

## To the Student

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

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

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

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

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

## Before you start

### Orthography

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

### Latin Pronunciation

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

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

So, how to pronounce Latin? If we are faithful to a few principles, we can read with confidence and feeling, and understand and be understood by others. In order to utter Latin well, we must understand the quantities of vowels and syllables, know where to put the accent and how to enunciate. Thus, while the guide below will suggest pronunciations that mirror some of the things we

know about ancient pronunciation, if you pay attention to quantities, accent, and enunciation, you will be understood whether you pronounce *c* hard (i.e., like “k”) as the Romans did or soft, as Ecclesiastical Latin.

But first, let’s look at the alphabet.

### The Alphabet

The Latin alphabet can be most simply divided into vowels and consonants. That broad division has subdivisions as well. The Latin alphabet has twenty-three letters; it lacks the English *w*; *y* and *z* were Greek imports, as were *ch*, *ph*, *th*.

### Vowels

- Latin has both single vowels and diphthongs (two vowels that form one sound).
- Vowels can be either “long” or “short.” A long vowel is pronounced for twice the length of time. Compare the “a” in “father” and the first vowel in “aha.” We hold the “a” sound twice as long in “father.” Long vowels in this book are marked by a bar over the vowel called a “macron” (i.e., *ā*, *ē*, *ī*, *ō*, *ū*). The Latin vowels are:
  - a
    - ▷ short: *a* as the first *a* in “aha”: *amat*
    - ▷ long: *ā* as in “father”: *ālā*, *pānis*
  - e
    - ▷ short: *e* as in “let”: *et*, *bene*
    - ▷ long: *ē* as in “prey”: *mē*
  - i
    - ▷ short: *i* as in “fit”: *in*, *nimis*<sup>1</sup>
    - ▷ long: *ī* as *ee* in “feet”: *hīc*, *liberī*
  - o
    - ▷ short: *o* as in “hot”: *post*, *modo*
    - ▷ long: *ō* as in bone: *pōnō*
  - u
    - ▷ short: *u* as in “full”: *num*, *sumus*
    - ▷ long: *ū* as in “fool”: *ūna*, *tū*
  - y (represents the Greek *upsilon*)
    - ▷ short: *y* as French *u* in “lune”: *Syria*
    - ▷ long: *ȳ* as French *u* in “pur”: *Lȳdia*

1. The sound as in *fit*, *hit* does not occur in the modern Romance languages, suggesting that short *i* had more of an *ee* sound, but held for a shorter time.

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

### Semi-vowels (glides)

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

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

### Consonants

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

- *b* as in English: *bibit, ab*
- *bs* and *bt* as *ps* and *pt*: *absunt, obtulit, urbs*
- *c* is always hard as in “cat” (= *k*, without aspiration): *canis, centum, circus, nec*
  - ▷ *ch*, as *k* with aspiration: *pulcher*
- *d* as in English: *dē, dedit, ad*
- *f* as in English: *forum, flūmen*
- *g* as in English: “get” (never as in “gem”): *gallus, gemma, agit*
- *gn* as *ngn* in “willingness”: *signum, pugna, magnus*
- *h* as in English (tending to disappear): *hīc, homō, nihil*
- *l* as in English: *lūna, gladius, male, vel*

- *m* as in English: *mē, domus, tam*
  - ▷ In the unstressed endings *-am, -em, -um*, it tended to disappear.
- *n* as in English: *nōn, ūnus*; before *c, g, q* as in “ink”: *incola, longus, quinque*
- Before *s*, it tended to disappear: *mēnsa, insula*
- *p* as in English (without aspiration): *pēs, populus, prope*
- *ph* as English *p* with aspiration: *amphitheātrum* (see above under *ch*)
- *qu* as English *qu* in “quick”: *quis, aqua, equus*
- *r* rolled or trilled: *rēs, ōra, arbor, cūr*
- *s* as in English “gas” (never voiced as in “has”): *sē, rōsa, is*
- *t* as in English (without aspiration): *tē, ita, et*
- *t* is always hard (not like *t* in nation)
- *th* as English *t* with aspiration: *amphitheātrum* (see above under *ch*)
- *v* as English *w*: *vōs, vivus*
- *x* as in English (= *ks*): *ex, saxum*
- *z* as English *z* in “zone”: *zōna*

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

- Like English: *d, f, l, m*, and *n* (initial and medial)<sup>2</sup>, *p, qu, z*
- Like English + variations (see above): *bs, bt, gn*
- Always a hard sound: *c, g, s, t, x*
- Softer than English: *h*, final *m, n*
- Different: *r* (trilled) *v* (like *w*)

