincant.**
3. **Si in Italia essemus, Pantheum, templum deorum omnium, videremus.**
4. **Princeps non hostes vicisset nisi signum crucis in caelo vidisset.**

You can check your translations of the preceding sentences in Appendix C.

The Early Church and Its Adopted Language

Until the middle of the third century CE, the Christian community at Rome spoke mostly Greek. The liturgy was celebrated in Greek, and the most important theologians still wrote in Greek.

In Africa, Greek was the chosen language of the priests, but Latin was the more familiar speech for the majority of the faithful. To communicate with their followers, the priests began to communicate in Latin. St. Augustine, a bishop in North Africa whom many consider to be the father of western theology, helped along this communication between priests and followers immensely by writing exclusively in Latin. (He didn't know Greek very well.)

Augustine and others who wrote in Latin greatly influenced later writers and theologians. Because more and more Christians wrote and communicated in Latin, the Catholic Church finally adopted Latin as its official language.



TECHNICAL
STUFF

Augustine's well-known works include the **Confessiones** (*Confessions*) and the **De Civitate Dei** (*City of God*).

If you've attended a Catholic christening, confirmation, wedding, funeral, or Mass, you've probably heard some of the Latin words or phrases that we cover in the following sections. (If you're Catholic and want to impress your priest, try rolling a few of them off your tongue at the end of the next services you attend.)

CHURCH LATIN, CLASSICAL LATIN, PIG LATIN — WHICH IS WHICH?

Most people who study Latin at school study the works of authors such as Catullus, Julius Caesar, Cicero, Vergil, Ovid, Pliny, and Tacitus. The period when these authors wrote is regarded as the time when Latin was at its best. Scholars call this stage of Latin's development the Classical Period, and therefore they call the refined language of its poets and writers Classical Latin. The ordinary man in the street didn't use the same language, though. In fact, two forms of Latin actually existed side by side in Rome: that of the intellectual crowd, called the **sermo urbanus** (*urban speech*), also called the *intellectual speech*, and that of the illiterate Romans, called the **sermo vulgaris**, or the *common man's speech*.

But because these two groups weren't isolated from each other — they did, after all, live together in Rome — the folks who spoke **sermo urbanus** and folks who spoke **sermo vulgaris** had to be able to communicate. This led to a third form of Latin, called the **sermo cotidianus**, meaning *everyday speech*. The **sermo cotidianus** was a mixture of the highbrow and the lowbrow Latin.

When the early church fathers came along and started writing in Latin, they used the **sermo cotidianus**. They also added their translations of Greek words and phrases that they were currently using. Sometimes, they invented new words by adding prefixes or suffixes to already existing Latin words, or by combining two or more words to form a new word. They would also take a word already in use and add a new sense to it. For example, in Classical Latin, **fidelis** means *loyal* or *trustworthy*, but in Church Latin, it means *the faithful*. This hybrid language became Church (Ecclesiastical) Latin. The early Church fathers could use Church Latin to communicate with most members of the population.

If you want to read a great book that combines Church Latin, murder, intrigue, and a monk who acts as a detective, read Umberto Eco's *The Name of the Rose* (Harcourt), set in the year 1327 CE. You can also check out the 1986 movie of the same name, starring Sean Connery and Christian Slater.

Help me, oh Lord! (and others, too)

All religions have ways of invoking the help of God or the gods, and Christianity is no different. In fact, if you look at the early history of Christianity, you can get a pretty good idea of why Christians have so many ways of calling on God for help. Table 13-1 lists a few of them for you, as well as other common phrases.

TABLE 13-2

Common Christian Expressions in Latin

Latin Word or Phrase	English Translation
in saecula saeculorum	<i>for ever and ever</i>
in excelsis	<i>on high</i>
adeste fideles	<i>Oh, come, all ye faithful</i>
beati pacifici	<i>blessed are the peacemakers</i>
beati pauperes spiritu	<i>blessed are the poor in spirit</i>
magnificat anima mea Dominum	<i>my soul does magnify the Lord</i>
misere mei, Deus	<i>have mercy on me, oh God</i>
Deus misereatur	<i>may God have mercy</i>
Deus vobiscum	<i>God be with you</i>
Dominus vobiscum	<i>the Lord be with you</i>
Deus det nobis suam pacem	<i>may God grant us his peace</i>
Deo iuvante	<i>with God's help</i>

Whether you're Catholic or not, these expressions may seem vaguely familiar. Maybe you've heard them before, but you didn't know what they meant. Well, if you didn't before, now you do.

Invoking the name of God

Several Latin phrases common in the Christian era refer explicitly to the Christian God. Here are a few of them:

- » **Agnus Dei** (*Lamb of God*): Refers to Jesus Christ
- » **corpus Christi** (*the body of Christ*): Refers to the *host*, the bread served during communion
- » **in nomine Patris** (*in the name of the Father*) Refers to the Christian God the Father
- » **Pater Noster** (*Our Father*): The name of the Lord's Prayer

Mary, Jesus' mother, also has several Latin names. For example, most westerners have heard the hymn "Ave Maria" — especially around Christmas time. **Ave Maria** is actually Latin for *Hail, Mary*. Take a look at a few other names for Mary:

- » **Mater Dei** (*Mother of God*)
- » **Beata Virgo Maria** (*Blessed Virgin Mary*)
- » **Stabat mater dolorosa** (*the mournful mother stood*)

This phrase refers to Mary when she was present at Jesus' crucifixion.

WORDS TO KNOW	
Anno Domini	in the year of the Lord
in saecula saeculorum	for ever and ever
in excelsis	on high
beati pacifici	blessed are the peacemakers
beati pauperes spiritu	blessed are the poor in spirit
Agnus Dei	Lamb of God
corpus Christi	the body of Christ
in nomine Patris	in the name of the Father
mater Dei	Mother of God
Deus misereatur	may God have mercy
Deus vobiscum	God be with you

Talkin' the Talk



A **sacerdos** (*priest*) ends his sermon and then blesses the **fideles** (*the faithful, or the congregation*). They respond accordingly:

Sacerdos: **Beati sunt pacifici.**

Blessed are the peacemakers.

Fideles: **Amen.**

So be it.

Sacerdos: **Beati sunt pauperes spiritu.**

Blessed are the poor in spirit.

Fideles: **Amen.**

So be it.

Sacerdos: **Oremus. O Pater in caelis, agimus Tibi gratias.**

Let us pray. Oh, Father in heaven, we give You thanks.

Cura fideles, Domine. Serva eos.

Take care of your faithful, Lord. Protect them.

Deus misereatur v Vestrum. Deus vobiscum. Pax vobiscum.

May God have mercy on you. May God be with you. May peace be with you.

Fideles: **Quoque tecum.**

And also with you.

Sacerdos: **In nomine Patris, Filii et Spiritus Sancti.**

In the name of the Father, and of the Son, and of the Holy Spirit.

Sacerdos: **In saecula saeculorum. Amen. Ite in pace.**

For ever and ever. So be it. Go in peace.



Keeping on God's good side

In Church Latin (and in Table 13-3), you can find phrases that express gratitude, contrition, trust in God, admissions of sin, and a willingness to leave things in God's hands.

Words for the universe

In translating the Hebrew Bible into Latin, St. Jerome retold the Genesis story — the Biblical story of creation — by using Latin terms. Table 13-4 lists a few of the words describing God's creation of the world in the way the early Christians understood it.

TABLE 13-3

Words of Penance and Faith

Latin Word or Phrase	English Translation
Benedicamus Domino	<i>Let us praise the Lord</i>
Dei gratia	<i>by the grace of God</i>
Deo volente	<i>God willing</i>
Deus vult	<i>God wills it</i>
Dominus providebit	<i>The Lord will provide</i>
fiat voluntas Tua	<i>Thy will be done</i>
gloria Deo	<i>glory to God</i>
Deo gratias	<i>thanks be to God</i>
mea culpa	<i>through my fault</i>
peccavi	<i>I have sinned</i>

THE POPE STARTS HERE

The official title of the pope, the head of the Catholic Church, is **pontifex maximus**. This title was found way back in ancient Rome. Initially, the word **pontifex** meant *one skilled in the important magic of making bridges*. The **pontifex maximus** was in charge of the **Pons Sublicius**, the oldest bridge — and, for several centuries, the only bridge — into Rome. The bridge was built entirely of wood and was considered sacred. The **pontifex maximus** performed certain religious rites to accompany any repairs to the bridge.

The **pontifex maximus**, together with the other **pontifices**, or *priests*, were responsible for the organization of the state religion. They also determined the dates of festivals and kept a record of the principal events of each year. They enjoyed certain privileges, such as exemption from taxation and military service.

In Imperial times, the reigning emperor held the post of **pontifex maximus**. In the year 46 BCE, when Julius Caesar was the **pontifex maximus**, he revised the Roman calendar, lengthening it from 10 to 12 months. We still use this calendar, now called the Julian calendar (named after him), today.

So the pope today holds the official title of **pontifex maximus** to signify that he's the head of the Catholic Church. This title is sometimes shortened to *pontiff*, another title of the pope.

TABLE 13-4

Words Describing the World

Latin Word	English Translation
caelum	<i>heaven</i>
terra	<i>earth</i>
inanis	<i>void</i>
vacua	<i>empty, barren</i>
tenebrae	<i>darkness</i>
super	<i>above, across</i>
faciem	<i>face</i>
regnum	<i>kingdom</i>
libera	<i>free</i>
malo	<i>evil</i>
abyssi	<i>abyss</i>
fiat lux	<i>let there be light</i>

With these words (and a few others), you can understand the following passage from the Old Testament (the Book of Genesis, in fact):

In principio Deus creavit caelum et terram

In the beginning, God created heaven and earth,

autem terra erat inanis et vacua

but the earth was void and barren,

THAT'S GRATITUDE FOR YOU!

On the west coast of South Africa, about two hours' drive northwest from Cape Town, is a small fishing village with the name of Paternoster. Legend has it that, sometime during the 17th century, several sailors on the way to or from the Far East were shipwrecked in the treacherous waters of the Atlantic Ocean. (The nearby Cape of Good Hope was also called the Cape of Storms.) After a great struggle, the sailors made it to shore. The sailors were so grateful that they survived, they all said the Lord's Prayer, which starts with the Latin words **Pater Noster** (*Our Father*). These sailors named the little town that they founded on that spot Paternoster in gratitude.

et erant tenebrae super faciem abyssi

and there was darkness above the face of the abyss,

et spiritus Dei ferebatur super aquas

and the spirit of God was carried across the waters,

et Deus vidit lucem quod esset bona

and God saw the light, that it was good,

et divisit lucem et tenebras

and He separated the light and the darkness,

appellavitque lucem diem et tenebras noctem.

and He called the light day and the darkness night.

Pretty neat, huh?

ROMAN HOLIDAY

From the earliest times, people celebrated a festival at the time of the winter solstice, when the days began to lengthen and the sun to return. Winter solstice happened to be the time of one of the most popular holidays among the ancient Romans. Called the **Saturnalia**, this was the week-long festival of **Saturnus** (the Roman god of agriculture). This festival ended on December 25, which was a very important day in the Roman calendar because it was the last day of the **Saturnalia**, and it marked the birthday of one of the Roman gods of the sun, **Mithras**, and the feast day of **Sol Invictus** (*Unconquered Sun*).

Plays, gifts, and feasting marked December 25, a truly festive day. Role reversal, such as masters serving their slaves or schoolboys teaching their teachers, often took place.

The true date of Christ's birth is unknown — no mention is made of a date in the Bible or elsewhere. Christians around the world came to accept December 25 as the day of Christ's birth. These celebrations, which the pagans already knew and loved, continued even after the pagans' conversion to Christianity. The first recorded Christmas celebration occurred in 336 CE.

To encourage the sun's return, a log was lit in the fireplace leading up to the Saturnalia. Later, in merry old England, houses and churches were decorated with holly and ivy, and in Germany, an evergreen tree (usually a pine tree), symbol of eternal life, was placed in Christian homes. According to legend, it was Martin Luther who first decorated the Christmas tree with lights to symbolize the star-filled heavens from which Christ came down to earth.

WORDS TO KNOW

Deo volente	God willing
fiat voluntas Tua	Thy will be done
gloria Deo	Glory to God
gratias Deo	Thanks be to God
mea culpa	through my fault
caelum, caeli, n	heaven
terra, terrae, f	earth
vacuus, vacua, vacuum	empty, barren
tenebrae, tenebrarum, f/pl	darkness
regnum, regni, n	kingdom
liber, libera, liberum	free
malum, mali, n	evil
fiat lux	let there be light

Talkin' the Talk



Some young children — Tullia, Marcia, and Quintus — are discussing the creation of earth. They're not completely sure about the order of things:

Tullia: **Nonne Deus creavit hominem primum?**

Didn't God create man first?

Marcia: **Non. Ille creavit hominem ultimum.**

No. He created man last.

Quintus: **Fortasse Ille creavit animalia primum?**

Perhaps He created the animals first?

- Marcia:** **Non. In principio Ille creavit caelum et terram.**
No. In the beginning He created heaven and earth.
- Tullia:** **Deinde hominem?**
Then man?
- Marcia:** **Non. Terra erat vacua. Erant quoque tenebrae ubique.**
No. The earth was barren. There was also darkness everywhere.
- Quintus:** **Deinde animalia?**
Then the animals?
- Marcia:** **Non. Ille deinde creavit diem et noctem. Ille dixit: "Fiat lux!" Et erat lux!**
No. He then created day and night. He said: "Let there be light!" And there was light!
- Tullia:** **Confusa sum. Si tibi placet, lege locum nobis iterum!**
I am confused. Please, read the passage to us again!
- Marcia:** **Probe: In principio Deus creavit caelum et terram —**
Okay: In the beginning God created heaven and earth —
- Quintus:** **Deo gratias!**
Thanks be to God!

Reciting the Lord's Prayer in Latin

One of the most famous of Christian prayers is the Lord's Prayer. Table 13-5 lists the words that you need to know if you want to read this prayer in its Latin form. The prayer itself, with the translation, follows the table.

TABLE 13-5

Words and Phrases in the Lord's Prayer

Latin Word or Phrase	English Translation
sanctificetur	<i>may it be kept holy</i>
adveniat	<i>may it come</i>
fiat	<i>may it be done</i>

(continued)

TABLE 13-5 (continued)

Latin Word or Phrase	English Translation
voluntas	<i>will</i>
sicut	<i>just as</i>
panem	<i>bread</i>
quotidianum	<i>daily</i>
hodie	<i>today</i>
dimitte	<i>forgive</i>
debita	<i>debts</i>
debitoribus	<i>debtors</i>
ne inducas	<i>do not lead</i>

Oratio Dominica

The Lord's Prayer

Pater noster, qui es in caelis

Our Father, who art in heaven,

sanctificetur nomen tuum.

may your name be kept holy.

Adveniat regnum tuum.

Thy kingdom come.

Fiat voluntas tua

Thy will be done

sicut in caelo et in terra.

on earth as it is in heaven.

Panem nostrum quotidianum da nobis hodie,

Give us this day our daily bread,

et dimitte nobis debita nostra

and forgive us our debts

sicut et nos dimittimus debitoribus nostris.

just as we forgive our debtors.

Et ne nos inducas in tentationem,

And do not lead us into temptation,

sed libera nos a malo. Amen.

but deliver us from evil. So be it.

A final list of (and a few stories behind) Latin expressions

Unfortunately, some Latin phrases just don't make any sense when translated into English. But each one of them has a story. Take a look at the following expressions that you might hear regularly, and then read the stories that go with them:

» **R.I.P. (Requiescat In Pace; *May he/she rest in peace*):** This abbreviation appears on many tombstones and grave markers, from ancient Roman times up until today.

SO WHAT'S WITH THE FISH?

Have you noticed that people sometimes have a fish sticker on their car? Ever wondered why? This is a symbol that the owner of a car is a Christian. You may wonder, "Why a fish?"

Well, during the time that the Christians were being persecuted in Rome, they had to hold their church meetings in secret. They found that the best place for these meetings was in the catacombs, an underground burial place just outside of Rome. They knew that the Romans were superstitious and weren't likely to go down there.

These catacombs consisted of several miles of passages. To make sure that no one got lost, the Christians etched fishes on the walls along the passageways. The heads pointed in the direction that the Christians had to go. To get out, one simply followed the tails' direction.

So why not an arrow instead of a fish? Most early Christians knew Greek, as well, and someone realized that the Greek word for a *fish*, **ichthus**, could actually stand as an acronym for **Iesus Christos Theou Uios Soter**, which means *Jesus Christ, Son of God, Savior*.

That's why a fish was and still is the universal symbol for Christianity.

- » **consummatum est** (*It is completed*): These were reportedly Jesus' last words on the cross.
- » **Quo vadis, Domine?** (*Where are you going, Lord?*): According to legend, Peter asked this question when he saw a vision of Jesus at the city gates while he fled Rome and the persecution of the Christians.
- » **Urbi et orbi** (*to the city [Rome] and the world*): The pope pronounces these words during his blessing to make it clear that the blessing will spread not only to the city of Rome, but also to the whole world.
- » **Abyssus abyssum invocat** (*Hell calls hell*): This pithy saying means that one misstep usually leads to another.
- » **I.N.R.I. (Iesus Nazarenus Rex Iudaeorum; Jesus of Nazareth, King of the Jews)**: A Roman soldier purportedly wrote this acronym on a small plaque and affixed it to Jesus' cross.
- » **Ecce homo!** (*Behold the man!*): According to the Bible, Pontius Pilate spoke these words when he presented Jesus, wearing a crown of thorns, to the people just before his crucifixion. *Ecce Homo* also refers to artistic depictions of Jesus wearing the crown of thorns.
- » **Facito aliquid operis, ut te semper diabolus inveniatur occupatum** (*Always do something so that the devil always finds you occupied*): St. Jerome wrote this in his **Epistulae** (*Letters*). You might have heard the related expression, "Idle hands are the devil's workshop."

WHAT'S IN A WORD?

Just like some city folk today look down on and make fun of people who live in the countryside, so did the ancient Romans. The Latin word for *city* was **urbs**, and they had a word to describe city folk: **urbanus**, which meant *elegant, sophisticated, witty, or pleasant*. From this comes our English word *urbane*, which still has the same meanings as its Latin parent.

On the other hand, the Latin word for a *village* or *country district* was **pagus**, and they described someone from the country as a **paganus** — a *villager*. Later, **paganus** became a synonym for a *yokel* or *country bumpkin*. It so happened that, for the most part, the early Christians lived in the city. Those who lived in the countryside tended to worship the old gods and goddesses of Rome, and so it came about that the Christians started to refer to these people as **pagani**, the plural of **paganus**, which was later shortened to our more familiar word *pagan*.

WORDS TO KNOW

adveniat	may it come
regnum	kingdom
fiat	may it be done
voluntas	will
panem	bread
quotidianum	daily
hodie	today
dimitte	forgive
debita	debts
debitoribus	debtors

FUN & GAMES

Here are the Ten Commandments in both English and Latin. The English is in the correct order. Can you match the Latin commandment with the correct English one? Write down the appropriate letter in the space provided.

Ten Commandments in English:

- 1 You shall not have other gods before Me. _____
- 2 You shall not take the name of the Lord thy God in vain.

- 3 You shall remember to keep holy the Lord's Day. _____
- 4 Honor your father and your mother, so that you may live long upon the land.

- 5 You shall not kill. _____
- 6 You shall not commit adultery. _____
- 7 You shall not steal. _____
- 8 You shall not bear false witness against your neighbor. _____
- 9 You shall not covet your neighbor's wife. _____
- 10 You shall not covet your neighbor's goods. _____

Ten Commandments in Latin:

- (A) **Non occides.**
- (B) **Honora patrem tuum et matrem tuam, ut sis longaevus super terram.**
- (C) **Non assumes nomen Domini Dei tui in vanum.**
- (D) **Non loqueris contra proximum tuum falsum testimonium.**
- (E) **Memento, ut diem Sabbati sanctifices.**
- (F) **Non concupisces omnia, quae proximi sunt.**
- (G) **Non habebis deos alienos coram me.**
- (H) **Non concupisces uxorem proximi tui.**
- (I) **Non moechaberis.**
- (J) **Non furtum facies.**

Translate the following sentences into English (be sure to consult the mini-dictionary in Appendix B for help):

- 1 Sacerdotes tam fessi erant ut non sacrificium facere possent.**
- 2 Cives ad templum festinabunt ut deos colant.**
- 3 Romanorum dei deaque tot erant ut nemo eos numerare possent.**
- 4 Pontifex templum maximum aedificavit ut cives dona plurima deis in eo ponerent.**
- 5 Si deos cotidie oremus, nos felicissimos et gratissimos faciant.**

See Appendix C for the answers.

- » Finding Latin in zoological and botanical classifications
- » Translating common Latin names for plants and animals
- » Uncovering the hidden meaning in some plant names

Chapter **14**

Latin in Zoology and Botany

Most of us call animals or plants by their common names. A tiger's a tiger. A leopard's a leopard. A mountain lion is a — well, a puma in certain parts of the world and a cougar in others. So therein lies the problem: People in different regions use different names for the same animal, which can cause some confusion. This type of confusion doesn't really affect us regular folks. After all, your neighbors probably won't insist that the animal they saw is really a puma or a cougar when you shriek, "I think a mountain lion just ate Fluffy!"

Now, if zoologists or botanists were as imprecise in the language they use to identify and describe animals and plants, the confusion would be the zoological/botanical equivalent of a Russian novel, with every character having upwards of a zillion names. Research and the exchange of information would move forward at a snail's pace.

Hence, you get the *biological classification system*, a naming system that scientists use to tell one animal or plant from another and to make fine distinctions between similar things. Because this is a book about Latin, you've probably already guessed that many of the names and terms used in the biological classification system come from Latin.

Classifying Basics

The Greek philosopher Aristotle started a basic system of classifying plants and animals way back in the fourth century BCE. But he's not the one who gets the credit. The first person to come up with a system that became acceptable over time was the 17th-century CE Swedish botanist, Karl von Linne. He decided to use Latin for the scientific names of plants and animals because many scientists back then already knew Latin. It was, for them, a universal language.

Linne divided plants and animals into seven categories, which scientists still use today. The following table shows these categories and how you classify the common house cat of today. (Linne classified plants by using the same method, just identifying a category with the term *Phylum* for animals and *Division* for plants.)

Category	Cat's Classification	Translation
Kingdom	Animalia	<i>animals</i>
Phylum/Division	Chordata	<i>having a cord</i>
Class	Mammalia	<i>mammals</i>
Order	Carnivora	<i>meat-eating</i>
Family	Felidae	<i>cats</i>
Genus	Felis	<i>cat</i>
Species	domesticus	<i>domestic</i>



TIP

You can easily remember the order of the categories for animals by memorizing this sentence: “**King David (or Phil) Comes Over From Greece Sundays.**”

If you look beyond the intimidating Latin names for plants and animals, you see a relatively simple classification system. All plants and animals are identified according to a binomial system — **bi** meaning *two*, **nom** meaning *name*. In other words, all plants have two names: the **genus** (*kind*) and the **species** (*appearance*), both Latin words.

Is it Slim Shady or Shady Slim? The following will help you differentiate between a genus and a species.

» **Genus:** Always a noun, appears before the species, and begins with a capital letter. The name may honor a person, it may describe the plant or animal, or it may be a character out of Greek or Roman mythology.

» **Species:** An adjective that begins with a lowercase letter. It often refers to a place where you can find the plant or animal, its characteristics or appearance, or the name of the person who gets credit for discovering it.



TIP

To help keep genus and species straight, think of them as first and last names. Just like you have a first name and a last name, so does every plant and animal. Your last name identifies you as being part of a particular group generically (genus) — Thomsen, Marais, Bethmont. Your first name identifies you specifically (species) — Lynn, Pieter, or Luna. When you write your name for classification purposes, such as on an official form, you put your generic name first, followed by your specific name (genus, then species) — Thomsen, Lynn; Marais, Pieter; Bethmont, Luna.

You don't have to be a genius to understand genus

The **genus** of a plant or animal family consists of a group of species that have similar characteristics. You might come across the following list of **genera** (the plural of **genus**) in the animal world:

- » **Canis** (*dog*): Domestic dogs, wolves, coyotes, and dingoes
- » **Equus** (*horse*): All kinds of horses and the zebra
- » **Falco** (*falcon*): Falcons, kestrels, and merlins
- » **Felis** (*cat*): Tigers, jaguars, lynx, and other wild and domestic cats
- » **Homo** (*man*): The different species of man, such as **Homo habilis** (*handy man*), **Homo erectus** (*upright man*), and **Homo sapiens** (*wise man*)
- » **Ursa** (*bear*): The different kinds of bears, such as grizzly bears, black bears, and brown bears

YOU CAN CALL ME CAROL (OR CHARLES)

Karl von Linne was so much into Latin that he even changed his name to Latin and used it in its new form: Carolus Linnaeus. This is the name he used on his 1753 book, ***Species Plantarum***, in which he outlined his naming system, which scientists still use today.

See, you can't actually blame your biology teacher for having to learn all those Latin names.

