

Peter Jones and Keith Sidwell

Reading Latin

Grammar and Exercises

SECOND EDITION



Reading Latin

GRAMMAR AND EXERCISES

Second edition

Reading Latin, first published in 1986, is a bestselling Latin course designed to help mature beginners read classical Latin fluently and intelligently, primarily in the context of classical culture, but with some medieval Latin too. It does this in three ways: it encourages the reading of continuous texts from the start without compromising grammatical rigour; it offers generous help with translation at every stage; and it integrates the learning of classical Latin with an appreciation of the influence of the Latin language upon English and European culture from antiquity to the present.

The *Text and Vocabulary*, richly illustrated, consists at the start of carefully graded adaptations from original classical Latin texts. The adaptations are gradually phased out until unadulterated prose and verse can be read. The accompanying *Grammar and Exercises* volume supplies all the grammatical help needed to do this, together with a range of reinforcing exercises for each section, including English into Latin for those who want it. It also contains a full and detailed reference grammar at the back. For each section, a selection of Latin epigrams, mottoes, quotations, everyday Latin, word-derivations, examples of medieval Latin and discussions of the influence of Latin upon English illustrate the language's impact on Western culture.

Reading Latin is principally designed for college/university and adult beginners, but also for those in the final years of school. It is also ideal for those people who may have learned Latin many years ago, and wish to renew their acquaintance with the language. The revised optional *Independent Study Guide* will provide a great deal of help to the student learning without a teacher.

The second edition has been fully revised and updated, with revisions to the early chapters in the *Text* volume including a new one on stories from early Roman history, and extensively redesigned to make it easier and clearer to navigate. The vocabulary has been moved into the same volume as the text and placed alongside it.

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Marble copy of the *Clupeus Virtutis* of Augustus, found at Arles (see p. xvi)

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and Keith Sidwell



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Preface

ūsus magister est optimus
(Cicero, *Rab. Post.* 4.9)

Winston Churchill on his introduction to Latin at his prep school

I was taken into a Form Room and told to sit at a desk. All the other boys were out of doors, and I was alone with the Form Master. He produced a thin greeny-brown covered book filled with words in different types of print.

‘You have never done any Latin before, have you?’ he said.

‘No, sir.’

‘This is a Latin grammar.’ He opened it at a well-thumbed page. ‘You must learn this,’ he said, pointing to a number of words in a frame of lines. ‘I will come back in half an hour and see what you know.’

Behold me then on a gloomy evening, with an aching heart, seated in front of the First Declension.

Mensa – a table
Mensa – O table
Mensam – a table
Mensae – of a table
Mensae – to or for a table
Mensa – by, with or from a table

What on earth did it mean? Where was the sense in it? It seemed absolute rigmarole to me. However, there was one thing I could always do: I could learn by heart. And I thereupon proceeded, as far as my private sorrows would allow, to memorise the acrostic-looking task which had been set me.

In due course the Master returned.

‘Have you learnt it?’ he asked.

‘I think I can *say* it, sir,’ I replied; and I gabbled it off.

He seemed so satisfied with this that I was emboldened to ask a question.

‘What does it mean, sir?’

‘It means what it says. Mensa, a table. Mensa is a noun of the First Declension. There are five declensions. You have learnt the singular of the First Declension.’

‘But,’ I repeated, ‘what does it mean?’

‘Mensa means a table,’ he answered.

‘Then why does mensa also mean O table,’ I enquired, ‘and what does O table mean?’

‘Mensa, O table, is the vocative case,’ he replied.

‘But why O table?’ I persisted in genuine curiosity.

‘O table – you would use that in addressing a table, in invoking a table.’ And then seeing he was not carrying me with him, ‘You would use it in speaking to a table.’

‘But I never do,’ I blurted out in honest amazement.

‘If you are impertinent, you will be punished, and punished, let me tell you, very severely,’ was his conclusive rejoinder.

Such was my first introduction to the classics from which, I have been told, many of our cleverest men have derived so much solace and profit.

Winston Churchill, *My Early Life*

Notes to Grammar and Exercises

This volume accompanies *Reading Latin (Text and Vocabulary)* (Cambridge 2016) and is to be used in conjunction with it. For an introduction to the *Reading Latin* course – its aims, methodology and future development – and our acknowledgements of all the help we have received in its production, please refer to the Introduction of the *Text and Vocabulary* volume.

- 1 All dates are BC, unless otherwise specified.
- 2 In the Running Grammar for each section, it is extremely important to note that the exercises should be regarded as a pool out of which the teacher/students should choose what to do, and whether in or out of class. Some of the simpler exercises we have split into necessary and optional sections, but this principle has been extended to other exercises marked EITHER/OR throughout.
- 3 On pp. 281–396 there is a full Reference Grammar, based on the Running Grammar explanations, but in many cases adding further information to that given in the running explanations.
- 4 On pp. 397–408 there is an Appendix on the Latin language.
- 5 On pp. 409–30 there is the Total Latin–English Learning Vocabulary, and on pp. 431–46 an English–Latin Vocabulary for those doing the English–Latin sentence and prose exercises.
- 6 In cross-references, superior figures appended to a section number indicate *Notes*, e.g. **144⁴**. If the reference is in the form ‘**150.1**’, the last digit indicates a numbered sub-section.
- 7 The case which follows an adjective or a verb is usually indicated by e.g. ‘(+ acc.)’. But occasionally it will be phrased e.g. ‘X (acc.)’, indicating the Latin word X is in the accusative.
- 8 In places where standard beginners’ texts print *v* (i.e. consonantal *u*), we have in accordance with early MS practice printed *u*. But in some later Latin texts we have reverted to *v*, which is commonly found in early printed books.

- 9 Bold numbers in page-heads, e.g. **15**, refer to sections of the Running Grammar.

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Abbreviations

For the meaning of these terms, see Glossary, pp. xvi–xxiv

| | |
|--|--|
| abl.(ative) | pl.(ural) |
| abs.(olute) | plupf. (= pluperfect) |
| acc.(usative) | p.p. (= principal part) |
| act.(ive) | prep.(osition) |
| adj.(ective) | pres.(ent) |
| adv.(erb) | prim.(ary) |
| cf. (= <i>cōnfer</i> (Latin), ‘compare’) | pron.(oun) |
| comp.(arative) | q.(uestion) |
| conj.(ugation, ugated) | rel.(ative) |
| dat.(ive) | s.(ingular) |
| decl.(ension) | sc. (= <i>scīlicet</i> (Latin), ‘presumably’) |
| dep.(onent) | sec.(ondary) |
| dir.(ect) | seq.(uence) |
| f.(eminine) | sp.(eech) |
| fut.(ure) | subj.(unctive) |
| gen.(itive) | sup.(erlative) |
| imper.(ative) | trans.(itive) |
| impf. (= imperfect) | tr.(anslate) |
| indecl.(inable) | vb (= verb) |
| ind.(icative) | voc.(ative) |
| indir.(ect) | 1st, 2nd, 3rd refer to persons of the verb, i.e. |
| inf.(initive) | 1st s. = I |
| intrans.(itive) | 2nd s. = you (s.) |
| irr.(egular) | 3rd s. = he, she, it |
| lit.(erally) | 1st pl. = we |
| m.(asculine) | 2nd pl. = you (pl.) |
| neg.(ative) | 3rd pl. = they |
| n.(euter) | 1f., 2m. etc. refer to declension and gender of nouns |
| nom.(inative) | |
| part.(iciple) | |
| pass.(ive) | |
| perf.(ect) | |

Pronunciation

‘English’ refers throughout to the standard or ‘received’ pronunciation of southern British English unless otherwise qualified.

| | | |
|-----------|---|--|
| <i>a</i> | as English ‘cup’, or ‘aha’ (cf. ‘cat’, or Italian or French ‘a-’) | (cf. ‘mat’, ‘camp’); a final ‘m’ expresses nasalisation of the preceding vowel (cf. French ‘parfum’) |
| <i>ā</i> | as English ‘father’ (roughly) | |
| <i>ae</i> | as in English ‘high’ (roughly) | |
| <i>au</i> | as in English ‘how’ | <i>n</i> as English |
| <i>b</i> | as English | <i>o</i> as in English ‘pot’ |
| <i>c</i> | as English ‘c’ in ‘cat’ (not ‘cider’, ‘cello’) | <i>ō</i> as in French ‘beau’ |
| <i>ch</i> | as English ‘pack-horse’ | <i>oe</i> as in English ‘boy’; but note <i>poēta</i> is pronounced po-ē-ta (short ‘o’) |
| <i>d</i> | as English | <i>p</i> as English |
| <i>e</i> | as in English ‘pet’ | <i>ph</i> as English |
| <i>ē</i> | as in ‘fiancée’ (French pronunciation) | <i>qu</i> as in English ‘quick’ |
| <i>ei</i> | as in English ‘day’ | <i>r</i> as Scottish ‘rolled’ ‘r’ |
| <i>eu</i> | ‘e-oo’ (cf. Cockney ‘belt’) | <i>s</i> as ‘s’ in English ‘sing’ (never as in ‘roses’) |
| <i>f</i> | as English | <i>t</i> as ‘t’ in English ‘tin’ (cleanly pronounced, with no ‘h’ sound) |
| <i>g</i> | as English ‘got’; but ‘gn’ = ‘ngn’ as in ‘hangnail’ | <i>th</i> as in English ‘pot-house’ |
| <i>h</i> | as English | <i>u</i> as in English ‘put’ |
| <i>i</i> | as in English ‘dip’ | <i>ū</i> as in English ‘fool’ |
| <i>ī</i> | as in English ‘deep’ | <i>u</i> (pronounced as a consonant) as English ‘w’ (sometimes written as ‘v’) |
| <i>i</i> | consonant (sometimes written as a ‘j’); as English ‘you’ | <i>x</i> as English |
| <i>k</i> | as English | <i>y</i> as French ‘u’ |
| <i>l</i> | as English | <i>z</i> as English |
| <i>m</i> | as English at the beginning and in the middle of words | |

Rules of word stress (accent)

- 1 A word of two syllables is stressed on the first syllable, e.g. *ámō*, *ámās*.
- 2 A word of more than two syllables is stressed on the penultimate (i.e. second syllable from the end) if that syllable is heavy, e.g. *astútus*, *audiúntur* (see pp. 273–4 for the terms ‘heavy’, ‘light’).
- 3 In all other cases, words of more than two syllables are stressed on the antepenultimate (i.e. third syllable from the end), e.g. *amábitis*, *pulchérrimus*.
- 4 Words of one syllable (monosyllables) always have the stress, e.g. *nóx*. But prepositions *before* a noun are not accented, e.g. *ad hóminem*.
- 5 Some words, e.g. *-que*, *-ne* and *-ue*, which are appended to the word which precedes them, cause the stress to fall on the last syllable of that word, e.g. *uirum* but *uirúmque*.

