COLLAR AND DANIELL'S FIRST YEAR LATIN

REVISED BY

THORNTON JENKINS

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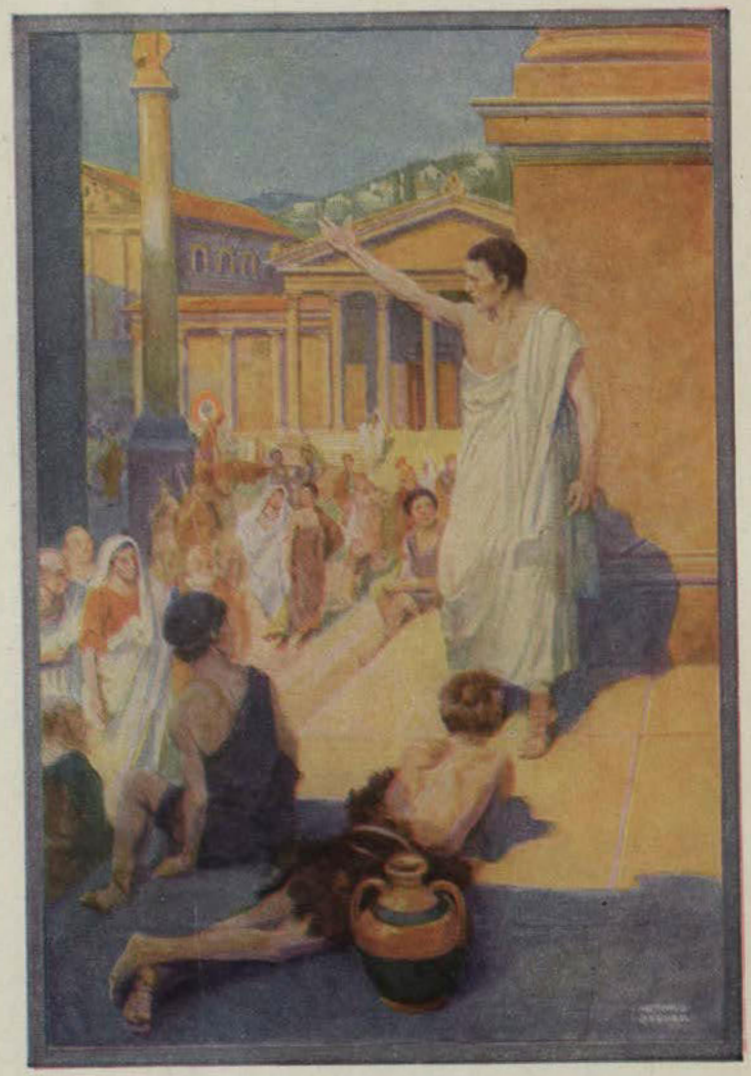

A ROMAN CITIZEN SPEAKS

COLLAR AND DANIELL'S
FIRST YEAR LATIN

REVISED BY

THORNTON JENKINS

HEAD MASTER, HIGH SCHOOL, MALDEN, MASSACHUSETTS

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PREFACE

The book that is placed in the hands of a pupil during his first year of the study of Latin should be simple and clear and interesting in its treatment of the language; it should teach with the utmost thoroughness those principles that it attempts to teach, but it should not attempt to teach to-day what may be taught more properly to-morrow; it should get the pupil into the reading of easy connected Latin as soon as possible, and for this purpose should supply a generous amount of material graded to his attainment; and it should never allow the pupil to leave the classroom without a reminder of the extent to which Latin is a part of his own language.

With these convictions the revision of Collar and Daniell's "First Year Latin" was undertaken. All these principles underlay the plan of "First Year Latin," but the unanimity with which they have been accepted since the publication of that text has made it possible in the revision so to extend their application as to produce what is in effect a new book.

The vocabulary has been made briefer and more Cæsarian. From the vocabularies of the lessons the pupil is asked to learn the meanings of some five hundred and seventy words. About ninety per cent of these words are included in the list of one thousand words which Professor Lodge[1] suggests should be learned before the end of the second year of the study of Latin. Over sixty per cent occur more than ten times in Cæsar. In the Selections for Reading the pupil has a chance to become acquainted casually with a wider vocabulary.

[1] Vocabulary of High School Latin.

A number of constructions which were taught in the original book have been omitted. With three exceptions the constructions included in the revision are those which Byrne[1] recommends for the first year. Similarly, the pupil is no longer required to learn uncommon forms which are not necessary for his second-year reading.

Increased attention has been given to derivatives. Related English words are often placed after the Latin words in the vocabularies of the lessons as well as in the general vocabulary. Everywhere in the reviews this important part of the study of Latin is kept constantly before the pupil. Suggestions are offered for the keeping of notebooks of English derivatives. The force of certain common prefixes and suffixes in the formation and meaning of Latin words is also explained.

Interspersed throughout the book there are ten Review Lessons, which take up the words and constructions previously taught. The machinery for drill has been further strengthened by a summary of the uses of nouns and of verbs, and by review questions touching upon the syntax, forms, derivatives, and principles of each lesson. These questions have been placed after the Selections for Reading, that they may be somewhat removed from the lessons they concern.