Getting specific with species

The species name often describes the color of a plant or animal. Table 14-1 lists a few of these colors for you. You may notice that many of the words refer to the same or similar colors. If you think about it, that's really not so different from what you're used to in English, in which *cerulean*, *azure*, *sapphire*, *cobalt*, and a whole slew of other words all refer to shades of the color blue.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

Adjectives ending in **-us** are masculine, and those ending in **-a** are feminine. In Latin, the adjective has to match the noun it modifies in case, number, and gender. So the **-us** words modify masculine nouns; the **-a** words modify feminine nouns. You can read more about adjective endings in Chapter 4.

TABLE 14-1

Common Colors among Plants and Animals

Latin Color (m, f, n)	English Translation
albus, alba, album	<i>white</i>
auratus, aurata, auratum	<i>golden</i>
aureus, aurea, aureum	<i>golden, yellow</i>
caeruleus, caerulea, caeruleum	<i>blue</i>
flammeus, flammea, flammeum	<i>orange</i>
fulvus, fulva, fulvum	<i>yellowish-brown, red</i>
fuscus, fusca, fuscum	<i>brown</i>
luteus, lutea, luteum	<i>yellow</i>
niger, nigra, nigrum	<i>black, dark</i>
purpureus, purpurea, purpureum	<i>purple</i>
ruber, rubra, rubrum	<i>red</i>
rufus, rufa, rufum	<i>red, reddish</i>
viridens, viridentis	<i>green, greenish</i>

THE DOG THAT ATE THE CANARY

You've probably heard of the Canary Islands before. This small group of islands is situated off the northwestern coast of Africa. You might think that these islands were named after canaries, the small yellow birds.

Wrong! These islands were named after dogs. Pliny the Elder, who lived in the first century CE, named these islands the **insulae canariae** (*islands of the dogs*) because many packs of large, wild dogs were thought to populate the islands. (This name makes sense when you think that the Latin word for *dog* in **canis**, hence the English word *canine*.)

When travelers found little yellow birds on these islands, they named them *canaries* after the name of the islands (not the other way around).

Talkin' the Talk



Two young Roman boys, Marcus and Quintus, are walking to school. They discuss what they did the previous day when they had the day off:

Marcus: **Quid fecisti heri?**

What did you do yesterday?

Quintus: **Heri ivi ad Colosseum.**

Yesterday, I went to the Colosseum.

Marcus: **Quae vidisti?**

What did you see?

Quintus: **Animalia.**

Animals.

Marcus: **Qualia?**

What kind?

Marcus: **Videamus. Erant magni canes, fulvi. Erant quoque equi.**

Let's see. There were big dogs, yellowish. There were also horses.

Marcus: Quid haec animalia fecerunt?

What did these animals do?

Quintus: Canes fugabant equos et capiebant et edebant eos.

The dogs chased the horses and caught them and ate them.

Marcus: Hmmm. Magni fulvi canes. Quem colorem equi habuerunt?

Hmmm. Big yellow dogs. What color did the horses have?

Quintus: Colorem? Colores! Equi habuerunt nigras et albas lineas.

Color? Colors! The horses had black and white stripes.

Marcus: Mehercule! Es stultus! Illi canes erant leones, et equi erant zebrae!

By Hercules! You are stupid! Those dogs were lions, and those horses were zebras!



WORDS TO KNOW

albus, alba, album	white
animal, animalis, n	animal
canis, canis, m/f	dog
equus, equi, m	horse
feles, felis, m/f	cat
fulvus, fulva, fulvum	tawny, yellow
homo, hominis, m/f	man, human being
leo, leonis, m	lion
niger, nigra, nigrum	black, dark

OUT OF AFRICA

The ancient Romans viewed Africa with much awe. They had a popular saying way back then: **ex Africa semper aliquid novi**, which means *Out of Africa, always something new*. When the first explorers into Africa returned, they told of a wonderful creature that they had seen. When asked to describe this wonderful animal, the explorers were first at a loss, but then they said that this animal, viewed from a distance, was as large as a horse, looked like a horse, and had a huge horn on its forehead. So started the myth of the unicorn; **uni-** means *one* and **cornu** means *horn*.

Of course, they hadn't really seen a unicorn. Well, at least not a mythical one. They most probably saw a rhinoceros from far away. (Maybe they saw it from really far away?)

Naming Fauna and Flora

Fauna was the sister of **Faunus**, the Roman god of the forests. Both Fauna and her brother were also associated with the small animals that lived in the woods and forests. **Flora**, on the other hand, was the Roman goddess of flowers. She also made trees blossom and presided over everything that blooms.

Today, we use terms derived from these goddesses' names to indicate plants (*flora*) and animals (*fauna*).

Common plant genus and species names

The word **genus**, discussed in the section “Classifying Basics,” earlier in this chapter, indicates a group of species that have similar characteristics. The following list of **genera** (the plural of **genus**) might look familiar:

- » **Allium**: Onions, leeks, chives, shallots, and garlic
- » **Lactuca**: A variety of species of lettuce
- » **Malus**: Apples, crab apples
- » **Prunus**: plums, cherries, almonds, apricots, peaches
- » **Quercus**: All kinds of oak trees, such as the white oak, red oak, black oak, pin oak, and others
- » **Solanum**: Nightshades, eggplants, potatoes

Just like with animals (which we talk about in the section “Classifying Basics,” earlier in this chapter), a plant species name is often an adjective. These adjectives describe the plant’s appearance or other characteristic that can help people tell one plant from another.



The Latin word **flos**, which means *flower*, is masculine in gender. Therefore, all the adjectives that modify or describe **flos** end in the masculine. (You can read more in Chapter 4 about adjective endings.) Table 14-2 lists some of the more common of these adjectives.

TABLE 14-2

Common Plant Name Adjectives

Latin Adjective	Meaning
grandiflora	<i>having large flowers</i>
maculata	<i>spotted</i>
nana	<i>dwarf</i>
odorata	<i>scented</i>
pendula	<i>hanging</i>
pubescens	<i>hairy</i>
repens	<i>creeping, ground-hugging</i>
rugosa	<i>wrinkled</i>
sanguinea	<i>bloody, red</i>
scandens	<i>climbing</i>
sempervirens	<i>evergreen</i>
stricta	<i>upright</i>
tomentosa	<i>wooly, downy</i>

The plant and animal world is vast, and scientists have only scratched the surface when it comes to classifying the world’s inhabitants. Because the Latin forms of the genus and species don’t decline or change their endings (refer to Chapter 2), you can use a good Latin dictionary to help you decipher what genus and species names mean.



Plants and animals often use similar adjectives to indicate a species. But the genus usually tells you whether you’re discussing a plant or animal.

A rose is a rose is a rose — or is it?

Some plants' names have hidden meanings. For example, a daisy is so named because it was originally called a *Day's eye*. A dandelion comes from the French **dent de lion**, which means *tooth of the lion*, because its leaves resemble just that. A primrose (although not really a rose) comes from the Latin **Prima rosa**, which means *first rose*, because it's one of the first flowers to blossom in early spring. Here are a few more interesting names of plants:

- » **Gladiolus:** A plant that has leaves shaped like small swords. The Latin word for *sword* is **gladius**. The small version of a **gladius** in Latin is **gladiolus** (*small sword*), which is why botanists chose this name for the plant.
- » **Iris:** The Greek and Roman messenger goddess. She was also the goddess of the rainbow, which is why botanists named this plant (that has variously colored flowers) after this goddess.
- » **Nasturtium:** A common garden flower whose leaves chefs use as a seasoning, especially in vinegar. This flower has only a mildly pungent odor but a very bitter taste, and its name comes from a combination of two Latin words: **nasus** (*nose*) and **turt** (*twist*). So *Nasturtium* means *nose twister*.
- » **Narcissus:** A handsome young man in Greek mythology who fell in love with his own reflection in pool of water out in the woods. He couldn't drag himself away from the reflection and pined for his new love (himself). The gods, feeling sorry for him, changed him into a flower, which bears his name. Not surprisingly, you can often find a narcissus near a river or pond.

FUN & GAMES

Here are some names that indicate the place or origin of a certain species. Can you match the Latin term with the correct English one?

- | | |
|-----------------------|---|
| 1 japonica | A. <i>North or South America</i> |
| 2 canadensis | B. <i>from the East</i> (usually referring to Asia) |
| 3 sylvestris | C. <i>from Japan</i> |
| 4 americana | D. <i>of the woods or forests</i> |
| 5 montana | E. <i>of the sea</i> |
| 6 africana | F. <i>from Europe</i> |
| 7 occidentalis | G. <i>from the West</i> |
| 8 europaeus | H. <i>from Canada</i> |
| 9 orientalis | I. <i>from Africa</i> |
| 10 maritima | J. <i>of the mountains</i> |

See Appendix C for the answers.

IN THIS CHAPTER

- » Putting sentences together like an ancient Roman
- » Following a four-step process for translating a Latin sentence
- » Practicing your translation skills

Chapter **15**

Translating and Reading Latin

One mistake that people make when they translate from Latin to English is that they translate the first word they come across in the sentence, then they translate the next one, and then the third one, and so on. Because Latin doesn't use the same word order that English does, beginning translators end up with strange and sometimes nonsensical sentences — a sort of Latinesque. To avoid ending up with this kind of mess, you need a system that helps you accurately interpret what you're reading. So this chapter gives you a four-step process that you can use to translate everything from simple to more complex Latin sentences.

And because you're more likely to read Latin than to speak it, this chapter includes a few excerpts from poetry and prose written by ancient Romans that you can cut your translating teeth on.

Word Order, or Where in the Heck Is the Subject?

Latin is an interesting and fun language. It's also more flexible than English in certain ways. In English, the meaning of a sentence is tied to the word order: Where the words are in the sentence has as much impact on meaning as what words are used in that sentence. The subject comes first, the verb comes next, and then comes the object (if the sentence even has an object).

For example, in the sentence "The dog bit the letter carrier," *dog* is the subject, *bit* is the verb, and *letter carrier* is the object. But if you switched *dog* and *letter carrier* around, this ordinary sentence becomes headline news: "Letter carrier bit dog."

In Latin, the word's position doesn't determine its function: The ending of the word is what matters. These endings tell you whether the word is the subject, the object, or a possessive. The words themselves can appear in just about any order.



REMEMBER

Every noun in a sentence must have a function; if it doesn't, it shouldn't be in the sentence. In Latin, the word's position in the sentence doesn't determine its function; the word's ending does. Look in Chapter 2 to see how to form these endings and how they differ from one declension to another.

Making Sense of a Translation

When you approach a Latin sentence, understanding the meaning of the words is only half the battle. You could go from first to last word, translating them in order, but you'd end up with something that doesn't make sense. Instead, plan your attack. Approach the sentence by following these steps:

1. Look for the verb and translate it.

Recognizing the verb gives you plenty of immediate information: You know the person of the verb (*I, you, he/she/it, we, you, they*), the number of the verb (singular or plural), the tense (present, imperfect, perfect, future, and so on) and the mood (indicative, subjunctive, or imperative.)

2. Look for the subject of the sentence and translate it.

The subject is in the nominative (or subject) case. (See Chapter 2 for more information on cases.)

If you don't find a subject, don't worry. (Sometimes the subject is *understood*, meaning not stated directly.) Without a stated subject, you use the pronoun for the person identified in the verb: *I, you* (singular or plural), *he/she/it, we, or they*.

3. Determine whether the sentence has an object.

The object word, which receives the action of the verb, is in the accusative case (see Chapter 2). Keep in mind that not all sentences have objects.

4. Translate what's left of the sentence.

Translate anything that isn't a subject, a verb, or an object — known as *All the Rest* (ATR).

When you follow this process, you're essentially imposing English sentence structure on a Latin sentence. (**Remember:** In Latin sentences, you can find subjects, verbs, and objects anywhere.) After you translate the words in the sentence, you probably have a string of words that make some sense in English. (After all, by following the preceding steps, you translate the material in the subject-verb-object order that you recognize from English sentences.) Still, the sentence needs a little finessing — particularly if it had a lot of ATR stuff. The following sections give you some practice.

Who's doing what?

If you're familiar with Latin verb endings (which we go over in Chapter 2), you're on your way to unraveling nearly any Latin sentence. Here's a brief summary of verb endings:

When a verb ends in:	It means:
-o or -m	<i>I</i>
-s	<i>you</i> (singular)
-t	<i>he, she, or it</i>
When a verb ends in:	It means:
-mus	<i>we</i>
-tis	<i>you</i> (plural)
-nt	<i>they</i>



REMEMBER

An ending can tell you a noun's function and therefore its place in the sentence. Subjects appear in the nominative case, direct objects appear in the accusative case, indirect objects appear in the dative case, and so on. If all this case talk doesn't make sense to you, head to Chapter 2, which covers Latin cases. Verbs are

a little trickier. To know how to translate a verb, you need to know what conjugation (1st, 2nd, 3rd, and so on) it falls into. You can find that info in Chapter 2.

Translating simple sentences

Here's a simple Latin sentence that you can use to try out your translation skills:

Puellas in horto puer expectat.

If you translate this sentence from beginning to end, you end up with *The girls in the garden the boy waits for*. This translation doesn't quite make sense. Instead, use the strategy outlined in the section "Making Sense of a Translation," earlier in this chapter, by following these steps:

1. Look for the verb and translate it.

The verb is **expectat** (*is waiting for*). Already, you know the person of the verb (3rd person) and the number (singular), so the subject is *he, she, or it*. You can use this information to help you identify the subject, which has to agree in person and number.

2. Look for the subject of the sentence and translate it.

You have three nouns in this sentence, and any of them could potentially be the subject: **puer** (*boy*), **puellas** (*girls*), and **horto** (*garden*). Here's why **puer** is the subject:

- **Puer** is in the nominative case. (**Remember:** The subject is always in the nominative case.) It's also 3rd-person singular, so it agrees with the verb.

Puer could also be vocative singular, showing that someone is addressing the boy, as in, *Hey, boy!* You can figure out that this word isn't vocative singular because the verb isn't in 2nd person (*you*). The vocative case requires 2nd-person verbs.

- **Puellas** is plural (so it doesn't match the verb), and it's in the accusative case (used to identify direct objects) — not the nominative case.
- **Horto** is singular, but it's in the ablative case (which suggests location).

3. Look for the object of the sentence.

The only word in the sentence that's in the accusative case is **puellas**, which is accusative plural. Therefore, **puellas** is the direct object.

4. Translate the remainder the sentence.

What you have left is **in horto**. **In** (*in*) is a preposition. Because the word **horto** follows the preposition, it's in the ablative case, describing where the girls are.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

(One of the functions of the ablative case is to describe where something is. For more on ablatives, head to Chapter 6.)

After you puzzle out all the pieces, put them in standard English order: subject-verb-object, and you get this: *The boy waits for the girls in the garden.*

Here's another sentence for you to cut your teeth on:

Vir equos agricolae laudat.

Use the process from the preceding example by following these steps:

1. Look for the verb and translate it.

The verb is **laudat**. It means *he/she/it praises* (3rd-person singular). **Remember:** You don't know who is actually doing the praising until you figure out the subject.

2. Look for the subject of the sentence and translate it.

The subject of the sentence is **vir** (*man*). You can figure this subject out because, of the nouns in the sentence (**vir**, **equos**, and **agricolae**), only **vir** meets the requirements: It's in the nominative case, and it's singular.

- **Equos** is accusative plural and therefore can't be the subject.
- Ruling out **agricolae** is a littler trickier because it could be in the nominative case; but if it were nominative, then it would be plural. (The ending **-ae** is nominative plural for this word.) As a result, you know that **agricolae** isn't the subject.

3. Look for the object of the sentence.

The only word in the sentence that's in the accusative case is **equos** (*horses*). So that word is the direct object.

4. Translate what's left of the sentence.

The only word that remains is **agricolae**. Because you determined it's not in the nominative plural case in Step 2, this word must be in the genitive singular case, which means that it shows possession. So it translates as *of the farmer*.

Put it all together, and you have *The man praises the horses of the farmer.*

Translating longer sentences

Obviously, you can more easily translate simple sentences than you can more complex sentences. But regardless of the sentence's length, you follow the same procedure outlined in the section "Making Sense of a Translation," earlier in this chapter.

Even if you have longer sentences and more than one clause, you treat every clause like an independent sentence. Consider the following sentence, for example:

Puer canem ex villa ducit et eum in viam fugat.

One clue that the preceding is a relatively complicated sentence is that it has two verbs: **ducit** and **fugat**. If you look more closely, you can see that you actually have two clauses (**puer canem ex villa ducit** and **eum in viam fugat**) connected by the conjunction **et** (*and*). Simply tackle one clause at a time:

1. Find and identify the verb of the first clause.

Ducit is a 3rd-person singular verb. Translated, it means *he/she/it takes*.

2. Find and identify the subject.

Puer is the nominative singular noun, and it means *boy*.

3. Find and identify the object.

Canem is accusative singular, and it means *dog*.

4. Translate all the rest (of this clause, that is).

Ex villa means *out of the house*.

Throw in **et** (*and*) for good measure, and your translation so far reads, *The boy takes the dog out of the house and*. Now you're ready to tackle the second half of the sentence. Just follow the same steps:

1. Find and identify the verb of the second clause.

Fugat is a 3rd-person singular verb. Translated, it means *he/she/it chases*.

2. Find and identify the subject.

Now things get a little tricky. This clause doesn't have a stated subject, so you have to use the implied subject of the verb, which is *he/she/it*. Because **puer** (*boy*) is the subject of the first clause, the boy is probably also the subject of the second clause.

3. Find and identify the object.

eum means *it*. Here it is a pronoun referring to **canem**, a dog, and both Latin words are accusative singular.

4. Translate all the rest.

in viam means *into the road*.

The translation of the second clause is *(he/she/it) chases it into the road*. When you put both clauses together, you get, *The boy takes the dog out of the house and chases it into the road*.

Talkin' the Talk



Caesar and his wife Calpurnia are discussing their plans for the day. Today is the Ides of March (March 15) 44 BCE, and Calpurnia wants Caesar to stay home. He, however, has other plans:

Calpurnia: Caesar, mane domi. Noli exire hodie, oro te!

Caesar, stay at home. Don't go out today, I beg you!

Caesar: Non possum manere hic! Senatores exspectant me, praesertim Brutus et Cassius.

I can't stay here! The senators are waiting for me, especially Brutus and Cassius.

Calpurnia: Non credo illo Bruto. Habet macrum et ieiumum vultum.

I don't trust that Brutus. He has a lean and hungry look.

Caesar: Deinde da ei aliquid cibi et vini.

Then give him some food and wine.

Calpurnia: O Caesar. Tua stultitia erit olim mors tui!

Oh, Caesar. Your stupidity will one day be the death of you!

Caesar: Cum amicis velut Bruto et Cassio? Mehercule, numquam!

With friends like Brutus and Cassius? By Hercules, never!

Calpurnia: Eges amicis velut illis sicut eges pugione in tergo! Cura te. Vale.

You need friends like those just as you need a dagger in your back. Take care of yourself. Goodbye.

Caesar: Vale. Para mihi gratam cenam: videbo tribus horis.

Goodbye. Prepare me my favorite meal: I'll see you in three hours.

Calpurnia: Si non veneris domum tempore, necabo te.

If you don't come home in time, I'll kill you.

ROME, SWEET ROME

Rome played an important part in the development of Western civilization, so it's not strange to find many sayings that feature Rome, such as the following:

- Rome wasn't built in a day.
- All roads lead to Rome.
- When in Rome, do as the Romans do.
- Rome was built on seven hills.
- When the Colosseum falls, Rome shall fall. When Rome falls, so shall the whole world.

Rome is the city of love. The Romans called their city **Roma**. When you write **Roma** backwards, it spells **amor**, which is Latin for *love*. Roma is also where the words *romance* and *romantic* come from. And that's why languages derived from Latin, such as Italian, Spanish, Portuguese, Romanian, and French, are called Romance languages.

WORDS TO KNOW

domi	at home
hodie	today
praesertim	especially
deinde	then
stultitia, stultitiae, f	stupidity
olim	one day
numquam	never
velut	like
sicut	just as
cena, cenae, f	dinner, meal

Real live Latin: Messin' with Martialis

In this section, you can try your hand at some real Latin — that is, Latin written by an actual ancient Roman. Martialis, who lived and wrote poetry in the second

half of the first century CE, wrote the following epigram. His epigrams are funny and throw plenty of light on the social life of the Romans of his time.

Here's a Martialis epigram about a doctor:

Nuper erat medicus, nunc est vispillo Diaulus.

Quod vispillo facit, fecerat et medicus.

After you translate it, you get a pretty good idea of what Martialis thought of doctors.

And here's the vocabulary you need in order to translate the epigram successfully:

Word	Meaning
nuper	recently, until recently
medicus	doctor
vispillo	undertaker
facio	I do, I am doing

Cover up the right-hand column on the following table and use the four-step process outlined in the section "Making Sense of a Translation," earlier in this chapter, to translate this epigram.

Original	Translation
Nuper erat medicus, nunc est vispillo Diaulus.	Until recently, Diaulus was a doctor; now he is an undertaker.
Quod vispillo facit, fecerat et medicus.	What he is doing as an undertaker, he also did as a doctor.

Martialis, or *Martial* as we modern English speakers call him, had the knack for making fun of people. In the next poem, he compares two women:

Thais habet nigros, niveos Laecania dentes

Quae ratio est? Emptos haec habet, illa suos!

Some of the words that you need to translate the excerpt follow (**Thais** and **Laecania** are the names of the women):

Word	Meaning
habeo	<i>I have</i>
niger	<i>black</i>
niveus	<i>snowy white</i>
dens	<i>tooth</i>
ratio	<i>reason</i>
emptus	<i>bought, purchased</i>
haec	<i>this one, the latter (feminine)</i>
illa	<i>that one, the former (feminine)</i>

Original	Translation
Thais habet nigros, niveos Laecania dentes.	<i>Thais has black teeth, Laecania has snow-white teeth.</i>
Quae ratio est? Emptos haec habet, illa suos!	<i>What is the reason? The latter has ones that have been purchased, the former has her own!</i>

Translating complex sentences

In English, a complex sentence is one that has a *main* (or *independent*) *clause* (one that can stand on its own) and a *dependent clause* (one that can't). An example is the sentence "The chicken crossed the road because he wanted to get to the other side." The main clause is "The chicken crossed the road." The dependent clause is "because he wanted to get to the other side."

Most dependent clauses can fall just about anywhere in the sentence — beginning, middle, or end. In our road-crossing chicken example, the dependent clause appears at the end of the sentence. But it could just as easily fall at the beginning: "Because he wanted to get to the other side, the chicken crossed the road." Or in the middle: "The chicken, because he wanted to get to the other side, crossed the road."

Latin has these kinds of sentences, too, which the following example shows. See whether you can separate the two clauses and tell which one is the main clause and which one is the dependent clause:

Vir, qui in horto sedet, patrem exspectat.

The main clause is **Vir patrem expectat**. In this sentence, the dependent clause (**qui in horto sedet**) begins with the relative pronoun **qui** and falls in the middle. In translating such a sentence, you translate each clause separately and then put them back together.

To translate the main clause, find and translate the verb, the subject, any objects, and then all the rest. You should end up with what you see below. (If you need help, head to the section “Translating longer sentences,” earlier in this chapter, for tips on how to translate a sentence one element at a time.)

Function	Word	Translation
Subject	Vir	<i>the man</i>
Verb	expectat	<i>is waiting for</i>
Object	patrem	<i>father</i>
ATR (All The Rest)	N/A	N/A

So far, the translation reads *The man is waiting for father*.

Using the same technique, translate the elements of the second clause:

Function	Word	Translation
Subject	qui	<i>who</i>
Verb	sedet	<i>is sitting</i>
Object	N/A	N/A
ATR	in horto	<i>in the garden</i>

The translation of the second clause is *who is sitting in the garden*.

When you put the sentence back together, you get *The man, who is sitting in the garden, is waiting for father*.

More live Latin: Catullus’s catch

Catullus was a poet living in Rome during the first half of the first century BCE. He was madly in love with a young lady and wrote short poems to tell her how he felt. After a while, he realized that he wasn’t the only man — other than her husband,

that is — whom she was seeing. Catullus, who was disappointed, expressed his conflicting feelings in the following poem:

Odi et amo. Quare id faciam, fortasse requiris.

Nescio, sed fieri sentio et excrucior.

Following are the words that you need to interpret this poem:

Word	Meaning
odi	<i>I hate</i>
quare	<i>why</i>
fortasse	<i>perhaps</i>
requiro	<i>I ask</i>
nescio	<i>I don't know</i>
fieri	<i>to happen</i>
excrucior	<i>I am tormented</i>

Try covering up the right-hand column of this table so that you can practice your translation skills:

Original/Pronunciation	Translation
Odi et amo. Quare id faciam, fortasse requiris.	<i>I hate and I love. Why do I do it, perhaps you ask.</i>
Nescio, sed fieri sentio et excrucior.	<i>I don't know, but I feel it happening and I am tormented.</i>

In another poem written by Catullus, addressed to his friend Fabullus, he invites Fabullus to a party. But there's a catch! See the words that follow to help you with the translation:

Word	Meaning
apud	<i>at the house of, with</i>
pauci	<i>few</i>
affero	<i>I bring</i>
inquam	<i>I say</i>

Word	Meaning
candida	<i>radiant</i>
cachinnis	<i>laughter</i>
sacculus	<i>wallet</i>
araneorum	<i>spider-webs</i>
plenus	<i>full, filled with</i>

Now see if you can figure out what the the catch is:

Original	Translation
Cenabis bene, mi Fabulle, apud me	<i>You will dine well, my Fabullus, at my house</i>
paucis, si tibi di favent, diebus,	<i>within a few days, if the gods favor you</i>
si tecum attuleris bonam atque magnam	<i>if you bring with you a nice and big</i>
cenam, non sine candida puella	<i>meal, (and come) not without a radiant girl</i>
et vino et sale et omnibus cachinnis.	<i>and wine and wit and all kinds of laughter.</i>
Haec si, inquam, attuleris venuste noster,	<i>If you bring these things, I say, our charming one,</i>
cenabis bene: name tui Catulli	<i>you will dine well: for your Catullus'</i>
plenus sacculus est araneorum.	<i>wallet is full of spiders.</i>

Poor Catullus! Hungry, thirsty, bored, no money, and definitely no TV — but boy, can he throw a party!