For a clear account of classical Latin pronunciation see W. S. Allen, *Vox Latina* (2nd edition, Cambridge 1975). Today, the pronunciation of church Latin is basically Italian.

Illustration

Frontispiece The *Clupeus Virtutis* of Augustus. Marble copy of the gold original set up in the senate house (*cūria*):

SENATVS POPVLVSQVE ROMANVS IMP(ERATORI) CAESARI DIVI
F(ILIO) AVGVSTO CO(N)S(VLI) VIII DEDIT CLVPEVM VIRTVTIS
CLEMENTIAE IVSTITIAE PIETATIS ERGA DEOS PATRIAMQVE

The Senate and the Roman People gave to the emperor Caesar Augustus son of the god, consul for the eighth time, a shield of [= honouring him for his] Virtue, Clemency, Justice [and] Piety in relation to the gods and the fatherland

Arles, Musée Lapidaire, Photo: The Bridgeman Art Library

Glossary of Grammatical Terms

This short glossary explains the most important terminology used in Latin grammar, with examples in English. To make it as practically useful as possible, we provide simple definitions with down-to-earth examples of each term. Students should bear in mind, however, that (1) there is only a limited ‘fit’ between English grammar and Latin grammar, and (2) brevity and simplicity may not do full justice to grammatical terms, which are notoriously difficult to define. So this index should be regarded as a simplified guide to the subject, for use when you forget the definition of a term used in the grammar, or to refresh your memory of grammatical terms before you begin the course.

Before beginning the course, you should be familiar and feel comfortable with the following terms: noun, adjective, pronoun, conjunction, preposition, verb, person, number, tense, gender, case, singular, plural.

ablative: a grammatical case of the noun and pronoun, often meaning ‘by’, ‘with’ or ‘from’ the (pro)noun in question. Functions defined at Reference Grammar **L**.

accidence: the part of grammar which deals with variable forms of words, e.g. declensions, conjugations.

accusative: name of a case of the noun, pronoun or adjective. Function defined at Reference Grammar **L**.

active: a verb is active when the subject is doing the action, e.g. ‘she (subject) *runs*’, ‘Thomas Aquinas (subject) *reads* his book.’

adjective: word which defines the quality of a noun or pronoun by describing it, e.g. ‘*steep* hill’, ‘*red* house’, ‘*clever* me’. There are also adjectival clauses, for which see *relative clause*. Possessive adjectives are ‘my’, ‘your’, ‘our’, ‘his’, ‘her’, ‘their’. In Latin adjectives must agree with nouns or pronouns in case, number and gender.

adverb: word which defines the quality of a verb by showing how the action of the verb is carried out, e.g. ‘she ran *quickly*’, ‘she works *enthusiastically*’. *Adverbial clauses* do the same job, e.g. ‘she ran *as quickly as she was able*’. Adverbs in Latin are indeclinable.

agree(ment): an adjective agrees with a noun when it adopts the same case, number and gender as the noun. E.g. if a noun is nominative singular masculine, an adjective which is to describe it must also be nominative singular masculine.

apposition: nouns or noun-plus-adjective phrases which add further information about a noun already mentioned are said to be ‘in apposition’ to it, e.g. ‘the house, a red-brick building, was placed on the side of a hill’ – here ‘a red-brick building’ is ‘in apposition’ to ‘the house’.

article: the definite article is the word ‘the’, the indefinite article the word ‘a’.

aspect: whether the action of the verb is seen as a simple statement, as continuing, habitual, complete, or as a description of a state of affairs, e.g. ‘I run’, ‘I am running’ (or, in English, emphasised ‘I *do* run’) are all present *tense* but all differ in aspect. See also *tense*.

auxiliary (verb): in ‘she will love’, ‘she does love’, ‘she has loved’, the verbs ‘will’, ‘does’ and ‘have’ are auxiliary verbs, brought in to help the verb ‘love’ (*auxilium* = help), defining its tense and aspect. ‘May’, ‘might’, ‘would’, ‘should’ are auxiliaries indicating the mood of the verb to which they are attached. Latin uses auxiliary verbs only in the perfect, pluperfect and future perfect deponent and passive.

case: form of the noun, pronoun or adjective which defines the relationship between that word and the rest of the sentence, e.g. a Latin word adopting the form which shows that it is in the nominative case (e.g. *serua*) might show that the word is the subject of its clause; a Latin word adopting the form which shows that it is in the accusative case (e.g. *seruam*) might show that it is the object of the sentence. There are six cases in Latin: nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive, dative and ablative. Most have more than one function.

causal clause: clause expressing the reason why something has happened or will happen, e.g. clauses beginning ‘because ...’, ‘since ...’

clause: part of a sentence containing a subject and a finite verb, e.g. main clause ‘she had finished’, ‘she hated it’, ‘she may succeed’; subordinate clause ‘when she had finished’, ‘which she hated’, ‘so that she may succeed’. Cf. *phrase*. See *adjective*, *adverb*, *noun*.

comparative: form of adjective or adverb which implies a comparison, e.g. ‘hotter’, ‘better’, ‘more slowly’.

complement: when a subject is said *to be* something, or *to be called*, *to be thought*, or *to seem* something, the ‘something’ is the complement of the verb, e.g. ‘she is *intelligent*’, ‘it seems *OK*’, ‘she is thought to be *a promising scholar*’.

concessive clause: clause introduced by the word ‘although’, e.g. ‘*although it is raining*, we shall go to the shops’.

conditional clause: clause introduced by the word ‘if’, e.g. ‘*If it rains today*, I shall not go to the shops’, or sometimes ‘should’ e.g. ‘*should it rain today...*’ The technical term for the ‘if’ clause is *protasis*, and for the main clause *apodosis* (‘pay-off’).

conjugation (conjugate): the parts of a verb are its conjugation, e.g. the conjugation of ‘I love’ in the present indicative active is ‘I love, you love, he/she/it loves, we love, you love, they love’.

conjunction: word which links words, clauses, phrases or sentences, e.g. ‘*When* the light was out *and* she went up to have dinner, the burglar entered *and* took the piano. *But* he was not unseen ...’ Co-ordinating conjunctions link together units (e.g. clauses, sentences, phrases) of equal grammatical value, e.g. ‘He went *and* stood *and* laughed out loud; *but* she sulked *and* stalked off *and* had a drink.’ Subordinating conjunctions, words like ‘when’, ‘although’, ‘if’, ‘because’, ‘since’, ‘after’, introduce units of different grammatical value compared with the main clause. See *main verb*.

consecutive clause: see *result clause*.

consonant: a sound or letter which is not a vowel, e.g. ‘b’, ‘c’, ‘d’, ‘f’, ‘g’, ‘h’ etc. Note that ‘y’ is a consonant in ‘yak’ but a vowel in ‘my’.

dative: a grammatical case of the noun and pronoun, often meaning ‘to’ or ‘for’ the (pro)noun in question, e.g. ‘Helena gave a book *to* *Toby*.’ For function, see Reference Grammar **L**.

declension (decline): the forms of a noun, pronoun or adjective. To decline a noun is to list all its forms in their conventional order in both singular and plural. This is nominative, vocative, accusative, genitive, dative, ablative in the UK.

deponent: a verb whose dictionary form (1st person singular) ends in *-or* e.g. *minor*, *hortor*, *sequor* etc., and whose meaning is always *active*.

diphthong: see *vowel*.

direct object: a direct object is the noun, pronoun or noun-phrase directly affected by the action of the verb, e.g. ‘she hits *the ball*’, ‘they love *books*’, ‘they love *to read books*’, ‘we say *we are the greatest*’. Cf. *indirect object*.

direct speech: speech which is quoted verbatim, in the exact words of the speaker, e.g. ‘Give me that book’. Cf. *indirect speech*.

final clause: a subordinate clause which expresses the idea ‘(in order) (not) to’, i.e. it expresses the idea of an end (Latin *finis*), goal or purpose. E.g. ‘*in order to* swim the river, she took off her shoes’, ‘*to* cross the railway, use the bridge’, ‘close the gate *to stop* the horse getting out’.

finite (verb): a verb which has a defined number and person, e.g. ‘she runs’ (third person, singular). Contrast ‘to run’, ‘running’, which are examples of the non-finite verb. Cf. *infinitive*.

future perfect tense: a verb form of the type ‘I shall have —ed’, e.g. ‘I shall have tried’, ‘you will have gone’, ‘he will have spoken’.

future tense: a verb form of the type ‘I shall/will —’, e.g. ‘I shall go’, ‘you will be’, ‘they will run’. It denotes a state or action that will take place in the future.

gender: whether a noun, pronoun or adjective is masculine, feminine or neuter.

genitive: a grammatical case of the noun or pronoun, often meaning ‘of’, e.g. ‘the pen of my aunt’, ‘Charlotte’s friends’, ‘love of her’. Function defined at Reference Grammar **L**.

historic sequence (also called ‘secondary sequence’): when the main verb of a sentence is in a past tense (‘I have —ed’ counts as a present tense and therefore is in ‘primary sequence’).

imperative: the mood of a verb used to give a simple command, e.g. ‘run!’

imperfect tense: the past tense verb form indicating continuing or repeated action in the past, e.g. ‘I was —ing’, ‘I used to —’, ‘I kept on —ing.’