The treatment of the Essentials of Grammar has been made more useful by a comparison of English grammar with Latin grammar, and by the inclusion of Latin equivalents for the English illustrative words and phrases.

The material for reading has been somewhat changed, particularly by the omission of the Fables and Stories, and by the introduction of the Story of Perseus, of the simplified narrative of Cæsar's Campaign against the Helvetians, and of a number of pages from Eutropius. In all the selections the

[1] The Syntax of High School Latin.

syntax has been made to conform with that taught in the lessons, so that the pupil may not be bothered or discouraged by unfamiliar constructions.

As an aid to the pupil's pronunciation, a mark of accent has been placed on the words in the vocabularies of the first eighteen lessons, and on declensions and conjugations, both in the text and in the Appendix.

Teachers who are familiar with "First Year Latin" will find that none of its well-known excellences have been sacrificed in the revision. There are, for example, the same short lessons, usually less than two pages in length. In the exercises the sentences for translation remain simple. Nowhere are many constructions brought within the limits of a single sentence. The exercises for translation from English into Latin are relatively shorter than those from Latin into English. The order in which the verb is developed and in which the various constructions are presented will be found the same, with a few exceptions. In the study of syntax the pupil is still led from the observation of model sentences to the deduction of usages and principles. Passages of connected Latin are introduced early and are of frequent occurrence throughout the lessons, and there is ample material for reading after the lessons have been completed. The content of the book is still such that it is possible for high-school classes to go through the lessons within thirty weeks.

The "Teacher's Manual," in addition to general directions and notes on each lesson, contains carefully graded sentences for sight reading and for the practice of the "direct method," as well as material for drill on English derivatives of the Latin words of the vocabularies.

It is hoped that teachers will find the numerous illustrations a help to them in familiarizing pupils with the life of the

Romans. The four plates in colors were made especially for this book by Mr. Arthur E. Becher after a careful study of all the phases of Roman life that they represent. As for the other pictures, half tones have been used where the subject could be made more realistic if reproduced directly from a photograph. In cases where line engravings seemed more suitable, drawings in the style of the early Italian engravings were made for the purpose by Mr. Thomas M. Cleland, Mr. W. A. Dwiggins, and Mr. Adrian J. Iorio. As a whole the illustrations are believed to be of a quality unexcelled in schoolbooks.

The reviser wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to the suggestions received from Mr. Collar himself, who, before his death, had given considerable thought to the aim and scope of the revision. Indebtedness is also gratefully acknowledged to Professor Charles Knapp, of Barnard College, New York; to Mr. Herbert F. Hancox, of Lewis Institute, Chicago; and to Miss Grace I. Bridge and Miss Grace E. Jackson, of the Hyde Park High School, Chicago, for their helpful criticisms.

T. J.

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FIRST YEAR LATIN

ESSENTIALS OF GRAMMAR

THE PARTS OF SPEECH

Nouns

I. *a.* A *noun* is the name of a person, place, or thing: *boy, London, ship*; **puer, Londīnium, nāvis.**

b. A *proper noun* is the name of a particular person, place, or thing: *Cornelia, Rome, Rhone*; **Cornēlia, Rōma, Rhodanus.**

c. A *common noun* is a name that may be applied to any one of a class of objects: *boy, city, day*; **puer, urbs, diēs.**

d. A *collective noun* is a name that may be applied to a group of objects, though itself in the singular number (XXIII): *crowd, family*; **multitūdō, gēns.**

e. A *verbal noun* is the name of an action: *seeing, writing, to see, to write*; **videndī** (459), **scrībendī, vidēre, scrībere.**

f. An *abstract noun* is the name of a quality or condition: *goodness, truth, poverty*; **bonitās, vēritās, paupertās.**

Pronouns

II. *a.* A *pronoun* is a word used to take the place of a noun or of another pronoun: *I, you, him, this, who*; **ego, tū, eum, hoc, quī.**

b. The noun (or pronoun) for which a pronoun stands is called its *antecedent* (from **antecēdere**, *to go before*). Thus, in the sentence *John goes to school, but he does not study*, the

noun *John* is the antecedent of *he*. The antecedent is especially common with a relative pronoun (II, *d*). Neither in Latin nor in English does the antecedent necessarily stand in advance of its pronoun: *What he says, he believes,* **quod dīcit, *id* crēdit.**

c. A *personal pronoun* shows by its form whether it stands (1) for the speaker: *I, we*; **ego, nōs,** that is, the *first person*; (2) for the person spoken to: *thou, you*; **tū, vōs,** that is, the *second person*; or (3) for the person or thing spoken of: *he, she, it, they*; **is, ea, id, eī,** that is, the *third person.*

d. A *relative pronoun* connects a subordinate clause, in which it stands, with the antecedent: *The book* ***that*** *you have is mine,* **liber *quem* habēs meus est.** The relative pronouns in English are *who, which, that,* and *as*; in Latin the relative is **quī.**

e. An *interrogative pronoun* is used to ask a question: ***Who*** *is walking in the garden?* ***Quis* in hortō ambulat?** The interrogative pronouns in English are *who, which,* and *what*; in Latin, **quis** and **uter.**

f. A *demonstrative pronoun* points out an object definitely: *this, that, these, those*; **hic, ille, hī, illī.**

g. An *indefinite pronoun* refers to an object indefinitely: *some, some one, any, any one*; **aliquis, quis.**

h. A *reflexive pronoun* refers back to the subject: *He blamed* ***himself,*** **sē culpāvit.**

