LATIN

For Mountain Men

Practial ✦ LATIN

A short course

in Practical LATIN

Elizabeth R. Tuttle

Latin For Mountain Men

A short course in practical Latin

Zeus Baba

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A short course in practical Latin

Based on short lessons in learning Latin, by Dr Elizabeth R. Tuttle
(Professor of Engineering, University of Denver)
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[1]http://mysite.du.edu/~etuttle/classics/latin/learnlat.htm
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Introduction

Ave amice. Here are two dozen short lessons on learning Latin designed for "mountain men" (and women: montani montanaeque), engineers, philosophers, and anyone else looking for entertainment and with lots of free time by the campfire. My course is quite different from Peter Jones' Learn Latin (New York: Barnes and Noble, 1997), but it is just as devoted to interesting you in Latin. If my course doesn't please, by all means have a look at Jones' book, which is published by, and available at, Barnes and Noble in the US. Elsewhere on this site, I have suggestions for the more formal study of Latin and Greek. There is also a huge amount of material available to you on the web and elsewhere.

Another excellent supplement is Alexander and Nicholas Humez's *Latin for People – Latina pro Populo* (Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1976). The best aspects of this book are its vocabulary, that answers are given to all the exercises, and its witty presentation. Bears populate the earlier lessons, as in this account. Unfortunately, there is no actual classical Latin in it, and the exercises include such useful phrases as: "A chamber pot is not a suitable place for a pear tree." Nevertheless, such exercises are entertaining and useful, though I do not use them very much. All long vowels are marked, which I do not do because it is inconvenient in HTML, and also because real Latin does not do it. The authors also give explanations in terms of Indo-European, an imaginary language, which are worth reading but should be taken with a grain of salt. The brothers Humez also claim the genitive plural of **mare** is **marium**, which it ought to be according to modern linguists' rules, but is not. **Marum** is the only attested form.

As Alexander Humez will inform you, Latin is an Indo-European language, and gives a kind of history that is often elaborated, but is pure wind. Linguists would almost claim to know the Indo-European flag, and the history of its people, but there is really nothing there, not even the Caucasian origin of the race. All that they have are existing (including classical) languages, and from this they construct fables about how they must have originated, like the tale of how the elephant got his trunk. It is a good story, with much intelligent reasoning, but it is just a story and one can learn no *causes* from it. No Indo-European survives, and no appropriate wanderings are

historically attested. Scraps of information are swept together into a heap that it is hoped will pass for a science. *How* languages change with time is especially obscure, though *what* is well-described. The Romans thought Latin descended from Greek, but it did not, it is merely cognate. Modern "romance" languages are not evolved forms of Latin, but created languages that existed in parallel with Latin. Each has its peculiar ontogeny, which is mainly unknown. Anglo-Saxon is a Germanic language, but English, not being Anglo-Saxon or any evolution of it, is not. English was created by people who spoke Anglo-Saxon (and other tongues), however, so the similarity is not unreasonable. In fact, such classifications are largely useless and devoid of meaning. At least so I believe.

My explicit aim in this course is to enable you to decipher short Latin phrases, such as the Latin names, abbreviations, and nomenclature in biology, astronomy, medicine, law, and scholarly work. I can't help but mention that school and scholar are from Greek *schole*, spare time, and that student is from *studium*, zeal. These lessons are meant to be done in your spare time, and enjoyed. I don't expect you to memorize, but only to recognize, and look up if you don't. I explain some tricks about learning, including some things students do that are perfectly useless for the purpose, besides being unpleasant.

I have used real Latin, written by native speakers, throughout the course, rather than the doubtful stuff created by our contemporaries, especially me. Toward the end of the course there are some more extended selections from authors not usually included in Latin courses, the engineers Vitruvius and Frontinus, who are both educated and intelligent men with interesting things to say. A song from Carmina Burana is translated, that you can hear sung in Latin in a recent CD by Charlotte Church. I have made a special effort to show you the power and beauty of Latin by these examples. Latin has existed for about three millenia, and has changed steadily, but has remained Latin. The Latin in these lessons is that of the first century, regarded by those whose opinions may be valued as the purest and most pleasing, which is why it is called classic.

You need nothing else than these lessons, and a little enthusiasm, to learn serious Latin. An almost essential reference for any further work is a Latin dictionary, and a small one will do excellently. I have Langenscheidt's *Pocket Latin Dictionary* myself for daily use. You should write a lot; this is a help to learning–it is not just making a record, and is extremely profitable. Keep some kind of notebook. It is better to study

regularly in small amounts, say an hour, than to study long hours at widely separated times. The reason is once again in the way we learn. It need hardly be said that I have only included here what I think is most important for the time and effort available, and for the aims of the course.

In April 2001 the course was revised, and many errors and misprints were corrected. I have recently revised the Greek and Euclid pages elsewhere on this site with help from an interested person, and have been appalled at the number of errors and misprints that he discovered that got by me. That course is now in pretty good shape, and I hope that Latin for Mountain Men could also be less erroneous. If you notice any errors or misprints, I would be grateful to hear about them, together with any suggestions you may have for improvements.

The name of the course, which is rather frivolous, actually seems to appeal to some people, so I shall retain it, and try to use it to make the course more entertaining.

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Lessons Overview

Lesson I : Encouragement and the Plan (Plautus)

What Are We Going To Do? :: *We get started by saying what inflection is and means*

There are several reasons a mountain man (or woman) may want to learn Latin, and among these are:

- To read the interesting Latin sections in books on Indian habits.
- To understand what lawyers are saying when they have you in court.
- To be able to impress associates with Latin quotations.
- To appreciate the Latin in science, medicine and euphemisms.
- To become literate.
- Because it is enjoyable and satisfying.

If a mountain man knows any other language at all, it is probably bad Spanish. This will not help him much more than English to understand Latin, but at least will have given him some idea of what another language is, and that it is not just a word-for-word substitution of his own. Both English and Spanish, however, are full of words that came from Latin, and the similarities are a great help with vocabulary. When English was being born, all writers in it were also writers of Latin. Latin words came into English from the first, and many were added later. Spanish was created among Latin speakers who had to communicate with Goths when they joined together to fight the Arabs, and Spanish contains many concessions to Visigothic habits (as well as later Arabic influences). English words with Latin antecedents arrived by several routes. Some were present when English was created; some entered through Norman French and other languages, some were coined later, and some are *cognates* (cousins, not descendants) like the prepostion **in**. English was, I believe, created as a common

means of communication for a country of many languages, but, after 1066, with one Latin-literate court.

When one is an adult, learning a language the way a child does is no longer possible. The brain is now wired in a particular way. More efficient, but less permanent, ways have been developed for such older folk. These ways involve a tool called grammar. It has not been taught in American schools for some time, but its principles are easily mastered, and the tool is a powerful one. We will attack Latin with the weapon of grammar. Grammar is a logical, scientific description of the way people actually communicate with a language, not a set of prescriptive rules.

Anyone who has learned to program a computer, and likes to do it, will also do well in grammar. Like computers, language is another field of bewildering superficial complexity and interrelation, that is actually simple at its roots. Intelligence can see and use classifications, similarities, analogies, and rules both in computers and in language. In language, these things are called grammar. Grammar is taken from the way people speak and write, and facilitates the decoding of this speech and writing as well as its creation. For our uses, which are to decode existing Latin, grammar is an exceedingly powerful tool. As you study Latin grammar, you will gain the power to understand and use the language in a short time, and with minimal effort. If you wanted to speak or understand spoken Latin, you would have to acquire automatic language skills necessary for fluency by long practice.

As you may realize, words are changed slightly, usually at the ends, to express different but related concepts. For example, bear means one bear, and bears means more than one bear. Also, I drink, but he drinks. I know the lady who lives upstairs, but I know the lady whom the sheriff has arrested. These are examples of inflection, and pretty lame ones, because English does not make much use of inflection. Still, improper inflection hinders meaning and sounds funny ("All your base are belong to us"). Latin, on the other hand, uses inflection very effectively, and this is the major thing you will have to learn. Welsh, you might be interested in knowing, changes words at the front, instead of at the rear. Welsh and Latin are closely related, incidentally.

If you feel better memorizing something, like the endings of words, by all means do so. Otherwise, simply use the endings as often as possible, looking up the ones you forget, and they will soon be second nature. This is fine for our purposes. Remember, the whole idea is fun, not work, so do not get too serious. What is more important

is to learn words, preferably in phrases that use them, and to think of the meaning of an inflection, which we call a case when referring to nouns, whenever you see it. Inflections are not just idle decoration!

There are three reasons Latin will be easy for you to learn. First, Latin uses the same alphabet as English (without j, v or w, which are recent additions), second, much of the vocabulary will be recognizable, and third, most of all, the fundamental language habits are the same. Although English was first spoken by speakers of Anglo-Saxon (and Danish, and Welsh, etc.), it is more like Latin in theory than it is like any of these. When English was born between the 12th and 14th centuries, however, inflection was dropped and its functions assumed by word order and prepositions. Your greatest challenge will be to recover the power of inflection. Fortunately, it is deeply rooted in your unconscious language skills and need only be awakened.

Since there should be some Latin in this first lesson, we look at a quotation from the playwright Plautus: **flamma fumo est proxima**. Pronounce this the way it looks, but make the u sound like oo, not yu (foomo). Proxima is accented on the first syllable. This says: "where there is smoke there is fire", a common maxim. The words, literally translated, say *flame smoke is near*, rather meaningless in English. The inflection gives the meaning. **Flamma** is flamm-a, suggesting it is the subject of the sentence. **Proxima** is proxim-a, which *agrees* with flamm-a, relating them. **Est** is easy to recognize. In Latin, it is a form of **esse**, to be, appropriate for one thing or person at the present time. So far, we have **flamma est proxima**, "flame is near." The key is in **fum-o**. Fum sounds like fume, which is like smoke, and the o says that the smoke is related to some other word in the sentence in a particular way, as related with or directed toward. In this case, it is **proxima**. **Proxima fumo** is "near to smoke." Therefore, **flamma fumo est proxima** means "flame is near to smoke." The order of the words is not specially significant. Plautus could have said **flamma est fumo proxima**, or **flamma proxima fumo est**, or **proxima fumo est flamma** – all would have meant the same, but the style might be considered clumsy in some of them.

In the next lesson, we will begin learning the technical terms for what we have discussed above, which will save a lot of circumlocution [**circum**, around; **loquor**, I speak]. It is enough for now to learn the phrase, and to ponder the beauties of inflection. Every lesson will contain such a phrase, which will be translated and explained in the next lesson. By the way, a mountain man is a **montanus**. A mountain woman would be a **montana**. I have tried to be fair to the sexes, but excuse me if

I refer too often to men or to women, or use the wrong pronouns, or use playful language. Consider it an exercise to alter any statement to refer to the opposite sex! In Latin, the masculine grammatical gender means male **or** female, while the female gender means only female. Roman society was the first, incidentally, in which women were regarded as people and citizens, and were respected and valued as individuals.

Lesson II : Verbs and the First Conjugation (Plautus)

Verbs :: *Verbs are the most important words in a language like Latin*

In the last lesson, we discovered that Latin makes use of inflection, and that this takes place mainly on the ends of words. There are three kinds of words, which we will call verbs, nouns, and others. Verbs take one class of endings, nouns another, and the others don't change their endings at all. Words are classified by their uses in sentences as *parts of speech*, which we shall separate into verbs, nouns and other. Nouns are often further divided into noun substantives (nouns), noun adjectives (adjectives) and pronouns. Others are likewise broken down into adverbs, prepositions, conjunctions and interjections. We'll talk about all of these later. Verbs are the most important part of speech, because they are capable of expressing a complete thought in themselves. Every sentence has a *subject*, which is what is talked about, and the *predicate*, which is what is said about the subject. A verb combines both.

Verbs include words not only describing actions, but also states, changes and other happenings. When you use a verb, you want to express the following things in connection with the action:

- first, the *person* – I or we (first person), thou or you (second person), he, she or it (third person). Latin does not have any Usteds or Sies or other cringing forms of address, but uses the second person singular to one person, and plural to more than one, whether gods or beggars.
- Second, *tense* or time: I love (present), I shall love (future), I was loving (imperfect), I have loved (perfect), I had loved (pluperfect), or I shall have loved (future perfect).
- Third, *voice*: I love (active), I am loved (passive).
- Fourth, *mood*: I love (indicative), I might love (subjunctive), love! (imperative).

- Some grammarians make participles a mood: loving.

Latin verbs show all these things by changes in the verb stem and endings. The *stem* of a word is what you add the endings to make a functioning word, like snapping a socket (the ending) on a ratchet handle (the stem). Loving is expressed by the stem **ama-**. The present tense (indicative, active) comes out: **amo** (I love), **amas** (you love), **amat** (she loves), **amamus** (we love), **amatis** (you love) and **amant** (they love). Accent the *penult* (next to last syllable) in each form. For the imperfect tense, you stick in a -**ba**- between the stem and ending: **amabam, amabas, amabat, amabamus, amabatis, amabant**. Note that we have **amo**, but **amabam**, which sounds better than **amabao**. For the future tense, you stick in -**bi**-: **amabo, amabis, amabit, amabimus, amabitis, amabunt**. Again, we have **amabunt**, not **amabint**. Verb forms are usually presented in the form of a table called a *paradigm* to make them easier to comprehend, like the one shown below.

Present Active Indicative

number	singular	plural
1	amo	amamus
2	amas	amatis
3	amat	amant

The accent on a Latin word likes to be as far forward as possible, but can only be on one of the last three syllables. If the last syllable contains a long vowel, it can only be on one of the last two. It got these habits from Greek, and you should not worry much about it now. It is only mentioned so you can pronounce amo, amas, … correctly. The accent is on the first syllable, except in the first and second person plural, where it is drawn to the next to last syllable, or *penult*. That is, **a**mat, but a**ma**mus. All verbs are generally accented like this. The last syllable in a word is called the *ultima*, and the second from last the *antepenult*.

Now think of all the loving you can express, whether present, or past, or future, with all kinds of people doing it. A verb can be a real sentence all by itself; no other kind of word can say this. Latin has equivalents for I, we, you, he, and so forth, but they are not necessary because the verb ending shows it all, and are only used to make a point. I is ego, by the way. **ego amo, non tu!** means: it's **I** who love, not you! When

you're giving, not loving, the stem is **da-**: **do**, **das**, **dat**, … ; you can fill in all the rest. What does **dabunt** mean? They will give, correct! See how easy it is? If you want to know, "we" is **nos**, "you" is **tu** or **vos**. "He", "she" and "it" are **is**, **ea**, and **id**. In the plural, they are **ei**, **eae**, or **ea**, depending on their gender.

What you are doing here is called *conjugating* the verb (marrying it with its endings). **Amo** and **do** are verbs of the first conjugation, distinguished by the **-a-** in the stem, and all first conjugation verbs behave the same way. A verb is generally named by giving its first person singular present active indicative (whew!), ending in -o. Indicative refers to the *mood* of the verb; the indicative is used to state a fact. Some additional verbs to practice on are: **sto** (stand), **fraudo** (cheat), **tempto** (touch), **nato** (swim), **postulo** (demand), **flagro** (blaze), **neco** (kill), **purgo** (clean) and **basio** (kiss). Note that you can often guess the meanings pretty well, and Spanish is a help. **Tempto** sounds like "tempt," and this is actually one of its meanings, but the main one is "touch." Many words taken from Latin have a special meaning in English, not the usual meaning of the original Latin word. Watch out for these words that suggest the wrong meaning; they are called *false friends*.

The useful verb *to be* does not follow this pattern, but goes off on its own. Fortunately, there are very few such verbs in Latin, but this one is very important. It goes: **sum**, **es**, **est**, **sumus**, **estis**, **sunt** (I am) in the present; **eram**, **eras**, **erat**, **eramus**, **eratis**, **erant** (I have been) in the imperfect; and **ero**, **eris**, **erit**, **erimus**, **eritis**, **erunt** (I shall be) in the future. Try to recognize these forms when you see them. When est or sunt begins a sentence, it usually means "there is" or "there are." **Est hic aqua** means there is water here (**hic**). This sentence is actually from Vitruvius, not my invention.

The phrase for this lesson is **aquam e pumici nunc postulas**, again from Plautus. **Aqu-am** is water, but the **-am** shows that it is being acted upon, not acting. e means "out of"; it can also be spelled **ex**. **Pumic-i** is pumice, the frothy rock, and the **-i** shows that it goes with the e placed before it. The **e** is not surprisingly called a *preposition* [**prae**, before; **pono**, place]. **Nunc** is just "now". The final word you should be able to figure out for yourself from what we have studied above. Answer in the next lesson!

Lesson III : Nouns and the First Declension (Vulgate)

Nouns :: *Nouns are easier to handle than verbs*

The phrase in the last lesson says: "Now you are demanding water from pumice," or "blood from a turnip" in the modern vernacular.

The second type of word is the noun. The endings of nouns show number (singular or plural), gender (masculine, feminine, or neuter), and case (nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, or ablative). Nouns, therefore, are much less complicated than verbs. Each case corresponds to a different role of the word in a sentence, and is very important. The two big classes of nouns are the noun-substantives (usually called simply nouns) that describe a thing, and noun-adjectives (usually called simply adjectives) that describe qualities of things. The classification is not exclusive, and one word can be either. There are also pronouns, which merely point out without describing, such as **ego** (I) or **tu** (thou). All these words are connected by undergoing the same inflections. Subjecting a noun to inflection is called *declension*.

The reason for this term is interesting. Greek geometers thought of the cases of nouns as **radii** in a circle, with the "independent" nominative and vocative cases a vertical radius, **casus recti**, with the other cases inclined more and more in the first quadrant, the **casus obliqui** or dependent cases, that had to lean on something. The word "case" itself comes from **casus, -us** or "falling" (fourth declension). As the cases change, the radius *declines* from a vertical position to a horizontal one, so the process is called *declension*. The declension of a noun is determined by the spelling of the word, usually the final vowel of the stem, not its gender or meaning. The association of genders and declensions is accidental.

Puell-a (girl) is a noun. This is the nominative singular case, used to name what you are talking about in a sentence. When you want to say something about one girl, this is the word you use. If you have more than one girl, the word is **puell-ae**. Similarly, **form-a** is form, shape, or beauty, and **form-ae** are forms, shapes, or beauties. I won't

explicitly separate stem and ending from now on, unless it is necessary for clarity, since it is usually easy to figure out. To be technical, the -a- is really part of the stem, but it is usual to treat it as part of the ending. The rules are just made up by grammarians, and often are simply aids to memory, not theory.

The beauty of the girl would be expressed as **puellae forma**. Here, **puellae** is not girls, it means "of the girl," and is a different case, the genitive. Unfortunately, it looks just like **puellae** the plural. This often happens; you must make a choice from the alternatives that makes sense. In the plural, we have **puellarum forma**. The -**arum** is distinctive, and you will not miss it. Saying **forma puellae** is okay - it means the same thing - but it is not quite as good Latin, and is typical of later Latin that has been corrupted by vernacular influences. No universal rule can be given for whether an adjective precedes or follows a noun. Adjectives that determine or are used figuratively may precede, and those that merely describe may follow. The only authority is usage by Latin writers.

Still more confusion. If I said **puellae formam dabo**, it would mean "I shall give beauty to the girl." **Puellae** here is a third case, the dative! The dative case signifies involvement in the action of the verb, but not directly. The girl's involvement here is that she receives the beauty that I am giving. The dative is always used in this situation. It has more uses as well. If I am benefiting more than one girl, then I say: **puellis formam dabo**. The recipient is called the *indirect object*.

In **puellis formam dabo** the **formam** directly receives the action of the verb; it is acted upon, it suffers. It is called the *direct object*, as **puellis** is the indirect object. The case of the direct object is called the accusative, and the ending is -am. Thus, **puellam basibam** - I was kissing the girl. If I were luckier, then perhaps **puellas basibam**. **Puellas** is the accusative plural. What does **formam postulabis** mean? ytuaeb dnamed lliw uoY, correct! I will put these answers that directly follow a question in backwards English or Latin (called pig-Welsh), so you have a chance to think before you see the answer, in the lessons that follow.

If you wished to express that you were swimming with the girl, you would say: **cum puella natabam**. The preposition cum (with - you probably already know this) is said to govern the ablative case, and **puella** here is ablative, not nominative, another case of ambiguity. Actually, the ablative case is what really involves the girl, and the cum merely helps the ablative in making its meaning clear. The -a in the nominative is actually a short a, while the -a in the ablative is a long a, but this does not show

up in print, or usually even in speech. The cum would be lonely without an ablative case, and this gives it away. If you had lots of girls, this would become **cum puellis natabam**, and again there is confusion with the dative plural, which is also **puellis**. It is very typical for the dative and ablative to be confused this way. In Greek, it has gone all the way, and the ablative has disappeared there.

Puella is feminine gender, of course, but so is **forma**. Things with sex are usually of the appropriate gender in Latin, but all nouns have gender, which is used not to classify their sex, but merely to give three kinds of words and make it hard for learners. You generally have to learn the gender with the noun, but there are aids. **Puella** and **forma** are nouns of the first declension (or a-stems), which have the endings -**a**, -**ae**, -**ae**, -**am**, -**a** in the singular, and -**ae**, -**arum**, - **is**, -**as**, -**is** in the plural. Most first declension nouns are feminine, but not all. Any first declension noun that represents a male is masculine, and anything agreeing with it takes masculine endings (**poeta bonus**). Gender is in no way determined by the declension, which depends only on the form of the word. The best way to write out a declension is in a list, the paradigm, with the cases in columns, singular and plural side by side. The table shows how this is usually done.

By comparing languages, it is clear that originally there were even more cases. An *instrumental* case (with what?) still exists in Russian, while a *locative* case (where?) has remnants even in Latin. There may have been even more, and an agglutinating language like Hungarian retains a real mess of case-like expressions. There was also a *dual* number, for two things making a natural pair (e.g., feet, eyes, twins), traces of which remain in heroic Greek and even in a couple of Latin words. In Greek, only four cases survived. The duties of the ablative are spread among the other three oblique cases. When a language is created that has to be learned by adults (English, Spanish, Italian), cases largely disappear and their place is taken by word order and prepositions.

puella, -ae

case	singular	plural
nom	puella	puellae
gen	puellae	puellarum
dat	puellae	puellis
acc	puellam	puellas

puella, -ae

case	singular	plural
abl	puella	puellis

We have covered a lot of important stuff in this lesson, and it will take some time to sink in. We have five cases: nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, and ablative. Each has its distinctive uses, and we shall harp on them until you are sick of it. When you give a noun its endings, you are declining it. Decline **agricola** (farmer), **nauta** (sailor), **poeta** (poet), **indigena** (native). These words are all masculine, or masculine or feminine depending on their reference!

Also **insula** (island), **mamma** (breast), **pustula** (blister), **lingua** (tongue), **bucca** (cheek), **margarita** (pearl), **femina** (woman), and **vagina** (scabbard), which are all feminine. When a noun is given in a vocabulary, the genitive singular ending is usually shown, since it is characteristic of the declension. For example, **olla**, **-ae** (pot or jug).

When a Mountain Man sees a beautiful girl, **Cum videt montanus puellam formosam**, he might exclaim, "**O babae!**" **Babae** is directly from Greek, not a first-declension noun, but an exclamation meaning "wonderful!" The example should warn you that **cum** is not always a preposition helping an ablative case, but sometimes means "when." It was originally **quom**, but assimilated its spelling to **cum**, producing a homonym. Also, I really should have used the future, **videbit**, but no harm done. The present tense here implies habitual action, the future an actual future action. Latin is careful about this, English is not.