indeclinable: used of a word which has only one form, however it is used (e.g. ‘sheep’ in English, used for both singular and plural).

indicative: the mood of a verb which states something as a fact, not as a wish or command or something imagined, e.g. ‘she runs’. Compare ‘run!’, ‘may she run!’, ‘if she were to run’ etc.

indirect object: term used e.g. for the person *to whom* something is given or said, e.g. ‘she said *to him*’, ‘give it *to me*’; ‘she told *the man* to give *her* the book’. The verb indirectly affects the indirect object. Cf. *direct object*.

indirect speech: words or thoughts which are reported, not, as in direct speech, stated exactly as the speaker said or thought them, e.g. direct command ‘let me go’, indirect command ‘she told them to let her go’; direct statement ‘he has gone’, indirect statement ‘he said that he had gone’; direct question ‘Where am I?’, indirect question ‘she wondered where she was’. Any verb, noun or adjective that denotes a type of speaking or thinking can introduce indirect speech, e.g. ‘The question *why she was so talented* often crossed his mind.’

infinitive: verb form prefixed in English by ‘to’, e.g. ‘to run’, ‘to have walked’, ‘to be about to jump’ etc.

inflection: the different endings that a word takes to express its grammatical meaning in a sentence, e.g. ‘*she* (subject) sent *her* (object) to the library’; ‘they *say*’, ‘she *says*’, ‘we *said*’, indicating tense.

interrogative: a word used for asking a question, e.g. ‘who?’ is an interrogative pronoun, ‘which’ is an interrogative adjective in ‘which book?’

intransitive (verb): a verb is intransitive when it does not require a direct object to complete its meaning, e.g. ‘I stand’, ‘I sit’. In English such words can be used transitively as well, when they adopt a different meaning, e.g. ‘I sit (= take) an exam’; ‘I cannot stand (= endure) that man.’

jussive (subjunctive): related to giving orders. The form of the jussive subjunctive in English is ‘let him/them/me/us do X’, e.g. ‘let’s go’, ‘let them eat cake’.

locative case: the grammatical case of a noun used to indicate where something is at. It is used in Latin with names of towns and one-town islands, e.g. ‘at Rome’, ‘on Malta’.

main verb: the main verb(s) of a sentence is (are) the verb(s) left when all other verbs have been cut out (e.g. infinitives, participles, verbs in subordinating clauses), e.g. ‘(Although being something of a bibliophile) (*who loved nothing

more than a good read) (if she could get one), she *sold* her books (when the examinations were over) and *lived* in misery the rest of her life with her friends (who were totally illiterate).’ Main verbs – ‘sold’ and ‘lived’.

mood: whether a verb is indicative, subjunctive or imperative, e.g. ‘you are coming’ is indicative mood, ‘suppose you were to come’ subjunctive mood, and ‘come!’ imperative mood.

morphology: study of the different structures, forms and variations of a word. For example, noun ‘farm’, plural ‘farms’, verb ‘[he] farms’, past tense ‘[he] farmed’, participle ‘I saw him farming’, agent-noun ‘farmer’.

nominative: a grammatical case of a noun or pronoun, usually the ‘subject’ of a sentence. For function, see 6.2, 4; and L.

noun: name of a person (‘woman’, ‘child’), place (‘London’), thing (‘table’, ‘chair’, ‘mountain’) or abstraction (‘virtue’, ‘courage’, ‘thought’, ‘quality’).

noun clauses are clauses which do the job of a noun in the sentence, e.g. all indirect speech (e.g. ‘he says words’ – ‘words’ = noun, object; ‘he says this, *that she is divine*’ – ‘that she is divine’ = noun clause, object); constructions following ‘I fear that/lest, I doubt that, I prevent X from’ and ‘it happened that ...’

number: whether something is singular or plural; ‘table’ and ‘he’ are singular, ‘tables’ and ‘they’ are plural.

object: see *direct object*.

participle: a form of the verb with the qualities and functions of an adjective, e.g. ‘a *running* sore’, ‘a woman *thinking*...’ In Latin there are present participles active (meaning ‘—ing’), future participles active (meaning ‘about to —; on the point of —ing’), and perfect participles active (meaning ‘having —ed’) and passive (meaning ‘having been —ed’).

passive: a verb is passive when the subject is not doing the action, but having the action done to it. The same *action* may be described in both the active and the passive ‘voice’, e.g. ‘she hit the ball’ (active), ‘the ball was hit by her’ (passive); ‘we visited Rome’ (active), ‘Rome was visited by us’ (passive).

perfect tense: verb form of the type ‘I —ed’, ‘I have —ed’, ‘I did —’, expressing a simple action in the past, e.g. ‘I walked’, ‘we did walk’ or the present result of an action completed in the past, e.g. ‘I have walked’ (and therefore am tired).

person: the persons are expressed by the pronouns ‘I’, ‘we’ (first person singular and plural); ‘you’ (second person singular and plural); ‘he’/‘she’/‘it’, ‘they’ (third person singular and plural).

phrase: part of a sentence not having a finite verb, often introduced by a preposition, e.g. ‘in the house’ (prepositional phrase); ‘*going to work*, he —’ (participle phrase); ‘I wish *to do it*’ (infinitive phrase).

pluperfect tense: a tense of verb of the type ‘I had —ed’, e.g. ‘I had walked’, ‘they had gone’. It expresses the idea of a state or action achieved or completed in the past.

plural: more than one, e.g. ‘tables’ is plural, ‘table’ is singular.

predicate: what is said about the subject of a sentence, e.g. ‘The man (subject) wore blue socks’ (predicate).

predicative: to predicate something of a person is to say something new about them. So when adjectives (including participles) and nouns say something about a person or thing, they are being used ‘predicatively’. In English, predicative adjectives and participles usually come *after* the nouns they go with, e.g. ‘I saw the man *working*’, ‘the woman went away *happy*’, ‘Caesar became *consul*’, ‘she is a *a big help* to them’ (the last two are predicative nouns). Contrast ‘I saw the working man’, ‘the happy woman went away’, in which the adjectives describe what is already understood or acknowledged, adding nothing new (such adjectives are called ‘attributive’).

prefix: a small addition to the front of a word, which alters the basic meaning, e.g. *fix*, *refix*, *prefix*; *export*, *import*, *report*, *deport*, *transport*, *support*.

preposition: word or phrase coming before a noun or pronoun denoting its relation to the (pro)noun in space, time or logic, e.g. ‘*into* the house’, ‘*from* the pot’, ‘*from* the hill’, ‘*with* my friend’, ‘*by* train’. Such expressions are called ‘prepositional phrases’.

present tense: the tense of the verb of the type ‘I —’, ‘I am —ing’, ‘I do —’, e.g. ‘I love’, ‘I am loving’, ‘I do love.’ It indicates an occurrence in present time.

primary sequence: when the main verb of a sentence is present or future, or perfect in the form ‘I have —ed.’

principal parts: (in Latin) the four parts of an active verb (present indicative, present infinitive, perfect indicative and perfect participle) from which all other parts are formed; deponent verbs have only three such parts (present indicative, present infinitive and perfect participle).

pronoun: this refers to a noun, without naming it, e.g. ‘he’ (as against ‘the man’, or ‘Caesar’), ‘they’ (as against ‘the women’, or ‘the Mitfords’), ‘we’, ‘you’, ‘who’, ‘which’.

question (direct): a sentence ending in ‘?’ See also *indirect speech*.

reflexive: a pronoun or adjective is reflexive when it refers to (i.e. is the same person or thing as) the subject of the clause in which it stands, e.g. ‘they warmed *themselves* by the fire’, ‘when they had checked *their* equipment, the leader gave them (*not* reflexive, since ‘leader’ is the subject) orders’.

regular: a ‘regular’ verb, noun or adjective follows the predictable pattern of the type of conjugation or declension to which it belongs, without deviation, e.g. ‘I bake’, ‘I shall bake’, ‘I baked’, ‘I have baked’. Contrast ‘I am’, ‘I shall be’, ‘I was’, ‘I have been’.

relative clause: a clause introduced by a relative pronoun such as ‘who’, ‘which’, ‘what’, ‘whose’, ‘whom’, ‘that’. The relative pronoun refers back to (‘picks up’) a previous noun or pronoun (sometimes it refers forward to it) and the whole clause helps to describe or define the noun or pronoun referred to (hence it is an adjectival clause). Examples would be ‘the book *which I am reading* is rubbish’, ‘she presented the man *whom she had brought*’, ‘*Who dreads, yet undismayed / Dares face his terror ... Him* let Saint Thomas guide.’

reported speech: see *indirect speech*.

result clause: a clause which expresses the result or consequence of an action. It takes the form ‘so... that / as to...’ e.g. ‘they were *so* forgetful *that they left* (or ‘*as to leave*’) *all their money behind*’.

secondary sequence: see *historic sequence*.

semi-deponent: a verb which takes active forms in present, future and imperfect tenses, but deponent forms in perfect, future perfect and pluperfect.

sequence: see *primary sequence* and *historic sequence*.

singular: expresses *one* of something, e.g. ‘table’ is singular, ‘tables’ is plural; ‘he’ (singular), ‘they’ (plural).

statement: an utterance presented as a fact, e.g. ‘I am carrying this pot.’ Cf. the question ‘Am I carrying this pot?’, or the command ‘Carry this pot!’

subject: the subject of a sentence is, in the case of active verbs, the person/ thing doing the action or being in the state (e.g. ‘*Gloria* hits out’; ‘*Gloria* is champion’); in the case of passive verbs, the subject is the person or thing on the receiving end of, or affected by, the action, e.g. ‘*the ball* was hit by *Gloria*’.

subjunctive: the mood of the verb used in certain main and subordinate clauses in Latin and English, often expressing wishes or possibilities or commands, e.g. ‘may I win!’, ‘let him think!’, ‘she left in order that she *might* catch the bus’, ‘if I were a rich man’.

