Chapter Two: Vitæ rustica

Chapter topics:

I. Vitæ Rustica
II. Picturae verbaque
III. Subject and direct object; nominative and accusative cases
IV. Understanding sentence structure
V. Verbs
VI. Singular and plural
VII. Reading notes
VIII. Reading and analysis
IX. Vocabulary
X. Biological nomenclature

Approaching this chapter:

• As always, the vocabulary section is near the end, but if you want to begin the chapter with a sense of the vocabulary rather than first meeting it in the translation sentences and exercises, you can begin there.

• The final section of the chapter focuses on biological nomenclature, using some of the Latin vocabulary from this chapter. If you are in the sciences, particularly biology, you might want to read this early and bear it in mind as you study, to help consolidate your disciplines.

I. Vitæ rustica Rural Life

We have seen how different from ours the material culture of the Romans was. The same is true for many of the activities that made up the daily life, vitæ quotidiæna, of the average Roman. This vitæ quotidiæna gave rise to the Romans’ world view, shaping their expectations of what constituted normal life and reasonable behavior. Even when the Roman Republic expanded and became an Empire, and even when the centrality of farming lifestyle gave way to more urban society, Romans retained an image of themselves as a nation of upright, hardworking, valiant farmers at heart.

In fact, most Roman citizens at any given time in history were farmers, living in the country, usually in small towns, and making all or a substantial part of their livelihood by working the land. Agrae, agrum is the Latin word for land under cultivation, i.e. a field. It could also be used to mean a farm, the land that was worked by a family and handed down from generation to generation. The English word family comes from familia, -ae f., but this word has a different meaning in Latin. The Roman familia is a household: a familia was made up of the related members of a family (possibly three or more generations, rather than our nuclear family of parents and children), and any slaves, live-in workers or other household members. It was part geographical, in that the people actually living in a farming household were part of the familia, but it also included the hereditary members wherever they were. Each Roman familia might be a little different, reflecting different family history, levels of prosperity, and so on.

The word meaning to cultivate; as in cultivating a field, was colō, colae, coli, cultum (this dictionary form will be explained in this chapter). colō could also mean worship. The Romans felt that the appropriate way to honor their deities was by scrupulous attention to religious practice like daily prayers and libations, rather than by professions of belief; perhaps daily
attention to the land and to the gods led to this shared meaning of *colō*. Our word agriculture comes from the combination of *ager* and *colō (cultus)*. And our word cult comes from *colō* as well.

What people grew on their farms depended on where they lived, since different conditions led to success with different crops. A “typical” Roman farm would include some orchard crops and some grain crops, plus a vegetable and herb garden near the house. The most important orchard crop was the olive (*ōlïva, olïva, --ae ae*), which provided oil for cooking and for lamps. (Olive oil could also be scented for perfume.) The fat it provided to the diet was valuable in hard times—in our culture, with an excess of calories available, fat is a negative, but for farmers who lived closer to the edge, abundance of calories was a safety net. Other orchard crops were figs (*fïcus, (fïcus, --ï  ï* and apples (*mälum, mälum, --ï  ï*). *Mälum* could also be used to describe similar fruit, such as peaches or apricots. The general term for fruit was *pöma sunt mätüra* used for all orchard crops—you might say, *pöma sunt mätüra* the orchard fruits are ripe. Grapes (*uva, uva, --ae ae*), a bunch of grapes) were grown more for wine (*vinum, vïnum, --ï  ï*) than for eating.

Land availability was always a problem, since Italy had been heavily populated for generations, and the population kept increasing. Usually, orchards would be planted with the trees so far apart that grain crops (*frïmentum, frïmentum* like wheat or barley could be planted between the rows. Since *agrï* (farms) were small, this intensive land use made them more profitable, and also offset the fact that some crops, notably *olïva* were much better every other year. Over time, fields that were grown intensively (not interspersed with orchards) could become less fertile and lose their productivity. This meant that fields planted with *frïmentum* had to be unused every other year (“lie fallow”) to recover. One problem for farmers was keeping their fields productive and healthy. For that they needed fertilizer, and the best fertilizer was manure (*fïnum, fïnum, --ï  ï*). In fact, providing sufficient *fïnum* to fertilize was one of the vital contributions of farm animals. It’s hard to imagine a shortage of *fïnum* in these days of massive hog farms, but getting enough was an issue for Romans who were farming fields that had been worked for generations. One Roman farming manual has elaborate instructions for collecting good quality manure from henhouses.

Typical farm animals were the chicken — rooster (*gillus, gillus, --ï ï*), and hen (*gllïna, gallïna, --ae  ae*). The milk of goats, sheep and cows was used more for making cheese than for drinking, and goat milk was the most popular. Oxen were very desirable for plowing but for most farmers, if they had a plow animal, it would most likely be a donkey (*asinus, asinus, --ï  ï*); a few might keep a horse (*equus, equus, --ï ï*), which was a good animal for travel, either riding it or having it pull a cart. Cows, sheep and goats were also managed by specialist farmers (pastoralists) in large herds, moving them seasonally to distant pastures, and sometimes using uncultivated public land. Ordinary small farmers who kept animals had to pen them carefully, to prevent these grazing animals from destroying the crops that were the main focus of farming.