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

#### 1. Syllables:

- A word has as many syllables as it has vowels and/or diphthongs:
  - Est, nōn, sunt*
  - Rō ma, Nī lus, quo que*
  - Flu vi us, op pi dum, īn su la*
  - Brun di si um, Hi spā ni a*<sup>3</sup>
- Note that in the examples above:
  - A consonant goes with the following vowel: *Rō ma*
  - Two consonants are divided: *op pi dum*

2. I.e., beginning a word (initial) and in the middle of a word (medial).

3. If a combination of letters could be used to begin a word (like the *sp* in *hi spa ni a*), those letters are kept together and go with the following vowel.

- c. Some consonants stay together:  
 ~ *ch, ph, th, qu*  
 ~ *l* or *r* preceded by *b, d, g, p, t, c,* and *f*
2. **Vowel quantity:**  
 a. A long vowel takes twice the time to pronounce as a short vowel.
3. **Syllable quantity:**  
 a. A syllable is either:  
 i. open (ends in a vowel)  
 ii. closed (ends in a consonant)  
 b. Long/Heavy syllables:  
 i. Closed syllables  
 ii. Open syllables with long vowel/diphthong  
 c. Short/Light syllables:  
 i. Open syllables with a short vowel
4. **Accent:**  
 a. The last three syllables of a Latin word determine accent.  
 b. These syllables are called:  
 i. ultima (for *syllaba ultima*: the last syllable)  
 ii. penult (for *syllaba paene ultima*: almost the last syllable)  
 iii. antepenult (for *ante paene ultimam syllabam*: “before the almost the last”)  
 c. The accent, or stress, of a Latin word depends on the length of the second to last, or penultimate, syllable.  
 d. The penult (penultimate) syllable is accented when long/heavy (closed or has long vowel or diphthong).  
 e. Otherwise, the accent moves to the antepenult.  
 f. Examples:  
*Rōma in Itāliā est. Itālia in Eurōpā est. Grācia in Eurōpā est.*  
*Itālia et Grācia in Eurōpā sunt. Hispānia et Itālia et Grācia in Eurōpā sunt.*
5. **Enunciation:** this last principle sounds easy, but most people who feel nervous about saying a word correctly try to say it as fast as possible. Some tips:  
 ▷ Speak slowly and say what you see.  
 ▷ Doubled consonants (two consonants in a row) are both pronounced.  
 ▷ Long vowels take twice the time to pronounce as short vowels.

**Parts of Speech with Examples**

[The chapter in brackets gives the first introduction of the part of speech.]

**Noun** (substantive) [Cap. I]:

1. names a person, place or thing
2. properties:
  - a. gender: masculine, feminine, or neuter (neither masculine or feminine)
  - b. number: singular or plural
  - c. case: different endings depending on the role of the word in the sentence

*Exempla Latīna:**Rōma**fluvi**oppidum***Adjective** [Cap. I]:

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

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

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

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

1. shows action, state of being
2. properties:
  - a. person: 1st (I/we), 2nd (you), 3rd (he, she, it/they)
  - b. number: singular, plural
  - c. tense: time frame of the verb:

- i. present (continuing action in the present)<sup>4</sup>
- ii. imperfect (continuing action in the past)
- iii. future (projected action)
- iv. perfect (completed action)
- v. pluperfect (action completed before another completed action)
- vi. future perfect (action to be completed before a projected action)

## d. voice:

- i. active (subject is the agent of the verb)
- ii. passive (subject is the recipient of the action of the verb)

## e. mood: expresses the speaker's attitude to the verb

- i. indicative (states a fact, asks a question)
- ii. infinitive (the unbounded, "to" form of the verb)<sup>5</sup>
- iii. imperative (gives a command)
- iv. subjunctive (various uses)

*Exempla Latīna:*

*est, sunt*  
*pulsat* [Cap. III]  
*cantat* [Cap. III]

**Participle** [Cap. XIV]:

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

*Exempla Latīna:*

*dormiēns* (*puer*)  
*canentem* (*gallum*)  
*stantem* (*servum*)

**Adverb** [Cap. I]:

1. qualifies a
  - a. verb
  - b. adjective
  - c. another adverb

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

5. The infinitive, like the supine (not included here), is a verbal noun.

*Exempla Latīna:*

*bene*  
*nōn*  
*ubi* (interrogative adverb)  
*num* (interrogative adverb)