subordinating clause (sub-clause): any clause which is not the main one (see *adverb*, *causal clause*, *concessive clause*, *conditional clause*, *final clause*, *infinitive*, *noun*, *participle*, *relative clause*, *result clause*, *temporal clause*). Cf. *phrase*. Also see *main verb*.

suffix: a small addition to the end of a word which changes its meaning and makes a new word, e.g. ‘act’, ‘actor’, ‘action’, ‘active’.

superlative: the form of an adjective or adverb which expresses its highest or very high degree, e.g. ‘the *fastest* horse’, ‘he jumped *very high*’, ‘she worked *extremely hard*’.

syllable: a vowel or a vowel + consonant combination, pronounced without interruption as a word or part of a word, e.g. ‘the’ (one syllable), ‘horses’ (two syllables), ‘Calgary’ (three syllables), ‘antidisestablishmentarianism’ (eleven – or is it twelve? – syllables). A Latin syllable could be a vowel/diphthong, a

consonant + vowel/diphthong, or consonant + vowel/diphthong + consonant, e.g. *Athenis* ‘in Athens’ has three syllables – *A-the-nis*.

syntax: the branch of grammar which deals with the constructions of a sentence (e.g. indirect speech, result clauses, temporal clauses, participle phrases etc.).

temporal clause: a clause expressing the time *when* something happened in relation to the rest of the sentence, e.g. ‘when ...’, ‘after ...’, ‘while ...’, ‘before ...’, ‘as soon as ...’.

tense: the grammatical term for the time at which the action of a verb is meant to take place. See under *present tense*, *future tense*, *imperfect tense*, *perfect tense*, *future perfect tense*, *pluperfect tense*.

transitive (verb): a verb which takes a direct object to complete its meaning, e.g. ‘I put *the book* on the table’, ‘I make *a chart*’. It is very difficult to think of a context in which ‘I put’ and ‘I make’ could make a sentence *on their own*. This is not the case with *intransitive* verbs, e.g. ‘I sit.’

verb: a word expressing action, event or state, e.g. ‘run’, ‘jump’, ‘stand’, ‘think’, ‘be’, ‘say’. (See under *active* and *passive*.) Every complete sentence has at least one.

vocative: the case of the noun or pronoun used when addressing someone (e.g. ‘you too, *Brutus?*’, ‘*et tū, Brūte?*’).

voice: a grammatical function of a verb, i.e. whether it is active (‘I love’) or passive (‘I am loved’).

vowel: ‘a’, ‘e’, ‘i’, ‘o’, ‘u’ and ‘y’. Diphthongs are two vowels pronounced as a single syllable (e.g. ‘ou’ as in ‘bough’, ‘au’ as in ‘taut’). English (like Latin) pronounces vowels short and long, e.g. ‘hat’ and ‘cart’.

Grammar and exercises for Sections 1–6

Section 1 Introduction

Notes

- 1 All vowels are pronounced *short* unless marked with a \bar over them. So observe different vowel length of ‘*i*’ in e.g. *filia*, etc. It may be helpful, but is not essential, to mark macra in your exercises.
- 2 ‘ above a vowel indicates *stress*. Stress marks are included in all tables and throughout the Reference Grammar.
- 3 You should learn the Learning Vocabulary for each section *before* attempting the exercises. Please see *Text and Vocabulary*, pp. xiv–xv for suggested methodology.

Grammar and exercises for Introduction – *familia Eucliōnis*

1 *sum*: ‘I am’

| | | | |
|----------------------------|--------------------|--------|--------------------------|
| <i>1st person singular</i> | (<i>1st s.</i>) | su-m | ‘I am’ |
| <i>2nd person singular</i> | (<i>2nd s.</i>) | es | ‘you are’ |
| <i>3rd person singular</i> | (<i>3rd s.</i>) | es-t | ‘he/she/it is/there is’ |
| <i>1st person plural</i> | (<i>1st pl.</i>) | sú-mus | ‘we are’ |
| <i>2nd person plural</i> | (<i>2nd pl.</i>) | és-tis | ‘you (<i>pl.</i>) are’ |
| <i>3rd person plural</i> | (<i>3rd pl.</i>) | su-nt | ‘they/there are’ |

Notes

- 1 *sum* is the most common verb in Latin.
- 2 Whereas English takes two words to express ‘I am’, Latin takes *one*. This is because the *endings* of the verb – *-m*, *-s*, *-t*, *-mus*, *-tis*, *-nt* – indicate the person doing the action. Thus in full:

| | | |
|-------------|---|--------------------|
| <i>-m</i> | = | I ¹ |
| <i>-s</i> | = | you (s.) |
| <i>-t</i> | = | he, she, it, there |
| <i>-mus</i> | = | we |
| <i>-tis</i> | = | you (pl.) |
| <i>-nt</i> | = | they, there |

1. In other verbs \bar{o} = I.
- 3 *sum* is irregular because, as you can see, the stem changes from *su-* to *es-*. If it is any consolation, all verbs meaning ‘to be’ are irregular, e.g. English ‘I *am*’, ‘you *are*’, ‘he *is*’; French (deriving from Latin) ‘je *suis*’, ‘tu *es*’, ‘il *est*’ etc.

4 In the 3rd s. and 3rd pl., *est* and *sunt* mean only ‘is’ and ‘are’ if the subject is named, e.g. *senex est* = ‘he is an old man’; *Eucliō senex est* = ‘Euclio is an old man’; *seruae sunt* = ‘they are slave-women’; *omnēs seruae sunt* = ‘all are slave-women’.

5 Note the following points about word-order in sentences with *sum*:

(a) Where subject and complement are stated

(i) the unemphatic order is: subject complement *sum*, e.g.

Eucliō senex est ‘Euclio is an old man.’

(ii) other orders place emphasis on the first word, e.g.

senex est Eucliō (complement *sum* subject)

senex Eucliō est (complement subject *sum*)

Both mean ‘An old man, that’s what Euclio is.’

NB The order ‘subject *sum* complement’ emphasises the subject.

(iii) The verb *sum* may come first and is then emphatic, e.g.

est enim Eucliō auārus (*sum* subject complement) ‘For Euclio is (in fact) a miser.’

(b) Where the subject is not stated in Latin, the usual order is: complement *sum*, e.g.

Staphyla est ‘It’s Staphyla.’

(c) *est/sunt* at the beginning of a sentence commonly indicate the *existence* of something, and are often best translated ‘there is/there are’, e.g.,

est locus. . . ‘there is a place ...’

In such sentences, more information will be expected, e.g. ‘there is a place, where roses grow’, ‘there are people, who like Latin’.

NB In (a) (i) and (ii) and (b) observe how complement + *sum* usually stick together to form the predicate, e.g.

Eucliō senex-est

senex-est Eucliō

sum is likely to go closely with the word preceding it, except where the order has been altered for special emphasis (as in e.g. *senex Eucliō est*).

EXERCISES

Morphology

1 *Translate into Latin*: you (*s.*) are; there are; he is; there is; you (*pl.*) are; they are; it is; I am; she is.

2 *Change s. to pl. and vice versa*: *sum*; *sunt*; *estis*; *est*; *sumus*; *es*.

Reading exercise

Using Note 5 in the grammar section, give the correct translation of these sentences:

- (a) familia est.
- (b) serua Staphyla est.
- (c) est enim aula aurī plēna (aula, *pot*; aurī plēna, *full of gold*).
- (d) coquus est seruus (coquus, *cook*; seruus, *slave*).
- (e) Phaedra filia est.
- (f) in aedibus sunt Eucliō, Phaedra et serua (in aedibus, *in the house*).
- (g) auārus est senex (auārus, *miser*; senex, *old man*).
- (h) est prope flūmen paruus ager (prope flūmen, *near the river*; paruus, *small*; ager, *field*).

English–Latin

Translate the Latin sentences into English. Then translate the English sentences into Latin, using the pattern of the Latin ones to help you arrange the word-order correctly.

- (a) sunt in familiā Eucliō, Phaedra, Staphyla.
There is in the household a slave-girl.
- (b) Eucliō et Phaedra in aedibus sunt.
The slave-girl is in the house.
- (c) Eucliō sum.
You (s.) are a slave.
- (d) fīlia Eucliōnis Phaedra est.
Euclio's slave is Staphyla.
- (e) quis es?
I am Euclio.
- (f) quī estis?
We are Euclio and Phaedra.

Section 1A

Grammar and exercises for 1A

(Please see *Text and Vocabulary*, pp. xiv–xv for a suggested methodology. Most importantly, make a SELECTION from the exercises.)

2 Present indicative active (1st conjugation): *amō* ‘I love’, ‘I am loving’, ‘I do love’

| | | |
|----------------|----------------|--------------------------------------|
| <i>1st s.</i> | <i>ám-ō</i> | ‘I love’, ‘I am loving’, ‘I do love’ |
| <i>2nd s.</i> | <i>ámā-s</i> | ‘you (s.) love’ etc. |
| <i>3rd s.</i> | <i>áma-t</i> | ‘he/she/it loves’ |
| <i>1st pl.</i> | <i>amā-mus</i> | ‘we love’ |
| <i>2nd pl.</i> | <i>amā-tis</i> | ‘you (pl.) love’ |
| <i>3rd pl.</i> | <i>áma-nt</i> | ‘they love’ |

3 Present indicative active (2nd conjugation): *habeō* ‘I have’, ‘I am having’, ‘I do have’

| | | |
|----------------|-----------------|--------------------------------------|
| <i>1st s.</i> | <i>hábe-ō</i> | ‘I have’, ‘I am having’, ‘I do have’ |
| <i>2nd s.</i> | <i>hábē-s</i> | ‘you (s.) have’ etc. |
| <i>3rd s.</i> | <i>hábe-t</i> | ‘he/she/it has’ |
| <i>1st pl.</i> | <i>habē-mus</i> | ‘we have’ |
| <i>2nd pl.</i> | <i>habē-tis</i> | ‘you (pl.) have’ |
| <i>3rd pl.</i> | <i>hábe-nt</i> | ‘they have’ |

Notes

- 1 All verbs called ‘1st conjugation’ conjugate in the present like *am-ō*, e.g. *habit-ō* ‘I live’, *intr-ō* ‘I enter’, *uoc-ō* ‘I call’, *clām-ō* ‘I shout’, *par-ō* ‘I prepare’, *cēl-ō* ‘I hide’.
All verbs called ‘2nd conjugation’, which all end in *-eō*, conjugate like *habe-ō*, e.g. *time-ō* ‘I fear’.
- 2 Observe that these regular verbs are built up out of a *stem* + *endings*. The stem gives the *meaning* of the verb (*ama-* ‘love’, *habe-* ‘have’), the endings give the *person*, i.e.:

| | |
|------|--------------------|
| -ō | 'I' (cf. su-m) |
| -s | 'you (s.)' |
| -t | 'he/she/it; there' |
| -mus | 'we' |
| -tis | 'you (pl.)' |
| -nt | 'they/there' |

- 3 Observe that the 'key' vowel of 1st conjugation verbs is *A* (*amA-*), of 2nd conjugation is *E* (*habE-*). The only exception is the 1st s. *amō* 'I love', though this was originally *amaō*.