Adjectives

III. *a.* An *adjective* is a word used to qualify or limit a noun or a pronoun: ***good book, beautiful moon, five girls***; **liber *bonus*, lūna *pulchra*, *quīnque* puellae.**

b. A, an, and *the,* really limiting adjectives, are sometimes called *articles. The* is the *definite article, a* or *an* the *indefinite article.* These articles are not used in Latin.

c. Numeral adjectives denote how many persons or things are under consideration. They are either *cardinal*, denoting how many: *one, two, three, four*; **ūnus, duo, trēs, quattuor**; or *ordinal*, denoting which in order: *first, second, third, fourth*; **prīmus, secundus, tertius, quārtus.**

d. Possessive adjectives denote ownership: ***my** friend, **our** house*; ***meus** amīcus, **nostra** domus.* Possessive adjectives are frequently used as possessive pronouns.

e. The demonstrative pronouns, the indefinite pronouns, and the interrogative pronouns *which* and *what* may be used as adjectives, and are then called respectively *demonstrative adjectives*: ***this** book, **that** house*; ***hic** liber, **illa** domus*; *indefinite adjectives*: ***some** boys, **aliquī** puerī*; and *interrogative adjectives*: ***Which** way shall we go?* ***Quā** viā ībimus?*

f. Adjectives are often used as nouns: "*The land of the **free**,*" **patria *līberōrum.***

Verbs

IV. *a.* A *verb* is a word which can declare or assert something about a person, a place, or a thing: *The man **laughs**,* **vir *rīdet***; *the town **is captured**,* **oppidum *captum est***; *the leaf **falls**,* **folium *cadit.***

b. A verb which has an object (XIV, *a*) to complete its meaning is said to be *transitive*, or to be *used transitively*: *The girl **has** a rose,* **puella rosam *habet.***

c. A verb which does not have an object (XIV, *a*) to complete its meaning is said to be *intransitive*, or to be *used intransitively*: *Birds **fly**,* **avēs *volant***; *I **walk**,* ***ambulō.***

NOTE. Thus certain verbs may at one time be transitive and at another intransitive: *The wind **blew** the snow into our faces*; *the wind **blew** furiously.*

d. Verbs are classified as *regular* or *irregular.* This distinction is made merely for convenience. A *regular verb* in English forms its imperfect (past) tense (XXXIII, *a*) and past participle (XXXIV, *b*) by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the present: present, *love*; past, *loved*; past participle, *loved.* For Latin regular verbs see 658–662.

e. An *irregular verb* in English does not form its imperfect (past) tense by the addition of *d* or *ed* to the present: present, *give*; past, *gave*; past participle, *given.* For Latin irregular verbs see 663–668.

f. An *auxiliary verb* is used in the conjugation of other verbs: *I* **am** *loved, he* **has** *given.* In Latin the verb **esse,** *to be* (663), is so used: **missus est,** *he has been sent.*

ADVERBS

V. *a.* An *adverb* is used to modify a verb, an adjective, or another adverb: *He walks swiftly,* **celeriter ambulat.**

b. An *adverb* of *place* answers the question *where?* — *here, there, hence*; **hīc, illīc, hinc.**

c. An *adverb* of *time* answers the question *when?* — *then, now, often*; **tum, nunc, saepe.**

d. An *adverb* of *manner* answers the question *how?* — *so, well, ill*; **sīc, bene, male.**

e. An *adverb* of *degree* answers the question *how much?* — *little, almost, enough*; **paulō, paene, satis.**

f. A *modal adverb* expresses affirmation or negation, or the degree of confidence with which a statement is made: *yes, no, certainly, perhaps*; **certē, forsitan.**

Prepositions

VI. A preposition is used before a noun or pronoun to show its relation to another word in the sentence. Usually the relation shown is position, direction, or time: *He sent a legion* ***against*** *the enemy,* ***in*** **hostēs legiōnem mīsit.** In Latin certain phrases which would be introduced in English by a preposition are expressed by the use of one of the cases (XXIV, *b*) without a preposition: ***At dawn*** *he sent a legion,* ***primā lūce*** **legiōnem mīsit.**

Conjunctions

VII. *a.* A *conjunction* connects words, phrases (XVI), clauses (XX), and sentences (XVIII): *boys* ***and*** *girls,* **puerī** ***et*** **puellae**; *they fought bravely* ***but*** *were conquered,* **fortiter pugnāvērunt** ***sed*** **victī sunt.**

b. A *coördinate conjunction* connects words, phrases, clauses, and sentences of equal order or rank. The conjunctions in the examples in VII, *a* are coördinate.