**Preposition** [Cap. I]:

1. determines the relationship between two nouns

*Exempla Latīna:*

*in* (*Italiā*)  
*sine* (*rōsis*) [Cap. V]  
*cum* (*Aemiliā*) [Cap. V]

**Conjunction** [Cap. I]:

1. joins words, phrases, or clauses

*Exempla Latīna:*

*sed*  
*et*

**Interjection:** An exclamation for emphasis [Cap. XXII]:

*Exemplum Latīnum:*  
*heus!*

**Syntactic Terms**

[Examples are underlined]

**Subject:** the focus of the sentence. To find the subject, ask "who" with the verb.

Julia is singing. Who is singing? Julia (subject)

*Exempla Latīna:*

*Rōma* in Italiā *est.*  
*Iūlia* cantat [Cap. III].

**Predicate:** the verb and its modifier(s). To find the verb in a sentence, look for the word that denotes an action or state of being.

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

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

- *Corsica insula est.*
- *Tūsculum oppidum Rōmānum est.*

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

- *Fluvius magnus est.*
- *Oppidum parvum est.*

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

*Exempla Latīna:**Mārcus nōn videt Quīntum* [Cap. III].*Mārcus puellam pulsat* [Cap. III].

**Intransitive verb:** a verb that is not completed by a direct object (which is in the accusative case) or that stands alone (e.g., “I stand,” “I sit”). In both examples below, the dative case completes the verb, which is intransitive.

*Exempla Latīna:**Pater dormit* [Cap. III].*Pater venit* [Cap. III].

**Direct object:** a word in the accusative case that receives the action of the verb.

*Exempla Latīna:**Mārcus nōn videt Quīntum* [Cap. III].*Mārcus puellam pulsat* [Cap. III].

**Indirect object:** a word in the dative case that tells “to or for whom” the action of the verb is performed.

*Exempla Latīna:**Pater filiō suō magnum mālum dat* [Cap. VII].*Dominus servīs mālā et pira dat* [Cap. VII].

*Notā Bene:*<sup>6</sup> Some verbs which are transitive in English are intransitive in Latin.

6. *Notā Bene* means “note well” or “take note—this is important!”

## I. Imperium Rōmānum

### Rēs Grammaticae Novae

1. Getting Started: The Roman Empire
2. Using This Book
  - a. Pay Attention to Endings
  - b. Be Aware of Latin’s Flexible Word Order
  - c. Concentrate on Meaning and Context
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3. Morphology
  - a. Nouns: Singular/Plural
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  - c. Adjectives and Substantives
  - d. Interrogatives: *num, quid*
  - e. Numbers: *mille*
4. Points of Style: Latin Concision

### Lēctiō Prīma (Section I)

#### Getting Started: The Roman Empire

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

On the map of the Roman Empire facing the first page of the text, you will find all the geographical names occurring in the chapter. After locating the names *Rōma, Italia, Eurōpa, Graecia*, etc., you will understand what is said about the situation of the city of *Rōma* in the first sentence: *Rōma in Italiā est*, and about *Italia* and *Graecia* in the next two: *Italia in Eurōpā est. Graecia in Eurōpā est*. This is said once more in a single sentence: *Italia et Graecia in Eurōpā sunt*. The meaning of *et* should be quite clear, but can you tell why it

is now *sunt* instead of *est*? If not, look in the margin and read the next two sentences as well. Have you discovered when to use *est* and when *sunt*? If so, you have learned the first rule of grammar: a singular subject is joined with a singular verb and a plural subject with a plural verb.

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

### 1. Pay Attention to Endings (e.g., -a, -ā)

Did you also notice the slight difference between *Italia* and *Italiā*, and what little word produces the long -ā? This difference is pointed out and explained in the first marginal note:

*Italia*  
*in Italiā*

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

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

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

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

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

Often a sentence is understood only when seen together with other sentences. In the sentence *Hispania quoque in Eurōpā est* (11.2-3), you will not understand *quoque* until you read in context: *Italia et Graecia in Eurōpā sunt. Hispania quoque in Eurōpā est*. (The two preceding sentences might have been *Italia in Eurōpā est* or *Graecia quoque in Eurōpā est*.) If you are still in doubt, just go on reading till the word recurs: *Syria nōn est in Eurōpā, sed in Asiā. Arabia quoque in Asiā est* (1.7). Now you will certainly understand *quoque*—and in the meantime, you have learned the word *sed* almost without noticing it.