Some farmers lived out in the countryside (*rus rurïsn*), in self-contained estates that align with our modern ideas of farming life. But ordinary farmers usually lived in a house in a small town (*oppidum, oppidum, --ï  nï  n*), and walked out to their fields every day, even though it might be a considerable distance. (This pattern remained in force in Italy until this century.) The safety and community of these towns was apparently worth the extra effort. Associated with the house was a garden plot called a *hortus, hortus, --ï  ï*. This plot, which could be tended by all members of the family but was probably under the management of the *fëmina*, was an important source of food for the table—vegetables and herbs. It might also provide some extras, which could be sold or profit at the local market. (Excavations from the resort town of Pompeii show that even the homes of wealthy aristocrats had *hortï*, which provided produce and possibly extra income.)
Gender roles were well defined. In a farming family, the *fēmina* (woman or wife) stayed near the house (*casa, æae*); almost all married women would have children, so a home-centered life was a necessity. The *fēmina* cared for the children, of course, but also took care of the food preparation (including tending the fire, preserving harvested food, and usually baking her own bread). Women also spun and wove raw wool into garments, a very time-consuming task. The *fēmina* probably also oversaw the tending of the *hortus* from which she would have taken vegetables and herbs for her cooking. Water (*aqua, æae*) was a necessity, but almost no one had a water source in their home, so the women of the *familia* had to walk to the nearest fountain or stream and carry back water in large pots for their household use. This was very hard work, but the fountain was also the center of women's social life, and was a big element in women's role in maintaining a network of family and community support. At the fountain they would have shared advice and information, and arranged the exchange of special abilities like medical and midwife expertise, and other skills necessary in rural life.

The farmer himself (*agricola, æae mm*) was responsible for the physically demanding work of plowing, both for sowing the year's crop, and for maintaining the fallow fields in good condition. Usually, he would repair and maintain his own tools and keep his house in good repair. He was responsible for orchestrating the aspects of farm life that required outside help. When crops were ready for harvest, or when orchard crops (*pōma, n. pl.*) were ripe, the *agricola* was responsible for getting the harvest in and organizing the labor, by family and possibly by friends and hired laborers, that was necessary to get the job done. Because it was considered more appropriate for women not to participate in "public" life, men would usually manage commercial interactions like selling extra produce in the forum (*forum, i n*), though women might also participate. As the *fēmina* maintained community ties in her way, the *agricola* kept an eye on local politics and shared information and opinions on issues that could affect his family.

II. Picturae verbaque

* A masculine first declension word – very unusual.
Chapter Two

III. Subject and Direct Object; Nominative and Accusative Cases

Subject: In a sentence, the subject is the person (or thing) doing the action:
- caper in hortō stat: The goat is standing in the garden. *caper* is the subject, because it is the one doing the action (standing).

In Latin, the subject and words describing it are in the nominative case:
- *caper* is nominative.
- *fēmina* ē fenestrā spectat: The woman looks out the window; *fēmina* is the subject, so it is nominative.

Direct Object: Some (but not all) sentences also have direct objects. A direct object is the person (or thing) which receives the action:
- fēmina aquam portat: The woman carries the water. The woman (*fēmina*) is the subject, because she is doing the action of carrying. The water (*aquam*), the thing carried, is the direct object.
- Gaius stilum tenet: Gaius is holding a pen. *Gaius* is the subject, because he is doing the action of holding. *stilum*, the thing he holds, is the direct object.

In Latin, direct objects are accusative:
- *fēmina* ē fenestrā spectat: The woman looks out the window; *fēmina* is the subject, so it is nominative.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>quid est? est vir.</th>
<th>quid est? est puer.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>caper in hortō stat: The goat is standing in the garden. caper is the subject, because it is the one doing the action (standing).</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fēmina ē fenestrā spectat: The woman looks out the window; fēmina is the subject, so it is nominative.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quid est? est capra.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quid est? est cibus. (viri et fēminae cibum edunt)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>quid facit puer? cibum portat.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>III. Subject and Direct Object; Nominative and Accusative Cases</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

| quid est? . . . est fēmina. |
| quid est? . . . est sella. |
| quid est? . . . est mensa. |
| virī et fēminae prope mensam sedent. familia cibum edit. |

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1 A very few verbs have a direct object which is dative; this will be discussed in a later chapter.
• *fēmina öum tenet*. The woman is holding an egg. *öum* is the direct object, with an accusative case ending.

• *vir öum edit*. The man eats an olive. *öum* is the direct object, with an accusative case ending.