c. A *subordinate conjunction* connects a subordinate clause (XX, *a*) with a principal clause (XX, *a*): *The boy was praised* ***because*** *he was industrious,* **puer laudātus est** ***quod*** **impiger erat.**

Interjections

VIII. An *interjection* is used to express strong feeling. It is not grammatically related to any other word in the sentence: *oh! ah! alas! hurrah!* **ēheu! ecce!**

Note. The following couplets have often proved useful to young persons in identifying the parts of speech:

Three little words we often see
Are Articles, *a*, *an*, and *the*.

A Noun 's the name of anything;
As *school* or *garden*, *hoop* or *swing*.

Adjectives tell the kind of noun;
As *great*, *small*, *pretty*, *white*, or *brown*.

Instead of nouns the Pronouns stand;
I come, *you* go, as *they* command.

Verbs tell of something being done;
As *read*, *write*, *spell*, *sing*, *jump*, or *run*.

How things are done the Adverbs tell;
As *slowly*, *quickly*, *ill*, or *well*.

They also tell us where and when;
As *here* and *there* and *now* and *then*.

A Preposition stands before
A noun; as *in* or *through* a door.

Conjunctions join the words together;
As rain *and* sunshine, wind *or* weather.

Conjunctions sentences unite;
As kittens scratch *and* puppies bite.

An Interjection shows surprise;
As *Oh!* how pretty! *Ah!* how wise!

THE SENTENCE

IX. A *sentence* is a word or a group of words expressing a thought: *Stars shine*; *he walks*; **stellae lūcent**; **ambulat.**

X. *a.* A *declarative sentence* declares or asserts something: *The farmers are plowing the fields*, **agricolae agrōs arant.**

b. An *interrogative sentence* asks a question: *Why are the farmers plowing the fields?* **Cūr agricolae agrōs arant?**

c. An *imperative sentence* expresses a command, a request, or an entreaty: *Plow the fields to-day*, **hodiē agrōs arāte.**

d. An *exclamatory sentence* expresses strong feeling or emotion: *Would that he had remained!* **Utinam mānsisset!**

XI. *a.* A sentence is made up of two parts, one called the *subject* and the other the *predicate.*

b. The *subject* represents the person, place, or thing about which something is declared or asserted: ***Birds** sing, **avēs** cantant.*

c. The *predicate* declares or asserts something about the person, place, or thing which the subject represents: *Birds **sing,** avēs **cantant.***

NOTE. In English and in Latin either the subject or the predicate, or both, may be enlarged to any extent by the addition of qualifying words and expressions called modifiers: ***My sister's small birds** | **sing sweetly in the morning.***

XII. The *simple subject* is the noun or pronoun which signifies the person, place, or thing about which the assertion is made. The *simple predicate* is the verb that makes the assertion. *Birds* is the simple subject, and *sing* the simple predicate, in the note under XI, *c.*

XIII. The *complete subject* is the simple subject with all its modifiers. The *complete predicate* is the simple predicate with all its modifiers. Thus, in the example in the note under XI, *c* the complete subject is all that precedes the vertical line, and the complete predicate all that follows it.

XIV. *a.* The *object* of a verb is a word or an expression that completes the meaning of the verb, and signifies that which is affected by the action: *He sent **messengers,** **nūntiōs** **mīsit**; he wished **me to go to Italy,** **mē in Italiam īre** **voluit.***

b. The *direct object* represents that which is immediately affected by the action of the verb; the *indirect object* that to or for which the action is performed. Thus, in *He gave **me** a **book,** **mihi librum** **dedit,** book* is the direct object, and *me* the indirect.

XV. *a.* A *predicate noun* or a *predicate adjective* is used after certain intransitive or passive verbs to complete their meaning, and to describe or define the subject: *Marcus is a* ***sailor***; *the sailor is* ***brave***; **Mārcus *nauta* est**; **nauta *fortis* est.**

b. The predicate noun or adjective is called the *complement* of the verb. Intransitive verbs that require a complement are called *copulative verbs.* The verb *be* (Latin **esse**) in its various forms (*am, was, has been,* etc.) is often called the *copula.*

c. The predicate noun or adjective has the same case as the subject; hence the term *predicate nominative.*

XVI. *a.* A *phrase* is a combination of words (not subject and predicate) used as a single part of speech.

b. An *adjective phrase* modifies a noun: *A man* ***of great valor***, **vir *magnae virtūtis*.**

c. An *adverbial phrase* modifies a verb: *They work* ***with great diligence***, ***magnā cum dīligentiā*** **labōrant.** In Latin certain cases of nouns are used to express what in English would be prepositional phrases of an adverbial nature (VI).