4 Terminology

Conjugation means 'the setting out of a verb in all its persons' as illustrated in **2** and **3**. Thus to conjugate a verb means to set it out as at **2** and **3**.

Indicative means that the action is being presented as a fact (though it need not be actually true), e.g.

'I speak to you' (fact, true)

'The pig flies past the window' (presented as a fact, but not true!)

Active means the subject is performing the action, e.g. '*Euclio* runs'; '*Staphyla* sees the daughter'.

Tense means the time at which the action is taking place. Thus 'present' means 'present tense', i.e. the action is happening in the present, e.g. 'I am running'. Cf. future tense 'I will run' etc.

5 Meaning

The present indicative active of e.g. *amō* has three meanings, i.e. 'I love', 'I am loving', 'I do love'. Each of these three 'aspects' (as they are called) of the present tense represents the actions in a slightly different way. 'I love' is the plainest statement of fact, 'I am loving' gives a more vivid, 'close-up', continuous picture (you can see it actually going on), 'I do love' is emphatic. You must select *by context* which meaning suits best. Remember, however, that in general the emphatic meaning is indicated in Latin by the verb being put first in the sentence.

EXERCISES

Morphology

- 1 *Conjugate*: cēlō; timeō; portō; habeō (*optional*: habitō; clāmō; intrō; uocō; sum).
- 2 *Translate, then change pl. to s. and vice versa*: clāmās; habent; intrat; uocō; sumus; portāmus; timēs; habētis; est; timet; uocant; cēlātis; timēmus; habeō; sunt.
- 3 *Translate into Latin*: you (*pl.*) have; I do hide; we are carrying; they call; you (*s.*) are afraid of; she is dwelling; there are; it has; there enters; she is.

6 The cases in Latin: terminology and meaning

The terms ‘nominative’, ‘vocative’, ‘accusative’, ‘genitive’, ‘dative’ and ‘ablative’ are the technical terms for the six so-called ‘cases’ of Latin nouns and adjectives. The cases will be referred to as nom., voc., acc., gen., dat. and abl. after Section 1B. When laid out in this form the cases are called a ‘declension’. ‘Declining’ a noun means to go through all its cases. *The different forms of the cases are of absolutely vital importance in Latin and must be learned by heart till you know them to perfection.*

The reason is as follows. In English, we determine the meaning of a sentence by the order in which the words come. The sentence ‘Man bites dog’ means something quite different from ‘Dog bites man’, for no other reason than that the words come in a different order. A Roman would have been bewildered by this, because in Latin word-order does not determine the grammatical functions of the words in the sentence (though it plays its part in emphasis): what is vital is the *form* the words take. In ‘daughter calls the slave’, ‘daughter’ is the subject of the sentence, and ‘slave’ the object. A Roman used the *nominative* form to indicate a subject, and the *accusative* form to indicate an object. Thus when he wrote or said the word for daughter, *filia*, he indicated not only what the word meant, but also its function in the sentence – in this case, subject; likewise, when he said ‘slave’, *seruum*, the form he used would tell him that slave was the object of the sentence. Thus, hearing *filia seruum*, a Roman would conclude at once that a daughter was doing something to a slave. Had the Roman heard *filiam seruus*, he would have concluded that a slave, *seruus*, which is here in the nominative case, was doing something to a daughter, *filiam*, here in the accusative case.

So a Roman could write those words in any order he liked – ‘calls slave daughter’/‘daughter slave calls’/‘calls daughter slave’ and so on, because if the slave was in the nominative and daughter the accusative, it would mean ‘The slave calls the daughter’. WORD-ORDER IN LATIN IS OF SECONDARY IMPORTANCE since its function relates not to grammar or syntax so much as to emphasis, contrast and style. To English speakers word-order is, of course, the critical indicator of meaning. In Latin, grammar or syntax is indicated by WORD FORM. WORD FORM IS VITAL.

We can note here that English has a residual case system left, e.g. ‘I like beer’, not ‘me like beer’; ‘he loves me’, not ‘him loves I’; and cf. he, him / she, her, hers / they, them, theirs. It is, however, noticeable that even this system is increasingly breaking down. One regularly hears people saying e.g. ‘Charlotte went to the match with Toby and I.’ Traditional usage would favour ‘with Toby and [with] me’; one would never say ‘he went to the match with I’ – would one?

- 1 *Noun*: the name of something (real or abstract), e.g. ‘house’, ‘door’, ‘idea’, ‘intelligence’, ‘Helena’.
- 2 *Nominative case*: the most important functions are (i) as subject of a sentence, and (ii) as complement after the verb ‘to be’. Nominative means ‘naming’ (*nōminō* ‘I name’). In Latin, the subject of a sentence is ‘in the verb’, e.g.

habeō means ‘I have’

habet means ‘he/she/it has’

If one wants to ‘name’ the subject, it goes into the nominative case, e.g.

habeō serua ‘I (the slave) have’

habet serua ‘she (the slave) has’, ‘the slave has’

habet uir ‘he (the man) has’, ‘the man has’

- 3 *Vocative case*: used when addressing someone or something, e.g. ‘O (male) slave’, ‘[o] *serue*’, ‘O table’, ‘[o] *mēnsa*’, though the young Winston Churchill, faced with this for the first time, pointed out that he never actually did address a table (see pp. ix–x). In nearly all instances the form of the vocative is the same as that of the nominative.
- 4 *Accusative case*: the most important function is as direct object of a verb. The accusative case denotes the person or thing on the receiving end of the action, e.g. ‘the man bites *the dog*’. One may also look at it as limiting or defining the extent of the action, e.g. ‘the man bites’ (what does he bite? A bullet? A jam sandwich? A table? No –) ‘the dog’. So the accusative case can also limit or define the extent of a description, e.g. *nūdus pedēs* ‘naked in respect of the feet’, ‘with naked feet’.

NB The verb ‘to be’ is NEVER followed by a direct object in the accusative, but frequently by a ‘complement’, in the NOMINATIVE, e.g. ‘Phaedra is the daughter’ *Phaedra filia est*. This is perfectly reasonable, since ‘daughter’ obviously describes Phaedra. They are both the same person, and will be in the same case.

- 5 *Genitive case*: this case expresses various senses of the English ‘of’. Its root is the same as *genitor*, ‘author’, ‘originator’, ‘father’. Thus it denotes the idea ‘belonging to’ (possession), e.g. ‘slave *of Euclio*’, and origin, e.g. ‘son *of Euclio*’. Cf. English ‘dog’s dinner’ (= ‘dinner of dog’) and ‘dogs’ dinner’ (= ‘dinner of the dogs’), where *dog’s* and *dogs’* are genitive forms.

Dative and ablative cases: these will be used only in very limited ways in the *Text* at the moment, but you must learn their forms now as they are crucially important and will appear in exercise work.

- 6 *Word-order*: the usual word-order in English for a simple sentence consisting of subject, verb and object is: (i) subject (ii) verb (iii) object, e.g. ‘The man (subj.) bites (verb) the dog (obj.).’

In Latin the usual order is (i) subject (ii) object (iii) verb. See 1⁵ above and Reference Grammar **W** for a full discussion.

7 Singular and plural; masculine, feminine and neuter

As well as having ‘case’, nouns can be either singular (s.), when there will be one of the persons or things named, or plural (pl.), when there will be more than one. This feature is called the ‘number’ of a noun. Nouns also possess ‘gender’, i.e. are masculine (m.), feminine (f.) or neuter (n.).

8 1st declension nouns: *seru-a* ae 1 feminine (f.) 'slave-woman'

The pattern which nouns follow is called 'declension'. Nouns 'decline'.

| | | | |
|-------------------|-----------------|---------------|--------------------------------|
| | <i>case</i> | <i>s.</i> | |
| <i>nominative</i> | (<i>nom.</i>) | séru-a | 'slave-woman' |
| <i>vocative</i> | (<i>voc.</i>) | séru-a | 'O slave-woman' |
| <i>accusative</i> | (<i>acc.</i>) | séru-am | 'slave-woman' |
| <i>genitive</i> | (<i>gen.</i>) | séru-ae (-āī) | 'of the slave-woman' |
| <i>dative</i> | (<i>dat.</i>) | séru-ae | 'to/for the slave-woman' |
| <i>ablative</i> | (<i>abl.</i>) | séru-ā | 'by/with/from the slave-woman' |
| | <i>case</i> | <i>pl.</i> | |
| <i>nominative</i> | (<i>nom.</i>) | séru-ae | 'slave-women' |
| <i>vocative</i> | (<i>voc.</i>) | séru-ae | 'O slave-women' |
| <i>accusative</i> | (<i>acc.</i>) | séru-ās | 'slave-women' |
| <i>genitive</i> | (<i>gen.</i>) | seru-ārum | 'of the slave-women' |
| <i>dative</i> | (<i>dat.</i>) | séru-īs | 'to/for the slave-women' |
| <i>ablative</i> | (<i>abl.</i>) | séru-īs | 'by/with/from the slave-women' |

Notes

- Latin never uses a word corresponding to 'the' and only in special circumstances to 'a'. So *serua* can mean 'slave-woman', 'the slave-woman' or 'a slave-woman'. The same applies to all nouns in Latin.
- All 1st decl. nouns end in *-a* in the nominative *s.* This is called the 'ending', the rest of the noun is called the 'stem'. So the stem of *serua* is *seru-*, the ending *-a*. The same applies to all 1st decl. nouns. Cf. *fīli-a*, *famili-a*, *Phaedr-a*, *Staphyl-a*, *aul-a*, *corōn-a*, *scaen-a*.
- Most 1st decl. nouns are f. in gender (common exceptions are e.g. *agricol-a* 'farmer', *naut-a* 'sailor', both m.).
- Note ambiguities:
 - seru-ae* can be genitive *s.*, dative *s.*, or nominative/vocative *pl.*
 - seru-a* is nominative/vocative *s.*, but *seru-ā* = ablative *s.* (not ambiguous if you note vowel length carefully: *-a* nominative / *-ā* ablative)
 - seru-īs* can be dative or ablative *pl.*
- Nouns of this declension you should have learned are: *famili-a* 'household', *fīli-a* 'daughter', *Phaedr-a* 'Phaedra', *seru-a* 'slave-woman', *Staphyl-a* 'Staphyla', *aul-a* 'pot', *corōn-a* 'garland', *scaen-a* 'stage', 'scene'.