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

In the next paragraph, a number of questions are asked, and each question is followed by an answer. It is often necessary to read the answer before you can

be quite sure of the meaning of the question. The first question is *Estne Gallia in Eurōpā*? The particle *-ne* attached to *est* marks the sentence as a question (our question mark [?] was unknown to the ancient Romans). The answer is *Gallia in Eurōpā est*. The next question, *Estne Rōma in Galliā*? is answered in the negative: *Rōma in Galliā nōn est*. (Latin has no single word for "yes" or "no." The sentence—or part of it—must be repeated with or without *nōn*.)

In the question *Ubi est Rōma*? the word *ubi* is intelligible only when you get the answer: *Rōma est in Italiā*.

### 6. Look to Context for Word Meaning

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

### Nouns: Singular/Plural

Note that these words occur in two different forms: *Nilus* alone is called *fluvius*, but *Nilus* and *Rhēnus* together are called *fluvii*. In similar circumstances, you will notice the use of the forms *insula* and *insulae*, as well as *oppidum* and *oppida*. In the section GRAMMATICA LATINA in LINGUA LATINA you will learn that the forms *fluvius*, *insula*, and *oppidum* are called *singulāris*, while *fluvii*, *insulae*, and *oppida* are called *plūrālis*—in English singular and plural.

### Lēctiō Altera (Section II)

#### Antonyms [↔]

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

**Adjectives and Substantives**

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

<i>prōvincia</i>	<i>littera</i>
<i>imperium</i>	<i>vocābulum</i>
<i>numerus</i>	

Adjectives occurring in this chapter are:

<i>magnus, -a, -um</i>	<i>Rōmānus, -a, -um</i>
<i>parvus, -a, -um</i>	<i>Latīnus, -a, -um</i>
<i>Graecus, -a, -um</i>	<i>prīmus, -a, -um</i>

Plural adjectives found in this chapter are:

<i>multī, -ae, -a</i>	<i>paucī, -ae, -a</i>
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Note: The endings of the adjectives depend on the nouns that they qualify; so it is *prōvincia magna* but *imperium magnum*.

**More Interrogatives: *num, quid***

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

Compare:

<i>Estne Crēta oppidum?</i>	Is Crete a town? (I really don't know, so I'm asking.)
<i>Num Crēta oppidum est?</i>	Crete isn't a town, is it? (I suspect Crete is not a town and expect you to answer “no.”)

Remember the other interrogatives in this chapter:

<i>Quid est Crēta?</i>	What is Crete?
<i>Ubi est Crēta?</i>	Where is Crete?

**More about Endings**

We have seen that, after *in*, the final vowel is *-ā* and not *-a*. Remember that the macron over the *ā* means the vowel is long (see pronunciation guide). We now see that *in* also makes *-um* change to *-ō*:

<i>in imperiō Rōmānō</i> (1.58)	<i>in capitulō primō</i> (1.73)
<i>in vocābulō</i> (1.72)	

You will learn more about these forms in *-ā* and *-ō* in Cap. V.

**Lēctiō Tertia (Section III)****Mille**

*Mille*, the word for “a thousand,” is an indeclinable adjective; indeclinable means its endings never change. So:

<i>mille numeri</i>	<i>mille vocābula</i>	<i>mille litterae</i>
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**Points of Style: Latin Concision**

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

**Recēnsiō (Review)**

Remember:

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

Important terms:

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

**Studia Rōmāna**

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



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

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

### Vocābula Disposita/Ōrdināta

#### Nōmina (Nouns)<sup>2</sup>

capitulum, -ī	chapter
exemplum, -ī	example, model
fluvius, -ī	river
grammatica, -ae	grammar

1. Frontinus (first century BC) 1.4: *Nunc autem in urbem influunt aqua Appia, Anio Vetus, Mārcia, Tepula, Iūlia, Virgō, Alsietina quae eadem vocatur Augusta, Claudia, Anio Novus*. The Aqua Alexandrina was completed in the early third century AD.

2. Ignore for now the letters that come after each vocabulary entry; they are there for your later reference and their significance will be clear in the next chapter.

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

**Vocābula Interrogātīva (Interrogative words)**

**-ne?**

*enclitic added to the emphatic word at the beginning of a question the answer to which may be either "yes" or "no." It can be used in both direct and indirect questions (Cap. XIX).*

**num?**

*if, whether; expects a "no" answer*

**quid?** *n.* (see **quis**)

*what, anything; adv. why*

**ubi?** *interrog. adv.*

*where*