XVII. A *simple sentence* contains but one statement, that is, one subject and one predicate: *Cæsar drew up a line of battle*, **Caesar aciem īnstrūxit.**

XVIII. A *compound sentence* contains two or more independent statements: *Cæsar drew up a line of battle, but the enemy fled*, **Caesar aciem īnstrūxit, sed hostēs fūgērunt.**

NOTE. An independent statement is one that can stand alone; it does not depend on (qualify or limit) another statement.

XIX. A *complex sentence* contains one independent (principal) statement and one or more dependent (subordinate)

statements: *When the messenger had replied, the lieutenant spoke as follows,* **cum nūntius respondisset, lēgātus haec dixit.**

NOTE. A dependent, or subordinate, statement is one that qualifies or limits another in some way; thus, the dependent statement *when the messenger had replied* limits the verb *spoke*, telling when the lieutenant spoke.

XX. *a.* The separate statements in a compound or a complex sentence are called *clauses*, and, as has already been seen, they may be either *independent* (*principal*) or *dependent* (*subordinate*).

b. When dependent (subordinate) clauses modify nouns or pronouns they are called *adjective clauses*: *The girls* ***whom we praised*** *were good,* **puellae *quās laudāvimus* bonae erant.**

c. When dependent (subordinate) clauses modify verbs they are called *adverbial clauses*: ***When the messenger had replied,*** *the lieutenant spoke as follows,* ***cum nūntius respondisset,*** **lēgātus haec dixit.**

d. When dependent (subordinate) clauses are used as nouns they are called *substantive clauses*: ***That you are here pleases us,*** ***quod ades*** **nōs dēlectat.**

e. Dependent (subordinate) clauses introduced by *when* (Latin **cum, ubi,** etc.) are called *temporal clauses*; introduced by *because* (Latin **quod** etc.), they are called *causal clauses*; introduced by *if* (Latin **sī**), they are called *conditional clauses*; introduced by *although* (Latin **cum, etsī,** etc.), they are called *concessive clauses*; introduced by a relative pronoun (Latin **quī**), they are called *relative clauses*.

f. The independent clause of a complex sentence is called the *principal clause*. Connected clauses that are of the same rank, both independent or both dependent, are said to be *coördinate*.

INFLECTION

XXI. *Inflection* is a change in the form of a word to indicate a change in its meaning or use: *man, men, boy, boy's, love, loved*; **vir, virī, puer, puerī, amant, amābant.**

DECLENSION

XXII. The inflection of a noun or pronoun is called its *declension*. Nouns and pronouns in English are declined to show number and case, and a few nouns to show gender. In Latin the nouns and pronouns are declined; adjectives also are declined in gender, number, and case to agree with the nouns which they modify.

Number

XXIII. A noun or pronoun is in the *singular number* when it means one person, place, or thing: *town, city, I*; **oppidum, urbs, ego**; in the *plural number* when it means more than one person, place, or thing: *towns, cities, we*; **oppida, urbēs, nōs.**

Case

XXIV. *a*. The several forms taken by words that are declined are called *cases*. In English there are the following cases, to indicate the uses of nouns and pronouns:

1. The *nominative*, primarily used as the subject of a sentence: ***He** throws the ball.*

2. The *possessive* (genitive), used to denote possession or ownership: *John throws **his** ball*; *see the **queen's** crown.*

3. The *objective* (accusative), used as the object of a transitive verb or of a preposition: *John throws the **ball** to **him**.*

4. The *dative*, used to express the indirect object of the verb: *John throws **him** the ball.* Only personal pronouns and the pronoun *who* have separate forms for these cases in English.

Nouns have the nominative, objective, and dative alike, with a separate form for the possessive.

b. In Latin there are seven cases: *nominative, genitive, dative, accusative, ablative, vocative,* and *locative*; but a single form sometimes does duty for several cases (cf. **agricola**, 63). The nominative, genitive, and accusative cases are used much like the same cases in English. The dative expresses in general that relation of words to other words which is expressed in English by prepositional phrases beginning with *to* or *for*: *to the farmer, for the man.* The ablative expresses in general that relation of words to other words which is expressed in English by prepositional phrases beginning with *from, with, by, in*: *with a spear, by a story.*

c. The direct object of a verb in Latin is in the accusative case, but sometimes the direct object in English is expressed in Latin by the dative (425, 433).

Gender

XXV. *a.* The gender of English nouns is what is called *natural gender*, and hence has very little to do with grammar. Thus, a noun denoting a male is in the *masculine gender*: *man, boy, father*; a noun denoting a female is in the *feminine gender*: *woman, girl, mother*; one denoting either male or female is in the *common gender*: *cat, dog, parent*; one denoting a sexless object is in the *neuter gender*: *river, wind, mountain.*

b. In Latin only nouns that denote persons and some animals have natural gender: **nauta**, *sailor* (masc.); **māter**, *mother* (fem.). All others have an arbitrary gender, called *grammatical gender*, determined chiefly by the ending: **flūmen**, *river* (neut.); **ventus**, *wind* (masc.); **nūbēs**, *cloud* (fem.).