9 2nd declension nouns: *seru-us ī* 2 masculine (m.) ‘male slave’

| | s. | | pl. | |
|-------------------|---------|-------------------------------|-----------|--------------------------------|
| <i>nominative</i> | seru-us | ‘male slave’ | seru-ī | ‘male slaves’ |
| <i>vocative</i> | seru-e | ‘O male slave’ | seru-ī | ‘O male slaves’ |
| <i>accusative</i> | seru-um | ‘male slave’ | seru-ōs | ‘male slaves’ |
| <i>genitive</i> | seru-ī | ‘of the male slave’ | seru-ōrum | ‘of the male slaves’ |
| <i>dative</i> | seru-ō | ‘to/for the male slave’ | seru-īs | ‘to/for the male slaves’ |
| <i>ablative</i> | seru-ō | ‘by/with/from the male slave’ | seru-īs | ‘by/with/from the male slaves’ |

Notes

- The vocative case, used when addressing people (e.g. ‘hello, Brutus’), ends in *-e* in the 2nd decl. m., e.g. ‘you too, Brutus?’ *et tū, Brūte?* (see 17A for full discussion).
- Observe ambiguities:
 - seru-ō* can be dative or ablative s.
 - seru-īs* can be dative or ablative pl.
 - seru-ī* can be genitive s. or nominative vocative pl.
 - Watch *-um* endings of accusative s. and genitive pl.
- The other noun of this decl. you should have learned is *coqu-us* ‘cook’.
- Important translation note:** the suggested meanings for the dative and ablative cases in particular are to be treated with some caution. But one must start somewhere, and this does give an overview of some of the English uses.

EXERCISES

- Decline:* coquus; aula (*optional:* seruus, familia, corōna, scaena).
- Name the case or cases of each of these words:* seruārum; coquō; corōnam; seruōs; scaenae; filiā; coquus; seruī; coquum; filiae; scaenās; seruō; coquōrum; aula; seruīs.
- Translate each sentence, then change noun(s) and verb to pl. or s. as appropriate.* E.g. coquus seruam uocat: *the cook calls the slave-girl, coquī seruās uocant.*
 - sum seruus.
 - aulam portō.
 - corōnās habent.
 - serua timet seruū.

- (e) seruās uocātis.
- (f) seruae aulās portant.
- (g) cēlāmus aulās.
- (h) seruās cēlant coquī.
- (i) familia corōnam habet.
- (j) uocat seruus seruam.

10 Prepositions

Prepositions (*prae-positus* ‘in front-placed’) are the little words *placed in front* of nouns, e.g. *in* ‘into’, *ad* ‘towards’ etc. Learn the following important prepositions.

in, ad + accusative

in ‘into’, ‘onto’, e.g. *in scaenam intrat* ‘he enters onto (i.e. right onto) the stage’

ad ‘to(wards)’, e.g. *ad scaenam aulam portat* ‘he carries the pot towards (not necessarily onto) the stage’

Observe that the accusative denotes direction *towards which* something moves. Compare the next preposition.

in + ablative

in ‘in’, ‘on’, e.g. *in scaenā est* ‘he is on the stage’

Observe that *in* + ablative denotes position *at/on/in*.

Note

It is crucial to distinguish between *in* followed by the accusative and *in* followed by the ablative

EXERCISE

Write the Latin for: onto the stage; in the pot; onto the garlands; into the pots; in the household; towards the slave-woman; in the slaves; towards the daughter.

Translation hint

In order to develop reading skills, it is extremely important that Latin words be taken in the order in which they appear in a sentence, but that judgment about the final meaning of the sentence be suspended until all the necessary clues have been provided. Take, for example, the following sentences:

(a) *aulam igitur clam sub terrā cēlō*

One should approach it as follows:

aulam ‘pot’: *-am* = accusative case, so something is happening to it

igitur ‘therefore’ (fixed)

clam ‘secretly’ (fixed)

sub ‘underneath’ (fixed)

terrā ‘earth’, so probably ‘underneath the earth’

cēlō something to do with ‘hide’, person ending *-ō*, so ‘I hide’.

That gives us subject and verb; *aulam* must be object, so ‘I hide the pot under the earth’. Add ‘therefore’ and ‘secretly’ in the most apt place.

(b) *in scaenam intrant seruus et serua et nūptiās parant*

in ‘in’ or ‘into’, depending on case of following noun

scaenam = plural, so ‘house’. accusative, so ‘onto the stage’

intrant = something to do with entering, *-ant* = ‘they’, so ‘they enter’

seruus = something to do with a slave. But *-us* shows subject, so the slave must be doing something. Can he be ‘entering’? But *intrant* is plural, ‘they enter’. Oh dear!

et ‘and’. Ah. Perhaps another subject is about to appear.

serua ‘slave-woman’, *-a* ending shows subject. Excellent: ‘The slave and the slave-woman [they] are entering into the house.’

et ‘and’. More people entering? Or another clause?

nūptiās ‘marriage-rites’, *-ās* shows object. So something is being done to the marriage-rites.

parant: something about preparing, *-ant* shows ‘they’. So ‘they prepare the marriage-rites’. Since the two slaves of the earlier clause are in the nominative, they must presumably be subject of *parant* too. So ‘The slave and slave-woman [they] enter onto the stage and [they] prepare the marriage-rites.’

What you have done here is to *read* the sentence. Reformulating it into normal English is to *translate* it, a further step beyond the analytical understanding of the Latin. The technique outlined above is the best way to approach a Latin sentence. A number of the exercises will encourage you to do this kind of analysis.

Reading exercises

1 Read each of these sentences, then, without translating, say what the subject of the second verb is (in Latin). Finally, translate each sentence into English.

(a) *seruus in scaenam intrat. corōnās portat.*

(b) *coquī in scaerā sunt. seruās uocant.*

- (c) est in familiā Eucliōnis serua. Staphyla est.
 (d) in scaenam intrat Dēmaenetus. aulam aurī plēnam habet.
 (e) coquus et serua clāmant; seruum enim timent.
- 2 Take each word as it comes and define its job in the sentence (e.g. Dēmaenetus coquum... – *Demaenetus is subject, so Demaenetus is doing something, coquum is object, so Demaenetus is doing something to a cook*). Then add an appropriate verb in the right form (e.g. *Demaenetus calls a cook – Dēmaenetus coquum uocat*).
- (a) aulam seruus ...
 (b) serua corōnam, aulam seruus ...¹
 (c) seruās seruī ...
 (d) familia coquōs ...
 (e) Lar seruōs ...
 (f) aurum ego ...
 (g) Eucliō familiam ...
 (h) aulās aurī plēnās et corōnās seruae ...
1. The verb must be s.

EITHER

- 3 With the help of the running vocabulary for 1A, work through the Latin passage ‘Dēmaenetus ...’, following these steps:
- (a) As you meet each word, ask
- (i) its meaning
 (ii) its job in the sentence (i.e. subject or object? part of a phrase?), e.g.
- Dēmaenetus coquōs et tībīcinās uidet.
 Dēmaenetus ‘*Demaenetus*’, subject; coquōs ‘*cooks*’, object; et ‘*and*’ almost certainly joining something to coquōs; tībīcinās ‘*pipe-girls*’, object – part of a phrase coquōs et tībīcinās; uidet ‘*(he) sees*’, verb: ‘*Demaenetus the cooks and pipe-girls (he) sees.*’
- (b) Next produce a version in good English, e.g. ‘*Demaenetus sees the cooks and pipe-girls.*’
- (c) When you have worked through the whole passage, go back to the Latin and read the piece aloud, taking care to phrase correctly, thinking through the meaning as you read.

Dēmaenetus coquōs et tībīcinās uidet. ad nūptiās filiae ueniunt. in aedīs
 Dēmaenetī intrans et nūptiās parant. nunc aedēs Dēmaenetī coquōrum et
 tībīcinārum plēnae sunt. Dēmaenetus autem timet. aulam enim aurī plēnam habet.
 nam sī aula Dēmaenetī in aedibus est aurī plēna, fūrēs ualdē timet Dēmaenetus.
 aulam Dēmaenetus cēlat. nunc aurum saluum est, nunc saluus Dēmaenetus, nunc
 salua aula. Lar enim aulam habet plēnam aurī. nunc prope Larem Dēmaenetī 5
 aula sub terrā latet. nunc igitur ad Larem appropinquat Dēmaenetus et supplicat.
 ‘ō Lar, ego Dēmaenetus tē uocō. ō tūtēla meae familiae, aulam ad tē aurī plēnam
 portō. filiae nūptiae sunt hodiē. ego autem fūrēs timeō. nam aedēs meae fūrum
 plēnae sunt. tē ōrō et obsecrō, aulam Dēmaenetī aurī plēnam seruā.’