Translating subjunctive mood

The sentences in the following sections use the subjunctive mood. Simply put, the subjunctive mood is used to convey a sense of action that isn't completed or that depends on another action. (For more information on the subjunctive mood, see Chapter 6.)

Subjunctives in the main clause

When a subjunctive-mood verb is in the main clause, it usually expresses a wish, encouragement, or a polite command or request. Consider these examples:

- » In the following sentence, **vivamus** and **amemus** are subjunctive verbs expressing encouragement:
 - **Vivamus, mea Lesbia, atque amemus.**
 - *Let us live, my Lesbia, and let us love.*
- » In the following sentence, **pugnent** is a subjunctive verb expressing a polite command:
 - **Gladiatores in arena pugnent.**
 - *Let the gladiators fight in the arena.*

Subjunctives in dependent clauses

Subjunctives in dependent clauses can have all kinds of roles. The subjunctive mood appears in many dependent-clause constructions, such as purpose clauses, result clauses, indirect questions, indirect commands, conditional clauses, and many, many others. (See Chapter 6 for more information on the subjunctive mood.) Consider the following sentence that expresses purpose in the subordinate clause.

Caesar Romam venit ut gladiatores spectet.

Caesar is coming to Rome to watch the gladiators.

In the preceding sentence, the verb **spectet** is in the subjunctive mood, and the clause **ut gladiatores spectet** is a purpose clause.

The following sentence at first glance looks like a purpose clause, but take a closer look:

Pueri tam laeti sunt ut cum laetitia exsultent.

The boys are so happy that they are jumping with joy.

The clause **ut cum laetitia exsultent** in the preceding sentence is a result clause. Although it looks like a purpose clause, it isn't. You can always tell that you have a result clause because a Latin word whose translation is or includes *so* appears in the main clause. In this sentence, “tam” indicates “so” and therefore this is a result clause.



GRAMMATICALLY
SPEAKING

In English, *so* is a word by itself. In Latin, *so* is built into several words: for example, **tot** (*so many*), **tantus** (*so great*), and **totidem** (*so often*). In addition, several constructions themselves mean *so*: **tam**, **ita**, **sic**, and so on. If you see in the main clause any Latin words whose translation includes *so*, the dependent clause is likely a result clause.

What did he say? In the following sentence, the speaker's direct words are relayed to a third person by using indirect speech, known as indirect question.

Pater me rogavit num ad ludum irem.

Father asked me whether I was going to school.

The clause **num ad ludum irem** in the preceding sentence is a clause showing an indirect question. (Father's very words constitute a direct question: "Are you going to school?")

He told you to do what? In the following sentence, the speaker's direct words are once again relayed to another person by using indirect speech, here called indirect command.

Dux militibus imperat ut fortiter pugnent.

The general orders his soldiers to fight bravely.

The clause **ut fortiter pugnent** is an indirect command. (The general actually said to his soldiers, "Fight bravely, men!" — a direct command.)

I don't know if this is true, but if it is, wow!

Si hoc facias, stultus sis.

If you should do this, you would be foolish.

The preceding sentence includes a conditional clause. The verbs in both the main and the subordinate clauses are in the subjunctive mood. Here you are making a statement which is highly improbable, but not impossible. This is called a conditional clause (or more precisely, a future less vivid construction). But enough of all that talk.



REMEMBER

When you see a verb in the subjunctive mood, tread carefully. The indicative mood expresses facts, but the subjunctive mood expresses probability, possibility, and other things that may or may not happen.

Once More unto the Breach

This section contains some relatively long sentences for you to translate. Don't despair! Use the hints that we offer throughout this chapter, and you should be in good hands — your own! When it comes to translating in this and the following sections, look up words that you don't know in the mini-dictionary in Appendix B. (You can find the translation answers in Appendix C.)

Now try your hand. Read through the following sentences and apply all the hints we have given you so far. Then translate each sentence into good, literal English:

Exercise 15-1

1. **Caesar tres milites qui in castris dormiebant, excitavit et eos in silvas misit.**
2. **Senatores nos rogabunt num ad basilicam heri venerimus.**
3. **Cives irati in forum cucurrerunt quaerentes Caesaris interfectores.**
4. **Numquam tui obliviscamur! Semper te in mentibus nostris habebimus!**
5. **Agricola tam fessus erat ut ad villam rediret et statim obdormiret.**
6. **Hostibus visis, dux nuntium ad imperatorem misit et eum oravit ut auxilia quam celerrime mitteret.**
7. **Oratores nobis semper audiendi sunt ut sapientiores fiamus.**
8. **Curramus ad Circum Maximum ut circenses spectemus.**
9. **Pueros puellae vocaverunt ut in horto luderent.**
10. **Cives qui in via ambulabant, ad basilicam petebant ut iudicem orarent ut ille reum liberaret.**

You can check your answers in Appendix C.

WORDS TO KNOW

excito, excitare, excitavi, excitatus	I wake up/arouse (someone else)
silva, silvae, f	woods, forest
num	whether
heri	yesterday

quaero, quaerere, quaesivi, quaesitus	I search for
interfector, interfectoris, m/f	assassin
numquam	never
obliviscor, oblivisci, oblitus sum (+ genitive)	I forget
semper	always
mens, mentis, f	mind
redeo, redire, redii, reditum	I return
obdormio, obdormire, obdormivi, obdormitum	I fall asleep
nuntius, nuntii, m	messenger, message
statim	at once
quam celerrime	as quickly as possible
auxilia, auxiliorum, n pl	auxiliary forces
fio, fieri, factus sum	I become
circenses, circensium, m.pl	games (in the Circus Maximus)
peto, petere, petivi, petitum	I head for, ask
libero, liberare, liberavi, liberatum	I set free

More Martial wit

Let's take yet another look at some *real* Latin sentences. Here are a few more of Martial's epigrams. Look up words that you don't know in the Mini-Dictionary at the end of this book. Again, the answers are in Appendix C.

Exercise 15-2

Non amo te, Sabidi, nec possum dicere quare:

hoc tantum possum dicere, non amo te.

Quem recitas meus est, o Fidentine, libellus:

sed male cum recitas, incipit esse tuus.

**Semper pauper eris, si pauper es, Aemiliane:
dantur opes nullis nunc nisi divitibus.
Cur non mitto meos tibi, Pontiliane, libellos?
ne mihi tu mittas, Pontiliane, tuos.**

WORDS TO KNOW	
Sabidius, Sabidii, m	Sabidius
quare	why
tantum	only
recito, recitare, recitavi, recitatum	I recite, read
libellus, libelli, m	little book, pamphlet
male	badly, poorly
incipio, incipere, incepti, inceptum	I begin
opes, opum, f pl	wealth, riches
nisi	except, unless

Catullus hearts Lesbia

Catullus, whom we talk about in the section “More live Latin: Catullus’s catch,” earlier in this chapter, was a poet in the first century BCE. He was infatuated with a woman who was married to someone else. To save her some embarrassment, and him some broken bones, he didn’t use her real name, instead calling her Lesbia. The following sections give you a few excerpts from his poems. See if you can figure out what Catullus was asking of Lesbia in this first one.

Exercise 15-3

Lesbia, I can’t get enough of you!

**Vivamus mea Lesbia, atque amemus,
rumoresque senum severiorum
omnes unius aestimemus assis!**

soles occidere et redire possunt:
 nobis cum semel occidit brevis lux,
 nox est perpetua una dormienda.
 da mi basia mille, deinde centum,
 dein mille altera, dein secunda centum

You can check your translation in Appendix C.

WORDS TO KNOW	
vivo, vivere, vixi, victim	I live
senex, senis, m	old man
severus, severa, severum	strict, severe
aestimo, aestimare, aestimavi, aestimatum	I value
unius assis	worth one as (smallest Roman coin)
sol, solis, m	sun
occido, occidere, occidi, occasum	I set, go down
basium, basii, n	kiss
mille	a thousand
centum	a hundred
alter, altera, alterum	another

The bird has flown its coop

When Lesbia was upset by the death of her pet sparrow, Catullus commiserated with her. Translate the following excerpt into good, literal English:

Exercise 15-4

Lugete, o Veneres Cupidinesque,
et quantum est hominum venustiorum:
passer mortuus est meae puellae,

**passer, deliciae meae puellae,
quem plus illa oculis suis amabat.**

You can check your translation in Appendix C.

WORDS TO KNOW	
lugeo, lugere, luxi, luctum	I mourn
quantum (+ genitive)	as much as
venustus, venusta, venustum	charming
homo, hominis, m/f	person
passer, passeris, m	sparrow charming
morior, mori, mortuus sum	I die
puella, puellae, f	girl, girlfriend
deliciae, deliciarum, f pl	delight, darling

Caesar, you're a real pain in the back!

In 58 BCE, Julius Caesar led his forces into Gaul, beginning a campaign that would last until 50 BCE. During this time, Caesar sent dispatches of his observations of the Gauls and other foreign nations back to the Senate in Rome. These dispatches were called the **Commentarii de Bello Gallico** (*Commentaries on the Gallic War*).

Try your hand at translating the first few lines of this very famous piece of prose:

Exercise 15-5

Gallia est omnis divisa in partes tres, quarum unam incolunt Belgae, aliam Aquitani, tertiam qui ipsorum lingua Celtae, nostra Galli appellantur. Hi omnes lingua, institutis, legibus inter se differunt. Gallos ab Aquitanis Garumna flumen, a Belgis Matrona et Sequana dividit. Horum omnium fortissimi sunt Belgae.

WORDS TO KNOW

incolo, incolere, incolui	I inhabit
Belgae, Belgarum, m/f pl	A warlike people of the Gallic and Celtic race, who inhabited the northern part of Gaul
Aquitani, Aquitanorum, m/f pl	Inhabitants of Aquitania, the southwest part of Gaul
institutum, instituti, n	custom
Garumna, Garumnae, f	a river in Gaul, now called the Garonne
flumen, fluminis, n	river
Matrona, Matrona, Matronae, f	the river Marne
Sequana, Sequanae, f	the river Seine
fortis, fortis, forte	brave

Will the real Hannibal please stand up?

The Carthaginian leader Hannibal was famous for leading his army with elephants over the Pyrenees and the Alps in his campaign to conquer Italy. After Hannibal achieved numerous victories over the Romans, the Roman Senate appointed Quintus Fabius Maximus as the commander of the Roman forces. Terribly outnumbered, he decided to use guerilla tactics against the Carthaginians and avoid any frontal attack. These tactics slowed Hannibal and his troops, and Quintus Fabius Maximus was given the honorary title of **Cunctator** (*Delayer*). Today, the phrase *Fabian tactics* refers to a war of attrition and avoidance of pitched battles.

In this extract from Cornelius Nepos', *Life of Hannibal*, Book 5, Hannibal meets with the forces of Fabius for the first time. Try your hand at translating the first few lines of this very famous piece of prose:

Exercise 15-6

Hac pugna pugnata Romam profectus est nullo resistente. In propinquis urbi montibus moratus est. Cum aliquot ibi dies castra habuisset et Capuam reverteretur, Q. Fabius Maximus, dictator Romanus, in agro Falerno ei se obiecit.

WORDS TO KNOW

moror, morari, moratus sum	I delay
aliquot	several
Capua, Capuae, f	Capua, a large city in Campania
revertor, reverti, reversus sum	I return
Falernus ager	the Falernian countryside (in Campania)
obicio, obicere, obieci, obiectum	I throw myself in the way of

FUN & GAMES

Choose the correct English translation for each of the following Latin sentences. Look up words that you don't know in the mini-dictionary in Appendix B.

1 Milites urnas in urbem portant.

- a. *The soldiers are carrying the water jars into the city.*
- b. *The soldiers were carrying the water jars into the city.*
- c. *The soldiers will carry the water jars into the city.*
- d. *The soldiers have carried the water jars into the city.*

2 Cives in forum ambulabant et oratores audiebant.

- a. *The citizens walk into the forum and listen to the speakers.*
- b. *The citizens walked into the forum and listened to the speakers.*
- c. *The citizens walk into the forum to listen to the speakers.*
- d. *The citizens walked into the forum to listen to the speakers.*

3 Eamus ad circum et spectemus equos.

- a. *We are going to the circus, and we are looking at the horses.*
- b. *We will go to the circus, and we will look at the horses.*
- c. *We are going to the circus to look at the horses.*
- d. *Let's go to the circus and look at the horses.*

4 Pueri, qui in via ludunt, filii mei avunculi sunt.

- a. *The boys, who were playing in the road, were my uncle's sons.*
- b. *The boys, who are playing in the road, are my uncle's sons.*
- c. *The girls, who are playing in the road, are my uncle's daughters.*
- d. *The girls, who are playing in the road, are my uncle's daughters.*

5 Milites, pugnate ferociter et hostes superate!

- a. *Soldiers, let's fight bravely and conquer the enemy!*
- b. *The soldiers fought bravely and conquered the enemy!*
- c. *The soldiers are fighting bravely and conquering the enemy!*
- d. *Soldiers, fight bravely and conquer the enemy!*

6 Cur fles? Quis te pulsavit?

- a. *Why are you crying? Who is hitting you?*
- b. *Why are you crying? Who hit you?*
- c. *Why were you crying? Who hit you?*
- d. *Why were you crying? Was someone hitting you?*

7 Feminae gladiatores et animalia in circo spectabant.

- a. *The women are coming to the circus to watch the gladiators and the animals.*
- b. *The women will watch the gladiators and the animals in the circus.*
- c. *The women were watching the gladiators and the animals in the circus.*
- d. *The women are watching the gladiators and the animals in the circus.*

8 Nautae, qui ad Graeciam navigabunt, naves in portu parant.

- a. *The sailors, who will sail to Greece, are preparing the ships in the harbor.*
- b. *The sailors, who will sail to Greece, will prepare the ships in the harbor.*
- c. *The sailors, who will sail to Greece, prepared the ships in the harbor.*
- d. *The sailors, who sailed to Greece, prepared the ships in the harbor.*

9 Pueri tam fessi sunt ut sub arbore sedeant.

- a. *The boys were so tired that they sat down under the tree.*
- b. *The boy was so tired that he sat down under the tree.*
- c. *The boys are so tired that they are sitting down under the tree.*
- d. *The boy is so tired that he is sitting down under the tree.*

10 Dux militibus imperavit ut fortiter pugnarent.

- a. *The general orders the soldiers to fight bravely.*
- b. *The general ordered the soldier to fight bravely.*
- c. *The general will order the soldiers to fight bravely.*
- d. *The general ordered the soldiers to fight bravely.*

See Appendix C for the answers.

- » Impressing friends with some Latin quotes
- » Getting advice from ancient Romans on love, war, and life
- » Understanding mottoes in Latin

Chapter **16**

Mottoes, Sayings, and Quotes: Cocktail Party Latin

“Latin is a language — as dead as dead can be. First it killed the Romans, and now it’s killing me!” If this saying were really true, you’d be in big trouble. Many words, expressions, and quotes that you use every day come directly from Latin. If you removed all the Latin words from English, you wouldn’t have much left to say. Sometimes, you use Latin words and expressions without even knowing they’re Latin!

Still, people who can quote Latin phrases and (deliberately) pepper their sentences with Latin words give the impression of being well educated. Instead of envying those people, become one of them. (But try not to be too condescending about it.) This chapter offers all sorts of Latin quotes, mottoes, and snippets of advice and wisdom. In this chapter, we also tell you who said what and translate it all for you. With this information, if you decide to share a nugget or two, you know what you’re saying. Amaze friends and impress your boss at your next party or meeting. Enjoy!

The Quotable Roman

The Romans weren't always fighting wars somewhere or conquering people and regions. They were also practical and observant. They loved to view life and comment on what they saw. Roman authors wrote on a variety of subjects: love, death, the universe, agriculture, architecture, philosophy, human foibles, and much, much more. Writers through the ages have quoted these ancient Roman observations, and many of them still pertain to our lives today.

Romans on love

"It's better to have loved and lost, than never to have loved at all." The Romans can't take credit for that quote: It belongs to the 19th-century English poet, Alfred, Lord Tennyson. Still, the Romans were of the same mind, and many Roman writers examined love.

The great Roman poet Vergil wrote, "**Amor vincit omnia et nos cedamus amori,**" which translates to "*Love conquers all/let us also yield to love.*"

Seneca, the Roman playwright and statesman, wrote, "**Si vis amari, ama,**" which means "*If you want to be loved, love*" — a perennial favorite of rock bands, poets, and Valentine card writers.

From Catullus, another famous Roman poet, you get the following:

» **Difficile est longum subito deponere amorem.**

It is difficult to suddenly give up a long love.

» **Vivamus, mea Lesbia, atque amemus.**

Let us live, my Lesbia, and let us love.

Ovid, the Roman poet who wrote (among other things) the poem "**Metamorphoses**" ("*Transformations*"), has the following to say about love:

» **Amor tussisque non celantur.**

Love and a cough aren't concealed. (Romantic, wasn't he?)

» **Militat omnis amans et habet sua castra Cupido.**

Every lover is a soldier and has his camp in Cupid.

Here are a few other lovely quotes about love that you can use to impress your friends:

- » On love in the future, from an anonymous poem “**Pervigilium Veneris**” (“*The Vigil of Venus*”):
 - **Cras amet qui numquam amavit quique amavit cras amet.**
 - *May one love tomorrow who has never loved, and may one who has loved love tomorrow.*
- » On love and fidelity from the Roman poet Propertius:
 - **Expertus, dico, nemo est in amore fidelis.**
 - *I say, as an expert, no one is faithful in love.*
- » Publilius Syrus, a Roman writer of farces, on love and wisdom:
 - **Amare et sapere vix deo conceditur.**
 - *Even a god can scarcely love and be wise at the same time.*
- » On love and fighting, from Terence, a writer of Roman comedies:
 - **Amantium ira amoris integratio est.**
 - *The anger of lovers is the renewal of love.* (Or in modern-speak: The best part of a fight is making up afterwards.)
- » Some anonymous advice on love and lovers:
 - **Amantes sunt amentes.**
 - *Lovers are lunatics.*

FAMOUS LAST WORDS

The following is a list of famous last words uttered by characters from the ancient world:

Noli turbare calculos meos! (*Don't upset my calculations!*): Archimedes, the great Greek mathematician, spoke these words to a Roman soldier during the conquest of Syracuse. He had drawn some calculations in the sand outside of his house, and the soldier was standing dangerously close to what he'd written. The soldier's response? He killed Archimedes.

(continued)

(continued)

Paete, non dolet. (*It doesn't hurt, Paetus.*): Arria was the wife of Paetus, a man who plotted against the Emperor Claudius and was sentenced to commit suicide. When Paetus hesitated, Arria plunged the dagger into her own chest and then handed the knife to him with these last words.

Acta est fabula, plaudite! (*The play is over, applaud!*) — Augustus Caesar, grandnephew and successor of Julius Caesar, on meeting his death (curiously for a Roman emperor, of natural causes).

Adhuc vivo! (*I am still alive!*): But not for long. Caligula — a Roman emperor known for his cruelty, who once said, “**Oderint dum metuant**” (“*Let them hate me as long as they fear me*”) — spoke these words after his own bodyguards stabbed him. He died shortly thereafter.

Qualis artifex pereo! (*What an artist perishes in me!*): Nero, infamous emperor of Rome, dead at the ripe old age of 30. (Expected to commit suicide in accordance with Roman fashion, Nero was so terrified of dying that he begged one of his servants to set an example for him by killing themselves first. A troop of armed soldiers then forced Nero's hand.)

Ego me bene habeo. (*I am feeling well.*): Sextus Afranius Burrus, a high-ranking official who served Nero — until someone reputedly poisoned him.

Vae puto me deum fieri! (*Alas, I think I'm becoming a god!*): Vespasian, a Roman emperor; another rare case where an emperor died of illness rather than through violent means.

Romans on war

The Romans were famous for fighting wars all over Europe, the Middle East, and Africa. They never met anyone that they didn't want to subdue, civilize, or annihilate. The following are some of the many references to war that you can find in the works of Roman authors:

- » **Silent enim leges inter arma.** (*For laws are silent in times of war.*) — Cicero, Roman statesman and philosopher
- » **Carthago delenda est.** (*Carthage must be destroyed.*) — Cato the Elder, who saw Carthage as a major threat to Rome and ended each and every speech to the Senate with these words
- » **Bella detesta matribus.** (*Wars, detested by mothers.*) — Horace, Roman poet

- » **Dulce et decorum est pro patria mori.** (*It's sweet and glorious to die for one's country.*) — Horace
- » **Qui desiderat pacem, praeparet bellum.** (*Whoever desires peace, should prepare for war.*) — Varro, Roman scholar and writer
- » **Bella, horrida bella.** (*Wars, terrible wars.*) — Vergil



CULTURAL
WISDOM

Horace may have thought that it was sweet and glorious to die for one's country, but those who have actually experienced battle sometimes think otherwise. Take Wilfred Owen, for example. He was a British soldier in World War I who wrote a poem that used Horace's line above as its title. After describing the horrors of trench warfare, the poem ends by suggesting that if we understood what war was really like, we'd realize Horace was lying to us:

My friend, you would not tell with such high zest
To children ardent for some desperate glory,
The old Lie: Dulce et decorum est
Pro patria mori.

From the mouth of Julius Caesar

Julius Caesar was one of the most famous of the Romans. Not only was he a great statesman and author, but he was also an excellent general. Julius Caesar led the Roman army to victory in many parts of the known world, including France, Britain, Spain, Africa, the Middle East, and Greece. Back in Rome, he revised the old calendar, adding two months and extending it to 365¼ days. Not surprisingly, today we call this calendar the *Julian calendar*. On the Ides of March (March 15th), 44 BCE, a group of Roman senators — who would probably claim that he got what was coming to him — assassinated Caesar.

Here are a few of Caesar's famous sayings:

- » **Alea iacta est.** (*The die is cast.*): Caesar said this after he led an army across the Rubicon (a river in northern Italy) in 49 BCE. Roman law forbade any general from leading troops across the Rubicon. After he crossed the river, Caesar knew that he couldn't go back and that he had made an irreversible decision.
- » **Et tu, Brute?** (*Even you, Brutus?*): According to Shakespeare, Caesar said this to Brutus just after Brutus stabbed him. (To see how other ancients bowed out of life, head to the sidebar "Famous last words," in this chapter.)



- » **Gallia est omnis divisa in partes tres.** (*All of Gaul was divided into three parts.*): This quote is the first line in Caesar's commentaries on his war in Gaul.
- » **Veni, vidi, vici.** (*I came, I saw, I conquered.*): Caesar said this when he reported back to Rome after the battle of Zela in 47 BCE.

The famous last words that Shakespeare attributed to Caesar in his play are not quite on the mark, as far as history goes. The Roman historian Suetonius wrote that he found conflicting reports about how Caesar met his end. According to one account, the first blow from one of the assassins must have nicked a vocal cord, making it impossible for him to speak. Others said that he spoke in Greek to Brutus, the one who delivered the final stab, saying, "And you, my son?"

I'll have another: Romans on drink

The Romans loved their wine and drank a great deal. The following quotations indicate the Romans' fondness for the fruits of Bacchus:

- » **Bibere humanum est, ergo bibamus.** (*To drink is human, let us therefore drink.*) — Anonymous
- » **In vino veritas.** (*In wine is the truth.*) — Anonymous
- » **Nemo enim fere saltat sobrius, nisi forte insanit.** (*For almost nobody dances sober, unless he happens to be insane.*) — Cicero
- » **Nunc est bibendum.** (*Now we must drink.*) — Horace
- » **Bibamus, moriendum est.** (*Let us drink, we all have to die.*) — Seneca

Latin quotes from other famous people

You don't find Latin quotes only in ancient texts. Inscribed on the inside of Queen Katarina Jagellonica of Sweden's wedding ring are the words **Nemo nisi mors.** (*Nobody except death [will part us].*) The monarch of England is known as **Defensor fidei**, or the *Defender of the faith*. And not all famous Latin quotes came from the Romans. Here are a few famous utterings of some non-Romans:

- » **Deus vocatus atque invocatus aderit.** (*God, whether summoned or not, will be there.*) — epitaph on the tomb of Carl Jung (1875–1961), noted Swiss psychologist and psychiatrist

» **Austriæ est imperare orbi universo.** (*It is Austria's destiny to rule the whole world.*) — Frederick III, Holy Roman Emperor during the 15th century

As a bonus, you can use this quote to remember the vowels (a, e, i, o, u) in the English alphabet — or use the vowels in the English alphabet to remember this quote.