Offa, **-ae** is a ball of (moist) meal, and came to have the meaning of a tumor or an abortion or a shapeless mass. There was a King Offa of Mercia (reigned 757-796), who built Offa's Dyke on his western border to show the Welsh raiders where the boundary was. No doubt they had fun with the name. He had a Christian daughter who kept trying to convert her pagan dad without success, and who ran off with a Northumbrian prince, whom she did convert, when his kingdom was overrun by Danes; they were the parents of St. Rumbold, who learned to speak shortly after birth so he could demand baptism before he died in three days. His body stopped at all the pagan groves and springs on its translation from King's Sutton to Buckingham to drive out the pagan spirits and promote infant baptism. Pagan, by the way, is from the

adjective **paganus**, meaning "hick." With the word **offa**, you not only have acquired some history, but also something to call people.

So far, we know that the nominative case is used for the subject of the sentence, the accusative for the direct object, the dative for the indirect object, the ablative as the object of some prepositions, and the genitive to show the association of one noun with another. We will add other uses for all the cases except the nominative, which already has enough on its plate.

Cases are used in the specification of space, place and time, often without a preposition. The accusative expresses an extent of time: **decem annos**, for ten years, or an extent of space: **duos pedes**, two feet long. The ablative expresses time when, or a limit in time: **proximo anno**, in the next year, or within the next year. The accusative case expresses motion toward, usually with a preposition (**in, ad**) to make things clear. The ablative expresses place where, or place whence, again usually with a preposition. With cities and towns and small islands (Sicily is not a small island), the preposition is usually omitted. The idea is that points do not require a preposition, but areas do. Thus: **in Galliam**, into Gaul, **in Gallia**, in Gaul, **ex Gallia**, out of Gaul. When you see a word in the accusative without a preposition, it may not be a direct object, but may express an extent of space or time.

Today's phrase is from the bible: **margaritas ante porcos**. This does not mean a drink before the chops. What case is **margaritas**? What kind of word is **ante**? We will see that **porcos** is accusative plural of **porcus** (pig).

Lesson IV : Adjectives and the Second Declension (diploma)

Adjectives and the Second Declension :: *Many adjectives are declined according to the first and second declensions*

The last lesson's phrase was "pearls before swine" and **margaritas** was in the accusative as the object of the verb "cast", which had been edited out. **Ante** is a preposition governing the accusative. It can also be used alone as an adverb, and then just means "before" in space or time.

The second kind of noun is the noun-adjective, or adjective. It has the same endings as noun-substantives, but more of them because it distinguishes masculine, feminine, and neuter as well as number and case. Good and bad are important, and the adjectives for them are **bonus**, -a, -um and **malus**, -a, -um. We give the singular nominatives for the three genders when quoting the adjective, and this tells us how it is declined. Adjectives like these use the first declension for the feminine, and the second declension for the masculine and neuter. Incidentally, when learning a word, it is efficient to learn its opposite at the same time, if it has one.

An adjective describing a noun agrees with it in gender, number, and case, which often, but not always, means that it has the same endings. You will have no trouble with: **nauta agricolae malam puellam dat** - the sailor gives a bad girl to the farmer, something that no doubt sometimes happens. Do you see how the cases help you make instant sense of the sentence? A Latin sentence is read from start to finish and should make sense in the order in which it is read, even though English would often use a different word order. Translating the words, then arranging them so they make sense in English, is a worthless exercise taught in High Schools. It is like walking in mud and will hold you back. Adjectives, like genitives, often precede the noun in Latin, though a monk might prefer a **puellam malam**.

The masculine endings are taken from the second declension, of which most of the nouns are masculine or neuter, just as most nouns of the first declension are feminine. The endings for masculine and neuter nouns are shown in the table for **bonus**. Note that the dative and ablative are the same, and the genitive singular looks like the nominative plural, as in the first declension. Thus we have: **bonus poeta malam puellam amat** - the good poet loves the bad girl. Or, **bonum poetam mala puella amat** - the bad girl loves the good poet. Study these sentences well, noting that adjectives agree in gender, not in ending. **Taurus** (bull), **ursus** (bear), **lupus** (wolf), and **cervus** (stag) are useful words for mountain men. Decline them in all cases and numbers for practice! All, except **taurus**, have first-declension feminine forms. A **lupa, -ae** is also a prostitute.

bonus, -a, -um

	singular			plural		
case	masc	fem	neut	masc	fem	neut
nom	bonus	bona	bonum	boni	bonae	bona
gen	boni	bonae	boni	bonorum	bonarum	bonorum
dat	bono	bonae	bono	bonis	bonis	bonis
acc	bonum	bonam	bonum	bonos	bonas	bona
abl	bono	bona	bono	bonis	bonis	bonis

Note that the neuter endings are like the masculine ones except in the nominative and accusative. The nominative and accusative of a neuter noun are always exactly the same. In the singular, they are -um, and in the plural, -a. **Bellum**, war, is declined as follows: **bellum, belli, bello, bellum, bello; bella, bellorum, bellis, bella, bellis**. There aren't really many different endings for neuters. Some more neuter nouns for practice: **factum** (deed), **fatum** (divine will), **delictum** (crime),**virus** (venom). Note the false friends - factum is not a fact, and virus is not a virus. Virus is declined **virus, viri, viro, virus, viro; vira, virorum, viris, vira, viris**, and we have **malum virus**, a bad venom. To keep things interesting, we also have the important word **vir**, a man, which is declined **vir, viri, viro, virum, viro; viri, virorum, viris, viros, viris**. It is, of course, masculine.

Now take the adjectives **magnus** (large), **parvus** (small), and make them modify **ursus**, **puella**, and **bellum** in all cases and numbers. Once you see how this goes,

it is really easy. An adjective can be used as a noun. **Boni**, **-os** are "the good," and **Magnum Bonum** was Henry Clay's prize donkey, whose portrait is in the Capitol.

One very common irregularity has to be mentioned. Some nouns like **puer** (boy) or **ager** (field) do not end in -us in the nominative singular, although they are masculine. They go like this: **ager, agri, agro, agrum, agro; agri, agrorum, agris, agros, agris**. Or **puer, pueri, puero, puerum, puero; pueri, puerorum, pueris, pueros, pueris**. You see the pattern here; it is not hard to recognize if you are aware of what is going on. A mountain man will value his knife, or **culter, cultri, cultro, cultrum**, etc. The "GR" on it did not stand for Green River, but for **Georgius Rex**. Indians wouldn't buy knives unless they were good English ones that the King made. John Coulter's name is a variation of the word for knife. From just this information, you can conclude that **culter** is masculine.

The adjective **pulcher** (pretty) is like **ager**. The nominatives are **pulcher**, **pulchra**, **pulchrum**. **Pulcher** is the only odd case of them all. Another peculiarity is the word **secus** (sex). It is neuter, but is *indeclinable*, or the same in all cases. **Nihil** (nothing) is similar (**nihilum**, **-i** has all its endings, however, and means the same thing). Such words are usually found only in the nominative and accusative. There is a totally distinct word **secus**, which is an adverb meaning "otherwise" or "not so." Romans liked to say **non secus**, which meant "just so" or "precisely." In Latin, two negatives always make a positive!

Try this: the farmer gives the small bull to the pretty girls. The Latin is: **agricola pulchris puellis parvum taurum dat**. As you read, tell yourself consciously what cases occur, and what they mean. The words are in this order because the main thrust is the farmer's giving, so these words take the emphatic places at the beginning and end of the sentence, and the other stuff is packed inside. The reason is not that verbs go to the end of the sentence. They often do though, and you will get used to it. You will not have to create the word order, remember, but you will want to understand it. Latin often uses word sandwiches of this type to keep ideas together.

Whereas **malus**, **-a**, **-um**, with a short a, means "bad", **malum**, **-i**, with a long a and neuter, is "apple". Above, we had the sentence: **nauta agricolae malam puellam dat**. What would **nauta malum puellae dat** mean? The sailor could be giving an apple to the girl, or, perhaps more likely considering sailors, evil. An adjective can be used as a noun, and here the neuter **malum**, **-i** means evil itself. Evils, of course, are **mala**. Incidentally, trees, such as **fagus**, **-i** (beech), **malus**, **-i** ****(apple)**, ****pirus**, **-i** (pear),

pinus, **-i** (pine), though second declension and ending in -us, are all *feminine*, while their fruits, ending in -um, are all *neuter*. **Neuter**, **neutra**, **neutrum** simply means "neither" (masculine nor feminine, that is).

An excellent maxim is **multum in parvo**, the Latin form of the famous Greek maxim *ou polla, alla polu* (please excuse lack of accents and breathings), "not a lot, but much," meaning that quality is better than quantity.

Today's phrase is: **magna cum laude**, which you might find on your diploma. **Laude** must be the ablative (why?) of the word **laus**, **laudis** (praise). This is a third-declension word (like **rex**, **regis**), and we have given not only its nominative, but the genitive as well. This is normally done, since it makes the declension clear. We will take up the third declension soon. We should have said **puella**, **puellae** and **puer**, **pueri** before. This is normally abbreviated to **puella**, **-ae** and **puer**, **-i** in dictionaries. What case is **magna**, and what is it doing in front of the **cum**? We don't say "great with praise" in English, although "great with child" is heard!

Lesson V : Prepositions, Adverbs, and Conjunctions (Juvenal)

Other Words :: *Prepositions, adverbs and conjunctions*

Last lesson's phrase was an example of a Latin word sandwich. **Magna** and **laude**, in the same case are the bread, and **cum** is the meat. **Cum magna laude**, or **cum laude magna** would be understood, but would be clumsy. **Magna cum laude** is graceful. **Summa cum laude** is even better. Logically, there should only be one of the latter, but my university manages to award several each year, defying logic.

You will be glad to hear that the other words we will talk about in this lesson never change. They do not take endings, and are not conjugated, declined, or compared. The down side is that you don't get much flexibility from them. You have already met a couple, the prepositions **cum** (ablative), **e** or **ex** (ablative), and **ante** (accusative). Let's consider another very important preposition, **in**. You will have no trouble with its meaning, since it is the same in English. To show how to use it we need a verb of motion, and what could be more appropriate than go? Like **sum**, this is an irregular verb. Its present tense is **eo, is, it, imus, itis, eunt** – I go, thou goest, he goes, and so forth. The future and imperfect are easy: **ibo** and **ibam** (etc.). **Agricola it in agrum** means the farmer goes *into* the field. **Agricola stat in agro** means the farmer stands *in* the field. The accusative is always used for motion into, and the ablative for being there. **Sub** (beneath) and **super** (above) are the same. This is always worth looking for when motion is involved. Besides **e** and **ex** are **a** and **ab**, also meaning out of, but which take the ablative! There is a slight difference in meaning that is responsible for this; **e** concentrates on the movement out, **a** on the state of being out. If you are going *to* something, **ad** with the accusative does the trick. **Post**, after, takes the accusative like **ante**. **Sine**, without, takes the ablative like **cum**. Prepositions are good

words to know; they give the relations between words like cases, but specify more particularly. In English, they have indeed replaced cases. Many Latin prepositions have been taken over into English as well.

We have just seen new uses for the accusative and ablative. The accusative is used for place *to* which, and the ablative for place *at* or *from* which. A preposition is not always needed. If you are headed to a town or a small island, just the accusative is enough. **Eo Romam** - I'm going to Rome; **Athenas natamus** - we are swimming to Athens (**Athenae, Athenarum**, plural form). **Rus** is to the country (accusative of neuter **rus, ruris**), **urbem** to the city, and **domum** is home. If it's not a town or an island, or one of the special cases, or if you actually say town or city, the **in** or **ad** is necessary: **In urbem Romam eant**, for example. This is the *place to which*. The ablative is used for *place where*. If it's a town, a preposition is not needed. Curiously, in the singular of the first and second declensions, the ending is not -**a**, but -**ae**! This is a survival of the *locative* case, which has all but disappeared elsewhere. **Puer Romae habitat** - the boy lives in Rome (**habito, habitare**, live). Logically, we also have a *place from which*, and for this the ablative is also used. The prepositions **ex** or **ab** are often used for clarity, but are not needed for towns and small islands. **Domo** means from home, and **rure** from the country. The preposition is also omitted when the meaning is clear from the verb. For example, **Amicitia nullo loco excluditur** says that friendship is excluded from no place. **Excluditur** is a passive we shall get to know in Lesson XI. What does **Caius Nolam Romae fugit** mean? (**Nola** is a town near Rome, **fugit** means flees).

Cases have similar meanings with respect to time. We have time when (ablative, like place where), extent of time (accusative, like place to which), and time within which (ablative, like place from where). **Per** is often used with the accusative, to express the time within which something happened, as well as simply the passage of time. **In** is used with the ablative for a point in time, as in **bis in die** on your prescription – twice per day. You will only have to recognize expressions of space or time, not create them, and keep in mind that a preposition may not be present, as one always must be in English. This is just one more reason to make every effort to get a sensitivity for what the cases mean. It helps to realize that the accusative and ablative carry all the load in this respect. The genitive and dative don't do this kind of work, except rarely in poetry when places seem to be personified.

Learning the gender and endings of a noun, or what case is used with a preposition,

makes Latin seem hard to learn. Just as in English, a Latin speaker does not have to remember memorized things when communicating. The trick is that certain words just go together and sound right, and one works by analogy. The best way to take advantage of this is to remember phrases that stick in the mind. For example, you probably know the word *antebellum*, and now you recognize the Latin words **ante** and **bellum**. The case must be accusative (neuters always have accusative like nominative, and prepositions are not used with nominatives), so ante is used with the accusative, and **bellum** is neuter second declension. You may also remember *pro bono*, which tells you that **bonum** is second declension, and that **pro** is used with either dative or ablative, probably ablative. Now **pro bello** should come naturally, as should **ante bonum**. So, it would be better to remember words as used together than vocabulary lists!

Just as an adjective modifes a noun, an adverb modifies a verb or adjective. **Ante** and **post** can be used in this way without a case in the vicinity. More is **magis** (or plus), less is **minus**. Too much is **nimis**, enough is **satis**. Well is **bene**, badly is **male** (two syllables). **Alias** means at other times, and **alibi** means at another place; these will be familiar from your wanted posters. **Passim** means everywhere. **Certe** means surely, and can be used for "yes." Adverbs are like ants, numerous and crawling everywhere! They help to make language vivid and expressive, and are dead easy to use. Prepositions started life as adverbs, and sometimes they revert in their careless moments. The neuter singular accusative of an adjective is often used as an adverb, often in an archaic form, such as **paulatim**, little by little; **statim**, at once; **multum**, much; **paulum**, a little; **nimium**, too much; **facile**, easily; **dulce**, sweetly; **clam**, secretly; **palam**, openly.

A conjunction joins two small thoughts into one big floppy one. "And" can be expressed in Latin by **et**, but **atque**, **ac** and the suffix -**que** should be used when possible. **et** is used to connect equally important thoughts, and can mean "also" or "too", and begin a sentence as well. **Atque** is used to introduce a more important thought, ac a less important. In a series of nouns, one can also add -**que** to the second one, as in **puellae taurique** - girls and bulls. SPQR meant **Senatus Populus Que Romanus** - the senate and people of Rome. **Et** (something) **et** (something else) means "both (something) and (something else)." Or is **aut**, and **aut** (something) **aut** (something else) means "either (something) or (something else), but not both." **Vel … vel** means almost the same thing, implying that you can choose one or the other. These are all called *coordinating* conjunctions, since they join independent

clauses (an independent clause is one that makes a sentence all by itself). **Item** means "besides" or "also". Lists used to be written: knife, item blanket, item rope, and so on, and this was so common that each item became known as an item. "But" is **sed**, as in **is** (he) **puellam amat**, **sed ego eam non amo**. He loves the girl, but I do not love her. The pronouns **is**, **ego**, **eam** will be discussed in more detail later. **Is** and **ego** are used here for emphasis and to make a contrast; they are not necessary.

I just used the technical term *clause*. This means a bunch of words expressing a thought with a subject and predicate, which must contain some kind of verb, very loosely defined (infinitives and participles count - anything that can have a subject or an object). A simple sentence is a clause, but a clause may not be a sentence. "Seeing the bear" is a clause. "Seeing the bear and climbing the tree" is two independent clauses joined by a coordinating conjunction. If you said "Seeing the bear, I climbed the tree," the two clauses make a sentence. In this case, seeing the bear is grammatically the *dependent* clause, and I climbed the tree the *independent* clause, though the climbing the tree was surely dependent on seeing the bear, in fact, if not in grammar. Dependent clauses are usually introduced by *subordinating* conjunctions, that we will have to take time to introduce later, since they have funny effects on the verbs. Our example in Latin reads **Videns ursum**, **arborem ascendi**, which you can probably figure out. **Videns** is a participle (seeing), and **ascendi** is the perfect tense of **ascendo**, **ascendere**, meaning "I ascended."

Today's quote is from Juvenal: **lucri bonus est odor ex re qualibet**. **Re** is from **res**, **rei** (thing), a word we will have to know, and will take up later. **Qualibet** is an adjective modifying **re** meaning whatever. Can you guess what **lucri** and **odor** are from their English relatives? Identify the cases, and translate the phrase.

Lesson VI : Review and Pronunciation (Sallust)

Review and Pronunciation :: *A time to look back*

When you study a lesson thoroughly, your mind files the information away in a safe place. Only part of the job of learning has been done, however. You must wear a path to the information so that you can retrieve it when necessary. This can only be done by continual review. Studying "harder" does not help. It is amazing how blank the mind can become if you just learn and leave. The good news is that the learning is still there somewhere, and you can recover it by review. So, you never waste your time studying, but it is only half the job, though the harder half. Constant review is also required, and review is easy.

We have learned something about inflecting the major parts of speech, verbs and nouns. Verbs are conjugated to show person, number and tense. Nouns are declined to show gender, number and case. We have met the first (-a-) and second (-o-) declensions, and the present, future and imperfect tenses of the first (-a-) conjugation, as well as of the irregular verbs **sum** and **eo**. We know how to make nouns and adjectives agree in gender, number and case. We have found how prepositions help cases to express exact meanings, and how adverbs can sharpen the meanings of verbs. So, you see, you are well on the way to learning Latin!

Words are important , and you have already met over 80 Latin words, some of which are listed here. For each word, give its meaning, identify the part of speech that it is, and write out its inflection, if it has one. This is much more pleasant work than calisthenics, and will do you more good. For nouns, give the gender. Words marked with an ' are third declension, and only the form appearing in the lessons needs to be known.

The words are: **flamma**, **fumus**, **proximus**, **aqua**, **puella**, **forma**, **agricola**, **nauta**,

poeta, insula, mamma, pustula, lingua, margarita, offa, porcus, taurus, ursus, lupus, cervus, male, alias, passim, certe, et, atque, ac, aut, vel, lucrum, odor', olla, res', nunc, ante, bonus, malus, bellum, factum, fatum, virus, puer, ager, pulcher, magnus, parvus, laus', cum, e, ex, in, satis, bene, sum, eo, amo, do, sto, fraudo, tempto, nato, postulo, basio, purgo, sub, super, a, ab, post, sine, magis, minus, plus, nimis, pumex', delictum, alibi, flagro, culter, neco, vir, sed, vagina, ad, item, montanus, qualibet, and femina.

Review the phrases or quotes from each lesson. These are the only things you need to memorize, and even then only if it will be fun. Try them on your associates. Be sure to review the uses of the cases that we have met so far in actual sentences.

A little more about pronunciation and writing is now appropriate. It is all right to pronounce Latin as English, but there are no silent letters in Latin, which is quite phonetic in its spelling. You will then sound like a lawyer. You can also pronounce it like Italian, with ch's and soft g's, and sound like a priest. A good, educated pronunciation to use is one that is close to the way Latin was spoken in classical times. Make "c" and "g" always hard; that is, c is a k, and a g is a g, and they are not softened before i or e, as in Italian or English. The letter "u" (originally written V, as in Clavdivs) had two pronunciations: as a vowel, "oo;" as a consonant, "w". Consonantal u is now written v, and has been distinguished from u since medieval times. It is now pronounced with the lower lip and upper teeth, too. Nevertheless, Caesar said weni, weedy, weeky [**veni, vidi, vici**]. The "i" also has vowel and consonantal sounds, with the consonantal i pronounced y. Here j is sometimes written instead of i, but that is medieval too. The vowels were pronounced as in Spanish, but in short and long varieties that may have sounded differently. "ae" was pronounced aye, but tended to ee in rural areas. "Oe" is pronounced oi. The combination "gn" was just g and n, not ñ as it is in Italian. The ti combination was just t and i, not sh. It is nice to trill r's lightly. The s's never sounded like z's. The fricative h became weaker and weaker as time passed, and c's before e and i changed its sound, but these are all post-classical developments. Where the hard c was to be retained, che and chi were used.

Latin spelling is remarkably regular, perhaps because copyists corrected spelling they considered in error. They also sometimes corrected grammar, causing great difficulty for later scholars, and much discussion of what were correct texts. There were no dictionaries until recent times, just lists of hard or unusual words, or bilingual lexicons. In English, Dr. Johnson's dictionary of 1755 was the first really

comprehensive one, with etymologies and examples of use, and good enough to stand as an authority. Enough Latin spelling was accurately preserved to show us how it developed, often reflecting changes in pronunciation. The -bt- combination became -pt- (as in **scribtum** to **scriptum** - written), and -nm- became -mm- (as in **inmeritus** to **immeritus** - unworthy). **Adcredo** became **accredo** (give credence to). An n or an m ending a syllable mainly nasalised the vowel, and was weakly pronounced. An n before an s, as in **consul** tended to drop out in careless speech. The pronunciation at Rome tended to be more precise. The country accents are what have been preserved. There are other examples that are easily recognized. Latin dictionaries may indicate where this has happened. These changes were well under way by the first century. As the rural pronunciations of ae as e rather than ai, and of oe as e rather than oi replaced the urban ones, the a and the o were often omitted, as in **prebeo** from **praebeo** (offer). This change was medieval, and is generally not adopted in dictionaries of classical Latin. We have already mentioned the introduction of j and v in place of the earlier i and u; this substitution is always made in legal and church Latin, and in other medieval connotations. The v is tolerated in writing classical Latin because it is so useful. Greek had a v sound but no b sound, while Latin was just the opposite. As the two languages became closely intertwined, a confusion arose over the sounds, which still echoes in Spanish. In Spain both b and v are pronounced like a b, but language authorities claim this is just a traditional lack of distinction, and retain the original spellings. Of all the so-called romance languages, Spanish best preserves the Latin habits of speech, deeply modified by the inability of the Goths to pronounce f's and palatals, which gives us hijo for **filius**, and hablar for **fabulare**.

Many Latin words were taken from Greek, and they can often be recognized by the use of the letters ch, y and z. Y and z were added to the end of the alphabet just to spell Greek words. Ch represents χ, but usually pronounced as c, y represents υ, and z stands for ζ. After the second century BC, Greek and Roman culture were indistinguishable, and all educated Romans knew Greek.

How the letters were written down doesn't affect the language. Our capital letters are identical with the forms used in monumental inscriptions, except that U is now used instead of V, and J, W have been added in the same style. Temporary notes were taken on erasable wax tablets with a stylus. Two tablets were hinged together so they could be closed to protect the writing. The term diploma (from Greek) comes from this. Letters were usually written on tablets. Published books were written on papyrus with India ink. The pages were glued at the edges and rolled, or later bound in codexes

which are like our books. The writing evolved from capital letters through letters that were quicker to form with a pen, eventually leading to letters that gave rise to our lower case. Abbreviations for common words were frequent, often signaled by a flowing line above initials that somehow evolved into the tilde used with the ñ. Connected handwriting is a very late development. Around the third century, parchment from sheep skin began to replace papyrus for permanent writing. It was much more durable, but also much more expensive. Old writing on papyrus was not preserved, except in the most extraordinary cases, so we do not accurately know how the actual writing was done in classical times.

Sallust quotes the proverb **faber est quisque fortunae suae**. **Faber, fabri** is a builder, **suus**, **-a**, **-um** is his or hers, and **quisque** means "whoever." Can you understand it? Which words go together?