Comparison

XXVI. *a.* English adjectives and adverbs are inflected to show degree. This is called *comparison.* There are three degrees of comparison, the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative*: positive *wise*, comparative *wiser*, superlative *wisest*; positive *good*, comparative *better*, superlative *best*; positive *often*, comparative *oftener*, superlative *oftenest.*

b. Adjectives and adverbs are also compared in English by prefixing the adverbs *more* and *most*: *beautiful, more beautiful, most beautiful.*

c. Comparison in Latin is indicated exactly as in English: **sapiēns, sapientior, sapientissimus**; **bonus, melior, optimus**; **idōneus, magis idōneus, maximē idōneus**; **saepe, saepius, saepissimē.**

Conjugation

XXVII. *a.* The inflection of a verb is called *conjugation.* Verbs are conjugated to show voice, mood, and tense, and the number and person of the subject.

b. The English verb has but few changes of form. Thus the verb *love* has in common use only the forms *love, loves, loving*, and *loved.* Most of the conjugation of the verb is made up of verb phrases formed by the use of auxiliaries (IV, *f*): *I am loved, I shall love, I shall have been loved*, etc.

c. The Latin verb has many changes in form to show voice, mood, tense, number, and person: **amor**, *I am loved*; **amābō**, *I shall love*; **amātus erō**, *I shall have been loved.*

Voice

XXVIII. A verb is in the *active voice* when it represents the subject as acting (or being): *The man* ***praised*** *the boy*, **vir puerum *laudāvit*.** A verb is in the *passive voice* when it represents the subject as acted on: *The boy* ***was praised*** *by the man*, **puer ā virō *laudātus est*.**

Mood

XXIX. A verb is in the *indicative mood* when it is used in stating a fact or in asking a question: *The citizens are assembling,* cīvēs *conveniunt*; *why do they carry arms?* cūr arma *portant?*

XXX. *a.* In English a verb is in the *subjunctive mood* when it asserts something doubtfully or conditionally. It is used in subordinate clauses, and is usually introduced by *if, though,* and the like: *If he were here, I should be glad*; "*Though he slay me, yet will I trust in him.*"

NOTE. The subjunctive is very little used in modern English, its place being taken by the indicative.

b. In Latin the subjunctive has a great variety of uses, in independent as well as in dependent clauses (344, 358, 373, etc.).

XXXI. *a.* A verb is in the *imperative mood* when it expresses command, request, or entreaty: *Fortify the city,* urbem *mūnīte.*

b. Unless emphatic the subject of the imperative (*thou* or *you*) is not expressed either in English or in Latin.

The Infinitive

XXXII. *a.* The *infinitive* in English (*to love, to have loved,* etc.) is a verbal noun. It has neither person nor number. Like a noun it may be the subject or the object or the complement of a verb: *To see is to believe*; *he wishes to go home.* Like a verb it may have a subject, an object, and adverbial modifiers: *We wish you to begin your work early.*

b. The Latin infinitive is used in the same way that the English infinitive is used. It differs, however, from the English infinitive in not being used in prose in expressions of purpose (*They came to see me*), and in being used constantly for the verb of a statement that is given indirectly: *He said that he would come,* dīxit *se ventūrum esse.*

c. The verbal noun in *-ing* is sometimes called an infinitive: ***Seeing is believing*** = ***to see is to believe.*** This verbal noun has its counterpart in the Latin gerund (459).

Tense

XXXIII. *a.* A verb is in the *present*, *past* (*imperfect*), or *future* tense according as it represents an action as taking place in present, past, or future time: *I love*, *I loved* (*was loving*), *I shall love*; **amō, amābam, amābō.**

b. The *present perfect* (*perfect*) tense represents an action completed in the present: *I have loved*, **amāvī**; the *past perfect* (*pluperfect*) an action completed in the past before some other past action or state: *I had loved*, **amāveram**; and the *future perfect* an action completed in the future before some other future action or state: *I shall have loved*, **amāverō.**

The Participle

XXXIV. *a.* The *participle* is a verbal adjective. Like an adjective it may qualify a noun: ***struggling soldiers,*** **mīlitēs *labōrantēs.*** Like a verb it may have an object and adverbial modifiers: *Fearing* ***danger*** *they remained in the camp,* ***perīculum*** **veritī in castrīs mānsērunt.**

b. There are in English three participles in the active voice: present, *loving*; past, *loved*; perfect, *having loved*; and three in the passive voice: present, (*being*) *loved*; past, *loved*; perfect, *having been loved.* In Latin the past and perfect active and the present passive participles are wanting, hut there is a future participle.

c. The participle in *-ing* is used with the auxiliary *be* to make the progressive form of the verb: ***you are loving, he was loving, they will be loving.*** Latin has no special tenses for the progressive forms.

TO THE BEGINNER IN LATIN

What Latin is. Latin is the language that was used by the ancient Romans. It gets its name from the *Lati'ni*, a little tribe living in western Italy more than twenty-five hundred years ago. The Latini, and their successors, the Romans, slowly extended their lands and their power until they gained control of all Italy, and finally of all the civilized world of those days. Their dominions reached from the Atlantic Ocean to Persia and from the Baltic Sea to the deserts of Africa, and their language was spoken wherever they ruled. For about six hundred years the Romans were the most powerful nation on the earth. Their history covers in all a period of twelve centuries; no nation has had a longer history.