» **Ipsa scientia potestas est.** (*Knowledge itself is power.*) — Francis Bacon (1561–1626), English philosopher and statesman

» **Vix ulla tam iniqua pax, quin bello vel aequissimo sit potior.** (*Scarcely is there any peace so unjust that it is better than even the fairest war.*) — Erasmus (c. 1466–1536), Dutch theologian and scholar

» **Sic semper tyrannis!** (*Thus always to tyrants!*) — John Wilkes Booth (1838–1852), U.S. actor and assassin of American President Abraham Lincoln

» **Cogito ergo sum.** (*I think, therefore I exist.*) — Rene Descartes (1596–1650), French philosopher and mathematician

» **Si monumentum requiris, circumspice!** (*If you're looking for a monument, look around!*) — Sir Christopher Wren (1632–1723) on his epitaph in St. Paul's Cathedral, which he designed

» **Ora et labora.** (*Pray and work.*) — St. Benedict (c. 480–543), monk and founder of the Benedictine order

» **Dum excusare credis, accusas.** (*When you believe that you're excusing yourself, you're accusing yourself.*) — St. Jerome (c. 340–420), monk, church scholar, and author of the Vulgate, the Latin Bible

See Chapter 13 for more information on Latin and the Church.



CULTURAL
WISDOM

When the lawyer above says that his doctor friend can do as an undertaker what he has already been doing as a physician (burying his patients, in other words) he is making a play on a short poem by the Roman poet Martial. In Book I, Epigram 47, Martial pokes fun at a physician named Diaulus:

Nuper erat medicus, nunc est uispillo Diaulus:

quod uispillo facit, fecerat et medicus.

He was recently a doctor, now Diaulus is an undertaker:

What he does as an undertaker he had also done as a doctor.

Talkin' the Talk



Two Romans are at a party. One is a **iurisconsultus** (*lawyer*), nursing a drink, and the other is a **medicus** (*doctor*). They're discussing the prospects of having a new emperor.

Medicus: **Imperator mortuus est. Imperator novus diu vivat!**
The emperor is dead. Long live the new emperor!

Iurisconsultus: **Ita vero! Sed desiderabo veterem. Caligula imperatore, habui plurimos clientes.**
Yes, indeed! But I'll miss the old one. When Caligula was emperor, I had very many clients!

Medicus: **Et ego habui plurimos aegros.**
And I had very many patients.

Iurisconsultus: **Claudius, novus imperator, non tam crudelis est quam Caligula.**
Claudius, the new emperor, is not as cruel as Caligula.

Medicus: **Itaque habebō minores aegros.**
And so I will have fewer patients.

Iurisconsultus: **Fortasse debes fieri vispillo!**
Perhaps you should think of becoming an undertaker!

Medicus: **Vispillo? Cur?**
An undertaker? Why?

Iurisconsultus: **Quod facies vispillo, facis nunc medicus.**
What you will do as an undertaker, you are now doing as a doctor.

Medicus: **Et quid est illud?**
And what is that?

Iurisconsultus: **Sepeliens tuos aegros.**
Burying your patients.

Medicus: **Certe! Dummodo omnes sint iurisconsulti!**
Sure! As long as they are all lawyers!

Iurisconsultus: **Medice, cura te ipsum. Tabernari, da alteram potionem meo amico!**
Physician, heal thyself. Bartender, give another drink to my friend!

WORDS TO KNOW

certe	certainly
cliens, clientis, m	client
crudelis, crudele	cruel
diu	for a long time
dummodo	provided that
imperator, imperatoris, m	emperor
minor, minoris	fewer
morior, mori, mortuus	to die
plurimus, plurima, plurimum	very many, the most
sepelio, sepelire, sepilivi, sepultum	to bury
vetus, veteris	old, former
vivo, vivere, vixi, victum	to live

Advice in Latin: Words to Live By

Right in the heart of Amsterdam, you can find a casino. The rear entrance of this casino faces a movie theater complex. Above the entrance is a Latin inscription, written in large, capital letters, that says:

Homo sapiens non in ventum urinat.

A wise person does not urinate into the wind.

Very sage advice, indeed. But wait. There's more. The Romans had more advice to give than that. Here's a sampling of good advice and life lessons to keep in mind (or use if you have the opportunity):

» **Caveat emptor.** (*Let the buyer beware.*) — Anonymous

» **Cave canem.** (*Beware of the dog.*) — Anonymous

Of course, if you really want to keep people out of your yard, use the English version instead.

» **Promoveatur ut amoveatur.** (*Let him be promoted to get him out of the way.*) — Anonymous

This quote applies to the so-called Peter Principle, which suggests that people rise to their level of incompetence.

» **Dum spiro, spero.** (*As long as I breathe, I have hope.*) — Cicero, Roman statesman and philosopher

» **Carpe diem!** (*Seize the day!*) — Horace, Roman poet

» **Ira furor brevis est.** (*Anger is a brief insanity.*) — Horace

» **Mens sana in corpore sano.** (*A healthy mind in a healthy body.*) — Juvenal, Roman satirical poet

» **Sed quis custodiet ipsos custodes?** (*But who will guard the guards themselves?*) — Juvenal

» **Mendacem oportet esse memorem.** (*A liar must have a good memory.*) — Quintilian, Roman rhetorician

» **Timendi causa est nescire.** (*Ignorance is the cause of fear.*) — Seneca the Younger, Roman philosopher

» **Senectus ipsa est morbus.** (*Old age itself is a disease.*) — Terence, Roman playwright

» **Facilis descensus Averno.** (*Easy is the descent to Hell.*) — Vergil, Roman poet

» **Labor omnia vincit.** (*Work conquers all.*) — Vergil

ADVICE TO A BALD MAN

Absolutely nothing wrong with a bald (or balding) man! Julius Caesar was balding and was notorious for his comb-over. The Romans made fun of men who tried to cover up their baldness, as the following quotes show:

Calvo turpius est nihil compto. (*Nothing is more contemptible than a bald man with a comb-over.*) — Martialis

Etiam capillus unus habet umbram. (*Even one hair has a shadow.*) — Publilius Syrus

Mottoes in Latin

Many universities, organizations, groups, charitable institutions — sometimes even families — have a *motto*, a short, expressive word or saying that encapsulates what that group stands for or hopes to achieve. Often, these mottoes are in Latin. The following sections show you just a few still-used mottoes in Latin.

PICK A MOTTO, ANY MOTTO

Looking for a good motto to use for your school, club, or organization? Look no further! Here are some handy ones. And you don't have to worry about copyright. The authors have all been dead for more than 2,000 years:

Audaces fortuna iuvat. (*Fortune favors the bold.*) — Vergil

Aut viam inveniam aut faciam. (*I'll either find a way or make one.*) — Cornelius Nepos

Docendo discimus. (*We learn by teaching.*) — Seneca The Younger

Facta non verba. (*Deeds, not words.*) — Anonymous

Finis coronat opus. (*The end crowns the work.*) — Ovid

Non scholae sed vitae discimus. (*We do not learn for school but for life.*) — Seneca the Younger

Nulli secundus. (*Second to none.*) — Anonymous

Potest ex casa magnus vir exire. (*A great man can come from a hut.*) — Seneca the Younger

Potius mori quam foedari. (*Better to die than be dishonored.*) — Anonymous

TONGUE TWISTER

Try to say the following Latin line as quickly as you can without making an error:

O Tite tute Tati tibi tanta, tyranne, tulisti!

Oh, you tyrant, Titus Tatus, you took such great things for yourself!

Mottoes of famous organizations and institutions

Here are a few mottoes of well-known organizations and institutions:

- » **Veritas** (*Truth*): Harvard University
- » **Lux et Veritas** (*Light and Truth*): Indiana University
- » **Veritas vos liberabit** (*The truth will set you free*): Johns Hopkins University
- » **Semper fidelis** (*Always faithful*): U.S. Marine Corps
- » **Ars gratia artis** (*Art for the sake of art*): M.G.M. Studios
- » **Dominus illuminatio mea** (*The Lord [is] my light*): Oxford University

Mottoes of cities and countries

As a result of the Communist scare of the 1950s, U.S. President Dwight D. Eisenhower and the U.S. Congress changed the U.S. motto to *In God We Trust*. But before the 1950s, the U.S. Motto had been the Latin phrase **e pluribus unum** (*one, out of many*). Not a bad motto. Short, to the point, and meaningful. Other countries also have Latin mottoes, which — at least until the printing of this book — they haven't felt the need to change. In fact, Latin is alive and well, and living in the mottoes of many countries and cities throughout the world. Here are a few:

- » **A mari usque ad mare** (*From sea to sea*): Canada
- » **Urbs in horto** (*A city in a garden*): Chicago
- » **Domine, dirige nos** (*Lead us, Lord*): London
- » **Fluctuat nec mergitur** (*She is tossed by the waves and does not sink*): Paris
- » **Nemo me impune lacessit** (*No one wounds me with impunity*): Scotland
- » **Iustitia omnibus** (*Justice for all*): Washington, D.C.
- » **Unus pro omnibus, omnes pro uno** (*One for all, all for one*): Switzerland
- » **Deo juvante** (*With God's help*): Monaco
- » **Quo fata ferunt** (*Whither the fates carry us*): Bermuda
- » **Non ducor, duco** (*I am not led, I lead*): Sao Paulo, Brazil

FUN & GAMES

The following is an interesting Latin palindrome. You can read it both up and down in the columns and both backwards and forwards in the rows. Try it:

S	A	T	O	R
A	R	E	P	O
T	E	N	E	T
O	P	E	R	A
R	O	T	A	S

Written as a sentence, it looks like this: **Sator Arepo tenet opera rotas.**
Translated, it means “*Arepo, the sower, holds the wheels with difficulty.*”

Match the Mottoes

Following are mottoes for some of the states of the United States of America. Can you match the Latin motto with the English translation?

- | | | |
|----|---|---|
| 1 | Arizona: Ditat Deus | A. <i>Work conquers all</i> |
| 2 | Colorado: Nil sine numine | B. <i>Let arms yield to the toga</i> |
| 3 | Idaho: Esto perpetua | C. <i>Thus always to tyrants</i> |
| 4 | Maine: Dirigo | D. <i>Nothing without the divine will</i> |
| 5 | Mississippi: Virtute et armis | E. <i>God enriches</i> |
| 6 | New York: Excelsior | F. <i>Ever upward</i> |
| 7 | Oklahoma: Labor omnia vincit | G. <i>Mountaineers are always free</i> |
| 8 | Virginia: Sic semper tyrannis | H. <i>I direct</i> |
| 9 | West Virginia: Montani semper liberi | I. <i>May she live forever</i> |
| 10 | Wyoming: Cedant arma togae | J. <i>By valor and arms</i> |

See Appendix C for the answers.

4

The Part of Tens

IN THIS PART . . .

Recognize Latin words in English

Avoid common Latin mistakes

- » Identifying English words that came straight from Latin
- » Knowing which Latin words don't quite translate into English

Chapter **17**

More than Ten Loanwords from Latin

The Part of Tens is a time-honored tradition in the For Dummies books, in which we give you various lists of ten (or so) items each. Even in Roman times, numbers could be flexible. For example, in the Roman army, a **legion** by definition should have had 6,000 soldiers, yet actual legions' rosters varied. The number of soldiers could wax or wane depending on the circumstances, and because we want you to have as many resources as you can get in your Latin adventure, this chapter contains a list of more than ten items.

Why not then call this Part the Part of Twelves or the Part of Twenty-Sevens? Well, just like with the Romans, not every change has to produce a change in labeling. Take the Roman name Gaius. At one time, the name was spelled Caius, and the abbreviation was C. At some point, the name Caius morphed into Gaius, but the abbreviation remained C. Thus, the famous Gaius Julius Caesar would have had his towels monogrammed with C and not G — if he had gone in for monogramming towels, which he didn't — but you get the idea.

In English, we find many words — literally thousands — adopted directly from Latin. In most cases, these words have retained their original meanings. You call words that English uses in this way *loanwords*. This chapter gives you 15 common Latin loanwords found in English today. See how many of them you recognize — and use.

Forum

The central square of ancient Rome, where citizens met, chatted with one another, listened to political speeches, and performed business transactions, was called a **forum**. Today, this word still refers to a public discussion or a place where that discussion occurs. A derivative of this word is *forensic*, which originally had to do with giving evidence to a group of public individuals in the forum. Both the accused and the accuser would deliver speeches giving their sides of the story. The English word *forensic* can refer to both legal evidence and the delivery of a public speech.

Spectator

Someone who went to the Colosseum to watch gladiators kill one another was called a **spectator**. This comes from the Latin word **spectare**, which means *to watch* or *to look*. (Just think of the English words *spectacles* and *spectacular*, which are derived from this Latin word.) Today, English-language cultures call a person who watches a sports event, parade, or other exhibition a *spectator*.

Senator

In the Roman Republic, the **Senate** was a council of appointed officials who managed foreign relations, supervised the state religion, regulated state expenditure and taxation, and was responsible for legislature. A member of this council was called a **senator**. Many countries have senators today, doing pretty much what their predecessors did centuries ago.

Radio

The Romans didn't have radios (it took Italian Guglielmo Marconi to invent the radio at the turn of the 20th century), but they did have the word **radio**. In those days, the word could mean *I gleam*, *I emit rays*, or *I radiate*. With these definitions, you can see why this word seemed a good name for the modern-day radio.

Atrium

An **atrium** was the central open courtyard in a Roman house. The bedrooms, study, and dining room were all arranged around this area. The name came from the word **atrum**, which means *black*, because the smoke of the fires inside the house blackened its walls and ceilings. Today, an *atrium* refers to a usually sky-lighted central area or rectangular court found in public or commercial buildings. An *atrium* is also a chamber in the human heart.

Via

When you travel to Paris *via* London, it means that you must first stop over in London before proceeding with your journey to Paris. This word comes from the Latin word **via**, which means *by way of*. Another helpful derivative is *viaduct*, which you can think of as being like an aqueduct, but instead of having water flowing in a channel overhead, you have a road passing over your head.

Veto

A **tribunus plebis** — *tribune of the common folk* — was an elected official who could stop legislature from being passed by standing up in the Senate and saying, “**Veto!**” (“*I forbid!*”) Today, a *veto* refers to the official rejection of any proposed act or law.

Focus

Whenever you *focus* on something, you make it the center of your attention. This would make perfect sense to a Roman because **focus** was the Latin word for a *fireplace*, and clearly the source of heat for warming your home and cooking your food should be the center of anyone’s attention.

Onus

The Latin word **onus** means *a burden*, and it gives us the adjective *onerous*, which means burdensome. Used by itself, though, it forms part of one of the most important legal concepts, **onus probandi**, or *burden of proof*. Many legal systems put the **onus probandi** on the prosecution to safeguard against false accusations. You don't have to prove your innocence, the prosecution has to prove your guilt. Of course, you get a good defense attorney to *exonerate* you, which is literally to remove the burden of blame from yourself.

Sinister

This word may conjure images of a cartoon villain with a curling black mustache, but **sinister** started off as the Latin word for *left* or *left-handed*. Because the ancients thought that anyone who was not right-handed was cursed by the gods, the word developed the nefarious connotation it has today. On the other hand (excuse the pun), *right* in Latin is **dexter**, from which we get the word *ambidextrous* — both hands are like right hands.

Circus

Imagine a performer standing on the back of a horse while it gallops around and around the Big Top. You may think that such entertainment is what makes a circus a circus, and you would be right — sort of. **Circus** is the Latin word for *a circle*, but it also described the oblong shape of a track for chariot racing.

Umbrella

An umbrella can shield you from the rain and snow, and it can also protect you from the sun. In fact, sun protection is what an umbrella does by definition. **Umbra** is Latin for *shade* or *shadow*, and several Latin words containing a vowel followed by the letter L suggest a word smaller in meaning. **Umbrella** is actually Latin for *little shade*.

Referendum

This word and the next two share a feature — the letters **nd** in the middle. As you can see in Chapter 9, such words can be gerundives (also called future passive participles). Whatever you call them, these words carry the sense of something yet to be done. In the case of a **referendum**, it is quite literally *something that is to be carried back*. In English, we usually use *referendum* to mean something that officials must carry back to the voters, such as a proposal to increase taxes or build a new school.

Memorandum

You can probably figure out from what was said about **referendum** (see the preceding section) that a **memorandum** is *something to be remembered*. Keep this definition in mind when your boss sends you a memorandum outlining the details of the project that you have to turn in tomorrow.

Agenda

Agenda is a gerundive, which you already spotted from the **nd** in the middle of the word. (We talk about gerundives in Chapter 9.) Because **ago, agere, egi, actus** is the Latin verb meaning *to do*, it makes sense to call any list of things to do your *agenda*.

- » Avoiding mistakes in Latin
- » Tripping over English words that look like Latin

Chapter **18**

Ten (or So) False Friends: Common Mistakes in Latin

The Roman philosopher Seneca, who was also Nero's tutor, wrote **Errare est humanum**, which means *To err is human*.

When you translate from Latin to English, you're bound to make mistakes. (Everyone does.) Most of these errors occur because you don't know what the words mean, you don't take time to look them up, and you speed through the translation. Chapter 15 gives you a four-step process for translating Latin that can help you avoid some of these errors.

But even if you take your time and know your vocabulary pretty well, you're still liable to stumble on Latin words that look like English words but don't have the same meanings. These words are called *false friends*; if you're not careful, they can easily confuse you.



REMEMBER

You must be careful when you translate. If you don't know a word, look it up. Don't guess. As this chapter shows, Latin can easily lead you astray. A favorite saying of the Romans was **Festina lente**, which means *Make haste slowly*. Keep this saying in mind when you translate. Speed kills (the translation, we mean).

Audere and Audire: Audaciously Audible!

The Latin words for *to dare*, **audere**, and *to hear*, **audire**, look much the same. But not only do they have different meanings, they also fall into different conjugations. **Audere** is a 2nd-conjugation verb, and **audire** is a 4th-conjugation verb. (If you don't know why a verb's conjugation is important, head to Chapter 2.)

One way to remember the difference between these two words is to think of English words that are derived from them. From **audere** come the English words *audacious* and *audacity* — both have the letter *a* and both have meanings that relate to boldness. From **audire** come the words *audible*, *auditorium*, *audience*, and *auditory*. Notice they all contain an *i*; and all these words have meanings that relate to hearing.

Crimen: Guilty or Not Guilty?

If we made you guess, you might say that **crimen** means *crime*. And you'd be wrong. **Crimen** actually means *accusation*, and as any lawyer worth their salt can tell you, just because someone has accused you doesn't mean you did it. Despite the fact that **crimen** just means "accusation, it forms the basis for the modern English words *incriminate* and *criminal*.

Ad or Ab: To or Fro?

Although **ab** and **ad** are both prepositions and even look quite alike, they mean the exact opposite of each other. **Ad** means *to* or *towards* and is followed by the accusative case. (See Chapter 2 for information about this and the other noun cases in Latin.) To remember what **ad** means, think of words like *adhere* (stick to) and *advise* (offer advice to).

The preposition **ab** means *from* or *away* and is followed by the ablative case. By remembering the word *abduct*, which means to take away unlawfully, you can remember this preposition's meaning.

Invitus (by Force)

Definitely a false friend, **invitus** may look like it's begging to be translated as the English word *invite*. Well, it ain't. **Invitus** actually means *unwilling* or *against one's wishes*.

Saepe and Semper: Do You Come Here Often or Always?

Another common mistake people make is with the words **semper** and **saepe**. **Semper** means *always*. (Think of the motto of the U.S. Marine Corps: **Semper fidelis**, which means *Always faithful*.) **Saepe** means *often*.

You can easily get mixed up with the Latin words for *always* and *often*, but if you remember the Marines' motto, shortened to **Semper fi**, you can *always* get it right.

Servare and Servire: Are You Being Served or Saved?

The words **servare** and **servire** look very similar and have the same function (both are verbs), but they have different meanings. **Servare** means *to protect* or *to save* and is a 1st-conjugation verb. **Servire** means *to serve* and is a 4th-conjugation verb. (See Chapter 2 for more on conjugations.)

From **servare** come words such as *conserve* and *preserve*; from **servire** come the words *subservient* and *server*.

Some police departments have the motto **Servimus et servamus**, which means *We serve and protect*.

Tandem and Tamen: I'd Like to Go Cycling, But . . .

You might easily confuse this pair of words: **tandem**, which means *at last* or *at length*, and **tamen**, which means *but* or *however*.

To remember the definition of **tandem**, think of the tandem bicycle: It's a bicycle *at length*. As for remembering what **tamen** means, you're on your own.

Fugere and Fugare: Follow Me, I'm Right Behind You!

The Romans were good soldiers and loved to fight. They frequently went on the offensive, and now and then went on the defensive. The Latin word meaning *to drive away* or *to chase away* is **fugare**. The word meaning *to flee* or *to run away* is **fugere**.

Here's one way to remember that **fugare** means *to drive away*: **Fugare** has an *a* in it, just like the word *away* does.

Fugare is a 1st-conjugation verb, and **fugere** is a 3rd-io verb. (Refer to Chapter 2 for the lowdown on conjugations.) From **fugere** comes the word *fugitive*, which is a person who flees. Here's a fun word that comes from **fugare**: *vermifuge*, which means to drive away worms. Spring that on your biology teacher or vet the next time they start talking about internal parasites.

Dicere and Ducere: Do As I Say

Dicere and **ducere** are often confused because they look so much alike. The word **dicere** means *to speak* or *to say*. The word **ducere** means *to lead* or *to bring*. They're both 3rd-conjugation verbs, so you conjugate them the same way, which makes telling them apart that much more difficult. From **ducere** come the words *duct* and *viaduct*; from **dicere** come words such as *dictionary* and *dictate*.

Vir and Vires: Strength Isn't Just For Men

Not only do **vir** and **vires** look similar, but because **vir** means *man* and **vires** means *strength*, some people assume they must be related. But try telling that to Penthesilea, the queen of the Amazons. Vergil writes of her in his epic Latin poem the *Aeneid*, “**audetque viris concurrere virgo.**” Loosely translated, this line means that she dared to run with the big boys. So don't confuse these two words — at least, not around her. From **vir** we get the English words *virile* and *virility*, and even *virtue*, which loosely means acting like a man.

Morior and Moror: Being Late to Your Own Funeral

Morior is a Latin verb that means *to die* and gives us words such as *mortal* and *mortuary*. **Moror**, on the other hand, means *to delay* and is the root of *moratorium*. Although both are deponent verbs (for more on those, see Chapter 12), there's quite a difference between being late and being dead.

Aestas and Aetas: When I Was Your Age in the Summer

Even adults in the ancient world used to say that things were better back in their day, but if they wanted to compare summer activities from their childhood with those of their own children, they had to be careful. **Aestas** means *summer* and carries with it the sense of boiling heat, thus giving us the word *estivate*, which is what some organisms do when they go dormant in the heat.

Cado and Caedo: Be Careful, It's the Fall that Will Kill You!

You may laugh it up when a comedian falls down after slipping on a banana peel but watching someone fall from the top of the Empire State Building would be a bit more serious. You may find dealing with Latin verbs dangerous, as well. Protect yourself by knowing the difference between **cado**, which means *to fall*, and **caedo**, which means *to kill*.

If you remember that **ae** in classical Latin is pronounced like “eye,” then perhaps derivatives from **caedo** like *homicide*, *genocide*, and *suicide* can keep you from making a deadly mistake.

Os and Os: The Mouth Bone?

The lookalike words **os** and **os** mean two different things, which can just seem unfair to a Latin student. But when you remember that the words *two*, *to*, and *too* are all pronounced the same in English, you see that every language has its challenges. The word **os**, **oris** (n) is the Latin word for *mouth*. The **o** at the beginning is long, and the word itself gives us English words such as *oral*. On the other hand, **os**, **ossis** (m) is Latin for *bone*. The **o** at the beginning is short, and this word produces English derivatives such as *ossify*. An *ossuary* is a repository for bones.

Quidam and Quidem: A Certain Man, Indeed

The Romans seemed fond of words beginning with the letter *q*, and because many of them don't have derivatives in English, you can find them hard to keep straight. **Quidam** means *a certain person*, but **quidem** means *indeed*. Latin texts often use these words, so you need to know which one is which.

Consilium and Concilium: Do You Have Counsel for the Council?

Because of confusion with some Latin words, we have similar challenges with English words derived from Latin, such as with the related words *counsel* and *council*. (Thanks, Latin.) **Consilium** is Latin for *plan* or *advice* and gives us the English word *counsel*. On the other hand, **concilium** is Latin for *gathering* or *meeting*, and is the root of *council* in English.

Here's a good way to keep both these Latin and English words straight: Because *c* comes before *s* in the alphabet, a **concilium** (*council*) comes before **consilium** (*counsel*) because the former often offers the latter.

5 Appendices

IN THIS PART . . .