Lesson VII : Third Declension (Terence)

Third Declension :: *The third declension is the big one*

The first declension was brought to you by the letter "a," which was usually visible. The second was sponsored by the letter "o," which was not. The "o" was absorbed by the endings except in things like **puero** or **puerorum**. The other 21 letters give you the third declension, which gives an idea of its importance. Some people assert that the letter "u" gives the fourth declension, and "e" the fifth, but this is superfluous for our purposes. For us, these will be just special cases of the third declension, as they really are.

laus, laudis (f)

case	singular	plural
nom	laus	laudes
gen	laudis	laudum
dat	laudi	laudibus
acc	laudem	laudes
abl	laude	laudibus

You've already seen the word **laus** (praise) in the case **laude** (ablative). It is a habit of the third declension for the real stem not to be obvious in the nominative singular, but to appear in the genitive and everywhere else. So we usually remember a word as, for example, **laus, laudis** so we know the stem. Your job is only to recognize a case, not form it, and you will find this easy. **Laus** is declined in the table. What does **laus Deo** mean? Decline **fraus, fraudis** (fraud, feminine) We have already used **pumex**, **pumicis** (pumice) which happens to be hermaphroditic - you can make it

either masculine or feminine. **Canis**, **canis** (dog) can also be masculine or feminine; it depends on the dog.

The nominative singular typically ends in s, often in the form of x. The -um is genitive plural (compare -**arum** and -**orum**), and the very memorable -**ibus** is dative and ablative plural. Decline **pes**, **pedis** (foot). This gives us the useful case **pedibus**, meaning on or by foot. When somebody asks you how you came, reply in Latin: **pedibus**! The ablative case by itself, without any preposition, tells how or with what something was done. How would you say: the man kills the bear with a knife? Answer: **vir ursum cultro necit**. The fact that **culter** is there in the ablative says that it was used for the deed.

One very useful class of feminine nouns ends in -**io**, -**ionis**. For example, **natio**, **nationis** (birth). This is a special case of nouns ending in -o, which are masculine unless they end in -io, -do, or -go, however: try **leo, leonis** (lion), or **homo, hominis** (human being), which are masculine. **Homo** doesn't mean a male specifically; it is used when sex is not an issue. **Mulier**, **mulieris** (f) is the feminine counterpart of **vir, viri**, which do mean "woman" and "man". There are many variations and exceptions in the third declension, but recognition of the case is usually not too difficult. For example, **titio, titionis** (firebrand) is masculine, not feminine as you might expect. You might find this word amusing to use.

mare, **maris (n)**

case	singular	plural
nom	mare	maria
gen	maris	marum
dat	mari	maribus
acc	mare	maria
abl	mari	maribus

Remembering that neuter nouns are the same in nominative and accusative, and that the nominative plural ends in -a, decline **nomen**, **nominis** (name). **Opus, operis** (work) is another neuter. The ending -us is often third or fourth declension, not second; this is why you have to recall the genitive. **Opera, -ae** (f) means pains, effort, exertion, work, leisure, help, workman. **Operae** (plural) can be a gang or a hired mob. This is the kind of opera you go to, not an opus. An **onus, oneris** is a load or burden,

and has become an English word. The word **mare**, **maris** (sea) is declined as in the table. Note that the genitive plural is not **marium**, though the ablative singular is **mari**. Actually, the genitive plural is found in only one place in poetry, where the -i- may have been omitted just to suit the metre. Poets are allowed to do things like this. If you have a need for the word, you might as well use the regular **marium**, as Romans probably did.

There is a rule, not a very strict one, that nouns with the same number of syllables in nominative and genitive have -ium in the genitive plural, while those that have an additional syllable in the genitive have -um. **collis**, **collis** (m, hill), for example, has **collium**. **canis**, **canis** (m, dog), **panis**, **panis** (m, bread), however, have -um. **animal**, **animalis** (n, living being) is just like **mare, except that it has -ium. Confusing? Sometimes even Romans didn't know whether to use -um or -ium! All these nouns can be considered as having a stem ending in -i, which is why "i" is so popular with them. Note also that the ablative singular ends in -i, not -e, for such nouns. The nouns in -is, -is, which are numerous, are never neuter.

felix, **felix**

	singular		plural	
case	**m&f**	**neut**	**m&f**	**neut**
nom	felix	felix	felices	felicia
gen	felicis	felicis	felicium	felicium
dat	felici	felici	felicibus	felicibus
acc	felicem	felix	felices	felicia
abl	felici	felici	felicibus	felicibus

This new class of endings can be applied to adjectives, as well. Happily, the masculine and feminine endings are the same (there is no alternative!), and the neuter only differs in the nominative and accusative. Take **felix**, **felix** as an example. Its declension is shown in the table. It is called an adjective of one ending. Note that an extra i has sneaked in here and there (this is an -i- stem), but there are really not very many different forms. See if you can decline **fidelis**, **fidele** (faithful). There is no sneaky i in **fidelis**, which is an adjective of two endings.

Try to express **latine** (ablative; "with latin"): the happy (felix) farmer loves the faithful (fidelis) dog. This is: *tama menac meledif aliocirga xileF*. The Latin is written

backwards so you have a chance to make up a sentence without being prompted by the answer.

As they give rise to different declensions in nouns, different stem vowels give rise to different conjugations in verbs. The long e gives us the second conjugation, which is just like the first. Examples are **timeo** (fear), **teneo** (hold), **habeo** (have), **video** (see), **maneo** (remain, stay), **moveo** (move), **debeo** (owe), **doleo** (grieve, suffer), **terreo** (frighten), **augeo** (increase), **doceo** (teach) and **moneo** (warn). Note how many cognates you can find in English to help you remember these verbs! They go **timeo, times, timet**, etc. They all have infinitives ending in -ere where the first e is long, and remains as a short e when the endings are added. They are conjugated like the first conjugation. This is not a very big bunch of words, but it's convenient to introduce them here. Write: the small farmer fears the large bear. *musru mungam temit alocriga suvraP*. Backwards Latin is easy to say, it seems!

Habeo and **teneo** both mean "have, hold", but the first is more figurative, the latter more concrete. **Habeo** is not a helping verb in Latin that can make past tenses when combined with the past participle, nor does it imply necessity or compulsion. There are better ways to say both these things. In Spanish, **teneo** has come to mean "have, hold" while **habeo** is used exclusively as a helping verb, and no longer means to have or hold. In English, "to have" is used in both ways.

Here is a quote from Terence, the early poet and playwright: **auribus teneo lupum**. You may be able to figure this one out with no help; it's not because its so easy, it's because you are already learning some Latin. **Auris**, **auris** (f) is ear, of course. What does the case imply?

Lesson VIII : This, That, and Who (Vergil)

This, That, and Who :: *Introducing pronouns, relative and demonstrative, and comments on word order*

The character in Terence's play was saying that he couldn't let go, or things would get worse; that he was "holding a wolf by the ears." Note the word order. Ears and wolves are the most important things here, so they have gone to the emphatic positions, leaving **teneo** in the middle. In high school Latin, verbs went to the end just as milk is always at the back of the supermarket, in the proper place. This is just not so. Try to appreciate Latin word order: it is a matter of style, not grammar, making the language supple and expressive. There is more about this toward the end of the lesson. The effect of word order comes out dramatically in poetry; there is nothing in English like it. Unfortunately, you will have to learn a lot of Latin before you can appreciate poetry; poetry is far beyond the scope of this introduction.

It is very useful to be able to point things out: this one, that one, this that preceded, this that is to follow, and so forth. In Latin, the most useful words for this are **hic** (this) and **ille** (that). They are adjectives at heart: **hic ursus**, **ille lupus**, but can also be used alone, and then become a new kind of noun, a *pronoun* that only points out, and does not describe. We also look at the relative pronoun here, **qui**, which means who, whom, what, which, and so on, pointing out some thing or person under discussion. Remember that the case of **qui** will depend on its use in its own clause, a requirement often violated in English (as in "the man who he pointed to ran away" or "give this to whomever is worthy"). All three of these words are very useful, and you have no doubt encountered various cases of them in your daily life. Note that the pronoun/adjective **hic** (this) and the adverb **hic** (here) are written the same way.

As card-carrying noun-adjectives, pronouns have a lot of cases. Those for **hic**, **ille**

and **qui** are given in the following tables. By now, you know what is going on, so you should not be dismayed by the size of the tables, and should not start memorizing willy-nilly.

hic, haec, hoc (this)

	singular			plural		
case	**masc**	**fem**	**neut**	**masc**	**fem**	**neut**
nom	hic	haec	hoc	hi	hae	haec
gen	huius	huius	huius	horum	harum	horum
dat	huic	huic	huic	his	his	his
acc	hunc	hanc	boc	hos	has	haec
abl	hoc	hac	hoc	his	his	his

ille, illa, illud (that)

	singular			plural		
case	**masc**	**fem**	**neut**	**masc**	**fem**	**neut**
nom	ille	illa	illud	illi	illae	illa
gen	illius	illius	illius	illorum	illarum	illorum
dat	illi	illi	illi	illis	illis	illis
acc	illum	illam	illud	illos	illas	illa
abl	illo	illa	illo	illis	illis	illis

qui, quae, quod (that, which)

	singular			plural		
case	**masc**	**fem**	**neut**	**masc**	**fem**	**neut**
nom	qui	quae	quod	qui	quae	quae
gen	cuius	cuius	cuius	quorum	quarum	quorum
dat	cui	cui	cui	quibus	quibus	quibus
acc	quem	quam	quod	quos	quas	quae
abl	quo	qua	quo	quibus	quibus	quibus

Note that **quae** is neuter nominative and accusative plural, as well as feminine

nominative singular and plural. The term "quorum" for the required number of members present to allow effective action in a meeting is just the number "of which" – of the total membership. The "status quo" is the state which (existed before the war).

Now you can construct a large number of useful, even complicated, sentences in Latin. For example: **ursus quem vir cultro necabit ibat in illius agricolae agrum**. The bear that the man will kill with a knife is going into that farmer's field. You can see how useful your Latin is going to be while traveling. **Ille** is often used where we would use "the," and gave rise to la, el, le, il, lo, and other words for "the" in modern vernaculars. Greek already had a definite article, that is a great help to students.

There is another word for "that" originally referring to something near the person addressed, **iste**, **ista**, **istud**, declined like **ille**. It lost that connotation, and became a pejorative demonstrative, as in "that contemptible" or "that disgusting" thing or person. **Iste homo mendax (est)** meant "that rogue is a liar."

In most grammars, you will find some rules of Latin word order that you can safely neglect here. They are for the benefit of young scholars who otherwise would use English word order. Word order is subordinate to emphasis and style in Latin and has little effect on meaning. In English, word order determines meaning. In German, word order is prescribed by rule. None of this in Latin! In Latin, the subject generally precedes the predicate, quite logically. Modifiers generally go somewhere near the words they modify. They precede if they are important to the meaning, but follow when incidental, as in **bonus vir**, "the good man," but **domus alba**, "a white house." The White House would be **Alba Domus**. Since there is no definite article in Latin, word order could be a help in expressing an equivalent meaning. Sometimes a noun and its adjective are separated to mark off a group of associated words, making a kind of "sandwich," as is mentioned elsewhere. Endings help to tie them together, something impossible in English. Your guide to word order should be what you observe in classical Latin prose authors.

Genitives often precede, because they are generally limiting. From Vitruvius, ...**sub avis cauda pedes equi sunt subiecti**. –"below the bird's tail the feet of the horse are concealed" – here, both positions are found in the same sentence. Other examples from the same source are **equi ungulae**, **Andromedae pedibus**, **Aquarii genua**, **Cephei manum**, **ab solis impetu**, but also **sub rotam solis**, **sub radios solis**, **ad caput et pectus leonis**. ["hoofs of the horse, to the feet of Andromeda, knees of

Aquarius, hand of Cepheus, from the sun's impetus" and "under the sun's disc, under the rays of the sun, to the head and breast of the lion." Incidentally, what case are **caput** and **pectus**? Their nominative plurals are **capita**, **pectora**.] The English prepositional phrase "of the" is much less vivid than the genitive in either Latin or English. The preceding position is emphatic, the following position is noncommittal. Mere possession is expressed by the dative, not the genitive.

Possibly the most familiar "school rule" is that verbs go to the end of a clause. The slightest familiarity with Latin literature shows that this is not true. After describing a test for the presence of water, Vitruvius says: **Is locus habebit aquam**, "This place will have water." [What the meaning of is is is treated in the next lesson] In such simple transitive sentences, the word order subject-verb-object is as natural in Latin as in English. In simple passive sentences, the verb often either begins the sentence or comes early, preceded only by adverbial modifiers, and is followed by the subject. Infinitives quite often go to the end when they are introduced by a finite verb in the middle of the sentence. In more complicated sentences, or those with long predicates, the verb does indeed gravitate to the end, since this is a position of emphasis. A verb at the end is not lost in the bushes. Where the action of the verb is the main point of the sentence, and a number of reasons and conditions must be established, it is usual to put all this matter first, building up tension and expectation, and then to resolve it by the verb at the end. These are matters of rhetoric, however, not grammar. So, arrange your Latin sentences as seems best to you, considering emphasis and balance, and you will be fine. If you cling to English word order, your Latin will be contorted and clumsy, but will still be Latin. Bad Latin, after all, became a world language in medieval Europe. The Irish wrote the worst Latin of all.

Sometimes two nouns will stand side by side in the same case, such as **Venus dea**, "the goddess Venus." Usually the meaning of one noun (**dea**) contains the other (**Venus**). The nouns are said to be in *apposition*. The words must agree in case, and as far as possible in gender and number. There may be more than two nouns in apposition. This is unlike the use of a noun as an adjective in English, as in "horse feathers" or "house mother." Latin cannot do this; you must alter the describing word to make it an adjective: **pennae equinae** or **mater domestica**.

When Aeneas (in the Aeneid) says to the Sibyl that he wants to visit the underworld, she tells him that it's easy to get there, but hard to get back. In Vergil's words, **hoc opus, hic labor est**. You have just read a scrap of great poetry!

Opus, operis is neuter; **labor, laboris** is masculine. They mean job and difficulty, respectively.

Lesson IX : Questions (Vergil)

Questions :: *How to ask questions, and all about personal pronouns*

The fragment of Vergil (also spelled Virgil) was too short to scan as poetry, but if the **est** were not at the end, it would screw up the poetry, as well as being clumsy. In high school Latin, **est** always went in the middle, where it belonged as a copulative (connecting) verb. In set phrases, verbs like **est** are often omitted. For example: **homo homini lupus**. I will let you figure this one out, since you have all the tools to so. (Cases!) the proverb, from Plautus, is all too true in our mountains.

ï¿½How do you ask questions in Latin? The question mark is a late invention (in Greek it is ";"). In fact, punctuation itself is rather late. First used with Greek, it gradually found its way into Latin, probably by late classical times, and started by separating sentences the way we do now. Earlier, just space was used, and not much of that. Sometimes even words were not separated, just sentences, and later when words were separated, the ends of sentences were not specially distinguished. We really do not know the history of punctuation, since manuscripts are perishable (especially paper ones) and all we have are medieval ones, naturally copied with the punctuation of the time. Monuments do not necessarily show how words were written on papyrus. In Latin, questions are distinguished by question words, interrogatives, and by the intonation of the voice.

"Who or which" is **quis**, and "what" is **quid**. All the other cases are like the relative, **qui**. In fact, "what person?" is expressed **qui homo**. The trick is the relative comes first with nothing to relate. We do this in English, so it should not be hard. You use the masculine forms, since the antecedent is of indefinite sex. "Whose?" is **cuius**, **cuia**, **cuium**. Do you recall that motion is expressed by the ablative? Therefore, **quo** means "where?", or better "whither?". "Why?" is **cur** or **quare**. (i.e. **qua-re**, "by what thing"). "When?" is **quando**. "Where?" is **ubi** or **quo** (case!). "How many?" is **quot**. "How much?" is **quantus**. This you have to decline to agree with the noun, if you use it with a noun. Just "how?" is **quo modo**. (case again! **modus**, **-i** – way). Most

interrogatory words begin with **qu-**, just as such words commonly begin with wh- in English. With all these interrogatives, you are now equipped to be a reporter for a Latin paper.

An ordinary declarative sentence can be made interrogative by adding the particle **-ne** or something similar to this to the word central to the question, normally the verb. When meeting a person in a bar, **estne femina**? might be useful. Or, **habetne cultrum**? Why not? is **quidni**?, a useful phrase to remember.

Nonne is like saying "isn't it?" in English. If you expect a negative answer instead, start the question with **num**. **Num ursus es**? means "You aren't a bear, are you?" Answer–"**Non sum**, No, I'm not!" **Nonne ursa es**? means "You are a bear, aren't you?" Answer–"Growl!" We will take up answering questions in , but it should be said here that Latin had no general words like "yes" and "no." **Ita** (so), **certe** (surely), **vero** (truly), **sic** (thus) and similar give a positive answer and **minime** (leastly), **haud** (by no means) or **immo** (quite the contrary) are negative. **Non** meant **non est**, and was not as general as our "no." Generally, you just repeated a short form of the question as affirming or denying.

The pronouns he, him, she, her, it, they, and them are often needed. In addition to this use, they are weak demonstratives, not as strong as **hic** or **ille**. All the cases are given in the following table. Look over the table so you can recognize these words when you meet them. When used with a noun, they really are a lot like the English the: **is ursus**, **ea puella**, **id nomen**. Used alone, they can emphasize or contrast subjects of verbs, but most often are used as objects of verbs. Note that the forms are almost the same in all genders except in nominative and accusative.

is, ea, id (he, she, it)

	singular			plural		
case	**masc**	**fem**	**neut**	**masc**	**fem**	**neut**
nom	is	ea	id	ii, ei, i	eae	ea
gen	eius	eius	eius	eorum	earum	eorum
dat	ei	ei	ei	iis, eis, is	iis, eis, is	iis, eis, is
acc	eum	eam	id	eos	eas	ea
abl	eo	ea	eo	iis, eis, is	iis, eis, is	iis, eis, is

The first and second person personal pronouns are shown in the table below, as well as the reflexive pronoun (himself, herself, itself). The possessive pronouns and adjectives are: **meus, -a, -um; noster, nostra, nostrum; tuus, -a, -um; vester, vestra, vestrum**. These can either modify nouns or stand alone (like any adjective). They usually follow the noun they modify.

ego, tu

	singular		plural		
case	1	2	1	2	reflex
nom	ego	tu	nos	vos	–
gen	mei	tui	nostri	vestri	sui
dat	mihi	tibi	nobis	vobis	sibi
acc	me	te	nos	vos	se
abl	me	te	nobis	vobis	se

Filus meus, **filia mea** are my son, my daughter. How do you say: "He loves his daughter well."? *tama enib mailif mauS*. Say "They loved their sons well." *tnabama eneb soilif souS*. How about "She loves herself too well?" *tama es simin aE*. The reflexive pronoun does not show gender; that is done by its antecedent.

At the beginning of the Aeneid, Vergil wonders at Juno's anger with the words: **tantaene animis caelestibus irae**?. **Tantus** means how much; **animum** is mind; **caelestis, caeleste** means heavenly; **ira, irae** is wrath. There is no obvious verb, so it is probably an elliptic (omitted) **est** (or **sunt**, here). The case of the middle words is dative, not ablative, and is a new use of the dative for us, possession or reference. (as in that is the leg to the chair). This is a rather *hard* phrase, so I apologize. It is, however, *real* Latin.

Lesson X : Word Transformations (Cicero)

Word Transformations :: *Words can change meaning or become different parts of speech*

Vergil is wondering, "Is there so much wrath in the minds of the gods?" Juno caused the destruction of Troy, and is harassing Aeneas, a Trojan survivor, by bad weather, whom Venus is protecting as well as she can, since she is his mother, after all. Can you write: "This is the boy's knife."? *tse oreup retluc ciH*. You don't use the genitive in situations like this, but the dative of possession. Of course, **pueri culter hic est** means the boy's knife is here, and now the genitive is called for. Try to understand why these use different cases.

So far, we have assigned words to three great classes, verbs, nouns, and other on the basis of their endings. In Latin, as in all other languages, words can move from one class to another by changing endings, and usually with some characteristic change in the stem. We will look at a few of the most important word transformations here.

Words can change meaning by adding prefixes and suffixes to the base word. When an archiac Roman parent asked his son, "Where are you going?" the son might answer "**Ex eo**" - I'm going out. This later became the verb **exeo** (I go out). You probably see this verb every time *you* go out, in the form of "exit" - "it goes out." There is also **ineo** (entrances should be called inits, really), **adeo** (adeste, fideles), **abeo** (leave), **subeo** (which also means go up as well as go under), and **prodeo** (pro-d-eo, advance). **Transeo** is to go over or across. **introeo** is a longer way to say **ineo**. What do you think **coeo** (cum-eo) means?

Prefixes derived from prepositions are often added to verbs, especially verbs of motion or process. **e-** or **ex-** mean "out" in an actual or figurative sense. **e-duco** is "lead out, draw out, raise up, erect, hatch, rear or train young." **per-** is "through," **trans-** is "across," **inter-** is "between." **in-** makes **in-duco**, "bring in, introduce,

seduce, put on (clothing), enter (bookkeeping), erase (writing)." All of these prefixes go nicely with **eo**. Adding a prefix brings out many figurative meanings. Verbs ending in -**esco** express incipience, beginnings, as seen in **cresco, crescere, cresci, crescivi, crescitum**, "arise, appear, be born, thrive, prosper." Also **evanescere**, "vanish" and **famescere**, "become hungry."

Nouns and adjectives can be made by adding suffixes. -**tor** is a doer or agent; -**or** (usually m.) or -**tio** (usually f.) names an action. A state is expressed by -**ia**, -**tia**, -**tudo**, -**tas** (usually f.). -**eus** names a material, -**osus** expresses fullness, and -**bilis** implies possibility. Connection or relation is expressed by -**anus**, -**icus**, -**alis**, -**inus**. A **Romanus** is a person connected with **Roma**. **Martialis**, -**e** means connected with **Mars**, **Martis**. Metathesis gives **maritalis**, -**e**, marital. **Pulchritudo**, **pulchritudinis** is the state of being **pulcher**, -**ra**, -**rum**. English behaves almost like Latin, even using the same or similar prefixes and suffixes, which makes all this easy.

Nouns and adjectives, being closely related, can change into one another practically at will. **Bonas amo** means I love the good (feminine ones). Adjectives freely become nouns this way. However, don't try to change a noun to an adjective this way, unless the dictionary says you can, because there is too much danger of confusion. **Femina** is a woman, but womanly is **femineus**. Making adjectives usually requires some such change. Once you see it done, however, you can do it yourself without first asking permission.

Words can even change class. **Amo** is I love, but what if I wanted to say I love to love? We need to make a noun out of **amo** somehow. The word I want is **amare**, the stem **ama**-, with the characteristic ending -**re**. To have is **habere**, the stem **habe**- and the ending -**re**. The infinitive of **sum** is **esse**, to be. These words are called infinitives, because they deign endings (finitings). Although they are used like nouns, there is really no meaning to cases as applied to them. One of their properties is that they clearly show the stem of the verb, and therefore the conjugation it belongs to. The -a- means first, the long -e- the second. In dictionaries, you will find the long e of the second conjugation marked with a line over it. There are two more conjugations, characterized by short -e- (the third), and -i-, the fourth. The infinitive for **eo** is **ire**, to go. The latter two conjugations do not form the future with -**bi**-, but they still use the -**ba**- for imperfect. Also, the stem varies between short and long e, and i. We will not worry about this at present.

If we need an adjective, loving, the word is **amans**, **amantis**. What would **flagrans**,

flagrantis mean? These are declined just like any third-declension adjective, but show the sneaky i: the neuter plural is **amantia**, **amantium**, **amantibus**, **amantia**, **amantibus**, and the feminine genitive plural also is **amantium**. This is called the present active participle. It is an adjective (never a noun, as loving can be in English!), but can take an object like a verb. **Canem amans** is dog-loving, for example. You probably have heard the legal phrase "**in flagrante delicto**." You know all the words, and cases, and can easily figure out what it means.