**Review paradigm** nominative and accusative singular forms for first and second declension.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>First declension</th>
<th>Second declension</th>
<th>Second declension</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>masculine</td>
<td>neuter</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nominative</td>
<td><em>fēmina</em></td>
<td><em>mūr-us</em> (liber)</td>
<td><em>tect-um</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>accusative</td>
<td><em>fēminam</em></td>
<td><em>mūr-um</em></td>
<td><em>tect-um</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Practicum Accusative/ Direct Object** For each of the following sentences, (a) underline the accusative case (the direct object) and (b) translate the sentence:

1. magistra librum tenet. ______________________________________________
2. bestia gallōnam edit. ______________________________________________
3. puella aquam portat. ______________________________________________
4. magistra librum legit. ______________________________________________
5. fēmina pomum edit.  ______________________________________________
6. agricola frumentum cūrat. __________________________________________

**Roman Proverb**

*asinus* is the subject, and *asinum* is the direct object. *fricat* is the verb, of course, so even without knowing what it means, you can tell that a donkey _______s a donkey. Our word *friction* derives from *fricat* - it means rubs. Literally: donkey rubs donkey. It has the same sense as the English “you scratch my back, I’ll scratch yours” or “One hand washes the other” – meaning. People who are alike or have similar interests, take care of each other – with a somewhat negative connotation.

**IV. Understanding sentence structure**

Latin’s use of case endings rather than word order to show meaning in sentences is counter-intuitive for most English speakers. For that reason, it pays to try to understand Latin sentences more analytically, to help develop your sense of how Latin works.

**Word order vs. case endings**

One of the main sticking points for English speakers learning Latin, is the difference in how our languages distinguish who is doing what in a sentence.
English uses word order. Latin uses case endings (though there is a “typical” word order which is very often used). Some examples:

- **English**: The man sees the woman. Word order rules. “The man” comes first in the sentence, so it is subject and “the man” is doing the action. The verb is in the middle. The comes “the woman” – it comes after the verb, so “the woman” is the direct object, the one seen.

- **Latin**: *vir fēminam videt.* Case endings rule. *vir* is the subject, because it’s nominative. *fēminam* is accusative, as the -am tells you, so it is the direct object. The verb comes at the end.

- **English**: If you change the word order, you change the meaning. If you say, the woman sees the man, you have made “the woman” the subject, and “the man” the direct object – simply by putting “the woman” in front of the verb, and “the man” after it. The words themselves have not changed.

- **Latin**: if you reverse the word order and say *ffēminam vir videt*, the sentence still means, the man sees the woman. The case endings are the important thing, so as long as *vir* is nominative and *fēminam* is accusative, the meaning will not change. If you want to say the woman sees the man, you have to make *fēminam* nominative by giving it a nominative ending, and make *vir* accusative by giving it an accusative ending: *fēminā virum videt*.  

- **Note**: When Latin word order varies, sometimes it is just for variety, but often it is to add emphasis. Usually the subject comes first: If you say *vir fēminam videt* that is normal, no special emphasis implied. But if you say *ffēminam vir videt*, putting something other than the subject first, you are emphasizing that it was a woman he saw (not, for example, a goat or a tree).

**Practicum Accusative / Direct Object**: (Same structure as the last practicum, but focus on word order): For each of the following sentences, (a) underline the accusative case (the direct object) and (b) translate the sentence:

7. *fēmina hortum cūrat.* ______________________________________________

8. *librum agricola tenet.* ______________________________________________

9. *galīnam puella portat.* ______________________________________________

10. *magistra övum edit.* ______________________________________________

11. *mälum puer videt.* ______________________________________________

**Practicum Forming Sentence**: The word lists below contain two nouns and a verb. (a) Choose which noun you want to be the subject of the sentence, then (b) keep the subject nominative, make the other noun accusative to be the direct object, and put the verb at the end. Note: keep the meanings of the words in mind; some potential sentences are better than others . . .

1. *magistra/ puella/ videt* ______________________________________________

2. *liber/ puer/ tenet* ______________________________________________

3. *fēmina/ tenet/ vir* ______________________________________________
4. agricola gallus videt ____________________________

5. agricola sella videt ____________________________
Sentence elements:

**Verb (abbreviation: V):** All sentences have a verb, to show the action.
- *vir in sella sedet*: The man sits in a chair
- *sede*: He sits

**Subject (S):** Subjects are often stated in Latin sentences.
- *capra in agrum currit*: The goat runs into the field.
- But they don't have to be
  - *in agrum currit*: He/ she/ it runs into the field.

**Subject complement (SC):** A subject complement describes or renames the subject:
- *puella est pulchra*: The girl is beautiful.
- *fëmina est magistra*: The woman is a teacher.

**Prepositional Phrase (PP):** A preposition followed by the word(s) it governs:
- *puer per casam currit*: The boy runs through the house.

**Direct Object (DO):** The person or thing that receives the action of the sentence
- *agricola caprum curat*: The farmer cares for the goat.

Not all sentences have all these elements.