Noun, adjective, and verb tables

Mini-dictionaries

Answer key

Appendix **A**

Noun, Adjective, and Verb Tables

Noun Tables

First-Declension Masculine/Feminine Nouns

Example: puella, puellae, f (girl)

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	puella	puellae
Genitive	puellae	puellarum
Dative	puellae	puellis
Accusative	puellam	puellas
Ablative	puella	puellis
Vocative	puella	puellae

Second-Declension Masculine Nouns

Example: amicus, amici, m (friend)

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	amicus	amici
Genitive	amici	amicorum
Dative	amico	amicis
Accusative	amicum	amicos
Ablative	amico	amicis
Vocative	amice	amici

Second-Declension Neuter Nouns

Example: saxum, saxi, n (rock)

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	saxum	saxa
Genitive	saxi	saxorum
Dative	saxo	saxis
Accusative	saxum	saxa
Ablative	saxo	saxis
Vocative	saxum	saxa

Third-Declension Masculine/Feminine Nouns

Example: mater, matris, f (mother)

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	mater	matres
Genitive	matris	matrum
Dative	matri	matribus
Accusative	matrem	matres
Ablative	matre	matribus
Vocative	mater	matres

Third-Declension Neuter Nouns

Example: *tempus, temporis, n (time)*

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	tempus	tempora
Genitive	temporis	temporum
Dative	tempori	temporibus
Accusative	tempus	tempora
Ablative	tempore	temporibus
Vocative	tempus	tempora

Fourth-Declension Masculine/Feminine Nouns

Example: *exercitus, exercitus, m (army)*

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	exercitus	exercitus
Genitive	exercitus	exercituum
Dative	exercitui	exercitibus
Accusative	exercitum	exercitus
Ablative	exercitu	exercitibus
Vocative	exercitus	exercitus

Fourth-Declension Neuter Nouns

Example: *cornu, cornus, n (horn)*

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	cornu	cornua
Genitive	cornus	cornuum
Dative	cornu	cornibus
Accusative	cornu	cornua
Ablative	cornu	cornibus
Vocative	cornu	cornua

Fifth-Declension Masculine/Feminine Nouns

Example: dies, diei, m (day)

Case	Singular	Plural
Nominative	dies	dies
Genitive	diei	dierum
Dative	diei	diebus
Accusative	diem	dies
Ablative	die	diebus
Vocative	dies	dies

Adjective (and Therefore Participle) Charts of the 1st – 3rd Declensions

NOTE: Adjectives are also grouped together in declensions. They can only be found in the 1st, 2nd, or 3rd declensions. They decline very much along the same lines as nouns. If you *know your nouns*, you'll know your *adjectives and participles*.

There are basically two types of adjectives (and participles): those of the 1st and 2nd declensions, and those exclusively of the 3rd declension.

1st and 2nd declension

They are usually indicated by first the masculine forms, then the feminine forms, and finally the neuter forms. Since both the masculine and neuter forms are the same as those of the 2nd declension, and the feminine forms are the same as those of the 1st declension, these types of adjectives is also referred to as 2-1-2 adjectives (2nd declension-1st declension-2nd declension).

bonus, bona, bonum: good

SINGULAR	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER
Nominative	bonus	bona	bonum
Genitive	boni	bonae	boni

SINGULAR	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER
Dative	bono	bonae	bono
Accusative	bonum	bonam	bonum
Ablative	bono	bonā	bono
Vocative	bone	bona	bonum

PLURAL	MASCULINE	FEMININE	NEUTER
Nominative	boni	bonae	bona
Genitive	bonorum	bonarum	bonorum
Dative	bonis	bonis	bonis
Accusative	bonos	bonas	bona
Ablative	bonis	bonis	bonis
Vocative	boni	bonae	bona

The perfect passive and future active participles follow the forms shown above. *amatus, amata, amatum*: loved; *amaturus, amatura, amaturum*: about to love, going to love

The third declension

This type of adjective has three forms. One of three terminations (or three different endings in the nominative singular of the masculine, feminine, and neuter forms).

Adjectives of three terminations: here the masculine, feminine, and neuter forms in the nominative singular all differ.

acer, acris, acre: sharp

SINGULAR	MASC	FEM	NEUTR	PLURAL	MASC	FEM	NEUT
NOM	acer	acris	acre		acres	acres	acria
GEN	acris	acris	acris		acrium	acrium	acrium
DAT	acri	acri	acri		acri	acribus	acribus

SINGULAR	MASC	FEM	NEUTR	PLURAL	MASC	FEM	NEUT
ACC	acrem	acrem	acre		acres	acres	acres
ABL	acri	acri	acri		acri	acribus	acribus
VOC	acrer	acris	acre		acres	acres	acres

Adjectives of two terminations: here the masculine and feminine forms in the nominative singular are the same, and the neuter form differs.

facilis, facile: easy

SINGULAR	MASC & FEM	NEUTR	PLURAL	MASC & FEM	NEUT
NOM	facilis	facile		faciles	facilia
GEN	facilis	facilis		facilium	facilium
DAT	facili	facili		facilibus	facilibus
ACC	facilem	facile		faciles	facilia
ABL	facili/e	facili/e		facilibus	facilibus
VOC	facilis	facile		faciles	facilia

Adjectives of one termination: here the masculine, feminine, and neuter forms in the nominative singular are all the same.

Ingens, ingentis: huge, large

SINGULAR	MASC & FEM	NEUTR	PLURAL	MASC & FEM	NEUT
NOM	ingens	ingens		ingentes	ingentia
GEN	ingentis	ingentis		ingentium	ingentium
DAT	ingenti	ingenti		ingentibus	ingentibus
ACC	ingentem	ingens		ingentes	ingentia
ABL	ingenti/e	ingenti/e		ingentibus	ingentibus
VOC	ingens	ingens		ingentes	ingentia

The present participles follow the forms shown above. *amans, amantis*: loving

Verb Tables

First-Conjugation Verbs

Example: amo, amare, amavi, amatus (to love)

Indicative Tense	Active Singular	Active Plural	Passive Singular	Passive Plural
Present	amo	amamus	amor	amamur
	amas	amatis	amaris	amamini
	amat	amant	amatur	amantur
Imperfect	amabam	amabamus	amabar	amabamur
	amabas	amabatis	amabaris	amabamini
	amabat	amabant	amabatur	amabantur
Future	amabo	amabimus	amabor	amabimur
	amabis	amabitis	amaberis	amabimini
	amabit	amabunt	amabitur	amabuntur
Perfect	amavi	amavimus	amatus (-a, -um) sum	amati (-ae, -a) sumus
	amavisti	amavistis	amatus (-a, -um) es	amati (-ae, -a) estis
	amavit	amaverunt	amatus (-a, -um) est	amati (-ae, -a) sunt
Pluperfect	amaveram	amaveramus	amatus (-a, -um) eram	amati (-ae, -a) eramus
	amaveras	amaveratis	amatus (-a, -um) eras	amati (-ae, -a) eratis
	amaverat	amaverant	amatus (-a, -um) erat	amati (-ae, -a) errant
Future Perfect	amavero	amaverimus	amatus (-a, -um) ero	amati (-ae, -a) erimus
	amaveris	amaveritis	amatus (-a, -um) eris	amati (-ae, -a) eritis
	amaverit	amaverint	amatus(-a, -um) erit	amati (-ae, -a) erunt

Subjunctive Tense	Active Singular	Active Plural	Passive Singular	Passive Plural
Present	amem	amemus	amer	amemur
	ames	ametis	ameris	amemini
	amet	ament	ametur	amentur
Imperfect	amarem	amaremus	amarer	amaremur
	amares	amaretis	amareris	amaremini
	amaret	amarent	amaretur	amarentur
Perfect	amaverim	amaverimus	amatus (-a, -um) sim	amati (-ae, -a) simus
	amaveris	amaveritis	amatus (-a, -um) sis	amati (-ae, -a) sitis
	amaverit	amaverint	amatus (-a, -um) sit	amati (-ae, -a) sint
Pluperfect	amavissem	amavissemus	amatus (-a, -um) essem	amati (-ae, -a) essemus
	amavisses	amavissetis	amatus (-a, -um) esses	amati (-ae, -a) essetis
	amavisset	amavissent	amatus (-a, -um) esset	amati (-ae, -a) essent

Second-Conjugation Verbs

Example: video, videre, vidi, visus (to see)

Indicative Tense	Active Singular	Active Plural	Passive Singular	Passive Plural
Present	video	videmus	videor	videmur
	vides	videtis	videris	videmini
	videt	vident	videtur	videntur
Imperfect	videbam	videbamus	videbar	videbamur
	videbas	videbatis	videbaris	videbamini
	videbat	videbant	videbatur	videbantur

Future	videbo	videbimus	videbor	videbimur
	videbis	videbitis	videberis	videbimini
	videbit	videbunt	videbitur	videbuntur
Perfect	vidi	vidimus	visus (-a, -um) sum	visi (-ae, -a) sumus
	vidisti	vidistis	visus (-a, -um) es	visi (-ae, -a) estis
	vidit	viderunt	visus (-a, -um) est	visi (-ae, -a) sunt
Pluperfect	videram	videramus	visus (-a, -um) eram	visi (-ae, -a) eramus
	videras	videratis	visus (-a, -um) eras	visi (-ae, -a) eratis
	viderat	viderant	visus (-a, -um) erat	visi (-ae, -a) erant
Future Perfect	videro	viderimus	visus (-a, -um) ero	visi (-ae, -a) erimus
	videris	videritis	visus (-a, -um) eris	visi (-ae, -a) eritis
	viderit	viderint	visus (-a, -um) erit	visi (-ae, -a) erunt

Subjunctive Tense	Active Singular	Active Plural	Passive Singular	Passive Plural
Present	videam	videamus	videar	videamur
	videas	videatis	videaris	videamini
	videat	videant	videatur	videantur
Imperfect	viderem	videremus	viderer	videremur
	videres	videretis	videreris	videremini
	videret	viderent	videretur	viderentur
Perfect	viderim	viderimus	visus (-a, -um) sim	visi (-ae, -a) simus
	videris	videritis	visus (-a, -um) sis	visi (-ae, -a) sitis
	viderit	viderint	visus (-a, -um) sit	visi (-ae, -a) sint

Pluperfect	vidissem	vidissemus	visus (-a, -um) essem	visi (-ae, -a) essemus
	vidisses	vidissetis	visus (-a, -um) esses	visi (-ae, -a) essetis
	vidisset	vidissent	visus (-a, -um) esset	visi (-ae, -a) essent

Third-Conjugation Verbs

Example: pono, ponere, posui, positus (to put)

Indicative Tense	Active Singular	Active Plural	Passive Singular	Passive Plural
Present	pono	ponimus	ponor	ponimur
	ponis	ponitis	poneris	ponimini
	ponit	ponunt	ponitur	ponuntur
Imperfect	ponebam	ponebamus	ponebar	ponebamur
	ponebas	ponebatis	ponebaris	ponebamini
	ponebat	ponebant	ponebatur	ponebantur
Future	ponam	ponemus	ponar	ponemur
	pones	ponetis	poneris	ponemini
	ponet	ponent	ponetur	ponentur
Perfect	posui	posuimus	positus (-a, -um) sum	positi (-ae, -a) sumus
	posuisti	posuistis	positus (-a, -um) es	positi (-ae, -a) estis
	posuit	posuerunt	positus (-a, -um) est	positi (-ae, -a) sunt
Pluperfect	posueram	posueramus	positus (-a, -um) eram	positi (-ae, -a) eramus
	posueras	posueratis	positus (-a, -um) eras	positi (-ae, -a) eratis
	posuerat	posuerant	positus (-a, -um) erat	positi (-ae, -a) erant
Future Perfect	posuero	posuerimus	positus (-a, -um) ero	positi (-ae, -a) erimus
	posueris	posueritis	positus (-a, -um) eris	positi (-ae, -a) eritis
	posuerit	posuerint	positus (-a, -um) erit	positi (-ae, -a) erunt

Subjunctive Tense	Active Singular	Active Plural	Passive Singular	Passive Plural
Present	ponam	ponamus	ponar	ponamur
	ponas	ponatis	ponaris	ponamini
	ponat	ponant	ponatur	ponantur
Imperfect	ponerem	poneremus	ponerer	poneremur
	poneres	poneretis	ponereris	poneremini
	poneret	ponerent	poneretur	ponerentur
Perfect	posuerim	posuerimus	positus (-a, -um) sim	positi (-ae, -a) simus
	posueris	posueritis	positus (-a, -um) sis	positi (-ae, -a) sitis
	posuerit	posuerint	positus (-a, -um) sit	positi (-ae, -a) sint
Pluperfect	posuissem	posuissemus	positus (-a, -um) essem	positi (-ae, -a) essemus
	posuisses	posuissetis	positus (-a, -um) esses	positi (-ae, -a) essetis
	posuisset	posuissent	positus (-a, -um) esset	positi (-ae, -a) essent

Fourth-Conjugation Verbs

Example: audio, audire, audivi, auditus (to hear)

Indicative Tense	Active Singular	Active Plural	Passive Singular	Passive Plural
Present	audio	audimus	audior	audimur
	audis	auditis	audiris	audimini
	audit	audiunt	auditur	audiuntur
Imperfect	audiebam	audiebamus	audiebar	audiebamur
	audiebas	audiebatis	audiebaris	audiebamini
	audiebat	audiebant	audiebatur	audiebantur

Future	audiam	audiemus	audiar	audiemur
	audies	audietis	audieris	audiemini
	audiet	audient	audietur	audientur
Perfect	audivi	audivimus	auditus (-a, -um) sum	auditi (-ae, -a) sumus
	audivisti	audivistis	auditus (-a, -um) es	auditi (-ae, -a) estis
	audivit	audiverunt	auditus (-a, -um) est	auditi (-ae, -a) sunt
Pluperfect	audi- veram	audivera- mus	auditus (-a, -um) eram	auditi (-ae, -a) eramus
	audiveras	audiveratis	auditus (-a, -um) eras	auditi (-ae, -a) eratis
	audiverat	audiverant	auditus (-a, -um) erat	auditi (-ae, -a) erant
Future Perfect	audivero	audiveri- mus	auditus (-a, -um) ero	auditi (-ae, -a) erimus
	audiveris	audiveritis	auditus (-a, -um) eris	auditi (-ae, -a) eritis
	audiverit	audiverint	auditus (-a, -um) erit	auditi (-ae, -a) erunt

Subjunctive Tense	Active Singular	Active Plural	Passive Singular	Passive Plural
Present	audiam	audiamus	audiar	audiamur
	audias	audiatis	audiaris	audiamini
	audiat	audiant	audiatur	audiantur
Imperfect	audirem	audiremus	audirer	audiremur
	audires	audiretis	audireris	audiremini
	audiret	audirent	audiretur	audirentur
Perfect	audiverim	audiverimus	auditus (-a, -um) sim	auditi (-ae, -a) simus
	audiveris	audiveritis	auditus (-a, -um) sis	auditi (-ae, -a) sitis
	audiverit	audiverint	auditus (-a, -um) sit	auditi (-ae, -a) sint

Pluperfect	audivissem	audivissemus	auditus (-a, -um) essem	auditi (-ae, -a) essemus
	audivisses	audivissetis	auditus (-a, -um) esses	auditi (-ae, -a) essetis
	audivisset	audivissent	auditus (-a, -um) esset	auditi (-ae, -a) essent

Irregular Verbs: Present Indicative

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
sum, esse, fui: I am	sum	es	est	sumus	estis	sunt
possum posse, potui: I can	possum	potes	potest	possumus	potestis	possunt
volo, velle, volui: I wish	volo	vis	vult	volumus	vultis	volunt
nolo, nolle, nolui: I refuse	nolo	non vis	non vult	nolumus	non vultis	nolunt
malo, malle, malui: I prefer	malo	mavis	mavult	malumus	mavultis	malunt
eo, ire, ivi/ii, itus: I go	eo	is	it	imus	itis	eunt
fero, ferre, tuli, latus: I carry	fero	fers	fert	ferimus	fertis	ferunt

Irregular Verbs: Imperfect Indicative

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
sum, esse, fui: I am	eram	eras	erat	eramus	eratis	erant
possum, posse, potui: I can	poteram	poteras	poterat	poteramus	poteratis	poterant
volo, velle, volui: I wish	volebam	volebas	volebat	volebamus	volebatis	volebant
nolo, nolle, nolui: I refuse	nolebam	nolebas	nolebat	nolebamus	nolebatis	nolebant
malo, malle, malui: I prefer	malebam	malebas	malebat	malebamus	malebatis	malebant
eo, ire, ivi/ii, itus: I go	ibam	ibas	ibat	ibamus	ibatis	ibant
fero, ferre, tuli, latus: I carry	ferebam	ferebas	ferebat	ferebamus	ferebatis	ferebant

Irregular Verbs: Future Simple Indicative

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
sum, esse, fui: I am	ero	eris	erit	erimus	eritis	erunt

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
possum, posse, potui: I can	potero	poteris	poterit	poterimus	poteritis	poterunt
volo, velle, volui: I wish	volam	voles	volet	volemus	voletis	volent
nolo, nolle, nolui: I refuse	nolam	noles	nolet	nolemus	noletis	nolent
malo, malle, malui: I prefer	malam	males	malet	malemus	maletis	malent
eo, ire, ivi/ii, itus: I go	ibo	ibis	ibit	ibimus	ibitis	ibunt
fero, ferre, tuli, latus: I carry	feram	feres	feret	feremus	feretis	ferent

Irregular Verbs: Perfect Indicative

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
sum, esse, fui: I am	fui	fuisti	fuit	fuimus	fuistis	fuerunt
possum, posse, potui: I can	potui	potuisti	potuit	potuimus	potuistis	potuerunt

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
volō, velle, volui: I wish	volui	voluisti	voluit	voluimus	voluistis	voluerunt
nolo, nolle, nolui: I refuse	nolui	noluisti	noluit	noluimus	noluistis	noluerunt
malo, malle, malui: I prefer	malui	maluisti	maluit	maluimus	maluistis	maluerunt
eo, ire, ivi/ii, itus: I go	i(v)i	i(v)isti	i(v)it	i(v)imus	i(v)istis	i(v)erunt
fero, ferre, tuli, latus: I carry	tuli	tulisti	tulit	tulimus	tulistis	tulerunt

Irregular Verbs: Pluperfect Indicative

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
sum, esse, fui: I am	fueram	fueras	fuerat	fueramus	fueratis	fuerant
possum, posse, potui: I can	potueram	potueras	potuerat	potueramus	potueratis	potuerant
volō, velle, volui: I wish	volueram	volueras	voluerat	volueramus	volueratis	voluerant

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
nolo, nolle, nolui: I refuse	nolueram	nolueras	noluerat	nolueramus	nolueratis	noluerant
malo, malle, malui: I prefer	malueram	malueras	maluerat	malueramus	malueratis	maluerant
eo, ire, ivi/ii, itus: I go	i(v)eram	i(v)eras	i(v)erat	i(v)eramus	i(v)eratis	i(v)erant
fero, ferre, tuli, latus: I carry	tuleram	tuleras	tulerat	tuleramus	tuleratis	tulerant

Irregular Verbs: Future Perfect Indicative

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
sum, esse, fui: I am	fui	fuero	fuero	fuerimus	fueritis	fuerint
possum, posse, potui: I can	potuerim	potueris	potuerit	potuerimus	potueritis	potuerint
volo, velle, volui: I wish	voluerim	volueris	voluerit	voluerimus	volueritis	voluerint
nolo, nolle, nolui: I refuse	noluerim	nolueris	noluerit	noluerimus	nolueritis	noluerint

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
malo, malle, malui: I prefer	maluero	malueris	maluerit	maluerimus	malueritis	maluerint
eo, ire, ivi/ii, itus: I go	i(v)ero	i(v)eris	i(v)erit	i(v)erimus	i(v)eritis	i(v)erint
fero, ferre, tuli, latus: I carry	tulero	tuleris	tulerit	tulerimus	tuleritis	tulerint

Irregular Verbs: Present Subjunctive

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
sum, esse, fui: I am	sim	sis	sit	simus	sitis	sint
possum, posse, potui: I can	possim	possis	possit	possimus	possitis	possint
volo, velle, volui: I wish	velim	velis	velit	velimus	velitis	velint
nolo, nolle, nolui: I refuse	nolim	nolis	nolit	nolimus	nolitis	nolint
malo, malle, malui: I prefer	malim	malis	malit	malimus	malitis	malint

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
eo, ire, ivi/ii, itus: I go	eam	eas	eat	eamus	eatis	eant
fero, ferre, tuli, latus: I carry	feram	feras	ferat	feramus	feratis	ferant

Irregular Verbs: Imperfect Subjunctive

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
sum, esse, fui: I am	essem	esses	esset	essemus	essetis	essent
possum, posse, potui: I can	possem	posses	posset	possemus	possetis	possent
volo, velle, volui: I wish	vellem	velles	vellet	vellemus	velletis	vellent
nolo, nolle, nolui: I refuse	nollem	nolles	nollet	nollemus	nolletis	nollent
malo, malle, malui: I prefer	malle	malles	mallet	malle	malletis	mallent
eo, ire, ivi/ii, itus: I go	irem	ires	iret	iremus	iretis	irent
fero, ferre, tuli, latus: I carry	ferrem	ferres	ferret	ferremus	ferretis	ferrent

Irregular Verbs: Perfect Subjunctive

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
sum, esse, fui: I am	fuerim	fueris	fuerit	fuerimus	fueritis	fuerint
possum, posse, potui: I can	potuerim	potueris	potuerit	potuerimus	potueritis	potuerint
volo, velle, volui: I wish	voluerim	volueris	voluerit	voluerimus	volueritis	voluerint
nolo, nolle, nolui: I refuse	noluerim	nolueris	noluerit	noluerimus	nolueritis	noluerint
malo, malle, malui: I prefer	maluerim	malueris	maluerit	maluerimus	malueritis	maluerint
eo, ire, ivi/ii, itus: I go	i(v)erim	i(v)eris	i(v)erit	i(v)erimus	i(v)eritis	i(v)erint
fero, ferre, tuli, latus: I carry	tulerim	tuleris	tulerit	tulerimus	tuleritis	tulerint

Irregular Verbs: Pluperfect Subjunctive

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
sum, esse, fui: I am	fuissem	fuissetis	fuisset	fuissemus	fuissetis	fuisissent

	1st Person Singular	2nd Person Singular	3rd Person Singular	1st Person Plural	2nd Person Plural	3rd Person Plural
possum, posse, potui: I can	potuissem	potuisses	potuisset	potuissemus	potuissetis	potuissent
volo, velle, volui: I wish	voluisssem	voluisses	voluisset	voluisssemus	voluissetis	voluissent
nolo, nolle, nolui: I refuse	noluissem	noluisse	noluisset	noluissemus	noluissetis	noluisissent
malo, malle, malui: I prefer	maluissem	maluisses	maluisset	maluissemus	maluissetis	maluissent
eo, ire, ivi/ii, itus: I go	i(v)issem	i(v)isses	i(v)isset	i(v)issemus	i(v)issetis	i(v)issent
fero, ferre, tuli, latus: I carry	tulisssem	tulisses	tulisset	tulisssemus	tulissetis	tulissent

Infinitives

Conjugation	Present Active	Present Passive	Perfect Active	Perfect Passive	Future Active	Future Passive
amo, amare, amavi, amatus	amare	amari	amavisse	amatus, -a, -um esse	amaturus, -a, -um esse	amatum iri
teneo, tenere, tenui, tentus	tenere	teneri	tenuisse	tentus, -a, -um esse	tenturus, -a, -um esse	tentum iri

Conjugation	Present Active	Present Passive	Perfect Active	Perfect Passive	Future Active	Future Passive
mitto, mittere, misi, missus	mittere	mitti	misisse	missus, -a, -um esse	missurus, -a, -um esse	missum iri
audio, audire, audivi, auditus	audire	audiri	audivisse	auditus, -a, -um esse	auditurus, -a, -um esse	auditum iri
capio, capere, cepi, captus	capere	capi	cepisse	captus, -a, -um esse	capturus, -a, -um esse	captum iri

Imperatives

Conjugation	Active Singular	Active Plural	Passive Singular	Passive Plural
amo, amare, amavi, amatus	ama!	amate!	amare!	amamini!
teneo, tenere, tenui, tentus	tene!	tenete!	tenerere!	tenemini!
mitto, mittere, misi, missus	mitte!	mittite!	mittere!	mittimini!
audio, audire, audivi, auditus	audi!	audite!	audire!	audimini!
capio, capere, cepi, captus	cape!	capite!	capere!	capimini!