In English, "loving," if an adjective ("the loving wife") is called a *participle*, while if a noun ("loving is good") the term is *gerund*. As in all subjects like the present, these terms are only names and have no other significance or content. Use them without concern. In Latin, things are only a little more elaborate. The present active participle is **amans**, **amantis**, while the perfect passive participle is **amatus**, **-a**, **-um**, both of which you know. One refers to a continuing action, the other to a completed action.

To recall the verbal noun, consider the familiar name Amanda. This is an example of a *gerundive*, and means "to be loved." It is not an infinitive, but English, not having a gerundive, has no other way to express the meaning, and as a translation this is somewhat inadequate. It is also not a future participle, whatever some people may say–it is a gerundive, and a noun-adjective, and does not refer to future time, but to a quality. Its structure is **ama-**, the stem for "love,", **-nd-**, the sign of the gerundive, and **-a**, the feminine nominative singular ending. The **-nd-** gives everything away, and this is what you should look for. Its endings are exactly those of a normal first and second declension adjective. **Puella amanda est** means "the girl must (should be, is to be, is worthy of being, etc.) loved." Just remember our friend Amanda.

As another example, the phrase **mutatis mutandis** should be familiar. The case is ablative, and it is an ablative absolute (See lesson 17) which expresses a condition independently of the rest of the sentence. **Mutatis** is a past passive participle, meaning "changed." **Mutandis** can be recognized from the **-nd-** as a gerundive, meaning "(things) to be changed." It all means "the things to be changed having been changed," which you recognize. Cato the Elder's warlike **Delenda est Cartago** –Carthage must be destroyed– is another example (**deleo, delere**, 2nd conjugation). The comforting **nil desperandum** –nothing is hopeless– also uses a gerundive (**nil = nihil**, "nothing"). **Desperandum** is from **despero, desperare** (to be hopeless, to despair). The gerundive is very useful, and easy to use or recognize as well.

You know that every noun-adjective can be used as a noun-substantive, and the

gerundive is no exception. The corresponding noun is called the *gerund*, and refers to the action of the verb as an abstract concept. The **-nd-** gives the thing away here as well. The gerund is essentially active, while the gerundive was essentially passive, a subtle but comprehensible difference. The only curiosity is that in the nominative and accusative, the infinitive is used instead of the gerund. **Puer studiosus est legendi** means "the boy is zealous of reading," with the gerund in the genitive after **studiosus**, "zealous." But, **Puer cupit legere** says "the boy wants to read," and the case is accusative, so the infinitive is used. As in Latin, we do not say "the boy wants reading." **cupo**, **cupere** (want, desire) is third conjugation. Note how the meaning is active here, going out from the boy rather than towards him. The joy of loving is **gaudium amandi** (genitive); without loving is **sine amando** (ablative).

Cicero said: **docto homini et erudito vivere est cogitare**. **Doctus** is "educated" and the other words can be recognized by English cognates. What did Cicero say? The two infinitives are both nominatives, connected by the *copula* **est**.

Today's phrase is also from Cicero, and is easy: **occultae inimicitiae magis timendae sunt quam apertae**. Most of the words can be figured out from their English relatives: occult, inimical, timorous, aperture. **Quam** means than (not part of **qui** in this case). Cases?

Lesson XI : Passive Thoughts (Caesar)

Passive Thoughts :: *We meet a new voice, the passive, as well as the perfect tense and the principal parts of a verb*

"Hidden hostilities are more to be feared than open ones," is what Cicero was saying. All the nouns are nominative plural, and first declension. The action here is passive, the hostilities, which are the subject of the sentence, are not fearing, they are being feared. In English, the passive is a feeble construction whose use is discouraged. In Latin, it is vigorous and is widely used.

The word **inimicitia** was used in the phrase. **Amicus**, **-i** or **amica**, **-ae** are words for friend, which you may recognized already. If **inimicitiae** are unfriendly things, what would friendly things be? Eaiticima, of course! The prefix in- can negate, but it can also mean movement in, which can cause confusion (inflammable - goes into flame; inedible - cannot be eaten). This has given rise to the silly word "flammable."

An **inimicus**, **-i** is a personal enemy, while a **hostis**, **-is** is an individual enemy in warfare. The plural (with a plural verb) **hostes** means "the enemy" in mass. Some words have a totally different meaning in the plural than in the singular, and are called *heterologs*. **Castrum is a fort, while ****castra** is a camp. **Auxilium** is help, but **auxilia** are reinforcements. **Cera** is wax, but **cerae** are wax tablets (used for writing). **Impedimentum** is a hindrance, but **impedimenta** are baggage. **Littera** is a letter of the alphabet, but **litterae** is a letter. **Aqua** is water, but **aquae** is a mineral spring. All these words take plural verbs. Be on the lookout for such special meanings of plurals. Words having only plural forms, like **moenia**, **-ium** (town walls) are called *pluralia tantum*. The plurals of some words have distinctive meanings, like **castra**, (camp). The verb generally agrees in number with the grammatical number of its subject.

amo, **Present Passive Indicative**

number	singular	plural
1	amor	amamur
2	amaris	amamini
3	amatur	amantur

The passive is another *voice* of the verb, like the active we have used so far. It is recognized by a different set of endings, which are seen in the table on the right. The meanings are I am loved, you are loved, and so forth. Future is **amabor**, **amaberis**, **amabitur**, etc., and imperfect is **amabar**, **amabaris**, **amabatur**, etc. The second conjugation looks the same. The perfect passive participle is **amatus**, meaning loved. Such participles are very commonly used, and describe objects that have been put into certain states by verbal actions. **Deletus**, -a, -um means destroyed. **Divisus**, -a, -um means divided. These participles are rather easy to recognize, and very useful. **Amatus sum** means "I have been loved." "I am loved" is **amor**.

amo, **Perfect Active Indicative**

number	singular	plural
1	amavi	amavimus
2	amavisti	amavistis
3	amavit	amaverunt

The principal parts of a verb are four inflected forms that give the key to all other inflections. For **amo**, the ones usually given are: **amo**, **amare**, **amavi**, **amatus**. You are now acquainted with three of the four, and we might as well mention the remaining one, the third. It is the first person singular of the perfect active tense, saying I have loved, or simply I loved, in distinction to the imperfect tense, which says I was loving. The perfect tense specifies either a completed action in the past, or one which, having been completed, has effects continuing into the present. Therefore, it is really two tenses in one (which are different tenses in Greek). It is, of course, the most used past tense. The first conjugation regularly inserts the sign -**v**- and uses a new set of endings, as seen in the table on the left. An alternative form for the third person plural is **amavere**, which is often used and means the same thing. The

perfect system of tenses consists of the perfect ("I did"), the pluperfect ("I had done") and the future perfect ("I shall have done"). Of these, the perfect is by far the most commonly used. In the active voice, they have characteristic endings, which will be given in Lesson XIV. The perfect stem is always obtained from the third principal part, by dropping the -i, just as the present stem is obtained from the infinitive by dropping the -re.

The perfect passive tenses don't have special endings; these vanished long before classical Latin. Now we say **amatus sum**, **amatus es**, **amatus est**, and so on, somewhat as in English (but with **sum** rather than **habeo**). This is an example of *periphrasis*, or talking around, where other words are used in place of earlier simplicity. Our English passive is completely periphrastic, which is what makes it so weak. For the pluperfect ("had been"), **eram, eras, erat, eramus, eratis, erant** is used, and for the future perfect ("will have been"), **ero, eris, erit, erimus, eritis, erunt** is the helper. We get to review the present, imperfect and future of **sum** at this point as an additional benefit.

To make the passive infinitive, just change the final **e** to an **i**. Thus, **amari amo** is I love to be loved. **Moneri** is to be warned, **timeri** is to be feared.

Our phrase for this lesson is from Caesar: **Gallia est omnis divisa in partes tres**, **quarum unam incolunt Belgae, aliam Aquitani, tertiam qui ipsorum lingua Celtae, nostra Galli appellantur**. The only new words here that are not obvious are: **incolo, incolere** (short e: 3rd conjugation) "inhabit"; **alius, -a, - um** "other"; **ipsius, ipsa, ipsum** "own"; **noster, nostra, nostrum** "our". **Appello, appellare** means "call", of course. This is the complete first sentence of The Gallic War, of which the first part is a familiar quote. Work out the cases! What case are **lingua** and **nostra**?

If your knowledge of Caius Julius Caesar (100-44 BC) comes from Hollywood or TV, you have a surprise in store for you. CJC was a lawyer all his life, an expert in public accounts, a defender of the common people, and contemptible to Cicero and Cato for his humanity and clemency. He was extremely intelligent, very well educated, a remarkable orator and writer, and personally attractive. He did not murder people or have people murdered. Cicero himself was safe as long as Caesar lived, though a bitter enemy. Cicero survived Caesar only a short time. Caesar had early compulsory military service in which he saw action in Spartacus' Rebellion, but then took the toga until late middle age, when he was suddenly thrust into military command, starting with the events of this book. Though inexperienced, his intelligence and clemency

made his military leadership as dangerous to his antagonists as his tongue and pen were, and he began the struggle to complete the liberation of the common people and to wrest power from the Roman aristocracy, in which he saw himself as emulating Marius, who began the process a hundred years earlier. Something had to be done to protect the people in the widening sphere of Roman influence from the avarice of the elite of the city. He was on the verge of success when he was murdered in the Senate by the aristocrats. To the common people, it was like the murder of Abraham Lincoln to the Americans long afterwards, and they thought that the comet of that year was his soul ascending to heaven. Largely due to the common people and allies in the larger commonwealth, Octavianus won the subsequent bitter civil war, but the larger conflict was not resolved, and only a balance of power, not a consensus, was the result. However, the absolute power of the aristocracy was forever broken as long as there was a **princeps**, whom we call an emperor. The actual title **imperator** was only a military courtesy title, like "general." The Roman Republic was not a republic in the later sense, but had become rule by hereditary aristocrats; their freedom was only the freedom to oppress.

Lesson XII : Review and Deponents (Cicero)

Review and Deponents :: *Suggestions on useful study and review, plus deponent verbs and objects in any case*

Caesar said: "Gaul as a whole is divided into three parts, of which the Belgians inhabit one, the Aquitanians another, and the third those called in their own language Celts, in ours Gauls." The Helvetii were about to march westward and take what land they wanted, and the people about to be marched through appealed to the Senate for help. The Senate sent Caesar, partly just to get him out of town, but Caesar seized the opportunity to gain military influence to counter that of Pompey's.

Since Lesson VI, we have met 71 new words, of which a list is given below. The way that vocabulary should be handled when learning a language is to spend a little time on a word when first encountering it. Write it down, look at its meanings, rehearse its endings, find cognates in English, and use it once or twice. This should get the word out of short-term memory into more permanent storage in your mind. Now what you must do is to establish links to the word, by seeing it again, over and over. Here we do this at the Review lessons. Our aim is to build up links from Latin words to our word-understanding facility. This can be done by linking, say, **ursus** to bear and bear to a large smelly dangerous animal. It is better to link **ursus** directly to the concept of bear, without the intermediary of the English word. This will come naturally, but should be consciously helped. When you have only seen a word once and have studied it a little, it will, of course, vanish from your conscious memory in a short time. It is still there, however. Your mind has simply forgotten the links (it must do this, or your mind would become hopelessly tangled). The link is strengthened when you look the word up. After a few times, you will know the word.

A school pupil will memorize a vocabulary list, a very boring and useless activity,

to pass a test a day or so later. This only links words to each other in the list (like learning the words to a song, or poetry), and so is totally useless for anything other than school. Such 'knowledge' is very rapidly forgotten. As Albert Einstein said, "Knowledge is that which remains when you have forgotten everything you learned in school."

The new words are: **faber, suus, quisque, fraus, canis, pes, natio, leo, homo, nomen**, felix, **fidelis, timeo, moneo, auris**, hic, **ille**, qui, **mulier, onus, opus, opera, labor, quis, quid, cuius, quo, cur, quare, quando, ubi, quot, quantus, modus, quidni, tantus, anumum, caelestis, ira, exeo, ineo, adeo, abeo, subeo, prodeo, transeo, coeo, femineus, amare, habere, esse, ire, amans, flagrans, amandus, delendus, deleo, occultus, inimicitia, magis, apertus, quam, amicitia, amatus, deletus, divisus, Gallia, omnis, pars, incolere, alius, ipsius, noster, appellare**.

Recall meaning, part of speech, inflections, relations to other words, English cognates, and so forth, for each word.

Review the uses of cases. As you know, I think this is the most important part of learning Latin, and something you may find interesting. Cases are not just decoration, or something superfluous, but are at the heart of the language. We use exactly the same thing in our language, but have practically no inflection, so case must be inferred from prepositions and word order, which is much less efficient than inflection. Western European languages that were created by a Latin-speaking population for various reasons (and this includes English and German) avoided noun (and much verb) inflection because it was difficult to teach to adults as a second language. Modern German has retained cases in a strange Greek-like way where the article bears the case, and inflections of the noun are rudimentary.

Let's consider bear-killing as an example. **Ursus necatur** means the bear is killed, as we gather from the last lesson. If we want to tell how the deed was done, we might say "the bear is killed with a knife." This is **ursus cultro necatur**, as you know, since ablative is used for instrument or means. But suppose we want to tell who is doing the deed: "the bear is killed by the mountain man." The Latin is: **ursus ab montano viro necatur**. The new word **montanus, -a, -um** means pertaining to mountains. A **montanus** is a dweller in the mountains, and a mountain wanderer is a **montivagus. Mons, montis** (masculine) is a mountain. Note that the case was not enough; it was strengthened by a preposition (but still ablative). The mountain man is an *agent*, while the knife is a mere inanimate *instrument*. Both could appear in the

same sentence: **ursus ab montano viro cultro necatur**. Without the **ab**, the sentence could be construed "the bear was killed by the knife with a mountain man," not what was intended. Of course, reason would sort it out, but the preposition was probably added to make things like this clear. I personally do not approve of killing bears, but mountain men found them unpleasant and dangerous, with no compunction about killing mountain men.

We know the dative is used for the indirect object when a direct object in the accusative is present, and it is also used to show possession: **culter puero est**, the knife is the boy's. The dative generally shows participation in the action of the verb by something other than the subject and object. In English, consider the sentences: I hear him, and I listen to him. In the first case, him is a direct object (however illogical this may be in fact) and would be accusative in Latin. In the second case, him is dative, shown by the preposition. Latin does this as well, but not with the same verbs and not with a preposition. In grammatical terms, *transitive* verbs take the accusative, and *intransitive* verbs the dative. The distinction between transitive and intransitive is very important, affecting the whole thought of a sentence.

credo, credere (believe)

number	singular	plural
1	credo	credimus
2	credis	creditis
3	credit	credunt

audio, audire (hear)

number	singular	plural
1	audio	audimus
2	audis	auditis
3	audit	audiunt

An important example is presented by the verb **credo**, **credere** (3rd conjugation, believe), whose present tense is shown at the left. I believe the girl is: **puellae credo** (I believe to the girl) not **puellam credo**. *What* you believe is in the accusative, *who* you believe is in the dative. **Asculto**, **ascultare** (1st conjugation, listen) also

takes the dative: **vir mihi asculta** is the man listens to me (just as in English). We already know how **ego** and **tu** are declined. **Audio**, **audire** (4th conjugation, hear) is conjugated on the right. The man hears me is: **vir me audit** (not dative! Again, just as in English). **Subvenio**, **subvenire** (4th conjugation, aid) takes the dative, but the transitive **adiuvo**, **adiuvare**, **adiuvi**, **adiutus** (1st conjugation, help), takes the accusative: **puella me adiuvit**, or **puella mihi subvenit**, is "the girl helped me." In later Latin, **adiuvo** is spelled with -j- instead of -i-, which here is consonantal, with a "y" sound. **Subvenio** means to "come beneath" to support, and gives us the word "subvention" for a subsidy. Many verbs are naturally intransitive because they do not logically express an action on something, but make a statement about the subject of the verb. In Latin, such verbs are often conjugated with the passive endings rather than the active endings, but still have a meaning that, in English, appears active. The forms with active endings simply are not used. Such verbs are called *deponent*, or "laying down" because they have abandoned their active forms. A passive meaning is usually illogical for these verbs, so they cannot be called *reflexive*, or acting on the subject. These verbs are remnants of the *middle voice*, which lived on in Greek. For example, consider "to use," as in "to use a knife." Expressed this way, knife looks like a direct object. If you rephrase the sentence to "I make use of a knife," which is more closely what you mean, the knife appears more in its true role as an agent, not the thing acted upon. In Latin, we have **cultro utor. Utor**, **uti**, **usus sum** is use, or make use of. If it were not deponent, you might expect **uto**, **utere**, **usus** with the accusative, but you don't get this. **Loquor**, **loqui** (say, express oneself) can even take an accusative: **hoc loquor**, "I say this." **Sequor**, **sequi** (follow, accompany) is similar, taking accusative instead of the probably expected dative. **Me sequere** is "follow me." The passive ancestry of these verbs has been totally forgotten. Deponent verbs can take "objects" in any case except the nominative. **Puerorum misereor** means "I pity the boys (I feel-pity of the boys)." So, we have just seen the ablative, accusative, and genitive used as the object of a verb; below we see the dative. You have to be ready for anything in Latin. Deponents usually have only three principal parts, since there is no perfect stem to worry about.

Let's look at a sentence from Cicero: **moderari et animo et orationi**, **est non mediocris ingenii**. **Moderari** means to set limits or bounds (for oneself); **moderor** is "I set limits", a deponent verb. **Animus**, **-i** (m) is "spirit" or "temper", **oratio**, **-onis** (f) is "speech", and they are the dative objects ("dative of respect") of the deponent verb. **Mediocris**, **-e** you will have no trouble with, and **ingenium**, **-i** is talent or ability.

Lesson XIII : More Nouns (US Money)

Noun Essentials :: *More things that are useful to know about nouns, including the fourth and fifth declensions*

Cicero said: "To put bounds to both temper and language is a work of no mean ability." **Mediocris ingenii** are in the genitive, modifying the noun-like infinitive **moderari**. **Non** modifies **mediocris** (not **est**). **Animo** and **orationi** are dative objects of the infinitive, as mentioned in the last lesson.

There are some words that appear so often that special attention should be given to them. Two examples are **dies**, **diei** (day) and **res**, **rei** (thing). These appear in many legal phrases, as well as being just generally useful. Both belong to the so-called fifth declension, with stem vowel -e-, but this is not very useful knowledge.

dies, diei (m, day)

case	singular	plural
nom	dies	dies
gen	diei	dierum
dat	diei	diebus
acc	diem	dies
abl	die	diebus

Most fifth-declension nouns are feminine, and even **die** can be feminine when referring to some definite day in the singular. Many have first-declension parallel forms. When this happens, the fifth-declension forms are seen only in nominative, genitive and ablative singular.

res, **rei (f, thing)**

case	singular	plural
nom	res	res
gen	rei	rerum
dat	rei	rebus
acc	rem	res
abl	re	rebus

Dies and **res**, and compound words derived from them, are the only important fifth-declension nouns, and they are very important. **Dies** is, unusually, masculine. We can have lots of fun with these two words. What is a "rebus" in English? A sentence spelled out *with things* instead of letters. How about **ante meridiem** (a.m.) and **post meridiem** (p.m.)? A court proceeding dismissed **sine die**? What is **dies irae**? You may have heard of Lucretius' famous work *De rerum natura.* **De** (with abl.) means "concerning," not "from," as in Spanish. Appreciate the cases! It is the "nature of things," not the "things of nature." The **res publicae** were the "public things", later the "republic". **Res ipsa loquitur** involves a deponent, **loquor**, (speak). **Res ipsa** is the subject: "the thing itself." **Loquor, loqui** is third conjugation (**loqui** is used instead of **loqueri**): **loquor, loqueris, loquitur,** etc. I spoke is **locutus sum**. Many fifth-declension nouns also have a first declension form, which is used instead except in the nominative, accusative and ablative singular, which always have fifth-declension forms.

fructus, -us (m, fruit)

case	singular	plural
nom	fructus	fructus
gen	fructus	fructuum
dat	fructui	fructibus
acc	fructum	fructus
abl	fructu	fructibus

There is also a fourth declension, for which the stem vowel is **-u-**. The words all have two or more syllables, and are usually masculine or neuter. (Single-syllable words with stem vowel u are indistinguishable from the third declension.) Unlike the fifth,

the fourth declension is rather popular. The nominative singular of the masculine nouns end in **-us**, which should not be taken as second declension. An example is **fructus** (fruit), whose declension is shown in the table. Among the many endings in -**us**, all but the nominative singular have a long vowel. There are also neuter nouns ending in -**us**, but they are third declension, not fourth (e.g., **opus**).

<div align="center">

cornu, -us (n, horn)

case	singular	plural
nom	cornu	cornua
gen	cornus	cornuum
dat	cornu	cornibus
acc	cornu	cornua
abl	cornu	cornibus

</div>

Neuter fourth-declension nouns, like **cornu, cornus** (horn), are similar except that the nominative and accusative plural are **cornua**, and the dative singular drops the i (as sometimes all fourth-declension nouns do). Remember that the nominative and accusative of neuter nouns are always the same, and the plurals end in -**a**. The declension is shown in the table. The word **domus, domus** (home) had various case forms at different times. Classically, it was declined like **fructus**, except that the ablative singular was **domo**, and there was a special locative form, **domi**, meaning "at home," though **domui**, the dative, could be used as well. The genitive plural was **domorum**, as if it were second declension. "To home" was accusative, **domum**. **Manus, -us** (hand) is another useful noun; its peculiarity is that it is feminine. The gender was retained in Spanish, though it ends in -o. It is not difficult to recognize the cases of fourth and fifth declension nouns, which are very similar to the third declension.

Now we can take up some words that are easily confused. **Annus, -i** is "year", and **annuus, -a, -um** means "annual" or "yearly". The **a** is short. Also with a short **a** is **anus, -us** (f), a fourth-declension word meaning "old woman". With a long **a**, **anus, -i** is a "ring". The diminutive **anulus, -i** is a "finger ring". The similar English word annulus has too many n's, so it looks like a little year, not a little ring. If you are thinking of another similar word, it is a typical Latin euphemism, where a mentionable word is used for an unmentionable object. This is very typical of Latin;

certain other body parts acquired a series of aliases in this way, changed as each one came to cause snickering from the boys. A similar process has occurred in Spanish, for example with words referring to anything round. The Romans were actually rather prudish, and offended by licentious behavior and by people having too much fun. They made several of the livelier Greek observances illegal. Certain Latin words have come into English as medical or technical terms, and so have acquired reputations they did not enjoy in Latin. With your Latin dictionary and a little imagination, you can form accurate translations of any words you find in extracts describing native sexual habits, which prudish missionaries did not like to describe in plain language.

You will now be able to recognize most of the noun cases you meet, though there is a large number of special cases. Sometimes accusative singulars end in **-im** rather than **-em**, accusative plurals in **-os** rather than **-as**, and genitive plurals variously in **-ium** or **-um**. These are remnants of earlier language habits, of course.

A use of the genitive that you will be familiar with from English is the partitive genitive, which expresses the whole of which something is the part. For example, **unus ursorum huc venit** means "one of the bears is coming hither" (**huc**; **hic** means here without motion implied). **Ursorum**, of the bears, is the *partitive genitive*. **Satis eloquentiae**, **sapientiae parum**, said Seneca: enough (of) eloquence, of wisdom too little, a common failing of politicians.

A **baculum**, -**i** is a "walking stick" or similar object. Every Mountain Man will find one useful out in the woods, and occasionally at the tavern. A **bacillum**, -**i** is a "small stick" like a symbol of office. This is an example of a *diminutive*, as "cigarette" is a diminutive of "cigar." There are many ways to form diminutives in Latin, of which this is only one. Another example is **porcella**, a little **porca**, -**ae**. We also find **porcula** or **porculus**, "sow" and "hog," which are also really diminutives of **porcus**, -**i**, like **baculum**, where the word from which it was formed has disappeared. While **porca** ("gross sow") might be insulting, **porcella** ("my little piglet") could be endearing. What we call a "bacillus" is something else, a microbe shaped like a little stick that can give one tuberculosis. We also have microbes called "cocci" that you can catch in hospitals, but a **coccum** is the berry of the scarlet oak. From it, a scarlet dye was made that turned out really to come from a small insect infesting the berry. The microbes should properly be "cocca" since the word is neuter, but anyway the little spheres sticking together in strings were so-called because they stained red when prepared for the microscope, I believe.