**Practicum Sentence Elements**
Identify the underlined elements of the following sentences by writing the correct abbreviation underneath them:

- *V = Verb*
- *S = Subject*
- *SC = Subject Complement*
- *PP = Prepositional Phrase*
- *DO = Direct Object*

(ex) *vir per agros ad casam ambulat.*  

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>V</th>
<th>PP</th>
<th>PP</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>S</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. *fëmina est magistra*

2. *puer caprum portat.*

3. *agricola per agrum ambulat.*

4. *puella mälum edit.*

5. *sella in solö stat.*
Translate the following passage. (Words you have not yet had are asterisked; make your best guess.)

in agrō, agricola diligenter* labórat. māne* ad agrum ambulat et in agrō labórat. fēmina in casā manet et in casā labórat. hortus prope casam est, itaque fēmina in hortō quoque labórat.

_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

The next section has some plurals, which are italicised. You can look ahead to the plurals explanation before reading it, or just give it a shot now.

fēmina quoque gallīscūrat. ēva colligit et cibum parat. equus in agrō habitat prope casam. equus in agrō labórat. agricola frūmentum colit; quoque olivās et fīcōs cūrat. virī, fēminae et pueri olivās et fīcōs colligunt.

_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________
_____________________________________________________________________

V. Verbs

Dictionary Form for Verbs

In Chapter One we learned that nouns have dictionary forms that give information about their declension (and are therefore keys to the system of using noun forms).

Verbs also have a distinctive, four-part dictionary form which gives you information about the changes verbs go through. The four parts are called principle parts of the verb.

• portō, -āre, -āvī, -ātus
  • portō means I carry. It is present tense, first person singular (“I”)
  • portāre means to carry. It is the present tense infinitive (infinitives mean “to ___”)
  • portāvī means I carried. It is perfect tense (past tense), first person singular.
  • portātus means (having been) carried. It is the perfect passive participle. (We will not be using this form much this semester, but since it is important in some English and scientific vocabulary, we will be learning it anyway.)
Practicum: Principle Parts

Following the model of porto above, give the meanings of the following verb forms:

- teneo I hold
- tenere __________________________
- tenui __________________________
- tentus __________________________
- curo I care for
- curare __________________________
- curavi __________________________
- curatus __________________________

Note: There are two Practicum exercises following the vocabulary section, which may help with principle parts. You may want to do those now, especially if vocabulary is becoming an issue.

Verb Conjugations: Latin verbs fall into five different types, called conjugations. Like noun declensions, verb conjugations are essentially spelling groups. At issue is mainly which vowels are used in each conjugation's forms.

You can distinguish a verb's conjugation from the first two elements of its dictionary form. You have to pay attention to small differences, but once you know the system, it applies to almost every verb.

- **First conjugation: porto, -are**
  - Identifying characteristics:
    - plain -o on the end of the first part,
    - -are as the second part.

- **Second conjugation: teno, -ere**
  - Identifying characteristics:
    - -e on the end of the first part,
    - -ere with a macron over the first e on the second part.

- **Third conjugation: colo, -ere**
  - Identifying characteristics:
    - plain -o on the end of the first part,
    - -ere with no macron as the second part.

- **Thirdo conjugation: faco, -ere**
  - Identifying characteristics:
    - -io on the end of the first part,
    - -ere with no macron as the second part.

- **Fourth conjugation: vero, -ire**
  - Identifying characteristics:
    - -io on the end of the first part,
    - -ire as the second part.
Chapter Two

**The same information, in chart form**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th></th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>portā, portāre</td>
<td>tenē, tenēre</td>
<td>colō, colere</td>
<td>facē, facere</td>
<td>venī, venīre</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Note**: First and Fourth conjugation words can be distinguished by their second part alone (\(-āre\), \(-ēre\)); Second can too, if you watch macrons (\(-ē\)). With Third and Third –io, you need both parts to distinguish.

**Practicum: Conjugations** Following the explanation of conjugation distinctions above, label the words listed below with their correct conjugation. (You haven’t seen some of these verbs before, though you will soon.)

| 1. fugīō, -ēre |
| 2. currō, -ēre |
| 3. dormīō, -ēre |
| 4. collīgō, -ēre |
| 5. venīō, -ēre |
| 6. accedō, -ēre |
| 7. vivō, -ēre |
| 8. lūceō, -ēre |
| 9. laborō, -ēre |
| 10. movēō, -ēre |
| 11. debēō, -ēre |
| 12. temptō, -ēre |
| 13. festīnō, -ēre |
| 14. cadō, -ēre |
| 15. volvō, -ēre |

Why conjugations? **Conjugations give you a piece of information you need to know to speak & write Latin: which vowel to use before the personal endings.**

The personal ending stays the same: -t always indicates that “he, she or it” is doing the action. But different vowels are used for the different conjugations. This paradigm shows the third person singular endings (s/he, it) for all five conjugations (we will learn the other personal endings in chapter 3):

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>curat, s/he cares for</td>
<td>sedet, s/he sits</td>
<td>legēt, s/he reads</td>
<td>facēt, s/he makes</td>
<td>venit, s/he comes</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Practicum: Verb Forms** Give the s/he form of these words and their English meanings. (Step one: which conjugation is the verb? Step 2: which vowel is used?)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>3rd singular form</th>
<th>English meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ex portō, -āre</td>
<td>portat</td>
<td>s/he carries (is carrying)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. edō, -ēre</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. videō, -ēre</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. facīō, -ēre</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. labörö, -äre
5. audiö, -äre
6. legö, -äre
7. manö, -äre