Participles

Conjugation	Present Active	Future Active	Perfect Passive
amo, amare, amavi, amatus	amans, amantis	amaturus -a, um	amatus -a, um
teneo, tenere, tenui, tentus	tenens, tenentis	tenturus -a, um	tentus -a, um

Conjugation	Present Active	Future Active	Perfect Passive
mitto, mittere, misi, missus	mittens, mittentis	missurus -a, um	missus -a, um
audio, audire, audivi, auditus	audiens, audientis	auditurus -a, um	auditus -a, um
capio, capere, cepi, captus	capiens, capientis	capturus -a, um	captus -a, um

Gerundives

Conjugation	Gerundive
amo, amare, amavi, amatus	amandus -a, um
teneo, tenere, tenui, tentus	tenendus -a, um
mitto, mittere, misi, missus	mittendus -a, um
audio, audire, audivi, auditus	audiendus -a, um
capio, capere, cepi, captus	capiendus -a, um

Appendix **B**

Latin-English Mini-Dictionary

A

a/ab (+ ablative case): by, with, from

absentia, absentiae (f): absence

acer, acris, acre: sharp

acetaria, acetariorum (n. pl.): salad

accedo, accedere, accessi, accessurus:
to come near, approach

accipio, accipere, accepi, acceptus: to
receive

accurate: exactly

accusator, accusatoris (m): prosecutor

acies, aciei (f): battle line

acuo, acuere, acui, acutus: to sharpen

ad (+ accusative case): to, towards

adiuvo, adiuvere, adiuvi, adiutus: to
help

adsum, adesse, adfui, adfuturus: to be
present

advenio, advenire, adveni, adventus:
to arrive, reach

adversarius, adversarii (m): opponent

advocatus, advocati (m): defense
attorney

aedificium, aedificii (n): building

**aedifico, aedificare, aedificavi,
aedificatus**: to build

aedilis, aedilis (m): aedile

Aegyptius, Aegyptii (m): Egyptian
person

Aegyptus, Aegypta, Aegyptum:
Egyptian

Aegyptus, Aegypti (f): Egypt

aequus, aequa, aequum: equal, just

aes, aeris (n): bronze

aestas, aestatis (f): summer

aestimo, aestimare, aestimavi, aestimatus: to value
aetas, aetatis (f): age
affero, afferre, attuli, allatus: to bring
ager, agri (m): field
agmen, agminis (n): military column
ago, agere, egi, actus: do, drive, discuss
agricola, agricolae (m): farmer
ala, alae (f): wing
albus, alba, album: white
alibi: elsewhere
aliquis, aliquid: anyone, anything
aliquot: several
alium, alii (n): garlic
alius, alia, aliud: other, another
alter, altera, alterum: another, the other (of two)
altus, alta, altum: high, deep
amatorius, amatoria, amatorium: related to love
ambulo, ambulare, ambulavi, ambulatus: to walk
amicus, amici (m): friend
amita, amitae (f): paternal aunt
amo, amare, amavi, amatus: to love
amor, amoris (m): love
amphitheatrum, amphitheatri (n): amphitheatre
amphora, amphorae (f): jar, amphora
ancilla, ancillae (f): slave-girl
animal, animalis (n): animal
annus, anni (m): year
ante (+ accusative case): before
antequam: before
antiquus, antiqua, antiquum: ancient
anus, anus (f): old woman
anxius, anxia, anxium: worried, anxious
aperio, aperire, aperui, apertus: to open

apprehendo, apprehendere, apprehendi, apprehensus: to seize, grasp
Aprilis, Aprile: April
aptus, apta, aptum: suitable, fitting
apodyterium, apodyterii (n): changing room
apud (+ accusative case): at the house of, with
aqua, aquae (f): water
aquila, aquilae (f): eagle
aquilifer, aquilifer (m): eagle bearer, standard bearer of a legion
Aquitani, Aquitanorum (m/f pl): Aquitani, inhabitants of Aquitania, the southwest part of Gaul
aratrum, aratri (n): plough
arbor, arboris (f): tree
arena, arenae (f): sand
arma, armorum (n.pl.): arms, weapons
ars, artis (f): art, skill, judgment
as, assis (m): copper coin
asinus, asini (m): donkey
Athenae, Athenarum (f. pl.): Athens
atque: and
atrium, atrii (n): chamber, room
atrox, atrocis: fierce
auctor, auctoris (m): author
auctoramentum, auctoramenti (n): oath
audeo, audere, ausus sum (+ Infinitive): to dare
audio, audire, audivi, auditus: to hear
augeo, augere, auxi, auctus: to increase
Augustus, Augusta, Augustum: August
auratus, aurata, auratum: golden
aureus, aurea, aureum: golden
auriga, aurigae (m): charioteer
aut: or

aut . . . aut: either . . . or
autem: however
autumnus, autumni (m): fall, autumn
auxilium, auxilii (n): help
auxilia, auxiliorum (n.pl): auxiliary forces
aveo, avere: to hail, be well
avia, aviae (f): grandmother
avis, avis (f): bird
avunculus, avunculi (m): maternal uncle
avus, avi (m): grandfather

B

Bacchus, Bacchi (m): Bacchus
barbarus, barbari (m): foreigner
basilica, basilicae (f): court
basium, basii (n) a kiss
Belgae, Belgarum (m/f pl.) the Belgae, a warlike people of the Gallic and Celtic race, who inhabited the northern part of Gaul.
bellum, belli (n): war
bene: well
bestiarius, bestiarii (m): bestiarius, beast fighter
beta, betae (f): beet
bibliotheca, bibliothecae (f): library
bibo, bibere, bibi, bibitus: to drink
bis: twice
bonus, bona, bonum: good
Britannia, Britanniae (f): Britain
Brundisium, Brundisii (n): Brundisium/Brindisi

C

cado, cadere, cecidi, casus: to fall
Caecubum, Caecubi (n): wine from the Caecuban region

caedes, caedis (f): slaughter, murder
caedo, caedere, cecidi, caesus: to kill
caelum, caeli (n): heaven, sky
caepa, caepae (f): onion
calamitas, calamitatis (f): loss, disaster, trouble
caldarium, caldarii (n): hot room
calidus, calida, calidum: hot
caligae, caligarum (f. pl.): boots
calo, calonis (m): aide-de-camp
callidus, callida, callidum: clever, shrewd
camera, camerae (f): room
candidus, candida, candidum: bright, shining
canis, canis (m/f): dog
cano, canere, cecini, cantus: to sing
canto, cantare, cantavi, cantatus: to sing
capio, capere, cepi, captus: to take
captivus, captivi (m): prisoner
Capua, Capuae (f) Capua, a large city of Campania
caput, capitis (n): head
carcer, carceris (m): prison
caries, cariei (f): decay (of a bone or tooth)
carmen, carminis (n): song, poem
caro, carnis (f): meat, flesh
carpo, carpere, carpsi, carptus: to seize
Carthago, Carthaginis (f): Carthage
casa, casae (f): house
caseus, casei (m): cheese
casus, casus (m): chance
castra, castrorum (n.pl.): camp
casus, casus (m): disaster, mishap
caveo, cavere, cavi, cautus: to beware
celer, celeris, celere: fast, quick
celeriter: quickly
cena, cenae (f): dinner, meal

ceno, cenare, cenavi, cenatus: to dine
censeo, censere, censui, census: to vote, judge
ensor, censoris (m): censor
centum: hundred
centuria, centuriae (f): century
centurio, centurionis (m): centurion
cerasus, cerasi (m): cherry
cerebrum, cerebri (n): brain
certe: certainly
cervix, cervicis (f): neck
ceteri, ceterae, cetera: the others, the rest
cibus, cibi (m): food
cicer, cicris (n): chickpea
circenses, circensium (m. pl.): games in the circus
circus, circi (m): circle, race course
civis, civis (m/f): citizen
clamo, clamare, clamavi, clamatus: to shout
claudo, claudere, clausi, clausus: to close
cliens, clientis (m) client
cocleare, coclearis (n): spoon
cogito, cogitare, cogitavi, cogitatus: to think
cognomen, cognominis (n): extra name, nickname
colo, colere, colui, cultus: to till, inhabit, worship
colossus, colossi (m): large statue
comes, comitis (m/f): companion
comissatio, comissationis (f): drinking party
comoedia, comoediae (f): comedy
compluvium, compluvii (n): rectangular roof opening to admit rain and light
compos, compotis: in possession of

concido, concidere, concidi: to fall down, perish, fail
concilium, concilii (n) a council
condo, condere, condidi, conditus: to establish, found
conficio, conficere, confeci, confectus: to complete
confusio, confusionis (f): confusion
cohors, cohortis (f): cohort
coniungo, coniungere, coniunxi, coniunctus: to join together
coniunx, coniugis (m/f): spouse, wife
consanguineus, consanguinei (m/f): relative
conservo, conservare, conservavi, conservatus: to preserve
consilium, consilii (n) advice, plan, counsel
constituo, constituere, constitui, constitutus: to establish
consul, consulis (m): consul
consulatus, consulatus (m): consulship
consulo, consulere, consului, consultus: to consult
contendo, contendere, contendi, contentus: to hasten, contend
convoco, convocare, convocavi, convocatus: to call together
copia, copiae (f): supply
copiosus, copiosa, copiosum: plentiful
coquus, coqui (m): cook
cor, cordis (n): heart
Corinthus, Corinthi (f): Corinth
cornicen, cornicinis (m): horn blower
cornu, cornus (n): horn
corpus, corporis (n): body
cothurnus, cothurni (m): high boot
cotidie: every day
cotidianus, cotidiana, cotidianum: daily

coturnix, coturnicis (f): quail
cras: tomorrow
cratera, craterae (f): bowl
credo, credere, credidi, creditus
 (+ dative case): to believe
crimen, criminis (n): accusation
crudelis, crudele: cruel
cubiculum, cubiculi (n): bedroom
culina, culinae (f): kitchen
cultellus, cultelli (m): knife
cum (+ ablative case): with
cuniculus, cuniculi (m): rabbit
cupio, cupere, cupivi, cupitus: to wish, desire
cur: why
cura, curae (f): concern, worry, care
curia, curiae (f): senate house
curo, curare, curavi, curatus: to care, look after
curro, currere, cucurri, cursus: to run
cursus, cursus (m): course
custos, custodis (m/f): guard, guardian, jailer

D

Danai, Danaorum (m. pl.): Danaans
de (+ ablative case): down (from), about
dea, deae (f): goddess
debello, debellare, debellavi, debellatus: to vanquish, subdue
debeo, debere, debui, debitus: to owe, must
decem: ten
December, Decembris: December
decimatio, decimationis (f): decimation
decimus, decima, decimum: tenth
decuria, decuriae (f): cavalry unit

deduction, deductionis (f): wedding procession
defendo, defendere, defendi, defensus: to defend
deinde: then
deliciae, deliciarum (f.pl) delight, darling
delictum, delicti (n): crime
denarius, denarii (m): denarius (unit of money)
dens, dentis (m): tooth
depono, deponere, deposui, depositus: to put aside
deus, dei (m): god
dexter, dextra, dextrum: right
dico, dicere, dixi, dictus: to speak
dies, diei (m/f): day
difficilis, difficile: difficult
difficultas, difficultatis (f): difficulty
dignitas, dignitatis (f): worthiness
diligenter: carefully, hard
discedo, discedere, discessi, discessurus: to leave, depart
discipulus, discipuli (m): student
disco, discere, didici: to learn
diu: for a long time
divido, dividere, divisi, divisus: to divide
do, dare, dedi, datus: to give
doceo, docere, docui, doctus: to teach
dolosus, dolosa, dolosum: tricky
domi: at home
domina, dominae (f): mistress
dominus, domini (m): master
domus, domus (f): house, home
dono, donare, donavi, donatus: to give
donum, doni (n): gift
dormio, dormire, dormivi, dormitus: to sleep
dos, dotis (f): dowry

dubito, dubitare, dubitavi, dubitatus:
to doubt

dubium, dubii (n): doubt

duco, ducere, duxi, ductus: to lead,
bring

dum: while

dummodo: provided that

duo, duae, duo: two

duodeviginti: eighteen

durus, dura, durum: hard, harsh

dux, ducis (m): military general,
leader

E

e/ex (+ ablative case): out of, from

edo, edere, edidi, editus: to give forth,
publish

edo, esse, edi, esus: to eat

egestas, egestatis (f): poverty

eheu: alas! oh no!

emboliarius, emboliarum (m): one who
performs between acts

emo, emere, emi, emptus: to buy

emptor, emptoris (m): buyer

emptus, empta, emptum: bought,
purchased

enim: for

eo, ire, ivi/ii, itus: to go

epithalamium, epithalamii (n):
wedding song

epula, epulae (f): banquet

eques, equitis (m): horse soldier,
cavalryman

equus, equi (m): horse

erro, errare, erravi, erratus: to make a
mistake, wander

error, erroris (m): mistake

ergo: therefore

et: and, even, also

et . . . et: both . . . and

etiam: even, also

excito, excitare, excitavi, excitatus: to
wake up, arouse (someone else)

exerceo, exercere, exercui, exercitus:
to train

exercitus, exercitus (m): army

exigo, exigere, exegi, exactus: to drive
out, finish

exordium, exordii (n): introduction,
beginning

expello, expellere, expuli, expulsus: to
drive out

explorator, exploratoris (m): scout

**exspecto, exspectare, exspectavi,
exspectatus:** to wait for

F

faber, fabri (m): engineer

fabula, fabulae (f): story

facies, faciei (f): look, expression

facilis, facile: easy

facilitas, facilitatis (f): ease

facio, facere, feci, factus: to make

factio, factionis (f): faction, racing
team

factum, facti (n): deed

Falernum, Falerni (n): wine from the
Falernian region

Falernus ager: the Falernian
countryside (in Campania)

fama, fama (f): fame, reputation

familia, familiae (f): family,
household

familiaris, familiare: belong to a
family

far, farris (n): wheat

farina, farinae (f): ground wheat

fas (indeclinable neuter noun): divine
law

fasti, fastorum (m. pl.): calendar
Februarius, Februaria, Februarium:
 February
februum, februi (n): purification rite
feles, felis (m/f): cat
felix, felicitas: blessed, happy
femina, feminae (f): woman
fera, ferae (f): wild animal
ferculum, ferculi (n): dinner tray
feriae, feriarum (f.pl.): holiday
ferina, ferinae (f): venison
fero, ferre, tuli, latus: to carry, bear
fessus, fessa, fessum: tired
festino, festinare, festinavi,
festinatus: to hurry
figus, fici (m): fig
fides, fidei (f): faith, loyalty, trust
filia, filiae (f): daughter
filius, filii (m): son
fio, fieri, factus sum: to become,
 happen
flagro, flagrare, flagravi, flagratus: to
 be on fire
flamma, flammae (f): flame
flammeum, flammei (n): flame-
 colored wedding veil
fleo, flere, flevi, fletus: to weep
flumen, fluminis (n): river
focus, foci (m): hearth
for, fari, fatus sum: to speak
forma, formae (f): beauty, shape
fortasse: perhaps
fortis, forte: brave, strong
fortiter: bravely
fortunatus, fortunata, fortunatum:
 fortunate
forum, fori (n): forum
frater, fratris (m): brother
frigidarium, frigidarii (n): cold room

frigidus, frigida, frigidum: cold
frumentum, frumenti (n): grain
fructus, fructus (m): fruit
fugio, fugere, fugi, fugitus: to flee
fugo, fugare, fugavi, fugatus: to chase
 after
fulvus, fulva, fulvum: tawny, yellow
fumus, fumi (m): smoke
funditor, funditoris (m): slinger
fundus, fundi (m): farm
fur, furis (m): thief
furcifer, furciferi (m): jailbird,
 scoundrel
furcilla, furcillae (f): fork
furunculus, furunculi (m): sneak
 thief, cheap crook

G

Gades, Gadis (f): Cadiz
galea, galeae (f): helmet
Gallia, Galliae (f): Gaul
garum, gari (n): garum, fermented
 fish sauce
Garumna, Garumnae (f): a river in
 Gaul, now the Garonne
gaudium, gaudii (n): joy
geminus, gemini (m): twin
genius, genii (m): guardian spirit of a
 male
gens, gentis (f): race, kind, class
Germania, Germaniae (f): Germany
Germanus, Germana, Germanum:
 German
gero, gerere, gessi, gestus: to wear,
 wage, carry on
gladiator, gladiatoris (m/f): gladiator
gladiatorius, gladiatoria,
gladiatorium: gladiatorial
gladius, gladii (m): sword

glis, gliris (m): dormouse
gloria, gloriae (f): glory
Graecia, Graeciae (f): Greece
Graecus, Graeca, Graecum: Greek
gratia, gratiae (f): gratitude, favor, for the sake of (when used in the ablative case and followed by a genitive)
gratiae, gratiarum (f.pl.): thanks
gratias ago, agere, egi, actus: to give thanks
gratus, grata, gratum: pleasing
gravitas, gravitatis (f): weight, seriousness
grus, gruis (m/f): crane
guberno, gubernare, gubernavi, gubernatus: to govern, steer, pilot
gustatio, gustationis (f): appetizer
gusto, gustare, gustavi, gustatus: to taste

H

habeo, habere, habui, habitus: to have
habito, habitare, habitavi, habitatus: to live
harena, harenae (f): sand
hasta, hastae (f): javelin
Helvetia, Helvetiae (f): Switzerland
heri: yesterday
hic: here
hic, haec, hoc: this one, the latter
hiems, hiemis (f): winter
Hispania, Hispaniae (f): Spain
hodie: today
holus, holeris (n): vegetable
homo, hominis (m/f): man, a human being
honor (honos), honoris (m): honor

honoro, honorare, honoravi, honoratus: to honor
hora, horae (f): hour
hordeum, hordei (n): barley
hortus, horti (m): garden
hospes, hospitis (m): guest-friend
hospitium, hospitii (n): hospitality
hostis, hostis (m/f): public enemy
humanus, humana, humanum: human
humilis, humile: low, base, humble
humilitas, humilitatis (f): lowness

I = I

ibi: there
idem, eadem, idem: same
Idus, Idus (f): Ides, the thirteenth or fifteenth day of the month
igitur: therefore
ille, illa, illud: that one, the former, he, she, it, they
illic: to there, there
imago, imaginis (f): wax mask, image
imitor, imitari, imitatus sum: to imitate
imperator, imperatoris (m): general after his first victory
imperium, imperii (n): power
impleo, implere, implevi, impletus: to fill
imploro, implorare, imploravi, imploratus: to plead
impluvium, impluvii (n): pool to collect rainwater
impono, imponere, imposui, impositus: to impose, put on
imus, ima, imum: lowest
in (+ ablative case): in, on
in (+ accusative case): into

in animo habere: to have in mind, intend
inaures, inaurium (f. pl.): earrings
incipio, incipere, incepti, inceptus: to begin
incognitus, incognita, incognitum: unknown
incolo, incolere, incolui, incultus: to inhabit
indecens, indecentis: unseemly, nasty
infans, infantis (m/f): baby
infelix, infelicis: unlucky, cursed
inferior, inferius: lower
inferus, infera, inferum: low
infiniteus, infinita, infinitum: boundless
infirmus, infirma, infirmum: weak
inflo, inflare, inflavi, inflatus: to blow into, to sound (a musical instrument)
ingens, ingentis: big, large, huge
inicio, inicere, inieci, iniectus: to throw into
initium, initii (n): beginning
innocens, innocentis: not guilty
innumerabilis, innumerabile: countless
inreparabilis, inreparabile: unrecoverable
institutum, instituti (n): custom
insula, insulae (f): island
insulto, insultare, insultavi, insultatus: to taunt, insult
inter (+accusative case): among, between
interea: meanwhile
interfector, interfectoris (m/f): an assassin
interficio, interficere, interfeci, interfectus: to kill
interim: meanwhile

intra (+ accusative case): within
intro, intrare, intravi, intratus: to enter
invenio, invenire, inveni, inventus: to find
invito, invitare, invitavi, invitatus: to invite
invitus, invita, invitum: unwilling, by force
ipse, ipsa, ipsum: himself, herself, itself
ira, irae (f): anger
is, ea, id: this, that, these, those, he, she, it, they
ita: so
itaque: and so, therefore
iter, itineris (n): journey
iterum: again

I=J

iaceo, iacere, iacui, iacitus: to lie down
iacio, iacere, ieci, iactus: to throw
iam: now, already
ianitor, ianitoris (m): doorkeeper
ianua, ianuae (f): door
Ianuarus, Ianuaria, Ianuarium: January
Ianus, Iani (m): Janus, god of doors
ientaculum, ientaculi (n): breakfast
iocosus, iocosa, iocosum: humorous
iocus, ioci (m): joke
iubeo, iubere, iussi, iussus: to order
iudex, iudicis (m): a judge
iudicium, iudicii (n): verdict
Iulius, Iulia, Iulium: July
Iunius, Iunia, Iunium: June
iuno, iunonis (f): guardian spirit of a female

ius, iuris (n): law
iussum, iussi (n): order
iuste: justly
iuvenis, iuvenis (m/f): young man
iuvo, iuvare, iuvi, iutus: to help

K

Kalendae, Kalendarum (f.pl.): the Kalends, 1st day of the month
Karthago, Karthaginis (f): Carthage

L

labor, laboris (m): work
laboro, laborare, laboravi, laboratus: to work
lac, lactis (n): milk
lanista, lanistae (m): gladiator trainer
lar, laris (m): household god
lararium, lararii (n): place of worship in a house
laudo, laudare, laudavi, laudatus: to praise
lavo, lavare, lavavi, lavatus/lautus/lotus: to wash
legatus, legati (m): commander of a legion, ambassador
legio, legionis (f): legion
legitimus, legitima, legitimum: lawful
lego, legere, legi, lectus: to read
lente: slowly
leo, leonis (m): lion
lex, legis (f): law
libellus, libelli (m): little book, pamphlet
liber, libera, liberum: free
libero, liberare, liberavi, liberatus: to set free, liberate
liber, libri (m): book

libet, libere, libuit, libitum est: it pleases
librarius, librarii (m): bookseller
lingua, linguae (f): tongue
linteum, lintei (n): napkin
lis, litis (f): lawsuit
litigator, litigatoris (m): party in a lawsuit
litterae, litterarum (f.pl.): literature, a letter
litus, litoris (n): shore
locus, loci (m): place
Londinium, Londinii (n): London
longus, longa, longum: long
loquor, loqui, locutus sum: to speak, talk
lorica, loricae (f): breast armor
luctor, luctari, luctatus sum: to wrestle
ludus, ludi (m): game, play, school
lugeo, lugere, luxi, luctus: to mourn
lumen, luminis (n): light
Lupercal, Lupercalis (n): Lupercalia, festival for Faunus/Pan
lutum, luti (n): mud
lux, lucis (f): light

M

magis: more, to a greater extent
magister, magistri (m): teacher
magistratus, magistratus (m): magistrate
magnus, magna, magnum: big, large
maior, maius: bigger
Maius, Maia, Maium: May
male: badly, poorly
malo, malle, malui: to prefer
malum, mali (n): apple

malum, mali (n) an evil, misfortune, calamity
malum Persicum, malum Persici (n): peach (literally: Persian apple)
malus, mala, malum: bad, evil
manipulus, manipuli (m): maniple
mantica, manticae (f): knapsack
manus, manus (f): hand, band
mare, maris (n): sea
maritus, mariti (m): husband
Martius, Martia, Martium: related to Mars, March
Massilia, Massiliae (f): Marseille
mater, matris (f): mother
matertera, materterae (f): maternal aunt
Matrona, Matronae (f): a river in Gaul, now the Marne
maximus, maxima, maximum: biggest, greatest, chief
Megalesia, Megalesium (n. pl.): festival for Cybele
mel, mellis (n): honey
melior, melius: better
memini, meminisse (+ genitive case): to remember
memoro, memorare, memoravi, memoratus: to call to mind, mention
mendax, mendacis: lying
mens, mentis (f): mind
mensa, mensae (f): table
mensis, mensis (m): month
mercator, mercatoris (m): trader, merchant
mereo, merere, merui, meritus: to earn
metamorphosis, metamorphosis (f): transformation
meus, mea, meum: my
miles, militis (m): soldier

mille, milia: thousand
mimus, mimi (m): mime
minime: not at all, no
minimus, minima, minimum: smallest
minor, minus: smaller, fewer, lesser
misceo, miscere, miscui, mixtus: to mix, stir up
miser, misera, miserum: sad, miserable
misereor, misereri, miseritus sum (+ genitive case): to pity
mitto, mittere, misi, missus: to send
modus, modi (m): method
mola, molae (f): sacrificial grain
moles, molis (f): mass, task
moneo, monere, monui, monitus: to warn, advise
mons, montis (m): mountain
monumentum, monumenti (n): monument, **morior, mori, mortuus sum**: to die
moror, morari, moratus sum: to delay
mors, mortis (f): death
mortuus, mortua, mortuum: dead
morum, mori (n): mulberry
mos, moris (m): custom, habit
mox: soon
mulio, mulionis (m): mule driver
mullus, mulli (m): mullet
mulsum, mulsi (n): wine mixed with honey
multus, multa, multum: much, many
murmillio, murmillonis (m): murmillio, heavily armored gladiator
murus, muri (m): wall
mustum, musti (n): young/unfermented wine
muto, mutare, mutavi, mutatus: to change

N

nam: for
narratio, narrationis (f): narrative, story
narro, narrare, narravi, narratus: to tell
nascor, nasci, natus sum: to be born
nasus, nasi (m): nose
natura, naturae (f): nature
naumachia, naumachiae (f): sea battle
nauta, nautae (m): sailor
navigo, navigare, navigavi, navigatus: to sail
navis, navis (f): ship
-ne: enclitic indicating a question
nec/neque: and not, nor
neco, necare, necavi, necatus: to kill
nemo, neminis (m/f): nobody
nepos, nepotis (m): grandson
neptis, neptis (f): granddaughter
nescio, nescire, nescivi, nescitus: not to know
nidus, nidi (m): nest
niger, nigra, nigrum: black, dark
nimis: too much
nisi: if not, unless
niveus, nivea, niveum: (snow) white
nocens, nocentis: guilty
nolo, nolle, nolui: not to want
nomen, nominis (n): name, family name
non: not
Nonae, Nonarum (f. pl.): Nones, the fifth or seventh day of the month
nonaginta: ninety
Nonne: (introduces a question expecting a positive answer)
 Surely
nonus, nona, nonum: ninth

noster, nostra, nostrum: our
notus, nota, notum: known
nova nupta, novae nuptae (f): bride
novem: nine
November, Novembris: November
novus, nova, novum: new
novus maritus, novi mariti (m): groom
nox, noctis (f): night
num (conjunction): whether
Num: (introduces a question expressing a negative answer)
 Surely not
numquam: never
nunc: now
nuntio, nuntiare, nuntiavi, nuntiatu: to announce
nuntium, nuntii (n): message
nuntius, nuntii (m): messenger
nuper: recently, until recently