There is Latin on U.S. Federal money. On coins, **e pluribus unum** appears; **unum** is neuter, and what it refers to is not clear to me. **E pluribus una** might be better ("Gentlemen, shall we join the ladies?"). On the $1 note, the Latin is in the Great Seal and its Masonic symbolism. **Coeptis** is a case of **coeptum, -i**, a work begun or undertaken. **Annuit** is from **annuo, annuere, annui** (3rd conjugation, nod or assent). **Ordo, ordinis** (m, series) and **saeculum, -i** (n, century) are the other words we have not yet met. What is meant by these mystic inscriptions? The early mountain man would have used Spanish dollars, pieces of 8 reales often cut into eighths, or "bits" as money. All the Federal money was in bank vaults (if issued, it would have disappeared in hoards or have been exported, since the coins were too heavy for their value), so people had to make do. There was plenty of Spanish silver, but the U.S. had no silver or gold yet. The term "Federal money" is in distinction to money issued by the States, which was often in pounds, shillings and pence, not in the new Federal unit, the Eagle ($10), divided decimally. Lack of coinage money was compensated by banknotes, but small change was a persistent problem until the 1860's.

Lesson XIV : More Verbs (Horace)

Verb Essentials :: *A look at the third conjugation, and the use and recognition of moods and tenses*

E pluribus unum is "one from many," of course. **Annuit Coeptis** means "He (God) has favored the beginnings." This refers to the date in Roman Numerals on the base of the pyramid, MDCCLXXVII or 1776, and "beginnings" are dative ("nodded to the beginnings"). I think it could just as well say, "It refers to the beginnings." **Novus Ordo Saeculorum** is "a new series of centuries," that is, a new era beginning with the founding of the government.

tollo, tollere, sustuli, sublatum (lift, take up, raise)

number	singular	plural
1	tollo	tollimus
2	tollis	tollitis
3	tollit	tollunt

The third conjugation contains many useful verbs. **Tollo** is typical. Its present tense is shown in the table. Our word toll comes from **tollere**. A toll-gate was a gate with an arm that was raised to allow a vehicle to pass that had paid its toll. Note that the perfect and past participle are formed from another stem. Another example, **capio** is typical of verbs with an -i- in the stem. I have been writing the fourth principal part with -um instead of -us so that you become used to seeing this. When this is done, it is actually an obscure verb form called the *supine*, but all you have to do to get the participle is to change the -um to -us.

capio, capere, cepi, captum (take, seize)

number	singular	plural
1	capio	capimus
2	capit	
3	capit	capiunt

The imperfect is formed with -**ba**-: **tolliebam**, etc., and **capiebam**, etc. The future is just like the imperfect with no -**ba**-, except that the first person singular is **tollam** or **capiam**. Note that -**i**- is the signal of the present, while -e- is the signal of the future. The passive is formed as you might expect: **tollor, tolleris, tollitur, tollimur, tollimini, tolluntur,** and similarly for **capio**. The passive infinitive is **tolli, capi,** and so forth, the -**er**- having been dropped. The fourth conjugation, of which **audio, audire, audivi, auditus** (hear) is an example, is almost like **capio** of the third. The letter -**i**- always appears. The passive infinitive is **audiri**, however. Audio has already been conjugated in the present in an earlier lesson.

The *subjunctive* is the mood of the verb that is used when its action depends on another verb, or may be subject to chance, will, or uncertain, or even contrary to fact. The subjunctive expresses something as an *idea* rather than as reality. In English, we might say: "if he should come, he would be welcome," or, "if that be true, then it is a pity." Should come and be are both subjunctive. In English, the distinction is not always plain, or even expressed, but in Latin it always is. Latin uses the subjunctive in subordinate clauses like: "he built a bridge in order that he might cross the river." Here built would be indicative, as usual, but cross would be subjunctive to show that it was an idea, the reason for building the bridge conceived in the mind before construction began. In English, we usually use modal helpers like should or might in these cases.

The usual way to make a verb sound subjunctive is to change the stem vowel. He loves is **amat**. He might love is **amet**. We might love is **amemus**. We warn is **monemus**. We might warn is **moneamus**. He lifts is **tollit**. He might lift is **tollat**. There is almost always some other word, such as a subordinating conjunction such as "if" or "unless" or "because" to make the subjunctive sound at home. In the imperfect, the -**ba**- changes to -**re**- in the subjunctive: **amaret**, "he might have loved." Spanish still does pretty much the same thing.

The present subjunctive of **esse** is: **sim**, **sis**, **sit**, **simus**, **sitis**, **sint**. The present subjunctive of **ire** is quite regular: **eam**, **eas**, **eat**, **eamus**, **eatis**, **eant**.

The *imperative* is the third mood of the verb (indicative and subjunctive are the others) used to give commands. Love! is **ama** or **amate**. Destroy! is **dele** or **delete**. Lift! is **tolle** or **tollite**. Hear! is **audi** or **audite**. Note that the singular imperative is just the infinitive shorn of its **-re**, and the plural is easy to make (just add -**te**). There are also third-person imperatives (let him depart!) but these are rare in normal language. Some common verbs have irregular imperatives, like **fac** (do) from **facio**, **dic** (say) from **dicere**, and **duc** (lead) from **ducere**.

If you want to suggest to your companions that you do something, the subjunctive of the first person plural is used. **Bibamus!** "let us drink". **Edamus!** "let us eat". **Amemus!** "let us love". This is just a matter of changing a to e or e (or i) to a. **Ne laboremus!** "let us not work". This is the optative form of the subjunctive mood, so the negative is **ne**, not **non**. **Ducamus!** "let us lead". You can also use the subjunctive to tell someone not to do something: **ne edas rosas** – "don't eat the roses". This is actually close to saying: "one shouldn't eat the roses." The subjunctive can also be used in the third person, instead of the rare regular imperative. For example, **vivit rex** is "the king lives", but **vivat rex** is "long live the king". The familiar word **fiat** is the third person singular of the present subjunctive of **fio, fieri, factus sum**, (become), used as the passive of **facio, facere, feci, factus** (do). Hence it means, "let it be done." **Fiat lux** is "let there be light."

<div align="center">

amo, pluperfect

number	singular	plural
1	amaveram	amaveramus
2	amaveras	amaveratis
3	amaverat	amaverant

</div>

We mentioned quite a while ago that the perfect tense was used for completed past actions, or for normal description of the past, and gave the personal endings and hints on finding the perfect stem. To review, the first, second and fourth conjugations form their perfects very simply, by adding -v- or -u- to the stem, as in **amavi, monui**, and **audivi**. The perfect endings are **-i, -isti, -it, -imus, -istis, -erunt**.

In classical Latin, v and u were the same letter, remember. You have to remember the perfect in the third conjugation; there are too many ways of forming it to make rules. For practice, play with **veni** (from **venire**, come); **vidi** (from **videre**, see); **vici** (from **vincere**, overcome). To lead is **duco, ducere, duxi, ductum**. **Dux, ducis** (masc) is a "leader". This verb also means "draw" with a pen or stylus.

amo, future perfect

number	singular	plural
1	amavero	amaverimus
2	amaveris	amaveritis
3	amaverit	amaverint

There are also the past perfect or pluperfect tense (I had loved) and the future perfect (I shall have loved), and their conjugation is shown in the tables. Note that the endings are the imperfect and future of **sum**, which makes them easy to recognize. The subjunctive of the pluperfect uses the stem **amavisse-** with the usual personal endings. **Amavisse** is, in fact, the perfect infinitive, "to have loved". You can recognize such infinitives from the ending -**isse**. The passives are periphrastic, using the past participle, as we indicated in a previous lesson. What we have now seen should have given you an appreciation of the Latin verb, and the ability to recognize most of its forms.

Today's phrase is from one of Horace's Odes: **Quid sit futurum cras fuge quaerere**. **Fugio, fugere, fugi, fugitus** means to shun or flee. **Quaerere** is to ask. **Cras** is tomorrow (yesterday was **heri**). **Futurum** is a participle, in fact the future active participle, which is characterized by the -**urus** ending, of the verb **esse**.

Lesson XV : Numbers (Caesar)

Numbers :: *All kinds of numbers, the future active participle, gladiators, money, time and the supine*

"Shun asking what will be tomorrow," says Horace literally. **Quid futurus** is "what will be." **Sit**, subjunctive, is used because of the uncertainly involved. **Fuge** is the imperative of **fugere** (**fugio**, conjugated like **capio**, **capere**). **Quaerere** is the object of **fuge**, the thing fled, and means "to ask."

The future active participle is indispensable when giving intentions for the future. **Nos morituri te salutamus** means "we who are to die salute you," the greeting of the fatal gladiator. Fighting for your life was the easiest way to become suddenly wealthy, since sports fans paid well then as now. There was no television to supply blood and violence, so the public supported it. **Gladiatorium**, **-i** was the pay of gladiators, **gladiator**, **-oris** was the gladiator, or a robber, and **gladius**, **-i** was a sword - or also murder. This combat was an old Greek custom carried to commercial extreme. Greeks usually killed their captives, but if one fought well and won, he was rewarded by slavery (**servus**, **-i**, one who is saved). In classical Rome, sports promoters encouraged people to fight, and if they won, they (fighter and promoter) became rich. It could buy your freedom, but many free men fought for the excellent pay and renown. Nobody thought it was in the least civilized or commendable, perhaps an antidote to civilized peace, but the rabble would give their votes to whoever paid for their entertainment. It was extremely expensive, like professional football, because the fighters had to be paid. It was by no means the most popular sport or entertainment in Rome (theatre and chariot races were much more popular and frequent), but was a special media event, usually around election time. It was not forbidden by the Christians, but died when the money became lacking. The modern Spanish bullfight is not related to gladiatorial combat in any way, and only in modern times has the corrida taken place in arenas; it originated in the streets.

Latin numbers are of three kinds, Cardinal, Ordinal, and Distributive.

The cardinal numbers answer **quot**? - how many?

These are: **1 unus, -a, -um; 2 duo, duae, duo; 3 tres, tria; 4 quattuor; 5 quinque; 6 sex**, **7septem, 8 octo, 9 novem, 10 decem**.

Note that 1, 2, and 3 are declined to agree with their noun. **Duo** goes **duo, duorum, duobus, duos, duobus**, from which you can figure out the feminine and neuter. **Tres, trium, tribus, tres, tribus** is for 3, and the neuter simply has **tria** in nominative and accusative.

Ordinal numbers tell **quotus**?

These are: **primus, -a, -um; secundus, tertius, quartus, quintus, sextus, septimus, octavus, nonus, decimus**. Their inflection is obvious; they are all first/second declension adjectives.

The distributive numbers tell **quoteni**? or how many each? We do not have these numbers in English, but they aid precision of expression greatly. They are plural adjectives: **singuli, -ae, -a; bini, terni, quaterni, quini, seni, septeni, octoni, noveni, deni**. **Pueri habent binae puellae** means the boys have two girls each. Note that these words decline as adjectives.

Numeral adverbs: once, twice, and so on are expressed by: **semel, bis, ter, quater, quinquies, sexies, septies, octies, nonies, decies**. Suppose your physician wants you to take two pills three times daily (as we say in English). On the prescription, she would write **bini tris in die**, or two each three times in a day, which is crystal clear. If you literally took two pills three times a day, the pills would soon wear out.

There are also a few multiplicative numerals. Single is **simplex**, double is **duplex**, triple is **triplex**, quadruple is **quadruplex**. These have been adopted into English. Latin also has **quincumplex, septemplex, decemplex**, and **centuplex**. More could be constructed by analogy, but these are the only ones documented. English also renders these with the suffix -fold (**centuplex** - a hundredfold).

Roman numerals are probably also familiar to you already. Only the simplest forms are still in use today, for relatively small numbers. Roman financial values were usually stated in terms of a fairly small unit, the **sestertium**, so the treasury regularly dealt with millions and billions, just as ours does. The smaller numbers, I-1, V-5, X-10, L-50, C-100, D-500, M-1000 all referred to different locations on the portable abacus

that was used for calculations. This had 4 1's beads and 1 5's bead in each column, plus others for fractions, up to millions (7 columns). It was very easy to transfer numbers from paper to abacus and back; usual calculations were not carried out on paper. For scientific work, a different system of Greek numbers was used in a system based on 60. The Roman Numerals were for trade and finance, not science.

The subtraction notation, in which IV = V - 1 = 4 was used, especially later, to shorten numbers. Indeed, one unit could easily be subtracted on the abacus if necessary. However, it was more common to write IIII for 4 and VIIII for 9 rather than IV and IX. the IIII is traditional on clocks. The BBC uses Roman Numerals to give the date of a program so that people will not be able to tell quickly how old the program is.

Roman money was based on the coinage of copper, silver, and gold. The original basis was the **as, assis** (m), about a pound of copper, divided into 12 parts. It became smaller and smaller, and by 150 BC was replaced by the **sestertius, -i** representing 2-1/2 **asses**, from which the name was taken (3 minus 1/2). The abbreviation is HS. This was originally a silver coin, but became a small copper coin like a US penny. 4 **sestertii** made a **denarius** (10 **asses**), and 25 **denarii** an **aureus**, which was a gold coin like a sovereign. 1000 **sestertii** was called a **sestertium**, and, logically, was worth 10 **denarii**. Accounts were kept in **sestertii**, so the numbers became very large. Roman money acquired a symbolic value, like our currency, and represented more value than was represented by the metal in the coin. The **follis**, for example, was made of copper, but was covered by a thin layer of silver, representing its symbolic worth. The general word for coin was **nummus, -i** (m), with genitive plural **nummum**, often referring to a **sestertius**, from which we obtain the word numismatic. Large numbers of Roman coins have survived, and make an interesting study. Coinage of this quality was not seen again until the 18th century.

Now that we have numbers, we can express time. An extent of time is put in the accusative, while the time when, or the time within which, is put in the ablative. This is like the use of the different cases with the preposition in, and is typical when giving measurements of any kind, not just of time.

Two examples will show what is meant. **Duodequadraginta** (40-2=38) **annos tyrannus Syracusianorum fuit Dionysius**. "For 38 years, Dionysius was tyrant of Syracuse." Here, the accusative of extent is used. **Saturni stella triginta fere annis cursum suum conficit**. "The planet Saturn completes its orbit in about thirty years." No preposition is used; this is ablative of time within which. Note **annos** in the first

sentence, **annis** in the second. With days it would be **dies** and **diebus**, with nights **noctes** and **noctibus**. The emphasis in the first case is on an extent of time, in the second on a moment of time.

In Lesson X we showed how to make noun-adjectives from verbs (participles, gerundives) as well as noun-substantives (infinitives, gerunds). There is an additional noun-adjective associated with a verb, the *supine*. It occurs only in the accusative and ablative cases (the reason for the name; these are the most "inclined" or "supine" cases). The accusative form of the supine looks like the perfect passive participle: **amatum**. It is used to express purpose with verbs of motion, usually with a preposition. **Venio ad puellam amatum** –"I come to love the girl." The perfect passive participle can be reliably formed by replacing the -um of the supine by -**us**, and the fourth principal part of a verb should really be the supine, not the participle (**amo**, **amare**, **amavi**, **amatum**). In these lessons, I generally use the participle, but don't be surprised if the supine sneaks in here and there.

The ablative form is used to express "point of view from which" that is easier to show than to describe. It is made by dropping the -**m** from the accusative form. An example is the familiar phrase **mirabile dictu** meaning "wonderful in the telling" that uses the adjective **mirabile**, "wonderful," and then **dictu** expresses "from the point of view of saying, telling." This adjective-supine combination is easy to recognize, and the -**u** ending is distinctive. The supine is really quite simple to use, but like the future active participle was omitted in American high school courses as too difficult.

The phrase for today is from the Gallic War: **Galliae legati ad Caesarem gratulatum convenerunt**. A **legatus**, -**i** is an ambassador; **convenio**, **convenire**, **conveni**, **conventum** means to come together. **Gratulor**, **gratulari**, **gratulatus sum**, **gratulatus** means to congratulate or to render thanks (the verb is deponent, so the passive participle has active meaning). You can probably understand this sentence even without knowing that **gratulatum** is that **rara avis**, a supine. **Caesarem** is the accusative object of **gratulatum**. Do not try to inflect **gratulatum**!

Lesson XVI : Comparisons (Livy)

Comparisons :: *Comparison of adjectives and adverbs, and saying yes or no*

"The ambassadors of Gaul came together to give thanks to Caesar." is what it says. The supine **gratulatum** is accusative, of course, and Caesar is its accusative object, after the preposition **ad**. **Convenire** is a verb of motion, and where the motion is "to" calls for the accusative. It is not a passive participle; they did not come to a thanked Caesar, but to thank him. The supine also has an ablative, which is used in an instrumental sense. To get this, simply drop the s from the participle. **Mirabilis**, **-e** means wonderful. **Dico, dicere, dixi, dictum** means to tell. Therefore, **mirabile dictu** means wonderful in the telling. **Mirabile visu** means wonderful in the seeing. **Mirabile amatu** means wonderful in the loving. The ablative supine is used, naturally, when the ablative case is called for by the construction. And now for something completely different!

Sometimes you want to *compare* things on the basis of their qualities. For example, Pike's Peak is high, Long's Peak is higher, but Mt. Elbert is highest. These degrees are called positive, comparative, and superlative. In Latin, we'd say: Pike's Peak **est altus**, Long's Peak **altior, sed Mons Elbertus altissimus**. **Altior** is declined **altior, altioris, altiori, altiorem, altiore** in the singular, **altiores, altiorum, altioribus, altiores, altioribus** in the plural for masculine and feminine. The neuter has **altius** and **altiora** in the nominative and accusative, as usual. **Altius** is not declined as if it were second declension! This is the regular way to compare adjectives, but you may also see the adverbs **magis** (more) and **maxime** (most) used as in English. In the superlative, the doubled consonant can be **-ll-** or **-rr-** as well as **-ss-**. Incidentally, **picus** is a woodpecker, and **pica** is a magpie, birds not peaks. The Spanish generalissimo comes to mind.

Again as in English, some adjectives compare irregularly, like good, better, best. In Latin, this is bonus, **melior (melius), optimus**. Going the other way, we have **malus, peior (peius), pessimus**. In size, **magnus, maior(maius), maximus** and **parvus,**

minor (minus), **minimus**. **Multus** has **plures** (plural only, of course), **plus** or **plura** (depending on gender, m/f or n), and **plurimus**. **Pluribus** in **e pluribus unum** is from **plures**. **peior** was later spelled **pejor**, from which we get "pejorative".

Posterior, hinder, has no positive. The superlative is **postumus**, last. Some people think this is *posthumous*, but it isn't. **Postumus** was an actual Roman given name, when a son was expected to be the last. Sometimes he wasn't. **Celerius** is the neuter singular accusative of the comparative of **celer, celera, celerum** (fast) , and can be used as the adverb faster. All comparatives can be used as adverbs in this way, which increases your vocabulary in one great burst. Participles, being adjectives, also compare. For example, **amans, amantior, amantissimus**.

When you compare one thing to another, you use the word "than." In Latin, this is **quam**, and you are already familiar with it. When the noun after **quam** would be in the nominative or accusative case (which is frequent), **quam** can be omitted, and the noun put into the ablative. For example, **puella puero altior est** - the girl is taller than the boy. The other way round, **puer puella altior est**, means the opposite. **Puella** can't be nominative and the subject of **est**, or it wouldn't make any sense - the girl is a taller boy? **Meus culter longior est tuo**: my knife is longer than yours; or **meus culter longior est quam tuus**.

Adverbs also compare. **Pulcher** gives us **pulchre**, beautifully, which goes to **pulchriu**s and **pulcherrime**. **Facilis** gives us **facile**, easily, then **facilius** and **facillime**. **Tuto** gives us **tute**, safely, then **tutius** and **tutissime**. **Celerissime** means as fast as possible. You see that the comparative and superlative are fairly easy to recognize. A favorite expression of Augustus' to say that something was done quickly, was **celerius quam asparagi cocuntur**. **Coquo, coquere, coxi, coctum** is to cook or boil, **asparagus** is "asparagus". Note how neat and expressive the Latin passive is in sentences like this. By the way, **coquunt = cocunt**.

Latin has no simple words for the unqualified "yes" or "no" that is so common in English.

Yes can usually be expressed by an adverb such as **certe**, certainly; **vero**, truly; **ita**, thus it is; **etiam**, even so; **sane**, indeed or truly, or by making a short positive statement like **est**, it is. No is expressed by **minime**, "leastly"; **haud**, not at all; **nullus**, none, or by making a short negative statement like **non est**. Saying yes or no takes a little thought in Latin. The word **haud** is used as an emphatic **non**. **Non** does not

mean "no" in Latin. There was a verb that meant "aye", **aio**, but this was used for assent in voting more than as a "yes".

The phrase for today is: **Id dictu quam re facilius est**, from Livy, the historian of Rome. For once, you should already know all the words. This statement is so true about most things that it is a proverb.

Lesson XVII : Ablative Absolute and Some Irregulars (Suetonius)

Ablative Absolute and Some Irregulars :: *Also includes Vespasian, Spanish, facio, and the troubles of 78-79*

Livy said "It is easier in the saying than in the doing."

Id and **facilius** agree; both are nominative. **Dictu** (supine) and **re** are both ablative. **Res** means thing, but here signifies anything concrete.

The ablative gets a lot of work in Latin. It never plays the main role in a sentence, but its supporting role is often indispensable. There is a very useful construction called the ablative absolute that compensates for the usually subordinate role of the ablative. If you take a participle or any similar word to express an action or condition, and a noun for a subject or object, and put them in the ablative, they can stand alone, or absolutely, in a sentence, and express some condition or circumstance affecting the action of the rest of the sentence. For example, you may have heard the phrase **mutatis mutandis**. **Muto**, **mutare**, **mutavi**, **mutatus** (change) furnishes both words. **Mutatis** are things that have been changed, in the ablative. **Mutandis** are things that *have to be* changed. The phrase means, "the things that have to be changed having been changed," which can obviously stand independently. Note that the phrase is hopelessly clumsy in English, but is businesslike and concise in Latin.

Use an ablative absolute to say "After the rabbits [**cuniculus**] were eaten [**esus**], we sang a song." "After the rabbits were eaten" is the condition we want in the ablative absolute, and "we sang a song" is the main sentence. *suminicec nemrac, sise silucinuC.* The subject or object in the ablative absolute cannot be the same as the subject of the sentence, however. The participle can be replaced by an adjective, as in **Puellis pulchris**, **viri erant felices** - "The men were happy, since the girls were pretty." Here, "being" is understood, which is the necessary participle. Remember

that, as with the tango, it takes two (at least) to make an ablative absolute; one word can't do it on its own. Now, on to some irregular verb forms.

The verb "to be" is **sum**, **esse**, **fui**, **futurus** (no passive participle, of course, so the perfect active participle is the fourth principal part). The perfect is made regularly from **fui**: **fui**, **fuisti**, **fuit**, etc. It means I was, and am no longer. If I still am, I must say **eram**. **Fuit rex** means he has been king, but is no longer. **Erat rex** means he was king, and might still be.

Possum is a verb, not a marsupial, in Latin. It is just the compound **pot- sum**, and means I can. In the perfect, **pot-fui** becomes **potui**, the f disappearing. We have **poteram** in the imperfect, and **potero** in the future. In the present, the -t- becomes -**s**- before s, so we have **possum**, **potes**, **potest**, **possumus**, **potestis**, **possunt**. "She can cook asparagus" is **Potest asparagos coquere**. Of course, this means he can cook asparagus, or even it can cook asparagus, as well. To be exact, you have to use **is, ea, id** to point out the subject.