Why Latin is studied. And now why is it that it is worth your while to study a language that is so many centuries old?

First, a knowledge of Latin helps you to use English more correctly. As more than half the words in the English language are of Latin origin, you yourself in a sense speak Latin to-day. There are the words of your everyday talk, like *animal*; there are the learned words, like *emancipate*; there are the terms of law, of medicine, and of the sciences, like *mandamus*, *delirium*, and *antennae*; and there are the words which are newly come into use, like *tractor*. If you study Latin, you will be helped to know the meaning of many of these words, how to spell them, and how to use them correctly; all of which is quite worth your while, particularly if you are intending to enter one of the professions.

Again, the study of Latin will train your mind. Latin is somewhat unlike English in the form of its words and much

unlike English in the order of the words in its sentences. You will therefore be obliged to look carefully, and to think carefully, and to speak carefully whenever you try to read and to translate anything written in Latin. But this close attention will do good to your mind: it will train your powers of observation, of clear thinking, and of clear expression; in fact, no other subject that you study in school can do as much for you as can Latin toward developing these desirable powers.

Furthermore, the reading of Latin will add to your information. If you are to be a well-informed person, you will need to know something about Rome and the Romans, and what they have meant in the history of the world; and in no other way can you better come to know and to appreciate the literature, the life, the customs, and the civilization of the Romans than by the faithful study of their language and of the things written in that language.

How to study Latin. 1. Never allow yourself to think that Latin is not worth your best efforts or that it is too hard for you. Industry and confidence will bring you success in this study.

2. Have a fixed hour each day for the study of your Latin. If possible, prepare your lesson for to-morrow immediately after reciting the lesson of to-day. Your interest will then be greater and your mind better fitted to grasp the subject.

3. Learn each day's lesson with thoroughness. Neglect no part of the lesson even if it seems to you unimportant.

4. Before beginning a new lesson recall what you have already learned about the subject to be taught in the new lesson. For example, if you are about to study a new use of one of the cases, recall all the uses of that case which you have previously learned.

5. Review the vocabularies regularly. A knowledge of the meanings of the words will be a great saving of time to you, as well as a constant encouragement. Aim to know every word

you have met, and to this end keep lists of words about the meaning of which you are doubtful.

6. Recite the declensions and the conjugations by yourself aloud. It will help you to remember them, and you will make better recitations. Read the Latin sentences aloud each day.

7. Go over the new lesson slowly, and thus avoid mistakes in the spelling of words, in their endings, and in the explanation of Latin constructions.

8. Recall your English grammar when you are learning Latin constructions; most of the Latin usages that you will learn in your first year are like English usages.

9. Study the lessons as a whole. Then go back to special difficulties. Go over the lesson again just before the recitation and consider the troublesome parts.

Map showing the ROMAN EMPIRE *at its greatest extent*

INTRODUCTION

ALPHABET

1. The Latin alphabet has no *j* or *w*. Otherwise it is the same as the English.

2. The vowels are **a, e, i, o, u.** The other letters are consonants.

3. The letter **i** is used both as a vowel and as a consonant. Before a vowel in the same syllable it has the force of a consonant and is called **i**-*consonant*. Thus in **iaciō**, *I throw*, the first **i** is a consonant, and the second a vowel.

SOUNDS OF THE LETTERS[1]

4. The vowels are either long or short. In this book the long vowels are marked (-); unmarked vowels are to he regarded as short. The vowels are sounded as follows:

ā like the last *a* in *aha!*	**ă** like the first *a* in *aha!*
ē like *e* in *they*	**ĕ** like *e* in *met*
ī like *i* in *machine*	**ĭ** like *i* in *pin*
ō like *o* in *note*	**ŏ** like *o* in *obey*
ū like *oo* in *boot*	**ŭ** like *oo* in *foot*

5. The diphthongs are sounded as follows:

ae like *ai* in *aisle*	**eu** like *eu* in *feud*
au like *ou* in *our*	**oe** like *oi* in *boil*
ei like *ei* in *eight*	**ui** like *we*

[1] Latin is pronounced to-day substantially as it was pronounced by the Romans at the beginning of the Christian era.

6. The consonants generally have the same sound as the corresponding consonants in English. But there are the following exceptions:

c is like *c* in *come*
g is like *g* in *get*
i-consonant is like *y* in *yet*
s is like *s* in *sun*
t is like *t* in *time*
v is like *w* in *wine*
x is like *x* in *extra*
bs and **bt** are like *ps* and *pt*
ch is like *k* in *kite*
gu, **qu**, and sometimes **su** before a vowel are like *gw*, *qw*, and *sw* (*u* is not counted as a vowel)
ph is like *p*
th is like *t*

When a consonant is doubled (as **ll**), it should be pronounced twice.