VI. Singular and Plural

**Singular means one (of something), plural means more than one.** In English:
- horse is singular
- horses is plural

**English** most commonly makes plurals by adding an -s, though there are exceptions (such as woman, women).

In Latin, as you might expect by now, the ending of a word shows whether it is singular or plural.
- *fëmn* (woman); *fëmner* (women)
- *equ* (horse); *equ* (horses)

**Each declension has its own singular and plural endings.** These paradigms show nominative, accusative and ablative endings, singular and plural, by declension. (Second declension neuter variations are shown).

**First declension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom</td>
<td>fëmn-a</td>
<td>fëmn-ae</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc</td>
<td>fëmn-am</td>
<td>fëmn-äs</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl</td>
<td>fëmn-ä</td>
<td>fëmn-ïs</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Second declension**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>(Neuter)</th>
<th>Plural</th>
<th>(Neuter)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Nom</td>
<td>hort-us</td>
<td>öv-um</td>
<td>hort-i</td>
<td>öv-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acc</td>
<td>hort-um</td>
<td>←</td>
<td>hort-ös</td>
<td>öv-a</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Abl</td>
<td>hort-ö</td>
<td>←</td>
<td>hort-is</td>
<td>←</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**(Note Left Arrow.** With the second declension forms, the neuter variations are only given when they are different from the masculine forms. If you see a left arrow, then the neuter form is the same as the masculine form.)
**Cases in singular and plural:** From the paradigm above, you notice that every case has a singular and a plural form. This is because singular or plural words can be the subject, direct object, object of a preposition, etc., in a sentence.

- *in hortō,* in the garden (ablative singular)
- *in hortīs,* in the gardens (ablative plural)

**Practicum Singular and Plural:** Change the singular words of each case into the plural of the same case. Be careful about declension and gender – each block has a 1st declension feminine word, a 2nd decl. masculine word, and a 2nd decl. neuter word.

**Nominative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular form</th>
<th>Plural Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>equus</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mālum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gallīna</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Accusative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular form</th>
<th>Plural Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>capram</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hortum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Övum</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Ablative**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular form</th>
<th>Plural Form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tectō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fenestrā</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stilō</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Singular and plural verbs. Latin verbs change their endings to reflect the subject of the sentence. When the subject is plural, the verb ending is also plural.

The 3rd person singular ending is -t, the 3rd person plural ending is -nt:
- *curr*it, he runs, *currunt* they run.
- *vid*it, s/he sees, *vident* they see.

**Practicum Singular and Plural Verbs** Translate the following 3rd person verbs, using “he / she” or “they” as the subject depending on whether it is singular or plural:

1. laborant _______________________________
2. habitat _______________________________
3. tenet ________________________________
4. veniunt _______________________________
5. legit ________________________________
6. portant _______________________________

Which vowel:
As we saw when we studied the singular form, the conjugation of the verb makes a difference in the vowel used before the ending.
- **1st conjugation** (portō, -āre): uses -a for both singular and plural
  - *port*it, he carries, *portant* they carry
- **2nd conjugation** (tenō, -ēre): uses -e for both singular and plural
  - *ten*it, she holds, *tenant* they hold
- **3rd conjugation** (edō, -ēre) uses -i for singular, -u for plural
  - *ed*it, he is eating, *edunt* they are eating
- **3rd conjugation** (capiō, -ēre): uses -i for singular, -iu for plural
  - *capit* he catches, *capiunt* they catch
- **4th conjugation** (veniō, -ire): uses -i for singular, -iu for plural
  - *venit* he is coming, *veniunt* they are coming

**Practicum Verb plurals** Fill in the chart with the requested form of the word given. (If you have a singular, give a plural, and if you have a plural, give a singular).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>conj.</th>
<th>singular</th>
<th>meaning</th>
<th>plural</th>
<th>meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>capit</td>
<td>he catches</td>
<td>capiunt</td>
<td>they catch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>curat</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>colit</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Practicum Agreement in the sentence

In each sentence, make the subject plural, and rewrite the sentence. (Step one: find the subject and give it the correct plural form for its declension. Step 2: make the verb plural, so it will agree, making sure you have the correct vowel for its conjugation.) As always, be ready to go over these sentences in class.

1. fēmina mēla colligit. _________________________________________________
2. puer fimum in agrōs portat. ____________________________________________
3. asinus in agrō labōrat. __________________________________________________
4. agricola equum e agrō ducit. _____________________________________________
5. formīca in casam venit. _________________________________________________

Practicum Singular to Plural

(a) Rewrite the sentence, changing the underlined words to the plural form, and making any other necessary changes, then (b) translate the underlined phrase in its plural form. (Note: if a subject is underlined, you must also change the verb!)