The rowdy verb **fero, ferre, tuli, latus** (bear or carry) has many uses, especially in compounds like **confero** (collect), **affero** (bring to), and **offero** (offer). The imperfect is **ferebam**, and so forth; the perfect is **tuli, tulisti,** and so forth; the future is **feram, feres**, etc. like any 3rd conjugation verb. The present active is the only tense that gives much trouble: **fero, fers, fert, ferimus, fertis, ferunt** is how it goes–the stem vowel is missing, as it is from the infinitive **fer(e)re**.

Even worse than **ferre** are **velle** (to be willing), **nolle** (to be unwilling), and **malle** (to prefer). The basic one is **velle**. In the present, it is **volo, vis, vult, volumus, vultis, volunt**. Then the other tenses are regular: **volebam, volam, volui**, as in **ferre**. **Nolle** is **non velle: nolo, non vis, non vult, nolumus, non vultis, nolunt**. **Malle** is **magis velle: malo, mavis, mavult, malumus, mavultis, malunt**. The other tenses of **nolle** and **malle** are regular. The reason all these forms are given is so you can recognize them when you see them, but you can see they follow a kind of logic. They soon become familiar. "Willy-nilly" comes from **nolens volens**: willing or not.

The imperative of **velle** is **veli, velite**, and that of **nolle** is **noli, nolite**. These mean do and don't do, respectively, and are followed by the infinitive of what the person is either to do or not do. **Noli me tangere** is don't touch me, for example, literally "don't wish to touch me".

It isn't irregular, but the verb **facio, facere, feci, factum** (do, make) should be noticed,

since it is very useful. **facit** is "he makes", **fecit** is "he made", and **faciet** is "he will make". The curiosity is that the passive, "he is made" or "he becomes" is expressed by a different verb, **fio, fieri, factus sum**, which is irregular. The present is **fio, fis, fit, fimus, fitis, fiunt**, the imperfect **fiebam**, etc., and the future, **fiam**. The present subjunctive is **fiam, fias, fiat**, etc., and the imperfect subjunctive **fierem, fieres, fieret**, etc. This is a verb that looks active but has passive meaning. The perfect tenses are formed regularly from **facio**. Incidentally, the Spanish hecho and Latin factum are the same word! First, -ct- became -ch- (fechum), the -um ending went to -o as cases disappeared (fecho), and the Goths, who could not pronounce f, substituted an aspirate h (hecho). Now, the aspiration has disappeared. The same process gave us hijo from filius. Latin did not evolve into Spanish; Spanish was created by the side of Latin, beginning in the 8th century.

The sentence for today is from Suetonius, speaking of Vespasian, when he had finally been persuaded to overthrow the worthless Vitellius: "**Suscepto igitur civili bello ac ducibus copiisque in Italiam praemissis interim Alexandriam transiit, ut claustra Aegypti optineret.**" **Suscipere** is to start or begin, **igitur** is therefore, **copia, copiarum** are forces. **Praemitto, -mittere, -misi, -misus** is to send ahead. **Interim** is meanwhile ("in the interim"). **Transiit = trans-ivit** from **trans-eo. Claustrum, -i** is a key. **Optineret** is an alternative spelling of **obtineret**, from **obtineo, obtinere, obtinui, obtentus** (2nd conjugation, to obtain or get). It is imperfect subjunctive, and both the tense and mood are required since the clause expresses an object (of going to Egypt). The very common subordinating conjunction **ut** here means "in order to." This is called a *final sentence, which will be explained in the next Lesson.

Vespasian was the first emperor of the Flavian house, an admirable man with a good sense of humor, who restored honor and decency to the principate. He was from the Italian hills, not from Rome, and a skilled general. When Nero was deposed and murdered, Galba had already risen against him in Spain. Galba was an old man (70) and something of a skinflint, but quite legitimate. The young Otho cruelly deposed him, and was in turn overthrown by the stupid Vitellius, a Galba supporter from the army on the Rhine. All this happened in the years 78-79, and is described by Suetonius. The excesses of Tiberius, Caligula, and Nero are luridly described by Suetonius to show what beasts they were. Hollywood and television have presented this behavior as typical of the period, as of course it was not, but rather a horrible opposite.

Lesson XVIII : Review and Final Sentences (Cicero)

Review and Final Sentences :: *After the review–compound sentences and impersonal verbs*

The sentence reads: "Having begun the civil war, and having sent officers and troops into Italy before him, in the meanwhile he went across to Alexandria, to accept the keys of Egypt." **Alexandriam** is accusative, for place to which; the preposition in is not required with the names of places. The sentence begins with two ablative absolutes giving the conditions when he went to Alex to accept the support of the Egyptians in his effort. There was very little civil war; Vitellius was deserted by his supporters and lynched by the mob before Vespasian ever got to Rome. Vespasian loved jokes; he wrote a joke book that, very unfortunately, did not survive Christianity. "Accepting the keys of Egypt" meant that the Egyptians accepted him as legitimate.

This time we again have the usual mass of words to review. The number words have not been included here; review them by going back to Lesson XV.

The words since the last review are: **montanus, montivagus, mons, mediocris, ingenium, dies, res, meridies, de, publicus, loquor, fructus, cornu, domus, manus, coeptum, ordo, saeculum, annuo, novus, tollo, capio, audio, sim, eam, venire, vedere, vincere, ducere, dux, fugere, quaerere, cras, heri, futurus, gladiator, gladius, gladiatorium, servus, quot, quotus, legatus, convenire, gratulari, mirabilis, dicere, picus, pica, melior, optimus, peior, pessimus, maior, maximus, minor, minimus, plures, plus, plurimus, asparagus, mutare, esus, fui, posse, ferre, velle, nolle, volle, cuniculus, celer, coquere, quam, postumus, posterior**.

Give the meaning of the word, the part of speech, its inflection, and related English words that can help you remember the meaning.

The dative of possession was introduced. Say "the dog is the girl's."

The ablative can express either instrument or agent. How do these uses differ? When you see a participle or adjective accompanied by a noun, and both are in the ablative, what is it, and what does it mean?

What is a transitive verb, and what is an intransitive verb? Give examples.

A deponent verb is one that has passive endings, but is active in meaning. Conjugate **loquor** in the present, imperfect, and future.

There are five kinds of numbers: cardinal, ordinal, distributive, adjective, and multiplicative. For example: **unus**, **primus**, **singuli**, **semel**, and **simplex**. Review these numbers from 1 to 10, and practice using them. Note that **semel** means one time, once, but never "at one time," as in "once upon a time," which is **olim** or **quondam**.

Let me take this opportunity to put you on your guard about something you may see that might well confuse you. In some cases, the infinitive is used in place of a normal verb with personal endings. For example, **Dico ursum venire** means "I say the bear is coming." The participle, **veniens** (coming) is not used, but the infinitive instead, and the subject of the infinitive is in the accusative! Of course, the infinitive could also have an object in the accusative, which can lead to ambiguity, but it is usually clear from meaning which is the subject and which the object. In fact, the subject usually comes first, one case in which word order does make a difference in meaning in Latin. The accusative plus infinitive is used with verbs of perceiving or thinking or expressing. **Video ursum venisse** means I see the bear has come. **Credo ursos venituros esse** means I believe the bears will come. The infinitives **venire** (present), **venisse** (perfect), and **veniturum esse** (future) are used depending on the tense desired. Future infinitives all have the -urum ending (as in **futurum**). How would you say: "I believe the girl will go?" The future infinitive of ire is **iturum esse**. Esse maruti malleup oderc. The participial part of the future infinitive has to agree with the subject, you see. Therefore, when you see an accusative cozying up with an infinitive, remember that it could be the subject! We will return to this subject in the next lesson.

In the sentence **transiit Alexandriam ut claustra optineret** there are two clauses, or separate simple sentences, **transiit Alexandriam**, and **claustra optineret**, joined by the conjunction **ut**. This is a kind of compound sentence, with the principal clause

transiit Alexandriam, and the subordinate clause **claustra optineret**. This clause is subordinate because it tells the reason or design for going to Alexandria, and this subordination is expressed by the subjunctive mood of the verb, as well as by the subordinating conjunction **ut**. Such a sentence is called a *final sentence*. We will discuss this subject in more detail in the next lesson, and describe several other types of compound sentences, as well. You are being gradually introduced, since this is an important but rather difficult point.

The sentence for today is from Cicero: **Oportet esse ut vivas, non vivere ut edas**. **Esse** is not "to be" here, but is "to eat" (German, essen), conjugated **edo, edis or es, edit or est, edimus, editis or estis, edunt** in the present active. The subjunctive is **edam, edas, edat, edamus, edatis, edant**. **Vivas** is also subjunctive, so we have two very short final sentences, **ut vivas** and **ut edas**. The verb **oportet** is impersonal, that is, it is used in the third person singular only. It means "it is necessary," and is from **oportere**, a 2nd conjugation verb, so other tenses are **oportebat**, **oportebit**, and **oportuit**. What it is necessary to do is expressed by a following infinitive.

Another useful impersonal is **piget** (it displeases) or **piguit** (it displeased). **Me piget rei** means "I am displeased with the thing (it displeases me of the thing)." The person displeased is accusative, the thing displeasing is genitive. The infinitive can also be used: **Me piget videre scrofas**: "It displeases me to see sows." The opposite would be **mihi placet videre scrofas**. **Placeo**, **placere**, **placui**, **placitus sum** takes the dative, and can be used impersonally or not, as you wish. The weather is expressed impersonally: **Pluit** - "it rains" or "it rained." Better, "Jupiter rains." **Nocte pluit tota**: "it rained the whole night." A sandwich! Explain the case usage.

Lesson XIX : Syntax

Syntax :: *"Syntax" is from Greek, and means "putting together"*

Cicero is saying, "You must eat in order to live, not live in order to eat." If you remember it, you will have a good example of a final sentence with **ut** and the subjunctive. Note that here we have the present tense in both clauses. In this lesson, we will look at a few kinds of compound sentences so that you can get a feel for them. This is a very large and complex subject, however, and we can only scratch the surface. When we say *clause*, we mean a group of words that includes a verb, so that it could form a sentence on its own. These ways of putting words together is called *syntax*, an involved and extensive study, that tries to reflect how people express themselves.

Coordinating conjunctions, such as **et, atque, ac, sed, aut**, and many others simply tack independent sentences together. Subordinating conjunctions such as **ut** (or **uti**), **cum**, **quod**, **quid**, **quoniam**, **quo** and others, establish a subordinate relation for the clause they introduce. The type of relation may affect the mood of the verb, requiring the subjunctive to be used in place of the indicative. We will study the three most important cases here.

The negative is expressed in the subordinate clause of a final sentence with the subjunctive by **ne**, not **non**. **Oportet esse ut ne obeas**: "it is necessary to eat that you may not die" (remember **obeo**? as in obituary? – the Latin euphemism for die). We might finish the thought with: **non obire ut ne edas**: "not die in order not to eat". In the English, we are using an infinitive instead of subjunctive (which has practically disappeared from the language). The word "final" means with an end in mind. Since this is necessarily a thought, not an actuality, the subjunctive is called for.

A very similar type of sentence does not state a purpose or design for the action, but rather its consequences or tendency. These are called *consecutive* sentences. For example: **Augustus numquam filios suos populo commendavit ut non adiceret**:

si merebuntur. "Augustus never commended his sons to the people so that he did not add: if they will be worthy" (**mereor**, to merit). The subjunctive is **adiceret**, from **adicio**, **adicere**, **adieci**, **adiectus** "to add." This is the imperfect subjunctive, which we still use in English ("if he were here"). Notice the **non**. Didn't we just say that the negative was **ne** with the subjunctive? Well, yes, but here we have stumbled upon something very esoteric. The subjunctives in the final and in the consecutive sentences are *different* subjunctives. In Greek, the latter would be in a mood called the *optative*, and the first in the true (thought) subjunctive. In Latin, these two moods look exactly the same, and so both are called subjunctive: they can only be told apart by the use of **ne** or **non**. Here, the subjunctive presents a fact that is true, so **non** is used. **Ne** can often be translated "lest".

In the final sentence of Lesson XVII, the subjunctive shows that the result depends on whether the action of the verb actually takes place or not. Vespasian can go to Alexandria, and he may go for a reason, but the treacherous Egyptians *could* trick him. This is optative, the Egyptians' choice, and **ne**. In the consecutive sentence, the consequence follows invariably from the action of the verb; this is pure (potential) subjunctive and **non**. Relax, you never will have to work this tangle out, only observe whether **ne** or **non** is used, and be proud that you know the difference.

Cum not only means "with", a preposition with the ablative, but we have seen that it can also mean "when". As in English, it can be used to express when in time, or when in circumstances. If we say **cum ver appetit, milites ex hibernis movent** – "When spring approaches, the soldiers move out of winter quarters." This is temporal, and the verb is indicative mood. If we say **cum ver appetat, ex hibernis movendum est** – "Since spring is approaching, we must move out of winter quarters," then it is circumstantial, and the (true) subjunctive is used. Whether you use the indicative or the subjunctive affects the meaning of the sentence rather profoundly. You can also say **cum ver appetat, milites ex hibernis non movent**. – "Although spring is approaching, the soldiers are not moving out of winter quarters." This is called the *concessive* cum. That is, **cum** can mean when, whereas, or although, a very useful subordinating conjunction indeed, and it is very commonly used.

Conditional sentences, like "if you believe that, then you err" consist of two clauses. "If you believe that" is the premise or protasis (accent on first syllable), "then you err" is the conclusion or apodosis (accent on second syllable). If the connection is *logical*, then you use the indicative: **si id credis, erras**. This is awfully authoritative.

It would be more polite to say: **si id credas, erres**: "if you should believe this, you might err." This is called an ideal connection: it is an idea, not a fact, so the subjunctive appears. A third case is: "if you believed that (but you do not), then you would err." In Latin, we use the imperfect just as in English, but it is obviously subjunctive: **si id crederes, errares**. This is called a condition *contrary to fact.* The stem for the imperfect subjunctive is the infinitive; to it are added the endings –**m**, –**s**, –**t**, –**mus**, –**tis**, –**nt**. It's easy to make the imperfect subjunctive. Note that the essential word here is **si**, "if."

For the negatives, **non** is used, and **si non** is usually **nisi**. "Unless you believe that, you err." is **nisi id credis, erras**, with no subjunctives. The three kinds of conditional sentence we have studied use these mood combinations: indicative-indicative, present subj. - present subj., and imperfect subj. - imperfect subj., for logical, ideal and contrary to fact conditions. If the contrary to fact condition is in the past, the pluperfect subjunctive is used instead of the imperfect. This is formed with the same endings, but with the perfect infinitive. For **amare**, this is **amavisse**. Hence: **si id credidisses, erravisses**. means "if you had believed it, you would have been wrong." Look how many shades of meaning you can now express in Latin! This whole thing becomes very difficult if you do not develop a feeling for the meanings of the indicative and subjunctive moods, and for the different tenses, and if you try to do it by memorizing rules like a student. Now on to something else!

Suppose you wanted to say: "He said they are going to town." This is *reported speech*, since you are saying that you heard him say "they went to town." In Latin, you would say **dixit eas in urbem ire**. After **dixit** or whatever comes the indirect speech, where the verb becomes the infinitive, and its subject is in the accusative. The explicit subject is necessary, because the infinitive cannot inflect to show person and number. To say "He said they had gone to town," you would have to use the perfect infinitive: **dixit eas in urbem isse** (or **ivisse**, an alternative form). This infinitive is formed by adding –**isse** to the perfect stem. Note that the people who went to town were feminine. How would you say: "He said he (the same) killed the bear."? tessivacen musru es tixiD. The subject and direct object are both accusative! Usually the direct object follows the subject. How about "He said he (someone else) killed the bear?". I'm sure you can figure this one out for yourself by now. The association of the accusative with the infinitive is invariable; nominatives are never used here.

This is the heaviest grammar we have had so far, but from this incomplete account

you can get a good idea of how Latin uses compound sentences to express a variety of complex ideas. Most importantly, we have seen what the subjunctive means when you come across it. It expresses contingency, dependence on another action, uncertainty, suggestion, and doubt, the ideal rather than the fact. The indicative expresses fact, logical connection, certainly, independence, and necessity. In the reading selections that follow, strive to recognize the subjunctive when it occurs, and try to appreciate why it is used.

Lesson XX : Professional Latin

Professional Latin :: *Latin surrounds us in the professions and sciences*

This lesson is called Professional Latin, because it reviews Latin terminology in professional and intellectual fields. Words derived from Latin, or even actual Latin words, appear often in the sciences, mathematics and law. In partnership with Greek, it is the principal resource for the creation of technical terms. English derives a large fraction of its vocabulary from Latin, either directly, indirectly, or as cognates. There is much material in this lesson for word study. Try to recall all the English words that are similar to the Latin. This aids your understanding and vocabulary in both languages.

Astronomy

Stars have been identified by proper names since antiquity, but this means of identification was cumbersome and uninformative. In 1603, Johann Bayer introduced a more meaningful system that is still in use today for the brighter stars. Bayer assigned each bright star in a constellation a Greek letter, beginning with alpha and proceeding through the alphabet to omega. There were enough letters for 24 stars in each constellation. Sometimes the stars were lettered in order of brightness, sometimes by position, and sometimes arbitrarily. The letter was followed by the name of the constellation in the genitive. For example, the brightest star in Virgo, Spica, was called alpha Virginis. All you have to know for this Latin is how to form the genitive of the Latin name for each of the 88 constellations that are now defined, something you should now be able to do very easily.

Features of the Moon are named in Latin. **Mare**, **maris** (n) is sea; the genitive plural is **marum**, not **marium**, which would be expected by analogy with similar words. We already know **mons**, and **oceanus** gives no difficulty. **Palus, paludis** (f) is a swamp; **sinus**, **-us** (m) is a bay – note the fourth declension! There is no water on the Moon;

these are fanciful descriptions of lava plains. **Vallis**, **-is** is a valley. Words like this, that are the same in nominative and genitive singular, have a genitive plural in **ium**: **vallium**. A **vallum**, **-i** is something completely different, a palisade, a wall made from vertical logs (think wall, not valley). A **vallus**, **-i** is a stake. The Llano Estacado of Texas is **Planities Vallata**. **Planitia** and **planities** (f) are alternatives, of first and fifth declensions, respectively. **Rima**, **-ae** is a fissure or cleft. **Rupes**, **rupis** (f) is a cliff. **Crater**, **crateris** (m) or **cratera**, **-ae** (f) is a basin or wine-bowl, a Greek word adopted into Latin.

In *Sundials: History, Theory, and Practice* (Chapter Ten) RenÃƒÂ© Rohr gives a list of sundial quotations in Latin that is right down our alley, including the familiar **carpe diem**, which he correctly translates "Use well the day."

Biology

Animals and vegetables were arranged by Aristotle's classification until it proved inadequate to the task. In 1758, Carl Linnaeus proposed a new taxonomy in which each animal or vegetable was identified by a *binomial*, such as **Ursus horribilis** (the grizzly), in which the first word identified the genus, and the second word the species. The words were either Latin or Greek, and agreed in gender and case. In zoology the two names can be the same, as **Gorilla gorilla**, the gorilla. In botany they cannot. There is no information content in these names; they are mere identifiers. For example, the Monarch butterfly is called *Danaus plexippus*, meaning something like Greek horse-driver. These are Greek words in Latin transliteration, which is very common. Sometimes the second name recalls the first person to identify the species, as in Speyeria edwardsi, a fritillary butterfly that was first popped into Dr. Edwards's bottle. Speyeria seems also to be a proper name here, apparently used for the fritillary family.

Latin was very convenient to use because it was commonly understood by all scientists, and was the standard language for international scientific communications. Isaac Newton's ***Principia Mathematica Philosophiae Naturalis***, published in 1685, was, of course, in Latin. It was a great loss to the speakers of less popular languages when Latin fell into disuse as a scientific language around the end of the eighteenth century.

Chemistry

The symbols for some chemical elements are taken from Latin words, not from English. The names of the elements, except for some common metals, are all modern. The symbols for sodium (Na), potassium (K) and tungsten (W) are from German. Others, such as barium, (Ba), neon (Ne), xenon (Xe) or krypton (Kr) are taken from Greek. Many chemical names and terms of modern creation have Greek or Latin roots.

- Antimony, Sb: **stibium**, **-i** (n), not the metal, but the black sulphide, Sb_2S_3, used as mascara
- Carbon, C: **carbo, carbonis** (m), charcoal
- Calcium, Ca: **calx, calcis** (f), lime, chalk
- Copper, Cu: **cuprum**, **-i** (n), copper, from **Cyprus**, **-i** (f) Cyprus, known for copper and Aphrodite, who was also called **Cypris**, **Cypridus** (f). Classically, copper was **aes**, **aeris** (n), pronounced "ice, iris," and copper alloys, such as bronze, were also included. Don't confuse with **aer**, **aeris** (m), air. Here, the a is long, as is the e in the nominative, and the a and e are pronounced separately ("ah-ear, ah-erris"). Though spelled the same, the gender shows which is which.
- Gold, Au: **aurum**, **-i** (n) gold
- Iron, Fe: **ferrum**, **-i** (n) iron
- Lead, Pb: **plumbum**, **-i** (n) lead
- Mercury, Hg: **hydrargyrum**, **-i** (n), water-silver
- Radium, Ra: **radius**, **-i** (m) stick, rod, beam, ray
- Silicon, Si: **silex, silicis** (m) flint
- Silver, Ag: **argentum**, **-i** (n) silver
- Tellurium, Te: **tellus, telluris** (f) earth, ground
- Tin, Sn: **stannum**, **-i** (n) tin

Physics

Physics abounds with Greek terms for the same reason that Geology does, but we can still find numerous words from Latin. The words have new meanings, but the classical meanings are suggestive. Everyone knows about the *nucleus* of the atom, which has the plural *nuclei*. This is **nucleus**, **-i** (m) "nut" or "kernel." A nucleus can undergo *fission* or *fusion*, which are derived from an interesting pair of verbs that

are not quite opposites: **findo**, **findere**, **findi**, **fissum**, "split" or "divide," and **fundo**, **fundere**, **fusi**, **fusum**, "pour" or "cast" (metal). There are adjectives **fissilis**, **-e**, "easy to split" and **fusilis**, **-e**, "molten," and nouns **fissio**, **fissionis**, "dividing, splitting" and **fusio**, **fusionis**, "outpouring," both feminine.

Vector comes from **vector**, **vectoris** (m), "carrier; rider, passenger." *Tensor* comes from the verb **tendo**, **tendere**, **tetendi**, **tensum**, "stretch, spread or strain" since it is a quantity used to describe tension and compression. *Torque* comes from **torqueo**, **torquere**, **torsi**, **tortum**, "twist" or "turn." *Viscosity* has its origin in **viscum**, **-i**, (n), "mistletoe" or "bird lime." Bird lime was a sticky substance used to catch birds. The verb **visco**, **viscare** means "make sticky." A *capillary* tube used to measure viscosity recalls **capillus**, **-i**, "hair." **Liquor**, **liquoris** (m) is "fluidity" or "liquid," and poetically "sea." There are several verbs meaning to melt: **liquo**, **liquare**; **liquesco**, **liquescere**; **liquefacio**, **liquefacere**.

Power or force is, in Latin, **vis**, **vim**, **vi**, **vires** (f), where the cases shown are nominative, accusative, ablative and nominative plural. The other cases are not used. *Vis viva*, "living force," was the old name for what is now called energy. **Velocitas**, **-tatis** (f) was "speed" but now is strictly directed speed. The related words **velociter**, "rapidly," and **velox**, **velocis** (an adjective), "fast." *Momentum* is now the product of mass and velocity, but **momentum**, **-i** (n) was "movement, change," or, figuratively, "cause" or "influence." **Nullius momenti** meant "of no account." *modulus*, as in elastic modulus, was originally **modulus**, **-i** (m) "measure." *Frequency* is from **frequens**, **frequentis**, "crowded, regular, repeated, or frequent." A **frequentia**, **-ae** (f) was a "crowd" or "throng." **Potentia**, **-ae** (f) was "power, force, efficacy" and became *potential*.