O

obdormio, obdormire, obdormivi, obdormitus: to fall asleep
obfero, obferre, obtuli, oblatus: to offer
obicio, obicere, obieci, obiectus: to throw oneself in the way of
obiter: in passing
obliviscor, oblivisci, oblitus sum (+ genitive): to forget
obtineo, obtinere, obtinui, obentus: to obtain
occido, occidere, occidi, occasum: to set, go down
octaginta: eighty
octavus, octava, octavum: eighth
octo: eight
October, Octobris: October

oculus, oculi (m): eye
odi, odisse: I hate
officium, officii (n): duty, office, position
olim: one day
omnis, omne: each, all
onus, oneris (n): burden
opero, operare, operavi, operatus: to work
opes, opum (f.pl): wealth, riches
oppugno, oppugnare, oppugnavi, oppugnatus: to attack
optimus, optima, optimum: best
orator, oratoris (m): orator
orbis, orbis (m): sphere, earth
oro, orare, oravi, oratus: to pray
os, oris (n): mouth
os, ossis (n): bone
ostrea, ostreae (f): oyster
ovum, ovi (n): egg

P

paene: almost
palaestra, palaestrae (f): exercise ground
palmula, palmulae (f): date
panis, panis (m): bread
par, paris: equal
parco, parcere, peperci, parsus: to spare
pareo, parere, parui, paritus: to obey
parens, parentis (m/f): parent
Parentalia, Parentalium (n. pl.): festival for deceased ancestors
paro, parare, paravi, paratus: to prepare
passer, passeris (m/f): sparrow
palma, palmae (f): palm wreath
pars, partis (f): part

parvus, parva, parvum: small
passus, passus (m): step
Patavium, Patavii (n): Padua
patella, patellae (f): plate
pater, patris (m): father
paterfamilias, paterfamiliae (m): head of the family
patior, pati, passus: to suffer, endure, allow
patria, patriae (f): country, fatherland
patronus, patroni (m): patron, advocate, defender
patruelis, patruelis (m): paternal cousin
patruus, patrui (m): paternal uncle
pauci, paucae, pauca: few
paupertas, paupertatis (f): poverty
pavo, pavonis (f): peacock
pax, pacis (f): peace
pecunia, pecuniae (f): money
pedes, peditis (m): foot soldier, infantryman
peior, peius: worse
penas, penatis (m): household god (especially of the pantry)
pendeo, pendere, pependi: to hang
per (+ accusative case): through, by
perdix, perdicis (m/f): partridge
perdo, perdere, perdidi, perditus: to destroy, ruin
peristylum, peristylia (n): columned courtyard
perennis, perenne: continual, everlasting
pernocto, pernoctare, pernoctavi, pernoctatus: to spend the night
peroratio, perorationis (f): end of a speech
persona, personae (f): person, dramatic mask
pes, pedis (m): foot

pessimus, pessimal, pessimum: worst
petasus, petasi (m): hat
peto, petere, petivi, petitus: seek, ask,
head for, attack
phaselus, phaseli (m): bean
phasiana, phasianae (f): pheasant
pietas, pietatis (f): loyalty
pilum, pili (n): spear
pingo, pingere, pinxi, pictus: to paint
pinguis, pinguis: fat, rich
pirum, piri (n): pear
piscis, piscis (m): fish
pistor, pistoris (m): baker
placenta, placentae (f): cake
placeo, placere, placui, placitus
(+ dative case): to please
plenus, plena, plenum: full, filled
with
plurimus, plurima, plurimum: most
plus: more, more than
poculum, poculi (n): cup
poena, poenae (f): punishment,
penalty
poeta, poetae (m): poet
pollex, pollicis (m): thumb
pono, ponere, posui, positus: to put,
place
pons, pontis (m): bridge
pontifex, pontificis (m): pontiff (the
highest-ranking priest in Rome)
populus, populi (m): people
porcina, porcinae (f): pork
porcus, porci (m): pig
porta, portae (f): gate
porto, portare, portavi, portatus:
to carry
portus, portus (m): harbor
possum, posse, potui: to be able
post (+ accusative case): after
postquam: after

potens, potentis: powerful
praenomen, praenomnis (n): first
name
praesens, praesentis: being present
praesertim: especially
prasinus, prasina, prasinum: green
praetereo, praeterire, praeterii
(**praeterivi**), **praeteritus:** to pass
over
praetor, praetoris (m): praetor, judge
prandium, prandii (n): lunch
pridie: the day before
primus, prima, primum: first
princeps, principis (m): first citizen
pro (+ ablative case): for, on behalf of
probo, probare, probavi, probatus: to
approve, make good
proelium, proelii (n): battle
prohibeo, prohibere, prohibui,
prohibitus: to prevent, prohibit,
stop
propago, propagare, propagavi,
propagatus: to spread, extend
prope (+ accusative case): near
propinquus, propinqua, propinquum:
bordering
prorogo, prorogare, prorogavi,
prorogatus: to postpone
proximus, proxima, proximum:
closest
publicus, publica, publicum: public
puella, puellae (f): girl
puer, pueri (m): boy
pugil, pugilis (m): boxer
pugio, pugionis (m): dagger
pugno, pugnare, pugnavi, pugnatus:
to fight
pulcher, pulchra, pulchrum:
handsome, pretty
pulchritudo, pulchritudinis (f): beauty
pullus, pulli (m): chicken

puls, pultis (f): wheat porridge
pulso, pulsare, pulsavi, pulsatus: to hit, strike
punctum, puncti (n): point
purpureus, purpurea, purpureum: purple, dark red
Puteoli, Puteolorum (m. pl.): Pozzuoli
puto, putare, putavi, putatus: to think

Q

quadraginta: forty
quadrans, quadrantis (m): fourth part, small coin
quadrantarius, quadrantaria, quadrantarium: related to a fourth
quaero, quaere, quaesivi, quaesitus: to ask, seek
quaestio, quaestionis (f): questioning, trial
quaestor, quaestoris (m): quaestor, financial officer
quam: than
quam celerrime: as quickly as possible
quando: when
quantum (+ genitive case): as much as
quare: why
quartus, quarta, quartum: fourth
quattuor: four
-que: and
qui, quae, quod: who, which, that
quia: because
quid: what
quidam, quaedam, quoddam: a certain
quidquid: whatever
quidem: indeed
Quinctilis, Quinctile: fifth month
quinquaginta: fifty
quinque: five
quintus, quinta, quintum: fifth

quis: who
quo: where, to where
quod: because
quomodo: how
quoque: also, too
quot: how many, how much?

R

radio, radiare, radiavi, radiatus: to emit, shine
radix, radices (f): radish
ramus, rami (m): branch
ratio, rationis (f): reason
recito, recitare, recitavi, recitatus: to recite, read aloud
reddo, reddere, reddidi, redditus: to give back, return
redeo, redire, redii(ivi), reditus: to go back, return
redemptio, redemptionis (f): redemption
reduco, reducere, reduxi, reductus: to lead back
refero, referre, rettuli, relatus: to carry back, report
regina, reginae (f): queen
regnum, regni (n): kingdom
rego, regere, rexi, rectus: to rule
relinquo, relinquere, reliqui, relictus: to leave behind
remedium, remedii (n): cure
repudium, repudii (n): divorce
requiro, requirere, requisivi, requisitus: to ask
res, rei (f): thing, matter
res publica, rei publicae (f): republic
respondeo, respondere, respondi, responsus: to answer
retiarius, retiarii (m): retiarius, gladiator using a net and trident

reus, rei (m): defendant
revenio, revenire, reveni, reventus: to return
reverentia, reverentiae (f): respect, reverence
revertor, reverti, reversus sum: to turn back
rex, regis (m): king
rideo, ridere, ridi, risus: to laugh, laugh at
rogo, rogare, rogavi, rogatus: to ask
Roma, Romae (f): Rome
Romanus, Romana, Romanum: Roman
rudis, rude: undeveloped, rough
rus, ruris (n): countryside
russus, russa, russum: red

S

sacerdos, sacerdotis (m/f): priest, priestess
sacculus, sacculi (m): sack, pouch
saeculum, saeculi (n): age, generation
saepe: often
sagittarius, sagittarii (m): archer
sal, salis (m): salt
salax, salacis: salacious
salio, salire, salui, saltus: to dance
salus, salutis (f): safety, welfare, greeting
saluto, salutare, salutavi, salutatus: to greet
salve/salvete: hello
salveo, salvere: to be well
Samnis, Samnitis (m): Samnite, heavily armored gladiator
sapiens, sapientis: wise
sapientia, sapientiae (f): wisdom
Saturnalia, Saturnalium (n. pl.): festival for Saturn

saxum, saxi (n): rock
scaenicus, scaenica, scaenicum: theatrical
scio, scire, scivi, scitus: to know
scriba, scribae (m): clerk
scribo, scribere, scripsi, scriptus: to write
sciurus, sciuri (m): squirrel
scutum, scuti (n): shield
secundum (+ accusative case): according to
secundus, secunda, secundum: second
sed: but
sedeo, sedere, sedi, sessus: to sit
sedecim: sixteen
seges, segis (f): field
semel: once
semper: always
senator, senatoris (m): senator
senex, senis (m): old man
senior, senioris: older
sententia, sententiae (f): sentence, opinion
sepelio, sepelire, sepilivi, sepultus: to bury
septuaginta: seventy
septem: seven
September, Septembris: September
septimus, septima, septimum: seventh
Sequana, Sequanae (f): the river Seine
sermo, sermonis (m): conversation
sero, serere, sevi, satus: to plant
serus, sera, serum: late
servio, servire, servii, servitus (+ dative case): to serve
servo, servare, servavi, servatus: to save, protect
servus, servi (m): slave
severus, severa, severum: strict, severe

sextilis, sextile: sixth month
Setinum, Setini (n): wine from Setia
sex: six
sexaginta: sixty
sextus, sexta, sextum: sixth
si: if
sic: thus, so, in this way, yes
sicut: just as
signifer, signiferi (m): standard bearer of a manipule
signum, signi (n): sign
silva, silvae (f): forest, woods
sine (+ ablative case): without
sinister, sinistra, sinistrum: left
situs, situs (m): place, position
soccus, socci (m): low-cut shoe
sol, solis (m): the sun
solus, sola, solum: alone
solvere, solvere, solvi, solutus: to loosen, free
sonorus, sonora, sonorum: loud, resounding
soror, sororis (f): sister
spargo, spargere, sparsi, sparsus: to sprinkle, splatter
Spartanus, Spartana, Spartanum: Spartan
specto, spectare, spectavi, spectatus: to watch
spectator, spectatoris (m/f): spectator
speculator, speculatoris (m): spy
spina, spinae (f): thorn, spine
sponsalia, sponsalium (n. pl.): engagement
statim: at once, immediately
statua, statuae (f): statue
status, status (m): position, rank
sto, stare, steti, status: to stand
stomachus, stomachi (m): stomach
studium, studii (n): eagerness, interest

stultitia, stultitiae (f): stupidity
sub (+ ablative case): under
sub (+ accusative case): upwards, up to
sublicius, sublicia, sublicium: resting on piles
subicio, subicere, subieci, subiectus: to subdue, vanquish
subito: suddenly
sum, esse, fui, futurus: to be
summus, summa, summum: highest
superbus, superba, superbum: proud, arrogant
superior, superius: higher
superus, supera, superum: high
Syracusa, Syracusae (f): Syracuse

T

taberna, tabernae (f): inn
tabula, tabulae (f): tablet
taceo, tacere, tacui, tacitus: to be silent
tacitus, tacita, tacitum: quiet, silent
talis, tale: such
tam: so
tamen: however, nevertheless
tandem: at length, at last
tantum: only
tantus, tanta, tantum: so great, so large
tardus, tarda, tardum: slow, late
telum, teli (n): weapon
tempestas, tempestatis (f): storm
templum, templi (n): temple
tempus, temporis (n): time
tenebrae, tenebrarum (f.pl.): shadows, darkness
teneo, tenere, tenui, tentus: to hold
tepidarium, tepidarii (n): warm room

ter: three times
tergum, tergi (n): back
terra, terrae (f): land
terrītus, territa, territum: terrified
tertius, tertia, tertium: third
testis, testis (m): witness
testudo, testudinis (m): tortoise, tortoise shell
Thapsus, Thapsi (m): Thapsus
theatrum, theatri (n): theatre
thermae, thermarum (f. pl.): baths
thermopolium, thermopolii (n): hot food stand
Thrax, Thracis (m): Thracian, gladiator with small shield
timeo, timere, timui: to fear
tollo, tollere, sustuli, sublatus: to lift, raise
torus, tori (m): bed
tot: so many
totus, tota, totum: whole
trado, tradere, tradidi, traditus: to hand over
traho, trahere, traxi, tractus: to drag
trans (+ accusative case): across
tres, tria: three
triarius, triarii (m): third line
tribunal, tribunalis (n): judge's bench
tribunus, tribuni (m): tribune
triclinium, triclinii (n): dining room
triginta: thirty
triplex, triplicis: triple
Troia, Troiae (f): Troy
tum: then
tunc: then
tunica, tunicae (f): tunic
turma, turmae (f): squadron
tuus, tua, tuum: your

U

ubi: where/when
ubicumque: wherever
ultimus, ultima, ultimum: last
ultra (+ accusative case): beyond
umbra, umbrae (f): shadow, shade, ghost
umquam: ever
undeviginti: nineteen
unus, una, unum: one
urbanus, urbana, urbanum: related to the city
urbs, urbis (f): city
urna, urnae (f): water jar
ut: so that, that, in order to, as, when
utensilis, utensile: useful
uva, uvae (f): grape
uxor, uxoris (f): wife

V

vacuus, vacua, vacuum: empty, barren
vale/valete: goodbye
valeo, valere, valui, valitus: to be well
varius, varia, varium: varied
velut: like
vena, venae (f): vein
venatio, venationis (f): hunt
vendo, vendere, vendidi, venditus: to sell
venetus, veneta, venetum: blue
venio, venire, veni, ventus: to come
ventus, venti (m): wind
venustus, venusta, venustum: charming
ver, veris (n): spring
verbum, verbi (n): word
vere: truly

vero: indeed
veritas, veritatis (f): the truth
verto, vertere, verti, versus: to turn around
verus, vera, verum: true
verum: but
Vestalia, Vestalium (n. pl.): festival for Vesta
veto, vetare, vetui, vetitus: to veto
vetus, veteris: old
vexo, vexare, vexavi, vexatus: to annoy
via, viae (f): road, way
vicesimus, vicesima, vicesimum: twentieth
victoria, victoriae (f): victory
video, videre, vidi, visus: to see
vigil, vigilis (m): watchman, guard, sentry
vigilia, vigiliae (f): night watch

villa, villae (f): house, farmhouse
vinco, vincere, vici, victus: to conquer
vinum, vini (n): wine
vir, viri (m): man, husband, hero
vires, virium (f.pl): strength
vis (f): force, strength, power
visito, visitare, visitavi, visitatus: to visit
vispillo, vispillonis (m): an undertaker
vitulina, vitulinae (f): veal
vivo, vivere, vixi, victus: to live
vix: scarcely
voco, vocare, vocavi, vocatus: to call
volo, velle, volui: to want
volo, volare, volavi, volatus: to fly
voluntas, voluntatis (f): will, permission
vox, vocis (f): voice

English-Latin Mini-Dictionary

A

about: **de** (+ ablative case)
according to: **secundum** (+ accusative case)
accusation: **crimen, criminis** (n)
after: **post** (+ accusative case)
again: **iterum**
age: **aetas, aetatis** (f)
all: **omnis, omne**
alone: **solus, sola, solum**
already: **iam**
also: **et, etiam**
always: **semper**
among: **inter** (+ accusative case)
and not: **nec/neque**
and so: **itaque**
and: **et**
anger: **ira, irae** (f)
animal: **animal, animalis** (n)
another: **alius, alia, aliud**
approve (to): **probo, probare, probavi, probatus**
arms (weapons): **arma, armorum** (n.pl.)
arrive (to): **advenio, advenire, adveni, adventus**
art: **ars, artis** (f)
ask (to): **peto, petere, petivi, petitus, quaero, quaere, quaesivi, quaesitus, requiro, requirere, requisivi,**

requisitus, rogo, rogare, rogavi, rogatus

at home: **domi**
at last: **tandem**
at length: **tandem**
at once: **statim**
attack (to): **oppugno, oppugnare, oppugnavi, oppugnatus, peto, petere, petivi, petitus**
aunt (paternal): **amita, amitae** (f)
autumn: **autumnus, autumni** (m)

B

baby: **infans, infantis** (m/f)
bad: **malus, mala, malum**
battle: **proelium, proelii** (n)
be able (to): **possum, posse, potui**
be on fire (to): **flagro, flagrare, flagravi, flagratus**
be silent (to): **taceo, tacere, tacui, tacitus**
bear (to): **fero, ferre, tuli, latus**
beauty: **forma, formae** (f), **pulchritudo, pulchritudinis** (f)
because: **quod**
become (to): **fio, fieri, factus sum**
before: **ante** (+ accusative case)
beginning: **initium, initii** (n)
between: **inter** (+ accusative case)
big: **magnus, magna, magnum**
black: **niger, nigra, nigrum**

body: **corpus, corporis** (n)
 bone: **os, ossis** (n)
 book: **liber, libri** (m)
 both . . . and: **et . . . et**
 bought: **emptus, empta, emptum**
 boy: **puer, pueri** (m)
 brain: **cerebrum, cerebri** (n)
 brave: **fortis, forte**
 bravely: **fortiter**
 bring (to): **affero, afferre, attuli, allatus, duco, ducere, duxi, ductus**
 brother: **frater, fratris** (m)
 burden: **onus, oneris** (n)
 buy (to): **emo, emere, emi, emptus**
 by: **a/ab** (+ ablative case), **per** (+ accusative case)

C

calends (first day of the month): **Kalendae, Kalendarum** (f.pl.)
 call (to): **voco, vocare, vocavi, vocatus**
 camp: **castra, castrorum** (n.pl.)
 care (to): **curo, curare, curavi, curatus**
 carefully: **diligenter**
 carry (to): **fero, ferre, tuli, latus, porto, portare, portavi, portatus**
 Carthage: **Karthago, Karthaginis** (f)
 chamber: **atrium, atrii** (n)
 chase after (to): **fugo, fugare, fugavi, fugatus**
 citizen: **civis, civis** (m/f)
 city: **urbs, urbis** (f)
 clerk: **scriba, scribae** (m)
 clever: **callidus, callida, callidum**
 close (to): **claudio, claudere, clausi, clausus**
 cold: **frigidus, frigida, frigidum**
 come (to): **venio, venire, veni, ventus**

companion: **comes, comitis** (m/f)
 conquer (to): **vinco, vincere, vici, victus**
 conversation: **sermo, sermonis** (m)
 cook: **coquus, coqui** (m)
 cousin (paternal): **patruelis, patruelis** (m)
 crime: **delictum, delicti** (n)

D

dark: **niger, nigra, nigrum**
 darkness: **tenebrae, tenebrarum** (f.pl.)
 daughter: **filia, filiae** (f)
 day: **dies, diei** (m)
 dead: **mortuus, mortua, mortuum**
 death: **mors, mortis** (f)
 decay (of a bone or tooth): **caries, cariei** (f)
 deed: **factum, facti** (n)
 defend (to): **defendo, defendere, defendi, defensus**
 difficulty: **difficultas, difficultatis** (f)
 dine (to): **ceno, cenare, cenavi, cenatus**
 dining room: **triclinium, triclinii** (n)
 dinner: **cena, cenae** (f)
 disaster: **casus, casus** (m)
 discuss (to): **ago, agere, egi, actus**
 do (to): **ago, agere, egi, actus**
 dog: **canis, canis** (m/f)
 door: **ianua, ianuae** (f)
 doubt (to): **dubito, dubitare, dubitavi, dubitatus**
 doubt: **dubium, dubii** (n)
 down (from): **de** (+ ablative case)
 drag (to): **traho, trahere, traxi, tractus**
 drink (to): **bibo, bibere, bibi, bibitus**
 drive (to): **ago, agere, egi, actus**
 duty: **officium, officii** (n)

E

each: **omnis, omne**
earn (to): **mereo, merere, merui, meritus**
easy: **facilis, facile**
egg: **ovum, ovi** (n)
either . . . or: **aut . . . aut**
enemy: **hostis, hostis** (m/f)
enter (to): **intro, intrare, intravi, intratus**
especially: **praesertim**
even: **et, etiam**
ever: **umquam**
evil: **malus, mala, malum**
expression: **facies, faciei** (f)
eye: **oculus, oculi** (m)

F

faith: **fides, fidei** (f)
fall (to): **cado, cadere, cecidi, casurus**
fall (the season): **autumnus, autumni** (m)
family: **familia, familiae** (f)
farmer: **agricola, agricolae** (m)
fast: **celer, celeris, celere**
father: **pater, patris** (m)
fear (to): **timeo, timere, timui, timitus**
few: **pauci, paucae, pauca**
field: **ager, agri** (m)
fight (to): **pugno, pugnare, pugnavi, pugnatus**
find (to): **invenio, invenire, inveni, inventus**
first: **primus, prima, primum**
flee (to): **fugio, fugere, fugi, fugitus**
food: **cibus, cibi** (m)
foot: **pes, pedis** (m)

for (on behalf of): **pro** (+ ablative case)
for a long time: **diu**
for: **nam**
former (the): **ille**
friend: **amicus, amici** (m)
from: **a/ab** (+ ablative case)
from: **e/ex** (+ ablative case)
full, filled with: **plenus, plena, plenum**

G

game: **ludus, ludi** (m)
garden: **hortus, horti** (m)
gate: **porta, portae** (f)
general (military): **dux, ducis** (m)
gift: **donum, doni** (n)
girl: **puella, puellae** (f)
give (to): **do, dare, dedi, datus**
give back (to): **reddo, reddere, reddidi, redditus**
give thanks (to): **gratias ago, agere, egi, actus**
go (to): **eo, ire, ivi/ii, itus**
god: **deus, dei** (m)
goddess: **dea, deae** (f)
good: **bonus, bona, bonum**
goodbye: **vale**
govern (to): **guberno, gubernare, gubernavi, gubernatus**
grandfather: **avus, avi** (m)
grandmother: **avia, aviae** (f)
greet (to): **saluto, salutare, salutavi, salutatus**

H

hand over (to): **trado, tradere, tradidi, traditus**
hand: **manus, manus** (f)

happen (to): **fio, fieri, factus sum**
harbor: **portus, portus** (m)
hard: **diligenter**
have (to): **habeo, habere, habui, habitus**
head for (to): **peto, petere, petivi, petitus**
head: **caput, capitis** (n)
hear (to): **audio, audire, audivi, auditus**
heart: **cor, cordis** (n)
heaven: **caelum, caeli** (n)
hello: **salve/salvete**
help (to): **adiuvo, adiuvere, adiuvi, adiutus**
help (to): **iuvo, iuvare, iuvi, iutus**
herself: **ipse, ipsa, ipsum**
himself: **ipse, ipsa, ipsum**
hit (to): **pulso, pulsare, pulsavi, pulsatus**
hold (to): **teneo, tenere, tenui, tentus**
holiday: **feriae, feriarum** (f.pl.)
home: **domus, domus** (f)
horse: **equus, equi** (m)
hot: **calidus, calida, calidum**
house: **casa, casae** (f), **domus, domus** (f)
household: **familia, familiae** (f)
how many, how much: **quot**
human being: **homo, hominis** (m/f)
hurry (to): **festino, festinare, festinavi, festinatus**
husband: **maritus, mariti** (m)

I

I hate: **odi, odisse**
if: **si**
image: **imago, imaginis** (f)

immediately: **statim**
in this way: **sic**
in: **in** (+ ablative case)
into: **in** (+ accusative case)
island: **insula, insulae** (f)
itself: **ipse, ipsa, ipsum**
journey: **iter, itineris** (n)

J

joy: **gaudium, gaudii** (n)
judge (a): **iudex, iudicis** (m)
judgment: **ars, artis** (f)
just as: **sicut**

K

kill (to): **neco, necare, necavi, necatus**
king: **rex, regis** (m)
know (not to): **nescio, nescire, nescivi, nescitus**
know (to): **scio, scire, scivi, scitus**
known: **notus, nota, notum**