1. puella cum fēminä ambulat.  (a) __________________________________________
   (b) __________________________
2. formīca per agrum currit.  (a) ____________________________________________
   (b) __________________________
3. formīca per agrum currit. (a) ____________________________________________
   (b) __________________________
4. vir olīväs colligit. (a) ____________________________________________________
   (b) __________________________
5. puella olīvam edit. (a) __________________________________________________
   (b) __________________________
6. puer övum edit. (a) _____________________________________________________
   (b) __________________________

VII. Reading notes:
(1) -que

-que means and. It is used almost interchangeably with et. -que attaches to the end of the second word in the elements linked. Examples:
- galli et gūnae per hortum currunt, Roosters and hens are running through the garden.
- galli gūnae per hortum currunt, same meaning as above.
- agicola ad agrum ambulat et labōrat, The farmer walks to the field and works.
- agicola ad agrum ambulat labōratque, same meaning as above.
Practicum -que

If the sentence below has *et*, rewrite it using *-que* and if it has *-que*, rewrite it using *et*.

1. *puer et puella in herbä sedent.* _________________________________________
2. *femina pomum tenet editque.* __________________________________________
3. *bestiae in agrum veniunt et herbam edunt.* ________________________________

(2) *alius -a -ud*

*alius, alia, aliud* is an adjective, a word that describes nouns. (We will study adjectives as a whole in Chapter Three.) It means another (singular) or other (plural). Like all adjectives, its endings change to reflect the noun it agrees with.

- *alia puella in scholam intrat,* another girl enters the school.
- *magister cum aliis viris ad forum venit,* the teacher comes to the forum with the other men.

(3) *sed* and *tamen*

*sed* and *tamen* are both conjunctions, words that join sentence elements. Their meanings are similar:

- *sed* means *but*
- *tamen* means *however*

They are used differently, in that *sed* is usually the first word of its clause, but *tamen* cannot be the first word of its clause.

**Lucius in agrō labōrat; sed Tertia in casā manet.** Lucius works in the field, but Tertia stays at home.

**Lucius in agrō labōrat; Tertia* *tamen in casā manet.** Lucius works in the field; Tertia, however, stays at home.

(4) *ā/ab (+abl.) and *ad (+acc.)*

These two prepositions have similar forms but opposite meanings:

- *ā/ab* means away from: *caprae ab hortō currunt,* The nanny-goats are running away from the garden.
- *ad* means to or toward: *puella ad forumambulat,* The girl walks to the forum.

Some people find it helpful to use a mnemonic (memory trick), such as:

- *ad* = to, and in English, you add something to something else
- *ā/ab* means away from, and in chemistry you abstract something from something else, or abstract thought is a step away from concrete things.

(5) Similar words

As in any language, some words (such as *habē,-āre* have, and *habitō,-āre* live/dwell) are similar while having different meanings. How you deal with these depends on your favored learning strategies. Some options...
• Note specific differences: train yourself to observe similar words when you see them, and recognize the key difference (in this case, the -it in habitū);
• Use cognates to help you – learn the words with a memory prod like inhabit or habitat for habitū, and use that to check;
• Keep flexible and be ready to use context to key your recognition of the word you see as have or live.

VIII. Reading and Analysis. This passage describes the lives of a farm family. We will go over it in class so be ready to translate it or ask questions about unclear places. Analytical exercises follow the reading. Depending on your learning style, you may want to go over the analytical exercises before, while or after you read the passage.

Lucius est agricola, et Tertia est fēmina eius*. in casā parvā habitant, in oppidō, prope aliās casās. Lucius ad agrōs mane ambulat. cum aliis agricoliis ad agrōs venit et in agrō diligentē labōrat.

Tertia cum aliis fēminiis ad fontem* mane ambulat. fēminiæ aquam ad casās portant. in casā Tertia lanam* parat. deinde e casā venit et hortum cūrat. in casā nōn sunt fenestrae, et Tertia sape proper ianuam sedet dum labōrat. quoque in hortō sedet dum labōrat.

hodie* aliæ fēminiæ ad casam eius* ambulant; in sellis sedent dum colloquium* faciunt et lanam* parant. subitō* gallī in casam currunt; fēminiæ dāmant* et gallī e casā currunt. Lucius Tertiāque XXXII gallīnās habent. òva colliquent, ad oppidum veniunt et in forō ea* vendunt.*

agricola et fēmina II fīliōs* habent. puerī ad scholam veniunt; quoque in agrō labōrant. librōs legunt in scholā; domī* non legunt sed labōrant. puerī linum in agrō portant, ficōs olivāsque colligunt, aērum caprōsque cūrant, terram colunt, et cum Tertiā in hortō labōrant.

nocte* fēmina cibus parat; deinde lūcēm parat, et familia in casā sedet. omnēs* cibus edunt vīnumque habent. colloquium* faciunt, deinde dormiunt.