- 1 aedīs *house* (acc.)
- 2 aedēs *house* (nom.); *agrees with* plēnae
- 3 aedibus *house* (abl.)
- 4 fūrēs *of thieves* (acc.)
- 5 fūram *of thieves* (gen.)

OR

English–Latin

Translate the Latin sentences into English. Then translate the English sentences into Latin, using the pattern of the Latin ones to help you arrange the word-order correctly.

- (a) coquus aulam Dēmaenetī portat.
The slave has the cooks' garlands.
- (b) tū clāmās, ego autem aulās portō.
The slave girl is afraid. Therefore *I* am calling the cook.
- (c) cūr scaena plēna est seruōrum?
Why is the household full of cooks?
- (d) ego Lar tē uocō. cūr mē timēs?
(It is) *I*, Phaedra (who)¹ enter. Why are you (*pl.*) hiding the pot?
- (e) sī aurum habet, Dēmaenetus timet.
If they hide the pot, the slaves are afraid.
- (f) corōnās et aulās portant seruī.
(It is)¹ a cook and a slave-girl Demaenetus is summoning.

1 Put stressed words first in the sentence.

Section 1B

Grammar and exercises for 1B

11 3rd declension nouns (consonant stem): *fūr fūr-is* 3m. 'thief'

| | <i>s.</i> | | <i>pl.</i> | |
|-------------------|-----------|--------------------------|------------|------------------------|
| <i>nominative</i> | fūr | 'thief' | fūr-ēs | 'thieves' |
| <i>vocative</i> | fūr | 'thief' | fūr-ēs | 'O thieves' |
| <i>accusative</i> | fūr-em | 'thief' | fūr-ēs | 'thieves' |
| <i>genitive</i> | fūr-is | 'of the thief' | fūr-um | 'of thieves' |
| <i>dative</i> | fūr-ī | 'to/for the thief' | fūr-ibus | 'to/for thieves' |
| <i>ablative</i> | fūr-e | 'by/with/from the thief' | fūr-ibus | 'by/with/from thieves' |

Note

This is the standard pattern of endings for 3rd decl. nouns whose stems end in a consonant. There are, however, slight changes of pattern in nouns whose stem ends in the vowel *-i-* (the so-called '*i*-stem' nouns) as follows. See **H3 notes**.

12 3rd declension nouns (*i*-stem) *aedis aed-is* 3f. 'room', 'temple'; in plural 'temples', 'house'

| | <i>s.</i> | |
|-------------------|---------------|----------------------------------|
| <i>nominative</i> | aéd-is | 'room', 'temple' |
| <i>vocative</i> | aéd-is | 'O room', 'O temple' |
| <i>accusative</i> | aéd-em | 'room', 'temple' |
| <i>genitive</i> | aéd-is | 'of the room', 'of the temple' |
| <i>dative</i> | aéd-ī | 'to/for the room/temple' |
| <i>ablative</i> | aéd-e (aéd-ī) | 'by/with/from the room/temple' |
| | <i>pl.</i> | |
| <i>nominative</i> | aéd-ēs | 'temples'/'house' |
| <i>vocative</i> | aéd-ēs | 'O temples'/'O house' |
| <i>accusative</i> | aéd-īs (-ēs) | 'temples'/'house' |
| <i>genitive</i> | aéd-ium | 'of temples'/'of the house' |
| <i>dative</i> | aéd-ibus | 'to/for temples/the house' |
| <i>ablative</i> | aéd-ibus | 'by/with/from temples/the house' |

Notes

- 1 *aed-is* in the s. means ‘room’, ‘temple’; in the pl. usually ‘house’.
- 2 Observe accusative pl. in *-īs*, genitive pl. in *-ium*, and alternative ablative s. in *-ī*. This dominance of *-i-* is the mark of *i*-stem nouns of the third declension. In fact originally *all* the cases would have had the *-i-*, since it is part of the stem. The s. of *turris* 3f. ‘tower’, which keeps the old forms even in classical Latin, will demonstrate this: *turri-s*, *turri-s*, *turri-m*, *turri-s*, *turri*, *turri*.

Some hints on typical consonant stems are given below, but for practical reasons we present all endings as for consonant stems, i.e. *aed-is*, not (the technically correct) *aedi-s*.

13 Stems and endings of 3rd declension nouns

- 1 3rd decl. nouns have a great variety of endings in the nominative s. What unites them all is that their genitive s. has the same ending, e.g. *Eucliō Eucliōn-is*, *senex sen-is*. You must therefore learn both the decl. and the genitive s. as well as the gender of these 3rd decl. nouns, i.e. not *aedis* ‘temple’, pl. ‘house’, but *aedis aed-is* 3f. ‘temple’, pl. ‘house’.
- 2 The genitive s. is doubly important, because it gives you the STEM OF THE NOUN to which the endings are added to make the declension. Thus when you have learned *senex sen-is* 3m., you know that the stem is *sen-*. IT IS THE GENITIVE S. WHICH GIVES YOU THIS.
- 3 You also need to be able to work back from the stem to the nominative s. in order to find the word in a dictionary. E.g. if you see *pācem* in the text, you MUST be able to deduce that the nominative s. is *pāx*, otherwise you will not be able to look the word up. Observe the following common patterns of CONSONANT STEMS:
 - (a) stems ending in *-l-* or *-r-* keep *l* and *r* in the nominative, e.g.
 - cōnsul-is*→nominative *cōnsul* ‘consul’
 - fūr-is*→nominative *fūr* ‘thief’
 - (b) stems ending in *-d-* or *-t-* end in *-s* in the nominative, e.g.
 - ped-is*→nominative *pēs* ‘foot’
 - dōt-is*→nominative *dōs* ‘dowry’
 - (c) stems ending in *-c-* or *-g-* end in *-x* in the nominative, e.g.
 - rēg-is*→nominative *rēx* ‘king’
 - duc-is*→nominative *dux* ‘general’
 - (d) stems ending in *-iōn-* or *-ōn-* end in *-iō* or *-ō* in the nominative, e.g.
 - Scīpiōn-is*→nominative *Scīpiō* ‘Scipio’
 - praedōn-is*→nominative *praedō* ‘pirate’

EXERCISES

- 1 *Decline:* Eucliō (*s.*), fūr (*optional:* honor, Lar, aedis).
- 2 *Name the case of each of these words:* Eucliōnis, fūrem, aedium, honōrēs, Lar, senum, aedīs, honōrem, fūr, Laris.
- 3 *Translate each sentence, then change noun(s) and verb(s) to s. or pl. as appropriate, e.g. fūrem seruus timet – the slave is afraid of a thief – fūrēs seruī timent.*
 - (a) deinde thēsaŕum senis fūr uidet.
 - (b) Lar honōrem nōn habet.
 - (c) senem igitur deus nōn cūrat.
 - (d) quārē tamen supplicātis, senēs?
 - (e) unguentum senex tandem possidet.
 - (f) in aedibus senex nunc habitat.
 - (g) fūr aulam aurī plēnam semper amat.
 - (h) honōrem tamen nōn habet fūr.
 - (i) quārē in aedīs nōn intrās, senex?
 - (j) seruam clam amat senex.

14

1st/2nd declension adjectives: *mult-us a um* 'much', 'many'

| | <i>s.</i> | | | |
|-------------------|------------|--|-----------|-----------|
| | <i>m.</i> | | <i>f.</i> | <i>n.</i> |
| <i>nominative</i> | múlt-us | | múlt-a | múlt-um |
| <i>vocative</i> | múlt-e | | múlt-a | múlt-um |
| <i>accusative</i> | múlt-um | | múlt-am | múlt-um |
| <i>genitive</i> | múlt-ī | | múlt-ae | múlt-ī |
| <i>dative</i> | múlt-ō | | múlt-ae | múlt-ō |
| <i>ablative</i> | múlt-ō | | múlt-ā | múlt-ō |
| | <i>pl.</i> | | | |
| | <i>m.</i> | | <i>f.</i> | <i>n.</i> |
| <i>nominative</i> | múlt-ī | | múlt-ae | múlt-a |
| <i>vocative</i> | múlt-ī | | múlt-ae | múlt-a |
| <i>accusative</i> | múlt-ōs | | múlt-ās | múlt-a |
| <i>genitive</i> | múlt-ōrum | | múlt-ārum | múlt-ōrum |
| <i>dative</i> | múlt-īs | | múlt-īs | múlt-īs |
| <i>ablative</i> | múlt-īs | | múlt-īs | múlt-īs |

Notes

- 1 Adjectives (from *adiectus* ‘added to’) give additional information about a noun, e.g. *fast* horse, *steep* hill (adjectives are often called ‘describing words’).
- 2 Since nouns can be m., f. or n., adjectives need to have m., f. and n. forms so that they can ‘AGREE’ grammatically with the noun they describe. So adjectives must agree with nouns in *gender*.
- 3 Adjectives must also ‘AGREE’ with nouns in *number*, s. or pl.
- 4 Finally, they must ‘AGREE’ with nouns in *case* (nominative, accusative, genitive, dative or ablative). A noun in the accusative can be described only by an adjective in the accusative.
- 5 In summary, if a noun is to be described by an adjective in Latin, the adjective will have to agree with it in *gender, number and case*. Here are three examples:
 - (a) ‘I see *many* temples’ – ‘temples’ are the object, and pl.; the word we shall use in Latin is *aedīs*, which is f. So if ‘many’ is to agree with ‘temples’, it will need to be accusative pl. and f. Answer: *multās aedīs*. Note that the endings of the accusative pl. adjective *mult-ās* and noun *aed-īs* are not the same. This is because they decline differently.
 - (b) ‘He shows *much* respect’ – ‘respect’ is object, s. The word we shall use, *honor honōr-is*, is m. So ‘much’ will have to be accusative s. m. Answer: *multum honōrem*. Note *mult-um* *honōr-em* and see (a) above.
 - (c) ‘I hear the voice of *many* slaves’ – ‘slaves’ is genitive, and pl.; the word we shall use, *serua*, is f. So ‘many’ will be genitive pl. f. Answer: *multārum seruārum*.
- 6 It is worth emphasising here that an adjective does not necessarily describe a noun it is standing next to. It describes a noun it *agrees with* in case, number and gender, e.g.
 - (a) *multum filia seruat thēsaurum*. *multum* = accusative s. m.; *filia* = nominative s. f; *thēsaurum* = accusative s. m., i.e. ‘It’s much treasure the daughter keeps.’
 - (b) *nūllum fūrum cōnsilium placet*. *nūllum* = accusative s. m. or nominative/accusative s. n.; *fūrum* = genitive pl.; *cōnsilium* = nominative/accusative s. n., i.e. ‘No scheme of thieves is pleasing.’

multus usually precedes its noun, e.g. *multī seruī* ‘many slaves’. When it follows its noun it is emphatic, e.g. *seruōs multōs habeō* ‘I’ve got *loads* of slaves.’
- 7 Adjectives can be used on their own as nouns, when *gender* will indicate meaning, e.g. *bonus* (m.) ‘a good man’, *bonum* (n.) ‘a good thing’.