Mathematics

The names for the four fundamental operations of arithmetic come from Latin verbs: **addere**, **subtrahere**, **multiplicare and dividere**. *Quotient* is from **quotiens?**, "how many times." *Remainder* is from **remaneo**, **remanere**, **remansi** (2nd conj.), "remain, stay behind." The common prefix **re-** does not always mean "back" or "again," but is usually an intensifying prefix (as in *frijoles* **re**fritos, or in **re**search). *Sum* is from **summa**, **ae** (f), "the whole, main part, main issue." **Plus**, **pluris** is the adjective "more," the comparative of "much," and **minus** is the adverb "less." **minuo**, **minuere**, **minui**,

minitum means "chop up, reduce, lessen." *Fraction* comes from **frango**, **frangere**, **fregi**, **fractum** (3rd conj.), "break, shatter." *Integer* is pure Latin: **integer**, **integra**, **integrum**, "whole, complete, sound."

Number itself is from **numerus**, **-i** (m), basically means "number," but it has several figurative meanings, such as "troop" (of soldiers), "cipher" (secret writing), and, in the plural, "mathematics." **Ratio**, **rationis** (f) is another word with many meanings. It can refer to reckoning, meaning "calculation," to relations, meaning "method" among other things, including the modern meaningm and to reasoning, meaning "science" or "lore."

Although geometry is dominated by Greek terms, some are from latin. *Normal*, meaning "at right angles," is from **norma**, **ae** (f), "carpenter's square." **Triangulum**, **-i** (n) simply translates the Greek ***trigonon***, and was already in classical Latin, where nearly all mathematical terms were either translated or borrowed from Greek. In the same category is **circulus**, **-i**, from ***kuklo***s. This is only a small sampling; most are relatively obvious and can be looked up in a dictionary. Mathematics was always done in Greek in classical times, no matter what language a person spoke. No distinction can be made between Greek and Roman intellectual culture. Greek was, in fact, the usual *lingua franca* (Italian, not Latin), as we have mentioned elsewhere.

Medicine

Medicine is replete with Latin terms for parts of the body, **materia medica**, observations, instructions, and other things needing classification and communication. Latin terms make terminology precise and unambiguous. In many cases, the Latin word earlier had a more general meaning. For example, **femur**, **femoris** (n, thigh) means the thigh *bone* in medical Latin, and **scapula**, **-ae** (f, shoulder-blade) means, well, shoulder-blade. **Umerus**, **-i** (m, shoulder) now means upper-arm bone, **humerus** (not the funny bone). Latin dropped h's as time passed, first in the rural areas, and this affected the spelling. These quasi-Latin words sometimes take Latin plurals, especially the neuter ones, but normally do not decline.

Besides making terminology more precise, Latin was also a help in impressing the uninitiated, and as a kind of secret language. In this aspect, it was used for writing prescriptions and similar notes.

Dentistry

Words in dent- come from **dens**, **dentis** (m, tooth), but words in dont-, like periodontist, come from the Greek for tooth instead. The two sides of a tooth are termed *buccal* from **bucca**, **-ae** (f, cheek) or *lingual*, from **lingua**, **-ae** (f, tongue). *Occlusal* comes from **occludo**, **occludere**, **occlusi**, **occlusum** (shut up, close) and refers to the biting surface of the tooth. *Distal* comes from **disto**, **distare** (stand apart, be distant, be remote), while *proximal* comes from **proximus**, the superlative of the adverb **prope** (near), meaning "nearest". Tooth decay is *caries*, from the fifth-declension **caries**, **cariei** (decay, rottenness). The gums are the *gingiva*, from **gingiva**, **-ae** which means, well, gum. *gingivitis* mixes Latin and Greek.

Meteorology

The weatherperson often speaks of "virga" in Denver, where rain sometimes evaporates before it reaches the ground. **Virga**, **-ae** (f) is a "green twig" or "stick." The word's also used for a "broom," made from a bunch of twigs tied to a handle. The rain falling from the base of a cloud looks like a broom, since it's usually blown sidewise by the wind.

The names of the common types of clouds are taken from **cumulus**, **-i** (m), heap; **cirrus**, **-i** (m), curl; **stratum**, **-i** (n) blanket; **nimbus**, **-i** (m) storm or rain (-cloud). The last was used in classical times; the other cloud names were assigned in the 18th century. When air is pushed up by air expanding from below, a thin layer of cloud called a "pileus" may be formed. A **pilleus** or **-um**, **-i** (m or n) was a felt cap given as a mark of manumission. Useful adjectives come from **altus**, **-a**, **-um**, high (and also deep, as in **altum mare**, the deep sea) and **fractus**, **-a**, **-um**, broken (from **frango**, **frangere**, **fregi**, **fractus**, break). The twilight is **crepusculum**, **-i** (n), as in "crepuscular rays." "Convection" comes from **conveho**, **convehere**, **convexi**, **convectum**, "bring together" or "carry."

Geology

The majority of geological terms are based on Greek, not Latin. Geology was born in the mid-19th century when it was very popular to derive technical terms from Greek, as being even more obscure to the layman than Latin is. A few words do come from Latin, however. A *fulgurite* is a fused, glassy, irregular cylinder formed when

lightning passes through sand or similar material. **Fulgur, fulguris** (n) is "lightning" and there are other Latin words of the same root referring to this phenomenon. The term *ablation* for "wearing away" comes from **aufero**, **auferre**, **abstuli**, **ablatum**, "take or carry away," based on the important irregular verb **fero**, "carry, bear." Instead of speaking of marsh deposits, one calls them *palustrine* or *paludal*, from **palus**, **paludis** (f), "marsh."

Petroleum is from Gratin or Leek. **petro**s is rock, while **oleum**, **-i** (n) is (olive) oil. Thus, "rock oil." The olive tree or the olive itself is **olea**, **-ae** (f), while **oleo**, **olere**, **olui** is "smell" or "smell of."

<div align="center">

Law

</div>

Advoco, **advocare**, **advocavi**, **advocatum** meant to call someone to one's assistance, or generally to summon. An **advocatus** was a supporter or counsel in a lawsuit, from which the English word "advocate" comes.

In law, Latin provides what is, in effect, a shorthand for a large variety of statments, observations, conditions, procedures, defenses, assertions, and so on, that would otherwise require a more detailed specification. These are often pretty good Latin (unlike the Latin so far mentioned in this lesson), and require the knowledge of cases and inflection that you have been perfecting in this course. They are, however, usually badly mispronounced, and those who speak them generally know no Latin. A list of legal terms follows:

- **habeas corpus**: you are to bring the body of the accused before the court, so that the legality of restraint can be proved.
- **quo warranto**: with what authority (ablative of instrument).
- **absente reo**: the accused (reus, -i) being absent. This is an ablative absolute, a participle and a noun in the ablative case that can appear in a sentence with no grammatical relation with the rest of the sentence (called absolute), and giving a condition.
- **bona fide**: with good faith (ablative).
- **bona fides**: good faith (nominative; fides, fidei).
- **corpus delicti**: body of the crime; evidence that a crime actually was committed.

- **cui bono**: to whose benefit; now usually for what good.
- **de facto**: from the fact; that is, from actual occurrence.
- **de iure**: from the law; that is, legally sanctioned.
- **in articulo mortis**: at the point of death; such words are given extra weight in law.
- **in forma pauperis**: too poor to pay legal fees.
- **in posse**: in possiblity; a child in posse is yet to be born.
- **in esse**: in existence; a child in esse has been born.
- **in re**: in the matter of.
- **inter vivos**: between living persons: a gift, not a legacy.
- **intra vires**: within the legal powers of a body.
- **ultra vires**: beyond the legal powers of a body.
- **ipso facto**: by the fact itself (ablative).
- **lex non scripta**: law not written: the common law, law by precedent rather than by statute.
- **ius civile**: civil, i.e. Roman, law.
- **locus in quo**: the land upon which trespass has been committed.
- **mala fide**: with bad faith: fraudulent or sham.
- **mens rea**: criminal mind; criminal intent.
- **nolle prosequi**: to be unwilling to prosecute, to drop the case. Prosequor is deponent.
- **onus probandi**: the burden of proof. **onus**, **oneris** (n, burden).
- **particeps criminis**: partner in crime, accomplice. Note that **particeps, participis** has the plural participes. The word participle comes from here.
- **pendente lite**: while the trial (**lis, litis**, f) is going on. Another ablative absolute.
- **pleno iure**: with full (**plenus, -a, -um**) right; ablative.
- **prima facie**: with first aspect (**facies, faciei**, f); that is, obvious from the appearance.
- **pro bono publico**: for the public good (without pay). The "publico" is often omitted.
- **pro tempore**: for the time being; temporary. **tempus, temporis** (n).
- **res ipsa loquitur**: the thing itself speaks, i.e., calls attention to a fact.

- **sine die**: indefinitely, "without day".
- **stare decisis**: to stand with things decided; to abide by precedent.
- **sub iudice**: still under judgment. **iudex**, **iudicis** (m, judge).
- **suggestio falsi**: a suggestion that a false statement is true, an indirect lie. **Falsi** is genitive.
- **volenti non fit iniuria**: a defense that a willing person cannot suffer actionable injury. Volenti, not violenti.

In legal terms, consonantal i is usually written j (sub judice, etc.), and the Latin is definitely medieval, not classical. Pronunciation is variable, but often as in English. Just as mathematics was in Greek in the classical world, law was in Latin.

Latin Abbreviations In Scholarly Works

Latin was the usual international scientific language from medieval times in Western Europe, since the use of the vernacular in written language made communication across borders difficult. It was particularly popular in Germany, and in countries with languages not widely spoken (Scandinavia, Low Countries, Eastern Europe). While this use of Latin died out in the 18th century, Latin abbreviations, usually in footnotes, survived.

- **op. cit**.: opere citato (abl.), in the work cited.
- **ibid**.: ibidem, ibi-idem, the same 'there.'
- **viz**.: medieval abbreviation for videlicet, an adverb meaning clearly, plainly, of course, but now meaning just namely.
- **i.e.**: id est, that is; precedes an explanation.
- **e.g.**: exempli (gen.) gratia (abl., for the sake of).
- **cf.**: confer – bring together or compare, imperative.
- **et seq**.: et sequentia, and following things.
- **id.**: idem, the same.
- **inf.**: infra, below.
- **l.c.**: loco citato, in the place mentioned.
- **n.b.**: nota bene, note well.

- **ob**.: obiit, he died (used before a date).
- **circ**.: circiter, about or near.
- **etc**.: et cetera; ceterus, -a, -um: the other, rest, remainder.
- **scil**.: scilicet – of course, obviously, naturally, doubtless.

The word **sic**, thus, is used to show that an apparent mistake was actually in the quoted source, not introduced by the present writer. The word **passim**, scattered everywhere, is used for references when the writer feels disinclined to look them all up, or doesn't know where they are. **vel** is used between equally valid alternatives, and means "take your choice."

Diplomatic, Business and Miscellaneous

The words *status quo* are short for **status quo ante bellum**, "the way things were before the war." An alternative is **uti possidetis**, "as you occupy," meaning that both sides hang on to whatever they have seized. The **sine qua non** is "without which not," an essential demand.

Business letters used to quote dates as *15th ult.*, or *3rd prox.* or *30th inst.*. The abbrevations are for **(mensi) ultimo**, **proximo**, **instante** meaning last month, next month and present month. The case is ablative, expressing time when.

Pro tem means **pro tempore**, "for the time" or "temporarily," a word that probably came from this expression. Parliamentary procedure uses numerous Latin terms, such as **quorum**, "of which, " standing for some longer expression like "the membership consists of … *of which* two-thirds must be present for valid action."

The Latin we have studied in this lesson can be attacked with a dictionary and what you know of the cases and their uses. In fact, you should be rather well-equipped to handle Latin phrases by now, and to understand the exact meaning, not an approximation.

Lesson XXI : Carmina Burana

Carmina Burana :: *Medieval poems from Bavaria, set to music by Carl Orff*

Carmen, **carminis** (neuter) is a song, poem or incantation. The *Carmina Burana* is a collection of 228 **carmina** written in the 13th century and found in the monastery of Benidiktbeuren in Bavara in 1803. Carl Orff put some of them to music in 1937. One of these, *In Trutina* was sung by Charlotte Church in her CD *Voice of an Angel* (1998). Two other songs on the CD are sung in Church Latin as well. The text follows:

> *In trutina mentis dubia*
> *fluctuant contraria*
> *lascivus amor et pudicitia.*
> *Sed eligo quod video,*
> *collum iugo prebeo:*
> *ad iugum tamen suave transeo.*

The vocabulary you will need is this. **Trutina**, **-ae** (f) is a balance or scales; **mens**, **mentis** (f) is mind; **dubius**, **-a**, **-um** means uncertain or wavering; **fluctuare** is to waver or hesitate; **contrarium**, **-i** (n) is an opposite or reverse; **lascivus**, **-a**, **-um** is playful or wanton; **amor**, **-is** (m) is love; **pudicitia**, **-ae** (f) is bashfulness or chastity; **eligo**, **eligere**, **elegi**, **electus** is to choose; **collum**, **-i** (n) is neck (also **collus**, masculine); **iugum**, **-i** (n) is yoke, also the yoke of matrimony; **prebeo**, **prebere**, **prebui**, **prebitus** means to hold forth or to offer. The classical spelling was **praebeo**, and this shows a frequent change in later Latin. **tamen** means nevertheless or still; **suavis**, **- e** (sweet). Incidentally, **suavium**, **-i** (n) is a kiss, and **suavior**, **suaviari** is to kiss. **Suaviolum**, **-i** (n) is a little kiss, and an example of a diminutive, with the diminutive ending **-olus**, and the typical neuter gender of a diminutive.

Libra, **-ae** is another word for scales, which gave rise to **librum**, **-i**, pound, and thus the abbreviation lb. for pound, and the symbol £ for the pound sterling. It is

the name of a zodiacal constellation, which in classical times was known instead as **iugum**, and consists of the claws of **Scorpio, -onis** (m!), as evidenced by the Arabic names of its two prominent stars, Zubenelgenubi and Zubeneschamali. **Scorpius, -i** is an alternative spelling. These words also refer to a dart-throwing artillery engine. Incidentally, words whose nominative ends in **-ius** often had the genitive with only one **i** until the first century, as in **Vergilius**, **Vergili**, the accent remaining on the **-gi-** in both cases.

In translating anything, you need the words. Even in this short piece, many of the words were new. With a Latin-English dictionary and your knowledge of how words are inflected, you could look up all the words yourself, and set them down as I have just done for your convenience. All the words we have met here are worth knowing, or at least worth the acquaintance. Most of them suggest English words, and it is valuable to note these connections. Some will also suggest the proper meaning, others will not. Some of the English words will have come more or less directly from Latin (sometimes from when English was invented), others through another language, and some will simply be cognate, that is, related through a common ancestor. Noticing the connections will help your English as much as your Latin.

Given the words, translating *In Trutina* should be easy for you. First recognize the cases, and keep them firmly in mind. This is an essential step; merely making something more or less logical from the words may or may not give you the meaning. When you have a translation, check that the case usage is consistent. Any conflicts are a sign that you have misunderstood something; when you get it right, it will click into place. Keep trying to make sense as the words are written, without rearranging them to suit English word order, which usually cripples the Latin.

In the next lesson, a literal translation of *In Trutina* will be given so that you can check your understanding. The English may well be clumsy, but the reason is to show the process of translation. Then you can make a literary translation, keeping only the thought and style, not the exact words. Note that this medieval poetry definitely depends on accent for its rhythm, and the endings of the lines rhyme, the first three ending in -ia and the last three in -eo. Such "rhyming" was considered very bad form in classical poetry.

How would you say: "Give me a little kiss, girl (or boy)!" If you are talking about songs, the verb **cano, canere, cecini, cantus** (sing) will be useful. The Aeneid, as edited, begins with the famous line ***arma virumque cano*** (do you recall what the

-**que** does?). This is the middle of the sentence that Vergil originally wrote, saying that he previously wrote about peaceful and gentle things, but now.... The editors liked the bolder beginning, and Vergil could not object, being dead.

<center>*   *   *</center>

And here we have even more lyrics together with line by line translation *(source from [classical.net](http://www.classical.net/music/comp.lst/works/orff-cb/carmlyr.php)[3]).*

<center>**O Fortuna**</center>

O Fortuna	*(O Fortune)*
velut luna	*(like the moon)*
statu variabilis	*(you are changeable)*
semper crescis	*(ever waxing)*
aut decrescis;	*(and waning;)*
vita detestabilis	*(hateful life)*
nunc obdurat	*(first oppresses)*
et tunc curat	*(and then soothes)*
ludo mentis aciem,	*(as fancy takes it)*
egestatem,	*(poverty)*
potestatem	*(and power)*
dissolvit ut glaciem.	*(it melts them like ice.)*
Sors immanis	*(Fate - monstrous)*
et inanis,	*(and empty)*
rota tu volubilis,	*(you whirling wheel)*
status malus,	*(you are malevolent)*
vana salus	*(well-being is vain)*
semper dissolubilis,	*(and always fades to nothing)*
obumbrata	*(shadowed)*
et velata	*(and veiled)*
michi quoque niteris;	*(you plague me too;)*

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[3]http://www.classical.net/music/comp.lst/works/orff-cb/carmlyr.php

nunc per ludum   *(now through the game)*
dorsum nudum   *(I bring my bare back)*
fero tui sceleris.   *(to your villainy.)*

Sors salutis   *(Fate is against me)*
et virtutis   *(in health)*
michi nunc contraria,   *(and virtue)*
est affectus   *(driven on)*
et defectus   *(and weighted down)*
semper in angaria.   *(always enslaved.)*
Hac in hora   *(So at this hour)*
sine mora   *(without delay)*
corde pulsum tangite;   *(pluck the vibrating strings;)*
quod per sortem   *(since Fate)*
sternit fortem,   *(strikes down the string)*
mecum omnes plangite!   *(everyone weep with me!)*

Fortune plango vulnera (I bemoan the wounds of Fortune)

Fortune plango vulnera   *(I bemoan the wounds of Fortune)*
stillantibus ocellis   *(with weeping eyes,)*
quod sua michi munera   *(for the gifts she made me)*
subtrahit rebellis.   *(she perversely takes away.)*
Verum est, quod legitur,   *(It is written in truth,)*
fronte capillata,   *(that she has a fine head of hair,)*
sed plerumque sequitur   *(, when it comes to seizing an opportunity)*
Occasio calvata.   *(she is bald.)*

In Fortune solio   *(On Fortune's throne)*
sederam elatus,   *(I used to sit raised up,)*
prosperitatis vario   *(crowned with)*
flore coronatus;   *(the many-coloured flowers of prosperity;)*
quicquid enim florui   *(though I may have flourished)*
felix et beatus,   *(happy and blessed,)*
nunc a summo corrui   *(now I fall from the peak)*
gloria privatus.   *(deprived of glory.)*

Fortune rota volvitur: *(The wheel of Fortune turns;)*
descendo minoratus;   *(I go down, demeaned;)*
alter in altum tollitur;   *(another is raised up;)*
nimis exaltatus   *(far too high up)*
rex sedet in vertice   *(sits the king at the summit -)*
caveat ruinam!   *(let him fear ruin!)*
nam sub axe legimus   *(for under the axis is written)*
Hecubam reginam.   *(Queen Hecuba.)*

Lesson XXII : Vitruvius

Vitruvius :: *Vitruvius wrote in Latin to reach practical men who had little Greek. His book was the construction manual used by builders of Gothic cathedrals.*

In Trutina says: "On the unstable balance of [my] mind the contraries, playful love and chastity, waver. But I choose what I see, I offer my neck to the yoke: notwithstanding, I go over to the sweet yoke (i.e., marriage)." In short, the girl decides to marry, not to become a nun. Some people give other interpretations, but the monks of Benediktbeuren are silent. Note the word order **trutina mentis dubia**. The words **Lascivius amor et pudicitia** are in *apposition* to **contraria**, the subject of **fluctuant**. Apposition is the use of nouns side by side which play the same role in the sentence, such as Vergil, the poet, wrote in this sentence: **Vergilius poeta haec carmen fecit**. **Facio**, **facere**, **feci**, **factum** is to do or make, as we said earlier. **Suave** could also mean sweetly, but going over sweetly does not make as much sense as the common phrase **suave iugum** (marriage). **Lascivius** is clearly the source of our lascivious, but is nowhere near as pejorative (**malus**, **peior**, **pessimus**).

Da me suaviolum, **puella (or puere)!** our **lascivia persona** would say. **Puere** is a new case, the Vocative, used for direct address. In the second declension, masculine nouns change -**us** to -**e** for the vocative. If the word ends in -**ius**, it simply drops the -**us**: **Marce**, **Sexte**, **Publi**, **Suetoni**, for example. In other declensions, and for the feminine, it's the same as the nominative. You have surely heard what Suetonius reported Caesar said when he was murdered: **et tu**, **Brute**. Naturally, he used the vocative. What Caesar really said was "kai su, teknon" - - "and you, my child" – in Greek. All educated Romans knew Attic Greek, and ornamented their speech with it.

Marcus Vitruvius Pollio was a contemporary of Augustus, and was, in fact, his military engineer, **magister fabrum**, during the Civil War. He was an upper-

middle-class Roman whose parents could afford to give him a good education, for which he was deeply grateful. He disliked military engineering, much preferring the construction of public buildings, which he did very well indeed. Augustus appointed him chief engineer, or **architectus**, for the improvement of Rome during his principate. At this time, Vitruvius wrote *De Architectura*, a manual of building for the use of practical builders. It was written, therefore, in Latin, not in intellectual Greek. This, together with its general accuracy and excellence, made the work the builder's bible throughout the dark and middle ages in Western Europe, accounting for much of the character of Gothic architecture, and distinguishing it from the later Graeco-Roman architecture that flourished in the East.

Here is the opening paragraph of Book IX, which treats Astronomy, an understanding of which is necessary for surveying and for building timepieces: *Nobilibus athletes, qui Olympia, Isthmia, Nemea vicissent, Graecorum maiores ita magnos honores constituerunt, uti non modo in conventu stantes cum palma et corona ferant laudes, sed etiam, cum revertantur in suas civitates cum victoria, triumphantes quadriges in moenia et in patrias invehantur e reque publica perpetua vita constitutis vectigalibus fruantur. Cum ergo id animadvertam, admiror, quid ita non scribtoribus eidem honores etiamque maiores sint tributi, qui infinitas utilitates aevo perpetuo omnibus gentibus praestant. Id enim magis erat institui dignum, quod athletae sua corpora exercitiationibus efficiunt fortiora, scriptores non solum suos sensus, sed etiam omnium, libris ad discendum et animos exacuendos praeparant praecepta.*

This is a long piece of real Latin, presented without change or modification, so you can see how far you have come. I give some hints in this paragraph, and then a literal translation below. Do not be afraid to use the translation to figure out the text. **Nobilis**, -**e** means famous, not noble. **Vicissent** is subjunctive pluperfect ("might had won" - hard to say in English) and merely shows that he is not speaking of any particular athletes. **Graecorum maiores** are the Ancient Greeks (they were thus to Vitruvius, as to us). **Ut** or **uti** means that, so that. **Sed etiam** is "but even." **Conventus**, -**us** is the gathering for the games; **quadrigae**, -**arum** (f) is a plural noun meaning a four-horse chariot. **Inveho**, **invehere** means to carry in. **Triumphantes quadriges** means in a ceremonial chariot reserved for triumphal processions, like a ticker-tape parade in New York (plural, agreeing with athletes). **Vectigal**, -**is** means a pension, and **fruor, frui, fructus** sum means to enjoy (what is enjoyed is ablative). **Cum** here means when, a very distinct word from the preposition **cum**. They look alike because

changes in spelling brought them together. **Cum** as "when" was originally **quom**. **Ergo** is "therefore". **Animadverto, -are, -avi, -atus** means to notice or observe. The spelling **scribtoribus** (**scribtor**, from **scribo, scribere, scripsi, scriptus**) is an old one. Note that the -**p**- replaces the -**b**- further on; this modification was made by a later copyist. **Gens, gentis** (f) is "people"; **praestare** is "to present". **Enim** means "for, namely, in fact." **Institui** is a passive infinitive, of **instituere**, to institute. **Dignus, -a, -um** is "worthy" or "deserving". In the final sentence, **ad** goes with **animos** as well as **discendum**. **Discendum** is the accusative case of the gerund of the verb **disco, discere, didici,** —– (teach), meaning teaching. The infinitive means teaching when it is nominative; all other cases use the gerund, which resembles the gerundive (**Carthago est delenda**), but has a different meaning.