**Practicum Accusative.** These are the accusative words in paragraph 2. For each one, check whether it is the direct object, or the object of the preposition.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Word</th>
<th>Line</th>
<th>Type</th>
<th>Translation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>aquam</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>direct object</td>
<td>water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>casās</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>direct object</td>
<td>house</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lanam</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>direct object</td>
<td>wool</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hortum</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>direct object</td>
<td>garden</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ianuam</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>direct object</td>
<td>door</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Practicum: Direct Objects
List the direct objects in paragraph 3. (Note ea is one, but leave it out.)
1. _____________________________________
2. _____________________________________
3. _____________________________________
4. _____________________________________

Practicum: Sentence Elements
Label the sentences below with the appropriate abbreviations:
V = Verb; S = Subject; SC = Subject Complement; PP = Prepositional Phrase; DO = Direct Object

- pueri ad scholam veniunt
- libris legunt in schola

Practicum: Prepositional Phrases
Put parentheses around prepositional phrases (paragraph 3).

hodie aliae fæminæ ad casam eius ambulant; in sellis sedent dum colloquium faciunt et lanam parant. subitō galli in casam currunt; fæminæ clamant et galli ē casā currunt. Lucius Tertiaque XXXII gallinas habent. ëva colligunt, ad oppidum veniunt, et in forō ea vendiunt.
Here are some lines from paragraph 4 with words underlined. For each underlined word, give the Latin dictionary form and the meaning as used in the sentence. Note: be sure you are using the correct dictionary form for verbs, nouns, or “other words.”

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Latin Dictionary Form</th>
<th>English Meaning</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>5.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Roman saying: **ab œvō usquē māla**

A full Roman meal would often begin with an egg and conclude with fruit. **ab œvō usquē māla**, an expression we find in the poetry of Horace (1st c. BCE) is probably a typical saying reflecting this cultural pattern. It literally means, From the egg to the apples, and metaphorically means, start to finish.
IX. Vocabulary:

**Nouns**
- *ager, agri, m* | field, farm, countryside (especially, a cultivated field)
- *agricola, agricola, --ae ae* | farmer (note: first declension, but masculine – very unusual!)
- *aqua, aqua, --ae* | water
- *asìnus, asìnus, --ï ï* | donkey (or an ass – used literally and figuratively)
- *capra, capra, --ae ae* | female goat
- *capra, caprï, mm* | male goat (or, goats in general)
- *casa, casa, --ae ae* | house
- *cibus, cibus, --ï ï* | food
- *equus, equus, --ï ï* | horse
- *familia, familia, --ae ae* | household
- *fïcus, fïcus, --ï ï* | fig (common food in the Mediterranean)
- *formïca, formïca, --ae ae* | ant
- *frümentum, frümentum, --ï ï* | grain
- *gallus, gallus, --ï ï* | chicken (male), a rooster
- *gallïna, gallïna, --ae ae* | chicken (female), a hen
- *herba, herba, --ae f ae f* | grass; herb(s)
- *hortus, hortus, --ï ï* | garden
- *mälum, mälum, --ï ï* | apple (or other fruit)
- *olïva, olïva, --ae ae* | olive
- *oppidum, oppidum, --ï ï* | town
- *övum, övum, --ï ï* | egg
- *pömum, pömum, --ï ï* | apple fruit
- *pomum, pomum, --ï ï* | wine
- *vïna, vïna, --ae f* | life

**Verbs**
- *edö, edö, --ere, ëdï, ësumere, ëdï, ësum* | eat
- *colö, colö, --ere, coluï, cultusere, coluï, cultus* | till or cultivate; tend to; worship
- *colligö, colligö, --ere, collëgï, collectusere, collëgï, collectus* | collect, gather (a compound verb from legö)
- *cürö, cürö, --äre, äre, --ävï, ävï, --ätusätus* | care for
- *dücö, dücö, --ere, duxï, ductus ere, duxï, ductus* | lead
- *faciö, faciö, --ere, fëcï, factus ere, fëcï, factus* | do, make
- *habö, -äö, -äï, -äï* | live
- *habö, -äö, -äï, -äï* | have
- *labö, -äö, äï, äï* | work
- *legö, legö, --ëre, habuï, habitus ëre, habuï, habitus* | have
- *manö, -äö, meni, manus* | wait, stay
- *parö, parö, --äre, äre, --ävï, ävï, --ätusätus* | prepare
- *porto, porto, --äre, äre, --ävï, ävï, --ätusätus* | carry
- *venö, -äö, veli, velus* | come
- *videö, videö, --ëre, vïdï, vïsusëre, vïdï, vïsus* | see

**Other Words**
- *ä/ab (+ abl.)* | from, away from, by (prep.)
- *alia, aliud* | another; other (adj.)
- *deinde* | then (adv.)
- *dum* | while (conj.)
- *hic* | this, here (adv.)
- *itaque* | and so (adv.)
- *magnopere* | very (adv.)
- *--que* | and (conj.)
- *saepes* | often (adv.)
- *sed* | but (conj.)
- *tamen* | however (conj.)
Practicum: Organizing verb meaning

Fill in the blanks with verbs that fit into the categories described. Note: There will probably be some variation here—two different people could interpret these categories a little differently. I have included an extra blank or two in each, in case my ideas do not align with yours, so don’t feel every blank has to be filled.