EXERCISE IN PRONUNCIATION

7. 1. sum, tum. 2. cum, dum. 3. ad, id. 4. in, an. 5. at, et, ut. 6. hic, hīc, hāc. 7. hōc, hūc. 8. hoc, num. 9. is, bis, īs. 10. dīc, dūc. 11. fac, fer. 12. aut, hae. 13. ē, ā, ī. 14. ex, ab, ob. 15. dō, dā, dē. 16. pāx, dux. 17. nox, vōx. 18. pars, sōl. 19. trēs, mōs. 20. quō, quā. 21. iūs, qui. 22. quae, quīn. 23. quis, sē. 24. mē, tē. 25. gēns, sīc. 26. vel, vir, iam.

SYLLABLES

8. A syllable consists of a vowel or a diphthong with or without one or more consonants. Hence a word has as many syllables as it has vowels and diphthongs: **ō-ce′-a-nus**, *ocean*.

9. When a word is divided into syllables, a single consonant between two vowels is joined with the vowel following: **lā-ti-tū′-dō**, *width*.

10. If there are two or more consonants between two vowels, the first is pronounced with the preceding vowel: **im-mor-tā′-lis**, *immortal*.

But a consonant followed by **l** or **r** is pronounced with the **l** or **r**, except in **ll** and **rr**: **pū'-bli-cus**, *public*; when **ll** or **rr** occurs, one **l** or one **r** is joined to the preceding syllable, and the other to the following syllable: **ter'-ra**, *land*.

Compound words are divided in such a way as to show the component parts: **ab'-est** (**ab**, *away*, + **est**, *he is*), *he is away*.

11. The last syllable of a word is called the *ultima*; the one next to the last, the *penult*; the one before the penult, the *antepenult*.

12. A vowel is generally short before another vowel or **h**: **pŏ-ē'-ma**, *poem*; **nĭ'-hil**, *nothing*.

13. A vowel is generally short before **nt** or **nd**, and before final **m** or final **t**: **vo'-cănt**, *they call*; **vo-cā'-băm**, *I was calling*.

14. A vowel is long before **nf** or **ns**: **a'-māns**, *loving*.

15. A vowel resulting from the contraction of two vowels is long: **cō'-gō** (**co-agō**), *I bring together*.

16. The quantity of vowels other than those mentioned in the preceding sections must be learned by observation.

QUANTITY OF SYLLABLES

17. A syllable is *long by nature* when it contains a long vowel or a diphthong: **vic-tō'-ri-a**, *victory*; **prae'-mi-um**, *reward*.

18. A syllable is *short by nature* when it does not contain a long vowel or a diphthong: **o-pī'-ni-ō**, *opinion*.

19. A syllable is *long by position* when it has a short vowel followed by **x** or **z**, or by two or more consonants, unless these two consonants are **p**, **b**, **t**, **d**, **c**, **g**, followed by **l** or **r**; but the short vowel is still pronounced short: **dē-trī-men'-tum**, *loss*.

ACCENT

20. Words of two syllables have the accent on the first syllable: **pa'-ter**, *father.*

21. Words of more than two syllables have the accent on the penult when it is long, otherwise on the antepenult: **dē-mōn-strā'-re**, *to point out*; **ce-le'-ri-tās**, *swiftness*; **ē-ven'-tus**, *outcome* (cf. 19).

22. Several words, of which the commonest are **-ne**, the sign of a question, and **-que**, *and*, are appended to other words. The words so appended are known as enclitics. The words to which they are appended are accented on the syllable preceding the enclitic, whether that syllable is long or short: **a-mat'-ne?** *does he love?* **ar-mā'-que**, *and arms.*

EXERCISE IN ACCENT AND PRONUNCIATION

23. Divide the following words into syllables, state the rule for the accent, and then pronounce:

1. dividunt, appellāre
2. īnstitūtīs, differēbāmus
3. hūmānitāte, prōvinciā
4. longus, animōs
5. importābunt, bellum
6. causīs, praecēdō
7. fīnis, prohibitus
8. initiō, persuāserāmus
9. tempora, magistrātuum
10. frāternus, conloquium

24. The following Latin version of "Twinkle, Twinkle, Little Star" may be used for practice in pronunciation, and for illustration of the preceding statements about syllables, accent, etc.:

MICĀ, MICĀ

Micā, micā, parva stella!
Mīror quaenam sīs, tam bella!
Splendēns ēminus in illō,
Alba velut gemma, caelō.

Quandō fervēns Sōl discessit,
Nec calōre prāta pāscit,
Mox ostendis lūmen pūrum,
Micāns, micāns per obscūrum.

Tibi noctū quī vagātur
Ob scintillulam grātātur;
Nī micārēs tū, nōn sciret
Quās per viās errāns īret.

Meum saepe thalamum lūce
Speculāris cūriōsā;
Neque carpseris sopōrem
Dōnec vēnit Sōl per auram.

THE ARCH OF TITUS, SHOWING A ROMAN INSCRIPTION