A translation of the paragraph is: "The ancient Greeks assigned such great honors to those who had won at Olympus, Isthmus, and Nemea [famous games] that they not only stand with palm and crown bearing [their] honors at the meetings, but even, when they return victorious to their communities, are drawn in triumph through the [city] walls and into their homelands, and enjoy for life pensions granted by the commonwealth. When I notice this, I wonder that similar honors, or even greater [ones], are not paid to writers, who present [things of] infinite utility through perpetual ages to all peoples. This, indeed, would be more worthy of enactment, since athletes make their own bodies stronger by exercise, while writers not only their own understandings, but those of all, by providing precepts in books for teaching and for sharpening them."

The last sentence is a challenge to render into English literally, since it depends very much on cases. The same complaint that Vitruvius makes could be made today. Vitruvius, by the way, received a state pension for his services that supported him in his old age.

Venus was a more adult and respectable Aphrodite, becoming protector of women and children, supporter of lost causes, and advocate of pacifism ("make love, not war"). Of course, nobody in classical times believed in your actual gods any more, but symbolic rites and ceremonies were still observed at the temples because they were fun and traditional. Venus later became mixed with Isis, and passed quietly into later religion in other forms. Vitruvius suggested, however, that a temple of Venus was best located outside the city walls, so that young people would not have access to it at night to have their morals adversely affected. He advised the same

for the temple of Bacchus, which had very popular services. In Rome, however, the beautiful temple of Venus was on the forum, in the heart of night life. G. J. Caesar was a descendant of Venus (who was Aeneas' mother). **Venus**, **veneris** is feminine, of course. **Venustas**, **-tatis** is loveliness or charm, **venustus**, **-a**, **-um** is charming or lovely. **Venereus**, however, means sexual. **Venus mea** meant "my darling." Venus was married to Vulcan (Hephaestus): she preferred intelligence and skill to good looks and athleticism.

Let's go through some of the words derived from verbs again, to make the terminology clear. If we say the "loving man" we want **amans vir**, the present active participle. For the "loved man" the participle is perfect past: **amatus vir**. The man to be loved is **amaturus vir**, the future active participle. The participle is an adjective, but can take an object like a verb. To say loving is good, we need a noun: **amare bonum est**. This is the infinitive, and it can also be used in the accusative: **amo amare** – "I love loving". The love of loving would be **amandi amor**, where **amandi** is the genitive of the gerund. **Multum amando dedi** is I gave much to love, where we see the dative. I come to love (for the purpose of loving) is **venio ad amandum**. He will be killed by love is **amando necabitur**. The gerund is the noun form of the verb, but the nominative is always the infinitive. In English, the participle and gerund are often confused, since they are not different in form.

Two peculiar forms are the supine and the gerundive. I came to love the girl could be **veni ad puellam amatum** instead of **veni ad puellam amandam**. Wonderful to love is **mirabile amatu**. This shows the two forms of the supine; note that they are active in mood, not adjectives, and can take an accusative object. The gerundive is passive and expresses necessity: **puella est amanda**. It looks like the gerund, but isn't.

Lesson XXIII : Frontinus

Frontinus :: *Readings on military strategy and the water supply of Rome. Roman names.*

Sextus Julius Frontinus (35-103) was of the aristocratic Julian **gens** (like C. Julius Caesar), and definitely of the senatorial class. He was briefly governor of Britain, but is best known as Manager of the Aqueducts at Rome. He wrote a number of informative books, and extracts from two of them are given here. These books were in Latin, and plainly written, for general use.

A Roman name such as his had three parts. The middle part was the **nomen**, representing the **gens**, or clan, always ending in -**ius**. The last part was the **cognomen**, the family name, and the first part was the **praenomen**, or given name. There were 18 traditional **praenomina** for men, each with a standard abbreviation. Sextus was abbreviated Sex. C was for Gaius, from the days when C was G, before it became K. He would generally have been called **Frontinus** by his associates, and **Sextus** by his family and close friends. A famous (or infamous) man might receive an **agnomen**, such as **Africanus**, which Scipio received for his performances in Africa against Carthage. Freedmen, who had risen from slave status and became numerous in the classical era, generally took just two names, a given name and a family name, setting the pattern that has now become generally adopted. In Greek and other societies, people were known by their given names and patronymics, like Gundrid Olafsdottir, daughter of Olaf Swenson, who was son of Swen Haraldson, etc. Women often took the feminine form of the name of the gens: Julia, Claudia, Marcia, and so on, as a given name. If there was more than one daughter, she would be called Secunda, Tertia and so on.

The *Strategemata* is a large, classified collection of short accounts of how military commanders of the past, mostly Greek or Roman, but also Carthagininan and others, profitably handled 50 different classes of matters that arise in war. In the reading, Marius is Gaius Marius (155-86 BC), a plebeian soldier who rose to the consulate and began the final battle for the rights of the common people. In 104 BC, German

tribes had overrun Gaul and were poised for the destruction of Rome. He defeated the **Teutones** at **Aquae Sextiae** (Aix-en-Provence) in 102, and the **Cimbri** at **Vercellae** (Vercelli, Italy) in 101, saving Gaul and Rome. He married Julia, sister of C. Julius Caesar's mother, improving his social position by marriage into a patrician, but rather impecunious, family.

Here are some hints for understanding the selection. The words similar to English I will let you guess. A **metator**, **-oris** (m) is a measurer, or surveyor, the person who laid out a camp (**castra**, **-orum**, n.). The place for the camp is **castris** (dative) **locum**, not **castrorum locum**! Dative is used for simple possession, not the genitive, which implies a closer, more natural relation. **Cepissent** is subjunctive pluperfect, and **esset** is subjunctive imperfect; they are called for by the syntax of the **cum-ut** sentence and give a feeling that there were other options. **Flagitare** is to demand urgently, and **suis** are "his", that is, "his troops". What kind of construction is **flagitantibus suis**? **Eam** is "it," i.e., **aquam**. **Digito** is ablative–why? **Illinc** is over thar. **Peto, petere, petivi, petitus** means "seek" (cf. petition). **Instinctus**, **-us** means "incitement", not "instinct" (a false friend). **Adsecutus est**, **ut** is impersonal: "it followed that…." **Protinus** means "immediately", "straightaway", "at once". Note the meaning of **tollere** here.

Marius adversus Cimbros et Teutonos, cum metatores eius per imprudentiam ita castris locum cepissent, ut sub potestate barbarorum esset aqua, flagitantibus eam suis, digito hostem ostendens "illinc," inquit, "petenda est"; quo instinctu adsecutus est, ut protinus barbari tollerentur. [Strategemata, II.7.12]

The word **inquit** is used to introduce a quotation, and means "he said," or, more quaintly, "quoth he." This verb, "I say," has a complete present: **inquam**, **inquis**, **inquit**, **inquimus**, **inquitis**, **inquiunt**, but otherwise is used only in the third person singular: **inquiebat**, **inquiet**, **inquit** for imperfect, future and perfect. Verbs using only a few of the possible forms are called *defective*. The only form of **fari** (speak) that is much used is **fatur**, "he speaks" (the verb is also deponent). The present participle is **fans**, **fantis**, **fanti**, **fantem**, and the supine is **fatu**, "in the speaking." The "infantry" are those who do not speak, i.e., whose words are not regarded, a word originating when the peasantry was first pushed into battle by their feudal overlords in late medieval times. Thus originated the modern army of the lower classes sent into danger by politicians snug at home. In the very early Roman army, plebeians were not even allowed to serve. The army consisted entirely of citizens of substance, who had something to fight for. Later, honorable military service always raised one's

social status.

In the following selection from the Aqueducts of Rome, **quadragintos** (400) **quadrag-inta** (40) **unum** (1) = 441, or CCCCXXXXI. **Usus**, **-us** is "use," not surprisingly; why ablative? **Puteum**, **-i** (n, well) and **fons**, **fontis** (f, spring) are sources of water. **Haurio**, **hauire**, **hausi**, **haustus** is to draw (water). **Adhuc** means "to the present day". **Exstare** means "exist"; **colo**, **colere**, **colui**, **cultum** means "cherish" or "revere" (as in a cult). What case is **aegris** (sick) **corporibus**? (dative). **Afferre = ad-ferre**. **Sicut**, **sic-ut**, means "as for instance". **Quae eadem** = "which is also." One of the springs mentioned still provides a famous bottled water (or simply lends its famous name). Which one?

Ab urbe condita per annos quadringentos quadraginta unum contenti fuerat Romani usu aquarum, quas aut ex Tiberi aut ex puteis aut ex fontibus hauriebant. Fontium memoria cum sanctitate adhuc exstat et colitur; salubritatem aegris corporibus afferre creduntur, sicut Camenarum et Apollinis et Iuturnae. Nunc autem in urbem influunt aqua Appia, Anio Vetus, Marcia, Tepula, Iulia, Virgo, Alsietina quae eadem vocatur Augusta, Claudia, Anio Novus. [De Aquis Urbis Romae, I.4]

Ductus, **-us** (m, a leading) is used in the form **aquae ductus** to mean aqueduct; there was not yet a single word for the concept. Most of the names of the aqueducts were feminine: can you understand why?

As with Vitruvius, literal translations are given here for your assistance.

> When Marius opposed the Cimbri and Teutons, the surveyors through lack of wisdom had chosen a location for his camp such that the water supply was under the power of the barbarians. When his troops demanded water, pointing to the enemy with his finger, "Over there," he said, "it is to be sought!" From this incentive it followed at once that the barbarians were driven off.
>
> From the founding of the city [753 BC], for 441 years the Romans were content with the use of waters that were drawn either from the Tiber, or wells, or springs. The regard for springs to this day is maintained and revered with sanctity; they are believed to bring health to ill bodies, such as the Caminarum, the Apollonis, and the Iuturnae. Now, however, the aqueducts Appia, Old Anio, Marcia, Tepula, Julia, Virgo, Alsietina

(which is also called Augusta), Claudia, and New Anio flow into the city.

Both Vitruvius and Frontinus can be found in the Loeb Classical Library, where the Latin and an English translation appear on facing pages. There are notes on the author, on the subject, and on the manuscripts available. These are an invaluable help for the independent student, and also give access to the works to those who do not know Latin. My translations are not from this source.

Lesson XXIV : Vale Atque Ave

Vale Atque Ave :: *You are now prepared to advance on your own*

You will be pleased to know that there are more than the five cases we have used so far. Most grammars solemnly drag out the vocative, used for direct address. O Augustus! is **O Auguste!**, and O son! is **O fili!**. In the second declension, -us changes to -e, and -ius to -i. In all other words, the vocative is simply the nominative. There was also a locative to express place where ("at"). For example, **Romae** is "at Rome" while **Tarenti** is "at Tarentum."

Remember **Romam→Romae→Roma** and **domum→domi→domo**, where the arrows suggest to, at and from. The locative has been swallowed by the dative in most words, and it looks like the genitive in the first declension. Usually, in is used with the ablative to express place where. A useful case was the *instrumental*, which Russian still possesses, to express means by which. This case now has the same endings as the ablative. Do you recall **cultro**, "with a knife" from an early lesson?

Now, I must say: **O discipule**, **Vale!** (**valete!** for more than one person) is an imperative of **valeo**, **valere**, **valui**, **valiturus** (the fourth principal part is the future active participle; the verb lacks a passive participle), a 2nd-conjugation verb meaning be strong or well, or to be worth. **Vale**, therefore, is a farewell wish. **Ave!** or **avete!** are imperatives of the verb **avere**, or **havere**, that has only the imperative forms, and can be used at either meeting or parting: it is both hello! and goodbye! **Salve!** and **salvete!** mean exactly the same as **ave!**, **avete!**. **Ave atque vale** means hail and farewell; the title of this lesson has the words inverted, since this lesson is the last of this series, but, if your interest has been aroused, you may want to go further.

In these lessons, the framework of the language has been sketched out in enough detail for you to comprehend the essence of Latin. In fact, nearly everything that is generally regarded as desirable for a first course in Latin has been included. By far the most important concept is the use of inflections, and especially cases, to give

meaning and structure to a sentence. Meaning is largely independent of word order in Latin, which frees word order to perform other duties in the cause of style and emphasis. You should strive to read a Latin sentence in the order that the words appear. Of course, this is seldom possible until you have had a great deal of practice. However, once you have analyzed a sentence, you can then go back and read it as it should be read. To the best of my understanding, I have tried to point out the most efficient and enjoyable paths of learning. The keys, I believe, are in repetition, and in the understanding of good Latin sentences and selections written by classical writers. Too many introductory courses contain "easy" selections written by the author, or heavily modified classical selections, together with a great deal of translation from English into Latin. One can never learn proper Latin in this way, only a kind of pidgin that is of very low value. This is not to say that simple exercises of this type are not useful in making one think, but should not be a major part of a course. Exposure to such bad Latin when one is just beginning is especially damaging. Above all, memorization of vocabulary lists and other such exercises is worthless and painful. The memorization of selections that you enjoy is another matter, and can provide a great deal of pleasure. There is no way to learn language without long and critical experience, and this should be made as pleasant as possible.

As you read classical authors, you will become aware of the great respect for Greek literature, if not for the actual Greeks of classical times. After about 150 BC, there was no distinction between Greek and Roman culture. Romans wrote in Attic Greek for scientific and scholarly purposes, in Latin for popular distribution. The Roman respect for Greek culture, which can hardly be overestimated, is the only reason that it has been preserved for us today. The present cultivation of Attic (and other dialects of that time) Greek by scholars, contrasted with the very real survival of Demotic Greek as a modern language, is curiously similar to the state in classical times, as is the impression that the culture of Athens and Ionia was typical of Greece, as it certainly was not.

Roman scholars thought Latin was descended from Greek, for which they can be excused, since there are many similarities in words and syntax. Latin, indeed, took shape surrounded by Greek, and could not help but be influenced by it. However, most of the obvious similarities are the result of descent from a very ancient root language common to both, and are cognate, not inherited. Latin is more closely related to Welsh than to Greek. The alphabet is early Greek, with modifications such as the retention of H for rough breathing, and the evolution of Gamma into

C, pronounced K, with the new G going to a spot in the alphabet given up by an excess letter. This is why the abbreviation for Gaius is C, not G. Digamma became F, for a sound that Latin had, but Greek did not (ph was p- hah until it acquired the later pronunciation f). B became prounounced the way we do it, instead of as V; the Greeks did not (and still do not) have a B sound: ball is mpala in Greek. A whale, baleina, is falleina in Greek. Thus, alpha beta gamma became abc. Later, after Latin was well established in its classical form, large numbers of Greek words were adopted (just as English has done). The letters y and z were even appended to the alphabet to spell these loan words.

Most classical literature was written on paper (papyrus), which totally disintegrates after the passage of many centuries. The survival of texts depends on constant recopying, and of preservation in libraries, which went on continuously. Books were even published; that is, multiple copies were made in factories for sale to the public. Literacy in the Roman world was not confined to the educated, but was general. Not as general as today, of course, but more so than before or since in history. A soldier could not be promoted above the lowest rank without literacy, so there were reading and writing classes at every camp, which have left many traces of exercises in the refuse. Most such exercises, by the way, would have been on wax tablets, that were erased and reused, and these were, of course, not preserved. Contrary to common belief, new papyrus was white, smooth and flexible. It came from Egypt, and its supply depended on open trade routes.

After about AD 200, parchment or vellum began to replace paper for texts. Parchment was much more expensive, so could not be used for publication, but was also much more durable. After the state collapsed in the West, public literacy, and with it the demand for books, disappeared. Monks in monasteries hoarded valuable parchments, since they could scrape off the ink, and use the medium for their own writings, most of which were of no value. However, the old writing could still be detected, and these *palimpsests* have provided us with many texts that otherwise would have been lost. Those monks most advanced the cause of learning who wrote slowly, and so destroyed as little of value as possible. The effect was the almost complete loss of classical literature in the West.

The literary tradition was maintained in Constantinople, however, and many texts were saved when the Turks took Constantinople in 1453. Long before this, mainly in the 9th and 10th centuries, Arabs had preserved Latin texts and translated them into

Arabic. These texts appeared in Spain at Córdoba and Granada, and much of this knowledge even survived the Christian reconquest. Alfonso X, El Sabio, did much to foster retranslation into Spanish, Latin and Greek in the 13th century at Toledo. Our Greek and Latin literature generally owes its preservation to these general conditions, in addition to the efforts of individuals to find and preserve manuscripts that were hidden here and there, escaping destruction largely by chance. Therefore, most of our manuscripts are no earlier than the seventh or eighth centuries, and most much later. What we write on and record with electronically now is much more evanescent than even papyrus, and will probably disappear in a few hundred years.

Livy wrote a monumental history of Rome, from the legendary founding in 753 BC to his own time, the time of Augustus. This work was far too large for any one person to buy, except for the very wealthy, so writers made a book-by-book summary that was of more manageable, and saleable, size. These summaries have survived, but large parts of the original work have been lost, especially those dealing with later dates. There was a frantic search for a complete set when this situation was realized during the Renaissance, but it proved fruitless. What we have of classical literature is something like the fossil record in Geology. There is a lot of it, and much of it is very good and complete, but there are gaps and lacunae in the most important places. More was lost than has been preserved. Incidentally, Livy is good reading, and you might be interested in his account of early Rome. It is not difficult Latin.

We know more about the people and events of classical times than we know of any other period except the most recent, say since Columbus discovered America. We could recognize C. Julius Caesar, M. Tullius Cicero, and many others if we met them on the street. But we have not the faintest idea how King Edward III or the Black Prince appeared in person. This circumstance is due to the durability of portrait sculpture. Roman paintings, which were extremely numerous, have all disappeared, except for a few isolated items preserved in Egypt or other such dry places. We have wall paintings in Pompeii, but only mosaic floors from other buildings. Nevertheless, we still have far more than we have from all the medieval kings of France. The written record, however faulty, is far more complete and informative than the archaeological survivals.

Vale

Appendix : Overview of Verb Conjugation

Overview of Verb Conjugation :: *Knowing personal endings, tense signs and stems will enable you to decode most verbs*

Conjugation of a regular verb like **amo** in the six tenses, two voices and two moods is straightforward and simple. This also gives a model for many other verbs that may vary from the regular pattern. The principal parts of **amo** are **amo**, **amare**, **amavi**, **amatum** (love). These are the first person present active (I love), present infinitive (to love), first person perfect active (I loved), and the supine (to love), from which we get the past passive participle (loved). From the second principal part, we find the present stem **ama-** by dropping the re. Most -a- verbs are completely regular. To indicate the tenses and moods, the tense and mood sign, shown in the table on the left is added to the stem. In the subjunctive present, the *- means that the -a- is changed to -e-. Otherwise, the present has no tense sign at all. There is no future subjunctive, so there is no sign for it. In the three tenses of the perfect system, a -v- is added to the present stem to get the perfect stem. For any verb, the perfect stem can be found by dropping the final -i in the third principal part. This regular formation of the perfect stem is found only in the -a- verbs, and a few -e- verbs, such as **delere**, that have a long e where it is marked. Most verbs with a long e have a perfect stem in -u- in place of -v-, such as **moneo**, **monere**, **monui**, **monitum** (warn).

The perfect subjunctive has the same tense sign as the future perfect indicative. This usually causes no confusion, since the tenses are rare ones. In the perfect subjunctive, the first person singular ends in -**erim**, while in the future perfect the ending is -**ero**. A small difference, since -**m** and -**o** are alternative personal endings. There is no future perfect subjunctive. Â Â {title="**Tense and Mood Signs**", width="narrow"}
| | indic | subj |
|—————————|

pres	–	*-
impf	ba	re
fut	bi	(none)
perf	v –	v eri
plupf	v era	v isse
futpf	v eri	(none)

After adding the tense sign to the stem, the next step is to add the personal ending. There are different personal endings for active and passive voices, shown to the left and right. The ending -o absorbs a preceding vowel, while the -**m** does not. The -**o** appears in present, future and future perfect active, the -**m** everywhere else. -**bi**- becomes -**bu**- before -nt, as you know.

The perfect tense has its own personal endings, which are shown below. In any verb, they are simply added to the perfect stem obtained from the third principal part. In the third person plural, there are alternative endings, both of which are used, and which mean the same thing.

The passive personal endings are used only in the present system. The perfect passive tenses are all formed by using the participle, as in **amatus sum**, I have been loved, in the same way that the English passive is formed. Some verbs, called deponents, use passive endings with an active meaning, like **sequor, sequi, secutus sum** (follow). The principal parts show that the verb is deponent. The second principal part here is the passive infinitive, not the perfect. There is no difference in the conjugation: **sequor, sequeris, sequetur, sequemur, sequemini, sequentur**.

Personal Endings, Active

	sing	plural
1	o, m	mus
2	s	tis
3	t	nt

Personal Endings, Passive

	sing	plural
1	r	mur

Personal Endings, Passive

	sing	plural
2	ris	mini
3	tur	ntur

Personal Endings, Perfect

	sing	plural
1	i	imus
2	isti	it
3	it	erunt, ere

An important class of verbs has stems in short -e-, such as **emo, emere, emi, emptum** (buy). These verbs are conjugated in about the same way, except that the future does not use the tense sign -bi-, but simply uses the stem ending in e (changed to a in the first person singular, with personal ending -m instead of -o). That is, **emam, emes, emet, ememus, emetis, ement** is future, while the present is **emo, emis, emit, emimus, emitis, emunt**. The -e- changes to -a- in the present subjunctive. Note that the present subjunctive is distinguished by a change in the final stem vowel from -a- to -e-, or -e- or -i- to -a- (**amat, amet, emit, emat**).

Many -ere- verbs end in -io in the first person present, and use stems in -ia- and -ie-. This is one reason we need the first principal part. **Capio, capere, cepi, captum** (take) tells us that the present is **capio, capis, capit,...**, not **capo, capis, ...**, and the imperfect is **capiebam, capiebas, ...**, not **capebam, capebas, ...**.

Verbs with stems in -i-, like **audio, audire, audivi, auditum** (hear), are much like **capio**. The stem is **audi**-, adding -a- in the subjunctive singular, -e- before -ba-, and -a- or -e- in the future. Otherwise, it is just like **amo**.

Verbs are generally classed as belonging to one of four conjugations, depending on the endings of the infinitive. These are I: -are, II: -ere (long e), III: ere (short e), IV: -ire, but the same principles are used in each case, and there is really only one basic way to conjugate a verb, with changes for euphony. The only significant classification is into verbs that form the past stem by adding -v- or -u-, and those that modify the stem vowel, similarly to English verbs that add an -ed (walk, walked), or change the

vowel (sing, sang), for the past tense. The first sort are mainly in the first conjugation, the latter sort mainly in the third.

The Latin verb system is so convenient that it survived in large part in later languages that grew up around it, such as Spanish, Italian and French, although the passive endings disappeared and auxiliary verbs came into use to signal tense and mood. The case structure, however, largely vanished.

It is much easier to work out what a verb form is saying, than to create it yourself, and the information given here will go a long ways.

Index

The references are to the lesson number.

Index, **indicis** (m or f) means informer, betrayer, forefinger, title, touchstone, or – index.

Acknowledgements