L

land: **terra, terrae** (f)
large: **magnus, magna, magnum**
latter (the): **hic, haec, hoc**
law: **ius, iuris** (n), **lex, legis** (f)
lead (to): **duco, ducere, duxi, ductus**
leader: **dux, ducis** (m)
leave behind (to): **relinquo, relinquere, reliqui, relictus**
lift (to): **tollo, tollere, sustuli, sublatus**
light: **lumen, luminis** (n)
like: **velut**
lion: **leo, leonis** (m)

literature: **litterae, litterarum** (f.pl.)
live (to): **habito, habitare, habitavi, habitatus**
look after (to): **curo, curare, curavi, curatus**
look: **facies, faciei** (f)
love (to): **amo, amare, amavi, amatus**
love: **amor, amoris** (m)
loyalty: **fides, fidei** (f)

M

magistrate: **magistratus, magistratus** (m)
make (to): **facio, facere, feci, factus**
make good (to): **probo, probare, probavi, probatus**
man: **homo, hominis** (m/f):
vir, viri (m)
many: **multus, multa, multum**
mask (used in plays): **persona, personae** (f)
master: **dominus, domini** (m)
maternal aunt: **matertera, materterae** (f)
meal: **cena, cenae** (f)
meanwhile: **interea**
messenger: **nuntius, nuntii** (m)
method: **modus, modi** (m)
mind: **mens, mentis** (f)
miserable: **miser, misera, miserum**
mishap: **casus, casus** (m)
mistress: **domina, dominae** (f)
money: **pecunia, pecuniae** (f)
mother: **mater, matris** (f)
mountain: **mons, montis** (m)
mouth: **os, oris** (n)
much: **multus, multa, multum**
my: **meus, mea, meum**

N

name: **nomen, nominis** (n)
near: **prope** (+ accusative case)
neck: **cervix, cervicis** (f)
never: **numquam**
new: **novus, nova, novum**
night: **nox, noctis** (f)
nor: **nec/neque**
nose: **nasus, nasi** (m)
not: **non**
now: **iam**
now: **nunc**

O

obey (to): **pareo, parere, parui, paritus**
(+ dative case)
offer (to): **obfero, obferre, obtuli, oblatus**
office: **officium, officii** (n)
often: **saepe**
old man: **senex, senis** (m)
old woman: **anus, anus** (f)
on: **in** (+ ablative case)
once: **semel**
one day: **olim**
open (to): **aperio, aperire, aperui, apertus**
order (to): **iubeo, iubere, iussi, iussus**
other: **alius, alia, aliud**
others (the): **ceteri, ceterae, cetera**
out of: **e/ex** (+ ablative case)
owe (to), must: **debeo, debere, debui, debitus**

P

parent: **parens, parentis** (m/f)
penalty: **poena, poenae** (f)

perhaps: **fortasse**
person: **persona, personae** (f)
place (to): **pono, ponere, posui, positus**
place: **situs, situs** (m)
play: **ludus, ludi** (m)
pleasing: **gratus, grata, gratum**
poem: **carmen, carminis** (n)
position: **officium, officii** (n)
position (location): **situs, situs** (m)
praise (to): **laudo, laudare, laudavi, laudatus**
pray (to): **oro, orare, oravi, oratus**
prepare (to): **paro, parare, paravi, paratus**
prosecutor: **accusator, accusatoris** (m)
punishment: **poena, poenae** (f)
purchased: **emptus, emptum, emptum**
put (to): **pono, ponere, posui, positus**

Q

queen: **regina, reginae** (f)
quick: **celer, celeris, celere**
quickly: **celeriter**
quiet: **tacitus, tacita, tacitum**

R

raise (to): **tollo, tollere, sustuli, sublatus**
reach (to): **advenio, advenire, adveni, adventus**
read (to): **lego, legere, legi, lectus**
reason: **ratio, rationis** (f)
receive (to): **accipio, accipere, accepi, acceptus**
recently, until recently: **nuper**
rest (the): **ceteri, ceterae, cetera**

return (to): **reddo, reddere, reddidi, redditus**
road: **via, viae** (f)
rock: **saxum, saxi** (n)
room: **atrium, atrii** (n)
rule (to): **rego, regere, rexi, rectus**
run (to): **curro, currere, cucurri, cursus**

S

sad: **miser, misera, miserum**
sail (to): **navigo, navigare, navigavi, navigatus**
sailor: **nauta, nautae** (m)
save (to): **servo, servare, servavi, servatus**
scar
school: **ludus, ludi** (m)
sea: **mare, maris** (n)
see (to): **video, videre, vidi, visus**
seek (to): **peto, petere, petivi, petitus, quaero, quaere, quaesivi, quaesitus**
send (to): **mitto, mittere, misi, missus**
serve (to): **servio, servire, servii, servitus** (+ dative case)
shadows: **tenebrae, tenebrarum** (f.pl.)
shape: **forma, formae** (f)
ship: **navis, navis** (f)
shore: **litus, litoris** (n)
shout (to): **clamo, clamare, clamavi, clamatus**
shrewd: **callidus, callida, callidum**
silent: **tacitus, tacita, tacitum**
sing (to): **canto, cantare, cantavi, cantatus**
sister: **soror, sororis** (f)
sit (to): **sedeo, sedere, sedi, sessus**
skill: **ars, artis** (f)
sky: **caelum, caeli** (n)

slave: **servus, servi** (m)
slave-girl: **ancilla, ancillae** (f)
sleep (to): **dormio, dormire, dormivi, dormitus**
slowly: **lente**
small: **parvus, parva, parvum**
so: **sic**
soldier: **miles, militis** (m)
son: **filius, filii** (m)
song: **carmen, carminis** (n)
speak (to): **dico, dicere, dixi, dictus**
spring: **ver, veris** (n)
stand (to): **sto, stare, steti, status**
storm: **tempestas, tempestatis** (f)
story: **fabula, fabulae** (f)
strike (to): **pulso, pulsare, pulsavi, pulsatus**
stupidity: **stultitia, stultitiae** (f)
suddenly: **subito**
summer: **aestas, aestatis** (f)

T

table: **mensa, mensae** (f)
take (to): **capio, capere, cepi, captus**
tawny: **fulvus, fulva, fulvum**
teach (to): **doceo, docere, docui, doctus**
teacher: **magister, magistri** (m)
tell (to): **narro, narrare, narravi, narratus**
temple: **templum, templi** (n)
terrified: **terrītus, territa, territum**
thanks: **gratiae, gratiarum** (f.pl.)
that one: **ille, illa, illud**
that: **qui, quae, quod**
then: **deinde, tunc**
there: **ibi**

think (to): **cogito, cogitare, cogitavi, cogitatus, puto, putare, putavi, putatus**
this one: **hic, haec, hoc**
three times: **ter**
through: **per** (+ accusative case)
thus: **sic**
time: **tempus, temporis** (n)
to, towards: **ad** (+ accusative case)
today: **hodie**
tomorrow: **cras**
tongue: **lingua, linguae** (f)
tooth: **dens, dentis** (m)
tree: **arbor, arboris** (f)
trust: **fides, fidei** (f)
truth: **veritas, veritatis** (f)
turn around (to): **verto, vertere, verti, versus**
twice: **bis**

U

uncle (maternal): **avunculus, avunculi** (m)
uncle (paternal): **patruus, patruī** (m)
under: **sub** (+ ablative case)
undertaker: **vispillo, vispillonis** (m)

V

vein: **vena, venae** (f)
verdict: **iudicium, iudicii** (n)
voice: **vox, vocis** (f)

W

wait for (to): **exspecto, exspectare, exspectavi, exspectatus**
walk (to): **ambulo, ambulare, ambulavi, ambulatus**

wall: **murus, muri** (m)
war: **bellum, belli** (n)
warn (to): **moneo, monere, monui, monitus**
watch (to): **specto, spectare, spectavi, spectatus**
water jar: **urna, urnae** (f)
water: **aqua, aquae** (f)
wax mask: **imago, imaginis** (f)
way: **via, viae** (f)
weapons: **arma, armorum** (n.pl.)
weep (to): **fleo, flere, flevi, fletus**
well: **bene**
what: **quid**
when: **ubi**
where: **ubi**
which: **qui, quae, quod**
while: **dum**
white (snow): **niveus, nivea, niveum**
white: **albus, alba, album**
who: **qui, quae, quod**
whole: **totus, tota, totum**
why: **quare**
why: **cur**

wife: **uxor, uxoris** (f)
wind: **ventus, venti** (m)
wine: **vinum, vini** (n)
winter: **hiems, hiemis** (f)
wise: **sapiens, sapientis**
with: **a/ab** (+ ablative case), **cum** (+ ablative case)
with, at the house of: **apud** (+ accusative case)
without: **sine** (+ ablative case)
woman: **femina, feminae** (f)
word: **verbum, verbi** (n)
work: **labor, laboris** (m)
work (to): **laboro, laborare, laboravi, laboratus**
write (to): **scribo, scribere, scripsi, scriptus**

Y

yellow: **fulvus, fulva, fulvum**
yesterday: **heri**
young man: **iuvenis, iuvenis** (m/f)
your: **tuus, tua, tuum**

Appendix **C**

Answer Key

Chapter 2

Fun & Games

1. direct object plural
2. subject singular
3. possession plural
4. indirect object singular
5. B. are
6. D. were
7. E. will
8. E. will
9. The farmers will find the rocks.
10. The slaves and the girls were hearing the queen.
11. We are preparing food in the dining room.

Chapter 3

Fun & Games

1. London
2. Spain
3. France (or Gaul)
4. Switzerland
5. sunt
6. eris/eritis
7. erant
8. sum . . . estis

Chapter 4

Fun & Games

1. B. avia
2. A. avunculus
3. C. mater
4. D. coniunx

Chapter 5

Fun & Games

1. Ientaculum: panis, fructus, caseus
2. Prandium: ova, piscis, holera, vinum
3. Cena: ova, piscis, mulsum, pullus, vinum, fructus, mala

Chapter 6

Fun & Games

1. a.d. VI Id. Iun. 2744 A.U.C.
2. a.d. XVI Kal. Feb. 2631 A.U.C.
3. a.d. VI Non. Dec. 681 A.U.C.
4. C. Venus
5. D. Fornax
6. A. Mercury
7. B. Robigus

Chapter 7

Fun & Games

1. A. eques
2. C. sagittarius
3. B. aquilifer
4. D. speculator

Chapter 8

Fun & Games

1. B. in amphitheatro
2. C. in circo
3. A. ad thermas
4. E. altior
5. F. maximus
6. D. faciliior

7. A. maior
8. C. altissimus
9. B. facillimus

Chapter 9

Fun & Games

1. D. tribunus
2. B. Numa Pompilius
3. C. Nero
4. Roma a Romulo regitur.
5. Exercitus a rege ducebatur.
6. Urbs a principe gubernata erat.

Chapter 10

Fun & Games

1. Vergil
2. Lucretius
3. Caesar
4. Apuleius
5. Ovid

Chapter 11

Exercise 11-1

1. Brutus killed Caesar.
2. Brutus with many senators killed Caesar.

3. Brutus with many senators killed Caesar with daggers.
4. After the senators had killed Caesar, they ran from the senate.
5. One senator threw Brutus's dagger into the river.

Exercise 11-2

1. We will hear the senator in the forum.
2. The senators were talking with the citizens.
3. I had seen the judge in the court before he announced the verdict.
4. I see the prisoner, but do you see the prosecutors?

Exercise 11-3

1. Ancient authors wrote many books.
2. The young women will walk with older friends.
3. In ancient times many people were reading and writing and speaking the Latin language.
4. Spartan mothers wanted their sons to return carrying their shields.

Exercise 11-4

1. Students read the speeches of Cicero with great eagerness.
2. Roman speeches are read by students in all lands.
3. You have read Latin sentences and you will soon read the literature of the Romans with ease.
4. We are learning another language and therefore we are learning much about others and about ourselves.
5. One student learns the Latin language and teaches another, and many will learn the great ancient language.

Fun & Games

1. E. postponed indefinitely
2. G. an accusation
3. A. somewhere else
4. I. let the buyer beware

5. K. tit for tat
6. B. by virtue of one's position
7. M. in private, without spectators
8. D. among others
9. F. at first sight
10. L. a law
11. C. material evidence in a crime
12. H. the existing state or condition

Chapter 12

Exercise 12-1

1. B
2. C
3. A
4. B
5. C

Exercise 12-2

1. Sick Romans often sought a good doctor.
2. Veins carry blood to the heart, and breath flows through the nose.
3. Brains are in heads, and heads are on necks, but feet hold up the body.
4. A doctor heals the pain of a foot, but love almost always heals the pain of a heart.

Exercise 12-3

1. Imperfect
2. Future
3. Pluperfect
4. Future
5. Perfect

Exercise 12-4

1. Good health follows good food.
2. Will the words of the doctor encourage you or make you sad?
3. You were seen in the forum, but you had promised to be in the field.

Fun & Games

- A1.** Make a solution with 250 ml water and half a teaspoon of powder. Apply the solution to the left ear three times a day.
- A2.** Take one capsule with water by mouth three times a day before meals.
- B1.** caput (head)
- B2.** venter (stomach)
- B3.** crus (leg)
- B4.** brachium (arm)
- B5.** manus (hand)
- B6.** digitus (finger)
- B7.** oculus (eye)
- B8.** pes (foot)
- B9.** auris (ear)
- B10.** capillus (hair)

Chapter 13

Exercise 13-1

1. They sailed to Italy so that they might share the faith.
2. We are learning the Latin language so that we may not be confused by Latin literature.
3. Priests often speak with a loud voice to address the crowds.
4. Are you learning Latin to read or to speak?
5. Caesar walked to the temple not to worship but so that he might be worshiped.

Exercise 13-2

1. Result; The Romans worshiped so many gods that they marveled at Christians who worshiped one god.
2. Purpose; Romulus built a beautiful temple so that the citizens might make a sacrifice to Jupiter.
3. Result; The statue of Minerva is so great that it cannot be praised enough.
4. Purpose; The emperor made orders so that other gods might not be worshiped.

Exercise 13-3

1. If the gods will have increased the grain in my field, I will sacrifice grain to their honor.
2. Unless you should sacrifice before a battle, the gods would not conquer your enemy.
3. If we were in Italy, we would see the Pantheon, the temple of all the gods.
4. The emperor would not have conquered the enemy if he had not seen the sign of a cross in the sky.

Fun & Games

1. G. Non habebis deos alienos coram me.
2. C. Non assumes nomen Domini Dei tui in vanum.
3. E. Memento, ut diem Sabbati sanctifices.
4. B. Honora patrem tuum et matrem tuam, ut sis longaevus super terram.
5. A. Non occides.
6. I. Non moechaberis.
7. J. Non furtum facies.
8. D. Non loqueris contra proximum tuum falsum testimonium.
9. H. Non concupisces uxorem proximi tui.
10. F. Non concupisces omnia, quae proximi sunt.

1. Sacerdotes tam fessi erant ut non sacrificium facere possent.
Answer: The priests were so tired that they could not make a sacrifice.
2. Cives ad tempum festinabunt ut deos colant.
Answer: The citizens will hurry to the temple to worship the gods.
3. Romanorum dei deaque tot erant ut nemo eos numerare possent.
Answer: The gods and goddesses of the Romans were so many that no one could count them.
4. Pontifex templum maximum aedificavit ut cives dona plurima deis in eo ponerent.
Answer: The pontiff built a very large temple so that the citizens might place very many gifts to the gods in it.
5. Si deos cotidie oremus, nos felicissimos et gratissimos faciant.
Answer: If we should pray to the gods every day, they would make us very happy and grateful.

Chapter 14

Fun & Games

1. C. from Japan
2. H. from Canada
3. D. of the woods or forests
4. A. North or South America
5. J. of the mountains
6. I. from Africa
7. G. from the West
8. F. from Europe
9. B. from the East (usually Asia)
10. E. of the sea

Chapter 15

Exercise 15-1

1. Caesar awakened three soldiers who were sleeping in camp and sent them into the woods.
2. The senators will ask us whether we came to court yesterday.
3. Angry citizens seeking Caesar's killers ran into the forum.
4. Let us never forget you! We will always have you in our minds!
5. The farmer was so tired that he returned to the house and immediately fell asleep.
6. After the enemy was seen, the general sent a messenger to the commander and asked him to send help as quickly as possible.
7. We must listen to the orators so that we may become wise.
8. Let us run to the Circus Maximus so that we may see the circus games.
9. The girls called the boys so that they might play in the garden.
10. The citizens who were walking in the street were seeking the court so that they might ask the judge to free the defendant.

Exercise 15-2

I do not like you, Sabidius, nor can I say why. I can only say this: I do not like you.

The little book that you recite, O Fidentinus, is mine, But when you recite it badly, it becomes yours.

You will always be poor, if you are poor, Aemilianus. Wealth is given to no one now except the rich.

Why do I not send my little books to you, Pontilianus? So that you may not send me yours, Pontillianus.

Exercise 15-3

Let us live, my Lesbia, and let us love,

And the rumors of rather strict old men

Let us value all of them at one penny!

Suns can set and return,

When once the brief light has set for us,

We must sleep one, unending night.
Give me a thousand kisses, and then a hundred,
Then another thousand, then a second hundred.

Exercise 15-4

Mourn, you Venuses and Cupids,
And however many there are of charming people:
My girl's sparrow has died,
The sparrow of my darling girl,
Which she loved more than her own eyes.

Exercise 15-5

All Gaul has been divided into three parts, of which the Belgae inhabit one, the Aquitani another, the third those who in their own language are called Celts but in our language Gauls. They all differ among themselves in language, institutions, and laws. The Garonne River divides the Gauls from the Aquitani, the Marne and Seine divide them from the Belgae. Of all of these the strongest are the Belgae.

Exercise 15-6

When this battle had been fought, he set out for Rome with no one opposing him. He stayed in mountains close to the city. When he had remained in camp there several days and was returning to Capua, Quintus Fabius Maximus, the Roman dictator, met him in the Falernian field.

Fun & Games

1. A. The soldiers are carrying the water jars into the city.
2. B. The citizens walked into the forum and listened to the speakers.
3. D. Let's go to the circus and look at the horses.
4. B. The boys, who are playing in the road, are my uncle's sons.
5. D. Soldiers, fight bravely and conquer the enemy!
6. B. Why are you crying? Who hit you?
7. C. The women were watching the gladiators and the animals in the circus.

8. A. The sailors, who will sail to Greece, are preparing the ships in the harbor.
9. C. The boys are so tired that they are sitting down under the tree.
10. D. The general ordered the soldiers to fight bravely.

1. Caesar tres milites, qui in castris dormiebant, excitavit et eos in silvas misit.

Answer: Caesar woke up the three soldiers, who were sleeping in the camp, and sent them into the woods/forests.

2. Senatores nos rogabunt num ad basilicam heri venerimus.

Answer: The senators will ask us whether we came to the court yesterday.

3. Cives irati quaerentes Caesaris interfectores. In forum cucurrerunt.

Answer: The angry citizens ran into the forum, searching for the assassins of Caesar.

4. Numquam tui obliviscamur! Semper in mentibus nostris habebimus!

Answer: We shall never forget you. We shall always keep you in our minds.

5. Agricola tam fessus erat ut ad villam rediret et statim obdormiret.

Answer: The farmer was so tired that he returned home and immediately fell asleep.

6. Hostibus visis, dux nuntium ad imperatorem misit et eum oravit ut auxilia quam celerrime mitteret.

Answer: After seeing the enemies, the general sent a message/messenger to the general and begged him to send auxiliary forces as quickly as possible.

7. Oratores nobis semper audiendi sunt ut sapientiores fiamus.

Answer: We must always listen to the speakers so that we may become wiser.

8. Curramus ad Circum Maximum ut circenses spectemus.

Answer: Let us run to the Circus Maximus to watch the games.

9. Pueros puellae vocaverunt ut in horto luderent.

Answer: The girls called the boys to play in the garden.

10. Cives, qui in via ambulabant, ad basilicam petebant ut iudicem orarent ut ille reum liberaret.

Answer: The citizens who were walking in the road, were heading towards the courthouse to ask the judge to set the accused (man) free.

Catullus

1. Answer:

I do not love you Sabidius, nor can I say why: I can only say this, I do not love you.

2. Answer:

The little book, which you are reading, O Fidentinus, is mine: But when you read it badly, it begins to be yours.

3. Answer:

You will always be poor, if you are poor, Aemilianus. Riches are given to no people nowadays except to the wealthy.

4. Answer:

Why do I not send you my little books, Pontilianus? So that you might not send me yours, Pontilianus.

Lesbia Answer: Let us live, my Lesbia, and let us love, and let us value all the rumors of the stricter old men worth one as! The suns can set and return: when the short light/life has set for us, we must sleep one everlasting night. Give me a thousand kisses, then a hundred, then another thousand, then a second hundred.

Lesbia Answer: Mourn, oh Venuses and Cupids, and as much as there is of more charming people, the sparrow of my girlfriend has died, the sparrow, the darling of my girlfriend, which she loved more than her own eyes.

Caesar Answer: All Gaul was divided into three parts, of which the Belgae inhabit one, another the Aquitani, the third, those who by their very own language are called Celts, by ours the Gauls. All these differ among themselves in language, customs, laws. The Garonne river separates the Gauls from the Aquitani, the Matrona and Sequana from Belginas. Of all these the bravest are the Belgae.

Cornelius Nepos Answer: After this battle was fought, he set out for Rome with no one resisting. In the mountains closest to the city, he delayed. When he had pitched camp there for several days and was returning to Capua, Quintus Fabius Maximus, the Roman dictator, threw himself in his way.

Chapter 16

Fun & Games

1. E. God enriches.
2. D. Nothing without the divine will.
3. I. May she live forever.
4. H. I direct.
5. J. By valor and arms.
6. F. Ever upward.
7. A. Work conquers all.
8. C. Thus always to tyrants.
9. G. Mountaineers are always free.
10. B. Let arms yield to the toga.

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Steven R. Perkins is an award-winning Latin teacher who has published numerous academic articles in the field of Classical Studies. He holds a B.A. with honors in Classics from Indiana University and an M.A. in Classics from the University of Texas. He has taught for more than 30 years in Missouri, Texas, and Indiana, mostly at the high school level, but also at middle school and undergraduate levels, the latter at the University of Texas and Butler University. He is the 2014 Indiana Teacher of the Year, as well as the 1998 Texas Foreign Language Association Latin Teacher of the Year. Thanks to a grant from the Lily Foundation, he has developed living history presentations about the Roman military. His main academic interests are in translation, translation theory, philosophy, and theology.

Dedication

Clifford Hull: I would like to dedicate this book in memory of my late wife, Lynn Thomsen, who was very supportive of me when we were writing the first edition of this book. I would also like to dedicate this book in memory of my late father, Stanley Clifford Hull, who later succumbed to his wounds which he received while fighting in the Egyptian desert during the Second World War. I would finally like to dedicate this book in memory of the late Professor Suretha Bruwer of Stellenbosch University, who inspired me to become a Latin teacher.

Steven R. Perkins: This book is dedicated to my wife and fellow Latin teacher, Melissa, and to our children, Austin and Olivia. With only a slight change of pronouns, I can say with Shakespeare that you are so conjunctive to my life and soul that, as the star moves not but in his sphere, I could not but by you.

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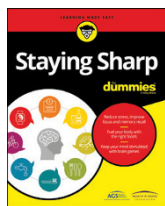
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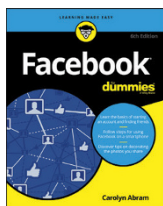




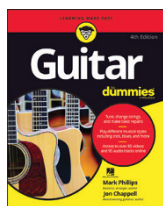
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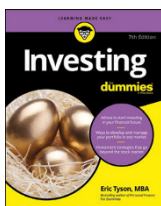
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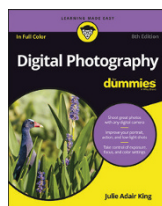
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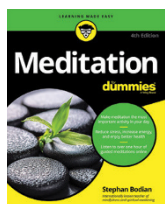
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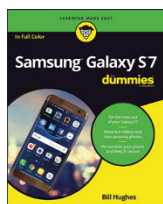
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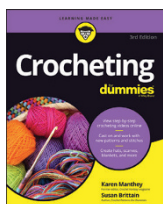
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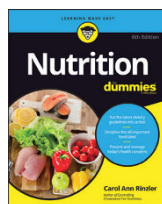
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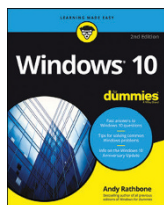


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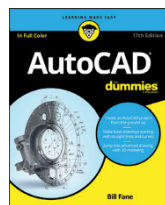


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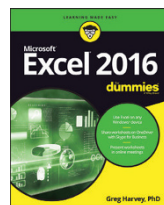
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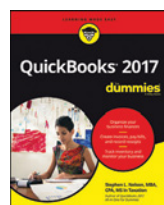
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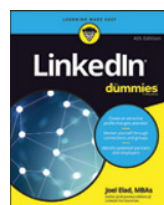
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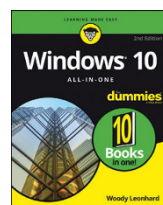
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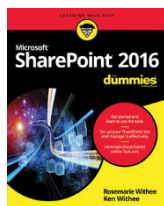
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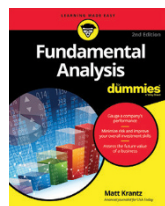
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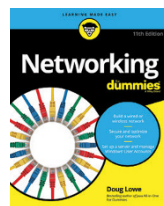
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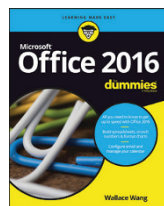
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