List verbs that describe the following activities:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>A. Moving/Traveling</th>
<th>B. Staying still</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Perceiving/Sensing</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D. Farm work</td>
<td>E. Things you can do with food</td>
</tr>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Practicum: Third principle part

The dictionary form of verbs is not especially easy to learn; this exercise gives practice working with the third principle part, with its past tense meaning.

Give the Latin for the English meaning.
### X. Biological Nomenclature: The Survival of Latin in Scientific Usage

The system of biological classification used by scientists (and students) today was invented by Carl Linnaeus (or Carolus Linnaeus, to give his name its Latin form). Born in Sweden in 1707, he studied medicine at University, but was also fascinated by the natural world. At the age of 25, he took a break from his University studies and “headed an expedition to Lapland... travelling 4,600 miles and crossing the Scandinavian Peninsula by foot to the Arctic Ocean” (Linnaeus Society). Other expeditions followed. At age 28, he published his first book, *Systema Naturae* (*The System of Nature*; *naturae* is genitive, with an “of” meaning), in Latin of course, since Latin was the international language of science. In it, he classified plants by their sexual parts, a radical but effective system. He wrote two other books, *Fundamenta Botanica* (*Plant Basics*) and *Classes Plantarum* (*Varieties of Plants*; *plantarum* is genitive plural) in which he expanded on his system of classifying living things. He eventually became an influential professor, whose students continued working within his system, refining and developing it, and today the Linnaean system still provides the pattern for biological nomenclature.

Linnaeus’ system is based on giving a two-part name to every creature: a genus name and a species name. *Genus* is a Latin word: *genus, generi* (third declension; we will study the forms in chapter 4). Its definition is complex because its semantic field, its range of meanings, does not match up with any one English word. It can mean type, sort, race, offspring, origin, or descent—all ideas having to do with type and heredity. (The Romans, incidentally, used the term *genus hūmānūm* to mean human race.) *Species, spēdi* is another word with a complex semantic field. It often has to do with looks, meaning appearance, look, image, beauty—but it can also mean specific type, and that is how Linnaeus used it.
The Linnaean Society describes Linnaeus' contribution; Linnaeus did not invent binomial nomenclature. The use of such two-word names for species or for kinds within a group occurs in many languages and goes back to remote times. It is indeed the common practice in vernacular nomenclature. Linnaeus gave classification consistency and precision. He linked each of the specific names for everyday use with a descriptive name, which helped to identify the species concerned and limited the application of its two-word name to that one species. The general adoption by botanists and zoologists of this consistent two-word nomenclature for species during the second-half of the 18th century came about because Linnaeus introduced it in comprehensive works which naturalists soon found indispensable. (Linnaean Society)

Because the scientific language of the time was Latin, Latin was a logical choice for the scientific names of the animals and plants these 18th century scientists were describing. Not all scientific names are based on Latin, though; some are based on Greek, which was the language of international science in pre-Roman antiquity, and shared that honor with Latin even at the height of the Roman Empire. Scientific names, although they are often in Latin, are often in bad Latin, and often mix Greek and Latin elements. But knowing the Latin names of animals (and plants) often helps in recognizing what the biological name means.

Note: Sometimes scientists refer to the two-part scientific name as the “Latin name,” because usually at least part of it is in Latin (Greek is the other possibility). Don't be confused; this is not the actual Latin-language word for the plant/animal itself.

Practicum Scientific Name
The chart below lists some scientific names of common animals: bear, bee, chicken, cow, deer, dog, donkey, goat, goose, horned owl, horse and wolf. Working from your vocabulary and the list of extra Latin animal names on the next page, give the common name that matches the scientific name.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Scientific name</th>
<th>Animal (English)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gallus gallus</td>
<td>chicken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>equus caballus</td>
<td>horse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>equus asinus</td>
<td>donkey</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ovis aries</td>
<td>goat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>canis familiaris</td>
<td>dog</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>capra hircus</td>
<td>horse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>apis mellifera</td>
<td>bee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>anser anser</td>
<td>goose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>canis lupus</td>
<td>wolf</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bos taurus</td>
<td>cow</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ursus linnaeus</td>
<td>bear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>bubo bubo</td>
<td>horned owl</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Latin animal names:

- *anser, aneal* m/f *goose*

* These words are not part of your learning vocabulary.
apis, apis  f  bee
būs, bovis, m/f  ox, cow
bübo, bübōris  m  owl
caballus, -i  m  horse (Late Latin)
caris, caris  m/f  dog
lupus, lupi, m  wolf
taurus, -i  m  bull
ursus, -i  m  bear

Practicum: Vīta rustica

Write complete Latin sentences (containing verbs) to answer the questions below.

1. What sorts of work does a Roman agicola do around the farm?

_______________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________

2. What does the fēmina do while her husband works in the fields?

_______________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________

3. Describe the work the agicola and fēmina do together.

_______________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________
_______________________________________________________________________