15 2nd declension neuter nouns: *somni-um* ī 2n. 'dream'

| | <i>s.</i> | | <i>pl.</i> | |
|-------------------|------------------|--------------------------|------------|-----------------------|
| <i>nominative</i> | sómni-um | 'dream' | sómni-a | 'dreams' |
| <i>vocative</i> | sómni-um | 'O dream' | sómni-a | 'O dreams' |
| <i>accusative</i> | sómni-um | 'dream' | sómni-a | 'dreams' |
| <i>genitive</i> | sómni or sómni-ī | 'of the dream' | somni-ōrum | 'of dreams' |
| <i>dative</i> | sómni-ō | 'to/for the dream' | sómni-īs | 'to/for dreams' |
| <i>ablative</i> | sómni-ō | 'by/with/from the dream' | sómni-īs | 'by/with/from dreams' |

Notes

- 1 There is only one neuter noun type of the 2nd decl.; they all end in *-um* in nominative *s.* Cf. *aur-um* 'gold', *unguent-um* 'ointment'.
- 2 As with other neuters, the nominative and accusative *s.* and *pl.* are the same (see 26).
- 3 Do not confuse the neuter nominative *s.* forms with the accusative *s.* of 2nd decl. *m.* nouns like *seru-us* (*seru-um*) or genitive *pl.* of 3rd decl., nouns like *aedis* (*aedium*). Be sure that you learn nouns like *somnium* as type 2 neuter.
- 4 As with all neuters, there is a danger of confusing the *pl.* forms in *-a* with 1st decl. *f.* nouns like *serua*.
- 5 Note the genitive *s.* *sómni* or *sómni-ī*. Nouns of the 2nd decl. ending in *-ius* (e.g. *filius* 'son') usually have genitive *s.* in *-ī* (e.g. *fili-ī*) and nominative *pl.* always in *-ī* (e.g. *fili-ī*).
- 6 2nd decl. neuter nouns share the same endings as the 2nd decl. *m.* nouns in the genitive, dative and ablative, both *s.* and *pl.* (cf. *seruus* 9).

EXERCISES

- 1 Here to learn is a list of 2nd decl. *n.* nouns like *somnium*:
 exiti-um ī 2n. 'death', 'destruction'
 ingeni-um ī 2n. 'talent', 'ability'
 perīcul-um ī 2n. 'danger'
- 2 Pick out the genitive *pls.* from the following list. Say what nouns they come from, with what meaning (e.g. *perīculōrum* = genitive *pl.* of *perīcul-um* ī 'danger'): *honōrum*, *ingenium*, *aedibus*, *fūrum*, *exitiō*, *seruum*, *unguentōrum*, *aurum*, *senum*, *thēsaurīs*.
- 3 Pick out, and give the meanings of, the *pl.* nouns in the following list: *scaena*, *serua*, *ingenia*, *familia*, *cūra*, *unguentīs*, *filiā*, *somnia*, *corōna*, *perīcula*.

16 2nd declension noun (irregular): *de-us ī* 2m. 'god'

| | <i>s.</i> | <i>pl.</i> |
|-------------------|-----------|-----------------|
| <i>nominative</i> | dé-us | dī |
| <i>vocative</i> | dé-us | dī |
| <i>accusative</i> | dé-um | déōs |
| <i>genitive</i> | dé-ī | de-ōrum (dé-um) |
| <i>dative</i> | dé-ō | dīs |
| <i>ablative</i> | dé-ō | dīs |

17A Vocatives

The vocative case (*uocō* 'I call') is used when addressing a person. Its form is the same as the nominative in all nouns, except 2nd decl. m., where *-us* of nominative s. becomes *-e* (e.g. O *Dēmaenete* 'Demaenetus!', *serue* 'O slave') and the *-ius* of nominative s. becomes *-ī* (e.g. *fīlius* 'son'; *fīlī* 'O son').

NB The vocative s. of *meus* 'my' is not *mee* (!) but *mī*, e.g. *mī fīlī* 'O my son'.

17B Apposition

Consider this sentence:

sum Dēmaenetus, Eucliōnis auus 'I am Demaenetus, Euclio's grandfather.'

The phrase *Eucliōnis auus* gives more information about Demaenetus. It is said to be 'in apposition' to *Dēmaenetus* (from *adpositus* 'placed near'). Note that *auus*, the main piece of information, is the same case as *Dēmaenetus*.

Note

Appositional phrases may be added to a noun in any case, e.g. *sum seruus Dēmaenetī senis* 'I am the slave of Demaenetus the old man'. *senis* (genitive) is in apposition to *Dēmaenetī* (genitive).

EXERCISES

- 1 *Attach the correct form of multus to these nouns (in ambiguous cases, give all possible alternatives): cūrās, aurum, fūrēs, senem, honōris, aedem, seruōrum, senum, aedīs, corōnae (optional: seruum, unguenta, aedis, familiam, aedium, honor, aedēs).*
- 2 *Pair the given form of multus with the nouns with which it can agree:*

multus: senex, cūra, Larem, familiae, seruus

multī: honor, aedēs, Laris, senēs, seruī

multīs: honōribus, aedīs, cūram, seruū, deum, senibus, aurum
 multās: senis, honōrēs, aedīs, cūram, familiās
 multae: seruae, aedī, cūram, senēs, dī
 multa: aedēs, unguenta, senem, cūra, corōnārum
 (*optional*):
 multōs: aedīs, unguentum, cūrās, seruōs, fūrēs
 multō: aurum, Larem, cūram, honōrī, aedem
 multōrum: aedium, unguentōrum, seruū, senum, deōrum,
 corōnārum
 multārum: fūrum, aurum, honōrem, seruārum, aedium)

- 3 *Translate into Latin: many slave-girls (nominative); of much respect; of many garlands; much gold; many an old man (accusative); of many thieves; many old men (accusative).*

Optional exercises

- 1 *Identify the case (or cases, where ambiguities exist) of the following words, say what they mean, and then turn s. into pl. and pl. into s.: seruae, honōrī, thēsaurīs, familiā, deum, filiā, dīs, corōna, senum.*
- 2 *Give the declension and case of each of the following words: thēsaurum, honōrum, deōrum, seruārum, aedium.*
- 3 *Case work*
- (a) *Group the following words by case (i.e. list all nominatives, accusatives, genitives etc.). When you have done that, identify s. and pl. within each group: Eucliōnem, senī, thēsaurō, filiae, familia, deī, corōna, scaenās, dī, aedēs, honōribus, seruārum, multīs.*
- (b) *Identify the following noun forms by showing:*
- what case they are*
- whether s. or pl.*
- their nominative s. form, genitive s. form and gender*
- their meaning*
- e.g. senem is accusative s. of senex sen-is, m. ‘old man’. Remember ambiguities!*
- (i) *3rd decl.: aedēs, patris, senibus, honōrum, senem, aedibus, honōrī, sene, aedium, honōris, senēs, aedīs*
- (ii) *1st decl. f.: Phaedrae, aulārum, corōnās, scaenā, cūrīs, filiārum, familiae, Staphylam, seruīs, aulam, corōnae, scaenās*

- (iii) *2nd decl. m.*: seruī, coquus, thēsaurum, seruīs, coquī, seruō, deōs, thēsaurīs, coquō, deī
- (iv) *Various declensions*: sene, seruīs, patris, coquīs, honōrī, aedīs, aulārum, honōrum, deum, seruārum

Reading exercise

In each of these sentences, the verb comes first or second. Say in each case whether the subject is s. or pl., then, moving on, say in order as they come whether the following words are subjects or objects of the verb. Next, translate into English. Finally read out the sentences in Latin with the correct phrasing.

- (a) clāmant seruī, senex, seruae.
 (b) dat igitur honōrem multum Phaedra.
 (c) nunc possidet Lar aedīs.
 (d) amant dī multum honōrem.
 (e) dat aurum multās cūrās.
 (f) habitant quoque in aedibus seruī.
 (g) est aurum in aulā multum.
 (h) timent autem fūrēs multī senēs.
 (i) quārē intrant senex et seruus in scaenam?
 (j) tandem explicat Lar cūrās senis.

Quotations

Translate these sentences with the help of the appended vocabulary:

- (a) *nūlla potentia longa est.* (Ovid)
 (b) *uīta nec bonum nec malum est.* (Seneca: see 14.7)
 (c) *nōbilitās sōla est atque ūnica uirtūs.* (Juvenal)
 (d) *longa est uīta sī plēna est.* (Seneca)
 (e) *fortūna caeca est.* (Cicero)

potenti-a ae 1f. power
long-us a um long, long-lived
uīt-a ae 1f. life
nec ... nec neither ... nor
bon-us a um good
mal-us a um bad
nōbilitās nōbilitāt-is 3f. nobility

sōl-us a um only
atque and
ūnic-us a um unique, unparalleled
uirtūs uirtūt-is 3f. goodness
fortūn-a ae 1f. fortune
caec-us a um blind